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**A COMPILATION OF DATA ON THE RADIANT EMISSIVITY OF SOME
MATERIALS AT HIGH TEMPERATURES**

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 This paper gives a compilation of experimental data from a variety of sources of the emissivity of
3 materials used in high temperature applications. The data is given in the form of temperature dependent
4 correlation equations which can be used for modelling purposes. The data on refractory materials show
5 the importance of surface properties, the effect of surface coatings and ways in which these can be
6 taken into account for more accurate predictions of emissivity. Information is also given on chars, ash
7 particles and furnace deposits resulting from the combustion of coal and biomass.

8 Keywords: emissivity; metals; refractories; chars; ash deposits.

9

10 1. INTRODUCTION

11 Radiant heat transfer plays an important role in many engineering applications. An accurate knowledge
12 of the emissivity of all the surfaces at high temperatures in a furnace or processing unit is an essential
13 requirement. For all the materials involved the emissivity varies with temperature and spectrally.
14 However, in many modelling applications such as combustion plant, the complexity of the
15 computations may require an average value of total normal emissivity to be used, although the accuracy
16 is improved if the variation with temperature can be included.

17 Over the last 80 years, the need to have more accurate data on the emissivity of ceramic and metallic
18 solids has mainly been driven by their use for furnace applications in the metallurgical and glass
19 industries. Later developments resulted from the requirements of the space industry, and more recently
20 by CFD modelling of the combustion of coal and biomass by the power industries, for example [1-9].
21 In these applications details are required of the variation of emissivity with temperature and the nature
22 of the surface. This paper is an updated version of an earlier review [6] for a number of materials of
23 particular interest for high temperature applications.

24 Whilst extensive compilations of thermal radiative data are available for metals and also non-metallic
25 solids, [7,8] this does not include certain engineering materials such as furnace linings and slags
26 produced as the result of combustion or gasification. The nature and optical properties of the surface
27 may change during use and this is especially the case with materials in high temperature furnaces or
28 fires where metals may become coated with oxide, and in the case where ash may melt or sinter to
29 form surface layers. This problem has been intensified because of the desire to increase the productivity
30 of furnace heating applications by the use of ceramic fibre furnaces linings or use of ‘high-emissivity’
31 coatings [9]. The advantages of lining furnaces with ceramic fibre materials are usually stated to be
32 that the low thermal mass of the fibre leads to a reduction in the quantity of heat required to bring the
33 furnace up to temperature and, consequently, to shorter heat up times. The relatively high resistance
34 to thermal shock means that the walls can be heated and cooled rapidly without damage, and the low
35 thermal conductivity of the fibre minimises heat loss through the furnace walls. However, when
36 ceramic fibres have been used to line furnaces whose main mode of operation is continuous heating,
37 the actual energy savings have sometimes been lower than expected. It has been suggested that this
38 results from the low emissivity of the ceramic fibres and that increased heat transfer to the stock can
39 be expected if they are coated with a layer of high emissivity refractory. The use of high emissivity
40 coatings, with or without ceramic fibres has been held to be appropriate because: (i) the high emissivity
41 has been assumed to lead directly to high rates of net heat transfer and (ii) the coatings protect the

42 refractory and prolong its life, and reduce air leakage. In the light of this continuing interest, there is a
43 need for accurate emissivity data for furnace modelling.

44 The world-wide use of pulverised coal firing for electricity generation, and more recently similar plants
45 using 100% biomass or co-firing with coal, has resulted in extensive modelling studies to improve
46 combustor performance. These combustion systems are complex in that they involve burning particles
47 of the fuel. Accounting for spectral variation in the emissivity of the particles and furnace surfaces
48 adds even more complexity, so for most modelling applications ‘averaged’ values of emissivity data
49 have to be employed [10, 11] or at specific wavelengths [12].

50 Another important application arises from the wide use of radiation thermometers based on semi-
51 conductor infra-red detectors, where the temperature deduced is a function of the assumed emissivity
52 of the surface. To infer accurate measurements, it follows that accurate emissivity data are required.
53 Many manufacturers of non-contact infrared measurement equipment give lists of emissivity data with
54 the cautionary statement that this data is to be used as a guide only, as the value changes dependent on
55 the actual surface and conditions. Such data are given at 1.0, 1.6 and 8-14 μm by, for example, by Fluke
56 Process Industries [13].

57 **2. THE DEFINITION OF SURFACE EMISSIVITY**

58 The emissivity of a surface is defined as the ratio of the radiance from the surface to that from a black
59 body viewed under identical optical and geometrical conditions and at the same temperature. The total
60 black body radiation flux density, or emissive power $E_b(T)$ at a known temperature, T, is obtained
61 from integration of the black body spectral flux, $e_b(\lambda, T)$, over all the wavelengths:

$$E_b(T) = \int_0^{\infty} e_b(\lambda, T) d\lambda \quad (1)$$

62 This gives:

$$E_b(T) = \sigma T^4 \quad (2)$$

63 The total temperature dependent emissivity of a surface, $\varepsilon_t(T)$, may be written in terms of the black
64 body emissive power and spectral flux density of the surface, $e(\lambda, T)$, as:

$$\varepsilon_t(T) = \frac{1}{E_b(T)} \int_0^{\infty} e(\lambda, T) d\lambda \quad (3)$$

65 Integration of $e(\lambda, T)$ over the spectral band limits (λ_1, λ_2) will yield the spectral emissivity $e_{\lambda_j}(T)$:

$$e_{\lambda_j}(T) = \frac{1}{\Delta E_{b\lambda_j}(T)} \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} e(\lambda, T) d\lambda \quad (4)$$

66 where λ_j is the nominal wavelength position which defined by:

$$\lambda_j = (\lambda_1 + \lambda_2)/2 \quad (5)$$

67 and $\Delta E_{b\lambda_j}(T)$ is the black body band emissive power over the same wavelength range. The way in
68 which the emissivity is determined is dependent on the temperature and the spectral range. Thus in the
69 major study of total and spectral emissivity of pure metals and specific inorganic compound published
70 in '*Thermophysical Properties of Matter*' [7,8], measurements are made over the range of 1-15 μm
71 with the calibrating black body covering the same spectral range. In later work, especially when
72 interest was concentrated on the spectral properties of coal ash, it was found to be more accurate to
73 ratio samples to grey body references, for example [14,15]. When a grey body radiator is used as the
74 reference, the measured sample emissivity is related to the true emissivity by a calibrating function.

