

**Experimental Investigations on Thermal and Hydrodynamic Entrance  
Regions in Microchannels using  $\mu$ PIV and TLC Techniques**

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A Thesis

in

The Department

of

Mechanical and Industrial Engineering

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Master of Applied Science (Mechanical Engineering) at

Concordia University

Montréal, Québec, Canada

March 2008

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*ISBN: 978-0-494-40906-0*  
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# Abstract

## Experimental Investigations on Thermal and Hydrodynamic Entrance Regions in Microchannels using $\mu$ PIV and TLC Techniques

Tariq Ahmad

Micro-systems are expected to have abundant applicability in the biomedical industry, where operations such as medical diagnostics or DNA synthesis and sequencing, could potentially be carried out on a hand-held device. Fully integrated micro-systems consist of several processes needed to carry out the analysis, such as mixing, reaction, and detection. These systems are projected to have significant advantages over traditional testing methods, such as smaller footprint areas, portability, and shorter analysis times. Micro-systems are comprised of micro-devices, which perform the desired processes. Micro-devices themselves, such as micromixers or micro-heat exchangers, are an arrangement of microchannels, which span only a fraction of a millimeter. Consequently, microchannels have recently received much attention in the research community. Essential for advanced design applications are flow and heat transfer analyses of microchannels, which are used to transport fluid within micro-systems and their integrated components.

The entrance region of a channel, where the flow is hydrodynamically, thermally, or simultaneously developing, is very important since the flow and heat transfer mechanisms are enhanced due to the developing nature of the flow. Through the use

of state-of-the-art optical measurement techniques of micro-Particle Image Velocimetry ( $\mu$ PIV) and un-encapsulated Thermochromic Liquid Crystal (TLC) thermography, the hydrodynamic and thermal entrance regions in microchannels are experimentally investigated. New experimental data is obtained for both laminar and turbulent single-phase flow regimes, in microchannels ranging in hydraulic diameter from 100  $\mu\text{m}$  to 1 mm. To investigate the effects of dimensional scaling, the results are compared to the physical mechanisms, observations, and existing data for developing flows in conventionally-sized ducts and pipes. In addition, new empirical laminar entrance length correlations are proposed for microchannels.

In microfluidic devices and systems, channel lengths are expected to be extremely short, in which case developing flow may dominate the flow field over the entire microchannel length. The present study broadens the knowledge into the mechanisms of developing flow and heat transfer in microchannels. With further understanding of micro flows through experimental evidence, the applicability of complete microfluidic systems can be realized on a practical level.

# Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Ibrahim Hassan, who has guided me throughout my university years at Concordia, both undergraduate and graduate. Dr. Hassan not only helped me grow on an academic and professional level, but also on a personal level through his working methods and helpful advice he has given me over the years.

I would also like to thank Dr. Roland Muwanga, a former Ph.D. student in our research group at Concordia. His development of TLC measurement methods and the microscale heat transfer experimental rig is much appreciated. In addition, Roland provided me with technical insight with his knowledge in thermo-fluids, and he is also a good friend.

Also thanks to Dr. Hassan's entire research group, composed of M.A.Sc. and Ph.D. students including Dino Bowden, Wael Saleh, Ayman Megahed, Chad Zhang, Mohamed Gaber, Mohamed Rahman, and Tarek Elnady. The friendships developed while working within the group will always be remembered.

In addition, I would like to thank my family for their continuous love and support. My Dad and Mom as well as my siblings, Tania, Farah, and Faisal, and extended

family, in particular my aunt Tajie and brother-in-law Peter, provided much care and encouragement over the past years. I would also like to thank all my close friends, whose time together provided a path to relieve the stresses associated with graduate studies and everyday life.

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# Nomenclature

$A$	cross-sectional area, $\text{m}^2$
$B$	blue value, 0 to 1
$C_p$	fluid specific heat at constant pressure, $\text{J/kg}^\circ\text{C}$
$D$	tube or pipe diameter, m, unless otherwise specified
$D_h$	hydraulic diameter, m
$D_0$	Stokes-Einstein diffusion coefficient, $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$
$d_e$	particle image diameter, m
$d_p$	nominal particle diameter, m, unless otherwise specified
$d_s$	diameter of the point-spread function, m
$f$	Darcy friction factor
$G$	Green value, 0 to 1
$H$	channel height, m
$h$	hue angle, degrees
$h_x$	local convective heat transfer coefficient, $\text{W/m}^2^\circ\text{C}$
$K_{\text{loss}}$	minor loss coefficient
$k$	fluid thermal conductivity, $\text{W/m}^\circ\text{C}$
$L$	channel length, m
$Le$	entrance length, m
$M$	objective magnification

$\dot{m}$	mass flowrate, kg/s
Nu	Nusselt number
$P$	pressure, Pa, unless otherwise specified
$\Delta P$	channel or tube pressure drop, Pa, unless otherwise specified
Pr	Prandtl number
$Q$	volumetric flowrate, m <sup>3</sup> /s, unless otherwise specified
$q''$	heat flux, W/m <sup>2</sup>
$R$	Red value, 0 to 1
Re	Reynolds number
$T$	temperature, °C or K
$T_w$	wall temperature, °C
$\Delta t$	time interval between laser pulses, s, unless otherwise specified
$U$	average streamwise flow velocity, m/s
$u$	local streamwise flow velocity, m/s
$W$	channel width, m
$x$	streamwise coordinate, m
$y$	channel height coordinate, m
$z$	spanwise coordinate, m

## Acronyms

BNC	bayonet Neill-Concelman
CCD	charge coupled device
CFD	computational fluid dynamics
CPU	central processing unit

DAQ	data acquisition
DRIE	deep reactive ion etching
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
EDL	electric double layer
FD	fully developed
GE	General Electric
IC	integrated circuit
ID	inner diameter
IMAQ	image acquisition
LCD	liquid crystal display
MEMS	micro-electro mechanical system
NA	numerical aperture
NTSC	National Television System Committee
OD	outer diameter
PDMS	polydimethylsiloxane
PIV	particle image velocimetry
$\mu$ PIV	micro-particle image velocimetry
RAM	random access memory
ROI	region of interest
RPM	revolutions per minute
rgb	red-green-blue
SEE	standard error estimate
TAS	total analysis system
TIFF	tagged image file format
TLC	thermochromic liquid crystal

## Greek Letters

$\varepsilon_B$	error due to Brownian motion
$\kappa$	Boltzmann constant, $1.38065 \times 10^{-23}$ J/K
$\lambda$	wavelength, nm
$\mu$	dynamic viscosity, Ns/m <sup>2</sup>
$\nu$	kinematic viscosity, m <sup>2</sup> /s
$\rho$	fluid density, kg/m <sup>3</sup>

## Subscripts

abs	absolute property value
b	bulk property
cl	centerline value
cl, FD	fully developed centerline value
exp	experimental value
emit	emission
Fluid	fluid parameter
Gniel	Gnielinski correlation
h	heated portion
hyd	hydrodynamic parameter
in	channel inlet condition
loc	local value
max, FD	maximum of fully developed value

out	channel outlet condition
turb	turbulent flow regime
w	wall condition
$x$	streamwise coordinate
$xy$	streamwise and spanwise coordinates

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Over the past decade, fluid flow and heat transfer in microchannels and micro-devices, with and without phase change, has been a strong focus of the research community. The relatively new area of microfluidics deals with the fluid mechanics and heat transfer disciplines, along with the microfabrication methods required at the microscale. Microchannels are prevalent in micro-devices, and in turn, these micro-devices will eventually be implemented in complete micro-systems. However, before the advanced development of these microfluidic systems, it is necessary to understand the fluid flow and heat transfer characteristics in their integrated components. With further understanding through experimental evidence, the applicability of these systems can be realized on a practical level. In terms of applications and fundamental understanding, single-phase flow remains important and there is a definite need for additional experimental investigations at the microscale.

Fundamental microchannel studies, analyzing both fluid flow and heat transfer, are meant to determine if the physical behavior is in agreement with classical theory, or if the effect of dimensional scaling requires new analysis methods as the geometry is reduced to microscale levels. These fundamental microchannel studies lay the ground work for the design and performance of micro-devices and their implementation in future micro-systems.

The application of microfluidics involves micro-devices and their integration with one another in developing a complete system. Micro-devices, such as micromixers, micro valves, and micro-heat exchangers, need to be designed, developed, analyzed, and produced in order to be incorporated in complete systems. Future micro-systems can have thermo-fluid applications, such as micro engines and micro reactors, or they can have biomedical applications in the form of Lab-on-a-Chip platforms and Micro-Total Analysis Systems ( $\mu$ -TAS), such as DNA sequencing and synthesis and biological fluid sampling for medical diagnostics and drug testing.

Concerning the micro domain, experimental flow and heat transfer studies are a reliable method in analyzing the physics. In some instances the reaction of the flow in microscale circumstances may be unknown, and in these cases CFD could fail. Experimental analyses at micro dimensions may also require new experimental methods, not necessarily used for macroscale studies. Newer techniques such as micro-Particle Image Velocimetry ( $\mu$ PIV) and Thermochromic Liquid Crystal (TLC) thermography will further need to be relied upon to carry out more than adequate analyses.

From a comprehensive review into existing literature of single-phase microchannel flow and heat transfer, numerous research groups have carried out fundamental experimental analyses. Majority of these studies focused on the physics of fully developed flow. More recent studies, through improved experimental methods and accuracy, show that there is very good agreement for fully developed microchannel flow with conventional theory, for parameters such as pressure drop, laminar to turbulent transition, and heat transfer coefficient. However, there are still areas of microchannel flow that need to be investigated experimentally, which currently are very limited to non-existent.

The study of developing flow in microchannels, either thermally, hydrodynamically, or simultaneously, is very limited. Flow and heat transfer mechanisms within the entrance region of a channel is important, since its effect on transport properties, such as the pressure gradient and heat transfer coefficient, are significantly enhanced. Also, general correlations for friction factor, heat transfer coefficient, and laminar to turbulent transition are only valid if the flow is fully developed. It should be emphasized that in microfluidic devices and systems, microchannel lengths can be extremely short, in which case within a certain range of Reynolds numbers ( $Re$ ), developing flow may dominate the flow field over the entire microchannel length.

The current experimental investigations are intended to present fundamental results into the entrance region of microchannels, with hydraulic diameters ranging from 100  $\mu\text{m}$  to 1 mm. With regards to the hydrodynamic entrance region, for laminar flow there is very limited experimental data, whereas for turbulent flow experimental data is non-existent. Through the use of micro-PIV, a comprehensive experimental study into hydrodynamic developing flow is carried out for laminar

flow and attempted for turbulent flow. The state-of-the-art, non-intrusive experimental technique of micro-PIV acquires both qualitative and quantitative velocity flow field data in micro geometries. The test-sections are designed to provide a fundamental inlet geometry where the flow is not pre-developed, as well as focus on the effect of scaling independent of cross-sectional aspect ratio. In addition, new empirical entrance length correlations for microchannels are proposed.

In terms of the thermal entrance region, there were many research efforts focused for laminar flow, where a wide majority of existing experimental data shows very good agreement with conventional theory. Instead, an extensive experimental study into the turbulent thermal entrance region is performed. Experimental data into the turbulent thermal entrance region of microchannels is non-existent. Through the use of un-encapsulated TLC's, experimental data is acquired for thermally developing turbulent flow. Un-encapsulated TLC's, whose non-intrusive, state-of-the-art characteristics include full surface temperature sensing at a very high resolution, is highly applicable to fine temperature measurements at the microscale, particularly in the turbulent thermal entrance region whose length is expected to be extremely short.

Chapter 2 presents an extensive literature review into experimental single-phase microchannel flow, including measurement and fabrication methods, applications, fully developed flow, and developing flows, both hydrodynamic and thermal. Chapter 3 presents the experimental test facilities and experimental methods (both  $\mu$ PIV and TLC) used the present analyses, including experimental procedures, general uncertainties, and measurement challenges. The results and discussion of hydrodynamic developing flow in microchannels is presented in Chapter 4, and that

of thermally developing flow in microtubes is presented in Chapter 5. In addition, Chapter 6 presents a complete summary, including contributions and future directions.

# Chapter 2

## Literature Review

### 2.1 Overview

The following is a review into the open literature of single-phase liquid flow in microchannels with and without heat transfer, which includes experimental analysis methods, fluid driving mechanisms, and fabrication processes. A detailed review into previous experimental studies in both the fully developed and developing flow regions, both hydrodynamic and thermal, is presented.

### 2.2 Experimental Analysis Methods of Micro Flows

Concerning experimental work for single-phase liquid flow in microchannels, there are two primary classes of experimental methods to acquire flow data. Firstly, there is the classical bulk measurement approach, which consists of utilizing transducers to record bulk measurements of the flow, such as pressure drop (i.e. pressure sensors) and temperature (i.e. thermocouples), along with viscous flow theory to obtain flow characteristics while accounting for necessary losses. With the recent

emergence of microfluidics, new experimental methods to quantify and measure the flow field were used. Bulk measurement methods are intrusive techniques that record bulk or average measurements of the flow, and difficulties arise as channel dimensions get to the microscale level. Measurement techniques, such as micro-Particle Image Velocimetry ( $\mu$ PIV) for flow field measurement and observation and un-encapsulated Thermochromic Liquid Crystals (TLC's) for surface temperature measurement, are attractive in microscale studies due to their non-intrusiveness and high spatial resolution. However, it should be pointed out that in many cases bulk measurements are required and combined with either micro-PIV or TLC thermography.

### **2.2.1 Bulk Measurements**

Regarding the conventional approach in attaining fluid flow data in microchannels through transducers, there has been considerably more experimental work done and published in literature than the relatively new micro-PIV or TLC techniques. This is obviously due to its traditional nature in attaining flow data by means of transducers. The advantages of this method are the relative ease of understanding the experimental approach due to its classical nature, and secondly, the lower cost compared to a micro-PIV system or un-encapsulated TLC's. The main disadvantage associated with this method is the experimental uncertainty, particularly in the transducers themselves, their calibration, their positions, and the losses associated with introducing a measurement device in the flow field. It should also be emphasized that by using this method, bulk measurement devices measure averaged data in the vicinity of the transducer; local flow data cannot be obtained. A wide majority of the experimental microchannel pressure driven fluid flow studies using

bulk measurements were on the laminar to turbulent transition region (i.e. Wu and Cheng, 2003; Lelea et al., 2004; Yang et al., 2003), the pressure drop and friction factor (i.e. Pfahler et al., 1990; Mala and Li, 1999; Judy et al., 2002; Hwang and Kim, 2006), and convection heat transfer coefficient (i.e. Yu et al., 1995; Adams et al., 1998; Celata et al., 2002; Bucci et al., 2003) over a wide range of Reynolds numbers and microchannel dimensions.

### **2.2.2 Micro-Particle Image Velocimetry**

With regards to experimental fluid flow analysis in micro geometries, the relatively new method of micro-PIV is an attractive technique. Pioneered by Santiago et al. (1998), Koutsiaris et al. (1999), and Meinhart et al. (1999, 2000a, 2000b), this state-of-the-art, non-intrusive technique allows for a qualitative and quantitative analysis of flow visualization and flow field acquisition in micro-scale geometries using an experimental flow observation and particle tracking system. The local velocity fields are acquired by tracking the trajectories of fluorescent seeding particles. The particles are excited by a pulsed laser light, which illuminates the entire test-section volume, and imaging of the particles is done using an epi-fluorescent microscope. Images are recorded through a CCD camera and correlated to obtain two-dimensional velocity flow fields. Disadvantages associated with micro-PIV is the obvious need for an optically clear test section, as well as possible correlation problems due to laser light distortion and background noise. Previous micro-PIV studies focus on observation of the velocity flow field in micro-devices (i.e. Chariot et al., 2005; Hoffmann et al., 2006), as well as laminar to turbulent transition (i.e. Zeighami et al., 2000; Sharp and Adrian, 2004; Hao et al., 2005) and hydrodynamic entrance length (i.e. Lee and Kim, 2003; Hao et al., 2005) in microchannels.

### 2.2.3 Thermochromic Liquid Crystal Thermography

Thermochromic Liquid Crystals (TLC's) is an attractive technique for qualitative and quantitative local surface temperature measurement, due to its non-intrusiveness, spatial resolution, and full surface mapping. TLC's are basically a coating applied to a surface, and when the surface is heated, color contours are produced, which are photographed. The resulting images are then calibrated and quantified to produce temperature measurements and mapping. TLC's have been used since the late 1960's in non-destructive testing (i.e. Ferguson, 1968; Woodmansee, 1968) and convection heat transfer applications (i.e. Cooper et al., 1975). However, these types of TLC coatings were in their micro-encapsulated form, where the spatial resolution is restricted for microscale dimensions due to tiny spherical capsules (10  $\mu\text{m}$  to 20  $\mu\text{m}$ ) in the material (Ireland and Jones, 2000). Therefore, to obtain quantitative temperature measurements with high spatial resolution at the microscale, un-encapsulated TLC's should be applied (Muwanga and Hassan, 2006a). The successful use of un-encapsulated TLC's for thermal measurement on a micro geometry was pioneered by Höhmann and Stephan (2002), who investigated evaporation from a liquid meniscus. More recently, un-encapsulated TLC's were successfully applied by Muwanga and Hassan (2006a, 2006b, 2007) and Muwanga et al. (2007) in analyses regarding both single-phase flow and boiling flow in both microchannels and micro-heat sinks. Disadvantages associated with un-encapsulated TLC's are that they are unprotected and therefore easily contaminated by dust and solvents, and possible destruction of their response if exposed to ultraviolet light for long periods.

## **2.3 Microchannels**

Microfluidic devices are made up, in large part, of a specific sequence, arrangement, or array of microchannels. Regardless of their simplicity compared with other microfluidic components, like micro valves and micro pumps, microchannels can be considered as the most important component in a microfluidic device (Liu, 2006). For completeness, a review into microchannels regarding their fluid driving mechanisms and fabrication procedures must be considered.

### **2.3.1 Fluid Driving Mechanisms**

An important design consideration is concerning the choice of the method employed in driving the fluid through the microchannel or micro-device. The general microfluidic methods to drive fluid through microchannels and micro-devices are: Pressure Driven Flow and Electrokinetic Flow, which can be realized by either Electroosmotic Flow or Electrophoresis.

Forcing fluid through a microchannel by means of a pressure difference is the most common due to its simplicity, generality, and its classical nature carrying over from the macroscale (Liu, 2006). A difference in pressure from channel inlet to exit moves the fluid, and the flow will always move from a higher pressure to a lower pressure. There are a number of methods to create this pressure difference, basically to impose a greater pressure at the channel inlet relative to the channel exit (infusion), or a lower pressure at the channel exit relative to the channel inlet (withdrawal). Due to the no-slip condition imposed at the walls, where the velocity of the fluid particles adjacent to the wall is zero, pressure driven laminar flow is typically

characterized by a parabolic velocity profile (Devasenathipathy and Santiago, 2005). The most classical method to move the fluid is through hydrostatic pressure due to a difference in height, however for most microchannel applications this method is insufficient to overcome the flow resistance within the channel. There are types of mini pumps derived from their macroscale counterparts, such as gear pumps, centrifugal pumps, and displacement pumps (i.e. syringe pumps). These pumps are separate from the device, and are not easily transported or portable; they are primarily used for laboratory work. Regarding “on-chip” pump designs, a widely researched pressure driving mechanism is the deformable membrane pump. The movement of the membrane can be produced a number of ways, including mechanical, piezo-electric, and thermal expansion (Liu, 2006).

The second mode of fluid transport in microchannels is through the use of electroosmotic pumping, which is a type of electrokinetic flow phenomena. An important category of microfluidic systems will require both processing and analysis steps implemented on a fluidic chip (Devasenathipathy and Santiago, 2005). Electroosmotic flow provides the mechanism to satisfy this task. Most channel wall materials, when brought into contact with any electrolytic solution (weak or strong), generate an electric charge at the liquid/solid interface (Liu, 2006). This region at the wall is known as the electric double layer (EDL), which is a region of high capacitance charged ions and the basis of electroosmotic flow. With an external electric field applied in parallel to the channel wall, ions in the electric double layer move in response to this applied field, in a direction towards the electrode of opposite polarity (Liu, 2006; Devasenathipathy and Santiago, 2005). The movement of these ions adjacent to the wall drags the surrounding liquid molecules with them

through viscous forces, driving the bulk liquid within the channel. This is the concept of the electrokinetic flow phenomena. The direction of the flow can be controlled by the polarity of the externally applied electric field. An important characterization of electroosmotic flow is the distribution of the velocity profile across the channel, which is nearly uniform, as opposed to pressure-driven flow (Devasenathipathy and Santiago, 2005; Liu, 2006). Devasenathipathy and Santiago (2005) experimentally demonstrated the difference between electroosmotic and pressure-driven flows through the use of caged fluorescence visualization of their velocity profiles. This nearly uniform velocity profile has a very thin boundary layer, and can be generalized as a uniform velocity profile.

Another flow driving mechanism, which is also a type of electrokinetic flow phenomena, is known as electrophoresis. Devasenathipathy and Santiago (2005) define electrophoresis as the motion, relative to the bulk liquid, of colloidal particles or molecules suspended in a solution resulting from the application of an electric field. This method is useful for bioparticle transportation, separation, and characterization, and is particularly attractive in applications of separating charged biological macromolecules, such as DNA, proteins, and peptides according to their sizes and charges (Liu, 2006). The suspended charged particles, such as DNA (negative) or proteins (positive), have different charges, and will react differently with the application of an electric field. A charged particle experiences forces when placed in either a uniform or non-uniform electric field. However, a neutral particle, such as a cell, experiences net forces when placed in a non-uniform electric field, but experiences no net force when placed in a uniform electric field (Liu, 2006; Devasenathipathy and Santiago, 2005). Generally, different particles move at

different speeds under a given electrical field, which is the basic mechanism of electrophoresis.

### **2.3.2 General Fabrication Materials and Processes**

As previously stated, the choice in the material and fabrication procedure to carry out a specific design depends on numerous aspects. There are many materials one can use in microchannel fabrication, depending on the specific task of the design, and whether it is meant for research of a novel design, or commercial production. Microfluidic applications may require different materials and perhaps different manufacturing processes than those commonly found in MEMS. The fabrication of early microfluidic systems used inorganic materials frequently used in MEMS, such as silicon, silicon dioxide, polycrystalline silicon, or metal (Papautsky et al., 1998; de Boer et al., 2000; Yi et al. 2000; Liu, 2006). In accordance to these selections of materials, the common microfabrication processes were carried out, such as anisotropic or isotropic bulk micromachining, either wet or dry, surface micromachining, or wafer-to-wafer bonding. Bulk micromachining has evolved tremendously in the design of microchannels. Early methods used isotropic wet etching, which evolved toward anisotropic wet and dry etching along dominant crystallographic planes. Currently, a widely used method in bulk microchannel fabrication is Deep Reactive Ion Etching (DRIE), which basically relies on high energy gas ions to react as an etchant. DRIE etching produces high aspect ratio rectangular channels with relatively flat, uniquely profiled walls.

However, microfluidic designs developed in the chemistry and biology sector involve materials and fabrication techniques different from MEMS technology, such as glass

and glass bonding. The reason for this is the many problems associated with silicon; in particular, silicon is not optically clear and therefore the flow is difficult to analyze (Liu, 2006). A microfluidic device fabricated using MEMS techniques in silicon requires a method to visualize the flow field. A common approach is the anodic bonding of glass to the top of the silicon wafer, which acts as a wall for the microchannel and allows for flow visualization as well. However, this may create some non-uniformity in the design, since one wall (glass) is a different material than the other three (silicon). Complete glass chips provide good surface characteristics, optical transparency, and relative ease of fabrication (Liu, 2006). Along with inorganic polymers, like glass and silicon, organic polymers are being applied in microchannel fabrication, such as parylene, acrylics, polycarbonate, polyimide, and PMMA, which are less expensive and easier managed than their inorganic counterparts (Day and Gu, 2005).

For example, a rather popular approach in microchannel fabrication is PDMS (polydimethylsiloxane), due to its rapid, low cost fabrication and availability of material, which can be obtained by many vendors, such as GE and Dow Corning (Liu, 2006). The materials are in two parts, a base and curing agent, which are mixed at room temperature and result in a transparent elastomeric solid. The mixture can be poured into moulds fabricated using bulk etching or photorezist patterning. When hardened, the mould features are translated to the elastomeric solid. This piece can then be bonded to another PDMS material to enclose the channel (Erickson et al., 2003, Liu, 2006; Li and Olsen, 2006). Generally, there are many different methods researchers are exploring in the material selection and

fabrication processes of microfluidic devices, which may or may not be similar to typical MEMS techniques.

### **2.3.3 Conceptual Microfluidic Applications**

A conceptual look into microfluidic applications can provide an overall objective in the design of current microfluidic devices and systems as well as an understanding of how one would apply microfluidics in practice.

Possibly the pioneering work in microfluidics began with the application of heat removal of high speed micro-processors through a micro-heat exchanger (i.e. Tuckerman and Pease, 1981). Typically, a micro-heat exchanger, or heat sink, is a substrate where a series of microchannels are etched on the backside of the chip, opposite to the electronics. A standard substrate is silicon, since it is traditionally used in integrated-circuit (IC) technology in the fabrication of computer processors. The microchannels are micro-fabricated on the backside of the chip using traditional MEMS techniques, such as bulk or surface micromachining, which are derived from IC technology. The microchannels are meant to remove the heat dissipated by the electronics, using single-phase or boiling liquid flow, allowing future high-speed processors to function.

Future micro-systems that possibly have the greatest potential in terms of practical applications and the ability to eventually be commercialized are the Lab-on-a-Chip platforms and Micro-Total Analysis Systems ( $\mu$ -TAS). These future microfluidic systems are typically applicable in the medical, biological, and chemical sectors, where complete automated testing and analysis is carried out on a fully integrated microfluidic chip (El-Ali, 2006; Chang and Yang, 2007). The microfluidic chip would

incorporate several steps such as sample introduction, micromixing within a reaction chamber, detection, sensing, and waste. These future systems are to have great advantages over present methods of analysis, such as small sizes and footprints, portability and analysis on-site rather than at a laboratory, very small quantities of samples and reagents, reduction in consumption and waste, low cost and therefore disposable after use, simple so user must not be highly trained or qualified, and short analysis times while eliminating human error due to laboratory manipulations (Whitesides, 2006; Yager et al., 2006; Chang and Yang, 2007). In addition, the portability, low cost, and simple use of these future Lab-on-a-Chip systems will allow for advancement of the healthcare system in developing countries, where majority of the population resides, but are presently unable to afford simple healthcare, due to either financial reasons, a lack of trained staff, or the remote living conditions far from city centers (Yager, 2006; El-Ali, 2006). Applications associated with the Lab-on-a-Chip or  $\mu$ -TAS are genetic analysis, drug testing, medical diagnostics, chemical testing and safety monitoring (i.e. biosensors), and drug delivery.

For example, in terms of medical diagnostics, the Lab-on-a-Chip should require very little user input, besides introducing the sample (i.e. blood, saliva, urine, etc.). The chip could perform routine testing, or detect the presence of an infectious agent, and provide guidance to the user (Yager et al., 2006). The chip would include different reagents, with the ability to detect a variety of diseases on the same platform, as well as provide guidance on what treatment should be given to the patient. Another example is the medical testing of drugs, which would be applicable to the pharmaceutical industry. With the implementation of cell biology, medical testing of

drugs can be used to predict the performance of human clinical trials (Whitesides, 2006). The platform is to be packaged in a form that can be routinely used by technicians. Sample cells can be included or introduced within the microfluidic chip, and a medical drug sample would be introduced to the chip (El-Ali et al., 2006; Whitesides, 2006). The reaction of the biological cells to the drug, once analyzed within the chip, can provide data on the toxicology of the drug (deMello, 2006).

It should be emphasized that these applications are only concepts and much experimental and analytical work, both fundamental and practical, must be carried out prior to the design of such systems. Further work is required in microchannel fluid flow and heat transfer, in the design and efficiency of micro-devices, such as microfluidic mixers and micro-heat exchangers, and their implementation to form a complete micro-system. Also, studies into the control processes, quality control, operation, and commercialization eventually need to be carried out. However, these conceptual microfluidic applications provide an optimistic outlook towards future innovations.

## **2.4 Fully Developed Single-Phase Flow and Heat Transfer in Microchannels**

Flow and heat transfer characteristics and parameters at the microscale level, such as velocity distribution, pressure drop, laminar to turbulent transition, and hydrodynamic and thermal entrance lengths are important in order to design efficient micro-systems. To better understand the nature of liquid flow in micro geometries and to aid in the design of microfluidic devices, it is advantageous to recognize if there is agreement between the conventional macroscale theories and

microscale flow. Fundamental microchannel analyses such as these were widely investigated both experimentally and numerically, particularly in the fully developed region.

The fluid flow and heat transfer in microchannels has important applications, such as the thermal control of electronic devices. Early studies, such as that carried out by Tuckerman and Pease (1981), show that electronic chips can be cooled effectively using forced convection by running water through microchannels mounted directly on the back of a circuit board. This initial study has led to continued research on microchannel liquid flow and/or heat transfer that will eventually lead to the development of high performance micro-devices such as micromixers and micro-heat exchangers.

Early fully developed, single-phase laminar and turbulent flow and convective heat transfer studies in microchannels proposed a significant disagreement from conventional theory for issues such as pressure drop, laminar to turbulent transition, and heat transfer coefficients. Majority of these experimental analyses relied solely on bulk measurements to quantify the flow and heat transfer. Notable experimental investigations, who found disagreement with conventional theory regarding friction factors, laminar to turbulent transition, and convective heat transfer coefficients for microchannel flow include, Wu and Little (1983), Pfahler et al. (1990), Mala and Li (1999), Weilin et al. (2000), Pfund et al. (2000), Adams et al. (1998), Celata et al. (2002), and Brutin and Tadrist (2003). In addition, experimental transition studies carried out by Zeighami et al. (2000), Li et al. (2003), Yang et al. (2003), and Wu and Cheng (2003) concluded that in microchannel flow the lower

bound of the transition range was below the generally accepted range of Reynolds numbers; however, their upper bound had good agreement.

Many research groups (i.e. Papautsky et al, 2001; Celata et al., 2004; Koo and Kleinstreuer, 2004 ; Ferguson et al., 2005; Celata et al., 2006a) carried out extensive reviews on literature regarding single-phase flow experiments in microchannels, and particular attention was attributed to experimental uncertainties and procedures. Papautsky et al. (2001) stated that there are several experimental microscale effects which become important on the microscale level. Effects such as momentum transport effects (i.e. surface roughness, channel size, channel geometry) and temperature variations (i.e. viscous dissipation) can possibly cause significant variations in fluid properties, leading to undetectable errors, undesirable levels of uncertainty, and complications in comparing microscale results with conventional theory. Papautsky et al. (2001), and more recently Celata et al. (2006a), identified these microscale effects as *scaling effects*, which describe the difference in importance of certain effects for microscale compared with macroscale, where these effects are negligible.

It can be seen that it is the early studies, as stated previously, which indicate deviation from conventional theory, whereas recent studies indicate good agreement with conventional theory. The recent experimental studies have recognized from past research efforts about the importance and accountability of experimental errors and uncertainties in microchannel flow. This is particularly true for bulk measurements at very small dimensions (less than 100  $\mu\text{m}$ ), such as the use of conventional thermocouples and pressure sensors, where bulk averaged flow properties are measured. Notable studies by Judy et al. (2002), Owhaib and Palm

(2004), Bucci et al. (2003), Lelea et al. (2004), Sharp and Adrian (2004), Steinke and Kandlikar (2005), Hao et al. (2005), Hwang and Kim (2006), Muwanga and Hassan (2006a, 2006b), and Celata et al. (2006b) found very good agreement with conventional flow theory for heat transfer and fluid flow in microchannels, due to improved experimental analyses and procedures, and experimental errors that were unaccounted for in earlier studies.

## **2.5 Hydrodynamically Developing Flow**

Within the entrance region of a channel or tube, where the flow is hydrodynamically developing, there are significant effects on the flow field. In conventional experiments, analysis of the hydrodynamic entrance region was found either by measurement of the local pressure gradient or measurement of the local velocity profile. However, as reported by both Fleming and Sparrow (1969) and Wiginton and Dalton (1970), the entrance length based on pressure underpredicts the entrance length based on velocity, where the magnitude of the difference depends on channel aspect ratio ( $H/W$ ). A widely accepted notion of the hydrodynamic entrance length is the downstream location whereby the maximum local velocity approaches 99% of its fully developed value (Shah and London, 1978). Previous microchannel experimental studies, as well as general investigations carried out for conventional sized channels, are outlined for both laminar and turbulent flow.

### **2.5.1 Laminar Flow**

In general, the laminar hydrodynamic entrance region can be defined as the length from the channel inlet over which the local velocity changes from a uniform inlet

profile to a parabolic fully developed profile, after which there is minimal change in the velocity profile. The change in the velocity profile within the entrance region is caused by viscous effects from a drag disturbance at the channel walls, which in turn causes the center of the profile to accelerate, in order to satisfy continuity.

With regards to conventionally sized channels, numerous laminar hydrodynamic entrance length studies were carried out both experimentally and numerically. Regarding numerical studies for rectangular ducts or parallel plate channels, results found by groups such as Han (1960), Fleming and Sparrow (1969), Atkinson et al. (1969), Wiginton and Dalton (1970), and Chen (1973) are considered to be standard and accurate regarding the entrance length. Experimental entrance length studies for conventional ducts have been explored by numerous groups such as Sparrow et al. (1967), Goldstein and Kreid (1967), Beavers et al. (1970), and Muchnik et al. (1973). In these experimental investigations, majority used pressure sensor measurement within the entrance region, while others used visual techniques in observing the development of the velocity profile, such as a laser-doppler flowmeter (Goldstein and Kreid, 1967) or a hot wire method (Muchnik et al., 1973).

Very few laminar hydrodynamic entrance length studies have been carried out in microchannels, and of these, all have been analyzed using micro-PIV. Their geometries varied from one another and their studies of developing flows in the entrance region are limited, with varying agreement with conventional entrance length correlations.

Lee et al. (2002)'s micro-PIV experiments were carried out using deionized water with 1  $\mu\text{m}$  particles flowing through a conventionally machined acrylic rectangular

microchannel with a length of 120 mm, a height of 690  $\mu\text{m}$ , and a width of 260  $\mu\text{m}$ , over a range of Reynolds numbers from 250 to 2100. Images were taken at incremental distances from the microchannel entrance, where averaged correlation velocity profiles were recorded. Through observation, the entrance lengths were found to be shorter than correlations given by Shah and London (1978). The authors concluded that the entrance length is reduced by about 45% due to the pre-developed flow prior to entering the microchannel.

Lee and Kim (2003) investigated different inlet shapes of silicon etched microchannels using micro-PIV with deionized water flowing at about  $Re = 1$ . The microchannels were 30 mm in length, had a depth of 58  $\mu\text{m}$  and a width of 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . Overall, the researchers concluded that the entrance length for microchannels is much smaller than for macroscale channels.

Lee et al. (2004) experimentally investigated the entrance length in two rectangular microchannels of different aspect ratios ( $H/W$ ), one with a hydraulic diameter ( $D_h$ ) of 370  $\mu\text{m}$  and an aspect ratio of 2.75 made of acrylic, and another with a hydraulic diameter of 56.4  $\mu\text{m}$  and an aspect ratio of 0.37, made of silicon (DRIE). The authors used micro-PIV to measure the velocity profiles in the low Reynolds number range, from 1 to 100. The authors concluded that the present correlations showed a weaker dependence on  $Re$  than existing correlations in the linear portion of the entrance length. For the constant portion of the entrance length, there was agreement for the acrylic channel in comparison with existing correlations, while the silicon channel showed greater entrance values than existing correlations. According to the authors, this discrepancy was due to the different microchannel aspect ratios, and

recommend that microchannel entrance studies be carried out without the influence of aspect ratio.

Oak et al. (2004) analyzed flow development characteristics of two co-flowing laminar streams in a high aspect ratio rectangular microchannel using micro-PIV. The two co-flowing streams are separated by  $90^\circ$  and are 9.1 mm long, and the Reynolds numbers are of 1 and 10. The development length of the merging flows was shown not to vary with Reynolds number between 1 and 10, and the authors concluded that high aspect ratio channels result in shorter development lengths.

Hao et al. (2005) showed the developing velocity profiles along various axial positions for water flow in a trapezoidal silicon microchannel with a hydraulic diameter of 237  $\mu\text{m}$ . Using micro-PIV, centerline velocity distributions along the axial direction of the channel, over a range of Reynolds numbers between 50 and 1200, were investigated. The authors found the entrance length in their experiments to be about  $Le/D_h = (0.08-0.09)Re$ .

### **2.5.2 Turbulent Flow**

In conventional-sized channels and ducts, turbulent flow is often practically applied, such as in mixing processes, heat-exchangers, and piping systems. Although decades of research has been focused on the subject both experimentally and analytically, from a review into literature the physics and mechanisms of turbulent flow generally remain very difficult to understand.

Turbulent flow can be characterized as disorderly, random movement and fluctuations of the local velocity components in the form of turbulent eddies. Notions

such as the turbulence intensity, which describes the level of turbulence in a flow, and Reynolds stresses, which describes the turbulent shear stress using the fluctuating velocity components, attempt to describe the mechanisms of turbulent flow. The fully developed turbulent profile is typically broken into three regions: the viscous sub-layer, the overlap layer, and the turbulent outer layer. In the viscous sub-layer, viscous stresses dominate, whereas in the outer layer, Reynolds stresses dominate.

Regarding investigations of turbulent flow development in conventional ducts and pipes, numerous research efforts have been performed over the past decades. Both experimental and analytical studies were carried out in the entrance region for turbulent flow (i.e. Barbin and Jones, 1963; Lee and Park, 1971; Gabrianovic et al., 1979; Filippov, 1982; Hsieh et al., 2003; Lien et al., 2004; Doherty et al., 2007). However, most available works are scattered and conclusions vary from study to study.

In fact, there still remain questions into the entrance length required to achieve fully developed turbulent flow. For example, Gabrianovic et al. (1979) found that the entrance length is dependant on the initial turbulent level (intensity) at the inlet of the duct. Doherty et al. (2007) states that most experimental works cite the entrance length as being 'sufficiently long' however, the entrance length remains uncertain and no formal definition is widely accepted. The authors found that for their high air Re numbers ( $Re \sim 10^5$ ) of their 0.1 m diameter pipe, the entrance length ranged from 50 to 80 diameters and is increased by the development of large-scale flow structures. Lien et al. (2004) found that for their rectangular channel, 1.17 m by 0.1 m, for their Reynolds air range of  $40 \times 10^3$  to  $185 \times 10^3$ , the entrance length varied from

130 to 150 channel heights, and state that mean velocity profiles do not alone constitute as a through study of the development of turbulent flow.

Although a generally accepted conventional correlation for the turbulent entrance length is  $Le/D_h = 4.4Re^{1/6}$ , there is varying experimental agreement with this equation. For example, Hsieh et al. (2003) found good agreement with this correlation for a bare tube of 50 mm diameter and a Reynolds number range from 6500 to 19500. However, Barbin and Jones (1963) did not attain fully developed flow for a diameter of 200 mm and a Re number of  $388 \times 10^3$  for a length of 40.5 diameters, due to the continuously changing velocities, turbulent intensities, and Reynolds stresses. Still, some authors state that there is very minimal influence of turbulent Reynolds number on the entrance length (i.e. Filippov, 1982; Lien, 2004).

With regards to microchannels, there are no experimental studies existing in literature for fully turbulent flow ( $Re > 4000$ ). Possibilities could be due to the experimental methods and high hydrodynamic resistance for turbulent flow, which is amplified at microscale dimensions. Micro-PIV could perhaps be applied to microchannels by qualitatively and quantitatively observing the turbulent velocity profiles, as a first step towards analyzing turbulent developing flow at the microscale.

## **2.6 Thermally Developing Flow**

From the beginning of a specified heated length for a uniformly heated walled channel or tube, where the flow is either developing or developed, there is development in the temperature profile. This development continues along a certain

length, after which a fully developed temperature profile is achieved. Within the thermally developing region the effects of heat transfer mechanisms are increased. In general the thermal entrance length is defined as the length required for the local Nusselt number to come within 5% of its fully developed value (Shah and London, 1978). Previous experimental investigations into the thermal entrance region for microchannels, along with general studies for conventionally sized channels, are outlined for both laminar and turbulent flow.

### **2.6.1 Laminar Flow**

Numerous laminar thermal entrance region studies, both experimental and numerical, were carried out in microchannels, with majority of the studies indicating good agreement with conventional correlations (i.e. Harms et al., 1999; Lelea et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2005; Gamrat et al., 2005; Muwanga and Hassan, 2006a, 2006b; Lee and Garimella, 2006). Conventionally for laminar flow, the theoretical trend of the thermal development length is a very high local Nusselt number at the inlet, which decreases with channel length toward some constant fully developed value. Experimentally, previous analyses were carried out using either bulk measurement or TLC techniques for microchannel wall temperature measurement.

For example, Lelea et al. (2004) carried out an experimental and numerical study of distilled water flowing through stainless steel microtubes of diameters of 0.1 mm, 0.3 mm, and 0.5 mm, in the laminar regime up to  $Re = 800$ . Thermocouples were used both in measuring the inlet and outlet bulk flow temperature, as well as the outer wall temperature along the channel lengths. Excellent agreement of the

laminar thermal entrance length was found with comparison to their numerical results as well as the conventional correlation found in Shah and London (1978).

Lee et al. (2005) experimentally studied the laminar thermal entrance region of deionized water flowing in rectangular copper microchannels, with a width ranging from 194  $\mu\text{m}$  to 534  $\mu\text{m}$  and a depth five times the width in each case. Through the use of thermocouples, their experimental data of the convective heat transfer coefficient in the laminar thermal entrance region clearly showed a sharp decrease, in good agreement with classical theory.

Muwanga and Hassan (2006b) also measured the laminar thermal entrance region in microtubes. Their experiments were carried out using both water and FC-72 flowing through stainless steel tubes of diameters of 1 mm, 0.5 mm, and 0.25 mm. However, they used un-encapsulated TLC's to measure the local wall temperature along the channel length, and thermocouples to measure the inlet and outlet fluid bulk temperatures. Through their TLC results, very good agreement was found in comparing the laminar thermal developmental length with the analytical solution given in Shah and London (1978).

### **2.6.2 Turbulent Flow**

Physically, for the turbulent thermal entrance length, the trends are similar to that of laminar flow, where there exists a very high Nusselt number at the entrance that decreases with the channel length towards a fully developed limit (Kays, 1966). Typically, as the Prandtl number is increased, the shorter the entrance length, however the thermal entrance length is typically much shorter for turbulent flow than for laminar flow.

In conventionally sized channels, turbulent thermal entrance length studies were carried out both experimentally and numerically (i.e. Sparrow et al., 1957; Malina and Sparrow, 1964; Allen and Eckert, 1964; Notter and Sleicher, 1972; Babus'haq, 1993). Numerical solutions for developed flow conditions were carried out for both a constant wall temperature and a uniform heat flux boundary condition. For experimental analyses, majority were investigated for a uniform heated wall condition, due to its ease of implementation in an experimental setup.

An example of a previous analytical work is that of Notter and Sleicher (1972). These authors numerically investigated turbulent thermal developing flow for both a constant temperature and a constant heat flux boundary condition for a circular tube. Their solution of the thermal entrance length for a uniform heat flux boundary condition, which had to be solved numerically, is found using 5% of the fully developed Nusselt value. They focused on very low Prandtl (Pr) numbers (i.e. liquid metals) ranging from 0.01 to 3.00, at very high Reynolds values above  $10^4$  (i.e. conventional sized pipes). It was found that as Pr is increased toward high values, above 3, the entrance length is decreased, toward a constant value of 2 – 3 diameters, independent of Re number. Regarding these trends, there was good agreement with experimental data for conventional pipes (i.e. Malina and Sparrow, 1964; Allen and Eckert, 1964).

Concerning microchannels, there is currently no experimental turbulent thermal entrance region data available in literature. The reason for this is possibly due to the very short thermal entrance lengths for turbulent flow as opposed to laminar flow, where the use of thermocouples to measure local wall temperatures of a

microchannel within this region is near to impossible. However, un-encapsulated TLC techniques may allow the possibility to capture localized temperature measurements within the thermal entrance.

## **2.7 Summary and Objectives**

The above review shows that there were numerous fundamental studies carried out for single-phase liquid flow and heat transfer in microchannels in the fully developed region. Experimental investigations into laminar to turbulent transition, pressure drop and friction factors, and convective heat transfer coefficient were widely researched. However, there still remains a lack of experimental data concerning single-phase fundamental analyses as well as applications at the microscale. The entrance region, where the flow is either hydrodynamically developing, thermally developing, or both, is important because the effect on the flow field and heat transfer mechanisms is enhanced. In addition, for design purposes of future microfluidic devices, it is important to know which flow region, whether fully developed or developing, you are working in. However, the data available for the developing region of microchannels, either diabatic or adiabatic, is very limited or non-existent. The available experimental methods of micro-PIV and TLC provide the capabilities to perform analyses in the hydrodynamic or thermal entrance regions, respectively.

Fundamental data into the hydrodynamic entrance region for microchannels, both laminar and turbulent, is very limited. Only few experimental studies have been carried out for laminar flow, and no experimental data exists for turbulent flow. For

the laminar hydrodynamic entrance region, particularly resulting from an inlet geometry where the flow is not pre-developed, experimental data is required to verify any scaling phenomena independent of channel aspect ratio. With the use of micro-PIV, a fundamental hydrodynamic entrance length study, both laminar and turbulent, are experimentally carried out and analyzed.

Concerning the thermal entrance region in microchannels, from the above literature review there were numerous laminar flow experiments carried out. A very wide majority of experimental studies performed for the laminar thermal entrance region show good agreement with conventional correlations. However, there is no heat transfer data available for the turbulent thermal entrance region. Due to the high pumping power required, turbulent flow is presently seen as impractical to apply in microchannels. Nonetheless, future microscale applications may necessitate a need for turbulent flow data in microchannels. Through the application of un-encapsulated TLC's, with its high spatial resolution, an experimental investigation into the turbulent thermal entrance region is investigated.

# Chapter 3

## Experimental Test Facilities and Methods

### 3.1 Micro-Particle Image Velocimetry

As previously outlined in Section 2.2 of Chapter 2, micro-PIV is a relatively recent experimental technique, having only widely been used in the last five years or so. This method allows for practical flow analysis in micro geometries, qualitative and quantitative, by acquiring velocity profile data of particles immersed in micro flows. In the following, the micro-PIV technique along with the experimental flow loop and its implementation with the micro-PIV system are explained. Also, the general operating procedure, data post-processing, and measurement challenges associated with the test facility are discussed.

