HEAT TRANSFER IN A TURBULENT LIQUID OR GAS STREAM

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The theory of heat transfer from a solid body to a liquid stream could be presented previously only with limiting assumptions about the movement of the fluid (potential flow, laminar frictional flow). (See references 1, 2, and 3.)

For turbulent flow, the most important practical case, the previous theoretical considerations did not go beyond dimensionless formulas and certain conclusions as to the analogy between the friction factor and the unit thermal conductance. (See references 4, 5, 6, and 7.) In order to obtain numerical results, an experimental treatment of the problem was resorted to, which gave rise to numerous investigations because of the importance of this problem in many branches of technology. However, the results of these investigations frequently deviate from one another. The experimental results are especially dependent upon the overall dimensions and the specific proportions of the equipment.

In the present work, the attempt will be made to develop systematically the theory of the heat transfer and of the dependence of the unit thermal conductance upon shape and dimensions, using as a basis the velocity distribution for turbulent flow set up by Prandtl and Von Kármán.

**"Der Wärmetübergang an einen turbulenten Flüssigkeits- oder Gasstrom," (Abstract of a Dissertation presented to the Phil. Faculty of the Univ. of Vienna.) Z.f.a.M.M., vol. 1, no. 4, Aug. 1921, pp. 268-290.**

**As long as the velocities remain much below the velocity of sound, compressible fluids (gases) and incompressible fluids follow, as is known, approximately the same laws of flow; therefore, in the following, the expression for the flow of fluids will be used for actual liquids as well as for gases.**

**NOTE: Translation received from Univ. of California, Berkeley 4, Calif.**
1. HYDRODYNAMIC PRINCIPLES

First of all, the results of the Frandtl-Kármán theory (reference 8) which will be used constantly, will be set forth.

For the distribution of the shear stress in the immediate vicinity of the wall, dimensional considerations (see note 1 in the appendix) yield the expression:

$$\tau = \frac{7}{3} \tau_0 \rho \mu \nu \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

where the symbols are:

- $u$: velocity in the direction of flow
- $\tau_0$: shear stress at the wall
- $\mu$: absolute viscosity
- $\nu = \mu/\rho$: kinematic viscosity
- $B$: constant (note 2), $\left(3.82\right)^*$
- $y$: distance from wall
- $\rho$: mass density

In the same region, when the shear stress at the wall is assumed as known, the velocity follows from the equation (note 3):

$$u = B \left(\frac{\tau_0}{\rho}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \left(\frac{y}{\nu}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

There are two methods (note 4) of obtaining the distribution of velocity and shear stress for the entire region of the fluid. Either one starts from equation (2) and sets

$$u(y) = y^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(A_0 + A_1 y + A_2 y^2 + \ldots \right)$$

*The value of the constant corresponds to the equation for the velocity distribution, which is used below. Compare equation (8).*
in which the constant $A_0$ is determined from the requirement that equation (2a) is transformed into equation (3) at small values of $y$, or the basic equation (1) for the shear stress transmitted between the individual layers can be extended and equation (1a) can be written

$$
\tau = K \left[ Y(y) \right] \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}
$$

in which $Y$ must change to $y$ in the vicinity of the wall. With this basic equation the velocity field for turbulent flow can be calculated as long as no separation from the boundary walls takes place.

For the special case of flow in a right circular cylinder it was shown by Von Kármán that the experimental results on the velocity distribution can be reproduced with sufficient accuracy if the function $Y(y)$ is made, (called the influence function).

$$
Y = \frac{r^2 - r^2}{2r}
$$

where $\bar{r} = r - y$.

For time and volume invariant, the velocity distribution is then:

$$
u = u_{\text{max}} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\bar{r}}{r} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}
$$

and finally, the relation of the maximum velocity at the axis of the tube $u_{\text{max}}$ to the average velocity $v$ in the cross section is

$$
v = \frac{7}{8} u_{\text{max}}
$$

2. TURBULENT THERMAL CONVECTIVITY

In the following, the transmission of heat by matter only is considered, consequently limiting the study to a temperature region in which the amount of heat carried off
by radiation is negligible in comparison with that carried off by particles of matter. Furthermore, the velocity distribution shall be affected only by external conditions; that is, the influence of the temperature field upon the velocity field is disregarded. At relatively great velocities of flow where the motion is turbulent, the resulting error need not be taken into account as long as the differences in density in the cross section, caused by temperature changes, are not too great.

Corresponding to the ideas taken from those on the conduction of heat in solid bodies, a distinction is likely to be made in the case of heat transfer in fluids, in general between the thermal conductivity, which describes the heat transported by molecular movement, and the so-called thermal convection— that is, transfer of heat by movements of the mass. The order of magnitude of the carrier of heat is thus used as the basis for distinction. A somewhat different mode of consideration, which pushes into the foreground the nature of the motion of the carrier of heat, seems, however, to be more advantageous both for mathematical treatment and for comprehension of the process. Accordingly, by "thermal conduction" in liquids is understood the transmission of heat by the random motion of the molecules, as has been represented by the concepts of the kinetic theory of gases. It then will be regarded as characteristic of the molecular movement of heat that it is a pure function of temperature at a fixed pressure and a fixed density of the fluid and especially that it is not dependent upon the state of motion of the fluid. Thermal convection, on the other hand, shall signify the transfer of heat which results when the motion of the particles is directed. In many textbooks of physics free convection is considered as the origination of a natural flow produced by differences of density under the influence of the force of gravity. This concept, then, is contained in the preceding definition.

In the case of laminar flow, all the heat transfer can be accounted for by the foregoing concepts. For turbulent flow, however, one manner of heat transfer is still unmentioned. As is known, steady-state turbulent flow is represented as having at each point a certain average velocity vector upon which is superposed another velocity vector, varying in direction and magnitude, having an average value over a sufficient span of time equal to zero. According to Von Kármán this kinematic picture can be described more exactly by the representation that vortex filaments with a random motion float in the bulk of the fluid, which moves
along with a fixed time-average velocity distribution. The movements of the vortex filaments, as well as those of the molecules, obey laws of statistics. The fluctuating velocity vector (time average is zero) is then defined at a point of the fluid by the circulation and by the relative position of all the vortex filaments.

This concept leads to introduction, apart from the usual thermal conductivity, which appears as an expression for the statistical law of molecular motion, of a conductivity of turbulent motion which expresses the statistical influence of vortex motion upon the transfer of heat. It then will depend primarily upon the state of motion of the fluid, which is especially influenced by the nature of the boundary surfaces.

The method of accounting for this phenomenon by introduction of an increased conductivity for turbulent motion is known. Several authors have proposed different basic equations in which the increased conductivity is regarded as an empirical function of the velocity. Recognition of the true circumstances was partially clarified by the considerations of Reynolds and Prandtl. Both began with the idea that turbulent friction and turbulent heat transfer are analogous processes, and that the same mechanism which in the first case causes a "momentum transport" leads to transfer of heat in the second case. Reynolds (reference 4) in an intuitive manner, according to this consideration, went directly from the friction factor to the unit thermal conductance in circular tubes and compared, as it were, the integral processes. On the other hand, Prandtl (reference 7) sets up the exact conditions under which a directly analogous conclusion is permissible; he shows that in certain cases the temperature field is an exact image of the velocity field, so that knowledge of the motion permits direct conclusions about the thermal field. However, he shows that this is clearly not the case for right circular tubes, so that conclusions can only be drawn as to the form of the relation between the different parameters, since numerical results cannot be obtained. Recent advances (sec. 1) in the mathematical representation of turbulent flow and the velocity distribution corresponding to it now make possible a more exact expression of the "elementary law" for turbulent heat exchange, so that the following statements start out from Prandtl's results in two directions, by first of all furnishing numerical results and then allowing a mathematical consideration of the different arrangements in which there exists no spatial constancy of the velocity and temperature fields. This
makes possible a detailed discussion of experimental results to explain individual deviations.

3. THE FUNDAMENTAL LAW OF TURBULENT HEAT EXCHANGE

First of all, the processes of thought applied to the kinetic theory of gases, which lead to the differential law of internal friction and heat transfer by random motion of molecules, will be applied to the case of turbulent exchange.

Consider a layer at a distance \( y \) from the wall; there the average velocity \( u \) prevails in the direction of flow and let \( |w| \) be the average absolute amount of the velocity perpendicular to direction of flow. Then the average velocity of flow in two layers at a distance \( \frac{x}{2} \) from the layer \( y \) under consideration (where \( x \) is a kind of "mean path") is:

\[
u = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{x}{2}
\]

The momentum transport per unit of surface perpendicular to the average flow is given, introducing a proportionality factor \( \beta \) which depends upon the nature of the coherent parts of the fluid and the formation of the mean value with respect to time, by the expression:

\[
\beta \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} x = \tau \tag{5}
\]

and is equal to the shear stress \( \tau \) at \( y \).

If \( C \) is the heat capacity of a unit volume, then, on the other hand, the heat transport \( q \) per unit of surface, likewise perpendicular to the average flow, is given by:

\[
q = \beta C \omega \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} x \tag{6}
\]

This states that the same fluid particles which produce the shear stress \( \tau \) by their transmission of momentum, also
transmit the heat. The proportion of heat transmitted can be calculated by a kind of counting of these particles.

One such "counting" is given, as is easily seen, by the product \( \beta w x \) (called the coefficient of turbulence). The coefficient of turbulence, together with the constant \( C \), represents an expression for the statistical law of heat transfer in the case of turbulent flow just as does the conductivity \( \lambda \) in the case of no flow.

The coefficient of turbulence can be calculated from previously obtained knowledge of the state of flow.

From equations (1) and (1a)

\[
\tau = \rho \varphi(y) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}
\]

from which (note 5)

\[
\beta w x = \varphi(y) = \frac{7}{B} \frac{\tau}{\rho^{4/7}} \mu^{1/7} v^{9/7}
\]

The basic equation (1) expresses the total effect of the molecular conduction of momentum (internal friction) and of the momentum transport by eddy convection. Correspondingly, the basic equation itself, as well as the velocity distribution originating from it, is to be regarded only as an expression which becomes asymptotic at very great Reynolds numbers, where the effect of the molecular conduction of momentum is small in comparison with the second part of the friction mechanism - that is, eddy convection. However, it has been found that the proportionality between \( \tau \) and \( v^{7/4} \) is a very good approximation even at values of the Reynolds number which correspond to about five times the critical velocity. From this, it is concluded that the statistical laws for the molecular and eddy transport of momentum can be represented to a good approximation, even at moderate Reynolds numbers, by the general expression (1).

By referring to equation (1) for calculation of \( \beta w x \), it is assumed that all the heat transfer can be expressed also by a general statistical law which summarizes molecular and eddy processes. It has been assumed, therefore, that there exists in the molecular processes the same proportionality between momentum and energy transfer as exists in the
eddy processes; that is, it is assumed that the ratio between \( \lambda \) and \( \mu \) is the same as that between \( C \) and \( \rho \).