75 The total normal emissivity, $\varepsilon(T)$, is determined by weighting the spectral emissivity, $e_{\lambda_j}(T)$, with the
76 Planck function, I_b , as in Eq. 6 below.

$$\varepsilon(T) = \frac{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} e(\lambda, T) \cdot I_b(\lambda, T) d\lambda}{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} I_b(\lambda, T) d\lambda} \quad (6)$$

77 Since the spectral emissivity is weighted by the Planck function (Planck-weighted) the total normal
78 emissivity calculated in this way is slightly different to Eq. (4). This method of calculating the total
79 emissivity, for example as used in references [16-18], results in slightly different absolute values,
80 although both methods are used in the literature. Application of the Planck correction influences the
81 temperature dependency of the total normal emissivity. In the case of metals the effect is very small at
82 temperatures up to 1000 K, but at 2000 K it increases the emissivity by about 8 %. However Eq. 6 is
83 used when spectral emissivities are measured primarily for coal or biomass ash deposits or particles,
84 and for heavily oxidised metal surfaces. These inorganic species have a spectral region of low
85 emissivity at wavelengths up to 2 or 3 μm followed by a region of high emissivity at longer
86 wavelengths, which is usually strongly banded [19,20]. For fuel ashes the use of Eq.5 rather than Eq.4
87 leads to slightly lower total emissivities but also a slightly different temperature variation..

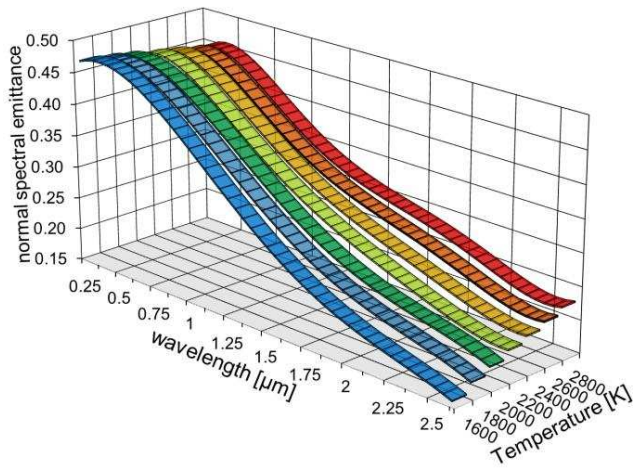
88 In the analysis of radiative heat transfer, the definition of emissivity is often used ambiguously. The
89 emissivity of a surface or body is always defined as the ratio of the radiation emitted by the surface to
90 the maximum possible, that is, from a black body at the same temperature. However, since temperature,
91 wavelength and direction may all affect this ratio, they should all be included in a fully comprehensive
92 definition. Arising from this requirement, a number of individual definitions may be encountered in
93 the literature: (i) for radiation from a body at a particular temperature, the directional, monochromatic
94 emissivity relates to radiation at a defined wavelength and direction (usually expressed as an angle, θ ,
95 to the normal), (ii) if radiation over the whole range of thermal wavelengths but in a specific direction
96 is considered then the appropriate term is the total, directional emissivity, (iii) similarly, if all the
97 radiation emitted at a particular wavelength into the hemisphere beyond the surface is involved, the
98 appropriate definition is that of the monochromatic, hemispherical emissivity.

99 The value used in many analyses of radiative heat transfer in furnace enclosures is the simplest one. It
100 relates to radiation at all wavelengths and in all directions and is the total, hemispherical emissivity. It
101 is the value used to multiply σT^4 the Stefan-Boltzmann expression, and it is often referred to simply
102 as the emissivity. For real surfaces, the ratio of radiation emitted by the surface to that emitted by a
103 black body at the same temperature is often called the emittance, although the definition is exactly the
104 same as for emissivity for smooth surfaces. In this paper we usually use the term emissivity referring
105 to total normal emissivity rather than emittance, but the latter term is used for non-perfect surfaces
106 such as refractories. Thus depending on the source of information (as is the case in some of the figures
107 here) and since the terms are effectively interchangeable this is adopted here following the approach
108 in previous publications, for example in reference [1]. Indeed most industrial and research workers use
109 it. Some data for total hemispherical emissivity are included in some of the Tables because these values
110 are within about 5% of the total normal emissivity for most real materials as discussed later in the next
111 section.

112 **3. EXPERIMENTAL VALUES OF EMISSIVITY**

113 Typical values of emissivity for a tungsten filament [7,21] are shown in **Fig 1** which illustrates the
114 variation of emissivity with both temperature and wavelength for a metal. The variation in wavelength
115 follows theory for a radiating metal surface. In addition to these factors the emissivity can change if
116 the surface is oxidised or if it is a rough surface. In fact many metals subject to high temperatures in a
117 furnace or fire situation oxidise so they are coated with a metal oxide; the exceptions are the noble
118 metals and to a certain extent some of the stainless steels. Not only does the emissivity change but the
119 spectral properties change too depending on the thickness of the oxide layer. As shown in Fig. 1, metals

120 have a high emissivity at low wavelengths which decrease with wavelength especially at lower
121 temperatures. As discussed earlier, many inorganic oxides behave in the opposite way especially fuel
122 ashes, eg [19,20].

