

## CONNECTIVE HEAT TRANSFER IN MICROTUBES FOR SLIP FLOW

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### Abstract

The steady-state convective heat transfer in laminar, hydrodynamically developed flow in microtubes with constant wall temperature and constant heat flux boundary conditions are solved by the numerical method. Temperature jump and velocity slip conditions and viscous heating are included. The solution is verified for the cases where viscous heating is neglected. For these two cases, with a given Brinkman number, at specified axial lengths, viscous effects are presented for the thermal entrance length. Also, viscous heating is investigated for all the cases where the fluid is being heated or cooled. The effects of the Knudsen, Brinkman and Prandtl numbers are presented in the fully developed conditions and in the thermal entrance region in graphical and tabular forms. The axial conduction effect is also indicated.

### KEYWORDS

Microtubes, Micro Heat Transfer, Viscous Heating, Axial Conduction

### INTRODUCTION

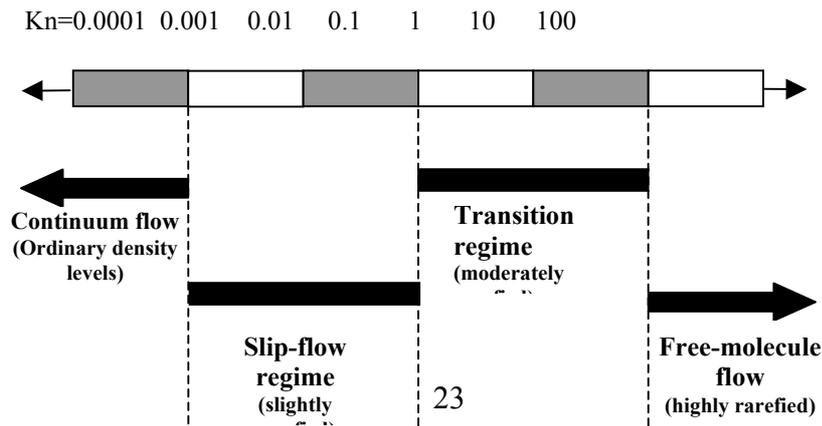
With the increase of integrated circuit density and power dissipation of microelectronic devices, it is becoming more necessary to employ effective cooling devices and cooling methods to maintain the operating temperature of electronic components at a safe level. New thermal control methods have become mandatory as existing heat flux levels exceed 100 W/cm<sup>2</sup> [1, 2].

There are basically two ways of modeling a flow field in microchannels, which depend on the Knudsen number. Knudsen number is proportional to (length of mean free path) / (characteristic dimension) and is used in momentum and mass transfer in general and very low pressure gas flow calculations in particular. It is normally defined in the following form [3]:

$$Kn = \frac{\lambda}{D}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\lambda$  is the length of mean free path of the molecules.  $D$  is the characteristic dimension. Generally the traditional continuum approach is valid, albeit with modified boundary conditions as long as  $Kn < 0.1$ .

From Fig. 1, we know that for the small values ( $Kn \leq 10^{-3}$ ), the fluid is considered to be continuum, while for large values ( $Kn \geq 10$ ), the fluid is considered to be a free molecular flow. For  $10^{-3} < Kn < 10^{-1}$  is the near continuum region.



Another dimensionless number is the Brinkman number, which is the ratio of heat generated by viscous dissipation to heat transferred by conduction over the cross-section, which is used in the energy equation considering temperature jump on the wall in general and very low pressure gases in particular. It is normally defined in the following form:

$$\text{Br} = \frac{\mu u_m^2}{k \Delta T}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\mu$  is dynamic viscosity of flow in microtubes,  $u_m$  is sectionally-averaged velocity of the flow in microtubes,  $k$  is the axially local and sectionally-averaged thermal conductivity coefficient, and  $\Delta T$  is axially local wall-flow temperature difference ( $T_0 - T_s$ ).

Gaseous flow in microchannels was experimentally analyzed by Shih et al. (1996) [5] with helium and nitrogen as the working fluids. Mass flow rate and pressure distribution along the channels were measured. Helium results agreed well with the result of a theoretical analysis using slip flow conditions, however there were deviations between theoretical and experimental results for nitrogen.

Tunc and Bayazitoglu (2000 and 2001) [6, 7] studied the convective heat transfer for steady state, laminar, hydrodynamically developed flow in microtubes with uniform temperature and uniform heat flux boundary conditions by the use of the integral transform technique. In another paper Tunc and Bayazitoglu (2001) [8] considered heat transfer by convection in a rectangular microchannel. The flow is assumed to be fully developed both thermally and hydrodynamically. The H2-type boundary condition, constant axial and peripheral heat flux, is applied at the walls of the channel.

## ANALYSIS

### Constant wall temperature

In micro-channels, collisions of gas molecules with the flow boundary will occur more often than those between molecules. Moreover, macro-channel boundary conditions are different from the typical ones (no temperature difference between the wall and the flow and the relative velocity along the wall is zero). There exist a slip velocity along the wall and temperature jump between wall and fluid.

