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TRANSPORT PHENOMENA I

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Lec "2"

2.3 :- General molecular transport eq. for momentum, heat and mass transfer.

* each molecule have a given quantity of property associated with it.

* difference of property concentration from one region to an adjacent region $\longleftrightarrow$ net transport of the property occurs.

مثال: عند انتقال الحرارة من المنطقة الساخنة إلى المنطقة الباردة، يحدث انتقال صافي للحرارة من المنطقة ذات الحرارة العالية إلى المنطقة ذات الحرارة المنخفضة.

$\Rightarrow$ Dilute Fluid (gases) :-

- * molecule are relatively far apart.
- * rate of transport of property should be relatively fast.
- * Few molecules are present to block the transport or interact.

$\Rightarrow$ Dense Fluid (Liquids) :-

- * molecule are relatively close together.
- * transport or diffusion proceeds more slowly.

$\Rightarrow$ Solids :-

- * molecule are relatively even more close packed than in Liquid.
- * molecule migration is even more restricted.

* Rate of transfer process = $\frac{\text{driving Force}}{\text{Resistance}}$

مخرج يتم الترانسفير إلا إذا كان في قوة تغلب على المقاومة

$$\psi_z = -\delta \frac{d\Gamma}{dz}$$

$\Rightarrow \psi_z$ = Flux of property = amount of property being transferred per unit time per cross sectional area $\perp$ to the z direction of flow [=] amount of property / s.m²

$\Rightarrow \delta$ = proportionality constant = diffusivity [=] m²/s

$\Rightarrow \Gamma$ = Concentration of the property [=] amount of property / m³

$\Rightarrow z$ = distance in the direction of flow [=] m

* At steady state, ψ_z is constant

$$\psi_z \int_{z_1}^{z_2} dz = -\delta \int_{\Gamma_1}^{\Gamma_2} d\Gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi_z = \frac{\delta (\Gamma_1 - \Gamma_2)}{z_2 - z_1} \quad \text{at steady state}$$



في بعض الحالات يكون Γ ثابتاً

* For unsteady state :- $\Gamma_{gen} + \Gamma_{cons}$

الزمن Δt $\propto$ prop Δt

$$\underbrace{(\psi_z) \cdot 1}_{\text{unit area}} - \underbrace{(\psi_{z+\Delta z}) \cdot 1}_{\text{unit area}} + \underbrace{R(\Delta z \cdot 1)}_{\text{unit area}} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial t} (\Delta z \cdot 1)}_{\text{unit area}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi_z + R(\Delta z) = \psi_{z+\Delta z} + \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial t} (\Delta z)$$

divided by Δz , Δz go to zero

$$\left\{ \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \psi_z}{\partial z} = R \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial t} - \delta \frac{\partial^2 \Gamma}{\partial z^2} = R \right\}$$

* IF no generation is present $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \Gamma}{\partial t} = \delta \frac{\partial^2 \Gamma}{\partial z^2}$

see Kinatic theory page 42 in text book.

* Introduction to molecular transport $\left\{ \psi_z = -\delta \frac{d\Gamma}{dz} \right\}$

momentum
transport

heat
transport

mass
transport

* Newton's law

* Fourier's law

* Fick's law

$$\tau_{zx} = -\eta \frac{d(v_x)}{dz}$$

mom
viscosity

mom
flux

$$\frac{q_z}{A} = -\alpha \frac{d(\text{temp})}{dz}$$

$$J_{Az} = -D_{AB} \frac{dC_A}{dz}$$

(Ex 2.3-1)

ask, believe & retrieve
Five Apple

2.4 :- Viscosity of fluid

* When a fluid is flowing through a closed channel there are 2 types of flow may occur (depending on the velocity of this fluid) :-

1) Laminar flow :-

- * At low velocity.
- * Flow without mixing.
- * Like layers.
- * no cross currents $\perp$ to the direction of flow nor eddies or swirls of fluid.

2) Turbulent flow :-

- * At higher velocity.
- * Eddies are formed.
- * Leads to lateral mixing.

* Viscosity :- A property that leads to force resist the movement of layer in the fluid.

$$\text{stress} = \frac{F}{A}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Solid

* elastic deformation

$\propto$ to the applied

stress يعود كالتربة الطرية

$\Rightarrow$ Fluid استطاع التفرق بين الجزيئات

* Continuous deformation

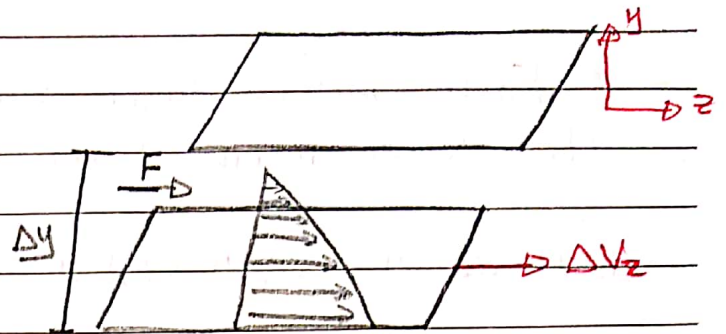
* stress $\uparrow \Rightarrow$ velocity $\uparrow$

لا يعود كالتربة الصلبة

* كلما زادت القوة بين الجزيئات في السوائل كلما زادت الـ viscosity
Viscous fluid $\Rightarrow$ وسيلان السوائل

⇒ Laminar Flow

* Viscous drag
 ↳ Viscous Force
 ↳ لا يقبل سحب



* من الأسفل للأعلى على السرعة يتقل

$$V_{\text{top plate}} = \text{zero} \quad \times$$

↳ Viscosity of the fluid [=] Pa.s [=] Kg/m.s

* exp ⇒ $\frac{F}{A} = -\mu \frac{\Delta V_z}{\Delta y}$

$$\tau_{yz} = -\mu \frac{dV_z}{dy}$$

↳ Shear stress (Force / unit area) [=] N/m² [=] Pa

(ex 2.4-1)

* $1 \text{ Cp} = 0.01 \text{ g/cm.s} = 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Kg/m.s} = 1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Pa.s}$

* Momentum transfer in a fluid

⇒ shear stress (τ_{yz}) ≡ Flux of z directed momentum in y direction ≡ rate of flow momentum / unit area

⇒ momentum = mass × velocity [=] Kg.m/s

$$\tau_{yz} = \frac{\text{Kg.m/s}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s}} = \frac{\text{mom}}{\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{s}}$$

→ Faster moving layer send some of molecules into the slower moving layer

بأدي التصادم بين الجزيئات السريعة، البطيئة إلى تسريع الجزيئات البطيئة في ال direction z

mom transfer from high velocity region to low velocity region

* Viscosities on Newtonian Fluids

- Newtonian Fluids:- Fluid that follow Newton's Law of viscosity ($\tau_{zx} = -\eta \frac{d(v_x)}{dz}$)

- In Newtonian Fluid there is a linear relation between shear stress τ_{yz} and velocity gradient $\frac{dv_z}{dy}$ rate of shear stress
 اتجاه التمدد (التي لا كره) اتجاه التمدد (momentum)

→ For non-newtonian → not linear.

⇒ Gases are newtonian fluids:-

* Temp ↑ → Viscosity ↑

* to 1000 pa → Viscosity independent of pressure

* At higher pressure → Viscosity ↑

⇒ In Liquids

* temp $\uparrow \rightarrow$ viscosity $\downarrow$

* Viscosity is not affected by pressure because Liquid is not Compressible

Tables in Appendix

Lec "4"

Types of Fluid and Reynolds number

* Reynolds number $\longleftrightarrow$ dimensionless

turbulence

1) Density ρ Kg/m^3 $\uparrow$

2) Average velocity $V = \frac{\dot{V}}{A}$ ^{volametric flow rate} m/s $\uparrow$

3) Viscosity μ pa.s $\downarrow$

4) Tube diameter D m $\uparrow$

$$Re = \frac{\rho V D}{\mu}$$

⇒ Reynolds no. determined by the ratio of Kinetic or inertial force to the viscous force.

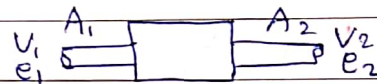
$$\frac{\text{inertial force}}{\text{viscous force}} = \frac{\rho V^2}{\frac{\mu V}{D}} = \frac{\rho V D}{\mu} = Re$$

* For a straight circular pipe :-

$Re \rightarrow < 2100$	$\equiv$ Laminar Flow
$Re \rightarrow 2100 \sim 4000$	$\equiv$ Transition region
$Re \rightarrow > 4000$	$\equiv$ Turbulent Flow

* Overall mass balance and Continuity eq.