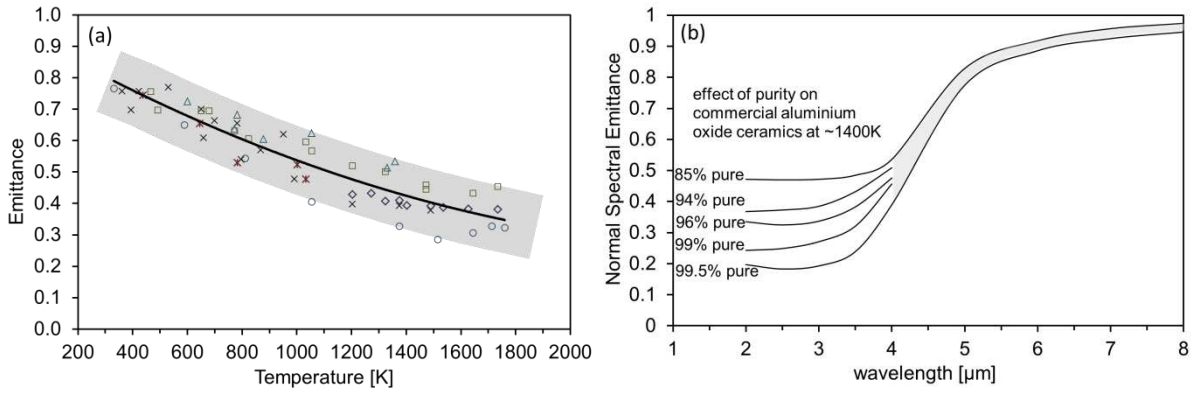


123

124 **Fig 1.** Spectral emittance of tungsten. Based on [7, 14].

125 Non-conducting materials, such as ceramics, have more complex spectral behaviour which can be
126 further complicated by surface roughness and purity effects. **Fig 2 (a)** shows the variation of the
127 emittance with temperature for a pure ceramic, aluminium oxide, and the typical experimental error
128 that can arise which in this case is about ± 0.1 [8]. The errors that arise can come from measurement
129 of the surface temperature which can have a large influence, but it also depends on whether the
130 emissivity has a strong variation with temperature. In the example in **Fig 2 (a)** this is not the case but
131 variation in surface finish and purity of the sample are important. Instrumental factors such as internal
132 reflectance have to be minimised. **Fig 2 (b)** shows the effect of the purity on the spectral emittance
133 from commercial aluminium oxide [8]. These plots clearly show the scatter that can arise. Different
134 surface finishes and different experimental methodology can have a major influence on reproducible
135 measurements from different laboratories.

136 The normal emittance curves given in **Fig 2 (b)** are typical for inorganic oxides, but also for fuel ashes
137 [20] where the composition of the ash can markedly vary from fuel to fuel. Another industrially
138 important example of where slight variations in composition can markedly impact on the spectral
139 emissivities is in the case of Ni and Fe-based boiler tubes in a high temperature oxidising
140 environments. It was found in laboratory experiments [22] that the emissivities of metals containing
141 more than 9 wt% of chromium have the typical behaviour of metals, this resulting from the resistance
142 to oxidation. This is not the case when the Cr content is below 2 wt% when the behaviour become that
143 of an oxide,



144

145 **Fig 2.** (a) Normal total emittance of aluminium oxide as a function of temperature showing
 146 experimental scatter, (b) the effect of purity on the normal spectral emittance of aluminium oxide at
 147 ~1400 K. Based on [8].

148 Tables A1 to A3 given in the Appendix list the total normal emissivity, $\varepsilon_0(T)$ of a wide range of
 149 materials as a function of temperature (in Kelvin). These are expressed as least squares polynomials
 150 fitted to data from the references listed in the Tables by the expression:

$$\varepsilon_0(T) = a + 10^{-5}bT + 10^{-8}cT^2 + 10^{-10}dT^3 \quad (7)$$

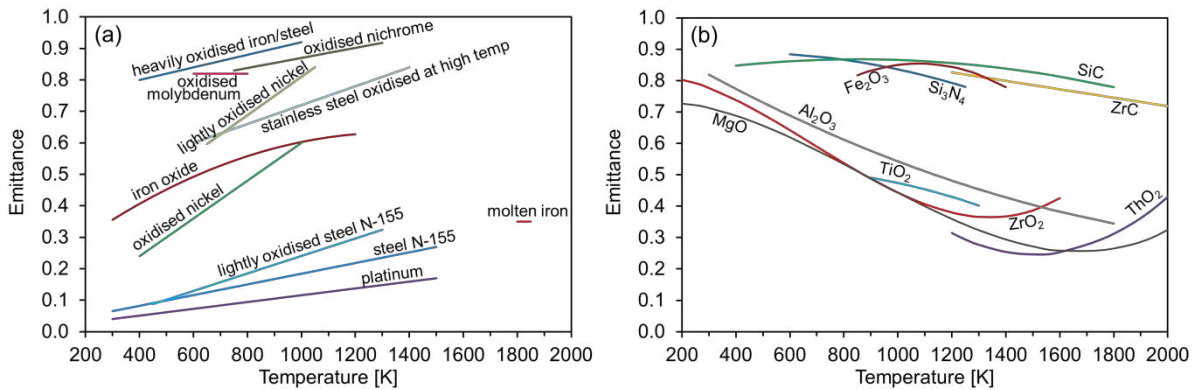
151 where a, b, c, d are fitted coefficients. Omitted entries should be taken as zero. Extrapolation beyond
 152 the quoted temperature range should be undertaken with caution especially for strongly non-linear
 153 relationships where the c and d coefficients are non-zero.

154 Table A1 lists the emissivity of various pure metals, alloys and metals coated with oxides [7,23-32],
 155 and in this Table many of the constants for the polynomial equation have been taken from Reference
 156 [6].

157 **Figs 3 (a) and (b)** show plots for selected materials used in high temperature applications, typically in
 158 furnaces, or for temperature measurements. **Fig 3 (a)** shows some of these pure metals such as platinum
 159 and others which may become coated with the oxide films, namely, iron/steel [23-26], molybdenum
 160 [25], nickel [27], vanadium and tungsten [25] and titanium [28,29], as well as some alloys [30-32].

