# Experimental analysis of flow pattern and heat transfer in circular-orifice baffled tubes

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# Abstract

An experimental study on the thermal-hydraulic and flow pattern characteristics of tubes with circular-orifice baffled inserts is performed. A geometry with an orifice-to-tube diameter ratio of d/D = 0.5 and an interbaffle spacing equal to 1.5 D is tested in steady-state conditions. Isothermal friction factor tests in the range 10 < Re < 2200 allow the laminar, transitional and turbulent flow regimes to be identified. Flow visualization by means of hydrogen bubbles is used to assess the main flow structures and their relation with the onset of transition, which occurs at  $Re \approx 160$ . Heat transfer experiments under uniform heat flux are conducted in order to obtain the Nusselt number as a function of Reynolds number, for 150 < Pr < 630, using propylene-glycol as the test fluid. Numerical simulations are used to complement the visualization study and explain the role of the flow structures on the thermal-hydraulic behavior.

Keywords: heat transfer enhancement, turbulence promoters, transitional

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flow, circular-ring turbulator, baffled tube

# <sup>1</sup> Nomenclature

2	$c_p$	specific heat (J $kg^{-1} K^{-1}$ )
3	$C_0$	orifice coefficient (-)
4	d	orifice diameter (m)
5	D	tube inner diameter (m)
6	k	thermal conductivity (W m <sup><math>-1</math></sup> K <sup><math>-1</math></sup> )
7	l	Tube length (m)
8	$l_{rec}$	recirculation length (m)
9	L	distance between consecutive baffles (m)
10	$L_h$	heated length (m)
11	$L_p$	distance between pressure ports (m)
12	$\dot{m}$	mass flow rate $(kg/s)$
13	N	number of tubes (-)
14	q	net heat transfer rate (W)
15	q''	net heat flux $(W/m^2)$
16	R3	performance evaluation criterion (-)
17	S	open area, $(d/D)^2$ (-)
18	t	Baffle thickness (m)
19	Т	Temperature (°C)
20	u	mean velocity, based on the tube diameter, $D~({\rm m})$
21	$\dot{W}$	power consumption (W)
22	x	axial distance from the start of the heated area (m)
23	$\Delta p$	pressure drop (Pa)

24			
25	Dimensior	nless groups	
26	f	Fanning friction factor, $\frac{\Delta p}{2\rho u^2} \frac{D}{L}$	
27	Gr	Grash of number, $g\beta q''D^4/k\nu^2$	
28	Nu	Nusselt number, $hD/k$	
29	Pr	Prandtl number, $\mu c_p/k$	
30	Re	Reynolds number, $\rho v D/\mu$	
31			
32	Greek symbols		
33	$\beta$	coefficient of thermal expansion $({\rm K}^{-1})$	
34	$\mu$	dynamic viscosity (kg m <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )	
35	ν	kinematic viscosity $(Pas)$	
36	ρ	fluid density (kg $m^{-3}$ )	
37	σ	standard deviation	
38			
39	Subscripts		
40	b	bulk	
41	in	inlet	
42	j	section number	
43	S	smooth tube	
44	wi	inner wall	
45			

#### 46 1. Introduction

Insert devices are widely used means of heat transfer enhancement, which 47 can be installed in smooth tubes of heat exchangers while maintaining their 48 original mechanical strength. Likewise, retrofitting of existing equipment 49 with tube inserts is also a remarkable advantage of this type of devices. 50 Twisted tapes [1, 2, 3], wire coils [4, 5] and wire meshes [6] are typical designs 51 used as insert devices in heat exchangers. Their geometrical characteristics 52 must be chosen according to the operational conditions of the internal flow, 53 in order to maximize convective heat transfer enhancement, keep pressure 54 drop under reasonable levels and -if applicable- achieve turbulent promotion 55 at low Reynolds number. Equally-spaced circular rings are another typology 56 of insert device, where convective heat transfer is augmented on the basis of 57 the periodic contraction and expansion of the bulk flow. They consist of flat 58 disks with a central orifice, whose open area fraction is typically characterized 59 by the orifice-to-tube diameter ratio d/D. 60