- Simple mass balances
 $\dot{m}_{in} = \dot{m}_{out} + \text{acc}$



- At steady state
 $\dot{m}_{in} = \dot{m}_{out}$

$$\dot{m} \rightarrow \dot{m} = \rho_1 v_1 A_1 = \rho_2 v_2 A_2$$

See ex 2.6-1

* Control Volume for balance

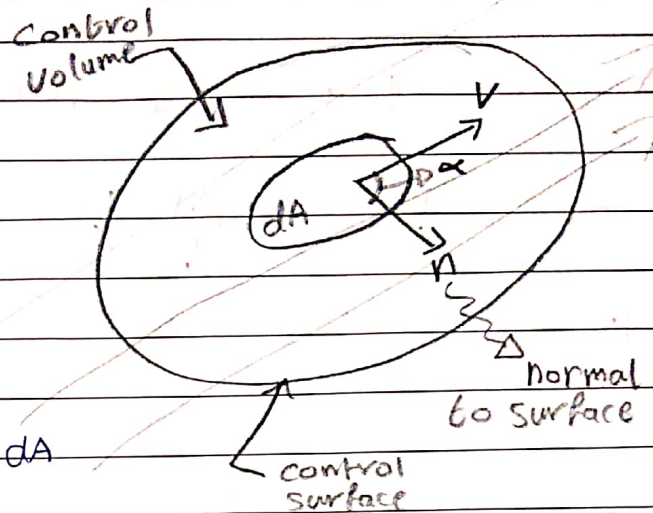
⊗ rate of mass output from control volume $\rightarrow$ rate of mass input to control volume $+$ rate of mass accum in control volume

$=$ rate of mass Generation in control volume



$$* \text{--- acc ---} = \frac{d}{dt} \iiint_V \rho \, dV$$

$$= \frac{dM}{dt}$$



$$* \text{ net mass e flux from control volume} = \iint_A \rho V \cos \alpha \, dA$$

at in $\alpha = 180^\circ \cos = -1$
 at out $\alpha = 0^\circ \cos = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \iint_A \rho V \cos \alpha \, dA = \iint_{A_2} \rho V \cos \alpha_2 \, dA + \iint_{A_1} \rho V \cos \alpha_1 \, dA$$

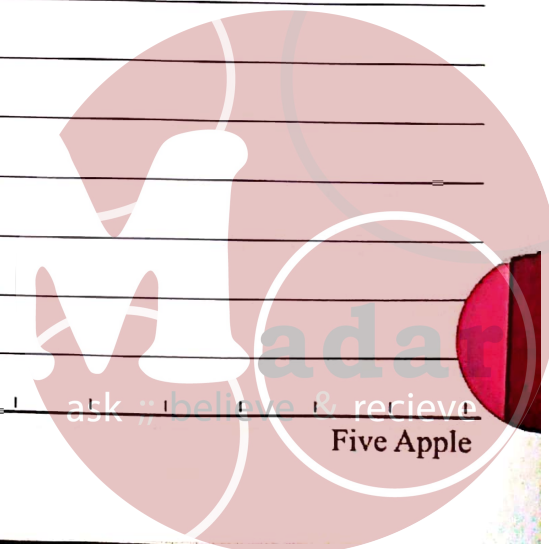
$$= \rho_2 V_2 A_2 - \rho_1 V_1 A_1$$

$$\Rightarrow \rho_2 V_2 A_2 - \rho_1 V_1 A_1 + \frac{dM}{dt} = 0 \quad \text{Generation}$$

$$\text{In generation} \Rightarrow m_{i2} - m_{i1} + \frac{dM_i}{dt} = R_i^{\text{gen}}$$

note 2 if velocity is not constant :-

$$\Rightarrow V_{av} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_A V \, dA$$



lec "5"

* Over all momentum balance

$$\underbrace{P}_{\substack{\text{linear momentum} \\ \text{(vector quantity)}}} = \underbrace{M}_{\text{mass}} \underbrace{V}_{\text{velocity}} \quad [=] \text{ Kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$$

$$\sum F = \frac{dP}{dt} \quad [=] \text{ N}$$

$\uparrow$ Gen
- $\sum$ of Force on control volume = rate of mom out - rate in + acc

→ momentum is not conserved because it is generated by external forces on the system

Conserved $\rightarrow$ قوة خارجية $\rightarrow$ محفوظة

* For a small element of area dA on a control surface

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rate of momentum efflux} &= \rho (eV) (dA \cos \alpha) \\ &= \rho V \underbrace{(V \cdot n)}_{\cos \alpha} dA \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{net mom efflux from control volume} = \iint_A \rho (eV) \cos \alpha dA = \iint_A \rho V (V \cdot n) dA$$

$$\text{rate of accumulation of mom control volume} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iiint_V \rho V dV$$

ask :: believe & receive

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$$\Rightarrow \Sigma F = \iint_A p v (v \cdot n) dA + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iiint_V p v dV$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \Sigma F_x &= \iint_A \rho v v_x \cos \alpha dA + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iiint_V \rho v_x dV \\ \Rightarrow \Sigma F_y &= \iint_A \rho v v_y \cos \alpha dA + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iiint_V \rho v_y dV \\ \Rightarrow \Sigma F_z &= \iint_A \rho v v_z \cos \alpha dA + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \iiint_V \rho v_z dV \end{aligned} \right\} \text{vector eq.}$$

* The Force term, ΣF_x is composed of the sum of several forces :-

1) Body Force (F_{xg}) :- Caused by gravity $\{F_{xg} = Mg_x$
- if it horizontal $\rightarrow F_{xg} = \text{Zero}$

2) pressure Force (F_{xp}) :- Caused by the pressure acting ~~by~~
on the surface of the fluid.
- $\perp$ to the surface
- If gage pressure is used $\Rightarrow$ we can ignore the
integral of the constant pressure over the entire outer surface.
external

3) Friction Force (F_{xs}) :- Shear or friction Force, done
on the fluid and solid walls, may be negligible.

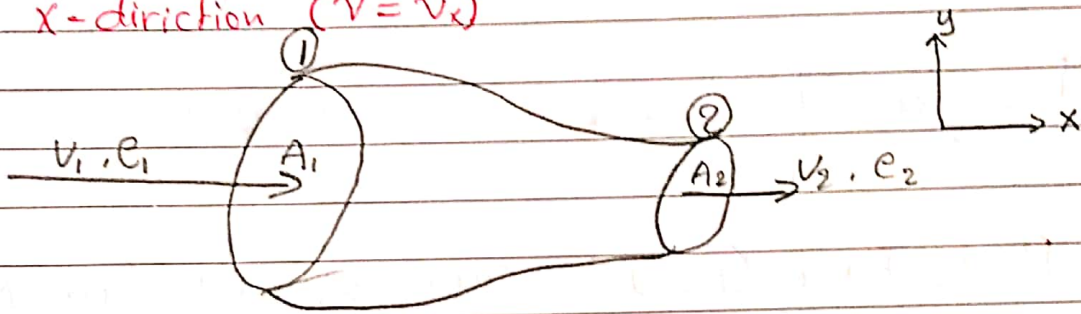
4) Solid Surface Force (R_x) :- Cause where the control surface
cuts through a solid (Force exerted by the solid on
the fluid).

$$\rightarrow \sum F_x = F_{xg} + F_{xp} + F_{xs} + R_x$$

(Similar eq. for y, z)

$$= \iint_A \rho v v_x \cos \alpha \, dA + \frac{d}{dt} \iiint_V \rho v_x \, dV$$

* For a Fluid Flowing at steady state in the control volume in the x-direction ($v = v_x$)



$$\Rightarrow \sum F_x = F_{xg} + F_{xp} + F_{xs} + R_x = \iint_A v_x \rho v_x \cos \alpha \, dA$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \cos \alpha = \pm 1 \\ \rho A = m / v_{av} \end{array} \right.$$

الترتيب للسرعة هو الأول فيزيائي

$$\rightarrow F_{xg} + F_{xp} + F_{xs} + R_x = \frac{m (v_{x2}^2)_{av}}{v_{x2,av}} - \frac{m (v_{x1}^2)_{av}}{v_{x1,av}}$$

$$* (v_x^2)_{av} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_A v_x^2 \, dA$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{(v_x^2)_{av}}{v_{x,av}} = \frac{v_{x,av}}{\beta} \quad \beta \begin{cases} 0.95 - 0.99 & \text{for turbulent flow} \\ 0.75 & \text{for laminar flow} \end{cases}$$

(ex 2.8-1)

$$\Rightarrow F_{xp} = p_1 A_1 - p_2 A_2, \quad F_{xs} \text{ will be neg, } F_{xg} = 0$$

gravity is acting only in y dir

ask, believe & receive

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Flat velocity $\equiv$ Turbulant

$$\Rightarrow R_x = mV_2 - mV_1 + P_2A_2 - P_1A_1$$

- R_x is the force exerted by the solid on fluid

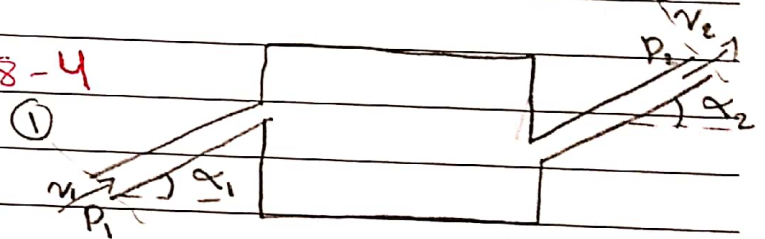
- the force of the fluid on solid is $(-R_x)$

* Overall momentum balance in 2D

$$R_x = mV_2 \cos \alpha_2 - mV_1 \cos \alpha_1 + P_2A_2 \cos \alpha_2 - P_1A_1 \cos \alpha_1$$

$$R_y = mV_2 \sin \alpha_2 - mV_1 \sin \alpha_1 + P_2A_2 \sin \alpha_2 - P_1A_1 \sin \alpha_1 \quad (2)$$

See ex 2.8-3, 2.8-4



* Overall momentum balance For Free Jet striking a Fixed Vane
(2 pic in page 77)

$\Rightarrow$ For Smooth Flat Vane (b)

$$* m_2 = \frac{m_1}{2} (1 + \cos \alpha_2)$$

$$* m_3 = \frac{m_1}{2} (1 - \cos \alpha_2)$$

$\Rightarrow$ The resultant force exerted by the fluid -
resultant force $= R = m_1 V_1 \sin \alpha_2$

$$OR \Rightarrow R_x = m_2 V_2 \cos \alpha_2 - m_1 V_1 \cos \alpha_1 + m_3 V_3 (-\cos \alpha_2)$$

$$R_y = m_2 V_2 \sin \alpha_2 - m_1 V_1 \sin \alpha_1 + m_3 V_3 (-\sin \alpha_2)$$

$$* V_1 = V_2 = V_3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad R = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2}$$

(no energy loss)

See p. 2.8-3

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Lec "6"

2.9% - Shell momentum balance and velocity profile in laminar flow.