The error committed is negligible for gases, as is shown by the following consideration. On the one hand, the portion of heat carried over by pure turbulent convection is several times that transferred by molecular condition, as is shown by a comparison of unit thermal conductance for laminar and turbulent flow; on the other hand, the ratio \( \frac{\lambda \rho}{C \mu} \) lies between 1.25 and 0.97 according to the number of atoms in the gas; that is, the molecular mechanism of condition of momentum (internal friction) and that of conduction of heat are essentially similar. Hence, for gases and superheated steam, practical and quantitatively correct results can be expected from the calculation. The following derivations are to be understood in this sense. The case where \( \frac{\lambda \rho}{C \mu} \) differs greatly from unity will be referred to once again at the conclusion of the work.

By consideration of equations (6) and (7), there is obtained for the total amount of heat \( q \) transferred through a unit surface of a layer at a distance \( y \):

\[
q = \frac{7}{\beta} \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{3/7} v \frac{1}{7} C \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \quad (8)
\]

In practice, the limiting value of \( q_0 \) for \( y = 0 \) — that is, the amount of heat going out of the wall per unit of surface — will be calculated as follows: The velocity \( u \) is represented by:

\[
u(y) = y^{1/7} \left\{ A_0 + A_1 y + A_2 y^2 + \ldots \right\}
\]

The shear stress \( \tau \) has a fixed limiting value for \( y = 0 \), and is a regular function of \( y \) in the vicinity of \( y = 0 \). Therefore, \( \tau \) can be developed as a power series in \( y \):

\[
\tau = \beta w x \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \tau_0 + \tau_1 y + \tau_2 y^2 + \ldots
\]
Inserting \( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \),

\[
\beta_{wx} = \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{T_0 + T_1 y + T_2 y^2 + \ldots}{\frac{1}{7} A_0 + \frac{3}{7} A_1 y + \ldots} y^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}}
\]

then developing this fractional expression according to powers of \( y \) in the region \( y = 0 \):

\[
\beta_{wx} = \frac{Z}{\rho} \frac{T_0}{A_0} y^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} \left\{ 1 + \omega y + \ldots \right\}
\]

finally, considering equation (6), yields:

\[
\phi_0 = \frac{Z}{\rho} \frac{T_0}{A_0} C \lim_{y=0} \left[ \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} y^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} \right]
\]

4. HEAT EXCHANGE IN TUBES

When there is steady-state flow through a tube, two regions can be distinguished:

1. Fully developed flow state - that is, one in which the velocity profile remains similar along the direction of flow.

2. The hydrodynamic calming length at the entrance to the tube.

Assume, for example, that the fluid flows into the tube through a smooth passage from a large reservoir; then at the inlet cross section the streamlines will have approximately equal velocity. On progressing further, the layers near the wall will be retarded by friction until the constant (with length) velocity profile, which corresponds to the steady state, has been developed. This part of the tube is often called the entrance section.

In the following sections the temperature field and the heat transfer in the tube are calculated for the case where a temperature distribution for the entrance section is given beforehand and the wall temperature is kept constant along
the direction of flow. Separate solutions are set up for
the two regions mentioned, but by a continuous transition
from the first solution to the second, they can satisfy the
general function through summation of the partial solutions.

5. HEAT TRANSFER FOR THE CASE IN WHICH THE VELOCITY
DISTRIBUTION HAS BEEN ESTABLISHED AT THE
ENTRANCE TO THE THERMAL SECTION

In order to set up the differential equation for the
temperature field, an element of volume, bounded on the
sides by two concentric cylindrical surfaces, parallel to
the walls of the tube, and bounded on the ends by the cross
sections perpendicular to them, is considered. In order to
complete the representation it is assumed that a warm fluid
flows through a colder tube; that is, the flow of heat shall
be from the fluid to the wall. Furthermore, the constant
temperature of the tube is set equal to 0, so that the fluid
temperature is the excess temperature above that of the wall.
However, since no assumption is made which distinguishes one
direction of heat flow from the other, all relations are
valid when 0 changes its sign.

If \( z = \) coordinate of the direction of flow
\( \bar{y} = \) distance from the axis (note 6)
\( C = \) heat capacity per unit of volume

then the heat balance for the steady state gives:

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{y}} \left\{ 2\pi \bar{y} q \right\} = Cu \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \, 2\pi \bar{y} \tag{10}
\]

From equations (3) and (4), \( u \) is replaced by (note 7)

\[
u = \frac{8}{7} v \left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{r}\right)^2 \right\}^{1/7}
\]

while \( q \) follows from equation (8); then, also considering
(1a), (3), and (4).
If this equation (note 8) is introduced into equation (10), there is finally obtained as the differential equation for heat transfer when the conditions of flow are hydrodynamically complete:

\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left\{ \frac{1}{y} \left( \frac{r^2 - \bar{y}^2}{2r} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} \right\} = K \bar{y} \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\bar{y}}{r} \right)^2 \right\} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \tag{11}
\]

where

\[
K = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial y} (2r)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{7} \frac{0.199 \nu^\frac{1}{4}}{\nu^\frac{1}{4}} \tag{11a}
\]

The boundary conditions are:

I. \( \theta = 0 \) for \( \bar{y} = r \).

II. \( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} = 0 \) for \( \bar{y} = 0 \), because of the universal symmetry.

III. The radial temperature distribution must be given for \( z = 0 \).

Since the fluid temperature approaches asymptotically the temperature of the wall, as the tube-length increases, then the solution is of the form

\[ \theta = g(\bar{y})e^{-kz} \]

If this expression is inserted into the equation, then there is obtained for the function \( q \) the ordinary differential equation

\[
\frac{d}{d\bar{y}} \left\{ \frac{1}{\bar{y}} \left( \frac{r^2 - \bar{y}^2}{2r} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} \frac{d\theta}{d\bar{y}} \right\} = -k\bar{y}g(\bar{y}) \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\bar{y}}{r} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}}
\]

which, after elimination of the fractional exponents by the transformation
becomes (note 9) 
\[ \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ (1 - x^7) \frac{dg}{dx} \right\} = -w x^7 g \]  
(12)

where (note 10)
\[ w = 49kX \left( \frac{r^2}{2} \right)^{8/7} \]  
(12a)

The boundary conditions are now:
I. \( g = 0 \) for \( x = 0 \)
II. \( \frac{dg}{dx} \) is finite for \( x = 1 \)

An approximate solution is obtained by means of the Ritz method (note 11), when the problem is changed to one in the Calculus of Variations (note 12); that is, as can be verified easily (note 13):
\[ \int_0^1 \left\{ (1 - x^7) \left( \frac{dg}{dx} \right)^2 - wx^7 g^2 \right\} dx = \text{minimum} \]  
(13)

with the boundary conditions I and II as supplementary conditions. Here the problem is one of finding the "characteristic values," since equation (13) will have solutions which also satisfy the boundary conditions, only for fixed values of \( w \). Substituting for \( g \):
\[ g(x) = \varepsilon_1 P_1(x) + \varepsilon_2 P_3(x) + \varepsilon_3 P_5(x) + \ldots \]  
(14)

in which \( \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \varepsilon_3 \) are undetermined coefficients and \( P_1, P_3, \) and so forth are the Legendre spherical functions (note 14) of the first kind, and taking only three terms first, results, for \( w \) at the minimal conditions, in an equation of the third degree the roots of which are
\[ w_1 = 8.712, \ w_2 = 164.36, \ w_3 = 1700.40 \]  
(14a)

The characteristic functions are normalized, in contrast to the customary procedure, so that
\[ \varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3 = 1 \]  

In order that the temperature at the axis of the tube will become unity; \( g(y) \) is, therefore, the ratio of the temperature at the point under consideration to the temperature at the axis of the tube. Thus the first characteristic functions are:

\[
\begin{align*}
\varepsilon_I &= 0.9703 P_1 + 0.0212 P_3 + 0.0085 P_5 \\
\varepsilon_{II} &= -0.7312 P_1 + 0.9665 P_3 + 0.7647 P_5 \\
\varepsilon_{III} &= 2.6552 P_1 - 6.1589 P_3 + 4.5037 P_5
\end{align*}
\]  

(15)  

The choice of development according to spherical functions must be justified. Since it is a minimal problem, the exact characteristic values can only be less than the approximate values. The magnitudes of the characteristic values which are obtained according to the choice of the basic series equations for the function to be varied, form a suitable criterion for the validity of the approximation. Now, it can be seen that, compared to a simple power equation in \( x \), as well as several Fourier developments, the basic equation in spherical functions leads to the least characteristic values. As to their behavior on making further approximations, the first three approximations for the first characteristic functions furnish successively, for example, the values 8.75, 8.67, 8.71; consequently the convergence of the procedure ought to be satisfactory.

In order to obtain equally good results for the other characteristic values, further approximations must naturally be made; the third characteristic value, in particular, will agree only in magnitude in the case of a three-member basic equation. As will be seen, however, this has only a slight influence upon the results.

The particular merit of the spherical functions for the problem in hand also can be demonstrated by the following simple consideration, which can at the same time dispel doubt caused by the increase of the second coefficients in the second characteristic function. Considering figure 1, it is seen that the characteristic values themselves show great similarity to spherical functions. If a form, like that represented by equation (16), is now set up according to functions which are identical with the characteristic
values, then the coefficient the index of which is equal to the ordinal number of the characteristic value becomes equal to unity, all others being equal to zero. The characteristic value concerned is already represented exactly by one member of the development. If developed according to functions which are not identical with the characteristic values, but which have, however, a certain similarity to them, then, in the development the coefficient having an index equal to the ordinal number will be slightly greater. Clearly, such a development will closely approximate, with relatively few members, the function to be represented.

If the values of \( w \) from (14a) are inserted into equations (11a) and (12a), then for the coefficients of the exponents

\[
k_1 = 0.1510 \frac{1}{d} \left( \frac{v}{cd} \right)^{1/4}; \quad k_2 = 2.844 \frac{1}{d} \left( \frac{v}{cd} \right)^{1/4}; \quad k_3 = 29.42 \frac{1}{d} \left( \frac{v}{cd} \right)^{1/4}
\]  

(17)

The complete solution of the partial differential equation (12) can be written as a development according to characteristic functions

\[
\phi = a_1 e^{-k_1 z} + a_2 e^{-k_2 z} + a_3 e^{-k_3 z}
\]  

(18)

where the coefficients are to be determined so that the prescribed temperature distribution is fulfilled for \( z = 0 \). The calculation will be carried out first for the case of uniform temperature distribution at the initial cross section. Therefore \( a_1 \ldots a_3 \) first must be determined so that \( \phi (y) \) must be as close to \( \phi = 1 \) as possible. Every other temperature then follows with the aid of a multiplicative constant. The least square error yields the values:

\[
a_1 = 1.129, \quad a_2 = -0.180, \quad a_3 = 0.048
\]

Thus the final equation of the temperature field for turbulent flow in a hydrodynamically complete state in tubes for the case where the uniform temperature \( \phi_0 \) prevails in the initial cross section, is
\[ f = f_0 \left\{ 1.129 e^{-0.1851 \frac{\nu}{\sqrt{\pi d}} \frac{x}{d}} [0.9544 x - 0.0213 x^3 + 0.0668 x^5] \\ -2.844 \frac{\nu}{\sqrt{\pi d}} \frac{x}{d} [-0.7472 x - 4.275 x^3 + 6.022 x^5] \\ +0.048 e^{-2.944 \frac{\nu}{\sqrt{\pi d}} \frac{x}{d} [20.34 x - 54.80 x^3 + 35.47 x^5]} \right\} \]

in which the similar powers of \( x \) are collected from the \( P \) (Legendre spherical functions).