#### 3.1.1 Technique and Volume Illumination

The micro-PIV technique implements a similar method as conventional PIV in that velocity flow fields are acquired by tracking the trajectories of seeding particles immersed in the flow. However, where conventional PIV typically illuminates a

single measurement plane 1 mm to 3 mm thick, micro-PIV illuminates the entire volume of the test section. Illuminating the entire volume is necessary due to the relative dimensions at the microscale, where the formation and aligning of a very thin light sheet would be extremely difficult (Meinhart et al., 2000a). Therefore, with the entire volume of the flow field illuminated, fluorescently dyed particles are necessary to track the flow. In micro-PIV, the depth of measurement volume is defined by aspects such as the depth of focus, magnification, numerical aperture and working distance of the microscope objective, particle diameter, and particle emission wavelength, and not the thickness of the laser sheet, as in conventional PIV (Olsen and Adrian, 2000). Due to this “volume illumination” all the particles in the flow field are illuminated (not just those in focus) and will contribute to the resulting image (Olsen and Adrian, 2000). The unfocused particles not in the focal plane can lead to background noise and uncertainty of the flow field data.

To implement the micro-PIV technique, the test-section must be optically accessible from at least one direction, as is the case with etched silicon microchannels. However, test sections which are entirely optically clear, such as those fabricated in glass or PDMS, possess advantages of increased illumination, ease in test section alignment with the microscope objectives, and a readily observable test setup. In addition, thin-walled clear microchannels with a flat surface provides good optical qualities ideal for micro-PIV laser emission.

### **3.1.2 System and Flow Loop**

The experimental flow loop, along with a schematic of the micro-PIV system used in the present investigation, is shown in Figure 3.1. The flow loop consists of the test-

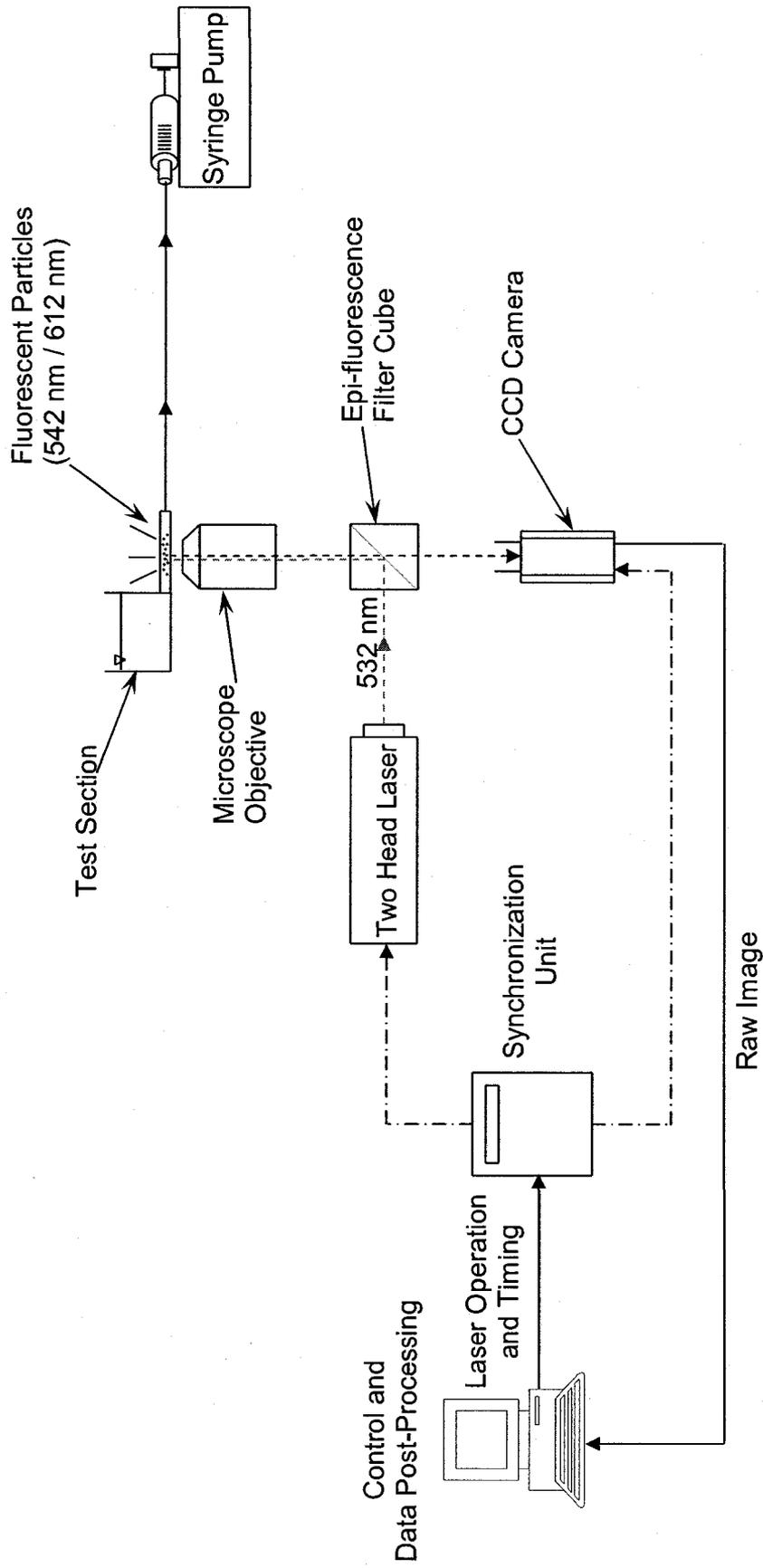


Figure 3.1: Experimental setup of micro-PIV system with flow loop

section and a syringe pump. The syringe pump (New Era Pump Systems model NE-1010) can be operated in either infusion or withdrawal modes and is programmed for desired flowrate and syringe diameter. Prior to operation, the working fluid is prepared by mixing the fluorescently dyed seeding particles (Duke Scientific) with distilled water, at a specified concentration. The particles were chosen to have a suspension density ( $1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$  to  $1050 \text{ kg/m}^3$ ) very close to that of distilled water, so the particles accurately track the flow and do not interfere with the flow due to buoyancy effects.

The concentration of particles is based on a trial process and is measured in terms of volume percentage of the working fluid (i.e. distilled water). The concentration, as well as particle size, depends on the relative size of the microchannel or micro-device channels where the flow is to be analyzed. The particle concentration should be great enough to measure the flow fields with adequate signal strength, but not too great to interfere with the flow field or produce inaccuracies due to unnecessary amounts of background noise caused by unfocused particles. However, if the particle concentration is lowered, larger interrogation areas may be required. Particle concentration must be adequately chosen so that desired spatial resolution may be obtained, while maintaining adequate image quality. The particles used presently have an excitation/emission wavelength of 542 nm / 612 nm, and the available mean particle diameters are 3  $\mu\text{m}$ , 2  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . The choice of particle size depends on channel dimensions, and is typically sized at 1% of the hydraulic diameter of the microchannel. The size of the particles must be large enough to dampen the effects of Brownian motion and provide a sufficient fluorescent signal, however small enough to follow the flow without disrupting the flow field (Santiago et al., 1998).

Figure 3.1 includes a schematic of the micro-PIV system, which was acquired as a commercial package from Dantec Dynamics and includes both image and data acquisition, as well as post-processing. The primary components associated with the micro-PIV system are a pulsed laser light, an inverted epi-fluorescent microscope, a CCD camera, a Synchronization Unit, and a Dell Precision Workstation equipped with specialized computer software (FlowManager v4.50) to control flow field acquisition and processing.

A dual-pulsed Nd:YAG laser light at 532 nm (New Wave Research) is passed through a beam expander assembly, and directed into the inverted microscope (Nikon Eclipse TE2000-S), incorporating both coarse and fine focus knobs. The laser pulses are controlled through the FlowManager computer software. The test section is securely positioned on the stage of the inverted microscope, below which the objectives are located. The stage is a horizontal table, capable of fine movements in both the streamwise and spanwise directions. The objectives (of magnification 2X, 4X, 10X, 20X, 40X, and 60X) are all mounted on a turret below the stage, for simplicity in changing from one magnification to another. The microscope also incorporates an epi-fluorescent filter cube (Chroma Technology), necessary for tracking the fluorescent particles due to volume illumination. The filter cube is configured for excitation with green laser light (band pass at 535 nm, band width of 50 nm) and fluorescence emission in the orange part of the spectrum (band pass at 610 nm, band width of 75 nm). The filter cube also contains a dichoric mirror which ensures efficient transfer of laser light to the test section while providing transmission of the fluorescence signal to detect, as well as reducing background reflections. On one side of the microscope is a camera port to mount the HiSense

MkII CCD camera (Hamamatsu Photonics), which has a resolution of 1344x1024 pixels. The microscope image is delivered to the camera through a camera adapter (1X magnification). The camera operation is also controlled through the computer software, and synchronized with the laser through the Synchronization Unit (Figure 3.1).

The particles are excited by the dual-pulsed laser light at a wavelength of 532 nm, and emit fluorescent light at a wavelength of about 612 nm. Imaging of the particles is done using the inverted microscope fitted with the designated objective and the epi-fluorescent filter cube. Within a predetermined time sequence ( $\Delta t$ ) depending on the flowrate, the CCD camera acquires two sequential images in unison with the two pulses from the laser, and transmits it to the computer workstation equipped with the FlowManager software for post-processing. The Dell Precision Workstation is equipped with two 3.60 GHz Intel Xeon processors, 4 GB of RAM, two 250 GB 7200 RPM hard disks, and a 128 MB video card. Installed in the workstation is a National Instruments NI-IMAQ PCI-1426 frame grabber card, which was used in conjunction with the camera to record the images. The camera and laser pulses were synchronized using a National Instruments NI-DQQ PCI-6601 timer board.

### **3.1.3 General Procedure and Processing**

The general operating procedure of the micro-PIV system is as follows: 1– The test section is setup on the microscope stage, with the appropriate microscope objective, to adequately visualize the location to be analyzed; 2– The particle/water solution is then manually introduced through the test section with a syringe; 3– The location of the desired measurement plane is chosen through the fine and coarse focal knobs; 4–

Spatial calibration of the channel size is carried out through imaging; 5– Temporal calibration is carried out through sample image pairs to select the appropriate  $\Delta t$ ; 6– With the syringe pump steadily operating in either withdrawal or infusion modes, numerous image pairs are recorded; 7– Resulting image pairs are analyzed and correlated through the FlowManager software.

Regarding the data analysis carried out by the FlowManager software, the acquired images are divided into “interrogation areas”, which are correlated for average particle displacement. Images with smaller sized interrogation areas lead to more velocity vectors in a given image. Therefore, selection of the interrogation area size, which is on the order of pixels, is dependent on the resolution of the vector map and the relative size of the flow area. Typically, smaller interrogation dimensions should be chosen in the spanwise direction, where a high flow field resolution is desired, whereas larger dimensions should be chosen in the flow direction to reduce computing.

Correlation methods (i.e. cross, average, or adaptive) incorporated in FlowManager correlate the interrogation areas into quantitative velocity data, processing a velocity vector for each interrogation area. This is carried out using a validation method of the correlation signal peak, which identifies common particle displacement through sub-pixel interpolation. The time between the image pairs ( $\Delta t$ ) is chosen to have mean particle displacement of 25% within the interrogation area, also known as the “ $\frac{1}{4}$  law”. The vector’s characteristics are based on the  $\Delta t$  chosen by the operator, and the particle displacement within the interrogation region through the correlation signal peak. The largest peak defines the particles’ greatest signal and the vector’s probable displacement characteristics. The velocity vector of each

interrogation area is used to produce a vector map of all interrogation areas within the image. To obtain an adequate display of the flow field, numerous image pairs are taken for the same flow condition. The resulting vector map of each image pair is then filtered and temporally averaged with the remaining image pairs, to produce a vector plot of the flow field. The software outputs quantitative and qualitative information regarding the velocity flow field.

### **3.1.4 Micro-PIV Uncertainty**

All the particles in the flow field are illuminated and will contribute to the resulting image. The unfocused particles not in the focal plane can lead to background noise and uncertainty in the acquired data. The method in validating the micro-PIV data, as well as detailed causes for micro-PIV uncertainty depend on the experiment and flow region to be analyzed, and is therefore, in many instances, test-section dependant. These uncertainties will be addressed in the results and discussion of the micro-PIV experimental investigations, in Chapter 4. However, there are generally two sources of random error in micro-PIV measurements, random error due to Brownian motion and random error due to interrogation and resolution. These two sources of random error are typically estimated to present the accuracy of the micro-PIV measurements.

When sufficiently small seeding particles are immersed in a fluid, random particle movements become apparent, due to fluid-particle interactions on the molecular level. This phenomenon is termed as Brownian motion. Since the particle is sufficiently small, there is an unbalance in the surrounding fluid molecules colliding with the particle, causing it to randomly move. However, Brownian motion becomes

of lesser importance as the seeding particle size increases or as the fluid velocity increases. Santiago et al. (1998) stated that Brownian motion becomes important at fluid velocities in the vicinity of 10  $\mu\text{m/s}$ . Santiago et al. (1998) considered the error due to Brownian motion ( $\varepsilon_B$ ) as,

$$\varepsilon_B = \frac{1}{U} \sqrt{\frac{2D_0}{\Delta t}}, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $U$  is the fluid's average velocity, and  $\Delta t$  is the time interval during particle displacement, or in the case of micro-PIV, the time interval between laser pulses.  $D_0$  is the Stokes-Einstein diffusion coefficient, given as,

$$D_0 = \frac{\kappa T_{abs}}{3\pi\mu d_p}, \quad (3.2)$$

where  $\kappa$  is the Boltzmann constant,  $T_{abs}$  is the absolute experimental temperature,  $\mu$  is the fluid's dynamic viscosity, and  $d_p$  is the particle diameter. In general, for microchannel flow where the fluid speed is considerable, even at very low Re numbers, Brownian motion is not expected to cause great inaccuracies. Nonetheless, it will be addressed quantitatively in Chapter 4.

The random error due to interrogation and resolution is due to the uncertainty in the seeding particle image displacement. Larger particles generally increase these random errors, since they have a larger particle image size and occupy more pixels. Also, since a CCD camera is used, the pixel size is fixed (i.e. 6.45  $\mu\text{m}$ ); therefore to reduce random errors due to interrogation, the particle image size must be reduced (Prasad et al., 1992). Prasad et al. (1992) stated that for conventional PIV, the error

is minimized by selecting a particle image size so that a particle occupies about 2 pixels. However, for micro-PIV, as stated by Santiago et al. (1998), since the shape of the particles is known to be spherical, the relative position of the particles can be determined with a resolution 10 times greater than that of the microscope. In other words, the uncertainty in determining the particle displacement is within 10% of the particle image diameter projected back into the flow field. From Santiago et al. (1998), the particle image diameter,  $d_e$ , of a particle in focus can be found by,

$$d_e = \sqrt{M^2 d_p^2 + d_s^2} , \quad (3.3)$$

where  $M$  is the objective's magnification, and  $d_s$  is the diameter of the point-spread function, given by,

$$d_s = 1.22(1 + M) \frac{\lambda_{emit}}{NA} . \quad (3.4)$$

For micro-PIV, the diameter of the point spread function is caused by the diffraction of the fluorescent particles. In Eq. (3.4),  $\lambda_{emit}$  is the emission wavelength of the fluorescent particles and NA is the numerical aperture of the objective. Since uncertainty in the seeding particle displacement depends on the measurement methods and particle size, it will be quantified in Chapter 4.

### 3.1.5 Experimental Challenges

Through experimental trials and analysis, experimental measurement challenges of the micro-PIV setup were recorded. Concerning the test-sections and flow loop measurement challenges, there were initial difficulties in the fabrication of cost-effective, optically clear test-sections, with the ability to function properly with the

laser emission of micro-PIV. Test-sections possessing a flat geometry to reduce refractions and reflections of the laser light is preferable. Also, it was noticed that after some micro-PIV experiments, the particles fouled the test-sections due to the fluorescent dye of the particles. In addition, the syringe pump employs a stepper motor and worm gear, as well as a plunger-type syringe. The range of operating flowrates was limited, particularly for smaller channel widths ( $< 200 \mu\text{m}$ ) due to the friction of the plunger and the operation of the stepper motor. Regarding the micro-PIV system, difficulties arose in acquiring the appropriate measurement plane through the microscope focus, as well as obtaining flow data very close to channel walls, where there was possible influence of the particles.

### **3.2 Thermochromic Liquid Crystals**

Through thermochromic liquid crystal (TLC) coating of a surface, optical thermal measurement may be obtained locally. The temperature sensing ability can provide qualitative and quantitative thermal data, if the material is properly calibrated through their color response to temperature, as discussed in Section 2.2 of Chapter 2. TLC's are attractive due to their ability to coat a complete surface, their non-intrusiveness with the flow, and their spatial resolution, particularly in their un-encapsulated form. The following provides further detail into the molecular workings of liquid crystals, as well as the experimental test facility, TLC application and calibration, and measurement challenges.

### 3.2.1 TLC Material

The notion of thermochromic liquid crystal is generally a liquid crystal material being employed for thermal sensing. The liquid crystal state is an intermediate phase between liquid and solid states that occurs in some organic compounds. Liquid crystal molecules have orientational order, which allows it to display useful optical properties of crystalline solids, but lose their positional order which causes their fluidity (Hay and Hollingsworth, 1996). The ability to sense temperature comes from the different forms of the molecular structure within a range of temperatures (Ireland and Jones, 2000).

Two phases of liquid crystals are the *smectic* and *nematic* phases. In the smectic phase the molecules are layered and ordered with their longitudinal axes parallel. In the chiral nematic phase, on the other hand, the molecules are not layered, and intermolecular forces cause each molecule to be rotated slightly with respect to adjacent molecules, tracing a helical path (Hay and Hollingsworth, 1996). The observed reflected color is a function of the pitch of this helix, which is dependant on temperature (Ireland and Jones, 2000). As the temperature of the liquid crystal in its nematic phase decreases, more groups of molecules begin to arrange themselves in smectic layers, where there is no rotation between molecules. With continued cooling, all molecules eventually arrange themselves in the smectic phase, where there is no longer a color response and outside the temperature sensing range of the liquid crystals (Hay and Hollingsworth, 1996).

Depending on the type of liquid crystal material, the temperature relation with the pitch of the helix can provide broad ( $\sim 20$  °C) or narrow ( $\sim 1$  °C) thermal sensing

ranges. Once the TLC temperature enters within its thermal sensing range, the TLC's turn from colorless to red. Sequentially, as the temperature is increased, the material turns to other colors within the spectrum (yellow, green, blue). Once the temperature increases outside of its temperature range, the TLC's turn back to colorless. Within the TLC thermal range, this process is reversible upon cooling.

To protect the liquid crystal material from contamination and to increase their longevity, manufacturers use micro-encapsulation. In micro-encapsulated TLC's, droplets of the liquid crystal material are surrounded by polymer coatings producing microcapsules 10  $\mu\text{m}$  to 20  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter (Hay and Hollingsworth, 1996). However, it is obvious that these capsules impede the material's spatial resolution. At the microscale, where a high spatial resolution is desired, un-encapsulated TLC's should be used (Muwanga and Hassan, 2006a), which is the case with the present study.

### **3.2.2 Test Facility Flow Loop**

The experimental flow loop used in the present study is shown in Figure 3.2, and is the same used by Muwanga and Hassan (2006a, 2006b). This test facility was built to distinctly acquire TLC wall temperature measurements of microchannels and micro-devices, and was designed for both single-phase and flow boiling experiments. However, the present discussion will focus only on the elements required for single-phase flow. In regards to single-phase flow, the facility is capable of incorporating a number of different fluids to be analyzed, such as distilled water, a variety of refrigerants, and air. The working fluid in the present investigation is FC-72 (3M), a low viscosity electronics cooling fluid widely used in industry. The physical properties of FC-72 are shown in Table 3.1.

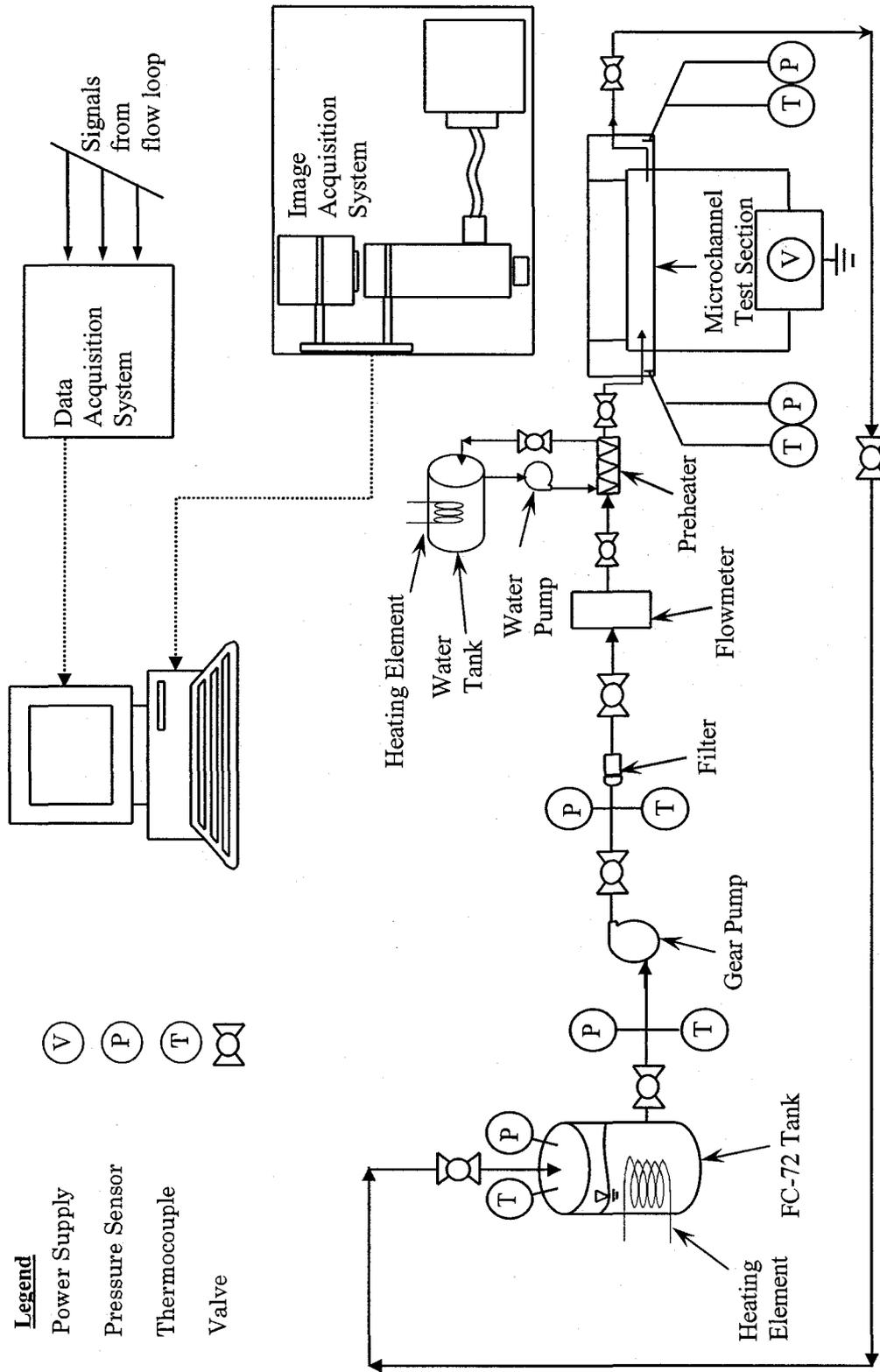


Figure 3.2: TLC experimental test facility flow loop (adapted from Muwanga, 2007)

Table 3.1: Physical properties of FC-72 at 25 °C and 1 atm

Property	Value
$\rho$	1680 kg/m <sup>3</sup>
$\mu$	6.4 x 10 <sup>-4</sup> Ns/m <sup>2</sup>
C <sub>p</sub>	1100 J/kg°C
Pr	12.35

The fluid operates in a closed system and is continuously circulated by means of a magnetically coupled gear pump (Cole-Parmer), as shown in Figure 3.2. The pump operates at a controlled speed and supplies a maximum flowrate of 290 ml/min, with a pressure of 517 kPa. Downstream from the pump is a 15  $\mu\text{m}$  filter, to remove any particulates within the flow. The system flowrate was monitored by means of a nutating digital output flowmeter (DEA Engineering), equipped to handle corrosive refrigerants. Initial calibration of the flowmeter was carried out using a precise weighing method, and operates at a flowrate range from 10 to 250 ml/min. Prior to entering the microchannel test section, the fluid enters a preheater for additional flow temperature control. The preheater is a counter flow, tube-in-tube heat exchanger with distilled water as the heating fluid. As shown in Figure 3.2, the test section is heated by means of Joule heating with the use of a power supply. Heater power was provided by a Good Will (GW) Instruments power supply (Model GPC-1850) with a voltage range of 0 V to 20 V and a maximum current rating of 10 A. Also apparent from the figure are the image and data acquisition systems, details of which will be explained in a later section.

### **3.2.3 Un-encapsulated TLC Coating and Application**

Concerning the heat transfer experiments, the measurement of local wall temperatures was achieved through the use of un-encapsulated thermochromic liquid crystals (TLC's). However, due to their fluidity, it was a challenging task to apply un-encapsulated TLC's to a curved surface, such as a microtube, rather than a flat surface.

The application of TLC's can, in some cases, be a challenging endeavor. The TLC's should be applied as a uniform coating capable of producing vibrant colors for surface temperature measurement. A thicker coating improves color vibrancy, however if the coating is too thick, the coating itself can produce non-negligible temperature gradients through the TLC layer. A relatively uniform application of the un-encapsulated TLC's was applied through the use of an airbrush using a similar method as Muwanga and Hassan (2006a).

The un-encapsulated liquid crystal material used is provided by LCR-Hallcrest. The TLC material nominally has a red-start of 40 °C with a bandwidth of 10 °C. The TLC material was applied onto the microtube surface using a Badger Model 100 independent action airbrush. In order to provide an improved uniform layer of coating, the TLC material was dissolved in acetone with concentrations by weight of 20:1 (solvent to TLC). Prior to the application of the TLC coating on the microtubes, a water-based, black paint coating was applied using the airbrush for improved color vibrancy of the TLC response.

### **3.2.4 Measurement Methods**

Two 1.5 mm diameter Type-T (Omega special error limits material) thermocouples were placed in each plenum chamber of the test section (see Figure 3.2) to measure the bulk fluid temperature. Two static pressure transducers tracked the gage pressure in the inlet and outlet plenums. The pressure transducers, both manufactured by Omega, are model PX01C1 at the microtube outlet and model PX02C1 at the microtube inlet, with ratings of 517 kPa (75 psi) and 345 kPa (50 psi), respectively. The output from these and other sensors is monitored through an

automated data acquisition system using the LabVIEW software. The data acquisition hardware consisted of National Instrument's SCXI 1000 signal conditioning unit, with the appropriate modules as well as the NI 6052E 16-bit 333 kHz data acquisition card.

A schematic of the data acquisition system is shown in Figure 3.3. The signals from the transducers (i.e. pressure, temperature) were transferred through the signal conditioning unit to reduce noise and/or improve signal strength, then through the data acquisition (DAQ) card to the computer (Dell). However, signals from the metering devices (i.e. flowmeter) were directly transferred to the computer through the DAQ card, without the use of the signal conditioner. Image acquisition was carried out in LabVIEW and the images were captured in Red-Green-Blue (rgb) format. The image size in pixels depends on the magnification and tube diameter. Hue planes were simultaneously extracted and saved in tagged image file format (TIFF). Image and data post-processing was carried out using an in-house program in MATLAB operating on the Dell workstation.

A schematic of the image acquisition system is shown in Figure 3.4. Light from an illuminator box (Optem Intl.) is directed through a fiber optic cable, keeping the heat generated from the light source away from the test section. Initial setup was to have the light from the illuminator to be passed through a polarizer prior to entering the zoom lens casing, where it was to be deflected to the test surface by a beam splitter. However, even though the test facility has this capability, it was not used in acquiring the microtube TLC images, due to the reduced intensity obtained when voltage was applied to the tube. Therefore, the fiber optic illumination source directly illuminated the surface by fixing it onto the zoom lens at a fixed angle, as

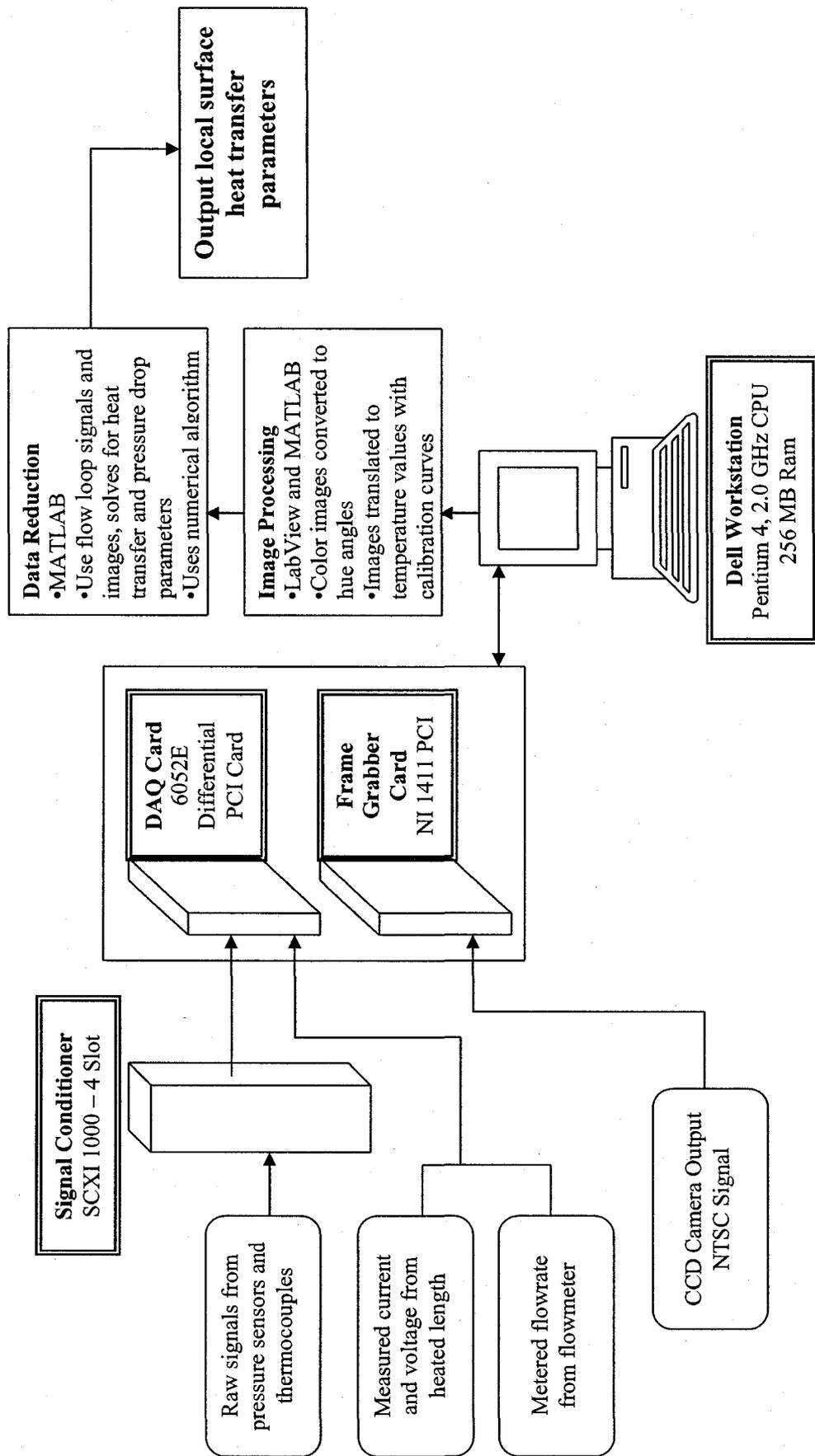


Figure 3.3: TLC data acquisition system schematic (adapted from Muwanga, 2007)

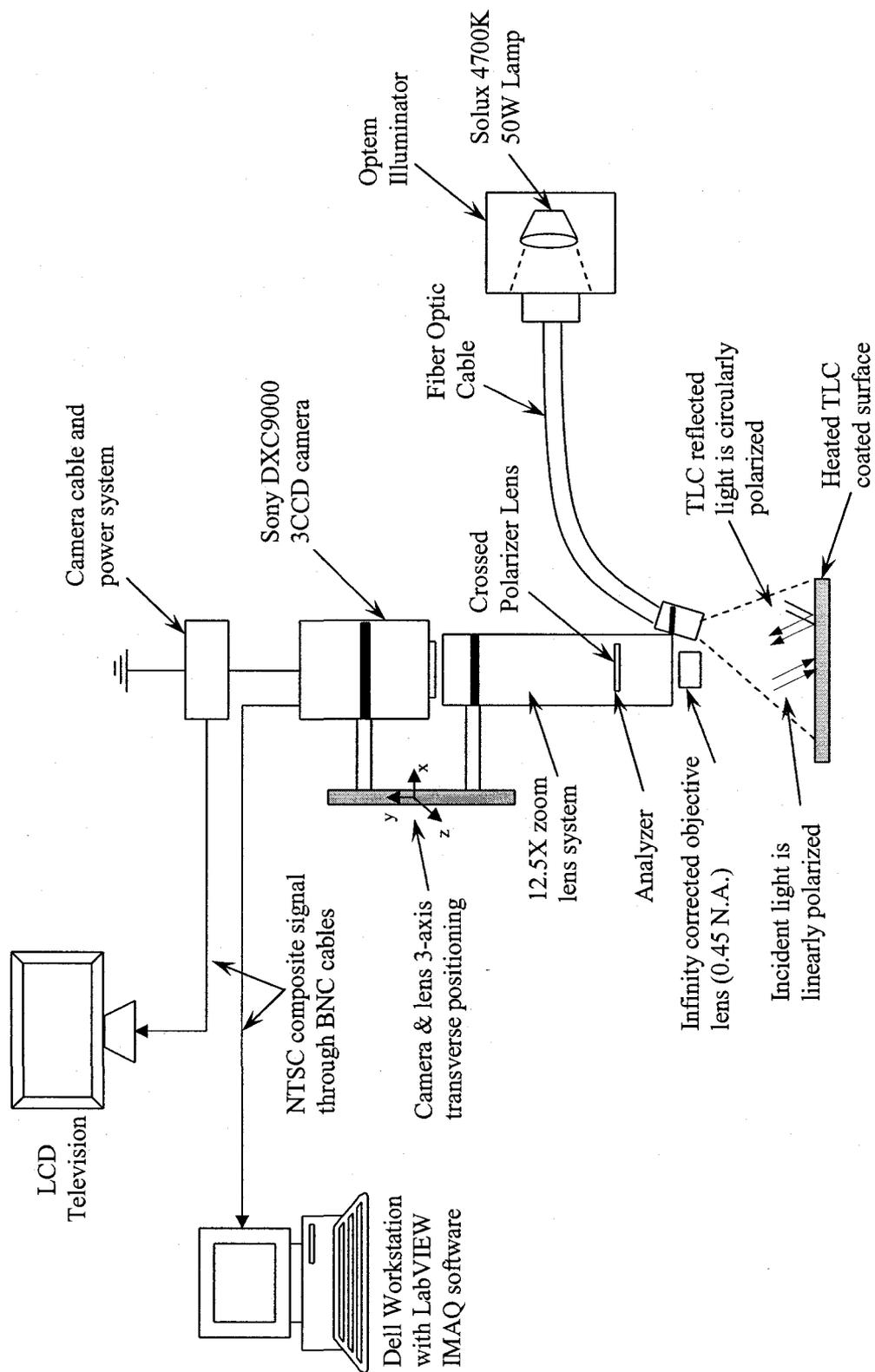


Figure 3.4: TLC image acquisition system schematic (adapted from Muwanga, 2007)

shown in Figure 3.4 and later in Figure 5.2. Upon reflection from the coated surface, the light is circularly polarized and is passed into the zoom lens through the analyzer, and is directed to the 3-CCD camera. Since the reflected light is circularly polarized, it travels through the crossed polarizing pair unaffected. The acquired TLC image is then transferred directly to the computer as a NTSC signal through a BNC cable.

Through the use of an LCD television, real time monitoring and positioning of the test section was possible. This allowed the operator to precisely align the test-section, as well as observe the colors of the TLC coated surface. The video signal used in the television loop comes from a separate output line directly from the camera. Image acquisition is obtained using a Sony 3-CCD analog camera, which is connected to a variable zoom microscopic lens. This combination is mounted onto a three-axis traverse, equipped with variable length stages with 1  $\mu\text{m}$  resolution. The lateral and vertical axis stages allow for fine-tuning of both positioning and focusing.

### **3.2.5 TLC Calibration**

To acquire quantitative temperature data from TLC thermal colors on the surface of the microtube, it is required that the TLC material be calibrated to relate the observed color to a temperature value. There are many different available methods to quantify the observed color. In the present study, similar to Muwanga and Hassan (2006a, 2006b) the hue angle was taken as the color descriptor in order to reduce the color response to a single value. The hue angle, given by Hay and Hollingsworth (1996) is defined as,

$$Hue = \arctan\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}(G - B)}{2R - G - B}\right), \quad (3.5)$$

where  $R$ ,  $G$ , and  $B$  are red, green, and blue values, respectively. The observed TLC color depends on many aspects, such as background lighting, camera distance, camera viewing angle, primary lighting angle and distance, and the time the TLC coating was applied to the specimen. In order for a valid and confident calibration to be carried out, all the above aspects must be maintained the same for both the calibration and the experiment.

The calibration is based on circulating the fluid through the channel and was selected due to its ease of incorporation into the setup. With the use of thermocouples, the bulk temperatures at the inlet and outlet of the channel were measured and remained to within 0.5 °C of each other. Through the use of the preheater, the fluid was slowly heated and images were captured at incremental changes in temperature, to cover the whole bandwidth of the TLC material (~10 °C). Also, if the wall temperature along the entire length of the tube had to be recorded and hence calibrated, then the camera would need to be transversed at different axial positions. However, as it will be discussed in Chapter 5, the present experimental heat transfer study dealt only with the thermal entrance region of a microchannel, therefore only one axial position had to be recorded. This simplified the process, since there was no need to traverse the camera axially along the microtube.

Processing of the calibrated images was carried out as follows. Each calibration curve, which is a curve of Temperature vs. Hue Angle, represents a certain region of

interest (ROI) on the tube surface, which is made up of only a few pixels. This eliminates aspects such as viewing angle and light distortion between different regions on the tube. Therefore, a size of the ROI must be selected. In the present heat transfer study, a ROI of 4 x 3 pixels was selected, giving over 3000 calibration curves covering the entire image, depending on the tube size. The size of the ROI should be large enough to account for noisy pixels using statistics, but small enough to capture the local variability in the color change.

Through the use of MATLAB, an automated calibration curve fitting was utilized to fit the calibration data points. The MATLAB coding was developed by Muwanga (2007) where a sample of the calibration coding can be found. Initially a polynomial of order five was utilized to fit the calibration points, however if any local extensive fluctuations were present within a predefined region, the polynomial order was reduced to three. An example of this case is shown in Figure 3.5a, which shows a calibration curve with the data points originally set at a fifth order fit, then corrected to a third order fit. Figure 3.5b shows a typical calibration curve that shows a good fit between the calibrated data and a fifth order polynomial.

### **3.2.6 TLC Uncertainty and Challenges**

The uncertainty in TLC wall temperature depends on factors such as the sensitivity (slope) in the calibration curve (Temperature vs. Hue Angle), the uncertainty in the hue value, and the error in the polynomial curve fit of the calibration points. Wall temperature uncertainty measurements were calculated using similar methods as Hay and Hollingsworth (1996) and Muwanga and Hassan (2006a, 2006b). The wall temperature uncertainty,  $\delta T_w$ , for an ROI can be calculated as,

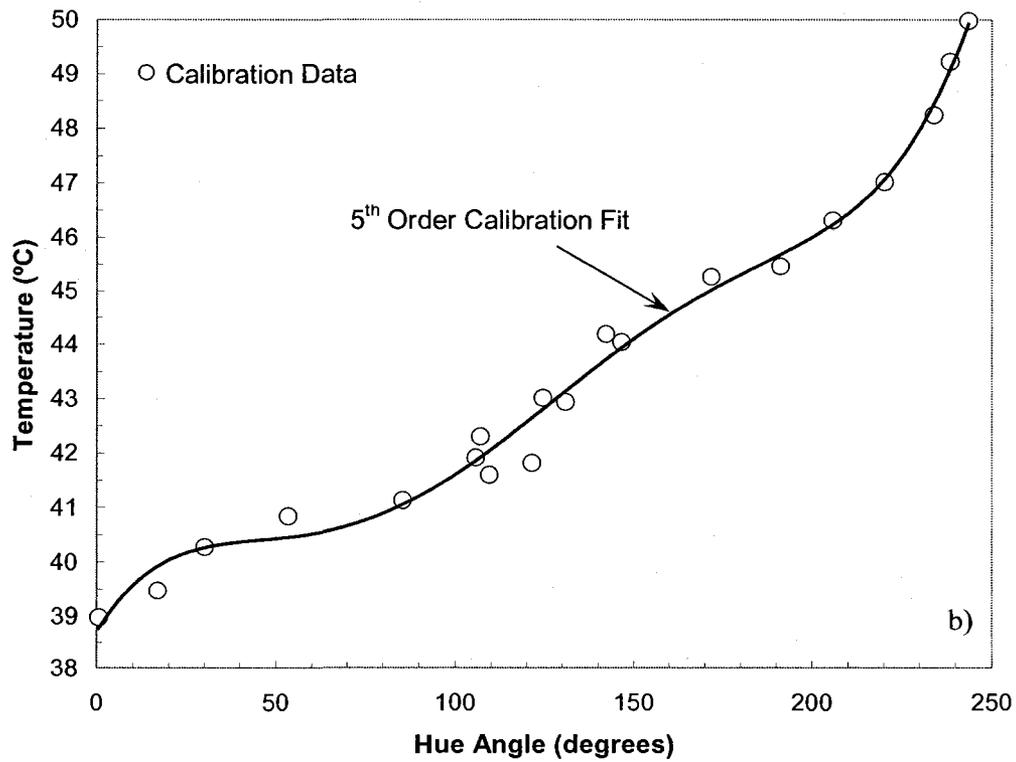
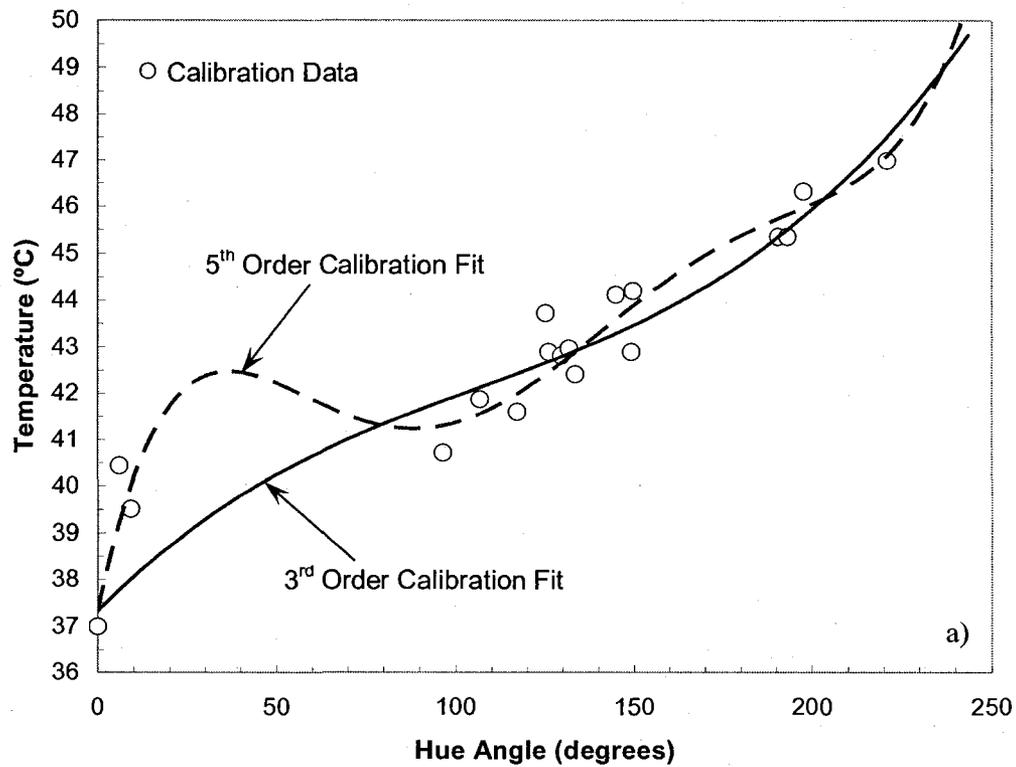


Figure 3.5: Examples of calibration curves: (a) corrected calibration curve with 3<sup>rd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> order fits, and (b) a typical good-fit calibration curve with a 5<sup>th</sup> order fit

$$\delta T_w = \left[ \left( \frac{dT}{dh} \delta h \right)^2 + \delta T_{Fluid}^2 + (2SEE)^2 \right]^{1/2}, \quad (3.6)$$

where  $dT/dh$  is the sensitivity in the calibration curve, which can either be a third order or fifth order polynomial fit, as previously discussed. The parameter  $\delta h$  is the uncertainty in hue for the ROI, and since the ROI's were very small, a constant value of 1 degree was chosen, through visual observation, instead of the scatter. Also, an additional 2 degrees was added to account for the conversion uncertainty from rgb to the composite signal. The parameter  $\delta T_{Fluid}$  is the uncertainty of the thermocouples used to measure the fluid bulk temperature at the inlet and outlet plenum chambers during calibration, and was taken as 0.7 °C. The standard error estimate (SEE), given by Hay and Hollingsworth (1996) is defined as,

$$SEE = \left[ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [T_i(h) - T_{fit,i}(h)]^2}{n - j - 1} \right]^{1/2}. \quad (3.7)$$

The standard error estimate is a measure of the accuracy of the predicted polynomial used in fitting the calibration points, and takes into account the error of the curve fit. However, it was noticed that since some calibrated points had large scatter, calculation of SEE was altered unreasonably. Therefore, instead of calculating SEE, a constant value of 0.5 °C was selected for SEE based on repeated observations of the calibration curves. The uncertainty of the TLC wall temperature was found to be 1.1 °C. The remaining experimental uncertainties are dependant on the experiment and test section, and are outlined in Chapter 5.

Experimental challenges associated with the TLC experimental process primarily resulted from the application and calibration of the un-encapsulated TLC coating. The spraying of an ideal amount of TLC as well as obtaining a proper thickness for color vibrancy with a negligible temperature gradient was challenging, in addition to avoiding contamination of the coated surface from dust and room lighting, as well as the fluidity of the TLC. In regards to TLC calibration, difficulties arose in curve fitting the calibrated data points to preferred polynomials of fifth order rather than third order.

# Chapter 4

## Hydrodynamic Entrance Region in Microchannels

### 4.1 Overview

The understanding of fluid flow behavior in microchannels and micro-devices has been a strong focus of the research community over the past decade. Microchannels are prevalent in micro-devices, such as micro-heat-exchangers (i.e. Tuckerman and Pease, 1981; Mishan et al., 2007; Muwanga et al., 2007), and micro-mixers (i.e. Nguyen and Wu, 2005, deMello, 2006; Chang and Yang, 2007). In turn, these microfluidic components are to be implemented in complete micro-systems, such as micro power-plants (i.e. Epstein, 2004; Suzuki et al., 2008) and Lab-on-a-Chip platforms (i.e. Whitesides, 2006; Yager et al., 2006; Chaw et al., 2007). However, prior to the advanced development of such micro systems, it becomes necessary to further understand the flow characteristics in microchannels and micro-devices incorporated in these systems. Also, single-phase liquid flow remains important in terms of applications and fundamental understanding.