A limited number of experimental studies have analyzed the thermal-hydraulic 61 performance of circular rings. Kongkaitpaiboon et al. [7] studied the heat 62 transfer and pressure drop for circular-ring turbulators, testing several diam-63 eter ratios (d/D = 0.5, 0.6 and 0.7) and three pitch ratios, L/D (free space 64 between baffles divided by the tube inner diameter), achieving a maximum 65 thermal performance of 7% for the lowest pitch ratio (L/D = 6) and the high-66 est d/D value. Promvonge et al. [8] tested inclined annular baffles, varying 67 the relation between the disk thickness and the tube diameter, and the pitch 68 ratio (0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0) for an angle of 30°. A maximum value of 40% was 69 found for the thermal performance for the lowest thickness/diameter ratio 70

and the lowest pitch ratio. Acir et al. [9] studied heat transfer in tubes with 71 annular disks, focusing on the effect of the pitch ratio L/D, and the number 72 of orifices over the annulus; a maximum thermal performance of 83% was 73 found for the geometry with two orifices and L/D = 2. Ruengpayungsak 74 et al. [10] modified the annular geometry to include some semi-circular ori-75 fices to achieve a gear-ring geometry; a maximum thermal performance for 76 L/D = 3 of 24%, 26%, 28% and 30% was found for baffles with tooth numbers 77 of 0, 8, 16 and 24. In addition, circular-rings have been used in combination 78 with other geometries as twisted tapes. Eiamsa-ard et al. [11] studied the 79 thermal performance of a tube with twisted-tape and circular ring inserts. 80 Several twist ratios (3.0, 4.0 and 5.0) and pitch ratios (1.0, 1.5 and 2.0) were 81 tested. The maximum thermal performance, 42%, was achieved at the lowest 82 twist and pitch ratios and Reynolds number tested ( $Re \approx 6000$ ). Abolarin 83 et al. [12] tested u-cut twisted tapes with ring inserts, obtaining earlier tran-84 sitions and an increase in the pressure drop and the heat transfer when the 85 rings were inserted, and the distance between them was lower. 86

From these studies, it can be concluded that these inserts show a high thermal 87 performance when their geometry is well selected. It is also remarkable that 88 all of them detected the highest thermal performance at the lowest Reynolds 89 number of their tests, which were in almost all cases above Re = 3000. How-90 ever, many industrial applications that may require the use of insert devices 91 for heat transfer enhancement purposes work in laminar or transitional flow 92 regimes and high Prandtl number fluids. Furthermore, the effect of Prandtl 93 number on heat transfer in tubes with circular rings is not reported in the 94 open literature, as the majority of experiments only use air as test fluid.

In addition to the interest of circular rings as a passive technique, these 96 inserts have spread their applications during the last decades, due to the 97 potential benefit in enhancing mass and heat transfer when an oscillatory 98 flow is superimposed to a net flow. Currently, this configuration is found in 99 oscillatory-baffled reactors (OBR), where the inserts promote the continuous 100 flow separation and reattachment. In OBRs, a high-residence time product 101 flows across the circular tube, yielding very low net flow Reynolds numbers. 102 A piston or bellow connected to the tube provides a superimposed oscillatory 103 flow, which increases the radial mixing and promotes heat and mass transfer 104 intensively [13]. A few number of experimental investigations have shed 105 light on the heat transfer characteristics of OBRs with circular orifice baffles 106 [14, 15, 16]. However, the performance of the tube insert in the absence of 107 oscillatory flow is still insufficiently described, correlations for Nusselt number 108 are available only for the turbulent region (Reynolds numbers above 200) and 109 the role of the Prandtl number has not been studied properly. In addition, 110 González-Juárez et al. [17] studied numerically the heat transfer in baffled 111 tubes and reported unrealistic behaviors for the proposed correlations [14, 15] 112 after extrapolating at lower Reynolds numbers, because these provided lower 113 heat transfer rates than a smooth tube. The need to increase the studied 114 range of Reynolds numbers is justified by some potential applications, where 115 the required residence time could be higher, or the fluid has a very high 116 viscosity. 117