It is also recognized now that an error in the third characteristic value and in the third characteristic function is of slight significance; even if the third exponent should be still somewhat smaller, the third characteristic function dies out several centimeters from the beginning of the thermal effect, the error having no influence upon the remaining part of the tube. A fourth approximation always can be calculated.

6. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND AGREEMENT WITH EXPERIMENT

By reference to figure 1, the temperature distribution over the cross section (of the fluid stream) can be discussed. For \( z = 0 \), a square distribution was assumed; that is, the fluid enters with a uniform temperature over the whole cross section.

In the interval between 0 and 0.8 for \( \frac{\sqrt{V}}{r} \), the uniform temperature is represented to a maximum error of \( \pm 2.5 \% \) (per 1000) by equation (19).

For \( \frac{\sqrt{V}}{r} \) between 0.9 and 1 there is a sharp temperature decrease, since only three terms were considered. Similar situations also exist in reality, since the layers near the wall will undergo a change in temperature, due to radiation, before making direct contact with the wall. On moving farther along the tube, the temperature gradient at the wall levels out more and more; the so-called final temperature.
distribution, which is represented by the first characteristic function only, is reached when the second characteristic function has died away. From then on, all temperature profiles remain similar since all temperatures decrease in the z-direction according to the same exponential function; the expression "final temperature distribution" is to be understood in the above sense. As shown by equation (16), the first characteristic function and, consequently, the final temperature distribution, differ but little from the velocity distribution in the hydrodynamically complete state.

With the help of the known temperature field the point now is reached where all the questions about the heat transfer can be answered. For example, to calculate the unit thermal convective conductance $\alpha$, the ratio is set up of the amount of heat transferred per unit of wall surface for the mixed-mean temperature difference at the cross section; that is,

$$\alpha = \frac{q_0}{\bar{T}_m}$$

(20)

According to equation (9), $q_0$ is given by

$$q_0 = \frac{0.176 v^{3/4} \gamma^{1/4}}{r^{3/8}} \lim_{y \to 0} \left[ \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} y^{3/7} \right]$$

and the average temperature $\bar{T}_m$ is defined by the equation:

$$\bar{T}_m = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \int_0^r \bar{\psi}(y) 2\pi y dy$$

Hence, the expression (note 15) for $\alpha$ is:

$$\alpha = 0.0346 v_0 \left( \frac{v}{\bar{v} d} \right)^{1/4} \frac{1.078 e^{-k_1 z} + 0.134 e^{-k_2 z} + 0.980 e^{-k_3 z}}{0.970 e^{-k_1 z} + 0.024 e^{-k_2 z} + 0.006 e^{-k_3 z}}$$

(21)

The analogous result for laminar flow was calculated by Nusselt. (See reference 6.)

Figure 2, which is calculated for the special value
\[ \frac{1}{d} \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_d} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} = 0.037 \] shows the variation of the unit thermal convective conductance with distance into the tube. At \( z = 0 \), \( \alpha \) is infinite, then, corresponding to the decrease in the temperature difference at the wall; it decreases, though considerably faster than it does when the flow is laminar, finally approaching a minimum value \( \alpha_{\text{min}} \). Although this least value is independent of the velocity in the case of laminar flow, for turbulent flow equation (21) is changed into the form:

\[ \alpha_{\text{min}} = 0.0384 \nu \left( \frac{\nu}{\nu_d} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}} \]  

Equation (21a) is analogous to the equation developed by Reynolds. Since, as mentioned already, the eddy heat transfer in turbulent flow exceeds the molecular one by a multiple, it seems justifiable that only those magnitudes which are determinative for the condition of flow and also for the eddy transport of heat should appear in the formula for the unit thermal convective conductance. These are magnitudes \( \nu, d, \) and \( \nu \) or \( C \). The variation with temperature depends upon the values of the kinematic viscosity \( \nu \).

If the relation for gases \( \frac{\lambda}{\gamma \rho} \approx 1 \) is considered, it is observed that equation (21a) likewise agrees in form with the dimensionless formulas of Nusselt and Prandtl. (See references 2 and 7, respectively.)

The existing experimental material is not sufficient, unfortunately, for an exact test of these results, since average unit thermal convective conductances were always measured and the "entrance sections" were not chosen long enough so that in the measuring length a hydrodynamically complete state with a temperature profile which remained similar could have been attained with certainty. In most cases the point at which the thermal effect began cannot even be determined. Obviously this is an indication that the experimenters possibly did not have a clear concept of the influence of the arrangement upon the results of the measurement.

Nusselt, in a short series of experiments*, connected a

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piece of tubing 2 meters long in front of the actual experimental section. According to the calculations, which are discussed in the next section, the state of flow was certainly complete. Besides, since this entrance section and the heated experimental tube both were made of brass and were joined firmly to one another metallically, the added length of tubing likewise was heated, at least in the part directly connecting with the experimental tube. The first point of temperature measurement was, on the average, about 15 centimeters downstream from the beginning of the test section, so that it can safely be assumed from the results of equation (21) that the unit thermal convective conductance had reached its minimum value. These experiments were checked, using the equation for \( \alpha_{\text{min}} \). The results are presented in the following table (\( p \), air pressure, \( \gamma \), unit weight density of air):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiment number</th>
<th>( \theta_m )</th>
<th>( l )</th>
<th>( D_m )</th>
<th>( \gamma_m )</th>
<th>( v )</th>
<th>( \alpha_{\text{meas}} )</th>
<th>( \alpha_{\text{calc}} )</th>
<th>Difference (percent)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>95</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>0.6133</td>
<td>1.161</td>
<td>1.273</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>20.09</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>0.6245</td>
<td>1.167</td>
<td>1.285</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>24.95</td>
<td>25.36</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>0.6368</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>1.255</td>
<td>8.29</td>
<td>32.75</td>
<td>32.57</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>0.6438</td>
<td>1.163</td>
<td>1.307</td>
<td>13.06</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>47.44</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>1.0590</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>1.291</td>
<td>21.06</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>67.51</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>1.1300</td>
<td>1.167</td>
<td>1.309</td>
<td>24.05</td>
<td>73.0</td>
<td>75.25</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Experiment 95, at a Reynolds number of 6100 (about three to four times the critical velocity), was near the limit of the region of the validity of the above-developed theory. Considering the limits of the accuracy of measurements of this kind, the agreement seems to be absolutely satisfactory.

In the following sections, the heat transfer in the calming length of a tube (that is, the heat transfer for the hydrodynamically incomplete state) will be investigated.
Inasmuch as a solution for the velocity field in the calming length of a tube has not been given previously, it must first of all be determined.

7. THE VELOCITY FIELD IN THE "CALMING LENGTH"

In order to obtain an approximate expression for the velocity field in the calming length of tubes under conditions of turbulent flow (see reference 9, for the case of laminar flow), the momentum consideration introduced by Von Kármán (reference 8, pp. 235 and 256) will be used.

Consider a longitudinal section through the beginning of the tube. At A, fluid from a large reservoir flows into it with a uniform velocity distribution. The layers near the wall will be retarded under the influence of the viscosity, and the thickness of the layer, in which the shear stress is transferred (shown by the shaded lines in the figure) will increase until the two boundary layers meet. From then on, with the insertion of a short transition region, the velocity distribution over the cross section will remain constant.

Hence, it is assumed that there is at the beginning of the tube, a region in the interior of the flowing fluid where viscosity can be neglected. For this region, the validity of the Euler equation, formulated for frictionless flow, is assumed.

If the steady state is assumed, a balance on an element of the boundary layer is considered, which has a ring-shape structure; a b c d in figure 3 represents a cross section of this element.

Let

\[ Q = \text{the volume flowing through the cross section in the boundary layer per second} \]

\[ J = \text{the transport of momentum per second in the direction of flow through the cross-sectional surface} \]

\[ U = \text{the velocity of free stream} \]

\[ u = \text{velocity in the boundary layer} \]

*L. Schiller, who most recently studied experimentally — a theoretical explanation also was published — the problem of the entrance section, treats only the laminar case.*
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\( v \) = average velocity over the cross section
\( \delta \) = thickness of the boundary layer
\( p \) = pressure
\( y \) = distance from the wall of the tube
\( \tau_0 \) = shear stress at the wall
\( z \) = coordinate in the direction of flow

The equilibrium condition for the element of the boundary layer can then be written as follows (note 16):

\[
\frac{dJ}{dz} - \rho U \frac{dQ}{dz} = - \frac{dp}{dz} \left( 2r\delta - \delta^2 \right) + 2r\pi \tau_0 \tag{22}
\]

In addition, the following condition appears: Because of continuity, the same amount of fluid must pass through all cross sections of the tube. If, therefore, the layers at the wall are retarded, then the velocity of the undisturbed fluid (undisturbed always in the sense that no shear stress is transmitted) must increase. Then, according to the equation of motion for ideal fluids, this increase in velocity must be accompanied by a decrease in pressure. This furnishes additional boundary equations:

\[
Q + U(r - \delta)^2 \pi = vr^2 \pi \tag{23}
\]

\[
\frac{dp}{dz} + \rho U \frac{dU}{dz} = 0 \tag{24}
\]

From equation (2a), \( u \) is set into the form:

\[
u = U \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{\nu_2} \left\{ \alpha + \beta \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right) \right\} \tag{25}\]

and the coefficients \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are determined from the requirements:

\( u = 0 \) for \( y = 0 \)
Then there results:

\[ u = U \left( \frac{\gamma}{8} \right)^{1/7} \left( \frac{8}{7} - \frac{1}{7} \frac{\gamma}{8} \right) \]  

(25a)

Results of \( \tau_0 \) from the condition at (25a) must change to equation (2) for small values of \( y \):

\[ \tau_0 = \rho \left( \frac{3}{73} \right) U^{1/4} \left( \frac{\nu}{8} \right)^{1/4} \]

(26)

Consider the relation, which follows from equation (23), between the velocity of the free stream \( U \) and the average velocity \( \nu \):

\[ U = \frac{165\nu}{4\xi^2 - 22\xi + 165} \]  

(37)

in which \( \frac{\xi}{r} = \xi \); then the steady-state condition yields an ordinary differential equation in \( \xi \), with variables separated. There is obtained then (note (17)):

\[ \int_0^1 \left\{ \frac{54}{345} \xi^3 - \frac{100}{69} \xi^2 - \frac{206}{207} \xi + \frac{616}{69} \right\}^{1/4} d\xi = \frac{1}{(165)^{7/4}} \left( \frac{8}{73} \right)^{7/4} \frac{\nu^{1/4}}{r^{7/4}} z_0 \]  

(28)

Instead of determining the quadrature numerically, the following method of calculation is applied.