161 Because the oxide film is semi-transparent to radiation the spectral radiation properties of oxidized
 162 materials are related to the nature and thickness of the oxide film [32]. **Fig 3 (b)** gives information on
 163 solid Fe_2O_3 which is markedly different to that as a film of oxide on metallic iron shown in **Fig 3 (a)**.
 164 Otsuka et al. [25] examined the emissivity of stainless steel and pure metallic molybdenum and
 165 tungsten and with protective layers. The emissivity measured at oxidation temperatures of 500–1000°C
 166 were higher than the data for polished metal given in the literature. Thus, metal oxides have higher

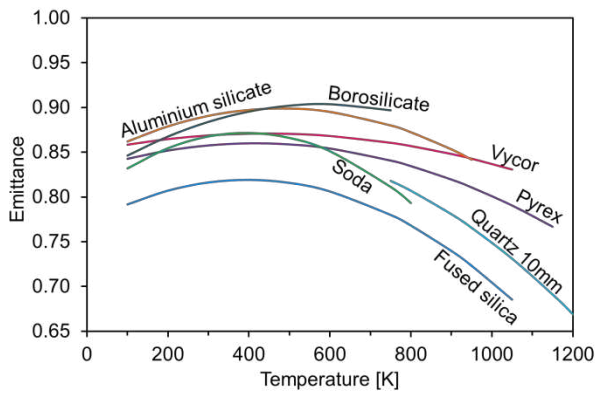
167 hemispherical total emissivities than polished metals. Fu et al. [26] measured the total hemispherical
 168 emissivity of iron-based alloys as well as pre-oxidized samples at temperatures of 400°C and 600°C
 169 for several hours. Little happened at 400°C but the emissivities of samples oxidized at 600°C increased
 170 significantly with oxidation time. Iuchi et al. [32] developed a spectral emissivity model for metal
 171 oxide films, although its application is quite complex.



172
 173 **Fig 3.** Total emittance of (a) some metals and (b) some inorganic oxide and refractories.

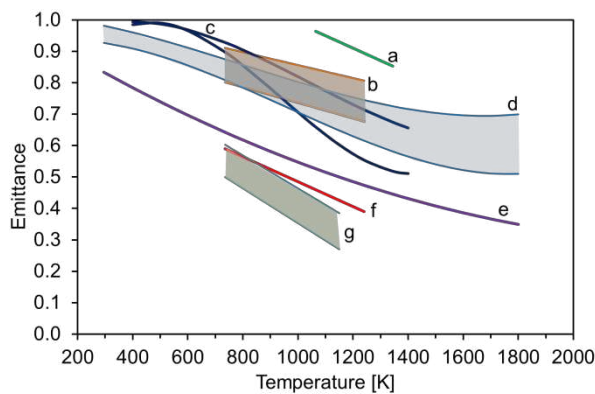
174 Data for refractory materials and glasses are given in Table A2 [33-46]; again many of the polynomial
 175 constants are taken from Reference [6]. **Fig 3 (b)** shows the complex variation with temperature for
 176 refractory materials. The ultra-high temperature ceramics, which are often darker and consist of
 177 conducting materials such as carbides, nitrides and borides, have high emissivities over the temperature
 178 range. The light coloured aluminium, magnesium and titanium oxides have a high emissivity at low
 179 temperatures but decreasing at furnace temperatures to about half their initial value. Zirconium and
 180 thorium oxides which become electrically conducting at higher temperatures show a minimum at
 181 furnace temperatures.

182 **Fig 4** shows data for a number of glasses and which exhibit only small experimental variation and are
 183 relatively well defined. The high silica containing glasses have the lower emissivities and the
 184 aluminium and boron containing glasses have the higher emissivities.



185
186 **Fig 4.** Normal total emittance of some glasses as a function of temperature.

187 The differences in the values of the emissivities obtained for a range of refractory furnace lining
188 materials are highlighted in **Fig. 5**. This is because they are not only dependent on the material but also
189 on their physical characteristics [33-44]. Their properties depend on whether they are covered in
190 deposits such a slag in coal or oil fired furnaces, or sometimes in the case of oil flames with soot or
191 carbon.



192
193 **Fig 5.** Normal total emittance of refractory materials based on aluminium and silicon oxides: (a)
194 carborundum-based high emissivity coating [41]; (b) permeable ceramic materials [43]; (c) ceramic
195 fibres (normal, [40] and parallel, [40]); (d) silica bricks [43]; (e) Al_2O_3 mean line from Fig. 2; (f)
196 ceramic fibre board (44); (g) light-weight refractory [41].

197 Table A3 lists data for surface coatings. These coatings usually consist of a thin layer of protective
198 refractory against the surrounding atmosphere which is usually oxidative. Here there is some overlap
199 with the data in Table A2 where high emissivity furnace coatings are listed. The purpose of these is to
200 increase the emissivity and also to offer some surface protection, but usually the surface layer is not
201 coherent and does not offer full oxidative protection. This topic is discussed more fully in Section 5.

202 Table A4 lists data for biomass, carbons, chars [46-60] and fuel ash deposits [62-67]. The combustion
203 of coal, oil and more recently solid biomass, with air or oxygen in a refractory lined combustion

204 chamber or boiler has attracted considerable research on their radiant properties in order to improve
205 their efficiency or minimise pollution. Because the emissivity changes during the combustion process
206 these are set out here. In a pulverised fuel combustor the combustion of solid fuel particles, whether
207 coal or biomass, goes through the following steps: heating up of the fuel particle, devolatilisation, the
208 formation of char followed by the burn-out of the char leaving an ash [52,53]. The fuel, which initially
209 will have complex band spectra [54-56], rapidly undergoes devolatilisation within ~0.1s and forms a
210 carbonaceous char containing ash; then the char then burns out over a period of several seconds at
211 temperatures of about 1800 K finally leaving ash. Solomon et al. [54] investigated devolatilising coal
212 and the char formed finding a value for char of 0.7 at 1000K and that for devolatilising coal less than
213 that. Bhattacharya and Wall [56] found the emittance of coal particles increases, up to a value of about
214 0.83 at 1473K with increase in the extent of devolatilisation, incompletely devolatilised coal is non-
215 grey, particularly up to 7 μm wavelength.

216 This transition from a char particle to mainly an ash particle is complex since as the ash becomes the
217 dominant species it may change phase. If the particle is above the ash fusion temperature it becomes a
218 liquid droplet but still containing some unreacted carbon which burns out forming a cenosphere may
219 in turn fragment. The behaviour can in principle be tracked in CFD models. The char will have the
220 grey body spectral behaviour of a carbon. The ash, consisting mainly of an alumino-silicate material
221 containing some calcium and/or iron, behaves like a refractory material following the typical behaviour
222 of the compounds shown in Fig. 5. Their emissivity is a function of the composition, particularly the
223 iron content [3,19,57]. The emissivity of these char/ash particles have been measured in flames as
224 well as at lower temperatures by a number of groups [10,19,55,56, 58-60] and the results are
225 summarised in Table A 4. The low emissivities at high temperature are confirmed by measurements
226 directly in flames [60-62].

