Heat and Mass Transfer

Third Edition



P K NAG

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Heat and Mass Transfer, 3e

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Contents

Preface *vii*

1. Basic Concepts **1**

1.1 Thermodynamics and Heat Transfer *2*
1.2 Heat Conduction *3*
1.3 Convection Heat Transfer *14*
1.4 Combined Conduction and Convection *17*
1.5 Overall Heat Transfer Coefficient *21*
1.6 Radiation Heat Transfer *23*
1.7 Thermal Insulation *26*
1.8 Diffusion and Mass Transfer *28*
1.9 Units and Dimensions *31*
Solved Examples *31*
Summary *44*
Important Formulae and Equations *45*
Review Questions *47*
Objective Type Questions *48*
Answers *50*
Open Book Problems *50*
Problems for Practice *52*
References *54*

2. Conduction Heat Transfer at Steady State **55**

2.1 General Equation of Heat Conduction *55*
2.2 Steady Heat Conduction in Simple Geometries *64*
2.3 Critical Radius of Insulation *73*
2.4 Extended Surfaces *75*
2.5 Two- and Three-Dimensional Steady-state Heat Conduction *95*
2.6 Three-Dimensional Heat Conduction *107*
Solved Problems *109*
Summary *144*
Important Formulae and Equations *144*
Objective Questions *147*
Answers *150*
Open Book Problems *150*
Review Questions *152*
Problems for Practice *153*
References *157*

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3. Transient Heat Conduction **158**

3.1 Lumped Capacitance Method for Bodies of Infinite Thermal Conductivity *158*
3.2 Plane Wall with Convection *162*
3.3 Infinite Cylinder and Sphere with Convection *173*
3.4 Two- and Three-Dimensional Solutions of Transient Heat Conduction *182*
3.5 Semi-Infinite Solid *184*
3.6 Numerical and Graphical Methods *188*
3.7 Periodic Flow of Heat in one Dimension *194*
Solved Problems 202
Summary 228
Important Formulae and Equations 228
Objective Type Questions 228
Answers 230
Open Book Problems 230
Review Questions 232
Problems for Practice 233
References 236

4. Convection Heat Transfer: Forced Convection **237**

4.1 Boundary Layer Theory *237*
4.2 Conservation Equations of Mass, Momentum and Energy for Laminar Flow Over a Flat Plate *245*
4.3 Principle of Similarity Applied to Heat Transfer *251*
4.4 Evaluation of Convection Heat Transfer Coefficients *258*
4.5 Dimensional Analysis *259*
4.6 Analytic Solution for Laminar Boundary Layer Flow Over a Flat Plate *269*
4.7 Approximate Integral Boundary Layer Analysis *275*
4.3 Turbulent Flow Over a Flat Plate: Analogy between Momentum and Heat Transfer *282*
4.9 Reynolds Analogy for Turbulent Flow Over a Flat Plate *286*
4.10 Constant Heat Flux Boundary Condition *288*
4.11 Boundary Layer Thickness in Turbulent Flow *289*
4.12 Forced Convection Inside Tubes and Ducts *294*
4.13 Analysis of Laminar Forced Convection in a Long Tube *300*
4.14 Analysis of Couette Flow for Laminar Forced Convection *309*
4.15 Velocity Distribution in Turbulent Flow Through a Pipe *311*
4.16 Analogy between Heat and Momentum Transfer in Turbulent Flow *313*
4.17 Empirical Correlations *315*
4.18 Flow Across a Single Circular Cylinder: Forced Convection Over Exterior Surfaces *320*
4.19 Heat Transfer Enhancement *327*
Solved Exampes 328
Summary 363
Important Formulae and Equations 364
Objective Type Questions 368
Answers 370
Open Book Problems 370

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Review Questions 372
Problems for Practice 375
References 380

5. Heat Transfer by Natural Convection **382**

5.1 Dimensionless Parameters of Natural Convection *383*
5.2 An Approximate Analysis of Laminar Natural Convection on a Vertical Plate *387*
5.3 Empirical Correlations for Various Shapes *397*
5.4 Rotating Cylinders, Disks and Spheres *402*
5.5 Combined Forced and Natural Convection *403*
Solved Examples 405
Summary 417
Important Formulae and Equations 417
Review Questions 418
Objective Type Questions 419
Answers 420
Open Book Problems 420
Problems for Practice 421
References 422

6. Condensation and Boiling **424**

6.1 Dimensionless Parameters in Boiling and Condensation *424*
6.2 Condensation Heat Transfer *425*
6.3 Dropwise Condensation *425*
6.4 Laminar Film Condensation on a Vertical Plate *426*
6.5 Condensation on Horizontal Tubes *433*
6.6 Condensation Number *435*
6.7 Turbulent Film Condensation *436*
6.8 Effect of High Vapour Velocity *436*
6.9 Effect of Superheated Vapour *437*
6.10 Effect of Non-Condensable Gas *437*
6.11 Film Condensation Inside Horizontal Tubes *438*
6.12 Boiling Heat Transfer *439*
6.13 Regimes of Boiling *439*
6.14 Nucleate Boiling *444*
6.15 Correlations of Boiling Heat Transfer Data *446*
6.16 Forced Convection Boiling *448*
Solved Examples 450
Summary 458
Important Formulae and Equations 459
Review Questions 461
Objective Type Questions 462
Answers 464
Open Book Problems 464

Copyrighted material

Problems for Practice 465
References 466

7. Radiation Heat Transfer **468**

7.1 Thermal Radiation *468*
7.2 Prevost's Theory *470*
7.3 Absorptivity, Reflectivity and Transmissivity *470*
7.4 Black Body *471*
7.5 Emissive Power *471*
7.6 Emissivity *473*
7.7 Kirchhoff's Law *474*
7.8 Laboratory Black Body *476*
7.9 Spectral Energy Distribution of a Black Body *477*
7.10 Radiation from Real Surfaces *487*
7.11 Intensity of Radiation *488*
7.12 Radiant Heat Exchange between Two Black Bodies Separated by a Non Absorbing Medium *489*
7.13 Shape Factor *491*
7.14 Electrical Analogy *492*
7.15 Radiant Heat Transfer between Two Black Surfaces Connected by Nonconducting and Reradiating Walls *494*
7.16 Evaluation of Shape Factor *496*
7.17 Radiation Heat Transfer Between Gray Bodies *500*
7.18 Radiosity and Irradiation *502*
7.19 Radiation Network for Gray Surfaces Exchanging Energy *503*
7.20 Hottel's Crossed String Method for Estimating Shape Factor for Infinitely Long Surfaces *508*
7.21 Radiation Shields *510*
7.22 Radiation from Cavities *513*
7.23 Radiation From Gases and Vapours *514*
7.24 Radiation Combined with Convection *520*
7.25 Greenhouse Effect *521*
7.26 Solar Radiation *521*
Solved Examples 525
Summary 553
Important Formulae and Equations 554
Review Questions 556
Objective Type Questions 558
Answers 561
Open Book Problems 562
Problems for Practice 564
References 569

Copyrighted material

8. Heat Exchangers **570**

8.1 Types of Heat Exchangers 570
8.2 Compact, Shell-and-Tube and Plate Heat Exchangers 572
8.3 Overall Heat Transfer Coefficient and Fouling Factor 574
8.4 Parallel Flow Heat Exchanger 576
8.5 Counter Flow Heat Exchanger 578
8.6 Use of LMTD 580
8.7 Cross-Flow Heat Exchanger 580
8.8 Comparison of Parallel Flow and Counter Flow Heat Exchangers 582
8.9 Heat Transfer With Phase Change 583
8.10 Multipass Heat Exchangers 583
8.11 Variation of U_0 along the Heating Surface 586
8.12 Effectiveness—NTU Method 587
8.13 Plate Heat Exchanger 594
8.14 Heat Transfer Enhancement 594
8.15 Heat Pipes 596
8.16 Run-around Coil Systems 604
8.17 Heat Exchanger Design Considerations 608
8.18 Selection of Heat Exchangers *608*
Solved Examples 609
Summary 629
Important Formulae and Equations 630
Review Questions 631
Objective Questions 633
Answers 635
Open Book Problems 635
Problems for Practice 637
References 641

9. Some Special Heat Transfer Processes **642**

9.1 Heat Transfer in High Velocity Flows *642*
9.2 Heat Transfer in Rarefied Gases *647*
9.3 Transpiration and Film Cooling *653*
9.4 Ablative Cooling *655*
9.5 Thermodynamic Optimization of Convective Heat Transfer *656*
9.6 Heat Transfer in a Circulating Fluidized Bed (CFB) Boiler *661*
Solved Examples 668
Summary 673
Important Formulae and Equations 673
Review Questions 674
Objective Type Questions 675
Answers 675
Problems for Practice 675
References 676

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10. Mass Transfer **678**

10.1 Mass Transfer By Molecular Diffusion: Fick's Law of Diffusion *678*
10.2 Equimolar Counter Diffusion *680*
10.3 Molecular Diffusion Through a Stationary Gas *681*
10.4 Diffusivity for Gases and Vapours *683*
10.5 Concentration Boundary Layer and Mass Transfer Coefficient *684*
10.6 Analogy between Momentum, Heat and Mass Transfer *685*
10.7 Forced Convection Mass Transfer in Laminar Flow in a Tube *687*
10.8 Mass Transfer by Convection in Turbulent Flow *688*
10.9 Evaluation of Mass Transfer Coefficients by Dimensional Analysis *690*
10.10 Analogy of Heat and Mass Transfer *691*
10.11 Mass Transfer in Boundary Layer Flow Over a Flat Plate *692*
Solved Examples *693*
Summary *701*
Important Formulae and Equations *701*
Review Questions *703*
Objective Questions *703*
Answers *705*
Problems for Practice *705*

Appendix A: Thermophysical Properties of Matter **708**
Appendix B: Mathematical Relations and Functions **735**
Appendix C: The International System of Units **741**
Appendix D: Miscellaneous Solved Examples **744**
Appendix E: Fill in the Blanks **787**
State True or False **790**

Bibliography **793**
Index **795**

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Basic Concepts 1

The study of transfer phenomena, which include transfer of momentum, energy, mass, electricity, etc. has been recognized as a unified discipline of fundamental importance on the basis of generalized fluxes and forces. A flux like heat transfer, momentum transfer, mass transfer, electricity and chemical reaction rate is linearly proportional to the respective *conjugate force* of temperature gradient, velocity gradient, concentration gradient, electric potential gradient and chemical affinity, the constant of proportionality being a property of the medium, like thermal conductivity, viscosity, diffusion coefficient and electrical conductivity. It is a law of nature (phenomenological law) which states that a driving force causes the respective flux from a higher to a lower potential. The reverse never happens spontaneously. The transfer process indicates the tendency of a system to proceed towards equilibrium. For example, in a solid body with a nonuniform temperature distribution, energy is transferred so as to establish a uniform temperature distribution in the body.

Heat is defined as energy transferred by virtue of a temperature difference or gradient. Heat transfer is a vector quantity, flowing in the direction of decreasing temperature, with a negative temperature gradient. In the science of thermodynamics, the important parameter is the quantity of heat transferred during a process. In the subject of heat transfer, attention is directed to the rate at which heat is transferred. Thermodynamics is concerned with the transition of a system from one equilibrium state to another, and is based principally on the two laws of nature, the first law and the second law of thermodynamics. It is the science of heat transfer which is concerned with the estimation of the rate at which heat is transferred, the duration of heating and cooling for a certain heat duty and the surface area required to accomplish that heat duty.

When a small amount of perfume vapour is sprayed into a room of air, the mass transfer process causes the perfume vapour to diffuse throughout the room until its concentration is uniform, indicating an equilibrium condition. In an electrically conducting material with a nonuniform electrical potential (voltage) distribution, electric charge will flow until a uniform potential distribution is set up. In all transfer processes we are concerned with rates at which changes in properties of a system occur. In the flow of a viscous fluid, the viscous (frictional) stresses may be related to the rate of change of momentum of a system. Heat conduction may be related to the rate of change of internal energy of system. Mass diffusion may be related to the rate of change of composition of a mixture due to transfer of one or more of the component species.

There are three distinct modes in which heat transmission can take place: conduction, radiation and convection. Strictly speaking, only conduction and radiation should be classified as heat transfer processes, because only these two modes depend on the existence of a temperature difference. Convection refers to the mass motion of a fluid, and the convective heat transfer between a solid wall and a fluid depends not only on the temperature difference, but also on the mass transport of the fluid. However, since convection, like conduction and radiation, also accomplishes energy transfer from regions of higher temperature to regions of lower temperature, the term 'heat transfer by convection' has become generally accepted.

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1.1 THERMODYNAMICS AND HEAT TRANSFER

The science of heat transfer is concerned with the calculation of the rate at which heat flows within a medium, across an interface, or from one surface to another, and the associated temperature distribution. Thermodynamics deals with systems in equilibrium and calculates the energy transferred to change a system from one equilibrium state to another. However, it cannot tell the duration for which heat has to flow to change that state of equilibrium. For example, if 1 kg ingot of iron is quenched from 1000°C to 100°C in an oil bath, thermodynamics tells us that the loss in internal energy of the ingot is

$$mc\Delta T = 1 \text{ kg} \times 0.45 \frac{\text{kJ}}{\text{kg K}} \times 900 \text{ K} = 405 \text{ kJ}$$

But thermodynamics cannot tell us about the time required for the temperature to drop to 100°C. The time depends on various factors such as the temperature of the oil bath, physical properties of the oil, motion of the oil etc. An appropriate heat transfer analysis considers all these factors.

Analysis of heat transfer processes requires some concepts of thermodynamics.

The first law of thermodynamics states the principle of conservation of energy and it is expressed in the form of an energy balance for a system.

A *closed* system containing a fixed mass of a solid (Fig. 1.1) has a volume V(m^3) and density ρ(kg/m^3). There is heat transfer into the system at a rate Q(W), and heat may be generated internally within the solid, say, by nuclear fission or electrical current at a rate Q_G(W).The principle of energy conservation requires that over a time interval Δt(s).

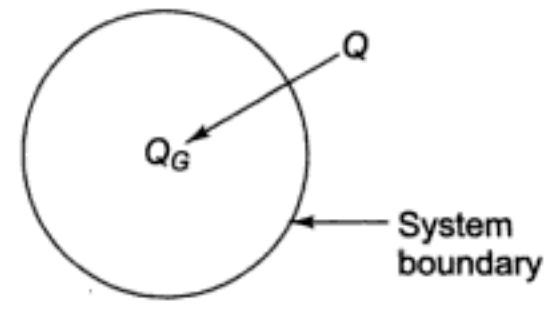


Fig. 1.1 *Application of first law*

Change in internal energy within the system

= Heat transferred into the system + Heat generated within the system

$$\Delta U = Q \cdot \Delta t + Q_G \Delta t \tag{1.1}$$

Dividing by Δt and equating it to zero in the limit.

$$\frac{dU}{dt} = Q + Q_G$$

Now, $dU = \rho V\, du = \rho Vc dT$, where $du = c_v\, dT$ and $c_v = c_p = c$ for an incompressible fluid or a rigid solid,

$$\rho Vc \frac{dT}{dt} = Q + Q_G \tag{1.2}$$

This is the energy equation on a *rate basis*.

Figure 1.2 shows an open system for which a useful form of the first law is the *steady flow energy equation* (SFEE), given below:

$$\dot{m}\left(h_1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2} + gz_1\right) + \dot{Q} = \dot{m}\left(h_2 + \frac{V_2^2}{2} + gz_2\right) + \dot{W} \tag{1.3}$$

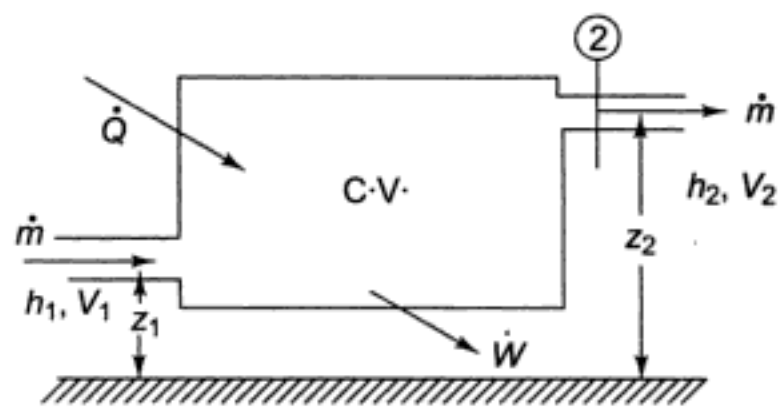


Fig. 1.2 *Energy conservation for a steady flow open system*

For most heat transfer equipment, changes in kinetic and potential energy are negligible and no external work is done, thus, SFEE reduces to

$$\dot{m}h_1 + \dot{Q} = \dot{m}h_2$$

or,

$$\dot{Q} = \dot{m}(h_2 - h_1) \tag{1.4}$$

For an ideal gas or an incompressible liquid,

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$$h_2 - h_1 = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} c_p \, dT$$

The *second law of thermodynamics* states that if two bodies at temperatures T_1 and T_2 are connected, and if $T_1 > T_2$, then heat will flow *spontaneously and irreversibly* from body 1 to body 2, causing entropy increase of the universe or entropy generation. Since, all heat transfer processes occur through finite temperature differences overcoming thermal irreversibility, the heat transfer area or operating variables can be optimized in regard to two or more irreversibilities following the principle of minimization of entropy generation or exergy destruction [3].

The roles of thermodynamics, cost or economics, and heat transfer, simultaneously act upon to yield an energy-efficient equipment, which is now a concern of the engineers.

1.2 HEAT CONDUCTION

Conduction refers to the transfer of heat between two bodies or two parts of the same body through molecules which are, more or less, stationary, as in the case of solids.

Fourier's law (after the French scientist J.B.J. Fourier who proposed it in 1822) of heat conduction states that the rate of heat transfer is linearly proportional to the temperature gradient. For one-dimensional or unidirectional heat conduction

$$q_k \propto \cdot \frac{dT}{dx}$$

or

$$q_k = -k \frac{dT}{dx} \tag{1.5}$$

where q_k is the rate of heat flux (a vector) in W/m^2, dT/dx is the temperature gradient in the direction of heat flow x and k is the constant of proportionality, which is a property of the material through which heat propagates. This property of the material is called *thermal conductivity* (W/m K). The negative sign is used because heat flows from a high to a low temperature and the slope dT/dx is negative (Fig. 1.3). It may be noted that temperature can be given in kelvin or degree Celsius in Eq. (1.5) and the temperature gradient which does not depend on these units is used since one kelvin is equal to one degree Celsius (1 K = 1°C). Thus, the unit of thermal conductivity could also be written as W/m °C, but this is not the recommended practice when using the SI system of units. The magnitude of the thermal conductivity k for a given substance very much depends on its microscopic structure and also tends to vary somewhat with temperature. Table 1.1 gives some selected values of k.

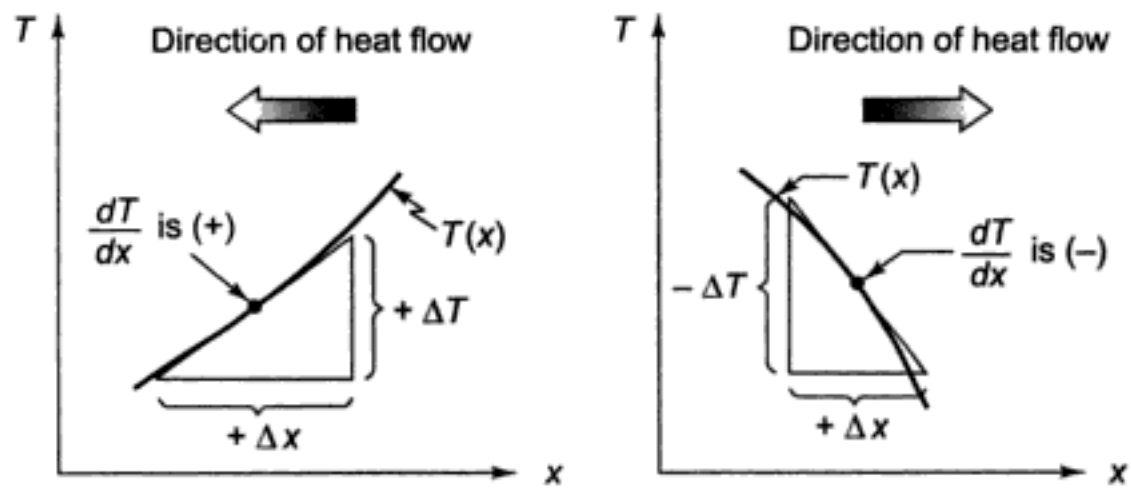


Fig. 1.3 *Sign convention for conduction heat flow*

For the simple case of steady-state one-dimensional heat flow through a plane wall (Fig. 1.4), the temperature gradient and the heat flow do not vary with time, so that from Eq. (1.5)

$$\bar{q}_k \int_0^L dx = -\int_{T_1}^{T_2} k \, dT$$

where the temperature at the left face ($x = 0$) is uniform at T_1 and the temperature at the right face ($x = L$) is uniform at T_2.

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Table 1.1 *Thermal conductivity of various materials at 0°C*

Material	*Thermal conductivity k*
	W/m · K
Metals:	
Silver (pure)	410
Copper (pure)	385
Aluminum (pure)	202
Nickel (pure)	93
Iron (pure)	73
Carbon steel, 1% C	43
Lead (pure)	35
Chrome-nickel steel (18% Cr, 8% Ni)	16.3
Nonmetallic solids:	
Diamond	2300
Quartz, parallel to axis	41.6
Magnesite	4.15
Marble	2.08–2.94
Sandstone	1.83
Glass, window	0.78
Maple or oak	0.17
Sawdust	0.059
Glass wool	0.038
Ice	2.22
Liquids:	
Mercury	8.21
Water	0.556
Ammonia	0.540
Lubricating oil, SAE 50	0.147
Freon 12, CCl_2F_2	0.073
Gases:	
Hydrogen	0.175
Helium	0.141
Air	0.024
Water vapor (saturated)	0.0206
Carbon dioxide	0.0146

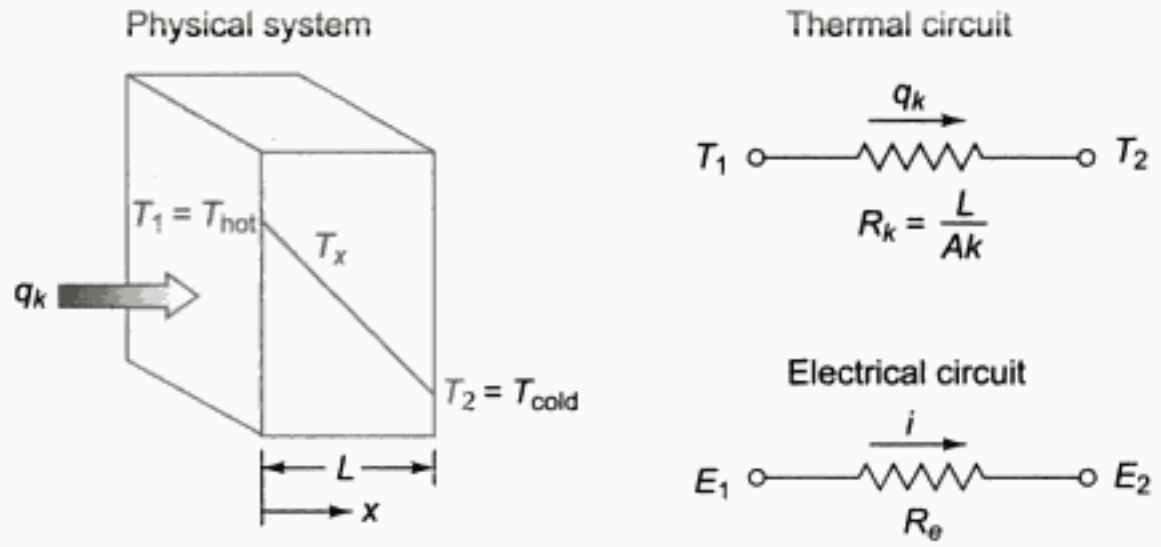


Fig. 1.4 *Temperature distribution for steady-state conduction through a plane wall and analogy between thermal and electrical circuits*

If k is independent of T, we obtain after integration

$$\bar{q}_k = k\frac{T_1 - T_2}{L}$$

If A is the surface area normal to heat flow, then the rate of heat transfer in watts is

$$Q_k = \bar{q}_k A = k\,A\frac{T_1 - T_2}{L} \tag{1.6}$$

Since $dt/dx = -q_k/k$, for the same $\bar{q}_k$, if k is low (i.e. for an insulator), dT/dx will be large i.e., there will be a large temperature difference across the wall, and if k is high (i.e. for a conductor), dT/dx will be small, or there will be a small temperature difference across the wall (Fig. 1.5).

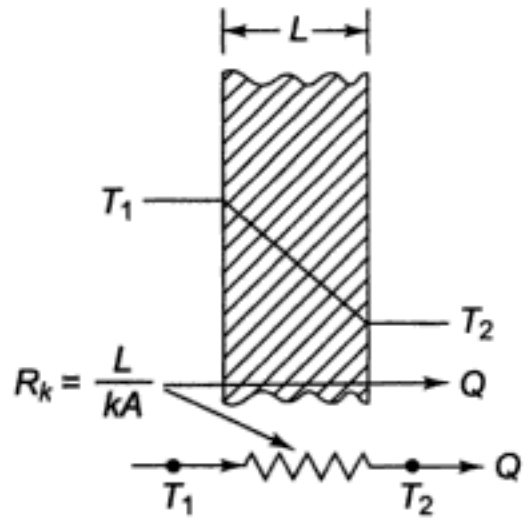


Fig. 1.5 *Thermal resistance offered by a wall*

1.2.1 Resistance Concept

Heat flow has an analogy in the flow of electricity. Ohm's law states that the current I (Ampere) flowing through a wire (Fig. 1.4) is equal to the voltage potential $E_1 - E_2$ (V), divided by the electrical resistance R_e (Ω) or

$$I = \frac{E_1 - E_2}{R_e} \tag{1.7}$$

Since the temperature difference and heat flux in conduction are similar to the potential difference and electric current respectively, the rate of heat conduction through the wall [(Eq. (1.6)] can be written as

$$Q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{L/kA} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_k} \tag{1.8}$$

where $R_k = L/kA$ is the conductive thermal resistance to heat flow offered by the wall (Fig. 1.5).

Again, the electrical resistance $R_e = \rho\frac{l}{A}$, where ρ is the specific resistance (Ω m), l is the length of the conductor (m) and A is the cross-sectional area of the conductor (m^2), Eq. (1.7) can now be written as

$$I = \frac{E_1 - E_2}{\rho\frac{l}{A}} = \sigma A\frac{E_1 - E_2}{l} = \sigma A\frac{dE}{dl}$$

or

$$i = \frac{I}{A} = \text{current density } (A/m^2)$$

$$= -\sigma\frac{dE}{dl} \tag{1.9}$$

where σ (= $1/\rho$) is the electrical conductivity [$(\Omega\text{ m})^{-1}$ or mho] a /dl is the potential gradient (V/m). The similarity of Eqs (1.5) and (1.9) can be noticed. The recipro the thermal resistance is referred to as the *thermal conductance* K_k, defined by

$$K_k = \frac{kA}{L} \tag{1.10}$$

The ratio k/L is the thermal conductance per unit area.

For many materials, thermal conductivity can be approximated as a linear function of temperature over limited temperature ranges:

$$k(T) = k_0(1 + \beta_k T) \tag{1.11}$$

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where β_k is an empirical constant and k_0 is the value of thermal conductivity at a reference temperature.

The rate of heat conduction is then

$$Q_k = -k_0(1 + \beta_k T)\, A \frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

On integration, $\int_0^L Q_k dx = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} -k_0 A(1+\beta_k T)\mathrm{d}T$

$$Q_k = \frac{k_0\, A}{L}\left[(T_1 - T_2) + \frac{\beta_k}{2}(T_1^2 - T_2^2)\right] \quad (1.12)$$

This can be rewritten more simply as

$$Q_k = \frac{k_{av}\, A}{L}(T_1 - T_2) \quad (1.13)$$

where k_{av} is the value of k at the arithmetic average temperature $(T_1 + T_2)/2$.

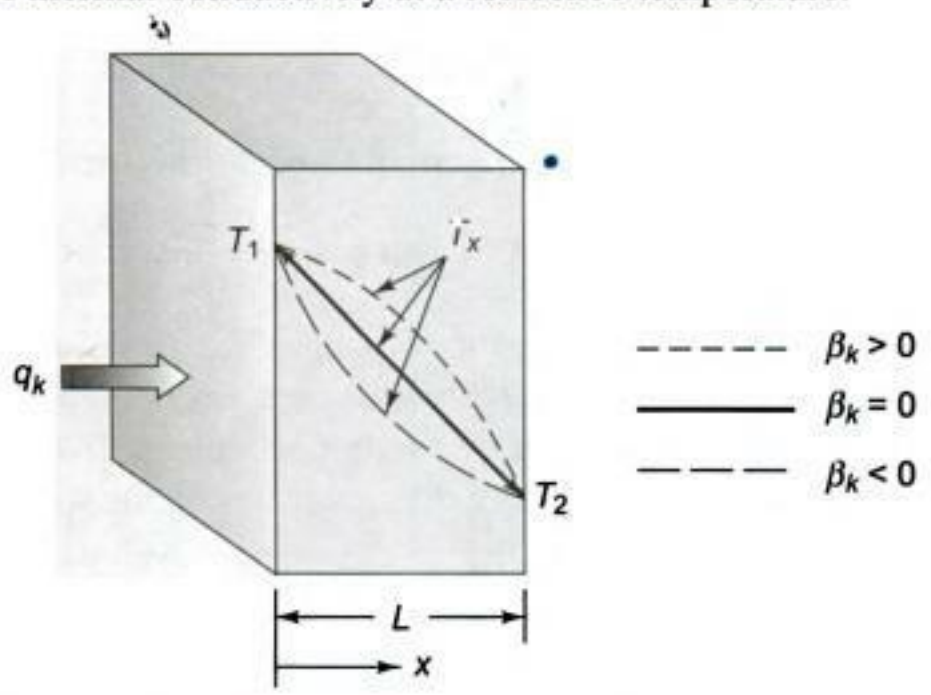


Fig. 1.6 *Temperature distribution in conduction through a plane wall with constant and variable thermal conductivity*

The temperature distributions for a constant thermal conductivity ($\beta_k = 0$) and for thermal conductivities that increase ($\beta_k > 0$) and decrease ($\beta_k < 0$) with temperature are shown in Fig. 1.6.

1.2.2 Composite Walls

For a composite wall, as shown in Fig. 1.7, there are three resistances in series. The rate of heat conduction is the same through all sections. The slope of the temperature profile in each depends on the thermal conductivity k of the material of that section. The lower the k, the more will be the slope and the higher is the temperature difference. The higher the k, the less will be the slope and the lower is the temperature difference. The total thermal resistance.

$$R = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 = \frac{L_1}{k_1 A} + \frac{L_2}{k_2 A} + \frac{L_3}{k_3 A}$$

and the rate of heat conduction

$$Q_k = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{R} = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{\frac{L_1}{k_1 A} + \frac{L_2}{k_2 A} + \frac{L_3}{k_3 A}} \quad (1.14)$$

Also,

$$Q_k = \left(\frac{k\, A}{L}\right)_1 (T_1 - T_2) = \left(\frac{k\, A}{L}\right)_2 (T_2 - T_3)$$

$$= \left(\frac{k\, A}{L}\right)_3 (T_3 - T_4) \quad (1.15)$$

where T_2 and T_3 are the interface temperatures. The walls are assumed to be in good thermal contact, with no contact resistance.

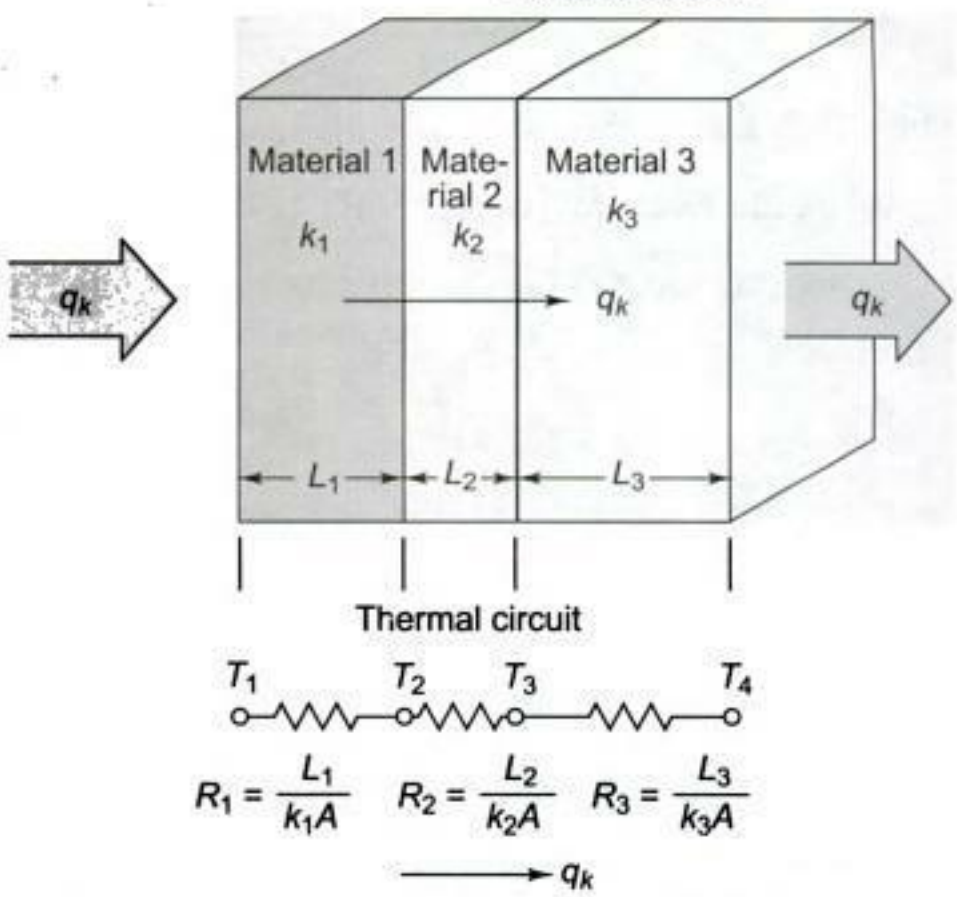


Fig. 1.7 *Conduction through three resistances in series*

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Conduction can occur in a wall with two different materials in parallel (Fig. 1.8). If the temperatures over the left and right faces are uniform at T_1 and T_2, the equivalent thermal circuit is shown to the right of the physical system. The total resistance R is given by

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$$

or

$$R = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

where $R_1 = \dfrac{L}{k_1 A_1}$ and $R_2 = \dfrac{L}{k_2 A_2}$

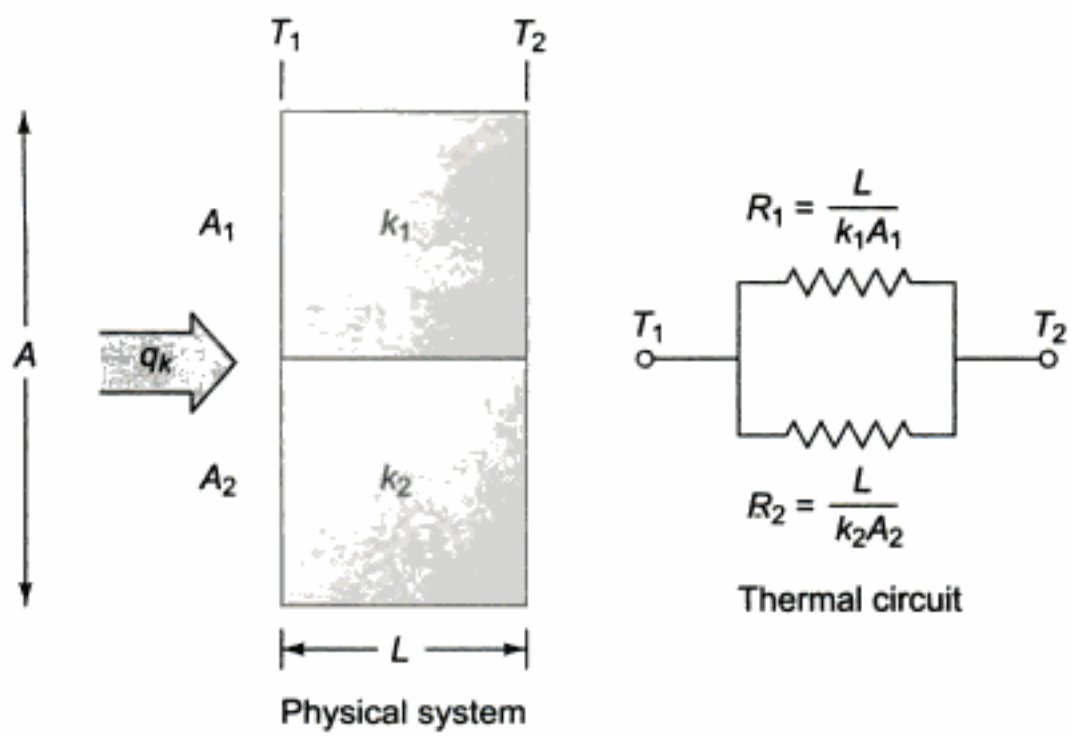


Fig. 1.8 *Conduction through two resistances in parallel*

The rate of heat conduction

$$Q_k = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R} = \frac{(T_1 - T_2)}{L}(k_1 A_1 + k_2 A_2) \tag{1.16}$$

Since heat is conducted through two separate parallel paths between the same temperature difference,

$$Q_k = Q_1 + Q_2 = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\left(\dfrac{L}{kA}\right)_1} + \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\left(\dfrac{L}{kA}\right)_2}$$

In Fig. 1.9 heat is transferred through a more complex composite structure involving thermal resistances in series and in parallel. The total resistance is

$$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 = R_1 + \frac{R_2 R_3}{R_2 + R_3} + R_4$$

$$= \frac{L_1}{k_1 A_1} + \left(\frac{L_2}{k_2 A_2}\frac{L_3}{k_3 A_3}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\dfrac{L_2}{k_2 A_2} + \dfrac{L_3}{k_3 A_3}}\right) + \frac{L_4}{k_4 A_4}$$

$$= \frac{L_1}{k_1 A_1} + \frac{L_2}{k_2 A_2 + k_3 A_3} + \frac{L_4}{k_4 A_4} \tag{1.17}$$

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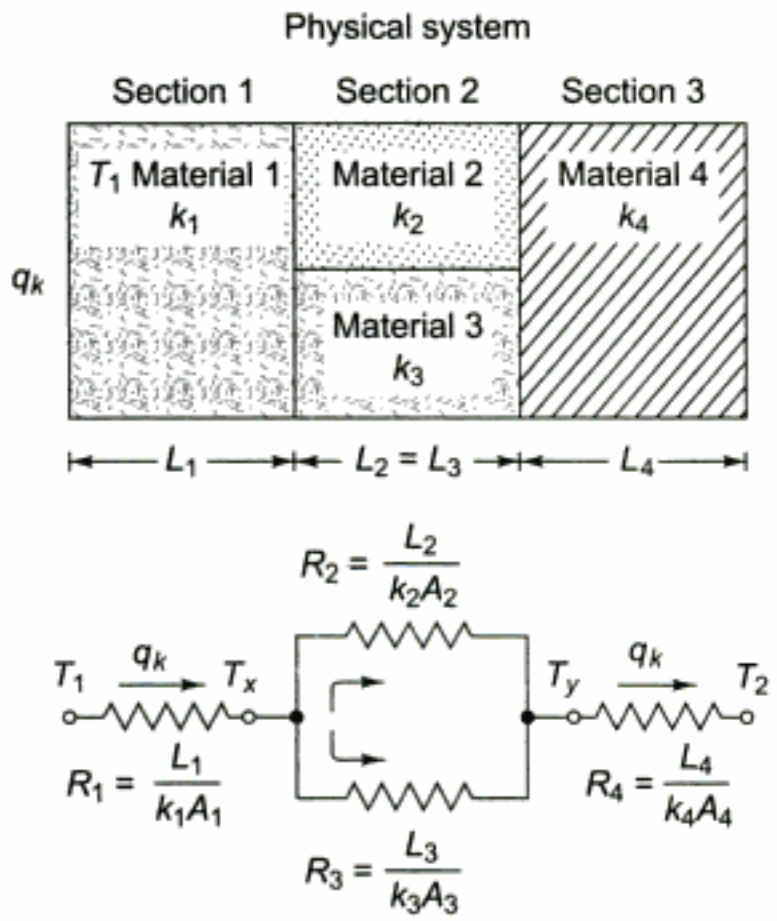


Fig. 1.9 *Heat conduction through resistances in series and in parallel*

The rate of heat flow is

$$Q_k = \frac{(\Delta T)_{\text{overall}}}{R_T} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_T} \tag{1.18}$$

1.2.3 Contact-Resistance

Thermal contact resistance develops when two conducting surfaces do not fit tightly together and a thin layer of fluid is trapped between them (Fig. 1.10). This resistance is primarily a function of surface

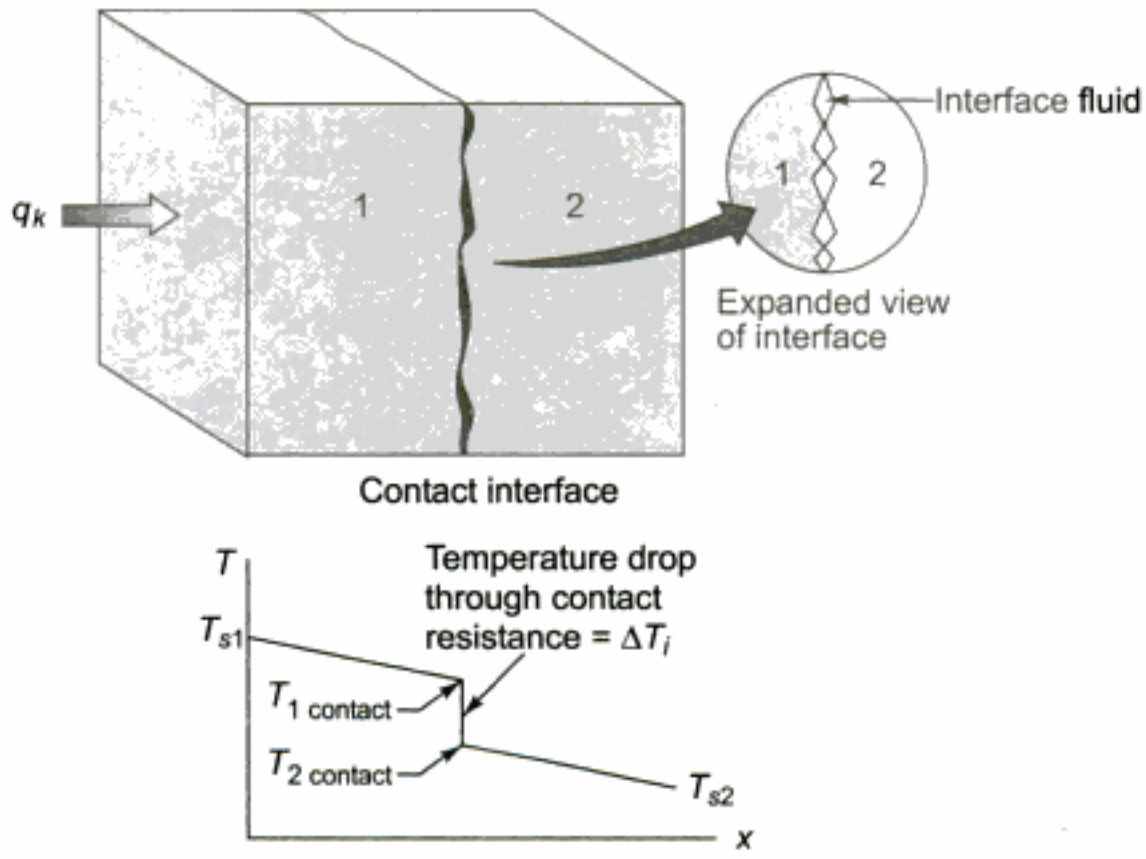


Fig. 1.10 *Contact resistance between two solid bodies*

roughness, the pressure holding the two surfaces in contact, the interface fluid and the interface temperature.

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The direct contact between the solid surfaces, as shown in the expanded view, takes place at a limited number of spots, and the voids between them usually are filled with air or the surrounding fluid. Heat transfer through the fluid filling the voids is mainly by conduction, since there is no convection in such a thin layer of fluid and the radiation effects are negligible at normal temperatures.

If the heat flux through the two solid surfaces in contact is $\overline{q}$ and the temperature difference across the fluid gap is ΔT_i (= $T_{s1} - T_{s2}$), the interface resistance R_i is defined by

$$R_i = \frac{\Delta T_i}{q}$$

The effect of contact pressure on the thermal contact resistance between metal surfaces under vacuum conditions is presented in Table 1.2. An increase in contact pressure can reduce the contact resistance significantly. The interfacial fluid also affects the thermal resistance, as shown in Table 1.3. Putting a viscous liquid like glycerin on the interface reduces the contact resistance 10 times with respect to air at a given pressure. A thermally conducting liquid called a *thermal grease* such as silicone oil is applied between the contact surfaces before they are pressed against each other. It is commonly done when attaching electronic components such as power transistors to heat sinks.

Table 1.2 *Thermal contact resistance at different contact pressures under vacuum conditions [1]*

Interface material	*Resistance* R_i *(m^2 K/W × 10^4)*	
	Contact pressure (1 bar)	*Contact pressure (100 bar)*
Stainless steel	6–25	0.7–4.0
Copper	1–10	0.1–0.5
Magnesium	1.5–3.5	0.2–0.4
Aluminium	1.5–5.0	0.2–0.4

Table 1.3 *Thermal contact resistance for aluminium–aluminium interface with different interfacial fluids, having 1 μm surface roughness under 1 bar contact pressure [1]*

Interfacial fluid	*Resistance* R_i *(m^2 K/W)*
Air	2.75×10^{-4}
Helium	1.05×10^{-4}
Hydrogen	0.72×10^{-4}
Silicone oil	0.525×10^{-4}
Glycerine	0.265×10^{-4}

Numerous experimental measurements have been made of the contact resistance at the interface between dissimilar metallic surfaces, but no satisfactory correlations have been found [2].

1.2.4 Thermal Conductivity

As defined by Fourier's law, Eq. (1.5), the thermal conductivity is

$$\mathbf{k} = -\frac{\overline{\mathbf{q}}_\mathbf{k}}{\mathbf{dT/dx}}$$

This equation can be used to determine the thermal conductivity of a material. A layer of solid material of known thickness and area can be heated from one side by an electric resistance heater of known output. If the other surface of the heater is perfectly insulated, all the heat generated by the resistance heater will be transferred through the material whose conductivity is to be determined. Then measuring the two surface temperatures T_1 and T_2 of the layers of material when steady state has been reached, the thermal

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conductivity can be estimated, as shown in Fig. 1.11.

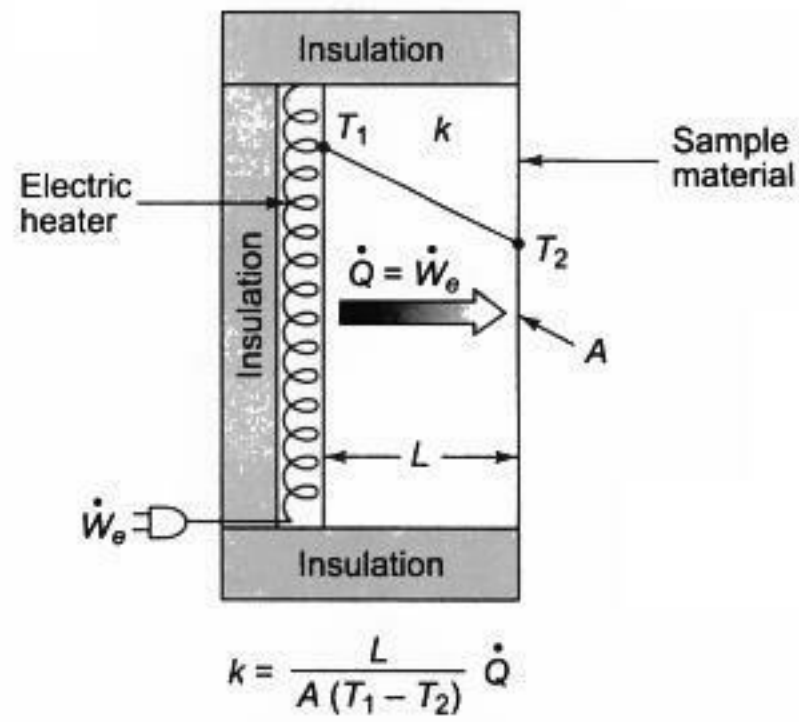


Fig. 1.11 *A simple experimental set up to determine the thermal conductivity of a material*

For engineering purposes, the experimentally measured values of thermal conductivity are generally used. These values can be predicted fairly well for gases with the help of kinetic theory of gases. But in the case of liquids and solids, theories are not adequate to predict thermal conductivity with sufficient accuracy. Table 1.1 gives values of thermal conductivity for several materials. It may be noted that pure metals are the best conductors and gases are the poorest ones.

The mechanism of thermal conduction in a gas can be explained on a molecular level from basic concepts of the kinetic theory of gases [3]. The kinetic energy (KE) of a molecule is a function of temperature. Molecules in a high-temperature region have higher KE and hence higher velocities than those in a lower-temperature region. Since molecules are in continuous random motion, as they collide with one another they exchange energy as well as momentum. When a molecule moves from a higher-temperature region to a lower-temperature region, it transports KE from the higher- to the lower-temperature part of the system. Upon collision with slower molecules, the faster molecule gives up some of its energy. In this manner thermal energy is transferred from higher to lower-temperature regions in gas by molecular motion.

The faster the molecules move, the faster they will transport energy. Thus, the transport property called thermal conductivity depends on the temperature of the gas. At moderate pressures the space between molecules is large compared to the size of a molecule. Thermal conductivity of gases is therefore essentially independent of pressure (and density). Figure 1.12(a) shows how the thermal conductivities of some typical gases vary with temperature.

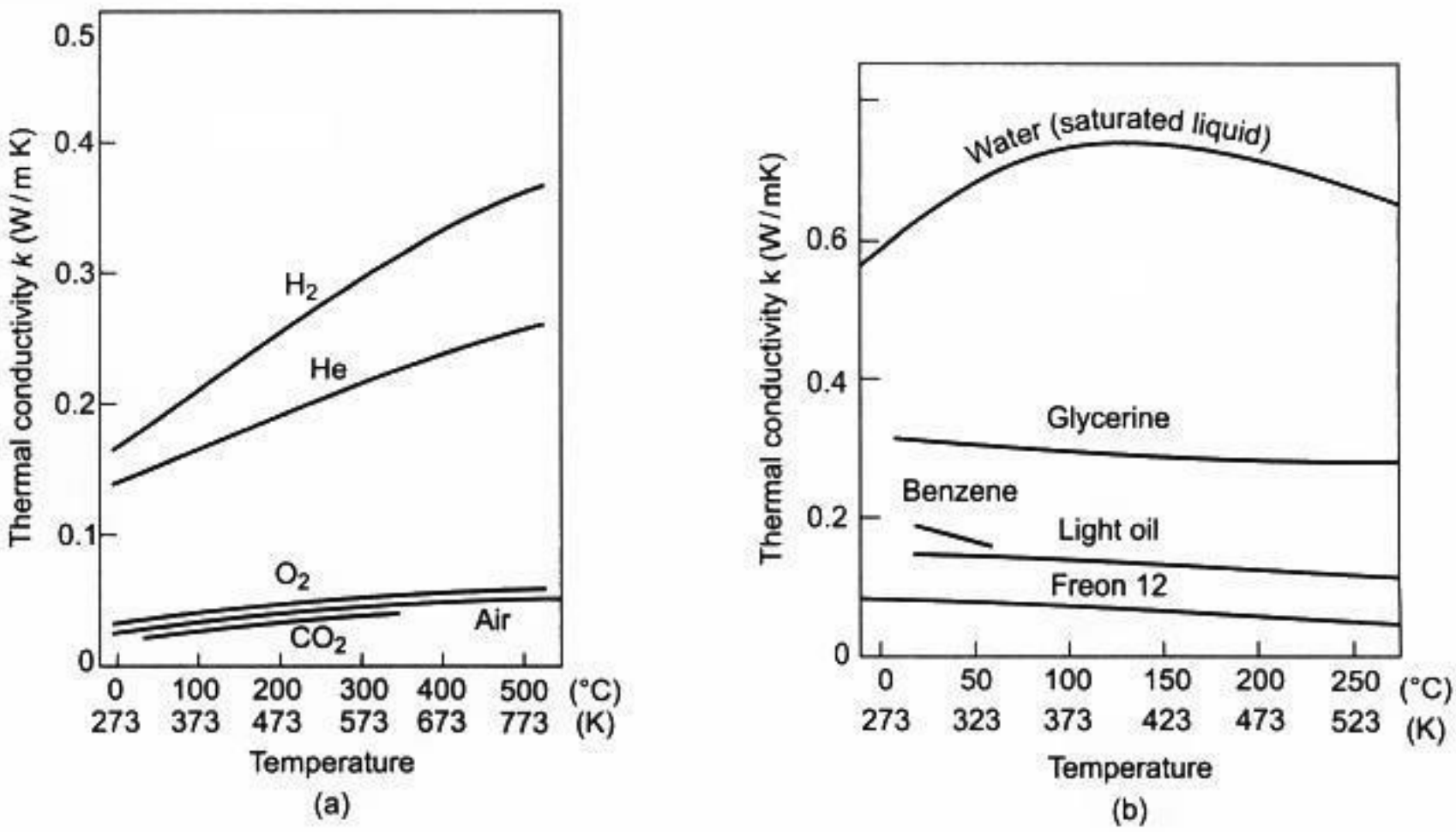


Fig. 1.12 *Variation of thermal conductivity with temperature for (a) gases and (b) liquids*

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The basic mechanism of heat conduction in liquids is qualitatively similar to that in gases. However, molecular conditions in liquids are more difficult to describe and the details of the conduction mechanisms in liquids are not well understood. The curves in Fig. 1.12(b) show the thermal conductivity of some non-metallic liquids as a function of temperature. For most liquids, the thermal conductivity decreases with temperature, but water is a notable exception. Generally, the thermal conductivity of liquids decreases with increasing molecular weight.

Solid materials consist of free electrons and atoms in a periodic lattice arrangement. Heat can be conducted in a solid by two mechanisms:

(a) migration of free electrons (k_e)
(b) lattice vibration (k_l)

These two effects are additive, i.e. $k = k_e + k_l$. But in general, the transport due to electrons is more effective than the transport due to vibrational energy in the lattice structure ($k_e > k_l$). Since electrons transport electric charge in a manner similar to the way in which they carry thermal energy from a higher to a lower-temperature region, good electrical conductors are also good heat conductors, whereas good electrical insulators are poor heat conductors. In non-metallic solids there is little or no electronic transport and the conductivity is therefore determined primarily by lattice vibration. Thus, these materials have lower thermal conductivities than metals. Thermal conductivities of some typical metals and alloys are shown in Fig. 1.13.

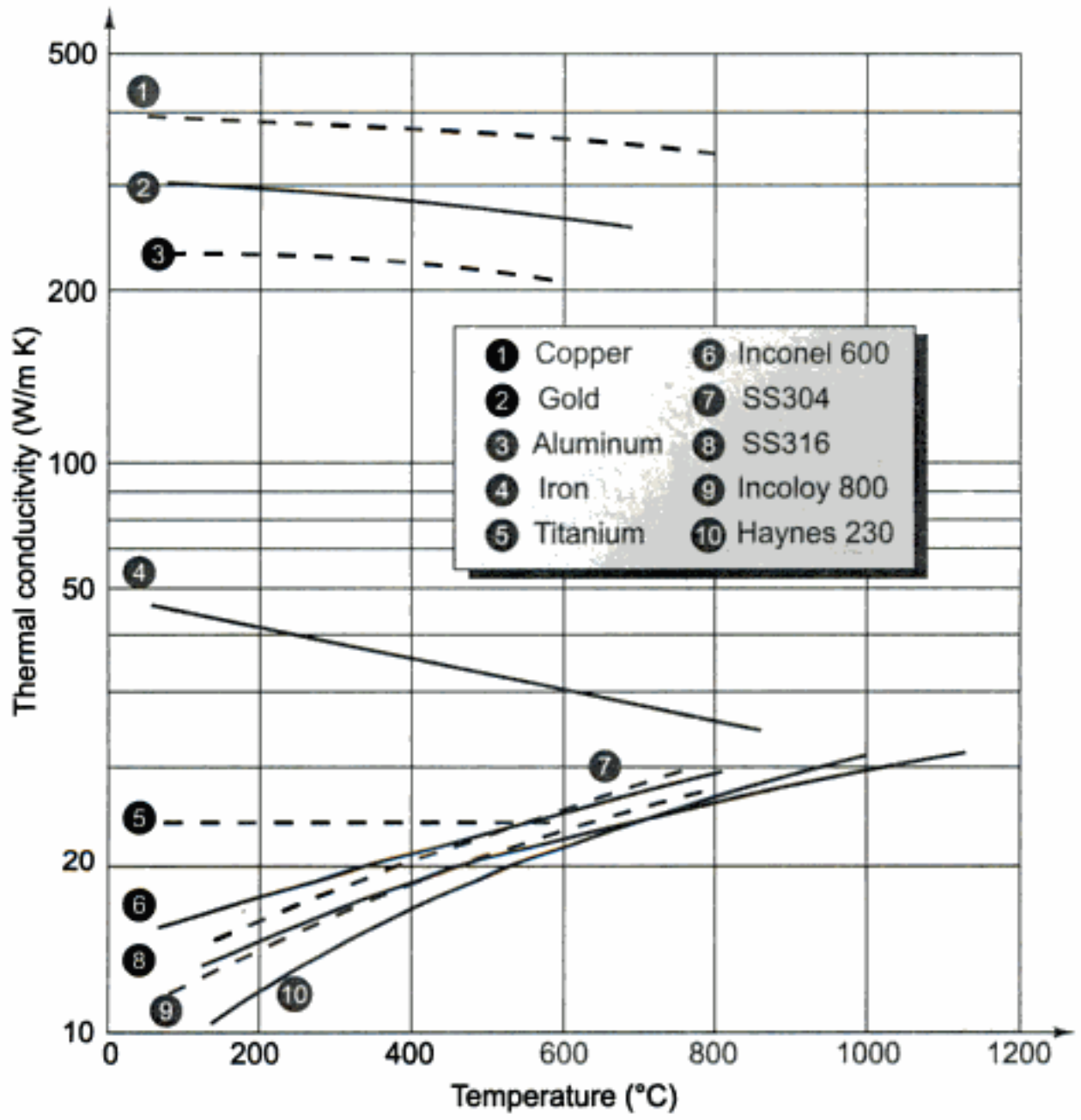


Fig. 1.13 *Variation of thermal conductivity with temperature for metals and alloys*

The regularity of lattice arrangement has an important effect on k_l, with crystalline (well-ordered) materials such as quartz having a higher thermal conductivity than amorphous materials such as glass. That's why diamond, a crystalline substance, has a high thermal conductivity.

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Thermal conductivity of a substance depends on temperature

$$k = k_0 (1 + \beta_k T)$$

where β_k is small and negative for most solids and liquids, and positive for gases.

1.2.5 Heat Conduction Through a Cylinder

Let us assume that the inside and outside surfaces of the cylinder (Fig. 1.14) are maintained at temperatures T_1 and T_2 respectively, and T_1 is greater than T_2. Heat will be assumed to be flowing under steady state only in the radial direction, and there is no heat conduction along the length or the periphery of the cylinder. The rate of heat transfer through the thin cylinder of thickness dr is given by

$$Q_k = -kA \frac{dT}{dr} = -k2\pi rL \frac{dT}{dr} \tag{1.19}$$

where L is the length of the cylinder.

$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} -\frac{Q_k}{2\pi k L} \frac{dr}{r}$$

$$T_2 - T_1 = -\frac{Q_k}{2\pi k L} \ln \frac{r_2}{r_1}$$

$$Q_k = \frac{2\pi k L (T_1 - T_2)}{\ln \left(\frac{r_2}{r_1} \right)} \tag{1.20}$$

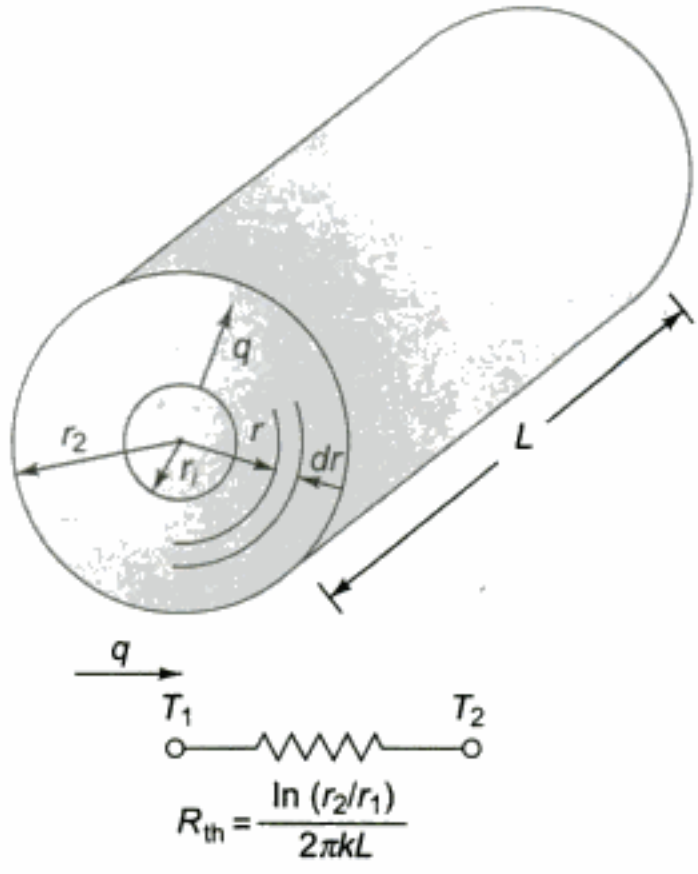


Fig. 1.14 *One-dimensional heat flow through a hollow cylinder and electrical analog*

The above equation can also be written in the following form,

$$Q_k = \frac{2\pi (r_2 - r_1) Lk (T_1 - T_2)}{(r_2 - r_1) \ln \frac{2\pi r_2 L}{2\pi r_1 L}} = k \frac{(A_2 - A_1)}{\ln \frac{A_2}{A_1}} \frac{(T_1 - T_2)}{r_2 - r_1}$$

$$= -\mathbf{kA_{lm}} \frac{\mathbf{T_2 - T_1}}{\mathbf{x_\omega}} \tag{1.21}$$

where A_{1m} = log-mean area = $\dfrac{A_2 - A_1}{\ln \dfrac{A_2}{A_1}}$, A_2 = outside surface area = $2\pi r_2 L$, A_1 = inside surface area = $2\pi r_1 L$

and x_ω = wall thickness of the cylinder = $r_2 - r_1$.

The thermal resistance offered by the cylinder wall to radial heat conduction is then

$$R_k = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{Q_k} = \frac{x}{k \cdot A_{lm}} \tag{1.22}$$

From Eq. (1.19),

$$dT = -\frac{Q_k}{2\pi k L} \frac{dr}{r} = C_1 \frac{dr}{r}$$

$$T = C_1 \ln r + C_2 \tag{1.23}$$

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where C_1 and C_2 are constants to be evaluated from the conditions:

when $r = r_1, T = T_1$

$r = r_2, T = T_2$

The temperature across the wall of the cylinder varies logarithmically with radius. For two cylindrical resistances in series (Fig. 1.15),

$$R = R_1 + R_2 = \frac{x_{\omega_1}}{k_1 \; A_{lm1}} + \frac{x_{\omega_2}}{k_2 \; A_{lm2}}$$

where $x_{\omega_1} = r_2 - r_1, x_{\omega_2} = r_3 - r_2$

$$A_{lm1} = \frac{A_2 - A_1}{\ln \frac{A_2}{A_1}} = \frac{2\pi (r_2 - r_1) L}{\ln \frac{r_2}{r_1}}$$

and

$$A_{lm2} = \frac{A_3 - A_2}{\ln \frac{A_3}{A_2}} = \frac{2\pi (r_3 - r_2) L}{\ln \frac{r_3}{r_2}}$$

The rate of heat transfer will be

$$\mathbf{Q_k} = \frac{\mathbf{T_1 - T_3}}{\mathbf{R}} = \frac{\mathbf{T_1 - T_2}}{\mathbf{R_1}} = \frac{\mathbf{T_2 - T_3}}{\mathbf{R_2}}$$

from which the interface temperature T_2 can be evaluated.

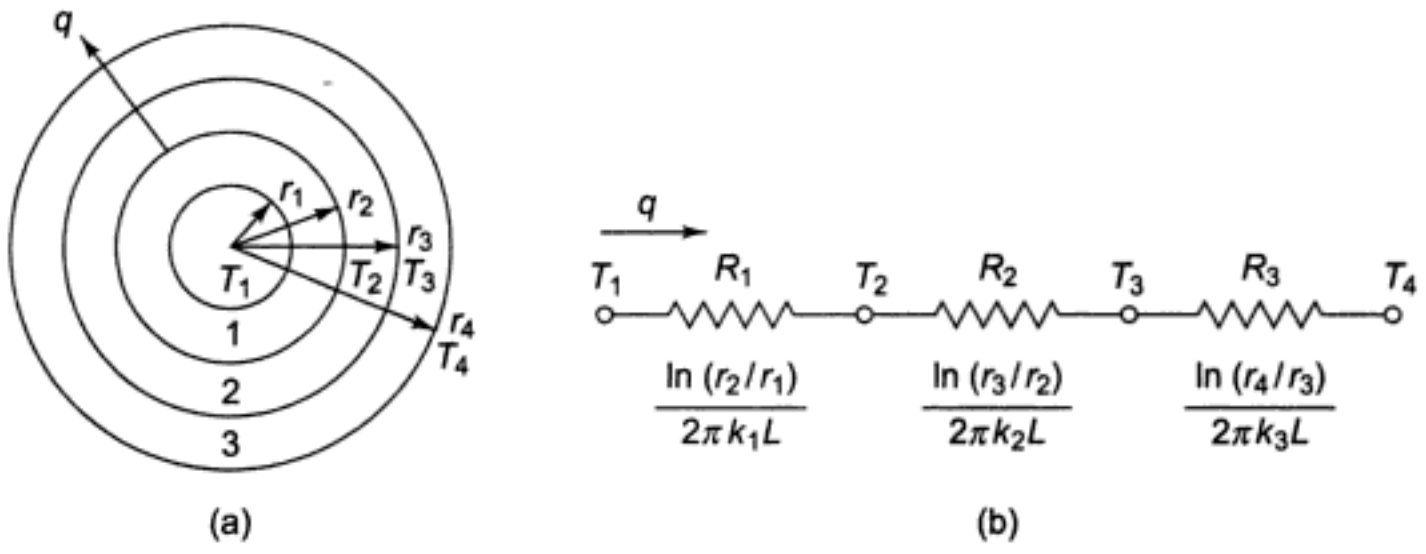


Fig. 1.15 *One-dimensional heat flow through multiple cylindrical sections and electrical analog*

1.2.6 Heat Conduction Through a Sphere

Heat flowing through a thin spherical strip (Fig. 1.16) at radius r of thickness dr is

$$Q_k = -kA \frac{dT}{dr}$$

where A is the spherical surface at radius r normal to heat flow

$$Q_k = -k4\pi r^2 \frac{dT}{dr}$$

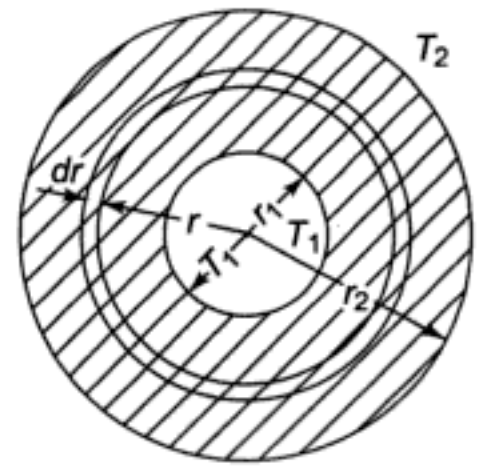


Fig. 1.16 *Heat conduction through a sphere*

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$$\int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} -\frac{Q_k}{4\pi k}\frac{dr}{r^2}$$

$$T_2 - T_1 = -\frac{Q_k}{4\pi k}\left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2}\right)$$

$$Q_k = \frac{4\pi k (T_1 - T_2) r_1 r_2}{r_2 - r_1} \tag{1.24}$$

or $$\mathbf{Q_k = -kA_{gm}\frac{T_2 - T_1}{x_\omega}} \tag{1.24a}$$

where A_{gm} = geometric mean area

$= (A_1 A_2)^{1/2} = (4\pi r_1^2\, 4\pi r_2^2)^{1/2}$

$= 4\pi r_1 r_2$

and x_ω = wall thickness of the sphere $= r_2 - r_1$

Here, the thermal resistance offered by the wall to heat conduction is

$$R_k = \frac{x}{k\, A_{gm}} \tag{1.24b}$$

Thus, similar expressions of thermal resistance hold good for flat plate, cylinder and sphere, which are

$$R_{plate} = \frac{x}{kA} \qquad R_{cylinder} = \frac{x}{kA_{lm}}$$

$$R_{sphere} = \frac{x}{k\, A_{gm}}$$

where k is the thermal conductivity of the wall material.

1.3 CONVECTION HEAT TRANSFER

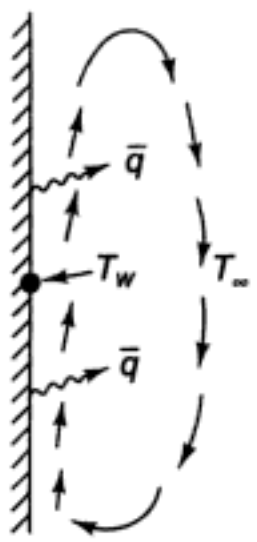


Fig. 1.17 *Natural or free convection of air ($T_w > T_\infty$)*

Convection is a process involving mass movement of fluids. When a temperature difference produces a density difference which results in mass movement (Fig. 1.17), the process is called *free* or *natural convection*. Here the plate is maintained isothermal at temperature T_w, which is higher than the surrounding fluid temperature T_∞. The fluid near the wall, on getting heated, moves up due to the effect of buoyancy, and is replaced by the cold fluid moving towards the wall. Thus a circulation current is set up due to the density difference.

When the mass motion of the fluid is caused by an external device like a pump, compressor, blower or fan, the process is called *forced convection* (Fig. 1.18). Here the fluid is made to flow along the hot surface due to the pressure difference generated by the device and heat is transferred from the wall to the fluid.

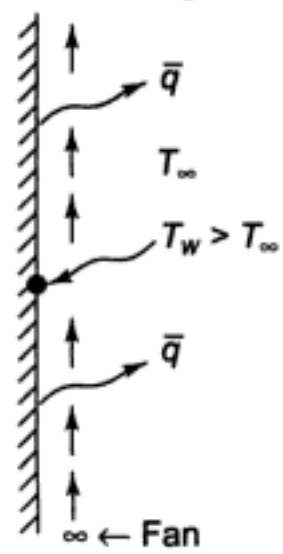


Fig. 1.18 *Forced convection of air ($T_w > T_\infty$).*

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Whether the convection process is natural or forced, there is always a boundary layer adjacent to the wall where the velocity and temperature vary from the wall to the free stream. Figure 1.19 shows the velocity and temperature boundary layers for forced flow over a hot horizontal surface. Ludwig Prandtl suggested that the field of flow can be divided into two regions: a thin layer next to the wall, which he called the *boundary layer* where the shear stress is confined, and the region outside this layer, where the fluid is

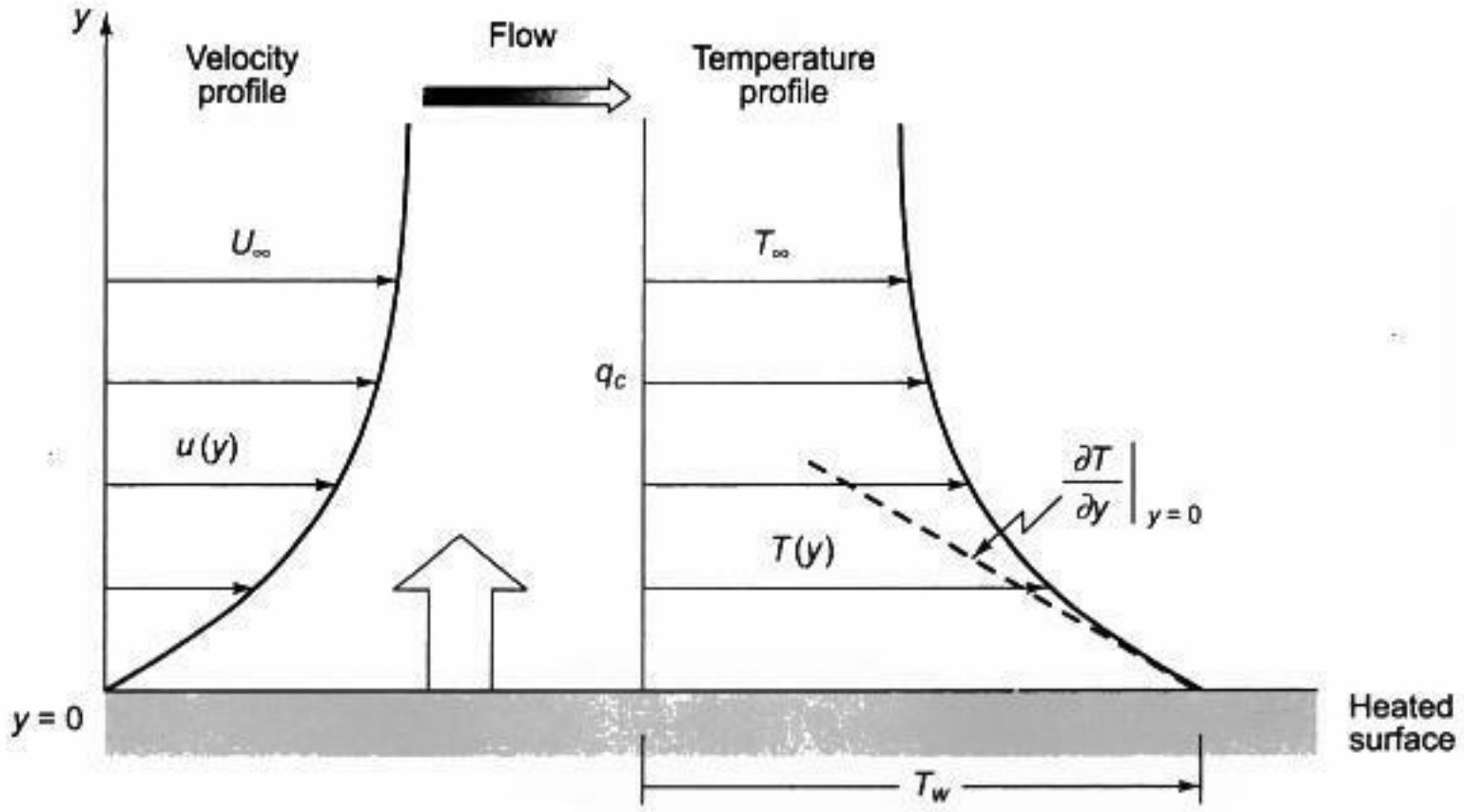


Fig. 1.19 *Velocity and temperature profiles for forced convection heat transfer*

"ideal" i.e., nonviscous and incompressible. The *boundary layer thickness* δ is defined as the distance from the wall where $u = 0.99u_\infty$ i.e., the fluid velocity is 99% of the free stream velocity. As a result of viscous forces the velocity of the fluid is zero at the wall and increases to u_∞, as shown.

A *thermal boundary layer thickness* δ_t is defined in an exactly analogous manner to the velocity boundary layer thickness δ. Within this layer, the temperature varies from T_w at the wall to T_∞ in the undisturbed flow. Since temperature within the boundary layer approaches T_∞ asymptotically, δ_t is defined as the thickness at which $T_w - T = 0.99(T_w - T_\infty)$. In general, δ_t is not equal to δ.

Figure 1.20 shows the velocity and temperature profiles under conditions of natural convection. The velocity at first increases with increasing distance from the surface, reaches a maximum and then decreases to approach zero value. The reason for this behaviour is that the action of viscosity diminishes rapidly with distance from the surface, while the density difference decreases more slowly. The buoyancy force decreases as the fluid density approaches that of unheated surrounding fluid. The temperature field is, however, the same as in forced convection.

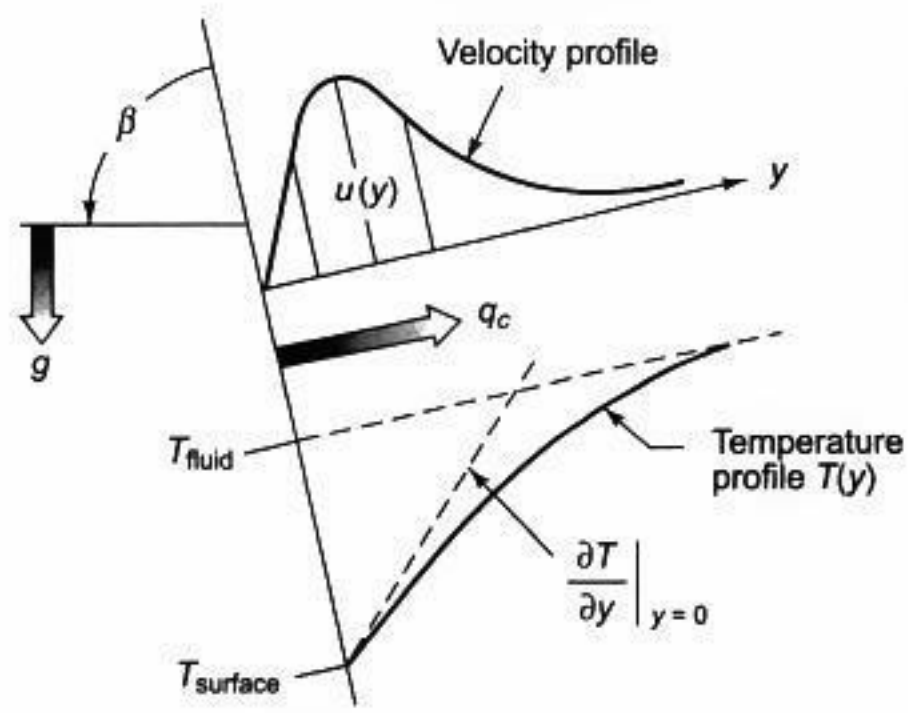


Fig. 1.20 *Velocity and temperature profiles for natural convection heat transfer*

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The thermal boundary layer is regarded as consisting of a stationary fluid film (Fig. 1.21) through which heat is conducted and then it is transported by fluid motion [4]. The rate of convection heat transfer from the wall to the fluid

$$\mathbf{Q_c = - k_f A \frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t}} \tag{1.25}$$

where k_f is the thermal conductivity of the fluid film.

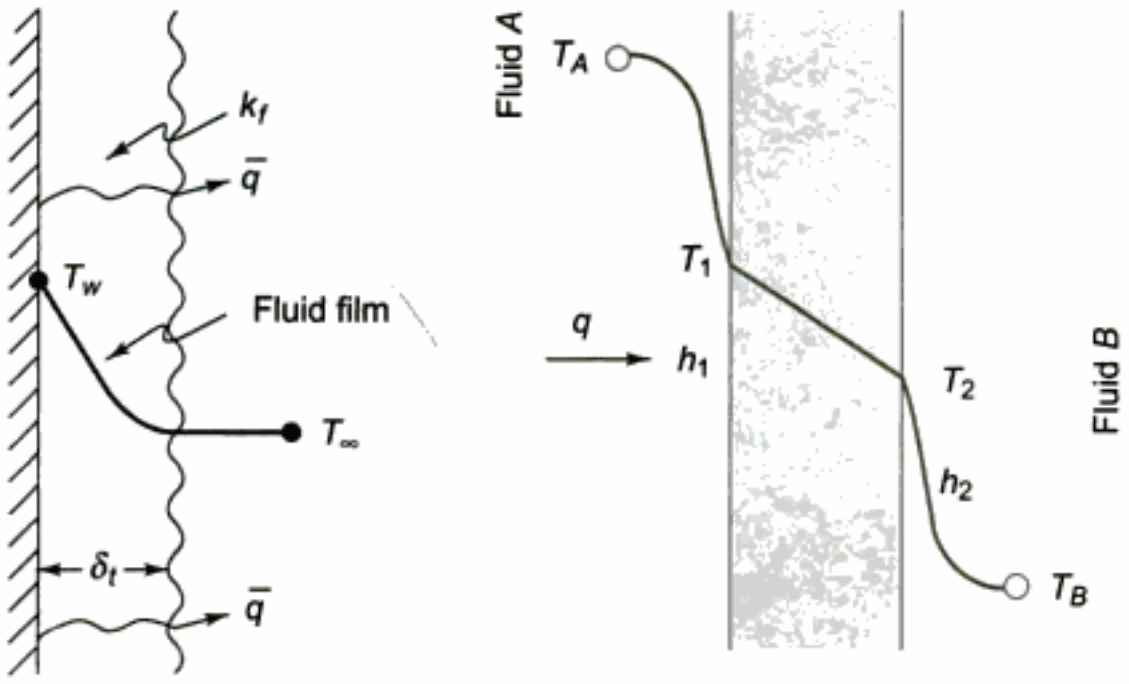


Fig. 1.21 *Heat transfer through a stationary fluid film*

The film or surface coefficient of heat transfer h_c may be defined as

$$\boldsymbol{h_c = \frac{k_f}{\delta_t}} \tag{1.26}$$

$$\mathbf{Q_c = h_c A (T_w - T_\infty)} \tag{1.27}$$

The rate of heat transfer Q_c increases with the increase in the value of heat transfer coefficient h_c. The higher the value of k_f and the lower the value of δ_t, the higher will be the value of h_c, and hence, Q_c. As the velocity of the fluid increases, film thickness δ_t decreases and h_c increases. For gases k_f is low, and so Q_c will also be low, compared to a liquid.

The above equation is known as *Newton's law of cooling*. Strictly speaking, convection applies to fluid motion. The mechanism of heat transfer is by conduction:

$$Q_c = - k_f A \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right)_{y=0} = h_c A (T_w - T_\infty)$$

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and

$$h_c = \frac{Q_c / A}{T_w - T_\infty} = \frac{-k_f (\partial T / \partial y)_w}{T_w - T_\infty}$$

The thermal resistance offered by the fluid film

$$\mathbf{R_c = \frac{T_w - T_\infty}{Q_c} = \frac{1}{h_c A}\ (K/W)} \tag{1.28}$$

1.4 COMBINED CONDUCTION AND CONVECTION

Both forced and natural convection flows can be either *laminar* or *turbulent*, with laminar flows being predominant at lower velocities, for smaller sizes, and for more viscous fluids. Flow in a pipe becomes turbulent when the dimensionless group called the *Reynolds number*, $\mathrm{Re}_d = VD/v$, exceeds about 2300, where V is the velocity (m/s), D is the pipe diameter (m), and v is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid (m^2/s). Heat transfer rates tend to be much higher in turbulent flows than in laminar flows owing to the vigorous mixing of the fluid. Figure 1.22 shows some commonly encountered flows.

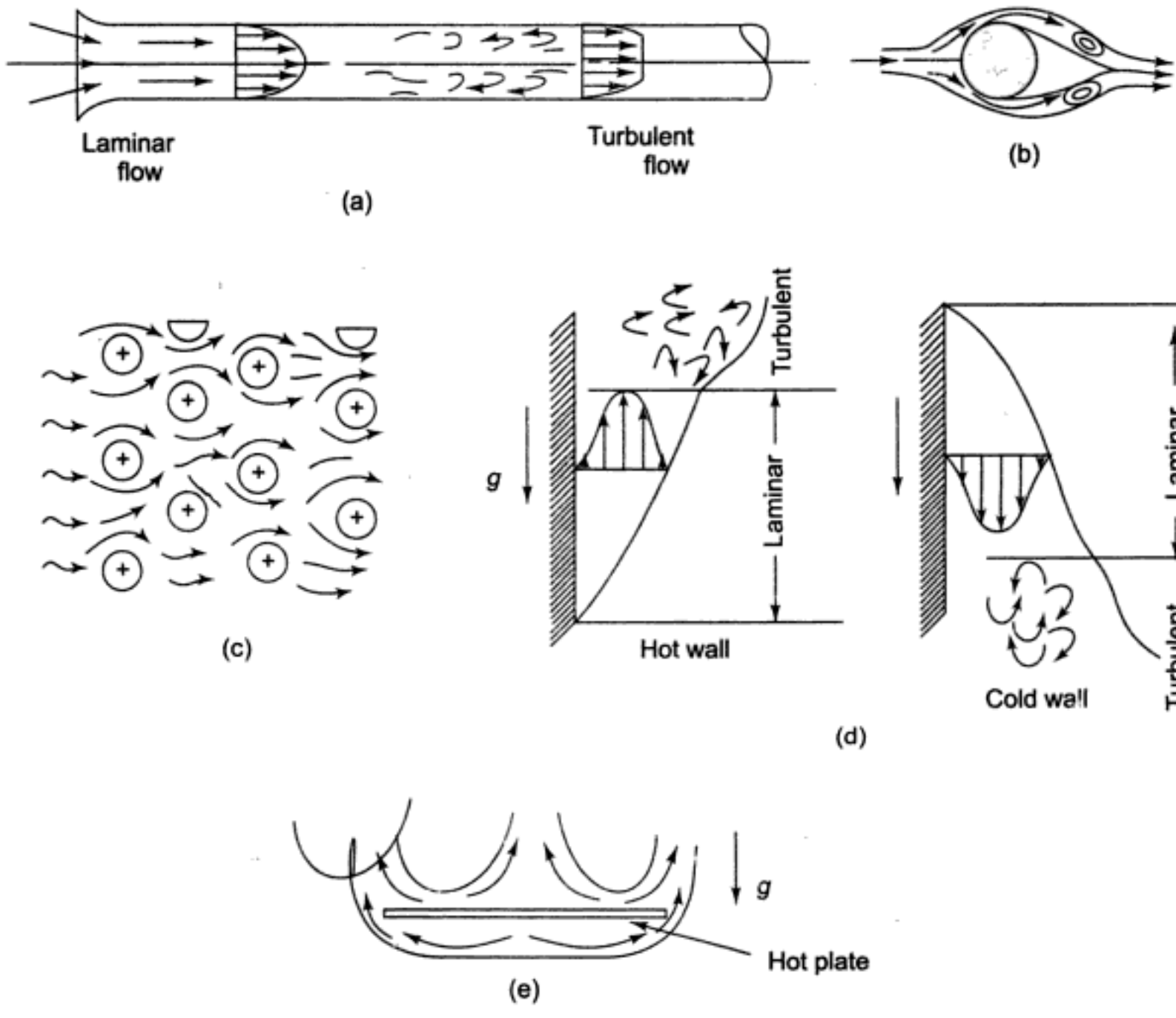


Fig. 1.22 *Some common flows: (a) Forced flow in a pipe, $Re_d \cong 50{,}000$. The flow is initially laminar because of 'bell-mouth' entrance, but becomes turbulent downstream. (b) Laminar forced flow over a cylinder, $Re_d = 25$. (c) Forced flow through a tube bank, (d) Laminar and turbulent natural convection boundary layers on vertical walls. (e) Laminar natural convection about a heated horizontal plate.*

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In all flows involving heat transfer and, therefore, temperature changes, the buoyancy forces arising from the gravitational field will exist. The term forced convection is only applied to flows in which the effects of these buoyancy forces are negligible. In some flows in which a forced velocity exists, the effects of these buoyancy forces may not be negligible. Such flows are termed combined or mixed, free and forced convection flows (Fig. 1.23).

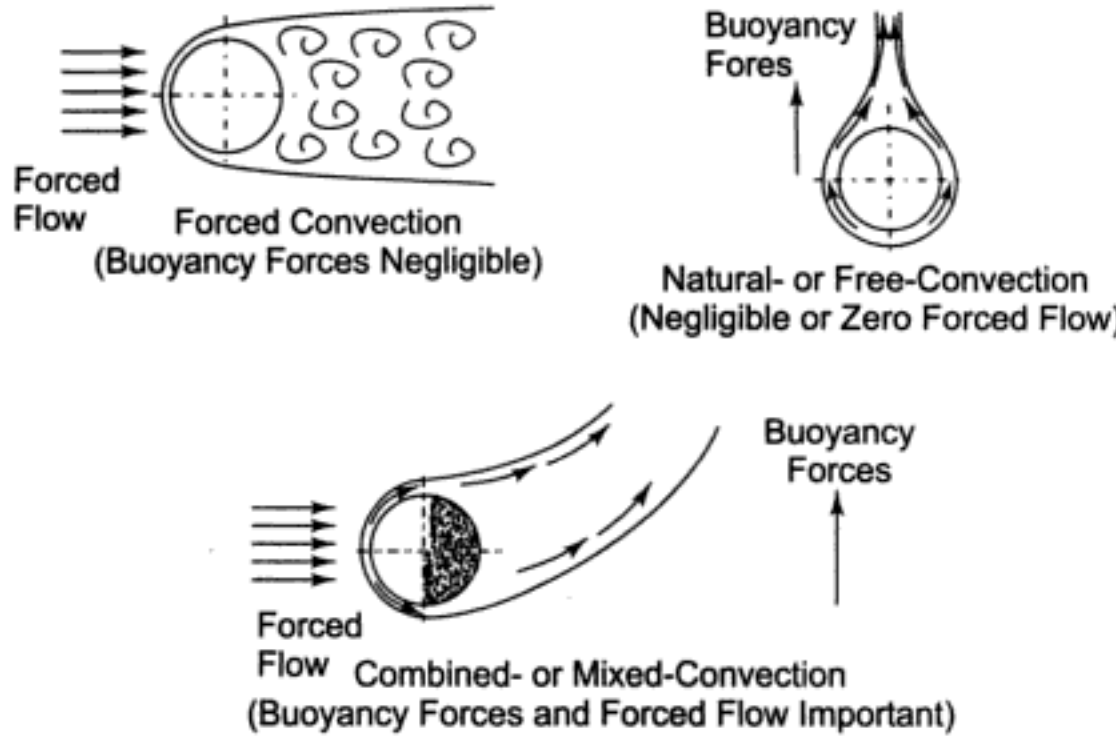


Fig. 1.23 *Forced, free and mixed convection*

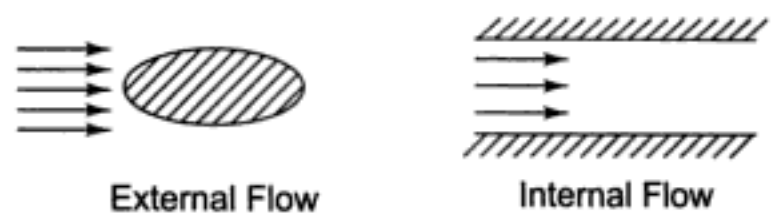
Convective flows can be classified as external and internal flows (Fig. 1.24). External flows involve a flow over the outer surface of a body and internal flows involve the flow through a duct or channel. The velocity and temperature profiles of a flow through a pipe are given in Fig. 1.25. The rate of heat transfer from the wall to the mean or bulk temperature of the fluid is given by

$$q_c = \frac{Q_c}{A} = h_c (T_w - T_b) \tag{1.29}$$

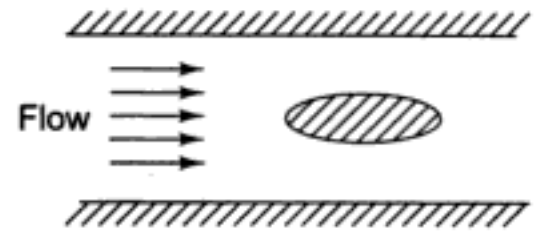
where h_c is the heat transfer coefficient (W/m^2 K) and T_b is the bulk temperature of the fluid given by

$$\mathbf{T_b = \frac{\int_A \rho u c_p A\, T\, dA}{c_p \int_A \rho u\, dA} = \frac{\int_A u T\, dA}{\int_A u\, dA}} \tag{1.30}$$

Since the velocity and temperature of the fluid are varying with temperature, the bulk temperature is equal to the temperature that would be attained if the fluid at a particular section of the duct being considered was discharged into a container and without any heat transfer occurring,



(a) External and internal flows



(b) A flow having some characteristics of both an external and an internal flow

Fig. 1.24 *External and internal fluid flows*

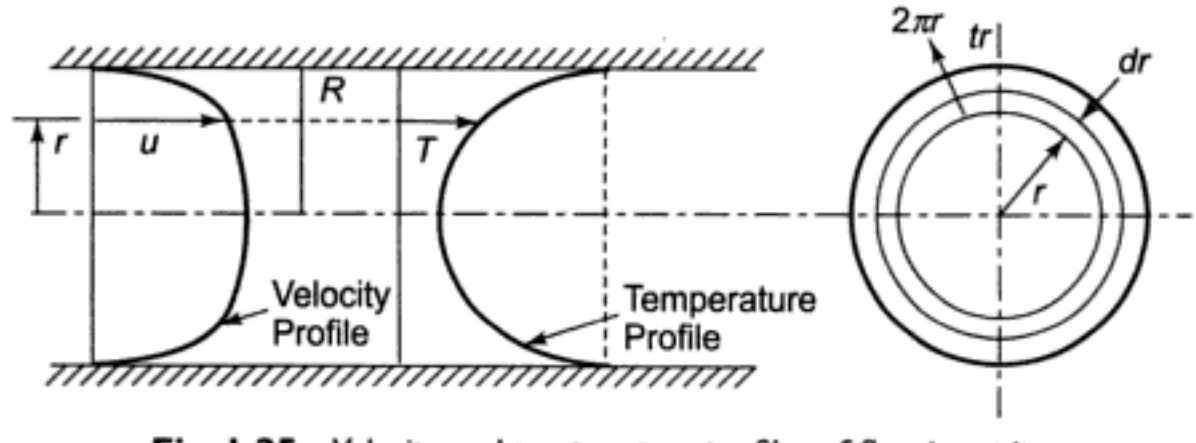


Fig. 1.25 *Velocity and temperature profiles of flow in a pipe*

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was mixed until a uniform temperature was obtained. Thus, it is sometimes referred to as the '*mixing cup temperature*'.

Equation (1.29) gives the local rate of heat transfer per unit area, the local heat transfer coefficient, the local wall temperature and the local fluid (bulk) temperature. In general, all of these quantities, i.e., q_w, h_c, T_w and T_b vary with position on the wall or surface. It is, therefore, convenient to define a mean or average heat transfer coefficient, $\bar{h}_c$ such that if Q is the total heat transfer rate from the entire surface of area A, then

$$Q = \bar{h}_c \, A(\bar{T}_w - \bar{T}_b)$$

Normally, the bars on $\bar{h}_c$, $\bar{T}_w$ and $\bar{T}_b$ indicating the mean values are omitted, thus

$$Q = h_c \, A(T_w - T_b) \tag{1.31}$$

If the pipe has a uniform wall temperature T_w along its length and the flow is laminar ($Re_d \leq 2300$), then sufficiently far from the pipe entrance, the heat transfer coefficient is given by the exact relation.

$$h_c = 3.66 \frac{k}{D} \tag{1.32}$$

where k is the fluid thermal conductivity and D is the pipe diameter. It may be noted that h_c is directly proportional to k, inversely proportional to D, and surprisingly independent of flow velocity.

On the other hand, for turbulent flow ($Re_d \geq 10{,}000$), h_c is given by the following equation correlated from experimental data

$$\mathbf{h_c = 0.023 \frac{V^{0.8} (\rho c_p)^{0.4} k^{0.6}}{D^{0.2} \nu^{0.4}}} \tag{1.33}$$

In contrast to laminar flow, h_c is now strongly dependent on velocity V, but weekly dependent on diameter, in addition to fluid properties k, ρ, c_p and ν.

Figure 1.26 shows a natural convection flow on a heated vertical surface, as well as associated variation of h_c along the surface. Transition from a laminar to a turbulent boundary layer is shown. In gases, the location of the transition is determined by a critical value of a dimensionless group called the Grashof number, defined as

$$\mathbf{Gr_x = \frac{g\beta \, \Delta T \, x^3}{\nu^2}},$$

where $\Delta T = T_w - T_\infty$, x = distance from the bottom of the surface where the boundary layer starts, and β = volumetric coefficient of expansion, which for an ideal gas is simply $1/T$ (K^{-1}). On a vertical plate, transition occurs at $Gr_x = 10^9$. For air, experiments show that for

Laminar flow: $$h_c = 1.07 \, (\Delta T/x)^{1/4} \ \text{W/m}^2\,\text{K} \quad \text{for } 10^4 < Gr_x < 10^9 \tag{1.34}$$

Turbulent flow: $$h_c = 1.3 \, (\Delta T)^{1/3} \ \text{W/m}^2\,\text{K} \quad \text{for } 10^9 < Gr_x < 10^{12} \tag{1.35}$$

Since these are dimensional equations, it is necessary to specify the units: h_c in W/m^2 K, ΔT in K and x in m. It is noted that h_c varies with $x^{-1/4}$ in laminar region but is independent of x in the turbulent region.

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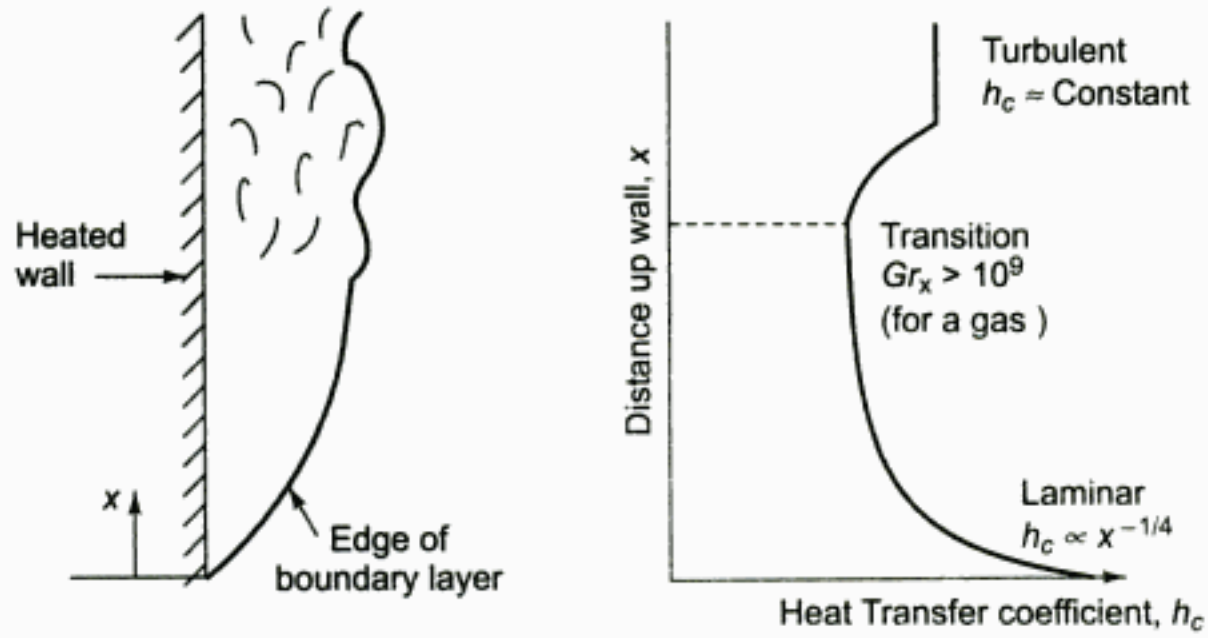


Fig. 1.26 *A natural convection heat transfer coefficient varying with distance x along with the development of boundary layer*

Table 1.4 gives some order-of-magnitude values of average heat transfer coefficients for various situations.

Table 1.4 *Typical values of the convective heat transfer coefficient h*

Type of flow	*h, W/(m²K)*
Free comection, ΔT = 25°C	
• 0.25-m vertical plate in:	
Atmospheric air	5
Engine oil	37
Water	440
• 0.02-m-OD* horizontal cylinder in:	
Atmospheric air	8
Engine oil	62
Water	741
• 0.02-m-diameter sphere in:	
Atmospheric air	9
Engine oil	60
Water	606
Forced convection	
• Atmospheric air at 25°C with u_a = 10 m/s over a flat plate:	
L = 0.1 m	39
L = 0.5 m	17
• Flow at 5 m/s across 1-cm-OD cylinder of:	
Atmospheric air	85
Engine oil	1,800
• Water at 1 kg/s inside 2.5-cm-ID† tube	10,500
Boiling of water at 1 atm	
• Pool boiling in a container	3,000
• Pool boiling at peak heat flux	35,000
• Film boiling	300
Condensation of steam at 1 atm	
• Film condenstation on horizontal tubes	9,000-25,000
• Film condensation on vertical surfaces	4,000-11,000
• Dropwise condensation	60,000-120,000

* OD = Outer diameter
† ID = inner diameter

1.5 OVERALL HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENT

The problem largely encountered in engineering practice is heat being transferred between two fluids of specified temperatures separated by a wall (Fig. 1.27). In such a situation the surface temperatures are not known, but they can be calculated if the convection heat transfer coefficients on both sides of the wall are known.

There are three resistances in series:

$$R = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 = \frac{1}{h_{c,1}A} + \frac{x}{kA} + \frac{1}{h_{c,2}A}$$

Now,

$$Q_c = \frac{T_h - T_c}{R} = \frac{T_h - T_c}{(1/h_{c,1}A) + (x/kA) + (1/h_{c,2}A)}$$

$$= \mathbf{UA\,(T_h - T_c)} \qquad (1.36)$$

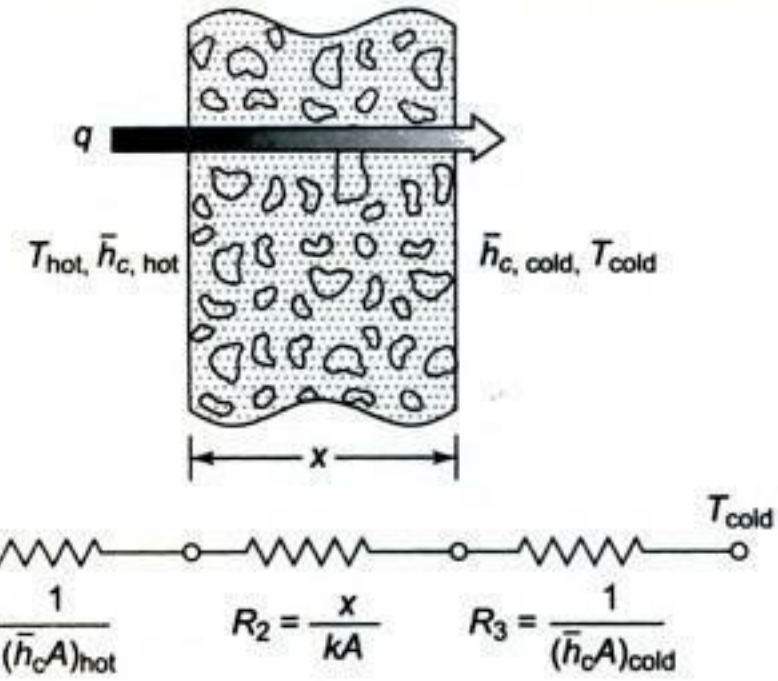


Fig. 1.27 *Thermal circuit with conduction and convection in series*

where U is known as the *overall heat transfer coefficient* (W/m^2K) and is given by

$$\frac{1}{UA} = \frac{1}{h_{c,1}A} + \frac{x}{kA} + \frac{1}{h_{c,2}A} \qquad (1.37)$$

or

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_{c,1}} + \frac{x}{K} + \frac{1}{h_{c,2}}$$

For a composite wall with three different layers in series (Fig. 1.28)

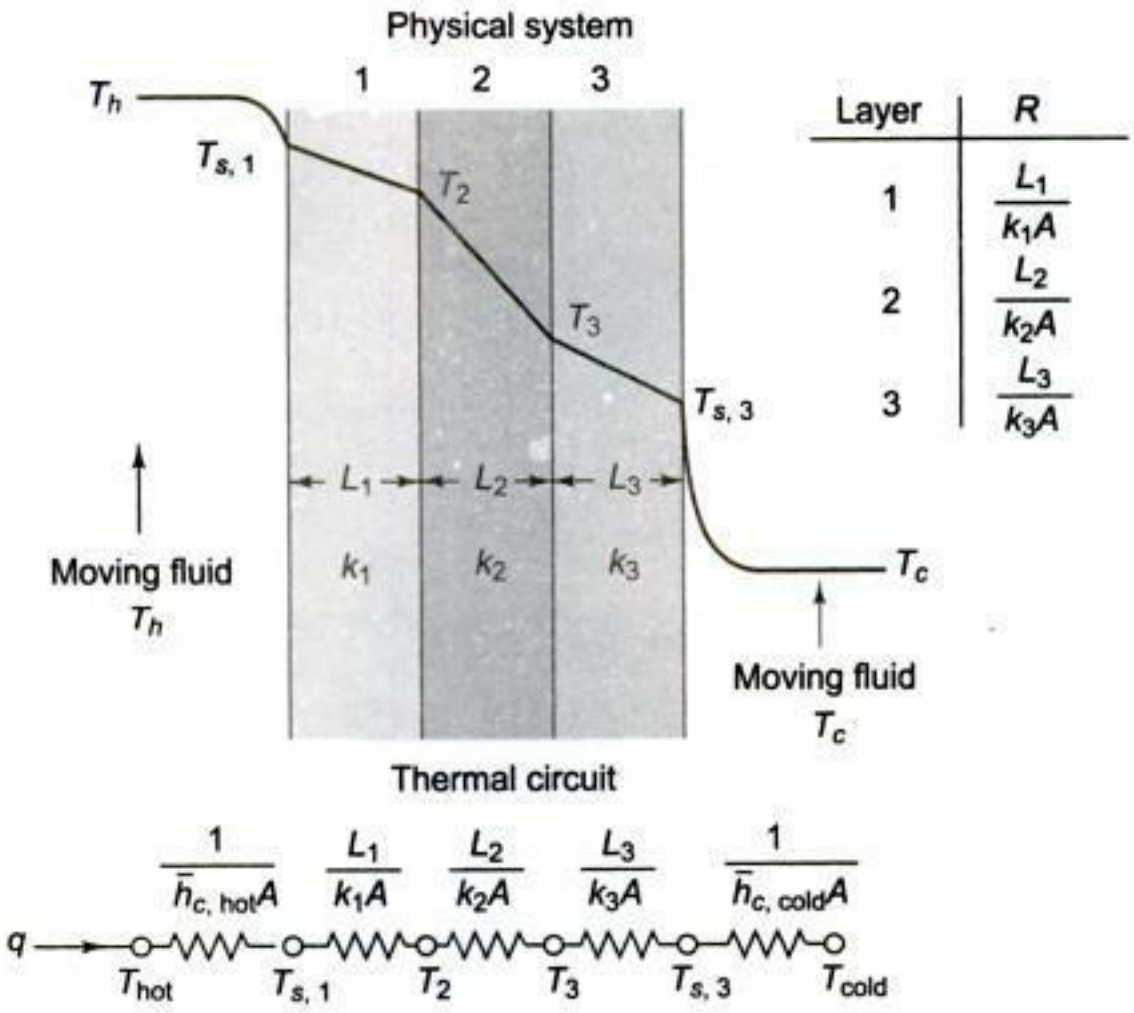


Fig. 1.28 *Heat transfer through a three-layer composite wall with convection over both exterior surfaces*

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$$\frac{1}{UA} = \frac{1}{h_{c,\,\text{hot}}\,A} + \frac{L_1}{k_1 A} + \frac{L_2}{k_2 A} + \frac{L_3}{k_3 A} + \frac{1}{h_{c,\,\text{cold}}\,A}$$

and

$$Q = UA\,(T_h - T_c) \tag{1.38}$$

Similarly, for heat transfer from a hot fluid inside a cylinder to the cold fluid outside (Fig. 1.29)

$$Q_c = \frac{T_h - T_c}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3} = \frac{T_h - T_c}{\dfrac{1}{h_i\,A_i} + \dfrac{x_w}{k_w\,A_{lm}} + \dfrac{1}{h_o\,A_o}}$$

$$= \mathbf{U_o\,A_o\,(T_h - T_c)}$$

where

$$\frac{1}{U_o\,A_o} = \frac{1}{h_i\,A_i} + \frac{x_w}{k_w\,A_{lm}} + \frac{1}{h_o\,A_o} \tag{1.39}$$

U_o being the overall heat transfer coefficient based on the outside surface area A_o, h_i the inside heat transfer coefficient and h_o the outside heat transfer coefficient.

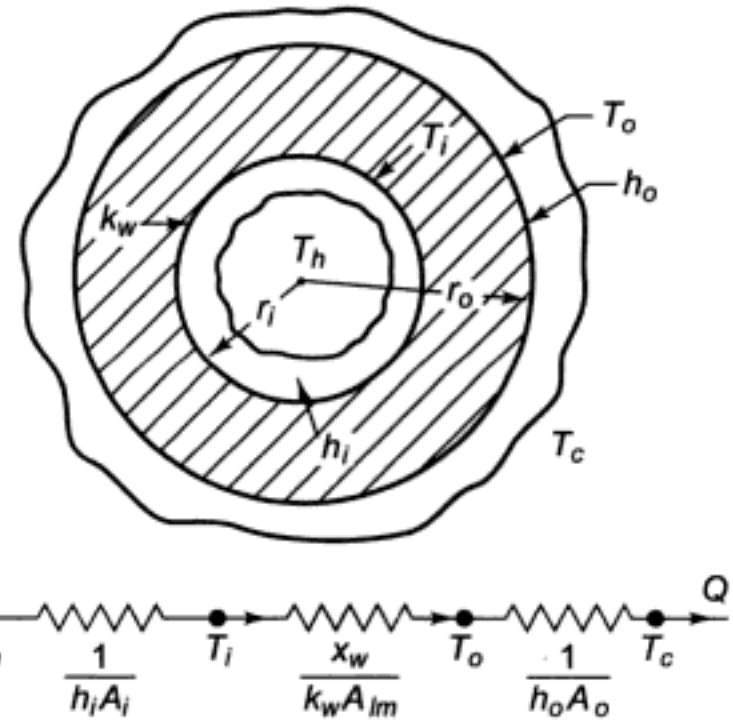


Fig. 1.29 *Radial heat transfer from a hot to a cold fluid through a cylindrical wall*

Now,

$$T_h - T_1 = Q_c R_1 = Q_c \frac{1}{h_i\,A_i}$$

$$T_1 - T_2 = Q_c R_2 = Q_c \frac{x_w}{k_w\,A_{lm}}$$

$$T_2 - T_c = Q_c R_3 = Q_c \frac{1}{h_o\,A_o}$$

from which the interface temperatures T_1 and T_2 can be estimated.

When the wall thickness x_w is small,

$$A_o = A_{lm} = A_i$$

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Then

$$\frac{1}{U_o} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{x_w}{k_w} + \frac{1}{h_o} = \frac{1}{U_i} \tag{1.40}$$

where U_i is the overall heat transfer coefficient based on the inside surface area A_i. It may be noted that $U_o A_o = U_i A_i$.

If more resistances are put in series, these are to be added up and the same procedure will follow.

1.6 RADIATION HEAT TRANSFER

All bodies radiate heat. The phenomenon is identical to the emission of light. Two similar bodies isolated together in a vacuum radiate heat to each other, but the colder body will receive more heat than the hot body and thus become heated.

If Q is the total radiant energy incident upon the surface of a body, some part of it (Q_a) will be absorbed, some (Q_r) will be reflected and some (Q_c) will be transmitted through the body.

$$Q = Q_a + Q_r + Q_t$$

or

$$\frac{Q_a}{Q} + \frac{Q_r}{Q} + \frac{Q_t}{Q} = 1$$

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha + \rho + \tau = 1} \tag{1.41}$$

where α is known as absorptivity, ρ as reflectivity and τ as transmissivity.

For an opaque body, $\tau = 0$ and so $\alpha + \rho = 1$. Most solids are opaque. By increasing ρ with high surface polishing, α can be decreased.

A body which absorbs all the incident radiation is called a *black body*. A *black body* is also the best emitter. Most radiating surfaces are gray and have an emissivity factor ε less than unity, where

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\text{Actual radiation of a gray body at } T(\text{K})}{\text{Radiation of a black body at } T(\text{K})}$$

The rate at which energy is radiated by a black body at the absolute temperature T is given by the *Stefan-Boltzmann law*

$$\mathbf{Q_r = \sigma A\, T^4} \tag{1.42}$$

where σ is the *Stefan-Boltzmann constant*, 5.67×10^{-8} W/m^2 K^4. The constant was named after two Austrian scientists, J. Stefan, who in 1879 proved Eq. (1.42) experimentally, and L. Boltzmann, who in 1884 derived it theoretically.

The radiant heat exchange between two gray bodies at temperatures T_1 and T_2 depends on how the two bodies view each other, and their emissivities, and it is given by

$$Q_{1\text{-}2} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}2} (T_1^4 - T_2^4) \tag{1.43}$$

where $\mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}2}$ is the view factor or configuration factor for gray bodies or the fraction of total radiant energy leaving, gray surface 1 and reaching gray surface 2.

It can be shown that

$$\mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}2} = \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\left[\frac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_1}} - \mathbf{1}\right] + \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{F_{12}}} + \frac{\mathbf{A_1}}{\mathbf{A_2}}\left[\frac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_2}} - \mathbf{1}\right]} \tag{1.44}$$

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where ε_1 and ε_2 are the emissivities of the two bodies of surface areas A_1 and A_2, and F_{12} is the view factor of two similar black bodies, or the fraction of energy that leaves the black surface 1 and is incident on the black surface 2. It can be shown that

$$A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21} \tag{1.45}$$

which is known as the *reciprocity theorem.*

The T^4 dependence of radiant heat transfer, Eq. (1.43) often complicates engineering calculations. For the special case of surface 1 surrounded by surface 2, where either area A_1 is small as compared to area A_2, or surface 2 is nearly black, $F_{12} \simeq \varepsilon_1$ and Eq. (1.43) becomes

$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 \, \varepsilon_1 \, (T_1^4 - T_2^4) \tag{1.46}$$

When T_1 and T_2 are not too different, it is convenient to linearize Eq. (1.46) by factoring the term $(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$ to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{12} &= \sigma A_1 \, \varepsilon_1 \, (T_1^2 + T_2^2) \, (T_1 + T_2) \, (T_1 - T_2) \\ &= \sigma A_1 \, \varepsilon_1 \, (4T_m^3) \, (T_1 - T_2) \end{aligned}$$

for $T_1 \simeq T_2$, where T_m is the mean of T_1 and T_2. This result can be written concisely as

$$Q_{12} = A_1 \, h_r \, (T_1 - T_2) \tag{1.47}$$

where $h_r = 4\varepsilon_1 \, \sigma \, T_m^3$ (1.47a)

is called the *radiation heat transfer coefficient* (W/m^2 K)

At 25°C or 298 K,

$$\begin{aligned} h_r &= 4\varepsilon_1 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \, (\text{W/m}^2 \, \text{K}^4) \times (298)^3 \, (\text{K}^3) \\ &\simeq \mathbf{6\varepsilon_1 \, W/m^2 \, K} \end{aligned} \tag{1.47b}$$

This result can be easily remembered. The radiation heat transfer coefficient at *room temperature* is about six times the surface emissivity. For T_1 = 320 K and T_2 = 300 K, the error incurred in using the approximation of Eq. (1.47) is only 0.1%; for T_1 = 400 K and T_2 = 300 K, the error is 2%.

1.6.1 Combined Convection and Radiation

Heat is transferred from a hot body both by natural convection and radiation.

Rate of heat transfer by natural convection,

$$Q_c = h_c \, A \, (T_w - T_\infty)$$

and that by radiation

$$Q_r = \sigma A_1 \, \mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}2} \, (T_w^4 - T_\infty^4) = h_r \, A_1 \, (T_w - T_\infty) \tag{1.48}$$

where h_r is known as the *radiation heat transfer coefficient* (W/m^{2}K).

$$h_r = \sigma \, \mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}2} \, (T_w + T_\infty) \, (T_w^2 + T_\infty^2) \tag{1.49}$$

The equivalent thermal resistance to radiation heat transfer

$$R_r = \frac{1}{h_r \, A_1} = \frac{1}{\sigma \, A_1 \, \mathcal{F}_{1\text{-}2} \, (T_w + T_\infty) \, (T_w^2 + T_\infty^2)} \tag{1.50}$$

The total rate of heat transfer by convection and radiation, which occur in parallel, is

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= Q_c + Q_r \\ &= \mathbf{(h_c + h_r) \, A_1 \, (T_w - T_\infty)} \end{aligned} \tag{1.51}$$

The equivalent physical system and thermal circuit for heat transfer between two bodies 1 and 2 are shown in Fig. 1.30.

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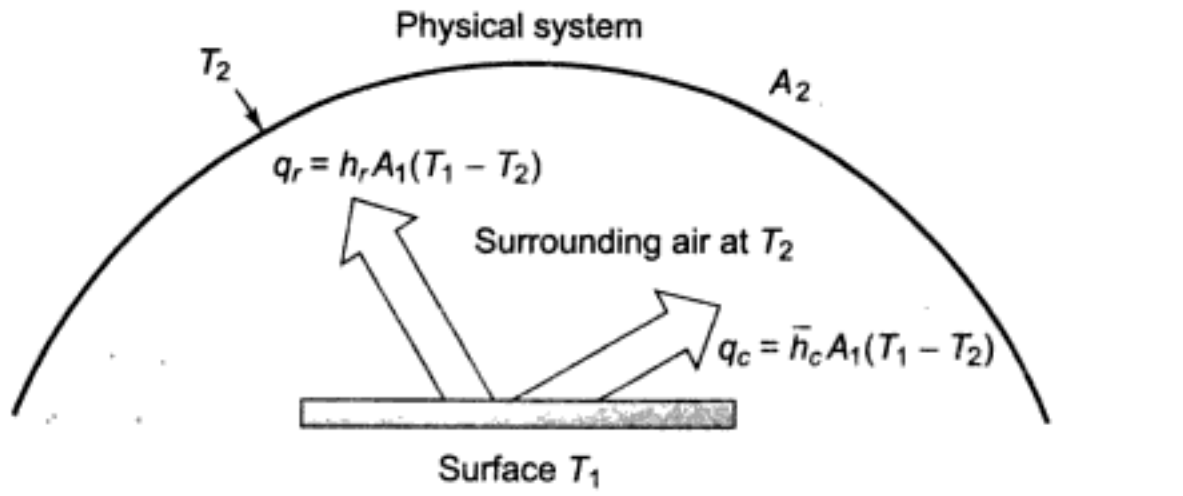


Fig. 1.30 *Thermal circuit with convection and radiation acting in parallel*

1.6.2 Combined Conduction, Convection and Radiation

It is easy to envision cases in which all three modes of heat transfer are present, as in Fig. 1.31. In this case the heat conducted through the plate is removed from the plate surface by a combination of convection and radiation. An energy balance would give

$$-kA \left.\frac{dT}{dy}\right|_{\text{wall}} = hA(T_w - T_\infty) + \sigma A \mathcal{F}_{1-2}(T_w^4 - T_s^4) \tag{1.51a}$$

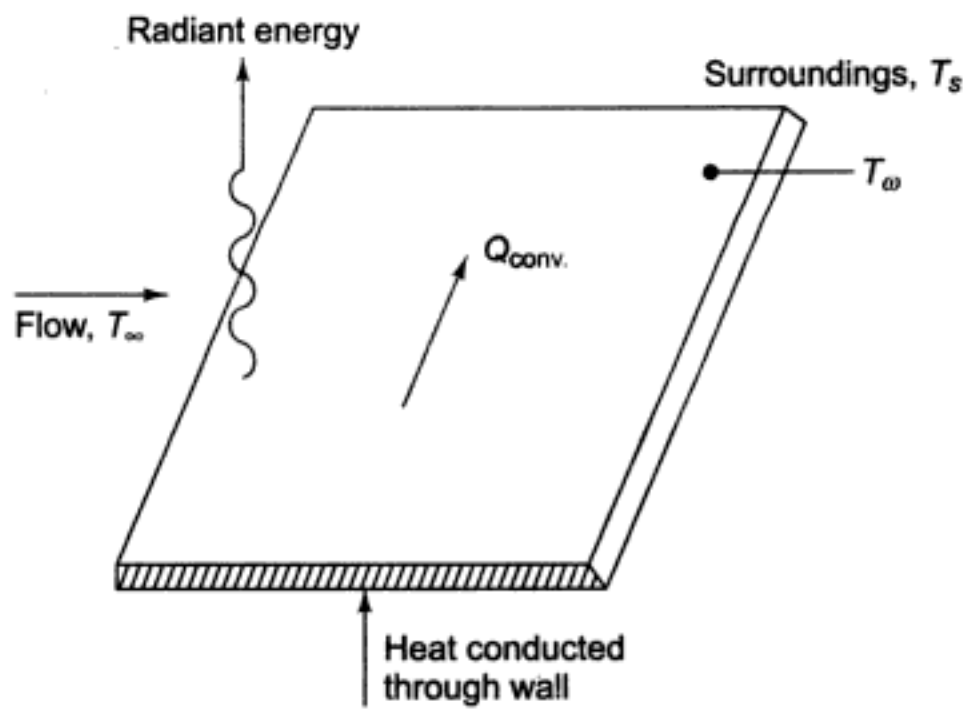


Fig. 1.31 *Combination of conduction, convection and radiation heat transfer*

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where $Q_{conv.} = hA(T_w - T_\alpha)$, T_w = wall surface temperature, T_α = fluid temperature and T_s = temperature of surroundings.

1.7 THERMAL INSULATION

There are certain situations in engineering design when the objective is to reduce the flow of heat e.g., heat exchangers, building insulation, thermos flask and so on. Thermal insulation materials must have a low thermal conductivity. In most cases this is achieved by trapping air or some other gas inside small cavities in a solid. It uses the inherently low conductivity of a gas to inhibit heat flow. Heat can, however, be transferred by natural convection inside the gas pockets and by radiation between the solid enclosure walls. The conductivity of insulating materials is, therefore, the result of a combination of heat flow mechanisms (Fig. 1.32). It is an effective value, k_{eff}, that changes with temperature, pressure and environmental conditions e.g., moisture.

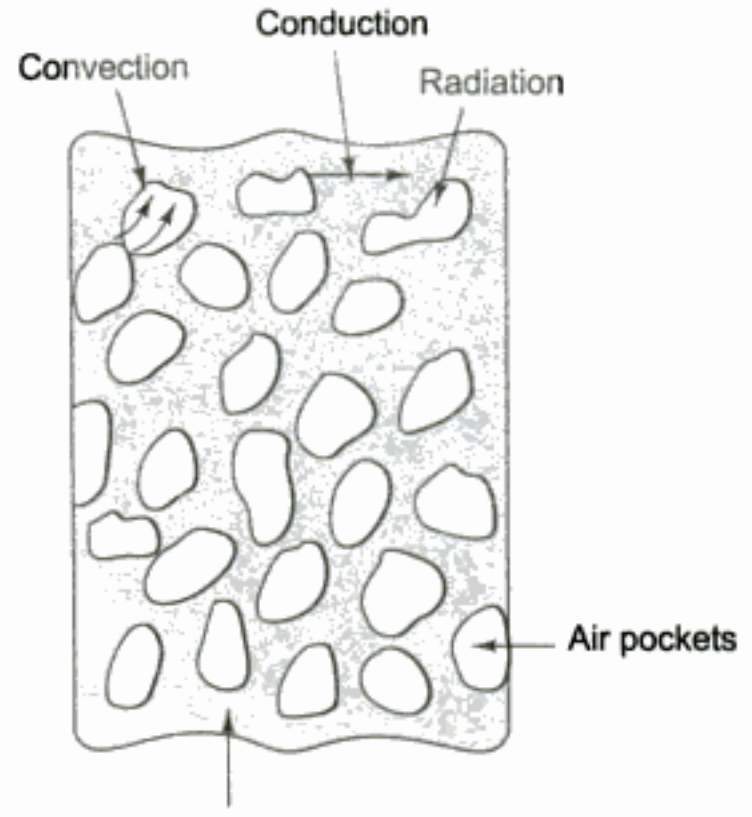


Fig. 1.32 *Apparent thermal conductivity of an insulating material accounting for conduction through solid material, and conduction or convection through the air space as well as radiation*

There are essentially three types of insulation materials:

1. *Fibrous:* Fibrous materials consist of small-diameter particles or filaments of low density that can be poured into a gap as "loose-fill" or formed into boards or blankets. Fibrous materials have very high porosity (~90%). Mineral wool is a common fibrous material for applications at temperatures below 700°C, and fibreglass is often used for temperatures below 200°C. Between 700°C and 1700°C, one can use refractory fibres such as alumina (Al_2O_3) or silica (SiO_2).
2. *Cellular:* Cellular insulations are closed- or open-cell materials that are usually in the form of flexible or rigid boards. They can also be foamed or sprayed to achieve desired geometrical shapes. Low density, low heat capacity and good compressive strength are their advantages. Examples are polyurethane and expanded polystyrene foam.
3. *Granular:* Granular insulation consists of small flakes or particles of inorganic materials bonded into desired shapes or used as powders. Examples are perlite powder, diatomaceous silica, and vermiculite.

Fibrous and granular insulation can be evacuated to eliminate convection and conduction, thus decreasing the effective conductivity appreciably. Figure 1.33 shows the ranges of effective thermal conductivity for evacuated and non-evacuated insulation as well as the product of thermal conductivity and bulk density, which is sometimes important in design.

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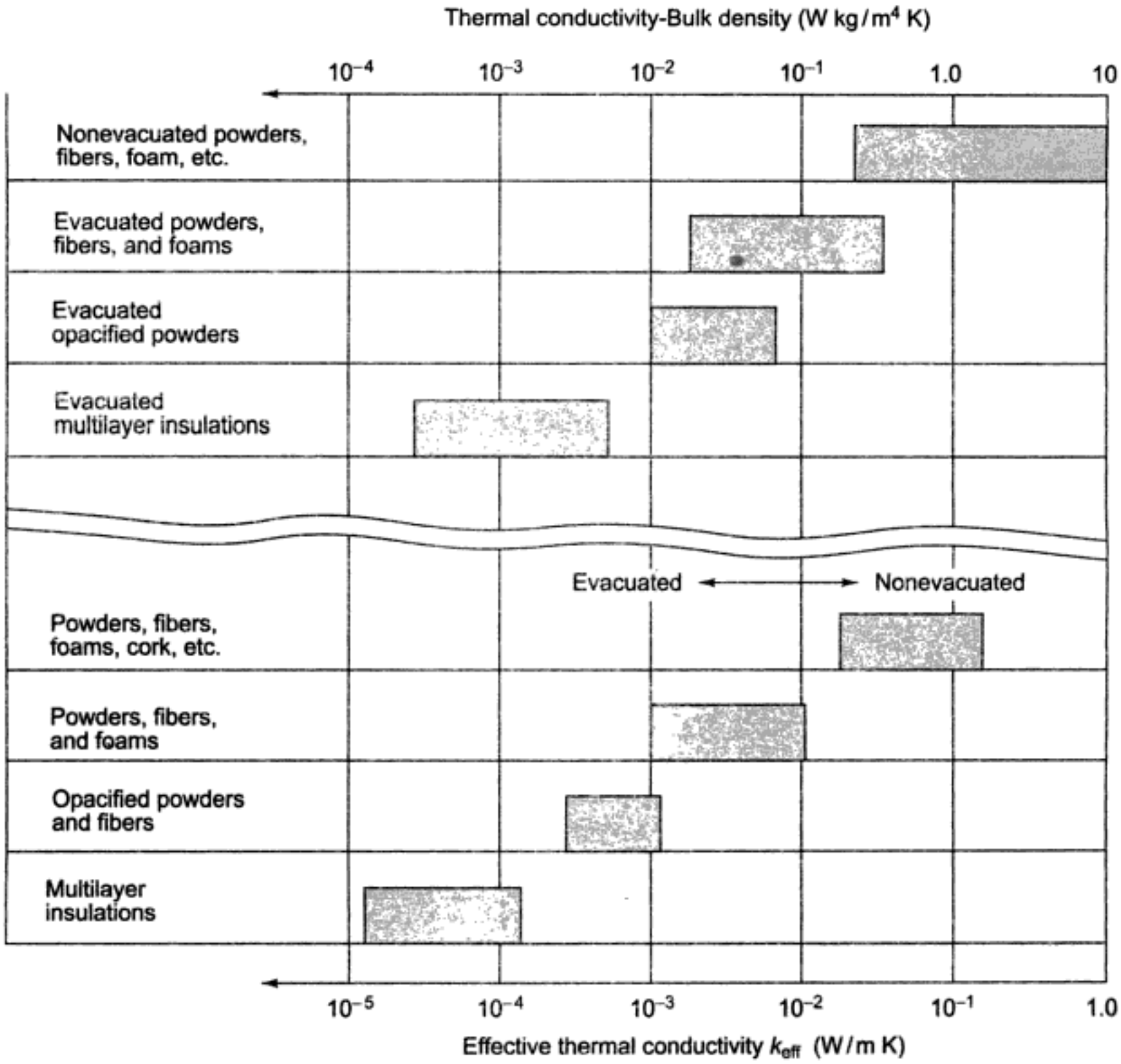


Fig. 1.33 *Range of thermal conductivities of thermal insulations and products of thermal conductivity and bulk density*

Sometimes reflective sheets are used to provide insulation. Two or more thin sheets of metal with low emittance are placed parallel to each other to reflect radiation back to its source. An example is the thermos flask, in which the space between the reflective surfaces is evacuated to suppress convection and conduction, leaving radiation as the main transfer mechanism.

Apart from low thermal conductivity, insulation material should have structural rigidity, low density, less degradation, good chemical stability and low cost.

Figure 1.34 shows ranges of thermal conductivities for several common low-temperature fibrous and cellular insulation materials. All of the values are for new materials. Polyurethane and polystyrene generally lose between 20 and 50% of their insulation quality during the first year of use; moisture uptake or loss of vacuum also reduces insulating property. Except for cellular glass, cellular insulating materials are plastics that are inexpensive and of light weight.

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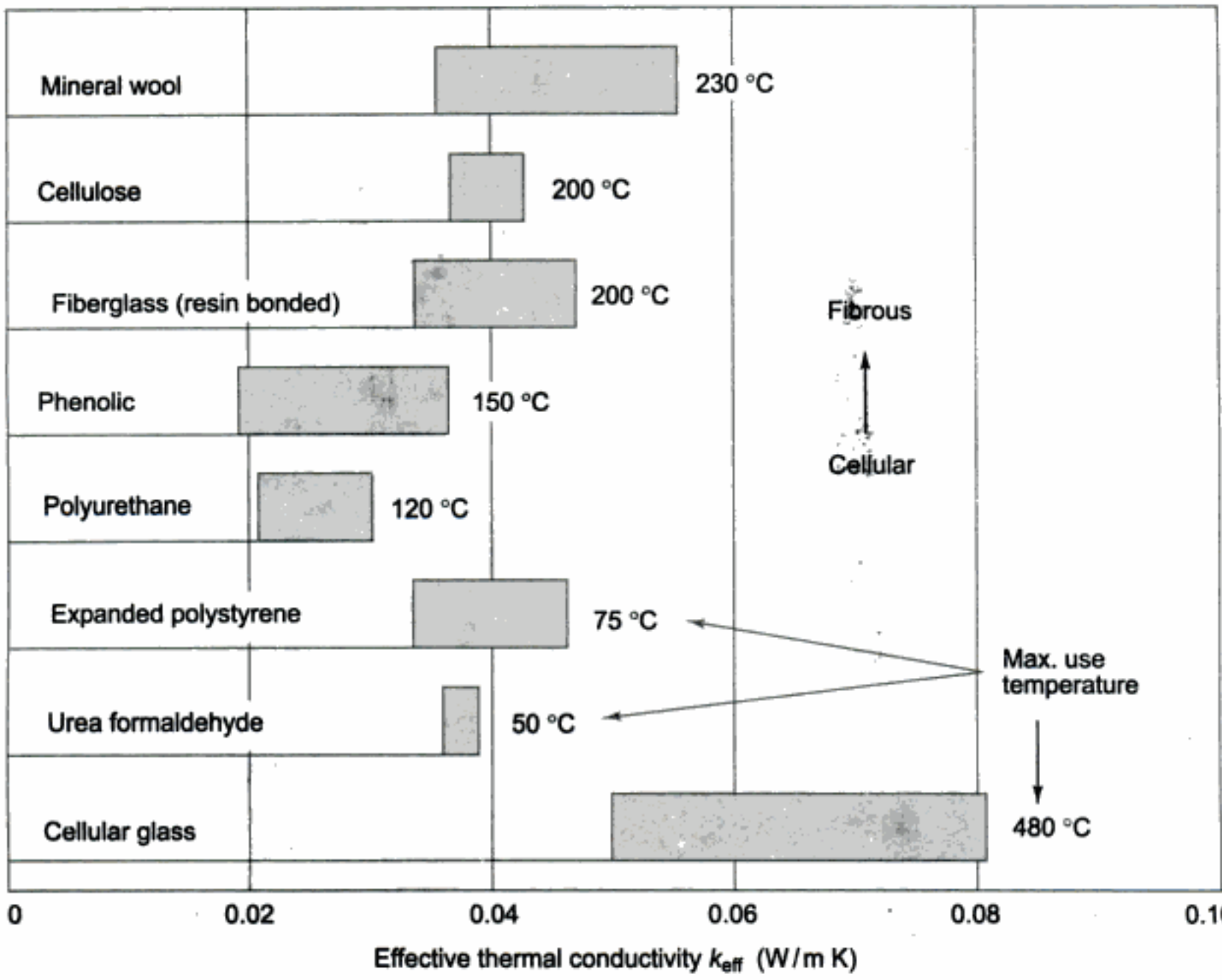


Fig. 1.34 *Thermal conductivity ranges for fibrous and cellular insulations with maximum-use temperatures*

For high temperature applications, refractory materials are used. They can be in the form of bricks which can withstand temperatures upto 1700°C. The effective conductivity varies from 1.5 W/m K for fire-clay to about 2.5 W/m K for zirconia. Loose-fill insulation has a much lower thermal conductivity, as shown in Fig. 1.35, and it can be used only below 900°C. The effectiveness of insulating materials is often expressed in terms of their *R-value*, which is the thermal resistance of the material for a unit area, i.e. $R_{value} = L/k$, L being the thickness and k the thermal conductivity.

Insulation pays for itself from the energy it saves. Insulating a surface properly requires a one-time capital investment, but its effects are dramatic and long term. The payback period of insulation is usually under 2 years.

1.8 DIFFUSION AND MASS TRANSFER

Diffusional mass transfer occurs at a microscopic or molecular level which deals with the transport of one constituent of a fluid solution or gas mixture from a region of higher concentration to a region of lower concentration (mol/m^3). Heat is transferred in a direction which reduces an existing temperature gradient, and mass is transferred in a direction which reduces an existing concentration gradient.

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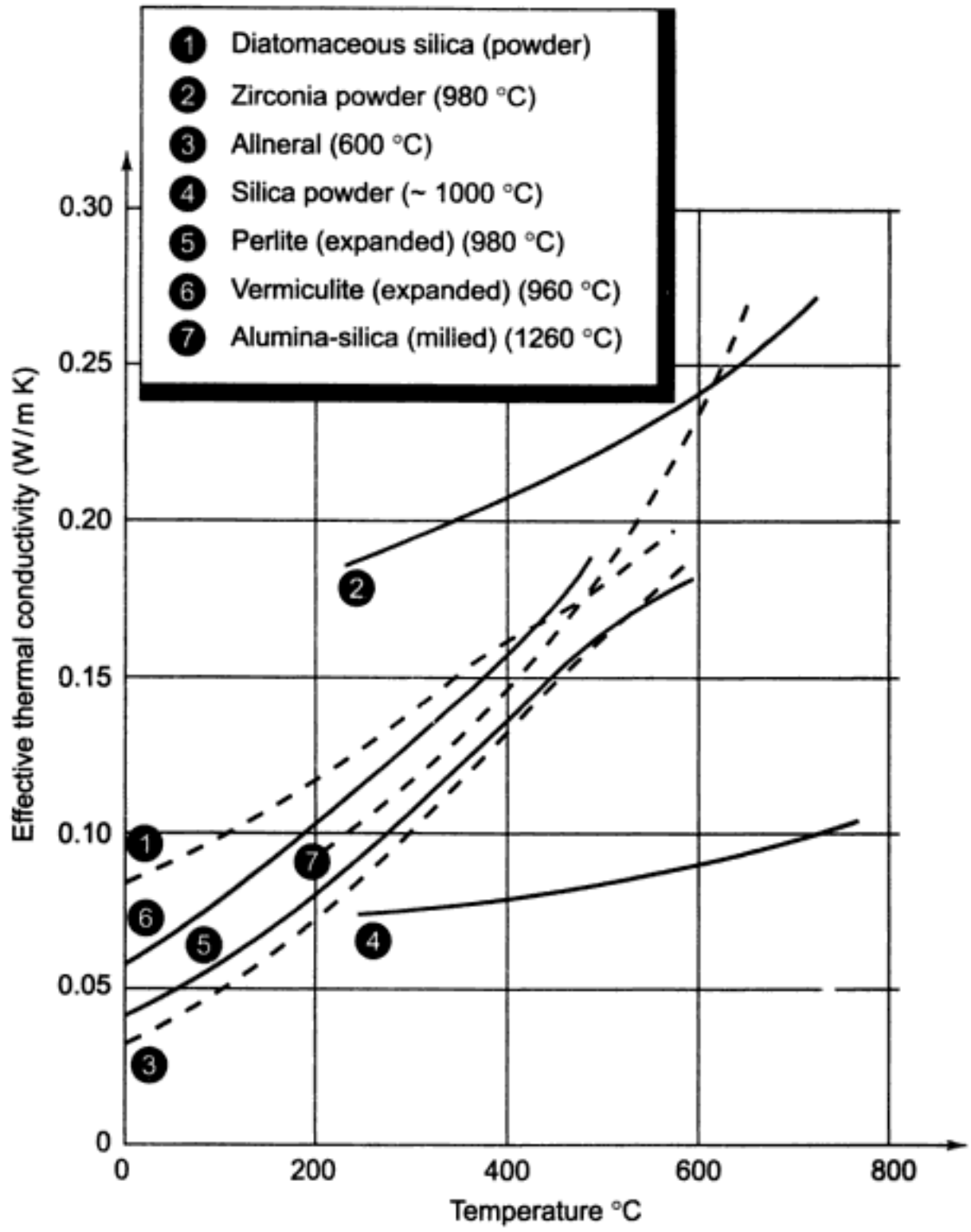


Fig. 1.35 *Thermal conductivity varying with temperature for some high temperature insulations with maximum use temperature in parenthesis*

The rate of molecular diffusion is proportional to the concentration gradient

$$\frac{N_A}{A} \propto \frac{dC_A}{dy}$$

where N_A/A is the diffusion rate per unit area (kg mol/m^{2}s) of the diffusing species A, and dC_A/dy is the concentration gradient (kg mol/m^4) in the direction of diffusion Y, C_A being the concentration of A in kg mol/m^3

$$\frac{\mathbf{N_A}}{\mathbf{A}} = -\mathbf{D}\frac{\mathbf{dC_A}}{\mathbf{dy}} \tag{1.52}$$

where D is the constant of proportionality, called the diffusivity (m^2/s). It is called the *Fick's law of diffusion*, which is similar to Fourier's law of heat conduction.

Whenever there is concentration gradient there will be mass transfer, till the concentration of that particular constituent becomes uniform.

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Figure 1.36 shows a sugar cube or lump dissolving in a cup of tea. The concentration of dissolved sugar adjacent to the lump is higher than in the bulk tea, and the dissolved sugar moves down its concentration gradient by the process known as *ordinary diffusion*. Ordinary diffusion is analogous to heat conduction, which may be viewed as diffusion of thermal energy or heat down its temperature gradient. If the tea is stirred, the fluid motion transports dissolved sugar away from the lump by the process known as *mass convection*. Mass convection is exactly analogous to heat convection: the fluid can transport both energy and chemical species by virtue of motion. The transport of perfume or noxious odours in the air surrounding us similarly involves the processes of mass diffusion and mass convection.

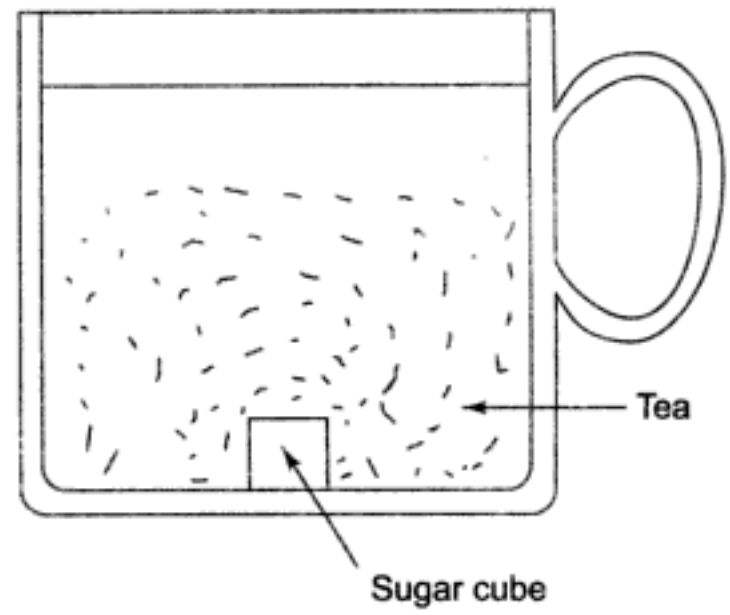


Fig. 1.36 *A sugar lump dissolving in a cup of tea: the dissolved sugar moves away from the lump by diffusion in the direction of decreasing sugar concentration*

We often encounter processes involving the evaporation of water into air e.g., from a hot tub or swimming pool, or when we sweat while doing physical exercise, the air adjacent to the water surface is saturated with water vapour, and the corresponding water vapour concentration is usually higher than that in the surrounding air: water vapour diffuses away from the surface and is replenished by evaporation of the liquid water. The latent heat required to evaporate the water is supplied from the bulk water or human body, causing the cooling effect. This is known as sweat cooling (evaporative cooling) as it keeps the surface wet: We welcome a breeze when sweating, the mass convection associated with air motion increases the rate of evaporation and the cooling effect. Sweat cooling includes *simultaneous heat and mass transfer*. A wet cooling tower cools water from the condenser of a power plant. All combustion processes involve simultaneous mass transfer of the reactants and products, and heat transfer associated with the release of heat of combustion.

Mass transfer occurs in a variety of equipment, particularly those required to control pollution of the environment by exhaust gases from combustion processes like the exhaust from automobiles or stack gases from power plants. A catalytic converter on an automobile is a *mass exchanger* that removes carbon monoxide, unburnt hydrocarbons, and nitrogen oxides from the engine exhaust. The coal-fired power plants are often required to have mass exchangers that remove sulphur oxides (causing acid rain) as well as nitrogen oxides and particulate matter from the furnace exhaust.

Fick's law of diffusion governing ordinary diffusion, analogous to Fourier's law of heat conduction, states that the local mass flux of a chemical species is proportional to the negative of local concentration gradient. The mass fraction of chemical species is defined as

$$m_i = \text{mass fraction of a species } i = \frac{\text{Partial density of species } i}{\text{Density of the mixture}} = \frac{\rho_i}{\rho} \tag{1.53}$$

where $\rho = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \rho_i$ for a mixture of n species.

Fick's law then gives the *diffusion mass flux* j_1 (kg/m^2 s) of species 1 in a binary mixture of species 1 and 2 as

$$j_1 \propto -\frac{dm_1}{dx}$$

for one-dimensional diffusion in the x-direction.

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$$\therefore \qquad \mathbf{j_1 = -\rho\, D_{1\text{-}2} \frac{dm_1}{dx}} \tag{1.54}$$

where $\rho D_{1\text{-}2}$ is the constant of proportionality, ρ(kg/m^3) is the local mixture density and $D_{1\text{-}2}$ is the binary diffusion coefficient or mass diffusivity (m^2/s).

Mass convection is essentially identical to heat convection, and similar considerations apply. The flow may be forced or natural, internal or external, and laminar or turbulent. Referring to Fig. 1.37, analogous to Newton's law of cooling (Eq. 1.27), we may write

$$j_{1,w} = J_{m1}\, \Delta m_1 \tag{1.55}$$

where, $\Delta m_1 = m_{1,w} - m_{1,e}$

Here, J_{m1} (kg/m^2 s) is the mass transfer coefficient. The mass transfer for laminar flow in a tube like heat convection (Eq. 1.32),

$$J_{m1} = 3.66 \frac{\rho D_{1-2}}{D}$$

where D is the tube diameter. The average mass transfer coefficient is

$$J_{m1} = \frac{1}{A}\int_6^A j_{m1} \cdot dA$$

As for natural heat convection, natural mass convection is driven by buoyancy forces arising from a density difference caused by concentration difference or temperature difference. Convective heat and mass problems will further be discussed in Chapter 10. There is no mass transfer analog to radiation heat transfer.

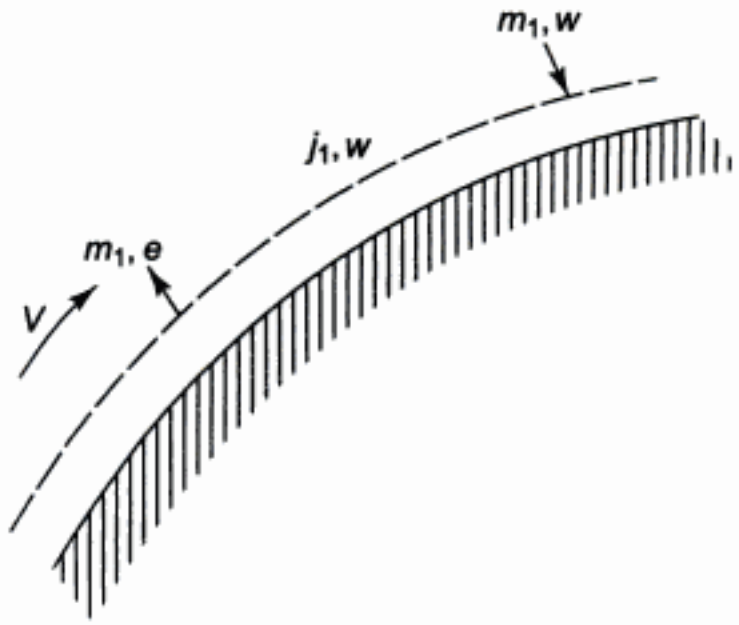


Fig. 1.37 *Convective mass transfer in an external flow*

1.9 UNITS AND DIMENSIONS

SI system of units will be used throughout, in which the fundamental units are metre (L), kilogram (M), second (T) and kelvin (K). Force and energy or heat are derived units. The force is in newton, 1 N = 1 kg m/s^2, and the energy is in joule or newton-metre (1 J = 1 Nm). Power is in watts (W, kW or MW); 1 W = 1 J/s. The pressure is in pascals, 1 Pa = 1 N/m^2, or in bar.

1 bar = 10^5 Pa = 100 kPa = 0.1 MPa

and **1 atm = 1.01325 bar = 101.325 kPa.**

Solved Examples

Example 1.1 *Given:* Sheets of brass and steel, each 1 cm thick, are in contact. The outer surface of brass is at 100°C and that of steel is at 0°C, and $k_b/k_s = 2$.

To find: Interface temperature of the sheets.

Solution The steady state temperature distribution through a plane wall is given by Eq. (1.6),

$$Q_k = kA\frac{T_1 - T_2}{L}$$

Let T be the interface temperature. Since the heat flow through the sheets is in series,

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$$Q = k_b A \frac{100 - T}{L} = k_s A \frac{T - 0}{L}$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{T}{100 - T} = \frac{k_b}{k_s} = 2$$

$$\therefore \quad T = 66.7°\text{C } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.2 *Given:* Temperature of air over the surface of a lake = – 6°C. k_i = 1.675 W/mK, ρ_i = 920 kg/m^3, l_{fu} = 325 kJ/kg.
To find: The time required to form a thickness of 4 cm of ice on the surface of the lake.

Solution To form ice of differential thickness dy, let $d\tau$ be the time required. By energy balance,

$$\rho A\, dy\, l_{\text{fu}} = k_i A \frac{T_2 - T_1}{y} d\tau$$

$$\therefore \quad \int_0^{\tau} d\tau = \int_0^{y} \frac{\rho l_{\text{fu}}}{k_i (T_2 - T_1)} y\, dy$$

$$\therefore \quad \tau = \frac{\rho l_{\text{fu}}}{k_i (T_2 - T_1)} \cdot \frac{y^2}{2}$$

Substituting the given values,

$$\tau = \frac{920 \times 325 \times (0.04)^2 \times 10^3}{1.675[0 - (-6)] \times 2}$$

$$= 24533.33 \text{ s} = 6.815 \text{ h} = 6 \text{ h } 49 \text{ min. } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.3 *Given:* The convective heat transfer coefficient, $h_c = 2.512\ (\Delta T)^{1/4}$ W/m^{2}K. A hot plate of A = 0.2 m^2 at 59°C loses heat to a room at temperature 20°C.
To find: The fraction of heat lost by natural convection, when heat is transferred from the plate steadily at the rate of 100 W.

Solution The rate of heat transfer by convection, $Q_c = h_c A\ (\Delta T)$,

where $h_c = 2.512\ (59 - 20)^{1/4} = 6.277$ W/m^{2}K

$\therefore \quad Q_c = 6.277 \times 0.2 \times 39 = 48.96$ W

Fraction of the supplied heat lost by convection is 48.96/100 or 0.4896 or 48.96 or 49%.
The remaining 51% heat transfer occurs by radiation.

Example 1.4 *Given:* A jet aircraft compartment is assumed to be a cylindrical tube of 3-m diameter and 20-m length. It is lined inside with 3 cm of insulating material of k = 0.042 W/mK. It is flying at a height where the average outside temperature is – 30°C.
To find: The rate of heating required to maintain the compartment at 20°C for passenger comfort.

Solution The rate of heat loss from the cylindrical compartment is given by Eq. (1.21)

$$Q = \frac{2\pi k L (T_1 - T_2)}{\ln (r_2 / r_1)}$$

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$$= \frac{2\pi \times 0.042 \times 20[20-(-30)]}{\ln(300/294)} = 13060 \text{ W}$$
$$= 13.06 \text{ kW} \quad Ans.$$

This is the heat which must be supplied to the compartment to make up for the heat loss through the walls.

Example 1.5 *Given:* A wire 0.5 mm in diameter is stretched along the axis of a cylinder 50 mm in dia and 250 mm long. The temperature of the wire is 750 K while the cylinder is at 25 K and the gas in it has a k = 0.0251 W/mK.
To find: The rate of heat transfer througth the gas by conduction and by radiation if the wire is black.

Solution The rate of heat transfer through the gas in the cylinder is given by Eq. (1.21),

$$Q_k = \frac{2\pi kL(T_2 - T_1)}{\ln(r_2/r_1)}$$
$$= \frac{2\pi \times 0.0251 \times 0.25(750-250)}{\ln(25/0.25)}$$
$$= 4.28 \text{ W} \quad Ans.$$

Heat lost by radiation

$$Q_r = \sigma A_1 (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$
$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 2\pi \times 0.25 \times 10^{-3} \times 0.25 (750^4 - 250^4)$$
$$= 6.958 \text{ or } 7 \text{ W. } Ans.$$

Example 1.6 *Given:* The ratio of radius of the earth's orbit to that of sun is 216. The solar insolation on the earth is 1.4 kW/m^2.
To find: The surface temperature of the sun if it is assumed to be an ideal radiator (black body).

Solution Total radiation from the sun

$$Q_r = 1.4 \times 4\pi R^2$$

where R is the radius of the earth's orbit.

Total radiation emitted by the sun

$$Q_r = \sigma 4\pi r^2 T^4$$

where r is the radius of the sun and T is the surface temperature of the sun. Therefore,

$$\sigma 4\pi r^2 T^4 = 1.4 \times 4\pi R^2$$
$$\therefore \quad T^4 = \frac{1.4 \times 10^3}{5.67 \times 10^{-8}} \times (216)^2 = 0.1152 \times 10^{16} \text{ K}^4$$
$$\therefore \quad T = 5826 \text{ K. } Ans.$$

Example 1.7 *Given:* A furnace wall has the inside surface temperature of 1100°C, while the ambient air temperature is 25°C. The wall consists of 125 mm thick refractory bricks (k = 1.6 W/mK), 125 mm thick firebricks (k = 0.3 W/mK) and 12 mm thick plaster (k = 0.14 W/mK). There is an air gap which offers a thermal resistance of 0.16 K/W. The heat transfer coefficient on the outside wall to the air is 17 W/m^{2}K.
To find: (a) The rate of heat loss per unit area of wall surface, (b) the interface temperatures throughout the wall, and (c) the temperature of the outside surface of the wall.

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Solution There are a number of thermal resistances in series to heat flow from the inside furnace wall to the ambient air. The rate of heat flow Q is given by,

$$Q_k = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\Sigma R}$$

where $T_1 = 1100°C$, $T_2 = 25°C$ and

$$\Sigma R = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4 + R_5$$

and R_1 = Resistance of the refractory brick $= \dfrac{x_1}{k_1 A} = \dfrac{0.125}{1.6 \times 1} = 0.0781$ K/W

R_2 = Resistance of the insulating firebricks $= \dfrac{0.125}{0.3 \times 1} = 0.417$ K/W

R_3 = Resistance of plaster $= \dfrac{0.012}{0.14 \times 1} = 0.0857$ K/W

R_4 = Resistance of air film on outside surface $= \dfrac{1}{h_c A} = \dfrac{1}{17 \times 1} = 0.0588$ K/W

R_5 = Resistance of air gap = 0.16 K/W

ΣR = Total resistance

$= 0.0781 + 0.417 + 0.0857 + 0.0588 + 0.16$

$= 0.7996 \cong 0.8$ K/W

$\therefore$ Rate of heat loss per unit area

$$Q_k = \frac{1100 - 25}{0.8} = 1344 \text{ W} = 1.344 \text{ kW } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

The interface temperatures are T_3, T_4 and T_5 and the outside surface temperature is at T_6 (Fig. Ex. 1.7).

$$Q_k = 1344 = \frac{1100 - T_3}{0.0781}$$

$\therefore$ $T_3 = 995°C$ *Ans.* (b)

$$Q_k = 1344 = \frac{T_3 - T_4}{R_5} = \frac{995 - T_4}{0.16}$$

$\therefore$ $T_4 = 780°C$ *Ans.* (b)

$$Q_k = 1344 = \frac{T_4 - T_5}{R_2} = \frac{780 - T_5}{0.417}$$

$\therefore$ $T_5 = 220°C$ *Ans.* (b)

$$Q_k = 1344 = \frac{T_5 - T_6}{R_3} = \frac{220 - T_6}{0.0857}$$

$\therefore$ $T_6 = 104.1°C$ *Ans.* (c)

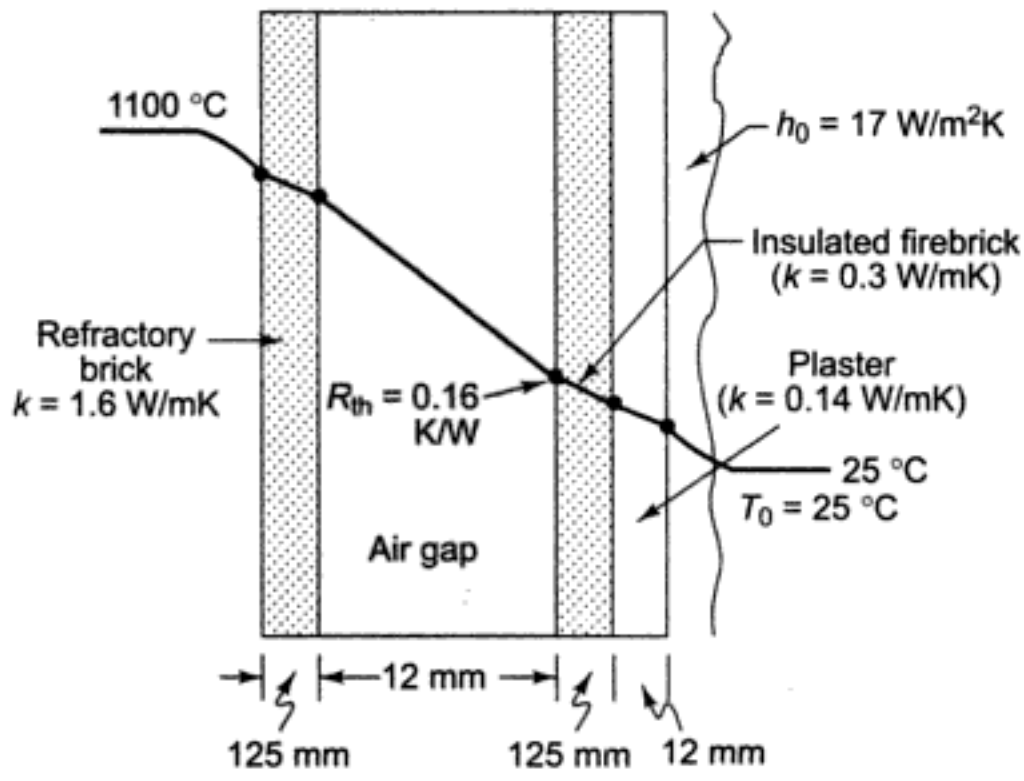


Fig. *Ex. 1.7*

However, the outside furnace wall surface temperature should be below 60°C to avoid any injury to the person touching the wall.

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Example 1.8 *Given:* A steam pipe made of steel (k = 58 W/mK) has i.d. of 160 mm and o.d. of 170 mm. The saturated steam flowing through it is at 300°C, while the ambient air is at 50°C. It has two layers of insulation, the inner layer (k = 0.17 W/mK) is 30 mm thick and the outer layer (k = 0.023 W/mK) is 50 mm thick, the heat transfer coefficients on the inside and outside walls are 30 and 5.8 W/m^{2}K respectively.
To find: The rate of heat loss per unit length of the pipe.

Solution Here too there are a number of thermal resistances in series through which heat flows from the steam pipe to the ambient air (Fig. Ex. 1.8). The rate of heat flow per unit length

$$Q/L = \frac{T_1 - T_0}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4 + R_5}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi (T_1 - T_0)}{\frac{1}{h_i r_i} + \frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{k_{w1}} + \frac{\ln(r_3/r_2)}{k_{w2}} + \frac{\ln(r_4/r_3)}{k_{w3}} + \frac{1}{h_0 r_4}}$$

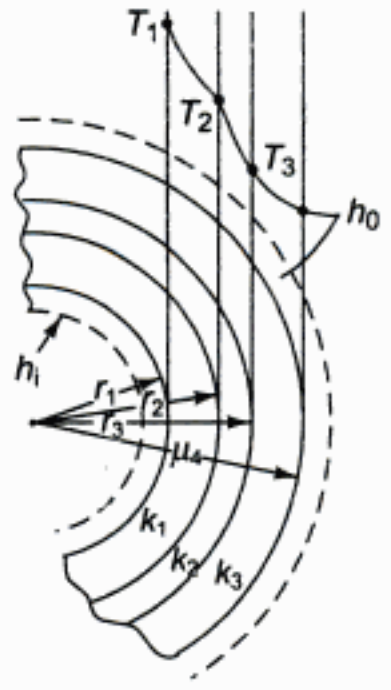


Fig. *Ex. 1.8*

where r_1 = 80 mm, r_2 = 85 mm, r_3 = 115 mm and r_4 = 165 mm

$$\therefore \quad Q/L = \frac{2\pi(300-50)}{\frac{1}{30\times0.08} + \frac{\ln(85/80)}{58} + \frac{\ln(115/85)}{0.17} + \frac{\ln(165/115)}{0.023} + \frac{1}{58\times0.16}}$$

$$= \frac{500\pi}{0.4167 + 0.00105 + 1.738 + 15.69 + 0.108}$$

$$= 82.94 \text{ W/m } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.9 *Given:* An aluminium (k = 185 W/mK) pipe of i.d. 10 cm and o.d. 12 cm carrying steam at 110°C loses heat to the room air at 30°C having h = 15 W/m^{2}K.
To find: (i) The rate of heat transfer, (ii) the percentage reduction in heat transfer if an insulation (k = 0.2 W/mK) of 5 cm thickness covers the pipe.

Solution If the convective resistance of steam is neglected, the inside surface temperature of the pipe is the same as the steam temperature. Since the wall conduction resistance and the air convective resistance are in series, the rate of heat transfer per unit length is given by

$$\frac{Q}{l} = \frac{T_s - T_\infty}{\frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi k} + \frac{1}{2\pi r_2 h_0}}$$

$$= \frac{110-30}{\frac{\ln(6/5)}{2\pi\times185} + \frac{1}{2\pi\times0.06\times15}}$$

$$= \frac{80}{1.57\times10^{-4} + 0.177} = 452 \text{ W/m } \textit{Ans.}$$

For the insulated pipe,

$$\frac{Q}{l} = \frac{T_s - T_\infty}{\frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi k_p} + \frac{\ln(r_3/r_2)}{2\pi k_i} + \frac{1}{2\pi r_3 h_0}}$$

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$$= \frac{110-30}{\frac{\ln 6/5}{2\pi\times185}+\frac{\ln(11/6)}{2\pi\times0.2}+\frac{1}{2\pi\times0.11\times15}}$$

$$= \frac{80}{1.57\times10^{-4}+0.182+0.096} = 138 \text{ W/m}$$

Reduction of heat loss from the pipe by insulation $= \frac{452-138}{452} = 0.695$ or 69.5% *Ans.*

The resistance of aluminium pipe can be neglected in both the cases without much loss of accuracy.

Example 1.10 *Given:* A plastic pipe (k = 0.5 W/mK) of i.d. 3 cm and o.d. 4 cm carries a fluid of average temperature 100°C and h = 300 W/m^{2}K. The rate of heat transfer per unit length is 500 W/m.
To find: (i) The outside surface temperature of pipe, (ii) the overall heat transfer coefficient based on outside area.

Solution The rate of heat transfer per unit length of the plastic pipe is given by

$$\frac{Q}{l} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\frac{1}{h_1 2\pi r_1}+\frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi k}}$$

$$500 = \frac{100-T_2}{\frac{1}{300\times2\pi\times0.015}+\frac{\ln(2/1.5)}{2\times0.5}}$$

$\therefore$ T_2 = outside surface temperature of pipe = 36.5°C *Ans.*

Now, $$\frac{1}{U_0 A_0} = \frac{1}{h_1 2\pi r_1 l}+\frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi k_1 l}$$

$\therefore$ $$U_0 = \frac{1}{r_2/r_1 h+\frac{r_2\ln(r_2/r_1)}{k_1}}$$

$\therefore$ $$U_0 = \frac{1}{\frac{2}{1.5\times300}+\frac{0.02\ln(2/1.5)}{0.5}} = 62.69 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K. } \textit{Ans.}$$

As a check, $Q = U_0 A_0 (T_1 - T_2) = 62.69 \times 2\pi \times 0.02 \times (100 - 36.5) = 500$ W/m

Example 1.11 *Given:* A 60 W lamp buried in soil (k = 0.83 W/mK) at 0°C is switched on.
To find: To find the soil temperature 0.3 m away from the lamp at steady state.

Solution By energy balance in a spherical shell of thickness dr at a radius r

$$Q = -k\,4\pi r_2 \frac{dT}{dr}$$

$$\frac{Q}{4\pi K}\int_{r=r_1}^{r=\infty} r^{-2}dr = -\int_{T_1}^{0} dT$$

$$\frac{Q}{4\pi k}\left(-\frac{1}{r}\right)_{r_1}^{\infty} = T_1$$

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$$Q = 4\pi k\, r_1 T_1$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = \frac{60}{4\pi \times 0.83 \times 0.3} = 19°\text{C } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.12 *Given:* Two large aluminium (k = 240 W/mK), each 2 cm thick, with 10 μm surface roughness are placed in contact at 10^5 N/m^2 pressure (Fig. Ex. 1.12) with the outside surface temperatures of 390°C and 406°C. The thermal contact resistance is 2.75×10^{-4} m^{2}K/W.
To find: (i) The heat flux, (ii) the temperature drop due to contact resistance, and (iii) the contact temperatures.

Solution The rate of heat flow per unit area

$$q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{(L/K)_1 + R_C + (L/K)_2}$$

where $R_C = 2.75 \times 10^{-4}$ m^{2}K/W and each of the other two resistances is equal to

$$(L/K) = \frac{0.02}{240} = 8.34 \times 10^{-5}\ \text{m}^2\text{K/W}$$

$$\text{Heat flux } q = \frac{406 - 390}{8.34 \times 10^{-5} + 2.75 \times 10^{-4} + 8.34 \times 10^{-5}}$$

$$= \frac{16}{4.418 \times 10^{-4}} = 3.67 \times 10^4\ \text{W/m}^2\ \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(i)}$$

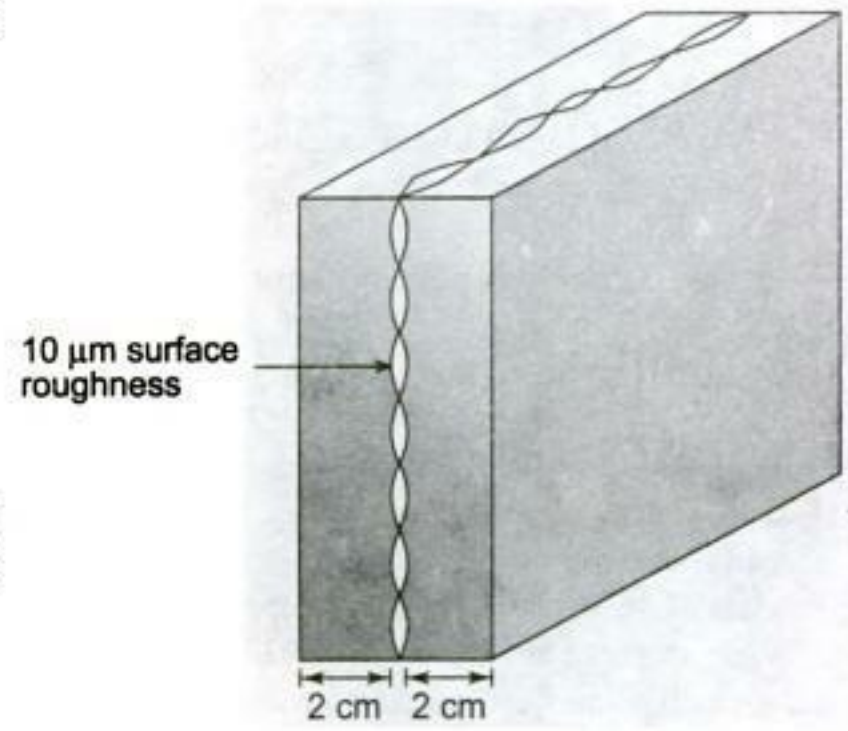


Fig. *Ex. 1.12*

(ii) The temperature drop in each section is proportional to the resistance. The fraction of contact resistance is

$$\frac{R_C}{R} = \frac{2.75}{4.418} = 0.622$$

Temperature drop = $0.622 \times 16 = 9.95°\text{C}$ *Ans.* (ii)

(iii) The temperature drop in each aluminium plate = $\dfrac{16 - 9.95}{2} = 3.025°\text{C}$

$\therefore \quad T_{C_1} = 406 - 3.025 = 402.975°\text{C}$

$T_{C_2} = 402.975 - 9.95 = 393.025°\text{C}$

These are the contact temperatures. *Ans.* (iii)

Example 1.13 *Given:* A small hot surface at 425 K having an emissivity 0.85 dissipates heat by radiation to the surrounding air at 400 K.
To find: The radiation heat transfer coefficient.

Solution The rate of radiant heat transfer

$$Q_r = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon_1 (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= \sigma A_1 \varepsilon_1 (T_1^2 + T_2^2)(T_1 + T_2)(T_1 - T_2)$$

Since $(T_1 - T_2) << T_1$, the above equation can be written as

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$$Q_r = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon_1 4\, T_1^3 (T_1 - T_2) = h_r A (T_1 - T_2)$$

where h_r = the radiation heat transfer coefficient

$$= 4\sigma \varepsilon_1 T_1^4$$
$$= 4 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.85 \times (4.25)^3 \times 10^6$$
$$= 14.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.14 *Given:* A steam pipe ($\varepsilon = 0.9$) of 0.4 m diameter has a surface temperature of 500 K and is located in a large room at 27°C where $h_c = 25 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$.
To find: (i) The combined heat transfer coefficient, (ii) the rate of heat loss per unit length.

Solution The rate of radiant heat transfer

$$Q_r = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4) = h_r A_1 (T_1 - T_2)$$

$$\therefore \quad h_r = \sigma \varepsilon (T_1 + T_2)(T_1^2 + T_2^2)$$
$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.9\, (500 + 300)\, (500^2 + 300^2)$$
$$= 13.88 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}.$$

Combined heat tansfer coefficient

$$h = h_c + h_r = 25 + 13.88 = 38.88 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

Rate of heat loss per unit length

$$Q = h\pi d (T_1 - T_2) = 38.88 \times \pi \times 0.4 \times 200 = 9771.6 \text{ W}$$
$$L = 9.77 \text{ kw } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Example 1.15 *Given:* A 0.8 m high, 1.5 m wide double-pane window consists of two 4 mm thick layers of glass (k = 78 W/mK) and is separated by a 10 mm wide stagnant air space (k = 0.026 W/mK). The room is at 20°C and the outside air is at –10°C. The heat transfer coefficients are h_i = 10 and h_o = 40 W/m²K.
To find: (i) The rate of heat transfer through the window, (ii) the inside surface temperature.

Solution As shown in Fig. Ex. 1.15,

$$R_i = \frac{1}{h_i A} = \frac{1}{10 \times (0.8 \times 1.5)} = 0.08333 \text{ K/W}$$

$$R_i = \frac{L_1}{k_1 A} = \frac{0.004}{0.78 \times 1.2} = 0.00427 \text{ K/W}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{L_2}{k_2 A} = \frac{0.01}{0.026 \times 1.2} = 0.3205 \text{ K/W}$$

$$R_o = \frac{1}{h_0 A} = \frac{1}{40 \times 1.2} = 0.02083 \text{ K/W}$$

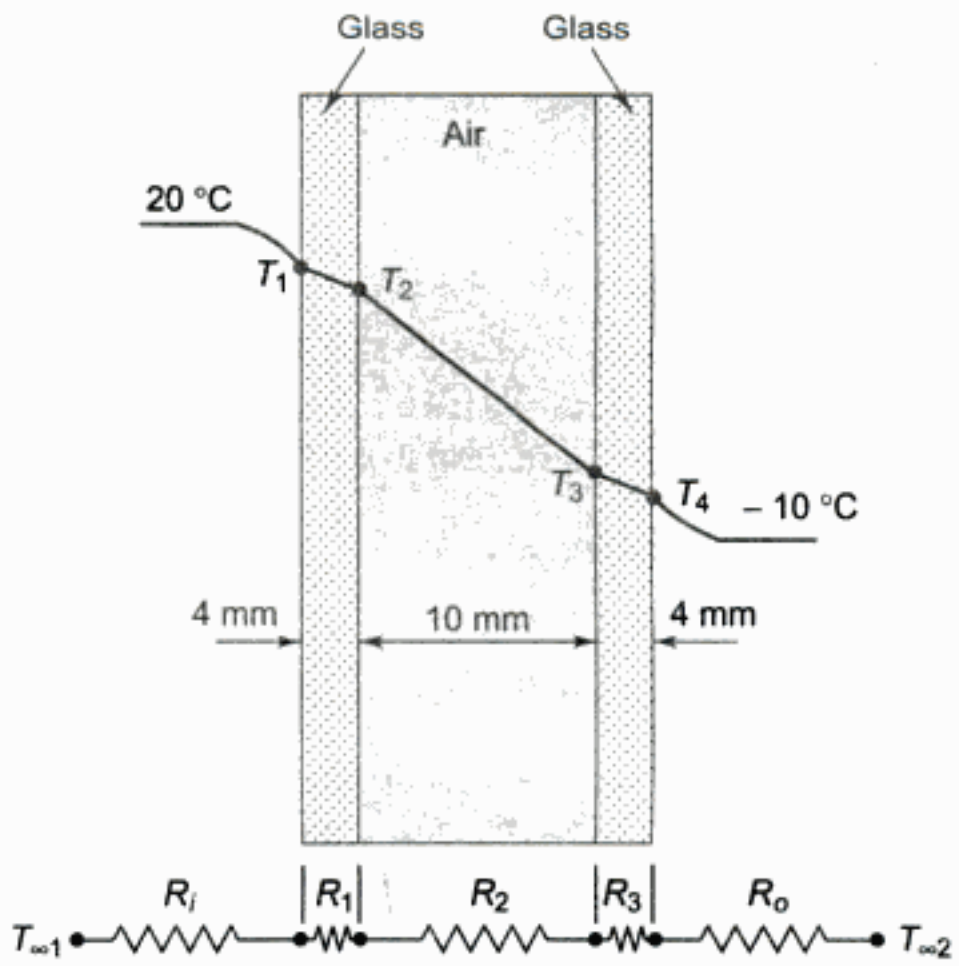


Fig. *Ex. 1.15*

$$\therefore \quad R_{\text{total}} = R_i + R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_o$$
$$= 0.08333 + 0.00427 + 0.3205 + 0.00427 + 0.02083$$
$$= 0.4332 \text{ K/W}$$

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$$\therefore \quad \text{Rate of heat transfer} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_{\text{total}}} = \frac{20-(-10)}{0.4332} = 69.2 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$$

The inner surface temperature of the window is obtained from

$$T_{\infty 1} - T_1 = QR_1 = 69.2 \times 0.08333 = 5.8°\text{C}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = 20 - 5.8 = 14.2°\text{C } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.16 *Given:* Steam at 350°C flowing in a pipe (k = 80 W/mK) 5 cm i.d., 5.6 cm o.d. is covered with 3 cm thick insulation (k = 0.05 W/mK). Heat is lost to the surroundings at 5°C by natural convection and radiation with combined h = 20 W/m²K and h_i = 60 W/m²K.

To find: (i) The rate of heat loss from the pipe per unit length, (ii) the temperature drops across the pipe and the insulation.

Solution For steady one-dimensional heat transfer through the pipe, the thermal resistances in series are given in Fig. Ex. 1.16.

$$A_1 = 2\pi r_1 L = 2\pi \times 0.025 \times 1 = 0.157 \text{ m}^2$$

$$A_2 = 2\pi r_2 L = 2\pi \times 0.058 \times 1 = 0.364 \text{ m}^2$$

$$R_i = \frac{1}{h_i A_i} = \frac{1}{60 \times 0.157} = 0.106 \text{ K/W}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi k_1 L} = \frac{\ln(2.8/2.5)}{2\pi \times 80 \times 1} = 0.00023 \text{ K/W}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{\ln(r_3/r_2)}{2\pi k_2 L} = \frac{\ln(5.8/2.8)}{2\pi \times 0.05 \times 1} = 2.318 \text{ K/W}$$

$$R_o = \frac{1}{h_o A_3} = \frac{1}{20 \times 0.364} = 0.137 \text{ K/W}$$

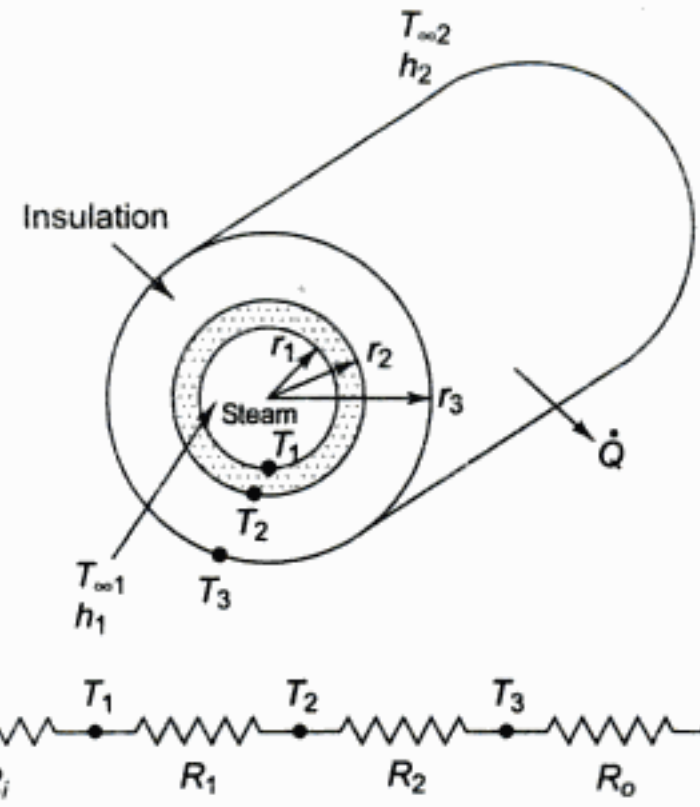


Fig. *Ex. 1.16*

$$R_{\text{total}} = R_i + R_1 + R_2 + R_o$$
$$= 0.106 + 0.00023 + 2.318 + 0.137$$
$$= 2.56123 \text{ K/W}$$

(i) Rate of heat transfer $Q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_{\text{total}}} = \frac{350-5}{2.56123} = 134.7 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$ (i)

(ii) $\Delta T_{\text{pipe}} = QR_1 = 134.7 \times 0.00023 = 0.03°\text{C}$

$\Delta T_{\text{insuiation}} = QR_2 = 134.7 \times 2.318 = 312.2°\text{C } \textit{Ans.}$ (ii)

Example 1.17 *Given:* A brick (k = 1.2 W/mK) wall 0.15 m thick separates comustion gases in a furnace from the atmospheric air at 30°C. The outside surface temperature is 100°C while its ε = 0.8 and h_0 = 20 W/m²K.

To find: The inner surface temperature of the brick wall.

Solution At steady state,

Heat conducted through the brick wall = Heat dissipated to the surroundings by natural convection and radiation

$$Q_k = Q_c + Q_r$$

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$$k\,\frac{T_1 - T_2}{L} = h\,(T_2 - T_\infty) + \sigma\varepsilon\,(T_2^4 - T_\infty^4)$$

$$1.2\,\frac{T_1 - 373}{0.15} = 20\,(373 - 298) + 0.8 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (373^4 - 298^4) = 1500 + 520 = 2020\ \text{W/m}^2$$

$$\therefore \qquad T_1 = \frac{2020 \times 0.15}{1.2} + 373 = 625\ \text{K} = 352°\text{C}\ \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.18 *Given:* A refrigerated container in the form of a cube with 2 m sides and 5 mm thick aluminium walls (k = 204 W/mK) is insulated with a 0.1 m layer of cork (k = 0.043 W/mK) and the surface temperatures are T_i = –5°C and T_0 = 20°C.
To find: The cooling load of the refrigerator.

Solution As shown in Fig. Ex. 1.18,

$$Q = \frac{\Delta T}{R_A + R_B},$$

where $$R_A = \frac{L_A}{k_A A} = \frac{0.005}{204 \times 4} = 6.13 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{K/W}$$

$$R_B = \frac{L_B}{k_B B} = \frac{0.10\,\text{m}}{0.043 \times 4} = 0.581\ \text{K/W}$$

Since $R_A << R_B$, R_A can be neglected.

$$\Delta T = 20 - (-5) = 25\ \text{K}.$$

$$\therefore \qquad Q = \frac{25\ \text{K}}{0.581\ \text{K/W}} = 43$$

∴ For six sides, the total cooling load on the refrigerator = 6 × 43 = 258 W *Ans.*

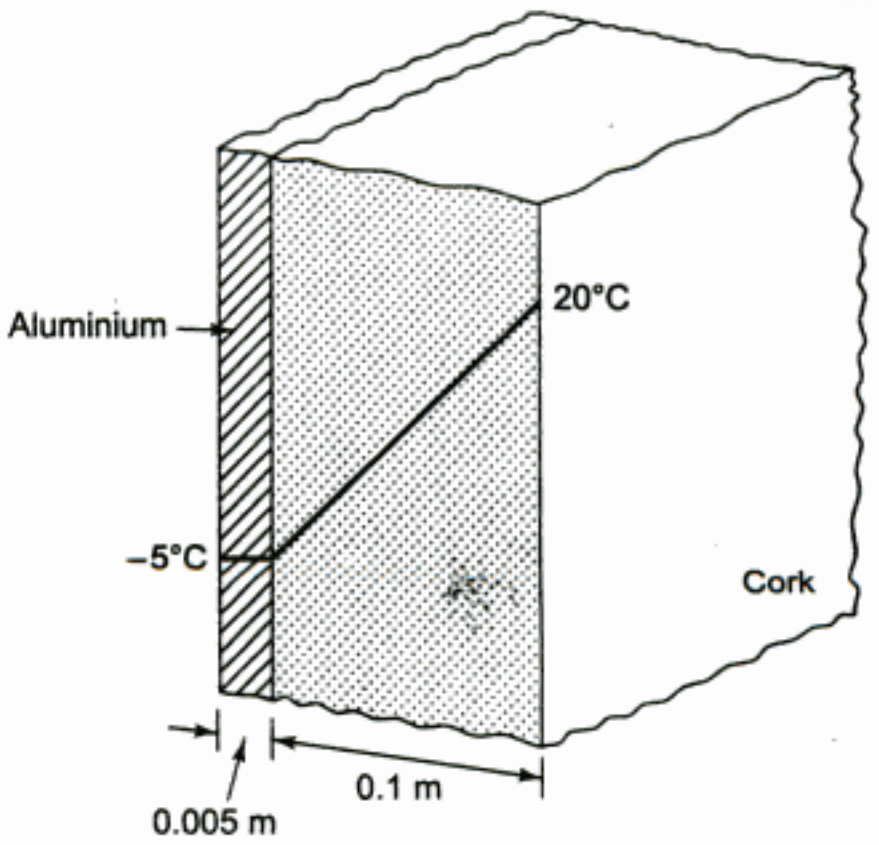


Fig. *Ex. 1.18*

Example 1.19 Air flows through a pipe with a diameter D. The velocity distribution in the pipe is approximately given by $u = 20\,[(R - r)/R]^{1/7}$ m/s, r being the radial distance to the point at which u is the velocity, and R is the radius of the pipe. The temperature distribution in the flow is approximately given by $70 - 40\,[(R - r)/R]^{1/7}$ °C. Find the mean temperature in the flow.

Solution The bulk temperature of the fluid is given by

$$T_b = \frac{\int_A u\,T\,\mathrm{d}A}{\int_A u\,\mathrm{d}A}$$

Putting $$\mathrm{d}A = 2\pi r\,\mathrm{d}\,r$$

$$T_b = \frac{\int_0^R uT\ 2\pi r\,\mathrm{d}r}{\int_0^R u\,2\pi r\,\mathrm{d}r}$$

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or,
$$T_b = \frac{\int_0^1 uT\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\mathrm{d}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)}{\int_0^1 u\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\mathrm{d}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)}$$

Using the given expressions for the velocity and temperature distributions,

$$T_b = 70 - 20 \times 40 \frac{\int_0^1 \left[1-\frac{r}{R}\right]^{2/7}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\mathrm{d}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)}{20\int_0^1 \left(1-\frac{r}{R}\right)^{1/7}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)\mathrm{d}\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)}$$

Putting $Y = 1 - \frac{r}{R}$,

$$T_b = 70 - 20 \times 40 \frac{\int_1^0 Y^{2/7}(1-Y)\,\mathrm{d}Y}{20\int_1^0 Y^{1/7}(1-Y)\,\mathrm{d}Y}$$

$$= 70 - \frac{20 \times 40\left[\frac{7}{9} - \frac{7}{16}\right]}{20\left[\frac{7}{8} - \frac{7}{15}\right]}$$

$\therefore$ $T_b = 36.7°\mathrm{C}$ *Ans.*

Example 1.20 *Given:* A pipe 2 cm in dia. at 40°C is placed in (i) an air flow at 50°C, with h = 20 W/m^{2}K and in (ii) water at 30°C with h = 70 W/m^{2}K.
To find: The heat transfer rate per unit length of the pipe.

Solution The definition of the mean heat transfer coefficient gives

$$Q = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$$

Here $T_w = 40°\mathrm{C}$, and since 1 m length of pipe is being considered

$$A = \pi DL = \pi \times 0.02\ \mathrm{m}^2$$

$\therefore$ $$Q = h\pi \times 0.02 \times (40 - T_\infty)$$

For case (i),

$$Q = 20 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times (40 - 50)$$
$$= -12.57\ \mathrm{W}$$

The negative sign indicates that the heat transfer is from the air to the cylinder. *Ans.*
For case (ii),

$$Q = 70 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times (40 - 30)$$
$$= 43.98\ \mathrm{W}$$

This result is positive which indicates the heat transfer to be occurring from the cylinder to the water. *Ans.*

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Example 1.21 *Given:* An electronic transistor capsule of 2 cm dia spherical shape is kept in an evacuated space with black walls at 30°C. Heat loss at the rate of 300 mW from the capsule to the case walls takes place only by radiation.
To find: The capsule temperature if it is (i) bright aluminium (ε = 0.035) and (ii) black anodized aluminium (ε = 0.80).

Solution A 2 cm diameter transistor capsule dissipating 300 mW is a small gray body in a black large enclosure.

$$\therefore \quad Q_{12} = 300 \text{ mW} = 0.3 \text{ W}$$

$$T_2 = 30°\text{C} = 303 \text{ K}$$

$$Q_{12} = \sigma \varepsilon_1 A_1 (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \varepsilon_1 (\pi \times 0.02^2)(T_1^4 - 303^4)$$

$$= 2.268 \times 10^{-3} \times \pi \varepsilon_1 \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - (3.03)^4 \right]$$

$$\therefore \quad 0.3 = 7.125 \times 10^{-3} \varepsilon_1 \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - 84.29 \right]$$

(i) When $\varepsilon_1 = 0.035$,

$$42.105 = \varepsilon_1 \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - 84.29 \right]$$

$$1203 = \left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - 84.29$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = 599 \text{ K or } 326°\text{C } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

(ii) When $\varepsilon_2 = 0.80$

$$\frac{42.105}{0.8} = \left[\left(\frac{T_1}{100} \right)^4 - 84.29 \right]$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = 342 \text{ K or } 69°\text{C } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Thus, anodized aluminium gives a satisfactory operating temperature of 69°C, whereas a bright aluminium capsule could not be used, since 326°C is far in excess of allowable operating temperature for semiconductor devices.

Example 1.22 *Given:* The walls of a cabin (Fig. Ex. 1.22) consist of two layers of pine-wood (k = 0.1 W/mK), each 2 cm thick, sandwiching 5 cm of fibreglass (k = 0.038 W/mK). The cabin inside temperature is 20°C, while the outside temperature T_0 is 2°C. The convective heat transfer coefficients are h_i = 3 and h_0 = 6 W/m^{2}K. The exterior surface is coated with white acrylic paint (ε = 0.9).
To find: The heat flux through the wall.

Solution The heat flux through the wall

$$Q = UA (T_i - T_0)$$

where

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_{c,i}} + \frac{L_A}{k_A} + \frac{L_B}{k_B} + \frac{L_C}{k_C} + \frac{1}{(h_{c,0} + h_{r,0})}$$

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The exterior radiation heat transfer coefficient is given by Eq. (1.47),

$$h_{r,0} = 4\sigma\varepsilon T_m^3$$
$$= 4 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.9 \times (275)^3 = 4.2 \text{ W/mK}$$
$$\therefore \quad \frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{0.02}{0.10} + \frac{0.05}{0.038} + \frac{0.02}{0.10} + \frac{1}{6+4.2}$$
$$= 2.15 \text{ (W/m}^2\text{K)}^{-1}$$
$$\therefore \quad U = 0.466 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$
$$q = \frac{Q}{A} = U(T_i - T_0) = 0.466\ (20 - 2)$$
$$= 8.38 \text{ W/m}^2 \textit{ Ans.}$$

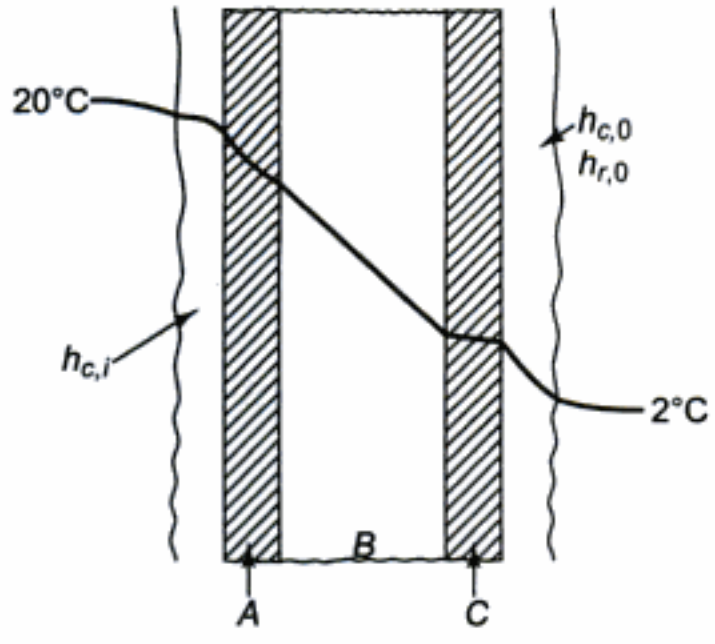


Fig. *Ex. 1.22*

The outside resistance is seen to be 0.098/2.15 = 5% of the total resistance. Hence, the outside wall of the cabin is only about 1 K above the ambient air, and our assumption of $T_m = 275$ K for the evaluation of $h_{r,o}$ is adequate.

Example 1.23 *Given:* The outer surface temperature of a refrigerator is 16°C where h = 10 W/m²K and the room temperature is 20°C. The sides are 30 cm thick and k = 0.1 W/mK.
To find: The net heat flow and inside temperature of the refrigerator.

Solution Convective heat flux to the surface

$$q = \frac{Q}{A} = h(T_{s,0} - T_\infty)$$
$$= 10(16 - 20) = -40 \text{ W/m}^2 \textit{ Ans.}$$

Since this must be equal to the heat conducted through the sides,

$$q = -k\frac{dT}{dx} = -k\frac{T_{s,0} - T_{s,i}}{L}$$
$$\therefore \quad T_{s,i} = \frac{qL}{k} + T_{s,0} = -\frac{40 \times 0.03}{0.1} + 16$$
$$= 4°\text{C } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.24 *Given:* A hollow spherical shell (r_i = 0.5 m, r_0 = 0.7 m, k = 40 (1 + 0.001 T) stores a liquid at 250°C, while the outside surface temperature of the sphere is 100°C. The ambient air is at 30°C.
To find: The heat flux through the shell and the outside heat transfer coefficient h_0.

Solution The rate of heat conduction is

$$Q = -kA\frac{dT}{dr}$$
$$= -40(1 + 0.001T)\,4\pi r^2\frac{dT}{dr}$$
$$\therefore \quad \frac{Q}{160\pi} \cdot \int_{r_1=0.5\text{m}}^{r_2=0.7\text{m}} \frac{dr}{r^2} = \int_{250°\text{C}}^{100°\text{C}} -(1 + 0.001T)\,dT$$

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$$\frac{Q}{160\pi}\left(\frac{1}{0.5}-\frac{1}{0.7}\right)=(250-100)+\frac{0.001(250^2-100^2)}{2}=176.25$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = 176.25 \times 160\pi \times \frac{0.35}{0.20} = 155 \text{ kW } \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = h_0 A_0 \Delta T$$

$$155 \times 10^3 = h_0 \times 4\pi(0.7)^2 (100 - 30)$$

$$\therefore \quad h_0 = 360 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 1.25 *Given:* A steam pipe (o.d. = 10 cm, T_s = 500 K, ε = 0.8) passing through a large room at 300 K. The pipe loses heat by natural convection (h = 15 W/m^{2}K) and radiation.
To find: (i) The surface emissive power of the pipe, (ii) the total radiation falling upon the pipe, and (iii) the total rate of heat loss from the pipe.

Solution Surface emissive power of the pipe,

$$E = \varepsilon \sigma T^4 = 0.8 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (500)^4$$
$$= 2834 \text{ W/m}^2. \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

Total radiation falling upon the pipe surface

$$G = \sigma T^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (300)^4 = 459.1 \text{ W/m}^2 \textit{ Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Heat loss from the pipe by radiation

$$Q_r = \varepsilon A \sigma (T_5^4 - T_\infty^4)$$
$$= 0.8 \times \pi \times 0.1 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (500^4 - 300^4) = 775 \text{ W/m}^2$$

Heat loss by natural convection

$$Q_c = h_c A(\Delta T)$$
$$= 15 \times \pi \times 0.1 \times (500 - 300) = 942.6 \text{ W/m}$$

Thus, total rate of heat loss

$$Q = Q_c + Q_r = 942.6 + 775 = 1717.6 \text{ W/m. } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (iii)}$$

Summary

The essential difference between thermodynamics and heat transfer is explained. Thermodynamics deals with systems in equilibrium and calculates the energy transferred to change a system from one equilibrium state to another. The science of heat transfer not only deals with the rate at which heat flows, but also the temperature distribution in the medium, and the surface area required to accomplish a certain heat duty. First law energy equations for a closed system and a steady flow open-system are stated. A brief reference is made regarding the second law of thermodynamics.

The three modes of heat transfer, viz., conduction, convection and radiation are introduced. Fourier's law of heat conduction, Newton's law of convection cooling, and Stefan-Boltzmann equation of thermal radiation are explained with the help of electrical circuits leading to the definition of overall heat transfer coefficient. An outline of forced and natural convection, laminar and turbulent flows, and the boundary layer concepts are provided. Explanations of contact resistance, thermal conductivity, thermal insulation properties and critical radius of insulation are given.

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A brief introduction to both diffusional and convective mass transfer is provided. Fick's law of diffusion and mass diffusivity are explained, bringing in a close analogy of heat and mass transfer. Examples of simultaneous heat and mass transfer are illustrated.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation number	*Equation*	*Remarks*
(1.5)	$q_k = -k\dfrac{dT}{dx}$	One-dimensional steady state heat conduction
(1.6)	$Q_k = kA\dfrac{T_1 - T_2}{x}$	Heat transfer through a plane wall of constant k
(1.8)	$Q = \dfrac{T_1 - T_2}{R_{th}}, R_{th} = \dfrac{x}{kA}$	Thermal resistance of a wall
(1.10)	$K_k = \dfrac{kA}{L}$	Thermal conductance
(1.11)	$k(T) = k_0(1 + \beta_k T)$	Thermal conductivity varying with temperature
(1.14)	$Q = \dfrac{T_1 - T_4}{R} = \dfrac{T_1 - T_4}{\dfrac{L_1}{k_1 A} + \dfrac{L_2}{k_2 A} + \dfrac{L_3}{k_3 A}}$	Heat conduction through a composite wall
(1.20)	$Q_k = \dfrac{2\pi kL(T_1 - T_2)}{\ln(r_2/r_1)}$	Steady radial heat conduction in a cylindrical wall
(1.21)	$Q_k = -kA_{ln}\dfrac{T_2 - T_1}{x_m}, A_m = \dfrac{A_2 - A_1}{\ln\dfrac{A_2}{A_1}}$	Heat conduction through a cylindrical wall
(1.23)	$T = C_1 \ln r + C_2$	Temperature variation in a cylindrical wall
(1.24)	$Q_k = \dfrac{4\pi k(T_1 - T_2) r_1 r_2}{r_2 - r_1}$	Steady radial heat conduction in a spherical wall
	$= -kA_{gm}\dfrac{T_2 - T_1}{x_w}, A_{gm} = \sqrt{A_1 A_2}$	
(1.27)	$Q_c = h_c A(T_w - T_\infty), h_c = \dfrac{k_f}{\delta}$	Convective heat transfer from a wall
(1.28)	$R_c = \dfrac{1}{h_c A}$	Convective resistance

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Equation number	Equation	Remarks
(1.30)	$T_b = \dfrac{\int_A uT\,dA}{\int_A u\,dA}$	Bulk temperature of a fluid through a pipe
(1.32)	$h_c = 3.66\dfrac{k}{D}$	Heat transfer coefficient for laminar flow through a pipe having uniform wall temperature
(1.33)	$h_c = 0.023\dfrac{V^{0.8}(\rho c_p)^{0.4}(k)^{0.6}}{D^{0.2}\nu^{0.4}}$	Heat transfer coefficient for turbulent flow through a pipe
(1.34)	$h_c = 1.07\,(\Delta T/x)^{1/4}$	Natural convection heat transfer coefficient in laminar flow
(1.35)	$h_c = 1.3\,(\Delta T)^{1/3}$	Natural convection heat transfer coefficient in turbulent flow
(1.36)	$Q_c = \dfrac{T_h - T_c}{\dfrac{1}{h_{c_1}A} + \dfrac{x}{kA} + \dfrac{1}{h_{c_2}A}} = UA(T_h - T_c)$	Overall heat transfer coefficient for heat transfer from a hot to a cold fluid through a plane wall
(1.39)	$\dfrac{1}{U_0A_0} = \dfrac{1}{h_iA_i} + \dfrac{x_\omega}{k_wA_{\text{lm}}} + \dfrac{1}{h_0A_0}$, $Q = U_0A_0(T_h - T_c)$	Overall heat transfer coefficient for heat transfer from a hot to a cold fluid through a cylindrical wall
(1.42)	$Q_r = \sigma AT^4$	Stefan–Boltzmann law for radiative heat transfer from a black body
(1.43)	$Q_{1-2} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12}(\mathcal{F}_1^4 - T_2^4)$	Radiant heat exchange between two gray bodies
(1.44)	$F_{12} = \dfrac{1}{\left(\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1} - 1\right) + \dfrac{1}{F_{12}} + \dfrac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)}$	View factor for two gray bodies exchanging radiation
(1.45)	$A_1F_{12} = A_2F_{21}$	Reciprocity theorem for radiation heat transfer
(1.51)	$Q = (h_c + h_r)\,A_1\,(T_w - T_\infty)$	Heat transfer from a hot body by combined convection and radiation
(1.52)	$\dfrac{N_A}{A} = -D\dfrac{dC_A}{dy}$	Fick's law of diffusion for molecular diffusion through a concentration gradient
(1.54)	$j_1 = -\rho D_1 \dfrac{dm_1}{dx}$	Diffusion mass flux in x-direction

Review Questions

1.1 Explain the scope of study of heat transfer.
1.2 How is the subject of heat transfer different from that of thermodynamics?
1.3 What are the three modes of heat transfer? Explain their differences.
1.4 What does conduction refer to? State Fourier's law of heat conduction. Why is the negative sign used?
1.5 What are the inferences drawn from the temperature gradient $dT/dx = -q_k/k$?
1.6 Explain the resistance concept to illustrate the analogy of heat flow and the flow of electricity.
1.7 How are Fourier's law and Ohm's law similar?
1.8 How do the temperature distributions in a solid vary if its thermal conductivity varies linearly with temperature?
1.9 How does conduction occur in a composite wall with different materials put in (a) series and (b) parallel?
1.10 What do you understand by thermal contact resistance? On what parameters does this resistance depend?
1.11 Explain the effect of contact pressure on thermal contact resistance. What is thermal grease?
1.12 Define thermal conductivity. How can it be determined experimentally? What is the difference between thermal conductivity and thermal conductance?
1.13 Explain the mechanisms of heat conduction in gases, liquids and solids.
1.14 Why are metals good thermal conductors, while non-metals are poor conductors of heat?
1.15 Show that the radial heat conduction through a hollow cylinder depends on the logarithmic mean area of the inside and outside surfaces.
1.16 How does the temperature in a cylindrical wall vary?
1.17 Show that the rate of heat conduction through a hollow sphere is given by

$$Q_k = -kA_{gm}\frac{T_2 - T_1}{x_w}$$

where $A_{gm} = (A_1 A_2)^{1/2}$, A_1 and A_2 being the areas of inside and outside surfaces of the sphere and x_w = wall thickness.
1.18 What is convection? Why is it regarded as a mode of heat transfer?
1.19 What are the differences between natural and forced convection?
1.20 Define a boundary layer. How are hydrodynamic and thermal boundary layer thicknesses different?
1.21 Explain the velocity and temperature profiles for natural and forced convection heat transfer.
1.22 State the Newton's law of cooling. Define heat transfer coefficient. On what factors does it depend?
1.23 Define overall heat transfer coefficient. Comment on the relative magnitudes of the thermal resistances. What is the difference between U_i and U_o?
1.24 What is the mode of heat transfer in vacuum? Define absorptivity, reflectivity and transmissivity.
1.25 How can the absorptivity of an opaque body be improved?
1.26 What is a black body? Define emissivity and a gray body.
1.27 State Stefan-Boltzmann law. On what factors does the radiant heat exchange between two gray bodies depend?
1.28 How is radiation heat transfer coefficient defined? What is combined convection and radiation coefficient?
1.29 Explain the characteristics of thermal insulating materials?
1.30 What are the different types of insulating materials? Give a comparative estimate of fibrous, cellular and granular materials in providing insulation.
1.31 What are the insulating materials used in high temperature applications?
1.32 What is the *R*-value of insulation?
1.33 What is diffusional mass transfer? How is it different from convection mass transfer?
1.34 State and explain the Fick's law of diffusion. What is mass diffusivity? What is its dimension?

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Objective Type Questions

1.1 In MLTθ system, the dimension of thermal conductivity is
(a) $ML^{-1}T^{-1}\theta^{-1}$ (b) $MLT^{-1}\theta^{-1}$
(c) $MLT^{-3}\theta^{-1}$ (d) $MLT^{-2}\theta^{-1}$

1.2 With rise in temperature, thermal conductivity of solid metals
(a) increases
(b) decreases
(c) remains the same
(d) first increases and then decreases

1.3 With decrease in temperature thermal conductivity of non-metallic amarphous solids
(a) decreases (b) increases
(c) remains constant (d) is unpredictable

1.4 Thermal contact resistance is a function of
(a) surface roughness
(b) the pressure holding the two surfaces in contact
(c) the interface fluid and its temperature
(d) all of the above

1.5 Arrange the thermal conductivity of the following materials in ascending order copper, mercury, silver, water
Using the codes given beow:
(a) copper, silver, water, mercury
(b) mercury, water, copper, silver
(c) water, mercury, copper, silver
(d) silver, copper, mercury, water

1.6 The thermal conductivity of a structure like concrete, stone, etc., may vary for different samples because of variation in
(a) structure and porosity
(b) density
(c) composition
(d) all of the above

1.7 Match List 1 with List 2 and choose the answer from the codes given below:

List 1	*List 2*
A. Gases	1. Transport of energy by free electrons
B. Liquids	2. Volumetric density
C. Porous solid	3. Unstable elastic collision
D. Metals	4. Random molecular collisions

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	4	2	3	1
(b)	4	3	2	1
(c)	2	3	4	1
(d)	3	4	2	1

1.8 Insulating materials used for low temperature applications are
(a) asbestos (b) glass wool
(c) magnesia (d) diatomaceous earth

1.9 Match List I with List II and select the correct answers using the codes given below:

List I	*List II*
A. Granular insulation	1. Vermiculite
B. Semiconductors	2. Germinium
C. Low electrical resistivity	3. Liquid metals
D. Nuclear reactors	4. Pure metals

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	2	1	4	3
(b)	1	2	3	4
(c)	1	2	4	3
(d)	4	3	2	1

1.10 The thermal conductivity of a damp brick is higher than that of dry brick, because
(a) the thermal conductivity of air is less than that of water.
(b) the heat transfer takes place in damp bricks by convection due to capillary motion of water within the porous material.

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(c) both (a) and (b)
(d) none of the above

1.11 If A_1 and A_2 are the internal and external surface areas of a hollow cylinder, the logarithmic mean area is given by
(a) $(A_2 + A_1)/\ln A_2/A_1$
(b) $(\ln A_2/A_1)/(A_2 + A_1)$
(c) $(A_2 - A_1)/\ln(A_2/A_1)$
(d) $\dfrac{A_1 + A_2}{2}$

1.12 Heat conduction through a spherical wall of thickness x_ω is given by
$Q = -kA_m \dfrac{\Delta T}{x_\omega}$, where A_m is the
(a) arithmetic mean of inside and outside surfaces
(b) geometric mean of inside and outside surfaces
(c) logarithmic mean of inside and outside surfaces
(d) harmonic mean of inside and outside surfaces

1.13 The overall heat transfer coefficient is used in the problems of
(a) conduction
(b) convection
(c) radiation
(d) combined conduction and convection

1.14 In fluid flow the shear stress is confined in the
(a) boundary layer
(b) inviscid, incompressible flow region
(c) free stream flow
(d) turbulent flow

1.15 The Reynolds number of a fluid flowing through a pipe depends on
(a) the velocity of the fluid
(b) the diameter of the pipe
(c) kinematic viscosity of the fluid
(d) all of the above

1.16 For a fully developed laminar flow through a pipe with uniform wall temperature, the heat transfer coefficient is
(a) not directly proportional to the thermal conductivity of the fluid film
(b) inversely proportional to the pipe diameter
(c) dependent on fluid velocity
(d) dependent on fluid viscosity

1.17 For buoyancy-induced fluid flow and heat transfer, this dimensionless number is significant
(a) Reynolds number (b) Prandtl number
(c) Grashof number (d) Nusselt number

1.18 The absorptivity of thermal radiation by a solid surface can be enhanced
(a) by polishing the surface
(b) by roughening the surface
(c) by increasing the surface area
(d) by decreasing the surface area

1.19 The radiant heat exchange between two gray bodies is directly proportional
(a) to the difference in the fourth power of the two temperatures, $T_1^4 - T_2^4$
(b) to the view factor
(c) to the surface area of the emitting body
(d) to all of the above

1.20 At room temperature, the ratio of radiation heat transfer coefficient and the surface emissivity is about
(a) 1.5 (b) 2.0
(c) 3.0 (d) 6.0

1.21 Fick's law of diffusion states that the rate of molecular diffusion is proportional to the concentration gradient

$$\frac{N_A}{A} = -D\frac{dC_A}{dy}$$

where the constant of proportionality D is called the diffusivity. The unit of D is
(a) dimensionless (b) m/s
(c) m^2/s (d) m/s^2

1.22 There is no mass transfer analog to
(a) conduction heat transfer
(b) convection heat transfer
(c) radiation heat transfer
(d) heat exchanger

1.23 A furnace is made of fire brick having thickness $x = 0.6$ m and $k = 0.8$ W/mK. For the same heat loss (W/m^2) and temperature drop, another material having $k = 0.16$ W/mK will have its thickness

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(a) 0.06 m (b) 0.12 m
(c) 0.24 m (d) 0.48 m

1.24 A masonary wall ($k = 0.75$ W/mK) transmits 80% of the heat loss through another wall ($k = 0.25$ W/mK, $x = 100$ mm). If the temperature difference across both the walls is the same, the thickness of the masonary wall would be
(a) 150 mm (b) 240 mm
(c) 300 mm (d) 375 mm

1.25 If M represents the molecular weight and T represents the temperature of a gas, the thermal conductivity of the gas will increase when
(a) both M and T increase
(b) M decreases and T increases
(c) both M and T decrease
(d) M increases and T decreases

1.26 In the heat flow equation $Q = -kA\dfrac{t_1 - t_2}{x}$, x/kA is known as
(a) thermal coefficient
(b) thermal conductivity
(c) thermal resistance
(d) temperature gradient

1.27 It has the least value of thermal conductivity:
(a) Rubber (b) Air
(c) Water (d) Plastic

1.28 The radial heat conduction through a hollow cylinder increases as the ratio of outer radius to inner radius
(a) decreases
(b) increases
(c) remains the same
(d) follows none of the above

1.29 A furnace wall has $x = 20$ cm and $k = 0.1$ W/mK with surface temperatures of 600°C and 400°C. The rate of heat conduction is
(a) 200 kW/m^2 (b) 100 kW/m^2
(c) 50 kW/m^2 (d) 300 kW/m^2

Answers

1.1 (c)	1.2 (b)	1.3 (a)	1.4 (d)	1.5 (c)
1.6 (d)	1.7 (b)	1.8 (b)	1.9 (c)	1.10 (c)
1.11 (c)	1.12 (b)	1.13 (d)	1.14 (a)	1.15 (d)
1.16 (b)	1.17 (c)	1.18 (b)	1.19 (d)	1.20 (d)
1.21 (c)	1.22 (c)	1.23 (b)	1.24 (d)	1.25 (b)
1.26 (c)	1.27 (b)	1.28 (a)	1.29 (b)	

Open Book Problems

1.1 A plane wall is 150 mm thick and its wall area is 4.5 m^2. If its thermal conductivity is 9.35 W/mK and surface temperatures are steady at 150°C and 50°C, determine (a) the heat flow across the plane wall, and (b) the temperature gradient in the flow direction.

Hints: Use Eq. (1.5) to find

$$Q = -\,kA\frac{T_2 - T_1}{L} \text{ and } \frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{Q}{kA}.$$

1.2 During an experiment to determine the thermal conductivity of a material used in a thick cylindrical shell (inner radius 10 cm and outer radius, 20 cm) two thermocouples were inserted, one at a radius equal to 12 cm and the other at a radius equal to 18 cm. The temperatures reacorded were 100°C and 50°C respectively. If the heat transfer per metre length of the shell was 600 W, calculate the thermal conductivity of the material and the temperatures at the inner and outer surfaces of the shell.

Hints: From Eq. (1.20),

$$k = Q\,\ln\left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right)\Big/2\pi L(T_1 - T_2)$$

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Substitute $Q = 600$ W, $r_2 = 18$ cm, $r_1 = 12$ cm, $L = 1$ m, $T_1 = 100°C$ and $T_2 = 50°C$, find k. Temperature at the inner radius = $T_1 + Q \ln (12/10)/2\pi kL$ and temperature at the outer radius = $T_2 - Q \ln (20/18)/2\pi kL$.

1.3 The temperature at the inner radius (r_1 = 5 cm) is 125°C and at the outer radius (r_2 = 10 cm) is 60°C in a spherical shell. Calculate the rate of heat flow through, the shell if k of the shell material is 2 W/mK. What would be the temperature of the shell material at a raidus of 7.5 cm?

Hints: Use Eq. (1.24) to find

$$Q = \frac{4\pi k(T_1 - T_2) r_1 r_2}{r_2 - r_1}$$

At $r = 7.5$ cm,

$T = T_1 - Q(r - r_1)/4\pi krr_1$.

1.4 An electric current is passed through a wire, 1 mm in diameter and 10 cm long. The wire is submerged in liquid water at atmospheric pressure and the current is increased until the water boils. For this situation, h = 5000 W/m^{2}K, and the water temperature is 100°C. How much electrical power must be supplied to the wire to maintain the wire surface at 120°C?

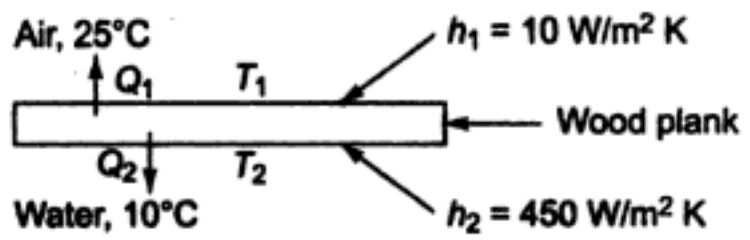
Hints: Use Eq. (1.31) to find $Q = h_c A(T_\omega - T_b)$ where $A = \pi dL$, $T_w = 120°C$, $T_b = 100°C$ and $h_c = 5000$ W/m^{2}K.

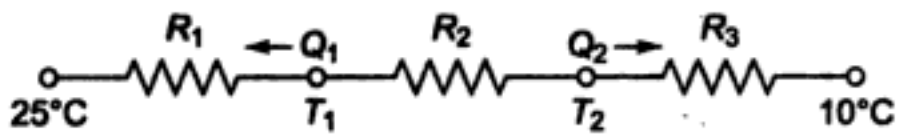
1.5 A horizontal steel pipe of 50-mm diameter is maintained at 60°C in a large room where the air and wall temperature is at 25°C. The surface emissivity of steel is 0.8. If h_c = 6.5 W/m^{2}K, calculate the total heat lost by the pipe per unit length.

Hints: From Eq. (1.37)
find $Q_c/L = h_c \pi d (T_\omega - T_b)$
and from Eq. (1.46),
find $Q_r/L = \varepsilon(\pi d_1)\, \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$,
where $T_1 = 333$ K and $T_2 = 298$ K.
Total heat loss is $Q/L = Q_c/L + Q_r/L$.

1.6 A 0.625 cm thick plank of wood (k = 0.166 W/mK) floats in a large pool of water. The convective heat transfer coefficients between the top surface of the wood and the air, and between the bottom surface of the wood are 10 and 450 W/m^{2}K respectively. The wood absorbs 470 W/m^2 of solar radiation. The temperature of the air is 25°C and that of water is 10°C. Ignoring radiation from the wood, calculate the rate of heat transfer from wood to air and water, and the temperature of the bottom surface of the wood.

Hints:





The schematic diagram and the equivalent electric circuit are shown above. Find the thermal resistances:

$$R_1 = 1/h_1,\ R_2 = L/k,\ R_3 = \frac{1}{h_2}$$

Then, Q_1 = Heat transfer from wood to air = $(T_1 - 25)/R_1$

and Q_2 = Heat transfer from wood to water = $(T_1 - 10)/(R_1 + R_2)$

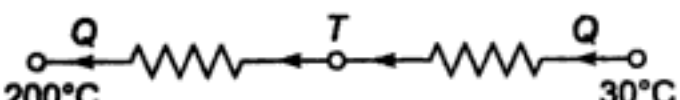
$Q_1 + Q_2 = 470$ W/m^2

Find Q_1 and Q_2, and

$T_2 = T_1 - Q_2 R_2$.

1.7 A spherical vessel 1 m in diameter stores liquid nitrogen at –200°C. Calculate the amount of nitrogen vaporized per day if the container is provided with a 5 cm thick layer of superinsulation having k = 0.00017 W/mK. The outside temperature is 30°C, the convective heat transfer coefficient at the outer surface is 15 W/m^{2}K and 200 kJ of energy is required to vaporize 1 kg of nitrogen at that temperature. Find also the temperature at the outside surface of the superinsulation.

Hints:



$R_1 = (r_2 - r_1)/4\pi kr_1 r_2$ $\quad R_2 = \frac{1}{h4\pi r_2^2}$

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The equivalent electrical circuit is shown above.

Find $R_1 = (r_2 - r_1)/4\pi k r_1 r_2$

and $R_2 = \dfrac{1}{h 4\pi r_2^2}$.

Total resistance,

$$R = R_1 + R_2$$

Use $Q = \dfrac{\Delta T}{R}$ watts

Mass of nitrogen vaporized per day

$$= \frac{Q \times 3600 \times 24}{200 \times 1000}$$

Temperature of the outer surface of superinsulation

$$T = 30 - QR_2.$$

Problems for Practice

1.1 The heat flow rate through a 3 cm thick wood board for a temperature difference of 30°C between the two surfaces is 120 W/m^2. Calculate the thermal conductivity of the wood. (*Ans.* 0.12 W/m K)

1.2 A hot plate maintained at a temperature of 120°C dissipates heat at the rate of 7500 W/m^2 to the ambient air at 30°C. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient for convection between the plate and the air.

(*Ans.* 83.3 W/m^2 K)

1.3 A circular plate of 0.2 m diameter has one of its surfaces insulated, and the other is maintained at 550 K. If the hot surface has an emissivity of 0.9 and is exposed to the air at 300 K, calculate the heat loss by radiation from the plate to the air. (*Ans.* 134.5 W)

1.4 The inside surface of an insulating layer is at 270°C, and the outside surface is dissipating heat by convection into air at 20°C. The insulation layer is 40 mm thick and has a thermal conductivity of 1.2 W/m K. What is the minimum value of the heat transfer coefficient at the outside surface if the outside surface temperature should not exceed 70°C. (*Ans.* 120 W/m^2 K)

1.5 A thin metallic plate is insulated at the back surface and is exposed to the sun at the front surface. The front surface absorbs solar radiation at 900 W/m^2 and dissipates it mainly by convection to the ambient air at 30°C. If the heat transfer coefficient between the plate and the air is 15 W/m^2 K, what is the temperature of the plate?

(*Ans.* 90°C)

1.6 A thin plate 500 mm by 500 mm is subjected to 400 W of heating on one surface and dissipates the heat by combined convection and radiation from the other surface into the ambient air at 290 K. If the surface of the plate has an emissivity of 0.9 and the heat transfer coefficient between the surface and the ambient air is 15 W/m^2 K, calculate the temperature of the plate.

(*Ans.* 89°C)

1.7 A large plane wall is 0.35 m thick. One surface is maintained at 35°C and the other surface is at 115°C. Only two values of thermal conductivity are available for the wall material. At 0°C, k = 26 W/m K and at 100°C, k = 32 W/m K. Determine the heat flux (W/m^2) through the wall assuming that

1.8 A circular conducting rod, diameter d and length L, having an electrical resistance per unit length R_e, is in thermal equilibrium with its surroundings. Obtain an expression to compute the variation in temperature of the rod with time, when an electric current I is passed through the rod.

Hints: By energy balance,

Energy generated within the rod = Energy convected and radiated away + Energy stored.

$$I^2 R_e L = \sigma \varepsilon \pi d L (T^4 - T_\infty^4) +$$

$$h_c \pi d L (T - T_\infty) + p_c \frac{\pi d^2}{4} L \frac{dT}{dt}.$$

Hence, find $\dfrac{dT}{dt}$.

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thermal conductivity varies linearly with temperature. (*Ans.* 6970 W/m^2)

1.8 A cubical tank of water of volume 1 m^3 is kept at a steady temperature of 65°C by a 1 kW heater. The heater is switched off. How long does the tank take to cool to 50°C if the room temperature is 15°C. (*Ans.* 20.64 h)

1.9 A 1.2 m high and 2 m wide double-pane window consists of two 3 mm thick layers of glass (k = 0.78 W/m K) separated by a 12 mm wide stagnant air gap (k = 0.026 W/m K). Determine the steady rate of heat transfer through this double-paned window and the temperature of its inner surface for a day during which the room is maintained at 24°C while the temperature of the outdoors is – 5°C. Take the convection heat transfer coefficients on the inner and outer surfaces of the window to be h_1 = 10 W/m^2 K and h_z = 25 W/m^2 K, and disregard any heat transfer by radiation.

(*Ans.* 113 W, 19.2°C)

1.10 A 15 cm × 18 cm epoxy glass laminate (k = 0.26 W/m K) of 0.14 mm thickness has 1 mm diameter cylindrical copper fillings (k = 386 W/m K) planted throughout the board with centre-to-centre distance of 3 mm. Determine the thermal resistance of the epoxy board for heat conduction.

(*Ans.* 0.00153 K/W)

1.11 A long cylindrically heated rod, 2 cm in diameter, is installed in a vacuum furnace. The surface of the heating rod has an emisivity of 0.9 and is maintained at 1000 K while the interior walls of the furnace are at 800 K. Calculate the net rate at which heat is lost from the rod per unit length and the radiation heat transfer coefficient.

(*Ans.* 1893 W, 150.6 W/m^2 K)

1.12 A fluid at an average temperature of 200°C flows through a plastic pipe (k = 0.5 W/m K) of 4 cm outer diameter and 3 cm inner diameter. If the heat transfer coefficient at the inside is 300 W/m^2 K and that at the outer surface is 10 W/m^2 K, and if the pipe is located in a room at 30°C, find the heat loss per unit length of pipe.

(*Ans.* 157 W/m)

1.13 Liquid nitrogen is stored in a thin-walled spherical metallic container at 77 K. The container has a diameter of 0.5 m and is covered with an evacuated, reflective insulation system composed of silica powder (k = 0.0017 W/m K). The insulation is 25 mm thick and its outer surface is exposed to ambient air at 300 K. The latent heat of vaporisation of liquid nitrogen is 2 × 10^5 J/kg. If the convection coefficient is 20 W/m^2 K over the outer surface, determine the rate of heat transfer and the rate of liquid boil-off of nitrogen per hour.

(*Ans.* 13.06 W, 0.235 kg/h)

1.14 Water flows at 50°C inside a 2.5 cm inner diameter tube such that h_i = 3500 W/m^2 K. The tube has a wall thickness of 0.8 mm with a thermal conductivity of 16 W/m K. The outside of the tube loses heat by free convection with h_o = 7.6 W/m^2 K. Calculate the overall heat transfer coefficient and heat loss per metre length to surrounding air at 20°C.

(*Ans.* U_o = 7.58 W/m^2 K, 19 W)

1.15 Two stainless steel bars, each of diameter 2 cm and length 3 cm are pressed together with a pressure of 10 atm. The surface has a roughness of 2.5 μm for which the contact conductance is 3000 W/m^2 K. An overall temperature difference of ΔT = 100°C is applied across the bars. The interface temperature is about 90°C. Calculate (a) the heat flow rate along the bars and (b) the temperature drop at the interface.

(*Ans.* (a) 9.42 W, (b) 10°C)

1.16 A surface whose temperature is maintained at 400°C is separated from an airflow by a layer of insulation 25 mm thick for which the thermal conductivity is 0.1 W/m K. If the air temperature is 35°C and the convection coefficient between the air and the outer surface of the insulation is 500 W/m^2 K, what is the temperature of this outer surface?

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Conduction Heat Transfer at Steady State

2

In conduction mode heat is transferred through a complex submicroscopic mechanism that involves flow of free electrons and lattice vibrations in a solid. From an engineering point of view there is no need to delve into the complexities of the mechanism, because the rate of heat propagation can be predicted from the macroscopic phenomenological relation as depicted by the Fourier's law. Although conduction also occurs in liquids and gases, it is rarely the predominant heat transfer mechanism, except in liquid metals, since once heat begins to flow in a fluid, even if no external force is applied, density gradients are set up and convective currents are set in motion. Heat is then transported on a macroscopic scale as well as on a microscopic scale with convection currents generally being the more effective. Conduction heat transfer has been a fertile field for applied mathematicians for the past 200 years [1]. Laplace and Fourier obtained analytical solutions of the partial differential equations for different heat conduction problems. However, the analytic approach is limited to simple geometrical shapes and boundary conditions. With the advent of the high speed computers it is now possible to solve complex heat conduction problems with relative ease.

2.1 GENERAL EQUATION OF HEAT CONDUCTION

Heat flows spontaneously from one body to another body (or from one part of a body to another part of the same body) only when the bodies are at different temperatures. If a temperature difference exists, heat flows in the direction of decreasing temperature. By the first law of thermodynamics the flowing thermal energy is conserved in the absence of heat sources or sinks. Thus a solid may have a temperature distribution which is dependent upon the space coordinates (x, y, z) and time of observation (t):

$$T = f(x, y, z, t)$$

We may suppose that within this solid there is a surface such that, when observed at a certain time, each point on it has the same temperature. Such a surface is called an isothermal surface. We can further visualise other isothermal surfaces within this body which differ from one another by being hotter or colder by amounts $\pm \delta T$, respectively (Fig. 2.1). These isothermal surfaces never intersect because no point in this solid can exist at two different temperatures at the same time. The solid is thus visualised as being composed of a number of thin isothermal shells that vary with time. We shall consider only isotropic solids, i.e., solids whose properties and constitution in the neighbourhood of any point are invariant with the direction from the point. Thus the heat flow at a point is along a path perpendicular to the isothermal surface through the point (isothermal and adiabatic planes being orthogonal).

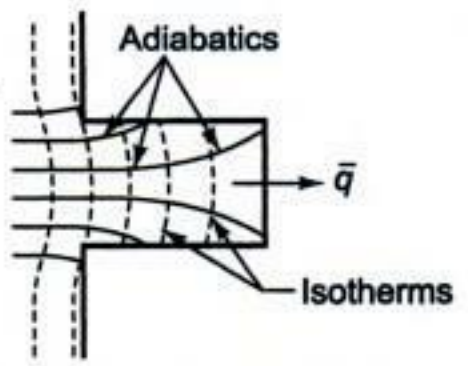


Fig. 2.1 *Isotherms and adiabatics*

The mathematical formulation of the law of heat conduction (Fourier's law) as interpreted in Fig. 2.2 is expressed as

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$$Q = -kA\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}n} \quad \text{or} \quad q_n = -k\frac{dT}{dn} \tag{2.1}$$

The heat flux Q/A or q flows along the normal n of the decreasing temperature. It is a vector quantity. In Fig. 2.3 are shown the isotherms T and $T + \mathrm{d}T$ in a body. The normal to these isotherms is designated by the axis n, which is also normal to the differential area $\mathrm{d}A$. The heat flux can be calculated in the direction of the normal and in the direction s shown as follows:

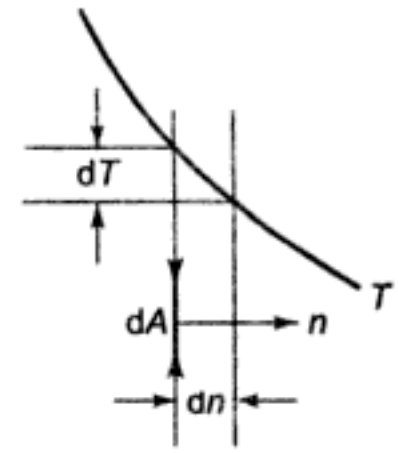


Fig. 2.2 *Heat conduction system*

$$q_n = \frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}A} = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial n}$$

$$q_s = \frac{\mathrm{d}Q}{\mathrm{d}A\cos\theta} = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial s}$$

It is seen that $n = s\cos\theta$. Therefore,

$$q_s = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial n}\cos\theta \tag{2.2}$$

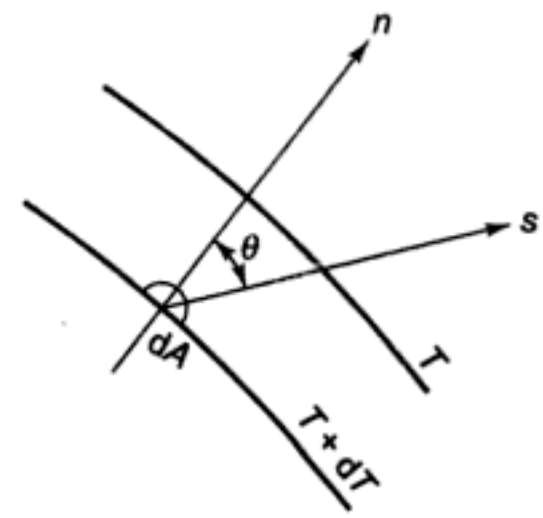


Fig. 2.3 *Direction of heat flow*

Thus, q_s is a component of the heat flux vector q_n. The greatest heat flux will occur when it is calculated along the normal to the isothermal surface ($\theta = 0$). If the component fluxes are related to the planes containing the x, y, z coordinate system, the fluxes are

$$q_x = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial x},\quad q_y = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial y},\quad q_z = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \tag{2.3}$$

For an isotropic solid $k_x = k_y = k_z = k$. The fluxes shown in Eq. (2.3) are components of the heat flux vector so that

$$\bar{q} = iq_x + jq_y + kq_z = -k\left(i\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + j\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + k\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)$$

$$= -\,\mathbf{k}\,\mathbf{grad}\,\mathbf{T} = -\,\mathbf{k}\,\nabla\,\mathbf{T} \tag{2.4}$$

We will now derive the heat conduction equation in differential form. A solution of this equation, subject to given initial and boundary conditions, yields the temperature distribution in a solid. Once the temperature distribution is known, the heat transfer rate can be evaluated by applying Fourier's law Eq. (1.5). To derive the conduction equation we perform an energy balance on an elemental volume, which includes the possibility of heat generation in the material. Heat generation can result from chemical reactions, electric currents passing through the material or nuclear reactions. Heat transfer problems are classified according to the variables that influence the temperature. If the temperature is a function of time, the problem is classified as *unsteady* or *transient*. If the temperature is independent of time, the problem is called a *steady-state* problem. If the temperature is a function of a single space coordinate, the problem is said to be *one-dimensional*. If it is a function of two or three coordinate dimensions, the problem is *two-* or *three-dimensional* respectively. First we will derive the equation in rectangular coordinate system.