- Overall momentum balance does not tell about the details of what happens inside the control volume.
- Small control volume will be analyzed and then shrunk to differential size.

* Shell momentum balance on a fluid flowing in a circular tube. (pic in page 78)

- horizontal section of pipe
- the fluid is incompressible Newtonian fluid
- the fluid is flowing in one-dimensional, steady state and laminar flow

* The flow is fully developed % $\rightarrow$

- It isn't influenced by entrance effects.
- The velocity profile does not vary along the axis of flow in the x-direction.

$\Rightarrow$ At steady state

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Sum of force} & = & \text{rate of mom} \\ \text{acting on control volume} & & \text{out control volume} \quad - \quad \text{rate of mom} \\ & & \text{into control volume} \end{array}$$

* pressure force = $PA|_x - PA|_{x+\Delta x} = p(2\pi r \Delta r)|_x - p(2\pi r \Delta r)|_{x+\Delta x}$

* Shear Force = $(\tau_{rx} 2\pi r \Delta x)|_{r+\Delta r} - (\tau_{rx} 2\pi r \Delta x)|_r$ = net rate of mom efflux

⇒ Flow is fully developed → net convective mom flux across the annular surface at x and $x+\Delta x$ is zero and the terms are indep of $x \Rightarrow V_x|_x = V_x|_{x+\Delta x}$

mm → $p(2\pi r \Delta r)|_x - p(2\pi r \Delta r)|_{x+\Delta x} = (\tau_{rx} 2\pi r \Delta x)|_{r+\Delta r} - (\tau_{rx} 2\pi r \Delta x)|_r$

$$\frac{r(P|_x - P|_{x+\Delta x})}{\Delta x} = \frac{(r\tau_{rx})|_{r+\Delta r} - (r\tau_{rx})|_r}{\Delta r}$$

* In fully developed flow → $\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta x} = \text{constant} = \frac{\Delta P}{L}$ $L \rightarrow$ pipe length

→ $\frac{d(r\tau_{rx})}{dr} = r \left(\frac{\Delta P}{\Delta L} \right)$, separating and integrating

$\tau_{rx} = \left(\frac{\Delta P}{L} \right) \frac{r}{2} + \frac{C_1}{r}$ at $t=0, C_1=0$

→ $\tau_{rx} = \frac{\Delta P}{2L} r \rightarrow \tau_{rx} = \left(\frac{P_0 - P_L}{2L} \right) r$ linear relation with r

* the max value when $R=r$ at the wall

mm → $\tau_{rx} = \mu \frac{dv_x}{dr} = \left(\frac{P_0 - P_L}{2L} \right) r$ separate and integrate $v_x=0$ at $r=R$

→ $v_x = \frac{P_0 - P_L}{4\mu L} \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^2 \right]$ { velocity distribution }
is parabolic

* at $r=0$ (center) → max velocity → shear = 0

* at walls → velocity = zero

$$\Rightarrow V_{xav} = \frac{1}{A} \iint_A v_x dA = \frac{1}{\pi R^2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R v_x r dr d\theta = \int_0^R v_x 2\pi r dr$$

$$\Rightarrow V_{xav} = \frac{(P_0 - P_L) R^2}{8\mu L} - \frac{(P_0 - P_L) D^2}{32\mu L}$$

* max velocity $\rightarrow r=0$

$$V_{xmax} = \frac{P_0 - P_L}{4\mu L} R^2$$

$$V_{xav} = \frac{V_{xmax}}{2}$$

* Shell momentum balance for Falling Film

(pic in page 81)

* we use Newtonian Fluid, Laminar flow.

$$\rightarrow \text{net efflux} = \frac{LW}{A} (\tau_{xz}) \Big|_{x+\Delta x} - LW (\tau_{xz}) \Big|_x$$

$$\Rightarrow (V_z \Big|_{z=0} = V_z \Big|_{z=L}) \rightarrow \text{net efflux} = \text{zero}$$

الفرق بين
أعلى نقطة
وأخفض نقطة

$$\text{net efflux} = \Delta x W \underbrace{v_z}_{\dot{m}} (e v_z) \Big|_{z=L} - \Delta x W v_z (e v_z) \Big|_{z=0} = 0$$

$$* \text{gravity force} = \frac{\Delta x W L}{V} (eg)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta x W L (eg) = LW (\tau_{xz}) \Big|_{x+\Delta x} - LW (\tau_{xz}) \Big|_x + 0$$

$$\frac{\tau_{xz}|_{x+\Delta x} - \tau_{xz}|_x}{\Delta x} = eg$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tau_{xz} = e g \quad , \text{ integrate}$$

Then $\rightarrow \tau_{xz} = e g x$

$$\rightarrow \tau_{xz} = -\mu \frac{dv_x}{dx} = e g x$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{dv_x}{dx} = -\left(\frac{e g}{\mu}\right) x \quad , \text{ integrate}$$

$$\rightarrow v_x = \frac{e g \delta^2}{2 \mu} \left[1 - \left(\frac{x}{\delta}\right)^2 \right]$$

$$\rightarrow v_{z \max} = \frac{e g \delta^2}{2 \mu}$$

$$v_{z \text{ av}} = \frac{2}{3} v_{z \max}$$

$$\rightarrow v_{z \text{ av}} = \frac{e g \delta^2}{3 \mu}$$

Volumetric
flow rate

$$\rightarrow q = \frac{e g \delta^3 w}{3 \mu} \quad \text{m}^3/\text{s}$$

* Γ :- mass rate of flow / unit width of walls (kg/s.m)

$$\rightarrow \Gamma = \frac{e \delta v_{z \text{ av}}}{w, \delta}$$

$$\rightarrow N_{Re} = \frac{4 \Gamma}{\mu} = \frac{4 e \delta v_{z \text{ av}}}{\mu}$$

$N_{Re} < 1200 \rightarrow \text{Laminar}$

see p 2.9 = 1

chapter "3"

3.6 : Differential equation of continuity

→ Overall balances :

- * allow to solve many elementary problems on fluid flow.
- * done on a control volume
- * don't require knowledge of what happens inside the finite control volume.

- * if we need greater details about what happens inside ---
- * use a differential element for a control volume.
- * differential balances in a single phase boundary using the boundary conditions.

→ Diff momentum balance eq. is based on Newton's second law

- * allows to determine the way of velocity varies with position and time.
- * allows to determine the pressure drop in laminar flow.

→ The eq. of mom bal can be used for turbulent flow (with certain modification).

→ Often these conservation eq. are called (eq. of change) because they describe the variations in the properties of the fluid with respect to position and time.

* Types of time derivatives and Vector Notation

التغير ليس في الزمن فقط

1. Partial time derivative: the local change of fluid prop^s with time at a fixed point x, y and z .

ex $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial e}{\partial t}$ = partial time derivative of density e .

2. Total time derivative:

$$\frac{de}{dt} = \frac{\partial e}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial e}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial e}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial e}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt}$$

$\Rightarrow$ the density is a fun of (t) and of the velocity components $(dx/dt, dy/dt \text{ and } dz/dt)$ at which the observer is moving.

3. Substantial time derivation: derivative that follows the motion.

$$\frac{Dp}{Dt} = \frac{\partial e}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial e}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial e}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial e}{\partial z} + (\vec{v} \cdot \nabla e)$$

4. Scalars: quantity have magnitude but no direction
Such as: Concentration, temp, Length, Volume and time.

5. Vectors: have magnitude and direction. Such as: velocity, force, momentum, acceleration. $\rightarrow$ يكتب المتجهات

$\Rightarrow \vec{B} = i B_x + j B_y + k B_z$

$r \vec{B} = \vec{B} r$

$(\vec{B} \cdot \vec{C}) = (\vec{C} \cdot \vec{B})$

$(\vec{B} \cdot \vec{C}) \vec{D} \neq \vec{B} (\vec{C} \cdot \vec{D})$

$(\vec{B} \cdot \vec{C}) = BC \cos \phi_{BC} \rightarrow B \text{ و } C \text{ الزاوية بين}$

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6. Differential Operations with scalar and vectors :-

→ the gradient or "grad" of the scalar field is

$$\nabla e = i \frac{\partial e}{\partial x} + j \frac{\partial e}{\partial y} + k \frac{\partial e}{\partial z}$$

→ the divergence or "div" of a vector $\underline{V}$ is

$$(\nabla \cdot \underline{V}) = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z}$$

→ the Laplacian of a scalar field is

$$\nabla^2 e = \frac{\partial^2 e}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e}{\partial z^2}$$

$$\nabla(r s) = r \nabla s + s \nabla r$$

$$(\nabla \cdot s \underline{\vec{V}}) = (\nabla s \cdot \underline{\vec{V}}) + s(\nabla \cdot \underline{\vec{V}})$$

$$\underline{V} \cdot \nabla s = v_x \frac{\partial s}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial s}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial s}{\partial z}$$

3.6C Differential Equation of Continuity

①. Derivation of equation of continuity A mass balance will be made for a pure fluid flowing through a stationary volume element $\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$ which is fixed in space as in Fig. 3.6-2. The mass balance for the fluid with a concentration of $\rho \text{ kg/m}^3$ is

$$\{ (\text{rate of mass in}) - (\text{rate of mass out}) = (\text{rate of mass accumulation}) \} \quad (3.6-17)$$

In the x direction the rate of mass entering the face at x having an area of $\Delta y \Delta z \text{ m}^2$ is $(\rho v_x)_x \Delta y \Delta z \text{ kg/s}$ and that leaving at $x + \Delta x$ is $(\rho v_x)_{x+\Delta x} \Delta y \Delta z$. The term (ρv_x) is a mass flux in $\text{kg/s} \cdot \text{m}^2$. Mass entering and that leaving in the y and the z directions are also shown in Fig. 3.6-2.