227 The emissivity of a burning coal or biomass char particle changes as it reacts to become an ash particle.
228 The change can be approximated by combining the ϵ values of, for example, biomass char and wood
229 ash given in Table A4 as follows:

$$\epsilon = 0.85(\text{mass fraction of char}) + (0.95 - 3 \times 10^{-4}T)(\text{mass fraction of ash}) \quad (8)$$

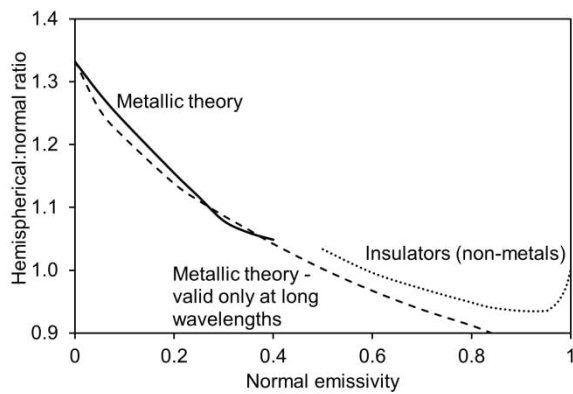
230 where the emissivity of the char is assumed to be 0.85 and that of the ash taken to a temperature
231 dependent value from Table A4. Similar expressions can be derived using ϵ values for coal chars and
232 ashes.

233 The temperature is all important here, because in most furnace applications, it determines the fuel
234 burn-out and hence emissivity, and also the ash deposition on the walls. Molten ash deposition on the
235 refractory walls or boiler tubes is important and data on the emissivity of slag covered walls is available
236 and a summary is given in Table A4. The emissivity varies with the chemical composition of the slag
237 and the iron and silica contents are important, as well as the physical nature of the surface, ie molten
238 or sintered ash and on particle size [3,17,19,64] or whether a phase change takes place [18,66]. The
239 influence of rough surfaces, whether due to dust layers or sintering, is discussed in Section 4. This
240 information is of considerable importance for the design of furnaces [3,15,64,67]. A correlation linking
241 the emissivity to the iron content has been derived [67] based on an earlier correlation by Konopeiko
242 in 1972 (see reference [67]). The thermal radiation from the combustion chamber results from the
243 complex interplay between the hot combustion gases, the furnace walls and any particulate matter
244 arising from the combustion process [1-3].

245 The directional emissivity, ε_{θ} , of a diffuse surface is independent of direction and this is often a
246 reasonable assumption for many real materials [1,5]. Nevertheless, all surfaces exhibit some departure
247 from diffuse behaviour and the general trends for the two special kinds of material discussed already,
248 non-conductors and conductors, may be summarised as follows. For conductors, ε_{θ} is approximately
249 constant for $\theta < 40^{\circ}$, increases up to about 80° and drops to zero at 90° . For insulators, ε_{θ} is roughly
250 constant for $\theta < 70^{\circ}$ after which it drops sharply. The net result of these trends is that the hemispherical
251 emissivity does not differ markedly from the normal emissivity [1], their ratio being 1.0 to 1.3 for
252 conductors and 0.95 to 1.0 for insulators as shown in **Fig 6**.

253

254



255

256 **Fig 6.** Ratio of hemispherical to normal emissivity as a function of normal emissivity for metals and
257 non-metals. Based on [1].

258 From this data and associated literature it may be observed that:

- 259 1. The emissivity of clean metallic surfaces is small, being as low as 0.02 for polished gold and
260 silver, although slowly increasing with temperature.
- 261 2. Oxidation of the metal surface markedly increases the emissivity, up to about 0.8 for heavily
262 oxidised stainless steel for example.
- 263 3. The emissivity of conductors increases with increase in temperature, that of insulators will
264 generally decrease. Some metal oxides become semi-conductors at high temperatures, and
265 these exhibit a U shaped emissivity curve.
- 266 4. The total emissivity of ceramics at high temperatures is generally around 0.6 but there is some
267 variation in the values depending on the composition.
- 268 5. The spectral emittance of most refractory materials is quite low (typically less than 0.6) at
269 wavelengths less than 5-6 μ m so that at higher temperatures over around 1000K, the total
270 emissivity tend to be lower at around 0.4 to 0.3.
- 271 6. There is a correlation between the variation of emissivity with temperature and wavelength
272 because increasing the temperature of emission is accompanied by a decrease in the wavelength
273 of that radiation.

274

275 **4. EMISSIVITIES OF ROUGH SURFACES SUCH AS REFRACTORIES**

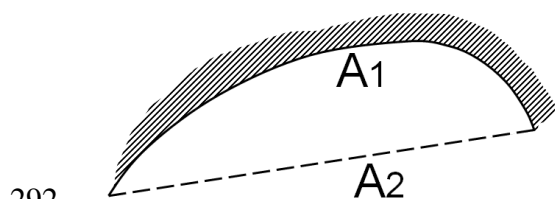
276 The surface roughness (r') can be expressed as the ratio of the root mean square depth of the cavities
277 (d) to the wavelength of radiation ($r' = d/\lambda$) [1]. Surface roughness can be placed in two categories
278 according to this criterion, bearing in mind that at very small values of r' the surface will be a smooth
279 specular reflector.

- 280 • With relatively small cavities, the specular reflecting material is converted to a partially diffuse,
281 partially specular reflector.
- 282 • Multiple reflections occur with surfaces possessing relatively deep cavities and the effective
283 emissivity is significantly larger than that of a smooth surface.