From the literature review in Chapter 2, it was summarized that there were numerous experimental fluid flow studies carried out for fully developed microchannel flow. These studies focused on pressure drop, friction factors, and laminar to turbulent transition. Early studies indicated large deviations from conventional theory, however more recent studies found good agreement with convention due to the required accountability of experimental errors and uncertainties at the microscale, such as dimensional tolerances, entrance and exit losses, and surface roughness. From the improved experimental data, the present general consensus is that conventional theory is applicable for channel dimensions down to hydraulic diameters of 100  $\mu\text{m}$ .

However, as outlined in Chapter 2, the study of the entrance region in microchannels and micro-devices is very limited. The entrance region, where the flow is hydrodynamically developing, can be very important because transport properties such as pressure gradient, wall shear stress, and heat transfer coefficient depend strongly on the flow region. Also, it should be stressed that general correlations for friction factor, heat transfer coefficient, and laminar to turbulent transition are only valid if the flow is fully developed. Generally, the hydrodynamic entrance length can be defined as the length from the inlet of a channel to a location over which the maximum local flow velocity has attained 99% of its fully developed value (Shah and London, 1978). However, a uniform inlet velocity profile is seldom achieved in practice, and is somewhat difficult to simulate in experimental investigations, particularly at the microscale.

An experimental study has been carried out to explore the laminar hydrodynamic development length in the entrance region of adiabatic square microchannels. As well, an attempt has been carried out to experimentally study the turbulent hydrodynamic development region in microchannels. Flow field measurements are acquired through the use of micro-Particle Image Velocimetry ( $\mu$ PIV), a non-intrusive particle tracking and flow observation technique.

## 4.2 Laminar Flow

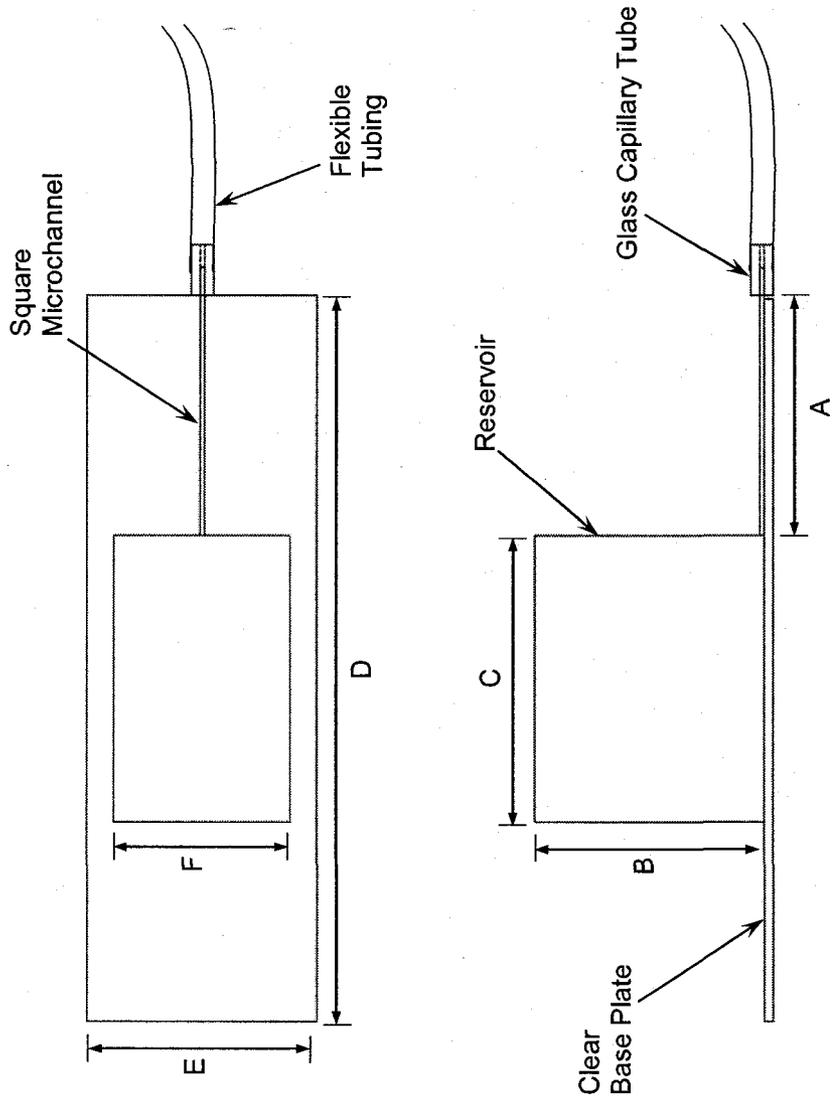
In practical applications of microchannel flow, the majority of micro system flows are laminar, due to the high pressure drop in microchannels caused by relatively small channel dimensions. To apply many conventional laminar correlations it is necessary that the flow be fully developed or errors will result. Conventionally in the laminar regime, the lower the Reynolds number, the shorter the entrance region to achieve fully developed flow. But, it should be emphasized that in microfluidic devices and systems, microchannel lengths can be extremely short, in which case within a certain range of Reynolds numbers ( $Re$ ), hydrodynamic developing flow may dominate the flow field over the entire microchannel length.

There is limited fluid flow data available for the laminar entrance region of microchannels, particularly resulting from a fundamental inlet geometry where the flow is not pre-developed. A general entrance length study from a very large reservoir, relative to the microchannel hydraulic diameter, is a significant contribution in the area of microchannel fluid flow. The laminar hydrodynamic development length in the entrance region of adiabatic square microchannels is

experimentally investigated. With the application of micro-PIV, test sections of three different square microchannel hydraulic diameters of 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  are employed. The working fluid is distilled water, and velocity profile data is acquired over a laminar Reynolds number range from 0.5 to 200. The test sections were designed with a sharp-edged inlet from a large reservoir, at least 100 times wider, higher, and longer than the microchannel hydraulic diameter, and all microchannels have a length-to-diameter ratio ( $L/D_h$ ) of at least 100, to assure fully developed flow at the channel exit. The micro-PIV procedure is validated in the fully developed region with comparison to the Navier-Stokes momentum equations. In addition, to analyze the effect of dimensional scaling, the experimental data is compared with conventional entrance length correlations for ducts and parallel plates. New laminar entrance length correlations are proposed, which account for both creeping and high laminar Reynolds number flows.

#### **4.2.1 Test Section**

In order to fundamentally study microchannel entrance region characteristics from a very large reservoir, general fabrication methods were applied to satisfy this geometrical constraint. Three test sections, as shown in Figure 4.1, were designed to provide a sharp-edged microchannel inlet from a very large reservoir relative to the hydraulic diameter of the channel. For each of the 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannels, an appropriate test section was fabricated, dimensions of which are also given in Figure 4.1. The borosilicate thin-walled glass microchannels used in fabricating the present test sections are commercially available, manufactured and cut to length by Friedrich & Dimmock Inc. All microchannels possess a square cross-



Length	500 $\mu\text{m}$ Test Section (mm)	200 $\mu\text{m}$ Test Section (mm)	100 $\mu\text{m}$ Test Section (mm)
A	68	35	25
B	50	25	25
C	54	30	30
D	126	76	76
E	60	26	26
F	50.8	20	20

Figure 4.1: Top and side views of the test section configuration used in hydrodynamic entrance length studies

section ( $H/W = 1$ ) in order to remove any influence of aspect ratio and to distinctly study the geometric influence of scaling in the microchannel entrance region.

As stated in Chapter 3, in micro-PIV the entire volume of the flow field is illuminated, and fluorescently dyed particles are necessary to track the flow through the use of microscope objectives. Therefore, to implement the micro-PIV technique, the test-section must be optically accessible from at least one direction, as is the case with etched silicon microchannels. However, in the present study the entire test sections are optically clear, having advantages of increased illumination, test section alignment with the microscope objectives, and a readily observable test setup. In addition, the thin-walled glass microchannels provided good optical qualities ideal for micro-PIV laser emission.

All test sections were fabricated using a similar method. Depending on microchannel dimension and objective working distance, either a 3 mm thick clear polycarbonate sheet (500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel) or 1 mm thick clear glass slide (200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channels) was used as a base plate for the test section (Figure 4.1). The base plate provided rigidity for the test setup, as well as provided an optically clear flat surface for laser emission, necessary for micro-PIV. Four vertical polycarbonate walls were then bonded onto one end of the base plate using general purpose clear epoxy (Permatex), and sealed with silicone. These four walls, along with the base plate, served as the open air inlet reservoir to the microchannel, as shown in Figure 4.1. The walls were bonded together and sealed only on the exterior, as not to interfere with the flow inside the reservoir. Using a sawing technique, a small groove (on the order of the external dimensions of the microchannel) was machined at the bottom center of the reservoir wall bordering the microchannel inlet to provide a slot to seat

the microchannel. Once the reservoir had been sealed and cured, the respective microchannel was carefully slid into the machined groove until the channel inlet was flush with the interior wall of the reservoir. Also, similar to an etched microchannel in a silicon substrate, the base of the inlet reservoir was on the same plane as the microchannel base. The microchannel was then bonded to the base plate and reservoir wall using the clear epoxy. A capillary tube was slid onto the microchannel exit and bonded to the base plate. Flexible tubing (Tygon) was then fixed firmly to the capillary tube, to provide an adaptable path to the syringe pump.

With the syringe pump operating in withdrawal mode, the fluid is steadily withdrawn from the inlet reservoir through the microchannel and into a syringe incorporated with the syringe pump, as was illustrated in the schematic of Figure 3.1. The fluid is a mixture of distilled water and micro-PIV particles. Mean particle diameters used in the test sections were 3  $\mu\text{m}$  (500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel), 2  $\mu\text{m}$  (200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel), and 1  $\mu\text{m}$  (100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel). The fluorescent particles (Duke Scientific) are excited by the green laser light (532 nm) and emit fluorescent light in the orange part of the spectrum (612 nm). Through the designated microscope objective (i.e. 10X for 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, 20X for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channels) and epi-fluorescent filter cube, imaging of the particles in the microchannel is carried out.

#### **4.2.2 Experimental Parameters and Procedure**

Micro-PIV data sets were recorded for the three microchannels at the center plane at incremental axial distances from the microchannel inlet. The overlapping incremental axial distances were at 0.5 mm for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, and 0.25 mm for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channels. There was considerable overlap in the axial

images, as to considerably reduce the error associated with the process. The particle concentration in the distilled water for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (3  $\mu\text{m}$  particles) was  $\sim 0.0141\%$  by volume, for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (2  $\mu\text{m}$  particles) was  $\sim 0.0168\%$  by volume, and for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (1  $\mu\text{m}$  particles) was  $\sim 0.0223\%$  by volume. These concentrations were chosen based on a trial process and are very low; hence the mixture can be considered as a single-phase liquid. The desired flowrates were programmed into the syringe pump operating in withdrawal mode. With a known volume flowrate,  $Q$ , the Reynolds (Re) number was calculated as,

$$\text{Re} = \frac{Q D_h}{\nu A}, \quad (4.1)$$

where  $D_h$  is the hydraulic diameter,  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity, and  $A$  is the cross-sectional area of the channel. The kinematic viscosity was assumed constant at room temperature.

Spatial calibration was carried out with the use of the FlowManager software for each axial position recorded. The maximum energy the laser can supply is 120 mJ/pulse, where 9.6 mJ was employed for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, 10.8 mJ was employed for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, and 12 mJ was employed for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. The number of recorded sequential image pairs for a given flow condition must be large enough to collect an adequate amount of data to accurately describe the flow field, but not too great as to reduce the computing time. Based on an initial trial process, thirty sequential image pairs were used for each data set, and were recorded three times, to assure repeatability in the data. Interrogation areas of 32 x 64 pixels were used for all channels, and the time between the image pairs ( $\Delta t$ ) was

chosen as to have mean particle displacement of 25% within the interrogation area. The thirty image pairs were correlated using the adaptive correlation technique (Dantec Dynamics), then filtered (3 x 3 window) and temporally averaged, to produce a vector plot of the flow field. Prior to the entrance length measurements, vector plots for each Re number were recorded in the fully developed region to assure validation with the two-dimensional Navier-Stokes momentum equations for a rectangular duct at the center plane.

### **4.2.3 Experimental Uncertainties**

The uncertainties in the process, which are tabulated in Table 4.1, resulted from the syringe pump (i.e. flowrate), the width of the channels, the channel center plane, transversing along the channel length, as well as the random errors associated with the micro-PIV system. The syringe pump employs a stepper motor and worm gear, as well as a plunger-type syringe. The uncertainty was higher at low flowrates due to the friction of the plunger and the operation of the stepper motor. Regardless, the highest uncertainty in the flowrate was observed to be 2 – 4% using the nominal channel widths. The uncertainty in the channel widths, provided by the manufacturer was  $\pm 10\%$  for all channels, giving an uncertainty in Re of  $\sim 10.8\%$ . The micro-PIV data was validated at the center plane in the fully developed region using the Navier-Stokes equations, with an uncertainty of less than 4%. However the uncertainty in Re, as well as the uncertainty in validation with the Navier-Stokes equations, is due largely to the high uncertainty in the widths of the channels.

The random errors due to micro-PIV, as explained in Chapter 3, are random error due to Brownian motion and random error due to interrogation and resolution.

Table 4.1: Uncertainties in the experimental parameters of the laminar hydrodynamic entrance length

Parameter	Maximum Uncertainty		
	100 $\mu\text{m}$ test section	200 $\mu\text{m}$ test section	500 $\mu\text{m}$ test section
Channel width	$\pm 10\%$	$\pm 10\%$	$\pm 10\%$
Flowrate	2% – 4%	2% – 4%	2% – 4%
Reynolds number	10.8%	10.8%	10.8%
Navier-Stokes validation	3.8%	3%	3%
Brownian motion	1.51%	1.28%	1.24%
Particle image displacement	200.9 nm	265.2 nm	444.9 nm

These are also tabulated in Table 4.1. Regarding Brownian motion, a large error was not expected, since the flow velocities are large for microchannels, even at small Re numbers. The largest error due to Brownian motion was 1.51%, which was for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at  $\text{Re} = 0.476$ . The error associated with interrogation and resolution is due to the uncertainty in the particle image displacement from micro-PIV imaging. The largest uncertainty in particle image displacement was estimated to be approximately 445 nm, which was for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, since it used the largest particles.

#### **4.2.4 Entrance Flow Observations**

Experimental velocity flow field data has been acquired in the entrance region of microchannels using micro-PIV. Three square cross-sectional microchannels were investigated in order to remove any effect of cross-sectional aspect ratio. The microchannels have hydraulic diameters ( $D_h$ ) of 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , over a laminar Reynolds number range of 0.5 to 200. The microchannel inlets were sharp-edged from an infinitely-sized reservoir relative to the microchannel hydraulic diameter. The fluid at the reservoir interface is stagnant, as to impose minimal pre-development upstream of the microchannel entrance, and to obtain a relatively flat inlet velocity profile. Figure 4.2 shows the coordinate system used in the present analysis. Since micro-PIV images are acquired through the use of the microscope objectives beneath the test section, flow field data is attained at the center plane, at half the microchannel height. The height is denoted by the  $y$  coordinate, the spanwise direction is denoted by the  $z$  coordinate, and the axial direction is denoted by the  $x$  coordinate, where the origin is at the microchannel inlet. It should be noted

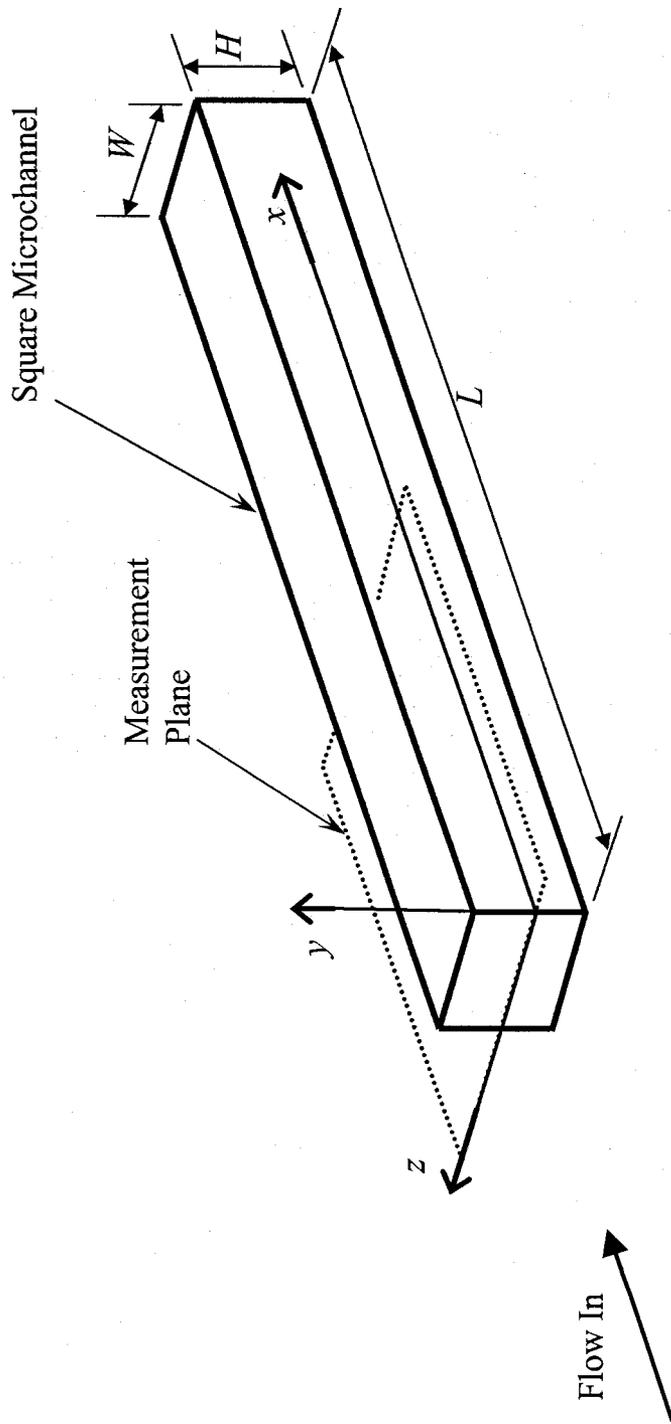


Figure 4.2: Experimental coordinate system used in present investigation

that since the cross sectional aspect ratio is one, the microchannel width,  $W$ , is identical to the microchannel height,  $H$ .

Figures 4.3a and 4.3b depict the flow separation effects produced by the corners of a sharp edged inlet. Figure 4.3a shows a schematic of the theoretical flow pattern that is found in the entrance region when the flow enters a channel that is flush with the inlet reservoir, thereby producing sharp edged corners and acting as an orifice. The corners have a physical effect on the flow field thereby producing a vena contracta, which is characterized by the point of minimum area and maximum flow contraction. As the flow contracts just downstream of the channel inlet, flow separation regions form, as shown in Figure 4.3a. Figure 4.3b shows the experimental vector flow field produced using micro-PIV for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannel at  $\text{Re} = 50$ . It is possible to see the very low velocity flow in the inlet reservoir accelerating as it approaches the sharp-edged inlet of the microchannel. The inlet corners produce a disturbance on the flow field and force the fluid to contract, producing the vena contracta effect, demonstrating the inability of the flow to turn the  $90^\circ$  sharp corner. The flow then diverges to occupy the entire channel area. This figure is useful in demonstrating both the capability of micro-PIV in terms of visualizing the flow field, as well as a qualitative comparison with the conventional physical mechanism associated with the corner effects on the entrance region.

#### **4.2.5 Developing Velocity Profiles**

Figures 4.4 (a – d), 4.5 (a – d), and 4.6 (a – d) show the developing velocity profiles at incremental axial locations along the microchannel length, for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ ,

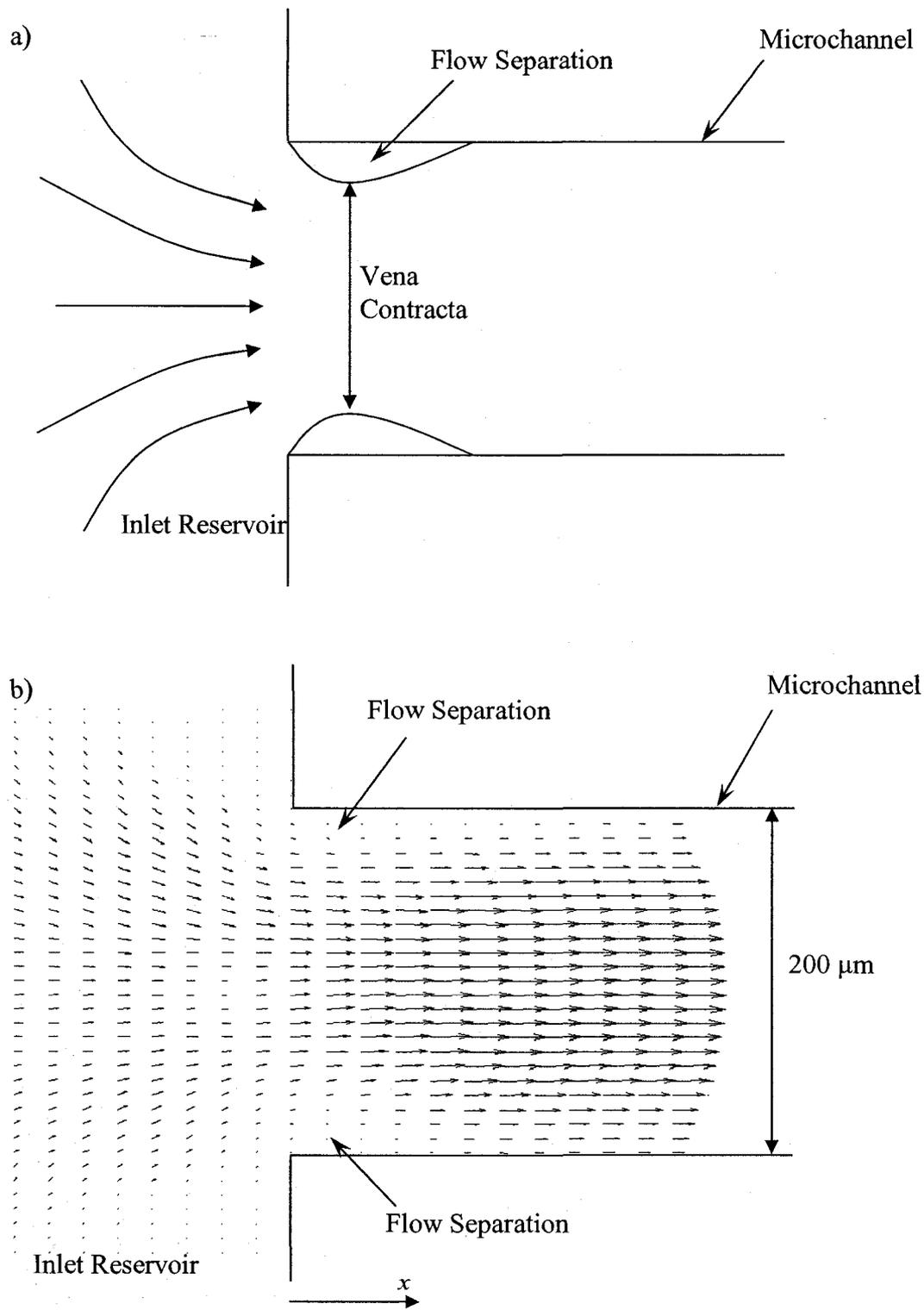


Figure 4.3: Flow separation effects produced by sharp edge corners at the entrance region of the microchannel: (a) Theoretical flow pattern and (b) experimental vector flow field for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at  $\text{Re} = 50$

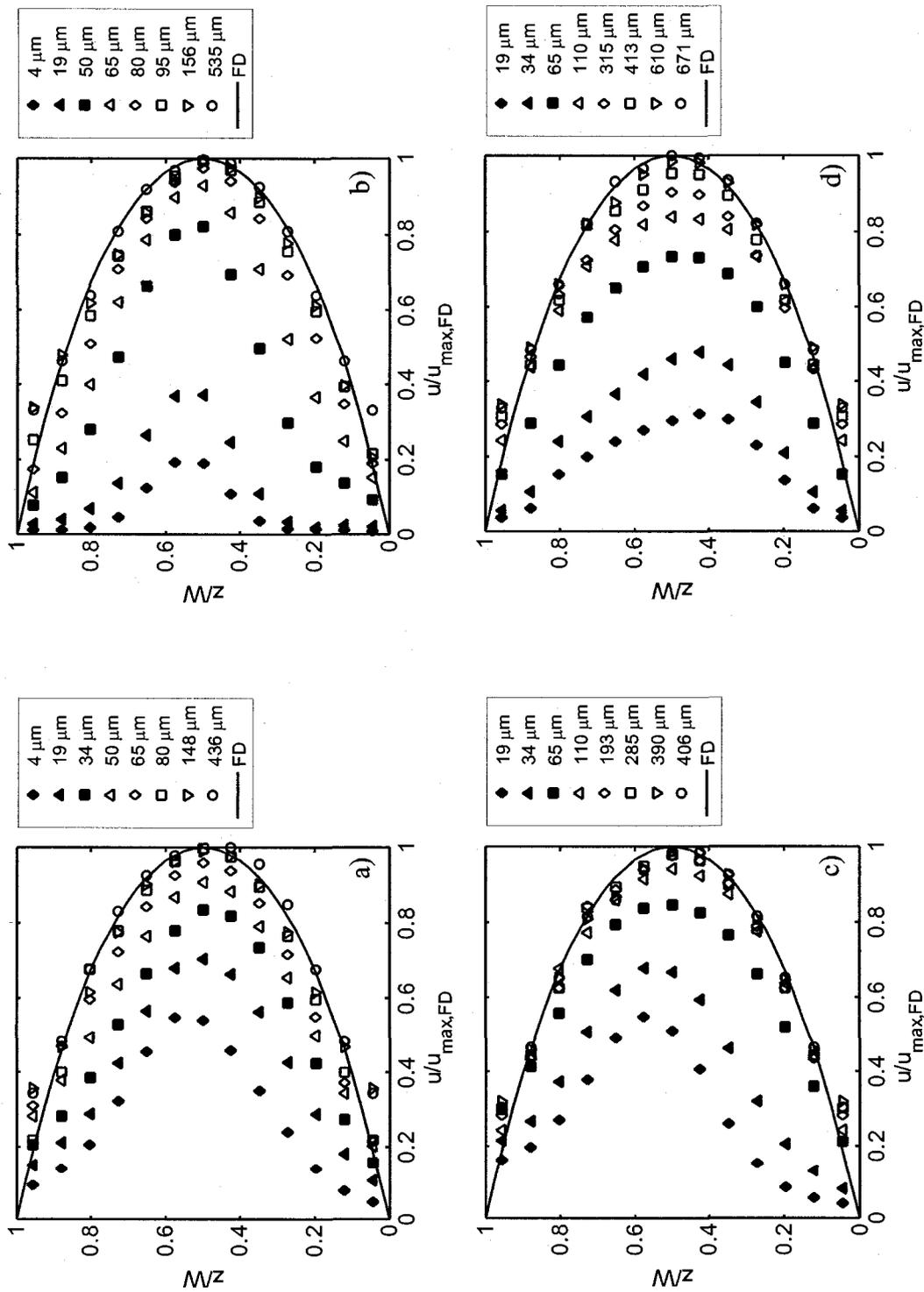


Figure 4.4: Developing velocity profiles for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at  $Re$  of (a) 0.476, (b) 4.76, (c) 50, and (d) 89.

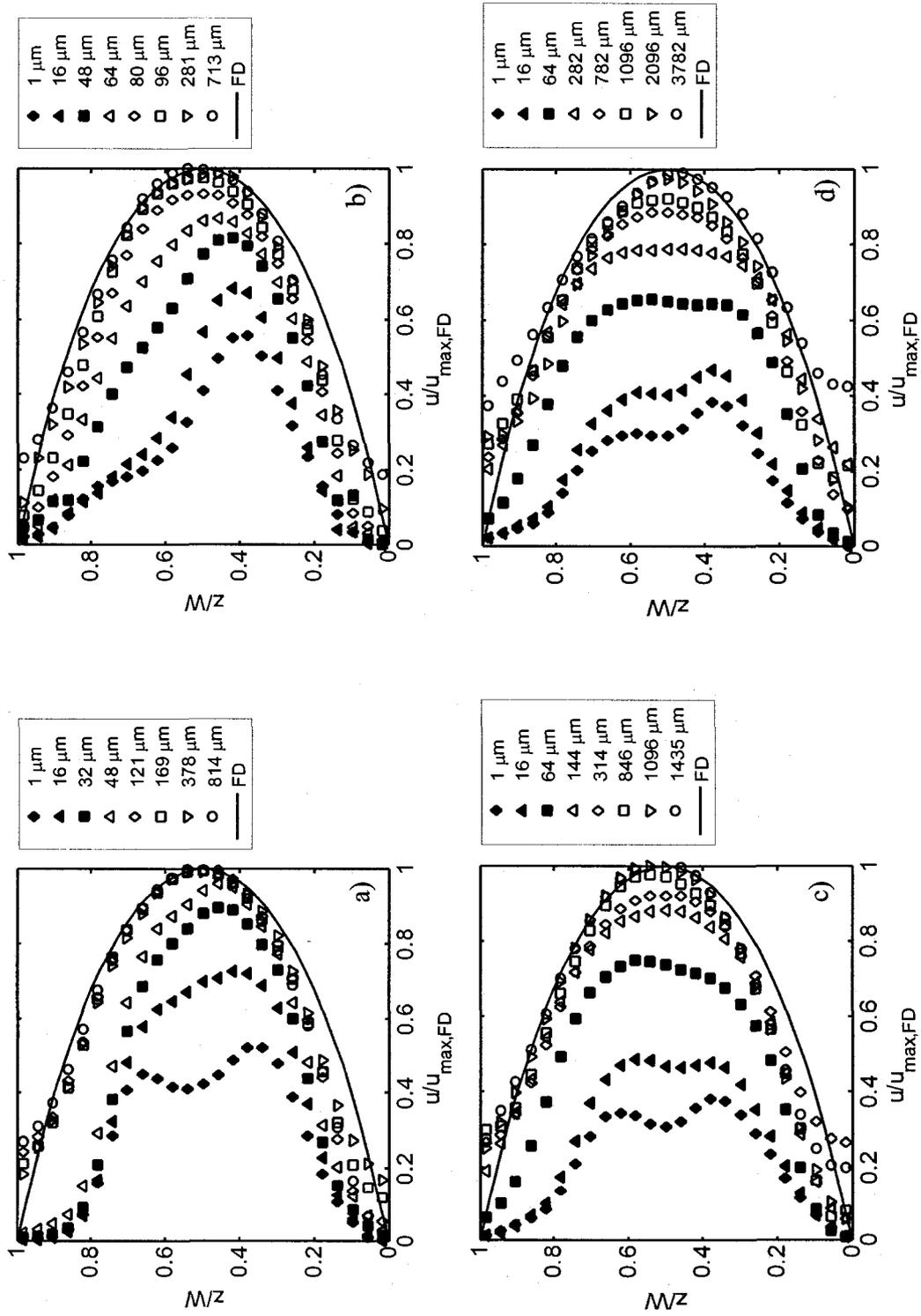


Figure 4.5: Developing velocity profiles for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at Re of (a) 0.5, (b) 5, (c) 50, and (d) 200

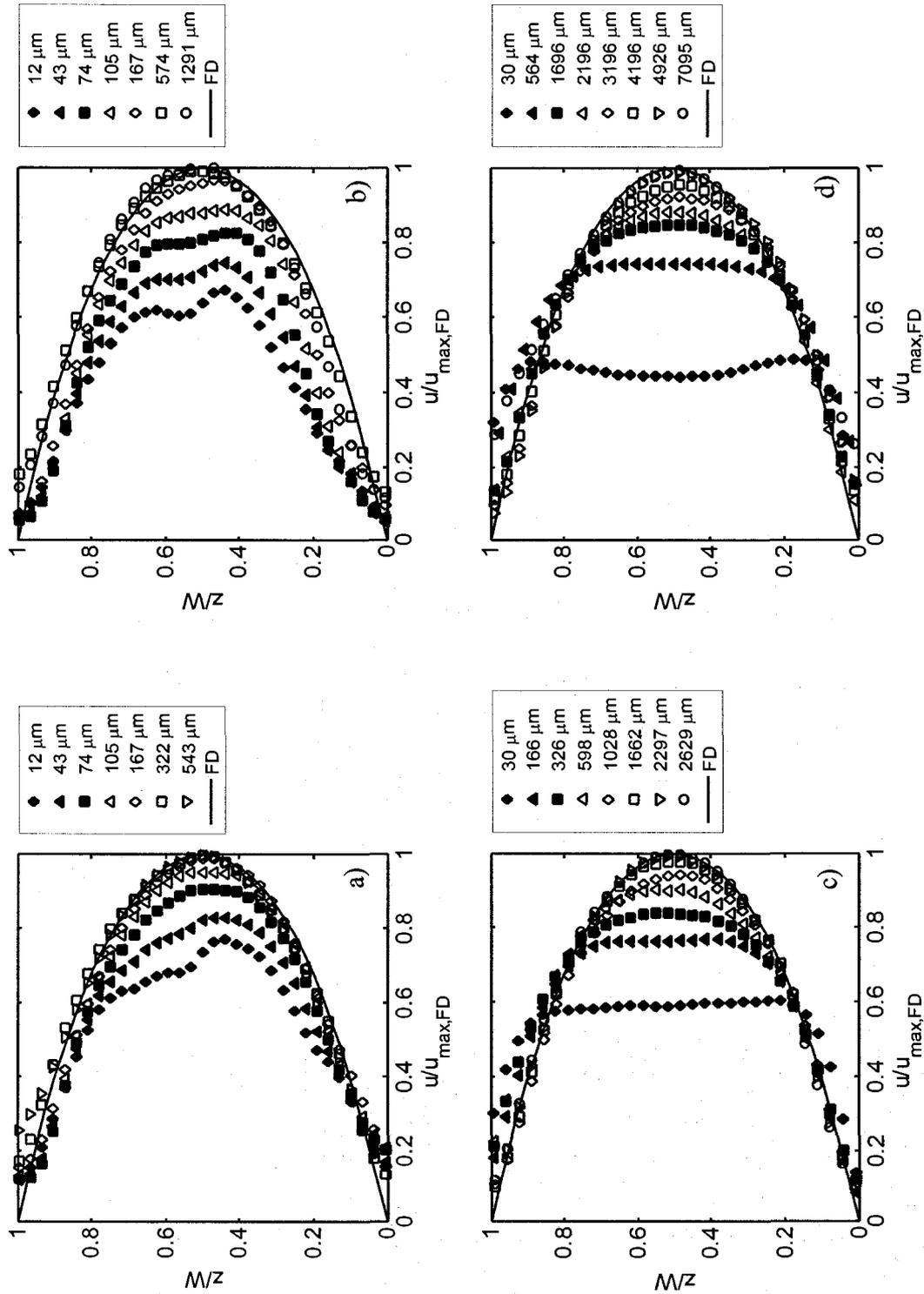


Figure 4.6: Developing velocity profiles for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at Re of (a) 0.5, (b) 5, (c) 50, and (d) 200

and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannels, respectively. These figures serve to demonstrate the qualitative data obtained using micro-PIV, by observing the developing velocity profiles. The plots are normalized in the spanwise direction ( $z$ ) with the microchannel width ( $W$ ) on the y-axis, and with the theoretical maximum (centerline) fully developed axial velocity on the x-axis ( $u/u_{max, FD}$ ). In addition, each plot shows the theoretical fully developed velocity profile with a solid line, given by the 2-D Navier-Stokes equations.

The plots demonstrate the theoretical physical mechanism for fluid from a reservoir entering a channel. As the flow enters the channel, the velocity of the fluid coming in contact with the inner channel walls is immediately reduced to zero. This drag disturbance creates shear waves that propagate from all walls toward the center of the channel. The presence of these shear waves cause the adjacent fluid layers to adjust, while the fluid at the center of the channel that is not yet affected by the disturbance, begins to accelerate in order to satisfy continuity. This process continues along the length of the channel, altering the velocity profile within the channel. Once the entire flow field adjusts to the no-slip boundary condition at the channel walls, the flow is said to be fully developed, and there is minimal change in the velocity profile downstream. As the experimental data shows for the three investigated microchannels, it is evident that there is faster development at lower  $Re$  numbers, and far downstream from the inlet, there is very little, if any, change in the experimental profile, indicating fully developed flow and good agreement with the theoretical profile. In addition, the inlet flow path is also influenced by the corner effects at the microchannel inlet, causing a vena contracta.

From Figure 4.4, it can be seen that for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel the profile just downstream from the inlet (at 4  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{Re} = 0.476$  and  $4.76$ ) or at 19  $\mu\text{m}$  ( $\text{Re} = 50$  and  $89$ )) is already in its developing shape, since the center velocity is beginning to accelerate. Failure to observe a more flat profile just downstream of the inlet is probably due to the interrogation area size in the axial direction, where a smaller size may be necessary. In addition, these initial profiles are slightly skewed, and then sequentially level out towards a more uniform shape as the flow develops downstream. This initial skewed inlet flow was also experimentally observed by Lee et al. (2004). The authors explained that it was due to the asymmetric flow path from the reservoir to the channel entrance, which is more evident at smaller channel dimensions. A similar observation can be seen in Figure 4.5 for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, however the skewness of the inlet profiles is less evident than for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. In most test cases for this channel size, a certain degree flatness of the early developing profiles can be seen, however there is an indent at the center, possibly caused by the flow contraction effects at the inlet. For the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, from Figure 4.6, a more classical development can be observed, particularly at higher  $\text{Re}$  numbers of 50 and 200. At these higher  $\text{Re}$  numbers, a flat profile just downstream from the inlet is evident, where the drag disturbance from the presence of the channel walls has not yet entirely altered the velocity profile. The profiles then sequentially develop downstream. For low  $\text{Re}$  numbers (0.5 and 5), similar observations can be seen for the early profiles as stated for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, with slight skewness and flow contraction effects. Qualitatively then, for all three investigated channels, there is good agreement with the physical mechanisms for hydrodynamically developing flow.

## 4.2.6 Centerline Velocity Development

Figures 4.7 (a – d), 4.8 (a – d), and 4.9 (a – d), show the centerline velocity development along the microchannel axial distance for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, respectively. The y-axis shows the local centerline velocity ( $u_{cl}$ ) normalized with the theoretical fully developed centerline velocity ( $u_{cl, FD}$ ), whereas the x-axis shows the non-dimensional axial distance, normalized with the channel hydraulic diameter, as well as  $\text{Re}$  ( $x/\text{Re}D_h$ ), to incorporate its effect. The plots show the general hydrodynamic entrance length criterion, which is the location where the local centerline velocity has attained 99% of its fully developed value. It should be emphasized that theoretically speaking, the velocity continually increases and the distance required to attain the fully developed profile is infinitely large (Han, 1960). However, for engineering applications, the 99% criterion is suitable in defining the entrance length in a channel.

From all plots, a common trend can be seen; it is evident that there is a definite increase in the centerline velocity, which levels out toward a somewhat constant value at  $u_{cl}/u_{cl, FD} \sim 0.99$ . For the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, from Figures 4.7c and 4.8d, it can be seen that at higher  $\text{Re}$  numbers of 50 and 89, both trends reach  $u_{cl}/u_{cl, FD} \sim 0.99$  at relatively the same non-dimensional axial distance, between 0.065 and 0.085. A similar observation can be seen from Figures 4.8c and 4.8d for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, and from Figures 4.9c and 4.9d for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, at  $\text{Re}$  numbers of 50 and 200, respectively. Regarding the plots at lower  $\text{Re}$  numbers of 0.476 and 4.76 for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (Figures 4.7a and 4.7b), the non-dimensional axial distance at which the data reaches  $u_{cl}/u_{cl, FD} \sim 0.99$  is observed to be rather high, at about 0.17 for  $\text{Re} = 4.76$ , and increases to about 1.7 for  $\text{Re} = 0.476$ . Similarly for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel

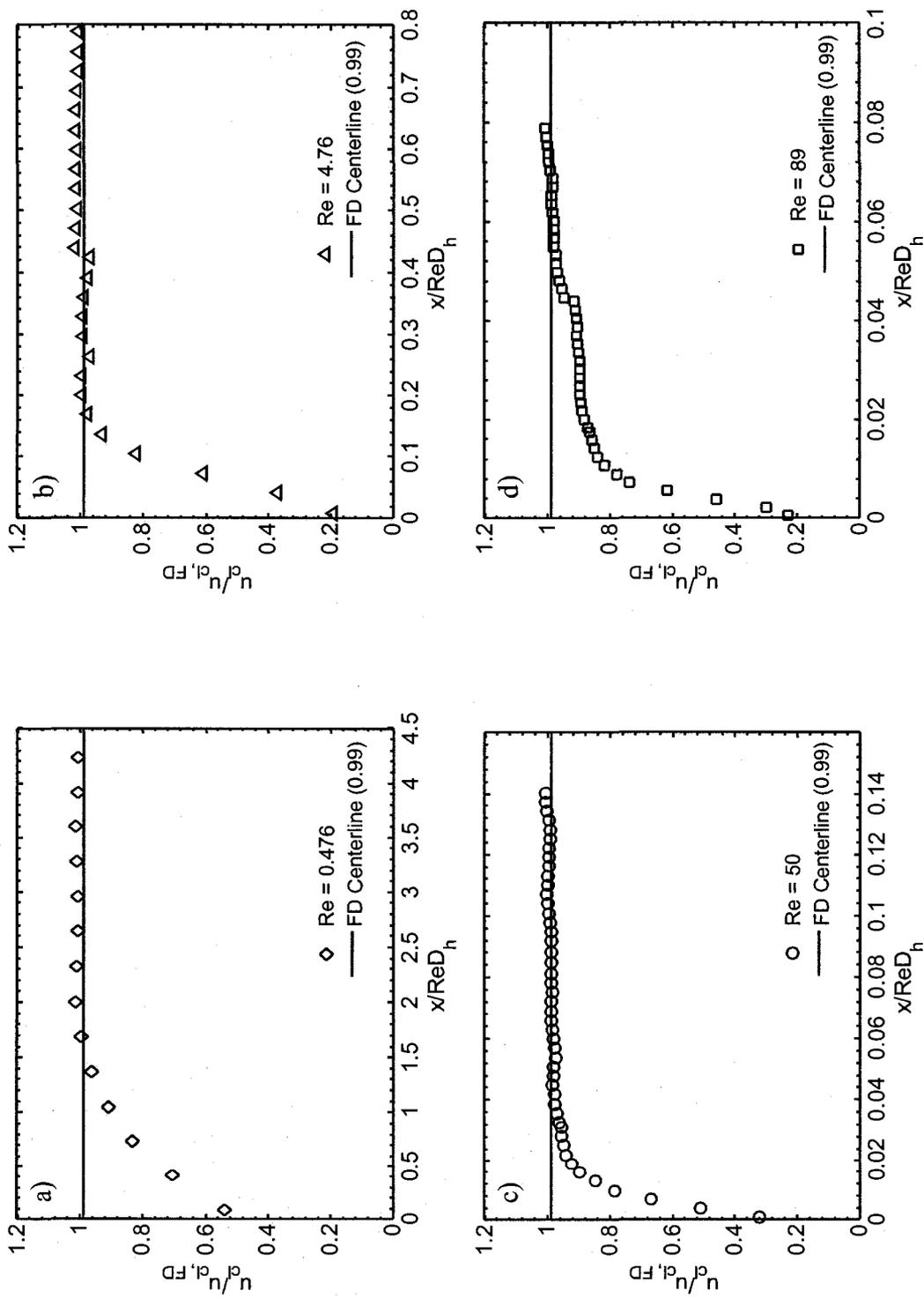


Figure 4.7: Centerline velocity development for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at Re of (a) 0.476, (b) 4.76, (c) 50, and (d) 89

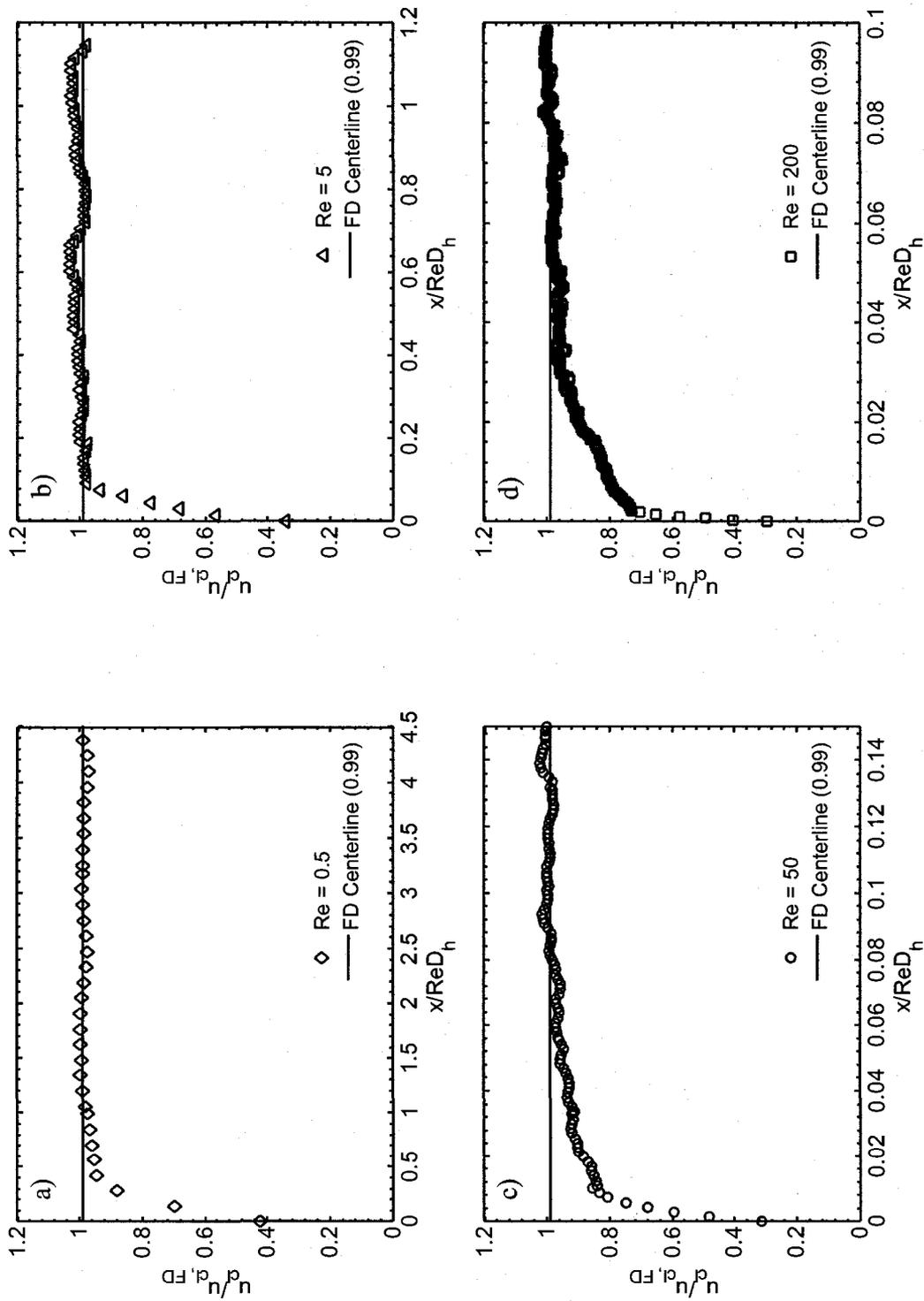


Figure 4.8: Centerline velocity development for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at Re of (a) 0.5, (b) 5, (c) 50, and (d) 200

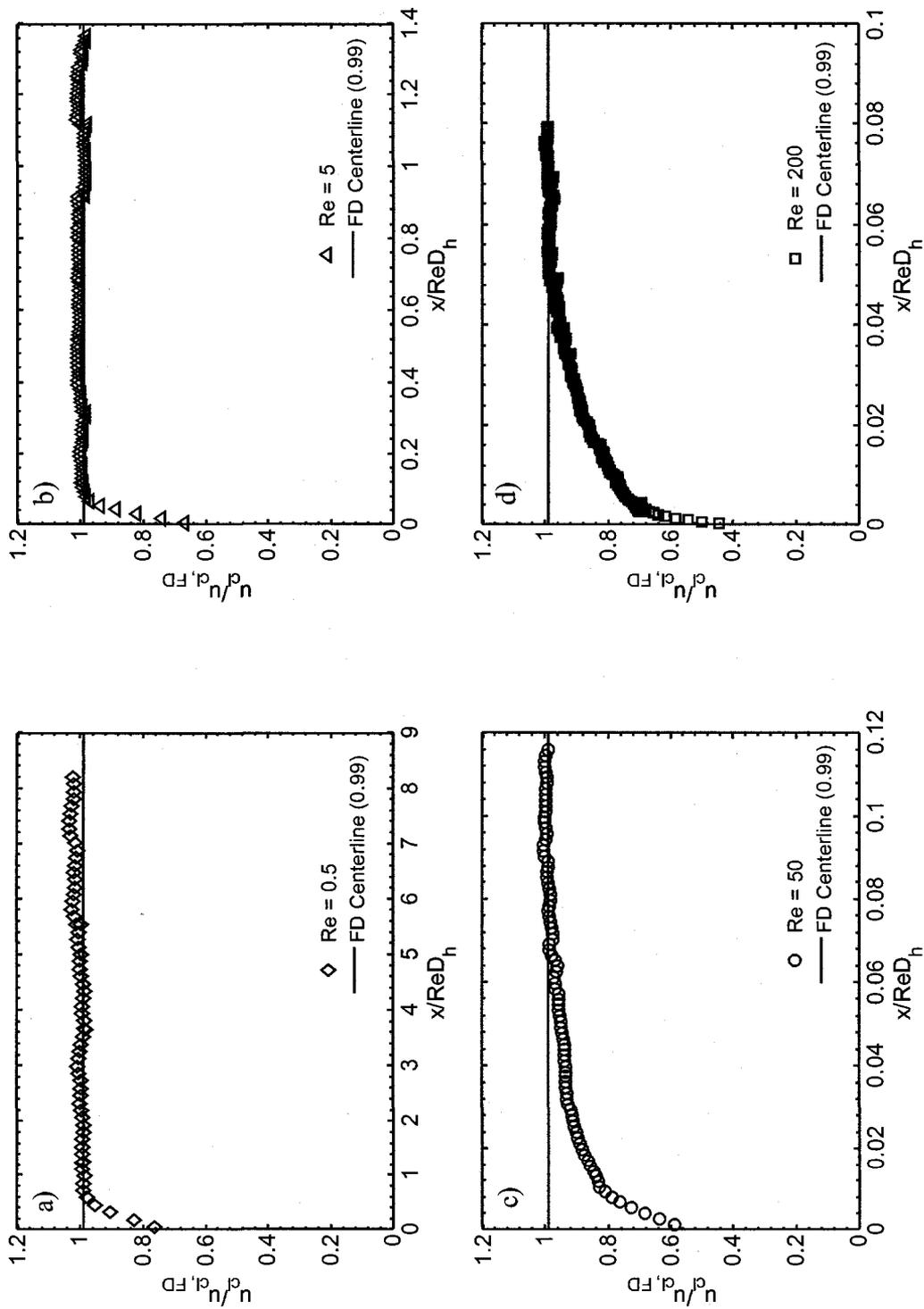


Figure 4.9: Centerline velocity development for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at  $Re$  of (a) 0.5, (b) 5, (c) 50, and (d) 200.