Let us consider an infinitesimal volume element of sides δx, δy and δz (Fig. 2.4). The considerations here will include the nonsteady condition of temperature variation with time t.

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According to the Fourier heat conduction law, the heat flowing into the left-most face of the element in the x-direction

$$dQ_x = -k\,\delta y\,\delta z\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$$

The value of the heat flow out of the right face of the element can be obtained by expanding dQ_x in a Taylor series and retaining only the first two terms as an approximation:

$$dQ_{x+dx} = dQx + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(dQ_x)\,\delta x + \ldots$$

The net heat flow by conduction in the x-direction is therefore

$$dQ_x - dQ_{x+dx} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(dQ_x)\,\delta x = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(-k\,\delta y\,\delta z\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right)\delta x$$

$$= k\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z$$

Similarly, the net heat flows in the y- and z-direction are

$$dQ_y - dQ_{y+dy} = k\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z$$

$$dQ_z - dQ_{z+dz} = k\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z$$

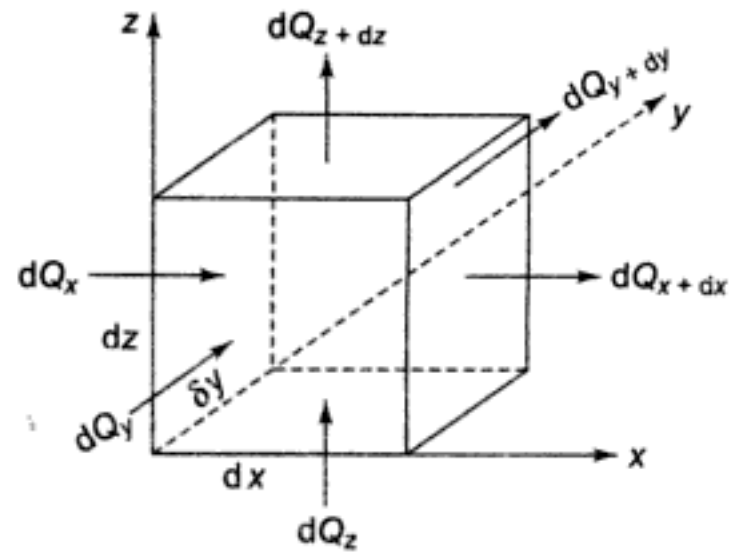


Fig. 2.4 *Volume element for determining heat conduction equation*

Here, the solid has been assumed to be isotropic and homogeneous with properties uniform in all directions. Let us consider that there is some heat source within the solid, and heat is produced internally as a result of the flow of electrical current or nuclear or chemical reactions. Let q_G is the rate at which heat is generated internally per unit volume (W/m^3). Then the total rate of heat generation in the elemental volume is

$$q_G\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z$$

The net heat flow owing to conduction and the heat generated within the element together will increase the internal energy of the volume element. The rate of accumulation of internal energy within the control volume is

$$\rho c\;\;\delta x\cdot\delta y\cdot\delta z\;\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$$

where c is the specific heat and ρ is the density of the solid.

An energy balance can be achieved on the volume element as:

Rate of energy storage within the solid = Rate of heat influx – Rate of heat outflux + Rate of heat generation

or $$\rho c\cdot\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z\;\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = (dQ_x + dQ_y + dQ_z) - (dQ_{x+dx} + dQ_{y+dy} + dQ_{z+dx}) + q_G\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z$$

$$= k\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}\right) + q_G\,\delta x\;\delta y\;\delta z$$

or $$\rho c\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = k\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}\right) + q_G \qquad (2.5)$$

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$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{2.6}$$

where α is the thermal diffusivity of the solid given by $k/\rho c$.

If the temperature of a material is not a function of time, the system is in the steady state and does not store any energy. The steady state form of a three-dimensional conduction equation in rectangular coordinates is

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}+\frac{q_G}{k}=0 \tag{2.7}$$

It is known as *Poisson's equation*.

If the system is in steady state and no heat is generated internally, the conduction equation further simplifies to

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}=0 \tag{2.8}$$

Equation (2.8) is known as the *Laplace equation*. It occurs in a number of areas in addition to heat transfer, for example, in diffusion of mass or in electromagnetic fields. The operation of taking the second derivatives of the potential in a field has therefore been given a short symbol, ∇^2, called the *Laplacean* operator. For the rectangular coordinate system Eq. (2.8) becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}=\nabla^2 T=0 \tag{2.9}$$

Since the operator ∇^2 is *independent of coordinate system*, the above form will be useful when we study conduction in cylindrical and spherical coordinates. The heat conduction Eq. (2.6) can thus be written as

$$\nabla^2 T+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{2.10}$$

2.1.1 Vector Method

Equation (2.10) can also be derived vectorially. Let us consider a control surface S enclosing a volume V (Fig. 2.5).

The net rate of heat outflow across the surface S is given by $\oint_s q \cdot n \, dS$ where n is the normal direction. Converting the surface integral to volume integral

$$\oint_s qn \, dS = \oint_v \operatorname{div} q \, dV \tag{2.11}$$

where $\bar{q}$ is the heat flux per unit area.

The net rate of *heat inflow* to the control volume (CV) is $-\oint_v \operatorname{div} q \, dV$

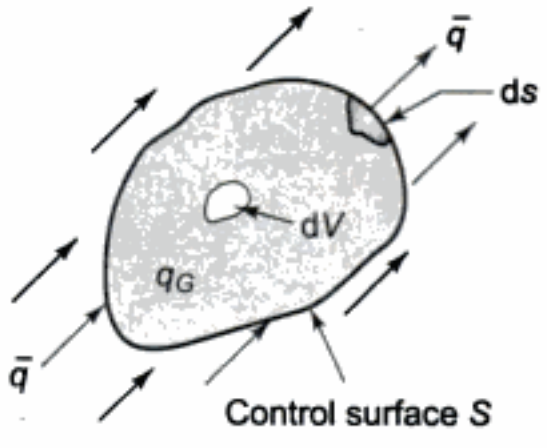


Fig. 2.5 *Heat conduction through a volume element*

If there is a volumetric heat source inside the CV, the rate of heat generation is

$$\oint_v q_G \, dV$$

The rate of energy accumulation within the CV is

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\oint_v e\rho \, dV=\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\oint_v cT\,\rho \, dV$$

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e being the specific energy (J/kg)

By energy balance,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\oint_v \rho c T \, dV = \oint_v q_G \, dV - \oint_v \operatorname{div} \bar{q} \, dV \tag{2.12}$$

This is the energy equation for the entire CV. Writing the energy equation for the elemental volume dV within the CV

$$\rho c \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} dV = q_G \, dV - \operatorname{div} \bar{q} \, dV$$

Since dV is now independent, it can be removed from the above equation. Therefore,

$$\rho c \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = q_G - \operatorname{div} \bar{q} \tag{2.13}$$

Now, $\operatorname{div} \bar{q} = \nabla \cdot \bar{q}$

and from Eq. (2.4)

$$\bar{q} = -k \nabla T$$

$$\therefore \quad \operatorname{div} \bar{q} = \nabla \cdot (-k \nabla T) = -k \nabla^2 T, \text{ for constant } k$$

Substituting in Eq. (2.13)

$$\rho c \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = q_G + k \nabla^2 T$$

Therefore, $\nabla^2 T + \dfrac{q_G}{k} = \dfrac{1}{\alpha} \dfrac{\partial T}{\partial t}$

which is the same as Eq. (2.10).

2.1.2 Cylindrical Coordinates

For a general transient three-dimensional heat conduction problem in the cylindrical coordinates with $T = T(r, \theta, z, t)$, let us consider an elementary volume $dV = dr\, r\, d\theta\, dz$ (Fig. 2.6).

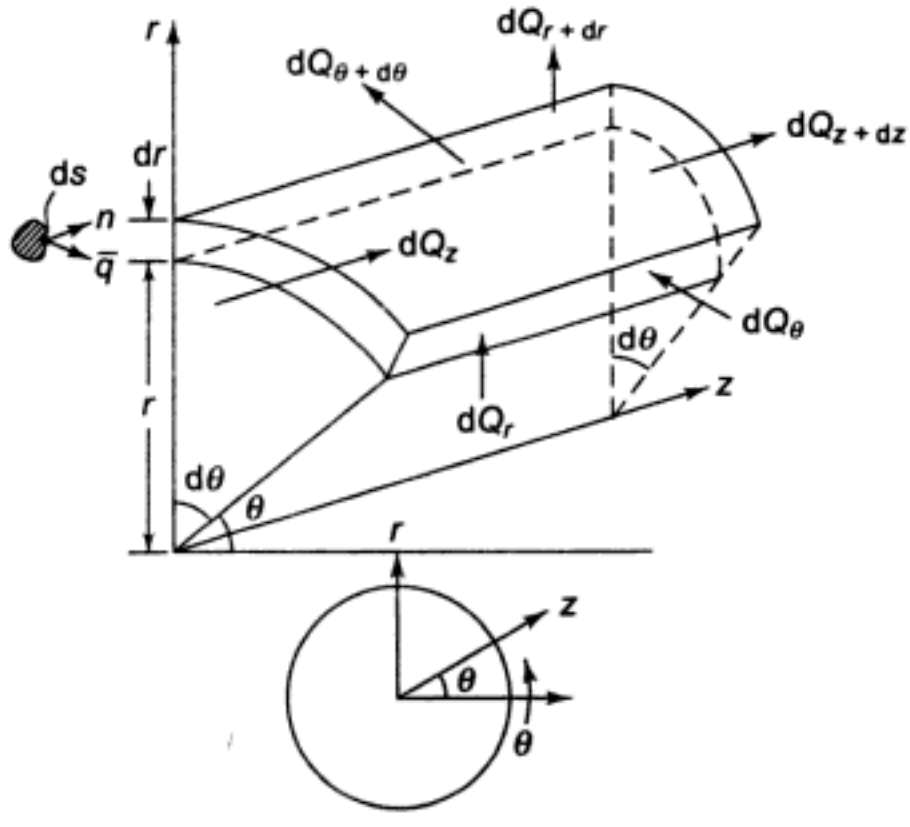


Fig. 2.6 *Heat conduction in a cylindrical volume element (r, θ, z)*

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By Fourier's law,

$$dQ_r = -k(r\,d\theta\,dz)\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}$$

$$dQ_{r+dr} = dQ_r + \frac{\partial}{\partial r}(dQ_r)\,dr$$

$$dQ_r - dQ_{r+dr} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(-kr\,d\theta\,dz\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)dr$$

$$= kr\,d\theta\,dz\,dr\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2} + k\,d\theta\,dz\,dr\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \tag{2.14}$$

Similarly, $$dQ_\theta = -k\,dz\,dr\,\frac{\partial T}{r\partial\theta}$$

$$dQ_{\theta+d\theta} = dQ_\theta + \frac{\partial}{r\partial\theta}(dQ_\theta)\,r\,d\theta$$

$$dQ_\theta - dQ_{\theta+d\theta} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(-k\,dz\,dr\frac{\partial T}{r\partial\theta}\right)d\theta$$

$$= k\,dz\,dr\,d\theta\,\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial\theta^2} \tag{2.15}$$

$$dQ_z = -k\,dr\,r\,d\theta\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

$$dQ_{z+dz} = dQ_z + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(dQ_z)\,dz$$

$$dQ_z - dQ_{z+dz} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\left(-k\,dr\,r\,d\theta\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)dz$$

$$= k\,drr\,d\theta\,dz\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \tag{2.16}$$

Rate of heat generation from an internal heat source

$$= q_G\,drr\,d\theta\,dz \tag{2.17}$$

Rate of energy accumulation within the CV

$$= \rho(dr\,r\,d\theta\,dz)\,c\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{2.18}$$

By energy balance, from Eqs (2.14)–(2.18),

$$\rho dr\,r\,d\theta\,dz\,c\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = kr\,d\theta\,dz\,dr\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2} + k\,d\theta\,dz\,dr\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + k\,dz\,dr\,d\theta\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial\theta^2} + k\,dr\,r\,d\theta\,dz\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} + q_G\,dr\,r\,d\theta\,dz$$

$$\rho c\,\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = k\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2} + k\,\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + k\,\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial\theta^2} + k\,\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} + q_G$$

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or
$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2}+\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}+\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$$

or
$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}r\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}+\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{2.19}$$

This is the general heat conduction equation in cylindrical coordinates. If we compare this equation with Eq. (2.10), the Laplacian is

$$\nabla^2 T=\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \tag{2.20}$$

If heat flows only in radial direction, $T = T(r, t)$, Eq. (2.19) reduces to

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{2.21}$$

If the temperature distribution does not vary with time, then at steady state,

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r\frac{dT}{dr}\right)+\frac{q_G}{k}=0 \tag{2.22}$$

In this case the equation for the temperature contains only a single variable r and is therefore an ordinary differential equation.

When there is no volumetric energy generation and the temperature is a function of the radius only, the steady-state conduction for cylindrical coordinates is

$$\frac{d}{dr}\left(r\frac{dT}{dr}\right)=0 \tag{2.23}$$

2.1.3 Spherical Coordinates

For spherical coordinates, as shown in Fig. 2.7(a), the temperature is a function of the three space

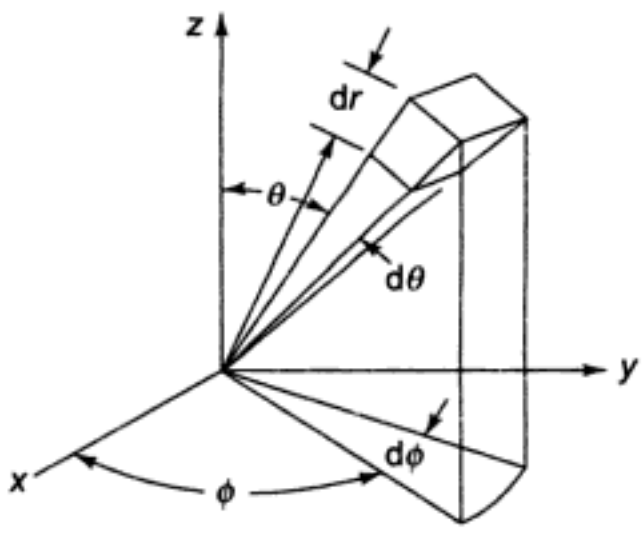


Fig. 2.7(a) *Spherical coordinate system for the general conduction equation*

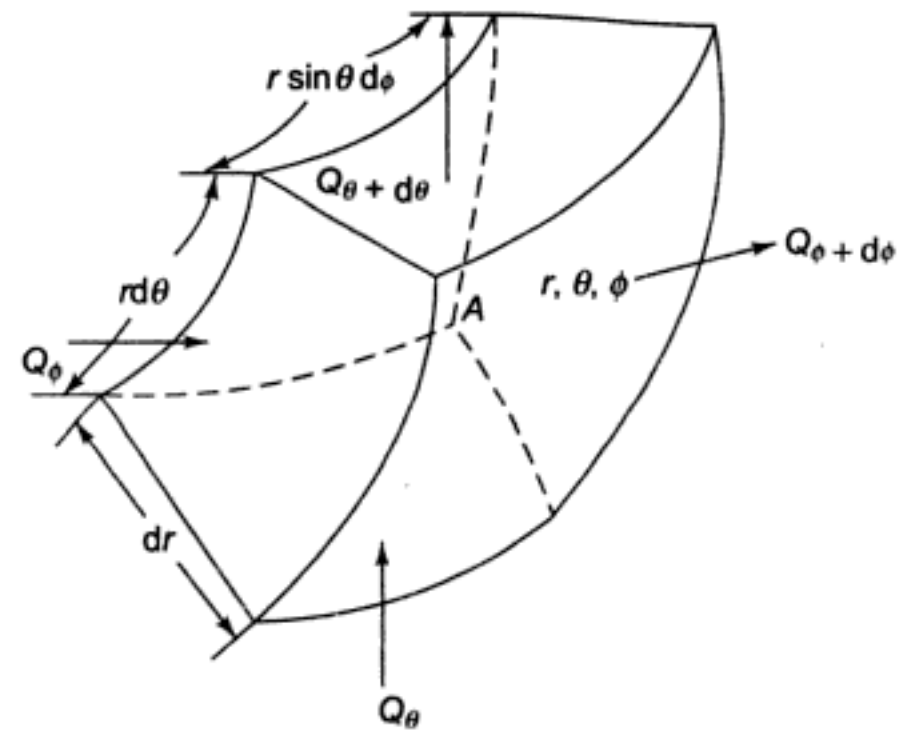


Fig. 2.7(b) *Elemental spherical volume*

coordinates r, θ and ϕ and time t, i.e., $T = T(r, \theta, \phi, t)$. The general form of the conduction equation in spherical coordinates can be found as

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$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{1}{r^2\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{\partial T}{\partial\theta}\right)+\frac{1}{r^2\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial\phi^2}+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{2.24}$$

where the Laplacian includes the first three terms of the above equation in spherical coordinates.

Let us consider an elemental volume having the coordinates (r, ϕ, θ) for three dimensional heat conduction analysis [Fig. 2.7(b)].

The volume of the element = $dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi$.

(A) Net heat accumulated in the element due to conduction of heat from all the coordinate directions

Heat flow through $r-\theta$ plane, ϕ-direction:

Heat inflow, $$Q_\phi = -k\,dr \cdot r d\theta \frac{\partial T}{r\sin\theta\,\partial\phi}\,dt$$

Heat outflow, $$Q_{\phi+d\phi} = Q_\phi + \frac{\partial Q_\phi}{r\sin\theta\,\partial\phi}\,r\sin\theta\,d\phi$$

$\therefore$ Heat accumulated in the element for heat flow in ϕ direction

$$dQ_\phi = Q_\phi - Q_{\phi+d\phi} = -\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial Q_\phi}{\partial\phi}\,r\sin\theta\,d\phi$$

$$= -\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\phi}\left[-k dr\, r d\theta\frac{1}{r\sin\theta}\frac{\partial T}{\partial\phi}\cdot dt\right] r\sin\theta\,d\phi$$

$$= k(dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r\sin\theta \cdot d\phi)\frac{1}{r^2\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial\phi^2}\,dt \tag{2.25}$$

Heat flow in r-ϕ plane, θ-direction:

Heat inflow, $$Q_\theta = -k(dr \times r\sin\theta\,d\phi)\frac{\partial T}{r\partial\theta}\cdot dt$$

Heat outflow, $$Q_{\theta+d\theta} = Q_\theta + \frac{\partial}{r\partial\theta}(Q_\theta)\cdot r d\theta$$

Heat accumulated in the element for heat flow in θ-direction:

$$dQ_\theta = Q_\theta - Q_{\theta+d\theta}$$

$$= -\frac{\partial}{r\partial\theta}(Q_\theta)\,r\,d\theta$$

$$= -\frac{\partial}{r\partial\theta}\left[-k\,dr.r\sin\theta\,d\phi\frac{\partial T}{r\partial\theta}.dt\right] r d\theta$$

$$= k\,dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r\sin\theta\,d\phi\frac{1}{r^2\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left[\sin\theta\frac{\partial T}{\partial\theta}\right]dt \tag{2.26}$$

Heat flow in θ-ϕ plane, r-direction:

Heat inflow, $$Q_r = -k(r d\theta \cdot r\sin\theta\,d\phi)\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\,dt$$

Heat outflow, $$Q_{r+dr} = Q_r + \frac{\partial}{\partial r}(Q_r)\cdot dr$$

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Heat accumulation in the element due to heat flow in r-direction

$$\begin{aligned} dQ_r &= Q_r - Q_{r+dr} \\ &= -\frac{\partial Q_r}{\partial r} \cdot dr \\ &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left[-k(r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi)\frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \cdot dr\right] dt \\ &= k dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi \; \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left[r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right] dt \end{aligned} \tag{2.27}$$

Net heat accumulated in the element

$$\begin{aligned} dQ &= dQ_\phi + dQ_\theta + dQ_r \\ &= k dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi \cdot \left[\frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin\theta} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left(\sin\theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta}\right)\right. \\ &\qquad \left. + \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)\right] dt \end{aligned} \tag{2.28}$$

(B) Heat generated within the element

$$Q_G = q_G (dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi) dt \tag{2.29}$$

(C) Energy stored in the element

$$\rho dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi \cdot c \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \cdot dt$$

By energy balance,

$$(A) + (B) = (C)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad & k dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi \cdot \left[\frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2\theta} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin\theta} \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left(\sin\theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta}\right)\right. \\ & \left. + \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)\right] dt + q_G \, dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi \cdot dt \\ & = \rho dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \, d\phi \cdot c \cdot \frac{\partial T}{\partial \tau} \cdot dt \end{aligned}$$

Dividing both sides by $k dr \cdot r d\theta \cdot r \sin\theta \cdot d\phi \cdot dt$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left(\sin\theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta}\right) + \frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{q_G}{k} \\ & = \frac{\rho \mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{k}}\frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \tau} = \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}\frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \tau} \end{aligned} \tag{2.30}$$

This is the general heat conduction equation in spherical coordinates. If there is no heat source present and the heat flow is steady and only in radial direction. Equation (2.30) reduces to

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2 \frac{dT}{dr}\right) = 0$$

Equation (2.30) can also be derived by transformation of coordinates as follows:

$$x = r \sin\theta \sin\phi; \quad y = r \sin\theta \cos\phi; \quad z = r \cos\theta.$$

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2.2 STEADY HEAT CONDUCTION IN SIMPLE GEOMETRIES

We will now derive solutions to the conduction equations as obtained in the previous section for simple geometrical systems with and without heat generation.

2.2.1 Plane Wall

(a) Without Heat Generation

In the first chapter we saw that the temperature distribution for one-dimensional steady conduction through a wall is linear. We will verify this result by simplifying the more general equation [Eq. (2.10)]

$$\nabla^2 T + \frac{q_G}{k} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$$

For steady state, $\partial T/\partial t = 0$. Since T is only a function of x, $\partial T/\partial y = 0$ and $\partial T/\partial z = 0$. There is no internal heat generation, $q_G = 0$. Therefore, the above equation reduces to

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} = 0 \tag{2.31}$$

Integrating the ordinary differential equation twice yields the linear temperature distribution

$$T(x) = C_1 x + C_2 \tag{2.32}$$

For a wall (Fig. 2.8), at $x = 0$, $T = T_1$ and at $x = b$, $T = T_2$

$$T = -\frac{T_1 - T_2}{b}x + T_1 \tag{2.33}$$

which agrees with the linear temperature distribution deduced by integrating Fourier's law, $Q_k = -kA\dfrac{dT}{dx}$.

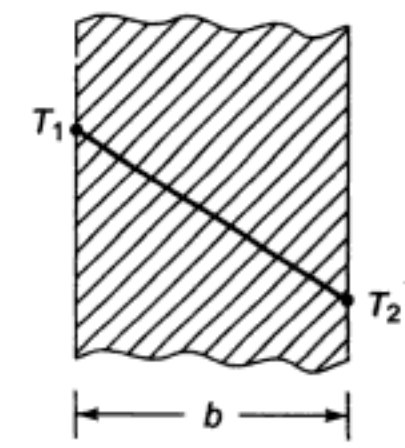


Fig. 2.8 *Heat conduction through a wall*

(b) With Heat Generation

Let us now consider a heat source generating heat throughout the system. If the thermal conductivity is constant and the heat generation is uniform, Eq. (2.10) reduces to

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0 \tag{2.34}$$

On integration,

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{q_G x}{k} + C_1$$

A second integration gives

$$T(x) = -\frac{q_G}{2k}x^2 + C_1 x + C_2 \tag{2.35}$$

where C_1 and C_2 are constants.

At $x = 0$, $T = T_1$ and at $x = b$, $T = T_2$ substituting in Eq. (2.35),

$$T_1 = C_2$$

$$T_2 = -\frac{q_G}{2k}b^2 + C_1 b + T_1$$

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$$C_1 = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{b} + \frac{q_G}{2k} b$$

Therefore, the temperature distribution is

$$T(x) = -\frac{q_G}{2k} x^2 + \frac{T_2 - T_1}{b} x + \frac{q_G b}{2k} x + T_1 \tag{2.36}$$

It may be seen that Eq. (2.32) is now modified by two terms containing the heat generation and that the temperature distribution is no longer linear but parabolic.

If the two surface temperatures are equal, $T_1 = T_2$, then the temperature distribution becomes

$$\mathbf{T(x) = -\frac{q_G}{2k} b^2 \left[\frac{x}{b} - \left(\frac{x}{b}\right)^2\right] + T_1} \tag{2.37}$$

which is parabolic and symmetric about the central plane with a maximum T_{max} at $x = b/2$.

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{q_G}{2k} b^2 \left(\frac{1}{b} - \frac{2x}{b^2}\right) = 0$$

or $$\frac{2x}{b^2} = \frac{1}{b} \text{ or } x = \frac{b}{2}$$

and $$\mathbf{T_{max} = T_1 + \frac{q_G b^2}{8k}} \tag{2.38}$$

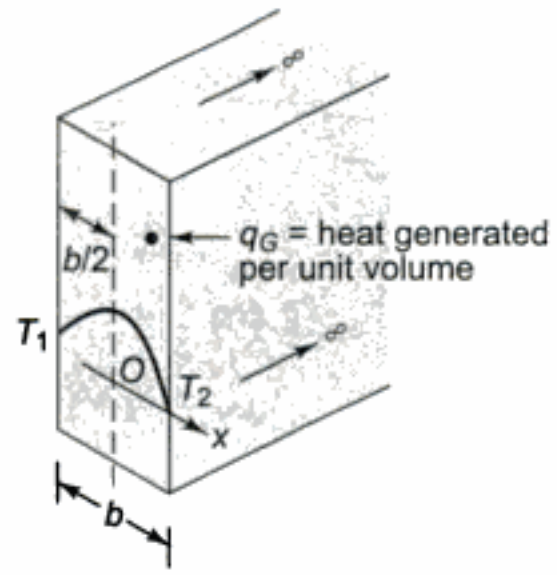


Fig. 2.9 *Heat flow through a wall with heat generation*

In dimensionless form, on dividing Eq. (2.37) by Eq. (2.38) and putting

$$\xi = x/b,$$

$$\frac{T(x) - T_1}{T_{max} - T_1} = 4(\xi - \xi^2) \tag{2.39}$$

Let us consider the case where heat is transferred from the two sides of the wall to the surrounding fluid at T_∞ (Fig. 2.10). For simplicity, let us assume that both the wall surfaces are at T_w. At steady state and for one-dimensional heat flow,

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

Let the excess temperature be

$$\theta = T - T_\infty$$

so that, $$\frac{d^2\theta}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2T}{dx^2}$$

Therefore, $$\frac{d^2\theta}{dx^2} = -\frac{q_G}{k}$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{dx} = -\frac{q_G}{k} x + C_1$$

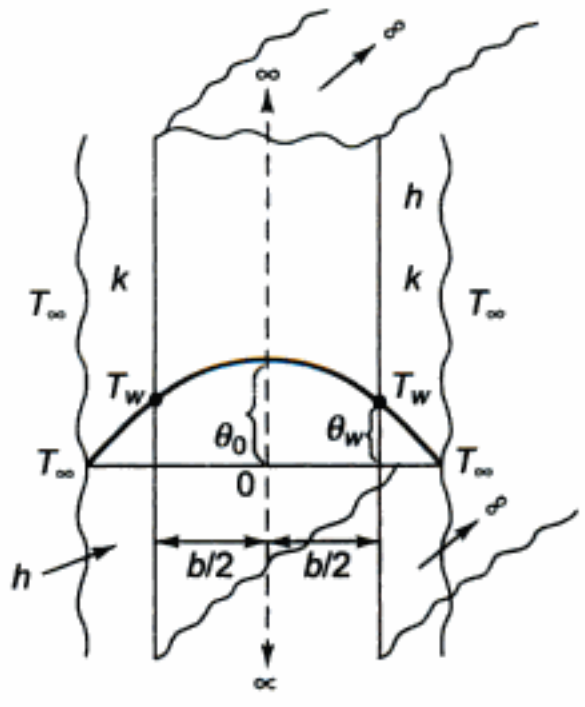


Fig. 2.10 *Heat transfer from two sides of a wall having a heat source*

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and $$\theta = -\frac{q_G}{2k} x^2 + C_1 x + C_2 \tag{2.40}$$

which is parabolic. The central plane is the plane of symmetry where the solid temperature is the maximum and $d\theta/dx = 0$ and is taken as the reference plane with $x = 0$.

At $$x = 0, \frac{d\theta}{dx} = 0$$

$$C_1 = 0$$

At $$x = \frac{b}{2}, \left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{b/2} = -\frac{q_G}{k}\frac{b}{2}$$

Again, at the wall

$$q_k = -k\left(\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial x}\right)_{b/2} = k\frac{q_G}{k}\frac{b}{2} = \frac{q_G b}{2}$$

$$= h(T_w - T_\infty) = h\theta_w$$

$$\theta_w = \frac{q_G b}{2h}$$

From Eq. (2.40)

$$\theta = -\frac{q_G}{2k} x^2 + C_2$$

when $$x = b/2, \theta = \theta_w$$

$$\theta_w = -\frac{q_G}{2k}\frac{b^2}{4} + C_2$$

$$C_2 = \theta_w + \frac{q_G}{2k}\frac{b^2}{4} = \frac{q_G b}{2h} + \frac{q_G}{8k} b^2$$

Therefore, the final temperature distribution is

$$\theta = -\frac{q_G}{2k} x^2 + \frac{q_G b}{2h} + \frac{q_G}{8k} b^2$$

$$\mathbf{T = \frac{q_G}{8k}(b^2 - 4x^2) + \frac{q_G b}{2h} + T_\infty} \tag{2.41}$$

This is the temperature distribution. At the mid-plane, $x = 0$ and $T = T_{max}$.

$$\mathbf{T_{max} = \frac{q_G}{8k} b^2 + \frac{q_G b}{2h} + T_\infty} \tag{2.42}$$

2.2.2 Cylindrical Wall

(a) Without heat Generation

Let us consider heat transfer through a hollow pipe with a fluid flowing inside (Fig. 2.11). Heat is assumed to flow only radially. We want to determine the temperature distribution and the heat transfer rate in a long hollow cylinder of length L if the inside and outside surface temperatures are T_i and T_o respectively and there is no internal heat generation.

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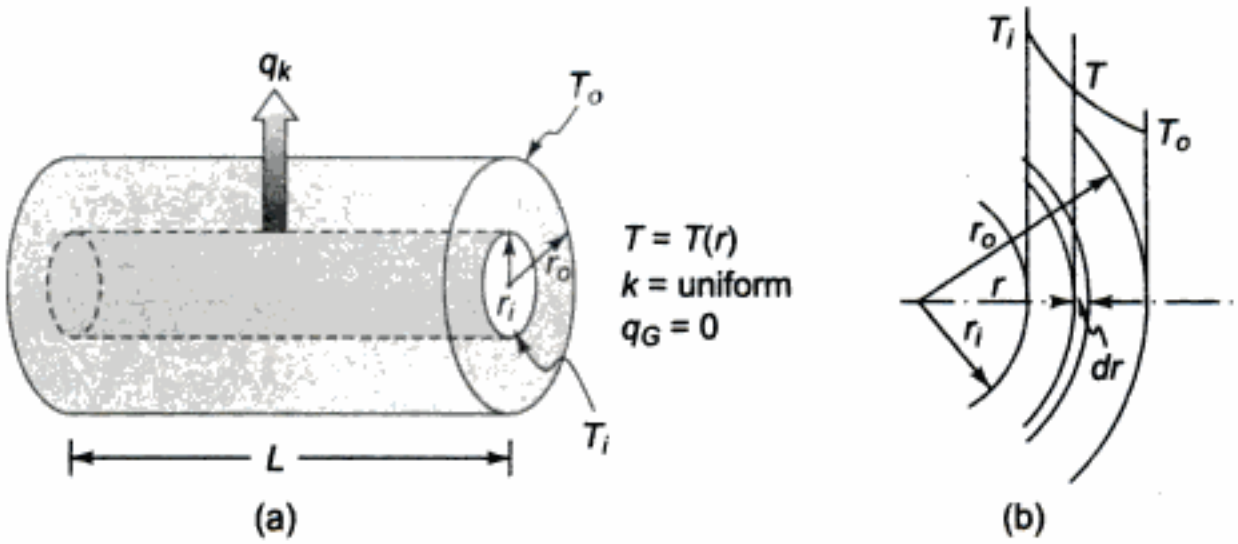


Fig. 2.11 *Radial heat conduction through a hollow cylinder*

Since the temperatures at the two surfaces are constant, the temperature distribution in the wall is not a function of time, and the conduction equation is given by Eq. (2.23)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right) = 0$$

On integration

$$r\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = C_1$$

or

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = \frac{C_1}{r}$$

A second integration yields

$$T = C_1 \ln r + C_2 \tag{2.43}$$

At $r = r_i, T = T_i$

$$T_i = C_1 \ln r_i + C_2$$

At $r = r_o, T = T_o$

$$T_o = C_1 \ln r_o + C_2$$
$$= C_1 \ln r_o + T_i - C_1 \ln r_i$$

$$C_1 = \frac{T_o - T_i}{\ln(r_o / r_i)} \text{ and } C_2 = T_i - \frac{T_o - T_i}{\ln(r_o / r_i)} \ln r_i$$

Substituting C_1 and C_2 in Eq. (2.43).

$$T = \frac{T_o - T_i}{\ln(r_o / r_i)} \ln r + T_i - \frac{T_o - T_i}{\ln(r_o / r_i)} \ln r_i$$

$$\frac{T(r) - T_i}{T_o - T_i} = \frac{\ln(r / r_i)}{\ln(r_o / r_i)} \tag{2.44}$$

The rate of heat transfer by conduction

$$Q_k = -kA\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -k2\pi rL\frac{C_1}{r} = -k2\pi L\frac{T_o - T_i}{\ln(r_o / r_i)}$$

$$\mathbf{Q_k = \frac{2\pi kL(T_i - T_o)}{\ln(r_o / r_i)}} \tag{2.45}$$

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which is the same as given by Eq. (1.20).

The thermal resistance offered by the wall is

$$\mathbf{R_{th} = \frac{T_i - T_o}{Q_k} = \frac{\ln (r_o / r_i)}{2\pi k L}} \tag{2.46}$$

The rate of heat conduction through a composite cylindrical wall with convection at the inside and outside surfaces (Fig. 2.12) is given by

$$Q = \frac{\Delta T}{\Sigma R_{th}} = \frac{T_h - T_c}{\dfrac{1}{h_i\, 2\pi\, r_1 L} + \dfrac{\ln (r_2 / r_1)}{2\pi\, k_1 L} + \dfrac{\ln (r_3 / r_2)}{2\pi\, k_2 L} + \dfrac{1}{h_o 2\pi\, k_3 L}} \tag{2.47}$$

where T_h and T_c are the hot and cold fluid temperatures, h_i and h_o are the inside and outside heat transfer coefficients and k_1 and k_2 are the thermal conductivities of the two walls in series. Now,

$$Q = U_o A_o (T_h - T_c) \tag{2.48}$$

where U_o is the overall heat transfer coefficient based on outside area $A_o = 2\pi r_o L$ given by

$$\mathbf{\frac{1}{U_o A_o} = \Sigma R_{th} = \frac{1}{\dfrac{1}{h_i A_i} + \dfrac{\ln (r_2 / r_1)}{2\pi k_1 L} + \dfrac{\ln (r_3 / r_2)}{2\pi k_2 L} + \dfrac{1}{h_o A_o}}} \tag{2.49}$$

where $r_i = r_1$ and $r_o = r_3$.

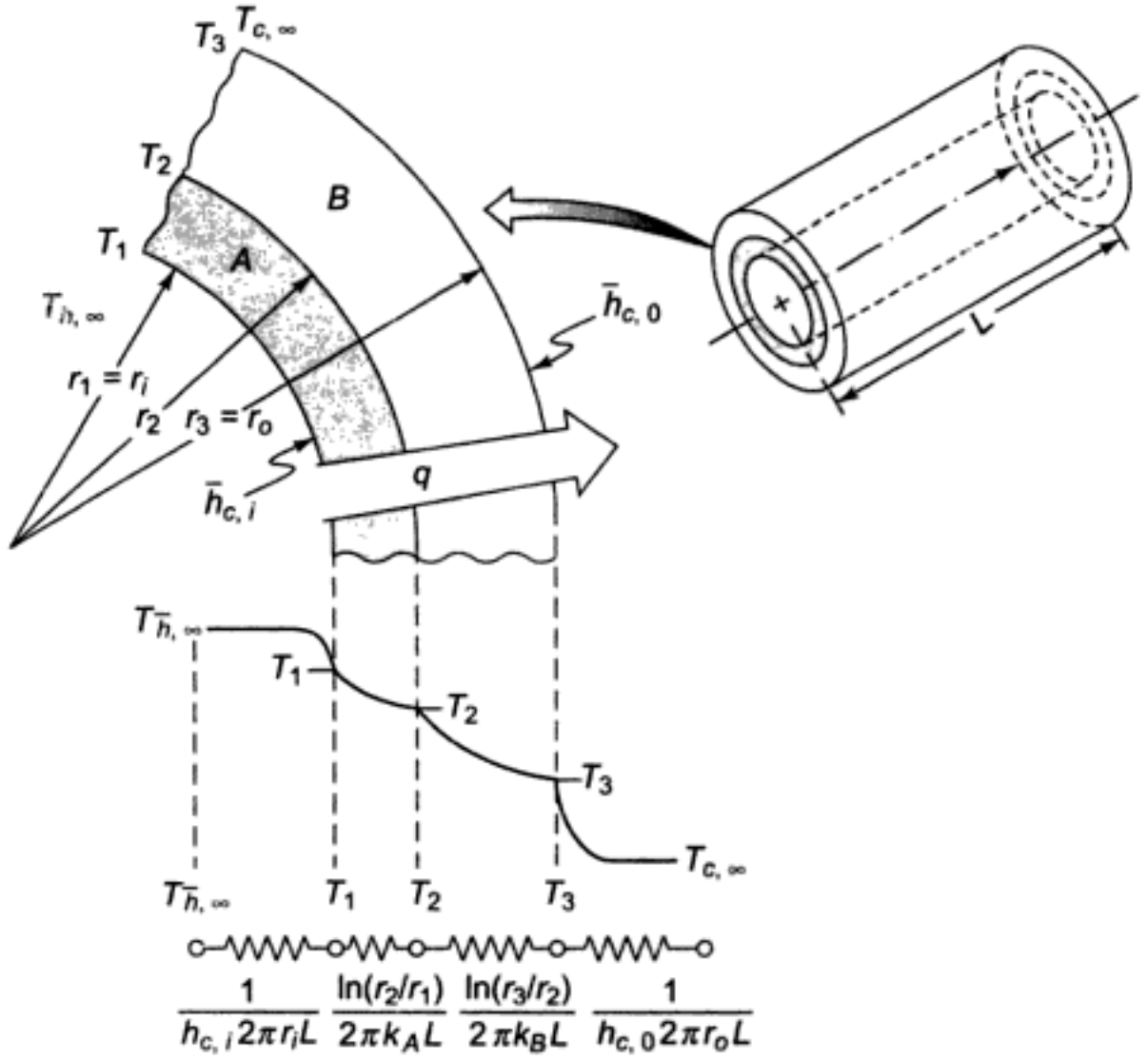


Fig. 2.12 *Temperature distribution in a composite cylinder with convection at the interior and exterior surfaces*

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To find the wall temperatures T_1, T_2 and T_3, we can use

$$T_h - T_1 = QR_1 = \frac{Q}{h_i A_i}; \quad T_1 - T_2 = \frac{Q\,2\pi\,k_1\,L}{\ln(r_2/r_1)}$$

$$T_2 - T_3 = \frac{Q}{h_o\ A_o}$$

(b) With heat Generation

Let us consider a long solid cylinder of radius R with internal heat generation (Fig. 2.13), such as an electric coil in which heat is generated as a result of the electric current in the wire or a cylindrical nuclear fuel element in which heat is generated by nuclear fission. The one-dimensional heat conduction equation in cylindrical coordinates is

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)+\frac{q_G}{k}=0$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)=-\frac{q_G r}{k}$$

On integration, $r\,\dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -\dfrac{q_G r^2}{2k} + C_1$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -\frac{q_G r}{2k}+\frac{C_1}{r} \tag{2.50}$$

By second integration,

$$T = -\frac{q_G r^2}{4k} + C_1 \ln r + C_2 \tag{2.51}$$

At $r = 0$, $\mathrm{d}T/\mathrm{d}r = 0$ (with origin at the centre line of the cylinder). But from Eq. (2.50), $\mathrm{d}T/\mathrm{d}r = \infty$, which is impossible.

At $$r = R, (\mathrm{d}T/\mathrm{d}r)_{r=R} = -\frac{q_G R}{2k}+\frac{C_1}{R} \tag{2.52}$$

Heat generated in the cylindrical rod = $q_G\,\pi R^2\,L$
This heat is conducted to the surface and then convected away.

$$q_G\,\pi R^2\,L = -\,k\,2\pi\,LR\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)_{r=R}$$

$$\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)_{r=R} = -\frac{q_G R}{2k} \tag{2.53}$$

From Eqs (2.52) and (2.53), $C_1 = 0$

$$T = -\frac{q_G}{4k}\ r^2 + C_2 \tag{2.54}$$

At $$r = R,\ T = T_w$$

$$C_2 = T_w + \frac{q_G}{4k}\ R^2$$

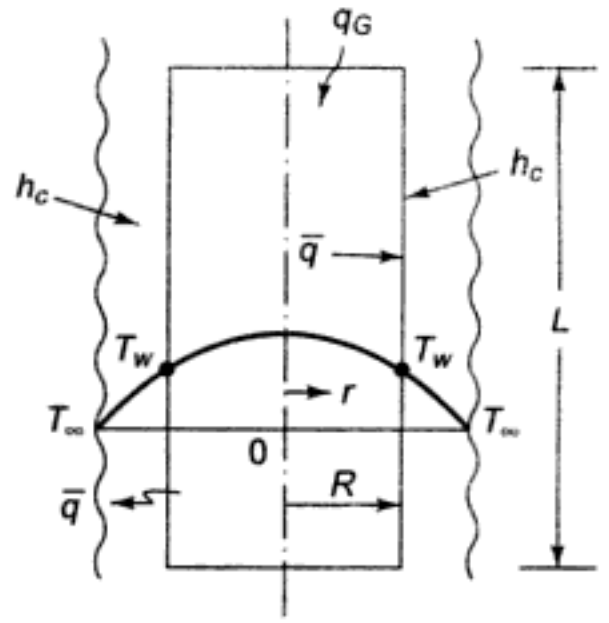


Fig. 2.13 *Temperature distribution in a cylindrical rod with heat generation*

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Substituting in Eq. (2.54),

$$T = -\frac{q_G}{4k} r^2 + T_w + \frac{q_G}{4k} R^2$$

or
$$T(r) = \frac{q_G}{4k} (R^2 - r^2) + T_w$$

$$= \frac{\mathbf{q_G R^2}}{\mathbf{4k}} \left(\mathbf{1} - \frac{\mathbf{r^2}}{\mathbf{R^2}}\right) + \mathbf{T_w} \tag{2.55}$$

This is the temperature variation along the wall radius. The maximum temperature occurs at $r = 0$,

$$T_{\max} = \frac{q_G R^2}{4k} + T_w \tag{2.56}$$

In dimensionless form Eq. (2.55) becomes

$$\frac{T(r) - T_w}{T_{\max} - T_w} = 1 - \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2 \tag{2.57}$$

For a hollow cylinder with uniformly distributed heat source and specified surface temperature $T = T_i$ at $r = r_i$ and $T = T_o$ at $r = r_o$, Eq. (2.51) gives

$$T_i = -\frac{q_G}{4k} r_i^2 + C_1 \ln r_i + C_2$$

$$T_o = -\frac{q_G}{4k} r_o^2 + C_1 \ln r_o + C_2$$

Evaluating C_1 and C_2 from the above two equations and substituting in Eq. (2.51) we can obtain the temperature distribution as

$$T(r) = \frac{q_G}{4k} (r_o^2 - r^2) + \frac{\ln (r / r_o)}{\ln (r_o / r_i)} \left[\frac{q_G}{4k} (r_o^2 - r_i^2) + T_o - T_i\right] + T_o \tag{2.58}$$

If a solid cylinder is immersed in a fluid at T_∞ (Fig. 2.13), and the convection heat transfer coefficient is h_c and $T = T_w$ at $r = R$, the heat conduction from the cylinder is equal to the rate of convection at the surface, or

$$-k \left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=R} = h_c (T_w - T_\infty) \tag{2.59}$$

From Eq. (2.53),

$$\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=R} = -\frac{h_c (T_w - T_\infty)}{k} = -\frac{q_G R}{2k}$$

$$T_w = T_\infty + \frac{q_G R}{2h_c} \tag{2.60}$$

From Eq. (2.55),

$$\mathbf{T(r) = \frac{q_G R^2}{4k} \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{R^2}\right) + T_\infty + \frac{q_G R}{2h_c}} \tag{2.61}$$

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In dimensionless form,

$$\frac{T(r)-T_\infty}{T_\infty} = \frac{q_G R}{4h_c\, T_\infty}\left[2+\frac{h_c R}{k}\left\{1-\left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2\right\}\right] \tag{2.62}$$

and the maximum temperature is

$$\frac{\mathbf{T_{max}}}{\mathbf{T_\infty}} = \mathbf{1} + \frac{\mathbf{q_G R}}{\mathbf{4h_c\, T_\infty}}\left(\mathbf{2}+\frac{\mathbf{h_c R}}{\mathbf{k}}\right) \tag{2.63}$$

There are two dimensionless parameters in the above equation which are important in conduction, viz. $q_G R/h_c T_\infty$, the heat generation number, and $h_c R/k$, the Biot number, which appears in problems with simultaneous conduction and convection.

The Biot number is the ratio of conduction resistance to convection resistance or

$$Bi = \frac{R_k}{R_c} = \frac{r_o/k}{1/h_c} = \frac{h_c r_o}{k}$$

The limits of Biot number are

$$Bi \to 0 \text{ when } R_k = \frac{r_o}{k} \to 0 \text{ or, } R_c = \frac{1}{h_c} \to \infty$$

$$Bi \to \infty \text{ when } R_c = \frac{1}{h_c} \to 0 \text{ or, } R_k = \frac{r_o}{k} \to \infty$$

The Biot number approaches zero when the conductivity of solid is very large ($k \to \infty$) or the convection coefficient of heat transfer is very low ($h_c \to 0$), i.e., when the solid is practically isothermal and the temperature change is mostly caused in the fluid by convection at the interface. On the contrary, the Biot number approaches infinity when the thermal resistance predominates ($k \to 0$) or the convection resistance is very low ($1/h_c \to 0$).

2.2.3 Spherical Wall

(a) Without Heat Generation

For a hollow sphere with uniform temperature at the inner and outer surfaces (Fig. 2.14), the temperature distribution without heat generation in the steady state can be obtained by simplifying Eq. (2.30). Under these conditions the temperature is only a function of the radius r, and the conduction equation in spherical coordinates is

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right) = 0 \tag{2.64}$$

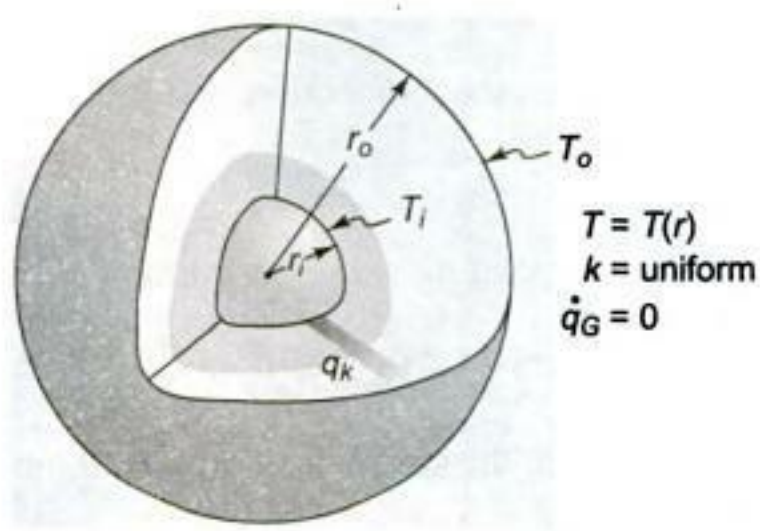


Fig. 2.14 *Heat conduction in a hollow sphere without heat generation*

On integration, and putting at $r = r_i$, $T = T_i$ and at $r = r_o$, $T = T_o$

$$T(r) - T_i = (T_o - T_i)\,\frac{r_o}{r_o - r_i}\left(1-\frac{r_i}{r}\right) \tag{2.65}$$

The rate of heat transfer through the spherical wall is

$$Q_k = -k\,4\pi r^2\,\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}$$

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$$= \frac{\mathbf{T_i - T_o}}{\mathbf{(r_o - r_i)/4\pi\, k\, r_o r_i}} \tag{2.66}$$

which is the same as Eq. (1.24) derived in Chapter 1. The thermal resistance for a spherical wall is then

$$\mathbf{R_{th} = \frac{r_o - r_i}{4\pi\, k\, r_o r_i}} \tag{2.67}$$

(b) With Heat Generation

The governing equation in spherical coordinates is given by

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right) + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

Upon integration,

$$r^2\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -\frac{q_G r^3}{3k} + C_1$$

or,
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -\frac{q_G r}{3k} + \frac{C_1}{r^2}$$

By integrating again,

$$T = -\frac{q_G r^2}{6k} - \frac{C_1}{r} + C_2 \tag{2.68}$$

Case 1: When the sphere is *solid*, the temperature gradient at the centre of the sphere ($r = 0$) will be finite and hence $C_1 = 0$.

If T_w = temperature at the outer surface, $r = R$,

$$T_w = -\frac{q_G R^2}{6k} + C_2 \qquad \text{[from Eq. (2.68)]}$$

Therefore, the temperature distribution would be

$$T = T_w + \frac{q_G(R^2 - r^2)}{6k} \tag{2.69}$$

The temperature will be maximum at $r = 0$ and is given by

$$\mathbf{T_{max} = T_w + \frac{q_G R^2}{6k}} \tag{2.70}$$

Case 2: When the sphere is hollow with inner radius r_1 and outer radius r_2, the boundary conditions are:

at $r = r_1$, $\dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = 0$, because the sphere is a closed surface, and at $r = r_2$, $T = T_2 = T_w$

$$0 = -\frac{q_G r_1}{3k} + \frac{C_1}{r_1^2}$$

$$\therefore \quad C_1 = \frac{q_G \cdot r_1^3}{3k}$$

$$\therefore \quad T = -\frac{q_G r^2}{6k} - \frac{q_G r_1^3}{3kr} + C_2$$

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At $r = r_2, \quad T = T_w$

$$T_w = -\frac{q_G r_2^2}{6k} - \frac{q_G r_1^3}{3k r_2} + C_2$$

$$\therefore \quad C_2 = T_w + \frac{q_G}{3k}\left(\frac{r_2^2}{2} + \frac{r_1^3}{r_2}\right)$$

$\therefore$ The temperature distribution is given by

$$T = T_w + \frac{q_G}{6k}(r_2^2 - r^2) + \frac{q_G r_1^3}{3k}\left(\frac{1}{r_2} - \frac{1}{r}\right) \tag{2.71}$$

2.3 CRITICAL RADIUS OF INSULATION

Let us consider a small-diameter tube, cable or wire, the outside surface of which has a constant temperature and dissipates heat by convection into the surrounding air. Let the surface be covered with a layer of insulation. It is desired to examine the variation in heat loss from the tube surface as the thickness of insulation is changed. As insulation is added to the tube, the outer exposed surface temperature will decrease because of higher conduction resistance, but at the same time the surface area available for convective heat dissipation will increase causing more heat loss. These two opposing effects lead to an optimum insulation thickness.

Let the tube of radius r_t and at temperature T_t be covered with insulation. At the outside radius of the insulation r_o, a surface coefficient h_a is assumed for heat transfer to the atmosphere at temperature T_a (Fig. 2.15). As r_o increases, x_w $(= r_o - r_t)$ increases and Q decreases. Again, as r_o increases, A_o increases and Q increases. There is, thus, an optimum r_o at which Q is the maximum.

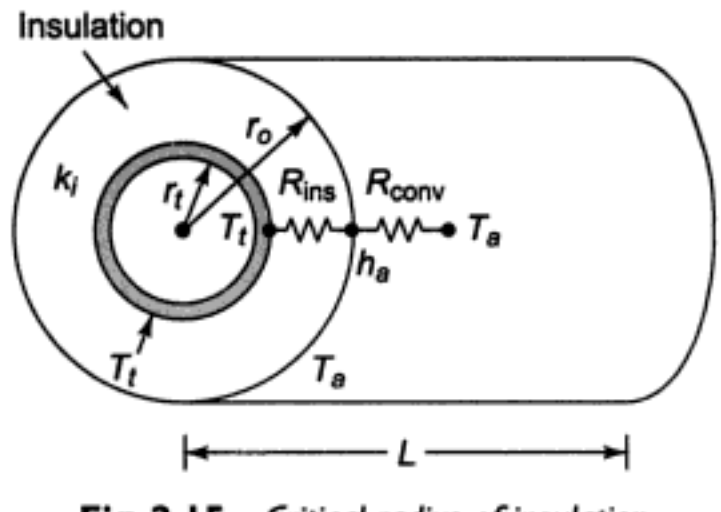


Fig. 2.15 *Critical radius of insulation*

$$T_t - T_a = Q(R_1 + R_2) = Q\left[\frac{\ln (r_o / r_i)}{2\pi k_i L} + \frac{1}{2\pi r_o L h_a}\right] \tag{2.72}$$

$$Q = \frac{2\pi L (T_t - T_a)}{\frac{1}{k_i}\ln\frac{r_o}{r_t} + \frac{1}{h_a r_o}}$$

Since T_t, T_a, k_i, r_t and h_a are all constant, the heat loss Q depends only on r_o. As r_o increases, $\frac{1}{k_i}\ln(r_o/r_t)$ increases, but $1/(h_a r_o)$ decreases. Differentiating Q with r_o,

$$\frac{dQ}{dr_o} = -2\pi L (T_t - T_a)\left(\frac{1}{k_i}\frac{r_t}{r_o}\frac{1}{r_t} - \frac{1}{h_a r_o^2}\right) = 0$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathbf{(r_o)_{cr} = \frac{k_i}{h_a}} \tag{2.73}$$

If we take second derivative of Q with respect to r_o,

$$\frac{d^2Q}{dr_o^2} = -2\pi L (T_t - T_a)\left(-\frac{1}{k_i r_o^2} + \frac{2}{h_a r_o^3}\right)$$

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Substituting $\mathbf{r_o = r_{cr} = \frac{k_i}{h_a}}$,

$$\left.\frac{d^2Q}{dr_0^2}\right|_{r_o = r_c} = -2\pi L (T_t - T_a)\left(\frac{h_a^2}{k_i^3} + \frac{2h_a^2}{k_i^3}\right)$$

$$= -2\pi L (T_t - T_a)\frac{h_a^2}{k_i^3} < 0$$

Therefore, at $r_o = r_{cr}$, the heat loss will be maximum.

If $r_t < (r_o)_{cr}$, as r_o increases, Q increases till $r_o = (r_o)_{cr}$ (Fig. 2.16).

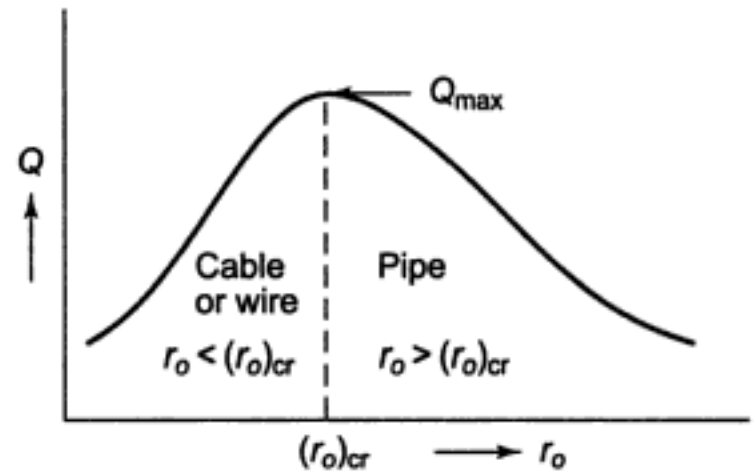


Fig. 2.16 *Variation of insulation radius influencing heat loss to the outside*

If $r_o > (r_o)_{cr}$, as r_o increases, Q decreases. If $r_t > (r_o)_{cr}$, any increase of insulation will decrease the rate of heat transfer. If $r_t < (r_o)_{cr}$, the increase of insulation will increase Q till $Q = Q_{max}$.

For pipes, r_t is taken higher than $(r_o)_{cr}$, so that any insulation added will only decrease the heat loss from the pipe. For wires and cables, r_t is kept lower than $(r_o)_{cr}$ so that insulation added increases the heat loss from the wire or cable. An insulated small diameter wire has a higher current carrying capacity than an uninsulated one. If the current flowing through an uninsulated wire increases, I^2R increases, and if heat dissipation from the wire is not equal to I^2R, the temperature of the wire goes on increasing till it exceeds the melting point and the wire snaps. If the wire is insulated, it can dissipate more heat (till $r_t = (r_o)_{cr}$) and the wire temperature remains below the melting point.

In the case of a sphere, by following a similar procedure, the critical radius of insulation is given by

$$\mathbf{(r_o)_{cr} = \frac{2k_i}{h_a}} \tag{2.74}$$

The total thermal resistance (for spherical wall of outside radius r),

$$R_{th} = \frac{r_o - r_t}{4\pi k_i r_o r_t} + \frac{1}{4\pi r_o^2 h_a}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4\pi}\left[\left(\frac{1}{r_t} - \frac{1}{r_o}\right)\frac{1}{k_i} + \frac{1}{h_0 r_o^2}\right]$$

For resistance R_{th} to be minimum and Q to be maximum,

$$\frac{dR_{th}}{dr_a} = \frac{1}{4\pi}\left[\frac{1}{r_o^2 k_i} - \frac{2}{h_a r_o^3}\right] = 0$$

$$\therefore \quad (r_o)_{cr} = 2k_i/h_o \tag{2.75}$$

The results given above for the critical radius do not include the effects of thermal radiation. The heat transfer coefficient h_a at the outer surface of insulation is approximated by the sum of a convection componet h_c and a radiation component h_r in the form

$$h_a = h_c + h_r$$

Then the critical radius by Eqs (2.73) and (2.75) becomes respectively

$$\mathbf{(r_o)_{cr} = \frac{k}{h_c + h_r}} \quad \textbf{for a cylinder} \tag{2.73a}$$

$$\mathbf{(r_o)_{cr} = \frac{2k}{h_c + h_r}} \quad \textbf{for a cylinder} \tag{2.75a}$$

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The reduction of heat flow by insulation in practice always necessitates a compromise between the effectiveness of insulation and the minimization of capital cost. By employing a multilayer aluminium foil in vaccum, it is possible to create an almost perfect insulation, but the cost involved becomes prohibitive. Gases with their low values of thermal conductivity offer great resistance to heat flow by conduction, but allow appreciable heat transfer by convection and radiation. However, if the gas or air is trapped in a porous or fibrous material, its capacity to transfer heat by convection and radiation is very much reduced. The effective conductivity of a composite material may tend to reach the value of k for air (0.026 W/mK) at 20°C. As insulation thickness increases, the capital cost increases, but the cost in terms of heat loss or energy cost decreases. The break-even point is called '*economic thickness*' of insulation. Various types of imsulation have been discussed in earlier section.

2.4 EXTENDED SURFACES

Convection heat transfer between a surface (at T_w) and the fluid surrounding it (at T_∞) is given by

$$Q = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$$

where h is the heat transfer coefficient and A is the surface area of heat transfer. For gases $h(= k_f/\delta_t)$ is low, since the thermal conductivity k_f of a gas film is low. For heat transfer from a hot gas to a liquid through a wall, $h_{gas} << h_{liquid}$. To compensate for low heat transfer coefficient, surface area A on the gas side may be extended for a given Q. Such an extended surface is termed as *fin*.

Let us consider the plane wall of Fig. 2.17(a). If T_w is fixed, there are three ways in which the heat transfer rate may be increased.

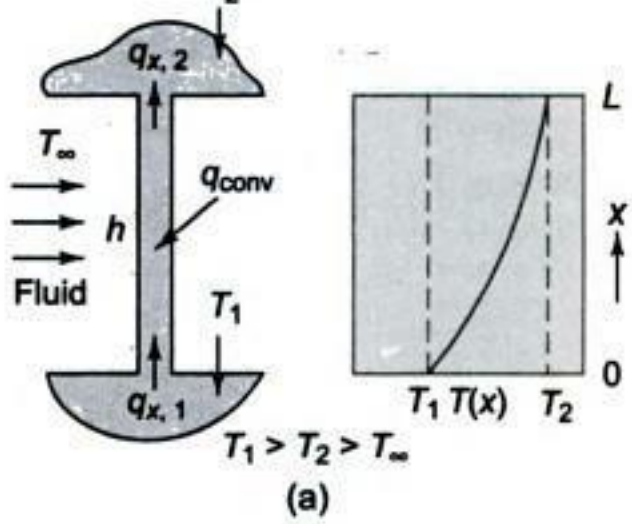


Fig. 2.17(a) *Combined conduction and convection in a bar*

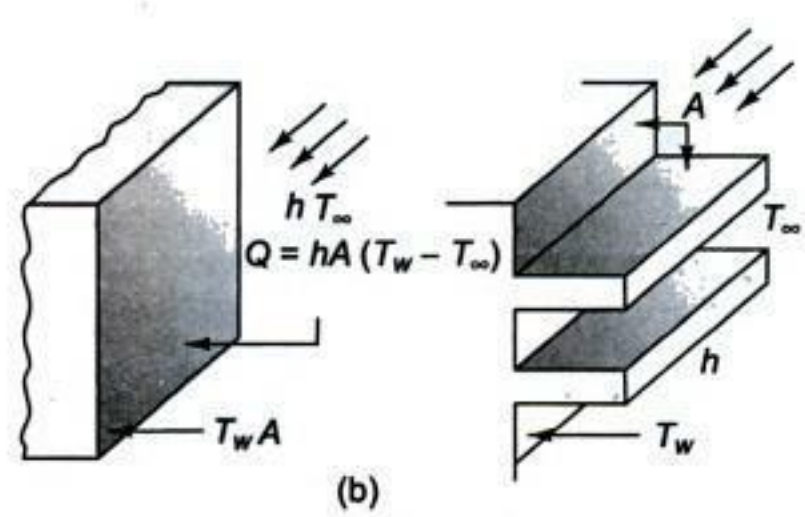


Fig. 2.17(b) *Use of fins to enhance heat transfer from a plane wall: Bare surface and Finned surface*

1. The convection coefficient h could be increased by increasing the fluid velocity or/and the fluid temperature T_∞ could be reduced. However, increasing h even to the maximum possible value is often insufficient to obtain the desired heat transfer rate or the costs related to blower or pump power required to increase h may be prohibitive.
2. The second option of reducing T_∞ is often impractical.
3. The heat transfer rate may be increased by increasing the surface area across which convection occurs. This may be done by using fins that extend from the wall into the surrounding fluid [Fig. 2.17(b)]. The thermal conductivity of the fin material has a strong effect on the temperature distribution along the fin and thus the degree to which the heat transfer rate is enhanced. Figure 2.18 shows different fin configurations. A straight fin is any extended surface that is attached to a plane

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wall. It may be of uniform cross-sectional area, or its cross-sectional area may vary with the distance x from the wall. An annular fin is one that is circumferentially attached to a cylinder. A pin fin or spine is an extended surface of circular cross-sections. Pin fins may also be of uniform or non-uniform cross-section.

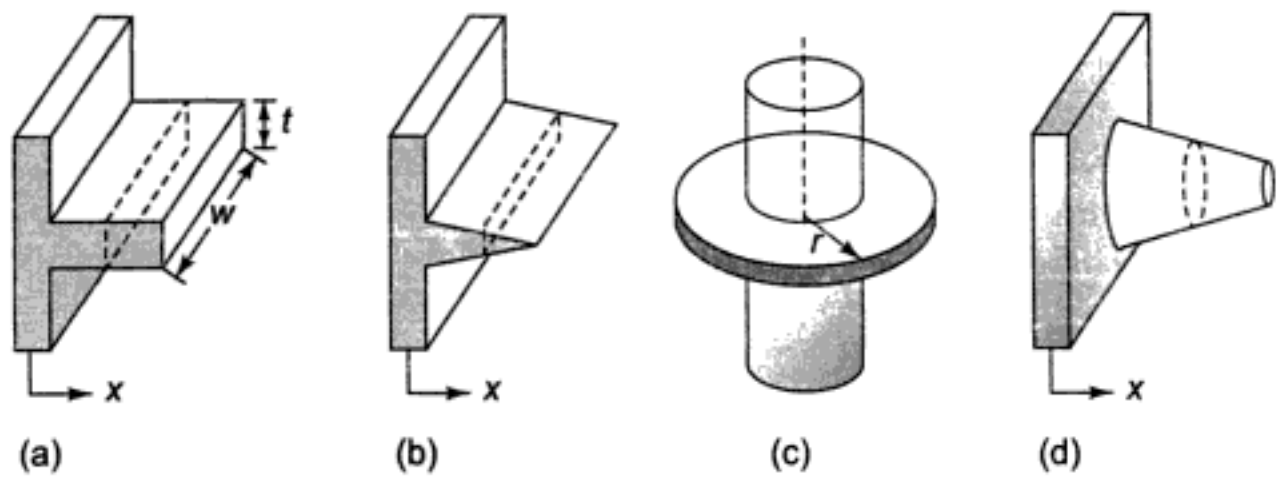


Fig. 2.18 *Fin configurations (a) Straight fin of uniform cross-section, (b) straight fin of nonuniform cross-section, (c) annular fin and (d) pin fin*

2.4.1 Fins of Uniform Cross-sectional Area

Let us first consider the simplest case of straight and pin fins of uniform cross section (Fig. 2.19). Each fin is attached to the base surface of T_o and extends into a fluid of temperature T_∞. The perimeter of the fin, P, which is uniform is $2(L + b)$ or, $P \cong 2L$, if the thickness of the fin is small ($b << L$). If the fin is very thin and its length l is long, it can be assumed that there is no radial temperature variation and heat gets conducted axially along the length. This heat is then dissipated to the surroundings by convection. The problem thus reduces to axial heat conduction along the fin with distributed heat sink from the sides. It is thus treated as one-dimensional heat conduction. Let us consider a small volume element at a distance x from the base or root of the fin of thickness dx. The rate at which heat enters the element is Q_x and the heat leaving the element is $Q_{x + \mathrm{d}x}$. In that small distance dx, let Q_Δ be the heat transferred by convection. Then by energy balance.

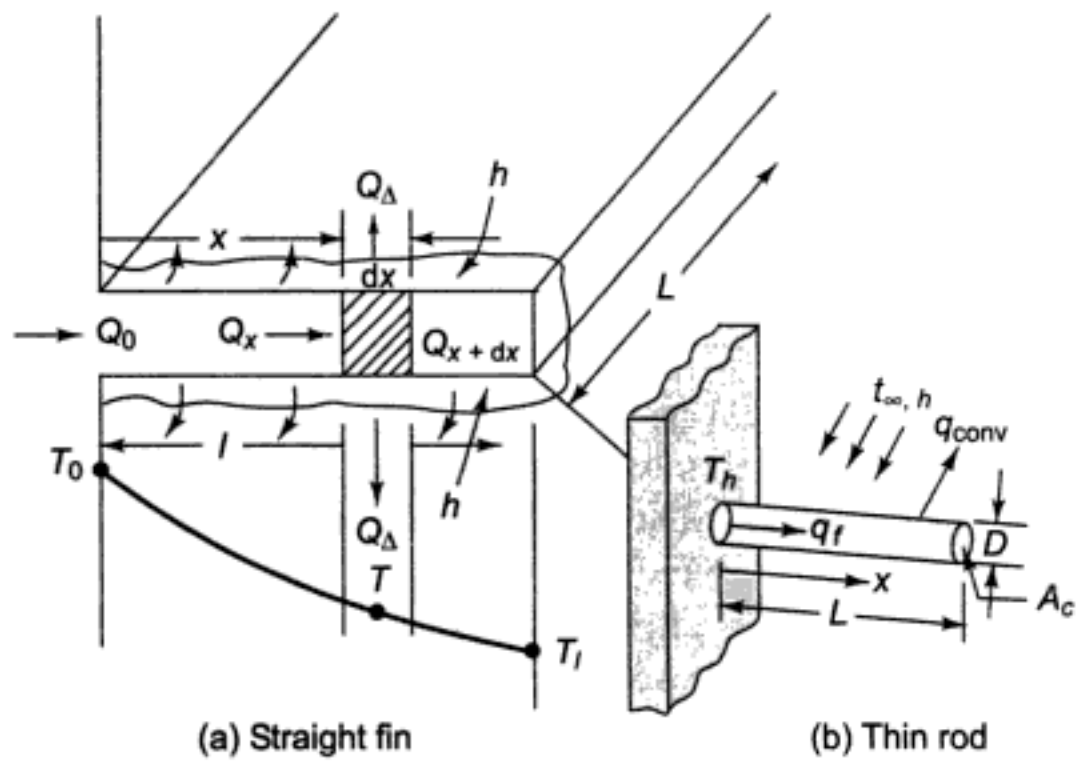


Fig. 2.19 *Conduction and convection in a straight fin or a thin rod*

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$$Q_x = Q_{x+\mathrm{d}x} + Q_\Delta \tag{2.76}$$

Now $$Q_x = -kA\,\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

and $$Q_{x+\mathrm{d}x} = Q_x + \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\,(Q_x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

$$Q_x - Q_{x+\mathrm{d}x} = -\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\,(Q_x)\,\mathrm{d}x = -\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(-kA\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)\mathrm{d}x$$

$$= kA\,\frac{\mathrm{d}^2T}{\mathrm{d}x^2}\,\mathrm{d}x \tag{2.77}$$

Now $$Q_\Delta = hP\,\mathrm{d}x\,(T - T_\infty) \tag{2.78}$$

Let excess temperature at any section $\theta = T - T_\infty$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\theta}{\mathrm{d}x^2} = \frac{\mathrm{d}^2T}{\mathrm{d}x^2} \tag{2.79}$$

From Eqs (2.76) – (2.79),

$$kA\,\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\theta}{\mathrm{d}x^2}\,\mathrm{d}x = hP\,\mathrm{d}x\,\theta$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\theta}{\mathrm{d}x^2} = \frac{hP}{kA}\theta \tag{2.80}$$

Let $m^2 = \dfrac{hP}{kA}$, so that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\theta}{\mathrm{d}x^2} - m^2\theta = 0 \tag{2.81}$$

By using the operator D,

$$(D^2 - m^2)\theta = 0$$

$$(D - m)\,(D + m)\theta = 0$$

Either $(D - m)\theta = 0$ or $(D + m)\theta = 0$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}x} = m\theta,\ \frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\theta} = m\,\mathrm{d}x$$

$$\ln\theta = mx + A$$

or $$\boldsymbol{\theta = e^{mx}\,e^{A} = C_1\,e^{mx}} \tag{2.82}$$

where C_1 is a constant.

If $(D + m)\theta = 0$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}x} = -m\theta$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\theta} = -m\,\mathrm{d}x$$

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$$\ln\theta = -mx + B$$

or
$$\theta = C_2\, e^{-mx} \tag{2.83}$$

where C_2 is a constant.

Therefore, from Eqs (2.82) and (2.83), the general solution for temperature distribution is

$$\theta = C_1\, e^{mx} + C_2\, e^{-mx} \tag{2.84}$$

where C_1 and C_2 are constants to be evaluated from the boundary conditions given below:

(1) When $x = 0$, $T = T_0$, $\theta = \theta_0 = T_0 - T_\infty$

$$\theta_0 = C_1 + C_2 \tag{2.85}$$

(2) When $x = l$, $T = T_1$, $\theta = \theta_1 = T_1 - T_\infty$

$$\theta_1 = C_1\, e^{ml} + C_2\, e^{-ml} \tag{2.86}$$

Case I At the tip,

$$-k\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=l} = h\theta_1 \tag{2.87}$$

From Eq. (2.84) on differentiation and substitution,

$$-k\ (C_1 m\, e^{-ml} - C_2 m\, e^{-ml}) = h(C_1\, e^{ml} + C_2\ e^{-ml}) \tag{2.88}$$

From Eqs (2.85) and (2.88) the constants C_1 and C_2 are given to be

$$C_1 = \frac{\theta_\theta}{1 - \sigma e^{2ml}} \text{ and } C_2 = \frac{\theta}{\sigma - e^{-2ml}} \tag{2.89}$$

where
$$\sigma = \frac{h + mk}{h - mk}$$

The temperature distribution, Eq. (2.84), becomes

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_o} = \frac{\cosh\, m(l-x) + \dfrac{h}{mk}\sinh\, m(l-x)}{\cosh\, ml + \dfrac{h}{mk}\sinh\, ml} \tag{2.90}$$

At
$$x = l,$$

$$\frac{\theta_l}{\theta_o} = \frac{1}{\cosh\ ml + \dfrac{h}{mk}\sinh\ ml} \tag{2.91}$$

Heat transfer from the fin base

$$Q_o = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=0}$$

$$= (hPkA)^{1/2}\,\theta_o\,\frac{\dfrac{h}{mk} + \tanh\, ml}{1 + \dfrac{h}{mk}\tanh\, ml} \tag{2.92}$$

It may be noted that conservation of energy demands that the rate at which heat is transferred by convection from the fin must be equal to the rate at which heat is conducted through the base of the fin. Accordingly,

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the alternative formation for Q_o is

$$Q_o = \int_{A_f} h(T - T_\infty)\, dA_s$$
$$= \int_{A_f} h\theta dA_s \qquad (2.93)$$

where dA_s = elemental surface area = $P\, dx$ and A_f is the *total fin surface area* (including the tip).

Case 2 The fin is thin and long enough so that the heat loss from the tip is negligible. All the heat Q_o is convected out along the length and no heat is dissipated from the tip surface.

$$Q_1 = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=l} = hA\,\theta_l = 0 \text{ (i.e. } T_l = T_\infty)$$

$$\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=l} = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(C_1 e^{mx} + C_2\, m\, e^{-mx})_{x=l} = 0$$

or,
$$(C_1\, m\, e^{mx} - C_2 m\, e^{-mx})_{x=1} = 0$$
$$C_1 e^{ml} = C_2\, e^{-ml}$$

$$\frac{C_2}{C_1} = e^{2ml} \qquad (2.94)$$

Since
$$C_1 + C_2 = \theta_o$$
$$C_1 + C_1\, e^{2ml} = \theta_o$$
$$C_1 = \theta_o \frac{1}{1 + e^{ml}/e^{-ml}} = \theta_o \frac{e^{-ml}}{e^{ml} + e^{-ml}}$$

and
$$C_2 = C_1\, e^{2ml} = \theta_o \frac{e^{ml}}{e^{ml} + e^{-ml}}$$

Substituting in Eq. (2.84),

$$\theta = C_1\, e^{mx} + C_2 e^{-mx}$$
$$= \theta_o \frac{e^{-ml}}{e^{ml} + e^{-ml}}\, e^{mx} + \frac{\theta_o\, e^{ml}}{e^{ml} + e^{-ml}}\, e^{-mx}$$
$$= \frac{\theta_o}{e^{ml} + e^{-ml}} [e^{-m(l-x)} + e^{m(l-x)}]$$
$$= \theta_o \frac{\cosh\, m(l-x)}{\cosh\, ml}$$

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_o} = \frac{\cosh m(l-x)}{\cosh ml} \qquad (2.95)$$

This is the temperature distribution along the fin.

At the tip, $x = l$,

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$$\theta_l = T_1 - T_\infty = \frac{\theta_o}{\cosh ml}$$

= Temperature difference at the tip

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_o} = \frac{1}{\cosh ml} \tag{2.96}$$

It gives the temperature of the fin at its tip (T_1).
The rate of heat transfer.

$$Q_o = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=0} = -kA\,\frac{d}{dx}\left[\theta_o\,\frac{\cosh m(l-x)}{\cosh ml}\right]_{x=0}$$

$$= -kA\theta_o\left[\frac{(-m)\sinh m(l-x)}{\cosh ml}\right]_{x=0}$$

$$\mathbf{Q_o = mk\,A\theta_o \tanh ml} \tag{2.97}$$

where $$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

It is found from Eqs (2.96) and (2.97), that as l increases, Q (i.e. tanh ml) increases rapidly at first and then the rate slowly decreases and becomes asymptotic at $ml = 3$, which indicates that any further increase in length will not substantially increase the rate of heat transfer. Also, as l increases, θ_l decreases (Fig. 2.20).

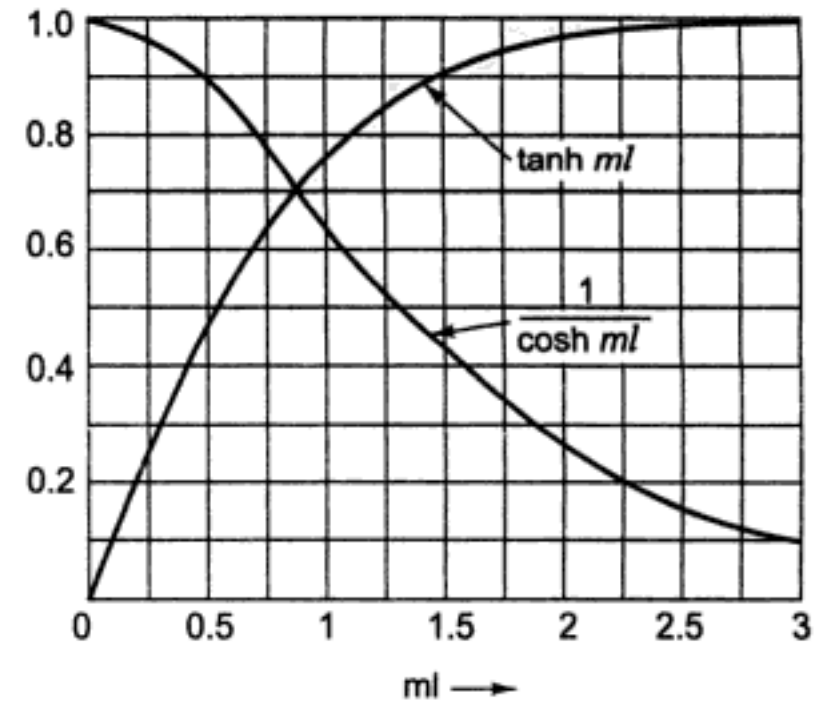


Fig. 2.20 *Functions for determination of heat flow and temperature distribution in a thin rod*

Case 3 If the temperature is given at the fin tip T_1, then $\theta_1 = T_1 - T_\infty$, and the resulting expressions for temperature distribution and heat transfer are

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_o} = \frac{(\theta_l/\theta_o)\sinh mx + \sinh m(l-x)}{\sinh ml} \tag{2.98}$$

and $$\mathbf{Q_o = (hPkA)^{1/2}\,\theta_o\,\frac{\cosh ml - (\theta_1/\theta_o)}{\sinh ml}} \tag{2.99}$$

Case 4 For very long fin, $l \to \infty$, $\theta_l \to 0$

$$\theta_o = C_1 + C_2$$

$$0 = C_1 e^{\infty} + C_2 e^{-\infty}$$

$$C_1 = 0,\ C_2 = \theta_1$$

$$\theta = \theta_1 e^{-mx}$$

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_l} = e^{-mx} \tag{2.100}$$

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Table 2.1 *Equations for temperature distribution and rate of heat transfer for fins of uniform cross section***

S. No.	Tip condition ($x = L$) case	Temperature distribution, θ/θ_o	Fin Heat Transfer Rate, Q_{fin}
1.	Convecting tip $h\theta(l) = -k \left.\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right\|_{x=l}$	$\frac{[\cosh m(l-x) + (h/mk)\sinh m(l-x)]}{[\cosh ml + (h/mk)\sinh ml]}$	$M\frac{[\sinh ml + (\bar{h}/mk)\cosh ml]}{[\cosh ml + (\bar{h}/mk)\sinh ml]}$
2.	Adiabatic tip: $\left.\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right\|_{x=1} = 0$	$\frac{\cosh m(l-x)}{\cosh ml}$	$M \tanh ml$
3.	Fixed tip temperature: $\theta(l) = \theta_l$	$\frac{[(\theta_l/\theta_o)\sinh mx + \sinh m(l-x)]}{\sinh ml}$	$M\frac{[\cosh ml\,(\theta_l/\theta_o)]}{\sinh ml}$
4.	Infinite fin $(l \to \infty)$: $\theta_l(l) = 0$	e^{-mx}	M

** $\theta = T - T_\infty$; $\theta_o = \theta(0) = T_o - T_\infty$;

$$m^2 = \frac{hP}{kA};\ M = [hP\,kA\theta]^{1/2}\,\theta_o;\ \frac{\theta_{tip}}{\theta_o} = \frac{T_{tip} - T_\infty}{T_o - T_\infty}$$

$$\% \text{ error} = \frac{100}{\cosh ml}$$

$$Q = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=0} = -kA\,[C_2(-m)\,e^o]$$

$$= \mathbf{mK\,A\theta_o} \qquad (2.101)$$

The foregoing results are summarised in Table 2.1 and Fig. 2.21. A table of hyperbolic functions is given in Appendix B.1.

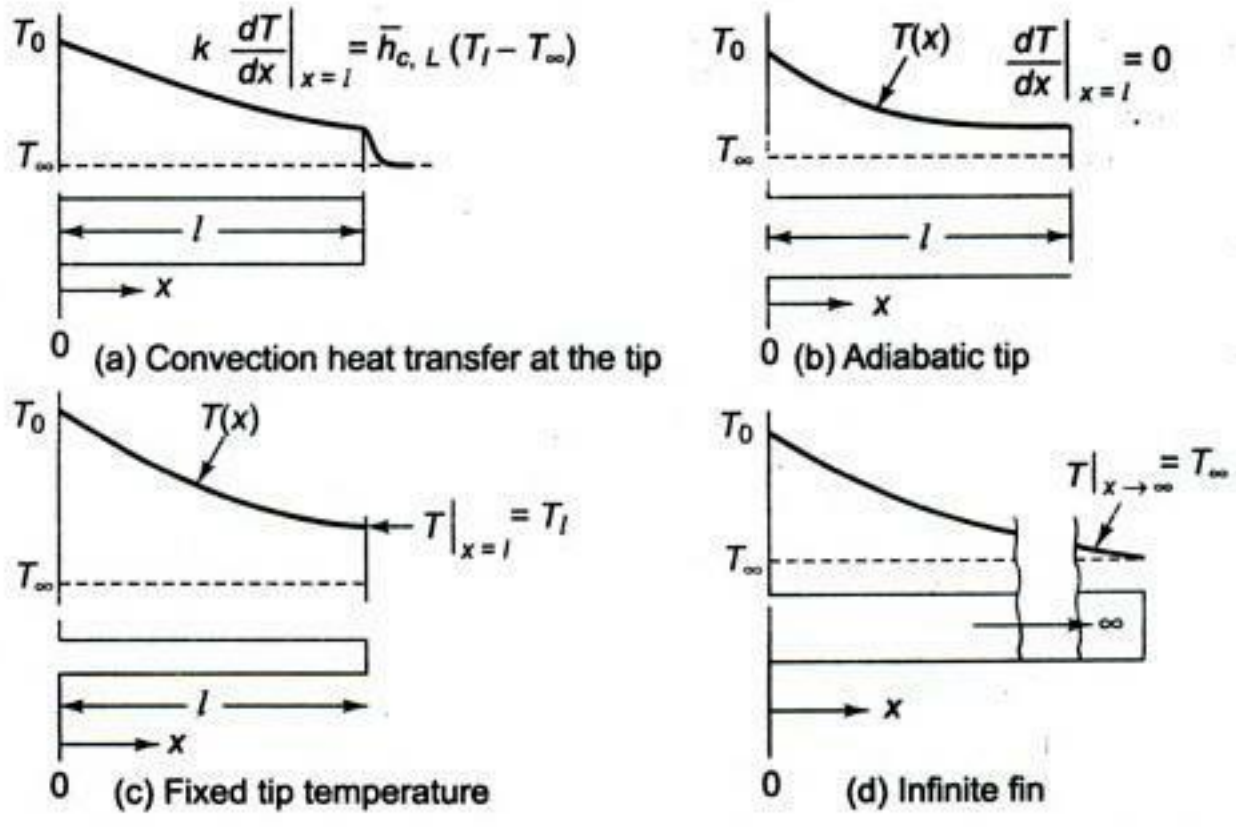


Fig. 2.21 *Schematic representation of four boundary conditions at the tip of a fin*

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For nonuniform cross-sections of fins, the solutions are quite complex and the interested student is referred to Schneider [1] and Arpaci [2].

The temperature of a fluid flowing in a tube is often measured by a thermometer or thermocouple put into a well which is welded into the tube wall as shown in Fig. 2.22(a). If the fluid temperature differs greatly from the outside temperature, then the tube wall has a lower temperature than the gas and heat flows by conduction from the well to the tube wall. The end of the well where the thermometer bulb or thermocouple junction is placed may become colder than the fluid, and the indicated temperature will not be the true fluid temperature. The error can be calculated by Eq. (2.91) or (2.96), whichever is deemed appropriate. Figure 2.20 and Table 2.2 give the necessary length of the tube when the error must be confined within a certain limit.

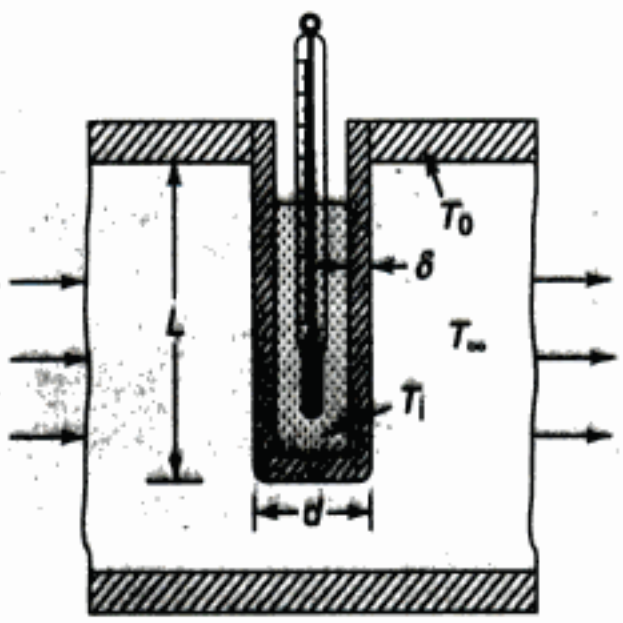


Fig. 2.22(a) *Thermometer well*

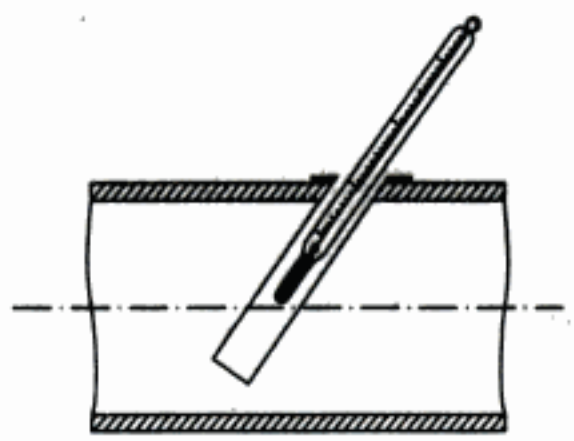


Fig. 2.22(b) *Temperature measurement in flow in a tube*

Table 2.2 *Calculation functions for heat conduction in a rod*

ml	*0*	*0.5*	*1*	*1.5*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*
cosh *ml*	1	1.1276	1.543	2.352	3.762	10.07	27.31	74.21	201.7
tanh *ml*	0	0.4621	0.7616	0.9052	0.9640	0.9951	0.9993	0.9999	1

If the length of well is found to be greater than the tube diameter, it is necessary to locate the well obliquely in the tube [Fig. 2.22(b)]. Heat radiation between the end of the well and the tube wall may cause an additional error in temperature measurement. This will be dealt with in Chapter 7.

2.4.2 Fin Performance

We may recall that fins are used to increase the heat transfer from a surface by increasing the effective surface area, and not by increasing the heat transfer coefficient. However, the fin itself represents a conductive resistance to heat transfer from the original surface. Therefore, one cannot be sure that by the use of fins the heat transfer rate will be increased. It can be assessed by evaluating the fin effectiveness, ε_f. It is defined as a ratio given as follows:

$$\varepsilon_f = \frac{\text{Heat transfer rate with fin}}{\text{Heat transfer rate without fin}} = \frac{Q_o}{hA\,\theta_o} \tag{2.102}$$

where A is the cross-sectional area of the fin. In any design ε_f should be as large as possible, and in general, the use of fins is rarely justified unless $\varepsilon_f \geq 2$.

For any one of the four tip conditions given in Table 2.1, the effectiveness for a fin of uniform cross-section may be obtained by dividing the appropriate expression for Q_o by $hA\theta_o$. For the infinite fin (Case 4) the result is

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$$\varepsilon_f = \frac{(hP\,kA)^{1/2}\theta_o}{hA\,\theta_o} = \left(\frac{kP}{hA}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2.103}$$

For Case 2 with negligible tip loss

$$\varepsilon_f = \frac{(hP\,kA)^{1/2}\theta_o \tanh ml}{hA\,\theta_o} = \left(\frac{kP}{hA}\right)^{1/2} \tanh ml \tag{2.104}$$

It is observed that fin effectiveness is enhanced by

1. The choice of a material of high thermal conductivity like copper and aluminium. Although copper has a higher thermal conductivity, aluminium alloys are more common because they are of low cost and density.
2. Increasing the ratio of the perimeter to the cross-sectional area of the fin, P/A. The use of thin, but closely spaced, fins is preferred to that of thick fins.
3. The low value of heat transfer coefficient h. The fins are required when the fluid is a gas rather than a liquid, particularly when the heat transfer from the surface is by natural convection. If fins are to be used on a surface separating a gas and a liquid, they are generally placed on the gas side, which is the side of lower heat transfer coefficient ($h_{liq} >> h_{gas}$, $h_{natural\ convection} << h_{forced\ convection}$).

Fin performance may also be quantified in terms of a thermal resistance. Treating the difference between the base and fluid temperatures as the driving potential, a *fin resistance* may be defined as

$$R_{t,f} = \frac{\theta_0}{Q_0} \tag{2.105}$$

This result is very useful in the sense that a finned surface can be represented by a thermal circuit. An appropriate expression for Q_0 depending on the fin tip condition may be used from Table 2.1.

Dividing Eq. (2.105) into the expression for thermal resistance due to convection at the exposed base

$$R_{t,b} = \frac{1}{hA}$$

and substituting from Eq. (2.102), it follows that

$$\varepsilon_f = \frac{R_{t,b}}{R_{t,f}} \tag{2.106}$$

Hence, the fin effectiveness may be interpreted as a ratio of thermal resistances, and to increase ε_f it is necessary to reduce the conductivity/convection resistance of the fin $R_{t,f}$. If the fin is to enhance heat transfer, its resistance must not exceed that of the exposed surface, $R_{t,b}$.

The thermal performance of a fin is also measured by a parameter called *fin efficiency*, η_f. The maximum driving potential for convection is the temperature difference between the base ($x = 0$) and the fluid, $\theta_o = T_o - T_\infty$. Hence, the maximum rate at which a fin could dissipate energy is the rate that would exist if the entire fin surface were at the base temperature, i.e. if the thermal conductivity of the fin is infinity.

Therefore,

$$\eta_f = \frac{\text{Actual heat transfer from fin}}{\text{Maximum heat transfer from fin if entire fin surface were at fin base temperature}}$$

$$= \frac{Q_o}{Q_{max}} = \frac{Q_o}{hA_f\,\theta_o} \tag{2.107}$$

where A_f is the total surface area of the fin.

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Actual heat transfer from a fin.

$$(Q_o)_{act} = \eta_f (Q_o)_{max} = \eta_f h A_f \theta_o \tag{2.108}$$

For a long thin fin with insulated tip

$$Q_o = (hP\,kA)^{1/2}\,\theta_o \tanh ml$$

where $$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

The fin efficiency is then

$$\eta_f = \frac{(hP\,kA)^{1/2}\,\theta_o \tanh ml}{hPl\,\theta_o} = \left(\frac{kA}{hP}\right)^{1/2} \frac{\tanh ml}{l}$$

$$= \frac{\mathbf{\tanh ml}}{\mathbf{ml}} \tag{2.109}$$

For a rectangular fin (Fig. 2.19),

$$P = 2L + 2b \cong 2L,\ A = Lb$$

$$A_f = 2L1 + 2lb = 2l(L + b) \cong 2Ll$$

$$m = \left(\frac{h\,2L}{kLb}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2.110}$$

$$\eta_f = \frac{(h\,P\,k\,A)^{1/2}}{h\,A_f\,\theta_o}\theta_o \tanh ml$$

$$= \frac{\mathbf{(h\,2L\,k\,L\,b)^{1/2}\ \tanh ml}}{\mathbf{h\ 2L\,l}} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{kb}}{\mathbf{2h}}\right)^{1/2} \frac{\mathbf{\tanh ml}}{\mathbf{l}}$$

$$= \frac{\tanh ml}{ml} \tag{2.110a}$$

It is the same expression as in Eq. (2.109). For a pin rod, $P = \pi d$ and $A = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2$, where d is the pin diameter.

$$\mathbf{m} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{h\pi\,d}}{\mathbf{k\frac{\pi}{4}d^2}}\right)^{1/2} = 2\left(\frac{\mathbf{h}}{\mathbf{kd}}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2.111}$$

By evaluating η_f, the actual heat transfer from a fin can be computed from Eq. (2.108).

Fins come in many shapes and forms, some of which are shown in Fig. 2.23. A compromise of the cost, the weight, the available space, the pressure drop of the fluid and heat transfer characteristics determines the suitability of fin geometry.

If a rectangular fin is long, wide and thin.

$$P/A = 2L/Lb = 2/b, \text{ and } m = (hP/kA)^{1/2}$$

$$\eta_f = \frac{\tanh (hPl^2/kA)^{1/2}}{(hPl^2/kA)^{1/2}}$$

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The heat loss from the fin tip can be taken into account approximately by increasing l by $b/2$ and assuming that the tip is insulated. This approximation keeps the surface area from which heat is lost the same as in the real case, and fin efficiency then becomes

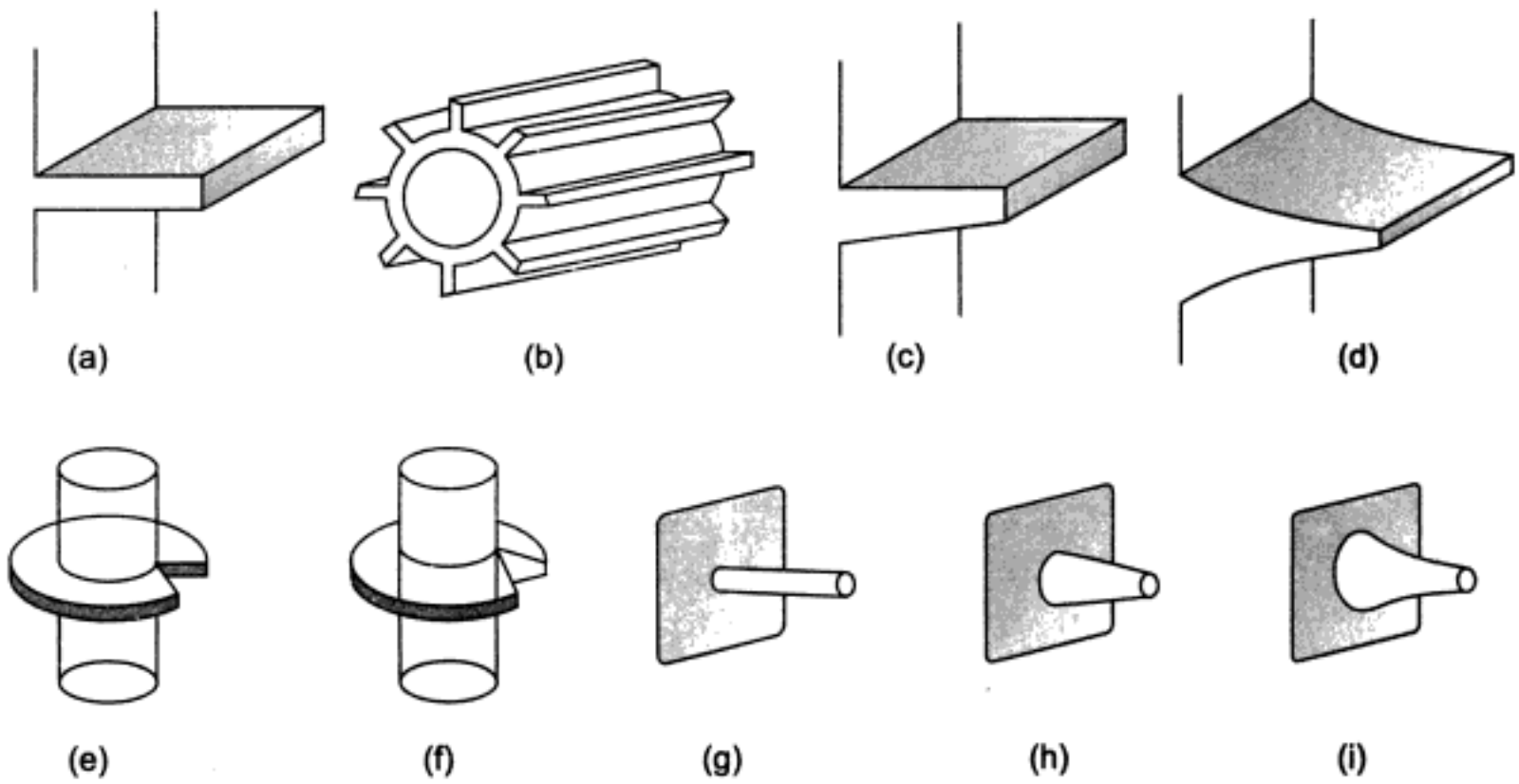


Fig. 2.23 *Schematic diagrams of different types of fins. (a) Longitudinal fin of rectangular profile; (b) cylindrical tube with fins of rectangular profile; (c) longitudinal fin of trapezoidal profile; (d) longitudinal fin of parabolic profile; (e) cylindrical tube with radial fin of rectangular profile; (f) cylindrical tube with radial fin of truncated conical profile; (g) cylindrical pin fin; (h) truncated conical spine; (i) parabolic spine*

$$\eta_f = \frac{\tanh (2hl_c^2/kb)^{1/2}}{(2hl_c^2/kb)^{1/2}} \tag{2.112}$$

where the corrected fin length $l_c = l + b/2$. Kreith and Bohn [2] have, however, recommended $l_c = l + A/P$.

The error of this approximation is less than 8% [2] when

$$\frac{hb}{2k} \leq \frac{1}{4}$$

For fins of non-uniform cross-section, the analysis is complex and such solutions are conveniently presented in graphical form [3]. In Fig. 2.24 the fin efficiency is plotted for three common profiles: the rectangular fin of uniform cross-sectional area and the triangular and parbolic fins of non-uniform cross-sectional area. Figure 2.25 presents results for annular fins of rectangular profile. These results are presented in terms of the corrected length l_c $(= l + b/2)$. To use these results with Eq. (2.107), it is necessary to calculate the maximum heat transfer rate. For rectangular, triangular and parabolic fins,

$$Q_{\max} = hPlc\ \theta_o \tag{2.113a}$$

and for the annular fin,

$$Q_{\max} = 2\pi h (r_2^2 - r_1^2)\theta_o \tag{2.113b}$$

In practice, a finned heat transfer surface is composed of the fin surface and the unfinned surface. The total heat transfer will be the sum of the heat transfer from the two portions.

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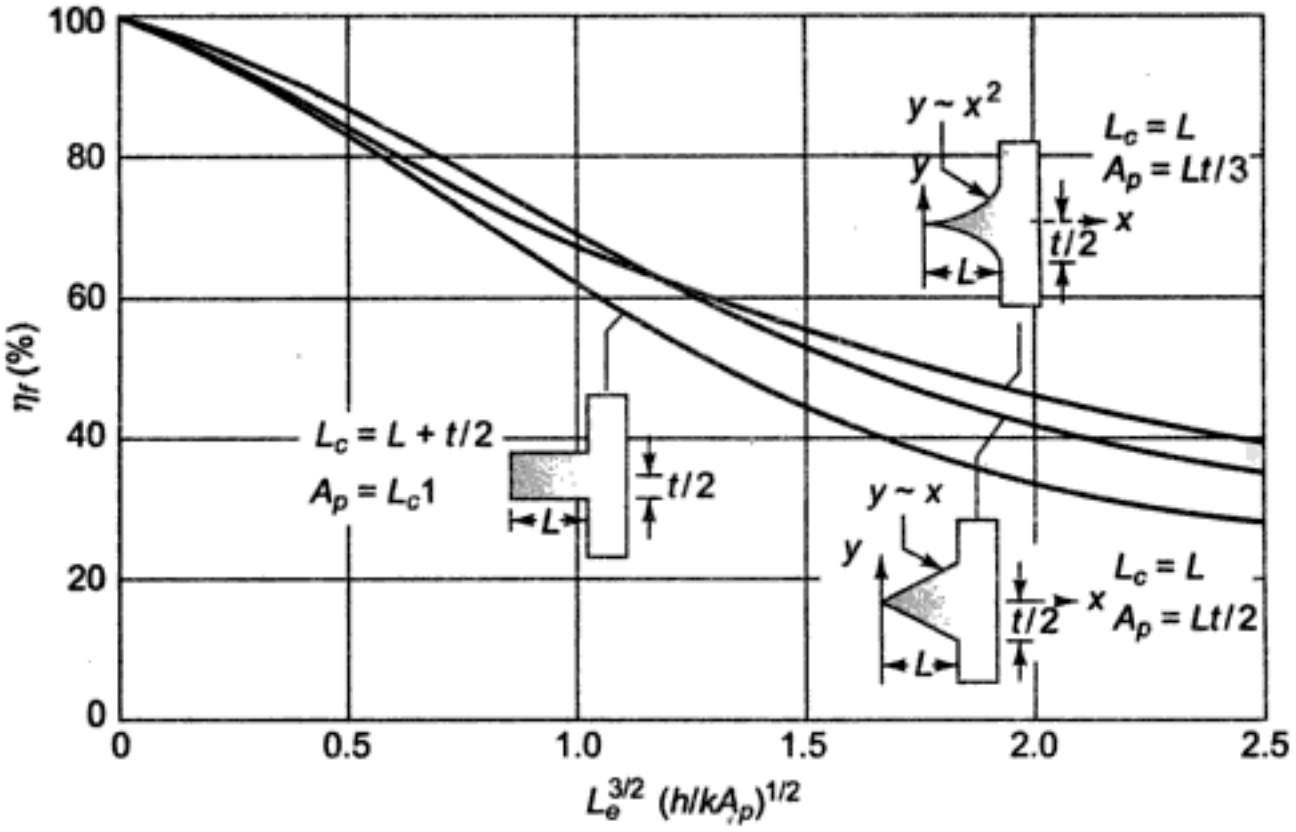


Fig. 2.24 *Efficiency of straight fins (rectangular, triangular and parabolic profiles)*

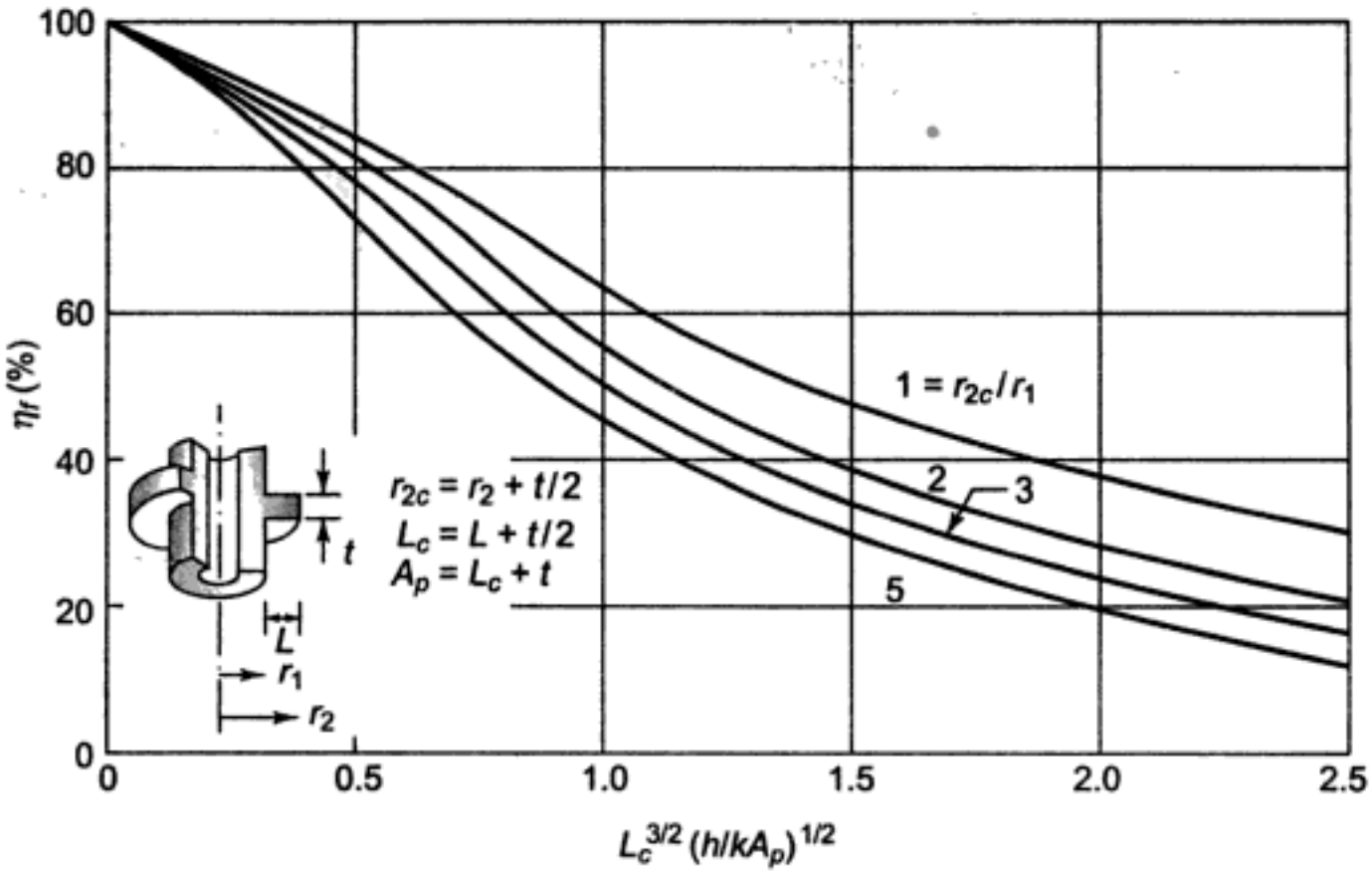


Fig. 2.25 *Efficiency of annular fins of rectangular profile*

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q_{\text{total}} &= Q_{\text{fin}} + Q_{\text{unfinned}} \\
&= \eta_f A_f h\,\theta_o + (A - A_f) h\,\theta_o \\
&= h\theta_o\,(\eta_f A_f + A - A_f) \\
&= \mathbf{h\theta_o\,[A - (1 - \eta_f)A_f]}
\end{aligned}
\tag{2.114}
$$

where A is the total area of fin and unfinned surfaces.

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2.4.3 Limitation of an Extended Surface

The installation of fins on a heat transferring surface increases the heat transfer area but it is not necessary that the rate of heat transfer would increase. For long fins the rate of heat loss from the fin is given by

$$\sqrt{h\,pkA}\;\theta_o = kA\sqrt{\frac{hp}{kA}}\;\theta_o = kAm\theta_o. \quad \therefore$$

When $h/mk = 1$, or $h = mk$,

$$Q = hA\theta_o$$

which is equal to the heat loss from the primary surface with *no* extended surface. Thus when $h = mk$, an extended surface will not increase the heat transfer rate from the primary surface whatever be the length of the extended surface.

For $h/mk > 1$, $Q < hA\theta_o$ and hence adding a secondary surface reduces the heat transfer and the added surface will act as an insulation. For $h/mk < 1$, $Q > hA\theta_o$, and the extended surface will increase the heat transfer. The heat transfer would be more effective when h/k is low for a given geometry.

2.4.4 Rectangular Fin of Minimum Weight

For the design of cooling devices on vehicles, especially aircraft, the problem of exchanging the greatest amount of heat with the least amount of weight in the heat exchanger is of paramount importance. For a given weight, the maximum heat transfer is required.

Weight of one fin $= b \times l \times L \times \rho$

where ρ is the density of fin material.

Let $A_1 = b \times l$ = area of fin cross-section normal to L.

The length L is fixed at a given dimension, whereas the two dimensions b and l are to be changed so as to give maximum heat flow for a given area A_1 [Fig. 2.28(b)].

We have $$m = \left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2},\ A = b \times L \text{ and } A_1 = b \times l.$$

If the tip loss is neglected,

$$Q_o = (hP\,kA)^{1/2}\,\theta_o \tanh ml = mkA\theta_o \tanh ml$$

$$= \left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2} kbL\;\theta_o \tanh\left[\left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2}\frac{A_1}{b}\right]$$

$$= (2hk)^{1/2}\,b^{1/2}\,L\;\theta_o \tanh\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2}\left(\frac{A_1}{b^{3/2}}\right) \qquad (2.115)$$

For a given area A_1, Q_1 will be maximum when

$$\frac{dQ_1}{db} = (2hk)^{1/2} L\theta_o \tanh\left[\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2}\frac{A_1}{b^{3/2}}\right]\frac{1}{2}b^{\frac{1}{2}-1}$$

$$+ (2hk)^{1/2} L\theta_o b^{1/2}\,\frac{1}{\cosh^2\left[\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2}(A_1/b^{3/2})\right]} \times \left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2} A_1\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) b^{-5/2} = 0$$

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$$\therefore \quad (2hk)^{1/2} L\theta_o \frac{\tan h\left[\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2}(A_1/b^{3/2})\right]}{2(b)^{1/2}} - \frac{3}{2}\frac{A_1}{b^2}\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2} - b\frac{1}{\cos h^2\left[\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2}(A_1/b^{3/2})\right]} = 0$$

or

Putting $$u = \left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2}\frac{A_1}{b} = ml \tag{2.116a}$$

$$\frac{\tanh u}{2(b)^{1/2}} - \frac{3}{2}\frac{A_1}{b^2}\left(\frac{2h}{k}\right)^{1/2}\frac{1}{\cosh^2 u} = 0$$

or $$\tanh u - 3\,\frac{A_1}{b}\left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2}\frac{1}{\cosh^2 u} = 0$$

or $$\frac{\sinh u}{\cosh u} - \frac{3u}{\cosh^2 u} = 0$$

or $$\cosh u \sinh u - 3u = 0$$

or $$\frac{\sinh 2u}{2} = 3u$$

or $$\frac{e^{2u} - e^{-2u}}{2} = 6u$$

or $$\left(1 + 2u + \frac{4u^2}{2} + \frac{8u^3}{6} + \frac{16u^4}{24} + \frac{32u^5}{120} + \cdots + \right)$$

$$-\left(1 - 2u + \frac{4u^2}{2} - \frac{8u^3}{6} + \frac{16u^4}{24} - \frac{32u^5}{120} + \cdots + \right) = 12u$$

or $$4u + \frac{16u^3}{6} + \frac{64u^5}{120} = 12u$$

or $$u^4 + 5u^2 - 15 = 0$$

or $$u^2 = \frac{-5 + (25 + 60)^{1/2}}{2} = 2.1$$

or $$u = ml = 1.419$$

$$\left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2} l = 1.419$$

or $$l = 1.419\left(\frac{kb}{2h}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{l}{b/2} = 1.419\left(\frac{2k}{hb}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2.116b}$$

This is the condition for the maximum heat flow for a given weight of fin, giving the optimum ratio of fin height to half the fin thickness.

$$\theta_l = \frac{\theta_o}{\cosh ml} = \frac{\theta_o}{\cosh u} = \frac{\theta_o}{1.419}$$

or $$\theta_l = 0.457\theta_o \tag{2.117}$$

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$$\varepsilon_f = \text{Fin effectiveness} = \frac{Q_o(\text{with fin})}{Q_o(\text{without fin})}$$

$$= \frac{(hP\,kA)^{1/2}\theta_o}{hb\,L\theta_o} \tanh ml$$

$$= \left(\frac{\mathbf{2k}}{\mathbf{hb}}\right)^{1/2} \mathbf{tanh\ 1.419 = 0.889} \left(\frac{\mathbf{2k}}{\mathbf{hb}}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2.118}$$

This equation makes it possible to determine the heat flow increase through the wall as a result of the addition of fins.

2.4.5 Generalized Equation for Fins

It is our prime interest to know the extent to which a particular extended surface or fin arrangement could improve heat transfer from a surface to the surrounding. To determine the heat transfer rate associated with a fin, we must first obtain the temperature distribution along the fin. Let us consider an extended surface of arbitrary shape (Fig. 2.26).

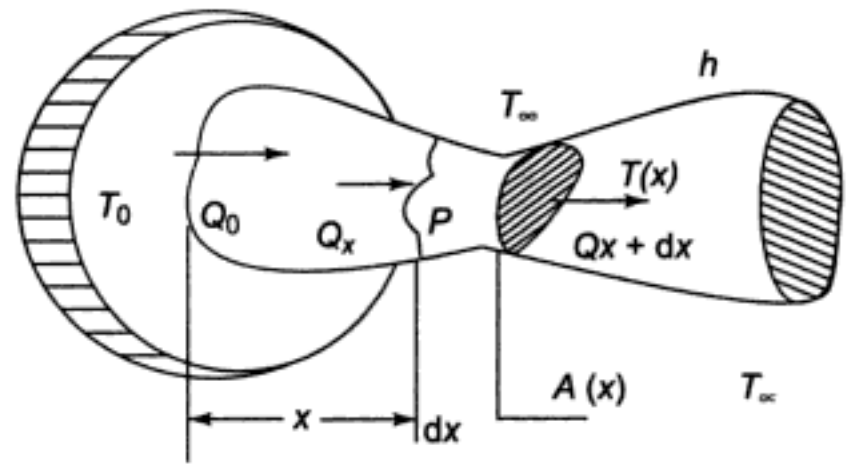


Fig. 2.26 *General one dimensional fin*

Assuming heat to be flowing only in the longitudinal direction (x), an energy balance for an elemental area of thickness dx at a distance x from the base is given as

$$Q_x = Q_{x+\mathrm{d}x} + Q_{\text{conv}}.$$

$$-kA\frac{\mathrm{d}T(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} = -kA\frac{\mathrm{d}T(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} + \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left[-kA\frac{\mathrm{d}T(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}\right] + h \cdot P\mathrm{d}x\,[T(x) - T_\infty]$$

Since both A and P are functions of x,

$$kA(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}^2T}{\mathrm{d}x^2} + \frac{\mathrm{d}A(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} \cdot k\frac{\mathrm{d}T(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} = hP\,[T(x) - T_\infty]$$

Dividing throughout by kA and putting $T(x) - T_\infty = \theta(x)$,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\theta(x)}{\mathrm{d}x^2} + \frac{\mathrm{d}A/\mathrm{d}x}{A} \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}\theta(x)}{\mathrm{d}x} - \frac{hP}{kA}\,\theta(x) = 0 \tag{2.119}$$

This result provides a general form of the energy equation for an extended surface. Now let us consider its application to the case of a *triangular fin* (Fig. 2.27).

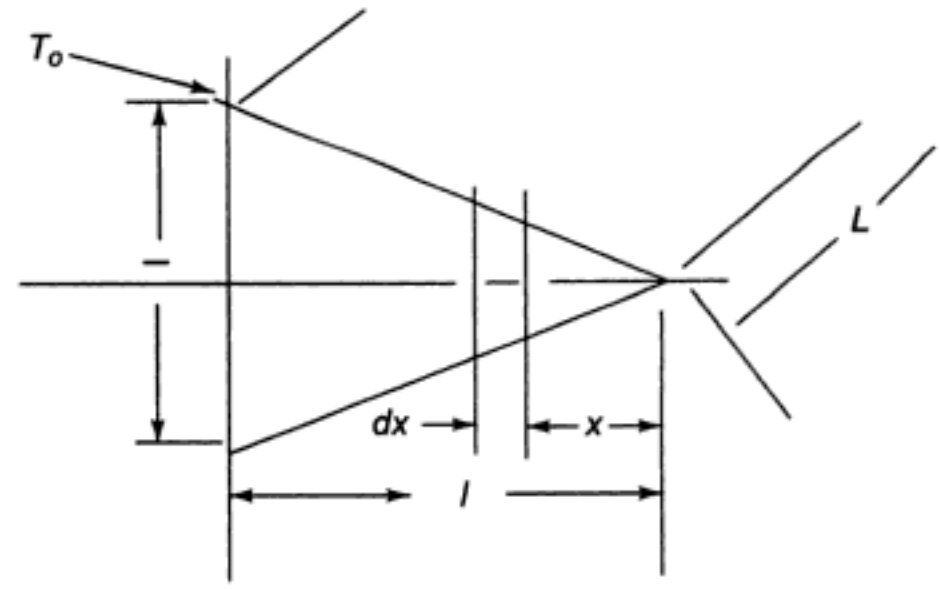


Fig. 2.27 *Application of energy equation for a triangular fin*

The perimeter $P \cong 2L$. The cross-sectional area $A = \frac{Lbx}{l}$. Substituting these values in Eq. (2.119), we obtain

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\theta}{\mathrm{d}x^2} + \frac{1}{x}\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}x} - \frac{2}{k}\frac{hl}{bx}\theta = 0 \tag{2.120}$$

It is a modified form of the Bessel equation, which in its general form for any value of n is

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$$z^2 \frac{d^2y}{dz^2} + z\frac{dy}{dz} - (z^2 + n^2)y = 0 \tag{2.121}$$

whose general solution is

$$y = C_1 I_n(z) + C_2 K_n(z) \tag{2.122}$$

where C_1 and C_2 are constants of integration and I_n and K_n are n^{th} order Bessel functions of the first and second kind respectively.

In order to make use of the solutions available for the standard form of Eq. (2.121), Eq. (2.120) is converted into the same form of Eq. (2.121) as follows:

Putting $B^2 = \dfrac{2lh}{bk}$ and multiplying Eq. (2.120) by x^2 to get

$$x^2 \frac{d^2\theta}{dx^2} + x\frac{d\theta}{dx} - B^2 x\theta = 0 \tag{2.123}$$

Again, putting $z = 2B\sqrt{x}$, or $x = \dfrac{z^2}{4B^2}$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{dz}{dx} = Bx^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{d\theta}{dx} = \frac{d\theta}{dz}\cdot\frac{dz}{dx} = Bx^{-\frac{1}{2}}\cdot\frac{d\theta}{dz}$$

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dx^2} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{d\theta}{dz}Bx^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right) = \frac{d\theta}{dz}B\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^{-\frac{3}{2}}\right) + \frac{d^2\theta}{dz^2}\cdot\frac{dz}{dx}\cdot Bx^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Substituting these relations in Eq. (2.123),

$$z^2 \frac{d^2\theta}{dz^2} + z\frac{d\theta}{dz} - z^2\theta = 0$$

The above equation is identical to the modified Bessel equation of zero order ($n = 0$) and its general solution is

$$\theta = C_1 I_o\,(2B\sqrt{x}) + C_2 K_o\,(2B\sqrt{x}) \tag{2.124}$$

where I_0 and K_0 are modified zero order Bessel functions of the first and second kind respectively. Some typical values of $I_o(z)$ and $K_o(z)$ are tabulated in Table 2.3. It is seen that $I_o(0) = 1$ while $K_o(0) = \infty$.

The constants of integration C_1 and C_2 are evaluated by using the boundary conditions:

At the root, $\theta = \theta_o$ at $x = l$

At the tip, $\theta =$ finite at $x = 0$

Since at $x = 0$, $K_o(0)$ approaches infinity, $C_2 = 0$

$\therefore \quad \theta = C_1 I_o\,(2B\sqrt{x})$

From the first boundary condition,

$$C_1 = \frac{\theta_o}{I_o(2B\sqrt{l})}$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{\theta}{\theta_o} = \frac{I_o(2B\sqrt{x})}{I_o(2B\sqrt{l})} \tag{2.125}$$

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Table 2.3 *Typical values of Bessel Functions*

z	$I_o(z)$	$I_1(z)$	$\frac{2}{\pi} K_o(z)$	$\frac{2}{\pi} K_1(z)$
0.0	1.0000	0.0000	∞	∞
0.2	1.0100	0.1005	1.116	3.040
0.4	1.0404	0.2040	0.7095	1.391
0.6	1.0920	0.3137	0.4950	0.8294
0.8	1.1665	0.4329	0.3599	0.5486
1.0	2.2661	0.5652	0.2680	0.3832
2.0	2.2796	1.5906	0.07251	0.08904
3.0	4.8808	3.9534	0.02212	0.02556
4.0	11.3019	9.7595	0.007105	0.007947
5.0	27.2399	24.3356	0.00235	0.002575
6.0	67.2344	61.3419	0.000638	0.0006879
7.0	168.6	156.04	0.0002704	0.0002891
8.0	427.6	399.9	0.000093	0.0000989
9.0	1093.6	1030.9	0.000022	0.000034
10.0	—	—	0.000011	0.000011

The heat flow rate Q from the fin is given by

$$Q = kA \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)_{x=L}$$

We know from the properties of Bessel functions that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\, I_o(z)}{\mathrm{d}x} = I_{n+1}(z) \frac{\mathrm{d}z}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

so that for $n = 0$,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\, I_0(2B\sqrt{x})}{\mathrm{d}x} = I_1(2B\sqrt{x})\, B \cdot x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = kLb\, \theta_o \frac{I_1(2B\sqrt{l})}{I_o(2B\sqrt{l})} Bl^{-1/2}$$

$$= L\sqrt{2hkb} \cdot \theta_o \cdot \frac{I_1(2B\sqrt{l})}{I_o(2B\sqrt{l})} \tag{2.126}$$

If the heat flow into the triangular fin [Fig. 2.28(a)] is optimised in order to determine the best ratio of height l to base b, the following expression as shown by Eckert and Drake [4] results.

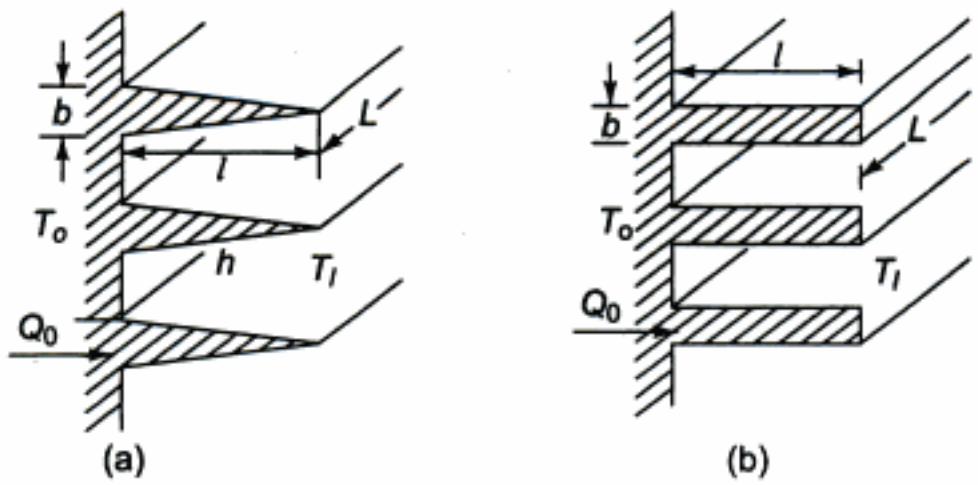


Fig. 2.28 *Fins of (a) triangular cross section, (b) rectangular cross section*

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$$\frac{l}{b/2} = 1.309 \left(\frac{2k}{hb}\right)^{1/2} \tag{2.127}$$

The temperature excess at the tip of the fin is

$$\theta_l = 0.277\ \theta_o \tag{2.128}$$

The ratio of the thickness of the triangular fin to the thickness of the rectangular fin with equal heat flow is 1.31, and the ratio of the cross-sectional areas is 1:1.44. Therefore, the weight saved by using the triangular fin is 44%.

2.4.6 Fin of Minimum Weight

It is of further interest to determine the optimum shape of a fin having the minimum weight for a given heat flow. In such a fin, every part should be utilised to the same degree, and the specific rate of heat flow, q, should be constant throughout the fin [4]. The heat flow lines are equally spaced and parallel to the fin axis (Fig. 2.29).

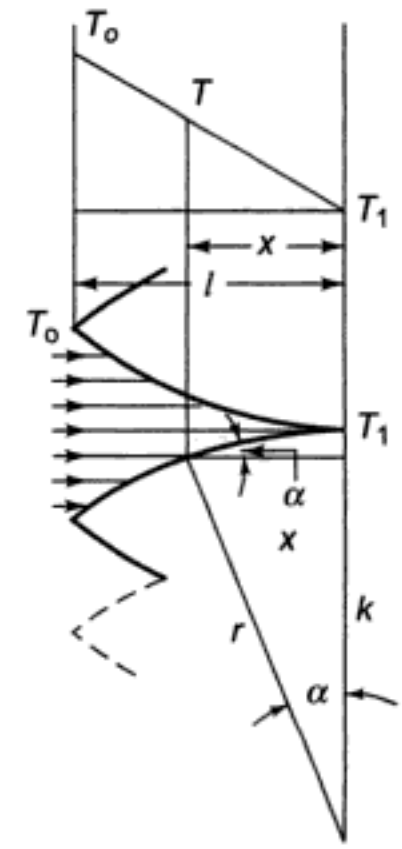


Fig. 2.29 *Fin with smallest weight*

Since $$\bar{q} = -k \frac{d\theta}{dx} = \text{constant}$$

or $$\frac{d\theta}{dx} = \text{constant}$$

Temperature decreases linearly along any flow line from the value T_o at the root of the fin to that at the tip which approaches T_∞ of the surrounding fluid when α becomes zero. For a finite value of α there will be a temperature discontinuity between the fin tip and the surrounding fluid. From Fig. 2.29

$$\frac{x}{l} = \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_o - T_\infty} = \frac{\theta}{\theta_o}$$

$$\theta = \frac{x}{l}\ \theta_o$$

Let us consider a surface element of the fin at a distance x. The element is inclined to the fin axis by the angle α. The specific rate of heat flow from this element is

$$q \sin\alpha = h\,(T - T_\infty) = h\theta$$

$$q \sin\alpha = h\,\frac{x}{l}\ \theta_o$$

or, $$\sin\alpha = \frac{h\theta_o x}{ql} = \frac{x}{ql/h\theta_o} = \frac{x}{r}$$

where $$\mathbf{r = \frac{\bar{q}l}{h\theta_o} = constant} \tag{2.129}$$

Thus the contour lines of the fin are circles which meet tangentially at the tip for the smallest weight of a given heat flow. The difference in weight between a fin in the shape of a circular arc and the fin of triangular shape is very small. As the triangular shape is much easier to manufacture, it may, for practical purposes, be regarded as the best shape.

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2.4.7 Fin Arrangement

The cross-sectional area A_1 (= bl) necessary for a given heat flow in the example of a rectangular fin is derived by combining Eqs (2.115) and (2.116a), and solving for A_1.

$$A_1 = \left(\frac{Q_o}{\theta_o}\right)^3 \frac{l}{L^3} \frac{u}{\tanh^3} \frac{1}{u\,4h^2k} = \frac{2.109}{4L^3\,h^2\,k}\left(\frac{Q_o}{\theta_o}\right)^3 \tag{2.130}$$

This equation shows that it is advantageous to make the fins as thin (b) or as small ($A_1 = bL$) as possible. To double the heat flow, the area of one fin (A_1) or thickness b must be increased eight times, whereas it is sufficient to use two fins of the original size.

Equation (2.130) shows that $A_1 \propto l/k$. The mass of the fin is, therefore, proportional to ρ/k. It may be seen that by using aluminium, instead of copper, a weight saving of 50% can be achieved. Iron fins have a ten-fold weight, and stainless steel about 50-fold weight as given in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 *Comparison of fin material*

Material	*Thermal Conductivity, k(W/MK)*	*Density, (kg/m³)*	*ρ/k*	$\frac{\rho/k}{(\rho/k)_{Al}}$
Copper	380	8970	23.6	1.95
Aluminium, pure	225	2723	12.1	1.00
Aluminium, alloy	156	2659	17.0	1.40
Magnesium, pure	173	1762	10.2	0.84
Steel	55	7850	142.7	11.8
Stainless steel	14	7850	560.7	46.3

Extended surfaces are used in many engineering devices. For comprehensive discussions, the reader may consult Schneider [5], Arpaci [6], Kakac and Yener [7] and Kern and Kraus [8].

2.4.8 Cylindrical Fins

Fins which are arranged around tubes are called cylindrical fins and are quite important from an engineering point of view. Such a fin system is shown in Fig. 2.30. Here again the treatment is substantially the same as for rectangular fin except that the area must be allowed to vary with the radius. The area normal to the heat flux vector can be written as

$$A = 2\pi rb$$

and the periphery can be expressed as

$$P = 4\pi r$$

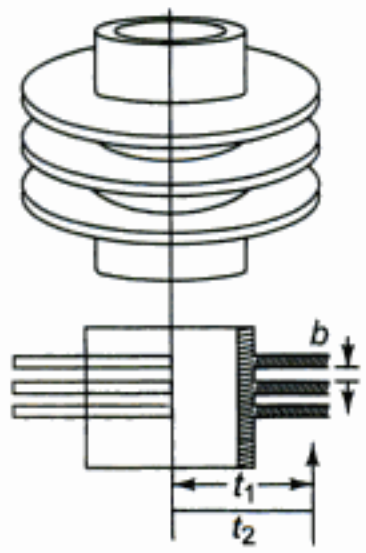


Fig. 2.30 *Surface with circumferential fins*

We choose an annular element of radius r and thickness dr (Fig. 2.31). By making an energy balance

$$-k\,2\pi rb\,\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -k2\pi(r+\mathrm{d}r)\;b\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}+\frac{\mathrm{d}^2T}{\mathrm{d}r^2}\cdot\mathrm{d}r\right) + h\,4\pi r\mathrm{d}r\cdot(T-T_\infty)$$

or,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2T}{\mathrm{d}r^2}+\frac{1}{r}\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}-\frac{2h}{kb}\,(T-T_\infty)=0$$

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Let $\theta = T - T_\infty$, then the above equation reduces to

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{d\theta}{dr} - \left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)\theta = 0 \tag{2.131}$$

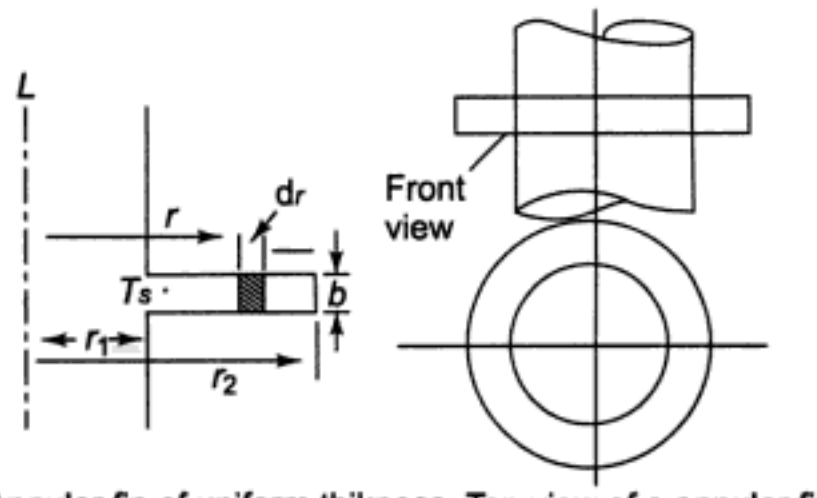


Fig. 2.31 *Element of an annular fin*

The equation is recognised as the Bessel's equation of zero order and its solution is

$$\theta = C_1 I_o(mr) + C_2 K_o(mr), \text{ where } m = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{kb}},$$

I_o = modified Bessel function, 1st kind, and K_o = modified Bessel function, 2nd kind, zero order. The constants C_1 and C_2 are evaluated by applying the two boundary conditions:

at $r = r_1$, $T = T_w$ and $\theta = T_w - T_\infty$

at $r = r_2$, $\frac{dT}{dr} = 0$, or $\frac{d\theta}{dr} = 0$ since $b << (r_2 - r_1)$

By using the above boundary conditions the temperature distribution is given by

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_o} = \frac{I_o(mr)\,K_1(mr_2) + K_o(mr)\,I_1(mr_2)}{I_o(mr_1)\,K_1(mr_2) + K_o(mr_1)\,I_l(mr_2)} \tag{2.132}$$

where $I_1\,(mr)$ and $K_1(mr)$ are Bessel functions of order one and $m = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{kb}}$.

The rate of heat transfer is given by

$$\theta_o = 2\pi k\, mb\; \theta_o\, r_1 \frac{K_1(mr_1)\,I_1(mr_2) - I_1(mr_1)\,K_1(mr_2)}{K_o(mr_1)\,I_1(mr_2) + I_o(mr_1)\,K_1(mr_2)} \tag{2.133}$$

Table B.5 in the Appendix gives the selected values of Modified Bessel Functions of the 1st and 2nd kind, of order zero and one (see C.R. Wylie, Jr., Adv. Engg. Mathematics, McGraw-Hill, N.Y.).

The fin efficiency for a convective tip then becomes

$$\eta_c = \frac{Q_o}{2\pi h(r_2^2 - r_1^2)\theta_o} = \frac{2r_1}{m(r_2^2 - r_1^2)} \cdot \frac{K_1(mr_1)\,I_1(mr_2) - I_1(mr_1)\,K_1(mr_2)}{K_o(mr_1)\,I_1(mr_2) + I_o(mr_1)\,K_1(mr_2)} \tag{2.133a}$$

where the tip radius r_2 is replaced by a corrected radius $r_{2c} = r_2 + \frac{b}{2}$. Results are represented graphically in Fig. 2.25, where b has been shown as t.

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2.5 TWO- AND THREE-DIMENSIONAL STEADY-STATE HEAT CONDUCTION

In the preceding part of this chapter we dealt with problems in which the temperature and the heat flow can be treated as functions of a single variable. But when the boundaries of a system are irregular or the temperature along a boundary is non-uniform, a one-dimensional treatment may not be satisfactory. Temperature here may be a function of two or even three coordinates. We will first study two-dimensional problems because they are less cumbersome to solve, and then extend it to analyse three-dimensional systems.

For steady-state two-dimensional heat conduction in the absence of any heat source, and uniform thermal conductivity, Laplace equation applies

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = 0 \tag{2.134}$$

The solution of this equation can be obtained by (a) analytical, (b) graphical, (c) analogue and (d) numerical methods.

2.5.1 Analytical Solution

It is applicable only to simple geometries and boundary conditions. The solutions of Eq. (2.134) will give $T(x, y)$, the temperature as a function of two space coordinates x and y. The components of the heat flow per unit area (heat flux) q in the x and y-direction are obtained from Fourier's law:

$$q_x = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \text{ and } q_y = -k\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}$$

The heat flux depends on the temperature gradient and is, therefore, a vector, while temperature is a scalar.

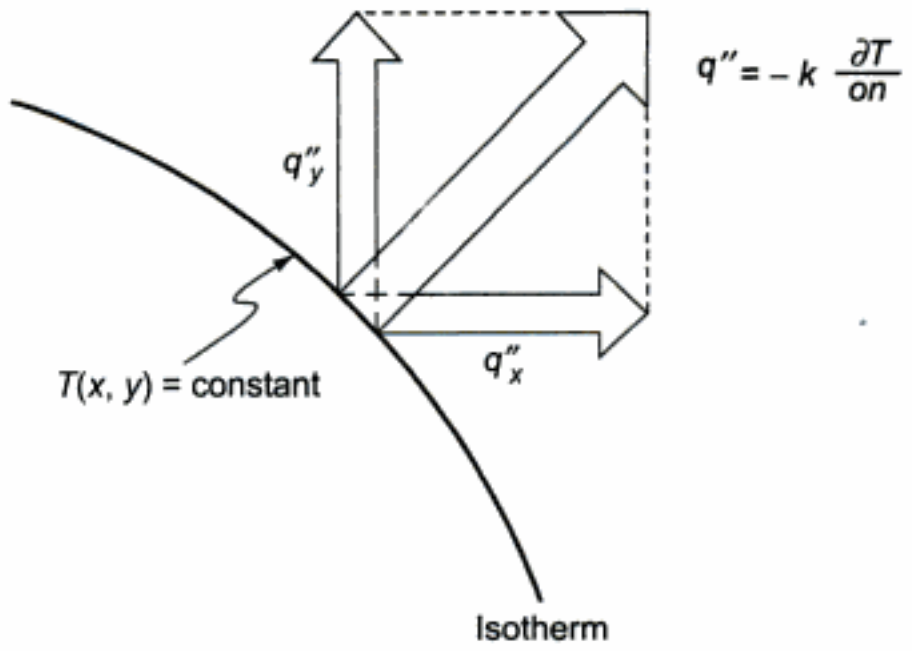


Fig. 2.32 *Heat flow in two dimensions*

The heat flux q at a given point (x, y) is the resultant of the components q_x and q_y at that point and is directed perpendicular to the isotherm (Fig. 2.32). If the temperature distribution in a system is known, the rate of heat flow can easily be calculated. Therefore, heat flow analyses usually concentrate on determining the temperature field.

Let us consider a simple case of a thin rectangular plate (Fig. 2.33), free of heat sources and insulated at the top and bottom surfaces. Since $\partial T/\partial z \cong 0$, the temperature is a function of x and y only. If k is uniform, the temperature distribution must satisfy Eq. (2.134), a linear and homogeneous partial differential equation that can be integrated by assuming a product solution for $T(x, y)$ of the form

$$T = X(x)\, Y(y) \tag{2.135}$$

where $X = X(x)$, a function of x only, and $Y = Y(y)$, a function of y alone. Differentiating Eq. (2.135) twice, first with respect to x and then with respect to y.

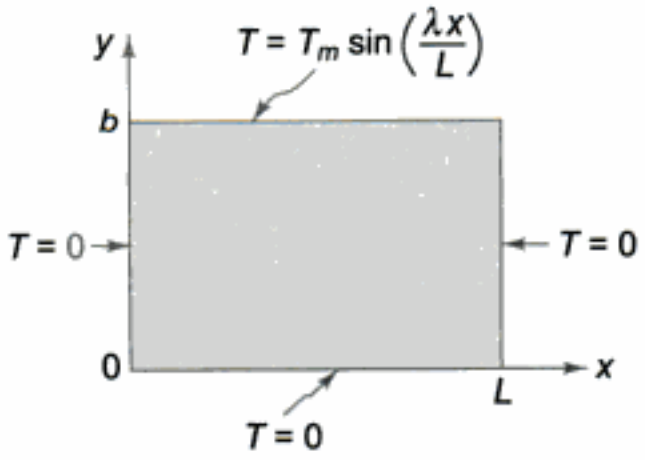


Fig. 2.33 *Rectangular adiabatic plate with sinusoidal temperature distribution on one edge*

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$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} \text{ and } \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = X\frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2}$$

Substituting in Eq. (2.134)

$$Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} + X\frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

or,
$$-\frac{1}{X}\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{Y}\frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial y^2} = \lambda^2 \text{ (say)} \tag{2.136}$$

The variables are now separated. The LHS is a function of x only, while the RHS is a function of y alone. Since neither side can change as x and y vary, both must be equal to a constant, say λ^2. We have, therefore, two ordinary differential equations

$$\frac{d^2 X}{dx^2} + \lambda^2 X = 0 \tag{2.137}$$

$$\frac{d^2 Y}{dy^2} - \lambda^2 Y = 0 \tag{2.138}$$

The general solution to Eq. (2.137) is

$$X = C_1 \cos \lambda x + C_2 \sin \lambda x$$

and the general solution to Eq. (2.138) is

$$Y = C_3 e^{-\lambda y} + C_4 e^{\lambda y}$$

Therefore, from Eq. (2.135),

$$T = X \cdot Y = (C_1 \cos \lambda x + C_2 \sin \lambda x)\,(C_3 e^{-\lambda y} + C_4 e^{\lambda y}) \tag{2.139}$$

where C_1, C_2, C_3 and C_4 are constants to be evaluated from the boundary conditions. As shown in Fig. 2.33, the boundary conditions to be satisfied are

$$T = 0 \text{ at } x = 0$$
$$T = 0 \text{ at } x = L$$
$$T = 0 \text{ at } y = 0$$
$$T = T_m \sin\left(\frac{\lambda x}{L}\right) \text{ at } y = b$$

Substituting these conditions in Eq. (2.139), from the 3rd condition (at $y = 0$)

$$(C_1 \cos \lambda x + C_2 \sin \lambda x)\,(C_3 + C_4) = 0 \tag{2.140}$$

from the first condition (at $x = 0$)

$$C_1 (C_3 e^{-\lambda y} + C_4 e^{\lambda y}) = 0 \tag{2.141}$$

and from the second condition

$$(C_1 \cos \lambda L + C_2 \sin \lambda L)\,(C_3 e^{-\lambda y} + C_4 e^{\lambda y}) = 0 \tag{2.142}$$

Equation (2.140) gives $C_3 = -C_4$ and Eq. (2.141) gives $C_1 = 0$. Using these results in Eq. (2.138)

$$2C_2 C_3 \sin \lambda L \sinh \lambda y = 0 \tag{2.143}$$

To satisfy this condition, $\sin \lambda L = 0$ or, $\lambda = \frac{n\pi}{L}$, where $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. There exists, therefore, a different

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solution for each integer n, and each solution has a separate integration constant C_n. Summing these solutions, we get from Eq. (2.139),

$$T = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \sinh \frac{n\pi y}{L} \tag{2.144}$$

The last boundary condition needs that at $y = b$

$$T_m \sin \frac{\pi x}{L} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L} \sinh \frac{n\pi b}{L}$$

The first term in the series solution gives

$$T_m \sin \frac{\pi x}{L} = C_1 \frac{\pi x}{L} \sinh \frac{\pi b}{L}$$

$$C_1 = \frac{T_m}{\sinh(\pi b / L)}$$

The solution therefore becomes [from Eq. (2.144)]

$$T(x, y) = T_m \frac{\sinh(\pi y / L)}{\sinh(\pi b / L)} \sin \frac{\pi x}{L} \tag{2.145}$$

The corresponding temperature field is shown in Fig. 2.34. The solid lines are isotherms, and the dashed lines are heat flow lines, which are orthogonal.

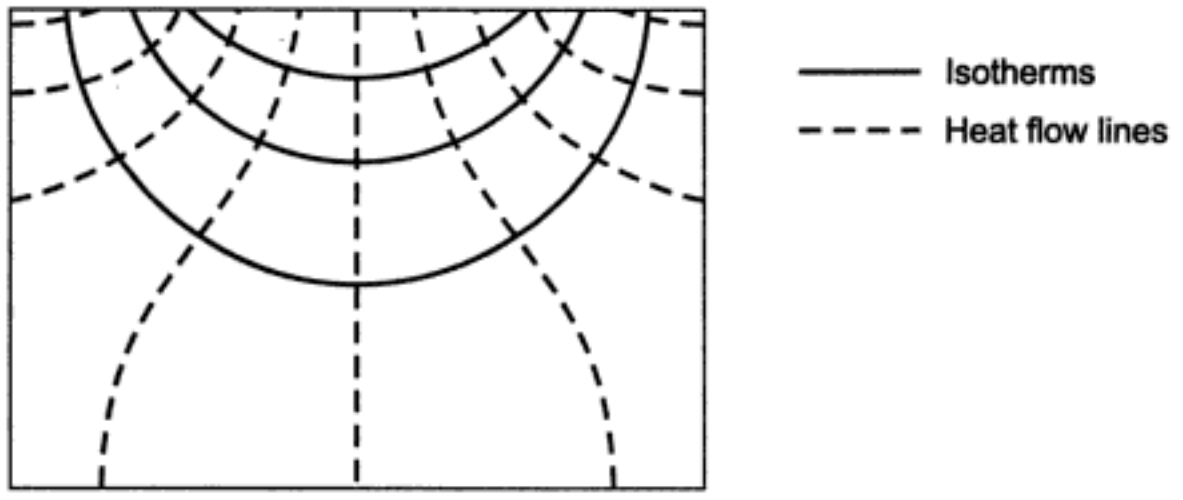


Fig. 2.34 *Isotherms and heat flow lines for the plate in Fig. 2.33*

The separation-of-variables method can be extended to three-dimensional problems, by assuming that $T = X \cdot Y \cdot Z$. Substituting this expression for T in equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

separating the variables, integrating the total differential equation and using the given boundary conditions, the solution for temperature distribution can be obtained [1, 5, 7].

2.5.2 Graphical Method

This method can rapidly provide an approximate estimate of the temperature distribution and heat flow in geometrically complex two-dimensional systems, but its application is limited to cases with isothermal and adiabatic boundaries. The object of the graphic solution is to construct a network of isotherms and adiabatics. The flux lines are analogous to streamlines in a potential fluid flow, i.e., tangent to the direction of heat flow at any point. Therefore, no heat can flow across the constant-flux lines. The isotherms are

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analogous to constant-potential lines and heat flows perpendicular to them. Thus, isotherms and adiabatics intersect at right angles.

To obtain the temperature distribution, one first prepares a scale model, and then draws isotherms and adiabatics freehand, by trial and error, until they form a network of curvilinear squares. Then a constant amount of heat flows between any two flux lines.

In Fig. 2.35(a), a corner section of unit depth ($\Delta z = 1$) has been considered with ABC at temperature T_1, faces FED at temperature T_2 and faces CD and AF insulated. The curvilinear network of isotherms and adiabatics are shown in Fig. 2.35(b). Flux lines leading to or from a corner of an isothermal boundary bisect the angle between the surfaces forming the corner.

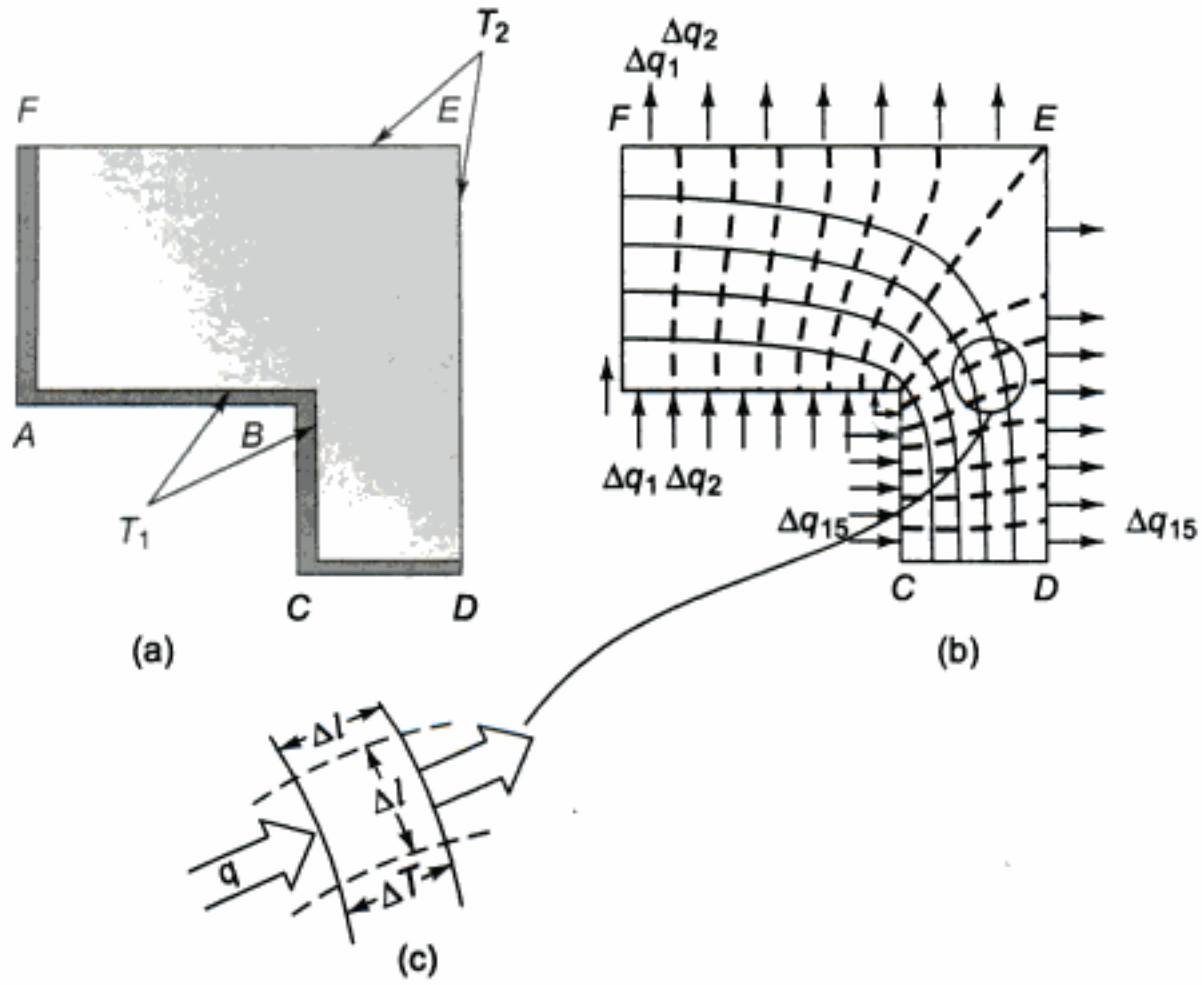


Fig. 2.35 *Construction of a network of curvilinear squares for a corner section: (a) scale model, (b) flux plot and (c) typical curvilinear square*

A graphic solution, like an analytic solution of a heat conduction problem described by the Laplace equation and the associated boundary condition, is unique. Any curvilinear network, irrespective of its size, that satisfies the boundary conditions, represents the correct solution. For any curvilinear square [Fig. 2.35(c)], the rate of heat flow is given by Fourier law:

$$Q = -k\,(\Delta l \times l)\,\frac{\Delta T}{\Delta l} = -\,k\Delta T$$

This heat flow will remain the same across any square within any one heat flow lane from the boundary at T_1 to the boundary at T_2. The temperature difference ΔT across any one element in the heat flow lane is therefore

$$\Delta T = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{N}$$

where N is the number of temperature increments between the two boundaries at T_1 and T_2. The total heat flow from T_1 to T_2 is equal to the sum of the heat flows of all the lanes.

$$Q = \sum_{n=1}^{n=M} \Delta Q_n = \frac{M}{n}\; k\,(T_1 - T_2) = \frac{M}{n}\; k\,(\Delta T)_{\text{overall}} \qquad (2.146)$$

where ΔQ_n is the rate of heat flow through the nth lane, and M is the number of heat flow lanes.

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Only a network of the curvilinear squares need be constructed. By counting the number of temperature increments (N) and heat flow lanes (M), one can estimate the rate of heat transfer. The accuracy of the method depends on the skill and patience of the person sketching the network. Even a crude sketch can give a fairly good estimate of the heat transfer, which can be refined by the numerical method described later.

The ratio M/N depends on the shape of the system and is called the *shape factor* S. The rate of heat transfer is then

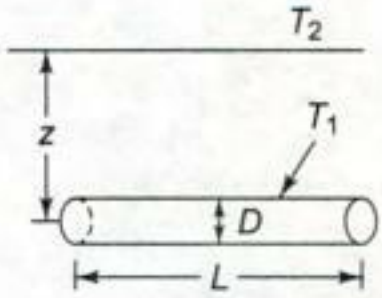
$$Q = kS\,(\Delta T)_{\text{overall}} \tag{2.147}$$

Values of S for several shapes are summarized in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 *Conduction shape factors S for several configurations to determine steady heat transfer rate $Q = kS\,(T_1 - T_2)$ between surfaces at temperatures T_1 and T_2*

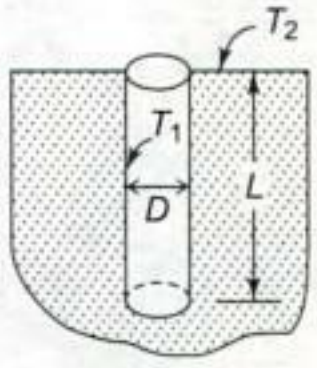
1. Isothermal cylinder of length L buried in a semi-infinite medium ($L >> D$ and $z > 1.5D$)

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\ln(4z/D)}$$



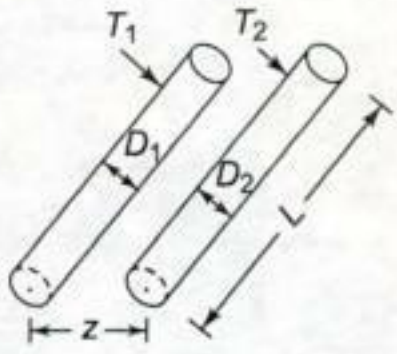
2. Vertical isothermal cylinder of length L buried in a semi-infinite medium ($L >> D$)

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\ln(4L/D)}$$



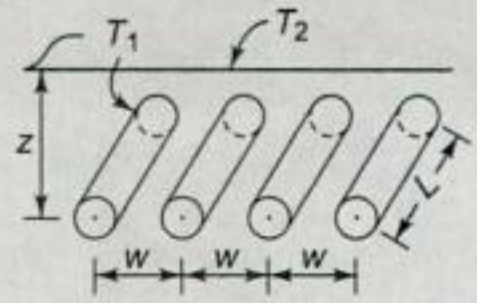
3. Two parallel isothermal cylinders placed in an infinite medium ($L >> D_1, D_2, z$)

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\cosh^{-1}\left(\dfrac{4z^2 - D_1^2 - D_2^2}{2D_1D_2}\right)}$$



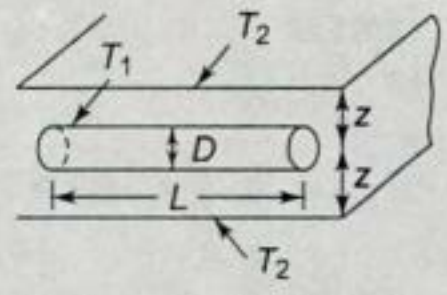
4. A row of equally spaced parallel isothermal cylinders buried in a semi-infinite medium ($L >> D, z$ and $w > 1.5\,D$)

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\ln\left(\dfrac{2w}{\pi D}\sinh\dfrac{2\pi z}{w}\right)} \quad \text{(per cylinder)}$$



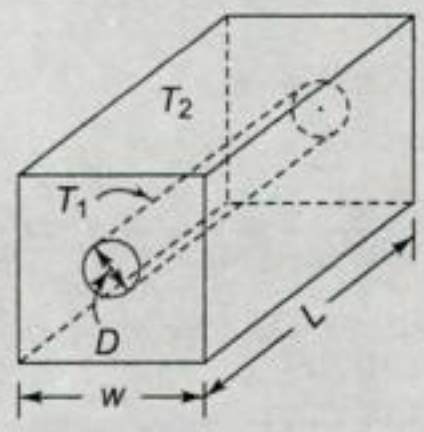
5. Circular isothermal cylinder of length L in the midplane of an infinite wall ($z > 0.5D$)

$S = (8z/\pi D)$



6. Circular isothermal cylinder of length L at the centre of a square solid bar of the same length

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\ln(1.08w/D)}$$

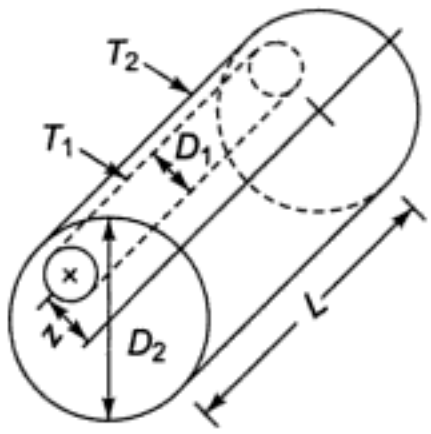


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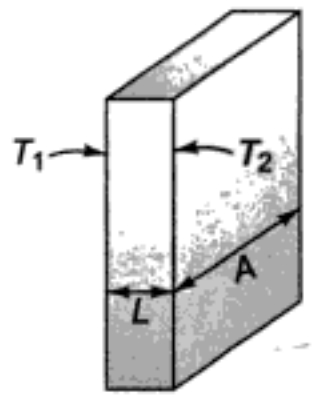
7. Eccentric circular isothermal cylinder length L in a cylinder of the same length ($L > D_2$)

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\cosh^{-1}\left(\dfrac{D_1^2 + D_2^2 - 4z^2}{2D_1 D_2}\right)}$$



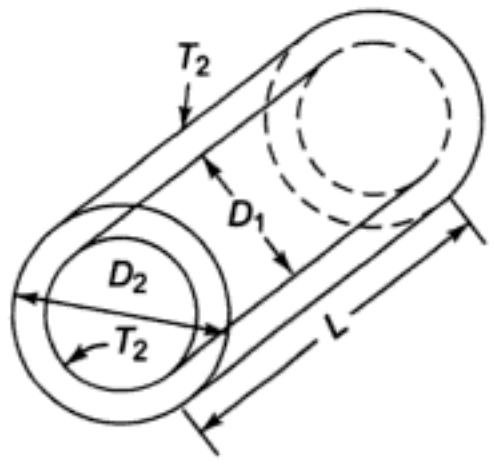
8. Large plain wall

$$S = \frac{A}{L}$$



9. A long cylindrical layer

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{\ln (D_2 / D_1)}$$



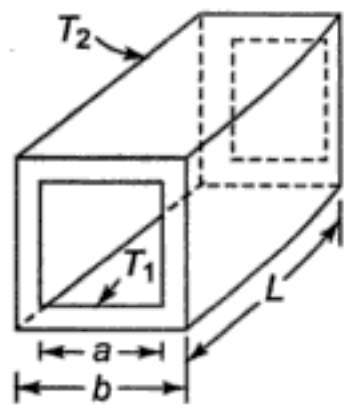
10. A square flow passage

(a) For $a/b > 1.4$.

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{0.93 \ln (0.948a / b)}$$

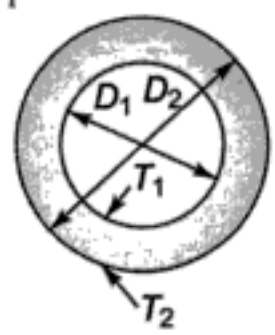
(b) For $a/b < 1.41$.

$$S = \frac{2\pi L}{0.785 \ln (a / b)}$$



11. A spherical layer

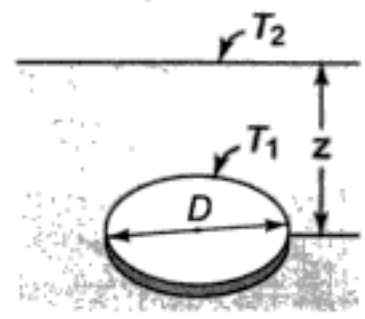
$$S = \frac{2\pi D_1 D_2}{D_2 - D_1}$$



12. Disk buried parallel to the surface in a semi-infinite medium ($z >> D$)

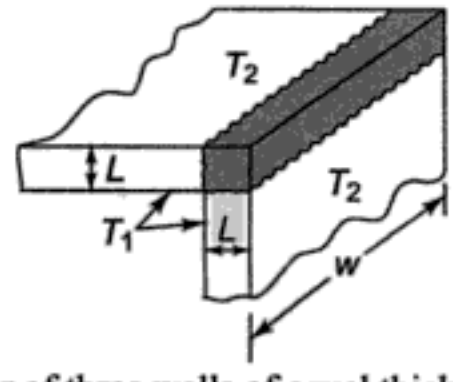
$S = 4D$

($S = 2D$ when $z = 0$)



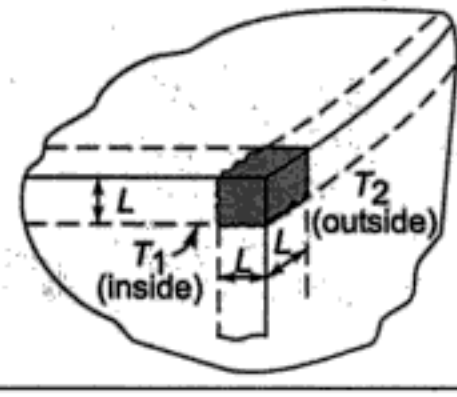
13. The edge of two adjoining walls of equal thickness

$S = 0.54\ w$



14. Corner of three walls of equal thickness

$S = 0.15\ L$

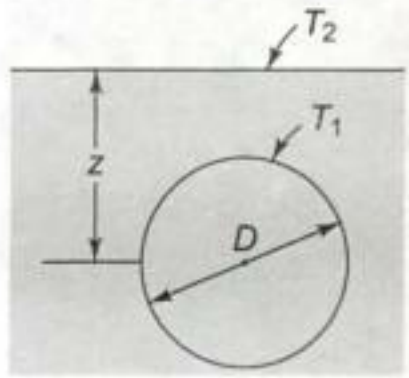


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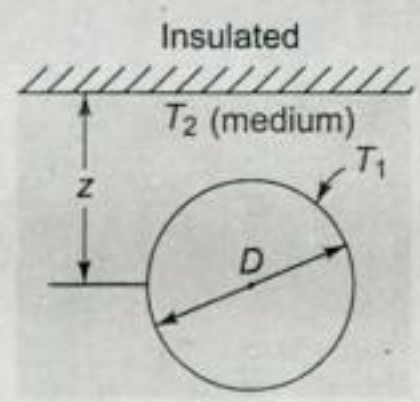
15. Isothermal sphere buried in a semi-infinite medium

$$S = \frac{2\pi D}{1 - 0.25D/z}$$



16. Isothermal sphere buried in a semi-infinite medium at T_2 whose surface is insulated

$$S = \frac{2\pi D}{1 + 0.25D/z}$$



2.5.3 Numerical Methods

Analytical solutions are usually possible only for relatively simple problems. Many practical problems, however, involve complex geometries, complex boundary conditions, or variable properties, for which analytical solutions are very difficult and sometimes, impossible. These problems can be solved with relative ease by methods of numerical analysis. The numerical analysis not only saves on computer time, vis-a-vis analytical method, but also allows changes in problem parameters to determine the behaviour of a thermal system and also to optimise it.

In the last two decades, the amount of computing power per unit cost available in personal computers increased very significantly. Also available at reasonable cost is powerful software such as finite element codes, equation solvers and compilers, that can be employed in solving complex heat transfer problems.

Analytical method solves the governing differential equations and provides a solution at every point in space and time within the problem boundaries. In contrast, numerical methods provide the solution only at discrete points within the problem boundaries and yield only an approximate solution. By solving only for a finite number of discrete points, we simplify the solution method to one of solving a system of simultaneous algebraic equations as opposed to solving the differential equation. The solution of a system of simultaneous equations is a task best suited to digital computers.

In addition to replacing the differential equation with a system of algebraic equations, a process called *discretisation*, there are several other important considerations for a complete numerical solution. First, the boundary conditions or initial conditions specified for the problem must also be discretised. Second, we need to be aware that as an approximation to the exact solution, the numerical method introduces errors into the solution. We need to know how to minimise these errors. Finally, the numerical method may give a solution that oscillates in time or space. We need to know how to avoid these stability problems.

Several methods are available for discretising the differential equations of heat conduction, like the finite difference, finite element and control volume approaches.

We would first illustrate the finite difference method. A two-dimensional body is divided into equal segments of Δx and Δy. The nodes are designated by points (m, n), $(m + 1, n)$, $(m, n + 1)$, ... as shown, m location indicating x increment and n location indicating y increment. It is desired to find the temperatures at the nodes. The temperature at any node represents the temperature in the region $\pm x/2$ and $\pm y/2$ around the node.

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The temperature gradients at A, B, C and D (Fig. 2.36) are respectively

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right)_{m+\frac{1}{2}, n} \cong \frac{T_{m+1, n} - T_{m, n}}{\Delta x}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right)_{m-\frac{1}{2}, n} \cong \frac{T_{m, n} - T_{m-1, n}}{\Delta x}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{m, n+\frac{1}{2}} \cong \frac{T_{m, n+1} - T_{m, n}}{\Delta y}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)_{m, n-\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{T_{m, n} - T_{m, n-1}}{\Delta y}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}\right)_{m, n} = \frac{\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right)_{m+\frac{1}{2}, n} - \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right)_{m-\frac{1}{2}, n}}{\Delta x}$$

$$= \frac{T_{m+1, n} - T_{m, n} - T_{m, n} + T_{m-1, n}}{(\Delta x)^2}$$

$$= \frac{T_{m+1, n} + T_{m-1, n} - 2T_{m, n}}{(\Delta x)^2}$$

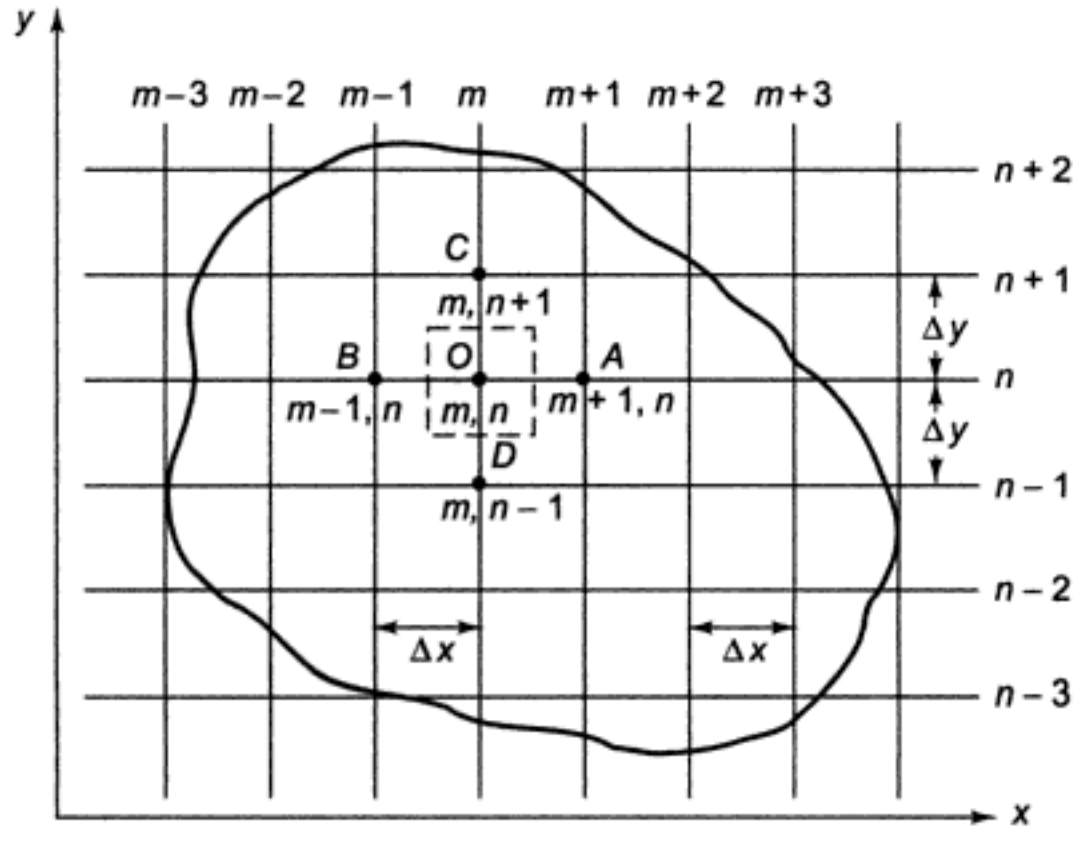


Fig. 2.36 *Two-dimensional body is discretised into segments, $\Delta x \times \Delta y$*

Similarly,

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}\right)_{m, n} = \frac{T_{m, n+1} + T_{m, n-1} - 2T_{m, n}}{(\Delta y)^2}$$

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Substituting in Laplace equation

$$\frac{T_{m+1,n}+T_{m-1,n}-2T_{m,n}}{(\Delta x)^2}+\frac{T_{m,n+1}+T_{m,n-1}-2T_{m,n}}{(\Delta y)^2}=0$$

If $\Delta x = \Delta y$, we have

$$T_{m+1,n}+T_{m-1,n}+T_{m,n+1}+T_{m,n-1}-4T_{m,n}=0 \qquad (2.148)$$

For nodal points at the convection boundary (Fig. 2.37), separate energy balance would be needed,

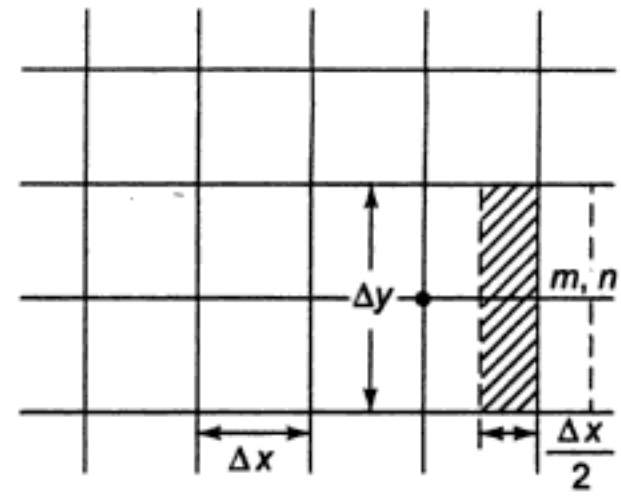


Fig. 2.37 *A nodal point at the boundary*

$$-k\Delta y\,\frac{T_{m,n}-T_{m-1,n}}{\Delta x}-k\,\frac{\Delta x}{2}\,\frac{T_{m,n}-T_{m,n+1}}{\Delta y}$$

$$-k\,\frac{\Delta x}{2}\,\frac{T_{m,n}-T_{m,n-1}}{\Delta y}=h\Delta y\,(T_{m,n}-T_\infty)$$

For $\Delta x = \Delta y$,

$$T_{m,n}\left[\frac{h\Delta x}{k}+2\right]-\frac{h\Delta x}{k}\,T_\infty-\frac{1}{2}$$

$$(2T_{m-1,n}+T_{m,n+1}-T_{m,n-1})=0 \qquad (2.149)$$

Similarly, for a nodal point at a corner (Fig. 2.38),

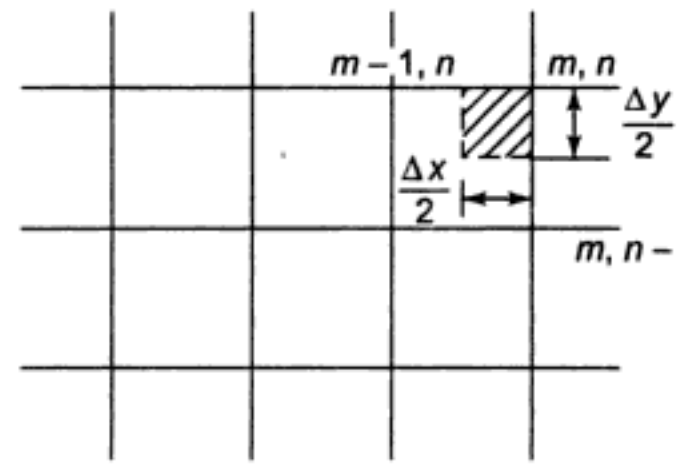


Fig. 2.38 *A nodal point at a corner*

$$-k\,\frac{\Delta y}{2}\,\frac{T_{m,n}-T_{m-1,n}}{\Delta x}-k\,\frac{\Delta x}{2}\,\frac{T_{m,n}-T_{m,n+1}}{\Delta y}$$

$$=h\,\frac{\Delta x}{2}\,(T_{m,n}-T_\infty)+h\,\frac{\Delta y}{2}\,(T_{m,n}-T_\infty)$$

For $\Delta x = \Delta y$,

$$2T_{m,n}\left(1+\frac{h\Delta x}{k}\right)-\frac{h\Delta x}{k}\,T_\infty-(T_{m-1,n}+T_{m,n-1})=0 \qquad (2.150)$$

Other boundary conditions may be treated in a similar manner. In this way, equations are written for all nodal points and arranged in a matrix form.

$$\begin{aligned}
&a_{11}T_1+a_{12}T_2+\ldots+a_{1n}T_n=C_1\\
&a_{21}T_1+a_{22}T_2+\ldots+a_{2n}T_n=C_2\\
&A_{31}T_1+a_{32}T_2+\ldots+a_{3n}T_n=C_3\\
&\vdots\\
&a_{n1}T_1+a_{n2}T_2+\ldots+a_{nn}T_n=C_n
\end{aligned} \qquad (2.151)$$

where a_{ij}'s and C_j's are known constants and T_j's are unknown temperatures.

Equation (2.151) can be condensed and written in matrix notation as

$$AT=C$$

where A is a $n \times n$ coefficient defined by

$$\begin{Bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n}\\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n}\\ \vdots & & & \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{Bmatrix} \qquad (2.152)$$

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where T and C are column matrices consisting of n elements each:

$$T = \begin{Bmatrix} T_1 \\ T_2 \\ \vdots \\ T_n \end{Bmatrix} \text{ and } C = \begin{Bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_3 \\ \vdots \\ C_n \end{Bmatrix} \tag{2.153}$$

To calculate the unknown temperatures we must determine the inverse of the matrix, A^{-1}, which satisfies the equation

$$T = A^{-1}C \tag{2.154}$$

If the elements of the inverse of matrix A are given by

$$B = A^{-1} = \begin{Bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \cdots & b_{1n} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \cdots & b_{2n} \\ \vdots & & & \\ b_{n1} & b_{n2} & \cdots & b_{nn} \end{Bmatrix} \tag{2.155}$$

the unknown nodal temperatures are given by the equations

$$\begin{Bmatrix} b_{11}c_1 + b_{12}c_2 + b_{13}c_3 + \cdots + b_{1n}c_n = T_1 \\ b_{21}c_1 + b_{22}c_2 + b_{23}c_3 + \cdots + b_{2n}c_n = T_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_{n1}c_1 + b_{n2}c_2 + b_{n3}c_3 + \cdots + b_{nn}c_n = T_n \end{Bmatrix} \tag{2.156}$$

Since the values of all the c_i's are known, the problem of calculating the temperatures depends upon determining the inverse of matrix A, which can be calculated by using standard mathematical techniques if the number of nodes is small. When the number of nodes is large, elements in the inverted matrix can be determined with a computer by using standard subroutines.

2.5.3.1 Gauss-Siedel Iteration Technique

A numerical method that is particularly well-suited for a computer solution is an *iteration method* based on solving each nodal equation explicitly for the temperature of that node. For an interior node in a two-dimensional solid, the energy balance equation gives

$$T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + T_4 - 4T_o = 0$$

If the node is located on a boundary transferring heat to a fluid by convection

$$T_o = \frac{1/2(T_2 + T_3) + T_1 + Bi\, T_\infty}{2 + Bi}$$

An equation for the temperature of each node may be written in terms of the temperatures of the neighbouring nodes. The number of equations equals the number of nodes with unknown temperatures.

First assume a set of values for all the nodal temperatures. Next calculate new values for the temperatures using the nodal equations. Replace the old temperatures by the new ones till a tolerance level of the difference between the old and new values is reached. This is *Gauss-Siedel iteration method.*

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Relaxation Method

It was first introduced by Southwell [9]. It is a numerical method to solve a set of algebraic equations. Let us take an example

$$-4x + y + 56 = 0$$
$$x - 2y + 34 = 0$$

If we write $F_1 = -4x + y + 56$ and $F_2 = x - 2y + 34$, then F_1 and F_2 are called *residuals*. The object is to reduce the values of residuals to zero, as illustrated in Table 2.6. If we stop at $x = 21$ and $y = 27$, the residuals are $F_1 = -1$ and $F_2 = 1$. On further relaxation, we find $x = 20.8$, $y = 27.4$, when the residual F_2 is reduced to zero and $F_1 = 0.2$.

Table 2.6

		F_1	F_2
$x = 0$	$y = 0$	56	34
$\Delta x = 14$	–	0	48
	$\Delta y = 24$	24	0
$\Delta x = 6$		0	6
	$\Delta y = 3$	3	0
$\Delta x = 1$		–1	1
$x = 21$	$y = 27$	–1	1
$\Delta x = -0.3$		0.2	0.7
	$\Delta y = 0.4$	0.6	–0.1
$\Delta x = 0.1$		0.2	0.0
$x = 20.8$	$y = 27.4$	0.2	0.0

To apply the relaxation method to a two-dimensional steady-state heat conduction problem, we have to convert the partial differential equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

to a set of algebraic equations. Let us consider a solid of thickness b where no variation in temperature exists along the axis representing thickness (Fig. 2.39).

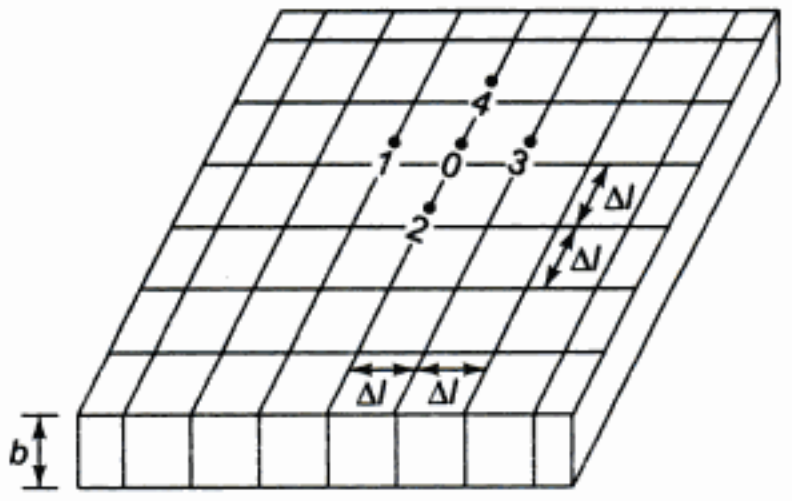


Fig. 2.39 *Solid divided into sub-volumes, $\Delta l \times \Delta l \times b$*

Let us divide the whole solid into sub-volumes $\Delta l \times \Delta l \times b$. The centre of each sub-volume is a nodal point. Material between nodal points may be replaced by fictitious rods having the same k as the solid material (Fig. 2.40). Steady-state energy balance gives

$$Q_{1-0} + Q_{2-0} + Q_{3-0} + Q_{4-0} = 0$$
$$\frac{k\Delta l \times b}{\Delta l}(T_1 - T_o) + \frac{k\Delta l \times b}{\Delta l}(T_2 - T_o)$$
$$+ kb(T_3 - T_o) + kb\,(T_4 - T_o) = 0$$

or
$$kb\,[(T_1 - T_o) + (T_2 - T_o) + (T_3 - T_o) + (T_4 - T_o)] = 0$$

or
$$T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + T_4 - 4T_o = 0$$

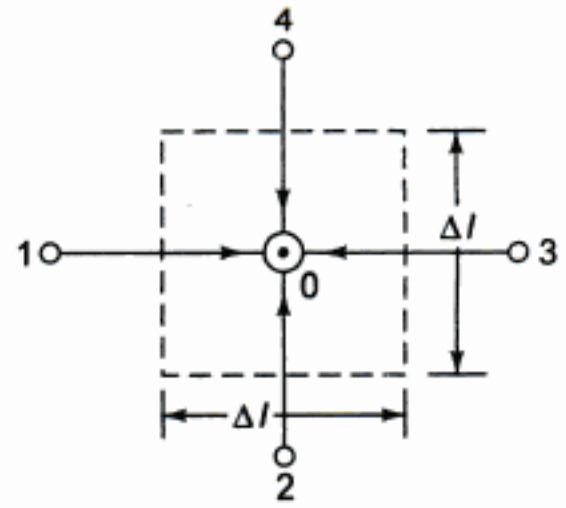


Fig. 2.40 *Each sub-volume replaced by a nodal point*

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Residual equation for an interior nodal point is

$$Q'_o = q^* = T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + T_4 - 4T_o = \frac{Q_o}{kb} \qquad (2.157)$$

The object is to reduce the residuals to zero for each nodal point in the body. Any unit change in temperature in any of the neighbouring points can change the residual q^* by ± 1, whereas a unit change in temperature of the node itself changes the residual by ± 4. This is the key to the procedure (Fig. 2.41).

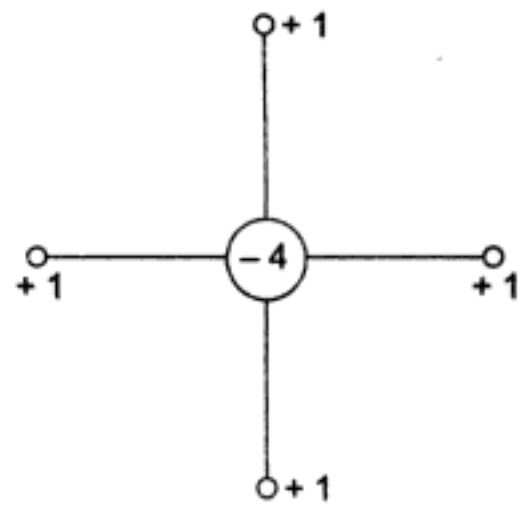


Fig. 2.41 *Key to relaxation method*

For a nodal point at an isothermal boundary (Fig. 2.42), $T_4 = T_2 = T_o$.

$$\bar{q}\,(\Delta l b) + \frac{k(\Delta l b)}{\Delta l}\,(T_3 - T_o) = 0$$

or

$$\bar{q}\,\frac{\Delta l}{k} + T_3 - T_o = q^*$$

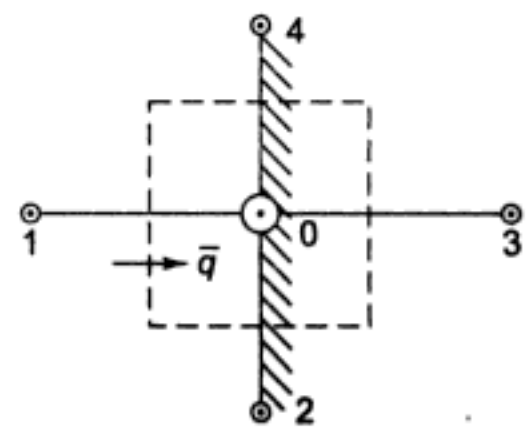


Fig. 2.42 *Nodal point at an isothermal boundary*

For a nodal point at a surface in contact with a fluid (Fig. 2.43), $T_3 = T_\infty$.

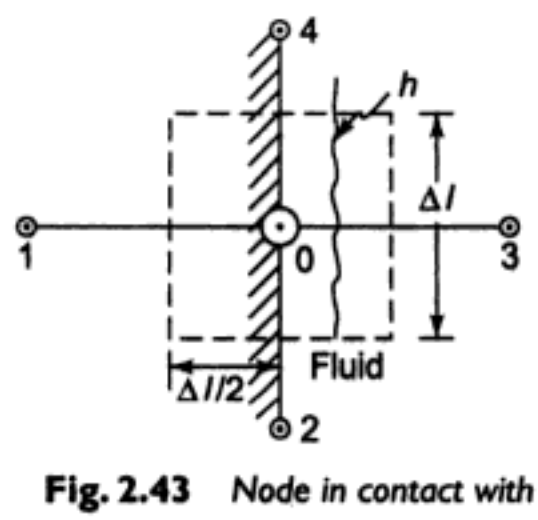


Fig. 2.43 *Node in contact with a fluid*

$$h\Delta l b\,(T_\infty - T_o) + \frac{k\Delta l b}{\Delta l}\,(T_1 - T_o) + \frac{k\Delta l b}{2\Delta l}\,(T_4 - T_o) + \frac{kb}{2}\,(T_2 - T_o) = 0$$

The residual equation is

$$q^* = \frac{h\Delta l}{k}T - \frac{h\Delta l}{k}T_o + T_1 - T_o + \frac{T_4 - T_o}{2} + \frac{T_2 - T_o}{2}$$

$$q^* = \frac{T_2 + T_4}{2} + T_1 + T_\infty \frac{h\Delta l}{k} - T_o\left(2 + \frac{h\Delta l}{k}\right)$$

and so on.

The residual equations for a two-dimensional case may thus be set up for different nodal points. The resulting simultaneous equations may be solved by relaxation method and the steady-state temperature distribution can be obtained.

2.5.4 Electrical Analogy

The governing equations of electrostatics and heat conduction are similar. The potential distribution E in an electrostatic field and the temperature distribution T in conduction are both governed by the Laplace equation

$$\nabla^2 E = 0,\ \nabla^2 T = 0$$

In an analogy between electrical flow and heat conduction, the temperature can be replaced by

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the voltage and vice versa. This analogy between the two fields is utilised in practice by plotting the temperature distribution in complex problems of heat conduction. A special paper which has the capacity to conduct electricity is cut to the shape and size of the body for which temperature distribution is desired. Isothermal boundaries (equipotentials) are obtained by attaching wires to the paper or by painting the paper with a silver paint, which is a very good conductor. The unpainted edges of the paper will be insulated boundaries. The model thus prepared is connected to an e.m.f. source and the equipotential or isothermal lines are progressively plotted using a stylus probe and a null detector connected to a suitable bridge circuit. The heat flow lines are then plotted either by hand, drawing lines orthogonal to the isotherms or by resisting the boundaries and repeating as desired [10]. The analogue field plotter is faster and gives more accurate results than free hand flux plotting.

2.6 THREE-DIMENSIONAL HEAT CONDUCTION

Analytical and numerical methods described above for two-dimensional problems can be extended to three-dimensional (3D) problems. The general equation for the temperature distribution in steady state is

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}=0 \tag{2.158}$$

subject to boundary conditions of the problem. Since T is a function of $(x,\ y,\ z)$, the solution would be of the form

$$T = X(x)\ Y(y)\ Z(z) \tag{2.159}$$

The separation-of-variables technique is applied, which leads Eq. (2.158) to the form

$$\frac{1}{X}\frac{d^2X}{dX^2}=-\frac{1}{Y}\frac{d^2Y}{dy^2}=-\frac{1}{Z}\frac{d^2Z}{dz^2}$$

which can be solved for $X,\ Y, Z$ subject to given boundary conditions.

The numerical method of solving 3D heat conduction problems is exactly the same as that for 2D cases except that a 3D grid should be made now. As shown in Fig. 2.44, in a 3D problem there will be

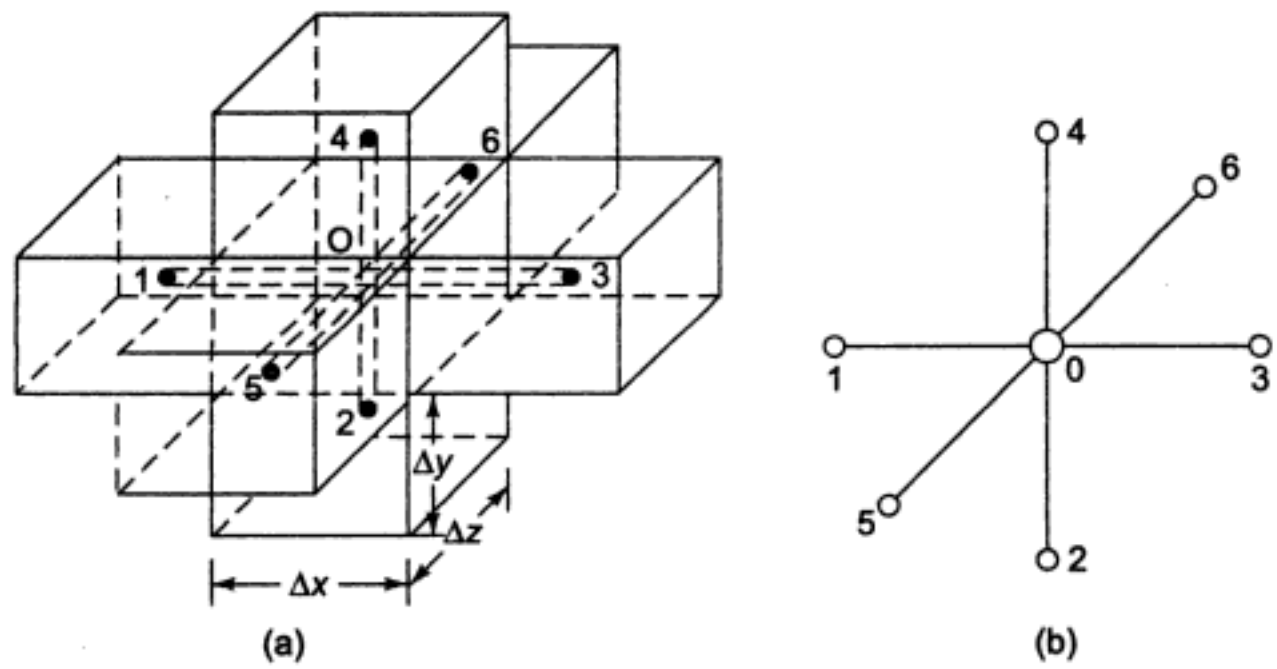


Fig. 2.44 *Relaxation grid for an internal node in a three-dimensional system*

six neighbouring nodes for any internal node. Heat flow by conduction into the nodal point 0 from all the neighbouring six nodes is given by

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$$Q_{1-0} + Q_{2-0} + Q_{3-0} + Q_{4-0} + Q_{5-0} + Q_{6-0} = 0$$

$$k(\Delta y\, \Delta z)\frac{(T_1 - T_o)}{\Delta x} + k(\Delta z\, \Delta x)\frac{(T_2 - T_o)}{\Delta y} + k\Delta\, y\Delta z\frac{(T_3 - T_o)}{\Delta x} + k\Delta z\, \Delta x\frac{(T_4 - T_o)}{\Delta y}$$

$$+ k\Delta\, x\Delta y\frac{(T_5 - T_o)}{z} + k\Delta x\, \Delta y\frac{(T_6 - T_o)}{\Delta z} = 0$$

If $\Delta x = \Delta y = \Delta z = b$,

$$bk\,(T_1 - T_o + T_2 - T_o + T_3 - T_o + T_4 - T_o + T_5 - T_o + T_6 - T_o) = 0$$

$$T_1 + T_2 + T_3 + T_4 + T_5 + T_6 - 6T_o = 0 \qquad (2.160)$$

The residual equations for the boundary nodes can be written by performing energy balances following the approach described earlier for two-dimensional systems.

Three-dimensional conduction is often encountered as in the walls of a furnace if they are very thick. Langmuir solved the problem by means of experimental studies on electrical analogues [9]. For this purpose he determined the conductance of a copper sulphate solution in a container of the same shape as the wall and compared it with the conductance of an equivalent plane wall with constant cross-section. He thus determined a mean area A_m to give the same heat flow as through the given wall, so that

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

where Δx is the thickness of the wall. Sometimes this is expressed in the form

$$Q = kS\,(T_1 - T_2)$$

where $S = A_m/\Delta x$ is the shape factor, which is given as

(a) for one edge of length y, $S = 0.54\, y$

(b) for a corner, $S = 0.15\, \Delta x$

(c) for a cylindrical pipe, $S = 2\pi L \ln \frac{r_2}{r_1}$

(d) for a spherical wall, $S = \frac{4\pi\, r_1\, r_2}{r_2 - r_1}$

Case 1 Let us suppose that all inside dimensions exceed 1/5th of the wall thickness, i.e. $y > \Delta\, x/5$. In this case A_m is obtained by adding to the inside surface area A_1 the quantity $0.54\, \Delta x\, \Sigma y$ to account for the 12 edges and the quantity $0.15\, (\Delta x)^2$ for each of the 8 corners.

$$A_m = A_1 + 0.54\, \Delta x\, (\Sigma y) + 8 \times 0.15\, (\Delta x)^2 \qquad (2.161)$$

Case 2 Let one dimension be less than $\Delta x/5$. The lengths of the four inside edges less than $\Delta x/5$ are neglected to give

$$A_m = A_1 + 0.465\, \Delta x\, \Sigma y + 0.35\, (\Delta x)^2 \qquad (2.162)$$

Case 3 If two inside dimensions are each less than $\Delta x/5$, then

$$A_m = \frac{2.78\, y_{\max}\, \Delta x}{\log_{10}(A_2 / A_1)} \qquad (2.163)$$

where $y_{\max}$ is the largest interior dimensions.

Case 4 If all the there inside dimensions are less than $\Delta x/5$, then

$$A_m = 0.79\, (A_1\, A_2)^{1/2} \qquad (2.164)$$

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Solved Problems

Example 2.1 *Given*: The composite wall having unit length normal to the plane of paper and the equivalent thermal circuit are shown in Fig. Ex. 2.1

$H_A = H_D = 3$ m, $H_B = H_C = 1.5$ m

$L_1 = L_3 = 0.05$ m, $L_2 = 0.1$ m

$k_A = k_D = 50$ W/mK, $k_B = 10$ W/mK, $k_C = 1$ W/mK

$T_1 = 200°C$, $h_1 = 50$ W/m^2 K, $T_2 = 25°C$, $h_2 = 10$ W/m^{2}K.

To find: The rate of heat transfer through the wall.

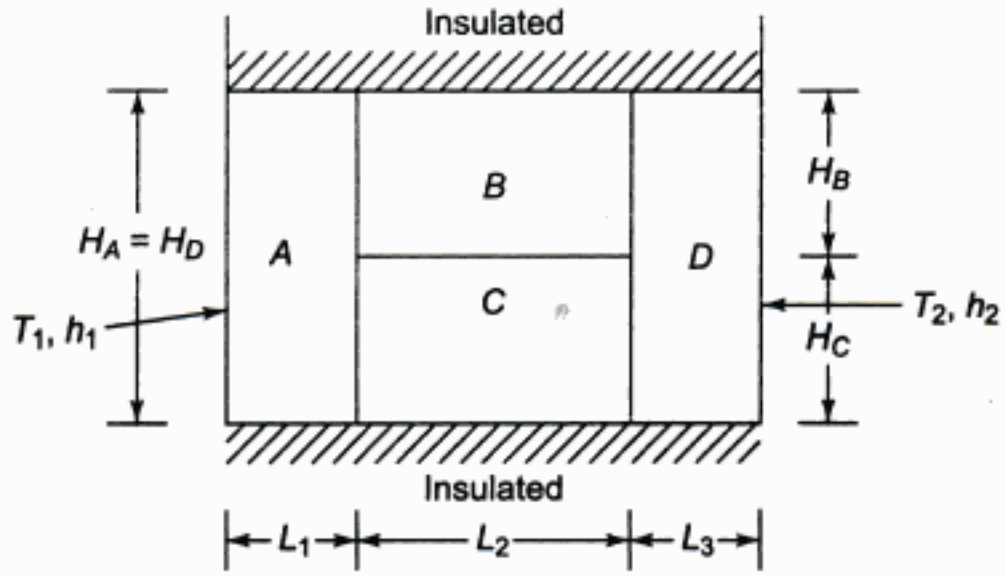


Fig. Ex 2.1

Solution The total thermal resistance

$$R_{tot} = \frac{1}{h_1 A_A} + \frac{L_1}{k_A A_A} + \frac{L_2}{k_B A_B + k_C A_C} + \frac{L_3}{k_D A_D} + \frac{1}{h_2 A_D}$$

$$= \frac{1}{50\times 3} + \frac{0.05}{50\times 3} + \frac{0.1}{10\times 1.5 + 1\times 1.5} + \frac{0.05}{50\times 3} + \frac{1}{10\times 3}$$

$$= 0.0467 \text{ mK/W}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_{tot}} = \frac{200 - 25}{0.0467} = 3745 \text{ W/m} = 3.745 \text{ kW/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

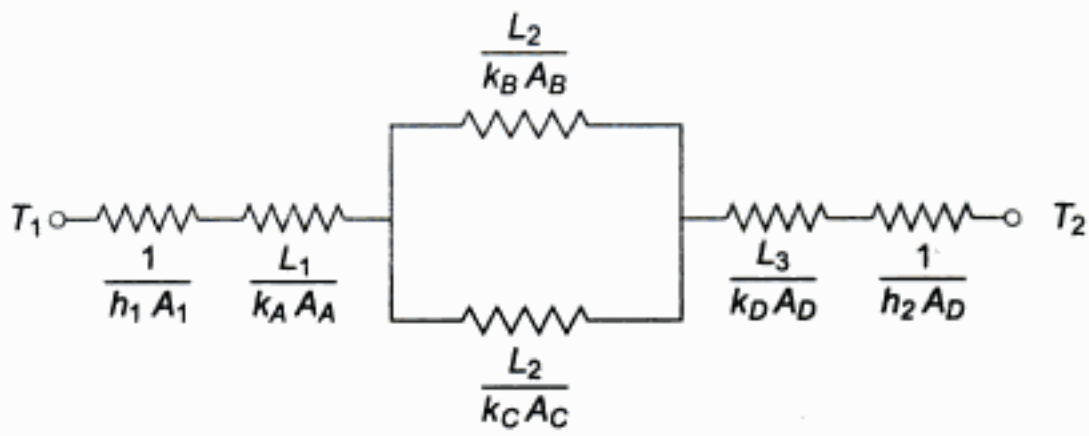


Fig. Ex 2.1(a)

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Example 2.2 *Given:* A hollow cylinder with $r_1 = 30$ mm and $r_2 = 50$ mm, $k = 15$ W/mK, is heated on the inner surface at a rate of 10^5 W/m^2 and dissipates heat by convection from the outer surface to a fluid at 100°C with $h = 400$ W/m^{2}K.
To find: The temperatures of insde and outside surfaces of the cylinder.

Solution Thermal resistances to heat flow are shown in Fig. 2.11. The rate of heat transfer is given by

$$Q = (2\pi r_1 L)q \qquad (1)$$

Also,
$$Q = \frac{(T_1 - T_2)2\pi kL}{\ln(r_2/r_1)} = h2\pi r_2 L\,(T_2 - T_\infty)$$

$$= \frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{\frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi kL} + \frac{1}{2\pi r_2 Lh}} \qquad (2)$$

Equating Eqs (1) and (2),

$$2\pi r_1 Lq = \frac{(T_1 - T_\infty)2\pi L}{\frac{1}{k}\ln\left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right) + \frac{1}{r_2 h}}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = \left[\frac{r_1}{k}\ln\left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right) + \frac{r_1}{r_2 h}\right]q + T_\infty$$

$$= \left[\frac{0.03}{15}\ln\frac{5}{3} + \frac{0.03}{0.05\times 400}\right]\times 10^5 + 100$$

$$= 352.2°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$2\pi r_1 Lq = (T_2 - T_\infty)\, h2\pi r_2 L$$

$$\therefore \quad T_2 = \frac{r_1}{r_2 h}q + T_\infty = \frac{0.03}{0.05\times 400}\times 10^5 + 100$$

$$= 250°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.3 *Given:* A hollow sphere, $r_1 = 4$ cm, $r_2 = 6$ cm, $k = 20$ W/mK, is electrically heated at the inner surface at a rate of 10^5 W/m^2. Heat is dissipated at the outer surface by convection to a fluid at 100°C with $h = 450$ W/m^{2}K.
To find: The inner and outer surface temperatures of the sphere.

Solution The thermal resistance network for the hollow sphere is given in Fig. Ex. 2.3. The heat transfer is

$$Q = 4\pi r_1^2 q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{(r_2 - r_1)/4\pi k r_1 r_2} = \frac{T_2 - T_\infty}{1/(4\pi r_2^2 h)}$$

$$= \frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{(r_2 - r_1)/(4\pi k r_1 r_2) + 1/(4\pi r_2^2 h)}$$

$$4\pi r_1^2 q = \frac{4\pi r_1^2 (T_1 - T_\infty)}{r_1(r_2 - r_1)/kr_2 + (r_1/r_2)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{h}}$$

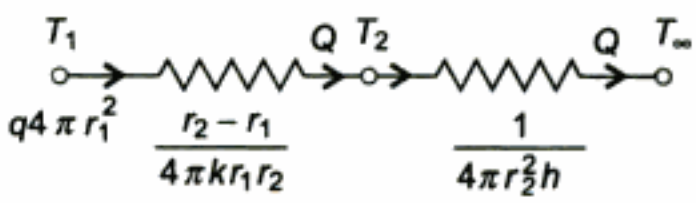


Fig. Ex. 2.3

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$$\therefore \qquad T_1 = \left[\frac{r_1(r_2 - r_1)}{kr_2} + \left(\frac{r_1}{r_2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{h}\right] q + T_\infty$$

$$= \left[\frac{0.04 \times 0.02}{20 \times 0.06} + \left(\frac{4}{6}\right)^2 \frac{1}{450}\right] \times 10^5 + 100$$

$$= [6.67 \times 10^{-4} + 9.88 \times 10^{-4}] \times 10^5 + 100$$

$$= 265.5°\text{C}\ \textit{Ans.}$$

Again, $\qquad 4\pi r_1^2 . q = 4\pi r_2^2 h\,(T_2 - T_\infty)$

$$\therefore \qquad T_2 = \left(\frac{r_1}{r_2}\right)^2 \frac{1}{h} \cdot q + T_\infty$$

$$= \left(\frac{0.04}{0.06}\right)^2 \frac{1}{450} \times 10^5 + 100$$

$$= 198.8°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.4 *Given:* A tube 2 cm o.d. maintained at uniform temperature of T_i is covered with insulation (k = 0.20 W/mK) to reduce heat loss to the ambient air at T_∞ with h_a = 15 W/m^{2}K.
To find: (*i*) The critical thickness r_c of insulation (*ii*) the ratio of heat loss from the tube with insulation to that without insulation, (*a*) if the thickness of insulation is equal to r_c, (*b*) if the thickness of insulation is (r_c + 2) cm.

Solution Critical radius of insulation $r_c = k/h_a$ or, $r_c = \dfrac{0.20 \times 100}{15} = 1.33$ cm.

Critical thickness of insulation = 1.33 – 1 = 0.33 cm *Ans.*
Heat loss from the tube with insulation is

$$Q_{\text{with}} = \frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{\dfrac{1}{2\pi kL}\ln\dfrac{r_o}{r_i} + \dfrac{1}{2\pi r_o L h_a}} = \frac{2\pi r_o L h (T_1 - T_\infty)}{1 + \dfrac{r_o h_a}{k}\ln\dfrac{r_o}{r_i}}$$

Heat loss from the tube without insulation

$$Q_{\text{without}} = 2\pi r_i L h_a\,(T_1 - T_\infty)$$

$\therefore$ The ratio

$$\frac{Q_{\text{with}}}{Q_{\text{without}}} = \frac{r_o}{r_i}\left[1 + \frac{r_o h_a}{k}\ln\frac{r_o}{r_i}\right]^{-1} \qquad \text{(a)}$$

(a) If $\qquad r_o = r_c = \dfrac{k}{h_a}$

$$\frac{Q_{\text{with}}}{Q_{\text{without}}} = \frac{r_o}{r_i}\left[1 + \ln\frac{r_o}{r_i}\right]^{-1} \qquad \text{(b)}$$

$$= \frac{1.33}{1.0}[1 + \ln 1.33]^{-1} = 1.035 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Thus, heat loss is increased by 3.5% in spite of the fact that there is an insulation of thickness 0.33 cm.
(b) If another layer of 2 cm thickness of insulation is added, r_o = 1.33 + 2 = 3.33 cm. Substituting in Eq. (a),

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$$\frac{Q_{\text{with}}}{Q_{\text{without}}} = \frac{3.33}{1.00}\left[1+\frac{0.0333\times15}{0.20}\ln\frac{3.33}{1.0}\right]^{-1} = 0.83$$

Insulation of 2.33 cm thickness reduces the heat loss by 17%. *Ans.*

Example 2.5 *Given:* A 1 mm dia electric wire is covered with 2 mm thick layer of insulation (k = 0.5 W/mK). Air surrounding the wire is at 25°C and h = 25 W/m²K. The wire temperature is 100°C.
To find: (*i*) The rate of heat dissipation from the wire per unit length with and without insulation, (*ii*) The critical radius of insulation, (*iii*) The maximum value of heat dissipation.

Solution Heat transfer rate per unit length with the insulation.

$$\frac{Q}{l} = \frac{T_w - T_\infty}{\frac{1}{2\pi k}\ln\frac{r_o}{r_i}+\frac{1}{2\pi r_o h_a}}$$

$$= \frac{100-25}{\frac{\ln(2.5/1.5)}{2\pi\times0.5}+\frac{1}{2\pi\times0.025\times10}} = 10.90 \text{ W/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Heat transfer rate without insulation

$$\frac{Q}{l} = 2\pi r_0 h_a (T_w - T_\infty)$$

$$= 2\pi\times0.5\times10^{-3}\times10(100-25)$$

$$= 2.36 \text{ W/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The addition of insulation increases the rate of heat transfer from the wire by a factor of 10.9/2.36 or 4.62 *Ans.* (i)

Critical radius of insulation, $r_c = k/h_a$

$$\therefore \qquad r_c = \frac{0.5}{10} = 0.05 \text{ m} = 50 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Peak heat flux per unit length,

$$\frac{Q}{l} = \frac{100-25}{\frac{1}{2\pi\times0.5}\ln(50/0.5)+\frac{1}{2\pi(50\times10^{-3})\times10}}$$

$$= 42.07 \text{ W/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.6 *Given:* A 1 mm dia aluminium (k = 204 W/mK) wire can carry a current till wire temperature does not exceed T_{max} = 200°C when suspended in air at 25°C where h = 10 W/m²K. For the wire, the specific resistance is 0.037 ohm/m.
To find: The maximum current the wire can carry.

Solution Heat conducted to the outside surface of the wire = Heat convected to the air,

$$-k\frac{dT}{dr} = h(T_w - T_\infty) \qquad (1)$$

where T_w is the outside surface temperature of the wire. At the centre, T is maximum and $\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right) = 0$.

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From the conduction equation,

$$\frac{l}{r}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r\frac{dT}{dr}\right)+\frac{q_G}{k}=0$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{dT}{dr}=-\frac{q_G r}{2k}+\frac{C_1}{r} \tag{2}$$

$$T=-\frac{q_G r^2}{4k}+C_1\ln r+C_2 \tag{3}$$

At $r=r_0$, $\frac{dT}{dr}=\infty$, which is impossible

At $r=r_o$, $\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_o}=\frac{-q_G r_o}{2K}+\frac{C_1}{r_o}$ (4)

Also, $q_G\pi r_o^2 L=-k2\pi r_o L\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_o}$

$$\therefore \quad \left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_o}=-\frac{q_G r_o}{2k} \tag{5}$$

From Eqs (4) and (5), $C_1=0$
Equation (3) reduces to

$$T=-\frac{q_G r^2}{4k}+C_2 \tag{6}$$

At $r=r_o$, $T=T_w$

Substituting C_2 in Eq. (6)

$$T=-\frac{q_G r^2}{4k}+\frac{q_G r_o^2}{4k}+T_w$$

$$\therefore \quad T=\frac{q_G r_o^2}{4k}\left(1-\frac{r^2}{r_o^2}\right)+T_w \tag{7}$$

From Eq. (1), $\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_o}=-\frac{h(T_w-T_\infty)}{k}=-\frac{q_G r_o}{2k}$

$$\therefore \quad T_w=\frac{q_G r_o}{2k}+T_\infty$$

Substituting T_w in Eq. (7), we get the temperature distribution,

$$T=\frac{q_{Gr_o^2}}{4k}\left(1-\frac{r^2}{r_o^2}\right)+\frac{q_G r_o}{2h}+T_\infty \tag{8}$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{T-T_\infty}{T_\infty}=\frac{q_G r_o}{2hT_\infty}\left(1+\frac{hr_o}{2k}+\frac{hr^2}{2r_o^2 k}\right)$$

Putting $r=0$, $T=T_{\max}$

$$\therefore \quad T_{\max}=T_\infty+\frac{q_G r_o}{2h}\left(1+\frac{hr_o}{2k}\right)$$

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Now, $$q_G = \frac{I^2 R}{V} = \frac{I^2 R}{\pi r_o^2 L}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{\max} = T_\infty + \frac{I^2}{2\pi r_o h}\frac{R}{L}\left(1+\frac{hr_o}{2k}\right)$$

$$200 = 25 + \frac{I^2}{2\pi(0.5\times10^{-3})\times10}\times0.037\times\left(1+\frac{10\times0.5\times10^{-3}}{2\times204}\right)$$

$$\therefore \quad I_{\max} = 12.19 \text{ amperes} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.7 The air inside a chamber at $T_{\infty, i}$ = 50°C is heated convectively with h_i = 20 W/m² K by a 200-mm thick wall having a thermal conductivity of 4 W/m K and a uniform heat generation of 1000 W/m³. To prevent any heat, generated within the wall, from being lost to the outside of the chamber at $T_{\infty, 0}$ = 25°C with h_o = 5 W/m² K, a very thin electrical strip heater is placed on the outer wall to provide a uniform heat flux q_o''.

(a) Sketch the temperature distribution in the wall on *T–x* coordinates for the condition where no heat generated within the wall is lost to the outside chamber. Identify $T_{\infty,i}$ and $T_{\infty,0}$ on the plot. (b) What are the temperatures at the wall boundaries T_o and T_L (at $x = 0$ and $x = L$) for the conditions of Part (a).

(c) Determine the value of q_o'' that must be supplied by the strip heater so that all heat generated within the wall is transferred to the inside of the chamber for the temperature T_o as computed in Part (b). (d) If he heat generated in the wall were switched off while the heat flux to the strip heater remains constant, what would be the steady-state temperature T_o of the outer wall surface?

Solution

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{q_G}{k}x + C_1 \qquad (1)$$

$$T = -\frac{q_G}{2k}x^2 + C_1 x + C_2 \qquad (2)$$

At $x = 0, T = T_o, dT/dx = 0$

from Eq. (1), $C_1 = 0$

$$T = -\frac{q_G}{2k}x^2 + C_2$$

At $x = L, T = T_L$

$$T_L = -\frac{q_G}{2k}L^2 + C_2 \text{ or } C_2 = T_L + \frac{q_G L^2}{2k}$$

The temperature distribution in the wall is thus

$$T = \frac{q_G}{2k}(L^2 - x^2) + T_L \qquad (3)$$

The temperature profile is shown in Fig. Ex. 2.7(a).

At $x = 0$, from Eq. (3),

$$T = T_o = T_{\max} = \frac{q_G}{2k}L^2 + T_L$$

$$= \frac{1000\times(0.2)^2}{2\times4} + T_L \qquad (4)$$

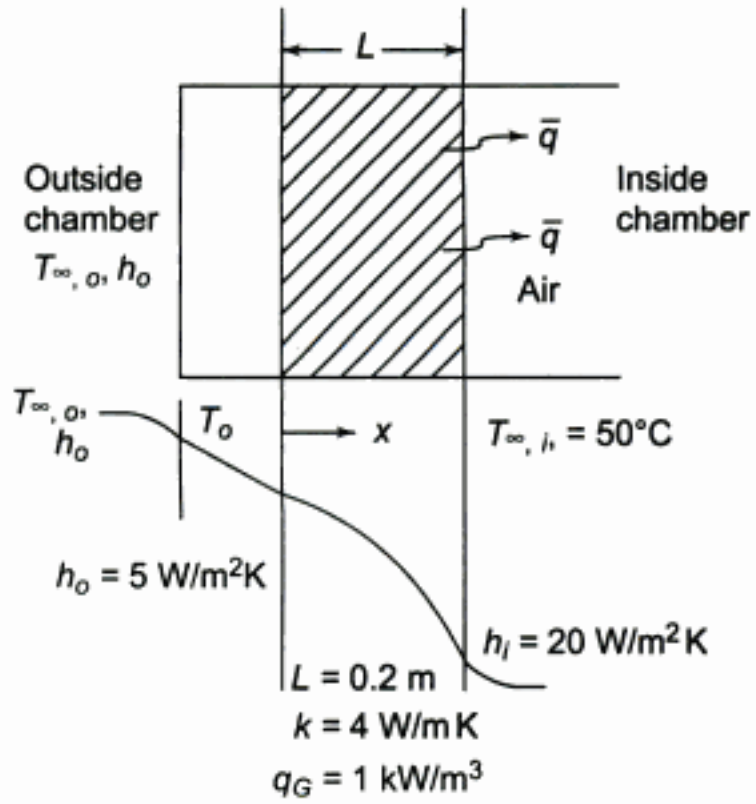


Fig. Ex. 2.7(a)

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Again, at the inside wall surface, from Eq. (1),

$$h_i (T_L - T_{\infty, i}) = -k \left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{x=L} = \frac{q_G L}{k} k$$

$$T_L - T_{\infty, i} = \frac{q_G L}{h_i} = \frac{1000 \times 0.2}{20} = 10°C$$

$$T_L = 50 + 10 = 60°C \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

From Eq. (4), $T_o = T_{max} = 5 + 60 = 65°C$ *Ans.* (b)

(c) $q_o = h_o (T_o - T_{\infty, o}) = 5(65 - 25)$

$= 200 \text{ W/m}^2$ *Ans.* (c)

The heat flow path is shown in Fig. Ex. 2.7(b).

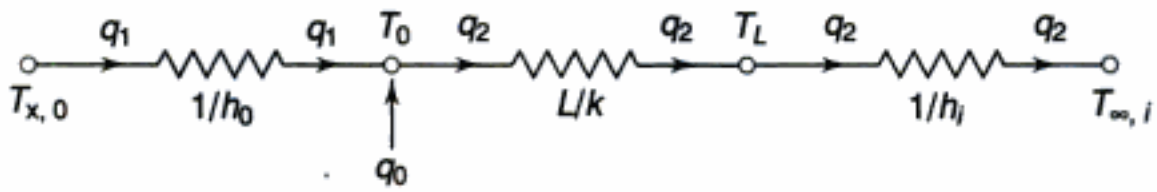


Fig. *Ex. 2.7(b)*

Heat transferred by the strip heater

$$q_o = q_1 + q_2 = 200 \text{ W/m}^2 = \frac{T_o - T_{\infty, o}}{1/h_o} + \frac{T_o - T_{\infty, i}}{(L/k + 1/h_i)}$$

$$200 = \frac{T_o - 25}{1/5} + \frac{T_o - 50}{(0.2/4 + 1/20)}$$

$$= 5T_o - 125 + \frac{20T_o - 1000}{1+1} = 15T_o - 625$$

or $T_o = 55°C$ *Ans.* (d)

Example 2.8 In a cylindrical fuel rod of a nuclear reactor heat is generated internally according to the equation

$$q_G = q_o \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{r_o}\right)^2\right]$$

where q_G is the local rate of heat generation per unit volume at radius r, r_o is the outside radius, and q_o is the rate of heat generation per unit volume at the centre line. Calculate the temperature drop from the centre line to the surface for a 2.5 cm outer diameter rod having k = 25 W/m K, if the rate of heat removal from the surface is 1650 kW/m^2.

Solution In cylindrical coordinates, the radial variation of temperature at steady state when there is heat generation is given by (Fig. Ex. 2.8)

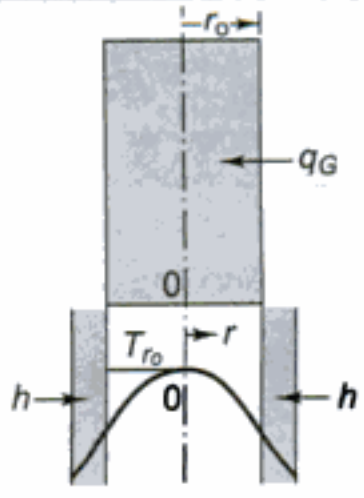


Fig. *Ex. 2.8*

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r\frac{dT}{dr}\right) = -\frac{q_G}{k}$$

or $$\frac{d}{dr}\left(r\frac{dT}{dr}\right) = -\frac{q_G r}{k} = -q_o \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{r_o^2}\right)\frac{r}{k}$$

or $$r\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{q_o}{k}\left(\frac{r^2}{2} - \frac{r^4}{4r_o^2}\right) + C_1$$

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or
$$k\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{q_o r}{2}\left(1-\frac{r^2}{2r_o^2}\right)+\frac{C_1}{r} \tag{1}$$

At $r = 0, \left(k\frac{dT}{dr}\right)$ cannot be infinite, $\therefore C_1 = 0$

$$k\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{q_o r}{2}\left(1-\frac{r^2}{2r_o^2}\right)$$

Heat transferred from the rod

$$q_F = -k\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_o} = \frac{q_o r_o}{2}\left(1-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{q_o r_o}{4}$$

Given: $q_F = 1650\ \text{kW/m}^2$, $r_o = 1.25\ \text{cm}$

$$1650 = \frac{q_o \times 1.25\times 10^{-2}}{4}$$

$$q_o = \frac{1650\times 100\times 16}{5} = 528\times 10^3\ \text{kW/m}^3$$

This is the volumetric heat generation at the centre line of the rod. Now,

$$\frac{dT}{dr} = -\frac{q_o r}{2k}\left(1-\frac{r^2}{2r_o^2}\right)$$

$$T = -\frac{q_o}{2k}\left(\frac{r^2}{2}-\frac{r^4}{8r_o^2}\right)+C_2$$

At, $r = 0$, $T = T_c$, the centre line temperature.

$$C_2 = T_c$$

$$T = -\frac{q_o}{2k}\left(\frac{r^2}{2}-\frac{r^4}{8r_o^2}\right)+T_c$$

At, $r = r_o$, the temperature drop,

$$T_c - T_{r_o} = \frac{q_o r_o^2}{2k}\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{8}\right) = \frac{3}{16}\frac{q_o r_o^2}{k}$$

$$= \frac{3}{16}\times\frac{528\times 10^6(\text{W/m}^3)\times(1.25)^2\times 10^{-4}\text{m}^2}{25\ \text{W/mK}}$$

$$= 618.7°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.9 *Given:* Three 10 mm dia rods *A*, *B* and *C* protrude from a steam bath at 100°C to a length of 25 cm into an atmosphere at 20°C. The temperatures at the other ends are $T_A = 26.76°\text{C}$, $T_B = 32°\text{C}$ and $T_C = 36.93°\text{C}$. *To find:* The thermal conductivities of the rods *A*, *B* and *C*, if $h = 23\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K}$ in each case.

Solution Neglecting the heat loss from the tips, since the rods are thin and long,

$$A/P = \frac{\pi}{4}d^2/\pi d = \frac{d}{4} = \frac{10\,\text{mm}}{4} = 2.5\ \text{mm}.$$

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As recommended by Kreith and Bohn [2], the corrected length $L_c = L + A/P = 250 + 2.5 = 250$ mm. The temperature difference at the tip is given by Eq. (2.96),

$$\theta_l = T_l - T_\infty = \frac{\theta_0}{\cosh ml} = \frac{T_o - T_\infty}{\cosh ml}$$

For rod A,
$$26.76 - 20 = \frac{100-20}{\cosh ml}$$

$$\therefore \quad \cosh ml = \frac{80}{6.76} = 11.8$$

$$ml = 3.16$$

$$m = \frac{3.16}{0.25} = 12.64 \text{ m}^{-1} = \left(\frac{hp}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{h \times \pi d}{k\frac{\pi}{4}d^2} = (12.64)^2$$

$$\therefore \quad k_A = \frac{23 \times 4}{12.64 \times 12.64 \times 0.01} = 57.7 \text{ W/mK} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For rod B,

$$32 - 20 = \frac{100-20}{\cosh ml}$$

$$\cosh ml = \frac{80}{12} = 6.67$$

$$ml = 2.6$$

$$m = 10.4 = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$k_B = \frac{23 \times 4}{(10.4)^2 \times 0.04} = 88.6 \text{ W/mK} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For rod C,

$$36.93 - 20 = \frac{100-20}{\cosh ml}$$

$$\cosh ml = \frac{80}{16.93} = 4.73$$

$$ml = 2.23$$

$$m = 8.92 = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$k_c = \frac{23 \times 4}{(8.92)^2 \times 0.01} = 115.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.10 A 50 mm × 50 mm iron bar 0.4 m long is connected to the walls of two heated reservoirs, each at 120°C. The ambient air temperature is 35°C and the convective heat transfer coefficient is 17.4 W/m^2 K. Calculate the rate of heat loss from the bar and the temperature of the bar midway between the reservoirs. The thermal conductivity of iron is 52 W/mK.

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Solution Because of symmetry, we would consider half-length of the bar (Fig. Ex. 2.10).

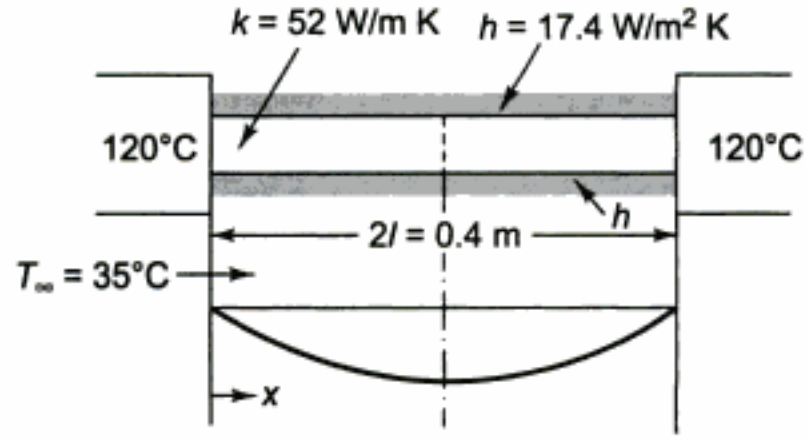


Fig. Ex. 2.10

$$P = 2(a + b) = 2(50 + 50) = 200 \text{ mm} = 0.2 \text{ m}$$

$$A = 50 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm} = 2500 \text{ mm}^2 \times 10^{-6}$$
$$= 25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$$

Here, $$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{17.4 \times 0.2}{52 \times 25 \times 10^{-4}}\right)^{1/2} = 5.174 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$ml = 5.174 \times 0.2 = 1.0348$$

$$\tanh ml = 0.776$$

$$\frac{Q_o}{2} = mkA\theta_o \tanh ml$$

$$= 5.174 \times 52 \times 0.0025 \times (120 - 35) \times 0.776$$

$$= 44.37 \text{ W}$$

Rate of heat loss from the bar is

$$Q_o = 88.74 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\theta_1 = \frac{\theta_o}{\cosh ml} = \frac{85}{1.58} = 53.8 = T_1 - T_\infty$$

Mid-temperature is 88.8°C. *Ans.*

Example 2.11 Fins, 12 in number, having k = 75 W/m K and 0.75 mm thickness protrude 25 mm from a cylindrical surface of 50 mm diameter and 1 m length placed in an atmosphere of 40°C. If the cylindrical surface is maintained at 150°C and the heat transfer coefficient is 23 W/m² K, calculate (a) the rate of heat transfer, (b) the percentage increase in heat transfer due to fins, (c) the temperature at the centre of fins and (d) the fin efficiency and the fin effectiveness.

