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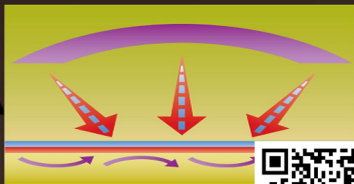
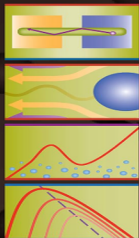
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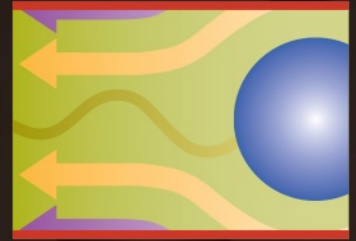
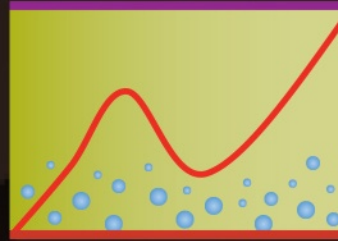
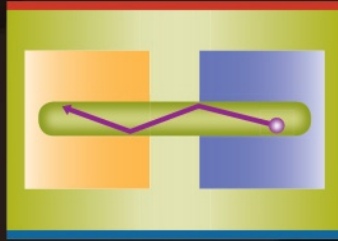
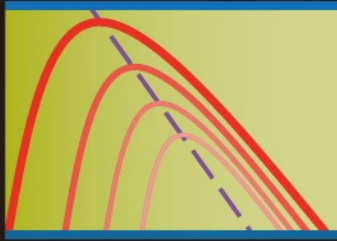
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HEAT and **MASS** TRANSFER
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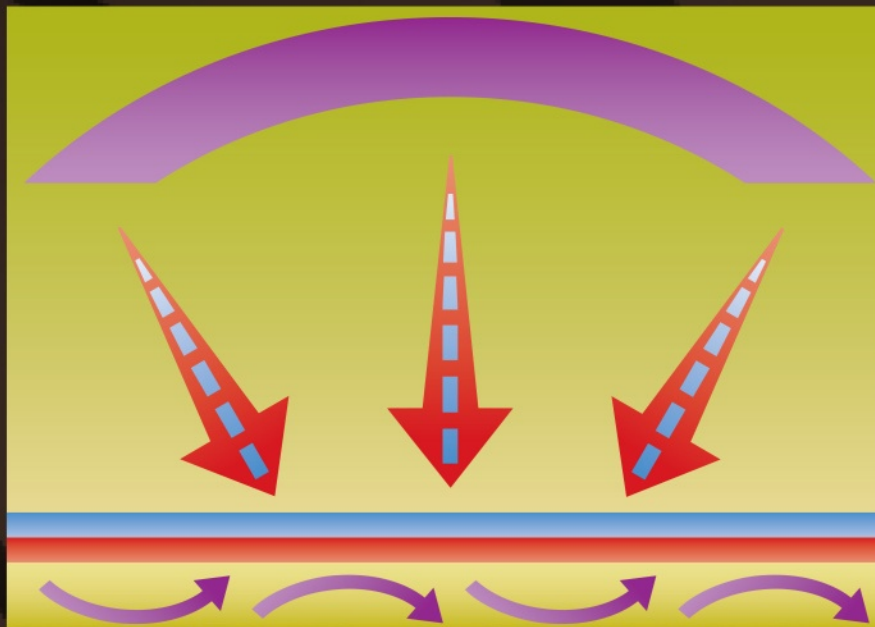
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EIGHTH EDITION

***Fundamentals
of Heat
and Mass
Transfer***

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Preface

In his *Forward to Preface* of the sixth edition of this work, Frank Incropera shared with readers the timeline for the multi-edition transition of authorship from Incropera and DeWitt to Bergman and Lavine. Throughout the 15 years of our involvement with the text, we have been inspired by, and mindful of, Frank's insistence that the quality of the expository material be of paramount importance. We have also attempted to demonstrate the relevance of heat transfer by providing a multitude of examples, ranging from traditional and non-traditional energy generation to potential climate change, where heat transfer plays a vital role.

Since our initial participation in the sixth edition, unexpected developments have evolved in engineering education. For example, the escalating cost of higher education is now debated at all levels of political leadership. As classroom instructors and parents of college students, this concern is not lost on us. In response, we have taken steps to hold the cost of the text in check by reducing its page count and forgoing production of a new edition of the companion text, *Introduction to Heat Transfer*. On the pedagogical front, we have reduced the complexity of many example and end-of-chapter problems. In addition to introducing new end-of-chapter problems, we have modified a significant number of existing problems, often necessitating modified solution approaches.

As in the previous two editions, we have retained a rigorous and systematic problem-solving methodology, and provide a broad range of fundamental as well as applications-motivated end-of-chapter problems that require students to hone and exercise the concepts of heat and mass transfer. We continue to strive to provide a text that will serve as a valuable resource for students and practicing engineers throughout their careers.

Approach and Organization

As in previous editions, we continue to adhere to four broad learning objectives:

1. The student should internalize the meaning of the terminology and physical principles associated with the subject.
2. The student should be able to delineate pertinent transport phenomena for any process or system involving heat or mass transfer.

3. The student should be able to use requisite inputs for computing heat or mass transfer rates and/or material temperatures or concentrations.
4. The student should be able to develop representative models of real processes and systems and draw conclusions concerning process/system design or performance from the attendant analysis.

Also as in previous editions, key concepts are reviewed and questions to test student understanding of the concepts are posed at the end of each chapter.

It is recommended that problems involving complex models and/or parameter sensitivity considerations be addressed using the *Interactive Heat Transfer (IHT)* software package that has been developed and refined in conjunction with the text. With its intuitive user interface, extensive built-in thermophysical property database, embedded convection correlations taken from the text, and other useful features, students can master the basic usage of *IHT* in about one hour. To facilitate use of *IHT*, selected example problems in the expository material are identified with an “IHT” icon as shown to the left. These problems are included as demonstrations in the *IHT* software, allowing students to observe how these problems can be solved easily and quickly. More information regarding *IHT* is available later in this preface. Due to the preponderance of readily available software packages capable of solving multi-dimensional conduction problems, the finite-element software package previously made available to students has been discontinued.



Some homework problems require a computer-based solution. Other problems include both a hand calculation and an extension that is computer based. The latter approach is time-tested and promotes the habit of checking computer-generated solutions with hand calculations. Once validated, the computer solution can be utilized to conduct parametric calculations. Problems involving both hand- and computer-generated solutions are identified by enclosing the exploratory part in a red rectangle, as, for example, (b), (c), or (d). This feature also allows instructors to focus their assignments on problems amenable to solution using hand calculations, and benefit from the richness of these problems without assigning the computer-based parts. Problems with a boxed number (for example, 1.25) require an entirely computer-based solution.

What's New to the 8th Edition

Although the size of the text has been reduced, we have added approximately 90 new and 225 revised end-of-chapter problems, with an emphasis on problems amenable to analytical solutions. Many of the revised problems require modified solution approaches. Within the text, the treatment of thermodynamics has been improved, with clarification of the various forms of energy and their relation to heat transfer. New material on micro- and nanoscale heat transfer and thermal boundary resistances has been added. Mixed convection is presented in a more rigorous manner.

Classroom Coverage

The content of the text has evolved over many years in response to the development of new, fundamental concepts of heat (and mass) transfer and novel ways that the principles of heat transfer are applied. A broad range of engineering disciplines and institutions, with varying

missions, make use of this text. Moreover, it is used not only in introductory courses, but also in advanced courses at many colleges and universities. Mindful of this diversity, the authors' intent is *not* to assemble a text whose content is to be covered, in entirety, during a single semester- or quarter-long course. Rather, the text includes fundamental material that should be covered in any introductory heat transfer course, and optional material that can be covered, depending on the mission of the institution, the time available, or the interests of the instructor or practitioner.

Heat and Mass Transfer To assist instructors in preparing a syllabus for a *first course in heat and mass transfer*, we suggest the following (with suggestions for a *first course in heat transfer* further below).

Chapter 1 Introduction sets the stage for any discussion of heat transfer. It explains the science-based linkage between thermodynamics and heat transfer, and the relevance of heat transfer. It should be covered in its entirety. Much of the content of *Chapter 2 Introduction to Conduction* is critical in a first course, especially Section 2.1 The Conduction Rate Equation, Section 2.3 The Heat Diffusion Equation, and Section 2.4 Boundary and Initial Conditions. Section 2.2 The Thermal Properties of Matter need not be covered in depth in a first course.

Chapter 3 One-Dimensional, Steady-State Conduction includes some material that can be assigned depending on the instructor's interest. The optional material includes Section 3.1.5 Porous Media, and Section 3.7 Other Applications of One-Dimensional Steady-State Conduction. The content of *Chapter 4 Two-Dimensional, Steady-State Conduction* is important in that both fundamental concepts and approximate techniques are presented. We recommend that all of Chapter 4 be covered, although some instructors may elect to not include Section 4.4 Finite-Difference Equations and Section 4.5 Solving the Finite-Difference Equations if time is short. It is recommended that *Chapter 5 Transient Conduction* be covered in entirety, although some instructors may prefer to cover only some aspects of Sections 5.8 through 5.10.

The content of *Chapter 6 Introduction to Convection* is often difficult for students to absorb. However, Chapter 6 introduces fundamental concepts in a rigorous manner and sets the stage for Chapters 7 through 11. Chapter 6 should be covered in entirety in an introductory heat and mass transfer course.

Chapter 7 External Flow builds on Chapter 6, introduces several important concepts, and presents convection correlations that students will utilize throughout the remainder of the text and in subsequent professional practice. We recommend Sections 7.1 through 7.5 be included in any first course in heat and mass transfer. However, Sections 7.6 through 7.8 are optional. Likewise, *Chapter 8, Internal Flow* includes matter used in the remainder of the text and in professional practice. However, Sections 8.6 through 8.8 may be viewed as optional in a first course.

Buoyancy-induced flow is covered in *Chapter 9 Free Convection*. Most of Chapter 9 should be covered in a first course, although optional material includes Section 9.7 Free Convection Within Parallel Plate Channels. The content of *Chapter 10 Boiling and Condensation* that can be optional in a first course includes Section 10.5 Forced Convection Boiling, Section 10.9 Film Condensation on Radial Systems, and Section 10.10 Condensation in Horizontal Tubes. However, if time is short, Chapter 10 can be skipped without affecting students' ability to understand the remainder of the text. We recommend that *Chapter 11 Heat Exchangers* be covered in entirety, although Section 11.6 Additional Considerations may be de-emphasized in a first course.

A distinguishing feature of the text, from its inception, is the in-depth coverage of radiation heat transfer in *Chapter 12 Radiation: Processes and Properties*. The content of the chapter is perhaps more relevant today than ever. However, Section 12.9 can be covered in an advanced course. *Chapter 13 Radiation Exchange Between Surfaces* may be covered as time permits, or in an intermediate heat transfer course.

The material in *Chapter 14 Diffusion Mass Transfer* is relevant to many contemporary applications ranging from chemical processing to biotechnology, and should be covered in entirety in an introductory heat and mass transfer course. However, if problems involving stationary media are solely of interest, Section 14.2 may be omitted or covered in a follow-on course.

Heat Transfer Usage of this text for a *first course in heat transfer* might be structured as follows.

The suggested coverage of *Chapters 1 through 5* is identical to that for a course in heat and mass transfer described above. Before beginning *Chapter 6 Introduction to Convection*, it is recommended that the definition of mass transfer, provided in the introductory remarks of *Chapter 14 Diffusion Mass Transfer*, be reviewed with students. With the definition of mass transfer firmly in hand, remaining content that focuses on, for example, Fick's law, Sherwood and Schmidt numbers, and evaporative cooling will be apparent and need not be covered. For example, within Chapter 6, Section 6.1.3 The Concentration Boundary Layer, Section 6.2.2 Mass Transfer, Section 6.7.1 The Heat and Mass Transfer Analogy, and Section 6.7.2. Evaporative Cooling may be skipped in entirety.

Chapter 7 External Flow coverage is the same as recommended for the first course in heat and mass transfer, above. Components of Chapter 7 that can be skipped, such as Example 7.3, will be evident. Section 8.9 Convection Mass Transfer may be skipped in *Chapter 8 Internal Flow* while Section 9.10 Convection Mass Transfer in *Chapter 9 Free Convection* need not be covered.

The recommended coverage in *Chapters 10 through 13* is the same as for a first course in heat and mass transfer, above. Except for its introductory remarks, *Chapter 14 Diffusion Mass Transfer* is not included in a heat transfer course.

End-of-chapter problems involving mass transfer and/or evaporative cooling that should not be assigned in a heat transfer course are clustered toward the end of problem sets, and are identified with appropriate headings.

Acknowledgements

We wish to thank our many colleagues and their students who have offered valuable suggestions through the years. For this edition, we thank Laurent Pilon of the University of California, Los Angeles for his suggestions that have enhanced the presentation of transient conduction in Chapter 5. We also express our appreciation to three practicing engineers, Haifan Liang, Umesh Mather, and Hilbert Li, for their advice that has improved the coverage of thermoelectric power generation and extended surfaces in Chapter 3, and gaseous radiation in Chapter 13.

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In closing, we remain deeply grateful to our spouses, Tricia and Greg, for the love they have shared and the patience they have practiced over the past 15 years.

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Supplemental and Web Site Material



The companion web site for the text is www.wiley.com/college/bergman. By clicking on appropriate links, students may access **Answers to Selected Homework Problems** and the **Supplemental Material Handouts** of the text. Supplemental Sections are identified throughout the text with the icon shown in the margin to the left.

Material available *for instructors only* includes that which is available to students and a **Homework Correlation Guide**, the **Solutions Manual**, the **Lecture PowerPoint Slides**, and an **Image Gallery** that includes electronic versions of figures from the text for those wishing to prepare their own materials for classroom presentation. *The Instructor Solutions Manual is copyrighted material for use only by instructors who require the text for their course.*¹


Interactive Heat Transfer 4.0 is available at the companion web site at no cost for both students and instructors. As described by the authors in the *Approach and Organization* section, this simple-to-use software tool provides modeling and computational features useful in solving many problems in the text, and it enables rapid what-if and exploratory analysis of many types of problems.