284 The first category has been treated by Porteus and Porteus [69], among others. A simple approach to
285 the second category is given by examining a single cavity as shown in **Fig. 7**. An imaginary plane of
286 area A_2 is stretched across a cavity of area A_1 . The analysis [55] of radiative flux leaving A_1 shows
287 that the cavity can be replaced by the plane area A_2 with effective emissivity given by Eq.9.

$$\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_1 / (1 - \rho_1(1 - A_2/A_1)) \quad (9)$$

288 where ρ and ε refer to reflectivity and emissivity. For a groove of angle 60° , for example, the
289 emissivity is increased by varying amounts, depending on the original emissivity, as shown in Table
290 1. Consequently, the apparent emissivity of a diffuse furnace wall can be enhanced by cutting grooves
291 in the surface.



292
293 **Fig 7.** Representation of a cavity by an imaginary plane surface.

294

295

296

297

298 **Table 1.** The effect of surface roughness on enhancing emissivity (groove angle 60°).

Actual Emissivity	Enhanced Apparent Emissivity
0.1	0.18
0.2	0.33
0.3	0.46
0.4	0.57
0.5	0.67
0.6	0.75
0.7	0.82
0.8	0.89

299

300 Certain materials which are granular or fibrous are inherently rough. The radiative properties of
301 granular metal oxide refractories and fibrous materials are determined not by the surface layer but by
302 scattering and adsorption by particles below the surface. The calculation of values of emissivity has
303 been made but it is not easy to predict values accurately for real materials. The effect of grain size and
304 material has been indicated by experimental measurements at 1200°C as shown in Table 2 [1]. A
305 typical granular refractory brick with a grain size of 60 µm would have grooves in the surface with an
306 angle of approximately 60° and an enhancement of emissivity as given by the values in Table 1. A
307 ceramic fibre board would also contain grooves of about 60°, whilst some stack-bonded boards would
308 have a greater increase. Rough surfaces should lead to higher emissivities for a particular material.
309 This is particularly true for metals [71]. There is some evidence, from **Fig.5**, that it is also true when
310 comparing certain refractory materials, but it is difficult to isolate this effect from differences in
311 composition between these materials, even when these are small since minor variations in the amounts
312 of certain compounds can affect emissivity (cf Table A2). However, for the same material composition,
313 it has proved difficult to measure the effects of varying surface emissivity since, by nature, refractory
314 materials are diffuse emitters and reflectors [1,41] and this aspect is not very affected by surface
315 roughness in comparison to metals where the differences in surface behaviour can be greater between
316 polished and oxidised surfaces.

317

318

319

320 **Table 2.** Effect of Grain Size on the Emissivity of Selected Oxides measured at 1200°C, taken from
321 [1].

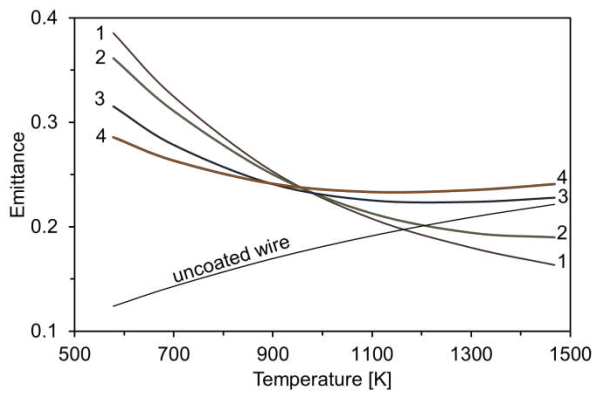
Oxide	Grain size (μm)	Emissivity
Al_2O_3	2 - 25	0.35
	15 - 80	0.43
	90 - 120	0.53
MgO	1 - 3	0.30
	30 - 75	0.39
	90 - 120	0.48
Cr_2O_3	0.5 - 1.5	0.72
	1.5 - 8	0.95

322

323 5. SURFACE COATINGS

324 The theory of optical surface coatings is well developed for optical components and for solar radiation
325 applications where surfaces are of a regular shape [5], In the case of non-uniform surfaces such as
326 furnace insulation materials the surface is less well defined. There are a number of applications where
327 surfaces are deliberately coated to increase surface emissivity or for surface protection [1,5]. An
328 important class of the application of surface coatings are those used to enhance surface emissivity in
329 industrial furnaces, and some examples are given in Table A3 and in Fig. 5. Generally, those coatings
330 contain iron or silicon carbide to enhance the emissivity and the effects are shown in the Table. It is
331 not surprising that these coatings also tend to be darker in appearance. However, these coatings are
332 only advantageous in certain furnace applications where the stock is only heated intermittently, for
333 instance in some continuous heating processes, rather than where there is steady state heating, in which
334 case the furnace wall emissivity is immaterial since the furnace behaves as a black body enclosure
335 [41,42, 68].

336 An important example of protection is the use of silica films to prevent catalytic reactions of platinum-
337 based thermocouples in flames. The results of such computations for coated wire temperatures of 577,
338 977 and 1450°C are shown in **Fig. 8**, where data for the total hemispherical emittance is given against
339 the overall diameter of the coated wire [72].



340

341 **Fig 8.** Variation of total hemispherical emittance with temperature for different thicknesses of coating
 342 on a thermocouple. Assumed thermocouple diameter 12.7 μm: coatings (1) 53.3 μm; (2) 38.1 μm; (3)
 343 22.9 μm; (4) 17.8 μm. Based on [72].

344 At the lowest temperature there is a continuing rise of emissivity with coating thickness and this is
 345 because an appreciable proportion of the radiant energy originates in the silica coating. At
 346 temperatures of 977 and 1450°C a different effect is observed. A very thin coating gives rise to an
 347 increase in emissivity owing to emission from the silica. A further increase in thickness eventually
 348 leads to a decreasing emittance owing to the decreasing amount of radiation from the unit area of the
 349 outside surface which has originated at the core. This decrease is not compensated by an increased
 350 emission from the silica for at higher temperatures black-body emission resides increasingly in the
 351 lower wavelength region where the silica is almost transparent. **Fig. 8** shows the variation of emissivity
 352 with temperature for the different thicknesses of coating. At the lower temperatures the coating
 353 produces a marked increase in emittance, but as the temperature increases this effect is reduced.