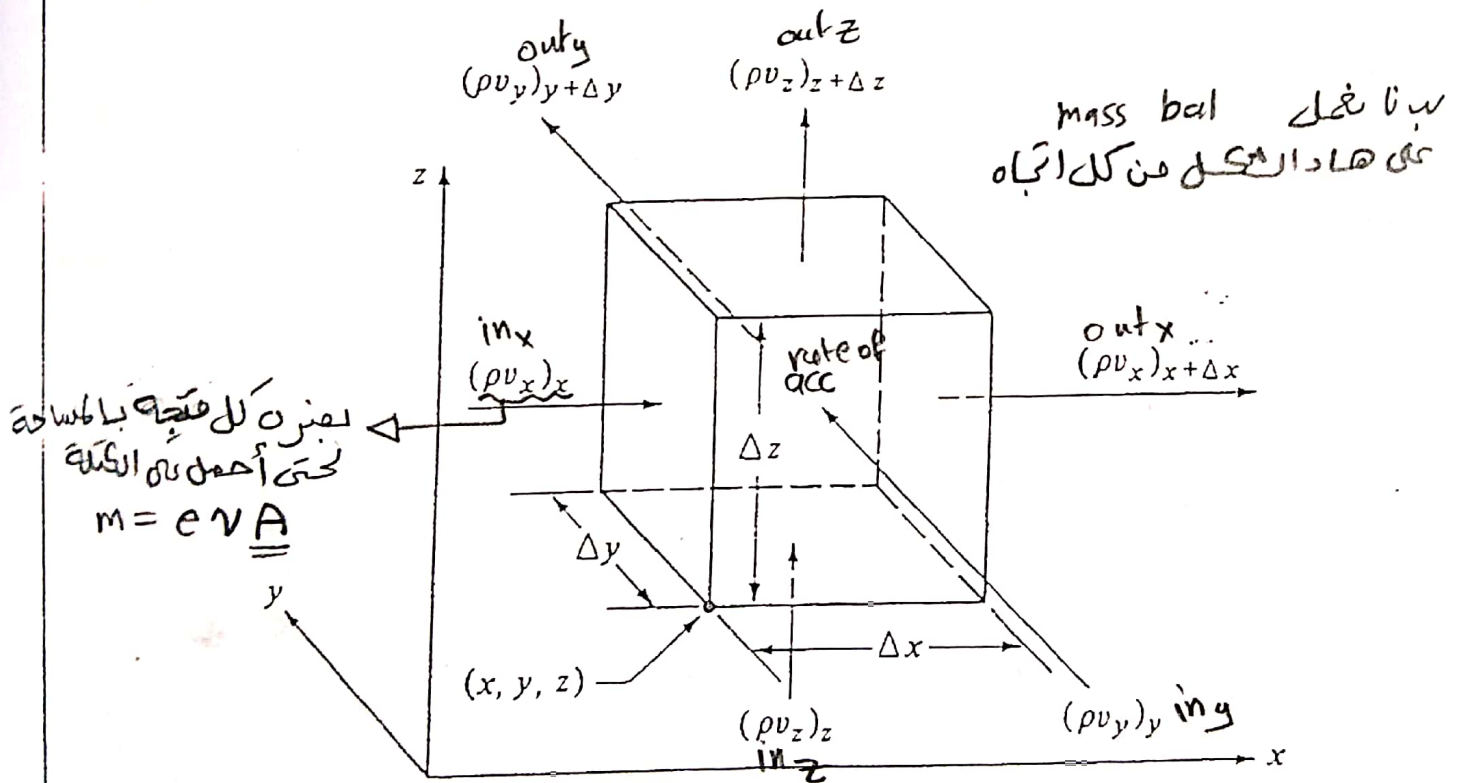


FIGURE 3.6-2. Mass balance for a pure fluid flowing through a fixed volume $\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$ in space.

The rate of mass accumulation in the volume $\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$ is

$$\text{rate of mass accumulation} = \frac{\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z}{\text{Volume}} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \quad (3.6-18)$$

Substituting all these expressions into Eq. (3.6-17) and dividing both sides by

$$\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z, \quad \frac{[(\rho v_x)_x - (\rho v_x)_{x+\Delta x}]}{\Delta x} + \frac{[(\rho v_y)_y - (\rho v_y)_{y+\Delta y}]}{\Delta y} + \frac{[(\rho v_z)_z - (\rho v_z)_{z+\Delta z}]}{\Delta z} = \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} \quad (3.6-19)$$

Taking the limit as Δx , Δy , and Δz approach zero, we obtain the equation of continuity or conservation of mass for a pure fluid.

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = - \left[\frac{\partial(\rho v_x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v_y)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial(\rho v_z)}{\partial z} \right] = -(\nabla \cdot \rho \mathbf{v}) \quad (3.6-20)$$

(The vector notation on the right side of Eq. (3.6-20) comes from the fact that $\mathbf{v}$ is a vector.) Equation (3.6-20) tells us how density ρ changes with time at a fixed point resulting from the changes in the mass velocity vector $\rho \mathbf{v}$.

We can convert Eq. (3.6-20) into another form by carrying out the actual partial differentiation.

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} \right) - \left(v_x \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.6-21)$$

Rearranging Eq. (3.6-21),

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial z} = -\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.6-22)$$

The left-hand side of Eq. (3.6-22) is the same as the substantial derivative in Eq. (3.6-2). Hence, Eq. (3.6-22) becomes

$$\left\{ \frac{D\rho}{Dt} = -\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} \right) = -\rho(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \right\} \quad (3.6-23)$$

② Equation of continuity for constant density. Often in engineering with liquids that are relatively incompressible, the density ρ is essentially constant. Then ρ remains constant for a fluid element as it moves along a path following the fluid motion, or $D\rho/Dt = 0$. Hence, Eq. (3.6-23) becomes for a fluid of constant density at steady or unsteady state,

$$\Rightarrow (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (3.6-24)$$

At steady state, $\partial \rho / \partial t = 0$ in Eq. (3.6-22)

EXAMPLE 3.6-1. Flow over a Flat Plate

An incompressible fluid flows past one side of a flat plate. The flow in the x direction is parallel to the flat plate. At the leading edge of the plate the flow is uniform at the free stream velocity v_{x0} . There is no velocity in the z direction. The y direction is the perpendicular distance from the plate. Analyze this case using the equation of continuity.

Solution: For this case where ρ is constant, Eq. (3.6-24) holds.

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (3.6-24)$$

Since there is no velocity in the z direction, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} = -\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} \quad (3.6-25)$$

At a given small value of y close to the plate, the value of v_x must decrease from its free stream velocity v_{x0} as it passes the leading edge in the x direction because of fluid friction. Hence, $\partial v_x / \partial x$ is negative. Then from Eq. (3.6-25), $\partial v_y / \partial y$ is positive and there is a component of velocity away from the plate.

③ Continuity equation in cylindrical and spherical coordinates It is often convenient to use cylindrical coordinates to solve the equation of continuity if fluid is flowing in a cylinder. The coordinate system as related to rectangular coordinates is shown in Fig. 3.6-3a. The relations between rectangular x, y, z and cylindrical r, θ, z coordinates are

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \theta & y &= r \sin \theta & z &= z \\ r &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} & \theta &= \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \end{aligned} \quad (3.6-26)$$

Using the relations from Eq. (3.6-26) with Eq. (3.6-20), the equation of continuity in cylindrical coordinates is

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (\rho r v_r)}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial (\rho v_\theta)}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial (\rho v_z)}{\partial z} = 0 \quad (3.6-27)$$

For spherical coordinates the variables r, θ , and ϕ are related to x, y, z by the following as shown in Fig. 3.6-3b.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \sin \theta \cos \phi & y &= r \sin \theta \sin \phi & z &= r \cos \theta \\ r &= \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} & \theta &= \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}{z} & \phi &= \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \end{aligned} \quad (3.6-28)$$

The equation of continuity in spherical coordinates becomes

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial (\rho r^2 v_r)}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial (\rho v_\theta \sin \theta)}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial (\rho v_\phi)}{\partial \phi} = 0 \quad (3.6-29)$$

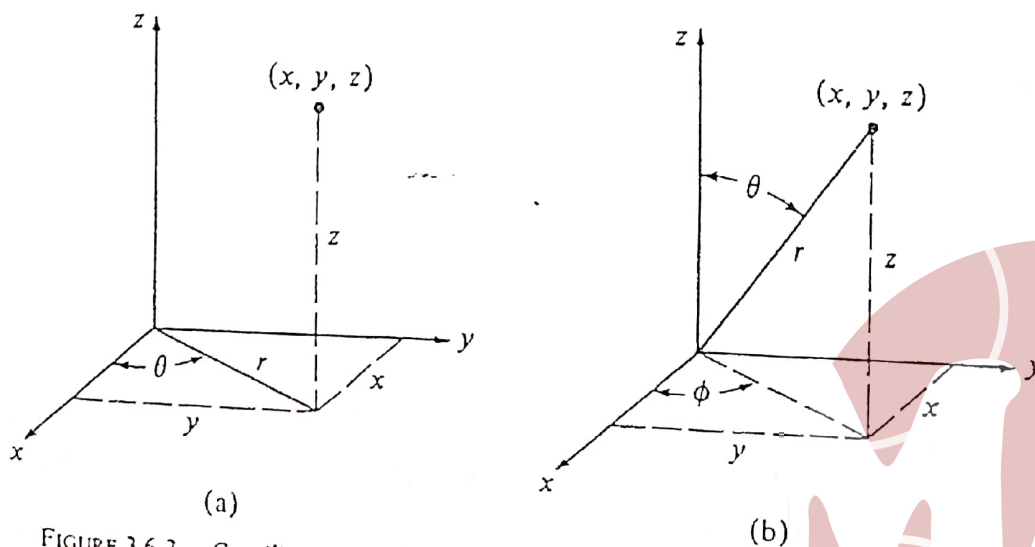


FIGURE 3.6-3. Curvilinear coordinate systems: (a) cylindrical coordinates, (b) spherical coordinates.