(Figures 4.8a and 4.8b), at  $Re = 0.5$  and  $Re = 5$ , the normalized axial distances at which fully developed flow (0.99) is reached are high at 0.19 and 1.2, respectively. A similar observation can be made for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel at  $Re = 0.5$  and  $Re = 5$  (Figures 4.9a and 4.9b), where the axial distance is roughly 0.7. With these results, it can be seen that there is little influence of dimensional scaling for the three investigated channels, but a higher dependence of the entrance length on the Reynolds number, particularly at low values.

One can conclude that, similar to Lee et al. (2004)'s statement, since the channel bottom wall and reservoir bottom wall lie on the same plane, the inlet velocity profile is not completely uniform, and because of this, as stated by Shah and London (1978) and Atkinson et al. (1969), the entrance length at higher  $Re$  numbers are less affected by the inlet velocity profile. However, for lower  $Re$  numbers, as stated by Vrentas et al. (1966), there is a high dependence of the entrance length on the inlet velocity profile, due to the axial diffusion of vorticity. Vrentas et al. (1966) numerically showed the effect of vorticity for a pipe with an upstream inlet reservoir. The fluid in the inlet reservoir, initially free of vorticity, develops a vorticity field as it enters the pipe. This vorticity is generated at the walls of the pipe, and then transmitted from the walls to the fluid by convection and diffusion. The authors found that the vorticity transfer from the walls to the fluid is influenced by the  $Re$  number. At very low  $Re$  numbers, vorticity appears in the reservoir causing some flow development upstream from the tube entrance, and hence not a uniform velocity profile at the inlet. The degree of centerline velocity profile development upstream from the channel inlet increases as  $Re$  is decreased, particularly below 50 ( $Re < 50$ ) which will have an effect on the entrance length.

This can be the case for the lower Re numbers of 0.5 and 5 for the three investigated channels.

#### 4.2.7 Hydrodynamic Entrance Length

Figure 4.10 depicts the entrance length ( $Le/D_h$ ) for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, versus the Re number, in logarithmic scale in order to amplify the effects at low Re numbers. There are four data points for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (Re = 0.476, 4.76, 50, 89), four data points for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (Re = 0.5, 5, 50, 200), and four data points for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel (Re = 0.5, 5, 50, 200). The entrance length was taken from the data collected in Figures 4.7, 4.8, and 4.9, for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, respectively, and it is the length ( $Le$ ) at which  $u_{cl}/u_{cl, FD} \sim 0.99$ . Regarding this criterion experimentally, the entrance length was taken as the length at which  $u_{cl}/u_{cl, FD}$  remained relatively steady at 0.99 or crossed 0.99, depending on the trend of data. To analyze any effect of scaling, the overlapping range of data points for the investigated channels was also compared. From Figure 4.10, it can be seen that for high Re numbers (Re > 10) there is no influence of dimensional scaling. However, it can be seen that at lower Re numbers (Re < 10), there is a minor discrepancy between the entrance lengths of the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, compared with that of the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. This can lead to a slight dimensional scaling effect at low Re numbers for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. In addition, the experimental data is compared with conventional entrance length correlations.

The numerical correlations given by Han (1960) and Wiginton and Dalton (1970) are linear correlations where the entrance length is proportional to the Reynolds

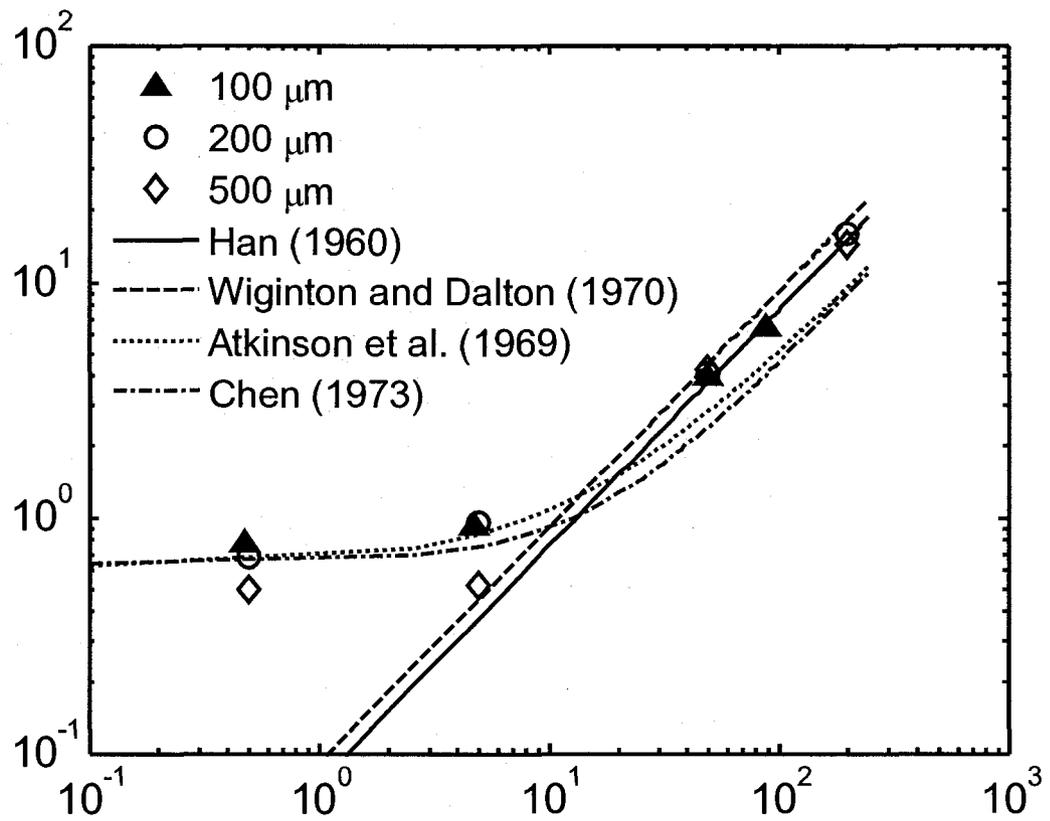


Figure 4.10: Entrance length comparison between present data and conventional correlations

number by some constant, depending on the cross-sectional aspect ratio. For an aspect ratio of one, Han (1960)'s correlation is given by,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = 0.0752 \text{Re}, \quad (4.2)$$

whereas Wiginton and Dalton (1970)'s correlation, for an aspect ratio of one, is given by,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = 0.09 \text{Re} . \quad (4.3)$$

According to Shah and London (1978), the equation given by Wiginton and Dalton (1970)'s model is more accurate, whereas that of Han (1960) is low since he calculated rapid flow development. From Figure 4.10, it can be seen that at high Re numbers ( $\text{Re} > 10$ ), there is good agreement between the experimental data and the correlations given by Han (1960) and Wiginton and Dalton (1970). However, at low Re numbers, below 10, there is not good agreement. This is due to the fact that since these correlations are linear, and at very low Re numbers,  $L_e/D_h$  goes towards zero. This may have little effect in conventional ducts where modest Reynolds numbers are applied. However, at the microscale, very low Reynolds numbers can be practically applied, where there indeed exists a finite value for the entrance length. This is apparent from the data, where at low Re numbers (i.e.  $\text{Re} = 0.5$  or  $5$ ), there is a definite entrance length value.

For low Re numbers one can consider entrance length correlations given by Atkinson et al. (1969) and Chen (1973), both for parallel plates. Atkinson et al. (1969)'s parallel plate correlation is given by,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = 0.625 + 0.044 \text{Re}, \quad (4.4)$$

whereas Chen (1973)'s correlation given for parallel plates is given by,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = \frac{0.63}{0.035 \text{Re} + 1} + 0.044 \text{Re}. \quad (4.5)$$

It should be noted in Eqs. (4.4) and (4.5) the hydraulic diameter of a square channel ( $D_h = W = H$ ) is used in the definitions of Re and  $D_h$ . Looking at these two above correlations, when Re is high, a linear curve is depicted. However, when Re is low, both correlations level out to a constant value and are independent of Re. This is shown in Figure 4.10. Comparison of the present experimental data with these two parallel plate correlations reveals very good agreement for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, particularly at low Re numbers (0.5 and 5). Regarding the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, adequate agreement is found at lower Reynolds numbers; however the error is greater than for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels (a possible scaling effect). At the higher Re range ( $>10$ ) there is adequate agreement for all investigated channels, however better agreement was found with comparison to the conventional correlations for ducts, notably that of Han (1960). From the present experimental data, these parallel plate correlations are better suited for the prediction of the entrance length in microchannels at very low Reynolds numbers ( $<10$ ).

#### 4.2.8 Entrance Length Correlations

In light of the previous discussion, with comparison of the present entrance length experimental data with conventional correlations, new entrance length correlations

are proposed. These new correlations are applicable in predicting the entrance length in microchannels and will aid in the design of future microfluidic devices. As was seen in Figure 4.10, there was very good agreement at high Reynolds ( $Re > 10$ ) numbers with conventional correlations for ducts, notably that of Han (1960) from Eq. (4.2). For lower  $Re$  numbers ( $Re < 10$ ), there was very good agreement with parallel plate correlations, given by Atkinson et al. (1969) and Chen (1973) from Eqs. (4.4) and (4.5). These two entrance length parallel plate correlations were established by numerically solving for the creeping flow solution at low  $Re$  numbers, and adding the result to a high  $Re$  number asymptote provided by Bodia and Osterle (1961), which is  $0.044Re$ . However, from Figure 4.10, it can be seen that at higher  $Re$  numbers there is poor agreement with these parallel plate correlations, but better agreement with conventional duct correlations, particularly that of Han (1960).

Applying a similar method and form of equation as Chen (1973), but replace the high Reynolds number asymptote with Han (1960)'s correlation, the following empirical correlation is obtained,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = \frac{0.63}{0.035Re+1} + 0.0752Re. \quad (4.6)$$

Figure 4.11a shows Eq. (4.6) plotted along with the present experimental entrance length data for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels. From the figure, excellent agreement can be seen over the whole range on  $Re$  numbers, and quantitatively, from Figure 4.11b, the correlation fits all the data to within 15%. This correlation however, does not fit well with the experimental data obtained for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$

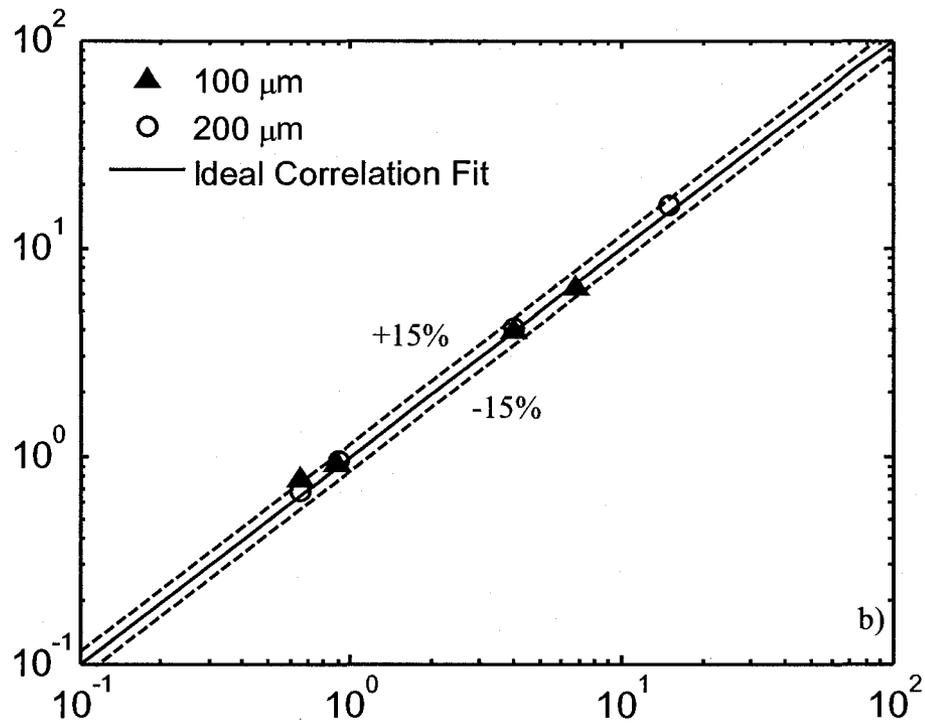
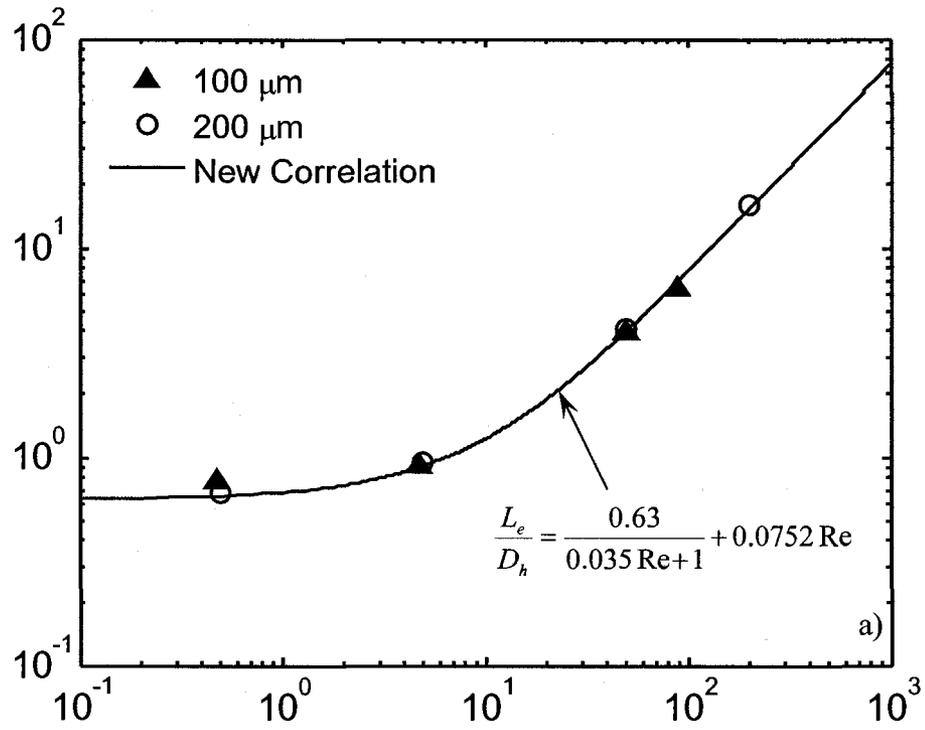


Figure 4.11: Proposed entrance length correlation for square microchannels below 500  $\mu\text{m}$  with present experimental data of the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels and the error in the fit

channel. Therefore, it can be said that Eq. (4.6) is well suited in predicting the entrance length in square microchannels ( $H/W = 1$ ) for hydraulic diameters below 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , over a wide range of laminar Reynolds numbers from 0.5 to 1000.

In finding an empirical correlation that fits all the present experimental data for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, another correlation is developed. Once again, an equation in the form of Chen (1973)'s correlation is applied. From Figure 4.10, it can be seen that at high Re numbers ( $\text{Re} > 10$ ), all present experimental data fits Han (1960)'s correlation very well, therefore once again it will be used for the high Reynolds number asymptote. Applying a curve fit in the form of Chen (1973)'s correlation at the low Re numbers, the following correlation is found,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = \frac{0.6}{0.14\text{Re}+1} + 0.0752\text{Re}. \quad (4.7)$$

Figure 4.12a shows Eq. (4.7) plotted with the present experimental data (100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels) along with conventional experimental data produced from Goldstein and Kreid (1967) for a square duct within a Re range of 69 to 387. These authors investigated flow development using a laser-Doppler flowmeter in a square duct with a hydraulic diameter of 1 cm, as shown in Table 4.2. From Figure 4.12b, it can be seen that the experimental data fits the empirical correlation to within 30%. Equation (4.7) shows to fit well with all the data over the whole range of Re numbers, and can be used as a general entrance length correlation for channels of square cross-section ( $H/W = 1$ ) at both the micro and macro scales.

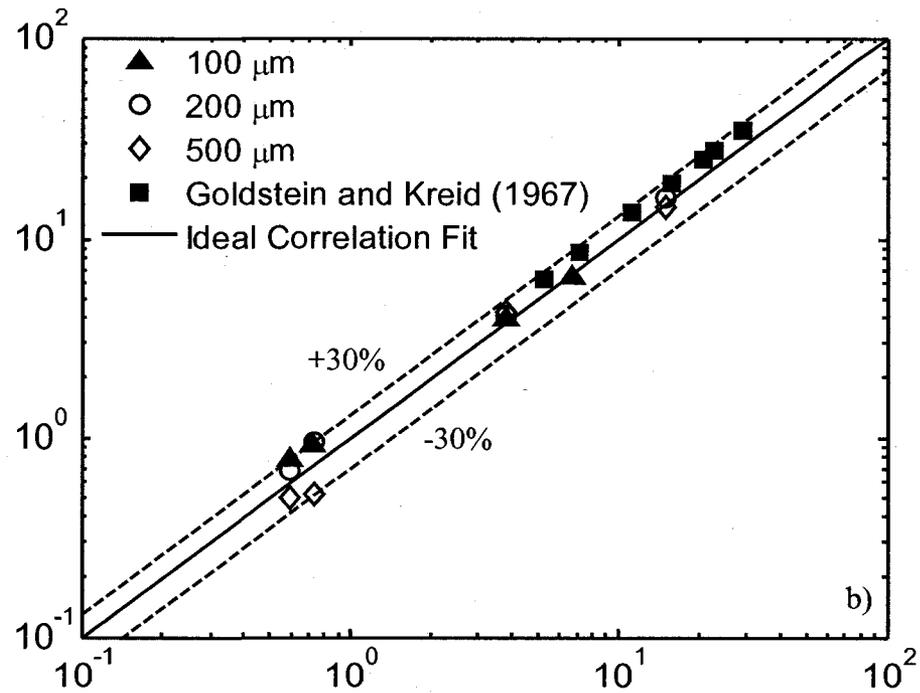
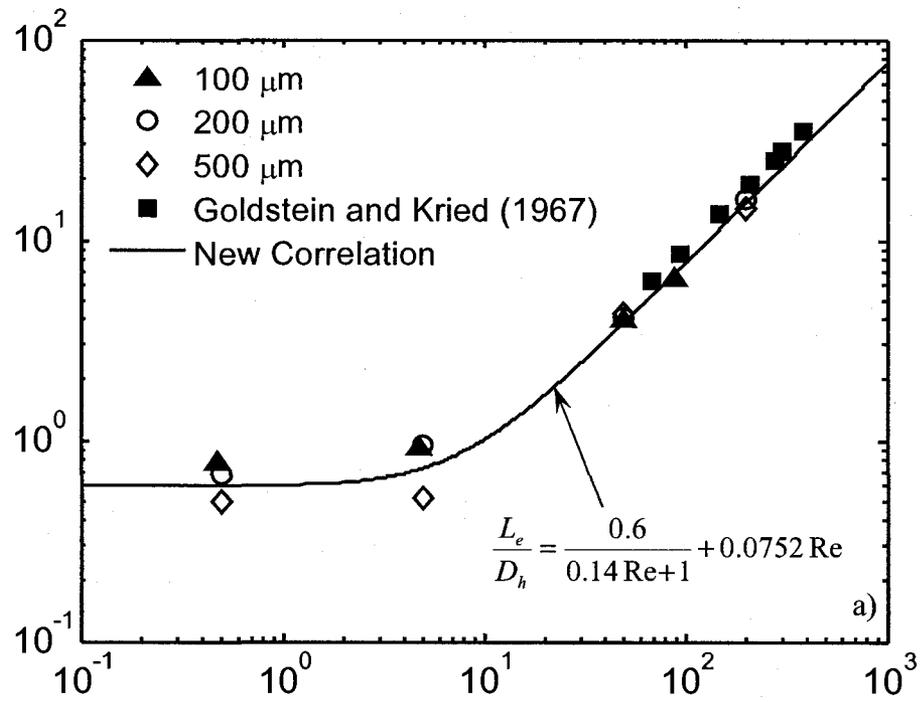


Figure 4.12: Proposed entrance length correlation for square channels at the micro and macro scales and the error in the fit

Table 4.2: Experimental entrance length geometries used in previous studies

<b>Authors</b>	<b><math>D_h</math></b>	<b><math>H/W</math></b>
Goldstein and Kreid (1967)	1 cm	1
Muchnik et al. (1973)	1.33 cm	2
Lee et al. (2002)	380 $\mu\text{m}$	2.65
Lee et al. (2004) – 1	370 $\mu\text{m}$	2.75
Lee et al. (2004) – 2	56.4 $\mu\text{m}$	0.37
Hao et al. (2005)	237 $\mu\text{m}$	Trapezoidal

Theoretically, the hydrodynamic entrance length of a channel is dependent on its cross-sectional aspect ratio ( $H/W$ ). This is shown in analytical studies by Han (1960), Fleming and Sparrow (1969), and Wiginton and Dalton (1970). This is due to the proximity of the walls relative to the internal flow field, the drag disturbance they impose, and the shear waves they cause to propagate toward the center of the channel. Therefore the height and width of the solid walls of a channel, and their relative size to each other, have a great influence on the flow development. However, since there are not many experimental works associated with the hydrodynamic entrance region in micro geometries, a correlation applicable to microchannels regardless of aspect ratio would be useful where practical applications are concerned.

In light of this, previous experimental works for the hydrodynamic entrance length in microchannels (Lee et al., 2002; Lee et al., 2004; Hao et al., 2005), in addition to the present experimental data, are used in developing an empirical correlation. Also, conventional experimental data for the entrance length in ducts given by Goldstein and Kreid (1967) and Muchnik et al. (1973) is included to broaden the analysis. Table 4.2 shows the geometric parameters associated with the previous experimental data. Also, it should be noted that where conventional sized ducts are concerned, all available experimental data is above a Reynolds number of 10, due to reasons of practicality at the macroscale. However, where microchannels are concerned, there is available experimental data well below  $Re = 10$ , since these low Reynolds numbers are applicable at the microscale, primarily due to the pressure drop imposed at higher Reynolds numbers. In order to determine an empirical correlation to fit the data, an equation in the form of Chen (1973) is once again

applied; however both the high Reynolds number asymptote, as well as the low Reynolds number solution are found using a curve fit. The following correlation is obtained,

$$\frac{L_e}{D_h} = \frac{0.55}{0.13\text{Re}+1} + 0.065\text{Re}. \quad (4.8)$$

Figure 4.13a depicts Eq. (4.8) plotted with the aforementioned entrance length experimental data for ducts and microchannels. The figure also shows that the conventional experimental data given by Muchnik et al. (1973), at higher Re numbers ( $\text{Re} > 10$ ), has good agreement between the present experimental data, where their aspect ratio ( $H/W$ ) was 2. In addition, the experimental data given by Hao et al. (2005) also has very good agreement with the present data at high Re values, where interestingly their microchannels had a trapezoidal cross-section. As shown in Figure 4.13b, the error between the proposed correlation and the experimental data is high, where the correlation fits majority of the data to within 60%. However, the high error results from the experimental data for the entrance length in microchannels from Lee et al. (2002) and Lee et al. (2004), where a high error can be expected due to the cross-sectional aspect ratio of the microchannels and pre-development of the flow prior to entering the microchannel. Nonetheless, this proposed correlation can be used as a general correlation for the entrance length in microchannels for aspect ratios below 3 ( $H/W < 3$ ) and possibly trapezoidal microchannels, as shown by Hao et al. (2005)'s data.

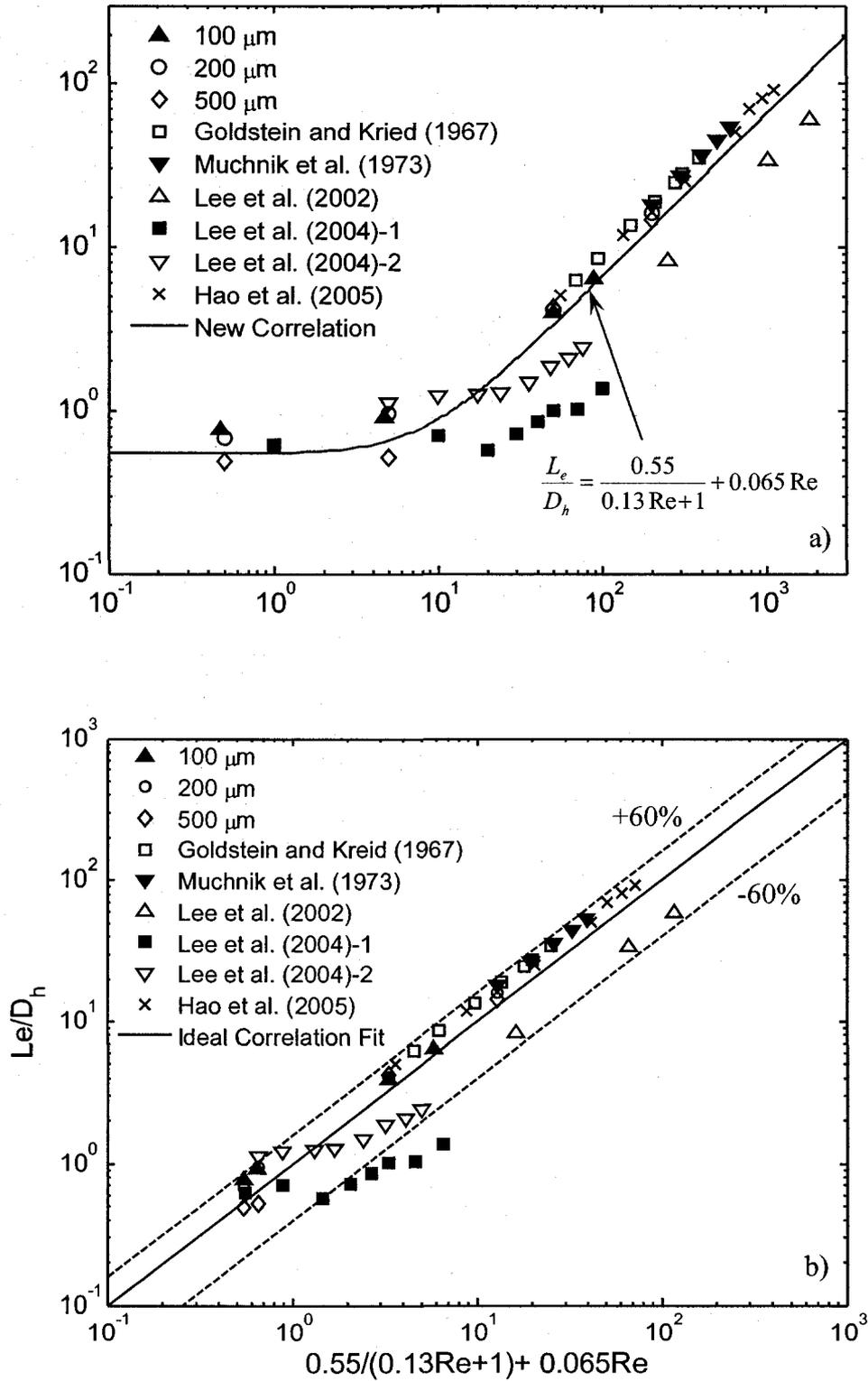


Figure 4.13: Proposed general entrance length correlation for microchannels, independent of cross-sectional aspect ratio, and the error in the fit

### 4.3 Turbulent Flow

Over the past century, numerous experimental studies were carried out in conventionally-sized pipes and ducts for hydrodynamic developing turbulent flow, as was outlined in Chapter 2. Notable experimental studies by groups such as Barbin and Jones (1963), Filippov (1982), Lien et al. (2004), and Doherty et al. (2007), emphasize that there is large scatter in results from study to study. Unlike laminar flow, turbulent flow is characterized by disorder and randomness. There still remain questions regarding the length required for turbulent flow to become fully developed, and the definition of fully developed turbulent flow in itself; whether analysis of the mean velocity profiles are sufficient to constitute the flow as being developed, or if steadiness in the flow structures, Reynolds stresses, and turbulence intensities constitute the flow as being fully developed.

As mentioned, there is no fundamental experimental data available for hydrodynamically developing turbulent flow ( $Re > 4000$ ) in microchannels. The prime reasons for this are the practicality involved in forcing turbulent flow inside microchannels, where the hydrodynamic resistance is typically increased as hydraulic diameters move towards the microscale range, and due to experimental methods in analyzing turbulent flow in micro geometries. However, due to the lack of fundamental experimental data, an investigation into developing turbulent flow in microchannels was attempted using micro-PIV.

The turbulent entrance region experiments were attempted using the same test sections as those for laminar flow. Three test sections, one with a 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel width, one with a 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel width, and another with a 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel width,

were considered, as shown in Figure 4.1. Each test section has a square cross-section microchannel with a very large inlet reservoir relative to microchannel size, to carry out fundamental hydrodynamic entrance region studies at the microscale. With respect to the expected pressure drop increase for turbulent flow, particularly at the dimensional scale of the present microchannels, the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  test section was not attempted. From the laminar flow experiments, the highest Reynolds number achieved in the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, with the syringe pump operating in withdrawal mode, was  $Re = 89$ . Therefore, it was conveyed that the pumping power of the syringe pump, particularly in withdrawal mode, was insufficient to achieve turbulent flow in the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. Instead, only the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  test sections were considered.

At first, flowrate calculations were carried out to determine the required flowrates to obtain turbulence ( $Re > 4000$ ), and verify whether the syringe pump is capable in providing the necessary flowrates. The maximum possible flowrate from the syringe pump is 102 ml/min, due to the limit on the syringe size was 60 cc. However, this limit is for infusion mode and it was observed that the limit is much lower when withdrawal mode is applied. Figure 4.14 shows the capability of the syringe pump plotted with the possible flowrates for specific transition and turbulent  $Re$  numbers, using Eq. (4.1). From the figure, it can be seen that the flowrate capabilities of the syringe pump are insufficient to provide fully turbulent flow in the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, where the maximum  $Re$  number that can be achieved is  $Re \sim 3000$ . However, in terms of possible flowrate, the syringe pump is theoretically capable to provide the required flowrate to obtain turbulence in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, up to  $Re \sim 7600$ . Therefore, only the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  test section was attempted for turbulence experiments.

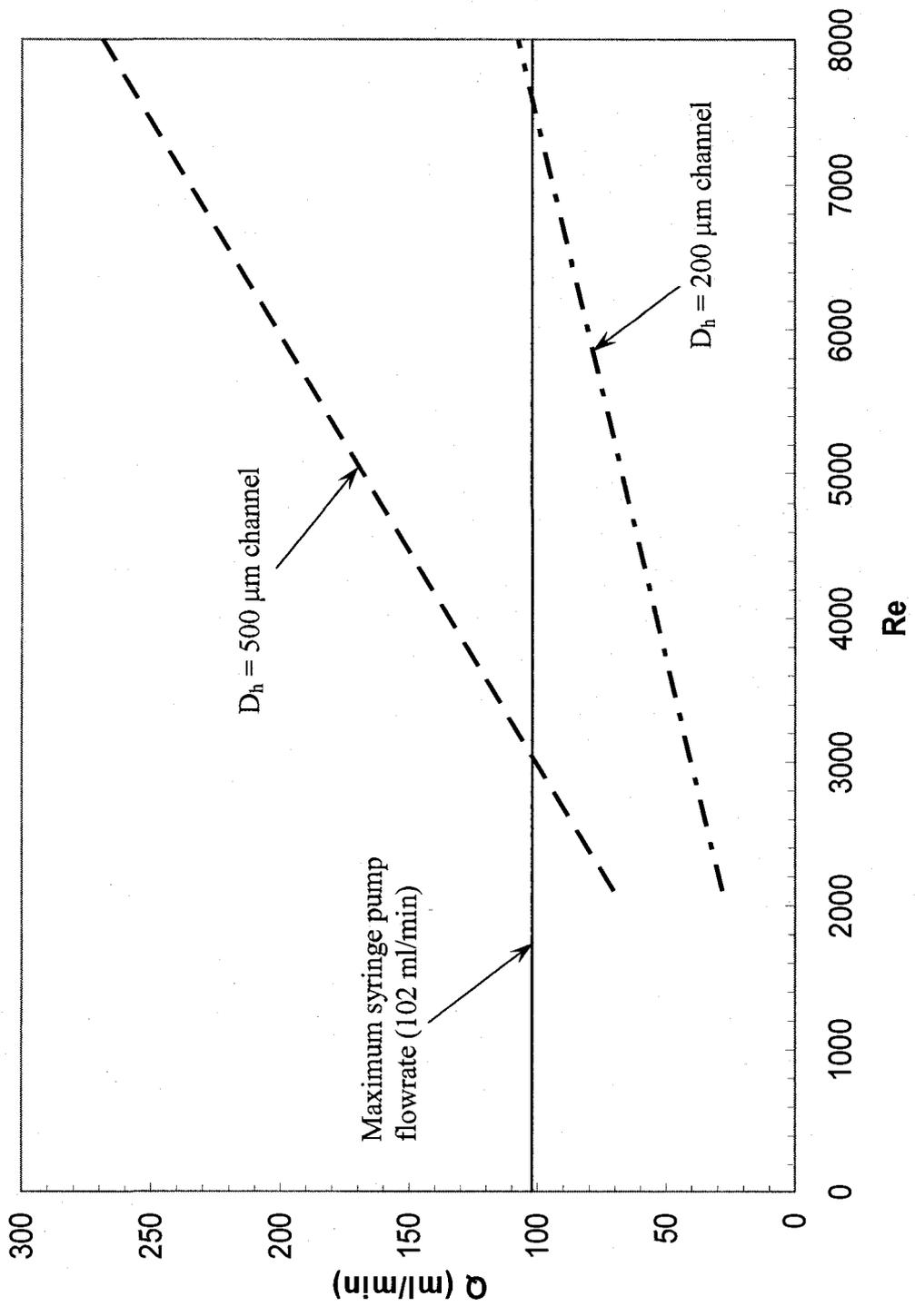


Figure 4.14: Flowrate capability of the syringe pump and its applicability to turbulent flow in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannels

Since the rated flowrate of the syringe pump covered the flowrate range to achieve turbulence in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, this test section was used in micro-PIV experiments to attempt to obtain turbulent entrance region data. With the syringe pump operating in withdrawal mode, after numerous trials, the maximum possible flowrate achieved was  $\sim 12$  ml/min, which corresponds to  $\text{Re} \sim 870$ , which is laminar. This was due to the immense pressure drop in the channel, and it was observed that with the syringe pulling out, a vacuum was created within the syringe. Therefore there was actually a limit of maximum flowrate in withdrawal mode. Another trial was attempted with the syringe pump operating in infusion mode, simply to verify the maximum flowrate possible through the microchannel. It was found that a Re number above 3500 was possible, however due to the high pressure drop and force required to push the flow through the channel, the worm gear in the pump was beginning to skip, potentially damaging the stepper motor.

To get an idea of the pressure drop involved, the theoretical turbulent pressure drop was plotted against the Reynolds number for both the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, as shown in Figure 4.15. The pressure drop was calculated using the Blasius formula to calculate the turbulent Darcy friction factor ( $f_{turb}$ ) as,

$$f_{turb} = \frac{0.316}{\text{Re}^{1/4}} \quad (4.9)$$

The Blasius formula, found in 1913 for smooth pipes, is a conventional empirical solution acquired through a dimensional analysis. It is applicable to predict the friction factor and hence pressure drop in smooth pipes for turbulent flow over a Reynolds range of  $4000 < \text{Re} < 10^5$  (White, 1991). Although the present test sections

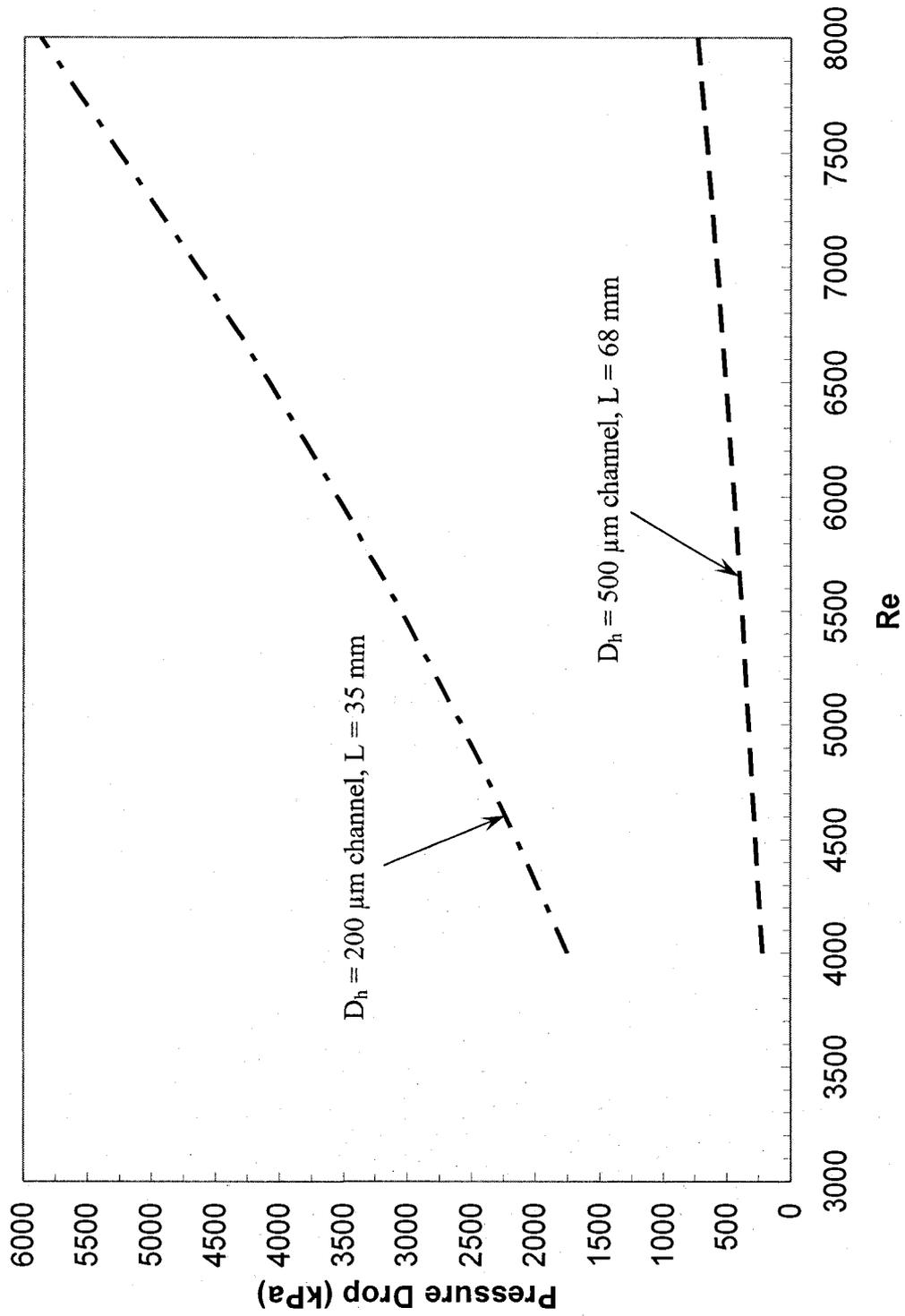


Figure 4.15: Empirical turbulent pressure drop in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channels using the Blasius formula

have square cross-section channels, the Blasius equation has been used simply to get a sense of the pressure drop involved.

Looking at the curve for the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel in Figure 4.15, the pressure drop is immense, even at low turbulent Re numbers of 4000 where the pressure drop is about 1750 kPa. As the Re number increases, it can be seen that the pressure drop increases tremendously to impractical values. Due to this, it is fundamentally unfeasible, particularly with the syringe pump, to achieve turbulent flow in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. As a means for comparison, the theoretical pressure drop in the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel was also plotted. It can be seen that the pressure drop is not as great as in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channel, as expected. With a pressure drop of about 250 kPa at  $\text{Re} \sim 4000$ , turbulence could be fundamentally possible in the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel. However, as stated previously, the syringe pump is limited to flowrates which correspond to  $\text{Re} \sim 3000$ , which limits the experimental practicality.

It can be asked why another pump was not chosen as opposed to a syringe pump, such as a gear pump. For a typical pump, such as a gear pump, these high pressures are possible, however since micro-PIV is to be applied, a syringe pump is required. Given that micro-PIV uses fluorescent particles mixed with water, a syringe pump is needed since there is no interference between the fluorescent particles and the mechanics of the pump. Also, with a gear pump, there is a possibility of damage due to the fouling the fluorescent particles impose after long periods of operation. Another advantage of a syringe pump is that since there is no direct interaction between the fluid and the pump's mechanics, there is minimal heat introduction into the fluid, which is required for adiabatic experiments.

Another concern in operating at such high pressures is safety. Since micro-PIV is an optical technique, it is required that the channels be clear. In this case, the only available commercial channels that were found at micro dimensions were made of borosilicate glass. Therefore, working at very high pressures there was a possibility of channel rupture.

#### **4.4 Summary**

An experimental investigation regarding the laminar hydrodynamic entrance length in square microchannels was carried out over a laminar Reynolds number range of 0.5 to 200. Three microchannels with hydraulic diameters of 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  were used to investigate scaling effects. The micro-PIV experimental technique was utilized to obtain flow field data at different axial locations from the microchannel inlet. To remove any effect of cross-sectional aspect ratio, square microchannels were used, whose inlet reservoir was infinitely large, compared to the hydraulic diameter of the channels.

Good agreement was found regarding the conventional physical mechanism describing laminar developing flow, in terms of the observed developing velocity profiles downstream from the microchannel inlet. A slight influence of dimensional scaling was observed in comparing the entrance length of the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel with the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels at low Reynolds numbers. However, at higher Reynolds numbers, above 10, there was no effect of scaling. Also, very good agreement was found in comparing the entrance length data with conventional correlations developed for ducts at high Reynolds numbers (above 10) for all

microchannels studied, and for parallel plates at lower Reynolds numbers (below 10), particularly for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels. At very low Reynolds numbers, below 10, the parallel plate correlations are well suited for the prediction of the entrance length in microchannels. This is important since for practical applications of microscale flow in microchannels and micro devices, the flow is highly laminar, due to the high pressure drop. Therefore, conventional entry pressure loss correlations developed for ducts may not be applicable for microchannels at very low Reynolds numbers.

In addition, three new empirical laminar entrance length correlations were proposed, whereby both creeping and high laminar Reynolds number correlations are combined. The first correlation applies the experimental data for the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels, and is applicable to square microchannels with hydraulic diameters below 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , with an error of less than 15%. The second correlation includes all present experimental data, along with conventional experimental data for square ducts, and can be applied as a general entrance length correlation for channels of square cross-section at both the micro and macro scales. This correlation fit the experimental data to within 30%. The third correlation proposed includes all previous microchannel experimental entrance length data and some conventional experimental data, regardless of cross-sectional aspect ratio. Despite the large error in fitting the data to this new correlation, it can be used as a general entrance length correlation for microchannels of aspect ratios below three.

