# Chemical Engineering

# **Heat Transfer**

Comprehensive Theory with Solved Examples and Practice Questions





#### **MADE EASY Publications Pvt. Ltd.**

Corporate Office: 44-A/4, Kalu Sarai (Near Hauz Khas Metro Station), New Delhi-110016

E-mail: infomep@madeeasy.in

Contact: 011-45124612, 0-9958995830, 8860378007

Visit us at: www.madeeasypublications.org

#### **Heat Transfer**

© Copyright, by MADE EASY Publications Pvt. Ltd.

All rights are reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in or introduced into a retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means (electronic, mechanical, photo-copying, recording or otherwise), without the prior written permission of the above mentioned publisher of this book.

First Edition: 2022

# **Contents** •

# **Heat Transfer**

Chapter 1		Chapter 4	
Introduction and Basic (	Concepts 1	Heat Transfer from Extended	
1.1 Introduction	1	Surfaces (FINS)	61
1.2 Modes of Heat Transfer	1	4.1 Introduction	61
1.3 Thermal Conductivity	5	4.2 Fin Equation	61
1.4 Thermal Conductivity of Liquid	ds and Gases7	4.3 Fin Efficiency	65
1.5 Thermal Diffusivity	8	4.4 Fin Effectiveness	66
Student Assignments	10	4.5 Proper Length of a Fin	67
		4.6 Error Estimation in Temp. Measurement	68
Chapter 2		Student Assignments	79
Steady State Heat Cond		Chapter 5	
<ul><li>2.1 Introduction</li><li>2.2 Generalized Heat Conduction</li></ul>		Transient Conduction	80
2.3 The Steady-State One-Dimens		5.1 Introduction	80
Heat Conduction		5.2 Lumped Heat Analysis	80
		5.3 Instantaneous Rate of Heat Transfer	83
2.4 Critical Thickness of Insulation		5.4 Total Rate of Heat Transfer upto Time t	84
2.5 Conduction in Spherical Geom		5.5 Response Time of a Temp. measuring Instrument	84
2.6 Critical Radius of Insulation for Student Assignments	•	Student Assignments	92
Chapter 3		Chapter 6	
Steady-State Conductio	n with Internal	Forced Convection	93
Heat Generation	44	6.1 Physical Mechanism of Convection	93
3.1 Introduction	44	6.2 Nusselt Number	94
3.2 Plane Wall with Internal Heat G	Generation44	6.3 Thermal Boundary Layer	95
3.3 Current Carrying Electrical Cor	nductor47	6.4 Prandtl Number	96
3.4 Nuclear Fuel Rod with Claddin	g51	6.5 Dimensional Analysis for Forced Convection	
3.5 Sphere with Internal Heat Gen	eration53	Heat Transfer	96
3.6 Temperature Profiles in Differe	nt Conditions55	6.6 Reynolds Analogy for Turbulent Flow	
Student Assignments	60	Over a Flat Plate	98