We analyze two-dimensional heat transfer in micro tubes with constant fluid properties. Since the fluid next to the wall has a temperature finitely different from the wall temperature, slip temperature should be used for the first boundary condition. The second boundary condition is the centerline symmetry and uniform temperature at the channel entrance.

$$\text{Slip velocity: } u_s = -\frac{2 - F_m}{F_m} \lambda \left( \frac{du}{dr} \right)_{r=R}. \quad (3)$$

In this relation,  $u_s$  is the slip velocity,  $\lambda$  the molecular mean free path, and  $F_m$  is the momentum accommodation coefficient. It is a function of the interaction between gas molecules and the surface. If the surface is absolutely smooth and reflect the molecules specularly, the tangential momentum will not change. Therefore  $F_m$  will be equal to zero. Molecules can also be reflected diffusely, which results in  $F_m = 1$ . This means that all the tangential momentum is lost at the wall [6].

The fully developed velocity profile for slip flow is derived from the momentum equation using the slip velocity as

$$u = \frac{2u_m \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{r}{R} \right)^2 + 4\text{Kn} \right]}{1 + 8\text{Kn}}, \quad (4)$$

where  $u_m$  is the mean velocity.

$$\text{Temperature jump: } T_s - T_w = -\frac{2 - F_t}{F_t} \frac{2\gamma}{(\gamma + 1) \text{Pr}} \frac{\lambda}{\partial r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r}, \quad (5)$$

where  $T_s$  is the temperature of the flow at the wall,  $T_w$  is the wall temperature, and  $F_t$  is the thermal accommodation coefficient is defined as  $F_t = \frac{(E_a - E_l)}{(E_a - E_w)}$ , where  $E_a$  is the energy of the

approaching stream,  $E_l$  is the energy carried by the molecules leaving the surface and  $E_w$  is the energy of the molecules leaving the surface at the wall temperature.  $F_t$  can be defined as the fraction of

molecules reflected by the wall that accommodated their energy to the wall temperature if we have a rough surface or if we have a phase change.

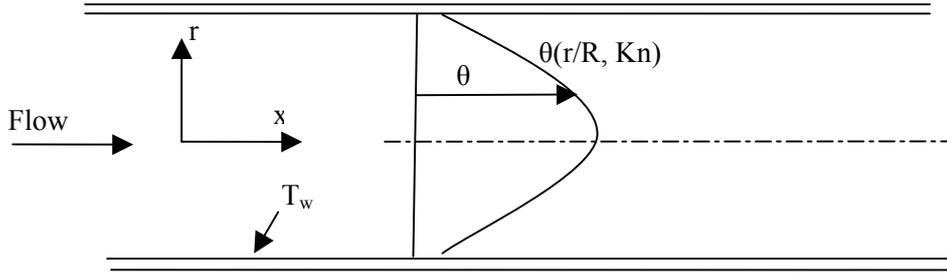


Fig. 2. Sketch of the geometry

Energy equation under fully developed velocity, with constant fluid properties including heat dissipation can be written as

$$u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{\alpha}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{v}{c_p} \left( \frac{du}{dr} \right)^2, \quad (6)$$

$$\text{at } r = R \quad T = T_s, \quad (6 \text{ a})$$

$$\text{at } r = 0 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} = 0, \quad (6 \text{ b})$$

$$\text{at } x = 0 \quad T = T_0. \quad (6 \text{ c})$$

The energy equation (6) can be made dimensionless by defining the following dimensionless numbers:

$$\theta = \frac{T - T_s}{T_0 - T_s}, \quad \eta = \frac{r}{R}, \quad \zeta = \frac{x}{L}, \quad u^* = \frac{u}{u_m} = \frac{2(1 - \eta^2 + 4\text{Kn})}{1 + 8\text{Kn}}. \quad (7)$$

Then, we obtain the following dimensionless form of the energy equation (6):

$$\frac{Gz(1 - \eta^2 + 4\text{Kn})}{2(1 + 8\text{Kn})} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \zeta} = \frac{1}{\eta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \left( \eta \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} \right) + \frac{16\text{Br}}{(1 + 8\text{Kn})^2} \eta^2, \quad (8)$$

$$\eta = 1 \quad \theta = 0, \quad (8 \text{ a})$$

$$\eta = 0 \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} = 0, \quad (8 \text{ b})$$

$$\zeta = 0 \quad \theta = 1, \quad (8 \text{ c})$$

where  $Gz$  is the Graetz number defined as  $Gz = \frac{\text{RePr}D}{L}$ , and  $\text{Br}$  is the Brinkman number defined

as  $\text{Br} = \frac{\mu u_m^2}{k \Delta T}$ , where  $\Delta T = T_0 - T_s$  is the temperature difference between the fluid inlet and tube wall.

Heat transfer from the fluid to the wall by convection is written as

$$q_x = h_x (T_b - T_w). \quad (9)$$

Heat flux at the wall can also be written using Fourier's law

$$q_x = -k \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right|_{r=R}, \quad (10)$$

where the bulk temperature is defined as

$$\theta_b = 2 \int_0^1 \left( \frac{u}{u_m} \right) \theta(\eta, \zeta) \eta d\eta. \quad (11)$$

The Nusselt number is obtained as follows [12]:

$$Nu_x = \frac{h_x D}{k} = - \frac{2 \left. \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=1}}{\left( \theta_b - \frac{4\gamma}{\gamma+1} \frac{Kn}{Pr} \left. \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} \right|_{\eta=1} \right)}. \quad (12)$$

