ENERGY ANALYSIS

WITH A POCKET CALCULATOR

BY

G.A.PATTERSON

2nd Edition

BASIC SCIENCE PRESS

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BASIC SCIENCE PRESS Palos Verdes Estates, California 90274 Copyright © 1978, 1981 by G. A. Patterson All Rights Reserved Library of Congress Card Number 81-65027 ISBN 0-917410-04-1 Second Edition "Success of the individual in the achievement of his immediate aims depends on his conscious insight into causal connections." — New Studies in Philosophy, F. A. Hayek

"To be is to be related." — Science and Sanity, Count Alfred Korzybski

FOREWORD

There is great current interest, prompted by accelerating costs, to devise improved energy systems. Without attempting to rationalize specific proposals, we should be guided by two viewpoints:

Is it feasible?

Is it economic?

By feasible, we mean, simply, can it be done under practical conditions? For example, solar energy for night usage needs a storage system. Solar energy for transportation needs also a storage system which must be portable. Costs of the storage system, its usable life, and its weight, can render the concept unfeasible.

By economic, we mean, is this the best way, the low cost way? In a completely free maket the low cost system will prevail. The test is often related to inherent efficiency of the process. For example, the reciprocating steam engine is less efficient than the diesel engine and has disappeared from use as a railroad or ship engine.

The economic balance can be shifted to the less efficient process by subsidy of government grants or by use of "waste" products. For example, a lumber mill may use wood chips to power a steam boiler. Wood chips are themselves valuable, however, for making composition lumber and their use for fuel may be uneconomic.

The guide posts of feasibility and economics can only be judged by current technology. There are many promising and intriguing concepts for future use. Among these are fusion power from the atom, electrohydromagnetic processes, and most exotic of all, energy released by combustion of common earth.

To a considerable degree, the tests of feasibility and economics depend upon proper application of the laws of nature to the task. The intent of this book is to identify these laws as they apply to energy and to show how they are related and must be used. "Progress in thinking is progress toward simplicity." — Siegmund George Warburg, Merchant-Banker

INTRODUCTION

What are the *sources* of energy and how do they compare on an economic basis?

What are the *forms* of energy and how are they controlled and used? The answers to these questions form the basis for this book and give us the guides we need to select the most economical fuel and to use it most efficiently.

The analysis of energy is based upon easily understood effects:

Energy flows always from hot to cold unless acted upon by external forces.

Energy flows only by Conduction - through an unmoving substance Convection - through a fluid (a liquid or gas) Boiling - a combined conduction/convection process with formation of bubbles Rediction - through space by electromegraphic space

Radiation - through space by electromagnetic waves

This book describes the various natural laws which govern these effects, tells how they are related, and gives examples and step-by-step solutions to each problem. The programmable pocket calculator is used to provide rapid solutions as well as to identify the exact data and methods to be used.

Energy analysis is basic to the design of efficient structures and machines. By learning to control the flow of energy we can add to our comfort, reduce our expenditures, and take satisfaction in having enlarged our understanding of the universe.

BASIC CONCEPTS OF ENERGY ANALYSIS

FOURIER'S PRINCIPLE: ENERGY FLOWS FROM HOT TO COLD. THE RATE OF ENERGY FLOW IS INVERSELY PROPOR-TIONAL TO THE RESISTANCE OF THE MEDIUM. Baron Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier (1768 - 1830), a French mathematician and physicist, established this principle in 1822.

MAXWELL'S EQUATIONS: ENERGY CAN BE PROPAGATED AND ABSORBED IN THE APPARENT ABSENCE OF A MEDIUM BY ELECTROMAGNETIC WAVES CHARACTERIZED BY AMPLITUDE AND FREQUENCY.

> James Clerk Maxwell (1831 - 1879), a Scottish physicist, related etheric phenomena (light, radiation energy, heat, magnetism, radio and cosmic waves) by laws which he devised in 1864.

DIMENSIONLESS NUMBERS: THE UNITS AND QUANTITIES OF A MATHEMATICAL OPERATION ARE DETERMINED BY THE UNITS AND QUANTITIES USED IN THE OPERA-TION. UNITS WHICH COMBINE TO PRODUCE NON-DIMENSIONAL NUMBERS CAN BE USED TO GENERALIZE NATURAL PHENOMENA. CONVERSELY, EQUATIONS WHICH ARE NOT NON-DIMENSIONAL ARE NON-GENERAL.

> Osborne Reynolds devised the first well known dimensionless number in 1882 to describe fluid flow phenomena. Lord Raleigh and E. Buckingham independently in 1915 devised rules for such analysis. A pioneer work was given in 1922 by P.W. Bridgman of Yale University.

THE COBURN FACTOR: THERE IS AN ANALOGY, A RELATION, IN FLUID FLOW BETWEEN THE FRICTIONAL RESISTANCE AND THE TRANSFER OF ENERGY BE-TWEEN TWO FLUIDS OF DIFFERENT TEMPERATURE.

This relation was noted by A.P. Colburn and T. H. Chilton in a chemistry work published in 1934.

BOUNDARY LAYER: A BODY IMMERSED IN A FLOWING FLUID IS BOUNDED BY A FILM OR BOUNDARY LAYER. THE VELOCITY AND THICKNESS OF THE FILM IS ZERO AT THE LEADING EDGE "STAGNATION POINT". THE THICKNESS AND VELOCITY INCREASES WITH IN-CREASING DISTANCE AFT AND OUTWARD OF THE STAGNATION POINT UNTIL IT RESUMES FREE STREAM VELOCITY.

> Ludwig Prandtl developed the boundary layer theory in 1909 during experimental investigations of airfoils at Gottingen, Germany.

CONCISE DEFINITIONS

- HEAT Energy in transit from a particular body.
- BTU BRITISH THERMAL UNIT, the energy needed to raise the temperature of a one pound body by one degree Fahrenheit at 60 deg. F.
- CONDUCTIVITY The rate at which energy will flow from a particular body expressed as BTU/sec-ft-deg F.
- R VALUE The inverse of conductivity for a particular thickness and unit area, sec-deg. F/BTU.
- LAMINAR FLOW Fluid flow in streamlines with gradual change of direction.
- TURBULENT FLOW Fluid flow in chaotic patterns with vortices.
- FREE CONVECTION Fluid flow induced by density variations caused by temperature differences.
- FORCED CONVECTION Fluid flow induced by pressure differences.
- NUCLEATE BOILING The periodic formation and escape of vapor bubbles with transfer of energy.
- FILM BOILING The formation of a vapor film between a liquid and a heated surface at very high energy transfer rates.
- BURN OUT An unstable intermediatary condition between nucleate boiling and film boiling with low energy transfer rates. At such a condition the wall may be vaporized or weakened.

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ENERGY ANALYSIS ELEMENTS

The Temperature Scale

The invention of the thermometer is credited to Galileo in 1592 and was improved in 1700 by Gabriel Fahrenheit who used mercury as the fluid and devised the scale given his name. On the Fahrenheit scale fresh water at sea level freezes at 32 degrees and boils at 212 degrees.

The Centigrade (<u>cent</u>, one hundreth), or Celsius, scale was proposed in 1742 by Anders Celsius. On this scale water freezes at 0 degrees and boils at 100 degrees.

In comparing the two scales, it can be seen that for the Fahrenheit scale the range of degrees for freezing to boiling is 180 degrees, while for the Celsius scale it is 100 degrees. This is a ratio of 1.8 degrees C for each degree F. There is also a base change of 32 degrees between the two systems.

Deg C = (deg F-32)/(1.8 deg F/deg C)

or, for example, $(100 \, ^{\circ}\text{F} - 32)/1.8 = 37.8 \, ^{\circ}\text{C}$

Deg F = deg C x (1.8 deg F/deg C) + 32

or, for example, $(37.8 \ ^{\circ}C \ x \ 1.8) + 32 = 100. \ ^{\circ}F$

The effect of temperature change on gas volume was noted in 1805 by two French chemists, Gay-Lussac and Charles. They found the volume change was proportional to the temperature plus a constant. In effect, they discovered the absolute zero reference value.

Gas volume at constant temperature is directly proportional to pressure, as found by Robert Boyle in 1700.

Rankine and Kelvin in 1900 did experimental work at very low temperatures and developed scales given their names:

> Deg R = deg F + 460. Deg K = deg C + 273.

Vapor Pressure and Boiling Point

Vapor pressure is the aggregate result of molecular motion measured at the gas interface. It increases with temperature and persists at all temperatures above absolute zero.

Vapor pressure is related to molecular weight; the smaller and lighter molecules have higher vapor pressure. Substances composed of several types of molecules, such as petroleum fuels, have a vapor pressure which can be calculated by special methods. Vapor pressure determines the boiling point, or the temperature at which a fluid boils.

> Water boils at 212 ^OF at sea level. That is to say, the vapor pressure of water at 212 ^OF is equal to 14.7 psi, sea level pressure

<u>Saturated temperature</u> is the temperature at which the substance boils at a specified pressure. For water at sea level pressure, the saturated temperature is 212 deg F.

<u>Reid Vapor Pressure</u> is a measure of the vapor pressure of the more volatile fuels. The sample is heated to 100 deg F in a container one-fourth full of liquid. The true vapor pressure is approximately 3 percent higher because of the partial evaporation of the fuel.

Surface Finish

Energy transfer is significantly affected by surface effects, such as oxide coatings, oily films, chemical scale and deposits. Surface texture and reflectivity play an important part.

An oil film can greatly increase the temperature at which boiling begins. Light oil is sometimes added to open water reservoirs to reduce the loss by evaporation.

Boiling depends on the existance of gas or wapor bubbles found in crewices at the solid-liquid interface. Small surface scratches are nearly always present and can increase the rate of boiling. Very smooth, deaerated surfaces delay the onset of boiling. It is in fact possible to exert negative pressure of several thousand psi without boiling under laboratory conditions.

These factors contribute to the difficulty of precise definition of heat transfer phenomena. Conditions are idealized and simplified for laboratory experiment in order to improve the repeatibility of results. For example, gases may be removed from the liquids, surfaces may be chemically cleaned and ground smooth and polished. Such results may not be the same as for field tests.

The States of Matter

Matter is composed of molecules which can be arranged rigidly in the case of the <u>solid</u>, semirigidly for the <u>liquid</u>, and freely for the <u>gas</u>. Solids have a specific crystalline arrangement peculiar to the type of substance. There are a certain number of molecules to each crystal. Various crystalline arrangements are possible for the same substance. At higher pressures the crystals condense to smaller volume. At the other extreme, gases can become very diffuse at low pressures, becoming ionized to enter a plasma state with new electrical values.

The <u>triple point</u> identifies the melting/freezing point. At this temperature the substance can exist as a liquid, solid, or gas. Below the triple point the substance can sublime directly from a solid to a gas. Above the triple point, the substance can change from a liquid to a gas or the opposite, and a mixture of liquid and gas can be present. A mixture of gas and liquid is defined by <u>quality</u>, where zero quality is pure liquid and 100 percent is pure gas. The change of state is determined by the environment pressure and the addition or subtraction of energy.

The <u>critical point</u> identifies the highest temperature at which the liquid state can exist. There is a corresponding minimum pressure known as the <u>critical pressure</u>. The two are known as the critical points.

Change of state can be gradual, as in the warming of water, or precipitious, as in the formation of ice or steam. Heat transfer experiments have determined the quantity of energy needed to change the temperature of a pound of a substance, or to melt, freeze or vaporize it. Data for various substances are given in Appendix II.

Phase Change

Melting and freezing are reverse processes which occur at the freezing point with the addition or subtraction of the heat of fusion.

Freezing of a liquid proceeds by excluding the impurities, that is, the pure substance freezes first, excluding in the process the dissolved materials. This effect is of great use for purification processes, such as the preparation of fresh water from sea water.

Similarly, melting of pure and impure substances proceeds at different rates. The melting of an ice cube is an example. During freezing, the outer layer of water is cooled first and freezes the purest water. Inner layers of water freeze last and contain the most dissolved substances. This can be observed by the clarity of outer ice and the opaquity of inner ice. Old ice tends to be entirely opaque because of the condensation and absorption of gases from the environment.

The preferential freezing of the pure substance is used in the metallurgical process of <u>zone melting</u>. A bar of the substance is heated along its length by induction heating in a progressive fashion. Impurities are driven to the far end of the bar. The impurities are then removed by cutting off the end of the bar.

Evaporation and condensation are reverse processes of the change from the gas to the liquid state. The change proceeds at constant temperature with energy added for evaporation and sub-tracted for condensation.