6.7	Heat Transfer Cofficient 100	9.4 Laws of Radiation	171
6.8	Forced Convection inside Tubes and Ducts 106	9.5 Transmittivity, Absorpitivity, Reflectivity	173
6.9	Heat Transfer Coefficient for Laminar Flow in Tube 109	9.6 Planck's Law for Spectral Distribution	173
6.10	Heat Transfer Coefficient for Turbulent Flow	9.7 The Stefan - Boltzmann Law	174
	in a Tube114	9.8 Wein's Displacement Law	175
6.11	Flow Across Cylinders and Spheres114	9.9 Emission from Real Surfaces	176
6.12	2 Modified Sieder Tate Equation 116	9.10 Kirchhoff's Law	178
6.13	B Heat Transfer Coefficient for Laminar Developing	9.11 Radiation Properties	179
	Flow in a Tube116	9.12 The Radiation Shape Factor	181
	Student Assignments135	9.13 Radiation Exchange between Opaque, Diffuse, G	Gray
		Surfaces in an Enclosure	186
Ch	napter 7	9.14 Radiation Shield	188
Во	iling and Condensation138	Student Assignments	201
7.1	Introduction		
7.2	Classification of Boiling Heat Transfer139	Chapter 10	
7.3	Pool Boiling140	Heat Exchangers	202
7.4	Flow Boiling143	10.1 Introduction	202
7.5	Condensation Heat Transfer145	10.2 Types of Heat Exchangers	202
7.6	Heat Transfer Correlation for Film Condensation 146	10.3 The Overall Heat Transfer Coefficient	205
	Student Assignments151	10.4 Fouling Factor	207
		10.5 Analysis of Heat Exchangers	208
Ch	napter 8	10.6 The Log Mean Temperature Difference Method	d 209
Na	tural Convection153	10.7 Counter-Flow Heat Exchanger	211
8.1	Physical Mechanism of Natural Convection	10.8 Multipass and Cross-Flow Heat Exchanger:	
8.2	Volume Coefficient of Expansivity	Use of a Correction Factor	212
	Natural Convection on a Vertical Plate at	10.9 The Effectiveness - NTU Method	220
0.0	Constant Temperature154	10.10 Selection Criteria of Heat Exchangers	226
8.4	The Grashof Number155	10.11 Calculation of Heat Transfer Coefficient in	
8.5	Natural Convection over Surfaces	Double Pipe Heat Exchanger	226
8.6	Combined Natural and Forced Convection	10.12 Some Basic Points regarding Shell & Tube	
	Student Assignments167	Heat Exchanger	227
		10.13 Design of Shell and Tube Heat Exchanger	229
Ch	napter 9	10.14 Calculation of Heat Transfer Coefficient in	
	•	Tube Side	231
Ka	diation Heat Transfer168	10.15 Allocation of Fluid in Heat Exchanger	231
9.1	Introduction168	10.16 Types of Shell & Tube Heat Exchanger	231
9.2	Band Emission170	10.17 Evaporation	232
9.3	Blackbody Radiation171	Student Assignments	243

CHAPTER

# **Introduction and Basic Concepts**

#### **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**

The reading of this chapter will enable the students

- To understand how thermodynamics and heat transfer are related to each other.
- To understand the various modes of heat transfer.
- To understand the physical mechanisms of different modes of heat transfer and the basic laws that govern the process of heat transfer in different modes.

#### 1.1 Introduction

- Before 18th century, heat was defined as calorific fluid when it get added in any system, system get heated and when it released from any system, system get cooled.
- The definition of 'heat' is provided by classical thermodynamics. It is defined as an energy that flows due to difference in temperature.
- Heat flows in a direction from higher temperature to lower temperature.
- Heat energy can neither be observed nor be measured directly. However, the effects produced by the transfer of this energy are amenable to observations and measurements.

#### 1.1.1 Difference between Thermodynamics and Heat Transfer

- Thermodynamics deals with the amount of heat transfer as a system undergoes a process from one equilibrium state to another, and makes no reference to how long the process will take.
- Where as the science of heat transfer deals with the rate of heat transfer, which is the main quantity of interest in the design and evaluation of heat transfer equipment.
- Heat transfer deals with modes of heat transfer and temperature profile within the object.

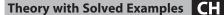
#### 1.1.2 Temperature

Temperature is measure of amount of energy caused by the molecules. It tells about the hotness and coldness of the object. Temperature difference is driving force for heat transfer.

#### **Modes of Heat Transfer** 1.2

The process of heat transfer taken as place by three distinct modes: Conduction, Convection and Radiation.







#### 1.2.1 Conduction

The mechanism of heat transfer due to a temperature gradient in a stationary medium is called conduction. The medium may be a solid or a fluid. In liquids and gases, conduction is due to the collisions of molecules in course of their random motions. In solids, the conduction of heat is attributed to two effects:

- (i) the flow of free electrons and
- (ii) the lattice vibrational waves caused by the vibrational motions of the molecules at relatively fixed positions called a lattice.