3.7: Differential equation of momentum Transfer

→ eq. of motion == eq. for the conservation of mom eq.

$$\text{in} - \text{out} + \Sigma F = \text{acc}$$

* Consider the x-component of each term:

- net convective x-momentum flow into the volume element ($\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$) is:

$$[(\rho v_x v_x)_x - (\rho v_x v_x)_{x+\Delta x}] \Delta y \Delta z + [(\rho v_y v_x)_y - (\rho v_y v_x)_{y+\Delta y}] \Delta x \Delta z$$

$$+ [(\rho v_z v_x)_z - (\rho v_z v_x)_{z+\Delta z}] \Delta x \Delta y$$

تركيز الكتلة (الزخم)
m → $\rho v_x \Rightarrow$ Concentration [=] mom / m³
 $\rho v_x v_x \Rightarrow$ mom Flux [=] mom / s.m²

{ (mom Flux) * (Area)
= Total mom

- net x-component of momentum by molecular transfer is:

$$[(\tau_{xx})_x - (\tau_{xx})_{x+\Delta x}] \Delta y \Delta z + [(\tau_{yx})_y - (\tau_{yx})_{y+\Delta y}] \Delta x \Delta z$$

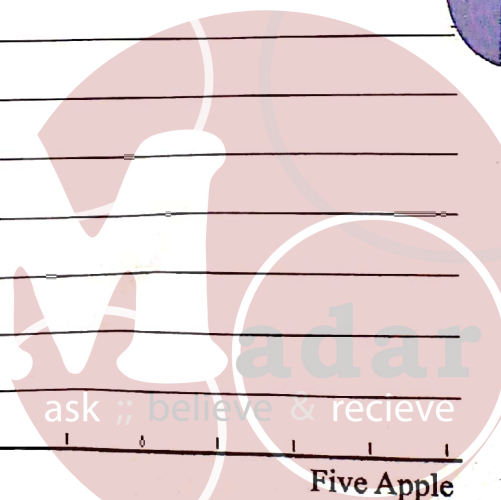
$$+ [(\tau_{zx})_z - (\tau_{zx})_{z+\Delta z}] \Delta x \Delta y$$

→ τ_{yx} = x direction shear stress on the y face

τ_{xx} = normal stress on the x face

- net fluid pressure force:-

$$[P_x - P_{x+\Delta x}] \Delta y \Delta z$$



- Gravitational force in the x-direction

$$\rightarrow \rho g_x \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$$

$\Rightarrow g_x = x$ component of the gravitational vector g

- Rate of Accumulation of x-momentum in the element is:

$$\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z \frac{\partial(\rho v_x)}{\partial t} \quad \rho v_x = \text{momentum}$$

$\Rightarrow$ Substituting, dividing by $\Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$, and taking the limit as

$$\Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z \rightarrow 0$$

$$\frac{\partial(\rho v_x)}{\partial t} = - \left[\frac{\partial(\rho v_x v_x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v_y v_x)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial(\rho v_z v_x)}{\partial z} \right] - \left[\frac{\partial \tau_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yx}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zx}}{\partial z} \right] - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \rho g_x$$

X-Component of the differential eq. of motion

$\Rightarrow$ Using the eq. of continuity

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = - \left[\frac{\partial(\rho v_x)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v_y)}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial(\rho v_z)}{\partial z} \right]$$

$\Rightarrow$ eq. of motion for the x, y and z components are obtained as-



We can use Eq. (3.6-20), which is the continuity equation, and Eq. (3.7-7) and obtain an equation of motion for the x component and also do the same for the y and z components as follows:

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} \right) = - \left[\frac{\partial \tau_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yx}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zx}}{\partial z} \right] + \rho g_x - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} \quad (3.7-10)$$

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z} \right) = - \left[\frac{\partial \tau_{xy}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yy}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zy}}{\partial z} \right] + \rho g_y - \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} \quad (3.7-11)$$

$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} \right) = - \left[\frac{\partial \tau_{xz}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yz}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \tau_{zz}}{\partial z} \right] + \rho g_z - \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} \quad (3.7-12)$$

Adding vectorially, we obtain an equation of motion for a pure fluid.

$$\rho \frac{D\mathbf{v}}{Dt} = -(\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau}) - \nabla p + \rho \mathbf{g} \quad (3.7-13)$$

1. Shear-stress components for Newtonian fluids in rectangular coordinates

$$\tau_{xx} = -2\mu \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{2}{3} \mu (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \quad (3.7-14)$$

$$\tau_{yy} = -2\mu \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{2}{3} \mu (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \quad (3.7-15)$$

$$\tau_{zz} = -2\mu \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} + \frac{2}{3} \mu (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \quad (3.7-16)$$

$$\tau_{xy} = \tau_{yx} = -\mu \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} \right) \quad (3.7-17)$$

$$\tau_{yz} = \tau_{zy} = -\mu \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} \right) \quad (3.7-18)$$

$$\tau_{zx} = \tau_{xz} = -\mu \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.7-19)$$

$$(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3.7-20)$$

4. *Equation of Motion for Newtonian fluids with varying density and viscosity* After Eqs. (3.7-14)–(3.7-20) for shear-stress components are substituted into Eq. (3.7-10) for the x -component of momentum, we obtain the general equation of motion for a Newtonian fluid with varying density and viscosity.

$$\begin{aligned} \rho \frac{Dv_x}{Dt} = & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[2\mu \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} - \frac{2}{3} \mu (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\mu \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} \right) \right] \\ & + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[\mu \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} \right) \right] - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \rho g_x \end{aligned} \quad (3.7-35)$$

(Similar equations are obtained for the y and z components of momentum.)

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*eq. of continuity for constant density

$$\frac{\partial V_x}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial V_y}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial V_z}{\partial z} = 0$$

1. Equation of motion in rectangular coordinates. For Newtonian fluids for constant ρ and μ for the x component, y component, and z component we obtain, respectively,

1: x $\rightarrow$
$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_x}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} \right) = \mu \left(\frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial z^2} \right) - \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \rho g_x$$
 (3.7-36)

2: y $\rightarrow$
$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_y}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial v_y}{\partial z} \right) = \mu \left(\frac{\partial^2 v_y}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v_y}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v_y}{\partial z^2} \right) - \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \rho g_y$$
 (3.7-37)

3: z $\rightarrow$
$$\rho \left(\frac{\partial v_z}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial v_z}{\partial z} \right) = \mu \left(\frac{\partial^2 v_z}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v_z}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v_z}{\partial z^2} \right) - \frac{\partial p}{\partial z} + \rho g_z$$
 (3.7-38)

1, 2 and 3 called the Navier-Stokes eq.s
Combining the three equations for the three components, we obtain

* Notes on section 3.8 :-

- ex 3.8-1 and 3.8-2

* Δ اقرأ السؤال بدي أفضله كامله واحتم بكله المعلومات

* Velocity distribution = change velocity with x , y and z

* steady state = no accumulation (acc = change with time)

* Constant or varying (ρ and μ) $\Rightarrow$ كذا معروفه على طريقة (ق) $\Rightarrow$ ثابتا، المتغيرة حسب (أ) ه السرعة

* في بعض الحدود بتتخذ من فهمنا في السؤال

* الحدود التي بالزمن (مثلا z) $\Rightarrow$ بعض بعض بالزمن يكونه في
max velocity $\Rightarrow$ "مثلا" اتجاه السرعة بال x -dir
 $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial v_x}{\partial z} = 0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 v_x}{\partial z^2} = 0$

$\Rightarrow$ at width velocity is constant

* horizontal direction $\Rightarrow g_x = 0$

* For integration :-

- at center $\Rightarrow$ max velocity $\Rightarrow \frac{\partial v}{\partial (dir)} = 0$

- at wall $\Rightarrow$ velocity = 0

-(ex 3.8-3 to 3.8-6)

* Incompressible $\equiv$ constant density

* In cylindrical coordinates:-

→ we can use rectangular coordinates with relations between rec and cyl in page 169)

OR → we can use eq. of motion for cyl coord in page 174

* In ex 3.8-4 → max velocity determined by the ratio of r to r_i

$$* T(\text{torque}) = \tau * A$$

Chapter "4"

⇒ Principles of steady-state Heat Transfer

* Introduction:-

- The transfer of energy (heat) occurs in many chemical and other processes.
- Heat transfer often occurs in combination with other unit operations: such as:-
 - * drying of lumber or food.
 - * alcohol distillation.
 - * burning of fuel.
 - * evaporation.
- The heat transfer occurs because of a temp difference driving force → (heat flows from high to low temp region)

* General thermal energy balance eq.

$$\text{rate of heat in} + \text{rate of heat gen} = \text{rate of heat out} + \text{rate of heat accumulation}$$

⇒ Assuming the rate of heat transfer occurs only by conduction, Fourier's law applies:

$$\frac{q_x}{A} = -k \frac{dT}{dx}$$

⇒ Unsteady state heat balance for the x-direction only on the control volume (pic in page 215)

$$\underbrace{q_x|_x}_{\text{rate of heat gen per unit volume}} + \underbrace{\dot{q}(\Delta x \cdot A)}_{\text{rate of heat gen per unit volume}} = q_x|_{x+\Delta x} + \rho c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} (\Delta x \cdot A)$$

rate of heat gen
per unit volume

* At steady state :-

$$q_x|_x = q_x|_{x+\Delta x}$$

in = out

m → Goal :- to obtain expressions for the temp profile and heat flux.