Solution The perimeter (Fig. Ex. 2.11) of one fin

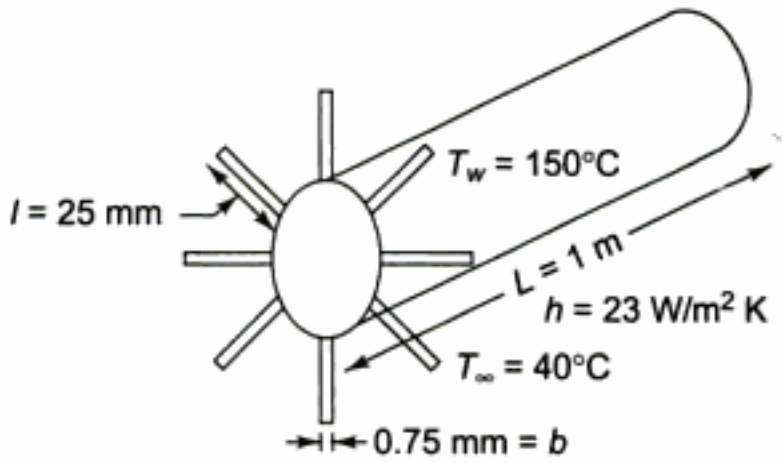


Fig. Ex. 2.11

$$P = 2(L + b) \cong 2 \text{ m}$$

$$A = bL = 0.75 \times 10^{-3} \times 1$$
$$= 0.00075 \text{ m}^2$$

$$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{23 \times 2}{0.00075 \times 75}\right)^{1/2} = 28.6 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$ml = 28.6 \times 0.025 = 0.715$$

$$\tanh ml = \tanh 0.715 = 0.61$$

Heat transfer from one fin,

$$Q_o = mkA\theta_o \tanh ml$$
$$= 28.6 \times 75 \times 0.00075 \times (150 - 40) \times 0.61$$
$$= 108 \text{ W}$$

Heat transfer from 12 fins

$$Q = 108 \times 12 = 1296 \text{ W}$$

Heat transfer from unfinned portion of the surface

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$$Q' = hA\theta_o$$
$$= 23[(\pi \times 0.05 \times l) - (12 \times 0.00075 \times l)] \times (150 - 40)$$
$$= 23 \times 0.148 \times 110 = 374.44 \text{ W}$$

Total heat transfer from the cylindrical surface

$$Q_t = 1296 + 374.4 = 1670.4 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

If the cylinder were without fins, the heat transfer would have been

$$Q = 23 \times (\pi \times 0.05 \times l) \times 110$$
$$= 397.4 \text{ W}$$

Increase in heat transfer due to fins

$$= \frac{1670.4 - 397.4}{397.4} \times 100 = 320.3\% \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_o} = \frac{\cosh m(l - x)}{\cosh ml}$$

$$\frac{T_c - 40}{150 - 40} = \frac{\cosh (28.6 \times 0.0125)}{\cosh 0.715} = \frac{1.062}{1.257} = 0.845$$

Centre temperature of fins, $T_c = 133°\text{C}$ *Ans.* (c)

If tip loss is neglected

$$\eta_{\text{fin}} = \frac{\tanh ml}{ml} = \frac{0.61}{0.715} = 0.853 \text{ or, } 85.3\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\text{Fin effectiveness } \varepsilon = \frac{1670.4}{397.4} = 4.2 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (d)}$$

Example 2.12 A stainless steel fin (k = 20 W/m K) having a diameter of 20 mm and a length of 0.1 m is attached to a wall at 300°C. The ambient temperature is 50°C and the heat transfer coefficient is 10 W/m^2 K. The fin tip is insulated. Determine (a) the rate of heat dissipation from the fin, (b) the temperature at the fin tip, (c) the rate of heat transfer from the wall area covered by the fin if the fin was not used and (d) the heat transfer rate from the same fin geometry if the stainless steel fin is replaced by a fictitious fin with infinite thermal conductivity.

Solution

(a) The heat transfer rate from the fin

$$Q_o = (hPkA)^{1/2}\, \theta_o \tanh ml$$

where
$$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{10 \times \pi \times 0.02}{20 \times \pi \times (0.01)^2}\right)^{1/2} = 10 \text{ m}^{-1}$$
$$ml = 10 \times 0.1 = 1$$
$$Q_o = [10 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times 20 \times \pi \times (0.01)^2]^{1/2} (300 - 50) \tanh (1)$$
$$= 0.06283 \times 250 \times \tanh (1) = 11.96 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

(b) The fin tip temperature is given by

$$\theta_1 = \frac{\theta_o}{\cosh ml} = \frac{300 - 50}{\cosh (1)} = \frac{250}{1.543} = 162°\text{C}$$
$$T_1 = 162 + 50 = 212°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

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(c) $$Q = hA(T_o - T_\infty) = 10 \times \pi \times (0.01)^2 (300 - 50)$$
$$= 0.785 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

The presence of fin increases heat dissipation 11.96/0.785 or 15.24 times

(d) $$Q_{\text{ideal}} = h A_s (T_o - T_\infty)$$
$$= 10\pi (0.02)(0.1)(300 - 50)$$
$$= 15.71 \text{ W}$$

The stainless steel fin dissipates

$$\frac{15.71 - 11.96}{15.71} = 0.24$$

or 24% less heat than the ideal fin of infinite thermal conductivity.

Example 2.13 One end of a long rod is inserted into a furnace while the other projects into ambient air. Under steady state the temperature of the rod is measured at two points 75 mm apart and found to be 125°C and 88.5°C, respectively, while the ambient temperature is 20°C. If the rod is 25 mm in diameter and h is 23.36 W/m^2 K, find the thermal conductivity of the rod material.

Solution The temperature distribution is given by

$$\theta = C_1 e^{-mx} + C_2 e^{mx}$$

where $$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

At $x = 0$, $\theta = \theta_o$, and at $x = \infty$, $\theta = 0$

$\therefore$ $C_2 = 0$

$$\theta = C_1 e^{-mx}$$

Let l be the distance between the two points where the temperatures are measured. Then,

$$\theta_1 = \theta_o e^{-mx_1}$$

and $$\theta_2 = \theta_o e^{-m(x_1 + l)}$$

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2} = \frac{e^{-mx_1}}{e^{-mx_1} e^{-ml}} = e^{ml}$$

or $$\frac{125 - 20}{88.5 - 20} = \frac{105}{68.5} = 1.533 = e^{ml}$$

$$ml = 0.427$$

or $$m = \frac{0.427}{0.075} = 5.696 = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{h\pi d}{k\frac{\pi}{4}d^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= 2\left(\frac{h}{kd}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$m^2 = 4 \times \frac{h}{kd} = 32.44$$

$$k = \frac{4 \times 23.36}{0.025 \times 32.44} = 115.2 \text{ W/mK} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

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Example 2.14 An electric current of 34,000 A flows along a flat steel plate 12.5 mm thick and 100 mm wide. The temperature of one surface of the plate is 82°C and that of the other is 95°C. Find the temperature distribution across the plate, and the value and position of the maximum temperature. Also calculate the total amount of heat generated per metre length of the plate and the flow of heat from each surface of the plate. The end effects along the short sides of the plate may be neglected. Given for steel: $\rho = 12 \times 10^{-6}\ \Omega$ cm and $k = 52.4$ W/m K.

Solution The temperature distribution in the plate (Fig. Ex. 2.14) is obtained from

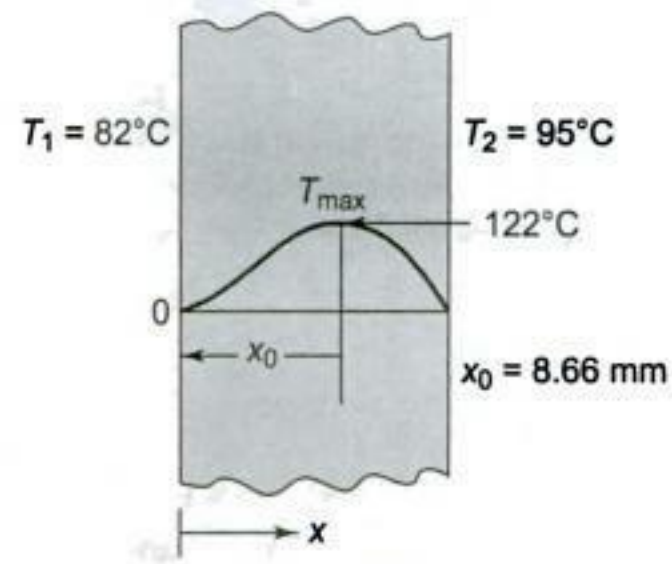


Fig. Ex. 2.14

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{q_G x}{k} + C_1 \qquad (1)$$

$$T = -\frac{q_G x^2}{2k} + C_1 x + C_2 \qquad (2)$$

Current density $$i = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{34,000}{(12.5 \times 100) \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= 2.72 \times 10^7\ \text{A/m}^2$$

$$q_G = i^2 \rho = (2.72)^2 \times 10^{14} \times 12 \times 10^{-8}$$

$$= 88.78 \times 10^6\ \text{W/m}^3$$

From Eq. (2), at $x = 0$, $T = 82°C$

$$C_2 = 82°C$$

At $x = 12.5 \times 10^{-3}$ m, $T = 95°C$

From Eq. (1),

$$95 = -\frac{88.78 \times 10^6 \times (12.5)^2 \times 10^{-6}}{2 \times 52.4} + C_1 (12.5 \times 10^{-3}) + 82$$

$$= -50.37 + C_1 (12.5 \times 10^{-3})$$

$$C_1 = 11629.2\ \text{(K/m)}$$

$$T = -\frac{88.78 \times 10^6}{2 \times 52.4} x^2 + 11629.2x + 82$$

$$= -0.847 \times 10^6 x^2 + 11629.2x + 82 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

It is the temperature distribution across the plate. For the maximum temperature,

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -1.694 \times 10^6 x + 11629.2 = 0$$

$$x = \frac{11629.2}{1.694 \times 10^6} = 0.0686\ \text{m} = 6.86\ \text{mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$T_{max} = -0.847 \times 10^6 \times (0.00686)^2 + 11629.2 \times 0.00686 + 82$$

$$= -39.86 + 79.78 + 82 = 121.92°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Q_1 = Heat transfer from the left side

$$= -kA \left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{x=0}$$

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$$Q_1/A = 52.4 \times 11629.2 = 609370 \text{ W/m}^2 = 609.37 \text{ kW/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q_r/A = -k\left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{x=1} = 88.78 \times 10^6 \times 12.5 \times 10^{-3} + 11629.2 \times 52.4$$

$$Q_r/A = -1109.75 \times 10^3 + 609370$$

$$= -500{,}380 \text{ W/m}^2 = -500.38 \text{ kW/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.15 Two large steel plates at temperatures of 120°C and 80°C are separated by a steel rod 300 mm long and 25 mm in diameter. The rod is welded to each plate. The space between the plates is filled with insulation, which also insulates the circumference of the rod. Because of a voltage difference between the two plates, current flows through the rod, dissipating electrical energy at a rate of 150 W. Find out the maximum temperature in the rod and the heat flux. Take k for the rod as 47 W/m K.

Solution

$$q_G = \frac{150\ W}{(\pi/4) \times (0.025)^2 \times 0.3} = 1018.59 \text{ kW/m}^3$$

The temperature distribution is

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{q_G}{k}x + C_1$$

$$T = -\frac{q_G}{2k}x^2 + C_1 x + C_2$$

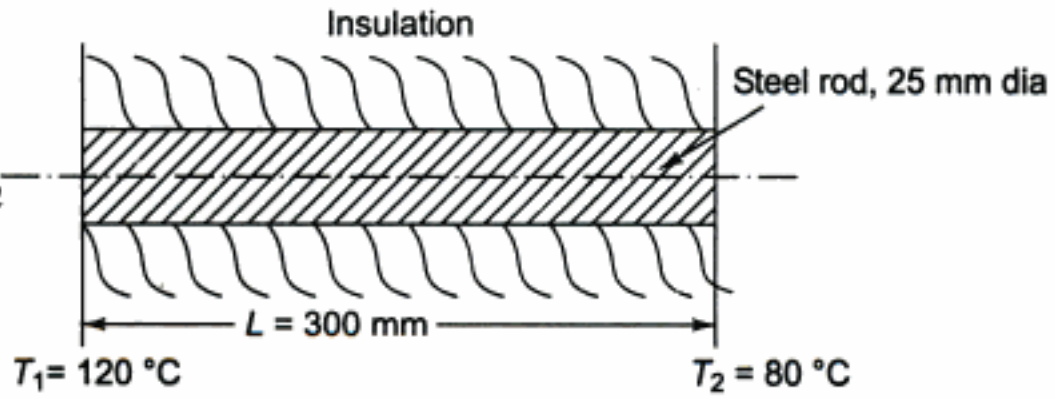


Fig. Ex.2.15

With reference to Fig. Ex. 2.15,

At $x = 0, T = T_1$

At $x = l, T = T_2$

$$C_2 = T_1 = 120°\text{C}$$

$$80 = -\frac{1018590}{2 \times 47} \times (0.3)^2 + C_1 \times 0.3 + 120$$

$$C_1 = 3117.48 \text{ K/m}$$

$$T = -10836.06\,x^2 + 3117.48\,x + 120$$

For maximum temperature,

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -21672.12x + 3117.48 = 0$$

$$x = 0.1438 \text{ m or, } 14.38 \text{ cm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$T_{max} = -224.07 + 448.29 + 120 = 344.22°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$(Q_1)_{x=0} = -47 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.025)^2 \times 3117.48$$

$$= -71.92 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$(Q_2)_{x=1} = -47 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.025)^2 \times (-21672.12 \times 0.3 + 3117.48)$$

$$= 78.08 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q_{total} = 78.08 + 71.92 = 150 \text{ W}$$

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Example 2.16 A bar of square cross-section connects two metallic structures. One structure is maintained at a temperature 200°C and the other is maintained at 50°C. The bar, 20 mm × 20 mm, is 100 mm long and is made of mild steel (k = 0.06 kW/m K). The surroundings are at 20°C and the heat transfer coefficient between the bar and the surroundings is 0.01 kW/m^2 K.

Derive an equation for the temperature distribution along the bar and hence calculate the total heat flow rate from the bar to the surroundings.

Solution From Fig. Ex. 2.16,

$$Q_1 = -kA\,\frac{dT}{dx}$$

$$Q_2 = Q_1 + \frac{dQ_1}{dx}\,dx$$

$$Q_1 - Q_2 = -\frac{d}{dx}\left(-kA\frac{dT}{dx}\right)dx = kA\,\frac{d^2T}{dx^2}\,dx$$

$$= hP\,dx\,(T - T_\infty)$$

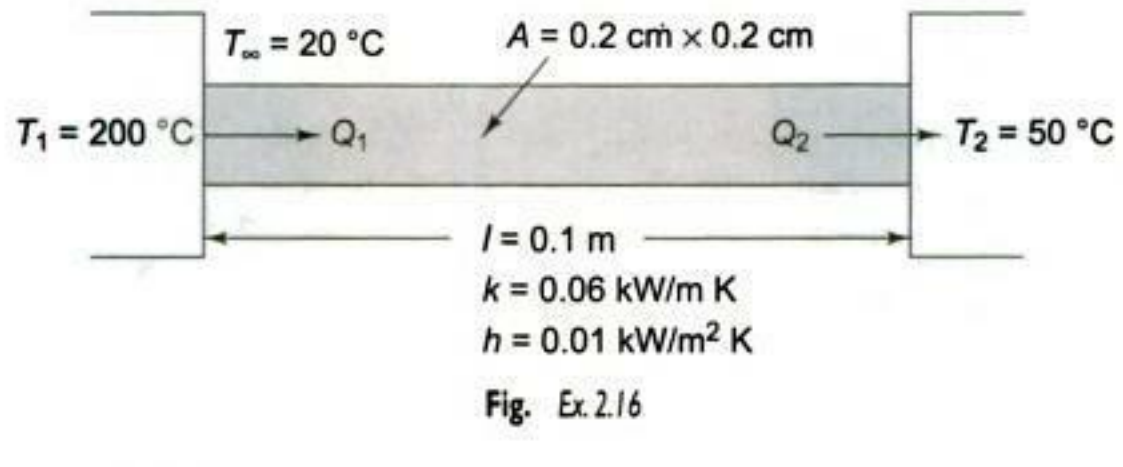


Fig. Ex. 2.16

Letting $\theta = T - T_\infty$,

$$\frac{d^2\theta}{dx^2} - \frac{hP}{kA}\,\theta = 0$$

or $(D^2 - m^2)\,\theta = 0$, where $m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$

The general solution is

$$\theta = C_1\,e^{mx} + C_2\,e^{-mx} \qquad (1)$$

At $x = 0$, $\theta = \theta_1 = C_1 + C_2 = 180°C$ (2)

At $x = 1$, $\theta = \theta_2 = C_1\,e^{ml} + C_2\,e^{-ml} = 30°C$ (3)

$$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{0.01 \times 4 \times 0.02}{0.06 \times 0.02 \times 0.02}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{4}{0.12}\right)^{1/2}$$

$ml = 0.577$, $e^{ml} = 1.78$, $\quad e^{-ml} = 0.561 = 5.77\ \text{m}^{-1}$

$30 = C_1 \times 1.78 + C_2 \times 0.561$

$3.173\,C_1 + C_2 = 53.476$

From Eq. (2) $\quad C_1 + C_2 = 180.00$

On subtraction, $\quad 2.173\,C_1 = -126.524$

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$$C_1 = -58.22$$

From Eq. (2), $C_2 = 238.22$

The temperature distribution is

$$\theta = -58.22\, e^{5.77x} + 238.22\, e^{-5.77x}$$

$$Q_1 = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=0} = -kA\,(-58.22 \times 5.77\, e^{5.77x} - 238.22 \times 5.77\, e^{-5.77x})_{x=0}$$

$$= 0.06 \times 4 \times 10^{-4}\,(335.93 + 1374.53)$$

$$= 0.0410 \text{ kW} = 41.0 \text{ W}$$

$$Q_2 = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=1} = -kA\,(-58.22 \times 5.77 \times 1.78 - 238.22 \times 5.77 \times 0.561)$$

$$= 0.06 \times 4 \times 10^{-4}\,(598 + 771.5)$$

$$= 0.0328 \text{ kW} = 32.8 \text{ W}$$

Heat flow rate from the bar to the surroundings

$$= Q_1 - Q_2 = 41.0 - 32.8 = 8.2 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.17 The cooling system of an electronic package has to dissipate 0.153 kW from the surface of an aluminium plate 100 mm × 150 mm. It is proposed to use eight fins, each 150 mm long and 1 mm thick. The temperature difference between the plate and the surroundings is 50 K, the thermal conductivity of plate and fins is 0.15 kW/m K and the heat transfer coefficient is 0.04 kW/m^2 K. Calculate the height of fins required.

Solution

$$\theta_1 = T_1 - T_\infty = 50 \text{ K}$$

Unfinned surface area (Fig. Ex. 2.17)

$$A_{uf} = (0.1 \times 0.15) - (8 \times 1 \times 10^{-3} \times 0.15)$$

$$= 0.0138 \text{ m}^2$$

$$(Q_1)_{uf} = 0.04 \times 0.0138 \times 50 = 0.0276 \text{ kW}$$

$$Q_{total} = 0.153 \text{ kW (given)}$$

Heat transfer from finned surface

$$Q_f = 0.153 - 0.0276 = 0.1254 \text{ kW}$$

Heat transfer from one fin $= \dfrac{0.1254}{8} = 0.015675$ kW

$$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{h2L}{kbL}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2 \times 0.04}{0.15 \times 0.001}\right)^{1/2} = 23.094 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$A = 0.001 \times 0.15 = 0.00015 \text{ m}^2$$

$$Q_o = 0.015675 = mkA\theta \tanh ml$$

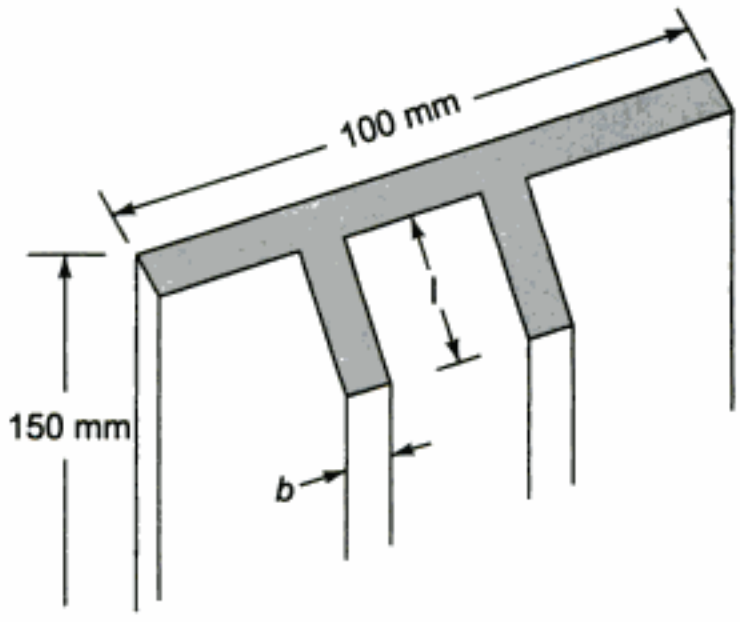


Fig. Ex. 2.17

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$$= 23.094 \times 0.15 \times 0.00015 \times 50 \times \tanh ml$$

$$\therefore \quad \tanh ml = 0.6033$$

$$ml = 0.6981$$

$$l = \text{height of fins} = \frac{0.6981}{23.094} \times 10^3 = 30.2 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.18 Determine the heat transfer rate from the rectangular fin of length 20 cm, width 40 cm and thickness 2 cm. The tip of the fin is not insulated and the fin has a thermal conductivity of 150 W/m K. The base temperature is 100°C and the fluid is at 20°C. The heat transfer coefficient between the fin and the fluid is 30 W/m^2 K.

Solution The extended length

$$L_C = l + \frac{A}{P} = 20 + \frac{40 \times 2}{84} = 20.95 \text{ cm} = 0.21 \text{ m}$$

$$A = 40 \times 2 = 80 \text{ cm}^2 = 0.008 \text{ m}^2$$

$$A_S = L_C P = 0.21 \times 0.84 = 0.1764 \text{ m}^2$$

$$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{30 \times 0.84}{150 \times 0.008}\right)^{1/2} = 4.583 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$Q_o = mkA\theta_o \tanh ml$$

$$= 4.583 \times 150 \times 0.008 \times 80 \times \tanh (4.583 \times 0.21)$$

$$= 328.0 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Also,

$$\eta_{\text{fin}} = \frac{\tanh ml}{ml} = \frac{\tanh (4.583 \times 0.21)}{(4.583 \times 0.21)} = 0.775$$

$$Q_o = \eta_{\text{fin}} A_s h_C (T_o - T_\infty)$$

$$= 0.775 \times 30 \times 0.1764 (100 - 20) = 328 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.19 The inside dimensions of a furnace are 3 m × 2.5 m × 2 m. The walls are 20 cm thick and have k = 1.2 W/m K. If the inner and outer surface temperatures are 220°C and 80°C, calculate the rate of heat loss.

Solution Since all inside dimensions are greater than one-fifth wall thickness $\left(\frac{1}{5} \times 20 = 4 \text{ cm}\right)$, case 1 applies. Hence, from Eq. (2.161)

$$A_m = A_1 + 0.54\, \Delta x\, \Sigma y + 1.2\, (\Delta x)^2$$

where the inside surface area

$$A_1 = 2\,(3 \times 2.5 + 2.5 \times 2 + 3 \times 2) = 37 \text{ m}^2$$

$$\Sigma y = 4(3 + 2.5 + 2) = 30 \text{ m}$$

$$\Delta x = 0.2 \text{ m}$$

$$A_m = 37 + 0.54 \times 0.2 \times 30 + 1.2\,(0.2)^2 = 40.288 \text{ m}^2$$

$$Q = \frac{kA_m(T_1 - T_2)}{\Delta x} = \frac{1.2 \times 40.288\,(220 - 80)}{0.2}$$

$$= 33842 \text{ W} = 33.84 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

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Example 2.20 The inside and outside temperatures of a hollow 75 cm × 75 cm rectangular duct are 500°C and 100°C respectively. It is 30 cm thick. Find the rate of heat loss per unit length of the duct. Take k = 20 W/mK.

Solution Only one corner of the duct (Fig. Ex. 2.20) is considered. It is divided into a number of squares 15 cm × 15 cm. A, B, C, D and E are nodes. To start with, let $T_A = T_B = T_C = T_D = (500 + 100)/2 = 300$°C. The residuals at the nodes are then found out. The largest residual is relaxed first. The nine steps of reducing the residuals at the four nodes A, B, C and D are given in the following Table. The steady-state temperatures are T_A = 184°C, T_B = 269°C, T_C = 292°C, T_D = 298°C and $T_E = T_B$ = 269°C (by symmetry).

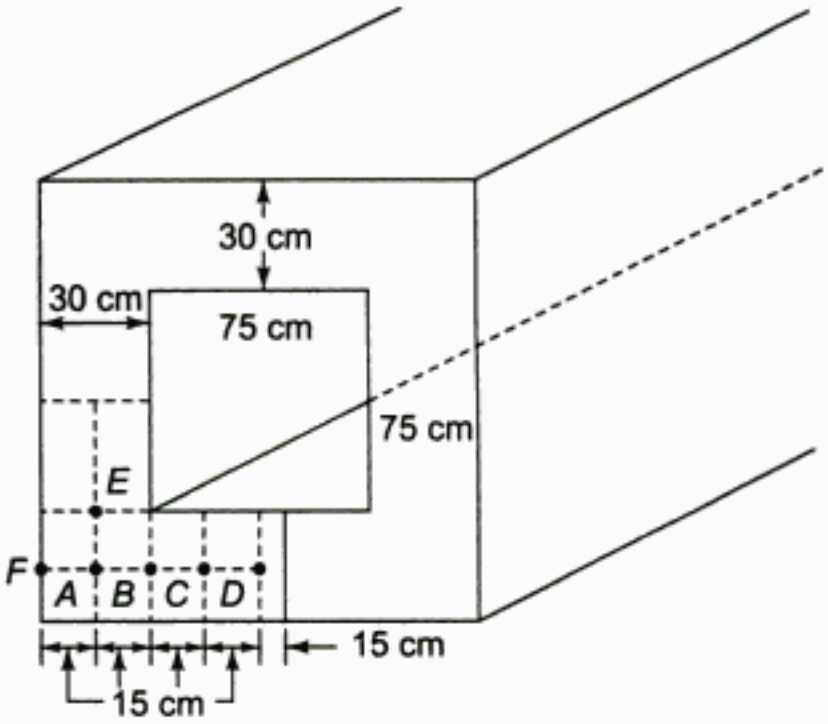


Fig. Ex. 2.20

Heat loss from the duct

$$Q = 8\,(Q_B + Q_C + Q_D) + 4Q_A$$

$$= 8\left[k\frac{0.15\times 1}{0.15}(269 - 100) + k\,(292 - 100) + k\,(293 - 100)\right] + 4k\,(184 - 100)$$

$$= 8k\,(169 + 192 + 198) + 4k\,84$$

$$= 4808\,k = 4808 \times 20$$

$$= 96160\ \text{W} = 96.16\ \text{kW/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Steps	*A*		*B*		*C*		*D*	
	q^*	*T*(°C)	q^*	*T*(°C)	q^*	*T*(°C)	q^*	*T*(°C)
1	–400	300	0	300	0	300	0	300
2	0	200	–100	300	0	300	0	300
3	– 50	200	0	275	–25	300	0	300
4	30	180	–20	275	–25	300	0	300
5	30	180	–28	275	7	292	–8	300
6	16	180	0	268	0	292	–8	300
7	0	184	4	268	0	292	–8	300
8	0	184	4	268	–2	292	0	298
9	2	184	0	269	–1	292	0	298

Example 2.21 An oil-filled thermometer well made of a steel tube (k = 55.8 W/m K), 120 mm long and 1.5 mm thick is installed in a tube through which air is flowing. The temperature of the air stream is measured with the help of a thermometer placed in the well. The surface heat transfer coefficient from the air to the well is 23.3 W/m^2 K and the temperature recorded by the thermometer is 88°C. Estimate the measurement error and the percentage error if the temperature at the base of the well is 40°C.

Solution When the heat loss from the tip is neglected,

$$\frac{\theta_l}{\theta_o} = \frac{1}{\cosh ml}$$

where $$m = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2}$$

From Fig. Ex. 2.21, $P = \pi d$ and $A = \pi d\delta$

$$m = \left(\frac{h}{k\delta}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{23.3}{55.8 \times 1.5 \times 10^{-3}}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= 16.68 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$ml = 16.68 \times 0.12 = 2.0$$

$$\cosh 2 = 3.76,\ T_1 = 88°\text{C}$$

$$\frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{T_0 - T_\infty} = \frac{1}{3.76},\ T_0 = 40°\text{C}$$

$$3.76 \times 88 - 3.76\, T_\infty = 40 - T_\infty$$

$$T_\infty = 105.4°\text{C}$$

Measurement error = 105.4°C – 88°C = 17.4°C *Ans.*

$$\% \text{ error} = \frac{17.4}{105.4} \times 100 = 16.5\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

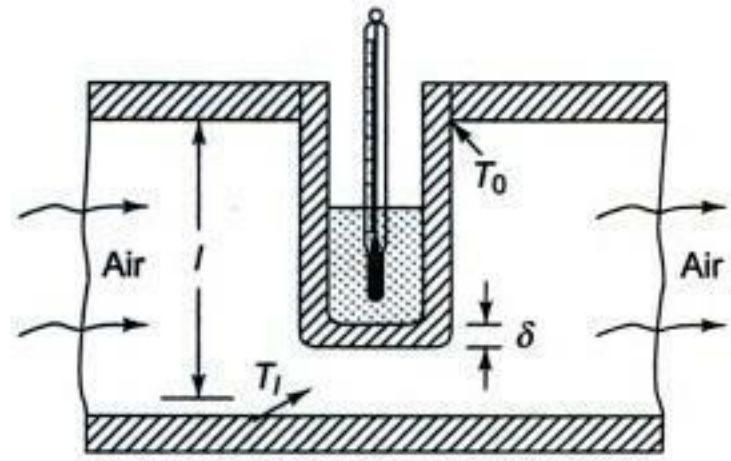


Fig. Ex. 2.21

Example 2.22 *Given:* An aluminium alloy conductor of cross-section 6.25 cm^2 and length 2.5 cm has three of its sides insulated (Fig. Ex. 2.22) and carries a current of 800 amp. The exposed surface is in contact with air at 30°C and h = 16.28 W/m^2K. $\rho_{Al} = 5 \times 10^{-4}\ \Omega\ cm^2/m$ and k = 201.5 W/mK.
To find: The maximum temperature of the conductor at steady state.

Solution Heat conduction with uniform heat generation q_G (W/m^3) is given by

$$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = -\frac{q_G x}{k} + C_1$$

$$\therefore \quad T(x) = -\frac{q_G x^2}{2k} + C_1 x + C_2$$

At $x = 0$, $\quad \frac{dT}{dx} = 0 \quad \therefore\ C_1 = 0$

$$\therefore \quad T(x) = -\frac{q_G x^2}{2k} + C_2$$

At $x = l$, $T = T_1$

$$T_1 = -\frac{q_G l^2}{2k} + C_2$$

$$\therefore \quad C_2 = T_1 + \frac{q_G l^2}{2k}$$

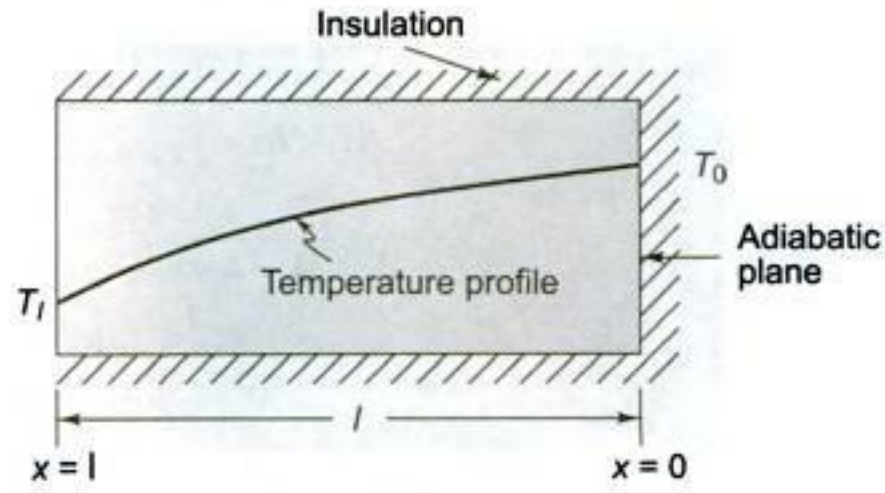


Fig. Ex. 2.22

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$$\therefore \quad T(x) = -\frac{q_G x^2}{2k} + \frac{q_G l^2}{2k} + T_1$$

$$= \frac{q_G}{2k}(l^2 - x^2) + T_1 \qquad (1)$$

Also, $$q_k = -k\left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{x=l} = h(T_1 - T_\infty)$$

$$\left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_{x=l} = \frac{h(T_1 - T_\infty)}{k} = -\frac{q_G l}{k}$$

$$h(T_1 - T_\infty) = q_G l$$

$$T_1 = \frac{q_G l}{h} + T_\infty \qquad (2)$$

From Eqs (1) and (2),

$$T(x) = \frac{q_G}{2k}(l^2 - x^2) + \frac{q_G l}{h} + T_\infty$$

At $x = 0,\ T = T_{max}$

$$\therefore \quad T_{max} = \frac{q_G}{2k} l^2 + \frac{q_G l}{h} + T_\infty$$

Here, $A = 6.25\ \text{cm}^2,\ l = 2.5\ \text{cm}$

$$i = \frac{I}{A} = \frac{800\ \text{A}}{6.25\ \text{cm}^2} = 128\ \text{A/cm}^2$$

$$q_G = \frac{I^2 R}{V} = \frac{I^2 Pl}{A \times l \times A} = i^2 \rho$$

$$= (128)^2 \frac{A^2}{\text{cm}^4} \times 5 \times 10^{-4} \frac{\Omega\ \text{cm}^2}{\text{m}} \times \frac{10^4\ \text{cm}^2}{1\ \text{m}^2}$$

$$= 81.92\ \text{kW/m}^2$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{max} = q_G l\left(\frac{l}{2k} + \frac{1}{h}\right) + T_\infty$$

$$= 81.92 \times 2.5 \times 10^{-2}\left[\frac{2.5 \times 10^{-2}}{0.203 \times 2} + \frac{1}{0.01628}\right] + 30$$

$$= 2.05\ (0.0616 + 61.39) + 30$$

$$= 156°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.23 *Given:* A spherical shell containing a 100 W heat source (Fig. Ex. 2.23)

$r_1 = 26$ cm, $r_2 = 34$ cm

$T_1 = 339$ K, $T_2 = 311$ K

To find: Thermal conductivity k.

Solution The rate of heat transfer through the spherical shell is given by (Eq. 2.66),

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$$Q = \frac{4\pi k r_1 r_2 (T_1 - T_2)}{r_2 - r_1}$$

$$100 = \frac{4\pi k \times 0.26 \times 0.34 \times (339 - 311)}{0.34 - 0.26}$$

$$= \frac{4\pi k \times 0.26 \times 0.34 \times 28}{0.08}$$

$\therefore$ $k = 0.257$ W/mK *Ans.*

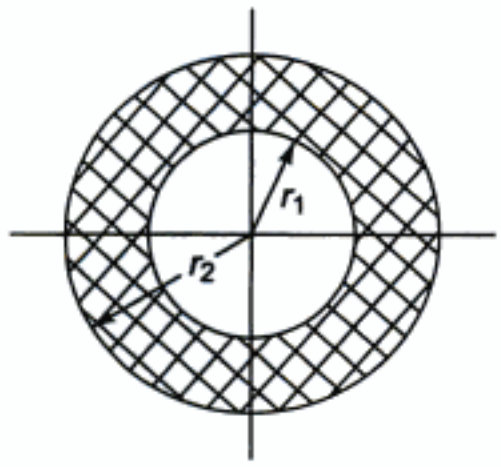


Fig. Ex. 2.23

Example 2.24 A copper fin (k = 396 W/mK) 0.25 cm in diameter protrudes from a wall at 95°C into ambient air at 25°C. The heat transfer coefficient by free convection is equal to 10 W/m^{2}K. Calculate the heat loss if (a) the fin is infinitely long, (b) the fin is 2.5 cm long and the coefficient at the end is the same as around the circumference.

Solution

$$m = \sqrt{\frac{hP}{kA}} = \sqrt{\frac{10 \times \pi \times d \times 4}{396 \times \pi \times d^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{99 \times 0.0025}}$$

$$= 2.01 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

(a) For infinitely long fin,

$$Q_0 = mkA\theta_0$$

$$= \sqrt{hPkA}\ \theta_0$$

$$= \sqrt{10 \frac{W}{m^2 K} \times \pi \times 0.0025\, m \times 396 \frac{W}{mK} \times \frac{\pi}{4} (0.0025)^2 m^2} \cdot (95 - 25)k$$

$$= 0.865 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) $$Q_0 = \sqrt{hPkA}\ (T_0 - T_\infty) \frac{\sinh ml + \frac{h}{mk} \cosh ml}{\cosh ml + \frac{h}{mk} \sinh ml}$$

$$ml = 2.01 \times 0.025 = 0.05025$$

$$h/mk = \frac{10}{2.01 \times 396} = 0.01256$$

Substituting: $$Q_0 = 0.865 \times \frac{\sinh (0.05025) + 0.01256 \times \cosh (0.05025)}{\cosh (0.05025) + 0.01256 \times \sinh (0.05025)}$$

$\therefore$ $Q_0 = 0.140$ W *Ans.*

Example 2.25 Heat is generated uniformly in uranium (k = 29.5 W/mK) rods of 5 cm diameter at the rate of 7.5×10^7 W/m^3. Cooling water at 120°C is circulated in the annulus around the rods with heat transfer coefficient of 55 kW/m^{2}K. Find the maximum temperature of the fuel rods.

Solution Rate of heat flow through the rod surface = Rate of internal heat generation.

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$$2\pi r_o L\left(-k\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_0} = q_G \cdot \pi r_0^2 L$$

$$\therefore \quad -k\left.\frac{dT}{dr}\right|_{r=r_0} = \frac{q_G \cdot r_0}{2} = \frac{7.5\times10^7 \times 0.025}{2}$$

$$= 9.375 \times 10^5 \text{ W/m}^2$$

Rate of heat flow by conduction at the outer surface = Rate of heat flow by convection to the water

$$2\pi r_0\left(-k\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_0} = 2\pi r_0 h_0 (T_0 - T_\infty)$$

$$\therefore \quad T_0 = \frac{-k\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_0}}{h_0} + T_\infty = \frac{9.375\times10^5}{55\times10^3} + 120$$

$$= 137°\text{C} = T_w$$

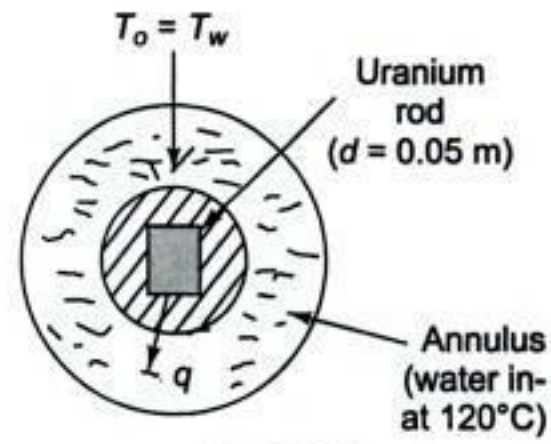


Fig. Ex. 2.25

From Eq. (2.56)

$$T_{\max} = T_w + \frac{q_G R^2}{4k}$$

$$= 137 + \frac{7.5\times10^7 \times (0.025)^2}{4\times29.5}$$

$$= 534°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Also, from Eq. (2.63),

$$\frac{T_{\max}}{T_\infty} = 1 + \frac{q_G R}{4h_c T_\infty}\left(2 + \frac{h_c R}{k}\right)$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{\max} = T_\infty + \frac{q_G R}{4h_c}\left(2 + \frac{h_c R}{k}\right)$$

$$= 120 + \frac{7.5\times10^7 \times 0.025}{4\times55\times10^3}\left(2 + \frac{55\times10^3 \times 0.025}{29.5}\right)$$

$$= 534°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.26 An aluminium heat sink for electronic components has a base of width 50 mm and length 70 mm. There are eight aluminium (k = 180 W/mK) fins of height 12 mm and thickness 3 mm. The fins are cooled by air at 25°C with a convective heat transfer coefficient of 10 W/m^2 K. Assuming that the heat transfer coefficient is uniform all along the fin and the tip, determine (a) the heat flow through the heat sink for a base temperature of 50°C, (b) the fin effectiveness, (c) the fin efficiency, (d) the length of the fin if the heat flow is 95% of the heat flow for an infinite fin.

Solution **Total heat flow to the sink**

Q = **Heat flow through the unfinned portion of the base + Heat flow through the fins**

$$= Q_{uf} + Q_f$$

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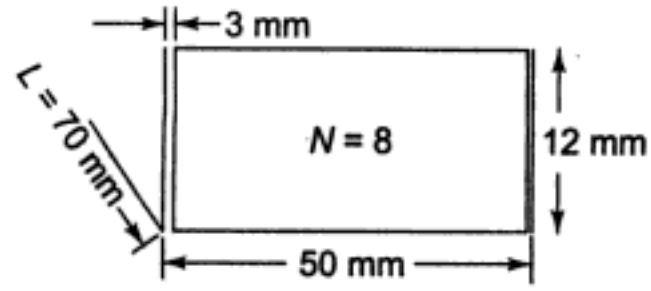


Fig. Ex. 2.26

$$Q_{uf} = hA_{uf}(T_0 - T_\infty)$$
$$= 10 \times 0.07(0.05 - 8 \times 0.003) \times (50 - 25)$$
$$= 0.456 \text{ W}$$

$$Q_f = N\sqrt{hPkA_c}\,\theta_0 \frac{\sinh ml + \frac{h}{mk}\cosh ml}{\cosh ml + \frac{h}{mk}\sinh ml}$$

where
$$P = 2(70 + 3) \times 10^{-3} = 0.146 \text{ m}$$
$$A_c = 2.1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$$
$$m = \sqrt{\frac{hP}{kA_c}} = \sqrt{\frac{10 \times 0.146}{180 \times 2.1 \times 10^{-4}}} = 6.2148 \text{ m}^{-1}$$
$$ml = 6.2148 \times 0.012 = 0.0746$$
$$\cosh ml = 1.00278; \sinh ml = 0.07465$$
$$\sqrt{hPkA_c} = 0.235 \text{ W/K}$$
$$\frac{h}{mk} = 8.939 \times 10^{-3}$$

$\therefore$
$$Q_f = 8 \times 0.235 \times 25 \times \frac{0.07465 + 8.939 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.00278}{1.00278 + 8.939 \times 10^{-3} \times 0.07465}$$
$$= 3.915 \text{ W}$$

$\therefore$ $Q = 0.456 + 3.915 = 4.371$ W *Ans.* (a)

Fin effectiveness, $\varepsilon = \dfrac{Q_f}{h\,A_c\,\theta_0}$

$$= \frac{3 \cdot 915/8}{10 \times 0.003 \times 0.07 \times 25}$$
$$= 9.32 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

Fin efficiency, $\eta_f = \dfrac{Q_f}{hA_s\theta_0}$, where $A_s = 2H(L + t) + Lt = 1.962 \times 10^{-3}$ m^2

$$= \frac{3 \cdot 915/8}{10 \times 1.962 \times 10^{-3} \times 25}$$
$$= 0.998 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

For the heat flow to be within 95% of the infinite fin, $\dfrac{\sinh ml + \frac{h}{mk}\cosh ml}{\cosh ml + \frac{h}{mk}\sinh ml} \geq 0.95$

sin $h/mk \ll 1$, the above inequality simplifies to

$$\tanh ml \geq 0.95$$
$\therefore$ $ml \geq 1.83$
or, $l \geq 295$ mm

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Example 2.27 A steel rod, 15 cm dia, 90 cm long, k = 40 W/mK, attached to its wall dissipates heat at the rate of 45 W with h = 15 W/m^{2}K.
To find: The rate of heat loss from the rod including the tip.

Solution Heat loss from the rod is given by Eq. (2.92)

$$Q_0 = \sqrt{hPkA}\cdot\theta_0\cdot\frac{\tanh ml + \dfrac{h}{mk}}{1+\dfrac{h}{mk}\tanh ml}$$

where,
$$m = \sqrt{\frac{hP}{kA}} = \sqrt{\frac{15\times\pi\times5\times10^{-2}}{40\times\frac{\pi}{4}(5\times10^{-2})^2}}$$
$$= 5.48\ \text{m}^{-1}$$
$$ml = 5.48\times0.9 = 4.932$$
$$\tanh ml = 1.$$
$$\sqrt{hPkA} = \sqrt{15\times5\times10^{-2}\times\pi\times40\times\frac{\pi}{4}(5\times10^{-2})^2}$$
$$= 0.43$$

$\therefore$
$$Q_0 = 45\ \text{W} = 0.43\,\theta_0\,\frac{1+\dfrac{h}{mk}}{1+\dfrac{h}{mk}}$$

$\therefore$ $\theta_0 = 104.65°\text{C} = T_0 - T_\infty$

$\therefore$ T_0 = The wall temperature = 134.65°C *Ans.*

Example 2.28 *Given:* Two long rods of the same dia, one of brass (k = 85 W/mK) and the other of copper (k = 375 W/mK) have one of their ends inserted in a furnace and the other ends exposed to the same atmospher. At a distance of 105 mm away from the furnace the temperature of the brass rod is 120°C.
To find: The distance from the furnace end the copper rod would have attained the same temperature.

Solution For a thin long rod the temperature distribution is given by Eq. (2.100),

$$\theta = \theta_0\, e^{-mx}$$

or,
$$\frac{T-T_\infty}{T_0-T_\infty} = e^{-mx}$$

For brass rod, at x = 0.105 m, T = 120°C.

$$\frac{120-T_\infty}{T_0-T_\infty} = e^{-m_1\times0.105} \qquad (1)$$

For copper rod, at $x = L$, say, T = 120°C

$\therefore$
$$\frac{120-T_\infty}{T_0-T_\infty} = e^{-m_2 L} \qquad (2)$$

From Eqs (1) and (2) above,

$$m_2 L = m_1\times0.105$$

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$$L = \frac{m_1}{m_2} \times 0.105 = \frac{\sqrt{hP/k_1A}}{\sqrt{hP/k_2A}} \times 0.105 = \sqrt{\frac{k_2}{k_1}} \times 0.105$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{375}{85}} \times 0.105 = 0.2205 \text{ m} = 220.5 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.29 A solid sphere of radius 0.5 m has an internal heat generation rate of 2×10^6 W/m^3. If the thermal conductivity of the material is 40 W/mK and the convective heat transfer coefficient at the surface of the sphere is 10 W/m^{2}K, calculate the temperatures at the outer surface and at the centre. Take the ambient temperature as 30°C.

Solution Rate of heat generation

$$Q = q_G \times V = q_G \times \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3$$

$$= 2 \times 10^6 \times \frac{4}{3}\pi(0.5)^3 = 1.047 \times 10^6 \text{ W}$$

$$Q = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$$

$$\therefore \qquad T_w = \frac{1.047 \times 10^6}{10 \times 4\pi(0.5)^2} + 30 = 63.32\,°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

From Eq. (2.70), the temperature at the centre

$$T_{\max} = T_w + \frac{q_G R^2}{6k} = 63.32 + 2 \times 10^6 \times (0.5)^2 (6 \times 40)$$

$$= 2146.65°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.30 A hollow sphere (inner radius 8 cm, outer radius 12 cm, K = 40 W/mK) has an internal heat generation rate of 2×10^7 W/m^3. The inside surface of the sphere is insulated and the temperature at the outer surface is 375°C. Calculate the maximum temperature in the solid and the convective heat transfer coefficient if the ambient temperature is 30°C.

Solution The temperature distribution in a hollow sphere is given by Eq. (2.71),

$$T = T_w + \frac{q_G}{6k}(r_2^2 - r^2) + \frac{q_G r_1^3}{3k}\left(\frac{1}{r_2} - \frac{1}{r}\right)$$

The maximum temperature will occur at the inner surface when $r = r_1$.

$$\therefore \qquad T_{\max} = T_1 = 375 + \frac{2 \times 10^7}{6 \times 40}(0.12^2 - 0.08^2) + \frac{2 \times 10^7}{3 \times 40} \times (0.08)^3 \times \left(\frac{1}{0.12} - \frac{1}{0.08}\right)$$

$$= 375 + 666.67 - 355.56 = 686.11°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Total heat generated, $Q = 2 \times 10^7 \times \frac{4}{3}\pi[(0.12)^3 - (0.08)^3]$

$$= 5.09 \times 10^{-3} \times 2 \times 10^7$$

$$= 101800 \text{ W}$$

$$Q = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$$

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$$101800 = h\,4\pi(0.12^2 - 0.08^2)\,(375 - 30)$$

$$\therefore \qquad h = 2935.12 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.31 Write down the Fourier equation for heat conduction in spherical coordinates. Hence, deduce an expression for steady state heat conduction in radial direction through a solid sphere of radius R with a uniform volumetric heat generation of q_G W/m^3 at the centre. Assume thermal conductivity of the spherical material to be uniform. (a) An approximately sphere shaped orange (k = 0.23 W/mK), 90 mm in diameter undergoes ripening process and generates 5100 W/m^3 of energy (heat of respiration). If the external surface of the orange is at 8°C, determine (i) the temperature at the centre of the orange and (ii) the rate of heat flow from the outer surface of the orange.

Solution The general heat conduction equation in spherical coordinates is given as

$$\frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left\{\sin\theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta}\right\} + \frac{1}{r^2}\cdot\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{q_G}{k} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial \tau}$$

For steady state heat conduction in radial direction,

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} = 0,\ \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial T}{\partial \tau} = 0$$

Hence, the above equation reduces to

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\cdot\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2 \frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right) + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2 \frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right) + \frac{q_G}{k} r^2 = 0$$

On integration,

$$r^2 \frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} + \frac{q_G}{k}\frac{r^3}{3} = C_1 \qquad \text{(i)}$$

At the centre, $r = 0, \dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = 0$

$$\therefore \qquad C_1 = 0$$

Equation (i) reduces to

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r} = -\frac{q_G}{k}\frac{r}{3} \qquad \text{(ii)}$$

Heat conduction in radial direction, at any radius r, is

$$Q = -kA_r \frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}$$

where A_r = surface area of a sphere = $4\pi r^2$

$$\therefore \qquad Q = -k(4\pi r^2)\cdot\left(-\frac{q_G}{k}\cdot\frac{r}{3}\right)$$

$$= \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3 \cdot q_G$$

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Hence, heat conducted at the surface

$$= \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3 \cdot q_G \quad Ans.$$

(a) Outside radius of the orange, R

$$= \frac{90}{2} = 45 \text{ mm} = 0.045 \text{ m}$$

Rate of heat generation, $q_G = 5100 \text{ W/m}^3$
Temperature at the outer surface of the orange,

$$T_w = 8°\text{C}.$$

(i) Temperature at the centre of the orange, from Eq. (2.70),

$$T_{\max} = T_w + \frac{q_G}{6k} R^2$$

$$= 8 + \frac{5100}{6 \times 0.23} \times (0.045)^2$$

$$= 15.48°\text{C} \quad Ans.$$

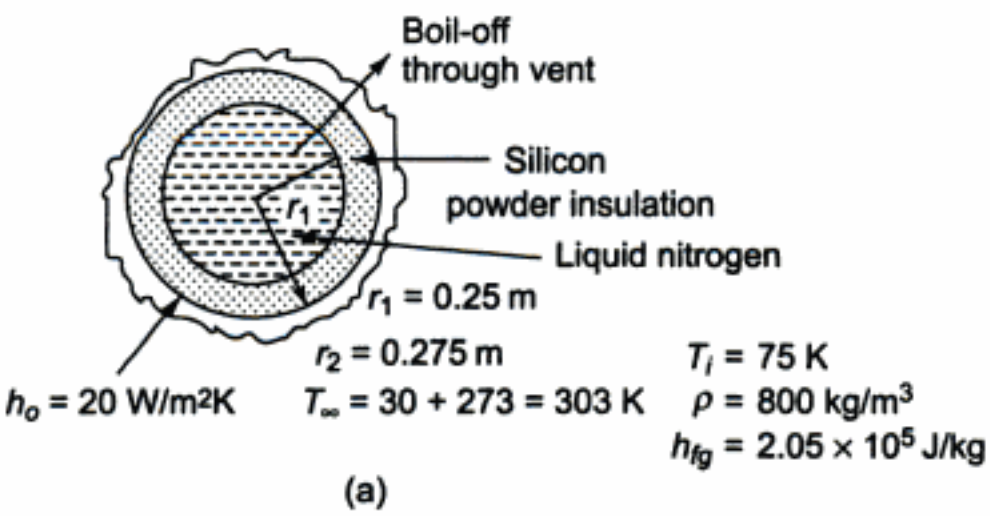
(ii) Heat flow from the outer surface of the orange, Q
Heat conducted = Heat generated

$$Q = q_G \times \frac{4}{3}\pi R^3$$

$$= 5100 \times \frac{4}{3}\pi \times (0.045)^3 = 1.946 \text{ W} \quad Ans.$$

Example 2.32 A spherical thin-walled metallic container is used to store liquid nitrogen at 75 K. The container has a diameter of 0.5 m and is covered with an evacuated reflective insulation composed of silica powder (k = 0.0017 W/mK). The insulation is 25 mm thick and its outer surface is exposed to ambient air at 30°C. The heat transfer coefficient on the outside is 20 W/m^2 K. The latent heat of vaporization of nitrogen is 2.05×10^5 J/kg and its density is 800 kg/m^3. (a) What is the rate of heat transfer to the liquid nitrogen? (b) What is the rate of liquid boil-off per day?

Solution



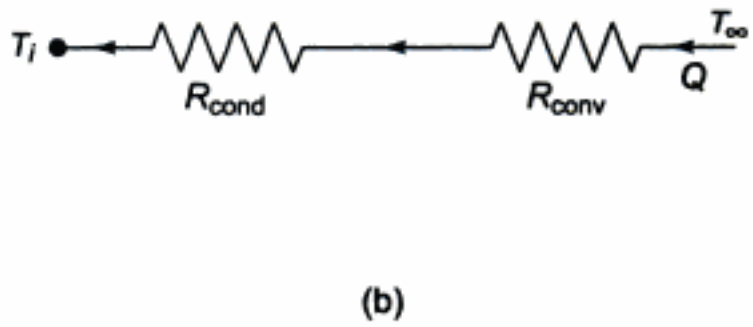


Fig. Ex. 2.32

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Rate of heat transfer [Fig. Ex. 2.32(b)],

$$Q = \frac{T_\infty - T_i}{R_{\text{conv}} + R_{\text{cond}}} = \frac{T_\infty - T_i}{\frac{1}{h\,4\pi r_2^2} + \frac{1}{4\pi k}\left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{303 - 75}{\frac{1}{20 \times 4\pi\,(0.275)^2} + \frac{1}{4\pi(0.0017)}\left(\frac{1}{0.25} - \frac{1}{0.275}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{228}{0.0526 + 17.022} = 13.353 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\text{Liquid boil-off} = \frac{Q}{h_{fg}}$$

$$= \frac{13.353 \text{ W}}{2.05 \times 10^5 \text{ J/kg}} = 6.514 \times 10^{-5} \text{ kg/s}$$

$$= 5.63 \text{ kg/day} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.33 The body of an electric motor is 360 mm in diameter and 240 mm long. It dissipates 360 W of heat and its surface temperature should not exceed 55°C. Longitudinal fins of 15 mm thickness and 40 mm height are proposed. The heat transfer coefficient is 40 W/m² K when the ambient air is 30°C. Determine the number of fins required, if k of the fin material is 40 W/mK.

Solution

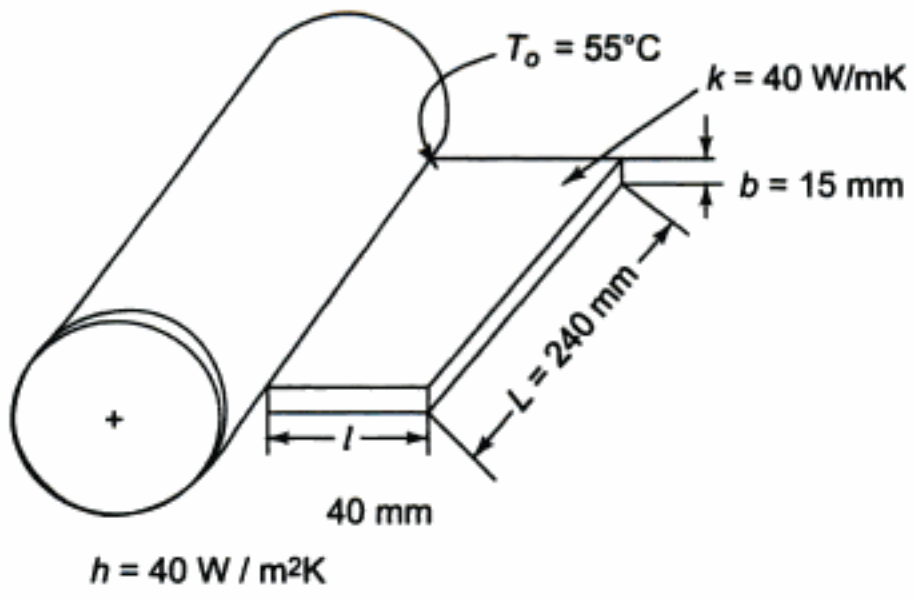


Fig. Ex. 2.33

The rate of heat transfer in one fin

$$Q_0 = \sqrt{hPkA}\,,\ \theta_0 \frac{\tanh ml + \frac{h}{mk}}{1 + \frac{h}{mk}\tanh ml}$$

where $$m = \sqrt{\frac{hP}{kA}} = \sqrt{\frac{h \cdot 2(L+b)}{k \cdot (L \times b)}} = \sqrt{\frac{40 \times 2(0.24 + 0.015)}{40 \times (0.24 \times 0.015)}} = 11.9 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$\therefore$ $$ml = 11.5 \times 0.04 = 0.476$$

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$$Q_0 = \sqrt{40 \times (0.255 \times 2) \times 40 \times (0.24 \times 0.015)} \times (55 - 30) \times \frac{\tanh(0.476) + \dfrac{40}{11.9 \times 40}}{1 + \dfrac{40}{40 \times 11.9} \times \tanh(0.476)}$$

$$= 1.714 \times 25 \times \frac{0.443 + 0.084}{1 + 0.084 \times 0.443} = 21.77 \text{ W}$$

$$\text{Number of fins required} = \frac{360}{21.77} = 16.356 \text{ or } 17 \text{ fins} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.34 The engine cylinder of a motor cycle is made of aluminium alloy (k = 186 W/mK) and is 0.15 m long and outside diameter 50 mm. The temperature of the outer surface is 500 K and the ambient air is 300 K. To increase the rate of heat transfer, five annual fins of the same material are provided. The length and thickness of the fins are 20 mm and 6 mm respectively. The fins are equally spaced. Estimate the percentage increase in the heat transfer rate due to fins if the convective heat transfer coefficient is 50 W/m^{2}K.

Solution Using Fig. 2.30 and Eq. (2.133), the data given are as follows:

$k = 186$ W/mK, $r_1 = 0.025$ m, $r_2 = 0.045$ m, $b = 0.006$ m,

$h = 50$ W/m^{2}K,

$$m = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{kb}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 50}{180 \times 0.006}} = 9.466 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$mr_1 = 9.466 \times 0.025 = 0.236$$

$$mr_2 = 9.466 \times 0.045 = 0.426$$

From Bessel Function Tables and by interpolation,

$$I_1(mr_2) = 0.2183, I_1(mr_1) = 0.1191$$

$$I_0(mr_1) = 1.0155, K_1(mr_2) = 2.07,$$

$$K_1(mr_1) = 4.31, K_0(mr_1) = 1.638$$

Using Eq. (2.133),

$$Q_0 = (2\pi \times 186 \times 9.466 \times 0.006 \times (500 - 300) \times 0.025) \times \frac{4.31 \times 0.2183 \times 0.1191 \times 2.07}{1.638 \times 0.2183 + 1.0155 \times 2.07}$$

$$= 93.7 \text{ W}$$

Total heat transfer from 5 fins

$$Q_f = 93.7 \times 5 = 468.5 \text{ W}$$

Heat transfer from unfinned surface

$$Q_{uf} = hA\,\theta_0 = 50 \times \pi \times 0.05 \times (0.15 - 0.03) \times (500 - 300)$$

$$= 185 \text{ W}$$

$$\text{Total heat transfer} = Q_f + Q_{uf}$$

$$= 468.5 + 185 = 653.5 \text{ W}$$

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Heat transfer without fins

$$= hA\,\theta_0 = 50\pi \times 0.05 \times 0.15 \times 200$$
$$= 235.65 \text{ W}$$

Increase in heat transfer due to incorporation of fins

$$= 653.5 - 235.65 = 417.85 \text{ W}$$

$\therefore$ % increase in heat transfer

$$= \frac{417.85}{235.65} \times 100 = 177.32\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.35 Annular steel (k = 40 W/mK) fins, 15 mm long and 2 mm thick are provided on a tube of diameter 30 mm. The tube surface temperature is 210°C and the ambient air temperature is 25°C. Estimate the heat transfer from one fin if the convective heat transfer coefficient between the fin and the air is 30 W/m^2 K.

Solution Heat transfer from an annular fin is given by Eq. (2.133),

$$Q_0 = 2\pi k\, bm\, \theta_0\, r_1 \frac{K_1(mr_1)\, I_1(mr_2) - I_1(mr_1)\, K_1(mr_2)}{K_0(mr_1)\, I_1(mr_2) + I_0(mr_1)\, K_1(mr_2)}$$

where

$$m = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{kb}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 30}{40 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}}} = 27.386 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

$$mr_1 = 27.386 \times 0.015 = 0.41,\ mr_2 = 27.386 \times 0.030 = 0.82$$

From Bessel Function Tables and by interpolation,

$$I_1(mr_2) = 0.477,\ I_1(mr_1) = 0.22,\ I_0(mr_1) = 1.043,$$
$$K_1(mr_2) = 0.836,\ K_1(mr_1) = 2.14,\ K_0(mr_1) = 1.1$$
$$Q_0 = 2\pi \times 40 \times 27.386 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}\,(210 - 25) \times 15 \times 10^{-3} \times \frac{2.14 \times 0.447 - 0.22 \times 0.836}{1.1 \times 0.447 + 1.043 \times 0.836}$$
$$= 21.65 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.36 A steel tube carries steam at a temperature of 320°C. A thermometer pocket of iron (k = 52.3 W/mK) of inside diameter 15 mm and 1 mm thick is used to measure the temperature. The error to be tolerated is 1.5% of maximum. Estimate the length of the pocket necessary to measure the temperature within this error. The diameter of the steel tube is 95 mm. Assume h = 93 W/m^{2}K and the tube wall temperature is 120°C. Suggest a suitable method of locating the thermometer pocket.

Solution

$T_\infty = 320°\text{C}\ \ d_i = 15 \text{ mm}\ h = 93 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$

$T_w = 120°\text{C}\ \ \delta = 1 \text{ mm}\ k = 52.3 \text{ W/mK}$

$d_0 = d_i + 2\delta = 15 + 2 \times 1 = 17 \text{ mm}$

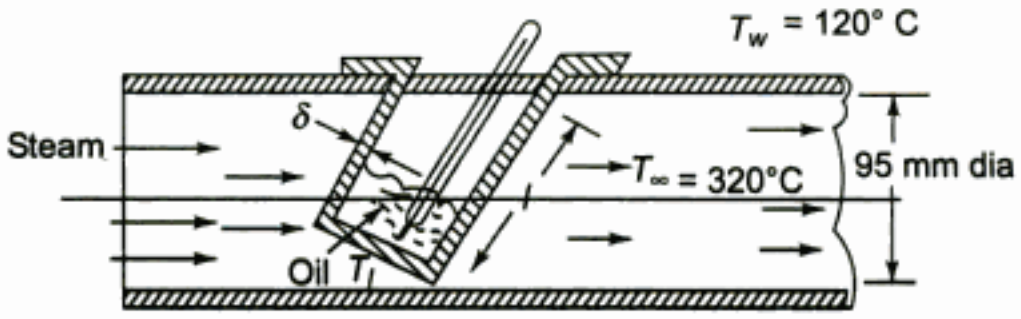


Fig. Ex. 2.36

Temperature recorded by the thermometer (T_l) is found by the relation

$$\frac{T_l - T_\infty}{T_w - T_\infty} = \frac{1}{\cosh ml} \qquad \text{(i)}$$

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$$T_\infty - T_l = 0.015\,T_\infty, \quad \text{i.e., 15\% of } T_\infty.$$

$$\therefore \qquad T_l = 0.985\,T_\infty$$

Now,
$$m = \sqrt{\frac{hP}{kA}} = \sqrt{\frac{h}{k}\frac{\pi d_0}{\frac{\pi}{4}(d_0^2 - d_1^2)}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{93}{52.3}\frac{4\times 0.017}{0.017^2 - 0.015^2}} = 43.5\ \text{m}^{-1}$$

Substituting in Eq. (i),

$$\frac{0.985\times 320 - 320}{120 - 320} = \frac{1}{\cosh(43.5\,l)} = \frac{-4.8}{-200}$$

$$\cosh 43.5\,l = 41.67$$

$$\therefore \qquad 43.5\,l = 4.423$$

$$l = 0.1016\ \text{m} = 101.6\ \text{mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

As $l > D$(95 mm), the pocket should be fitted inclined as shown in Fig. Ex. 2.36.

Example 2.37 Show that for small objects transferring heat to the surroundings, the minimum value of $hd/k' = 2$.

Solution Let us consider a small body as a sphere (Fig. Ex. 2.37).

Heat flow by conduction through a sphere is given by

$$Q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\frac{R_2 - R_1}{4\pi k(R_1\,R_2)}} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R_{k,\text{th}}}$$

Heat conducted at $r = R_2$ is further convected to the surrounding air and it is given by

$$Q = \frac{T_2 - T_\infty}{\frac{1}{4\pi\,R_2^2 h}} = \frac{T_2 - T_\infty}{R_{c,\text{th}}}$$

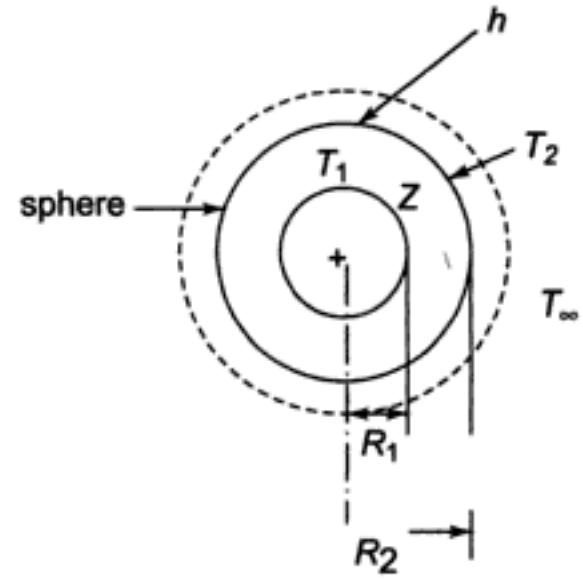


Fig. Ex. 2.37

where $R_{k,\text{th}}$ and $R_{c,\text{th}}$ are conduction and convection resistance respectively

$$R_{k,\text{th}} = \frac{1}{4\pi k}\left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2}\right)$$

Now the surrounding fluid will be considered a spherical shell of radius r and infinite outside radius. The mechanism of heat transfer will be conduction through the small sphere and the thermal resistance is

$$R_{k,\text{th}} = \frac{1}{4\pi k}\left(\frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{\infty}\right) = \frac{1}{4\pi kr}$$

$$Q = \frac{T_2 - T_\infty}{\frac{1}{4\pi\,kr}} \qquad \text{(i)}$$

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Heat flow is also given by

$$Q = \frac{T_2 - T_\infty}{\frac{1}{4\pi r^2 h}} \qquad \text{(ii)}$$

Equating (i) and (ii)

$$4\pi r^2 h = 4\pi k r$$

$$\frac{hr}{k} = 1$$

or, $$\frac{hd}{k} = 2 \quad \textbf{Proved.}$$

Example 2.38 A square plate 1 kW electric heater (150 mm × 150 mm) is inserted between two slabs. Slab *A* is 20 mm thick (k = 50 W/mK) and slab *B* is 10 mm thick (k = 0.2 W/mK). The outside heat transfer coefficients on side *A* and side *B* are 200 W/m² K and 50 W/m² K respectively. The temperature of surrounding air is 25°C. Estimate (a) the maximum temperature in the system and (b) the outside surface temperatures of the two slabs. Draw the equivalent electrical circuit.

Solution In Fig. Ex. 2.38, $L_A = 0.02$ m, $L_B = 0.01$ m,

$k_A = 50$ W/mK, $k_B = 0.2$ W/mK, $h_1 = 200$ W/m²K,

$h_2 = 50$ W/m²K, $T_\infty = 25$°C

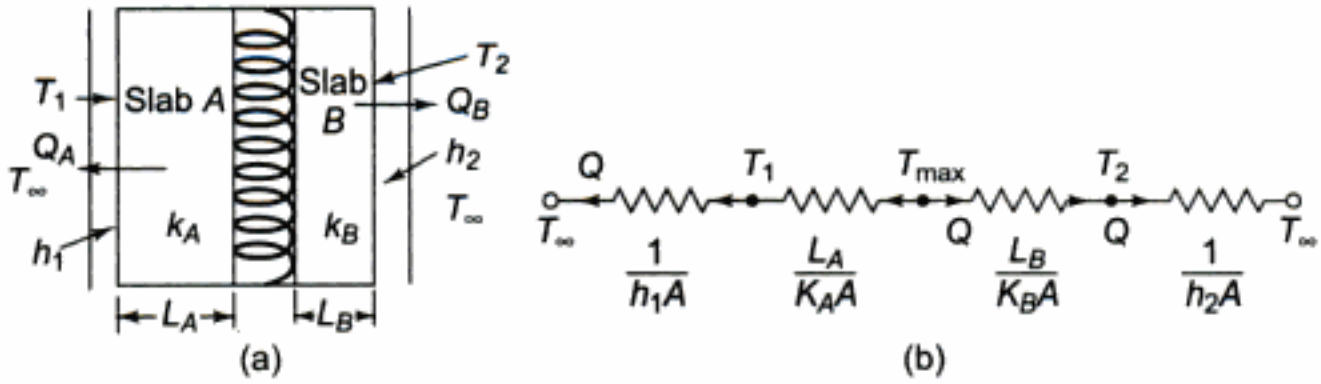


Fig. Ex. 2.38

Equivalent electrical circuit is shown in (b).

$$A = 0.15 \times 0.15 = 0.0225 \text{ m}^2$$

$$Q = 1 \text{ kW} = 1000 \text{ W}$$

$$Q = Q_A + Q_B = \frac{T_{max} - T_\infty}{\frac{L_A}{k_A A} + \frac{1}{h_1 A}} + \frac{T_{max} - T_\infty}{\frac{L_B}{k_B A} + \frac{1}{h_2 A}}$$

$$= A(T_{max} - T_\infty)\left[\frac{1}{\frac{L_A}{k_A} + \frac{1}{h_1}} + \frac{1}{\frac{L_B}{k_B} + \frac{1}{h_2}}\right]$$

$$\therefore \quad 1000 = 0.0225\,(T_{max} - 25)\left[\frac{1}{\frac{0.02}{50} + \frac{1}{200}} + \frac{1}{\frac{0.01}{0.2} + \frac{1}{50}}\right]$$

$$= 0.0225\,(T_{max} - 25) \times 199.47$$

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$$\therefore \quad T_{max} = 25 + \frac{1000}{0.0225 \times 199.47} = 247.81\,°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q_A = \frac{k_A \cdot A \cdot (T_{max} - T_1)}{L_A} = h_1 A\,(T_1 - T_\infty)$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{50(247.81 - T_1)}{0.02} = 200\,(T_1 - 25)$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = 231.3°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Similarly, $$Q_B = \frac{0.2\,A(247.81 - T_2)}{0.01} = 50A(T_2 - 25)$$

$$20(247.81 - T_2) = 50(T_2 - 25)$$

or, $$247.81 - T_2 = 2.5\,T_2 - 62.5$$

$$\therefore \quad T_2 = 88.66°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.39 An electric hot plate is maintained at a temperature of 350°C and is used to keep a solution boiling at 95°C. The solution is contained in a cast iron (k = 50 W/mK) vessel of wall thickness 25 mm which is enamelled to a thickness of 0.8 mm. The heat transfer coefficient for the boiling solution is 5.5 kW/m^{2}K and thermal conductivity of enamel is 1.05 W/mK. Calculate (a) the overall heat transfer coefficient and (b) the rate of heat transfer per unit area.

Solution

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{x_{C.I.}}{k_{C.I.}} + \frac{x_{enamel}}{k_{enamel}} + \frac{1}{h_{solution}}$$

$$= \frac{0.025}{50} + \frac{0.8 \times 10^{-3}}{1.05} + \frac{1}{5500}$$

$$= 1.444 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{m}^2\,\text{K/W}$$

$$\therefore \quad U = 692.5\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(a)}$$

$$q = U(T_0 - T_{sol.}) = 692.5\,(350 - 95) = 176587.5\ \text{W/m}^2$$

$$= 176.59\ \text{kW/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(b)}$$

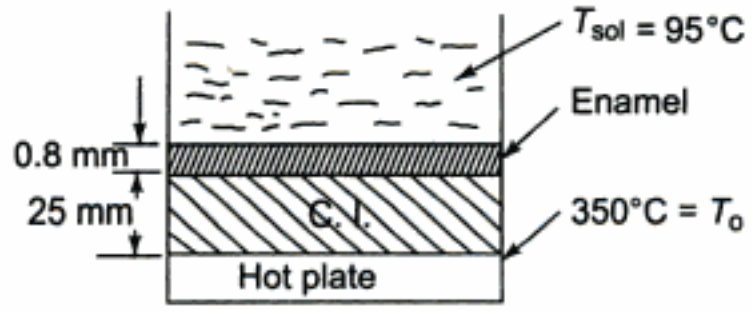


Fig. Ex. 2.39

Example 2.40 An insulated steam pipe having outside diameter of 30 mm is to be covered with two layers of insulation, each having a thickness of 20 mm. The thermal conductivity of one material is 5 times that of the other.

Assuming that the inner and outer surface temperatures of composite insulation are fixed, how much heat transfer will be increased when the better insulation material is next to the pipe than it is to the outer layer?

Solution

Case I When better insulation is inside

$$r_1 = 30/2 = 15\ \text{mm},\ r_2 = 15 + 20 = 35\ \text{mm},\ r_3 = 35 + 20 = 55\ \text{mm}$$

$$k_B = 5\,k_A$$

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$$Q_1 = \frac{2\pi L(T_1 - T_2)}{\frac{\ln \frac{r_2}{r_1}}{k_A} + \frac{\ln \frac{r_3}{r_2}}{k_B}} = \frac{2\pi L(T_1 - T_2)}{\frac{\ln \frac{35}{15}}{k_A} + \frac{\ln \frac{55}{35}}{5k_A}}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi k_A L(T_1 - T_2)}{0.8473 + 0.0904} = 1.066 \times 2\pi k_A L(T_1 - T_3) \quad \text{(i)}$$

Case 2 When the better insulation is outside

$$Q_2 = \frac{2\pi L(T_1 - T_2)}{\frac{\ln \frac{35}{15}}{5k_A} + \frac{\ln \frac{55}{35}}{k_A}} = \frac{2\pi k_A L(T_1 - T_2)}{0.1694 + 0.452}$$

$$= 1.609 \times 2\pi k_A \theta L(T_1 - T_2)$$

$$\frac{Q_2}{Q_1} = \frac{1.609 \times 2\pi k_A L(T_1 - T_2)}{1.066 \times 2\pi k_A L(T_1 - T_2)} = 1.509$$

As $Q_2 > Q_1$, therefore, putting the better insulation inside, next to the pipe, decreases the heat flow.

$\therefore$ % age decrease in heat transfer

$$= \frac{Q_2 - Q_1}{Q_1} = 1.509 - 1 = 0.509 \text{ or } 50.9\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.41 A gas-filled tube has 2 mm inside diameter and 250 mm length. The gas is heated by an electric wire of diameter 0.05 mm located along the axis of the tube. The current and voltage drop across the heating element are 0.5 amp and 4 volts respectively. If the measured wire and inside wall temperatures are 175°C and 150°C respectively, determine the thermal conductivity of the gas filling the tube.

Solution

$$r_1 = 1 \text{ mm}, L = 250 \text{ mm} = 0.25 \text{ m}, r_w = 0.025 \text{ mm},$$
$$T_1 = 150°\text{C}, T_2 = 175°\text{C}, I = 0.5 \text{ amp}, V = 4 \text{ V}$$

$$Q = \frac{2\pi kL(T_w - T_1)}{\ln \frac{r_1}{r_w}} = \frac{2\pi k \times 0.25(175 - 150)}{\ln \frac{1}{0.025}}$$

$$= (10.645\, k) \text{ W}$$

$$Q = V \times I = 4 \times 0.5 = 2 \text{ W}$$

$\therefore$ $10.645k = 2$

$$k = 0.188 \text{ W/mK} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.42 A wire of 6.5 mm dia. at 60°C is covered with insulation of k = 0.174 W/mK.

Given: $r_i = \frac{6.5}{2} = 3.25$ mm, k_i = 0.174 W/mK,

h_i = 8.722 W/m²K, T_∞ = 30°C.

To find: 1. $(r_0)_{cr}$ and $(r_0)_{cr} - r_i$, 2. Q_{max}, 3. percentage increase in heat loss due to insulation.

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Solution From Eq. (2.73), for maximum heat loss, the critical radius of insulation.

$$(r_0)_{cr} = \frac{k_i}{h_0} = \frac{0.174}{0.722} = 0.01995 \text{ m}$$
$$= 19.95 \text{ mm}$$

$$\text{Insulation thickness} = (r_0)_{cr} - r_i$$
$$= 19.95 - 3.25 = 16.70 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Heat loss without insulation

$$Q_1 = \frac{2\pi L(T_w - T_\infty)}{1/h_0 r_i} = \frac{2\pi \times 1(60-20)}{1/(8.722 \times 0.00325)}$$
$$= 7.124 \text{ W/m}$$

Heat loss (maximum) with insulation
From Eq. (2.72)

$$Q_2 = \frac{2\pi L(T_w - T_\infty)}{\frac{1}{k_i}\ln\frac{r_c}{r_i} + \frac{1}{h_0 r_0}} = \frac{2\pi \times 1(60-20)}{\frac{1}{0.174}\ln\frac{19.95}{0.00325} + \frac{1}{8.722 \times 0.00325}}$$
$$= 15.537 \text{ W/m}$$

Precentage increase in heat loss

$$= \frac{15.537 - 7.124}{7.124} \times 100 = 118.1\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 2.43 An oil film acts as a lubricant (μ = 10 N-s/m^2, k = 230 W/mK, ρ = 1220 kg/m^3) between two coaxial cylindrical surfaces (outer diameter = 100 mm and inner diameter = 99.5 mm). The outer cylinder rotates at 10,000 rpm. Calculate the maximum temperature in the oil film if both wall temperatures are maintained at 75°C.

The rate of heat generation per unit volume due to viscous dissipation may be assumed to be $\mu\left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)^2$.

Solution Since the clearance between two cylinders is very small, the velocity variation may be assumed to be linear.

$$\frac{d^2T}{dy^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$$

$$\frac{dT}{dy} = -\frac{q_G y}{k} + C_1$$

$$T = -\frac{q_G}{k}\frac{y^2}{2} + C_1 y + C_2$$

where $q_G = \mu(V/C)^2$

At $y = 0, T = 75°C, \quad \therefore C_2 = 75°C$

At $y = C, T = 75°C,$

$$75 = -\frac{\mu V^2}{c^2} \cdot \frac{c^2}{2k} + C_1 c + 75$$

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$$C_1 = \frac{\mu V^2}{2kc}, \quad V = \frac{2\pi N}{60} \times 0.05$$

For maximum temperature $\frac{dT}{dy} = 0$.

$$0 = \frac{q_G}{2k} \cdot y + C_1 = -\frac{q_G}{k} \cdot y + \frac{\mu V^2}{2k}$$

$$\therefore \quad y = \frac{\mu V^2}{2k} \times \frac{k \times c^2}{\mu V^2} = \frac{c}{2}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{max} = -\frac{q_G}{k} \cdot \frac{c^2}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\mu V^2}{2kc} \cdot \frac{c}{2} + 75$$

$$= -\frac{\mu V^2}{c^2} \times \frac{c^2}{8k} + \frac{\mu v^2}{4k} + 75$$

$$= \frac{\mu V^2}{8k} + 75 = 75 + 10 \times \left(\frac{2\pi \times 10^4 \times 0.05}{60} \right)^2 \frac{1}{8 \times 230}$$

$$= 75 + 14.9 = 89.9°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Summary

The general heat conduction equation for isotropic bodies is derived first in rectangular coordinates and then in cylindrical and spherical coordinates taking into consideration the internal heat generation. These equations are then reduced for steady state heat conduction in simple geometries with and without heat generation for plane, cylindrical and spherical walls. The critical radius of insulation for a cylinder and a sphere is separately derived and discussed with practical applications. Extended surfaces for enhancement of heat transfer are extensively reviewed, first for fins of uniform cross-sectional areas and then of variable cross-sectional areas. The fin performance parameters are analysed. Two- and three-dimensional steady state heat conduction in the absence of heat source is then discussed, first dealing with the analytical solution and then with graphical and numerical methods. The finite difference technique and the relaxation method for steady heat conduction are introduced.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation number	*Equation*	*Remarks*
(2.6)	$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{\partial T}{\partial T}$	Three-dimensional time dependent heat conduction equation with constant k in rectangular co-ordinates (Fourier equation)
(2.7)	$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} + \frac{q_G}{k} = 0$	Poisson equation

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Equation number	Equation	Remarks
(2.8)	$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}=0$	Laplace equation
(2.19)	$\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(y\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$	Three-dimensional time-dependent heat conduction equation with constant k in cylindrical coordinates
(2.22)	$\frac{1}{r}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)+\frac{q_G}{k}=0$	Steady state radial heat conduction in presence of heat source
(2.23)	$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)=0$	Steady state heat conduction in cylindrical coordinate radial direction
(2.30)	$\frac{1}{r^2\sin^2\theta}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2}+\frac{1}{r^2\sin\theta}\frac{\partial}{\partial\theta}\left(\sin\theta\frac{\partial T}{\partial\theta}\right)+\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r^2\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{q_G}{k}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$	General heat conduction equation in spherical co-ordinates
(2.31)	$\frac{d^2T}{dx^2}=0$	Temperature distribution for one dimensional steady heat conduction through a wall
(2.33)	$T=-\frac{T_1-T_2}{b}x+T_1$	Temperature at any distance x in a wall of thickness b
(2.36)	$T(x)=-\frac{q_G x^2}{2k}+\frac{T_2-T_1}{b}x+\frac{q_G b}{2k}+T_1$	Temperature distribution in a wall with uniform heat generation
(2.42)	$T_{\max}=\frac{q_G}{8k}b^2+\frac{q_G b}{2h}+T_\infty$	Maximum temperature in the mid-plane of a wall in presence of uniform heat generation
(2.45)	$Q_k=\frac{2\pi kL(T_i-T_0)}{\ln\frac{r_0}{r_i}}$	Steady state heat flow through a cylindrical wall
(2.46)	$R_{\text{th}}=\frac{\ln\frac{r_0}{r_i}}{2\pi kL}$	Thermal resistance offered by a cylindrical wall
(2.49)	$\frac{1}{U_0A_0}=\Sigma R_{\text{th}}=\frac{1}{\frac{1}{h_iA_i}+\frac{\ln r_2/r_i}{2\pi k_1L}+\frac{\ln r_3/r_2}{2\pi k_2L}+\frac{1}{h_0A_0}}$	Overall heat transfer coefficient in a composite sylinder with convection at the interior and exterior surfaces

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Equation number	Equation	Remarks
(2.55)	$T(r) = \frac{q_G R^2}{4k}\left(1-\frac{r^2}{R^2}\right)+T_w$	Temperature variation along the wall radius in presence of heat source
(2.63)	$\frac{T_{\max}}{T_\infty} = 1+\frac{q_G R}{4h_C T_\infty}\left(2+\frac{h_C R}{k}\right)$	Maximum temperature in the cylindrical wall in the presence of heat source with external convection
(2.69)	$T = T_w+\frac{q_G(R^2-r^2)}{6k}$	Temperature distribution in a solid sphere with heat generation
(2.71)	$T = T_w+\frac{q_G}{6k}(r_2^2-r^2)+\frac{q_G r_1^3}{3k}\left(\frac{1}{r_2}-\frac{1}{r}\right)$	Temperature distribution in a hollow sphere with heat generation
(2.73)	$(r_0)_{cr} = \frac{k_i}{h_a}$	Critical radius of insulation for a tube or wire
(2.75)	$(r_0)_{cr} = \frac{2k_i}{h_o}$	Critical radius of insulation for a spherical wall
(2.84)	$\theta = C_1 e^{mx} + C_2.e^{-mx}$	Temperature distribution in a straight fin
(2.90)	$\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} = \frac{\cosh m(l-x)+\frac{h}{mk}\sin h\, m(l-x)}{\cosh ml+\frac{h}{mk}\sin h\, ml}$	Temperature distribution in a straight fin losing heat at the tip
(2.91)	$\frac{\theta_l}{\theta_0} = \frac{1}{\cosh ml+\frac{h}{mk}\sinh ml}$	Tip temperature of a fin losing heat
(2.93)	$Q_0 = (hPkA)^{1/2}\theta\cdot\frac{\frac{h}{mk}+\tanh ml}{1+\frac{h}{mk}\tanh ml}$	Heat transfer from the base of a fin losing heat at the tip
(2.95)	$\frac{\theta}{\theta_0} = \frac{\cosh m(l-x)}{\cosh ml}$	Temperature distribution in a fin with insulated tip
(2.96)	$\frac{\theta_l}{\theta_0} = \frac{1}{\cosh ml}$	Temperature of the tip with no heat loss from the tip
(2.97)	$Q_0 = mkA\theta_0 \tanh ml$	Heat transfer from a straight fin with insulated tip

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Equation number	Equation	Remarks
(2.100)	$\frac{\theta}{\theta} = e^{-mx}$	Temperature distribution in an infinitely long fin
(2.101)	$Q = mkA\theta_0$	Heat flow from an infinitely long fin
(2.104)	$\varepsilon_f = \left(\frac{hP}{kA}\right)^{1/2} \tanh ml$	Fin effectiveness with no heat loss from the tip
(2.110a)	$\eta_f = \frac{\tanh ml}{ml}$	Fin efficiency of a fin with insulated tip
(2.114)	$Q_{\text{total}} = h\theta_0\left[A - (1-\eta_f)A_f\right]$	Total heat transfer from finned and unfinned surfaces
(2.116b)	$\frac{l}{b/2} = 1.419\left(\frac{2k}{hb}\right)^{1/2}$	Optimum ratio of fin height to half thickness for maximum heat flow for a given weight of a rectangular fin
(2.119)	$\frac{d^2\theta(x)}{dx^2} + \frac{dA/dx}{A}\frac{d\theta(x)}{dx} - \frac{hP}{kA}\theta(x) = 0$	General form of steady energy equation for an extended surface
(2.145)	$T(x,y) = T_m \frac{\sinh(\pi y/L)}{\sinh(\pi b/L)} \sin\frac{\pi x}{L}$	Temperature variation in a solid for two-dimensional steady state heat conduction

Objective Type Questions

2.1 The heat flow line at a point in a solid is along a path perpendicular to the
(a) isotropic surface
(b) isothermal surface
(c) adiabatic surface
(d) isobaric surface

2.2 The inside and outside heat transfer coefficients of a fluid across a brick wall of 15 cm thickness and thermal conductivity 0.10 W/mK are 30 W/m^{2}K. The overall heat transfer coefficient (W/m^{2}K) will be closer to
(a) inverse of heat transfer coefficient
(b) heat transfer coefficient
(c) thermal conductivity of brick
(d) none of the above

2.3 The relation $\nabla^2 T = 0$ is referred to as
(a) Fourier heat conduction equation
(b) Laplace equation
(c) Poisson equation
(d) Euler equation

2.4 If k is the thermal conductivity, ρ is the mass density and c is the specific heat of a substance, then its thermal diffusivity is given by
(a) $\frac{\rho c}{k}$ (b) $\frac{k}{\rho c}$
(c) $\frac{kc}{\rho}$ (d) $\frac{k\rho}{c}$

2.5 Transient heat conduction means
(a) heat conduction for a short time
(b) conduction when the temperature at a point varies with time
(c) very little heat transfer
(d) heat conduction with a very small temperature difference

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2.6 A composite wall has two layers of different materials having thermal conductivities of k_1 and k_2. If each layer has the same thickness, the equivalent thermal conductivity of the wall is

(a) $k_1 + k_2$ (b) $(k_1 + k_2)/k_1k_2$

(c) $\dfrac{2k_1k_2}{k_1 + k_2}$ (d) k_1k_2

2.7 In cylindrical coordinates the following relation

$$\frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial}{\partial r}\left(r\frac{\partial T}{\partial r}\right)+\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}=0$$

is called

(a) Laplace equation (b) Poisson equation
(c) Fourier equation (d) none of the above

2.8 In rectangular coordinates the following equation

$$\nabla^2 T+\frac{q_G}{k}=0$$

is called

(a) Laplace equation
(b) Poisson equation
(c) Fourier heat conduction equation
(d) none of the above

2.9 The steady state heat conduction equation in radial direction in spherical coordinates in absence of any heat source is given by

(a) $\dfrac{1}{r}\dfrac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r\dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)=0$

(b) $\dfrac{1}{r^2}\cdot\dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}=0$

(c) $\dfrac{1}{r^2}\dfrac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2\dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)=0$

(d) $\dfrac{1}{r}\dfrac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}r}\left(r^2\dfrac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}r}\right)=0$

2.10 The temperature profile for heat conduction through a wall of constant thermal conductivity in the presence of a heat source is

(a) a straight line (b) parabolic
(c) logarithmic (d) hyperbolic

2.11 The temperature variation for heat conduction through a cylindrical wall having uniform k is

(a) linear (b) parabolic
(c) logarithnic (d) hyperbolic

2.12 When the convective resistance is very low, i.e., $1/h_c \to 0$ or when the thermal resistance of a solid predominates, i.e., $k \to 0$, the Biot number approaches

(a) infinity (b) zero
(c) unity (d) none of the above

2.13 The maximum temperature at the centre of solid sphere of radius R having heat generation of q_G (W/m^3) is given by

(a) $T_w + \dfrac{q_G R^2}{2k}$ (b) $T_w + \dfrac{q_G R^2}{4k}$

(c) $T_w + \dfrac{q_G R^2}{6k}$ (d) $T_w + \dfrac{q_G R^2}{8k}$

where T_w is the wall temperature.

2.14 Up to the critical radius of insulation,

(a) convective heat loss will be less than conduction heat loss
(b) heat flux will decrease
(c) added insulation will increase the heat loss
(d) addd insulation will decrease the heat loss

2.15 If the radius of a current carrying wire is less than the critical radius, then the addition of electrical insulation will enable the wire to carry a higher current because

(a) the thermal resistance of the insulation is reduced.
(b) the thermal resistance of the insulation is increased.
(c) the heat loss from the wire would decrease.
(d) the heat loss from the wire would increase.

2.16 For pipes, the radius of the pipe is taken higher than the critical radius, so that any insulation added will only

(a) decrease the heat loss from the pipe.
(b) increase the heat loss from the pipe.
(c) keep the heat loss unaltered.
(d) enable heat gain from the surroundings.

2.17 The critical radius of insulation for a spherical shell is equal to

(a) h/k (b) $2h/k$
(c) k/h (d) $2k/h$

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2.18 Fins are provided on heat transfer surface
(a) to enhance heat transfer by increasing the turbulence in flow.
(b) to increase surface area in promoting the rate of heat transfer.
(c) to increase the temperature gradient in augmenting heat transfer.
(d) to decrease the pressure drop of fluid.

2.19 When the convective heat transfer coefficient $h = mk$ where $m = \sqrt{\frac{hP}{kA}}$, the incorporation of an extended surface will
(a) increase the rate of heat transfer
(b) decrease the rate of heat transfer
(c) not alter the rate of heat transfer
(d) only increase the rate of heat transfer when the length of the fin is very large

2.20 The fin effectivencess is enhanced by
(a) the choice of a material of high thermal conductivity.
(b) increasing the ratio of the permeter to the cross-sectional area of the fin.
(c) the low value of heat transfer coefficient.
(d) all of the above.

2.21 The ratio of heat transfer rate of a fin to the heat transfer rate without fin is referred to as
(a) fin effectiveness (b) fin efficiency
(c) fin resistance (d) fin conductance

2.22 The ratio of actual heat transfer from a fin to the maximum possible heat transfer when the entire fin were at the base temperature is called
(a) fin effectiveness
(b) fin efficiency
(c) fin performance coefficient
(d) convective coefficient

2.23 The temperature distribution along a fin with insulated tip is equal to
(a) $\exp(-mx)$
(b) $\frac{\exp(mx)+\exp(-mx)}{2}$
(c) $\frac{\cosh m(l-x)}{\cosh ml}$
(d) $\cosh m(l-x) + \cosh ml$

2.24 For $h/mk > 1$, i.e., $h > mk$, adding an extended surface
(a) reduces the rate of heat transfer
(b) increases the rate of heat transfer
(c) does not alter the rate of heat transfer
(d) obeys none of the above

2.25 For a rectangular fin of thickness b, the fin efficiency is given by
(a) $\left(\frac{kh}{2b}\right)^{1/2} \tanh ml$ (b) $\left(\frac{2k}{hb}\right)^{1/2} \tanh ml$
(c) $\left(\frac{2h}{kb}\right)^{1/2} \tanh ml$ (d) $\left(\frac{kb}{2h}\right)^{1/2} \tanh ml$

2.26 It is desired to increase the heat dissipation rate from the surface of an electronic device of spherical shape of 5 mm radius exposed to convection $h = 10$ W/m^{2}K by encasing it in a spherical sheath of conductivity $k = 0.04$ W/m^{2}K. For maximum heat flow, the diameter of the sheath should be
(a) 18 mm (b) 16 mm
(c) 12 mm (d) 8 mm

2.27 Consider the following statements pertaining to heat transfer through fins:
1. Fins are equally effective irrespective of whether they are on the hot side or cold side of the fluid.
2. The temperature along the fin is variable and hence the rate of heat transfer varies along the fin.
3. The fins may be made of materials that have a higher thermal conductivity than the material of the wall.
4. Fins must be arranged at right angles to the direction of fluid flow

Of these statements,
(a) 1 and 2 are correct
(b) 2 and 4 are correct
(c) 1 and 3 are correct
(d) 2 and 3 are correct

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Answers

2.1 (b)	2.2 (c)	2.3 (b)	2.4 (b)	2.5 (b)
2.6 (c)	2.7 (a)	2.8 (b)	2.9 (c)	2.10 (b)
2.11 (c)	2.12 (a)	2.13 (c)	2.14 (c)	2.15 (d)
2.16 (a)	2.17 (d)	2.18 (b)	2.19 (c)	2.20 (d)
2.21 (a)	2.22 (b)	2.23 (c)	2.24 (a)	2.25 (d)
2.26 (b)	2.27 (b)			

Open Book Problems

2.1 The variation of thermal conductivity of a wall material is given by

$$k = k_o \,.\, (1 + \alpha T + \beta T^2)$$

If the thickness of the wall is L and its two surfaces are maintained at temperatures T_1 and T_2, find an expression for the steady state one-dimensional heat flow through the wall.

Hints: Use Fourier's equation $q = -k\dfrac{dT}{dx}$ and substitute $k = k_0\,(1 + \alpha T + \beta T^2)$. Then,

$$\int_0^L dx = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} k_0(1+\alpha T+\beta T^2)dT$$

On integrating, deduce the required expression.

2.2 An electric hot plate is maintained at a temperature of 350°C and is used to keep a solution boiling at 95°C. The solution is contained in a cast iron vesel of wall thickness 25 mm which is enamelled inside to a thickness of 0.8 mm. The heat transfer coefficient for the boiling solution is 5.5 kW/m^{2}K and the thermal conductivities of cast iron and enamel are 50 and 1.05 W/mK respectively. Calculate (a) the overall heat transfer coefficient, and (b) the rate of heat transfer per unit area.

Hints: (a) The overall heat transfer coefficient is found from

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{(\Delta x)_{CI}}{k_{CI}} + \frac{(\Delta x)_{\text{enamel}}}{k_{\text{emamel}}} + \frac{1}{h\ \text{solution}}$$

and then calculate $Q = UA\,(T_{\text{heater}} - T_{\text{solution}})$

2.3 A steam pipe, 10 cm I.D. and 11 cm O.D., is covered with an insulating material (k = 1 W/mK). The steam temperature and the ambient temperature are 200°C and 20°C respectively. If the convective heat transfer coefficient is 8 W/m^{2}K, find the critical radius of insulation, and for this value of r_0, calculate the heat loss per metre of the pipe and the outer surface temperature. Neglect resistance of the pipe material.

Hints: Find $r_c = k/h$, and using $r_o = r_c$, find

$$Q/L = \frac{T_i - T_\infty}{\dfrac{\ln r_0 / r_i}{2\pi k} + \dfrac{1}{2\pi r_0 h}}$$

The outer surface temperature T_0 is found from the expression

$$T_o = (Q/L)R_0 + T_\infty$$

2.4 A thin hollow tube with 6 mm O.D. and 4 mm I.D. carries a current of 1000 amperes. Water at 30°C is circulated inside the tube for cooling it. Taking the heat transfer coefficient of the water side as 35,000 W/m^{2}K and k of the tube material as 18 W/mK, estimate the surface temperature of the tube if the outer surface is insulated. The electrical resistance of the material is 0.1 ohm –mm^2/m.

Hints: Use Eq. (2.51), $T = \dfrac{q_G r^2}{4k} + C_1 \ln r + C_2$

Now, $\left(\dfrac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_o} = 0$ since outer surface is insulated.

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Heat generated is transferred to the fluid inside.

$$\therefore \quad Q = q_G(r_o^2 - r_i^2) = -k\left(\frac{dT}{dr}\right)_{r=r_i}$$

$$2\pi r_i = h2\pi r_i(T_i - T_f)$$

At $r - r_i$, $T = T_i$, find C_2 and substituting C_1 and C_2

$$T_o = T_f + \frac{q_G r_i^2}{4k}\left[\left(\frac{2k}{hr_i} - 1\right)\left\{\left(\frac{r_0}{r_i}\right)^2 - 1\right\} + 2\left(\frac{r_0}{r_i}\right)^2 \ln\frac{r_0}{r_i}\right]$$

Substituting $q_G = \dfrac{I^2R}{\pi(r_0^2 - r_i^2)}$, $T_f = 30°C$, $h = 35000$ W/m^{2}K, $k = 18$ W/m^{2}K, find T_o.

2.5 Two rods of diameter D and length L have one of the ends at 120°C and are exposed to air at 30°C. The conductivity of the material of one rod is 45 W/m^{2}K and the temperature of the rod at the end is measured as 80°C, while the end temperature of the other rod was 60°C. Determine the conductivity of the other material.

Hints: Equation (2.96) $\dfrac{\theta_l}{\theta_o} = \dfrac{1}{\cosh ml}$ gives the temperature of the fin at the tip which is insulated.

Here, $\dfrac{T_i - T_\infty}{T_o - T_\infty} = \dfrac{1}{\cosh ml}$, $T_l = 80°C$,

$T_\infty = 30°C$, $T_o = 120°C$ for one rod. Find $m_1 l$ for this rod and $m_2 l$ for the other rod.

Therefore, $\dfrac{m_1}{m_2} = \dfrac{\sqrt{hP/k_1A}}{\sqrt{hP/k_2A}} = \sqrt{\dfrac{k_2}{k_1}}$.

If $k_1 = 45$ W/mK, find k_2.

2.6 The aluminium (k = 200 W/m^{2}K) square fins (0.5 mm × 0.5 mm) of 10 mm length are provided on a surface of a semiconductor electronic device to dissipate 1 W of energy generated. The temperature at the surface of the device should not exceed 80°C when the surrounding temperature is 40°C, and h = 15 W/m^{2}K. Neglecting heat loss from the tip, find the number of fins required to carry out the above duty.

Hints: First find $m = \sqrt{\dfrac{hP}{kA}}$ and then ml.

Equation (2.97) gives
$Q_{fin} = n[mkA\theta_0 \tanh ml] = 1$ watt.
where n = number of fins required.

2.7 A longitudinal copper fin (k = 380 W/mK) 600 mm long and 5 mm diameter is exposed to an air stream at 20°C. The convective heat transfer coefficient is 20 W/m^{2}K. If the fin base temprature is 150°C, determine (a) the rate of heat transfer and (b) the efficiency of the fin.

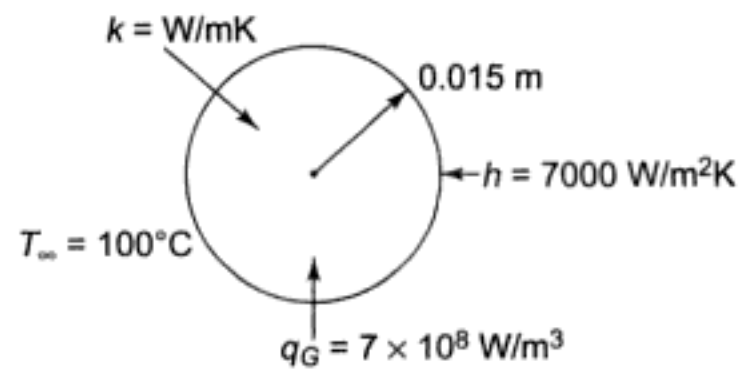
Hints: Neglecting tip loss, $Q_0 = mkA\theta_0 \tanh ml$

where $m = \sqrt{\dfrac{hP}{kA}} = \sqrt{\dfrac{h}{2} \times \dfrac{\pi d}{\frac{\pi}{4}d^2}} = \sqrt{\dfrac{4h}{kd}}$,

$T_o = 150°C$, $T_\infty = 20°C$,
$d = 0.005$ m, $L = 0.6$ m. Find Q_o and then

$$\eta_{fin} = \frac{\tanh ml}{ml}$$

2.8 Nuclear fuel rods are to be clad with aluminium or stainless steel or zirconium with melting temperatures of 650°C, 1400°C and 1800°C. The diameter is 30 mm and the heat generation rate is 7×10^8 W/m^3. The convection on the surface to a fluid at 100°C has h = 7000 W/m^{2}K. The conductivity of the material is 52 W/mK. At shut-down times, coolant may not circulate and the surface temperature may reach the mean between the steady state surface and the centre temperature. Check for the material to be used for cladding.



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Hints: Energy balance gives

Heat generated = Heat convected away

$$q_G \times \pi r^2 l = h\, 2\pi r l\, (T_w - T_\infty)$$

Find T_w.

From Eq. (2.56)

$T_o - T_\infty = (q_G/4k)\, R^2$. Find $T_o = T_{max}$.

Check for the melting point and notice that zirconium is the most suitable material for cladding.

Review Questions

2.1 What is an isotropic solid?

2.2 Why is there a negative sign in the Fourier's law of heat conduction?

2.3 Define thermal diffusivity. What is its dimension? How does it differ from thermal conductivity?

2.4 What is Laplacian? Express it in rectangular and cylindrical coordinates.

2.5 Define thermal conductivity and explain its significance in heat transfer. How do thermal conductivities of gases and liquids vary with temperature?

2.6 Show that the temperature profile for heat conduction through a wall of constant thermal conductivity is a straight line and in the presence of a heat source it becomes parabolic.

2.7 Show that the temperature variation for heat conduction through a cylindrical wall having uniform k is logarithmic.

2.8 Show that the maximum temperature in a cylindrical rod with heat generation q_G (kW/m^3) is given by

$$\frac{T_{max}}{T_\infty} = 1 + \frac{q_G R}{4 h_c T_\infty}\left(2 + \frac{h_c R}{k}\right)$$

where h_c is the convection heat transfer coefficient and T_∞ is the ambient temperature.

2.9 Show that the thermal resistance offered by a spherical wall of uniform k is given by $(r_o - r_i)/(4\pi k r_o r_i)$.

2.10 What do you mean by critical radius of insulation? Show that it is given by k_i/h_a, where k_i is the thermal conductivity of insulation and h_a is the heat transfer coefficient.

2.11 A pipe is insulated to reduce the heat loss from it. However, measurements indicate that the rate of heat loss has increased instead of decreasing. Can the measurements be right?

2.12 Explain why an insulated small diameter wire has a higher current carrying capacity than an uninsulated one.

2.13 Explain the effect of extended surfaces on heat transfer.

2.14 If a fin is thin and long and tip loss is negligible, show that the heat transfer from the fin is given by

$$Q_o = mkA\theta_o \tanh ml$$

where $m = (hP/kA)^{1/2}$

2.15 Define fin effectiveness. When is the use of fins not justified?

2.16 What are the considerations in determining the proper length of the fins attached to a surface?

2.17 Discuss the criteria of selection of fins. What is the difference between the fin effectiveness and the fin efficiency?

2.18 How is the thermal performance of a fin measured? Define fin efficiency.

2.19 Show that the fin efficiency for a rectangular fin is given by

$$\eta_f = \frac{\tanh\left[(2h l_c^2)/kb\right]^{1/2}}{\left[(2h l_c^2)/kb\right]^{1/2}}$$

where l_c = corrected length $= l + \dfrac{b}{2}$

or $$l_c = l + \frac{A}{P}$$

2.20 Show that the total heat transfer from a finned wall is given by

$$Q = h\,\theta\,[A - (1 - \eta_f)\, A_f]$$

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where A = total area of fin and unfinned surfaces, A_f = area of the finned surface, η_f = fin efficiency and $\theta_0 = T_o - T_\infty$.

2.21 Show that for maximum heat flow from a rectangular fin of a given weight, the optimum ratio of fin height to half the fin thickness is

$$\frac{1}{b/2} = 1.419\left(\frac{2k}{hb}\right)^{1/2}$$

and the excess temperature at the fin tip is

$$\theta_1 = 0.457\,\theta_0$$

where θ_0 is the excess temperature at the fin root.

2.22 Determine the optimum shape of a fin having the minimum weight for a given heat flow. Explain how the triangular fin is of the best shape.

2.23 Use the separation-of-variables method to solve the Laplacian for a two-dimensional heat conduction problem. Why are the isotherms and adiabatics orthogonal?

2.24 Explain the graphical method of solving a two-dimensional heat conduction problem. Define the shape factor. How is it estimated?

2.25 Explain discretisation and stability with respect to the numerical method of solving a two-dimensional heat conduction problem.

2.26 Explain the matrix inversion method of determining the temperature distribution for steady heat conduction in a two-dimensional solid.

2.27 What is a conduction shape factor? How is it related to the thermal resistance?

2.28 Discuss Gauss–Siedel iteration technique to determine temperature at a nodal point in a two-dimensional solid.

2.29 What is the relaxation method of solving a set of algebraic equations? What do you mean by residuals?

2.30 How can a three-dimensional heat conduction problem be solved?

2.31 Explain the electrical analogy method of solving heat conduction problems.

Problems for Practice

2.1 A plane wall of width L has a constant thermal conductivity k. The surface temperatures are T_1 at $x = 0$ and T_2 at $x = L$. The heat generated per unit volume in the wall varies according to the expression $q_G = bx^2$. Determine (a) the steady temperature distribution, (b) the location of the plane of maximum temperature and (c) the heat flux leaving the wall at the surface $x = L$.

2.2 Determine the steady-state temperature distribution and the total radial heat flow in a hollow sphere in a region $a < r < b$ when the boundary surface at $r = a$ and $r = b$ are kept at uniform temperatures T_o and T_i respectively.

$$\left(Ans.\,T = \frac{1}{b-a}\left[aT_o\left(\frac{b}{r}-1\right)+bT_1\left(1-\frac{a}{r}\right)\right],\quad Q = \frac{(T_o - T_1)\,4\pi kab}{b-a}\right)$$

2.3 A plastic pipe (k = 0.5 W/m K) carries a fluid such that the convective heat transfer coefficient is 300 W/m^2 K. The average fluid temperature is 100°C. The pipe has an inner diameter of 3 cm and outer diameter of 4 cm. If the heat transfer rate through the pipe per unit length is 500 W/m, calculate the external pipe temperature and the overall heat transfer coefficient based on outside area. (*Ans.* 36.53°C, 62.69 W/m^2 K)

2.4 A steel (k = 15 W/mK) tube with 5 cm inner diameter and 7.6 cm outer diameter is covered with an insulation (k = 0.2 W/m K) of thickness 0.2 cm. A hot gas at 330°C flows through the tube with h_i = 400 W/m^2 K. The outer surface of the insulation is exposed to air at 30°C with h_o = 60 W/m^2 K. Calculate (a) the heat loss from the tube which is 10 m long and (b) the temperature drops resulting from the thermal resistances of the hot gas

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flow, the steel tube, the insulation layer and the outside air.

(*Ans.* (a) 7251 W, (b) 12°C, 3.3°C, 253°C and 31.7°C)

2.5 Derive an expression for the one-dimensional steady-state temperature distribution in a slab of thickness L where heat is generated at a constant rate of q_G W/m^3. The boundary surface at $x = 0$ is insulated and that at $x = L$ is kept at zero temperature. Calculate the temperature of the insulated surface for k = 40 W/m K, $q_G = 10^6$ W/m^3 and $L = 0.1$ m.

(*Ans.* 125°C)

2.6 An electrical resistance wire of radius 1 mm with thermal conductivity 25 W/m K is heated by the flow of electric current which generates heat at the rate of 2×10^9 W/m^3. Determine the centreline temperature rise above the surface temperature of the wire if the surface is maintained at a constant temperature. (*Ans.* 20°C)

2.7 An industrial furnace is made of fireclay brick of thickness 25 cm and thermal conductivity k_1 = 1 W/m K. The outside surface is insulated with material (k_2 = 0.05 W/m K). Determine the thickness of the insulation layer in order to limit the heat loss from the furnace wall to q = 1000 W/m^2 when the inside surface of the wall is at 1030°C and the outside surface at 30°C.

(*Ans.* 3.75 cm)

2.8 A hollow steel sphere (k = 10 W/m K) has an inside radius of 10 cm and outside radius of 20 cm. The inside surface is maintained at a uniform temperature of 230°C and the outside surface dissipates heat by convection with h = 20 W/m^2 K into the ambient air at 30°C. Determine the thickness of asbestos insulation (k = 0.5 W/m K) required to reduce the heat loss by 50%. (*Ans.* 5.8 cm)

2.9 Two very long slender rods of the same diameter are given. One rod is of aluminium and has k_1 = 200 W/m K, but k_2 of the other rod is not known. To determine the k_2 of the other rod, both the rods are thermally attached to a metal surface maintained at a constant temperature T_o. Both rods lose heat by convection with a heat transfer coefficient h into the ambient air at T_∞. The surface temperature of each rod is measured at various distances from the hot base surface. The temperature of the aluminium rod at x_1 = 40 cm from the base is the same as that of the other rod at x_2 = 20 cm from the base. Determine the thermal conductivity k_2 of the second rod.

(*Ans.* 50 W/m K)

2.10 The inner and outer radii of a hollow cylinder are 5 cm and 10 cm respectively. The inside surface is maintained at 300°C, and the outside surface at 100°C. The thermal conductivity varies with temperature in the range $100 < T < 300$°C as $k = 0.5\ (1 + 10^{-3}\ T)$ where T is in °C. Determine the heat flow rate per meter length of cylinder.

(*Ans.* 1.088 kW/m)

2.11 A copper rod of diameter 5 mm is heated by the flow of current. The surface of the rod is maintained at 175°C while it is dissipating heat by convection (h = 150 W/m^2 K) into the ambient air at 25°C. If the rod is covered with a 1 mm thick coating (k = 0.6 W/m K), will the heat loss from the rod increase or decrease?

(*Ans.* r_c = 4 mm, heat loss increases)

2.12 Determine the steady-state temperature distribution and the radial heat flow rate for a length L in a hollow cylinder of inside radius r_i and outside radius r_o, in which heat is generated at a constant rate of q_G W/m^3, while the inside and outside surfaces are maintained constant at uniform temperatures T_i and T_o respectively.

$$\left(Ans.\, T = -\frac{q_G}{4k} r^2 + \frac{(T_o - T_i) + (q_G / 4k)\,(r_o^2 - r_i^2)}{\ln (r_o / r_i)} \right.$$

$$\ln r + \left(T_1 + \frac{q_G r_i^2}{4k} \right) - \left[(T_o - T_i) + \frac{q_G (r_o^2 - r_i^2)}{4k} \right]$$

$$\left. \frac{\ln r_i}{\ln (r_o / r_i)} \text{ and } Q = \frac{T_i - T_o}{\dfrac{\ln (r_o / r_i)}{(2\pi k L)}} \right)$$

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2.13 Estimate the rate of evaporation of liquid oxygen from a spherical container with 1.8 m inner diameter covered with 30 cm of asbestos insulation. The temperatures of the inner and outer surfaces of the insulation are – 183°C and 0°C respectively. The boiling point of oxygen is – 183°C and the latent heat of vaporisation is 212.5 kJ/kg. The thermal conductivity of insulation is 0.157 and 0.125 W/m K at 0°C and – 185°C respectively. Assume that the thermal conductivity of the wall varies as

$$k = k_o + (k_1 - k_o)\left(\frac{T - T_o}{T_i - T_o}\right)$$

(*Ans.* 0.0055 kg/s)

2.14 A current of 200 amp is passed through a stainless steel wire 0.25 cm in diameter. The resistivity of steel may be taken as 70 Ω cm, and the length of wire is 1 m. If the outer surface temperature of the wire is maintained at 180°C, calculate the centre temperature. Assume k for stainless steel as 30 W/m K.

(*Ans.* 195.2°C)

2.15 A turbine blade, 6.25 cm long, cross-sectional area 4.5 cm^2, perimeter 12 cm, is made of stainless steel (k = 26.16 W/m K). The temperature of the root is 500°C. The blade is exposed to a hot gas at 800°C, and the average heat transfer coefficient is 0.465 kW/m^2 K. Determine the temperature and the rate of heat flow at the root of the blade. Assume that the tip is insulated.

(*Ans.* 243 W)

2.16 A 10 mm cable is to be laid in an atmosphere of 20°C (h_a = 8.49 W/m^2 K). The surface temperature of the cable is likely to be 65°C due to heat generated within. Find the rate of heat loss (a) with critical radius of insulation, (b) without insulation.

(*Ans.* (a) 18.95 W/m, (b) 12.09 W/m)

2.17 A cylindrical transformer coil made of insulated copper wire has an inner diameter of 16 cm and an outer diameter of 24 cm. Sixty percent of the total construction of the coil is copper and the rest insulation. The density of the current in the conductor is 190 A/cm^2. The specific resistance of copper is 210 × 10^{-6} W cm^2/m. The heat transfer coefficient on both surfaces of the coil, which are cooled by air at 20°C, is 23.26 W/m^2 K. The thermal conductivity of the coil is 0.35 W/m K. Find the maximum temperature in the coil. Assume the coil as a plane wall with the thickness $2l$ = 4 cm.

(*Ans.* 85.4°C)

2.18 An IC engine cylinder carries copper fins with an inner diameter of 10 cm and an outer diameter of 12.5 cm. The cylinder wall and the ambient temperatures are 180°C and 36°C respectively and the convective heat transfer coefficient may be taken as 69.77 W/m^2 K. The thermal conductivity and density of copper are 383.7 W/m K and 8800 kg/m^3 respectively. If the fins are designed to obtain maximum heat transfer for a given mass, find (a) the rate of heat transfer per fin, if the heat transfer is independent of fin material and (b) the saving in mass in kilogram per fin if aluminium were used in place of copper. Take the thermal conductivity and density of aluminium as 203.5 W/m K and 2670 kg/m^3 respectively.

(*Ans.* (a) 55.5 W/fin
(b) 42.7% saving in mass)

2.19 An electric motor is to be connected by a horizontal steel shaft of 25 mm diameter to the impeller of a pump circulating liquid metal at a temperature of 540°C. If the temperature of the electric motor is to be limited to a maximum value of 52°C with the ambient air at 27°C, what length of shaft should be specified between the motor and the pump? Take k for steel = 42.56 W/m K and h = 40.7 W/m^2 K.

(*Ans.* l = 30 cm)

2.20 The two ends of a thin circular rod of diameter D at $x = 0$ and $x = L$ are maintained at temperatures T_o and T_L respectively, while heat is generated at a uniform rate of q_G W/m^3. Determine the steady-state

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temperature distribution in the rod for the cases when (a) the lateral surface of the rod is insulated and (b) the lateral surface dissipates heat by convection into a medium at temperature T_L with a heat transfer coefficient h.

2.21 A 1 mm diameter electrical wire is covered with a 2-mm thick layer of plastic insulation (k = 0.5 W/m K). The wire is surrounded by air with an ambient temperature of 25°C and h = 10 W/m^2 K. The wire temperature is 100°C. Determine the rate of heat dissipated from the wire per unit length with and without insulation. Find the radius of insulation when the rate of heat dissipation is maximum. What is the maximum value of this heat dissipation?

(*Ans.* $Q_{\text{with insul}}$ = 10.90 W/m, $Q_{\text{without insul}}$ = 2.36 W/m, $(r_o)_{cr}$ = 50 mm, $Q_{\max}$ = 42.1 W/m

2.22 An electrically heated sphere of diameter 6 cm is exposed to the ambient air at 25°C with a convection heat transfer coefficient 20 W/m^2 K. The surface of the sphere is maintained at 125°C. Calculate the rate of heat loss (a) when the sphere is uninsulated and (b) when the sphere is insulated for maximum heat loss. (*Ans.* 22.6 W, 44.4 W)

2.23 Steam in a heating system flows through tubes whose outer diameter is 3 cm and whose walls are maintained at a temperature of 120°C. Circular aluminium fins (k = 180 W/m K) of outer diameter 6 cm and constant thickness 2 mm are attached to the tube, as shown in Fig. P-2.23. The space between the fins is 3 mm, and thus there are 200 fins per meter length of the tube. Heat is transferred to the surrounding air at 25°C, with a combined heat transfer coefficient of 60 W/m^2 K. Determine the increase in heat transfer due to addition of fins.

(*Ans.* 4783 W/m)

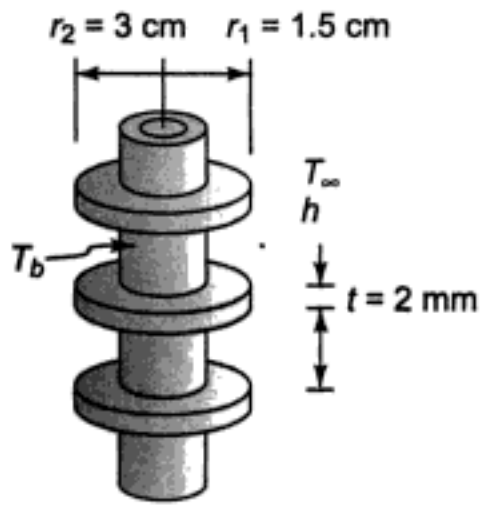


Fig. P-2.23

2.24 A stainless steel (k = 20 W/m K) fin has a circular cross-sectional area with a diameter of 2 cm and a length of 10 cm. The fin is attached to a wall that has a temperature of 300°C. The fluid surrounding the fin has an ambient temperature of 50°C and the heat transfer coefficient is 10 W/m^2 K. The end of the fin is insulated. Determine (a) the rate of heat dissipation from the fin, (b) the temperature at the tip, (c) the rate of heat transfer from the wall area covered by the fin if the fin is not used and (d) the heat transfer rate from the same fin geometry if the stainless steel fin is replaced by a fictitious fin with infinite thermal conductivity.

(*Ans.* (a) 11.96 W, (b) 212°C, (c) 0.785 W, 15.2% less (d) 15.71 W, 24% more)

2.25 A long stainless steel tool bar of 20 mm × 20 mm cross-section is perfectly insulated on three sides and is maintained at a temperature of 400°C on the remaining side. Determine the maximum temperature in the bar when it is conducting a current of 1000 A. The thermal and electrical conductivity of stainless steel may be taken as 16 W/m K and 1.5 × 10^4 (Ω cm)$^{-1}$ and the heat flow at the ends may be neglected.

(*Ans.* q_G = 4167 kW/m^3, $T_{\max}$ = 452.1°C)

2.26 Derive an equation giving the temperature at the centre of a circular rod conducting electric current in terms of the current density, the wall temperature and the material properties. What is the centre temperature of a stainless seel (k = 16 W/m K, ρ = 0.67 × 10^{-4} Ω cm) rod of 20 mm diameter with an outer temperature of 400°C when conducting 1000 A?

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$$\left(Ans.\ T = \frac{q_G\, r^2}{4k} + T_w, T_o = 410.6°C \right)$$

2.27 A current of 200 amperes is passed through a stainless steel (k = 19 W/m K) wire 3 mm in diameter. The resistivity of steel is 70 Ω cm and the length of the wire is 1 m. The wire is submerged in a liquid at 110°C and experiences a convection heat transfer coefficient of 4 kW/m^2 K. Calculate the centre-line temperature of the wire.

(*Ans.* 231.6°C)

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Transient Heat Conduction

3

So far we have studied only steady-state heat conduction. After the heat transfer process is initiated some time must elapse before steady-state is reached. During this transient period the temperature changes and the analysis must take into account changes in the associated internal energy. Transient heat flow is of great practical importance in industrial heating and cooling.

In addition to unsteady heat flow when the system undergoes a transition from one steady state to another, there are also engineering problems involving periodic variations in heat flow and temperature e.g., periodic heat flow in a building between day and night and in regenerators, where the matrix is alternately heated and cooled. In periodic heat flow systems, the temperature at a point varies periodically or cyclically.

We shall first analyse the problems where the temperature is uniform throughout the system at any instant and it varies only with time. This type of analysis is called the *lumped-heat-capacity method*. Later, we shall deal with problems of unsteady heat flow where temperature not only depends on time but also varies with space coordinates.

3.1 LUMPED CAPACITANCE METHOD FOR BODIES OF INFINITE THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY

Even though no material in nature has an infinite thermal conductivity, many transient heat flow problems can be readily solved by assuming that the internal conductive resistance of the system is very small and the temperature within the system at any instant is uniform. This is justified when the external thermal resistance between the surface of the system and the surrounding fluid is so large compared to the internal thermal resistance that it controls the rate of heat transfer [Fig. 3.1(a)].

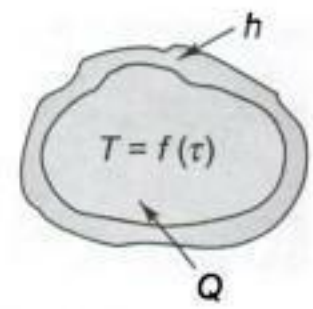


Fig. 3.1(a) *Cooling of a small billet*

A measure of the relative importance of the thermal resistance within a solid body is the Biot number Bi, which is the ratio of internal to external thermal resistance.

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{\text{Internal conductive resistance}}{\text{External convective resistance}} = \frac{L/k}{1/h} = \frac{hL}{k}$$

where h is the average heat transfer coefficient, L is a characteristic dimension obtained by dividing the volume of the body by its surface area and k is the thermal conductivity of the solid body. For Bi < 0.1, i.e. when the internal resistance is less than 10% of the external resistance, the internal resistance can be ignored, and there is only one temperature at a certain instant that stands for the system as a whole, independent of space coordinates x, y and z.

Let us consider the cooling of a small billet or metal casting in a quenching bath or air after it is removed from a hot furnace [Fig. 3.1(a)]. Neglecting any temperature gradient within the solid, an energy balance for the billet over a small time interval dt gives.

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Change in internal energy of the billet during time dt = Net heat flow from the billet to the bath or air during time dt

$$-\rho V c\, dT = hA(T - T_\infty)\, dt \tag{3.1}$$

where ρ = density of billet, kg/m^3; V = volume of billet, m^3; c = specific heat of billet, J/kg K; T = average temperature of billet, K; T_∞ = surrounding fluid temperature, K; h = average heat transfer coefficient, W/m^2 K; A = surface area of billet, m^2 and dT = temperature change, K, during time interval dt, s.

The minus sign indicates that the internal energy and hence temperature decrease with time. From Eq. (3.1)

$$\frac{dT}{T - T_\infty} = \frac{d(T - T_\infty)}{T - T_\infty} = -\frac{hA}{\rho c V}\, dt \tag{3.2}$$

Let the initial temperature of the billet be T_i when $t = 0$. After time t has elapsed, the temperature of the billet falls to T. On integrating Eq. (3.2) between these limits

$$\ln \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = -\frac{hA}{\rho c V} t$$

or

$$\frac{\mathbf{T - T_\infty}}{\mathbf{T_i - T_\infty}} = \mathbf{e}^{-\frac{hA}{\rho c V} t} \tag{3.3}$$

Let Bi = hL/k and Fo = Fourier number = $\dfrac{\alpha t}{L^2}$, where α = thermal diffusivity (m^2/s). The product

$$\text{Bi Fo} = \frac{hL}{k}\frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{hL}{k}\frac{k}{\rho c}\frac{t}{L^2} = \frac{ht}{\rho c L}$$

$$= \frac{hAt}{\rho c V} \text{ where } L = V/A$$

If excess temperature $\theta = T - T_\infty$ then Eq. (3.3) can be written as

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{\boldsymbol{\theta}_i} = \mathbf{e}^{-\mathbf{Bi\ Fo}} \tag{3.4}$$

For a sphere, $L = \dfrac{(4/3)\pi r^3}{4\pi r^2} = \dfrac{r}{3}$

For a cylinder, $L = \dfrac{\pi r^2 l}{2\pi r l} = \dfrac{r}{2}$

For a cube of side l, $L = \dfrac{l^3}{6l^2} = \dfrac{l}{6}$

The time-temperature history of the billet is shown in Fig. 3.1(b). The characteristic dimensionless numbers of transient heat conduction are the Fourier number, which may be called *dimensionless time*, and the Biot number. Rate of heat transfer at any time t or instantaneous heat transfer rate can be obtained from Eq. (3.1).

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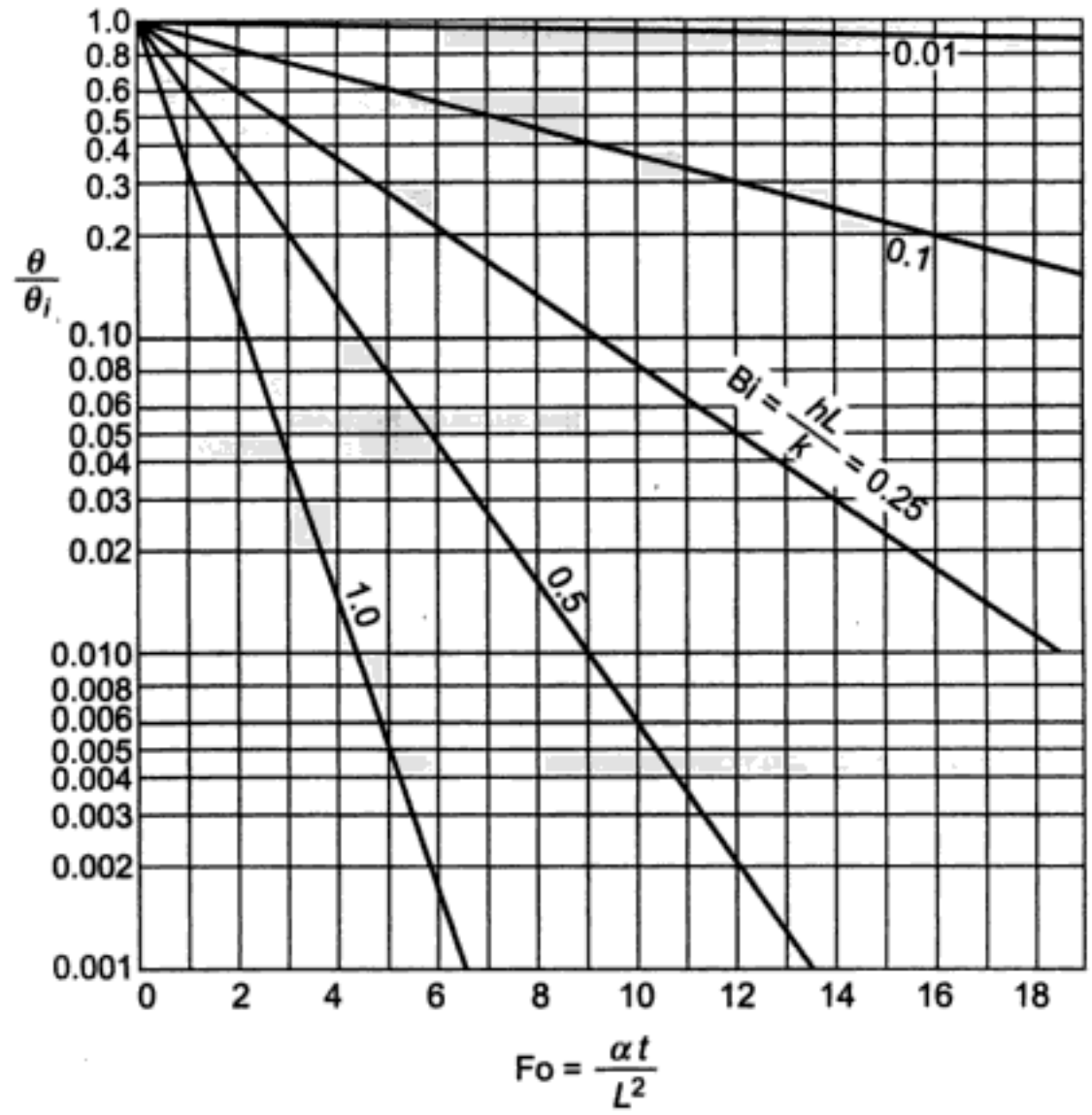


Fig. 3.1 (b) *Temperature-time history of the homogeneous billet*

$$Q = -\rho cV\frac{dT}{dt} = -\rho cV(T_i - T_\infty)\left(-\frac{hA}{\rho cV}\right)\exp\left[-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}\right]$$

$$= \mathbf{hA\,\theta_i\,exp\,(-Bi\cdot Fo)\,kW}$$

Total amount of heat transfer during a time interval (O, t) is the change in internal energy of the body.

$$\Delta U = \int_0^t Q\cdot dt = \int_0^t hA\,(T - T_\infty)dt = \int_0^t hA(T_i - T_\infty)e^{-\mathrm{Bi}\cdot\mathrm{Fo}}\cdot dt$$

$$= hA\,\theta_i\int_0^t e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}}dt = hA\theta_i\,(1 - e^{-\mathrm{Bi}\cdot\mathrm{Fo}})\,\frac{t}{\mathrm{Bi}\cdot\mathrm{Fo}}$$

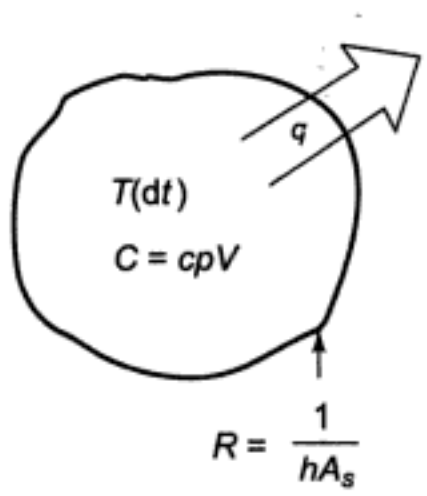
$$= hA\theta_i\,(1 - e^{-\mathrm{Bi}\cdot\mathrm{Fo}})\,\frac{t\,\rho cV}{hAt}$$

$$= \mathbf{\rho cV\theta_i\,(1 - e^{-Bi\cdot Fo})\,kJ} \qquad (3.5)$$

An electrical network analogous to the thermal network for a lumped-single-capacity system is shown in Fig. 3.2. The capacitor in this network is initially charged to the potential T_i by closing the switch *S*. When the switch is opened, the energy stored in the capacitance is discharged through the resistance $1/hA$. The analogy between the thermal system and the electrical system is apparent. The thermal resistance is $R = 1/hA$, and the thermal capacitance is $C = \rho cV$, while R_e and C_e are the electrical resistance and capacitance respectively. To construct an electrical system that would behave exactly like the thermal system, the ratio $hA/\rho cV$ is just to be made equal to $1/R_eC_e$. In the thermal system internal energy is stored, whereas in the electrical system electric charge is stored. The flow of energy in the thermal system is heat,

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and the flow of charge is electric current. The quantity $\rho cV/hA$ is called the *time constant* of the system, since it has the dimension of time.

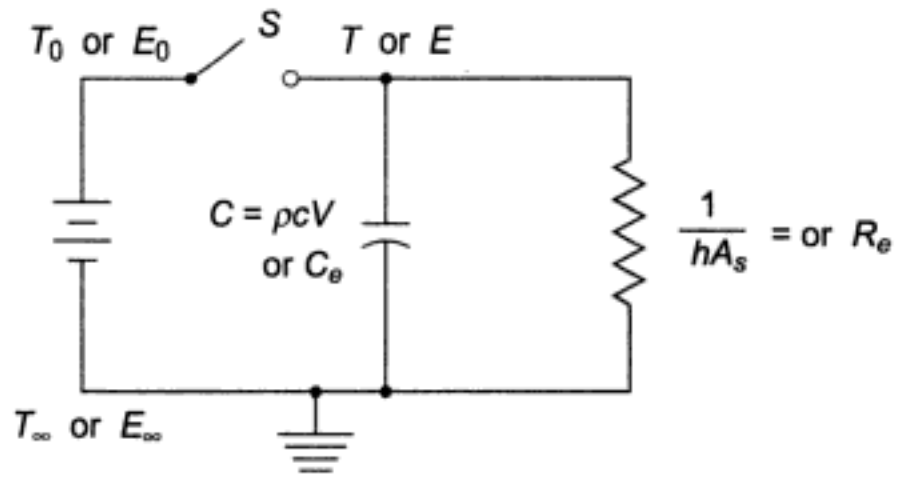


$$R = \frac{1}{hA_s}$$

$$q = \frac{T - T_\infty}{R} = -C\frac{dT}{dt}$$

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_0 - T_\infty} = -e^{-(1/CR)t}$$

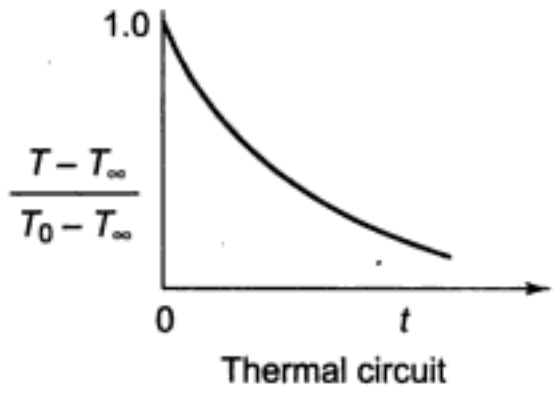
$t = 0$ when billet is immersed in fluid and heat begins to flow.



$$i = \frac{E - E_\infty}{R_e} = -C_e\frac{dE}{dt}$$

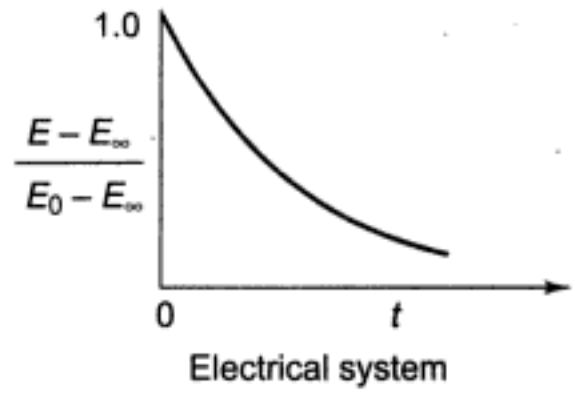
$$\frac{E - E_\infty}{E_0 - E_\infty} = -e^{-(1/C_eR_e)t}$$

$t = 0$ when switch S is opened and the condenser begins to discharge.



Thermal circuit

Rate of heat flow q (j/s or W)
Thermal capacity
$C = c\rho V$(J/K)
Thermal resistance
$R = 1hA$, (K/W)
Thermal potential $(T - T_\infty)$ (K)



Electrical system

Current flow t (A)
Electrical capacity C_v (farads)
Electrical resistance R_e (Ω)
Electrical potential $(E - E_\infty)$ (V)

Fig. 3.2 *Network and schematic of transient lumped-capacity system*

Let us consider a plane wall (Fig. 3.3), which is initially at a uniform temperature T_i and experiences convection cooling when it is immersed in a fluid at $T_\infty < T_i$. We are interested in the temperature variation with position and time $T = T(x, t)$. This variation is a strong function of Biot number (Fig. 3.3). For Bi << 1, the temperature gradient in the solid is small and $T(x, t) \approx T(t)$, and the solid temperature remains nearly uniform. For Bi >> 1, the temperature difference across the solid is very large.

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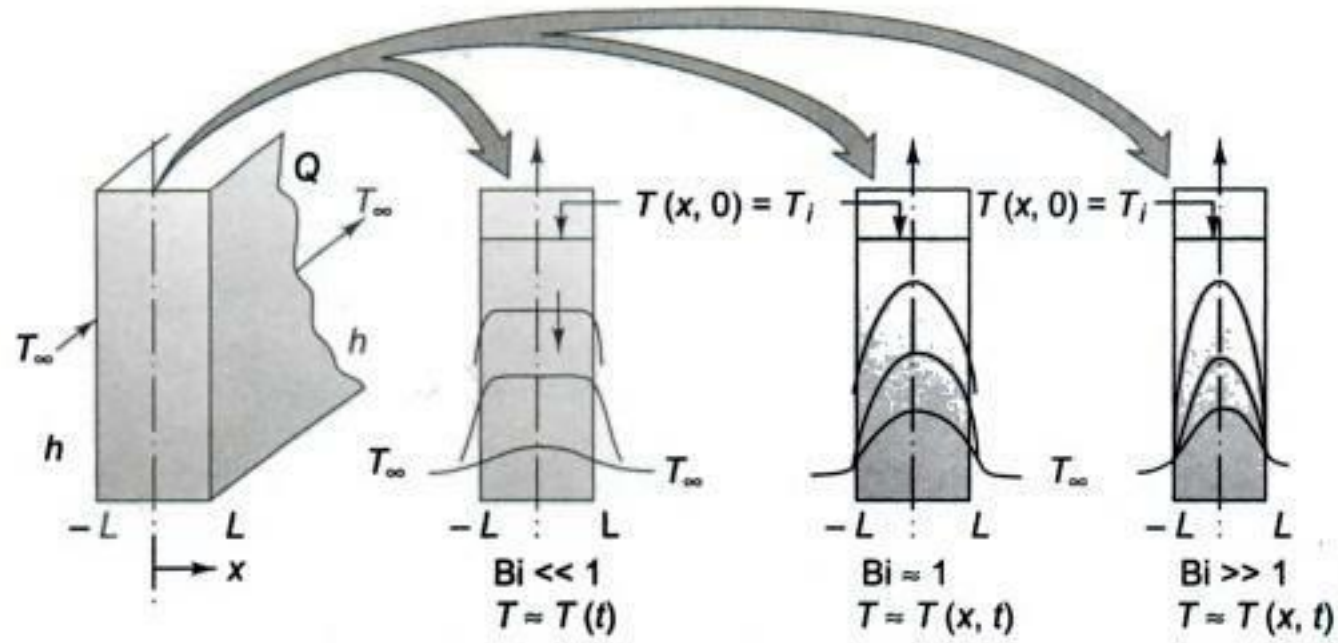


Fig. 3.3 *Transient temperature distribution for different Biot numbers in a plane wall cooled by convection*

The inherent simplicity renders the lumped capacitance method the preferred method for solving transient conduction problems. The very first thing one should do is to calculate the Biot number. If Bi << 0.1, the error associated with the lumped capacitance method is small. This idealized assumption is possible if (a) the physical size of the body is very small, (b) k of the material is very large, and (c) h is very small.

3.1.1 Response Time of a Thermocouple

An important application of the lumped heat-capacity analysis is the measurement of temperature by a thermocouple or thermometer. A thermocouple should rapidly reach the temperature of the system which it is measuring i.e., it should come into thermal equilibrium with the system rapidly. The response time of a thermocouple is the time taken by it to reach thermal equilibrium. For a rapid response of the thermocouple, the term $hAt/\rho cV$ should be as large as possible, so that the exponential term reaches zero faster (when $T = T_\infty$). This can be achieved by decreasing the wire diameter (i.e. V/A), density and specific heat, or by increasing h. Hence, a thin wire should be used in a thermocouple for rapid response to reach thermal equilibrium quickly, particularly for measuring transient temperatures. The quantity $\rho cV/hA$, having the dimension of time, is often called the time constant of a thermocouple, t^*. When $t = t^*$, Eq. (3.3) becomes

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = e^{-t/t^*} = e^{-1} = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 718}$$

$$= \mathbf{0.368} \tag{3.6}$$

Thus at the end of the time period equal to t^*, the temperature difference between the body and the ambient is 0.368 of the initial temperature difference. In other words, the temperature difference would be reduced by 63.2%. The time required by a thermocouple to reach 63.2% of the initial temperature difference is called the *sensitivity* of the thermocouple. The lower the value of the time constant, the better the response of the thermocouple. For all practical purposes a reading of the thermocouple should be taken after a period of $4t^*$. Thermocouple materials have nearly the same ρ and c_p. Thus the response time essentially is a function of the wire diameter. The value of time constant varies between 0.04 s and 2.5 s for the thermocouples used in practice.

3.2 PLANE WALL WITH CONVECTION

Exact analytical solutions to transient conduction problems have been obtained for many simplified geometries and boundary conditions and are well documented in the literature (1–4).

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3.2.1 Infinite Plate with no External Thermal Resistance ($h = \infty$)

Let us consider a class of problems of heating and cooling of objects which have an appreciable internal thermal resistance. In these problems we shall simply assign a temperature for the surface of the object as T_1 for $t > 0$. This is to imply that in the practical situation either T_1 is known from actual measurement or the surface thermal resistance is negligible ($1/hA_1 = 0$ or $h = \infty$) so that T_1 is actually the ambient temperature T_∞.

Let us consider the heating or cooling of a large plate (Fig. 3.4) of uniform thickness $L = 2\delta_1$, where δ_1 = semi-thickness. Heat conduction equation in one dimension is

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{3.7}$$

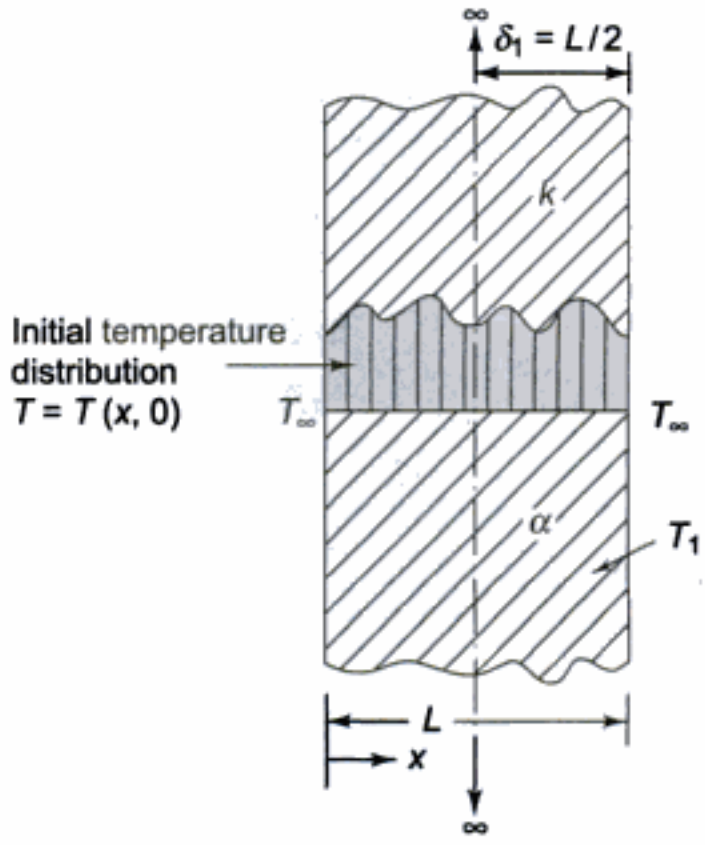


Fig. 3.4 *Infinite solid plate with no external resistance*

The temperature distribution in the plate $T(x, t)$ is initially ($t = 0$) some arbitrary function of x, as $T(x, 0) = T_i(x)$. Then both surfaces $x = 0$ and $x = L$ are suddenly changed to, and maintained at, a uniform temperature T_1 for all $t > 0$. The problem now is to find out the temperature distribution after a certain time and the quantity of heat conducted during that time.

Let $\theta = T - T_\infty$, where T_∞ is constant.

Then $\dfrac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} = \dfrac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}$ and $\dfrac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \dfrac{\partial \theta}{\partial t}$

Therefore, Eq. (3.7) becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \tag{3.8}$$

When $t = 0$, $\theta(x) = T_1(x) - T_1$ for $0 < x < L$

At $x = 0$, $\theta = 0$ for $t > 0$

At $x = L$, $\theta = 0$ for $t > 0$

To solve the partial differential Eq. (3.8), we will use the method of separation of variables. Let

$$\theta = \theta(x, t)$$

which we can write as

$$\theta = X(x), Y(t)$$

where $X(x)$ is a function of x only, and Y is a function of t only. Therefore, Eq. (3.8) can be written as

$$Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = X\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

or

$$\frac{1}{X}\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha Y}\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t} = -\lambda^2, \text{ the separation constant}$$

(since each side is a function of only a single variable). The negative sign of λ^2 is given to ensure a negative exponential solution in time.

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Let us take first the equation

$$\frac{1}{\alpha Y}\frac{dY}{dt} = -\lambda^2$$

or
$$\frac{dY}{Y} = -\lambda^2 \alpha\, dt$$

$$\ln Y = -\alpha\lambda^2 t + \ln A_1$$

$$Y(t) = A_1\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}$$

Again
$$\frac{1}{X}\frac{d^2X}{dx^2} = -\lambda^2$$

$$\frac{d^2X}{dx^2} + \lambda^2 X = 0$$

The characteristic equation is

$$m^2 + \lambda^2 = 0$$

$$m = \pm i\lambda$$

$$X(x) = A_2\, e^{i\lambda x} + A_3\, e^{-i\lambda x}$$

$$= A_2 (\cos \lambda x + i \sin \lambda x) + A_3 (\cos \lambda x - i \sin \lambda x)$$

$$= (A_2 + A_3) \cos \lambda x + (iA_2 - iA_3) \sin \lambda x$$

$$= B_1 \cos \lambda x + B_2 \sin \lambda x.$$

$$\theta = X(x)\, Y(t)$$

$$= (B_1 \cos \lambda x + B_2 \sin \lambda x)\, A_1\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}$$

or
$$\theta = (C_1 \cos \lambda x + C_2 \sin \lambda x)\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t} \qquad (3.9)$$

At
$$x = 0, \text{ for } t > 0,\ \theta = 0$$

$$0 = C_1\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}$$

Since $e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t} \neq 0$,

$\therefore$
$$C_1 = 0$$

At $x = L$, for all $t > 0$, $\theta = 0$

$$0 = C_2 \sin \lambda L\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}$$

Since $C_2 \neq 0$, $\sin \lambda L = 0$

$\therefore$
$$\lambda L = n\pi$$

or
$$\lambda = \frac{n\pi}{L} \text{ where } n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$$

($n \neq 0$, since if $n = 0$, $\lambda = 0$, $\theta = 0$, no solution)

The temperature distribution, Eq. (3.9), becomes

$$\theta = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-(n\pi/L)^2 \alpha\tau}\, C_n \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x \qquad (3.10)$$

To satisfy the initial condition, at $t = 0$, $\theta = \theta_i$

$$\theta_i (x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x \qquad (3.11)$$

This is a Fourier sine-series expansion of arbitrary function $\theta_i (x)$.

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$$C_n = \frac{2}{L}\int_0^L \theta_i(x)\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x\,dx$$

The complete solution is

$$\theta = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t}\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x$$

$$= \frac{2}{L}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-(n\pi)^2 F_o}\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x\int_0^L \theta_i(x)\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x\,dx \qquad (3.12)$$

This expression gives the temperature distribution in the slab as a function of time and depends on the specified initial temperature distribution.

Let us consider the special case in which a uniform initial temperature distribution, $T_i(x) = T_1$, exists throughout the thickness of the slab. The slab is initially heated to a uniform temperature T_i and then dropped to a certain fluid medium with its temperature at $x = 0$ and $x = L$ kept fixed at T_1.

$$\theta_i(x) = T_i - T_1$$

$$\theta = \frac{2}{L}\theta_i\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t}\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x\int_0^L \sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x\,dx$$

$$\frac{T - T_1}{T_i - T_1} = \frac{2}{L}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t}\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x\cdot\left(\frac{2L}{\pi n}\right)$$

$$= \frac{4}{\pi}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{n} e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t}\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x \qquad (3.13)$$

The instantaneous rate at which heat is conducted

$$Q = -kA\frac{d\theta}{dx}$$

$$Q = -\frac{4kA}{L}(T_i - T_1)\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t}\cos\frac{n\pi}{L}x$$

$$\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{4}{\pi}\frac{kL}{\alpha}(T_1 - T_i)\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{n^2}\left[1 - e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t}\right]\cos\frac{n\pi}{L} \qquad (3.14)$$

3.2.2 Infinite Solid Plate with Both Internal and External Resistances

Let us now consider the cases of heating and cooling of solids in which both the internal and surface resistances are present e.g., the quenching of a heated solid in a liquid bath. Here the temperature of the surrounding fluid is suddenly changed to, and maintained at, some temperature different from the initial solid temperature.

The convective heating or cooling of a large plate of uniform thickness $2l$ (Fig. 3.5) is considered. The plate is initially at a uniform temperature T_i at $t = 0$. The plate is suddenly exposed to, or immersed in, a large mass of fluid at T_∞, for all $t > 0$, with T_∞ and h remaining uniform throughout the heating or cooling period.

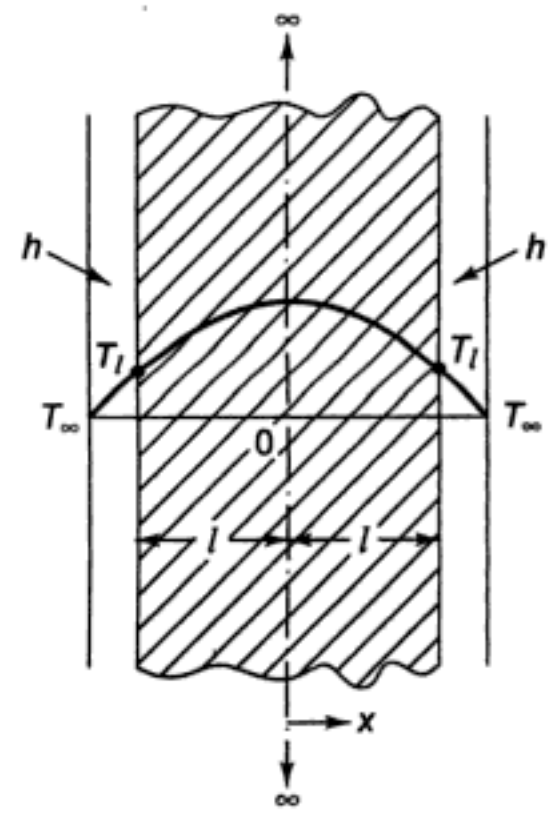


Fig. 3.5 *Infinite solid plate: Temperature profile*

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In an effort to simplify the problem, we select the origin of the x-axis at the centre of the plate and thereby take advantage of the temperature symmetry about $x = 0$. The temperature-time history must then satisfy the equation $T = T(x, t)$ given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{3.15}$$

Let $\theta = T - T_\infty$, where T_∞ is constant. Eq. (3.15) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} \tag{3.16}$$

To solve this equation, we will use the method of separation of variables. We can write

$$\theta = X(x)\, Y(t) \tag{3.17}$$

where $X(x)$ is a function of x only, and $Y(t)$ is a function of t only. Then

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = Y\frac{\partial X}{\partial x} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = X\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} = Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2}$$

On substitution in Eq. (3.8),

$$Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}X\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{1}{X}\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha Y}\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t} = -\lambda^2 \text{ (say)} \tag{3.18}$$

Since each side of Eq. (3.18) is a function of only one variable, each side will be equal to a constant, called *separation constant*, λ^2. The negative sign has been given to get negative exponential solution in time. Taking each equation

$$\frac{1}{\alpha Y}\frac{dY}{dt} = -\lambda^2$$

$$\ln Y = -\alpha\lambda^2 t + \ln A_1$$

or
$$Y(t) = A_1 e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t} \tag{3.19}$$

where A_1 is a constant.

Again,
$$\frac{1}{X}\frac{d^2 X}{dx^2} = -\lambda^2$$

$$\frac{d^2 X}{dx^2} + \lambda^2 X = 0$$

The characteristic equation, $m^2 + \lambda^2 = 0$, or, $m = \pm i\lambda$.

$$\begin{aligned} X(x) &= A_2 e^{i\lambda x} + A_3 e^{-i\lambda x} \\ &= A_2(\cos\lambda x + i\sin\lambda x) + A_3(\cos\lambda x - i\sin\lambda x) \\ &= \cos\lambda x\,(A_2 + A_3) + \sin\lambda x(iA_2 - iA_3) \\ &= B_1\cos\lambda x + B_2\sin\lambda x \end{aligned} \tag{3.20}$$

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Therefore,

$$\theta = X(x)\, Y(t)$$
$$= A_1\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}\,(B_1 \cos \lambda x + B_2 \sin \lambda x)$$
$$= e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}\,(C_1 \cos \lambda x + C_2 \sin \lambda x)$$
$$\boldsymbol{\theta = (C_1 \cos \lambda x + C_2 \sin \lambda x)\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}} \qquad (3.21)$$

Here the constants λ, C_1 and C_2 are to be evaluated from the initial and boundary conditions.

(a) At $t = 0$, $\quad \theta = \theta_i = T_i - T_\infty$

(b) At $x = 0$, $\quad \dfrac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} = 0$ $\quad$ (no heat transfer across the midplane)

(c) At $x = l$, $\quad \bar{q} = -k \left(\dfrac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}\right)_{x=1} = h\,(T_1 - T_\infty) = h\theta_1$

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}\right)_{x=1} = -\frac{h}{k}\,\theta_1$$

Using the condition (b),

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}\right)_{x=0} = e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t}\,(-\lambda C_1 \sin \lambda x + \lambda C_2 \cos \lambda x)_x = 0$$

$$\lambda C_2 \cos \lambda x = 0$$

or $\quad \lambda C_2 = 0, \quad$ i.e. $C_2 = 0$

The solution of Eq. (3.21) reduces to

$$\theta = C_1\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t} \cos \lambda x \qquad (3.22)$$

Using the condition (c),

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}\right)_{x=1} = -\,C_1\, e^{-\lambda^2 \alpha t}\, \lambda \sin \lambda l = -\frac{h}{k}\,\theta_1$$

$$-\,C_1\, e^{-\lambda^2 \alpha t}\, \lambda \sin \lambda l = \frac{h}{k}\,[-\,C_1\, e^{-\alpha\lambda^2 t} \cos \lambda l]$$

$$\lambda \sin \lambda l = \frac{h}{k} \cos \lambda l$$

$$\cot \lambda l = \frac{\lambda k}{h} \qquad (3.23)$$

or $\quad \cot \lambda l = \lambda l\, \dfrac{k}{h\, l}$

or $\quad \boldsymbol{\cot \lambda l = \dfrac{\lambda l}{\mathrm{Bi}}} \qquad (3.24)$

The points of intersection of the curves $Y = \cot \lambda l$ and $Y = \lambda l/\mathrm{Bi}$ will give the values of λl (Fig. 3.6). For a given l, we can determine $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \lambda_3, \cdots$. The equation $\cot \lambda l = \lambda l/\mathrm{Bi}$ is satisfied for an infinite succession of values of the parameter λl, so that for a given λ, the equation defines the values of λ. This succession of values of λ, called *eigen values*, will be denoted by λ_n which depend on the Biot number.

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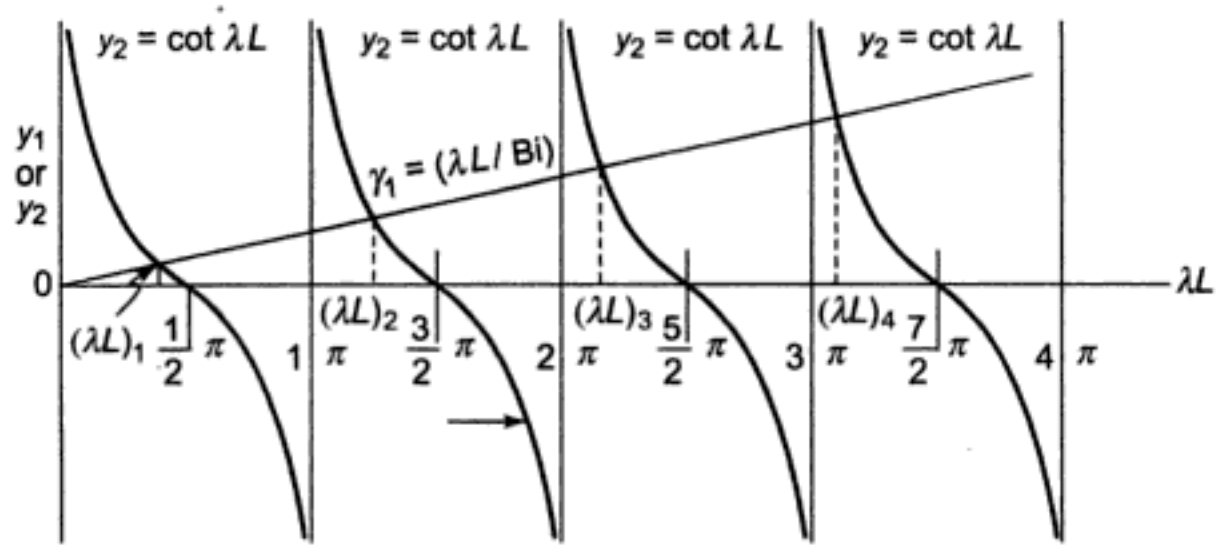


Fig. 3.6 *Graphic solution of the transcendental equation* $\cot \lambda L = \dfrac{\lambda L}{\text{Bi}}$

The temperature distribution, Eq. (3.22), thus becomes

$$\theta = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \, e^{-\lambda_n^2 \alpha t} \cos \lambda_n x \tag{3.25}$$

where λ_n is the nth root of the transcendental equation

$$\cot \lambda_n l = \frac{\lambda_n l}{\text{Bi}}$$

or
$$\mathbf{\lambda_n l \tan \lambda_n l - Bi = 0} \tag{3.26}$$

The value of C_n for each value of λ_n is next to be determined. Using the condition (a), at $t = 0$, $\theta = \theta_i$

$$\theta_i = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \cos \lambda_n x \tag{3.27}$$

If λ_n's were simple integers 1, 2, 3, ..., then

$$\theta_i = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \cos \lambda_n x$$

would have been a Fourier cosine series expansion.

$$\theta_i = C_1 \cos x + C_2 \cos 2x + C_3 \cos 3x + \ldots + C_n \cos nx + \ldots$$

and C_n would have been

$$C_n = \frac{2}{1} \int_0^1 \theta_i \cos \lambda_n x \, dx, \quad \lambda_n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$$

But λ_n's are not integers, and are the roots of the trigonometric equation

$$(\lambda_n l) \tan (\lambda_n l) - \text{Bi} = 0$$

So some other method has to be found out to determine C_n's

Let us multiply both sides of Eq. (3.27) by $\cos \lambda_m x \, dx$, where $m \neq n$.

$$\theta_i \int_0^1 \cos \lambda_m x \, dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \int_0^1 \cos \lambda_m x \cos \lambda_n x \, dx \tag{3.28}$$

$$\text{Integrand of L.H.S.} = \int_0^1 \cos \lambda_m x \, dx = \left(\frac{\sin \lambda_m x}{\lambda_m} \right)_0^1 = \frac{\sin \lambda_m l}{\lambda_m}$$

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$$\text{Integrand of R.H.S.} = \frac{1}{2}\int_0^1 [\cos(\lambda_m x + \lambda_n x) + \cos(\lambda_m x - \lambda_n x)]\,dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\sin(\lambda_m + \lambda_n)x}{\lambda_m + \lambda_n} + \frac{\sin(\lambda_m - \lambda_n)x}{\lambda_m - \lambda_n}\right]_0^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left[\begin{array}{l}(\lambda_m - \lambda_n)[\sin\lambda_m x\cos\lambda_n x + \cos\lambda_m x\sin\lambda_n x] + \\ \dfrac{(\lambda_m + \lambda_n)[\sin\lambda_m x\cos\lambda_n x - \cos\lambda_m x\sin\lambda_n x]}{\lambda_m^2 - \lambda_n^2}\end{array}\right]_0^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda_m^2 - \lambda_n^2}(\lambda_m \sin\lambda_m l\cos\lambda_n l - \lambda_n\cos\lambda_m l\sin\lambda_n l] \tag{3.29}$$

Now, $(\lambda_n l)\tan\lambda_n l = \text{Bi} = (\lambda_m l)\tan\lambda_n l$

$$\lambda_n\frac{\sin\lambda_n l}{\cos\lambda_n l} = \lambda_m\frac{\sin\lambda_m l}{\cos\lambda_m l}$$

$\therefore$ $\lambda_m\sin\lambda_m l\cos\lambda_n l = \lambda_n\sin\lambda_n l\cos\lambda_m l$

Therefore, the integrand of R.H.S., Eq. (3.29), will be zero, unless $m = n$. Putting $\lambda_m = \lambda_n$, Eq. (3.28) becomes

$$\theta_i\frac{\sin\lambda_n l}{\lambda_n} = C_n\int_0^1\cos^2\lambda_n x\,dx = C_n\int_0^1\frac{1+\cos 2\lambda_n x}{2}\,dx \tag{3.30}$$

$$= C_n\left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sin 2\lambda_n l}{4\lambda_n}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}C_n\left(l + \frac{2\sin\lambda_n l\cos\lambda_n l}{2\lambda_n}\right)$$

or $$\theta_i\frac{\sin\lambda_n l}{\lambda_n} = C_n\frac{1}{2\lambda_n}(\lambda_n l + \sin\lambda_n l\cos\lambda_n l)$$

$$C_n = \frac{2\theta_i\sin\lambda_n l}{\lambda_n l + \sin\lambda_n l\cos\lambda_n l} \tag{3.31}$$

For convenience, let $\delta_n = \lambda_n l$, then

$$(\lambda_n l)\tan(\lambda_n l) = \delta_n\tan\delta_n = \text{Bi}$$

Therefore,

$$\theta = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n e^{-\lambda_n^2\alpha t}\cos\lambda_n x$$

or $$\theta = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2\frac{\alpha t}{l^2}}\frac{2\theta_i\sin\delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin\delta_n\cos\delta_n}\cos\frac{\delta_n}{l}x$$

The temperature distribution is thus given by

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2\,\text{Fo}}\frac{2\sin\delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin\delta_n\cos\delta_n}\cos\frac{\delta_n}{l}x \tag{3.32}$$

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$$= \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}$$

Cumulative heat loss from the infinite slab is obtained from the Fourier heat conduction equation

$$dQ = -kA \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}\right)_{x=l} dt \tag{3.33}$$

Differentiating Eq. (3.32) with respect to x and putting the limit $x = l$,

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x}\right)_{x=l} = 2\theta_i \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}} \frac{\sin \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} \frac{\delta_n}{l} \left(-\sin \frac{\delta_n}{l} x\right)_{x=l}$$

$$= -\frac{2\theta_i}{l} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta^2{}_n \text{Fo}} \frac{\delta_n \sin^2 \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n}$$

Substituting in Eq. (3.33) and integrating

$$\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{2k\theta_i}{l} \int_0^t \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{Fo}} \frac{\delta_n \sin^2 \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} dt$$

$$\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{2k\theta_i}{l} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\delta_n \sin^2 \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} - \frac{l^2}{\alpha \delta_n^2} \left(1 - e^{-\delta_n^2 \frac{\alpha t}{l^2}}\right) \int_0^t e^{-\delta_n^2 \frac{\alpha t}{l^2}} dt$$

or

$$\frac{\mathbf{Q}}{\mathbf{A}} = \frac{\mathbf{2kl}}{\alpha} \theta_i \sum_{\mathbf{n=1}}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{\sin^2 \delta_n (1 - e^{-\delta_n^2 Fo})}}{\mathbf{\delta_n^2 + \delta_n \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n}} \tag{3.34}$$

In order to make Eq. (3.34) dimensionless, we note that $c\rho l T_i$ represents initial internal energy per unit area of the slab. If we denote $c\rho l(T_i - T_\infty)$ by Q_i/A, we get

$$\frac{Q}{Q_i} = \frac{2k l \theta_i}{\alpha c \rho l \theta_i} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 \delta_n}{\delta_n^2 + \delta_n \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} (1 - e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}})$$

or

$$\frac{Q}{Q_i} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2 \sin^2 \delta_n}{\delta_n^2 + \delta_n \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} (1 - e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}}) \tag{3.35}$$

The temperature distribution in the slab $T(x, t)$ is given by Eq. (3.32).

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}} \frac{2 \sin \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} \cos \frac{\delta_n}{l} x$$

At $x = 0$, the centre-line temperature $T_c(t)$ varying with time is given by

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_b^2 \text{ Fo}} \frac{2 \sin \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} \tag{3.36}$$

At $x = l$, the surface temperature $T_1(t)$ varying with time is given by

$$\frac{\theta_l}{\theta_i} = \sum_{\mathbf{n=1}}^{\infty} \mathbf{e^{-\delta_n^2 Fo}} \frac{\mathbf{2 \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n}}{\mathbf{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n}} \tag{3.37}$$

The results using Eqs (3.36), (3.37) and (3.35) have been calculated for different cases and plotted in the form of charts for rapid use, by Gröber and Erk, Gurney–Lurie, Shack, Adams–Williamson, Heisler and others (1 – 4). Heisler's charts for θ_c/θ_i are given in Fig. 3.7(a).

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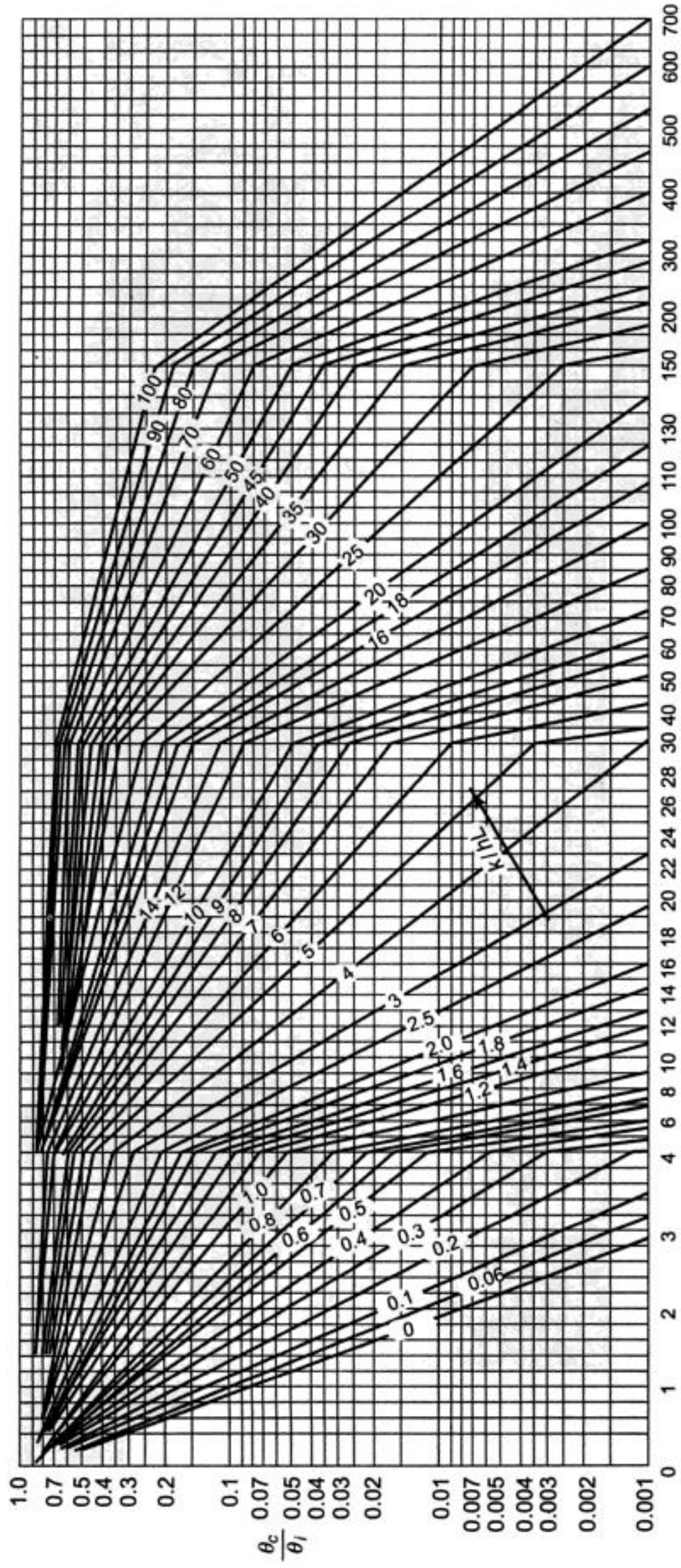


Fig. 3.7(a) *Centre-line temperature for an infinite plate of thickness 2L*

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The temperature at any distance x from the mid-plane can be obtained from position-correction chart drawn with θ/θ_c versus 1/Bi for various values of x/l or ξ, so that

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_c} \times \frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}$$

from which temperature T at any distance x from the midplane can be estimated [Fig. 3.7(b)]. It is shown in an expanded scale in Fig. 3.7 (d).The cumulative heat losses Q/Q_i for different values of Biot number are given in Fig. 3.7(c).

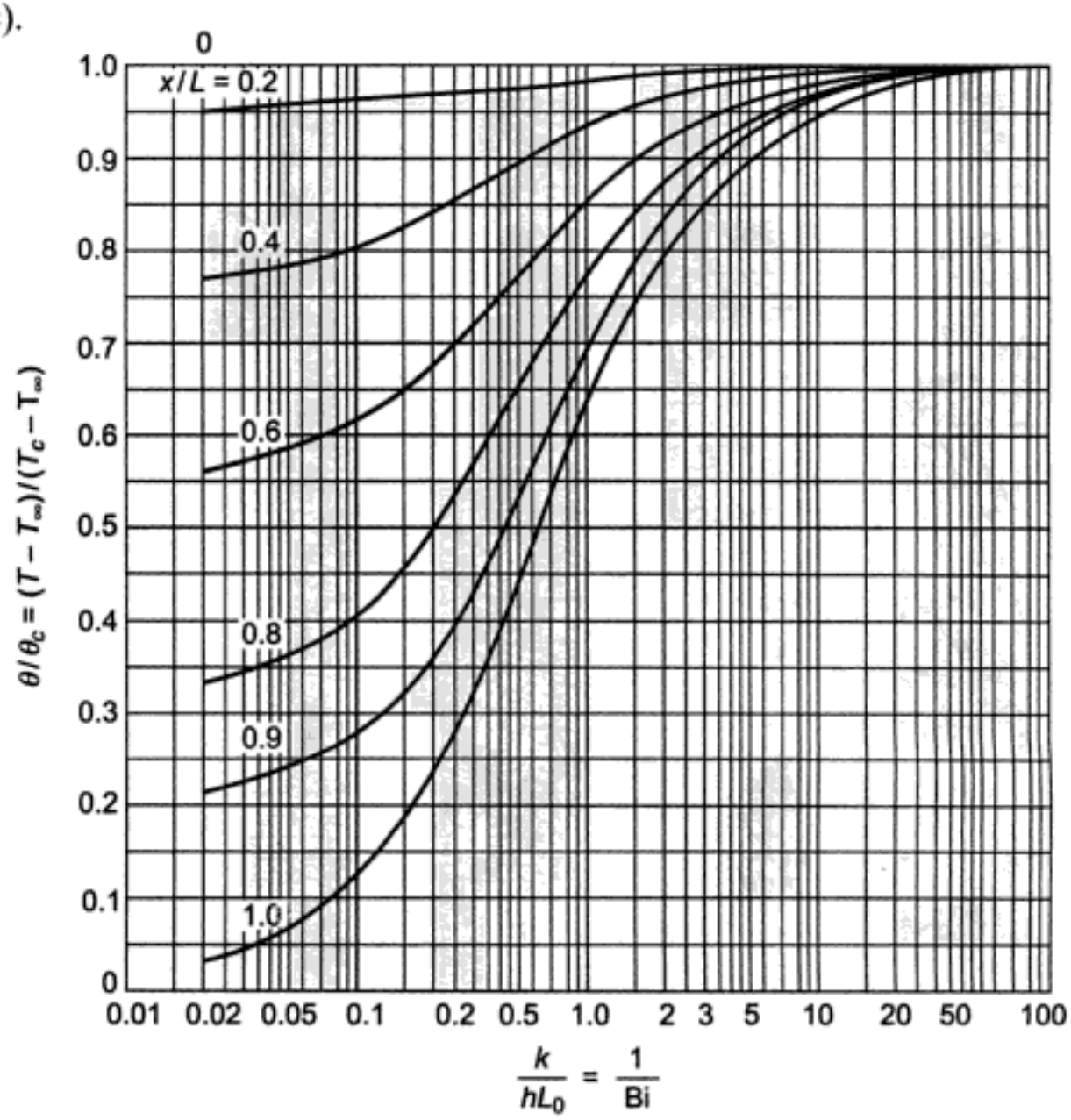


Fig. 3.7(b) *Temperature as a function of centre temperature in an infinite plate of thickness 2L*

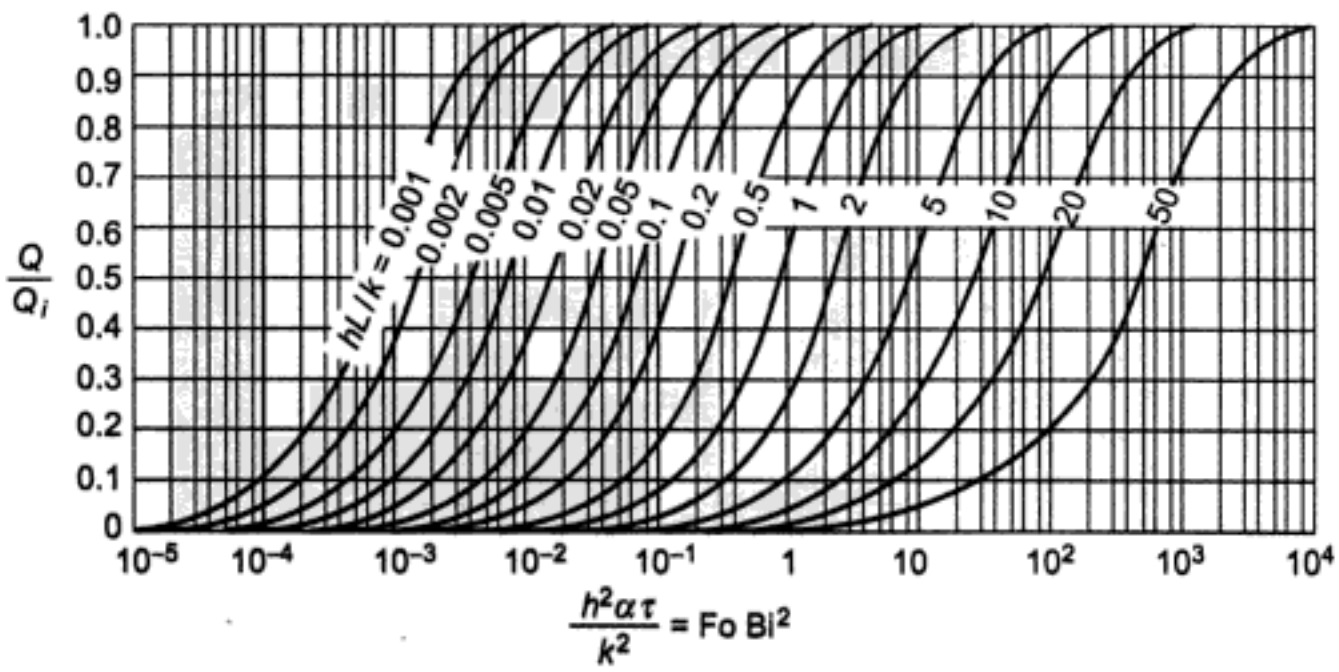


Fig. 3.7(c) *Heat loss of an infinite plate of thickness 2L with time*

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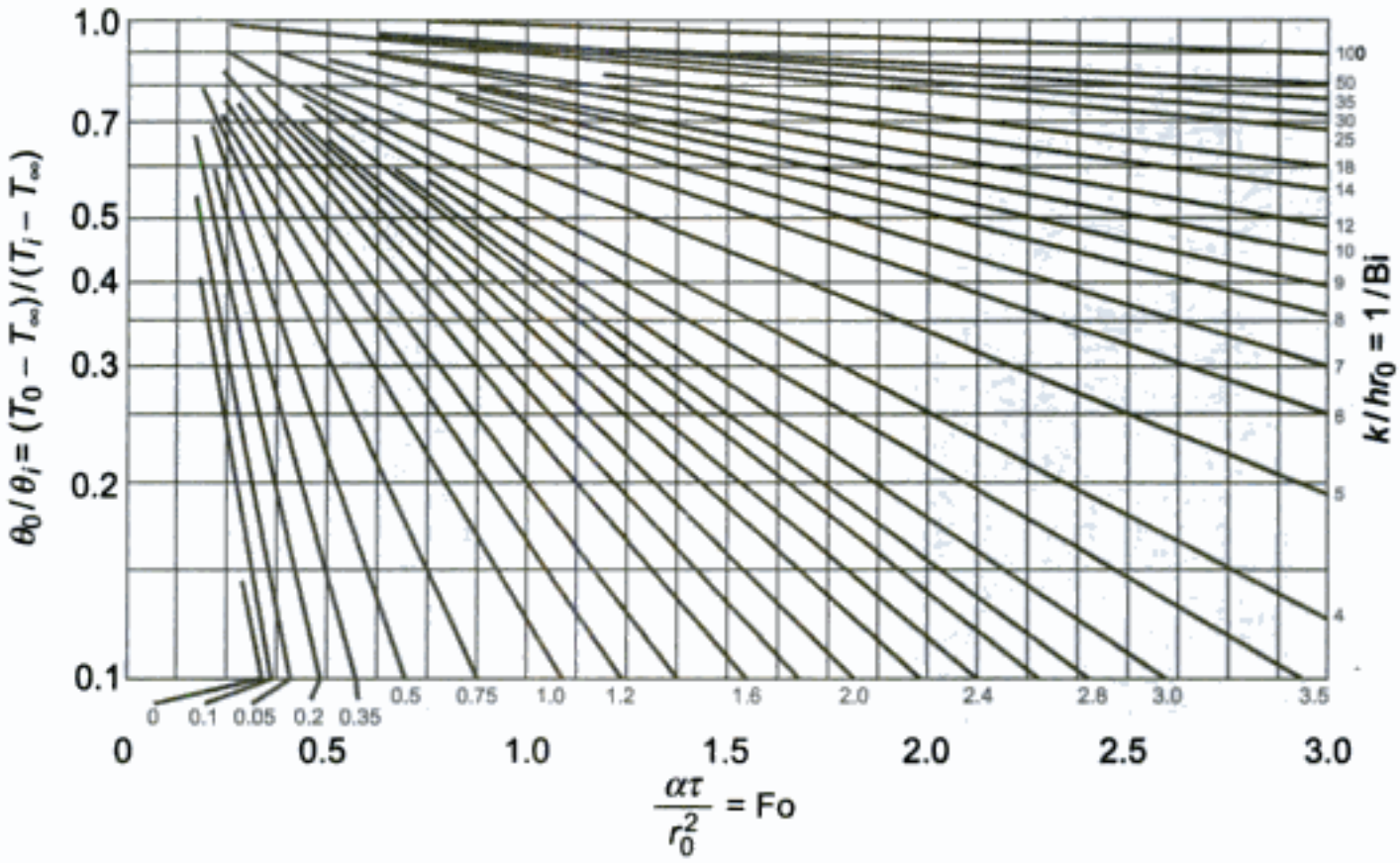


Fig. 3.7(d) *Continued: Expanded scale for 0 < Fo < 3.*

3.3 INFINITE CYLINDER AND SPHERE WITH CONVECTION

Similar to the solution of transient heat conduction in an infinite plate, the temperature distribution in an infinite cylinder at any instant with convective heating or cooling can be derived. Initially the temperature is uniform at T_i throughout the cylinder (Fig. 3.8). The cylinder is suddenly immersed in a fluid at constant temperature T_∞ with uniform heat transfer coefficient h. At any instant t, $\theta = T - T_\infty$ at a certain distance r from the central plane. There is only radial conduction. In terms of θ, the temperature distribution $T(r, t)$ in cylindrical coordinates is given by

$$\frac{\partial^2\theta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial t} \quad . \tag{3.38}$$

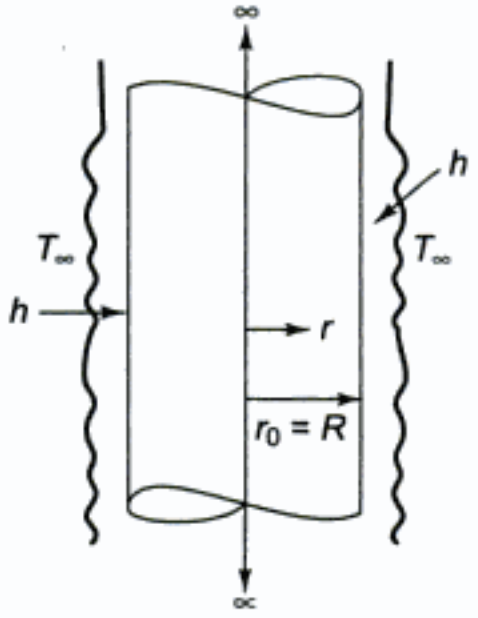


Fig. 3.8 *Heating or cooling of an infinite cylinder by convection*

By separation of variables method, let

$$\theta = X(r)\ Y(t) \tag{3.39}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2\theta}{\partial r^2} = Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial r^2} \quad \frac{\partial\theta}{\partial r} = Y\frac{\partial X}{\partial r} \quad \frac{\partial\theta}{\partial t} = X\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

Substituting in Eq. (3.38),

$$Y\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r}Y\frac{\partial X}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{\alpha}X\frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{1}{X}\left(\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{dX}{dr}\right) = \frac{1}{\alpha Y}\frac{dY}{dt} = -\lambda^2$$

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the separation constant

$$\frac{dY}{Y} = -\lambda^2 \alpha \, dt$$

$$Y(t) = A1 \, e^{-\lambda^2 \alpha t} \tag{3.40}$$

Again
$$\frac{1}{X}\left(\frac{d^2X}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{dX}{dr}\right) = -\lambda^2$$

$$\frac{d^2X}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r}\frac{dX}{dr} + \lambda^2 X = 0$$

Comparing this equation with

$$\mathbf{x^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + x\frac{dy}{dx} + (x^2 - n^2)\,y = 0} \tag{3.41}$$

When $n = 0$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{x}\frac{dy}{dx} + y = 0$$

which is Bessel function $J_0(x)$.

The solution of Eq. (3.41) is given by

$$X(x) = A_2 J_0(\lambda r) + A_3 Y_0(\lambda r) \tag{3.42}$$

Substituting Eqs (3.40) and (3.42) in Eq. (3.39)

$$\theta = [C_1 J_0(\lambda r) + C_2 Y_0(\lambda r)]\, e^{-\lambda^2 \alpha t} \tag{3.43}$$

At $t = 0, \theta = \theta_i$

At $t > 0$, at $r = R$, $\theta = \theta_R = T_R - T_\infty$,

$$\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial r}\right)_{r=R} = -\frac{h}{k}\theta_R$$

At $r = 0, C_2 = 0, \theta = C_1 J_0(\lambda r)\, e^{-\lambda^2 \alpha t}$

The temperature distribution is given by [1]

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda_n R} e^{-\lambda_n^2 \alpha t} \frac{J_0(\lambda_n r)\, J_1(\lambda_n R)}{J_0^2(\lambda_n r) + J_1^2(\lambda_n R)}$$

At the centre line, $J_0(0) = 1$,

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = 2\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\lambda_n R} e^{-\lambda_n^2 \alpha t} \frac{J_1(\lambda_n R)}{J_0^2(\lambda_n R) + J_1^2(\lambda_n R)} \tag{3.44}$$

Heisler's charts for θ_c/θ_i in infinite cylinders and the position-correction charts are given in Fig. 3.9(a) and (b) respectively. With the help of these the entire time–temperature history at any location in the cylinder can be found out. The heat transfer from or to the cylinder during time t can be estimated with the help of Fig. 3.9(c).

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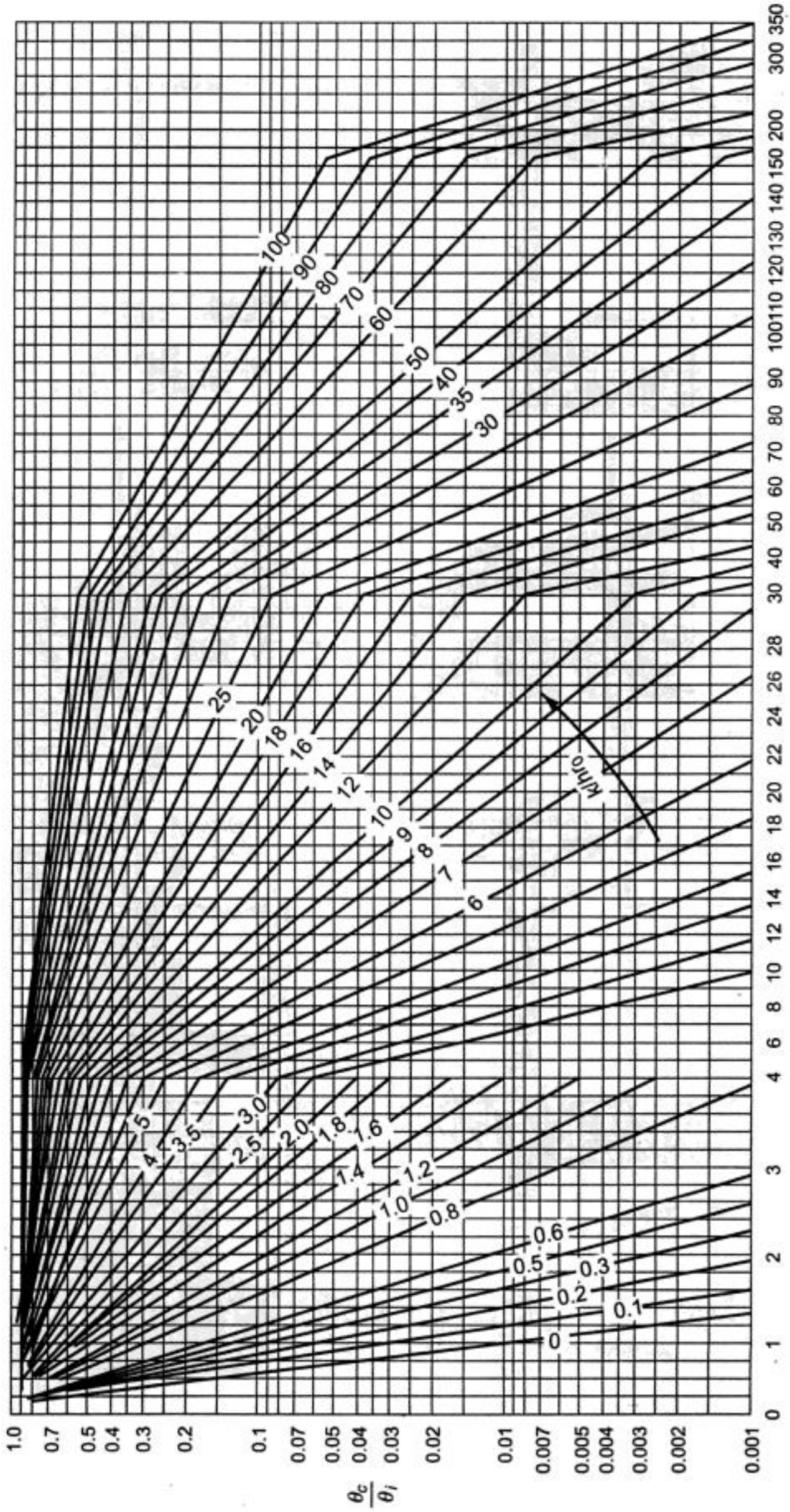


Fig. 3.9(a) *Axis temperature for an infinite cylinder of radius* r_0

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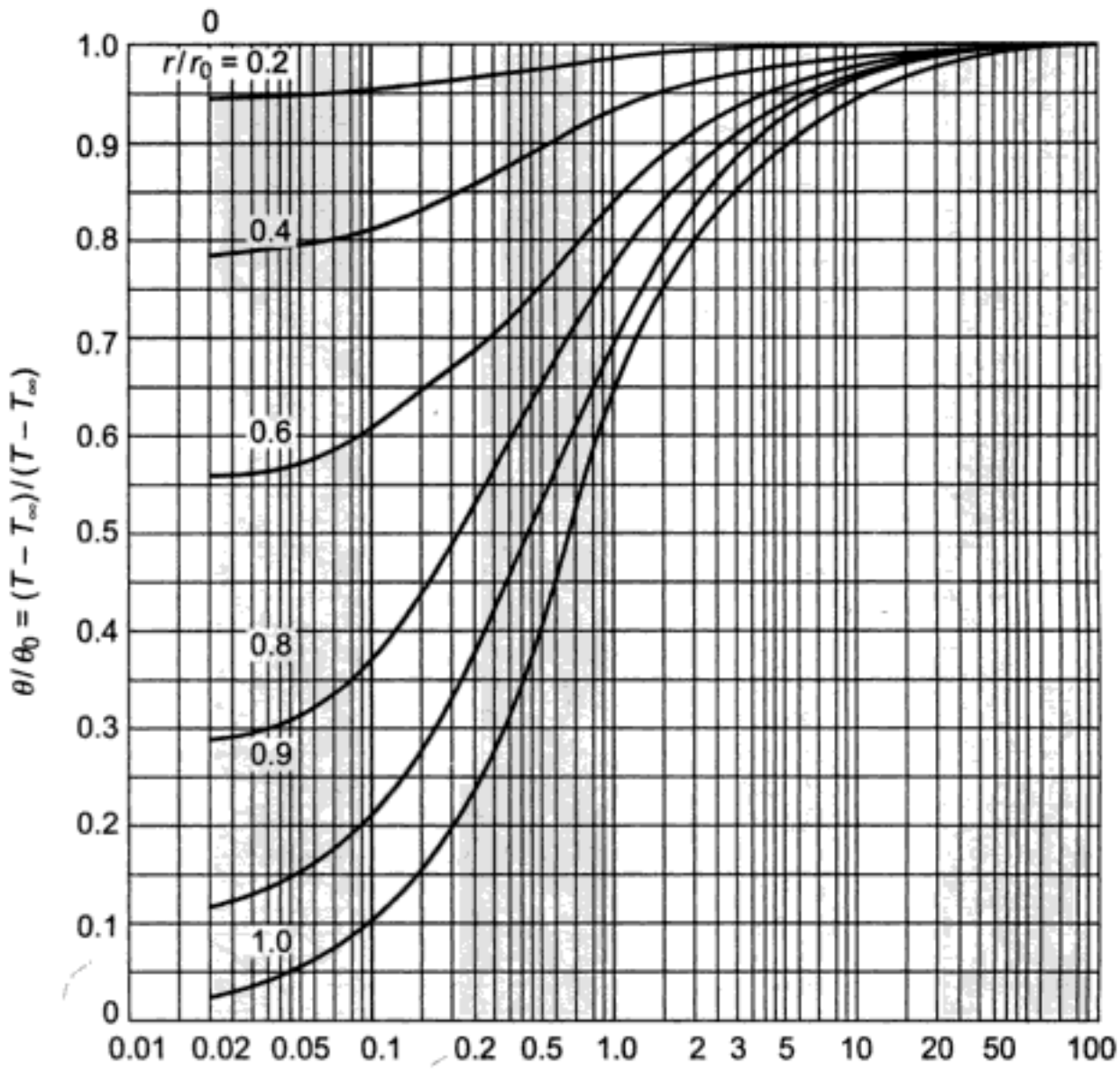


Fig. 3.9(b) *Temperature as a function of axis temperature in an infinite cylinder of radius r_0*

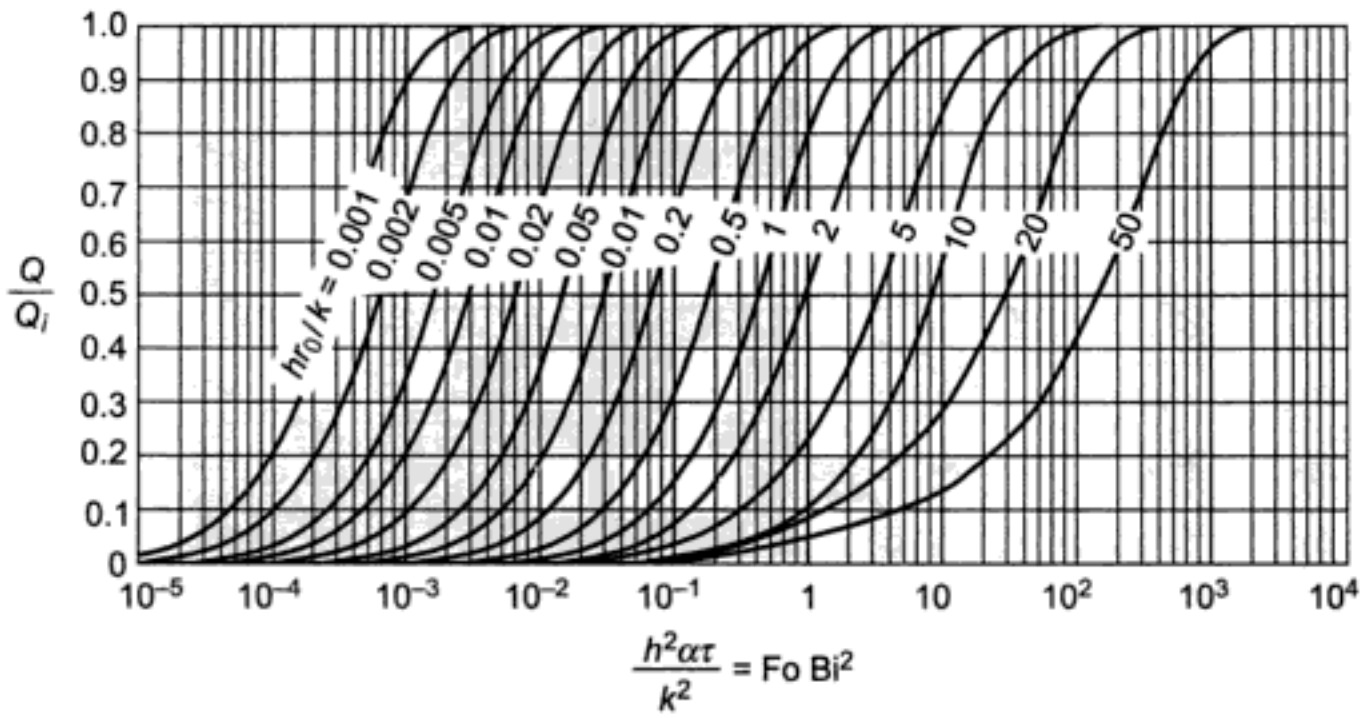


Fig. 3.9(c) *Heat loss Q/Q_i of an infinite cylinder of radius r_0 with time*

Similar solutions can be obtained for a sphere of radius R, which have been derived by Schneider [1] by solving the temperature distribution in spherical coordinates, with Legendre's polynomials appearing in the final solution. Figure 3.10(a) and (b) show Heisler's charts for θ_c/θ_i and position-correction charts to determine the temperature at any location in a sphere varying with time, while Fig. 3.10(c) gives the heat transfer during the time period t.

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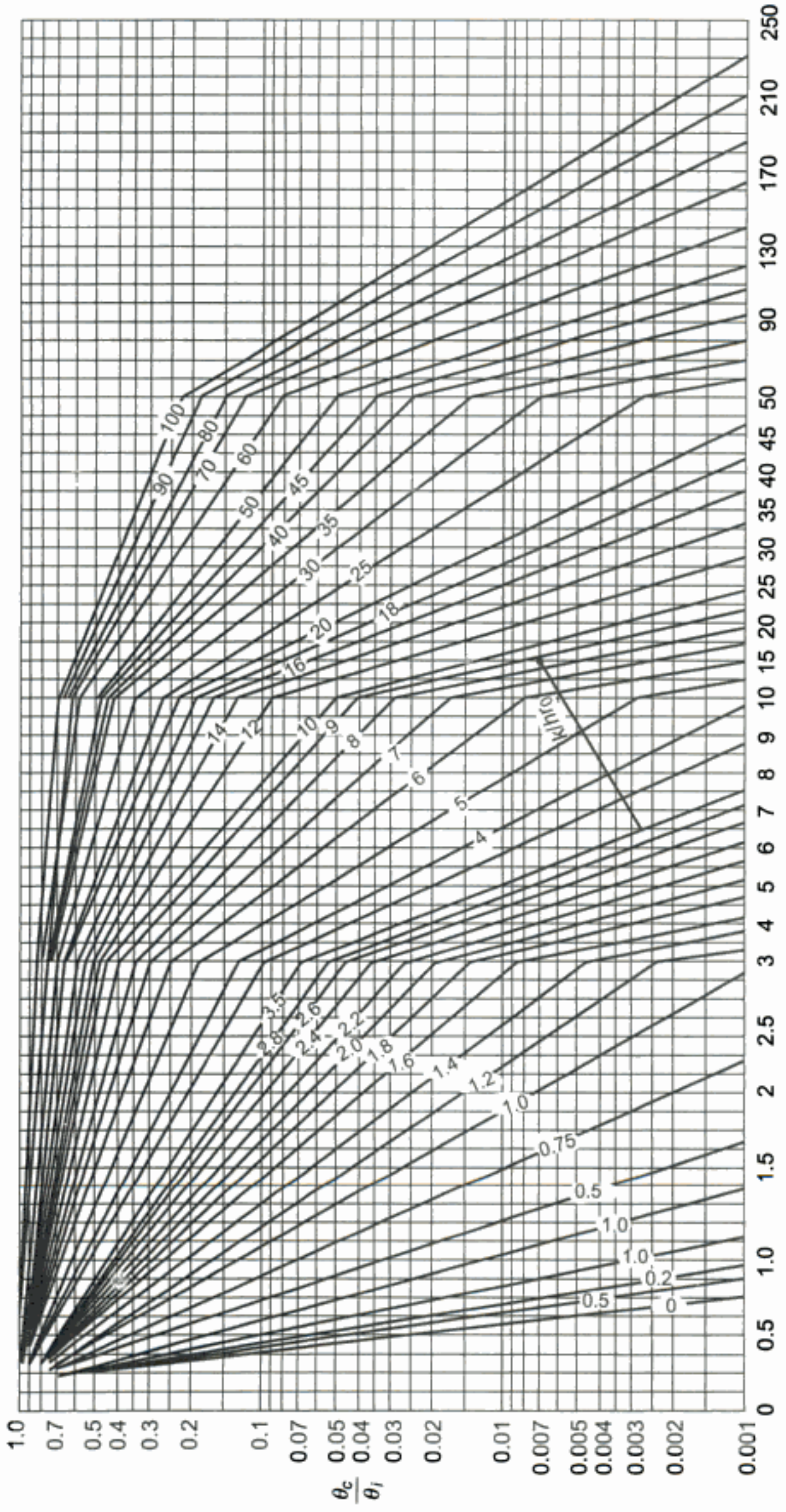


Fig. 3.10(a) *Centre temperature for a sphere of radius r_0*

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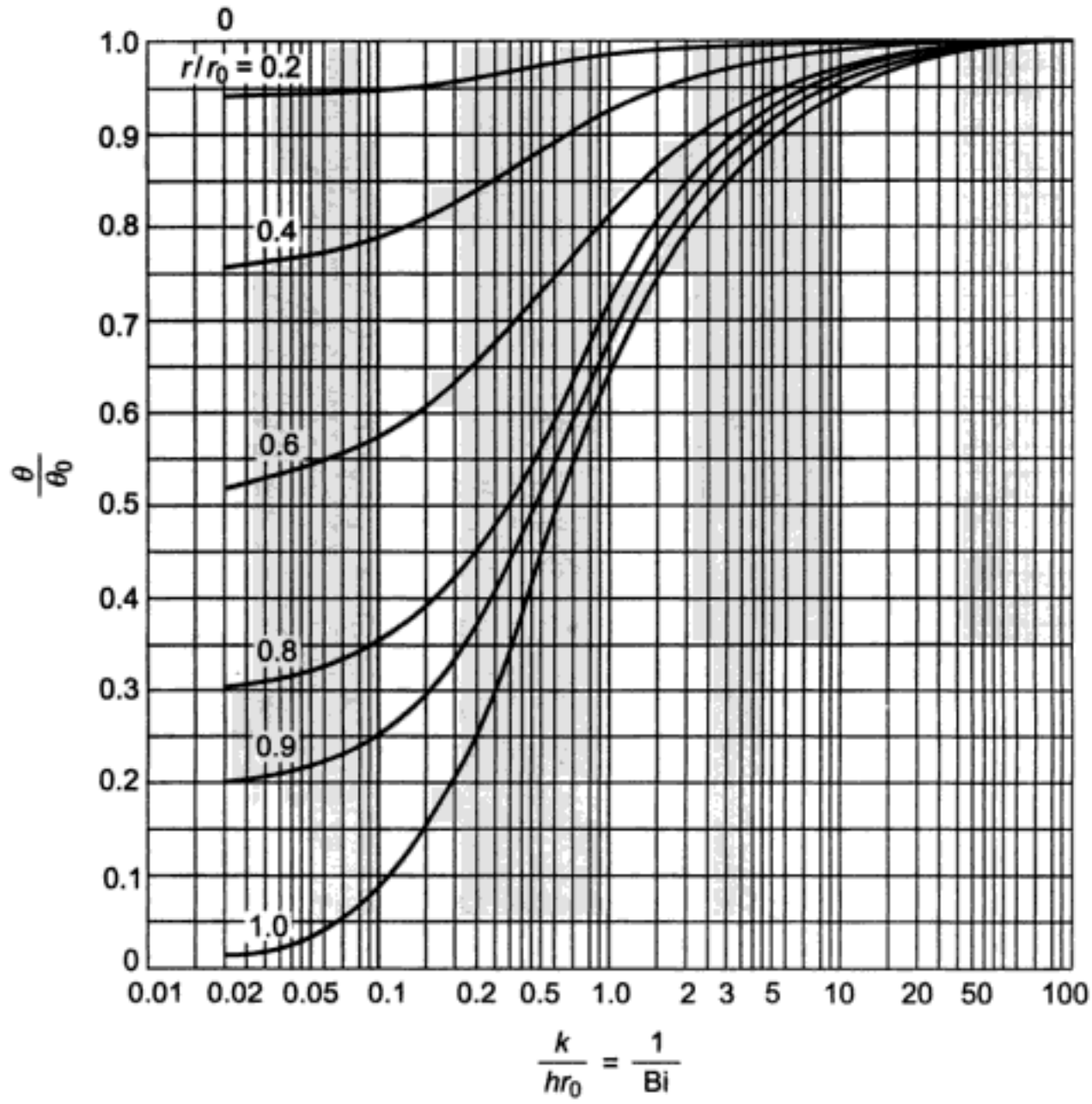


Fig. 3.10(b) *Temperature as a function of centre temperature for a sphere of radius r_0*

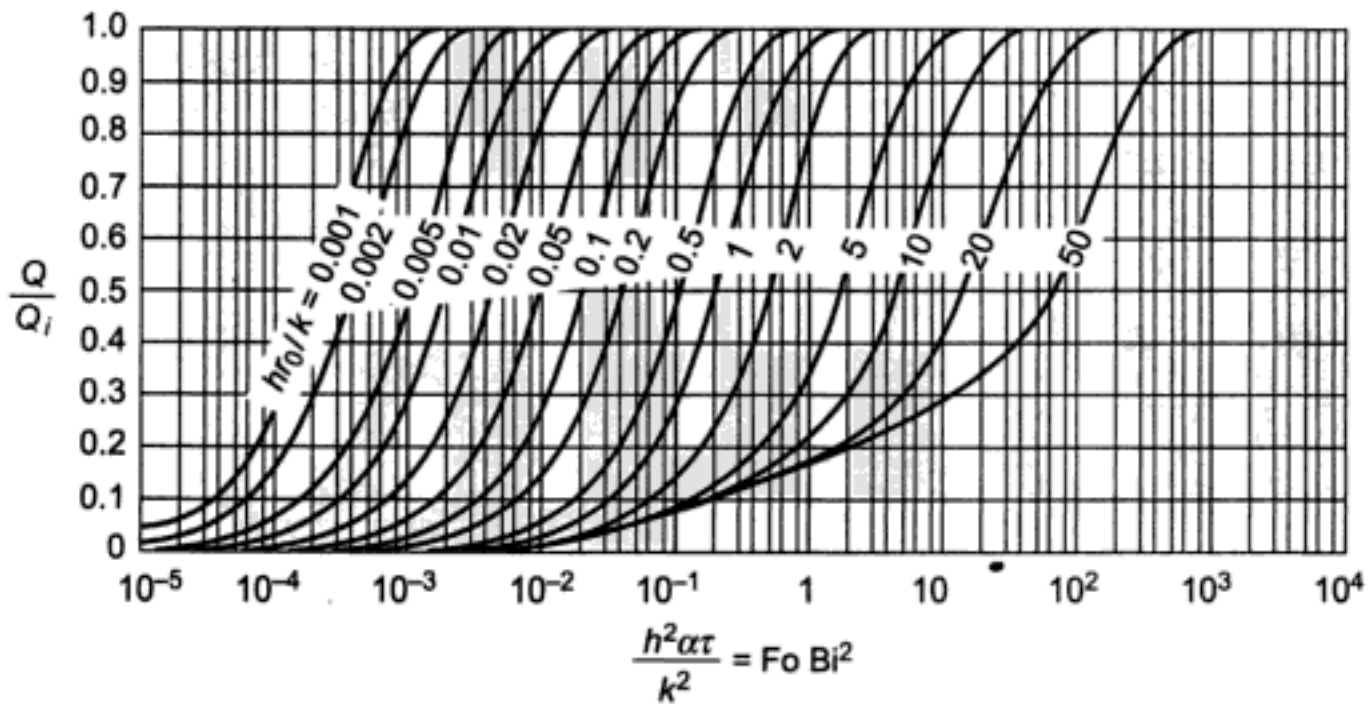


Fig. 3.10(c) *Heat loss Q/Q_i of a sphere of radius r_0 with time*

3.3.1 One-term Approximation

The one-dimensional transient heat conduction problem can be solved exactly for any of the three geometries: plane wall, cylinder or sphere. But the solution involves infinite series, which are difficult to deal with. However, the terms in the solutions converge rapidly with increasing time, and for Fo > 0.2, keeping the first term and neglecting all the remaining terms in the series results in an error less than 2%. It is thus convenient to express the solution using this one-term approximation, which is given as follows:

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$$\text{Plane wall:} \quad \frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = A_1 e^{-\delta_1^2 \text{ Fo}} \cos \frac{\delta_1}{l} x, \text{ Fo} > 0.2$$

$$\text{Cylinder:} \quad \frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = A_1 e^{-\delta_1^2 \text{ Fo}} J_o \left(\frac{\lambda_1 r}{\lambda_0} \right), \text{ Fo} > 0.2$$

$$\text{Sphere:} \quad \frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = A_1 e^{-\delta_1^2 \text{ Fo}} \left(\frac{\sin (\lambda_1 r / r_0)}{\lambda_1 r / r_0} \right), \text{ Fo} > 0.2 \tag{3.45}$$

where A_1 and λ_1 are functions of Biot number only, and their values are listed in Table 3.1 against Bi. The function J_0 is the zeroth-order Bessel function of the first kind, whose value can be determined from Table 3.2. Noting that $\cos 0 = J_0(0) = 1$ and the limit of $\sin x/x$ is also l, the above relations simplify to the following at the centre of the plane wall, cylinder or sphere.

Table 3.1 *Coefficients used in the one-term approximate solution of transient one-dimensional heat conduction in plane walls, cylinders and spheres*

Plane slab		*Cylinder*		*Sphere*	
Bi	λ_1	λ_1	A_1	A_1	λ_1
0.01	0.0998	1.0017	0.1412	1.0025	0.1730
0.02	0.1410	1.0033	0.1995	1.0050	0.2445
0.04	0.1987	1.0066	0.2814	1.0099	0.3450
0.06	0.2425	1.0098	0.3438	1.0148	0.4217
0.08	0.2791	1.0130	0.3960	1.0197	0.4860
0.1	0.3111	1.0161	0.4417	1.0246	0.5423
0.2	0.4328	1.0311	0.6170	1.0483	0.7593
0.3	0.5218	1.0450	0.7465	1.0712	0.9208
0.4	0.5932	1.0580	0.8516	1.0931	1.0528
0.5	0.6533	1.0701	0.9408	1.1143	1.1656
0.6	0.7051	1.0814	1.0184	1.1345	1.2044
0.7	0.7506	1.0918	1.0873	1.1539	1.3525
0.8	0.7910	1.1016	1.1490	1.1724	1.4320
0.9	0.8274	1.1107	1.2048	1.1902	1.5044
1.0	0.8603	1.1191	1.2558	1.2071	1.5708
2.0	1.0769	1.1785	1.5995	1.3384	2.0288
3.0	1.1985	1.2102	1.7887	1.4191	2.2889
4.0	1.2646	1.2287	1.9081	1.4698	2.4556
5.0	1.3138	1.2403	1.9898	1.5029	2.5704
6.0	1.3496	1.2479	2.0490	1.5253	2.6537
7.0	1.3766	1.2532	2.0937	1.5411	2.7165
8.0	1.3978	1.2570	2.1286	1.5526	2.7654
9.0	1.4149	1.2598	2.1566	1.5611	2.8044
10.0	1.4289	1.2620	2.1795	1.5677	2.8363
20.0	1.4961	1.2699	2.2880	1.5919	2.9857
30.0	1.5202	1.2717	2.3261	1.5973	3.0372
40.0	1.5325	1.2723	2.3455	1.5993	3.0632
50.0	1.5400	1.2727	2.3572	1.6002	3.0788
100.0	1.5552	1.2731	2.3809	1.6015	3.1102
*	1.5708	1.2732	2.4048	1.6021	3.1416

(Bi = $\frac{hL}{k}$ for a plane wall of thickness $2L$, and Bi = $\frac{h r_0}{k}$ for a cylinder or a sphere of radius r_0).

Table 3.2 *Zeroth = and first-order Bessel functions of the first kind*

ξ	$J_0(\xi)$	$J_1(\xi)$
0.0	1.0000	0.0000
0.1	0.9975	0.0499
0.2	0.9900	0.0995
0.3	0.9776	0.1483
0.4	0.9604	0.1960
0.5	0.9385	0.2423
0.6	0.9120	0.2867
0.7	0.8812	0.3290
0.8	0.8463	0.3688
0.9	0.8075	0.4059
1.0	0.7075	0.4400
1.1	0.7130	0.4708
1.2	0.6711	0.4983
1.3	0.8201	0.5220
1.4	0.5669	0.5419
1.5	0.5118	0.5579
1.6	0.4554	0.5699
1.7	0.3980	0.5778
1.8	0.3400	0.5815
1.9	0.2818	0.5812
2.0	0.2239	0.5767
2.1	0.1000	0.5688
2.2	0.1104	0.5560
2.3	0.0555	0.5399
2.4	0.0025	0.5202

Plane wall: $$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = A_1 e^{-\delta_1^2 \text{ Fo}}$$

Cylinder: $$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = A_1 e^{-\delta_1^2 \text{ Fo}}$$

Sphere: $$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = A_1 e^{-\delta_1^2 \text{ Fo}}$$

Relations of Eq. (3.45) can be used to determine the temperature anywhere in the medium.

The boundary conditions and the initial conditions for all three geometries are similar. One boundary condition requires that the temperature gradient at the midplane of the plate, the axis of the cylinder and the centre of the sphere be equal to zero. Physically, this corresponds to no heat-flow at these locations.

The other boundary condition requires that the heat conducted to or from the surface be transferred by convection to or from a fluid at temperature T_∞ through a uniform and constant heat transfer coefficient $\bar{h}$, or

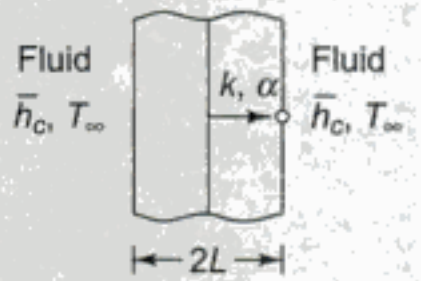
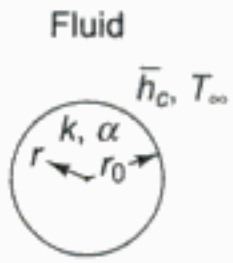
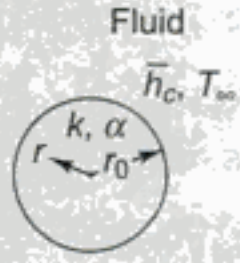
$$h(T_w - T_\infty) = -k\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial n}\right)_w$$

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where the subscript w refers to conditions at the wall or surface and n to the coordinate direction normal to the surface. It should be noted that the limiting case of Bi $\rightarrow \infty$ corresponds to a negligible thermal resistance at the surface ($h \rightarrow \infty$) so that the surface temperature T_w is equal to T_∞ for $t > 0$.

The initial conditions for all three chart solutions require that the solid initially be at a uniform temperature T_i and that when the transient begins at time zero ($t = 0$), the entire surface is contacted by fluid at T_∞. The solutions of all three cases are plotted in terms of dimensionless parameters, summarized in Table 3.3. To find the centreline or midplane temperature, Figs 3.7(a), 3.9(a) and 3.10(a) have to be used. To find the local temperatures as a function of time, Figs 3.7(b), 3.9(b) and 3.10(b) are to be used.

Table 3.3 *Summary of dimensionless parameters for use with transient heat conduction charts*

	Infinite plate, width 2L	*Infinite long cylinder radius r_0*	*Sphere, radius r_0*
Geometry			
Dimensionless position	$\frac{x}{L}$	$\frac{r}{r_0}$	$\frac{r}{r_0}$
Biot number	$\frac{\bar{h}_c L}{k}$	$\frac{\bar{h}_c r_0}{k}$	$\frac{\bar{h}_c r_0}{k}$
Fourier number	$\frac{\alpha t}{L^2}$	$\frac{\alpha t}{r_0^2}$	$\frac{\alpha t}{r_0^2}$
Dimensionless centreline temperature $\frac{\theta(0, t)}{\theta_i}$	Fig. 3.7(a)	Fig. 3.9(a)	Fig. 3.10(a)
Dimensionless local temperature $\frac{\theta(x, t)}{\theta(0, t)}$ or $\frac{\theta(r, t)}{\theta(0, t)}$	Fig. 3.7(b)	Fig. 3.9(b)	Fig. 3.10(b)
Dimensionless heat transfer $\frac{Q''(t)}{Q_i''}, \frac{Q'(t)}{Q_i'}, \frac{Q(t)}{Q_i}$	Fig. 3.7(c) $Q_i'' = \rho c L (T_i - T_2)$	Fig. 3.9(c) $Q_i' = \rho c \pi r_0^2 (T_i - T_2)$	Fig. 3.10(c) $Q_i = \rho c \frac{4}{3} \pi r_0^3 (T_i - T_2)$

The instantaneous rate of heat transfer to or from the surface of the solid can be evaluated from Fourier's law once the temperature distribution is known. Each heat transfer value $Q(t)$ is the total amount of heat that is transferred from the surface to the fluid during the time from $t = 0$ to $t = t$. The normalising factor Q_i is the initial amount of energy in the solid at $t = 0$.

Two general classes of transient problems can be solved by using the charts.

1. The time is known while the local temperature at that time is unknown.
2. The local temperature is known and the time required to reach that temperature is unknown.

3.4 TWO- AND THREE-DIMENSIONAL SOLUTIONS OF TRANSIENT HEAT CONDUCTION

For regular shaped bodies, analytical methods in the form of Heisler's charts can be used to determine the time-temperature history.

Let us consider a rectangular parallelepiped with dimensions $2A$, $2B$ and $2C$, which is initially at a uniform temperature T_i and then subjected to a constant surrounding temperature T_∞ (Fig. 3.11).

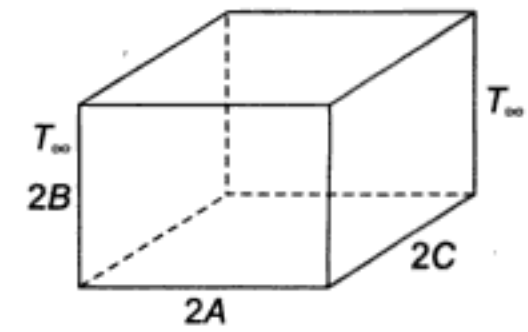


Fig. 3.11 *A parallelepiped being heated or cooled*

Fourier's heat conduction equation in absence of any heat source is given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{3.46}$$

The solution may be broken up into factors so that

$$T = f_1(x, t) f_2(y, t) f_3(z, t) \tag{3.47}$$

Substituting in Eq. (3.46),

$$f_2 f_3 \frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x^2} + f_3 f_1 \frac{\partial^2 f_2}{\partial y^2} + f_1 f_2 \frac{\partial^2 f_3}{\partial z^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\alpha}\left(f_2 f_3 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial t} + f_3 f_1 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} + f_1 f_2 \frac{\partial f_3}{\partial t} \right)$$

By re-arranging,

$$f_2 f_3 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial t} \right) + f_3 f_1 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f_2}{\partial y^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} \right) + f_1 f_2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 f_3}{\partial z^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial f_3}{\partial t} \right) = 0 \tag{3.48}$$

Equation (3.48) will be satisfied only if

$$\frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f_2}{\partial y^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f_3}{\partial z^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial f_3}{\partial t} = 0$$

But these are simply three one-dimensional forms of Fourier's equation, so that the solution to the three-dimensional problem may be expressed as the product of three solutions of one-dimensional problems.

From Heisler's charts for infinite plates, $(\theta_c/\theta_i)_A$, $(\theta_c/\theta_i)_B$ and $(\theta_c/\theta_i)_C$ are found out. The product of these three will give the centre temperature of the parallelepiped (Fig. 3.12).

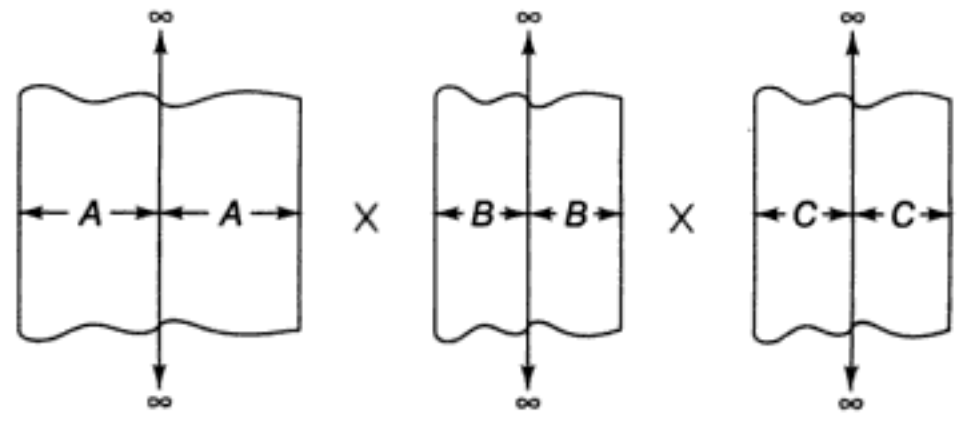


Fig. 3.12 *Product solution of the parallelepiped in terms of three infinite plates*

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$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_A \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_B \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_C = \frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}$$

from which T_c at any time t can be estimated.

Similarly, for any other point inside the parallelepiped the time–temperature history can be found out by using the position-correction charts.

In a similar manner, the temperature of a long rectangular bar can be obtained as a product of two one-dimensional results (Fig. 3.13).

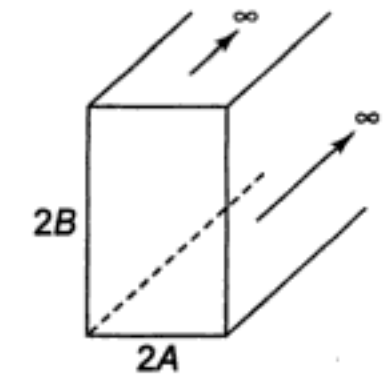


Fig. 3.13 *Long rectangular bar*

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_A \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_B$$

or, at any other point.

For a square bar, $A = B$ (Fig. 3.14)

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_A^2$$

For a cube, $A = B = C$,

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_A^3$$

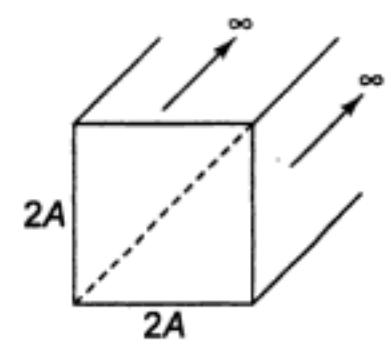


Fig. 3.14 *Infinite square bar*

It can similarly be shown that for a finite circular cylinder of radius R and length $2L$, the temperature anywhere can be obtained as the product of two one-dimensional results, one for an infinitely long cylinder of radius R and the other for an infinite plate of thickness $2L$ (Fig. 3.15).

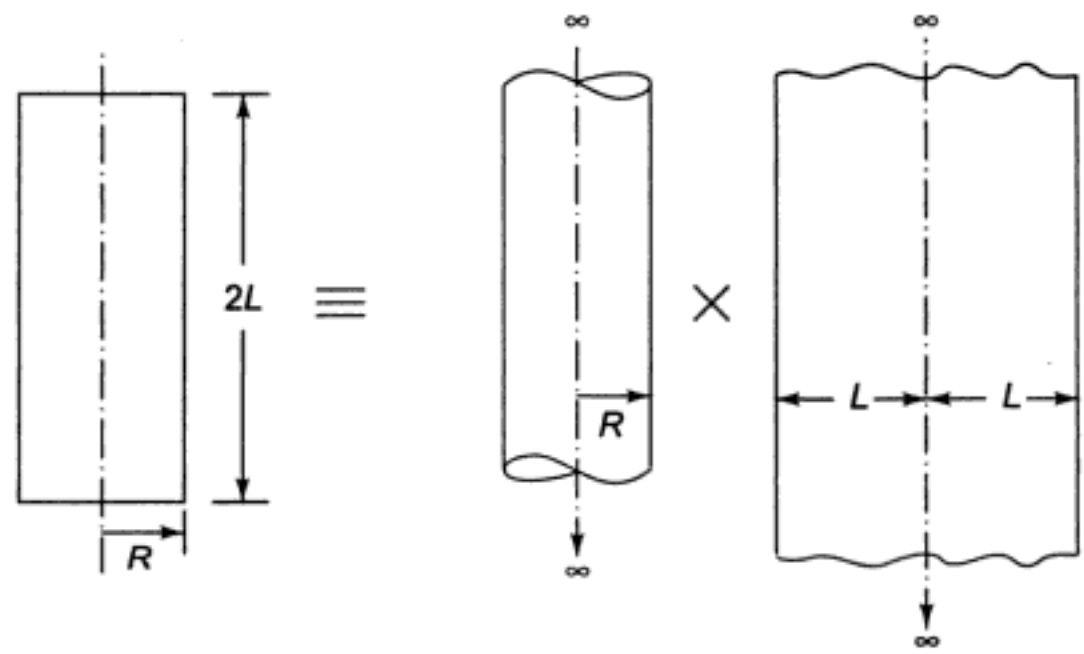


Fig. 3.15 *Time–temperature history of a finite cylinder of radius R and length 2L is equivalent to the product solution for an infinite cylinder of radius R and an infinite plate of thickness 2L*

Similarly, at any other point in the cylinder the temperature at any instant can be found out with the help of position-correction charts.

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3.5 SEMI-INFINITE SOLID

Another simple geometry for which analytical solutions may be obtained is the *semi-infinite solid*. In principle, such a solid extends to infinity in all but one direction and it is characterised by a single identifiable surface (Fig. 3.16). If a sudden change of conditions is imposed at this surface, transient one-dimensional conduction will occur within the solid. The semi-infinite solid provides a useful idealization for many practical problems. It may be used to determine transient heat transfer near the surface of the earth or approximate the transient response of a finite solid such as a thick slab. The transient conduction in a semi-infinite solid is given by

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \tag{3.49}$$

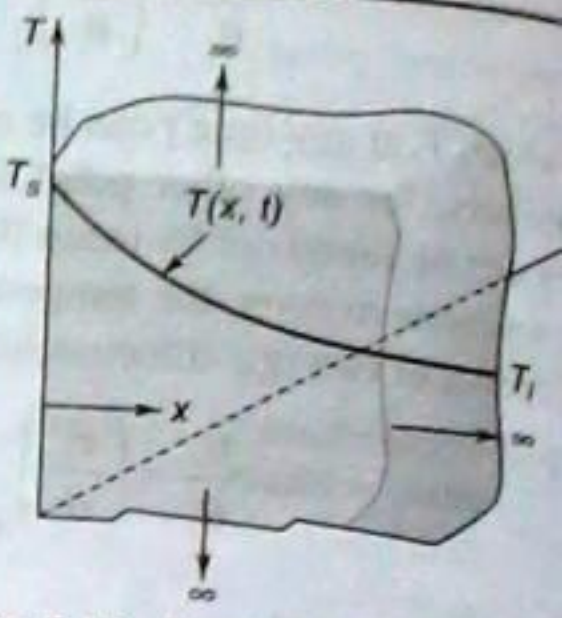


Fig. 3.16 *Transient conduction in a semi-infinite solid*

The initial condition is: $T(x, 0) = T_i$ and the interior boundary condition is

$$T(x \to \infty, t) = T_i$$

Closed form solutions have been obtained by Schneider [1] for three important surface conditions instantaneously applied at $t = 0$. These conditions are shown in Fig. 3.17(a). They include application of constant surface temperature $T_s \neq T_i$, application of a constant heat flux q''_0, and exposure of the surface to a fluid characterized by $T_\infty \neq T_i$ and the convection coefficient h.