Evaporation proceeds from the liquid-gas interface. It is encouraged by increasing the area of the liquid-gas interface, either by greater surface area or by agitation of the liquid. Evaporation of the liquid proceeds until the partial pressure of the evaporated gas equals the partial pressure of the liquid (its vapor pressure) or until the liquid is exhausted.

The Sources of Energy

Energy is produced by changes in the composition or arrangement of matter.

Solar energy is the result of thermonuclear processes. The very great mass of the sun produces high pressures at its center, crushing together the atoms of which all matter is composed. This rearrangement causes high temperatures and the energy evolved is transmitted to us by electromagnetic waves, or radiation, a portion of which we percieve as light.

Thermal energy can be generated by friction, compression, radiation and chemical processes. The latter include room temperature oxidation in which the heat produced may be unnoticed. If the oxidation occurs sufficiently rapidly and in a concentrated form, then combustion results. See <u>Engine Thermodynamics</u>, Ref. 14.

Energy analysis is concerned primarily with the conservation of energy or with its dissipation. Conservation would apply to the insulation of a machine or structure to preserve the required temperature with the least expenditure of fuel. Dissipation of energy would apply to maintaining a desired temperature under a condition in which waste heat was produced, as for example, use of a radiator to avoid excessive cylinder and bearing temperatures. Accordingly, energy analysis is concerned primarily with insulators and radiators.

Heating Value

The unit of energy is the British Thermal Unit (BTU). It is defined as the energy needed to change the temperature of one pound of water by one degree Fahrenheit.

An alternate unit of energy is the Gram-Calorie. It is the energy needed to change the temperature of one gram of water by one degree Celsius. Also in use is the Kilogram-Calorie. If no units are given, the Calorie refers to the gram-calorie.

There are 454 grams per pound and 1.8 degrees F per degree C. The BTU is equal to 252 Gram-Calories.

There is an equivalence between thermal processes and mechanical processes, such as friction and gas compression as compared to combustion processes. This was investigated by Benjamin Thompson (Count Rumford) during the American Revolution and later by James Joule in 1845. The equivalence, called the Joule, is 778.16 foot-pounds/BTU.

Heating value is found by burning the fuel in a container submerged in water and insulated, with a measurement made of the temperature rise. Water is formed in this process by the products of combustion. The heating value is known as the "higher heating value" if the vapor is not condensed, and as the "lower heating value" if the water is condensed.

Heating value of a fuel can be estimated if the hydrogen/ carbon ratio of the substance is known, since these are usually the principal constituents of common fuels. Approximate values are 53,000 BTU/lb for hydrogen, and 14,000 BTU/lb for carbon.

Internal Energy

Energy analysis is concerned with the change of internal energy of a substance for a phase change from gas to liquid or liquid to solid. These changes occur at constant temperature. The change in internal energy is the amount needed to rearrange the molecules into the new form of greater or lesser mobility. It is a precipitious change as compared to the gradual process of warming or cooling a solid, liquid or gas. There is a quantum of energy, measured by units of BTU/lb, to produce the phase change for a particular substance. Phase change is described by various common names:

Less_Mobility	Phase Change	More Mobility
	Solid-Vapor	Heat of Sublimation
Heat of Fusion	Solid-Iiquid	Heat of Melting
Heat of Condensation	Liquid-Gas	Latent Heat, Heat
		of Evaporation

The temperature at which phase change occurs is controlled by the pressure. Above the critical temperature of the substance no phase change occurs and the substance is a gas.

At a temperature not equal to the phase change temperature the energy which is added or subtracted from the substance causes a change in the temperature of the substance. The extent of the change in temperature is determined by the amount of energy and the specific heat of the substance, see below.

Specific Heat

A change in temperature can occur at constant pressure or at constant volume. The energy needed to produce this change in temperature is known as specific heat, measured in BTU/lb-^oF. It has the notation c_n for constant pressure and c_v for constant volume. The ratio of these specific heats is given the notation k, equal to c_p/c_v .

Specific heat varies slightly with temperature and is nearly constant with pressure. An exception is near the critical point at which the specific heat varies widly.

Thermal Conductivity

Thermal conductivity is a measure of the ability of a body to conduct heat within itself from a higher temperature source to a lower temperature sink. The body may be of a uniform substance or a composite of several materials. It may be a uniform mixtures or made of layers of fifferent substances. It may be solid or there may be void spaces.

The thermal conductivity factor, k, is determined by test and is expressed in units of

 $BTU-ft/sec-ft^2-deg F = BTU/sec-ft-deg F$

Atmospheric Properties and Ram Effects

Atmospheric pressure is greatest at sea level and decreases exponentially with altitude. Atmospheric temperature similarly decreases with altitude but remains constant for a considerable height above 35,000 feet up to 80,000 feet. For a particular altitude there is wide variation in specific temperature caused by local weather conditions. Standards have been established for general usage. The Standard Day has a sea level temperature of 59 deg F, the Cold Day -65 deg F, and the Hot Day 100 deg F. The actual atmosphere can contain "temperature inversion layers" in which the temperature increases, rather than decreases, with altitude.

A gas becomes heated when compressed and cooled when it is expanded. An object passing through the air compresses the air ahead of it causing an increase in temperature and pressure. These are known as "ram effects".

ENERGY ANALYSIS METHODOLOGY

The Modes of Energy Transfer

It is the first law of scientific reasoning that nature can not act at a distance; there must be a continuity of the process throughout its action.

This continuity is most apparent in the case of energy transfer by <u>conduction</u>. As Fourier showed in 1822, there is an exponential dimunition of temperature along a solid conductor from the source of energy to the energy sink.

Energy transfer by <u>convection</u> deals with a fluid (gas or liquid) medium rather than a solid one. The energy imparted to the fluid reduces its density causing it to move within itself. This creates currents which modify the energy transfer process. If these currents are natural (produced only by gravity) the process is called <u>natural convection</u>. If the currents are caused by external forces (such as a pump) the process is called <u>forced</u> convection.

Energy transfer by boiling is commonly used without appreciation of the complexity of the process involved. The intensity of boiling is controlled by the temperature difference of the boiling fluid and the fluid container at the location where the heat is applied. At low temperature differences, there is convective heat transfer. At somewhat higher temperature differences, the onset of <u>nucleate boiling</u>, with small bubbles, occurs. At increasing temperature differences an abrupt transition to film boiling. Boiling bubbles are no longer formed but the entire heating surface becomes an undulating wave of gas film.

Energy transfer by <u>radiation</u> does, to our incomplete perception and understanding, appear to be action at a distance. It does, however, follow the immutable laws of nature discovered by James Clerk Maxwell in 1864. (His work led to the discovery of radio waves.) Radiation transfers energy through a vacuum by what is, in fact, the interchange of energy and matter. The study of radiation has shown us the cosmic scope of energy relations: the exponentially increasing energy of specific vibrations and wave lengths which we recognize as heat, light, radio waves and cosmic waves.

Heat Exchangers

Heat exchangers facilitate the flow of energy. In specific application they are known as coolers or heaters. By location, we may hear of an intercooler, as between two compressors.

The heat exchanger allows the transfer of energy between a hot fluid and a cold fluid. Either or both fluids can be liquid or gas. Important design parameters are cost, size, weight, flow rates, fluid pressure drop and temperature differences.

Insulation

Insulation controls the flow of energy. It increases the time to reach an equilibrium temperature. Insulation achieves its purpose by use of materials and methods of construction which reduce the rate of energy flow. Insulation used between two bodies at nearly room temperature is concerned principally with conduction and convection.

Conduction insulation is obtained by use of materials with low conductivity, as for example, wood in place of steel, and by reducing the area of conduction. A hollow wood door has less area of contact between the two sides and provides better insulation. Conduction can be reduced if a solid material is composed of layers which are slightly separated. Separation can consist merely of oxidation or powder.

Conduction insulation for high temperatures includes graphite and bricks made of fire clay or alumina. Lower temperatures use asbestos.

Space reentry vehicles are subject to very high heat loads at the leading edge by compression of the air. Evaporating or ablative materials may be used for these applications.

Convection insulation is obtained by reducing the mobility of the environmental fluid, usually air. Principal convective insulators are glass wool, fiberboard and foamed polyurethane. It is essential that void spaces be present; if compressed too tightly the materials become more conductive.

At high vacuum conditions the principal mode of energy transfer is by radiation. Sir James Dewar, a Scottish chemist, invented the storage bottle used to store low temperature liquidified gases such as helium and hydrogen. The dewar, as it is called, consists of two glass or metal bottles between which is drawn a high vacuum. (The familiar Thermos bottle.) Multiple radiation surfaces are sometimes used to further reduce energy transfer.

Low temperature insulation is known as cryogenic insulation from the Greek kyros, icy cold. Foamed materials are very useful for such applications, especially if the temperatures are such that the gasses in the bubbles become condensed to form a vacuum. Polyurethane foam is formed by mixing liquids to produce a gas and foaming bubbles. The mixture dries to leave foam skeletons encapsulating the gas. The size and density of the foam can be controlled by regulating the pressure during the formation.

Cryogenic insulation is subject to "cryopumping" in which the surrounding atmosphere and its contaminants, especially water, can be condensed. This can build up deposits between the insulation and the insulated surface causing the insulation to spall off and the conductivity to increase. Moisture seals are required to prevent this occurance.

The Energy Balance

The energy of a body or system is evidenced by

- 1. Its temperature
- 2. Its molecular arrangement (liquid, solid or gas)
- 3. Its chemical arrangement (oxidized or ionized)
- 4. Its physical state (compressed or distended)

Two bodies brought into contact tend to reach a level of equal energy as limited by time and the degree of contact. Basic energy transfer study is concerned primarily with steady-state relations. That is to say, ones for which the rate of energy transfer is constant. The true processes can be approximated by a series of steady state solutions at progressively converging temperatures and for suitable time intervals.

Energy cannot be created of destroyed (omitting nuclear processes) but can become unavailable, as when useful energy is lost as useless friction. Heat can be transmitted by radiation which includes light and radio waves.

Energy added to a body without changing its structure or temperature must be transferred to a third body. This is the principle of entropy, the conversion of energy to work, as an example. The empty kettle can no longer transfer energy to the water and must add energy to the kettle itself. The empty kettle burns up. The energy balance can be expressed by the equation:

Heat loss = Heat Gain

Analysis Processes

Energy analysis processes are a synthesis of experiment and reasoning. The investigator observes the process of boiling:

"Aha! Boiling deals with the formation of bubbles!"

He sets up a formula relating the geometry and the materials to the environment. He measures the temperature difference and the heat flux to obtain a set of data points. He now compares the results of his test with the prediction of his equation to test its validity, range of acceptability, and its suitability for other fluids and materials. Usually, he will add an experimental constant to account for unknown effects.

All energy analysis calculations are necessarily incomplete and approximate. There are many methods which can be employed to obtain a satisfactory answer to a particular problem.

Energy analysis is facilitated by ignoring effects known to be minor from preliminary calculations, experience or intuition. For example, radiation between two bodies at room temperature can be ignored in most practical cases. Energy analysis, as well as most analysis, is best approached by determining the proper order of magnitude of the answer. For instance, is the true rate of energy transfer close to 1 BTU/second, 10 BTU/second, or 1000 BTU/second? Once the problem has been approximated to this extent it can either be refined to the necessary accuracy or disregarded as trivial. The uncertainty of the data should be considered in regard to the validity of the answer.

The key to successful energy analysis is the simplification of the problem and the isolation of the effect to be studied from the rest of the universe. In the Roman maxim: Divide and Conquer. Narrow the scope of the investigation to obtain a first order approximation. Avoid complex solutions. The simplest answer is the most to be trusted.

Dimensionless Numbers

Energy analysis makes extensive use of dimensionless numbers. These are simply combinations of measurements which form a ratio. For example, we might speak of the fineness of a needle, F, measured by the length, L, and the width, W. Then, F= L/W. Measuring both length and width in the same units, as inches or feet, we see that the units cancel so that the fineness ratio, F, is a <u>pure</u> number. That is, it has no units.

One of the earliest and most useful dimensionless numbers was devised by Osborne Reynolds in 1882 for the study of fluids. The Reynolds Number relates length, velocity, density and viscosity. He found that his criterion would identify whether the flow would be laminar (streamlines) or turbulent. The transition for flow in a tube, based on the tube diameter, occurs at a RN of 3,000. The transition for flow past an aircraft wing, based on the chord of the wing, occurs at a RN of 500,000.

