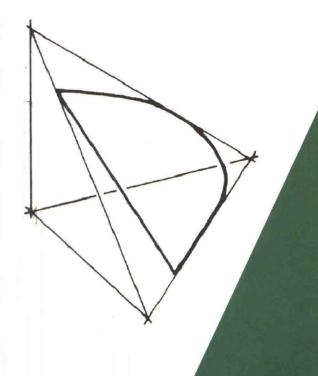


Introduction to Architectural Science

The Basis of Sustainable Design



Steven V Szokolay



Introduction to ARCHITECTURAL SCIENCE

The Basis of Sustainable Design

Steven V. Szokolay

Second edition







Architectural Press is an imprint of Elsevier Linacre House, Jordan Hill, Oxford OX2 8DP, UK 30 Corporate Drive, Suite 400, Burlington, MA 01803, USA

Second edition 2008

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British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

Szokolay, S. V.

Introduction to architectural science: the basis of sustainable design. - 2nd ed.

1. Architectural design 2. Buildings – Environmental engineering 3. Sustainable architecture I. Title

721'.046

Library of Congress Catalog Number: 2008924601

ISBN: 978-0-7506-8704-1

For information on all Architectural Press publications visit our website at: www.architecturalpress.com

Typeset by Charon Tec Ltd., A Macmillan Company. (www.macmillansolutions.com)

Printed and bound by Uniprint

08 09 10 11 11 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

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Introduction to ARCHITECTURAL SCIENCE

The Basis of Sustainable Design

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

Much has changed in the 3 years since the first edition of this book.

The physics of heat, light, sound and energy is still the same, so there is little change in the first three parts. Apart from the correction of a few errors, a few new developments are mentioned, some new methods are included and statistics updated.

Part 4 has many new elements that reflect societal changes, especially changes in public attitudes. Three years ago there were many who denied global warming or who regarded renewable energy technologies as 'kids' stuff'. Today only a few of these survive. Global warming is recognized as a fact by politicians as well as the general public. As the general public is better informed, politicians are forced to pay at least lip service to sustainability. Some actions have also been taken, albeit rather timidly.

There is significant progress in renewable energy technologies, both at the scientific and at the practical engineering level. Real life projects are multiplying and increasing in size. Numerous large wind farms and solar power stations are already operating and many are being developed. It is most encouraging that private capital started funding large renewable energy projects. There is also a large increase in small scale, 'distributed' power generation. Architects and the building industry started moving in the direction of sustainable practice as well.

What I said in the original 'Introduction' is just as valid now, as it then was, but the importance of having a critical attitude is even greater now than it was 3 years ago. Unfortunately there are many charlatans around, many use the label of 'sustainable' without the substance, some are ignorant or downright fraudulent. Few dare to say to them that the 'emperor has no clothes'.

I can only hope that this book, besides assisting the designer or the student will also contribute to developing such a critical attitude, thus lead to a progressive improvement.

INTRODUCTION

Four chains of thought lead to the idea of this book and to the definition of its content:

- 1 It can no longer be disputed that the resources of this earth are finite, that its capacity to absorb our wastes is limited, that if we (as a species) want to survive, we cannot continue our ruthless exploitation of the environment. Where our actions would affect the environment, we must act in a sustainable manner. There are many good books that deal with the need for sustainability (e.g. Vale, 1991; Farmer, 1999; Roaf, 2001; Smith, 2001; Beggs, 2002). This book assumes that the reader is in agreement with these tenets and needs no further persuasion.
- 2 Architecture is the art and science of building. There exists a large literature on architecture as an art, on the cultural and social significance of architecture there is no need for discussing these issues here.
- 3 The term 'bioclimatic architecture' has been coined by Victor Olgyay in the early 1950s and fully explained in his book *Design with climate* (1963). He synthesized elements of human physiology, climatology and building physics, with a strong advocacy of architectural regionalism and of designing in sympathy with the environment. In many ways he can be considered as an important progenitor of what we now call 'sustainable architecture'.
- 4 Architecture, as a profession is instrumental in huge investments of money and resources. Our professional responsibility is great, not only to our clients and to society, but also for sustainable development. Many excellent books and other publications deal with sustainable development in qualitative terms. However, professional responsibility demands expertise and competence. It is this narrow area where this work intends to supplement the existing literature.