Constant heat flux

$$u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{\alpha}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{v}{c_p} \left( \frac{du}{dr} \right)^2, \quad (13)$$

$$\text{at } r = R \quad k \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} = q'', \quad (13 \text{ a})$$

$$\text{at } r = 0 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} = 0, \quad (13 \text{ b})$$

$$\text{at } x = 0 \quad T = T_0. \quad (13 \text{ c})$$

The energy equation (13) can be made dimensionless by defining  $\theta = \frac{T - T_0}{q'' R / k}$

$$\frac{Gz(1 - \eta^2 + 4Kn)}{2(1 + 8Kn)} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \zeta} = \frac{1}{\eta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \left( \eta \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} \right) + \frac{32Br}{(1 + 8Kn)^2} \eta^2, \quad (14)$$

$$\eta = 1 \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} = 1, \quad (14 \text{ a})$$

$$\eta = 0 \quad \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} = 0, \quad (14 \text{ b})$$

$$\zeta = 0 \quad \theta = 0, \quad (14 \text{ c})$$

where Br is defined as  $Br = \frac{\mu u_m^2}{q'' D}$ .

Similarly, we can derive an expression for the local Nusselt number as above [12]

$$Nu_x = \frac{h_x D}{k} = \frac{2}{\theta_s + \frac{4\gamma}{\gamma+1} \frac{Kn}{Pr} - \theta_b}. \quad (15)$$

## NUMERICAL METHOD

With the development of high-speed digital computers, numerical techniques have been developed and extended to handle almost any problem of any degree of complexity. The finite volume method [10, 11] is employed to solve the energy equation under the boundary conditions mentioned.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The energy equation including viscous dissipation has been solved numerically under different boundary conditions. The fully developed and the local Nusselt numbers are determined and the effects of the Knudsen number, the Brinkman number and the Prandtl number on heat transfer are presented and details are given in [13–15]. The analytical and numerical results are compared in Table 1 with the data available in the literature to show the validity of the present numerical solutions.

Table 1. Developed conditions, laminar flow nusselt values ( $T_w = \text{constant}$ ,  $Pr = 0.6$ )

Br = 0	Nu <sub>T</sub> (analytical)	Nu <sub>T</sub> (numerical)
Kn = 0.0	3.6751	3.6566
Kn = 0.02	3.3675	3.3527
Kn = 0.04	3.0745	3.0627
Kn = 0.06	2.8101	2.8006
Kn = 0.08	2.5767	2.5689
Kn = 0.10	2.3723	2.3659

Kn=0.12	2.1937	2.1882
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The results are shown in Table 2 and Fig. 3 for uniform wall temperature boundary conditions with  $Br = 0.01$ . The fully developed Nusselt number decreases as  $Kn$  increases. For the no-slip condition  $Nu = 9.5985$ , while it drops down to 3.4016 for  $Kn = 0.12$  under  $Pr = 0.7$ , a decrease of 64.5 %. This is due to the fact that the temperature jump reduces heat transfer. As  $Kn$  increases, the temperature jump also increases. Moreover, in Fig. 3 the fully developed Nusselt number increases as  $Pr$  increases, due to the same reason; temperature jump, which decreases as  $Pr$  increases, reduces heat transfer. Therefore, the denominator of eq.(14) takes smaller values.

Table 2. The fully developed Nusselt number values ( $Pr = 0.7, T_w = \text{constant}$ )

Pr = 0.7	Br = 0.00	Br = 0.01
Kn = 0.00	3.6566	9.5985
Kn = 0.02	3.4163	7.4270
Kn = 0.04	3.1706	6.0313
Kn = 0.06	2.9377	5.0651
Kn = 0.08	2.7244	4.3594
Kn = 0.10	2.5323	3.8227
Kn = 0.12	2.3604	3.4016