Buckingham and Raleigh in 1915 independently derived rules for formulating dimensionless numbers. These laws form the basis for theoretical analysis and provide insight into natural processes. For example, consider the relation between mass and energy.

To relate these, we can divide Energy by Mass: Number = (ft-lb)/(lb-sec²/ft) =(ft/sec)²

We recognize this as the Einstein Equation, $E = Mc^2$ where c represents the speed of light.

Equations in which the product of the input units do not match the output units are dimensionsally invalid. Equations should be dimensionally analyzed before use.

The Prandtl Number was devised by Ludwig Prandtl while investigating aerodynamics in Gottingen, Germany in 1905. He also developed the concept of the boundary layer surrounded by the ideal gas.

The Nusselt Number was devised by W. Nusselt, Germany, 1909. It is the basis for correlations of convective energy flow.

The Grashof Number is used in convective energy flow where needed for gravity and bouyancy effects. The number can be expressed in terms of the mass density of the liquid and vapor.

REYNOLDS NUMBER

 $Rn = DV \rho/\mu$ where D = Diameter of tube, feet V = Velocity of fluid, ft/se /* = Viscosity, lb-sec/ft²

PRANDTL NUMBER

 $Pr = g c_n \mu/k$ where g = Gravity constant, 32.2 ft/sec² c_= Specific heat at constant pressure, BTU/lb-deg F μ = Viscosity. lb-sec/ft² k = Thermal Conductivity, BTU/sec-ft-deg F

NUSSELT NUMBER

Nu = h L/k

where k is thermal conductivity as above and

L = Length, ft

h = Heat transfer coefficient, BTU/sec-ft²-deg F

GRASHOF NUMBER

 $Gr = g/3 (dT) L^3 \rho^2 / \mu^2$ where β = Coefficient of volume expansion, ft³/ft³-deg F dT = Temperature difference, deg F 11

ENERGY ANALYSIS PROCESSES AND EXAMPLES

CONDUCTION

Conduction is the direct transfer of energy from one body to another through a conducting medium. The rate of conduction was experimentally observed by Joseph Fourier in 1822. His equation both defines the experimental value of conductivity for the material and predicts the rate of energy conduction for specific conditions.

Conduction is limited to solid bodies and to liquids at low heat flux rates. This is because heat addition to a gas or a liquid causes convective currents.

Conduction frequently occurs across a wall bounded by a liquid or gas subject to convection. The heat transfer rates will depend upon the film coefficients at the wall surfaces as well as the conduction.

CONDUCTION FORMULAE

HEAT FLUX

Q = U A dT

where Q = Heat flux, BTU/sec U = Overall transfer coefficient, BTU/sec-ft²-deg F A = Heat transfer area, ft² dT = Temperature difference, deg F

HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENT

U = k/dL

where k = Thermal conductivity, BTU/sec-ft-deg F dL = Length of heat transfer through body, ft

FOURIER EQUATION

Q = -k A (dT/dL)

HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENT IN COMPOSITE MATERIALS

 $1/U = dL_1/k_1 + dL_2/k_2 + dL_3/k_3 + \cdots$

ADJUSTMENT FOR UNEQUAL AREAS OF COMPOSITES

 $U_x = (fraction of area occupied) \times (k_x/dL_x)$

PROCEDURE FOR CONDUCTION

See APPENDIX I. Program 1. Wall Component Conduction, Single Element Program 2. Wall Average Conduction, Multiple Element

1. Find heat transfer coefficient for each component, U_x

$$U_x = (A_x/A) \times (k_x/dL_x)$$

2. Find composite heat transfer coefficient, U

$$1/U = 1/U_1 + 1/U_2 + 1/U_3 + \cdots$$

U = inverse of (1/U)

3. Find heat transfer rate, Q

Q = U A dT

Example 1. CONDUCTION, SANDWICH STRUCTURE

DATA: Material	Conductivity, k BTU/sec_ft-deg F	Length, dL	Area A
Asbestos	2.0×10^{-5}	0.025	1.0
Steel	7.2 x 10^{-3}	0.13	0.04
Aluminum	3.24×10^{-2}	0.02	1.0



Example 1. ILLUSTRATION OF SANDWICH STRUCTURE

PROCEDURE: See Program 1. COMPONENT CONDUCTION, SINGLE ELEMENT Program 2. COMPONENT CONDUCTION, MULTIPLE ELEMENT

$$U_{1} = (1/1) \times (2.0 \times 10^{-5})/(0.025)$$

= 8.0 x 10⁻¹⁴ BFU/sec-ft²-deg F
$$U_{2} = (0.04/1) \times (7.2 \times 10^{-3})/(0.13)$$

= 2.2 x 10⁻³ BFU/sec-ft²-deg F
$$U_{3} = (1/1) \times (3.24 \times 10^{-2})/(0.02)$$

= 1.62 BTU/sec-ft²-deg F
 $1/U = 1/(8.0 \times 10^{-4}) + 1/(2.2 \times 10^{-3} + 1/1.62)$
= 1250. + 455. + 0.62
$$U = 5.86 \times 10^{-4} \text{ BTU/sec-ft^2-deg F}$$

TABULATED RESULTS:

Tb	_		Q
0.0 200. 400. 600. 800.	deg	F	0.0 BTU/sec 0.12 0.23 0.35 0.47



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CONVECTION

Convection heat transfer is a modified conduction process with fluid in motion. Free convection is gravity induced flow; forced convection is fluid motion induced by forces other than gravity. Gravity force acts on the fluid to make it move as a result of the lowered density of the heated portion.

Convection can result in either laminar or turbulent flow. Convective currents can be observed in still air by the smoke rising from a cigarette. The smoke rises initially undisturbed as a laminar jet; at some inches above the tip the smoke becomes turbulent and the smoke particles diffuse. Convective currents can also be observed by diffraction of light in clear water heated from below.

The rate of energy transfer in convective films can be correlated by use of the Grashof Number, Gr, and the Prandtl Number, Pr. The transition from laminar to turbulent flow occurs at a value of the product of the Grashof Number and the Prandtl Number equal to 1 x 10^9 .

FREE CONVECTION FORMULAE

PRANDIL NUMBER

GRASHOF CONSTANTS

$$C_{l_{4}} = g\beta \rho^{2}/\mu^{2}$$
where β = Coefficient of thermal expansion,
ft³/(ft³-deg R)
 ρ = Mass density, (lb/ft³)/(32.2 ft/sec²)
 $C_{3} = C_{4} L^{3}$
where L= Length of vertical plate, ft

GRASHOF NUMBER

TEST FOR TURBULENCE

If Gr Pr is more than $1 \ge 10^9$ flow is turbulent If Gr Pr is less than $1 \ge 10^9$ flow is laminar

LAMINAR FLOW, FREE CONVECTION, VERTICAL FLAT PLATE

- 1. Test for Equation Validity Gr Pr must exceed 1 x 10^{4}
- 2. Find average Nusselt Number, Nu Nu = 0.508 $Pr^{0.5} Gr^{0.25} / (0.952 + Pr)^{0.25}$
- 3. Find heat transfer coefficient, h

h = Nu/(L/k)

4. Find heat flux, Q/A, BTU/sec-ft²

Q/A = h dT

TURBULENT FLOW, FREE CONVECTION, VERTICAL FLAT PLATE

1. Find heat transfer coefficient, h h = 0.23 k $C_{\mu}^{0.33} P_r^{0.33} dT^{0.33}$ 2. Find heat flux, Q/A, BTU/sec-ft²

Example 2. FREE CONVECTION, VERTICAL FLAT PLATE LAMINAR

L = 1.0 ft dT = 5.0 deg F k = 9.44 x 10⁻⁵ BTU/sec-ft-deg F β = 0.08 x 10⁻³ (1/deg R) γ = 62.4 /32.2 = 1.94 slugs/ft³ β = 2.34 x 10⁻⁵ lb-sec/ft² c_p = 1.0 BTU/lb-deg F CALCULATION RESULTS: See Program 3. Free Convection, Vertical, Laminar Pr = 32.2 x 1.0 x (2.34 x 10⁻⁵)/(9.44 x 10⁻⁵) = 7.98 C₄ = 32.2 x (0.08 x 10⁻³) x (1.94)²/(2.34 x 10⁻⁵)² = 1.77 x 10⁷ C₃ = (1.77 x 10⁷) x (1.0)³ = 1.77 x 10⁷

DATA:



$$C_{4} = 32.2 \times (0.08 \times 10^{-7}) \times (1.94) / (2.34 \times 10^{-7})$$

$$= 1.77 \times 10^{7}$$

$$C_{3} = (1.77 \times 10^{7}) \times (1.0)^{3} = 1.77 \times 10^{7}$$

$$Gr = (1.77 \times 10^{7}) \times (5.0) = 8.85 \times 10^{7}$$

$$Gr Pr = (8.85 \times 10^{7}) \times 7.98 = 7.06 \times 10^{8}$$

$$Nu = 0.508 (7.98)^{1/2} (8.85 \times 10^{7})^{1/4} / (0.952 + 7.98)^{1/4}$$

$$= 80.29$$

$$h = 80.29 \times (9.44 \times 10^{-5}) / 1.0$$

$$= 0.0076 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^{2} - \text{deg F}$$

$$Q/A = 0.0076 \times 5.0 = 0.0379 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^{2}$$

TABULATED RESULTS: Example 2 Free Convection, Vertical Flat Plate,

dT deg F	Laminar Q/A <u>BTU/sec_ft²_</u>	Gr Pr
8.		1.12×10^9
7.	0.0577	9.79 x 10^8
6.	0.0476	8 . 39 x 10 ⁸
5.	0.0379	7.08 x 10 ⁸
4.	0.0287	
3.	0.0200	
2.	0.0121	
1.	0.0051	



Example 3. FREE CONVECTION, VERTICAL FLAT PLATE, TURBULENT DATA: Length of plate, L = 4.0 ft Temperature of air, T_{air} = 80. deg F Temperature of plate, T_{plate} = 0. deg F Air film properties: $\mu = 3.45 \times 10^{-7} \text{ lb-sec/ft}^2$ Pr = 0.72 $c_{p} = 0.239 \text{ BTU/lb-deg F}$ $k = 3.77 \times 10^{-6} BTU/sec-ft-deg F$ /3 = 1/(460 + avg. temp.) $= 1/500. = 2.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ deg F}^{-1}$ $\rho = P/(gRT)$ = $(14.7 \times 144)/(32.2 \times 53.3 \times 500) = 0.0025 \text{ slugs/ft}^3$ CAICULATION RESULTS: See Program 4. Free Convection, Vertical $C_{1} = 32.2 \text{ x} (2.0 \text{ x} 10^{-3}) \text{ x} 0.0025)^2 / (3.45 \text{ x} 10^{-7})^2$ $= 3.38 \times 10^6$ $C_{2} = (3.38 \times 10^{6}) \times (4.0)^{3} = 2.16 \times 10^{8}$ $Gr = (2.16 \times 10^8) \times (80 - 0) = 1.73 \times 10^{10}$ Gr Pr = $(1.73 \times 10^{10}) \times 0.72 = 1.24 \times 10^{10}$ (turbulent flow; (exceeds transition value of 1 x 10⁹) h = 0.23 k $(C_{j_1} dT)^{0.33} Pr^{0.33}$ = 0.23 x (3.77 x 10^{-6}) x (3.38 x 10^{6})^{0.33} $x (80-0)^{0.33} x 0.72^{0.33}$ = μ .72 x 10^{- μ} BTU/sec-ft²-deg F $Q/A = (4.72 \times 10^{-4}) \times (80-0) = 0.0378 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2$

TABULATED RESULTS:

(Example 3 Free Convection, Vertical Flat Plate, Turbulent)



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FORCED CONVECTION IN ROUND TUBES

Forced convection in round tubes can be separated into laminar and turbulent cases. For the laminar case at a transition Reynolds Number of 3000, based on the tube diameter, the Nusselt Number is equal to 4.36 for round tubes with uniform heat flux. For the turbulent case, Rn above 3000, the Nusselt Number is a function of the Reynolds and Prandtl Numbers, see Ref. 2.

The complete solution of heat transfer in tubes must include coefficients for the wall itself and for exterior film coefficients.

Fluid pressure drop is an important consideration in the design of heat transfer equipment. Pressure drop can be calculated by the methods of Ref. 3, <u>Basic Fluid System Analysis</u>. The fluid properties which cause pressure drop, that is, friction losses, likewise cause heat transfer. There is an analogy between friction and heat transfer, known as the "j factor", and has been investigated by Colburn, Ref. 4. The j factor is approximately one-eight the f factor used in computing friction loss.