The experimental analysis of the flow pattern in circular rings has also attracted little attention up to date. Kiml et al. [18] performed heat transfer and visualization tests in tubes with transverse and inclined circular rings,

with d/D = 0.8, working in the Reynolds number range [5000 - 20000]. 121 Focusing on the transverse ribs, they identified the separation bubbles just 122 behind the ribs and the reattachment point between consecutive ribs. This 123 flow pattern showed a clear influence on the local Nusselt number results; 124 after the flow separation downstream the rib, a sharp drop in heat transfer 125 was noticed past the reattachment point due to the boundary layer growth. 126 Muñoz et al. [19] used the Particle Image Velocimetry technique to study the 127 behavior of the flow in equally-spaced baffles in round tubes with d/D = 0.5, 128 L/D = 1.5 and 20 < Re < 300. The measurement of the turbulent intensity 129 and the energy of the fluctuating components of the flow field allowed to 130 assess the unstable nature of the flow for Re > 160. 131

Experimental correlations for Fanning friction factor in the low Reynolds 132 number range (e.g. Re < 3000) have not been reported so far in the open 133 literature. An attempt to quantify the steady-state pressure drop in net 134 and oscillatory superimposed flows was accounted for in the quasy-steady 135 model proposed by Jealous and Johnson [20]. This model assumes that the 136 pressure drop caused by a steady-state flow along a tube with equally-spaced 137 annular baffles is the same as a series of individual orifices in a turbulent 138 flow, using the discharge coefficient concept. This approach presents two 139 main drawbacks: a) the discharge coefficient is strongly influenced by the flow 140 regime [21], particularly in the laminar and transitional ranges, which advises 141 against the use of a constant discharge coefficient in some applications; b) 142 the interaction of the flow between consecutive baffles is not accounted for if 143 the discharge coefficient is used for evaluating the overall pressure drop. 144

<sup>145</sup> The present study aims at clarifying some open questions on the thermal-

hydraulic characteristics and flow mechanisms in tubes with equally-spaced 146 annular baffles working in the laminar and transitional flow regimes. A baffle 147 geometry with d/D = 0.5 and pitch ratio L/D = 1.5 is used as test speci-148 men, following the widely accepted designs for the construction of oscillatory 149 baffled reactors proposed by Ni et al. [22]. Heat transfer tests under uniform 150 heat flux conditions are conducted for a range of net-flow Reynolds number 151 10 < Re < 3000, using propylene-glycol as working fluid at different tem-152 peratures, which allows to extend the Prandtl number analysis to the range 153 150 < Pr < 630. Friction factor measurements obtained under isothermal 154 conditions are presented in the range 10 < Re < 3000, allowing the transi-155 tion from laminar to turbulent flow to be identified. The physics of transition 156 are described experimentally using hydrogen bubble visualization, and CFD 157 results are also employed to support the discussion of the impact of the flow 158 structures on the thermohydraulic behaviour. 159

# <sup>160</sup> 2. Experimental test rig

# 161 2.1. Geometry

The geometry under study is shown at Fig. 1. The insert baffles are a geometrical annuli fitted to the inner tube wall, with an orifice diameter d = 0.5D. The baffle spacing is 1.5*D*. The baffles are made of PEEK plastic (to avoid electrical conduction from the tube wall) with thickness t = 1mm. They are assembled using three axial rods (1.6 mm diameter).



Figure 1: Baffle geometry and thermocouple arrangement in the test section.

167 2.2. Visualization facility

<sup>168</sup> The facility depicted in Fig. 2 was built in order to study the flow within the

<sup>169</sup> described geometry by using hydrogen bubble visualization.



Figure 2: Experimental setup for hydrogen bubble visualization.

The test section consists of a D = 32 mm diameter acrylic tube (also depicted at Fig. 2) equally spaced insert baffles which are fixed by three steel rods. The use of the rods has been avoided in the visualization section for better results. Five baffles are placed upstream of the test section and also downstream of it in order to ensure spatial periodicity of the flow field. A flat-sided acrylic box, filled with the same working fluid used in the facility, is placed around the test section for a better optical access.