An experimental attempt was carried out to acquire fundamental data on the turbulent hydrodynamic entrance region in microchannels using micro-PIV. The same test-sections as those used for the laminar entrance region experiments were

considered (i.e. 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannels). However, due to an excessive increase in the hydraulic resistance at fully turbulent flow ( $\text{Re} > 4000$ ), which poses limitations on the pumping power required to overcome the large pressure drop at microscale dimensions, and restrictions on the flowrate range of the syringe pump, only the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannel test-section was actually attempted. Fully turbulent flow was not achieved in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  test section, due to the excessive pressure drop, which was calculated in the range of 1700 kPa for  $\text{Re} = 4000$  using the Blasius formula. This pressure drop was too high for the syringe pump to overcome. In addition, since the channels were made of glass, safety was a concern due to the possibility of rupture.

# Chapter 5

## Thermal Entrance Region in Microchannels

### 5.1 Overview

A strong focus of the research community has been on fluid flow and forced convection heat transfer in micro geometries with and without phase change. The fundamental understanding of forced convection heat transfer in microchannels is important, since they are to be incorporated in micro-devices which would require high heat transfer rates within a very small footprint area. An example of micro-devices required for high heat removal is the microchannel heat sink (i.e. Tuckermann and Pease, 1981; Muwanga et al., 2007) used in cooling micro-processors for future supercomputers. The micro-heat sink is typically a conducting block with a sequence of microchannels micro-machined within the substrate, whose widths are on the order of 100  $\mu\text{m}$  to 300  $\mu\text{m}$ . Another example is in the micromixing reaction chamber of future Lab-on-a-Chip platforms for portable and rapid on-site DNA synthesis and sequencing (i.e. Whitesides, 2006; Yager et al., 2006; El-Ali et

al., 2006). Certain DNA processes, such as DNA amplification through the use of PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) and DNA hybridization, contains a sequence of steps controlled through heating and cooling. Here, heat transfer can be combined with a mixing process within a reaction chamber, implemented on a single, portable biological chip. For the advanced design of such systems, it becomes necessary to study the thermo-fluid fundamentals of the integrated components, such as single-phase flow and heat transfer in microchannels.

As previously stated in Chapter 4 and outlined in Chapter 2, experimental fundamental studies on fully developed microchannel flow and heat transfer were widely researched over the past fifteen years. For parameters such as pressure drop, forced convection heat transfer coefficient, and laminar to turbulent transition, the more recent studies generally indicate good agreement with conventional theory, due to their improved and careful experimental methods at the microscale, compared with the earlier studies. Therefore, it is implied that the general physics of fully developed fluid flow and heat transfer are applicable at the microscale.

Within the entrance region of a closed channel, the effects on the flow field and heat transfer mechanisms are significant. However, where microchannels and micro-devices are concerned, there are limited heat transfer studies into this region, and those available are for laminar flows. The entrance region, where the flow or the temperature profile are either developing independently or simultaneously, can be very important because the transport properties such as pressure gradient and heat transfer coefficient depend strongly on the flow region. For thermally developing flow, heat transfer coefficients are characteristically at their highest and typically level down to some constant value within the fully developed region. Therefore,

much higher heat transfer rates are possible within the thermal developmental length. The thermal entrance length can be defined as the length from the inlet of a channel to a location where the local Nusselt number is within 5% of its fully developed value (Shah and London, 1978).

From the literature review in Chapter 2, it was seen that there were numerous experimental studies carried out for the laminar thermal entrance length in microchannels. For completeness of the thermal entrance region, previous works for laminar flow in microchannels are outlined in detail, with results and conclusions from past research in literature. There is, however, currently no heat transfer data available on the turbulent entrance region of microchannels. An experimental investigation has been carried out to explore turbulent convection heat transfer in the entrance region of uniformly heated microtubes. The measurement of local wall temperatures is achieved through the use of un-encapsulated thermochromic liquid crystals (TLC's), a state-of-the-art, non-intrusive thermal measurement technique.

## **5.2 Laminar Flow**

In terms of applications in micro geometries, particularly at very low Reynolds numbers ( $Re < 1$ ), laminar flow is highly practical. This is primarily due to the typically low hydraulic resistance, and hence pressure drop, that laminar flow offers compared to turbulent flow. The low pressure drop is favorable as channel dimensions enter the microscale, since less pumping power is required to drive the flow. In practical applications, where, for example, a micro-pump would be implemented on a small microfluidic chip on the order of  $3 \text{ cm}^2$ , if less pumping

power is required, less energy is needed to run the pump and hence the pump should typically have a smaller geometric size and simplify its portability.

Fundamentally, thermally developing laminar flow in microchannels was widely investigated in previous works, as stated in Chapter 2. These studies covered a wide range of laminar Reynolds numbers and covered both rectangular microchannels (i.e. Gamrat et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2005; Lee and Garimella, 2006;) and circular microtubes (i.e. Lelea et al., 2004; Muwanga and Hassan, 2006b; Yang and Lin, 2007; Li et al., 2007) for fully developed and simultaneously developing laminar flow, as well as analyses in the entrance region of micro-heat exchangers (i.e. Jiang et al., 2001; Mishan et al., 2007). These authors attempted to validate the laminar thermal entrance length with analytical solutions, as a fundamental comparison of scaling phenomena with microchannels compared with conventional sized pipes and ducts. For example, for a constant wall heat flux boundary condition for fully developed laminar flow, the thermally developing local Nusselt number along the non-dimensional axial heated length of the channel ( $x/D_h Re Pr$ ) can be found by solving a series given by Shah (1975), which is found in Shah and London (1978). In general, a wide majority of the studies carried out for thermally developing laminar flow found excellent agreement with theory.

For example, Figure 5.1 shows experimental Nusselt number data from previous microtube studies for thermally developing laminar flow, compared with an analytical solution found in Shah and London (1978) for circular ducts. The experimental microscale studies are that of Lelea et al. (2004), for a microtube diameter of 0.3 mm using thermocouples to measure the local wall temperatures, Muwanga and Hassan (2006b), for a diameter of 0.25 mm using un-encapsulated

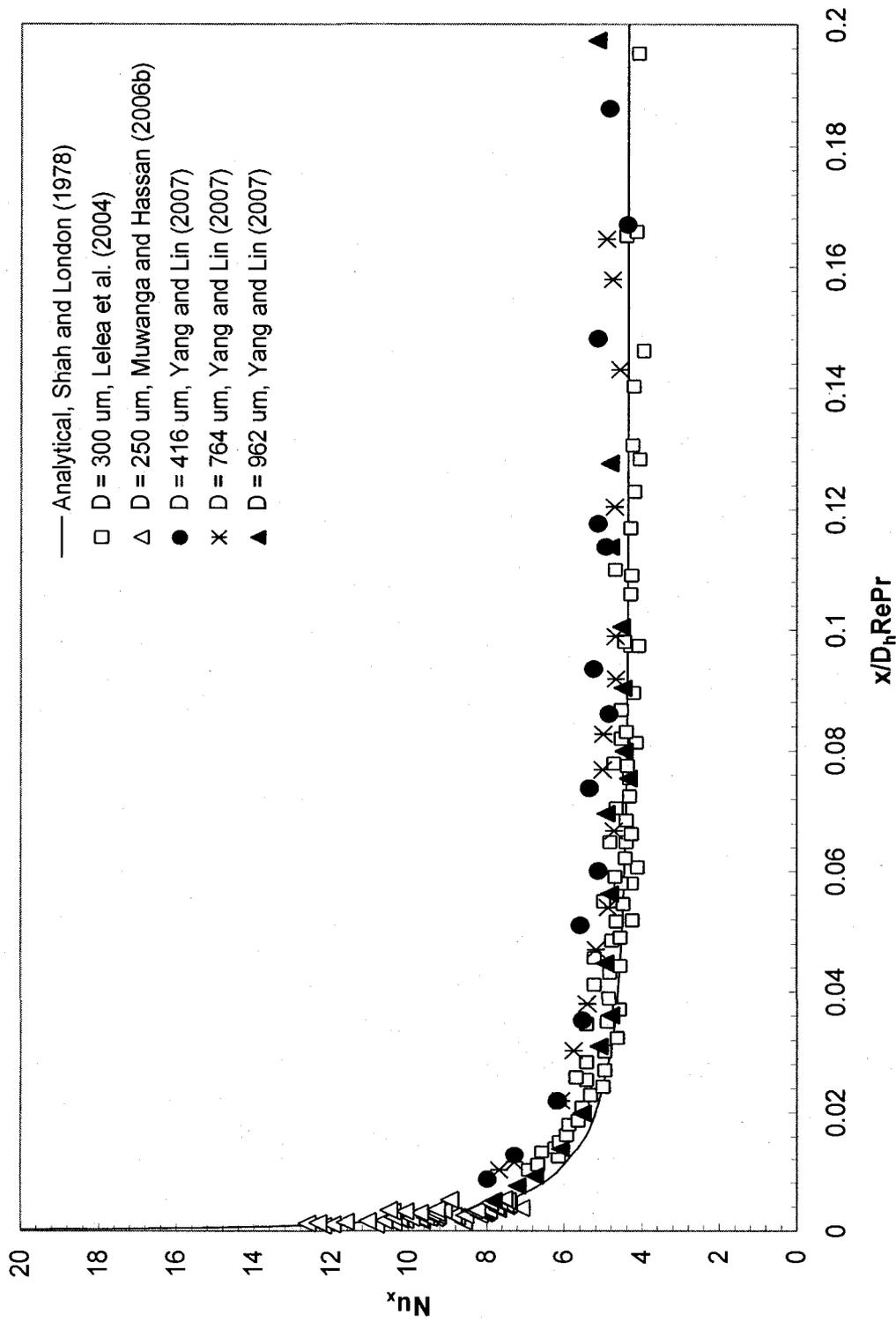


Figure 5.1: Comparison of experimental data and theory for thermally developing laminar flow for a constant wall heat flux

TLC's, and Yang and Lin (2007) for diameters ranging from 0.4 to 1 mm using micro-encapsulated TLC's. From Figure 5.1, it is apparent that there is good agreement in the trend of all the microscale experimental studies and the analytical solution given in Shah and London (1978). For Yang and Lin (2007), their trend is in agreement however there is a slightly higher error than the other two experimental studies when compared to the analytical result, particularly as the diameter is decreased. The authors did not provide any explanation for this discrepancy; however it is possibly due to their experimental setup or methods. From the figure, it can also be seen that the experimental data goes toward the theoretical Nu value for thermally developed laminar flow in a circular pipe, which is 4.364.

In addition, most data, except that from Muwanga and Hassan (2006b), was found using conventional techniques, such as thermocouples used by Lelea et al. (2004) and encapsulated TLC's used by Yang and Lin (2007). For these studies, even though there was agreement with the analytical solution of thermally developing flow, there is little data very close to the entrance of the microtube heated length, at very low  $x/D_h Re Pr$  values. This can be due to the actual size and difficulty in positioning the thermocouple junctions close to the entrance or the encapsulation of the TLC's. It can be seen that the data given by Muwanga and Hassan (2006b), who used un-encapsulated TLC's, achieved thermal entrance data at very low  $x/D_h Re Pr$  values below 0.005. This is due to the high spatial resolution and complete surface mapping of un-encapsulated TLC coating.

There exists thermal entrance region microtube data for laminar flow from many other publications that were not included here for sake of presentation. Further, even though laminar flow is a practical option, in terms of a fundamental

experimental study it was widely investigated within the research community, with good agreement compared to conventional analytical solutions.

### **5.3 Turbulent Flow**

Where conventionally-sized pipes and channels are concerned, turbulent flow is typically more likely to occur than laminar flow in practical situations, such as the flow process in a heat exchanger (Munson et al., 2002). Fully turbulent flow is present at high Reynolds numbers, above 4000, and is characterized by random, disorderly flow. A distinguishing feature of turbulent flow is the unsteadiness of the local velocity components. This irregular, randomness of turbulent flow has an effect on the flow properties, such as heat transfer and pressure drop (Munson et al., 2002). Compared to laminar flow, heat transfer processes are largely improved for turbulent flow, due to its randomness of flow.

At the microscale, it is widely conveyed that where practical applications are concerned, majority of micro system flows are laminar, due to the high pressure drop in microchannels caused by relatively small channel dimensions. In the turbulent regime, compared to laminar flow, the friction losses are conventionally increased, requiring very high pumping power to drive the flow. Nonetheless, future microscale applications may necessitate a need for turbulent flow data in microchannels. There is currently no data available on the turbulent thermal entrance region of microchannels. A fundamental study of this nature is a novel and significant contribution in the area of microchannel heat transfer.

An experimental study investigating the turbulent thermal entrance region, for developed hydrodynamic turbulent flow conditions was performed. The study was carried out for forced convective heat transfer in uniformly heated stainless steel microtubes with nominal inner diameters of 1.067 mm and 0.508 mm, over a turbulent Reynolds number range from 4000 to 9000. The working fluid is FC-72, an electronics cooling fluid, and adequate tube entry length is provided for hydrodynamic flow development prior to heating. The un-encapsulated TLC measurement technique for fine wall temperature measurements in the thermal entrance region of the microchannels will be applied, where local temperature data and Nusselt values are obtained. Although the application of un-encapsulated TLC's on a microchannel is challenging, these characteristics are attractive in resolving fine thermal entrance measurements.

### **5.3.1 Test Section**

The present test sections used in evaluating the heat transfer characteristics in the thermal entrance region had the same manufacturing method for both the 1.067 mm and 0.508 mm microtubes. The primary test section component is a circular cross-section microtube (Small Parts), manufactured from stainless steel. Figure 5.2 shows a schematic of the test section, which incorporates the microtube along with the inlet and exit plenum/measurement chambers. The nominal inner diameters (ID) of the microtubes are 1.067 mm and 0.508 mm, whose outer diameters (OD) are 1.27 mm and 0.635 mm, respectively. The hydraulic length of both microtubes is 76 mm, and the heated length is 25 mm. Prior to the heated portion of the microtube, sufficient length was provided to assure hydrodynamic developed flow throughout the heated length.

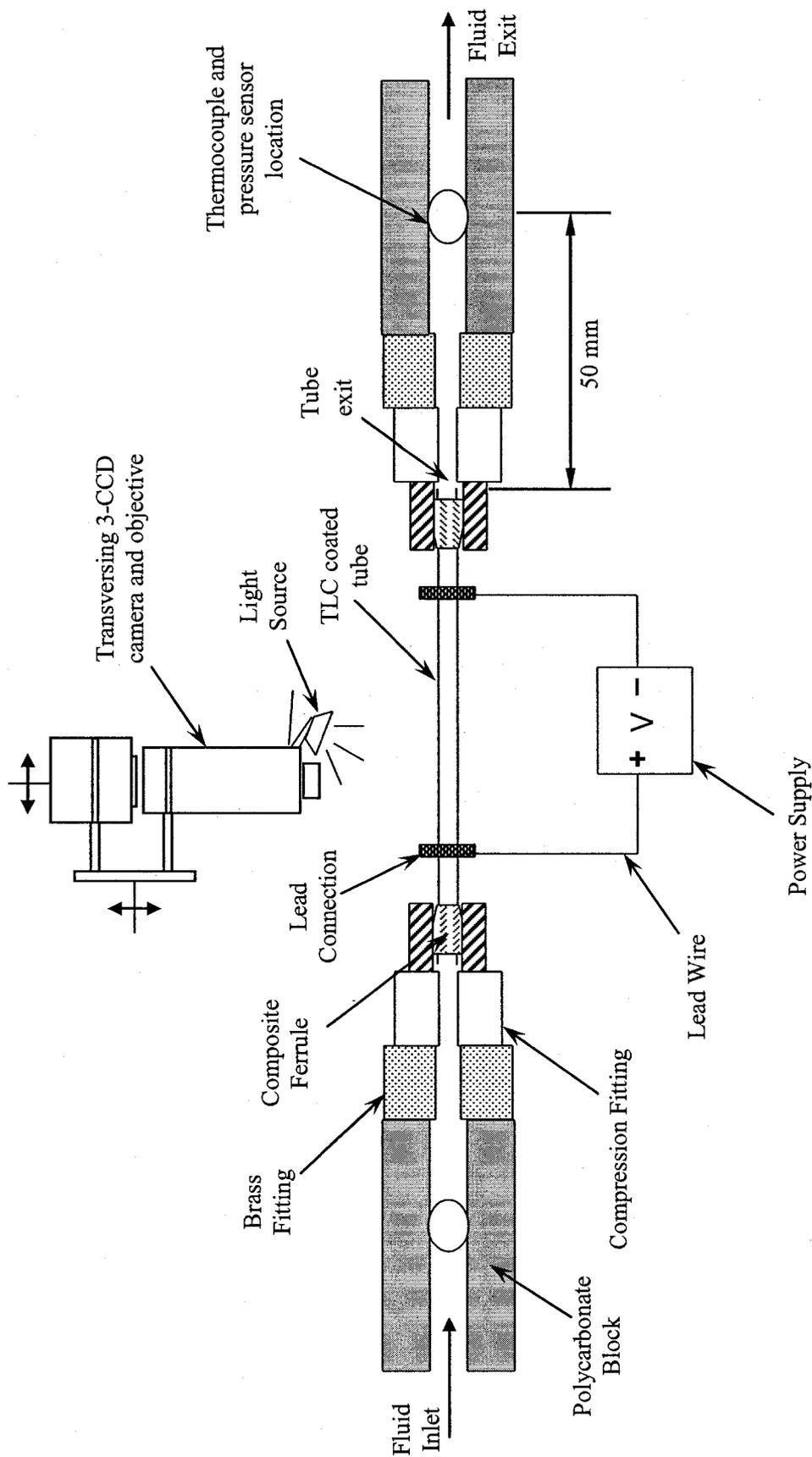


Figure 5.2: Test section setup with inlet/exit plenum chambers and TLC coated stainless steel microtube

In manufacturing the test-sections, shown in Figure 5.2, a polycarbonate sheet was machined to produce the measurement chambers (inlet and outlet) for bulk pressure and thermocouple temperature measurements. The tubes were connected to these chambers using standard 0.0625 mm stainless steel compression fittings with specialty ferrules to accommodate the small diameter microtubes. Fabricated from a composite of graphite and polyimide, the ferrules have a high electrical resistance. Other advantages of using compression fittings are that they provide an excellent seal to both gas and liquid, can withstand high pressures (up to 690 kPa) and are re-sealable for repeated use. Copper stranded wire (14 AWG) was soldered at each end of the tube to provide the electrical lead connection necessary for Joule heating from the power supply. The inside edge of this lead connection provided a flat edge for the beginning of the heated length, necessary for thermal entry length observation using the TLC measurement technique. There was no cover in direct contact with the TLC coated surface of the microtube, due to the small diameter of the tube. In order to protect the TLC coated surface from dust and room lighting, a non-contacting, optically clear plastic cover was placed over the tube.

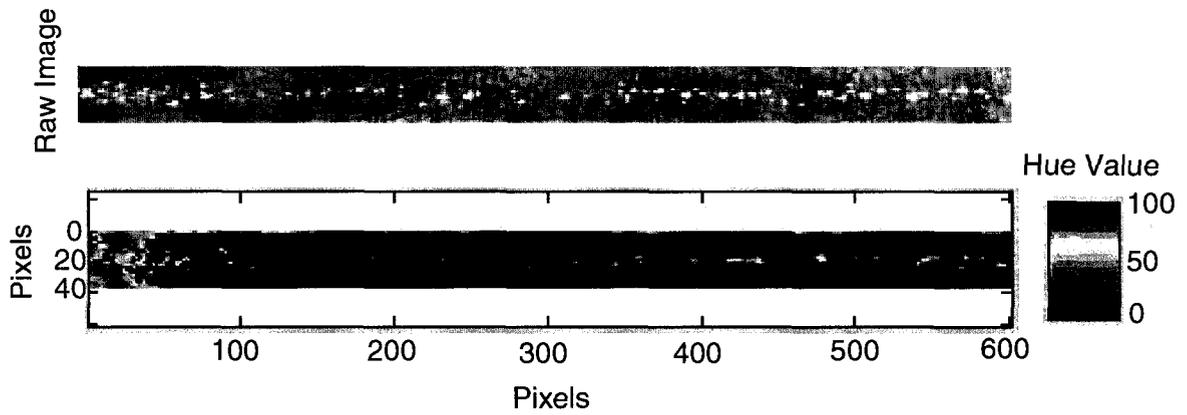
### **5.3.2 Experimental Procedure**

Through the use of un-encapsulated TLC thermography, wall temperature data was obtained through images taken at a single measurement location for the thermal entrance region of the microtube's heated length. Forced convection experiments were carried out for both the 0.508 mm and 1.067 mm microtubes, and regardless, the same calibration and measurement procedure was carried out for each test section.

As explained in Chapter 3, prior to each experiment it was necessary to calibrate the coated TLC material. Also, since the experimental aspects (i.e. room lighting, test section position, etc.) must be maintained for both the calibration and measurements, the calibration and measurements were performed on the same day. To begin the measurements, the flowrate was set and the system was allowed to run for about 10 minutes. Measurements were carried out for a flow range of 35–70 ml/min for the 0.508 mm tube, and 85–155 ml/min for the 1.067 mm tube. Using the preheater, the fluid temperature was raised until the inlet fluid bulk temperature was just under to the red-start of the TLC material ( $\sim 40$  °C). After running the flow through the system, measurements were ready to be taken and the protective non-contacting cover was removed. The illumination system was turned on and the voltage from the power supply (Joule heating) was adjusted until the TLC color response was predominantly in the green range of the fully developed region ( $\sim 42$  °C – 46 °C). From observation, the color in the thermal entrance region was, for the most part, in the red range ( $\sim 39$  °C – 42 °C). The system was allowed to come to equilibrium (5 – 10 minutes), after which a measurement image was taken.

Three color images were taken at a speed of 30 frames per second using the CCD camera. Through the automated system, these images were converted to hue angle, scaled for temperature conversion, and then averaged for each ROI location. In addition, the bulk fluid temperature and gage pressure at the inlet and outlet, as well as flowrate measurements were simultaneously captured and recorded. Numerous images were recorded for each flowrate and voltage setting, however for data reduction only the best images were selected for final presentation, based on visual inspection. Figure 5.3 (a and b) shows an example of raw rgb images for the

a) 0.508 mm microtube



b) 1.067 mm microtube

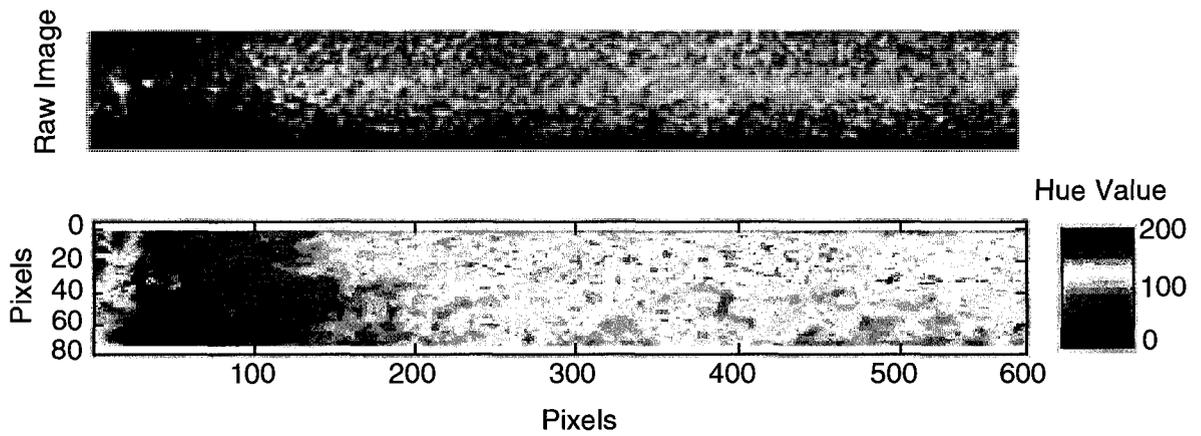


Figure 5.3: Examples of raw rgb images and their respective hue planes for the turbulent thermal entrance region of the (a) 0.508 mm and (b) 1.067 mm microtubes

0.508 mm and 1.067 mm microtubes and their converted hue planes taken for the present investigation. From the figure, the turbulent thermal entry region is evident.

### 5.3.3 Experimental Parameters and Uncertainty

The experimental parameters used in solving for the local values of the wall temperature, the heat transfer coefficient, and Nusselt values are similar to those developed in Muwanga and Hassan (2006a). The experimental friction factor,  $f_{exp}$ , was obtained from the pressure drop ( $\Delta P$ ) relation,

$$\Delta P = \left( f_{exp} \frac{L_{hyd}}{D} + K_{loss} \right) \frac{\rho U^2}{2}, \quad (5.1)$$

where  $L_{hyd}$  is the tube's hydraulic length,  $D$  is the microtube's inner diameter,  $\rho$  is the fluid's density, and  $U$  the average velocity of the flow. The losses at the entrance and exit ( $K_{loss}$ ) were estimated from Streeter (1961), considering the area changes at each location between the pressure sensor position and the tube entrance and exit. The heat flux to the fluid ( $q''$ ) was calculated based on the fluid enthalpy change given by,

$$q'' = \frac{\dot{m} C_p (T_{out} - T_{in})}{\pi D L_h}, \quad (5.2)$$

where  $T_{out}$  and  $T_{in}$  are the outlet and inlet bulk fluid temperatures, respectively, and  $L_h$  is the heated length. The local heat transfer coefficient ( $h_x$ ) is obtained through the convective heat transfer relation,

$$h_x = \frac{q''}{(T_{w,xy} - T_{b,x})}, \quad (5.3)$$

where  $T_{w,xy}$  is the inner wall temperature based directly on the TLC temperature measurement of the outer wall.  $T_{w,xy}$  was estimated based on one-dimensional radial conduction (with heat generation) through the tube wall thickness. It was found that the differences in the inner and outer wall temperatures were less than 0.3 °C.  $T_{b,x}$  is the local fluid bulk temperature, which was determined from an energy balance at each streamwise location given by,

$$T_{b,x} = T_{in} + \frac{\pi D q''}{m C_p} x. \quad (5.4)$$

The local Nusselt number ( $Nu_x$ ) was calculated as,

$$Nu_x = \frac{h_x D}{k_{loc}}, \quad (5.5)$$

where  $k_{loc}$  is the local thermal conductivity of the fluid. Also, with a known volumetric flowrate,  $Q$ , the Reynolds number ( $Re$ ) was calculated as,

$$Re = \frac{\rho Q D}{\mu A}, \quad (5.6)$$

where  $\mu$  is the fluid's dynamic viscosity and  $A$  is the microtube's inner cross-sectional area. Except for the local Nusselt number, the fluid properties for the above calculations were taken through interpolation of the average fluid bulk temperature between the inlet and outlet. The properties of FC-72 were taken from

the 3M product information sheet, and were shown in Table 3.1 for room temperature.

Experimental uncertainties were evaluated using standard methods outlined by Kline and McClintock (1953). The experimental uncertainties of typical parameters are tabulated in Table 5.1. Based on the manufacturer's instrument specifications, the uncertainties in the pressure drop and thermocouple measurements are  $\pm 0.73$  kPa and  $\pm 0.7$  °C respectively. The uncertainty in flowrate was estimated at  $\pm 2.25$  ml/min and typical local Nusselt number uncertainty ranged from  $\pm 20\%$  to  $\pm 30\%$ . The high uncertainty in the local Nusselt number is due in part to the calculation of the heat flux to the fluid using an energy balance rather than using the power input from the power supply. However, using the change in enthalpy to calculate the heat flux input is more accurate since it eliminates the need to estimate the heat losses to the environment as well as the heat losses due to the resistance of the lead wires soldered to the tube. TLC measurement uncertainty, which was outlined in Chapter 3, was found to be to be estimated as  $\pm 1.1$  °C. Uncertainties in the microtubes' inner and outer diameters are based on the manufacturing tolerance and are also given in Table 5.1.

#### **5.3.4 Pressure Drop**

Experimental data has been developed for turbulent convection heat transfer in the thermal entrance region of uniformly heated microtubes with inner diameters of 0.508 mm and 1.067 mm, over a turbulent Reynolds number range of 4000 to 9000. Sufficient tube entrance length ( $\sim 25$  mm) was provided to assure hydrodynamic developed flow throughout the heated length. The cases that were considered for

Table 5.1: Uncertainty in experimental parameters of the turbulent thermal entrance region

Parameter	Uncertainty
Local Nusselt number, $Nu_x$	20 % – 30 %
TLC wall temperature, $T_{w_x}$	1.1 °C
Inlet/Outlet temperatures, $T_{fluid}$	0.7 °C
Reynolds number, $Re$	7.78 %
Volumetric flowrate, $Q$	$\pm 2.25$ ml/min
Microtube pressure drop, $\Delta P$	$\pm 0.73$ kPa
0.508 mm microtube inner diameter, ID	$- 0.0127$ mm
0.508 mm microtube outer diameter, OD	$- 0.0000$ mm
1.067 mm microtube inner diameter, ID	$\pm 0.0254$ mm
1.067 mm microtube outer diameter, OD	$\pm 0.0127$ mm
Non-dimensional axial heated distance, $x/D$	16.20 %

analysis were at  $Re = 4717, 6645, 7912, \text{ and } 8733$ , for the 0.508 mm microtube, and  $Re = 5399, 6287, 8035, \text{ and } 8926$ , for the 1.067 mm microtube. The measurement of local wall temperatures was achieved through the use of un-encapsulated thermochromic liquid crystals (TLC's). The favorable characteristics of un-encapsulated TLC's, such as full surface mapping, high spatial resolution, and non-intrusiveness, are attractive in resolving fine thermal entrance measurements of a microchannel.

To assure the flow is indeed in the fully developed turbulent regime, the pressure drop was recorded over the microtube's length with the use of the inlet and exit static pressure transducers. From the experimental pressure drop, an experimental friction factor,  $f_{exp}$ , was obtained using Eq. (5.1) for all  $Re$  numbers studied for both microtubes, and compared to a conventional turbulent Darcy friction factor, given by Filonenko (1954) as,

$$f_{urb} = [1.82 \times \log(Re) - 1.64]^{-2}. \quad (5.7)$$

Figure 5.4 shows the experimental friction factor, for both microtubes studied, compared with Filonenko (1954)'s correlation. This correlation was selected due to its use in the average fully developed turbulent Nusselt number relation, as will be shown later. It can be seen that, for the most part, the correlation slightly underpredicts the experimental data. However, taking into account the experimental uncertainty of the pressure transducers, there is adequate agreement with Filonenko (1954)'s friction factor correlation. Further, this data confirms that within the experimental Reynolds number range studied here (4000 – 9000), the flow is in the turbulent regime.

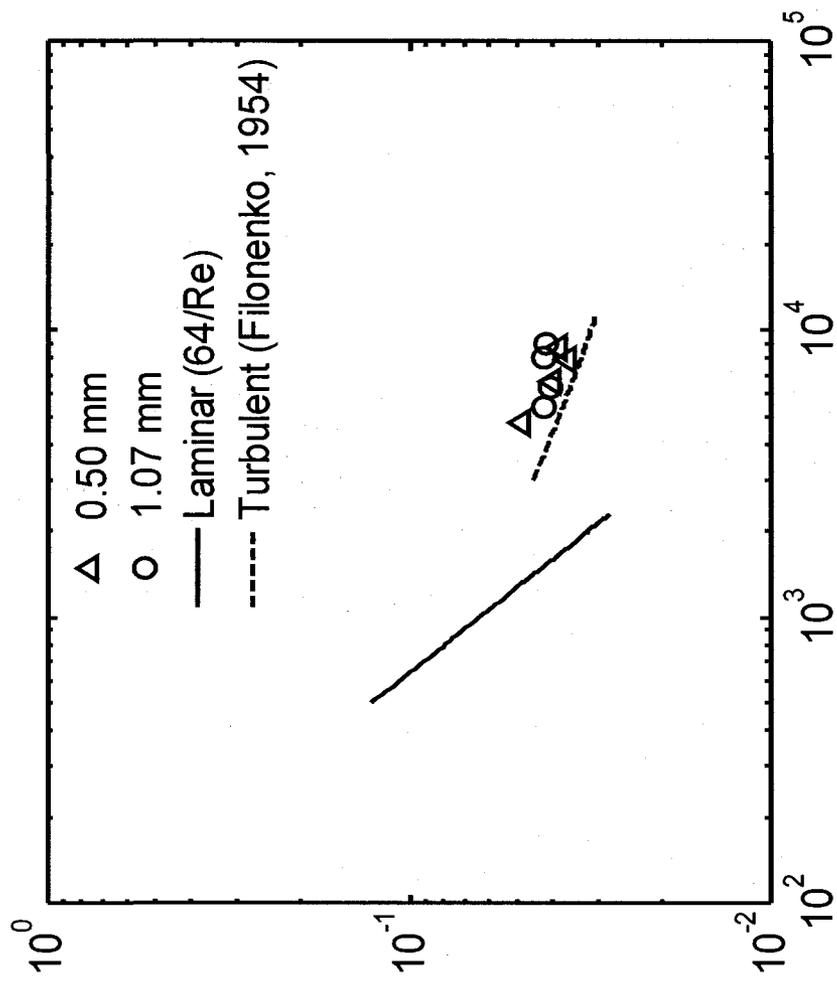


Figure 5.4: Comparison of the experimental friction factor with the Filonenko (1954) correlation

### 5.3.5 Local Wall Temperature Measurements

Figures 5.5 (a – d) and 5.6 (a – d) depict the local wall temperature ( $T_{w_x}$ ) along the non-dimensional heated length ( $x/D$ ), from the inlet lead connection (see Fig. 5.2) of the 0.508 mm and 1.067 mm microtubes, respectively, for each Reynolds number studied. It should be pointed out that it was difficult to distinctly distinguish the exact physical point at which tube heating begins, even with the use of the high magnification microscope apparatus. Identification of the heated length entrance was via visual selection of a pixel at the lead to tube contact. There is some uncertainty introduced by such a method, hence the zero location of the tube lies in the vicinity of zero  $x/D$ , rather than exactly at zero. This can be seen on the x-axis of Figures 5.5 and 5.6. As can be seen, all figures show a similar trend in accordance with the developing temperature profile of a uniformly heated tube. Even though the cases presented in these figures show the dimensionalized local wall temperatures which are dependant on the heat input, these figures serve to give a qualitative view at the trend of the wall temperature within the thermal entrance region.

In general from conventional observations, due to the high forced convection effects, turbulent thermal entrance lengths are much shorter than laminar thermal entrance lengths. At the start of the heated length, the wall temperature is lowest, however, along the axial distance of the heated microtube, the local wall temperature increases dramatically until a stable region, at 2 to 3 microtube diameters, where the temperature increase with  $x/D$  is slight. From the trend of data, it can be said that for all turbulent Reynolds number test cases for both microtubes, the thermal entrance length is roughly 2 to 3 microtube diameters. In addition, since the heat input is, for the most part, variable for each case, the

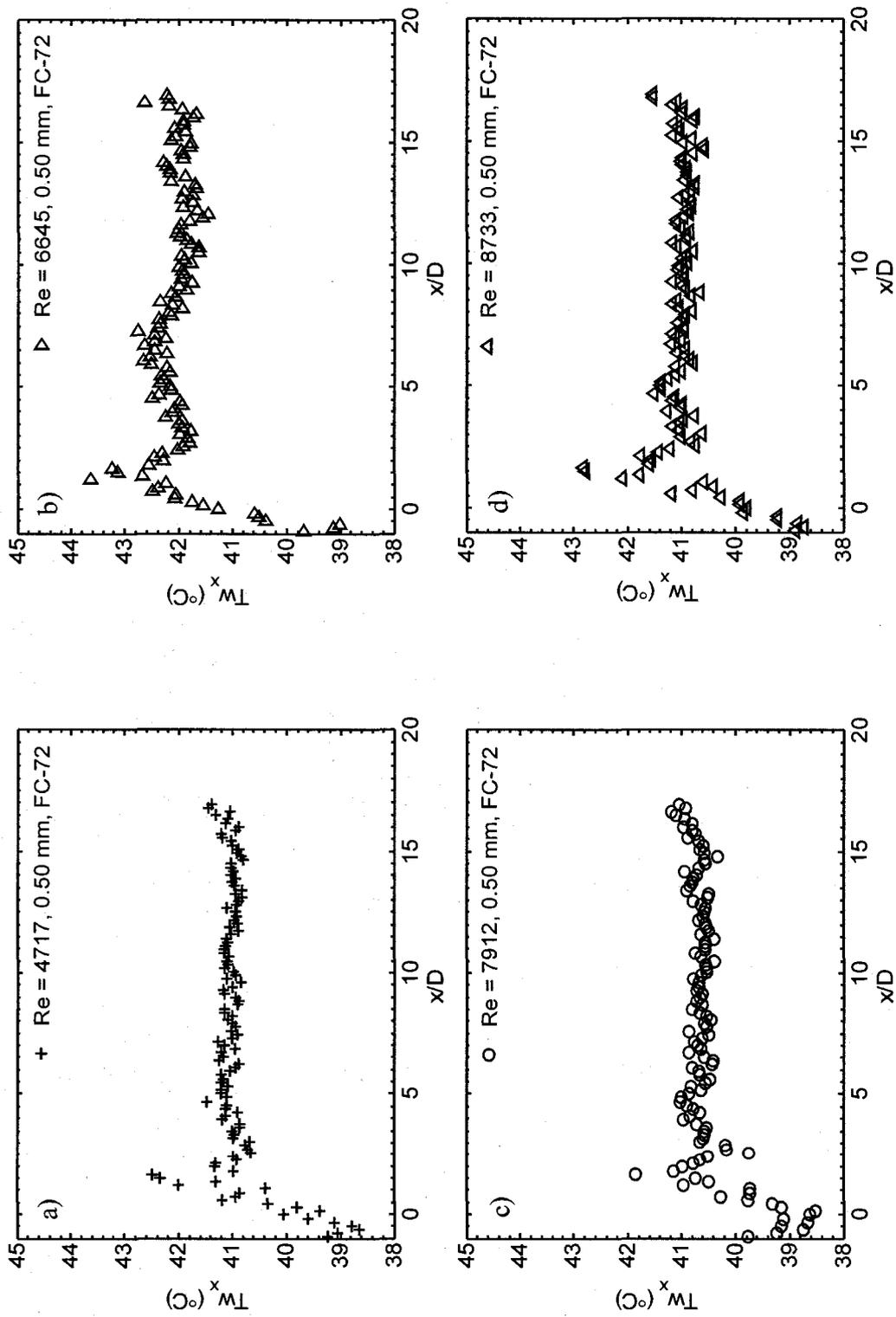


Figure 5.5: Local wall temperatures at the thermally developing region of the 0.508 mm microtube for different Reynolds numbers of (a) 4717, (b) 6645, (c) 7912, and (d) 8733

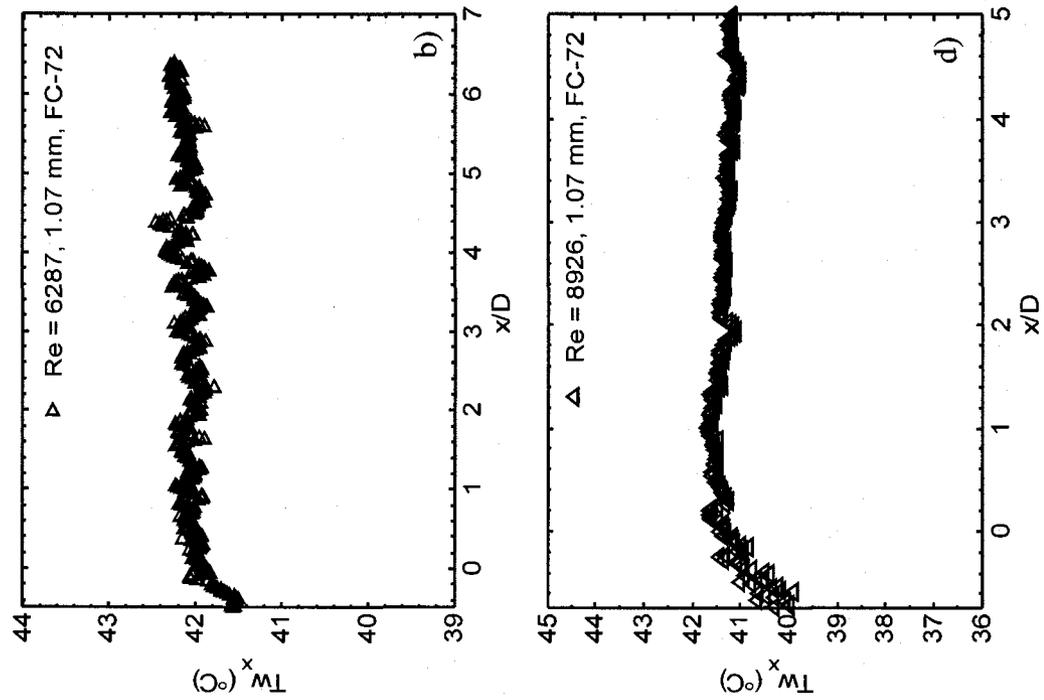


Figure 5.6: Local wall temperatures at the thermally developing region of the 1.067 mm microtube for different Reynolds numbers of (a) 5399, (b) 6287, (c) 8035, and (d) 8926

thermal entrance length is found to be independent of the heat flux. This indicates that for the Prandtl (Pr) number of our working fluid (FC-72, Pr = 12.35 at room temperature) and the Re range considered here (4000 – 9000), there is no effect on the thermal entrance length with turbulent Re number.

Conventionally for turbulent flow, the higher the Prandtl number the shorter the entrance length. However, there is a critical Pr number, above which the turbulence entrance length remains constant. This point is consistent with past researchers (i.e. Sparrow et al., 1957; Malina and Sparrow, 1964; Kays, 1966; Notter and Sleicher, 1972) who modeled the turbulent thermal entrance length in conventional tubes for a uniform wall heat flux boundary condition. Although these models were for high Re numbers ( $Re > 10^4$ ) impractical in their application to micro flows, these researchers concluded that there is little influence of Re on the turbulent thermal entry length for high Pr numbers, greater than 3. Also, at these high Pr numbers the turbulent thermal entrance length remained within a range of 2 to 3 diameters (i.e. Kays, 1966; Notter and Sleicher, 1972).

Regarding the local wall temperature for a developed temperature profile greater than 2 to 3 microtube diameters, it can be deduced that if the measurements were to extend along the axial distance of the tube throughout the entire heated length, one will observe a linear rise in the wall temperature, which is consistent for a fully developed temperature profile for a uniformly heated tube. Although measurements were confined to the thermal entrance region of the tube at low  $x/D$  values, in some cases this trend is apparent. Looking at Figures 5.6a and 5.6b, for the 1.067 mm tube, this trend is highly evident; however, from the 0.508 mm tube of Figure 5.5 this trend is slight but detectable. From the local wall temperature plots, it is

evident that there is a fair amount of noise associated with the data. Since TLC thermography is a local measurement technique with full surface mapping, many data points can be obtained. A data point is obtained for each region of interest (ROI), which is made up of only a few pixels. The data shown in the figures is down-sampled from the raw data, as a data reduction technique to obtain a viable trend. The scatter can be associated with the magnification, the large amount of data points, as well as the uncertainty of the TLC measurement technique.

### 5.3.6 Validation in the Thermally Developed Region

The local Nusselt number along the microtube axial heated length ( $x/D$ ), for both the 0.508 mm and 1.067 mm tubes, are shown in Figures 5.7 (a – d) and 5.8 (a – d), respectively. These figures have similar implications as Figures 5.5 and 5.6. The turbulent thermal entrance length at 2 to 3 microtube diameters remains constant for our working fluid and Re range considered here. Along with this, other similarities with the previous two figures include the presentation of the plots, the axial range of the data, and the scatter in the data.