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Contents

	Symbols	xix
CHAPTER I	<i>Introduction</i>	1
1.1	What and How?	2
1.2	Physical Origins and Rate Equations	3
	1.2.1 Conduction	3
	1.2.2 Convection	6
	1.2.3 Radiation	8
	1.2.4 The Thermal Resistance Concept	12
1.3	Relationship to Thermodynamics	12
	1.3.1 Relationship to the First Law of Thermodynamics (Conservation of Energy)	13
	1.3.2 Relationship to the Second Law of Thermodynamics and the Efficiency of Heat Engines	28
1.4	Units and Dimensions	33
1.5	Analysis of Heat Transfer Problems: Methodology	35

1.6	Relevance of Heat Transfer	38
1.7	Summary	42
	References	45
	Problems	45
CHAPTER 2 Introduction to Conduction		59
<hr/>		
2.1	The Conduction Rate Equation	60
2.2	The Thermal Properties of Matter	62
	2.2.1 Thermal Conductivity	63
	2.2.2 Other Relevant Properties	70
2.3	The Heat Diffusion Equation	74
2.4	Boundary and Initial Conditions	82
2.5	Summary	86
	References	87
	Problems	87
CHAPTER 3 One-Dimensional, Steady-State Conduction		99
<hr/>		
3.1	The Plane Wall	100
	3.1.1 Temperature Distribution	100
	3.1.2 Thermal Resistance	102
	3.1.3 The Composite Wall	103
	3.1.4 Contact Resistance	105
	3.1.5 Porous Media	107
3.2	An Alternative Conduction Analysis	121
3.3	Radial Systems	125
	3.3.1 The Cylinder	125
	3.3.2 The Sphere	130
3.4	Summary of One-Dimensional Conduction Results	131
3.5	Conduction with Thermal Energy Generation	131
	3.5.1 The Plane Wall	132
	3.5.2 Radial Systems	138
	3.5.3 Tabulated Solutions	139
	3.5.4 Application of Resistance Concepts	139
3.6	Heat Transfer from Extended Surfaces	143
	3.6.1 A General Conduction Analysis	145
	3.6.2 Fins of Uniform Cross-Sectional Area	147
	3.6.3 Fin Performance Parameters	153
	3.6.4 Fins of Nonuniform Cross-Sectional Area	156
	3.6.5 Overall Surface Efficiency	159
3.7	Other Applications of One-Dimensional, Steady-State Conduction	163
	3.7.1 The Bioheat Equation	163
	3.7.2 Thermoelectric Power Generation	167
	3.7.3 Nanoscale Conduction	175
3.8	Summary	179
	References	181
	Problems	182

CHAPTER 4	<i>Two-Dimensional, Steady-State Conduction</i>	209
<hr/>		
4.1	General Considerations and Solution Techniques	210
4.2	The Method of Separation of Variables	211
4.3	The Conduction Shape Factor and the Dimensionless Conduction Heat Rate	215
4.4	Finite-Difference Equations	221
4.4.1	The Nodal Network	221
4.4.2	Finite-Difference Form of the Heat Equation: No Generation and Constant Properties	222
4.4.3	Finite-Difference Form of the Heat Equation: The Energy Balance Method	223
4.5	Solving the Finite-Difference Equations	230
4.5.1	Formulation as a Matrix Equation	230
4.5.2	Verifying the Accuracy of the Solution	231
4.6	Summary	236
	References	237
	Problems	237
 4S.1	The Graphical Method	W-1
4S.1.1	Methodology of Constructing a Flux Plot	W-1
4S.1.2	Determination of the Heat Transfer Rate	W-2
4S.1.3	The Conduction Shape Factor	W-3
4S.2	The Gauss-Seidel Method: Example of Usage	W-5
	References	W-10
	Problems	W-10
CHAPTER 5	<i>Transient Conduction</i>	253
<hr/>		
5.1	The Lumped Capacitance Method	254
5.2	Validity of the Lumped Capacitance Method	257
5.3	General Lumped Capacitance Analysis	261
5.3.1	Radiation Only	262
5.3.2	Negligible Radiation	262
5.3.3	Convection Only with Variable Convection Coefficient	263
5.3.4	Additional Considerations	263
5.4	Spatial Effects	272
5.5	The Plane Wall with Convection	273
5.5.1	Exact Solution	274
5.5.2	Approximate Solution	274
5.5.3	Total Energy Transfer: Approximate Solution	276
5.5.4	Additional Considerations	276
5.6	Radial Systems with Convection	277
5.6.1	Exact Solutions	277
5.6.2	Approximate Solutions	278
5.6.3	Total Energy Transfer: Approximate Solutions	278
5.6.4	Additional Considerations	279
5.7	The Semi-Infinite Solid	284
5.8	Objects with Constant Surface Temperatures or Surface Heat Fluxes	291
5.8.1	Constant Temperature Boundary Conditions	291
5.8.2	Constant Heat Flux Boundary Conditions	293
5.8.3	Approximate Solutions	294

5.9	Periodic Heating	301
5.10	Finite-Difference Methods	304
5.10.1	Discretization of the Heat Equation: The Explicit Method	304
5.10.2	Discretization of the Heat Equation: The Implicit Method	311
5.11	Summary	318
	References	319
	Problems	319
 5S.1	Graphical Representation of One-Dimensional, Transient Conduction in the Plane Wall, Long Cylinder, and Sphere	W-12
5S.2	Analytical Solutions of Multidimensional Effects	W-16
	References	W-22
	Problems	W-22
CHAPTER 6	<i>Introduction to Convection</i>	341
6.1	The Convection Boundary Layers	342
6.1.1	The Velocity Boundary Layer	342
6.1.2	The Thermal Boundary Layer	343
6.1.3	The Concentration Boundary Layer	345
6.1.4	Significance of the Boundary Layers	346
6.2	Local and Average Convection Coefficients	346
6.2.1	Heat Transfer	346
6.2.2	Mass Transfer	347
6.3	Laminar and Turbulent Flow	353
6.3.1	Laminar and Turbulent Velocity Boundary Layers	353
6.3.2	Laminar and Turbulent Thermal and Species Concentration Boundary Layers	355
6.4	The Boundary Layer Equations	358
6.4.1	Boundary Layer Equations for Laminar Flow	359
6.4.2	Compressible Flow	362
6.5	Boundary Layer Similarity: The Normalized Boundary Layer Equations	362
6.5.1	Boundary Layer Similarity Parameters	363
6.5.2	Dependent Dimensionless Parameters	363
6.6	Physical Interpretation of the Dimensionless Parameters	372
6.7	Boundary Layer Analogies	374
6.7.1	The Heat and Mass Transfer Analogy	375
6.7.2	Evaporative Cooling	378
6.7.3	The Reynolds Analogy	381
6.8	Summary	382
	References	383
	Problems	384
 6S.1	Derivation of the Convection Transfer Equations	W-25
6S.1.1	Conservation of Mass	W-25
6S.1.2	Newton's Second Law of Motion	W-26
6S.1.3	Conservation of Energy	W-29
6S.1.4	Conservation of Species	W-32
	References	W-36
	Problems	W-36

CHAPTER 7	<i>External Flow</i>	395
7.1	The Empirical Method	397
7.2	The Flat Plate in Parallel Flow	398
7.2.1	Laminar Flow over an Isothermal Plate: A Similarity Solution	399
7.2.2	Turbulent Flow over an Isothermal Plate	405
7.2.3	Mixed Boundary Layer Conditions	406
7.2.4	Unheated Starting Length	407
7.2.5	Flat Plates with Constant Heat Flux Conditions	408
7.2.6	Limitations on Use of Convection Coefficients	409
7.3	Methodology for a Convection Calculation	409
7.4	The Cylinder in Cross Flow	417
7.4.1	Flow Considerations	417
7.4.2	Convection Heat and Mass Transfer	419
7.5	The Sphere	427
7.6	Flow Across Banks of Tubes	430
7.7	Impinging Jets	439
7.7.1	Hydrodynamic and Geometric Considerations	439
7.7.2	Convection Heat and Mass Transfer	440
7.8	Packed Beds	444
7.9	Summary	445
	References	448
	Problems	448
CHAPTER 8	<i>Internal Flow</i>	469
8.1	Hydrodynamic Considerations	470
8.1.1	Flow Conditions	470
8.1.2	The Mean Velocity	471
8.1.3	Velocity Profile in the Fully Developed Region	472
8.1.4	Pressure Gradient and Friction Factor in Fully Developed Flow	474
8.2	Thermal Considerations	475
8.2.1	The Mean Temperature	476
8.2.2	Newton's Law of Cooling	477
8.2.3	Fully Developed Conditions	477
8.3	The Energy Balance	481
8.3.1	General Considerations	481
8.3.2	Constant Surface Heat Flux	482
8.3.3	Constant Surface Temperature	485
8.4	Laminar Flow in Circular Tubes: Thermal Analysis and Convection Correlations	489
8.4.1	The Fully Developed Region	489
8.4.2	The Entry Region	494
8.4.3	Temperature-Dependent Properties	496
8.5	Convection Correlations: Turbulent Flow in Circular Tubes	496
8.6	Convection Correlations: Noncircular Tubes and the Concentric Tube Annulus	504
8.7	Heat Transfer Enhancement	507

8.8	Forced Convection in Small Channels	510
8.8.1	Microscale Convection in Gases ($0.1 \mu\text{m} \lesssim D_h \lesssim 100 \mu\text{m}$)	510
8.8.2	Microscale Convection in Liquids	511
8.8.3	Nanoscale Convection ($D_h \lesssim 100 \text{nm}$)	512
8.9	Convection Mass Transfer	515
8.10	Summary	517
	References	520
	Problems	521

CHAPTER 9 *Free Convection* **539**


9.1	Physical Considerations	540
9.2	The Governing Equations for Laminar Boundary Layers	542
9.3	Similarity Considerations	544
9.4	Laminar Free Convection on a Vertical Surface	545
9.5	The Effects of Turbulence	548
9.6	Empirical Correlations: External Free Convection Flows	550
9.6.1	The Vertical Plate	551
9.6.2	Inclined and Horizontal Plates	554
9.6.3	The Long Horizontal Cylinder	559
9.6.4	Spheres	563
9.7	Free Convection Within Parallel Plate Channels	564
9.7.1	Vertical Channels	565
9.7.2	Inclined Channels	567
9.8	Empirical Correlations: Enclosures	567
9.8.1	Rectangular Cavities	567
9.8.2	Concentric Cylinders	570
9.8.3	Concentric Spheres	571
9.9	Combined Free and Forced Convection	573
9.10	Convection Mass Transfer	574
9.11	Summary	575
	References	576
	Problems	577

CHAPTER 10 *Boiling and Condensation* **595**

10.1	Dimensionless Parameters in Boiling and Condensation	596
10.2	Boiling Modes	597
10.3	Pool Boiling	598
10.3.1	The Boiling Curve	598
10.3.2	Modes of Pool Boiling	599
10.4	Pool Boiling Correlations	602
10.4.1	Nucleate Pool Boiling	602
10.4.2	Critical Heat Flux for Nucleate Pool Boiling	604
10.4.3	Minimum Heat Flux	605
10.4.4	Film Pool Boiling	605
10.4.5	Parametric Effects on Pool Boiling	606

10.5	Forced Convection Boiling	611
10.5.1	External Forced Convection Boiling	612
10.5.2	Two-Phase Flow	612
10.5.3	Two-Phase Flow in Microchannels	615
10.6	Condensation: Physical Mechanisms	615
10.7	Laminar Film Condensation on a Vertical Plate	617
10.8	Turbulent Film Condensation	621
10.9	Film Condensation on Radial Systems	626
10.10	Condensation in Horizontal Tubes	631
10.11	Dropwise Condensation	632
10.12	Summary	633
	References	633
	Problems	635

CHAPTER 11 *Heat Exchangers* **645**

11.1	Heat Exchanger Types	646
11.2	The Overall Heat Transfer Coefficient	648
11.3	Heat Exchanger Analysis: Use of the Log Mean Temperature Difference	651
11.3.1	The Parallel-Flow Heat Exchanger	652
11.3.2	The Counterflow Heat Exchanger	654
11.3.3	Special Operating Conditions	655
11.4	Heat Exchanger Analysis: The Effectiveness–NTU Method	662
11.4.1	Definitions	662
11.4.2	Effectiveness–NTU Relations	663
11.5	Heat Exchanger Design and Performance Calculations	670
11.6	Additional Considerations	679
11.7	Summary	687
	References	688
	Problems	688
 11S.1	Log Mean Temperature Difference Method for Multipass and Cross-Flow Heat Exchangers	W-40
11S.2	Compact Heat Exchangers	W-44
	References	W-49
	Problems	W-50

CHAPTER 12 *Radiation: Processes and Properties* **701**

12.1	Fundamental Concepts	702
12.2	Radiation Heat Fluxes	705
12.3	Radiation Intensity	707
12.3.1	Mathematical Definitions	707
12.3.2	Radiation Intensity and Its Relation to Emission	708
12.3.3	Relation to Irradiation	713
12.3.4	Relation to Radiosity for an Opaque Surface	715
12.3.5	Relation to the Net Radiative Flux for an Opaque Surface	716

12.4	Blackbody Radiation	716
12.4.1	The Planck Distribution	717
12.4.2	Wien's Displacement Law	718
12.4.3	The Stefan–Boltzmann Law	718
12.4.4	Band Emission	719
12.5	Emission from Real Surfaces	726
12.6	Absorption, Reflection, and Transmission by Real Surfaces	735
12.6.1	Absorptivity	736
12.6.2	Reflectivity	737
12.6.3	Transmissivity	739
12.6.4	Special Considerations	739
12.7	Kirchhoff's Law	744
12.8	The Gray Surface	746
12.9	Environmental Radiation	752
12.9.1	Solar Radiation	753
12.9.2	The Atmospheric Radiation Balance	755
12.9.3	Terrestrial Solar Irradiation	757
12.10	Summary	760
	References	764
	Problems	764
CHAPTER 13 Radiation Exchange Between Surfaces		785
13.1	The View Factor	786
13.1.1	The View Factor Integral	786
13.1.2	View Factor Relations	787
13.2	Blackbody Radiation Exchange	796
13.3	Radiation Exchange Between Opaque, Diffuse, Gray Surfaces in an Enclosure	800
13.3.1	Net Radiation Exchange at a Surface	801
13.3.2	Radiation Exchange Between Surfaces	802
13.3.3	The Two-Surface Enclosure	808
13.3.4	Two-Surface Enclosures in Series and Radiation Shields	810
13.3.5	The Reradiating Surface	812
13.4	Multimode Heat Transfer	817
13.5	Implications of the Simplifying Assumptions	820
13.6	Radiation Exchange with Participating Media	820
13.6.1	Volumetric Absorption	820
13.6.2	Gaseous Emission and Absorption	821
13.7	Summary	825
	References	826
	Problems	827
CHAPTER 14 Diffusion Mass Transfer		849
14.1	Physical Origins and Rate Equations	850
14.1.1	Physical Origins	850
14.1.2	Mixture Composition	851
14.1.3	Fick's Law of Diffusion	852
14.1.4	Mass Diffusivity	853