For small values of \( \xi \), the higher powers of \( \xi \) can be neglected and there is obtained

\[ \xi = F \left( z^{4/5} \right) \]
If $z^{4/5}$ is set equal to $t$, then $\xi$ can be represented as a power series in $t$. Therefore:

$$\xi = At + Bt^2 + Ct^3 + \ldots \ldots$$

Write equation (28) in the form:

$$\frac{(1 + a\xi + \beta\xi^2 + \gamma\xi^3)^{\frac{1}{4}}}{[1 + p\xi + q\xi^2]^{\frac{5}{4}}} d\xi = K dz$$

and introduce the above expression; then the fractional powers of $t$ drop out and, by developing in powers of $t$ and comparing the coefficients on left and right revealing the history of the boundary layer at the beginning of the tube, there is obtained:

$$\xi = \frac{\delta}{r} = 1.41 \left( \frac{V}{V_d} \right)^{\frac{1}{5}} \left( \frac{z}{d} \right)^{\frac{4}{5}} - 0.046 \left( \frac{V}{V_d} \right)^{\frac{2}{5}} \left( \frac{z}{d} \right)^{\frac{8}{5}} - 0.168 \left( \frac{V}{V_d} \right)^{3/5} \left( \frac{z}{d} \right)^{13/5}$$

(29)

The series is ended at the third term.

In figure 4 (note 18) $\xi$ is presented as a function of $\chi = \frac{v}{V_d} z^{4/5}$; $\xi = 1$ for $\chi = 0.686$; thus the length of the tube up to the section where the boundary layer fills the tube is (note 19):

$$z_0 = 0.625 d \left( \frac{V_d}{V} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}}$$

(30)

With equation (29) the field of the average velocities in the entrance section is determined, and all questions, for which knowledge of its variation is sufficient, can be answered. Thus, for example, one obtains the resistance of the tube between two cross sections at $z_1$ and $z_2$ of the initial length; that is, the integral
\[ W = -2\pi \int_{z_1}^{z_2} \tau_0(z) dz \]

by calculating the difference of momentum transport through the cross sections \( z_1 \) and \( z_2 \) and calculating the pressure difference times the cross-sectional area and then adding the two results.

8. HEAT TRANSFER IN THE ENTRANCE SECTION

For the calculation of the temperature field a similar consideration is employed by setting up a heat balance for one element of the boundary layer. Again, let a warm fluid flow into a tube with constant wall temperature \( \vartheta_w = 0 \). The only simplifying assumption made is that at a place where shear stress is not transmitted, heat transfer will not occur. In so doing, the small amount of heat which is continually carried away at the inner limit of the boundary layer by molecular condition is neglected. However, at that place the temperature gradient is so small, since the calculation is carried out for velocities in excess of the critical, that the error committed can be taken directly into consideration. Therefore it is assumed that in the region where the undisturbed fluid flows with velocity \( U \), the temperature always should be equal to the entrance temperature \( \vartheta_0 \). The heat balance for the element considered is then:

\[
\frac{d}{dz} \left[ u \vartheta \int_0^\delta 2\pi (r - y) \, dy \right] = \vartheta_0 \frac{dQ}{dz} - 2\pi \vartheta q_0
\]

(31)

Inasmuch as it already has been seen for hydrodynamically complete flow that in the case of turbulence the temperature distribution is very similar to the velocity distribution, \( \vartheta \) is given as:

\[
\vartheta = \vartheta_0 \left( \frac{Y}{Y_0} \right)^{\nu} \left\{ \alpha + \beta \frac{Y}{\delta} + \gamma \left( \frac{Y}{\delta} \right)^2 \right\}
\]

(32)
Corresponding to the above assumptions, the boundary conditions are:

\[ \theta = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad y = 0 \]

\[ \theta = \theta_0, \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial y} = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad y = \delta \]

which permit reduction of the three coefficients \(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\) to a single one. Thus is obtained

\[ \theta = \theta_0 \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{1/7} \left\{ \left( \frac{8}{7} - \frac{1}{7} \frac{y}{\delta} \right) + \gamma \left( 1 - \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^3 \right\} \quad (32b) \]

The first term is identical with the equation for the velocity distribution and the second can be interpreted as a kind of correction term to the equation of the velocity distribution. This can be easily understood in a physical sense. At \(y = 0\), temperature and velocity curves begin with the same power of \(y\). At \(y = \delta\), both have horizontal tangents. The curves must therefore have a similar character in the intermediate region.

For \(\theta_0\) it is found that:

\[ q_0 = \frac{1.340 \nu^{3/4} \nu^{1/4} \theta_0 \left\{ \frac{8}{7} + \gamma \right\}}{[4\xi^3 - 22\xi + 165]^{3/4} \xi^{1/4} d^{1/4}} \quad (32a) \]

Equation \((31)\) will now furnish, since the variation of the boundary-layer thickness \(\delta\) is known, an ordinary linear differential equation of the first order for determination of \(\gamma\). This differential equation can be brought into the form:

\[ \frac{d\gamma}{dz} + A(z)\gamma = B(z) \]

The functions \(A\) and \(B\) are very unwieldy, however, so that the general integral of this first order differential equation:
would require a very troublesome numerical calculation. A graphical method is chosen, for it is still possible to obtain far greater accuracy than corresponds to the physical assumptions of the problem. If \( \delta/r = \xi \) is introduced as a new independent variable, the equation is essentially simplified, the fractional powers of \( \xi \) drop out, and after some calculation there is obtained:

\[
\gamma = \frac{-0.1855 \xi^3 + 1.477 \xi^2 - 2.658 \xi}{0.1623 \xi^3 - 0.701 \xi^2 - 23.05 \xi + 45.4}
\]

In this form equation (33) is directly suitable for calculation of the directional field of the differential equation which is given in figure 5a. The point \( \xi = 0 \), \( \gamma = 0 \) is the point of origin; all solution curves come from plus or minus \( \infty \) up to a unique curve which leads to the point 0,0. Since \( \gamma \) must likewise be finite for \( \xi = 0 \), then for the initial condition there is obtained

\[
\gamma = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad \xi = 0
\]

This is likewise readily understandable from a physical viewpoint. As long as \( \delta \ll r \), the immediate beginning of the tube can differ, either in hydrodynamical or thermal respect, from the behavior of a plate in a free stream. It will be seen later that the velocity and temperature fields are the same in the case of the plate. Accordingly, at the beginning of the tube \( (z = 0) \), the temperature distribution will coincide with the velocity distribution,
If equation (33) is solved in terms of \( \gamma' \) and the limiting value toward which \( \gamma' \) tends is considered, for \( \xi = 0 \), then there is found:

\[
\lim_{\xi \to 0} \gamma' = -0.032
\]

All isoclines begin at the point 0,0; the isocline for \( \gamma' = 0.032 \) with the slope assigned to it, runs into this point; however, it is rather weakly concave toward the abscissa. The isoclines of greater slope lie entirely above it; those with a lesser slope lie below it. From this behavior it follows that the solution curve sought must lie for its entire length in the narrow strip between the isocline \( \gamma' = -0.032 \) and its tangent at the zero point. The line \( \gamma = -0.032 \xi \) will, therefore, represent a first approximation with a maximum error of 12\% percent.

In order to obtain a second approximation, \( \gamma \) is set equal to \( -0.032 \xi + h(\xi) \) and this expression is introduced into equation (33), which then changes into a differential equation for \( h \), the family of isoclines of which is shown in figure 5b. In order to increase the accuracy, a thousandfold scale of ordinates is chosen.

The solution naturally begins with \( h = 0 \) for \( \xi = 0 \).

If \( e \) is set equal to 1000 \( h \), then this magnitude, as is easily proved by plotting on a logarithmic scale, is given by the formula \( e = 1.48 \xi^{1.85} \), so that the following expression for \( \gamma \) is finally obtained:

\[
\gamma = -0.032 \xi + 0.00148 \xi^{1.85}
\]  

(34)

This function is given in figure 5a by the deep, solid line.

In this manner the temperature field for the region of the simultaneous hydrodynamic and thermal calming length is obtained. Then for \( \delta \) may be written:

\[
\delta = \delta_0 \left( \frac{\nu}{\delta} \right)^{1/4} \left\{ \frac{\delta}{\gamma} \frac{1 - \frac{\nu}{\delta}}{1 - \left( 1 - \frac{\nu}{\delta} \right)^2} \left[ 0.00148 \xi^{1.85} - 0.032 \xi \right] \right\}
\]  

(35)

The values of \( \delta \) and \( \xi \) are taken from equation (29) and figure 4, respectively. For \( \xi = 1 \), \( \delta \) becomes

\[
\delta = \delta_0 \left( \frac{\nu}{r} \right)^{1/4} \left\{ 1.112 - 0.0305 \frac{\nu}{r} - 0.0305 \left( \frac{\nu}{r} \right)^2 \right\}
\]  

(35a)
that is, the final temperature distribution for the hydrodynamical steady state is not attained (fig. 6), which was, perhaps, to be expected.

In order to get further agreement, every solution of the differential equation for the temperature field beyond the hydrodynamic calming section, which also satisfies the initial condition (equation (35a)), is determined. To this end the function represented by equation (35a) must be developed according to the characteristic functions. (See equation (16).) Since the temperature distribution of equation (35a) does not differ very much from the first characteristic function (equation (16)), the development is carried out with only two members.

The development naturally cannot represent the function (35a) quite exactly, because at one time the velocity distribution was established with the "influence factor," the other time with a power series development. However, in order to obtain the best possible transition from the one solution to the other, it can be arranged that the two temperature curves agree completely in important properties.

The heat transfer is limited by the processes at the wall; accordingly, it will be stipulated that: (1) both curves begin with the same term of the development at the wall of the tube, and (2) the flow of energy through the whole cross section be equal.

This furnishes two equations of condition for determining the two coefficients of the development. Hence there is obtained for the temperature field in the hydrodynamically complete region

\[ \theta = \theta_0 \left\{ 1.016 e^{-k_1 z} \left[ 0.9544 x - 0.0212 x^3 + 0.0668 x^5 \right] 
- 0.051 e^{-k_2 z} \left[ - 0.7472 x - 4.275 x^3 + 6.022 x^5 \right] \right\} \quad (36) \]

Knowledge of the temperature field first shall be used for calculation of the unit thermal convective conductance. The calming length first will be considered.