However, the relative significance associated with these figures is the inclusion in the non-dimensional analysis of the heat flux in presenting the Nusselt number, as well as validation of the analysis in the fully developed turbulent thermal region. Evident from the figures, the experimental data is compared with Gnielinski (1976)'s correlation for the average Nusselt number in the fully developed turbulent thermal region for large tubes given by,

$$Nu_{Gniel} = \frac{(f_{turb}/8)(Re-1000)Pr}{1+12.7(f_{turb}/8)^{1/2}(Pr^{2/3}-1)}, \quad (5.8)$$

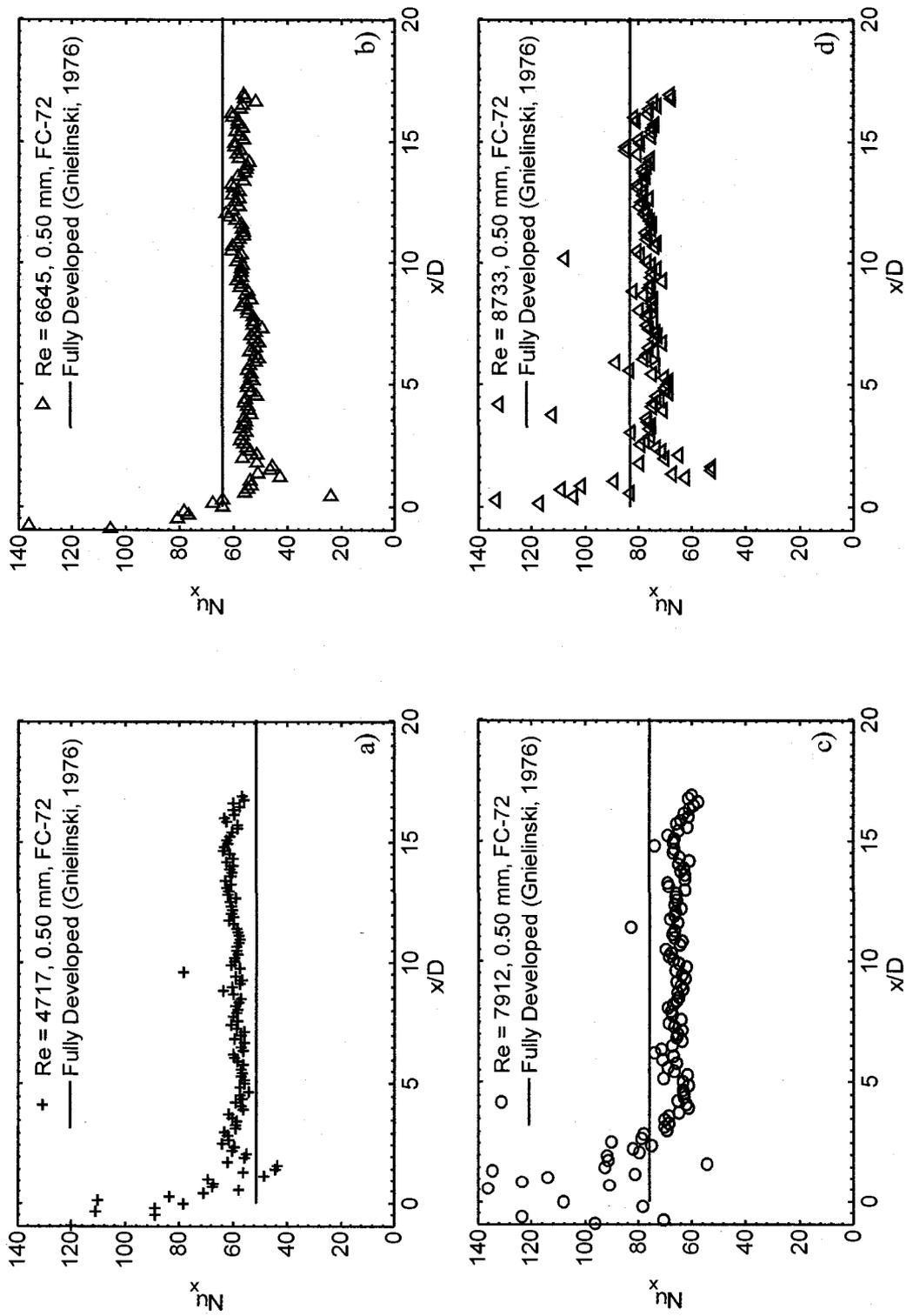


Figure 5.7: Local Nusselt values at the thermally developing region of the 0.508 mm microtube for different Reynolds numbers of (a) 4717, (b) 6645, (c) 7912, and (d) 8733

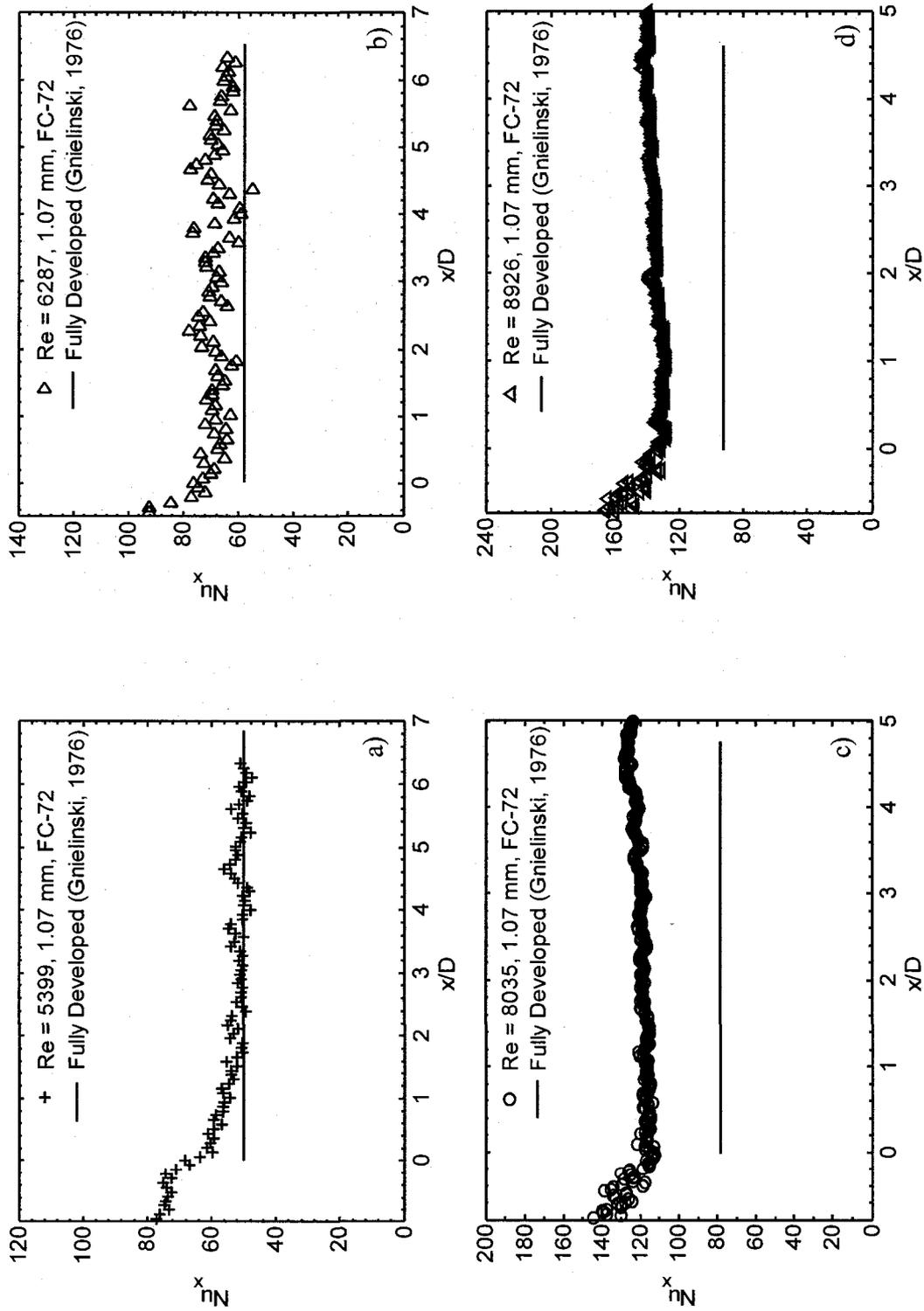


Figure 5.8: Local Nusselt values at the thermally developing region of the 1.067 mm microtube for different Reynolds numbers of (a) 5399, (b) 6287, (c) 8035, and (d) 8926

where  $Pr$  is the Prandtl number of the fluid and the turbulent Darcy friction factor,  $f_{turb}$ , is determined from Eq. (5.7). In solving Eq. (5.8), the fluid properties were taken at the average fluid bulk temperature between the tube inlet and outlet. Looking at Eq. (5.8), Gnielinski (1976)'s correlation is dependant not only on the  $Re$  and  $Pr$  numbers, but also on the theoretical friction factor,  $f_{turb}$ . Also, Eq. (5.8) is valid for  $0.5 \leq Pr \leq 2000$  and  $2300 \leq Re \leq 5 \times 10^6$ . This semi-empirical turbulent heat transfer correlation has some theoretical foundation, in that it is a combination of a functional form of a theoretically derived relation and empirically derived constants (Kays and Crawford, 1993). According to Kakaç et al. (1987), Eq. (5.8) is the recommended choice for turbulent heat transfer predictions in smooth tubes.

It can be seen from Figure 5.7 that for the four  $Re$  test cases for the 0.508 mm microtube, there is very good agreement of the experimental local Nusselt number data with the conventional fully developed correlation given by Gnielinski (1976). From Figure 5.8, for the 1.067 mm microtube, it is evident that there is very good agreement with Gnielinski (1976) at Reynolds numbers of 5399 and 6287 (Figs. 5.8a and 5.8b), however there is some deviation for  $Re$  of 8035 and 8926 (Figs. 5.8c and 5.8d). The deviation associated with these two cases is possibly due to the applied heat flux. In the calculation of Gnielinski (1976)'s correlation from Eq. (5.8), like many published correlations, the fully developed  $Nu$  number is found to be dependant on the  $Re$  and  $Pr$  numbers. However experimentally, the  $Nu$  number is dependant on the heat transfer coefficient, which in turn depends on the applied heat flux, although it should be noted that the error in Figures 5.8c and 5.8d is within the uncertainty of the experimental Nusselt number.

The conformity in the comparison of the experimental Nusselt number with theory validates the present investigation in defining the turbulent thermal entrance length at 2 – 3 microtube diameters. The Nusselt number is highest in the entrance region, then levels out to a somewhat constant value in the fully developed region at this entrance length, which is consistent for all Re numbers analyzed. Also, since there is no available data similar to the present investigation, it shows that the trend of the data from the start of the heated length through the turbulent thermal entrance region, and towards the fully developed turbulent temperature profile, does indeed make physical sense. In addition, it lays emphasis that un-encapsulated TLC's are a viable, valid, and attractive approach for wall temperature measurements at the microscale, particularly due to its fine spatial resolution suited for micro dimensions, and full surface mapping capability to obtain a continuous trend of experimental data. These characteristics were advantageous for measurements within the turbulent thermal entry region.

### **5.3.7 Data Trend of the Thermally Developing Nusselt Values**

In comparing the experimental Nusselt number trend of the 0.508 mm tube in Figure 5.7 with that of the 1.067 mm tube of Figure 5.8, it can be seen that although there is good agreement in the overall experimental data in terms of the thermal entrance length, there is a slight difference in the trend of the two figures. From Figure 5.7 (a – d), as the wall temperature is sharply increasing in the entrance region, the forced convection Nusselt number is sharply decreasing. It can be seen that there is a noticeable undershoot in the Nu data, after which the data increases towards its fully developed value. This tendency is apparent for all Re cases for the 0.508 mm tube, and is also evident for the wall temperature measurements of Figure

5.5, where an overshoot in the temperature data is evident. However, looking at Figure 5.8 (a – d) for all Re cases of the 1.067 mm tube, there is no such occurrence, where the experimental Nu number trend decreases sharply and smoothly with no undershoot in the data. This trend is also observed in the wall temperature measurements of the 1.067 mm tube in Figure 5.6.

At first it was thought that this was a possible micro-scaling effect that becomes evident at microscale dimensions, but not apparent at conventional geometries, as with the 1.067 mm tube. To clarify this issue, and verify the repeatability in the TLC data, further turbulent thermal entrance region experiments were carried out in the 0.508 mm microtube. Figure 5.9 shows the local Nusselt number,  $Nu_x$ , versus the non-dimensional heated length,  $x/D$ , for two data sets for the 0.508 mm tube. The first data set, taken on January 18, 2007 for  $Re = 4717$  is the same as that shown in Figure 5.7a. The second data set was taken nearly seven months later on August 8, 2007, on the same test section for  $Re = 4200$ . The difference in the experiments was that a new coating and calibration process was applied to the second data set. The minor dissimilarity in the Re numbers of the two data sets has a minor importance, and the Re values of 4717 and 4200 are close enough to compare the trend and the repeatability of the TLC data.

Both data sets have good agreement with Eq. (5.8) in their respective thermally developed regions; however this is not shown in the figure for reasons of simplicity. It can be seen from Figure 5.9 that there is very good repeatability in the data, in that both data sets show a definite entrance region spanning about 2 – 3 diameters, then level out to a constant Nu number in the fully developed region. However, it can be seen that there is a sharper negative slope for the January 18<sup>th</sup> case

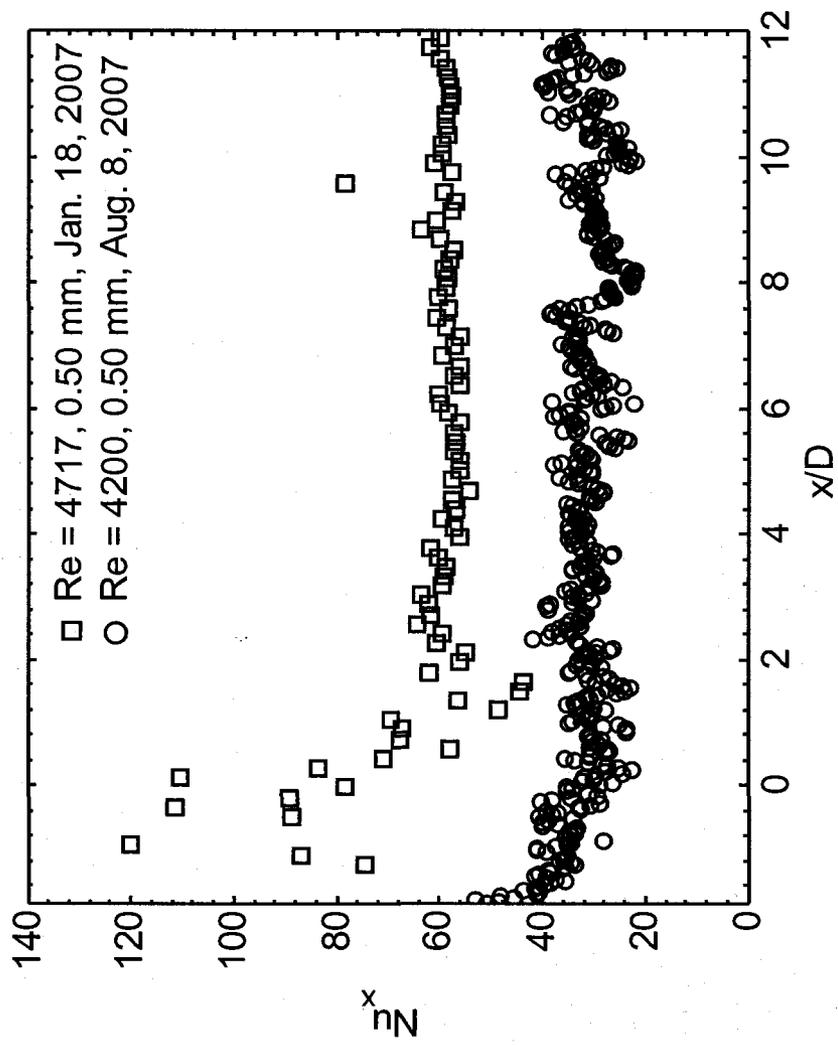


Figure 5.9: Evaluation of the repeatability in the experimental results at similar turbulent Reynolds numbers

compared with the August 8<sup>th</sup> case, where the entrance region data has a smoother shape. Also, from the figure, it can be seen that there is no undershoot in the data for the August 8<sup>th</sup> case as is the case for the January 18<sup>th</sup> case. Therefore, due to this observation it can be said that the overshoot in the  $T_{w,x}$  data and the undershoot in the  $Nu_x$  data at the entrance region for the 0.508 mm tube (Figs. 5.5 and 5.7, respectively) is due to the TLC coating and not a scaling phenomena.

Figure 5.10 shows two trends of data of the local experimental Nusselt number,  $Nu_x$ , versus the non-dimensional axial heated length,  $x/D$ , for  $Re = 5399$ . The data is for the 1.067 mm microtube at two different heat fluxes of 1.345 W and 0.784 W. This figure serves as to demonstrate the dependence of the turbulent thermal entrance length on the heat input at a given turbulent  $Re$  number, where there is no distinct significance in the choice of the actual value of the flowrate. From the figure, it can be seen that independent of the heat input, the turbulent thermal entrance length is at 2 – 3 diameters, consistent with the previous figures. This point further validates the present turbulent thermal entrance length analysis in that the entrance length is constant regardless of the heat flux and  $Re$  number for the  $Pr$  value studied. However, it is evident that there is a sharper drop (greater negative slope) in the local Nusselt number towards its fully developed value for the higher heat flux case of 1.345 W. This is expected since a higher heat flux produces a higher local convective heat transfer coefficient. Also, from Figure 5.10 it can be seen that there is better agreement with the fully developed Nusselt value given by Gnielinski (1976) for the higher heat flux case. However, the error associated with the lower heat flux case (0.784 W) is within the experimental uncertainty.

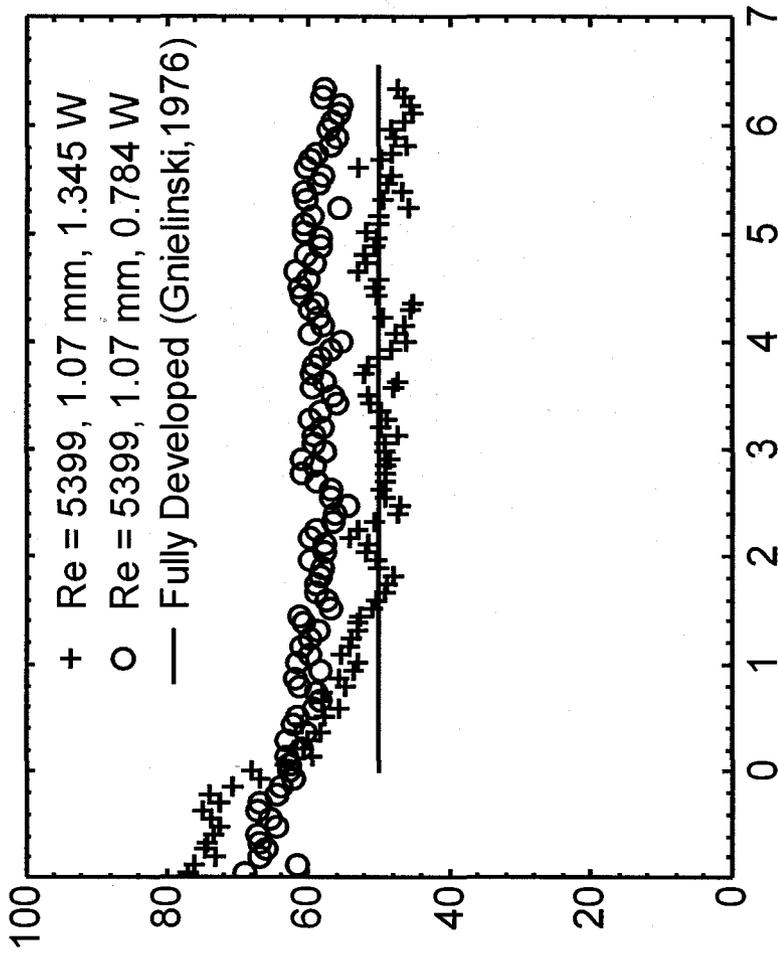


Figure 5.10: Thermal entrance length comparison of two data sets with different heat power input and the same flowrate (Re = 5399)

## 5.4 Summary

In regards to the laminar thermal entrance region, from a review into the open literature it was found that numerous experimental studies were carried out in microchannels and microtubes. Conventionally, thermally developing laminar flow has a significant effect on the flow and heat-transfer parameters, such as the convective heat transfer coefficient. Due to the relatively low pressure drop imposed for laminar flow compared to turbulent flow, particularly as channel dimensions enter the microscale range, laminar flow can be practically applied in microchannels and micro-devices. However, even though laminar flow is highly practical in microfluidics due to the low pumping power required to drive the flow, an experimental study was not carried out due to the amount of fundamental experimental data existing on the subject. Majority of the existing data found very good agreement with conventional correlations. Instead, an experimental study for thermally developing turbulent flow was performed.

An experimental investigation into the turbulent thermal entrance region of uniformly heated microtubes was carried out. Experimental heat transfer entrance data was presented for two stainless steel microtubes with inner diameters 0.508 mm and 1.067 mm, over a turbulent Reynolds number range of 4000 to 9000. Sufficient microtube length was given to allow the flow to develop prior to heating. Therefore turbulent thermal data was not obtained for simultaneously developing flow, but for fully developed hydrodynamic flow that is developing thermally.

The present fundamental experimental study was a first of its kind for flow in microchannels, with turbulent flow having possible future applications in

microfluidics. High resolution measurements of local wall temperatures were possible through the use of un-encapsulated thermochromic liquid crystals (TLC's). TLC thermography is a non-intrusive surface temperature measurement technique, possessing high thermal resolution and full surface mapping in its un-encapsulated form. These characteristics are attractive in analyzing microscale heat transfer phenomena, and the complete surface mapping allows the collection of continuous temperature data.

The developing local wall temperature and local Nusselt number measurements showed good agreement with the physical mechanism describing thermally developing flow, and good agreement with conventional correlations was found in the thermally developed region of the microtubes. For the Reynolds number range considered, with  $Pr \sim 10$  (considering temperature effects), negligible variation in the entrance length was observed. The entry length was found to be  $\sim 2-3$  microtube diameters under the conditions considered, which is consistent with conventional studies. Further, it was demonstrated that un-encapsulated TLC's are a viable approach for high resolution wall temperature measurements at the microscale.

# Chapter 6

## Conclusion

### 6.1 Summary and Contributions

Physically, the entrance region within a channel has a significant influence on the transport properties due to the developing nature of the flow. Within the hydrodynamic entrance region, where the velocity flow field is developing, the shear stress imposed by sudden drag effects of the channel walls, as well as the acceleration of the fluid at the center of the channel, has a profound effect on the pressure gradient. Similarly, for the thermal entrance region where the temperature profile is developing, the immediate increase in the wall temperature at the start of the heated length, and the heat transfer to the colder fluid through thermal diffusion has a great effect on the heat transfer coefficient. For reasons such as these, the entrance region within a channel, with or without heat transfer, has important implications on the flow field.

The relatively new area of microfluidics deals with thermo-fluid phenomena in microchannels and micro-devices, which are to be implemented in complete micro-

systems. Prominent conceptual applications of these micro-systems are in the biomedical industry through Lab-on-a-Chip platforms, and the electronic sector through the cooling of processors using either single-phase or boiling flow. With regards to single-phase liquid flow in microchannels, much experimental research was previously carried out within the fully developed region, with recent studies indicating good agreement with conventional theory. However, there was a lack of experimental data concerning both the hydrodynamic and thermal entrance regions of microchannels. Fundamental entrance region data is required to experimentally verify if there is any effect of scaling on the entrance regions as channel dimensions enter the microscale, as well as provide data for future designs of micro-devices.

The present two part experimental investigation was carried out to provide new experimental evidence into the hydrodynamic and thermal entrance regions in microchannels, ranging in hydraulic diameters from 100  $\mu\text{m}$  to 1 mm. The advantages associated with state-of-the-art experimental techniques of micro-PIV and un-encapsulated TLC's, allowed for the comprehensive analysis of the entrance regions in microchannels. In general, the results showed minimal influence of scaling on the physics of developing flow over the range of microchannel hydraulic diameters and Reynolds numbers studied.

Experiments were carried out for the laminar hydrodynamic entrance region and attempted for turbulent flow. New test sections were designed to provide fundamental entrance length data for microchannels from a very large inlet reservoir, to minimize pre-development in the flow upstream of the channel inlet. Three square microchannels, whose widths were 100  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$ , and 500  $\mu\text{m}$ , were investigated using micro-PIV to obtain extensive flow field data in the developing

region. For laminar flow, a Reynolds number range from 0.5 to 200 was studied. There was a slight influence of dimensional scaling in comparing the entrance length of the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  channel with the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  and 200  $\mu\text{m}$  channels at low Reynolds numbers, below 10. For all channels studied, good agreement was found in comparing the entrance lengths with conventional correlations developed for ducts at Re numbers above 10, and for parallel plates at lower Re numbers. Also, three new empirical laminar entrance length correlations were proposed, whereby both creeping and high laminar Reynolds number correlations are combined. Regarding the turbulent hydrodynamic entrance region, experiments were attempted in the 200  $\mu\text{m}$  microchannel test section. However, due to the immense pressure drop for turbulent flow, the inability in providing the required pumping power from the syringe pump, and safety concerns, no experimental data was obtained.

Experiments were also performed for the thermal entrance region. For laminar flow, there are numerous studies available in literature investigating the laminar thermal entrance region, with majority indicating good agreement with conventional theory. Therefore, to provide new experimental data, only the thermal entrance region for turbulent flow was studied, since there was no available experimental data in microchannels. Experimental heat transfer entrance data was presented for two stainless steel microtubes with inner diameters of 0.508 mm and 1.067 mm, over a turbulent Reynolds number range of 4000 to 9000. Fine wall temperature entrance measurements were obtained through the use of un-encapsulated TLC's, whose spatial characteristics were desirable in carrying out the experiments. Developing local wall temperature and local Nusselt number measurements were presented and showed good agreement with the physical mechanism describing thermally

developing flow. Also, agreement with conventional correlations was found in the thermally developed region of the microtubes. There was negligible change in the thermal entrance length for the turbulent Reynolds number range and working fluid ( $Pr \sim 10$ ) considered. Consistent with conventional studies, the turbulent thermal entry length was found to be about 2 to 3 microtube diameters under the conditions considered.

## 6.2 Future Directions

Concerning experimental single-phase microchannel flow, experimental data is widely available for fully developed flow conditions, both diabatic and adiabatic, and limited data is available for the hydrodynamic and thermal entrance regions. From recent fully developed flow studies, along with the experimental data presented here for the entrance regions, it can be seen that for the most part there is minimal influence in dimensional scaling. Even though it was attempted, there were fundamental limitations in obtaining experimental data in microchannels for the turbulent hydrodynamic entrance region. Fundamental experimental data should be obtained for this region, even though there are many experimental difficulties associated with the study. A different flow loop or test section should be designed, to overcome the pressure drop and capabilities of the syringe pump, such as shorter channel lengths or operation of the syringe pump in infusion mode. Even though there are currently no conceptual applications of turbulent flow in microchannels due to the high pressure drop, future microfluidic applications may require fundamental experimental data for this regime.

The experimental methods used in analyzing the hydrodynamic and thermal entrance regions in the current study, showed the advantages associated with micro-PIV and un-encapsulated TLC techniques. Micro-PIV allowed for qualitative and quantitative analysis of the velocity flow field in the entrance region of square microchannels down to 100  $\mu\text{m}$  in width. Un-encapsulated TLC's, due to their high spatial resolution, captured fine turbulent thermal entrance measurements, which are close to impossible to obtain using thermocouples due to extremely short entrance lengths. In accurate microfluidic measurements, optical techniques need to be relied upon as dimensions enter the microscale. Currently, many research groups use micro-PIV in the flow field analysis of microchannels and microchannel systems, as was seen in Chapter 2. However, with regards to un-encapsulated TLC's, very few groups apply this method for wall temperature measurements at the microscale. The characteristics of un-encapsulated TLC's compared with bulk measurements, such as full surface mapping and non-intrusiveness, make this method very attractive. Even though there are initial challenges and difficulties in the application of un-encapsulated TLC's compared to their micro-encapsulated form, their very high spatial resolution make them highly appropriate for microscale measurements, as was seen here.

With respect to microfluidic applications for single-phase liquid flow, the most prominent are those applicable to the biomedical sector through Lab-on-a-Chip platforms and  $\mu$ -TAS. An important micro-device to be implemented into these micro-systems is a microfluidic mixer, which is used to mix two single-phase liquids at the microscale. In practical applications of microchannel flow, majority of micro-system flows are strongly laminar, due to the high pressure drop caused by

relatively small channel dimensions. Due to these low Reynolds numbers, micromixers do not apply turbulent mixing as do conventional mixers, and laminar mixing must be efficiently applied. Typical micromixer applications include the mixing of reagents prior to chemical or biological reactions in chemical analyses and Lab-on-a-Chip platforms, drug delivery, and sequencing or synthesis of nucleic acids (Nguyen and Wu, 2005). In order for micromixers to efficiently and effectively operate in these applications, rapid mixing times are necessary.

From a brief review into literature on microfluidic mixers, there are definite advantages to passive mixers over active mixers in regards to implementation, practicality, and portability. The difference between passive mixers compared to active mixers, are that passive mixers use no external power sources or moving parts to carry out the mixing process; they solely rely on channel geometry for efficient mixing. Passive micromixers that have combined mixing mechanisms of both lamination and chaotic advection showed the most efficient mixing. From a fabrication point of view, in-plane micromixers are simple to fabricate compared with their out-of-plane counterparts, and are simpler to implement into a complete micro-system. Even though numerous experimental works have been carried out on microfluidic mixers, future works should focus on an in-plane micromixer that incorporates both lamination and chaotic advection. Also, it would provide an additional geometry designers can choose in the fabrication and design of complete micro-systems.

It is encouraging that the developing technology microfluidics brings will one day have a great impact on our day to day lives, whether it is in the cooling of our super

computers through a micro-heat exchanger, or the direct medical diagnosis of an infectious disease using a Lab-on-a-Chip platform.

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# Appendix A

## Experimental Data for the Hydrodynamic Entrance Region

### A.1 Developing Velocity Profiles at Axial Locations from Channel Inlet

Table A.1: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 0.476$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	4 $\mu\text{m}$	19 $\mu\text{m}$	34 $\mu\text{m}$	50 $\mu\text{m}$	65 $\mu\text{m}$	80 $\mu\text{m}$	148 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0449	0.0495	0.1057	0.1579	0.2033	0.2145	0.2167	0.3587
0.1207	0.0780	0.1804	0.2752	0.3463	0.3742	0.3996	0.4675
0.1966	0.1408	0.2907	0.4249	0.5008	0.5507	0.5975	0.6144
0.2724	0.2406	0.4282	0.5880	0.6533	0.7162	0.7666	0.7768
0.3483	0.3524	0.5624	0.7351	0.7915	0.8518	0.8967	0.9028
0.4242	0.4610	0.6632	0.8197	0.8853	0.9392	0.9768	0.9790
0.5000	0.5398	0.7052	0.8340	0.9094	0.9625	0.9987	0.9926
0.5759	0.5460	0.6799	0.7783	0.8684	0.9270	0.9630	0.9653
0.6517	0.4559	0.5656	0.6631	0.7671	0.8435	0.8867	0.9028
0.7276	0.3233	0.4243	0.5265	0.6373	0.7243	0.7773	0.7768
0.8034	0.2073	0.2892	0.3841	0.4951	0.5954	0.6776	0.6144
0.8793	0.1398	0.2117	0.2847	0.3803	0.4712	0.3996	0.4675
0.9551	0.0955	0.1506	0.2054	0.2838	0.3125	0.2167	0.3587

Table A.2: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 4.76$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	4 $\mu\text{m}$	19 $\mu\text{m}$	50 $\mu\text{m}$	65 $\mu\text{m}$	80 $\mu\text{m}$	95 $\mu\text{m}$	156 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0449	0.0116	0.0234	0.0951	0.1523	0.1906	0.2156	0.2050
0.1207	0.0154	0.0264	0.1370	0.2492	0.3471	0.3957	0.3976
0.1966	0.0165	0.0203	0.1816	0.3656	0.5236	0.5969	0.6115
0.2724	0.0172	0.0367	0.2978	0.5219	0.6940	0.7558	0.7784
0.3483	0.0394	0.1114	0.4977	0.7094	0.8443	0.8876	0.8997
0.4242	0.1114	0.2475	0.6964	0.8581	0.9443	0.9701	0.9762
0.5000	0.1904	0.3716	0.8231	0.9304	0.9773	0.9956	0.9932
0.5759	0.1927	0.3698	0.8002	0.9002	0.9393	0.9540	0.9464
0.6517	0.1262	0.2632	0.6647	0.7886	0.8444	0.8636	0.8585
0.7276	0.0473	0.1372	0.4734	0.6213	0.7102	0.7444	0.7490
0.8034	0.0203	0.0696	0.2800	0.4018	0.5100	0.5836	0.6185
0.8793	0.0141	0.0423	0.1546	0.2316	0.3250	0.4113	0.4775
0.9551	0.0129	0.0296	0.0791	0.1138	0.1739	0.2537	0.3402

Table A.3: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 50$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	4 $\mu\text{m}$	34 $\mu\text{m}$	65 $\mu\text{m}$	110 $\mu\text{m}$	193 $\mu\text{m}$	285 $\mu\text{m}$	390 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0449	0.0412	0.0810	0.2131	0.2441	0.2837	0.3019	0.3194
0.1207	0.0575	0.1313	0.3596	0.4421	0.4350	0.4435	0.4586
0.1966	0.0848	0.2066	0.5172	0.6374	0.6237	0.6239	0.6445
0.2724	0.1534	0.3219	0.6604	0.7752	0.7882	0.7808	0.8106
0.3483	0.2629	0.4634	0.7657	0.8759	0.9012	0.8983	0.9265
0.4242	0.4066	0.5929	0.8248	0.9253	0.9653	0.9638	0.9850
0.5000	0.5102	0.6674	0.8469	0.9417	0.9780	0.9792	0.9891
0.5759	0.5469	0.6758	0.8375	0.9141	0.9405	0.9476	0.9419
0.6517	0.4902	0.6191	0.7951	0.8591	0.8863	0.8938	0.8679
0.7276	0.3806	0.5055	0.7010	0.7729	0.8439	0.8380	0.8106
0.8034	0.2698	0.3736	0.5542	0.6760	0.6237	0.6239	0.6510
0.8793	0.1957	0.2682	0.4123	0.4421	0.4350	0.4435	0.4586
0.9551	0.1640	0.2154	0.2985	0.2441	0.2837	0.3019	0.3194

Table A.4: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 89$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	4 $\mu\text{m}$	34 $\mu\text{m}$	65 $\mu\text{m}$	110 $\mu\text{m}$	193 $\mu\text{m}$	285 $\mu\text{m}$	390 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0449	0.0401	0.0585	0.1527	0.2421	0.2862	0.3082	0.3378
0.1207	0.0644	0.1074	0.2889	0.4393	0.4328	0.4439	0.4915
0.1966	0.1367	0.2102	0.4500	0.6147	0.5973	0.6186	0.6609
0.2724	0.2294	0.3438	0.5978	0.7345	0.7397	0.7794	0.8184
0.3483	0.2998	0.4428	0.6895	0.8057	0.8413	0.8969	0.9294
0.4242	0.3149	0.4794	0.7329	0.8341	0.9003	0.9519	0.9837
0.5000	0.2969	0.4598	0.7363	0.8400	0.9050	0.9553	0.9874
0.5759	0.2717	0.4209	0.7082	0.8198	0.8676	0.9130	0.9518
0.6517	0.2385	0.3669	0.6514	0.7791	0.8062	0.8547	0.8781
0.7276	0.1986	0.3083	0.5697	0.7108	0.7259	0.8184	0.8205
0.8034	0.1520	0.2386	0.4449	0.5912	0.6328	0.6186	0.6610
0.8793	0.0645	0.1075	0.2891	0.4393	0.4672	0.4440	0.4913
0.9551	0.0400	0.0586	0.1525	0.2421	0.2878	0.3080	0.3380

Table A.5: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 0.5$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	16 $\mu\text{m}$	32 $\mu\text{m}$	48 $\mu\text{m}$	121 $\mu\text{m}$	169 $\mu\text{m}$	378 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0170	0.0040	0.0000	0.0169	0.0302	0.0551	0.1177	0.1700
0.0573	0.0094	0.0175	0.0429	0.0686	0.0683	0.1463	0.2113
0.0975	0.0522	0.0590	0.0844	0.1226	0.1381	0.2103	0.2745
0.1378	0.1076	0.1240	0.1528	0.2022	0.2786	0.3193	0.3662
0.1780	0.1843	0.2263	0.2682	0.3142	0.4413	0.4565	0.4884
0.2183	0.2858	0.3713	0.4371	0.4823	0.5947	0.5861	0.6139
0.2585	0.3886	0.5104	0.5994	0.6425	0.7063	0.7035	0.7264
0.2988	0.4775	0.6257	0.7280	0.7728	0.7997	0.7956	0.8215
0.3390	0.5202	0.6889	0.7961	0.8468	0.8759	0.8666	0.8884
0.3793	0.5228	0.7191	0.8542	0.9065	0.9328	0.9221	0.9347
0.4195	0.4875	0.7250	0.8908	0.9514	0.9727	0.9613	0.9573
0.4598	0.4459	0.7069	0.8970	0.9628	0.9976	0.9851	0.9797
0.5000	0.4226	0.6979	0.8799	0.9439	1.0086	0.9945	0.9920
0.5403	0.4103	0.6706	0.8400	0.9070	1.0006	0.9933	0.9961
0.5805	0.4149	0.6459	0.7994	0.8741	0.9769	0.9747	0.9750
0.6207	0.4386	0.6226	0.7582	0.8396	0.9408	0.9375	0.9361
0.6610	0.4513	0.5783	0.6870	0.7649	0.8962	0.8941	0.8820

$z/W$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	16 $\mu\text{m}$	32 $\mu\text{m}$	48 $\mu\text{m}$	121 $\mu\text{m}$	169 $\mu\text{m}$	378 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.7012	0.4079	0.4829	0.5635	0.6426	0.8372	0.8384	0.8168
0.7415	0.2871	0.3231	0.3832	0.4712	0.7544	0.7616	0.7401
0.7817	0.1606	0.1696	0.2082	0.2914	0.6582	0.6529	0.6423
0.8220	0.0716	0.0698	0.0911	0.1521	0.5373	0.5292	0.5296
0.8622	0.0336	0.0264	0.0355	0.0714	0.4313	0.4129	0.4152
0.9025	0.0145	0.0095	0.0200	0.0465	0.3345	0.3203	0.3256
0.9427	0.0076	0.0051	0.0139	0.0320	0.2820	0.2586	0.2553
0.9830	0.0043	0.0047	0.0110	0.0229	0.2426	0.2113	0.1837

Table A.6: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 5$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	16 $\mu\text{m}$	48 $\mu\text{m}$	64 $\mu\text{m}$	80 $\mu\text{m}$	96 $\mu\text{m}$	281 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0170	0.0023	0.0000	0.0017	0.0077	0.0151	0.0396	0.0970
0.0573	0.0105	0.0056	0.0157	0.0326	0.0526	0.0870	0.1882
0.0975	0.0351	0.0370	0.1311	0.0469	0.0848	0.1230	0.2526
0.1378	0.0830	0.0405	0.1204	0.1834	0.2417	0.2766	0.3562
0.1780	0.1551	0.1438	0.2743	0.3458	0.4063	0.4376	0.4764
0.2183	0.2327	0.2582	0.4234	0.4869	0.5437	0.5716	0.5998
0.2585	0.3188	0.3765	0.5495	0.6015	0.6537	0.6785	0.7024
0.2988	0.4108	0.4957	0.6541	0.6973	0.7481	0.7731	0.7905
0.3390	0.5035	0.6037	0.7402	0.7728	0.8182	0.8443	0.8718
0.3793	0.5554	0.6689	0.7952	0.8281	0.8763	0.9040	0.9357
0.4195	0.5498	0.6815	0.8168	0.8595	0.9086	0.9406	0.9807
0.4598	0.4961	0.6506	0.8092	0.8700	0.9290	0.9656	0.9902
0.5000	0.4099	0.5644	0.7719	0.8625	0.9344	0.9767	0.9867
0.5403	0.3277	0.4530	0.7075	0.8344	0.9302	0.9743	0.9732
0.5805	0.2584	0.3395	0.6308	0.7958	0.9169	0.9624	0.9608
0.6207	0.2257	0.2832	0.5783	0.7541	0.8890	0.9337	0.9377
0.6610	0.1969	0.2402	0.5237	0.7011	0.8402	0.8920	0.8966
0.7012	0.1816	0.2164	0.4707	0.6358	0.7700	0.8230	0.8247
0.7415	0.1702	0.1814	0.3994	0.5505	0.6715	0.7267	0.7418
0.7817	0.1555	0.1388	0.3139	0.4446	0.5523	0.6074	0.6442
0.8220	0.1215	0.1148	0.2227	0.3328	0.4227	0.4768	0.5353
0.8622	0.0785	0.0839	0.1180	0.2136	0.2940	0.3478	0.4201
0.9025	0.0470	0.0442	0.1163	0.1201	0.1826	0.2298	0.3207
0.9427	0.0309	0.0236	0.0673	0.0513	0.1010	0.1435	0.2301
0.9830	0.0233	0.0198	0.0482	0.0130	0.0464	0.0774	0.1143

Table A.7: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 50$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	16 $\mu\text{m}$	64 $\mu\text{m}$	144 $\mu\text{m}$	314 $\mu\text{m}$	846 $\mu\text{m}$	1096 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0170	0.0138	0.0101	0.0112	0.0584	0.2650	0.0804	0.0579
0.0573	0.0360	0.0329	0.0269	0.0870	0.2745	0.0644	0.1037
0.0975	0.0674	0.0676	0.0835	0.1614	0.3197	0.1643	0.1936
0.1378	0.1162	0.1290	0.2003	0.2869	0.3957	0.3012	0.3000
0.1780	0.1719	0.2009	0.3513	0.4474	0.5061	0.4477	0.4331
0.2183	0.2328	0.2811	0.4831	0.5842	0.6121	0.5668	0.5652
0.2585	0.2878	0.3507	0.5750	0.6894	0.7084	0.6731	0.6794
0.2988	0.3407	0.4172	0.6325	0.7583	0.7821	0.7684	0.7828
0.3390	0.3757	0.4618	0.6772	0.8071	0.8381	0.8453	0.8641
0.3793	0.3795	0.4777	0.7016	0.8389	0.8816	0.8965	0.9264
0.4195	0.3540	0.4700	0.7153	0.8638	0.9070	0.9279	0.9658
0.4598	0.3209	0.4624	0.7240	0.8806	0.9212	0.9537	0.9868
0.5000	0.3079	0.4679	0.7364	0.8840	0.9227	0.9714	0.9987
0.5403	0.3131	0.4809	0.7483	0.8820	0.9205	0.9807	1.0023
0.5805	0.3370	0.4849	0.7498	0.8692	0.9084	0.9714	0.9946
0.6207	0.3430	0.4687	0.7344	0.8540	0.8858	0.9472	0.9697
0.6610	0.3340	0.4306	0.7048	0.8221	0.8441	0.8964	0.9219
0.7012	0.2822	0.3688	0.6626	0.7790	0.7884	0.8297	0.8569
0.7415	0.2090	0.2688	0.5933	0.7187	0.7173	0.7474	0.7821
0.7817	0.1357	0.1727	0.4930	0.6375	0.6266	0.6621	0.6916
0.8220	0.0853	0.0990	0.3723	0.5429	0.5245	0.5553	0.5929
0.8622	0.0615	0.0676	0.2551	0.4330	0.4232	0.4454	0.4927
0.9025	0.0422	0.0410	0.1618	0.3413	0.3378	0.3537	0.3979
0.9427	0.0260	0.0209	0.0989	0.2620	0.2850	0.3059	0.3162
0.9830	0.0159	0.0144	0.0628	0.1901	0.2653	0.2979	0.2492

Table A.8: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 200$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	16 $\mu\text{m}$	64 $\mu\text{m}$	282 $\mu\text{m}$	782 $\mu\text{m}$	1096 $\mu\text{m}$	2096 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0170	0.0000	0.0021	0.0140	0.2193	0.1007	0.2160	0.1075
0.0573	0.0193	0.0223	0.0352	0.2632	0.1386	0.1843	0.1779
0.0975	0.0405	0.0479	0.0841	0.3391	0.2287	0.2202	0.2827
0.1378	0.0737	0.0919	0.2060	0.4451	0.3573	0.3228	0.4191
0.1780	0.1149	0.1469	0.3529	0.5610	0.4923	0.4621	0.5449
0.2183	0.1750	0.2174	0.4883	0.6538	0.6141	0.5935	0.6574

$z/W$	1 $\mu\text{m}$	16 $\mu\text{m}$	64 $\mu\text{m}$	282 $\mu\text{m}$	782 $\mu\text{m}$	1096 $\mu\text{m}$	2096 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.2585	0.2462	0.3024	0.5662	0.7128	0.7029	0.6983	0.7426
0.2988	0.3218	0.3901	0.6156	0.7479	0.7673	0.7766	0.8076
0.3390	0.3748	0.4548	0.6413	0.7678	0.8164	0.8345	0.8626
0.3793	0.3842	0.4702	0.6465	0.7796	0.8526	0.8757	0.9086
0.4195	0.3555	0.4498	0.6428	0.7863	0.8746	0.9000	0.9435
0.4598	0.3136	0.4171	0.6457	0.7891	0.8809	0.9139	0.9675
0.5000	0.2939	0.4042	0.6522	0.7871	0.8866	0.9214	0.9755
0.5403	0.2935	0.4064	0.6563	0.7855	0.8874	0.9200	0.9662
0.5805	0.3023	0.4080	0.6534	0.7835	0.8750	0.9117	0.9336
0.6207	0.2954	0.3888	0.6452	0.7795	0.8538	0.8891	0.8877
0.6610	0.2821	0.3615	0.6287	0.7656	0.8226	0.8558	0.8299
0.7012	0.2547	0.3250	0.6019	0.7380	0.7877	0.8058	0.7716
0.7415	0.2036	0.2558	0.5563	0.6986	0.7355	0.7382	0.6950
0.7817	0.1418	0.1779	0.4780	0.6443	0.6588	0.6535	0.5986
0.8220	0.0894	0.1081	0.3763	0.5680	0.5598	0.5565	0.4869
0.8622	0.0627	0.0761	0.2688	0.4658	0.4526	0.4670	0.3948
0.9025	0.0488	0.0543	0.1786	0.3609	0.3545	0.3893	0.3331
0.9427	0.0352	0.0357	0.1153	0.2685	0.2839	0.3254	0.2994
0.9830	0.0247	0.0241	0.0736	0.2068	0.2376	0.2729	0.2921

Table A.9: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 0.5$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	12 $\mu\text{m}$	43 $\mu\text{m}$	74 $\mu\text{m}$	105 $\mu\text{m}$	167 $\mu\text{m}$	322 $\mu\text{m}$	543 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0046	0.1552	0.1677	0.2032	0.2099	0.2014	0.1330	0.1585
0.0356	0.1914	0.2044	0.2308	0.2442	0.2584	0.1783	0.2020
0.0666	0.2562	0.2601	0.2756	0.2920	0.3323	0.2548	0.2758
0.0975	0.3343	0.3344	0.3413	0.3545	0.4054	0.3543	0.3675
0.1285	0.3978	0.4059	0.4192	0.4330	0.4742	0.4622	0.4541
0.1594	0.4397	0.4687	0.5002	0.5225	0.5432	0.5500	0.5281
0.1904	0.4721	0.5211	0.5765	0.6126	0.6207	0.6248	0.5996
0.2214	0.5176	0.5844	0.6538	0.6944	0.6921	0.6887	0.6746
0.2523	0.5777	0.6502	0.7164	0.7581	0.7595	0.7480	0.7414
0.2833	0.6341	0.7076	0.7710	0.8119	0.8193	0.8017	0.7984
0.3142	0.6866	0.7522	0.8151	0.8552	0.8748	0.8485	0.8427
0.3452	0.7222	0.7876	0.8572	0.8971	0.9167	0.8916	0.8861
0.3762	0.7448	0.8092	0.8836	0.9265	0.9445	0.9282	0.9230
0.4071	0.7564	0.8218	0.8983	0.9456	0.9645	0.9585	0.9568

$z/W$	12 $\mu\text{m}$	43 $\mu\text{m}$	74 $\mu\text{m}$	105 $\mu\text{m}$	167 $\mu\text{m}$	322 $\mu\text{m}$	543 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.4381	0.7692	0.8269	0.9014	0.9483	0.9782	0.9803	0.9812
0.4690	0.7621	0.8279	0.9054	0.9514	0.9882	0.9944	0.9941
0.5000	0.7341	0.8209	0.9070	0.9529	0.9881	0.9986	0.9998
0.5310	0.6948	0.8016	0.9036	0.9534	0.9819	0.9910	0.9928
0.5619	0.6784	0.7857	0.8882	0.9440	0.9685	0.9783	0.9812
0.5929	0.6792	0.7737	0.8692	0.9249	0.9479	0.9620	0.9660
0.6238	0.6695	0.7595	0.8454	0.9033	0.9229	0.9435	0.9444
0.6548	0.6552	0.7400	0.8207	0.8726	0.8893	0.9129	0.9174
0.6858	0.6374	0.7116	0.7827	0.8323	0.8524	0.8777	0.8778
0.7167	0.6293	0.6872	0.7430	0.7815	0.8009	0.8418	0.8344
0.7477	0.6116	0.6563	0.6950	0.7243	0.7413	0.7986	0.7820
0.7786	0.5796	0.6170	0.6458	0.6648	0.6712	0.7423	0.7200
0.8096	0.5235	0.5525	0.5747	0.5958	0.5973	0.6765	0.6503
0.8406	0.4551	0.4755	0.4913	0.5100	0.5133	0.6068	0.5794
0.8715	0.3706	0.3738	0.3769	0.3951	0.4182	0.5305	0.5048
0.9025	0.2870	0.2677	0.2536	0.2644	0.3142	0.4319	0.4263
0.9334	0.2098	0.1781	0.1621	0.1721	0.2291	0.3242	0.3547
0.9644	0.1528	0.1303	0.1224	0.1334	0.1791	0.2313	0.3000
0.9954	0.1188	0.1160	0.1199	0.1293	0.1539	0.1732	0.2558