* Basic Mechanisms of heat transfer :-

m → Conduction :-

- Solid, Liquids and gases
- transfer of energy of motion between adjacent molecules.

تربط بين جزيئين وينقلوا الطاقة لبعضهما البعض عن طريق اهتزاز الجزيئات

m → Convection :- 2 type :- 1) Forced Convection 2) Natural or Free

- transfer of heat by bulk transport and mixing of macroscopic elements of warmer portions with cooler portions of gases or liquid

زيادة الحرارة بكتلة الكتلة
فتمتلك الجزيئات الطاقة

m → Radiation :-

- no physical medium is needed for its propagation.
- through space by means of electromagnetic waves.

عن
الفضاء
او الغاز

examples :-

→ Conduction :-

- 1- heat transfer through walls of exchangers of a refrigerator.
- 2- heat treatment of steel forgings.
- 3- Freezing of the ground during the winter

1 → Convection

- 1- loss of heat from a car radiator where the air is being circulated by a fan.
- 2- Cooking of foods in a vessel being stirred
- 3- Cooling of a hot cup of coffee by blowing over the surface

→ Radiation

- 1- Transport of heat to the earth from the sun.
- 2- Cooking of food when passed below red-hot electric heaters.
- 3- heating of fluids in coils of tubing inside a combustion furnace.

* Fourier's Law of heat conduction

In any property (mass or heat) ↓

Rate of a transfer process = $\frac{\text{driving force}}{\text{resistance}}$

heat transfer rate
in x-direction [=] W

q_x
A

= -K $\frac{dT}{dx}$ → temperature [=] K
dx → distance [=] m

Cross-sectional area normal
to direction of heat flow [=] m²

thermal conductivity
[=] W/m².K

$\frac{q_x}{A}$ = heat flux [=] W/m², $\frac{dT}{dx}$ = temp gradient in the x-direction

⊖ K

→ if the heat flow is positive in a given dir
→ the temp decreases in this direction.

اتجاه الـ heat flow
اتجاه تغير الـ temp

* For the case of Steady state heat transfer through a flat wall of constant cross-sectional area (A) :-

$$\frac{q_x}{A} \int_{x_1}^{x_2} dx = -k \int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT$$

$$\rightarrow \left\{ \frac{q_x}{A} (x_2 - x_1) = -k (T_2 - T_1) \right\} \quad \text{See ex: 4.1-1}$$

* Thermal Conductivity :-

* Gases

- the molecules are in continuous random motion, colliding with one another and exchanging energy and momentum.

- if a molecule moves from high temp. $\rightarrow$ lower temp $\rightarrow$ it transport K.E to this region and gives up this energy through collisions with lower energy molecules.

- smaller molecules move faster, gases such as H_2 should have higher thermal conductivities.

Table 4.1-1 page 218

Notes:-

1) Theories to predict K of gases are reasonably accurate
 $K \propto \sqrt{T}$

2) K is independent of pressure up to a few atmospheres.

3) At very low pressure (vacuum) $\rightarrow$ $K \approx 0$

ask : believe & recieve

Five Apple

★ Liquids :-

- Mechanism :- higher energy molecules collide with lower energy molecules.

- most correlations to predict the thermal conductivities are empirical because adequate molecular theory of liq is not available.

- K of liq varies moderately with temp and often can be expressed as a linear variation :-
$$K = aT + b$$

- K of liq is essentially independent of pressure.

⇒ Water has a high K compared to organic type liq such as benzene.

★ Solids :-

- K of homog solids varies quite widely.

- metallic solids of Cu and Al have very high K and some insulating non metallic materials such as rock wool and corkboard have very low K .

- Two mechanisms:-

★ In metallic solids :- الحرارة تنتقل بواسطة الإلكترونات

★ In all another solids :- الحرارة تنتقل عن طريق الاصطدامات بين الذرات

Convective

* When the fluid outside the solid surface is in forced or free convective motion, the rate of heat transfer from solid $\rightarrow$ fluid or vice versa, is expressed by:-

$$q = h A (T_w - T_f)$$

heat transfer rate $[=] W$ $\leftarrow$ q

Convective heat transfer coefficient $[=] W/m^2 \cdot K$ $\leftarrow$ h

Area $[=] m^2$ $\leftarrow$ A

temp of solid surface $[=] K$ $\leftarrow$ T_w

average or bulk temp of the fluid flowing by $[=] K$ $\leftarrow$ T_f

$\Rightarrow$ The convective coefficient h is a function of:-

- System geometry.
- Flow velocity.
- Fluid properties.
- Temp difference.

* In many case $\rightarrow$ empirical correlations are available to predict this coefficient.

* When a fluid flows by a surface, there is a thin, almost stationary layer (film) of fluid adjacent to the wall presenting most of the resistance to heat transfer

$\rightarrow$ h is often called (Film coefficient)

Table 4.1-2 page 219

* Conduction heat transfer :-

(A) Through a Flat Slab or wall pic in page 220

$$\frac{q_x}{A} = -K \frac{dT}{dx}, \quad \text{A and K are constant}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{q}{A} = \frac{K}{x_2 - x_1} (T_1 - T_2) = \frac{K}{\Delta x} (T_1 - T_2)$$

* temp varies linearly with distance

$$q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\Delta x / KA} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R} = \frac{\text{driving force}}{\text{resistance}}$$

$$\Rightarrow R = \frac{\Delta x}{KA} [=] K/W$$

* if $K = a + bT$

$$\frac{q}{A} = \frac{K_m}{\Delta x} (T_1 - T_2) \Rightarrow K_m = a + b \frac{T_1 + T_2}{2}$$

(B) Through a Hollow Cylinder pic page 221

$$\frac{q}{A} = -K \frac{dT}{dr}, \quad A = 2\pi rL \quad \text{and } K \text{ is const}$$

$$\frac{q}{2\pi L} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{dr}{r} = -K \int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT \Rightarrow q = K \frac{2\pi L}{\ln(r_2/r_1)} (T_1 - T_2)$$

$\Rightarrow A$ isn't constant :-

$$A_{lm} = \frac{A_2 - A_1}{\ln(A_2/A_1)} \Rightarrow q = K A_{lm} \frac{T_1 - T_2}{r_2 - r_1} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{(r_2 - r_1) / (K A_{lm})}$$

$$\Rightarrow q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{R} \Rightarrow R = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{K A_{lm}} = \frac{\ln(r_2/r_1)}{2\pi KL} [=] K/W$$

ask ; believe & recieve

(C) Through a Hollow sphere

$$\frac{q}{A} = -K \frac{dT}{dr}, \quad A = 4\pi r^2 \text{ and } K \text{ is const}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{q}{4\pi} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \frac{dr}{r^2} = -K \int_{T_1}^{T_2} dT$$

$$\Rightarrow q = \frac{4\pi K}{1/r_2 - 1/r_1} (T_1 - T_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow q = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{(1/r_2 - 1/r_1)/(4\pi K)}, \quad R = \frac{1/r_2 - 1/r_1}{4\pi K}$$

[=] K/W

See ex 4.2-1

★ Conduction through solids. In Series :-

Planes walls

Multilayer

In Series

cylinders

pic page 223

pic page 225

$$q = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{\sum R} = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{R_A + R_B + R_C}$$

$$R_j = \frac{\Delta x_j}{K_j A}$$

$$R = \frac{r_2 - r_1}{K A_{Lm}}$$



* Conduction Through materials in parallel

$$* q_T = q_A + q_B$$

$$= \frac{T_1 - T_2}{\Delta x_A / (K_A A_A)} + \frac{T_3 - T_4}{\Delta x_B / (K_B A_B)}$$

$\Rightarrow$ if $T_1 = T_3$ and $T_2 = T_4$

$$\Rightarrow q_T = \left(\frac{1}{R_A} + \frac{1}{R_B} \right) (T_1 - T_2)$$

$\Rightarrow$ Combined convection and conduction and overall coefficients pic 1 page 227 (wall)

$$q = h_i A (T_1 - T_2) = \frac{K_A A}{\Delta x_A} (T_2 - T_3) = h_o A (T_3 - T_4)$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{overall}} q = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{\frac{1}{h_i A} + \frac{\Delta x_A}{K_A A} + \frac{1}{h_o A}} = U A \Delta T_{\text{overall}}$$

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{\Delta x_A}{K_A} + \frac{1}{h_o}$$