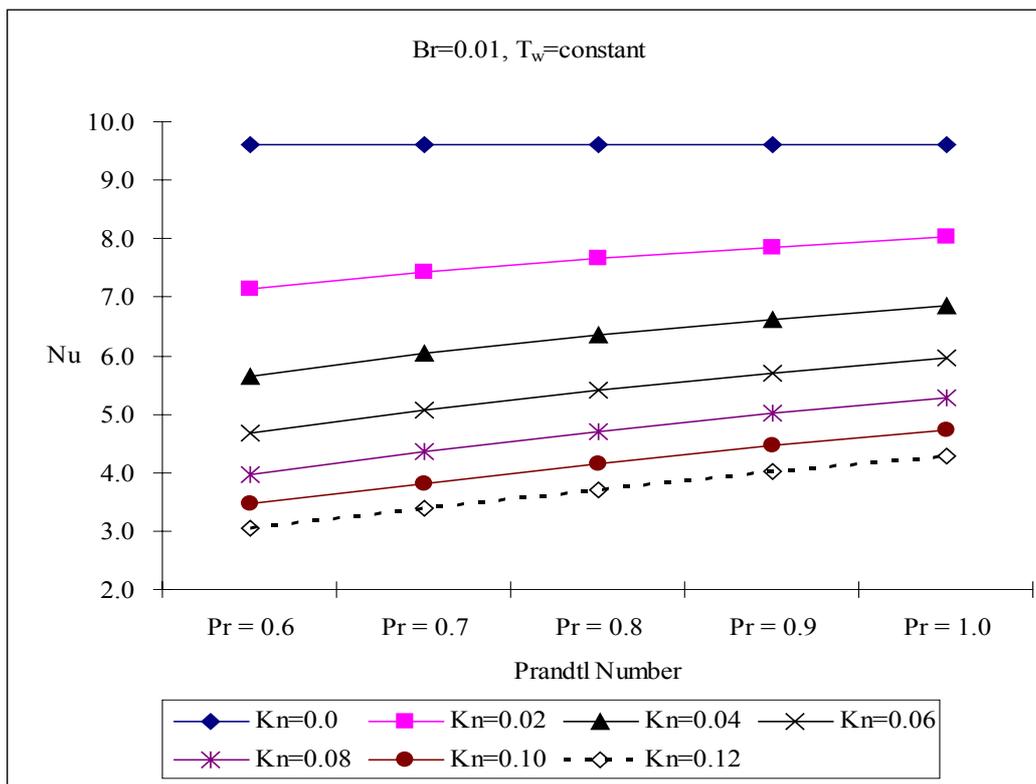


Fig. 3. The effect of Prandtl number on heat transfer for constant  $T_w$

The variation of the fully developed Nusselt number with  $Kn$  for two cases, with and without viscous heating, is given Fig. 4. It is seen from the figure that, for the uniform temperature boundary condition at the wall,  $Kn$  number increase has more influence with the presence of viscous dissipation. Also, the Nusselt number has a larger value for the case with viscous heating.

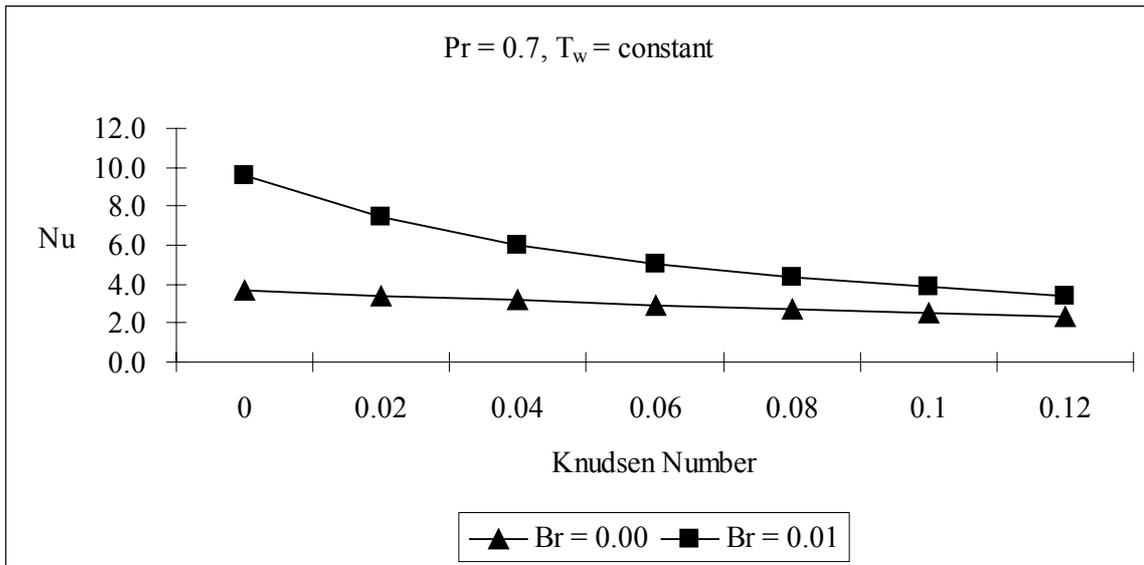


Fig. 4. The effect of Brinkman number on heat transfer for constant  $T_w$

The results are shown in Table 3 for uniform heat flux boundary conditions with  $Br = -0.01$ . The fully developed Nusselt number decreases as  $Kn$  increases. For the no-slip condition  $Nu = 4.5640$ , while it drops down to 2.7468 for  $Kn = 0.12$ ,  $Br = -0.01$  under  $Pr = 0.7$ , a decrease of 39.8%. This is due to the fact that the temperature jump reduces heat transfer. As  $Kn$  increases, the temperature jump also increases.

Table 3. The fully developed Nusselt number values,  $Br = -0.01$ ,  $q_w = \text{constant}$

$Br = -0.01$	$Pr = 0.6$	$Pr = 0.7$	$Pr = 0.8$	$Pr = 0.9$	$Pr = 1.0$
$Kn = 0.00$	4.5640	4.5640	4.5640	4.5640	4.5640
$Kn = 0.02$	4.1278	4.2212	4.2953	4.3565	4.409
$Kn = 0.04$	3.7154	3.8695	3.9948	4.0995	4.1894
$Kn = 0.06$	3.3484	3.5395	3.6985	3.8338	3.9511
$Kn = 0.08$	3.0302	3.2419	3.4218	3.5772	3.7137
$Kn = 0.10$	2.7567	2.9784	3.1701	3.3381	3.4871
$Kn = 0.12$	2.5219	2.7468	2.9441	3.1191	3.2759

Table 4, shows the effect of positive or negative  $Br$  values ( $Br = \pm 0.01$ ) on heat transfer. From the definition of  $Br$ , for this type of boundary condition, a negative  $Br$  means that the fluid is being cooled. Therefore, the Nusselt number takes higher values for  $Br < 0$  and lower values for  $Br > 0$ .