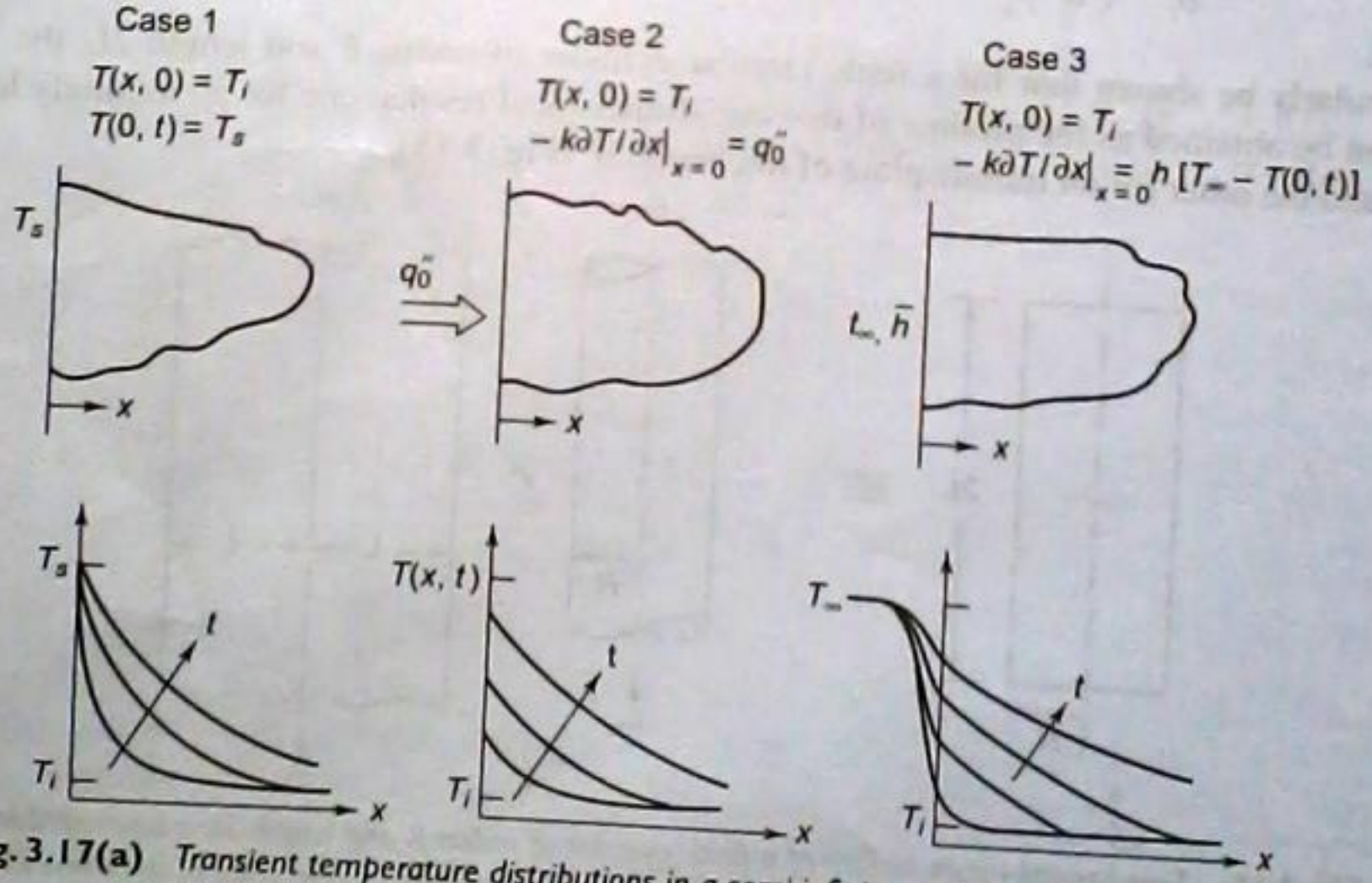


Fig. 3.17(a) *Transient temperature distributions in a semi-infinite solid for three surface conditions: (1) Constant surface temperature (2) constant surface heat flux and (3) surface convection*

The solution for case 1 may be obtained by recognizing the existence of a *similarity variable* η, through which the heat equation may be transformed from a partial differential equation with two independent variables (x and t) to an ordinary differential equation in terms of a single similarity variable. To confirm that it is satisfied by $\eta = \dfrac{x}{\sqrt{4\alpha t}} = \dfrac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha t}}$, we first transform the pertinent differential operators, such that

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{dT}{d\eta} \cdot \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{(4\alpha t)^{1/2}} \cdot \frac{dT}{d\eta}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = \frac{d}{d\eta}\left[\frac{dT}{dx}\right]\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{4\alpha t}\frac{d^2T}{d\eta^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{dT}{d\eta}\frac{\partial \eta}{\partial t} = -\frac{x}{2t(4\alpha t)^{1/2}} \cdot \frac{dT}{d\eta}$$

Substituting into Eq. (3.49), the heat equation becomes

$$\mathbf{\frac{d^2T}{d\eta^2} + 2\eta\frac{dT}{d\eta} = 0} \tag{3.49a}$$

With $x = 0$ corresponding to $\eta = 0$, the surface condition becomes

$$T(\eta \simeq 0) = T_s$$

and with $x \to \infty$ and $t = 0$ corresponding to $\eta \to \infty$, both the initial and boundary conditions combine to a single condition

$$T(\eta \to \infty) = T_i$$

Irrespective of the values of x and t, the temperature may be represented as a unique function of η, so that by separating the variables in Eq. (3.49a),

$$\frac{d(dT/d\eta)}{(dT/d\eta)} = -2\eta\, d\eta$$

On integration,

$$\ln(dT/d\eta) = -\eta^2 + C_1'$$

or,

$$\frac{dT}{d\eta} = C_1 \exp(-\eta^2)$$

Integrating a second time,

$$T = C_1 \int_0^\eta \exp(-u^2)\, du + C_2$$

where, u is a dummy variable. Applying the condition at $\eta = 0$, it follows that $C_2 = T_s$.

$\therefore$

$$T = C_1 \int_0^\eta \exp(-u^2)\, du + T_s$$

and the definite integral gives

$$C_1 = \frac{2(T_i - T_s)}{\pi^{1/2}}$$

Hence, the temperature distribution may now be expressed as

$$\frac{T - T_s}{T_i - T_s} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}\int_0^\eta \exp(-u^2)\, du = \mathrm{erf}(\eta) \tag{3.49b}$$

where the *Gaussian error function*, erf (η), is a mathematical function, which is tabulated in Appendix B-2. The surface heat flux may be obtained by applying Fourier's law at $x = 0$, in which case

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$$q_o'' = k\left.\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right|_{x=0} = -k\,(T_i - T_s)\frac{\mathrm{d}\,\mathrm{erf}\,(\eta)}{\mathrm{d}\eta}\left.\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right|_{\eta=0}$$

$$q_o'' = k(T_2 - T_i)\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}}\exp(-\eta^2)\,(4\alpha t)^{1/2}\right)\Bigg|_{\eta=0}$$

$$q_o'' = \frac{h(T_s - T_i)}{(\pi\alpha t)^{1/2}}$$

Analytical solutions may also be obtained for the case 2 and case 3 surface conditions, and results of all these cases are summarized as follows.

Case (a)

Change in surface temperature

$$T(0, t) = T_s$$

$$\frac{T(x, t) - T_s}{T_i - T_s} = \mathrm{erf}\,\frac{x}{2\,(\alpha t)^{1/2}} = \theta(x, t) \tag{3.50}$$

The dimensionless parameter $\xi = x/2\sqrt{\alpha t}$ is plotted in Fig. 3.17 against the dimensionless temperature $\theta(x, t)$.

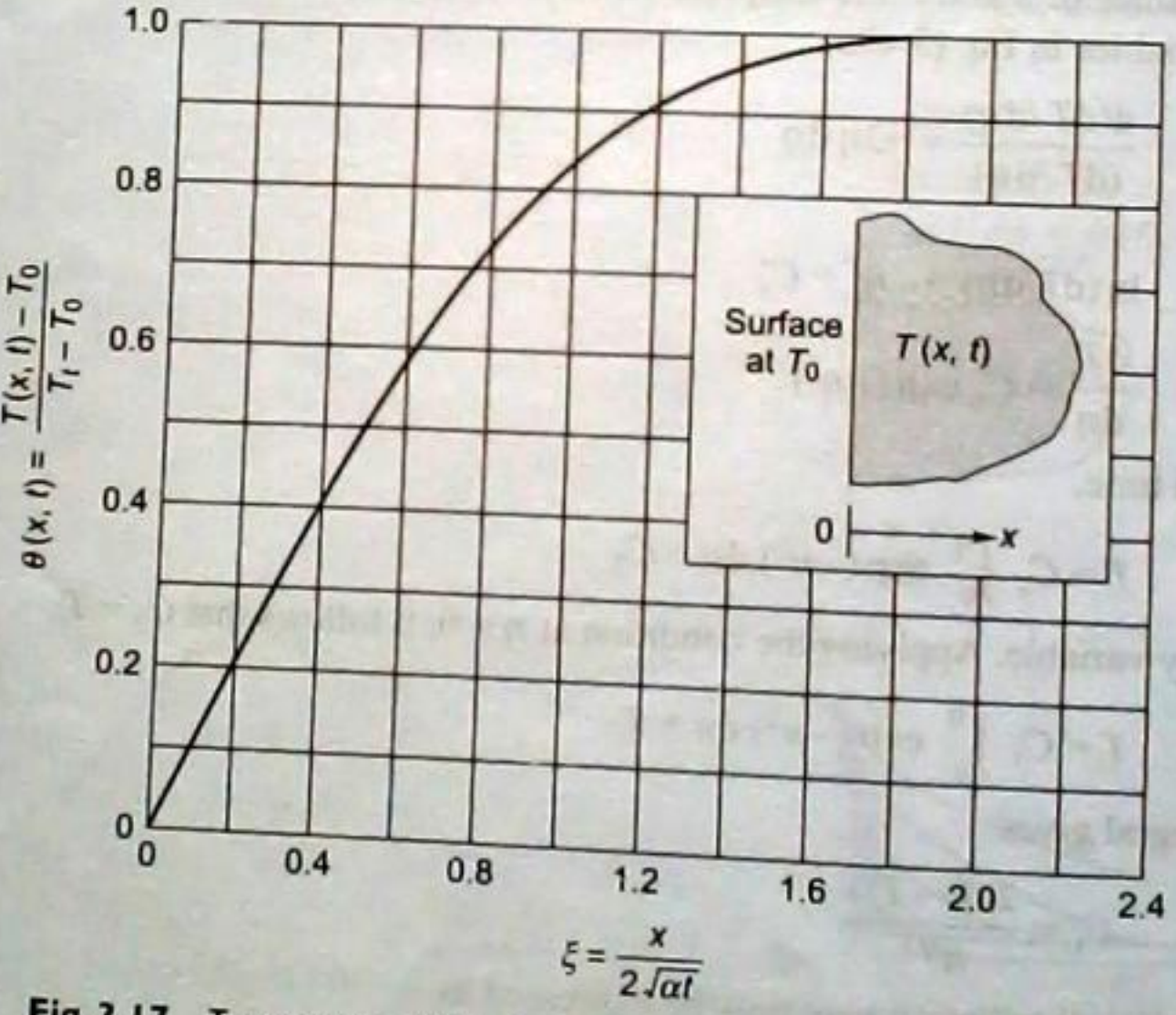


Fig. 3.17 *Temperature distribution $T(x, t)$ in a semi-infinite solid which is initialty at T_o for $t > 0$ the surface at $x = 0$ is maintained at T_o*

For a given value of x, the graph represents the variation of temperature with time at that particular location.

$$q_s''(t) = -k\left.\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right|_{x=0} = \frac{k(T_s - T_i)}{(\pi\alpha t)^{1/2}}$$

Case (b)

Constant surface flux

$$q_s'' = q_0''$$

$$T(x, t) - T_i = \frac{2q_0''(\alpha t/\pi)^{1/2}}{k_s} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{4\alpha t}\right) - \frac{q_0'' x}{k_s} \operatorname{erf} c\left[\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}\right] \tag{3.51}$$

Case (c)

Surface convection

$$-k \left.\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right|_{x=0} = \bar{h}[T_\infty - T(0, t)]$$

$$\frac{T(x,t) - T_i}{T_\infty - T_i} = \operatorname{erf} c\left[\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}\right] - \exp\left(\frac{\bar{h}x}{k} + \frac{\bar{h}^2 \alpha t}{k^2}\right) \operatorname{erf} c\left[\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}} + \frac{\bar{h}(\alpha t)^{1/2}}{k}\right] \tag{3.52}$$

It may be noted that $(h^2\alpha t)/k^2$ is equal to the product of $\mathrm{Bi}^2\mathrm{Fo}$, where $\mathrm{Bi} = \bar{h}x/k$ and $\mathrm{Fo} = \alpha t/x^2$. The function erfc is the *Gaussian error function* defined as

$$\operatorname{erf}\left[\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}\right] = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2(\alpha t)^{1/2}} e^{-\eta^2} d\eta \tag{3.53}$$

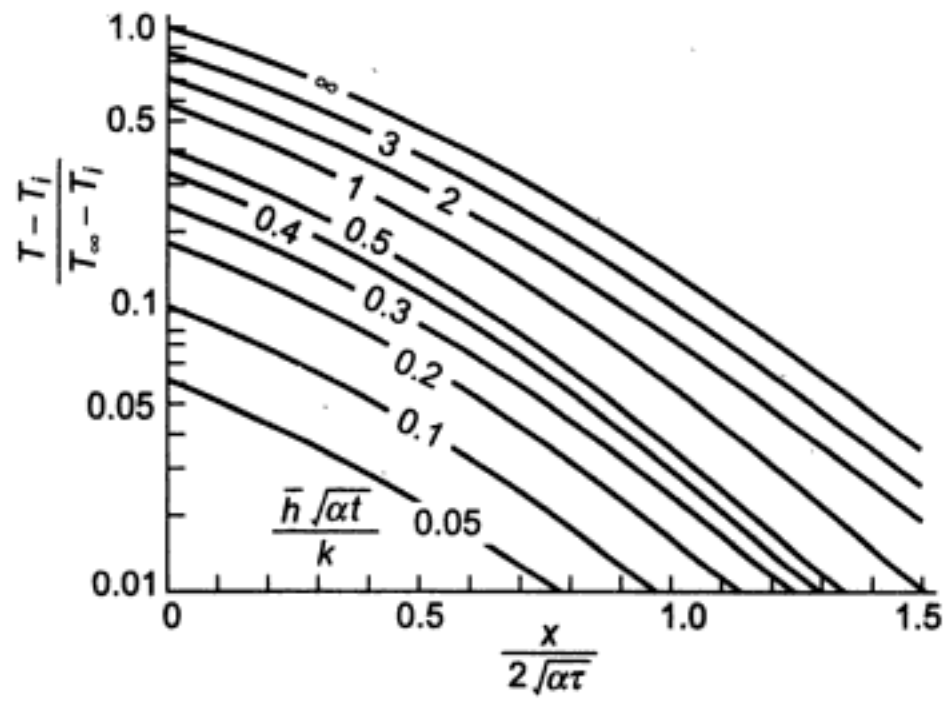


Fig. 3.18 *Transient temperatures for a semi-infinite solid with surface convection*

Values of this error function are tabulated in the appendix. The complementary error function, erf $c(w)$ is defined as

$$\operatorname{erf} c(w) = 1 - \operatorname{erf}(w)$$

Temperature histories for the three cases are illustrated qualitatively in Fig. 3.17. For case (c), the specific temperature histories computed from Eq. (3.52) are plotted in Fig. 3.18. The curve corresponding to $\bar{h} = \infty$ is equivalent to the result that would be obtained for a sudden change in the surface temperature

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to $T_s = T(x, 0)$, because when $\bar{h} = \infty$, the second term on the r.h.s. of Eq. (3.52) is zero, and the result is equivalent to Eq. (3.50) for case (a).

3.6 NUMERICAL AND GRAPHICAL METHODS

Analytical treatment of transient heat conduction problems is possible only for regular shaped bodies, and for such bodies only, the various charts computed from analytical solutions are very useful in determining the temperature history and heat transfer rates. But for bodies of irregular geometric shapes and in cases where the boundry conditions are varying with time (e.g., the ambient temperature T_∞, the heat transfer coefficient h or the physical properties of the solid may vary with time), and in cases where the initial temperature distribution is not uniform, or there is an internal heat source and so on, analytical treatment is difficult to use. Such complex cases can be readily handled by employing numerical methods. The results yielded are approximate, but the accuracy obtained is sufficient in most practical cases.

There are two basic graphical methods in frequent use, viz., (a) the mapping method and (b) the finite difference equation method. The mapping method was first described by Lehman for electrical fields, and later adapted by others for heat conduction problems. The two-dimensional space is divided into meshes of approximately square form, representing isothermal and adiabatic lines, which are orthogonal. The mapping method was explained in the last chapter, and it is, however, not suitable for transient problems.

The method based on finite differences was indicated first by Binder, then developed anew and in more detail by Schmidt, and further improved by Nessi and Nissolle, and Dusinberre [6].

The relaxation method, introduced by Southwell, which is also a finite difference method of solving the Laplace equation, cannot be used in most cases of unsteady problems, because the relaxation procedure requires that the boundary conditions are completely specified, and so it is used only for steady-state problems, as explained in the last chapter. Iteration methods are adopted to solve unsteady state problems.

We will first consider the case in which there is no convective resistance, and later extend the method to cases where there is the external resistance.

3.6.1 Schmidt's Method with No Convective Resistance

Let us take a large slab of thickness x and uniform cross-sectional area and divide it into a number of equal finite slices of thickness Δx by temperature reference planes and the time into intervals Δt (Fig. 3.19). The differential equation (in one dimension).

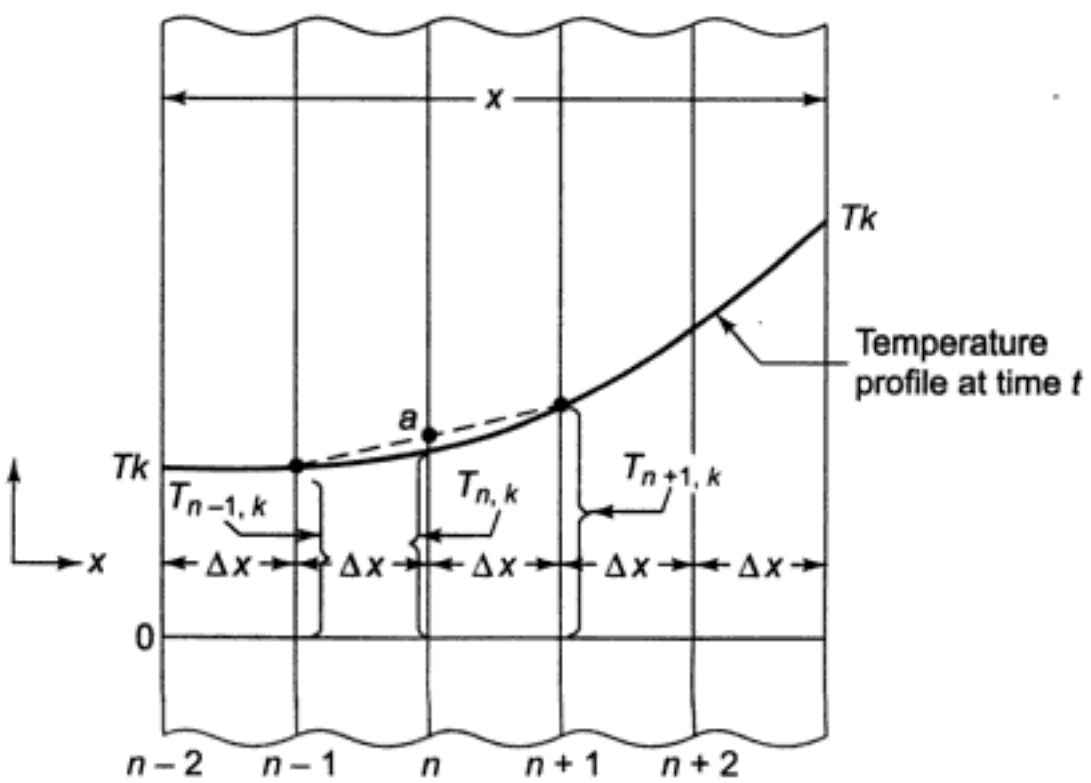


Fig. 3.19 *Unsteady heat flow in a plane wall by the Schmidt's method*

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$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$$

can be written as a difference equation

$$\frac{\Delta_x^2 T}{(\Delta x)^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\Delta_t T}{\Delta t} \tag{3.54}$$

$$\Delta_x T_+ = T_{n+1,\,k} - T_{n,\,k} \quad \Delta_x T_- = T_{n,\,k} - T_{n-1,\,k}$$

$$\Delta_t T = T_{n,\,k+1} - T_{n,\,k}$$

$\Delta_x^2 T$ is the difference of two successive differences.

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_x^2 T &= \Delta_x T_+ - \Delta_x T_- \\ &= (T_{n+1,\,k} - T_{n,\,k}) - (T_{n,\,k} - T_{n-1,\,k}) \\ &= T_{n+1,\,k} - 2T_{n,\,k} + T_{n-1,\,k}\end{aligned}$$

Substituting in Eq. (3.54),

$$\frac{T_{n+1,\,k} - 2T_{n,\,k} + T_{n-1,\,k}}{(\Delta x)^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha}\,\frac{T_{n,\,k+1} - T_{n,\,k}}{\Delta t}$$

$$T_{n,\,k+1} = \frac{\alpha\,\Delta t}{(\Delta x)^2}\,(T_{n+1,\,k} - 2T_{n,\,k} + T_{n-1,\,k}) + T_{n,\,k} \tag{3.55}$$

If we know the temperature at a point n at a given instant k, we can determine the temperature at that point at the time $k + 1$ i.e., after a lapse of time Δt. By continual application of Eq. (3.55), the development of the temperature field with time can be determined from a known initial temperature distribution. The term $(\alpha\Delta t)/(\Delta x)^2$ in Eq. (3.55) is the Fourier number. Schmidt took Fo = 1/2, so that

$$T_{n,\,k+1} = \frac{1}{2}\,(T_{n+1,\,k} + T_{n-1,\,k}) - T_{n,\,k} + T_{n,\,k}$$

or

$$T_{n,\,k+1} = \frac{T_{n+1,\,k} + T_{n-1,\,k}}{2} \tag{3.56}$$

The temperature at a point after time Δt is the arithmetic mean of the two temperatures at time t (kth instant) $2\Delta x$ apart, Δx distance on either side of the point. The point a represents the temperature at the instant $k + 1$ in which the time increment later than k is

$$\Delta t = \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{2\alpha}$$

In the same manner by drawing additional straight lines, other points of the temperature field for the time trace $(k + 1)$ can be obtained, and thus the entire temperature field can be determined (Fig. 3.20). In order to use the graphical solution, the temperature field must be known at some specific time.

3.6.2 Dusinberre's Method

Dusinberre [6] derived the same difference equation by a direct energy balance of a finite element. Let us consider the slab *abcd* divided equally into a number of finite slices of thickness Δx (Fig. 3.21). Let us take a finite element *abcd* symmetrical about plane 1. Here Q_1 = heat flowing into *abcd*, Q_2 = heat flowing out from *abcd* and entering *bcde*.

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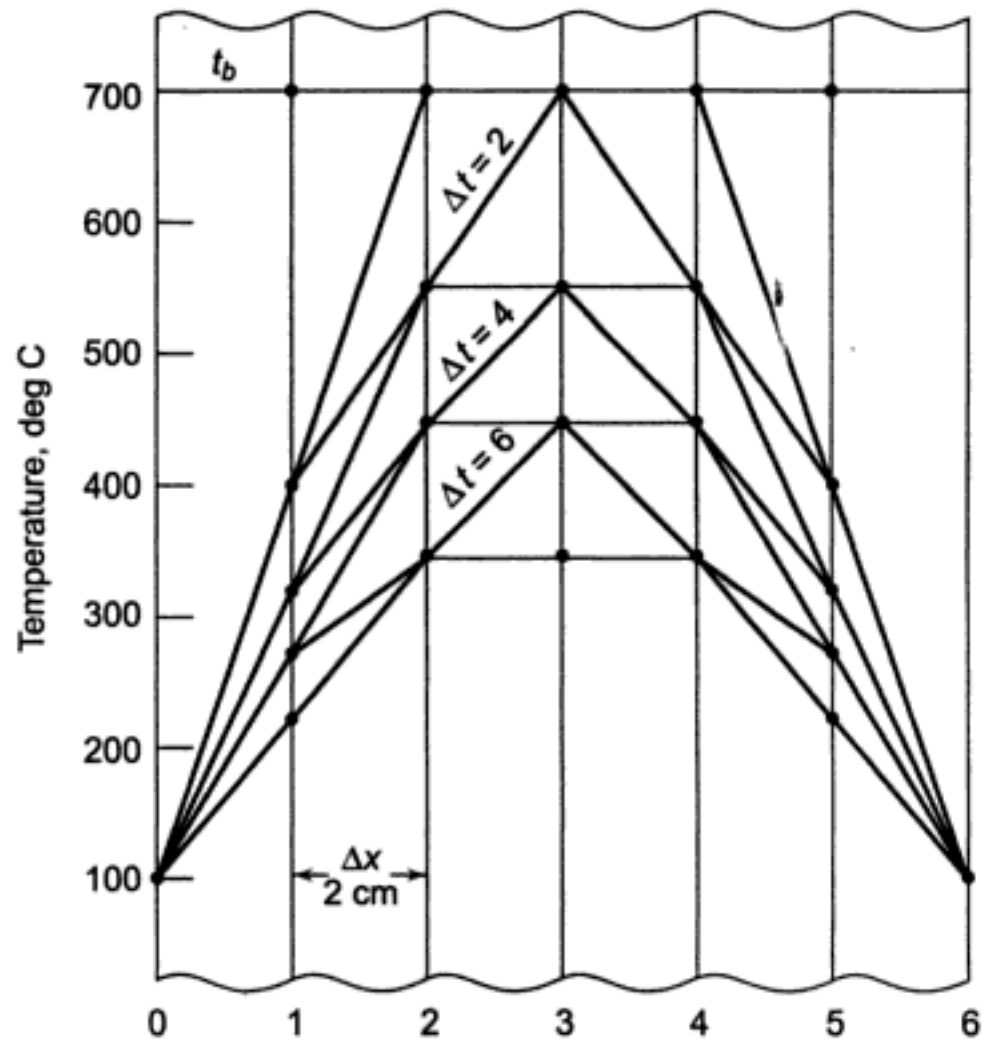


Fig. 3.20 *Running picture of temperature distribution in a slab varying with time*

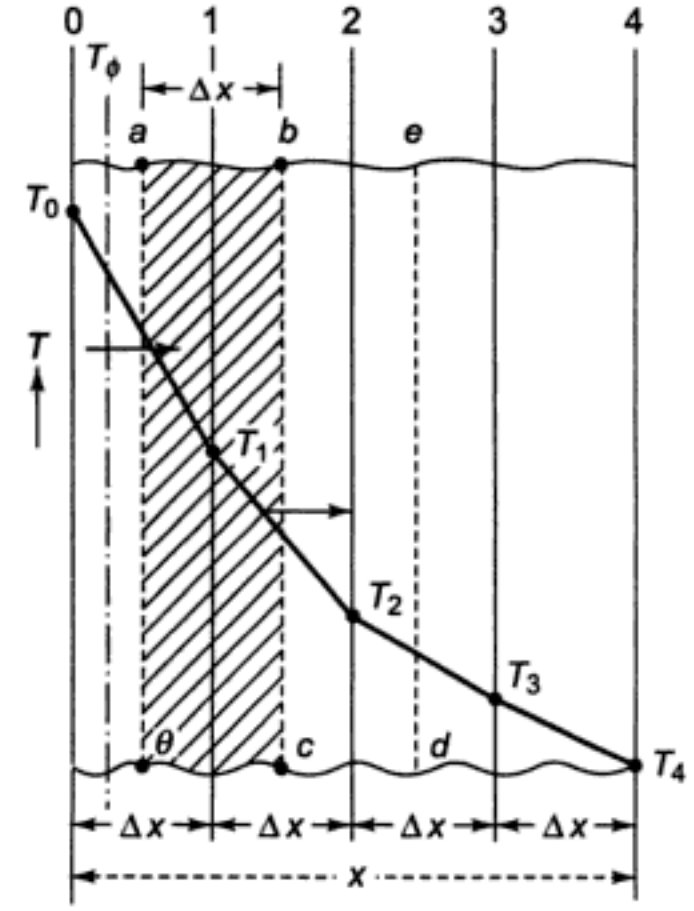


Fig. 3.21 *Dusinberre's method of obtaining 1-D transients in a slab*

$$Q_1 = -kA \frac{T_1 - T_0}{\Delta x}$$

$$Q_2 = -kA \frac{T_2 - T_1}{\Delta x}$$

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The net heat transfer $(Q_1 - Q_2)$ will increase the internal energy of the element and the temperature increases from T_1 to T_1' in time Δt. Therefore,

$$\Delta E = \frac{\rho (\Delta x A) c_P (T_1' - T_1)}{\Delta t}$$

By energy balance,

$$\frac{k A (T_0 - T_1)}{\Delta x} - \frac{k A (T_1 - T_2)}{\Delta x} = \frac{\rho \Delta x A c_P (T_1' - T_1)}{\Delta t}$$

$$T_1' - T_1 = \frac{\alpha \Delta t}{(\Delta x)^2} (T_0 - 2T_1 + T_2) \tag{3.57}$$

Here, T_1' is the temperature after the lapse of time Δt. This equation is the same as that of Schmidt, Eq. (3.55).

Let $\frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\alpha \Delta T} = \frac{1}{\text{Fo}} = M$, a dimensionless modulus

Equation (3.57) becomes

$$T_1' = \frac{1}{M} (T_0 - 2T_1 + T_2) + T_1$$

$$= \frac{T_0 + (M-2) T_1 + T_2}{M} \tag{3.58}$$

There will always be some errors in numerically solving the partial differential equation. As Δx or Δt are chosen smaller and smaller, closer will be the approximation to real values and less will be the errors. It can be shown from the convergence and stability of the equation that the solution behaves satisfactorily if M is taken large enough, $M \geq 2$ i.e., Fo $\leq 1/2$. Too small a value of M will be indicated by a pronounced oscillation or divergence of solution. And too large a value of M will consume too much of time in computation.

When $M = 2$, $T_1' = \frac{T_0 + T_2}{2}$

$M = 3$, $T_1' = \frac{T_0 + T_1 + T_2}{3}$

$M = 4$, $T_1' = \frac{T_0 + 2T_1 + T_2}{4}$

Schmidt took $M = 2$, while $M > 2$ was adopted by Nessi and Nissolle, and Dusinberre [7].

3.6.3 Schmidt's Method with Convective Resistance

To account for the convective resistance in Schmidt's method, a fictitious half-slice having no heat capacity is added outside the surface and the reference planes for temperatures are located at distances of 0.5 Δx, 1.5 Δx, 2.5 Δx and so on. The outer fictitious boundary is at a distance of – 0.5 Δx from the surface (Fig. 3.22).

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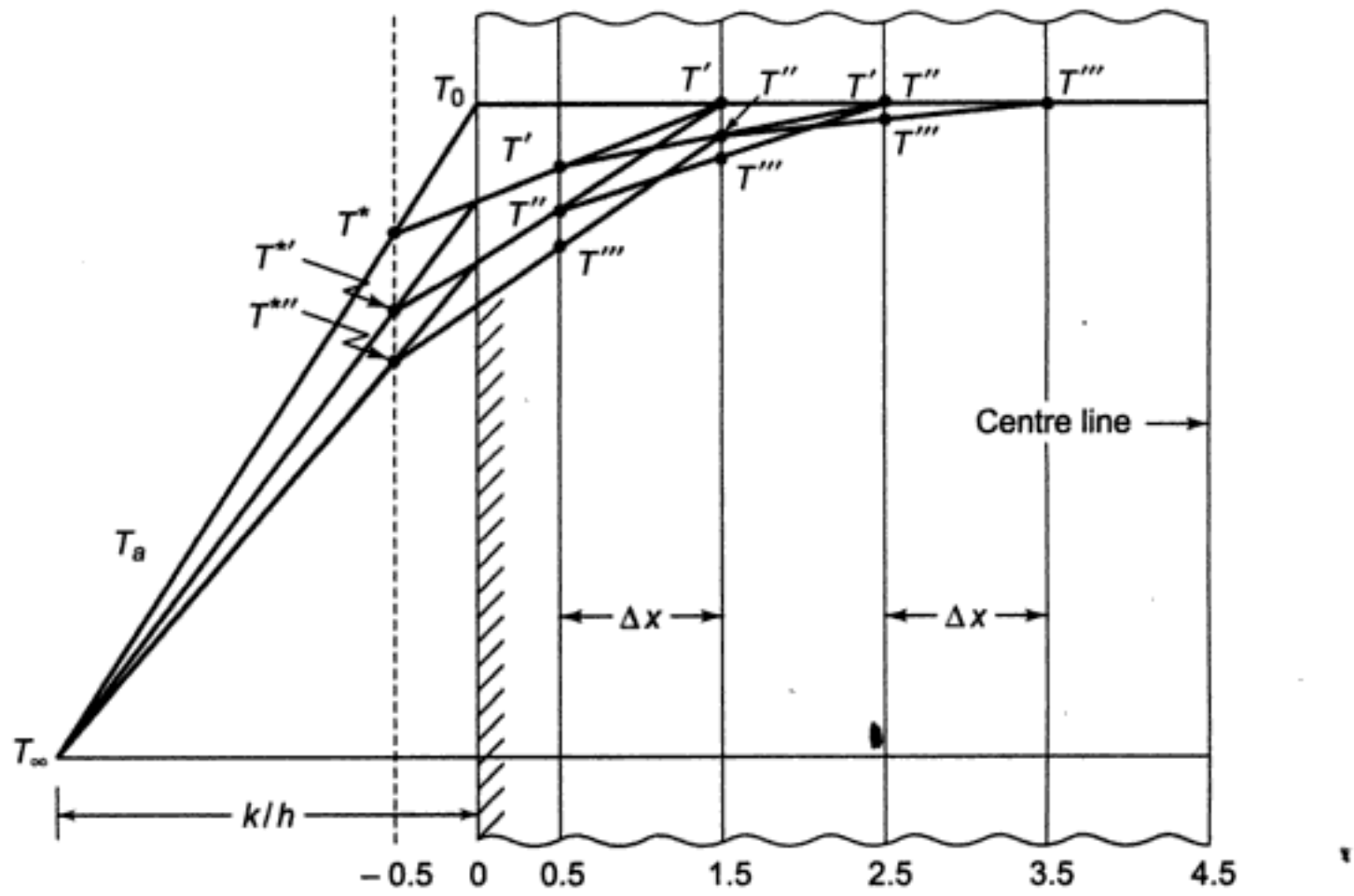


Fig. 3.22 *Schmidt's method for a one-dimensional transient in a slab with heat transfer at one surface*

A heat balance at the surface gives

$$\bar{q} = -k\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)_{x=0} = h\,(T_\infty - T_0)$$

$$\therefore \qquad \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)_{x=0} = -\frac{T_\infty - T_0}{k/h} \tag{3.59}$$

This is the slope of the temperature profile at the surface (Fig. 3.22). The ambient temperature T_∞ is plotted as ordinate at a distance k/h from the surface. The term $(T_\infty/T_0)/(k/h)$ is the ratio of two distances. A straight line from T_∞ to T_0 gives the slope $-(\mathrm{d}T/\mathrm{d}x)_{x=0}$ at surface and the ordinate at the intersection with the – 0.5 plane is designated as T^*. As an approximation $(\mathrm{d}T/\mathrm{d}x)_{x=0}$ is replaced by the chord slope $(T^* - T_{0.5})/\Delta x$, and the heat balance on the slice from plane 0 to plane 1 gives the Schmidt rule

$$T'_{0.5} = \frac{T^* + T_{1.5}}{2}$$

Heat balances on the interior give

$$T'_{1.5} = \frac{T'_{0.5} + T_{2.5}}{2} \qquad T'_{2.5} = \frac{T_{1.5} + T_{3.5}}{2}$$

and so on.

Figure 3.22 shows the graphical construction for a finite slab originally at uniform temperature, cooled at one face ($x = 0$) and adiabatic on the other face ($x = 4.5\ \Delta x$). Since there is no heat transfer at the adiabatic wall, the temperature gradient is always zero at this point.

If during the course of time, T_∞ or h changes, these changes can be accommodated by displacing appropriately the guide point r. It can also be applied for heat transfer at both surfaces.

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When $k/h \le \Delta x/2$, we can omit the fictitious half-slice altogether, as a measure of approximation (Fig. 3.23).

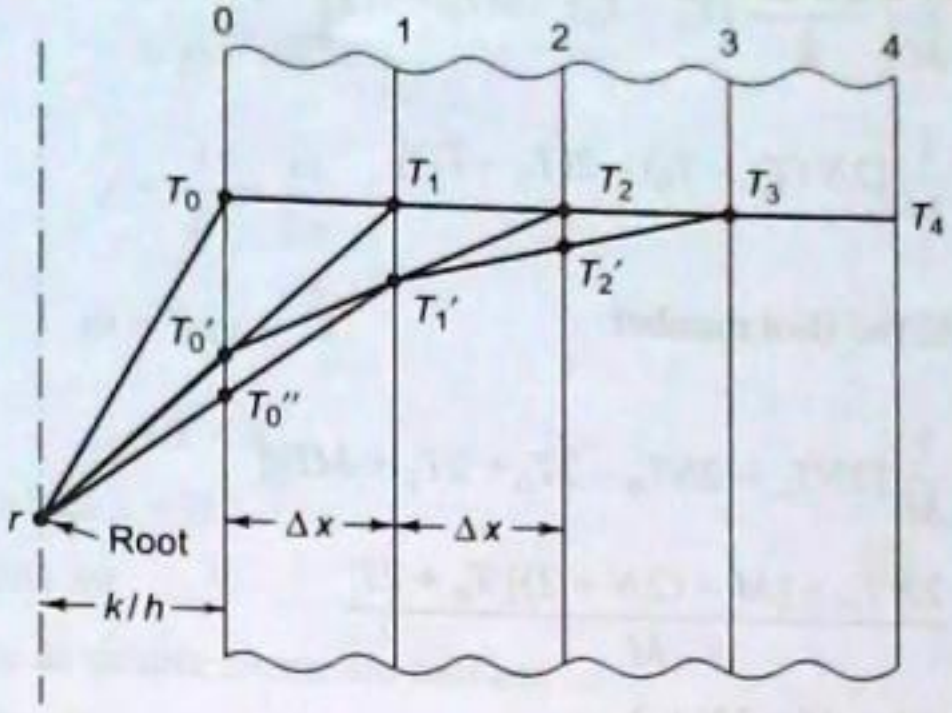


Fig. 3.23 *No fictitious half slice is required for $k/h \le \Delta x/2$*

Graphical construction provides a continuous picture of temperature changes taking place inside the material with time.

3.6.4 Dusinberre's Method with Convective Resistance

Dusinberre developed the difference equation by making energy balance for half slice (Fig. 3.24).

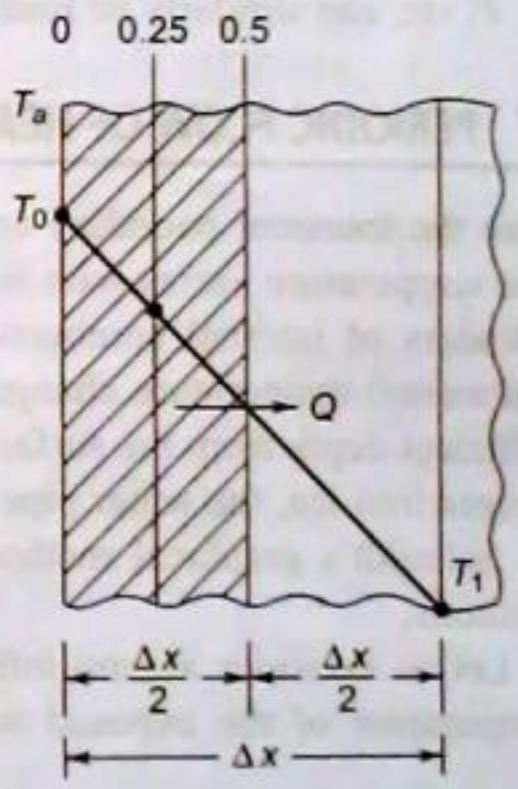


Fig. 3.24 *Dusinberre's method with convective resistance*

$$Q_1 = hA\,(T_\infty - T_0)$$

$$Q_2 = -kA\,\frac{(T_1 - T_0)/2}{\Delta x/2} = -kA\,\frac{T_1 - T_0}{\Delta x}$$

$$\therefore \qquad \Delta E = \frac{\rho A\,\frac{\Delta x}{2}\,c_p\,(T'_{0.25} - T_{0.25})}{\Delta t}$$

Since $\qquad Q_1 - Q_2 = \Delta E,$

$$hA(T_\infty - T_0) - \frac{k\,A\,(T_0 - T_1)}{\Delta x} = \frac{\rho A\,\frac{\Delta x}{2}\,c_p\,(T'_{0.25} - T_{0.25})}{\Delta t}$$

By approximation,

$$T'_{0.25} - T_{0.25} = T'_0 - T_0$$

$$T'_0 - T_0 = \frac{2\,\Delta t}{\rho \Delta x\, c_p}\left[h(T_\infty - T_0) - \frac{k}{\Delta x}(T_0 - T_1)\right]$$

$$= \frac{2\,(\Delta t)\,\Delta x k}{k\,\rho c_p\,(\Delta x)^2}\left[h(T_\infty - T_0) - \frac{k}{\Delta x}(T_0 - T_1)\right]$$

$$= \frac{2\,\alpha \Delta t}{k\,(\Delta x)^2}\,\Delta x\left[h(T_\infty - T_0) - \frac{k}{\Delta x}(T_0 - T_1)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{M}\left[\frac{2\,h\,\Delta x}{k}(T_\infty - T_0) - 2(T_0 - T_1)\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{M}\left[2N\,(T_\infty - T_0) - 2(T_0 - T_1)\right]$$

where $\dfrac{h\,\Delta x}{k} = N$, the Biot number.

$$T_0' = \frac{1}{M}\left[2NT_\infty - 2NT_0 - 2T_0 + 2T_1 + MT_0\right]$$

$$= \frac{2NT_\infty + [M - (2N+2)]\,T_0 + 2T_1}{M} \qquad (3.60)$$

To prevent oscillatory results, $M \geq 2N + 2$

$$T_1' = \frac{T_0 + (M-2)\,T_1 + T_2}{M}$$

T_2', T_3' etc. can similarly be found out.

3.7 PERIODIC FLOW OF HEAT IN ONE DIMENSION

Here the transient boundary condition is a regular harmonic which leads to a periodic type of heat flow. The temperature varies with time in a periodic manner. Examples of this phenomenon are evident in the cylinders of internal combustion engines, in cyclic regenerators and in the earth as the result of daily and annual temperature changes that repeat themselves. Water pipes in cold places are buried in soil at a sufficient depth from the surface to prevent freezing in winter. Since there is an increase in volume as water freezes into ice, the water pipe wall may crack while freezing. It is difficult to treat such transient systems by Schmidt's graphical method or numerical methods. Solution can, however, be secured by analytical methods.

Let us consider a semi-infinite solid extending from the surface $x = 0$ to $x = \infty$, where the surface temperature of the exposed surface at $x = 0$ is varying periodically with time, which may vary either

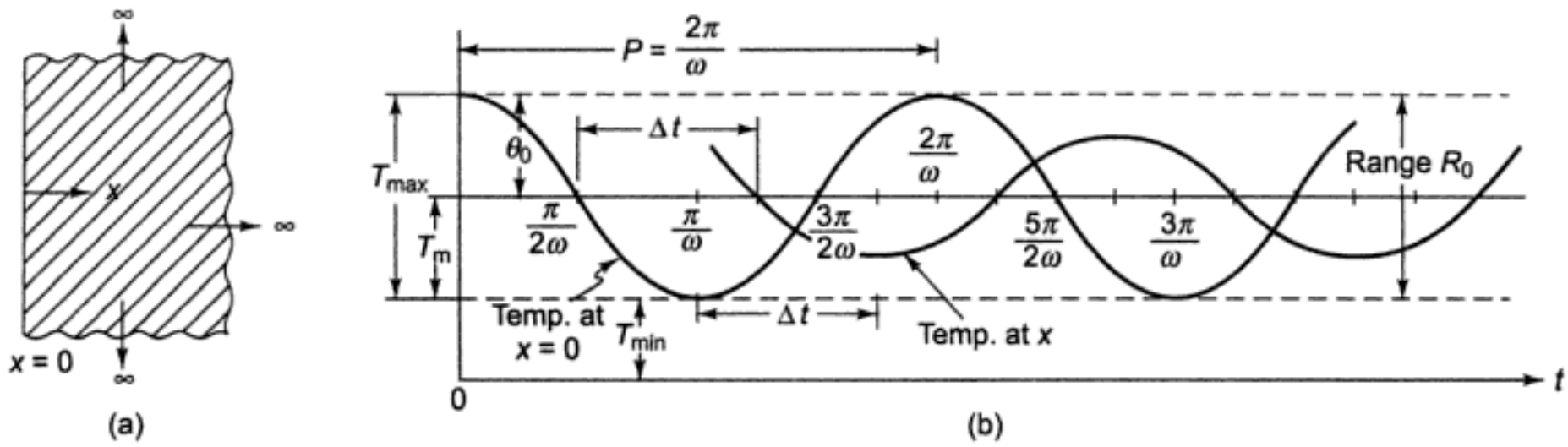


Fig. 3.25 *Temperature oscillating about a mean temperature* T_m

sinusoidally or consinusoidally [Fig. 3.25 (a) and (b)]. Let the temperature oscillate about a mean temperature T_m, which is equal to $(T_{max} + T_{min})/2$, as shown in Fig. 3.25 (b). Here,

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The amplitude at $x = 0$, $\theta_0 = \dfrac{T_{max} - T_{min}}{2}$

Time period of oscillation $= P$

Frequency $f = \dfrac{1}{P} = \dfrac{\omega}{2\pi}$

where, $\omega = 2\pi f = \dfrac{2\pi}{P}$

At any time t, $\theta = T - T_m$

Let us assume that at the surface $x = 0$

$$\theta = \theta_0^{\cdot} \cos \omega t$$

where ω is the angular velocity in simple harmonic motion.

At $t = 0$, $\theta = \theta_0$.

One-dimensional heat conduction equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{x}^2} = \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{t}}$$

In terms of variable θ,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t}$$

Let us again assume

$$\theta = X(x)Y(t)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = X \frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

Therefore,

$$Y \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha} X \frac{\partial Y}{\partial t}$$

$$\frac{1}{\alpha Y} \frac{\partial Y}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} = \pm i\lambda^2, \text{ the separation constant}$$

where λ is real,

$$\frac{1}{\alpha Y} \frac{\partial Y}{\partial t} = \pm i\lambda^2$$

and

$$\frac{1}{X} \frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} (\pm i\lambda^2) = 0$$

We will first take the positive sign.

$$\frac{\partial Y}{Y} = i\lambda^2 \alpha \, \delta t$$

$$\ln Y = i \lambda^2 \alpha t + \ln C$$

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$$Y(t) = B_1 e^{i\lambda^2 \alpha t}$$

and $$\frac{\partial^2 X}{\partial x^2} - i\lambda^2 X = 0$$

Characteristic equation is

$$m^2 - i\lambda^2 = 0 \quad m = \pm (i)^{1/2} \lambda$$

$$X(x) = B_2 e^{\sqrt{i}\lambda x} + B_3 e^{-\lambda x}$$

Now, $$(1+i)^2 = 1 + 2i + i^2 = 2i$$

$$\sqrt{i} = \frac{1+i}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\theta_+ = e^{i\lambda^2 \alpha t}\left[C_1 e^{(1+i)\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}} + C_2 e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}(1+i)}\right]$$

$$\theta_+ = e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}\left[C_1 e^{\sqrt{2}\lambda x} + i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t + \frac{\lambda x}{2}\right) + C_2 e^{+i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}\right]$$

Similarly, for negative sign

$$\theta_- = e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}\left[C_3 e^{\sqrt{2}\lambda x} e^{i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t + \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} + C_4 e^{-i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}\right]$$

$$\theta = \theta_+ + \theta_-$$

$$= e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{2}}\left[C_1 e^{\sqrt{2}\lambda x} e^{i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t + \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} + C_2 e^{i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} + C_3 e^{\sqrt{2}\lambda x} e^{i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha + \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} + C_4 e^{-i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}\right]$$

Now we have, as $x \to \infty$, $\theta = 0$, $T = T_m$

But if we apply here, $x \to \infty$, $\theta \to \infty$

$$C_1 = 0 \quad C_3 = 0$$

Then

$$\theta = e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}\left[C_2 e^{i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)} + C_4 e^{i\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)}\right]$$

$$= e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}[C_2 e^{iu} + C_4 e^{-iu}] \text{ where } i = \lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$= e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}[C_2 (\cos u + i \sin u) + C_4 (\cos u - i \sin u)]$$

$$= e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}(A_1 \cos u + A_2 \sin u)$$

$$\theta = e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}\left[A_1 \cos\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + A_2 \sin\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\right] \tag{3.62}$$

At $x = 0$,

$$\theta_{x=0} = A_1 \cos \lambda^2 \alpha t + A_2 \sin \lambda^2 \alpha t$$

But $$\theta_{x=0} = \theta_0 \cos \omega t \tag{3.63}$$

By comparing these two equations, we find

$$A_1 = \theta_0 \quad A_2 = 0$$

$$\omega t = \lambda^2 \alpha t$$

$$\lambda^2 = \frac{\omega}{\alpha}$$

or $$\lambda = \left(\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} = \left(\frac{2\pi}{P\alpha}\right)^{1/2}$$

Therefore, the temperature variation is given by

$$\theta = e^{-\frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}}\left[A_1 \cos\left(\lambda^2 \alpha t - \frac{\lambda x}{\sqrt{2}}\right)\right]$$

$$= e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x}\, \theta_0 \cos\left[\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\alpha t - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x\right]$$

At a depth x,

$$\theta = \theta_0\, e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x} \cos\left[\omega t - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x\right] \tag{3.64}$$

where θ_0 is the amplitude at $x = 0$.

This equation expresses the temperature at any time t and distance x from the surface.

Range, $R_{x=0} = 2\theta_0$

At any depth x, $R_x = 2\theta_x = 2\theta_0\, e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x}$

or $$\frac{R_{x_1}}{R_{x_2}} = \frac{e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x_1}}{e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x_2}}$$

Amplitude at any distance x is

$$\theta_x = \theta_0\, e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x}$$

The amplitude gets diminished by the term $e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x}$.

At the surface, from Eq. (3.64),

$$\theta_{x=0} = \theta_0 \cos \omega t$$

$$\theta_{x=0} = T_m - T_m = 0$$

$$\cos \omega t_1 = \cos \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$t_1 = \frac{\pi}{2\omega}$$

At depth x, $T = T_m$, $\theta = 0$

when $\omega t_2 - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$$t_2 = \frac{\pi}{2\omega} + \frac{1}{(2\alpha\omega)^{1/2}} x$$

Time lag $$\Delta t = t_2 - t_1 = \frac{\pi}{2\omega} + \frac{1}{(2\alpha\omega)^{1/2}} x - \frac{\pi}{2\omega}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(2\alpha\omega)^{1/2}} x = \frac{1}{\left(2\alpha \frac{2\pi}{P}\right)^{1/2}} x$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{P}{\pi\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x$$

Velocity of propagation of the thermal wave into the solid

$$v = \frac{x}{\Delta t} = \frac{x}{x/(2\alpha\omega)^{1/2}} = (2\alpha\omega)^{1/2}$$

Wave length $$\lambda = vP = (2\alpha\omega)^{1/2} \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = 2\pi\left(\frac{2\alpha P}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$= 2(\pi\alpha P)^{1/2}$$

= Distance travelled in one complete oscillation

The temperature distribution as given by Eq. (3.64) is plotted in Figs 3.26 and 3.27. Figure 3.26 shows temperature variation with time at any depth x, whereas the temperature distribution as a function of depth at $\omega t = 0$ and at $\omega t = \pi$ is depicted in Fig. 3.27. The surface amplitude is diminished at depth x by the factor exp $[-(\omega/2\alpha)^{1/2} x]$. The depth of penetration is shown in Fig. 3.28.

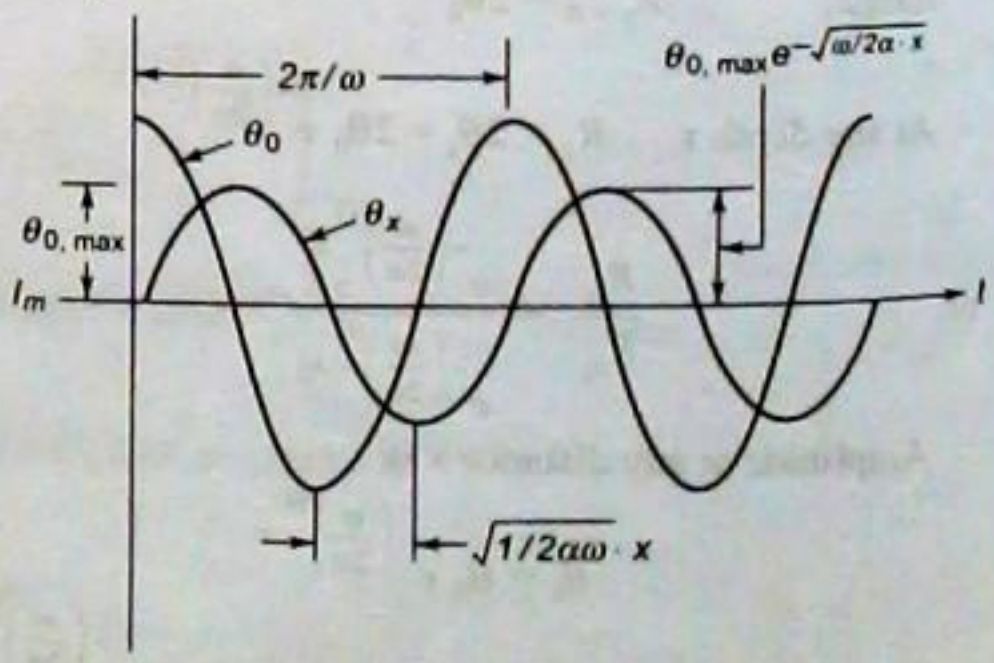


Fig. 3.26 *Periodic temperature variation with time*

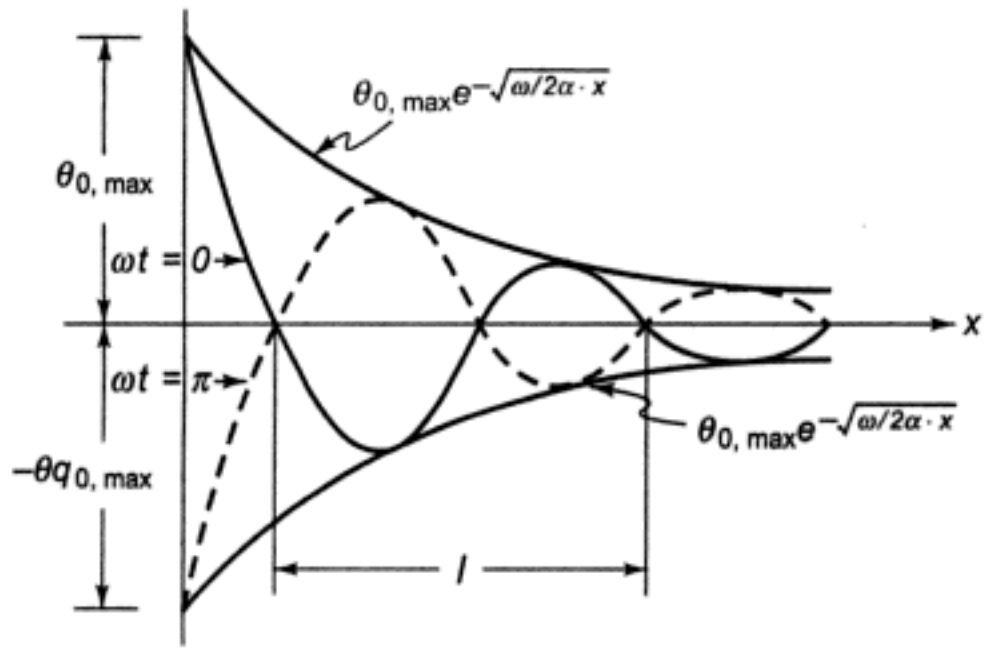


Fig. 3.27 *Periodic variation of temperature with depth*

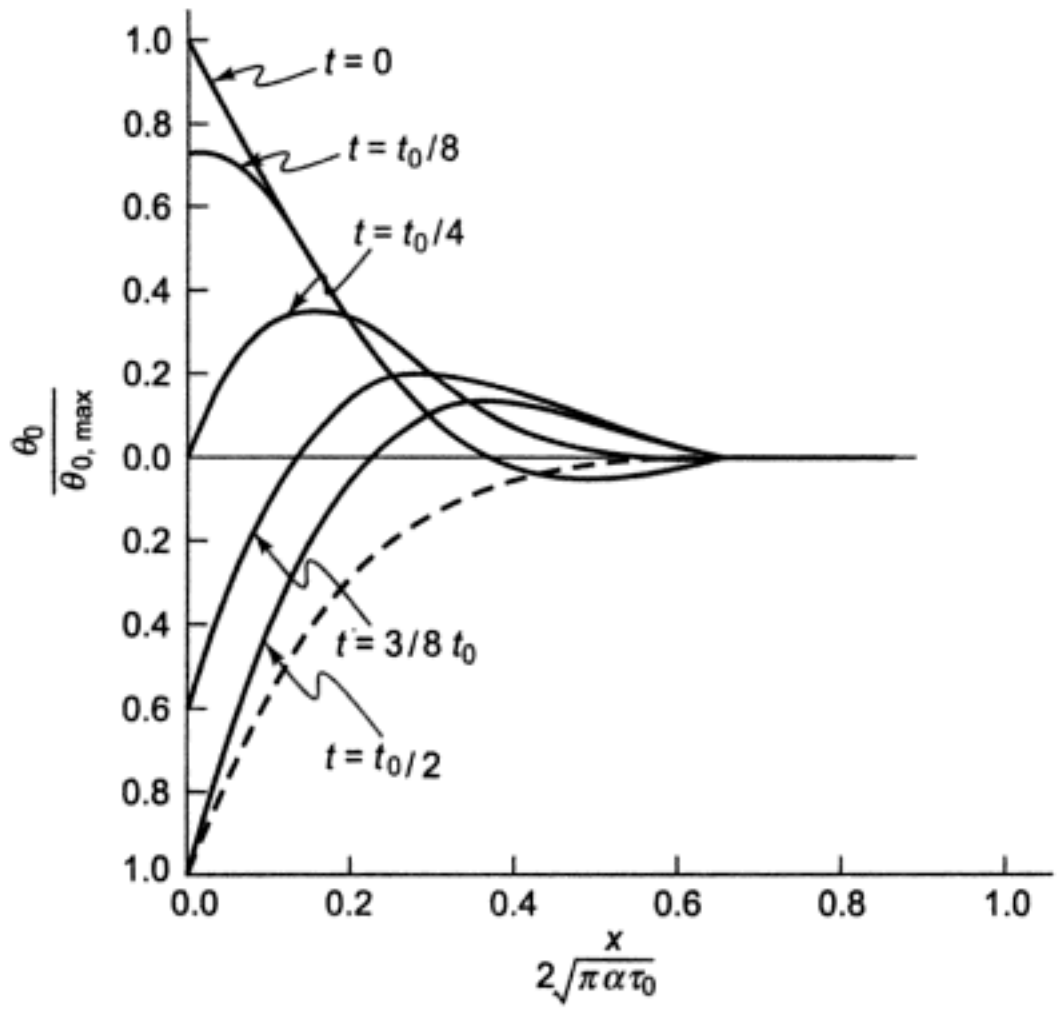


Fig. 3.28 *Penetration of a temperature oscillation*

Several other important factors can be obtained from Eq. (3.63):

(i) Amplitude at any Depth

The maximum excess temperature or amplitude at any depth would be obtained by putting

$$\cos\left[\omega t - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x\right] = 1$$

$$(\theta_x)_{\max} = \theta_0\, e^{-(\omega/2\alpha)1/2x} \tag{3.65}$$

which shows that the advancing wave is decreasing in amplitude with increasing depth exponentially. It is also seen from Eq. (3.65) that the higher the frequency (the larger ω), the less the penetration of

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thermal wave. Thus, high frequency thermal oscillations are rapidly damped out in comparison with lower harmonic oscillations. The penetration depth also depends upon thermal diffusivity; the lower the value of α, the smaller will be the depth at which the amplitude $(\theta_x)_{max}$ is negligible. It has been observed that the temperature oscillations into an infinitely thick wall die off when $x/2\ (\pi\alpha t_o)^{1/2} = 0.8$.

(ii) Time Lag or Phase Difference at any Depth

Maximum fluctuation in surface temperature, as from Eq. (3.63), occurs when

$$\cos \omega t = 1$$

or
$$t = 0, \frac{2\pi}{\omega}, \frac{4\pi}{\omega}, \cdots \quad \text{or} \quad t = \frac{2n\pi}{\omega} \text{ for } n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots \tag{3.66}$$

whereas the maximum fluctuation at any depth x, according to Eq. (3.64)

$$\cos\left[\omega t - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x\right] = 1$$

or
$$\omega t - x\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} = 2n\pi$$

$\therefore$
$$t = x\left(\frac{1}{2\alpha\omega}\right)^{1/2} + \frac{2n\pi}{\omega} \tag{3.67}$$

For
$$n = 0,\ t = \left(\frac{1}{2\alpha\omega}\right)^{1/2} x$$

Comparing Eqs (3.66) and (3.67) it is seen that while the temperature excess at the surface is maximum when $t = (2n\pi)/\omega$, it is maximum at depth x at a later time

$$t = \frac{2n\pi}{\omega} + x\left(\frac{1}{2\alpha\omega}\right)^{1/2}$$

The difference or time lag Δt is given by

$$\Delta t = \left(\frac{1}{2\alpha\omega}\right)^{1/2} x \tag{3.68}$$

The time lag decreases with increasing α and ω, and increases with increasing depth x. It is because of this time lag that the inner surfaces of the walls of a building, whose outside is exposed to the sun, attain maximum temperature much after the noon.

(iii) Frequency and Time Period of Wave at any Depth

By comparing the values of time when the temperature maxima occur at the surface ($x = 0$) and at a depth x, it is seen that the oscillations have the same period $(2\pi/\omega)$ at each depth. Thus, the periodic time and frequency of the wave do not change with depth.

(iv) Wave Length and Wave Velocity

The wavelength is the distance between two adjacent crests. At $x = 0$, the maximum occurs at $t = 0$; the next maximum occurs at $t_1 = 2\pi/\omega$. But at $t_1 = 2\pi/\omega$, a maximum at depth x occurs when

$$\cos\left[\omega t_1 - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x\right] = 1$$

or $$\omega t_1 - \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x = 0$$

or $$x = \omega t_1 \left(\frac{2\alpha}{\omega}\right)^{1/2} x$$

Wavelength λ of temperature wave is

$$\lambda = x = 2\pi\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2}$$

Velocity of the temperature wave is

$$v = f\lambda = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} 2\pi\left(\frac{2\alpha}{\omega}\right)^{1/2} = (2\alpha\omega)^{1/2} \tag{3.69}$$

(v) Heat Flow Rate and Energy Storage

The heat in a periodic system flows into or out of the body periodically, since the temperature gradient at the surface is sometimes positive and sometimes negative. The heat absorbed or rejected is given by

$$Q = -kA\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=0}$$

From Eq. (3.64)

$$\theta = \theta_0 e^{-\mu x} \cos(\omega t - \mu x)$$

where $$\mu = \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{dx} = \theta_0 e^{-\mu x} [-\sin(\omega t - \mu x)](-\mu) + \theta_0 \cos(\omega t - \mu x)(-\mu) e^{-\mu x}$$

$$= \theta_0 e^{-\mu x} . \mu[\sin(\omega t - \omega x) - \cos(\omega t - \omega x)]$$

$$\left(\frac{d\theta}{dx}\right)_{x=0} = \theta_0 \mu (\sin \omega t - \cos \omega t)$$

Now, $$\cos\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \cos \omega t \cos \frac{\pi}{4} - \sin \omega t \sin \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$= \frac{\cos \omega t - \sin \omega t}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\frac{Q}{A} = -k\theta_0 \mu\left[-\cos\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\sqrt{2}\right]$$

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$$= k\theta_0 \left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} \sqrt{2} \cos\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right)$$

$$\frac{Q}{A} = k\left(\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} \theta_0 \cos\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) \tag{3.70}$$

It is seen that Q is positive within limits

$$\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4} = -\frac{\pi}{2} \text{ to } -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

and negative in the limits

$$\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4} = +\frac{\pi}{2} \text{ to } +\frac{\pi}{2}$$

Q is positive for

$$t = -\frac{3\pi}{4\omega} \text{ to } +\frac{\pi}{4\omega}$$

and negative for

$$t = +\frac{\pi}{4\omega} \text{ to } \frac{3\pi}{4\omega}$$

Integrating Q between these limits in half cycle is

$$Q = kA\left(\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} \theta_0 \int_{-3\pi/4\omega}^{\pi/4\omega} \cos\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right) dt$$

$$= kA\left(\frac{\omega}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} \theta_0 \left[\frac{1}{\omega} \sin\left(\omega t + \frac{\pi}{4}\right)\right]_{-3\pi/4}^{\pi/4\omega}$$

$$= \frac{2}{(\omega\alpha)^{1/2}} kA\,\theta_0 \tag{3.71}$$

The above analysis has been carried out by taking a *cosine variation* of surface temperature with time. Any other trigonometric variation could be taken and analysed by following the same procedure.

Solved Problems

Example 3.1 A load of peas at a temperature of 25°C is to be cooled down in a room at a constant air temperature of 1°C. (a) How long the peas will rquire to cool down to 2°C when the surface heat transfer coefficient of the peas is 5.81 W/m^2 K? (b) What is the temperature of the peas after a lapse of 10 min from the start of cooling? (c) What air temperature must be used if the peas were to be cooled down to 5°C in 30 min? The peas are supposed to have an average diameter of 8 mm. Their density is 750 kg/m^3 and specific heat 3.35 kJ/kg K.

Solution We have for a lumped heat-capacity system

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}} = e^{-\text{Bi·Fo}}$$

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Since the diameter of the peas is only 8 mm, we can neglect any temperature variation within the pea.

$$\frac{\rho V}{A} = \frac{\rho \times 4\pi (d/2)^3}{3 \times 4\pi (d/2)^2} = \frac{\rho d}{3 \times 2} = \frac{750 \times 0.008}{3 \times 2} = 1$$

(a) $$\ln \frac{2-1}{25-1} = -\frac{ht}{c} = -\frac{5.81t}{3.35 \times 10^3}$$

$$\ln 24 = 3.178 = \frac{5.81t}{3.35 \times 10^3}$$

$$t = 1832.4 \text{ s} = 30.54 \text{ min} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

(b) $$\frac{T-1}{25-1} = e^{-\frac{5.81 \times 600}{3350}} = 0.353$$

$$T = 9.48°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

(c) $$\frac{5-T_\infty}{25-T_\infty} = e^{-\frac{5.81 \times 30 \times 60}{3350}} = 0.044$$

$$1.1 - 0.044\, T_\infty = 5 - T_\infty$$

$$0.956\, T_\infty = 3.9$$

$$T_\infty = 4.08°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

Example 3.2 A steel tube of length 20 cm with internal and external diameters of 10 and 12 cm is quenched from 500°C to 30°C in a large reservoir of water at 10°C. Below 100°C the heat transfer coefficient is 1.5 kW/m² K. Above 100°C it is less owing to a film of vapour being produced at the surface, and an effective mean value between 500°C and 100°C is 0.5 kW/m² K. The density of steel is 7800 kg/m³ and the specific heat is 0.47 kJ/kg K. Neglecting internal thermal resistance of the steel tube, determine the quenching time.

Solution

$$d_i = 10 \text{ cm}, \; d_0 = 12 \text{ cm}, \; l = 20 \text{ cm}, \; T_\infty = 10°\text{C}$$

$$A = \pi(d_0 + d_i)l = \pi(10 + 12) \times 20 = 1382 \text{ cm}^2$$

$$V = \frac{\pi}{4}(d_0^2 - d_i^2)\, l = \frac{\pi}{4}(144 - 100) \times 20 = 691 \text{ cm}^3$$

Cooling from 500°C to 100°C

$$-\ln \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = +\frac{hAt}{\rho c V}$$

$$-\ln \frac{100-10}{500-10} = \ln \frac{490}{90} = \frac{500 \times 1382 \times 10^{-4} \times t}{7800 \times 470 \times 691 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$\therefore \quad t = 62.12 \text{ s}$$

Cooling from 100°C to 30°C

$$-\ln \frac{30-10}{100-10} = \frac{1500 \times 1382 \times 10^{-4} \times t}{7800 \times 470 \times 691 \times 10^{-6}}$$

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$\therefore \qquad t = 18.38\text{s}$

Total time for quenching = 62.12 + 18.38 = 80.5 s *Ans.*

Example 3.3 Steel ball bearings (k = 50 W/m K, $\alpha = 1.3 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s) having a diameter of 40 mm are heated to a temperature of 650°C and then quenched in a tank of oil at 55°C. If the heat transfer coefficient between the ball bearings and oil is 300 W/m² K, determine (a) the duration of time the bearings must remain in oil to reach a temperature of 200°C, (b) the total amount of heat removed from each bearing during this time and (c) the instantaneous heat transfer rate from the bearings when they are first immersed in oil and when they reach 200°C.

Solution To determine whether the bearings have negligible resistance, we first check the magnitude of the Biot number.

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{h\dfrac{r}{3}}{k} = \frac{300 \times 0.02}{3 \times 50} = 0.04$$

Since Bi < 0.1, internal resistance may be neglected.

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{\alpha t}{(r/3)^2} = \frac{1.3 \times 10^{-5} t}{(0.02/3)^2} = 0.2925\, t$$

(a) The time required for the ball bearings to reach 200°C is

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = e^{-\text{Bi}\cdot\text{Fo}}$$

$$\frac{200 - 55}{650 - 55} = e^{-0.04 \times 0.2925\, t} = \frac{145}{595} = e^{-0.0117\, t}$$

$\therefore \quad t = 120.67$ s, which corresponds to a Fourier number of 35.3 *Ans.*

(b) Total amount of heat removed from each bearing during 120.67 s

$$Q = hA(T - T_\infty) = \int_0^t hA(T_i - T_\infty)\, e^{-\text{Bi} \times \text{Fo}}\, dt$$

$$= hA\theta_i \int_0^t e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}}\, dt = hA\theta_i (1 - e^{-\text{Bi}\,.\,\text{Fo}})\, \frac{t}{\text{Bi} \cdot \text{Fo}}$$

$$= 300 \times 4\pi (0.02)^2 (650 - 55)(1 - e^{-0.04 \times 35.3}) \times \frac{120.5}{0.04 \times 35.31}$$

$$= 5.79 \times 10^4 \text{ W s or } J = 57.9 \text{ kJ} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(c) Instantaneous heat transfer rate at $t = 0$ (or Fo = 0) is

$$Q = hA(T_i - T_\infty) = 300 \times 4\pi \times (0.02)^2 \times (650 - 55) = 897 \text{ W}$$

and at $t = 120$ s (Fo = 35.3),

$$Q = hA(T_i - T_\infty)\, e^{-\text{Bi Fo}}$$

$$= 300 \times 4\pi \times (0.02)^2 (650 - 50)\, e^{-(0.04)(35.3)}$$

$$= 218 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

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Example 3.4 The heat transfer coefficients for the flow of air at 28°C over a 12.5 mm diameter sphere are measured by observing the temperature–time history of a copper ball of the same dimension. The temperature of the copper ball (c = 0.4 kJ/kg K, ρ = 8850 kg/m^3) was measured by two thermocouples, one located in the centre, the other near the surface. Both of the thermocouples registered within the accuracy of the recording instruments the same temperature at a given instant. In one test the initial temperature of the ball was 65°C and in 1.15 min the temperature decreased by 11°C. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient for this case.

Solution Since there was no temperature difference recorded by the two thermocouples inserted at the centre and the surface of the copper ball, its thermal conductivity may be considered infinitely large offering no internal thermal resistance, for which case, the lumped system analysis may be used.

Given: $T_i = 65°C$, $T_\infty = 28°C$, $T_f = 65 - 11 = 54°C$.

Using Eq. (3.4),

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}} = \frac{54-28}{65-28} = \frac{26}{37}$$

$$\ln\frac{37}{26} = \frac{hAt}{\rho cV} = 0.353$$

$$\therefore \quad h = \frac{0.353 \times 8850 \times 0.4 \times \frac{4}{3}\pi \times \left(\frac{0.0125}{2}\right)^3}{4\pi \times (0.0125)^2 \times 1.15 \times 60}$$

$$= 0.0377 \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K} = 37.7 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.5 A thermocouple, the junction of which can be approximated as a 1 mm diameter sphere is used to measure the temperature of a gas stream. The properties of the junction are ρ = 8500 kg/m^3, c = 320 J/kg K and k = 35 W/m K. The heat transfer coefficient between the junction and the gas is 210 W/m^2 K. Determine how long it will take for the thermocouple to read 99% of the initial temperature difference.

Solution The schematic of the thermocouple is shown in Fig. Ex. 3.5

$$L = \frac{V}{A} = \frac{\frac{1}{6}\pi D^3}{D^2} = \frac{1}{6}D = \frac{1}{6} \times 0.001 = 1.67 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{210 \times 1.67 \times 10^{-4}}{35} = 0.001$$

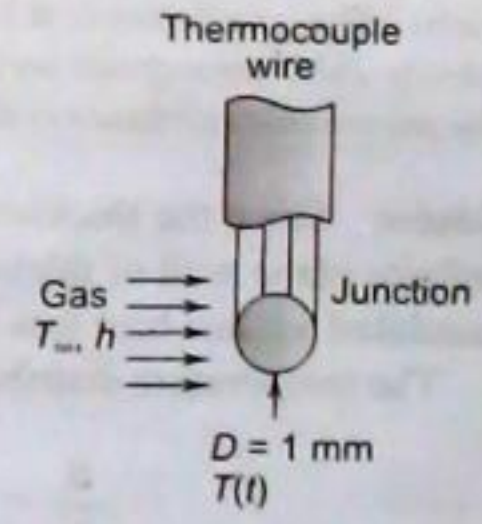


Fig. *Ex. 3.5*

Since Bi < 0.1, lumped system analysis can be used.

$$\frac{T(t) - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.01 = e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}}$$

$$\frac{hAt}{\rho cV} = \ln 100 = 4.605$$

$$t = \frac{4.605 \times 8500 \times 320 \times 1.67 \times 10^{-4}}{210} = 9.96 \text{ s}$$

Therefore, we must wait at least 10 s for the temperature of the thermocouple junction to approach within 1% of the initial junction–gas temperature difference.

Example 3.6 An average human body modeled as a 30 cm diameter, 170 cm long cylinder has 72% water by mass, so that its properties may be taken as those of water at room temperature: $\rho = 1000$ kg/m^3, $c = 4180$ J/kg K and $k = 0.608$ W/m K. A person is found dead at 5 am in a room the temperature of which is 20°C. The temperature of the body is measured to be 25°C when found, and the heat transfer coefficient is estimated to be 8 W/m^2 K. Assuming the body temperature of a living man is 37°C, estimate the time of death of the above person.

Solution Characteristic length

$$L = \frac{\pi r_0^2 L}{2\pi r_0 L + 2\pi r_0^2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi \times (0.15)^2 \times 1.7}{2\pi (0.15)(1.7) + 2\pi (0.15)^2}$$

$$= 0.0689 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{8 \times 0.0689}{0.608} = 0.92$$

Since Bi > 0.1, the lumped system analysis is not applicable. However, we can still use it to obtain a rough estimate of the time of death.

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}} = \frac{25-20}{37-20} = \frac{5}{17}$$

$$\frac{hAt}{\rho cV} = \ln \frac{17}{5} = 1.2238$$

$$t = 44057 \text{ s} = 12.24 \text{ h}$$

The person died about 12.5 h before the body was found, and thus the time of death is 4.30 pm.

Example 3.7 A rocket engine nozzle is constructed from a piece of high temperature steel 0.64 cm thick, having a uniform thermal conductivity of 29 W/m K and a uniform thermal diffusivity of 6.39×10^{-6} m^2/s. The flame side surface film coefficient is 8.37 kW/m^2 K. The uniform flame temperature is 2200°C. If the nozzle temperature is initially 25°C throughout and the maximum allowable operating temperature of this steel is 1100°C, then what is the permissible combustion duration?

Solution Since the thickness of the wall is very small compared to diameter, we can regard the wall as an infinite plane wall of thickness 0.64 cm (Fig. Ex. 3.7). We will assume the outer surface of the nozzle to be insulated against heat loss so that the axis $x = 0$ may be chosen as the outer surface.

The temperature distribution is given by Eq. (3.32)

$$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}} \frac{2 \sin \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n} \cos \frac{\delta_n}{l} x$$

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_i} = \frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}} \frac{2 \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n}{\delta_n + \sin \delta_n \cos \delta_n}$$

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_i} = \frac{1100 - 25}{2200 - 25} = \frac{1075}{2175} = 0.494$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hl} = \frac{29}{8370 \times 0.64 \times 10^{-2}} = 0.541$$

$$\delta_n \tan \delta_n = \text{Bi}$$

When $$\delta = \lambda l = \frac{\pi}{4} = 45°$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{\text{Bi}}{\delta} = \frac{4}{0.541 \times \pi} = 2.353$$

$\delta = 66.98°$, which is different from the assumed value of 45°.

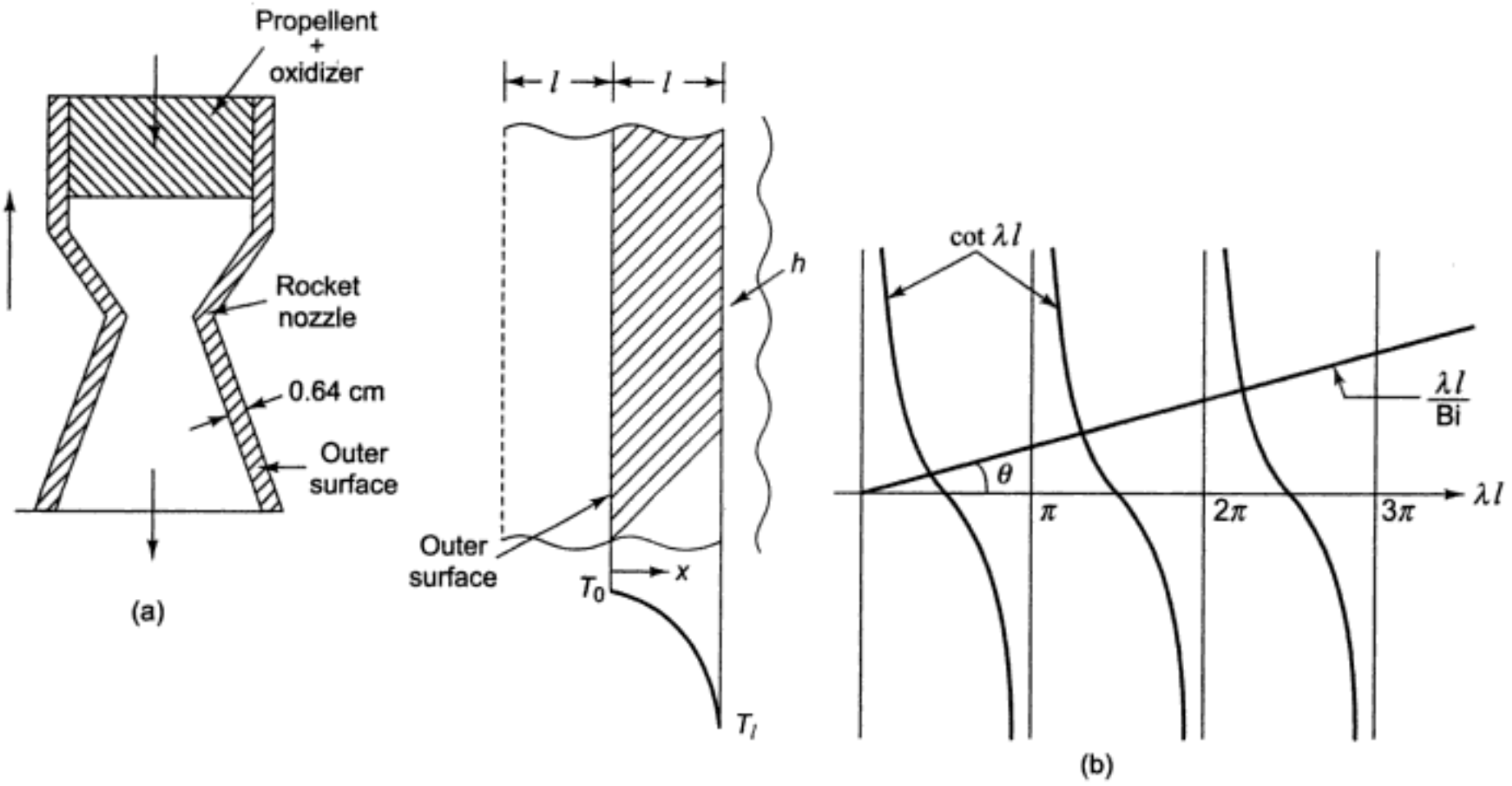


Fig. *Ex. 3.7*

When $$\delta = \frac{\pi}{3} = 60°$$

$$\tan \delta = \frac{3}{0.541 \times \pi} = 1.765$$

$\therefore \quad \delta = 60° = \dfrac{\pi}{3}$, which tallies with the assumption.

Taking $n = 1$,

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_i} = e^{-\delta_n^2 \text{ Fo}} \frac{\sin 2\delta_1}{\delta_1 + \sin \delta_1 \cos \delta_1}$$

$$0.494 = e^{-\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)^2 \text{Fo}} \frac{\sin 120°}{\pi/3 + \sin 60° \cos 60°}$$

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$$= e^{-1.0966\,\mathrm{Fo}} \frac{0.866}{1.0472 + 0.866 \times 0.5}$$

$$= e^{-1.0966\,\mathrm{Fo}} \times 0.585$$

$$e^{1.0966\,\mathrm{Fo}} = \frac{0.585}{0.494} = 1.184$$

$$\mathrm{Fo} = 0.154 = \frac{\alpha t}{l^2}$$

$$t = \frac{0.154 \times (0.64)^2 \times 10^{-4}}{6.39 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= 0.9888 = 0.99 \text{ s}$$

Combustion must be completed within about 1 s. *Ans.*

Example 3.8 An egg is being cooked in boiling water. Its initial temperature is 5°C. It is dropped into boiling water at 95°C.

Assumptions: 1. The egg is spherical in shape with a radius of r_0 = 0.025 m. 2. Heat conduction in the egg is one-dimensional (radial only) because of thermal symmetry about the centre. 3. The thermal properties of the egg and the heat transfer coefficient are constant. 4. The Fourier number $F_0 > 0.2$ so that the one term approximate solutions are applicable. 5. The thermal conductivity and diffusivity of eggs are approximated as those of water. $k = 0.6$ W/mK, $\alpha = 0.14 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s. The heat transfer coefficient is 1200 W/m²K.

To find: The time for the centre of the egg to reach 70°C.

Solution The temperature within the egg varies with radial distance as well as time, and the temperature at specified location at a given time can be determined from the Heisler charts or the one-term solutions. Here we will use the latter to demonstrate their use. The Biot number is equal to

$$\mathrm{Bi} = \frac{hr_0}{k} = \frac{1200 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \times 0.025 \text{ m}}{0.6 \text{ W/mK}} = 50$$

which is much greater than 0.1. Actually, for a sphere $\mathrm{Bi} = \frac{hr_o/3}{k}$ is somewhat less. Thus the lumped system analysis is not applicable. From Table 3.1, the coefficients A_1 and λ_1 for a sphere corresponding to Bi = 50 are $A_1 = 1.6002$ and $\lambda_1 = 3.0788$. Substituting in Eq. (3.45),

$$\frac{T_o - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = A_1 \cdot e^{-\lambda_1^2 F_o}$$

$$\frac{70 - 95}{5 - 95} = 1.6002 \cdot e^{-(3.0788)^2 F_o}$$

which gives $F_o = 0.208$, greater than 0.2. Thus one-term solution is applicable.

$$F_o = 0.208 = \frac{\alpha t}{r_o^2}$$

$$\therefore \quad t = \frac{0.208 \times (0.025)^2}{0.14 \times 10^{-6}} = 15.5 \text{ min.}$$

So it will take about 15 minutes for the centre of the egg to be heated from 5°C to 70°C. *Ans.*

Example 3.9 Large brass plates initially at 20°C are heated in an oven. The surface temperature of plates leaving the oven maintained at 500°C is to be determined after a lapse of 7 min.

Assumptions: 1. Heat conduction in the plate is one-dmensional since the plate is large relative to the thickness and there is thermal symmetry about the central plane. 2. The thermal properties of the plate and the heat transfer coefficient are constant. 3. The properties of brass at room temperature (20°C) are $k = 110$ W/mK, $\rho = 8530$ kg/m^3, $c = 380$ J/kgK and $\alpha = 33.9 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s.

Solution The temperature at a specified location at a given time can be determined from the Heisler charts or one-term solutions. Here we will use the charts to demonstrate their use. The half-thickness of the plate is $L = 0.02$ m. We have

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{h_L} = \frac{100}{120 \times 0.02} = 45.8$$

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{33.9 \times 10^{-6} \times 7 \times 60}{(0.02)^2} = 35.6$$

From Fig. 3.7(a), when 1/Bi = 45.8 and Fo = 35.6

$$\frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.46$$

Also, $\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = 45.8$ and $\xi = \frac{x}{L} = 1$

$$\frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{T_c - T_\infty} = 0.99 \text{ [Fig. 3.7 (b)]}$$

$$\frac{T_1 - T_\infty}{T_c - T_\infty} \times \frac{T_c - T_i}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.46 \times 0.99 = 0.455$$

$$\therefore \quad T_1 = 0.455\ (20 - 500) + 500 = 281.6°\text{C}$$

which is the surface temperature of the plates after a lapse of 7 min. *Ans.*

Discussion: We observe that Bi = 1/45.8 = 0.022 which is much less than 0.1. Therefore, we expect that the lumped system analysis is applicable. This is also evident from $(T_1 - T_\infty)/(T_c - T_\infty) = 0.99$, which indicates that the temperatures at the centre and the surface relative to the surrounding temperature are within 1%. Though the error involved in reading Heisler charts might be a few percent, the lumped system analysis may yield as accurate results with less effort, as shown below:

$$\frac{hA}{\rho c V} = \frac{h}{\rho c L} = \frac{120}{8530 \times 380 \times 0.02}$$

$$= 0.00185 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = \frac{T - 500}{20 - 500} = e^{-0.00185 \times 420}$$

$$\therefore \quad T = 279°\text{C}$$

which is very close to the value obtained from Heisler charts.

Example 3.10 *Given:* A steel cylinder 0.35 m diameter and 0.70 m long at 20°C is heated in an oven maintained at 1050°C. The temperatures at the centre and surface of the cylinder after an hour are to be determined. Take $k = 34.9$ W/mK, $c = 0.7$ kJ/kgK, $\rho = 7800$ kg/m^3 and $h = 232.5$ W/m^{2}K.
Assumptions: 1. Heat conduction in the short cylinder has thermal symmetry about the centreline. 2. The thermal properties of the cylinder and the heat transfer coefficient are constant.

Solution

$$\alpha = k/\rho c = \frac{34.9}{7800 \times 700} = 6.39 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$$

Now,

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2l} \times \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_r$$

$$\text{Fourier number, Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{r^2} = \frac{6.39 \times 10^{-6}}{(0.35/2)^2} = 0.75$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hr} = \frac{34.9 \times 2}{232.6 \times 0.35} = 0.857$$

From Heisler chart for infinite cylinder

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_r = 0.27, \left(\frac{\theta_s}{\theta_i}\right)_r = 0.183$$

Again,

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{l^2} = \frac{6.39 \times 10^{-6} \times 3600}{(0.35)^2} = 0.188$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hl}\frac{34.9}{232.6 \times 0.35} = 0.429$$

From Heisler chart for infinite plate,

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2l} = 0.964, \left(\frac{\theta_s}{\theta_i}\right)_{2l} = 0.86$$

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.964 \times 0.27 = 0.26$$

$$\frac{T_c - 1050}{20 - 1050} = 0.26$$

$\therefore$

$$T_c = 1050 - 267.8 = 782.2°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\frac{\theta_s}{\theta_i} = \frac{T_s - 1050}{20 - 1050} = 0.183 \times 0.86 = 0.157$$

$$T_s = 1050 - 161.7 = 888.3°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.11 A billet of steel of the form of a parallelepiped with dimensions 2 m × 2 m × 5 m originally at 300°C is placed in a radiant furnace, where the furnace temperatue is held at 1200°C. Determine the temperature at the centre after 25 min. Take $\alpha = 6.39 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s, $k = 34.9$ W/m K and $h = 232.6$ W/m² K.

Solution

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2a} \times \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2b} \times \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2c}$$

Since, $a = b$, $\dfrac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\dfrac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2a}^2 \times \left(\dfrac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2c}$

$$\text{Fo}_1 = \frac{\alpha t}{l^2} = \frac{6.39 \times 10^{-6} \times 25 \times 60}{l^2} = 0.009585$$

$$\text{Fo}_2 = \frac{6.39 \times 10^{-6} \times 25 \times 60}{(2.5)^2} = 0.001534$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}_1} = \frac{k}{hl} = \frac{34.9}{232.6 \times l}\ 0.15$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}_2} = \frac{34.9}{232.6 \times 2.5} = 0.06$$

From Heisler's charts,

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2a} = 0.865 \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2c} = 0.81$$

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = (0.865)^2 \times 0.81 = 0.606 = \frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}$$

$$T_c = 1200 + 0.606\ (300 - 1200) = 654.5°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.12 A semi-infinite aluminium cylinder ($k = 237$ W/m K, $\alpha = 9.71 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s) of diameter 20 cm is initially at a uniform temperature of 200°C. The cylinder is now placed in water at 15°C where heat transfer takes place by convection with $h = 120$ W/m² K. Determine the temperature at the centre of the cylinder 15 cm from the end surface 5 min after the start of the cooling.

Solution We will solve the problem using the one-term solution for the cylinder and the analytic solution for the semi-infinite medium (Fig. Ex. 3.12).

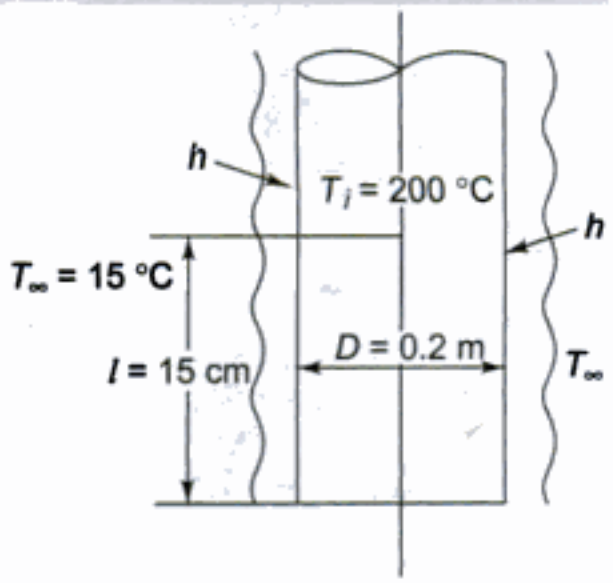


Fig. Ex. 3.12

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hr_o}{k} = \frac{120 \times 0.1}{237} = 0.05$$

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{r^2} = \frac{9.71 \times 10^{-5} \times 5 \times 60}{(0.1)^2} = 2.913 > 0.2$$

Thus, the one-term solution is applicable. From Table 3.2 for cylinder, and Bi = 0.05, $A_1 = 1.0124$ and $\delta_1 = 0.3126$

$$\theta_c = A_1\, e^{-\delta_1^2\, \text{Fo}} = 1.0124\ e^{-(0.3126)^2 \times (2.913)}$$
$$= 0.7616$$

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The solution for the semi-infinite solid can be determined from Eq. (3.52)

$$1 - \theta_{\text{semi-inf}}(x, t) = \text{erf } c\left[\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}\right] - \exp\left(\frac{hx}{k} + \frac{h^2 \alpha t}{k^2}\right)\left\{\text{erf } c\left[\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}} + \frac{h(\alpha t)^{1/2}}{k}\right]\right\}$$

where
$$\xi = \frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}} = \frac{0.15 \text{ m}}{2(9.71 \times 10^{-5} \times 5 \times 60)^{1/2}} = 0.88$$

$$\frac{h(\alpha t)^{1/2}}{k} = \frac{120\left[9.71 \times 10^{-5} \times 5 \times 60\right]^{1/2}}{237} = 0.086$$

$$\frac{hx}{k} = \frac{120 \times 0.15}{237} = 0.0759$$

$$\frac{h^2 \alpha t}{k^2} = (0.086)^2 = 0.0074$$

$$(\theta)_{\text{semi-inf}} = 1 - \text{erf } c\,(0.88) + \exp\,(0.0759 + 0.0074)\ \text{erf } c\,(0.88 + 0.086)$$
$$= 1 - 0.2133 + \exp\,(0.0833) \times 0.170 = 0.974$$

$$\frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = \theta_{\text{semi-inf}} \times \theta_{\text{cyl}} = 0.974 \times 0.762 = 0.742$$

$$T_c = 15 + (200 - 15) \times 0.742 = 152.3°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.13 An infinite plate 30 cm thick and having thermal diffusivity $\alpha = 1.39 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s is initially at a temperature of 0°C. At time $t = 0$, its surface temperatures at $x = 0$ and $x = l$ are suddenly raised to and maintained at 400°C for all $t > 0$. Determine the instantaneous temperature distribution inside the plate after 15 min, taking $M = 2$ and $M = 3$, and the mid-plane temperature.

Solution Infinite plate, $l = 30$ cm, $T_i = 0°\text{C}$

$$(T_w)_{t=0} = T_o = T_6 = 400°\text{C (Fig. Ex. 3.13)}$$

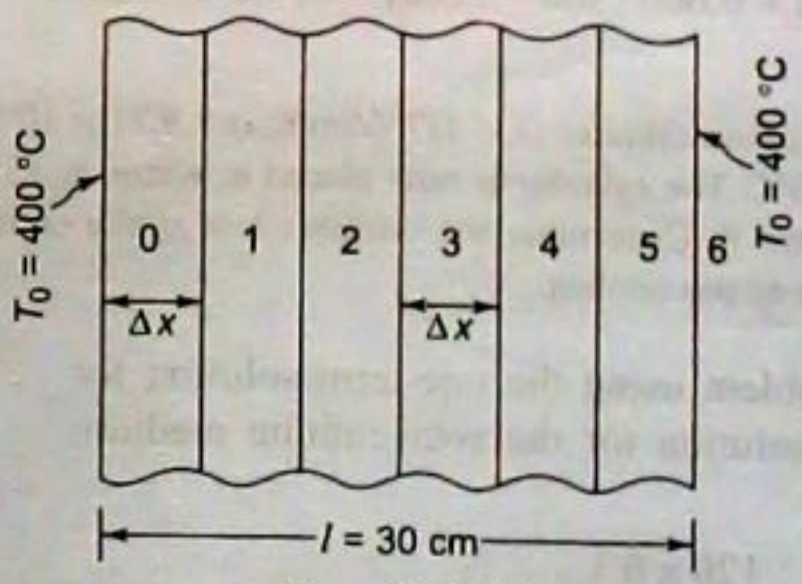


Fig. *Ex. 3.13*

(a) With $M = 2$

Let $\Delta x = 5$ cm

∴ No. of slices $n_x = 6$

$$M = \frac{1}{\text{Fo}} = \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\alpha \Delta t} = \frac{5^2 \times 10^{-4}}{1.39 \times 10^{-5} \Delta t} = 2$$

$$\Delta t = 90 \text{ s} = 1.5 \text{ min}$$

$$\text{Number of time steps} = \frac{15 \text{ min}}{1.5 \text{ min}} = 10$$

For $M = 2$

t	T_0	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_5	T_6
0	400	0	0	0	0	0	400
1	400	200	0	0	0	200	400
2	400	200	100	0	100	200	400
3	400	250	100	100	100	250	400
4	400	250	175	100	175	250	400
5	400	287.5	175	175	175	287.5	400
6	400	287.5	231.25	175	231.25	287.5	400
7	400	315.625	231.25	231.25	231.25	315.625	400
8	400	315.625	273.44	231.25	273.44	315.625	400
9	400	336.714	273.44	273.44	273.44	336.714	400
10	400	336.714	305.08	273.44	305.08	336.714	400

Mid-plane temperature, $T_3 = 273.44°C$ *Ans.*

(b) With $M = 3$

$$M = \frac{1}{\text{Fo}} = \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\alpha \Delta t} = \frac{5^2 \times 10^{-4}}{1.39 \times 10^{-5} \Delta t} = 3$$

$$\Delta t = \frac{250}{1.39 \times 3} = 59.95 \text{ s} = 1 \text{ min}$$

$$\text{Number of time steps} = \frac{15 \text{ min}}{1 \text{ min}} = 15$$

Mid-plane temperature, $T_3 = 278°C$ *Ans.*

For $M = 3$

Δt	T_0	T_1	T_2	T_3	T_4	T_5	T_6
0	400	0	0	0	0	0	400
1	400	133	0	0	0	133	400
2	400	178	44	0	44	178	400
3	400	207	74	29	74	207	400
4	400	227	103	59	103	227	400
5	400	243	130	88	130	243	400
6	400	258	154	116	154	258	400
7	400	271	176	141	176	271	400
8	400	282	196	164	196	282	400
9	400	293	214	185	214	293	400
10	400	302	231	204	231	302	400
11	400	311	246	222	246	311	400
12	400	319	260	238	260	319	400
13	400	326	372	253	272	326	400
14	400	333	284	266	284	333	400
15	400	339	294	278	294	339	400

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Example 3.14 A 25 cm thick wall of common brick is initially at 80°C, and suddenly its surfaces are reduced to 15°C. Find the temperature at a point 10 cm from the surface and at the mid-plane after 2 h. How much heat has been conducted out of the wall per unit surface area during that time?

Given: $\rho = 1.6 \times 10^3$ kg/m^3, $c = 0.84$ kJ/kg K,
$\alpha = 5.2 \times 10^{-7}$ m^2/s $k = 0.7$ W/m K.

Solution We have from Eq. (3.13),

$$\frac{T - T_1}{T_i - T_1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t} \sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x$$

Given: $T_i = 80°C$, $T_1 = 15°C$, $L = 25$ cm $= 0.25$ m
$t = 2$ h $= 7200$ s

When, $x = 10$ cm $= 0.1$ m, taking $n = 1$ and 3,

$$\frac{T - T_1}{T_i - T_1} = \frac{4}{\pi}\left[e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{0.25}\right)^2 \times 5.2 \times 10^{-7} \times 7200} \sin \frac{\pi \times 0.1}{0.25} + \frac{1}{3} e^{-\left(\frac{3\pi}{0.25}\right)^2 \times 5.2 \times 10^{-7} \times 7200} \sin \frac{30\pi}{25} \right]$$

$$= \frac{4}{\pi}\left(e^{-0.591} \times 0.951 + \frac{1}{3} e^{-5.321} \times 0.588 \right)$$

$$= \frac{4}{\pi}(0.527 + 9.58 \times 10^{-4}) = 0.671$$

$$T = 15 + 0.671\ (80 - 15) = 58.6°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

At mid-plane, i.e. $x = 12.5$ cm $= \dfrac{l}{2}$

$$\frac{T - T_1}{T_i - T_1} = \frac{4}{\pi}\left[e^{-\left(\frac{\pi}{0.25}\right)^2 \times 5.2 \times 10^{-7} \times 7200} \sin \frac{\pi}{L}\frac{L}{2} + \frac{1}{3} e^{-\left(\frac{\pi}{0.25}\right)^2 \times 5.2 \times 10^{-7} \times 7200} \sin \frac{3\pi}{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{4}{\pi}\left(e^{-0.591} \times 1 + \frac{1}{3} e^{-5.321} \right) = 0.705$$

$$T = 15 + 0.705\ (80 - 15) = 60.82°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Heat conducted per unit area at $x = 0.1$ m

$$q = \frac{Q}{A} = \frac{4}{\pi}\frac{kL}{\alpha}(T_1 - T_i) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}\left[1 - e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \alpha t} \right] \cos \frac{n\pi}{L} x$$

$$= -\frac{4}{\pi} \times 65 \times \frac{0.7 \times 0.25}{5.2 \times 10^{-7}}\left[(1 - e^{-0.591}) \cos \frac{10\pi}{25} - \frac{1}{9}(1 - e^{-5.321}) \cos \frac{30\pi}{25} \right]$$

$$= -2.785 \times 10^7 \left[(1 - 0.554)\, 0.31 - \frac{1}{9}(1 - 4.88 \times 10^{-3})\ 0.81 \right]$$

$$= -0.385 \times 10^7 \text{ J/m}^2 = 3850 \text{ kJ/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

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At mid-plane i.e., $x = 12.5 \text{ cm} = \frac{1}{2}$

$$Q/A = 0$$

The mid-plane is an adiabatic plane.

Example 3.15 An iron plate (k = 60 W/m K, c = 0.46 kJ/kg K, ρ = 7850 kg/m^3 and $\alpha = 1.6 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s) of 50 mm thickness is initially at 225°C. Suddenly, both surfaces are exposed to an ambient temperature of 25°C with a heat transfer coefficient of 500 W/m^2 K. Calculate (a) the centre temperature at 2 min after the start of cooling (b) the temperature at a depth 1 cm from the surface at 2 min after the start of cooling and (c) the energy removed from the plate per sq. m during this time.

Solution Transient temperature charts may be used to solve this problem, since the lumped system analysis is not applicable. We have

$$2L = 50 \times 10^{-3} = 0.05 \text{ m or } L = 0.025 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-5})(2 \times 60)}{(0.025)^2} = 3.1$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hL} = \frac{60}{500 \times 0.025} = 4.8$$

$$\text{Bi} = 0.21$$

From Fig. 3.7(a) for Fo = 3.1 and 1/Bi = 4.8, the centre temperature T_c is

$$\frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.58$$

$$T_c = T_\infty + (T_i - T_\infty)\,(0.58) = 25 + 200 \times 0.58$$

$$= 141°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

The temperature 1 cm from the surface is determined as

$$\xi = \frac{x}{L} = \frac{2.5 - 1}{2.5} = 0.6$$

For 1/Bi = 4.8 and x/L = 0.6, from Fig. 3.7(b) we have

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_c - T_\infty} = 0.95$$

$$T = T_\infty + 0.95\,(T_c - T_\infty) = 25 + 0.95\,(141 - 25)$$

$$= 135.2°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

The heat loss from the plate per sq. m. (including both sides) during the time of 2 min is determined as given below. From Fig. 3.7(c) for Bi = 0.21 and Bi^2 Fo = $(0.21)^2 \times 3.1 = 0.137$, we have

$$\frac{Q}{Q_i} = 0.45$$

where

$$Q_i = \rho\,(2L)\,A\,c_p\,(T_i - T_\infty)$$

$$= 7850 \times 0.05 \times 1 \times 460 \times (225 - 25) = 35.33 \times 10^6 \text{ J}$$

$$Q = 0.45 \times 35.33 \times 10^6 = 15.9 \times 10^6 \text{ J} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

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Example 3.16 An iron sphere of diameter 5 cm, initially at a uniform temperature of 225°C, has its surface suddenly exposed to an ambient temperature of 25°C with a heat transfer coefficient of 500 W/m^2 K. Calculate (a) the centre temperature 2 min after the start of cooling, (b) the temperature at a depth 1 cm from the surface 2 min after the start of cooling and (c) the energy removed from the sphere during this time. For iron, take k = 60 W/mK, ρ = 7850 kg/m^3, c = 460 J/kg K and $\alpha = 1.6 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s.

Solution

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{r^2} = \frac{1.6\times10^{-5}\times2\times60}{(2.5)^2\times10^{-4}} = 3.1$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hr} = \frac{60}{500\times2.5\times10^{-2}} = 4.8$$

$$\text{Bi} = 0.21$$

From Fig. 3.9(a) for Fo = 3.1 and 1/Bi = 4.8, the centre temperature T_c is found as

$$\frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.18$$

$$T_c = T_\infty + 0.18\,(T_i - T_\infty) = 25 + 0.18\times200$$

$$= 61°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (a)$$

The temperature 1 cm from the surface is obtained as

$$\frac{x}{r} = \frac{2.5-1}{2.5} = 0.6$$

From Fig. 3.9(b) for 1/Bi = 4.8 and x/r = 0.6, we have

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_o - T_\infty} = 0.95$$

$$T = 25 + 0.95(61 - 25) = 59.2°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (b)$$

From Fig. 3.9 (c) for Bi = 0.21 and Bi^{2}Fo = 0.137, we find

$$Q/Q_i = 0.8$$

where

$$Q_i = \rho\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3\right) c\,(T_i - T_\infty)$$

$$= 7850\left(\frac{4}{3}\pi\times2.5^3\times10^{-6}\right)(460)\,(225 - 25)$$

$$= 47{,}268\ \text{J}$$

Then, the heat loss from the sphere is

$$Q = 0.8\times47{,}268 = 37{,}814\ \text{J} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The boundary and initial conditions and the physical properties of the slab and the sphere in the examples 3.15 and 3.16 are the same. We note that after 2 min the centre temperature T_o of the slab is 141°C, whereas for the sphere it is 61°C. The sphere loses heat at a much faster rate than the slab. This conclusion is also drawn from the ratio of fractional heat loss Q/Q_i which is 0.46 for the slab and 0.8 for the sphere.

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Example 3.17 A water pipe is to be buried in soil at a sufficient depth from the surface to prevent freezing in winter. When the soil is at a uniform temperature of 10°C the surface is subjected to a uniform temperature of –15°C continuously for 50 days. What minimum burial depth is needed to prevent the freezing of the pipe? Assume that $\alpha = 0.2 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s for the soil and that the pipe surface temperature should not fall below 0°C.

Solution Figure 3.17 for semi-infinite solid may be used to determine the temperature distribution in the soil. For $\alpha = 0.2 \times 10^{-6}$ and $t = 50 \times 24 \times 3600$ s, the parameter ξ becomes

$$\xi = \frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}} = \frac{x}{2(0.2\times10^{-6}\times50\times24\times3600)^{1/2}}$$
$$= 0.538\,x$$

Taking, $T_i = 10°C$, $T_o = -15°C$ and $T(x, t) \geq 0°C$,

we obtain, $q(x, t) = \dfrac{T(x,t)-T_o}{T_i-T_o} = \dfrac{0+15}{10+15} = \dfrac{15}{25} = 0.6$

From Fig. 3.17(a) for $\theta(x, t) = 0.6$, we find $\xi = 0.6$

$$0.538\,x = 0.6$$
$$x = 1.12 \text{ m}$$

Therefore, the pipe should be buried at least to a depth of 1.12 m. *Ans.*

Example 3.18 A rectangular iron bar 5 cm × 4 cm having $k = 60$ W/m K, and $\alpha = 1.6 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s is initially at a uniform temperature of 225°C. Suddenly the surfaces of the bar are subjected to convective cooling with a heat transfer coefficient of 500 W/m² K into an ambient fluid at 25°C. Calculate the centre temperature T_o of the bar 2 min after the start of the cooling.

Solution The dimensionless temperature $\theta(x, y, t)$ for this problem is defined as

$$\frac{\theta(x,y,t)}{\theta_i} = \frac{T(x,y,t)-T_\infty}{T_i-T_\infty}$$

The solution for θ can be made as a product of the solution of two slab problems: $\theta_1(x, t)$, the solution for a slab of thickness $2L_1 = 5$ cm and $\theta_2(y, t)$, the solution for a slab of thickness $2L_2 = 4$ cm.

For the slab $2L_1 = 5$ cm, we have

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L_1^2} = \frac{(1.6\times10^{-5})(2\times60)}{(2.5)^2\times10^{-4}} = 3.1$$

and $$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hL_1} = \frac{60}{500\times2.5\times10^{-2}} = 4.8$$

From Fig. 3.7(a) for Fo = 3.1 and 1/Bi = 4.8, we obtain

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L_1} = 0.58$$

For the slab $2L_2 = 4$ cm, we have

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L_2^2} = \frac{(1.6\times10^{-5})(2\times60)}{2^2\times10^{-4}} = 4.8$$

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$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hL_2} = \frac{60}{500 \times 2 \times 10^{-2}} = 6.0$$

The centre temperature for this problem is obtained from Fig. 3.7(a) for Fo = 4.8 and 1/Bi = 6,

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L_2} = 0.45$$

Then the dimensionless centre temperature θ_c for the two-dimensional problem is determined from t product solution

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L_1} \times \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L_2} = 0.58 \times 0.45 = 0.26$$

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.26$$

$$T_c = 25 + 200 \times 0.26 = 77°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.19 A short iron cylinder (k = 60 W/m K, $\alpha = 1.6 \times 10^{-3}$ m²/s) of diameter 5 cm and height 4 cm is initially at a uniform temperature of 225°C. Suddenly the boundary surfaces are exposed to an ambient fluid at 25°C with a heat transfer coefficient of 500 W/m² K. Calculate the centre temperature at 2 min after the start of cooling.

Solution The dimensionless temperature $\theta(r, z, t)$ for this problem is defined as

$$\frac{\theta(r,z,t)}{\theta_i} = \frac{T(r,z,t) - T_\infty}{T_o - T_\infty}$$

The solution for θ can be made as a product of the solutions of the following two problems. $\theta_1(r, t)$, the solution for a long cylinder of diameter 5 cm, and $\theta_2(z, t)$, the solution for a slab of thickness $2L_2 = 4$ cm.

For the cylinder with $D = 5$ cm, we have

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{r^2} = \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-5})(2 \times 60)}{2.5^2 \times 10^{-4}} = 3.1$$

and

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hr} = \frac{60}{500 \times 2.5 \times 10^{-2}} = 4.8$$

For Fo = 3.1 and 1/Bi = 4.8, from Fig. 3.9(a) the centre temperature is obtained

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_P = 0.31$$

For the slab with $2L_2 = 4$ cm, we have

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L_2^2} = \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-5})(2 \times 60)}{(2 \times 10^{-2})^2} = 4.8$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{hL_2} = \frac{60}{500 \times 2 \times 10^{-2}} = 6.0$$

Then, from Fig. 3.7(a) the centre temperature of this slab for Fo = 4.8 and 1/Bi = 6 is obtained as

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L} = 0.45$$

Then the dimensionless centre temperature θ_c for the two-dimensional short cylinder is determined by product solution

$$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_R \times \left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L} = 0.31 \times 0.45 = 0.14$$

$$\frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = 0.14$$

$$T_c = 25 + 200\,(0.14) = 53°C \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.20 A 16 cm long cylinder of 10 cm diameter, with properties k = 0.5 W/m K and $\alpha = 5 \times 10^{-7}$ m²/s is initially at a uniform temperature of 20°C. The cylinder is placed in an oven where the ambient air temperature is 500°C and h_c = 30 W/m² K. Determine the minimum temperatures in the cylinder 30 min after it has been placed in the oven.

Solution Biot number based on the cylinder radius

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{h_c\, r_o}{k} = \frac{30 \times 0.05}{0.5} = 3.0$$

Simplified approach neglecting internal resistance cannot be used. Heisler's chart solution will be used. At any time, the minimum temperature is at the geometric centre of the cylinder and the maximum temperature is at the outer surface of the cylinder. These temperatures will be obtained by the product of the solution for an infinite plate and an infinite cylinder.

Infinite plate:

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{5 \times 10^{-7} \times 1800}{(0.08)^2} = 0.14$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{h_c\, L} = \frac{0.5}{30 \times 0.08} = 0.21$$

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L} = 0.90 \quad \left(\frac{\theta_L}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L} = 0.249$$

Infinite cylinder:

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{r_o^2} = \frac{5 \times 10^{-7} \times 1800}{(0.05)^2} = 0.36$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{Bi}} = \frac{k}{h_c\, r_o} = \frac{0.5}{30 \times 0.05} = 0.33$$

$$\left(\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i}\right)_R = 0.47 \quad \left(\frac{\theta_L}{\theta_i}\right)_{2L} = 0.155$$

Therefore, $$\frac{\theta_c}{\theta_i} = \frac{\theta_{\text{mun}}}{\theta_i} = 0.90 \times 0.47 = 0.423 = \frac{T_c - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}$$

$$T_c = T_{min} = 500 + 0.423\,(20 - 500) = 297°C \quad Ans.$$

and
$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_i} = \frac{\theta_{max}}{\theta_i} = 0.249 \times 0.155 = 0.39 = \frac{T_l - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}$$

$$T_1 = T_{max} = 500 + 0.039\,(20 - 500) = 481°C \quad Ans.$$

Example 3.21 A cylindrical steel ingot (diameter 100 mm, length 300 mm, k = 40 W/mK, ρ = 7600 kg/m^3 and c = 600 J/kg K) is to be heated in a furnace from 50°C to 850°C. The temperature inside the furnace is 1300°C and the surface heat transfer coefficient is 100 W/m^2 K. Calculate the time required for heating.

Solution Characteristic length, $L = \frac{V}{A} = \frac{\pi r^2 L}{2\pi r^2 + 2\pi rL}$

$$\therefore \quad L = \frac{rL}{2(r+L)} = \frac{0.05 \times 0.3}{2(0.05+0.3)} = 0.02143 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{100 \times 0.02143}{40} = 0.0536$$

Since Bi << 0.1, lumped capacitance method is applicable

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{k}{\rho c} \times \frac{t}{L^2} = \frac{40t}{7600 \times 600 \times (0.02143)^2}$$

$$= 0.0191t$$

Now, $$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_0 - T_\infty} = \exp(-\text{Bi} \cdot \text{Fo})$$

$$\frac{850 - 1300}{50 - 1300} = 0.36 = \exp(-\text{Bi} \cdot \text{Fo})$$

$$\therefore \quad \text{Bi} \cdot \text{Fo} = 1.02$$

$$0.0536 \times 0.0191t = 1.02$$

$$\therefore \quad t = 996.327s = 16.6 \text{ min} \quad Ans.$$

It is the required time for heating. So the ingot should be moved at 0.3 m/16.6 = 0.018 m/min or 1.8 cm/min.

Example 3.22 A solid copper ball of 100 mm diameter and ρ = 8954 kg/m^3, c_p = 383 J/kg K, k = 386 W/mK is at a uniform temperature of 250°C. It is suddenly immersed in a well-stirred fluid which is maintained at a uniform temperature of 50°C. The heat transfer coefficient between the ball and the fluid is h = 200 W/m^2 K. Estimate the temperature of the copper ball after a lapse of 5 minutes of immersion.

Solution Given: $d = 100 \text{ mm} = 0.1 \text{ m}$, $c_p = 383$ J/kg K,

$r = 8954$ kg/m^3, $k = 386$ W/mK, $T_i = 250°C$, $T_\infty = 50°C$,

$h = 200$ W/m^2 K, $t = 5 \text{ min} = 300\ s$.

Characteristic length, $L = \frac{V}{A} = \frac{\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3}{4\pi r^2} = \frac{r}{3}$

$$= \frac{d}{6} = \frac{0.1}{6} = 0.0167 \text{ m}$$

Biot number, $$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{200 \times 0.0167}{386}$$

$$= 0.00864$$

Since Bi << 0.1, lump capacitance method may be used.

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = e^{-\text{Bi} \cdot \text{Fo}}$$

where Fo, Fourier number $= \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{k}{\rho c} \frac{t}{L^2}$

$$= \frac{386}{8954 \times 383} \times \frac{300}{(0.0167)^2}$$

$\therefore$ $$\text{Fo} = 121.076$$

$\therefore$ $$\frac{T - 50}{250 - 50} = e^{-0.00864 \times 121.076}$$

$$= 0.3513$$

$\therefore$ $$T = 120.26°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.23 An egg with a mean diameter of 40 mm and initially at 20°C is placed in a boiling water pan for 4 minutes and found to be boiled to consumer's taste. For how long should a similar egg for the same consumer be boiled when taken from a refrigerator at 5°C. Take the following properties for egg:

$\rho = 1200$ kg/m^3, $c = 2$ kJ/kg K, $k = 10$ W/m K and $h = 100$ W/m^{2}K.

Use lump capacity method.

Solution

$$L = \text{characteristic length} = \frac{r}{3} = \frac{0.02}{3} = 0.0067 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Bi, Biot number} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{100 \times 0.0067}{10} = 0.067$$

As Bi < 0.1, lump theory can be used.

Let T be the temperature to which the egg should be boiled to satisfy the consumer's taste. Therefore,

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty} = e^{\frac{hAt}{\rho c V}} = e^{\frac{100t}{1200 \times 2 \times 0.0067 \times 1000}}$$

$$= e^{-6.219t/1000}$$

$$\frac{T - 100}{20 - 100} = e^{-6.219 \times 240/1000} = e^{-1.493}$$

$$T = -18 + 100 = 82°\text{C}.$$

We are to find the time taken for the egg taken from refrigerator at 5°C to be boiled to 82°C.

$$\frac{82-100}{5-100} = e^{\frac{100\times t}{1200\times 2000\times 0.0067}} = e^{-6.22\times 10^{-3}t}$$

or
$$e^{-6.22\times 10^{-3}t} = \frac{-18}{-95} = 0.1895$$
$$e^{6.22\times 10^{-3}t} = 5.278$$
$$6.22\times 10^{-3}t = 1.6635$$
$$t = 267.44s$$
$$= 4.45 \text{ min.} \quad Ans.$$

Example 3.24 A hot cylinder ingot of 50 mm diameter and 200 mm length is taken out from the furnace at 800°C and then dipped in water till its temperature falls to 500°C (h_w = 200 W/m²K). Then it is directly exposed to air till its temperature falls to 100°C (h_a = 20 W/m²K). The temperature of air and water is 30°C. Taking the properties of ingot as ρ = 800 kg/m³, c = 0.2 kJ/kgK, k = 60 W/mK, find the total time required for the ingot to reach the temperature from 800°C to 100°C.

Solution

$$r = 25 \text{ mm} = 0.025 \text{ m}, L = 200 \text{ mm} = 0.2 \text{ m}$$
$$L = \frac{V}{A} = \frac{\pi r^2 L}{2\pi rL} = \frac{r}{2} = \frac{0.025}{2} \text{m}$$

Cooling in water $\text{Bi} = \dfrac{hL}{k} = \dfrac{200\times 0.025}{60\times 2} = 0.04166$

As Bi < 0.1, internal thermal resistance can be neglected and lump theory can be used.

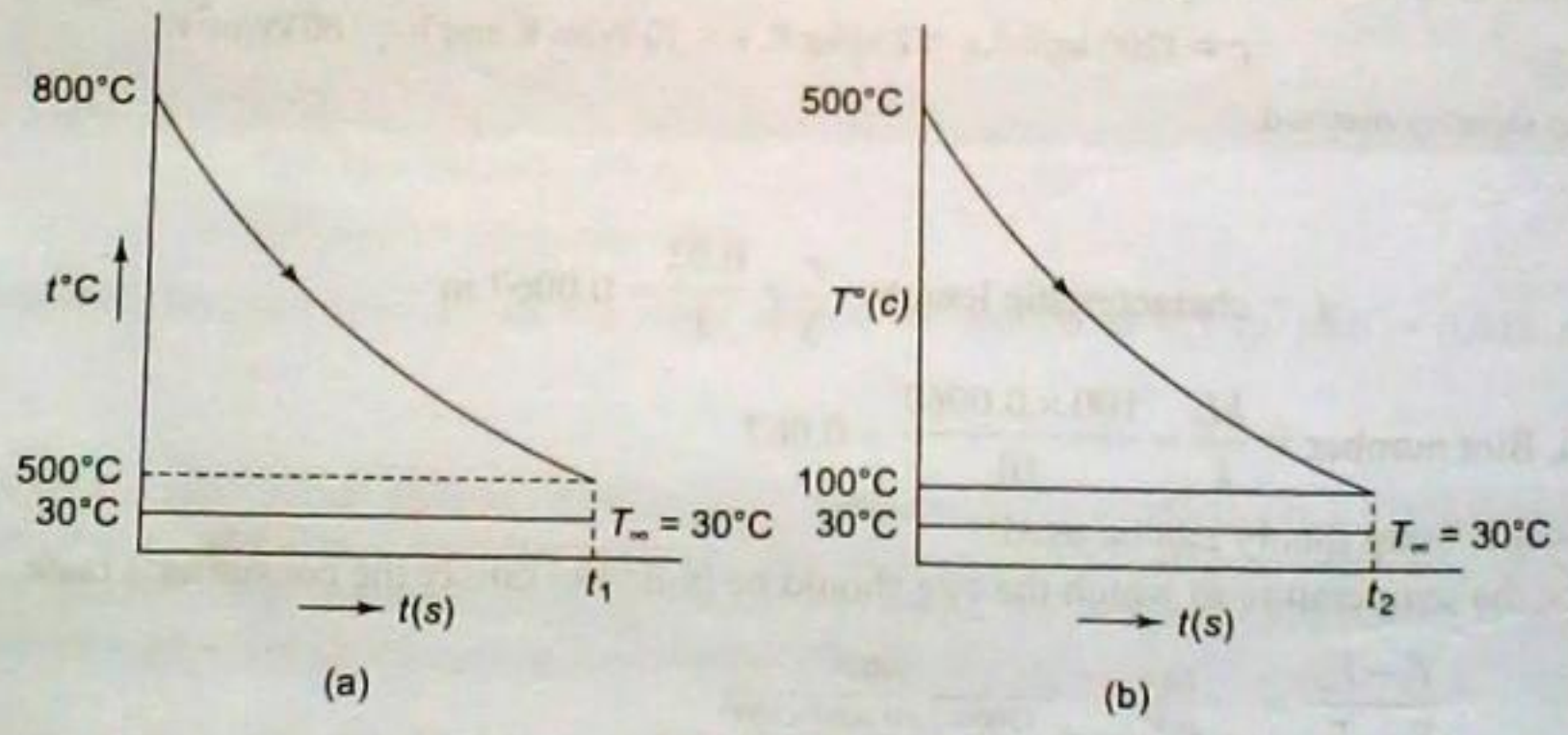


Fig. *Ex. 3.24*

$$\text{Bi}\cdot\text{Fo} = \frac{hAt_1}{\rho cV} = \frac{ht_1}{\rho cL} = \frac{200t_1\times 2}{800\times 200\times 0.025}$$
$$= 0.1t_1$$
$$\frac{T-T_\infty}{T_i-T_\infty} = e^{-\text{Bi}\cdot\text{Fo}}$$

$$\frac{500-30}{800-30}=\frac{470}{770}=e^{-0.1t_1}=0.61$$

$$\therefore \quad t_1=4.94\,s$$

Cooling in air

$$\text{Bi}=\frac{hL}{k}=\frac{20\times 0.025}{2\times 60}=0.00417$$

$$\text{Bi}\cdot\text{Fo}=\frac{hAt_2}{\rho cV}=\frac{20t_2\times 2}{800\times 200\times 0.025}=0.01t_2$$

$$\frac{100-30}{500-30}=e^{-0.01t_2}=\frac{70}{470}$$

$$t_2=190.42s$$

$\therefore$ Total time required $= t_1 + t_2$

$$= 4.94 + 190.42$$

$$= 195.36\,s = 3.256 \text{ min} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.25 Calculate the junction diameter of a copper thermocouple, initially at 25°C, which when placed in a gas stream at 200°C measures a temperature of 198°C in 5 seconds. For copper, ρ = 8940 kg/m^3, C = 384 J/kgK, k = 390 W/mK and the convective heat transfer coefficient = 400 W/m^{2}K.

Solution Using lump capacitance method

$$\frac{T-T_\infty}{T_i-T_\infty}=e^{-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}}$$

$$\frac{198-200}{25-200}=e^{-\frac{400\times 5A}{8940\times 384V}}=\frac{-2}{-175}$$

$$e^{-\frac{A}{1716.48\,V}}=0.0114286$$

$\therefore$

$$e^{-\frac{A}{1716.48\,V}}=87.5$$

$$\frac{A}{1716.48\,V}=4.47164$$

$\therefore$

$$\frac{V}{A}=1.30285\times 10^{-4}=\frac{r}{3} \quad \therefore r=3.909\times 10^{-4}\text{ m}$$

$\therefore$

$$d=7.817\times 10^{-4}\text{ m}$$

$\therefore$ Diameter of the thermocouple

$$d=7.817\times 10^{-4}\text{ m}=0.7817\text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Check:

$$\text{Bi}=\frac{hL}{k}=\frac{hr}{k\times 3}=\frac{400\times 7.817\times 10^{-4}}{390\times 3}$$

$$=2.672\times 10^{-4}$$

Since Bi << 0.1, lumped capacitance method used is free from error.

Example 3.26 Determine the minimum depth at which one must place a water main below the soil surface to avo freezing. The soil is initially at a uniform temperature of 20°C. In severe winter condition it is subjected t a surface temperature of – 15°C for a period of 60 days. Use the following properties of soil: ρ = 2050 kg/m c = 1840 J/kgK, k = 0.52 W/mK.

Solution

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{\rho c} = \frac{0.52\ \text{W/mK}}{2050\ \text{kg/m}^3 \times 1840\ \text{J/kg K}} = 0.138 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{m}^2/\text{s}$$

A sketch of the system is shown in Fig. Ex. 3.26.

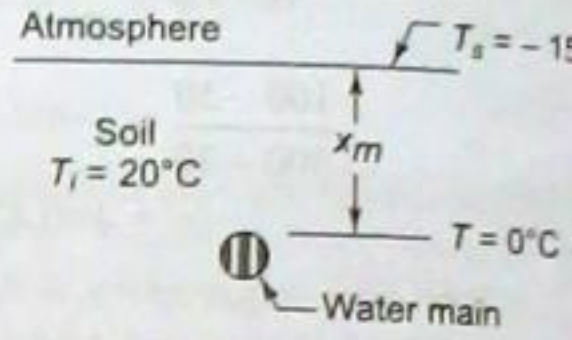


Fig. Ex. 3.26

Assuming the soil to be a semi-infinite medium, the transient temperature response of the soil is given by Eq. (3.50),

$$\frac{T(x_m, t) - T_s}{T_i - T_s} = \text{erf}\left(\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}\right)$$

$$\frac{0-(-15)}{20-(-15)} = 0.43 = \text{erf}\left(\frac{x_m}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}\right)$$

From error function table (Appendix B2),

$$\text{erf}(0.4) = 0.43$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{x_m}{2\sqrt{\alpha t}} = 0.4$$

$$\therefore \quad x_m = 0.8\ (0.138 \times 10^{-6} \times 60 \times 24 \times 3600)1/2$$

$$= 0.68\ \text{m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.27 A large block of steel (k = 45 W/mK, $\alpha = 1.4 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s) is initially at a uniform temperature of 35°C. The surface is exposed to a heat flux (a) by suddenly raising the surface temperature to 250°C and (b) through a constant surface heat flux of 3.2×10^5 W/m². Calculate the temperature at a depth of 25 mm after a time of 0.5 min for both these cases.

Solution Using the solutions for the semi-infinite solid as given in Eq. (3.50),

$$\frac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha t}} = \frac{0.025}{2(1.4 \times 10^{-5} \times 30)^{1/2}} = 0.61$$

From error function table,

$$\text{erf}\,\frac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha t}} = \text{erf}(0.61) = 0.61164$$

$$\frac{T(x,t) - T_s}{T_i - T_s} = 0.61164 = \frac{T(x,t) - 250}{35 - 250}$$

$$\therefore \quad T(x, t) = 118.5°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(a)}$$

(b) Using Eq. (3.51), where $q''_o = 3.2 \times 10^5$ W/m²,

$$T(x,t) - T_i = \frac{2q''_o}{k}(\alpha t/\pi)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{4\alpha t}\right) - (q''_o x/k)\ \text{erf}\,c\left[\frac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha t}}\right]$$

$$\therefore \quad T(x, t) = 35 + \frac{2(3.2\times10^5)(1.4\times10^{-5}\times30/\pi)^{1/2}}{45} e^{-(0.61)^2} - \frac{0.025\times3.2\times10^5}{45}[1-0.61164]$$

$$= 79.3°C \quad Ans.\ (b)$$

(at $x = 25$ mm, $t = 30$ s)

Example 3.28 The daily variation in the temperature of a certain place on the earth is from 20°C to 45°C. If the average thermal diffusivity of the earth is 0.006 m^2/hr, calculate the amplitude of the temperature variation at a depth of 0.15 m. What would be the time lag of the temperature wave at this depth?

Solution Amplitude of temperature variation

$$\theta_0 = \frac{T_{max} - T_{min}}{2} = \frac{45-20}{2} = 12.5°C$$

Frequency, $f = \frac{1}{24}h^{-1} = \frac{1}{P}$ where P = time period of oscillation

At $x = 0.15$ m, the amplitude is

$$\theta_x = \theta_o \cdot e^{-\left(\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x}$$

where $$\frac{\omega}{2\alpha} = \frac{2\pi f}{2\alpha} = \frac{\pi\times1}{24h\times0.006\ m^2/h} = \frac{\pi}{0.144}\ m^{-2}$$

$$= 21.871\ m^{-2}$$

$$\therefore \quad \theta_x = 12.5\times\exp(-\sqrt{21.817}\times0.15)$$

$$= 6.2°C \quad Ans.$$

Time lag, $$\Delta t = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{P}{\pi\alpha}\right)^{1/2}\cdot x$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{24}{\pi\times0.006}\right)^{1/2}\cdot0.15$$

$$= 2.6762\ h = 2h\ 40.57\ \text{min.} \quad Ans.$$

Example 3.29 A single cylinder 2-stroke engine runs at 4000 rpm. Calculate the depth where the temperature variation is 2% of its surface value. Given: $\alpha = 0.045\ m^2/h$.

Solution

$$\frac{\theta_x}{\theta_o} = 0.02 = e^{\left(-\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}\right)^{1/2} x}$$

Frequency for the 2-stroke engine $= 4000\times60\ h^{-1}$

$$\therefore \quad \sqrt{\frac{\omega}{2\alpha}} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi f}{\alpha}} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi\ 4000\times60}{0.045}} = 4093.3\ m^{-1}$$

$$\therefore \quad e^{4093.3x} = 50$$

$$\therefore \quad 4093.3x = 3.912$$

or,
$$x = \frac{3912}{4093.3} \text{ mm} = 0.9557 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.30 The inner surface temperature of an annealing oven varies according to a sine function from 800°C to 200°C. Each cycle is completed in 12 hours. Estimate (a) the time lag of temperature wave at a depth of 100 mm from the inner surface, (b) the heat flow through a surface located at a distance of 100 mm from the surface during the first six hour interval while the temperature is above the mean value. Take $\alpha = 0.02$ m²/h and $k =$ 1.8 W/mK.

Solution

Here,
$$w = 2\pi f = 2\pi \frac{1}{12} \text{ rad/h}; x = 0.1 \text{ m}$$

Time lag is given by Eq. (3.68),

$$\Delta t = \left(\frac{1}{2\alpha\omega}\right)^{1/2} \cdot x$$

$$= \frac{1 \times 6}{2 \times 0.02 \times \pi} \times 0.1 = 4.77 \text{ h} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

From Eq. (3.71), the heat flow per unit area

$$\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\omega\alpha}} k\theta_0$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{6} \times 0.02}} \times 1.8 \times \frac{800 - 200}{2} \times \frac{3600}{1000}$$

$$= 37993.7 \text{ kJ/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

xample 3.31 A steel ball 100 mm in diameter and initially at 900°C is placed in air at 30°C. Taking for steel, $k =$ W/mK, $\rho = 7800$ kg/m³, and $c = 460$ J/kgK and if $h = 20$ W/m²K, find (a) the temperature of the ball after 30 conds, and (b) the rate of cooling (°C/min) after 30 seconds.

lution

$$r = \frac{100}{2} = 50 \text{ mm} = 0.05 \text{ m}, \; T_i = 900°\text{C},$$

$$T_\infty = 30°\text{C}, \; \alpha = \frac{k}{\rho c} = \frac{40}{7800 \times 460} \frac{\text{W} \times \text{m}^3 \times \text{kg K}}{\text{mK} \times \text{kg} \times \text{J}}$$

$$= 11.15 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$$

$$L = \frac{r}{3} = \frac{0.05}{3} = 0.01667 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k} = \frac{20 \times 0.01667}{40} = 0.008335$$

Since Bi << 0.1, lumped capacitance method can be used.

$$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \frac{11.15 \times t \times 10^{-6}}{(0.01667)^2} = 0.04t$$

$$\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_1 - T_\infty} = e^{-\text{Bi} \cdot \text{Fo}}$$

or
$$e^{-0.008335 \times 0.04 \times 30} = \frac{T - 30}{900 - 30} = \frac{T - 30}{870}$$

$$e^{-0.01} = \frac{T - 30}{870} = \frac{1}{e^{0.01}} = 0.99$$

$$T = 891.15°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

On differentiating,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\left(\frac{T - T_\infty}{T_i - T_\infty}\right) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}\left(e - \frac{hAt}{\rho cV}\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{T_i - T_\infty}\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}t} = \left(-\frac{hA}{\rho cV}\right)\exp\left(-\frac{hAt}{\rho cV}\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{870}\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\frac{20 \times 1}{7800 \times 460 \times 0.01667} \times 0.99$$

$$= -3.31 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}T}{\mathrm{d}t} = -0.288°\text{C/s} \times 60$$

$$= -17.28°\text{C/min} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 3.32 The temperatures of the soil on earth are recorded at various intervals and it is found that the surface reaches a mean temperature at 6 pm and the soil at a depth of 250 mm reaches its mean temperature at 9 pm. Determine the thermal diffusivity of the soil.

Solution Time lag between $x = 0$ and $x = 0.25$ m is 3 hours. The periodic time τ_1 is 24 hours.

$$\Delta\tau = \frac{x}{\sqrt{2\alpha\omega}}$$

where
$$\omega = 2\pi f = \frac{2\pi}{\tau_1} = \frac{2}{24 \times 3600}$$

$\therefore$
$$3 \times 3600 = \frac{0.25}{\sqrt{2\alpha \dfrac{2\pi}{24 \times 3600}}}$$

$\therefore$
$$\alpha = 3.684 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{m}^2/\text{s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Summary

Transient heat conduction is first studied in solids with no internal thermal resistance having infinite thermal conductivity. The lumped capacitance method with its electrical analogy is explained and the significance of Biot number is brought out. The response time of a thermocouple is derived. Analytical solutions for transient conduction in bodies of simple geometrics like plane walls, infinite cylinders and spheres are obtained and Heisler's charts to solve single- and multi-dimensional problems are explained. Semi-infinite solids are analyzed to derive the temperature distribution and heat transfer in transient conduction for different initial and boundary conditions. Numerical and graphical methods for conduction in simple regular shaped bodies are introduced explaining Schmidt's method and Dusinberre's method of analysis. The periodic flow of heat in one dimension for semi-infinite solids where the surface temperature varies sinusoidally or cosinusoidally with time is discussed.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation number	*Equation*	*Remarks*
(3.3)	$\frac{T-T_\infty}{T_i-T_\infty}=e^{\frac{hAt}{\rho CV}}$	Temperature variation of a solid having infinite k with time
(3.4)	$\frac{\theta}{\theta_i}=e^{-\text{Bi.Fo}}$ where $\theta=T-T_\infty$, $\text{Bi}=\frac{hL}{k}$ and $\text{Fo}=\frac{\alpha t}{L^2}$	Temperature-time history of a solid having infinite k in terms of Biot number and Fourier number
(3.5)	$\Delta U=\int_0^t Q\,dt=\rho cV\theta_i(1-e^{-\text{BiFo}})$	Amount of heat transfer during a time interval Δt = change in internal energy of the solid.
(3.8)	$\frac{\partial^2\theta}{\partial x^2}=\frac{1}{\alpha}\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial t}$	Temperature distribution in an infinite plate $t(x, t)$ with no external resistance ($h=\infty$)
(3.13)	$\frac{T-T_1}{T_i-T_1}=\frac{4}{\pi}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\frac{1}{n}e^{-\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 dt}\sin\frac{n\pi}{L}x$	Temperature distribution in a slab initially heated to a uniform temperature T_i and then dropped to a certain fluid with its temperature at $x=0$ and x_L fixed at T_1.

Objective Type Questions

3.1 In transient heat conduction, the two significant dimensionless numbers are
(a) Fourier number and Reynolds number
(b) Reynolds number and Prandtl number
(c) Biot number and Fourier number
(d) Reynolds number and Biot number

3.2 What does transient conduction mean?
(a) Heat transfer for a short time
(b) Conduction when the temperature at a point varies with time
(c) Very little heat transfer
(d) Heat transfer with a very small temperature difference

3.3 **Assertion (A):** Lumped capacity analysis of transient heat conduction assumes an infinite or very large thermal conductivity of the solid.

Reasoning (R): When the surface convective resistance is very large compared to the internal conduction resistance.

Codes:

(a) Both A and R are true.
(b) Both A and R are false.
(c) A is true, R is false.
(d) A is false, R is true.

3.4 Biot number is defined as

(a) k/hL (b) kL/h
(c) hL/k (d) h/kL

3.5 The quantity having the dimension of time is often called the time constant of a thermocouple

(a) $hA/\rho CV$ (b) $hV/\rho CA$
(c) $\rho CV/hA$ (d) $\rho CA/hV$

3.6 The sensitivity of a thermocouple is the time required for a thermocouple to reach x% of the initial temperature difference where

(a) $x = 0.3$ (b) $x = 0.368$
(c) 0.5 (d) 0.638

3.7 The internal thermal resistance of a solid can be ignored if the Biot number is less than

(a) 1.0 (b) 0.5
(c) 0.1 (d) Fourier number

3.8 Heisler's charts show the temperature-time history of a solid in transient heat conduction as a function of

(a) Fourier number and Biot number
(b) Fourier number and reciprocal of Biot number
(c) Reciprocal of Fourier number and Biot number
(d) Reciprocal of Fourier number and reciprocal of Biot number

3.9 **Assertion (A):** Thermocouples are preferred over mercury-in-glass thermometers when high sensitivity and fast response are desired.

Reasoning (R): Because mercury-in-glass thermometers have large thermal capacity

Codes:

(a) Both A and R are true and R is the only explanation of A.
(b) Both A and R are true and R is not the only explanation of A.
(c) A is true, but R is false.
(d) Both A and R are false.

3.10 The dimensionless time, called the Fourier number, is defined as

(a) $L^2/\alpha\tau$ (b) $\alpha\tau/L^2$
(c) $\alpha t/L$ (d) L^2t/α

3.11 **Assertion (A):** The temperature response of a thin hot copper wire is more in water than in air.

Reasoning (R): Because the specific heat of water is more than that of air.

Codes:

(a) Both A and R are true.
(b) Both A and R are true, but R is not the correct explanation of A.
(c) Both A and R are false.
(d) A is false, but R is true.

3.12 The lumped capacitance method for transient heat conduction problem is possible if

(a) the physical size of the body is very small
(b) k of the material is very large
(c) h is very small
(d) all of the above

3.13 The general classes of transient problems that can be solved by using Heisler's charts are

(a) The time is known while the local temperature at that time is unknown.
(b) The local temperature is known and the time required to reach that temperature is unknown.
(c) The instantaneous rate of heat transfer to or from the surface of the solid.
(d) All of the above

3.14 Match List I with List II and select the correct answer using the codes given below:

	List I	*List II*
A.	Time constant of a thermocouple	1. $hr_0/3k$
B.	Biot numbr for a sphere of radius r_0.	2. k/hL
C.	Heisler chart variable	3. $\dfrac{x}{2\sqrt{\alpha\tau}}$
D.	Transient condition in a semi-infinite solid	4. $2\pi r_0 Lh/\rho cV$

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Codes:	A	B	C	D
(a)	4	1	3	2
(b)	4	3	2	1
(c)	4	1	2	3
(d)	1	2	3	4

3.15 In one-dimensional transient numerical method, the choice of the time interval Δt in the finite difference equations is limited by the condition that $\Delta x^2/\alpha\Delta t$

(a) is less than 2 (b) is equal to 2
(c) is greater than 2 (d) either (b) or (c)

3.16 **Assertion (A):** Electrical analogs of thermal systems have found wide use.
Reasoning (R): Because accurate measurements of heat transfer rates present great instrumental difficulties.

Codes:
(a) Both A and R are true and R is the correct explanation of A.
(b) Both A and R are true and R is not the only reason for A.
(c) A is false, R is true.
(d) A is true, R is false.

3.17 **Assertion (A):** The solution of 2-dimensional steady state heat conduction equation is obtained by assuming the temperature distribution to be expressed variables.
Reasoning (R): Because the governing equation is a linear differential equation.
Codes:
(a) Both A and R are true
(b) Both A and R are false
(c) A is true, R is false
(d) A is false, R is true

Answers

3.1 (c)	3.2 (b)	3.3 (a)	3.4 (a)	3.5 (c)
3.6 (d)	3.7 (c)	3.8 (b)	3.9 (b)	3.10 (b)
3.11 (b)	3.12 (d)	3.13 (d)	3.14 (c)	3.15 (d)
3.16 (b)	3.17 (a)			

Open Book Problems

3.1 Cylindrical pieces of size 60 mm dia and 60 mm height with density = 7800 kg/m^3, specific heat = 486 J/kgK and conductivity = 43 W/mK are to be heat treated. The pieces initially at 35°C are placed in a furnace at 800°C with convection coefficient at the surface of 85 W/m^{2}K. Determine the time required to heat the pieces to 650°C. If by mistake the pieces were taken out of the furnace after 300 seconds, determine the shortfall in the temperature.

Hints: First it is necessary to check for the use of lumped parameter model by calculating the Biot number.

$$\text{Bi} = \frac{hL}{k}, \; L = \text{characteristic length}$$
$$= \text{volume/surface area}$$

$$\frac{V}{S} = \frac{\pi r^2 h}{2\pi r^2 + 2\pi rh}$$

If Bi < 0.1, the lumped parameter model is applicable.
Use Eq. (3.3),

$$\frac{650-800}{35-800} = \exp\left[-\frac{85\times t\times s}{7800\times 486\times V}\right]$$

Find t. If the piece is taken out after 300 seconds, then

$$\frac{T-800}{35-800} = \exp\left[\frac{-85\times 300}{7800\times 486\times V/S}\right]$$

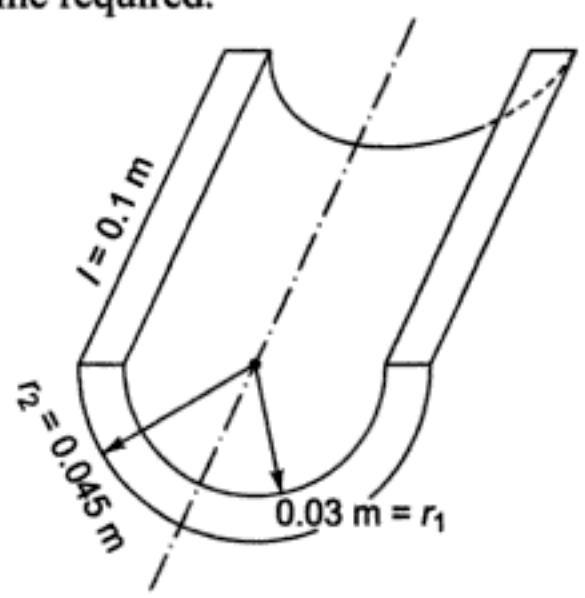
Find T and the shortfall in temperature.

3.2 A bearing piece in the form of half of a hollow cylinder of 60 mm ID, 90 mm OD and 100 cm long is to be cooled to –100°C

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from 30°C using a cryogenic gas at –150°C with a heat transfer coefficient of 70 W/m²K, density = 8900 kg/m³, specific heat = 444 J/kgK, conductivity = 17.2 W/mK. Determine the time required.

Hints:



Find the volume of the piece

$$V = \frac{\pi(r_2^2 - r_1^2)l}{2}\ \text{m}^3$$

Surface area, $A = \pi r_1 l + \pi r_2 l + 2 \times (r_2 - r_1) \times l + \dfrac{2\pi(r_2^2 - r_1^2)}{2}\ \text{m}^2$

$\therefore \quad L = \dfrac{V}{A}$ = characteristic length.

Establish Bi = $\dfrac{hL}{k}$ less than 0.1 and then use the lumped parameter model from Eq. (3.3).

$$\frac{-100-(-150)}{30-(-150)} = \exp\left[\frac{-70 \times t \times A}{8900 \times 444 \times V}\right]$$

Find t.

3.3 A thermocouple in the form of a long cylinder of 2 mm dia initially at 30°C is used to measure the temperature of a cold gas at –160°C. The convection coefficient over the surface is 60 W/m²K. The material properties are: density = 8922 kg/m³, specific heat = 410 J/kgK, conductivity = 22.7 W/mK. Determine the time it will take to indicate –150°C and also the time constant of the thermocouple.

Hints: $L = \dfrac{V}{A} = \dfrac{R}{2}$ and establish $\text{Bi} = \dfrac{hL}{k} < 0.1$.

Then use Eq. (3.3),

$$\frac{-150-(-160)}{30-(-160)} = \exp\left[\frac{-60 \times t \times A}{8922 \times 410 \times V}\right]$$

Find t.

This can be reduced by using smaller wire diameter or higher value of h. The time constant $\tau^* = \dfrac{\rho c V}{hA}$ can then be found.

3.4 A copper sphere of 10 mm dia at 80°C is placed in an air stream at 30°C. The temperature dropped to 65°C after 61 seconds. Calculate the value of convection coefficient. Assume property values as follows: density = 8925 kg/m³, specific heat = 397 J/kgK, conductivity = 393 W/mK.

Hints: $L = \dfrac{V}{A} = \dfrac{R}{3}$. Establish Bi < 0.1 and use Eq. (3.3).

This method can be used for estimating convection coefficient.

3.5 A coal pellet of 1 mm dia sphere is to be heated by radiation with a source at 1200 K from 300 K to 900 K. Determine the time required. Take density = 1350 kg/m³, specific heat = 1260 J/kgK, conductivity = 0.26 W/mK.

Hints: By energy balance: $\sigma A(T_\infty^4 - T^4)\, dt \;\; \rho c V dT$

or $$\frac{dT}{T_\infty^4 - T^4} = \frac{\rho A dt}{\rho c V}$$

A standard form available is used:

$$\int \frac{dx}{a^4 - x^4} = \frac{1}{4a^3} \ln\left[\frac{a+x}{a-x}\right] + \frac{1}{2a^3} \tan^{-1}\frac{x}{a}$$

Noting that $x \to T$ and $a \to T_\infty$.

$$\frac{\sigma A t}{\rho c V} = \left[\frac{1}{4T_\infty^3} \ln\frac{T_\infty + T}{T_\infty - T} + \frac{1}{2T_\infty^3} \tan^{-1}\frac{T}{T_\infty}\right]_{T_2}^{T_1}$$

Take $\tan^{-1}(T/T_\infty)$ in radian mode and solve for t.

3.6 A metal sphere 20 mm radius at 90 K is allowed to cool in a room at 310 K by (a) convection only, (b) radiation only. Determine in each case the time required for the sphere to reach 450 K. Take density

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= 2700 kg/m^3, specific heat = 1110 J/kgK, conductivity = 218 W/mK, heat transfer coefficient 18 W/m^{2}K.

Hints: (a) Solve by lumped parameter model. (b) Cooling by radiation, as in the previous problem

$$t = -\frac{\rho c V}{\sigma A}\left[\frac{1}{4T_\infty^3}\ln\frac{T_\infty + T}{T_\infty - T} + \frac{1}{2T_\infty^3}\tan^{-1}\frac{T}{T_\infty}\right]_{T_2}^{T_1}$$

Negative sign is being used due to cooling.

3.7 On a hot day, the wood surface gets heated to 50°C to a considerable depth. Sudden sharp showers cool the surface to 20°C and maintain the surface at this temperature level. Determine the temperature at 2 cm depth after 40 minutes. The material properties are: ρ = 2115 kg/m^3, c = 920 J/kgK, k = 0.062 W/mK. Calculate also the heat flow from the surface upto that time and instantaneous heat flow at the surface.

Hints: Use semi-infinite solid model. Here $T_A = 20°C$, $T_i = 50°C$

From Eq. (3.50), $\frac{T(x,t) - T_s}{T_i - T_s} = \text{erf}\frac{x}{2(\alpha t)^{1/2}}$

where, x = 0.02 m, $t = 40 \times 60$s.

$\alpha = k/\rho cA$. Find $x/2(\alpha t)^{1/2}$ from error function table given in Appendix B–2. Find $T(x, t)$

[*Ans.* Total heat flow upto the time

$$q_s'''(t) = \int_0^t \frac{k(T_s - T_i)}{(\pi\alpha t)^{1/2}}dt = 2k(T_s - T_i)\sqrt{t/\pi\alpha}$$

Instantaneous heat flow from the surface

$q_s''' = k(T_s - T_i)/\sqrt{\pi\alpha t}$]

3.8 Calculate the depth of penetration of the temperature oscillation into the cylinder wall of a single cylinder 2-stroke IC engine operating at 2000 rpm. Take the thermal diffusivity of the wall material as 0.06 m^{2}h.

Hints: Period of oscillation is $\tau_0 = \frac{1}{60 \times 2000}$h

From Fig. 3.28, the oscillations are seen to die out when $x/2\sqrt{\pi\alpha\tau_0} = 0.8$. Find x, to which the temperature fluctuations penetrate.

Review Questions

3.1 How does transient heat conduction differ from steady conduction?

3.2 What is lumped system analysis? When is it applicable?

3.3 Consider heat transfer between two identical hot solid bodies and the air surrounding them. The first solid is being cooled by a fan while the second one is allowed to cool naturally. For which solid is the lumped system analysis more likely to be applicable? Why?

3.4 Consider heat transfer between two identical hot solid bodies and their environments. The first solid is dropped in a large container filled with water, while the second one is allowed to cool naturally in the air. For which solid is the lumped system analysis more likely to be applicable? Why?

3.5 Consider a hot baked potato in a plate. The temperature of the potato is observed to drop by 4°C during the first minute. Will the temperature drop during the second minute be less than, equal to, or more than 4°C? Why?

3.6 What is the physical significance of Biot number? Is the Biot number more likely to be large for highly conducting solids or poorly conducting ones?

3.7 Consider a sphere and a cylinder of equal volume made of copper. Both the sphere and the cylinder are initially at the same temperature, and are exposed to convection in the same environment. Which do you think will cool faster, the cylinder or the sphere? Why?

3.8 In what medium is the lumped system analysis more likely to be applicable: in water or in air? Why?

3.9 For which solid is the lumped system analysis more likely to be applicable: an actual apple or a gold apple of the same size? Why?

3.10 Obtain a relation for the time required for a lumped system to reach the average temperature 1/2 (T_i + T_∞) where T_i is the initial temperature and T_∞ is the temperature of the environment.

3.11 Can the transient temperature charts in Fig. 3.7 for a plane wall exposed to convection on both sides be used for a plane wall whose one side is exposed to convection while the other side is insulated? Explain.

3.12 Why are the transient temperature charts prepared using non-dimensionalised quantities such as the Biot and Fourier numbers instead of the actual variables like thermal conductivity and time?

3.13 The Biot number during a heat transfer process between a sphere and its surroundings is determined to be 0.02. Would you use lumped system analysis or the transient temperature charts when determining the centre temperature of the sphere? Why?

3.14 What is a semi-infinite medium? Give examples of solid bodies that can be treated as semi-infinite mediums for heat transfer purposes.

3.15 Under what conditions can a plane wall be treated as a semi-infinite medium?

3.16 What is the product solution method? How is it used to determine the transient temperature distribution in a two-dimensional system?

3.17 How is the product solution used to determine the variation of temperature with time and position in three-dimensional systems?

3.18 A short cylinder initially at a uniform temperature T_i is subjected to convection from all of its surfaces to a medium at temperature T_∞. Explain how you can determine the temperature of the midpoint of the cylinder at a specified time.

3.19 Under what conditions analytical treatment of transient heat conduction problems becomes difficult?

3.20 Explain Schmidt's graphical method of transient temperature distribution in a solid without and with convective resistance. What are its merits and demerits?

3.21 How does Dusinberre's method differ from Schmidt's method of analysing transient heat conduction problems?

3.22 What do you understand by periodic flow of heat? Give some examples of this phenomenon.

3.23 Give the equation for periodic heat flow that expresses the temperature at any time t and distance x from the surface. What is the velocity of propagation of the thermal wave into the solid?

3.24 Explain why with higher frequency, the penetration of thermal wave decreases.

Problems for practice

3.1 An aluminium plate (k = 160 W/m K, ρ = 2790 kg/m^3, c_p = 0.88 kJ/kg K) of thickness 30 mm and at a uniform temperature of 225°C is suddenly immersed at time t = 0 in a well-stirred fluid at a constant temperature of 25°C. The heat transfer coefficient between the plate and the fluid is 320 W/m^2 K. Determine the time required for the centre of the plate to reach 50°C.

(*Ans.* 4 min)

3.2 A cubical piece of aluminium with the same properties, as given in P.3.1, is 10 mm on a side and is heated from 50°C to 300°C by a direct flame. How long should the aluminium remain in the flame if the flame temperature is 800°C and the convective heat transfer coefficient between the flame and aluminium is 190 W/m^2 K?

3.3 A billet of steel of the form of a parallelepiped with dimensions 2 m × 2 m × 5 m, originally at 300°C, is placed in a radiant furnace, where the furnace temperature is held at 1000°C. Determine the temperature at the centre after 30 minutes. For steel, take k = 35 W/m K, ρ = 7800 kg/m^3, c_p = 0.83 kJ/kg K, while h = 233 W/m^2 K.

(*Ans.* 580°C)

3.4 A steel cylinder of diameter 0.25 m and length 0.8 m initially at 25°C is placed in a furnace, where T_∞ = 1000°C. Determine the temperature at the centre and on the surface of the cylinder after a lapse of 1 h. Assume k, ρ, c_p and h as in P.3.3.

3.5 The temperature of a gas stream is measured with a thermocouple. The junction may be approximated as a sphere of diameter 1 mm, k = 25 W/m K, ρ = 8400 kg/m^3 and c_p = 0.4 kJ/kg K. The heat transfer coefficient between the junction and the gas stream is 500 W/m^2 K. How long will it take for the thermocouple to record 99% of the applied temperature difference? (*Ans.* 4.6 s)

3.6 A household electric iron has a steel base (k = 70 W/m K, ρ = 7840 kg/m^3, c_p = 0.45 kJ/kg K) which weighs 1 kg. The base has an ironing surface of 0.025 m^2 and is heated from the other surface with a 250 W heating element. Initially the iron is at a uniform temperature of 20°C. Suddenly the heating starts, and the iron dissipates heat by convection from the ironing surface into an ambient at 20°C with a heat transfer coefficient 50 W/m^2 K. Calculate the temperature of the iron 5 min after the start of heating. What would the equilibrium temperature of the iron be if the control did not switch off the current?

(*Ans.* 133°C, 220°C)

3.7 A 20 mm diameter stainless steel ball (ρ = 7865 kg/m^3, c_p = 0.46 kJ/kg K and k = 61 W/m K) is uniformly heated to 800°C. It is to be hardened by suddenly dropping it into an oil bath at 50°C. If the quenching occurs when the ball reaches 100°C and the heat transfer coefficient between the oil and the sphere is 300 W/m^2 K, how long should the ball be kept in the oil bath? If 100 balls are to be quenched per minute, determine the rate of heat removal from the oil bath per minute needed to maintain its temperature at 40°C. (*Ans.* 66 s, 3.58 kJ/min)

3.8 A 3 cm diameter aluminium sphere (k = 204 W/m K, ρ = 2700 kg/m^3 and c_p = 0.896 kJ/kg K) is initially at 175°C. It is suddenly immersed in a well stirred fluid at 25°C. The temperature of the sphere is lowered to 100°C in 42 s. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient. (*Ans.* 200 W/m^2 K)

3.9 An orange of diameter 10 cm is initially at a uniform temperature of 30°C. It is placed in a refrigerator in which the air temperature is 2°C. If the heat transfer coefficient between the air and the orange surface is 50 W/m^2 K, determine the time required for the centre of the orange to reach 10°C. Assume the thermal properties of the orange are the same as those of water at the same temperature ($\alpha = 1.4 \times 10^{-7}$ m^2/s and k = 0.59 W/m K).

(*Ans.* 1 h 32 min)

3.10 A solid iron rod ($\alpha = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s, k = 60 W/m K) of diameter 6 cm, initially at 800°C is suddenly dropped into an oil both at 50°C. The heat transfer coefficient between the fluid and the surface is 400 W/m^2 K. (a) Using Heisler's charts, determine the centreline temperature 10 min after immersion in the fluid. (b) How long will it take the centreline temperature to reach 100°C?

(*Ans.* (a) 54.5°C, (b) 5 min 47 s)

3.11 A 6 cm diameter potato initially at a uniform temperature of 20°C is suddenly dropped into boiling water at 100°C. The heat transfer coefficient between the water and the surface is 6000 W/m^2 K. The thermophysical properties of potato can be taken the same as those of water ($\alpha = 1.6 \times 10^{-7}$ m^2/s and k = 0.68 W/m K). Determine the time required for the centre temperature of the potato to reach 95°C and the energy transferred to the potato during this time.

(*Ans.* 33 min, 37.8 kJ)

3.12 A slab of thickness 10 cm, a cylinder of diameter 10 cm and a sphere of diameter 10 cm, each made of steel ($\alpha = 1.6 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s and k = 61 W/m K) were initially at 300°C,

and then suddenly immersed into a well-stirred fluid at 50°C. The heat transfer coefficient between the surface and fluid is 1000 W/m² K. Calculate the time required for the centres of slab, cylinder and sphere to cool to 80°C. (*Ans.* 547, 266 and 188 s)

3.13 A thick bronze plate ($\alpha = 0.86 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s, $k = 26$ W/m K) is initially at a uniform temperature of 250°C. Suddenly the surface is exposed to a coolant at 25°C. Assuming $h = 150$ W/m² K, determine the temperature 5 cm from the surface 10 min after the exposure. (*Ans.* 205°C)

3.14 A rectangular bar 6 cm × 3 cm in cross-section is made of aluminium ($\rho = 2700$ kg/m³, $c = 890$ J/kg K, $k = 200$ W/m K and $\alpha = 8.4 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s). It is initially at a uniform temperature of 175°C. Suddenly the surfaces are subjected to convective cooling with a heat transfer coefficient 250 W/m² K into an ambient at 25°C. Determine the centre temperature of the bar 1 min after the start of cooling.

(*Ans.* 107.5°C)

3.15 A short cylindrical aluminium bar (with the same thermophysical properties as in the Prob. 3.14) of diameter 6 cm and height 3 cm is initially at a uniform temperature of 175°C. Suddenly the surfaces are subjected to convective cooling with a $h = 250$ W/m² K into an ambient at 25°C. Calculate the centre temperature of the cylinder 1 min after the start of cooling.

(*Ans.* 93.3°C)

3.16 The ground at a particular location is covered with snow pack at −10°C for a continuous period of 3 months, and the average soil properties at that location are $k = 0.4$ W/mK and $\alpha = 0.15 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s. Assuming an initial uniform temperature of 15°C for the ground, determine the minimum burial depth to prevent the water pipes from freezing.

(*Ans.* 0.80 m)

3.17 A short brass cylinder ($k = 110$ W/m K and $\alpha = 3.39 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s) of diameter 10 cm and height 12 cm is initially at a uniform temperature of 120°C. The cylinder is now placed in atmospheric air at 25°C, where heat transfer takes place by convection with $h = 60$ W/m² K. Calculate (a) the temperature at the centre of the cylinder 15 min after the start of cooling, and (b) the total heat transfer from the brass cylinder ($\rho = 8530$ kg/m³, $c = 380$ J/kg K)

[*Ans.* (a) 63°C, (b) 85.9 kJ]

3.18 A semi-infinite aluminium cylinder ($k = 237$ W/m K, $\alpha = 9.71 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s) of diameter 20 cm is initially at a uniform temperature of 200°C. The cylinder is now placed in water at 15°C where heat transfer takes place by convection with $h = 120$ W/m² K. Determine the temperature at the centre of the cylinder 15 cm from the end surface 5 min after the start of cooling. [*Ans.* 152°C]

3.19 Estimate the minimum depth at which one must place a water main below the surface to avoid freezing. The soil is initially at a uniform temperature of 20°C. Assume that under the worst conditions anticipated it is subjected to a surface temperature of −15°C for a period of 60 days, and use the following properties for soil (300 K): $\rho = 2050$ kg/m³, $k = 0.52$ W/m K, $c = 1840$ J/kg K, $\alpha = 0.138 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s. [*Ans.* 0.68 m]

3.20 A large concrete wall 50 cm thick is initially at 60°C. One side of the wall is insulated. The other side is suddenly exposed to hot combustion gases at 900°C with a heat transfer coefficient of 25 W/m² K. Determine (a) the time required for the insulated surface to reach 600°C, (b) the temperature distribution in the wall at that instant and (c) the heat transferred during the process. Take $k = 1.25$ W/m K, $c = 837$ J/kg K, $\rho = 500$ kg/m³, $\alpha = 0.30 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s.

[*Ans.* (a) 16.2 *h*, (c) − 1.758×10^8 J/m²]

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Convection Heat Transfer: Forced Convection

4

When energy transfer takes place between a solid surface and a fluid system in motion, the process is known as *convection*. If the fluid motion is impressed by a pump or compressor, it is *forced convection*. If it is caused by density difference, it is *natural* or *free convection*.

It is not possible to separate the problem of heat transfer from that of the motion of the fluid, and so a study of the hydrodynamic behaviour of the fluid is very much necessary in order to gain an understanding of the heat transfer phenomena within a moving fluid.

A fluid may be defined as a material that supports no shearing stress when at rest or in a state of uniform motion. Fluids exhibiting a linear relation between the rate of strain and the applied shear stress are called *Newtonian fluids*. Common substances such as the gases, water and oils are of this type. Certain suspensions that do not conform to a linear stress rate and strain law are called *non-Newtonian fluids*. We will, however, be concerned with the former type. A fluid will be treated as a continuum i.e., we will ignore the fact that the fluid is made up of discrete particles (atoms, molecules, ions or electrons) and consider that the smallest volume of fluid with which we are concerned is sufficiently large so that macroscopic properties such as density, pressure and temperature have their usual meanings and the motion of the fluid in contact with a solid surface is identical with that of the surface (no slip motion).

In the case of gases, it is known that the ratio of the mean free path of the molecules to some characteristic dimension of the flow field, called the *Knudsen number*, is an important parameter when this number is sufficiently large. This may occur in high vacuum systems and high altitude flight. An important characteristic of such rarefied gas flows is the slipping of the gas at the solid boundary.

In general, the behaviour of the flow depends on the properties of the fluid and on the boundary conditions imposed. To analyse this behaviour requires the application of the principle of conservation of mass (continuity equation), Newton's laws of motion (momentum equations) and the laws of thermodynamics (energy equation) along with the phenomenological laws like Fourier's law, Fick's law and Newton's law of viscosity.

Fluids include both liquids and gases. While liquids are incompressible, gases are compressible, having their densities varying with pressure greatly, and also with temperature.

4.1 BOUNDARY LAYER THEORY

Let us consider two plates a distance S apart (Fig. 4.1). The lower plate is at rest, while the upper plate moves with a constant velocity U_0. The space between the plates is filled with a fluid.

Experience shows that in order to maintain the velocity U_0 of the upper plate a force is necessary, and this force is directly proportional to velocity U_0 and inversely proportional to the distance S. The force per unit area of the plate is equal to the shear stress τ. Therefore,

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$$\tau \propto \frac{U_0}{S} \quad \text{or} \quad \tau = \mu \frac{U_0}{S} \tag{4.1}$$

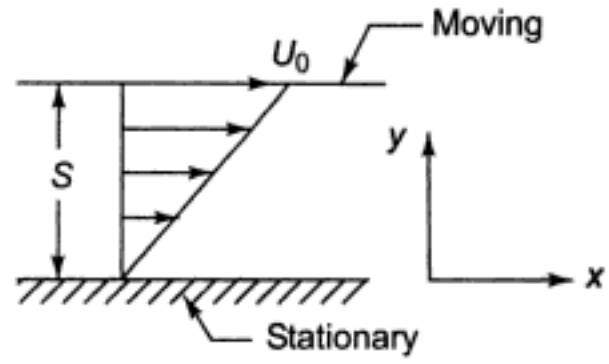


Fig. 4.1 *Couette flow*

where μ is the constant of proportionality.

The fluid layers immediately adjacent to the two plates possess velocities equal to those of the plates, namely U_0 and zero, respectively, while in the rest of the fluid the velocity varies in a linear manner. Here μ is a property of the fluid, called *dynamic or absolute viscosity*. This is *Newton's law of viscosity*. The fluids obeying this law are known as Newtonian fluids, as mentioned earlier. Nonviscous or inviscid fluids are known as perfect or ideal fluids.

A more general form of Newton's law is

$$\tau = \mu \frac{\mathbf{du}}{\mathbf{dy}} \tag{4.2}$$

where du/dy is the velocity gradient at the wall ($y = 0$) as shown in Fig. 4.2. When a fluid flows over a solid surface, there is a stagnant film immediately adjacent to the wall where the fluid velocity is zero and through which heat is conducted.

In an elastic solid, shear stress is proportional to the shear strain. In a viscous fluid, shear stress is proportional to the rate of shear strain.

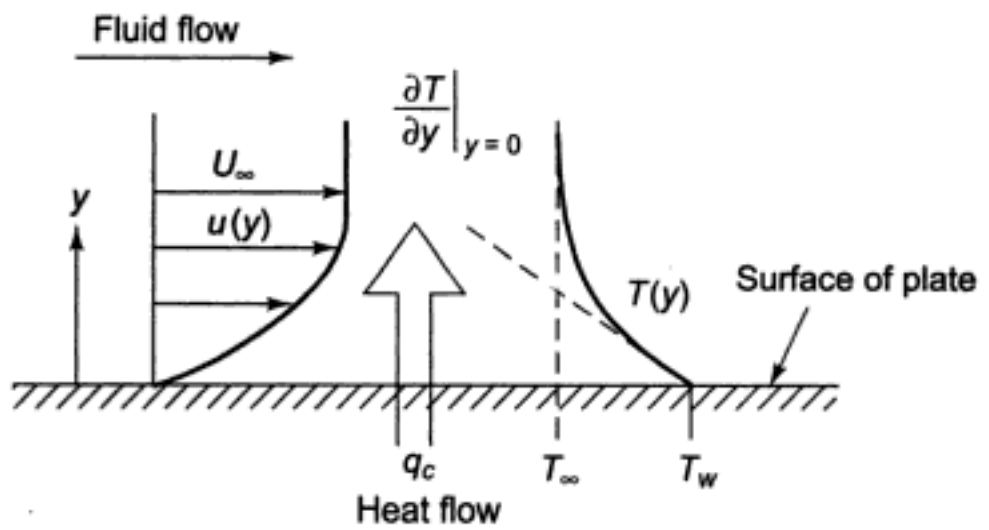


Fig. 4.2 *Velocity and temperature distributions in laminar forced convection flow over a flat plate (heated) at temperature T_w*

The dimension of μ is $\boxed{\frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2} \cdot \frac{\text{ms}}{\text{m}}}$ or $\frac{\text{Ns}}{\text{m}^2}$. It is also $\boxed{\frac{\text{kgm}}{\text{s}^2} \cdot \frac{\text{s}}{\text{m}^2}}$ or $\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{ms}}$. In cgs units, it is $\frac{\text{dyne s}}{\text{cm}^2}$, which was called "poise" after the French physicist L. J. M. Poiseuille. However, it used to be expressed in centipoises (cp).

The viscosity of a liquid is much larger than that of a gas, i.e. $\mu_{liq} \gg \mu_{gas}$. As temperature increases, the viscosity of a liquid decreases, because of the decrease of cohesive forces between the molecules as the liquid becomes lighter. But as temperature increases, the viscosity of a gas increases, because the molecules travel faster as a result of which there is increase in the transfer of molecular momentum.

There is another frequently used property, the *kinematic viscosity*, ν, defined as

$$\nu = \frac{\mu}{\rho}$$

The dimension of ν is $\frac{\text{kg m}^3}{\text{ms kg}}$ or m^2/s. It is also called *momentum diffusivity*. In cgs units, it used to be in

$$\frac{\text{dyne-sec cm}^3}{\text{cm}^2\ \text{gm}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\text{gm cm}}{\text{sec}^2} \cdot \frac{\text{sec}}{\text{cm}^2} \cdot \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{gm}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\text{cm}^2}{\text{s}}$$

which used to be referred as "stoke" after the British physicist G.G. Stoke. However, it used to be expressed in centistokes (cs).

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Let us assume that some fluid is flowing over a solid surface [Fig. 4.3(a)]. If we imagine a curve in the fluid, the tangent at every point of which indicates the direction of the velocity of the fluid particle, then the curve is known as a *streamline*. When one streamline slides smoothly over another streamline, and if this is maintained in the entire flow, the flow is known as *laminar*. When there is transverse flow of fluid particles and streamlines are interwoven with one another, the flow is known as *turbulent* [Fig. 4.3(b)].

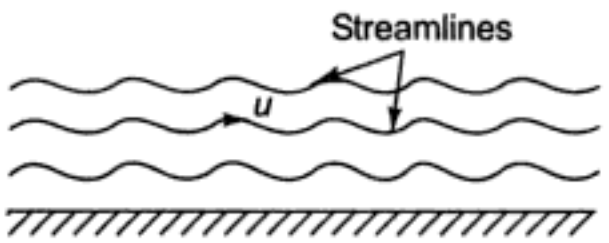


Fig. 4.3(a) *Laminar flow*

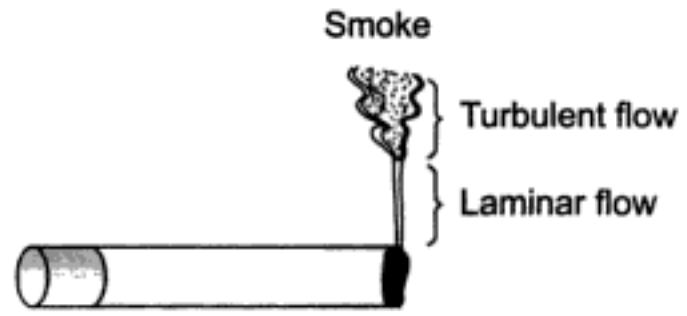


Fig. 4.3(b) *Laminar and turbulent flow regimes of cigarette smoke*

It was the British scientist Osborne Reynolds who first differentiated these two types of flow in a series of experiments conducted in 1883. He injected dye into a stream of water flowing inside a pipe. When the velocity of water was low, no mixing was observed between dye and water. Water was moving in parallel layers or laminae, a movement he called laminar flow. However, when the velocity of water was increased to a certain magnitude, the water particles began to move transversely, eddies appeared and mixing occurred between dye and water. This movement he called turbulent flow.

From various experiments on the flows of fluids through pipes, Reynolds discovered that the absolute viscosity μ, the mass density of the fluid ρ, and the diameter of the pipe D are the three other factors besides the velocity of the fluid, controlling the transition from laminar to turbulent flow. The results were confirmed by various experiments of French scientist M. Couette in 1890. Reynolds and Couette arranged the four quantities in a dimensionless form, which is called, in honour of Osborne Reynolds, the *Reynolds number* (Re), defined as

$$\mathrm{Re} = \frac{\rho u_m D}{\mu} = \frac{u_m D}{\nu} \tag{4.3}$$

where u_m is the mean velocity of the fluid.

The value of Reynolds number at which the flow pattern changes from laminar to turbulent motion is called *critical Reynolds number* Re_c.

For smooth circular pipes, Re_c is usually taken as 2300. If $\mathrm{Re} > 2300$, the flow is turbulent. If $\mathrm{Re} < 2300$, the flow is laminar.

4.1.1 Flow Over a Flat Plate

In a transfer process it is the phenomena at the boundary between a fluid and a solid surface, which is usually of the greatest importance in flow and heat transfer calculations.

When a fluid flows over a flat plate and its velocity is measured at various points normal to the surface in the immediate vicinity of the wall, a velocity profile is obtained, as shown in Fig. 4.4. The velocity begins with the value zero at the wall and increases within a thin layer of thickness δ to the value of free-stream velocity u_∞. This distance from the wall δ is called the *boundary layer thickness* where there is velocity gradient and above which velocity is uniform and there is no viscous effect. Viscosity effect is thus confined only in the boundary layer, and the main flow outside the boundary layer, called the *potential flow*, is considered frictionless, where for each streamline *Bernoulli equation* applies.

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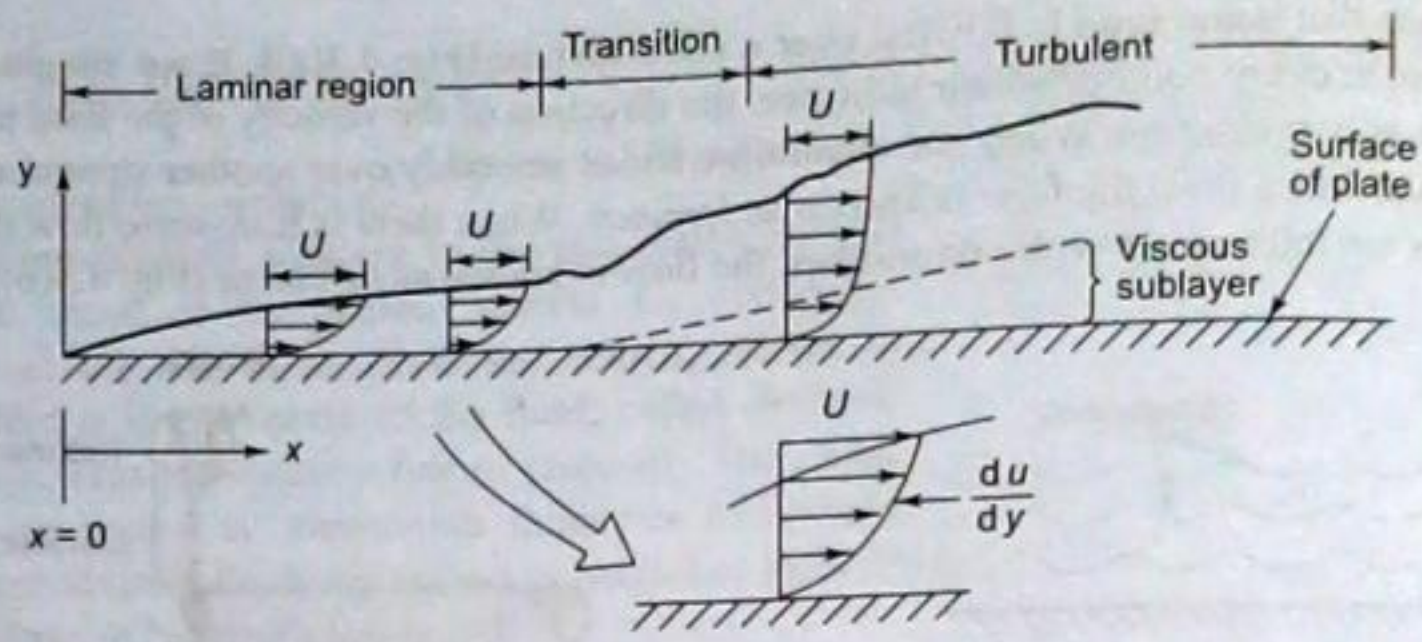


Fig. 4.4 *Velocity profiles in laminar, transition and turbulent boundary layers in flow over a flat plate*

In the flow of a fluid over a flat plate held parallel to the direction of flow (Fig. 4.4), the vertical scale is purposely enlarged in order to show the detail of the flow pattern. When the fluid passes the leading edge of the plate, the velocity gradient and the viscous boundary shear are high. The fluid is moving in the laminar regime, and the boundary layer is thin. This is called *laminar boundary layer*. As the fluid travels further down stream along the plate, the retardation of fluid flow progresses due to viscous shear, and the boundary layer grows in thickness. As a result the velocity gradient gradually decreases. Meanwhile the boundary shear is reduced as the thickness increases. When the boundary layer becomes thick enough, the particles begin to move out of the smooth layers or laminae, the laminar motion becomes unstable, and finally the flow becomes turbulent. However, under the turbulent boundary layer, there is still a thin layer of fluid immediately next to the solid boundary, and this is still flowing in the laminar pattern. This is called the *laminar sublayer*. The layer of transition from the laminar sublayer to the turbulent layer is called the *buffer layer*. Since a laminar boundary layer cannot suddenly change into a turbulent one, a transition zone exists between them.

The behaviour of flow in the boundary layer with the distance x from the leading edge is governed by the magnitude of Reynolds number given by

$$\overline{\mathrm{Re}}_x = \frac{u_\infty\, x}{\nu}$$

where u_∞ is the free-stream velocity, x is the distance from leading edge and ν is the kinematic viscosity.

The orderly motion of fluid continues along the plate until a critical distance is reached or Reynolds number attains a critical value (Fig. 4.5), Re_{x_c}, when fluid eddies begin to form characterizing the end of the

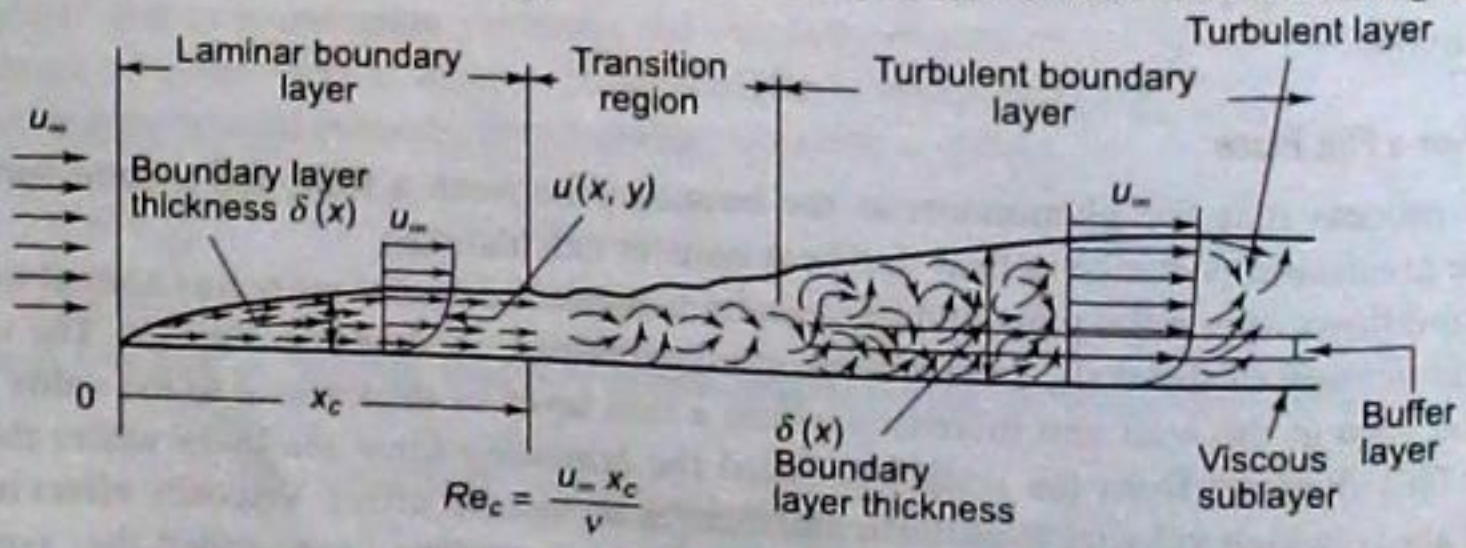


Fig. 4.5 *Boundary layer growth for flow over a flat plate* $\mathrm{Re}_c = \frac{u_\infty x_c}{\nu}$

laminar boundary layer and the beginning of transition from the laminar to turbulent boundary layer. This value of critical Reynolds number for flow over a flat plate is

$$\overline{\mathrm{Re}}_{x_c} = \frac{u_\infty x_c}{\nu} = 5 \times 10^5 \tag{4.4}$$

This critical value, however, strongly depends on the surface roughness and the turbulence level of the free stream. For example, with large disturbances in the free stream, the transition may begin at a Reynolds number as low as 10^5, and for flows which are free from disturbances, it may not start until a Reynolds number of 10^6 or more.

The boundary layer concept for flow over a curved body is illustrated in Fig. 4.6. Here, the x-coordinate is measured along the curved surface of the body. By starting from the stagnation point and at each x-location, the y-coordinate is measured normal to the surface of the body. The free-stream velocity $u_\infty(x)$ is not constant, but varies with distance x along the curved surface. The boundary layer thickness $\delta(x)$ increases with distance x along the surface. However, because of the curvature of the surface, after some distance x, the velocity profile $u\ (x, y)$ exhibits a point of inflection, i.e. $\partial u/\partial y$ becomes zero at the wall surface. Beyond the point of inflection, the flow reversal takes place, and the boundary layer is said to be detached from the surface. Beyond the point of flow reversal, the flow patterns are complicated with vortices and the boundary layer analysis does not hold good.

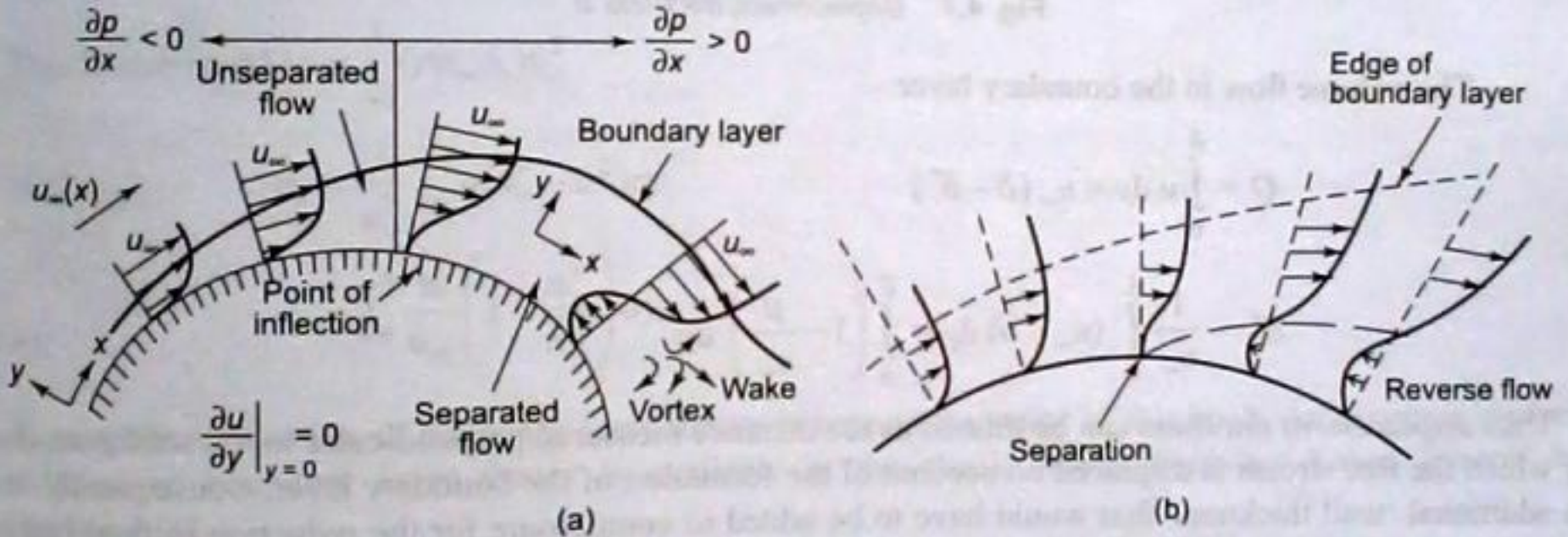


Fig. 4.6 *Boundary layer growth for flow along (a) a curved body and (b) circular cylinder*

It is being elucidated further. From Euler's equation for an inviscid flow, $u_\infty(x)$ exhibits behaviour opposite to that of $p(x)$. That is, from $u_\infty = 0$ at the stagnation point, the fluid accelerates because of the favourable pressure gradient ($du_\infty/dx > 0$ when $dp/dx < 0$), reaches a maximum velocity when $dp/dx = 0$, and decelerates because of the adverse pressure gradient ($du_\infty/dx < 0$ when $dp/dx > 0$). As the fluid decelerates, the velocity gradient at the surface, $(du/dy)_{y=0}$ eventually becomes zero. At this location, termed the *separation point*, fluid near the surface lacks sufficient momentum to overcome the pressure gradient, and continued downstream movement is impossible. Since the oncoming fluid also precludes flow back upstream, *boundary layer separation* must occur (Fig. 4.6). This is a condition for which the boundary layer detaches from the surface, and a *wake* is formed in the downstream region. Flow in this region is characterized by vortex formation and is highly irregular. The *separation point* is the location for which $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_s = 0$. The occurrence of *boundary layer transition* depends on the Reynolds number which strongly influences the position of the separation point and is defined by

$$\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{\rho u_m d}{\mu} = \frac{u_m d}{\nu}$$

where d is the diameter of the cylinder.

If a line 1–1 is drawn in the boundary layer and parallel to the boundary surface so that

$$\text{the area } 234 = \text{area } 256$$

the distance between the line 1–1 and the boundary line is called the *displacement thickness* (δ^*) (Fig. 4.7). Here δ^* represents the distance by which an equivalent uniform stream would have to be displaced from the surface to give the same volume flow of the fluid.

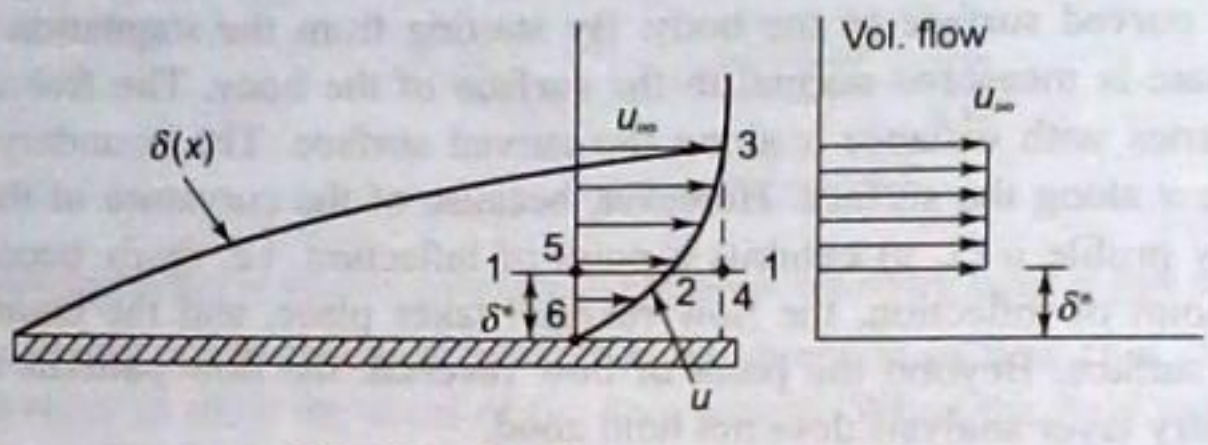


Fig. 4.7 *Displacement thickness* δ^*

The volume flow in the boundary layer

$$Q = \int_0^\delta u \, dy = u_\infty (\delta - \delta^*)$$

$$\delta^* = \frac{1}{u_\infty} \int_0^\delta (u_\infty - u) \, dy = \int_0^\delta \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{u_\infty}\right) dy \tag{4.5}$$

Thus *displacement thickness* can be difined as the distance measured perpendicular to the solid boundary by which the free stream is displaced on account of the formation of the boundary layer. Consequently, it is an additional 'wall thickness' that would have to be added to compensate for the reduction in flow rate on account of boundary layer formation.

In this regard, there are two similar terms called momentum thickness and energy thickness. The *momentum thickness* is defined as the distance from the solid boundary wall by which the boundary should be displaced to compensate for reduction in momentum of the flowing fluid on account of boundary layer formation.

Mass flow rate per second through an elementary strip dy in the boundary layer = $\rho u \, dy$

Momentum of the same mass of fluid = $\rho u^2 \, dy$

Momentum of the same fluid entering the boundary layer = $(\rho \, u dy) \, u_\infty$

Thus loss of momentum per second

$$= \rho u u_\infty \, dy - \rho u^2 \, dy = du \, (u_\infty - u) \, dy \ldots.$$

Let θ be the distance by which the plate is displaced had the fluid been flowing with a constant velocity u_∞

Then less of momentum of the fluid per second = $\rho \theta u_\infty^2$

Equating the two equations

$$\rho \theta u_\infty^2 = \int_0^\delta \rho u (u_\infty - u) \, dy$$

$$\therefore \qquad \theta = \int_0^\delta \frac{u}{u_\infty} \left(1 - \frac{u}{u_\infty}\right) dy.$$

where θ is the momentum thickness.

Similarly, the *energy thickness* is difined as the distance normal to the solid surface by which the boundary should be displaced to compensate for the reduction in KE of the flowing fluid on account of boundary layer formation. It is denoted by δ_e.

Mass flow per second through the elementary strip = $\rho u dy$.

KE of this fluid = $\frac{1}{2} mu^2 = \frac{1}{2}(\rho u dy)u^2$

KE of the same mass of fluid before entering the solid plate = $\frac{1}{2}(\rho u dy)u_\infty^2$

Loss of KE through the strip = $\frac{1}{2}(u\rho du)u_\infty^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\rho u dy)u^2$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\rho u(u_\infty^2 - u^2)\,dy$$

Total loss of KE of the fluid $= \int_0^\delta \frac{1}{2}\rho u(u_\infty^2 - u^2)$.

This is also equal to = $\frac{1}{2}(\rho u_\infty \delta_e)u_\infty^2$

$$\therefore \quad \delta_e = \frac{1}{u_\infty^3}\int_0^\delta u(u_\infty^2 - u^2)dy$$

$$= \int_0^\delta \frac{u}{u_\infty}\left(1 - \frac{u^2}{u_\infty^2}\right)dy$$

A complete discussion of boundary layer theory is beyond the scope of this book. An excellent analytic description of boundary layer theory is available in the classic book "Boundary Layer Theory" by Schlitchting [1].

4.1.2 Drag Coefficient and Drag Force

Let the velocity profile $u(x, y)$ in the boundary layer is known. The viscous shear stress τ_x acting on the wall at any location x is defined by

$$\tau_x = \mu\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} \tag{4.6}$$

and it can be determined from the known velocity profile. In practice, shear stress, or the local drag force per unit area τ_x, is related to local drag coefficient C_{f_x} by the relation

$$\tau_x = C_{f_x}\frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2} \tag{4.7}$$

Thus knowing the drag coefficient, one can calculate the drag force exerted by the fluid flowing over the flat plate. From Eqs (4.6) and (4.7), we have

$$C_{f_x} = \frac{2\nu}{u_\infty^2}\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} \tag{4.8}$$

Thus the local drag coefficient C_{f_x} can be determined from Eq. (4.8) if the velocity profile $u(x, y)$ in the boundary layer is known.

The mean value of the drag coefficient over the plate length L is

$$\bar{C}_f = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L C_{f_x}\,dx \tag{4.9}$$

Then the drag force F acting on the plate of length L and width b is equal to

$$\mathbf{F = bL\ \bar{C}_f\ \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2}}\ \text{newtons} \tag{4.10}$$

4.1.3 Thermal Boundary Layer

Analogous to the concept of velocity boundary layer, one can visualise the development of a thermal boundary layer with temperature varying from T_w to T_∞ in the boundary layer thickness δ_t (Fig. 4.8). Let us consider that a fluid at a uniform temperature T_∞ flows along a flat plate maintained at a constant temperature T_w. If we define the dimensionless temperature $\theta\,(x, y)$ as

$$\theta(x, y) = \frac{T_w - T}{T_w - T_\infty} \tag{4.11}$$

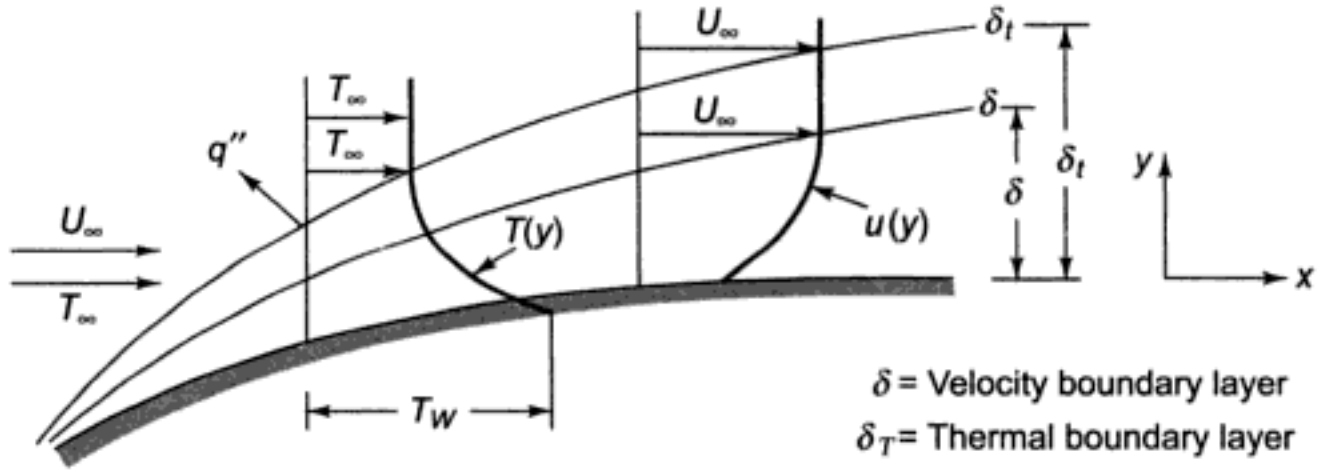


Fig. 4.8 *Growth of velocity and thermal boundary layers in flow over a flat surface of arbitrary shape*

where $T\,(x, y)$ is the local temperature in the fluid, then at $y = 0$, $\theta = 0$ and at $y = \infty$, $\theta = 1$. Therefore, at each location x along the plate one finds a location $y = \delta_t\,(x)$ in the fluid where θ equals 0.99. The locus of such points where $\theta = 0.99$ is called the *thermal boundary layer* $\delta_t\,(x)$.

The relative thickness of the thermal boundary layer $\delta_t(x)$ and the velocity boundary layer $\delta(x)$ depend on the Prandtl number of the fluid. For fluids having Pr = 1, $\delta_t\,(x) = \delta(x)$. For fluids having Pr << 1, such as liquid metals, $\delta_t >> \delta$, whereas for fluids having Pr >> 1, $\delta_t << \delta$.

4.1.4 Heat Transfer Coefficient

If the temperature profile $T\,(x, y)$ in the thermal boundary layer is known, then the heat flux

$$q\,(x) = -\,k\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} \tag{4.12}$$

where k is the thermal conductivity of the fluid. In practice, a local heat transfer coefficient $h\,(x)$ is defined as

$$q\,(x) = h_x\,(T_w - T_\infty) \tag{4.13}$$

which, as we saw before, is the *Newton's law of cooling*.

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From Eqs (4.12) and (4.13),

$$\mathbf{h_x = k\ \frac{(\partial T/\partial y)_{y=0}}{T_\infty - T_w} = k\left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}} \tag{4.14}$$

The local heat transfer coefficient h_x can be determined by knowing the dimensionless temperature distribution $\theta(x, y)$ in the thermal boundary layer. It decreases along the length (Fig. 4.9).

The mean heat transfer coefficient over the length L of the plate is

$$h_m = \bar{h}_c = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L h_x \, dx \tag{4.15}$$

The total heat transfer rate Q from the plate of length L and width b is

$$Q = b\, L\, h_m\, (T_w - T_\infty) \tag{4.16}$$

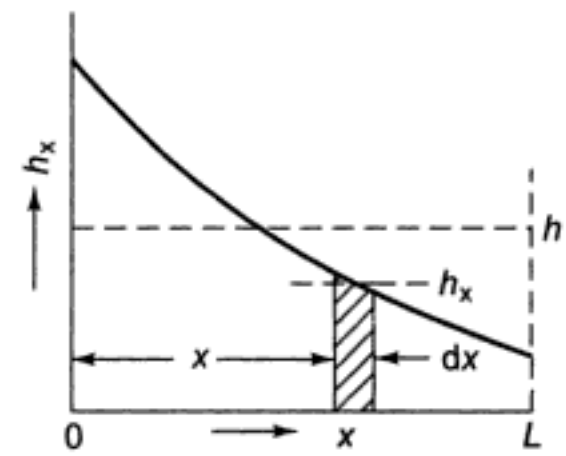


Fig. 4.9 *Mean heat transfer coefficinet,* $h_m = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L h_x\, dx$

The transfer of heat from the solid wall to the fluid takes place by a combination of conduction and mass transport. In laminar flow, heat is transferred by molecular conduction from streamline to streamline. In turbulent flow, the conduction mechanism is aided by innumerable eddies which carry lumps of fluid across the streamlines. These fluid particles act as carriers of energy and transfer energy by mixing with other fluid particles

$$\mathbf{Q = -k_f A\ \frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t} = hA\,(T_w - T_\infty)} \tag{4.17}$$

Since k_f of fluids is generally small (except liquid metals), the rate of heat transfer very much depends on the rate of mixing of fluid particles. Higher the Reynolds number, higher will be the rate of mixing, lower the value of δ_t and higher the values of h and Q.

4.2 CONSERVATION EQUATIONS OF MASS, MOMENTUM AND ENERGY FOR LAMINAR FLOW OVER A FLAT PLATE

To derive the conservation of mass or continuity equation, let us consider a control volume within the boundary layer as shown in Fig. 4.10 and assume that steady-state conditions prevail. The rates of mass flow into and out of the control volume in the x-direction are

$$M'_x = (\rho u)\, dy\, dz$$

and

$$M''_x = [\rho u + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u)\, dx]\, dy\, dz$$

Net mass flow in x-direction,

$$M'_x - M''_x = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u)\, dx\, dy\, dz$$

Similarly, net mass flow in y- and z-directions

$$M'_y - M''_y = -\frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v)\, dx\, dy\, dz$$

and

$$M'_z - M''_z = -\frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\rho w)\, dx\, dy\, dz$$

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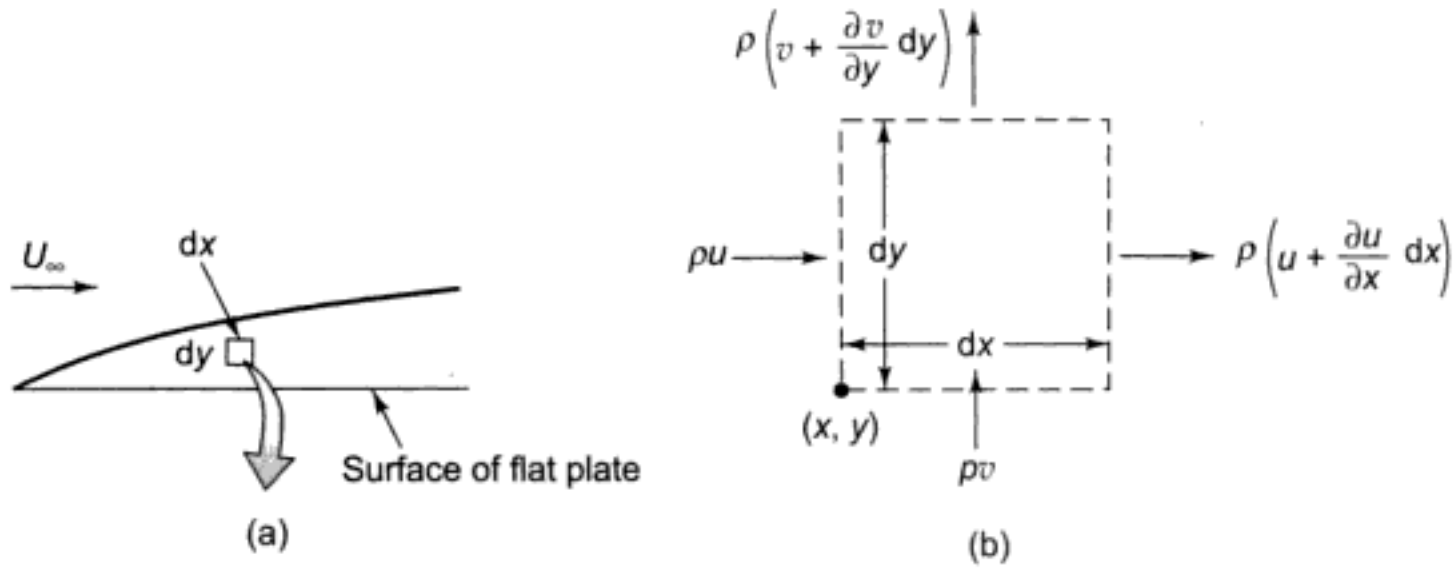


Fig. 4.10 *Control volume (dx dy. 1) for conservation of mass in an incompressible boundary layer in flow over a flat plate*

Net rate of mass accumulation within the control volume

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\,(\rho\,dx\,dy\,dz)$$

$$= -\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\rho w)\right] dx\,dy\,dz$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}\ \rho\bar{V} = 0 \tag{4.18}$$

For steady state,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0$$

$$\therefore \qquad \text{div}\ \rho\bar{V} = 0$$

For an incompressible fluid,

$$\text{div}\ \bar{V} = 0$$

i.e.,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0 \tag{4.19}$$

For a two-dimensional flow,

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

The same equation can also be derived vectorially. Let us consider a fixed control surface S enclosing a volume V (Fig. 4.11). The rate of accumulation of mass inside S must be equal to the rate of inflow across the control surface minus the rate of outflow.

Rate of accumulation of mass in the control volume

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\oint_V \rho\,dV$$

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Net rate of outflow across the control surface

$$\oint_S \rho \bar{v}\, dS$$

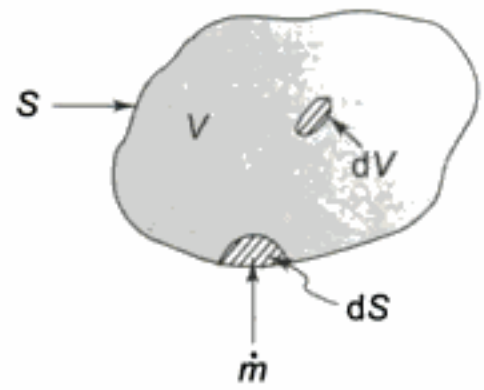


Fig. 4.11 *Control volume*

The surface integral is transformed to volume integral as

$$\oint_V \text{div}\,(\rho \bar{v})\, dV$$

By mass balance,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \oint_V \rho dV = -\oint_V \text{div}\,(\rho \bar{V})\, dV$$

Writing the conservation of mass equation for the differential volume dV with the integral sign removed

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho dV) = -\,\text{div}\,(\rho \bar{V})\, dV$$

Since dV is now independent, it is struck off from both sides of the above equation, and we obtain

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}\,(\rho \bar{V}) = 0$$

This is the same equation as Eq. (4.18).

By expansion of Eq. (4.18)

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z}(\rho w) = 0$$

or

$$\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\rho}}{\partial \mathbf{t}} + \boldsymbol{\rho}\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}\right) + \mathbf{u}\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\rho}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{v}\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\rho}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{w}\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\rho}}{\partial \mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{0} \tag{4.20}$$

The expressions $u\dfrac{\partial \rho}{\partial x}$, etc. describe the changes in density suffered by the differential element as a result of displacements of the type $dx = u\,dt$, etc. to a new position, at which the density has a different local value. The expressions are said to denote the components of the convective rate of change of density, while the term $\partial\rho/\partial t$ denotes the local time rate of change of density. The sum of local and convective components gives the total or "substantial" rate of change of density, for which the notation $D\rho/Dt$ is usually employed. Thus

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + u\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} + w\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} \tag{4.21}$$

The continuity equation may be written as

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} + \rho\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\right) = 0$$

or

$$\frac{D\rho}{Dt} = -\rho\,\text{div}\,V \tag{4.22}$$

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Similarly, if the velocity $u = u\,(x, y, z, t)$, then the acceleration of the fluid particle is

$$\frac{Du}{Dt} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\frac{\partial x}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\frac{\partial y}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial z}\frac{\partial z}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial t}$$

$$= \underbrace{\mathbf{u}\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{v}\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{w}\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{z}}}_{\textbf{Convective differential}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{t}}}_{\textbf{Local differential}}$$

The *conservation of momentum equation* is obtained from application of Newton's second law of motion to the element. Let us consider in the flow of a fluid within the laminar boundary layer an elementary parallelepiped of sides dx, dy and dz (Fig. 4.12).

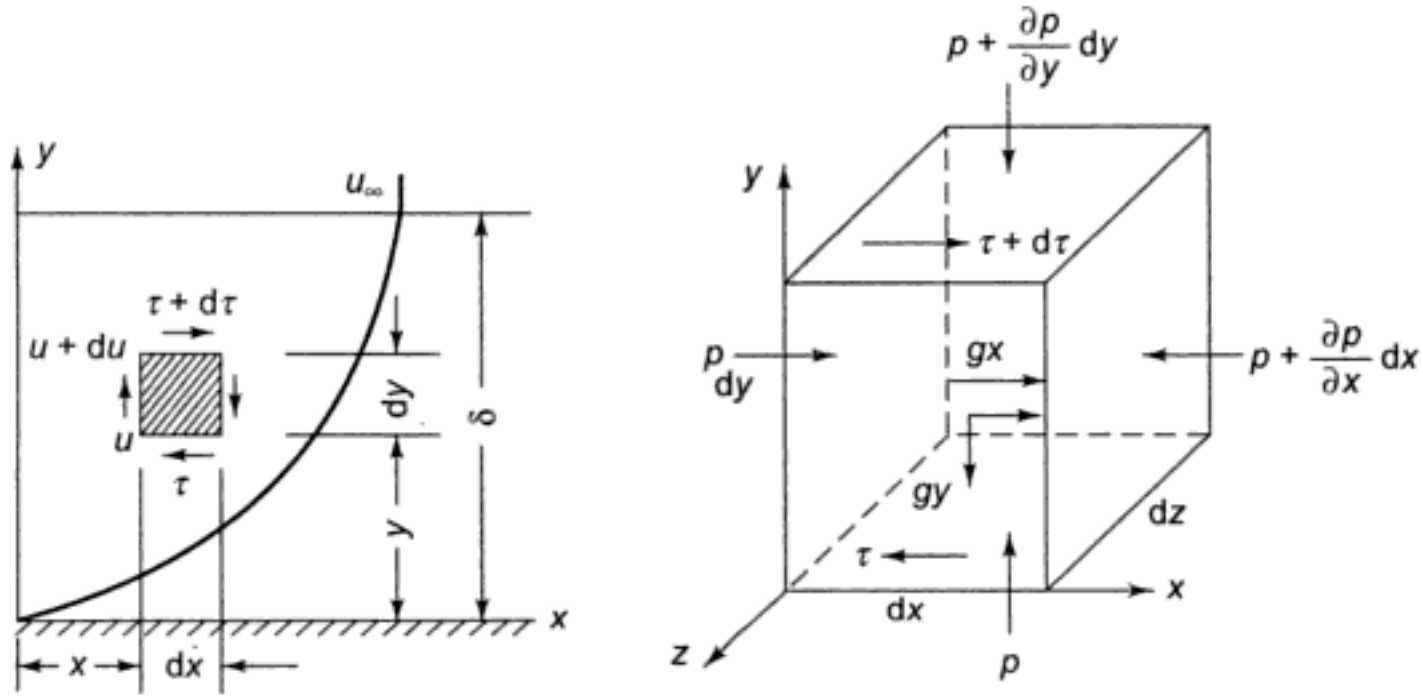


Fig. 4.12 *Forces acting on a fluid element*

Three forces act on the element: inertia force, pressure force and viscous or friction force.
Let us consider forces only in x-direction.

Inertia force:

$$F_g = g_x \rho\, dx\, dy\, dz \tag{4.23}$$

Pressure force:

$$F_p = p\, dy\, dz - \left(p + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} dx\right) dy\, dz$$

$$= -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} dx\, dy\, dz \tag{4.24}$$

Viscous force:

The velocity of fluid particles at the bottom surface of the element is less than that of the particles within the element. Therefore, the shear stress will develop which would tend to oppose the flow and the shear force is $-\tau dx\, dz$. On the top surface of the element the particles above $(y + dy)$ move at a velocity exceeding that of the particles within the element and hence would tend to accelerate and the shear force would be $\left(\tau + \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial y} dy\right) dx\, dz$

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Therefore, the net shear force is $\frac{\partial \tau}{\partial y}\,dx\,dy\,dz$

or

$$F_\tau = \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial y}dx\,dy\,dz = \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\mu\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)dx\,dy\,dz$$

$$= \mu\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}dx\,dy\,dz$$

This applies only to one-dimensional flow. In three dimensions,

$$F_\tau = \mu\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2}\right)dx\,dy\,dz$$

$$= \mu\nabla^2 u\,dx\,dy\,dz \tag{4.25}$$

Adding Eqs (4.23), (4.24) and (4.25), the x-axis component of the resultant of all the forces acting upon the considered elemental volume.

$$F_x = F_g + F_p + F_\tau = g_x\rho\,dv - \frac{\partial p}{\partial V}dv + \mu\nabla^2 u\,dv$$

where $dv = dx\,dy\,dz$

or

$$F_x = \left(g_x\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu\nabla^2 u\right)dv \tag{4.26}$$

By Newton's second law of motion

$$F_x = (\rho dv)\frac{Du}{Dt} = \left(g_x\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu\nabla^2 u\right)dv$$

or

$$\rho\frac{\mathbf{Du}}{\mathbf{Dt}} = \rho\mathbf{g_x} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \mu\nabla^{\mathbf{2}}\mathbf{u} \tag{4.27}$$

The components of the resultant force along the y- and z-directions can similarly be obtained

$$\rho\frac{Dv}{Dt} = g_y\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \mu\nabla^2 v \tag{4.28}$$

$$\rho\frac{Dw}{Dt} = g_z\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \mu\nabla^2 w \tag{4.29}$$

This system of three Eqs (4.27), (4.28) and (4.29) is known as *Navier-Stokes differential equation* for incompressible viscous liquids. For compressible fluids it can be shown [1 – 3]

$$\rho\frac{Du}{Dt} = g_x\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu\nabla^2 u + \frac{1}{3}\mu\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\,\mathrm{div}\,\bar{V}$$

$$= g_x\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu\left(\nabla^2 u + \frac{1}{3}\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\,\mathrm{div}\,\bar{V}\right) \tag{4.30}$$

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$$\rho\frac{\mathbf{Dv}}{\mathbf{Dt}} = \mathbf{g}_y\rho - \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} + \mu\left(\nabla^2\mathbf{v} + \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{3}}\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\mathbf{div}\ \bar{\mathbf{V}}\right) \tag{4.31}$$

$$\rho\frac{Dw}{Dt} = g_z\rho - \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \mu\left(\nabla^2 w + \frac{1}{3}\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\operatorname{div}\bar{V}\right) \tag{4.32}$$

or

$$\rho\frac{D\bar{V}}{Dt} = G - \operatorname{grad} p + \mu\left(\nabla^2\bar{V} + \frac{1}{3}\operatorname{grad}\operatorname{div}\bar{V}\right) \tag{4.33}$$

For incompressible fluids

$$\operatorname{div}\bar{V} = 0.$$

The Navier–Stokes equations, together with the continuity equation, form the basis of the mechanics of viscous fluids. They together represent four equations for the four unknowns u, v, w and p. In the case of compressible fluids we encounter an additional unknown ρ, but we also have at our disposal the equation of state.

We will now derive the *conservation of energy* applied to the fluid element. The equation governing the conduction of heat in a stationary medium, in the absence of heat sources, is

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha\nabla^2 T$$

where $\partial T/\partial t$ is the local differential or the rate of change of temperature at a point which is stationary.

If the medium is in motion, as in the case of a fluid, the total or substantial rate of change of temperature is required, which is given below.

$$\frac{DT}{Dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

$$= \alpha\nabla^2 T = \alpha\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}\right) \tag{4.34}$$

In presence of large pressure gradients or for fluids moving at high velocities, two additional terms must be included to account for the compression work and for the dissipation of energy due to friction.

The complete energy equation for a compressible fluid may thus be written as

$$\rho c_p\frac{DT}{Dt} - \frac{Dp}{Dt} = k\nabla^2 T + \mu\phi(V) \tag{4.35}$$

where $\phi(V)$ denotes the *dissipation function*, first used by Lord Rayleigh, and given by [1]

$$\phi(V) = 2\left[\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial w}{\partial z}\right)^2\right] + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right)^2$$

$$+\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial x}\right) - \frac{2}{3}(\operatorname{div}\bar{V})^2 \tag{4.36}$$

The effect of viscous dissipation can be significant if the fluid is very viscous, as in journal bearings, or if the fluid shear rate is very high [2, 3].

From Eq. (4.34), the following two-dimensional expression for the energy equation without dissipation is obtained

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$$u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}=\alpha\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}\right) \tag{4.37}$$

Since the boundary layer is quite thin, under normal conditions $\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} >> \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$. Also the pressure term in the momentum equation, Eq. (4.27), is zero for flow over a flat plate, since $\left(\frac{\partial u_\infty}{\partial x}\right) = 0$. Eq. (4.27) thus reduces to

$$u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}=\nu\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2}\right) \tag{4.38}$$

Then the similarity between the momentum and energy equations becomes apparent, as given below

$$u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}=\nu\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}\right) \tag{4.39a}$$

and

$$u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}=\alpha\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}\right) \tag{4.39b}$$

where ν is the kinematic or momentum diffusivity and α is the thermal diffusivity, the dimensions of both being m^2/s. The ratio of these two transport properties is called the *Prandtl number*, Pr. Therefore,

$$\text{Pr}=\frac{\nu}{\alpha}=\frac{\rho\mu c_p}{\rho k}=\frac{\mu c_p}{k} \tag{4.40}$$

If $\nu = \alpha$, then Pr = 1, and the momentum and energy equations are identical. For this condition, nondimensional solutions of $u(y)$ and $T(y)$ are identical if the boundary conditions are similar. Thus, it is apparent that the Prandtl number controls the relation between the velocity and temperature distributions.

The conditions which are important to study in the analysis of a heat transfer process are

(a) *Geometric conditions:* Round, rectangular, smooth or rough
(b) *Physical conditions:* Properties of the fluid like oil, water, air etc., c_p, μ, k and ρ
(c) *Boundary conditions:* Velocity and temperature distribution
(d) *Time condition:* Steady, unsteady, periodic etc.

Any flow or heat transfer problem can be solved by solving mass, momentum and energy equations with appropriate boundary conditions, but in actual cases we often find analytical solutions very complex and difficult. Broad simplifying assumptions are frequently needed to arrive at a solution, and the experimental results vary widely from the theoretical data.

4.3 PRINCIPLE OF SIMILARITY APPLIED TO HEAT TRANSFER

The concept of similarity is derived from geometry. Two bodies are considered similar when their corresponding linear dimensions are in a constant ratio to one another (Fig. 4.13), such that in the two triangles

$$\frac{l_1}{l_1'}=\frac{l_2}{l_2'}=\frac{l_3}{l_3'}=C, \text{ similarity constant}$$

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The concept of physical similarity demands in addition to the above that all the other physical quantities involved in a given pair of systems, e.g. force, time intervals, velocities and temperatures, are respectively proportional to one another. For two similar systems

$$\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1} = f_\rho, \quad \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_1} = f_\mu, \quad \frac{T_2}{T_1} = f_T$$

and so on,
where f_ρ, f_μ and f_T are similarity parameters for density, viscosity and temperature respectively.

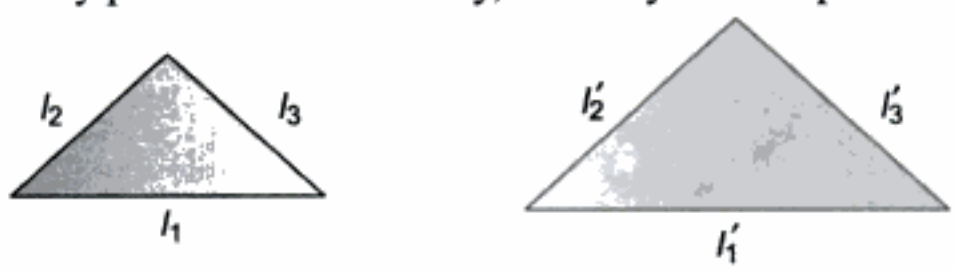


Fig. 4.13 *Geometrical similarity of two triangles*

The physical laws discovered on the basis of the study of a model would apply not only to the original system, but also to an infinite number of other systems, provided they are physically similar to the model.

The methods of similarity allow us to generalize the experimental results with the aid of model rules [4, 7]. These model rules help to establish dimensionless parameters which must have the same values for both the model and the original system.

By Newton's laws of motion,

$$P = mf = \frac{mu}{t}$$

so that
$$P_1 = \frac{m_1 u_1}{t_1} \text{ and } P_2 = \frac{m_2 u_2}{t_2}$$

$$\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{m_2}{m_1}\frac{u_2}{u_1}\frac{t_1}{t_2}$$

or
$$f_p = f_m \frac{f_u}{f_t}$$

so that
$$\frac{f_p f_t}{f_m f_u} = \frac{P_1 t_1}{m_1 u_1} = \frac{P_2 t_2}{m_2 u_2} = \text{Ne or Newton number}$$

The dimensioned quantities are grouped together to yield meaningful dimensionless parameters.

4.3.1 Derivation of Dimensionless Parameters from the Differential Equations

The laws of similarity, as applied to heat transfer, were obtained for the first time by Nusselt, who derived the dimensionless parameters appropriate to forced and free convection from the differential equations together with the respective boundary conditions.

(a) Forced Convection

Let us consider two pipes of different diameters, each carrying a steady flow of a different fluid (Fig. 4.14). Both fluids are incompressible. Each flow is generated by pressure difference applied at the ends of the pipe. Each flow is classified as forced convection. The fluids exchange heat with the walls of the pipes, the actual direction of the heat flow being immaterial i.e., one fluid may be cooled while the other may be heated by the pipe. The physical properties of the fluid are assumed to be constant, independent of temperature. The flow of heat is considered to be steady.

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The entire flow and heat transfer processes are described by the continuity, momentum and energy equations:

Continuity equation:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div}\ \rho \bar{V} = 0$$

Momentum equation: (x-component)

$$\rho \frac{Du}{\bar{D}t} = \rho g - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu \nabla^2 u + \frac{1}{3}\mu \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \text{div}\ \bar{V}$$

Energy equation:

$$\frac{DT}{\bar{D}t} = \alpha \nabla^2 T$$

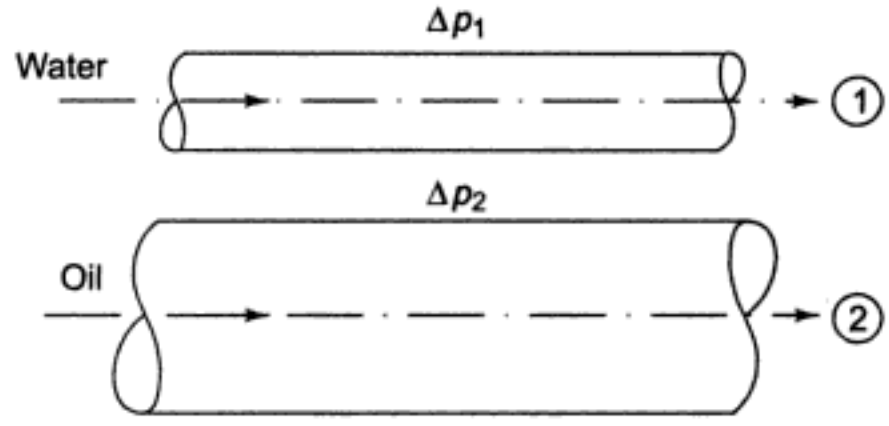


Fig. 4.14 *Application of similarity principle*

By denoting the quantities appropriate to each pipe by subscripts 1 and 2,
Continuity equation: Incompressible and steady flow, div $\bar{V} = 0$
For the first pipe,

$$\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_1} + \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial z_1} = 0 \tag{4.41}$$

Momentum equation: (x-component)
Forced convection, $\rho g = 0$; Steady state, $\partial u/\partial t = 0$

$$\therefore \quad u_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + v_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y_1} + w_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial z_1}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\rho_1}\frac{\partial p_1}{\partial x_1} + \nu_1 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial z_1^2} \right) \tag{4.42}$$

Energy equation:

$$u_1 \frac{\partial T_1}{\partial x_1} + v_1 \frac{\partial T_1}{\partial y_1} + w_1 \frac{\partial T_1}{\partial z_1}$$

$$= \alpha_1 \left(\frac{\partial^2 T_1}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T_1}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T_1}{\partial z_1^2} \right) \tag{4.43}$$

We can describe the heat flow at the wall in terms of heat transfer coefficient, and a mean temperature excess of the fluid θ_m above the measured wall temperature (Fig. 4.15).

$$\bar{q} = h(T_w - T_\infty) = -k \frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t} = h\theta_m$$

$$\bar{q}_1 = h_1 \theta_1 = -k_1 \left(\frac{\partial \theta_1}{\partial n_1} \right)_w \tag{4.44}$$

Identical equations and boundary conditions apply to the second pipe except for the suffix 1 being replaced by 2.

We now postulate that the two systems are physically similar. Thus for length scale, the proportionality factor f_L is defined as

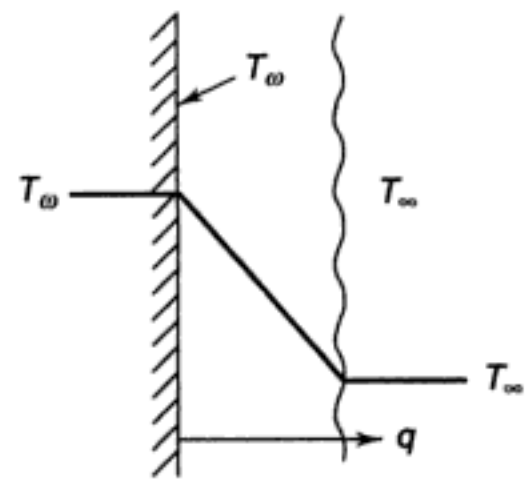


Fig. 4.15 *Heat transfer at the wall*

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$$f_L = \frac{L_2}{L_1}$$

Similarly, the other proportionality factors are listed below:

For the velocities u, v, w	$f_u = u_2/u_1$
For the pressure p	$f_p = p_2/p_1$
For the density	$f_\rho = \rho_2/\rho_1$
For the kinematic viscosity	$f_\nu = \nu_2/\nu_1$
For the temperature T and θ	$f_T = T_2/T_1$
For the thermal diffusivities	$f_\alpha = \alpha_2/\alpha_1$
For the heat transfer coefficients h	$f_h = h_2/h_1$
For the thermal conductivities k	$f_k = k_2/k_1$

(4.45)

If we now introduce these proportionality factors (or similarity constants) into the equations appropriate to the second pipe and take common factors outside the brackets, we obtain for the second pipe (putting $u_2 = f_u \cdot u_1$, $T_2 = f_T \cdot T_1$, $\nu_2 = f_\nu \cdot \nu_1$ and so on):

Continuity equation:

$$\frac{f_u}{f_L}\left(\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial y_1} + \frac{\partial w_1}{\partial z_1}\right) = 0 \tag{4.46}$$

x-Momentum equation:

$$\frac{f_u^2}{f_L}\left(u_1\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + v_1\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y_1} + w_1\frac{\partial u_1}{\partial z_1}\right)$$

$$= -\frac{f_p}{f_L f_\rho}\frac{1}{\rho_1}\frac{\partial p_1}{\partial x_1} + \frac{f_\nu f_u}{f_L^2}\nu_1\left(\frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial z_1^2}\right) \tag{4.47}$$

Energy equation:

$$\frac{f_u f_T}{f_L}\left(u_1\frac{\partial T_1}{\partial x_1} + v_1\frac{\partial T_1}{\partial y_1} + w_1\frac{\partial T_1}{\partial z_1}\right)$$

$$= \frac{f_\alpha f_T}{f_L^2}\alpha_1\left(\frac{\partial^2 T_1}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T_1}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T_1}{\partial z_1^2}\right) \tag{4.48}$$

Equation describing the heat flow:

$$f_h f_T f h_1\ \theta m_1 = -\frac{f_k f_T}{f_L} k\left(\frac{\partial \theta_1}{\partial n_1}\right)_w \tag{4.49}$$

These Eqs (4.46 – 4.49) describe the processes in the second pipe, but they become identical with those of the first pipe [Eqs (4.41) – (4.44)] if the following conditions are satisfied:

$$\frac{f_u^2}{f_L} = \frac{f_p}{f_L f_\rho} = \frac{f_\nu f_u}{f_L^2} \tag{4.50}$$

$$\frac{f_u f_T}{f_L} = \frac{f_\alpha f_T}{f_L^2} \tag{4.51}$$

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$$f_h f_T = \frac{f_k f_T}{f_L} \tag{4.52}$$

It may be noticed that the continuity equation yields no condition for the proportionality constants, since the value of f_u/f_L is arbitrary. If we now substitute for the proportionality factors from Eq. (4.45), we obtain the conditions which must be satisfied for physical similarity to exist between our two systems and to permit one system to be considered as a model of the other. From Eq. (4.50):

$$\frac{u_2^2}{u_1^2}\frac{L_1}{L_2} = \frac{p_2}{p_1}\frac{L_1}{L_2}\frac{\rho_1}{\rho_2} = \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}\frac{u_2}{u_1}\frac{L_1^2}{L_2^2}$$

$$\frac{u_2 L_2}{\nu_2} = \frac{u_1 L_1}{\nu_1} = \frac{uL}{\nu} \tag{4.53}$$

$$\frac{\rho_1 u_1^2}{p_1} = \frac{\rho_2 u_2^2}{p_2} = \frac{\rho u^2}{p} \tag{4.54}$$

From Eq. (4.51):

$$\frac{u_2}{u_1}\frac{T_2}{T_1}\frac{L_1}{L_2} = \frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1}\frac{T_2}{T_1}\frac{L_1^2}{L_2^2}$$

$$\frac{u_2 L_2}{\alpha_2} = \frac{u_1 L_1}{\alpha_1} = \frac{uL}{\alpha} \tag{4.55}$$

From Eq. (4.52):

$$\frac{h_2}{h_1}\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \frac{k_2}{k_1}\frac{T_2}{T_1}\frac{L_1}{L_2}$$

$$\frac{h_2 L_2}{k_2} = \frac{h_1 L_1}{k_1} = \frac{hL}{k} \tag{4.56}$$

Following a suggestion by Gröber [6], the resulting dimensionless parameters are designated with the names of outstanding scientists in the field

$$\frac{uL}{\nu} = \text{Re} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{N}_{\text{Re}}, \quad \text{Reynolds number}$$

$$\frac{uL}{\alpha} = \text{Pe} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{N}_{\text{Pe}}, \quad \text{Peclet number}$$

$$\frac{hL}{k} = \text{Nu} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{N}_{\text{Nu}}, \quad \text{Nusselt number}$$

The dimensionless product $(\rho u^2)/p$ does not represent a true similarity parameter, since the pressure in a channel with prescribed dimensions and velocities, adjusts itself to the correct value in accordance with Eq. (4.42). Thus the flow is determined by the Reynolds number alone, if geometrically similar boundaries are assumed.