Heating and final temperature control is carried out by an electric heater
located in the upper reservoir tank. A Coriolis flowmeter and a control valve
are used to control and monitor the working flow rate.

The visualization by hydrogen bubbles is a qualitative technique that allows 180 the perception of the main flow structures. For that, the hydrogen bubbles 181 are generated by means of a copper wire (cathode) that crosses the tube 182 diametrically upstream of the visualization area, being the anode a metallic 183 component of the circuit located downstream of the test section. Thus, a 184 symmetry plane of the flow is seeded with hydrogen bubbles, while illumina-185 tion is provided by two rear lamps. A CMOS  $1280 \times 1024 \text{ pix}^2 \text{ CMOS}$  camera 186 is situated in orthogonal position in relation to that plane, so that it can have 187 a front view of it, or in parallel to it in order to have a side view. The bubbles 188 size and quantity are set up by adjusting the direct current voltage applied 189 between cathode and anode. Finally, In order to work with feed voltages 190 below 50 V, the electrical conductivity of the working fluid is increased by 191 adding salt. 192

#### 193 2.3. Thermal-hydraulic tests

A schematic diagram of the experimental set-up is shown in Fig. 3. It consists 194 of three independent circuits. The second and third circuits are used to 195 regulate the temperature of the reservoir tank (1). Test fluid was pumped 196 from the open reservoir tank (1) by a train of three variable-speed gear pumps 197 (2). The flow rate was measured by a Coriolis flow-meter (3). The baffles 198 are installed in the main circuit (5). The test section was a thin-walled, 2 199 m long, 316L stainless steel tube with 37 equally-spaced insert baffles. The 200 inner and outer diameters of the tube were 32 mm and 35 mm, respectively 201



Figure 3: Experimental set-up. (1) Reservoir tank, (2) Pumping system, (3) Coriolis Flowmeter, (4) PT-100 Class B 1/10 DIN temperature sensors, Inlet, (5) Baffles, (6) Wall thermocouples, (7) PT100, Outlet, (8) Pressure transducer, (9) Autotransformer, (10) PID Controller, (11) Heat Exchanger, (12) Centrifugal Pump, (13) Three way valve, (14) Centrifugal Pump, (15) Reservoir tank, (16) Chiller.

Heat transfer experiments were carried out under uniform heat flux (UHF) conditions. The tube was heated by Joule effect through AC in the tube wall. Power was supplied by a 6 kVA transformer (9) connected with copper electrodes to the tube. A variable auto-transformer was used for power regulation. The loop was insulated by an elastomeric thermal insulation material to minimize heat losses. The overall electrical power added to the heating section was calculated by measuring the voltage between electrodes and the electrical current. Fluid inlet (4) and outlet (7) temperatures were measured
by submerged type RTDs (Resistance Temperature Detector).

Fig. 1 shows the wall temperature measurement lay-out installed along the 211 test section, using T-type thermocouples. The measurement section is lo-212 cated 13 cell tanks downstream of the first electrode, to ensure that the flow 213 is thermally developed (spatially-periodic). A total number of 64 thermo-214 couples peripherally distributed along eight axial sections on the outside wall 215 cover two consecutive mixing tanks, following the sketches of Fig. 1. This 216 arrangement is aimed at detecting the circumferential temperature gradient 217 due to the flow stratification in the laminar region, and the axial temperature 218 variations due to the local flow characteristics that occur between consecutive 219 baffles. Pressure drop tests were carried out under isothermal conditions. In 220 order to capture the characteristics of the spatially-periodic flow, the first 221 pressure port is placed in the fifth inter-baffle spacing. The second pressure 222 port is located in the twenty-seventh inter-baffle spacing, which falls at a 223 distance  $L_p = 1.296$  downstream. Four pressure holes separated by 90° are 224 made in the pressure connections in order to accommodate any peripheral 225 disturbances of the static pressure. A set of highly accurate capacitive dif-226 ferential pressure transducers (range: 0-10 mbar, 0-50 mbar, 5-500 mbar, 227 22-2500 mbar) were employed to measure the pressure drop along the test 228 section. Propylene-glycol is used as working fluid. To ensure the right char-229 acterization of the fluid viscosity, a calibrated Cannon-Fenske viscometer is 230 used periodically. The fluid temperature in the main tank is regulated by 231 two additional circuits, with a variation of 0.1°C of the target temperature. 232