CORRELATION OF FORCED CONVECTION IN ROUND TUBES

LAMINAR FLOW, Rn less than 3000.

Nu = 4.36 = h D/k f = 64/Rn

where h = Heat transfer coefficient, BTU/sec-ft²-deg F

D = Tube flow diameter, ft

k = Thermal conductivity, BTU/sec-ft-deg F

TURBULENT FLOW, Rn more than 3000.

Nu = 0.023 $\text{Rn}^{0.8} \text{Pr}^{0.4}$ f = 0.184 $\text{Rn}^{-0.20}$ where Nu = h D/k Pr = g c_p //K Rn = D V ///

FORCED CONVECTION, FLAT PLATE, LAMINAR

This condition applies for a Reynolds Number of less than 500,000 and a Prandtl Number of greater than 0.5. It is the boundary layer value that is determinant rather than the free stream. The condition is encountered even at very high speed flight since the leading edge has a "stagnation point" of zero velocity. The velocity in the boundary layer increases with the distance downstream until it reaches a turbulent value and is eventually reaches the free stream condition. Experimental data show that the heat flux can be correlated in terms of the Prandtl Number and the Reynolds Number, see Ref. 1.

CORRELATION OF FORCED CONVECTION, FLAT PLATE, LAMINAR Nu = 0.664 $Pr^{1/3} Rn^{1/2}$ where Nu = Nusselt Number, h (L/k) Pr = Prandtl Number, g c_p ρ/k

Rn = Reynolds Number, L V ρ/μ

PROCEDURE FOR PROBLEM SOLUTION

1. Test for Equation Validity

1a. Reynolds Number must be less than 500,000.

1b. Prandtl Number must be more than 0.50

2. Find Nusselt Number by use of Rn and Pr as above.

3. Find heat transfer coefficient, h

h = Nu/(L/k)

4. Find heat flux, Q/A

Q/A = h dT



PRESSURE DROP IN SMOOTH, ROUND TUBES

$$dP = (f (L/D) + K))x (1/2) \rho V^{2}$$
where dP = Pressure drop, lb/ft^{2}

L = Length of pipe, ft

D = Diameter (inside) of pipe, ft

K = Fitting loss factors

 ρ = Mass density, $(lb/ft^{3})/(32.2 \text{ ft/sec}^{2})$

V = Velocity of fluid, ft/sec

COLBURN j FACTOR

j = St Pr^{2/3}

St = Stanton Number, = Nu/(Rn Pr) = h/(c_p G)

where G = Specific flow rate, $(lb/sec)/ft^{2}$

also, by experiment it is found that, approximately

j = 0.023 Rn^{-0.20}

therefore by comparison to the friction factor

j = f x (0.023/0.184)

j = f/8
PROCEDURE FOR FORCED CONVECTION IN ROUND TUBES
See
APPENDIX I. Program 6. Forced Convection, Round Tubes,
Laminar and Turbulent
1. Find Reynolds Number, Rn
Rn = D
$$\nabla \rho' \rho'$$

= dW/(25.25 D μ)
where dW = Flow rate, lb/sec
2. Test for laminar/turbulent flow
If Rn less than 3000, flow is laminar, go to Step 3.
If Rn more than 3000, flow is turbulent, go to Step 4.
3. Find heat transfer coefficient, h, laminar flow
Nu = μ .36 = h D/k f = 6 μ /Rn
h = μ .36 x (k/D)
(Go to Step 5)
4. Find heat transfer coefficient, h, turbulent flow
Pr = g c_p ρ'/k f = 0.184 Rn^{-0.20}
Nu = 0.023 Rn^{0.023} Pr^{0.4}
h = Nu x (k/D)
5. Find pressure drop
G = dW/(0.7854 D²)
V = G/(g \rho)
q = (1/2) ρ ∇^2
where q = dynamic pressure, lb/ft²
dP = (f (L/D) + K) q
6. Find Colburn j factor
St = $h/(c_p G)$
j = St Pr^{2/3} 25

EXAMPLE 5. FORCED CONVECTION IN ROUND TUBES DATA: $D = 0.025 \mu$ ft

$$\begin{array}{l} \mu = 0.00008 \ \text{lb-sec/ft}^2 \\ k = 3.6 \ x \ 10^{-5} \ \text{BTU/sec-ft-deg F} \\ c_p = 0.855 \ \text{BTU/lb-deg F} \\ dW = 0.30 \ \text{lb/sec} \\ g_{\ell} = 48.0 \ \text{lb/ft}^3 \\ L = 100. \ \text{ft} \end{array}$$

K = 3.0 (fitting loss factor)

CALCALATION: See Program 6. FORCED CONVECTION, ROUND TUBES ENERGY TRANSFER

Pr = $32.2 \ge 0.855 \ge (0.00008)/(3.6 \ge 10^{-5}) = 61.18$ Rn $0.30/(25.25 \ge 0.25! \ge 0.00008) = 5847.$ Flow is turbulent Nu = $0.023 \ge (5847)^{0.8} \ge (61.18)^{0.4}$ = 123. h = 123. $\ge (3.6 \ge 10^{-5})/0.0254$ = $0.174 \ge 0.174 \le 0.0254^{-2} = 0.174 \le 0.0254 \le 0.00254^{-2}$ G = $0.30/(0.7854 \ge (0.0254)^{-2})$ = $592.1 \ge 0.0254 \le 0$ = $12.33 \le 0.0254 \le 0.0000$ f = $0.184 \ge (5847)^{-0.20}$ = 0.0325

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$$q = (1/2) \times (48.0/32.2) \times (12.33)^{2}$$

$$= 113.31 \text{ lb/ft}^{2}$$

$$dP = (0.0325 \times (100./0.0254) + 3.0) \times 113.31$$

$$= 14509. \text{ lb/ft}^{2} \text{ or } 100. \text{ lb/in}^{2}$$
COLBURN j FACTOR
$$St = 0.174/(0.855 \times 592.)$$

$$= 0.000343$$

$$j = (0.000343) \times (61.18)^{2/3}$$

$$= 0.00532$$

TABULATED RESULTS

dW	h	dP
lb/sec	<u>BTU/sec-ft²-degF</u>	psi
0.30 1.0 2.0 4.0	0.174 0.457 0.795 1.385	100.



FORCED CONVECTION, FLAT PLATE, HIGH VELOCITY

This condition applies especially to aerodynamic heating of aircraft and missiles during supersonic flight at high altitude. For that purpose equations are given below for computing the ambient temperature and pressure at altitude.

Energy transfer in a high velocity flow must consider the kinetic energy of the fluid. This is done by computing the theoretical "stagnation temperature" that would result by bringing the fluid slowly and frictionlessly to rest, then reducing the temperature to account for losses.

The temperature which would result at the plate with no transfer of energy by the plate is known as the "adiabatic temperature" and is computed as above but with the addition of a recovery factor, r.

The temperature of the fluid at the boundary layer should be used to evaluate the fluid properties. This requires a knowledge of the actual wall temperature which is usually unknown. It may, therefore, be necessary to estimate the wall temperature, compute the temperature, and repeat the calculation with improved fluid values. The equation for computing boundary layer temperature is given by Ref. 5.

FORMULAE FOR FORCED CONVECTION, FLAT PLATE, HIGH VELOCITY

AMBIENT TEMPERATURE AND PRESSURE

 $T_0 = 519.69 e^{-0.007888 H}$ $P_0 = 2116. e^{-0.0414 H}$

where T_0 = Temperature, deg R

 $P_0 = Pressure, lb/ft^2$

H = Altitude, 1000. ft

RAM TEMPERATURE AND RAM PRESSURE

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{T}_{s} &= \mathbf{T}_{0} \left(1 + \left((\mathbf{1} - 1)/2\right) \, \mathrm{Mn}^{2}\right) & \text{where} \quad \mathbf{1} = c_{p}/c_{v} \\ \mathbf{P}_{s} &= \mathbf{P}_{0} \left(1 + \left((\mathbf{1} - 1)/2\right) \, \mathrm{Mn}^{2}\right)^{\mathbf{7}/(\mathbf{1} - 1)} &= 1.4 \text{ for air} \\ \text{where } \mathbf{T}_{s} &= \text{Stagnation temperature, deg R} \\ \mathbf{P}_{s} &= \text{Stagnation pressure, } 1b/ft^{2} \\ \text{Mn = Mach Number = } \mathbf{V}/\mathbf{V}_{c} \\ \text{where } \mathbf{V}_{c} &= \text{Velocity of sound in fluid, ft/sec} \\ &= \left(\mathbf{7} \text{ g R T}_{0}\right)^{1/2} \\ \text{R} &= \text{Gas constant,}(53.3 \text{ for air}) \\ &= 28 \end{split}$$

RECOVERY FACTOR, r

LAMINAR BOUNDARY, Rn less than 500,000, Pr of 0.5 to 5.0

 $r = Pr^{1/2}$ (where $Pr = g c_p \mu/k$; $Rn = dV \rho/\mu$) TURBULENT BOUNDARY, Rn more than 500,000, Pr of 0.5 to 2.0

 $r = Pr^{1/3}$

ADIABATIC WALL TEMPERATURE

Taw = $T_0 (1 + r((\gamma - 1)/2 Mn^2))$

where Taw = Adiabatic wall temperature, deg R

BOUNDARY LAYER TEMPERATURE

 $T_{b1} = T_{fs} + 0.50 (T_{wall} - T_{fs}) + 0.22 (T_{aw} - T_{fs})$

where T_{bl} = Temperature of boundary layer, degR

T_{fs} = Temperature of free stream, deg R

Twall = Temperature of wall, deg R

NUSSELT NUMBER

LAMINAR BOUNDARY

 $Nu = 0.332 Rn^{1/2} Pr^{1/3}$

TURBULENT BOUNDARY

$$Nu = 0.029 Rn^{0.8} Pr^{1/3}$$

where Nu = h D/k

PROCEDURE FOR FORCED CONVECTION, FLAT PLATE, HIGH VELOCITY Program 7. Ambient Temperature and Compressible Temp Program 8. Ambient Pressure and Compressible Pressure Program 9. Forced Convection, Flat Plate, High Velocity (Parts 1 tc)₄)

1. Find altitude temperature and pressure and air density

$$T_{0} = 519.69 \stackrel{-0.007888}{-} H$$

$$P_{0} = 2116. e^{-0.01/14} H$$

$$P_{0} = F/(gRT)$$
2. Find stagnation temperature and velocity of sound
$$T_{s} = T_{0} (1+((Y-1)/2) M_{n}^{2}) V_{c} = (k g R T_{0})^{1/2}$$
3. Find Prandtl Number and Reynolds Number
$$Pr = g c_{p} \mu/k \qquad Rn = D V_{c} \rho/\mu.$$
4. Find recovery factor
$$For laminar flow (Rn less than 500,000)$$

$$r = Pr^{1/2}$$
For turbulent flow (Rn more than 500,000)

$$r = Pr^{1/3}$$
5. Find adiabatic wall temperature
$$T_{aW} = T_{0} (1 + r ((Y-1)/2) Mn^{2})$$
6. Find boundary layer temperature
$$T_{bl} = T_{0} + 0.50 (T_{wall} - T_{0}) + 0.22 (T_{aW} - T_{0})$$
7. Find Nusselt Number
For laminar flow
$$Nu = 0.332 Rn^{1/2} Pr^{1/3}$$
8. Find heat transfer coefficient and heat flux
$$h = Nu/(L/k) \qquad Q/A = h (T_{aW} - T_{wall})$$

9. Repeat calculations as needed with improved values for Pr and Rn

EXAMPLE 6. FORCED CONVECTION, FLAT PLATE, HIGH VELOCITY H = (35,000 ft/1000) = 35.DATA: Mn = 1.5L = 10. ft $c_p = 0.241 BTU/lb-deg F$ $k = 6.94 \times 10^{-6} BTU/lb-ft-deg F$ μ = 3.97 x 10⁻⁷ lb-sec/ft² **1** = 1.⊥ R = 53.3CALCULATION RESULTS: $(T_{wall} = 400. \deg R)$ $T_{o} = 519.69 e^{-C.007888}$ (35) = 394. deg R $P_0 = 2116. e^{-0.0414(35)} = 496. lb/ft^2$ $g\rho = 496./(53.3 \times 394) = 0.0236 \text{ lb/ft}^3$ = 7.33 x 10^{-4} slugs/ft³ c = 0.0236/32.2 $T_s = 394 (1 + ((1.4-1)/2 (1.5)^2)) = 571. deg R$ $Pr = 32.2 \times 0.241 \times (3.97 \times 10^{-7})/(6.94 \times 10^{-6}) = 0.44$ $V_c = (1.4 \times 32.2 \times 53.3 \times 394)^{1/2} = 973.$ ft/sec Rn = 10. x 973. x $(7.33 \times 10^{-4})/(3.97 \times 10^{-7})$ = 1.80 x 10⁷ Flow is turbulent $r = (0.14)^{1/3} = 0.76$ $T_{aw} = 394. (1 + 0.76 ((1.4 - 1)/2 (1.5)^2)) = 529. deg R$ $T_{h1} = 394. + 0.50 (400. - 394.) + 0.22 (529. - 394) = 430.$ deg R Nu =.0 29 $(1.80 \times 10^7)^{0.8} (0.44)^{1/3} = 1.41 \times 10^4$ h = $(1.41 \times 10^{1})/(10/6.94 \times 10^{-6}) = 0.0098 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2 - \text{deg F}$ $Q/A = 0.0098 \times (529. - 400.) = 1.26 BTU/sec-ft^2$

TABULATED VALUES:

T _{wall}	Q/A		
deg R	BTU/sec-ft ²		
400.	1.26		
ццо.	0.869		
460.	0.673		
50 0.	0.283		
520.	0.088		



BOILING

NUCLEATE BOILING

Nucleate boiling is characterized by the appearance of small gas bubbles which pervade the liquid. The bubbles originate from surface imperfections, cracks, crevices and tool marks which are not wetted by the liquid because of surface tension.