The book is intended to give an introduction to architectural science, to provide an understanding of the physical phenomena we are to deal with and to provide the tools for realizing the many good intentions. Many projects in recent times are claimed to constitute sustainable development, to be sustainable architecture. But are they really green or sustainable? Some new terms started appearing in the literature, such as 'green wash' – meaning that a conventional building is designed and then claimed to be 'green'. Or 'pure rhetoric – no substance', with the same meaning.

x Introduction

My hope is that after absorbing the contents of this modest work, the reader will be able to answer this question. After all, the main aim of any education is to develop a critical faculty.

Building environments affect us through our sensory organs:

- 1 The eye, i.e. vision, a condition of which is light and lighting; the aim is to ensure visual comfort but also to facilitate visual performance.
- 2 The ear, i.e. hearing, appropriate conditions for listening to wanted sound must be ensured, but also the elimination (or control) of unwanted sound, noise.
- 3 Thermal sensors, located over the whole body surface, in the skin; this is not just a sensory channel, as the body itself produces heat and has a number of adjustment mechanisms but it can function only within a fairly narrow range of temperatures and only an even narrower range would be perceived as comfortable. Thermal conditions appropriate for human well-being must be ensured.

What is important for the designer is to be able to control the indoor environmental conditions: heat, light and sound. Rayner Banham (1969) in his Architecture of the well-tempered environment postulated that comfortable conditions can be provided by a building (passive control) or by the use of energy (active control), and that if we had an unlimited supply of energy, we could ensure comfort even without a building. In most real cases it is a mixture (or synergy) of the two kinds of control we would be relying on.

In this day and age, when it is realized that our traditional energy sources (coal, oil, gas) are finite and their rapidly increasing use has serious environmental consequences (CO₂ emissions, global warming, as well as local atmospheric pollution), it should be the designer's aim to ensure the required indoor conditions with little or no use of energy, other than from ambient or renewable sources.

Therefore the designer's task is

- 1 to examine the given conditions (site conditions, climate, daylight and noise climate)
- 2 to establish the limits of desirable or acceptable conditions (temperatures, lighting and acceptable noise levels)
- 3 to attempt to control these variables (heat, light and sound) by passive means (by the building itself) as far as practicable
- 4 to provide for energy-based services (heating, cooling, electric lighting, amplification or masking sound) only for the residual control task.

The building is not just a shelter, or a barrier against unwanted influences (rain, wind, cold), but the building envelope should be considered as a selective filter: to exclude the unwanted influences, but admit the desirable and useful ones, such as daylight, solar radiation in winter or natural ventilation.

The book consists of four parts

- 1 Heat: the thermal environment
- 2 Light: the luminous environment
- 3 Sound: the sonic environment
- 4 Resources

In each part the relevant physical principles are reviewed, followed by a discussion of their relationship to humans (comfort and human requirements). Then the control functions of the building (passive controls) are examined as well as associated installations, energy-using 'active' controls. The emphasis is on how these can be considered in design. The first part (Heat) is the most substantial, as the thermal behaviour of a building has greatest effect on energy use and sustainability and its design is fully the architect's responsibility.

Each part concludes with a series of data sheets relating to that part, together with some 'methods sheets', describing some calculation and design methods

CONTENTS

Preface Introduc	to the second edition	vii ix
Part 1	Heat: the thermal environment Contents and lists 1.1 Physics of heat 1.2 Thermal comfort 1.3 Climate 1.4 Thermal behaviour of buildings 1.5 Thermal design: passive controls 1.6 Active controls: HVAC Data sheets and method sheets	1 6 16 22 35 53 76 95
Part 2	Light: the luminous environment Contents and lists 2.1 Physics of light 2.2 Vision 2.3 Daylight and sunlight 2.4 Design methods 2.5 Electric lighting Data sheets and method sheets	135 135 138 145 149 153 168 185
Part 3	Sound: the sonic environment Contents and lists 3.1 Physics of sound 3.2 Hearing 3.3 Noise control 3.4 Room acoustics Data sheets and method sheets	203 203 206 212 220 233 247
Part 4	Resources Contents and lists 4.1 Energy 4.2 Renewable energy 4.3 Energy use 4.4 Water and wastes 4.5 Sustainability issues Data sheets and method sheets	261 264 274 292 304 310 323
		331 333 335 337 339