Equation (36) already has given an expression for \( q_0 \). The average temperature of the cross section is then:

\[ \theta_m = \frac{1}{\pi r^2} \left\{ \int_0^\theta 2\pi (r - y) \, dy + \theta_0 \int_0^r 2\pi (r - y) \, dy \right\} \]
The expression for \( \alpha_u \) (\( \alpha_u = \alpha \) in the hydrodynamical calming region) is then:

\[
\alpha_u = 1.340 \nu C \left( \frac{\nu}{v_d} \right) \frac{1.143 - 0.032 \xi + 0.00148 \xi^{1.865}}{(4\xi^2 - 22\xi + 165)^{\frac{3}{4}} \left\{ \frac{1-0.133\xi+0.024\xi^2+(0.00148\xi^{1.865}-0.032\xi)(0.520\xi-0.143\xi^2)}{0.969 e^{-k_1z} + 0.038 e^{-k_2z} + 0.969 e^{-k_1z} + 0.038 e^{-k_2z}} \right\}}
\]

The continuation in the second region (\( \alpha_a = \alpha \) in the hydrodynamical steady-state region) is:

\[
\alpha_a = 0.03461 \nu C \left( \frac{\nu}{v_d} \right)^{1/4} \frac{0.969 e^{-k_1z} + 0.038 e^{-k_2z}}{0.873 e^{-k_1z} + 0.0068 e^{-k_2z}}
\]

The variation of the unit thermal convective conductance with location in the calming length of the tube is shown in figure 7a (note 20). Write equation (37a) in the form

\[
\alpha_u = K \nu C \left( \frac{\nu}{v_d} \right)^{1/4} \text{(kcal/hr m}^2 \text{C)}
\]

then the factor \( K \), which is a pure function of \( \xi \), is plotted as ordinate, with \( \xi \) as abscissa. Figure 7a (note 21), in combination with figure 4, from which the particular values of \( \xi \) can be taken, covers all possible cases. In figure 7B, with \( z \) as the abscissa scale, the variation of \( \alpha \) for a certain case is shown in comparison with the same case for the completely developed hydrodynamic flow. It is seen that the decrease of \( \alpha \) takes place less quickly in the first case.

9. SUMMARY AND COMPARISON WITH OBSERVATIONS

Now comes the point where the heat transfer in a tube can be surveyed in all particulars. The results will be summarized briefly:
With respect to heat transfer, the following cases in which the heat transfer obeys different laws are to be distinguished according to the structure of the velocity and temperature fields.

1. Fully developed hydrodynamic and thermal fields. - This condition is attained when the fluid has passed through a considerable portion of the tube length. The unit thermal convective conductance is constant and is given by equation (21a).

2. Fully developed hydrodynamic flow field, temperature uniform at entrance. - Realized by a connected entrance section which is maintained at the original fluid temperature by suitable heating. The unit thermal convective conductance is dependent upon the location in the tube, falls very quickly from its maximum value, and asymptotically approaches a constant minimum value. (See equation (21).)

3. Uniform velocity and temperature distributions across the section at entrance. - The unit thermal convective conductance is likewise dependent upon the location in the tube, but falls to a minimum value more slowly. The point unit thermal convective conductance is given by equations (37a and 37b).

4. The application of heat begins at a section somewhere in the middle of the calming length. - For this last case a good approximation for the unit thermal convective conductance $\alpha$ is obtained by drawing the curves which represent the variation of $\alpha$ with the location in the tube for cases 2 and 3, in the same system of coordinates but with the zero point of the abscissa scale for $\alpha_a$ (a fully developed hydrodynamic flow) displaced by the distance $l$ between the beginning of heating and the inlet section. Since the curve for $\alpha_a$ has a much steeper slope, it will cut the curve for $\alpha_a$; the envelope (note 22) represents (to a first approximation) the $\alpha$ distribution for this special case.

The great differences in the results of the individual experimental works are now understandable. Whereas Nusselt ascribed this, at the conclusion of his work on heat transfer in laminar flow, exclusively to the conditions mentioned under point 2, now the possibility of a series of factors which influence the process by interchangeable combinations may be seen.
The two most careful investigations known, those of Nusselt and Jordan (references 6 and 10, respectively), used a right-angle gas approach to the measuring section. At the beginning of this section the flow was not completely developed. Obviously case 4 is to be considered here. No further experimental data, however, have appeared to date. The beginning of the thermal action, as well as the exact position of the first temperature-measuring station, cannot be ascertained accurately.* An exact evaluation of the experimental results on the basis of the above-mentioned theory is not possible for these experiments. Nevertheless, a series of experiments by Nusselt were investigated to determine the magnitude of the measured unit thermal conductances with respect to the minimum $\alpha$. The results are compiled in table 2. Considering the dimensions of Nusselt's apparatus, it is seen that these figures are affected by them, which is to be expected according to the above-mentioned derivations.

### TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiment number</th>
<th>$l$</th>
<th>$D_m$</th>
<th>$\delta_m$</th>
<th>$\gamma_m$</th>
<th>$\nu$</th>
<th>$\alpha_{\text{meas}}$</th>
<th>$\alpha_{\text{min}}$</th>
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<td>2.050</td>
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<td>198.0</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*These results are based on a letter sent to Latzko by Prof. Nusselt.

If experiment 10, for example, were evaluated with the assumption that case 3 is to be considered here, which comes close to the experimental conditions in any case, then a
value of $\alpha$ is obtained, which is 10.2 percent above $\alpha_{\min}$. In reality the hydrodynamical condition of uniform distribution of velocity at the first temperature-measuring station was not completely fulfilled, so that the value of $\alpha$ must fall somewhat lower; the measured value is 8.4 percent above $\alpha_{\min}$.

According to equation (29), the length of the calming section is proportional to $\sqrt{\nu \rho}$; accordingly the ratio of the calming length to the total length of the measuring station must increase with increasing velocity, and density and therefore the values of $\alpha$ also must increase somewhat. Experiments 7, 10, and 13, in which the velocity is varied, the other parameters being maintained reasonably constant, show this clearly, as do experiments 7, 19, 41, and 54, in which the values of $\rho$ are changed up to a ratio of 1:10.

10. PRACTICAL COMPUTATION OF THE AMOUNT OF HEAT TRANSFERRED

Finally the question of the practical computation of the amount of heat transferred in tubes must be discussed. Because of the fact that two different solutions for the temperature field have been obtained, depending upon whether or not the hydrodynamic field is fully developed, it is necessary also, in the computation of the amount of heat transferred in a certain section of the tube, to determine in which region the flow takes place. However, several general remarks, which hold for both regions, must be presented first.

The amount of heat transferred between two cross sections at an interval $l = z_1 - z_2$ can always be found in two ways.

1. The calculation is referred to the volume of fluid passing through the cross section per unit time. Since the velocity and temperature distributions are known, then the flow of heat which passes through the cross-sectional area per unit of time can be obtained by integration. The amount of heat transferred at a strip of wall of length $l$ between $z_1$ and $z_2$ thus is given by the difference of two integrals:

$$Q = \int_{f} u(y, z_1) \Theta(y, z_1) \, df - \int_{f} u(y, z_2) \Theta(y, z_2) \, df$$

(38)
2. Only the processes at the wall are considered. For this purpose the equations for $q_o$ have been set up. With the foregoing notation, the amount of heat transferred is then:

$$Q = 2\pi \int_{z_1}^{z_2} q_o(z) dz$$

(39)

the term $q_o$ in $q_0$ is replaced by the difference at the cross section $z_1$ between the wall temperature and the temperature at the axis of the tube.

The expressions for $q_o$ are, however, rather unwieldy, so that equation (38) is usually preferable. As an example, equation (38) will be applied to the most important cases.

1a. For the case where a uniform temperature distribution and a uniform velocity distribution prevail in the initial cross section, the heat transfer in the entire entrance section is:

$$Q = 0.115 r^2 \nu C_0 \delta$$

(40)

The value is constant since the temperature and velocity distributions coincide at the initial and the final cross sections. The special cases differ in the length of the tube section from the inlet opening to the fully developed hydrodynamic state.

1b. Considering a section of the tube from the inlet to a cross section at a distance $L$ and letting $l$ be the length of the entrance section, then, (using equation (36)), the total heat transferred in the length $L$ is:

$$Q = r^2 \nu C_0 \left[ 1 - 0.886 e^{-k_1 l_1} - 0.0037 e^{-k_2 l_1} \right]$$

(40a)

where $l_1 = L - l$.

2. In the fully developed hydrodynamic state the amount of heat transferred from the beginning of the heating ($z = 0$) to a cross section $z$ at a distance $l$ from it, comes to:
In the previous derivations the generation of heat in the interior of fluids by friction was entirely disregarded. An exact consideration of this is not possible as long as the pulsating velocities are not known individually, knowledge of the distribution of the (time) average velocity being especially insufficient for this, since the pulsation velocities contain the dissipation function in quadrature terms. However, an attempt will be made to determine, by an approximate consideration, in which velocity region the above-mentioned neglect of this term is allowable. In doing this, only processes in the fully developed hydrodynamic and thermal states are considered; that is, the unit thermal conductance must be independent of the location in the tube.

It is assumed, for example, that a cold fluid flows through a heated tube, an element of volume bounded by the tube and two cross sections at a distance $dz$ is considered. Let $\theta_w$ be the constant wall temperature; let $\theta(z)$ be the average temperature of the cross section at the position $z$; and let the difference between wall and average temperature in the initial cross section be designated by $\theta_0$. Then the heat balance on the element reads:

$$r^2 \nu \sigma d\theta = \alpha (\theta_w - \theta) 2 r d\theta + T \xi v^3 2 r d\theta$$

(42)

where $T$ is the thermal equivalent of work and $\xi$ is the ratio of the frictional resistance to the square of the velocity. Equation (42) then is written in the form:

$$\frac{d\theta}{dz} + \frac{2\alpha}{r \nu \sigma} \theta = \frac{2\alpha}{r \nu \sigma} (\theta_w + T \frac{\xi}{\alpha} v^3)$$

The term $T \frac{\xi}{\alpha} v^3$ has dimensions of temperature; $T \frac{\xi}{\alpha} v^3$ will be called the friction temperature and will be designated by $\theta_R$. 
With consideration of the initial conditions at \( z = 0 \), the solution of the differential equation (42) is:

\[
\phi_z = (\phi_w + \phi_R) - e^{-\frac{2\alpha}{rvC} z} \left[ \phi_w + \phi_R \right]
\]  

Hence, the temperature of the fluid is proportional to the wall temperature increased by the friction temperature.

If this relation is plotted in a system of coordinates with \( \phi \) as ordinate and \( z \) as abscissa, then there is obtained the clear results of figure 9, which are drawn for the case of air flowing with

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu &= 200 \text{ m/sec} \\
\nu &= 0.025 \text{ m} \\
p &= 1 \text{ atm} \\
C &= 0.282 \text{ kcal/m}^3 \\
\nu &= 0.175 \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}
\end{align*}
\]

The fluid temperature asymptotically approaches a limit which is equal to the wall temperature plus the friction temperature. Since the amount of heat transferred is proportional to the areas (which are crosshatched in fig. 9) between the straight line \( \phi_w = \text{ constant} \) and the curve of the temperature of the fluid, it is seen that there exists such a relation between the length of the tube section and the velocity of the stream that, for a given length, there exists a certain velocity and, for a given velocity, there exists a certain length of tube for which the maximum heat is transferred.