The law which describes the rate of heat transfer in conduction is known as Fourier's law.

According to Fourier's law,

$$q_x = -k \frac{dT}{dx} \qquad \dots (1.1)$$

#### **Assumptions of Fourier's Law**

- (i) Steady state heat conduction.
- (ii) Linear temperature profile.
- (iii) No heat generation within object.
- (iv) Object faces are isothermal (means no change in temperature with time).
- (v) One direction flow of heat.
- (vi) Isotropic material (thermal conductivity must be constant)
- where  $q_x$  is the rate of heat flow per m<sup>2</sup> of heat area normal to the direction of heat flow.
- The minus sign in Equation (1.1) indicates that heat flows in the direction of decreasing temperature.
- The constant *k* is known as thermal conductivity.

When the temperature becomes a function of three space coordinates, say, x, y, z in a rectangular Cartesian frame, heat flows along the three coordinate directions. Equation (1.1) under the situation, is written in vector form as

$$q = -k\nabla T \qquad ...(1.2)$$
 where, 
$$q = iq_x + jq_y + kq_z$$
 and, 
$$\nabla T = i\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + j\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} + k\frac{\partial T}{\partial z}$$

Example 1.1 The rate of heat transfer from a hot surface to a cold surface is directly proportional to the difference in temperature between the two surfaces and the surface area normal to the direction of heat flow. This is

(a) Newton's law of cooling

(b) Kirchhoff's law

(c) Fourier's law

(d) Wien's law

Ans. : (c)

## Example 1.2 Heat transfer takes place according to

(a) Fick's law

- (b) Zeroth law of thermodynamics
- (c) First law of thermodynamics
- (d) Second law of thermodynamics

Ans. : (d)



- Thermal conductivity is a transport property of the medium through which heat is conducted.
- For an isotropic medium, the thermal conductivity *k* is a scalar quantity which depends upon temperature only.

#### 1.2.2 Convection

The mode by which heat is transferred between a solid surface and the adjacent fluid in motion when there is a temperature difference between the two is known as convection heat transfer.

- The mode of convective heat transfer comprises of two mechanisms:
  - (i) Conduction at the solid surface and
  - (ii) Advection by the bulk or macroscopic motion of the fluid a little away from the solid surface.
- The convection is of two types: Forced convection and Free convection.
- In **Forced convection**, the fluid is forced to flow over a solid surface by external means such as fan, pump or atmospheric wind.
- When the fluid motion is caused by the buoyancy forces that are induced by density differences due to the variation in temperature in the fluid, the convection is called **Natural** (or **Free**) **convection**.

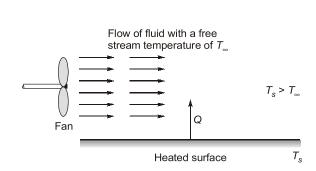


Figure 1.1 Forced convective heat transfer from a horizontal surface

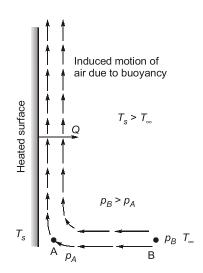


Figure 1.2 Free convective heat transfer from a heated vertical surface

 Irrespective of the details of the mechanism, the rate of heat transfer by convection (both forced and free) between a solid surface and a fluid is calculated from the relation

$$Q = \overline{h} A \Delta T \qquad \dots (1.3)$$

This equation is known as Newton's law of cooling.

where Q = Rate of heat transfer by convection

A = Heat transfer area

 $\Delta T = (T_s - T_f)$ , is the difference between the surface temperature  $T_s$  and the temperature of the fluid  $T_f$  at some reference location.

 $\bar{h}$  = Average convective heat transfer coefficient over the area A.