14.2	Mass Transfer in Nonstationary Media	855
14.2.1	Absolute and Diffusive Species Fluxes	855
14.2.2	Evaporation in a Column	858
14.3	The Stationary Medium Approximation	863
14.4	Conservation of Species for a Stationary Medium	863
14.4.1	Conservation of Species for a Control Volume	864
14.4.2	The Mass Diffusion Equation	864
14.4.3	Stationary Media with Specified Surface Concentrations	866
14.5	Boundary Conditions and Discontinuous Concentrations at Interfaces	870
14.5.1	Evaporation and Sublimation	871
14.5.2	Solubility of Gases in Liquids and Solids	871
14.5.3	Catalytic Surface Reactions	876
14.6	Mass Diffusion with Homogeneous Chemical Reactions	878
14.7	Transient Diffusion	881
14.8	Summary	887
	References	888
	Problems	888
APPENDIX A <i>Thermophysical Properties of Matter</i>		897
APPENDIX B <i>Mathematical Relations and Functions</i>		929
APPENDIX C <i>Thermal Conditions Associated with Uniform Energy Generation in One-Dimensional, Steady-State Systems</i>		935
APPENDIX D <i>The Gauss–Seidel Method</i>		941
APPENDIX E <i>The Convection Transfer Equations</i>		943
E.1	Conservation of Mass	944
E.2	Newton’s Second Law of Motion	944
E.3	Conservation of Energy	945
E.4	Conservation of Species	946
APPENDIX F <i>Boundary Layer Equations for Turbulent Flow</i>		947
APPENDIX G <i>An Integral Laminar Boundary Layer Solution for Parallel Flow over a Flat Plate</i>		951
<i>Conversion Factors</i>		955
<i>Physical Constants</i>		956
<i>Index</i>		957

Symbols

A	area, m ²	$ Fo $	Fourier number
A_b	area of prime (unfinned) surface, m ²	$ Fr $	Froude number
A_c	cross-sectional area, m ²	$ f $	friction factor; similarity variable
A_p	fin profile area, m ²	$ G $	irradiation, W/m ² ; mass velocity, kg/s · m ²
A_r	nozzle area ratio	$ Gr $	Grashof number
a	acceleration, m/s ² ; speed of sound, m/s	$ Gz $	Graetz number
$ Bi $	Biot number	$ g $	gravitational acceleration, m/s ²
$ Bo $	Bond number	$ H $	nozzle height, m; Henry's constant, bar
$ C $	molar concentration, kmol/m ³ ; heat capacity rate, W/K	$ h $	convection heat transfer coefficient, W/m ² · K; Planck's constant, J · s
$ C_D $	drag coefficient	$ h_{fg} $	latent heat of vaporization, J/kg
$ C_f $	friction coefficient	$ h'_{fg} $	modified heat of vaporization, J/kg
$ C_t $	thermal capacitance, J/K	$ h_{sf} $	latent heat of fusion, J/kg
$ Co $	Confinement number	$ h_m $	convection mass transfer coefficient, m/s
$ c $	specific heat, J/kg · K; speed of light, m/s	$ h_{rad} $	radiation heat transfer coefficient, W/m ² · K
$ c_p $	specific heat at constant pressure, J/kg · K	$ I $	electric current, A; radiation intensity, W/m ² · sr
$ c_v $	specific heat at constant volume, J/kg · K	$ i $	electric current density, A/m ² ; enthalpy per unit mass, J/kg
$ D $	diameter, m	$ J $	radiosity, W/m ²
$ D_{AB} $	binary mass diffusivity, m ² /s	$ Ja $	Jakob number
$ D_b $	bubble diameter, m	$ J_i^* $	diffusive molar flux of species $ i $ relative to the mixture molar average velocity, kmol/s · m ²
$ D_h $	hydraulic diameter, m	$ j_i $	diffusive mass flux of species $ i $ relative to the mixture mass average velocity, kg/s · m ²
$ d $	diameter of gas molecule, nm	$ j_H $	Colburn $ j $ factor for heat transfer
$ E $	thermal plus mechanical energy, J; electric potential, V; emissive power, W/m ²	$ j_m $	Colburn $ j $ factor for mass transfer
$ E^{tot} $	total energy, J	$ k $	thermal conductivity, W/m · K
$ Ec $	Eckert number	$ k_B $	Boltzmann's constant, J/K
$ \dot{E}_g $	rate of energy generation, W	$ k_0 $	zero-order, homogeneous reaction rate constant, kmol/s · m ³
$ \dot{E}_{in} $	rate of energy transfer into a control volume, W	$ k_1 $	first-order, homogeneous reaction rate constant, s ⁻¹
$ \dot{E}_{out} $	rate of energy transfer out of control volume, W	$ k_1'' $	first-order, surface reaction rate constant, m/s
$ \dot{E}_{st} $	rate of increase of energy stored within a control volume, W	$ L $	length, m
$ e $	thermal internal energy per unit mass, J/kg; surface roughness, m	$ Le $	Lewis number
$ F $	force, N; fraction of blackbody radiation in a wavelength band; view factor		

CHAPTER

Introduction

1



From the study of thermodynamics, you have learned that energy can be transferred by interactions of a system with its surroundings. These interactions are called work and heat. However, thermodynamics deals with the end states of the process during which an interaction occurs and provides no information concerning the nature of the interaction or the time rate at which it occurs. The objective of this text is to extend thermodynamic analysis through the study of the *modes* of heat transfer and through the development of relations to calculate heat transfer *rates*.

In this chapter we lay the foundation for much of the material treated in the text. We do so by raising several questions: *What is heat transfer? How is heat transferred? Why is it important?* One objective is to develop an appreciation for the fundamental concepts and principles that underlie heat transfer processes. A second objective is to illustrate the manner in which a knowledge of heat transfer may be used with the first law of thermodynamics (*conservation of energy*) to solve problems relevant to technology and society.

1.1 What and How?

A simple, yet general, definition provides sufficient response to the question: What is heat transfer?

Heat transfer (or heat) is thermal energy in transit due to a spatial temperature difference.

Whenever a temperature difference exists in a medium or between media, heat transfer must occur.

As shown in Figure 1.1, we refer to different types of heat transfer processes as *modes*. When a temperature gradient exists in a stationary medium, which may be a solid or a fluid, we use the term *conduction* to refer to the heat transfer that will occur across the medium. In contrast, the term *convection* refers to heat transfer that will occur between a surface and a moving fluid when they are at different temperatures. The third mode of heat transfer is termed *thermal radiation*. All surfaces of finite temperature emit energy in the form of electromagnetic waves. Hence, in the absence of an intervening medium, there is net heat transfer by radiation between two surfaces at different temperatures.

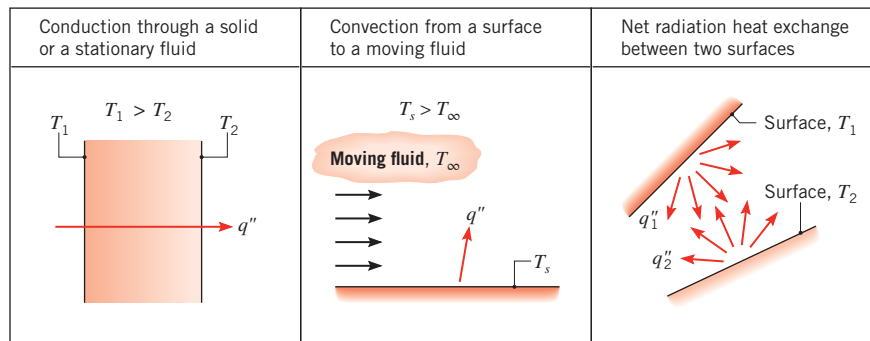


FIGURE 1.1 Conduction, convection, and radiation heat transfer modes.

1.2 Physical Origins and Rate Equations

As engineers, it is important that we understand the *physical mechanisms* which underlie the heat transfer modes and that we be able to use the rate equations that quantify the amount of energy being transferred per unit time.

1.2.1 Conduction

At mention of the word *conduction*, we should immediately conjure up concepts of *atomic* and *molecular activity* because processes at these levels sustain this mode of heat transfer. Conduction may be viewed as the transfer of energy from the more energetic to the less energetic particles of a substance due to interactions between the particles.

The physical mechanism of conduction is most easily explained by considering a gas and using ideas familiar from your thermodynamics background. Consider a gas in which a temperature gradient exists, and assume that there is *no bulk, or macroscopic, motion*. The gas may occupy the space between two surfaces that are maintained at different temperatures, as shown in Figure 1.2. We associate the temperature at any point with the energy of gas molecules in proximity to the point. This energy is related to the random translational motion, as well as to the internal rotational and vibrational motions, of the molecules.

Higher temperatures are associated with higher molecular energies. When neighboring molecules collide, as they are constantly doing, a transfer of energy from the more energetic to the less energetic molecules must occur. In the presence of a temperature gradient, energy transfer by conduction must then occur in the direction of decreasing temperature. This would be true even in the absence of collisions, as is evident from Figure 1.2. The hypothetical plane at x_o is constantly being crossed by molecules from above and below due to their *random* motion. However, molecules from above are associated with a higher temperature than those from below, in which case there must be a *net* transfer of energy in the positive x -direction. Collisions between molecules enhance this energy transfer. We may speak of the net transfer of energy by random molecular motion as a *diffusion* of energy.

The situation is much the same in liquids, although the molecules are more closely spaced and the molecular interactions are stronger and more frequent. Similarly, in a solid, conduction may be attributed to atomic activity in the form of lattice vibrations. The modern

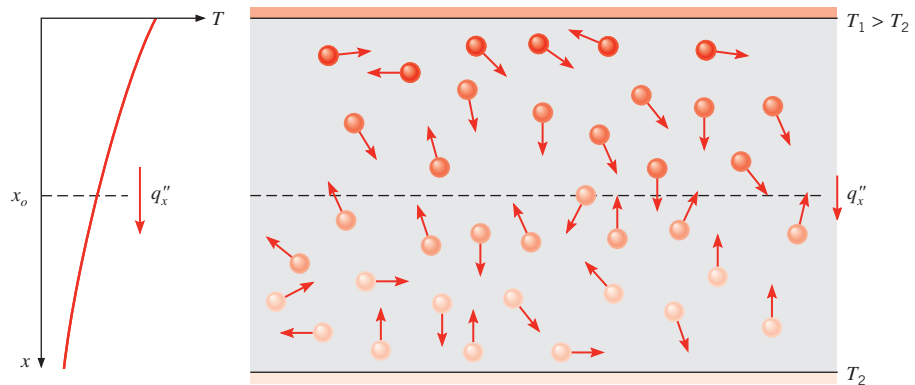


FIGURE 1.2 Association of conduction heat transfer with diffusion of energy due to molecular activity.

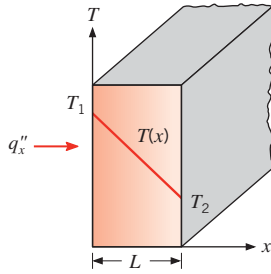


FIGURE 1.3 One-dimensional heat transfer by conduction (diffusion of energy).

view is to ascribe the energy transfer to *lattice waves* induced by atomic motion. In an electrical nonconductor, the energy transfer is exclusively via these lattice waves; in a conductor, it is also due to the translational motion of the free electrons. We treat the important properties associated with conduction phenomena in Chapter 2 and in Appendix A.

Examples of conduction heat transfer are legion. The exposed end of a metal spoon suddenly immersed in a cup of hot coffee is eventually warmed due to the conduction of energy through the spoon. On a winter day, there is significant energy loss from a heated room to the outside air. This loss is principally due to conduction heat transfer through the wall that separates the room air from the outside air.

Heat transfer processes can be quantified in terms of appropriate *rate equations*. These equations may be used to compute the amount of energy being transferred per unit time. For heat conduction, the rate equation is known as *Fourier's law*. For the one-dimensional plane wall shown in Figure 1.3, having a temperature distribution $T(x)$, the rate equation is expressed as

$$q_x'' = -k \frac{dT}{dx} \quad (1.1)$$

The *heat flux* q_x'' (W/m^2) is the heat transfer rate in the x -direction *per unit area perpendicular* to the direction of transfer, and it is proportional to the *temperature gradient*, dT/dx , in this direction. The parameter k is a *transport* property known as the *thermal conductivity* ($\text{W}/\text{m} \cdot \text{K}$) and is a characteristic of the wall material. The minus sign is a consequence of the fact that heat is transferred in the direction of decreasing temperature. Under the *steady-state conditions* shown in Figure 1.3, where the temperature distribution is *linear*, the temperature gradient may be expressed as

$$\frac{dT}{dx} = \frac{T_2 - T_1}{L}$$

and the heat flux is then

$$q_x'' = -k \frac{T_2 - T_1}{L}$$

or

$$q_x'' = k \frac{T_1 - T_2}{L} = k \frac{\Delta T}{L} \quad (1.2)$$

Note that this equation provides a *heat flux*, that is, the rate of heat transfer *per unit area*. The *heat rate* by conduction, q_x (W), through a plane wall of area A is then the product of the flux and the area, $q_x = q_x'' \cdot A$.

IHT* EXAMPLE 1.1

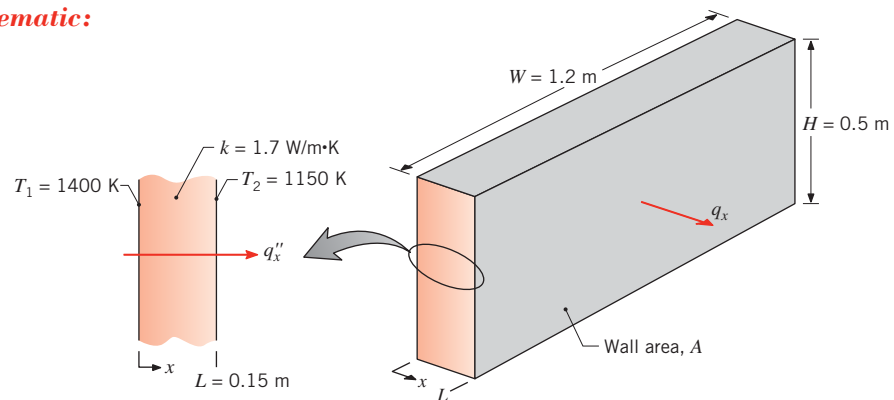
The wall of an industrial furnace is constructed from 0.15-m-thick fireclay brick having a thermal conductivity of $1.7 \text{ W/m} \cdot \text{K}$. Measurements made during steady-state operation reveal temperatures of 1400 and 1150 K at the inner and outer surfaces, respectively. What is the rate of heat loss through a wall that is $0.5 \text{ m} \times 1.2 \text{ m}$ on a side?

SOLUTION

Known: Steady-state conditions with prescribed wall thickness, area, thermal conductivity, and surface temperatures.

Find: Rate of heat loss through wall.