#### 233 2.4. Data reduction

Two different calibration tests were performed in order to conduct the heat 234 transfer experiments appropriately. Firstly, calibration of the wall thermo-235 couples was achieved by circulating very high flow rates of fluid at different 236 temperatures. Steady-state measurements of the inlet and outlet tempera-237 tures and evaluation of the conduction thermal resistances across tube wall 238 and insulation, allowed us to calibrate them, taking into account any contact 239 resistance with the tube wall. Secondly, heat losses to the ambient were eval-240 uated by measuring the fluid inlet and outlet temperatures when low flow 241 rates were circulated through the test section at different temperatures. The 242 circumferential average Nusselt number is calculated at each section, j, using 243 the following expression: 244

$$\bar{N}u_j = \frac{q''}{\bar{T}_w i_{i,j} - T_{b,j}} \cdot \frac{D}{k} \tag{1}$$

where q'' is the generated heat (the voltage times the electric current) minus 245 the heat losses along the test section, per heated area.  $T_{w_{i,j}}$  is the aver-246 aged inner wall temperature at the j section, which is calculated using a 247 two-dimensional numerical model which solves the radial and axial heat con-248 duction equation in the tube wall.  $T_{b_i}$  is the bulk fluid temperature at the 249 section j. Since the heat was added uniformly along the tube length,  $T_{b_j}$  was 250 calculated by considering a linear variation with the axial direction, according 251 to: 252

$$T_{b,j} = T_{b,in} + \frac{q}{\dot{m}c_p} \cdot \frac{x_j}{L_h} \tag{2}$$

where  $T_{b,i}$  is the fluid temperature at the inlet of the test section and  $x_j$  is the axial distance between the test section j and the point where the tube heating starts. The circumferential average Nusselt number is corrected by the factor  $(\mu_{w_i}/\mu_{w_b})^{0.14}$  to account for the change in the physical properties due to the temperature radial gradient [23]. Finally, the axial-averaged Nusselt number is calculated as:

$$\bar{N}u = \frac{\sum_{1}^{8} \bar{N}u_j}{8} \tag{3}$$

Fanning friction factor was determined from the fluid mass flow rate and thepressure drop measurements as:

$$f = \frac{\rho \pi^2 D^5 \Delta p}{32 \,\dot{m}^2 L_p} \tag{4}$$

# 261 2.5. Uncertainty analysis

The experimental uncertainty was calculated by following the Guide to the expression of uncertainty in measurement' published by ISO [24]. Instrumentation errors are summarized in Table 1. Uncertainty calculations based on a 95% confidence level showed limit values of 5.4% for Reynolds number, 3.9% for Prandtl number, 6.3% for Fanning friction factor and 2.3% for Nusselt number.

# 268 3. Numerical model

A 3D model of a tube with eight equally-spaced baffles is created and meshed using structured, hexahedral grid. A double compression ratio was introduced in both sides of the baffles, where greater variations of the flow pattern

Measurement	Uncertainty	
Bulk temperature	0.15 °C	
Wall temperature	1.12 °C	
Voltage	0.04% measure + $0.03%$ full scale	
Intensity	0.1% measure + $0.04%$ full scale	
Viscosity	3% measure	
Pressure drop	0.2% measure	
Thermal conductivity	0.9% measure	
Specific heat	0.3% measure	
Tube diameter	0.1% measure	
Heat transfer section	0.01 m	
Thermocouples position	0.005 m	
Pressure test section	0.005 m	

Table 1: Measurement uncertainties

were expected due to the geometry constriction, and in radial direction, to 272 ensure better solution where higher-velocity gradients were expected. The 273 finite volume software ANSYS Fluent 18 was employed for the solution of 274 the continuity and momentum pressure-based equations. Full Navier-Stokes 275 equations were treated in general, body fitted coordinates. A control-volume 276 storage scheme was employed where all variables were stored at the cell cen-277 ter. A second order upwind scheme was used in order to interpolate the face 278 values of computed variables. An implicit segregated solver solved the gov-279 erning equations sequentially. In this study the pressure-velocity coupling 280 algorithm SIMPLE was used. Steady-state simulations were solved in a first 281 attempt, followed by the solution of the unsteady problem over a total time 282 t = 10 s, using a time step  $\Delta t = 0.1$  s, with a second-order discretization. 283 This ensured a better convergence of the problem. 284

#### 285 4. Flow visualization results

Experiments were carried out for Reynolds numbers between 25 < Re < 410. The results are shown at Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 in front and lateral views.