Table 4. The fully developed Nusselt number values,  $Pr = 0.7$ ,  $q_w = \text{constant}$

$Pr = 0.7$	$Br = 0.00$	$Br = 0.01$	$Br = -0.01$
$Kn = 0.00$	4.3649	4.1825	4.5640
$Kn = 0.02$	4.1088	4.0022	4.2212
$Kn = 0.04$	3.8036	3.7398	3.8695
$Kn = 0.06$	3.4992	3.4598	3.5395
$Kn = 0.08$	3.2163	3.1912	3.2419
$Kn = 0.10$	2.9616	2.945	2.9784
$Kn = 0.12$	2.7354	2.7242	2.7468

In Fig. 5, we show the effect of temperature jump on the Nusselt number clearly. The solid and dashed lines represent the results from the present study for constant heat flux and constant temperature boundary conditions, respectively. When the temperature jump condition is not considered, in other words, only the velocity slip condition is taken into account, the Nusselt number increases with increasing Kn, which implies that the velocity slip and temperature jump have opposite effects on the Nusselt number.

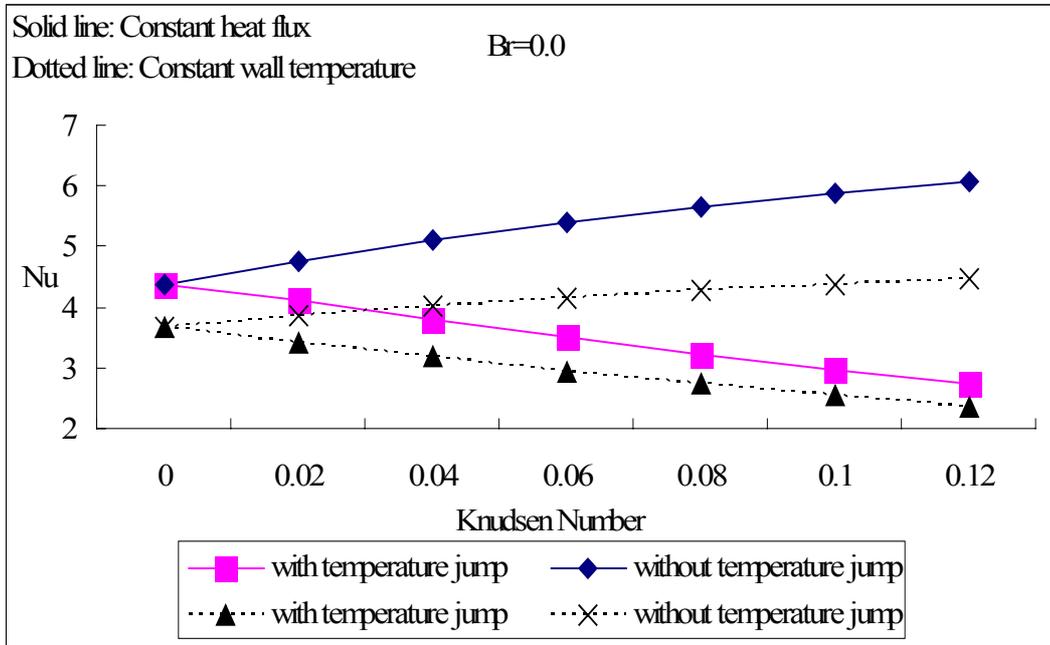


Fig. 5. The effect of temperature jump on heat transfer

In Table 4 and Fig.6, we show the Nusselt number values in the thermally developing rangion. For both of the cases, as Kn increases, the Nusselt number decreases due to the increasing temperature jump. We note here that, the decrease is greater and reaching developed region is later when we consider viscous dissipation. The Nusselt number reaches the developed value as if there is no viscous heating.

Table 4. Variation of the Nusselt number with Kn for uniform  $T_w$

$\frac{x/D}{Re Pr}$		0.001	0.006	0.01	0.06	0.1	0.6	1
Br = 0.0	Kn = 0.0	6.1614	3.9092	3.7152	3.6566	3.6566	3.6566	3.6566
	Kn = 0.04	4.7628	3.3319	3.2052	3.1706	3.1706	3.1706	3.1706
	Kn = 0.08	3.7591	2.8308	2.7461	2.7244	2.7244	2.7244	2.7244
	Kn = 0.12	3.0676	2.4339	2.3749	2.3604	2.3604	2.3604	2.3604
Br = 0.01	Kn = 0.0	6.1658	3.9181	3.7275	4.0997	7.2072	9.5985	9.5985
	Kn = 0.04	4.764	3.3352	3.21	3.4154	5.1649	6.0313	6.0313
	Kn = 0.08	3.7595	2.8322	2.7482	2.8656	3.9352	4.3594	4.3594
	Kn = 0.12	3.0677	2.4346	2.3759	2.4464	3.1516	3.4016	3.4016

In Table 5, the Nusselt number values in the thermally developing range are shown. For all the cases, as Kn increases, the Nusselt number decreases due to the increasing temperature jump.