Schematic:



Assumptions:

1. Steady-state conditions.
2. One-dimensional conduction through the wall.
3. Constant thermal conductivity.

Analysis: Since heat transfer through the wall is by conduction, the heat flux may be determined from Fourier's law. Using Equation 1.2, we have

$$q_x'' = k \frac{\Delta T}{L} = 1.7 \text{ W/m} \cdot \text{K} \times \frac{250 \text{ K}}{0.15 \text{ m}} = 2833 \text{ W/m}^2$$

The heat flux represents the rate of heat transfer through a section of unit area, and it is uniform (invariant) across the surface of the wall. The rate of heat loss through the wall of area $A = H \times W$ is then

$$q_x = (HW)q_x'' = (0.5 \text{ m} \times 1.2 \text{ m})2833 \text{ W/m}^2 = 1700 \text{ W} \quad \triangleleft$$

Comments: Note the direction of heat flow and the distinction between heat flux and heat rate.

*This icon identifies examples that are available in tutorial form in the *Interactive Heat Transfer (IHT)* software that accompanies the text. Each tutorial is brief and illustrates a basic function of the software. *IHT* can be used to solve simultaneous equations, perform parameter sensitivity studies, and graph the results. Use of *IHT* will reduce the time spent solving more complex end-of-chapter problems.

1.2.2 Convection

The convection heat transfer *mode* is comprised of *two mechanisms*. In addition to energy transfer due to *random molecular motion (diffusion)*, energy is also transferred by the *bulk, or macroscopic, motion* of the fluid. This fluid motion is associated with the fact that, at any instant, large numbers of molecules are moving collectively or as aggregates. Such motion, in the presence of a temperature gradient, contributes to heat transfer. Because the molecules in the aggregate retain their random motion, the total heat transfer is then due to a superposition of energy transport by the random motion of the molecules and by the bulk motion of the fluid. The term *convection* is customarily used when referring to this cumulative transport, and the term *advection* refers to transport due to bulk fluid motion alone.

We are especially interested in convection heat transfer between a fluid in motion and a bounding surface when the two are at different temperatures. Consider fluid flow over the hot surface of Figure 1.4. A consequence of the fluid–surface interaction is the development of a region in the fluid through which the velocity varies from zero at the surface to a finite value u_∞ associated with the flow. This region of the fluid is known as the *hydrodynamic, or velocity, boundary layer*. Moreover, if the surface and flow temperatures differ, there will be a region of the fluid through which the temperature varies from T_s at $y = 0$ to T_∞ in the outer flow. This region, called the *thermal boundary layer*, may be smaller, larger, or the same size as that through which the velocity varies. In any case, if $T_s > T_\infty$, convection heat transfer will occur from the surface to the outer flow.

The convection heat transfer mode is sustained both by random molecular motion and by the bulk motion of the fluid within the boundary layer. The contribution due to random molecular motion (diffusion) dominates near the surface where the fluid velocity is low. In fact, at the interface between the surface and the fluid ($y = 0$), the fluid velocity is zero, and heat is transferred by this mechanism only. The contribution due to bulk fluid motion originates from the fact that the boundary layer *grows* as the flow progresses in the x -direction. In effect, the heat that is conducted into this layer is swept downstream and is eventually transferred to the fluid outside the boundary layer. Appreciation of boundary layer phenomena is essential to understanding convection heat transfer. For this reason, the discipline of fluid mechanics will play a vital role in our later analysis of convection.

Convection heat transfer may be classified according to the nature of the flow. We speak of *forced convection* when the flow is caused by external means, such as by a fan, a pump, or atmospheric winds. As an example, consider the use of a fan to provide forced convection air cooling of hot electrical components on a stack of printed circuit boards (Figure 1.5a). In contrast, for *free (or natural) convection*, the flow is induced by buoyancy forces, which are due to density differences caused by temperature variations in the fluid. An example is the free convection heat transfer that occurs from hot components on

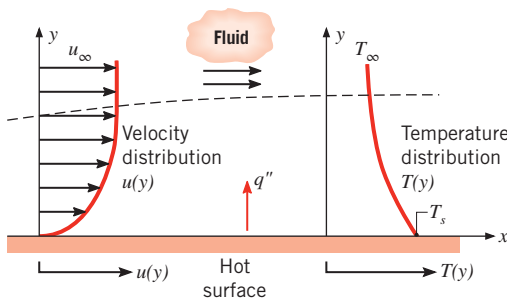


FIGURE 1.4 Boundary layer development in convection heat transfer.

a vertical array of circuit boards in air (Figure 1.5*b*). Air that makes contact with the components experiences an increase in temperature and hence a reduction in density. Since it is now lighter than the surrounding air, buoyancy forces induce a vertical motion for which warm air ascending from the boards is replaced by an inflow of cooler ambient air.

While we have presumed *pure* forced convection in Figure 1.5*a* and *pure* natural convection in Figure 1.5*b*, conditions corresponding to *mixed (combined) forced and natural convection* may exist. For example, if velocities associated with the flow of Figure 1.5*a* are small and/or buoyancy forces are large, a secondary flow that is comparable to the imposed forced flow could be induced. In this case, the buoyancy-induced flow would be normal to the forced flow and could have a significant effect on convection heat transfer from the components. In Figure 1.5*b*, mixed convection would result if a fan were used to force air upward between the circuit boards, thereby assisting the buoyancy flow, or downward, thereby opposing the buoyancy flow.

We have described the convection heat transfer mode as energy transfer occurring within a fluid due to the combined effects of conduction and bulk fluid motion. Typically, the energy that is being transferred is the *sensible*, or internal thermal, energy of the fluid. However, for some convection processes, there is, in addition, *latent* heat exchange. This latent heat exchange is generally associated with a phase change between the liquid and vapor states of the fluid. Two special cases of interest in this text are *boiling* and *condensation*. For example, convection heat transfer results from fluid motion induced by vapor bubbles generated at the bottom of a pan of boiling water (Figure 1.5*c*) or by the condensation of water vapor on the outer surface of a cold water pipe (Figure 1.5*d*).

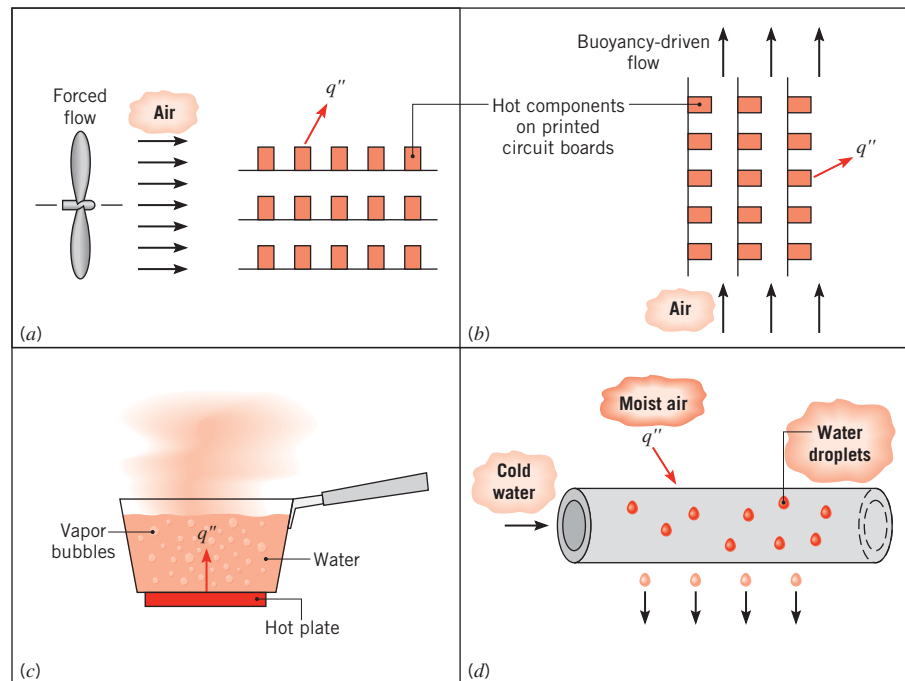


FIGURE 1.5 Convection heat transfer processes. (a) Forced convection. (b) Natural convection. (c) Boiling. (d) Condensation.

TABLE 1.1 Typical values of the convection heat transfer coefficient

Process	h (W/m ² · K)
Free convection	
Gases	2–25
Liquids	50–1000
Forced convection	
Gases	25–250
Liquids	100–20,000
Convection with phase change	
Boiling or condensation	2500–100,000

Regardless of the nature of the convection heat transfer process, the appropriate rate equation is of the form

$$q'' = h(T_s - T_\infty) \quad (1.3a)$$

where q'' , the convective *heat flux* (W/m²), is proportional to the difference between the surface and fluid temperatures, T_s and T_∞ , respectively. This expression is known as *Newton's law of cooling*, and the parameter h (W/m² · K) is termed the *convection heat transfer coefficient*. This coefficient depends on conditions in the boundary layer, which are influenced by surface geometry, the nature of the fluid motion, and an assortment of fluid thermodynamic and transport properties.

Any study of convection ultimately reduces to a study of the means by which h may be determined. Although consideration of these means is deferred to Chapter 6, convection heat transfer will frequently appear as a boundary condition in the solution of conduction problems (Chapters 2 through 5). In the solution of such problems we presume h to be known, using typical values given in Table 1.1.

When Equation 1.3a is used, the convection heat flux is presumed to be *positive* if heat is transferred *from* the surface ($T_s > T_\infty$) and *negative* if heat is transferred *to* the surface ($T_\infty > T_s$). However, nothing precludes us from expressing Newton's law of cooling as

$$q'' = h(T_\infty - T_s) \quad (1.3b)$$

in which case heat transfer is positive if it is to the surface.

1.2.3 Radiation

Thermal radiation is energy *emitted* by matter that is at a nonzero temperature. Although we will focus on radiation from solid surfaces, emission may also occur from liquids and gases. Regardless of the form of matter, the emission may be attributed to changes in the electron configurations of the constituent atoms or molecules. The energy of the radiation field is transported by electromagnetic waves (or alternatively, photons). While the transfer of energy by conduction or convection requires the presence of a material medium, radiation does not. In fact, radiation transfer occurs most efficiently in a vacuum.

Consider radiation transfer processes for the surface of Figure 1.6a. Radiation that is *emitted* by the surface originates from the thermal energy of matter bounded by the surface, and the rate at which energy is released per unit area (W/m^2) is termed the surface *emissive power*, E . There is an upper limit to the emissive power, which is prescribed by the *Stefan–Boltzmann law*

$$E_b = \sigma T_s^4 \quad (1.4)$$

where T_s is the *absolute temperature* (K) of the surface and σ is the *Stefan–Boltzmann constant* ($\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}/\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4$). Such a surface is called an ideal radiator or *blackbody*.

The heat flux emitted by a real surface is less than that of a blackbody at the same temperature and is given by

$$E = \varepsilon \sigma T_s^4 \quad (1.5)$$

where ε is a radiative property of the surface termed the *emissivity*. With values in the range $0 \leq \varepsilon \leq 1$, this property provides a measure of how efficiently a surface emits energy relative to a blackbody. It depends strongly on the surface material and finish, and representative values are provided in Appendix A.

Radiation may also be *incident* on a surface from its surroundings. The radiation may originate from a special source, such as the sun, or from other surfaces to which the surface of interest is exposed. Irrespective of the source(s), we designate the rate at which all such radiation is incident on a unit area of the surface as the *irradiation* G (Figure 1.6a).

A portion, or all, of the irradiation may be *absorbed* by the surface, thereby increasing the thermal energy of the material. The rate at which radiant energy is absorbed per unit surface area may be evaluated from knowledge of a surface radiative property termed the *absorptivity* α . That is,

$$G_{\text{abs}} = \alpha G \quad (1.6)$$

where $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$. If $\alpha < 1$ and the surface is *opaque*, portions of the irradiation are *reflected*. If the surface is *semitransparent*, portions of the irradiation may also be *transmitted*. However, whereas absorbed and emitted radiation increase and reduce, respectively, the thermal energy of matter, reflected and transmitted radiation have no effect on this

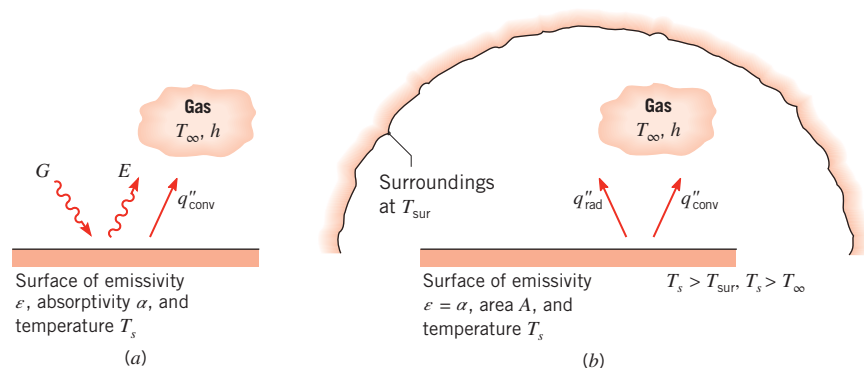


FIGURE 1.6 Radiation exchange: (a) at a surface and (b) between a surface and large surroundings.

energy. Note that the value of α depends on the nature of the irradiation, as well as on the surface itself. For example, the absorptivity of a surface to solar radiation may differ from its absorptivity to radiation emitted by the walls of a furnace.

In many engineering problems (a notable exception being problems involving solar radiation or radiation from other very high temperature sources), liquids can be considered opaque to radiation heat transfer, and gases can be considered transparent to it. Solids can be opaque (as is the case for metals) or *semitransparent* (as is the case for thin sheets of some polymers and some semiconducting materials).

A special case that occurs frequently involves radiation exchange between a small surface at T_s and a much larger, isothermal surface that completely surrounds the smaller one (Figure 1.6*b*). The *surroundings* could, for example, be the walls of a room or a furnace whose temperature T_{sur} differs from that of an enclosed surface ($T_{\text{sur}} \neq T_s$). We will show in Chapter 12 that, for such a condition, the irradiation may be approximated by emission from a blackbody at T_{sur} , in which case $G = \sigma T_{\text{sur}}^4$. If the surface is assumed to be one for which $\alpha = \varepsilon$ (a *gray surface*), the *net* rate of radiation heat transfer *from* the surface, expressed per unit area of the surface, is

$$q''_{\text{rad}} = \frac{q}{A} = \varepsilon E_b(T_s) - \alpha G = \varepsilon \sigma (T_s^4 - T_{\text{sur}}^4) \quad (1.7)$$

This expression provides the difference between thermal energy that is released due to radiation emission and that gained due to radiation absorption.

For many applications, it is convenient to express the net radiation heat exchange in the form

$$q_{\text{rad}} = h_r A (T_s - T_{\text{sur}}) \quad (1.8)$$

where, from Equation 1.7, the *radiation heat transfer coefficient* h_r is

$$h_r \equiv \varepsilon \sigma (T_s + T_{\text{sur}})(T_s^2 + T_{\text{sur}}^2) \quad (1.9)$$

Here we have modeled the radiation mode in a manner similar to convection. In this sense we have *linearized* the radiation rate equation, making the heat rate proportional to a temperature difference rather than to the difference between two temperatures to the fourth power. Note, however, that h_r depends strongly on temperature, whereas the temperature dependence of the convection heat transfer coefficient h is generally weak.