The convection heat transfer coefficient *h* is not a property of the fluid. It is an experimentally determined parameter whose value depends on all the variables influencing convection such as the surface geometry, the nature of fluid motion, the properties of the fluid, and the bulk fluid velocity.

The average forced convective heat transfer coefficient for a hot fluid flowing over a cold surface is 200 W/(m²°C). The fluid temperature upstream of the cold surface is 100°C and the surface is held at 20°C. Determine the heat transfer rate per unit surface area from the fluid to the surface **Solution**:

The rate of heat transfer per unit area, q

$$q = \frac{Q}{A} = \overline{h}(T_{\infty} - T_s) = 200 (100 - 20) = 16,000 \text{ W/m}^2 = 16 \text{ kW/m}^2$$

#### 1.2.3 Radiation

Radiation is a mode of heat transfer which does not require any medium between objects for transfer of heat. For example, we receive sun light from sun. Radiation is the energy emitted by matter in the form of electromagnetic waves (or photons) as result of the changes in the electronic configurations of the atoms or molecules.

The maximum rate of radiation that can be emitted from a surface at a thermodynamic temperature  $T_s$  (in K) is given by the Stefan-Boltzmann law as

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{emit, max}} = \sigma A_s T_s^4 \qquad \dots (1.4)$$

where  $\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}^4$  is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.

The idealized surface that emits radiation at this maximum rate is called as black body, and the radiation emitted by a black body is called black body radiation.

The radiation emitted by all real surface is less than the radiation emitted by a black body at the same temperature, and is expressed as

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{emit}} = \varepsilon \sigma A_{\text{s}} T_{\text{s}}^4 \qquad \dots (1.5)$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is the emissivity of the surface. The property emissivity, whose value is in the range  $0 \le \varepsilon \le 1$ , is a measure of how closely a surface approximates a black body.



- The heat transfer by conduction or convection requires the presence of a medium. But the radiation heat transfer does not necessarily require a medium, rather it occurs most efficiently in a vacuum.
- Radiation is a volumetric phenomenon, and all solids, liquids, and gases emit, absorb, or transmit radiation to varying degrees. However, radiation usually considered to be a surface phenomenon for solids that are opaque to thermal radiation such as metal, wood and rocks.

Example 1.4 After sunset, radiant energy can be sensed by a person standing near a brick wall. Such walls frequently have a surface temperature around 50°C, and the typical brick emissivity value is approximately 0.9. What would be the radiant heat flux per square metre from a brick wall at this temperature?





**Solution:** Applying Equation (1.5), we have

$$\frac{E}{A} = \epsilon \sigma T^4 = 0.9 \times 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times (50 + 273)^4 = 555.44 \text{ W/m}^2$$

## 1.3 Thermal Conductivity

Thermal conductivity of a material can be defined as the rate of heat transfer through a unit thickness of the material per unit area per unit temperature difference. The thermal conductivity of a material is a measure of the ability of the material to conduct heat. A high value for thermal conductivity indicates that the material is a good heat conductor, and a low value indicates that the material is a poor heat conductor or insulator. The thermal conductivities of some common materials at room temperature are given in Table 1.1.

**Table 1.1** Thermal conductivity of some materials at room temperature (300 K)

	,	
Material	<i>k</i> (W/(m°C))	
Diamond	2300	
Silver	429	
Copper	401	
Gold	317	
Aluminium	237	
Iron	80.2	
Mercury (1)	8.54	
Glass	0.78	
Brick	0.72	
Water (1)	0.613	
Human skin	0.37	
Wood (oak)	0.17	
Helium (g)	0.152	
Soft rubber	0.13	
Refrigerant-12	0.072	
Glass fibre	0.043	
Air (g)	0.026	
Urethane, rigid foam	0.026	

#### **1.3.1 Solids**

In solids, heat conduction is due to two effects - flow of free electrons and propagation of lattice vibrational waves. The thermal conductivity is therefore determined In the addition of these two components. In a pure metal, the electronic component is more prominent than the component of lattice vibration and gives rise to a very high value of thermal conductivity. The lattice component of thermal conductivity strongly depends on the way the molecules are arranged. Highly ordered crystalline non-metallic solids like diamond, silicon, quartz exhibit very high thermal conductivities (more than that of pure metals) due to lattice vibration only, but are poor conductors of electricity.