Table A.10: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 5$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	12 $\mu\text{m}$	43 $\mu\text{m}$	74 $\mu\text{m}$	105 $\mu\text{m}$	167 $\mu\text{m}$	574 $\mu\text{m}$	1291 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.0046	0.0637	0.0518	0.0576	0.0658	0.0983	0.1316	0.1171
0.0356	0.0897	0.0739	0.0769	0.0913	0.1370	0.1745	0.1392
0.0666	0.1349	0.1118	0.1103	0.1273	0.1983	0.2399	0.1838
0.0975	0.1821	0.1600	0.1609	0.1841	0.2599	0.3360	0.2584
0.1285	0.2173	0.1995	0.2078	0.2409	0.3277	0.4437	0.3556
0.1594	0.2484	0.2481	0.2691	0.3112	0.4003	0.5381	0.4706
0.1904	0.2914	0.3075	0.3433	0.3982	0.5005	0.6119	0.5756
0.2214	0.3541	0.3920	0.4497	0.5169	0.6088	0.6793	0.6646
0.2523	0.4112	0.4696	0.5531	0.6415	0.7144	0.7447	0.7351
0.2833	0.4655	0.5450	0.6474	0.7425	0.7988	0.8019	0.7977
0.3142	0.5219	0.6104	0.7225	0.8069	0.8595	0.8479	0.8469
0.3452	0.5789	0.6683	0.7798	0.8477	0.9002	0.8887	0.8901
0.3762	0.6258	0.7094	0.8097	0.8685	0.9298	0.9241	0.9247
0.4071	0.6556	0.7348	0.8265	0.8876	0.9547	0.9549	0.9577
0.5000	0.6399	0.7252	0.8103	0.8810	0.9616	0.9926	1.0040

$z/W$	12 $\mu\text{m}$	43 $\mu\text{m}$	74 $\mu\text{m}$	105 $\mu\text{m}$	167 $\mu\text{m}$	574 $\mu\text{m}$	1291 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$						
0.5310	0.6106	0.7093	0.8024	0.8802	0.9545	0.9908	0.9969
0.5619	0.6029	0.7010	0.7979	0.8726	0.9432	0.9818	0.9904
0.5929	0.6103	0.7021	0.7971	0.8669	0.9330	0.9657	0.9822
0.6238	0.6187	0.7032	0.7940	0.8565	0.9136	0.9485	0.9689
0.6548	0.6133	0.6933	0.7755	0.8339	0.8803	0.9248	0.9459
0.6858	0.6014	0.6672	0.7367	0.7953	0.8355	0.8925	0.9088
0.7167	0.5710	0.6283	0.6890	0.7453	0.7812	0.8473	0.8647
0.7477	0.5313	0.5877	0.6437	0.6977	0.7242	0.7931	0.8107
0.7786	0.4800	0.5361	0.5901	0.6368	0.6535	0.7370	0.7479
0.8096	0.4357	0.4782	0.5205	0.5538	0.5688	0.6698	0.6698
0.8406	0.3717	0.3966	0.4258	0.4499	0.4736	0.5985	0.5773
0.8715	0.2987	0.3023	0.3103	0.3291	0.3670	0.5100	0.4741
0.9025	0.2143	0.1973	0.1897	0.2087	0.2566	0.4143	0.3698
0.9334	0.1453	0.1166	0.1051	0.1208	0.1617	0.3128	0.2804
0.9644	0.0990	0.0734	0.0656	0.0753	0.1021	0.2327	0.2048
0.9954	0.0714	0.0579	0.0568	0.0609	0.0735	0.1790	0.1454

Table A.11: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 50$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	30 $\mu\text{m}$	166 $\mu\text{m}$	326 $\mu\text{m}$	598 $\mu\text{m}$	$z/W$	1028 $\mu\text{m}$	1662 $\mu\text{m}$	2297 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$		$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$
0.0062	0.1386	0.08083	0.1164	0.1052	0.0107	0.1168	0.0990	0.1006
0.0402	0.2845	0.171308	0.2006	0.1914	0.0444	0.1946	0.1845	0.1731
0.0743	0.4248	0.287569	0.3092	0.3013	0.0782	0.3095	0.2993	0.2768
0.1084	0.5138	0.406238	0.4182	0.4098	0.1119	0.4319	0.4183	0.3956
0.1424	0.5642	0.508506	0.5115	0.5026	0.1457	0.5371	0.5243	0.5078
0.1765	0.5921	0.591919	0.5885	0.5869	0.1794	0.6249	0.6200	0.6088
0.2105	0.6036	0.65483	0.6551	0.6597	0.2132	0.6965	0.7014	0.6938
0.2446	0.6044	0.702226	0.7091	0.7221	0.2469	0.7575	0.7671	0.7628
0.2786	0.6001	0.731136	0.7519	0.7711	0.2806	0.8076	0.8198	0.8161
0.3127	0.5993	0.751272	0.7829	0.8097	0.3144	0.8443	0.8674	0.8639
0.3467	0.5966	0.762566	0.8047	0.8403	0.3481	0.8782	0.9032	0.9071
0.3808	0.5978	0.768089	0.8180	0.8637	0.3819	0.9055	0.9354	0.9429
0.4149	0.5970	0.769119	0.8290	0.8831	0.4156	0.9305	0.9562	0.9672
0.4489	0.5949	0.766451	0.8339	0.8949	0.4494	0.9399	0.9752	0.9837
0.4830	0.5905	0.765085	0.8374	0.9018	0.4831	0.9434	0.9787	0.9941
0.5170	0.5880	0.763919	0.8380	0.9012	0.5169	0.9396	0.9792	0.9944

$z/W$	30 $\mu\text{m}$	166 $\mu\text{m}$	326 $\mu\text{m}$	598 $\mu\text{m}$	$z/W$	1028 $\mu\text{m}$	1662 $\mu\text{m}$	2297 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$		$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$
0.5511	0.5872	0.763736	0.8383	0.9029	0.5506	0.9330	0.9745	0.9888
0.5851	0.5902	0.763745	0.8346	0.8994	0.5844	0.9200	0.9658	0.9765
0.6192	0.5901	0.763562	0.8271	0.8913	0.6181	0.8991	0.9446	0.9581
0.6533	0.5882	0.763783	0.8186	0.8749	0.6519	0.8711	0.9119	0.9254
0.6873	0.5841	0.759251	0.8069	0.8511	0.6856	0.8338	0.8714	0.8809
0.7214	0.5819	0.748494	0.7893	0.8199	0.7194	0.7862	0.8230	0.8287
0.7554	0.5811	0.729681	0.7594	0.7778	0.7531	0.7325	0.7710	0.7709
0.7895	0.5766	0.696791	0.7190	0.7278	0.7868	0.6690	0.7064	0.7046
0.8235	0.5744	0.648923	0.6677	0.6715	0.8206	0.5924	0.6236	0.6230
0.8576	0.5647	0.585068	0.6052	0.6024	0.8543	0.4993	0.5249	0.5303
0.8916	0.5422	0.506485	0.5290	0.5270	0.8881	0.3883	0.4109	0.4281
0.9257	0.4942	0.404162	0.4372	0.4375	0.9218	0.2754	0.2925	0.3153
0.9598	0.4188	0.291793	0.3321	0.3360	0.9556	0.1736	0.1796	0.2034
0.9938	0.3025	0.180824	0.2122	0.2254	0.9893	0.1042	0.0961	0.1161

Table A.12: Velocity Profiles,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 200$ , Distilled Water

$z/W$	30 $\mu\text{m}$	$z/W$	564 $\mu\text{m}$	$z/W$	1696 $\mu\text{m}$	2196 $\mu\text{m}$	3196 $\mu\text{m}$	4196 $\mu\text{m}$	4926 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$		$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$		$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$
0.0062	0.0062	0.0232	0.2692	0.0107	0.1541	0.1086	0.1613	0.1356	0.1654
0.0402	0.0402	0.0573	0.3828	0.0444	0.2271	0.1868	0.2644	0.2158	0.2700
0.0743	0.0743	0.0913	0.4863	0.0782	0.3391	0.3001	0.3881	0.3283	0.3880
0.1084	0.1084	0.1254	0.5705	0.1119	0.4520	0.4260	0.5005	0.4457	0.4996
0.1424	0.1424	0.1594	0.6314	0.1457	0.5523	0.5361	0.5930	0.5527	0.5924
0.1765	0.1765	0.1935	0.6761	0.1794	0.6329	0.6243	0.6710	0.6412	0.6776
0.2105	0.2105	0.2276	0.7060	0.2132	0.7013	0.6947	0.7358	0.7145	0.7454
0.2446	0.2446	0.2616	0.7231	0.2469	0.7509	0.7487	0.7878	0.7720	0.8036
0.2786	0.2786	0.2957	0.7319	0.2806	0.7856	0.7920	0.8306	0.8222	0.8509
0.3127	0.3127	0.3297	0.7374	0.3144	0.8071	0.8248	0.8626	0.8636	0.8890
0.3467	0.3467	0.3638	0.7408	0.3481	0.8219	0.8464	0.8887	0.8982	0.9229
0.3808	0.3808	0.3978	0.7430	0.3819	0.8343	0.8615	0.9034	0.9232	0.9458
0.4149	0.4149	0.4319	0.7440	0.4156	0.8428	0.8727	0.9149	0.9411	0.9660
0.4489	0.4489	0.4659	0.7445	0.4494	0.8481	0.8813	0.9193	0.9523	0.9780
0.4830	0.4830	0.5000	0.7439	0.4831	0.8497	0.8846	0.9243	0.9571	0.9875
0.5170	0.5170	0.5341	0.7440	0.5169	0.8485	0.8833	0.9203	0.9516	0.9879
0.5511	0.5511	0.5681	0.7438	0.5506	0.8468	0.8792	0.9121	0.9412	0.9780
0.5851	0.5851	0.6022	0.7439	0.5844	0.8432	0.8723	0.9010	0.9265	0.9612
0.6192	0.6192	0.6362	0.7425	0.6181	0.8358	0.8609	0.8853	0.9106	0.9352
0.6533	0.6533	0.6703	0.7408	0.6519	0.8255	0.8453	0.8616	0.8837	0.9036

$z/W$	30 $\mu\text{m}$	$z/W$	564 $\mu\text{m}$	$z/W$	1696 $\mu\text{m}$	2196 $\mu\text{m}$	3196 $\mu\text{m}$	4196 $\mu\text{m}$	4926 $\mu\text{m}$
	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$		$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$		$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$	$u/u_{\text{max,FD}}$
0.6873	0.6873	0.7043	0.7364	0.6856	0.8086	0.8254	0.8248	0.8492	0.8629
0.7214	0.7214	0.7384	0.7268	0.7194	0.7849	0.7974	0.7791	0.8066	0.8121
0.7554	0.7554	0.7724	0.7114	0.7531	0.7484	0.7543	0.7248	0.7576	0.7486
0.7895	0.7895	0.8065	0.6857	0.7868	0.7008	0.7020	0.6552	0.6899	0.6672
0.8235	0.8235	0.8406	0.6467	0.8206	0.6346	0.6357	0.5769	0.6080	0.5742
0.8576	0.8576	0.8746	0.5884	0.8543	0.5542	0.5601	0.4766	0.5110	0.4679
0.8916	0.8916	0.9087	0.5130	0.8881	0.4500	0.4620	0.3652	0.4044	0.3511
0.9257	0.9257	0.9427	0.4098	0.9218	0.3315	0.3461	0.2490	0.2848	0.2303
0.9598	0.9598	0.9768	0.2925	0.9556	0.2161	0.2286	0.1568	0.1787	0.1323
0.9938	0.9938			0.9893	0.1351	0.1376	0.0961	0.1125	0.0756

## A.2 Channel Centerline Velocity Development

Table A.13: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 0.476$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0905	0.5398	2.3214	1.0133
0.4092	0.7052	2.6401	1.0090
0.7279	0.8340	2.9588	1.0079
1.0466	0.9094	3.2775	1.0118
1.3653	0.9625	3.5962	1.0140
1.6840	0.9987	3.9149	1.0093
2.0027	1.0161	4.2337	1.0087

Table A.14: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 4.76$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0090	0.1904	0.3278	0.9932	0.6299	1.0149
0.0409	0.3716	0.3596	0.9901	0.6617	1.0151
0.0728	0.6084	0.3915	0.9787	0.6936	1.0133
0.1047	0.8231	0.4234	0.9732	0.7255	1.0093
0.1365	0.9304	0.4386	1.0177	0.7574	1.0085
0.1684	0.9773	0.4705	1.0147	0.7892	1.0085
0.2003	0.9956	0.5024	1.0125		
0.2321	0.9981	0.5343	1.0159		
0.2640	0.9722	0.5661	1.0135		
0.2959	0.9926	0.5980	1.0125		

Table A.15: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 50$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0009	0.3218	0.0478	0.9817	0.0978	0.9942
0.0039	0.5102	0.0509	0.9807	0.1009	0.9963
0.0069	0.6674	0.0539	0.9755	0.1039	1.0009
0.0100	0.7853	0.0569	0.9792	0.1069	1.0031
0.0130	0.8469	0.0600	0.9812	0.1100	1.0023
0.0160	0.8971	0.0630	0.9861	0.1130	1.0002
0.0191	0.9237	0.0660	0.9898	0.1160	0.9987
0.0221	0.9417	0.0691	0.9895	0.1191	0.9971
0.0251	0.9506	0.0721	0.9878	0.1221	0.9953
0.0282	0.9568	0.0751	0.9873	0.1251	0.9931
0.0312	0.9579	0.0782	0.9891	0.1282	0.9944
0.0327	0.9649	0.0812	0.9890	0.1312	0.9980
0.0357	0.9716	0.0847	0.9899	0.1342	1.0034
0.0387	0.9780	0.0881	0.9899	0.1373	1.0070
0.0418	0.9794	0.0918	0.9899	0.1403	1.0081
0.0448	0.9850	0.0948	0.9901		

Table A.16: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 100 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 89$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0005	0.2273	0.0269	0.8967	0.0533	0.9766
0.0022	0.2969	0.0286	0.8984	0.0550	0.9805
0.0039	0.4598	0.0303	0.8966	0.0567	0.9822
0.0056	0.6174	0.0320	0.8995	0.0584	0.9834
0.0073	0.7363	0.0337	0.9036	0.0601	0.9818
0.0090	0.7792	0.0354	0.9050	0.0618	0.9867
0.0107	0.8168	0.0371	0.9074	0.0635	0.9903
0.0124	0.8400	0.0388	0.9069	0.0652	0.9894
0.0141	0.8504	0.0405	0.9096	0.0669	0.9868
0.0158	0.8586	0.0422	0.9139	0.0686	0.9874
0.0175	0.8666	0.0439	0.9164	0.0703	0.9920
0.0183	0.8725	0.0447	0.9500	0.0720	0.9972
0.0201	0.8822	0.0464	0.9553	0.0737	0.9977
0.0218	0.8900	0.0481	0.9645	0.0754	1.0024
0.0235	0.8934	0.0498	0.9706	0.0771	1.0036
0.0252	0.8972	0.0516	0.9736	0.0788	1.0070

Table A.17: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 0.5$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0000	0.4226	3.0362	0.9941	6.0099	0.9891	8.9923	0.9947
0.1412	0.6979	3.1774	0.9906	6.1511	0.9838	9.1281	0.9946
0.2824	0.8799	3.2520	0.9914	6.2924	0.9832	9.2639	0.9954
0.4237	0.9439	3.3933	0.9892	6.4336	0.9819	9.3996	0.9914
0.5649	0.9517	3.5345	0.9875	6.5748	0.9877	9.5354	0.9906
0.7061	0.9595	3.6757	0.9867	6.7160	0.9909	9.6712	0.9934
0.8473	0.9673	3.8169	0.9850	6.8572	0.9944	9.8070	1.0010
0.9886	0.9751	3.9581	0.9746	6.9985	0.9992	9.9428	0.9983
1.0591	0.9829	4.0994	0.9715	7.1397	0.9981		
1.2003	0.9908	4.2406	0.9744	7.2809	0.9972		
1.3415	0.9986	4.3818	0.9907	7.4221	0.9940		
1.4827	0.9945	4.5230	0.9922	7.5633	0.9943		
1.6239	0.9959	4.6643	0.9922	7.6344	0.9813		
1.7652	0.9968	4.8055	0.9853	7.7702	0.9864		
1.9064	0.9970	4.9467	0.9815	7.9060	0.9924		
2.0476	0.9923	5.0879	0.9742	8.0418	0.9923		
2.1888	0.9864	5.2291	0.9822	8.1775	0.9827		
2.3301	0.9803	5.3704	0.9855	8.3133	0.9742		
2.4713	0.9753	5.4450	0.9890	8.4491	0.9797		
2.6125	0.9787	5.5862	0.9892	8.5849	0.9910		
2.7537	0.9847	5.7275	0.9908	8.7207	1.0001		
2.8949	0.9898	5.8687	0.9907	8.8565	0.9988		

Table A.18: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 5$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0000	0.3420	0.3018	0.9930	0.6042	1.0301	0.8992	1.0129
0.0155	0.5644	0.3173	0.9998	0.6196	1.0288	0.9146	1.0030
0.0310	0.6840	0.3328	0.9927	0.6351	1.0277	0.9301	1.0012
0.0464	0.7720	0.3483	0.9850	0.6506	1.0292	0.9456	1.0052
0.0619	0.8626	0.3565	0.9972	0.6661	1.0291	0.9611	1.0130
0.0774	0.9345	0.3720	0.9992	0.6743	1.0178	0.9766	1.0134
0.0929	0.9769	0.3874	1.0046	0.6897	1.0065	0.9920	1.0164
0.1084	0.9793	0.4029	1.0055	0.7052	0.9953	1.0075	1.0216
0.1238	0.9818	0.4184	1.0036	0.7207	0.9840	1.0230	1.0251
0.1393	0.9843	0.4339	0.9955	0.7362	0.9848	1.0385	1.0205
0.1548	0.9868	0.4494	1.0007	0.7517	0.9859	1.0540	1.0176
0.1703	0.9785	0.4648	1.0172	0.7671	0.9810	1.0694	1.0197
0.1858	0.9741	0.4803	1.0150	0.7826	0.9794	1.0849	1.0273
0.1935	0.9962	0.4958	1.0196	0.7981	0.9818	1.1004	1.0266
0.2090	0.9991	0.5113	1.0170	0.8136	0.9838	1.1159	1.0142
0.2244	0.9977	0.5268	1.0136	0.8291	0.9908	1.1314	0.9908
0.2399	1.0005	0.5422	1.0163	0.8372	0.9979	1.1468	0.9778
0.2554	0.9938	0.5577	1.0040	0.8527	1.0007		
0.2709	0.9867	0.5732	1.0122	0.8682	1.0071		
0.2864	0.9847	0.5887	1.0187	0.8837	1.0129		

Table A.19: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 50$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0000	0.3131	0.0256	0.9107	0.0513	0.9522	0.0769	0.9714
0.0015	0.4809	0.0271	0.9197	0.0527	0.9462	0.0784	0.9754
0.0029	0.5938	0.0285	0.9227	0.0542	0.9539	0.0798	0.9818
0.0044	0.6787	0.0300	0.9197	0.0557	0.9594	0.0813	0.9911
0.0059	0.7483	0.0315	0.9177	0.0564	0.9658	0.0828	0.9924
0.0073	0.8054	0.0329	0.9210	0.0579	0.9692	0.0842	0.9886
0.0088	0.8336	0.0337	0.9143	0.0594	0.9725	0.0857	0.9873
0.0102	0.8533	0.0352	0.9210	0.0608	0.9715	0.0865	0.9862
0.0110	0.8398	0.0366	0.9317	0.0623	0.9637	0.0879	0.9856
0.0124	0.8437	0.0381	0.9364	0.0637	0.9601	0.0894	0.9970
0.0139	0.8512	0.0396	0.9321	0.0652	0.9638	0.0909	1.0063
0.0154	0.8567	0.0410	0.9258	0.0667	0.9724	0.0923	1.0117
0.0168	0.8595	0.0425	0.9272	0.0681	0.9709	0.0938	1.0151
0.0183	0.8683	0.0439	0.9317	0.0696	0.9617	0.0953	1.0080
0.0198	0.8828	0.0454	0.9390	0.0711	0.9553	0.0967	1.0015
0.0212	0.8964	0.0469	0.9468	0.0725	0.9554	0.0982	0.9972
0.0227	0.9004	0.0483	0.9549	0.0740	0.9645	0.0996	0.9987
0.0241	0.9022	0.0498	0.9553	0.0755	0.9705	0.1011	1.0019

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.1019	0.9946	0.1165	0.9983	0.1312	0.9830	0.1451	1.0060
0.1033	0.9969	0.1180	0.9962	0.1319	0.9912	0.1466	1.0059
0.1048	0.9999	0.1194	0.9978	0.1334	0.9837	0.1473	1.0048
0.1063	0.9996	0.1209	0.9916	0.1349	0.9932	0.1488	1.0030
0.1077	1.0021	0.1224	0.9884	0.1363	1.0114	0.1503	1.0000
0.1092	0.9946	0.1238	0.9821	0.1378	1.0199	0.1517	0.9975
0.1107	0.9889	0.1253	0.9798	0.1392	1.0233	0.1532	0.9940
0.1121	0.9892	0.1268	0.9781	0.1407	1.0201	0.1547	0.9949
0.1136	0.9945	0.1282	0.9823	0.1422	1.0169	0.1561	0.9897
0.1151	0.9947	0.1297	0.9816	0.1436	1.0117		

Table A.20: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 200 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 200$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0000	0.2939	0.0106	0.8104	0.0214	0.9069	0.0320	0.9573
0.0004	0.4042	0.0110	0.8171	0.0218	0.9007	0.0322	0.9633
0.0008	0.4915	0.0113	0.8242	0.0221	0.8967	0.0326	0.9665
0.0011	0.5747	0.0117	0.8260	0.0223	0.9081	0.0329	0.9707
0.0015	0.6522	0.0121	0.8253	0.0227	0.9129	0.0333	0.9730
0.0019	0.7058	0.0125	0.8264	0.0231	0.9161	0.0337	0.9622
0.0023	0.7316	0.0129	0.8287	0.0235	0.9180	0.0341	0.9430
0.0026	0.7329	0.0132	0.8297	0.0238	0.9214	0.0344	0.9383
0.0028	0.7341	0.0136	0.8305	0.0242	0.9246	0.0348	0.9486
0.0032	0.7359	0.0140	0.8334	0.0246	0.9263	0.0352	0.9684
0.0036	0.7420	0.0144	0.8377	0.0250	0.9244	0.0356	0.9689
0.0040	0.7487	0.0147	0.8408	0.0254	0.9227	0.0360	0.9639
0.0043	0.7562	0.0151	0.8437	0.0257	0.9214	0.0363	0.9565
0.0047	0.7588	0.0155	0.8447	0.0261	0.9233	0.0367	0.9558
0.0051	0.7647	0.0159	0.8465	0.0263	0.9395	0.0371	0.9599
0.0055	0.7710	0.0163	0.8475	0.0267	0.9410	0.0375	0.9631
0.0059	0.7785	0.0165	0.8634	0.0271	0.9444	0.0378	0.9637
0.0062	0.7840	0.0168	0.8622	0.0274	0.9475	0.0380	0.9630
0.0066	0.7871	0.0172	0.8643	0.0278	0.9454	0.0384	0.9625
0.0070	0.7904	0.0176	0.8724	0.0282	0.9307	0.0388	0.9603
0.0074	0.7945	0.0180	0.8800	0.0286	0.9259	0.0392	0.9605
0.0077	0.7972	0.0184	0.8866	0.0290	0.9312	0.0396	0.9594
0.0081	0.7986	0.0187	0.8915	0.0293	0.9473	0.0399	0.9572
0.0085	0.8020	0.0191	0.8922	0.0297	0.9552	0.0403	0.9589
0.0089	0.8076	0.0195	0.8953	0.0301	0.9578	0.0407	0.9614
0.0093	0.8093	0.0199	0.8984	0.0305	0.9597	0.0411	0.9677
0.0096	0.8083	0.0202	0.9030	0.0308	0.9598	0.0414	0.9646
0.0100	0.8088	0.0206	0.9061	0.0312	0.9579	0.0418	0.9591
0.0104	0.8122	0.0210	0.9079	0.0316	0.9549	0.0422	0.9537

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0426	0.9538	0.0570	0.9871	0.0712	0.9780	0.0855	0.9954
0.0430	0.9643	0.0573	0.9863	0.0715	0.9719	0.0859	0.9990
0.0433	0.9483	0.0575	0.9784	0.0719	0.9646	0.0863	0.9975
0.0437	0.9541	0.0579	0.9730	0.0723	0.9570	0.0867	0.9963
0.0439	0.9733	0.0583	0.9730	0.0727	0.9495	0.0869	0.9956
0.0443	0.9665	0.0587	0.9775	0.0731	0.9520	0.0873	0.9980
0.0447	0.9662	0.0591	0.9868	0.0733	0.9644	0.0876	0.9964
0.0450	0.9674	0.0594	0.9858	0.0736	0.9678	0.0880	0.9894
0.0454	0.9692	0.0598	0.9847	0.0740	0.9681	0.0884	0.9917
0.0458	0.9649	0.0602	0.9837	0.0744	0.9717	0.0888	0.9927
0.0462	0.9593	0.0606	0.9771	0.0748	0.9756	0.0892	0.9955
0.0466	0.9523	0.0609	0.9826	0.0751	0.9774	0.0895	0.9870
0.0469	0.9471	0.0613	0.9819	0.0755	0.9804	0.0899	0.9805
0.0473	0.9490	0.0615	0.9811	0.0759	0.9795	0.0903	0.9823
0.0477	0.9557	0.0619	0.9795	0.0763	0.9802	0.0907	0.9866
0.0481	0.9574	0.0623	0.9735	0.0767	0.9718	0.0910	0.9968
0.0484	0.9595	0.0627	0.9716	0.0770	0.9664	0.0914	1.0010
0.0488	0.9678	0.0630	0.9702	0.0774	0.9635	0.0918	1.0069
0.0492	0.9755	0.0634	0.9697	0.0778	0.9726	0.0922	1.0080
0.0496	0.9739	0.0638	0.9669	0.0782	0.9755	0.0926	1.0060
0.0500	0.9596	0.0642	0.9684	0.0785	0.9838	0.0928	1.0034
0.0503	0.9525	0.0645	0.9745	0.0789	0.9774	0.0931	1.0001
0.0505	0.9644	0.0649	0.9824	0.0791	0.9739	0.0935	0.9996
0.0509	0.9705	0.0653	0.9803	0.0795	0.9766	0.0939	1.0027
0.0513	0.9752	0.0657	0.9779	0.0799	0.9842	0.0943	1.0067
0.0517	0.9726	0.0661	0.9711	0.0803	0.9911	0.0946	1.0066
0.0520	0.9818	0.0664	0.9754	0.0806	0.9931	0.0950	1.0032
0.0524	0.9842	0.0668	0.9756	0.0810	0.9942	0.0954	0.9996
0.0528	0.9829	0.0672	0.9731	0.0814	1.0018	0.0958	1.0003
0.0532	0.9785	0.0674	0.9830	0.0818	1.0054	0.0962	1.0006
0.0536	0.9827	0.0678	0.9858	0.0821	1.0113	0.0965	1.0035
0.0539	0.9876	0.0681	0.9848	0.0825	1.0054	0.0969	1.0003
0.0543	0.9862	0.0685	0.9837	0.0829	0.9979	0.0973	0.9992
0.0547	0.9834	0.0689	0.9827	0.0833	0.9925	0.0977	0.9992
0.0551	0.9816	0.0693	0.9817	0.0837	0.9858	0.0980	0.9971
0.0555	0.9814	0.0697	0.9662	0.0840	0.9820	0.0984	0.9953
0.0558	0.9842	0.0700	0.9602	0.0844	0.9801		
0.0562	0.9863	0.0704	0.9682	0.0848	0.9839		
0.0566	0.9889	0.0708	0.9826	0.0852	0.9874		

Table A.21: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 0.5$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0529	0.7621	2.1943	0.9968	4.3356	0.9876	6.4769	1.0199
0.1855	0.8279	2.3269	0.9998	4.4682	0.9914	6.6095	1.0166
0.3181	0.9054	2.4594	0.9982	4.6008	0.9953	6.7421	1.0100
0.4507	0.9514	2.5920	0.9966	4.7334	0.9995	6.8747	1.0085
0.5833	0.9782	2.7246	0.9972	4.8660	1.0001	7.0073	1.0164
0.7159	0.9882	2.8572	1.0033	4.9985	0.9986	7.1399	1.0307
0.8485	0.9879	2.9898	1.0064	5.1311	1.0057	7.2725	1.0353
0.9811	0.9862	3.1224	1.0050	5.2637	1.0074	7.4051	1.0334
1.1137	0.9931	3.2550	1.0024	5.3963	1.0048	7.5376	1.0306
1.2463	0.9947	3.3876	0.9984	5.5289	0.9967	7.6702	1.0263
1.2661	0.9901	3.5202	0.9913	5.5488	1.0110	7.8028	1.0203
1.3987	0.9917	3.6528	0.9808	5.6814	1.0173	7.9354	1.0189
1.5313	0.9944	3.6726	0.9873	5.8140	1.0250	8.0680	1.0185
1.6639	0.9919	3.8052	0.9873	5.9466	1.0232	8.2006	1.0231
1.7965	0.9914	3.9378	0.9923	6.0791	1.0183		
1.9291	0.9891	4.0704	0.9923	6.2117	1.0148		
2.0617	0.9932	4.2030	0.9892	6.3443	1.0161		

Table A.22: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 5$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.6682	0.0049	1.0001	0.2049	1.0090	0.4049	1.0047	0.6049
0.7397	0.0173	0.9954	0.2173	1.0058	0.4173	1.0035	0.6173
0.8210	0.0297	0.9926	0.2297	1.0051	0.4297	1.0040	0.6297
0.8882	0.0421	0.9914	0.2421	1.0063	0.4421	1.0014	0.6421
0.9373	0.0545	0.9929	0.2545	1.0082	0.4545	1.0026	0.6545
0.9702	0.0669	0.9937	0.2669	1.0079	0.4669	1.0017	0.6669
0.9841	0.0792	0.9890	0.2792	1.0070	0.4792	1.0051	0.6792
0.9876	0.0916	0.9884	0.2916	1.0085	0.4916	1.0063	0.6916
0.9945	0.1040	0.9831	0.3040	1.0078	0.5040	1.0060	0.7040
0.9956	0.1164	0.9809	0.3164	1.0040	0.5164	1.0049	0.7164
0.9908	0.1183	0.9935	0.3183	1.0070	0.5183	1.0005	0.7183
0.9915	0.1306	0.9937	0.3306	1.0045	0.5306	1.0020	0.7306
0.9923	0.1430	0.9952	0.3430	1.0045	0.5430	1.0046	0.7430
0.9919	0.1554	0.9953	0.3554	1.0006	0.5554	1.0051	0.7554
0.9923	0.1678	0.9972	0.3678	1.0008	0.5678	1.0052	0.7678
0.9980	0.1802	1.0008	0.3802	1.0000	0.5802	1.0059	0.7802
0.9995	0.1926	1.0070	0.3926	0.9991	0.5926	1.0000	0.7926

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
1.0082	0.8049	0.9890	0.9430	0.9849	1.0916	1.0045	1.2297
1.0058	0.8173	0.9838	0.9554	0.9818	1.1040	1.0043	1.2421
1.0066	0.8297	0.9836	0.9678	0.9785	1.1164	1.0068	1.2545
1.0017	0.8421	0.9834	0.9802	0.9991	1.1183	1.0048	1.2669
1.0054	0.8545	0.9832	0.9926	1.0109	1.1306	1.0034	1.2792
1.0034	0.8669	0.9830	1.0049	1.0085	1.1430	0.9947	1.2916
1.0024	0.8792	0.9829	1.0173	1.0056	1.1554	0.9905	1.3040
1.0048	0.8916	0.9841	1.0297	1.0049	1.1678	0.9977	1.3164
1.0080	0.9040	0.9830	1.0421	1.0064	1.1802	0.9970	1.3288
1.0088	0.9164	0.9855	1.0545	1.0083	1.1926	0.9889	1.3412
0.9878	0.9183	0.9860	1.0669	1.0089	1.2049	0.9826	1.3536
0.9905	0.9306	0.9867	1.0792	1.0052	1.2173	0.9809	1.3659

Table A.23: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 50$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0012	0.5880	0.0307	0.9259	0.0597	0.9677	0.0892	0.9900
0.0026	0.6341	0.0321	0.9299	0.0611	0.9728	0.0903	1.0008
0.0039	0.6813	0.0335	0.9327	0.0624	0.9645	0.0916	1.0035
0.0053	0.7254	0.0348	0.9341	0.0638	0.9621	0.0930	1.0034
0.0067	0.7639	0.0362	0.9337	0.0651	0.9671	0.0943	0.9984
0.0080	0.7901	0.0376	0.9329	0.0665	0.9792	0.0957	0.9944
0.0094	0.8105	0.0384	0.9336	0.0678	0.9853	0.0970	0.9952
0.0103	0.8292	0.0397	0.9362	0.0692	0.9865	0.0984	1.0015
0.0117	0.8325	0.0411	0.9396	0.0703	0.9764	0.0997	0.9998
0.0130	0.8380	0.0424	0.9373	0.0716	0.9758	0.1011	0.9987
0.0144	0.8478	0.0438	0.9376	0.0730	0.9780	0.1024	0.9957
0.0158	0.8582	0.0451	0.9373	0.0743	0.9820	0.1038	0.9983
0.0171	0.8661	0.0465	0.9423	0.0757	0.9863	0.1051	0.9980
0.0185	0.8759	0.0478	0.9463	0.0770	0.9893	0.1065	0.9956
0.0198	0.8830	0.0492	0.9486	0.0784	0.9860	0.1078	0.9938
0.0212	0.8920	0.0505	0.9503	0.0797	0.9836	0.1092	0.9939
0.0226	0.8969	0.0519	0.9517	0.0811	0.9806	0.1105	0.9972
0.0239	0.9012	0.0532	0.9550	0.0824	0.9850	0.1119	1.0004
0.0253	0.9075	0.0546	0.9582	0.0838	0.9886	0.1132	1.0006
0.0267	0.9122	0.0559	0.9584	0.0851	0.9920	0.1146	0.9967
0.0280	0.9177	0.0573	0.9582	0.0865	0.9919	0.1159	0.9912
0.0294	0.9216	0.0584	0.9676	0.0878	0.9913		

Table A.24: Centerline Velocity,  $D_h = 500 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $Re = 200$ , Distilled Water

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0003	0.4441	0.0109	0.7965	0.0216	0.8822	0.0323	0.9273
0.0006	0.4985	0.0113	0.7988	0.0220	0.8833	0.0326	0.9258
0.0010	0.5415	0.0116	0.8009	0.0223	0.8843	0.0330	0.9254
0.0013	0.5852	0.0120	0.8034	0.0226	0.8858	0.0333	0.9277
0.0017	0.6156	0.0123	0.8039	0.0230	0.8901	0.0336	0.9265
0.0020	0.6379	0.0126	0.8065	0.0233	0.8909	0.0340	0.9245
0.0023	0.6538	0.0130	0.8111	0.0236	0.8925	0.0343	0.9193
0.0027	0.6665	0.0133	0.8126	0.0240	0.8913	0.0326	0.9255
0.0030	0.6791	0.0136	0.8131	0.0243	0.8928	0.0329	0.9261
0.0034	0.6894	0.0140	0.8129	0.0226	0.8842	0.0332	0.9243
0.0037	0.6937	0.0143	0.8142	0.0229	0.8849	0.0336	0.9262
0.0040	0.6946	0.0126	0.8148	0.0232	0.8863	0.0339	0.9306
0.0044	0.6932	0.0129	0.8150	0.0236	0.8885	0.0343	0.9377
0.0026	0.6995	0.0132	0.8167	0.0239	0.8898	0.0346	0.9395
0.0029	0.7026	0.0136	0.8198	0.0243	0.8910	0.0349	0.9394
0.0033	0.7061	0.0139	0.8214	0.0246	0.8900	0.0353	0.9413
0.0036	0.7116	0.0143	0.8179	0.0249	0.8918	0.0356	0.9422
0.0039	0.7149	0.0146	0.8179	0.0253	0.8942	0.0359	0.9423
0.0043	0.7198	0.0149	0.8237	0.0256	0.8969	0.0363	0.9391
0.0046	0.7249	0.0153	0.8304	0.0259	0.8968	0.0366	0.9377
0.0050	0.7321	0.0156	0.8254	0.0263	0.8966	0.0370	0.9365
0.0053	0.7390	0.0159	0.8262	0.0266	0.8990	0.0373	0.9362
0.0056	0.7439	0.0163	0.8323	0.0270	0.9017	0.0376	0.9397
0.0060	0.7473	0.0166	0.8459	0.0273	0.9017	0.0380	0.9428
0.0063	0.7503	0.0170	0.8485	0.0276	0.9029	0.0383	0.9449
0.0067	0.7539	0.0173	0.8506	0.0280	0.9044	0.0386	0.9433
0.0070	0.7589	0.0176	0.8527	0.0283	0.9092	0.0390	0.9416
0.0073	0.7632	0.0180	0.8562	0.0286	0.9106	0.0393	0.9418
0.0077	0.7670	0.0183	0.8597	0.0290	0.9107	0.0376	0.9529
0.0080	0.7712	0.0186	0.8612	0.0293	0.9097	0.0379	0.9513
0.0084	0.7756	0.0190	0.8617	0.0276	0.9025	0.0382	0.9499
0.0087	0.7783	0.0193	0.8602	0.0279	0.9039	0.0386	0.9533
0.0090	0.7782	0.0176	0.8564	0.0282	0.9083	0.0389	0.9568
0.0094	0.7772	0.0179	0.8571	0.0286	0.9119	0.0393	0.9625
0.0076	0.7619	0.0182	0.8573	0.0289	0.9137	0.0396	0.9588
0.0079	0.7638	0.0186	0.8590	0.0293	0.9138	0.0399	0.9567
0.0082	0.7662	0.0189	0.8590	0.0296	0.9174	0.0403	0.9529
0.0086	0.7697	0.0193	0.8615	0.0299	0.9192	0.0406	0.9536
0.0089	0.7719	0.0196	0.8623	0.0303	0.9202	0.0409	0.9559
0.0093	0.7748	0.0199	0.8633	0.0306	0.9151	0.0413	0.9572
0.0096	0.7708	0.0203	0.8660	0.0309	0.9152	0.0416	0.9582
0.0099	0.7826	0.0206	0.8693	0.0313	0.9156	0.0420	0.9571
0.0103	0.7891	0.0209	0.8752	0.0316	0.9216	0.0423	0.9558
0.0106	0.7943	0.0213	0.8784	0.0320	0.9243	0.0426	0.9582

$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$	$x/ReD_h$	$u_{cl}/u_{cl,fd}$
0.0430	0.9631	0.0536	0.9805	0.0643	0.9822	0.0729	0.9931
0.0433	0.9660	0.0540	0.9777	0.0626	0.9853	0.0732	0.9921
0.0436	0.9671	0.0543	0.9783	0.0629	0.9823	0.0736	0.9906
0.0440	0.9646	0.0526	0.9838	0.0632	0.9806	0.0739	0.9918
0.0443	0.9657	0.0529	0.9840	0.0636	0.9798	0.0743	0.9954
0.0426	0.9627	0.0532	0.9857	0.0639	0.9803	0.0746	0.9964
0.0429	0.9610	0.0536	0.9864	0.0643	0.9788	0.0749	0.9961
0.0432	0.9608	0.0539	0.9891	0.0646	0.9772	0.0753	0.9977
0.0436	0.9580	0.0543	0.9891	0.0649	0.9722	0.0756	1.0002
0.0439	0.9594	0.0546	0.9924	0.0653	0.9740	0.0759	1.0009
0.0443	0.9587	0.0549	0.9904	0.0656	0.9736	0.0763	0.9991
0.0446	0.9609	0.0553	0.9909	0.0659	0.9832	0.0766	0.9950
0.0449	0.9606	0.0556	0.9869	0.0663	0.9865	0.0770	0.9902
0.0453	0.9646	0.0559	0.9849	0.0666	0.9892	0.0773	0.9889
0.0456	0.9684	0.0563	0.9848	0.0670	0.9878	0.0776	0.9900
0.0459	0.9707	0.0566	0.9864	0.0673	0.9873	0.0780	0.9934
0.0463	0.9709	0.0570	0.9880	0.0676	0.9865	0.0783	0.9934
0.0466	0.9700	0.0573	0.9885	0.0680	0.9832	0.0786	0.9935
0.0470	0.9723	0.0576	0.9914	0.0683	0.9804	0.0790	0.9923
0.0473	0.9720	0.0580	0.9920	0.0686	0.9773	0.0793	0.9908
0.0476	0.9716	0.0583	0.9931	0.0690	0.9770		
0.0480	0.9680	0.0586	0.9893	0.0693	0.9765		
0.0483	0.9657	0.0590	0.9883	0.0676	0.9866		
0.0486	0.9633	0.0593	0.9858	0.0679	0.9922		
0.0490	0.9623	0.0576	0.9866	0.0682	0.9945		
0.0493	0.9621	0.0579	0.9877	0.0686	0.9947		
0.0476	0.9796	0.0582	0.9873	0.0689	0.9892		
0.0479	0.9769	0.0586	0.9874	0.0693	0.9901		
0.0482	0.9772	0.0589	0.9845	0.0696	0.9892		
0.0486	0.9783	0.0593	0.9855	0.0699	0.9897		
0.0489	0.9843	0.0596	0.9848	0.0703	0.9898		
0.0493	0.9875	0.0599	0.9824	0.0706	0.9925		
0.0496	0.9854	0.0603	0.9825	0.0709	0.9944		
0.0499	0.9855	0.0606	0.9814	0.0713	0.9920		
0.0503	0.9885	0.0609	0.9840	0.0716	0.9918		
0.0506	0.9906	0.0613	0.9825	0.0720	0.9909		
0.0509	0.9909	0.0616	0.9857	0.0723	0.9929		
0.0513	0.9862	0.0620	0.9886	0.0726	0.9920		
0.0516	0.9889	0.0623	0.9889	0.0730	0.9942		
0.0520	0.9889	0.0626	0.9873	0.0733	0.9944		
0.0523	0.9907	0.0630	0.9847	0.0736	0.9956		
0.0526	0.9891	0.0633	0.9847	0.0740	0.9940		
0.0530	0.9884	0.0636	0.9834	0.0743	0.9936		
0.0533	0.9842	0.0640	0.9827	0.0726	0.9934		

## A.3 Microchannel Entrance Length Data

Table A.25: Entrance Length Data, Distilled Water

$D_h$	$Re$	$Le/D_h$
100 $\mu\text{m}$	0.476	0.7680
	4.76	0.9113
	50	3.9084
	89	6.4000
200 $\mu\text{m}$	0.5	0.6842
	5	0.9566
	50	4.0655
	200	16.0520
500 $\mu\text{m}$	0.5	0.4922
	5	0.5201
	50	4.2574
	200	14.5274

# Appendix B

## Experimental Data for the Thermal Entrance Region

### B.1 Microtube Turbulent Friction Factors

Table B.1: Friction Factor Data, FC-72

$D$	Re	$f_{exp}$
0.508 mm	4717	0.0490
	6645	0.0398
	7912	0.0362
	8733	0.0386
1.067 mm	5399	0.0422
	6287	0.0408
	8035	0.0421
	8926	0.0416

## B.2 Local Microtube Wall Temperatures

Table B.2: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 4717$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-1.2532	40.7904	3.3318	40.9586	7.9168	41.0071	12.5019	40.9404
-1.1004	40.0321	3.4846	41.0054	8.0697	41.0819	12.6547	41.1083
-0.9476	39.2340	3.6375	40.8605	8.2225	41.0018	12.8075	40.9132
-0.7947	39.0606	3.7903	40.8534	8.3753	41.1352	12.9604	40.8714
-0.6419	38.6520	3.9431	41.1730	8.5282	41.1427	13.1132	40.8173
-0.4891	38.7788	4.0960	41.1241	8.6810	40.9047	13.2660	40.9433
-0.3362	39.1198	4.2488	40.9022	8.8338	40.8722	13.4189	40.8233
-0.1834	39.6118	4.4016	41.1168	8.9867	40.9335	13.5717	40.9515
-0.0306	40.0563	4.5545	41.0908	9.1395	41.1428	13.7246	40.9937
0.1223	39.3871	4.7073	41.4722	9.2923	41.1637	13.8774	40.9388
0.2751	39.8133	4.8601	41.1008	9.4452	40.9964	14.0302	41.0165
0.4279	40.3408	5.0130	41.2109	9.5980	40.8322	14.1831	40.9695
0.5808	41.1892	5.1658	41.1989	9.7509	41.0961	14.3359	41.0244
0.7336	40.9434	5.3186	41.0798	9.9037	40.9351	14.4887	41.0162
0.8864	40.8493	5.4715	41.2041	10.0565	40.9873	14.6416	40.7849
1.0393	40.3926	5.6243	41.1591	10.2094	41.1440	14.7944	40.8344
1.1921	42.0012	5.7771	41.1962	10.3622	41.0897	14.9472	40.9120
1.3449	41.3091	5.9300	41.0342	10.5150	41.1027	15.1001	40.8695
1.4978	42.3461	6.0828	40.9269	10.6679	41.0676	15.2529	40.9999
1.6506	42.4918	6.2357	40.8810	10.8207	41.1360	15.4057	41.0186
1.8034	40.9761	6.3885	41.2465	10.9735	41.1474	15.5586	41.1751
1.9563	41.3233	6.5413	41.1523	11.1264	41.1234	15.7114	41.2076
2.1091	41.3095	6.6942	41.2130	11.2792	41.0832	15.8642	40.9276
2.2620	40.9223	6.8470	40.9336	11.4320	41.1001	16.0171	40.8834
2.4148	40.9788	6.9998	41.1476	11.5849	41.0122	16.1699	41.1266
2.5676	40.6458	7.1527	41.2647	11.7377	40.8683	16.3227	41.0834
2.7205	40.7209	7.3055	40.9958	11.8905	41.0451	16.4756	41.2959
2.8733	40.7445	7.4583	40.8914	12.0434	40.8950	16.6284	41.0460
3.0261	40.6688	7.6112	41.0287	12.1962	40.9503	16.7812	41.4509
3.1790	40.9709	7.7640	40.9312	12.3490	40.9252	16.9341	41.3933