The surfaces of Figure 1.6 may also simultaneously transfer heat by convection to an adjoining gas. For the conditions of Figure 1.6*b*, the total rate of heat transfer *from* the surface is then

$$q = q_{\text{conv}} + q_{\text{rad}} = hA(T_s - T_{\infty}) + \varepsilon A \sigma (T_s^4 - T_{\text{sur}}^4) \quad (1.10)$$

EXAMPLE 1.2

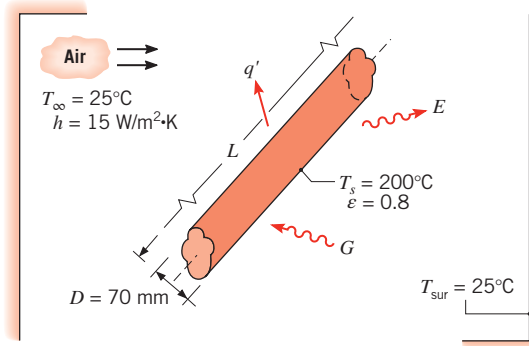
An uninsulated steam pipe passes through a room in which the air and walls are at 25°C. The outside diameter of the pipe is 70 mm, and its surface temperature and emissivity are 200°C and 0.8, respectively. What are the surface emissive power and irradiation? If the coefficient associated with free convection heat transfer from the surface to the air is 15 W/m² · K, what is the rate of heat loss from the surface per unit length of pipe?

SOLUTION

Known: Uninsulated pipe of prescribed diameter, emissivity, and surface temperature in a room with fixed wall and air temperatures.

Find:

1. Surface emissive power and irradiation.
2. Rate of heat loss from pipe per unit length, q' .

Schematic:**Assumptions:**

1. Steady-state conditions.
2. Radiation exchange between the pipe and the room is between a small surface and a much larger enclosure.
3. The surface emissivity and absorptivity are equal.

Analysis:

1. The surface emissive power may be evaluated from Equation 1.5, while the irradiation corresponds to $G = \sigma T_{\text{sur}}^4$. Hence

$$E = \epsilon \sigma T_s^4 = 0.8(5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4)(473 \text{ K})^4 = 2270 \text{ W/m}^2 \quad \triangleleft$$

$$G = \sigma T_{\text{sur}}^4 = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4(298 \text{ K})^4 = 447 \text{ W/m}^2 \quad \triangleleft$$

2. Heat loss from the pipe is by convection to the room air and by radiation exchange with the walls. Hence, $q = q_{\text{conv}} + q_{\text{rad}}$ and from Equation 1.10, with $A = \pi DL$,

$$q = h(\pi DL)(T_s - T_\infty) + \epsilon(\pi DL)\sigma(T_s^4 - T_{\text{sur}}^4)$$

The rate of heat loss per unit length of pipe is then

$$q' = \frac{q}{L} = 15 \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}(\pi \times 0.07 \text{ m})(200 - 25)^\circ\text{C} \\ + 0.8(\pi \times 0.07 \text{ m}) 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}^4(473^4 - 298^4)\text{K}^4$$

$$q' = 577 \text{ W/m} + 421 \text{ W/m} = 998 \text{ W/m} \quad \triangleleft$$

Comments:

1. Note that temperature may be expressed in units of °C or K when evaluating the temperature difference for a convection (or conduction) heat transfer rate. However, temperature must be expressed in kelvins (K) when evaluating a radiation transfer rate.
2. The net rate of radiation heat transfer from the pipe may be expressed as

$$q'_{\text{rad}} = \pi D(E - \alpha G)$$

$$q'_{\text{rad}} = \pi \times 0.07 \text{ m} (2270 - 0.8 \times 447) \text{ W/m}^2 = 421 \text{ W/m}$$

3. In this situation, the radiation and convection heat transfer rates are comparable because T_s is large compared to T_{sur} and the coefficient associated with free convection is small. For more moderate values of T_s and the larger values of h associated with forced convection, the effect of radiation may often be neglected. The radiation heat transfer coefficient may be computed from Equation 1.9. For the conditions of this problem, its value is $h_r = 11 \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{K}$.

1.2.4 The Thermal Resistance Concept

The three modes of heat transfer were introduced in the preceding sections. As is evident from Equations 1.2, 1.3, and 1.8, the heat transfer rate can be expressed in the form

$$q = q''A = \frac{\Delta T}{R_t} \quad (1.11)$$

where ΔT is a relevant temperature difference and A is the area normal to the direction of heat transfer. The quantity R_t is called a *thermal resistance* and takes different forms for the three different modes of heat transfer. For example, Equation 1.2 may be multiplied by the area A and rewritten as $q_x = \Delta T/R_{t,\text{cond}}$, where $R_{t,\text{cond}} = L/kA$ is a thermal resistance associated with conduction, having the units K/W. The thermal resistance concept will be considered in detail in Chapter 3 and will be seen to have great utility in solving complex heat transfer problems.

1.3 Relationship to Thermodynamics

If you have taken a thermodynamics course, you are aware that heat exchange plays a vital role in the first and second laws of thermodynamics because it is a primary mechanism for energy transfer between a system and its surroundings. While thermodynamics may be used to determine the *amount* of energy required in the form of heat for a system to pass from one state to another, it considers neither the mechanisms that provide for heat exchange nor the methods that exist for computing the *rate* of heat exchange. The discipline of heat transfer specifically seeks to quantify the rate at which heat is exchanged through the rate equations expressed, for example, by Equations 1.2, 1.3, and 1.7. Indeed, heat transfer principles enable the engineer to implement the concepts of thermodynamics. For example, the size of a power plant to be constructed cannot be determined from thermodynamics alone; the principles of heat transfer must also be invoked at the design stage.

This section considers the relationship of heat transfer to thermodynamics. Since the *first law* of thermodynamics (the *law of conservation of energy*) provides a useful, often essential, starting point for the solution of heat transfer problems, Section 1.3.1 will provide a development of the general formulations of the first law. The ideal (Carnot) efficiency of a *heat engine*, as determined by the *second law* of thermodynamics, will be reviewed in Section 1.3.2. It will be shown that a realistic description of the heat transfer between a heat engine and its surroundings limits the actual efficiency of a heat engine.

1.3.1 Relationship to the First Law of Thermodynamics (Conservation of Energy)

The first law of thermodynamics states that the total energy of a system is conserved, where *total energy* consists of mechanical energy (which is composed of kinetic and potential energy) and internal energy, as shown schematically in Figure 1.7. Internal energy can be subdivided into thermal energy (which will be defined more carefully later) and other forms of internal energy, such as chemical and nuclear energy. Since total energy is conserved, the only way that the amount of energy in a system can change is if energy crosses its boundaries. For a *closed system* (a region of fixed mass), there are only two ways energy can cross the system boundaries: heat transfer through the boundaries and work done on or by the system. This leads to the following statement of the first law for a closed system, which is familiar if you have taken a course in thermodynamics:

$$\Delta E_{\text{st}}^{\text{tot}} = Q - W \quad (1.12a)$$

where $\Delta E_{\text{st}}^{\text{tot}}$ is the change in the total energy stored in the system, Q is the *net* heat transferred to the system, and W is the *net* work done by the system. This is schematically illustrated in Figure 1.8a.

The first law can also be applied to a *control volume* (or *open system*), a region of space bounded by a *control surface* through which mass may flow. Mass entering and leaving the control volume carries energy with it; this process, termed *energy advection*, adds a third way in which energy can cross the boundaries of a control volume. To summarize, the

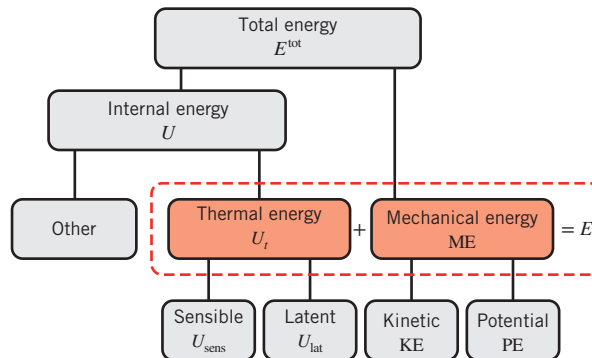


FIGURE 1.7 The components of total energy. The sum of thermal and mechanical energy, E , is of interest in the field of heat transfer.

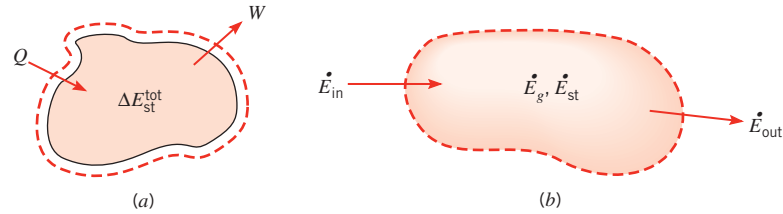


FIGURE 1.8 Conservation of: (a) total energy for a closed system over a time interval and (b) thermal and mechanical energy for a control volume at an instant.

first law of thermodynamics can be simply stated as follows for both a control volume and a closed system:

1. Conservation of Total Energy: First Law of Thermodynamics over a Time Interval (Δt)

The increase in the amount of energy stored in a control volume must equal the amount of energy that enters the control volume, minus the amount of energy that leaves the control volume.

As engineers, we often focus our attention on the thermal and mechanical forms of energy. We must recognize that the sum of thermal and mechanical energy is *not* conserved, because conversion can occur between other forms of energy and thermal or mechanical energy. For example, during combustion the amount of chemical energy in the system will decrease and the amount of thermal energy in the system will increase. If an electric motor operates within the system, it will cause conversion from electrical to mechanical energy. We can think of such energy conversions as resulting in *thermal or mechanical energy generation* (which can be either positive or negative). So a statement of the first law that is well suited for heat transfer analysis is:

2. Conservation of Thermal and Mechanical Energy over a Time Interval (Δt)

The increase in the amount of thermal and mechanical energy stored in a control volume must equal the amount of thermal and mechanical energy that enters the control volume, minus the amount of thermal and mechanical energy that leaves the control volume, plus the amount of thermal and mechanical energy that is generated within the control volume.

This expression applies over a time interval Δt , and all the energy terms are measured in joules. Since the first law must be satisfied at every *instant* of time t , we can also formulate the law on a *rate basis*. That is, at any instant, there must be a balance between all *energy rates*, as measured in joules per second (W). In words, this is expressed as:

3. Conservation of Thermal and Mechanical Energy at an Instant (t)

The rate of increase of thermal and mechanical energy stored in a control volume must equal the rate at which thermal and mechanical energy enters the control volume, minus the rate at which thermal and mechanical energy leaves the control volume, plus the rate at which thermal and mechanical energy is generated within the control volume.

If the inflow and generation of thermal and mechanical energy exceed the outflow, the amount of thermal and mechanical energy stored (accumulated) in the control volume must increase. If the outflow of thermal and mechanical energy exceeds the generation and inflow, the amount of stored thermal and mechanical energy in the control volume must decrease. If the inflow and generation equal the outflow, a *steady-state* condition must prevail such that there will be no change in the amount of thermal and mechanical energy stored in the control volume.

We will now rewrite the two boxed conservation of thermal and mechanical energy statements as equations. To do so, we let E stand for the sum of thermal and mechanical energy (in contrast to the symbol E^{tot} for total energy and as shown in Figure 1.7). The change in thermal and mechanical energy stored over the time interval Δt is then ΔE_{st} . The subscripts *in* and *out* refer to energy entering and leaving the control volume. Finally, thermal and mechanical energy generation is given the symbol E_g . Thus, boxed conservation statement 2 can be written as:

$$\Delta E_{\text{st}} = E_{\text{in}} - E_{\text{out}} + E_g \quad (1.12b)$$

Next, using a dot over a term to indicate a rate, boxed conservation statement 3 becomes:

$$\dot{E}_{\text{st}} \equiv \frac{dE_{\text{st}}}{dt} = \dot{E}_{\text{in}} - \dot{E}_{\text{out}} + \dot{E}_g \quad (1.12c)$$

This expression is illustrated schematically in Figure 1.8b.

Every application of the first law must begin with the identification of an appropriate control volume and its control surface, to which an analysis is subsequently applied. The first step is to indicate the control surface by drawing a dashed line. The second step is to decide whether to perform the analysis for a time interval Δt (Equation 1.12b) or on a rate basis (Equation 1.12c). This choice depends on the objective of the solution and on how information is given in the problem. The next step is to identify the energy terms that are relevant in the problem you are solving. To develop your confidence in taking this last step, the remainder of this section is devoted to clarifying the terms in the thermal and mechanical energy equations, Equations 1.12b and 1.12c.

Thermal and Mechanical Energy, E As noted earlier, *mechanical energy* is the sum of kinetic energy ($\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mV^2$, where m and V are mass and velocity, respectively) and potential energy ($\text{PE} = mgz$, where g is the gravitational acceleration and z is the vertical coordinate).

As shown in Figure 1.7, *thermal energy* consists of a *sensible component* U_{sens} , which accounts for translational, rotational, and/or vibrational motion of the atoms/molecules comprising the matter and a *latent component* U_{lat} , which relates to intermolecular forces influencing phase change between solid, liquid, and vapor states. The sensible energy is the portion associated mainly with changes in temperature (although it can also depend on pressure). The latent energy is the component associated with changes in phase. For example, if the material in the control volume increases in temperature, its sensible energy increases. If the material in the control volume changes from solid to liquid (*melting*) or from liquid to vapor (*vaporization, evaporation, boiling*), the latent energy increases. Conversely, if the phase change is from vapor to liquid (*condensation*) or from liquid to solid (*solidification, freezing*), the latent energy decreases.

Index

NOTE: Page references preceded by a “W” refer to pages that are located on the Web site www.wiley.com/go/global/incropera. Page numbers followed by “n” refer to footnotes on the page.