354

355 CONCLUSIONS

356 The effect of temperature on the emissivity of various materials used in high temperature applications
 357 has been compiled. The data shows that the total normal emissivities of the more commonly used
 358 materials in furnace construction are typically in the range 0.4 to 0.8. However there can be
 359 considerable uncertainty particularly in materials used in engineering applications due to a lack of
 360 knowledge of the accurate surface temperature, and the exact physical or chemical surface properties.

361 A considerable body of information is available relating to the combustion of coal and biomass fuels
 362 especially particulate fuels. The behaviour of particulate char is complex as it burns out to form an ash
 363 which may then be deposited on the furnace walls, but the process can be tracked.

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536

Metals		a	b	c	temp range K	ref	ϵ range
Aluminium	polished	0.0263	5.01		300 - 900	7	0.04-0.07
	oxidised	0.0463	5.01		450 - 900	7	0.07-0.09
	lightly oxidised	0.011	21		473 - 873	7	0.11-0.19
Brass	polished	0.03			550	1	0.03
	unoxidised	0.035			295	1	0.04
	oxidised @ 599°C	0.6			573 - 873	1	0.6
Copper	polished	0.021	1.98		300 - 1200	7	0.03-0.05
	oxidised, red heat 30 min	0.06	15.4		400 - 1050	7	0.12-0.22
	oxidised at 1000 K		80		600 - 1000	7	0.48-0.8
	thick oxide	0.72	20		400 - 1000	7	0.8-0.92
Gold		0.0432	-8.88	7.15	600 - 1000	7	0.02-0.026
Iron/steel	polished		18.2		100 - 1050	7	0.24-0.61
	iron oxide, red heat 30 min	0.173	68.6	-25.6	100 - 1050	7	0.24-0.61
	molten	0.35			1810 - 1860	23	0.35
	heavily oxidised	0.72	20		400 - 1000	7	0.8-0.92
Stainless steels	N-155, oxidation retarded	0.0144	17		100 - 1500	7	0.031-0.27
	N-155, lightly oxidised	-0.0372	27.8		450 - 1300	7	0.09-0.32
	oxidised at high temp.	0.42	30		600 - 1400	7	0.60-0.84
	heavily oxidised	0.72	20		400 - 1000	7	0.8-0.92
Molybdenum	polished	0.0288	12.7		100 - 1800	7	0.04-0.26
	oxidised	0.82			600 - 800	7	0.82
Nickel	polished	0.014	12.9		100 - 1500	7	0.03-0.21
	oxidised		60		400 - 1000	7	0.24-0.6
	unoxidised	0.01	13.3		723-1123	27	0.1-0.16
	Ni oxidised to various degrees {	0.266	24		723-1123	27	0.43-0.5
		0.4	17.8		723-1123	27	0.5-0.6
Nichrome	clean	0.65			323	21	0.65
	oxidised	0.71	16		773 - 1273	21	0.83-0.91
Palladium	polished	-0.03	11.7		400 - 1550	7	0.03-0.16
Platinum	polished	0.008	10.8		100 - 1500	7	0.02-0.17
Silver	electrolytic	0.0119	1.9		400 - 1200	7	0.02-0.035
Titanium		0.913	-96.9	36.5	1373-1673	28,29	0.27-0.31
	lightly oxidised	0.2	61		673 - 1023	7	0.6-0.82
Tin	polished	0.0085	10.8		300 - 500	7	0.041-0.06
Tungsten	polished	-0.003	10.5		273-2500	7	0.03-0.26
Zinc	polished	-0.01	10		500 - 600	1	0.04-0.05
	oxidised at 400°C	0.11			673	1	0.11
Inconel-718		0.11	13.2		760-1275	30	0.21-0.28
Ti-6Al-4V		0.165	31.5	-15.5	773-1323	31	0.3-0.33

540 TABLE A2

Non-metals		a	b	c	d	temp range K	ref	ϵ range
Alumina		0.98	-53	10.2		300 -- 1800	8	0.83-0.35
Fire brick (Al/Si/Fe/O)	low Al ₂ O ₃ content	0.9	-10			673 - 1673	33	0.83-0.73
	medium Al ₂ O ₃ content	0.84	-20			673 - 1673	33	0.71-0.51
	high Al ₂ O ₃ content	0.8	-20			673 -1673	33	0.64-0.39
Fired-Clay:	63.2% Al ₂ O ₃ , 32.1 SiO ₂	0.74	133	-268	11.8	300 - 1300	34	0.90-0.55
Glasses	Vycor (Corning 7900)	0.85	9.5	-10.8		70 - 1050	8	0.87-0.85
	Aluminium silicate	0.84	24.6	-25.7		70 - 950	8	0.89-0.83
	Pyrex (Corning 7740)	0.83	14.4	-17.3		70 - 1150	8	0.86-0.8
	Borosilicate	0.82	28.7	-24.6		70 - 750	8	0.88-0.86
	Soda	0.8	36.6	-46.8		70 - 800	8	0.86-0.68
	Fused silica	0.77	24.8	-31.3		70 - 1050	8	0.75-0.71
	Quartz, 2 mm thick	0.61	25.8	-31.4		750 - 1200	35	0.65-0.41
	Quartz 10 mm thick	0.82	20.7	-27.6		750 - 1200	35	0.84-0.62
Molten glass	0.8				1773	36	0.8	
Iron oxide	(Fe ₂ O ₃)	-0.01	161	-75		850 - 1300	8	0.75-0.85
Magnesium oxide	(MgO)	0.73	11.8	-65	2.48	500 - 2350	8	0.73-0.3
Silicon carbide	(SiC)	0.8	15.4	-9.01		400 - 1850	8	0.85-0.78
	polished	0.99				298 - 373	37	0.99
	oxidised (1h, 1367 K)	0.7	-25			800 - 1600		0.5-0.3
Silicon nitride	(Si ₃ N ₄)	0.86	13.9	-16.3		600 - 1250	8	0.89-0.78
	polished	0.98				298 - 373	37	0.98
Thorium dioxide	(ThO ₂)	1.93	-224.1	74.7		1200 - 2250	8	0.32-0.67
Titanium dioxide	(TiO ₂)	0.68	-21.2			850 - 1300	8	0.49-0.4
	polished	0.95				298 - 373	37	0.96-0.95
Zirconia	(ZrO ₂)	0.82	6.67	-86.8	4.18	50 - 1600	8	0.82-0.42
Zirconia/MgO (1:1)		0.9	-37			700 - 1700	3	0.64-0.27
	polished	0.94				293 - 373	37	0.95-0.92
Zirconium carbide		0.98	-13.9			1200 - 2400	8	0.82-0.66
Zirconium dibromide	(ZrB ₂)	0.14	19			1100-1625	38	0.35-0.45
Hafnium dibromide	(HfB ₂)	0.14	19			1100-1625	38	0.35-0.45
TaB67-ceramics		0.54	10			1100-1625	38	0.65-0.7
C/SiC composites		0.727	15.5	-8.55		1000-2000	39	0.8-0.7
Ceramic fibre Board 45wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 55wt% SiO ₂ , 0.05wt% Fe ₂ O ₃	fibres normal to surface	1.27	-48.5	2.84		600 - 1400	40	0.94 - 0.65
	parallel bonded fibres	1.47	-91.1	14.4		600 - 1400	40	0.9-0.48
Zirconia coated fibre		1.26	-26.7			1000 - 1300	9	0.99-0.91
Ceramic Fibres	Kaowool	2.39	-165			923 - 1173	41	0.87-0.40
	Zicar	0.51				1080	41	0.51
	Saffil	0.49				1010	41	0.49
	Microtherm	0.48				950	41	0.48