In addition to the three similarity parameters derived above, we may choose to use any combinations of them, as long as a total number of three independent parameters is preserved. Thus, for example, the ratio

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Pe/Re = v/α = Pr or N_{pr}, Prandtl number is particularly useful, because it contains only the properties of the fluid.

Our original problem is thus solved, since if the three dimensionless parameters Re, Pr and Nu are equal in both the systems, then the two systems are physically similar and constant proportions exist between all quantities concerned. This may be immediately extended to include all geometrically similar systems (i.e. all circular pipes) for which the dimensionless parameters have the same values. If we can obtain the solution for any one system by any means, e.g. empirically, it must be possible to write this solution in the form

$$F(\text{Re}, \text{Pr}, \text{Nu}) = 0 \tag{4.57}$$

and it is valid for all the systems characterised by the same values of the dimensionless parameters.

To obtain an expression for a given variable, for instance h, from Eq. (4.57), we solve the equation explicitly for the parameter which contains the variable, i.e. Nu.

$$\text{Nu} = F(\text{Re}, \text{Pr}) \tag{4.57a}$$

or
$$h = \frac{k}{L} F(\text{Re}, \text{Pr}) \tag{4.58}$$

Hence, the heat transfer coefficient may be predicted for all similar systems from a single model experiment. Equations (4.57a) and (4.58) also express the fact that the flow of the fluid is not affected by the heat transfer. The momentum equation, Eq. (4.42) yields as a single dimensionless parameter the Reynolds number.

(b) Free Convection

Equation (4.57) is valid for forced convection only. In the case of free convection, the buoyancy force experienced by a fluid system at a higher temperature i.e., at a lower density, than the surrounding fluid must be introduced into the momentum equation as a body force. Let us consider, as an example, a vertical wall at a temperature higher than that of the surrounding fluid (Fig. 4.16). The fluid layer heated up by the wall suffers a decrease in density and as a result experiences an upthrust relative to the surrounding fluid. The change in the specific volume $v_s = 1/\rho$ with temperature may be expressed in terms of coefficient of thermal expansion

$$\beta = \frac{1}{v_s}\left(\frac{\partial v_s}{\partial T}\right)_p$$

where v_s is the specific volume.

We will assume that only density varies with temperature, while other properties (μ, c_p, k) are still assumed constant.

For an ideal gas,

$$pv_s = RT \text{ or } v_s = \frac{RT}{p}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial v_s}{\partial T}\right)_p = \frac{R}{T} = \frac{v_s}{T}$$

$$\therefore \quad \beta = \frac{1}{T}$$

Buoyancy force per unit mass is $(\rho_o - \rho)\, g/\rho$.

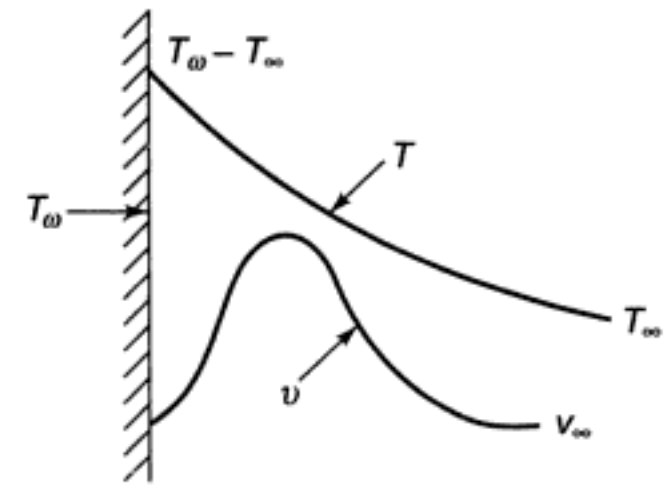


Fig. 4.16 *Temperature and velocity distribution in natural convection*

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Now, $$\nu = \nu_o (1 + \beta\theta)$$

where $\theta = T - T_o$ = excess temperature

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{1}{\rho_o}(1 + \beta\theta)$$

or $$\rho_o = \rho + \rho\beta\theta$$

$$\rho_o - \rho = \rho\beta\theta$$

Buoyancy force per unit mass is $\rho\beta\theta g/\rho = \beta\theta g$.

Buoyancy force per unit volume, $G = \beta\theta g\rho$

This is directed upward. By introducing this body force in the momentum equation, Eq. (4.42),

$$u_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial x_1} + v_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial y_1} + w_1 \frac{\partial u_1}{\partial z_1} = -\frac{1}{\rho_1}\frac{\partial p_1}{\partial x_1} + g_1 \beta_1 \theta_1 + \nu_1 \left(\frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u_1}{\partial z_1^2} \right) \tag{4.59}$$

The subscript 1 refers to the model of a system, while subscript 2 refers to the system itself. To describe the system itself, we require, in addition to the proportionality factors of Eq. (4.45), two more such factors defined by $f_\beta = \beta_2/\beta_1$ and $f_g = g_2/g_1$.

In accordance with the procedure adopted for forced convection earlier, we obtain the following condition

$$\frac{f_u^2}{f_L} = \frac{f_p}{f_L f_\rho} = f_g f_T f_\beta = \frac{f_\nu f_u}{f_L^2} \tag{4.60}$$

Since the pressure differences in a free convection flow are generally negligible, the second term of Eq. (4.60) does not yield any dimensionless parameter. Unlike forced convection there exists no prescribed velocity. The fluid velocity is zero both at the plate and at a large distance from it, outside the boundary layer. The ratio f_u is thus largely meaningless and may be eliminated. For Eq. (4.60),

$$\frac{f_u^2}{f_L} = f_g f_T f_\beta = \frac{f_\nu \ f_u}{f_L^2}$$

Equating the first and third terms, $f_u = f_\nu/f_L$, and substituting

$$f_g f_T f_\beta = \frac{f_\nu^2}{f_L^3}$$

$$\frac{g_2}{g_1}\frac{\theta_2}{\theta_1}\frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1} = \frac{\nu_2^2}{\nu_1^2}\frac{L_1^3}{L_2^3}$$

$$\frac{g_2 \beta_2 \theta_2 L_2^3}{\nu_2^2} = \frac{g_1 \beta_1 \theta_1 L_1^3}{\nu_1^2} = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} = \text{Gr}$$

where Gr = Grashof number = $\dfrac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2}$

Equations (4.51) and (4.52) representing energy and heat transfer equations are equally valid for free convection.

$$\frac{f_u f_T}{f_L} = \frac{f_\alpha f_T}{f_L^2} \text{ and } f_h f_T = \frac{f_k f_T}{f_L}$$

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Substituting, $f_u = \dfrac{f_v}{f_L}$ in the first equation i.e., Eq (4.51)

$$\frac{f_v f_T}{f_L^2} = \frac{f_\alpha f_T}{f_L^2}$$

$$f_v = f_\alpha \quad \text{or} \quad \nu_2/\nu_1 = \alpha_2/\alpha_1$$

$$\frac{\nu_2}{\alpha_2} = \frac{\nu_1}{\alpha_1} = \frac{\nu}{\alpha} \text{ Pr, the Prandtl number}$$

Again, $$f_h f_T = \frac{f_k f_T}{f_L}$$

which yields hL/k = Nu, the Nusselt number.

Thus, the heat transfer in free convection can be described by the equation

$$\text{Nu} = F(\text{Gr}, \text{Pr}) \tag{4.61}$$

(c) Unsteady Heat Conduction

Fourier's differential equation for unsteady heat conduction can be treated in the same manner in which we have handled the equations of forced and free convection. For one-dimensional heat flow, we have

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2}$$

For physical similarity between a system and its model, we have to introduce an additional proportionality factor for time $f_t = t_2/t_1$. Following the same procedure, we obtain

$$\frac{f_T}{f_t} = \frac{f_\alpha f_T}{f_L^2}$$

$$\frac{\alpha t}{L^2} = \text{constant} \tag{4.62}$$

It is the Fourier number, Fo, which is often referred to as *dimensionless time*.

4.4 EVALUATION OF CONVECTION HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENTS

In convection heat transfer the key unknown is the heat transfer coefficient. Five general methods are available for its evaluation:

1. Dimensional analysis combined with experiments.
2. Exact mathematical solutions of the boundary layer equations.
3. Approximate analysis of the boundary layer equations by integral methods.
4. Analogy between heat and momentum transfer.
5. Numerical analysis.

All five of these techniques have contributed to our understanding of convection heat transfer. Yet no single method can solve all the problems because each one has limitations that restrict its scope of application.

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1. *Dimensional analysis:* It is mathematically simple and has found a wide range of applications [4, 7]. The chief limitation of this method is that the results obtained are incomplete and quite useless without experimental data. Dimensional analysis makes little contribution to our understanding of the transfer process, but facilitates the interpretation and extends the range of experimental data by correlating them in terms of dimensionless groups.

   To correlate the experimental data there are two methods for determining dimensionless groups:

   (a) Enlisting the variables pertinent to a phenomenon and rationally grouping them. This technique is simple to use, but if a pertinent variable is omitted, erroneous results ensue.

   (b) Dimensionless groups and similarity conditions are deduced from the differential equations describing the phenomenon. This method, as presented in the previous section, is preferable if the phenomenon can be described mathematically.

2. Exact mathematical analyses require simultaneous solution of the equations describing the fluid motion and the transfer of energy in the moving fluid [5]. The physics of the problem must be well understood to describe it mathematically. Complete mathematical equations can be written only for laminar flow under simple boundary conditions. Exact solutions are, however, important because the assumptions made can be specified precisely and their validity can be verified experimentally. Availability of high speed computers has increased the range of problems amenable to mathematical solution.

3. *Approximate analysis of boundary layer:* It avoids the detailed mathematical description of the flow in the boundary layer. Instead, a plausible but simple equation is used to describe the velocity and temperature profiles in the boundary layer. The problem is then analysed on a macroscopic basis by applying the equation of motion and the energy equation to the fluid in the boundary layer. This method is relatively simple and yields solutions within engineering accuracy to problems that cannot be treated by an exact mathematical analysis.

4. *Analogy between heat and momentum transfer:* It is a useful tool for analysing turbulent transfer processes. Our knowledge of turbulent-exchange mechanisms is not good enough to write mathematical equations describing the temperature distribution directly, but the transfer mechanism can be explained in terms of a simplified model. One such model explains a mixing motion in a direction perpendicular to the mean flow accounting for the transfer of momentum as well as energy, similar to that used to picture the motion of gas molecules in the kinetic theory. Experimental results are substantially in agreement with analytical predictions based on the model.

5. *Numerical methods:* They can solve approximately the equations of motion and energy [8, 9]. The approximation results from the need to express the field variables (velocity, temperature and pressure) at discrete points in time and space rather than continuously. However, the solution can be made sufficiently accurate if care is taken in discretising the exact solutions. One of the most important features of numerical methods is that once the solution procedure has been programmed, solutions for different boundary conditions, property variables and so on can be easily computed. Generally, numerical methods can handle complex boundary conditions easily [9].

4.5 DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS

In engineering, we represent physical concepts by symbols or dimensions, as for instance length by L and velocity by V. Through experience, we have learned that we can select a certain number of dimensions as fundamental, and express all other dimensions in terms of products of powers of these fundamental dimensions. The dimensions of commonly used quantities in heat transfer analysis are listed in Table 4.1 with four fundamental dimensions: mass M, length L, time t and temperature T. For example, the dimension

of heat transfer coefficient is W/m^2 K. In MLtT system, it is (Nm/s) ($1/m^2K$) or, (kg m/s^2) (1/s m K) or kg/s^3 K which is M/t^3T (or $Mt^{-3}\,T^{-1}$). Similarly, all other quantities can be expressed in fundamental dimensions, as given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 *Important heat transfer physical quantities and their dimensions*

Quantity	*Symbol*	*Dimensions in MLtT system*
Length	L, x, y	L
Time	t	t
Mass	M	M
Force	F	MLt^{-2}
Temperature	T	T
Heat transfer	Q	ML^2t^{-2}
Velocity	$u, \bar{v}, u_\infty$	Lt^{-1}
Acceleration	a, g	Lt^{-2}
Work	W	ML^2t^{-2}
Pressure	p	$Mt^{-2}\,L^{-1}$
Density	ρ	ML^{-3}
Internal energy	e	L^2t^{-2}
Enthalpy	h	L^2t^{-2}
Specific heat	c	$L^2t^{-2}T^{-1}$
Absolute viscosity	μ	$ML^{-1}t^{-1}$
Kinematic viscosity	ν	L^2t^{-1}
Thermal conductivity	k	$MLt^{-3}\,T^{-1}$
Thermal diffusivity	α	L^2t^{-1}
Thermal resistance	R	$Tt^3\,M^{-1}L^{-2}$
Coefficient of expansion	β	T^{-1}
Surface tension	σ	Mt^{-2}
Shear stress	τ	$ML^{-1}t^{-2}$
Heat transfer coefficient	h	$Mt^{-3}\,T^{-1}$
Mass flow rate	m	Mt^{-1}

The methods of dimensional analysis are founded upon the principle of dimensional homogeneity, which states that all equations describing the behaviour of physical systems, must be dimensionally consistent i.e., each term with reference to a given set of fundamental dimensions must have the same dimensions. When the equations governing a process are known and solvable, dimensional analysis suggests logical grouping of quantities for presenting the results. When the mathematical equations governing certain processes are unknown or too complex, dimensional analysis lays the foundation of an efficient experimental program for obtaining the results, by reducing the number of variables requiring investigation and by indicating a possible form of the semi-empirical correlations that may be formulated. It should be borne in mind that dimensional analysis by itself cannot provide quantitative answers, and thus cannot be a substitute for the exact or the approximate mathematical solutions. It is nevertheless an important tool to learn to use, especially in instances when mathematical analysis is impractical or when some rapid, qualitative answers are needed.

The application of similarity principle to the continuity, momentum and energy equations for identifying the dimensionless parameters that govern the concerned process, which was discussed earlier, is also based on the principle of dimensional homogeneity. However, when the governing equations of a problem are unknown, an alternate approach in the application of dimensional analysis is necessary. At the very start, it is required to know, or more typically to guess, the independent variables that determine the behaviour of a particular dependent variable of interest. These can usually be found by logic or intuition developed from previous experiences with problems of a similar nature, but there is no way to ensure that all essential quantities have been included or not. Rayleigh first used this method and the rules of algebra to combine the many variables of a problem into dimensionless groups. We are providing in the next section two examples of application of Rayleigh's method.

4.5.1 Rayleigh's Methods

(a) Let us consider the frictional resistance of fluid flow per unit area of the inside surface of the pipe. A reasonable assumption can be made that the resistance which causes pressure drop of the fluid (Δp) is a function of tube diameter (D), fluid density (ρ), fluid velocity (u) and fluid viscosity (μ), or

$$\Delta p = f[u, D, \rho, \mu]$$

Let $$\Delta p = C u^a D^b \rho^c \mu^d$$

where C is a diamensionless constant.

The dimensional equation of the above expression in fundamental dimensions M, L and t are

$$\frac{MLt^{-2}}{L^2} = (Lt^{-1})^a L^b (ML^{-3})^c (ML^{-1} t^{-1})^d$$

$$ML^{-1} t^{-2} = L^{a+b-3c-d} t^{-a-d} M^{c+d}$$

For the homogeneity of M : $1 = c + d$,
L : $-1 = a + b - 3c - d$ and,
t : $-2 = -a - d$.

On solving these equations we have $b = -d$, $c = 1 - d$ and $a = 2 - d$.

$$\Delta p = C u^{2-d} D^{-d} \rho^{1-d} \mu^d$$

$$= C \rho u^2 \left(\frac{\mu}{\rho u D}\right)^d = C \frac{\rho u^2}{Re_d^d} \tag{4.63}$$

where $Re_d = \rho u D/\mu$ = Reynolds number.

The values of constants C and d have to be determined by experiments.

(b) Let us consider forced convection heat transfer between a fluid flowing through a pipe and its wall. We enlist the variables pertinent to the phenomenon by logic or intuition and group them into dimensionless parameters. Let us assume that the heat transfer coefficient h is a function of pipe diameter (D), fluid velocity (u), and the fluid properties of density (ρ), viscosity (μ), thermal conductivity (k) and specific heat (c_p), or

$$h = f[D, u, \rho, \mu, k, c_p]$$

$$h = B D^a u^b \rho^c \mu^d k^e c_p^f$$

where B is a constant.

Expressing the quantities in terms of fundamental dimensions M, L, t and T,

$$Mt^{-3}T^{-1} = BL^a (Lt^{-1})^b (ML^{-3})^c (ML^{-1}t^{-1})^d$$
$$(MLt^{-3}T^{-1})^e (L^2t^{-2}T^{-1})^f$$

or, $$Mt^{-3}T^{-1} = BL^{a+b-3c-d+e+2f} t^{-b-d-3e-2f} M^{c+d+e} T^{-e-f}$$

For dimensional homogeneity of

$$M: 1 = c + d + e$$
$$L: 0 = a + b - 3c - d + e + 2f$$
$$t: -3 = -b - d - 3e - 2f$$
$$T: -1 = -e - f$$

On solving the above equations, $a = c - 1$, $b = c$, $d = -c + f$ and $e = 1 - f$. Therefore,

$$h = BD^{c-1} u^c \rho^c \mu^{-c+f} k^{1-f} c_p^f$$

$$\frac{hD}{k} = B\left(\frac{uD\rho}{\mu}\right)^c \left(\frac{c_p\mu}{k}\right)^f$$

or, $$Nu_d = B\text{Re}_d^c \text{Pr} \tag{4.64}$$

where $\text{Re}_d = uD\rho/\mu$ = Reynolds number, $\text{Pr} = c_p\mu/k$ = Prandtl number and $Nu_d = hD/k$ = Nusselt number. Thus, in forced convection heat transfer, Nusselt number is a function of Reynolds number and Prandtl number. The constants B, c and f have to be evaluated from the experimental data.

4.5.2 Buckingham π-theorem

A simple and more systematic way of determining the dimensionless groups was suggested by Buckingham and has come to be known as "pi-theorem". If a small number of physical quantities is involved, the Rayleigh method is simpler. But if the number of physical quantities increases beyond a given limit, the procedure is tedious, and the pi-theorem may be used advantageously. More physical quantities simply mean a few more π-terms. Each π-term can be solved exactly the same way as in the case of fewer physical quantities.

According to the Buckingham π-theorem, any physical equation may be described by

$$\phi(Q_1, Q_2, Q_3, \cdots, Q_m) = 0 \tag{4.65}$$

which is a function of m common quantities $Q_1, Q_2, \cdots, Q_m$. If n fundamental dimensions M, L, t, T etc. are chosen, then the equation may be transformed into a new equation containing $(m - n)$ dimensionless terms represented by π as follows

$$\psi(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3 \cdots, \pi_{m-n}) \tag{4.66}$$

where each π-term consists of $(n + 1)$ quantities of Qs. To determine the π-terms, n of the Q quantities have to be so chosen that they contain all the fundamental dimensions M, L, t and T, and these are taken as repeating variables which form a dimensionless number with each of the remaining variables.

We are giving below a few examples illustrating the application of Buckingham π-theorem.

(a) We want to find out the relationship of pressure drop of a fluid per unit length of a pipe through which it is flowing. We know or guess that Δp depends upon the tube diameter (D), velocity (u), density (ρ) and viscosity (μ) of the fluid. The physical equation may be written as

$$\phi(\underline{u, D, \rho}, \mu, \Delta p) = 0 \tag{4.67}$$

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There are five variables, or $m = 5$. Let us suppose that the three fundamental dimensions are M, L and t, or $n = 3$. Therefore, the number of dimensionless π-terms = $m - n = 5 - 3 = 2$. Therefore, Eq. (4.67) can be written as

$$\psi(\pi_1, \pi_2) = 0 \tag{4.68}$$

where each π-term consists of $n + 1 = 3 + 1 = 4$ common quantities. Let the repeating variables (n) be u, D and ρ (which contain all the fundamental dimensions M, L and t), and these will form a dimensionless number with each of the remaining variables, i.e. Δp and μ.

Let $\pi_1 = \rho^a u^b D^c \Delta p,$

and $\pi_2 = \rho^e u^f D^g \mu$

Therefore,

$$\pi_1 = (\mathrm{ML^{-3}})^a (\mathrm{Lt^{-1}})^b (\mathrm{L})^c (\mathrm{Mt^{-2}L^{-2}})$$

$$\mathrm{M^0\, L^0\, t^0} = \mathrm{M}^{a+1}\mathrm{L}^{-3a+b+c-2}\mathrm{t}^{-b-2}$$

In order to make π_1 dimensionless, the exponents of M, L and t must all be equal to zero. For dimensional homogeneity,

$$\begin{aligned} a + 1 &= 0 \\ -3a + b + c - 2 &= 0 \\ -b - 2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

On solving we obtain $a = -1, b = -2, c = 1$.

$$\pi_1 = \rho^{-1} u^{-2} D\Delta p = \frac{\Delta p D}{\rho u^2} \tag{4.69}$$

Similarly,

$$\pi_2 = (\mathrm{ML^{-3}})^e (\mathrm{Lt^{-1}})^f (\mathrm{L})^g \mathrm{ML^{-1}\, t^{-1}}$$

or $$\mathrm{M^0\, L^0\, t^0} = \mathrm{M}^{e+1}\mathrm{L}^{-3e+f+g-1}\,\mathrm{t}^{-f-1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} e + 1 &= 0 \\ -3e + f + g - 1 &= 0 \\ -f - 1 &= 0 \\ e &= 1, f = -1, g = -1 \end{aligned}$$

or $$\pi_2 = \rho^{-1} u^{-1} D^{-1} \mu = \frac{\mu}{\rho D u} \tag{4.70}$$

Therefore, Eq. (4.68) can be written as

$$\psi\left(\frac{\Delta p D}{\rho u^2}, \frac{\mu}{\rho D u}\right) = 0 \tag{4.71}$$

It can be written as

$$\frac{\Delta p D}{\rho u^2} = \frac{1}{2}\zeta(\mathrm{Re}_d) \text{ where } \mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{\rho D u}{\mu}$$

or $$\Delta p = \frac{\rho u^2}{2D}\zeta(\mathrm{Re}_d)$$

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If the length of the pipe is L, the total pressure drop is

$$p_1 - p_2 = \Delta pL = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho u^2}{2} \tag{4.72}$$

where f is the Darcy-Weisbach friction factor for a smooth pipe, which is a function of Reynolds number, i.e. $f = \zeta(\mathrm{Re}_d)$.

(b) Forced Convection Heat Transfer

The heat transfer coefficient can be expressed as a functional relation

$$h = f(D, \rho, u, \mu, c_p, k)$$

or, $$\phi(D, \rho, u, \mu, c_p, k, h) = 0$$

Here, the number of variables, $m = 7$. Let the number of fundamental dimensions be $n = 4$, which are M, L, t and T. The number of π-terms = $m - n = 3$.

Therefore,

$$\psi(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3) = 0 \tag{4.73}$$

Each π-term is composed of $(n + 1)$ i.e., five quantities of which four are repeating variables, forming a dimensionless number with each of the remaining variables

$$\phi(\rho, D, u, c_p, \mu, k, h) = 0$$

Let ρ, D, u and c_p be taken as repeating variables which contain all the four fundamental dimensions M, L, t and T and which will make a dimensionless number with each of μ, k and h.

Let $$\pi_1 = \mu\rho^a D^b u^c c_p^d$$

$$\mathrm{M^0\,L^0\,t^0\,T^0} = \mathrm{ML^{-1}\,t^{-1}\,(ML^{-3})^a\,(L)^b\,(Lt^{-1})^c\,(L^2t^{-2}\,T^{-1})^d}$$

$$= \mathrm{M^{1+a}\,L^{-1-3a+b+c+2d}\,t^{-1-c-2d}\,T^{-d}}$$

Therefore,
$$0 = 1 + a$$
$$0 = -1 - 3a + b + c + 2d = 0$$
$$0 = 1 - c - 2d$$
$$0 = -d$$

Solving these, we obtain, $a = -1$, $b = -1$, $c = -1$ and $d = 0$.

$$\pi_1 = \mu\rho^{-1} D^{-1} u^{-1} c_p^0 = \frac{\mu}{\rho Du}$$

Similarly,

$$\pi_2 = k\rho^{a_1} D^{b_1} u^{c_1} c_p^{d_1}$$

$$= \mathrm{MLt^{-3}\,T^{-1}\,(ML^{-3})^{a_1}\,(L)^{b_1}\,(Lt^{-1})^{c_1}\,(L^2t^{-2}T^{-1})^{d_1}}$$

$$\mathrm{M^0\,L^0\,T^0\,t^0} = \mathrm{M^{1+a_1}\,L^{1-3a_1+b_1+c_1+2d_1}\,t^{-3-c_1-2d_1}\,T^{-1-d_1}}$$

$$1 + a_1 = 0, \quad 1 - 3a_1 + b_1 + c_1 + 2d_1 = 0, \quad -3 - c_1 - 2d_1 = 0,$$
$$-1 - d_1 = 0$$

Solving these equations, we obtain

$$a_1 = -1, \quad b_1 = -1, \quad c_1 = -1, \quad d_1 = -1$$

$$\pi_2 = k\rho^{-1} D^{-1} u^{-1} c_p^{-1} = \frac{k}{\rho Duc_p}$$

$$\pi_3 = h\rho^{a_2} D^{b_2} u^{c_2} c_p^{d_2}$$

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$$= (\mathrm{Mt^{-3}\,T^{-1}})\,(\mathrm{ML^{-3}})^{a_2}\,(\mathrm{L})^{b_2}\,(\mathrm{Lt^{-1}})^{c_2}\,(\mathrm{L^2\,t^{-2}\,T^{-1}})^{d_2}$$

$$\mathrm{M^0\,L^0\,t^0\,T^0} = \mathrm{M}^{1+a_2}\,\mathrm{L}^{-3a_2+b_2+c_2+2d_2}\,\mathrm{t}^{-3-c_2-2d_2}\,\mathrm{T}^{-1-d_2}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + a_2 &= 0 \\ -3a_2 + b_2 + c_2 + 2d_2 &= 0 \\ -3 - c_2 - 2d_2 &= 0 \\ 1 - d_2 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

On solving,

$$a_2 = -1, \quad b_2 = 0, \quad c_2 = -1, \quad d_2 = -1$$

$$\pi_3 = h\rho^{-1}\,D^0\,u^{-1}\,c_p^{-1} = \frac{h}{\rho c_p u}$$

$$\psi(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3) = 0$$

It can be written as

$$\pi_3 = B\pi_1^m\,\pi_2^n$$

$$\frac{h}{\rho c_p u} = B\left(\frac{\mu}{\rho D u}\right)^m \left(\frac{k}{\rho d u c_p}\right)^n$$

$$\frac{hD}{k}\cdot\frac{k}{\rho c_p u D} = B\left(\frac{\mu}{\rho D u}\right)^m \left(\frac{k}{\rho D u c_p}\right)^n$$

$$\frac{hD}{k} = B\left(\frac{\mu}{\rho D u}\right)^m \left(\frac{k}{\mu c_p}\cdot\frac{\mu}{\rho D u}\right)^{n-1}$$

$$= B\left(\frac{\rho D u}{\mu}\right)^{-m-n+1}\left(\frac{\mu c_p}{k}\right)^{1-n}$$

or, $$\mathrm{Nu}_d = B\mathrm{Re}_d^a\,\mathrm{Pr}^b \tag{4.74}$$

which is the same as Eq. (4.64).

(c) Free Convection Heat Transfer

The heat transfer coefficient depends upon the buoyancy force per unit mass ($g\beta\theta$), density (ρ), vertical height (L), viscosity (μ), thermal conductivity (k) and specific heat (c_p). Thus, it can be written

$$\phi(\rho, L, \mu, k, c_p, g\beta\theta, h) = 0 \tag{4.75}$$

The number of variables, $m = 7$. The number of fundamental dimensions, $n = 4$, as before. The number of π-terms $= 7 - 4 = 3$.

Each π-term will consist of (4 + 1) or 5 variables. Let ρ, L, μ and k be the repeating variables, which contain all the fundamental dimensions. Now,

$$\psi(\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3) = 0 \tag{4.76}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_1 &= \rho^a\,L^b\,\mu^c\,k^d\,g\beta\theta \\ &= (\mathrm{ML^{-3}})^a\,(\mathrm{L})^b\,(\mathrm{ML^{-1}\,t^{-1}})^c\,(\mathrm{MLt^{-3}\,T^{-1}})^d\,(\mathrm{Lt^{-2}}) \\ &= \mathrm{M}^{a+c+d}\,\mathrm{L}^{-3a+b-c+d+1}\,\mathrm{t}^{-c-3d-2}\,\mathrm{T}^{-d} \\ &= \mathrm{M^0L^0t^0T^0} \end{aligned}$$

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$$a + c + d = 0$$
$$-3a + b - c + d + 1 = 0$$
$$-c - 3d - 2 = 0$$
$$-d = 0$$

On solving we get $a = 2$, $b = 3$, $c = -2$ and $d = 0$

$$\pi_1 = \rho^2 L^3 \mu^{-2} k^0 g\beta\theta = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3 \rho^2}{\mu^2}$$

$$\pi_2 = \rho^{a_1} L^{b_1} m^{c_1} k^{d_1} c_p$$
$$= (ML^{-3})^{a_1} (L)^{b_1} (ML^{-1}t^{-1})^{c_1} (MLt^{-3}T^{-1})^{d_1} (L^2t^{-2}T^{-1})$$
$$= M^{a_1 + c_1 + d_1} L^{-3a_1 + b_1 - c_1 + d_1 + 2} t^{-c_1 - 3d_1 - 2} T^{-d - 1}$$
$$= M^0 L^0 t^0 T^0$$

$$a_1 + c_1 + d_1 = 0$$
$$-3a_1 + b_1 - c_1 + d_1 + 2 = 0$$
$$-c_1 - 3d_1 - 2 = 0$$
$$-d_1 - 1 = 0$$

Solving $a_1 = 0$, $b_1 = 0$, $c_1 = 1$ and $d_1 = -1$.

$$\pi_2 = \rho^0 L^0 \mu^1 k^{-1} c_p = \frac{\mu C_p}{k}$$

$$\pi_3 = \rho^{a_2} L^{b_2} m^{c_2} k^{d_2} h$$
$$= (ML^{-3})^{a_2} (L)^{b_2} (ML^{-1}t^{-1})^{c_2} (MLt^{-3}T^{-1})^{d_2} (Mt^{-3}T^{-1})$$
$$= M^{a_2 + c_2 + d_2 + 1} L^{-3a_2 + b_2 - c_2 + d_2} t^{-c_2 - 3d_2 - 3} T^{-d_2 - 1}$$
$$= M^0 L^0 t^0 T^0$$

$$a_2 + c_2 + d_2 + 1 = 0$$
$$-3a_2 + b_2 - c_2 + d_2 = 0$$
$$-c_2 - 3d_2 - 3 = 0$$
$$-d_2 - 1 = 0$$

Solving, $a_2 = 0$, $b_2 = 1$, $c_2 = 0$ and $d_2 = -1$.

$$\pi_3 = \rho^0 L^1 \mu^0 k^{-1} h = \frac{hL}{k}$$

Therefore, Eq. (4.76) becomes

$$\left(\frac{g\beta\theta L^3 \rho^2}{\mu^2}, \frac{\mu c_p}{k}, \frac{hL}{k} \right) = 0$$

or,
$$\frac{hL}{k} = B \left(\frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} \right)^a \left(\frac{\mu c_p}{k} \right)^b \qquad (4.77)$$

where
$$\text{Gr} = \text{Grashof number} = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2}$$

$$\text{Pr} = \text{Prandtl number} = \frac{\mu c_p}{k}$$

$$\text{Nu} = \text{Nusselt number} = (\text{hL})/\text{k}$$
$$\text{Nu} = B\text{Gr}^a\,\text{Pr}^b \tag{4.78}$$

Dimensional analyses have been performed on many heat transfer systems, and Table 4.2 summarises the most important dimensionless groups used in design.

Table 4.2 Dimensionless Groups of Importance for Heat Transfer and Fluid Flow

Group	*Definition*	*Physical interpretation*
Biot number (Bi)	$\frac{hL}{k_s}$	Ratio of internal thermal resistance of a solid body to its surface thermal resistance
Drag coefficient (C_f)	$\frac{\tau_s}{\rho U_x^2/2}$	Ratio of surface shear stress to free-stream kinetic energy
Eckert number (Ec)	$\frac{U_\infty^2}{c_p(T_s - T_\infty)}$	Kinetic energy of flow relative to boundary-layer enthalpy difference
Fourier number (Fo)	$\frac{\alpha t}{L^2}$	Dimensionless time; ratio of rate of heat conduction to rate of internal energy storage in a solid
Friction factor (f)	$\frac{\Delta p}{(L/D)\,(\rho U_m^2/2)}$	Dimensionless pressure drop for internal flow trough ducts
Grashof number (Gr_L)	$\frac{g\beta(T_s - T_\infty)L^3}{\nu^2}$	Ratio of buoyancy to viscous forces
Colburn *j* factor (j_H)	$\text{StPr}^{2/3}$	Dimensionless heat transfer coefficient
Nusselt number (Nu_L)	$\frac{\bar{h}_c L}{k_f}$	Dimensionless heat transfer coefficient; ratio of convection heat transfer to conduction in a fluid layer of thickness L.
Peclet number (Pe_L)	Re_LPr	Product of Reynolds and Prandtl numbers
Prandtl number (Pr)	$\frac{c_p\mu}{k} = \frac{\nu}{\alpha}$	Ratio of molecular momentum diffusivity to thermal diffusivity
Rayleigh number (Ra)	Gr_LPr	Product of Grashof and Prandtl numbers
Reynolds number (Re_L)	$\frac{U_x L}{\nu}$	Ratio of inertia to viscous forces
Stanton number	$\frac{h_c}{\rho U_\infty c_p} = \frac{\text{Nu}_L}{\text{Re}_L\,\text{Pr}}$	Dimensionless heat transfer coefficient

4.5.3 Correlation of Experimental Data

For forced convection heat transfer in a tube, Eq. (4.74) gives

$$\mathrm{Nu}_d = B\mathrm{Re}_d^a \mathrm{Pr}^b$$

where B, a and b are to be evaluated from the experimental data.

Let us suppose that in a series of experiments with air flowing over a 25 mm diameter tube, the heat transfer coefficient $\bar{h}_c$ has been measured experimentally at velocities ranging from 0.15 to 30 m/s. This range of velocities corresponds to Reynolds number ($u_m D\rho/\mu$) varying from 250 to 50,000. Since the velocity was the only variable in these tests, the heat transfer coefficients $\bar{h}_c$ measured are directly plotted against the velocity u_∞ [Fig. 4.17(a)]. The resulting curve can be used to determine $\bar{h}_c$ at any velocity in this range

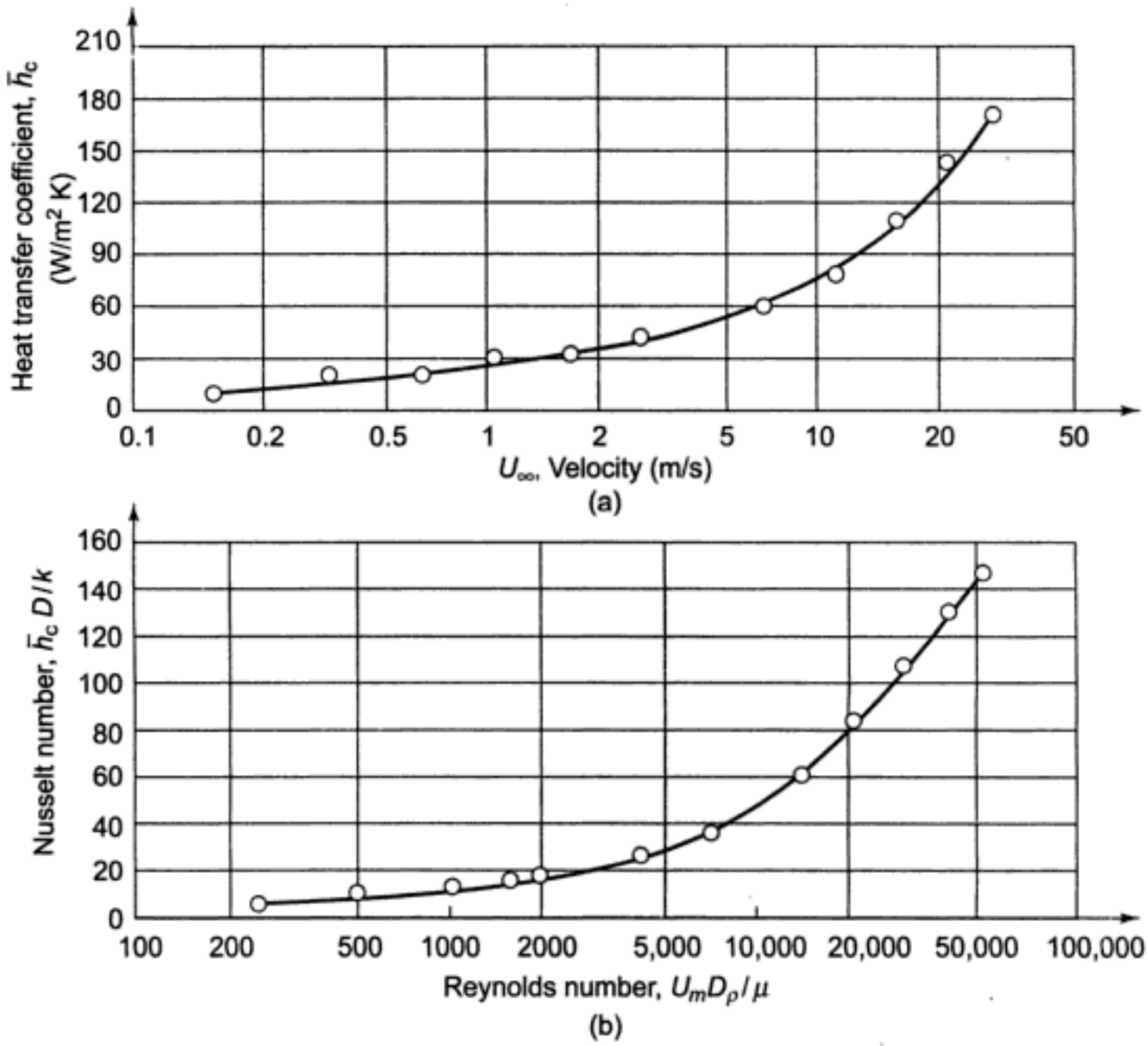


Fig. 4.17 *Variation of Nusselt number with Reynolds number for cross-flow of air over a pipe or a long cylinder (a) Dimensional plot, (b) Dimensionless plot*

for 25 mm diameter tube only, and also only for air at that pressure or density. It cannot be used for tubes that are larger or smaller than the one used in the tests, nor can it be used if the fluid is different, say oil or water, or air is at a different pressure.

With the aid of dimensional analysis, however, the results of one series of tests can be applied to a variety of other problems, as illustrated in Fig. 4.17(b), where the data of Fig. 4.17(a) are re-plotted in terms of pertinent dimensionless groups i.e., Reynolds number ($u_m D\rho/\mu$) and Nusselt number ($h_c D/k$). This curve permits the evaluation of $\bar{h}_c$ for air only flowing over any size of pipe at any velocity in the range.

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Figure 4.18 shows the experimental results for different working fluids like air, water and oils flowing over a tube of different sizes and at different velocities, with $Nu_d/Pr^{0.3}$ as ordinate and Re_d as abscissa. All the data are seen to follow a single line in the log–log plot, and they can be correlated empirically. Thus, proper nondimensionalisation of the pertinent data extends the applicability of the experimental results in a variety of operating conditions.

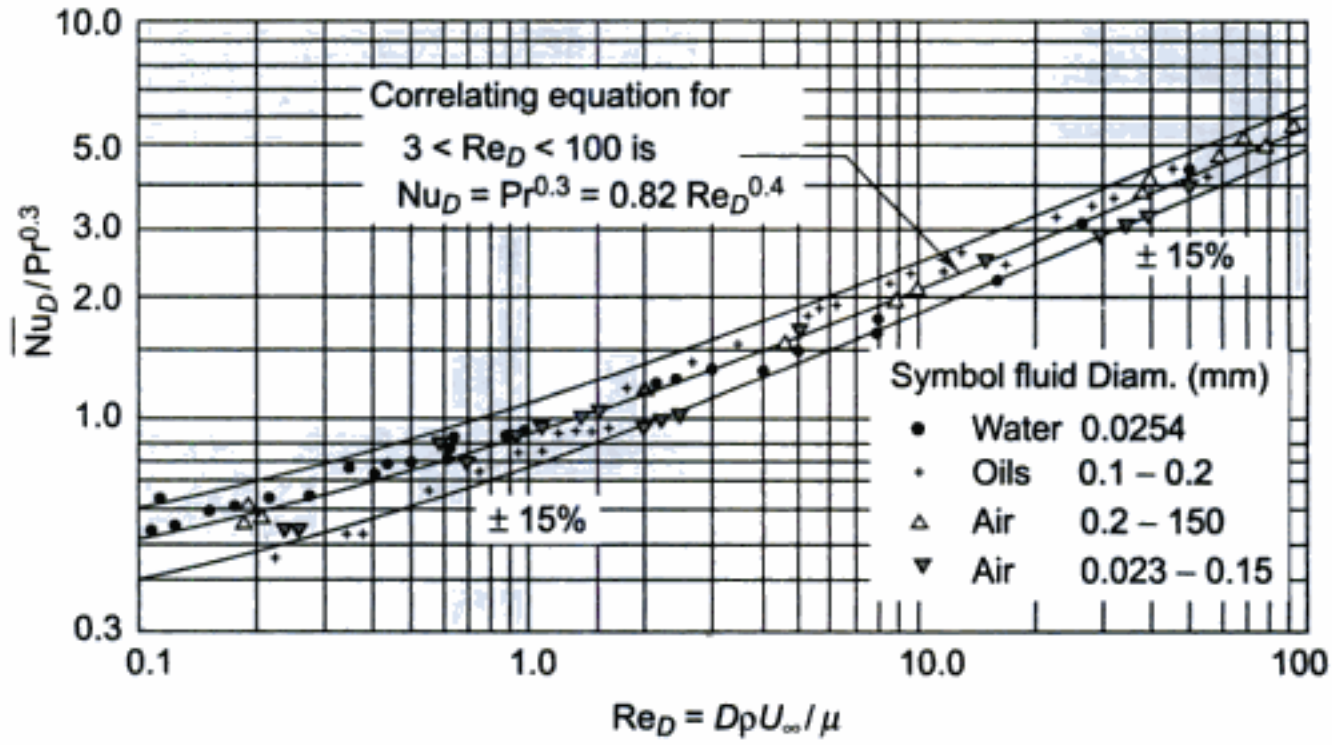


Fig. 4.18 *Correlation of experimental heat transfer data for various fluids in cross-flow over pipes, wires and circular cylinders*

4.6 ANALYTIC SOLUTION FOR LAMINAR BOUNDARY LAYER FLOW OVER A FLAT PLATE

To determine the forced convection heat transfer coefficient $\bar{h}_c$ and the friction coefficient $\bar{C}_f$ for incompressible steady laminar flow over a flat surface, we must satisfy the continuity, momentum and energy equations simultaneously. These equations were derived in Section 4.2, and are given below for two-dimensional flow:

$$\textbf{Continuity: } \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{0} \tag{4.79a}$$

$$\text{Momentum: } u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = \nu\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \tag{4.79b}$$

$$\text{Energy: } u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} \tag{4.79c}$$

4.6.1 Boundary-layer Thickness and Skin Friction Coefficient

Equation (4.79b) must be solved simultaneously with the continuity equation, (Eq. 4.79a), in order to determine the velocity distribution, boundary layer thickness and skin friction coefficient. Let us first make an order-of-magnitude analysis of the differential equations to obtain the functional form of the solution. Within the boundary layer we may say that the velocity u is of the order of free-stream velocity u_∞. Similarly, the y dimension is of the order of the boundary layer thickness δ. Thus.

$$u \sim u_\infty$$
$$y \sim \delta$$

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and we might write the continuity equation in an approximate form as

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\frac{u_\infty}{x} + \frac{v}{\delta} = 0$$

$$v \sim \frac{u_\infty \delta}{x}$$

Then, by using this order of magnitude for v, the analysis of momentum equation would yield

$$u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}$$

$$u_\infty \frac{u_\infty}{x} + \frac{u_\infty \delta}{x}\frac{u_\infty}{\delta} = \nu \frac{u_\infty}{\delta^2}$$

$$\delta^2 \sim \frac{\nu x}{u_\infty}$$

or

$$\delta \sim \left(\frac{\nu x}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/2} \tag{4.80}$$

Dividing by x to express the result in dimensionless form gives

$$\frac{\delta}{x} \sim \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty x}\right)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}} \tag{4.81}$$

This is the functional relationship of δ with the local Reynolds number. Since the velocity profiles have similar shapes at various distances from the leading edge of the flat plate, the important variable is y/δ, and we assume that the velocity may be expressed as a function of this variable.

$$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = g\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)$$

Introducing the order-of-magnitude estimate for δ from Eq. (4.80),

$$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = g(\eta) \tag{4.82}$$

where

$$\eta = \frac{y}{(\nu x/u_\infty)^{1/2}} = y\left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu x}\right)^{1/2} \tag{4.83}$$

Here, η is called the similarity variable and $g(\eta)$ is the function for which we seek a solution. In accordance with the continuity equation, a stream function ψ may be defined so that

$$u = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \tag{4.84}$$

$$v = \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \tag{4.85}$$

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Inserting Eq. (4.84) in Eq. (4.82) gives

$$\psi = \int u_\infty \, g(\eta)\, dy = \int u_\infty \left(\frac{\nu x}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/2} g(\eta)\, d\eta$$

or
$$\psi = u_\infty \left(\frac{\nu x}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/2} f(\eta) \tag{4.86}$$

where $f(\eta) = \int g(\eta) d\eta$.

From Eqs (4.85) and (4.86), we obtain

$$v = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\nu u_\infty}{u}\right)^{1/2}\left(\eta \frac{df}{d\eta} + f\right) \tag{4.87}$$

Expressing $\partial u/\partial x$, $\partial u/\partial y$ and $\partial^2 u/\partial y^2$ in terms of η and inserting the resulting expressions in the momentum equation, Eq. (4.79b), we obtain the ordinary, nonlinear, third-order differential equation

$$f\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 f}{\mathrm{d}\eta^2} + 2\frac{\mathrm{d}^3 f}{\mathrm{d}\eta^3} = 0 \tag{4.88}$$

It may be solved numerically for the function $f(\eta)$ subject to the three boundary conditions:

Physical coordinates	*Similarity coordinates*
1. $u = 0$ at $y = 0$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}\eta} = 0$ at $\eta = 0$
2. $v = 0$ at $y = 0$	$f = 0$ at $\eta = 0$
3. $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$ at $y \to \infty$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}\eta} = 1.0$ at $\eta \to \infty$

The solution to Eq. (4.88) was first obtained by Blasius in 1908[1]. The important results are shown in Figs. 4.19 and 4.20.

Figure 4.19 shows the Blasius velocity profiles in the laminar boundary layer on a flat plate in dimensionless form together with the experimental data of Hansen [10]. The ordinate is the ratio of local and free-stream velocities, and the abscissa is a dimensionless distance parameter $(y/x)\,(\rho u_\infty\, x/\mu)^{1/2}$. The velocity u reaches 99% of the free-stream velocity u_∞ at $(y/x)\,(\rho u_\infty\, x/\mu)^{1/2} = 5.0$. If we define **the hydrodynamic boundary layer thickness δ as that distance from the surface at which the local velocity u reaches 99% of the free-stream velocity u_∞, then**

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{5}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}} \tag{4.89}$$

where $\mathrm{Re}_x = (\rho u_\infty x)/\mu$ or $(u_\infty x)/\nu$. Eq. (4.89) satisfies the qualitative description of the boundary layer growth, as was shown by order-of-magnitude analysis in Eq. (4.81). It explains that at $x = 0$, $\delta = 0$, and as x increases, δ increases. Again, where u_∞ increases, δ decreases.

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The shear stress at the wall can be obtained from the velocity gradient at $y = 0$ in Fig. 4.19. We find that

$$\left.\frac{\partial (u/u_\infty)}{\partial (y/x)(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}}\right|_{y=0} = 0.332$$

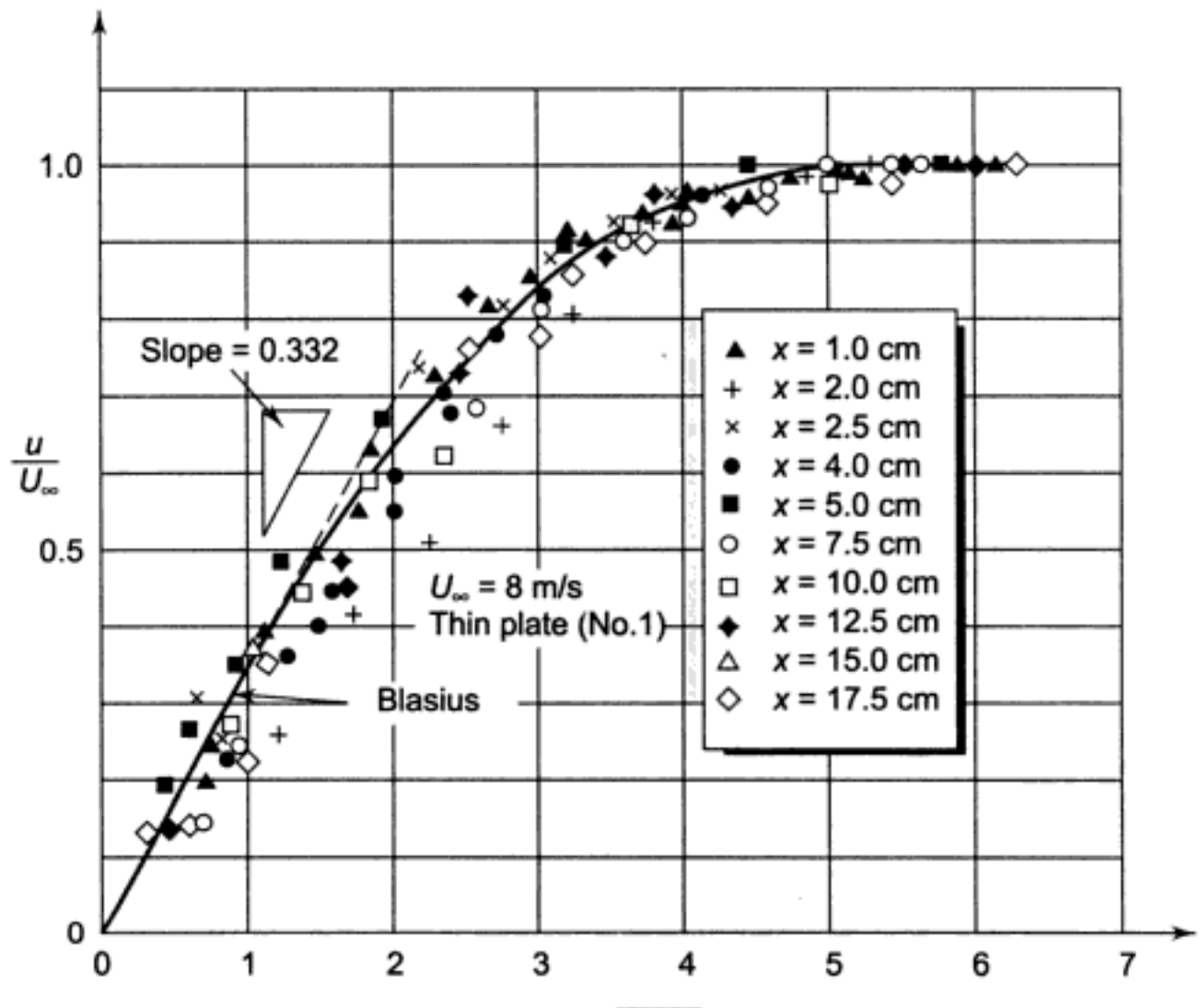


Fig. 4.19 *Velocity profile in a laminar boundary layer according to Blasius, with the experimental data of Hansen [10]*

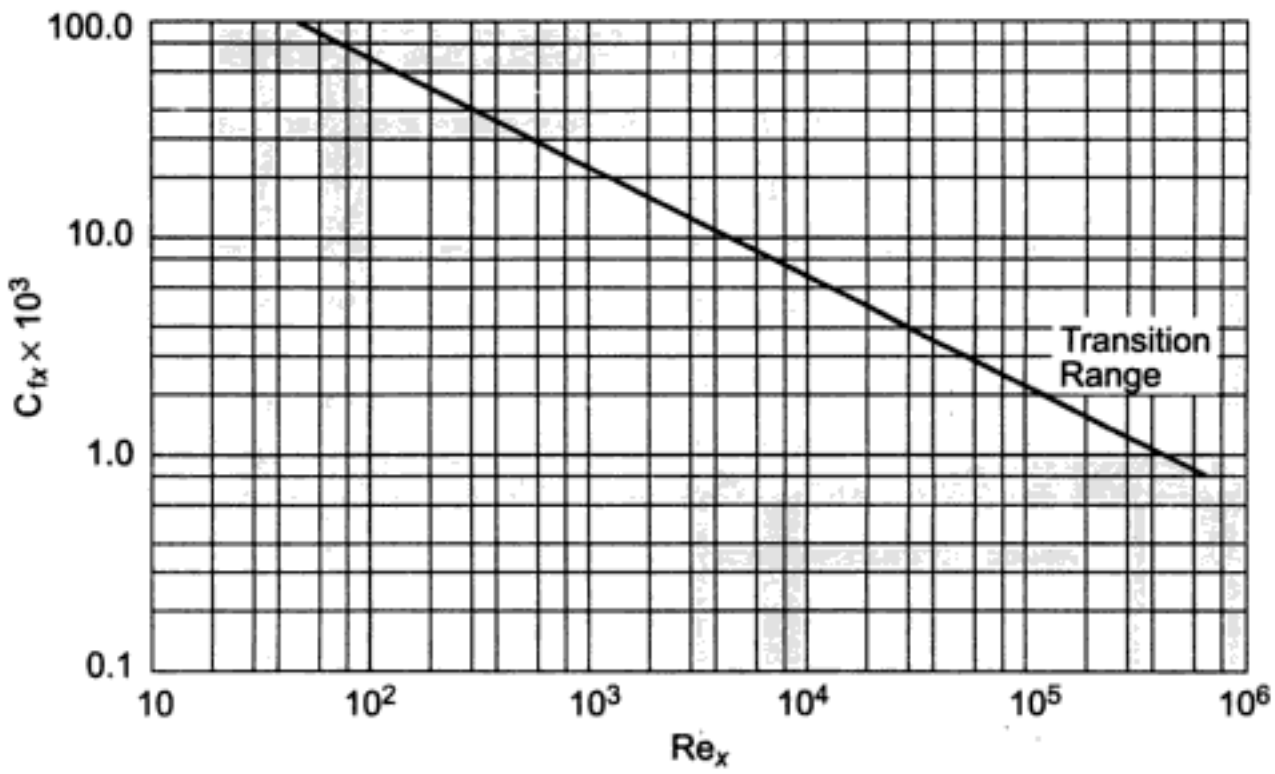


Fig. 4.20 *Local friction coefficient varying with Reynolds number along the distance from the leading edge for laminar flow for over a flat plate*

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$$\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial u}\right)_{y=0} = 0.332\frac{u_\infty}{x}(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}$$

The wall shear stress becomes

$$\tau_w = \mu\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = 0.332\,\mu\frac{u_\infty}{x}(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2} \tag{4.90}$$

It may be noted that the wall shear stress at the leading edge ($x = 0$) is very large, and it decreases with increasing distance (x) from the leading edge.

Dividing both sides of Eq. (4.90) by the dynamic pressure of the free-stream, $\rho u_\infty^2/2$, we obtain

$$C_{f_x} = \frac{\tau_w}{\rho u_\infty^2/2} = 0.332\,\mu\frac{u_\infty}{x}(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}\frac{2}{\rho u_\infty^2}$$

$$= \frac{\mathbf{0.664}}{(\mathbf{Re_x})^{\mathbf{1/2}}} \tag{4.91}$$

where C_{f_x} is the dimensionless local drag or friction coefficient. Figure 4.20 shows the variation of C_{f_x} with Re_x. The average friction coefficient is obtained by integrating Eq. (4.91) over the whole length of the plate, or

$$\bar{\mathbf{C}}_\mathbf{f} = \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{L}}\int_\mathbf{0}^\mathbf{L}\mathbf{C_{f_x}}\,\mathbf{dx} = \mathbf{2}(\mathbf{C_{f_x}})_{\mathbf{x=L}} = \frac{\mathbf{1.328}}{(\mathbf{Re_L})^{\mathbf{1/2}}} \tag{4.92}$$

where $\mathrm{Re}_L = \dfrac{u_\infty L}{\nu}$.

4.6.2 Convection Heat Transfer

The velocities u and v in the energy conservation equation

$$u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = \alpha\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}$$

have the same values at any point (x, y) as in the momentum equation, Eq. (4.79b). For the case of the flat plate, Pohlhausen [1] used the velocities calculated previously by Blasius to obtain the solution for the heat transfer problem. If the momentum and energy equations are compared, we find them to be similar if $\nu = \alpha$ and the surface temperature T_w is constant. A solution for $u(x, y)$ is also a solution for $T(x, y)$ which can easily be checked if the symbol T is replaced by the symbol u while the boundary conditions for both are identical. If we define a dimensionless temperature

$$\theta(\eta) = \frac{T(\eta) - T_w}{T_\infty - T_w} \tag{4.93}$$

then

$$\theta = 0 \quad \text{and } u/u_\infty = 0 \quad \text{at } y = 0$$
$$\theta = 1 \quad \text{and } u/u_\infty = 1 \quad \text{at } y \to \infty$$

where T_w is the wall or surface temperature and T_∞ is the free–stream temperature. The condition $\nu = \alpha$ corresponds to a Prandtl number ($= \nu/\alpha$) of unity. For Pr = 1, the velocity distribution is identical to the temperature distribution. The transfer of momentum is analogous to the transfer of heat when Pr = 1. For gases Prandtl number ranges from 0.6 to 1.0. The analogy is, therefore, satisfactory for gases. Liquids, however, have Prandtl numbers considerably different from unity, and the preceding analysis is not applicable directly to liquids.

Pohlhausen's results can be modified empirically to include fluids having different values of Prandtl number. In Fig. 4.21 the temperature profiles computed theoretically have been plotted for various

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Prandtl numbers. We define a thermal boundary layer thickness δ_t as the distance from the wall at which the temperature difference between the wall and the fluid $(T - T_w)$ reaches 99% of the free-stream value $(T_\infty - T_w)$. From the temperature profiles, we observe that for $\mathrm{Pr} < 1$, $\delta_t > \delta$, and for fluids having $\mathrm{Pr} > 1$, $\delta_t < \delta$. According to Pohlhausen,

$$\delta/\delta_t = \mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \tag{4.94}$$

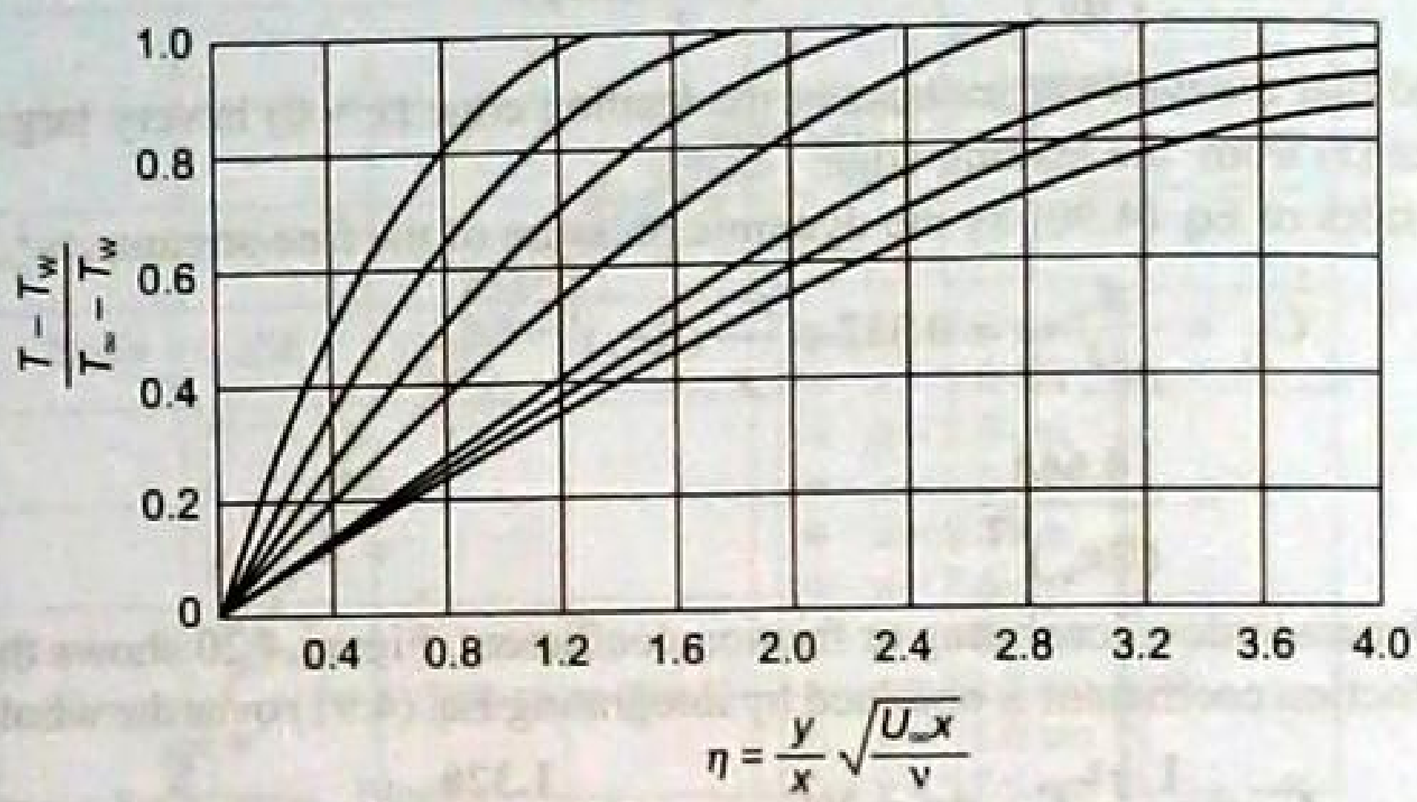


Fig. 4.21 *Temperature distributions in a fluid flowing over a heated plate for various Prandtl numbers*

The curves of Fig. 4.21 are replotted in Fig. 4.22 using the correction factor $\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$ in the abscissa, which is now $(y/x)\,(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$. The dimensionless temperature gradient at the surface $(y = 0)$ is

$$\frac{\partial\left[(T - T_w)/(T_\infty - T_w)\right]}{\partial\left[(y/x)\,(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}\right]} = 0.332$$

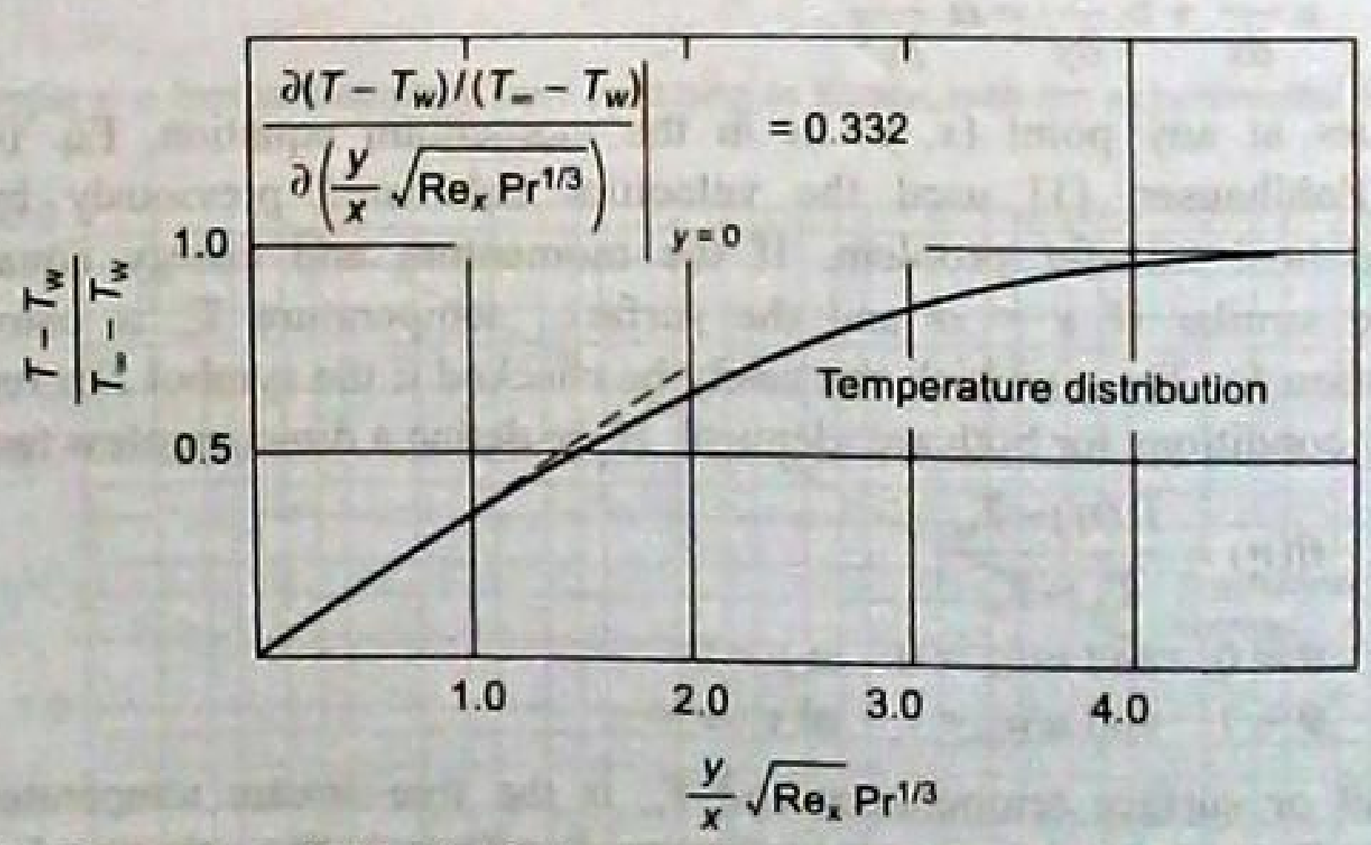


Fig. 4.22 *Temperature distribution for laminar flow over a heated plate at uniform temperature*

Therefore, at any specified value of x,

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}\right)_{y=0} = 0.332\,\frac{\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}}{x}\,(T_\infty - T_w) \tag{4.95}$$

The local rate of convection heat transfer per unit area becomes

$$q_c'' = -k\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}$$

$$= -k\,0.332\,\frac{\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}}{x}(T_\infty - T_w) \tag{4.96}$$

The total rate of heat transfer from a plate of width b and length L is

$$Q = \int_{x=0}^{L} q_c''\,dx = 0.664\,k\,\mathrm{Re}_L^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}\,b\,(T_w - T_\infty) \tag{4.97}$$

The local heat transfer coefficient obtained from Eq. (4.96),

$$h_{cx} = \frac{q_c''}{T_w - T_\infty} = 0.332\,\frac{k}{x}\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \tag{4.98}$$

The local Nusselt number is

$$\mathbf{Nu_x = \frac{h_{cx}\,x}{k} = 0.332\,Re_x^{1/2}\,Pr^{1/3}} \tag{4.99}$$

The average Nusselt number over the entire plate of length L is

$$\mathrm{Nu}_L = \int_o^L \mathrm{Nu}_x\,dx = 2\,(\mathrm{Nu}_x)_{x=L}$$

$$= \mathbf{0.664\,Re_L^{1/2}\,Pr^{1/3}} \tag{4.100}$$

and the average heat transfer coefficient

$$\bar{h}_c = 2\,(h_{cx})_{x=L} = 0.664\,\frac{k}{L}\,\mathrm{Re}_L^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \tag{4.101}$$

The physical properties in Eqs. (4.95)–(4.101) vary with temperature. Experimental data are found to agree satisfactorily with the results predicted analytically using the above equations if the properties are evaluated at a mean temperature T^* given by $T^* = (T_w + T_\infty)/2$, often called the *film temperature*.

4.7 APPROXIMATE INTEGRAL BOUNDARY LAYER ANALYSIS

We had earlier developed the exact mathematical solution of the differential equations describing the laminar flow of a fluid over a flat surface in deriving the boundary layer thickness and the heat transfer coefficient. To circumvent the problems involved in solving the partial differential equations of the boundary layer. Theodore von Karman suggested the approximate integral method in which he considered a control volume that extends from the wall to beyond the boundary layer. Let us consider a control volume (CV) bounded by the two planes AB and CD normal to the surface, a distance dx apart, and a parallel plane in the free stream at a distance l from the surface (Fig. 4.23). Let us consider unit width of the plate in z-direction.

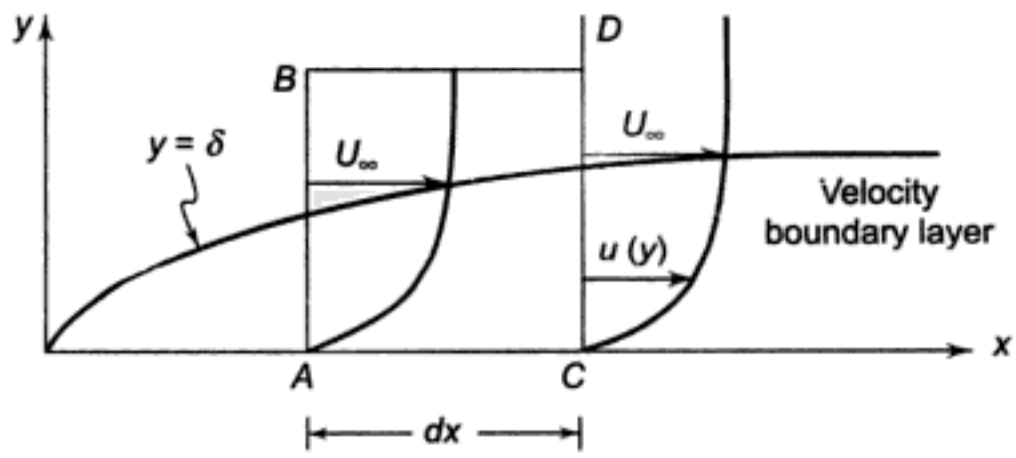


Fig. 4.23 *Control volume for integral momentum conservation*

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Momentum flow across face AB into the CV in Fig. 4.23 is

$$= \int_0^1 \rho u^2 \, dy$$

Similarly, momentum flow across face CD is

$$= \int_0^1 \rho u^2 dy + \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_0^1 \rho u^2 \, dy\right) dx$$

Fluid entering across BD at the rate

$$= \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_0^1 \rho u \, dy\right) dx$$

This quantity is the difference between the rate of flow leaving across CD and that entering across AB. Since the fluid entering across BD has a velocity component in the x-direction equal to u_∞, the flow of x-momentum across the upper face into the CV is

$$u_\infty \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_0^1 \rho u \, dy\right) dx$$

Net x-momentum transfer

$$I = \text{outflow} - \text{inflow}$$

$$= \int_0^1 \rho u^2 \, dy + \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_0^1 \rho u^2 \, dy\right) dx - \int_0^1 \rho u^2 \, dy$$

$$- u_\infty \left(\frac{d}{dx}\int_0^1 \rho u \, dy\right) dx$$

$$= -\frac{d}{dx}\left[\int_0^1 \rho u \, (u_\infty - u) dy\right] dx$$

For $y \geq \delta$, $u = u_\infty$ and the integrand I will be zero. We have to consider the integrand only within the limits from $y = 0$ to $y = \delta$.

There will be no shear across face BD outside the boundary layer where du/dy is zero. A shear force τ_w acts at the fluid–solid interface, and there will be pressure forces acting on faces AB and CD.

Net forces acting on the CV are

$$p\delta - \left(p + \frac{dp}{dx} dx\right)\delta - \tau_w \, dx = -\delta \frac{dp}{dx} dx - \tau_w \, dx$$

By Newton's second law of motion

$$-\delta \frac{dp}{dx} dx - \tau_w \, dx = -\frac{d}{dx}\left[\int_o^\delta \rho u \, (u_\infty - u) \, dy\right] dx$$

For flow over a flat plate the pressure gradient in the x-direction, dp/dx can be neglected. Therefore,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_o^\delta \rho u (u_\infty - u) dy = \tau_w \tag{4.102}$$

The above equation is often called *von Kármán's momentum integral equation*.

(I) Assuming a four-term polynomial for the velocity distribution [11]

$$u(y) = a + by + cy^2 + dy^3 \tag{4.103}$$

where the constants are evaluated from the boundary conditions:

at $y = 0, u = 0$ and so $a = 0$

$$u = v = 0 \text{ and } \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

$$y = \delta, u = u_\infty \text{ and } \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

From these conditions we find

$$a = 0, b = \frac{3}{2}\frac{u_\infty}{\delta}, c = 0, d = -\frac{u_\infty}{2\delta^3}$$

Substituting in Eq. (4.103)

$$u = \frac{3}{2}\frac{u_\infty}{\delta}y - \frac{u_\infty}{2}\frac{y^3}{\delta^3}$$

$$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^3 \tag{4.104}$$

Substituting Eq. (4.104) for the velocity distribution in the integral momentum equation, Eq. (4.102),

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_0^\delta (\rho u\, u_\infty - \rho u^2)\, dy = \tau_w$$

L.H.S.
$$= \frac{d}{dx}\int_o^\delta \left[\rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{y^3}{\delta^3}\right) - u_\infty^2 \rho \left(\frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{y^3}{\delta^3}\right)^2\right] dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}\int_o^\delta \left[\rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{y^3}{\delta^3}\right) - \rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{9}{4}\frac{y^2}{\delta^2} - \frac{3}{2}\frac{y^4}{\delta^4} + \frac{1}{4}\frac{y^6}{\delta^6}\right)\right] dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}\left[\rho u_\infty^2 \left\{\left(\frac{3}{2\delta}\frac{\delta^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2\delta^3}\frac{\delta^4}{4}\right) - \frac{9}{4\delta^2}\frac{\delta^3}{3} + \frac{3}{2\delta^4}\frac{\delta^5}{5} - \frac{1}{4\delta^6}\frac{\delta^7}{7}\right\}\right] dy$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx}\left(\rho u_\infty^2 \frac{39}{280}\delta\right) \tag{4.105}$$

Again, $$\tau_w = \left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)_{y=0} = \mu\frac{3}{2}\frac{u_\infty}{\delta}$$

Therefore, $$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\rho u_\infty^2 \frac{39}{280}\delta\right) = \mu\frac{3}{2}\frac{u_\infty}{\delta} \tag{4.105a}$$

$$\frac{39}{280}\rho u_\infty^2 \frac{d\delta}{dx} = \frac{3}{2}\mu\frac{u_\infty}{\delta}$$

$$\delta = \left(\frac{280}{13}\frac{\nu x}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/2} = 4.64\left(\frac{\nu x}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/2}$$

When $x = 0, \delta = 0$ and $\delta \infty (x)^{1/2}$

Also,
$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{4.64}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}} \tag{4.106}$$

where local Reynolds number $\mathrm{Re}_x = \dfrac{u_\infty x}{\nu}$.

Equation (4.106) gives a value of δ, only 8% below that of the exact analysis, given by Eq. (4.89) where

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{5}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}}$$

The results of approximate analysis are thus satisfactory in practice.
Substituting for δ from Eq. (4.106) in Eq. (4.105),

$$\tau_w = \mu \frac{3}{2} \frac{u_\infty (\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}}{4.64x}$$

Dividing both sides by $\dfrac{1}{2} \rho u_\infty^2$

$$\frac{\tau}{1/2 \rho u_\infty^2} = C_{f_x} = \frac{3u_\infty}{9.28} \frac{\mu (\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2} \times 2}{x \rho u_\infty^2}$$

$$\mathbf{C_{f_x} = 0.647 \frac{v}{u_\infty x} (Re_x) 1/2 = \frac{0.647}{(Re_x)^{1/2}}} \tag{4.107}$$

The exact analysis gave us (Eq. 4.91)

$$\mathbf{C_{f_x} = \frac{0.664}{(Re_x)^{1/2}}}$$

(II) If the velocity profile in laminar boundary layer over a flat plate is assumed to be a second order polynomial $u = a + by + cy^2$, substituting the boundary conditions (i) $y = 0, u = 0$, (ii) $y = \delta, u = u_\infty, \dfrac{du}{dy} = 0$, velocity distribution becomes

$$\mathbf{\frac{u}{u_\infty} = 2\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right) - \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2} \tag{4.108}$$

and the boundary layer thickness is

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{5.48}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}} \tag{4.109}$$

and the mean skin friction coefficient is

$$\bar{c}_f = \frac{1.46}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}} \tag{4.110}$$

(III) Similarly, if the velocity profile is assumed to be

$$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \sin \frac{\pi y}{2\delta} \tag{4.111}$$

the corresponding parameters can be derived to be

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$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{4.795}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}} \tag{4.112}$$

and

$$\bar{c}_f = \frac{1.31}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}} \tag{4.113}$$

The results for the boundary layer thickness and average skin friction coefficient yielded by different velocity profiles are shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 *Boundary Layer Parameters for Different Velocity Profiles*

S. No.	Velocity Profile	Boundary conditions		d	$\bar{c}_f$
		At $y = 0$	*At* $y = d$		
1.	$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \frac{y}{\delta}$	$u = 0$	$u = u_\infty$	$\frac{3.46\,x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{1.155}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}}$
2.	$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = 2\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right) - \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2$	$u = 0$	$u = u_\infty$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$	$\frac{5.48\,x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{1.46}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}}$
3.	$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \frac{3}{2}\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right) - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^3$	$u = 0$ $\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$	$u = u_\infty$ $\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$	$\frac{4.64\,x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{1.292}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}}$
4.	$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\cdot\frac{y}{\delta}\right)$	$u = 0$	$u = u_\infty$	$\frac{4.795\,x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{1.31}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}}$
5.	Blasius exact solution			$\frac{5\,x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$	$\frac{1.328}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}}$

The integral energy equation can be derived in a similar fashion. A CV extending beyond the limits of both the temperature and the velocity boundary layers is to be used in the derivation (Fig. 4.24).

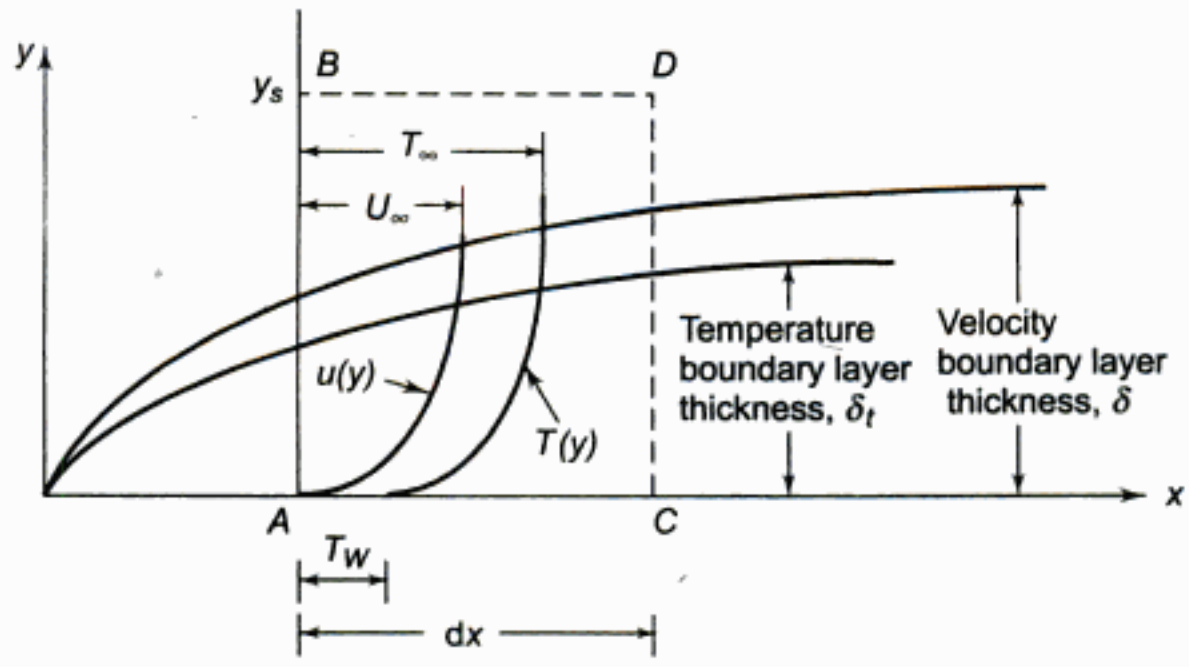


Fig. 4.24 *Control volume for integral energy conservation analysis*

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Energy entering the CV across face AB

$$= \int_o^1 c_p \rho u T \, dy$$

Energy leaving the CV across face CD

$$= \int_o^1 c_p \rho u T \, dy + \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_o^1 c_p \rho u T \, dy\right) dx$$

Energy carried into the CV across the upper face

$$= c_p T_\infty \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_o^1 \rho u \, dy\right) dx$$

Heat conducted across the wall at the interface

$$= -k \, dx \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}$$

Making an energy balance

$$\int_o^1 c_p \rho u T \, dy - k \, dx \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} - \int_o^1 c_p \rho u T \, dy$$

$$-\frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_o^1 c_p \rho T \, dy\right) dx + c_p T_\infty \frac{d}{dx}\left(\int_o^1 \rho u \, dy\right) dx = 0$$

At $l \geq \delta_t$, $T = T_\infty$, and integration need be taken up to $y = \delta_t$.

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_o^{\delta_t} u(T_\infty - T) \, dy = \frac{k}{\rho c_p}\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}$$

or

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_o^{\delta_t} u(T_\infty - T) dy = \alpha\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} \tag{4.114}$$

This is known as the *integral energy equation* of the laminar boundary layer at low speed. Let us assume the temperature distribution in the thermal boundary layer as

$$T(y) = e + fy + gy^2 + hy^3 \tag{4.115}$$

The boundary conditions are:

at $y = 0, T = T_w, \dfrac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = 0$ (since $u = v = 0$)

at $y = \delta_t, T = T_\infty$ and $\dfrac{dT}{dy} = 0$

From these conditions, we get

$$e = T_w, f = \frac{3}{2}\frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t}, g = 0$$

$$h = \frac{T_\infty - T_w}{2\delta_t^3}$$

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$$T = T_w + \frac{3}{2}\frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t} y + \frac{T_\infty - T_w}{2\delta_t^3} y^3$$

or
$$\frac{\mathbf{T - T_w}}{\mathbf{T_\infty - T_w}} = \frac{\mathbf{3}}{\mathbf{2}}\frac{\mathbf{y}}{\boldsymbol{\delta}_\mathbf{t}} - \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{2}}\left(\frac{\mathbf{y}}{\boldsymbol{\delta}_\mathbf{t}}\right)^3 \tag{4.116}$$

This is the temperature distribution in the thermal boundary layer. Substituting in energy equation, Eq. (4.114),

$$\int_o^{\delta_t} (T_\infty - T)u \, dy = \int_o^{\delta_t} [(T_\infty - T) - (T - T_w)] \, u \, dy$$

$$= (T_\infty - T_w)u_\infty \int_o^{\delta_1} \left[1 - \frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta_t} + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{\delta_t}\right)^3\right]\left[\frac{3y}{2\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^3\right] dy$$

$$= (T_\infty - T_w)u_\infty \int_o^{\delta_1} \left[\left(\frac{3}{2\delta}\right)y - \left(\frac{9}{4\delta\,\delta_t}\right)y^2 + \left(\frac{3}{4\delta\,\delta_t^3}\right)y^4 \right.$$

$$\left. -\left(\frac{1}{2\delta^3}\right)y^3 + \left(\frac{3}{4\delta_t\,\delta^3}\right)y^4 - \left(\frac{1}{4\delta_t^3\,\delta^3}\right)y^3\right] dy$$

$$= (T_\infty - T_w)\,u_\infty \left[\frac{3}{2\delta}\frac{\delta_t^2}{2} - \frac{3}{4}\frac{\delta_t^2}{\delta} + \frac{3}{4}\frac{\delta_t^2}{\delta} - \frac{1}{8}\frac{\delta_t^4}{\delta^3} + \frac{3}{20}\frac{\delta_t^4}{\delta^3} - \frac{1}{28}\frac{\delta_t^4}{\delta^3}\right]$$

If we let $\zeta = \delta_t/\delta$ the above expression can be written as

$$(T_\infty - T_w)u_\infty \, \delta\left(\frac{3}{20}\zeta^2 - \frac{3}{280}\zeta^4\right)$$

For fluids having $\Pr \geq 1$, $\zeta \leq 1$, the second term in the parentheses can be neglected compared to the first. Substituting in the approximate integral equation, Eq. (4.114),

$$\frac{d}{dx}[(T_\infty - T_w)\,u_\infty \, \delta \frac{2}{20}\zeta^2 = \alpha\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2}\alpha(T_\infty - T_w)\frac{1}{\delta_t}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2}\frac{\alpha\,(T_\infty - T_w)}{\zeta\delta}$$

$$\frac{1}{10}\,u_\infty\,\zeta^3\delta\,\frac{\partial\delta}{\partial x} = \alpha$$

From Eq. (4.105a),

$$\delta\frac{\partial\delta}{\partial x} = \frac{140}{13}\frac{\mu}{\rho}\frac{1}{u_\infty}; \frac{140}{13}\frac{\mu}{\rho u_\infty} = \frac{10\alpha}{u_\infty}\frac{1}{\zeta^3}$$

$$\zeta^3 = \frac{13}{14}\frac{1}{\Pr}\delta_t = 0.976\,\delta\,\Pr^{-1/3} \tag{4.117}$$

If we compare with Eq. (4.94), $\delta/\delta_t = \Pr^{1/3}$ we find that except for the numerical constant (0.976 instead of 1.0), the above result is in agreement with the exact calculation of Pohlhausen.

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The rate of heat transfer per unit area is

$$q_c'' = -k\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = -\frac{3}{2}\frac{k}{\delta_t}(T_\infty - T_w)$$

Substituting Eqs. (4.106) and (4.117) for δ and δ_t,

$$q_c'' = \frac{3}{2}k\frac{(T_\infty - T_w)}{0.976\,\delta\,\mathrm{Pr}^{-1/3}}$$

$$= \frac{3}{2}\frac{k\,(T_\infty - T_w)\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}}{0.976 \times 4.64x}$$

$$= 0.331\,\frac{k}{x}\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}\,(T_w - T_\infty) \tag{4.118}$$

The local heat transfer coefficient

$$h_c = \frac{q_c''}{T_w - T_\infty} = 0.331\frac{k}{x}\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \tag{4.119}$$

The local Nusselt number

$$\mathbf{Nu_x = \frac{h_c x}{k} = 0.331\,Re_x^{1/2}\,Pr^{1/3}} \tag{4.120}$$

This result is in excellent agreement with Eq. (4.99), the result of an exact analysis, which gives $\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.332\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$.

4.8 TURBULENT FLOW OVER A FLAT PLATE: ANALOGY BETWEEN MOMENTUM AND HEAT TRANSFER

The flow in the boundary layer is more often turbulent, rather than laminar. In laminar flow where the streamlines slide over one another, momentum and heat transfer take place by molecular diffusion. In turbulent flow, the transport mechanism is aided by innumerable eddies. Irregular velocity fluctuations are superimposed upon the motion of the main stream, and these fluctuations are primarily responsible for the transfer of heat as well as momentum. The rates of momentum and heat transfer in turbulent flow and the associated friction and heat transfer coefficients are many times larger than in laminar flow because of better mixing in which groups of particles collide with one another at random, establish cross-flow on a macroscopic scale and effectively mix the fluid.

Instantaneous streamlines in turbulent flows are highly torn and uneven, and it is difficult to trace the path of individual fluid elements. But if the flow at a point is averaged over a period of time, large compared to the period of a single fluctuation, the time-mean properties and the velocity of the fluid are constant, if the average flow remains steady. It is, therefore, possible to describe each fluid property and the velocity in turbulent flow in terms of a mean value which does not vary with time and a fluctuating component which is a function of time.

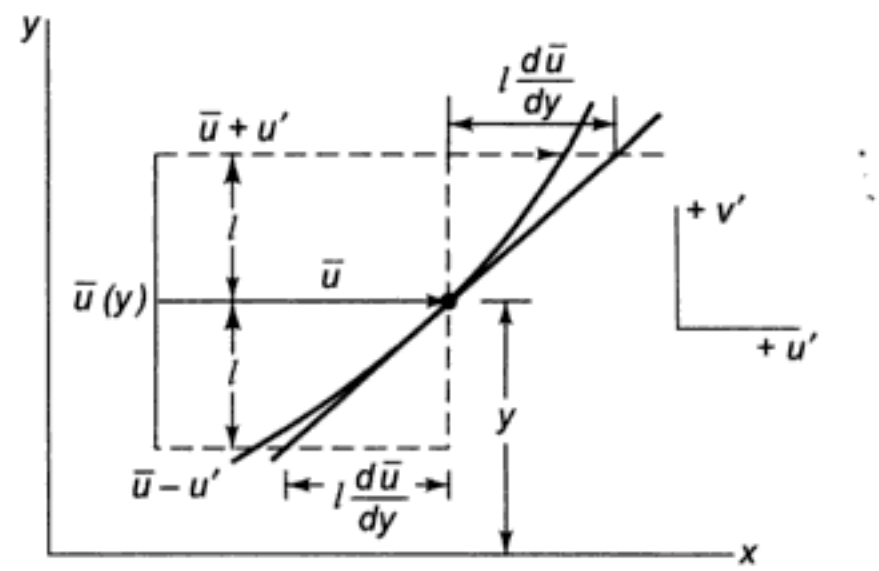


Fig. 4.25 *Mixing length for momentum transfer in turbulent flow*

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Let us consider a two-dimensional flow in which the mean velocity is parallel to the x-direction (Fig. 4.25). The instantaneous velocity components u and v can then be expressed in the form

$$u = \bar{u} + u', v = v'$$
$$p = \bar{p} + p', T = \bar{T} + T' \text{ and so on} \qquad (4.121)$$

where the bar over a symbol denotes the time-mean value and the prime denotes the instantaneous deviation from the time-mean value. According to the model used to describe the flow,

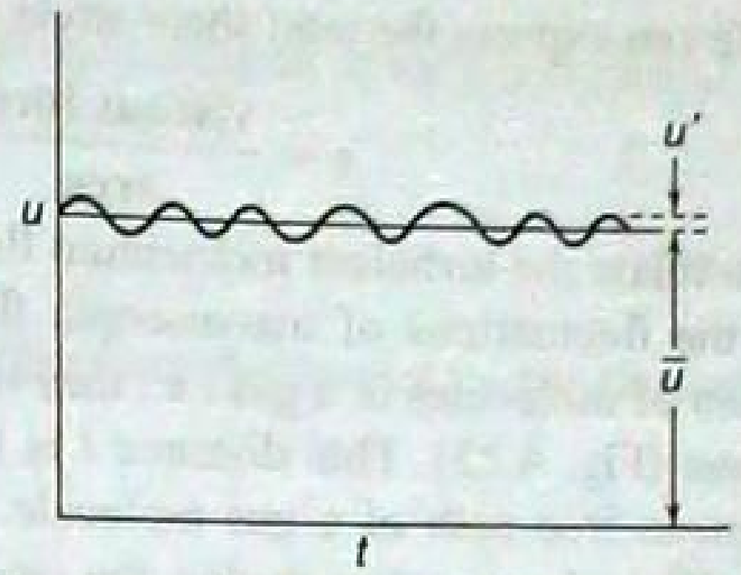


Fig. 4.26 *Time variation of instantaneous velocity in turbulent flow*

$$\bar{u} = \frac{1}{t^*}\int_0^{t^*} u\,dt \qquad (4.122)$$

where t^* is a time interval that is large compared to the period of the fluctuations. The time variation of u and u' is qualitatively shown in Fig. 4.26. From Eq. (4.122) and Fig. 4.26 it is apparent that the time average of u' is zero (i.e., $\bar{u}' = 0$). Similarly, $\bar{v}' = 0$ and $\rho\bar{v}' = 0$.

The fluctuating velocity components continuously transport mass and so momentum across a plane normal to the y-direction.

Instantaneous rate of transfer of x-momentum in y-direction per unit area

$$-(\rho v')(\bar{u} + u')$$

where the minus sign has a special significance which will be discussed later.

Time-average of the instantaneous rate of x-momentum transfer per unit area

$$\tau_t = -\frac{1}{t^*}\int_0^{t^*} (\rho v')(\bar{u} + u')\,dt \qquad (4.123)$$

This is also called "*apparent turbulent shear stress*" or "*Reynolds stress*", τ_t.

Breaking the term in Eq. (4.123) into parts

$$\tau_t = -\frac{1}{t^*}\int_0^{t^*} (\rho v')\bar{u}\,dt - \frac{1}{t^*}\int_0^{t^*} (\rho v)' u'\,dt$$
$$= -(\overline{\rho v})'\,\bar{u} - \rho\overline{u'v'}$$

Since $\bar{u}$ is constant and the time-average of $(\rho v)'$ is zero, the first term of the above equation will be zero. Therefore,

$$\tau_t = -\rho\,\overline{u'v'} \qquad (4.124)$$

where $\overline{u'v'}$ is the time average of the product of the fluctuating components u' and v', which is not zero, but a negative quantity. If v' is positive i.e., the fluid particles with a certain velocity $\bar{u}$ travel upward to a y-plane where the velocity $\bar{u}$ is more (Fig. 4.25), these will tend to slow down the particles in that plane giving rise to a negative velocity component u'. And if v' is negative, it will tend to accelerate the flow, giving rise to a positive u'. So a positive v' is associated with a negative u' and vice versa, so that the time-average of the product $u'\,v'$ is not zero, but a negative quantity. The turbulent shear stress as defined by Eq. (4.124) is thus positive and has the same sign as the corresponding laminar shearing stress

$$\tau_l = \mu\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy} = \rho\nu\frac{du}{dy}$$

It may be noted that the laminar shearing stress τ_l is a true stress, whereas the apparent turbulent shearing stress or Reynolds stress τ_t is a concept introduced to account for the effects of momentum transfer due to turbulent fluctuations.

We can express the total shear stress in turbulent flow as

$$\tau = \frac{\textbf{viscous force}}{\textbf{area}} + \textbf{turbulent momentum flux}$$

To relate the turbulent momentum flux with the time-average velocity gradient $d\bar{u}/dy$, Prandtl postulated that the fluctuations of macroscopic fluid particles in turbulent flow are, on the average, similar to the motion of molecules in a gas i.e., they travel a distance l perpendicular to $\bar{u}$ before coming to rest in another y-plane (Fig. 4.25). This distance l is known as *Prandtl's mixing length* and qualitatively corresponds to the mean free path of a gas molecule. Prandtl further argued that the fluid particles retain their identity and physical properties during the cross motion and that the turbulent fluctuations arise because of the difference of the time-mean properties between y planes distance l apart. If a fluid particle travels from a layer at y plane to a layer at $(y + 1)$ plane,

$$u' = l\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy} \tag{4.125}$$

The turbulent shearing stress is then

$$\tau_t = \rho\overline{u'v'} = -\rho\,\overline{v'l}\,\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy} = \rho\varepsilon_M\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy} \tag{4.126}$$

where ε_M $(= -\overline{v'l})$ is called the *eddy viscosity* or the turbulent exchange coefficient for momentum. The eddy viscosity ε_M is analogous to the kinematic viscosity ν. But ν is a physical property, whereas ε_M is not, and it depends on the dynamics of flow.

Total shearing stress,

$$\tau = \tau_l + \tau_t = \rho\nu\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy} + \rho\varepsilon_M\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy}$$

$$= \rho\,(\nu + \varepsilon_M)\,\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy} \tag{4.127}$$

For turbulent flow,

$$\varepsilon_M >> \nu \text{ and } \tau = \rho\,\varepsilon_M\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy}$$

For laminar flow,

$$\varepsilon_M = 0 \text{ and } \tau = \rho\nu\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy}$$

For buffer layer (transition zone),

$$\tau = \rho(\nu+\varepsilon_M)\frac{d\bar{u}}{dy}$$

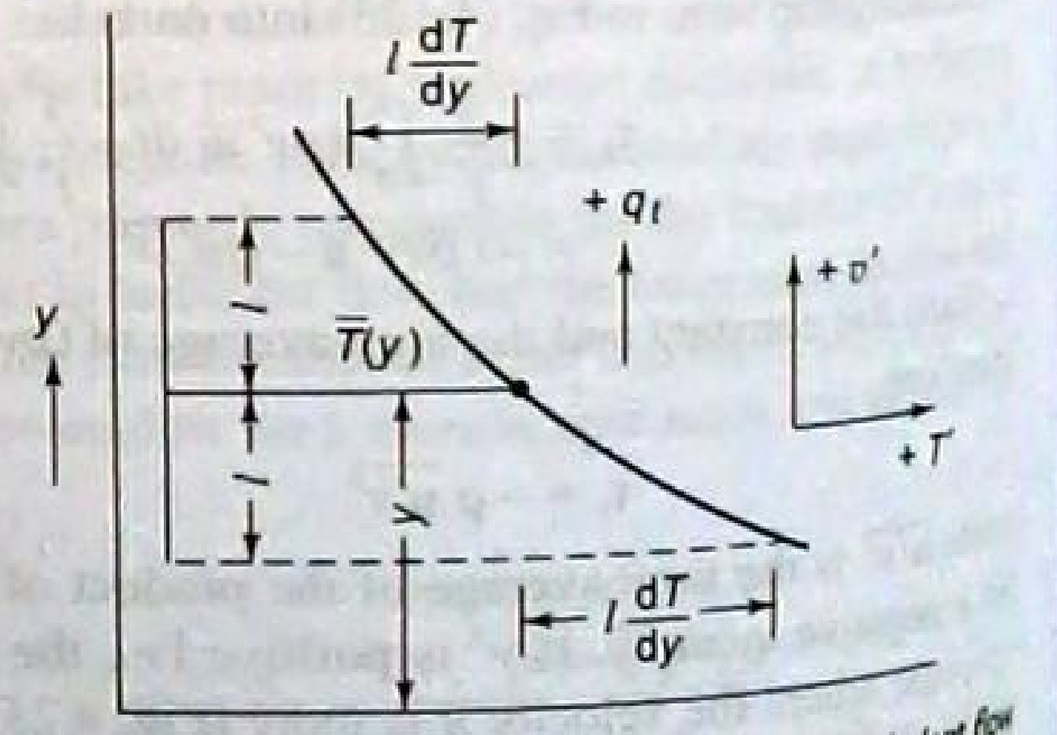


Fig. 4.27 *Mixing length for energy transfer in turbulent flow*

The transfer of energy as heat in turbulent flow can be visualised in a similar fashion. Let us consider a two-dimensional time-mean temperature distribution (Fig. 4.27). The fluctuating velocity components transport fluid particles and the energy stored in them across a plane normal to the y-direction.

Instantaneous rate of energy transfer per unit area at any point in the y-direction.

$$= (\rho v)'\,c_p\,T$$

where

$$T = \bar{T} + T'$$

The time average of the instantaneous rate of heat transfer per unit area is equal to turbulent rate of heat transfer Q_t.

$$\therefore \quad \frac{Q_t}{A} = \frac{1}{t^*}\int_0^{t^*} (\rho v)' e_p (\bar{T} + T')\, dt = \rho c_p \overline{v'T'} \tag{4.128}$$

Using Prandtl's concept of mixing length, we can relate the temperature fluctuation to the time-mean temperature gradient by the equation

$$T' = 1\frac{d\bar{T}}{dy} \tag{4.129}$$

When a fluid particle migrates from the y plane to the $(y \pm 1)$ plane, the resulting temperature fluctuation is caused by the difference between the time-mean temperatures of the two planes. Assuming that the transport mechanisms of temperature (or energy) and velocity (or momentum) are similar, the mixing lengths in Eqs (4.125) and (4.129) are equal. The product $\overline{v'T'}$ in Eq. (4.128) however, is positive, because a positive v' is accompanied by a positive T', and vice versa.

Combining Eqs (4.128) and (4.129), the turbulent rate of heat transfer per unit area

$$\frac{Q_t}{A} = -\rho c_p \overline{v'1}\, \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy} \tag{4.130}$$

where the minus sign is a consequence of the second law of thermodynamics, with heat dissipation from the system. To express the turbulent heat flux in a form analogous to the Fourier conduction equation, we define ε_H, a quantity called *eddy diffusivity of heat* or the turbulent exchange coefficient for temperature, by the equation $\varepsilon_H = \overline{v'}1$. Therefore,

$$\frac{\mathbf{Q_t}}{\mathbf{A}} = \rho \mathbf{c_p}\, \varepsilon_H\, \frac{\mathbf{d\bar{T}}}{\mathbf{dy}} \tag{4.131}$$

The total rate of heat transfer per unit area

$$\frac{Q_t}{A} = \text{(molecular conduction)/area + (Turbulent transfer through eddies)/area}$$

$$= -\alpha \rho c_p \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy} - \rho c_p\, \varepsilon_H \frac{dT}{dy}$$

or

$$\frac{Q_t}{A} = -\rho\, c_p\, (\alpha + \varepsilon_H)\, \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy} \tag{4.132}$$

where $\alpha = k/\rho c_p$. **The contribution to the heat transfer by molecular conduction is proportional to α, and turbulent contribution is proportional to ε_H.**

For all fluids except liquid metals, $\varepsilon_H >> a$ in turbulent flow. For laminar flow,

$$\varepsilon_H = 0 \text{ and } Q/A = -\rho c_p\, \alpha\, \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy} = -k\, \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy}$$

In transition zone, $Q/A = -\rho c_p\, (\alpha + \varepsilon_H)\, \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy}$. Prandtl number was defined as the ratio of two transport properties, v/α, those of momentum and energy. Similarly, the ratio of the turbulent eddy viscosity to the eddy diffusivity, $\varepsilon_M/\varepsilon_H$, is called the *turbulent Prandtl number*, Pr_t. Therefore,

$$\mathbf{Pr_t} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_M}}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_H}} \tag{4.133}$$

According to Prandtl's mixing length theory, since $\varepsilon_M = \varepsilon_H = \overline{v'l}$, Pr_t is unity.

For $Pr_t = 1$, the turbulent heat flux can be related to the turbulent shear stress. By combining Eqs (4.126) and (4.131),

$$\frac{Q_t}{A\tau_t} = \frac{-\rho c_p \varepsilon_H \, d\bar{T}/dy}{\rho \varepsilon_M \, d\bar{u}/dy}$$

or
$$\frac{Q_t}{A} = -\bar{\tau}_t c_p \frac{d\bar{T}}{d\bar{u}} \tag{4.134}$$

This relationship was first derived in 1874 by the British physicist Osborne Reynolds and is called **Reynolds analogy**. It is a good approximation whenever the flow is turbulent and can be applied to turbulent boundary layers as well as to turbulent flow in pipes and ducts. This analogy, however, does not hold good in the viscous sublayer where the flow is laminar.

4.9 REYNOLDS' ANALOGY FOR TURBULENT FLOW OVER A FLAT PLATE

To derive a relation between heat transfer and friction coefficients in flow over a flat plate for a fluid having Pr = 1, we recall that the laminar shear stress

$$\tau = \mu \frac{du}{dy}$$

and the rate of heat transfer per unit area across any plane normal to the y-direction is

$$q'' = -k \frac{dT}{dy}$$

Combining these two equations, we obtain

$$q'' = -\tau \frac{k}{\mu} \frac{dT}{du} \tag{4.135}$$

In Eqs. (4.134) and (4.135), we observe that if $k/\mu = c_p$ or, $c_p \, \mu/k = 1$ i.e., Pr = 1, the same equation of heat flow holds good in the laminar and turbulent layers.

To determine the rate of heat transfer from a flat plate to a fluid with Pr = 1 flowing over it in turbulent flow, we replace k/μ by c_p and separate the variables in Eq. (4.135). Assuming that q'' and τ are constant, we get

$$\frac{q''_w}{\tau_w c_p} du = -dT \tag{4.136}$$

where the subscript w indicates that q'' and τ are taken at the wall of the plate. Integrating Eq. (4.136) between the limits $u = 0$ when $T = T_w$ and $u = u_\infty$ when $T = T_\infty$ gives

$$\frac{q''_w}{\tau_w c_p} u_\infty = T_w - T_\infty \tag{4.137}$$

Now, by definition, the local heat transfer coefficient h_{cx} and local friction coefficient C_{f_x} are

$$h_{cx} = \frac{q''_w}{T_w - T_\infty} \text{ and } \tau_{wx} = C_{f_x} \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2}$$

$$\frac{h_{cx} \, 2u_\infty}{C_{f_x} \, \rho u_\infty^2 c_p} = 1$$

or,
$$\frac{h_{cx}}{\rho c_p u_\infty} = \frac{C_{f_x}}{2} = St_x \tag{4.138}$$

where St_x = the local Stanton number = $Nu_x / Re_x Pr = h_{cx}/\rho c_p u_\infty$.

Equation (4.138) is satisfactory for gases in which Pr = 1. Colburn [12] has shown that this equation can also be used for fluids having $0.6 < Pr < 50$ if it is modified in accordance with

$$St_x Pr^{2/3} = \frac{C_{f_x}}{2} \tag{4.139}$$

where the subscript x denotes the distance from the leading edge of the plate. This expression is referred to as the *Reynolds–Colburn analogy*, and **$St_x Pr^{2/3}$ is called Colburn's j-factor**.

To apply the analogy between heat transfer and momentum transfer, in practice it is necessary to know the friction coefficient C_{f_x}. For turbulent flow over a flat plate the empirical equation for the local friction coefficient

$$C_{f_x} = 0.0576 \left(\frac{u_\infty x}{\nu}\right)^{-1/5} = \frac{0.0576}{(Re_x)^{0.2}} \tag{4.140}$$

is in good agreement with experimental results for Reynolds number varying between 5×10^5 and 5×10^7 [10].

If the turbulent boundary layer is assumed to start at the leading edge, the average friction coefficient over a plane surface of length L is

$$\overline{C}_f = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L C_{f_x}\, dx = 0.072\left(\frac{u_\infty L}{\nu}\right)^{-1/5} = \frac{0.072}{(Re_L)^{0.2}} \tag{4.141}$$

Again, from Eq. (4.139), for turbulent flow

$$St_x Pr^{2/3} = \frac{Nu_x}{Re_x Pr} Pr^{2/3} = \frac{C_{f_x}}{2} = \frac{0.0576}{2 \times (Re_x)^{0.2}}$$
$$= 0.0288\, Re_x^{0.2}$$
$$Nu_x = 0.0288\, Re_x^{0.8} Pr^{1/3} \tag{4.142}$$

It is the local Nusselt number at any value of x larger than x_c, since between $x = 0$ to $x = x_c$ the flow is laminar.

The average heat transfer coefficient in turbulent flow over a plane surface of length L is

$$h_m = \bar{h}_c = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L h_{cx}\, dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L \frac{k}{x} 0.0288\, Pr^{1/3}\left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu}\right)^{0.8} x^{0.8}\, dx$$

On integrating and nondimensionalising

$$Nu_L = 0.036\, Re_L^{0.8} Pr^{1/3} \tag{4.143}$$

This is valid only when $L >> x_c$.

To consider the mixed boundary layer in a flat plate with laminar flow from $x = 0$ to $x = x_c$ and turbulent flow from $x = x_c$ to $x = L$ (Fig. 4.28).

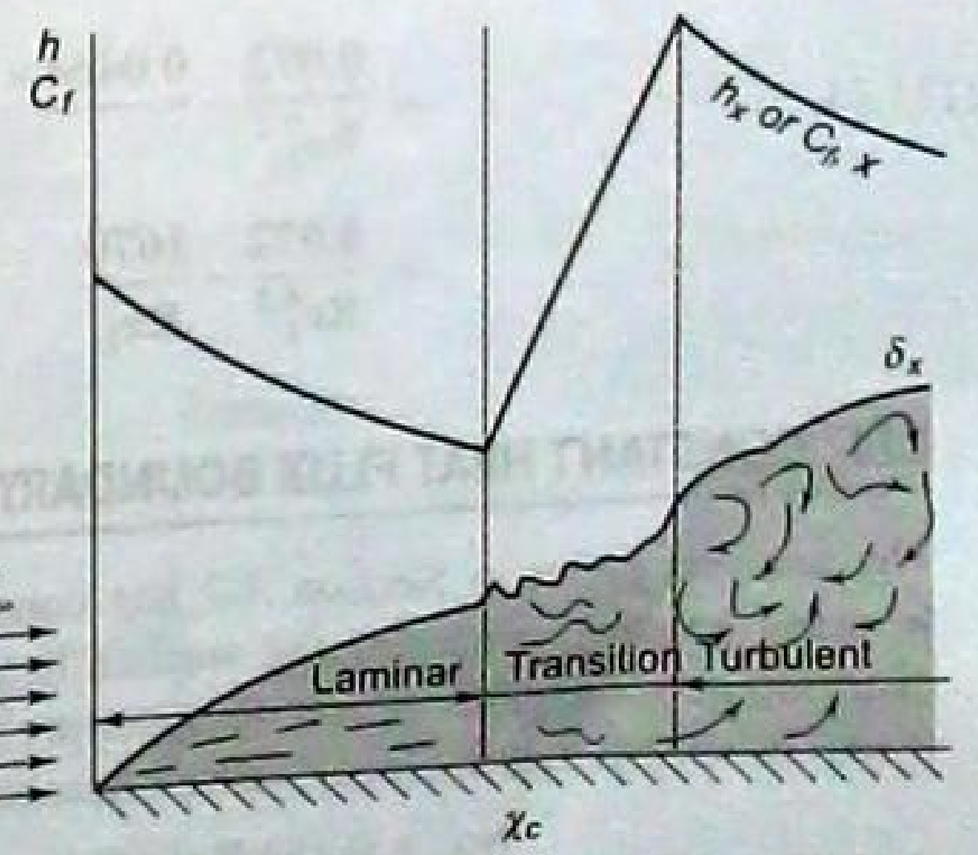


Fig. 4.28 *Variation of local friction and heat transfer coefficients, C_{f_x} and h_x for flow over a flat plate*

$$h_m = \frac{1}{L - x_c}\int_{x_c}^{L} 0.0288\left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu}\right)^{0.8}\frac{k}{x}x^{0.8}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}\,dx$$

$$\frac{h_c(L - x_c)}{k} = 0.036\,(\mathrm{Re}_L^{0.8} - \mathrm{Re}_{x_c}^{0.8})\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.036\,(\mathrm{Re}_L^{0.8} - 36{,}239)\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \qquad (4.144)$$

If Eq. (4.120) is used between $x = 0$ and $x = x_c$ and Eq. (4.142) between $x = x_c$ and $x = L$ for the integration of h_{cx} it yields, with $\mathrm{Re}_{xc} = 500{,}000$.

$$\bar{h} = \frac{1}{L}\left(\int_0^{x_c} h_{\text{lam.}}\,dx + \int_{x_c}^{L} h_{\text{turb.}}\,dx\right)$$

Putting $$\mathrm{Nu}_{\text{lam.}} = 0.332\left(\frac{u_\infty x}{\nu}\right)^{0.5}\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} = \frac{h_{\text{lam.}}x}{k}$$

and $$\mathrm{Nu}_{\text{turb.}} = 0.0288\left(\frac{u_\infty x}{\nu}\right)^{0.8}\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} = \frac{h_{\text{turb.}}x}{k}$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{k}{L}\left[0.332\left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu}\right)^{0.5}\int_0^{x_c} x^{-1/2}\,dx + 0.0288\left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu}\right)^{0.8}\int_{x_c}^{L} x^{-0.2}\,dx\right]\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = [0.664\,\mathrm{Re}_{xc}^{1/2} + 0.036\,(\mathrm{Re}_L{}^{0.8} - \mathrm{Re}_{x_c}{}^{0.8})]\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

or, $$\mathbf{Nu_L = (0.036\,Re_L^{0.8} - 835)\,Pr^{1/3}} \qquad (4.145)$$

Adding the laminar friction drag between $x = 0$ and $x = x_c$ to the turbulent drag between $x = x_c$ and $x = L$ gives per unit width,

$$\overline{C}_f = \frac{(0.072\,\mathrm{Re}_L^{-1/5}\,L - 0.072\,\mathrm{Re}_{x_c}^{-1/5}\,x_c + 1.33\,\mathrm{Re}_{x_c}^{-1/2}\,x_c)}{L}$$

For a critical Reynolds number, $\mathrm{Re}_{xc} = 500{,}000$, this reduces to

$$\overline{C}_f = 0.072\left(\mathrm{Re}_L^{-1/5} - \frac{0.0464\,x_c}{L}\right)$$

$$= \frac{0.072}{\mathrm{Re}_L^{0.2}} - \frac{0.0464 \times 0.072 \times 500{,}000}{\mathrm{Re}_L}$$

$$= \mathbf{\frac{0.072}{Re_L^{0.2}} - \frac{1670}{Re_L}} \qquad (4.146)$$

4.10 CONSTANT HEAT FLUX BOUNDARY CONDITION

The analysis given in Section 4.7 has considered the laminar heat transfer from an isothermal surface. In many practical problems the surface heat flux is essentially constant, and the objective is to find the distribution of the plate-surface temperature for given fluid-flow conditions. For the constant heat flux case it can be shown that the local Nusselt number is given by [13]

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.453\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \qquad (4.147)$$

which may be expressed in terms of wall heat flux and temperature difference as

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = \frac{q_w\, x}{k(T_w - T_\infty)} \tag{4.148}$$

The average temperature difference along the plate, for the constant heat flux condition, may be obtained from

$$\overline{T_w - T_\infty} = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L (T_w - T_\infty)\,\mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L \frac{q_w x}{k\mathrm{Nu}_x}\,\mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \frac{q_w\, L/k}{0.6795\ \mathrm{Re}_L^{1/2}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}} \tag{4.149}$$

$$\mathbf{q_w = \frac{3}{2} h_{x=L}(T_w - T_\infty)}$$

where q_w is the wall heat flux in W/m^2.

Other Relations: Equation (4.99) is applicable to fluids having Prandtl numbers between 0.6 and 50. It would not apply to fluids with very low Prandtl numbers like liquid metals or to high Prandtl number fluids like heavy oils or silicones. For a very wide range of Prandtl numbers, Churchill and Ozoe [30] have correlated a large amount of data to give the following relation for laminar flow on an isothermal plate:

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = \frac{0.3387\ \mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}}{\left[1 + \left(\dfrac{0.0468}{\mathrm{Pr}}\right)^{2/3}\right]^{1/4}} \quad \text{for } \mathrm{Re}_x\,\mathrm{Pr} > 100 \tag{4.150}$$

For the constant heat flux case, 0.3387 is changed to 0.4637 and 0.0468 is changed to 0.0207. The properties are evaluated at the film temperature.

4.11 BOUNDARY LAYER THICKNESS IN TURBULENT FLOW

In the turbulent boundary layer the shape of the velocity profile is much more curved than in the laminar layer [Fig. 4.29(a)]. The measured velocity profile agrees satisfactorily with the equation proposed by Prandtl:

$$u = u_\infty \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7} \tag{4.151}$$

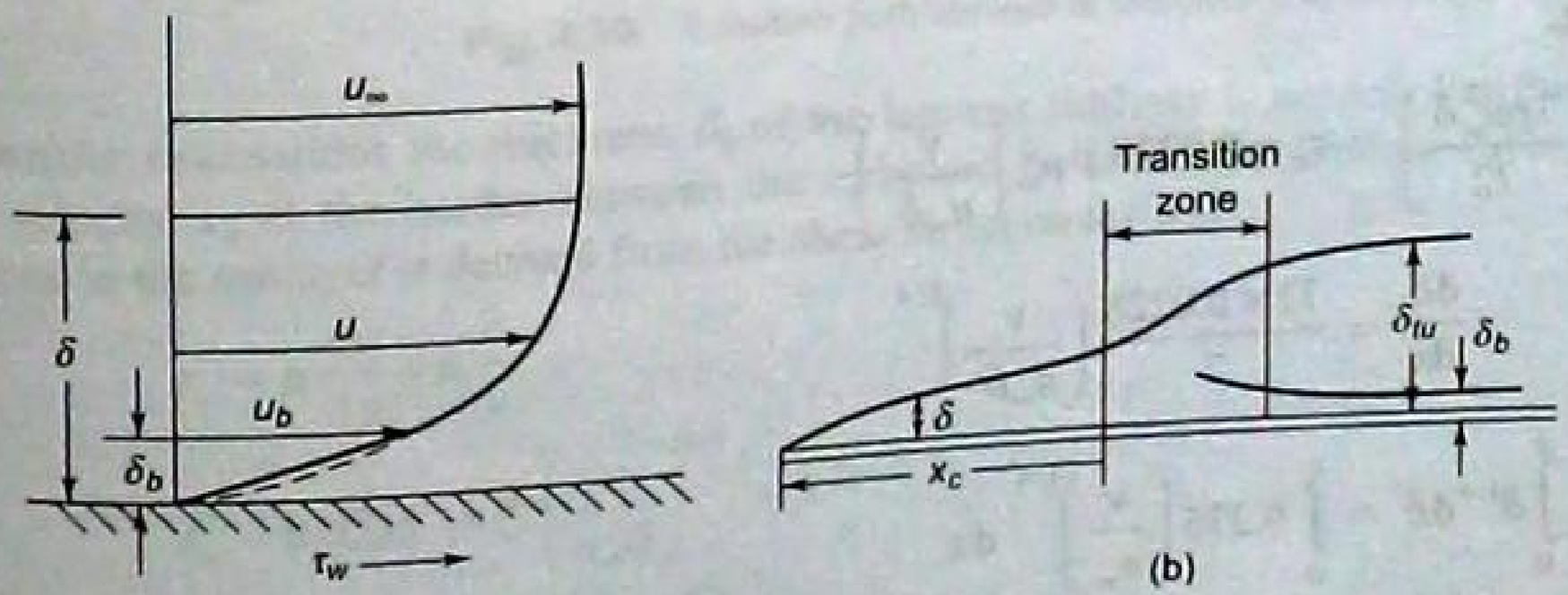


Fig. 4.29 *Laminar sublayer (δ_b) in a turbulent boundary layer (δ_{tu})*

This equation does not hold good near the wall. The velocity gradient

$$\frac{du}{dy} = \frac{1}{7}\frac{u_\infty}{\delta^{1/7} y^{6/7}}$$

and at the wall where $y = 0$, $du/dy = \infty$. An infinite value of shear stress at the wall is impossible. In fact the turbulence always dies down near the wall, where a laminar sublayer exists and where the velocity increases linearly with the distance y [Fig. 4.29(b)]. Outside this sublayer Eq. (4.151) holds true. For not too large Reynolds numbers and smooth surfaces, Blasius equation holds

$$\tau_w = 0.0228\ \rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4} \tag{4.152}$$

The momentum integral equation, Eq. (4.102),

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_0^\delta \rho u\,(u_\infty - u)dy = \tau_w$$

Substituting

$$u = \frac{u_\infty}{\delta^{1/7}} y^{1/7}$$

Integrand,

$$I = \rho \int_0^\delta \left[u_\infty - u_\infty \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7}\right] u_\infty \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7} dy$$

$$= \rho u_\infty^2 \int_0^\delta \left[1 - \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7}\right]\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7} dy$$

$$= \rho u_\infty^2 \left[\int_0^\delta \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7} dy - \int_0^\delta \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{2/7} dy\right]$$

$$= \rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{1}{\delta^{1/7}}\frac{\delta^{8/7}}{8/7} - \frac{1}{\delta^{2/7}}\frac{\delta^{9/7}}{9/7}\right)$$

$$= \rho u_\infty^2\, \delta\left(\frac{7}{8} - \frac{7}{9}\right) = \frac{7\rho u_\infty^2 \delta}{72}$$

Substituting,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{7\rho u_\infty^2 \delta}{72}\right) = \tau_w = 0.0228\,\rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$\frac{d\delta}{dx} = \frac{72 \times 0.0228}{7}\left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$\int_0^\delta \delta^{1/4} d\delta = \int_0^x 0.235 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/4} dx$$

$$\frac{4}{5}\delta^{5/4} = 0.294\left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/4} x$$

$$\delta = \left(0.294 \times \frac{5}{4}\right)^{4/5}\left(\frac{u}{u_\infty}\right)^{1/5}(x)^{4/5} = 0.376\left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty x}\right)^{1/5} x$$

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{0.376}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/5}} \tag{4.153}$$

The displacement thickness

$$\delta^* = \int_0^\infty \left(1 - \frac{u}{u_\infty}\right) dy = \int_0^\delta \left[1 - \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7}\right] dy$$

$$= \int_0^\delta dy - \frac{1}{\delta^{1/7}} \int_0^\delta y^{1/7} dy$$

$$= \delta - \frac{1}{\delta^{1/7}} \frac{7}{8} \delta^{8/7} = \frac{\delta}{8} \tag{4.154}$$

If the laminar and the turbulent boundary layers are calculated for the critical distance x_c, it can be seen that the turbulent layer is thicker. In reality an instantaneous increase in boundary layer thickness is not possible. The transition from the laminar to the turbulent boundary layer takes place in a transition zone as is indicated in Fig. 4.30.

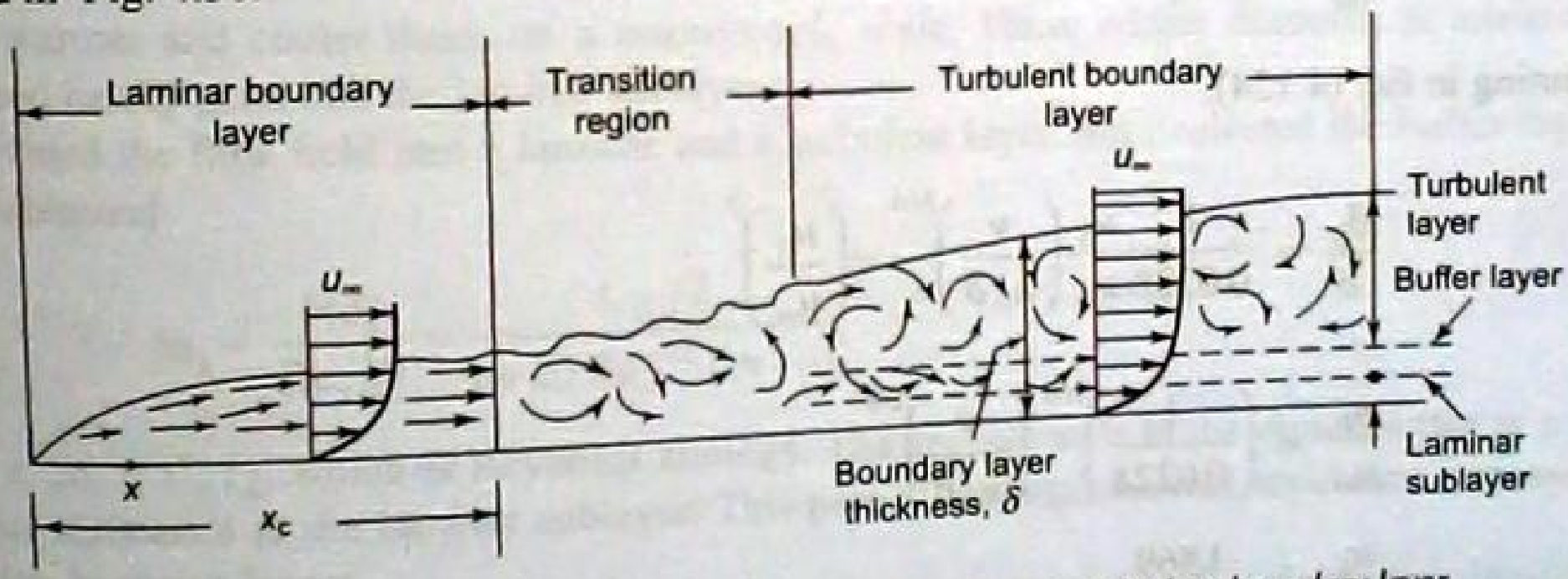


Fig. 4.30 *Transition from laminar to turbulent boundary layer*

For heat transfer calculations the thickness δ_b of the laminar sublayer is needed. For this we must first calculate the velocity u_b at the border between the turbulent layer and the laminar sublayer. The linear velocity increase in the sublayer is derived from the shear stress on the wall.

$$\tau_w = \mu \frac{du}{dy} = \mu \frac{u}{y}$$

Now,
$$\tau_w = 0.0228\ \rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4} = \mu \frac{u}{y}$$

$\therefore$
$$u = 0.0228\ \rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4} \frac{y}{\mu}$$

When $y = \delta_b$, $u = u_b$

$$\therefore \qquad u_b = 0.0228 \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{\mu} \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta} \right)^{1/4} \delta_b$$

$$= 0.0228 \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{\mu} \left(\frac{\nu \delta^3}{u_\infty} \right)^{1/4} \frac{\delta_b}{\delta}$$

$$\frac{\delta_b}{\delta} = \frac{1}{0.0228} \frac{\nu}{u_\infty^2} \left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu \delta^3} \right)^{1/4} u_b \quad u_b$$

$$= \frac{1}{0.0228} \frac{u_b}{u_\infty} \left(\frac{\nu^3}{u_\infty^3 \, \delta^3} \right)^{1/4} \qquad (4.155)$$

Now, $$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \left(\frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{1/7}$$

when $y = \delta_b$, $u = u_b$

$$\frac{u_b}{u_\infty} = \left(\frac{\delta_b}{\delta} \right)^{1/7}$$

Substituting in Eq. (4.154),

$$\frac{\delta_b}{\delta} = \frac{1}{0.0228} \frac{u_b}{u_\infty} \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta} \right)^{3/4} = \left(\frac{u_b}{u_\infty} \right)^7$$

$$\frac{u_b}{u_\infty} = \left(\frac{1}{0.0228} \right)^{1/6} \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta} \right)^{1/8}$$

or $$\frac{u_b}{u_\infty} = \frac{1.869}{(\mathrm{Re}_\delta)^{1/8}} \qquad (4.156)$$

Since, $$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{0.376}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$$

$$\frac{u_b}{u_\infty} = 1.869 \left(\frac{u_\infty \delta}{\nu} \right)^{-1/8} = 1.869 \left(\frac{u_\infty}{\nu} \frac{0.376\, x}{(u_\infty x/\nu)^{1/5}} \right)^{-1/8}$$

$$= 2.11 \left(\frac{u^{4/5} \, x^{4/5}}{\nu^{4/5}} \right)^{-1/8} = 2.11 \left(\frac{u_\infty x}{\nu} \right)^{-1/10}$$

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$$\frac{u_b}{u_\infty} = \frac{2.11}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{0.1}} \tag{4.157}$$

$$\frac{\delta_b}{\delta} = \left(\frac{u_b}{u_\infty}\right)^7 = \frac{(2.11)^7}{(\mathrm{Re}_x^{0.1})^7} = \frac{191}{\mathrm{Re}_x^{0.7}}$$

$$\frac{\delta_b}{\delta} = \frac{191}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{0.7}} \tag{4.158}$$

$$\tau_w = \frac{u_b}{\delta_b} = 0.0228\,\rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.0228\,\rho u_\infty \left[\frac{\nu}{u_\infty} \frac{(u_\infty x/\nu)^{1/5}}{0.376\,x}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= \frac{0.0296\,\rho u_\infty^2}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{0.2}} \tag{4.159}$$

At any given value of x, a turbulent boundary layer increases at a faster rate than a laminar boundary layer ($\delta_{tu} \propto x^{4/5}$ and $\delta_{lam} \propto x^{1/2}$). Despite its greater thickness, the turbulent boundary layer offers less resistance to heat flow than a laminar layer because the turbulent eddies produce continuous mixing between the warmer and cooler fluids on a macroscopic scale. These eddies diminish in intensity in the buffer layer and hardly penetrate the laminar sublayer.

Prandtl divided the flow field into a laminar and a turbulent layer, but neglected the buffer layer in his analysis and obtained

$$\mathrm{St}_x = \frac{\mathrm{Nu}_x}{\mathrm{Re}_x\,\mathrm{Pr}} = \frac{C_{f_x}/2}{1 + 2.1\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{-0.1}\,(\mathrm{Pr} - 1)} \tag{4.160}$$

For $\mathrm{Pr} = 1$, $\mathrm{St}_x = C_{f_x}/2$, which is Reynolds analogy. The second term in the denominator is a measure of the thermal resistance in the laminar sublayer. This part of the total thermal resistance increases as the Prandtl number becomes larger.

Prandtl's analysis was later refined by von Kàrmàn who divided the flow field into three zones: a laminar sublayer adjacent to the surface in which the eddy diffusivity ε_H is zero, and heat flows only by conduction. Next to it is a buffer layer in which both conduction and convection contribute to the heat transfer mechanism i.e., α and ε_H are of the same order of magnitude. Finally, a turbulent region in which conduction is negligible compared to convection, and the Reynolds analogy applies. He used experimental data for the velocity distribution and the shear stress to evaluate ε_M and assumed $\varepsilon_M = \varepsilon_H$. Also assuming the physical properties of the fluid to be independent of temperature, he determined the thermal resistances in each of the three zones. The von Kàrmàn analogy gives the following equation:

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = \frac{0.0296\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{0.8}\,\mathrm{Pr}}{1 + 0.86\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{-0.1}\,(\mathrm{Pr} - 1) + \ln\left[1 + \frac{5}{6}(\mathrm{Pr} - 1)\right]} \tag{4.161}$$

for $5 \times 10^5 < \mathrm{Re}_x < 10^7$ [14]

result in considerable savings in the material requirement. A large amount of literature is available on the subject [33]. We discuss briefly principal augmentation techniques for single-phase forced flow in ducts.

We recall the analogies between momentum and heat transfer. Increasing the friction factor increases the heat transfer coefficient. The Moody chart (Fig. 4.46, p. 316), for example, shows that in turbulent flow increasing the relative roughness of the surface increases the friction factor. This chart is based on the random sand-grain type of surface roughness. Other types of surface roughness have been produced and their friction factors and heat transfer characteristics have been tested for possible use in heat transfer augmentation as discussed below.

(a) Roughened surfaces

Surface roughness can be produced by the machining of the surface (like knurling) as well as by casting, forming, and welding processes. A large number of geometric configurations are possible, each having its own heat transfer and pressure drop characteristics.

(b) Extended surfaces

The use of fins on the outer surface of tubes to enhance heat transfer is well known. Internally finned tubes have also been used to enhance heat transfer to fluids flowing inside tubes.

(c) Coiled tubes

Coil tubes can serve as a heat transfer enhancement device because the secondary flow produced by the curvature causes an increase in the heat transfer coefficient.

Optimization Method

The increase in heat transfer with augmentation is accompanied by an increase in friction factor. In some situations, the heat transfer coefficients are increased at most about 4 times while the friction factors are increased as much as 50 times [33]. An increased friction factor implies an increased power for pumping the fluid. So the results of angmentation in enhancing heat transfer should be weighed against the increased power requirement for pumping the fluid. For a given heat transfer technique if the heat transfer and the friction factor data are available as a function of Reynolds number, it may be possible to optimize the system to reduce the heat transfer surface, to obtain increased heat transfer capacity, or to reduce the power required for pumping the fluid. The manufacturing procedure, manufacturing cost, materials, and factors like increase in operating cost associated with the augmentation technique used should be considered before a final dicision is made.

Solved Exampes

Example 4.1 An application involving exact solution of momentum and energy equations is met within a situation called Couette flow with heat transfer. Couette flow provides a simple model for flow between two parallel plates. The lower plate is stationary and the upper plate at a distance L is moving with a velocity U. The lower and upper plates are maintained at uniform temperatures T_0 and T_L respectively. This model can be applied to the case of a shaft rotating in its stationary bearing with a heavy lubricating oil in the clearance. If the clearance is small, the situation can be considered as that of flow between two parallel plates. Determine the velocity and temperature distribution between the two plates. Find also the surface heat fluxes to the plates.

There, the velocity distribution in dimensionless form becomes

$$\frac{u}{u_{\max}} = 1 - \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{u}{u_0} \tag{4.168}$$

Thus the velocity distribution in fully developed laminar flow is parabolic.
The mean velocity of fluid, u_m, is

$$u_m = \frac{\int_0^R ur\,dr}{\int_0^R r\,dr} = \frac{\int_0^R \frac{1}{4\mu}(r^2 - R^2)\left(\frac{dp}{dx}\right) r\,dr}{R^2/2}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2\mu R^2}\frac{dp}{dx}\left(R^2 \cdot \frac{R^2}{2} - \frac{R^4}{4}\right) = -\frac{R^2}{8\mu}\frac{dp}{dx} \tag{4.169}$$

$$u_0 = \text{fluid velocity at the centreline} = -\frac{R^2}{4\mu}\frac{dp}{dx}$$

$\therefore$ From Eq. (4.167), $\mathbf{u_0 = 2u_m}$ (4.170)

To obtain the pressure drop of the fluid in the tube of length L, a force balance (Fig. 4.39) gives

$$\Delta p \pi R^2 = 2\pi R \tau_w L$$

$$\mathbf{\Delta p = \frac{2\tau_w L}{R}}$$

The pressure drop can also be related in the form

$$\mathbf{\Delta p = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho U_m^2}{2}} \tag{4.171}$$

where f is the *Darcy friction factor*.

$$\therefore \quad \frac{2\tau_w L}{R} = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$$

or $$\tau_w = \frac{f}{8}\rho u_m^2 = C_f \frac{u_m^2}{2}$$

where C_f is the Fanning friction coefficient

$$\therefore \quad \mathbf{C_f = \frac{f}{4}} \tag{4.172}$$

From Eq. (4.169), putting $dp/dx = \Delta p/L$

$$u_m = -\frac{R^2}{8\mu}\frac{\Delta p}{L}$$

$$-\Delta p = 8\mu L\, u_m \frac{4}{D^2} = \frac{32\mu L u_m}{D^2}$$

or $$\mathbf{\Delta p = p_1 - p_2 = \frac{32\mu L u_m}{D^2}} \tag{4.173}$$

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This is known as **Hagen–Poiseuille equation** for laminar flow. If a fluid flows through a capillary tube of length L and diameter D, and the mass flow rate ($u_m = \dot{m}/\rho A$) and the pressure drop Δp are measured, the viscosity of the fluid μ can be estimated from the above equation.

Using Eq. (4.171),

$$\Delta p = \frac{32\mu L u_m}{D^2} = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathbf{f = \frac{64\mu}{\rho u_m D} = \frac{64}{Re_d}} \tag{4.174}$$

If the volumetric flow rate of the fluid is $\dot{V}$ ($\dot{m}v$) and Δp is the pressure drop, then the pumping power

$$P_p = \Delta p \frac{\dot{V}}{\eta_p} \tag{4.175}$$

where η_p is the pump efficiency.

4.13.1 Heat Transfer Coefficient for Laminar Flow in a Tube

There are two boundary conditions in which heat transfer coefficient can be determined:

(a) Constant Heat Flux

(b) Constant Wall Temperature

Other analytical methods for arbitrarily varying temperature or arbitrarily varying heat flux are quite complex.

(a) Constant Heat Flux

Let us consider the control volume (Fig. 4.40) for laminar flow through a tube where heat is transferred by conduction into and out of the element in a radial direction.

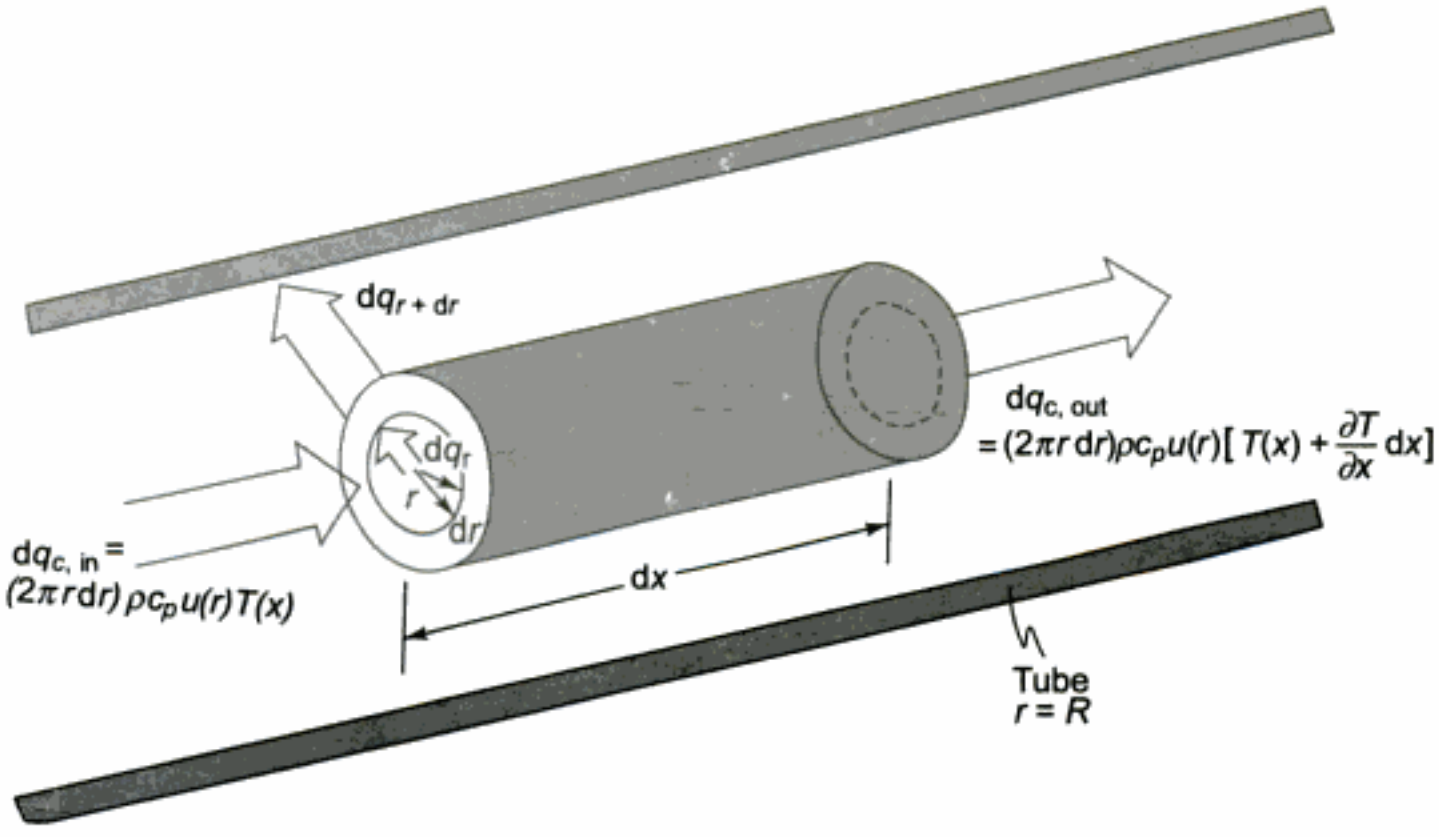


Fig. 4.40 *Control volume for energy analysis in flow through a pipe*

Rate of heat conduction into the element

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where the fluid properties are evaluated at the bulk fluid temperature except Pr_w which is evaluated at the tube wall temperature.

For laminar flow in the range $10 < Re_d < 100$

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.8\, Re_d^{0.4}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.233}$$

for in-line tubes and

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.9\, Re_d^{0.4}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.234}$$

for staggered tubes.

In the transition regime $10^3 < Re_d < 2 \times 10^5$,

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.27\, Re_d^{0.63}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.235}$$

for in-line tubes and

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.35 \left(\frac{S_T}{S_L}\right)^{0.2} Re_d^{0.60}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.236}$$

for staggered tubes with $S_T/S_L < 2$ and

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.40\, (Re_d)^{0.60}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.237}$$

for staggered tubes with $S_T/S_L \geq 2$.

In turbulent regime, $Re_d > 2 \times 10^5$,

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.021\, Re_d^{0.84}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.238}$$

for in-line tubes and

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.022\, Re_d^{0.84}\, Pr^{0.36} \left(\frac{Pr}{Pr_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.239}$$

for staggered tubes with $Pr > 1$, and if $Pr = 0.7$

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.019\, Re_d^{0.84} \tag{4.240}$$

Achenbach [30] extended the tube-bundle data upto $Re_d = 7 \times 10^6$ for staggered arrangement with $S_T/D = 2$ and lateral pitch $S_L/D = 1.4$. His correlation is

$$\overline{Nu}_d = 0.0131\, Re_d^{0.883}\, Pr^{0.36} \tag{4.241}$$

which is valid in the range $4.5 \times 10^5 < Re_d < 7 \times 10^6$.

4.19 HEAT TRANSFER ENHANCEMENT

Considerations to save energy and material in recent years have spurred research at producing more efficient heat exchange equipment by augmentation of heat transfer. The potentials of heat transfer augmentation in engineering applications are numerous. For example, the heat exchanger for a projected ocean thermal energy conversion (OTEC) plant or a desalination plant requires a heat transfer surface area on the order of 10,000 m^2/MW(e). Clearly, an increase in the efficiency or the heat exchanger through augmentation may

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$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}_d} = \frac{h_c D}{k} = C\left(\frac{u_\infty D}{\nu}\right)^m \mathrm{Pr}^n \left(\frac{\mathrm{Pr}}{\mathrm{Pr}_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.222}$$

where all fluid properties are evaluated at the free-stream fluid temperature T_∞ except for Pr_w which is evaluated at the wall temperature. The constants are given below.

Re_d	C	m
1 – 40	0.75	0.4
40 – 1×10^3	0.51	0.5
1×10^3 – 2×10^5	0.26	0.6
2×10^5 – 1×10^6	0.076	0.7

For $\mathrm{Pr} < 10$, $n = 0.37$, and for $\mathrm{Pr} > 10$, $n = 0.36$.

Whitaker [see Ozisik] correlated the average heat transfer coefficient h_m for the flow of gases or liquids across a single cylinder by

$$\mathrm{Nu}_m = \frac{h_m D}{k} = (0.4\,\mathrm{Re}^{0.5} + 0.06\,\mathrm{Re}^{2/3})\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.4}(\mu_\infty/\mu_w)^{0.25} \tag{4.223}$$

which agrees with the experimental data within 25% in the range of variables: $40 < \mathrm{Re} < 10^5$, $0.67 < \mathrm{Pr} < 300$, $0.25 < \dfrac{\mu_\infty}{\mu_w} < 5.2$, where the physical properties are evaluated at T_∞, except μ_w evaluated at T_w. The functional dependence $\mathrm{Re}^{0.5}$ characterizes the contribution from the undetached laminar boundary region, and $\mathrm{Re}^{2/3}$ characterizes the contribution from the wake region around the cylinder.

A more elaborate but more general correlation is given by Churchill and Bernstein [see Ozisik] for the average heat transfer coefficient h_m for flow across a single cylinder as

$$\mathrm{Nu}_m = 0.3 + \frac{0.62\,\mathrm{Re}^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}}{\left[1 + (0.4/\mathrm{Pr})^{2/3}\right]^{1/4}}\left[1 + \left(\frac{\mathrm{Re}}{282000}\right)^{1/2}\right] \tag{4.224}$$

for $20{,}000 < \mathrm{Re} < 400{,}000$.

4.18.1 Flow Across a Sphere

A knowledge of heat transfer characteristics to or from spherical bodies is important for predicting the thermal performance of systems where clouds of particles are heated or cooled in a stream of fluid, as in packed or fluidised beds. In the limit of very small Reynoldo numbers (creeping flow), the drag coefficient is inversely proportional to Reynolds number and the specific relation is termed Stoke's law: $C_D = \dfrac{24}{\mathrm{Re}_d}$, for $\mathrm{Re}_d < 0.5$. The total drag coefficient of a sphere as a function of Reynolds number is shown in Fig. 4.53 and corresponding data for heat transfer are shown in Fig. 4.56. For $25 \le \mathrm{Re}_b \le 100{,}000$, the equation recommended by McAdams [29] for estimating the average heat transfer coefficient for spheres heated or cooled by a gas is

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}_d} = \frac{h_c D}{k} = 0.37\left(\frac{\rho D u_\infty}{\mu}\right)^{0.6} = 0.37\,\mathrm{Re}_d^{0.6} \tag{4.225}$$

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geometry is characterised by the *transverse pitch* S_T and the *longitudinal pitch* S_L between the tube centres. The *diagonal pitch* S_D is sometimes used for the staggered arrangement. To define the Reynolds number for flow through the tube bank, the flow velocity is based on the *minimum flow area*

$$\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{DG_{\max}}{\mu} \tag{4.229}$$

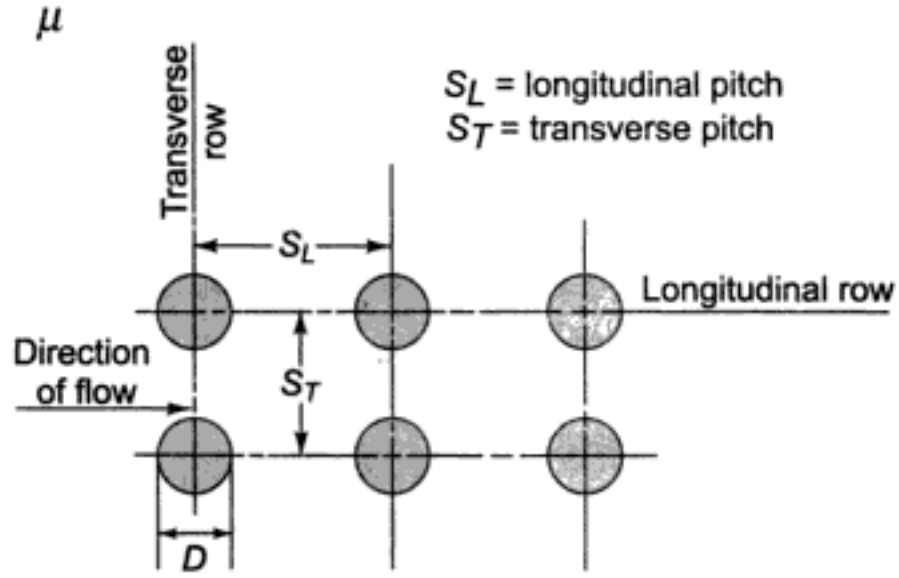


Fig. 4.57 *In-line tube arrangement in cross flow*

where $G_{\max} = \rho u_{\max}$ = maximum mass flow velocity, $u_{\max}$ being the maximum velocity based on the minimum flow area available for flow. If u_∞ is the fluid velocity at entry to the tube bank, then the in-line arrangement,

$$u_{\max} = u_\infty \frac{S_T}{S_T - D} = u_\infty \frac{S_T/D}{S_T/D - 1} \tag{4.230}$$

where S_T is the transverse pitch. For staggered arrangement,

$$u_{\max} = u_\infty \frac{S_T}{2\,(S_D - D)} = \frac{1}{2} u_\infty \frac{S_T/D}{S_D/D - 1} \tag{4.231}$$

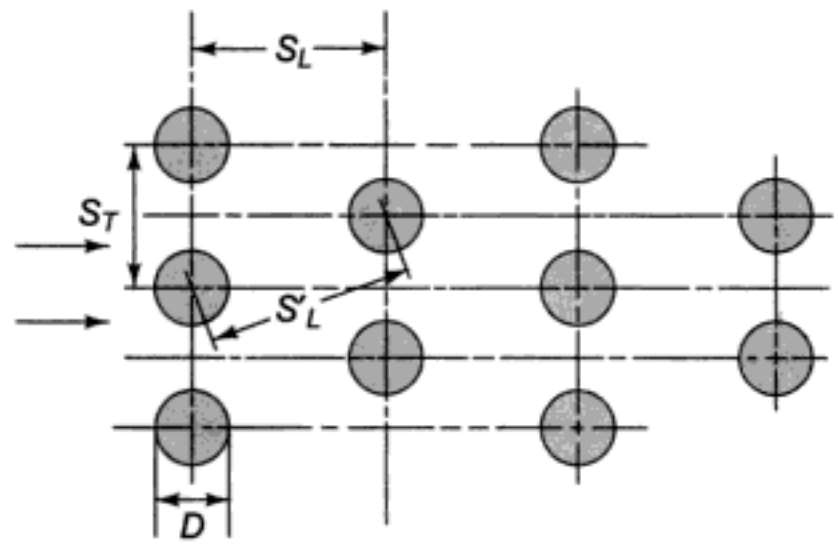


Fig. 4.58 *Staggered tube arrangement in cross flow*

The Reynolds number is

$$\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{u_{\max} D}{\nu}$$

Zukauskas [28] developed correlation for $0.7 < \mathrm{Pr} < 500$ in the form

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = C\,\mathrm{Re}_d^m\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.36}\left(\frac{\mathrm{Pr}}{\mathrm{Pr}_w}\right)^{0.25} \tag{4.232}$$

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Solution With reference to Fig. Ex. 4.1, the continuity equation for steady-state incompressible flow

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$$

$= 0$ $= 0$

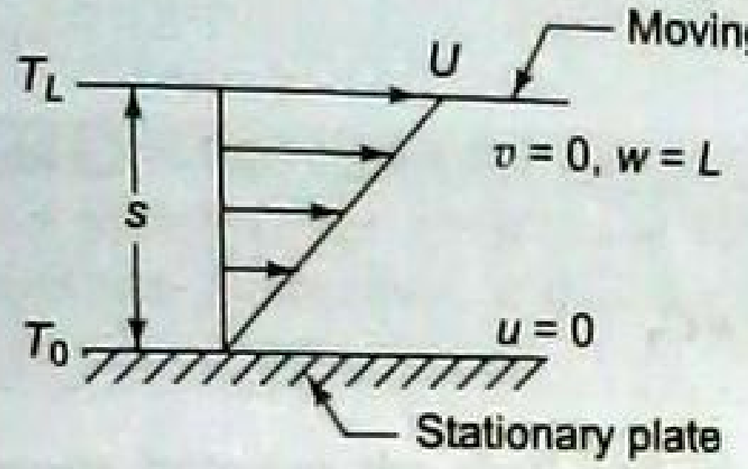


Fig. Ex. 4.1

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 \text{ or } u \neq f(x)$$

The velocity does not vary with x.

The x-momentum equation.

$$\rho\left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + w\frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = F_x - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu\nabla^2 u\right] = 0$$

$= 0$ $= 0$ $= 0$ $= 0$ $= 0$ $= 0$

$$\nabla^2 u = 0$$

or
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = C_1 y$$

or, $u = C_1 y + C_3$, which is linear,

At $y = 0, u = 0, \quad \therefore C_2 = 0$

$y = L, U = u, \quad U = C_1 L$ or $C_1 = U/L$

The velocity distribution in Couette flow is then given by

$$u(y) = \frac{U}{L} y$$

or,
$$\frac{u}{U} = \frac{y}{L} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The energy equation can be written as

$$k\nabla^2 T + \mu\phi = \rho c_p \frac{DT}{Dt}$$

Solution With reference to Fig. Ex. 4.1, the continuity equation for steady-state incompressible flow

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}}_{=0} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial w}{\partial z}}_{=0} = 0$$

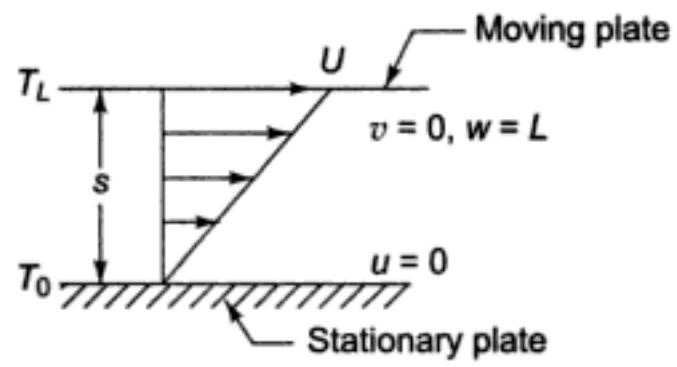


Fig. *Ex. 4.1*

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0 \text{ or } u \neq f(x)$$

The velocity does not vary with x.

The x-momentum equation.

$$\rho\left[\underbrace{\frac{\partial u}{\partial t}}_{=0} + u\underbrace{\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}}_{=0} + v\underbrace{\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}}_{=0} + w\underbrace{\frac{\partial w}{\partial z}}_{=0} = F_x \underbrace{\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}}_{=0} + \mu\nabla^2 u\right] = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 u = 0$$

or
$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = C_1 y$$

or, $u = C_1 y + C_3$, which is linear,

At $y = 0, u = 0, \quad \therefore C_2 = 0$

$y = L, U = u, \quad U = C_1 L$ or $C_1 = U/L$

The velocity distribution in Couette flow is then given by

$$u(y) = \frac{U}{L} y$$

or,
$$\frac{u}{U} = \frac{y}{L} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The energy equation can be written as

$$k\nabla^2 T + \mu\phi = \rho c_p \frac{DT}{Dt}$$

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$$k\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\mu\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)^2=\rho c_p\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t}+u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}+w\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)$$

$$k\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}+\mu\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2=0$$

$$\frac{d^2T}{dy^2}=-\frac{\mu}{k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2$$

$$\frac{dT}{dy}=-\frac{\mu}{k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2 y+C_3$$

$$T=-\frac{\mu}{2k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2 y_2+C_3y+C_3$$

At $y=0, T=T_o, \quad \therefore C_4=T_o$

At $y=L, T=T_L, \quad \therefore T_L=-\frac{\mu}{2k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2 L^2+C_3L+T_o$

$$C_3=\frac{T_L-T_o}{L}+\frac{\mu}{2k}\frac{U^2}{L}$$

$\therefore$ $$T(y)=-\frac{\mu}{2k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2 y^2+\frac{T_L-T_o}{L}y+\frac{\mu}{2k}\frac{U^2}{L}y+T_o$$

or $$T(y)=T_o+\frac{\mu}{2k}U^2\left(\frac{y}{L}-\frac{y^2}{L^2}\right)+(T_L-T_o)\frac{y}{L}$$

In dimensionless form,

$$\frac{T(y)-T_o}{T_L-T_o}=\frac{y}{L}+\frac{\mu}{2k}U^2\frac{(y/L-y^2/L^2)}{(T_L-T_o)}$$

$$=\frac{y}{L}\left[1+\frac{\mu U^{2\,*}}{2k(T_L-T_o)}\left(1-\frac{y}{L}\right)\right]$$

Let, $$\frac{y}{L}=\eta,\ \mathrm{Pr}=\frac{\mu c_p}{k},\ E=\text{Eckert number}=\frac{U^2}{c_p\,(T_L-T_o)}$$

and $$\theta(\eta)=\frac{T(y)-T_o}{T_L-T_o};\theta(\eta)=\eta\left[1+\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{Pr}.E(1-\eta)\right]$$

This is the temperature distribution in Couette flow. Because of viscous dissipation, the maximum temperature occurs in the fluid and heat transfer occurs both to the hot and cold plates. For Pr. $E = 0$, there is no flow ($U = 0$) and hence there is no viscous dissipation, and the temperature distribution is linear. The surface heat fluxes can be obtained by Fourier's law:

$$q(y)=-k\frac{dT}{dy}=-k\left[\frac{\mu}{2k}U^2\left(\frac{1}{L}-\frac{1}{L^2}2y\right)+\frac{T_L-T_o}{L}\right]$$

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$$q_{y=0} = -k\frac{\mu}{2k}\frac{U^2}{L} - \frac{(T_L - T_o)k}{L} = -\frac{\mu U^2}{2L} - \frac{k}{L}(T_L - T_o) \text{ Bottom plate}$$

$$q_{y=L} = k\frac{\mu}{2k}\frac{U^2}{L} - \frac{k}{L}(T_L - T_o) = \frac{\mu U^2}{2L} - \frac{k}{L}(T_L - T_o) \text{ Top plate}$$

These are the heat fluxes.

Example 4.2 A heavy lubricating oil (μ = 0.8 N s/m^2, k = 0.15 W/mK) flows in the clearance between a shaft and its bearing. If the bearing and shaft are kept at 10°C and 30°C respectively and the clearance between them is 2 mm, determine the maximum temperature in the oil and the heat flux to the plates for a velocity U = 6 m/s.

Solution Because of small clearance between the shaft and its bearing, the flow between them may be assumed as Couette flow. The surface heat fluxes are

$$q(0) = -\frac{\mu U^2}{2L} - \frac{k}{L}(T_L - T_o)$$

$$= -\frac{0.8 \times 6^2}{2 \times 2 \times 10^{-3}} - \frac{0.15}{2 \times 10^{-3}}(30 - 10)$$

$$= -7200 - 1500 = -8700 \text{ W/m}^2 = -8.7 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$q(L) = \frac{\mu U^2}{2L} - \frac{k}{L}(T_L - T_o) = 7200 - 1500$$

$$= 5700 \text{ W/m}^2 = 5.7 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

The maximum temperature in the oil will occur where dT/dy = 0

$$-\frac{\mu}{k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2 y + C_3 = 0$$

$$\frac{\mu}{k}\left(\frac{U}{L}\right)^2 y = \frac{T_L - T_o}{L} + \frac{\mu}{2k}\frac{U^2}{L}$$

$$y = \frac{T_L - T_o}{L}\frac{kL^2}{\mu U^2} + \frac{\mu}{2k}\frac{U^2}{L}\frac{kL^2}{\mu U^2}$$

$$= \left[\frac{k}{\mu U^2}(T_L - T_o) + \frac{1}{2}\right] L$$

$$y = \left[\frac{0.15}{0.8 \times 36}(30 - 10) + \frac{1}{2}\right] L = 0.604\, L$$

$$T_{\max} = T_o + \frac{\mu}{2k}U^2\left(\frac{y}{L} - \frac{y^2}{L^2}\right) + \frac{T_L - T_o}{L}y$$

$$= 10 + \frac{0.8}{2 \times 0.15} \times 36\,[0.604 - (0.604)^2] + (30 - 10)\,0.604$$

$$= 10 + 22.944 + 12.8 = 45.74°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

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or
$$\frac{u_\infty}{6}\left(\zeta^3\delta\frac{\mathrm{d}\delta}{\mathrm{d}x}+2\zeta^2\delta^2\frac{\mathrm{d}\zeta}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)=\alpha \tag{5}$$

From the x-momentum equation, we obtain

$$\rho\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\int_o^\delta (u_\infty-u)u\,\mathrm{d}y=\tau_w=\mu\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}$$

or
$$\rho u_\infty^2\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\int_o^\delta\left(1-\frac{u}{u_\infty}\right)\frac{u}{u_\infty}\mathrm{d}y=\mu\frac{u_\infty}{\delta}$$

or
$$\rho u_\infty\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\int_o^\delta\left(\frac{y}{\delta}-\frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right)\mathrm{d}y=\frac{\mu}{\delta}$$

or
$$\rho u_\infty\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(\frac{1}{\delta}\frac{\delta^2}{2}-\frac{1}{\delta^2}\cdot\frac{\delta^3}{3}\right)=\frac{\mu}{\rho}$$

or
$$\frac{\rho u_\infty}{6}\frac{\mathrm{d}\delta}{\mathrm{d}x}=\frac{\mu}{\delta}$$

$$\delta\frac{\mathrm{d}\delta}{\mathrm{d}x}=\frac{6\mu}{\rho u_\infty}=\frac{6\nu}{u_\infty} \tag{6}$$

$$\int_o^\delta\delta\,\mathrm{d}\delta=\frac{6\nu}{u_\infty}\int_o^\delta\mathrm{d}x$$

or
$$\frac{\delta^2}{2}=\frac{6\nu x}{u_\infty}$$

$$\frac{\delta^2}{x^2}=\frac{12\nu}{u_\infty x}=\frac{12}{\mathrm{Re}_x}$$

$$\frac{\delta}{x}=\frac{3.464}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}} \tag{7}$$

Substituting Eq. (6) in Eq. (5),

$$\frac{u_\infty}{6}\left(\zeta^3\frac{6\nu}{u_\infty}+2\zeta^2\frac{12\nu x}{u_\infty}\frac{\mathrm{d}\zeta}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)=\alpha$$

$$\zeta^3+4\zeta^2x\frac{\mathrm{d}\zeta}{\mathrm{d}x}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{Pr}} \tag{8}$$

or
$$\zeta^3=-\frac{4}{3}x\frac{\mathrm{d}\zeta^3}{\mathrm{d}x}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{Pr}}$$

Putting
$$\zeta^3=y,\ y+\frac{4}{3}x\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{Pr}}$$

Particular integral: $y=\dfrac{1}{\mathrm{Pr}}$

Complementary function: $y+\dfrac{4}{3}x\dfrac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}=0$

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or $$\frac{dy}{y} = -\frac{3}{4}\frac{dx}{x}$$

$$y = Cx^{-3/4}$$

$\therefore$ $$\zeta^3 = Cx^{-3/4} + \frac{1}{\text{Pr}}$$

Let the portion x_0 of the plate be unheated (Fig. Ex. 4.3.2) so that the thermal boundary layer starts from $x = x_0$. (9

At $x = x_0,\ \delta_t = 0,\ \therefore\ \zeta = 0$

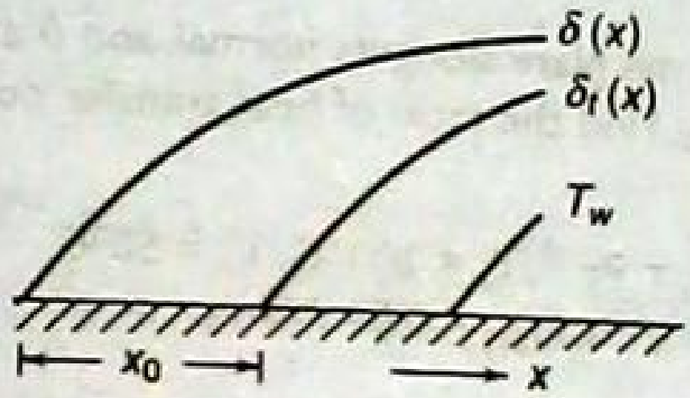


Fig. *Ex. 4.3.2*

Substituting in Eq. (9)

$$0 = Cx_0^{-3/4} + \frac{1}{\text{Pr}}$$

$$C = -\frac{x_0^{3/4}}{\text{Pr}}$$

or $$\zeta^3 = -\frac{x_0^{3/4}}{\text{Pr}}\, x^{-3/4} + \frac{1}{\text{Pr}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\text{Pr}}\left[1 - \left(\frac{x_o}{x}\right)^{3/4}\right]$$

$$\eta = \text{Pr}^{-1/3}\left[1 - \left(\frac{x_o}{x}\right)^{3/4}\right]^{1/3}$$

If x_0 = unheated portion = 0

$$\zeta = \text{Pr}^{-1/3}$$

or $$\frac{\delta_t}{\delta} = \text{Pr}^{-1/3}$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta_t} = \text{Pr}^{1/3} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \textbf{(b)}$$

$$\frac{Q}{A} = -k\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = -k\frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t} = \frac{k}{\delta_t}(T_w - T_\infty)$$

$$h_c = \frac{k}{\delta_t} = \frac{k}{\delta \, \mathrm{Pr}^{-1/3}} = \frac{k\,(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}}{3.464x\,(\mathrm{Pr})^{-1/3}}$$

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = \frac{h_c x}{k} = 0.288\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \quad \textit{Ans. (c)}$$

Example 4.4 Air at a temperature of T_∞ flows over a flat plate with a free stream velocity of u_∞. The plate is maintained at a constant temperature of T_w. The velocity u and temperature T of air at any location are given by

$$\frac{u}{u_\infty} = \sin\frac{\pi}{2\delta} \text{ and } \frac{T - T_w}{T_\infty - T_w} = 2\left(\frac{y}{\delta_t}\right) - \left(\frac{y}{\delta_t}\right)^2$$

where y is the distance measured from the plate along its normal, and δ and δ_t are the hydrodynamic and thermal boundary layer thicknesses, respectively. Find the ratio of heat transfer coefficient to shear stress at the plate surface using the following data:

$u_\infty = 10$ m/s, $\delta/\delta_t = \mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$, $T_w = 200°\mathrm{C}$, $T_\infty = 50°\mathrm{C}$,
$\mu_{(air)} = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms, $k_{(air)} = 0.04$ W/mK,
$c_p(\text{air}) = 1.0$ kJ/kg K.

Solution Shear stress at the wall

$$\tau_w = \mu\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}$$

Velocity profile

$$u/u_\infty = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\frac{y}{\delta}\right)$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = u_\infty\left(\cos\frac{\pi}{2}\frac{y}{\delta}\right)_{y=0}\frac{\pi}{2\delta} = \frac{u_\infty \pi}{2\delta}$$

$$\therefore \qquad \tau_w = \mu\frac{\pi u_\infty}{2\delta} \qquad (1)$$

Temperature distribution

$$\frac{T - T_w}{T_\infty - T_w} = 2\left(\frac{y}{\delta_t}\right) - \left(\frac{y}{\delta_t}\right)^2$$

$$\frac{1}{T_\infty - T_w}\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = \frac{2}{\delta_t}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = \frac{2(T_\infty - T_w)}{\delta_s}$$

$$h(T_w - T_\infty) = -k\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = k\,\frac{2(T_w - T_\infty)}{\delta_t}$$

$$h = \frac{2k}{\delta_t} \qquad (2)$$

From Eqs (1) and (2),

$$\frac{h}{\tau_w} = \frac{2k}{\delta_t}\frac{2\delta}{\mu\pi u_\infty} = \frac{4k}{\mu\pi u_\infty}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

This is the desired expression for h/τ_w.

$$\mathrm{Pr} = \frac{\mu c_p}{k} = \frac{2.5\times10^{-5}\times1}{0.04\times10^{-3}} = 0.625$$

$$\frac{h}{\tau_w} = \frac{4\times0.04\times(0.625)^{1/3}}{2.5\times10^{-5}\times10\pi}\ \frac{\mathrm{W}}{\mathrm{mk}}\frac{\mathrm{ms}}{\mathrm{kg}}\frac{\mathrm{s}}{\mathrm{m}}\frac{\mathrm{Nm}}{\mathrm{sW}}$$

$$= 174.18\ \mathrm{ms^{-1}\,K^{-1}} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.5 Given: Nitrogen gas at 0°C is flowing over a 1.2 m long, 2 m wide plate maintained at 80°C with a velocity of 2.5 m/s. For nitrogen, $\rho = 1.142\ \mathrm{kg/m^3}$, $c_p = 1.04\ \mathrm{kJ/kgK}$, $\nu = 15.63\times10^{-6}\ \mathrm{m^2/s}$ and $k = 0.0262\ \mathrm{W/mK}$. To find: (a) The average heat transfer coefficient and (b) the total heat transfer from the plate.

Solution The critical Reynolds number for flow over a flat plate is 500,000, so that

$$\mathrm{Re}_{xc} = \frac{u_\infty x_c}{\nu} = 500{,}000$$

$$\therefore \quad x_c = \frac{500{,}000\times15.63\times10^{-6}}{2.5} = 3.126\ \mathrm{m} = 312.6\ \mathrm{cm}$$

Since the plate length is 120 cm in flow direction, laminar flow persists in the entire length of the plate, for which

$$\mathrm{Nu}_m = 0.664\,\mathrm{Re}_L^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

where $$\mathrm{Re}_L = \frac{u_\infty L}{\nu} = \frac{2.5\times1.2}{15.63\times10^{-6}} = 191{,}938.6$$

and $$(\mathrm{Re}_L)^{1/2} = 438.1$$

$$Pr = \frac{c_p\mu}{k} = \frac{1.04\times15.63\times10^{-6}\times1.142}{0.0262\times10^{-3}}$$

$$= 0.708$$

$$\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} = (0.708)^{1/3} = 0.89$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathrm{Nu}_m = 0.664\times438.1\times0.89 = 258.9 = \frac{h_m L}{k}$$

$$\therefore \quad h_m = \frac{258.1\times0.0262}{1.2} = 5.653\ \mathrm{W/m^2K}\ \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(a)}$$

Total rate of heat transfer from the plate

$$Q = h_m(Lb)\,(T_w - T_\infty) = 5.653\times1.2\times2\times(80-0)$$

$$= 1085.4\ \mathrm{W} = 1.085\ \mathrm{kW}\ \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(b)}$$

$$= 0.332 \times \frac{0.02732}{0.28} \times (5 \times 10^4)^{1/2} (0.7)^{1/3}$$

$$= 6.43 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(vii) Average convective heat transfer coefficient

$$\overline{h} = 0.664 \frac{k}{L} (\text{Re}_L)^{1/2} (\text{Pr})^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.664 \times \frac{0.02732}{0.28} \times (5 \times 10^4)^{1/2} (0.7)^{1/3}$$

$$= 12.86 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(viii) Rate of heat transfer

$$Q = \overline{h} \cdot A (T_\omega - T_\infty)$$
$$= 12.86 \times 0.28 \times 0.28 \times (56 - 20)$$
$$= 36.29 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(ix) Total drag force on the plate

$$F_D = \tau_\omega \times A$$
$$= 0.01519 \times 0.28 \times 0.28$$
$$= 0.00119 \text{ N} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(x) Total mass flow through the boundary

$$\omega = \frac{5}{8} \rho u_\infty (\delta_2 - \delta_1)$$

$$= \frac{5}{8} \times 1.1374 \times 3 \times (0.00626 - 0)$$

$$= 0.01335 \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.7 Air at 20°C and at atmospheric pressure flows at a velocity of 4.5 m/s past a flat plate with a sharp leading edge. The entire plate surface is maintained at a temperature of 60°C. Assuming that the transition occurs at a critical Reynolds number of 5×10^5, find the distance from the leading edge at which the boundary layer changes from laminar to turbulent. At the location, calculate the following:

(i) Thickness of hydrodynamic boundary layer,
(ii) Thickness of thermal boundary layer,
(iii) Local and average convective heat transfer coefficients,
(iv) Heat transfer rate from both sides per unit width of plate,
(v) Mass entrainment in the boundary layer,
(vi) Skin friction coefficient.

Assume cubic velocity profile and approximate method. Thermophysical properties of air at mean film temperature of 40°C are: $\rho = 1.128$ kg/m^3, $\nu = 16.96 \times 10^{-6}$ m^3/s, $k = 0.02755$ W/mK and Pr = 0.7.

Solution At the transition point,

$$\text{Re}_{x_c} = \frac{u_\infty x_c}{\nu}$$

$$\therefore \quad x_c = \frac{5 \times 10^5 \times 16.96 \times 10^{-6}}{4.5} = 1.88 \text{ m}$$

Example 4.6 Air at 20°C and a pressure of 1 bar is flowing over a flat plate at a velocity of 3 m/s. If the plate is 280 mm wide and at 56°C, estimate the following quantities at x = 280 mm, given that the properties of air at the bulk mean temperature of 38°C are: ρ = 1.1374 kg/m^3, k = 0.02732 W/mK, c_p = 1.005 kJ/kgK, and $\nu = 16.768 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s:

(i) boundary layer thickness, (ii) local friction coefficient, (iii) average friction coefficient, (iv) shearing stress due to friction, (v) thickness of thermal boundary layer, (vi) local convective heat transfer coefficient, (vii) average convective heat transfer coefficient, (viii) rate of heat transfer by convection, (ix) total drag force on the plate, and (x) local mass flow rate through the boundary.

Solution $u_\infty = 3$ m/s, $x = 280$ mm $= 0.28$ m, $\rho = 1.1374$ kg/m^3,

$$k = 0.02732 \text{ W/mK}, c_p = 1.005 \text{ kJ/kgK}, \nu = 16.768 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s},$$

$$\text{Pr} = \frac{c_p \mu}{k} = \frac{1.005 \times 16.768 \times 10^{-6} \times 1.1374 \times 10^3}{0.02732} = 0.7$$

We are to confirm first whether the flow is laminar or turbulent. At $x = 0.28$ m,

$$\text{Re}_x = \frac{u_\infty x}{\nu} = \frac{3 \times 0.28}{16.768 \times 10^{-6}} = 5 \times 10^4$$

Since $\text{Re}_x < 5 \times 10^5$, the flow is laminar throughout.

(i) Boundary layer thickness

$$\delta = \frac{5x}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}} = \frac{5 \times 0.28}{\sqrt{5 \times 10^4}} = 0.00626 \text{ m}$$
$$= 6.26 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(ii) Local friction coefficient

$$c_{fx} = \frac{0.664}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_x}} = \frac{0.664}{\sqrt{5 \times 10^4}}$$
$$= 0.002969 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(iii) Average friction coefficient

$$\bar{c}_f = \frac{1.328}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_L}} = \frac{1.328}{\sqrt{5 \times 10^4}} = 0.005938 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(iv) Shearing stress due to friction

$$\tau_w = c_{fx} \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2} = 0.002969 \times \frac{1.1374 \times 3^2}{2}$$
$$= 0.01519 \text{ N/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(v) Thickness of thermal boundary layer

$$\delta_{\text{th}} = \frac{8}{\text{Pr}^{1/3}} = \frac{0.00626}{(0.7)^{1/3}} = 0.00705 \text{ m} = 7.05 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(vi) Local convective heat transfer coefficient.

$$h_x = 0.332 \frac{k}{x} (\text{Re}_x)^{1/2} (\text{Pr})^{1/3}$$

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(i) Thickness of hydrodynamic boundary layer

$$\delta = \frac{4.64\,x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_{x_c}}} = \frac{4.64 \times 1.88}{\sqrt{5 \times 10^5}}$$

$$= 0.01234 \text{ m or } 12.34 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

(ii) Thickness of thermal boundary layer

$$\delta_{th} = \frac{0.975\,\delta}{(\mathrm{Pr})^{1/3}} = \frac{0.975 \times 0.01234}{(0.7)^{1/3}}$$

$$\therefore \qquad \delta_{th} = 0.01355 \text{ m or } 13.55 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

(iii) $\mathrm{Nu}_{x_c} = 0.332\,(\mathrm{Re}_{x_c})^{1/2}\,(\mathrm{Pr})^{1/3}$

$$= 0.332\,(5 \times 10^5)^{1/2}\,(0.7)^{1/3} = 208.34$$

$$\therefore \qquad h_c = \frac{\mathrm{Nu}_c \times k}{x_c} = \frac{208.34 \times 0.02755}{1.88}$$

$$= 3.05 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (iii)}$$

Average heat transfer coefficient

$$\bar{h} = 2\,h_c = 2 \times 3.05 = 6.1 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (iii)}$$

(iv) Heat transfer from both sides per unit width of the plate

$$Q = \bar{h}\,(2A_s)\Delta T = 6.1 \times 2 \times (1.88 \times 1) \times (60 - 20)$$

$$= 917.4 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (iv)}$$

(v) Maximum entrainment in the boundary layer

$$\dot{m} = \frac{5}{8}\,\rho u(\delta_2 - \delta_1)$$

$$= \frac{5}{8} \times 1.128 \times 4.5\,(0.01234 - 0)$$

$$= 0.039 \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (v)}$$

(vi) Skin friction coefficient

$$C_{f_x} = \frac{0.646}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_{x_c}}} = \frac{0.646}{\sqrt{5 \times 10^5}} = 9.136 \times 10^{-4} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (vi)}$$

Example 4.8 *Given:* Water at 10°C flows over a flat plate (at 90°C) measuring 1 m × 1 m, with a velocity of 2 m
Properties of water at 50°C are $\rho = 988.1$°C, $\nu = 0.556 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s, Pr = 3.54 and $k = 0.648$ W/mK.
To find: (a) The length of plate over which the flow is laminar, (b) the rate of heat transfer from the entire plate.

Solution Up to $\mathrm{Re}_c = 500{,}000$, the flow is laminar and beyond this value, the flow is turbulent af
transition section. Therefore,

$$\mathrm{Re}_c = 500{,}000 = \frac{u_\infty x_c}{\nu}$$

$$x_c = \frac{500{,}000 \times 0.556 \times 10^{-6}}{2} = 0.139 \text{ m}$$

The length of plate up to which the flow is laminar is 0.139 m. *Ans.* (a)

Laminar Part:

$$\text{Nu}_c = 0.664\,(\text{Re}_c)^{1/2}\,(\text{Pr})^{1/3}$$
$$= 0.664\,(500{,}000)^{1/2}\,(3.54)^{1/3}$$
$$= 715.08 = \frac{h_m x_c}{k}$$
$$h_m = \frac{715.08 \times 0.648}{0.139} = 3333.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$
$$Q_{\text{laminar}} = h_m A(T_\omega - T_\infty)$$
$$= 3333.6 \times 0.139 \times 1 \times (90 - 10)$$
$$= 37069.6 \text{ W} = 37.07 \text{ kW}$$

Turbulent Part

$$\frac{h_m(L - x_c)}{k} = 0.036[(\text{Re}_L)^{0.8} - (\text{Re}_C)^{0.8}]\text{Pr}^{1/3}$$

where $$\text{Re}_L = \frac{U_\infty L}{\nu} = \frac{2 \times 1 \times 10^6}{0.556} = 3.597 \times 10^6$$

and $$(\text{Re}_L)^{0.8} = 175{,}692$$
$$(\text{Re}_c)^{0.8} = (500{,}000)^{0.8} = 36239$$
$$\text{Pr}^{1/3} = (3.54)^{1/3} = 1.523$$

$\therefore$ $$\frac{h_m(1 - 0.139)}{0.648} = 0.036\,(175692 - 36{,}239) \times 1.523$$
$$= 7645.93$$

$\therefore$ $$h_m = 5754.4 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$
$$Q_{\text{turbulent}} = 5754.4 \times 0.861 \times 1 \times (90 - 10)$$
$$= 396365 \text{ W} = 396.365 \text{ kW}$$

$\therefore$ $$Q_{\text{total}} = Q_{\text{lam.}} + Q_{\text{turb.}}$$
$$= 37.07 + 396.37$$
$$= 433.44 \text{ kW } \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

Example 4.9 Atmospheric air flows inside a heated thin-walled 25 mm diameter tube with a velocity of 0.5 m/s. Heating can be done either by condensing steam on the outer surface of the tube, thus maintaining a uniform surface temperature, or by electric resistance heating, thus maintaining a uniform surface heat flux. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient for both of these heating conditions. Assume air properties of 350 K given as: $\nu = 20.76 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and $k = 0.03$ W/mK and the flow as hydrodynamically and thermally developed.

Solution Reynolds number, $\text{Re}_d = \dfrac{u_m d}{\nu}$

$$= \frac{0.5 \times 0.025}{20.76 \times 10^{-6}} = 602$$

Thus, the flow is laminar. In the hydrodynamically and thermally developed flow for
(a) Constant wall temperature, the heat transfer coefficient (by condensing steam), using Eq. (4.185),

$$h = 3.66\,\frac{k}{d} = 3.66 \times \frac{0.03}{0.025}$$
$$= 4.39\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) Constant heat flux (by electric resistance heating) using Eq. (4.184),

$$h = 4.364\,\frac{k}{d} = 4.364 \times \frac{0.03}{0.025}$$
$$= 5.24\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.10 Water flows through a 20 mm ID at a rate of 0.01 kg/s entering at 10°C. The tube is wrapped from outside by an electric heating element that produces a uniform flux of 15 kW/m^2. If the exit temperature of water is 40°C, estimate (a) the Reynolds number, (b) the heat transfer coefficient, (c) the length of pipe needed, (d) the inner tube surface temperature at exit, (e) the friction factor, (f) the pressure drop in the tube, and (g) the pumping power required if the pump efficiency is 60%. Neglect entrance effects. Properties of water at mean temperature of 25°C are: $\rho = 997$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 4180$ J/kgK, m $= 910 \times 10^{-6}$ Ns/m^2, and $k = 0.608$ W/mK.

Solution Reynolds number is

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{\rho u_m d}{\mu} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi d \mu}$$
$$= \frac{4 \times 0.01}{\pi \times (0.02) \times 910 \times 10^{-6}} \cong 700 \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (a)$$

Thus, the flow is laminar.
Since the thermal boundary layer is of uniform heat flux, $\text{Nu}_d = 4.364 = \dfrac{hd}{k}$

$$\therefore \qquad h = 4.364 \times \frac{0.608}{0.02} = 132.5\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(b)}$$

By energy balance,

$$q'' \pi dL = \dot{m}\, c_p\, (T_o - T_i)$$

$$\therefore \qquad L = \frac{\dot{m} c_p\, \Delta T}{\pi d q''}$$

$$= \frac{0.01 \times 4180 \times 30}{\pi \times 0.02 \times 15,000} = 1.33\ \text{m} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(c)}$$

Since $L/d = \dfrac{1.33}{0.02} = 66.5$ and $0.05\ \text{Re}_d = 33.5$, entrance effects are not significant according to Eq. (4.162).
Again, $q'' = h\,(T_w - T_b)_e$

$$15000 = 132.5\,(T_w - 40)$$

$$\therefore \qquad T_w = \frac{15000}{132.5} + 40 = 153.2°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(d)}$$

Friction factor, $f = \dfrac{64}{\text{Re}_d} = \dfrac{64}{700} = 0.0915$ *Ans.* (e)

Water velocity, $u_m = \dfrac{4\dot{m}}{\rho\pi d^2} = \dfrac{4\times 0.01}{997\times\pi(0.02)^2} = 0.032$ m/s

Pressure drop in the tube

$$\Delta p = \frac{fL}{d}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$$

$$= 0.0915 \times 66.5 \times \frac{997\times(0.032)^2}{2}$$

$$= 3.1 \text{ N/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (f)$$

Pumping power $= \dfrac{\dot{m}\Delta p}{\rho\eta_p} = \dfrac{0.01\times 3.1}{997\times 0.6}$

$$= 5.18\times 10^{-5}\text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (g)$$

Example 4.11 Water is heated while flowing through a 1.5 cm × 3.5 cm rectangular cross-section tube at a velocity of 1.2 m/s. The entering temperature of the water is 40°C, and the tube wall is maintained at 85°C. Determine the length of the tube required to raise the temperature of water to 70°C. Properties of water at the mean bulk temperature of 55°C are: $\rho = 985.5$ kg/m^3; $c_p = 4.18$ kJ/kg K, $\nu = 0.517\times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, $k = 0.654$ W/m K and Pr = 3.26.

Solution The hydraulic/equivalent diameter of the duct (Fig. Ex. 4.7)

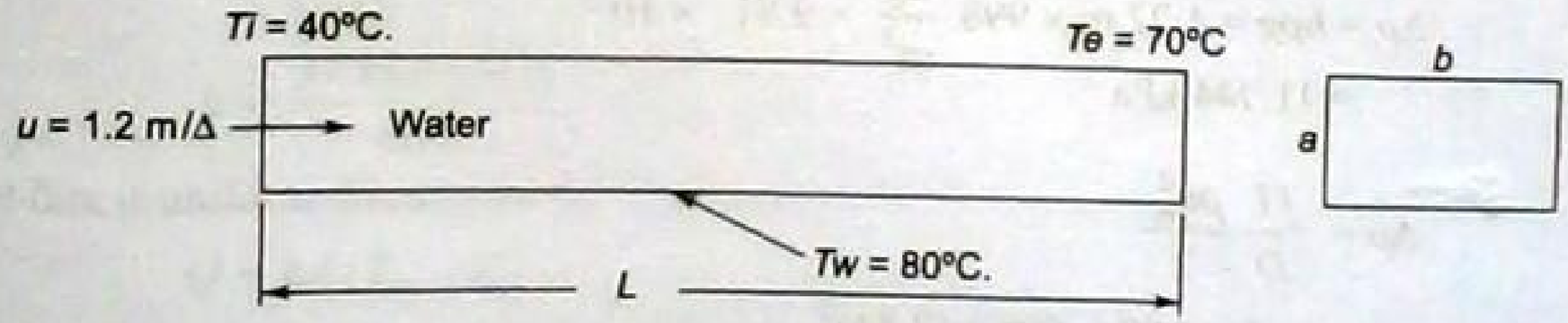


Fig. *Ex. 4.7*

$$D_e = \frac{4A}{P} = \frac{4ab}{2(a+b)} = \frac{2ab}{a+b} = \frac{2\times 1.5\times 3.5}{1.5+3.5} = 2.1\text{ cm}$$

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D_e}{\nu} = \frac{1.2\times 2.1\times 10^{-2}}{0.517\times 10^{-6}} = 48{,}740$$

$$(\text{Re}_d)^{0.8} = (40{,}740)^{0.8} = 5627.4$$

$$(\text{Pr})^{0.4} = (3.26)^{0.4} = 1.604$$

Using Dittus–Boelter equation, with water being heated,

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.023\ \text{Re}_d^{0.8}\ \text{Pr}^{0.4} = 0.023\times 5627.4\times 1.604$$

$$= 207.6 = \frac{h_c D_e}{k}$$

$$h_c = \frac{207.6\times 0.654}{2.1\times 10^{-2}} = 6465\text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} = 6.465\text{ kW/m}^2\text{ K}$$

Now, $h_c P\, dx\,(T_w - T) = \dot{m} c_p\, dT$

where dT is the temperature rise of water in the differential length dx.

$$\frac{h_c P}{\dot{m} c_p}\int_0^L dx = \int_{T_i}^{T_e}\frac{dT}{T_w - T}$$

$$\frac{h_c PL}{\dot{m} c_p} = \ln\frac{T_w - T_i}{T_w - T_e}$$

Therefore,

$$L = \frac{\dot{m} c_p}{h_c P}\ln\frac{T_w - T_i}{T_w - T_e} \qquad (1)$$

Now, $\dot{m} = \rho A u_m = 985.5 \times 1.5 \times 3.5 \times 10^{-4} \times 1.2$

$= 0.621$ kg/s

$P = 2(a + b) = 2(1.5 + 3.5) = 10$ cm $= 0.1$ m

On substitution in Eq. (1),

$$L = \frac{0.621 \times 4.18}{6.465 \times 0.1}\ln\frac{85 - 40}{85 - 70} = 4.41 \text{ m}$$

The length of tube required is 4.41 m *Ans.*

Example 4.12 It was found during a test in which water flowed with a velocity of 2.44 m/s through a cube (2.54 cm inner diameter and 6.08 m long), that the head lost due to friction was 1.22 m of water. Estimate the surface heat transfer coefficient based on Reynolds analogy. Take $\rho = 998$ kg/m^3 and $c_p = 4.187$ kJ/kg K.

Solution

$$\Delta p = h\rho g = 1.22 \text{ m} \times 998 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3} \times 9.81 \times 10^{-3}$$

$= 11.944$ kPa

$$\Delta p = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$$

$$= \frac{f \times 6.08}{2.54 \times 10^{-2}} \cdot \frac{998 \times (2.44)^2}{2} = 11{,}944 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$\therefore \quad f = \frac{11{,}944 \times 2.54 \times 10^{-2} \times 2}{6.08 \times 998 \times (2.44)^2} = 0.0168$$

By Reynolds analogy,

$$\text{St}_d = \frac{h}{\rho c_p u_m} = \frac{f}{8}$$

$$\therefore \quad h = \frac{0.0168}{8} \times 998 \times 4.18 \times 2.44$$

$= 21.38$ kW/m^2 K *Ans.*

Example 4.13 *Given:* Atmospheric pressure air at 100°C enters a 0.04 m dia 2 m long tube with a velocity of 9 m/s. A 1 kW electric heater wound on the outer surface of the tube provides a uniform heat flux to the tube.

To find: (a) The mass flow rate of air, (b) the exit temperature of air, and (c) the wall temperature of tube at outlet.

Solution Density of air at 100°C,

$$\rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{101.325}{0.287 \times 373} = 0.946 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

Mass flow rate of air, $\dot{m} = \rho A u_m$

$$= 0.946 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.04)^2 \times 9$$

$$= 0.0107 \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

Now, $$Q = \dot{m} c_p (T_e - T_i) = 1 \text{ kW}$$

$$T_e = 100 + \frac{1}{0.0107 \times 1.005} = 193^\circ\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

Mean air temperature, $T_m = \frac{T_e + T_i}{2} = \frac{293}{2}$

$$= 146.5^\circ\text{C}$$

At 146.5°C, the properties of air taken from the Appendix by interpolation are $\rho = 0.84$ kg/m^3, Pr = 0.683, $k = 0.026$ W/mK and $\nu = 28.8 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s

$\text{Re}_d = u_m D/\nu = 9 \times 0.04/28.8 \times 10^{-6} = 12{,}500$

Using Dittus – Boelter equation

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.023 (\text{Re}_d)^{0.8} (\text{Pr})^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 (12{,}500)^{0.8} (0.683)^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 \times 1894.6 \times 0.859$$

$$= 37.43$$

$$\therefore \quad h = \frac{37.43 \times 0.026}{0.04} = 24.33 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

Since heat flux is uniform throughout the length of the tube,

$$Q = hA (T_{w_e} - T_e)$$

where T_{w_e} is the exit wall temperature and T_e is the exit air temperature.

$$\therefore \quad 1 \text{ kW} = 24.33 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K} \times \pi \times 0.04 \times 2 \text{ m}^2 (T_{w_e} - 193)\text{K}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{we} = 193 + \frac{10^4}{2.433 \times \pi \times 8} = 356.5^\circ\text{C}$$

The exit wall temperature is 356.5°C. *Ans.* (c)

Example 4.14 *Given:* Lubricating oil ($\rho = 865$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.14$ W/mK, $c_p = 1.78$ kJ/kgK, and $\nu = 9 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s) at 60°C enters a 1 cm dia tube with a velocity of 3.5 m/s. $T_w = 30^\circ$C, constant.
To find: The tube length required to cool the oil to 45°C.

Solution Reynolds number, $\text{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D}{\nu} = \frac{3.5 \times 0.01}{9 \times 10^{-6}}$

$$= 3888.9$$

Prandtl number, $\text{Pr} = \frac{c_p \mu}{k} = \frac{1.78 \times 9 \times 10^{-6} \times 865}{0.14 \times 10^{-3}}$

$$= 98.98$$

Using Dittus–Boelter equation

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.023\,(\text{Re}_d)^{0.8}\,(\text{P}_r)^{0.3}$$
$$= 0.023\,(3888.9)^{0.8}\,(98.98)^{0.3}$$
$$= 0.023 \times 744.5 \times 3.97 = 67.98 = \frac{hD}{K}$$
$$\bar{h} = \frac{67.98 \times 0.14}{0.01} = 951.72\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K}$$

For an isothermal tube surface (Eq. 4.187),

$$\frac{\bar{h}\pi DL}{\dot{m}c_p} = \ln\frac{T_w - T_i}{T_w - T_e}$$

where $\dot{m} = \rho A u_m = 865 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.01)^2 \times 3.5$

$$= 0.238\ \text{kg/s}$$

$$\therefore \quad L = \frac{0.238 \times 1.78}{\pi \times 0.01 \times 0.951} \ln\frac{30-60}{30-45}$$
$$= 14.18\ \text{m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.15 *Given:* Air flows at 30 m/s through a 2 cm dia 1 m long tube entering at 20°C and 101.3 kPa. The pressure loss in the tube is 8 cm of water gauge.
To determine: The amount of heat transferred from the tube wall to the air when the wall temperature is maintained constant at 95°C.

Solution Pressure drop of air in the tube

$$\Delta p = h\rho g = 0.08 \times 1000 \times 9.81 = 784.8\ \text{N/m}^2$$
$$= 0.785\ \text{kPa}$$

By Reynolds analogy, from (Eq. 4.201),

$$q_w = \tau_w c_p \frac{T_w - T_B}{U_m}$$

Multiplying both sides by the tube wall surface

$$Q_w = R\,\frac{c_p}{U_m}(T_w - T_B)$$

where R = flow resistance = $\tau_w . A$ in newtons.
Power necessary to make the fluid flow

$$\dot{W} = \dot{V}\,\Delta P = R u_m$$

where $\dot{V}$ = Volume flow rate $= \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 u_m$

and $R = \tau_w A = \Delta p \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 = 0.785 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.02)^2 = 2.466 \times 10^{-4}\ \text{kN}$

$$= 0.2466\ \text{N}$$

$$Q_w = 0.2466 \times .005 \times \frac{T_w - T_B}{30} = 8.26 \times 10^{-3} (T_w - T_B) \quad (1$$

$$\rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{101.325}{0.287 \times 293} = 1.2 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$\dot{m} = 1.2 \times \frac{\pi}{4} (0.02)^2 \times 30 = 0.0113 \text{ kg/s}$$

$$Q = \dot{m} c_p (T_e - T_i) = 0.0113 \times 1.005 \, (T_e - 20)$$

$$= 0.011356 \, (T_e - 20) \quad (2)$$

From Eqs (1) and (2) above,

$$8.26 \times 10^{-3} \left(95 - \frac{T_e + 20}{2} \right) = 0.011356 (T_e - 20)$$

$$95 - \frac{T_e}{2} - 10 = 1.375 \, T_e - 27.5$$

$$\therefore \quad T_e = 60°\text{C}$$

Rate of heat transfer, $Q = 0.011356 \, (60 - 20) \times 10^3$

$$= 454 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$$

Also, from Eq. (1),

$$Q = 8.26 \times 10^{-3} \left(95 - \frac{60 + 20}{2} \right)$$

$$= 454.3 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.16 A refrigerated truck is travelling at 80 km/h on a desert highway where the air temperature is 60°C. The body of the truck may be idealised as a rectangular box, 3.2 m wide, 2.1 m high and 6.6 m long, at a surface temperature of 10°C. Assume that the heat transfer from the front and back of the truck may be neglected, that the stream does not separate from the surface and that the boundary layer is turbulent over the whole surface. Calculate (a) the rate of heat transfer to the four surfaces, (b) the required tonnage of the refrigeration unit and (c) the power required to overcome the resistance acting on the four surfaces. Properties of air at 35°C are: $\rho = 1.147$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.0271$ W/m K, $\nu = 16.48 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and $c_p = 1.005$ kJ/kg K.

Solution *Given:* $u_\infty = 80$ km/h $= 22.22$ m/s

$$T_\infty = 60°\text{C}, \; T_w = 10°\text{C}$$

$$\text{Re}_L = \frac{u_\infty L}{\nu} = \frac{22.22 \times 6.6}{16.48 \times 10^{-6}} = 8.9 \times 10^6$$

$$\text{Pr} = \frac{\nu \rho c_p}{k} = \frac{16.48 \times 10^{-6} \times 1.147 \times 1.005}{0.0271 \times 10^{-3}} = 0.7$$

Since the boundary layer is turbulent throughout the length

$$\text{Nu}_m = 0.036 \, (\text{Re}_L)^{0.8} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$$

$$= \frac{0.0271}{} \times$$

$$= 53.61 \times 0.89 = 47.7 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$Q = h_m A (T_w - T_\infty)$$
$$= 47.7 \times 6.6 \times 2 (2.1 + 3.2) (60 - 10) \times 10^{-3}$$
$$= 166.85 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

$$\text{Tonnage} = \frac{166.85}{3.89} = 42.9 \text{ tons of refrigeration} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

(c) $$\bar{c}_f = 0.072 (\text{Re}_L)^{-0.2} = \frac{0.072}{(8.9 \times 10^6)^{0.2}}$$
$$= 2.934 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\tau_w = \bar{c}_f \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2} = \frac{2.934 \times 10^{-3} \times 1 \times 1.147 \times (22.22)^2}{2}$$
$$= 0.83 \text{ N/m}^2$$

Drag force $$R = \tau_w \times \text{Area} = 0.83 \times 6.6 \times 2 (3.2 + 2.1)$$
$$= 58.1 \text{ N}$$

Power required $$= Ru_\infty = 58.1 \times 22.22 \times 10^{-3}$$
$$= 1.29 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

Example 4.17 Air at 27°C and 1 atm flows over a flat plate at a velocity of 3 m/s. Calculate the boundary layer thickness at distances of 25 and 45 cm from the leading edge of the plate. Calculate the mass flow which enters the boundary layer between x = 25 cm and x = 45 cm. The viscosity of air at 27°C is 1.85×10^{-5} kg/ms. Assume unit depth in z-direction.

Solution

$$\rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{1.01325}{0.287 \times 300} = 1.177 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

At $$x = 25 \text{ cm}, \text{Re}_x = \frac{1.177 \times 3 \times 0.25}{1.85 \times 10^{-5}} = 47{,}716$$

At $$x = 45 \text{ cm}, \text{Re}_x = \frac{1.177 \times 3 \times 0.45}{1.85 \times 10^{-5}} = 85{,}889$$

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{4.64}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/2}}$$

At $$x = 25 \text{ cm}, \delta = \frac{4.64 \times 0.25}{(47{,}716)^{1/2}} \times 10^3 = 5.31 \text{ mm}$$

At $$x = 45 \text{ cm}, \delta = \frac{4.64 \times 0.45 \times 10^3}{(85{,}889)^{1/2}} = 7.125 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

At any x-position the mass flow in the boundary layer is given by

$$\int_0^\delta \rho u \, dy$$

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where the velocity is given by

$$= \frac{u}{u_\infty} = \frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^3$$

Mass flow

$$= \int_0^\delta \rho u_\infty \left(\frac{3}{2}\frac{y}{\delta} - \frac{1}{2}\frac{y^3}{\delta^3}\right) dy$$

$$= \rho u_\infty \left(\frac{3}{2\delta}\frac{\delta^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2\delta^3}\frac{\delta^4}{4}\right)$$

$$= \frac{5}{8}\rho u_\infty \delta$$

Mass flow entering the boundary layer between $x = 25$ cm and $x = 45$ cm

$$= \frac{5}{8}\rho u_\infty (\delta_{45} - \delta_{25})$$

$$= \frac{5}{8} \times 1.177 \times 3 \times (7.125 - 5.31) \times 10^{-3}$$

$$= 4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.18 For the flow system in Example 4.17 assume that the plate is heated over its entire length to a temperature of 70°C. Calculate the heat transferred in (a) the first 25 cm of the plate and (b) the first 45 cm of the plate. Given are the properties of air at 48.5°C: k = 0.02749 W/m K, $\nu = 17.36 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s, c_p = 1.006 kJ/kg K and Pr = 0.7.

Solution

$$\text{Re}_x \text{ at 25 cm} = \frac{u_\infty x}{\nu} = \frac{3 \times 0.25}{17.36 \times 10^{-6}} = 43{,}200$$

$$\text{Re}_x \text{ at 45 cm} = \frac{3 \times 0.45}{17.36 \times 10^{-6}} = 77{,}765$$

$$\text{Nu}_x = \frac{h_x x}{k} = 0.332\,(\text{Re}_x)^{0.5}\,(\text{Pr})^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.332\,(43{,}200)^{0.5}\,(0.7)^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.332 \times 207.85 \times 0.89$$

$$= 61.4$$

$$h_x = \frac{61.4 \times 0.02749}{0.25} = 6.75 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$h = 2h_x = 2 \times 6.75 = 13.5 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

For $z = 1$ m, $Q_{25\text{ cm}} = \bar{h}A\,(T_w - T_\infty) = 13.5 \times (0.25 \times 1)\,(70 - 27)$

$$= 145.1 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For $x = 45$ cm,

$$\text{Nu}_x = 0.332\,(77{,}765)^{0.5}\,(0.7)^{1/3} = 82.4 = \frac{h_x \times 0.45}{0.02749}$$

$$h_x = 5.034 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = 10.07 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$Q_{45\text{ cm}} = 10.07 \times (0.45 \times 1) \times (70 - 27) = 194.85 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.19 For the flow system in Example 4.18 estimate the drag force exerted on the first 45 cm of the plate using the analogy between fluid friction and heat transfer and also heat transfer in the plate from x = 25 cm to x = 45 cm.

Solution For the 45 cm length, $\overline{\text{St}} = \dfrac{\bar{h}}{\rho c_p u_\infty}$

where, $\bar{h} = 10.07 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K}$

$$\rho = \frac{101.325}{0.287\ (273 + 48.5)} = 1.098 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$\overline{\text{St}} = \frac{10.07 \times 10^{-3}}{1.098 \times 1.006 \times 3} = 3.04 \times 10^{-3}$$

Colburn's j-factor is

$$\overline{\text{St}}\,\text{Pr}^{2/3} = \frac{\bar{C}_f}{2}$$

$$3.04 \times 10^{-3} \times (0.7)^{2/3} = \frac{\bar{C}_f}{2}$$

$$\bar{C}_f = 4.793 \times 10^{-3}$$

Average shear stress $\tau_w = C_f \dfrac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2}$

$$= 4.793 \times 10^{-3} \times \frac{1.098 \times 9}{2}$$

$$= 23.68 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}^2$$

Total drag force $F = 23.68 \times 10^{-3} \times 0.45 \times 1$

$$= 10.66 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N} = 10.66 \text{ mN} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$h_{x=45\text{ cm}} = \frac{82.4 \times 0.02749}{0.45} = 5.034 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K}$$

$$\bar{h} = 2 \times 5.034 = 10.07 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K}$$

$$Q_{45\text{ cm}} = 10.07 \times 0.45 \times (70 - 27) = 194.85 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Heat transfer in the length between x = 45 cm and x = 25 cm = 194.85 – 145.1 = 49.75 W.

Example 4.20 *Given:* Engine, oil at 25°C flows over a 30 cm long 20 cm wide plate at 1.5 m/s, which is heated to a uniform temperature of 55°C. At 40°C for the engine oil, ρ = 876 kg/m^3, $\nu = 24 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s, k = 0.144 W/mK and Pr = 2870.

To determine: The rate of heat transfer to the oil from the plate.

Solution Reynolds number, $\text{Re}_L = \dfrac{u_\infty L}{\nu}$

$$Re_L = \frac{1.5 \times 0.3}{24 \times 10^{-5}} = 1875$$

The flow is laminar throughout the flow over the plate. For laminar flow on an isothermal plate when the ndtl number of fluid is high, the following equation (Eq. 4.150) can be used.

$$Nu_x = \frac{0.3387 (Re_x)^{1/2} Pr^{1/3}}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{0.0468}{Pr}\right)^{2/3}\right]^{1/4}}$$

$$Nu_x = \frac{0.3387 (1875)^{1/2} (2870)^{1/3}}{\left[1 + \left(\frac{0.0468}{2870}\right)^{2/3}\right]^{1/4}}$$

$$= \frac{14.67 \times 14.17}{1} = \frac{h_x x}{k}$$

$$\therefore \quad h_x = \frac{207.87 \times 0.144}{0.3} = 99.78 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$h_m = 2h_x = 2 \times 99.78 = 199.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = h_m A (T_w - T_m) = 199.6 \times 0.3 \times 0.2 \times (55 - 25)$$

$$= 359.28 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.21 Air at 20°C and 1 atm flows over a flat plate at 40 m/s. The plate is 80 cm long and is maintained at 60°C. Assuming unit depth in z-direction, calculate the heat transfer rate from the plate. Properties of air at 40°C are : Pr = 0.7, k = 0.02723 W/m K, c_p = 1.007 kJ/kg K and $\mu = 1.906 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms.

Solution

$$T_f = \frac{20 + 60}{2} = 40°\text{C} = 313 \text{ K}$$

$$\rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{101.325}{0.287 \times 313} = 1.128 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$Re_L = \frac{\rho u_\infty L}{\mu} = \frac{1.128 \times 40 \times 0.80}{1.906 \times 10^{-5}} = 1.89 \times 10^6$$

The boundary layer is turbulent, since $Re_L > 5 \times 10^5$

$$\overline{Nu}_L = \frac{\bar{h} L}{k} = (0.036 \, Re_L^{0.8} - 871) \, Pr^{1/3}$$

$$= [0.036 \, (1.89 \times 10^6)^{0.8} - 871] \, (0.7)^{1/3}$$

$$= 2908.83 \times 0.89 = 2588.86$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{2588.86 \times 0.02723}{0.8} \quad 88.12 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$Q = \bar{h} A (T_w - T_\infty) = 88.12 \times (0.8 \times 1) \, (60 - 20)$$

$$= 2820 \text{ W} = 2.82 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.22 Air at 2 atm and 200°C is heated as it flows at a velocity of 12 m/s through a tube with a diameter of 3 cm. A constant heat flux condition is maintained at the wall and the wall temperature is 20°C above the air temperature all along the length of the tube. Calculate (a) the heat transfer per unit length of tube and (b) the increase in bulk temperature of air over a 4 m length of the tube. Properties of air at 200°C are Pr = 0.681, $\mu = 2.57 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/m s, $k = 0.0386$ W/m K and $c_p = 1.025$ kJ/kg K.

Solution

$$\rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{101.325 \times 2}{0.287 \times 473} = 1.493 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{\rho u_m D}{\mu} = \frac{1.493 \times 12 \times 0.03}{2.57 \times 10^{-5}} = 20{,}914$$

$$(\text{Re}_d)^{0.8} = (20{,}914)^{0.8} = 2859.89$$

$$(\text{Pr})^{0.4} = (0.681)^{0.4} = 0.8575$$

Since the flow is turbulent, we use Dittus–Boelter equation:

$$\text{Nu}_d = \frac{hD}{k} = 0.023\ (\text{Re}_d)^{0.8}\ (\text{Pr})^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 \times 2859.89 \times 0.8575 = 56.404$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{56.404 \times 0.0386}{0.03} = 72.57 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$\frac{Q}{L} = h\pi D\ [T_w - T_b] = 72.57 \times \pi \times 0.03\ (20)$$

$$= 136.79 \text{ W/m}$$

$$\dot{m} = \rho \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 u_m = 1.493 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.03)^2 \times 12$$

$$= 0.012664 \text{ kg/s}$$

$$\dot{m} c_p \Delta T_b = 136.79 \times 4$$

$$\Delta T_b = \frac{136.79 \times 4}{0.012664 \times 1025} = 42.15°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.23 *Given:* Water ($\rho = 978$ kg/m^3, $\mu = 4 \times 10^{-4}$ kg/m-s, $k = 0.664$ W/mK, Pr = 2.54 at 70°C, $\mu_b = 5.55 \times 10^{-4}$ kg/m-s, $\mu_w = 2.81 \times 10^{-4}$ kg/m-s) enters at 40°C a 0.02 m dia tube having a relative roughness of 0.001 and a constant wall temperature of 90°C with a velocity of 3 m/s and leaves at 60°C.
To determine: The length of tube required using Petukhov's equation.

Solution Reynolds number, $\text{Re}_d = \dfrac{U_m D \rho}{\mu}$

$$\therefore \quad \text{Re}_d = \frac{3 \times 0.02 \times 978}{4 \times 10^{-4}} = 146{,}700$$

From Moody's chart (Fig. 4.45) for $\text{Re}_d = 146{,}700$ and relative roughness, $\varepsilon/D = 0.001$, the friction factor is found to be 0.0218. Since $T_w > T_b$, in Petukhov's equation (Eq. 4.213), $n = 0.11$, which becomes

$$\mathrm{Nu}_d = \frac{(f/8)\mathrm{Re}_d \mathrm{Pr}}{1.07 + 12.7(f/8)^{1/2}(\mathrm{Pr}^{2/3} - 1)}\left(\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_w}\right)^n$$

$$= \frac{(0.0218/8)(146,700) \times (2.54)}{1.07 + 12.7\left(\frac{0.0218}{8}\right)^{1/2}(2.54^{2/3} - 1)}\left(\frac{5.55}{2.81}\right)^{0.11}$$

$$= 666.8 = \frac{hD}{k}$$

$$\therefore \quad h = \frac{666.8 \times 0.664}{0.02} = 221.38 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$Q = h\pi L\,(T_w - T_b) = \dot{m} c_p \Delta T_b = \rho \pi r^2 u_m \cdot c_p \Delta T_b$$

$$\therefore \quad L = \frac{978 \times \pi \times (0.01)^2 \times 2.54 \times 0.664 \times 3 \times (60 - 40)}{4.0 \times 10^{-4} \times 221.38 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times \left(90 - \frac{60+40}{2}\right)}$$

$$= 1.397 \text{ m } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.24 *Given:* Air at 1 atm, 27°C flow across a sphere of 0.015 m dia at a velocity of 5 m/s. A heater inside the sphere maintains the surface temperature at 77°C.

To find: The rate of heat transfer from the sphere.

Solution Reynolds number, $\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{U_\infty D}{\nu}$

$$\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{5 \times 0.015}{15.69 \times 10^{-6}} = 4780$$

For flow across a sphere with Re_d in the range of 3500 and 7600 and Pr between 0.7 and 380, the following equation (Eq. 4.225) can be used.

$$\mathrm{Nu}_d = 2 + (0.4\,\mathrm{Re}_d^{1/2} + 0.06\,\mathrm{Re}_d^{2/3})\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.4}\left(\frac{\mu_\infty}{\mu_w}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$= 2 + \left[0.4(4780)^{1/2} + 0.06(4780)^{2/3}\right](0.708)^{0.4}\left(\frac{1.8462}{2.075}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$= 2 + (27.66 + 17.07)\,0.87 \times 0.97$$

$$= 39.75 = \frac{hD}{k}$$

$$h = \frac{39.75 \times 0.02624}{0.015} = 69.54 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K.}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = hA\,(T_w - T_\infty) = 69.54 \times \pi \times \frac{(0.015)^2}{4} \times (77 - 27)$$

$$= 2.46 \text{ W } \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.25 Hot air flowing through a metal pipe of 20 mm diameter is cooled at a constant rate per unit length of pipe. At a particular section (a), the air velocity in the centre of the pipe is found to be 2 m/s and the wall temperature, as measured by a thermocouple on the inner surface of the pipe, is 250°C. At a section (b), situated 1 m downstream from the section (a), the wall temperature is found to be 200°C. Estimate the mean air temperature at section (b).

Solution Assuming for the moment that the flow is laminar, the bulk velocity may be determined from the measured centre-line velocity by the equation

$$\frac{u}{U} = \left(1 - \frac{r^2}{r_0^2}\right)\frac{1}{2}$$

At $$r = 0,\ u = \frac{U}{2} = \frac{2\ \text{m/s}}{2} = 1\ \text{m/s}$$

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D\rho}{\mu} = \frac{1 \times 0.02 \times 0.706}{2.67 \times 10^{-5}} = 528$$

(Substituting property values for air at 500 K).

Since $\text{Re}_d < 2300$, the flow is laminar.

For constant heat flux boundary condition

$$\text{Nu}_d = \frac{hD}{k} = 4.364$$

At 500 K, $k = 4.04 \times 10^{-5}$ kW/m^2 K, $c_p = 1.03$ kJ/kg K.

Mean heat flux through the pipe wall between sections (a) and (b) is

$$q = \frac{Q}{A} = \frac{\dot{m}c_p(T_b - T_a)}{\pi DL} = \frac{0.706 \times \frac{\pi}{4}(0.02)^2 \times 1 \times 1.03(-50)}{\pi \times 0.02 \times 1}$$

$$= -0.182\ \text{kW/m}^2$$

Since q is given as constant along the length of the pipe

$$q_a = q_b = q$$

Now, $$h = \text{Nu}_d \times \frac{k}{D} = 4.364 \times \frac{4.04 \times 10^{-5}}{0.02} \times 1000$$

$$= 8.82\ \text{W/m}^2\ \text{K}$$

$$q = h\,(T_w - T_m)_b$$

where T_w is the wall temperature and T_m is the mean bulk temperature of air at section (b).

$$(T_m)_b = T_w - \frac{q}{h} = 200 - \frac{(-0.182)}{0.00882} = 221°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

At section (a), T_m would have been (250 + 21) or 271°C. More accurate solution could be obtained if property values at the mean fluid temperature $\left(\frac{271+221}{2} = 246°\text{C}\right)$ over the length of the pipe were used, i.e. at 519 K.

Example 4.26 In a power plant feedwater is flowing through a duct of rectangular cross-section 8 cm × 4 cm and the wall temperature is maintained at 170°C throughout. The feedwater flows at a rate of 300 kg/min, enters at a temperature of 20°C and is heated to 150°C. Compare the heat transfer coefficients obtained using (a) Dittus–Boelter equation and (b) Sieder–Tate equation and estimate the required length of the duct. Properties of water at 105°C are Pr = 1.64, $\mu = 265 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms, $c_p = 4.226$ kJ/kg K, $k = 683 \times 10^{-6}$ kW/m K and μ_w at 170°C = 158×10^{-6} kg/ms.

Solution

$$D_h = \text{Hydraulic diameter of the duct}$$

$$= \frac{4A}{P} = \frac{4 \times 8 \times 4}{2(8+4)} = 5.333 \text{ cm}$$

$$\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{150 - 20}{\ln \frac{150}{20}} = 64.52°\text{C}$$

Property values of water were therefore selected at $170 - 64.52 \approx 105°$C.

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{\rho u D}{\mu} = \frac{\dot{m} D_h}{A\mu} = \frac{300}{60} \times \frac{5.333 \times 10^{-2}}{32 \times 10^{-4} \times 265 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$= 314{,}400$$

$$\text{Pr} = 1.64$$

(a) Dittus–Boelter equation

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.023 (\text{Re}_d)^{0.8} (\text{Pr})^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 \times (314, 400)^{0.8} (1.64)^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 \times 2.5 \times 10^4 \times 1.219 = 700.8$$

$$h = \frac{700.8 \times 683 \times 10^{-6}}{5.333 \times 10^{-2}} = 8.975 \text{ kW/m}^2 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) Sieder–Tate equation

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.027 \ \text{Re}_d^{0.8} \ \text{Pr}^{0.33} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14}$$

$$= 0.027 \times 2.5 \times 10^4 \times 1.179 \left(\frac{265 \times 10^{-6}}{158 \times 10^{-6}}\right)^{0.14}$$

$$= 855.7$$

$$h = \frac{855.7 \times 683 \times 10^{-6}}{5.333 \times 10^{-2}} = 10.96 \text{ kW/m}^2 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The latter is probably more accurate as it takes into account viscosity effects varying with temperature. Taking the latter value of h, i.e., 10.96 kW/m^2 K, the duct length has been calculated.

$$Q = \dot{m} c_p (\Delta T)_{\text{water}} = 5 \times \ 4.226 \times (150 - 20)$$

$$= 2747 \text{ kW}$$

$$Q = hA\Delta T_{lm}$$

$$2747 = 10.96 \times 2(0.4 + 0.08)L \times 64.52$$

$$L = 16.19 \text{ m.} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.27 A liquid metal flows at the rate of 4 kg/s through a constant heat flux 6 cm inner diameter tube in a nuclear reactor. The fluid at 200°C is to be heated with the tube wall 40°C above the fluid temperature. Determine the length of the tube required for 25°C rise in bulk fluid temperature, using the following properties: $\rho = 7.7 \times 10^3$ kg/m^3, $\nu = 8 \times 10^{-8}$ m^2/s, $c_p = 130$ J/kg°C, $k = 12$ W/mK and Pr = 0.011.

Solution

$$\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D}{\nu} = \frac{\dot{m}}{\rho A}\frac{D}{\nu} = \frac{4 \times 0.06}{7.7 \times 10^3 \times \frac{\pi}{4}(0.06)^2 \times 8 \times 10^{-8}}$$

$$= 137796$$

For fully developed turbulent flow in tubes with uniform heat flux

$$\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.625\,(\mathrm{Re}_d\,\mathrm{Pr})^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.625\,(137796 \times 0.011)^{0.4} = 11.7$$

$$h_c = \frac{11.7 \times 12}{0.06} = 2340 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K}$$

$$Q = \dot{m} c_p \Delta T = 4 \times 0.13 \times 25 = 13 \text{ kW}$$

$$A = \frac{Q}{h_c (T_w - T_b)} = \frac{13 \text{ kW}}{2.34 \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K} \times 40\text{K}} = 0.139 \text{ m}^2$$

$$L = \frac{A}{\pi D} = \frac{0.139}{\pi \times 0.06} = 0.7374 \text{ m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.28 Atmospheric air at 250 K and a free stream velocity 32 m/s flows across (a) a circular cylinder and (b) a sphere, each of diameter 2.5 cm. The surface of each is maintained at a uniform temperature of 350 K. You may use Whitaker's correlations

$$\mathrm{Nu}_m = (0.4\,\mathrm{Re}^{0.5} + 0.06\,\mathrm{Re}^{2/3})\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.4}\left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.25}$$

for cylinder

$$\mathrm{Nu}_m = 2 + (0.4\,\mathrm{Re}^{0.5} + 0.06\,\mathrm{Re}^{2/3})\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.4}\left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.25}$$

for sphere

Calculate for each (i) the average heat transfer coefficient, (ii) the heat transfer rate per metre length of cylinder, and the sphere and (iii) the drag force acting per metre length of the cylinder. Properties of air at 300 K are,

$k = 0.0262$ W/m K, $\nu = 16.84 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.708,
$\mu = 1.983 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms and $\rho = 1.177$ kg/m^3.

Solution

(a) Cylinder

$$\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{u_\infty D}{\nu} = \frac{32 - 0.025}{16.84 \times 10^{-6}} = 47{,}506$$

$$\mathrm{Nu}_m = [0.4\,(47506)^{0.5} + 0.06\,(47{,}506)^{2/3}]\,(0.708)^{0.4}\,1$$

$$= (87.18 + 78.98)\,0.87 = 144.56$$

$$h_m = \frac{144.56 \times 0.0262}{0.025} = 151.5 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = h_m \pi DL (T_w - T_\infty)$$
$$= 151.5 \times \pi \times 0.0251 \times 1 (350 - 250)$$
$$= 1190 \text{ W/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Drag coefficient $\overline{C}_f = 1.1$ (From Fig. 4.52)

Drag force,

$$F = \overline{C}_f LD \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2} = 1.1 \times 1 \times 0.025 \times \frac{1.177 \times (32)^2}{2}$$
$$= 16.5 \text{ N} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) Sphere

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{u_\infty D}{\nu} = \frac{32 \times 0.025}{16.84 \times 10^{-6}} = 47{,}506$$

$$\text{Nu}_m = 2 + 144.56 = 146.56$$

$$h_m = \frac{146.56 \times 0.0262}{0.025} = 153.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = h_m \pi D^2 (T_w - T_\infty)$$
$$= 153.6 \times \pi \times (0.025)^2 \ (350 - 250)$$
$$= 30.15 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

From Fig. 4.52 the mean drag coefficient $\overline{C}_f = 0.45$,

$$\therefore \quad F = C_f \frac{1}{4} \pi D^2 \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2} = 0.45 \times \frac{1}{4} \pi \times (0.025)^2 \times \frac{1.177(32)^2}{2}$$
$$= 0.133 \text{ N} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.29 *Given:* Air is heated by passing it through a 0.025 m bore copper tube, maintained at 280°C, from 15°C to 270°C and at a mean velocity of 30 m/s.
To find: The length of the tube and the pumping power required, by taking $f = 0.3164/(\text{Re}_d)^{1/4}$ and properties of air at the mean film temperature.

Solution The mean film temperature T_f

$$= \frac{T_w + T_B}{2} = \frac{1}{2}\left[280 + \frac{15 + 270}{2}\right] = 211.25°\text{C} = 484.4 \text{ K}.$$

At 484.4 K, the properties of air are taken from Table A-4 in the Appendix, as given below:

$\nu = 3.591 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.681, $k = 3.938 \times 10^{-5}$ kW/mK,
$c_p = 1.027$ kJ/kgK and $\rho = 0.73$ kg/m^3.

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D}{\nu} = \frac{30 \times 0.025}{3.591 \times 10^{-5}} = 20{,}900$$

$\therefore$ Friction factor, $f = \dfrac{0.3164}{(20{,}900)^{1/4}} = 0.0263$

By Reynolds analogy,

$$St_d = \frac{Nu_d}{Re_d\, Pr} = \frac{f}{8} = \frac{0.0263}{8} = 0.00329$$

$$Nu_d = 0.00329 \times 20{,}900 \times 0.681 = 46.8$$

$$\therefore \quad h = \frac{46.8 \times 3.938 \times 10^{-5}}{0.025} = 0.0737 \text{ kW/m}^2\text{K}$$

Mass flow rate, $\dot{m} = \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.025)^2 \times 30 \times 0.73$

$= 0.01075$ kg/s

Heat received by air,

$$Q = \dot{m} c_p (Ta_2 - T_{a_1})$$

$$= 0.01075 \times 1.027 \times (270 - 15)$$

$$= 2.815 \text{ kW}$$

Again, $Q = hA\, \Delta T_{lm}$

where, $\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{\Delta T_1 - \Delta T_e}{\ln(\Delta T_1 / \Delta T_2)} = \frac{(280-15)-(280-270)}{\ln \frac{280-15}{280-270}}$

$$= \frac{255}{3.277} = 77.8^\circ\text{C} = 77.8\text{K}$$

$\therefore \quad Q = 2.815 = 0.0737 \times A \times 77.8$

$\therefore \quad A = 0.49 \text{ m}^2 = \pi DL$

$\therefore \quad L = \text{Tube length} = \frac{0.49}{\pi \times 0.025}$

$= 6.24$ m *Ans.*

Pumping power, $\dot{W} = \tau_w \pi DL \cdot u_m = \Delta P \cdot \frac{\Delta}{4} D^2 \cdot u_m$

$\therefore \quad \dot{W} = \frac{fL}{D} \frac{\rho u_m^2}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 \cdot u_m$

$$= \frac{f}{8} f u_m^3 LD\pi$$

$$= 0.00329 \times 0.73 \times (30)^3 \times 6.24 \times 0.025 \times \pi$$

$= 31.78$ W *Ans.*

Example 4.30 In a 25 mm diameter tube the pressure drop per metre length is 0.0002 bar at a section where the mean velocity is 24 m/s and the mean specific heat of the gas is 1.13 kJ/kg K. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient.

Solution

$$\tau_w \pi D = \Delta p \frac{\pi}{4} D^2$$

$$\tau_w = \Delta p \frac{D}{4} = 0.0002 \times 10^5 \times \frac{0.025}{4} = 0.125 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$$

$$f = \frac{0.0002 \times 10^5 \times 2 \times 0.025}{\rho \times (24)^2} = \frac{1}{576\rho}$$

$$\text{St} = \frac{f}{8} = \frac{1}{8 \times 576\rho} = \frac{h}{\rho c_p u_m}$$

$$h = \frac{1.13 \times 24}{8 \times 576} \times 1000 = 5.885 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K}. \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.31 The crankcase of an IC engine measuring 0.8 m × 0.2 m may be assumed as a flat plate. The engine runs at a speed of 25 m/s and the crankcase is cooled by the air flowing past it at the same speed. Calculate the heat loss from the crank surface maintained at 85°C to the ambient air at 15°C. Due to road induced vibration, the boundary layer becomes turbulent from the leading edge itself.

Solution $u = 25$ m/s, $T_\omega = 85°C$, $T_a = 15°C$, $L = 0.8$ m, $B = 0.2$ m.

Properties of air at $T_f = \frac{T_\omega + T_a}{2} = \frac{85 + 15}{2} = 50°C = 50°C$

$$\nu = 17.95 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}, k = 0.02824 \text{ W/mK}, \text{Pr} = 0.698$$

$$\therefore \quad \text{Re}_L = \frac{uL}{\nu} = \frac{25 \times 0.8}{17.95 \times 10^{-6}} = 1.114 \times 10^6$$

Since $\text{Re}_L > 5 \times 10^5$, the flow is turbulent.

$$\therefore \quad \text{Nu}_L = \frac{hL}{k} = 0.036(\text{Re}_L)^{0.8}(\text{Pr})^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.036\,(1.114 \times 10^6)^{0.8}\,(0.698)^{0.333}$$

$$= 0.036 \times 68787.3 \times 0.887$$

$$= 2196.5$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = \frac{2196.5 \times 0.02824}{0.8} = 77.53 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

Heat loss from the crankcase

$$Q = \bar{h}BL(T_w - T_a)$$

$$= 77.53 \times 0.2 \times 0.8\,(85 - 15)$$

$$= 868.34 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.32 A square plate maintained at 95°C experiences a force of 10.5 N when forced air at 25°C flows over it at a velocity of 30 m/s. Assuming the flow to be turbulent and using Colburn analogy calculate (a) the heat transfer coefficient and (b) the heat loss from the plate surface. Properties of air at 60°C are:
$\rho = 1.06$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 1.005$ kJ/kgK, $\nu = 18.97 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.696.