PART 1 HEAT: THE THERMAL ENVIRONMENT

CONTENTS

1.1	Physics of heat	6	1.4.3.3 thermal bridges	45
	1.1.1 Heat and temperature	6	1.4.4 Dynamic response of buildings	47
	1.1.2 Heat flow	8	1.4.4.1 thermal response simulation	51
	1.1.2.1 conduction	9	1.4.5 Application	52
	1.1.2.2 convection	11 1.5	Thermal design: passive controls	53
	1.1.2.3 radiation	11	1.5.1 Passive control of heat flows	53
	1.1.3 Humid air: psychrometry	12	1.5.1.1 passive solar heating	58
	1.1.4 Air flow	15	1.5.1.2 the mass effect	59
1.2	Thermal comfort	16	1.5.1.3 air movement	62
	1.2.1 Thermal balance and comfort	16	1.5.1.4 evaporative cooling	63
	1.2.2 Factors of comfort	17	1.5.2 Control functions of design variables	64
	1.2.3 Adjustment mechanisms	19	1.5.2.1 component heat flows	64
	1.2.4 Comfort indices, comfort zone	20	1.5.2.2 design variables	65
1.3	Climate	22	1.5.3 Climatic design archetypes	67
1.3	1.3.1 The sun	22	1.5.3.1 in cold climates	67
	1.3.1.1 sun-path diagrams	24	1.5.3.2 in temperate climates	68
	1.3.1.2 solar radiation	24	1.5.3.3 in hot-dry climates	69
	1.3.2 Global climate, greenhouse effect	26	1.5.3.4 warm-humid climates	69
	1.3.3 Elements of climates: data	29	1.5.4 Condensation and moisture control	71
	1.3.3.1 wind data	31	1.5.5 Microclimatic controls	73
	1.3.3.2 derived data	32 1.6	Active controls: HVAC	76
	1.3.4 Classification of climates	33	1.6.1 Heating	76
1.4	Thermal behaviour of buildings	35	1.6.1.1 local heating	77
1.4	1.4.1 Solar control	36	1.6.1.2 central heating	81
	1.4.1.1 shading design	36	1.6.2 Hot water supply	82
	1.4.1.2 radiation calculations	37	1.6.3 Ventilation and air conditioning	86
	1.4.1.3 solar heat gain	39	1.6.3.1 mechanical ventilation systems	86
	1.4.2 Ventilation	41	1.6.3.2 air conditioning systems	88
	1.4.3 Steady-state heat flow	43	1.6.4 Open-cycle cooling systems	90 92
	1.4.3.1 conduction heat flow	43	1.6.5 Integration/discussion	92
	1432 insulation	44 Dat	a sheets and method sheets	95

SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

		Units	DD	degree-days	Kd
	- Manualitan and a sain factor				Units
asg b	alternating solar gain factor	-	Dh	degree-hours	Kh
clo	breadth, thickness unit of clothing insulation	m	DPT	dew-point temperature	°C
dTe	sol-air excess temperature		DRT	dry resultant temperature	°C
ule	(difference)	K	E	radiant heat emission	W
er	evaporation rate	kg/h	EnvT	environmental temperature	°C
f	response factor	-	Ev	evaporation heat transfer	C
g	vapour quantity		LV	(from body)	W
k	linear heat loss coefficient	W/m K	ET*	new effective temperature	°C
met	unit of metabolic heat	ANTICIS	G	global irradiance	W/m ²
	(58.2W/m²)		GT	globe temperature	°C
mr	mass flow rate	kg/s	Н	enthalpy (heat content)	kJ/kg
p	pressure	Pa	HDD	heating degree-days	Kd
pt	total atmospheric pressure	Pa	H_{L}	latent heat content	kJ/kg
pv	vapour pressure	Pa	H_{S}^{-}	sensible heat content	kJ/kg
pvs	saturation vapour pressure	Pa	HŠA	horizontal shadow angle	0
q	building conductance (specfic	W/K	Htg	heating requirement	(kWh) Wh
	heat loss rate)		HVAC	Heating, Ventilation and Air	-
qa	total admittance	W/K		Conditioning	
qc	envelope conductance	W/K	INC	angle of incidence	0
qv	ventilation conductance	W/K	Kd	kelvin-days	Kd
h	surface conductance	W/m ² K	Kh	kelvin-hours	Kh
h_{c}	convective surface conductance	W/m ² K	L	length (linear thermal bridges)	m
$h_{\rm r}$	radiative surface conductance	W/m ² K	LAT	geographical latitude angle	0
sM	specific mass (per floor area)	kg/m ²	M	metabolic heat production	W
sQ	swing in heat flow rate		MRT	mean radiant temperature	°C
	(from mean)	W	N	number of air changes per hour	-
sT	swing in temperature	12	ORI	orientation angle	
	(from mean)	K	Q	heat flux or heat flow rate	W
t	time	h	Qc	conduction heat flow rate	W
V	velocity	m/s	Qe	evaporative heat loss rate	W
vr	volume flow rate (ventilation	m ³ /s, L/s	Qi Qs	internal heat gain rate	W
vR	rate)	MPasm²/g	Qv	solar heat gain rate ventilation heat flow rate	W
	vapour resistance	IVIFASTIT/9	R	resistance	m ² K/W
y A	year area	m ²		air-to-air resistance	m^2K/W
AH	absolute humidity	g/kg	$R_{a-a} \ R_c$	cavity resistance	m^2K/W
ALT	solar altitude angle	9/1/9	Rd	radiation, radiated heat	111 15/00
AZI	solar azimuth angle	0	Tid	(from body)	W
C	conductance	W/m ² K	RH	relative humidity	%
CDD	cooling degree-days	Kd	$R_{\rm s}$	surface resistance	m ² K/W
CoP	coefficient of performance	_	$R_{\rm si}$	internal surface resistance	m ² K/W
CPZ	control potential zone		$R_{\rm so}$	outside surface resistance	m^2K/W
Cd	conduction, conducted heat		SD	standard deviation	NIS EL BOOK ISS. S.
	(from body)	W	SET	standard effective temperature	0
Cv	convection, convected heat		SH	saturation point humidity	g/kg
	(from body)	W	SI	système International (of units)	0, 0
D	daily total irradiation	Wh/ m^2 ,	T	temperature	°C
	and the second s	MJ/m^2	Tb	balance point (base~)	
D_{v}	daily total vertical irradiation	Wh/ m^2 ,		temperature	°C
	•	MJ/m^2	TIL	tilt angle	0
DBT	dry-bulb temperature	°C	T_{i}	indoor temperature	°C
DEC	solar declination angle	0	Tn	neutrality temperature	°C

(Continued)

SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS (Continued)

		Units			Units
To To Ts Ts-a U V VSA WBT Y	outdoor temperature surface temperature sol-air temperature air-to-air (thermal) transmittance volume vertical shadow angle wet-bulb temperature admittance absorptance or thermal diffusivity	°C °C W/m²K m³ °C W/m²K	$egin{array}{c} au \ \phi \ au \ a$	transmittance time lag stefan-Boltzmann constant sum of pressure difference rate of change in stored heat temperature difference, interval or increment	h W/m²K⁴ Pa W K
δ ε η θ θ a	vapour permeability emittance efficiency solar gain factor alternating solar gain factor	μg/m s Pa - - -	First	b d	beam~ diffuse~ reflected~
κ λ μ π	conductivity correction factor conductivity decrement factor vapour permeance density or reflectance	– W/m K – μg/m ² s Pa kg/m ³ or –	Second For G only	n v p n	horizontal vertical on plane p normal to radiation