A

- Absolute species flux, 855–858
- Absolute temperature, 9
- Absorption:
 - gaseous, 821–825
 - volumetric, 820–821
- Absorptivity, 9, 736–737
 - solar, representative values (table), 758
 - solar properties (table), 926
- Accommodation coefficient:
 - momentum, 342n, 510–511
 - thermal, 175, 344n, 510
- Adiabatic surfaces, 83, 210, 226
- Adiabats, 210
 - plotting, W1–W2
- Advection, 13, W25, 342, 345, 360, 362, 856, 859
 - definition of, 6
- American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME), on SI units, 33
- Analogies:
 - Chilton–Colburn, 382
 - heat and mass transfer, 375–378, 850, 863, 882
 - heat diffusion and electrical charge, 102–103
 - Reynolds analogy, 381–382
- Angle:
 - azimuthal, 708
 - plane, 707
 - solid, 707
 - zenith, 708, 753
- Annular fins, 144–145, 156, 158, 627
- Azimuthal angle, 708

B

- Band emission, 719–722
- Beer’s law, 821
- Bessel equations, modified, 156–157
- Bessel functions:
 - of the first kind (table), 933
 - modified, of the first and second kinds (table), 934
- Binary diffusion coefficients, 345, 853
 - at one atmosphere (table), 922
- Bioheat equation, 163–167
- Biot number, 257–258, 373, 882
- Blackbodies:
 - concept of, 716–717
 - definition of, 9
- Blackbody radiation, 9, 716–726
 - and band emission, 719–726
 - and Kirchhoff’s law, 744–745
 - Planck distribution and, 717–718
 - radiation exchange, 796–800
 - and the Stefan-Boltzmann law, 718–719
 - and Wien’s displacement law, 718
- Body forces, W26, 540, 945
- Boiling, 7, 8, 15, 595–615
 - convection coefficients, typical (table), 8
 - dimensionless parameters in, 596–597
 - forced convection, 597, 611–615
 - two-phase flow in, 612–615
 - modes of, 597
 - pool boiling, *see* Pool boiling
 - saturated and subcooled, 597
- Boiling crisis, 602
- Boiling curve, in pool boiling, 598–599
- Boltzmann constant, 717
- Bond number, 373, 597
- Boundary conditions, 82–85
 - adiabatic, 83
 - catalytic surface, 876–878
 - Dirichlet, 82
 - discontinuous, 870–872
 - of the first kind, 82, 936
 - mass diffusion and, 870–878
 - Neumann, 82
 - of the second kind, 82, 139, 937–938
 - of the third kind, 83, 139, 937–938
- Boundary layer(s), 342–383, 396–430
 - approximations, 359–360
 - concentration boundary layer, 345–346
 - dimensionless parameters in, 362–367, 372–374, 544–545
 - equations, 358–371, 542–544, 947–949, 951–954
 - evaporative cooling, 378–381
 - heat and mass transfer analogy, 375–378
 - hydrodynamic, 6
 - laminar and turbulent flow, 353–355

- Boundary layer(s) (*continued*)
 mixed conditions in external flow, 406–407
 normalized equations, 362–367
 similarity parameters, 363–367
 Reynolds analogy, 381–382
 separation, 417–419, 427
 significance of, 346
 thermal boundary layer, 6, 343–344
 velocity boundary layer, 342–343
- Boundary resistance, thermal, 176–177
- Boussinesq approximation, 543
- Bulk temperature, 476–477
- Buoyancy forces, 6–7, 540, 596
- Buoyant jets, 541–542
- Burnout point, 602
- C**
- Carnot efficiency, 29–31
- Catalytic surface reactions, 876–878
- Celsius temperature scale, 34
- Characteristic length, 218, 259, 362
- Chemical component, of internal energy, 16
- Chemical reactions, 876–881
- Chilton-Colburn analogies, 382
- Circular tubes, *see* Tubes
- Coefficient of friction, *see* Friction coefficient
- Coiled tubes, 508–510
- Colburn j factors, 374, 382
- Cold plates, 85
- Columns, evaporation in, 858–863
- Compact heat exchangers, W44–W49, 648, 679
- Complementary error function, 288, 931n
- Composite wall heat transfer, 103–105
- Compressible flow, 362
- Concentration boundary layer, 345–346
 and laminar or turbulent flow, 355
- Concentration entry length, 515
- Concentration penetration depth, 886
- Concentric tube annulus, 505–507
- Concentric tube heat exchangers, 646
- Condensation, 7, 8, 15, 615–633
 convection coefficients, typical (table), 8
 dimensionless parameters in, 596–597
 dropwise, 632
 film
 laminar, 617–621
 on radial systems, 626–630
 turbulent, 621–623
 in horizontal tubes, 631–632
 mechanisms of, 615–617
 types of, 616
- Conduction, 2–5, 43
 analysis methods, 100–102, 121–124
 and boundary/initial conditions, 82–85
 definition of, 2
 and Fourier's law, 4, 60–62, 78–79
 and heat diffusion equation, 74–81
 micro- and nanoscale effects, 64–67, 68–69, 82, 175–176
 one-dimensional steady-state, *see* One-dimensional steady-state conduction
 rate equation, 4, 42
 shape factors, W3–W5, 215–220
 in surface energy balance, 24–28
 with thermal energy generation, *see* Thermal energy generation, conduction with
 and thermophysical properties of matter, 62–74
 transient, *see* Transient conduction
 two-dimensional steady-state, *see* Two-dimensional steady-state conduction
- Conduction rate equation (Fourier's law), 4, 60–62, 78–79
- Conduction shape factor(s), W3–W5, 215–220
 for selected systems (table), 216–217
- Configuration factor(s), view factor, 786–796
- Confinement number, 605, 614–615
- Conservation of energy, W29–W31, 13–28, 75–76
 application methodology, 28
 for control volumes, 13–28, W29–W31, 359–362, 945–946
 equations, 14–17
 surface energy balance, 24–25
- Conservation of mass, W25–W26, 944
- Conservation of species, W32–W33
 and boundary layer equations, 359–362
 for nonstationary media, 946
 for stationary media, 863–870
- Constriction resistance, 632
- Contact resistance, 105–107, 108
- Continuity equation, W26
- Control surface, 13
- Control volume(s):
 definition of, 13, 28
 differential, 28, 359, 864–865
- Convection, 341–383. *See also* Boiling; Condensation; External flow; Free convection; Internal flow
 boundary condition (table), 83
 boundary layers
 concentration boundary layer, 345–346
 dimensionless parameters, 362–374
 equations for, 359–371, 947–948
 evaporative cooling, 378–381
 heat and mass transfer analogy, 342, 375–378
 laminar and turbulent, 353–358
 normalized equations, 362–371
 Reynolds analogy, 381–382
 significance of, 346
 thermal boundary layer, 343–344
 velocity boundary layer, 342–343
 coefficients, 8, 344–349, 365–371
 definition of, 2
 dimensionless parameter significance, 372–374
 forced, 6–7, 363. *See also* Boiling, forced convection;
 External flow; Internal flow
 free (natural), *see* Free convection
 laminar flow and boundary layers, 353–355
 mass and heat transfer analogy, 342, 375–378
 micro- and nanoscale effects, 510–514
 mixed, 7, 545, 573–574
 problem of, 347
 rate equation, 8, 43
 in surface energy balance, 24–25
 transfer equations, W25–W36, 943–946
 turbulent flow and boundary layers, 353–355
- Convection heat transfer coefficient, 8, 344, 346–347, 366
 local and average, 346–347
- Convection mass transfer coefficient, 345–346, 347–349,
 366–367
 local and average, 347–349
- Cooling, evaporative, 378–381
- Corrected fin length, 155
- Counterflow heat exchangers, 646–647, 654–655
- Creeping flow, 427

- Critical film thickness for microscale conduction, 65–66
 Critical heat flux, 601, 604–605, 612, 615
 Cross-flow heat exchangers, W40–W44, 646–647
 Cylinder(s):
 in cross flow, 417–427
 flow considerations, 417–419
 heat and mass transfer (convection), 419–427
 free convection with
 concentric cylinders, 570–571
 long horizontal cylinder, 559–562
 one-dimensional steady-state conduction in, 125–130,
 935–940
 shape factors for, 216–217
 transient conduction in, 274–275, 277–281, 292–294
 graphical representation of, W12–W16
 summary (table), 295–296
- D**
 Dalton’s law of partial pressures, 852
 Darcy friction factor, for internal flow, 474–475
 Density, 70
 gradients, 540
 mass, 851
 Differential control volumes, 28, 75–76, 359, 864–865
 Diffuse emitters, 710, 716, 728
 Diffuse radiation, 757
 Diffuse reflectors, 716
 Diffusion:
 energy transfer by, 3, 6, W30
 mass, *see* Mass diffusion
 Diffusion-limited processes, 878
 Diffusive species flux, 855–858
 Diffusivity
 mass, 853–855
 momentum, 372
 thermal, 71, 372
 Dilute gas or liquid, 863
 Dimensionless conduction heat rate, 215–219, 291–294
 Dimensionless parameters:
 boiling and condensation, 596–597
 boundary layers, 343, 354, 362–367, 372–374
 conduction, 258–259, 272–284, 291–293
 free convection, 544–545
 of heat and mass transfer (table), 373–374
 Dimensions, 33–35
 Direct radiation, 757
 Dirichlet conditions, 82
 Discontinuous boundary conditions, 870–872
 Discretization of the heat equation:
 explicit method of, 304–311
 implicit method of, 311–317
 Dittus-Boelter equation, 496–497
 Drag coefficient, 418
 Dropwise condensation, 616–617, 632
 Dynamic viscosity, 72, 343
- E**
 Eckert number, 373
 Effective thermal conductivity, 107–109
 Effectiveness
 fin, 153
 heat exchanger, 662–663
 Effectiveness-NTU analysis method, 663–670
 definitions in, 663–665
 Efficiency:
 Carnot, 29–31
 fin, 154–161
 of heat engines, 31
 Effusivity, thermal, 287
 Eigenvalues, 274
 Electrical energy, and thermoelectric power, 167–172
 Electromagnetic spectrum, 703–704
 Electromagnetic waves, 703–704
 Emission, 702–704
 band, 719–720
 gaseous, 821–825
 and intensity, 708–713
 Emissive power, 9, 705, 709–710, 718–719
 of a blackbody, 9, 718–719
 Emissivity, 9–10
 definition of, 726n
 of real surfaces, 726–730
 representative values (table), 730
 of selected surfaces (table), 924–926
 Empirical method, 397–398
 Enclosed fluids, free convection with, 567–573
 Energy
 mechanical, 14–16
 thermal, 14–16
 total, 13–16
 Energy balance:
 atmospheric radiation, 755–757
 for internal flow, 481–488
 radiation at a surface, 705–706
 method for discretization, 223–229
 surface, 24–25
 Energy carriers, 64
 Energy generation, 14–16, 131–143, 167–174
 Energy sources, 39–41
 Energy storage, 14, 39
 Enhancement, heat transfer
 boiling, 607
 condensation, 627
 fins, 154
 internal flow, 507–510
 Enhancement surface(s), 607
 Enthalpy, and steady-flow energy equation, 16–17
 Entry length(s):
 concentration, 515
 hydrodynamic, 471
 thermal, 476
 Entry region(s):
 hydrodynamic, 470–471
 and internal flow, 494–496
 thermal and combined, 494–496
 Environmental radiation, 753–760
 atmospheric irradiation, 758
 atmospheric radiation balance, 755–757
 extraterrestrial solar, 753
 scattering, 755
 solar, 753–755
 solar constant, 753n
 spectral distributions, 753–755
 terrestrial solar irradiation, 757–758
 Error function, 287, 931
 Evaporation, 15. *See also* Boiling
 in column, 858–863
 cooling and, 378–382
 mass transfer and, 515–517, 871
 Evaporators, 596
 Excess temperature, 147, 597

- Extended surfaces, heat transfer from, 143–163
 - conduction analysis, 145–147
 - fin characteristics and parameters, 143–145
 - fin effectiveness, 153
 - fin efficiency, 154–161
 - overall surface efficiency, 159–161, 649
 - nonuniform cross-sectional area fins, 156–158
 - uniform cross-sectional area fins, 147–152
- External flow, 395–447
 - across banks of tubes, 430–438
 - cylinder in cross flow, 417–427
 - flow considerations, 417–418
 - heat and mass transfer (convection) in, 419–421
 - empirical method for, 396, 397–398
 - flat plate in parallel flow, 398–409
 - with constant heat flux conditions, 408–409
 - laminar flow, 399–405
 - with mixed boundary layer conditions, 406–407
 - turbulent flow, 405–406
 - with unheated starting length, 407–408
 - forced convection boiling, 611–612
 - free convection
 - horizontal cylinder, 559–562
 - inclined and horizontal plates, 554–559
 - over vertical plate, 551–554
 - spheres, 563–564
 - friction coefficients of, 343
 - heat transfer correlations (table), 446–447
 - impinging jet(s)
 - considerations, 439–440
 - heat and mass transfer (convection) in, 439–444
 - methodology for convection calculation, 409–410
 - over sphere, 427–430
 - packed bed(s), 444–445
 - similarity method for, 396–397, 399–405
- F**
- Fanning friction factor, 474
- Fick's law, 345, 852–853
- Film boiling, 601–602, 605–607
- Film condensation, 617–630
 - laminar, vertical plate, 617–621
 - in tubes, 631–632
 - on tubes, 626–628
 - turbulent, vertical plate, 621–623
 - wavy, 621–622
- Film temperature, 379, 398
- Film(s), thermal conductivity of, 177
- Finite control volumes, energy conservation of, 28
- Finite-difference method:
 - transient conduction
 - explicit method of discretization of the heat equation, 304–311
 - implicit method of discretization of the heat equation, 311–317
 - two-dimensional steady-state conduction, 221–236
 - energy balance method in, 223–229
 - Gauss-Seidel iteration method, W5–W9, 230, 941–942
 - heat equation form, 222–229
 - nodal network selection, 221–222
 - solving, 230–231
- Fins, 143–163
 - annular, 144–145, 156–158, 627
 - conduction analysis, 145–147
 - corrected length, 155
 - effectiveness, 153–154
 - efficiency, 154–158
 - film condensation on, 626–628
 - of nonuniform cross-sectional area, 156–158
 - overall surface efficiency, 159–161, 649–650
 - performance measures, 153–156
 - pin, 144–145
 - resistance of, 154
 - straight, 144–145, 155, 157
 - of uniform cross-sectional area, 147–152
- First law of thermodynamics, 13–28
- First-order chemical reactions, 878–881
- Flat plate:
 - boundary layers and, 342–346
 - parallel flow over, 398–409
 - with constant heat flux conditions, 408–409
 - integral boundary layer solution for, 951–954
 - laminar flow, 353–355, 399–405
 - with mixed boundary layer conditions, 406–407
 - turbulent flow over, 353–355, 405–406
 - with unheated starting length, 407–408
- Flow. *See also* External flow; Internal flow
 - compressible, 362
 - creeping, 427
 - steady, two-dimensional, W25–W36, 359, 943–946
- Flow work, 16–17
- Fluidized beds, 444
- Fluids:
 - convection and, 342
 - free convection with enclosed, 567–573
 - incompressible, 359, 944
 - nanofluid, 69, 72–74
 - Newtonian, W28n, 343
 - and problem of convection, 347
 - thermal conductivity of, 67–68
 - thermophysical properties of (table), 916–921
 - viscous, W25–W36, 943–946
- Flux-plotting method, W1–W5, 211
- Forced convection, 6–8, 363, 611–615
 - combined free and forced, 545, 573–574
 - and external flow, *see* External flow
 - and internal flow, *see* Internal flow
- Forced convection boiling, 597, 611–615
 - external, 611–612
 - two-phase flow, 612–615
 - flow regimes, 613
- Form drag, 418
- Fouling, in heat exchangers, 649–651
- Fouling factor, 649
- Fourier number, 259, 373
- Fourier's law, 4, 60–62, 78–79
- Free boundary flows, 541–542
- Free convection, 6–8, 540–542
 - applications of, 540
 - buoyancy and, 540–542
 - combined free and forced, 545, 573–574
 - dimensionless parameters for, 544–545
 - empirical correlations (table), 563–564
 - with enclosed fluids, 567–573
 - concentric cylinders, 570–571
 - concentric spheres, 571–573
 - rectangular cavities, 567–570
 - external flows, 550–564
 - horizontal cylinder, 559–562
 - inclined and horizontal plates, 554–559

spheres, 563–564
 vertical plate, 551–554
 free convection boiling, 599–600
 governing equations, 542–554
 laminar free convection on a vertical surface, 545–548
 and mass transfer, 574–575
 mixed convection, 545, 573–574
 physical considerations of, 540–542
 turbulence effects, 548–550
 within parallel plate channels, 564–567
 inclined channels, 567
 vertical channels, 565–567
 Free convection boiling, 599–600
 Free stream, 343
 Freezing, 15
 Friction coefficient, 343, 346, 365, 373, 402, 405–406, 474
 Friction drag, 418
 Friction factor, 373
 for external flow, 434–435
 for internal flow, 474–475
 Froude number, 614