In Fig. 4(a), the front view for Re = 25, a core jet can be observed down-288 stream the baffle, which gets broader along the cell and then narrower again 289 upstream the next baffle. Besides, low velocities are detected in the periph-290 eral region. For Re = 120 the core jet has an uniform diameter along the 291 interbaffle space, which is equal to the baffles orifice diameter, d. In Fig. 4(b), 292 the bubbles generation was adjusted to show the recirculation of the outer 293 region of the flow, which, again, has much lower velocities than the jet. By 294 comparing the results for Re = 25 and Re = 120, the recirculation in the 295



Figure 4: Front view of the flow seeded with hydrogen bubbles for different Reynolds numbers.







(b) Re = 240.



(c) Re = 410.

Figure 5: Lateral view of the flow seeded with hydrogen bubbles for different Reynolds numbers.

outer region of the flow is observed to grow with the Reynolds number. The 296 results for this range of Reynolds numbers (Re < 120) show laminar flow 297 conditions. This can be clearly detected from the lateral view of the flow 298 depicted in Fig. 5(a), where the hydrogen bubbles remain in the same plane. 299 At Reynolds number Re = 160 (Fig. 4(c)), a similar core jet dominates the 300 flow, although significant pulsations are detected. Such pulsations are also 301 observed, in a higher frequency, in the lateral view for Re = 240 in Fig. 5(b), 302 where they result in part of the bubbles coming out of the symmetry plane. 303 For higher Reynolds numbers the flow becomes chaotic. The front view of the 304 flow field for Re = 300, depicted in Fig. 4(d), shows no appreciable pattern 305 but a disordered flow, while the lateral view provides qualitative information 306 about a high mass transfer taking place in radial direction. The same flow 307 behaviour is observed in the experiment at Re = 410 in Fig. 5(c). 308

Text for electronic version only: The corresponding videos to the previous images can be also visualized. They show the front view of the flow seeded with hydrogen bubbles for: Re = 25 (Video 1), Re = 120 (Video 2), Re = 160 (Video 3) and Re = 300 (Video 4), and the lateral view for Re = 45 (Video 5), Re = 240 (Video 6) and Re = 410 (Video 7).

# 314 5. Numerical results

As could be observed in the previous section, the flow pattern seems to play a key role at low Reynolds numbers before the onset of the transition. The flow pattern is studied in more detailed in this subsection. So, several simulations have been performed in the laminar regime, from Re = 1 to Re = 150. The results, showing the velocity magnitude and the streamlines for a meridional plane along a cell (space between baffles), are represented in Fig. 6 for four
Reynolds numbers.

For the lowest Reynolds number simulated (Fig. 6 (a)), Re = 1, the core 322 stream expands after flowing through the baffle growing up to the walls. 323 Despite the low Reynolds number, a tiny recirculation can be already seen 324 downstream the baffles. For Re=15, Fig. 6 (b), the core stream still reaches 325 the wall after expanding, but the recirculation has grown substantially. A 326 limit case can be seen at Re = 32, Fig. 6 (c), the core stream is not able 327 to fully expand before reaching the next baffle. The recirculation fills more 328 than one half of the interbaffle spacing. The extreme case corresponds to the 329 pattern at Re = 102, Fig. 6 (d), the core stream expands very slightly, and 330 the recirculation fills all the space between consecutive baffles, this way, the 331 flow can be described as a short-circuit between baffles. 332

In order to quantify the evolution of the size of the recirculation area, the recirculation size is calculated by measuring the average distance from the baffle for which the axial velocity reverses. A non-dimensional definition of this size for different Reynolds number is presented in Fig. 7. The graph shows a growth of the recirculation bubble with the Reynolds number, which ranges from a tiny size  $(l_{rec}/D = 0.04)$  at Re = 1 to the maximum achievable value, which is the interbaffle spacing, at Re = 70.