LIST OF FIGURES

1.1	Temperature scale and interval.	6	1.24	Lococentric view of the sky hemisphere with	
1.2	The full electromagnetic spectrum and its			sun paths for the main dates.	23
	solar segment.	8	1.25	Stereographic projection method.	24
1.3	Example wall section: C and U and resistances		1.26	The shift of sun-path lines on the solar chart,	
	which are additive.	9		with latitudes.	25
1.4	Structure of the psychrometric chart.	12	1.27	A stereographic sun-path diagram for	
1.5	Relative humidity curves.	12		latitude 36° (e.g. Tokyo).	25
1.6	Psychrometric chart, with SET lines		1.28	Irradiance and irradiation.	26
	superimposed.	13	1.29	Angle of incidence.	26
1.7	Principles of an aspirated psychrometer		1.30	Radiation path-lengths through the	
	(a) and a whirling psychrometer (b).	14		atmosphere.	26
1.8	Web-bulb temperature lines.	14	1.31	Radiation balance in the atmosphere.	26
1.9	Enthalpy scales externally.	14	1.32	The global wind pattern.	27
1.10	Specific volume lines.	15	1.33	North-south shift of the ITCZ.	27
1.11	Cooling and heating: movement of the status		1.34	Development of mid-latitude cyclonic cells.	28
	point.	15	1.35	Sectional structure of the atmosphere:	
1.12	Cooling to reduce humidity.	15		changes of temperature and pressure	
1.13	Evaporative cooling: humidification.	15		(hPa = hectopascal = 100 Pa is used as it	
1.14	Adiabatic dehumidification.	16		is the same as a millibar).	28
1.15	Stack effect in a room and in a chimney.	16	1.36	The Earth's heat balance: causes of the global	
1.16	Wind effect: cross-ventilation.	16		warming.	29
1.17	Heat exchanges of the human body.	17	1.37	A precision pyranometer.	29
1.18	Globe thermometer.	18	1.38	A composite climate graph (Nairobi).	30
1.19	The psycho-physiological model of thermal		1.39	The simplest set of climatic data.	31
	perception.	20	1.40	A wind rose for one month.	31
1.20	Olgyay's bioclimatic chart, converted to metric,		1.41	An annual wind rose.	31
	modified for warm climates.	21	1.42	A wind frequency analysis, for January 9 a.m.	
1.21	Winter (light) and summer (heavy outline)			and 3 p.m. (Cairns).	32
	comfort zones for Budapest and Darwin.	22	1.43	Definition of degree-hours (Kh).	32
1.22	Two-dimensional section of the earth's orbit		1.44	The Köppen-Geiger climate zones of the world.	33
	and definition of solar declination (DEC).	23	1.45	Composite (simplified) climate graphs for the	
	Altitude and azimuth angles.	23		four basic types.	35

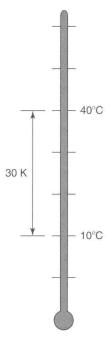
(Continued)

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

1.46 1.47	The shadow-angle protractor. Plan of a pair of vertical devices (fins) and their	36	1.82	A house proposed by Socrates (cca. 400 BC) for temperate climates.	68
1.48	shading mask. A horizontal device (a canopy) and its shading	36	1.83	A modern courtyard house: isometric view and plan.	69
1.40	mask.	37	1.84	A typical house for warm-humid climates.	70
1.49	Relationship of ALT and VSA.	37	1.85	Projecting building wings, vegetation screens	10
1.50	An egg-crate device and its shading masks:	57	1.00	or wing walls can be used to generate cross-	
1.50	section, plan, VSA, HSA and combined.	38		ventilation.	70
1.51	Equinox cut-off for summer shading and winter	30	1.86	A hybrid house for warm-humid climates.	71
1.01			1.87	Part of the psychrometric chart: condensation	/ 1
	sun-entry (southern hemisphere, north-facing	20	1.07	occurs when air is cooled to its DPT.	72
1.52	window). Design procedure for composite shading.	38 38	1.88	Katabatic wind: cool air flows downhill, like	12
1.53	Transmission through glass.	39	1.00	water.	74
1.54	Derivation of the sol–air temperature.	41	1.89	Wind velocity profiles.	74
1.55	Some parallel heat loss paths from a house:	41	1.90	Rainfall on hills.	74
1.55	the conductances work in parallel, therefore		1.91	Coastal winds.	75
	must be added, to get the total envelope		1.92	Urban heat island effect.	75
		43	1.93	Local wind at one building.	75
156	conductance, as eq. (1.25). Heat flow through a wall through the three	43	1.94		78
1.56			1.95	A typical cast iron stove. A ceramic stove built <i>in situ</i> .	78
	material layers and a cavity: in series, thus the resistances must be added.	44	1.96	A gas convector heater with a balanced flue.	78
157		44	1.97	Principles of a heat pump (or cooling machine).	79
1.57	Heat flow through an attic space: foil is very effective when $T_{\text{roof}} > T_{\text{ceiling}}$.	45	1.98	Gas storage bottles. B: buckles and straps;	19
1.58		46	1.30	C: changeover valve and P: pressure regulator.	81
	Thermal bridge due to geometry.	46	1.99		01
1.59	The above two effects combined	46	1.99	Oil storage tank room. V: vent; P: filling pipe;	
1.60 1.61	The above two effects combined. A concrete column in a brick wall.	46		S: sludge valve; D: depth to contain full volume; Fi: foam inlet; M: manhole and F: fire shut-off.	81
1.62	Heat flows 'downhill'.	47	1.100		
1.63	Temperature distribution near a thermal bridge.	47	1.100	A domestic warm air system. D: radial under-floor ducts; C: alternative ceiling ducts; V: vents in	
1.64	Flow paths when column is insulated.	47		doors and R = return air grill.	81
1.65	The whole area of a wall module is affected by	47	1.101	Central heating ring-main system.	81
1.05	thermal bridges.	47		A two-pipe up-feed system.	82
1.66	Heat flow through a real wall, compared with	47		A two-pipe down-feed system. A two-pipe down-feed system.	82
1.00	a wall of zero mass.	47	1.104	A one-pipe down-feed system.	82
1.67	Time lag and decrement factors for solid	47	1.104		83
1.07	homogeneous walls.	48	1.106		00
1.68	Time sequence of temperature profiles in a	40	1.100	types.	83
1.00	massive wall (in a warm climate).	49	1.107	Some hot water system diagrams.	84
1.69	Sequence of layers in an insulated concrete	40	1.108	Secondary hot water circulation (for instant	04
1.00	roof slab.	50	1.100	hot water).	85
1.70	Four basic climate types vs. the local comfort	00	1.109	Some simple domestic solar water heater	00
1.70	zones.	54	1.100	systems: (a) thermosiphon, electric booster;	
171	Locations of thermal bridges: linear heat loss	04		(b) same, with gas circulator; (c) with	
1.7	coefficients (κ).	56		close-coupled tank and (d) pumped system.	86
1.72	Principles of the Trombe–Michel wall.	58	1.110	A rotary heat exchanger for ventilation heat	00
1.73	CPZ for passive solar heating.	60	1.110	recovery.	87
1.74	An attic fan (or 'whole-house' fan).	61	1.111	A ventilation heat recovery system, assisted	07
1.75	CPZ for the mass effect and mass effect with	01	1.111	by a heat pump.	87
1.70	night ventilation.	61	1.112	Schematic diagram of a packaged air	0,
1.76	CPZ for the cooling effect of air movement.	63		conditioner unit. C: compressor; M: motor	
1.77	Principles of a direct evaporative cooler.	63		and E: evaporator.	88
1.78	CPZ for evaporative cooling.	64	1.113	A console type air conditioner unit.	88
1.79	Definition of 'aspect ratio' (a roof plan).	64	1.114	An air conditioner 'split unit'.	88
1.80	Window types by closing mechanism.	66	1.115	A typical central air-handling unit	50
1.81	Eskimo igloos (minimum surface).	67		(arrangement diagram).	89

LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

1.116	a commence to the control of the con		1.119 An indirect evaporative cooler.	91
	(a) an all-air system, (b) an induction system, (c) a dual duct system and (d) local		1.120 An open-cycle cooling system using solid sorbents.	91
	air-handling system.	89	1.121 An open-cycle system using a liquid desiccant.	91
1.117		90	3	
1.118	The effect of structural storage on air conditioning	3		
	load and required plant capacity.	90		
LIST	OFTABLES			
1.1	Derivation of composite SI units for thermal		1.4 Expressions for the swing in heat flow	50
	quantities	6	1.5 Winter design outdoor temperatures for the UK	77
1.2	Conductivity correction factors	9	1.6 Correction factors for heating requirement	78
1.3	Summary of steady state heat flow expressions	46	1.7 Types of electric heaters	79
LIST	OF WORKED EXAMPLES			
1.1	Specific heat and temperature	7	1.6 Windows: heat loss vs. solar gain	57
	Heat loss: the U-value	10	1.7 CPZ: passive solar heating	59
	A roof slab: position of insulation	50	1.8 CPZ: mass effect	61
	R-value and added insulation	55	1.9 CPZ: air movement effect	63
1.5	The effect of thermal bridges: $U_{\rm av}$	56		
LIST	OF EQUATIONS			
1.1	Conduction heat flow rate	10	1.18 Solar heat gain	41
1.2	Air-to-air resistance	10	1.19 Ventilation conductance, volume flow rate	42
1.3	Resistance of single layer	10	1.20 Same with number of air changes per hour	42
1.4	Convection heat flow rate	11	1.21 Ventilation heat flow rate	42
1.5 1.6	Solar heat gain rate Absolute humidity and vapour pressure	12 12	1.22 Building conductance1.23 Building heat loss rate	42 42
1.7	Construction of a WBT line	14	1.24 Apparent cooling effect of air flow	42
1.8	The body's thermal balance	17	1.25 Envelope conductance	43
1.9	Thermal neutrality temperature	20	1.26 Conduction heat flow rate	44
1.10	Degree-days	32	1.27 Daily mean heat flow	49
1.11	Degree-hours	32	1.28 Swing in heat flow (at a time)	49
1.12	Heating requirement	33	1.29 Periodic heat flow	49
1.13	The building's thermal balance	35	1.30 Admittance	51
1.14	Solar heat gain through a window	39	1.31 Building response factor	60
1.15	Solar heat input	40	1.32 Evaporation heat loss	63
1.16	Sol-air temperature	41	1.33 Coefficient of performance (CoP), a-b	80
1.17	Roof sol-air temperature	41		