Table B.3: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 6645$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-1.2532	41.2246	3.3318	41.9424	7.9168	42.1348	12.5019	41.7369
-1.1004	40.1909	3.4846	41.9953	8.0697	42.1900	12.6547	41.9405
-0.9476	39.6984	3.6375	41.9341	8.2225	41.9351	12.8075	41.7333
-0.7947	39.1352	3.7903	42.2513	8.3753	42.1259	12.9604	41.8970
-0.6419	39.0109	3.9431	42.1224	8.5282	42.3472	13.1132	41.6829
-0.4891	40.3886	4.0960	42.0867	8.6810	42.0673	13.2660	41.6853
-0.3362	40.5131	4.2488	41.9368	8.8338	42.1501	13.4189	42.1536
-0.1834	40.5909	4.4016	41.9740	8.9867	41.8599	13.5717	41.8801
-0.0306	41.2701	4.5545	42.4846	9.1395	41.9968	13.7246	42.1634
0.1223	41.5589	4.7073	42.3782	9.2923	41.7517	13.8774	42.1695
0.2751	41.7520	4.8601	42.1530	9.4452	41.9702	14.0302	42.2165
0.4279	42.0829	5.0130	42.1619	9.5980	41.9295	14.1831	42.2982
0.5808	42.0699	5.1658	42.3442	9.7509	41.9412	14.3359	41.9238
0.7336	42.5006	5.3186	42.2817	9.9037	42.0014	14.4887	41.9207
0.8864	42.3813	5.4715	42.3191	10.0565	41.7725	14.6416	41.9620
1.0393	42.2572	5.6243	42.1644	10.2094	41.8934	14.7944	41.7922
1.1921	43.6347	5.7771	42.2344	10.3622	41.9542	14.9472	41.7732
1.3449	42.6741	5.9300	42.5144	10.5150	41.6287	15.1001	42.1509
1.4978	43.1373	6.0828	42.6578	10.6679	41.6243	15.2529	42.0543
1.6506	43.2288	6.2357	42.5314	10.8207	41.7853	15.4057	41.8857
1.8034	42.5529	6.3885	42.2347	10.9735	41.8495	15.5586	42.0776
1.9563	42.2797	6.5413	42.4421	11.1264	41.9908	15.7114	41.9167
2.1091	42.4503	6.6942	42.6371	11.2792	42.0349	15.8642	41.9153
2.2620	42.3073	6.8470	42.4433	11.4320	42.0073	16.0171	41.7399
2.4148	42.0305	6.9998	42.2524	11.5849	41.9514	16.1699	41.6716
2.5676	41.9151	7.1527	42.4616	11.7377	41.8026	16.3227	41.9458
2.7205	41.7995	7.3055	42.7614	11.8905	41.5452	16.4756	42.1832
2.8733	41.8334	7.4583	42.3961	12.0434	41.4469	16.6284	42.6383
3.0261	41.9778	7.6112	42.3585	12.1962	41.6452	16.7812	42.1894
3.1790	41.7678	7.7640	42.3785	12.3490	41.9177	16.9341	42.2352

Table B.4: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 7912$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-1.2532	40.4771	3.3318	40.5608	7.9168	40.5714	12.5019	40.5673
-1.1004	39.8488	3.4846	40.5708	8.0697	40.4502	12.6547	40.5451
-0.9476	39.7679	3.6375	40.5348	8.2225	40.5357	12.8075	40.6337
-0.7947	39.2411	3.7903	40.7198	8.3753	40.6508	12.9604	40.7690
-0.6419	38.7562	3.9431	40.9507	8.5282	40.7931	13.1132	40.5139
-0.4891	39.1606	4.0960	40.8373	8.6810	40.6105	13.2660	40.4951
-0.3362	38.6728	4.2488	40.6601	8.8338	40.7076	13.4189	40.9017
-0.1834	39.1132	4.4016	40.7701	8.9867	40.6439	13.5717	40.8439
-0.0306	38.6191	4.5545	40.8984	9.1395	40.6025	13.7246	40.7964
0.1223	38.5132	4.7073	41.0139	9.2923	40.7168	13.8774	40.7786
0.2751	39.1540	4.8601	40.9914	9.4452	40.6704	14.0302	40.7023
0.4279	39.3292	5.0130	40.8654	9.5980	40.6646	14.1831	40.9335
0.5808	39.7619	5.1658	40.6283	9.7509	40.7773	14.3359	40.6660
0.7336	40.2661	5.3186	40.8226	9.9037	40.6242	14.4887	40.5522
0.8864	39.7293	5.4715	40.5541	10.0565	40.5251	14.6416	40.5598
1.0393	39.7385	5.6243	40.4695	10.2094	40.5239	14.7944	40.3204
1.1921	40.9490	5.7771	40.6426	10.3622	40.5385	14.9472	40.5605
1.3449	40.4791	5.9300	40.6743	10.5150	40.3822	15.1001	40.6495
1.4978	40.7375	6.0828	40.7898	10.6679	40.6347	15.2529	40.5927
1.6506	41.8541	6.2357	40.4168	10.8207	40.7236	15.4057	40.6753
1.8034	41.1330	6.3885	40.4083	10.9735	40.5570	15.5586	40.8854
1.9563	40.9854	6.5413	40.5722	11.1264	40.5400	15.7114	40.7398
2.1091	40.7676	6.6942	40.8521	11.2792	40.5540	15.8642	40.7922
2.2620	40.6540	6.8470	40.6355	11.4320	40.3808	16.0171	40.9641
2.4148	40.5093	6.9998	40.6958	11.5849	40.6216	16.1699	40.7959
2.5676	39.7437	7.1527	40.7537	11.7377	40.4772	16.3227	40.9469
2.7205	40.1551	7.3055	40.6189	11.8905	40.5183	16.4756	41.1096
2.8733	40.1852	7.4583	40.4950	12.0434	40.5451	16.6284	41.1741
3.0261	40.6525	7.6112	40.8622	12.1962	40.6647	16.7812	40.9166
3.1790	40.5802	7.7640	40.5322	12.3490	40.5987	16.9341	41.0485

Table B.5: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 8733$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-1.2532	40.2862	3.3318	41.1588	7.9168	40.9190	12.5019	40.8054
-1.1004	40.1623	3.4846	41.0131	8.0697	40.8031	12.6547	41.0426
-0.9476	38.8843	3.6375	40.9602	8.2225	41.0294	12.8075	40.9118
-0.7947	38.7181	3.7903	40.7591	8.3753	41.1667	12.9604	40.8226
-0.6419	38.8441	3.9431	41.2641	8.5282	41.0734	13.1132	40.7277
-0.4891	39.2263	4.0960	40.9951	8.6810	40.8135	13.2660	40.7355
-0.3362	39.2191	4.2488	40.9751	8.8338	40.6426	13.4189	40.9269
-0.1834	39.8594	4.4016	41.1602	8.9867	40.9196	13.5717	40.8804
-0.0306	39.7914	4.5545	41.1190	9.1395	40.9738	13.7246	40.8795
0.1223	39.9140	4.7073	41.5047	9.2923	41.1686	13.8774	40.8927
0.2751	39.9216	4.8601	41.3748	9.4452	40.9456	14.0302	40.9722
0.4279	40.2695	5.0130	41.3775	9.5980	40.9570	14.1831	40.9942
0.5808	41.1794	5.1658	41.3723	9.7509	41.0601	14.3359	40.9769
0.7336	40.7987	5.3186	41.2372	9.9037	41.0340	14.4887	40.7783
0.8864	40.4138	5.4715	41.0959	10.0565	40.8859	14.6416	40.5666
1.0393	40.5916	5.6243	40.9884	10.2094	40.9775	14.7944	40.5874
1.1921	42.0992	5.7771	41.0977	10.3622	40.8952	14.9472	40.9496
1.3449	41.7832	5.9300	40.7777	10.5150	40.7722	15.1001	40.7877
1.4978	42.7845	6.0828	40.8299	10.6679	41.0799	15.2529	41.1539
1.6506	42.8186	6.2357	40.9179	10.8207	41.1539	15.4057	41.0266
1.8034	41.5881	6.3885	41.0789	10.9735	40.8935	15.5586	41.0525
1.9563	41.5551	6.5413	40.9148	11.1264	40.9034	15.7114	41.1392
2.1091	41.7552	6.6942	41.1741	11.2792	40.8447	15.8642	40.7726
2.2620	41.4273	6.8470	40.9980	11.4320	41.0058	16.0171	40.7302
2.4148	41.2035	6.9998	41.0971	11.5849	41.0829	16.1699	40.9708
2.5676	40.7364	7.1527	41.1705	11.7377	41.0840	16.3227	40.9649
2.7205	40.8100	7.3055	40.9472	11.8905	40.9318	16.4756	41.1721
2.8733	40.9913	7.4583	40.9419	12.0434	40.8416	16.6284	41.0714
3.0261	40.6046	7.6112	41.0534	12.1962	40.8797	16.7812	41.5255
3.1790	41.0417	7.7640	40.9587	12.3490	40.7926	16.9341	41.5262

Table B.6: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 5399$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-1.4553	41.2942	0.5239	41.8535	2.5031	42.2623	4.4823	42.1382
-1.3971	41.2826	0.5821	41.9085	2.5613	42.2273	4.5405	42.1302
-1.3389	41.2666	0.6403	41.8508	2.6195	42.2139	4.5987	42.1399
-1.2807	41.3310	0.6985	41.8463	2.6777	42.2636	4.6569	42.0088
-1.2224	41.4121	0.7568	41.8918	2.7360	42.2504	4.7152	42.0758
-1.1642	41.1561	0.8150	42.0556	2.7942	42.1843	4.7734	42.1651
-1.1060	41.1461	0.8732	41.9077	2.8524	42.1846	4.8316	42.1038
-1.0478	41.1421	0.9314	41.9608	2.9106	42.2230	4.8898	42.1945
-0.9896	41.1284	0.9896	42.0029	2.9688	42.2629	4.9480	42.1966
-0.9314	41.1461	1.0478	41.9646	3.0270	42.2187	5.0062	42.1425
-0.8732	41.2102	1.1060	41.9466	3.0852	42.2958	5.0644	42.1717
-0.8150	41.2409	1.1642	41.9177	3.1434	42.2311	5.1226	42.2263
-0.7568	41.2821	1.2224	42.0228	3.2016	42.1913	5.1809	42.2982
-0.6985	41.2237	1.2807	41.9939	3.2599	42.2297	5.2391	42.4089
-0.6403	41.2781	1.3389	42.1130	3.3181	42.1618	5.2973	42.1696
-0.5821	41.2770	1.3971	42.1113	3.3763	42.1460	5.3555	42.2966
-0.5239	41.2913	1.4553	42.0825	3.4345	42.0187	5.4137	42.2939
-0.4657	41.3522	1.5135	42.0952	3.4927	42.1571	5.4719	42.2120
-0.4075	41.2470	1.5717	42.2427	3.5509	42.1680	5.5301	42.2800
-0.3493	41.2643	1.6299	42.0141	3.6091	42.2092	5.5883	42.1613
-0.2911	41.3133	1.6881	42.1444	3.6673	42.2368	5.6465	42.0568
-0.2328	41.2882	1.7464	42.2299	3.7256	42.0012	5.7048	42.2314
-0.1746	41.3260	1.8046	42.1071	3.7838	42.0771	5.7630	42.3573
-0.1164	41.4605	1.8628	42.2829	3.8420	42.1088	5.8212	42.3914
-0.0582	41.5115	1.9210	42.2404	3.9002	42.1109	5.8794	42.3127
0.0000	41.4701	1.9792	42.1645	3.9584	42.3188	5.9376	42.2060
0.0582	41.6247	2.0374	42.1255	4.0166	42.4158	5.9958	42.2736
0.1164	41.7087	2.0956	42.0786	4.0748	42.2820	6.0540	42.3283
0.1746	41.8196	2.1538	42.0967	4.1330	42.3101	6.1122	42.4454
0.2328	41.7343	2.2120	42.0244	4.1913	42.2974	6.1705	42.3695
0.2911	41.7598	2.2703	42.0398	4.2495	42.1966	6.2287	42.3484
0.3493	41.8449	2.3285	42.0797	4.3077	42.4082	6.2869	42.3351
0.4075	41.7670	2.3867	42.2097	4.3659	42.3382	6.3451	42.2960
0.4657	41.7469	2.4449	42.2424	4.4241	42.4245		

Table B.7: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 6287$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-1.4553	41.5584	0.5239	42.0042	2.5031	41.9965	4.4823	42.1345
-1.3971	41.5349	0.5821	42.1151	2.5613	42.0617	4.5405	42.0219
-1.3389	41.5582	0.6403	42.1079	2.6195	42.1390	4.5987	41.9733
-1.2807	41.6211	0.6985	42.0288	2.6777	42.1284	4.6569	41.8909
-1.2224	41.6117	0.7568	42.0208	2.7360	42.0880	4.7152	41.9215
-1.1642	41.5538	0.8150	42.1901	2.7942	41.9495	4.7734	41.9776
-1.1060	41.4722	0.8732	41.9622	2.8524	41.9539	4.8316	41.9991
-1.0478	41.4780	0.9314	42.0054	2.9106	42.0073	4.8898	42.0645
-0.9896	41.5354	0.9896	42.0888	2.9688	42.0950	4.9480	42.1775
-0.9314	41.5673	1.0478	42.2181	3.0270	42.1758	5.0062	42.1057
-0.8732	41.5605	1.1060	42.1188	3.0852	42.1601	5.0644	42.0021
-0.8150	41.6759	1.1642	42.0383	3.1434	42.0943	5.1226	41.9954
-0.7568	41.7875	1.2224	42.0938	3.2016	41.9550	5.1809	42.0882
-0.6985	41.6854	1.2807	41.9535	3.2599	42.0337	5.2391	42.1860
-0.6403	41.4998	1.3389	42.0423	3.3181	41.8857	5.2973	42.0680
-0.5821	41.6182	1.3971	42.0943	3.3763	42.0179	5.3555	42.0711
-0.5239	41.5734	1.4553	42.1075	3.4345	42.0065	5.4137	42.0922
-0.4657	41.5482	1.5135	42.1554	3.4927	42.1311	5.4719	42.0769
-0.4075	41.5262	1.5717	42.2119	3.5509	42.1258	5.5301	42.1855
-0.3493	41.5435	1.6299	42.0088	3.6091	42.2539	5.5883	41.9916
-0.2911	41.6700	1.6881	42.0522	3.6673	42.0511	5.6465	42.0473
-0.2328	41.7883	1.7464	42.1924	3.7256	41.9780	5.7048	42.1444
-0.1746	41.7906	1.8046	42.1434	3.7838	41.8799	5.7630	42.1364
-0.1164	42.0552	1.8628	42.1731	3.8420	41.9489	5.8212	42.2623
-0.0582	41.9226	1.9210	42.0703	3.9002	42.0308	5.8794	42.1934
0.0000	41.8666	1.9792	42.0697	3.9584	42.2790	5.9376	42.1592
0.0582	41.9881	2.0374	41.9964	4.0166	42.3550	5.9958	42.1767
0.1164	42.0008	2.0956	41.9374	4.0748	42.2780	6.0540	42.1604
0.1746	41.9959	2.1538	42.0591	4.1330	42.1619	6.1122	42.1968
0.2328	42.0596	2.2120	41.9658	4.1913	42.1260	6.1705	42.2774
0.2911	41.9211	2.2703	41.9087	4.2495	42.1111	6.2287	42.3039
0.3493	42.0497	2.3285	41.9413	4.3077	42.2473	6.2869	42.1671
0.4075	41.9255	2.3867	41.9442	4.3659	42.4245	6.3451	42.2636
0.4657	42.0431	2.4449	42.0949	4.4241	42.2892		

Table B.8: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 8035$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-0.7745	40.0408	0.6971	41.5300	2.1686	41.4555	3.6402	41.3052
-0.7358	40.2939	0.7358	41.5531	2.2073	41.4131	3.6789	41.2584
-0.6971	40.2282	0.7745	41.5903	2.2461	41.3293	3.7176	41.1811
-0.6583	40.7263	0.8132	41.5903	2.2848	41.3564	3.7564	41.1445
-0.6196	40.5906	0.8520	41.4081	2.3235	41.4174	3.7951	41.1957
-0.5809	41.0235	0.8907	41.4838	2.3622	41.5111	3.8338	41.2500
-0.5422	40.6335	0.9294	41.4570	2.4010	41.5289	3.8725	41.2693
-0.5034	40.8616	0.9681	41.5113	2.4397	41.4740	3.9113	41.2492
-0.4647	40.3069	1.0069	41.4954	2.4784	41.3935	3.9500	41.3141
-0.4260	40.4957	1.0456	41.4988	2.5172	41.4611	3.9887	41.3581
-0.3873	40.8188	1.0843	41.4877	2.5559	41.3746	4.0274	41.3090
-0.3485	41.0312	1.1230	41.3311	2.5946	41.2769	4.0662	41.2579
-0.3098	41.0235	1.1618	41.3344	2.6333	41.4052	4.1049	41.3005
-0.2711	40.9914	1.2005	41.4121	2.6721	41.3770	4.1436	41.2647
-0.2324	40.9368	1.2392	41.4908	2.7108	41.3515	4.1823	41.2692
-0.1936	41.3293	1.2779	41.5029	2.7495	41.2774	4.2211	41.1663
-0.1549	41.5261	1.3167	41.5116	2.7882	41.3636	4.2598	41.0831
-0.1162	41.5847	1.3554	41.5245	2.8270	41.4008	4.2985	41.0968
-0.0775	41.5931	1.3941	41.5861	2.8657	41.3949	4.3372	40.9902
-0.0387	41.7288	1.4328	41.5896	2.9044	41.4091	4.3760	41.0250
0.0000	41.6815	1.4716	41.6109	2.9431	41.5178	4.4147	40.9920
0.0387	41.4326	1.5103	41.5285	2.9819	41.4834	4.4534	40.9920
0.0775	41.4240	1.5490	41.5518	3.0206	41.3672	4.4921	41.1660
0.1162	41.4750	1.5877	41.5482	3.0593	41.3614	4.5309	41.0894
0.1549	41.5041	1.6265	41.4545	3.0980	41.4155	4.5696	40.9599
0.1936	41.4655	1.6652	41.3627	3.1368	41.3785	4.6083	41.0108
0.2324	41.3895	1.7039	41.4196	3.1755	41.3865	4.6470	41.0880
0.2711	41.5953	1.7426	41.4455	3.2142	41.4291	4.6858	41.0638
0.3098	41.4803	1.7814	41.3797	3.2529	41.4069	4.7245	41.0434
0.3485	41.3940	1.8201	41.4054	3.2917	41.3271	4.7632	41.0662
0.3873	41.5832	1.8588	41.4104	3.3304	41.2699	4.8019	41.0393
0.4260	41.5742	1.8975	41.4009	3.3691	41.2489	4.8407	41.0117
0.4647	41.5645	1.9363	41.3949	3.4078	41.2344	4.8794	41.1509
0.5034	41.4022	1.9750	41.4606	3.4466	41.2464	4.9181	41.1318
0.5422	41.5237	2.0137	41.3980	3.4853	41.3106	4.9569	41.1658
0.5809	41.6679	2.0524	41.3502	3.5240	41.4519	4.9956	41.2176
0.6196	41.4465	2.0912	41.4225	3.5627	41.4585		
0.6583	41.3711	2.1299	41.4772	3.6015	41.3380		

Table B.9: Wall Temperatures,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 8926$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)	$x/D$	$T_{w_x}$ (°C)
-0.7745	40.8032	0.6971	41.5311	2.1686	41.4041	3.6402	41.2639
-0.7358	40.2878	0.7358	41.4858	2.2073	41.4448	3.6789	41.2483
-0.6971	39.9641	0.7745	41.4942	2.2461	41.4138	3.7176	41.1021
-0.6583	40.6408	0.8132	41.5480	2.2848	41.3055	3.7564	41.1183
-0.6196	40.4714	0.8520	41.5759	2.3235	41.3222	3.7951	41.2707
-0.5809	39.9013	0.8907	41.4816	2.3622	41.3393	3.8338	41.2486
-0.5422	40.3206	0.9294	41.6586	2.4010	41.2900	3.8725	41.2954
-0.5034	40.7640	0.9681	41.6819	2.4397	41.3614	3.9113	41.2472
-0.4647	40.5109	1.0069	41.6933	2.4784	41.3567	3.9500	41.2099
-0.4260	40.9090	1.0456	41.6620	2.5172	41.3236	3.9887	41.1080
-0.3873	40.4817	1.0843	41.6011	2.5559	41.3003	4.0274	41.1022
-0.3485	40.8902	1.1230	41.6383	2.5946	41.2571	4.0662	41.1615
-0.3098	41.0568	1.1618	41.6300	2.6333	41.3312	4.1049	41.1444
-0.2711	41.3316	1.2005	41.5990	2.6721	41.3595	4.1436	41.1612
-0.2324	41.3090	1.2392	41.4886	2.7108	41.3702	4.1823	41.2004
-0.1936	41.0560	1.2779	41.5984	2.7495	41.3110	4.2211	41.2019
-0.1549	40.8194	1.3167	41.5961	2.7882	41.2821	4.2598	41.1883
-0.1162	41.1179	1.3554	41.6008	2.8270	41.4023	4.2985	41.1198
-0.0775	41.1265	1.3941	41.4409	2.8657	41.4020	4.3372	41.0125
-0.0387	41.3746	1.4328	41.4134	2.9044	41.3927	4.3760	41.1108
0.0000	41.4483	1.4716	41.4937	2.9431	41.3338	4.4147	41.0526
0.0387	41.3570	1.5103	41.4558	2.9819	41.3531	4.4534	40.9898
0.0775	41.3529	1.5490	41.4859	3.0206	41.3204	4.4921	41.0199
0.1162	41.6292	1.5877	41.4198	3.0593	41.2900	4.5309	41.0830
0.1549	41.6533	1.6265	41.4555	3.0980	41.2945	4.5696	41.1529
0.1936	41.6600	1.6652	41.3335	3.1368	41.2952	4.6083	41.2565
0.2324	41.5752	1.7039	41.4329	3.1755	41.2142	4.6470	41.2411
0.2711	41.3124	1.7426	41.4460	3.2142	41.1836	4.6858	41.1450
0.3098	41.2789	1.7814	41.3400	3.2529	41.1844	4.7245	41.1898
0.3485	41.3511	1.8201	41.3501	3.2917	41.2489	4.7632	41.2016
0.3873	41.3539	1.8588	41.3051	3.3304	41.2149	4.8019	41.1675
0.4260	41.4376	1.8975	41.1698	3.3691	41.2669	4.8407	41.1805
0.4647	41.5251	1.9363	41.0930	3.4078	41.2896	4.8794	41.2451
0.5034	41.5173	1.9750	41.1370	3.4466	41.3233	4.9181	41.2405
0.5422	41.6068	2.0137	41.1935	3.4853	41.2006	4.9569	41.1619
0.5809	41.6119	2.0524	41.3902	3.5240	41.2757	4.9956	41.1751
0.6196	41.4861	2.0912	41.4210	3.5627	41.2737		
0.6583	41.5389	2.1299	41.4331	3.6015	41.2434		

## B.3 Local Nusselt Values

Table B.10: Nusselt Values,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 4717$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-1.2532	74.5737	3.3318	59.1578	7.9168	58.6767	12.5019	61.0027
-1.1004	87.1095	3.4846	58.6985	8.0697	58.1595	12.6547	59.3531
-0.9476	119.9879	3.6375	60.2782	8.2225	58.9734	12.8075	61.9585
-0.7947	173.5755	3.7903	61.6806	8.3753	57.9799	12.9604	61.6951
-0.6419	173.9853	3.9431	56.2132	8.5282	57.1784	13.1132	62.4178
-0.4891	88.9748	4.0960	57.2865	8.6810	59.9272	13.2660	60.7644
-0.3362	111.3440	4.2488	59.2288	8.8338	63.5731	13.4189	62.6629
-0.1834	89.1014	4.4016	56.6405	8.9867	60.3248	13.5717	60.6080
-0.0306	78.2553	4.5545	57.4104	9.1395	57.6415	13.7246	60.1887
0.1223	110.4299	4.7073	54.2170	9.2923	56.7446	13.8774	61.4005
0.2751	83.5399	4.8601	57.4531	9.4452	59.1453	14.0302	59.9376
0.4279	71.0935	5.0130	55.8714	9.5980	78.5451	14.1831	62.2789
0.5808	57.9060	5.1658	56.0562	9.7509	57.6969	14.3359	59.9597
0.7336	67.7344	5.3186	57.3022	9.9037	60.8592	14.4887	61.0811
0.8864	67.1389	5.4715	56.7167	10.0565	59.4616	14.6416	63.6634
1.0393	69.4922	5.6243	57.1796	10.2094	59.3819	14.7944	63.2468
1.1921	48.5230	5.7771	56.1595	10.3622	58.4054	14.9472	61.9652
1.3449	56.2361	5.9300	58.2109	10.5150	58.5517	15.1001	62.5210
1.4978	44.5822	6.0828	59.6175	10.6679	58.6536	15.2529	61.1732
1.6506	43.7686	6.2357	60.0761	10.8207	57.7667	15.4057	60.3516
1.8034	62.0362	6.3885	56.1967	10.9735	57.3628	15.5586	58.1459
1.9563	56.0221	6.5413	57.0215	11.1264	57.7358	15.7114	58.2789
2.1091	54.9070	6.6942	56.0498	11.2792	58.2520	15.8642	62.2773
2.2620	60.3982	6.8470	59.3980	11.4320	58.5702	16.0171	63.3323
2.4148	59.4986	6.9998	57.0497	11.5849	59.7792	16.1699	59.6241
2.5676	64.0499	7.1527	55.9837	11.7377	61.7986	16.3227	59.8543
2.7205	61.6733	7.3055	58.6718	11.8905	59.7736	16.4756	57.6871
2.8733	62.1472	7.4583	60.6343	12.0434	60.8617	16.6284	60.1274
3.0261	63.4111	7.6112	58.1479	12.1962	60.1830	16.7812	55.8051
3.1790	59.2315	7.7640	59.9665	12.3490	60.9139	16.9341	56.5741

Table B.11: Nusselt Values,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 6645$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-1.2532	72.4820	3.3318	56.0583	7.9168	54.7080	12.5019	59.5409
-1.1004	94.4511	3.4846	55.5264	8.0697	54.5916	12.6547	58.0872
-0.9476	105.8352	3.6375	55.9955	8.2225	57.1120	12.8075	60.4955
-0.7947	135.9243	3.7903	53.2608	8.3753	55.5835	12.9604	57.9146
-0.6419	194.3726	3.9431	54.1215	8.5282	53.2587	13.1132	59.8923
-0.4891	80.8242	4.0960	54.4542	8.6810	55.6327	13.2660	60.6724
-0.3362	76.6658	4.2488	55.7995	8.8338	54.8124	13.4189	56.2499
-0.1834	78.2046	4.4016	55.6074	8.9867	57.5973	13.5717	58.5092
-0.0306	64.1781	4.5545	51.3448	9.1395	56.9778	13.7246	55.7606
0.1223	67.5721	4.7073	53.5371	9.2923	58.6988	13.8774	55.4184
0.2751	63.9351	4.8601	54.6673	9.4452	56.9298	14.0302	55.2405
0.4279	23.7684	5.0130	54.7035	9.5980	57.1425	14.1831	54.3171
0.5808	55.7015	5.1658	52.7921	9.7509	57.0060	14.3359	58.1040
0.7336	54.5383	5.3186	53.3492	9.9037	56.8728	14.4887	58.7910
0.8864	53.5052	5.4715	53.3733	10.0565	58.5499	14.6416	57.6911
1.0393	54.0191	5.6243	54.4660	10.2094	57.7334	14.7944	59.5250
1.1921	42.7453	5.7771	53.9348	10.3622	57.0454	14.9472	59.4958
1.3449	50.8732	5.9300	51.6891	10.5150	60.6730	15.1001	56.3573
1.4978	46.4473	6.0828	50.5325	10.6679	60.5815	15.2529	57.7496
1.6506	45.4388	6.2357	51.7347	10.8207	58.6841	15.4057	59.0100
1.8034	51.3750	6.3885	53.6439	10.9735	57.7524	15.5586	56.6383
1.9563	56.5893	6.5413	51.8358	11.1264	56.3809	15.7114	58.2709
2.1091	51.5010	6.6942	50.7296	11.2792	56.1655	15.8642	58.5056
2.2620	53.6921	6.8470	52.0217	11.4320	56.8591	16.0171	60.2815
2.4148	55.1039	6.9998	53.6168	11.5849	57.2279	16.1699	60.7968
2.5676	56.3182	7.1527	51.7073	11.7377	59.0110	16.3227	57.6688
2.7205	57.5041	7.3055	49.5197	11.8905	61.5031	16.4756	56.6731
2.8733	56.6279	7.4583	52.7081	12.0434	62.7672	16.6284	51.7273
3.0261	55.4437	7.6112	52.7372	12.1962	60.4514	16.7812	55.9247
3.1790	57.6809	7.7640	52.4992	12.3490	57.8742	16.9341	56.3649

Table B.12: Nusselt Values,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 7912$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-1.2532	75.8588	3.3318	68.6099	7.9168	67.5596	12.5019	65.6078
-1.1004	92.9179	3.4846	70.0732	8.0697	69.1358	12.6547	66.2656
-0.9476	96.2131	3.6375	68.7263	8.2225	66.9321	12.8075	65.6966
-0.7947	70.6582	3.7903	64.9225	8.3753	65.6252	12.9604	62.3454
-0.6419	123.5772	3.9431	61.3016	8.5282	64.8146	13.1132	68.4466
-0.4891	123.6852	4.0960	61.9476	8.6810	65.4205	13.2660	68.8708
-0.3362	95.6253	4.2488	65.3296	8.8338	63.4311	13.4189	62.4751
-0.1834	78.2925	4.4016	62.9324	8.9867	64.1901	13.5717	62.6096
-0.0306	108.4266	4.5545	62.7758	9.1395	65.5752	13.7246	64.2461
0.1223	152.9878	4.7073	63.3086	9.2923	62.4176	13.8774	63.0350
0.2751	144.5645	4.8601	61.0678	9.4452	63.7342	14.0302	64.8775
0.4279	148.5900	5.0130	63.2299	9.5980	65.9268	14.1831	60.8225
0.5808	136.1914	5.1658	70.5209	9.7509	61.9014	14.3359	64.5533
0.7336	90.9393	5.3186	61.5382	9.9037	64.8628	14.4887	67.1025
0.8864	123.5583	5.4715	66.6624	10.0565	67.1206	14.6416	66.5473
1.0393	114.1828	5.6243	69.0337	10.2094	68.6772	14.7944	74.0931
1.1921	81.2428	5.7771	65.9018	10.3622	67.6339	14.9472	66.9189
1.3449	134.3594	5.9300	70.8686	10.5150	69.7988	15.1001	66.3901
1.4978	92.5207	6.0828	66.8098	10.6679	64.5581	15.2529	69.1312
1.6506	54.4226	6.2357	73.7049	10.8207	63.4530	15.4057	64.7151
1.8034	91.5187	6.3885	71.4243	10.9735	66.7056	15.5586	61.4993
1.9563	91.8398	6.5413	67.4976	11.1264	67.3038	15.7114	65.4983
2.1091	79.4865	6.6942	63.8077	11.2792	66.3756	15.8642	64.0778
2.2620	82.2250	6.8470	65.8773	11.4320	83.0387	16.0171	61.1901
2.4148	75.0801	6.9998	65.1814	11.5849	65.3588	16.1699	62.7093
2.5676	90.2459	7.1527	63.7664	11.7377	68.0727	16.3227	60.9447
2.7205	78.9621	7.3055	66.6236	11.8905	66.4911	16.4756	58.9529
2.8733	77.8438	7.4583	68.4005	12.0434	66.0922	16.6284	57.5705
3.0261	69.3485	7.6112	63.9097	12.1962	64.2234	16.7812	61.2883
3.1790	70.0825	7.7640	67.2624	12.3490	66.5550	16.9341	59.8140

Table B.13: Nusselt Values,  $D = 0.508$  mm,  $Re = 8733$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-1.2532	114.2259	3.3318	75.2560	7.9168	76.1638	12.5019	78.9139
-1.1004	115.3111	3.4846	76.2413	8.0697	79.4758	12.6547	75.9295
-0.9476	134.7586	3.6375	76.6717	8.2225	74.1462	12.8075	77.8199
-0.7947	149.3656	3.7903	112.5476	8.3753	74.7791	12.9604	78.2237
-0.6419	163.8086	3.9431	70.5700	8.5282	74.5006	13.1132	80.2023
-0.4891	160.2359	4.0960	74.8559	8.6810	77.8318	13.2660	80.1986
-0.3362	157.8591	4.2488	74.1585	8.8338	82.2009	13.4189	78.1773
-0.1834	156.7430	4.4016	71.9243	8.9867	76.1141	13.5717	77.0940
-0.0306	157.2115	4.5545	72.9209	9.1395	74.9902	13.7246	78.0467
0.1223	117.1749	4.7073	68.3752	9.2923	71.0448	13.8774	78.3915
0.2751	133.1833	4.8601	69.8294	9.4452	75.2943	14.0302	76.6232
0.4279	104.7791	5.0130	69.0091	9.5980	74.7041	14.1831	75.6104
0.5808	83.2759	5.1658	68.6131	9.7509	73.0976	14.3359	75.5384
0.7336	109.0721	5.3186	70.1154	9.9037	75.2618	14.4887	80.3211
0.8864	101.8467	5.4715	74.7364	10.0565	76.7741	14.6416	85.0919
1.0393	89.3920	5.6243	83.3799	10.2094	107.9243	14.7944	85.1333
1.1921	62.2741	5.7771	73.2788	10.3622	79.0172	14.9472	79.1133
1.3449	67.3852	5.9300	88.6800	10.5150	80.4753	15.1001	80.2073
1.4978	52.5692	6.0828	78.1800	10.6679	73.7810	15.2529	74.9543
1.6506	52.7258	6.2357	76.5591	10.8207	73.2363	15.4057	75.3209
1.8034	79.5104	6.3885	73.8150	10.9735	76.6401	15.5586	74.5672
1.9563	70.4087	6.5413	76.1248	11.1264	76.1428	15.7114	73.9448
2.1091	65.0600	6.6942	71.1944	11.2792	77.2277	15.8642	81.0024
2.2620	71.5769	6.8470	73.9577	11.4320	75.1122	16.0171	81.5971
2.4148	73.5293	6.9998	72.7689	11.5849	74.6053	16.1699	76.4062
2.5676	79.3281	7.1527	73.3009	11.7377	75.5142	16.3227	76.1359
2.7205	77.7041	7.3055	76.0460	11.8905	76.5393	16.4756	73.2447
2.8733	75.6597	7.4583	76.7907	12.0434	77.4396	16.6284	74.1113
3.0261	83.0670	7.6112	74.2137	12.1962	77.2061	16.7812	67.8452
3.1790	76.0998	7.7640	76.6132	12.3490	79.6861	16.9341	68.2670

Table B.14: Nusselt Values,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 5399$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-1.4553	72.8576	0.5094	59.1928	2.4740	50.3956	4.4387	51.9359
-1.3825	71.7673	0.5821	56.8515	2.5468	52.2424	4.5114	52.8260
-1.3098	77.4429	0.6549	59.2181	2.6195	50.7585	4.5842	53.8027
-1.2370	67.3995	0.7276	58.7174	2.6923	50.9129	4.6569	56.1729
-1.1642	77.7524	0.8004	56.3645	2.7651	50.2465	4.7297	54.1542
-1.0915	79.0824	0.8732	56.4528	2.8378	51.6955	4.8025	52.6314
-1.0187	77.8542	0.9459	55.9807	2.9106	50.8490	4.8752	51.9289
-0.9459	77.1123	1.0187	54.1511	2.9834	51.0960	4.9480	52.4467
-0.8732	76.0189	1.0915	56.5580	3.0561	50.6233	5.0208	52.4361
-0.8004	73.1773	1.1642	56.8641	3.1289	50.3395	5.0935	51.0645
-0.7276	74.6374	1.2370	54.7783	3.2016	51.5574	5.1663	50.9040
-0.6549	74.3107	1.3098	53.2428	3.2744	50.3751	5.2391	48.0379
-0.5821	73.5795	1.3825	53.8705	3.3472	51.2615	5.3118	49.8663
-0.5094	72.4066	1.4553	53.7988	3.4199	53.7924	5.3846	49.3879
-0.4366	73.7455	1.5281	52.3309	3.4927	52.7807	5.4574	51.8380
-0.3638	75.0689	1.6008	55.5375	3.5655	49.9627	5.5301	50.4357
-0.2911	72.6034	1.6736	52.3349	3.6382	52.6710	5.6029	54.0990
-0.2183	74.1347	1.7464	50.2906	3.7110	54.7226	5.6757	51.3476
-0.1455	70.8846	1.8191	50.7606	3.7838	53.8880	5.7484	48.9965
-0.0728	66.9300	1.8919	50.3525	3.8565	50.5044	5.8212	48.4194
0.0000	68.2446	1.9646	54.4512	3.9293	50.4461	5.8939	50.7495
0.0728	63.4302	2.0374	53.1442	4.0021	47.8866	5.9667	51.4048
0.1455	59.7861	2.1102	51.8788	4.0748	50.0426	6.0395	49.1497
0.2183	61.5205	2.1829	55.0452	4.1476	49.8416	6.1122	47.3828
0.2911	60.3975	2.2557	54.0996	4.2204	50.4261	6.1850	49.4464
0.3638	59.4133	2.3285	53.6946	4.2931	48.2543	6.2578	49.9548
0.4366	61.0356	2.4012	49.1564	4.3659	49.0682	6.3305	50.9389

Table B.15: Nusselt Values,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 6287$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-1.4553	89.3125	0.5094	67.6264	2.4740	74.6196	4.4387	67.1270
-1.3825	90.8903	0.5821	66.8721	2.5468	72.8080	4.5114	71.3811
-1.3098	89.1874	0.6549	64.2346	2.6195	64.2448	4.5842	70.0798
-1.2370	87.6795	0.7276	68.5732	2.6923	66.3660	4.6569	77.5893
-1.1642	89.1161	0.8004	64.6691	2.7651	70.5764	4.7297	75.4129
-1.0915	92.6215	0.8732	72.0774	2.8378	70.7837	4.8025	72.1904
-1.0187	92.2384	0.9459	68.2890	2.9106	69.4330	4.8752	68.7726
-0.9459	88.7688	1.0187	63.0376	2.9834	66.2549	4.9480	65.9650
-0.8732	89.1899	1.0915	69.7833	3.0561	68.1142	5.0208	67.6840
-0.8004	79.7691	1.1642	68.2527	3.1289	67.1107	5.0935	69.8300
-0.7276	81.6166	1.2370	71.5144	3.2016	71.6647	5.1663	70.3586
-0.6549	91.5596	1.3098	69.7880	3.2744	72.1770	5.2391	65.2790
-0.5821	85.5222	1.3825	69.4664	3.3472	72.0061	5.3118	68.1314
-0.5094	88.1794	1.4553	65.7104	3.4199	69.3259	5.3846	67.7640
-0.4366	92.5238	1.5281	64.8719	3.4927	67.5227	5.4574	68.7022
-0.3638	92.2493	1.6008	67.4664	3.5655	59.8451	5.5301	63.0508
-0.2911	84.6220	1.6736	68.3156	3.6382	63.2888	5.6029	77.6885
-0.2183	76.9407	1.7464	62.4722	3.7110	76.7320	5.6757	66.8358
-0.1455	72.0558	1.8191	61.0395	3.7838	76.3355	5.7484	66.0609
-0.0728	74.6408	1.8919	66.3641	3.8565	68.6931	5.8212	61.9197
0.0000	76.1278	1.9646	68.4457	3.9293	61.7055	5.8939	62.1008
0.0728	72.7553	2.0374	73.4243	4.0021	59.1154	5.9667	65.5517
0.1455	69.9079	2.1102	69.2720	4.0748	59.7376	6.0395	64.6022
0.2183	68.9168	2.1829	73.8407	4.1476	67.4233	6.1122	63.7628
0.2911	72.6547	2.2557	77.7294	4.2204	69.1443	6.1850	65.9635
0.3638	64.9778	2.3285	73.9474	4.2931	63.1673	6.2578	61.2300
0.4366	73.7240	2.4012	70.2234	4.3659	55.2167	6.3305	64.1345

Table B.16: Nusselt Values,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 8035$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-0.7745	144.4323	0.6971	115.9026	2.1686	118.1682	3.6402	121.4308
-0.7358	137.3592	0.7358	115.6437	2.2073	118.8159	3.6789	122.2544
-0.6971	139.8173	0.7745	115.0572	2.2461	120.3741	3.7176	123.6064
-0.6583	130.0791	0.8132	115.0838	2.2848	119.7596	3.7564	124.2683
-0.6196	132.1218	0.8520	118.0156	2.3235	118.8226	3.7951	123.4988
-0.5809	124.4819	0.8907	116.9348	2.3622	117.1824	3.8338	122.5398
-0.5422	133.1563	0.9294	117.2603	2.4010	116.9762	3.8725	122.4129
-0.5034	127.2542	0.9681	116.3404	2.4397	117.8773	3.9113	122.6733
-0.4647	138.8873	1.0069	116.5911	2.4784	119.0901	3.9500	121.4571
-0.4260	134.0105	1.0456	116.5927	2.5172	118.0554	3.9887	120.7689
-0.3873	129.6317	1.0843	117.1817	2.5559	119.6131	4.0274	121.6200
-0.3485	124.0444	1.1230	120.6216	2.5946	121.2449	4.0662	122.5228
-0.3098	124.0492	1.1618	120.8530	2.6333	119.1876	4.1049	121.8915
-0.2711	124.9305	1.2005	118.1125	2.6721	119.5600	4.1436	122.4522
-0.2324	126.0059	1.2392	116.7825	2.7108	119.9400	4.1823	122.9785
-0.1936	118.8815	1.2779	116.7254	2.7495	121.2367	4.2211	124.7744
-0.1549	115.5195	1.3167	116.6053	2.7882	119.8572	4.2598	125.9549
-0.1162	114.5610	1.3554	116.3787	2.8270	119.2374	4.2985	125.8507
-0.0775	114.4459	1.3941	115.4414	2.8657	119.4287	4.3372	127.8444
-0.0387	112.4732	1.4328	115.4479	2.9044	119.2186	4.3760	127.0497
0.0000	113.1363	1.4716	115.1546	2.9431	117.4226	4.4147	127.6853
0.0387	117.9481	1.5103	116.4370	2.9819	118.0299	4.4534	127.6859
0.0775	117.8857	1.5490	116.1696	3.0206	119.9938	4.4921	124.7283
0.1162	116.5760	1.5877	116.2010	3.0593	120.1420	4.5309	126.0814
0.1549	116.3025	1.6265	117.7201	3.0980	119.2670	4.5696	128.3649
0.1936	116.7006	1.6652	119.1994	3.1368	119.8478	4.6083	127.6367
0.2324	117.8084	1.7039	118.3294	3.1755	119.7603	4.6470	126.2187
0.2711	114.7185	1.7426	117.9086	3.2142	119.1109	4.6858	126.5845
0.3098	116.7082	1.7814	119.0532	3.2529	119.4568	4.7245	126.8596
0.3485	117.9434	1.8201	118.6447	3.2917	120.8371	4.7632	126.4777
0.3873	114.8436	1.8588	118.6050	3.3304	121.8629	4.8019	126.8699
0.4260	115.0210	1.8975	118.7398	3.3691	122.2426	4.8407	127.3090
0.4647	115.2297	1.9363	118.8855	3.4078	122.7985	4.8794	125.0733
0.5034	117.8191	1.9750	117.8603	3.4466	122.7777	4.9181	125.3423
0.5422	116.2080	2.0137	118.8493	3.4853	121.6413	4.9569	124.6655
0.5809	113.8649	2.0524	119.5755	3.5240	118.9872	4.9956	123.8695
0.6196	117.3613	2.0912	118.5110	3.5627	118.8942		
0.6583	118.5630	2.1299	117.6894	3.6015	120.8071		

Table B.17: Nusselt Values,  $D = 1.067$  mm,  $Re = 8926$ , FC-72

$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$	$x/D$	$Nu_x$
-0.7745	143.2138	0.6971	129.7550	2.1686	133.1661	3.6402	136.9547
-0.7358	160.3251	0.7358	130.5045	2.2073	132.4063	3.6789	137.3034
-0.6971	165.9414	0.7745	130.4582	2.2461	133.2416	3.7176	140.0286
-0.6583	147.7325	0.8132	129.7450	2.2848	135.2942	3.7564	139.8699
-0.6196	155.4539	0.8520	129.2719	2.3235	134.9164	3.7951	137.1826
-0.5809	165.2209	0.8907	130.8158	2.3622	134.4377	3.8338	137.5820
-0.5422	154.6693	0.9294	127.8060	2.4010	135.4596	3.8725	136.6091
-0.5034	144.3108	0.9681	127.4114	2.4397	134.0717	3.9113	137.5829
-0.4647	151.0529	1.0069	127.2119	2.4784	134.2072	3.9500	138.3865
-0.4260	141.9345	1.0456	127.7740	2.5172	134.9866	3.9887	140.2370
-0.3873	151.1974	1.0843	128.9331	2.5559	135.4963	4.0274	140.4428
-0.3485	143.1508	1.1230	128.3708	2.5946	136.1352	4.0662	139.3459
-0.3098	139.5844	1.1618	128.4422	2.6333	134.7459	4.1049	139.6487
-0.2711	133.3421	1.2005	129.1357	2.6721	134.2819	4.1436	139.3533
-0.2324	133.6544	1.2392	130.9750	2.7108	134.0385	4.1823	139.3434
-0.1936	138.9085	1.2779	129.0324	2.7495	135.3455	4.2211	138.9144
-0.1549	142.7772	1.3167	129.0683	2.7882	135.8561	4.2598	139.0399
-0.1162	137.5121	1.3554	129.0050	2.8270	133.6752	4.2985	140.5364
-0.0775	137.6689	1.3941	131.9382	2.8657	133.5864	4.3372	142.7322
-0.0387	132.8767	1.4328	132.5818	2.9044	133.8199	4.3760	140.9220
0.0000	131.0222	1.4716	131.0524	2.9431	134.9565	4.4147	142.0501
0.0387	132.5401	1.5103	131.7350	2.9819	134.7263	4.4534	143.4465
0.0775	132.6310	1.5490	131.2632	3.0206	135.4708	4.4921	142.9071
0.1162	127.8724	1.5877	132.4031	3.0593	136.0905	4.5309	141.6187
0.1549	127.4456	1.6265	131.9017	3.0980	136.0018	4.5696	140.0880
0.1936	127.3340	1.6652	134.0677	3.1368	135.9413	4.6083	138.1546
0.2324	128.9258	1.7039	132.3067	3.1755	137.3883	4.6470	138.2802
0.2711	133.9485	1.7426	132.0452	3.2142	138.0851	4.6858	140.2458
0.3098	134.7362	1.7814	134.1089	3.2529	138.1948	4.7245	139.3466
0.3485	133.4717	1.8201	133.8880	3.2917	137.2787	4.7632	139.0678
0.3873	133.0282	1.8588	134.9284	3.3304	138.5181	4.8019	139.7882
0.4260	131.3383	1.8975	137.6056	3.3691	137.0802	4.8407	139.5614
0.4647	129.9229	1.9363	139.1439	3.4078	136.6074	4.8794	138.4387
0.5034	130.0460	1.9750	138.1087	3.4466	135.9612	4.9181	138.5696
0.5422	128.4442	2.0137	137.0373	3.4853	138.2953	4.9569	140.0999
0.5809	128.3793	2.0524	133.3090	3.5240	136.5836	4.9956	139.8338
0.6196	131.4384	2.0912	132.8088	3.5627	136.6736		
0.6583	129.8045	2.1299	132.5813	3.6015	137.3448		