G

Gas(es):
 conduction in, 3
 convection coefficients, typical (table), 8
 emission from, 702–703, 821–825
 ideal, thermal energy equations for, 16–17
 mass diffusion in, 850–851
 micro- and nanoscale convection effects, 510–514
 radiation exchange with, 820–825
 solubility of, 871–876, 923
 thermal conductivity of, 67–68
 thermal radiation and, 10
 thermophysical properties of (table), 911–918
 Gauss-Seidel iteration method, 230, 941–942
 example, W5–W9
 Gaussian error function, 287, 931
 Generation, *see* Thermal energy generation
 Graphical methods:
 for two-dimensional steady-state conduction, 211
 conduction shape factors, W3–W5
 flux-plot construction, W1–W2
 heat transfer rate determination, W2–W3
 Grashof number, 373–374, 545, 574
 Gravitational field, and pool boiling, 606
 Gray surfaces:
 radiation behavior, 746–748
 radiation exchange, 800–817
 net radiation exchange, 801–802
 radiation shields, 810–812
 reradiating surfaces, 812–817
 surface radiation exchange, 802–804
 two-surface enclosures, 808–809
 thermal radiation and, 10

H

Heat diffusion equation (heat equation), 74–82
 boundary conditions, 82–85
 finite-difference form, 222–229, 304–317
 microscale effects, 82
 Heat engines, efficiency of, 28–33
 Heat equation, *see* Heat diffusion equation
 Heat exchangers, 646–687
 compact, W44–W49, 648, 679

design problems, 670
 effectiveness (table), 664
 effectiveness-NTU analysis method, 663–670
 definitions in, 663–665
 relations, 663–667
 log mean temperature difference (LMTD) analysis, 651–661
 analysis with, 651–652
 for counterflow heat exchangers, 654–655
 for multipass and cross-flow heat exchangers, W40–W44
 for parallel-flow heat exchangers, 652–654
 NTU (table), 665
 overall heat transfer coefficient for, 648–651
 performance problems, 670
 types of, 646–648
 Heat flow lines, 210
 plotting, W1–W2
 Heat flux, 4–5, 8, 9–12, 77
 critical, 601, 604–605, 612, 615
 radiation fluxes, 705–706
 Heat rate, 4–5, 10
 Heat transfer:
 in convection, 346–347
 definition of, 2
 dimensionless groups in, 372–374
 efficiency and, 29–30
 from extended surfaces, 143–163
 conduction analysis, 145–147
 fin characteristics and parameters, 143–145
 fin effectiveness, 153–154
 fin efficiency, 154–161
 overall surface efficiency, 159–161, 649–650
 nonuniform cross-sectional area fins, 156–158
 uniform cross-sectional area fins, 147–152
 in insulation systems, 69–70
 methodology for problem-solving, 35–36, 102
 multimode, 817–819
 physical mechanisms of, 3–12
 rate determination (two-dimensional steady-state conduction), W2–W3
 relevance of, 38–42
 summary of modes (table), 43
 thermodynamics vs., 12–13
 Henry's constant, 872
 for selected gases in water (table), 923
 Henry's law, 872
 Heterogeneous chemical reactions, 876–878
 Homogeneous chemical reactions, 865, 876n, 878–881
 Hydraulic diameter, 441, 504
 Hydrodynamic boundary layers, 6. *See also* Velocity boundary layer
 Hydrodynamic considerations:
 with impinging jet(s), 439–440
 with internal flow, 470–475
 Hydrodynamic entry length, 471
 Hyperbolic functions (table), 930

I

Ideal gases, 16–17
 Impingement zones, 439–440
 Impinging jet(s):
 considerations, 439–440
 heat and mass transfer (convection) through, 440–444
 nozzle considerations, 441–444
 Incompressible fluids, 16–17, W26, W29, 359, 943–946
 Initial conditions, 82

Insulation:

- micro- and nanoscale effects, 70
- systems and types, 69–70
- thermophysical properties of (table), 906–908
- typical thermal conductivities, 63

Intensity, radiation, 707–716

Internal energy, 13, 16, W31

Internal flow, 470–519

- in circular tubes
 - convection correlations (table), 519
 - laminar flow, 489–496
 - turbulent flow, 496–504
- in coiled tubes, 508–510
- convection mass transfer, 515–516
- energy balance in, 481–488
 - with constant surface heat flux, 482–485
 - with constant surface temperature, 485–489
- general considerations, 481–482
- heat transfer enhancement in, 507–510
- hydrodynamic considerations, 470–475
 - flow conditions, 470–471
 - friction factor, 474–475
 - mean velocity, 471–472
 - velocity profile, 472–474
- micro- and nanoscale effects, 510–514
- in noncircular tubes, 504–507
- thermal considerations, 475–481
 - with fully developed conditions, 477–479
 - mean temperature, 476–477
 - Newton's law of cooling in, 477

Irradiation, 9–12, 705, 713–715, 735

Isothermal surfaces, 61

Isotherms, 61–62, 210, 215

Isotropic media, 62

- effective thermal conductivities in, 109

J

Jakob number, 374, 597

Jet(s):

- in boiling, 600–601
- buoyant, 541–542
- impinging, *see* Impinging jet(s)

Joule heating, *see* Ohmic heating**K**

Kelvin, 34

Kelvin-Planck statement, 28–29

Kinematic viscosity, 372

Kirchhoff's law, 744–745

L

Laminar boundary layer, 353–355

Laminar film condensation, 617–621

Laminar flow:

- boundary layers and equations, 353–362, 542–544
- in circular tubes, 489–496
- in noncircular tubes, 504–507
- over flat plate, 399–405

Latent component, of internal energy, 15

Latent energy, in convection, 7

Latent heat, in boiling/condensation, 596

Latent heat of fusion, 23–24

Lattice waves, conduction and, 3–4, 63–64

Leidenfrost point, 602

Length, units for, 33–34

Lewis number, 373–374

Liquid metals:

- convection coefficients for, 405, 498
- thermophysical properties of (table), 921

Liquid(s):

- conduction in, 3–4
- convection coefficients, typical (table), 8
- gas solubility in, 871–872
- mass diffusion in, 851
- microscale convection in, 511–512
- radiation from, 702–703
- thermal conductivity of, 67–69
- thermal energy equations for, 16–17
- thermal radiation and, 8, 10

Log mean temperature difference method (LMTD), 651–661

- for counterflow heat exchangers, 654–655
- for multipass and cross-flow heat exchangers, W40–W44
- for parallel-flow heat exchangers, 652–654

Longitudinal pitch, 430–436

Lumped capacitance method, 254–271

- calculations for, 255–257
- conditions for, 254–255
- general lumped capacitance analysis, 261–271
- validity of, 257–260

Lumped thermal capacitance, 256

M

Mach number, 374

Martinelli parameter, 631

Mass:

- conservation of, *see* Conservation of mass
- units for, 33–34

Mass diffusion, 849–888

- boundary conditions and discontinuous interface concentrations, 870–878
 - catalytic surface reactions, 876–878
 - evaporation and sublimation, 871–872
 - solubility of gases in liquids and solids, 871–872
- with homogeneous chemical reactions, 878–881
- mass diffusion equation, 864–866
- in nonstationary media, 855–863
 - absolute and diffusive species fluxes, 855–858
 - evaporation in column, 858–863
- physical process of, 850–851
 - Fick's law and, 852–853
 - mass diffusivity, 853–855
 - mixture composition, 851–852
- in stationary media, 863–870
 - conservation of species
 - for control volumes, 864–865
 - mass diffusion equation, 864–866
 - with specified surface concentrations, 866–870
 - stationary medium approximation, 863
 - transient diffusion, 881–887

Mass diffusion equation, 864–866

Mass diffusivity, 853–855

Mass flow rate, 16

Mass transfer by convection, 347–349

- dimensionless groups in, 372–374
- external flow, 396
 - cylinder in cross flow, 419–427
 - impinging jet(s), 439–444
 - packed bed(s), 444–445
- in free convection, 574–575
- heat transfer analogy, 375–381
- internal flow, 515–517

Matrix equation method, 230

Mean beam length, 824

Mean free path, 63, 65–67
 Mean temperature, of internal flow, 476–477
 Mean velocity, of internal flow, 471–472
 Mechanical energy, 14–16
 Melting, 15
 Mechanical energy, 14–16
 Metabolic heat generation, 163–167
 Metals and metallic solids:
 emissivity of (table), 924
 thermal conductivity of, 63–64, 68
 thermophysical properties of, 899–902, 921, 924
 Microchannels
 in boiling, 615
 in condensation, 632
 in internal flow, 510–511
 Microfluidic devices, 510
 Microscale effects:
 in conduction, 64–67, 68–69, 70, 82
 in convection, 342n, 344n
 Mie scattering, 755
 Mixed convection, 7, 545, 573–574
 Mixtures, characteristics of, 851–852
 Modes of heat transfer, definition of, 2
 Modified Bessel equations, 156–157
 Molar concentration, 851
 Momentum accommodation coefficients, 342n, 510–511
 Momentum diffusivity, 372
 Moody diagram, 474–475
 Moody friction factor, for internal flow, 474–475
 Multimode heat transfer, 817–819
 Multipass heat exchangers, W40–W44, 647

N

Nanofluid, 69, 72–74
 Nanoscale effects:
 in conduction, 64–67, 68–69, 175–176
 in convection, 342n, 344n, 512
 in radiation, 703
 Nanostructured materials, 66–67, 70
 Natural convection, *see* Free convection
 Net surface radiation exchange, 801–802
 Net radiative flux, 705–706, 716
 Neumann conditions, 82
 Newtonian fluids, W28n, 343
 Newton's law of cooling, 8, 103, 344, 477, 597
 Newton's second law of motion, W26–W29, 944–945
 Nodal network, 221–222
 Nodal points, 221–222, 304
 Noncircular tubes, *see* Tubes
 Nonmetallic materials:
 emissivity of solids (table), 925–926
 thermal conductivity of, 63–64, 68–69
 thermophysical properties of solids, 903–904
 Nonparticipating media, 786
 Nonstationary media:
 absolute and diffusive species fluxes, 855–858
 evaporation in column, 858–863
 Nuclear component, of internal energy, 16
 Nucleate boiling, 600–605
 Number of transfer units (NTU), 663
 Nusselt number, 366, 374

O

Ohmic heating, 132
 One-dimensional steady-state conduction, 99–181
 alternative analysis approach, 121–124, 130–131
 bioheat equation, 163–167

extended surfaces and, *see* Extended surface(s), heat transfer from
 nanoscale effects, 175–179
 in plane wall systems
 composite walls, 103–105
 contact resistance in, 105–107, 108
 temperature distribution, 100–102
 with thermal energy generation, 132–138
 thermal resistance in, 102–103
 within porous media, 107–109
 in radial systems, 125–131
 cylinders, 125–130
 spheres, 130–131
 with thermal energy generation, 138–143
 summary solutions (table), 132
 temperature distribution in, 4, 77
 with thermal energy generation, 131–143
 in plane wall systems, 132–138
 in radial systems, 138–143
 thermal conditions with uniform generation,
 935–940
 and thermoelectric power generation, 167–174
 uniform generation thermal conditions, 935–940
 Opaque media, 705–706, 715–716, 739–740
 Open systems, 13–17
 Ordinary diffusion, 853n
 Orthogonal functions, 213–214
 Overall heat transfer coefficient, 104, 126–127
 and heat exchangers, 648–651
 Overall surface efficiency, 159–163, 649–650

P

Packed bed(s):
 definition of, 107
 heat and mass transfer (convection) through, 444–445
 Parallel-flow heat exchangers, 646–647, 652–654
 Parallel plates, free convection with, 564–567
 Parameter sensitivity study, 36
 Participating media, 786
 radiation exchange with, 820–825
 Peclet number, 374
 Peltier effect, 168–169
 Penetration depth:
 concentration, 886
 thermal, 288
 Pennes equation, 163–167
 Perfusion, and bioheat equation, 163–167
 Phase change, 7, 15
 convection coefficients, typical (table), 8
 Phonons, 63–67
 Photons, 703
 Pin fins, 144–145
 Pitch (tubes), 430–431
 Planck constant, 717
 Planck distribution, 717–718
 Planck's law, 717–718, 761
 Plane angle, 707
 Plane wall systems:
 one-dimensional steady-state conduction in, 100–121
 composite walls, 103–105
 contact resistance in, 105–107, 108
 temperature distribution, 100–102
 with thermal energy generation, 132–138, 935–940
 thermal resistance in, 102–103
 within porous media, 107–109
 shape factors for, W4, 216
 transient conduction in, 257–259, 272–277, 292–297
 approximate solution, 274–275, 292–294