1.1. Temperature scale and interval.

1.1 PHYSICS OF HEAT

1.1.1 Heat and temperature

Heat is a form of energy, contained in substances as molecular motion or appearing as electromagnetic radiation in space. Energy is the ability or capacity for doing work and it is measured in the same units. The derivation of this unit from the basic MKS (m, kg, s) units in the SI (Système International) is quite simple and logical, as shown in Table 1.1.

Temperature (T) is the symptom of the presence of heat in a substance. The Celsius scale is based on water: its freezing point taken as 0°C and its boiling point (at normal atmospheric pressure) as 100°C. The Kelvin scale starts with the 'absolute zero', the total absence of heat. Thus 0°C = 273.15°K. The temperature interval is the same in both scales. By convention, a point on the scale is denoted °C (degree Celsius) but the notation for a temperature difference or interval is K (Kelvin), which is a certain length of the scale, without specifying where it is on the overall scale (Fig. 1.1). Thus 40-10°C = 30 K, and similarly 65-35°C is 30 K but 15°C, as a point on the scale, is 288.15°K.

The **specific heat** concept provides the connection between heat and temperature. This is the quantity of heat required to elevate the temperature of unit mass of a substance by one degree, thus it is measured in units of **J/kg K**. Its magnitude is different for different materials and it varies between 100 and 800 J/kg K for metals, 800–1200 J/kg K for masonry materials (brick, concrete) to water, which has the highest value of all common substances: 4176 J/kg K (see data sheet D.1.1).

Table 1.1. Derivation of composite SI units for thermal quantities

Length Mass Time	m kg s	(metre) (kilogram) (second)
Velocity, speed	m/s	That is unit length movement in unit time. The everyday unit is km/h, which is $1000 \text{ m/}3600 \text{ s} = 0.278 \text{ m/s}$ or conversely: $1 \text{ m/s} = 3.6 \text{ km/h}$
Acceleration	m/s ²	That is unit velocity increase in unit time: (m/s)/s
Force	kg m/s ²	That which gives unit acceleration to unit mass named newton (N)
Work, energy	$kg m^2/s^2$	Unit work is done when unit force is acting over unit length i.e. N × m named joule (J)
Power, energy flow rate	$kg m^2/s^3$	Unit energy flow in unit time or unit work done in unit time i.e. J/s named watt (W)
Pressure, stress	kg/m s ²	Unit force acting on unit area (kg m/s²)/m² i.e. N/m² named pascal (Pa)

SI unit symbols, derived from personal names, are always capitalized.

EXAMPLE 1.1

Given 0.5 L (=0.5 kg) of water at 20°C in an electric jug with an 800W immersion heater element (efficiency: 1.0 or 100%). How long will it take to bring it to the

Requirement: $0.5 \text{ kg} \times 4176 \text{ J/kg} \text{ K} \times (100 - 20) \text{ K} = 167040 \text{ J}$ Heat input 800W, i.e. 800 J/s, thus the time required is $167040 \text{ J/800 J/s} = 208 \text{ s} \approx 3.5 \text{ min}$

Latent heat of a substance is the amount of heat (energy) absorbed by unit mass of the substance at change of state (from solid to liquid or liquid to gaseous) without any change in temperature. This is measured in J/kg, e.g. for water:

```
latent heat of fusion (ice to water) at 0°C = 335 kJ/kg
latent heat of evaporation at 100°C
                                                 = 2261 \text{kJ/kg}
                                at about 18^{\circ}C = 2400 \text{ kJ/kg}
```

At a change of state in the reverse direction the same amount of heat is released.

Thermodynamics is the science of the flow of heat and of its relationship to mechanical work.

The *first law* of thermodynamics is the principle of conservation of energy. Energy cannot be created or destroyed (except in sub-atomic processes), but only converted from one form to another. Heat and work are interconvertible. In any system the energy output must equal the energy input, unless there is a +/- storage component.