- Thermal conductivity of an alloy of two metals is usually much lower than that of either metals. (Refer to Table 1.2)
- Thermal conductivity of pure metals decreases with increase in temperature (Refer to Figure 1.3), because with increase in temperature lattice vibrations increases and that lowers the flow of free electrons.
- Thermal conductivity of alloys increases with increase in temperature. (Refer to Figure 1.3).
- Thermal conductivity of non-metallic solids increases with increases in temperature because lattice vibration increases.

**Table 1.2** The comparison of thermal conductivities of metallic alloys with those of constituting pure metals

Pure metal or alloy	k (W/(m°C))
Copper	401
Aluminium	237
Nickel	91
Constantan (55% Cu, 45% Ni)	23
Commercial bronze (90% Cu, 10% AI)	52

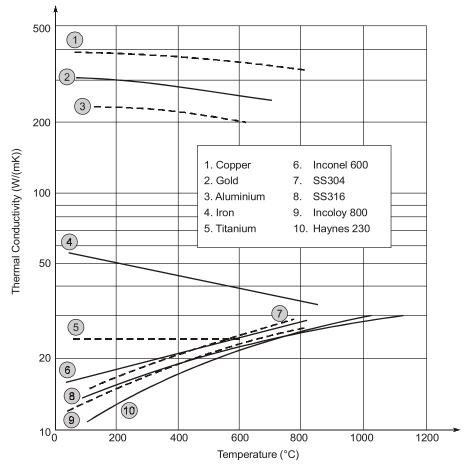


Figure 1.3 The variation of thermal conductivity with temperature for typical metals and their alloys



## Thermal Conductivity of Liquids and Gases

The thermal conductivity for liquids and gases is attributed to the transfer of kinetic energy between the randomly moving molecules due to their collisions. The kinetic theory of gases predicts and the experiments confirm that the thermal conductivity of gases is proportional to the square root of the thermodynamic temperature T, and inversely proportional to the square root of the molar mass M. Therefore, the thermal conductivity of a gas increases with increasing temperature and decreasing molar mass. So it is not surprising that the thermal conductivity of helium (M = 4) is much higher than those of air (M = 29) and argon (M = 40).

Unlike gases, the thermal conductivities of most liquids decrease with increasing temperature, with water being a notable exception. Like gases, the conductivity of liquids decreases with increasing molar mass.



- The thermal conductivity of gases is independent of pressure in a wide range of pressures encountered in practice.
- Because of large intermolecular spaces and hence a smaller number of molecular collisions, the thermal conductivities exhibited by gases are lower than those of the liquids.

Example 1.5 In general, the thermal conductivity of a substance is

- (a) independent of temperature
- (b) a strong function of pressure
- (c) strongly temperature dependent
- (d) independent of pressure

Ans. : (c)

Example 1.6

With increase in temperature, the thermal conductivity of gases

(a) decreases

(b) increases

(c) remain constant

(d) first increase and then decreases

Ans. : (b)

Example 1.7

Which liquid metal can be taken as the best conductor?

(a) Tin

(b) Mercury

(c) Bismuth

(d) Sodium

Ans. : (d)

Example 1.8 Choose the correct statement.

- (a) The thermal conductivity of insulating solids increases with temperature
- (b) The thermal conductivity of good electrical conductors is generally low
- (c) The thermal conductivity of gases decreases with temperature
- (d) The thermal conductivity of liquids is a strong function of temperature

Ans. : (a)

Example 1.9

Which of the following has the lowest thermal conductivity?