- Plane wall systems (*continued*):
 with convection, 273–277
 exact solution, 274
 graphical representation of, W13
 roots of transcendental equation for, 932
 summary (table), 295–296
- Plumes, 541–542, 595–596
- Pool boiling, 597–611
 boiling curve and, 598–599
 critical heat flux, 601
 film boiling, 600, 602, 605–607
 free convection boiling, 599–600
 Leidenfrost point, 602, 602n
 minimum heat flux, 602, 605
 nucleate boiling, 600–605
 parametric effects on, 606–607
 transition boiling, 600, 601–602
- Porous media, 107–109, 186
- Power-controlled heating, 598–599
- Prandtl number, 363, 372–375
- Problem of convection, 347
- Problems, methodology for analysis, 35–37
- Q**
- Quanta, 703
- Quasi-steady approximation, 562
- Quenching, 257
- Quiescent fluid(s), 542, 542n
- R**
- Radial systems:
 film condensation in, 626–630
 one-dimensional steady-state conduction in, 125–131
 cylinders, 125–130
 spheres, 130–131
 with thermal energy generation, 138–143
 transient conduction in, 277–284, 292–296
- Radiation. *See also* Radiation exchange
 and absorptivity, 736–737
 blackbody, *see* Blackbody radiation
 emission from real surfaces, 726–734
 environmental, *see* Environmental radiation
 gaseous, 820–825
 gray surface, *see* Gray surfaces
 heat fluxes, 705–706
 intensity, 707–716
 definitions of, 707–708
 and emission, 708–713
 and irradiation, 713–715
 and net radiative flux, 716
 and radiosity, 715–716
 and Kirchhoff's law, 744–745
 nature and properties of, 702–703
 rate equation, 10, 43
 and reflectivity, 737–738
 surface characteristics considerations, 739–740
 in surface energy balance, 24–28
 terminology glossary (table), 761
 thermal, *see* Thermal radiation
 and transmissivity, 739
- Radiation balance (atmospheric), 855–856
- Radiation exchange, 785–826
 between diffuse gray surfaces (enclosed), 800–817
 net surface radiation exchange, 801–802
 radiation shields, 810–812
 reradiating surfaces, 812–817
 surface radiation exchange, 802–804
 two-surface enclosures, 808–809
 blackbody radiation, 796–800
 gaseous, 820–825
 emission and absorption, 821–825
 volumetric absorption, 820–821
 and multimode heat transfer, 817–819
 view factors in, 786–796
 definition, 786
 for two-dimensional geometries (table), 789–790
 for three-dimensional geometries (table), 791
 view factor integral, 786–787
 view factor relations, 787–796
- Radiation heat transfer coefficient, 10
- Radiation intensity, *see* Radiation, intensity
- Radiation shields, 810–812
- Radiative resistance, 801–803
- Radiosity, 705–706, 715–716
- Raoult's law, 871
- Rate equations:
 for conduction, 4
 for convection, 8
 for radiation heat transfer, 10
 summary (table), 43
- Rayleigh number, 549
- Rayleigh scattering, 755
- Reciprocity relation, 787
- Rectangular cavities, free convection in, 567–570
- Reflection, 510, 735–736
 and reflectivity, 705
- Reflectivity, 737–738
- Reradiating surfaces, 812–817
- Resistance:
 constriction, 632
 contact, 105–107, 108
 fin, 154
 radiative, 801–803
 thermal, 12, 102–103, 126, 131
- Resistance heating, *see* Ohmic heating
- Reynolds analogy, 381–382
- Reynolds number, 354, 363–364, 372–374
- Reynolds stress, 949
- S**
- Saturated boiling, 597–598, 613
- Saturated porous media, 107–108
- Schmidt number, 363–364, 372–374
- Second law of thermodynamics, 28–33
- Seebeck effect and coefficient, 168–174
- Semi-infinite solid(s):
 transient conduction in, 284–293
 solutions summarized, 287–288
- Semitransparent media, 705, 739–740
- Sensible energy, 7, 13, 15–17, 76
- Separation of variables, method, 211–215, 273
- Separation point(s), 417–420
- Shape factors for conduction, W3–W5, 215–220
- Shear stresses, 343
- Shell-and-tube heat exchangers, W40–W44, 647
- Sherwood number, 367, 374
- Shields, radiation, 810–812
- SI (Système International d'Unités) system, 33–35
- Similarity solution(s), 400, 546
- Similarity variable(s), 285, 400

- Simplified steady-flow thermal energy equation, 17
 - Sinks (energy), 76, 168
 - Solar radiation, 752–760
 - Solid angle, 707
 - Solidification, 15
 - Solid(s):
 - conduction in, 3–4, 106–107, 176–177
 - gas solubility in, 871–876
 - mass diffusion in, 851
 - radiation from, 8–12, 702–703
 - semi-infinite, *see* Semi-infinite solid(s)
 - solubility of (table), 923
 - thermal conductivity of, 63–67
 - micro- and nanoscale effects, 64–67
 - Solubility:
 - of gases in liquids and solids, 871–876
 - of selected gases and solids (table), 923
 - Species:
 - characteristics of, 850–852
 - concentration in mass transfer, 515–517
 - conservation of, *see* Conservation of species
 - Species fluxes, 855–858
 - Specific heat, 70–71
 - Spectral absorptivity, 736
 - Spectral emission, 709
 - Spectral emissivity, 727
 - Spectral intensity, 708–709
 - Spectral irradiation, 713, 735
 - Spectral radiosity, 715
 - Spectral reflectivity, 738
 - Sphere(s):
 - dimensionless conduction heat rate for, 218–219
 - film condensation on, 626
 - free convection with, 563–564
 - concentric spheres, 571–573
 - heat and mass transfer (convection) from, 427–430
 - one-dimensional steady-state conduction in, 130–132, 935–940
 - shape factors for, 216–218
 - transient conduction in, 274–275, 277–279, 292–294
 - graphical representation of, W15–W16
 - summary (table), 295–296
 - Stagnation point(s), 417
 - Stagnation zone(s), 439–440
 - Stanton number, 374, 381–382
 - Stationary media:
 - diffusion approximation for, 863
 - mass diffusion in, 863–870
 - with specified surface concentrations, 866–870
 - Steady-state conditions, 4, 15, 16, 25, 77, 100
 - Stefan-Boltzmann constant, 9
 - Stefan-Boltzmann law, 9, 718–719
 - Stokes' law, 427
 - Straight fins, 144–145, 155
 - Stratification parameter, 614
 - Streaks, 353
 - Stresses:
 - shear, 343
 - viscous, W26–W29, 945
 - Structural building materials, thermophysical properties
 - of (table), 905
 - Subcooled boiling, 597, 606–607, 612–613
 - Sublimation, mass transfer and, 515–517, 871
 - Summation rule, 788
 - Surface energy balance, 24–28
 - Surface forces, W26–W29, 945
 - Surface friction, and boundary layers, 346
 - Surface phenomena, 16
 - radiation as, 703, 735–736
 - Surface tension, 596–597, 626
 - Surface(s):
 - radiation exchange between gray, 800–817
 - surface energy balance, 24–28
 - Surroundings, 9–10
- T**
- Temperature:
 - conduction and, 2–5
 - and efficiency, 29–30
 - excess, 147, 597
 - film, 379
 - mean, of internal flow, 476–477
 - scales, 34
 - units for, 33–34
 - Temperature distribution, 74
 - during thermal treatment, 41
 - one-dimensional steady-state conduction, 4, 100–102
 - two-dimensional steady-state conduction, 210–211, 211–215
 - Thermal accommodation coefficient, 175, 344n, 510
 - Thermal boundary layer, 6, 343–344, 346
 - and laminar or turbulent flow, 355–358
 - Thermal boundary resistance, 176–177
 - Thermal circuits, 100–105, 160–161
 - Thermal conductivity, 62–70
 - bulk solid, 64
 - conduction and, 4–5
 - effective, 108–109
 - of fluids, 67–69
 - and Fourier's law, 60–62
 - of insulation systems, 69–70
 - of porous media, 107–109
 - of solids, 63–67
 - Thermal contact resistance, 105–107, 108, 160
 - Thermal diffusivity, 71–72, 77
 - Thermal effusivity, 287
 - Thermal energy, 14–16
 - components of, 15
 - Thermal energy equation, W31
 - Thermal energy generation:
 - conduction with, 131–143, 935–940
 - bioheat, 163–167
 - in plane wall systems, 132–138
 - in radial systems, 138–143
 - Thermal entry length, 476
 - Thermal penetration depth, 288
 - Thermal radiation, 8–12
 - and boiling, 605–606
 - definition of, 2, 704
 - emission of, 702–704
 - resistance for, 103
 - Thermal resistance, 12, 102–103, 126–131
 - fouling factor, 649
 - in plane wall systems, 102–105
 - thermal contact resistance, 105–107, 108
 - Thermal time constant, 256
 - Thermodynamic properties, 70–74
 - Thermodynamics, heat transfer vs., 12–13
 - Thermoelectric power generation, 167–174

- Thermophysical properties, 70–74, 897–926
 of common materials (table), 905–910
 industrial insulation, 907–908
 insulating materials/systems, 906
 structural building materials, 905
 of gases at atmospheric pressure (table), 911–915
 of liquid metals (table), 921
 of saturated fluids (table), 916–918
 of saturated water (table), 919–920
 of selected metallic solids (table), 899–902
 of selected nonmetallic solids (table), 903–904
 of thermoelectric modules, 168
- Thermoregulation, 25–28
- Time, units for, 33–34
- Total energy, 13–16
- Transient conduction, 253–318
 coefficients for one-dimensional conduction (table), 275
 finite-difference methods for
 explicit method of discretization of the heat equation, 304–311
 implicit method of discretization of the heat equation, 311–317
 graphical representation of, W12–W16
 lumped capacitance method, 254–271
 multidimensional effects with, W16–W22
 roots of transcendental equation (plane wall), 932
 objects with constant surface heat flux, 293–294, 296
 objects with constant surface temperature, 291–293, 295
 periodic heating, 301–303
 plane wall with convection, 273–277
 solutions for, W12–W13, 274–275
 radial systems with convection, 277–284
 solutions for, W14–W16, 277–278
 in semi-infinite solids, 284–291
 solutions summarized, 287–288
 spatial effects, 272–273
- Transient diffusion, 881–887
- Transition boiling, 601–602
- Transition to turbulence, 353–355
- Transmissivity, 739–744
 solar properties (table), 926
- Transport properties, 62, 70–71
- Transverse pitch, 430–431
- Triangular fins, 157–158
- Tubes. *See also* Heat exchangers
 arrangements of, 430–432
 banks, 430–438
 boiling in, 612–615
 boiling on, 606
 circular
 convection correlations (table), 519
 laminar flow in, 489–496
 turbulent flow in, 496–504
 concentric tube annulus, 505–507
 condensation in, 631–632
 condensation on, 626–630
 in cross flow, 430–438
 configurations, 430–431
 flow conditions, 430–432
 noncircular, 504–507
 rough vs. smooth, 497–498
- Turbulent boundary layer, 353–358, 548
- Turbulent film condensation, 621–623
- Turbulent flow:
 and boundary layers, 353–358, 548–550, 947–949
 in circular tubes, 496–504
 across cylinders, 417–421
 over flat plate, 405–406
- Two-dimensional steady flow, heat and mass transfer in, W25–W36, 943–946
- Two-dimensional steady-state conduction, 209–236
 alternative approaches to, 210–211
 conduction shape factors in, W1–W5, 215–220
 dimensionless conduction heat rate in, 215–220
 finite-difference method for, 221–236
 solving, 230–236
 graphical method for
 conduction shape factors, W3–W5
 flux-plot construction, W1–W2
 heat transfer rate determination, W2–W3
 separation of variables method with, 211–215
- Two-phase flow, forced convection boiling, 611–615
- U**
- Unheated starting length, 407–408
- Unit mass, in flow work, 16
- Units:
 derived, 34
 English system, 33
 SI system, 33–35
- Unsaturated porous media, 107
- V**
- Vapor blanket, 602, 605
- Vaporization, 15
- Velocity boundary layer, 342–343, 346
 and laminar or turbulent flow, 353–55
- Velocity profile, boundary layer, 343
- Velocity profile(s), for internal flow, 471–474
- View factor(s), 786–796
 definition of, 786
 integral, 786–787
 for two-dimensional geometries (table), 789–790
 for three-dimensional geometries (table), 791
 view factor relations, 787–796
- Viscosity:
 dynamic, 72, 343
 kinematic, 70
- Viscous dissipation, W31, 945
- Viscous fluids, heat and mass transfer in, W25–W36, 943–946
- Viscous stresses, W26–W29, 945
- Void fraction, 445
- Volumetric flow rate, 16
- Volumetric heat capacity, 70
- Volumetric phenomena, 15–16
 radiation, 702–703, 735, 820–825
- Volumetric thermal expansion coefficient, 543
- W**
- Wall jet(s), 439–440
- Water, thermophysical properties of (saturated), 919–920
- Weber number, 374, 612
- Wien's displacement law, 718
- Z**
- Zenith angle, 708, 753
- Zero-order chemical reactions, 878–879

Index

A

Adiabats, W1-W2
 Advection, W25, W29
 Angular deformation, W28-W29

B

Biot number, W12
 Body forces, W26
 Boundary layers, equations for, W25-W33
 Bulk fluid motion, W29

C

Compact heat exchangers, W44 - W49
 Compressive stress(es), W27
 Conduction
 in convection, W30
 flux plot, W1-W3
 graphical method, W1-W5
 shape factors, W3-W5
 transient, W12-W22
 multidimensional, W16-W22
 one-dimensional, W12-W16
 Conservation of energy, W25, W29-W31
 Conservation of mass, W25-W26
 Conservation of species, W32-W33
 Continuity equation, W26
 Correction factor, heat exchangers, W40-W42
 Cross-flow heat exchangers, W40-W42
 Curvilinear squares, W1-W2
 Cylinder(s):
 graphical representation of transient
 conduction in, W12-W15

D

Diffusion of species in convection, W30, W32

E

Energy equation, W31
 Energy transfer rate in transient conduction,
 W13-W16

F

Flow, steady two-dimensional, W25-W36
 Flux plot, W1-W3
 Forces, surface, W26-W29
 Fourier number, W12

G

Gauss-Seidel Method, W5-W9
 Graphical method (two-dimensional steady-state
 conduction), W1-W5
 and conduction shape factors, W3-W5
 flux plot, construction of, W1-W2
 heat transfer rate, determination of, W2-
 W3

H

Heat equation, W25
 Heat exchangers, W40-W49
 compact, W44-W49
 cross-flow, W40-W42
 log mean temperature difference analysis
 of, W40-W44
 multipass, W40-W42
 pressure drop in, W46
 shell-and-tube, W40-W44
 Heat flow lanes, W2
 Heat flow lines, W1
 Heisler charts, W12-W16

I, J

Incompressible liquids, W26, W29
 Internal energy, W31
 Isotherms, W1

K

Kinetic energy, W31

L

Log mean temperature difference (LMTD)
 method for heat exchangers, W40-W44

M

Momentum flux(es), W27
 Multipass heat exchangers, W40-W42

N

Newton's second law of motion, W25, W26-
 W29
 Newtonian fluid, W28
 Normal stress(es), W-26-W28

O

One-term approximation(s), W12