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542 TABLE A2 (continued)

Refractories		a	b	temp range K	ref	ε range
Lightweight Refractories						
PK 110	20wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 53wt% SiO ₂ , 4wt% Fe ₂ O ₃ , 16wt% MgO	0.43	14.4	1073-1350	41	0.58-0.62
MPK 125	36wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 46wt% SiO ₂ , 15wt% CaO	0.53	8	1063-1350	41	0.54-0.64
MPK 140	41wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 54wt% SiO ₂	0.21	25.3	1073-1350	41	0.48-0.55
MPK 155HA	61wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 36wt% SiO ₂	0.75	-27.9	1063-1350	41	0.44-0.36
MPK 130HSR	36wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 54wt% SiO ₂	0.61		1073-1250	41	0.60-0.62
MPK SUPRA	11wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 75wt% SiO ₂ , 6wt% Fe ₂ O ₃	-0.16	74	1073-1300	41	0.64-0.81
Refractory Brick						
alumina/silica : 330 kg/m ³ .	45wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 55% SiO ₂				33	} see Fig 5
alumina/silica : 260 kg/m ³ .	45wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 55% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 240 kg/m ³ .	50wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 50% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 210 kg/m ³ .	50wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 50% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 200 kg/m ³ .	70wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 26% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 130 kg/m ³ .	45wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 53% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 100 kg/m ³ .	45wt% Al ₂ O ₃ , 55% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 100 kg/m ³ .	100% SiO ₂				33	
alumina/silica : 80 kg/m ³ .	100% SiO ₂				33	
silica brick	97wt% SiO ₂ , 2.6wt% CaO				35	
silica brick, used (as above)	97wt% SiO ₂ , 2.6wt% CaO				35	
Zirconia silicate	32wt% SiO ₂ , 63wt% ZrO				35	
Furnace Refractory porous	1.2 pores/mm	1.17	-50.6	750-1050	44	0.8-0.65
80-90% Al ₂ O ₃ , 5-9%, SiO ₂	0.8 pores/mm	1.13	-37.6	650-1050	44	0.88-0.74
	0.4 pores/mm	1.09	-29.8	850-1650	44	0.6-0.82

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544 TABLE A3

Coatings	a	b	c	temp range K	ref	ϵ range
High Emissivity Furnace Coatings						
Carbide coating (bonded to refractory bricks)	0.97			273 - 1273	46	0.99-0.95
CaO stabilised Zr/Fe/Cr oxides	0.98			1273	46	0.98
Zirconia, unstabilised	0.98			813 - 1373	46	0.98
Carbonundum powder-based	1.56	-60		1023 - 1273	41	0.95-0.8
SiO ₂ based	0.83			950 - 1373	41	0.84-0.81
ZrO ₂ based	0.6			1073 - 1350	41	0.55-0.64
Furnace Wall Protective Coating						
NOVIT 62wt% ZrO ₂ , 32wt% SiO ₂	1	-40		1073 - 1373	41	0.56-0.44
X-ray anode coatings						
STZ	1.06	260	87.9		47	0.66-0.86
Oxidation Protective Coatings for Reusable Space Vehicles						
Polysilazine (Si-C-N) + Si	0.82			1100-1700	47	0.82
Polysilazine (Si-C-N) + SiC	0.75			1100-1700	47	0.75

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546 TABLE A4

Solid fuels		a	b	temp range K	ref	ϵ range
Carbon	Carbon, rough	0.81		300 - 2100	8	0.81
	Graphite, polished	0.81	2.2	0 3000	8	0.81-0.88
	Graphene			Up to 2500	49	0.99
	Candle soot	0.95		373-500	1	0.95
	Lampblack	0.96		323 - 1273	1	0.96
Biomass Particles	Wood	0.9		295-337	48	0.92-0.86
	Biomass charcoal	0.85		1328	50	0.85
	Beech wood char	0.85		898-1223	51	0.85
	Biomass char	0.85		1500		0.85
Coal Particles	Devolatilising coal particle	0.6			56	0.6
	Coal particle char	0.8		400 - 900	1	0.81 - 0.79
	Coal particle char			1473	56	0.83
	Coal fly ash			500 - 1500	55,56,58-61	0.8-0.3
Ash Particles	Coal ash	1	-40	500 - 1500	19	See text
	(deposited on furnace surfaces)					
	glassy					0.8-0.4
	sintered	0.9	-30	500 - 1500	19	0.75-0.45
	powder, 120 μ m dia.	0.85	-30	500 - 1500	19	0.7-0.4
	powder, 33 μ m dia.	0.75	-30	500 - 1500	19	0.6-0.3
powder, 6.5 μ m dia.	0.65	-30	500 - 1500	19	0.5-0.2	
Wood ash	0.95	-30	500 - 1500	estimated	0.8-0.4	

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