Nucleate boiling is initiated at wall temperature which is 0 to 10 degrees F above the liquid saturation temperature. The bubbles at the liquid-wall interface grow by absorbing vaporized gas. These bubbles become detached from the wall when sufficiently large because of surface tension and rise to the surface by gravity. The residual gas in the crevice becomes the source for the new bubble. The bubble rises to the surface with the heat transmitted by the wall for its formation.

The Rohsenow equation for nucleate boiling is widely used. It requires experimental determination of a liquid-surface coefficient, see Ref. 6 and 7. Impurities of the surface and liquid, surface finish and other irregularities can change these values.

At a sufficiently high temperature of the wall above the liquid saturation temperature (the driving temperature difference) the bubbles formed at the wall become so numerous that a continuous vapor film is formed. Nucleate boiling proceeds in this way through a transition to film boiling. The transition is accompanied by a low heat flux with possible wall overheat, or burnout. Peak nucleate heat flux can be found by Noyes' equation, see Ref. 8 and 9, which accounts for gravity effects.

ROHSENOW HEAT FLUX EQUATION:

$$Q/A = (c_{p} (T_{wall} - T_{sat})/(h_{fg} c_{sf} P_{r}^{1.7}))^{3} g\mu_{liq} h_{fg}$$
$$((g/g_{o})(g\rho_{liq} - g\rho_{vap})/\sigma')^{1/2}$$

where

Q/A = Heat flux, BTU/sec-ft² c_p = Heat capacity of liquid, BTU/lb-deg F $T_{wall} - T_{sat}$ = Temperature difference between saturated liquid and wall, deg F h_{fg} = Latent heat of evaporation, BTU/lb c_{sf} = Surface coefficient, 0.003 to 0.015 P = Prandtl Number of liquid = g c_p //k μ^r = Viscosity of liquid, lb-sec/ft² g/ liq - g/ vap = Density of liquid minus that of vapor, lb/cu ft G = Surface tension, lb/ft k = Thermal conductivity, BTU/sec-ft-deg F NOYES PEAK NUCLEATE HEAT FLUX:

$$(Q/A)_{max} = 0.144 h_{fg} (g \rho_{vap})^{1/2} (((g \rho_{liq} - g \rho_{vap})^{2/g} \rho_{liq}) g g_{0} \sigma)^{1/4} Pr^{-0.245} (a/g)^{1/4}$$

where (Q/A)_{max} = Max heat flux of nucleate boiling, BTU/sec-ft² a/g = Local gravity to standard gravity ratio

g₀ = Conversion factor; mass to force, 32.2 ft/sec² FIGURE 12. CHARACTERISTIC BOILING PLOT



PROCEDURE FOR NUCLEATE BOILING

See APPENDIX I. Program 10. Nucleate Pool Boiling Program 11. Peak Nucleate Heat Flux

1. Find Prandtl Number of liquid

 $Pr = g c_p \mu / k$

2. Find constant C₁

$$C_1 = ((g/g_0) ((g \rho_{liq} - g \rho_{vap})/\sigma))^{1/2}$$

3. Find Q/A

$$Q/A = (c_p (T_{wall} - T_{sat})/(h_{fg} c_{sf} Pr^{1 \cdot 7}))^3 g\mu_{liq} h_{fg} c_1$$

$$(Q/A)_{max} = 0.144 h_{fg} (g \rho_{vap})^{1/2} \dots etc., as above$$

EXAMPLE 7 . NUCLEATE POOL BOILING

DATA:
$$T_{\bar{W}\bar{d}\bar{\Sigma}} = (212 \text{ deg } F + 460 \text{ deg } F) = 672 \text{ deg } R$$

 $T_{wall} = (672 \text{ deg } R + 20 \text{ deg } F) = 692 \text{ deg } R$
 $h_{fg} = 970. \text{ BTU/lb}$
 $c_p = 1.0 \text{ BTU/lb-deg } F$
 $c_{sf} = 0.013$
 $\mu = 6.38 \times 10^{-6} \text{ lb-sec/ft}^2$
 $\mathcal{J} = 0.004 \text{ lb/ft}$
 $g = 32.2 \text{ ft/sec}^2$
 $g\rho_{vap} = 0.037 \text{ lb/ft}^3$
 $g\rho_{liq} = 62.4 \text{ lb/ft}^3$
 $k = 1.09 \times 10^{-4} \text{ BTU/ft-sec-deg } F$

CALCULATION RESULTS:

Pr = 32.2 x 1.0 x (6.38 x
$$10^{-6}$$
)/(1.09 x 10^{-4}) = 1.88
C₁ = ((32.2/32.2)((62.4-0.037)/0.004))^{1/2} = 124.
Q/A = (1.0 x (692-672)/(970. x 0.013 x 1.88^{1.7}))³
x 32.2 x (6.38 x 10^{-6}) x 970. x 124.
= 3.9Å BTU/sec-ft²
(Q/A)_{max} = 0.144 x 970. x (0.037)^{1/2} x((62.4 - 0.037)²/62.4
x 32.2 x 32.2 x 0.004)^{1/4} x 1.88^{-0.245} (1.0)^{1/4}
= 92.29 BTU/sec-ft²

TABULATED RESULTS:

T _{wall} - T _{sat}	Q/A		
deg F	BTU/sec-ft ²		
10.	0.47		
20.	3.73		
30	12.58		
40	29.81		
50	58.22		
60	100.60	(Q/A) _{max}	= 92. BTU/sec-ft ²



Example 7. NUCLEATE POOL BOILING



FILM BOILING

Film boiling is characterized by the complete separation of the liquid from the heated surface by the vapor. The rate of heat transfer does not depend on the surface characteristics.

The temperature at which film boiling is attained can be correlated by the Leidenfrost temperature according to the experiments of Baumeister and Simon, Ref. 10. The Leidenfrost point is found by measuring the time for evaporation of a drop of liquid at increasing plate temperatures and occurs at the maximum time following the burnout point. See below.

A generalized correlation of film boiling was made by Clements and Colver, Ref. 11, based on data for water, oxygen, nitrogen and pure mixed hydrocarbons.

CHARACTERISTIC LEIDENFROST POINT



FORMULAE FOR FILM BOILING

See Appendix I. Program 12. Minimum Film Boiling Temp. ISOTHERMAL LEIDENFROST POINT ESTIMATE

 $T_{\text{Leid}} = 1.51 T_{\text{crit}}^{(1-e^{-m})}$ where $T_{\text{Leid}} = \text{Leidenfrost point, deg R}$ $T_{\text{crit}} = \text{Critical temperature of fluid, deg R}$ $m = 0.99 (\mathcal{O}_{1v})^{-1/3} (\text{spgr/molwt})^{4/9}$ where $\mathcal{O}_{1v} = \text{Surface tension, lb/ft}$ spgr = Specific gravity of wall molwt = Molecular weight of wall

FILM BOILING EQUATION See APPENDIX I. Program 13. Film Boiling Heat Flux Nu = 0.94 (Ra $\bigcirc \mathbf{P}r^{-2}$)^{1/4} where Nu = Nusselt Number, h D/k_{vap} Ra = Rayleigh Number = Gr Pr Gr = Grashof Number, $\rho_v g (\rho_{1iq} - \rho_{vap}) D^3/\mu_{vap}^2$ Pr = Prandtl Number, $g c_{p_{vap}} \mu_{vap} / k_{vap}$ Tr = Temperature ratio = T_{sat}/T_{crit} \bigcirc = Clement and Colver Number, $h_{fg}/(c_{p_{vap}} dT)$ h_{fg} = Latent heat of evaporation, BTU/1b dT = Driving temperature, $T_{wall} - T_{sat}$

PROCEDURE FOR FILM BOILING

See APPENDIX I. Program 12. Minimum Film Boiling Temperature Program 13 Film Boiling Heat Flux

1. Find minimum temperature for film boiling

$$T_{\text{Leid}} = 1.51 T_{\text{crit}}^{(1-e^{-m})}$$

2. Find Nusselt Number

Nu = 0.94 (Ra
$$\Theta \ pr^{-2}$$
)^{1/4}

$$h = Nu k_V D$$

Q/A = h dT

EXAMPLE &. FILM BOILING

DATA:
$$T_{sat} = (212 \text{ deg } F) 672 \text{ deg } R$$

 $T_{crit} = 1165 \text{ deg } R$
 $T_{wall} = 860 \text{ deg } R$
 $spgr_{wall} = 2.71$
molwt_wall = 26.9
 $O'_{liq} = 0.004 \text{ lb/ft}$
 $h_{fg} = 700. \text{ BTU/lb}$
 $Pr_{vap} = 0.94$
 $c_{pvap} = 0.47 \text{ BTU/lb-deg } F$
 $\mu vap = 3.9 \times 10^{-7} \text{ lb-sec/ft}^2$
 $\rho \text{ liq} = 1.86 \text{ slugs/ft}^3$
 $D = 0.10 \text{ ft}$
 $k_{vap} = 9.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg } F$

CALCULATION RESULTS:

$$m = 0.99 (0.004)^{-1/3} (2.71/26.9)^{4/9} = 2.25$$
$$T_{\text{Leid}} = 1.51 (1165)^{(1-e^{-2.25})} = 836. \text{ deg R} (376 \text{ deg F})$$

TABULATED RELULTS:

$$Ra = 2.96 \times 10^8$$

T wall	Θ	Nu	h	Q/A
deg R			BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F	BTU/sec-ft2
836.	9.08	282.	2.54	4.15.
890.	6.83	262.	2.36	515.
900. 950. 1000.	6.53 5.36 4.54	259. 246. 236.	2.34 2.22 2.13	532. 617. 670.







RADIATION

The existence of magnetic fields was demonstrated in 1850 by Michael Faraday using iron filings on a paper above a permanent magnet. When the paper is gently tapped the filings arrange themselves along the lines of force between the two magnetic poles.

A moving magnetic field produces a flow of electricity in a conductor; a flow of electricity in a conductor produces a magnetic field. The two are related according to laws discovered by James Clerk Maxwell, a Scottish physicist in 1864. Electromagnetic waves are characterized by a frequency and a wave length. In order of increasing frequency we find radio waves, infrared, visible light, ultraviolet, X-rays, gamma rays and cosmic rays. Thermal radiation occurs within the infrared to ultraviolet bands.

Thermal emission is a function only of the fourth power of the absolute temperature. A body emits thermal radiation in all directions. The radiation intensity of a given radius can be considered to pass through a sphere of that radius and is accordingly diminished by the square of the radius ratio.

The average solar radiation at the earth's surface at noon on a clear day facing the sun is approximately 0.089 BTU/sec-ft². The amount absorbed will be reduced by the surface absorptivity factor. By comparison a pound of petroleum fuel with a typical energy content of 18,000 BTU/lb would provide the energy of 59. square feet of solar panels for one hour.