(a) Air

(b) Water

(c) Brick

(d) Copper

Ans. : (a)

# 1.5 Thermal diffusivity

The ratio of thermal conductivity to the heat capacity appears to be an important property and is termed thermal diffusivity  $\alpha$ . Therefore,

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{Heat conducted}}{\text{Heat stored}} = \frac{k}{\rho c}$$
 ...(1.6)

Thermal conductivity k represents how well a material conducts heat, and the heat capacity  $\rho c$  represents how much energy a material stores per unit volume.

The thermal diffusivity of a material is the measure of its ability to conduct thermal energy relative to its ability to store thermal energy. Materials having large values of  $\alpha$  will respond quickly to a change in the thermal environment in establishing a steady-state temperature field within the material in transporting heat, while materials having small values of  $\alpha$  will do it sluggishly.



- The science of thermodynamics deals with the amount of heat transfer a system undergoes a process from one equilibrium state to another, whereas the science of heat transfer deals with the rate of heat transfer, which is the main quantity of interest in the design and evaluation of heat transfer equipment.
- Heat can be transferred in three different modes: Conduction, Convection, and Radiation.
- Conduction is the transfer of heat from the more energetic particles of a substance to the adjacent less energetic ones as a result of interactions between the particles, and is expressed by Fourier' law of heat conduction as

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{cond}} = -kA \frac{dT}{dx}$$

• Convection is the mode of heat transfer between a solid surface and the adjacent liquid or gas that is in motion and involves the combined effects of conduction and fluid motion. The rate of convection heat transfer is expressed by Newton's law of cooling as

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{convection}} = hA_s(T_s - T_{\infty})$$

• Radiation is the energy emitted by matter is in the form of electromagnetic waves (or photons) as a result of the changes in the electronic configurations of the atoms or molecules. The maximum rate of radiation that can be emitted from a surface at a thermodynamic temperature  $T_s$  is given by the Stefan-Boltzmann law as  $\dot{Q}_{\rm emit,\ max} = \sigma A_s T_s^4$ .



## **Objective Brain Teasers**

- Eggs with a mass of 0.15 kg per egg and a 1. specific heat of 3.32 kJ/kg°C are cooled from 32°C to 10°C at a rate of 300 eggs per minute. The rate of heat removal from the eggs is
  - (a) 11 kW
- (b) 80 kW
- (c) 25 kW
- (d) 55 kW
- 2. Which equation below is used to determine the heat flux for conduction?
  - (a)  $-kA\frac{dT}{dx}$  (b)  $-k \operatorname{grad} T$
  - (c)  $h(T_2 T_1)$  (d)  $\varepsilon \sigma T^4$
- A 2 kW electric resistance heater submerged in 3. 30 kg water is turned on and kept on for 10 min. During the process, 500 kJ of heat is lost from the water. The temperature rise of water is
  - (a) 5.6°C
- (b) 9.6°C
- (c) 13.6°C
- (d) 23.3°C
- 4. A 1 kW electric resistance heater in a room is turned on and kept on for 50 minutes. The amount of energy transferred to the room by the heater is
  - (a) 1 kJ
- (b) 50 kJ
- (c) 3000 kJ
- (d) 3600 kJ
- Which equation below is used to determine the 5. heat flux for convection?

  - (a)  $-kA\frac{dT}{dr}$  (b)  $-k \operatorname{grad} T$
  - (c)  $h(T_1 T_2)$
- (d)  $\varepsilon \sigma T^4$
- 6. A hot  $16 \text{ cm} \times 16 \text{ cm} \times 16 \text{ cm}$  cubical iron block is cooled at an average rate of 80 W. The heat flux is
  - (a)  $195 \text{ W/m}^2$
- (b) 521 W/m<sup>2</sup>
- (c) 3125 W/m<sup>2</sup>
- (d) 7100 W/m<sup>2</sup>
- Which equation below is used to determine the 7. heat flux emitted by thermal radiation from a surface?
  - (a)  $-kA\frac{dT}{dx}$  (b)  $-k \operatorname{grad} T$
  - (c)  $h(T_2 T_1)$
- (d)  $\varepsilon \sigma T^4$