Solution The drag force for turbulent flow

$$F = \bar{c}_f \times \frac{1}{2}\rho A u^2 = \frac{0.072}{(\mathrm{Re}_L)^{0.2}} \times \frac{1}{2}\rho A u^2$$

$$= \frac{0.072}{(25 \times L / 18.97 \times 10^{-6})^{0.2}} \times \frac{1}{2} \times 1.06 \times L^2 \times (30)^2$$

$$10.5 = \frac{34.34\, L^2}{16.75\, L^{0.2}} = 2.05\, L^{1.8}$$

$$\therefore \qquad L = \left(\frac{10.5}{2.05}\right)^{\frac{1}{1.8}} = 2.478 \text{ m}$$

$$\mathrm{Re}_L = \frac{uL}{\nu} = \frac{30 \times 2.478}{18.97 \times 10^{-6}} = 3.919 \times 10^6$$

Average skin friction coefficient

$$\bar{c}_f = \frac{0.072}{(\mathrm{Re}_L)^{0.2}} = 3.457 \times 10^{-3}$$

By Colburn analogy,

$$\mathrm{St}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{2/3} = \frac{\bar{c}_f}{2}$$

$$\frac{\bar{h}}{\rho c_p u}(\mathrm{Pr})^{2/3} = \frac{\bar{c}_f}{2}$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{1.06 \times 1.005 \times 10^3 \times 30}{(0.696)^{0.667}} \times \frac{3.457 \times 10^{-3}}{2} = \frac{0.0552 \times 10^3}{0.7852} = 70.35 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = 70.35 \times (2.478)^2 \times (95 - 25)$$

$$= 30238 \text{ W} = 30.238 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.33 Air at 20°C flows past a 800 mm long plate at a velocity of 45 m/s. If the surface of the plate is maintained at 300°C, determine (a) the heat transferred from the entire plate length to air taking into consideration both laminar and turbulent portions of the boundary layer, (b) the percentage error if the boundary layer is assumed to be turbulent from the leading edge of the plate. Assume unit width of the plate. Take the properties of air at 160°C as: $k = 0.03638$ W/mK, $\nu = 30.08 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.682.

Solution

$L = 0.8$ m, $u = 45$ m/s, $T_\omega = 300°\text{C}$, $T_\infty = 20°\text{C}$.

$$\mathrm{Re}_L = \frac{uL}{\nu} = \frac{45 \times 0.8}{30.08 \times 10^{-6}} = 1.197 \times 10^6$$

$$\mathrm{Re}_c = 5 \times 10^5 = \frac{45 \times x_c}{30.08 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$x_c = 0.3342 \text{ m}$$

Laminar boundary layer region:

$$\bar{h} = 0.664 \frac{k}{x_c} (\mathrm{Re}_c)^{0.5} (\mathrm{Pr})^{0.333}$$

$$= 0.664 \times \frac{0.03638}{0.3342} \times (5 \times 10^5)^{0.5} (0.682)^{0.333}$$

$$= 51.11 \times 0.88 = 45 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q_{\text{lam}} = 45 \times (0.3342 \times 1) \times (300 - 20) = 42.10 \text{ W}$$

Turbulent boundary layer region:

$$\bar{h} = 0.036 \frac{k}{L - x_c} [(\mathrm{Re}_L)^{0.8} - (\mathrm{Re}_c)^{0.8}] \mathrm{Pr}^{0.333}$$

$$= 0.036 \frac{0.03638}{0.8 - 0.3342} [(1.197 \times 10^6)^{0.8} - (5 \times 10^5)^{0.8}] (0.682)^{0.333}$$

$$\bar{h} = 2.474 \times 10^{-3} (72857.68 - 36238.98)$$

$$= 90.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$Q_{\text{turb.}} = 90.6 \times (0.8 - 0.3342) \times 280$$

$$= 11816.41 \text{ W}$$

$\therefore$ Total heat transfer, Q

$$= Q_{\text{lam}} + Q_{\text{turb.}}$$

$$= 4210 + 11816.41$$

$$= 16026.41 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

If the boundary layer is turbulent from the leading edge itself,

$$\bar{h} = 0.036 \frac{k}{L} \mathrm{Re}_L^{0.8} \mathrm{Pr}^{0.333}$$

$$= 0.036 \frac{0.03638}{0.8} (1.197 \times 10^6)^{0.8} (0.682)^{0.333}$$

$$= 105 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$\therefore \quad (Q_{\text{total}})_{\text{turb.}} = 105 \times 0.8 \times 1 \times 280 = 23520 \text{ W} = 23.52 \text{ kW}$$

$$\therefore \quad \text{Percentage error} = \frac{23.52 - 16.026}{16.026} \times 100$$

$$= 46.76\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 4.34 Water flows at a velocity of 12 m/s in a straight tube of 60 mm diameter. The tube surface temperature is maintained at 70°C and the flowing water is heated from the inlet temperature of 15°C to an outlet temperature of 45°C. Taking the physical properties of water at the mean bulk temperature of 30°C as $\rho = 995.7$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 4.174$ kJ/kgK, $k = 61.718 \times 10^{-2}$ W/mK, $\nu = 0.805 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and Pr = 5.42, calculate (a) the heat transfer coefficient from the tube surface to the water, (b) the heat transferred and (c) the length of the tube.

Solution Reynolds number, $\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{u_m d}{\nu} = \frac{12 \times 0.06}{0.805 \times 10^{-6}}$

$$= 0.894 \times 10^6$$

Since $Re_d > 2300$, the flow is turbulent. Using the Dittus–Boelter equation

$$Nu_d = \frac{hd}{k} = 0.023\,(Re_d)^{0.8}\,(Pr)^{0.4}$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{h \times 0.06}{0.61718} = 0.023\,(894000)^{0.8}\,(5.42)^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 \times 57685.95 \times 1.966$$

$$= 2608.54$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = 26832.32 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

Heat transferred, $Q = \dot{m} c_p (T_2 - T_1)$

$$= \rho \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 u_m c_p (T_2 - T_1)$$

$$= 995.7 \times \frac{\pi}{4} (0.06)^2 \times 12 \times 4.174 \times 10^3 \times (45 - 15)$$

$$= 4230355 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

Now, $Q = \bar{h} \pi d L\,(T_w - T_b)$

$$4230355 = 26832.32 \times \pi \times 0.06 \times L\,(70 - 30)$$

$$\therefore \quad L = 20.91 \text{ m} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

Example 4.35 Water at 20°C flowing at the rate of 0.015 kg/s enters a 25 mm ID tube which is maintained at a temperature of 90°C. Assuming hydrodynamically and thermally fully developed flow determine the heat transfer coefficient and the tube length required to heat the water to 70°C. Given: water properties at 20°C: $\rho = 1000.5$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 4181.8$ J/kgK, $\nu = 1.006 \times 10^{-6}$ m^3/s; properties of water at 45°C: $\rho = 992$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 4180$ J/kgK, $k = 0.638$ W/mK, $\nu = 0.613 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s; the average Nusselt number for the tube $Nu_d = 3.657$.

Solution Given: $T_1 = 20°C$, $T_2 = 70°C$, $T_\omega = 90°C$, $\dot{m} = 0.015$ kg/s, $d = 0.025$ m. Considering the properties of water at the mean bulk temperature, $\frac{20 + 70}{2}$ or 45°C,

$$Nu_d = 3.657 = \frac{hd}{k}$$

$$\therefore \quad = \frac{3.657 \times 0.638}{0.025} = 93.33 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = \dot{m} c_p (T_2 - T_1) = 0.015 \times 4180\,(70 - 20)$$

$$= 3135 \text{ W}$$

Taking the log-mean temperature difference (Fig. Ex. 4.35),

$$\Delta T_{l.m} = \frac{70 - 20}{\ln \frac{70}{20}} = \frac{50}{\ln 3.5}$$

$$= 39.9°C$$

$$Q = hA\,\Delta T_m$$

$$3135 = 93.33 \times \pi \times 0.025 \times L \times 39.9$$

$$\therefore \quad L = 10.72 \text{ m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

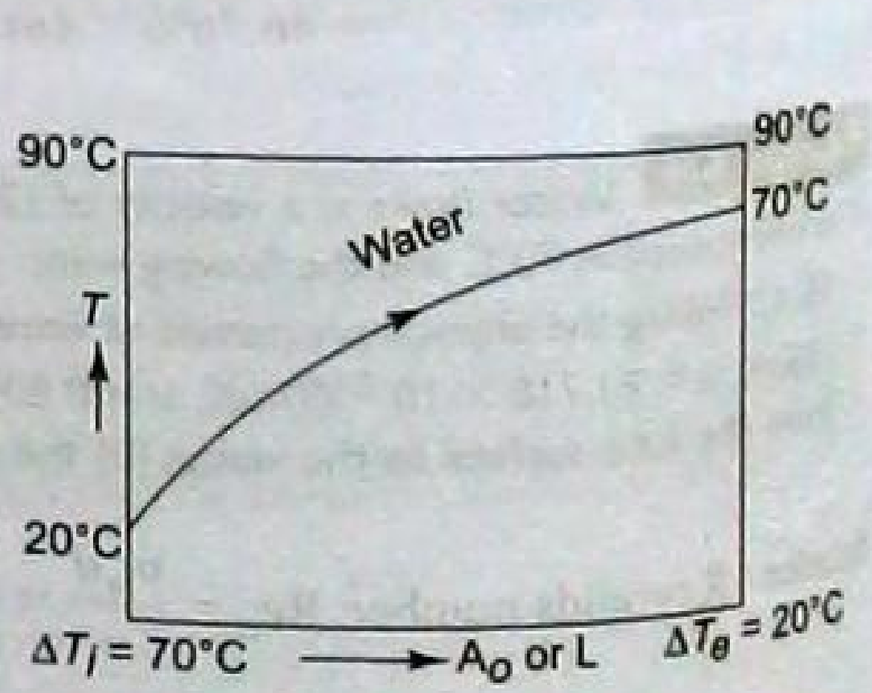


Fig. Ex. 4.35

Example 4.36 Liquid mercury flows at a rate of 1.6 kg/s through a copper tube of 20 mm diameter. The mercury enters the tube at 15°C and leaves at 35°C. Calculate the tube length for constant heat flux at the wall which is maintained at an average temperature of 50°C.

For liquid metal flowing through a tube, the following correlation may be used

$$Nu_d = 7 + 0.025\ (Pe)^{0.8}$$

where Pe is the Peclet number.

Properties of mercury at 25°C are:

$\rho = 13582$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 140$ J/kgK, $k = 8.69$ W/mK,
$\nu = 1.5 \times 10^{-7}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.0248.

Solution

$d = 0.02$ m, $\dot{m} = 1.6$ kg/s, $T_1 = 15°C$, $T_2 = 35°C$.

$$Re_d = \frac{\rho v d}{\mu} = \frac{\rho A v d}{A\mu} = \frac{\dot{m} d}{\frac{\pi}{4} d^2 \mu} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi d \mu}$$

$$= \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi d \rho \nu} = \frac{4 \times 1.6}{\pi \times 0.02 \times 13582 \times 1.5 \times 10^{-7}}$$

$$= 49997$$

$\therefore$ $Nu_d = 7 + 0.025\ (Re_d \cdot Pr)^{0.8}$

$$\frac{\bar{h} d}{k} = 7 + 0.025\ (49997 \times 0.0248)^{0.8} = 14.46$$

$\therefore$ $$\bar{h} = 14.46 \times \frac{8.69}{0.02} = 6282.87\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$Q = \bar{h} A\, \Delta T = 6282.87 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times L \times (50 - 25)$$
$$= 9869.11\ L$$

Again, $$Q = \dot{m} c_p (T_2 - T_1) = 1.6 \times 140 \times (35 - 15)$$
$$= 4480\ \text{W}$$

$\therefore$ $$L = \frac{4480}{9869.11} = 0.454\ \text{m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Summary

The transfer of heat by convection is intimately related to the mechanics of fluid flow in the vicinity of the transfer surface. The nature of heat transfer and the flow phenomena depend greatly on whether the fluid far away from the surface is in laminar or in turbulent flow. The principles of boundary layer theory are discussed in this context. The conservation equations of mass, momentum and energy for laminar flow are derived. Similarity principles applied to heat transfer are discussed and the relevant dimensionless parameters are derived from the differential equations representing conservation of mass, momentum and energy. Convective heat transfer coefficients by dimensional analysis using both Rayleigh's method and Buckingham π-theorem are evaluated. Analytical solution for laminar flow over a flat plate is first given and then the approximate integral boundary layer analysis is discussed. Afterwards the turbulent flow over a flat plate, the mixing length theory of Prandtl, and the analogy between momentum and heat transfer are explained. Forced

convection inside the tubes and ducts is then taken up and heat transfer coefficients for laminar flow under conditions of constant heat flux and constant wall temperature are derived. The empirical correlations for turbulent flow inside the tubes and over exterior surfaces obtained from experimental data are discussed.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation Number	*Equation*	*Remarks*
(4.2)	$\tau = \mu \frac{du}{dy}$	Newton's law of viscosity
(4.3)	$\mathrm{Re} = \frac{\rho u_m D}{\mu} = \frac{u_m D}{\nu}$	Reynolds number in pipe flow
(4.4)	$\mathrm{Re}_{x_c} = \frac{u_\infty x_c}{\nu} = 5 \times 10^5$	Critical Reynolds number for flow over a flat plate
(4.7)	$\tau_x = C_{fx} \rho u_\infty^2 / 2$	Shear stress related to local drag coefficient
(4.9)	$\bar{C}_f = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L C_{fx}\, dx$	Mean drag coefficient over the flat length L
(4.10)	$F = bL\bar{C}_f \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2}$	Drag force on a plate of length L and width b
(4.11)	$\theta(x, y) = \frac{(T_w - T)}{(T_w - T_\infty)}$	Dimensionless temperature
(4.17)	$Q = -k_f A \frac{T_\infty - T_w}{\delta_t} = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$	Convective heat transfer through a fluid film
(4.41)	$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} = 0$	Continuity equation for steady and incompressible flow
(4.42)	$u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + w\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ $= -\frac{1}{\rho}\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \nu\left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial z^2}\right)$	x-momentum equation for steady compressible flow
(4.43)	$u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + w\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$ $= \alpha\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2}\right)$	Energy equation

(Contd)

Equation Number	Equation	Remarks
(4.58)	$h = \frac{k}{L} F(\text{Re}, \text{Pr})$	Forced convection: heat transfer coefficient is a function of Reynolds number and Prandtl number
(4.61)	$\text{Nu} = F(\text{Gr}, \text{Pr})$	Natural convection: Nusselt number is a function of Grashof number and Prandtl number
(4.62)	$\text{Fo} = \frac{\alpha t}{L^2}$	Fourier number, also referred to as dimensionless time
(4.72)	$p_1 - p_2 = \frac{fL}{D} \frac{\rho u^2}{2}$	Pressure drop of fluid in a pipe of length L
(4.89)	$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{5}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/2}}$	Local hydrodynamic boundary layer thickness depends on the local Reynolds number: Exact solution of Pohlhausen
(4.90)	$\tau_w = 0.332 \mu \frac{u_\infty}{x} (\text{Re}_x)^{1/2}$	Wall shear stress
(4.91)	$C_{fx} = \frac{0.664}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/2}}$	Local friction or drag coefficient
(4.92)	$\bar{C}_f = \frac{1.328}{(\text{Re}_L)^{1/2}}$	Average friction coefficient
(4.94)	$\frac{\delta}{\delta_t} = \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	For $\text{Pr} < 1$, $\delta_t > \delta$ and for fluid having $\text{Pr} > 1$, $\delta_t < \delta$
(4.99)	$\text{Nu}_L = 0.332 \, \text{Re}_x^{1/2} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	Local Nusselt number for flow over a flat plate
(4.100)	$\text{Nu}_L = 0.664 \, \text{Re}_L^{1/2} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	Average Nusselt number for flow over a flat plate of length L
(4.106)	$\bar{x} = \frac{4.64}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/2}}$	Local boundary layer thickness by von Kàrmàn integral method
(4.117)	$C_{fx} = \frac{0.647}{\text{Re}_x^{1/2}}$	The value by approximate method is close to that by exact method, Eq. 4.91
(4.120)	$\text{Nu}_x = 0.331 \, \text{Re}_x^{1/2} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	The expression is very close to the exact solution, Eq. (4.99)
(4.127)	$\tau = \rho(\nu + \epsilon_m) \frac{d\bar{u}}{dy}$	Shear stress in turbulent flow

(Contd)

Equation Number	Equation	Remarks
(4.132)	$\frac{Q_t}{A} = \rho c_p (\alpha + \varepsilon_H) \frac{d\bar{T}}{dy}$	Total heat transfer per unit area in trubulent flow
(4.133)	$\text{Pr}_t = \frac{\varepsilon_M}{\varepsilon_H} = \frac{\text{Eddy viscosity}}{\text{Eddy diffusivity}}$	Turbulent Prandtl number
(4.138)	$\frac{h_{cx}}{\rho c_p u_\infty} = \frac{C_{fx}}{2} = \text{St}_x$	Reynolds analogy (for fluids having Pr = 1)
(4.139)	$\text{St}_x \, \text{Pr}^{2/3} = \frac{C_{fx}}{2}$	Reynolds-Colburn analogy
(4.140)	$C_{fx} = \frac{0.0576}{(\text{Re}_x)^{0.2}}$	Local friction coefficient for turbulent flow over a flat plate
(4.141)	$\bar{C}_f = \frac{0.072}{(\text{Re}_L)^{0.2}}$	Average friction coefficient for turbulent flow over a plate of length L.
(4.142)	$\text{Nu} = 0.0288 \, \text{Re}_x^{0.8} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	Local Nusselt number for turbulent flow for $x > x_c$
(4.143)	$\text{Nu}_L = 0.036 \, \text{Re}_L^{0.8} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	For turbulent flow over a flat surface for $L > x_c$
(4.144)	$\text{Nu}_L = (0.036 \, \text{Re}_L^{0.8} - 835) \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	Total heat transfer from a plate where flow in laminar upto $x = x_c$ and turbulent over length $(L - x_c)$
(4.146)	$\bar{C}_f = \frac{0.072}{\text{Re}_L^{0.2}} - \frac{1670}{\text{Re}_L}$	Average friction coefficient in a flat plate, partly laminar and the rest turbulent flow
(4.147)	$\text{Nu}_x = 0.453 \, \text{Re}_x^{1/2} \, \text{Pr}^{1/3}$	Local Nusselt number for constant heat flux
(4.153)	$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{0.376}{(\text{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$	Boundary layer thickness (local) in turbulent flow
(4.154)	$\delta^* = \frac{\delta}{8}$	Displacement thickness for turbulent flow over a flat plate
(4.159)	$\tau_w = \frac{0.0296 \rho u_\infty^2}{(\text{Re}_x)^{0.2}}$	Local shear stress for turbulent flow over a plate
(4.164)	$\text{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D_H}{\nu}, \text{Nu}_d = \frac{\bar{h}_c D_H}{k}$ where $D_H = \frac{4A}{P}$	For flow and heat transfer in a non-circular duct, where D_H is the hydraulic diameter

(Contd)

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Equation Number	Equation	Remarks
(4.168)	$\frac{u}{u_{\max}} = 1 - \left(\frac{r}{R}\right)^2 = \frac{u}{u_0}$	Velocity distribution for laminar flow in a tube of radius R
(4.170)	$u_0 = 2u_m$	Centre-line velocity is twice the mean velocity in laminar flow
(4.171)	$\Delta p = \frac{fL}{D}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$	Pressure drop for flow in a tube where f is the Darey friction factor
(4.172)	$C_f = \frac{f}{4}$	Fanning friction coefficient.
(4.173)	$\Delta p = \frac{32\mu L u_m}{D^2}$	Hagen–Poiseuille equation for laminar flow in a tube.
(4.174)	$f = \frac{64}{\mathrm{Re}_d}$	Darcy friction factor f related to Reynolds number for laminar flow
(4.175)	$P = \dot{V}.\Delta p / \eta_p$	Pumping power P where $\dot{V}$ is the volumetric flow rate (m^3/s) and η_p is the pumping efficiency
(4.184)	$\mathrm{Nu}_d = \frac{48}{11} = 4.364$	Nusselt number for laminar flow through a tube under constant heat flux
(4.185)	$\mathrm{Nu}_d = 3.66$	Nusselt number for laminar flow through a tube with constant wall temperature
(4.202)	$\mathrm{St}_d = \frac{f}{8}$	Reynolds analogy for momentum and heat transfer for turbulent flow
(4.204)	$\mathrm{St}_d = \frac{f}{8}\cdot\frac{1}{1+5[f/8]^{1/2}(\mathrm{Pr}-1)}$	Prandtl analogy which reduces to Eq. (202) for Pr = 1 for fully developed turbulent flow
(4.205)	$\mathrm{St}_d = \frac{f}{8}\frac{1}{1+5\left(\frac{f}{8}\right)^{1/2}(\mathrm{Pr}-1)+\ln\frac{5\mathrm{Pr}+1}{6}}$	Kàrmàn analogy for fully developed turbulent flow
(4.210)	$\mathrm{Nu}_d = \frac{\bar{h}_c D}{k} = 0.023(\mathrm{Re}_d)^{0.8}(\mathrm{Pr})^n$	Dittus Boelter equation for turbulent flow where n = 0.4 for heating and n = 0.3 for cooling
(4.211)	$\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.027\,\mathrm{Re}_d^{0.8}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}\left(\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14}$	Sieder-Tate equation for turbulent flow through tube, where all properties except μ_w are evaluated at the bulk temperature and μ_w at the wall temperature
(4.215)	$\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.625(\mathrm{Re}_d.\mathrm{Pr})^{0.4}$	For fully developed turbulent flow of liquid metals under uniform heat flux condition

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Objective Type Questions

4.1 If we imagine a curve within a fluid, the tangent at every point of which indicates the direction of the velocity of the fluid particle, then the curve is known as a
(a) boundary layer (b) stream line
(c) streak line (d) laminar curve

4.2 A fluid is flowing over a flat plate. To make another plate above the flat plate at a distance y with a velocity u_0, a force is necessary, which is proportional to
(a) the velocity u_0
(b) the inverse of y
(c) the dynamic viscosity of the fluid
(d) all of the above

4.3 Viscous effect of a fluid
(a) is found in the turbulent core
(b) is confined outside the boundary layer
(c) is confined in the boundary layer
(d) is confined in the potential flow

4.4 The zone of transition between the laminar sublayer and the turbulent core is called
(a) transition zone
(b) buffer layer
(c) boundary layer
(d) none of the above

4.5 For flow over a flat plate, the critical value of Reynolds number characterizes
(a) the flow when eddies start forming in the fluid
(b) the end of the laminar boundary layer
(c) the beginning of turbulent boundary layer
(d) all of the above

4.6 For flow over a cylinder, the flow separation occurs at th location s for which
(a) $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_s = 0$
(b) $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_s > 0$
(c) $\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)_s < 0$
(d) when Reynolds number exceeds 2300

4.7 A fluid is flowing over a flat plate with a free stream velocity u_∞. The distance by which an equivalent uniform stream would have to be displaced from the surface to give the same volume flow of the fluid is called the
(a) boundary layer thickness
(b) displacement thickness
(c) momentum thickness
(d) energy thickness

4.8 A fluid is flowing at a uniform temperature T_∞ along a flat plate maintained at a constant temperature T_w. If we define the dimensionless temperature $\theta(x, y)$ as

$$\theta(x, y) = \frac{T_w - T}{T_w - T_\infty}$$

where $T(x, y)$ is the local temperature in the fluid, the thermal boundary layer thickness $\delta_t(x)$ is the locus of points along the plate where θ is equal to
(a) 1.0 (b) 0
(c) 0.99 (d) 0.95

4.9 A fluid is flowing along a plate having a high uniform wall temperature. The heat transfer coefficient along the length
(a) decreases
(b) increases
(c) remains constant
(d) first decreases and then increases

4.10 For heat transfer from an isothermal plate to a fluid flowing along it, identify the incorrect statement. Higher the value of Reynolds number,
(a) higher will be the rate of mixing
(b) higher the value of δ_t
(c) higher the value of h
(d) higher will be the rate of heat transfer

4.11 The conditions which are important to study the analysis of a heat transfer process under steady state are
(a) geometric conditions
(b) physical conditions
(c) boundary conditions
(d) all of the above

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4.12 The momentum and energy equations become identical for fluids having
(a) $\nu = \alpha$ (b) $\nu > \alpha$
(c) $\nu < \alpha$ (d) $\mathrm{Re} = \infty$

4.13 The ratio of kinetic energy of flow relative to boundary layer enthalpy difference is called
(a) Biot number
(b) Eckert number
(c) Grashhoff number
(d) Stanton number

4.14 The ratio of surface shear stress to free stream kinetic energy is called
(a) friction factor (b) Weber number
(c) drag coefficient (d) drag force

4.15 Choose the correct statement:
For a given value of Nusselt number, the convective heat transfer coefficient h
(a) decreases with increasing thermal conductivity of the fluid.
(b) increases with distance x from the leading edge.
(c) increases with the thermal conductivity of fluid.
(d) is independent of the distance x.

4.16 In laminar boundary layers over a flat plate, the ratio of δ_t/δ is equal to
(a) $\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2}$ (b) $\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$
(c) $\mathrm{Pr}^{-1/3}$ (d) $\mathrm{Pr}^{1/4}$

4.17 In a fully developed laminar flow through a tube,
(i) $\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = 0$
(ii) $\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$ at any radius r is not zero.
(iii) the temperature profile $T(r)$ continuously changes with x
(iv) for constant tube wall temperature, surface heat flux is constant.
Out of the above statements:
(a) only (i) and (ii) are correct
(b) (i), (ii) and (iii) are correct
(c) all four are correct
(d) only (i) and (iv) are correct

4.18 It is a property of a fluid:
(a) Eddy viscosity
(b) Eddy diffusivity
(c) Kinematic viscosity
(d) Turbulent Prandtl number

4.19 **Assertion (A):** In flow over a flat plate, the turbulent heat transfer coefficient is much larger than the laminar heat transfer coefficient at a given value of the Reynolds number.
Reasoning (R): Because in turbulent flow the heat transfer is aided by innumerable eddies which carry lumps of fluid across streamlines.
Codes:
(a) A is false R is true
(b) A is true, R is false
(c) Both A and R are false
(d) Both A and R are true

4.20 The convective heat transfer coefficient for laminar and turbulent flows over a flat plate varies respectively as
(a) $x^{1/2}$ and $x^{0.2}$ (b) $x^{1/2}$ and $x^{-0.2}$
(c) $x^{-1/2}$ and $x^{-0.2}$ (d) $x^{1/3}$ and $x^{0.2}$

4.21 In liquid metal heat transfer, δ_t/δ is
(a) very small
(b) very large
(c) about 1
(d) dependent on thermal conductivity of the film

4.22 In liquid metal heat transfer, Nusselt number is a function of
(a) Prandtl number only
(b) Reynolds number only
(c) Peclet number only
(d) Peclet and Reynolds number

4.23 The average turbulent shear stress is given by
(a) $-\rho\overline{u'v'}$ (b) $\rho\overline{u'v'}$
(c) $-\rho\overline{u}'v'$ (d) $-\overline{\rho u'v'}$

4.24 The flow and heat transfer in coiled tubes is governed by
(a) Reynolds number
(b) Dean number
(c) Nusselt number
(d) Prandtl number

4.25 By Reynolds analogy between heat and momentum transfer in turbulent flow the Stanton number is given by

(a) $\frac{f}{4}$ (b) $\frac{f}{8}$

(c) $\frac{f}{2}$ (d) $\frac{f}{16}$

where f is the Darcy friction factor.

4.26 Colburn's j-factor for turbulent flow over a flat plate is given by

(a) $St_x Pr^{1/3}$ (b) $St_x Pr^{1/2}$

(c) $St_x Pr^{2/3}$ (d) $St_x^{1/2} Pr^{2/3}$

4.27 The Nusselt number for fully developed laminar flow in a tube under constant heat flux

(a) depends on Reynolds number
(b) depends on Prandtl number
(c) is constant
(d) depends on Graetz number

4.28 This equation can be used to determine experimentally the dynamic viscosity of a fluid

(a) Hagen–Poiseuille equation
(b) Dittus–Boelter equation
(c) Sieder–Tate equation
(d) Hausen's equation

4.29 When a hot fluid is flowing over a cold flat plate, the temperature gradient

(a) is zero at the surface
(b) is negative at the surface
(c) is zero at the edge of the thermal boundary layer
(d) is positive at the edge of the thermal boundary layer

4.30 The boundary layer thickness at a distance x from the leading edge in a laminar boundary layer (Blasius velocity profile is

(a) $5.0\,Re_x^{-1/2}$ (b) $4.64\,Re_x^{-1/2}$

(c) $5.0(x^{1/2}\nu^{1/2}u_\infty^{-1/2})$ (d) $5.0\,Re_x^{1/2}$

4.31 If the local heat transfer coefficient is h_x at a distance x from the leading edge, the average heat transfer coefficient is

(a) $2h_x$ (b) $\sqrt{h_x}$

(c) $3h_x$ (d) $4h_x$

Answers

4.1 (b)	4.2 (d)	4.3 (c)	4.4 (b)	4.5 (d)
4.6 (a)	4.7 (b)	4.8 (c)	4.9 (a)	4.10 (b)
4.11 (d)	4.12 (a)	4.13 (b)	4.14 (c)	4.15 (c)
4.16 (c)	4.17 (b)	4.18 (c)	4.19 (d)	4.20 (c)
4.21 (b)	4.22 (c)	4.23 (a)	4.24 (b)	4.25 (b)
4.26 (c)	4.27 (c)	4.28 (a)	4.29 (c)	4.30 (c)
4.31 (a)				

Open Book Problems

4.1 Calculate the pressure drop in a 20 mm × 25 mm smooth rectangular duct of 100 m length when water at 40°C flows through it with a velocity of 1 m/s. Given, $\nu = 0.66 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s, $\rho = L\,995$ kg/m³.

Hints: Find

$D_H = \frac{4A}{p}$ and $Re_d = \frac{u_m D_H}{\nu}$. For $Re_d \le 2 \times 10^4$, take $f = 0.316\,Re_d^{-0.25}$ and for $Re_d \ge 2 \times 10^4$, take $f = 0.184\,Re_d^{-0.2}$ [Eq. 4.206 and 4.206a].

Then calculate $\Delta p = \frac{fL}{D_H}\frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$ where L = 100 m, u_m = 1 m/s and ρ = 995 kg/m³.

4.2 If velocity distribution in laminar boundary layer of a flat plate is assumed to be given by second order polynomial $u = a + by +$

cy^2, determine the form using the necessary boundary conditions.

Hints: At $y = 0, u = 0 \quad \therefore a = 0$

At $y = \delta$, $u = u_\infty$ and $\dfrac{du}{dy} = 0$, which gives

$u_\infty = b\delta + c\delta^2$

$\left(\dfrac{du}{dy}\right)_{y=\delta} = b + 2c\delta = 0$. On simplification obtain the relation $\dfrac{u}{u_\infty} = 2\left(\dfrac{y}{\delta}\right) - \left(\dfrac{y}{\delta}\right)^2$

4.3 A 1 kW heater is constructed of a glass plate with an electrically conducting film which produces a constant heat flux. The plate is 60 cm × 60 cm and placed in an air stream at 27°C, 1 atm with u_∞ = 5 m/s. Calculate the average temperature difference along the plate and the temperature difference in the trailing edge.

Hints: Properties are evaluated at the film temperature $\dfrac{T_w + T_\infty}{2}$. Since T_w is not known, first calculate the properties at T_∞ for ν, Pr and k. Find Re_L and use Eq. (4.149) to find $\overline{T_w - T_\infty}$ substituting $q_w = \dfrac{1000}{(0.6)^2}\ \mathrm{W/m^2}$ L = 0.6 m, K, Re_L and Pr. $T_w = \Delta T + T_\infty$ and $T_f = \dfrac{T_w + T_\infty}{2}$. At this T_c, find properties and use Eq. (4.149) to find $\overline{T_w - T_\infty}$.

4.4 Engine oil at 20°C is forced over 0.2 m square plate at a velocity of 1.2 m/s. The plate is heated to a uniform temperature of 60°C. Calculate the heat loss by the plate.

Hints: This is the case of a flat plate with constant heat flux. At the film temperature $T_f = \dfrac{20 + 60}{2} = 40^\circ\mathrm{C}$, from property tables in the appendix, find ρ, k, ν, and Pr. Check if $\mathrm{Re}_x < 2000$. Use Eq. (4.150) to find Nu_x, h_x, $\bar{h} = 2h_x$ and $Q = \bar{h}A\,(T_w - T_\infty)$ W.

4.5 Air at 20°C and at a pressure of 1 bar is flowing over a flat plate at a velocity of 3 m/s. If the plate is 280 mm wide and at 56°C, calculate the following quantities at x = 280 mm, given that properties of air at the bulk mean temperature $\dfrac{20 + 56}{2} = 38^\circ\mathrm{C}$ are: ρ = 1.1374 kg/m³, k = 0.02732 W/mK, c_p = 1.005 kJ/kgK, $\nu = 16.768 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s and Pr = 0.7: (a) the boundary layer thickness, (b) local friction coefficient, (c) the average friction coefficient, (d) shearing stress due to friction, (e) thermal boundary layer thickness, (f) local convective heat transfer coefficient, (g) average friction coefficient, (h) the rate of heat transfer by convection, (i) total drag force on the plate and (j) total mass flow rate through the boundary.

Hints: First find $\mathrm{Re}_x = \dfrac{u_\infty x}{\nu}$ and establish that the flow is laminar. Then find

(a) $\delta = \dfrac{5x}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$

(b) $C_{fx} = \dfrac{0.664}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_x}}$

(c) $\bar{C}_f = \dfrac{1.328}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Re}_L}}$

(d) $\tau_w = C_{fx}\,\rho u_\infty^2/2$

(e) $\delta_t = \dfrac{\delta}{(\mathrm{Pr})^{1/3}}$

(f) $h_x = 0.332\dfrac{k}{x}\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$

(g) $\bar{h} = 2h_x$

(h) $Q = \bar{h}A(T_w - T_\infty)$

(i) $F_D = \tau_w \times 0.28 \times 0.28$

(j) $\dot{m} = \dfrac{5}{8}\rho u_\infty(\delta_2 - \delta_1) = \dfrac{5}{8}\rho u_\infty \delta$

4.6 Air at 20°C and 1 atm flows over a flat plate at 35 m/s. The plate is 75 cm long and is maintained at 60°C. Assuming unit width, calculate the heat transfer from the plate.

Hints: At film temperature $T_f = \frac{20+60}{2} = 40°C$ = 313 K, find the properties of air from the appendix: ρ, μ, c_p, k and Pr. Check to find $\mathrm{Re}_L = \frac{\rho u_m L}{\mu}$ greater than 5×10^5. It will be a case of mixed boundary layer with laminar flow form $x = 0$ to $x = x_c$ and turbulent from x_c to L. Use Eq. 4.145, $\mathrm{Nu}_L = 0.036\ (\mathrm{Re}_L^{0.8} - 835)\ \mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$ to find $\bar{h}$ and $Q = \bar{h}A\ (T_w - T_\infty)$.

4.7 Water at 40°C with a mass flow of 0.5 kg/s enters a 2.5 cm ID tube whose wall is maintained at a uniform temperature of 90°C. Calculate the tube length required for heating the water to 60°C and also the resulting pressure drop.

Hints: At $T_f = \frac{40+60}{2} = 50°C$, find the properties of water from the appendix: ν, Pr, μ, ρ, c_p, k. From $\dot{m} = \rho \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 u_m$, find $u_m = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi d^2 \rho}$ and Re_d. If the flow is turbulent, you may use Sieder–Tait Eq. (4.211). At $T_w = 90°C$, find μ_w. Then, $\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.027\ \mathrm{Re}_d^{0.8}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{1/3} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14}$ is used to find $\bar{h}$. With T_w = constant, use Eq. (4.188), to find $Q_c = \bar{h}A(\Delta T)_{\text{l.m.}}$

$$\Delta T_{\text{l.m.}} = \frac{(T_w - T_i) - (T_w - T_e)}{\ln \frac{T_w - T_i}{T_w - T_o}},$$

$A = \pi dL$ and L. Find friction factor for turbulent flow through a pipe, Eq. (4.206), $f = 0.184\ \mathrm{Re}_d^{-0.2}$ and then $\Delta p = \frac{fL}{d} \frac{\rho u_m^2}{2}$ can be found.

You could also use Dittus–Boelter equation to find $\bar{h}$.

4.8 In a straight tube of 60 mm diameter, water is flowing at a velocity of 12 mps. The tube surface temperature is maintained at 70°C and the flowing water is heated from 15°C to 45°C. Taking the physical properties of water at its mean bulk temperature, calculate the following: (i) The heat transfer coefficient from the tube surface to the water, (ii) The heat transferred and (iii) The length of the tube.

Hints: First find properties of water at the film temperature of 30°C: ρ, c_p, k, ν and Pr. Establish $\mathrm{R}_{ed} > 2300$ and use Dithers–Boelter equation $\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.023\ \mathrm{Re}_d^{0.8}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{0.333}$ to find $\bar{h}$, $\dot{Q} = \dot{m}q\ (T_2 - T_1)$. Also, $Q = \bar{h}\ \pi dL\ (T_w - T_m)$ from which calculate L.

4.9 The main duct of an air conditioning system is rectangular in cross-section (400 mm × 800 mm) and has air at atmospheric pressure and at 20°C flowing with a velocity of 7 m/s. Estimate the heat leakage per metre length per unit temperature difference.

Hints: Find properties of air at 20°C from the Appendix: ρ, c_p, k, α, ν and Pr. The hydraulic diameter $D_h = \frac{4A}{P}$ and $\mathrm{Re}_d = \frac{u_m D_h}{\nu}$. From Dittus–Boelter equation $\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.023\ \mathrm{Re}_d^{0.8}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{0.4}$, find h and $Q/L = h.P(T_w - T_b)$.

4.10 Atomspheric air at T_w = 300 K and a bulk stream velocity of u_∞ = 10 m/s flows through a tube with D = 2.5 cm inside diameter. Calculate the pressure drop per 100 m length of the tube for a smooth tube ($f = 0.028$) and a commerical steel tube ($f = 0.0315$).

Hints: Find ρ and ν for air from Appendix: Then find $\mathrm{Re} = \frac{u_m D}{\nu}$ to show that the flow is turbulent. Then use $\Delta p = \frac{fL}{D} \frac{\rho u_\infty^2}{2}$

Review Questions

4.1 What are Newtonian and non-Newtonian fluids? Give examples.

4.2 What is the difference between dynamic viscosity and kinematic viscosity? What

are their units? How do the viscosities of a liquid and gas vary with temperature?

4.3 Define laminar and turbulent flows. What is Reynolds number?

4.4 What is boundary layer thickness? What do you mean by laminar and turbulent boundary layers? What is laminar sublayer?

4.5 What is critical Reynolds number for flow over a flat plate? On what does it depend?

4.6 What is displacement thickness?

4.7 Define drag coefficient and drag force.

4.8 What do you mean by thermal boundary layer? How does the ratio δ/δ_t vary with Prandtl number?

4.9 Define local and mean heat transfer coefficients. On what factors does the value of h depend?

4.10 Show that the Reynolds number for flow in a circular tube of diameter D can be expressed as $\text{Re} = 4\dot{m}/\pi D\,\mu$.

4.11 Which fluid will require a larger pump to move at a specified velocity in a specified tube: Water or engine oil? Why?

4.12 What are the generally accepted values of the critical Reynolds numbers for (a) flow over a flat plate, (b) flow over a circular tube and (c) flow in a tube?

4.13 In the fully developed region of flow in a circular tube, will the velocity profile change in the flow direction? How does the temperature profile vary?

4.14 Consider the flow of oil in a tube. How will the hydrodynamic and thermal entry lengths compare if the flow is laminar? How would they compare if the flow were turbulent?

4.15 How is the friction factor for flow in a tube related to the pressure drop? How is the pressure drop related to the pumping power for a given mass flow rate?

4.16 Consider laminar forced convection in a circular tube. Will the heat flux be higher near the inlet or near the exit of the tube? What would have happened for turbulent forced convection?

4.17 How does surface roughness affect the pressure drop and the heat transfer in a tube?

4.18 Write the expression of the general continuity equation. What does it reduce to for a steady incompressible flow?

4.19 What do you mean by local and convective differentials?

4.20 Write the Navier-Stokes equations for incompressible viscous liquids and explain the terms in these equations.

4.21 Write the energy equation for a fluid element. What is dissipation function? When is its effect significant? When can it be neglected?

4.22 Express the similarity of momentum and energy equations for flow over a flat plate. How are their solutions identical for fluids having $\nu = \alpha$.

4.23 Explain the principle of similarity applied to heat transfer. How are the relevant dimensionless parameters derived from the appropriate differential equations?

4.24 When is the forced convection heat transfer in two systems physically similar?

4.25 How is the buoyancy force per unit volume derived?

4.26 Show by similarity principle that the three dimensionless parameters relevant to free convection heat transfer are Nusselt number, Grashof number and Prandtl number.

4.27 State the five methods which are available for evaluation of convection heat transfer coefficients.

4.28 State the scope and application of dimensional analysis in heat transfer processes. What are the two methods of determining dimensionless groups to correlate experimental data?

4.29 What are fundamental dimensions? Express thermal resistance and heat transfer coefficient in fundamental dimensions.

4.30 Explain the principle of dimensional homogeneity. How is it utilised in deriving the dimensionless groups?

4.31 Explain Rayleigh's method. How is it applied in deriving the functional relationship of pressure drop of a fluid per unit area of the inside surface of a pipe.

$$\delta_t/\delta = 191/(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{0.7}$$

and the wall shear stress is

$$\tau_w = \frac{0.0296\,\rho u_\infty^2}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{0.2}}$$

4.55 How did von Kármán refine Prandtl's analysis for turbulent flow over a plane surface?

4.56 What do you mean by hydrodynamic and thermal entry lengths?

4.57 Explain the effect of Prandtl number on the temperature gradient in turbulent flow for a given Reynolds number in tubes.

4.58 Show that for laminar flow through a tube the Fanning friction coefficient C_f is equal to

$$C_f = f/4$$

where f is the Darcy friction factor.

4.59 Show that the centre-line velocity of a fluid in steady laminar flow through a tube is twice the mean velocity.

4.60 State and explain the Hagen Poiseiulle flow through a tube and show that for laminar flow, $f = 64/\mathrm{Re}_d$.

4.61 How can Hagen–Poiseuille equation be used to estimate the viscosity of a fluid experimentally?

4.62 Draw and explain the temperature variation of a fluid along the flow direction for (a) constant heat flux and (b) constant wall temperature, boundary conditions.

4.63 What do you mean by mixing-cup temperature of a fluid flowing through a tube?

4.64 What are the values of Nusselt number for laminar flow through a tube when the boundary condition is (a) constant heat flux and (b) constant wall temperature?

4.65 Explain Couette flow for laminar forced convection. Where does the maximum temperature occur?

4.66 What is the physical significance of Eckert number? Where is it meaningful?

4.67 What is the effect of buoyancy force in laminar flow through a tube? Explain the significance of Graetz number.

4.68 Show that by Reynolds analogy for turbulent flow through a tube

$$\mathrm{St}_d = f/8$$

where f is the friction factor.

4.69 Explain the relative magnitudes of ν, ε_M, α and ε_H in different flow regimes for flow through a tube.

4.70 Explain Prandtl analogy and von Kármán analogy for turbulent flow through a tube.

4.71 How does the friction factor for turbulent flow through a tube depend on the Reynolds number?

4.72 What do you mean by relative roughness? Explain Moody's chart to determine the friction factor.

4.73 Explain the conditions under which Dittus–Boelter equation can be used to determine the heat transfer coefficient.

4.74 How does Sieder–Tate equation improve upon Dittus–Boelter equation in estimating h for turbulent flow through a tube?

4.75 What are the characteristic features of liquid metals as working fluids for heating and cooling?

4.76 Explain heat transfer phenomenon in coiled tubes. What do you mean by Dean number?

4.77 Explain the universal velocity profile. Draw the velocity distribution profiles for the three different layers of flow through a tube.

4.78 Explain the exterior flow of a fluid over a circular cylinder for different values of Reynolds number. When do von Kármán vortex streets appear? When does flow separation occur?

4.79 Explain the heat transfer and pressure drop characteristics for bundles of tubes in cross-flow.

Problems for Practice

4.1 Air at 25°C and at atmospheric pressure flows over a flat plate at 3 m/s. If the plate is 1 m wide and the wall is maintained at 75°C, calculate the following at locations

4.32 Show by Rayleigh's method that in forced convection heat transfer the Nusselt number is a function of Reynolds number and Prandtl number.

4.33 State Buckingham π-theorem. What are its merits and demerits? What are repeating variables? How are these chosen?

4.34 With the help of Buckingham π-theorem show that

(a) for forced convection heat transfer

$$\mathrm{Nu}_d = B\,\mathrm{Re}_d^a\,\mathrm{Pr}^b$$

(b) for free convection heat transfer

$$\mathrm{Nu} = B\,\mathrm{Gr}^a\,\mathrm{Pr}^b$$

4.35 How are experimental data for heat transfer by forced convection best correlated?

4.36 Show by order-of-magnitude analysis for flow over a plane surface

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{1}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/2}}$$

4.37 Explain the method of deriving the exact solution of Pohlhausen for the drag coefficient and the heat transfer coefficient for flow over a flat plate.

4.38 What is film temperature and its significance?

4.39 What do you mean by von Kármán's integral method? How is it used in deriving the drag force and heat transfer coefficient for flow over a flat plate?

4.40 What do you understand by mean value and the fluctuating component of velocity and of a property in turbulent flow?

4.41 Explain what you mean by Reynolds stress? What is the meaning of the negative sign in the turbulent shear stress $-\overline{\rho u' v'}$?

4.42 What is the difference between laminar shear stress and Reynolds stress?

4.43 Explain Prandtl's mixing length concept to describe turbulent flow over a surface.

4.44 Define eddy viscosity. How is it different from kinematic viscosity?

4.45 Explain eddy diffusivity of heat. How is it related to thermal diffusivity?

4.46 Define turbulent Prandtl number. Why is its value equal to unity?

4.47 Explain Reynolds analogy. Is there any restriction on its use?

4.48 What is Stanton number? What is Reynolds–Colburn analogy? What do you mean by Colburn's j-factor?

4.49 By Reynolds–Colburn analogy show that for turbulent flow over a plane surface the local Nusselt number is

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.0288\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{0.8}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

and the local drag coefficient is

$$C_{f_x} = \frac{0.0576}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{0.2}}$$

4.50 Show that for laminar flow from $x = 0$ to x_c and for turbulent flow from $x = x_c$ to $x = L$ over a flat plate

$$\mathrm{Nu}_L = (0.036\,\mathrm{Re}_L^{0.8} - 835)\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

and

$$C_f = \frac{0.072}{\mathrm{Re}_L^{0.2}} - \frac{1670}{\mathrm{Re}_L}$$

4.51 For constant heat flux boundary condition for laminar flow over a flat plate

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.453\,\mathrm{Re}_x^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}$$

Show that the average temperature difference along the plate is

$$\overline{T_w - T_\infty} = \frac{q_w\,L/k}{0.6795\,\mathrm{Re}_L^{1/2}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/3}}$$

where the q_w is the wall heat flux in W/m^2.

4.52 Taking the velocity profile in the turbulent flow over a plane surface as

$$u = u_\infty \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^{1/7}$$

and wall shear stress as

$$\tau_w = 0.0228\rho u_\infty^2 \left(\frac{\nu}{u_\infty \delta}\right)^{1/4}$$

show that the boundary layer thickness is given by

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \frac{0.376}{(\mathrm{Re}_x)^{1/5}}$$

4.53 Hence, show that the displacement thickness is $\delta/8$.

4.54 Show that the thickness of laminar sublayer, where the velocity varies linearly, is

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the plates is $2b$. The velocity distribution is given by

$$u/u_1 = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{y}{b}+1\right)$$

considering steady, incompressible, laminar fully developed flow without pressure drop. The stationary plate is maintained at temperature T_o and the moving plate at T_1. Show that the temperature distribution is given by

$$\theta = \frac{1}{2}(1+\eta) + \frac{\text{Pr Ec}}{8}(1-\eta^2)$$

where θ and η are non-dimensional parameters given by

$$\theta = \frac{T-T_0}{T_1-T_0} \text{ and } \eta = \frac{y}{b}$$

and Ec is Eckert number given by Ec $= \dfrac{u_1^2}{c_p(T_1-T_0)}$.

4.27 (b) In a lubricated bearing, the clearance is 0.05 mm. The surface velocity of the shaft is 30 m/s. The stationary surface is maintained at 50°C. The shaft does not have any provision for cooling. Considering the bearing and journal as two infinite flat parallel plates, determine the steady-state temperature of the shaft and the rate of heat transfer at the bearing surface. Given for oil, $\mu = 0.012$ kg/m s and $k = 1$ W/m K.

(*Ans.* $T_1 = 55.4$°C, $q = 216$ kW/m^2)

4.28 An instant water heater consists of 9.1 mm inner diameter tube through which water flows at the rate of 18.4 kg/h entering at 30°C. The tube is externally wound over by a nichrome resistance wire with a heating capacity of 400 W per metre tube length, after which it is insulated. (a) Determine the length of tube required to raise the temperature of water to 75°C. (b) Find the maximum temperature of water at the outlet. (c) What should be done so that there is no boiling in any part of flow. For water at 52.5°C, $\rho = 984$ kg/m^3, $\mu = 0.54 \times 10^{-3}$ kg/ms, $k = 0.6445$ W/m K and $c_p = 4187$ J/kg K.

(*Ans.* (a) 2.41 m, (b) 120.2°C, (c) Max. heating capacity limited to 221 W/m)

4.29 Water entering at 10°C is to be heated to 40°C in a tube of 20 mm inner diameter at a mass flow rate of 0.01 kg/s. The outside of the tube is wrapped with an insulated heating element that produces a uniform flux of 5 kW/m^2 over the surface. Neglecting any entrance effects, determine (a) the Reynolds number, (b) the heat transfer coefficient, (c) the length of tube needed for 30°C temperature rise, (d) the inner surface temperature, (e) the friction factor, (f) the pressure drop and (g) the pumping power required if the pump is 50% efficient.

(*Ans.* (a) 700, (b) 132.5 W/m^2 K, (c) 1.33 m, (d) 153°C, (e) 0.0915, (f) 3.1 N/m^2, (g) 6.2×10^{-5} W)

4.30 The drag force on a ship is a function of ρ, μ, g, L and v. By making use of Buckingham's p-theorem obtain the nondimensional drag force in terms of dimensionless groups.

4.31 Air at a temperature of 115.6°C enters a smooth pipe of 7.62 cm diameter, the wall of which can be maintained at a constant temperature of 15.6°C. The rate of flow of air is 0.226 m^3/s. Estimate the length of pipe necessary if the air is to be cooled to 65.5°C, using the following assumptions: Pr for air = 0.74, $f = 0.00175$ and velocity at the boundary of the sublayer is half the mean velocity in the pipe.

(*Ans.* 12.55 m)

4.32 A flat plate 100 cm wide and 150 cm high is to be maintained at 90°C in air with a free-stream temperature of 10°C. Determine the velocity at which the air must flow over the flat plate along 150 cm side so that the rate of energy dissipation from the plate is 3.75 kW. Properties of air at 50°C are $\rho = 1.09$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.028$ W/m K, $c_p = 1.007$ kJ/kg K and $\mu = 2.03 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms.

(*Ans.* 15.45 m/s)

$x = 1$ m and $x = x_c$ from the leading edge: (a) hydrodynamic and thermal boundary layer thicknesses, (b) local and average friction coefficients, (c) local and average heat transfer coefficients, (d) the total rate of heat transfer and (e) the total drag force due to friction. Properties of air at 50°C are $\rho = 1.093$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 1.005$ kJ/kg K, $\nu = 17.95 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and $k = 0.0282$ W/m K.

(*Ans.* At $x = 1$ m, $\delta = 1.132$ cm, $\delta_t = 1.272$ cm $C_{f_x} = 0.00158$, $C_f = 0.00316$, $h_x = 3.4$ W/m^2 K, $\bar{h} = 6.8$ W/m^2 K, $Q = 340$ W, $F = 0.0155$ N)

4.2 Air at 20°C flows over a plate 60 cm × 30 cm with a velocity of 20 m/s. The critical Reynolds number is 5×10^5. Calculate the rate of heat transfer from the plate, assuming the flow to be parallel to the 60 cm side. The plate temperature is maintained at 100°C. Properties of air at 60°C are $\rho = 1.06$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 1.005$ kJ/kg K, $k = 0.0291$ W/m K and $\nu = 18.97 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s.

(*Ans.* 457.1 W)

4.3 Air at 27°C and 1 atm pressure flows over a flat plate with a velocity of 2 m/s. Estimate (a) the boundary layer thickness at distances of 20 cm and 40 cm from the leading edge of the plate and (b) the mass flow that enters the boundary layer between $x = 20$ cm and $x = 40$ cm. Take m of air at 27°C as 1.85×10^{-5} kg/ms. Assume unit depth in z-directions. If the plate is heated over its entire length to a temperature of 60°C, calculate the heat transfer in (c) the first 20 cm of the plate and (d) the first 40 cm of the plate. (e) Compute the drag force exerted on the first 40 cm of the plate. Properties of air at 316.5 K are $\nu = 17.36 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, $k = 0.02749$ W/m K, Pr = 0.7 and $c_p = 1.006$ kJ/kg K.

(*Ans.* (a) 5.59 mm, 7.9 mm, (b) 3.4×10^{-3} kg/s (c) 81.2 W, (d) 114.8 W, (e) 5.44 mN)

4.4 Water at 60°C enters a tube of 2.54 cm diameter at a mean flow velocity of 2 cm/s. Calculate the exit water temperature if the tube is 3 m long and the wall temperature is constant at 80°C. Properties of water at 60 °C are $\rho = 985$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 4.18$ kJ/kg K, $\mu = 4.71 \times 10^{-4}$ kg/ms, $k = 0.651$ W/m K and Pr = 3.02. Use Sieder and Tate equation. The value of μ_w at 80°C is 3.55×10^{-4} kg/m s.

(*Ans.* 71.9°C)

4.5 Air at 2 atm, 200°C, is heated as it flows through a tube with a diameter of 2.54 cm at a velocity of 10 m/s. A constant heat flux condition is maintained at the wall and the wall temperature is 20°C above the air temperature all along the length of the tube. Calculate (a) the heat transfer per unit length of tube and (b) the increase in bulk temperature of air over a 3 m length of the tube. Properties of air at 200°C are Pr = 0.681, $\mu = 2.57 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms, $k = 0.0386$ W/m K and $c_p = 1.025$ kJ/kg K.

(*Ans.* (a) 103.5 W/m, (b) $\Delta T_b = 40$°C)

4.6 Air at atmospheric pressure and 100°C enters a 3 m long tube of 4 cm inner diameter with a velocity of 9 m/s and leaves at 192°C. An electric heater is wound on the outer surface of the tube such that heat absorption rate by air per unit area is uniform throughout the length of the tube. If the mean velocity of air is also 9 m/s, find (a) the mass flow rate of air, (b) the rate of heat absorption by the tube from the heater in kW, and (c) the wall temperature of the tube at outlet. Assume average properties of air at 146°C as $c_p = 1.005$ kJ/kg K, $k = 0.035$ W/m K, $\nu = 28.8 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.683.

(*Ans.* (a) 0.0107 kg/s, (b) 1 kW, (c) 273.5°C)

4.7 Air at 1 atm and 27°C flows across a 12 mm diameter sphere at a velocity of 4 m/s. A small heater inside the sphere maintains the surface temperature at 77°C. Calculate the rate of heat loss from the sphere.

(*Ans.* 1.553 W)

4.8 Calculate the heat transfer coefficient for water flowing through a 25 mm diameter tube at the rate of 1.5 kg/s, when the mean bulk temperature is 40°C. For turbulent flow of a liquid take

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$$Nu_d = 0.0243\ Re_d^{0.8}\ Pr^{0.4}$$

where all properties are evaluated at the mean bulk temperature.

(*Ans.* 12.53 W/m^2 K)

4.9 Air at 20°C flowing at 25 m/s passes over a flat plate, the surface of which is maintained at 270°C. Calculate the rate at which heat is transferred from both sides of the plate per unit width over a distance of 0.25 m from the leading edge. Properties of air at 145°C are Pr = 0.687, $\nu = 2.8 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s and $k = 3.49 \times 10^{-5}$ kW/m K.

(*Ans.* 4.825 kW)

4.10 The crank case of an automobile is 0.6 m long, 0.2 m wide and 0.1 m deep. Assuming the surface temperature of the crank case is 350 K, estimate the rate of heat transfer from the crank case to atmospheric air at 276 K at a road speed of 30 m/s. Assume that the vibration of the engine and the chassis induce the transition from laminar to turbulent flow so near to the leading edge that, for practical purposes, the boundary layer is turbulent over the entire surface. Neglect radiation and use for the front and rear surface the same average heat transfer coefficient as for the bottom and sides.

(*Ans.* 1898 W)

4.11 For flow over a slightly curved surface, the local shear stress is given by the relation

$$\tau_w(x) = 0.3\left(\frac{\rho\mu}{x}\right)^{0.5} u_\infty^{1.5}$$

Obtain nondimensional relations for the local and average friction coefficients.

$$\left(Ans. C_{f_x} = \frac{0.6}{Re_x^{1/2}}, \bar{C}_f = \frac{1.2}{Re_x^{1/2}}\right)$$

4.12 Used engine oil is required to be recycled in a system in which engine oil flows through a 1 cm inner diameter 0.02 cm wall copper tube at the rate of 0.05 kg/s. The oil enters at 35°C and is to be heated to 45°C by atmospheric pressure steam condensing on the outside. Calculate the length of the tube required. Properties of engine oil at 40°C are c_p = 1964 J/kg K, ρ = 876 kg/m^3, k = 0.144 W/m K, μ = 0.210 N s/m^2 and Pr = 2870.

(*Ans.* 9.92 m)

4.13 Calculate the average heat transfer coefficient and the friction factor for flow of *n*-butyl alcohol at a bulk temperature of 20°C through a 0.1 m × 0.1 m square duct, 5 m long with walls at 27°C, if the average velocity is 0.03 m/s.

(*Ans.* $\bar{h}_c = 4.97$ W/m^2 K, $f = 0.0691$)

4.14 Assume a linear temperature profile

$$T = c + dy$$

for flow of a fluid over a flat plate.

(a) Apply the appropriate boundary conditions and express T in terms of δ_t, T_w and T_∞,

(b) Assume a linear velocity profile $u = a + by$ and obtain an expression for $\delta/\delta t$ as a function of Prandtl number.

(c) Obtain an expression for Nu_x.

$$\left(Ans.(a)\frac{T - T_w}{T_\infty - T_w} = \frac{y}{\delta_t}, (b)\frac{\delta}{\delta_t} = Pr^{1/3}, \quad (c)\ Nu = 0.29\ Re^{1/2}\ Pr^{1/3}\right)$$

4.15 A rectangular plate is 120 cm long in the direction of flow and 200 cm wide. The plate is maintained at 80°C when placed in nitrogen that has a velocity of 2.5 m/s and a temperature of 0°C. Determine (a) the average friction coefficient, (b) the viscous drag exerted on the plate, (c) the average heat transfer coefficient and (d) the total heat transfer rate from the plate.

(*Ans.* (a) 3.706×10^{-3}, (b) 2.55×10^{-2} N, (c) 5.63 W/m^2 K, (d) 1082 W)

4.16 A liquid metal flows at a mass flow rate of 3 kg/s through a constant heat flux 5 cm inner diameter tube in a nuclear reactor. The fluid at 473 K is to be heated with the tube wall 30 K above the fluid temperature. Using the following relation $\overline{Nu}_d = 0.625\ Pe^{0.4}$, estimate the length of the tube required for a 1 K rise in bulk fluid temperature. Properties of liquid metal are $\rho = 7.7 \times 10^3$ kg/m^3, ν =

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6×10^{-8} m²/s, c_p =130 J/kg K, k = 12 W/m K and Pr = 0.011.

(*Ans.* 0.0307 m)

4.17 Atmospheric air at 20°C flows with a free-stream velocity of 5 m/s over a 2 m diameter spherical tank which is maintained at 80°C. Compute the average heat transfer coefficient and the heat transfer rate from the sphere to the air.

(*Ans.* 63.2 W/m² K, 29.8 W)

4.18 A fluid at 27°C flows with a velocity of 10 m/s across a 5 cm outer diameter tube whose surface is kept at a uniform temperature of 120°C. Determine the average heat transfer coefficients and the heat transfer rates per metre length of the tube for (a) air at atmospheric pressure, (b) water and (c) ethylene glycol.

(*Ans.* (a) 58.3, (b) 31,800, (c) 10,628 W/m² K)

4.19 Air at atmospheric pressure and 24°C flows with a velocity of 10 m/s along a flat plate 4 m long, which is maintained at a uniform temperature of 130°C. Assuming $Re_c = 2 \times 10^5$, determine (a) the local heat transfer coefficient at 2m, 3m and 4m from the leading edge, (b) the average heat transfer coefficient and (c) the heat transfer rate from the plate.

(*Ans.* (a) 22.6, 21.1, 19.9 W/m² K, (b) 23.3 W/m² K, (c) 39.52 kW)

4.20 Atmospheric air at 27°C flows with a free-stream velocity of 10 m/s along a flat plate 4 m long. Calculate the drag coefficient at 2m and 4 m from the leading edge. Assuming an all turbulent boundary layer, determine the drag force exerted per metre width of the plate.

(*Ans.* 3.56×10^{-3}, 3.1×10^{-3}, 0.91 N)

4.21 Air at 27°C flows with a free-stream velocity of 40 m/s along a flat plate 2m long. Calculate the boundary layer thickness at the end of the plate for air at (a) 1/2 atm, (b) 1 atm and (c) 2 atm.

(*Ans.* (a) 3.18 cm, (b) 3.07 cm, (c) 2.82 cm)

4.22 Determine the hydrodynamic and thermal boundary layer thicknesses at 0.5 m from the leading edge of a flat plate at 74°C for flow at 80°C and atmospheric pressure with a velocity of 3 m/s of air, hydrogen and helium, respectively. Compare the ratio δ_t/δ.

(*Ans.* δ = 9.2, 24.1, 25.8 mm; δ_t = 9.5, 24.8, 26.4 mm)

4.23 Engine oil at 40°C flows with a velocity of 1 m/s over a 2 m long flat plate whose surface is maintained at a uniform temperature of 80°C. Determine the average heat transfer coefficient.

(*Ans.* 74.4 W/m² K)

4.24 Engine oil (ρ = 868 kg/m³, $\nu = 0.75 \times 10^{-4}$ m²/s) flows with a mean velocity of 0.15 m/s inside a circular tube having an inside diameter of 2.5 cm. Calculate the friction factor and the pressure drop over the length 100 m of the tube.

(*Ans.* f = 1.28, Δp = 50 kN/m²)

4.25 Atmospheric air at 300 K flows with a velocity of 5 m/s along a flat plate 1 m long. The plate has a width of 0.5 m. The total drag force acting on the plate is 18×10^{-3} N. By using Reynolds–Colburn analogy, estimate the corresponding average heat transfer coefficient for flow of air over the plate. Properties of air at 300 K are ρ = 1.177 kg/m³, c_p = 1.006 kJ/kg K and Pr = 0.708.

(*Ans.* $\overline{C}_f = 2.447 \times 10^{-3}$, h_m = 9.12 W/m² K)

4.26 In a heat exchanger water flows through a long 2.2 cm inner diameter copper tube at a bulk velocity of 2 m/s and is heated by steam condensing at 150°C on the outside of the tube. The water enters at 150°C on the outer side of the tube. The water enters at 150°C and leaves at 60°C. Find the heat transfer coefficient for water by (a) Dittus–Boelter equation, (b) Colburn's equation and (c) Sieder–Tate equation.

(*Ans.* (a) 8400, (b) 9700, (c) 8540 W/m² K)

4.27 (a) In the Couette flow the fluid flows between two infinite parallel plates, one of them stationary, and the other moving with a constant velocity u_1. The distance between

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Heat Transfer by Natural Convection

5

In forced convection, fluid motion is imposed externally by a fan, a blower or a pump. Free- or natural-convection flow arises in various ways, for example when a heated object is placed in a fluid at rest, the density of which varies with temperature. Heat is transferred from the surface of the hot object to the fluid layers in its neighbourhood. The density decrease due to a temperature increase causes these layers to rise and create the free-convection flow which now transports heat away from the object. Physically such a flow is described by stating that it is caused by body forces. Here, the body forces are the gravitational forces. Free-convection flows under the influence of gravitational forces have been investigated most extensively because they are encountered frequently in nature as well as in engineering applications. Flows can be caused by other body forces as well. In a rotating system, for instance, centrifugal and Coriolis forces exist as body forces. Flow of cooling air through passages in the rotating blades of gas turbines is an example of such a body force. In the boundary layers which surround missiles flying with supersonic speeds, temperatures may be so high that the air is ionized, which means that the atoms and molecules carry electric charges, as also happens for flow of plasma in a magnetohydrodynamic generator. In this case electric or magnetic forces may arise which as body forces influence the flow. In this chapter only gravitational natural convection will be considered on a number of simple geometries like a vertical flat plate, a horizontal cylinder with constant wall temperature and a fluid enclosed between two plane walls or concentric cylinders.

The flow velocity in free convection is much smaller than that encountered in forced convection. Therefore, heat transfer by free convection is much smaller than that by forced convection. Figure 5.1(a) illustrates the development of velocity field in front of a hot vertical plate owing to the *buoyancy force*. The heated fluid in front of the hot plate rises, entraining fluid from the quiescent outer region. Figure 5.1(b) shows a cold vertical plate in a hot fluid, where the direction of motion is reversed, the fluid in front of the plate being heavier moves vertically down, again entraining fluid from the quiescent outer region. In both cases a velocity boundary layer is developed with a certain peak in it. The velocity is zero both at the plate surface and at the edge of the boundary layer. In the regions near the leading edge, the boundary layer is laminar, then at a certain distance from the leading edge the transition to turbulent layer occurs, and finally a fully developed turbulent layer is established.

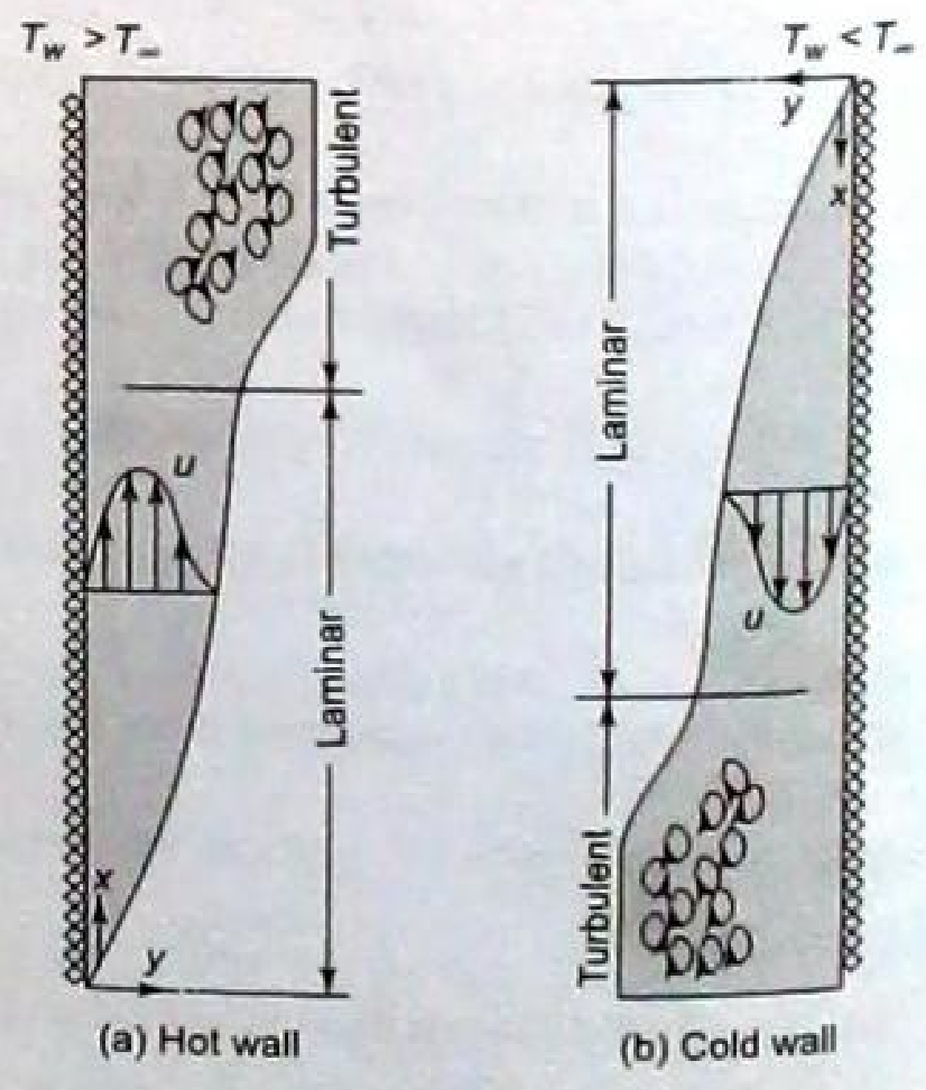


Fig. 5.1 *Laminar and turbulent velocity boundary layer for natural convection on a vertical plate*

We now consider a fluid contained in the space between two parallel horizontal plates [Fig. 5.2(a)]. Suppose the lower plate is maintained at a temperature higher than that of the upper plate ($T_1 > T_2$). A temperature gradient will be established in the vertical direction. The layer will be top-heavy, since the density of the cold fluid at the top is higher than that of the hot fluid at the bottom. If the temperature difference is increased beyond a certain critical value, the viscous forces within the fluid can no longer sustain the buoyancy forces, and a convection motion is set up.

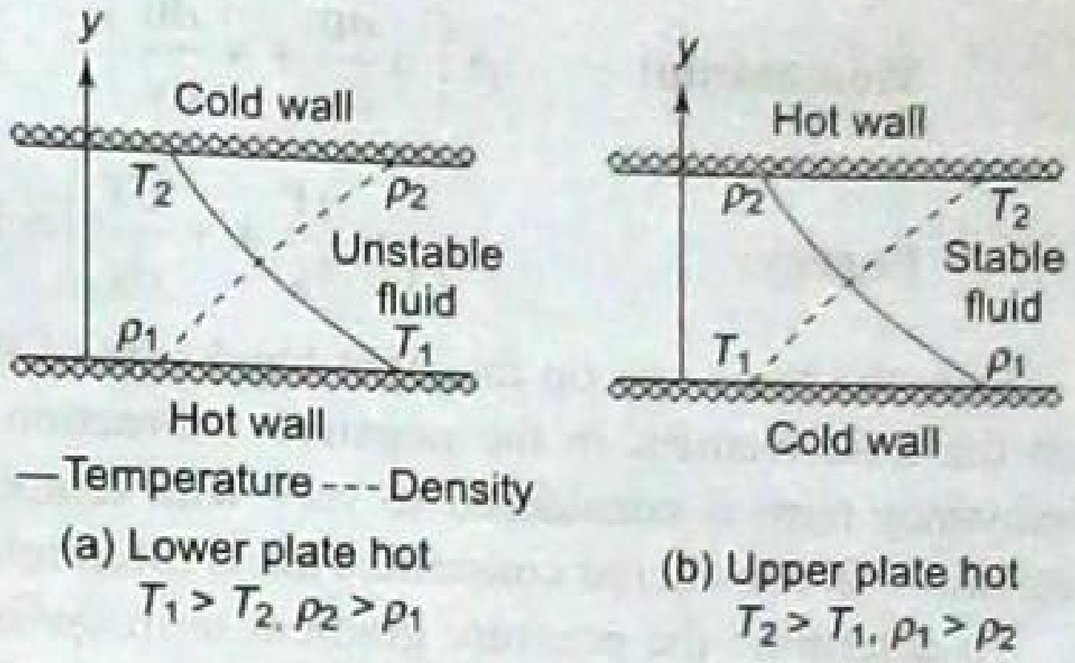


Fig. 5.2 *Fluid contained between two horizontal plates*

Suppose in Fig. 5.2(b), the lower plate is cold and the upper plate is hot (i.e. $T_1 < T_2$). Here, the density of the top layer is less than that of the bottom layer. The fluid is then always stable, and no natural convection currents are set up.

Figure 5.3 shows the directions of convection currents for horizontal plates, heated or cooled, facing up or down.

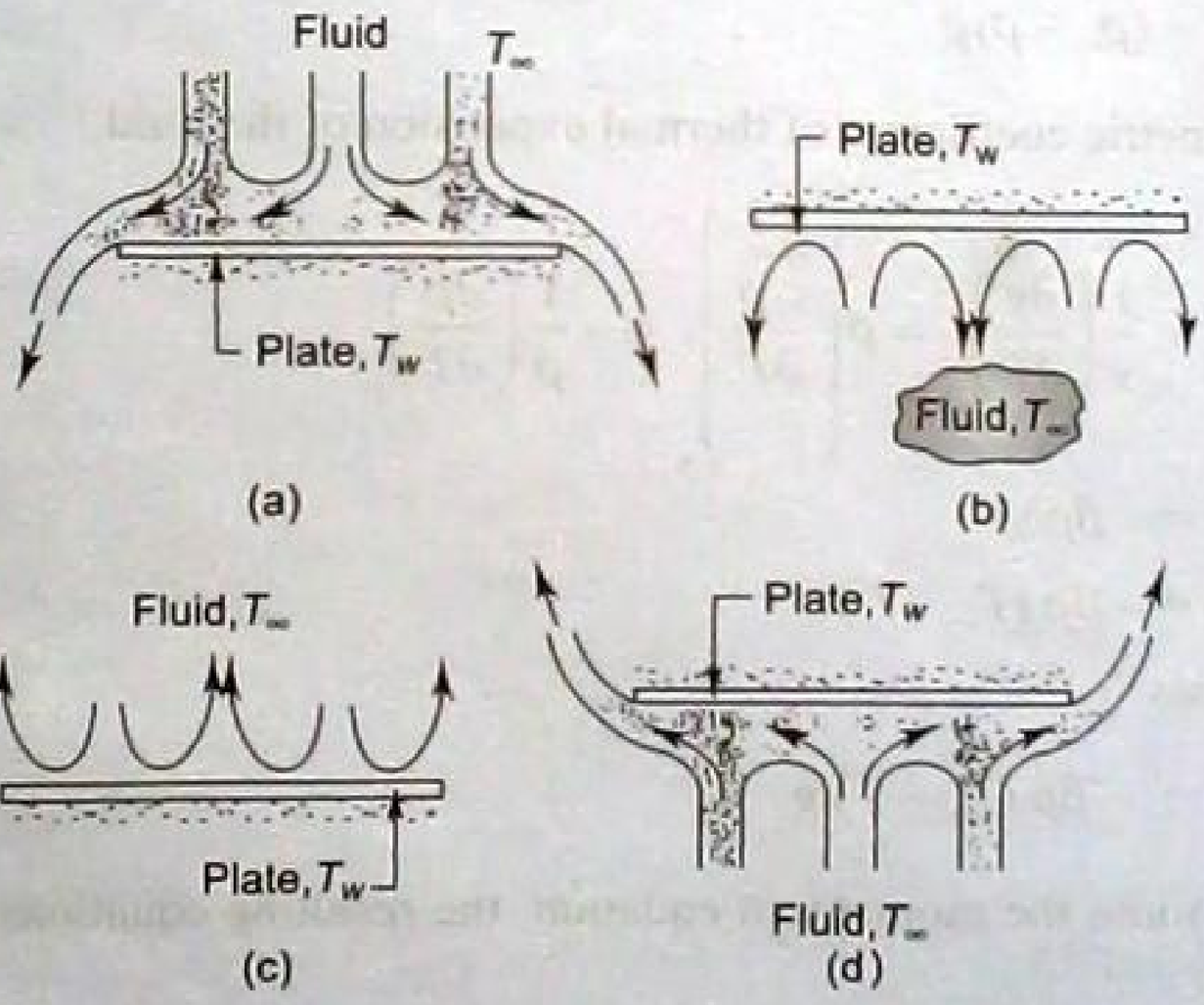


Fig. 5.3 *Buoyancy-driven flows on horizontal cold ($T_w < T_\infty$) and hot ($T_w > T_\infty$) plates, (a) Top surface of cold plate, (b) bottom surface of cold plate, (c) top surface of hot plate and (d) bottom surface of hot plate*

5.1 DIMENSIONLESS PARAMETERS OF NATURAL CONVECTION

To develop the principal dimensionless parameters of natural convection, we consider the natural convection on a vertical plate, as illustrated in Fig. 5.1. For simplicity in the analysis, we assume that the boundary layer flow is steady and laminar. Since small flow velocities are associated with natural convection, the viscous energy dissipation term in the energy equation can be neglected. Then the governing continuity, momentum and energy equations are obtained from the boundary layer equations, as derived in the last chapter, and the appropriate buoyancy term is introduced in the momentum equation:

Continuity:
$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \tag{5.1}$$

Momentum:
$$\rho\left(\mathbf{u}\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}+\mathbf{v}\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\right)=-\rho\mathbf{g}-\frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}+\mu\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{y}^2} \tag{5.2}$$

Energy:
$$\rho c_p\left(\mathbf{u}\frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}+\mathbf{v}\frac{\partial \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{y}}\right)=\mathbf{k}\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{T}}{\partial \mathbf{y}^2} \tag{5.3}$$

Here the term $-\rho g$ on the right hand side of the momentum equation represents the body force exerted on the fluid element in the negative x-direction. For small temperature differences, the density ρ in the buoyancy term is considered to vary with temperature, whereas the density appearing elsewhere in these equations is considered constant. This is often referred to as *Boussinesq approximation*.

To determine the pressure gradient term $\partial p/\partial x$, the x-momentum equation, Eq. (5.2) is evaluated at the edge of the velocity boundary layer, where $u \to 0$ and $\rho \to \rho_\infty$ We obtain

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}=-\rho g \tag{5.4}$$

where ρ_∞ is the fluid density outside the boundary layer. Then the term $-\rho g - \partial P/\partial x$ appearing in the momentum equation, Eq. (5.2) becomes

$$-\rho g-\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}=(\rho_\infty-\rho)g \tag{5.5}$$

If β denotes the volumetric coefficient of thermal expansion of the fluid,

$$\beta=\frac{1}{v}\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T}\right)_p=\rho\left(\frac{\partial \frac{1}{\rho}}{\partial T}\right)_p=-\frac{1}{\rho}\left(\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial T}\right)_p \tag{5.6}$$

$$\Delta\rho=-\beta\rho\Delta T$$

or
$$\rho_\infty-\rho=-\beta\rho\,(T_\infty-T) \tag{5.7}$$

Then Eq. (5.5) becomes

$$-\rho g-\frac{\partial p}{\partial x}=-\beta\rho\,(T_\infty-T)\,g \tag{5.8}$$

Substituting Eq. (5.8) into the momentum equation, the resulting equations for natural convection on a vertical plate are

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+\frac{\partial v}{\partial y}=0$$

$$u\frac{\partial u}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}=g\beta\,(T-T_\infty)+v\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}$$

$$u\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}+v\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}=\alpha\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} \tag{5.9}$$

To determine the dimensionless parameters that govern heat transfer in natural convection, we need to nondimensionalise the above governing equations. The following dimensionless parameters are defined:

$$X=\frac{x}{L},\ Y=\frac{y}{L},\ U=\frac{u}{U_0},\ V=\frac{v}{U_0},\ \theta=\frac{T-T_\infty}{T_w-T_\infty} \tag{5.10}$$

Here L is the characteristic length, U_0 is the reference velocity, T_w is the wall surface temperature and T_∞ is the fluid temperature at a far distance from the hot plate. When these new variables are introduced into Eq. (5.9), the resulting nondimensional equations become

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial X}+\frac{\partial V}{\partial Y}=0$$

$$U\frac{\partial U}{\partial X}+V\frac{\partial U}{\partial Y}=\frac{g\beta\left(T_w-T_\infty\right)}{U_0^2}\theta+\frac{1}{\mathrm{Re}}\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial Y^2} \tag{5.11}$$

$$U\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X}+V\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial Y}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{Re\,Pr}}\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial Y^2}$$

Here, the Reynolds and Prandtl numbers are defined as

$$\mathrm{Re}=\frac{U_0 L}{\nu},\ \mathrm{Pr}=\frac{\nu}{\alpha}$$

The dimensionless group in the momentum equation can be rearranged as

$$\frac{g\beta(T_w-T_\infty)L}{U_0^2}=\frac{g\beta L^3(T_w-T_\infty)/\nu^2}{(U_0L/\nu)^2}$$

$$=\frac{\mathbf{Gr}}{\mathbf{Re}^2} \tag{5.12}$$

where the Grashof number Gr is defined as

$$\mathbf{Gr}=\frac{\mathbf{g\beta L^3\left(T_w-T_\infty\right)}}{\boldsymbol{\nu}^2}$$

The Grashof number represents the ratio of the buoyancy force to the viscous force acting on the fluid. We recall that in forced convection, the Reynolds number represents the ratio of the inertial to viscous forces acting on the fluid. Therefore, the Grashof number in natural convection plays the same role as the Reynolds number in forced convection. In forced convection the transition from laminar to turbulent flow is governed by the critical value of the Reynolds number. Similarly, in natural convection, the transition from laminar to turbulent flow is governed by the critical value of the Grashof number.

Equation (5.11) imply that when the effects of natural and forced convection are of comparable magnitude, the Nusselt number depends on Re, Pr and Gr, or

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}=f(\mathrm{Re},\mathrm{Pr},\mathrm{Gr}) \tag{5.13}$$

The parameter $\mathrm{Gr}/\mathrm{Re}^2$, defined by Eq. (5.12), is a measure of the relative importance of natural convection in relation to forced convection. When $\mathrm{Gr}/\mathrm{Re}^2 \cong 1$, natural and forced convection are of the same order of magnitude; hence both must be considered.

If $(\mathrm{Gr}/\mathrm{Re}^2) << 1$, flow is primarily by forced convection. If $(\mathrm{Gr}/\mathrm{Re}^2) >> 1$, natural convection becomes dominant and the Nusselt number depends on Gr and Pr only:

$$\mathrm{Nu}=f(\mathrm{Gr},\mathrm{Pr}) \tag{5.14}$$

In natural convection, flow velocities are produced by the buoyancy forces only; hence there are no externally induced flow velocities. As a result, the Nusselt number does not depend on the Reynolds number.

Sometimes another dimensionless parameter, called the *Rayleigh number* (Ra), which is defined as

$$\mathrm{Ra}=\mathrm{Gr}\cdot\mathrm{Pr}=\frac{g\beta L^3\left(T_w-T_\infty\right)}{\nu^2}\frac{\nu}{\alpha}$$

$$=\frac{g\beta L^3\left(T_w-T_\infty\right)}{\nu\alpha} \tag{5.15}$$

is used instead of the Grashof number to correlate heat transfer in natural convection. Then the Nusselt number relation (Eq. (5.14)), becomes

$$\mathrm{Nu} = \phi\,(\mathrm{Ra}) \tag{5.16}$$

Experimental data from various sources for natural convection from horizontal wires and tubes of diameter D are correlated in Fig. 5.4 by plotting the average Nusselt number, $(\bar{h}_c\, D)/k$, against the Rayleigh number, $(c_p\, \rho^2\, g\, \beta \Delta T D^3)\,/\mu k$. The physical properties are evaluated at the film temperatures. We observe that data for fluids as different as air, glycerin and water are correlated over a wide range of Ra from 10^{-5} to 10^{9} for cylinders ranging from small wires to large pipes.

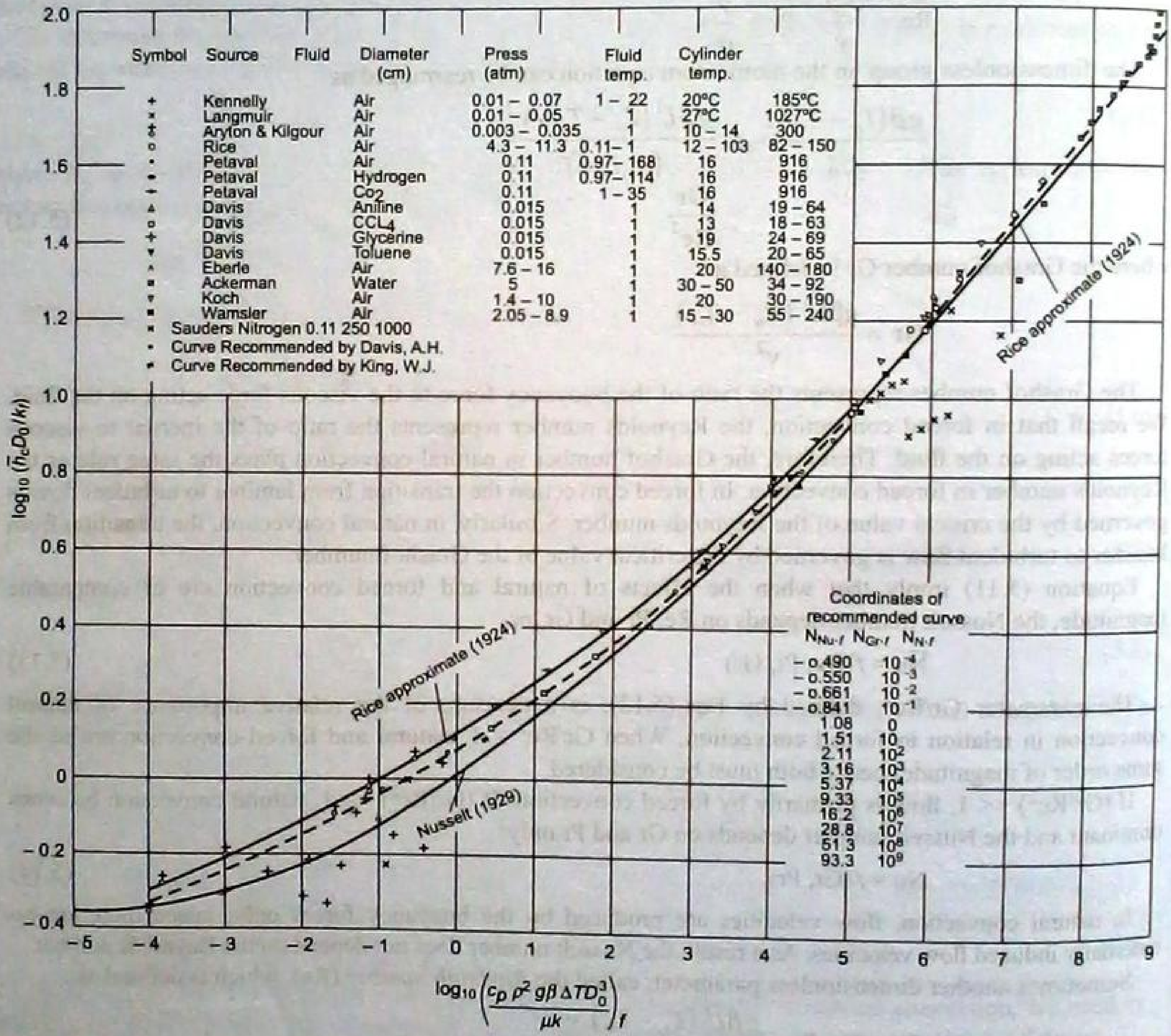


Fig. 5.4 *Correlation of data for natural convection heat transfer from horizontal cylinders in gases and liquids (McAdams, W.H., Heat Transmission, 3rd ed., McGraw-Hill, 1954)*

For three-dimensional shapes such as short cylinders and blocks the characteristic length L may be determined from

$$\frac{1}{L} = \frac{1}{L_{hor}} + \frac{1}{L_{vert}}$$

where L_{vert} is the height and L_{hor} the average horizontal dimension of the body.

A correlation for natural convection from vertical plates and vertical cylinders is shown in Fig. 5.5. It is seen that the flow is laminar for $Ra \leq 10^8$, passes through a transition in the range $10^8 < Ra < 10^{10}$, and becomes fully turbulent for $Ra > 10^{10}$.

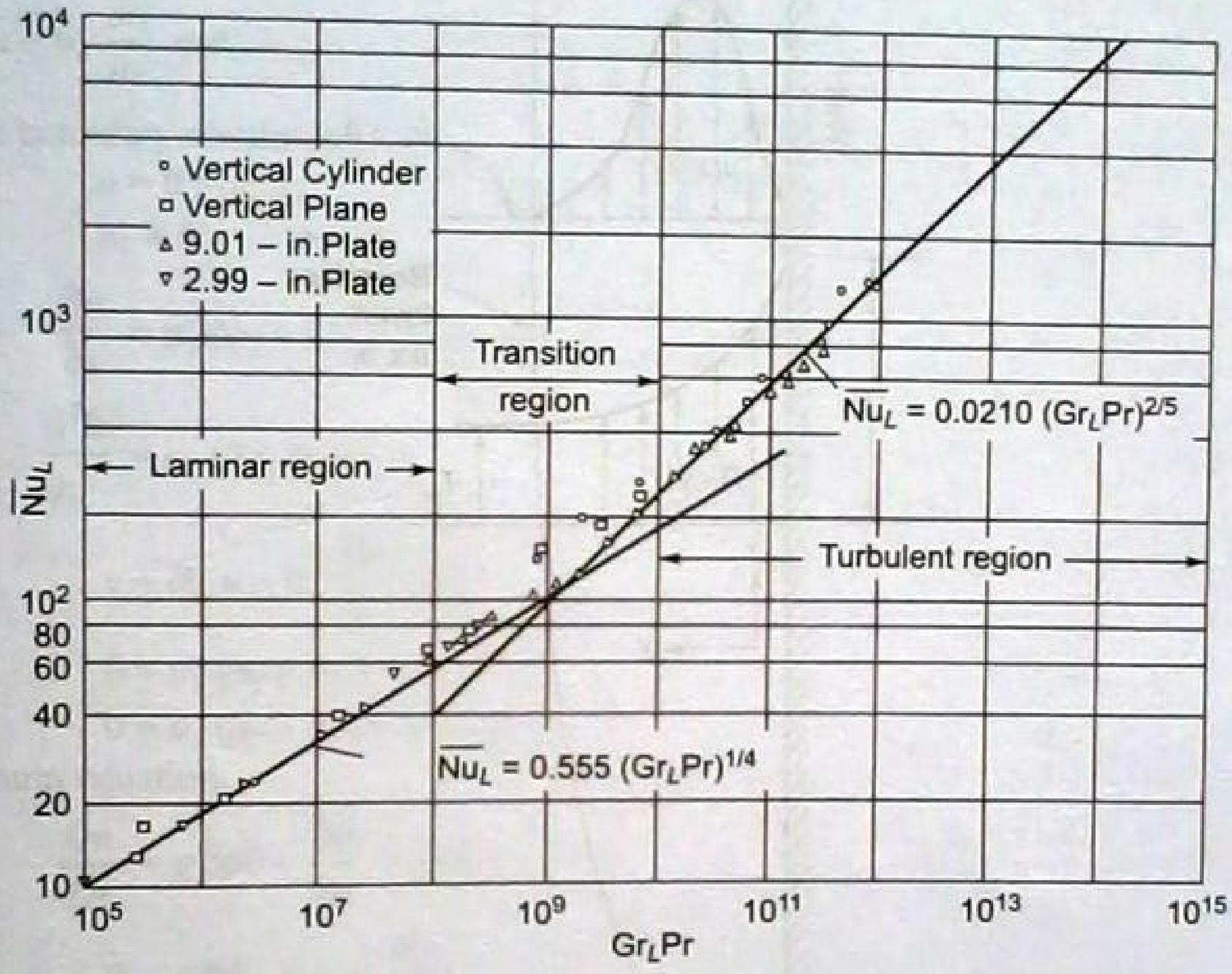


Fig. 5.5 *Correlation of data for natural convection heat transfer from vertical plates and cylinders*

5.2 AN APPROXIMATE ANALYSIS OF LAMINAR NATURAL CONVECTION ON A VERTICAL PLATE

Heat transfer by natural convection on a vertical or an inclined plate has been the subject of many investigations [1–10]. To provide better insight into heat transfer by natural convection, we consider here the simplest situation involving a vertical plate under isothermal conditions. Let T_w and T_∞ be, respectively, the temperature of the wall surface and the bulk temperature of the fluid (Fig. 5.6). The fluid moves upward along the plate for $T_w > T_\infty$ and flows downward for $T_w < T_\infty$, as illustrated in Fig. 5.1. Within the boundary layer the temperature decreases from T_w to T_∞ of the undisturbed or quiescent fluid outside the heated region.

Let $\theta = T - T_\infty$. When $y = 0$, $\theta = \theta_w = T_w - T_\infty$, and when $y = \delta$, $\theta = \theta_\infty = 0$. If $y = 0$, $u = 0$, and if $y = \delta$, $u = 0$.

The velocity and temperature profiles in the neighbourhood of the plate are shown. The integral boundary layer equations for momentum and energy will be used to calculate the heat transfer in natural convection.

To solve the boundary layer equation, the temperature profile is approximated by a parabolic equation of the form

$$T = C_1 + C_2 y + C_3 y^2 \tag{5.17}$$

At $y = 0,\ T = T_w = C_1$

At $y = \delta = \delta_t,\ T = T_\infty,\ \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)_{y=\delta} = 0$

or $C_2 + 2C_3\,\delta = 0, \quad \therefore\ C_2 = -2C_3\delta$

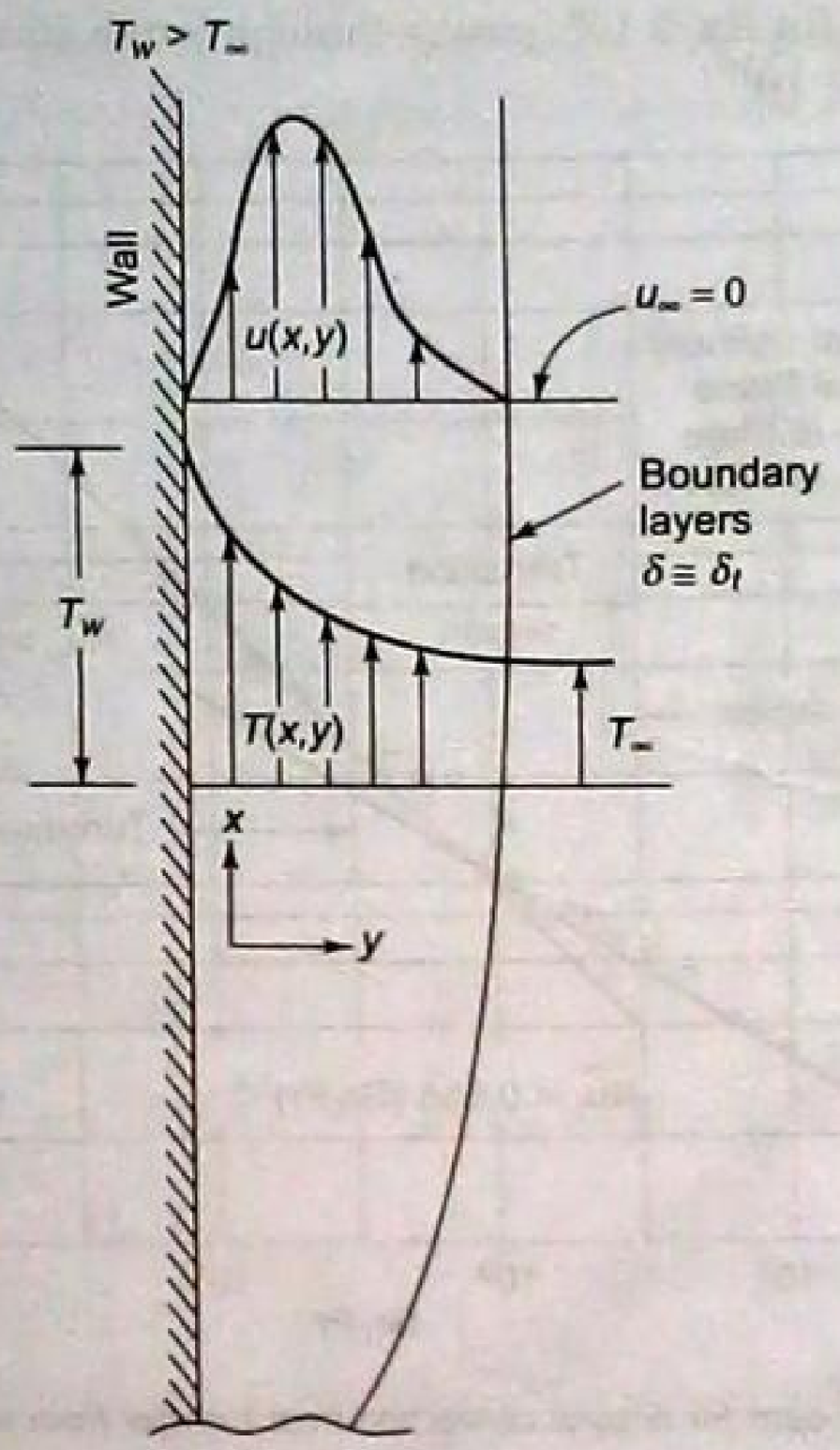


Fig. 5.6 *Temperature and velocity profiles for natural convection on a hot vertical plate*

For simplicity we assume $\delta = \delta_t$, i.e., equal velocity and thermal boundary layer thicknesses. Substituting in Eq. (5.17),

$$T_\infty = T_w + C_2\delta + C_3\delta^2 = T_w - 3C_3\delta^2 + C_3\delta^2$$

Therefore, $C_3 = \dfrac{T_w - T_\infty}{\delta^2}$ and $C_2 = -2\dfrac{T_w - T_\infty}{\delta^2}\cdot\delta$

$$= \frac{-2(T_w - T_\infty)}{\delta}$$

$$T = T_w - \frac{2(T_w - T_\infty)}{\delta}\,y + \frac{(T_w - T_\infty)}{\delta^2}\,y^2$$

or $$T - T_\infty = (T_w - T_\infty) - 2\,\frac{y}{\delta}\,(T_w - T_\infty) + (T_w - T_\infty)\,\frac{y^2}{\delta^2}$$

or $$\theta = \theta_w \left(1 - \frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2 \tag{5.18}$$

The velocity profile may be assumed to be a cubical parabola given by

$$u = u_1 (a_1 + a_2 y + a_3 y^2 + a_4 y^3) \tag{5.19}$$

where u_1 is a reference velocity and is a function of x.

1. At $y = 0$, $u = 0$.
2. At $y = \delta$, $u = 0$, $\dfrac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$.

Using the first boundary condition

$$u = 0 = u_1 a_1$$

Since $u_1 \neq 0, \quad \therefore a_1 = 0$

Now $$\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = u_1 (a_2 + 2a_3 y + 3a_4 y^2)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = u_1 (2a_3 + 6a_4 y)$$

When, $$y = \delta, \; u = 0, \; \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$0 = u_1 (a_2 + a_3 \delta^2 + a_4 \delta^3) \tag{5.20}$$

$$0 = u_1 (a_2 + 2a_3 \delta + 3a_4 \delta^2) \tag{5.21}$$

From momentum equation,

$$\frac{Du}{Dt} = g\beta\rho\theta - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu \Delta^2 u$$

Therefore, $$0 = g\beta\theta_w \rho + \mu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}$$

or $$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = - \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu}$$

$$(2a_3 + 6a_4 \times 0) = - \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu}$$

$$(\text{At } y = 0, \theta = \theta_w)$$

$\therefore$ $$a_3 = - \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{2\nu} \tag{5.22}$$

From Eqs (5.20) – (5.22),

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{4} \frac{g\beta\theta_w \delta}{\nu} \text{ and } a_4 = \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{4\nu\delta}$$

Substituting in Eq. (5.19),

$$u = u_1 \left(\frac{1}{4} \frac{g\beta\theta_w \delta}{\nu} y - \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{2\nu} y^2 + \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{4\nu\delta} y^3 \right)$$

$$= u_1 \frac{g\beta\theta_w \delta^2}{4\nu} \frac{y}{\delta} \left(1 - \frac{2y}{\delta} + \frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right)$$

$$= u_1 \frac{g\beta\theta_w \delta^2}{4\nu} \frac{y}{\delta}\left(1-\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2 = u_0 \frac{y}{\delta}\left(1-\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2 \quad (5$$

where, $$u_0 = u_1 \frac{g\beta\theta_w \delta^2}{4\nu} \quad (5$$

The velocity profile is given by

$$u = u_0 \frac{y}{\delta}\left(1-\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2 = u_0\left(\frac{y}{\delta} - 2\frac{y^2}{\delta^2} + \frac{y^3}{\delta^3}\right)$$

There is a certain value of y where u is maximum.

$$\frac{du}{dy} = u_0\left(\frac{1}{\delta} - \frac{4y}{\delta^2} + \frac{3y^2}{\delta^3}\right) = 0$$

or $$3y^2 - 4\delta y + \delta^2 = 0$$

$$y = \frac{4\delta \pm \left(16\delta^2 - 12\delta^2\right)^{1/2}}{6} = \frac{4\delta \pm 2\delta}{6}$$

$$= \delta \text{ or } \frac{1}{3}\delta$$

Since $u = 0$ at $y = \delta$, therefore,

u will be maximum when $y = \frac{1}{3}\ \delta$. Therefore,

$$\mathbf{u_{max} = u_0 \frac{1}{3}\left(1-\frac{1}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{4}{27}\, u_0} \quad (5.2$$

Let us take a control volume of thickness dx at a distance x from the bottom edge within the bounda layer as shown in Fig. 5.7.

Momentum flux across BC is zero

Rate of increase of momentum

$$= \rho\, dx \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\int_0^l u^2\, dy$$

= Forces acting on the element

$$= -\tau_w\, dx + g\beta\rho\, dx \int_0^l \theta\, dy$$

Integration is limited to δ, as before

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_0^\delta u^2 dy = -\nu\left(\frac{du}{dy}\right)_{y=0} + g\beta\int_0^\delta \theta\, dy \quad (5.26$$

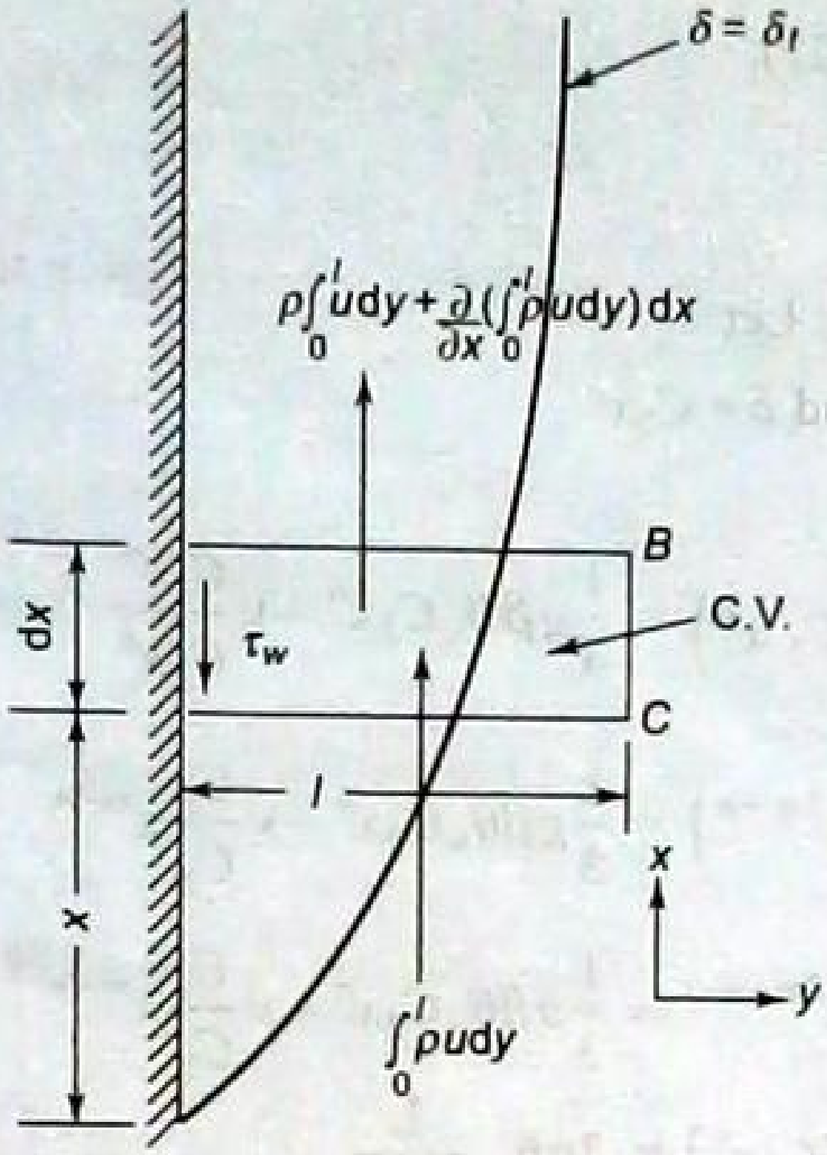


Fig. 5.7 *Control volume in the boundary layer*

Energy equation for the volume element gives

$$\rho c_p\,dx\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\int_0^l \theta u\,dy = -k\left(\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} dx$$

Limiting the integration to $\delta = \delta_t$,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\int_0^\delta u\theta\,dy = -\alpha\left(\frac{d\theta}{dy}\right)_{y=0} \tag{5.27}$$

Now,
$$\int_0^\delta u^2 dy = \int_0^\delta u_0^2\,\frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\left(1-\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^4 dy$$

$$= \frac{u_0^2}{\delta^2}\int_0^\delta y^2\left(1-\frac{2y}{\delta}+\frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right)^2 dy$$

$$= \frac{u_0^2\,\delta}{105}$$

$$\int_0^\delta \theta\,dy = \int_0^\delta \theta_w\left(1-\frac{2y}{\delta}+\frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right)dy = \theta_w\,\frac{\delta}{3}$$

$$\int_0^\delta u\theta\,dy = \int_0^\delta u_0\,\frac{y}{\delta}\left(1-\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2\theta_w\left(1-\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2 dy$$

$$= \frac{u_0\,\theta_w\,\delta}{30}$$

Substituting in the momentum equation, Eq. (5.26),

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{u_0^2\,\delta}{105}\right) = -\nu\frac{u_0}{\delta} + g\beta\,\frac{\theta_w\,\delta}{3} \tag{5.28}$$

and in the energy equation, Eq. (5.27),

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(\frac{u_0\,\theta_w\,\delta}{30}\right) = 2\alpha\frac{\theta_w}{\delta} \tag{5.29}$$

Both u_0 and δ are functions of x. Let

$$u_0 = C_1 x^m \text{ and } \delta = C_2 x^n$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{1}{105}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(C_1^2 \times x^{2m}\cdot C_2\, x^n\right) = \frac{1}{3}g\beta\theta_w C_2 x^n - \nu\frac{C_1 x^m}{C_2 x^n}$$

$$\frac{C_1^2\,C_2}{105}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(x^{2m+n}\right) = \frac{1}{3}g\beta\theta_w C_2 x^n - \nu\frac{C_1}{C_2}x^{m-n}$$

$$\frac{C_1^2\,C_2}{105}(2m+n)x^{2m+n-1} = \frac{1}{3}g\beta\theta_w C_2 x^n - \nu\frac{C_1}{C_2}x^{m-n} \tag{5.30}$$

Again,
$$\frac{1}{30}\theta_w\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(C_1 x^m C_2 x^n\right) = 2\alpha\theta_w\frac{1}{C_2 x^n}$$

or
$$\frac{C_1\,C_2}{30}(m+n)x^{m+n-1} = \frac{2\alpha}{C_2}x_2^{-n} \tag{5.31}$$

Equations (5.30) and (5.31) are valid for any value of x. Equating the exponents of x in the two equations,

$$2m+n-1 = n = m-n$$

or
$$2m-1 = 0,\ 2n = m = 1/2$$

or
$$m = 1/2,\ n = 1/4$$

Substituting these values of m and n in Eqs (5.30) and (5.31)

$$\frac{5}{4\times 105}C_1^2\,C_2 = \frac{g\beta\theta_w}{3}C_2 - \nu\frac{C_1}{C_2}$$

$$\frac{C_1^2\,C_2}{84} = \frac{g\beta\theta_w\,C_2}{3} - \nu\frac{C_1}{C_2} \tag{5.32}$$

and
$$\frac{C_1 C_2}{30}\times\left(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{2\alpha}{C_2}$$

$$\frac{C_1\,C_2^2}{40} = 2\alpha \tag{5.33}$$

From Eqs (5.32) and (5.33),

$$C_1 = 5.17\ \nu\left(\frac{20}{21}+\frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{-1/2}\left(\frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$C_2 = 3.93\left(\frac{20}{21}+\frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{1/4}\left(\frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu^2}\right)^{-1/4}\left(\frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{-1/2}$$

$$u_{max} = \frac{4}{27}u_0 = \frac{4}{27}C_1 x^m = \frac{4}{27}C_1 x^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{4}{27} \times 5.17\, \nu \left(\frac{20}{21} + \frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu^2}\right)^{1/2} x^{1/2}$$

$$= 0.766\ \nu \left(0.952 + \frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu^2}\right)^{1/2} x^{1/2}$$

$$\delta = C_2 x^n = C_2 x^{1/4}$$

$$= 3.93 \left(\frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{-1/2} \left(0.952 + \frac{\nu}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{g\beta\theta_w}{\nu^2}\right)^{-1/4} x^{1/4}$$

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = 3.93\, \mathrm{Pr}^{-1/2} (0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{1/4} \left(\frac{g\beta\theta_w x^3}{\nu^2}\right)^{-1/4}$$

or,
$$\frac{\delta}{x} = \mathbf{3.93(0.952 + Pr)^{1/4}} \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\mathbf{Pr^{1/2}\ (Gr_x)^{1/4}}} \tag{5.34}$$

Heat flux
$$q = -k \left(\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} = 2k \frac{\theta_w}{\delta} = h\theta_w$$

$\therefore$
$$h = \frac{2k}{\delta}$$

$$\frac{hx}{k} = \frac{2x}{\delta} = \frac{2}{3.93\,(0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{-1/2}\ (\mathrm{Gr}_x)^{-1/4}}$$

$\therefore$
$$\mathbf{Nu_x = 0.508\ Pr^{1/2}\ (0.952 + Pr)^{-1/4}\ (Gr_x)^{1/4}} \tag{5.35}$$

$\therefore$
$$\delta \propto x^{1/4}$$

As x increases, δ also increases.

$h \propto \frac{1}{x^{1/4}}$, as x increases, h decreases,

$$\bar{h} = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L h\, dx = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L C x^{-1/4}\, dx$$

$$= (C_1 x^{3/4})_{x=L}\ \frac{4}{3} = \frac{4}{3} h_L$$

Hence
$$\mathbf{\overline{Nu}_L = \frac{4}{3} Nu_x = 0.677(Pr)^{1/2}(0.952 + Pr)^{-1/4}(Gr_L)^{1/4}} \tag{5.35a}$$

For air, $\mathrm{Pr} = 0.714$.

Equation (5.35) reduces to

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.378\ \mathrm{Gr}_x^{1/4} \tag{5.36}$$

Exact solution gives the constant as 0.360

$$\mathrm{Nu}_L = \frac{4}{3}\ (0.378)\ (\mathrm{Gr}_L)^{1/4} = 0.504\ \mathrm{Gr}_L^{1/4} \tag{5.37}$$

Fluid properties are evaluated at the film temperature

$$T^* = (T_w + T_\infty)/2$$

Transit]ion from laminar to turbulent flow occurs at $\mathrm{Ra}_{x,c} = 10^9$.

Temperature field measurements around a heated body are obtained through the use of the Zehnder-Mach *interferometer*. An interferometer indicates lines of constant density in a fluid flow field. For a gas in natural convection at low pressure these lines of constant density are equivalent to lines of constant temperature. Once the temperature field is obtained, the heat transfer from a surface in natural convection may be calculated by using the temperature gradient at the surface and the thermal conductivity of the gas. Several interferometric studies of natural convection have been carried out (21 – 23), and some typical photographs of the flow fields are shown in Figs 5.8 – 5.11. Figure 5.8 shows the lines of constant temperature around a heated vertical flat plate. It may be noticed that the lines are closest together near the plate surface,

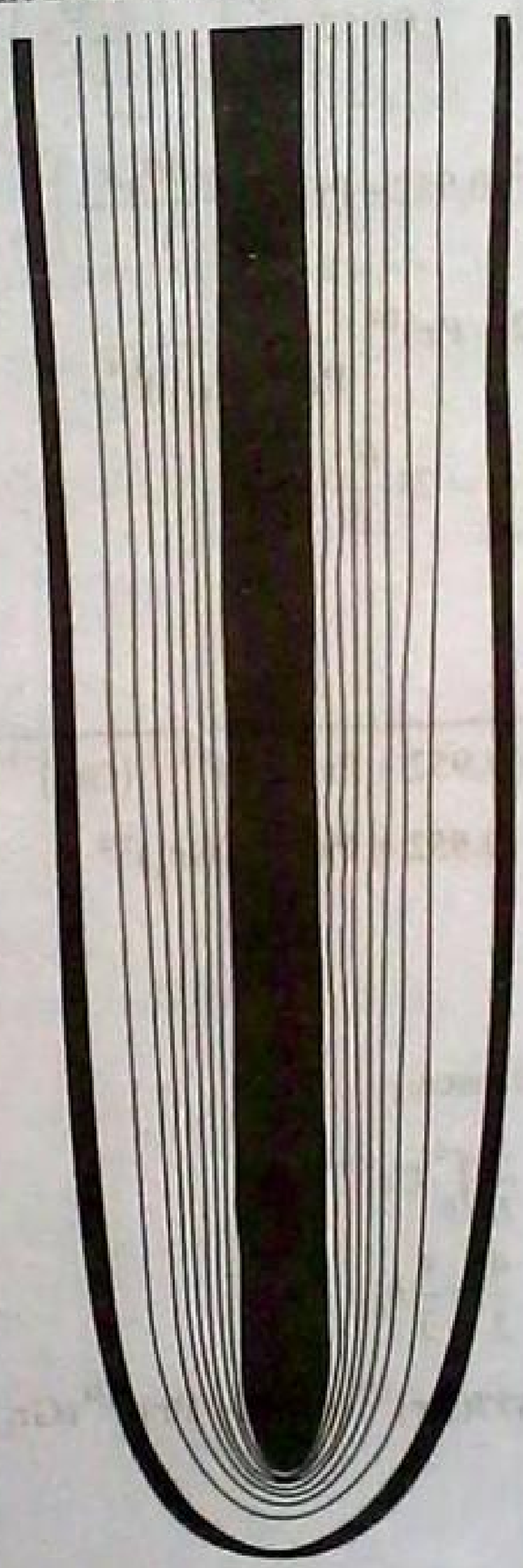


Fig. 5.8 *Interferometer photograph showing lines of constant temperature around a heated vertical plate in natural convection*

indicating a higher temperature gradient in that region. Figure 5.9 shows the lines of constant temperature around a heated horizontal cylinder in natural convection, and Fig. 5.10 shows the boundary layer interaction between a group of four horizontal cylinders. Interferometric studies help to determine the point at which eddies are formed in the natural convection boundary layers and to predict the start of transition to turbulent flow.



Fig. 5.9 *Interferometer photograph showing lines of constant temperature around a heated horizontal cylinder in natural convection*



Fig. 5.10 *Interferometer photograph showing the boundary layer interaction between four heated horizontal cylinders in natural convection*

In natural convection the velocities are so small that they are difficult to measure. A rough visual indication is given in Fig. 5.11, where a natural convection boundary layer wave resulting from a heat pulse near the leading edge of the plate is presented. The maximum points in the isotherms are seen to have a phase lag and a line passing through these maxima has the approximate shape of the velocity profile.

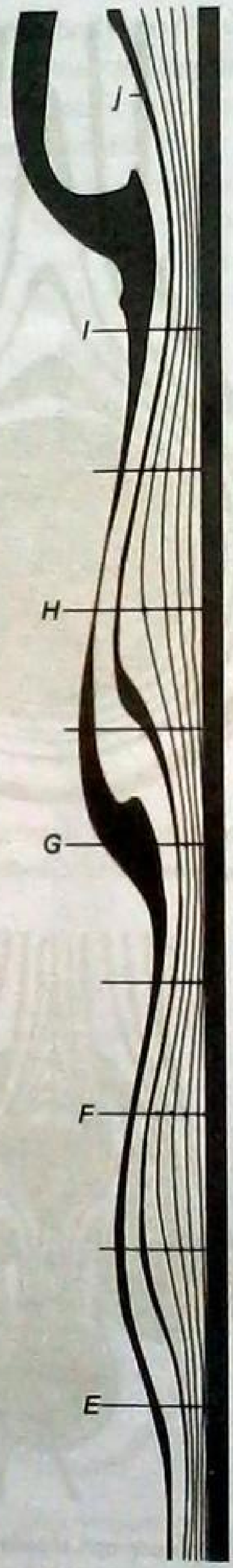


Fig. 5.11 *Interferometer photograph showing isotherms on a heated vertical flat plate resulting in a periodic disturbance of the boundary layer*

5.3 EMPIRICAL CORRELATIONS FOR VARIOUS SHAPES

Experimental data are correlated by dimensional analysis. It is the general practice to determine an equation for the line that best fits the data. Experimental results are also compared with those obtained by analytic means, if they are available. If the two agree and the analytic method adequately describes the experimental results, one can make out the physical mechanisms that are significant for the problem.

In the following sections we present correlation equations for several important geometries.

5.3.1 Vertical Plates and Cylinders

For a flat vertical surface and laminar natural convection, by using the integral boundary layer analysis, the local values of heat transfer coefficient and the boundary layer thickness at a distance x from the leading edge have been derived in the last section in the form of Eqs (5.35) and (5.34) respectively, which can be written as

$$h_x = 0.508\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2}\,\frac{\mathrm{Gr}_x^{1/4}}{(0.952+\mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}}\,\frac{k}{x} \tag{5.38}$$

and

$$\delta(x) = 3.93\,x\left(\frac{0.952+\mathrm{Pr}}{\mathrm{Pr}^2\,\mathrm{Gr}_x}\right)^{1/4} \tag{5.39}$$

The average value of the heat transfer coefficient for a height L is obtained

$$\bar{h} = \frac{4}{3}h_L = \frac{4}{3}\times 0.508\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2}\,\frac{\mathrm{Gr}_L^{1/4}}{(0.952+\mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}}\,\frac{k}{L}$$

or

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = \frac{\bar{h}L}{k} = 0.68\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2}\,\frac{\mathrm{Gr}_L^{1/4}}{(0.952+\mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}} \tag{5.40}$$

For air, $\mathrm{Pr} = 0.714$ and $\mathrm{Nu}_L = 0.505\,\mathrm{Gr}_L^{1/4}$

which is almost the same as Eq. (5.37).

For natural convection over a vertical flat plate or vertical cylinder in the turbulent region ($\mathrm{Gr}_L > 10^9$) McAdams [2] recommends

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.13\,(\mathrm{Gr}_L\,\mathrm{Pr})^{1/3} \tag{5.41}$$

For a long vertical plate or a long cylinder tilted at an angle θ from the vertical with the heated surface facing downward (Fig. 5.12(a)) or cooled surface facing upward [Fig. 5.12(b)], the following equation can be used:

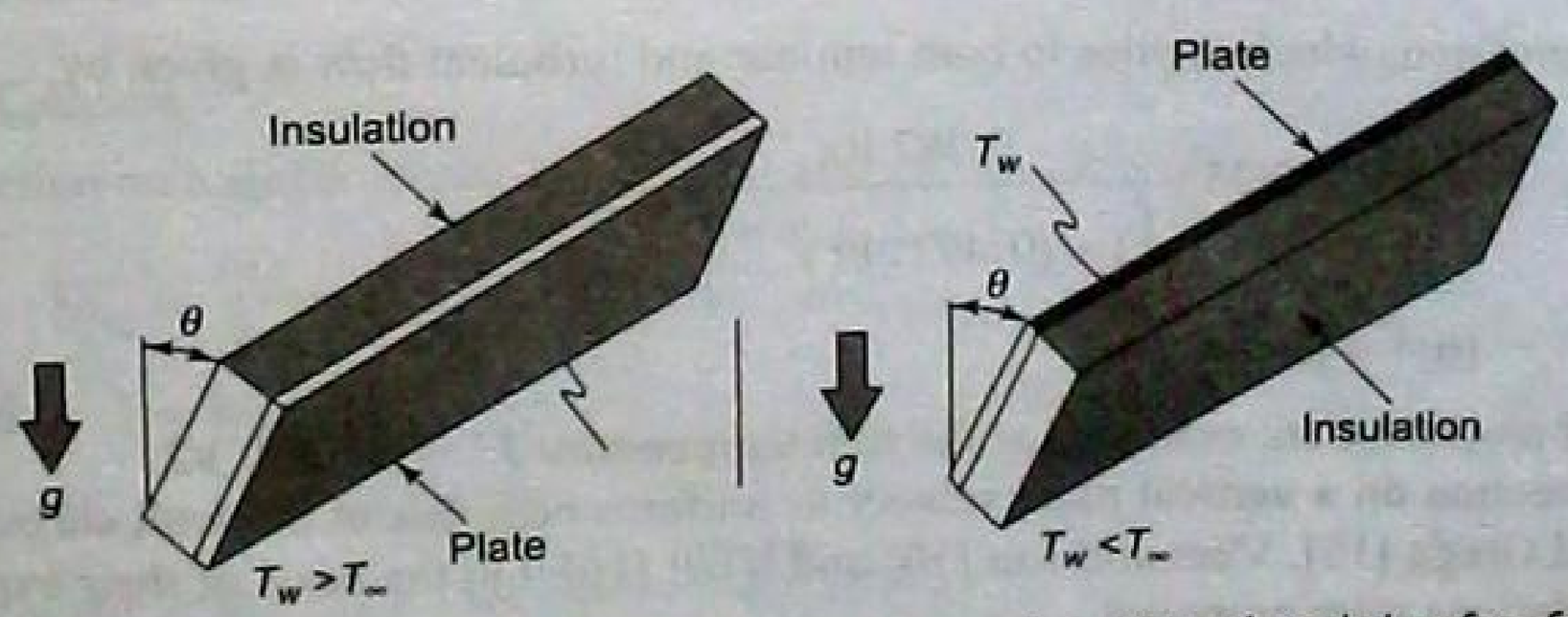


Fig. 5.12 *(a) Long vertical plate with heated surface facing downward and (b) with cooled surface facing upward*

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.56\,(\mathrm{Gr}_L\,\mathrm{Pr}\cos\theta)^{1/4} \tag{5.42}$$

which applies in the range

$$10^5 < \mathrm{Gr}\,\mathrm{Pr}\cos\theta < 10^{11} \text{ and } 0 \le \theta \le 89°$$

The exact analysis of natural convection on a vertical plate subject to uniform wall temperature has been performed over a wide range of Prandtl numbers by various investigators. Schliching [6] compiled the mean Nusselt number as presented in Table 5.1 for the expression in the form

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_m = C(\mathrm{Gr}_L\,\mathrm{Pr})^n \tag{5.43}$$

Table 5.1 Exact solutions of the mean Nusselt number for laminar free convection on a vertical plate (For $Gr_L\,Pr < 10^9$)

Pr	$Nu_m/(Gr\,Pr)^{1/4}$
0.003	0.182
0.008	0.226
0.01	0.242
0.02	0.28
0.03	0.305
0.72	0.516
0.73	0.518
1	0.535
2	0.568
10	0.62
100	0.653
1000	0.665
∞	0.670

Churchill and Chu [14] proposed two equations for correlating natural convection on a vertical plate under isothermal surface conditions. One expression, which applies to laminar flow only and holds for all values of the Prandtl number, is given by

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}} = 0.68 + \frac{0.67\,\mathrm{Ra}_L^{1/4}}{\left[1 + (0.492/\mathrm{Pr})^{9/16}\right]^{4/9}} \tag{5.44}$$

$$10^{-1} < \mathrm{Ra}_L < 10^9$$

The other expression, which applies to both laminar and turbulent flow is given by

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L^{1/2} = 0.825 + \frac{0.387\,\mathrm{Ra}_L^{1/6}}{\left[1 + (0.492/\mathrm{Pr})^{9/16}\right]^{8/27}}$$

$$10^{-1} < \mathrm{Ra}_L < 10^{12} \tag{5.45}$$

The physical properties are evaluated at the film temperature $T^* = (T_w + T_\infty)/2$.

Natural convection on a vertical plate subject to uniform heat flux at the wall surface was investigated by Sparrow and Gregg [15], Vliet and Liu [10] and Vliet [16]. On the basis of their experimental data, the following correlations were proposed:

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.60\,(\mathrm{Gr}_x^* \mathrm{Pr})^{1/5} \qquad 10^5 < \mathrm{Gr}_x^* \mathrm{Pr} < 10^{11} \text{ (laminar)} \tag{5.46}$$

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.568\,(\mathrm{Gr}_x^* \mathrm{Pr})^{0.22} \qquad 2 \times 10^{13} < \mathrm{Gr}_x^* \mathrm{Pr} < 10^{16} \text{ (turbulent)} \tag{5.47}$$

where the modified Grashof number Gr_x^* is defined as

$$\mathrm{Gr}_x^* = \mathrm{Gr}_x \mathrm{Nu}_x = \frac{g\beta\theta_w x^3}{\nu^2} \frac{q_w x}{k\theta_w} = \frac{g\beta q_w x^4}{k\nu^2}$$

q_w being the constant wall heat flux.

5.3.2 Horizontal Plates

The average Nusselt number for natural convection on a horizontal plate depends on whether the surface is facing up or down and whether the plate surface is warmer or cooler than the surrounding flux. Again we consider the cases for uniform wall temperature and uniform wall heat flux separately.

Uniform Wall Temperature

The mean Nusselt number for natural convection on a horizontal plate as correlated by McAdams [2] is

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = C\,(\mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr})^n \tag{5.48}$$

For hot surface facing up or cold surface facing down, in the range (laminar) $10^5 < \mathrm{Ra} < 2 \times 10^7$, $C = 0.54$, $n = 1/4$, and in the range (turbulent) $2 \times 10^7 < \mathrm{Ra} < 3 \times 10^{10}$, $C = 0.14$, $n = 1/3$. For hot surface facing down or cold surface facing up, in the range (laminar) $3 \times 10^5 < \mathrm{Ra} < 3 \times 10^{10}$, $C = 0.27$, $n = 1/4$. The characteristic length L of the plate can be taken as the length of a side for a square, the arithmetic mean of the two sides for a rectangle and $0.9D$ for a circular disk of diameter D, as suggested by McAdams, or as A/P, where A is the surface area of the plate and P its perimeter.

Uniform Heat Flux

For the horizontal plate with heated surface facing upward:

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.13\,(\mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr})^{1/3} \text{ for } \mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr} < 2 \times 10^8 \tag{5.49}$$

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.16\,(\mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr})^{1/3} \text{ for } 5 \times 10^8 < \mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr} < 10^{11} \tag{5.50}$$

For the horizontal plate with the heated surface facing downward:

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.58\,(\mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr})^{1/5} \text{ for } 10^6 < \mathrm{Gr}_L \mathrm{Pr} < 10^{11} \tag{5.51}$$

Properties are evaluated at $T^* = T_w - 0.25\,(T_w - T_\infty)$.

5.3.3 Spheres and Cylinders

For natural convection on a single isothermal sphere for fluids having Pr = 1,

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = \frac{hD}{k} = 2 + 0.43\,\mathrm{Ra}_d^{1/4} \tag{5.52}$$

for $1 < \mathrm{Ra}_d < 10^5$

For water, $$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = 2 + 0.50\,\mathrm{Ra}_d^{1/4} \tag{5.53}$$

for $3 \times 10^5 < \mathrm{Ra}_d < 8 \times 10^8$ and $10 < \overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d < 90$

An equation for h from single horizontal wires or pipes in natural convection, based on the experimental data in Fig. 5.4 is

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = 0.53\,(\mathrm{Gr}_d\,\mathrm{Pr})^{1/4} \tag{5.54}$$

which is valid for $\mathrm{Pr} > 0.5$ and $10^3 < \mathrm{Gr} < 10^9$.

5.3.4 Simplified Equations for Air

Since air is the most common fluid for natural convection configurations, the foregoing correlations have been simplified for the heat transfer coefficient from different surfaces to air at atmospheric pressure. These simplified equations are given in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 *Simplified equations for free convection in air*

Geometry	*Laminar*	*Turbulent*
1. Vertical plate or cylinder	$\bar{h} = 1.42\,(\Delta T/L)^{1/4}$ $10^4 < \mathrm{Ra} < 10^9$	$\bar{h} = 1.32\,(\Delta T/L)^{1/3}$ $10^9 < \mathrm{Ra} < 10^{12}$
2. Horizontal cylinder	$\bar{h} = 1.32\,(\Delta T/D)^{1/4}$ $10^4 < \mathrm{Ra} < 10^9$	$\bar{h} = 1.25\,(\Delta T/D)^{1/3}$ $10^9 < \mathrm{Ra} < 10^{12}$
3. Horizontal plate		
(a) Heating surface facing up	$\bar{h} = 1.32\,(\Delta T/L)^{1/4}$ $10^5 < \mathrm{Ra} < 2 \times 10^7$	$\bar{h} = 1.67\,(\Delta T)^{1/3}$ $2 \times 10^7 < \mathrm{Ra} < 3 \times 10^{10}$
(b) Heated surface facing down	$\bar{h} = 0.59\,(\Delta T/L)^{1/4}$ $3 \times 10^5 < \mathrm{Ra} < 3 \times 10^{10}$	$\bar{h} = 0.59\,(\Delta T/L)^{1/4}$
4. Sphere	$\bar{h} = [2 + 0.392\,\mathrm{Gr}_d^{1/4}]$	$\frac{k}{D}$ for $1 < \mathrm{Gr}_d < 10^5$

5.3.5 Enclosed Spaces

Engineering applications frequently involve heat transfer between surfaces that are at different temperatures and are separated by an enclosed fluid, like double-glazed windows, flat-plate solar collectors, building walls and so on. The rectangular cavity (Fig. 5.13) consists of two isothermal parallel surfaces at temperatures T_1 and T_2 spaced a distance δ apart and of height L, and the top and bottom surfaces are insulated. The Grashof number is defined by

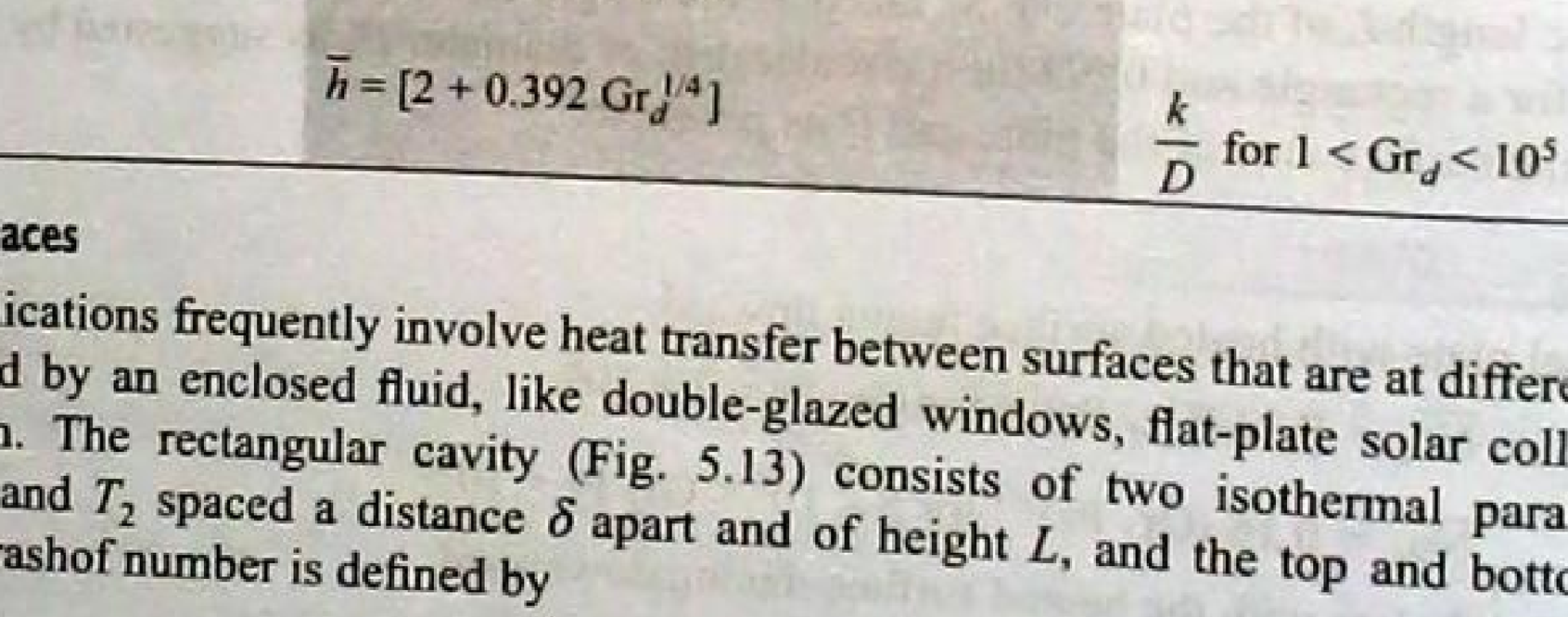


Fig. 5.13 *Natural convection in inclined enclosed spaces*

$$\mathrm{Gr}_d = \frac{g\beta(T_1 - T_2)\delta^3}{\nu^2}$$

and the parameter L/δ is called the *aspect ratio*. A temperature difference produces a flow in the enclosure. In vertical cavities ($\tau = 90°$) Hollands and Konicek [17] found that for $\mathrm{Gr}_d < 8000$ the flow consists of one large cell rotating in the enclosure with heat transfer taking place essentially by conduction. As Gr increases, the flow becomes more of a boundary-layer type with fluid rising in a layer near the heated surface, turning the corner at the top, and flowing downward in a layer near the cooled surface. The boundary layer thickness decreases with $\mathrm{Gr}_d^{1/4}$, and the core region is more or less inactive and thermally stratified. For the geometry in Fig. 5.13,

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_\delta = 0.22\left(\frac{L}{\delta}\right)^{-1/4}\left(\frac{\mathrm{Pr}}{0.2+\mathrm{Pr}}\cdot\mathrm{Ra}_d\right)^{0.28} \tag{5.55}$$

in the range $2 < L/\delta < 10$, $\mathrm{Pr} < 10$ and $\mathrm{Ra} < 10^{10}$ and

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_\delta = 0.18\left(\frac{\mathrm{Pr}}{0.2+\mathrm{Pr}}\cdot\mathrm{Ra}_\delta\right)^{0.29} \tag{5.55a}$$

in the range $1 < L/\delta < 2$, $10^{-3} < \mathrm{Pr} < 10^5$ and,

$$\frac{\mathrm{Ra}_\delta \cdot \mathrm{Pr}}{0.2+\mathrm{Pr}} > 10^3$$

For large aspect ratios and $\tau = 90°$ the following relations are recommended:

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}} = 0.42\,\mathrm{Ra}_\delta^{0.25}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.012}/(L/\delta)^{0.3} \tag{5.56}$$

in the range $10 < L/\delta < 40$, $1 < \mathrm{Pr} < 2 \times 10^4$ and $10^4 < \mathrm{Ra}_\delta < 10^7$ and

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_\delta = 0.046\,\mathrm{Ra}_\delta^{0.33} \tag{5.56a}$$

in the range $1 < L/\delta < 40$ and $1 < \mathrm{Pr} < 20$.

For natural convection inside spherical cavities of diameter D the relation

$$\frac{\bar{h}_c D}{k} = C(\mathrm{Gr}_d\,\mathrm{Pr})^n \tag{5.57}$$

is recommended, with the constants C and n selected from the following table:

$Gr_d Pr$	C	n
10^4–10^9	0.59	1/4
10^4–10^{12}	0.13	1/3

For natural convection heat transfer across the gap between two horizontal concentric cylinders (Fig. 5.14) the following correlation is suggested for heat flow per unit length (W/m)

$$q' = \frac{2\pi k_{\mathrm{eff}}}{\ln(D_o/D_i)}(T_i - T_o) \tag{5.58}$$

where the effective thermal conductivity k_{eff} is given by

$$\frac{k_{\mathrm{eff}}}{k} = 0.386\left(\frac{\mathrm{Pr}}{0.861+\mathrm{Pr}}\right)^{1/4}\mathrm{Ra}_{\mathrm{cyl}}^{*1/4} \tag{5.59}$$

$$(\mathrm{Ra}^{*}_{cyl})^{1/4} = \frac{\ln D_o / D_i}{L^{3/4}\left(D_i^{-3/5} + D_o^{-3/5}\right)^{5/4}} \cdot \mathrm{Ra}_L^{1/4}$$

$$\mathrm{Ra}_L = \frac{g\beta\left(T_i - T_o\right)L^3}{\nu^2} \cdot \mathrm{Pr}$$

$$L = \frac{D_o - D_i}{2}$$

which is valid in the range $0.7 < \mathrm{Pr} < 6000$ and $10 \le \mathrm{Ra}_{cyl} \le 10^7$.

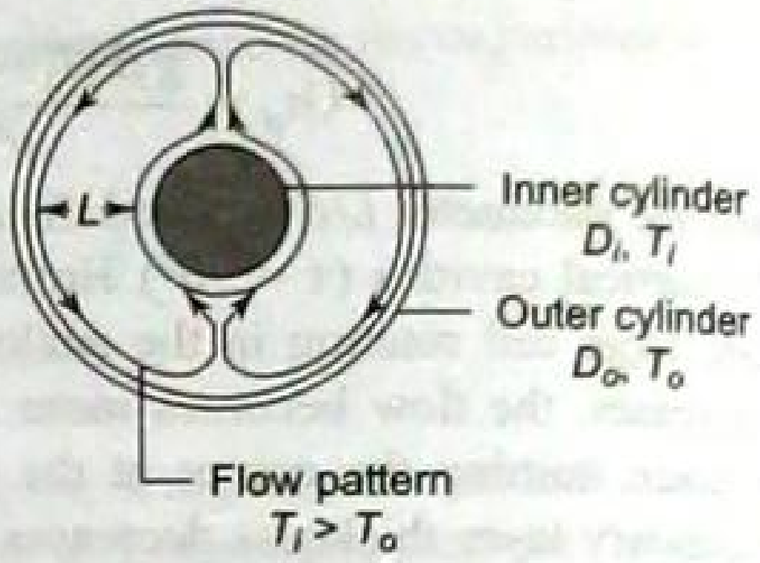


Fig. 5.14 *Natural convection heat transfer in the annular space between long concentric cylinders or concentric spheres*

For concentric spheres the following correlation is recommended

$$Q = k_{\text{eff}} \frac{\pi D_i D_o}{L}(T_i - T_o) \text{ watts} \qquad (5.60)$$

where,
$$\frac{k_{\text{eff}}}{k} = 0.74\left(\frac{\mathrm{Pr}}{0.861 + \mathrm{Pr}}\right)^{1/4} \left(\mathrm{Ra}^{*}_{sph}\right)^{1/4}$$

and
$$(\mathrm{Ra}^{*}_{sph})^{1/4} = \frac{L^{1/4}\,\mathrm{Ra}_L^{1/4}}{D_i D_o\left(D_i^{7/5} + D_o^{-7/5}\right)^{5/4}}$$

valid in the range of $10^2 < \mathrm{Ra}^{*}_{sph} < 10^4$.

5.4 ROTATING CYLINDERS, DISKS AND SPHERES

Heat transfer by convection between a rotating body and a surrounding fluid is of importance in the thermal analysis of flywheels, turbine rotors and other rotating components of various machines. With heat transfer, a critical velocity is reached when the circumferential speed of the cylinder surface becomes approximately equal to the upward natural convection velocity at the side of a heated stationary cylinder. Below the critical velocity, simple natural convection, characterised by the conventional Grashof number, $[g\beta(T_w - T_\infty)D^3]/\nu^2$, controls the rate of heat transfer. At speeds greater than critical ($\mathrm{Re}_w > 8000$ in air) the peripheral-speed Reynolds number $\pi D^2 w/\nu$ becomes the controlling parameter. The combined effects of the Reynolds, Prandtl and Grashof numbers on the average Nusselt number for a horizontal cylinder rotating in air above the critical velocity (Fig. 5.15) can be expressed by the empirical equation [18].

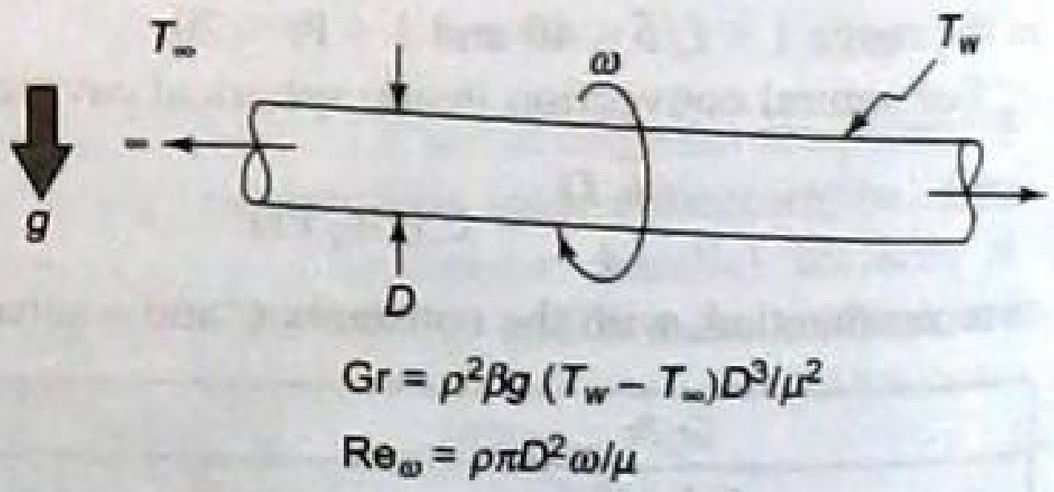
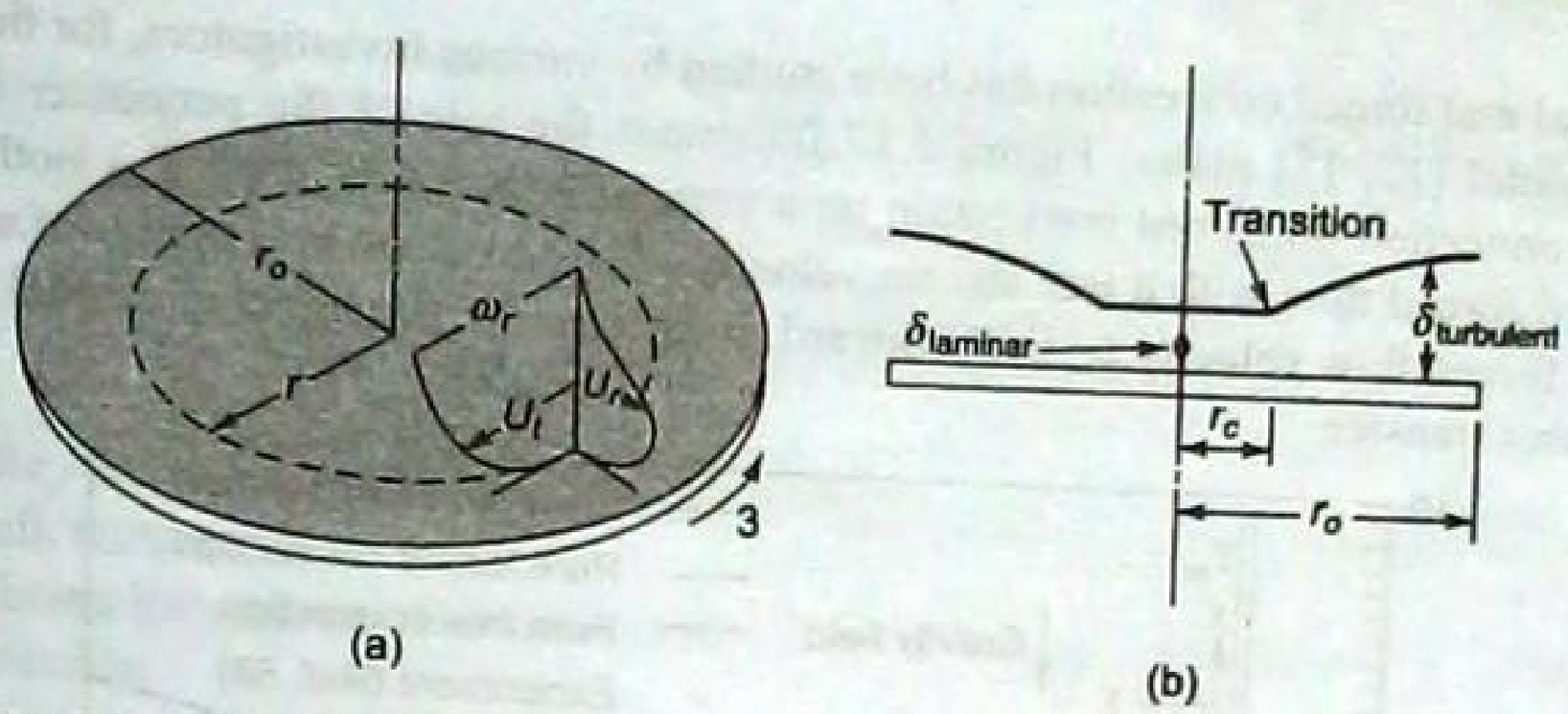


Fig. 5.15 *Horizontal cylinder rotating in air*

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = \frac{\bar{h}_c D}{k} = 0.11\,(0.5\,\mathrm{Re}_w^2 + \mathrm{Gr}_d\,\mathrm{Pr})^{0.35} \qquad (5.61)$$

The boundary layer on a rotating disk is laminar and of uniform thickness at rotational Reynolds numbers wD^2/ν below about 10^6. At higher Reynolds numbers the flow becomes turbulent near the outer edge, and as Re_w is increased, the transition point moves radially inward. The boundary layer thickens with increasing radius (Fig. 5.16). For the laminar regime in air



(a) (b)

Fig. 5.16 *Velocity and boundary layer profiles for a disk rotating in an infinite environment*

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = \frac{\bar{h}D}{k} = 0.36\left(\frac{wD^2}{\nu}\right)^{1/2} \tag{5.62}$$

for $wD^2/\nu < 10^6$.

In the turbulent flow regime ($wD^2/\nu > 10^6$) of a disk in air, the local value at a radius r is

$$\mathrm{Nu}_r = \frac{h_c r}{k} = 0.0195\left(\frac{wr^2}{\nu}\right)^{0.8} \tag{5.63}$$

For a sphere of diameter D rotating in an infinite environment with $\mathrm{Pr} > 0.7$ in laminar regime ($\mathrm{Re}_w = wD^2/\nu < 5 \times 10^4$), the average Nusselt number ($\bar{h}_c D/k$) can be obtained from

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = 0.43\ \mathrm{Re}_w^{0.5}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{0.4} \tag{5.64}$$

while in the regime $5 \times 10^4 \le \mathrm{Re}_w \le 7 \times 10^5$ the equation is

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = 0.066\ \mathrm{Re}_w^{0.67}\ \mathrm{Pr}^{0.4} \tag{5.65}$$

5.5 COMBINED FORCED AND NATURAL CONVECTION

The relative magnitude of the dimensionless parameter $\mathrm{Gr}/\mathrm{Re}^2$ governs the relative importance of natural convection in relation to forced convection where

$$\frac{\mathrm{Gr}}{\mathrm{Re}^2} = \frac{g\beta(T_w - T_\infty)L}{U_0^2}$$

which represents the ratio of the buoyancy forces to inertia forces. When this ratio is of the order of unity, i.e. $\mathrm{Gr} = \mathrm{Re}^2$, the natural and forced convection are of comparable magnitude, and hence they should be analysed simultaneously. If

$\frac{\mathrm{Gr}}{\mathrm{Re}^2} \gg 1$ Natural convection dominates

$\frac{\mathrm{Gr}}{\mathrm{Re}^2} = 1$ Natural and forced convection are of comparable magnitude

$\frac{\mathrm{Gr}}{\mathrm{Re}^2} \ll 1$ Forced convection dominates

Combined natural and forced convection has been studied by various investigators, for flow over vertical [15, 16] and horizontal [17, 18] plates. Figure 5.17 illustrates the role of the parameter Gr_x/Re_x^2 on the effects of natural convection on forced convection on a vertical heated (i.e., $T_w > T_\infty$) isothermal flat plate subjected to upward forced flow with a free stream velocity u_∞. The results also apply for a cold plate (i.e., $T_w < T_\infty$) when the forced flow velocity u_∞ is downward. In such cases, the effect of natural convection is to enhance the total heat transfer.

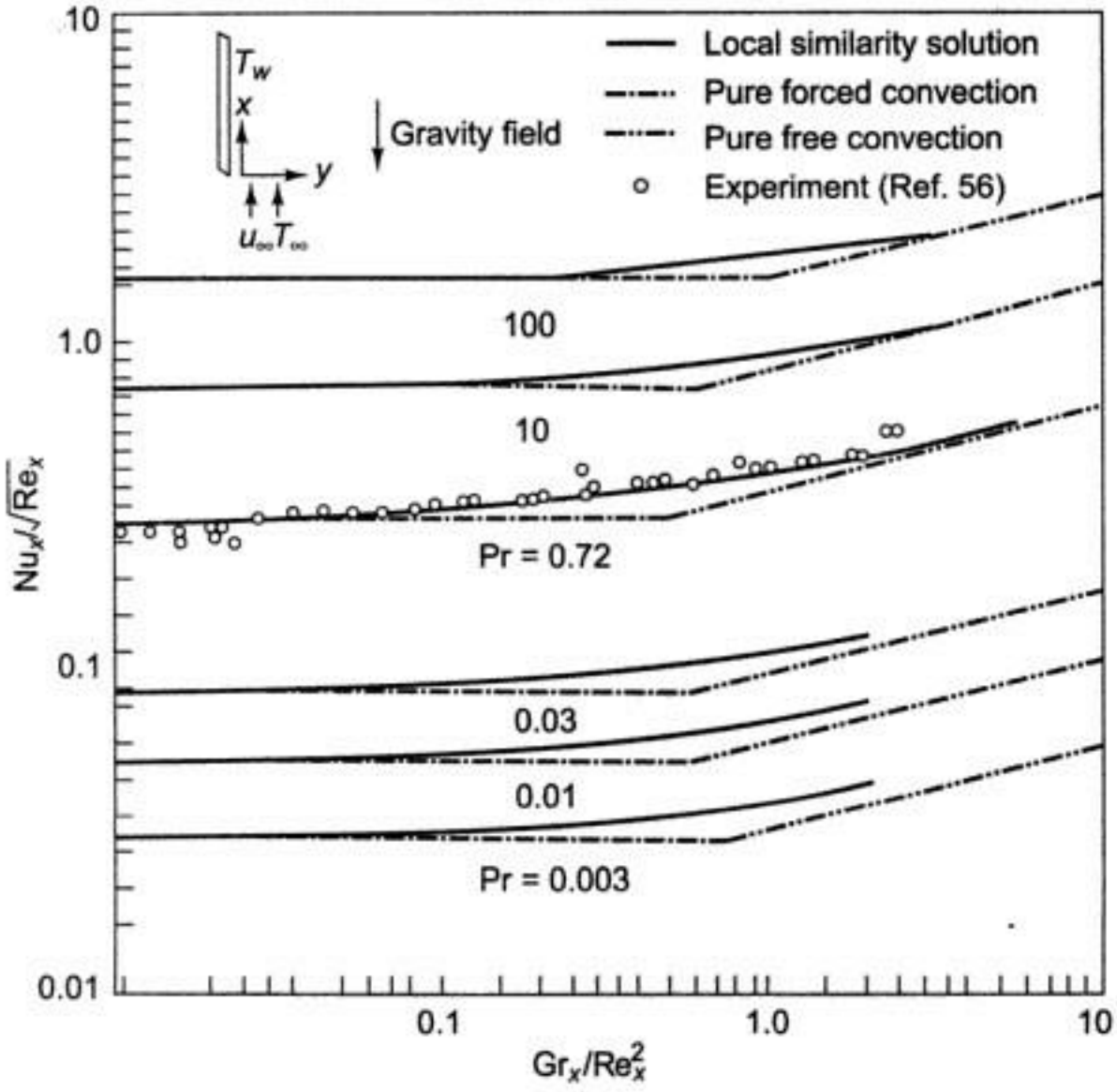


Fig. 5.17 *Local Nusselt number for combined, forced and natural convection from an isothermal vertical plate*

In Fig. 5.17, the solid lines represent the theoretical predictions of the local Nusselt number when heat transfer by combined natural and forced convection is considered. The horizontal and the slanted chain dotted lines are for the cases of pure forced and natural convection, respectively. For larger values of Gr_x/Re_x^2 the solid lines asymptotically join the lines for pure natural convection. For smaller values of Gr_x/Re_x^2, the solid lines join the lines for pure forced convection. Included in this figure are the experimental data for Pr = 0.72. The agreement between the experiment and the analysis is very good. The effects of natural convection on forced convection become theoretically pronounced at low Prandtl numbers. The threshold values of Gr_x/Re_x^2 for 5% deviation of the Nusselt number resulting from the neglect of natural convection in forced flow along a vertical plate for $T_w > T_\infty$ when u_∞ is upward are as follows:

Pr:	100	10	0.72	0.03–0.003
Gr_x/Re_x^2:	0.24	0.13	0.08	0.056–0.05

For combined free and forced convection in the laminar flow regime inside a circular tube, Brown and Gauvin [23] recommend the following correlation for the Nusselt number

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$$Nu_d = 1.75\,[Gz + 0.012\,(Gz\,Gr_d^{1/3})^{4/3}]^{1/3}\left(\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14} \tag{5.66}$$

where Gz is the Graetz number, defined as

$$Gz = Re_d\,Pr\left(\frac{D}{L}\right) \tag{5.67}$$

where Gr_d and Re_d are based on the tubes inside diameter with $\Delta T = T_w - T_b$, the difference between tube wall and fluid bulk temperature.

Figure 5.18 shows the regimes of pure natural convection in boundary layer flow, mixed convection and pure forced convection.

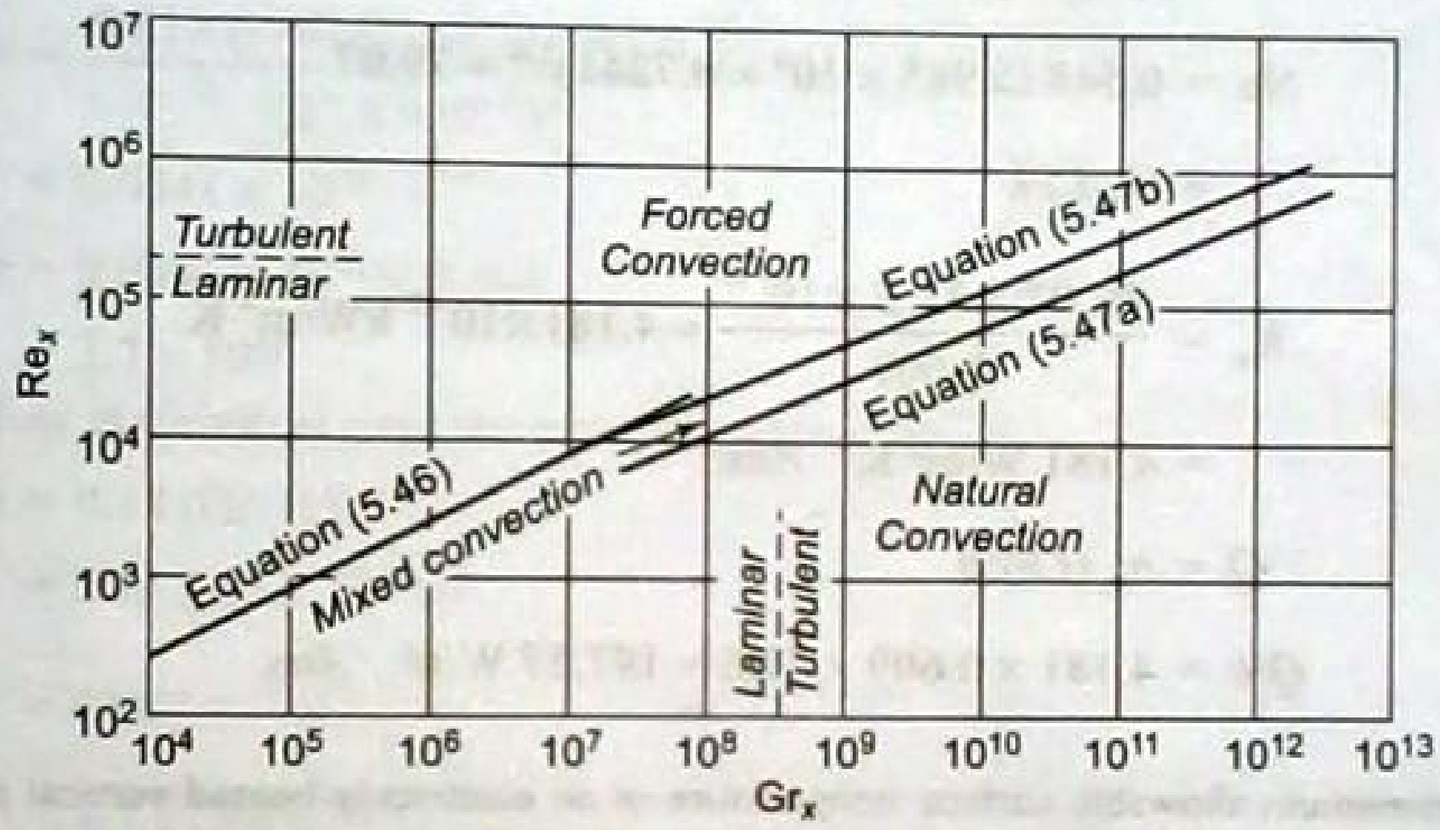


Fig. 5.18 *Regimes of convection for flow and buoyancy effects parallel boundary layer processes (B. Gebhart [8]).*

Solved Examples

Example 5.1 A metal plate 0.609 m in height forms the vertical wall of an oven and is at a temperature of 171 °C. Within the oven is air at a temperature of 93.4 °C and atmospheric pressure. Assuming that natural convection conditions hold near the plate, and that for this case

$$Nu = 0.548\,(Gr\,Pr)^{1/4}$$

find the mean heat transfer coefficient and the heat taken up by air per second per metre width. For air at 132.2°C, take $k = 33.2 \times 10^{-6}$ kW/m K, $\mu = 0.232 \times 10^{-4}$ kg/ms, $c_p = 1.005$ kJ/kg K. Assume air as an ideal gas and $R = 0.287$ kJ/kg K.

Solution Prandtl number $Pr = \dfrac{\mu c_p}{k} = \dfrac{0.232 \times 10^{-4} \times 1.005 \times 10^3}{32.2 \times 10^{-6} \times 10^3}$

$$= 0.7241$$

$$T_{mean} = \frac{171 + 93.4}{2} = 132.2°C = 405.2\,K$$

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T_{mean}} = 2.47 \times 10^{-3}\,K^{-1}$$

$$\theta = T_w - T_\infty = 171 - 93.4 = 77.6°C = 77.6\ K$$

$$\rho = \frac{p}{RT} = \frac{101.325}{0.287 \times 405.2} = 0.8713\ kg/m^3$$

$$\nu = \frac{\mu}{\rho} = \frac{0.232 \times 10^{-4}}{0.8713} = 2.663 \times 10^{-5}\ m^2/s$$

$$Gr = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} = \frac{9.81 \times 2.47 \times 10^{-3} \times 77.6 \times (0.609)^3}{(2.663 \times 10^{-5})^2}$$

$$= 5.985 \times 10^8$$

$$Nu = 0.548\ (5.985 \times 10^8 \times 0.7241)^{1/4} = 79.07$$

$$= (h_m L)/k$$

$$h_m = \frac{79.07 \times 32.2 \times 10^{-6}}{0.609} = 4.181 \times 10^{-3}\ kW/m^2\ K$$

$$= 4.181\ W/m^2\ K \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = h_m\ (Lb)\ \theta$$

$$Q/b = 4.181 \times 0.609 \times 77.6 = 197.57\ W/m \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.2 The maximum allowable surface temperature of an electrically heated vertical plate 15 cm high and 10 cm wide is 140°C. Estimate the maximum rate of heat dissipation from both sides of the plate in an atmosphere at 20°C. The radiation heat transfer coefficient is 8.72 W/m² K. For air at 80°C, take $\nu = 21.09 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s, Pr = 0.692 and $k = 0.03$ W/m K.

Solution Rayleigh number $Ra = Gr\ Pr = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} Pr$

$$= \frac{9.81 \times (1/353) \times 120 \times (0.15)^3}{\left(21.09 \times 10^{-6}\right)^2} \times 0.692$$

$$= 17{,}510{,}650\ (< 10^9)$$

$$Nu = 0.59\ (Ra)^{1/4} = 0.59 \times (17{,}510{,}650)^{1/4}$$

$$= 38.166 = \frac{h_c L}{k}$$

$$h_c = \frac{38.166 \times 0.03}{0.15} = 7.6332\ W/m^2\ K$$

$$Q_c = 2h_c\ A(T_w - T_\infty)$$

$$= 2 \times 7.6332 \times 0.15 \times 0.1 \times 120 = 27.48\ W$$

$$Q_r = 2h_r A\ (T_w - T_\infty) = 2 \times 8.72 \times 0.15 \times 0.1 \times 120$$

$$= 31.392\ W$$

$$Q_{total} = Q_c + Q_r = 58.872\ W \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.3 Given: A 0.15 m o.d. steel pipe lies 2 m vertically and 8 m horizontally in a large room ambient temperature of 30°C. The pipe surface is at 250°C and has an emissivity of 0.60.
To estimate: The total rate of heat loss from the pipe to the atmosphere.

Solution Heat is lost by the pipe to the atmosphere both by natural convection and radiation.

Natural convection $\beta = \frac{1}{T_f} = \frac{1}{140+273} = \frac{1}{413} \text{K}^{-1}$

(a) *Vertical Part*: Grashof number, $\text{Gr} = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2}$

or, $$\text{Gr} = \frac{9.81\times(1/413)\times(250-30)\times 2^3}{(27.8\times10^{-6})^2}$$

$$= 0.0541 \times 10^{12}$$

$$\text{Gr Pr} = 0.0541 \times 10^{12} \times 0.684$$

$$= 3.7 \times 10^{10}$$

Since Gr Pr > 10^9, the flow is turbulent over the pipe. From Eq. (5.41)

$$\text{Nu} = 0.13\ (\text{Gr.Pr})^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.13\ (3.7 \times 10^{10})^{1/3}$$

$$= 432.7 = \frac{h_v L}{k}$$

$\therefore$ $$h_v = \frac{432.7\times0.035}{2} = 7.572 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}.$$

(b) *Horizontal part:*

$$\text{Gr}_d = \frac{g\beta\theta D^3}{\nu^2}$$

$$= \frac{9.81\times\frac{1}{413}\times220\times(0.15)^2}{(27.8\times10^{-6})^2}$$

$$= 2.282 \times 10^7$$

$$\text{Gr}_d.\ \text{Pr} = 2.282 \times 10^7 \times 0.684$$

$$= 1.56 \times 10^7$$

Since $\text{Gr}_d.\ \text{Pr} < 2 \times 10^7$, the flow is laminar. From Eq. (5.54),

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.53\ (\text{Gr}_d\ .\ \text{Pr})^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.53\ (1.56 \times 10^7)^{1/4}$$

$$= 33.3 = \frac{h_H D}{k}$$

$$h_H = \frac{33.3\times0.035}{0.15} = 7.77 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

Total heat loss by natural convection

$$Q_C = Q_H + Q_V$$
$$= (h_H A_H + h_V A_V)(T_\omega - T_\infty)$$
$$= [7.572 \times \pi \times 0.15 \times 2 + 7.77\ \pi \times 0.15 \times 8](250 - 30)$$
$$= 6444\ \text{W} = 6.444\ \text{kW}$$

Radiation: Heat lost by radiation

$$Q_r = \sigma A \Sigma (T_w^4 - T_\infty^4)$$
$$= 5.67 \times \pi \times 0.15 \times 10 \times 0.6\ (5.23^4 - 3.03^4)$$
$$= 10643\ \text{W} = 10.643\ \text{kW}$$

Total heat loss $= Q_c + Q_r$
$= 6.444 + 10.643$
$= 18.657\ \text{kW}$ *Ans.*

Example 5.4 A nuclear reactor with its core constructed of parallel vertical plates 2.2 m high and 1.45 m wide has been designed on free convection heating of liquid bismuth. The maximum temperature of the plate surfaces is limited to 960°C, while the lowest allowable temperature of bismuth is 340°C. Calculate the maximum possible heat dissipation from both sides of each plate. For the convection coefficient the appropriate correlation is

$$\text{Nu} = 0.13\ (\text{Gr} \cdot \text{Pr})^{1/3}$$

where the properties evaluated at the mean film temperature of 650°C for bismuth are: $\rho = 10^4$ kg/m^3, $\mu = 3.12$ kg/m-h, $c_p = 150.7$ J/kgK, $k = 13.02$ W/mK.

Solution

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T_f} = \frac{1}{650 + 273} = 1.08 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{K}^{-1}$$

where
$$T_f = \frac{960 + 340}{2} = 650°\text{C}$$

$$\text{Pr} = \frac{\mu c_p}{k} = \frac{\frac{3.12}{3600} \times 150.7}{13.02} = 0.01$$

$$\text{Gr} = \frac{g \beta \theta L^3 \rho^2}{\mu^2} = \frac{9.81 \times 1.08 \times 10^{-3} \times (960 - 340)(2.2)^3 \times (10^4)^2}{(3.12/3600)^2}$$
$$= 9.312 \times 10^{15}$$

$$\text{Gr} \cdot \text{Pr} = 9.312 \times 10^{15} \times 0.01 = 93.12 \times 10^{12}$$

For the given correlation

$$\text{Nu} = \frac{hL}{k} = 0.13(93.12 \times 10^{12})^{0.333}$$
$$= 0.13\ (93.12)^{0.333} \times 10^4 = 0.5883 \times 10^4$$

$\therefore$
$$h = \frac{13.02}{2.2} \times 0.5883 \times 10^4 = 34820\ \text{W/m}^2\ \text{K}$$

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∴ Heat dissipation from both sides of each plate

$$Q = 2\,hA\,\Delta T$$
$$= 2 \times 34{,}820 \times (2.2 \times 1.45) \times (960 - 340)$$
$$= 137734\ \text{W} = 137.734\ \text{kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.5 *Given*: A 0.3 m glass plate at 77°C is hung vertically in the air at 27°C. A similar plate is placed in a wind tunnel and air is blown over it at a velocity of 4 m/s.
To determine: The boundary layer thickness at the trailing edge of the plate and the average heat transfer coefficient in both cases of natural and forced convection.

Solution Film temperature of air, $T_f = \dfrac{27+77}{2} = 52°\text{C}$

Properties of air at 52°C taken from the Appendix (Table A 4) are:

$$\beta = 30.7 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{K}^{-1},\ k = 28.15 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{W/mK}$$
$$\nu = 18.41 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{m}^2/\text{s},\ \text{Pr} = 0.7$$

Natural Convection: Grashof number, $\text{Gr} = \dfrac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} = \dfrac{9.81 \times 3.07 \times 10^{-3} \times (77-27) \times (0.3)^3}{(18.41 \times 10^{-6})^2} = 1.2 \times 10^8$

Rayleigh number, $\text{Ra} = \text{Gr. Pr}$
$$= 1.2 \times 10^8 \times 0.7 = 8.4 \times 10^7$$

∴ The boundary layer is in laminar flow. By using Eq. (5.34) and $x = 0.3$ m,

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = 3.93 \times (0.952 + \text{Pr})^{1/4} \frac{1}{\text{Pr}^{1/2} (\text{Gr}_x)^{1/4}}$$

$$\therefore \quad \delta = 3.93 \times 0.3 \times (0.952 + 0.7)^{1/4} \frac{1}{(0.7)^{1/2} (1.2 \times 10^8)^{1/4}}$$

$$\delta = 1.179 \times 1.1337 \times \frac{1}{0.8367 \times 104.66}$$
$$= 0.0153\ \text{m} = 15.3\ \text{mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

From Eq. (5.35),

$$\text{Nu}_x = 0.508\ \text{Pr}^{1/2}\ (0.952 + \text{Pr})^{1/4}\ (\text{Gr}_x)^{1/4}$$

$$h \propto \frac{1}{x^{1/4}}$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L h\,dx = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L Cx^{-1/4}\,dx = \frac{4}{3}h_L$$

$$\therefore \quad \text{Nu}_L = \frac{\bar{h}L}{k} = 0.676\ \text{Pr}^{1/2} (0.952 + \text{Pr})^{1/4} (\text{Gr}_L)^{1/4}$$
$$= 0.676\ (0.7)^{1/2}\ (0.952 + 0.7)^{1/4}\ (1.2 \times 108)^{1/4}$$
$$= 52.2$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = \frac{52.2 \times 28.15 \times 10^{-3}}{0.3} = 4.9\ \text{W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

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Forced convection

$$u_\infty = 4 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Re}_L = \frac{u_\infty L}{\nu} = \frac{4 \times 0.3}{18.41 \times 10^{-6}} = 6.51 \times 10^4$$

The flow is considered laminar

$$\delta_L = \frac{5L}{\sqrt{\text{Re}_L}} = \frac{5 \times 0.3}{(6.51 \times 10^4)^{1/2}}$$

$$= 5.88 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} = 5.88 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The boundary layer thickness in forced convection (5.88 mm) is less than that in natural convection (15.3 mm).

For forced convection laminar flow over a plate,

$$\text{Nu} = 0.664 \, (\text{Re}_L)^{1/2} \, (\text{Pr})^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.664 \, (6.51 \times 10^4)^{1/2} \, (0.7)^{1/3}$$

$$= 150.4$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = \frac{150.4 \times 28.15 \times 10^{-3}}{0.3}$$

$$= 14.11 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Thus, the heat transfer coefficient in forced convection is much larger than in natural convection.

Example 5.6 For natural convection heat transfer from a horizontal circular cylinder, the following correlation can be used for Rayleigh number in the range of 10^5 and 10^{12}.

$$\bar{\text{Nu}}_D = \left[0.60 + \frac{0.387 \, \text{Ra}_D^{1/6}}{\left[1 + (0.559/\text{Pr})^{9/16}\right]^{8/27}} \right]^2$$

(a) Determine the rate of heat loss per metre length from a 0.1 m outer diameter steam pipe placed horizontally in ambient air at 30°C. The pipe has an outside wall temperature of 170°C and an emissivity of 0.9.

(b) By using the simplified relation of Table 5.2, what would have been the convective heat loss?

Solution The properties of air at the film temperature of $\frac{170 + 30}{2} = 100°\text{C}$ are:

$$\nu = 23.13 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}, \text{ Pr} = 0.688$$

$$k = 32.10 \times 10^{-3} \text{ W/mK}, \beta = \frac{1}{373} = 2.68 \times 10^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

$$\text{Ra}_D = \text{Gr}_D \, \text{Pr} = \frac{g\beta(T_w - T_\infty) D^3}{\nu^2} \cdot \text{Pr}$$

$$= \frac{9.81 \times 2.68 \times 10^{-3} (170 - 30) \, (0.1)^3 \times 0.688}{(23.13 \times 10^{-6})^2}$$

$$= 4.72 \times 10^6$$

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Using the given correlation

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_D = \left[0.60 + \frac{0.387 \times (4.72 \times 10^6)^{\frac{1}{6}}}{\left[1 + (0.559/0.668)^{9/16}\right]^{8/27}}\right]^2$$

$$= 22.8$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{22.8 \times 0.0321}{0.1} = 7.32 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$Q_{\text{conv.}} = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$$

$$= 7.32 \times \pi \times 0.1 \times 1(170 - 30) = 321.95 \text{ W}$$

$$Q_{\text{rad.}} = \sigma A F_{1-2} (T_w^4 - T_\infty^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi \times 0.1 \times 1 \times 0.9 (443^4 - 303^4)$$

$$= 482.3 \text{ W}$$

$\therefore$ $$Q_{\text{total}} = Q_{\text{conv.}} + Q_{\text{rad.}}$$

$$= 321.95 + 482.3 = 804.25 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) From Table 5.2,

$$\bar{h} = 1.32 (\Delta T/D)^{1/4}$$

$$= 1.32 \left(\frac{170 - 30}{0.1}\right)^{1/4} = 8.07 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$\therefore$ $$Q_{\text{conv.}} = 8.07 \times \pi \times 0.1 \times 1 \times (170 - 30)$$

$$= 355.12 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

which is about 10% higher than in (a).

Example 5.7 A square plate 0.4 m × 0.4 m maintained at a uniform temperature of T_w = 400 K is suspended vertically in quiescent atmospheric air at 27°C. Determine (a) the boundary layer thickness at the trailing edge of the plate (i.e. at x = 0.4 m), (b) the average heat transfer coefficient over the entire length by using theoretical analysis (Table 5.1) and (c) compare the latter value with that obtained from Eq. (5.44). Properties of air at 350 K are $\nu = 20.75 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, Pr = 0.697 and k = 0.03 W/m K.

Solution

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T^*} = \frac{1}{350} = 2.86 \times 10^{-3} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

$$\mathrm{Gr}_{L=0.4} = \frac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} = \frac{9.81 \times 2.86 \times 10^{-3} (400 - 300)(0.4)^3}{(20.75 \times 10^{-6})^2}$$

$$= 4.16 \times 10^8$$

From Eq. (5.34),

$$\frac{\delta}{x} = 3.93 (0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{1/4} \frac{1}{\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2} (\mathrm{Gr}_x)^{1/4}}$$

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$$\delta_{L=0.4\text{ m}} = 3.93\,(0.952+0.697)^{1/4}\,\frac{0.4}{(0.697)^{1/2}\left(4.16\times10^{8}\right)^{1/4}}$$

$$= 1.5\times10^{-2}\text{ m} = 1.5\text{ cm} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(a)}$$

(b)
$$\text{Nu}_m = \frac{hL}{k} = 0.518\,(\text{Gr}_L\,\text{Pr})^{1/4}$$

$$h = 0.518\,(4.16\times10^{8}\times0.697)^{1/4}\,\frac{0.03}{0.4}$$

$$= 5.07\text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(b)}$$

(c)
$$\text{Nu}_m = \frac{hL}{k} = 0.68+\frac{0.67\left(4.16\times10^{8}\times0.697\right)^{1/4}}{\left(1+(0.492/0.697)^{9/16}\right)^{4/9}}$$

$$= 72.61$$

$$h = \frac{72.61\times0.03}{0.4} = 5.45\text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(c)}$$

Example 5.8 Determine the mean heat transfer coefficient for natural convection from the surface of a cabinet. The cabinet is mounted on a vertical wall. Its surface temperature is 125°C and the ambient temperature is 25°C. What is the rate of heat loss from the surface?

Solution Properties of air at 75°C are $\nu = 2.06\times10^{-6}$ m²/s, Pr = 0.697, $k = 0.0299$ W/m K and $\beta = 2.87\times10^{-3}\text{ K}^{-1}$.

The characteristic length δ for the solid

$$\frac{1}{\delta} = \frac{1}{L_{\text{hor}}}+\frac{1}{L_{\text{vert}}} = \frac{1}{(0.16+0.318)/2}+\frac{1}{0.418}$$

$$\delta = 0.152\text{ m}$$

$$\text{Gr}_\delta = \frac{g\beta\theta\,\delta^3}{\nu^2} = \frac{9.81\times2.87\times10^{-3}\times(125-25)\,(0.152)^3}{\left(2.06\times10^{-6}\right)^2}$$

$$= 2.33\times10^{7}$$

$$\text{Ra}_\delta = 2.33\times10^{7}\times0.697 = 1.62\times10^{7}$$

$$\overline{\text{Nu}} = 0.55\ \text{Ra}_d^{1/4} = 0.55\,(1.62\times10^{7})^{1/4}$$

$$= 34.9 = \frac{h\delta}{k}$$

$\therefore$
$$h = \frac{34.9\times0.0299}{0.152} = 6.87\text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Total heat loss
$$= 6.87\times0.268\times100 = 1.84\text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.9 A wall of a cold storage having an air gap is 6 m high and 11 m wide. The air gap width is 2.5 cm. If the two wall surfaces across the air gap have temperatures of 45°C and 35°C, find the heat gain by natural convection and conduction through the air gap.

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Solution

$$T^* = \frac{45+35}{2} = 40°C = 313 \text{ K}$$

Properties of air at 40°C are $\beta = 3.195 \times 10^{-3}$ K^{-1}, $\nu = 17 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s, $k = 0.02723$ W/m K and Pr = 0.705.

$$\text{Gr}_\delta \text{Pr} = \frac{9.81 \times 3.195 \times 10^{-3} \times 10 \times (0.025)^3 \times 0.705}{(17 \times 10^{-5})^2}$$

$$= 1.1947 \times 10^4$$

Flow is laminar. Using Eq. (5.56a)

$$\text{Nu}_\delta = 0.42 \text{ Ra}_\delta^{0.25} \text{ Pr}^{0.012} \left(\frac{L}{\delta}\right)^{-0.3}$$

$$= 0.42 (1.1947 \times 10^4)^{1/4} (0.705)^{0.012} \left(\frac{6}{0.025}\right)^{-0.3}$$

$$= 0.4783$$

$$k_{\text{eff}} = k \text{ Nu}_\delta = 0.02723 \times 0.4783 = 0.013 \text{ W/m K}$$

Heat gain by natural convection is

$$Q = k_{\text{eff}} A \frac{\Delta T}{\delta} = 0.013 (6 \times 10) \frac{10}{0.025}$$

$$= 312 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Heat gain by conduction

$$Q = kA \frac{\Delta T}{\delta} = 0.02723 \times 60 \times \frac{10}{0.025}$$

$$= 653.52 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.10 *Given:* A 50 cm long fine wire of 0.02 mm dia is maintained constant at 54°C by an electric current when exposed to air at 0°C.
To find: The electric power necessary to maintain the wire at 54°C.

Solution Air film temperature $T_f = (54 + 0)/2$

$$= 27°C = 300 \text{ K}$$

Properties of air at 300 K taken from the Appendix are:

$$\nu = 15.69 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}, \beta = \frac{1}{T_f} = \frac{1}{300} = 0.00333 \text{ K}^{-1}$$

$k = 0.02624$ W/mK and Pr = 0.708.

Now, $$\text{Gr} \cdot \text{Pr} = \frac{g\beta\theta D^3}{\nu^2} \cdot \text{Pr}$$

$$= \frac{9.81 \times 0.00333 \times 54 \times (0.02 \times 10^{-3})^3}{(15.69 \times 10^{-6})^2} \times 0.78$$

$$= 4.05 \times 10^5$$

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From Holman's book, when $\text{Gr} \cdot \text{Pr} = 4.05 \times 10^5$ in Eq. $\text{Nu} = C(\text{Gr} \cdot \text{Pr})^m$, $C = 0.675$ and $m = 0.058$

$$\therefore \quad \overline{\text{Nu}} = 0.675\,(4.05 \times 10^5)^{0.058} = 0.375$$

$$= \frac{\bar{h}D}{k}$$

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = \frac{0.375 \times 0.02624}{0.02 \times 10^{-3}} = 492.6 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

$$Q = 492.6 \times \pi\,(0.02 \times 10^{-3} \times 0.50) \times 54$$

$$= 0.836 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.11 Air at atmospheric pressure is confined between two 0.5 m square vertical plates separated by a distance of 15 mm. The temperatures of the plates are 100°C and 40°C, respectively. Calculate (a) the heat transfer across the air space by natural convection and (b) the radiation heat transfer across the air space if both surfaces have $\varepsilon = 0.2$. Use the equation $k_{\text{eff}}/k = 0.197\,(\text{Gr Pr})^{1/4}\,(L/\delta)^{-1/9}$.

Solution At 70°C, the properties of air are $\rho = 1.029$ kg/m^3, $\beta = 2.915 \times 10^{-3}$ K^{-1}, $\mu = 2.043 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms, $k = 0.0295$ W/m K and $\text{Pr} = 0.7$.

$$\text{Gr Pr} = \frac{9.81 \times (1.029)^2 \times 2.915 \times 10^{-3} \times (100 - 40) \times (0.015)^3}{\left(2.043 \times 10^{-5}\right)^2} \times 0.7$$

$$= 1.027 \times 10^4$$

$$\frac{k_{\text{eff}}}{k} = 0.197 \times (1.027 \times 10^4)^{1/4} \left(\frac{0.5}{0.015}\right)^{-1/9}$$

$$= 1.343$$

$$Q_c = k_{\text{eff}} A \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\delta} = \frac{1.343 \times 0.0295 \times (0.5 \times 0.5)(100 - 40)}{0.015}$$

$$= 39.62 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

$$\left(\frac{Q}{A}\right)_r = \sigma \frac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_1) + (1/\varepsilon_2) - 1} \left(T_1^4 - T_2^4\right)$$

$$= (5.67 \times 10^{-8}) \frac{1}{(1/0.2) + (1/0.2) - 1} \left(373^4 - 313^4\right)$$

$$= 61.47 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$Q_r = 61.47 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 = 15.37 \text{ W}$$

Example 5.12 Two horizontal plates 30 cm on a side are separated by a gap of 1 cm with air at 1 atm in the space. The temperatures are 100°C for the lower and 40°C for the upper plate. Calculate the heat transfer across the air space. Use $k_{\text{eff}}/k = C(\text{Gr Pr})^n\,(L/\delta)^m$, where $C = 0.059$, $n = 0.4$ and $m = 0$.

Solution Properties of air at 70°C are $\rho = 1.029$ kg/m^3, $\beta = 2.915 \times 10^{-3}$ K^{-1}, $\mu = 2.043 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms, $k = 0.0295$ W/m K and $\text{Pr} = 0.7$.

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$$\text{Gr Pr} = \frac{9.81 \times (1.029)^2 \times 2.915 \times 10^{-3} \times (100 - 40) \times (0.01)^3}{\left(2.043 \times 10^{-5}\right)^2} \times 0.7$$

$$= 3043$$

$$\frac{k_{\text{eff}}}{k} = 0.059\,(3043)^{0.4} \left(\frac{0.2}{0.01}\right)^{\circ} = 1.46$$

$$Q = k_{\text{eff}} \frac{A(T_1 - T_2)}{\delta} = \frac{1.46 \times 0.0295 \times (0.3)^2 \times (100 - 40)}{0.1}$$

$$= 23.25 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.13 A 15 cm diameter steel shaft is heated to 350°C for heat treatment. The shaft is then allowed to cool in air (at 20°C) while rotating about its own horizontal axis at 4 rpm. Compute the rate of convection heat transfer from the shaft when it has cooled to 100°C.

Solution

$$w = \frac{2\pi N}{60} = \frac{2\pi \times 4}{60} = 0.419 \text{ rad/s}$$

At (100 + 20)/2, i.e., 60°C or 333 K, properties of air are $\nu = 1.94 \times 10^{-5}$ m^2/s, $\beta = (333 \text{ K})^{-1}$, Pr = 0.71 and $k = 0.0279$ W/m K.

$$\text{Re}_w = \frac{\pi D^2 w}{\nu} = \frac{\pi (0.15)^2 \times 0.419}{1.94 \times 10^{-5}} = 1527$$

$$\text{Ra} = \frac{g\beta\theta D^3}{\nu^2} \text{Pr} = \frac{9.81\,(1/333) \times (100 - 20)\,(0.15)^3}{\left(1.94 \times 10^{-5}\right)^2} \times 0.71$$

$$= 2.91 \times 10^7$$

From Eq. (5.61),

$$\overline{\text{Nu}_d} = 0.11\,(0.5\,\text{Re}_w^2 + \text{Gr}_d\,\text{Pr})^{0.35}$$

$$= 0.11\,[0.5 \times (1527)^2 + 2.91 \times 10^7]^{0.35}$$

$$= 45.68$$

$$h_c = \frac{45.68 \times 0.0279}{0.15} = 8.496 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$Q = h_c \times \pi DL \times (T_w - T_\infty)$$

$$= 8.496 \times \pi \times 0.15 \times 1 \times 80 = 320.3 \text{ W/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 5.14 Air at 1 atm and 30°C is forced through a horizontal 30 mm diameter 0.5 m long tube at an average velocity of 0.25 m/s. The tube wall is maintained at 137°C. Calculate (a) the heat transfer coefficient and (b) percentage error if the calculation is made strictly on the basis of laminar forced convection.

Solution

$$T^* = \frac{30 + 137}{2} = 83.5°\text{C} = 356.5 \text{ K}$$

at which for air $\rho = 0.99$ kg/m^3, $\beta = 2.805 \times 10^{-3}$ K^{-1}, Pr = 0.695, μ_w (at 137°C) = 2.837×10^{-5} kg/ms, μ_b (at 30°C) = 1.8462×10^{-5} kg/ms, μ = 2.102×10^{-5} (at 83°C) kg/ms and $k = 0.0305$ W/m K.

$$\text{Re} = \frac{\rho u D}{\mu} = \frac{0.99 \times 0.25 \times 0.03}{2.102 \times 10^{-5}} = 353$$

$$\text{Gr} = \frac{g \beta \theta_w \rho^2 d^3}{\mu^2} = \frac{9.81 \times 2.805 \times 10^{-3} \times (137 - 30)(0.03)^3}{\left(2.102 \times 10^{-5}\right)^2}$$

$$= 3.78 \times 10^5$$

$$\text{Gr Pr} \frac{d}{L} = 3.78 \times 10^5 \times 0.695 \times \frac{0.03}{0.5} = 15{,}763$$

$$\text{Gz} = \text{Re Pr} \frac{d}{L} = 353 \times 0.695 \times \frac{0.03}{0.5} = 14.72$$

From Eq. (5.66),

$$\text{Nu}_d = 1.75 \left[\text{Gz} + 0.012 (\text{Gz Gr}_d^{1/3})^{4/3}\right]^{1/3} \left(\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_a}\right)^{0.14}$$

$$= 1.75 \left(\frac{1.8462}{2.337}\right)^{0.14}$$

$$\{14.72 + 0.012 \times [14.72 \times (3.78 \times 10^5)^{1/3}]^{4/3}\}^{1/3}$$

$$= 1.693 (5.2337) = 8.86$$

$$\bar{h} = \frac{8.86 \times 0.0305}{0.03} = 9.0 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

We may compare this value with that which would be obtained for strictly laminar forced convection. The Sieder–Tate equation may be used

$$\text{Nu}_d = 1.86 (\text{Re}_d \text{ Pr})^{1/3} \left(\frac{d}{L}\right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14}$$

$$= 1.86 (\text{Gz})^{1/3} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14}$$

$$= 1.86 (14.72)^{1/3} \left(\frac{2.102}{2.337}\right)^{0.14} = 4.48$$

$$h_1 = \frac{4.48 \times 0.0305}{0.03} = 4.55 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

Percentage error would have been $(9.0 - 4.55)/9.0 \times 100$ or 49.4% *Ans.*

Example 5.15 A cylindrical body of 300 mm diameter and 1.6 m height is maintained at a constant temperature of 36.5°C. The surrounding air temperature is 13.5°C. Find out the amount of heat to be generated by the body per hour if $\rho = 1.025$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 0.96$ kJ/kgK, $\nu = 15.06 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s, $k = 0.0892$ kJ/mhK and $\beta = 1/298$ K^{-1}. Assume $\text{Nu} = 0.12 (\text{Gr. Pr})^{1/3}$, the symbols having their usual meanings.

Given: $D = 300$ mm $= 0.03$ m, $L = 1.6$ m, $T_w = 36.5°C$, $T_\infty = 13.5°C$, $\rho = 1.025$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 0.96$ kJ/kg

$k = 0.0892$ kJ/mhK, $\beta = \frac{1}{298}$ K^{-1}, $Nu = 0.12\,(Gr.Pr)^{1/3}$.

To find: The amount of heat to be generated per hour.

Solution Grashof number, $Gr = \dfrac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2}$

or, $$Gr = \frac{9.81 \times \frac{1}{298} \times (36.5 - 13.5)(1.6)^3}{(15.06 \times 10^{-6})^2} = 1.3674 \times 10^{10}$$

Prandtl number, $$Pr = \frac{\mu c_p}{k} = \frac{1.025 \times 15.06 \times 10^{-6} \times 3600 \times 0.96}{0.0892}$$

Nusselt number, $$Nu = 0.12\,(Gr \cdot Pr)^{1/3}$$

$$= 0.12\,(1.3674 \times 10^{10} \times 0.598)^{1/3}$$

$$= 241.75 = \frac{hL}{k}$$

$\therefore$ $$h = 241.75 \times 0.0892/1.6$$

$$= 13.478 \text{ kJ/hm}^2\text{K}$$

Heat loss from the surface by natural convection, $Q = hA(T_w - T_\infty)$

$$= 13.478 \times \pi \times 0.3 \times 1.6 \times (36.5 - 13.5)$$

$$= 467.5 \text{ kJ/h} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

This is the amount of heat to be generated per hour to maintain the cylinder surface at 36.5°C while the surrounding air is at 13.5°C.

Summary

Convective flows that originate in part or exclusively from buoyancy forces and the associated heat transfer rates are considered here introducing the dimensionless parameters needed to characterise such flows. An approximate analysis of laminar natural convection heat transfer from an isothermal vertical plate has been made. Empirical correlations for heat transfer from various shapes and geometries are considered. Natural convection heat transfer in enclosed spaces and from rotating cylinders, disks and spheres are discussed. The mixed convection processes with relative magnitudes and dominance of free and forced convection are finally brought into consideration for a number of physical situations.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation Number	*Equation*	*Remark*
(5.12)	$Gr = \dfrac{g\beta(T_w - T_\infty)L^3}{\nu^2}$	Grashof number

Equation Number	Equation	Remark
(5.15)	$\mathrm{Ra} = \dfrac{g\beta L^3(T_w - T_\infty)}{\nu\alpha} = \mathrm{Gr.Pr}$	Rayleigh number
(5.34)	$\dfrac{\delta}{x} = 3.93(0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{1/4} \dfrac{1}{\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2}(\mathrm{Gr}_x)^{1/4}}$	Boundary layer thickness in a natural convection film on a vertical plate
(5.35)	$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.508\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2}(0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{-1/4}(\mathrm{Gr}_x)^{1/4}$	Local Nusselt number for natural convection on a vertical plate
(5.36)	$\mathrm{Nu}_x = 0.378(\mathrm{Gr}_x)^{1/4}$	Nusselt number for air (Pr = 0.714)
(5.37)	$\mathrm{Nu}_L = 0.504(\mathrm{Gr}_L)^{1/4}$	Average Nusselt number for natural convection on a vertical plate of length L
(5.38)	$h_x = 0.508\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2} \dfrac{\mathrm{Gr}_x^{1/4}}{(0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}} \dfrac{k}{x}$	Local heat transfer coefficient at a distance x from the leading edge
(5.40)	$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.68\,\mathrm{Pr}^{1/2} \dfrac{\mathrm{Gr}_L^{1/4}}{(0.952 + \mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}}$	Average value of Nusselt number for a height L
(5.41)	$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.13(\mathrm{Gr}_L\ \mathrm{Pr})^{1/3}$	For natural convection over a vertical plate or cylinder in the turbulent region ($\mathrm{Gr}_L > 10^9$).
(5.45)	$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.825 + \dfrac{0.387\mathrm{Ra}_L^{1/6}}{[1 + (0.492/\mathrm{Pr})^{9/16}]^{8/27}}$ for $10^{-1} < \mathrm{Ra} < 10^{12}$	Natural convection on a vertical plate for both laminar and turbulent flows
(5.48)	$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = C(\mathrm{Gr}_L\ \mathrm{Pr})^n$ where $C = 0.54$ and $n = 1/4$ for $10^5 < \mathrm{Ra} < 10^7$ and $C = 0.14$, $n = 1/3$ for $2 \times 10^7 < \mathrm{Ra} < 3 \times 10^{10}$	Nusselt number for natural convection on a horizontal plate for hot surface facing up or cold surface facing down. For hot surface facing down or cold surface facing up, $C = 0.27$, $n = 1/4$, for $3 \times 10^5 < \mathrm{Ra} < 3 \times 10^{10}$
(5.54)	$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_d = 0.53(\mathrm{Gr}_d.\mathrm{Pr})^{1/4}$ for $\mathrm{Pr} > 0.5$, $10^3 < \mathrm{Gr} < 10^9$	Horizontal pipes or wires in natural convection

view Questions

5.1 Why are heat transfer coefficients for natural convection much less than those in forced convection?

5.2 How is the velocity field developed in front of a vertical plate which is maintained at a

5.3 Explain the velocity and temperature profiles for air filling the gap between two horizontal plates when (a) the bottom plate is maintained at a temperature higher than the top plate and (b) the bottom plate is maintained at a temperature lower than the top plate.

5.4 How are the principal dimensionless parameters of natural convection determined from the boundary layer equations concerning continuity, momentum and energy?

5.5 What do you mean by Boussinesq approximation?

5.6 What is the physical significance of Grashof number with reference to heat transfer by natural convection? What is Rayleigh number?

5.7 What do you mean by critical value of Rayleigh number?

5.8 Find the location and magnitude of maximum velocity in the boundary layer formed on a heated or cooled vertical plate.

5.9 Show that for laminar flow of air (Pr = 0.714), the local and average values of Nusselt number for natural convection heat transfer from or to a vertical plate are given by

$$Nu_x = 0.378\ Gr_x^{1/4} \text{ or } \overline{Nu}_L = 0.504\ Gr_L^{1/4}$$

5.10 What is the recommended correlation for natural convection over a vertical plate or cylinder in the turbulent flow region?

5.11 What is modified Grashof number? Where does it appear?

5.12 Explain how do the average values of Nusselt number for natural convection depend on (a) whether the hot surface is facing up or down, (b) whether the plate surface is warmer or cooler than the surrounding fluid and (c) whether the plate is subjected to uniform wall heat flux or uniform wall temperature.

5.13 Explain how does heat transfer occur in a rectangular vertical cavity consisting of two isothermal parallel plates spaced a distance δ apart. When does heat transfer essentially occur by conduction?

5.14 What is the mechanism of heat transfer by natural convection across a gap between two horizontal concentric cylinders?

5.15 Explain the significance of heat transfer by convection between a rotating body and a surrounding fluid. How is the peripheral speed Reynolds number defined? What is its critical value?

5.16 What is rotational Reynolds number for a disk? What is its critical value?

5.17 Explain the significance of combined forced and natural convection. What is the role of the parameter Gr/Re^2 in this regard?

5.18 When does the effect of buoyancy force become important in forced convection heat transfer? How is Graetz number relevant in combined convection?

Objective Type Questions

5.1 The ratio of buoyancy force to the viscous force acting on a fluid is called
(a) Reynolds number
(b) Grashof number
(c) Prandtl number
(d) Nusselt number

5.2 Grashof number is defined as
(a) $g\beta\theta L/\nu$ (b) $g\beta\theta L^2/\nu^2$
(c) $g\beta\theta L^3/\nu^2$ (d) $g\beta\theta L^3/\nu^3$

5.3 The characteristic length for computing Grashof number in the case of a horizontal cylinder is
(a) the length of the cylinder
(b) the diameter of the cylinder
(c) the perimeter of the cylinder
(d) the radius of the cylinder

5.4 In natural convection heat transfer, the Nusselt number is a function of
(a) Re and Pr (b) Re and Gr
(c) Gr and Pr (d) Gr and Bi

5.5 The maximum velocity in the laminar boundary layer in natural convection heat transfer is equal to

(a) 0 (b) $\delta/3$
(c) $\delta/2$ (d) δ

5.6 In natural convection heat transfer under uniform heat flux, the modified Grashof number, Gr_x^* is defined as
(a) $Pr \times Gr$ (b) $Nu \times Gr$
(c) $Nu \times Gr/Pr$ (d) $Gr \times Pr/Nu$

5.7 For combined forced and natural convection, the relative magnitude of the following dimensionless parameter governs the relative importance of natural convection in relation to forced convection.
(a) Gr/Re (b) Gr/Re^2
(c) $Gr.Pr/Re$ (d) Re/Gr^2

5.8 Forced convection dominates if
(a) $Gr/Re^2 << 1$ (b) $Gr/Re^2 >> 1$
(c) $Gr/Re^2 = 1$ (d) $Gr.Pr/Re^2 >> 1$

5.9 Natural convection dominates if
(a) $Gr/Re^2 << 1$ (b) $Gr/Re^2 >> 1$
(c) $Gr/Re^2 = 1$ (d) $Pr.Gr/Re^2 << 1$

5.10 Graetz number is defined as
(a) $Re_d \times Pr$ (b) $Re_d \times Pr(L/D)$
(c) $Re_d \times Pr\,(D/L)$ (d) $Gr \times Pr$

5.11 In natural convection heat transfer from a 3 cm horizontal diameter tube is given by the relation $Nu \propto (Gr)^{0.25}$, and the convective heat transfer coefficient is 100 W/m^2K. If the diameter of the tube is 12 cm, the value of 'h' would be, with other parameters remaining the same,
(a) 100 W/m^2K (b) 90 W/m^2K
(c) 80 W/m^2K (d) 70.71 W/m^2K

5.12 **Assertion (A):** In natural convection turbulent flow over heated vertical plate, 'h' is independent of the characteristic length.
Reasoning (R): In turbulent flow natural convection heat transfer over a heated vertical plate $Nu = C(Pr)^{1/3}$.
Code:
(a) Both A and R are false
(b) Both A and R are true
(c) A is true, R is also
(d) A is false, R is true

5.13 A 3.2 m high vertical pipe at 175°C wall temperature is in a room with still air at 25°C. The pipe supplies heat to room air at the rate of 8 kW by natural convection. Assuming laminar flow and other conditions remaining the same, the height of the pipe required to supply 1 kW will be
(a) 0.8 m (b) 0.4 m
(c) 0.2 m (d) 0.1 m

Answers

5.1 (b)	5.2 (c)	5.3 (b)	5.4 (c)	5.5 (b)
5.6 (b)	5.7 (b)	5.8 (a)	5.9 (b)	5.10 (c)
5.11 (d)	5.12 (b)	5.13 (c)		

Open Book Problems

5.1 A metal plate, 0.609 m, high forms the vertical wall of an oven and is at a temperature of 161°C. Within the oven is air at a temperature of 93°C and one atmosphere. Assuming that natural conditions hold near the plate, estimate the mean heat transfer coefficient and the rate of heat transfer per unit width of the plate.

Hints: Find properties of air at $T_f = \frac{161+93}{2}$ = 127°C = 400 K from the Appendix: ν, α, k and Pr. $\beta = \frac{1}{T_f}$.

Rayleigh number,

$$Ra_L = Gr_L . Pr = \frac{g\beta L^3 (T_w - T_\infty)}{\nu^2} . Pr$$

Then use Eq. (5.4),

$$\overline{Nu} = 0.68 + \frac{0.67 Ra_L^{1/4}}{[1 + (0.492/Pr)^{9/16}]^{4/9}}$$ to find $\bar{h}$ and $Q = \bar{h} L(T_w - T_\infty)$.

5.2 A thin 80 cm long and 8 cm wide horizontal plate is maintained at a temperature of 130°C in a large tank full of water at 70°C. Estimate the rate of heat transfer to the plate required to maintain the temperature of 130°C.

Hints: The plate would be losing heat by free convection from both its upper and lower surfaces. The properties of water at $T_f = \dfrac{130+70}{2} = 100°C$ are found from the Appendix: ρ, c_p, β, k, ν and α.

Characteristic length, $L = \dfrac{A}{P} = \dfrac{w}{2} = 4$ cm.

Find $\mathrm{Ra}_L = \dfrac{g\beta\theta L^3}{\nu^2} \cdot \dfrac{\nu}{\alpha}$. For the top surface, use $\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.14(\mathrm{Ra}_L)^{1/3}$ to find $\bar{h}_L$, and for the bottom surface, use $\overline{\mathrm{Nu}}_L = 0.27(\mathrm{Ra}_L)^{1/4}$ to find $\bar{h}_B$. Then $Q = (\bar{h}_B + \bar{h}_L)\, w\, L(T_w - T_\infty)$.

5.3 Air flow through a long rectangular (30 cm width × 6 cm height) air conditioning duct maintains the outer duct surface temperature at 15°C. If the duct is unisulated and exposed to air at 25°C, calculate the heat gained by the duct per metre length, assuming it to be horizontal.

Hints: At film temperature $T_f = \dfrac{15+25}{2} = 20°C$, the properties of air, viz., ρ, c_p, ν, k, Pr and β are obtained for air from the Appendix. Since the duct is laid horizontally, the heat gain by free convection is from the four vertical sides and the horizontal top and bottom. Now, find

$\mathrm{Gr},\ \mathrm{Pr} = \mathrm{Ra}_L = \dfrac{g\beta L^3(T - T_w)}{\nu^2} \cdot \mathrm{Pr} = xL^3$,

(i) Vertical surfaces: use $\mathrm{Nu}_L = 0.59(\mathrm{Ra}_L)^{1/4}$ to find $\bar{h}_v$. (ii) Upper and lower surfaces: $L = A/p = 2\,\omega = 0.30$ m. Find Ra_L.

Use $\bar{h}_{HL}$ (top surface) $= \dfrac{k}{L} \times 0.54(\mathrm{Ra}_L)^{1/4}$ and

$\bar{h}_{HB}$ (bottom) surface $= \dfrac{k}{L} \times 0.27(\mathrm{Ra}_L)^{1/4}$

$\therefore$ Rate of heat gained per unit length, $Q = 2Q_v + Q_{H(B)} + (Q_H)_L$.

Problems for Practice

5.1 A vertical plate 5 m high and 1.5 m wide has one of its surfaces insulated. The other surface maintained at a uniform temperature of 400 K is exposed to quiescent atmospheric air at 300 K. Calculate the total rate of heat loss from the plate [show that $\mathrm{Gr}_L = 8.137 \times 10^{11}$ and use Eq. (5.45)]. Properties of air at 350 K are $\nu = 20.75 \times 10^{-6}$ m²/s, Pr = 0.697 and $k = 0.03$ W/m K.

(*Ans.* 4.133 W)

5.2 A square plate 0.5 m × 0.5 m with one surface insulated and the other surface maintained at a uniform temperature of 385 K which is placed in quiescent air at atmospheric pressure and 315 K. Calculate the average heat transfer coefficient for natural convection for the following orientations of the hot surface: (a) the plate is horizontal and the hot surface faces up, (b) the plate is vertical and (c) the plate is horizontal, and the hot surface faces down.

(*Ans.* (a) 6.18, (b) 5.0, (c) 2.29 W/m²K)

5.3 A power amplifier is mounted vertically in air at 25°C. The case is made of anodized aluminium with a surface area of about 3800 mm² and a height of 40 mm. Determine (a) the heat transfer coefficient for natural convection cooling with a case temperature of 125°C and (b) the rate of total heat dissipation. (c) What is the percentage of total heat that is lost by natural convection? Properties of air at 75°C are $\nu = 2.06 \times 10^{-5}$ m²/s, Pr = 0.697 and $k = 0.0299$ W/m K.

(*Ans.* (a) 6.88 W/m² K, (b) 6.32 W, (c) 41%)

5.4 A vertical plate 10 cm high and 5 cm wide is cooled by natural convection. The rate of heat transfer is 5.55 W and the air

temperature is 38°C. Estimate the maximum temperature of the plate. Assume uniform heat flux.

(*Ans.* $T_{max} = 175°C$)

5.5 Estimate the heat transfer coefficient for the power amplifier of example 5.3 if it is mounted horizontally.

(*Ans.* 4.24 W/m^2 K)

5.6 A horizontal cylinder of 2.5 cm diameter and 0.6 m length is suspended in water at 20°C. Calculate the rate of heat transfer if the cylinder surface is at 55°C. What would be the rate of heat transfer if the cylinder is suspended in light oil at 55°C. The following properties (at 37.5°C) may be used

	Water	Oil
ρ (kg/m^3)	992	905
μ (kg/hm)	2.47	82.0
k (W/m K)	0.622	0.133
β (K^{-1})	3.96×10^{-4}	7.2×10^{-4}
Pr	4.64	324

(*Ans.* 1470 W, 171 W)

5.7 A horizontal pipe 0.3048 m in diameter is maintained at a temperature of 250°C in a room where the ambient air is at 15°C. Calculate the heat loss by natural convection per metre length.

(*Ans.* 1.49 kW/m)

5.8 A cube 20 cm on a side is maintained at 60°C and exposed to atmospheric air at 20°C. Calculate the heat transfer.

(*Ans.* 108.8 W)

5.9 Two 50 cm horizontal square plates are separated by a distance of 1 cm. The lower plate is maintained at a constant temperature 38°C and the upper plate is constant at 27°C. Water at atmospheric pressure occupies the space between the plates. Calculate heat lost by the lower plate. Use $k_{eff}/k = C(\text{Gr Pr})^n (L/\delta)^m$, where $C = 0.13$, $n = 0.3$ and $m = 0$.

(*Ans.* 964 W)

5.10 Calculate the rate of convection heat loss from the top and bottom of a flat 1 m^2 horizontal restaurant grill heated to 227°C in ambient air at 27°C.

(*Ans.* $Q_{total} = 2268$ W)

5.11 Estimate the electrical power required to maintain a vertical heater surface at 130°C in ambient air at 20°C. The plate is 15 cm high and 10 cm wide. Compare with results for a plate 450 cm high. The heat transfer coefficient for radiation is 8.5 W/m^2 K in both cases.

(*Ans.* 50.8 W, 1465 W)

5.12 At what temperature will a long, heated, horizontal steel pipe 1 m in diameter produce turbulent flow in (a) air and (b) a water bath, both at 27°C?

(*Ans.* $\Delta T_{air} = 12°C$, $\Delta T_{water} = 0.05°C$)

5.13 A 20 cm diameter steel shaft is heated to 400°C for heat treating. The shaft is then allowed to cool in air at 20°C while rotating about its own horizontal axis at 3 rpm. Compute the rate of convection heat transfer from the shaft when it has cooled to 100°C.

5.14 Air at 1 atm and 27°C is forced through a horizontal 25 mm diameter tube at an average velocity of 30 cm/s. The tube wall is maintained at a constant temperature of 140°C. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient for this situation if the tube is 0.4 m long. What would have been the percentage error if strictly laminar forced convection was considered?

(*Ans.* 9.4 W/m^2 K, 41% error)

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Condensation and Boiling

6

Heat transfer by change of phase includes (a) condensation, (b) boiling, (c) melting or solidification and (d) sublimation, in which the respective latent heat is released. Since the phase change occurs at constant temperature, the heat transfer coefficient is high, and is one order of magnitude higher than that for a single-phase fluid. In this chapter, we will consider only condensation and boiling heat transfer.

Boiling and condensation involve fluid motion and are hence regarded as the convection mode of heat transfer. Since there is a phase change, heat transfer rates are achieved with small temperature differences. In addition to the latent heats h_{fg}, two other parameters are important, namely the surface tension σ between liquid and vapour, and the density difference between the two phases, which induces buoyancy force proportional to $g(\rho_l - \rho_v)$.

6.1 DIMENSIONLESS PARAMETERS IN BOILING AND CONDENSATION

Boiling and condensation processes are quite complex due to the many variables involved, and it is difficult to derive the governing equations. Dimensional analyses of the processes help to identify the relevant dimensionless groups and enhance understanding of the related physical mechanisms. Buckingham pi theorem will be used to obtain the appropriate dimensionless parameters. For condensation or boiling, the convection coefficient depends on the difference between surface and saturation temperatures $\Delta T = (T_w - T_{sat})$, the body force arising from the liquid–vapour density difference, $g(\rho_l - \rho_v)$, the latent heat h_{fg}, the surface tension σ, a characteristic length L and the thermophysical properties of the liquid or vapour ρ, c_p, μ and k. Therefore,

$$h = h[\Delta T, g(\rho_l - \rho_v), h_{fg}, \sigma, L, \rho, c_p, k, \mu] \tag{6.1}$$

Since there are 10 variables in 5 dimensions (m, kg s, J, K) there will be $(10 - 5) = 5$ pi-groups, which can be expressed in the following forms:

$$\frac{hL}{k} = f\left[\frac{\rho g(\rho_l - \rho_v)L^3}{\mu^2}, \frac{c_p \Delta T}{h_{fg}}, \frac{\mu c_p}{k}, \frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)L^2}{\sigma}\right] \tag{6.2}$$

In dimensionless groups,

$$\mathrm{Nu}_L = \mathbf{f}\left[\frac{\rho g(\rho_l - \rho_v)L^3}{\mu^2}, \mathbf{Ja, Pr, Bo}\right] \tag{6.3}$$

The Nusselt and Prandtl numbers are familiar from earlier single-phase convection analyses. The new dimensionless parameters are the Jakob number Ja, the Bond number Bo, and a nameless parameter akin to Grashof number, which represents the effect of buoyancy-induced fluid motion on heat transfer. The Jakob number $\mathrm{Ja} = (c_p \Delta T)/(h_{fg})$ is the ratio of the maximum sensible energy absorbed to the latent heat. In many cases, Ja has a small numerical value. The Bond number $\mathrm{Bo} = g(\rho_l - \rho_v)L^2/\sigma$ is the ratio of the grativational body force to the surface tension force.

6.2 CONDENSATION HEAT TRANSFER

When a saturated vapour comes in contact with a surface the temperature of which is maintained below the saturation temperature at the vapour pressure, the vapour cannot but condense into liquid releasing the latent heat of condensation at that pressure with a coolant (cooling water) carrying away this heat (Fig. 6.1). There are two modes in which condensation can take place on a cooling surface.

1. Dropwise condensation
2. Filmwise condensation

In film condensation, a stable coherent film of liquid condensate is formed on the surface through which the heat released during condensation is conducted into the surface (Fig. 6.1). On a wettable cooling surface, film condensation takes place.

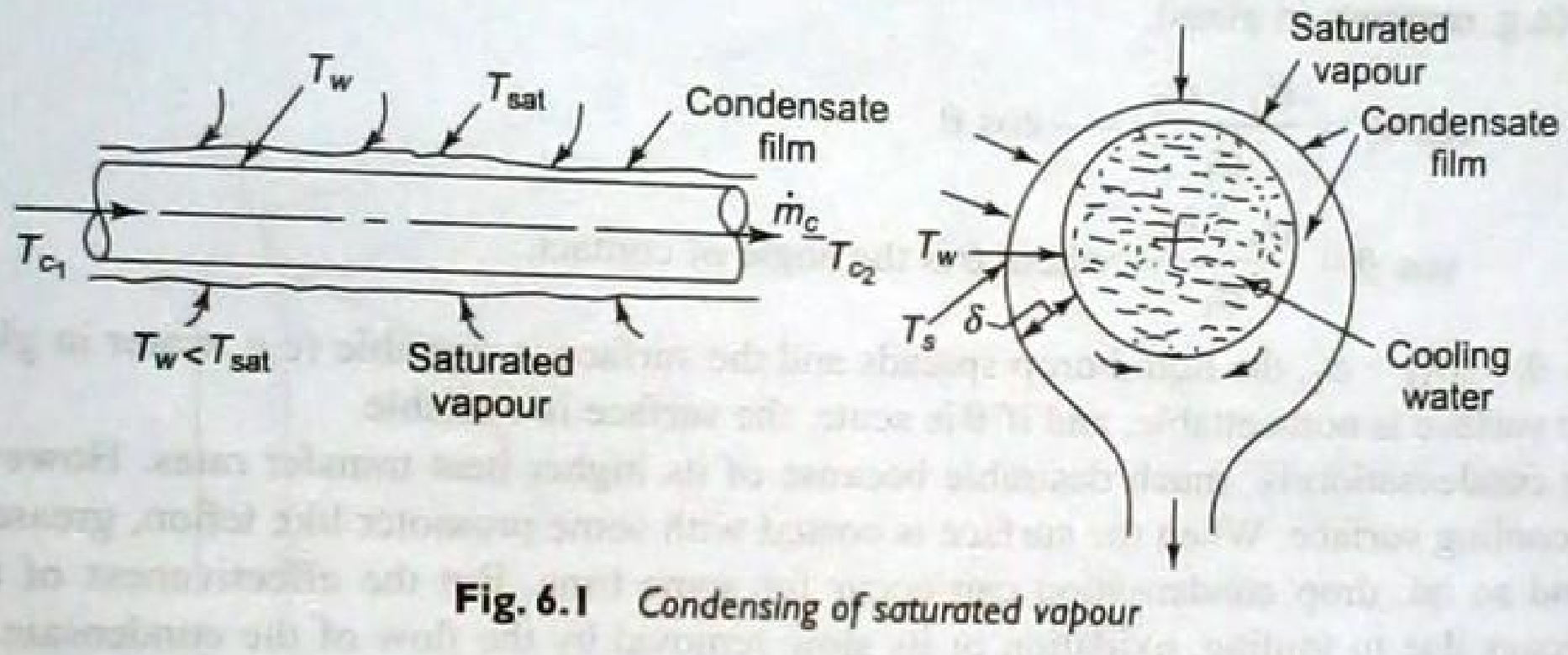


Fig. 6.1 *Condensing of saturated vapour*

6.3 DROPWISE CONDENSATION

In dropwise condensation, vapour condenses on the surface in the form of drops, and consequently a large part of cooling surface is always bare to vapour for undergoing condensation (Fig. 6.2). The rate of heat transfer is many times larger than what is achieved in film condensation. Dropwise condensation occurs on a nonwettable cooling surface where the liquid condensate drops do not spread.

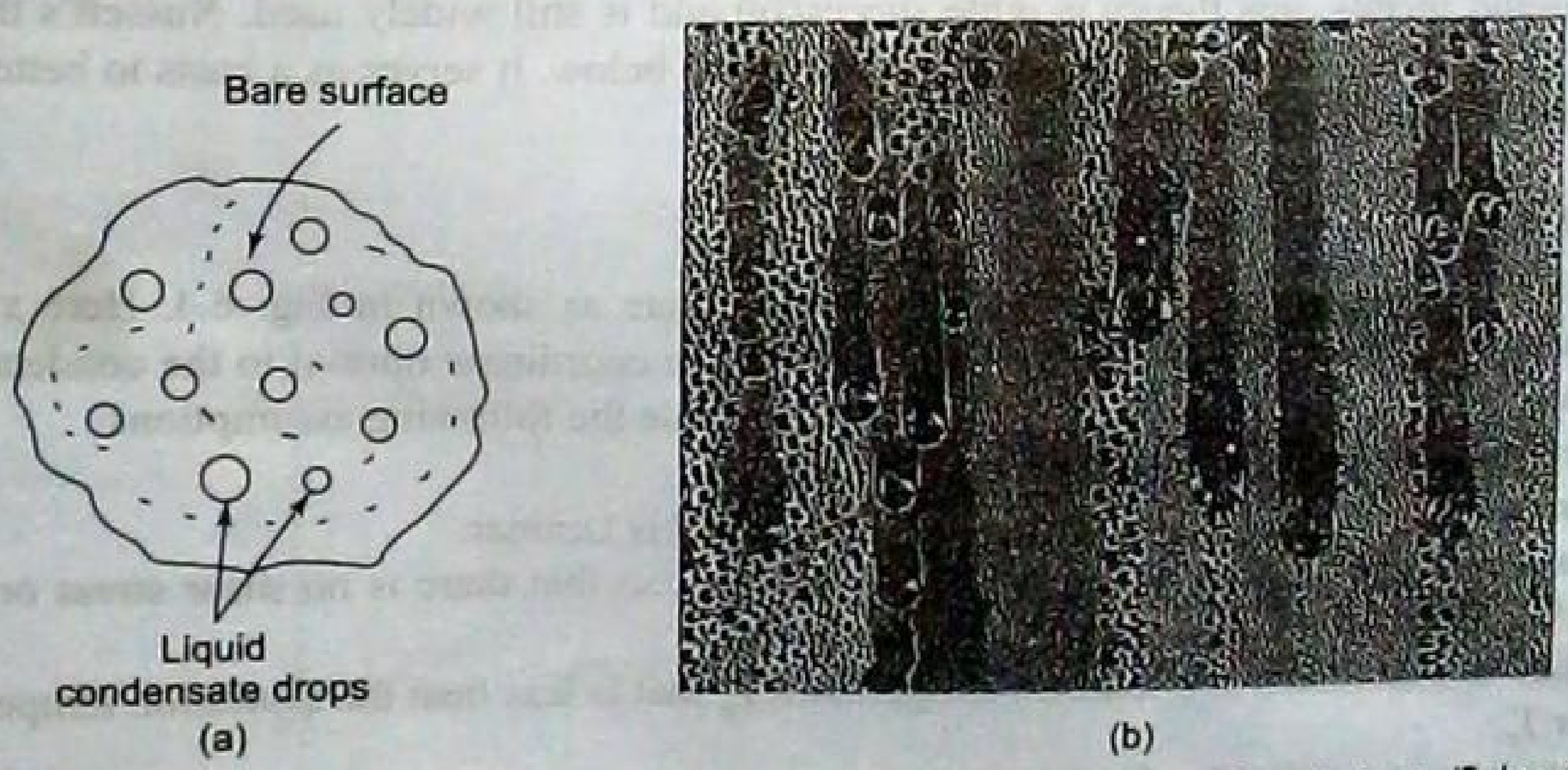


Fig. 6.2 *(a) Drop condensation (b) Steam condensing dropwise on a vertical surface of venyl plastic (Rohsenow and Choi)*

Let us explain briefly what is a wettable or a nonwettable surface. The surface of a liquid always tends towards a minimum. A freely suspended drop of liquid always takes the shape of a sphere which is of the geometrical shape having the minimum surface area for the same volume. This is due to the effect of surface tension. Surface tension always exists whenever there is a discontinuity in the material medium. Mercury in contact with air has a certain surface tension. With water, mercury has another surface tension. Let us consider the equilibrium of a liquid drop on a solid surface (Fig. 6.3), σ being the surface tension as shown.

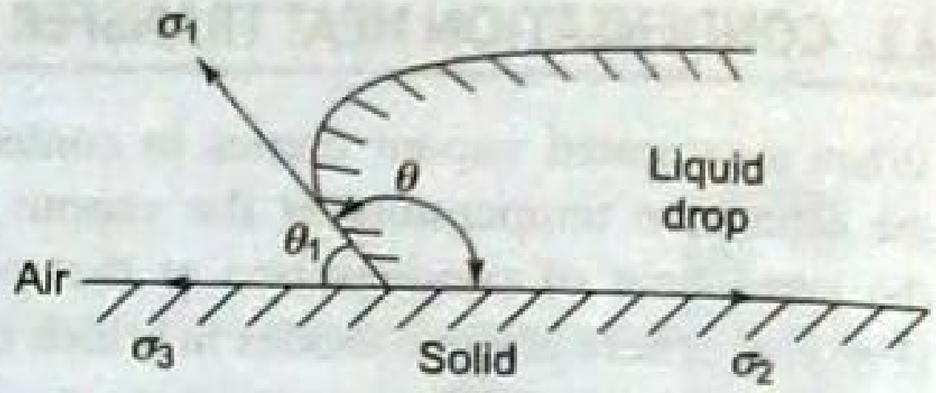


Fig. 6.3 *Equilibrium of a liquid drop on a solid surface*

If $\sigma_1 \cos \theta_1 + \sigma_3 = \sigma_2$, the liquid drop remains in equilibrium and does not spread. The surface is nonwettable (e.g. mercury in glass).

$$\cos \theta_1 = \frac{\sigma_2 - \sigma_3}{\sigma_1} = -\cos \theta$$

or

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\sigma_3 - \sigma_2}{\sigma_1}$$ where θ is the angle of contact.

If $(\sigma_1 \cos \theta_1 + \sigma_3) > \sigma_2$, the liquid drop spreads and the surface is wettable (e.g. water in glass). When θ is obtuse, the surface is nonwettable, and if θ is acute, the surface is wettable.

Dropwise condensation is much desirable because of its higher heat transfer rates. However, it hardly occurs on a cooling surface. When the surface is coated with some promoter like teflon, grease, mercaptan, oleic acid and so on, drop condensation can occur for some time. But the effectiveness of the promoter gradually decays due to fouling, oxidation or its slow removal by the flow of the condensate. Condensers are usually designed on the basis that film condensation would prevail.

6.4 LAMINAR FILM CONDENSATION ON A VERTICAL PLATE

Numerous experimental and theoretical investigations have been conducted to determine the heat transfer coefficient for film condensation on surfaces. The first fundamental analysis in this aspect was given by Nusselt in 1916 [1]. Over the years, improvements have been made on Nusselt's theory. But with the exception of liquid metals, this theory is quite successful and is still widely used. Nusselt's theory of film condensation of pure vapours on a vertical plate is presented below. It serves as a basis to better understand heat transfer during condensation.

6.4.1 Nusselt's Theory

Let us consider condensation of a vapour on a vertical plate as shown in Fig. 6.4. Here x is the axial coordinate, measured downward along the plate, and y is the coordinate normal to the condensing surface. The condensate thickness is represented by $\delta(x)$. Nusselt made the following assumptions:

1. The vapour is pure, dry and saturated.
2. The condensate flow is under the action of gravity and is laminar.
3. The vapour at the liquid–vapour interface is stagnant so that there is no shear stress or drag on the flow of condensate.
4. The plate is maintained at a uniform temperature T_w that is less than the saturation temperature of the vapour T_s.
5. The liquid temperature at the interface is that of saturated vapour.
6. Fluid properties are constant.

7. Heat transfer across the condensate layer is by pure conduction, and the liquid temperature profile is linear.
8. Heat transfer is at steady state.

Let us take a lump of condensate of thickness dx at a distance x from the top of the plate and consider dy portion of this lump. The condensate drains out under the action of mechanical forces. Making a force balance on the element.

$$\Sigma F = F_g + F_\tau + F_p = 0$$

where F_g is the gravity force, F_τ is the shear force and F_p is the pressure force exerted on the element. Here,

$$F_g = \rho\,(b\,dx\,dy)g$$

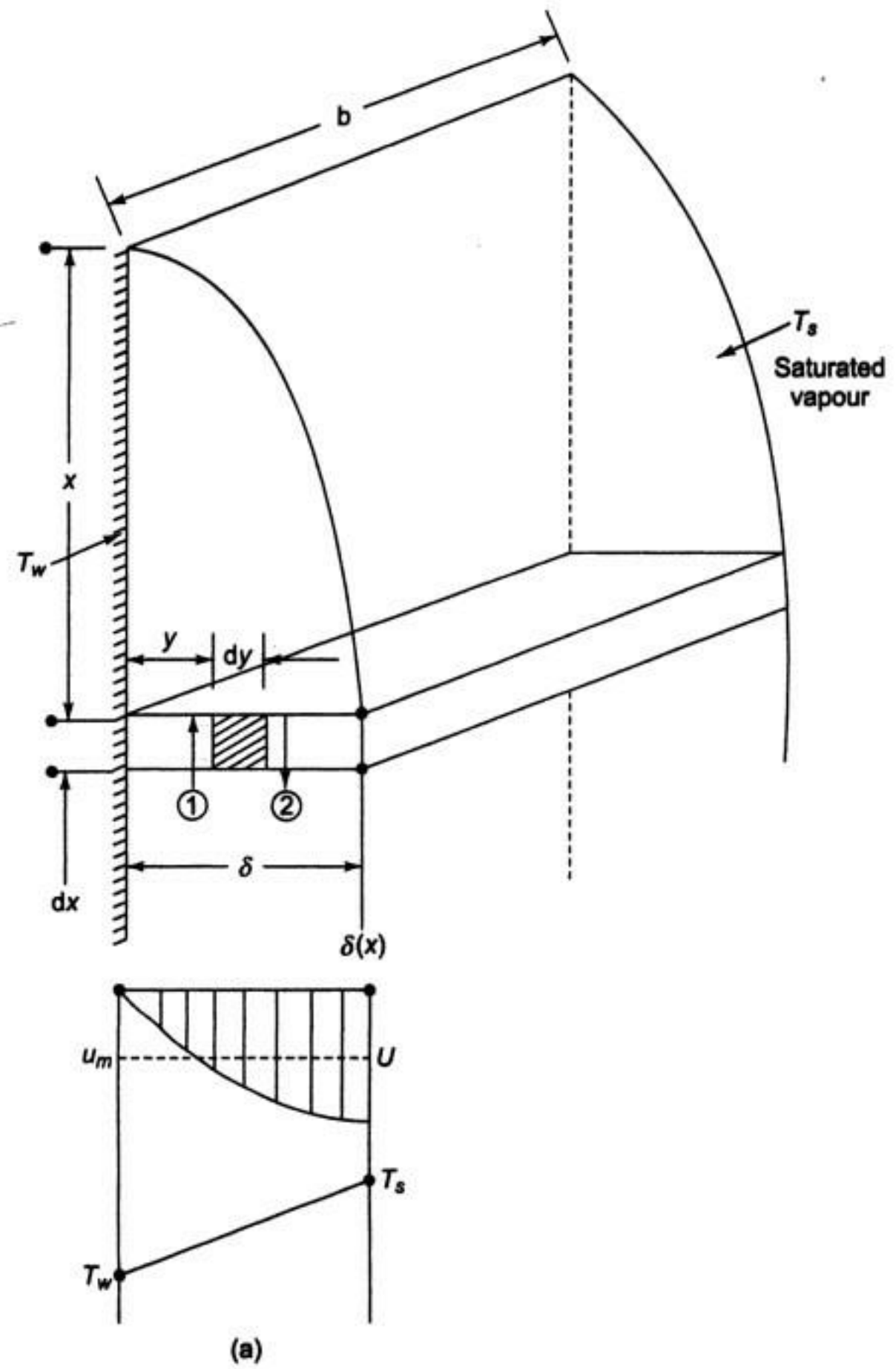


Fig. 6.4 *Film condensation on a vertical surface*

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$$F_\tau = \left[-F_{\tau_1} + F_{\tau_1} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(F_{\tau_1})\,dy\right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left[\left(\mu_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right) b\,dx\right] dy$$

$$F_p = pb\,dy - pb\,dy - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}\,dx b\,dy$$

$$= -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \cdot dx b\,dy$$

On substitution,

$$\rho b\,dx\,dy g + \mu_1 \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2}\,b\,dx\,dy - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}\,b\,dx\,dy = 0$$

or
$$\mu_1 = \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} - \rho g + \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \tag{6}$$

or
$$\mu_1 \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} - \rho g\right) y + B_1 \tag{6}$$

When $y = \delta$, $u = U$, $du/dy = 0$.