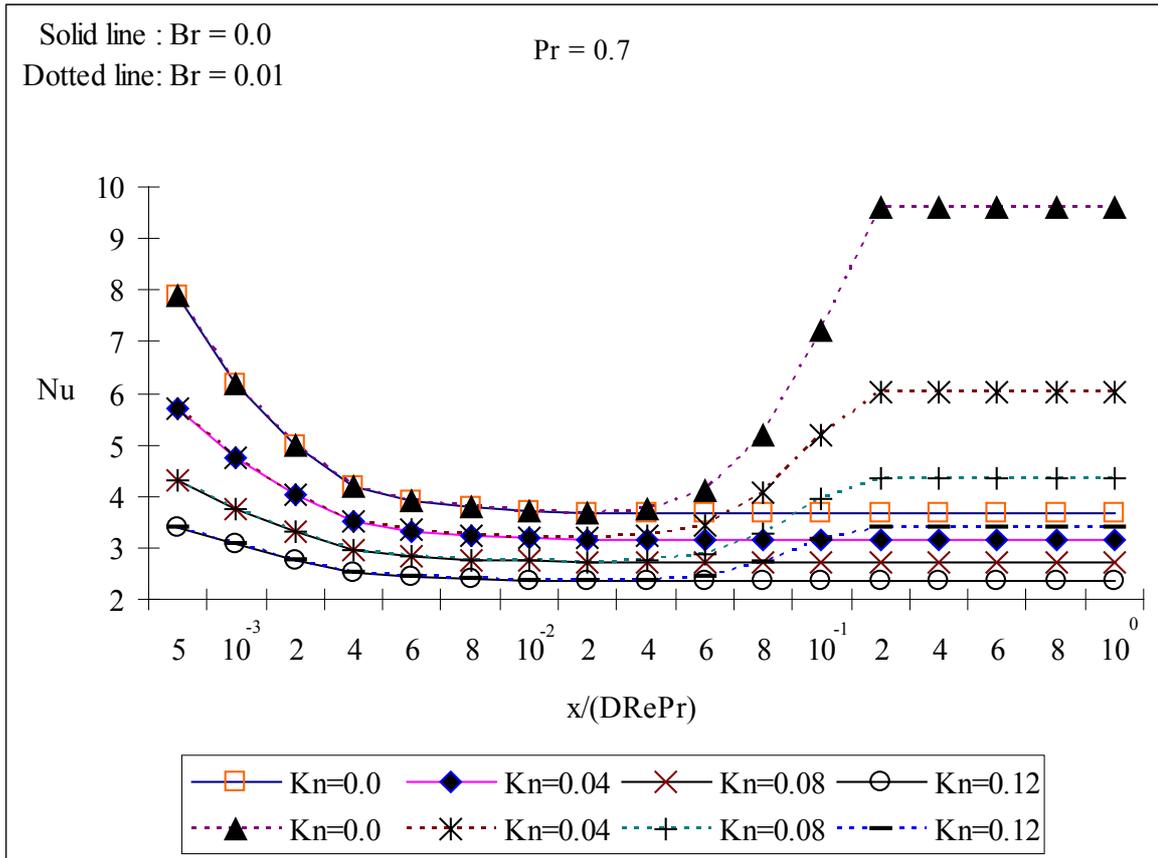


Fig. 6. Variation of the Nusselt number with the Knudsen number at the entrance region for uniform temperature at the wall with temperature jump

Table 5. Nusselt number with the effect of viscous heating at the entrance for uniform  $q_w$

$\frac{x/D}{RePr}$		0.001	0.006	0.01	0.06	0.1	0.6	1
Br = 0.0	Kn = 0.0	7.5884	4.8272	4.5196	4.3649	4.3649	4.3649	4.3649
	Kn = 0.04	5.8036	4.0975	3.8872	3.8036	3.8036	3.8036	3.8036
Br = 0.01	Kn = 0.0	7.3531	4.6346	4.3336	4.1825	4.1825	4.1825	4.1825
	Kn = 0.04	5.7474	4.0335	3.8231	3.7398	3.7398	3.7398	3.7398
Br = -0.01	Kn = 0.0	7.8392	5.0365	4.7223	4.564	4.564	4.564	4.564
	Kn = 0.04	5.8608	4.1635	3.9535	3.8695	3.8695	3.8695	3.8695

In Fig.7, the system first reaches the fully developed condition as if there is no viscous heating. Then, at some point, Nu makes a jump to its final value. As Br increases, the jump occurs at a shorter distance from the entrance. Since the wall temperature is constant, they all converge to the same fully developed value. This effect can be explained by the same reason we mentioned before.