Pic 2 page 227 (cylindrical)

$$\rightarrow q = h_i A_i (T_1 - T_2) = \frac{K_A A_{\text{lm}}}{r_o - r_i} (T_2 - T_3) = h_o A_o (T_3 - T_4)$$

$$q = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{\frac{1}{h_i A_i} + \frac{r_o - r_i}{K_A A_{\text{lm}}} + \frac{1}{h_o A_o}} = \frac{T_1 - T_4}{\sum R} = U A \Delta T_{\text{overall}}$$

$$\rightarrow q = U_i A_i (T_i - T_u) = U_o A_o (T_i - T_u)$$

$$\frac{1}{U_i} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{(r_o - r_i) A_i}{K_A A_{Alm}} + \frac{A_i}{h_o A_o}$$

$$\frac{1}{U_o} = \frac{A_o}{h_i A_i} + \frac{(r_o - r_i) A_o}{K_A A_{Alm}} + \frac{1}{h_o}$$

* Conduction with Internal heat generation

ex: electric resistance heaters, nuclear fuel rods

* Heat Generation in plane wall

- heat is conducted only in the one x-direction.
 - The other walls are assumed to be insulated.
 - The volumetric rate of heat generation is $\dot{q}$, W/m³
- and the thermal conductivity of the medium is K W/m.K

* The volumetric rate of heat gen is $\dot{q}$ (W/m³) and the thermal conductivity of the medium is K (W/m.K)

* Energy balance without accumulation

$$\rightarrow q_x|_x + \dot{q}(\Delta x \cdot A) = q_x|_{x+\Delta x}$$

$$-\frac{dq_x}{dx} + \dot{q}A = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{but } \frac{q_x}{A} = -K \frac{dT}{dx}, \text{ so}$$

$$\frac{d^2 T}{dx^2} + \frac{\dot{q}}{K} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{integ}$$