#### **ANSWERS**

- (d) 1.
  - **2**. (b)
- **3**. (a)
- **4**. (c)
- **5**. (c)

(b) **7**. (d)

#### Hints & Explanation \_\_\_

1. (d)

$$m = 0.15 \,\mathrm{kg/egg}$$

$$c = 3.32 \text{ kJ/kg}^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$T_{\text{initial}} = 32^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$T_{\text{final}} = 10^{\circ}\text{C}$$

No. of eggs cooled = 300 per minute

The rate of heat removal

- = mass of 1 egg × No. of eggs cooled per minute
- $\times$  specific heat  $\times$  [ $T_{\text{initial}} T_{\text{final}}$ ]
- $= 0.15 \times 300 \times 3.32 \times [32 10] = 3286.8 \text{ kJ/min}$
- $= 54.78 \text{ kW} \approx 55 \text{ kW}$
- 2. (b)

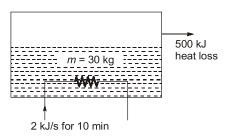
Heat flux = 
$$\frac{Q}{A}$$

From Fourier's law

$$\frac{Q}{A}$$
 = Heat flux =  $-k\frac{dt}{dx}$ 

$$\frac{dT}{dx}$$
 = grad or slope

- $\therefore$  Heat flux = -k grad.
- 3. (a)



$$Q_{\text{input}} = \frac{2 \text{ kJ}}{\text{s}} \times (10 \times 60) s = 1200 \text{ kJ}$$
  
 $Q_{\text{out}} = 500 \text{ kJ}$ 

$$Q_{\text{stored}} = 1200 - 500 = 700 \text{ kJ}$$

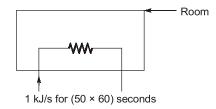
Heat stored is utilized in rise of temperature of water.

Heat stored = mcdT

$$700 = 30 \times 4.18 \times dT$$

$$dT = \frac{700}{30 \times 4.18} = 5.58^{\circ}\text{C} \approx 5.6^{\circ}\text{C}$$

4. (c)



Amount of energy transferred to the room by the heater = Rate of energy × Time input

= 1 kJ/s 
$$\times$$
 (50  $\times$  60) second = 3000 kJ

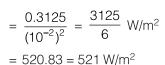
5. (c)

$$Q = hA\Delta T$$
 (connection heat transfer)  
 $Q/A = \text{heat flux for convection}$   
Heat flux =  $h \Delta T = h[T_1 - T_2]$ 

6.

Dimension of cube =  $16 \times 16 \times 16 \text{ cm}^3$ Area of cube =  $6a^2$ Heat flux is Q/A

$$= \frac{80}{6 \times 16 \times 16} = \frac{0.3125}{6} \text{ W/cm}^2 \text{ Ans. } T_s = 73.3^{\circ}\text{C}$$



(d) 7.  $Q = \sigma \in AT^4$ Heat flux:  $Q/A = \sigma \in T^4$ 



### **STUDENT'S ASSIGNMENTS**

An insulated pipe of 50 mm outside diameter 1.  $(\varepsilon = 0.8)$  is laid in a room at 30°C. It the surface temperature is 250°C and the convective heat transfer coefficient is 10 W/m<sup>2</sup>K, calculate the heat loss per unit length of pipe.

**Ans.** Q/L = 2232.4 W/m

2. An immersion water heater of surface area 0.1 m<sup>2</sup> and rating 1 kW is designed to operate fully submerged in water. Estimate the surface temperature of the heater when the water is at 40°C and the heat transfer coefficient is 300 W/m<sup>2</sup>K.