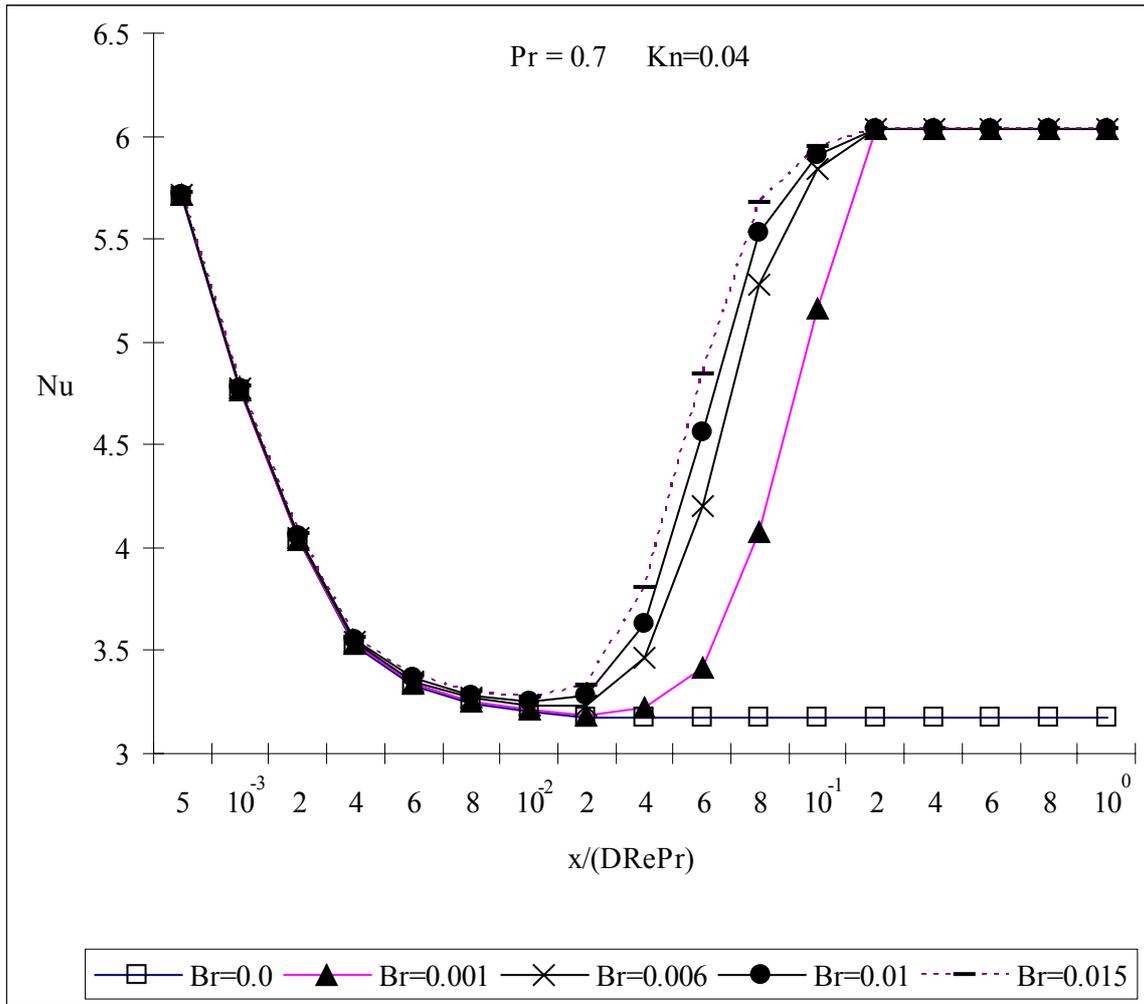


Fig. 7. Variation of the Nusselt number with the Knudsen number at the entrance region for uniform  $T_w$  with temperature jump

Table 6 and Fig. 8 indicate the values of the local Nusselt number for constant heat flux boundary condition for various values of the Br number at  $Kn = 0.04$ . Since the definition of the Brinkman number is different for the uniform heat flux boundary condition case, a positive Br means that the heat is transferred to the fluid from the wall as opposed to the uniform temperature case. Therefore, we see in Fig. 8 that Nu decreases as Br increases when  $Br > 0$ , Negative Br means the flow is cooled and Nu has the larger value.

Table 6. Nusselt number with the effect of viscous heating, uniform  $q_w$

$\frac{x/D}{Re Pr}$	0.001	0.006	0.01	0.06	0.1	0.6	1
Br = - 0.01	5.8608	4.1635	3.9535	3.8695	3.8695	3.8695	3.8695
Br = 0.0	5.8036	4.0975	3.8872	3.8036	3.8036	3.8036	3.8036
Br = 0.001	5.7979	4.091	3.8807	3.7971	3.7971	3.7971	3.7971
Br = 0.006	5.7698	4.0589	3.8485	3.765	3.765	3.765	3.765
Br = 0.01	5.7474	4.0335	3.8231	3.7398	3.7398	3.7398	3.7398