FORMULAE FOR RADIATION AND PROCEDURE

See APPENDIX I. Program 14. Radiation Gain Program 15. Radiation Loss

STEFAN-BOLTZMANN LAW

 $e = \sigma T^{4}$

where e = Emissive. power, BTU/sec-ft²

 σ = Stefan-Boltzmann constant, 4.758 x 10⁻¹³ BTU/sec-ft²-deg R $\frac{1}{4}$

T = Surface temperature, deg R

RADIATION HEAT LOSS

 $Q_{loss} = \sigma e_b A_b (T_b^{\ \mu} - T_e^{\ \mu})$ where Q_{loss} = Heat loss, BTU/sec e_b = Emissivity of body, 0.0 to 1.0 A_b = Area of radiating body, ft² T_b = Temperature of body, deg R T_e = Temperature of background, deg R

RADIATION HEAT GAIN

$$Q_{gain} = \mathbf{\sigma} e_b a_b (r_1/r_2)^2 A_b (T_s^{l_1} - T_b^{l_1})$$
where Q_{gain} = Heat gain, BTU/sec
 e_s = Emissivity of source, 0.0 to 1.0
 a_b = Absorptivity of body, 0.0 to 1.0
 r_1 = Radius of source, feet
 r_2 = Radius from center of source to body, feet
 A_b = Area of body exposed to radiation, feet²
 T_g = Temperature of source, deg R

EXAMPLE 9. RADIATION

DATA:

	SOURCE	SPACE	BODY ENERGY GAIN	ENERGY LOSS
Emissivity, e	1.0			0.8
Absorptivity, a			0.9	
Surface Temperature, deg R	5000.	460.	500.	500.
Surface Area, ft ²			10.	100.
Radius , ft	0.5		10.	

CALCULATION RESULTS:

 $Q_{gain} = (4.758 \times 10^{-13}) \times 1.0 \times 0.9 \times (0.5/10.)^2 \times 10.$ x (5000.⁴ - 500.⁴)

= 6.69 BTU/sec

$$Q_{loss} = (4.758 \times 10^{-13}) \times 0.8 \times 100. \times (500.^{4} - 460.^{4})$$

= 0.67 BTU/sec

TABULATED RESULTS:

Body temperature deg R	Heat gain BTU/sec	Heat Loss BTU/sec
460.		0.
500.	6.69	0.67
600.	6.69	3.23
700.	6.69	7.43
3000.	5.82	



Example 9. RADIATION



HEAT EXCHANGER COMPARISON

Heat exchangers transfer energy from one fluid to another. The fluids can be both liquids, both gas or one of each. There may by a simple change of temperature or there may be a change of phase with condensation or evaporation. The fluids may both flow in the same direction (parallel flow) or in opposite directions (counterflow).

The counterflow heat exchanger is preferable if the aim is to heat the cooler fluid. The parallel flow heat exchanger is preferable if the aim is to cool the hotter fluid. The counterflow design is the most efficient.

The fluid may flow through tubes or across fins or plates. The design objective is to obtain the required surface area for each fluid at minimum cost, size and weight. For example, in a waterto-air heat exchanger the air side area will govern the design.

The heat exchanger may contain baffles to obtain several passes of the fluid in a tube-and-shell design. Tubes may contain internal fins or external fins to increase the surface area and to promote turbulence.

Heat exchanger surfaces may be coated with scale from deposits of liquid impurities or from liquid decomposition. Metal oxides can be present. These coatings reduce the heat transfer rate.

The design of heat exchangers is simplified by the NTU (Number of Transfer Units) concept devised by Kays and London, Reference 12. A transfer unit is the product of the heat transfer area and the heat transfer coefficient divided by the flow rate and the specific heat of the fluid least able to absorb the heat, C_{\min} . The fluid most able to absorb the heat, by virtue of the greater product of flow rate and specific heat, is known as C_{\max} . Efficiency can be determined from values for NTU and the ratio C_{\min}/C_{\max} .

Efficiency refers to the ratio of the heat transferred compared to the amount of heat that could be transferred in a counterflow heat exchanger of infinite area. At NTU values above 3 the efficiency increases very slowly.

FORMULAE FOR HEAT EXCHANGERS

NTU VALUE N_{tu} = A U/C_{min} where N_{tu} = Number of transfer units A = Heat transfer area, ft² U = Heat transfer coefficient, BTU/sec-ft²-deg F C_{min} = Minimum product of hot or cold fluid flow rate x specific heat, BTU/sec-deg F COUNTERFLOW EFFICIENCY

eff. =
$$\frac{1 - e^{(-N_{tu} (1 - (C_{min}/C_{max})))}}{1 - ((C_{min}/C_{max}) e^{(-N_{tu} (1 - (C_{min}/C_{max})))}}$$

PARALLEL EFFICIENCY

eff. =
$$\frac{1 - e^{(-Ntu (1 + (C_{min}/C_{max})))}}{1 + (C_{min}/C_{max})}$$

HEAT TRANSFERRED BY FLUID Cmin

$$Q = eff \cdot x C_{min} x (T_{h1} - T_{c1})$$

wehre Q = Heat transfer rate, BTU/sec

 T_{h1} = Temperature of hot fluid at inlet, deg F

T_{c1} = Temperature of cold fluid at inlet, deg F

PROCEDURE FOR HEAT EXCHANGER ANALYSIS

1. Find
$$C_{min}$$
 and ratio C_{min}/C_{max}
 $C_h = dW_h c_{p_h}$
 $C_c = dW_c c_{p_c}$.
See APPENDIX 1. Program 16,
Heat Exchanger Effic.,
Parts 1-3.

where dW_h = Hot fluid flow rate, lb/sec dW_c = Cold fluid flow rate, lb/sec c_{ph} = Specific heat of hot fluid, BTU/lb-deg F c_{pc} = Specific heat of cold fluid, BTU/lb-deg F If C_h is less than C_c: C_{min} = C_h and C_{min}/C_{max} = C_h/C_c If C_c is less than C_h: C_{min} = C_c and C_{min}/C_{max} = C_c/C_h

2. Find number of transfer units, N_{tu} (see above)

- 3. Find efficiency (see above)
- 4. Find heat transfer rate (see above)
- 5. Find temperature change for each fluid.

$$dT_{h} = Q/(dW_{h} c_{p_{h}})$$
$$dT_{c} = Q/(dW_{c} c_{p_{h}})$$

EXAMPLE of HEAT EXCHANGER PERFORMANCE

DATA:
$$dW_c = 2.5$$
 lb/sec
 $dW_h = 1.5$ lb/sec
 $c_{p_c} = 0.99$ BTU/lb-deg F $T_{h_1}^{c_{1}}$ Parallel Flow
A = 20.0 ft²
U = 0.25 BTU/sec-ft²-deg F $T_{h_2}^{c_{1}}$ Counterflow
CALCULATION RESULTS: Counterflow
C_h = (1.5) x 1.10 = 1.65 BTU/sec-deg F
C_c = 2.5 x 0.99 = 2.48 BTU/sec-deg F
C_min = C_h = 1.65 $C_{min}/C_{max} = 1.65/2.48 = 0.67$
N_{tu} = (20. ft²) x (0.25 BTU/sec-ft²-deg F) / (1.65) = 3.03
Counterflow efficiency: Example 10
eff. = $\frac{1 - e^{(-3.03 x (1 - 0.67))}}{1 - ((0.67) x e^{(-3.03 x (1 - 0.67))})} = 0.84$
Q = 0.84 x 1.65 x 10. deg F = 5.63 BTU/sec
dT_h = (5.63 BTU/sec)/((1.5 lb/sec) x (1.10 BTU/lb-
 $-deg$ F))
 $dT_c = (5.63 BTU/sec)/((2.5 lb/sec) x (0.99 BTU/lb-
 $-deg$ F))
= 2.27 deg F$

Parallel flow efficiency: Example 11
eff. =
$$\frac{1 - e^{(-3.03 \times (1 + 0.67))}}{1 + 0.67}$$

= 0.60
Q = 0.60 x 1.65 x 10. deg F = 4.02 BTU/sec
dT_h = (4.02 BTU/sec)/((1.5 lb/sec) x (1.10 BTU/lb
= 2.44 deg F
dT_c = (4.02 BTU/sec)/((2.5 lb/sec) x (0.99 BTU/lb
= 1.62 deg F

TABULATED DATA:

T _{h1} - T _{c1}	Counterflow Q	Parallel Flow Q
deg F	BTU/sec	BTU/sec
10.	5.63	4.02
20.	11.26	8.04
40.	22.51	16.08
100.	56.28	40.20

Examples 10 and 11. HEAT EXCHANGER PERFORMANCE



ENERGY COSTS

The principal sources of energy for stationary uses are fuel oil, natural gas and coal. Natural gas is the preferred fuel because of a lack of residue or deposits and burning cleanliness.

Prior to the OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) embargo on oil shipments to the United States in 1975, fuel oil sold for approximately 2 to 5 dollars a barrel (42 gal). Natural gas was sold under twenty year contract for as low as 10 to 20 cents per million BTU, as limited by Federal regulation.

Spring 1981 fuel oil is priced at approximately one dollar per gallon with crude petroleum approximately forty dollars per barrel. Natural gas, which is still controlled in price by Federal regulation, has been allowed to sell for approximately two dollars per million BTU, with efforts being made by procucers to raise the price to six dollars to bring it into equality on a BTU basis with fuel oil.

Natural gas is used to heat over half of all American homes. It is also used extensively for industrial applications. Wellhead petroleum usually contains a large amount of natural gas and if a pipeline is not available the gas is burned or "flared" to dispose of it. Overseas natural gas is made available by shipping as a liquid in refrigerated vessels at temperatures on the order of -200 deg F.

Crude petroleum ordinarily contains sulfur as an undesirable element. Those oils with little sulfur are called "sweet" and those with much sulfur "sour". The latter have a distinctive rotten egg smell. High sulfur compounds are restricted from burning in many localities and sell at a lower marked price.

Coal is the product of a succession of organic processes and is found in various compositions and conditions. Most primitive and least decomposed is peat or lignite. The intermediate grade, which comprises most coal, is soft, bituminous or steam coal. The cleanest and highest energy coal is hard, anthracite or metallurgical coal. It is preferred that coal by washed and dried before burning. Coal can be transported by pipeline by mixing with water. Coal can be used and burned as a fluid by grinding and mixing with air under pressure.

The state of the art of solar energy devices is indicated by a press release of January 1981 by Energy Conversion Devices Inc. They report tests of a direct conversion silicon cell with an efficiency of 6.6 percent. The Department of Energy has a goal to develop by 1986 a solar cell with a cost of \$2.20 per peak watt.

A peak watt is defined as one produced by a solar cell exposed to the sun at the equator at high noon normal to its rays at sea level on a clear day.

	ENERGY UNIT COSTS			
FUEL TYPE	UNIT COST (nominal)	HEAT ING VALUE BTU/Lb	COST PER UNIT \$/mm BTU	\$/Therm
Lignite	\$6.60/ton	8,300.	040	0.04
Coal	\$32./ton	13,500.	1.20	0.12
Natural gas (ING) (methane)	\$2.00/1000 ft ³ (0.047 lb/ft ³)	21,000.	2.03	0.20
Bottle gas (LPG) (propene, butane)	\$0.51/gallon (4.24 lb/gal)	20,000.	6.01	0•60
Fuel oil	<pre>\$ 1.00/gallon 6.4 lb/gal)</pre>	19,000.	8.22	0,82
Wood	<pre>\$ 90./cord (128 ft³/cord) (30. lb/ft³)</pre>	8,000.	2.93	0•29
Charcoal	\$ 0.13/Ib	14,000.	8.75	0.88
Electric Power	-\$0.015/kilowatt-hr \$0.050/kilowatt-hr	(1 kw = 3413 E	3TU/hr) 4.39 14.65	27.1 1.0

(one Therm = 100,000 BTU)

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HOME HEATING ENERGY LOSSES, Example 12

Energy analysis methods can be applied to estimate home heating energy costs and the benefits to be expected by use of insulation. A typical home has been defined for illustration:

Floor and attic area	2000. ft_2^2
Outer wall area	1440.ft5
Window area (single pane)	432. ft ₂
Outer door area (solid wood, 1")	65. ft_{2}
Chimney minimum flow area	1.5 ft ²
Chimney height	12. ft
Water heater area	39. ft^2
Heating duct area	0.6 ft ²
Duct length	100. ft

2

The cost of energy has been assumed at 2.00 dollars per million BTU. This includes a furnace efficiency of approximately 75 percent.