#### 340 6. Thermal-hydraulic results

#### 341 6.1. Pressure drop

In this subsection, the main pressure drop results are presented for Reynolds numbers from Re = 7 to Re = 3000, and the different flow regions are



Figure 6: CFD contour of non-dimensional velocity,  $v/v_{med}$  in the symmetry plane of the OBR.



Figure 7: Recirculation zone size as a function of the Reynolds number.

identified. Fig. 8 (a) shows experimental results of the Fanning friction factor versus the Reynolds number for the geometry under study. The analytical solution for a smooth tube in laminar regime and the result obtained for an orifice plate, with an orifice coefficient equals to 0.8, are represented as well. The standard deviation of the pressure drop signal, sampled at a frequency f = 2 Hz, is also presented in Fig. 8 (b). The analysis of both results allow to distinguish three different flow regions:



Figure 8: Fanning friction factor as a function of the Reynolds number for several tested fluid temperatures.

- 351 Region I: Re < 160
- $_{\tt 352}$   $\,$  In this region, the flow presents characteristics of laminar flow, with a strong
- $_{\tt 353}$  influence of the Reynolds number on the friction factor, what agrees with

the visualization results showed in Section 4. Likewise, the low fluctuation of the pressure drop signal -which is the lowest among all the regions- is a good measure of the steadiness of the flow. Besides, friction factor augmentations of about 8 times, compared to the smooth tube, are identified. Pressure drop in this region can be estimated by the following correlation, which matches the experimental results with an accuracy of 10%:

$$f = 36.5 \ Re^{-0.709} \qquad 7 < Re < 160 \tag{5}$$

360 Region II: 160 < Re < 300

An abrupt change in friction factor in this region indicates the onset of transition to turbulence. Intense fluctuations of the pressure drop signal are identified in Fig. 8 (b), which correspond to the unstable behavior that has also been detected in the flow visualization tests for the same operational regime (see Figs. 4c and 5b, and the corresponding videos).

366 Region III: Re > 300

The turbulent flow regime is achieved from  $Re \approx 300$  onwards. The standard deviation of the pressure signal is stabilized, with higher values than those of the laminar flow regime. The low influence of the Reynolds number on friction factor is also noticeable. The following correlation is proposed for the range 300 < Re < 3000, which meets all the experimental results with an accuracy of 8%:

$$f = 3.14 \ Re^{-0.033} \qquad \qquad 300 < Re < 3000 \tag{6}$$

<sup>373</sup> As reflected in Fig. 8 (a), the friction factor is much lower than the one <sup>374</sup> expected for an orifice with the same open area ratio. This can be justified <sup>375</sup> by the interaction between consecutive baffles, after crossing a baffle the <sup>376</sup> flow is not developed before reaching the next one, so the effect can not be <sup>377</sup> described as a series of independent baffles.

# 378 6.2. Heat transfer

In this subsection, the main heat transfer results are provided for Reynolds 379 numbers from 10 to 2200, and Prandtl numbers from 150 to 630. Fig. 9 shows 380 experimental results of the Nusselt number as a function of the Reynolds 381 number for three Prandtl numbers, Pr = 150, 285 and 630. Based on the 382 influence of Reynolds number, three different flow regions can be clearly 383 distinguished: laminar, transitional and turbulent. In the laminar region 384 (Re < 160) there is a low influence of the Reynolds number on heat transfer 385 coefficients are significantly higher than those that would be obtained for 386 a smooth tube working under mixed convection conditions. The Reynolds 387 number influence is quite sharp in the transitional region (160 < Re < 300). 388 Onwards, the onset of turbulence highly increases the heat transfer rates. 389 This outbreak occurs for Re > 300, which proves the suitability of the insert 390 baffles as turbulence promoters for heat transfer increment purposes. 391



Figure 9: Nusselt number vs Reynolds number for three Prandtl numbers.