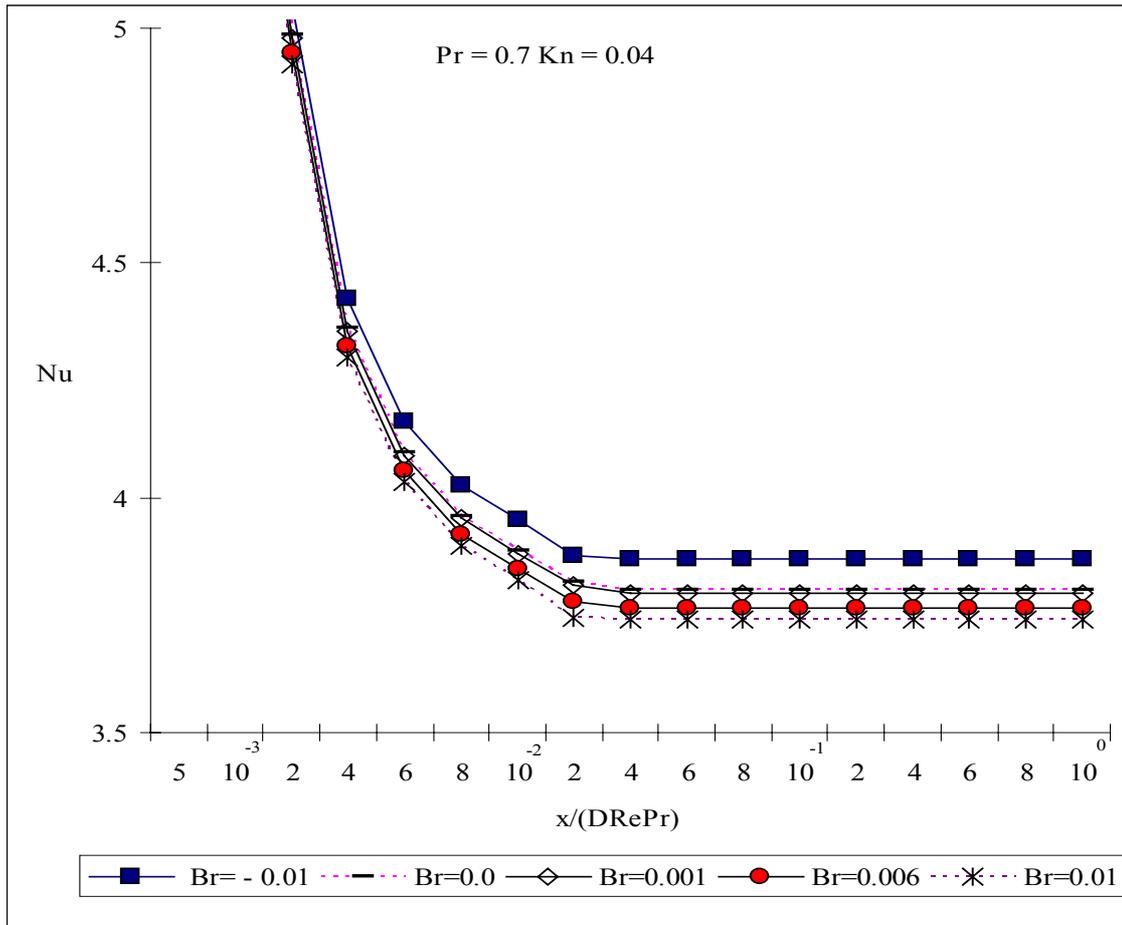


Fig. 8. Variation of the Nusselt number with the Knudsen number at the entrance region for uniform heat flux at the wall with temperature jump

## CONCLUSIONS

The effects of three variables,  $Kn$ ,  $Pr$  and  $Br$  numbers on flow are discussed.  $Kn$  is ranging from  $Kn = 0$ , which is the continuum case (macrochannel flow) to  $Kn = 0.12$  which is the upper limit of the slip flow regime, and Prandtl number varied from  $Pr = 0.6$  to  $Pr = 1.0$  which are typically for air. Brinkman number is varied from  $Br = -0.01$  to  $Br = 0.015$ .

For uniform wall temperature boundary condition with temperature jump, the fully developed  $Nu$  decreases as  $Kn$  increases, and increases as  $Pr$  increases.  $Kn$  increase is due to the reduction of the channel size and has more influence with the presence of viscous dissipation than  $Br = 0$ . On the other hand, without temperature jump, the fully developed  $Nu$  increases as  $Kn$  increases, and keeps unchanged as  $Pr$  increases. Still,  $Kn$  has more influence with the presence of viscous dissipation.

For uniform heat flux boundary condition with temperature jump, the fully developed  $Nu$  decreases as  $Kn$  increases and increases as  $Pr$  increases. Since the definition of the  $Br$  is different for the uniform heat flux boundary condition case; a positive  $Br$  means that the heat is transferred to the fluid from the wall as opposed to the uniform temperature case.  $Nu$  takes higher values for  $Br < 0$  and lower values for  $Br > 0$ . On the contrary, without temperature jump, the fully developed  $Nu$  increases as  $Kn$  increases and does not change as  $Pr$  increases. The  $Nu$  takes higher values for  $Br < 0$  and lower values for  $Br > 0$ . From the developing region to developed region, the system drops down to reach the fully developed condition.  $Nu$  decreases as  $Br$  increases when  $Br > 0$ .

In general, for the above two boundary conditions, velocity slip and temperature jump affect the heat transfer in opposite ways: a large slip on the wall will increase the convection along the surface. On the other hand, a large temperature jump will decrease the heat transfer by reducing the temperature gradient at the wall. Therefore, neglecting temperature jump will result in the overestimation of the heat transfer coefficient.

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### Nomenclature

Br – Brinkman number, $Ec/Pr, \mu u_m^2/k \Delta T$	Kn – Knudsen number, $\lambda/D_h$
$c_p$ – specific heat at constant pressure, J/(kg·K)	L – channel length, m
$c_v$ – specific heat at constant volume, J/(kg·K)	Nu – Nusselt number, $hD_h/k$
D – diameter of the tube, m	P – pressure, Pa
$D_h$ – hydraulic diameter, m	Pr – Prandtl number, $\nu/\alpha$
Ec – Eckert number, $u_m^2/c_p \Delta T$	R – tube radius, m
F – momentum accommodation coefficient	r – radial coordinate, m
$F_T$ – thermal accommodation coefficient	Re – Reynolds number, $\rho D_h u_m/\mu$
Gz – Graetz number, $RePrD_h/L$	T – temperature, K
h – heat transfer coefficient, W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)	u – axial velocity, m/s
k – thermal conductivity, W/(m·K)	x – axial coordinate, m
$\bar{k}$ – Boltzman const., $1.38 \times 10^{-23}$ J/(K·mol)	v – velocity in your direction, m/s
<b>Greek Symbols</b>	
$\alpha$ – thermal diffusivity, m <sup>2</sup> /s	$\lambda$ – molecular mean free path, m
$\gamma$ – heat capacity ratio, $c_p/c_v$	$\mu$ – dynamic viscosity, kg/(m·s)
$\zeta$ – dimensionless x	$\nu$ – kinematic viscosity, m <sup>2</sup> /s
$\eta$ – dimensionless r	$\rho$ – density, kg/m <sup>3</sup>
$\theta$ – dimensionless temperature	

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