$$\Rightarrow T = \frac{\dot{q} x^2}{2K} + C_1 x + C_2$$

* Boundary conditions:-

$$x = L \text{ or } -L, T = T_w$$

$$x = 0, T = T_o$$

$$\Rightarrow T = -\frac{\dot{q}}{2K} x^2 + T_o$$

$$T_o = \frac{\dot{q}}{2K} L^2 + T_w$$

* heat generation in Cylinder

$$T = \frac{\dot{q}}{4K} (R^2 - r^2) + T_o$$

$$T_o = \frac{\dot{q}}{4K} R^2 + T_w$$

~~~~~  
5.6:- Shell energy balance and Temp distribution in solid and laminar flow

\* Energy balance is made over (a thin slab or shell) perpendicular to the direction of the heat flow.



\* First Order diff. eq.  $\Rightarrow$  heat flux distribution is obtained



\* Substitute Fourier's law of heat conduction into the heat flux expression.

$\Rightarrow$  First order diff eq.  $\Rightarrow T = f(\text{position})$

\* Determination of integration constant by using boundary conditions for temp or heat flux at the boundary surfaces.

★ For shear stress systems, the law of the conservation of energy is:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left( \text{rate of energy in} \right)_{\text{by convective transport}} - \left( \text{rate of energy out} \right)_{\text{by convective transp.}} \\ & + \left( \text{rate of energy in} \right)_{\text{by molecular}} - \left( \text{rate of energy out} \right)_{\text{by molecular}} \\ & + \left( \text{rate of external work done on system} \right) - \left( \text{rate of external work done by system} \right) \\ & = \text{rate of acc of energy} \end{aligned}$$

⇒ Net convective energy transport

- energy transport by the bulk motion

$$\Delta y \Delta z \left[ v_x \left( e u + \frac{e v^2}{2} \right) \right]_x - \Delta y \Delta z \left[ v_x \left( e u + \frac{e v^2}{2} \right) \right]_{x+\Delta x}$$

⇒ Net molecular energy transport

- Fourier's law of heat conduction

$$\Delta y \Delta z \left[ (q_x)_x - (q_x)_{x+\Delta x} \right]$$



⇒ Net work done by system

\* against the grav force

$$- \rho \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z (\nu_x g_x)$$

\* against the static pressure (p)

$$\Delta y \Delta z [(p \nu_x)_{x+\Delta x} - (p \nu_x)_x]$$

\* against the viscous force

$$(\Delta y \Delta z) [(\tau_{xx} \nu_x + \tau_{xy} \nu_y + \tau_{xz} \nu_z)_{x+\Delta x} - (\tau_{xx} \nu_x + \tau_{xy} \nu_y + \tau_{xz} \nu_z)_x]$$

⇒ writing similar eq in all 3 dim, sub these eq's into the gen. balance eq., dividing by  $\Delta x, \Delta y$  and  $\Delta z$  and letting  $\Delta x, \Delta y$  and  $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$

⇒ we obtain eq (5.6-8) page 366

⇒ Combine eq. (5.6-8) with the eq. of continuity, eq. of motion and expressing the internal energy in terms of fluid temp  $T$  and heat capacity  $C_p$

$$\rho C_v \frac{DT}{Dt} = k \nabla^2 T - T \left( \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} \right)_e (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}) + \mu \phi$$

$$\rightarrow k \nabla^2 T = k \left( \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \right)$$

⇒  $\mu \phi$  = Viscous dissipation term (generally negligible except where extremely large velocity gradient exist)



## \* Common Types of Boundary Condition

- The temp may be specified at a surface.
- The heat flux normal to a surface may be given (this is equivalent to specifying the normal component of the temp gradient).
- At interfaces the continuity of temp and of the heat flux normal to the interface are required.
- At a solid-fluid interface, the normal heat flux component may be related to the difference between the solid surface temp ( $T_o$ ) and the "bulk" fluid temp ( $T_b$ ) (Newton's Law of cooling) :-  
$$q = h(T_o - T_b)$$

$\Rightarrow$  Fluid at constant pressure :-

$$\rho C_p \frac{DT}{Dt} = k \nabla^2 T - T \underbrace{\left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right)_e}_{\text{const. press}} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v})$$

\* in rectangular coordinates

$$\begin{aligned} \rho C_p \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + v_x \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v_y \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + v_z \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right) \\ = k \left( \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \right) \end{aligned}$$



\* in cylindrical coordinates

$$\rho c_p \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + v_r \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + \frac{v_\theta}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} + v_z \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \right) \\ = k \left( \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \right)$$

\* in spherical coordinates

$$\rho c_p \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + v_r \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + \frac{v_\theta}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} + \frac{v_\phi}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} \right) \\ = k \left[ \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} \right]$$

$\Rightarrow$  Fluid at Constant Density

$$\rho c_p \frac{DT}{Dt} = k \nabla^2 T$$

$\Rightarrow$  Solid at Constant Density ( $v=0$ )

$$\rho c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = k \nabla^2 T$$

$$\text{heat generation} \Rightarrow \rho c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = k \nabla^2 T + \dot{q}$$

\* Fourier's second law OR unsteady state heat conduction :-

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{\rho c_p}$$

- rectangular coordinates

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha \left[ \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \right]$$

- cylindrical coordinates

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha \left[ \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial z^2} \right]$$

- Spherical coordinates

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha \left[ \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial \phi^2} \right]$$

See ex 5.6-1 and 5.6-2





## 4.5:- Forced Convection heat transfer inside pipes

- In most situations involving a liquid or gas in heat transfer, convective heat transfer usually occurs as well as condition

- In most industrial processes where heat transfer is occurring heat is being transferred from one fluid through a solid wall to a second fluid.

pic (4.5-1) page 237 shows temp profile for heat transfer by convection from hot flowing fluid to cold flowing fluid

$$\Rightarrow Q = hA(T_w - T_f)$$

$\Rightarrow$  The coefficient ( $h$ ) is a function of:-

- 1- System geometry
- 2- Type and velocity of flow
- 3- Fluid physical properties
- 4- Temp difference

\* to correlate these data for heat transfer coeff, dimensionless number such as:- the Reynolds and Prandtl number are used.

\* Prandtl # = is the ratio of the shear component of diffusivity for mom ( $\mu/\rho$ ) to the diffusivity for heat ( $k/\rho C_p$ ), and physically relates the relative thickness of the hydrodynamic layer and thermal boundary layer.

$$Pr = \frac{\mu/\rho}{k/\rho C_p} = \frac{C_p \mu}{k}$$

⇒ Values of  $Pr$  is in Appendix A.3, the range for:-

- gases ⇒ 0.5 to 1

- Liquid ⇒ 2 to  $10^4$

\* The dimensionless Nusselt number ( $Nu$ )

$$Nu = \frac{h D}{k}$$

→ For flow inside a pipe ⇒  ~~$D$~~   $D$  is the diameter.

\* heat transfer coefficient for laminar flow inside a pipe

⇒ Types of flow: 1- Laminar flow  $Re < 2100$

2- transition region  $2100 < Re < 6000$

3- Fully turbulent flow  $Re > 6000$

→ For Laminar flow

$$Nu = \frac{h_a D}{k} = 1.86 \left( Re Pr \frac{D}{L} \right)^{1/3} \cdot \left( \frac{\mu_b}{\mu_w} \right)^{0.14}$$

$D$ : pipe diameter.

$L$ : pipe Length before mixing occurs in the pipe.

$\mu_b$ : Fluid viscosity at bulk average temp.

$\mu_w$ : viscosity at wall temp

$k$ : thermal conductivity

$h_a$ : average heat-transfer coefficient



$\Rightarrow$  \* holds for  $Re \cdot Pr \cdot \frac{D}{L} > 100$ , and for  $> 10$  with 20% error.

\* In laminar flow,  $h_a$  depends strongly on heated length

\* the average (arithmetic mean) temp drop ( $\Delta T_a$ ) is used in the eq. to calculate the heat transfer rate  $q$ .

$$q = h_a A \Delta T_a = h_a A \frac{(T_w - T_{bi}) + (T_w - T_{bo})}{2}$$

$\Rightarrow T_{bi}$  = inlet bulk fluid temp

$T_{bo}$  = outlet " " " "

$T_w$  = wall temp

$\Rightarrow$  For turbulent flow:-

$$Nu = \frac{h_L D}{K} = 0.027 Re^{0.8} Pr^{1/3} \left( \frac{\mu_b}{\mu_w} \right)^{0.14}$$

$\Rightarrow$  holds for  $0.7 < Pr < 16000$ ,  $\frac{L}{D} > 60$

$\Rightarrow h_L$  = heat transfer coefficient based on the log mean driving force  $\Delta T_{lm}$

$\Rightarrow$  All fluid property, except  $\mu_w$ , are evaluated at mean bulk temp (the mean of the inlet and outlet temp is used if they vary).

⇒ For air at 1 atm total pressure → the following simplified eq. holds for turbulent flow in pipes

$$h_L = 3.52 \frac{V^{0.8}}{D^{0.2}} \quad [\text{in SI unit}]$$

$$D [=] \text{ m}, V [=] \text{ m/s}, h_L [=] \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot \text{s}$$

⇒ A simplified eq. to use for water in temp range of  $T = 4$  to  $65^\circ \text{C}$  is :-

$$h_L = 1429 (1 + 0.0146 T(^{\circ}\text{C})) \frac{V^{0.8}}{D^{0.2}} \quad [\text{in SI unit}]$$

⇒ A very simplified eq. for organic liquids to use for approximations is :-

$$h_L = 423 \frac{V^{0.8}}{D^{0.2}} \quad [\text{in SI unit}]$$

See ex 4.5-1 page 240

⇒ For transition region :-

See Figure (4.5-2) page 241





2.10:G

### \* Heat transfer Coefficient for Noncircular Conduits

→ The equivalent Diameter ( $D_{eq}$ ) must be used, which is defined as four times the hydraulic radius  $r_H$

$$D_{eq} = 4 r_H = 4 \frac{\text{cross-sectional area of channel}}{\text{wetted perimeter of channel}}$$

→ For annular space with outside diameter  $D_2$  and inside  $D_1$  :-

$$D_{eq} = 4 r_H = 4 \frac{\frac{\pi D_2^2}{4} - \frac{\pi D_1^2}{4}}{\pi D_1 + \pi D_2} = D_2 - D_1$$

→ For a rectangle with liquid depth ( $y$ ) and width ( $b$ )

$$D_{eq} = \frac{4 b y}{b + 2y}$$

See ex 9.5-2, page 241

### \* Log mean temp difference and varying temp drop

→ At one point in the heat-transfer apparatus when the fluids are being heated or cooled,

$$Q = U_i A_i (T_i - T_o) = U_o A_o (T_i - T_o)$$

→ As the fluids travel through the heat exchanger, they become heated or cooled and  $T_i$  and/or  $T_o$  vary.

→  $(T_i - T_o)$  or  $\Delta T$  varies with position and some mean  $\Delta T_m$  must be used over the whole apparatus.

\* Two types of heat exchanger 1- Countercurrent flow  
2- Co-current

m → Countercurrent (parallel flow II)

$$\Rightarrow Q = UA \Delta T_m$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta T_{lm} = \frac{\Delta T_2 - \Delta T_1}{\ln(\Delta T_2 / \Delta T_1)}$$

↙  
 $\Delta T_{lm}$  should be used also for parallel (co-current) flow (parallel flow I)

See ex (4.5-4) p 245  
(4.6-6) p 246

## \* Introduction to Radiation heat transfer

→ In (radiant) heat transfer the medium through which the heat is transferred usually is not heated

→ Radiation heat transfer is the transfer of heat by electromagnetic radiation

→ Radiation often occurs in combination with conduction and convection.

→ Thermal Radiation is a form of electromagnetic radiation similar to X rays, light waves, gamma rays and so on, differing only in wavelength.



## \* Thermal Radiation :-

→ It obeys the same laws as light :-

- travels in straight lines.
- can be transmitted through space and vacuum.

→ It is an important mode of heat transfer and is especially important where large temp differences occur, for example :-

- in a furnace with boiler tubes.
- in radiant dryers
- in an oven baking food

## \* Mechanism of Radiant heat transfer :-

1) The thermal energy of a hot source, such as the wall of a furnace at  $T_1$ , is converted into the energy of electromagnetic radiation waves.

2) These waves travel through the intervening space in straight lines and strike a cold object at  $T_2$  such as a furnace tube containing water to be heated.

3) The electromagnetic waves that strike the body are absorbed by the body and converted back to thermal energy or heat.

## ⇒ Absorptivity and black Bodies :-

\* When Thermal radiation (like light waves) falls upon a body, part is absorbed by the body in the form of heat, part is reflected back into space, and part may be actually transmitted through the body.

⇒ For most cases in process engineering, bodies are opaque to transmission, so this will be neglected

⇒ Opaque Bodies :-

$$\alpha + \rho = 1$$



absorptivity or  
fraction absorbed

reflectivity or  
fraction reflected

⇒ Black bodies :- one that absorbs all radiant energy and reflects none.  $\rho = 0$ ,  $\alpha = 1$

\* There are no perfect black bodies, but a close approximation to this is a small hole in a hollow body.

\* Black bodies pic page 277

- the inside surface of the hollow body is blackened by charcoal.
- the radiation enters the hole and impinges on the rear wall.
  - part is absorbed there and part is reflected in all directions.
  - The reflected rays impinge again, part is absorbed and the process continues.



- Hence, essentially all of the energy entering is absorbed and the area of the hole acts as a perfect black body.

- The surface of the inside walls are "rough" and rays are scattered in all direction, unlike a mirror where they are reflected at a definite angle.

- A black body absorbs all radiant energy falling on it and reflects none.

- Such a black body also emits radiation, depending on its temp, and doesn't reflect any.

- The ratio of emissive power of a surface to that of a black body is called **emissivity ( $\epsilon$ )** and it's (1) for a black body.

- Kirchhoff's law states that at the same temp  $T_1$ ,  $\alpha_1$  and  $\epsilon_1$  of a given surface are the same or  $\alpha_1 = \epsilon_1$   
(holds for any black or non-black solid surface)

### \* Radiation From a Body and Emissivity

- Basic eq. for heat transfer by radiation from a perfect black body with an emissivity  $\epsilon = 1$  is

$$\text{Heat Flow } [W] \leftarrow q = A \sigma T^4 \rightarrow \text{temp of the black body}$$

$\downarrow$  constant

$$\text{Surface area of body } [m^2] = 5.676 \times 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 \cdot K^4}$$

- For a body that is NOT a black body and  $\epsilon < 1$ , the emissive power is reduced by  $\epsilon$ , or :-

$$q = A \epsilon \sigma T^4$$

### - Gray Bodies

- ★ Substance that have  $\epsilon < 1$  when it is independent of the wavelength.
- ★ All real materials have  $\epsilon < 1$

See Table (4.10-1) page 278

### \* Radiation to a small Object From Surroundings

→ When we have the case of a small gray object of area  $A_1 (m^2)$  at temp  $T_1$  in a large enclosure at a higher temp  $T_2$ , there is a net radiation to the small object.

→ The small body emits an amount of radiation to the enclosure  $= A_1 \epsilon_1 \sigma T_1^4$ .

→  $\epsilon_1$  of this body is taken at  $T_1$ .

- The small body also absorbs energy from the surroundings at  $T_2 = A_1 \alpha_{12} \sigma T_2^4$ .

→  $\alpha_{12}$  = the absorptivity of body 1 for radiation from the enclosure at  $T_2$ .

→ The value of  $\alpha_{12} \approx$  the emissivity of this body at  $T_2$ .



- The net heat of absorption is then, by the Stefan-Boltzmann equation :-

$$Q = A_1 \epsilon_1 \sigma T_1^4 - A_1 \alpha_{12} \sigma T_2^4 = A_1 \sigma (\epsilon_1 T_1^4 - \alpha_{12} T_2^4)$$

- A further simplification is usually made for engineering purposes, by using one emissivity of the small body at temp  $T_2$ ,  $\epsilon$ .

$$Q = A_1 \epsilon \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

See ex (4.10-1)

### \* Combined Radiation and Convective heat transfer

- When radiation heat transfer occurs from a surface it is usually accompanied by convective heat transfer unless the surface is in a vacuum.

- When radiating surface is at a uniform temp,

→ we can calculate the heat transfer for natural or forced convection as before.

→ The radiation heat transfer is calculated by the Stefan-Boltzmann

→ The total rate of heat transfer is the sum of convection + radiation

$$Q = Q_{\text{conv}} + Q_{\text{rad}} = (h_c + h_r) A_1 (T_1 - T_2)$$

- To obtain an expression for  $h_r$ :-

$$Q_{\text{rad}} = h_r A_1 (T_1 - T_2) = A_1 \epsilon \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

$$\Rightarrow h_r = \epsilon (5.676) \frac{(T_1/100)^4 - (T_2/100)^4}{T_1 - T_2}$$

ask : believe & receive

Five Apple



⇒ Figure (4.10-2)

\* hr given in english unit calculated with  $\epsilon=1$

\* To use value from the Figure, the value obtained from this figure should be multiplied by ( $\epsilon$ ) to give the value of hr

\* If the air temp is not the same as  $T_2$  of the enclosure,  $q_{conv}$  and  $q_{rad}$  must be calculated separately and not combined together as in  $\Rightarrow q = q_{conv} + q_{rad}$

see ex (4.10-2)