Heating	durat	tion,	31	nont	chs		· 7.	.78	X	10		seç	
Heating	duct	flow	at	10	percent	of	time	=	1.3	0 3	ς ΄	10 ⁰ se	c

Inside temperature	80.	deg	F
Outside temperature	0.	deg	F
Attic temperature	0.	deg	F
Subfloor temperature	40.	deg	F

On this basis the energy costs would be as follows:

SUMMARY OF HOME HEATING ENERGY COSTS

Location	Construction	Energy Cost	
		Uninsulated	Insulated
Ceiling	Plaster on Wood Lath	\$ 2300.	\$ 45.
-	2.4" thickness		(+ 4" glass wool)
Floor	Wood, 1-1/4"	754.	23.
	-		(+ 4" glass wool)
Wall	Brick, 4" + 1/2" plaster	. 566.	115.
			(+ 1" fiberboard)
	Wood Frame, board & plas	ster 103.	20.
			(+ Ц" foam)
Window	Single pane	104.	19.
			(double pane)
Chimney	Damper open	305.	
•			(closed)
Water Heater		26.	2.
Door	Wood, solid	3.	
Heating Duct	-	2.	

CEILING ENERGY LOSS

UNINSULATED CEILING,
Plaster on wood lath,
$$3/4$$
 inch thick
 $L_1 = 0.0625 \text{ ft}$
 $k_1 = 5.79 \times 10^{-5} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$
 $U = k_1/L_1 = (5.79 \times 10^{-5})/0.0625 = 9.26 \times 10^{-4} \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2$
 $Q = U \text{ A dT dt}$
 $= (9.26 \times 10^{-4}) \times (2000. \text{ ft}^2) \times (80. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6 \text{ sec})$
 $= 1.15 \times 10^9 \text{ BTU}$
Energy cost = $(1.15 \times 10^9 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ $/mm BTU}) = \text{$2300.}$
INSULATED CEILING
 $4 \text{ inch glass wool batt added}$
 $L_2 = 0.33 \text{ ft}$
 $k_2 = 6.11 \times 10^{-6} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$
 $1/U = L_1/k_1 + L_2/k_2$
 $= 0.0625/(5.79 \times 10^{-5}) + 0.33/(6.11 \times 10^{-6}) = 55088.$
 $U = 1.82 \times 10^{-5} \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2 \text{ deg F}$
 $Q = U \text{ A dT dt}$
 $= (1.82 \times 10^{-5}) \times (2000.) \times (80. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6 \text{ sec})$
 $= 2.27 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}$
Energy cost = $(2.27 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ $/mm BTU}) = \text{$45.}$

FLOOR ENERGY LOSS UNINSULATED FLOOR Wood, 1-1/4" thick $L_1 = 0.104 \text{ ft}$ $k_1 = 6.39 \times 10^{-5}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F $U = k_1/L_1 = (6.39 \times 10^{-5})/0.104 = 6.14 \times 10^{-4} BTU/sec-ft^2$ -deg F Q = U A dT dt= $(6.14 \times 10^{-4}) \times (2000. \text{ ft}^2) \times (40. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6)$ sec) $= 3.82 \times 10^8 \text{ BTU}$ Energy cost = $(3.82 \times 10^8 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ s/mm BTU}) = \text{ s} 754.$ INSULATED FLOOR 4" glass wool batt added $L_{2} = 0.33 \text{ ft}$ $k_2 = 6.11 \times 10^{-6} BTU/sec-ft-deg F$ $1/U = L_1/k_1 + L_2/k_2$ $= 0.104/(6.39 \times 10^{-5}) + 0.33/(6.11 \times 10^{-6}) = 55637.$ $U = 1.80 \times 10^{-5} BTU/sec-ft^2 - deg F$ Q = U A dT dt= $(1.80 \times 10^{-5}) \times (2000. \text{ ft}^2) \times (40. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6)$ sec) $= 1.12 \times 10^7 BTU$ Energy cost = $(1.12 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ s/mm BTU}) = \text{$23}.$

HICK WALL ENERGY LCSS
UNINSULATED ERICK WALL
1.00mmon brick,
$$\mu^{u}$$
 thick
2.Flaster, gypsum-sand, 1/2" thick
 $L_1 = 0.33$ ft
 $k_1 = 1.16 \times 10^{-4}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F
 $L_2 = 0.0417$ ft
 $k_2 = 1.29 \times 10^{-4}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F
1/U = $L_1/k_1 + L_2/k_2$
= 0.33/(1.16 x 10⁻⁴) + 0.0417/(1.29 x 10⁻⁴) = 3167.
U = 3.16 x 10⁻⁴ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F
Q = U A dT dt
= (3.16 x 10⁻⁴) x (1440 ft²) x (80 deg F) x (7.78 x 10⁶ sec)
= 2.83 x 10⁸ BTU
Energy cost = (2.83 x 10⁸) x (2.00 \$/mm BTU) = \$ 566.
INSULATED ERICK WALL
3. Cellulose fiberboard, 1" thick
 $L_3 = 0.0833$ ft
 $k_3 = 6.67 \times 10^{-6}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F
1/U = $L_1/k_1 + L_2/k_2 + L_3/k_3$
= 3167. + 0.0833/(6.67 x 10⁻⁶) = 15656.
U = 6.39 x 10⁻⁵ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F
Q = U A dT dt
= (6.39 x 10⁻⁵) x (1440 ft²) x (80. deg F) x (7.78 x 10⁶ sec)
= 5.73 x 10⁷ BTU
Energy Cost = (5.73 x 10⁷ BTU) x (2.00 \$/mm BTU) = \$ 115.

WOOD FRAME WALL ENERGY LOSS UNINSULATED WOOD FRAME WALL Inside panel, Plaster on wood lath, 3/4" thick
 2" x 4" studs between panels 2. Outside panel, Wood siding, 2" thick INSIDE PANEL $L_{1} = 0.0625 \text{ ft}$ $k_1 = 5.79 \times 10^{-5}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F .air film h = 2.98×10^{-4} BTU/sec-deg F-ft² (from example of "Flat Plate, vertical, turbulent") $1/U = 1/h + L_1/k_1 + 1/h$ $= 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-4}) + 0.0625/(5.79 \times 10^{-5}) + 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-4})$ = 7790. $U = 1.28 \times 10^{-4} BTU/sec-ft^2-deg F$ OUTSIDE PANEL $L_2 = 0.167 \text{ ft}$ $k_2 = 6.39 \text{ x } 10^{-5} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$ $1/U = 1/h + L_2/k_2 + 1/h$ $= 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-4}) + 0.167/(6.39 \times 10^{-5}) + 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-4})$ = 9325. $U = 1.07 \times 10^{-4} BTU/sec-ft^2 deg F$

Heat flux, Q/A = U dT for inside panel must equal that for outside panel with inside temperature of 80. deg F and 0. deg F outside.

Intermediate Temperature deg F	Q/A Inside Panel <u>BTU/sec-ft</u> 2	Q/A Outside Panel <u>BTU/sec-ft²</u>
0.	10.2 x 10 ⁻³	0.
20.	7.68 x 10^{-3}	2.14 x 10^{-3}
40.	5.12 x 10^{-3}	4.28×10^{-3}
60.	2.56×10^{-3}	6.42×10^{-3}
80.	0.	8.56×10^{-3}



The above plot indicates an intermediate temperature of approximately 45 degrees F and a wall heat flux of 0.0046 BTU/sec-ft²

INSULATED WOOD FRAME WALL
3. Polyurethane foam between panels,
$$\mu$$
" thick
 $L_3 = 0.33 \text{ ft}$
 $k_3 = 3.94 \times 10^{-6} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$
 $1/U = 1/h + L_1/k_1 + L_3/k_3 + L_2/k_2 + 1/h$
 $= 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-4}) + 0.0625/(5.79 \times 10^{-5}) + 0.33/(3.94 \times 10^{-6})$
 $+ 0.167/(6.39 \times 10^{-5}) + 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-4})$
 $= 90805.$
 $U = 1.10 \times 10^{-5} \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2 - \text{deg F}$
 $Q = U \text{ A dT dt}$
 $= (1.10 \times 10^{-5}) \times (1440. \text{ ft}^2) \times (80. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6 \text{ sec})$
 $= 9.86 \times 10^6 \text{ BTU}$
Energy cost = (9.86 $\times 10^6$) $\times (2.00 \text{ s/mm BTU}) = \text{$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$$20.$

WINDOW ENERGY LOSS

UNINSULATED WINDOW

Single thickness glass, 1/8" thick $L_1 = 0.0104 \text{ ft}$ $k_1 = 1.22 \text{ x } 10^{-5} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$ See "Free Convection, Vertical Plate" Grashof constant, $C_{j_1} = 3.38 \times 10^6$ Grashof constant, $C_3 = C_1 L^3 = (3.38 \times 10^6) \times (6.0 \text{ ft})^3$ $= 7.30 \times 10^8$ Grashof Number = $C_3 dT = (7.30 \times 10^8) \times 80. deg F$ $= 5.81 \times 10^{10}$ Flow is turbulent, $h = 4.65 \times 10^{-4}$ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F $1/U = 1/h + L_1/k_1 + 1/h$ = $1/(4.65 \times 10^{-4})$ + 0.0104/(1.22 x 10⁻⁵) + 1/(4.65 x 10⁻⁴) = 5154. $U = 1.94 \times 10^{-4} BTU/sec-ft^2-deg F$ Q = U A dT dt= $(1.94 \times 10^{-4}) \times 432$. ft²) x (80. deg F) x (7.78 x 10⁶ sec) $= 5.22 \times 10^7 BTU$ Energy cost = $(5.22 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ s/mm BTU}) = \text{$ 104.}$

INSULATED WINDOW

Double pane
2. Air space, 1" thick

$$L_2 = 0.0833$$
 ft
 $k_2 = 3.77 \times 10^{-6}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F
 $1/U = 1/h + L_1/k_1 + L_2/k_2 + L_1/k_1 + 1/h$
 $= 1/(4.65 \times 10^{-4}) + 0.0104/(1.22 \times 10^{-5}) + 0.0833/(3.77 \times 10^{-6}))$
 $+ 0.104/(1.22 \times 10^{-5}) + 1/(4.65 \times 10^{-4}))$
 $= 28101.$
U = 3.56 x 10⁻⁵ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F
Q = U A dT dt
 $= (3.56 \times 10^{-5}) \times (432. \text{ ft}^2) \times (80. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6 \text{ sec})$
 $= 9.57 \times 10^6 \text{ BTU}$
Energy cost = $(9.57 \times 10^6 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ $/mm BTU}) = \text{$$} 19.$

CHIMNEY HEAT LOSS, DAMPER OPEN

Specific weight of outside air

$$g_{\text{out}} = P/(RT)$$

$$= (14.7 \text{ lb/in}^2 \text{ x } 144)/(53.3 \text{ x } (460. + 0.))$$

$$= 0.0863.\text{lb/ft}^3$$

$$g_{\text{in}} = (14.7 \text{ lb/in}^2 \text{ x } 144)/(53.3 \text{ x } (460 + 80.))$$

$$= 0.0735 \text{ lb/ft}^3$$

Head of air causing flow in chimney

$$dQ = c_d A (2g H)^{1/2}$$

= (0.8) x(1.5 ft²) x (2 x 32.2 ft/sec² x 2.09 ft)^{1/2}
= 13.9 ft³/sec

Air flowrate, weight

Energy loss

$$E = (dW dt) x c_p x dT$$

= (1.02 lb/sec) x (7.78 x 10⁶ sec) x (0.24 BTU/lb-deg F)
x (80 deg F)
= 1.52 x 10⁸ BTU
Energy cost = (1.52 x 10⁸ BTU) x (2.00 \$/mm BTU) = \$ 305.