The factor \( \frac{f}{\alpha} \) is then:

\[
\frac{f}{\alpha} = 0.103 \frac{1}{\nu C}
\]

and, therefore, if the slight variation of the heat capacity with temperature is disregarded, it is a function of velocity alone. For \( C = 0.238 \) kilocalorie per kilogram \( ^0 \text{C} \), \( \phi_R \) for air has been calculated for several velocities and compiled in the following table:

| \( \nu \) = 10 25 50 100 150 200 m/sec | \( \phi_R \) = 0.102^\circ 0.634^\circ 2.54^\circ 10.15^\circ 22.80^\circ 40.6^\circ \text{C} |
It can be seen that neglecting $\phi_R$ is directly permissible in most practical cases.

The heat carried away is obtained by substitution of (43) into the equation:

$$dQ = \alpha 2\pi w dz (\phi_w - \phi_z)$$

and integration between $z_1 = 0$ and $z_2 = 1$ to

$$Q = \phi_0 r^2 \pi v C \left(1 - e^{-\frac{2\alpha l}{rvC}}\right) - \frac{1}{2} \phi_R r^2 \pi v C \left(\frac{2\alpha l}{rvC}\right)^2$$

in which higher powers of $\frac{2\alpha l}{rvC}$ are neglected.

12. HEAT TRANSFER ON A FLAT PLATE

As a second geometric configuration for which the heat transfer will be calculated, the flat plate parallel to the direction of flow is chosen. The plate shall be so thin that the influence of the forward edge can be neglected. Prandtl, in the previously mentioned work, has already shown that for the case of an infinite thin plate, which is moved parallel to itself through a fluid, the velocity field and temperature field agree, if the heat from the internal friction is neglected.

If $u$ denotes the velocity vector and $p$ denotes the pressure, then, for the time change of the momentum vector of an incompressible fluid referred to a unit of volume, the result is, neglecting gravity effects (note 23):

$$\rho \frac{Du}{dt} = - \text{grad} p + \mu \Delta u$$

$$\frac{D}{dt} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + u_x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + u_y \frac{\partial}{\partial y} + u_z \frac{\partial}{\partial z}$$

On the other hand, the Kirchhoff differential equation for the temperature field is:
\[ \frac{D\delta}{dt} = \frac{\lambda}{\rho} \Delta \phi \]  

(46)

For the plate, \( p \) is a constant, in case it is infinitely thin; or, in case the plate thickness is finite, the average value of \( p \) over a certain region is still a constant; \( \text{grad} \ p \) is, therefore, equal to 0 and it may be seen that the two equations (45) and (46) agree in form. When \( \frac{\lambda}{\rho} = 1 \), a solution of (45) also will be a solution of (46).

If use is made of this condition when the solution for the velocity field, as given in the previous work by Von Kármán, is accepted, there results:

\[ u = U \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{\nu_7}, \quad \delta = 0.366 \left( \frac{v}{U z} \right)^{\nu_5} \]  

(47)

and correspondingly:

\[ \delta = \delta_0 \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right) \]

The condition for thermal equilibrium in an element of the boundary layer is:

\[ \frac{d}{dz} \int_0^\delta U \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{\nu_7} \delta_0 \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{\nu_7} dy - \delta_0 \int_0^\delta U \left( \frac{y}{\delta} \right)^{\nu_7} dy + q_0 = 0 \]

Introducing equation (47), solve for \( q_0 \) and obtain:

\[ q_0 = 0.0285 \quad \delta_0 \quad CU \quad \left( \frac{v}{U z} \right)^{\nu_5} \]  

(48)

The total amount of heat leaving a plate strip of unit width is then (note 24):

\[ Q = \int_0^l q_0 \, dz = 0.0356 \quad CU \delta_0 \quad l \quad \left( \frac{v}{U z} \right)^{\nu_5} \]  

(49)  

\( l \) = length in the direction of flow.\)
In the preceding section it has been seen that the laws for the heat transfer in a turbulent fluid stream, derived for the two most important basic geometric forms, lead, in the case of flowing gases (and superheated steam), to results which also agree well quantitatively with experiments. Here the statistical basis of the kinetic theory of gases can be used to arrive at a uniform concept of the molecular processes as well as the eddy processes in friction, on the one hand, and in heat transfer on the other hand.

Naturally, one cannot transfer the foregoing simple considerations directly to liquids, where the effect of the molecular forces of cohesion may no longer be neglected. Whereas the heat and momentum convection through the eddy system also represent here processes which are similar in character, this is no longer true of the molecular conduction of heat and momentum, which finds its expression in that the ratio $\frac{\lambda_p}{C_\mu}$ is very different from 1. For water, the magnitude of this ratio, which is quite dependent upon temperature, is about 0.1.

The mutual law for the molecular and eddy phenomena of internal friction, which is represented by the coefficient of turbulence, will be applicable to the propagation of heat only in that region in which eddy processes dominate. However, this is the case for the entire mass of fluid up to a very thin layer* at the wall. Accordingly, the differential equations derived in the foregoing will maintain their validity everywhere except in this thin layer.

To attain a suitable description of the heat transfer in fluids, it will be necessary to seek a transition from

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*Closer investigation shows that this layer is much smaller than the boundary layer itself, which was defined as the region in which shear stresses are transmitted. For the right circular tube, the thickness of this layer in the hydrodynamically perfect state is given by the expression $\delta = 5.51 \frac{d}{R^{0.8}}$ where $d$ is the diameter and $R$ is the Reynolds number.
the statistical law for the interior of the mass of fluid (coefficient of turbulence) to the molecular-law in the very neighborhood of the wall (thermal conductivity). Mathematically, this transition can be made by a modification of the boundary conditions. This extension of the theory shortly will be discussed more closely. Still, it is to be noted that even the previous experimental results of research, which relate exclusively to heat transfer in water, show results deviating so much from one another that only with difficulty can a picture of the process be made clear to some degree.

At considerable expenditure, Soennecken (1911) undertook experiments on the heat transfer of water in tubes. These experiments are frequently cited in modern literature as authoritative. His results are summarized in two formulas for the unit thermal conductance $\alpha$:

1. Smooth surfaces:

$$\alpha = 2020 \frac{v^{0.3}}{d^{0.1}} (1 + 0.014 T_i) \frac{kcal}{hr \ m^2 \ ^\circ C}$$

2. Rough surfaces:

$$\alpha = 735 \frac{v^{0.7}}{d^{0.5}} (1 + 0.014 T_i) \frac{kcal}{hr \ m^2 \ ^\circ C}$$

where

$v$ water velocity, meters per second

d tube diameter, meters

$T_i$ internal tube-wall temperature, degrees centigrade

By "smooth surface" is understood a seamless drawn-brass tube; whereas the experiments with "rough surfaces" were performed with iron tubes. These formulas directly contradict the fundamental ideas on the nature of the heat transfer presented here. It is out of the question that the unit thermal conductance can be smaller in the case of rough surfaces than it is for smooth surfaces. Because of the increased eddy formation, the eddy transport is increased and consequently the unit thermal conductance is increased. The smaller values which were measured in the case of the iron
tubes are most probably ascribable to an incorrect determination of the actual wall temperature due to the presence of layers of boiler scale and rust.

Extensive experiments on condensers were performed by Jesse in Charlottenburg. Jesse measured the over-all unit thermal conductance \( k \) of condensing steam to water, which is defined by the formula (reference 12):

\[
k = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\alpha_1} + \frac{\lambda}{\delta} + \frac{1}{\alpha_2}}
\]

where

\( \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \) unit thermal conductances of the fluids
\( \lambda \) thermal conductivity of the partition
\( \delta \) thickness of the partition

Since Jesse substitutes for \( \lambda \) and \( \delta \) the known values and uses the figures of Nichol (about 4500 kcal/hr m\(^2\) °C), which represent in magnitude a mean between the figures of Soennecken for smooth and for rough surfaces, for the heat transfer in the water, he obtains unusually high values for the heat transfer from condensing steam to metals. According to these experiments the unit thermal conductance for condensing steam would be about seven times as large as that for flowing water.

These results are likewise not understandable. According to Nusselt (reference 12), the process of condensation on a cold perpendicular wall produces on the cold side of the surface a film of water in which occurs all the drop from steam to wall temperature. The film of water clings to the wall, the remaining layers flow downward under the effect of gravity. Since the thickness of the film of water is very small in any case - fractions of a millimeter according to Nusselt's calculation - the flow obviously must be laminar. It is impossible to understand why the unit thermal conductance from water to the metallic wall should be seven times greater on the one side of the wall (where the state of flow is laminar) than on the other side (where there is turbulent flow).
The experimental results of Josse accordingly ought to have some other explanation so that \( k \), the over-all unit thermal conductance, is represented by two terms, approximately equal in magnitude, \( \frac{1}{\alpha_1} \) and \( \frac{1}{\alpha_2} \) where \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) are average values.

It seems quite probable that, for this reason, the unit thermal conductance for water has higher values than were frequently assumed previously. An extensive experimental investigation of the heat transfer to fluids seems to be urgently needed in order to be able to test the accuracy of the theoretical calculations. The difficulties which are encountered due to formation of rust and scale when water is used, suggest the use of other fluids, such as oil, for example.


REFERENCES


NOTE 1

The equation,

\[ \tau = \frac{7}{2} \left( \tau_0 \right)^{3/7} (\rho)^{3/7} (\mu)^{1/7} (y)^{6/7} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \]

can be obtained in the following manner. Postulate that the 1/7-power equation for the velocity distribution holds near the wall and that the shear stress at, and in the vicinity of, the wall is a function of \( y \), the distance from the wall, and of \( \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \), the velocity gradient at that point. Then,

\[ \frac{\tau}{\rho} = F \left( y, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \]

divide by the particular velocity gradient, which gives

\[ \frac{\tau}{\rho} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = F \left( y, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \]

From the 1/7-power equation (see note 3),

\[ u = B \left( \frac{\tau_0}{\rho} \right)^{4/7} \left( \frac{1}{\nu} \right)^{1/7} \left( y \right)^{3/7} \]

there is obtained:

\[ \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{B}{7} \left( \frac{\tau_0}{\rho} \right)^{4/7} \left( \frac{1}{\nu} \right)^{1/7} \left( y \right)^{-6/7} \]

or

\[ \frac{\tau}{\rho} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{B}{7} \left( \frac{\tau_0}{\rho} \right)^{4/7} \left( \frac{1}{\nu} \right)^{1/7} \left( y \right)^{-6/7} \]
In the vicinity near the wall, let

$$F^o\left(y, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right) = F^o_y \to 0\left(y, \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}\right)$$

therefore

$$\frac{\tau}{\rho} = \frac{\tau_0}{\rho} \left[ \frac{1}{\gamma} \left( \frac{\tau_0}{\rho} \right)^{\gamma/\gamma} \left( \frac{1}{\nu} \right)^{\gamma/\gamma} y^{\gamma/\gamma} \right]_{y \to 0}$$

or

$$\tau = \frac{7}{B} \tau_0^{2/7} \rho^{3/7} \mu^{1/7} y^{2/7} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

Latzko dropped the subscript ($y \to 0$) and stipulated that the equation is valid only in the vicinity of the wall.