The **second law** of thermodynamics states that heat (or energy) transfer can take place spontaneously in one direction only: from a hotter to a cooler body or generally from a higher to a lower grade state (same as water flow will take place only downhill). Only with an external energy input can a machine deliver heat in the opposite direction (water will move upwards only if it is pumped). Any machine to perform work must have an energy source and a sink, i.e. energy must flow through the machine: only part of this flow can be turned into work.

Heat flow from a high to a low temperature zone can take place in three forms: conduction, convection and radiation. The magnitude of any such flow can be measured in two ways:

- 1 as heat flow rate (Q), or heat flux, i.e. the total flow in unit time through a defined area of a body or space, or within a defined system, in units of J/s, which is a watt (W) (The most persistent archaic energy flow rate or power unit is the horsepower, but in fully metric countries even car engines are now rated in terms of kW.)
- 2 as heat flux density (or density of heat flow rate), i.e. the rate of heat flow through unit area of a body or space, in W/m². The multiple kW (kilowatt = 1000 W) is often used for both quantities. (The term 'density' as used here is analogous with, for example, population density: i.e. people

8 Introduction to Architectural Science: The Basis of Sustainable Design

per unit area, or with surface density: i.e. kg mass per unit area of a wall or other building element.)

A non-standard, but accepted and very convenient unit of energy is derived from this heat flux unit: the watt-hour (Wh). This is the amount of energy delivered or expended if a flow rate (flux) of 1W is maintained for an hour. As $1h = 3600 \, \text{s}$ and

$$1W = 1 \text{ J/s}$$

 $1Wh = 3600 \text{ s} \times 1 \text{ J/s} = 3600 \text{ J}$ or 3.6 kJ (kilojoule)¹

The multiple kWh (kilowatt-hour) is often used as a practical unit of energy (e.g. in electricity accounts) 1 kWh = 3600000J or 3600 kJ or 3.6 MJ (megajoule).

1.1.2 Heat flow

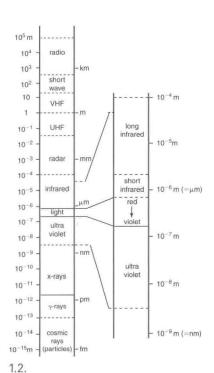
As water flows from a higher to a lower position, so heat flows from a higher temperature zone (or body) to a lower temperature one. Such heat flow can take place in three forms:

- 1 Conduction within a body or bodies in contact, by the 'spread' of molecular movement.
- 2 Convection from a solid body to a fluid (liquid or gas) or vice versa (in a broader sense it is also used to mean the transport of heat from one surface to another by a moving fluid, which, strictly speaking, is 'mass transfer'). The magnitude of convection heat flow rate depends on
 - a area of contact (A, m²) between the body and the fluid
 - ${f b}$ the difference in temperature ($\Delta {f T}$, in K) between the surface of the body and the fluid
 - **c** a convection coefficient (*h_c*) measured in W/m²K, which depends on the viscosity of the fluid and its flow velocity as well as on the physical configuration that will determine whether the flow is laminar or turbulent (see Section 1.1.2.2 below).
- 3 Radiation from a body with a warmer surface to another which is cooler. Thermal radiation is a wavelength band of electromagnetic radiation, normally taken as $700-10\,000\,\text{nm}^2\,10\,\mu\text{m})^3$

'short infrared': 700–2300 nm (2.3 μm) (see note in 1.3.1.2a) and 'long infrared': 2.3–10 μm (some suggest up to 70 μm)

The temperature of the emitting body determines the wavelength. The sun with its 6000°C surface emits short infrared (as well as visible and ultraviolet (UV)), bodies at terrestrial temperatures (<100°C) emit long infrared radiation. (Fig. 1.2 shows these bands in relation to the full electromagnetic spectrum).

In all three forms the magnitude of flux (or of flux density) depends on the temperature difference between the points (or surfaces) considered, whilst the flux (heat flow rate) in conduction also depends on the cross-sectional area of the body available.



The full electromagnetic spectrum and its solar segment.

Wave-band summary

< 280 nm	UV 'C'
280-315	UV 'B'
315-380	UV 'A'
380-780	light
Overlap with thermal:	
700-2300	short IR
2300-10000	long IR

¹For all prefixes used with SI units see Table 4.1.

 $^{^{2}1 \}text{ nm (nanometre)} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$

 $^{^{3}1 \, \}mu \text{m} \, (\text{micrometer}) = 10^{-6} \, \text{m}$