$\therefore$
$$0 = \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} - \rho g\right) + B_1$$

$$B_1 = -\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} - \rho g\right)$$

$$\mu_1 \frac{du}{dy} = \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} - \rho g\right)(y - \delta)$$

For $y > \delta$, $p = p_v$, $\rho = \rho_v$, $du/dy = 0$, $\dfrac{\partial p_v}{\partial x} = \rho_v g$.

$$\mu_1 \frac{du}{dy} = (\rho_v - \rho) g\,(y - \delta)$$

$$\mu_1 u = (\rho_v - \rho) g \left(\frac{y^2}{2} - \delta y\right) + B_2$$

When $y = 0$, $u = 0$, and therefore $B_2 = 0$.

$$\mu_1 u = (\rho_v - \rho) g \left(\frac{y^2}{2} - \delta y\right) \tag{6.6}$$

At $y = \delta$, $u = U$ and since $\rho = \rho_l$

$$\mu_1 U = (\rho_l - \rho_v)\, g \left(\delta^2 - \frac{\delta^2}{2}\right)$$

$$= (\rho_l - \rho_v)\, g\, \frac{\delta^2}{2} \tag{6.7}$$

Dividing Eq. (6.6) by Eq. (6.7)

$$\frac{u}{U} = \frac{\delta y - (y^2/2)}{\delta^2/2} = \frac{2y}{\delta} - \frac{y^2}{\delta^2}$$

This is the velocity profile of the condensate across its thickness, which is parabolic.

Let Γ = flow rate of condensate per unit width of plate,

$$= \rho_l \, u_m \, \delta,$$

where u_m is the mean velocity of the condensate.

From Eq. (6.6),

$$u_m = \int_0^\delta u \, dy = \frac{1}{\delta} \int_0^\delta \frac{(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\mu_l} g \left(\delta y - \frac{y^2}{2} \right) dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{\delta} \frac{(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\mu_l} g \left(\delta \frac{\delta^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\delta^3}{3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (\rho_l - \rho_v) \, g \frac{\delta^2}{\mu_l}$$

$$\Gamma = \rho_l \cdot \frac{1}{3} (\rho_l - \rho_v) \, g \frac{\delta^2}{\mu_l} \cdot \delta$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) \frac{g \delta^3}{\mu_l}$$

$$d\Gamma = \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) \frac{g \delta^2}{\mu_l} \, d\delta$$

Now, $$dQ = - kb \, dx \, \frac{T_w - T_s}{\delta} = d\Gamma b h_{fg}$$

where h_{fg} is the latent heat of condensation.

Let $$\theta = T_s - T_w,$$

$$\frac{k\theta \, dx}{\delta} = h_{fg} \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) \, g \frac{\delta^2}{\mu_l} \, d\delta$$

$$\int_0^\delta \delta^3 d\delta = \int_0^x - \frac{k\theta\mu_l}{g\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)h_{fg}} \, dx$$

$$\frac{\delta^4}{4} = \frac{k\theta\mu_l x}{g\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v) \, h_{fg}}$$

$$\delta = \left[\frac{4k\mu_l\theta x}{g\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)h_{fg}} \right]^{1/4} = \delta(x) \qquad (6.10)$$

This is the local film thickness of condensate layer. As x increases, δ increases.

Now,

$$h_x = \frac{k}{\delta} = \left[\frac{k^4 g\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)h_{fg}}{4k\mu_l\theta x}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= \left[\frac{\mathbf{k^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)h_{fg}}}{\mathbf{4k\mu_l\theta x}}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.11}$$

This is the local heat transfer coefficient. As x increases, h_x decreases. It can also be observed that as θ decreases, h_x increases. The local Nusselt number at x is

$$\mathrm{Nu}_x = \frac{h_x x}{k} = \left[\frac{\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gh_{fg}x^3}{4\mu_l k\theta}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.12}$$

The average heat transfer coefficient is given by

$$h_m = \int_0^L h_x \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L \left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)\, gh_{fg}}{4\mu_l\theta x}\right]^{1/4} \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gh_{fg}}{\mu_l\theta}\right]^{1/4} \frac{1}{L}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\int_0^L x^{-1/4}\, \mathrm{d}x$$

$$= \left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gh_{fg}}{\mu_l\theta}\right]^{1/4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\,L}\frac{4}{3}L^{3/4}$$

$$= 0.943\left[\frac{\mathbf{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gh_{fg}}}{\mu_l\theta\mathbf{L}}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.13}$$

where the subscript l represents the liquid condensate.

Since $\rho_l >> \rho_v$,

$$h_m = 0.943\left(\frac{\mathbf{k_l^3\rho_l^2 gh_{fg}}}{\mu_l\theta\mathbf{L}}\right)^{1/4} \tag{6.14}$$

Equations (6.13) and (6.14) are the *Nusselt's equations* for laminar film condensation on a vertical plate, which can also be applied to condensation outside a tube of large diameter. These give conservative values of heat transfer coefficient. McAdams [2] suggested 20% increase over this value so that

$$h_m = 1.13\left(\frac{\mathbf{k_l^3\rho_l^2 gh_{fg}}}{\mu_l\theta\mathbf{L}}\right)^{1/4} \tag{6.15}$$

The bulk temperature of the condensate is always less than saturation temperature and hence, subcooled. If T_B is the bulk temperature, then by energy balance,

$$(\dot{m}h)_{\text{in}} = (\dot{m}h)_{\text{out}}$$

$$\int_0^\delta ub\,\mathrm{d}y c_p T = \int_0^\delta ub\,\mathrm{d}y c_p T_B$$

$$\therefore \qquad T_B = \frac{\int_0^{\delta} Tu\, dy}{\int_0^{\delta} u\, dy}$$

Assuming a linear temperature profile (Fig. 6.4),

$$T = my + C$$

and since the velocity distribution [Eq. (6.5)] is given by

$$u = \left(\frac{2y}{\delta} - \frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right) U$$

Equation (6.16) becomes

$$T_B = \frac{\int_0^{\delta} (my + c) U \left(\frac{2y}{\delta} - \frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right) dy}{\int_0^{\delta} \left(\frac{2y}{\delta} - \frac{y^2}{\delta^2}\right) dy}$$

Numerator

$$= \int_0^{\delta} \left(\frac{2my^2}{\delta} - \frac{my^3}{\delta^2} - \frac{2cy}{\delta} - \frac{cy^2}{\delta^2}\right) dy$$

$$= \frac{2m}{\delta}\frac{\delta^3}{3} - \frac{m}{\delta^2}\frac{\delta^4}{4} + \frac{2c}{\delta}\frac{\delta^2}{2} - \frac{c}{\delta^2}\frac{\delta^3}{3}$$

$$= \frac{5}{12} m\delta^2 + \frac{2}{3} c\delta$$

Denominator

$$= \frac{2}{\delta}\frac{\delta^2}{2} - \frac{1}{\delta^2}\frac{\delta^3}{3} = \delta - \frac{\delta}{3} = \frac{2}{3}\delta$$

$$T_B = \frac{\frac{5}{12} m\delta^2 + \frac{2}{3} c\delta}{\frac{2}{3}\delta} = \frac{5}{8} m\delta + c$$

Again, $T = my + c.$

When $y = 0,\ T = T_w$

$\therefore$ $c = T_w$

When $y = \delta,\ T = T_{sat} = T_s.$

$\therefore$ $T_s = m\delta + c = m\delta + T_w$

$$m = \frac{T_s - T_w}{\delta}$$

Substituting in Eq. (6.19),

$$T_B = \frac{5}{8}(T_s - T_w) + T_w = \frac{5}{8} T_s + \frac{3}{8} T_w$$

$$= T_s - \frac{3}{8}T_s + \frac{3}{8}T_w = T_s - \frac{3}{8}(T_s - T_w)$$

$$= T_s - \frac{3}{8}\theta$$

or $$\mathbf{T_s - T_B = \frac{3}{8}\theta} \tag{6.20}$$

The average enthalpy change during condensation with subcooling,

$$\mathbf{h'_{fg} = h_{fg} + c_{p1}(T_s - T_B) = h_{fg} + \frac{3}{8}c_{p1}\theta} \tag{6.21}$$

Substituting in Eq. (6.13),

$$h_m = 0.943\left[\frac{k_1^3\rho_1(\rho_1 - \rho_v)\, gh'_{fg}}{\mu_1\theta L}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.22}$$

If the surface is inclined at an angle ψ with the horizontal (Fig. 6.5), the average coefficient is

$$h_m = 0.943\left[\frac{k_1^3\rho_1(\rho_1 - \rho_v)gh'_{fg}\,\sin\psi}{\mu_1\theta L}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.23}$$

A modified integral analysis was developed by Rohsenow [3] which shows the temperature distribution slightly curved, the film thickness slightly greater, but the heat transfer rate slightly larger, agreeing better with experimental data.

For Pr > 0.5 and Ja = $(c_{p1}\ \theta/h'_{fg}) < 1.0$, where Ja is the Jakob number, it yields results similar to Eqs (6.13) – (6.15) and (6.22), except that h'_{fg} is replaced by

$$h_{fg} + 0.68\, c_{p1}(T_s - T_w),$$

so that

$$\mathbf{h_m = 0.943\left[\frac{k_1^3\rho_1(\rho_1 - \rho_v)g\,h_{fg}(1 + 0.68\ Ja)}{\mu_1\theta L}\right]^{1/4}} \tag{6.24}$$

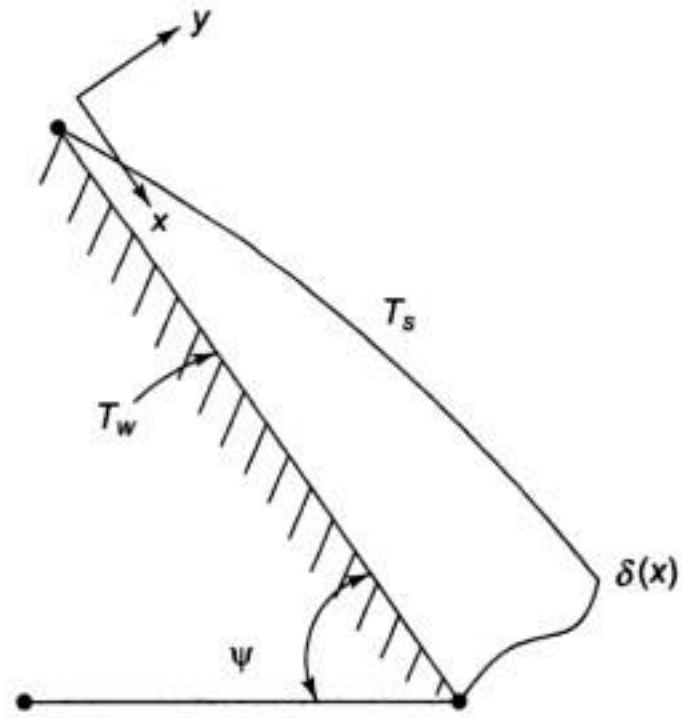


Fig. 6.5 *Filmwise condensation on an inclined plane surface*

Some insight can be gained by writing Eq. (6.13) in terms of commonly used dimensionless products

$$\overline{\mathrm{Nu}} = 0.943\left[\frac{\mathrm{Gr}_L\,\mathrm{Pr}_l}{\mathrm{Ja}}\right]^{1/4}$$

where Gr_L is based on the plate length

$$\mathrm{Gr}_L = \frac{\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gL^3}{\mu_l^2},$$

Pr_l is the liquid Prandtl number, and Ja is the Jakob number defined as

$$\mathbf{Ja = \frac{c_{Pl}(T_s - T_w)}{h_{fg}} = \frac{sensible\ heat}{latent\ heat}}$$

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The Jakob number is a measure of the importance of subcooling, expressing the change in the sensible heat per unit mass of condensed liquid in the film relative to the enthalpy associated with the phase change. The value of Ja is usually small, e.g. for condensation of steam it is of the order of 0.01.

The density change in Grashof number Gr_L is associated with the density change resulting from the change in phase whereas in the conventional Grashof number in natural convection, the density change is associated purely with the temperature changes in the fluid. Obviously, the former is much larger than the latter.

The above analysis is also valid for the inside and outside surfaces of vertical tubes if the tube diameter is larger than the film thickness (Fig. 6.6). It cannot, however, be extended to inclined tubes, where the condensate flow will not be parallel to the tube axis, and the angle of inclination would vary with x.

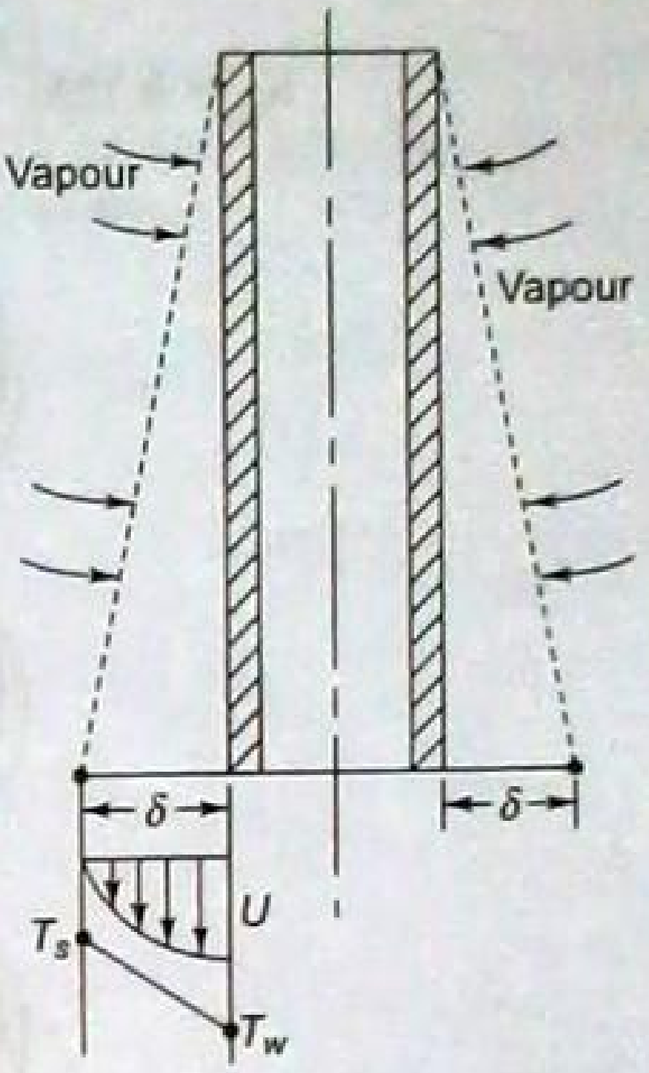


Fig. 6.6 *Film condensation on the outside surface of a vertical tube*

6.5 CONDENSATION ON HORIZONTAL TUBES

The condensate film on the outside of horizontal tubes flows around the tube and off the bottom in a sheet, as shown in Fig. 6.7. The liquid film is very thin so that the above analysis applies here except that g is replaced by $g \sin \phi$ and the average value of h follows from integration over the range of values from 0 to 180°, as given below:

$$h_m = 0.725 \left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) g h'_{fg}}{\mu_l D_0 \theta} \right]^{1/4} \tag{6.25}$$

where D_0 is the outside diameter of the tube. This is the *Nusselt's equation* for film condensation on a horizontal tube.

Therefore, $h_m \propto D_0^{-\frac{1}{4}}$. Smaller D_0 would yield higher h_m. But smaller D_0 means less surface area $\pi D_0 L$ exposed for condensation, and so less heat transfer. Thus there is an optimum tube diameter.

The heat transfer coefficient on a horizontal tube decreases from a maximum value at $\phi = 0$ to essentially zero for $\phi = 180°$. The condensing rate on the upper half of the tube is 46% greater than on the lower half.

Dividing Eq. (6.25) by Eq. (6.13),

$$\frac{(h_m)_H}{(h_m)_V} = \frac{0.725}{0.943} \left(\frac{L}{D_0} \right)^{1/4} = 0.77 \left(\frac{L}{D_0} \right)^{1/4} \tag{6.26}$$

If $L/D_0 = 2.87$, then $(h_m)_H = (h_m)_V$ and, if $L > 2.87\, D_0$, $(h_m)_H > (h_m)_V$.

Therefore, condenser tubes are usually horizontal. Vertical condenser is highly uncommon.

For a bank of horizontal tubes in a vertical tier (Fig. 6.8),

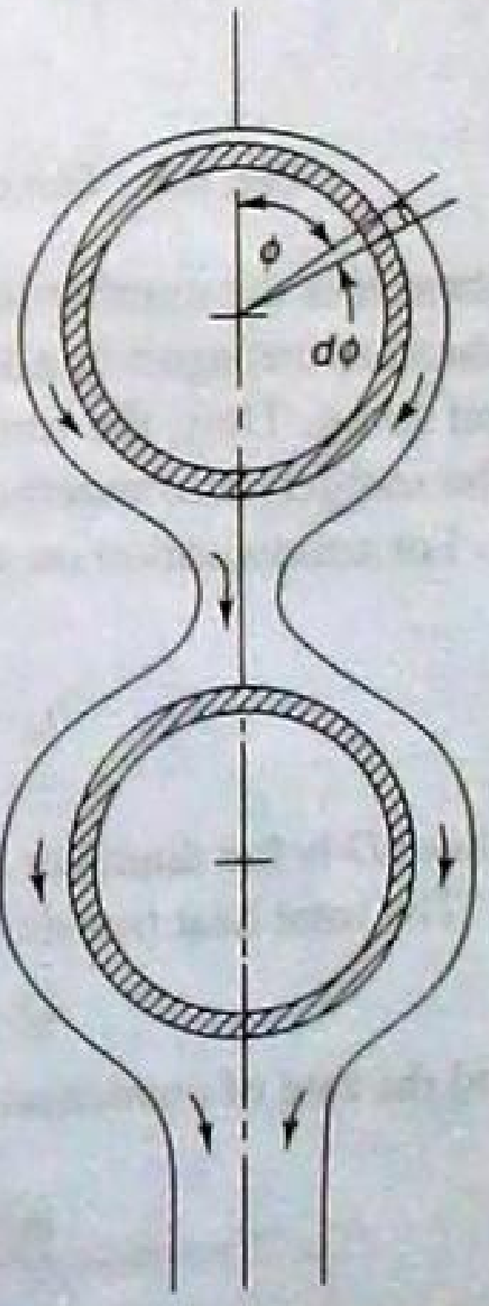


Fig. 6.7 *Condensate film on horizontal tubes*

$$h_m = 0.725\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) g h'_{fg}}{\mu_l N D_0 \theta}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.27}$$

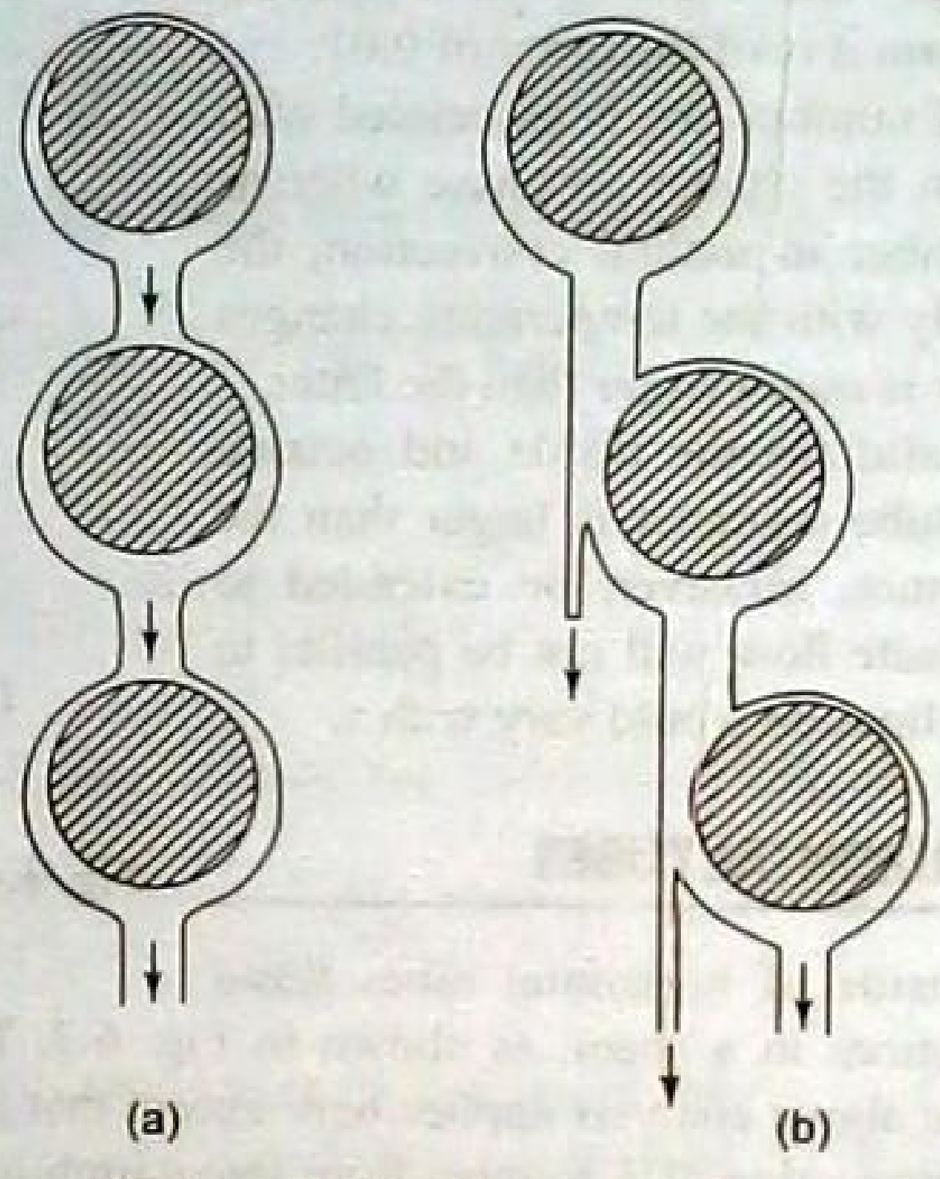


Fig. 6.8 *Film condensation on horizontal tubes (a) in a vertical tier and (b) in staggered arrangement*

where N is the number of tubes in the tier. Thus, $h_m \propto 1/N^{1/4}$. Therefore, as N increases, h_m decreases. If the tubes are arranged in a vertical tier [Fig. 6.8(a)], the condensate from one tube drips on to that of the next, and so on. Thus, the film thickness is greater for the lower tubes, increasing the resistance to heat transfer. The staggered arrangement of tubes [Fig. 6.8(b)], however, gives improved performance.

For condensation on a sphere, it can similarly be shown,

$$h_m = 0.815\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) g h'_{fg}}{\mu_l D \theta}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.28}$$

where D is the diameter of sphere.

The total heat transfer to the surface is

$$Q = h_m A (T_s - T_w) \tag{6.29}$$

and the rate of condensation is

$$\dot{m} = \frac{Q}{h'_{fg}} \tag{6.30}$$

The physical properties of the liquid film should be evaluated at an effective film temperature

$$T_{film} = T_w + 0.25 (T_s - T_w) \tag{6.31}$$

For simplicity, properties of the condensate are often evaluated at the average temperature

$$T_{film} = \frac{T_w + T_s}{2}$$

6.6 CONDENSATION NUMBER

Reynolds number of the condensate flow is very important in determining condensation behaviour. It is often convenient to express the heat transfer coefficient directly in terms of Re.

$$h_m = \frac{1}{L}\int_0^L h_x dx = \frac{4}{3}h_x = \frac{4}{3}\frac{k_l}{\delta} \tag{6.32}$$

From Eq. (6.9), since $\rho_l >> \rho_v$

$$\Gamma = \frac{1}{3}\rho_l^2 \frac{g\delta^3}{\mu_l}$$

$$\therefore \qquad \delta = \left(\frac{3\Gamma\mu_l}{\rho_l^2 g}\right)^{1/3} \tag{6.33}$$

Substituting in Eq. (6.32),

$$h_m = \frac{4}{3}\left(\frac{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g}{3\Gamma\mu_l}\right)^{1/3}$$

The Reynolds number of the condensate film, Re, when based on the hydraulic diameter can be written as

$$\mathbf{Re} = \frac{\mathbf{u_m D\rho}}{\mu} = \mathbf{u_m}\frac{\mathbf{4A}}{\mathbf{P}}\frac{\rho}{\mu} = \frac{4\omega}{\mathbf{P}\mu} = \frac{4\Gamma}{\mu}$$

where the hydraulic diameter $D = 4A/p$; P = wetted perimeter which is πD for vertical tube of outside diameter D, $2L$ for horizontal tube of length L and b for vertical or inclined plate of width b; and A is the cross-sectional area for condensation flow.

The expression for h_m can be written as

$$h_m = \frac{4}{3}\left(\frac{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g}{3\Gamma\mu_l}\frac{4\mu_l}{4\mu_l}\right)^{1/3}$$

Substituting $\mathrm{Re} = 4\Gamma_l/\mu_l$,

$$h_m = \frac{4}{3}\left(\frac{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g}{\mu_l^2}\right)^{1/3}\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{1/3}(\mathrm{Re})^{-1/3}$$

$$\therefore \quad \mathbf{h_m}\left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{\mathbf{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g}}\right)^{1/3} = \mathbf{1.47\,Re^{-1/3}} \tag{6.34}$$

The left hand side of Eq. (6.34) is a dimensionless group, called the *condensation number* Co.

$$\mathbf{Co} = \mathbf{h_m}\left[\frac{\mu_l^2}{\mathbf{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)g}}\right]^{1/3} \tag{6.35}$$

For a vertical plate,

$$\mathbf{Co} = \mathbf{1.47\,Re^{-1/3}} \tag{6.36}$$

Similarly, for a horizontal tube, Eq. (6.25) can be expressed in the following form,

$$h_m \left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g} \right)^{1/3} = 1.51 \, Re^{-1/3} \tag{6.37}$$

6.7 TURBULENT FILM CONDENSATION

Just as a fluid flowing over a surface undergoes a transition from laminar to turbulent flow, in the same way the motion of the condensate becomes turbulent when its Reynolds number exceeds a critical value of 2000.

For Re > 2000, Colburn's relation [4] can be used

$$h_x = 0.056 \left(\frac{4\Gamma}{\mu_l} \right)^{0.2} \left(\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g}{\mu_l^2} \right)^{1/3} (Pr_l)^{1/2} \tag{6.38}$$

We obtain average values of heat transfer coefficient, using Eq. (6.13) for $4\Gamma/\mu_l < 2000$ and Eq. (6.38) for $4\Gamma/\mu_l > 2000$. The results are plotted as solid lines in Fig. 6.9, where some experimental data are also shown. The heavy dashed line is an empirical curve recommended by McAdams [2].

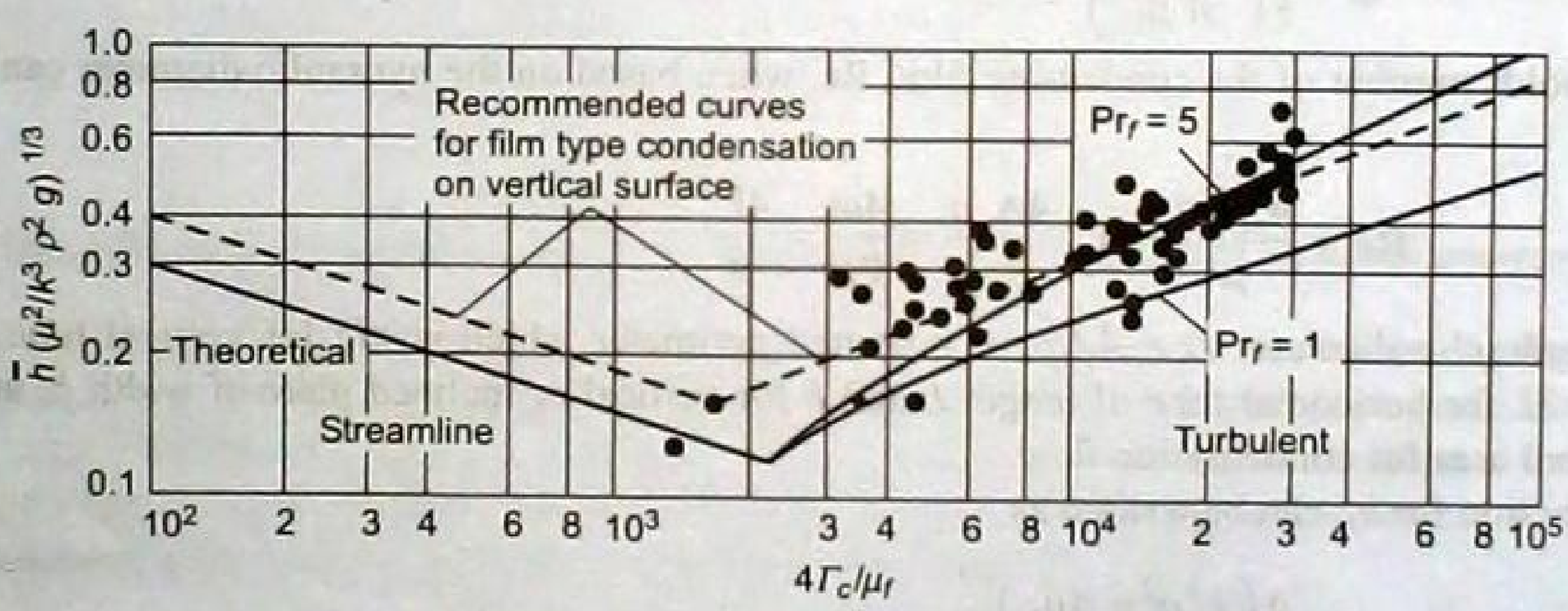


Fig. 6.9 *Effect of turbulence in film on heat transfer with condensation*

Turbulent flow of condensate is hardly ever reached on a horizontal tube, where flow is almost always laminar, but it may occur on the lower part of a vertical surface, when h_m becomes larger due to turbulence with larger length. Kirkbride [5] proposed the following empirical correlation for film condensation on a vertical plate after the start of turbulence.

$$h_m \left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g} \right)^{1/3} = 0.0077 \, (Re)^{0.4} \tag{6.39}$$

6.8 EFFECT OF HIGH VAPOUR VELOCITY

Nusselt's assumption on condensation film theory is that the vapour is stagnant at the interface, and there is no frictional drag between the condensate and the vapour. This approximation is not valid when the vapour velocity is substantial compared with the condensate velocity at the liquid–vapour interface. When the vapour flows upward, it adds a retarding force to the viscous shear and causes the film thickness to increase. When the vapour flows downward, the film thickness decreases and the heat transfer coefficient increases and is

larger than that predicted from Eq. (6.13). In addition, the transition from laminar to turbulent flow occurs at about $Re_d = 300$ when the vapour velocity is high. Carpenter and Colburn [6] correlated their experimental data for condensation with high vapour velocity,

$$\frac{h_m}{c_{p_l} G_m} \, Pr_l^{1/2} = 0.046 \left(\frac{\rho_l}{\rho_v} \right) f \tag{6.40}$$

where G_m = mean value of mass velocity of the vapour, kg/m^2 s

$$= \left[\frac{G_1^2 + G_1 G_2 + G_2^2}{3} \right]^{1/2}$$

G_1 = mass velocity at the top of the tube,

G_2 = mass velocity at the bottom of the tube,

f = pipe friction coefficient evaluated at the average vapour velocity = $\tau_w / (G_m^2 / 2\rho_v)$

τ_w = wall shear stress, N/m^2

All physical properties of Eq. (6.40) are evaluated at a reference temperature of $(0.25T_s + 0.75T_w)$.

6.9 EFFECT OF SUPERHEATED VAPOUR

When the vapour is superheated and the wall temperature of the cold surface is also above the saturation temperature, no condensation occurs, and the vapour simply cools down, becoming less superheated. However, if the wall temperature is less than saturation temperature and the liquid–vapour interface remains at saturation, the condensation rate is only slightly increased by greater superheat since the enthalpy change is larger as given below.

$$h''_{fg} = c_v (T_v - T_s) + h_{fg} + \frac{3}{8} c_l (T_s - T_w) \tag{6.41}$$

where c_v is the specific heat of vapour. For superheated vapour, in Eqs (6.22) and (6.23), h'_{fg} is replaced by h''_{fg}, which yields slightly higher value of heat transfer coefficient. The heat transfer rate is calculated by

$$\frac{Q}{A} = h(T_s - T_w) \tag{6.42}$$

since $(T_s - T_w)$ is still the driving force for heat transfer across the liquid condensate film. The condensate rate is calculated from

$$\frac{w}{A} = \frac{1}{h''_{fg}} \left(\frac{Q}{A} \right) \tag{6.43}$$

6.10 EFFECT OF NON-CONDENSABLE GAS

When a condensable vapour is condensing in the presence of a non-condensable gas, the vapour must diffuse through the gas, requiring a decrease in vapour partial pressure toward the liquid–vapour interface. Using Dalton's law of partial pressure,

$$p = p_v + p_a$$

where p_v is the vapour pressure and p_a is the partial pressure of say, air, which is the non-condensable gas. Thus, the interface saturation temperature is significantly below the temperature of the main vapour–gas mixture (Fig. 6.10). The combined mass and heat transfer process requires a lengthy trial-and-error calcula-

tion to account for this effect (Bailey *et al*). As the mixture of saturated vapour and air comes in contact with the cooling surface, vapour condenses into liquid, but air being non-condensable remains in the gas phase in the form of an air film adjacent to the condensate film, through which heat released gets conducted and the vapour diffuses to the cooling surface, thus affecting both heat transfer and mass transfer. The heat transfer coefficient decreases sharply from the presence of this non-condensable gas; even 0.5% mass of air can decrease it by a factor of 2. The non-condensable gas like air not only blankets the cooing surface and offers a high thermal resistance (k of air being low), but also inhibits the mass transfer of vapour by offering diffusional resistance. In a steam condenser of a power plant, air which leaks into the shell is continuously driven out by a steam jet air ejector to improve the condenser performance.

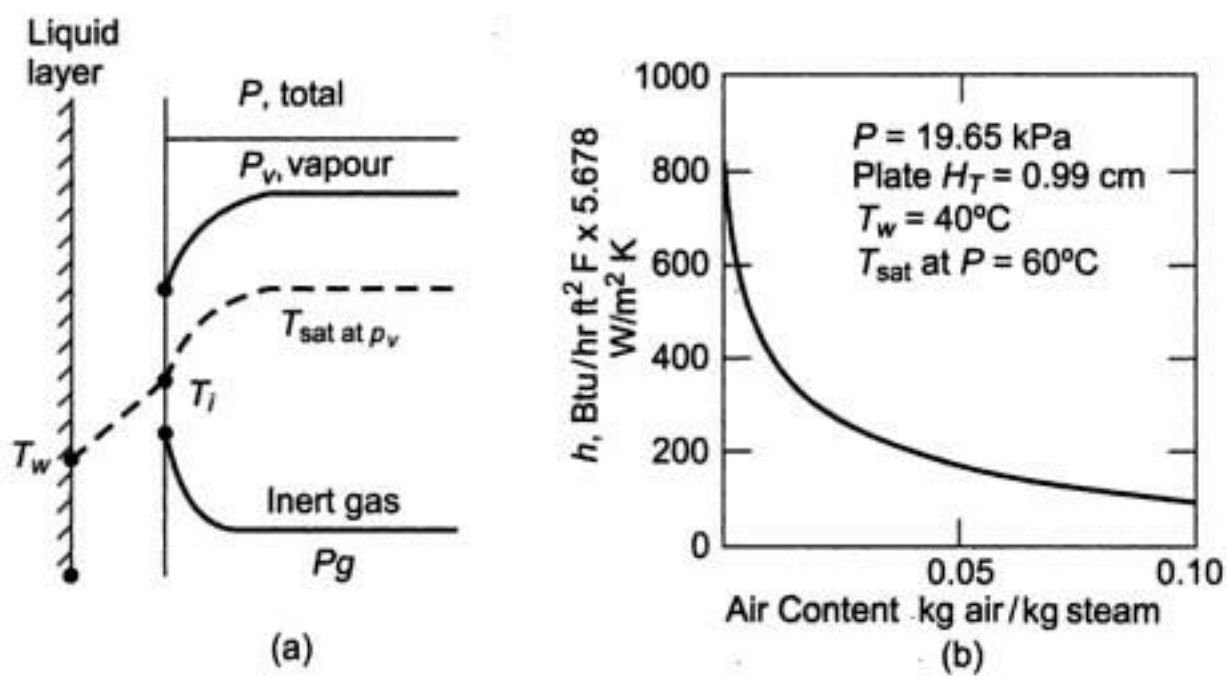


Fig. 6.10 *Effect of non-condensable gas on heat transfer coefficient for condensing vapour*

6.11 FILM CONDENSATION INSIDE HORIZONTAL TUBES

For refrigeration and air conditioning systems, condensers often involve condensation inside horizontal or vertical tubes. Conditions within the tube are complicated and greatly depend on the vapour velocity inside the tube. If the vapour velocity is small, the condensate flow is from the upper portion of the tube to the bottom, from which it flows in a longitudinal direction with the vapour [Fig. 6.11(a)]. For low vapour velocities such that

$$\mathrm{Re}_{v,i} = \left(\frac{\rho_v u_{m,v} D}{\mu_v} \right) < 35{,}000$$

where i refers to the tube inlet, Chato [7] recommends the following equation

$$\bar{h}_D = 0.555 \left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l (\rho_l - \rho_v) g h'_{fg}}{\mu_l \theta D} \right]^{1/4} \tag{6.44}$$

where $$h'_{fg} = h_{fg} + \frac{3}{8} c_{p_l} \theta.$$

At higher vapour velocities the two-phase flow regimes become annular [Fig. 6.11(b)]. The vapour occupies the core of the annulus, diminishing in diameter as the thickness of the outer condensate layer increases in the flow condition, the details being given by Rohsenow [8].

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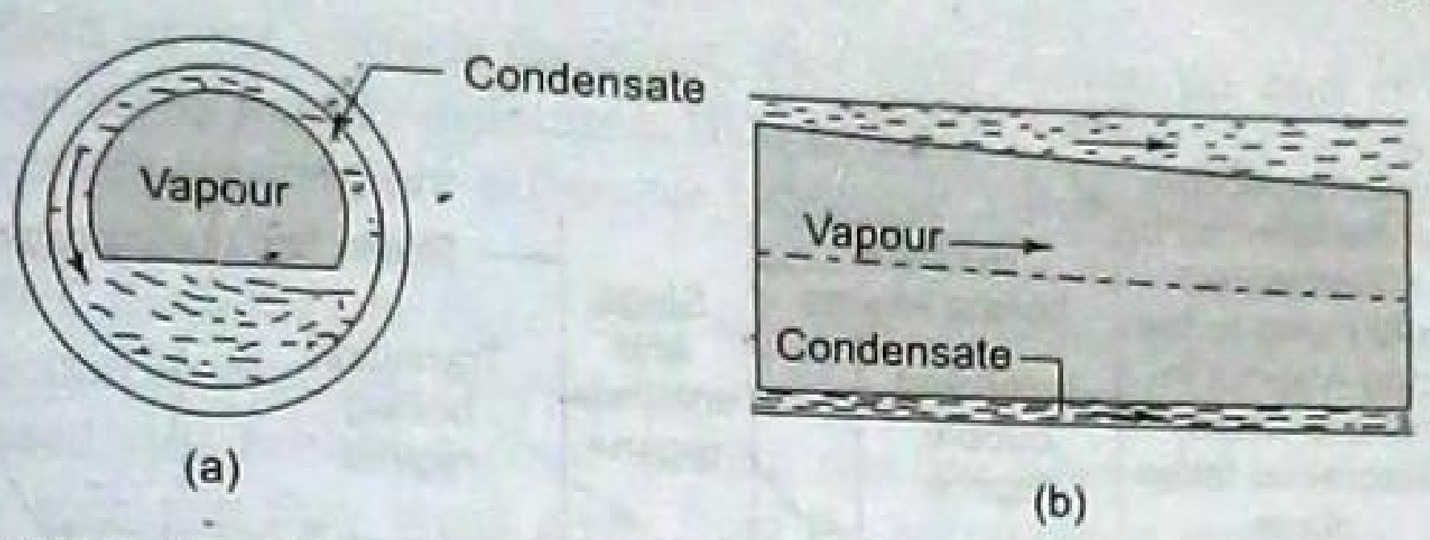


Fig. 6.11 *Film condensation in a horizontal tube. (a) Cross-section of condensate flow for low vapour velocities. (b) Longitudinal section of condensate flow for large vapour velocities*

6.12 BOILING HEAT TRANSFER

Heat transfer to boiling liquids is a convection process which involves a change of phase from liquid to vapour. In a boiling process, the average liquid temperature may remain well below the saturation temperature (T_s) with the wall temperature (T_w) above saturation thus producing "local" boiling at the wall with subsequent condensation in the colder bulk of the liquid. This is known as *subcooled boiling*. Boiling in a liquid at saturation temperature is known as *saturated or bulk boiling*.

In some designs of evaporators the heating surface is submerged beneath a free surface of liquid. This is known as *pool boiling*. When the liquid flows through a tube with subcooled or saturated boiling, this bounded convection process is called *forced-convection boiling*, even though circulation may occur either by density difference or by a pump in a fluid circuit.

We begin with a discussion of the different regimes of boiling, without superimposed forced convection. Although boiling is a familiar phenomenon, it is an extremely complicated process, difficult to analyse due to the many variables involved. We then focus our attention on nucleate boiling, including peak heat flux, which is of great engineering interest. There has been considerable progress in gaining a physical understanding of the boiling mechanism. By observing the boiling phenomena with the aid of high-speed photography it has been found that there are distinct regimes of boiling in which heat transfer mechanisms differ radically.

6.13 REGIMES OF BOILING

The existence of different regimes of boiling was first discussed by Nukiyama [9]. To acquire a physical understanding of the various regimes of boiling we would consider the heating of distilled water at one atmosphere on an electrically heated nichrome tube (Fig. 6.12). The heating surface is submerged in the liquid. The boiling process in this situation is referred to as *pool boiling*. Heat flux q_w is determined from measured voltage and current and the surface area of the tube, and temperatures of the tube wall surface (T_w) and the bulk liquid (T) are measured by thermocouples as shown. The electrical energy input is controlled by the variable rheostat. A typical boiling curve is shown in Fig. (6.13). As current flows, the wall temperature T_w increases. Heat is transferred from wall to the fluid.

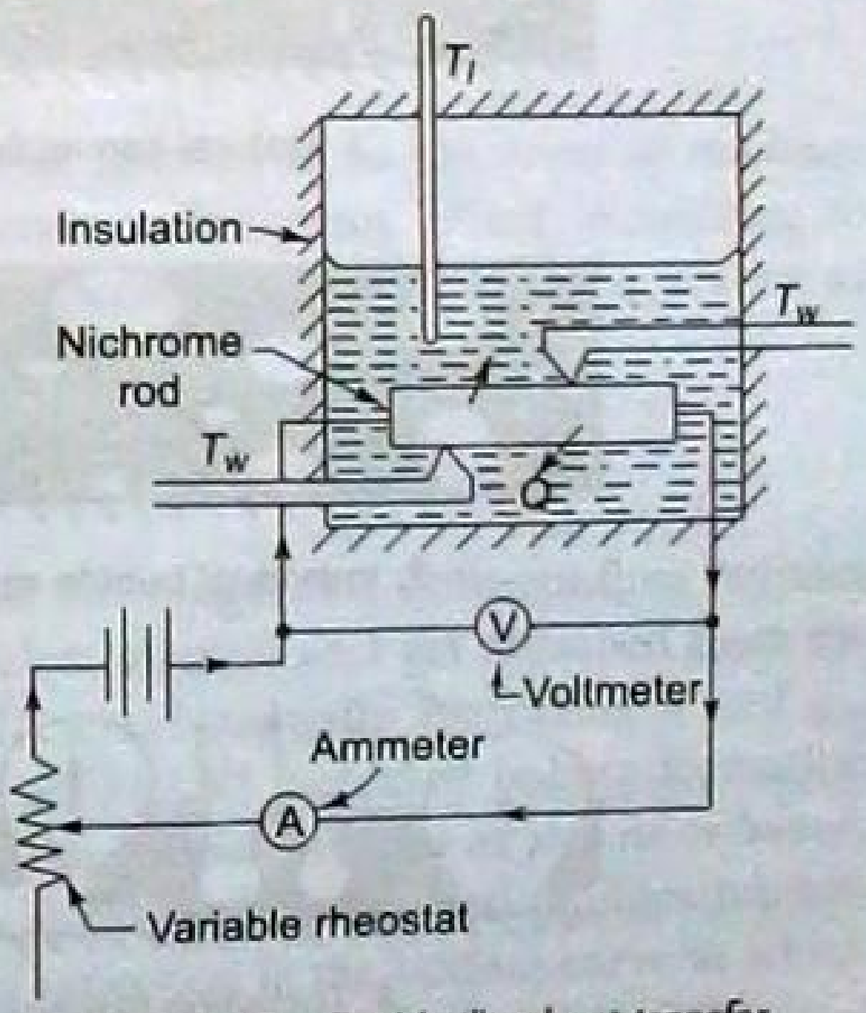
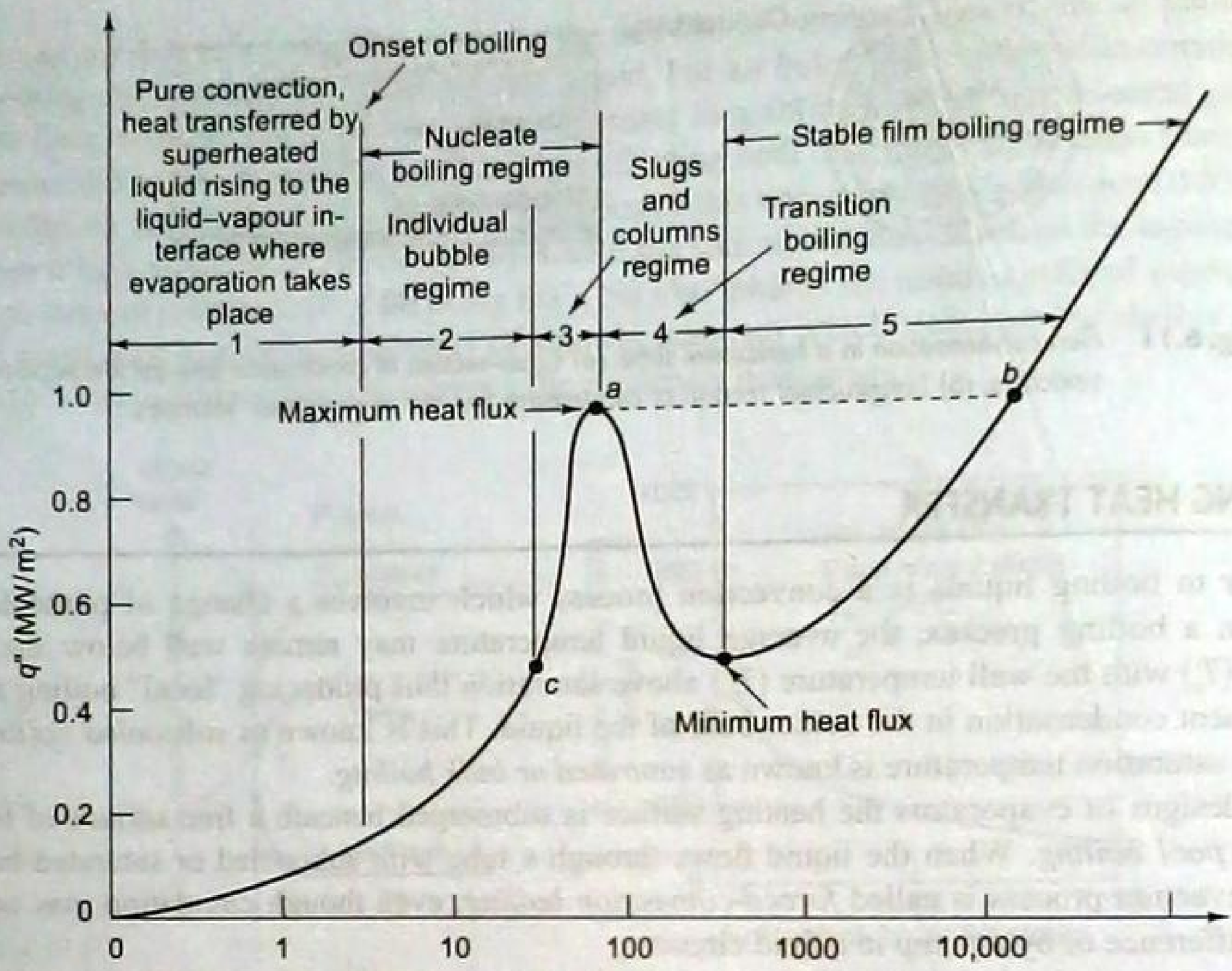
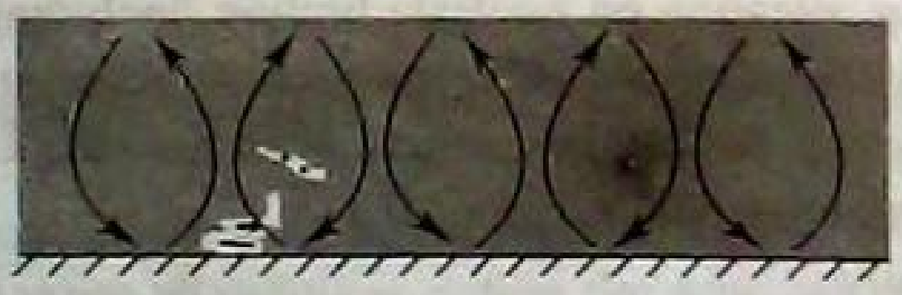
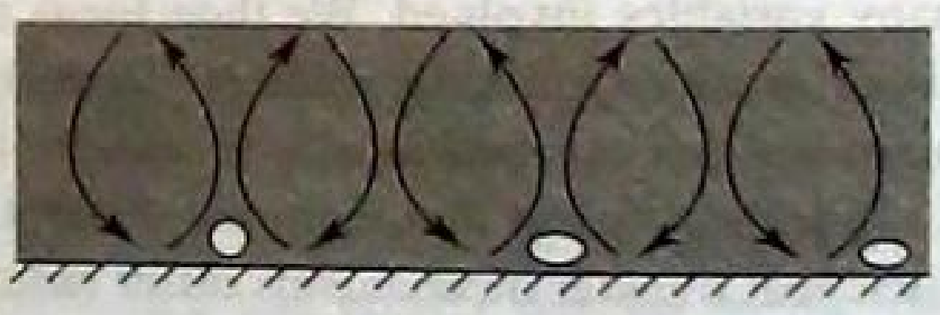


Fig. 6.12 *Pool boiling heat transfer*

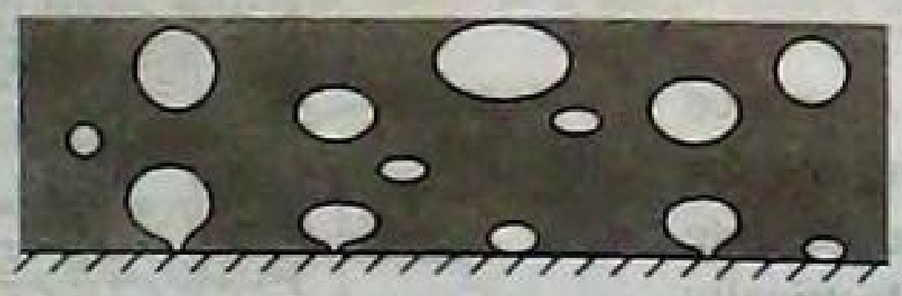




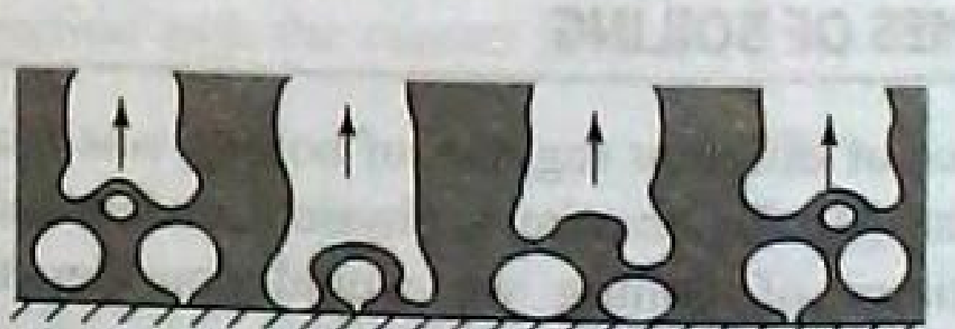
1. Natural convection



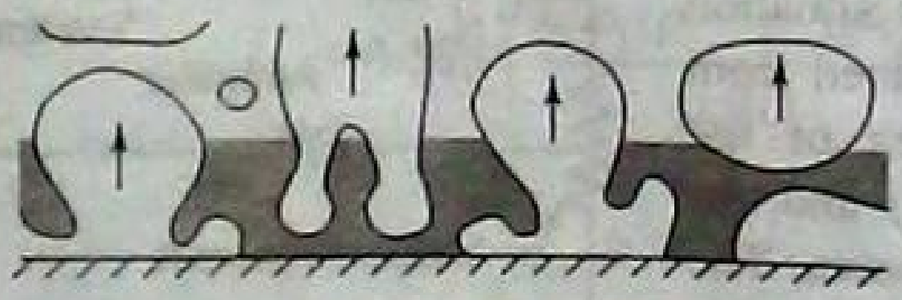
Onset of boiling



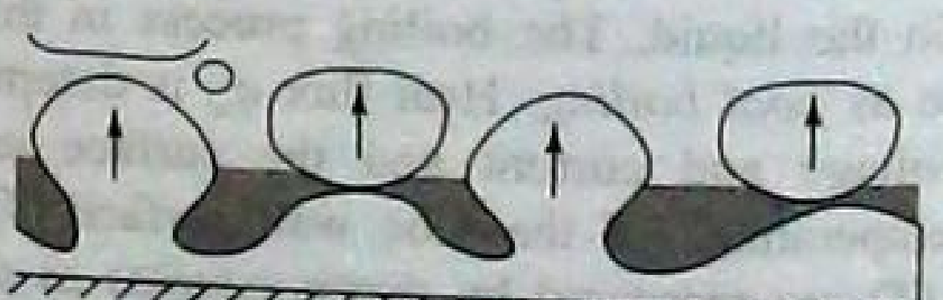
2. Individual bubble regime



3. Regime of slugs and bubbles



4. Transition film-boiling



5. Stable film boiling

Fig. 6.13 *Typical boiling curve for pool boiling of water at saturation temperature and atmospheric pressure with schematic representation of each boiling regime*

The density of the fluid at the surface decreases. Hot fluid moves up and cold fluid descends. A circulation current is set up by density difference. Heat transfer is by natural convection. If there is more energy input, there is more temperature difference or excess temperature ΔT_e between the surface and the fluid.

When $T_w > T_{sat}$ (100°C for water) the liquid layer adjacent to the heating surface is superheated, which is carried away by convection current, and evaporation of liquid occurs from the free surface.

When T_w is increased still further, a point is soon reached when the energy levels of some liquid molecules become so high that they break away from the surrounding molecules, get transformed from liquid to vapour nuclei and ultimately form vapour bubbles at some favoured spots, called *nucleation sites*. At first the number and size of bubbles are small, and these bubbles rise up and condense in the liquid before reaching the interface.

With more electrical energy input when T_w is increased further, the bubbles gradually grow in size and become more in number. They rise up and reach the interface before condensing. There will be evaporation of liquid at the interface.

When T_w is further increased, the bubbles coalesce with one another on the heating surface, to form an unstable vapour film which continually collapses and re-forms.

With further increase in temperature T_w, the bubble formation becomes vigorous and a stable vapour film is developed on the heating surface through which heat is conducted. As temperature T_w still increases, the properties of vapour change, to slowly increase h and hence heat flux q_w. With still increasing temperature, radiation gradually predominates, till the heating element reaches the burnout point and melts away to snap the electrical circuit.

6.13.1 Modes of Pool Boiling

The different modes or regimes of pool boiling are shown in Fig. 6.14, which is known as *Farber-Scorah boiling curve* [10]. It pertains to water at 1 atm, although similar trends characterise the behaviour of other fluids. Since $q_w = h\,(T_w - T_s) = h\,\Delta T_e$, where ΔT_e is the *excess temperature* of the wall over the saturation temperature (T_s), different boiling regimes may be delineated according to the value of ΔT_e.

Natural Convection Boiling (0–A)

It is said to exist if $\Delta T_e < \Delta T_{e,A}$, where $\Delta T_{e,A} \equiv 5$°C. Below point A, referred to as the *onset of nucleate boiling* (ONB), the fluid motion is mainly due to density difference or buoyancy effect. According to whether the flow is laminar or turbulent, $h \propto (\Delta T_e)^{1/4}$ or $(\Delta T_e)^{1/3}$, respectively, in which case q_w varies as $(\Delta T_e)^{5/4}$ or $(\Delta T_e)^{4/3}$.

Nucleate Boiling (A–C)

It exists in the range $\Delta T_{e,A} \leq \Delta T_{e,A} \leq \Delta T_{e,C}$, where $\Delta T_{e,C} \equiv 30$°C. In this range, two different flow regimes may be distinguished. In region A–B, isolated bubbles form at nucleation sites and get detached from the surface. This separation induces good fluid mixing near the surface, substantially increasing h and q_w. As ΔT_e is increased beyond $\Delta T_{e,B}$, more nucleation sites become active and increased bubble formation causes bubble interference and coalescence. In the region B–C, the vapour escapes as *jets or columns*, which later merge into slugs of the vapour. Interference between the densely populated bubbles inhibits the motion of the liquid near the surface. Point P corresponds to an inflection in the boiling curve at which the heat transfer coefficient is maximum. Then h starts decreasing with increasing ΔT_e, although q_w (= h ΔT_e) continues to increase. This trend occurs because for $\Delta T_e > \Delta T_{e,P}$, the relative increase in ΔT_e exceeds the relative reduction in h. At point C, however, further increase in ΔT_e is balanced by the decrease in h.

The maximum heat flux $q_{w,C} = q_{max}$ is termed as the *critical heat flux* (CHF), and in water at atmospheric pressure it exceeds 1 MW/m^2.

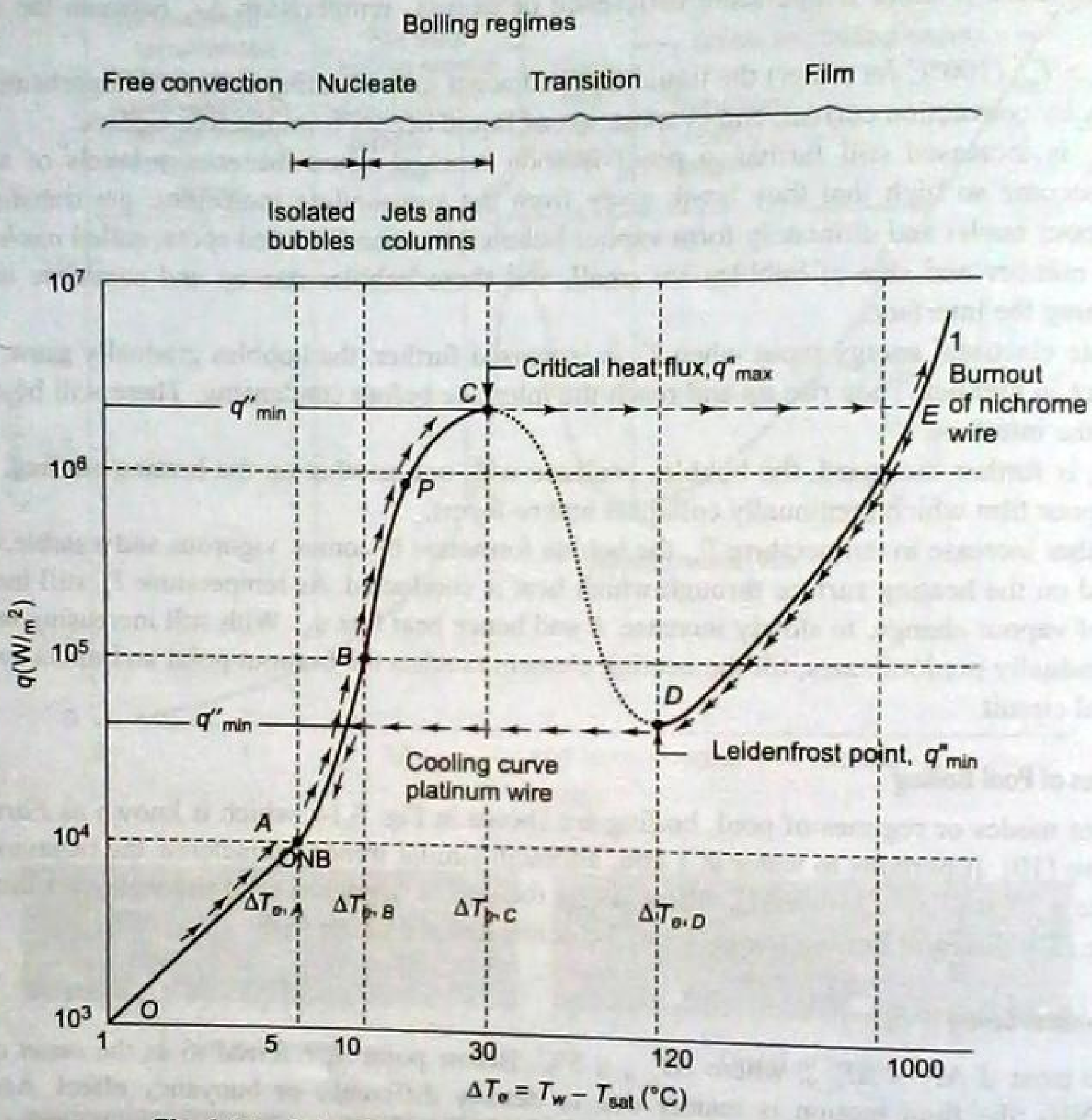


Fig. 6.14 *Farber-Scorah boiling curve showing different boiling regimes*

With further increase in power, the heat flux increased to very high level, for a value slightly larger than q''_{max}, the wire temperature jumped to the melting point and burnout occurred. However, repeating the experiment with a platinum wire having a higher melting point of 2045 K compared to that of nichrome at 1500 K, Nukiyama was able to maintain heat fluxes above q''_{max} without burnout. When he subsequently reduced the power, the variation of ΔT_e with q'' followed the *cooling curve* of Fig. 6.14. When the heat flux reached the minimum point q''_{min}, a further decrease in power caused the excess temperature to drop abruptly, and the process followed the original heating curve back to the saturation point.

Partial Film Boiling (C–D)

The heat flux rate is very high in nucleate boiling because of agitating motion of bubbles. The formation of increasing number of bubbles forms an unstable film, the thermal conductivity of which is very low. The portion of the surface covered by vapour bubbles at any instant is effectively insulated.

So long as the agitating motion of bubbles predominates over the insulating effects of the film, the heat flux rate continues to increase. But when the insulating effects overshadow the effect of fluid agitation, the heat flux rate decreases with increasing temperature, which happens in *partial film boiling*, *transition boiling* or *unstable film boiling* (*C–D*). In this region $\Delta T_{e,C} \leq \Delta T_e \leq \Delta T_{e,D}$, where $\Delta T_{e,D} = 120°C$. Bubble formation is so rapid that bubbles coalesce to form a vapour film on the surface. This vapour film is unstable, continually forming, collapsing and re-forming, and the conditions oscillate between film boiling and nucleate boiling. The fraction of the total surface covered by the film increases with increasing ΔT_e. Since the thermal conductivity of the vapour is much less than that of the liquid, h and q_w must decrease with increasing ΔT_e.

Film Boiling (D–E)

It exists for $\Delta T_e \geq \Delta T_{e,D}$. At point D of the boiling curve, called the *Leidenfrost point*, the heat flux is a minimum, $q_D = q_{min}$, and the surface is completely covered by a vapour blanket. Heat transfer from the surface to the liquid occurs by conduction through the stable vapour film. Water drops falling on a very hot solid surface get immediately separated from the latter by a vapour film and move about it before slowly boiling away—a phenomenon first observed by Leidenfrost in 1756. As the surface temperature is increased, heat flux slowly increases because of increasing h. Then the heating surface becomes glowing and radiation effect gradually predominates, the heat flux rapidly increasing with ΔT_e.

Figure 6.15 illustrates the nature of the vapour formation and bubble dynamics associated with nucleate boiling, transition boiling and film boiling of methanol on a horizontal tube.

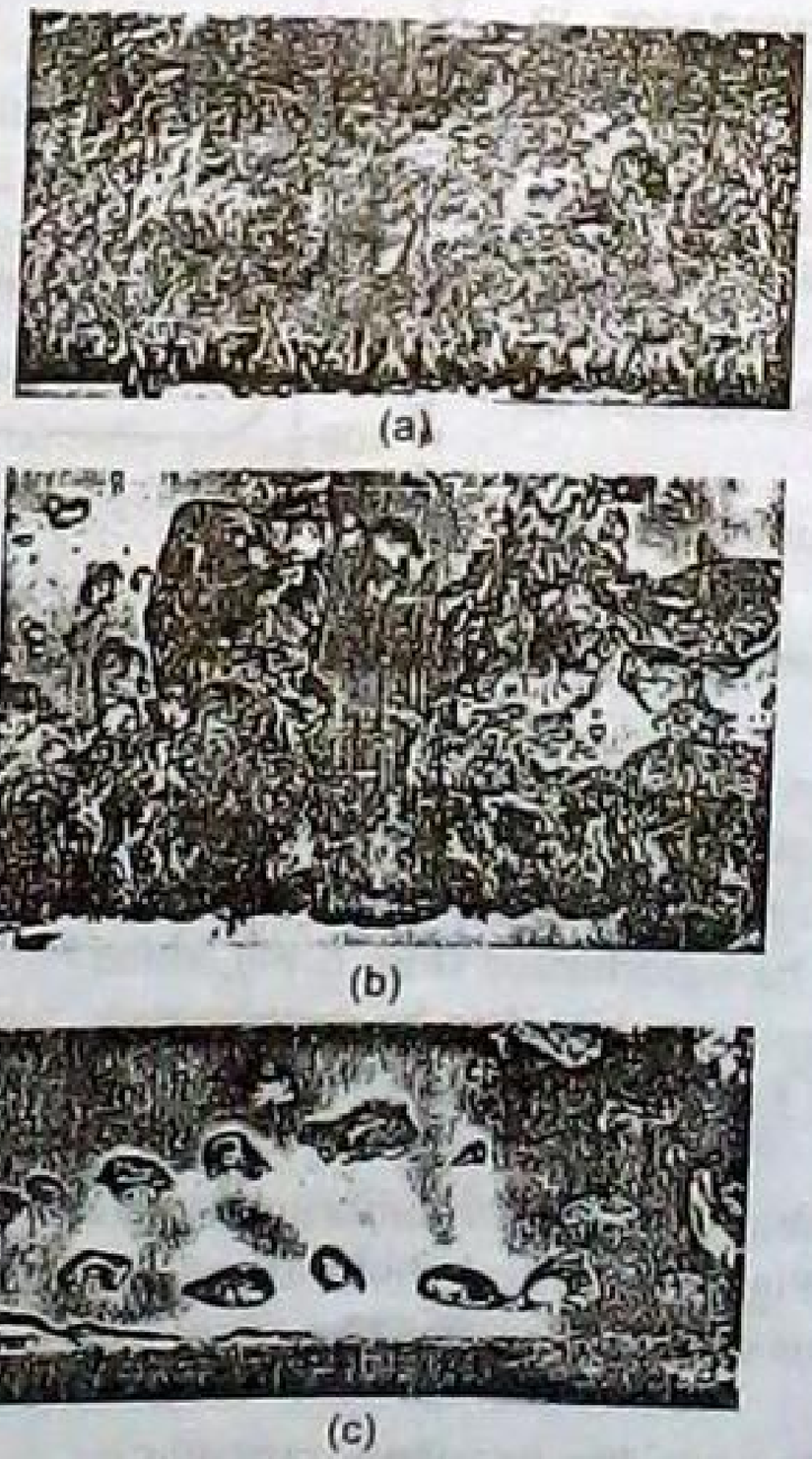


Fig. 6.15 *Boiling of methanol on a horizontal tube: (a) Nucleate boiling in the jets and columns, (b) Transition boiling and (c) Film boiling*

The foregoing discussion of the boiling curve assumes that control may be maintained over T_w by controlling q_w (as in a nuclear reactor or in an electric resistance heating device). If we start at point B, say, in Fig. 6.16 and gradually increase q_w, the value of ΔT_e, and hence the value of T_w, will also increase, following the boiling curve to point C. However, any increase in q_w beyond this point will induce a sharp departure from the boiling curve in which surface conditions change abruptly from $\Delta T_{e,C}$ to $\Delta T_{e,E} = T_{w,E} - T_s$, T_s being the saturation temperature. Since $T_{w,E}$ may exceed the melting point of the solid, destruction or failure of the system may occur. For this reason point C is often called the *burnout point* or the *boiling crisis* indicating the onset of *departure from nucleate boiling* (DNB). The accurate knowledge of *critical heat flux (CHF)*, $q_{w,C} = q_{max}$ is required. It is desired to operate the heat transfer surface close to this value, but it is dangerous to exceed it.

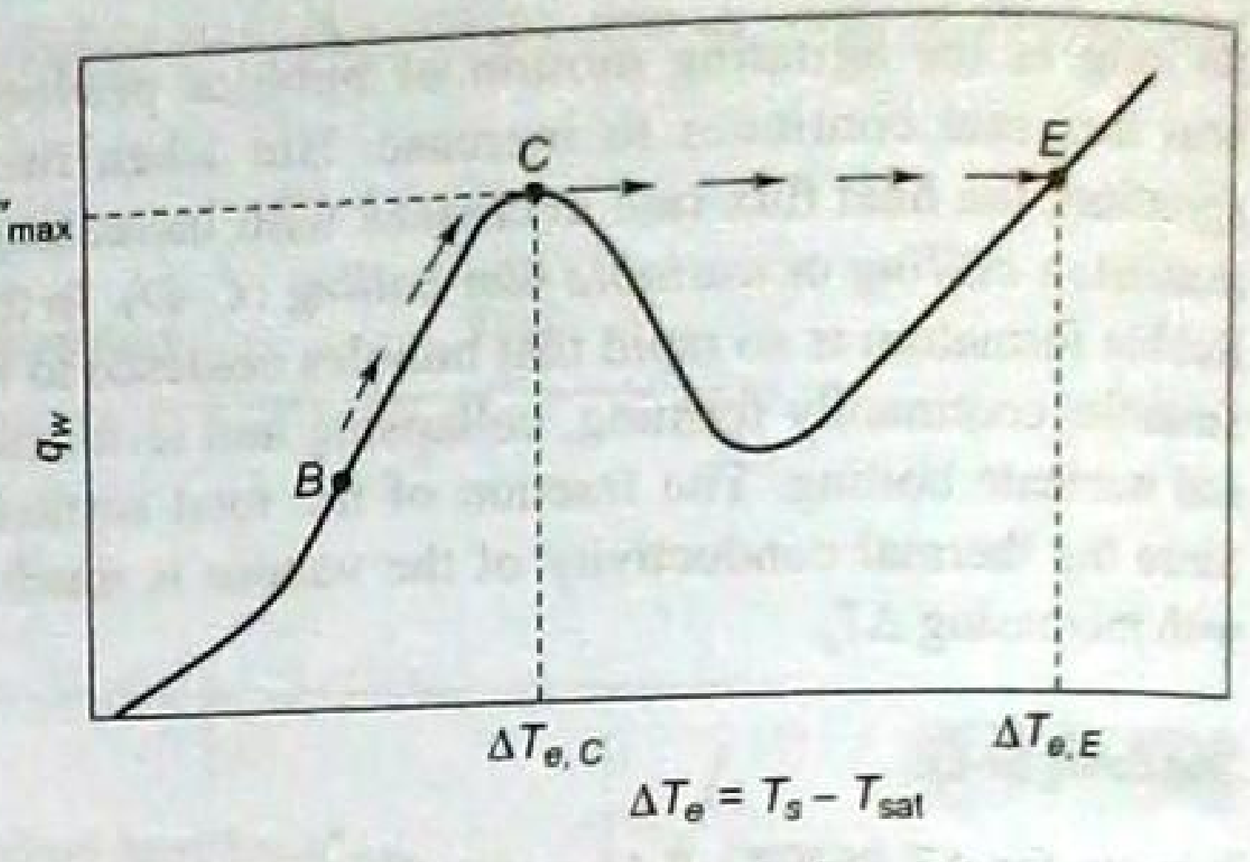


Fig. 6.16 *Onset of the boiling crisis*

6.14 NUCLEATE BOILING

Nucleate boiling is of most importance in boiling heat transfer. Film boiling is always to be avoided. Nucleate boiling involves two separate processes—the formation of bubbles (nucleation) and the subsequent growth and motion of these bubbles.

Two conditions are required to be fulfilled for bubbles to form:

1. The liquid at the heating surface must be superheated.
2. There must be dissolved gases present to form the nuclei of bubbles.

Nucleation starts when T_w is only a few degrees above T_{sat}. Bubbles form at some favoured spots, called nucleation sites, on the heating surface. The liquid layer immediately adjacent to the heating surface will be at the same temperature and hence be superheated (Fig. 6.17), since $T_w > T_{sat}$. Therefore, nucleation requires liquid to be superheated. Bubbles always originate on the heating surface where the liquid superheat is maximum.

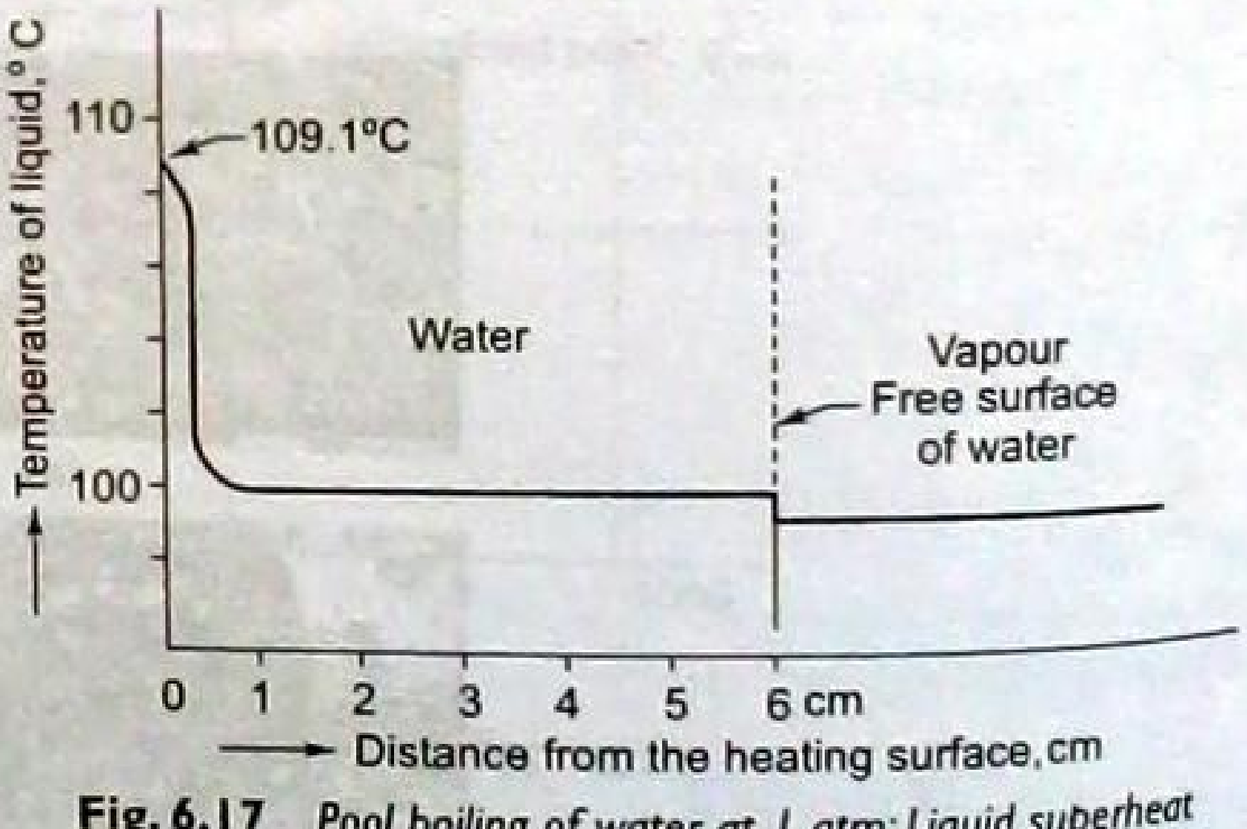


Fig. 6.17 *Pool boiling of water at 1 atm: Liquid superheat*

Let us consider a vapour dubble in thermal equilibrium with a liquid at uniform temperature (Fig. 6.18). The bubble of radius r is split into two halves and let us consider the equilibrium of one half.

Forces acting on the plane 1–1 are due to vapour pressure p_v, the liquid pressure p_l and the surface tension σ, so that

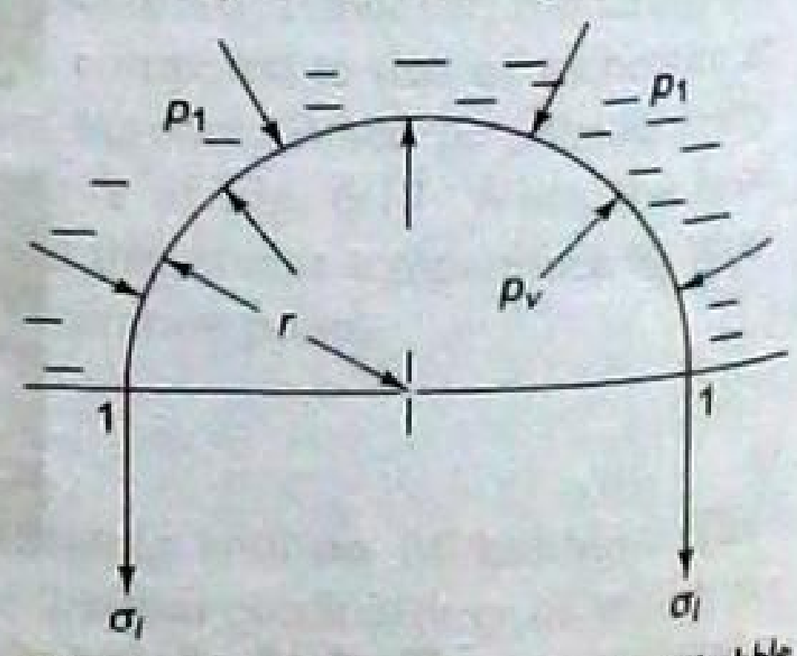


Fig. 6.18 *Force balance on a half-bubble*

$$\pi r^2 (p_v - p_l) = 2\pi r\sigma$$

or
$$\mathbf{p_v - p_l = \frac{2\sigma}{r}} \tag{6.45}$$

If T_v is the saturation temperature of the vapour, then at equilibrium, since $p_l < p_v$ and $T_{liq} = T_v$, the liquid temperature must be superheated with respect to the liquid pressure. In other words,

$$p_l < p_v$$
$$(T_l)_{sat} < (T_v)_{sat}$$
$$T_l > (T_l)_{sat} \tag{6.46}$$

The Clausius–Clapeyron equation with the ideal gas approximation relates T and v along the saturation line as

$$\mathbf{\frac{dp}{dT} \cong \frac{h_{fg}\rho_v}{T_v} \cong \frac{h_{fg}p_v}{R_v T_v^2}} \tag{6.47}$$

where R_v is the gas constant of the vapour.

Since $(p_v - p_l) \equiv (T_v - T_{sat})\, dp/dT$, we can combine Eqs (6.45) and (6.47) to get

$$\mathbf{T_v - T_{sat} = \frac{2R_v T_{sat}^2 \sigma}{h_{fg} P_i r}} \tag{6.48}$$

If $(T_{liq} - T_{sat})$ is greater than $(T_v - T_{sat})$ calculated from Eq. (6.48), a bubble of radius r will grow; if smaller, the bubble will collapse.

It is seen from Eq. (6.45) that smaller the radius of the bubble, more will be $(p_v - p_l)$, and more will be the amount of superheat. In other words, liquid superheat at the heating surface is maximum and the bubble size is minimum. As liquid superheat decreases towards interface, bubbles grow in size. If $r = 0$, $(p_v - p_l) = \infty$. In order for a bubble to grow without a nucleus, the initial pressure difference must be infinitely large. Thus, it is *impossible for a bubble to form without a nucleus*. Air or dissolved (trapped) gases in the liquid become the nuclei of bubbles.

Inert gas molecules like air are usually present in a liquid. A surface contains many cavities, and bubbles form at a heated surface from cavities which already have some gas or vapour present which are called *active cavities*. When heat is added, the vapour pocket in an active cavity grows by evaporation at the liquid–vapour interface near the heated wall, as shown in Fig. 6.19(a). In a liquid at or near the saturation temperature, the bubble grows and detaches, trapping vapour in the cavity, as shown in Fig. 6.19(b). This trapped vapour is the nucleus of the next bubble. Usually a bubble encompasses many cavities before it detaches. Thus, this vapour-trapping process can induce an inactive cavity into activity.

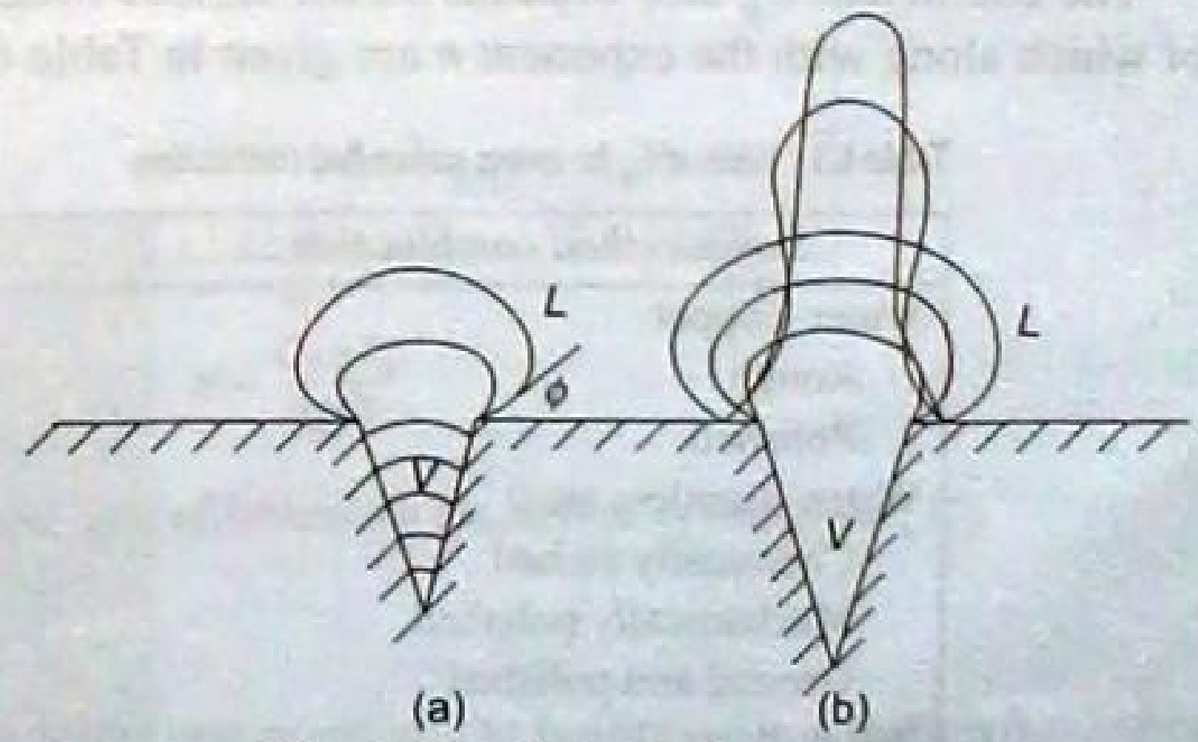


Fig. 6.19 *Nucleation from cavities*

If in addition to the vapour at p_v, a gas at partial pressure p_g is present in a bubble at equilibrium, Eqs (6.45) and (6.48) are modified as follows:

$$p_v - p_l = \frac{2\sigma}{r} - p_g \tag{6.49}$$

$$T_v - T_{sat} \equiv \frac{RT_{sat}^2}{h_{fg} P_l}\left(\frac{2\sigma}{r} - P_g\right) \qquad (6.5$$

Equation (6.50) indicates that less liquid superheat is required when non-condensable gas is present the bubble. It is for this reason that ordinary tap water boils more easily than distilled water.

6.15 CORRELATIONS OF BOILING HEAT TRANSFER DATA

The phenomena of boiling heat transfer are more complex than those associated with single-phas convection. A single equation could not possibly correlate the data over the entire range of ΔT_e represente in Fig. 6.14, since the fluid flow patterns differ so radically in the various regimes.

The analysis of nucleate boiling requires prediction of the number of nucleation sites and the rate which bubbles originate from each site. Yamagata *et al.* [12] showed that

$$q_w = C(\Delta T_e)^a n^b \qquad (6.51$$

where n is the site density (active nucleation sites per unit area) and the exponents are approximatel $a = 1.2$ and $b = 1/3$.

Using experimental data on pool boiling as a guide, Rohsenow [12] correlated the relevant data in th following form to predict the heat flux for nucleate pool boiling.

$$q_w = \mu_l h_{fg}\left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\sigma}\right]^{1/2}\left(\frac{c_{p,l}\,\Delta T_e}{C_{sf} h_{fg} Pr_l^n}\right)^3 \qquad (6.52$$

where $c_{p,l}$ = specific heat of saturated liquid, J/kg K; h_{fg} = latent heat of vaporisation, J/kg; g = gravitational acceleration, m/s^2; q_w = heat flux, W/m^2; ρ_l = density of saturated liquid, kg/m^3; ρ_v density of saturated vapour, kg/m^3; σ = surface tension of the liquid–vapour interface, N/m; Pr_l = Prandtl number of saturated liquid; μ_l = viscosity of the liquid, kg/ms; n = 1.0 for water, 1.7 for other fluids; and C_{sf} = empirical constant that depends on the nature of the heating surface–fluid combination.

The coefficient C_{sf} also depends on the surface roughness, i.e., the number of nucleation sites, the values of which along with the exponent n are given in Table 6.1 for various surface–fluid combinations.

Table 6.1 *Values of C_{sf} for various surface-fluid combinations*

Surface–fluid combination	C_{sf}	n
Water–copper		
Rough	0.0068	1.0
Polished	0.0130	1.0
Water–Stainless steel		
Chemically etched	0.0130	1.0
Mechanically polished	0.0130	1.0
Ground and polished	0.0060	1.0
Water–brass	0.0060	1.0
Water–nickel	0.0060	1.0
Water–platinum	0.0130	1.0
n-Pentane–copper		
Polished	0.0154	1.7
Lapped	0.0049	1.7
Benzene–chromium	0.101	1.7
Ethylalcohol–chromium	0.0027	1.7

The Rohsenow correlation is valid only for clear surfaces. Any contamination would affect C_{sf} and
Since $q_w \propto (\Delta T_e)^3$ a small error in ΔT_e causes a large error in q_w. Figure 6.20 shows Rohsenow's correlati
of Addoms' data [13] for boiling of water using Eq. (6.52). Collier [14] recommends the followi
correlation which is simpler to use:

$$q_w = 0.000481\, \Delta T_e^{3.33}\, p_{cr}^{2.3} \left[1.8 \left(\frac{p}{p_{cr}} \right)^{0.17} + 4 \left(\frac{p}{p_{cr}} \right)^{1.2} + 10 \left(\frac{p}{p_{cr}} \right)^{10} \right]^{3.33} \qquad (6.5$$

where the excess temperature ΔT_e is in °C, p is the operating pressure in atm, p_{cr} is the critical pressure i
atm and q_w is in W/m^2.

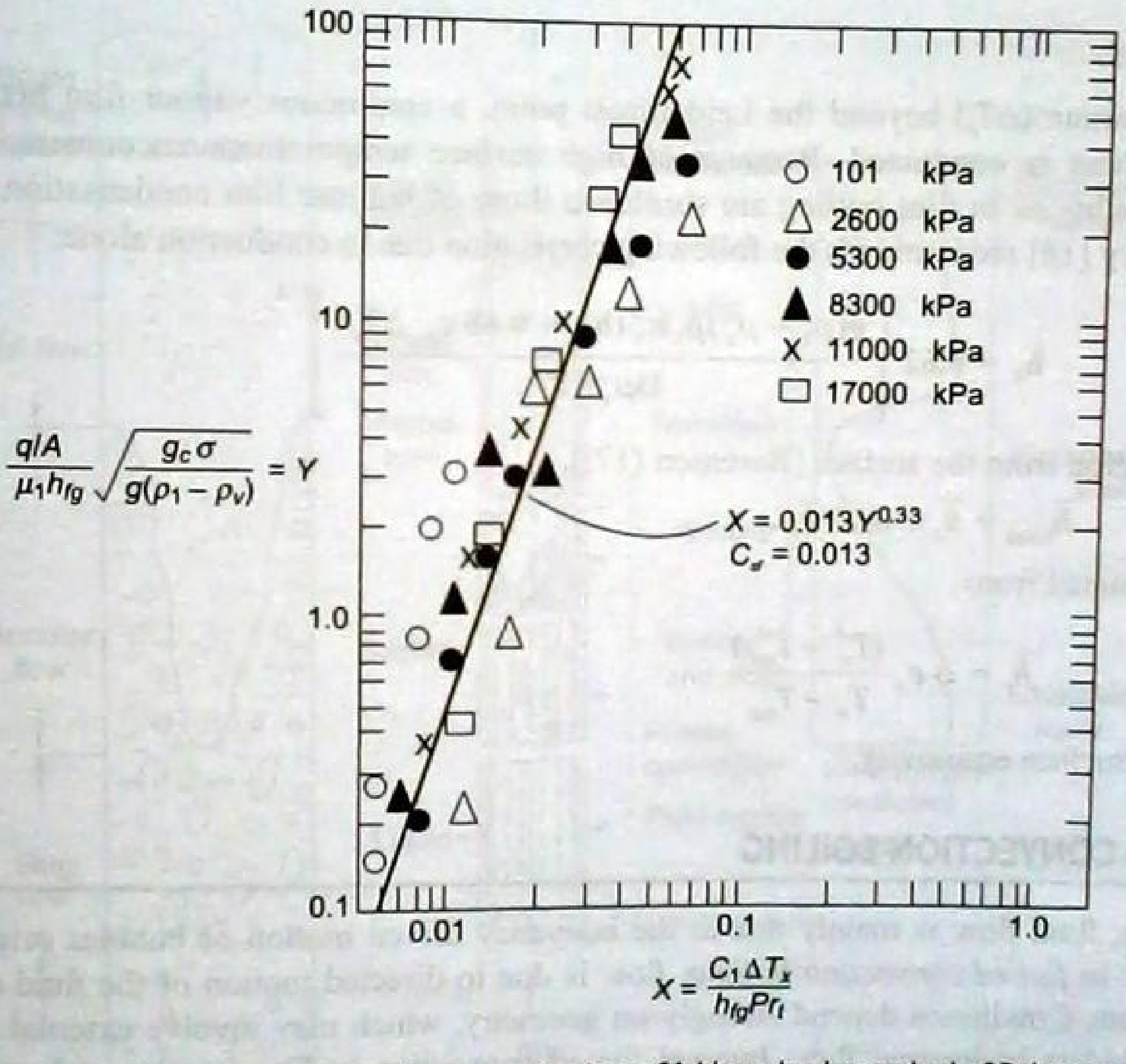


Fig. 6.20 *Correlation of pool boiling heat transfer data of Addoms by the method of Rohsenow [10]*

Critical Heat Flux

The critical heat flux (CHF) $q_{w,C} = q_{max}$ represents an important point on the boiling curve. Following Zuber [15], the following expression can be used to estimate q_{max}.

$$\mathbf{q_{max} = 0.149\, h_{fg}\, \rho_v \left[\frac{\sigma g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\rho_v^2} \right]^{1/4}} \qquad (6.54)$$

which greatly depends on pressure.

Minimum Heat Flux

The transition boiling regime is of little practical interest, as it may be obtained only by controlling the surface heater temperature. The onset of stable vapour film and the minimum heat flux condition are important, because if the heat flux drops below this minimum, the film will collapse and nucleate boiling will be re-established. Zuber [15] used stability theory to derive the following expression

$$q_{min} = C\rho_v h_{fg}\left[\frac{g\sigma(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{(\rho_l + \rho_v)^2}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.55}$$

where $C = 0.09$, as determined by Berenson [17].

Film Pool Boiling

At excess temperature (ΔT_e) beyond the Leidenfrost point, a continuous vapour film blankets the surface through which heat is conducted. Because of high surface temperatures encountered, film boiling is avoided. The conditions in film boiling are similar to those of laminar film condensation. For film boiling on tubes, Bromley [16] recommends the following correlation due to conduction alone:

$$\bar{h}_c = 0.62\left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)\rho_v k_v^3 (h_{fg} + 0.68\, c_{p_v}\Delta T_e)}{D\mu_v \Delta T_e}\right]^{1/4} \tag{6.56}$$

To include radiation from the surface [Berensen (17)],

$$h_{total} = h_c + 0.75\, h_r \tag{6.57}$$

where h_r is estimated from

$$\bar{h}_r = \sigma\varepsilon_s \frac{(T_w^4 - T_{sat}^4)}{T_w - T_{sat}} \tag{6.58}$$

where ε_s is the surface emissivity.

6.16 FORCED CONVECTION BOILING

In *pool boiling*, fluid flow is mainly due to the buoyancy driven motion of bubbles originating from the heated surface. In *forced convection boiling*, flow is due to directed motion of the fluid as well as due to buoyancy effects. Conditions depend strongly on geometry, which may involve external flow over heated plates and cylinders or internal flow. Internal forced convection boiling is commonly referred to as *two phase flow* and is characterised by rapid changes from liquid to vapour in the flow direction.

6.16.1 External Forced Convection Boiling

For external flow over a heated plate, the heat flux can be estimated by standard forced convection correlations upto the start of boiling. As the temperature of the heater plate is increased nucleate boiling will occur, causing the heat flux to increase. If vapour generation is not extensive and the liquid is subcooled, Bergles and Rohsenow [18] suggest a method for estimating the total heat flux in terms of components associated with pure forced convection and pool boiling.

Both forced convection and subcooling increase the CHF for nucleate boiling, which can be as high as 35 MW/m^2 compared to 1.3 MW/m^2 for pool boiling of water at 1 atm. For liquids flowing in cross flow over a cylinder, Lienhard and Eichorn [19] gave correlations for low and high velocity flows.

Internal forced convection boiling is associated with bubble formation at the inner surface of a heated tube through which a liquid is flowing. Bubble growth and separation strongly depend on flow velocity. Let us consider flow development in a vertical tube (Fig. 6.21). Heat transfer to the subcooled liquid entering the tube ($T_w > T_{sat}$) is initially by forced convection and may be predicted from the correlations in Chapter 4. However, once boiling is initiated, bubbles appear at the surface and are carried into the mainstream of the liquid. This is known as *bubbly flow*. There is a sharp increase in the convection heat transfer coefficient associated with this bubbly flow regime. As the volume fraction of bubbles increases individual bubbles coalesce to form larger bubbles or slugs of vapour. The volume occupied by bubbles keeps on increasing till a dryness fraction of about 0.1 is reached. The *slug-flow regime* is followed by an *annular-flow regime*

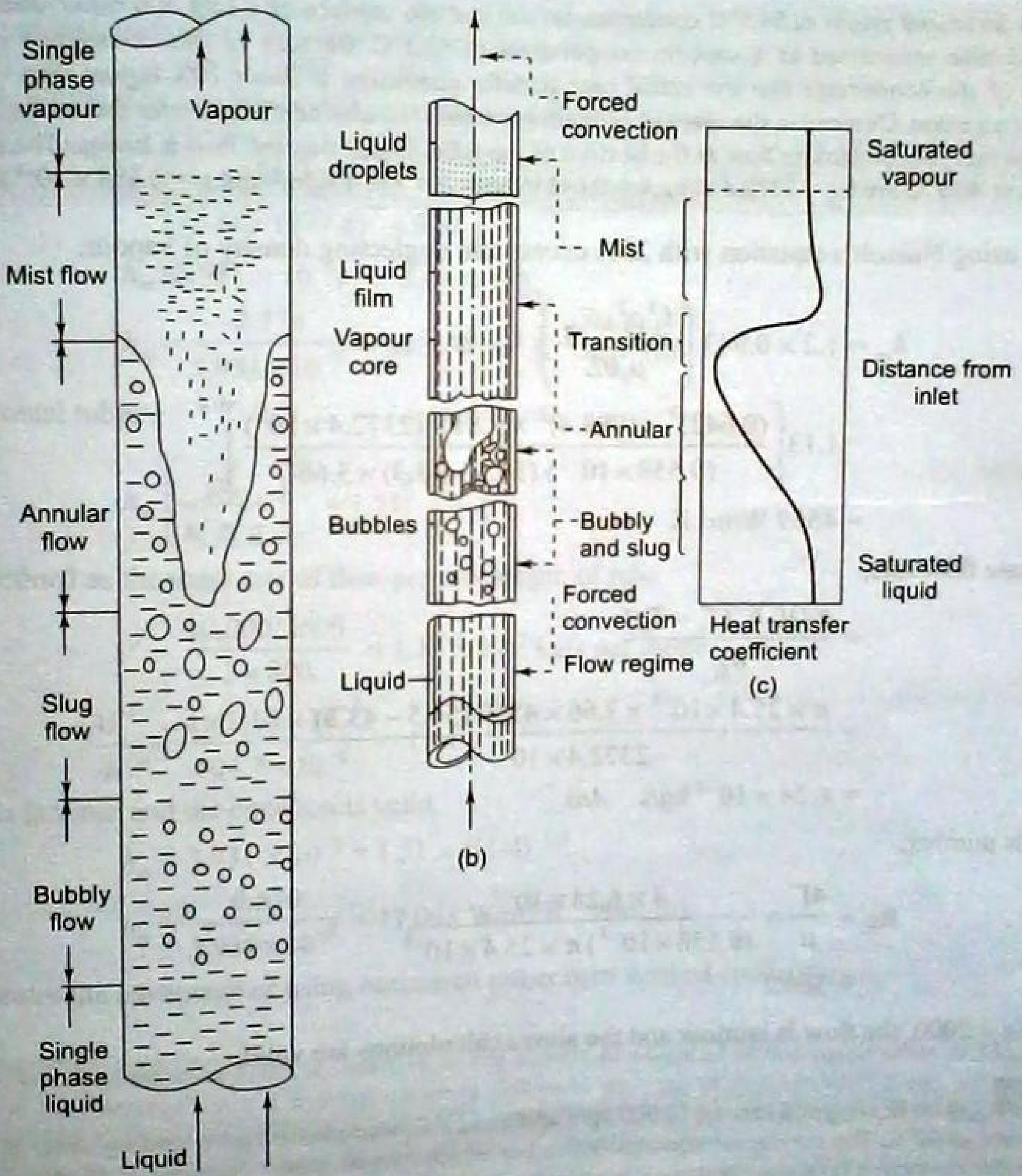


Fig. 6.21 *Flow regimes for forced convection boiling in a vertical tube*

in which liquid forms a film. This moves along the inner surface, while vapour moves at a larger velocity through the core of the tube. The heat transfer coefficient continues to increase through the bubbly flow and much of the annular flow regimes. However, *dry spots* eventually appear on the inner surface, at which point h begins to decrease. The *transition regime* is characterised by the growth of dry spots, until the surface is completely dry and all remaining liquid is in the form of droplets appearing in the vapour core. The convection coefficient continues to decrease through this regime. There is little change in this coefficient through the *mist-flow regime* which persists until all the droplets are converted to vapour. The vapour is then *superheated* by forced convection from the surface [20, 21].

Solved Examples

Example 6.1 Saturated steam at 54.5°C condenses on the outside surface of a 25.4 mm outer diameter 3.66 m long vertical tube maintained at a uniform temperature of 43.3°C. Because of the occurrence of ripples on the surface of the condensate film the actual heat transfer coefficient is about 20% higher than that obtained by Nusselt's equation. Determine the average condensation heat transfer coefficient over the entire length of the tube and the rate of condensate flow at the bottom of the tube. Check that the flow is laminar. The properties of condensate at 48.9°C are $h_{fg} = 2372.4$ kJ/kg, $k = 0.642$ W/mK, $\rho = 988.4$ kg/m^3 and $\mu = 0.558 \times 10^{-3}$ kg/ms.

Solution By using Nusselt's equation with 20% excess and neglecting density of vapour,

$$h_m = 1.2 \times 0.943 \left(\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{\mu_l \theta L} \right)^{1/4}$$

$$= 1.13 \left[\frac{(0.642)^3 \times (988.4)^2 \times 9.81 \times (2372.4 \times 10^3)}{(0.558 \times 10^{-3})\,(54.5 - 43.3) \times 3.66} \right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 4559 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Condensate flow rate,

$$= \frac{\pi D L\, h_m (T_s - T_w)}{h_{fg}}$$

$$= \frac{\pi \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3} \times 3.66 \times 4559\,(54.5 - 43.3)}{2372.4 \times 10^3}$$

$$= 6.24 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Reynolds number,

$$\text{Re} = \frac{4\Gamma}{\mu} = \frac{4 \times 6.24 \times 10^{-3}}{(0.558 \times 10^{-3})\,\pi \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3}}$$

$$= 560.2$$

Since Re < 2000, the flow is laminar and the above calculations are valid.

Example 6.2 Steam flowing at a rate of 10,000 kg/h and at 120°C is condensed using cooling water at an average temperature of 20°C. The condenser contains 800 tubes which have an outer diameter of 18 mm. Estimate the heat transfer coefficient (a) if the condenser is vertical and (b) if the condenser is horizontal with tubes 3 m long and condensation takes place outside the tubes.

Solution From Eq. (6.34),

$$h_m\left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g}\right)^{1/3} = 1.47\left(\frac{4\Gamma}{\mu_l}\right)^{-1/3} \tag{1}$$

At the average temperature of (120 + 20)/2 or 70°C, for condensate film $\rho = 977.8$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.66$ W/m K and $\mu = 404.7 \times 10^{-6}$ kg/ms.

Γ = mass rate of flow of condensate per unit length of perimeter

$$= \frac{10,000/3600}{800 \times \pi \times 0.018}$$

$$= 6.14 \times 10^{-2} \text{ kg/s per metre of perimeter.}$$

$$\text{Reynolds number, Re} = \frac{4\Gamma}{\mu} = \frac{4 \times 6.14 \times 10^{-2}}{404.7 \times 10^{-6}} = 607$$

Flow in the film is thus laminar and the equation (1) above is valid

$$h_m\left[\frac{(404.7 \times 10^{-6})^2}{(0.66)^3(977.8)^2 \times 9.81}\right]^{1/3} = 1.47\,(607)^{-1/3}$$

$$h_m\,(3.931 \times 10^{-5}) = 1.47 \times 0.116$$

$$h_m = \frac{0.174}{3.931 \times 10^{-5}} = 4426 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(a)}$$

(b) Horizontal tubes

$$h_m\left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g}\right)^{1/3} = 1.51\left(\frac{4\Gamma'}{\mu_l}\right)^{-1/3}$$

where Γ' is defined as the mass rate of flow per unit length of tube

$$\Gamma' = \frac{10{,}000/3600}{3 \times 800} = 1.15 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/s per metre}$$

$$\frac{4\Gamma'}{\mu} = \frac{4 \times 1.15 \times 10^{-3}}{404.7 \times 10^{-6}} = 11.4$$

The flow is laminar and the equation is valid.

$$h_m \times 3.931 \times 10^{-5} = 1.51 \times (11.4)^{-1/3}$$

$$h_m = \frac{0.670}{3.931 \times 10^{-5}} = 17{,}048 \text{ W/m}^2\text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}\ \text{(b)}$$

This illustrates the advantage of using horizontal rather than vertical condensers.

Example 6.3 Saturated steam at 110°C condenses on the outside of a bank of 64 horizontal tubes of 25 mm outer diameter, 1 m long arranged in a 8 × 8 square array. Calculate the rate of condensation if the tube surface is maintained at 100°C. The properties of saturated water at 105°C are $\rho = 954.7$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.684$ W/m^2 K, $\mu = 271 \times 10^{-6}$ kg/ms and $h_{fg} = 2243.7$ kJ/kg.

Had the condenser been vertical, what would have been the rate of condensation?

Solution Using Nusselt's equation for condensation on a bank of horizontal tubes,

$$(h_m)_H = 0.725\left(\frac{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{N\mu D_0\theta}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.725\left[\frac{(0.684)^3(954.7)^2\times 9.81\times(2243.7\times10^3)}{8\times271\times10^{-6}\times25\times10^{-3}\times10}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.725\,(10.432\times10^3) = 7563.5\ \text{W/m}^2\,\text{K}$$

Rate of condensation, ω

$$= \frac{7563.5\times\pi\times25\times10^{-3}\times1\times10\times64}{2243.7\times10^3}$$

$$= 0.1694\ \text{kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For a vertical condenser,

$$(h_m)_V = 0.943\left(\frac{k_l^3\rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{\mu_l\theta L}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.943\left[\frac{(0.684)^3\ (954.7)^2\times9.81\times2243.7\times10^3}{271\times10^{-6}\times10\times1}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.943\,(69.77\times10^2) = 6579\ \text{W/m}^2\,\text{K}$$

Rate of condensation for a vertical condenser,

$$= \frac{6579\times64\times\pi\times0.025\times1\times10}{2243.7\times1000}$$

$$= 0.147\ \text{kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 6.4 The outer surface of a vertical cylindrical drum of 350 mm diameter is exposed to saturated steam at 2.0 bar for condensation. If the surface temperature of the drum is maintained at 80°C, calculate (i) the length of the drum and (ii) the thickness of the condensate layer to condense 70 kg/h of steam.

Solution Given: $D = 0.35$ m, $T_w = 80°C$, $\dot{m} = 70$ kg/h

Corresponding to 2 bar, from steam tables,

$$T_{sat} = 120.2°C,\ \rho_g = \frac{1}{v_g} = \frac{1}{0.885} = 1.13\ \text{kg/m}^3$$

$$h_{fg} = 2201.6\ \text{kJ/kg}$$

The properties of saturated water at the mean film temperature,

$$T_f = \frac{120.2+80}{2} \equiv 100°C$$

$\rho_f = 956.4\ \text{kg/m}^3$, $k = 68.23\times10^{-2}$ W/mK,

$\mu = 283\times10^{-6}$ kg/m-s

Assuming film condensation and laminar flow, the film thickness at the bottom edge,

$$\delta_L = \left[\frac{4k\mu\theta x}{\rho_f(\rho_f - \rho_g)gh_{fg}}\right]_{x=L}^{1/4}$$

$$\therefore \quad \delta_L = \left[\frac{4\times 68.23\times 10^{-2}\times 283\times 10^{-6}(120.2-80)\times L}{958.4(958.4-1.13)\times 9.81\times 2201.6\times 10^{3}}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 1.988\times 10^{-4}\times (L)^{1/4}$$

Average heat transfer coefficient is given by

$$\bar{h} = \frac{4}{3}\frac{k_f}{\delta_L} = \frac{4}{3}\frac{68.23\times 10^{-2}}{1.988\times 10^{-4}L^{1/4}}$$

$$= 3432.09\,(L)^{-1/4}$$

Heat transfer rate, Q (using McAdam's correction of 20% excess of h)

$$= \bar{h}A_s(T_{sat} - T_w) = \dot{m}\,h_{fg}$$

$$\therefore \quad 1.2\times 3432.09\times L^{1/4}\times \pi\times 0.35\times L\times (120.2-80)$$

$$= \frac{70}{3600}\times 2201.6\times 10^{3}$$

$$182046.8(L)^{3/4} = 42808.88$$

$$\therefore \quad L = 0.1452 \text{ m} = 145.2 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

$$\therefore \quad \delta_L = 1.988\times 10^{-4}\times (0.1452)^{1/4}$$

$$= 1.227\times 10^{-4} \text{ m} = 0.1227 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Let us now check whether the condensate flow is laminar or not.

$$\text{Re} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\mu\pi D} = \frac{4\times(70/3600)}{2.83\times 10^{-6}\times\pi\times 0.35} \equiv 250$$

As $R_e < 1800$, the assumption of laminar flow is correct.

Example 6.5 A vertical plate 300 mm wide and 1.2 m high is maintained at 70°C and is exposed to saturated steam at 1 atm pressure. Calculate the heat transfer coefficient and the total mass of steam condensed per hour. What would be the heat transfer coefficient if the plate is inclined at 30° to the vertical?

Solution The mean film temperature of the condensate $= \frac{70+100}{2} = 85°C$.

Properties of saturated water at 85°C are:

$\rho_f = 968 \text{ m}^3/\text{kg}$, $\mu_f = 3.37\times 10^{-4}$ Pa-s,

$k_f = 0.674$ W/mK, $h_{fg} = 2255$ kJ/kg.

$$h_{av} = 0.943\left[\frac{\rho_f(\rho_f - \rho_v)gh_{fg}k_f^3}{L\mu_f(T_{sat} - T_w)}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.943\left[\frac{k_f^3\rho_f^2 gh_{fg}}{L\mu_f(T_{sat} - T_w)}\right]^{1/4}, \text{ since } \rho_f >> \rho_v.$$

$$= 0.943\left[\frac{(0.674)^3 \times (968)^2 \times 9.81 \times 2255 \times 10^3}{1.2 \times 3.37 \times 10^{-4} \times 30}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 4.51 \times 10^3 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For checking

$$\text{Re} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{P\mu},$$

Also, $hA(T_{sat} - T_w) = \dot{m}\, h_{fg}$

$$\therefore \qquad \dot{m} = \frac{hA(T_{sat} - T_w)}{h_{fg}}$$

Substituting, if W is the plate width and L its length,

$$\text{Re} = \frac{4hA(T_{sat} - T_w)}{h_{fg} P\mu}, \; A = WL, \; P = W$$

$$= 4hL\,\frac{T_{sat} - T_w}{h_{fg} \cdot \mu}$$

$$= \frac{4 \times 4.51 \times 10^3 \times 1.2 \times 30}{2255 \times 10^3 \times 3.37 \times 10^{-4}} = 856.6$$

Since Re < 1800, the flow is laminar and the equation used is valid.

Heat transfer through the plate, Q

$$= hA\,\Delta T = 4.51 \times 10^3 \times (1.2 \times 0.3) \times 30$$

$$= 48.7 \text{ kW}$$

$\therefore$ Mass flow rate of condensate, $\dot{m}$

$$= Q/h_{fg} = \frac{48.7}{2255} \times 3600$$

$$= 77.76 \text{ kg/h} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

If the plate is inclined at 30° to the vertical, $\theta = 60°$,

$$\bar{h} = 0.943\left[\frac{k_f^3 \rho_f^2 g h_{fg} \sin\theta}{L\mu\Delta T}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.943\left[\frac{(0.674)^3 \times (968)^2 \times 9.81 \times 2255 \times 10^3 \times \sin 60°}{1.2 \times 3.37 \times 10^{-4} \times 30}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 4.35 \times 10^3 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 6.6 A tube of 15 mm outside diameter and 1.5 m long is used for condensing steam at 40 kPa. Calculate the average heat transfer coefficient when the tube is (a) horizontal, (b) vertical and its surface temperature is maintained at 50°C.

ution Saturation temperature at 40 kPa or 0.4 bar is 76°C. The mean film temperature is $\frac{50+76}{2} = 63°C$
d the properties of saturated water are:

$$\rho_l = 980 \text{ kg/m}^3,\ \mu_l = 0.432 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Pa-s},$$

$$k_l = 0.66 \text{ W/mK},\ h_{fg} = 2320 \text{ kJ/kg},\quad \rho_l >> \rho_v.$$

(a) Horizontal tube

$$\overline{h} = 0.725\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{\mu_l D_o \theta}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.725\left[\frac{(0.66)^3 \times (980)^2 \times 9.81 \times 2320 \times 10^3}{0.432 \times 10^{-3} \times 1.5 \times 26}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$\equiv 10{,}000 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) Vertical tube

Equation (6.13) should be used for a vertical tube if the film thickness is very small in comparison with
e tube diameter.

Film thickness, $\delta_L = \left[\frac{4\mu k L \Delta T}{g h_{fg} \rho_l^2}\right]^{1/4}$

$\therefore$ $$\delta_L = \left[\frac{4 \times 0.432 \times 10^{-3} \times 0.66 \times 1.5 \times 26}{9.81 \times 2320 \times 10^3 \times (980)^2}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.3413 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} = 0.3413 \text{ mm}$$

Since $\delta_L << 150$ mm, the tube diameter, Eq. (6.26) is used.

$$\frac{(h_m)_H}{(h_m)_V} = 0.77\left(\frac{L}{D}\right)^{1/4}$$

$\therefore$ $$(h_m)_V = \frac{10.000}{0.77\,(150/15)^{0.25}}$$

$$= 7303 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Thus, the performance of horizontal tubes for filmwise laminar condensation is better than vertical tubes,
hus horizontal tubes are preferred.

Example 6.7 A square array of 400 tubes 15 mm outer diameter is used to condense steam at atmospheric pressure. The tube walls are maintained at 88°C by a coolant flowing through the tubes. Calculate the amount of steam condensed per hour per unit length of the tubes.

olution Properties of condensate at mean film temperature of $\frac{100}{2} = 94°C$ are:

$$\rho_f = 963 \text{ kg/m}^3,\ \mu_f = 3.06 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg/m-s},$$
$$k_f = 0.678 \text{ W/mK},\ h_{fg} = 2255 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg}.$$

A square array of 400 tubes will have $N = 20$.

$$\therefore \quad \bar{h} = 0.725\left[\frac{k_f^3 \rho_f^2 g h_{fg}}{N \mu_f D_0 \theta}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.725\left[\frac{(0.678)^3 \times (963)^2 \times 9.81 \times 2255 \times 10^3}{20 \times 3.06 \times 10^{-4} \times 0.015 \times 12}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 6.328 \times 10^3 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

Surface area of 400 tubes, $A_0 = 400 \times 3.1416 \times 0.015 \times 1$

$$= 18.852 \text{ m}^2 \text{ per metre length of tube}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = \bar{h} A_0 \Delta T = 6.328 \times 18.852 \times 12 = 1431.56 \text{ kW}$$

$$\therefore \text{ Condensation rate, } \dot{m} = \frac{1431.56}{2255} \times 3600$$

$$= 2285.4 \text{ kg/h per metre length} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 6.8 Estimate the power required to boil water in a copper pan, 0.35 m in diameter. The pan is maintained at 120°C by an electric heater. What is the evaporation rate? Estimate the critical heat flux.

olution From Table A.6, for saturated water at 100°C: $\rho_l = 1/v_f = 957.9$ kg/m^3, $\rho_v = 1/v_g = 0.5955$ kg/m^3, $_{pl} = 4.217$ kJ/kg K, $\mu_l = 279 \times 10^{-6}$ Ns/m^2, $\text{Pr}_l = 1.76$, $h_{fg} = 2257$ kJ/kg and $\sigma = 58.9 \times 10^{-3}$ N/m.

Excess temperature $\Delta T_e = 120 - 100 = 20$°C. According to the boiling curve of Fig. 6.14, nucleate pool oiling will occur and the recommended correlation is given in Eq. 6.52.

$$q_w = \mu_l h_{fg}\left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\sigma}\right]^{1/2}\left[\frac{c_{p_l}\Delta T_e}{C_{sf} h_{fg} \text{Pr}_l^n}\right]^3$$

The values of C_{sf} and n corresponding to the polished copper surface water combination are taken from Table 6.1, where $C_{sf} = 0.013$ and $n = 1.0$. Substituting numerical values, the boiling heat flux is

$$q_w = 279 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N s/m}^2 \times 2257 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg}$$

$$\times\left[\frac{9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 (957.9 - 0.5955)\text{kg/m}^3}{58.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}}\right]^{1/2} \times \left(\frac{4.217 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg K} \times 20°\text{C}}{0.013 \times 2257 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg} \times 1.76}\right)^3$$

$$= 630 \text{ J/m s} \times 39.1 \frac{1}{m} \times 4.36$$

$$= 1096.25 \text{ k W/m}^2 = 1.096 \text{ MW/m}^2$$

Boiling heat transfer rate

$$Q = q_w \times A = 1096.25 \text{ kW/m}^2 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.35)^2 \text{ m}^2$$

$$= 105.5 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Evaporation rate of water,

$$\omega = \frac{105.5 \times 10^3 \text{ W}}{2257 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg}} = 0.0467 \text{ kg/s} = 168.3 \text{ kg/h} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The critical heat flux for nucleate boiling can be estimated from Eq. (6.54).

$$q_{max} = 0.149\, h_{fg}\, \rho_v \left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_l)}{\rho_v^2}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.149 \times 2257 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg} \times 0.5955 \text{ kg/m}^3 \times \left[\frac{58.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m} \times 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 \times (957.9 - 0.5955) \text{ kg/m}^3}{(0.5955)^2 (\text{kg/m}^3)^2}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 1.26 \text{ MW/m}^2$$

Operation of the heater at $q_w = 1.096$ MW/m^2 is below the critical heat flux.

Example 6.9 A metal-clad heating element of 8 mm diameter and emissivity 0.9 is horizontally immersed in a water bath. The surface temperature of the metal is 260°C under steady-state boiling conditions. Estimate the power dissipation per unit length of heater.

Solution Properties of water at 100°C are $\rho_l = 957.9$ kg/m^3 and $h_{fg} = 2257$ kJ/kg.

Properties of water vapour at (260 + 100)/2 or 180°C are $\rho_v = 4.808$ kg/m^3, $c_{p,v} = 2.56$ kJ/kg K, $k_v = 0.0331$ W/m K and $\mu_v = 14.85 \times 10^{-6}$ N s/m^2.

Excess temperature = 260 – 100 = 160°C.

According to the boiling curve of Fig. 6.14, film pool boiling conditions prevail.

Using Bromley's correlation, Eq. (6.55)

$$\bar{h} = 0.62\left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)\rho_v k_v^3 (h_{fg} + 0.68\, c_{p_v} \Delta T_e)}{D \mu_v \Delta T_e}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.62\left[\frac{9.8 \text{ m/s}^2 (957.9 - 4.808) \text{ kg/m}^3 \times 4.808 \text{ kg/m}^3}{1} \times \frac{(0.0331)^3 (\text{W/m K})^3 (2257 \times 10^3 + 0.68 \times 2.56 \times 10^3 \text{ J/kg K} \times 160°\text{C})}{14.85 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Ns/m}^2 \times 8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m} \times 160°\text{C}}\right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.62\left[\frac{1.629 (2535.5 \times 10^3)}{1.9 \times 10^{-5}}\right]^{1/4} = 423 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$h_r = \frac{\varepsilon\sigma(T_w^4 - T_{sat}^4)}{T_w - T_{sat}}$$

$$= \frac{0.9 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}^4 \times (533^4 - 373^4)\text{K}^4}{(533 - 373)\text{K}}$$

$$= 0.0319\,(807.066 - 193.569) = 19.57 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$\bar{h} = h_c + \frac{3}{4} h_r = 423 + 0.75 \times 19.57$$

$$= 437.68 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

Heat transfer rate per unit length

$$= \bar{h} A\,(T_w - T_{sat}) = 437.68 \times \pi \times 8 \times 10^{-3} \times 160$$

$$= 1.76 \text{ kW/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 6.10 It is desired to generate 100 kg/h of saturated steam at 100°C using a heating element of copper of surface area 5 m^2. Calculate the convective heat transfer coefficient, the temperature of the heating surface and the critical heat flux.

Solution Mass of steam to be evaporated is 100 kg/h. Enthalpy of vaporization at 100°C,

$$h_{fg} = 2255 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

$$Q = 2255 \times 10^3 \times 100/3600 = 62{,}639 \text{ W}$$

$$\therefore \quad Q/A = q_w = \frac{62639}{5} = 12{,}528 \text{ W/m}^2$$

Properties of saturated water at 100°C are

$$\rho_l = 958.4 \text{ kg/m}^3, \rho_v = 0.598 \text{ kg/m}^3,$$

$$\mu = 0.283 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Pa-s}, c_{pl} = 4217 \text{ J/kgK}, \text{Pr} = 1.75, C_{sf} = 0.013,$$

$$\sigma = 58.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ N/m}.$$

From Eq. (6.52),

$$\Delta T_e = \frac{C_{sf} h_{fg} P_v}{C_{p.l}} \left[\frac{q_w}{\mu h_{fg}} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma}{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}} \right]^{0.33}$$

$$= \frac{0.013 \times 2255 \times 10^3 \times 1.75}{4217} \left[\frac{12528}{0.283 \times 10^{-3} \times 2255 \times 10^3} \times \sqrt{\frac{58.8 \times 10^{-3}}{9.81 \times 957.8}} \right]^{0.33}$$

$$= 4.5°\text{C}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_w = 104.5°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$q_w = h \, \Delta T_e = 12528 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$\therefore \quad h = \frac{12528}{4.5} = 2784 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Critical heat flux is obtained from Eq. (6.54)

$$\therefore \quad q_{\max} = 0.149 \, h_{fg} \rho_v \left[\frac{\sigma g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\rho_v^2} \right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.149 \times 2255 \times 10^3 \times 0.598 \left[\frac{58.8 \times 10^{-3} \times 9.81 \times 957.8}{(0.598)^2} \right]^{1/4}$$

$$= 1259.7 \times 10^3 \text{ W/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Summary

Phase change heat transfer processes such as boiling and condensation which have wide applications in industry are introduced. Vapour can condense on a cooled surface in two ways, i.e., dropwise and filmwise. Attention has been given mainly to film condensation. The classical Nusselt analysis of laminar film condensation on a vertical plate has been presented and the extension of this analysis to account for subcooling of condensate, and superheating of vapour has been discussed. Nusselt's approach to the analysis of laminar film condensation on a single horizontal tube as well as a vertical tier of N horizontal tubes is explained.

In boiling heat transfer the fundamentals of pool boiling, Nukiyama experiment, typical saturated boiling curve for water at atmospheric pressure and various boiling regimes are explained in detail. Nucleate boiling regime is elaborated, Rohsenow's correlation and Zuber's critical heat flux correlation are presented. Flow regimes for forced convection boiling and two phase flow are explained.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation number	Equation	Remarks
(6.3)	$\mathrm{Nu}_L = f\left[\frac{\rho g(\rho_l - \rho_u)^{L^3}}{\mu^2}, \mathrm{Ja}, \mathrm{Pr}, \mathrm{Bo}\right]$	In condensation or boiling Nusselt number is a function of Jakob number, $\mathrm{Ja} = \frac{c_p \Delta T}{\mu_{fg}}$, Bond number $\mathrm{Bo} = \frac{g(\rho_l - p_v)L^3}{\sigma}$, Prandtl number $\mathrm{Pr} = \frac{c_p \mu}{k}$ and a dimensionless parameter akin to Grashof number $= \frac{\rho g(\rho_l - \rho_v)L^3}{\mu^2}$
(6.10)	$\delta(x) = \left[\frac{4k\mu_l\theta_x}{g\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)h_{fg}}\right]^{1/4}$	Local film thickness of condensate layer on a vertical plate or cylinder
(6.11)	$h_x = \left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)h_{fg}}{4\mu_l\theta_x}\right]^{1/4}$	Local heat transfer coefficient of condensate film on a vertical plate
(6.13)	$h_m = 0.943\left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gh_{fg}}{\mu_l\theta L}\right]^{1/4}$	Average heat transfer coefficient of condensate film on a vertical plate
(6.14)	$h_m = 0.943\left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l^2 gh_{fg}}{\mu_l\theta L}\right]^{1/4}$	Same as above when $\rho_l >> \rho_v$
(6.20)	$T_S - T_B = \frac{3}{8}\theta$	Degree of subcooling of condensate, where $T_S = T_{sat}$, T_B = bulk temperature of condensate and $\theta = T_s - T_w$, T_w = wall temperature
(6.22)	$h'_{fg} = h_{fg} + \frac{3}{8}c_{p_c}\theta$	Average enthalpy change during condensation with subcooling
(6.24)	$h_m = 0.943\left[\frac{k_l^3\rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v)gh_{fg}(1 + 0.68\,\mathrm{Ja})}{\mu_l\theta L}\right]^{1/4}$	Rohsenow's correlation for condensation on a vertical plate with subcooling where Ja = Jakob number $= \frac{c_{pl}(T_s - T_w)}{h_{fg}}$

(Contd)

Equation number	Equation	Remarks
(6.25)	$h_m = 0.725\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v) g h_{fg}}{\mu_l D_0 \theta}\right]^{1/4}$	Nusselt's equation for film condensation on a horizontal tube
(6.26)	$\frac{(h_m)_H}{(h_m)_v} = 0.77\left(\frac{L}{D_0}\right)^{1/4}$	Ratio of average heat transfer coefficients on a horizontal tube and vertical tube. For $L/D_0 = 2.87$, $(h_m)_H = (h_m)_V$
(6.27)	$h_m = 0.725\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v) g h'_{fg}}{\mu_l N D_0 \theta}\right]^{1/4}$	Average h transfer coefficient of condensate film on a vertical tier of horizontal tubes
(6.28)	$h_m = 0.815\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v) g h'_{fg}}{\mu_l D \theta}\right]^{1/4}$	Condensation of vapour on a sphere
(6.34)	$h_m\left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g}\right)^{1/3} = 1.47\,\mathrm{Re}^{-1/3}$	Heat transfer coefficient as a function of Reynolds number, $\mathrm{Re} = \frac{4\Gamma}{\mu}$, where Γ = rate of condensation per unit width
(6.35)	$\mathrm{Co} = h_m\left[\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3 \rho_l(\rho_l - \rho_v) g}\right]^{1/3} = 1.47\,\mathrm{Re}^{-1/3}$	Condensation number, Co, for a vertical plate
(6.37)	$h_m\left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g}\right)^{1/3} = 1.51\,\mathrm{Re}^{-1/3}$	Eq. (6.25) expressed in terms of Reynolds number
(6.38)	$h = 0.056\left(\frac{4\Gamma}{\mu_l}\right)^{0.2}\left(\frac{K_l^3 \rho_l^2 g}{\mu_{l^2}}\right)^{1/3}(\mathrm{Pr}_l)^{1/2}$	Colburn's relation for turbulent film condensation (Re > 2000)
(6.52)	$q_w = \mu_l h_{fg}\left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\sigma}\right]^{1/2}\left[\frac{c_{p_l}\Delta T_e}{c_{sf} h_{fg} \mathrm{Pr}_l^n}\right]^3$	Rohsenow's correlation to predict the heat flux for nucleate pool boiling
(6.54)	$q_{\max} = 0.149 h_{fg} \rho_v\left[\frac{\sigma g(\rho_l - \rho_v)}{\rho_v^2}\right]^{1/4}$	Critical heat flux on the boiling curve
(6.55)	$\bar{h}c = 0.62\left[\frac{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)\rho_v k_v^3 (h_{fg} + 0.68 c_{pv}\Delta Te)}{D\mu_v \Delta Te}\right]^{1/4}$	Bromley's correlation for film boiling on tubes
(6.56)	$\bar{h}_{\text{total}} = \bar{h}_c + 0.75\bar{h}_r$ where $\bar{h}_r = \frac{\sigma\varepsilon_s(T_w^4 - T_{\text{sat}}^4)}{T_w - T_{\text{sat}}}$	Film boiling including radiation

Review Questions

6.1 Why are heat transfer rates high for a phase change process?

6.2 What are the five significant dimensionless numbers in boiling and condensation?

6.3 Explain the physical significance of Jakob number and Bond number.

6.4 What are the two modes in which condensation can take place on a cooling surface? What is film condensation?

6.5 Explain the conditions under which dropwise condensation can take place. Why is the rate of heat transfer in dropwise condensation many times larger than in filmwise condensation?

6.6 What is a promoter? Why does its effectiveness decay with time?

6.7 State the assumptions made in deriving Nusselt's equation for film condensation.

6.8 Explain how the condensate film thickness on a vertical plate is influenced by different parameters.

6.9 What is bulk temperature of the condensate? Show that it is subcooled and is less than the saturation temperature by $3\theta/8$, where $\theta = T_s - T_B$.

6.10 What is the effect of inclination of the tube or plate on the average condensation heat transfer coefficient?

6.11 How does the Nusselt's equation for condensation on a horizontal tube differ from that on a vertical tube?

6.12 Explain why the condenser tubes are usually horizontal.

6.13 Why does the mean heat transfer coefficient in a condenser decrease if the number of horizontal tubes in a vertical tier (N) increases?

6.14 What is condensation number? How is it related with Reynolds number for condensation on (a) a vertical tube and (b) a horizontal tube?

6.15 What is the effect of turbulence on condensation heat transfer coefficient? Why is turbulent flow of condensate hardly ever reached on a horizontal tube?

6.16 Explain the effect of high vapour velocity on the rate of condensation.

6.17 Why is the effect of superheat not significant on condensation heat transfer coefficient?

6.18 Discuss the effect of a noncondensable gas like air on the rate of condensation of steam. How is air removed continuously from the condenser shell in a power plant?

6.19 What do you mean by subcooled boiling? What is saturated boiling?

6.20 What is pool boiling? How is forced convection boiling different from pool boiling?

6.21 State the regimes of pool boiling.

6.22 Draw and explain the Farber–Scorah boiling curve.

6.23 What is nucleate boiling? Why is it important?

6.24 What is excess temperature? What do you mean by ONB and DNB?

6.25 What is critical heat flux? What is its importance?

6.26 Explain partial or unstable film boiling.

6.27 What is Leidenfrost point? What is its significance?

6.28 Explain film boiling. Why is it avoided? What is boiling crisis?

6.29 What are the two separate processes of nucleate boiling?

6.30 State the two conditions which are required to be fulfilled for bubbles to form.

6.31 Why do bubbles form on the heating surface?

6.32 When does a bubble grow or collapse as it moves up through the liquid?

6.33 What are nucleation sites? What are active cavities?

6.34 Why is less liquid superheat required for bubble formation when a noncondensable gas is present in the bubble?

6.35 What is Rohsenow's correlation in nucleate boiling? On what does the coefficient C_{sf} depend?

6.36 Explain the flow regimes in two phase flow through a tube. What is the difference between slug-flow regime and annular flow regime.

6.37 What are dry spots? What is mist flow regime?

Objective Type Questions

6.1 The ratio of gravitational body force to the surface tension force is called
(a) Bond number (b) Weber number
(c) Grashof number (d) Jakob number

6.2 The rate of heat transfer is many time larger in this mode of condensation:
(a) Filmwise condensation
(b) Dropwise condensation
(c) Mixed condensation
(d) Forced convection condensation

6.3 Consider the following statements:
1. If a condensing liquid wets a surface, dropwise condensation takes place.
2. Dropwise condensation has a higher heat transfer coefficient than filmwise condensation.
3. Suitable coating is used to promote filmwise condensation.
4. Reynolds number of condensing liquid is calculated on its mass flow rate.

Of these statements.
(a) 1, 2, 3 and 4 are correct
(b) 2 and 4 are correct
(c) 2 and 3 are correct
(d) 1 and 4 are correct

6.4 During filmwise condensation on a vertical surface, as the distance x from the leading edge increases,
(a) the film thickness δ decreases and the heat transfer coefficient h increases
(b) both δ and h increase
(c) δ increases and h decreases
(d) both δ and h decrease

6.5 The local condensing heat transfer coefficient h_x on a vertical surface varies with the distance x from the leading edge as
(a) $h_x \propto x^{1/4}$ (b) $h_x \propto x^{-1/4}$
(c) $h_x \propto x^{1/3}$ (d) $h_x \propto x^{2/3}$

6.6 The mean condensing heat transfer coefficient on a vertical tier of N horizontal tubes varies with
(a) N^{-1} (b) $N^{-1/2}$
(c) $N^{-1/3}$ (d) $N^{-1/4}$

6.7 It is a measure of the importance of subcooling in condensing heat transfer
(a) Bond number (b) Grashof number
(c) Jakob number (d) Colburn number

6.8 **Assertion (A):** The rate of condensation on a rusty surface is more than that on a polished surface.
Reasoning (R): The polished surface promotes dropwise condensation.
Codes:
(a) Both A and R are true
(b) A is true, R is false
(c) Both A and R are false
(d) A is false, R is true

6.9 **Assertion (A):** The rate of heat transfer drops significantly when the condensing vapour contains non-condensable gases.
Reasoning (R): The non-condensable gases serve as an obstacle to the condensing vapour reaching the surface.
Codes:
(a) Both A and R are true
(b) Both A and R are false
(c) A is true, R is false
(d) A is false, R is true

6.10 **Assertion (A):** Surface condensers are designed on the basis that filmwise condensation always exists.
Reasoning (R): It is not possible to have dropwise condensation on the surface continuously at all times.
Codes:
(a) Both A and R are false
(b) Both A and R are true
(c) A is true, R is false
(d) A is false, R is true

6.11 The mean condensing heat transfer coefficint on a horizontal tube of diameter D_0 varies with
(a) D_0^{-1} (b) D_0
(c) $D_0^{-1/2}$ (d) $D_0^{-1/4}$

6.12 For filmwise condensation the heat transfer coefficient will be equal whether the tube is horizontal or vertical, when the ratio of length to diameter is
(a) 1.3 (b) 2.87
(c) 0.78 (d) > 5

6.13 The condensate flow is almost always laminar
(a) on a vertical tube
(b) on a horizontal tube
(c) on a vertical bank of horizontal tubes
(d) on a cluster of vertical tubes.

6.14 When a vapour condenses on a horizontal or vertical surface, the bulk temperature of the condensate is always
(a) equal to the saturation temperature at the vapour pressure
(b) greater than the saturation temperature
(c) less than the saturation temperature
(d) equal to the surface temperature

6.15 Consider the following statements regarding condensation heat transfer:
1. For a single tube, the horizontal position is preferred to the vertical position for better heat transfer.
2. Heat transfer coefficient decreases with increasing vapour velocity.
3. Condensation of steam on an oily surface is dropwise.
4. Condensation of pure benzene vapour is always dropwise.

Of these statements,
(a) 2 and 4 are correct
(b) 1 and 3 are correct
(c) 1 and 2 are correct
(d) 3 and 4 are correct

6.16 In some designs of evaporators, the heating surface is submerged beneath a free surface of liquid. This is known as
(a) pool boiling (b) bulk boiling
(c) convection boiling (d) saturated boiling

6.17 When a liquid flows through a tube with subcooled or saturated boiling, the process is
(a) pool boiling
(b) convection boiling
(c) forced convection boiling
(d) bulk boiling

6.18 In boiling heat transfer, the most significant regime of boiling is
(a) convection boiling
(b) film boiling
(c) nucleate boiling
(d) transition boiling

6.19 Consider the following statements regarding boiling heat transfer:
1. The peak of the boiling curve indicates the critical heat flux and the burnout point.
2. This point also indicates the onset of departure from nucleate boiling (DNB).
3. It is desird to operate the heat transfer surface close to this value, but it is dangerous to exceed it.
4. Nucleate boiling is followed by film boiling when heat transfer is maximum.

Of these statements,
(a) 1, 2 and 4 are correct
(b) 3 and 4 are correct
(c) 1, 2 and 3 are correct
(d) all are correct

6.20 Nucleation or bubble formation in nucleate boiling requires liquid to be
(a) superheated
(b) saturated
(c) subcooled
(d) in the boiling regime

6.21 In nucleate boiling to form the nuclei of bubbles there must be present
(a) superheated vapour
(b) dissolved gases
(c) undissolved gases
(d) superheated liquid

6.22 In nucleate boiling, bubbles always originate
(a) in the bulk of the liquid
(b) on the heating surface
(c) where the liquid superheat is mininum
(d) where the liquid is saturated

6.23 **Assention (A):** In forced convection boiling inside a tube, the heat transfer coefficient increases sharply in the bubble flow regime.
Reasoning (R): Because the bubbles appearing at the surface grow and are carried away into the liquid stream.
Codes:
(a) A is true, R is false
(b) Both A and R are false
(c) Both A and R are true
(d) A is false, R is true

6.24 Cavities on the heating surface are used most advantageously when the entire surface is exposed to
(a) nucleate boiling (b) film boiling
(c) transition boiling (d) pool boiling

Answers

6.1 (a)	6.2 (b)	6.3 (b)	6.4 (c)	6.5 (b)
6.6 (d)	6.7 (c)	6.8 (d)	6.9 (a)	6.10 (b)
6.11 (d)	6.12 (b)	6.13 (b)	6.14 (c)	6.15 (b)
6.16 (a)	6.17 (c)	6.18 (c)	6.19 (c)	6.20 (a)
6.21 (b)	6.22 (b)	6.23 (c)	6.24 (a)	

Open Book Problems

6.1 Air-free saturated steam at $T_s = 65°C$ ($p = 25.03$ kPa) condenses on the outer surface of a 2.5 cm OD, 3 m long vertical tube maintained at a uniform temperature $T_w = 35°C$ by the flow of cooling water through the tube. Assuming film condensation, calculate the average heat transfer coefficient over the entire length of the tube and the rate of condensation.

Hints: At the film temperature of condensate (water), $T_f = \frac{65+35}{2} = 50°C$, find the properties k_l, μ_l, ρ_l, h_{fg} and use Eq. (6.15).

$$h_m = 1.13\left(\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{\mu_c . \theta . L}\right)^{1/4} \quad \text{where } \theta = T_s - T_w,$$

to find h_m. The mass flow rate of condensate

$$\dot{m} = \frac{h_m \pi d L (T_s - T_w)}{h_{fg}}$$

Check the validity of laminar flow of condensate by showing

$$\text{Re} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi d \mu_l} < 1800$$

6.2 Determine the average heat transfer coefficient and the total condensation rate for the above example if the tube is horizontal.

Hints: For $\rho_v << \rho_l$, use Eq. (6.25) to find h_m.

$$h_m = 0.725\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{\mu_l \theta d}\right]^{1/4}$$

Condensation rate, $\dot{m} = \frac{\pi d L \, h_m (T_s - T_w)}{h_{fg}}$

Check $\text{Re}_L < 1800$.

6.3 Air free saturated steam at $T_s = 65°C$ condenses on the surface of a vertical tube with on OD of 2.5 cm which is maintained at a uniform temperature of 35°C. Determine the tube length L for a condensate flow rate of 6×10^{-3} kg/s per tube.

Hints: Properties of water at $T_f = 50°C$ are the same as in the previous examples. Find

$$\text{Re} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi d \mu_l} < 1800$$ to prove that the condensate flow is laminar. Use Eq. (6.34) to find h_m increased by 20% as recommended by McAdams.

$$h_m \left(\frac{\mu_l^2}{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g}\right)^{1/3} = 1.47(\text{Re})^{-1/3} \times 1.20$$

$$= 1.76\,\text{Re}^{-1/3}$$

L is calculated from the equation

$$\dot{m} = \frac{h_m \pi d L (T_s - T_w)}{h_{fg}}$$

6.4 Air-free saturated steam at $T_s = 85°C$ ($p = 57.83$ kPa) condenses on the outer surface of 225 horizontal tubes of 1.27 cm OD arranged in a 15 × 15 square array. Tube surfaces are maintained at $T_w = 75°C$. Calculate the condensation rate per metre length of the tube bundle.

Hints: Physical properties of water are obtained at 80°C from the Appendix. Use Eq. (6.27) to find h_m for a vertical tier of 15 horizontal tubes.

$$h_m = 0.725\left[\frac{k_l^3 \rho_l^2 g h_{fg}}{N \mu_l . \theta . d}\right]^{1/4}, \text{ where } N = 15.$$

Surface area of 225 tubes, $A_o = N\pi dL$, where $L = 1$ m, $N = 225$.

$Q = h_m A_0 (T_s - T_w) = \dot{m} \times h_{fg}$

$\therefore$ m can be found out from above.

Problems for Practice

6.1 Saturated steam at 1.46 bar and 110°C condenses on a 25 mm outer diameter vertical tube which is 50 cm long. The tube wall is maintained at 100°C. Calculate the average heat transfer coefficient and the rate of condensation. Check that the condensate flow is laminar. The properties of the condensate at 150°C are $k = 0.68$ W/m K, $\rho = 954.7$ kg/m^3, $\mu = 0.271 \times 10^{-3}$ kg/ms and $h_{fg} = 2243.7$ kJ/kg.

(*Ans.* 7789.33 W/m^2 K, 1.36×10^{-3} kg/s)

6.2 Air-free saturated steam at 65°C condenses on the outer surface of a 25 mm outer diameter 3 m long vertical tube maintained at a uniform temperature of 35°C by flow of cooling water through the tube. Assuming film condensation and 20% in excess of Nusselt's value calculate the average heat transfer coefficient over the entire length of the tube and the rate of condensate flow at the bottom of the tube. Confirm that the flow is laminar. (*Ans.* 3729 W/m^2 K, 11.23×10^{-3} kg/s, Re = 1018)

6.3 Determine the average heat transfer coefficient and the total condensation rate for problem 6.2 when the tube is horizontal.

(*Ans.* 7918 W/m^2 K, 23.86×10^{-3} kg/s)

6.4 Saturated air-free steam at 75°C condenses on a 0.5 m × 0.5 m vertical plate maintained at a uniform temperature of 45°C. Calculate (a) the average heat transfer coefficient over the entire length of the plate, (b) the total rate of condensation and (c) the thickness of the condensate at the bottom of the plate.

(*Ans.* (a) 6142 W/m^2 K, (b) 1.953×10^{-2} kg/s, (c) 17 mm)

6.5 Saturated air-free steam at 85°C condenses on the outer surface of 225 horizontal tubes of 12.7 mm outer diameter arranged in a 15 × 15 array. Tube surfaces are maintained at 75°C. Calculate the total condensation rate per metre length of the tube bundle.

(*Ans.* $h_m = 7150$ W/m^2 K, $Q/L = 697.84$ kW/m, W/L = 0.3 kg/sm)

6.6 Saturated steam at atmospheric pressure condenses on a horizontal copper tube of 25 mm inner diameter and 29 mm outer diameter through which water flows at the rate of 25 kg/min entering at 30°C and leaving at 70°C. Making necessary assumptions, calculate (a) the condensing heat transfer coefficient, (b) the inside heat transfer coefficient and (c) the length of the tube. (*Ans.* (a) 11,489.0 W/m^2 K, (b) 4618.2 W/m^2 K, (c) 5.47 m)

6.7 Saturated water at 100°C is boiled with a copper heating element having a heating surface of area 0.04 m^2 which is maintained at 15°C. Calculate the surface heat flux and the rate of evaporation.

(*Ans.* 484 kW/m^2, 30.9 kg/h)

6.8 In the above problem, if the heating element were made of brass instead of copper, what would be the heat flux at the surface of the heater? (*Ans.* 4930 kW/m^2)

6.9 Water at atmospheric pressure is boiling on a mechanically polished stainless steel surface that is heated electrically from below. Determine the heat flux from the surface to the water when the surface temperature is 106°C, and compare it with the critical heat flux for nucleate boiling. Repeat for the case of water boiling on a Teflon-coated stainless steel surface. (*Ans.* 29.29 kW/m^2, $q_{max} = 1.10^7$ MW/m^2, 345.3 kW/m^2)

6.10 During the boiling of saturated water at 100°C with an electric heating element, a heat flux of 500 kW/m^2 is achieved with a temperature difference of 9.3°C. What is the value of the coefficient C_{sf} for the heater surface? (*Ans.* 0.008)

6.11 Repeat Problem 6.9 using a surface temperature of 400°C for the mechanically polished stainless steel surface.

(*Ans.* 44.74 kW/m^2)

6.12 Water at saturation temperature and atmospheric pressure is boiled with an electrically heated, horizontal platinum wire

of 1.27 mm diameter. Determine the boiling heat transfer coefficient and the heat flux for a temperature difference $\Delta T_e = 650°C$.

(*Ans.* 368.2 W/m² K, 239.33 kW/m²)

6.13 An electrically heated copper kettle with a flat bottom of diameter 25 cm is to boil water at atmospheric pressure at a rate of 2.5 kg/h. What is the temperature of the bottom surface of the kettle? (*Ans.* 106.1°C)

6.14 An electrically heated, copper, spherical heating element of diameter 10 cm is immersed in water at atmospheric pressure and saturation temperature. The surface of the element is maintained at a uniform temperature at 115°C. Calculate (a) the surface heat flux, (b) the rate of evaporation and (c) the peak heat flux.

(*Ans.* 484 kW/m², (b) 24.3 kg/h, (c) 0.933 MW/m²)

6.15 Water at saturation temperature and atmospheric pressure is boiled in the stable film boiling regime with an electrically heated, horizontal platinum wire of diameter 1.27 mm. Calculate the surface temperature necessary to produce a heat flux of 150 kW/m².

6.16 Calculate the heat transfer coefficient during stable film boiling of water from 9 mm diameter horizontal carbon tube. The water is saturated at 100°C and the tube surface is at 1000°C. Assume the emissivity of carbon surface to be 0.8. Properties of steam are $\rho_v = 0.266$ kg/m³, $\mu_v = 28.7 \times 10^{-6}$ kg/ms and $k_v = 0.0616$ W/mk.

(*Ans.* 283.8 W/m² K)

6.17 Saturated water at 100∞C flows through a 20 mm diameter copper tube with an average velocity of 2 m/s. The tube well is maintained at 111°C. Calculate the heat flux, assuming nucleate boiling. Take $\rho_v = 0.6$ kg/m³

(*Ans.* 326 kW/m²)

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Radiation Heat Transfer

7

Thermal radiation refers to the radiant energy emitted by bodies by virtue of their own temperatures, resulting from the thermal excitation of the molecules. Radiation is assumed to propagate in the form of electromagnetic waves. The assumption of wave nature of radiation can explain the phenomena of diffraction, interference and polarisation of light. Radiation is also assumed to be emitted in discrete quanta called photons, each quantum of energy being $h\nu$, where h is Planck's constant, 6.625×10^{-34} Js, and ν is the frequency. The particle nature of radiation can explain the Compton effect in which a photon striking an electron changes its trajectory. Thermal radiation thus exhibits the wave–particle duality [1], behaving both like particles (photons which have no rest mass, but possess momenta) and like waves.

7.1 THERMAL RADIATION

Thermal radiation is generally described in terms of electromagnetic waves, all of which travel at the velocity of light. The wavelength and frequency of radiation propagating in a medium are related by

$$\mathbf{c = \nu\lambda}$$

where c is the velocity of light in the medium,

ν is the frequency and,

λ is the wavelength.

When the medium in which radiation travels is vacuum, the velocity of propagation is $c = 2.9979 \times 10^8$ m/s.

The wavelength is expressed in micron μ or angstrom Å:

1 micron = 1 micrometer = 1 μm = 10^{-6} m

1Å = 10^{-10} m

Electromagnetic radiation of all kinds is similar in nature, and is differentiated only by wavelength as shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 *Classification of electromagnetic radiation by wavelength*

Kind of radiation	*Wavelength*
Cosmic rays	upto 4×10^{-7} μm
Gamma rays	4×10^{-7} to 1.4×10^{-4} μm
X-rays	1×10^{-5} to 2×10^{-2} μm
Ultraviolet rays	0.02 to 0.4 μm
Visible radiation	0.4 to 0.8 μm
Thermal (infrared) radiation	0.8 μm to 800 μm or 0.8 mm
Heat rays	0.4 μm to 800 μm
Radio waves	0.2 mm to 2×10^{10} μm or 20 km

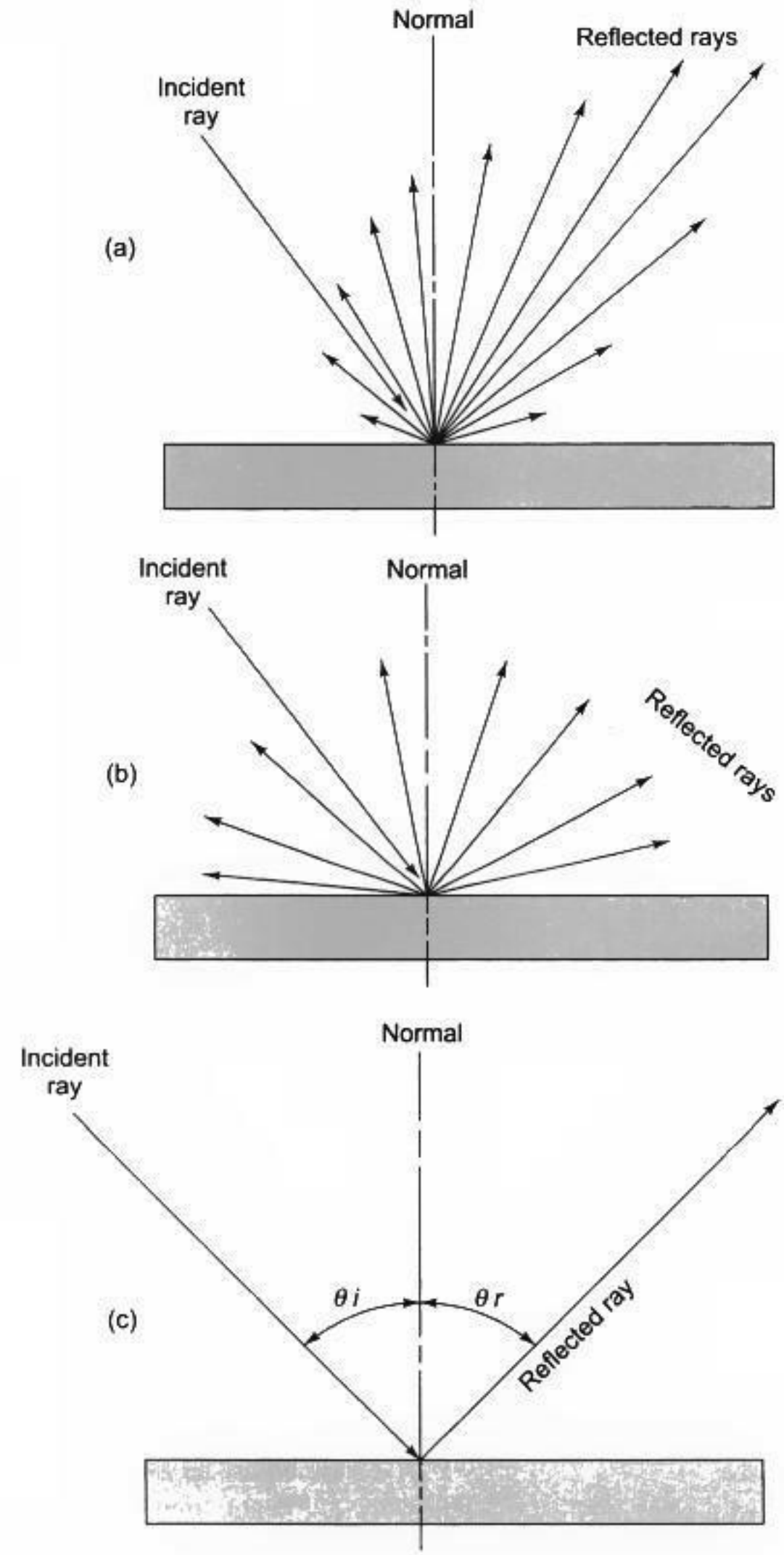


Fig. 7.3 *Types of reflection from a surface: (a) actual or irregular (b) diffuse and (c) specular or mirrorlike*

The variation of $E_{b\lambda}$ with λ and T is shown in Fig. 7.4. The total radiation, E_b, is distributed among wavelengths varying from 0 to ∞. Therefore, at a particular temperature,

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This is known as *Wien's displacement law*. Here, λ_{max} is the wavelength at which $E_{b\lambda}$ is the maximum at a particular temperature. The value of $(E_{b\lambda})_{max}$ shifts towards the shorter wavelengths with increasing temperature.

The maximum emissive power of a black body can be found from Planck's law; $\lambda = \lambda_{max}$ is replaced from Eq. (7.14).

$$(E_{b\lambda})_{max} = \frac{C_1 \lambda^{-5}}{e^{C_2/\lambda T} - 1} = \frac{3.74 \times 10^{-16} \left(2.898 \times 10^{-3}/T\right)^{-5}}{e^{4.965} - 1}$$

or
$$\mathbf{(E_{b\lambda})_{max} = C_3 T^5 \ W/m^3} \tag{7.15}$$

where the constant $C_3 = 1.287 \times 10^{-5}$ W/m^3 K^5. From Eq. (7.15) it follows that the magnitude of $(E_b)_{max}$ is proportional to the fifth power of the absolute temperature of the body.

7.9.5 Planck's Law in Dimensionless Form

Planck's law can be expressed in dimensionless form by using Eq. (7.15). Therefore,

$$\frac{E_{b\lambda}}{(E_{b\lambda})_{max}} = \frac{C_1}{C_3 (\lambda T)^5} \frac{1}{e^{C_2/\lambda T} - 1}$$
$$= f(\lambda T) \tag{7.16}$$

If we substitute the value of T from Eq. (7.14),

$$\frac{E_{b\lambda}}{(E_{b\lambda})_{max}} = \phi\left(\frac{\lambda}{\lambda_{max}}\right) \tag{7.17}$$

Figure 7.10 is obtained by plotting Eqs (7.16) and (7.17). The maximum of this relationship corresponds to the values of

$$\frac{E_{b\lambda}}{(E_{b\lambda})_{max}} = 1 \text{ and } \frac{\lambda}{\lambda_{max}} = 1$$

$$f = \frac{\int_0^{\lambda} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda}{\int_0^{\infty} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda} = \frac{\int_0^{\lambda} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4} \tag{7.18}$$

This is also equal to the ratio of area A_1 to the total area under the curve at T (Fig. 7.11). Similarly, for the wavelength range between λ_1 and λ_2, the fraction of radiation at temperature T, as shown in Fig. 7.11, would be

$$f = \frac{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4} = \frac{1}{\sigma T^4}\left(\int_0^{\lambda_2} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda - \int_0^{\lambda_1} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda\right)$$
$$= \frac{\textbf{Area } \mathbf{A_2}}{\textbf{Total area}} \tag{7.19}$$

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$$Q_{2-1} = \frac{\sigma T_2^4}{\pi} \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2}{r^2} \, dA_1 \, dA_2$$

$$= A_2 F_{21} \sigma T_2^4 \tag{7.33}$$

where $$\mathbf{A_2 F_{21}} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2}{r^2} \, \mathbf{dA_1 \, dA_2} \tag{7.34}$$

Therefore, the net energy exchange between A_1 and A_2 using Eqs. (7.30) and (7.33),

$$(Q_{12})_{net} = Q_{1-2} - Q_{2-1}$$

$$= \sigma A_1 F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4) \tag{7.35}$$

where from Eqs (7.30) and (7.34),

$$\mathbf{A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2}{r^2} \, \mathbf{dA_1 \, dA_2}$$

Here, F_{12} is called the *shape factor* of A_1 with respect to A_2. This is the fraction of energy leaving A_1 that strikes A_2 (and is absorbed, because the surface is black). Similarly, F_{21} is the shape factor of A_2 with respect to A_1, which is also the fraction of energy leaving A_2 that strikes A_1 (and is absorbed). Since the values of F_{12} and F_{21} depend on how the two surfaces are exposed to each other or "see" each other, these are also called *view factors*, *geometry factors* or *configuration factors*. Unless A_1 is equal to A_2, $F_{12} \neq F_{21}$. But

$$\mathbf{A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}} \tag{7.36}$$

This is known as the *reciprocity theorem*.

7.13 SHAPE FACTOR

If the interior surface of a completely enclosed space, such as a room or a furnace is subdivided into parts having areas $A_1, A_2, A_3, \cdots, A_n$ (Fig. 7.18) then

$$\begin{aligned} F_{11} + F_{12} + F_{13} + \cdots + F_{1n} &= 1 \\ F_{21} + F_{22} + F_{23} + \cdots + F_{2n} &= 1 \\ &\vdots \\ F_{n1} + F_{n2} + F_{n3} + \cdots + F_{nn} &= 1 \end{aligned} \tag{7.37}$$

In addition, the reciprocity theorem [Eq. (7.36)] holds true for any two surfaces of the enclosure, e.g.

$$A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}, A_1 F_{13} = A_3 F_{31}$$

$$A_2 F_{23} = A_3 F_{32} \text{ and so on}$$

The decomposition of one or both the surfaces into subdivisions produces a combination of geometrical configurations for which the shape factor is easily determined. Of the two surfaces A_1 and A_2, if A_1 is subdivided into two parts A_3 and A_4, then the radiant heat exchange between A_1 and A_2 is

$$Q_{1-2} = Q_{3-2} + Q_{4-2}$$

If the surfaces are black,

$$\sigma A_1 F_{12}(T_1^4 - T_2^4) = \sigma A_3 F_{32}(T_3^4 - T_2^4) + \sigma A_4 F_{42}(T_4^4 - T_2^4)$$

Since, $$T_1 = T_3 = T_4,$$

$$\mathbf{A_1 F_{12} = A_3 F_{32} + A_4 F_{42}}$$

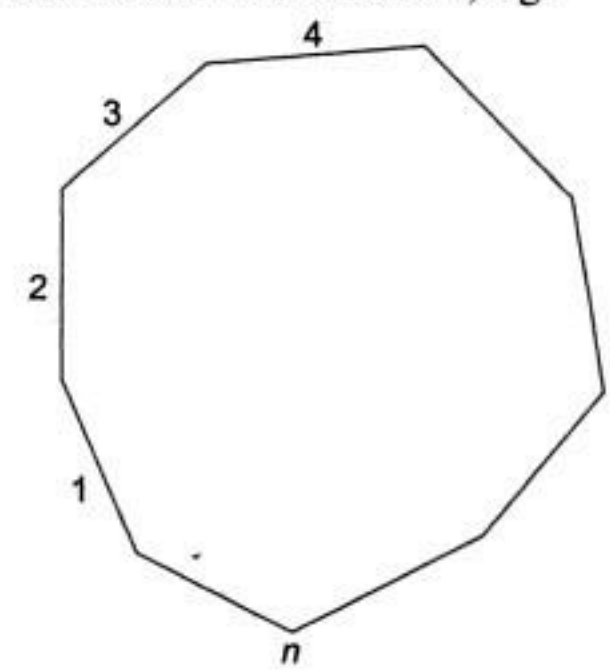


Fig. 7.18 *Enclosure of black surfaces*

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$$\cancel{F_{11}}^{\,=\,0} + F_{12} + F_{1R} = 1$$

$$F_{1R} = 1 - F_{12}$$

Similarly, $$F_{2R} = 1 - F_{21}$$

$$A_2 F_{2R} = A_2(1 - F_{21}) = A_R F_{R2}$$

The network above (Fig. 7.41) is a simple series parallel system and may be solved to compute the heat flow. Let R' is the sum of the resistances $1/[A_1(1 - F_{12})]$ and $[1/A_2(1 - F_{12})]$, which are in series,

$$R' = \frac{1}{A_1(1 - F_{12})} + \frac{1}{A_2(1 - F_{21})}$$

$$= \frac{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}{A_1A_2 - A_1^2F_{12} - A_1A_2F_{12} + A_1^2F_{12}^2}$$

Let R_{eq} be the equivalent resistance of the parallel resistances of R' and $1/(A_1 F_{12})$, so that

$$\frac{1}{R_{eq}} = \frac{1}{R'} + A_1F_{12}$$

$$= \frac{A_1A_2 - A_1^2F_{12} - A_1A_2F_{12} + A_1^2F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}} + A_1F_{12}$$

$$= \frac{A_1\left(A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2\right)}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}$$

$$\mathbf{R_{eq}} = \frac{\mathbf{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}}{\mathbf{A_1\left(A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2\right)}}$$

The total resistance offered to heat flow is

$$\overline{R} = \frac{1 - \varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1 A_1} + \frac{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}{A_1\left(A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2\right)} + \frac{1 - \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2 A_2} \tag{7.66}$$

Therefore, the heat flow

$$(Q_{12})_{net} = \frac{E_{B_1} - E_{B_2}}{\dfrac{1 - \varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1 A_1} + \dfrac{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}{A_1\left(A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2\right)} + \dfrac{1 - \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2 A_2}}$$

or

$$(Q_{12})_{net} = \frac{\sigma A_1\left(T_1^4 - T_2^4\right)}{\left[\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1} - 1\right] + \dfrac{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}{A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2} + \dfrac{A_1}{A_2}\left[\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right]} \tag{7.67}$$

$$= \frac{\sigma \mathbf{A_1}\left(\mathbf{T_1^4 - T_2^4}\right)}{\left[\dfrac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_1}} - \mathbf{1}\right] + \dfrac{\mathbf{1}}{\overline{\mathbf{F}}_{\mathbf{12}}} + \dfrac{\mathbf{A_1}}{\mathbf{A_2}}\left[\dfrac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon_2}} - \mathbf{1}\right]} \tag{7.68}$$

where $$\mathbf{1/\overline{F}_{12}} = \frac{\mathbf{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}}{\mathbf{A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2}} \tag{7.68a}$$

which is the same as Eq. (7.47).

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Solved Examples

Example 7.1 A 100 W electric bulb has a filament temperature of 3001 °C. Assuming the filament to be black, calculate (a) the diameter of the wire if the length is 250 mm and (b) the efficiency of the bulb if visible radiation lies in the range of wavelengths from 0.5 μ to 0.8 μ.

Solution

(a) For a black body the rate of emission of radiant energy

$$Q = \sigma A T^4 = \sigma \pi d l T^4$$

where d is the diameter and l is the length of the filament

$$Q = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi \times d \times 0.25 \times (32.74)^4 = 100$$

$$d = \frac{100 \times 1000}{5.67 \times (32.74)^4 \times \pi \times 0.25} \text{ mm} = 0.02 \text{ mm} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(b) The efficiency of the bulb is defined as (Fig. Ex. 7.1)

$$\eta_{\text{bulb}} = \frac{\text{Energy in the visible range of wavelengths}}{\text{Total energy in the spectrum}}$$

$$= \frac{\int_{0.5\mu}^{0.8\mu} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda}{\int_{0}^{\infty} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda} = \frac{\int_{0.5\mu}^{0.8\mu} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma T^4}\left(\int_{0}^{0.8\mu} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda - \int_{0}^{0.5\mu} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda \right)$$

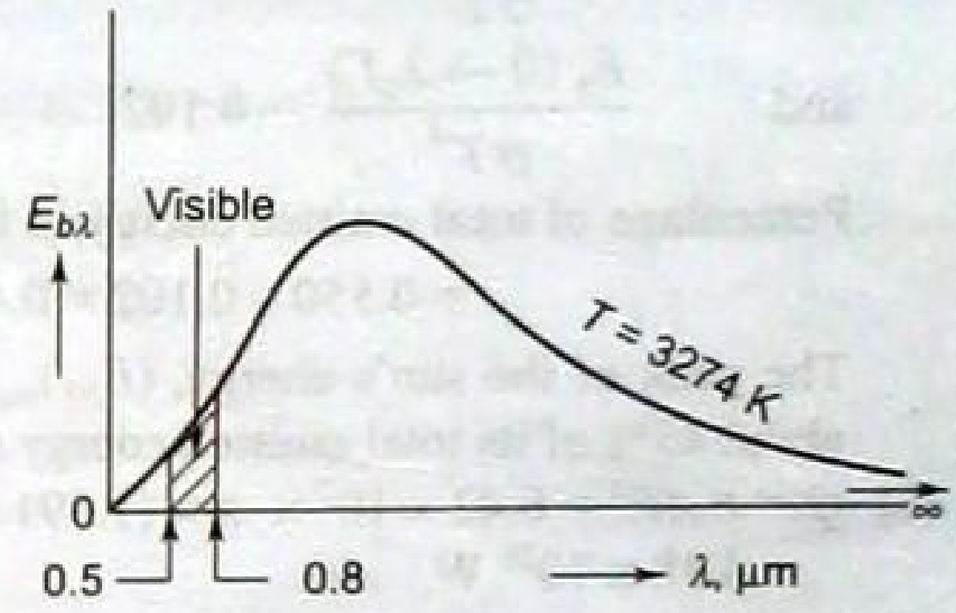


Fig. Ex. 7.1

Now, $\lambda_1 T = 0.8 \times 3274\ \mu\text{K} = 2619.2\ \mu\text{K}$

and $\lambda_2 T = 0.5 \times 3274 = 1637\ \mu\text{K}$

From Table 7.3

When $\lambda_1 T = 2.6192 \times 10^{-3}$ mK, $\frac{E_b(0 \to \lambda_1 T)}{\sigma T^4} = 0.184$

and when $\lambda_2 T = 1.637 \times 10^{-3}$ mK, $\frac{E_b(0 \to \lambda_2 T)}{\sigma T^4} = 0.022 \quad = 0.022$

Efficiency of the bulb = 0.184 – 0.022 = 0.162, or 16.2% *Ans.*

About 84% of the energy leaves the bulb as infrared energy.

Example 7.2 Assuming the sun to be a black body having a surface temperature of 5800 K, calculate (a) the total emissive power, (b) the wavelength at which the maximum spectral intensity occurs, (c) the maximum value of E_{b_λ}, (d) the percentage of total emitted energy that lies in the visible range of 0.35 μ to 0.76 μ and (e) the total amount of radiant energy emitted by the sun per unit time if its diameter can be assumed to be 1.391×10^9 m.

Solution

(a) $E_b = \sigma T^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (5800)^4$
$= 6.42 \times 10^7 \text{ W/m}^2 = 64{,}200 \text{ kW/m}^2$ *Ans.*

(b) $\lambda_{max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mK}$

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3}}{5800} = 5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} = 0.5\ \mu \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(c) $(E_{b\lambda})_{max} = 1.287 \times 10^{-5}\ T^5 \text{ W/m}^3$
$= 1.287 \times 10^{-5} \times (5800)^5 = 8.45 \times 10^{13} \text{ W/m}^3$
$= 8.45 \times 10^{10} \text{ kW/m}^3$ *Ans.*

(d) $\lambda_1 T = 0.38 \times 10^{-6} \times 5800 = 2.205 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mK}$
$\lambda_2 T = 0.76 \times 10^{-6} \times 5800 = 4.407 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mK}$
From Table 7.3,

$$\frac{E_b(0 \to \lambda_2 T)}{\sigma T^4} = 0.550$$

and $$\frac{E_b(0 \to \lambda_1 T)}{\sigma T^4} = 0.102$$

Percentage of total emitted energy in the visible range
$= 0.550 - 0.102 = 0.448$, or 44.8% *Ans.*

The peak of the sun's energy, $(E_{b\lambda})_{max}$, at $\lambda_{max} = 0.5\mu$ is in the visible portion of the spectrum about 45% of its total emitted energy can be intercepted by human eye.

(e) $Q = \sigma A T^4 = 6.42 \times 10^7 \times \pi \times (1.391 \times 10^9)^2 \text{ W}$
$= 4.38 \times 10^{26} \text{ W}$ *Ans.*

Example 7.3 The spectral emissivity function of an opaque surface at 800 K is approximated by a step functi and is given below:

$\varepsilon_1 = 0.3$ for $0 \le \lambda \le 3\ \mu\text{m}$
$\varepsilon_\lambda = \varepsilon_2 = 0.8$ for $3\ \mu\text{m} \le \lambda \le 7\ \mu\text{m}$
$\varepsilon_3 = 0.1$ for $7\ \mu\text{m} \le \lambda \le \infty$

Determine the average emissivity of the surface and the emissive power.

Solution The average emissivity can be determined by breaking the integral

$$\varepsilon(T) = \frac{\int_0^\infty \varepsilon_\lambda(T)\, E_{b\lambda}(T)\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4}$$

into three parts

$$\varepsilon(T) = \frac{\varepsilon_1 \int_0^{\lambda_1} E_{b\lambda}(T)\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4} + \frac{\varepsilon_2 \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} E_{b\lambda}(T)\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4} + \frac{\varepsilon_3 \int_{\lambda_2}^{\infty} E_{b\lambda}(T)\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4}$$

$$= \varepsilon_1 f_{0-\lambda_1}(T) + \varepsilon_2 f_{\lambda_1-\lambda_2}(T) + \varepsilon_3 f_{\lambda_2-\infty}(T)$$

$$= \varepsilon_1 f_{\lambda_1} + \varepsilon_2 (f_{\lambda_2} - f_{\lambda_1}) + \varepsilon_3 (1 - f_{\lambda_2})$$

where f_{λ_1} and f_{λ_2} are black body radiation functions corresponding to $\lambda_1 T$ and $\lambda_2 T$. From Table 7.3,

when $\lambda_1 T = 3\,\mu\text{m} \times 800\ \text{K} = 2400\ \mu\text{m K}$, $f_{\lambda_1} = 0.140256$

when $\lambda_2 T = 7\mu\text{m} \times 800\ \text{K} = 5600\ \mu\text{m K}$, $f_{\lambda_2} = 0.701046$.

$$\varepsilon = 0.3 \times 0.140256 + 0.8(0.701046 - 0.140256) + 0.1\,(1 - 0.701046)$$

$$= 0.521 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The emissive power of the surface is

$$E = \varepsilon\sigma T^4 = 0.521 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (800)^4$$

$$= 12{,}100\ \text{W/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.4 A domestic hot water tank (0.5 m diameter and 1 m high) is installed in a large space. The ambient temperature is 25°C. If the tank surface is oxidised copper with an emissivity of 0.8, find the heat loss from the tank surface at temperature 80°C by radiation. What would be the reduction in heat loss if a coating of aluminium paint having an emissivity of 0.3 is given to the tank? What would be the increase in heat loss if a white paint having an emissivity of 0.97 is given to the tank?

Solution Since the tank is small compared to the surrounding space, $\mathcal{F}_{12} = \varepsilon_1 = 0.8$.

$$A_1 = \pi d l + 2\frac{\pi}{4} d^2 = \pi \times 0.5 \times 1 + 2 \times \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.5)^2$$

$$= \frac{5\pi}{8}\ \text{m}^2$$

Rate of heat loss from the tank by radiation

$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \frac{5\pi}{8} \times 0.8\,[(353)^4 - (298)^4]$$

$$= 690\ \text{W}$$

If the tank is coated with aluminium paint ($\varepsilon = 0.3$), the reduction in heat loss

$$= \frac{0.8 - 0.3}{0.8} \times 690 = 430\ \text{W}$$

$\therefore$ $Q_{12} = 260\ \text{W}$

If the tank is coated with white paint ($\varepsilon = 0.97$), the rate of radiant heat loss

$$Q_{12} = \frac{690}{0.8} \times 0.97 = 835.62\ \text{W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.5 The distance of the sun from the earth is 150×10^6 km. If the radius of the sun is 0.7×10^6 km and its temperature is 6200 K, estimate approximately the mean temperature of the earth. Assume that the rate of radiative transfer from the sun to the earth is equal to the rate of radiant transfer from the earth to the outer space which is at 0 K. Consider the earth and sun as black.

Solution The fraction of solar radiation intercepted by the earth is

$$F_{12} = \frac{\pi r_2^2}{4\pi x^2}$$

where x is the distance of the sun from the earth and r_2 is the radius of the earth. Both the sun and the earth are considered to be black bodies (Fig. Ex. 7.5).

The net rate of radiative energy transfer from sun to the earth

$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= \sigma 4\pi r_1^2 \frac{\pi r_2^2}{4\pi x^2}(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= \frac{\pi r_1^2 r_2^2}{x^2}\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

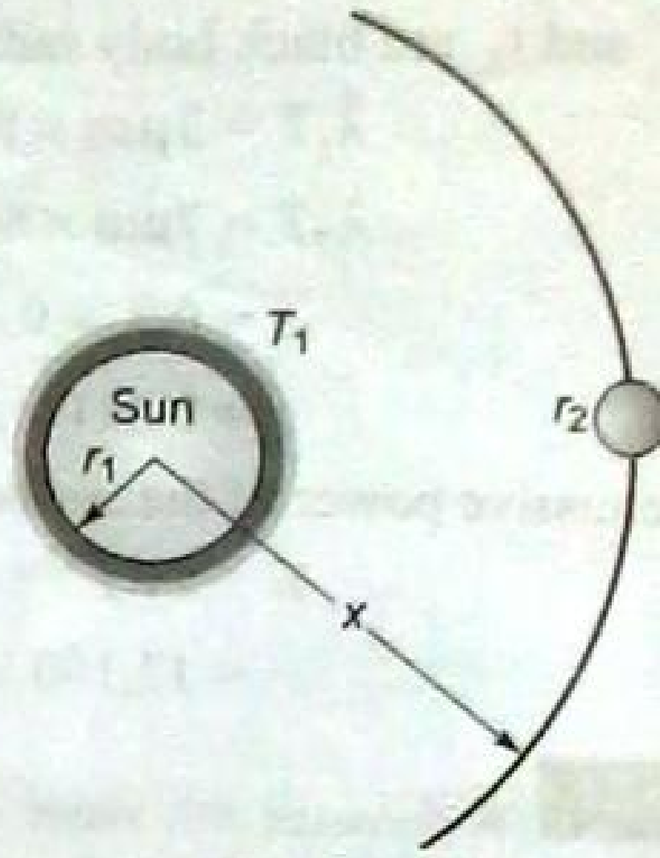


Fig. Ex. 7.5

The rate of radiant transfer from the earth to outer surface which is at 0 K is

$$Q_{20} = \sigma 4\pi r_2^2 \times 1 \times (T_2^4 - 0)$$

$$= 4\pi r_2^2 \sigma T_2^4$$

At equilibrium, $Q_{12} = Q_{20}$

$$4\pi r_2^2 \sigma T_2^4 = \frac{\pi r_1^2 r_2^2}{x^2}\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$4x^2/r_1^2 = (T_1/T_2)^4 - 1$$

Since $T_1 >> T_2$, 1 can be neglected.

$$T_2 = T_1\left(\frac{r_1}{2x}\right)^{1/2} = 6200\left(\frac{0.7\times10^6}{2\times150\times10^6}\right)^{1/2} \equiv 300\ \text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.6 Assuming the sun to radiate as a black body, calculate its temperature from the data given below:
Solar constant, i.e. average radiant heat flux incident on the earth's surface = 1380 W/m^2.
Radius of the sun = 7×10^8 m
Distance between the sun and the earth = 15×10^{10} m

Solution Heat flux from small area dA_1 on the surface of the sun to the small area dA_2 on the surface of earth (Fig. Ex. 7.5) is given by Eq. (7.29),

$$dQ_{1-2} = I_1 dA_1 \cos\phi_1 \frac{dA_2 \cos\phi_2}{r^2}$$

or,
$$\frac{dQ_{1-2}}{dA_2 \cos\phi_2} = \frac{E_b}{\pi r^2} dA_1 \cos\phi_1$$

where r is the distance of the earth from the sun ($= x$).

On integration,

$$\int \frac{dQ_{1-2}}{dA_2 \cos\phi_2} = \frac{E_b}{\pi r^2}\int dA_1 \cos\phi_1$$

Now, the left hand side is the solar constant,

$$\therefore \quad 1380 = \frac{\sigma T^4}{\pi r^2}\cdot \pi r_1^2$$

where r_1 = radius of the sun and T = sun's temperature.

$$\sigma T^4 = 1380 \times \left(\frac{r}{r_1}\right)^2$$

$$5.67 \times 10^{-8} T^4 = 1380 \times \left(\frac{15 \times 10^{10}}{7 \times 10^8}\right)^2$$

$$\left(\frac{T}{100}\right)^4 = 243.39 \times (214.28)^2$$

$$\therefore \quad \frac{T}{100} = 3.95 \times 14.64$$

$$\therefore \quad T = 5782 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.7 A black body emits radiation at 2000 K. Calculate (i) the monochromatic emissive power at 1 μm wavelength, (ii) wavelength at which the emission is maximum, and (iii) the maximum emissive power.

Solution

(i) From Planck's law,

$$E_{b\lambda} = \frac{c_1 \lambda^{-5}}{e^{c_2/\lambda T} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{3.74 \times 10^{-16} (1 \times 10^{-6})^{-5}}{e^{1.438 \times 10^{-2}/(10^{-6} \times 2000)} - 1}$$

$$= 2.79 \times 10^{11} \text{ W/m}^3 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(ii) From Wien's displacement law,

$$\lambda_{max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mK}$$

$$\therefore \quad \lambda_{max} = \frac{2.898 \times 10^{-3}}{2000} = 1.449 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

(iii) $$(E_{b\lambda})_{max} = \frac{c_1 \lambda_{max}^{-5}}{e^{c_2/\lambda_{max} T} - 1}$$

$$= \frac{3.74 \times 10^{-16} (1.449 \times 10^{-6})^{-5}}{e^{0.01433/(1.449 \times 10^{-6} \times 2000)} - 1}$$

$$= 4.1 \times 10^{11} \text{ W/m}^3 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.8 Assuming the sun as a black body, it emits maximum radiation at 0.5 μm wavelength. Calculate (i) the surface temperature of the sun, (ii) its emissive power, (iii) the energy received by the surface of the earth and (iv) the energy received by a 2 m × 2 m solar collector whose normal is inclined at 60° to the sun. Take the diameter of the sun as 1.4×10^9 m, diameter of the earth as 13×10^6 m and the distance of the earth from the sun as 15×10^{10} m.

Solution

$$\lambda_{max} = 0.5 \text{ μm}$$

From Wien's displacement law,

$$\lambda_{max} T = 2898 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mK}$$

Surface temperature of the sun

$$T = \frac{2898 \times 10^{6}}{0.5 \times 10^{-6}} = 5796 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

Emissive power of the sun, a black body, is obtained from Stefan-Boltzmann law:

$$E_b = \sigma T^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} (5796)^4 = 63865 \text{ kW/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Radiation reaching the earth would be

$$= \text{Emissive power of the sun} \times \left(\frac{\text{Radus of the sun}}{\text{Distance from the earth}} \right)^2$$

$$= 63865 \times \left(\frac{0.7 \times 10^{9}}{15 \times 10^{10}} \right)^2 = 1.39 \text{ kW/m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (iii)}$$

Surface area of the solar collector in the direction normal to solar radiation

$$= A \cos \theta = 4 \cos 60° = 2 \text{ m}^2$$

. Energy received by the solar collector

$$= 1.39 \times 2 = 2.78 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (iv)}$$

Example 7.9 The filament of a 75 W light bulb may be considered a black body radiating into a black enclosure at 70°C. The filament diameter is 0.10 mm and length is 50 mm. Considering the radiation, determine the filament temperature.

Solution *Given*: $Q = 75$ W, $T_2 = 70 + 273 = 343$ K, $d = 0.1$ mm, $l = 50$ mm, T_1 = filament temperature, $\varepsilon_1 = 1$

$$Q = \sigma \varepsilon A (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$75 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 1 \times \pi \times 0.1 \times 10^{-3} \times 50 \times 10^{-3} \times (T_1^4 - 343^4)$$

$$= 8.906 \times 10^{-13} (T_1^4 - 343^4)$$

$\therefore$ $T_1 = 3029 \text{ K} = 2756°\text{C}$ *Ans.*

Example 7.10 A long steel rod 20 mm in diameter is to be heated from 427°C to 538°C. It is placed concentrically in a long cylindrical furnace which has an inside diameter of 160 mm. The inner surface of the furnace is at a temperature of 1093°C and has an emissivity of 0.85. If the surface of the rod has an emissivity of 0.6, estimate the time required for the heating operation. Take the density of steel as 7800 kg/m^3 and its specific heat 0.67 kJ/kg K.

Solution With reference to Fig. Ex. 7.10

$$T_1 = 427 + 273 = 700 \text{ K}$$

$$T_1' = 538 + 273 = 811 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 1093 + 273 = 1366 \text{ K}$$

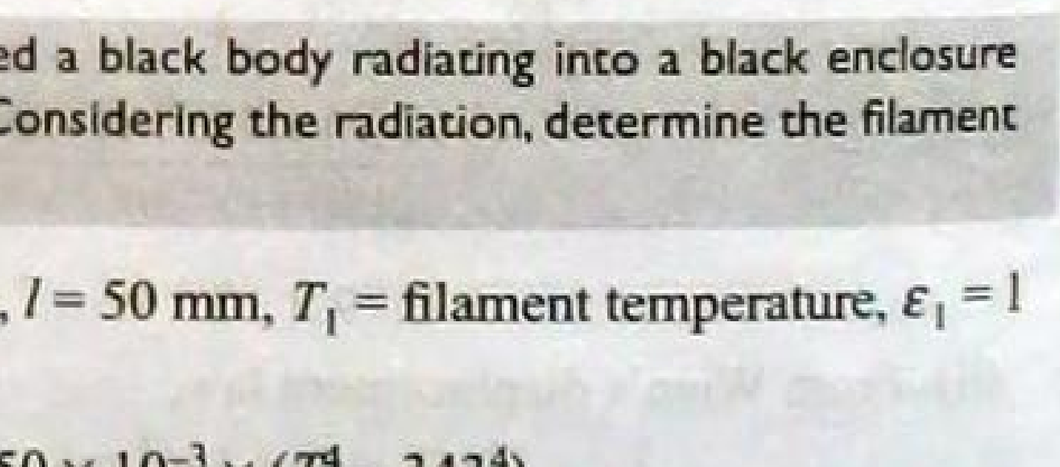


Fig. *Ex. 7.10*

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_1 - 1) + (1/F_{12}) + A_1/A_2 (1/\varepsilon_2 - 1)}$$

where $\varepsilon_1 = 0.6, \varepsilon_2 = 0.85, F_{12} = 1.0, A_1 = \pi \times 0.02 \times L$

$$A_2 = \pi \times 0.16 \times L, \quad L = \text{length of furnace}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{(1/0.6 + 1/8)\left[1/0.85 - 1\right]} = 0.592$$

$(Q_{1-2})_{\text{beginning}}$ = Rate of heat absorption at the beginning per unit length of rod

$$= \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi \times 0.02 \times 1 \times (700^4 - 1366^4)$$

$$= -11{,}543.47 \text{ W/m}$$

$(Q_{1-2})_{\text{end}}$ = Rate of heat absorption at the end

$$= \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1'^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi \times 0.16 \times 1 \, (811^4 - 1366^4)$$

$$= -86{,}864.3 \text{ W/m}$$

$$Q_{\text{average}} = \frac{(Q_{1-2})_{\text{beginning}} + Q_{\text{end}}}{2}$$

$$= -49{,}203.9 \text{ W/m}$$

= Average rate of heat absorption

Let t represent the time required for heating per unit length of rod. Then

$$Q_{\text{average}} \times t = (\rho V)\, c\, (T_f - T_i)$$

$$= 7800 \times \frac{\pi}{4} (0.02)^2 \times 1 \times 0.67 \, (538 - 427) \times 10^3 \text{ J}$$

$$49{,}203.9 \times t = 182147 \text{ J}$$

$$t = \frac{182147}{49{,}203.9} = 3.7 \text{ s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.11 Liquid air boiling at −153°C is stored in a spherical container of diameter 320 mm. The container is surrounded by a concentric spherical shell of diameter 360 mm in a room at 27°C. The space between the two spheres is evacuated. The surfaces of the spheres are flushed with aluminium ($\varepsilon = 0.03$). Taking the latent heat of vaporisation of liquid air as 210 kJ/kg, find the rate of evaporation of liquid air.

Solution Let suffix 1 denote the inner sphere and suffix 2 the outer sphere.

$$(Q_{12})_{\text{net}} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

where

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_1) + A_1/A_2 (1/\varepsilon_2 - 1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\dfrac{1}{0.03} + \dfrac{4\pi (0.16)^2}{4\pi (0.18)^2}\left(\dfrac{1}{0.03} - 1\right)} = 0.017$$

$$A_1 = 4\pi (0.16)^2 \text{ m}^2 = 0.3215 \text{ m}^2$$

$$T_1 = -153 + 273 + 120 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 27 + 273 = 300 \text{ K}$$

$$(Q_{12})_{net} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.3215 \times 0.017\,(120^4 - 300^4)$$
$$= -2.446 \text{ W}$$

$$\text{Rate of evaporation} = \frac{2.446 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kW}}{210 \text{ kJ/kg}} \times 3600$$
$$= 0.042 \text{ kg/h} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.12 An enclosure measures 1.5 m × 1.7 m with a height of 2 m. The walls and ceiling are maintained at 250°C and the floor at 130°C. The walls and ceiling have an emissivity of 0.82 and the floor 0.7. Determine the net radiation to the floor.

Solution

Let A_1 = total area of walls and ceiling
$= (1.5 + 1.75) \times 2 + 1.5 \times 1.75 = 15.625 \text{ m}^2$
A_2 = floor area $= 1.5 \times 1.75 = 2.625 \text{ m}^2$

The floor is completely enclosed by the area A_1.

$$F_{21} + F_{22} = 1$$
$$F_{21} = 1$$
$$A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}$$
$$F_{12} = A_2/A_1 = 2.625/15.625 = 0.168$$

Rate of heat transfer by radiation from the walls and ceiling to the floor

$$Q_{1-2} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

where
$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} - 1\right) + \frac{1}{F_{12}} + \frac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{0.82} - 1\right) + \frac{1}{0.168} + \frac{15.625}{2.625}\left(\frac{1}{0.7} - 1\right)}$$
$$= \frac{1}{8.79} = 0.114$$
$$Q_{1-2} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 15.625 \times 0.114\,(523^4 - 403^4)$$
$$= 4920 \text{ W} = 4.92 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.13 Two parallel rectangular surfaces 1 m × 2 m are opposite to each other at a distance of 4 m. The surfaces are black and at 100°C and 200°C respectively. Calculate the heat exchange by radiation between the two surfaces.

Solution

$$Q_{12} = A_1 F_{12} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$
$$\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = 1$$
$$\frac{X}{L} = \frac{2}{4} = 0.5 \text{ and } \frac{Y}{L} = \frac{1}{4} = 0.25$$

From Fig. 7.28,

$$F_{12} = 0.042$$

$$Q_{12} = (2 \times 1) \times 0.042 \times 5.67 \left[\left(\frac{473}{100}\right)^4 - \left(\frac{373}{100}\right)^4\right]$$

$$= 149.5 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

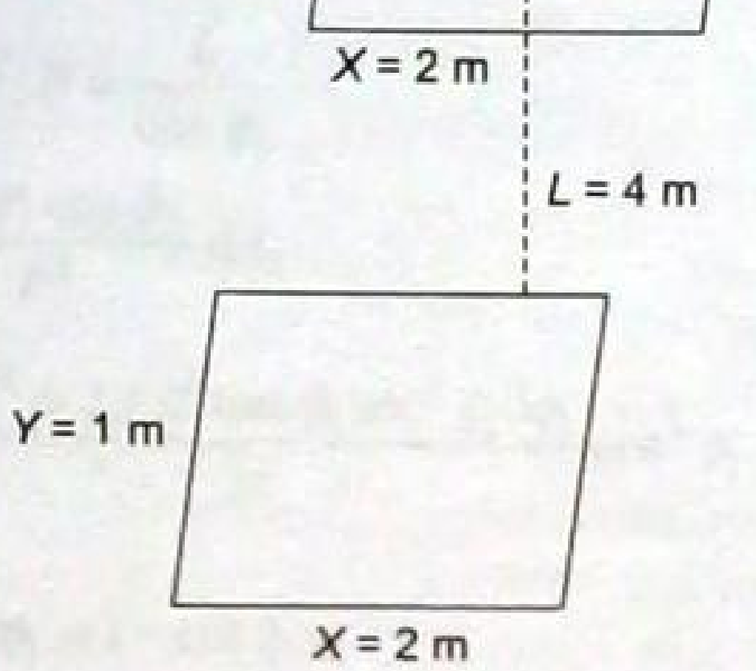


Fig. *Ex. 7.13*

Example 7.14 Two black discs 1 m in diameter are placed directly opposite to each other at a distance of 0.5 m. The discs are maintained at 1000 K and 500 K respectively. Calculate the heat flow between the discs (a) when no other surfaces are present and (b) when the discs are connected by a cylindrical refractory no-flux surface.

Solution

(a) The value of F_{12} for $D/x = 1/0.5 = 2$ from Fig. 7.29 is 0.36.

$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 \; F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi \times (0.5)^2 \times 0.36 \, (1000^4 - 500^4)$$

$$= 15021.96 \text{ W} = 15.022 \text{ kW}$$

(b) If the discs are connected by nonconducting and reradiating walls,

$$\overline{F}_{12} = \frac{A_2 - A_1 F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1 F_{12}} = \frac{1 + F_{12}}{2} = \frac{1.36}{2} = 0.68$$

$$\therefore \quad Q_{12} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi \times (0.5)^2 \times 0.68 \, (1000^4 - 500^4)$$

$$= 28374.8 \text{ W} = 28.3748 \text{ kW}$$

Example 7.15 A brick wall having an emissivity of 0.85 is 6 m wide and 4 m high. It is at a distance of 4 m from a 500 mm × 400 mm opening in a furnace wall. The centre line of the opening lies 1 m lower and 1 m left of the centre of the wall. The furnace temperature is 1500°C and that of the wall is 37°C. Calculate the rate of radiation heat transfer between the opening and the wall.

Solution

$$T_1 = 1773 \text{ K} \qquad T_2 = 310 \text{ K}$$

The brick wall is divided into four areas I, II, III and IV as shown in Fig. Ex. 7.15.

Heat loss from the opening to the wall

$$(Q_{1-2})_{net} = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon_e F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

where ε_e = effective emissivity = $\varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2$.

The furnace opening is considered to act as a black body.

$$\varepsilon_e = 1 \times 0.85 = 0.85$$

$$A_1 = 0.5 \times 0.4 = 0.2 \text{ m}^2$$

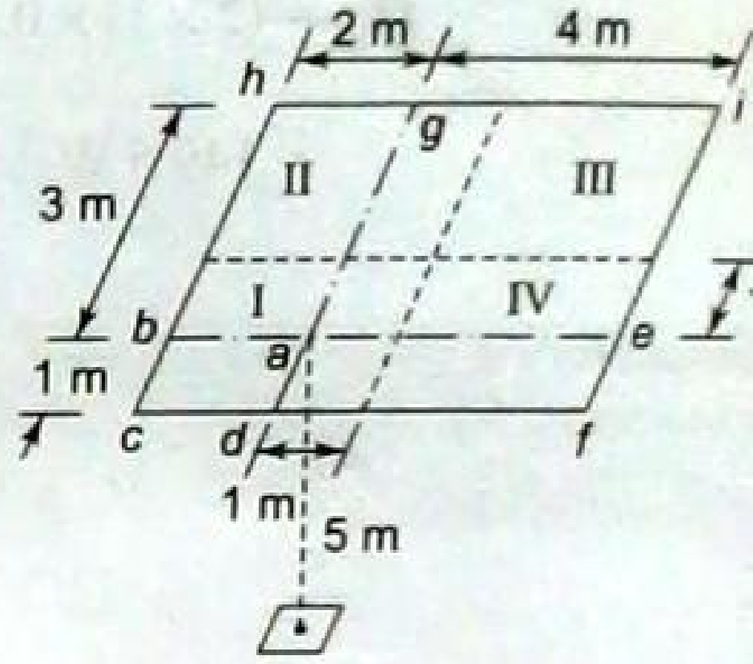


Fig. Ex. 7.15

Rectangle I, $\dfrac{D}{L_1} = \dfrac{5}{1} = 5.0$

$$\frac{D}{L_2} = \frac{5}{2} = 2.5$$

Using Fig. 7.26, $F = 0.023$

Similarly, for

Rectangle II, $\dfrac{D}{L_1} = \dfrac{5}{3} = 1.67$

$$\frac{D}{L_2} = \frac{5}{2} = 2.5$$

$$F = 0.053$$

Rectangle III, $\dfrac{D}{L_1} = \dfrac{5}{3} = 1.67$

$$\frac{D}{L_2} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.25$$

$$F = 0.09$$

Rectangle IV, $\dfrac{D}{L_1} = \dfrac{5}{1} = 5.0$

$$\frac{D}{L_2} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.25$$

$$F = 0.036$$

$$F_{12} = \sum F = 0.023 + 0.053 + 0.09 + 0.036$$

$$= 0.202$$

$$(Q_{12})_{net} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.2 \times 0.85 \times 0.202 \, (1773^4 - 310^4)$$

$$= 19{,}222 \text{ W} = 19.222 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.16 Determine the shape factor F_{12} between a small area A_1 and a parallel circular disc A_2. A_1 is located on the axis of the disc and the semi-vertex angle of the cone formed with the disc as base and A_1 as the vertex is α.

Solution From Eq. (7.31),

$$A_1 F_{12} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2}{r^2} \, dA_1 \, dA_2$$

Considering an elementary ring dA_2 of width dr at a radius r (Fig. Ex. 7.16),

$$dA_2 = 2\pi r \, dr$$

Now,

$$r = L \tan \phi_1$$

$$dr = L \sec^2 \phi_1 \, d\phi_1$$

$$dA_2 = 2\pi L^2 \tan \phi_1 \sec^2 \phi_1 \, d\phi_1$$

$$\frac{L}{P} = \cos \phi_1 \quad \text{or} \quad P = \frac{L}{\cos \phi_1}$$

$$F_{12} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2}{P^2} \, dA_2$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{\phi_1 = 0}^{\alpha} \frac{\cos^2 \phi_1 \, 2\pi L^2 \tan \phi_1 \sec^2 \phi_1 d\phi_1}{L^2} \cos^2 \phi_1$$

$$= \int_0^{\alpha} \sin 2\phi_1 d\phi_1 = 1 - \cos 2\alpha$$

$$= \sin^2 \alpha = \frac{D^2/4}{D^2/4 + L^2} = \frac{D^2}{D^2 + 4L^2}$$

where D is the diameter of the disc.

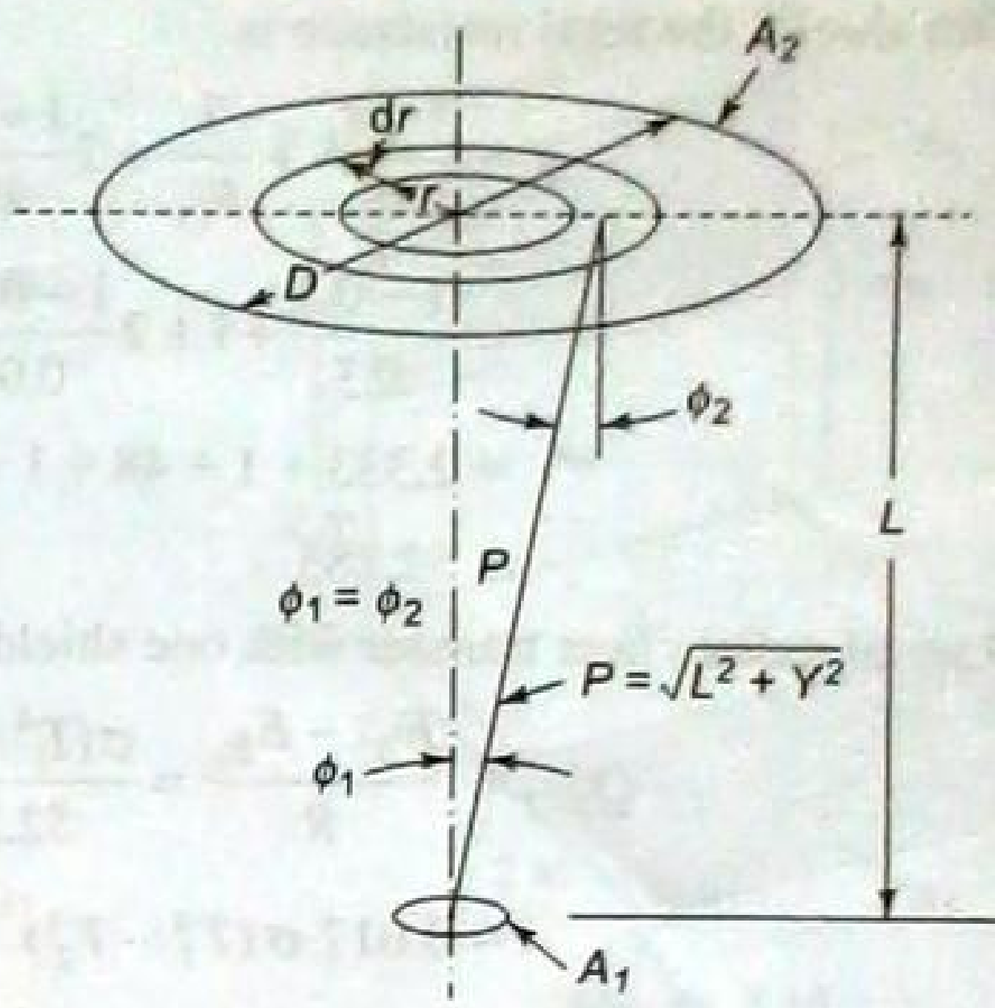


Fig. Ex. 7.16

Example 7.17 Two very large parallel planes with emissivities 0.3 and 0.8 exchange radiative energy. Determine the percentage reduction in radiative energy transfer when a polished aluminium radiation shield ($\varepsilon = 0.04$) is placed between them.

Solution The radiant heat transfer rate without shield is given by

$$\frac{Q}{A} = \frac{\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{1/\varepsilon_1 + 1/\varepsilon_2 - 1} = \frac{\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{1/0.3 + 1/0.8 - 1}$$

$$= 0.279 \, \sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

The radiation network for two infinite parallel planes separated by one radiation shield is shown Fig. Ex. 7.17.

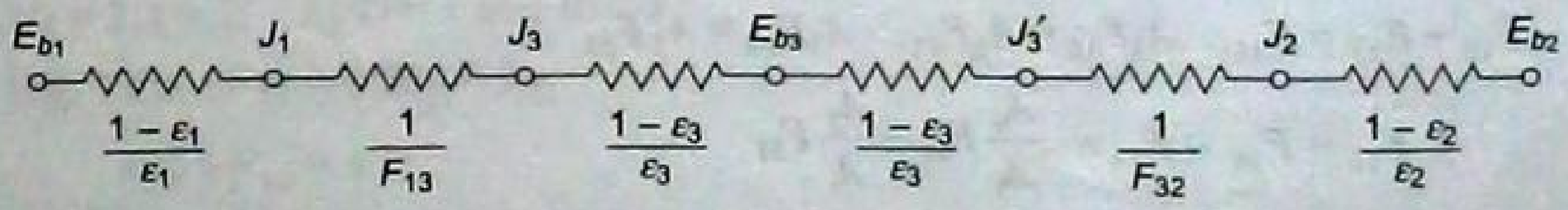


Fig. Ex. 7.17

With shield, the total resistance is

$$R = \frac{1-\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{F_{13}} + 2\frac{1-\varepsilon_3}{\varepsilon_3} + \frac{1}{F_{32}} + \frac{1-\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2}$$

$$= \frac{1-0.3}{0.3} + 1 + 2\frac{1-0.04}{0.04} + 1 + \frac{1-0.08}{0.08}$$

$$= 2.333 + 1 + 48 + 1 + 0.25$$

$$= 52.283$$

Rate of radiant heat transfer with one shield

$$Q_{1-2} = \frac{E_{B_1} - E_{B_2}}{R} = \frac{\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{52.283}$$

$$= 0.017\,\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$\text{Percentage reduction in heat transfer} = \frac{0.279 - 0.017}{0.279} \times 100 = 93.6\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.18 In a cylindrical furnace 0.6 m in diameter and 1 m high, the upper surface is maintained at 727°C and the lower surface is maintained at 427°C. Assuming the cylindrical wall to be a refractory surface, and if the emissivities of the upper and lower surfaces are 0.8 and 0.7 respectively, estimate the net rate of radiative energy transfer from the upper to the lower surface.

Solution The upper and lower surfaces (discs) are connected by a nonconducting and reradiating cylindrical wall. From Fig. 7.29, for the ratio D/L as 0.6, $\overline{F}_{12} = 0.4$.

From Eq. (7.74),

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_1 - 1) + (1/F_{12}) + A_1/A_2(1/\varepsilon_2 - 1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1/0.8-1)+(1/0.4)+1(1/0.7-1)} = 0.314$$

$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12}(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times \pi(0.3)^2 \times 0.314\,[(1000)^4 - (700)^4]$$

$$= 3823.32\ \text{W} = 3.823\ \text{kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.19 Calculate the shape factor F_{12} for the configuration shown in Fig. Ex. 7.19 and the net heat transfer Q_{12} if $T_1 = 427°C$ and $T_2 = 227°C$, and if both surfaces are black (see Fig. Ex. 7.19).

Solution

$$F_{12} + F_{13} = F_{16}, \quad A_1F_{16} = A_6F_{61}, \quad A_1F_{13} = A_3F_{31}$$

$$F_{12} = F_{16} - F_{13} = \frac{A_6}{A_1}F_{61} - \frac{A_3}{A_1}F_{31}$$

$$= \frac{A_6}{A_1}(F_{65} - F_{64}) - \frac{A_3}{A_1}(F_{35} - F_{34})$$

From Fig. 7.27, for $y/x = 4/4 = 1$ and $z/x = 5/4 = 1.25$,

$F_{65} = 0.22$ for $y/x = 4/4 = 1$ and $z/x = 2/4 = 0.5$,

$F_{64} = 0.15$ for $y/x = 2/4 = 0.5$ and $z/x = 5/4 = 1.25$

$F_{35} = 0.30$ and for $y/x = 2/4 = 0.5$ and $z/x = 2/4 = 0.5$

$F_{34} = 0.24$.

By substituting,

$$F_{12} = \frac{4 \times 4}{3 \times 4}(0.22 - 0.15) - \frac{2 \times 4}{3 \times 4}(0.30 - 0.24)$$

$$= 0.093 - 0.04 = 0.053$$

Rate of radiant exchange

$$Q_{12} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 3 \times 4 \times 0.053\ [(700)^4 - (500)^4]$$

$$= 6404.5 \text{ W} = 6.4045 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

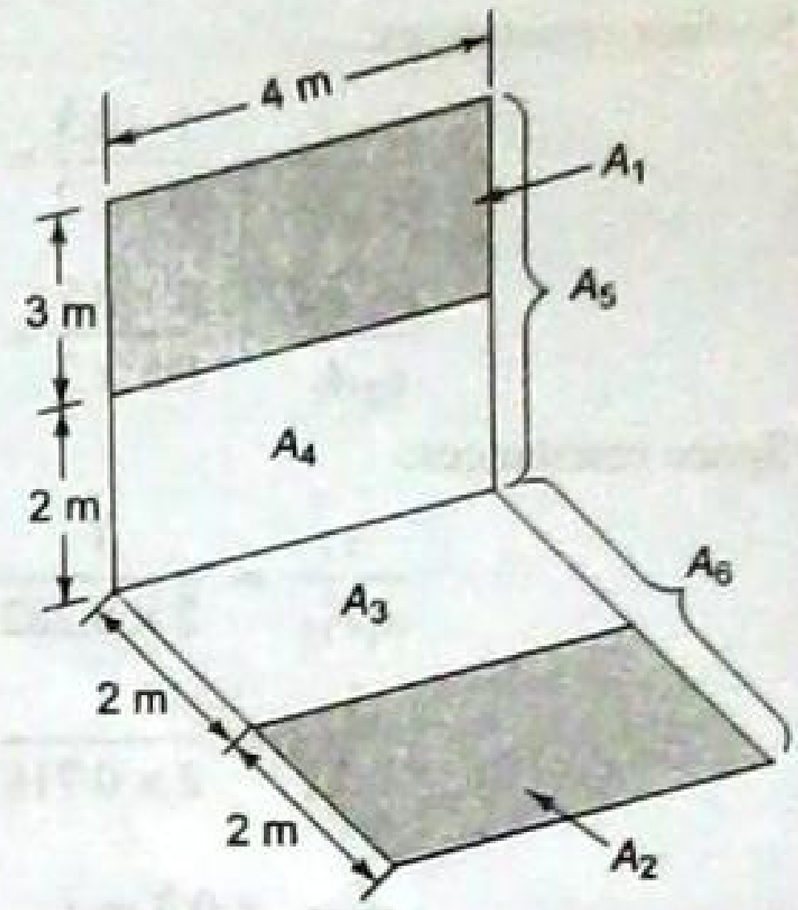


Fig. Ex. 7.19

Example 7.20 Two parallel plates 2 m × 1 m are spaced 1 m apart. The plates are at temperatures of 727°C and 227°C and their emissivities are 0.3 and 0.5 respectively. The plates are located in a large room, the walls of which are at 27°C. Determine the rate of radiant heat loss from each plate and the heat gain by the walls.

Solution There are three surfaces involved in the problem: two parallel plates having $T_1 = 727 + 273 =$ 1000 K, $\varepsilon_1 = 0.3$, $T_2 = 227 + 273 = 500$ K, $\varepsilon_2 = 0.5$, and the surroundings at $T_3 = 27 + 273 = 300$ K. The surroundings are assumed to be black, since no radiation is reflected to the plates and ε_3 is therefore unity

The surface resistance of the walls

$$\frac{1 - \varepsilon_3}{\varepsilon_3 A_3} \approx 0$$

or, $E_{b_3} = J_3$. The radiation network is shown in Fig. Ex. 7.20.

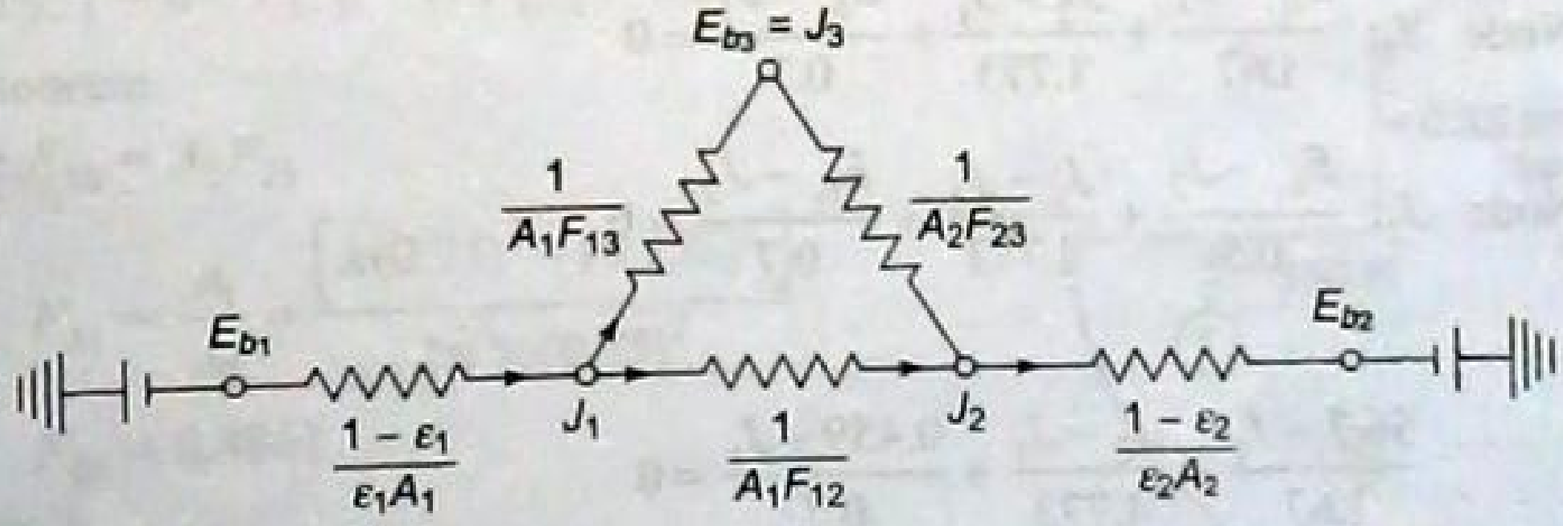


Fig. Ex. 7.20

For $L_1/D = 2/1 = 2$, $L_2/D = 1$ m/1 m = 1

From Fig. 7.28, $F_{12} = 0.282 = F_{21}$

$$F_{12} + F_{13} = 1$$

$$F_{13} = 1 - 0.282 = 0.718$$

$$F_{21} + F_{23} = 1$$

$$F_{23} = 1 - 0.282 = 0.718$$

Surface resistances:

$$\frac{1-\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1 A_1} = \frac{1-0.3}{0.3\times 2} = \frac{7}{6} = 1.67 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$\frac{1-\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2 A_2} = \frac{1-0.5}{0.5\times 2} = 0.5 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

Space resistances:

$$\frac{1}{A_1 F_{12}} = \frac{1}{2\times 0.282} = 1.773 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$\frac{1}{A_1 F_{13}} = \frac{1}{2\times 0.718} = 0.7 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$\frac{1}{A_2 F_{23}} = 0.7 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$E_{b_1} = \sigma T_1^4 = 5.67\times 10^{-8}\times (1000)^4$$
$$= 5.67\times 10^4 \text{ W/m}^2 = 56.7 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$E_{b_2} = \sigma T_2^4 = 5.67\times \left(\frac{500}{100}\right)^4 = 5.67\times 625$$
$$= 3544 \text{ W/m}^2 = 3.544 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$E_{b_3} = \sigma T_3^4 = 5.67\times \left(\frac{300}{100}\right)^4 = 459.27 \text{ W/m}^2$$
$$= 0.459 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

For each node, the algebraic sum of the currents is zero.

Node J_1: $$\frac{E_{b_1}-J_1}{1.67} + \frac{J_2-J_1}{1.773} + \frac{E_{b_3}-J_1}{0.7} = 0$$

Node J_2: $$\frac{E_{b_2}-J_2}{0.5} + \frac{J_1-J_2}{1.773} + \frac{E_{b_3}-J_2}{0.7} = 0$$

Substituting,

$$\frac{56.7-J_1}{1.67} + \frac{J_2-J_1}{1.773} + \frac{0.459-J_1}{0.7} = 0$$

and

$$\frac{3.544-J_2}{0.5} + \frac{J_1-J_2}{1.773} + \frac{0.459-J_2}{0.7} = 0$$

or,

$$2.593\, J_1 - 0.564\, J_2 = 34.606$$

and

$$3.993\, J_2 - 0.564\, J_1 = 7.744$$

Solving the two equations,

$$J_1 = 14.246 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$J_2 = 4.127 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

Heat lost by plate 1

$$Q_1 = \frac{E_{b_1} - J_1}{1.67} = \frac{56.7 - 14.246}{1.67} = 25.42 \text{ kW}$$

Heat lost by plate 2

$$Q_2 = \frac{E_{b_2} - J_2}{0.5} = 2(3.544 - 4.127) = -1.166 \text{ kW}$$

Heat gained by the walls

$$Q_3 = \frac{J_1 - J_3}{1/(A_1 F_{12})} + \frac{J_2 - J_3}{1/(A_2 F_{23})}$$

$$= \frac{14.246 - 0.459}{0.7} + \frac{4.127 - 0.459}{0.7} = 24.93 \text{ kW}$$

Alternatively,

$$Q_3 = Q_1 + Q_2 = 24.254 \text{ kW}$$

Example 7.21 A hemispherical cavity of radius 0.75 m is covered with a plate having a hole of 0.25 m diameter drilled at its centre. The inner surface of the plate is maintained at 550 K by a heater embedded in the surface. Assuming the surfaces to be black and the hemisphere to be well insulated, calculate (i) the temperature of the surface of the hemisphere and (ii) the power input to the heater.

Solution Let the inner surface of the plate be 1, the surface of the hemisphere be 2, and the projected surface of the hole be 3. Since the surface 1 is completely surrounded, we have

$$F_{1-1} + F_{1-2} + F_{1-3} = 1$$

Since the surface 1 can neither see itself nor surface 3, therefore,

$$F_{1-1} = 0 = F_{1-3}, \quad \therefore F_{1-2} = 1.0$$

By reciprocity theorem,

$$A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}$$

$$\therefore \quad F_{21} = \frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{\left[\pi(0.75)^2 - (0.125)^2\right]}{2\pi \times (0.75)^2}$$

$$\therefore \quad F_{21} = 0.4861$$

Again, for surface 3,

$$F_{3-3} + F_{3-2} + F_{3-1} = 1$$

$$\therefore \quad F_{3-2} = 1 \quad (\because F_{3-3} = F_{31} = 0)$$

$$F_{23} = \frac{A_3}{A_2} = \frac{\pi(0.125)^2}{2\pi(0.75)^2} = 0.0139$$

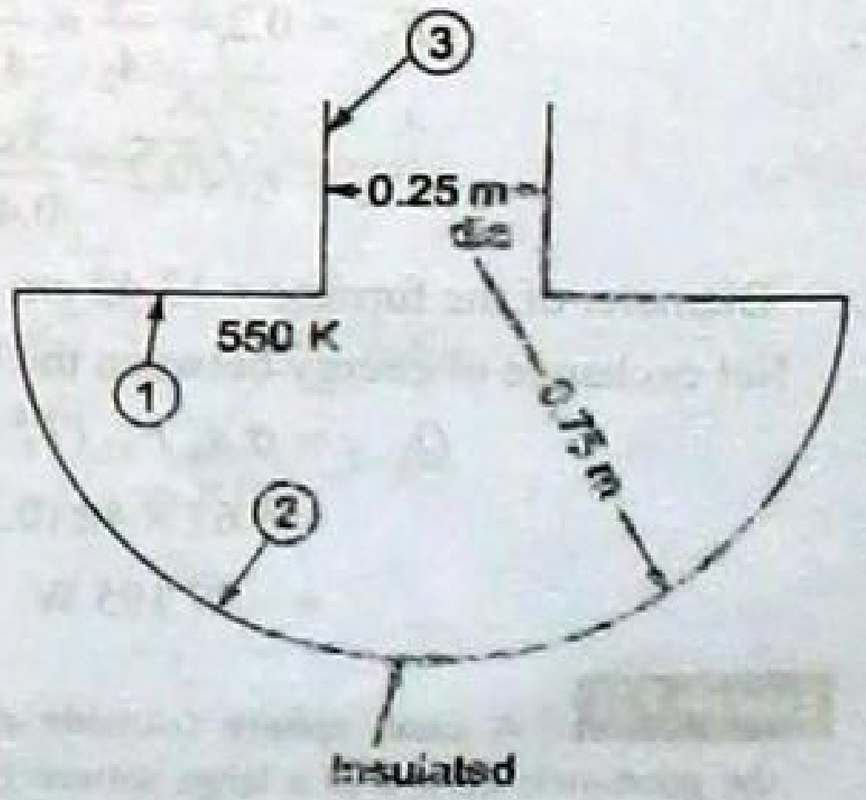


Fig. Ex. 7.21

Rate of energy incident on surface of the hemisphere (the rate of energy entering through the hole from outside being negligible since the surroundings are very large and at normal temperature)

$$= A_1 F_{12} \sigma T_1^4 = A_1 \sigma T_1^4$$

Rate of energy emitted by surface 2 would be

$$A_2 F_{21} \sigma T_2^4 + A_2 F_{2-3} \sigma T_2^4 = A_2 \sigma T_2^4 (0.4861 + 0.0139) = 0.5 A_2 \sigma T_2^4$$

Under steady-state conditions,

$$A_1 \sigma T_1^4 = 0.5 A_2 \sigma T_2^4$$

$$\left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right)^4 = \frac{A_1}{A_2} \times 2 = 0.4861 \times 2 = 0.9722$$

$$\therefore \quad T_2 = (0.9722)^{1/4} \times 550 = 546.1 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

Heat input to the heater,

$$Q_1 = A_1 F_{12} \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$
$$= \pi[(0.75)^2 - (0.125)^2] \times 1 \times 5.67 (5.5^4 - 5.4^4) = 256.3 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Example 7.22 A spherical ball 6 cm in diameter and 310 K is placed inside a large spherical furnace at 600 K. Estimate the diameter of the spherical furnace such that 20% of the energy emitted by the furnace reaches the spherical ball. Assume the surfaces as black. What is the net exchange of energy between the two surfaces?

Solution

$$T_1 = 310 \text{ K}, T_2 = 600 \text{ K}, r_1 = 3 \text{ cm}, r_2 = ?$$

$$F_{11} + F_{12} = 1.0$$

Since $$F_{11} = 0, F_{12} = 1.0$$

$$A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}, F_{21} = A_1/A_2$$

Energy emitted by the inside surface of the sphere = A_2E_2 and the fraction reaching the spherical ball is $0.2\, A_2\, E_2$.

$$\therefore \quad F_{21} = 0.2 = \frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{4\pi r_1^2}{4\pi r_2^2}$$

$$r_2 = r_1/\sqrt{0.2} = \frac{3 \text{ cm}}{0.447} = 6.71 \text{ cm}$$

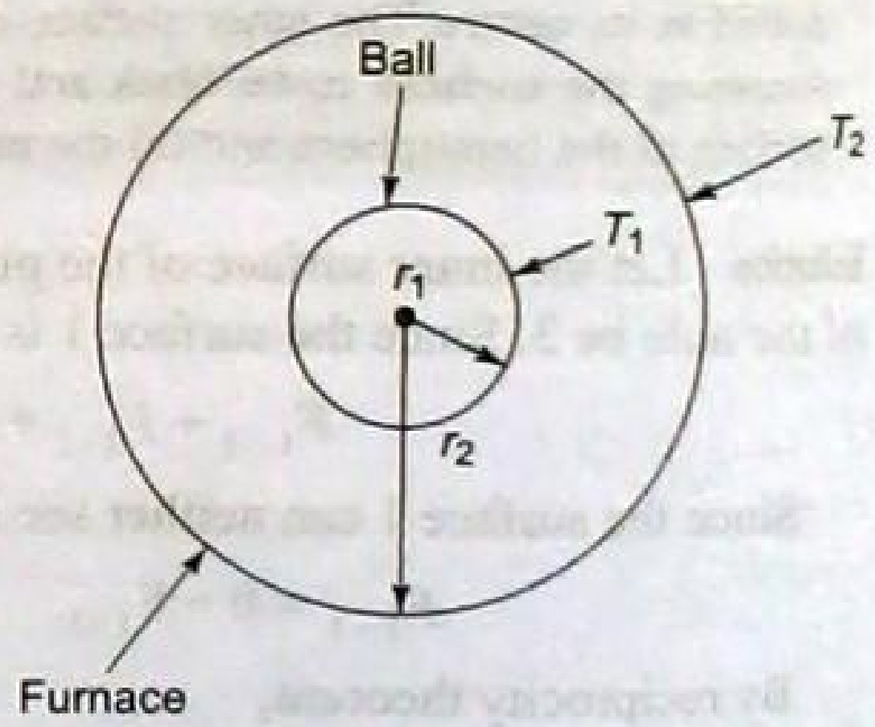


Fig. *Ex. 7.22*

$\therefore$ Diameter of the furnace = 13.42 cm *Ans.*

Net exchange of energy between the two surfaces

$$Q_{1-2} = \sigma A_1 F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$
$$= 5.67 \times 4\pi (0.3)^2 \times 1 \times (3.1^4 - 6^4)$$
$$= -77.195 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.23 A small sphere (outside radius = 60 mm) with a surface temperature of 300°C is located at the geometric centre of a large sphere (inside diameter = 360 mm) with an inner surface temperature of 15°C. Calculate how much of heat emitted from the large sphere inner surface is incident upon the outer surface of the small sphere, assuming that both surfaces approach black body behaviour. What is the net exchange of heat between the two spheres?

Solution Radius of small sphere, $r_1 = 30 \text{ mm} = 0.03 \text{ m}$, Radius of large sphere $r_2 = 180 \text{ mm} = 0.18 \text{ m}$.

Here $$F_{12} = 1$$

By reciprocity theorem,

$$A_1F_{12} = A_2F_{21}$$

$$\therefore \quad F_{21} = \frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{r_1^2}{r_2^2} = \left(\frac{0.03}{0.18}\right)^2 = 0.0278 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Thus, 2.78% of the emission from the inner surface of the large sphere is incident upon the small sphere and absorbed by it.

Also, $F_{21} + F_{22} = 1$

$$\therefore \quad F_{22} = 1 - F_{21} = 1 - 0.0278 = 0.9722$$

Thus, 97.22% of emission from the large sphere is absorbed by the inner surface of the sphere itself.

Radiant heat exchange between the two spheres

$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 4\pi(0.03)^2 \times 1 \times \left[\left(\frac{573}{100}\right)^4 - \left(\frac{288}{100}\right)^4\right]$$

$$= 0.0113 \times 5.67 \times 1009.2 = 64.66 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.24 Two parallel discs of 1 m diameter are situated 2 m apart in the surroundings at a temperature of 20°C. One side of one disc has an emissivity of 0.5 and is maintained at 500°C by electrical resistance heating and the other side is insulated. The other disc is open to radiation on both sides. Determine the equilibrium temperature of the second disc and the heat flow rate from the first disc.

Discuss the effect on the solution if both sides of the second disc are perfect mirrors.

Solution The surroundings are assumed to be black and so $E_{b_3} = J_3$. Since there is no net heat transfer from the second disc at steady state, the heat flow from 1 to 2 is equal to the heat flow from 2 to 3. The radiation network is shown in Fig. Ex. 7.24(b).

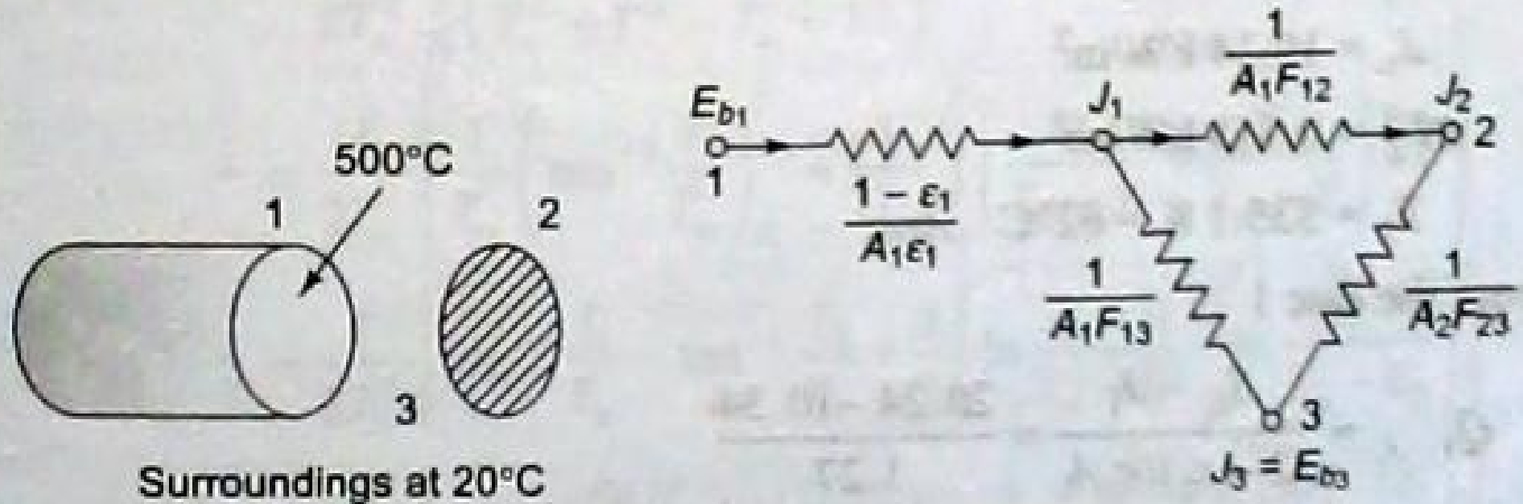


Fig. Ex. 7.24

$$E_{b_1} = \sigma T_1^4 = 5.67 \times \left(\frac{773}{100}\right)^4 = 20240 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$= 20.24 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$E_{b_3} = \sigma T_3^4 = 5.67 \times \left(\frac{293}{100}\right)^4 = 418 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$= 0.418 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$\frac{1-\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1 A_1} = \frac{1-0.5}{0.5\times\pi/4\times1} = 1.27 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

From Fig. 7.29, $F_{12} = 0.06$,

$$\frac{1}{A_1 F_{12}} = \frac{1}{\pi/4\times1\times0.06} = 21.22 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$F_{13} = 1 - F_{12} = 0.94$$

$$2F_{23} = F_{2'3} + F_{2''3} = 0.94 + 1 = 1.94$$

where suffix 2 indicates both sides, 2′ for the left side and 2″ for the right side, of the disc 2.

$$F_{23} = \frac{1.94}{2} = 0.97$$

$$\frac{1}{A_1 F_{13}} = \frac{4}{\pi\times0.94} = 1.35 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$\frac{1}{2A_2 F_{23}} = \frac{4}{\pi\times(2\times0.97)} = 0.65 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

Algebraic sum of currents at each node is zero.

At node J_1:
$$\frac{20.24-J_1}{1.27} + \frac{E_{b_2}-J_1}{21.22} + \frac{0.418-J_1}{1.35} = 0$$

At node 2:
$$\frac{J_1-E_{b_2}}{21.22} + \frac{0.418-E_{b_2}}{0.65} = 0$$

Solving the two equations,

$$E_{b_2} = 0.715 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

and
$$J_1 = 10.34 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

Now,
$$\sigma T_2^4 = 0.715 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

$$T_2 = 335.1 \text{ K} = 62°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Heat flow rate from the disc 1

$$Q_{1-J_1} = \frac{E_{b_1}-J_1}{(1-\varepsilon_1)/\varepsilon_1 A_1} = \frac{20.24-10.34}{1.27}$$

$$= 7.79 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Alternatively,

Since
$$Q_{1-J_1} = Q_{J_1-3} + Q_{2-3}$$

$$= \frac{10.34-0.42}{1.35} + \frac{0.715-0.42}{0.65} = 7.79 \text{ kW}$$

The second disc reradiates to the surroundings all the energy, incident on it from the first disc, irrespective of its emissivity (for ε varying from 0 to 1) and does not affect the heat flow from the first disc, when it has reached the state of thermal equilibrium.

If both sides of the second disc behave as perfect mirrors, $\epsilon = 0$, and all the energy incident on it is re-radiated at thermal equilibrium, and would have no effect on solution of the problem.

Example 7.25

(a) Derive an expression for the time required to cool a body of mass m, surface area A, emissivity ε and specific heat c_p from an initial temperature T_1 to the final temperature T_2 in a large enclosure, the walls of which are at temperature T_w. Neglect convective losses and temperature gradients inside the body.

(b) A solid copper sphere 0.1 m in diameter is heated to 1000°C and suspended in a large room, the walls of which are at 30°C. Calculate the time taken by the sphere to cool to 500°C. Consider only radiative energy transfer and neglect the internal thermal resistance of the sphere. For copper take $\rho = 8680$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 0.41$ kJ/kg K and $\varepsilon = 0.1$.