NOTE 2


NOTE 3

For fluid flow near the wall in smooth pipes the velocity $u$ is determined by the following variables: $T_0$, the shear stress at the wall; $y$, the distance from the wall; $\rho$, the density of the fluid; and $\nu$, the kinematic viscosity of the fluid. By dimensional analysis there is obtained

$$\frac{u}{\sqrt{\frac{T_0}{\rho}} y^n} = F \left( \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{\rho} y} \right) = K \left( \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{\rho} y} \right)$$

A comparison of this equation with the Blasius resistance
formula (empirical) for flow in smooth pipes (see Goldstein, Modern Development in Fluid Dynamics, pp. 339-340) allows the determination of the magnitude of the exponent $n$ and $K$; so there results the $1/7$-power equation for velocity distribution,

$$u = B \left( \frac{\tau_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{1}{7}} \left( \frac{y}{v} \right)^{\frac{1}{7}}$$

NOTE 4

As an attempt to correlate the hydrodynamic principles presented by Latzko with the more recent knowledge of velocity and shear distributions, the Prandtl mixing length was calculated from equation (7) and compared with those derived from Prandtl's and Kármán's logarithmic formulas for velocity distribution and also with that obtained from Nikuradse's data.* Although there are some inconsistencies in Latzko's equation (inconsistencies also appear in Prandtl's and Kármán's equations), the variation of the mixing length does have the same trend as that calculated from Nikuradse's experimental data and differs from it only by a constant ratio of approximately $1.25 \left( \frac{\text{Nikuradse}}{\text{Latzko}} \right) = 1.25$. The method of calculation and the results are shown in table A-1 and figure A-1.

The most important inconsistency appears in the determination of the velocity distribution near the wall. Recent developments indicate that the velocity is a linear function of the distance from the wall in the laminar sublayer. Latzko's expression for the velocity distribution, however, approaches the $1/7$-power equation near the wall and would yield an infinite instead of a finite velocity gradient at the wall $\left( \left| \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right|_{y=0} = \infty \right)$. Latzko may be justified in using such an expression by the fact that his expression for

shear stress is \( \tau = K(y)^{2\eta} \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \), which could yield a finite value for \( \tau_0 \), however, because the product of zero and infinity is indeterminate.

**NOTE 5**

The term \( \delta w_x \), called here the coefficient of turbulence, is identical with the modern term "eddy diffusivity," \( \varepsilon \) in

\[ \tau = \rho \varepsilon \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \]

**NOTE 6**

From this point on, Latzko uses \( y \) for the distance from the pipe axis. Up to this point, however, he used \( y \) as the distance from the wall and \( \bar{y} \) for the distance from the axis. To avoid confusion, this translation continues to use \( y \) for the distance from the wall and \( \bar{y} \) for the distance from the axis only. The equations that follow have been altered (from the original) to conform with these original definitions.

**NOTE 7**

The original article gave the equation,

\[ u = \frac{7}{8} v \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\bar{x}}{\bar{y}} \right)^a \right\}^{1/7} \]

It should be

\[ u = \frac{8}{7} v \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\bar{y}}{\bar{x}} \right)^a \right\}^{1/7} \]

**NOTE 8**

The derivation of
\[ q = 0.199 \frac{v^{3/4}}{(2r)^{3/2}} \left( \frac{s}{r} \right) \left( \frac{r - \frac{s}{r}}{2r} \right)^{6/7} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \]

from equations (8), (2), (3), and (4).

Equation (8):
\[ q = \frac{7}{B} \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{3/7} \sigma v^{1/7} \gamma^{6/7} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \]

Equation (2):
\[ u = B \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{3/7} \left( \frac{\gamma}{v} \right)^{1/7} \]

Equation (3):
\[ u = u_{\text{max}} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma}{r} \right)^{\sigma} \right] \]

Equation (4):
\[ v = \frac{7}{8} u_{\text{max}} \]

From equation (2) there is obtained
\[ \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{3/7} = \left[ \frac{u}{B \left( \frac{\gamma}{v} \right)^{1/7}} \right]^{3/4} = \frac{u^{3/4}}{B^{3/4} \left( \frac{\gamma}{v} \right)^{3/2} \sigma} \]

But by equations (3) and (4),
\[ u = \frac{8}{7} v \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma}{r} \right)^{\sigma} \right\} \]

or
\[ u^{3/4} = \left( \frac{8}{7} \right)^{3/4} v^{3/4} \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{\gamma}{r} \right)^{\sigma} \right\} \]

therefore
Substituting into equation (8),

\[
q = \frac{7}{B} \varepsilon^{3/4} \left\{ \frac{3}{4} \frac{\varepsilon^{3/4}}{\left( \frac{\varepsilon}{\rho} \right)^{3/2}} \right\} \frac{1 - \left( \frac{\varepsilon}{\rho} \right)}{\left( \frac{\varepsilon}{\rho} \right)^{3/2}} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial y}
\]

and since

\[
1 - \left( \frac{\varepsilon}{\rho} \right) = \frac{r\varepsilon - r^2 + 2ry - y^2}{r^2 y} = \frac{4}{2r} \left( 1 - \frac{y}{2r} \right)
\]

thus

\[
q = \frac{7}{B} \varepsilon^{3/4} \frac{3/4 \varepsilon^{3/4}}{\left( 2r \right)^{3/2}} \varepsilon C \left( \frac{r^2 - \varepsilon^2}{2r} \right)^{\varepsilon/7} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial y} \left( 1 - \frac{y}{2r} \right)^{3/2}
\]

and taking \( \left( 1 - \frac{y}{2r} \right)^{3/2} \approx 1 \), which is approximately true in the vicinity of the wall (\( y \) small), yields

\[
q = 0.199 \frac{\varepsilon^{3/4} \varepsilon C}{\left( 2r \right)^{3/2}} \left( \frac{r^2 - \varepsilon^2}{2r} \right)^{\varepsilon/7} \frac{\partial \delta}{\partial y}
\]

NOTE 9

Transformation of equation (11) to equation (12).
Equation (11):
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left\{ \frac{y \left( r^2 - \frac{y^2}{r} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{y} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \right\} = K \frac{y}{y} \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{y}{r} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z}
\]

where
\[
K = \frac{8 \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{3r}{2} \right)}{7 \times 0.199 \frac{1}{4}}
\]

Let
\[
\phi = g \left( \frac{y}{r} \right) e^{-kz}
\]

then
\[
\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = e^{kz} \frac{d g}{d y}
\]

and
\[
\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = -ke^{-kz} g(y)
\]

Substituting in equation (11) yields
\[
\frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left\{ \frac{y \left( r^2 - \frac{y^2}{r} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{y} \frac{d g}{d y} \right\} = -Kk \frac{y}{y} \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{y}{r} \right)^2 \right\} \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{y}{r} \right)^2 \right\}^{\frac{3}{2}} \frac{d \phi}{d z}
\]

To simplify, let \( \left\{ 1 - \left( \frac{y}{r} \right)^2 \right\} = x \)

or
\[
\frac{y}{r} = \sqrt{1 - x}\]

then
\[
2y dy = -r^3 \frac{7}{x^6} dx
\]

or
\[
\frac{d y}{y} = r^2 \frac{7}{x^6} dx
\]

By substituting, there is obtained
\[
\frac{d}{dx} \left( \left( 1 - x^7 \right) \frac{d g}{d x} \right) = -49kK \left( \frac{r}{2} \right)^{\frac{3}{2}} x^7 g = -wx^7 g
\]
where

\[ w = 49kK \left( \frac{r}{2} \right)^{\nu/\gamma} \]

NOTE 10

The original article gave

\[ w = 4gkK \left( \frac{r}{2} \right)^{\nu/\gamma} \]

It should read

\[ w = 49kK \left( \frac{r}{2} \right)^{\nu/\gamma} \]

NOTE 11

(a) Some references to the Ritz method of solution of differential equations.


(b) The manipulations involved in the Ritz method as applied to this problem.

1. Insert the Legendre spherical functions of the first kind into equation (14). Then,
\[ g(x) = \left( \frac{\varepsilon_1}{2} - \frac{\varepsilon_2}{8} + \frac{15}{8} \varepsilon_3 \right) x + \left( \frac{5}{2} \varepsilon_2 - \frac{70}{8} \varepsilon_3 \right) x^3 + \frac{5.63}{8} \varepsilon_3 x^5 \]

2. Now differentiate equation (14) with respect to \( x \) to obtain \( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \)

\[
\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = \left( \frac{\varepsilon_1}{2} - \frac{3}{8} \varepsilon_2 + \frac{15}{8} \varepsilon_3 \right) + 3 \left( \frac{5}{2} \varepsilon_2 - \frac{70}{8} \varepsilon_3 \right) x^2 + \frac{5.63}{8} \varepsilon_3 x^4
\]

3. Substitute into equation (13), the value of \( g \) and \( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \) obtained in steps (1) and (2) and integrate.

Then,

\[
\int_0^1 \left( 1 - x^7 \right) \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right)^2 - wx^2 \left( \varepsilon_2 \right)^2 dx
\]

\[= \left( \frac{7 w}{6} \right) \left( \frac{63}{8} \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_3 - \frac{3.63}{16} \varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_3 + \frac{15.63}{64} \varepsilon_3^2 \right) + \left( \frac{25}{144} \right) \left( \frac{5.63}{8} \varepsilon_2 - \frac{350}{50} \varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_3 + \frac{400}{64} \varepsilon_3^2 \right)
\]

4. Then differentiate the equation obtained in step (3) with respect to \( \varepsilon_1, \varepsilon_2, \) and \( \varepsilon_3 \), yielding the three equations for \( \frac{\partial J}{\partial \varepsilon_1}, \frac{\partial J}{\partial \varepsilon_2}, \) and \( \frac{\partial J}{\partial \varepsilon_3} \), where

\[
J = \int_0^1 \left( 1 - x^7 \right) \left( \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \right)^2 - wx^2 \left( \varepsilon_2 \right)^2 dx
\]

and set them equal to zero.

\[
\frac{\partial J}{\partial \varepsilon_1} = 0 = (1.75 - 0.2 w) \varepsilon_1 + (0.875 - 0.1167 w) \varepsilon_2 + (1.22 - 0.014 w) \varepsilon_3
\]
\[
\frac{\partial J}{\partial g_2} = 0 = (0.875 - 0.1167 w) g_1 + (6.54 - 0.092 w) g_2 + (3.43 - 0.06 w) g_3
\]
\[
\frac{\partial J}{\partial g_3} = 0 = (0.22 - 0.042 w) g_1 + (2.41 - 0.05 w) g_2 + (11.45 - 0.053 w) g_3
\]

5. Set \( \frac{\partial J}{\partial g_1} = \frac{\partial J}{\partial g_2} = \frac{\partial J}{\partial g_3} = 0 \); by setting the determinants of the three equations to zero, a third degree algebraic equation involving \( w \) is obtained:

\[
109.3 - 13.3 w + 0.088 w^2 - 0.000027 w^3 = 0
\]

6. Solve this third-degree equation in \( w \), to obtain the three characteristic values, \( w_1 = 8.712 \), \( w_2 = 164.36 \), and \( w_3 = 1700.40 \) as given by Latzko.