These data can be adjusted to correlations which as well show the influence of the Reynolds and Prandtl numbers on the Nusselt number. Eq. 7 corresponds to region I (laminar) and Eq. 8 to region III (turbulent).

$$Nu = 1.304 \ Re^{0.402} \ Pr^{0.227} \qquad 10 < Re < 100 \tag{7}$$

$$Nu = 0.503 \ Re^{0.735} \ Pr^{0.216} \qquad 300 < Re < 2200 \tag{8}$$

These equations are suitable for the Prandtl number range 130 < Pr < 650. The exponent of the Prandtl number is similar for both regions (considering the experimental error). The fitting is quite satisfactory for both regions, with all the experimental results included in a range of +-10 % of the correlation, as can be seen in Fig. 10.



Figure 10: Comparison of the experimental Nu number and the predicted Nu number using Eq. 7 and 8.

A different way to identify the end of the laminar flow regime is using the 400 standard deviation of the wall temperature [25]. Fig. 11 shows the mean 401 standard deviation of all the measured wall temperatures as a function of the 402 Reynolds number. For low Reynolds numbers the standard deviation is low 403 and corresponds to the measurement noise. A significant increase for Re >404 160 indicates the onset of the transitional regime, when the flow pulsation 405 allows the colder central stream to contact the wall regions, increasing the 406 wall temperature fluctuations. Above Re = 300, the value is higher than 407 in the laminar region but stable again, pointing the onset of the turbulent 408 regime. 409



Figure 11: Standard deviation of the wall temperature vs Reynolds number.

# 410 Performance evaluation.

In order to evaluate the thermal enhancement of the geometry tested, the R3 criterion is used [26]. This parameter measures the heat transfer ratio between the tested geometry and an equivalent smooth tube for the same power consumption and basic geometry (number of tubes and tube diameter and length) (Eq. 9).

$$R3 = \frac{Nu}{Nu_s} \bigg|_{\dot{W} = \dot{W}_s, N = N_s, D = D_s, l = l_s}$$
(9)

For the same power consumption, well-known correlations of Nusselt number for the laminar [27] and turbulent [28] regions are used for calculating the term  $Nu_s$ . The results for Pr = 150 are represented in Fig. 12.



Figure 12: Performance evaluation criteria R3 vs smooth tube Reynolds number, Pr = 150.

As can be observed, the circular-orifice baffles show a poor performance 419 for  $Re_s < 700$ , and a slight increase in the thermal performance with the 420 Reynolds number. This is due to the increase in the Nusselt number in the 421 laminar region when the Re is increased. Above  $Re_s = 800$  there is a sharp 422 rise in the thermal performance due to the onset of the transitional regime 423 in the baffled tube. So, the range  $800 < Re_s < 2300$  is where the highest 424 performance can be expected. This trend is cut by the onset of the tran-425 sitional regime in the smooth tube at  $Re_s = 2300$ , generating a descending 426 trend in the performance. However, there is enhancement for all the range 427 tested, with the lowest performance, R3 2.5, at  $Re_s \approx 2 \times 10^4$ . 428

## 429 7. Conclusions

An extensive study has been done in order to quantify the thermo hydraulic performance of tubes with periodically-spaced circular-orifice

baffles. A wide range of dimensionless numbers has been studied ( $Pr = 150 - 630, Re_n = 10 - 2200$ ).

- 2. Qualitative flow visualization tests show the flow patterns in the baffled tube in the three different flow regimes. In the laminar region, the size of the recirculation zones under the baffles characterizes the flow. Instability can be observed for Re > 160, this instability of the flow is related to the pulsation of the core stream. For a Re > 300 the flow can be described as chaotic.
- 3. Pressure drop and heat transfer measurements demonstrate the existence of three flow regions with distinguishable characteristics: a laminar region (Re < 160), a transitional region (160 < Re < 300) and a turbulent region (Re > 300).
- 444 4. The R3 performance criteria shows that the tested geometry can be 445 advantageous, for Pr = 150, in comparison to smooth tubes working 446 at a Reynolds number between 100 and  $2 \cdot 10^4$ .

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