Solution

(a) Let T denote the temperature of the body at instant t. In time dt, let the temperature of the body drop by dT. By energy balance,

Energy loss of the body = Energy transfer to the surroundings by radiation

$$-mc_p\,dT = \sigma A\varepsilon (T^4 - T_w^4)\,dt$$

or,
$$\frac{\sigma A\varepsilon}{mc_p}\int_0^t dt = -\int_{T_1}^{T_2}\frac{dT}{T^4 - T_w^4}$$

$$\frac{\sigma A\varepsilon}{mc_p}t = \int_{T_1}^{T_2}\frac{dT}{(T_w^2 + T^2)(T_w^2 - T^2)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2T_w^2}\int_{T_2}^{T_1}\left(\frac{1}{T_w^2 + T^2} + \frac{1}{T_w^2 - T^2}\right)dT$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2T_w^2}\left[\frac{1}{T_w}\left(\tan^{-1}\frac{T}{T_w}\right)_{T_2}^{T_1} + \frac{1}{2T_w}\int_{T_2}^{T_1}\left(\frac{1}{T_w + T} + \frac{1}{T_w - T}\right)dT\right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2T_w^3}\left[\tan^{-1}\frac{T_1}{T_w} - \tan^{-1}\frac{T_2}{T_w} + \frac{1}{2}\left(\ln\frac{T_w + T_1}{T_w - T_1} - \ln\frac{T_w + T_2}{T_w - T_2}\right)\right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2T_w^3}\left[\tan^{-1}\frac{(T_1/T_w) - (T_2/T_w)}{1 + (T_1/T_w)(T_2/T_w)} + \frac{1}{2}\ln\frac{(T_w + T_1)(T_w - T_2)}{(T_w - T_1)(T_w + T_2)}\right]$$

$$t = \frac{mc_p}{\sigma A\varepsilon}\frac{1}{2T_w^3}\left[\frac{1}{2}\ln\frac{(T_2 + T_w)(T_1 - T_w)}{(T_1 + T_w)(T_2 - T_w)} - \tan^{-1}\frac{T_w(T_1 - T_2)}{T_w^2 + T_1T_2}\right]$$

(b) $T_1 = 1273$ K, $T_2 = 773$ K, $T_w = 303$ K

$A = 4\pi r^2 = 4\pi \times (0.05)^2 = 0.0314$ m^2

$m = \rho v = 8680 \times (3/4) \times \pi \times (0.05)^3 = 4.542$ kg

$$\ln\frac{(T_2 + T_w)(T_1 - T_w)}{(T_1 + T_w)(T_2 - T_w)} = \ln\frac{(773 + 303)(1273 - 303)}{(1273 + 303)(773 - 303)}$$

$$= \ln \frac{1076 \times 970}{1576 \times 470}$$

$$= \ln 1.409 = 0.34288$$

$$\tan^{-1} \frac{T_w (T_1 - T_2)}{T_w^2 + T_1 T_2} = \tan^{-1} \frac{303(1273 - 773)}{303^2 + 1273 \times 773}$$

$$= \tan^{-1} 0.1408 = 8.0145$$

$$= 0.1396 \text{ rad}$$

$$t = \frac{4.542 \times 0.41}{5.67 \times 10^{-11} \times 0.0314 \times 0.1} \frac{1}{12 \times 303^3} \left(\frac{1}{2} \times 0.34288 - 0.1396 \right)$$

$$= 188.12 \times 10^3 \times 0.0318 = 5982.2 \text{ s}$$

$$= 1 \text{ h } 40 \text{ min} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.26 If the inside surface temperature of a hemispherical cavity of 0.5 m diameter is 400°C and its emissivity is 0.6, calculate the rate of radiant heat transfer from the cavity.

Solution Net rate of radiant emission from the cavity is given by Eq. (7.88),

$$Q = A_1 \varepsilon_1 \sigma T_1^4 \frac{1 - F_{11}}{1 - F_{11}(1 - \varepsilon_1)}$$

From Fig. 7.48(b),

$$F_{11} + F_{12} = 1$$

$$A_1 F_{12} = A_2 F_{21}$$

where suffix 1 denotes the cavity surface and suffix 2 denotes a plate above the cavity.

$$= 0$$

$$F_{21} + F_{22} = 1$$

$$\therefore \quad F_{12} = A_2 / A_1$$

$$F_{11} = 1 - F_{12} = 1 - \frac{A_2}{A_1} = 1 - \frac{\pi r^2}{2\pi r^2} = 0.5$$

On substitution,

$$Q = 2\pi \left(\frac{0.5}{2} \right)^2 \times 0.6 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 673^4 \frac{1 - 0.5}{1 - 0.4 \times 0.5}$$

$$= 1397.5 \text{ W} = 1.3975 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.27 A cubical oven has inside sides equal to 0.4 m. One of the faces of the oven forms the door. If the five other inside faces are black and maintained at 600°C, find the rate of heat loss if the oven door is kept open.

Solution

$$F_{21} + F_{22} = 1 \text{ (Fig. Ex. 7.27)}$$

$$F_{22} = 0$$

$$\therefore \quad F_{12} = \frac{A_2}{A_1} F_{21} = \frac{A_2}{A_1}$$

$$F_{11} = 1 - F_{12} = 1 - \frac{A_2}{A_1}$$

where

A_1 = area of the five inside faces

$= 5 \times 0.4 \times 0.4 = 0.8 \text{ m}^2$

A_2 = area of the door through which energy streams out

$= 0.4 \times 0.4 = 0.16$

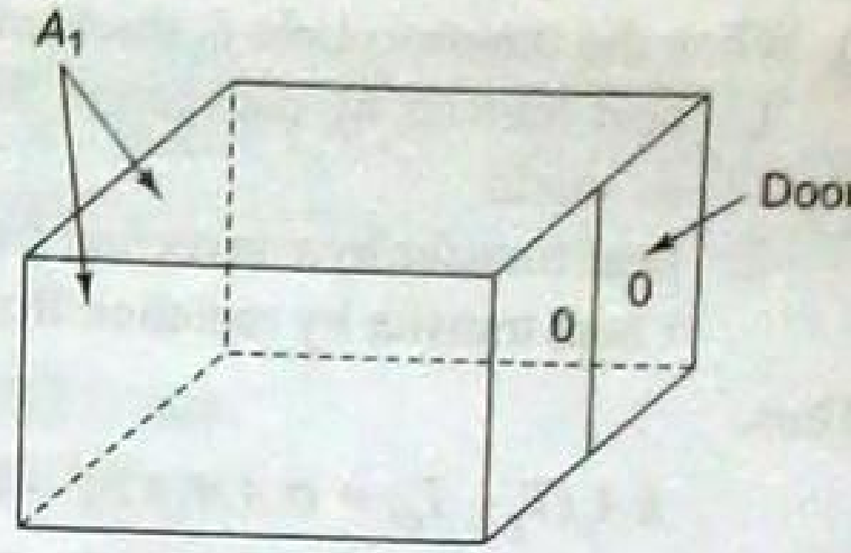


Fig. Ex. 7.27

$$F_{11} = 1 - \frac{0.16}{0.8} = 0.8$$

Rate of heat loss when the door is open

$$Q = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon_1 T_1^4 \frac{1 - F_{11}}{1 - (1 - \varepsilon_1) F_{11}}$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.8 \times 1 \times (873)^4 \frac{1 - 0.8}{1}$$

$$= 5274 \text{ W} = 5.274 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.28 A thermocouple placed in a gas stream flowing in a duct measures a temperature which is somewhere between the actual gas temperature and the duct wall temperature. At steady state the heat flux from gas stream to the thermocouple by convection is balanced by the heat flux from the thermocouple to the duct wall by radiation.

(a) A bare chromel-alumel thermocouple ($\varepsilon = 0.8$) wire of diameter 0.25 mm is in a gas flowing in a long 250 mm diameter duct (wall emissivity = 0.7). The gas flow rate produces a convection heat transfer coefficient of 120 W/m^2 K. This thermocouple in the gas stream reads 800°C and a thermocouple attached to the duct wall reads 500°C. Calculate the actual temperature of the gas.

(b) The thermocouple error can be substantially reduced by a radiation shield. Suppose a thin cylindrical shield ($\varepsilon = 0.2$) having inside diameter of 2.5 mm is placed around the thermocouple. If the thermocouple reads 800°C and h remains the same, what is the true gas temperature?

Solution

Let T_g = true temperature of the gas,

T_c = temperature recorded by the thermocouple,

T_w = wall temperature of the duct

A_c = area of the couple

By energy balance,

$$Q = hA_c(T_g - T_c) = \sigma A_c \mathcal{F}_{cw}(T_c^4 - T_w^4)$$

where $\mathcal{F}_{cw} = \varepsilon_c \varepsilon_w$

Substituting the values,

$$120 (T_g - 1073) = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.8 \times 0.7 \times (1073^4 - 773^4)$$

$\therefore$ $T_g = 1329$ K, or 1056°C

The error is 256°C.

(b) When the thermocouple is shielded, at steady state,

1. heat transfer by convection from gas to thermocouple = heat transfer by radiation from couple to shield.
2. heat transfer by convection from gas to shield + heat transfer by radiation from couple to shield = heat transfer by radiation from shield to the wall.

Thus,

$$hA_c(T_g - T_c) = \sigma A_c \mathcal{F}_{cs}(T_c^4 - T_s^4) \quad (1)$$

$$h2A_s(T_g - T_s) + \sigma A_c \mathcal{F}_{cs}(T_c^4 - T_s^4) = \sigma A_s \mathcal{F}_{sw}(T_s^4 - T_w^4) \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{A_s}{A_c} = \frac{\pi d_s \times 1}{\pi d_c \times 1} = \frac{2.5 \text{ mm}}{0.5 \text{ mm}} = 5$$

where the diameter of the couple, $d_c = 2 \times 0.25 = 0.5$ mm

$$\mathcal{F}_{cs} = \frac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_c) + (A_c/A_s)(1/\varepsilon_s - 1)} = \frac{1}{(1/0.2) + (1/5)(1/0.2 - 1)} = 0.49$$

$$\mathcal{F}_{sw} = \frac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_s) + (A_s/A_w)(1/\varepsilon_w - 1)} = \frac{1}{(1/0.2) + (2.5/250)(1/0.7 - 1)} = 0.2$$

From Eq. (1)

$$T_g - 1073 = \frac{5.67 \times 0.49}{120}\left[\left(\frac{1073}{100}\right)^4 - \left(\frac{T_s}{100}\right)^4\right]$$

or
$$T_g - 1073 = 0.023\left[13255 - \left(\frac{T_s}{100}\right)^4\right] \quad (3)$$

From Eq. (2)

$$T_g - T_s = \frac{\sigma A_c}{h2A_s}\left[\frac{A_s}{A_c}\mathcal{F}_{sw}(T_s^4 - T_w^4) - \mathcal{F}_{cs}(T_c^4 - T_s^4)\right]$$

$$= \frac{5.67}{1200}\left\{5 \times 0.2\left[\left(\frac{T_s}{100}\right)^4 - \left(\frac{773}{100}\right)^4\right] - 0.49\left[\left(\frac{1073}{100}\right)^4 - \left(\frac{T_s}{100}\right)^4\right]\right\} \quad (4)$$

Equations (3) and (4) have to be solved for T_g and T_s. This may be done by trial and error. Let us assume $T_s = 1000$ K.

From Eq. (3), $T_g = 1147.9$ K

Substituting in Eq. (4) L.H.S. = 247.9, R.H.S. = 22.845

When $T_s = 1050$ K, $T_g = 1098$ K

By substituting in Eq. (4)

LHS = 48, RHS = 38.2

When $T_s = 1060$ K, $T_g = 1087$ K

In Eq. (4), LHS = 27 K and RHS = 41 K

Therefore, the required gas temperature is about 1090 K or 817°C. The error is reduced to 17°C.

Example 7.29 A gas turbine combustion chamber is 0.35 m in diameter and the walls are maintained at 500°C. The products of combustion are at 1000°C and a pressure of 1 atm and contain 12% CO_2 and 10% H_2O vapour by volume. Determine the net radiant heat transfer per unit surface area.

Solution From Table 7.5, the mean beam length, $L = D = 0.35$ m

$$P_{CO_2} = 0.12 \text{ atm}, \quad P_{CO_2} L = 0.12 \times 0.35 = 0.042 \text{ m atm}$$
$$P_{H_2O} = 0.10 \text{ atm}, \quad P_{H_2O} L = 0.10 \times 0.35 = 0.035 \text{ m atm}$$

From Figs 7.53 and 7.54

$$\varepsilon_{CO_2} = 0.078, \quad \varepsilon_{H_2O} = 0.05$$

From Figs 7.55 and 7.56, the correction factors are

$$C_{CO_2} = 1 \text{ and } C_{H_2O} = \left(\text{at } \frac{P_{H_2O} + P}{2} = \frac{1.1}{2} = 0.55 \text{ atm} \right) = 1.03$$

$$\varepsilon_{CO_2} = 0.078 \text{ and } \varepsilon_{H_2O} = 0.05 \times 1.03 = 0.0515$$

From Fig. 7.57(c), when $\dfrac{P_{H_2O}}{P_{H_2O} + P_{CO_2}} = \dfrac{0.10}{0.10 + 0.12}$

$$= \frac{10}{22} = 0.45$$

and $(P_{CO_2} + P_{H_2O})L = 0.077$ m atm

$$\Delta\varepsilon = 0.003$$

The emissivity of the mixture at 1000°C

$$\varepsilon_g = \varepsilon_{CO_2} + \varepsilon_{H_2O} - \Delta\varepsilon = 0.078 + 0.0515 - 0.003 = 0.1265$$

The absorptivity has to be found at wall temperature of 500°C.

From Figs 7.53 and 7.54 at 500°C for $P_{CO_2} L = 0.042$ m atm and $P_{H_2O} L = 0.035$ m atm,

$$\varepsilon_{CO_2} = \alpha_{CO_2} = 0.081, \; \varepsilon_{H_2O} = \alpha_{H_2O} = 0.085$$

From Figs 7.55 and 7.56,

$$C_{CO_2} = 1 \text{ and } C_{H_2O} = 1.03$$

Corrected values:

$$\varepsilon_{CO_2} = 0.081 \text{ and } \varepsilon_{H_2O} = 1.03 \times 0.085 = 0.0876$$

From Fig. 7.57(c),

$$\Delta\varepsilon = 0.003$$

For the mixture at $T_w = 500°C$,

$$\alpha_g = \varepsilon_g = \varepsilon_{CO_2} + \varepsilon_{H_2O} - \Delta\varepsilon$$
$$= 0.081 + 0.0876 - 0.003 = 0.1656$$

Radiant heat exchange

$$Q = \sigma A (\varepsilon_g T_g^4 - \alpha_g T_w^4)$$
$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 1 [(0.1265 \times (1273)^4 - 0.1656 \times (773)^4] \text{ W}$$
$$= 15483.5 \text{ W} = 15.4835 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.30 Two infinitely long parallel plates of widths $x = 12$ cm and $y = 6$ cm are located at a distance $z = 7$ cm apart as shown in Fig. Ex. 7.30. Determine the view factor F_{12}.

Solution We label the end points of both the surfaces and draw straight dashed lines between the end points, as shown in Fig. Ex. 7.30. Using the crossed-string method

$$F_{12} = \frac{\sum (\text{crossed strings}) - \sum (\text{uncrossed strings})}{2 \times (\text{string on surface 1})}$$

$$= \frac{(L_5 + L_6) - (L_3 + L_4)}{2L_1}$$

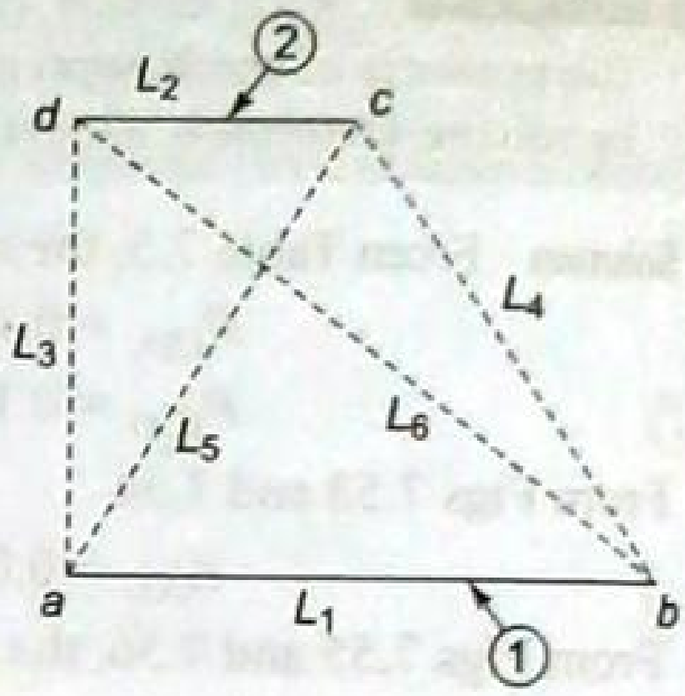


Fig. Ex. 7.30

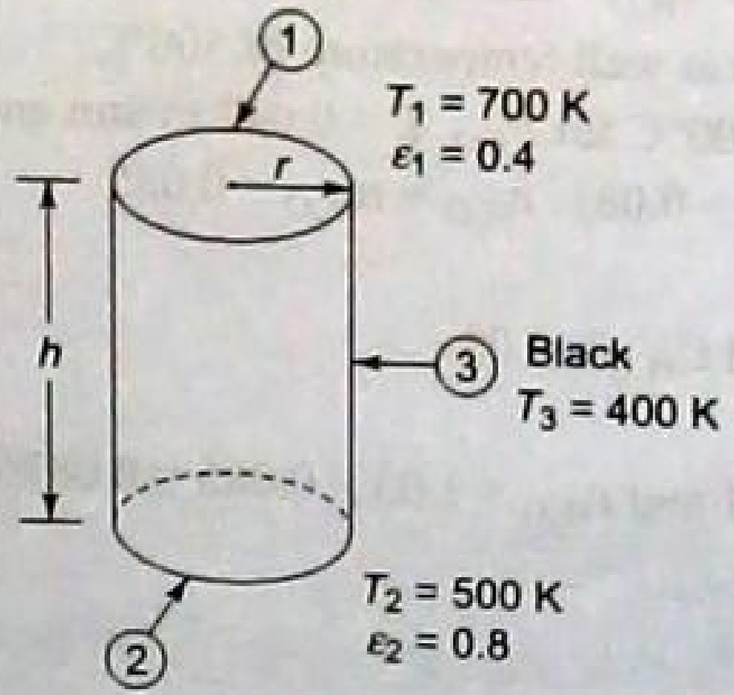
where
$L_1 = x = 12$ cm
$L_2 = y = 6$ cm
$L_3 = z = 7$ cm
$L_4 = (7^2 + 6^2)^{1/2} = 9.22$ cm,
$L_5 = (6^2 + 7^2)^{1/2} = 9.22$ cm,
$L_6 = (12^2 + 7^2)^{1/2} = 13.89$ cm

$$F_{12} = \frac{(9.22 + 13.89) - (7 + 9.22)}{2 \times 12}$$

$= 0.287$ *Ans.*

Example 7.31 In a cylindrical furnace of diameter 2 m and height 1 m, the base and the top having emissivities 0.4 and 0.8, respectively are maintained at 700 K and 500 K, while the lateral surface approximating a black body is maintained at 400 K. Determine the net rate of radiation heat transfer at each surface during steady-state operation.

Solution The furnace and the radiation network are shown in Fig. Ex. 7.31. Writing the energy balance for the nodes 1 and 2,



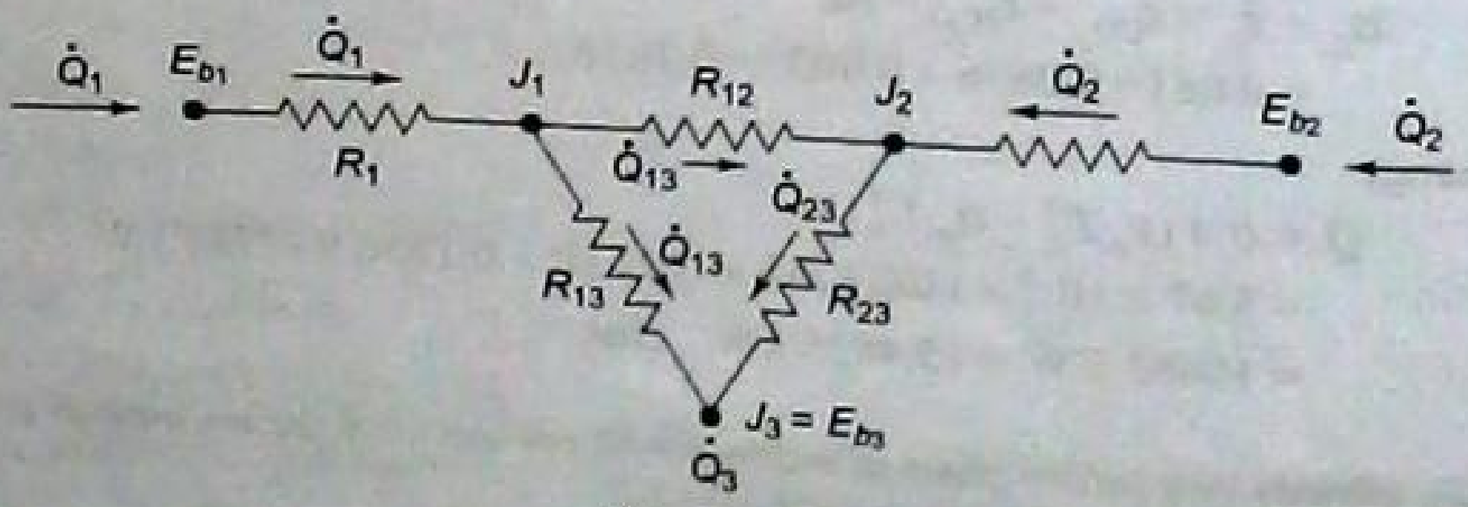


Fig. Ex. 7.31

$$\frac{E_{b_1} - J_1}{R_1} = \frac{J_1 - J_2}{R_{12}} + \frac{J_1 - J_3}{R_{13}}$$

$$\frac{E_{b_2} - J_2}{R_2} = \frac{J_2 - J_1}{R_{12}} + \frac{J_2 - J_3}{R_{23}}$$

Here,

$$E_{b_1} = \sigma T_1^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} (700)^4 = 13{,}614 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$E_{b_2} = \sigma T_2^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} (500)^4 = 3{,}544 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$E_{b_3} = J_3 = \sigma T_3^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} (400)^4 = 1452 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$A_1 = A_2 = \pi r^2 = \pi(1)^2 = 3.14 \text{ m}^2$$

From Fig. 7.29, the view factor from the base to the top is found to be $F_{12} = 0.38$.

Now,

$$F_{11} + F_{12} + F_{13} = 1.0$$

$$F_{13} = 1 - F_{12} = 0.62$$

$$R_1 = \frac{1 - \varepsilon_1}{A_1 \varepsilon_1} = \frac{1 - 0.8}{3.14 \times 0.8} = 0.0796 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{1 - \varepsilon_2}{A_2 \varepsilon_2} = \frac{1 - 0.4}{3.14 \times 0.4} = 0.4777 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$R_{12} = \frac{1}{A_2 F_{12}} = \frac{1}{3.14 \times 0.38} = 0.8381 \text{ m}^{-2}$$

$$R_{23} = \frac{1}{A_2 F_{23}} = \frac{1}{3.14 \times 0.62} = 0.5137 \text{ m}^{-2} = R_{13} \quad \text{(by symmetry)}$$

On substitution,

$$\frac{13614 - J_1}{0.0796} = \frac{J_1 - J_2}{0.8381} + \frac{J_1 - 1452}{0.5137}$$

$$\frac{3544 - J_2}{0.0777} = \frac{J_2 - J_1}{0.8381} + \frac{J_2 - 1452}{0.5137}$$

Solving these two equations,

$$J_1 = 11418 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ and } J_2 = 4562 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$Q_1 = \frac{E_{B_1} - J_1}{R_1} = \frac{13614 - 11418}{0.0796} = 27{,}588 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q_2 = \frac{E_{B_2} - J_2}{R_2} = \frac{3544 - 4562}{0.4777} = -2132 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q_3 + \frac{J_1 - J_3}{R_{13}} + \frac{J_2 - J_3}{R_{23}} = 0$$

$$Q_3 = \frac{1452 - 11418}{0.5137} + \frac{1452 - 4562}{0.5137} = -25455 \text{ W} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q_1 + Q_2 + Q_3 = 27588 - 2132 - 25455 = 0.$$

Example 7.32 Calculate the shape factor F_{12} for the configuration of Fig. Ex. 7.32 and the net radiant exchange Q_{12}, if $T_1 = 427°C$, $T_2 = 227°C$, $\varepsilon_1 = 0.8$ and $\varepsilon_2 = 0.9$.

Solution

$$F_{21} = F_{24} - F_{23}$$

$$F_{12} = \frac{A_2}{A_1} F_{21} = \frac{A_2}{A_1} (F_{24} - F_{23})$$

$$\frac{y}{x} = \frac{1.5}{5} = 0.3, \quad \frac{z}{x} = \frac{6}{5} = 1.2, \quad F_{24} = 0.35$$

$$\frac{y}{x} = \frac{1.5}{5} = 0.3, \quad \frac{z}{x} = \frac{2}{5} = 0.4, \quad F_{23} = 0.29$$

$$F_{12} = \frac{5 \times 1.5}{5 \times 4} (0.35 - 0.29) = 0.0225$$

$$Q = \frac{5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 20 \left[(700)^4 - (500)^4 \right]}{\left(\frac{1}{0.8} - 1 \right) + \frac{1}{0.0225} + \frac{20}{7.5} \left(\frac{1}{0.9} - 1 \right)}$$

$$= \frac{201398.4}{44.986}$$

$$= 4476.9 \text{ W} = 4.4769 \text{ kW}$$

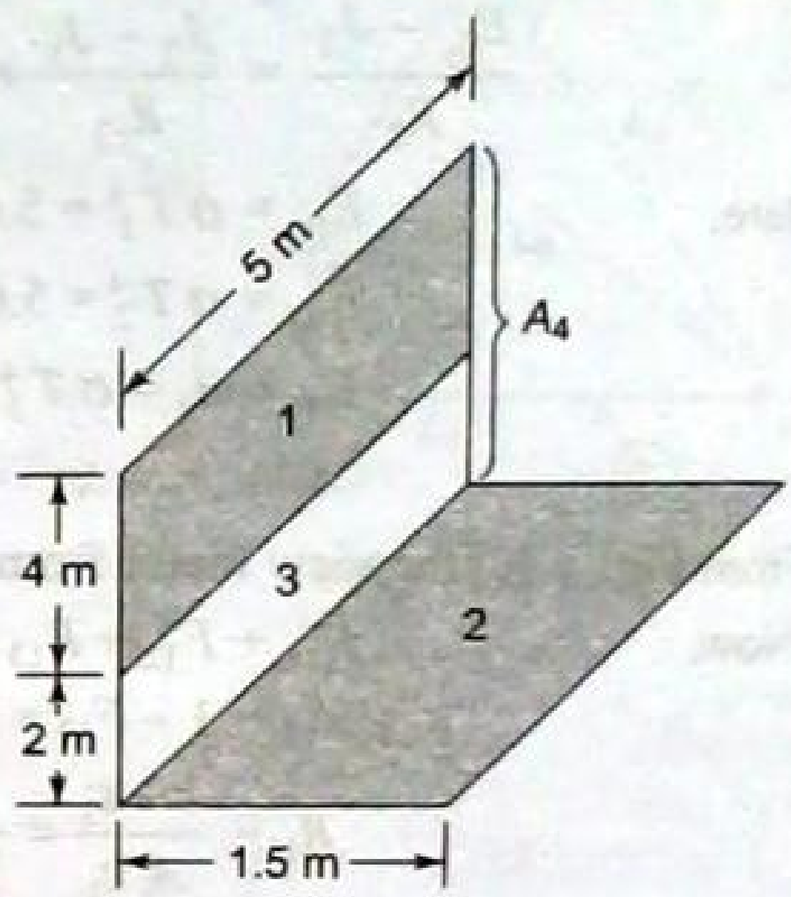


Fig. Ex. 7.32

Example 7.33 A bed of burning coal in a furnace radiates as a plane rectangular black surface, 3 m by 2 m, at 1500°C, to an opaque bank of black tubes of the same projected area. These are at a surface temperature of 300°C and at such a distance from the fire bed that the shape factor is 0.5. Determine the net radiant heat flow to the tube bank and show that enclosing the furnace with adiabatic vertical black walls increases the heat flow by 50 per cent.

Solution

$$Q_{12} = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 6 \times 0.5 \times (1773^4 - 573^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-3} \times 3 \times (17.73^4 - 5.73^4)$$

$$= 1662.5 \text{ kW}$$

$$Q'_{12} = \frac{\sigma A_1 (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{(1/\varepsilon_1 - 1) + 1/\bar{F}_{12} + A_1/A_2 (1/\varepsilon_2 - 1)}$$

$$\bar{F}_{12} = \frac{A_2 - A_1 F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1 F_{12}}, \quad A_1 = A_2$$

$$\bar{F}_{12} = \frac{A(1 - F_{12}^2)}{2A(1 - F_{12})} = \frac{1 + F_{12}}{2} = \frac{1.5}{2} = 0.75$$

$$\frac{Q'_{12} - Q_{12}}{Q_{12}} \times 100 = \frac{0.75 - 0.5}{0.5} \times 100 = 50\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.34 Find the shape factor of a cylindrical cavity of diameter d and depth H with respect to itself. If $d = 200$ mm, $H = 500$ mm, $T_1 = 600$ K and $\varepsilon_1 = 0.8$, find the rate at which energy streams out from the cavity.

Solution

$$F_{11} = \frac{4H}{4H+d} = \frac{4\times0.5}{4\times0.5+0.2} = \frac{2}{2.2} = 0.91$$

$$Q = \pi\times0.2\times0.5\times0.8\times5.67\times10^{-8}\times(600^4)\left[\frac{1-0.91}{1-(1-0.8)\times0.91}\right]$$

$$= \pi\times0.008\times5.67\times6^4\times\frac{0.09}{0.918}\ \text{W}$$

$$= 18.1\ \text{W}$$

Example 7.35 A 100 mm diameter disc ($\varepsilon = 0.8$) at 800 K is at a distance of 2 m from a disc ($\varepsilon = 0.7$) of 2 m diameter maintained at 300 K. Find the net rate of radiant exchange.

Solution

$$F_{12} = \frac{D^2}{4L^2+D^2} = \frac{2^2}{4(2)^2+2^2} = 0.2$$

$$Q_{12} = \frac{\sigma A_1(T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{(1/\varepsilon_1 - 1)+1/F_{12}+A_1/A_2\,(1/\varepsilon_2 - 1)}$$

$$= \frac{5.67\times\pi\times(0.05)^2\left[(800/100)^4 - (300/100)^4\right]}{(1/0.8-1)+1/0.2+(0.05/1)^2(1/0.7-1)}$$

$$= \frac{5.67\times25\times10^{-4}(8^4-3^4)}{5.251}\ \text{W}$$

$$= 34.03\ \text{W}$$

Example 7.36 A cylindrical rod ($\varepsilon = 0.7$) of 50 mm diameter is maintained at 1000°C by electrical resistance heating and kept in a room, the walls ($\varepsilon = 0.6$) of which are at 15°C. Determine the energy which must be supplied per metre length of the rod. If an insulated half-circular reflector of 0.45 m is placed around the rod, estimate the energy supply to the rod per metre length.

Solution

Without reflector:

$$Q = \frac{\sigma(T_R^4 - T_w^4)}{(1-\varepsilon_R)/(\varepsilon_R A_R)+1/A_R F_{Rw}+(1-\varepsilon_w)/(\varepsilon_w A_w)}$$

$$= \frac{5.67\left[(1273/100)^4 - (288/100)^4\right]}{\left[0.3/0.7\,\pi\,(0.05)\right]+1/\pi\,(0.05)\,(1)+0}\ \text{watts}$$

$$= 16319.5\ \text{W} = 16.32\ \text{kW}$$

With reflector:

$$R_1 = \frac{0.3}{0.7\,\pi\,(0.05)} = 2.72\ \text{m}^{-2},\ R_2 = 0$$

$$R_3 = \frac{1}{A_R F_{R\text{ref}}} = \frac{1}{\pi(0.05)(0.5)}\ \text{m}^{-2} = 12.73\ \text{m}^{-2}$$

$$R_4 = \frac{1}{A_w F_{w\text{ref}}} = \frac{1}{(450-50)\times10^{-3}\ \text{m}\times 1\ \text{m}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{0.4} = 2.5\ \text{m}^{-2}$$

$$R_5 = \frac{1}{A_R F_{Rw}} = \frac{1}{\pi\,(0.05)\,(0.5)}\ \text{m}^{-2}$$

$$\frac{1}{R_5} = 0.0785\ \text{m}^2$$

Total resistance, $$R = R_1 + R_2 + \frac{1}{(1/R_5) + 1/(R_3 + R_4)}$$

$$= 2.73 + 0 + \frac{1}{0.0785 + 0.0657} = 9.66\ \text{m}^{-2}$$

$$Q = \frac{5.67\left[(1273/100)^4 - (288/100)^4\right]}{9.66}\ \text{W/m}$$

$$= 15373.5\ \text{W} = 15.374\ \text{kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.37 A pipe carrying steam, having an outside diameter of 20 cm runs in a large room and is exposed to air at a temperature of 30°C. The pipe surface temperature is 200°C. Find the heat loss per metre length of the pipe by convection and radiation taking the emissivity of the pipe surface as 0.8.

Solution Heat lost by radiation per unit length of pipe

$$Q_r = \sigma A_1\, \varepsilon\, (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times 1 \times 0.8 \times [(4.73)^4 - (3.03)^4]$$

$$= 1185\ \text{W/m}$$

To determine the heat transfer by natural convection,

$$T_f = \frac{T_w + T_\infty}{2} = \frac{200 + 30}{2} = 115°\text{C}$$

At 115°C, the properties of air are:

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T_f} = \frac{1}{388}\ \text{K}^{-1},\ k = 33.06 \times 10^{-3}\ \text{W/mK},$$

$$\nu = 24.93 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{m}^2/\text{s},\ \text{Pr} = 0.687$$

$$\text{Gr}_d \cdot \text{Pr} = \frac{g\beta\theta\, d^3}{\nu^2},\ \text{Pr} = 0.687 \times \frac{9.81 \times \frac{1}{3.88} \times (200 - 30) \times (0.2)^3}{(24.93 \times 10^{-6})^2}$$

$$= 0.38 \times 10^8$$

$$Nu_d = 0.53\,(Gr_d\,Pr)^{1/4}$$

$$= 0.53\,(0.38 \times 10^8)^{1/4} = 41.61 = \frac{hd}{k}$$

$$\therefore \qquad h_c = \frac{0.03306 \times 41.61}{0.2} = 6.878 \text{ W/mK}$$

Heat lost by natural convection

$$Q_c = h_c A\theta = 6.878 \times \pi \times 0.2 \times 170$$

$$= 734.3 \text{ W/m}$$

$\therefore$ Total heat lost per metre length

$$= Q_r + Q_c = 1185 + 734.3 = 1919.3 \text{ W/m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 7.38 The overall heat transfer coefficient due to convection and radiation for a steam main at 200°C running in a large room at 30°C is 17.95 W/m²K. Calculate the heat transfer coefficients due to convection and radiation taking the emissivity of the pipe surface as 0.8.

Solution

$$h = h_c + h_r = 17.95 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$$

By radiation,

$$\frac{Q}{A} = \sigma\varepsilon\,(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$= 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.8\,(473^4 - 303^4)$$

$$= 1886.94 \text{ W/m}^2$$

$$h_r = \frac{Q}{A(T_1 - T_2)} = \frac{1886.94}{170} = 11.1 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$h_c = h - h_r$$

$$= 17.95 - 11.1 = 6.85 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Summary

The physics of radiation which is quite different from that of conduction and convection is first explained. The laws of thermal radiation such as Planck's law, Wien's displacement law, Stefan-Boltzmann law, and Kirchhoff's law are introduced along with the basic definitions and concepts such as intensity of radiation, diffuse and specular surfaces, absorptivity, reflectivity, emissivity and transmissivity, black body and gray body. Subsequently, the concepts of view factor, the reciprocity theorem and the view factor algebra are explained along with electrical analogy. Radiation heat transfer between gray bodies, infinite parallel planes, radiosity and irradiation along with radiation network are explained. Hottel's cross-string method for estimating shape factor and the application of radiation shields are discussed. Radiation from gases and vapours, Hottel's curves for radiation and radiation heat transfer coefficient are introduced. Finally, the chapter concludes with some discussion on greenhouse effect and solar radiation.

Important Formulae and Equations

Equation Number	Equation	Remarks
(7.2)	$E_b = \sigma T^4$	Stefan–Boltzmann law-radiant energy emitted by a black body per unit area and per unit surface area is proportional to the fourth power of its absolute temperature
(7.3)	$E_{b\lambda} = \frac{dE_b}{d\lambda}$ (W/m^3)	Spectral or radiation intensity of a black body
(7.6)	$\varepsilon = \alpha$	Kirchhoff's law–emissivity of a body is equal to its absorptivity at thermal equilibrium
(7.9)	$E_b = \int_0^\infty E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda$	Total rate of energy emission by a black body per unit area
(7.10)	$E_{b\lambda} = \frac{C_1 \lambda^{-5}}{e^{C_2/\lambda T} - 1}$	Planck's law stating $E_{b\lambda} = f(\lambda, \tau)$, where $C_1 = 3.74 \times 10^{-16}$ Wm^2, $C_2 = 1.438 \times 10^{-2}$ mK
(7.11)	$E_{b\lambda} = \frac{C_1 T}{C_2 x^4}$	Rayleigh–Jeans law—valid for large wavelengths
(7.13)	$E_{b\lambda} = \frac{C_1}{\pi^5} e^{-C_2/\lambda T}$	Wien's law—valid for short wavelengths
(7.14)	$\lambda_{max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3}$ mK	Wien's displacement law
(7.15)	$(E_{b\lambda})_{max} = C_3 T^5$	Combining Planck's law and Wien's displacement law, where $C_3 = 1.287 \times 10^{-5}$ W/m^{3}K^5
(7.19)	$f = \frac{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda}{\sigma T^4} = \frac{1}{\sigma T^4}\left[\int_0^{\lambda_2} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda - \int_0^{\lambda_1} E_{b\lambda}\, d\lambda\right]$	Fraction of radiation at temperature T for the wavelength range between λ_1 and λ_2
(7.22)	$\sigma = \int_0^\infty \frac{E_{b\lambda}}{T^5} d(\lambda T)$	Stefan–Boltzmann constant is equal to the total area under the curve $\frac{E_{b\lambda}}{T^5}$ vs λT at $T = 1$ K
(7.27)	$E_b = \pi I$	Emissive power of a black body is π-times the radiation intensity
(7.28)	$I = \frac{\sigma T^4}{\pi}$	Radiation intensity depends only on temperature

(Contd)

Equation Number	Equation	Remarks
(7.31)	$A_1F_{12} = \frac{1}{\pi}\int_{A_1}\int_{A_2}\frac{\cos\phi_1.\cos\phi_2}{r^2}dA_1dA_2$	Radiation leaving A_1 and absorbed by A_2, bot being black
(7.36)	$A_1F_{12} = A_2F_{21}$	Reciprocity theorem
(7.45)	$(Q_1)_{net} = \sigma A_1\bar{F}_{12}(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$ where $A_1\bar{F}_{12} = A_1F_{12} + \frac{1}{\frac{1}{A_1F_{1R}} + \frac{1}{A_2F_{2R}}}$	Radiant heat transfer between two black surface connected by non-conducting and reradiating walls
(7.47)	$\bar{F}_{12} = \frac{A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}$	View factor between two black surfaces connected by non-conducting and re-radiating walls
(7.52)	$\bar{\varepsilon} = \varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2 = f_{12}$	Equivalent emissivity $\bar{\varepsilon}$ of two small gray bodies and the view factor
(7.55)	$f_{12} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1}$	View factor for radiant exchange between two infinite parallel gray planes
(7.56)	$J = \varepsilon E_B + (1-\varepsilon)G$	Radiosity, the total radiant energy leaving a surface, is the sum of energy emitted and the energy reflected
(7.58)	$Q_{net} = \frac{E_b - J}{(1-\varepsilon)/A\varepsilon}$	Net radiant energy leaving a surface per unit time per unit surface area. The denominator is called 'surface resistance'
(7.59)	$Q_{1-2} = \frac{J_1 - J_2}{1/A_1F_{12}}$	Net radiant exchange between two bodies. The denominator is called 'space resistance'
(7.63)	$\mathcal{F}_{1-2} = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} - 1\right) + \frac{1}{F_{12}} + \frac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)}$	Radiant exchange between two gray surfaces: the view factor
(7.68)	$(Q_{12})_{net} = \frac{\sigma A_1(T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} - 1\right) + \frac{1}{F_{12}} + \frac{A_1}{A_2}\left[\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right]}$ where $\bar{F}_{12} = \frac{A_2 - A_1F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1F_{12}}$	Radiant exchange between two gray surfaces connected by non-conducting and reradiating walls

(Contd)

Equation Number	Equation	Remarks
(7.69)	$(Q_{12})_{net} = \dfrac{\sigma A_1 (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \dfrac{A_1}{A_2}\left[\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right]}$	Radiant heat exchange between two concentric cylindrical gray surfaces
(7.72)	$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \dfrac{1}{\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \dfrac{r_1^2}{r_2^2}\left[\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right]}$	View factor for radiant heat exc ange between two concentric gray spheres
(7.84)	$\left(\dfrac{Q}{A}\right)_{\text{with } N \text{ shields}} = \dfrac{1}{N+1}\left(\dfrac{Q}{A}\right)_{\text{without shields}}$	Resistance to radiation heat transfer with the shields in place is $(N + 1)$ times as large as when the shields are absent
(7.88)	$Q = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon_1 T_1^4 \dfrac{1 - F_{11}}{1 - F_{11}(1 - \varepsilon_1)}$	Radiant energy streaming out from a conical cavity
(7.93)	$I_{\lambda L} = I_{\lambda_0} e^{-k_\lambda L}$	Beer's law stating radiation intensity $I_{\lambda L}$ decreases exponentially with the thickness of gas layer L
(7.101)	$(Q_{G-W})_{net} = \sigma A(\varepsilon_G T_G^4 - \alpha'_G T_w^4)$	Net radiant heat exchange between the gas and the black walls
(7.102)	$Q_{total} = (h_r + h_c) A_1 (T_1 - T_2)$	Total heat transfer by convection and radiation
(7.103)	$h_r = \sigma F_{12}(T_1 + T_2)(T_1^2 + T_2^2)$	Radiation heat transfer coefficient
(7.108)	$Q_{net} = \alpha_s G_{solar} + \varepsilon\sigma(T_{sky}^4 - T_s^4)$	Net radiation heat transfer to a surface exposed to solar and atmospheric radiation

Review Questions

7.1 Explain how thermal radiation exhibits wave particle duality.

7.2 How are the wavelength and frequency of radiation propagating in a medium related?

7.3 What portion of electromagnetic spectrum is covered by thermal radiation?

7.4 What is the range of wavelength for visible radiation, i.e. light?

7.5 What do you mean by infrared and ultra-violet radiation?

7.6 Why are microwave ovens suitable for cooking?

7.7 What is the speed of energy propagation between two bodies when the intervening space is vacuum?

7.8 What do you understand by participating and non-participating mediums?

7.9 Explain Prevost's theory of heat exchange.

7.10 Explain what you mean by absorptivity, reflectivity and transmissivity.

7.11 What is an opaque body? How can its absorptivity be increased or decreased?

7.12 What is a black body? Give examples of some surfaces which do not appear black, but have high values of absorptivities.

7.13 Define total emissive power and monochromatic emissive power of a body.

7.14 What is spectral or radiation intensity of a black body? How is it related to the total emissive power at a certain temperature?

7.15 Define emissivity of a surface. Explain spectral, directional, hemispherical and total emissivity.

7.16 What is a gray body? How does ε_λ vary for a gray body and for a real surface?

7.17 Explain Kirchhoff's law. What do you mean by the statement: A perfect absorber of radiant energy is also a perfect emitter?

7.18 How does an enclosure with a small hole in it behave as a black body?

7.19 Why is Planck's law the basic law of thermal radiation? Explain graphically how $E_{b\lambda}$ and T are related.

7.20 Show that Rayleigh–Jeans law and Wien's law can be derived from Planck's equation.

7.21 Derive Wien's displacement law

$$\lambda_{max} T = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m K}$$

from Planck's equation.

7.22 Explain how the fraction of radiation at temperature T for a range of wavelengths between λ_1 and λ_2 can be expressed as an area ratio.

7.23 How is Stefan–Boltzmann law derived from Planck's law of thermal radiation? What is the value of Stefan–Boltzmann constant?

7.24 Plot $E_{b\lambda}/T^5$ vs. λT. What does the curve signify?

7.25 Explain how the hemispherical emissivity of a real surface varies with wavelength, temperature, degree of roughness and degree of oxidation.

7.26 Define intensity of radiation. What is a solid angle? What is its unit? What is a steragon?

7.27 Show that the emissive power of a black body is π-times the intensity of emitted radiation.

7.28 On what factors does the radiant heat exchange between two bodies depend?

7.29 What is shape factor? Show that

$$A_1 F_{12} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \phi_1 \cos \phi_2}{r^2} \, dA_1 \, dA_2$$

7.30 State and explain the reciprocity theorem.

7.31 Explain how the shape factor is determined by decomposing one or both the surfaces into subdivisions.

7.32 What is the shape factor with respect to itself if the surface is concave, convex or flat?

7.33 Show that the hemispherical black cavity with a flat cover over it emits 50% of radiation to the surface itself and is absorbed.

7.34 Explain the electrical analogy for radiative heat transfer in a black enclosure. Draw the equivalent electrical network for radiative flux between four walls of a black enclosure.

7.35 What do you mean by a nonconducting and reradiating wall? Why is it a no-net-flux surface? Give some examples.

7.36 Show that the shape factor for two surfaces 1 and 2 connected by a refractory surface is given by

$$\overline{F}_{12} = \frac{A_2 - A_1 F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1 F_{12}}$$

What will be its value (a) if $A_1 = A_2$ and (b) if the surface 2 does not see the surface 1?

7.37 Explain how the shape factors for different surfaces evaluated?

7.38 Explain the radiant energy exchange between two small gray surfaces. Show that

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \varepsilon_1 \, \varepsilon_2$$

Why is the real value greater than this value?

7.39 For two infinite parallel gray planes exchanging radiant energy,

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{1/\varepsilon_1 + 1/\varepsilon_2 - 1}$$

7.40 Explain what you mean by radiosity and irradiation.

7.41 Explain the "surface resistance" and "space resistance". How can you construct a radiation network for two gray surfaces exchanging radiant energy?

7.42 What is a "floating node"? Where does this exist?

7.43 Show that radiative flux $(Q_{12})_{net}$ between two gray surfaces 1 and 2 connected by a

nonconducting and reradiating surface is given by

$$(Q_{12})_{net} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

where $\mathcal{F}_{12} = \dfrac{1}{(1/\varepsilon_1 - 1) + 1/\bar{F}_{12} + A_1/A_2(1/\varepsilon_2 - 1)}$

and $\bar{F}_{12} = \dfrac{A_2 - A_1 F_{12}^2}{A_1 + A_2 - 2A_1 F_{12}}$

7.44 What will be the value of $\mathcal{F}_{12}$ (a) when the surfaces are black, (b) when the surfaces are infinite parallel planes, (c) for two long concentric cylinders, (d) for two concentric spheres and (e) when a small body is enclosed by a large body?

7.45 Explain Hottel's crossed string method for estimating shape factor for infinitely long surfaces. Derive the expression for F_{12} in terms of areas and lengths of surfaces.

7.46 What do you mean by a radiation shield? Where is it used?

7.47 By using one radiation shield between two surfaces and if all the three surfaces have the same emissivity, show that the net radiant heat transfer is reduced by 50%.

7.48 Show that

$$\left(\frac{Q}{A}\right)_{\text{with } N \text{ shields}} = \frac{1}{N+1}\left(\frac{Q}{A}\right)_{\text{without shields}}$$

7.49 Explain the radiation error in high temperature measurement.

7.50 What is thermocouple error? How is this error reduced when the thermocouple is shielded?

7.51 Show that the net radiative energy transfer from a conical cavity of diameter D, height H, lateral length L, semi-vertex angle α and surface area A_1 is given by

$$Q = A_1 \varepsilon_1 \sigma T_1^4 \frac{1 - F_{11}}{1 - F_{11}(1 - \varepsilon_1)}$$

If a flat surface of area A_2 covers the c
show that

$$F_{11} = 1 - \sin \alpha$$

7.52 Explain the differences between radia
from gases and that from solids. Why
gases called selective radiators?

7.53 What is Beer's law? How does the radia
intensity I_{λ_L} decrease with the thickness
gas layer L?

7.54 What do you mean by monochroma
absorptivity and effective absorptivity?

7.55 What is beam length? How is it estimated

7.56 Explain how Hottel'curves can help
estimating radiant heat exchange betwee
gas volume and an enclosure.

7.57 How will heat transfer be estimate
when both convection and radiation a
significant? How do you contribute to tot
energy transfer when the temperature is lo
and when the temperature is high?

7.58 Explain what do you understand b
greenhouse effect and global warming.

7.59 What is solar insolation? Give the value o
solar constant. What is the effective surface
temperature of the sun regarded as a black
body?

7.60 How is solar radiation attenuated as it passes through the atmosphere? Why is the light reaching the earth of longer wavelengths like red, orange and yellow?

7.61 What is sky temperature? What is its approximate value?

7.62 Give the net rate of radiation heat transfer to a surface exposed to solar and atmospheric radiation.

Objective Type Questions

7.1 A surface that reflects all the incident radiation appears
(a) yellow (b) white
(c) black (d) red

7.2 Radiation emitted from heated bodies comprises rays with wavelengths
(a) 0.4 – 800 μm (b) 0.4 – 0.8 μm
(c) 0.76 – 100 μm (d) 0.01 – 0.4 μm

7.3 The large part of thermal radiation between 0.8 μm to 800 μm is called the
(a) ultraviolet radiation
(b) visible light

(c) infrared radiation
(d) microwave radiation

7.4 Most solids are
(a) highly absorptive
(b) highly transmittive
(c) opaque
(d) highly reflective

7.5 The absorptivity of a solid can be increased by
(a) polishing the surfaces
(b) roughening the surfaces
(c) whitening the surfaces
(d) none of the above

7.6 Gases have poor
(a) tranmissitivity (b) absorptivity
(c) reflectivity (d) emissivity

7.7 Ice is very close to a
(a) gray body (b) black body
(c) white body (d) specular body

7.8 A hollow sphere with uniform temperature and a small hole in it behaves very nearly as a
(a) black body (b) opeque body
(c) white body (d) gray body

7.9 A gray body is the one whose absorptivity
(a) varies with temperature
(b) varies with the wavelength of incident ray
(c) varies with temperature and wavelength of incident ray
(d) does not vary with temperature and wavelength of incident ray

7.10 A body which partly absorbs and partly reflects, but does not allow any radiation to pass through it is called
(a) specular (b) gray
(c) opaque (d) white

7.11 The emissivity of a real surface varies with
(a) the temperature
(b) the wavelength
(c) the direction of emitted radiation
(d) all of the above

7.12 When a body is in thermal equilibrium with its surroundings, the emissivity of its surface is equal to its absorptivity. This is called
(a) Kirchhoff's law (b) Wien's law
(c) Planck's law (d) Lambert's law

7.13 The radiant energy emitted by a body per unit time and per unit surface area at a particular wavelength and temperature is called
(a) intensity of radiation
(b) monochromatic emissive power
(c) total emissive power
(d) none of the above

7.14 The value of the maximum monochromatic emissive power of a black body, $(E_{b\lambda})_{max}$ shifts with increasing temperature towards
(a) the shorter wavelengths
(b) the longer wavelengths
(c) the same wavelength
(d) none of the above

7.15 The maximum monochromatic emissive power of a black body is proportional to
(a) T^3 (b) T^4
(c) T^5 (d) T^6

7.16 The area under the curve, $E_{b\lambda}/T^5$ vs λT, at $T = 1$ K is equal to
(a) Planck's constant
(b) Stefan–Boltzmann constant
(c) Boltzmann constant
(d) Radiation constant

7.17 The intensity of radiation is obtained by multiplying the emissive power by a factor
(a) π (b) $1/\pi$
(c) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\pi$ (d) $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\pi}$

7.18 The reciprocity theorem states that
(a) $A_1F_{12} = A_2F_{21}$ (b) $A_2F_{12} = A_1F_{21}$
(c) $F_{12} = F_{21}$ (d) $\alpha_1F_{12} = \alpha_2F_{21}$

7.19 A surface has a shape factor with respect to itself if it is
(a) flat (b) convex
(c) concave (d) cylindrical

7.20 In two concentric black cylinders, if 1 represents the outer surface of the inner cylinder of diameter d_1 and 2 represents the inner surface of the outer cylinder of diameter d_2, then F_{22} is given by
(a) $\frac{d_1}{d_2}$ (b) $\frac{d_1^2}{d_2^2}$
(c) $1-\frac{d_2}{d_1}$ (d) $1-\frac{d_1}{d_2}$

7.21 For two black parallel planes of equal areas connected by reradiating walls at a constant temperature the view factor. F_{12} is given by

(a) $1 + F_{12}$ (b) $\dfrac{1+F_{12}}{2}$

(c) $\dfrac{F_{12}}{2}$ (d) $\dfrac{1-F_{12}}{2}$

7.22 For two infinite parallel planes with emissivities ε_1 and ε_2. The interchange view factor from surface 1 to surface 2 is given by

(a) $\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1+\varepsilon_2}$ (b) $\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2$

(c) $\varepsilon_1 - \varepsilon_2$ (d) $\dfrac{\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_1+\varepsilon_2-\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2}$

7.23 Match List I and List II and select the correct answers using the codes given below:

List I	List II
A. Infinite parallel planes	1. ε_1
B. A small body completely enclosed in a large enclosure	2. $\varepsilon_1\varepsilon_2$
C. Two rectangles with a common edge	3. $\dfrac{1}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1}+\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2}-1}$
D. Concentric cylinders	4. $\dfrac{1}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1}+\frac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2}-1\right)}$

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	1	2	4	3
(b)	3	1	4	2
(c)	2	1	3	4
(d)	3	1	2	4

7.24 Match List I with List II using the codes given below selecting the correct answers:

List I	List II
A. Stefan–Boltzmann law	1. $E_{b\lambda} = \dfrac{C_1\lambda^{-5}}{e^{C_2/\lambda T}-1}$
B. Kirchhoff's law	2. $E_{b\lambda} = C_1 T/C_2\lambda^4$
C. Planck's law	3. $\varepsilon = \alpha$
D. Rayleigh–Jeans law	4. $Q = \mathcal{F}A\sigma(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	4	1	3	2
(b)	4	3	1	2
(c)	2	1	3	4
(d)	2	3	1	4

7.25 The sum of the energy emitted and the energy reflected from a solid is called
(a) total emissive power
(b) irradiation
(c) radiosity
(d) total radiant energy

7.26 A radiation shield of emissivity ε on both sides is placed between two infinite parallel planes of emissivity ε and temperatures T_1 and T_2. The ratio of radiant energy flux with shield and without shield would be
(a) 0.25 (b) 0.5
(c) 0.75 (d) 1.0

7.27 It is desired to reduce the radiant energy exchange between two infinite parallel planes by inserting radiation shields of the same emissivity. The number of shields required for 75% reduction would be
(a) two (b) three
(c) four (d) five

7.28 The mean beam length of gas radiation is defined as
(a) Volume V/Surface area A
(b) Volume V/3.6 (Surface area A)
(c) 3.4 V/A
(d) 4 V/A

7.29 **Assertion (A):** Gases like CO_2 and H_2O are called selective radiators.
Reasoning (R): Because these gases emit and absorb radiation only between narrow ranges of wavelengths called bands.
Codes:
(a) Both A and R are false
(b) Both A and R are true and R is the correct reason for A
(c) A is true, R is false

(d) A is false, R is true

7.30 When monochromatic radiation of intensity $I_{\lambda L}$ passes through a gas layer of thickness L, the radiant energy absorption $I_{\lambda L}$ decreases exponentially with the thickness of gas layer L. This is known as
(a) Beer's law
(b) Kirchhoff's law
(c) Wien's law
(d) Hottel's law

7.31 How can radiation heat transfer between two surfaces be reduced?
(a) By bringing the surfaces closer
(b) By introducing radiation shield between them
(c) By polishing the surfaces
(d) By roughening the surfaces

7.32 The absorptivity of a gas volume depends upon
(a) pressure only
(b) temperature only
(c) shape and size
(d) all of the above

7.33 The ratio of radiation heat transfer coefficient at room temperature to the surface emissivity is about
(a) 3 (b) 4
(c) 6 (d) 8

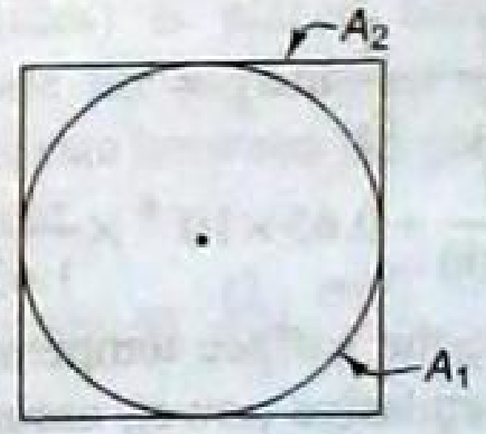
7.34 The intensity of solar radiation in kW/m^2 is about
(a) 1 (b) 3
(c) 6 (d) 8

7.35 For effective greenhouse effect, glass should be
(a) transparent to long wavelength radiation
(b) opaque to short wavelength radiation
(c) transparent to short wavelength radiation
(d) transparent to all wavelength

7.36 A radiation shield is used around thermocouples in order to measure more accurately the temperature of
(a) solids
(b) gases
(c) boiling liquids
(d) condensing vapour

7.37 A body at 500K cools down to 400K by radiation to atmosphere at 300K. What will be the ratio of heat loss rate at 500K to the heat loss rate at 400K?
(a) 3.11 (b) 4.02
(c) 5.1 (d) 2.78

7.38 There is a sphere within a cube as shown in figure below. If $F_{11} = 0.1$, $F_{12} = 0.4$, $F_{13} = 0.2$, $A_1 = 1 m^2$, $A_4 = 3\ m^2$. What will be the value of F_{41}?



(a) 0.2 (b) 0.3
(c) 0.4 (d) 0.14

Answers

7.1 (b) 7.2 (a) 7.3 (c) 7.4 (c) 7.5 (b)
7.6 (c) 7.7 (b) 7.8 (a) 7.9 (d) 7.10 (c)
7.11 (d) 7.12 (a) 7.13 (b) 7.14 (a) 7.15 (c)
7.16 (b) 7.17 (b) 7.18 (a) 7.19 (c) 7.20 (d)
7.21 (b) 7.22 (d) 7.23 (d) 7.24 (b) 7.25 (c)
7.26 (b) 7.27 (b) 7.28 (c) 7.29 (b) 7.30 (a)
7.31 (b) 7.32 (d) 7.33 (c) 7.34 (a) 7.35 (c)
7.36 (b) 7.37 (a) 7.38 (a)

$$\left[\frac{Q_{500}}{Q_{44}} = \frac{500^4 - 300^4}{500^4 - 400^4} = 3.11\right] \quad 7.38 \text{ (c)}$$

Open Book Problems

7.1 An optical pyrometer is an instrument to measure high temperatures. It works on the principle of comparing the radiation emitted by the body whose temperature is to be measured with that of an incandescent filament. The instrument is calibrated in such a way that it measures the temperatures which a black body would have if it were emitting radiation equal to that of the body under investigation.

A pyrometer records the temperature of a body as 1600 K with a red light filter ($\lambda = 0.65$ μm). Find the time temperature of the body if its emissivity e_λ at 0.65 μm is 0.7.

Hints: If T is the temperature of the body at wavelength λ and emissivity ε_λ, we have $E_{\theta\lambda} = E_x$. Neglecting unity in the denominator of Planck's equation (7.10).

$$c_1\lambda^{-5}(e^{-c_2/\lambda T_b} - 1) = \varepsilon_\lambda c_1\lambda^{-5}(e^{-c_2/\lambda T} - 1)$$

Taking logarithm of both sides

$$\exp(-c_2/\lambda T_b) = \varepsilon_\lambda \exp(-c_2/\lambda T)$$

$$\frac{1}{T} = \frac{1}{T_b} + \frac{\lambda}{c_2}\ln\varepsilon_\lambda =$$

$$\frac{1}{1600} + 0.65\times10^{-6} \times \frac{1}{1.438\times10^{-2}}\ln 0.7$$

7.2 Estimate the surface temperature of the sun and its emissive power, assuming it to be a black body and emits maximum radiation at $\lambda = 0.5$ μm. Also, calculate (i) the energy received by the surface of the earth, and (ii) the energy received by a 2 m × 2 m solar collector whose normal is inclined at 60° to the sun. Take the diameter of the sun as 1.4×10^9 m, the diameter of the earth as 1.3×10^6 m and the distance of the earth from the sun as 15×10^{10} m.

Hints: From Wien's displacement law, Eq. (7.14), $\lambda_{max} T = 2898 \times 10^{-3}$ mK, find T of the sun. From Stefan-Boltzmann law, Eq. (7.2) find E_b. Radiation reaching the earth's atmosphere,

$$Q = E_b \times \frac{\text{Radius of the sun}}{\text{Distance of sun from the earth}}$$

Energy received by the solar collector = $qA\cos\theta$.

7.3 Two parallel black plates 0.5 × 1.0 m are spaced 0.5 m apart. One plate is maintained at 1000°C and the other at 500°C. What is the net radiant heat exchange between the two plates?

Hints: From Fig. 7.28, for L_1/D and L_2/D, find F_{12}. The estimate $Q = \rho A_1 F_{12}(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$.

7.4 Two black square plates of size 1 m by 1 m are placed parallel to each other at a distance of 0.4 m. One plate is maintained at 1000°C and the other at 500°C. Find the net radiant heat exchange between the two plates.

Hints: Use Fig. 7.29 to find F_{12} and then Q_{12}.

7.5 A pipe carrying steam has an OD of 20 cm and run in a large room. It is exposed to air at a temperature of 30°C. Calculate the loss of heat to surroundings per metre length of pipe due to thermal radiation. The emissivity of the pipe surface is 0.8. Find the reduction in that loss if the pipe is enclosed in a 40 cm brick conduct of emissivity 0.9.

Hints: The pipe is a small gray body in a large gray surroundings. $Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$. When the pipe is enclosed in the brick conduit, from Eq. (7.70), $\mathcal{F}_{12} = \dfrac{1}{\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \dfrac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)}$.

Then estimate $Q'_{12} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12}(T_1^4 - T_2^4)$ and $Q_{12} - Q'_{12}$.

7.6 A thermos flask consists of two thin walled coaxial cylinders with a narrow gap such that the radius ratio $R_1/R_2 = 0.95$. The surfaces that face each other are silvered and have emissivity of 0.05 each. The annulus is evacuated. The length of flask is $L = 0.3$ m and the radius $R_1 = 0.05$ m. Calculate the heat loss when the thermos flask is filled with hot water such that $T_1 = 373$ K while the outer cylinder at a temperature of $T_2 = 300$ K. Also calculate the instantaneous rate of change of temperature of hot water.

Hints: Eq. (7.69) is used to find

$$\mathcal{F}_{12} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)}$$ and then calculate

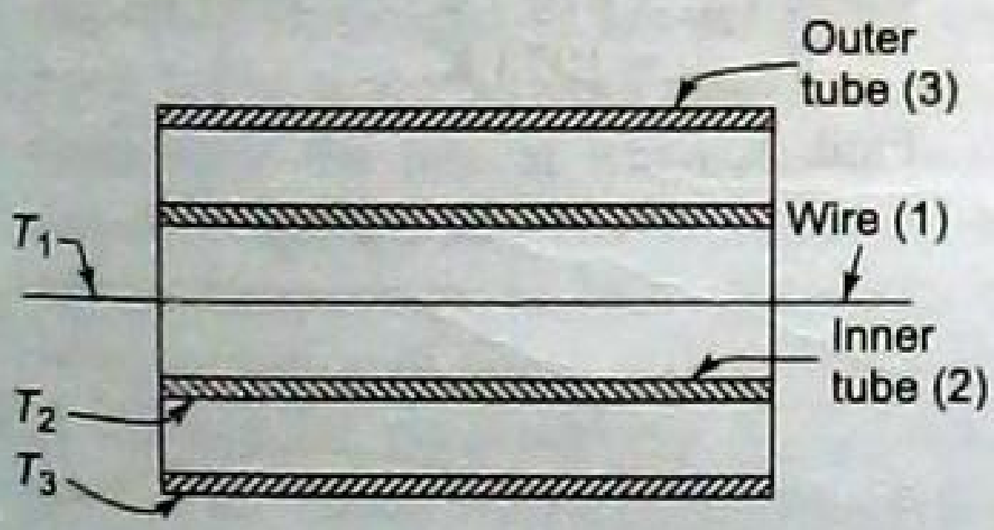
$$Q_{12} = \sigma A_1 \mathcal{F}_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4).$$

Initial cooling rate of hot water at 100°C is obtained by finding the properties of water at 373 K like ρ and c_p. Then mass of water in the flask $m = \rho \pi R_1^2 L$ kg and the rate of cooling is

$$\left(\frac{dT}{dt}\right)_{t=0} = \frac{Q \quad W}{m \text{ kg} \times c_p \text{ J/kgK}} \text{°C/s}$$

7.7 An electric wire 0.25 mm diameter $\varepsilon_1 = 0.4$ is placed within a tube of 2.5 mm diameter, $\varepsilon = 0.6$ having negligible thickness. This tube is placed concentrically within a tube of 5 mm diameter, $\varepsilon = 0.7$. Annular spaces can be assumed to be evacuated completely. If the surface temperature of the outer tube is maintained at 5°C, what must be the temperature of the wire so as to maintain the inner tube at 120°C?

Hints:



Heat lost by the wire to the inner tube = Heat lost by the inner to the outer tube.

$$\frac{\sigma A_1 (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)} = \frac{\sigma A_2 (T_2^4 - T_3^4)}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} + \frac{A_2}{A_3}\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_3} - 1\right)}$$

$$\frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{d_1}{d_2}, \frac{A_2}{A_3} = \frac{d_2}{d_3}$$

Substituting the given values, find T_1.

7.8 For a hemispherical furnace, the flat floor is at 700 K and has an emissivity of 0.5. The hemispherical roof is at 1000 K and has an emissivity of 0.25. Find the net radiative heat transfer from the roof to the floor.

Hints: $$Q_{12} = \frac{A_1 \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\frac{1 - \varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{F_{12}} + \frac{A_1}{A_2}\left(\frac{1 - \varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2}\right)}$$

where $A_1 = \pi r^2$, $A_2 = 2\pi r^2$ and $F_{12} = 1$

7.9 Determine the radiant heat exchange in W/m² between two large parallel steel plates of emissivities 0.8 and 0.5 held at temperatures of 1000 K and 500 K respectively, if a thin copper plate of emissivity 0.1 is placed as a radiation shield between the two plates.

Hints: $$Q_{12} = \frac{\sigma A (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right) + \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon_3} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1\right)}$$

where $A = 1$ m².

7.10 Consider two large parallel plates, one at $T_1 = 727$°C with emissivity $\varepsilon_1 = 0.8$ and the other at $T_2 = 227$°C and $\varepsilon_2 = 0.4$. An aluminium radiation shield ($\varepsilon_3 = 0.05$ on both sides) is placed between the plates. Calculate the percentage reduction in heat transfer rate between the plates as a result of the shield.

Hints: Without shield, $$\frac{Q_{12}}{A} \frac{\sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1}$$

With shield $$\frac{Q_{1-3}}{A} = \frac{Q_{3-2}}{A},$$

or $$\frac{\sigma (T_1^4 - T_3^4)}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1} = \frac{\sigma (T_3^4 - T_2^4)}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_3} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_2} - 1}$$

Find T_3. $$\frac{Q_{13}}{A} = \frac{\sigma (T_1^4 - T_3^4)}{\frac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \frac{1}{\varepsilon_3} - 1}$$

$$\% \text{ reduction} = \frac{Q_{12} - Q_{13}}{Q_{12}} \times 100$$

7.11 A spherical ball 6 cm in diameter and at 300 K is placed inside a large spherical furnace at

600 K. Estimate the diameter of the spherical furnace such that 1/5th of the energy emitted by the furnace reaches the spherical ball and the rate of radiant heat exchange.

Hints: $A_1F_{12} = 0.2\ A_2F_{21}$ where $F_{21} = 0.2$, $F_{12} = 1$,

$A_2 = \dfrac{A_1}{F_{21}} = \dfrac{4\pi r_1^2}{0.2}$ and $A_2 = 4\pi r_2^2$. Find r_2

and then $Q = \sigma A_1 F_{12} (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$.

2 A pipe carrying steam having an OD of 200 mm runs in a large room, and is exposed to air at a temperature of 30°C. The pipe surface temperature is 200°C. Find the heat loss per metre length of the pipe by convection and radiation taking the emissivity of the pipe surface as 0.8.

Hints: Heat loss by radiation, $Q_r = \sigma A_1 \varepsilon (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$ W/m.

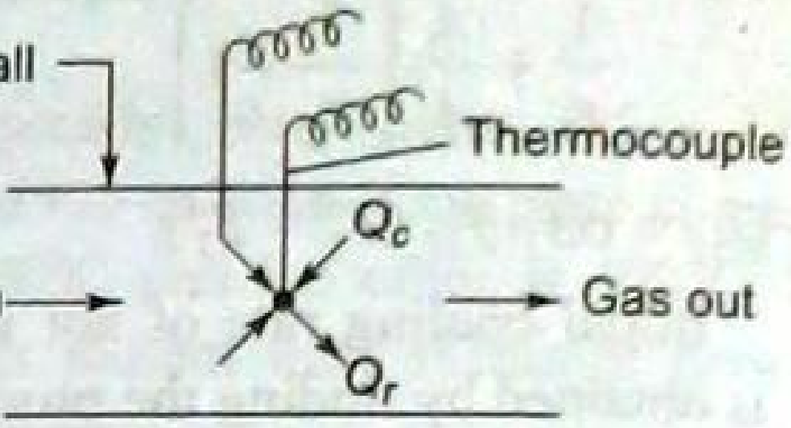
Find properties of air at $\dfrac{200+30}{2}$ or 115°C from the Appendix. Find $Gr_d.Pr$ and check if it is less than 10^9. Use $Nu_d = 0.53(Gr_dPr)^{1/4}$ to find h_c.

Heat loss by covection, $Q_c = h_c A\ (T_w - T_\infty)$.

Then, $Q_{tot} = Q_r + Q_c$.

13 A thermocouple indicates a temperature of 800°C when placed in a pipeline where a hot gas is flowing at 870°C. If the convective heat transfer coefficient between the thermocouple and gas is 60 W/m²K, find the duct wall temperature. Take ε f thermocouple as 0.5.

Hints:



There is convective heat flow from gas to thermocouple junction, but a part of this is lost by radiation to the pipe wall.

Convective heat flow from gas to themocouple

$$Q_c = h_c A\ (T_{gas} - T_{couple})$$

Heat radiated by thermocouple to pipe wall.

$$Q_r = F_g A \sigma\ (T_{couple}^4 - T_{wall}^4)$$

where $F_g = \dfrac{1}{\dfrac{1-\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_1} + \dfrac{1}{F_{12}} + \left(\dfrac{1-\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_2}\right)\dfrac{A_1}{A_2}}$.

Since $F_{12} = 1$ and $A_1 << A$, $F_g = \varepsilon_1$

Under steady state, $Q_c = Q_r$

$60\ A(T_{gas} - T_{couple}) = 0.5\ A\sigma\ (T_{gas}^4 - T_{wall}^4)$

where $T_{gas} = 870 + 273 = 1143$ K,

$T_{couple} = 1073$ K.

Find, T_{wall}.

oblems for Practice

.1 An annealing furnace is depicted in the Fig. P. 7.1 The fire in the firebox acts as a gray plane, $\varepsilon = 0.7$ at 1500°C, whereas the steel on the hearth acts as a gray plane, $\varepsilon = 0.8$ at 800°C. The firebox and hearth are separated by a bridgewall, and all other surfaces act as nonconducting and reradiating walls. Find the rate of heat transfer between the fire and steel.

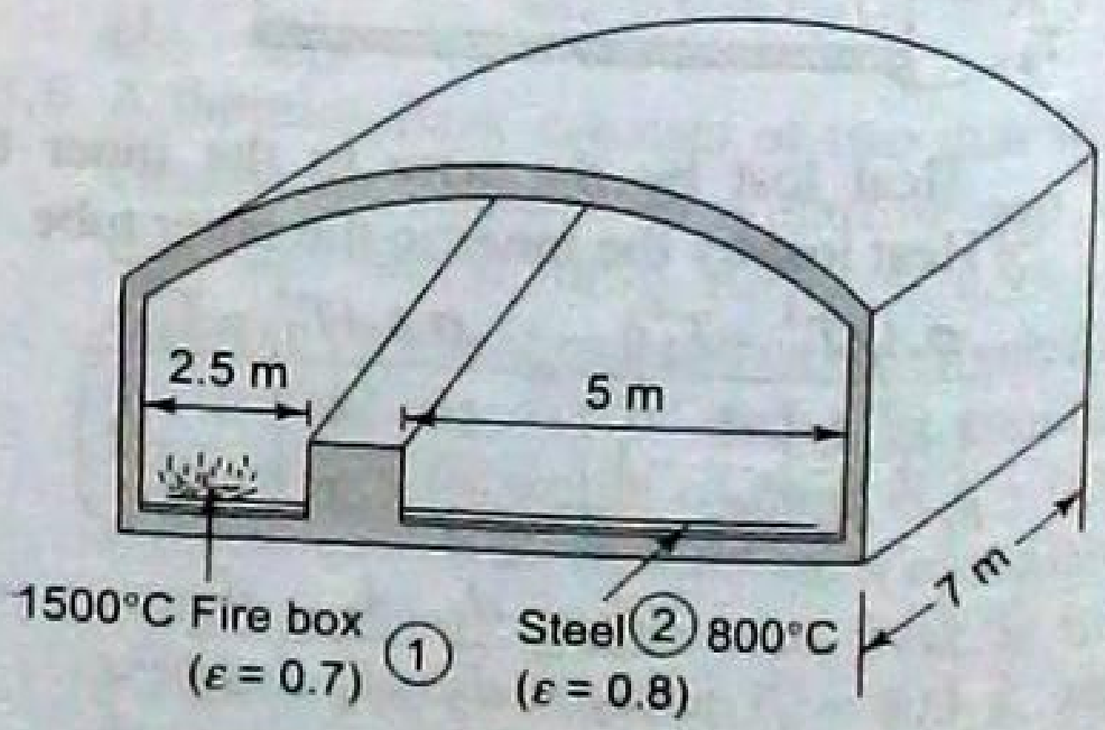


Fig. *P. 7.1*

(*Hints:* $F_{12} = 0$, since bodies 1 and 2 do not see each other $\mathcal{F}_{12} = 1\Big/\left(\dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_1} + \dfrac{1}{\varepsilon_2}\dfrac{A_1}{A_2}\right)$

$= 0.488$, $Q = 4160$ kW)

7.2 Two parallel gray planes have emissivities of 0.8 and 0.7 and

and 1500°C. What is the net radiant energy exchange? What would be the reduction in heat transfer if a radiation shield of polished aluminium ($\varepsilon = 0.04$) is placed between them? (*Ans.* 289.0 kW/m^2, 96.7%)

7.3 A furnace consists essentially of a long refractory conduit having rectangular cross-section 0.305 m by 0.203 m. The furnace encloses a heat resisting steel pipe of 7.62 cm outside diameter. The furnace wall temperature is maintained at 872°C and the pipe surface is at 371°C. Assuming both surfaces to be gray, calculate the net rate of heat transfer by radiation. Emissivity of furnace wall is 0.8 and that of steel is 0.4.

(*Ans.* $\mathcal{F}_{12} = 0.391$, $Q_{12} = 8.2$ kW/m^2)

7.4 Determine the heat lost by radiation per metre length of a 75 mm oxidised steel pipe at 327°C if (a) located in a large room with red brick walls at a temperature of 27°C, (b) enclosed in a 150 mm × 150 mm red brick walls at a temperature of 27°C. Emissivities of oxidised steel and red brick are 0.79 and 0.93 respectively.

7.5 The inner sphere of a Dewar flask is of 300 mm diameter and outer sphere is of 360 mm diameter. Both spheres are plated for which $\varepsilon = 0.5$. The space between them is evacuated. Determine the rate at which liquid oxygen would evaporate at –183°C when the outer sphere temperature is 20°C. The latent heat of vaporisation of liquid oxygen is 14.2 kJ/kg.

7.6 A rectangular enclosure has sides 1 m × 2 m × 4 m. The 1 × 2 m faces are black and at temperatures of 200°C and 100°C respectively. Calculate the net radiative energy exchange between the two surfaces, if the other four faces of the enclosure are reradiating surfaces.

using Eq. (7.66), $Q_{12} = 1.8$ kW

using Fig. 7.21, $\overline{F}_{12} = 0.2$, $Q_{12} = 418$ W

7.7 A hot air duct having an outside diameter of 250 mm and a surface temperature of 95°C is located in a large room whose walls are at 21°C. The air in the room is at 28°C and the heat transfer coefficient for free convection between the duct and the air is 5.82 W/m^2 K. Estimate the rate of heat transfer per metre of duct if (a) the duct is bare tin ($\varepsilon = 0.1$) and (b) the duct is painted with white lacquer ($\varepsilon = 0.9$). (*Ans.* 354.47 W)

7.8 A small electrically heated element of surface area 3500 mm^2 has its surface temperature maintained at 90°C when the voltage across the element is 15 V and the current through the element is 2 A. If the emissivity of the element is 0.8 and the surrounding air temperature is 30°C, determine the heat exchange by radiation and natural convection. What is the convective heat transfer coefficient?

(*Ans.* 136 W/m^2 K)

7.9 An exhaust duct 1.7 m in diameter conveys gas at 1000°C and 1 atm pressure with the composition 15% CO_2, 10% H_2O and 75% N_2 by volume. If the duct walls have an emissivity of 0.8 and operate at a temperature of 250°C, estimate the net radiant heat transfer per unit area.

7.10 Show that $\overline{F}_{12}$ for two black parallel planes of equal areas connected by reradiating walls at a constant temperature is

$$\overline{F}_{12} = \frac{1 + F_{12}}{2}$$

where F_{12} is the shape factor of the black bodies.

7.11 Three thin hollow cylinders of 100, 200, and 300 mm diameters are arranged concentrically. If the inner (100 mm diameter) and the outer (300 mm diameter) cylinders are maintained at 727°C and 27°C respectively, and assuming vacuum in the annular spaces, estimate the steady-state temperature of the middle cylinder (200 mm diameter). Take $\varepsilon_1 = \varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_3 = 0.05$. Determine the rate of heat loss per metre length of the composite cylinder and the convective heat transfer coefficient on the outer surface, if the surrounding air temperature is 10°C.

(*Ans.* 775 K, 0.39 kW/m, 178 W/m^2 K)

7.12 Two large parallel planes having emissivities of 0.3 and 0.5 are maintained at temperatures of 800°C and 300°C respectively. Determine the net radiant heat exchange per unit area between the planes. If a radiation shield having an emissivity of 0.05 on both sides is placed between the two planes, calculate the temperature of the shield and the heat transfer rate per unit area.

(*Ans.* 960 K, 16 kW/m^2, 1.64 kW/m^2)

7.13 A long cylindrical heater 25 mm in diameter is maintained at 627°C and has a surface emissivity of 0.8. The heater is located in a large room whose walls are at 27°C. How much will the radiant heat transfer from the heater be reduced if it is surrounded by a 0.2 m diameter radiation shield having an emissivity of 0.2. What is the temperature of the shield?

7.14 Calculate the rate at which radiant energy streams out from a conical cavity having a semi-vertex angle of 45° and height 300 mm, if the surface temperature of the cavity is 600 K and the emissivity is 0.8.

(*Ans.* 1.77 kW)

7.15 Two parallel plates measuring 1 m × 1 m are spaced 2 m apart. The inner surface of each plate radiates as a black body and the outer surfaces are perfectly insulated. A radiation shield with an emissivity of 0.05 on each side and measuring 1 m × 1 m is situated equidistant between the plates. The temperature of one plate is maintained at 727°C, the other plate at 227°C and the surroundings are at 27°C. Sketch the radiation network and calculate the radiative heat transfer from the hot plate. The configuration factor for two square parallel planes at distance apart equal to one of the sides is 0.2. (*Ans.* 54 kW)

7.16 Two parallel plates measuring 2 m × 1 m are spaced 1 m apart facing each other. The outer surfaces of the plates are perfectly insulated. The inner surface of one plate has emissivity of 0.8 and temperature of 500°C and that of the other plate has emissivity of 0.5 and temperature of 300°C. Find the n heat transfer by radiation between the tw plates.

A third plate of the same dimension having an emissivity of 0.2 on each side is placed equidistant between the two plates Determine the equilibrium temperature of the third plate and radiative heat transfer from the hot plate.

(*Ans.* 6.93 kW, 335°C, 4.16 kW)

7.17 A room measuring 3 m × 4 m × 2 m high has the ceiling covered with heating panels. Under steady-state conditions, the ceiling is at a temperature of 50°C and the walls and floor at a temperature of 20°C. Assuming all the surfaces have an absorptivity of unity, calculate the net radiant heat transfer from the ceiling. (*Ans.* 2.37 kW)

7.18 A room has a radiating wall panel fitted along the entire length of one wall. The panel extends from the ground to a height of 1 m and has a surface temperature of 60°C and an emissivity of 0.9. The room measures 4 m × 4 m × $2\frac{1}{2}$ m high, and the walls are effectively black with a temperature of 15°C. Calculate the heat radiated to the floor and the ceiling.

(*Ans.* 0.41 kW, 0.17 kW)

7.19 A spherical satellite of 1 m diameter encircles the earth at an altitude of 483 km. Estimate the shape factor of the earth from the satellite and hence calculate the equilibrium temperature of the satellite on the "dark" side and on the "bright" side of the earth. Assume that the diameter of the earth is 12,880 km and its black body temperature is 20°C. The temperature of outer space may be taken as 0 K and the satellite is irradiated with a heat flux of 1.3 kW/m^2 from the sun when on the bright side.

(*Ans.* 147 K, 297 K)

7.20 An electric arc considered as a black sphere of 5 mm diameter at a temperature of 5000°C is situated 250 mm away from a metal disc of 100 mm diameter. The disc

is oriented at right angle to the normal to the arc and is open to radiation on both sides. Assuming that the heat exchange with the disc is entirely by radiation, estimate the temperature of the disc when the room temperature is 20°C.

(*Ans.* 147°C)

7.21 A room measuring 5 m × 5 m × 2 m high has the celling covered with electric heating panels. If the ceiling surface temperature is maintained at 45°C and the walls are at 25°C in equilibrium condition, estimate the total heat loss from the ceiling by radiation. The emissivities of the ceiling and the walls are 0.75 and 0.65 respectively. Assume the floor to be non-sensitive to radiation.

($\mathcal{F}_{12} = 0.1435$, $Q = 19.5$ kW)

7.22 A rectangular furnace wall has the dimensions of 1 m × 1 m × 2 m high. The 1 m × 1 m surfaces are black and their temperature are 600 K and 400 K respectively. The remaining four surfaces are refractory (nonconducting and reradiating) no-flux surfaces. Calculate the net radiative exchange between the two black surfaces.

(*Ans.* 3.17 kW)

7.23 In a vertical cylindrical furnace 0.6 m in diameter and 1 m high, the upper surface ($\varepsilon = 0.8$) is maintained at 1000 K and the lower surface ($\varepsilon = 0.7$) is maintained at 700 K. Assuming the cylindrical wall as a refractory no-flux surface, estimate the net radiative energy transfer between the upper and lower surfaces.

7.24 A tungsten filament of a lamp is at 2500°C. What percent of the total radiant energy is in the visible range?

7.25 A package of electronic equipment is enclosed in a sheet metal cubical box of side 0.3 m. If the equipment used 1500 W of electrical power, what is the average temperature of the container walls if the wall temperature is assumed uniform all around the package? The emissivity of the walls is 0.80 and the room air temperature is 20°C.

7.26 A radiant heating system is installed in the plastered ceiling of a room 5 m × 5 m × 3 m high. The temperature of the concrete floor is maintained at 27°C. Assume that no heat flows through the walls, which are coated with reradiating material. If the required heat supply to the room is 1.2 kW, determine the necessary temperature of the ceiling surface.

7.27 A thermocouple, used to measure the temperature of a gas stream in a duct, records a value of 300°C. If the duct walls are at a temperature of 100°C, calculate the true gas temperature. Assume that the thermocouple has an emissivity of 0.85 and that the heat transfer coefficient of the gas flowing past it is 75 W/m^2 K.

7.28 A small disc shaped earth satellite of 1 m diameter is circling the earth (radius 6250 km) at a distance of 300 km from the terrestrial surface. The flat surface of the disc is oriented tangential to the earth's surface. The satellite surface is oxidised aluminium ($\varepsilon = 0.3$) and is at −18°C. Assuming that (i) the earth is black having an average surface temperature of 27°C, (ii) the satellite is in the shadow of the earth and (iii) the temperature of the outer space is at 0 K, calculate the net rate of energy emission from the satellite.

(*Ans.* 14.53 W)

7.29 An internal combustion engine burns fuel octane (C_8H_{18}) with 150% stoichiometric air. The combustion products at a temperature of 1000°C and a pressure of 1.2 atm pass through an exhaust pipe, the walls of which are at 240°C. Approximating the exhaust pipe as an infinite black cylinder 75 mm in diameter, estimate the net radiant exchange between the hot combustion gases and the pipe wall.

7.30 Two parallel discs both 2 m in diameter and 2 m apart are maintained uniformly at 560°C and 280°C respectively. Determine the net rate of heat loss from the hotter disc if (a) the surroundings are black at 0 K and (b) a reradiating surface extends between the discs.

7.31 Determine the view factor between a 1 m^2 skylight, oriented as shown, above a floor which measures 20 m × 28 m.

(*Ans.* 0.608)

7.32 If a 25 mm hole is drilled completely through a 50 mm thick metal plate which is maintained at a uniform temperature of 150°C, what is the rate of energy loss from the drilled surface when the surroundings are at 15°C? Assume both the metallic surface and the surroundings to be black.

7.33 Two large parallel plates, 1 and 2, having emissivities on their inner faces of 0.5 and 0.8 are maintained at 300°C and 100°C respectively. A third plate having unknown emissivities on its faces *A* and *B* is placed between the other two plates. When face *A* is pointing towards plate 1, the third plate reaches an equilibrium temperature of 278°C. When the third plate is turned around so that face *B* is pointing toward plate 1, its equilibrium temperature drops to 140°C. Determine the emissivities of the two faces *A* and *B*.

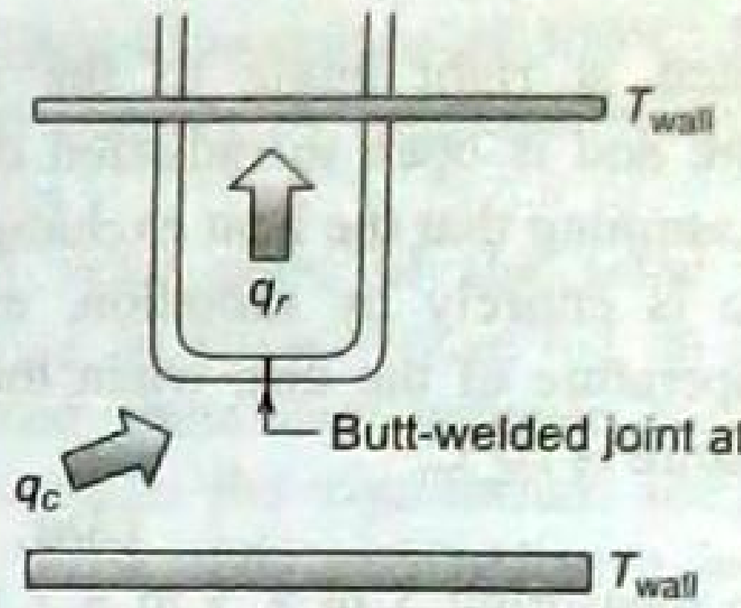
(*Ans.* $\varepsilon_A = 0.916$, $\varepsilon_B = 0.102$)

7.34 A furance is shaped like a long equilateral triangular duct. The width of each side is 1 m. The base surface has an emissivity of 0.7 and is maintained at a uniform temperature of 600 K. The heated left side surface closely approximates a black body at 1000 K. The right side surface is well-insulated. Determine the rate at which energy must be supplied to the heated side externally per unit length of the duct.

(*Ans.* 28 kW)

7.35 A butt-welded thermocouple (Fig. P. 7.35) having an emissivity of 0.8 is used to measure the temperature of a transparent gas flowing in a large duct whose walls are at 227°C. The temperature indicated by the thermocouple is 504°C. If the convection heat transfer coefficient between the surface of the couple and the gas is 142 W/m^2 K, estimate the true gas temperature.

(*Ans.* 602°C)



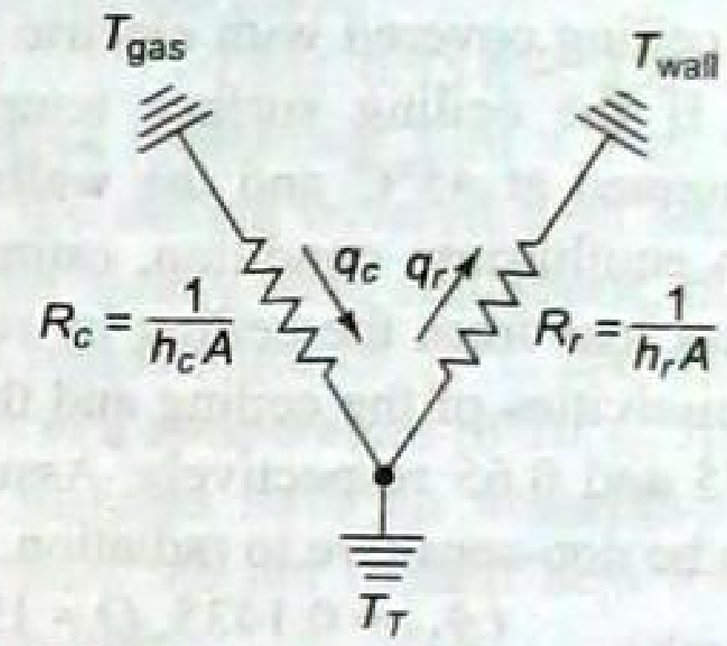
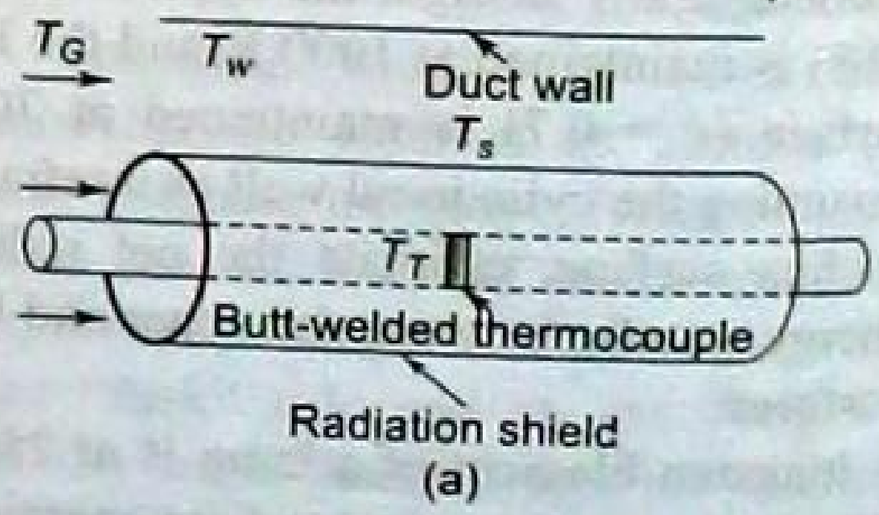


Fig. *P. 7.35 Butt-welded thermocouple without radiation shield*

7.36 Determine the correct gas temperatur P. 7.35 if the thermocouple is shielde a thin cylindrical radiation shield ha a d_i four times as large as the d_o of thermocouple (Fig. P. 7.36). Assuming the convection heat transfer coefficient the shield is 114 W/m^2 K on both sides that the emissivity of the shield (stainl steel) is 0.3.

(*Ans.* 520°



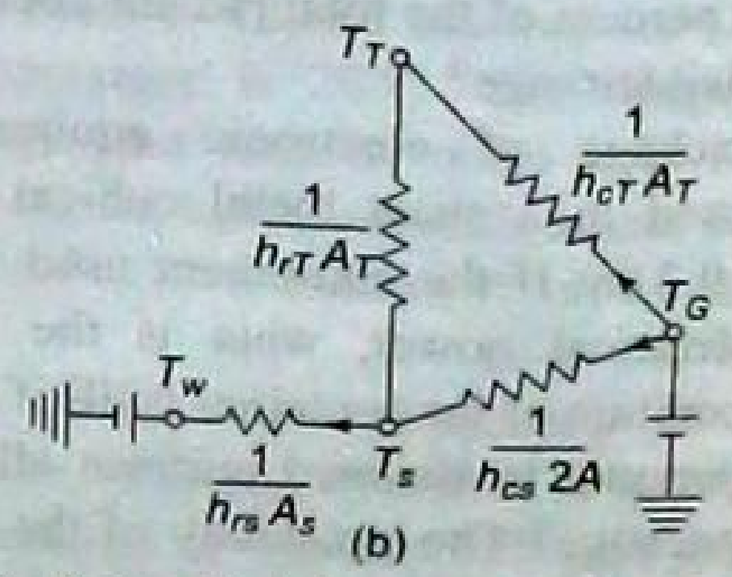


Fig. *P. 7.36 Butt-welded thermocouple with radiation shield*

7.37 Evaluate the percentage of daylight entering through a store window A_1 that impinges on the floor area A_4 located relative to A_1 as shown in Fig. P. 7.37. Assume that the light through the window is diffuse.

(*Ans.* $F_{1-4} = 0.097$, i.e. about 10% of the light passing through the window will impinge on the floor area A_4)

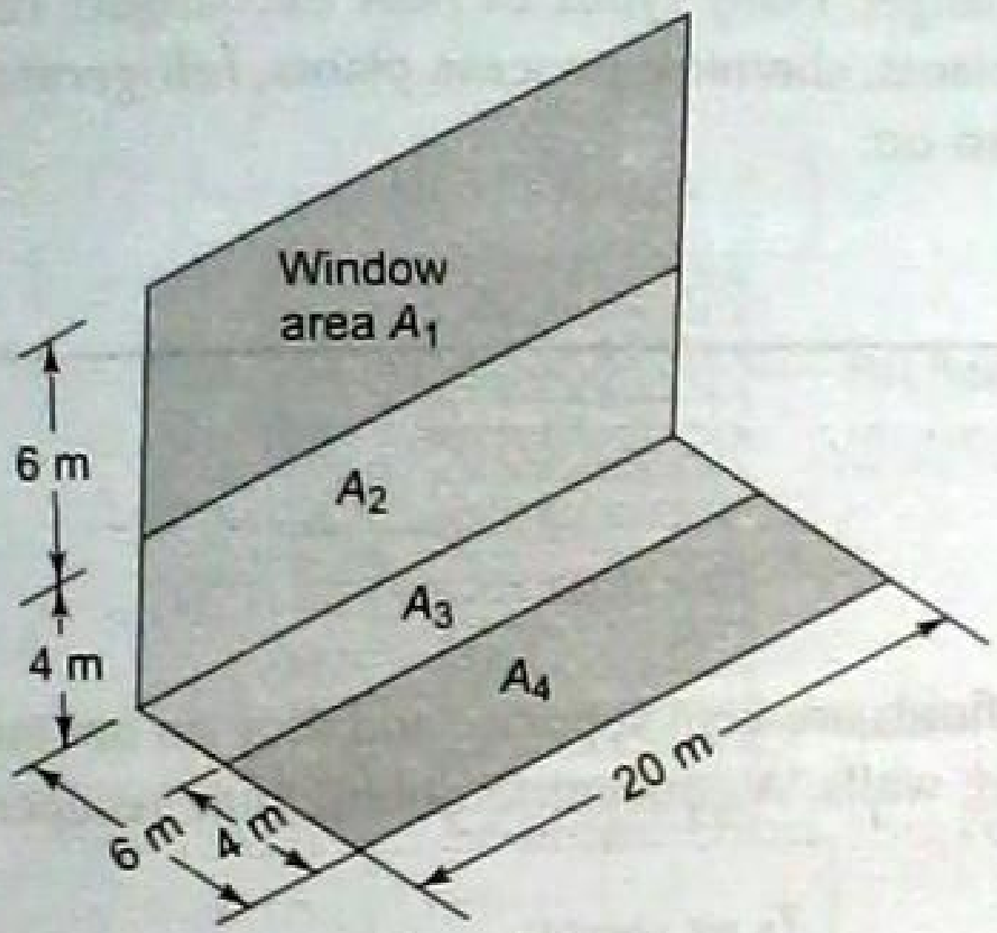


Fig. *P. 7.37*

7.38 The temperature of the filament of an incandescent light bulb is 2500 K. Assuming the filament to be a black body, determine the fraction of the radiant energy emitted by the filament that falls in the visible range. What is the wavelength at which the emission of radiation is maximum?

(*Ans.* 0.0527, 1.16 μm)

7.39 A furnace is shaped like a long equilateral duct. The width of each side is 1 m. The base surface has an emissivity of 0.7 and is maintained at a uniform temperature of 600 K. The heated left side surface closely approximates a black body at 1000 K. The right side surface is well insulated. Determine the rate at which energy must be supplied to the heated side externally per unit length of the duct in order to maintain these operating conditions.

(*Ans.* 28 kW)

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Heat Exchangers

8

A heat exchanger is a device in which heat is transferred from one fluid to another. The hot fluid gets cooled, and the cold fluid is heated. The principles of heat transfer discussed so far in the earlier chapters are applied in the thermal design of a heat exchanger. Many types of heat exchangers have been developed for diverse applications in steam power plants, chemical process plants, refrigerators and air conditioners, radiators in cars, space vehicles and so on.

8.1 TYPES OF HEAT EXCHANGERS

Heat exchangers can be grouped into three broad classes:

1. Transfer type heat exchangers or recuperators,
2. Storage type heat exchangers or regenerators,
3. Direct contact type heat exchangers or mixers.

In a transfer type heat exchanger or a recuperator, the two fluids are kept separate and they do not mix as they flow through it. Heat is transferred through the separating walls. A concentric double pipe recuperator is shown in Fig. 8.1.

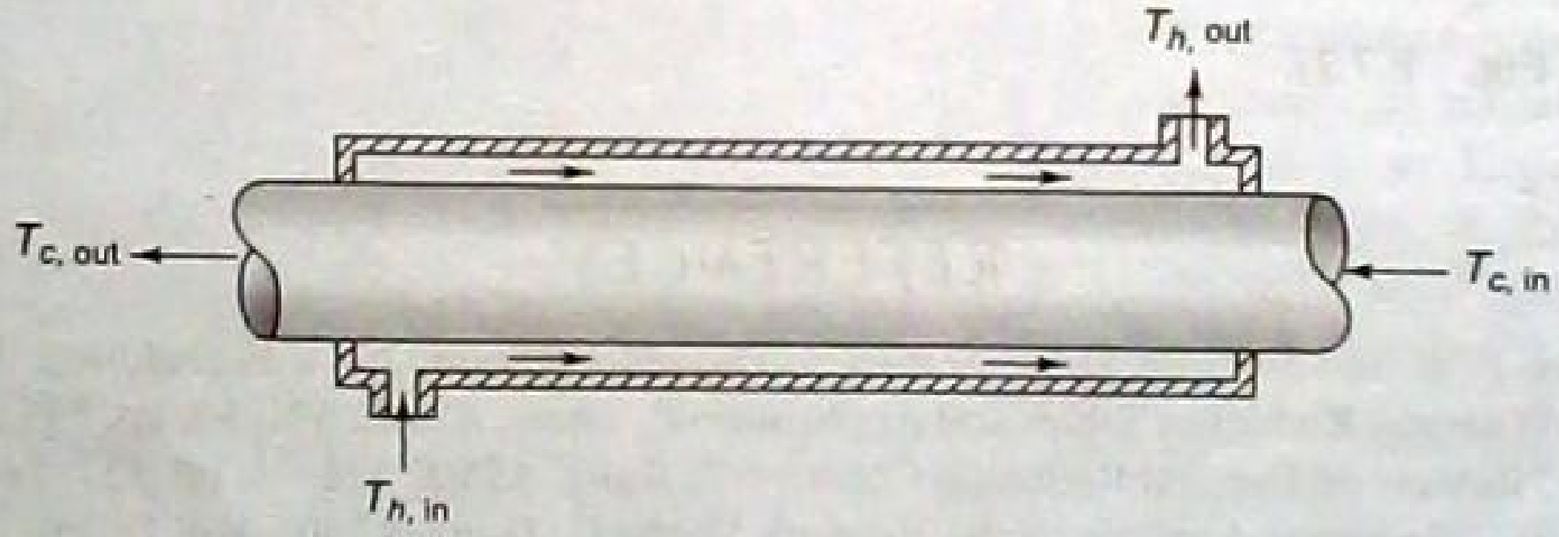


Fig. 8.1 *Concentric double pipe heat exchanger*

In a storage type heat exchanger or a regenerator, the hot and cold fluids flow alternately through a solid matrix of high heat capacity. When the hot fluid flows through the matrix in an interval of time, heat is transferred from the fluid to the matrix which stores it in the form of an increase in its internal energy. This stored energy is then transferred to the cold fluid as it flows through the matrix in the next interval of time. The matrix is thus subjected to periodic heating and cooling.

Storage type heat exchangers may have matrices which are either (i) stationary or (ii) rotating. Figure 8.2 shows a typical regenerator with a stationary matrix. During the heating period of the cycle when the hot fluid flows through the matrix, valves *A* and *B* are kept open and *C* and *D* are kept closed. During the cooling period,

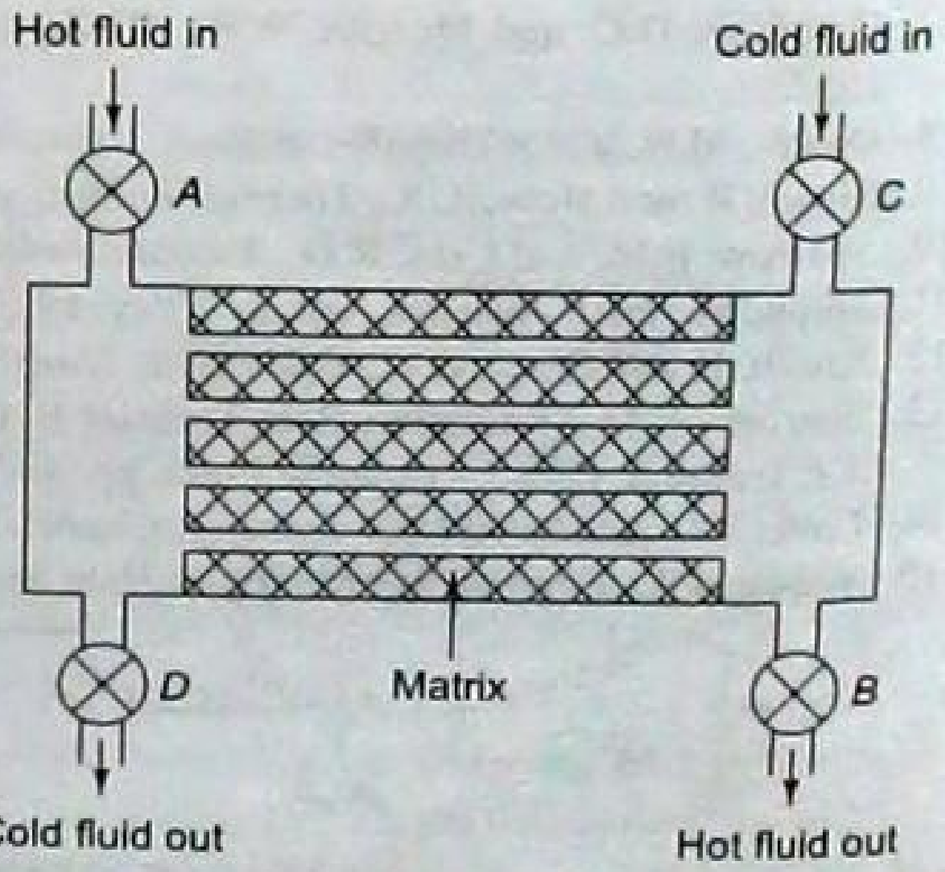


Fig. 8.2 *Single matrix storage type heat exchanger*

(c) Pumping Power

In a heat exchanger, both fluids are usually forced to flow by pumps or fans that consume electrical power. The annual cost of electricity associated with the operation of the pumps and fans can be determined from Operating cost = [Pumping power, kW × Hours of operation, h × Price of electricity, Rs./kWh] where the pumping power is the total electricity consumed by the motors of the pumps and fans.

Minimizing the pressure drop and the mass flow rate of the fluids will *minimize* the operating cost of the heat exchanger, but it will *maximize* the size of the heat exchanger and thus the initial cost.

(d) Size and Weight

Normally, the *smaller* and *lighter* the heat exchanger, the better it is. This is particularly important in automotive and aerospace industries. Also a larger heat exchanger, not only carries a higher price tag, but also requires more space.

(e) Type

The type of heat exchanger to be selected depends primarily on the type of fluids involved, the size and weight limitations, and the presence of phase-change processes. A heat exchanger is suitable to cool a liquid by a gas. On the other hand, a plate or shell-and-tube heat exchanger is very suitable for cooling a liquid by another liquid.

(f) Materials

The materials used in the construction of the heat exchanger have an important effect on the selection. The thermal and structural stress effects need not be considered at pressures below 15 atm or temperatures below 150° C. Differential thermal expansion problems need be considered be it a temperature difference of 50° C or more exists the tubes and the shell.

(g) Other Considerations

Heat exchanger should be leak-tight particularly for toxic or expensive fluids. There should be ease of servicing, low maintenance cost, safety, reliability and silence in operation.

SOLVED EXAMPLES

Example 8.1 Water (c_p = 4.187 kJ/kg K) is heated at the rate of 1.4 kg/s from 40°C to 70°C by an oil (c_p = 1.9 kJ/kg K) entering at 110°C and leaving at 60°C in a counterflow heat exchanger. If U_o = 350 W/m^2 K, calculate the surface area required.

Using the same entering fluid temperatures and the same oil flow rate, calculate the exit temperatures of oil and water and the rate of heat transfer, when the water flow rate is halved.

Solution Given (Fig. Ex. 8.1):

$$T_{h_1} = 110°C,\ T_{h_2} = 60°C,\ T_{c_1} = 40°C,\ T_{c_2} = 70°C$$

$$\Delta T_i = 110 - 70 = 40°C$$

$$\Delta T_e = 60 - 40 = 20°C$$

$$\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{\Delta T_i - \Delta T_e}{\ln \Delta T_i / \Delta T_e} = \frac{40 - 20}{\ln 40/20} = \frac{20}{\ln 2} = 28.85°C$$

$$Q = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{lm}$$

$$A_0 = \frac{1.4 \times 4.187 \times 30}{0.35 \times 28.85} = 17.42 \text{ m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

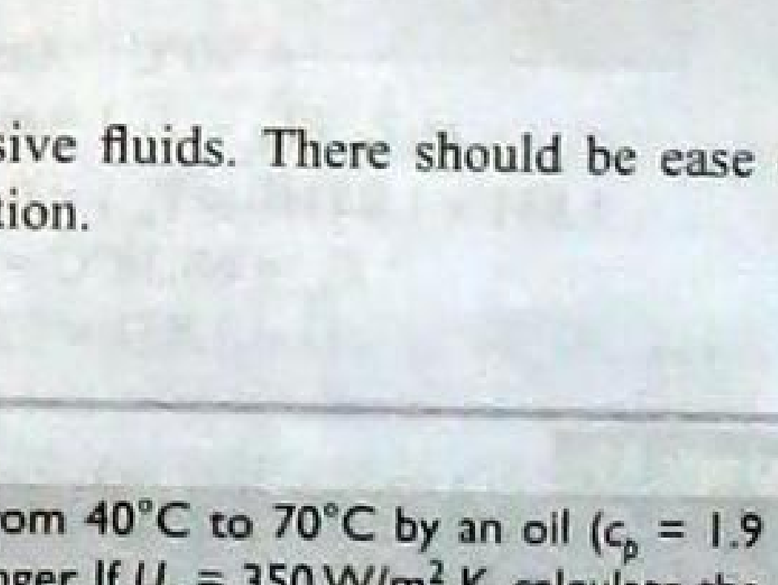


Fig. Ex. 8.1

$$1.4 \times 4.187 \times 30 = \dot{m}_h \times 1.9 \times 50$$

$$\dot{m}_h = 1.851 \text{ kg/s}$$

$$\dot{m}_h c_h = 1.851 \times 1.9 = 3.52 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$\dot{m}_c c_c = 0.7 \times 4.187 = 2.93 \text{ kW/K}$$

(with water flow halved)

$$\dot{m}_c c_c = C_{\min} \text{ and } \dot{m}_h c_h = C_{\max}$$

$$R = \frac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}} = \frac{2.93}{3.52} = 0.832$$

$$\text{NTU} = \frac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}} = \frac{0.35 \times 17.42}{2.93} = 2.08$$

$$\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)] = \exp[-2.08(1-0.832)]$$

$$= e^{-0.34944} = 0.705$$

The effectiveness of the heat exchanger is

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1-\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}{1-R\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]} = \frac{1-0.705}{1-0.832 \times 0.705}$$

$$= \frac{0.295}{0.413} = 0.714$$

Now,

$$\varepsilon = \frac{(\Delta T)_1}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{T_{c_2} - 40}{110 - 40} = 0.714$$

$\therefore$ T_{c_2} = exit water temperature

$$= 90°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$$

$$1.851 \times 1.9 (110 - T_{h_2}) = 0.7 \times 4.187 (90 - 40)$$

$$T_{h_2} = 68.38°\text{C} = \text{exit temperature of oil} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = 1.851 \times 1.9 (110 - 68.38) = 146.5 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.2 In a counter flow heat exchanger if $\Delta T_i = \Delta T_e$, show that $\Delta T_{lm} = \Delta T_i = \Delta T_e$.

Solution

$$\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{\Delta T_i - \Delta T_e}{\ln \Delta T_i / \Delta T_e}$$

Let $\Delta T_i = a$ and $\Delta T_i - \Delta T_e = x$

$\therefore$ $\Delta T_e = a - x$

On substitution,

$$\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{x}{\ln a/(a-x)}$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \Delta T_{lm} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x}{\ln a/(a-x)}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{\frac{(a-x)}{a}(-a)(-1)\frac{1}{(a-x)^2}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0}(a-x) = a = \Delta T_i$$

$\therefore$ $\Delta T_{lm} = \Delta T_i = \Delta T_e$ Proved.

Example 8.3 In a balanced counter flow heat exchanger where $\dot{m}_h c_h = \dot{m}_c c_c$ show that $\Delta T_i = \Delta T_e = \Delta T$, at any section, and the temperature profiles of the two fluids are linear and parallel.

Solution As shown in Fig. Ex. 8.3, for a differential length dL of the heat exchanger.

$$dQ = -\dot{m}_h c_h \, dT_h = -\dot{m}_c c_c \, dT_c$$
$$= U_0 \, dA_0 \, \Delta T$$

Since $\dot{m}_h c_h = \dot{m}_c c_c$

$dT_h = dT_c$

or, $d(T_h - T_c) = 0$

or, $\Delta T = T_h - T_c = \text{constant}$

$\therefore$ $\Delta T_i = \Delta T_e = \Delta T$, at any section. Proved.

From energy balance,

$$-\dot{m}_h c_h dT_h = -\dot{m}_c c_c \, dT_c = U_0 \, \pi D_0 \, dL \, \Delta T$$

$$\frac{dT_h}{dL} = -\frac{U_0 \pi D_0 \Delta T}{\dot{m}_h c_h} = \text{constant}$$

$$\frac{dT_c}{dL} = -\frac{U_0 \pi D_0 \Delta T}{\dot{m}_c c_c} = \text{constant}$$

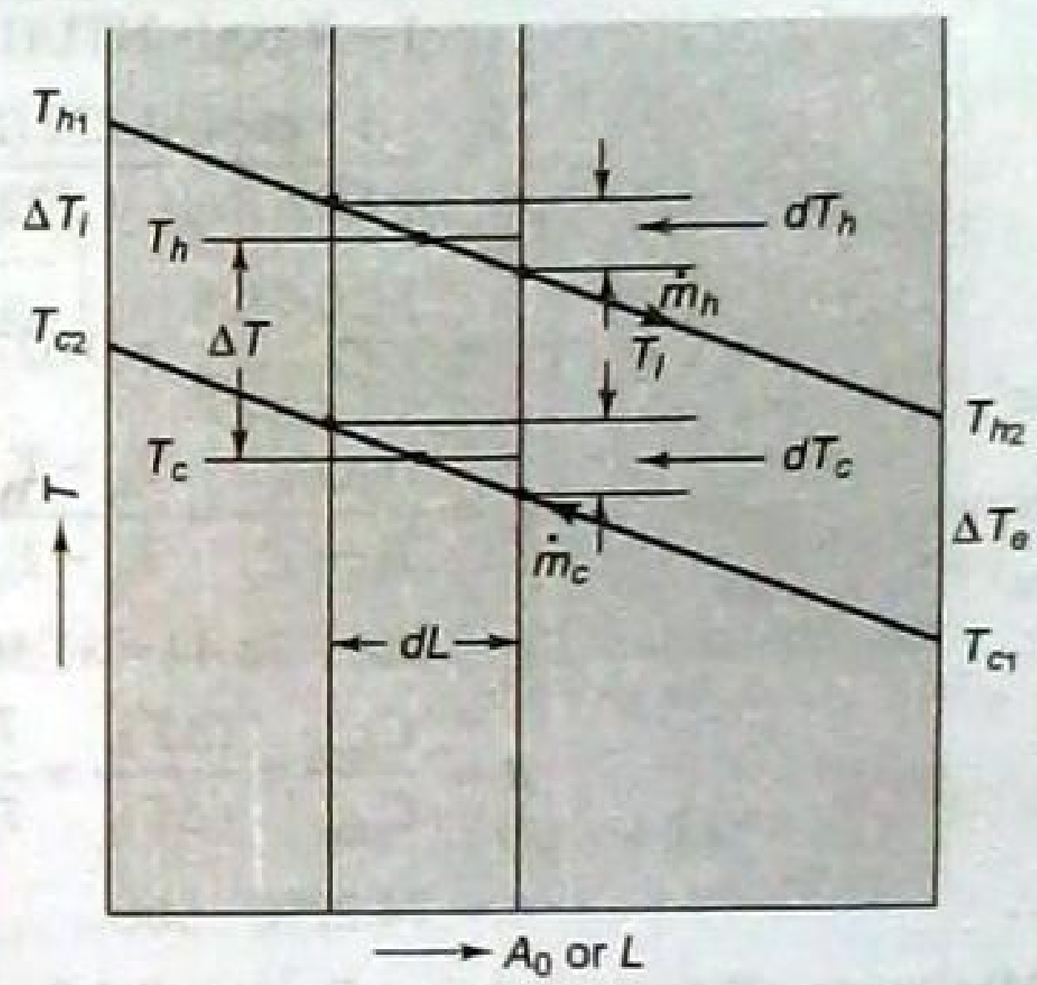


Fig. Ex. 8.3

Thus temperature profiles of both hot and cold fluids are linear and parallel. Proved.

Example 8.4 In an oil cooler, oil enters at 160°C. If water entering at 35°C flows parallel to oil, the exit temperatures of oil and water are 90°C and 70°C respectively. Determine the exit temperatures of oil and water if the two fluids flow in opposite directions. Assume that the flow rates of the two fluids and U_0 remain unaltered. What would be the minimum temperatures to which oil could be cooled in parallel flow and counterflow operations?

Solution Heat capacity ratio $R = \dfrac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}} = \dfrac{(\Delta T)_s}{(\Delta T)_l}$

In Fig. Ex. 8.4,

$$T_{h_1} - T_{h_2} = 160 - 90 = 70°C$$
$$T_{c_2} - T_{c_1} = 70 - 35 = 35°C$$

$$R = \frac{T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}}{T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}} = \frac{35}{70} = 0.5$$

For parallel flow operation,

$$\varepsilon_p = \frac{(\Delta T)_l}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{70}{160 - 35} = 0.56$$

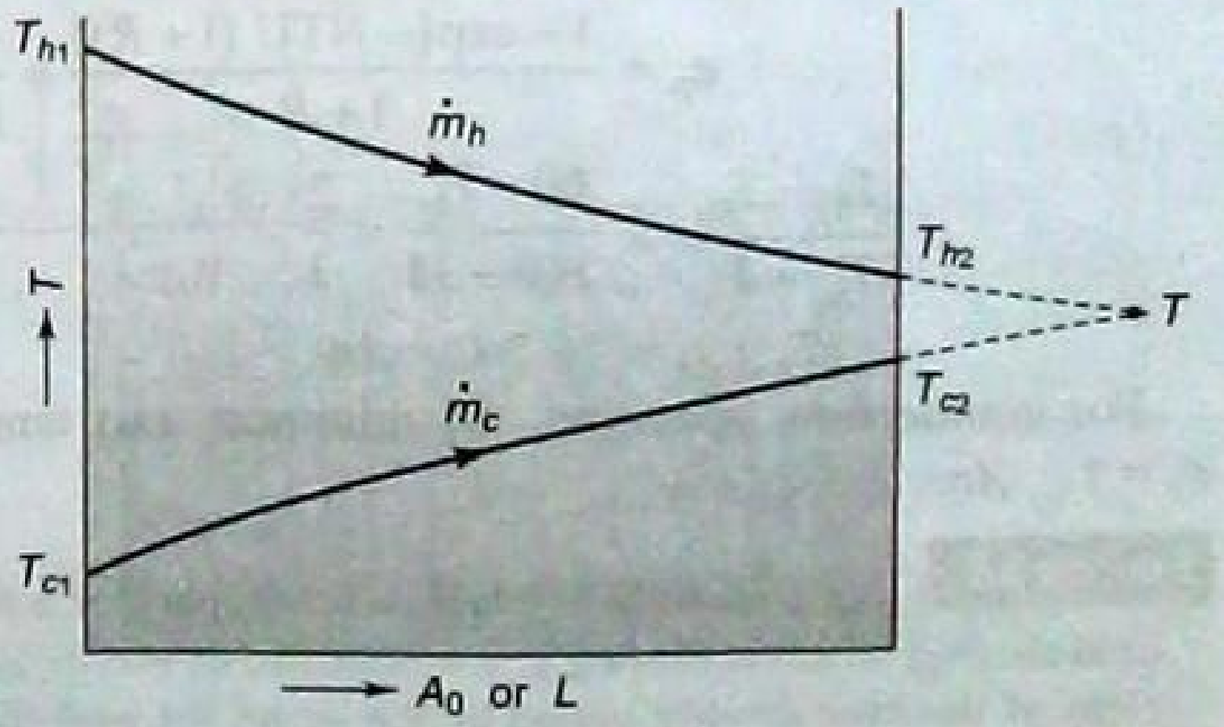


Fig. Ex. 8.4

gain, $$\varepsilon_p = \frac{1-\exp[-\text{NTU}(1+R)]}{1+R}$$

$$= \frac{1-\exp[-1.5\,\text{NTU}]}{1.5} = 0.56$$

$$\exp(-1.5\,\text{NTU}) = 0.16$$

$$\text{NTU} = 1.222$$

Now, $$\text{NTU} = U_0 A_0 / C_{\min}$$

Since in counterflow operation, U_0 and A_0 remain the same and the flow rates also do not change, NTU will remain the same as in parallel flow operation. Again, $R = 0.5$. Therefore,

$$\varepsilon_c = \frac{1-\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}{1-R\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}$$

$$= \frac{1-\exp[-1.222(1-0.5)]}{1-0.5\exp[-1.222(1-0.5)]}$$

$$= \frac{1-0.5428}{1-0.2714} = 0.6275$$

Now, $$\varepsilon_c = \frac{(\Delta T)_1}{T_{h_1}-T_{c_1}} = \frac{T_{h_1}-T_{h_2}}{T_{h_1}-T_{c_1}} = \frac{160-T_{h_2}}{160-35} = 0.6275$$

$\therefore$ $$T_{h_2} = 160 - 78.44 = 81.56°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$R = \frac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}} = \frac{(\Delta T)_s}{(\Delta T)_1} = \frac{T_{c_2}-T_{c_1}}{T_{h_1}-T_{h_2}} = \frac{T_{c_2}-35}{160-81.56} = 0.5$$

$\therefore$ $$= 74.22°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Minimum oil temperature: For parallel flow operation, the minimum oil temperature will correspond to the common temperature T when the hot and cold temperature profiles meet (Fig. Ex. 8.4). Therefore,

$$\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T - T_{c_1})$$

$$0.5(160 - T) = (T - 35)$$

$$(T)_{\min} = 76.7°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The minimum oil temperature can also be estimated for parallel flow operation by assuming that it would occur if the heat exchanger were infinitely large, or $A_0 = \infty$, i.e. NTU $= \infty$

$$\varepsilon_p = \frac{1-\exp[-\text{NTU}\,(1+R)]}{1+R} = \frac{1}{1+R} = \frac{1}{1+0.5} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\frac{T_{h_1}-T_{h_2}}{T_{h_1}-T_{c_1}} = \frac{60-T_{h_2}}{160-35} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$(T_{h_2})_{\min} = 76.7°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For counterflow operation, the minimum exit temperature of oil would be 35°C, when $T_{h2} = T_{c_1}$ and $\varepsilon_c = 1$. *Ans.*

Example 8.5 In a counterflow waste heat recuperator, a stream of hot waste gas (w_g) gives up heat to a stream of cold air (w_a) which is flowing in the opposite direction. Show that the efficiency of the recuperator, defined as the ratio of the heat actually gained by the air to the heat that would be gained if the air attained the inlet temperature of waste gas, is given by

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{1-(w_g c_g / w_a c_a)}{1-(w_g c_g / w_a c_a)e^{-\alpha}}$$

re
$$\alpha = U_0 A_0 \left(\frac{1}{w_g c_g} - \frac{1}{w_a c_a} \right)$$

recuperator is designed to achieve an efficiency of 60% when heating 30 kg/s of air (c_p = 1.005 kJ/kg K) with stream of 25 kg/s of hot waste gas (c_p = 1.1 kJ/kg K). By what factor would the heating surface have to be increased to raise the efficiency to 70%? Assume that U_0 remains unchanged.

tion Energy balance of a differential element (Fig. Ex. 8.5) gives

$$dQ = -w_g c_g \, dT_g = -w_a c_a \, dT_a = U_0 \pi D \, dx \, \Delta T$$

$$d(\Delta T) = dT_g - dT_a$$

$$= -\frac{dQ}{w_g c_g} + \frac{dQ}{w_a c_a} = -dQ \left(\frac{1}{w_g c_g} - \frac{1}{w_a c_a} \right)$$

$$= -U_0 \pi D \, dx \, \Delta T \left(\frac{1}{w_g c_g} - \frac{1}{w_a c_a} \right)$$

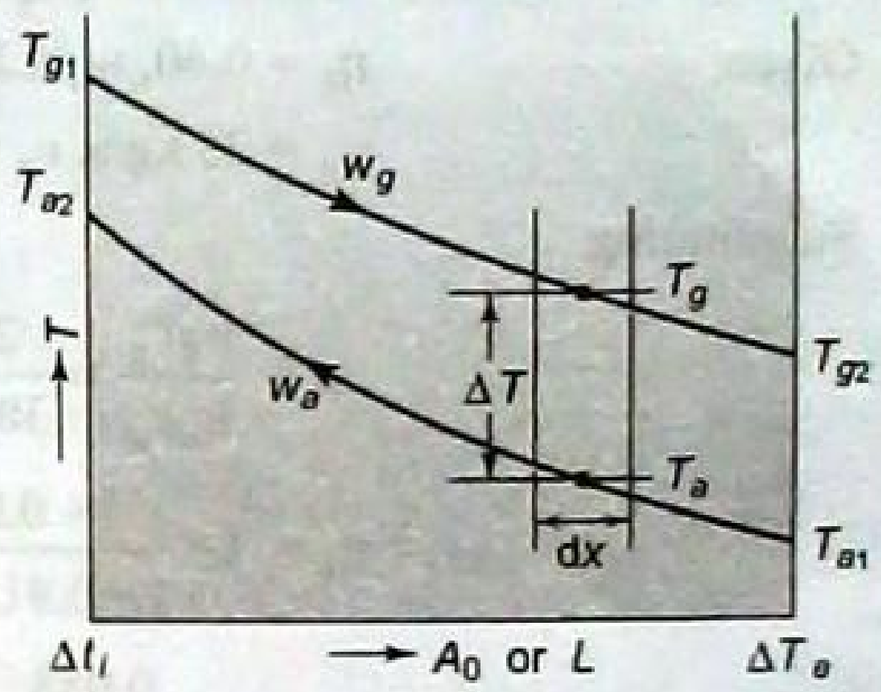


Fig. Ex. 8.5

$$\int_{T_i}^{T_e} \frac{d(\Delta T)}{\Delta T} = -\int_0^L U_0 \pi D \left(\frac{1}{w_g c_g} - \frac{1}{w_a c_a} \right) dx$$

$$\ln \frac{\Delta T_e}{\Delta T_i} = -U_0 \pi D L \left(\frac{1}{w_g c_g} - \frac{1}{w_a c_a} \right) = -\alpha$$

$$\frac{\Delta T_e}{\Delta T_i} = e^{-\alpha}$$

$$\frac{T_{g_2} - T_{a_1}}{T_{g_1} - T_{a_2}} = e^{-\alpha}$$

$$\frac{T_{g_1} - T_{a_1} - (T_{g_1} - T_{g_2})}{(T_{g_1} - T_{a_1}) - (T_{a_2} - T_{a_1})} = e^{-\alpha}$$

or,
$$\frac{1 - \left(\frac{T_{g_1} - T_{g_2}}{T_{g_1} - T_{a_1}} \right)}{1 - \left(\frac{T_{a_2} - T_{a_1}}{T_{g_1} - T_{a_1}} \right)} = e^{-\alpha} = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{T_{g_1} - T_{g_2}}{T_{a_2} - T_{a_1}} \right) \cdot \eta}{1 - \eta}$$

where
$$\eta = \frac{T_{a_2} - T_{a_1}}{T_{g_1} - T_{a_1}}$$

$$e^{-\alpha} = \frac{1 - (w_a c_a / w_g c_g)\,\eta}{1 - \eta} \equiv \frac{1 - (\eta / x)}{1 - \eta}$$

where, $$x = \frac{w_g c_g}{w_a c_a}$$

$$xe^{-\alpha} = \frac{x-\eta}{1-\eta}$$

or, $$1 - xe^{-\alpha} = 1 - \frac{x-\eta}{1-\eta} = \frac{1-x}{1-\eta}$$

$$1-\eta = \frac{1-x}{1-xe^{-\alpha}}$$

$\therefore$ $$\eta = 1 - \frac{1-(w_g c_c / w_a c_a)}{1-(w_g c_g / w_a c_a)e^{-\alpha}}$$ Proved.

Given: $\eta_1 = 0.60$, $w_a = 30$ kg/s, $c_a = 1.005$ kJ/kg K

$w_g = 25$ kg/s, $c_g = 1.1$ kJ/kg K, $\eta_2 = 0.7$

Substituting

$$x = \frac{w_g c_g}{w_a c_a} = \frac{25 \times 1.1}{30 \times 1.005} = 0.912$$

$$\eta_1 = 1 - \frac{1-0.912}{1-0.912e^{-\alpha_1}} = 0.6$$

$$\frac{0.088}{1-0.912e^{-\alpha_1}} = 0.4$$

$$0.912\, e^{-\alpha_1} = 1 - \frac{0.088}{0.4} = 0.78$$

$$e^{\alpha_1} = \frac{0.912}{0.78} = 1.169$$

$$\alpha_1 = 0.156$$

When, $\eta_2 = 0.7$, $\frac{0.088}{1-0.912\, e^{\alpha_2}} = 0.3$

$\therefore$ $\alpha_2 = 0.2547$

$$\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1} = \frac{A_{02}}{A_{01}} = \frac{0.2547}{0.156} = 1.633 \quad Ans.$$

Area has to be increased by 63.3% *Ans.*

Example 8.6 In an open heart surgery under hypothermic conditions, the patient's blood is cooled before the surgery and rewarmed afterwards. It is proposed that a concentric tube counterflow heat exchanger of length 0.5 m is to be used for this purpose, with a thin-walled inner tube having a diameter of 55 mm. If water at 60°C and 0.1 kg/s is used to heat blood entering the exchanger at 18°C and 0.05 kg/s, what is the temperature of the blood leaving the exchanger and the heat flow rate. Take $U_0 = 500$ W/m^2 K, c_p of blood = 3.5 kJ/kg K and c_p of water = 4.183 kJ/kg K.

Solution

$$C_c = \dot{m}_c c_c = 0.05 \times 3.5 = 0.175 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$C_h = \dot{m}_h c_h = 0.1 \times 4.183 = 0.4183 \text{ kW/K}$$

$\therefore$ $C_{\min} = (\dot{m}c)_s = C_c$

$$\text{NTU} = \frac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}} = \frac{500 \times \pi \times 0.055 \times 0.5}{0.175} = 0.247$$

$$R = \frac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}} = \frac{0.175}{0.4183} = 0.4184$$

$$\varepsilon_{cf} = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}\,(1 - R)]}{1 - R\exp[-\text{NTU}\,(1 - R)]}$$

$$= \frac{1 - \exp[-0.247(1 - 0.4184)]}{1 - 0.4184\exp[-0.247(1 - 0.4184)]} = 0.21$$

Now, $$\varepsilon_{cf} = \frac{\Delta T_1}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}}$$

$$= \frac{T_{c_2} - 18}{60 - 18} = 0.21$$

$\therefore$ $T_{c_2} = 26.82°\text{C}$ *Ans.*

$$Q = C_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = 0.175\ (26.82 - 18)$$

$$= 1.543 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.7 A 4 kg/s product stream from a distillation column is to be cooled by a 3 kg/s water stream in a counterflow heat exchanger. The hot and cold stream inlet temperatures are 400 K and 300 K respectively, and the area of the exchanger is 30 m^2. If the overall heat transfer coefficient is estimated to be 820 W/m^2K, determine the product stream outlet temperature, if its specific heat is 2500 J/kgK and the coolant outlet temperature.

Solution The effectiveness of counterflow heat exchanger is given by

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}\,(1 - R)]}{1 - R\exp[-\text{NTU}\,(1 - R)]}$$

where $$R = \frac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}}, \text{NTU} = \frac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}}$$

$$C_h = (\dot{m}c_p)_h = 4 \times 2500 = 10{,}000 \text{ W/K}$$

$$C_c = (\dot{m}c_p)_c = 3 \times 4180 = 12{,}540 \text{ W/K}$$

$\therefore$ $C_{\min} = 10{,}000 \text{ W/K}$

$$R = \frac{10{,}000}{12{,}540} = 0.797$$

$$\text{NTU} = \frac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}} = \frac{820 \times 30}{10{,}000} = 2.46$$

$\therefore$ $$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \exp[-2.46\,(1 - 0.97)]}{1 - 0.797\exp[-2.46\,(1 - 0.797)]} = 0.761$$

Also,

$$\varepsilon = \frac{C_h(T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})}{C_{\min}(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})}$$

or,
$$0.761 = \frac{10{,}000(400 - T_{h_2})}{10{,}000(400 - 300)}$$

$\therefore$
$$T_{h_2} = 323.9 \text{ K} \quad Ans.$$

By energy balance,

$$C_h(T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = C_c(T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$$
$$10{,}000\,(400 - 323.9) = 12{,}540\,(T_{c_2} - 300)$$

$\therefore$
$$T_{c_2} = 360.7 \text{ K} \quad Ans.$$

Example 8.8 In a solar-assisted air-conditioning system, 0.5 kg/s of ambient air at 270 K is to be preheated by the same amount of air leaving the system at 295 K. If a counterflow heat exchanger has an area of 30 m^2, and the overall heat transfer coefficient is estimated to be 25 W/m^2K, determine the outlet temperature of the preheated air. Take c_p for air as 1000 J/kgK.

Solution It is a balanced heat exchanger where $C_h = C_c$.

$\therefore$
$$\text{NTU} = \frac{UA}{C} = \frac{25 \times 30}{0.5 \times 1000} = 1.5$$

For a balanced counterflow heat exchange,

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\text{NTU}}{\text{NTU} + 1} = \frac{1.5}{2.5} = 0.6$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}}$$

$$0.6 = \frac{T_{c_2} - 270}{295 - 270}$$

$\therefore$
$$T_{c_2} = 285 \text{ K} \quad Ans.$$

Example 8.9 A flow of 0.1 kg/s of exhaust gases at 700 K from a gas turbine is used to preheat the incoming air, which is at the ambient temperature of 300 K. It is desired to cool the exhaust to 400 K, and it is estimated that an overall heat transfer coefficient of 30 W/m^2 K can be achieved in an appropriate exchanger. Determine the area required for a counterflow heat exchanger. Take the specific heat of exhaust gases the same as for air, which is 1000 J/kgK.

Solution It is also a balanced heat exchanger where $C_h = C_c = C$. The effectiveness is

$$\varepsilon = \frac{T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{700 - 400}{700 - 300} = 0.75$$

Again,
$$\varepsilon = \frac{\text{NTU}}{\text{NTU} + 1}$$

$$\therefore \quad \text{NTU} = \frac{\varepsilon}{1-\varepsilon} = \frac{0.75}{1-0.75} = 3.0$$

$$\text{NTU} = \frac{UA}{C} = 3$$

$$\therefore \quad A = \frac{3 \times 0.1 \times 1000}{30} = 10 \text{ m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.10 After a long time in service, a counterflow oil cooler is checked to ascertain if its performance has deteriorated due to fouling. In the test a standard oil flowing at 2.0 kg/s is cooled from 420 K to 380 K by a water supply of 1.0 kg/s at 300 K. If the heat transfer surface is 3.33 m^2 and the design value of the overall heat transfer coefficient is 930 W/m^2K, how much has it been reduced by fouling? Take c_p of oil as 2330 J/kgK and c_p of water as 4174 J/kgK.

Solution By energy balance of the heat exchange (Fig. Ex. 8.10),

$$Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = m_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$$

$$\therefore \quad Q = 2 \times 2330 \times (420 - 380)$$
$$= 186{,}400 \text{ W}$$

To find T_{c_2},

$$186{,}400 = 1 \times 4174 \, (T_{c_2} - 300)$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{c_2} = 344.7 \text{ K.}$$

$$\Delta T_{\text{l.m.}} = \frac{(420 - 344.7) - (380 - 300)}{\ln \dfrac{420 - 344.7}{380 - 300}}$$

$$= \frac{75.3 - 80}{\ln \dfrac{75.3}{80}} = 77.6 \text{ K.}$$

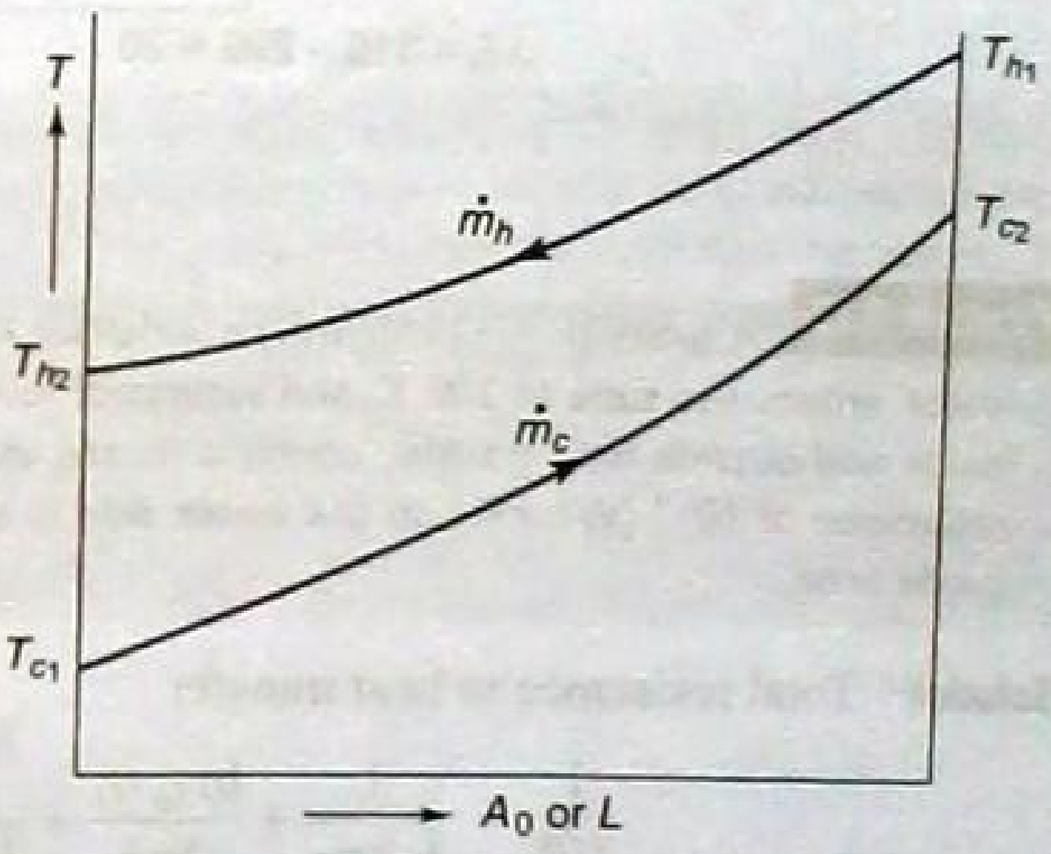


Fig. Ex. 8.10

Now, $$Q = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{\text{l.m.}}$$

$$186{,}400 = U_0 \times 3.33 \times 77.6$$

$$\therefore \quad U_0 = 721 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K.}$$

Reduction in U_0 due to fouling is

$$= (930 - 721)/930 = 0.225 \text{ or } 22.5\% \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.11 A coaxial tube counterflow heat exchanger is to cool 0.03 kg/s of benzene from 360 K to 310 K with a counterflow of 0.02 kg/s of water at 290 K. If the inner tube outside diameter is 2 cm and the overall heat transfer coefficient based on outside area is 650 W/m^2K, determine the required length of the exchanger. Take the specific heats of benzene and water as 1880 and 4175 J/kgK, respectively.

Solution By energy balance,

$$Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$$

$$Q = 0.03 \times 1880 \, (360 - 310) = 0.02 \times 4175 \, (T_{c_2} - 290)$$

$$Q = 2820 \text{ W}, \; T_{c_2} = 323.8 \text{ K}$$

$$\Delta T_{\text{l.m.}} = \frac{36.2 - 20}{\ln \dfrac{36.2}{20}} = 27.3 \text{ K}$$

$$Q = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{\text{l.m.}} = U_0 \pi d_0 L \Delta T_{\text{l.m.}}$$

$$\therefore \quad L = \frac{2820}{650 \times \pi \times 0.02 \times 27.3} = 2.53 \text{ m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

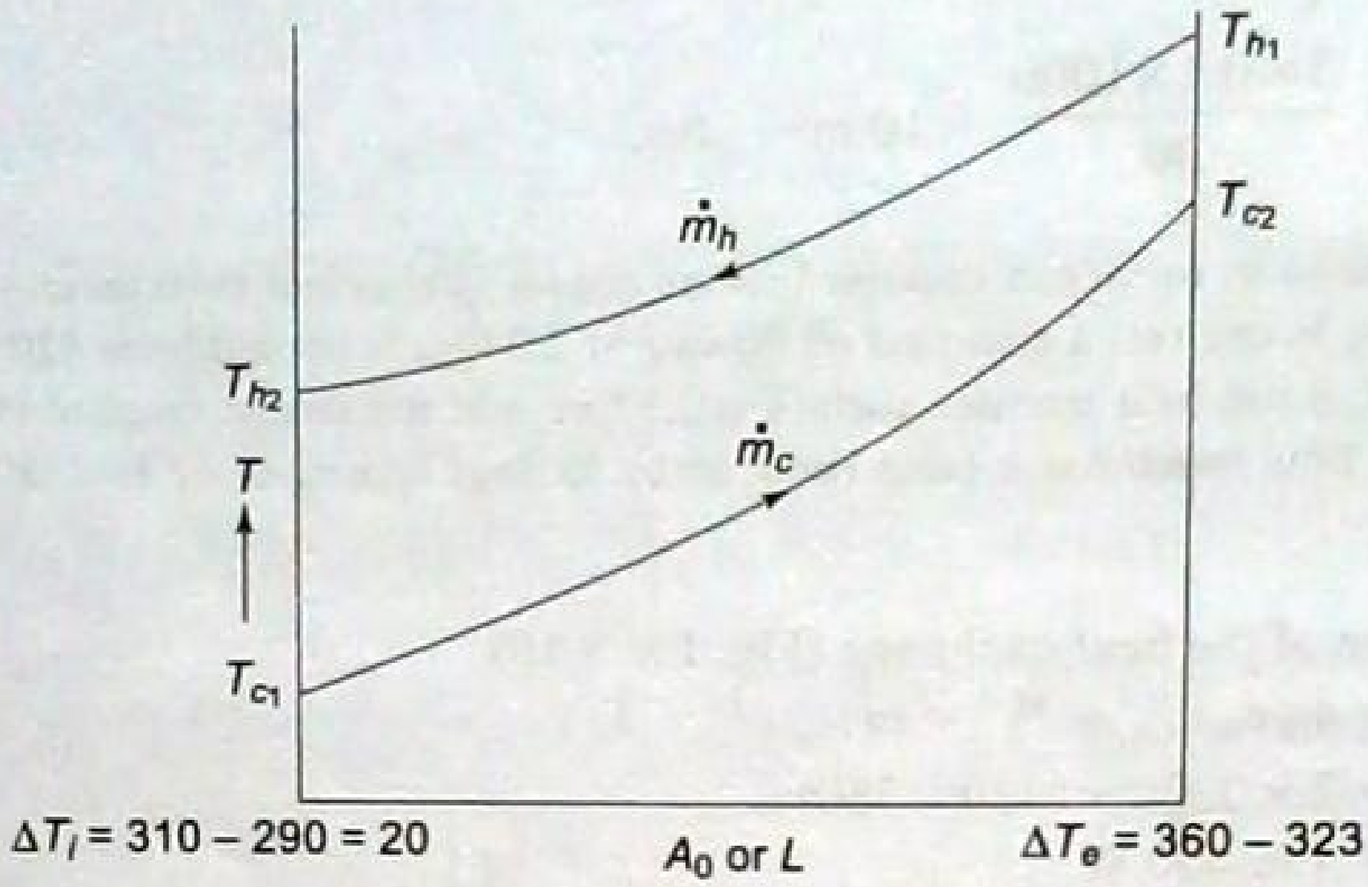


Fig. *Ex. 8.11*

Example 8.12 A brass (k = 111 W/mK) condenser tube has a 30 mm outer diameter and 2 mm wall thickness. Sea water enters the tube at 290 K, and saturated low pressure steam condenses on the outer side of the tube. The inside and outside heat transfer coefficients are estimated to be 4000 and 8000 W/m^{2}K, respectively, and a fouling resistance of 10^{-4} (W/m^{2}K) on the water side is expected. Estimate the overall heat transfer coefficient based on inside area.

Solution Total resistance to heat transfer

$$\frac{1}{UP} = \frac{1}{h_i 2\pi r_i} + \frac{\ln r_o/r_i}{2\pi k} + \frac{1}{h_o 2\pi r_o},$$

where P is the perimeter.

$$\frac{1}{UP} = \frac{1}{4000(2\pi)(0.013)} + \frac{\ln \dfrac{0.015}{0.013}}{2\pi \times 111} + \frac{1}{8000(2\pi)(0.015)}$$

$$= 10^{-3}(3.06 + 0.21 + 1.33) = 4.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ (W/mK)}^{-1}$$

The inside perimeter, $P = 2\pi r_i = 2\pi \times 0.013 = 0.0817$ m

$$\therefore \quad \frac{1}{U} = 0.0817 \times 4.6 \times 10^{-3} = 3.76 \times 10^{-4} \text{ (W/m}^2\text{K)}^{-1}$$

$$\therefore \quad U = 2660 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

For the fouled tube,

$$\frac{1}{U_f} = \frac{1}{U} + R_f = 3.76 \times 10^{-4} + 10^{-4}$$

$$= 4.76 \times 10^{-4} \text{ (W/m}^2\text{K)}^{-1}$$

$$\therefore \quad U_f = 2100 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

The fouling reduces the overall heat transfer coefficient by

$$\frac{2660 - 2100}{2660} \times 100 \text{ or } 21\%. \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

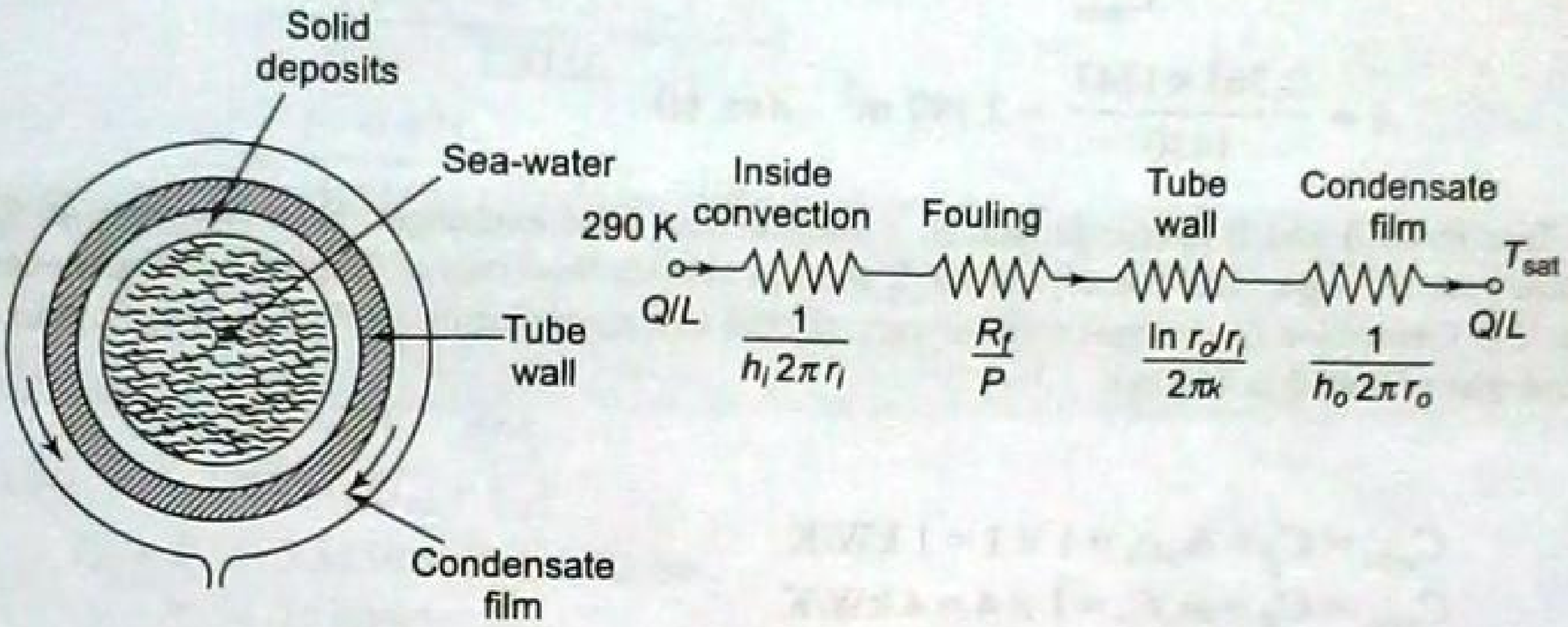


Fig. *Ex. 8.12*

Example 8.13 A counterflow heat exchanger is employed to cool 0.55 kg/s (c_p = 2.45 kJ/kg°C) of oil from 115°C to 40°C by the use of water. The inlet and outlet temperatures of cooling water are 15°C and 75°C, respectively. The overall heat transfer coefficient is expected to be 1450 W/m^{2}K. Using the NTU method, calculate the following: (a) The mass flow rate of water, (b) the effectiveness of the heat exchanger and (c) the surface area required.

Solution

$$Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = c_c \dot{m}_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$$

$$= 0.55 \times 2.45 (115 - 40) = \dot{m}_c \times 4.18 (75 - 15)$$

$\therefore$ $\dot{m}_c = 0.403$ kg/s *Ans.* (a)

$$C_c = \dot{m}_c c_c = 0.403 \times 4.18 = 1.675 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$C_h = \dot{m}_h c_h = 0.55 \times 2.45 = 1.347 \text{ kW/K}$$

Since $C_c > C_h$, $\therefore (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) > (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{(\Delta T)_1}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{115 - 40}{115 - 15} = \frac{75}{100} = 0.75 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

$$R = \frac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}} = \frac{1.347}{1.672} = 0.806$$

$$\varepsilon_{cf} = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}(1 - R)]}{1 - R \exp[-\text{NTU}(1 - R)]}$$

$$0.75 = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}(1 - 0.806)]}{1 - 0.806 \exp[-\text{NTU}(1 - 0.806)]}$$

By rearrangement,

$$\frac{\varepsilon - 1}{\varepsilon R - 1} = \exp[-\text{NTU}(1 - R)]$$

$$\frac{0.75 - 1}{0.75 \times 0.806 - 1} = \exp[-\text{NTU}(1 - 0.806)]$$

$$0.632 = \exp[-\text{NTU} \times 0.194]$$

$$\text{NTU} = 2.365 = \frac{UA}{C_{\min}}$$

$$A = \frac{2.365 \times 1347}{1450} = 2.197 \text{ m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (c)}$$

Example 8.14 Two fluids A and B exchange heat in a counterflow heat exchanger. Fluid A enters at 420°C and has a mass flow rate of 1 kg/s. Fluid B enters at 20°C and has a mass flow rate of 1 kg/s. The effectiveness of heat exchanger is 75%. Determine (i) the heat transfer rate, (ii) the exit temperature of fluid B. Specific heat of fluid A is 1 kJ/kgK and that of fluid B is 4 kJ/kgK.

Solution

$$C_{\min} = C_A = \dot{m}_h c_h = 1 \times 1 = 1 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$C_{\max} = C_B = \dot{m}_c C_c = 1 \times 4 = 4 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$\therefore \quad (\Delta T)_1 = T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{(\Delta T)_1}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{420 - T_{h_2}}{420 - 20} = 0.75$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{h_2} = 420 - 0.75 \times 400 = 120°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$Q = \dot{m}_h C_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = 1 \times 1 \times (420 - 120)$$

$$= 300 \text{ kW} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (i)}$$

$$Q = \dot{m}_c C_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = 1 \times 4 (T_{c_2} - 20) = 300$$

$$T_{c_2} = 95°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (ii)}$$

Example 8.15 A chemical having specific heat of 3.3 kJ/kgK flowing at the rate of 20,000 kg/h enters a parallel flow heat exchanger at 120°C. The flow rate of cooling water is 50,000 kg/h with an inlet temperature of 20°C. The heat transfer area is 10 m^2 and the overall heat transfer coefficient is 1050 W/m^2K. Find (i) the effectiveness of the heat exchanger, (ii) the outlet temperatures of water and chemical. Take for water c_p = 4.186 kJ/kgK.

Solution

$$\dot{m}_h = \frac{20,000}{3600} = 5.56 \text{ kg/s}, \; c_h = 3.3 \text{ kJ/kgK}$$

$$\therefore \quad C_h = 5.56 \times 3.3 = 18.35 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$\dot{m}_c = \frac{50,000}{3600} = 13.89 \text{ kg/s}, \; c_c = 4.186 \text{ kJ/kgK}$$

$$\therefore \quad C_c = 13.89 \times 4.186 = 58.14 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$\therefore \quad C_h < C_c$$

$$\therefore \quad C_{\min} = 18.35 \text{ kW/K}$$

$$\text{NTU} = \frac{UA}{C_{\min}} = \frac{1050 \times 10}{18350} = 0.572$$

$$R = \frac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}} = \frac{18.35}{58.14} = 0.3156$$

$$\therefore \quad \varepsilon_p = \frac{1-\exp[-\text{NTU}\,(1+R)]}{1+R}$$

$$= \frac{1-\exp[-0.572\times 1.3156]}{1.3156}$$

$$= \frac{1-0.471}{1.3156} = 0.402 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{(\Delta T)_1}{T_{h_1}-T_{c_1}} = \frac{T_{h_1}-T_{h_2}}{T_{h_1}-T_{c_1}} = 0.402 = \frac{120-T_{h_2}}{120-20}$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{h_2} = 79.8°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1}-T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c2}-T_{c_1})$$

$$T_{c_2}-T_{c_1} = 0.3156\times 40.2 = 12.69$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{c_2} = 32.69°\text{C} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.16 A counterflow heat exchanger is to heat air entering at 400°C with a flow rate of 6 kg/s by the exhaust gas entering at 800°C with a flow rate of 4 kg/s. The overall heat transfer coefficient is 100 W/m²K and the outlet temperature of air is 551.5°C. Specific heat of air, c_p, for both air and exhaust gas can be taken as 1100 J/kgK. Calculate (i) the heat transfer area needed and (ii) the number of transfer units.

Solution

$$C_h = \dot{m}_h c_h = 4\times 1100 = 4400 \text{ W/K}$$

$$C_c = \dot{m}_c c_c = 6\times 1100 = 6600 \text{ W/K}$$

$$C_h < C_c, \quad \therefore C_{\min} = \dot{m}_h c_h = 4400 \text{ W/K}$$

$$Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1}-T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2}-T_{c_1})$$

$$4400\,(800-T_{h_2}) = 6600\,(551.5-400)$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{h_2} = 572.75°\text{C}$$

$$Q = 999900 \text{ W} = 999.9 \text{ kW}$$

$$\Delta T_{\text{l.m.}} = \frac{248.5-172.5}{\ln\dfrac{248.5}{172.5}} = \frac{76.0}{0.365} = 208.19°\text{C}$$

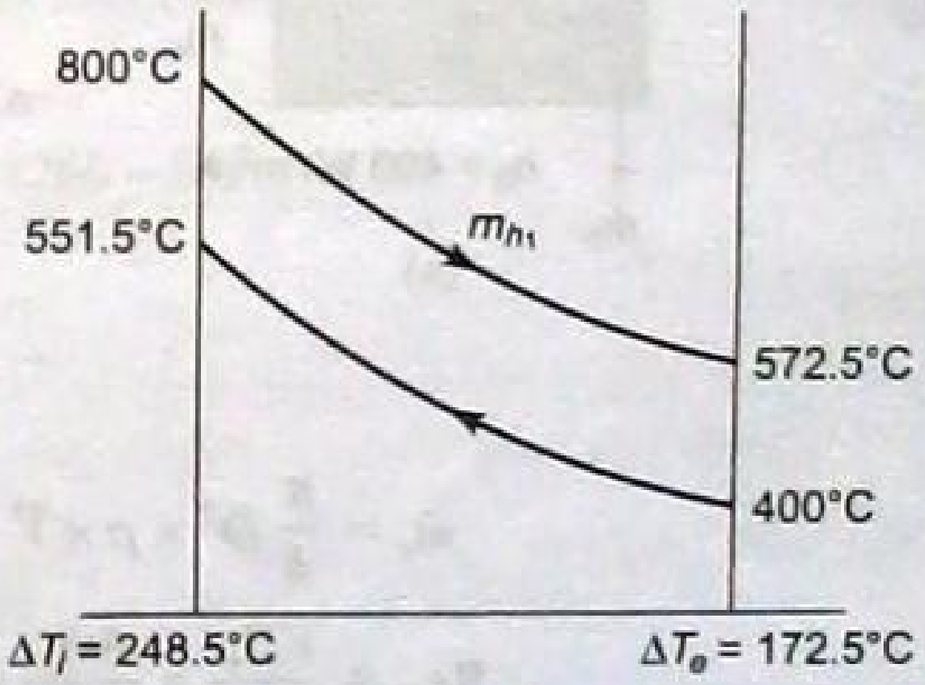


Fig. *Ex. 8.13*

$$Q = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{\text{l.m.}}$$

$$999900 = 100\times A_0 \times 208.19$$

$$A_0 = 48.03 \text{ m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (\text{i})$$

$$\text{NTU} = \frac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}} = \frac{100\times 48.03}{4400}$$

$$= 1.092 \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (\text{ii})$$

Example 8.17 Hot engine oil available at 150°C flowing through the shell side is used to heat 2.4 kg/s of water from 20°C to 80°C in a shell-and-tube heat exchanger. Water flows through eight tubes of 25 mm diameter. Each tube makes six passes through the shell. The exit oil temperature is 90°C. Neglecting the tube wall resistance, find the oil flow rate and the length of the tubes. Take the oil side heat transfer coefficient as 400 W/m². For engine oil at 140°C, c_p = 2.34 kJ/kg K.

For water at 50°C, $c_p = 4.181$ kJ/kg K, $\mu = 548 \times 10^{-6}$ N s/m^2, $k = 0.643$ W/m K and Pr = 3.56.

Solution

$$Q = \dot{m}_c c_{p_c} (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$$
$$= 2.4 \times 4.181 \, (80 - 20) = 602.064 \text{ kW}$$

$$\dot{m}_h = \frac{Q}{c_{p_h} (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})} = \frac{602.064}{2.34(150 - 90)} = 4.288 \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Flow rate of water in one tube (Fig. Ex. 8.17)

$$\dot{m}_c = \frac{2.4}{8} = 0.3 \text{ kg/s}$$

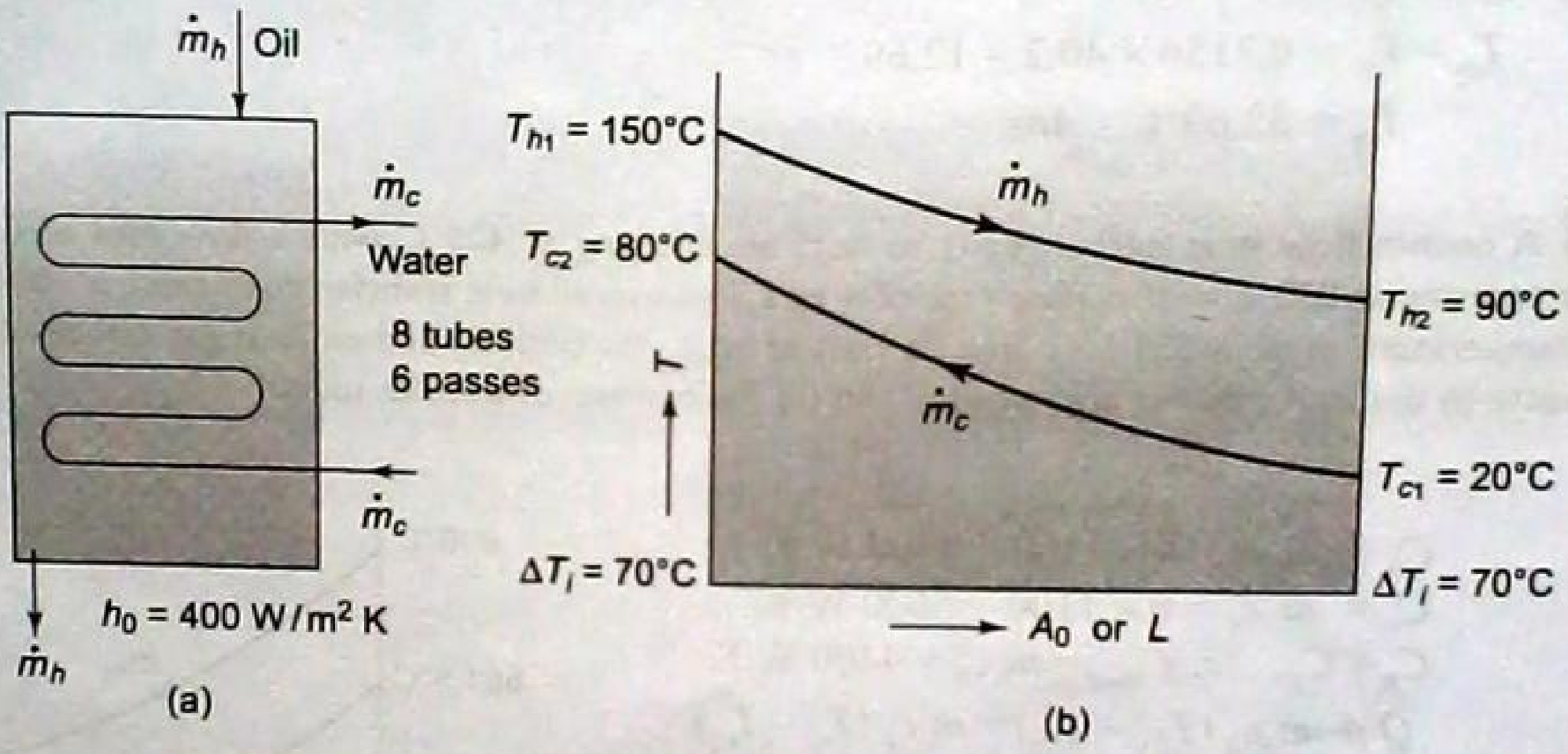


Fig. *Ex. 8.17*

$$\dot{m}_c = \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 \times \rho \times \overline{V}$$

$$\text{Re}_D = \frac{VD\rho}{\mu} = \frac{4\dot{m}_c}{\pi D \mu} = \frac{4 \times 0.3}{\pi \times 0.025 \times 548 \times 10^{-6}}$$
$$= 27{,}881$$

Using Dittus–Boelter equation,

$$\text{Nu}_D = 0.023 \, \text{Re}_D^{0.8} \, \text{Pr}^{0.4}$$
$$= 0.023 \, (27.881)^{0.8} \, (3.56)^{0.4}$$
$$= 0.023 \times 3599.54 \times 1.658 = 137.27$$

$$h_i = \frac{137.27 \times 0.643}{0.025} = 3531 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

Hence,
$$U_0 = \frac{1}{(1/400 + 1/3531)} = \frac{400 \times 3531}{3931}$$
$$= 359.3 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

The correction factor F can be obtained from Fig. 8.18,

$$R = \frac{150-90}{80-20} = 1.0, \quad P = \frac{80-20}{150-20} = \frac{60}{130} = 0.46$$

Hence, $F = 0.87$

$$(\Delta T_{lm})_{counterflow} = \Delta T_i = \Delta T_e = 70°C$$

$$Q = \pi NDL\, U_0\, F(\Delta T_{lm})_{cf}$$

$$602.064 \times 10^3 = \pi \times 8 \times 0.025\, L \times 359.3 \times 0.87 \times 70$$

$$L = 43.79 \text{ m} \quad Ans.$$

Example 8.18 In a gas-to-gas heat recovery unit, air is preheated from 30°C to 260°C at the rate of 21.5 kg/s by waste gas available at the rate of 19.6 kg/s at 380°C. The air preheater is a tubular two-pass unit where the gas moves through the tubes (k_{wall} = 46.5 W/m K) having diameters d_0/d_i = 53/50 mm with a mean velocity of 14 m/s, and air flows across the bank of tubes with a mean velocity of 8 m/s. For cross-flow, the following equation may be used

$$Nu = 0.41\, Re^{0.6}\, Pr^{0.33}$$

Determine the required heating surface, the number of tubes and the height of tubes in one pass. Given: Properties of air at 145°C: ρ_a = 0.844 kg/m^3, c_{pa} = 1.01 kJ/kg K, $k_a = 3.52 \times 10^{-2}$ W/m K, $V_{a_0} = 28.3 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and Pr_a = 0.684. Properties of gas at 265°C: ρ_g = 0.622 kg/m^3, C_{p_g} = 1.11 kJ/kg K, k_g = 0.0454 W/m K, $v_g = 41.2 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and Pr_g = 0.66.

Solution By making energy balance [Fig. Ex. 8.18 (a)], the rate of heat transfer

$$Q = \dot{m}_g\, c_{p_g}\, (T_{g_1} - T_{g_2}) = \dot{m}_a c_{p_a}\, (T_{a_2} - T_{a_1})$$

or, $$19.6 \times 1.11\, (380 - T_{g_2}) = 21.5 \times 1.01\, (260 - 30)$$

$\therefore$ $$T_{g_2} = 150°C$$

Mean gas temperature $= \dfrac{380+150}{2} = 265°C$ and

mean air temperature $= \dfrac{30+260}{2} = 145°C$,

at which properties have been given.

Gases are flowing through the tubes.

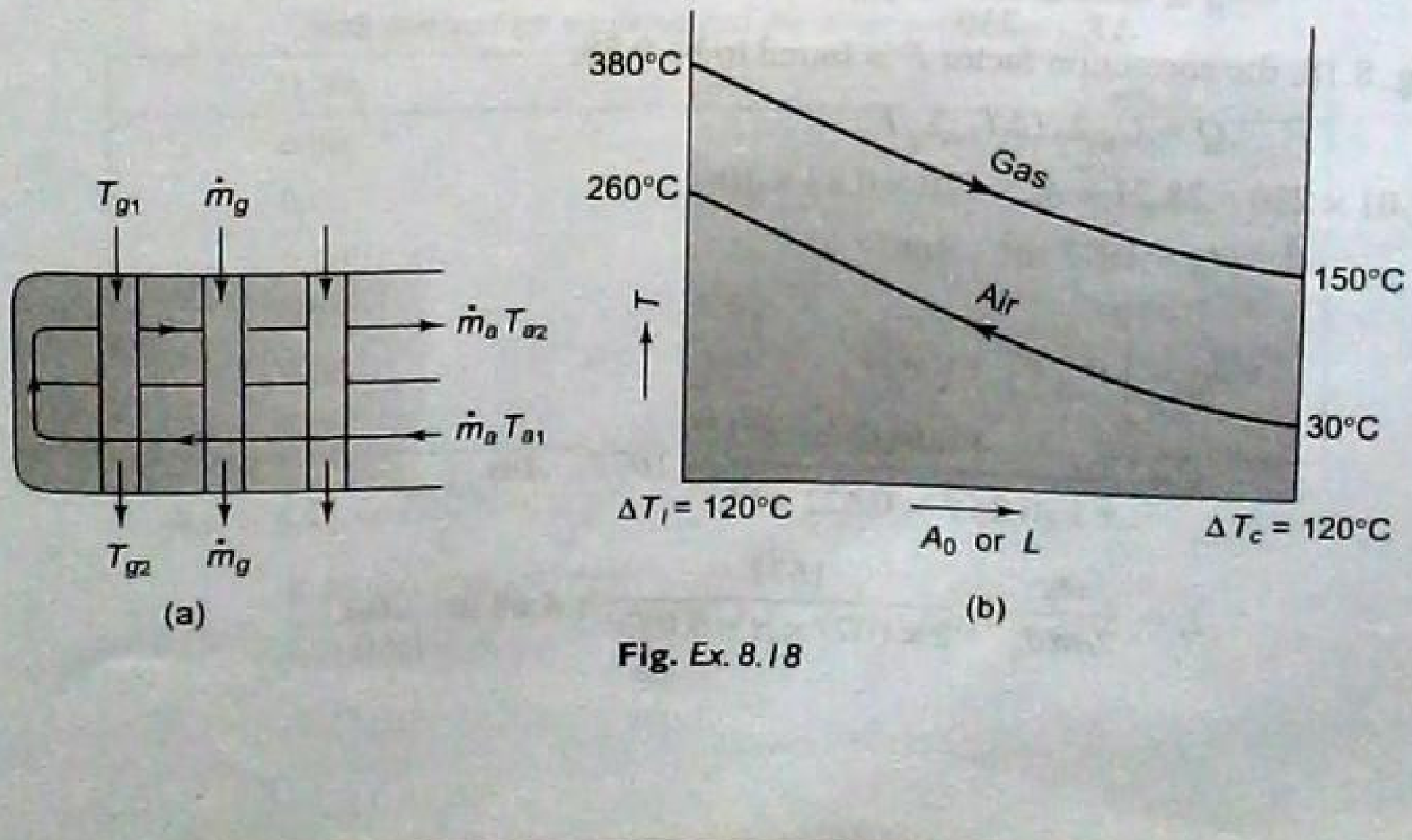


Fig. *Ex. 8.18*

$$\text{Re}_g = \left(\frac{u_m d_i}{\nu}\right)_g = \frac{14 \times 0.050}{41.2 \times 10^{-6}} = 17{,}000$$

$$\text{Nu}_g = 0.023\ \text{Re}^{0.8}\ \text{Pr}^{0.33} = 0.023\ (17000)^{0.8}\ (0.66)^{0.33}$$

$$= 49.2 = \frac{h_i d_i}{k_g}$$

$$h_i = \frac{49.2 \times 0.0454}{0.050} = 44.67\ \text{W/m}^2\ \text{K}$$

Air is flowing outside the tubes.

$$\text{Re}_a = \left(\frac{u_m d_0}{\nu}\right)_a = \frac{8 \times 0.053}{28.3 \times 10^{-6}} = 14{,}982$$

$$\text{Nu}_a = 0.41\ (14{,}982)^{0.6}\ (0.684)^{0.33} = 115.8 = h_0 d_0 / k_a$$

$$h_0 = 115.8 \times \frac{0.0352}{0.053} = 76.91\ \text{W/m}^2\ \text{K}$$

$$\frac{1}{U_0} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{x_w}{k_w} + \frac{1}{h_0}$$

$$\frac{1}{U_0} = \frac{1}{44.67} + \frac{1.5 \times 10^{-3}}{46.5} + \frac{1}{76.91}$$

$$U_0 = 28.21\ \text{W/m}^2\ \text{K}.$$

From Fig. 8.18(b)

$$\Delta T_{1m} = \Delta T_i = \Delta T_e = 120°\text{C}$$

One shell pass and two tube passes for which

$$P = \frac{T_{t_2} - T_{t_1}}{T_{s_1} - T_{t_1}} = \frac{150 - 380}{30 - 380} = \frac{-230}{-350} = 0.66$$

$$R = \frac{\Delta T_s}{\Delta T_t} = \frac{230}{230} = 1.0$$

From Fig. 8.18, the correction factor F is found to be 0.88.

$$Q = U_0 A_0 (\Delta T_{1m})_{cf} F$$

$$21.5 \times 1.01 \times 230 = 28.21 \times A_0 \times 120 \times 0.88 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$A_0 = 1677\ \text{m}^2 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$\dot{m}_g = \left(n \frac{\pi}{4} d_i^2\right) \times \rho_g \overline{V}_g$$

$$n = \frac{4 \times 19.6}{\pi \times (0.05)^2 \times 0.622 \times 14} = 1077 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

$$l_1 = \frac{A_0}{2n\pi d_0} = \frac{1677}{2 \times 1077 \times \pi \times 0.053} = 4.68\ \text{m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.19 In a double-pipe counterflow heat exchanger the inner tube has a diameter of 20 mm and very little thickness. The inner diameter of the outer tube is 30 mm. Water flows through the inner tube at a rate of 0.5 kg/s, and oil flows through the shell at a rate of 0.8 kg/s. Take the average temperatures of the water and the oil as 47°C and 80°C, respectively and assume fully developed flow. Determine the overall heat transfer coefficient. Given: For water at 47°C, $\rho = 989$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.637$ W/m K, $\nu = 0.59 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and Pr = 3.79. For oil at 80°C, $\rho = 852$ kg/m^3, $k = 0.138$ W/m K, $\nu = 37.5 \times 10^{-6}$ m^2/s and Pr = 490.

Solution

Water-side:

$$V = \frac{\dot{m}}{\rho A} = \frac{0.5}{989 \times \pi/4 \times (0.02)^2} = 1.61 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{VD}{\nu} = \frac{1.61 \times 0.02}{0.59 \times 10^{-6}} = 54{,}576$$

The flow of water is thus turbulent. Using the Dittus–Boelter equation,

$$\text{Nu}_d = 0.023 \text{ Re}_d^{0.8} \text{ Pr}^{0.4} = 0.023 (54{,}576)^{0.8} (3.79)^{0.4}$$

$$= 241.4 = h_i D/k$$

$$h_i = \frac{241.4 \times 0.637}{0.02} = 7690 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

Oil-side: Hydraulic diameter of the annulus,

$$D_h = D_0 - D_i = 0.03 - 0.02 = 0.01 \text{ m}$$

$$V = \frac{\dot{m}}{\rho A} = \frac{0.8}{852 \times \pi/4 (0.03^2 - 0.02)^2} = 2.39 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\text{Re}_d = \frac{VD_h}{\nu} = \frac{2.39 \times 0.01}{37.5 \times 10^{-6}} = 637$$

The flow of oil is laminar. Assuming fully developed flow, corresponding to $D_i/D_0 = 0.02/0.03 = 0.667$, from Table 8.5.

Table 8.5 *Nusselt number of fully developed laminar flow in a circular annulus with one surface insulated and the other isothermal [3]*

D_i/D_0	Nu_i	Nu_0
0.00	—	3.66
0.05	17.46	4.06
0.10	11.56	4.11
0.25	7.37	4.23
0.50	5.74	4.43
1.00	4.86	4.8

$$\text{Nu}_i = 5.45 = \frac{h_0 D_h}{k}$$

$$h_0 = \frac{5.45 \times 0.138}{0.01} = 75.2 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$\frac{1}{U_0} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{1}{h_0} = \frac{1}{7690} + \frac{1}{75.2}$$

$$U_0 = 75.1 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

It may be noted that $h_i >> h_0$.

$$U_0 \equiv h_0$$

The oil-side heat transfer coefficient offers more thermal resistance and controls the rate of heat transfer. Some enhancement technique (like the use of fins) is employed on the oil side to compensate for low h_0.

Example 8.20 The condenser of a large steam power plant is a shell-and-tube heat exchanger having a single shell and 30,000 tubes, with each tube making two passes. The tubes are thin-walled with 25 mm diameter and steam condenses on the outside of the tubes with h_0 = 11 kW/m^2 K. The cooling water flowing through the tubes is 30,000 kg/s and the heat transfer rate is 2 GW. Water enters at 20°C while steam condenses at 50°C. Find the length of the tubes in one pass. Properties of water at 27°C are c_p = 4.18 kJ/kg K, m = 855 × 10^{-6} N s/m^2, k = 0.613 W/m K and Pr = 5.83.

Solution

$$Q = \dot{m}_c c_{p_c} (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = 2 \times 10^9 \text{ W}$$

$$T_{c_2} - 20 = \frac{2 \times 10^9}{30{,}000 \times 4.18} = 16$$

$$\therefore \quad T_{c_2} = 36°\text{C}$$

Also, $$Q = \text{UAF } (\Delta T_{\text{lm}})_{cf}$$

where $A = N \times \pi D(2L)$, L = length of one tube pass

$$\text{Re}_D = \frac{\bar{V} D \rho}{\mu} = \frac{4\dot{m}}{\pi D \mu} = \frac{4 \times 1 \text{ kg/s}}{\pi \times 0.025 \text{ m} \times 855 \times 10^{-6} \text{ Ns/m}^2}$$

$$= 59{,}567$$

The flow is turbulent. Dittus–Boelter equation is used to evaluate h_i,

$$\text{Nu}_D = 0.023 \text{ Re}_D^{0.8} \text{ Pr}^{0.4}$$

$$= 0.023 (59{,}567)^{0.8} (5.83)^{0.4} = 308$$

$$\frac{h_i D}{k} = 308$$

$$h_i = \frac{308 \times 0.613}{0.025} = 7552 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{1}{h_0} = \frac{1}{7552} + \frac{1}{11{,}000}$$

$$U = 4478 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ K}$$

$$(\Delta T_{\text{lm}})_{cf} = \frac{30 - 14}{\ln 30/14} = 21°\text{C}$$

The correction factor F is obtained from Fig. 8.18,

$$P = \frac{36-20}{50-20} = 0.53,\ R = \frac{50-50}{36-20} = 0$$

$$F = 1$$

$\therefore$
$$L = \frac{Q}{UN2\pi DF(\Delta T_{lm})_{cf}}$$

$$= \frac{2\times10^9}{4478\times30,000\times2\times\pi\times0.025\times1\times21}$$

$$= 4.51 \text{ m} \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.21 A water heat pipe operating at 100°C and atmospheric pressure has an inner diameter of 20 mm and is 300 mm long. The heat pipe is inclined at 60° with the evaporator above the condenser. The wick consists of four layers of wire-screen with the wire diameter of 0.025 mm on the inner surface of the pipe. The pore radius is 10^{-5} m and the permeability is 4×10^{-11} m^2. Determine the number of heat pipes needed to remove 1 kW of heat from a system. Properties of water at 100°C are $h_{fg} = 2260$ kJ/kg, $\rho_l = 958$ kg/m^3, $\mu_l = 279\times10^{-6}$ N s/m^2 and $\sigma_l = 58.9\times10^{-3}$ N/m. Assume perfect wetting.

Solution The pressure balance relation to prevent dryout is

$$(\Delta p_c)_{max} > \Delta p_l + \Delta p_v + \Delta p_g$$

Neglecting vapour pressure drop,

$$\frac{2\sigma_l\cos\theta}{r_c} = \frac{\mu_l Q L_{eff}}{\rho_l h_{fg} A_w k_w} + \rho_l g L_{eff}\sin\phi$$

A_w = Area of the wick

$= \pi D t$

$= \pi\times 20 \text{ mm}\times 0.025 \text{ mm}\times 4$

$= 6.28 \text{ mm}^2$

Let $L_{eff} = L = 300$ mm

For perfect wetting the contact angle $\theta = 0$

$\cos\theta = 1$

$\phi = 60°$

Since $\dot{m}_{max} h_{fg} = Q_{max}$,

$$\dot{m}_{max} = \left(\frac{2\sigma_l}{r_c} - \rho_l g L_{eff}\sin\phi\right)\frac{\rho_l A_w K_w}{\mu_l L_{eff}}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2\times58.9\times10^{-3}\text{ N/m}}{10^{-5}\text{ m}} - 958\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}^3}\times9.81\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}^2}\times0.3\text{ m}\times0.866\right)$$

$$\times\frac{958\text{ kg/m}^3\times6.28\times10^{-6}\text{ m}^2\times4\times10^{-11}\text{ m}^2}{279\times10^{-6}\text{ Ns/m}^2\times0.3\text{ m}}$$

$$= (117.8\times100 - 2441.6)\ \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}^2}\times287.5\times10^{-11}\text{ ms}$$

$$= 2.6848\times10^{-5}\text{ kg/s.}$$

$$Q_{max} = 2.6848 \times 10^{-5} \times 2260 \times 10^3 \text{ W}$$
$$= 60.67 \text{ W}$$

This is the heat removal by one heat pipe.
To remove 1 kW, the number of heat pipes required

$$= \frac{1000}{60.67} = 16.48 \text{ or } 17 \quad \textit{Ans.}$$

Example 8.22 Water entering at 10°C at the rate of 20 kg/s is heated by a corrosive gas flowing at the rate of 30 kg/s from a process at 300°C using a run-around coil as shown in Fig. 8.46. Calculate (a) the mass flow rate of the secondary fluid required, (b) the effectiveness of the overall heat transfer, (c) the exit temperature of the water and (d) the temperatures of the secondary fluid. Given: c_p of gases = 1.2 kJ/kg K, c_p of water = 4.2 kJ/kg K, c_p of secondary fluid = 3.8 kJ/kg K, (*UA*) for the gas to secondary fluid heat exchanger = 40 W/m^2 K and (*UA*) for the secondary fluid to water heat exchanger = 200 W/m^2 K.

Solution (a) For the hot fluid

$$(\dot{m}c)_h = 30 \times 1.2 = 36 \text{ kW/K}$$

and for the cold fluid

$$(\dot{m}c)_c = 20 \times 4.2 = 84 \text{ kW/K}$$

Using Eq. (8.68),

$\dot{m}_s$ = mass flow of secondary fluid

$$= \frac{36 \times 84\,(40 + 200)}{3.8\left[(84 \times 40) + (36 \times 200)\right]}$$
$$= 18.09 \text{ kg/s} \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (a)}$$

Now, from Eq. (8.67)

$$\frac{1}{(UA)_0} = \frac{1}{40} + \frac{1}{200} = 0.03$$
$$(UA)_0 = 33.333 \text{ kW/K}$$
$$\text{NTU} = \frac{(UA)_0}{(\dot{m}c)_{min}} = \frac{33.333}{36} = 0.926$$
$$R = \frac{(\dot{m}c)_{min}}{(\dot{m}c)_{max}} = \frac{36}{84} = 0.429$$

Effectiveness, $$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - e^{-0.926 \times 0.571}}{1 - 0.429 e^{-0.926 \times 0.571}}$$
$$= 0.55 \quad \textit{Ans.} \text{ (b)}$$

Again, $$\varepsilon = 0.55 = \frac{300 - T_{h_2}}{300 - 10}$$
$$T_{h_2} = 140.5°\text{C}$$

Water exit temperature,

$$T_{c_2} = T_{c_1} + R\,(T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})$$
$$= 10 + 0.429\,(300 - 140.5)$$
$$= 78.4°C \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (c)$$

$$\frac{T_{h_1} - T_{s_1}}{T_{s_1} - T_{c_1}} = \frac{(UC)_c}{(UA)_h} = \frac{200}{40} = 5$$

$$T_{s_1} = \frac{300 + (5 \times 78.4)}{6} = 115.3°C \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (d)$$

$$\frac{T_{h_2} - T_{s_2}}{T_{s_2} - T_{c_2}} = 5$$

$$T_{s_2} = \frac{140.5 + 5 \times 10}{6} = 31.8°C \quad \textit{Ans.}\ (d)$$

The complete temperature changes are shown in Fig. Ex. 8.22.

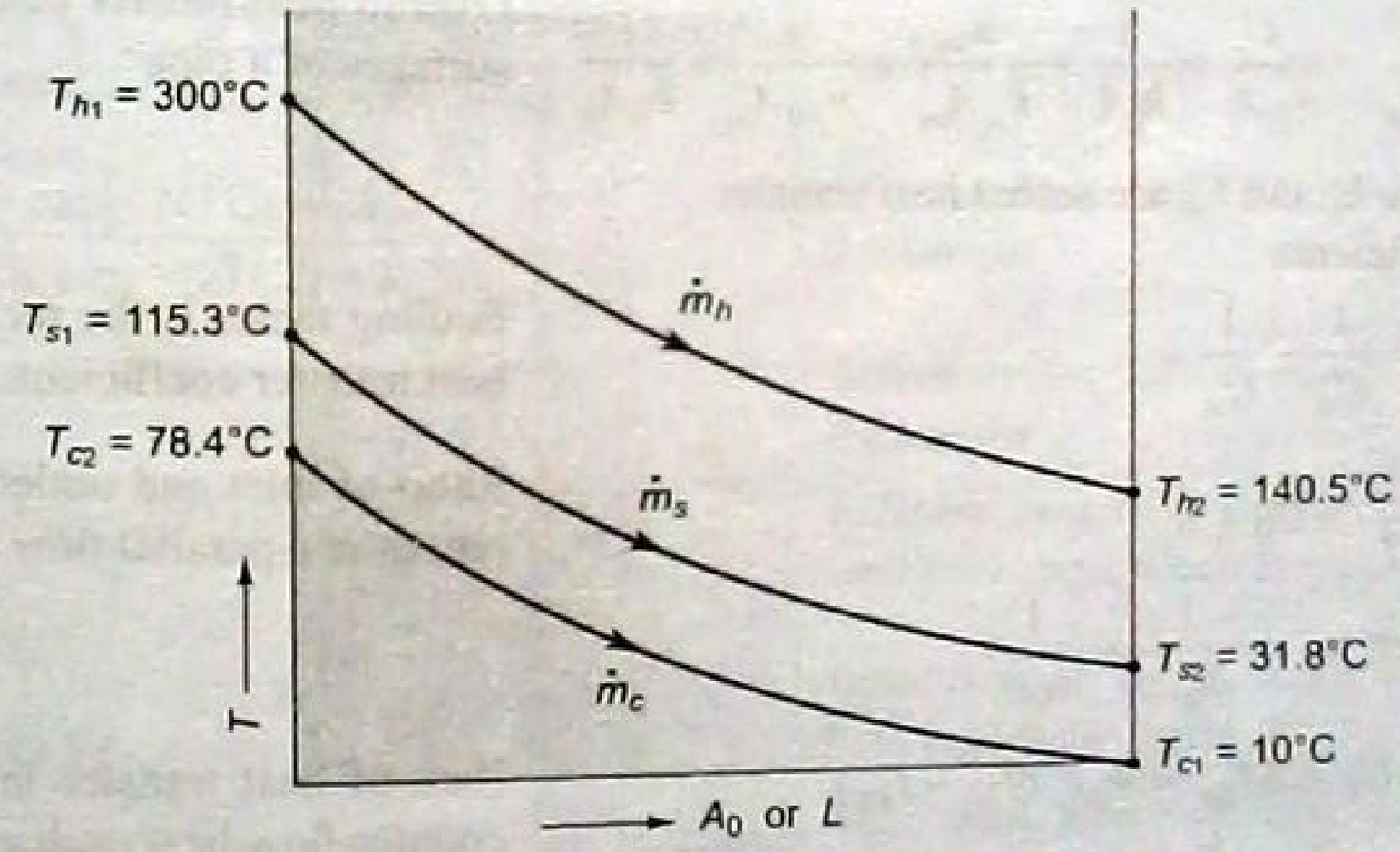


Fig. *Ex. 8.22*

Summary

The chapter begins with the definition of a heat exchanger, followed by its classification and types of applications. The concept of the overall heat transfer coefficient is then re-emphasized and the use of fouling factor is explained. Typical axial temperature distributions in various types of heat exchangers are shown, providing the detailed derivation for temperature profiles in parallel-flow and counter-flow heat exchangers. The concept of LMTD-correction factor approach used in heat exchanger calculations is discussed along with the use of correction factor graphs. The basic idea of effectiveness-NTU method and its advantages over LMTD-correction factor approach in heat exchanger design are explained. Various augmentative techniques for heat transfer enhancement are discussed. The schematic diagram, operating characteristics and applications of heat pipes are explained in fairly elaborate details. Finally, the principle of operation of a run-around coil for waste heat recovery is briefly discussed.

Equation no.	Equation	Remarks
(8.1)	$Q = UA(T_h - T_c)$ where $\frac{1}{UA} = \Sigma R = \frac{1}{h_1 A} + \frac{x_w}{k_w A} + \frac{1}{h_2 A}$	Heat transfer from a hot to a cold flui through a plane wall
(8.3)	$Q = U_0 A_0 (T_h - T_c)$ where $\frac{1}{U_0 A_0} = \frac{1}{h_i A_i} + \frac{x_w}{k_w A_{lm}} + \frac{1}{h_0 A_0}$, $A_0 = \pi D_0 L$, $A_i = \pi D_i L$, $A_{lm} = \frac{A_2 - A_1}{\ln(A_2/A_1)}$	Heat transfer through a cylindrical wall
(8.5)	$\frac{1}{U_0' A_0} = \frac{1}{h_{fi} A_i} + \frac{1}{h_i A_i} + \frac{x_w}{k_w A_{lm}} + \frac{1}{h_{f0} A_o} + \frac{1}{h_0 A_0}$ where h_{fi} and h_{f0} are scaled heat transfer coefficients	Overall heat ransfer coefficient with scaled surfaces of a pipe
(8.6)	$R_f = \frac{1}{U_0'} - \frac{1}{U_0}$	Fouling factor is the reciprocal of the scale heat transfer coefficient
(8.11)	$\ln \frac{\Delta T_i}{\Delta T_e} = U_0 A_0 \mu_p$ where $\mu_p = \frac{1}{\dot{m}_h c_h} + \frac{1}{\dot{m}_c c_c}$	Ratio of inlet and outlet temperature differences in a parallel flow heat exchanger
(8.12)	$Q = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{lm} = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h1} - T_{h2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$ where $\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{\Delta T_i - \Delta T_e}{\ln(\Delta T_i / \Delta T_e)} = \text{LMTD}$	Rate of heat transfer in a parallel-flow or counter-flow heat exchanger
(8.17)	$\ln \Delta T_i / \Delta T_0 = U_0 A_0 \mu_c$ where $\mu_c = \frac{1}{\dot{m}_h c_h} - \frac{1}{\dot{m}_c c_c}$	Ratio of inlet and outlet temperature differences in a counterflow heat exchanger
(8.22)	$Q = U_0 A_0 F (\Delta T_{lm})_{\text{Counterflow}}$	Correction factor F in a multipass heat exchanger
(8.28)	$Q = A_o \frac{U_i \Delta T_e - U_e \Delta T_i}{\ln \frac{U_i \Delta T_e}{U_e \Delta T_i}}$ where $U_i = a + b\,\Delta T_i$ and $U_e = a + b\,\Delta T_e$	Heat transfer it U_0 varies along the heating surface

(Contd)

Equation no.	Equation	Remarks
(8.29)	$\epsilon = \dfrac{Q}{Q_{\max}} = \dfrac{\dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})}{(m.c)_s (T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})}$	Effectiveness ϵ of a heat exchanger $(\dot{m}c)_s$ is the smaller of the two heat capacities or $C_{\min}$
(8.32)	$\epsilon = \dfrac{(\Delta T)_l}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}}$	Effectiveness defined alternatively where $(\Delta T)_l$ is the larger of the two temperature differences $(T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})$ and $(T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$
(8.33)	$R = \dfrac{(\dot{m}c)_s}{(\dot{m}c)_l} = \dfrac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}}$	Heat capacity ratio
(8.36)	$\epsilon_{pf} = \dfrac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}(1+R)]}{1+R}$	Effectiveness of a parallel flow heat exchanger
(8.37)	$\text{NTU} = \dfrac{U_0 A_0}{(\dot{m}c)_s} = \dfrac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}}$	Number of transfer units.
(8.41)	$\epsilon_{cf} = \dfrac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}{1 - R\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}$	Effectiveness of a counterflow heat exchanger
(8.42)	$\epsilon_{pf} = 1 - \exp(-\text{NTU}) = \epsilon_{cf}$	Effectiveness of a phase change heat exchanger
(8.44)	$\epsilon_{fp} = \dfrac{1 - \exp(-2\text{NTU})}{2}$	Effectiveness of a balanced parallel flow heat exchanger when $R = 1$
(8.45)	$\epsilon_{cf} = \dfrac{\text{NTU}}{\text{NTU}+1}$	Effectiveness of a balanced counterflow heat exchanger when $R = 1$
(8.56)	$Q_{\max} = \left(\dfrac{\rho_l \sigma_l h_{fg}}{\mu_l}\right)\left(\dfrac{A_w k_w}{L_{\text{eff}}}\right)\left(\dfrac{1}{r_c} - \dfrac{\rho_l g L_{\text{eff}} \sin\phi}{\sigma_f}\right)$	Maximum heat transport capability of a heat pipe
(8.57)	$M = \dfrac{\rho_l \sigma_l h_{fg}}{\mu_l}$	Figure of merit of a heat pipe
(8.58)	$Q_{\max} = \dfrac{A_w h_{fg} \rho_l^2}{\mu_l}\left(\dfrac{l_w k_w}{L_{\text{eff}}}\right)$	Maximum achievable power transfer by a heat pipe

Review Questions

8.1 What is a heat exchanger? What are its applications?

8.2 Give the three broad classes of heat exchangers.

8.3 Explain storage type heat exchangers.

8.4 What is a direct contact heat exchanger? Give some examples.

8.5 What are the different flow arrangements in recuperative heat exchangers?

8.6 What do you mean by fouling factor? What are the causes of fouling?

.7 What is a compact heat exchanger? What are its applications?

.8 What do you understand by mixed flow and unmixed flow?

.9 What is a shell-and-tube heat exchanger? Why are baffles used? What are headers?

10 What are multipass heat exchangers? When are they used?

11 Explain the operation of a plate heat exchanger? What are its applications?

12 In a gas-to-liquid heat exchanger, why are fins provided on the gas side?

13 Give a comparison of parallel-flow and counterflow heat exchangers. Why are counterflow heat exchangers mostly used?

14 For a balanced counterflow heat exchanger where $\dot{m}_h c_h = \dot{m}_c c_c$, show that the temperature profiles of the two fluids along the heat exchanger are linear and parallel.

.15 Show that as $\Delta T_i \to \Delta T_e$, $\Delta T_{lm} \to \Delta T_{am}$.

.16 Explain when one of the fluids undergoes phase change, the directions of the two fluids are immaterial in evaluating $(\Delta T)_{lm}$.

.17 How is the mean temperature difference between the two fluids in a multipass heat exchanger estimated? What is the correction factor?

8.18 How are TEMA charts useful in the design of multipass heat exchangers?

8.19 If U_0 varies linearly with temperature, show that the rate of heat transfer is given by

$$Q = A_0 \frac{U_e \Delta T_i - U_i \Delta T_e}{\ln (U_e \Delta T_i / U_i \Delta T_e)}$$

where U_i and U_e are the values of U_0 at the inlet and exit of the heat exchanger.

8.20 Define effectiveness and NTU of a heat exchanger.

8.21 What is the limitation of the LMTD method? How is ε-NTU method superior to correction factor-LMTD method?

8.22 In the definition of effectiveness, explain why minimum heat capacity value (C_{min}) is used for the maximum possible rate of heat transfer.

8.23 Show that for parallel flow heat exchanger

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}(1+R)]}{1+R}$$

8.24 Show that for counterflow heat exchanger

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}{1 - R\exp[-\text{NTU}(1-R)]}$$

8.25 How are exit fluid temperatures determined with the help of ε-NTU method?

8.26 When one of the two fluids undergoes phase change, show that the effectiveness values for both parallel flow and counterflow heat exchangers are equal and given by

$$\varepsilon = 1 - \exp(-\text{NTU})$$

8.27 For a balanced heat exchanger ($R = 1$), show that

(a) for parallel flow, $\varepsilon = \dfrac{1 - \exp(-2\text{NTU})}{2}$

(b) for counterflow, $\varepsilon = \dfrac{\text{NTU}}{\text{NTU} + 1}$

8.28 Explain how the charts provided by Kays and London are useful in the design of heat exchangers.

8.29 Explain the operation of a heat pipe. Why is it called a superconductor?

8.30 What are the advantages of a heat pipe?

8.31 Why is a wick needed in a heat pipe? State its function.

8.32 What is a thermosiphon? How is it different from a heat pipe?

8.33 How is a heat pipe sensitive to the effects of gravity?

8.34 What is the function of a splitter plate?

8.35 How is a heat pipe rated? Why are fins used in a heat pipe?

8.36 How does the performance of a heat pipe depend on the angle of operation?

8.37 Give examples of a few working fluid pipe material combinations of heat pipes along with temperature ranges.

8.38 What is the maximum capillary pumping head of a heat pipe? How is it balanced?

8.39 Why only wetting fluids can be used in heat pipes? What is wicking height?

8.40 What is the maximum heat transport capability of a heat pipe?

8.41 State the four limitations which restrict the performance of a heat pipe.

8.42 What are the applications of heat pipes? Why are heat pipes versatile in removing localised heat and for waste heat recovery?

8.43 Explain a run-around coil system. What are its applications?

Objective Questions

8.1 In a concentric double-pipe heat exchanger where one of the fluids undergoes phase change
(a) the two fluids should flow opposite to each other.
(b) the two fluids should flow parallel to each other.
(c) the two fluids should flow normal to each other.
(d) the direction of flow of the two fluids are of no consequence.

8.2 In case of a heat exchanger, the value of logarithmic temperature difference should be
(a) as small as possible
(b) as large as possible
(c) constant
(d) none of the above

8.3 A heat exchanger with heat transfer surface area A_0 and overall heat transfer coefficient U_0 handles two fluids of heat capacities C_1 and C_2 with $C_1 > C_2$. The parameter NTU (number of transfer units) used in heat exchanger analysis is specified as
(a) $\frac{U_0 A_0}{C_1}$ (b) $\frac{U_0 A_0}{C_2}$
(c) $\frac{U_0}{A_0 C_2}$ (d) $\frac{A_0 C_0}{U_0}$

8.4 Compared to parallel flow heat exchanger, the LMTD of a counteflow heat exchanger is
(a) more
(b) less
(c) the same
(d) none of the above

8.5 In a two fluid heat exchanger, the inlet and outlet temperatures of the hot fluid are 65°C and 40°C respectively. For the cold fluid these are 15°C and 43°C. The heat exchanger is a
(a) parallel flow heat exchanger
(b) counterflow heat exchanger
(c) heat exchanger where both parallel flow and parallel flow operations are possible.
(d) none of the above

8.6 In a counterflow heat exchanger, the hot fluid enters at 100°C and leaves at 60°C. The cold fluid enters at 40°C and leaves at 80°C. It is a balanced heat exchanger with $\dot{m}_h c_h = \dot{m}_c c_c$. The LMTD of the heat exchanger is
(a) zero (b) indeterminate
(c) 40°C (d) 20°C

8.7 For evaporators and condensers under the given conditions, LMTD for counteflow will be
(a) greater than parallel flow
(b) equal to parallel flow
(c) less than parallel flow
(d) very much larger than parallel flow

8.8 For a balanced counterflow heat exchanger with $\dot{m}_h c_h = \dot{m}_c c_c$, the effectiveness is given by
(a) $\varepsilon = \frac{1-\exp(-2\text{NTU})}{2}$
(b) $\varepsilon = \frac{1+\exp(-2\text{NTU})}{2}$
(c) $\varepsilon = \frac{\text{NTU}}{\text{NTU}+1}$
(d) $\varepsilon = \frac{\text{NTU}+1}{\text{NTU}}$

8.9 For $C_{min}/C_{max} = 0$, the effectiveness is given by the expression
(a) $\varepsilon = 1 - \exp(\text{NTU})$
(b) $\varepsilon = 1 - \exp(-\text{NTU})$
(c) $\varepsilon = 1 + \exp(-\text{NTU})$
(d) $\varepsilon = \exp(\text{NTU})^{-1}$

8.10 Match List I with List II and select the correct answers using the codes given below:

List I	List II
A. Number of transfer units	1. Regenerators
B. Periodic flow heat exchangers	2. Fouling factor
C. Phase change	3. A measure of heat exchanger size
D. Deposition on heat exchanger surface	4. Condensers

Codes:

	A	B	C	D
(a)	1	2	3	4
(b)	2	3	4	1
(c)	3	1	4	2
(d)	4	3	2	1

8.11 Consider the following statements:
In a shell and tube heat exchanger, baffles are provided on the shell side to
1. prevent the stagnation of the shell side fluid
2. improve heat transfer
3. provide support for tubes
4. prevent fouling of tubes

Of these statements
(a) 1, 2, 3 and 4 are correct
(b) 1, 2 and 3 are correct
(c) 1 and 2 are correct
(d) 2 and 4 are correct

8.12 A counterflow shell and tube heat exchanger is used to heat water with hot exhaust gases. The water (c = 4180 J/kgK) flows at the rate of 2 kg/s and the exhaust gases (c = 1000 J/kgK) flow at the rate of 5 kg/s. If the heat transfer surface area is 32 m^2 and the overall heat transfer coefficient is 200 W/m^2K. The NTU of the heat exchanger is
(a) 4.5 (b) 2.4
(c) 8.6 (d) 1.28

8.13 For multipass flow and cross-flow shell-and-tube heat exchangers, to determine the mean temperature difference ΔT_m between the two fluids, a correction factor F is used such that
(a) $\Delta T_m = F(\text{LMTD})_{\text{counterflow}}$
(b) $\Delta T_m = F(\text{LMTD})_{\text{parallel flow}}$
(c) $\Delta T_m = \dfrac{F(\text{LMTD})_{\text{counterflow}}}{F}$
(d) $\Delta T_m = \dfrac{F(\text{LMTD})_{\text{parallel flow}}}{F}$

8.14 For a phase change heat exchanger, the heat capacity ratio R is equal to
(a) 1 (b) 0
(c) ∞ (d) indeterminate

8.15 For a balanced counterflow heat exchanger, the temperature profiles of the two fluids along the length of the heat exchanger
(a) linear (b) parallel
(c) linear and parallel (d) parabolic

8.16 An oil cooler for a lubrication system has to cool 1000 kg/h of oil (c_p = 4.18 kJ/kgK) from 80°C to 40°C by using a cooling water (c_p = 4.18 kJ/kgK) flow of 1000 kg/h available at 30°C. The heat exchanger is to be
(a) parallel flow
(b) counterflow
(c) cross-flow
(d) none of the above

8.17 Consider the following statements:
The effect of fouling in a water-cooled steam condenser is that
1. reduces the heat transfer coefficient of water.
2. reduces the overall heat transfer coefficient.
3. reduces the area available for heat transfer.
4. increases the pressure drop of water.

Of these statements:
(a) all of the above are correct
(b) 2, 3 and 4 are correct
(c) 2 and 4 are correct
(d) 1, 2 and 4 are correct

8.18 **Assertion (A):** If $C_{\max} = C_c$, it is not possible that T_{c_2} be equal to T_{h_1}
Reasoning (R): Because this would require $(T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})$ greater than $(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})$.

Codes:

(a) Both A and R are true
(b) Both A and R are false
(c) A is true, R is false
(d) A is false, R is true

8.19 If any of the two fluids undergoes phase change, the correction factor F in a multipass heat exchange would be
(a) 0.2 (b) 0.5
(c) 0.8 (d) 1.0

8.20 A heat pipe is used to transfer heat from the source to the sink by a fluid by means of
(a) conduction
(b) evaporation
(c) condensation
(d) evaporation and condensation

8.21 The return of the condensate in a heat pipe takes place by
(a) gravity
(b) buoyancy effect
(c) capillary effect through a wick
(d) entrainment effect

8.22 It is a heat recovery system which connects two recuperative heat exchangers by a third fluid exchanging heat with each fluid
(a) helical coil
(b) run-around coil
(c) spiral tube heat exchanger
(d) heat pipe

Answers

8.1	(d)	8.2	(b)	8.3	(b)	8.4	(a)	8.5	(b)
8.6	(c)	8.7	(b)	8.8	(c)	8.9	(b)	8.10	(c)
8.11	(b)	8.12	(d)	8.13	(a)	8.14	(b)	8.15	(c)
8.16	(b)	8.17	(d)	8.18	(a)	8.19	(d)	8.20	(d)
8.21	(c)	8.22	(b)						

Open Book Problems

8.1 In a certain double pipe heat exchanger hot water flows at a rate of 5000 kg/h and gets cooled from 95°C to 65°C. At the same time 50,000 kg/h of cooling water at 30°C enters the heat exchanger. The flow conditions are such that the overall heat transfer coefficient remains constant at 2270 W/m^{2}K. Determine the heat transfer area required and the effectiveness, assuming two streams are in parallel flow and have $c_p = 4.2$ kJ/kgK.

Hints: $Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = m_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{lm}$.
Find T_{c_2} and $(\Delta T_{lm})_{pf}$. Given : $U_0 = 2270$ W/m^{2}K. Find A_0. Now $\dot{m}_h c_h < \dot{m}_c c_c$,
effectiveness $\varepsilon = \dfrac{\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})}{\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})}$.

8.2 An oil cooler for a lubrication system has to cool 1000 kg/h of oil ($c_p = 2.09$ kJ/kgK) from 80°C to 40°C by using a cooling water flow of 1000 kg/h at 30°C. Give your choice for a parallel flow or a counterflow heat exchanger with reasons. Calculate the surface area of the heat exchanger, if the overall heat transfer coefficient is 24 W/m^{2}K.

Hints: $Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = U_0 A_0 \Delta T_{lm}$. From this equation find $T_{c_2} < T_{h_2}$, counterflow arrangement must be used. Find $(\Delta T_{lm})_{cf}$ and A_0 required.

8.3 A counterflow heat exchanger through which passes 12.5 kg/s of air to be cooled from 540°C to 140°C, contains 4200 tubes, each having a diameter of 30 mm. The inlet and outlet temperatures of cooling water are 25°C and 75°C respectively. If the water side resistance to flow is regligible, calculate the tube length required for this duty. For turbulent flow inside tubes, you can use: $Nu = 0.023\ Re^{0.8}\ Pr^{0.4}$. Properties of the air at the average temperature are as follows:

$\rho = 1.009$ kg/m^3, $c_p = 1.0082$ kJ/kg°C, $\mu = 2.075 \times 10^{-5}$ kg/ms and $k = 3.003 \times 10^{-2}$ W/m^{2}K.

Hints: Find $\mathrm{Re}_d = \dfrac{\rho V d}{\mu}$, $\dot{m} = NAV\rho$, $\mathrm{Re} = \dfrac{\dot{m}d}{Na\mu}$

$\mathrm{Pr} = \dfrac{\mu c_p}{k}$, $\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.023\,\mathrm{Re}_d^{0.8}\,\mathrm{Pr} = \dfrac{h_i D}{k}$.

Since water side resistance is negligible,

$$\frac{1}{U_0} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{1}{h_e} = \frac{1}{h_i}$$

$\therefore \quad U_0 = h_i$. Find $(\Delta T)_{\mathrm{lm}}$.

Then $Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2} = U_0 A_0 (\Delta T)_{\mathrm{lm}}$

$= U_0 \times N\,\pi d_0 L \times (\Delta T)_{\mathrm{lm}}$.

L can be determined.

8.4 A counterflow concentric tube heat exchanger is used to cool lubricating oil for a large gas turbine. The flow rate of cooling water through the inner tube ($d_i = 20$ mm) is 0.18 kg/s, while the flow rate of oil through the outer annulus ($d_0 = 40$ mm) is 0.12 kg/s. The inlet and outlet tempratures of oil are 95°C and 65°C respectively. The water enters at 30°C to the exchanger. Neglecting the tube wall resistance, fouling factors and heat loss to the surroundings, calculate the length of the tube. Properties of engine oil at 80°C: $c_p = 2131$ J/kgK, $\mu = 0.0325$ Ns/m^2, $k = 0.138$ W/mK. For water, $c_p = 4174$ J/kgK, $\mu = 725 \times 10^{-6}$ Ns/m^2, $k = 0.625$ W/mK and Pr = 4.85.

Hints: $Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = U_0 A_0 (\Delta T)_{\mathrm{lm}}$. Find T_2 and $(\Delta T_{\mathrm{lm}})_{cf}$. Now, $\dfrac{1}{U_0} = \dfrac{1}{h_i} + \dfrac{1}{h_0}$. To find h_i use $\mathrm{Nu}_d = 0.023\,\mathrm{Re}_d^{0.8}\,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.4}$ after establishing that the flow is turbulent. For oil flowing through the annulus, find hydraulic diameter, D_h and Re. If Re is less than 2300, and the flow is laminar, you can use $Nu = 3.66$, assuming uniform temperature along the annular surface. If the flow is turbulent, you have to use appropriate equation to find h_0. Find $A_0 = \pi d_0 L$ and then L.

8.5 A crossflow heat exchanger is used to heat an oil in the tubes ($c = 1.9$ kJ/kgK) from 15°C to 85°C. Blowing across the outside of the tubes is steam which enters at 130°C and leaves at 110°C with a mass flow of 5.2 kg/s. The overall heat transfer coefficient is 275 W/m^{2}K and c for steam is 1.86 kJ/kgK. Calculate the surface area of the heat exchanger.

Hints: By energy balance, $Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})$

We can find the area by using Eq. (8.22), $Q = U_0 A_0 F (\Delta T_{\mathrm{lm}})_{cf}$. Find $(\Delta T_{\mathrm{lm}})_{cf}$, capacity ratio $R = \dfrac{T_{s_1} - T_{s_2}}{T_{t_2} - T_{t_1}}$ and temperature ratio $P = \dfrac{T_{t_2} - T_{t_1}}{T_{s_1} - T_{t_1}}$ where subscript Δ refers to the shell side and subscript t refers to the tube side fluid. Consulting Fig. 8.20 and considering the mixed fluid as mixed and the oil as unmixed, we find the correction factor F and then A_0.

8.6 Water enters a counterflow double-pipe heat exchanger at 15°C flowing at the rate of 1700 kg/h. It is heated by oil ($c_p = 2000$ J/kgK) flowing at the rate of 550 kg/h from an inlet temperature of 94°C. For an area of 1 m^2 and an overall heat transfer coefficient of 1075 W/m^{2}K, determine the total heat transfer and the outlet temperatures of water and oil. (c_p of water = 4186 J/kgK).

Hints: Find heat capacity rates of water = $\dot{m}_c c_c = C_c$ and of oil $C_h = \dot{m}_h c_h$ and check which value is bigger. So as to identify $C_{\min}$ and $C_{\max}$ and then find $R = \dfrac{C_{\min}}{C_{\max}}$ and $\mathrm{NTU} = \dfrac{U_0 A_0}{C_{\min}}$. The effectiveness for counterflow heat exchanger,

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \exp[-\mathrm{NTU}(1-R)]}{1 - \mathrm{R}\exp[-\mathrm{NTU}(1-R)]} = \frac{Q}{Q_{\max}}$$

$$= \frac{\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) \text{ or } \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})}{C_{\min}(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})}$$

or $\varepsilon = \dfrac{(\Delta T)_l}{T_{h_1} - T_{c_1}}$, where $(\Delta T)_l$ is the larger of the two values $(T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})$ and $(T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$. Then, find $Q_{max} = C_{min}(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})$ and $Q = \varepsilon Q_{max}$. From energy balance, $Q = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$, find T_{h_2} and T_{c_2}.

8.7 A 1-shell 2-tube pass steam condenser of 3000 brass tubes of 20 mm diameter. Cooling water enters the tubes at 20°C with a mean flow rate of 3000 kg/s. The heat transer coefficient for condensation on the outer surfaces of the tubes is 15,500 W/m²K. If the heat load of the condenser is 2.3×10^8 W when the steam condenses at 50°C, determine (a) the outlet temperature of water, (b) the overall heat transfer coefficient, (c) the tube length per pass using the NTU-method, (d) the rate of condensation of steam if $h_{fg} = 2380$ kJ/kg.

Hints: By energy balance, $Q = \dot{m} c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}) = 2.3 \times 10^8$ W $= \dot{m}_s \dot{m}_{fg}$. Find T_{c_2}. $U_0 = \dfrac{1}{\dfrac{1}{h_i} + \dfrac{1}{h_0}}$

and $\text{Re}_d = \dfrac{4\dot{m}_c}{\pi D \mu} > 10{,}000$. Use Dittus–Boelter equation $\text{Nu}_d = 0.023\ \text{Re}_d^{0.8}\ \text{Pr}^{0.4}$ to find h_i. Now, h_0 being given, find U_0. (c) $C_h = C_{max} = \infty$.

$\therefore$ $\varepsilon = 1 - \exp(-\text{NTU})$. $C_{min} = \dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})$

$Q_{max} = C_{min}(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})$.

$$\varepsilon = \frac{Q}{Q_{max}} = 1 - \exp(-\text{NTU})$$

$\therefore$ NTU is found out. $A_0 = \dfrac{\text{NTU}.C_{min}}{U_0}$

$= N \times 2\text{L} \times \pi D$

Find L in one pass. (d) $\dot{m}_s = \dfrac{Q}{h_{fg}}$

8.8 A simple counterflow heat exchanger operates under the following conditions: Fluid A: inlet and outlet temperatures 80°C and 40°C, Fluid B: inlet and outlet temperatures 20°C and 40°C. The exchanger is cleaned, causing an increase in the overall heat transfer coefficient by 10% and inlet temperature of fluid B is changed to 30°C. What will be the new outlet temperatures of fluid A and of fluid B. Assume that the capacity rates remain unaltered.

Hints: Given: Case I – $T_{h_1} = 80$°C, $T_{h_2} = 40$°C. $T_{c_1} = 20$°C, $T_{c_2} = 40$°C

Case II – $T_{h_1} = 80$°C, $T_{h_2} = ?$, $T_{c_1} = 30$°C, $T_{c_2} = ?$ $U_2 = 1.1\ U_1$

Case I: Find, $R = \dfrac{C_{min}}{C_{max}} = \dfrac{T_{c_2} - T_{c_1}}{T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}} = \dfrac{\dot{m}_h c_h}{\dot{m}_c c_c}$

$$Q_1 = \dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}) = U_1 A (\Delta T_{lm})_{cf}$$

$$T_{h_1} - T_{h_2}\ \text{NTU}_1 \times C_{min}(\Delta T_{ln})_{cf}$$

Find NTU_1. Then $\text{NTU}_2 = \dfrac{U_2 A}{C_{min}} = 1.1\ \text{NTU}_1$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1 - \exp[-\text{NTU}_2(1 - R)]}{1 - R\ \exp[-\text{NTU}_2(1 - R)]}$$

Also, $\varepsilon = \dfrac{\dot{m}_h c_h (T_{h_1} - T_{h_2})}{C_{min}(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})} = \dfrac{\dot{m}_c c_c (T_{c_2} - T_{c_1})}{C_{min}(T_{h_1} - T_{c_1})}$

Find T_{h_2} and T_{c_2}

Problems for Practice

8.1 A double-pipe heat exchanger is constructed of a stainless steel ($k = 15.1$ W/m K) inner tube of $D_i = 15$ mm and $D_0 = 19$ mm, and the outer tube of diameter 32 mm. The convective heat transfer coefficient is given to be $h_i = 800$ W/m² K and $h_0 = 1200$ W/m² K. For a fouling factor of $R_{f,i} = 0.0004$ m² K/W on the tube side and $R_{f,o} = 0.0001$ m² K/W on the shell side, determine (a) the total thermal resistance, (b) U_i and (c) U_0 of the heat exchanger.

(Ans. (a) 0.0532 K/W, (b) 399.1 W/m²K, (c) 314.9 W/m² K)

8.2 Steam in the condenser of a steam power plant is to be condensed at a temperature of 30°C with cooling water entering at 14°C and leaving at 22°C. The surface area of the tubes is 45 m^2, and the overall heat transfer coefficient is 2100 W/m^2 K. Determine the mass flow rate of the cooling water needed and the rate of condensation of steam. Take h_{fg} at 30°C = 2430.5 kJ/kg.

(*Ans.* $\dot{m}_c = 32.5$ kg/s, $\dot{m}_h = 0.45$ kg/s)

8.3 A shell-and-tube heat exchanger is to heat 10,000 kg/h of water from 16°C to 84°C by hot engine oil flowing through the shell. The oil makes a single shell pass, entering at 160°C and leaving at 94°C, with an average heat transfer coefficient of 400 W/m^2 K. The water flows through 11 brass tubes of 22.9 mm inner diameter and 25.4 mm outer diameter, with each tube making four passes through the shell. Assuming fully developed flow for the water, find the required tube length per pass.

8.4 A one shell pass, two tube pass heat exchanger has a total surface area of 5 m^2, and its overall heat transfer coefficient based on that area is found to be 1400 W/m^2 K. If 4500 kg/h of water enters the shell side at 315°C while 9000 kg/h of water enters the tube side at 40°C, find the outlet temperatures using (a) the F-LMTD method and (b) the ε-NTU method. Take c_p for both fluid streams as 4.187 kJ/kg K.

(*Ans.* $T_{h_2} = 146.5$°C, $T_{c_2} = 124.2$°C)

8.5 Hot oil is to be cooled by water in a one shell pass and eight tube passes heat exchanger. The tubes are thin-walled and made of copper with an internal diameter of 14 mm. The length of each tube pass is 5 m and $U_0 = 310$ W/m^2 K. Water flows through the tubes at a rate of 0.2 kg/s, and the oil through the shell at a rate of 0.3 kg/s. The water and the oil enter at temperatures of 20°C and 150°C respectively. Determine the rate of heat transfer and the exit temperatures of the water and the oil.

(*Ans.* 49 kW, 78.6°C, 73.3°C)

8.6 A tubular heater of the counterflow type is used to heat 1.26 kg/s of fuel oil ($c_p = 3.14$ kJ/kg K) from 10°C to 26.7°C. Heat is supplied by means of 1.51 kg/s of water which enters the heater at 82°C. (a) Derive an equation relating the temperatures of oil and water at any section of the heater. (b) Determine the necessary surface area if the overall heat transfer coefficient is 1.135 kW/m^2 K.

(*Ans.* 1.013 m^2)

8.7 In a test on a steam condenser the rate of flow of cooling water was varied while the condensation temperature was maintained constant. The following results were obtained:

Overall heat transfer coefficient, U (kW/m^2K)	2.7	2.98	3.39	3.59
Water velocity, V(m/s)	0.996	1.27	1.83	2.16

Assuming the surface coefficient on the water side to be proportional to $V^{0.8}$, determine from an appropriate graph the mean value of the steam side surface coefficient. The thickness of the metal wall is 1.22 mm and thermal conductivity of tube material is 0.111 kW/m K.

(*Ans.* 6.04 kW/m^2 K)

8.8 A conterflow heat exchanger consists of a bundle of 20 mm diameter tubes contained in a shell. Oil flowing in the tubes is cooled by water flowing in the shell. The flow area within the tubes is 4.4×10^{-3} m^2. The flow of oil is 2.5 kg/s. It enters at 65°C and leaves at 48°C. Water enters the shell at the rate of 20 kg/s and at 15°C. Calculate the area of the tube surface and the effectiveness of the exchanger.

For the oil in the tubes, take $Nu_d = 0.023\ Re_d^{0.8}\ Pr^{0.3}$, $c_p = 2.15$ kJ/kg K, $\mu = 2.2 \times 10^{-5}$ Pa.s, $\rho = 880$ kg/m^3, $k = 190 \times 10^{-6}$ kW/m K; for water, $h = 1.2$ kW/m^2 K, $c_p = 4.19$ kJ/kg K.

(*Ans.* 2.23 m^2, 34%)

8.9 An oil cooler for a lubrication system has to cool 1000 kg/h of oil ($c_p = 2.09$ kJ/kg K) from 80°C to 40°C by using a cooling water flow

of 1000 kg/h available at 30°C. Give your choice for a parallel flow or a counterflow heat exchanger, with reasons. Estimate the surface area of the heat exchanger, if U_0 = 24 W/m^2 K.

(*Ans.* 53.16 m^2)

8.10 Water is evaporated continuously at 100°C in an evaporator by cooling 500 kg of air per hour from 260°C to 150°C. Calculate the heat transfer surface area required and the steam evaporation per hour, if the liquid enters at 100°C. Take U_0 = 46 W/m^2 K and c_p of air 1.005 kJ/kg K. At 100°, h_{fg} = 2257 kJ/kg.

(*Ans.* 3.53 m^2)

8.11 Oil with a specific heat of 2 kJ/kg K is cooled from 110°C to 70°C by a flow of water in a counterflow heat exchanger. Water flows at the rate of 2 kg/s and is heated from 35°C to 65°C. The overall heat transfer coefficient is estimated to be 0.37 kW/m^2 K. Determine the exit temperatures of oil and water, if the water flow rate drops to 1.5 kg/s at the same oil flow rate. Take c_p of water as 4.18 kJ/kg K.

(*Ans.* $T_{h_2} = T_{c_2} = 72.5$°C)

8.12 A tubular counterflow oil cooler is to use a supply of cold water as the cooling fluid. Using the following data calculate the required surface area of the tubes:

Data	*Oil*	*Water*
Entry temperature, °C	121	15.6
Exit temperature, °C	82.3	—
Mass flow rate, kg/s	0.189	0.378
Specific heat, kJ/kg K	2.094	4.187
Mean U_0 = 0.454 kW/m^2 K		

(*Ans.* 0.422 m^2)

8.13 A tank contains 272 kg of oil which is stirred so that its temperature is uniform. The oil is heated by an immersed coil of pipe 2.54 cm diameter in which steam condenses at 149°C. The oil of specific heat 1.675 kJ/kg K is to be heated from 32.2°C to 121°C in 1 h. Calculate the length of pipe in the coil if the surface coefficient is 0.653 kW/m^2 K.

(*Ans.* 3.47 m)

8.14 An oil fraction flowing at the rate of 20.15 kg/s at a temperature of 121°C is to be cooled in a simple counterflow heat exchanger using 5.04 kg/s of water initially at 10°C. The exchanger contains 200 tubes, each 4.87 m long and 19.7 mm outer diameter. If the specific heat of oil is 2.094 kJ/kg K, calculate the exit temperature of the oil. Take U_0 = 0.34 kW/m^2 K.

(*Ans.* 90.8°C)

8.15 Oil is cooled by water is a counterflow heat exchanger. The oil flow rate is 2000 kg/h, entering at 107°C and leaving at 30°C. Its mean c_p is 2.51 kJ/kg K. Water enters at 15°C and its exit temperature is not to exceed 80°C. The overall heat transfer coefficient is expected to be 1.5 kW/m^2 K. Determine the water flow rate, the surface area required and the effectiveness of the exchanger.

(*Ans.* 1425 kg/h, 3.5 m^2, 0.837)

8.16 A liquid (c_p = 3.81 kJ/kg K) flowing at the rate of 6.93 kg/s through a heat exchanger made from a 25.4 mm outer diameter tube is cooled from 65.6°C to 39.4°C, using 6.30 kg/s of water available at 10°C. Assuming U_0 = 568 W/m^2 K, estimate the surface area required for the following arrangements:

(a) Parallel-flow tube and shell
(b) Counterflow tube and shell,
(c) Counterflow exchanger with 2 shell passes and 72 tube passes, the liquid flowing through the shell and the water flowing through the tubes,
(d) Cross-flow, with one tube pass and one shell pass, shell side fluid mixed.

[*Ans.* (a) 66.2 m^2, (b) 41.4 m^2, (c) 42.7 m^2, (d) 47.0 m^2]

8.17 Water is required to be preheated for a boiler using flue gases from the boiler stack. The flue gases are available at the rate of 0.25 kg/s at 150°C, with a specific heat of 1 kJ/kg K. The water entering the exchanger at

15°C at the rate of 0.05 kg/s is to be heated to 90°C. The heat exchanger is to be of the reversed current type with one shell pass and four tube passes. The water flows inside the tubes, which are made of copper (25 mm inner diameter, 30 mm outer diameter). The heat transfer coefficient at the gas side is 115 W/m^2 K, while the heat transfer coefficient on the water side is 1150 W/m^2 K. A scale on the water side offers an additional thermal resistance of 0.002 m^2 K/W. (a) Determine the overall heat transfer coefficient based on the outer tube diameter. (b) Determine the appropriate mean temperature difference for the heat exchanger. (c) Estimate the required tube length. (d) What would be the outlet temperature and the effectiveness if the water flow rate is doubled, giving a heat transfer coefficient of 1820 W/m^2 K?

8.18 Water flowing at a rate of 10 kg/s through 50 double-pass tubes in a shell-and-tube heat exchanger heats air that flows through the shell side. The length of the brass tubes is 6.7 cm, and they have an outer diameter of 26 mm and an inner diameter of 23 mm. The heat transfer coefficients of the water and air are 470 W/m^2 K and 210 W/m^2 K, respectively. Air enters the shell at a temperature of 15°C and a flow rate of 1.6 kg/s. The temperature of the water as it enters the tubes is 75°C. Calculate (a) the heat exchanger effectiveness, (b) the heat transfer rate to the air and (c) the outlet temperatures of the air and water.

8.19 Water flowing at the rate of 12.6 kg/s is to be cooled from 90°C to 65°C by means of an equal flow rate of cold water entering at 40°C. The water velocity will be such that the overall coefficient of heat transfer U is 2300 W/m^2 K. Calculate the heat exchanger surface area needed for each of the following arrangements: (a) parallel flow, (b) counterflow (c) a multipass heat exchanger with the hot water making one pass through a well-baffled shell and the cold water making two tube passes through the tubes and (d) a cross-flow heat exchanger with both sides unmixed.

8.20 Determine the maximum heat transport capability and the liquid flow rate of a water heat pipe operating at 100°C and atmospheric pressure. The heat pipe is 30 cm long and has an inner diameter of 1 cm. It is inclined at 30°C with the evaporator above the condenser. The wick consists of four layers of 250-mesh wire screen (wire diameter of 0.045 mm) on the inner surface of the pipe. The pore radius is 0.002 cm and the permeability is 0.3×10^{-10} m^2. Water properties at 100°C are $\rho_l = 958$ kg/m^3, $\mu_l = 279 \times 10^{-6}$ N s/m^2, $\sigma_l = 58.9 \times 10^{-3}$ N/m and $h_{fg} = 2260$ kJ/kg. Assume perfect wetting.

(*Ans.* 20 W)

8.21 Air enters a gas-fired furnace at 20°C at a mass flow rate of 0.2 kg/s and is burned with an air-fuel ratio by volume of 12. The gases leave the furnace at 350°C. A run-around coil is installed to recover some of the energy of exhaust gases in order to preheat the air entering the furnace. Using the data given, neglecting thermal losses, calculate
(a) the required mass flow rate of secondary fluid,
(b) the effectiveness of the overall heat recovery process,
(c) the rate of energy recovery and
(d) the temperature of the gases at exit and the temperature of the air at entry to the burner.

Given: $\bar{c}_p$ of air = 1.01 kJ/kg K, $\bar{c}_p$ of gases = 1.15 kJ/kg K, ρ of inlet air = 1.204 kg/m^3, ρ of inlet gas = 0.715 kg/m^3, $\bar{c}_p$ of secondary fluid = 1.6 kJ/kg K, U_0 for each heat exchanger = 60 W/m^2 K and heat transfer area for each heat exchanger = 11 m^2.

[*Ans.* (a) 0.138 kg/s, (b) 0.652, (c) 43.45 kW, (d) 170°C, 235.1°C]

Surface resistance, 550
Swirl flow enhancement, 327

Thermal boundary layer, 15, 244
Thermal conductance, 5
Thermal conductivity, 3, 9, 12
Thermal diffusivity, 65
Thermal entry length, 294
Thermal insulation, 26
Thermal radiation, 468
Thermal resistance, 5
Thermodynamic optimization, 656
Thermosiphon, 596
Transient heat conduction, 158
Transient temperature charts, 176
Transition flow, 287
Transpiration cooling, 653
Transmissivity, 23, 470
Turbulent flow:
  heat transfer, 282, 283
  mass transfer, 791
  Prandtl number, 285
  shearing stress, 283
  velocity distribution, 294, 311
Two-phase flow, 449

Units and dimensions, 31
Universal velocity profile, 312

Variable conductivity, 11
Vector method, 58
Velocity distribution, 277
Velocity and temperature profiles, 20, 277, 296
View factor, 23, 441
Viscosity,
  dynamic, 238
  eddy, 284
  kinematic, 234
Viscous dissipation, 250
Von Kármán analogy, 293, 315
Von Kármán's momentum integral equation, 279

Wall, composite, 8
Wavelength, radiation, 514
Weber number, 602
Wetting fluids, 599
Wicking limitation, 602
Wien's displacement law, 479

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