7. Substitute these characteristic values into the three equations in step (4) to obtain three sets of \( g_1 \), \( g_2 \), and \( g_3 \); and insert these into equation (14) to obtain equation (16) and thus equation (18).

8. The values of \( a_1 \), \( a_2 \), and \( a_3 \) in equation (18) are obtained by the method of least squares, thus yielding equation (19).

NOTE 12

References to Calculus of Variation:


NOTE 13

The function
\[ f(x_1g_1g') = (1 - x^7) \left( \frac{dg}{dx} \right)^2 - wx^7 g^2 \]

satisfies Euler's differential equation, which is the necessary though not sufficient condition for a minimum,

\[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} - \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial g'} \right) = 0 \]

for

\[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} = -2wx^7 g \]

and

\[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial g'} = 2(1 - x^7) \left( \frac{dg}{dx} \right) \]

\[ \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial g'} \right) = 2 \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ (1 - x^7) \left( \frac{dg}{dx} \right) \right\} \]

therefore

\[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} - \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial g'} \right) = -2wx^7 g - 2 \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ (1 - x^7) \left( \frac{dg}{dx} \right) \right\} \]

and since

\[ \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ (1 - x^7) \frac{dg}{dx} \right\} = -wx^7 g \]

thus

\[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} - \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial g'} \right) = 0 \]

NOTE 14

References to Legendre's Polynomials.


M. ten Bosch in "Die Wärmübertragung" (Julius Springer (Berlin), 1936) rearranged equation (21) to yield:

$$\alpha = \frac{0.0384 \nu C}{Re^{0.25}} \left\{ 1 + 0.1 \frac{z}{Re^{0.25} d} + \ldots \right\}$$

which when more terms are added becomes

$$\alpha = \frac{0.0384 \nu C}{Re^{0.25}} \left\{ \frac{-2.7 z}{Re^{0.25} d} + \frac{-29.27 z}{Re^{0.25} d} + \frac{-31.96 z}{Re^{0.25} d} \right\}$$

which is a more convenient form of equation (21). Notice, however, that these equations do not yield an infinite unit thermal conductance at the entrance where \( z = 0 \), which is in contradiction to Latzko’s statement in the paragraph following equation (21).

NOTE 16

The momentum equation of the boundary layer can be written

$$\frac{dJ}{dz} - \rho U \frac{dQ}{dz} = - \frac{dp}{dz} \left( 2r\delta - \delta^2 \right) \pi - 2\pi \tau_0$$

(22)

Referring to figure 3, it can be determined that:

$$\frac{dJ}{dz} dz = \left( \frac{dz}{\delta} \int_0^\delta \rho u^2 \pi (r - y) dy \right) dz$$

the flux of momentum across \( \overline{cd} \) that exceeds that across \( \overline{ab} \)

$$\frac{dJ}{dz} = \frac{2}{7} \pi r^2 \rho \left\{ \frac{1274}{207} - \frac{2303}{345} \right\}$$

$$\frac{165v}{(4\delta^2 - 22\delta + 165)^2} \left[ \frac{1274}{207} \frac{\delta}{t} - \frac{2303}{690} \frac{t^2}{a} \right] \frac{df}{dz} - \rho U \frac{dQ}{dz}$$
the inward flux of momentum across \( bd \)

\[
- \rho U \frac{\partial Q}{\partial z} = + 2\rho U \omega r^2 \left[ U \left( \xi - 1 \right) - \frac{165v (3\xi - 22)(1 - 2\xi + \xi^2)}{(4\xi^2 - 22\xi + 165)^3} \right] \frac{d\xi}{dz} - \frac{dp}{dz} \left( 2r\delta - \delta^2 \right) dz
\]

difference in pressure between \( \overline{ab} \) and \( \overline{cd} \)

\[
\frac{dp}{dz} \left( 2r\delta - \delta^2 \right) = - \frac{2\pi r^2 \rho U (2\xi - \xi^2) 165v (4\xi^2 - 11)}{(4\xi^2 - 22\xi + 165)^2} \frac{d\xi}{dz} - 2r\pi \tau_0 \, dz
\]

countering force at the wall

\[
- 2r\pi \tau_0 = - 2r\pi \rho \left( \frac{8}{7R} \right)^{\frac{7}{4}} U^{\frac{1}{4}} \left( \frac{v}{\xi r} \right)^{\frac{1}{4}}
\]

where

\[
Q = \int_0^\delta 2\pi (r - y) u \, dy
\]

By substituting these values into equation (22), there is obtained equation (28).

NOTE 17

Though the original article gave \( z \) in equation (28), it is obviously \( z_0 \) after considering the limits of the integration.

NOTE 18

The original article indicates that the curve in figure
4 is a graph of equation (29). However, on replotting the expression, a discrepancy was found. It appears (see fig. A-II) that the curve given by Latzko in figure 4 is in error.

NOTE 19

From figure A-II, it is seen that for \( \xi = 1 \), \( \chi = 0.686 \)

\[
\chi = \left( \frac{v}{vd} \right)^{1/5} \left( \frac{z_o}{d} \right)^{4/5} = 0.686
\]

or

\[
z_o = (0.686)^{5/4} d \left( \frac{vd}{v} \right)^{1/4}
\]

Latzko derived from figure 4, that

\[
z_o = 0.693 d \left( \frac{vd}{v} \right)^{1/4}
\]

NOTE 20

This plot is given in the original article under figure 7A with ordinate misrepresented as \( K \).

NOTE 21

A plot of \( K \) against \( \xi \), which was to have been given by figure 7A, is missing in the original article. It is presented here in figure A-III.
An example of case 4.

\[ \alpha_a = \alpha \text{ for case 2} \]
\[ \alpha_u = \alpha \text{ for case 3} \]
\[ \alpha_i = \alpha \text{ for case 4} \]

NOTE 23

The original article gave the equation,

\[ \rho \frac{Du}{ds} = - \nabla p + \mu \Delta u \]

It should be

\[ \rho \frac{Du}{dt} = - \nabla p + \mu \Delta u \]
NOTE 24

This equation is derived for a fluid the Prandtl number of which is unity. Colburn* gives an expression for heat transfer at plane surfaces which is valid for Pr other than unity.

Colburn's equation is

\[
\frac{\alpha}{cu} \left( \frac{\mathrm{Gr}}{k} \right)^{1/3} = 0.036 \left( \frac{v}{\nu} \right)^{1/6}
\]

which is practically the same as Latzko's equation for Pr = 1

\[
\frac{Q}{\dot{q}_0 f} = \frac{\alpha}{cu} = 0.0356 \left( \frac{v}{\nu} \right)^{1/6}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Velocity distribution</th>
<th>Latzko</th>
<th>1/7th-power law</th>
<th>Logarithmic</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( u )</td>
<td>( B \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{4}{7}} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right)^{\frac{1}{7}} )</td>
<td>( B \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{4}{7}} \left( \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right)^{\frac{1}{7}} )</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{K} \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{\rho}} \ln \gamma + C )</td>
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<tr>
<td>( \frac{d u}{d y} )</td>
<td>( \frac{B}{7} \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{4}{7}} \nu^{-\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{-\frac{6}{7}} ) *</td>
<td>( \frac{B}{7} \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{4}{7}} \gamma^{-\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{-\frac{6}{7}} )</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{K \nu} \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{\rho}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \epsilon )</td>
<td>( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \frac{d u}{d y} )</td>
<td>( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \frac{d u}{d y} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right) )</td>
<td>( K_n^2 y^2 \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right) \frac{d u}{d y} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \epsilon )</td>
<td>( 0.794 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{3}{7}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{6}{7}} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{2 \nu} \right)^{\frac{2}{7}} )</td>
<td>( 0.794 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{\frac{3}{7}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{6}{7}} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right) )</td>
<td>( K_n^2 y^2 \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right) \sqrt{\frac{T_0}{\rho}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( i^2 = \frac{\epsilon}{d u / d y} )</td>
<td>( 0.794^2 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{-\frac{3}{7}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{12}{7}} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{2 \nu} \right)^{\frac{12}{7}} )</td>
<td>( 0.794^2 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{-\frac{3}{7}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{12}{7}} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right)^{\frac{12}{7}} )</td>
<td>( K_n^2 y^2 \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu} \right) )</td>
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<tr>
<td>( i )</td>
<td>( 0.794 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{-\frac{7}{14}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{6}{7}} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{2 \nu} \right)^{\frac{6}{7}} )</td>
<td>( 0.794 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{-\frac{7}{14}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{6}{7}} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu}} )</td>
<td>( K_n \sqrt{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \frac{1}{K r} )</td>
<td>( 0.794 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{-\frac{7}{14}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{6}{7}} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{2 \nu} \right)^{\frac{6}{7}} )</td>
<td>( 0.794 \left( \frac{T_0}{\rho} \right)^{-\frac{7}{14}} \nu^{\frac{1}{7}} \gamma^{\frac{6}{7}} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu}} )</td>
<td>( \frac{y}{r} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu}} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \frac{1}{K r} )</td>
<td>( 0.538 \frac{y^{\frac{6}{7}}}{r} \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{2 \nu} \right) ) **</td>
<td>( 0.538 \frac{y^{\frac{6}{7}}}{r} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu}} ) **</td>
<td>( \frac{y}{r} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\gamma}{\nu}} ) **</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*\( y = y \left( 1 - \frac{\gamma}{2 \nu} \right) \).*

**For \( \text{Re} \sim 60,000, \nu = 0.175 \times 10^{-3} \text{ ft}^2 \text{ sec}^{-1}, K = 0.4.\)**

***See fig. A-1 for plot of \( \frac{i}{K r} \) against \( \frac{y}{r} \).***
Figure 1A. - The three characteristic functions $a$, $b$, $c$ plotted against $x$ as abscissa.

Figure 1B. - The same plotted against $y$ as abscissa, $d$ = initial distribution for $z = 0$. 
Figure 2.— Variation of heat transfer coefficient along pipe length for hydrodynamically fully developed state (c = 0.304 Cal/m³, v = 18.3 m/sec, ν = 0.175 cm²/sec, d = 2.2 cm).

Figure 3.

Figure 4.
Figure 6.- End temperature distribution for hydrodynamically developed state (e) and distribution at the end cross-section of the entrance run (h).

Figure 7A.

Figure 7B.
Figure A-I. Mixing length derived from different formulae.
\[ \chi = \frac{v^{1/5}}{v^{1/5}d} \frac{z^{4/5}}{d} \]

Figure A-II.

Curve in figure 4.

Curve of equation 29.
Figure A-III.