DOOR ENERGY LOSS UNINSULATED OUTSIDE DOORS Four doors, solid wood, 1" thick $L_1 = 0.0833$ ft) $k_1 = 6.39 \times 10^{-5}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg F air film h = 2.98 x 10⁻¹⁴ BTU/sec-ft²deg F (from example of "Flat Plate, Vertical, Turbulent") $1/U = 1/h + L_1/k_1 + 1/h$ $= 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-14}) + 0.0833/(6.39 \times 10^{-5}) + 1/(2.98 \times 10^{-14})$ = 31581.U = 3.17 x 10⁻⁵ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F Q = U A dT dt $= (3.17 \times 10^{-5}) \times (65. \text{ ft}^2) \times (80. \text{ deg F}) \times (7.78 \times 10^6 \text{ sec})$ $= 1.28 \times 10^6 \text{ BTU}$ Energy cost = (1.28 x 10⁶ BTU) x (2.00 \$/mm BTU) = \$ 3.
WATER HEATER ENERGY LOSS UNINSULATED WATER HEATER 1. Glass liner, 1/10" 2. Steel case, 0.06" $L_1 = 0.0083 \text{ ft}$ $k_1 = 1.22 \text{ x } 10^{-5} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$ $L_2 = 0.0050 \text{ ft}$ $k_{2} = 7.18 \ 10^{-3} \text{ BTU/sec-ft-deg F}$ air film h = 4.65 x 10⁻⁴ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F (See example, "Flat Plate, Vertical, Turbulent") $1/U = 1/h + L_2/k_2 + L_1/k_1$ $= 1/(4.65 \times 10^{-4}) + 0.0050/(7.18 \times 10^{-3}) + 0.0083/(1.22)$ x 10-51 = 2832. $U = 3.53 \times 10^{-4} BTU/sec-ft^2-deg F$ Q = U A df 2t = $(3.53 \times 10^{-4}) \times 39$. ft² x 120 deg F x (7.78 x 10⁶ sec) $= 1.29 \times 10^7 BTU$ Energy cost = $(1.29 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ $/mm BTU}) = \text{$26}.$ TNSULATED WATER HEATER 3. Glass wool batt, 2" $L_3 = 0.167 \text{ ft}$ $k_3 = 6.11 \times 10^{-6}$ BTU/sec=ft-deg F $1/U = 1/h + L_3/k_3 + L_2/k_2 + L_1/k_1$ $= 2832. + 0.167/(6.11 \times 10^{-6}) = 30164.$ $U = 3.32 \times 10^{-5} BTU/sec-ft^2 - deg F$ $Q = U A dT dt = (3.32 \times 10^{-5}) \times 39. \times 120. \times 7.78 \times 10^{6}$ $= 1.21 \times 10 BTU$ Energy cost = $(1.21 \times 10^6 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ s/mm BTU}) = \text{$2.}$

HEATING DUCT ENERGY LOSS

UNINSULATED HEATING DUCT

Duct energy loss results from convective air film; Find Grashof Constants and Grashof Number

Grashof $C_4 = 3.38 \times 10^6$ (See Example of Free Convection) Grashof $C_3 = C_4 L^3 = (3.38 \times 10^6) \times (0.5 \text{ ft})^3 = 4.23 \times 10^5$ Grashof Number = $C_3 dT$

=
$$(4.23 \times 10^{2}) \times (80. \text{ deg F}) = 3.38 \times 10^{7}$$

Flow is laminar. See "Free Convection, Vertical Plate, Laminar"

Use Program 3. air properties: Pr = 0.72

L = 0.5 ft

$$k = 3.77 \times 10^{-6} \text{ BTU/sec-ft}$$

 $L/k = 1.33 \times 10^{5}$
 $h = 0.0002 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2 \text{ deg F}$
 $Q/A = 0.0174 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2 \text{ (for 80 degrees F diff.)}$
Energy loss = (Q/A) x A x dt
= (0.0174 \text{ BTU/sec-ft}^2) x (50. ft^2) x (1.30 x 10^6 sec)
= 1.13 x 10⁶ BTU

Energy cost = $(1.13 \times 10^6 \text{ BTU}) \times (2.00 \text{ s/mm BTU}) = \text{ s} 2.$

HOME COOLING ENERGY LOSSES, Example 13

Home cooling energy losses can be developed from the material generated by the study of home heating in the above examples. Only the insulated case is considered. Temperatures and time have been adjusted for the change from winter to summer conditions.

Cooling duration, 6 months	1.56 x 10 ⁷ sec
Inside temperature Outside temperature Attic temperature Subfloor temperature	70. deg F 95. deg F 110. deg F 90. deg F
Refrigeration nower electric	

Refrigeration power, electric Energy rate 2.0 ¢/kwh = 6.00 \$/mm BTU Mechanical efficiency = 50. percent

On this basis the cooling costs would be as follows:

LOCATION	ENERGY COST
CEILING	\$ 272.
FLOOR	134.
WOOD FRAME WALLS	75.
WINDOWS	197.
TOTAL	\$678.

INSULATED CEILING COOLING ENERGY

Q = U A dT dt = (1.82 x 10⁻⁵ BTU/sec-ft²-deg F) x (2000. ft²) x (30. deg F) x (1.56 x 10⁷ sec) = 2.27 x 10⁷ BTU Energy cost = (2.27 x 10⁷ BTU) x (6.00 \$/mm BTU)/(0.5 effic.) = \$ 272. INSULATED FLOOR COOLING ENERGY Q = U A dT dt = (1.80 x 10⁻⁵) x (2000. ft²) x(20. deg F) x (1.56 x 10⁷ sec) = 1.12 x 10⁷ BTU Energy cost = (1.12 x 10⁷ BTU) x (6.00 \$/mm BTU)/(0.5 effic.) = \$ 134. INSULATED WOOD FRAME WALLS COOLING ENERGY

INSULATED WINDOWS COOLING ENERGY

Q = U A dT dt
=
$$(9.70 \times 10^{-5}) \times (432. \text{ ft}^2) \times (25. \text{ deg F}) \times (1.56 \times 10^7 \text{ sec})$$

= $1.64 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}$
Energy cost = $(1.64 \times 10^7 \text{ BTU}) \times (6.00 \text{ s/mm BTU})/(0.5 \text{ effic.})$
= \$ 197.

ENVIRONMENTAL CONTROL

WATER VAPOR PRESSURE

Selected values for water vapor pressure as listed by the Handbook of Chemistry and Physics, 48th Edition are listed below:

ature	Vapor Pressure
deg F	psia
32.	0.0886
50.	0.1780
68.	0.3386
104.	1.0661
158.	4.516
	deg F 32. 50. 68. 104. 158.

These values can be plotted to form a straight line on ordinates of log pressure versus the reciprocal of the temperature ratio, based on the critical point of 1165 deg R.



The plot can be expressed by a linear equation of the form: $\log P = C_1 + C_2 (1/(T/T_c))$ The coefficients can be found by setting values for two cases and solving simultaneously:

Case 1: $\log 0.2471 = C_1 + C_2 (2.245)$ at 59 deg F Case 2: $\log 4.516 = C_1 + C_2 (1.885)$ at 158 deg F Solve Case 1 for C_1 $C_1 = \log 0.2471 - C_2 (2.245)$ Insert C_1 expression in Case 2 $\log 4.516 = \log 0.2471 - C_2 (2.245) + C_2 (1.885)$ Solve for C_2 $C_2 = (\log 0.2471 - \log 4.516)/(2.245 - 1.885)$ Solve for C_1 $C_1 = \log 0.2471 - (-3.505) (2.245) = 7.262$ State final equation

 $P = \log^{-1}(7.262 - 3.505 (1/(T/T_c)))$

For convenience, the equation can be solved by use of Program 17 in the Appendix.

HUMI DI TY

Humidity is a measure of the water vapor content in the atmosphere. The amount is controlled by the temperature and the availability of water.

Humididy is usually measured by a sling psychrometer which consists of two thermometers mounted together on an axis and rotated by hand in the air. One bulb is dry; the other is wet. The wet bulb is covered with a damp cloth. At saturation, 100 percent humidity, both bulbs give the same reading. At less than saturation, the wet bulb gives a lower reading.

The principal of the psychrometer (<u>psychro</u>, Gr., cold) is that the temperature is reduced by an amount equivalent of the energy needed to saturate the originally unsaturated air.

The ratio of water vapor to dry air at the wet bulb is governed by Dalton's Law of Partial Pressures: The constituents occupy the same volume in proportion to their molecular weights and partial pressures.

The total pressure of the atmosphere at sea level is 14.69 psia at sea level. The partial pressure of the atmosphere at sea level is this value minus the partial pressure of the water vapor.

DALTON'S LAW:
$$W = (M_{v}/M_{a})(P_{v}/P_{a})$$

where W = Humidity Ratio, water vapor to air weight $M_v = M_0$ lecular weight of vapor, 18.0 $M_a = M_0$ lecular weight of air, 28.96 $P_a = Pressure$ of vapor $P_a^v = Pressure$ of air

The wet bulb of the psychrometer accomplishes an adiabatic, that is, a constant energy process. The total energy of the incoming air is partially converted to evaporation of additional water with a reduction in temperature.

The energy of the system is expressed by the function of enthalpy, which is a measure of energy based on temperature and pressure. We can make an energy balance, where the energy of the entering air and vapor plus the energy of the added water equals the energy of the leaving air and water.

$$H_{a1} + H_{v1} + H_{w} = H_{a2} + H_{v2}$$

where H_{a1} = Enthalpy of entering air, BTU/lb
H_{v1} = Enthalpy of entering vapor, BTU/lb
H_{a2} = Enthalpy of added water, BTU/lb
H_{w2} = Enthalpy of leaving air, BTU/lb
H_{w2} = Enthalpy of leaving vapor, BTU/lb

Change of enthalpy for a gas or vapor can be found by the simple expression

Enthalpy change for the added water vapor is found by values for the energy change with change of state from a liquid to a vapor.

The enthalpy of saturated water can be found by the equation:

$$H_1 = 925 - 9.8 (1166 - T)^{0.7}$$

where H_l = Enthalpy of liquid, BTU/lb T = Temperature, deg R

The enthalpy of saturated water vapor is:

 $H_g = 1202. - 0.3 (860. - T)$

where H = Enthalpy of vapor, BTU/lb T^g = Temperature, deg R

The energy balance for the adiabatic process of the psychrometer can now be expressed as:

$$c_{pa} (T_1 - T_2) + c_{pv} (T_1 - T_2) W_1 = (W_2 - W_1) (H_g - H_1)$$

solving for W_1 (See Program 17)

$$W_1 = W_2 - (T_1 - T_2)(c_{pa} - W_1 c_{pv})/(H_g - H_2)$$

The partial pressure of the entering air water vapor can now be found:

$$P_{v1} = W_1 P_{a1} (M_a/M_v)$$

The humidity of the undisturbed air is then simply the ratio of the actual entering vapor pressure to the saturated vapor pressure.

$$\emptyset = P_{v1} / P_{1-sat}$$

EXAMPLE 144 DETERMINE HUMIDITY FROM PSYCHROMETER READINGS

DATA: Dry bulb temperature, 80. deg F Wet bulb temperature, 64. deg F

PROCEDURE:

 Find water vapor pressure at 64 and 80 deg F. (Use Program 17).

P = 0.2947 psi at 64 deg F and 0.5015 at 80 deg F

2. Find humidity ratio of leaving air. (Program 19)

$$W_2 = (M_v/M_a)(P_v/P_a)$$

= (18.0/28.96)(0.2947/(14.69-0.2947))
= 0.0124 lb water vapor/lb diy air

- 3. Find enthalpy of saturated liquid water at 64 deg F (Program 20) H₁ = 925 - 9.8(1166- (460+64))^{0.7} = 20.3 BTU/1b
- 4. Find enthalpy of saturated water vapor at 64 deg F (Program 20) H_p = 1202 - 0.3(860 - (460 + 64)) = 1101.2 BTU/1b
- 5. Find humidity ratio at dry bulb temperature. (Use Program 18.)

 $W_1 = 0.0088$ lb vapor/lb dry air

- 6. Find water vapor partial pressure at dry bulb condition. (Program 21)
 - $P_{v1} = W_1 P_{a1} (M_a/M_v)$ = 0.0088 x (14.69- P_{v1}) x (28.96/18) = 0.2080 - 0.0142 P_{v1} P_{v1} = 0.2080/(1 + 0.0142) = 0.2051 psi
- Find relative humidity, Ø, of undisturbed air. (Program 21)
 - - = 0.409 or 41. percent

HEATING OF MOIST AIR

When moist air is heated without the addition of moisture the humidity is reduced. If it is desired to increase the moisture this can be done by passing the air through a humidifier, such as a water spray.

Calculations of the energy required for heating air are based on the weight of air to be processed. The basic requirement for heating air is usually that the volume of the space to be heated be supplied with a change of air at the rate of perhaps one-half to three times per hour. This rate may be specified by law in the case of public buildings.

The volume flow rate can be converted to weight flow rate by determining the specific weight of the air and water vapor using the perfect gas law.

PERFECT GAS LAW: g e = P/(RT)
where g e = Specific weight, lb/cuft
P = Pressure, lb/sqft
T = Temperature, deg R
R = Gas Constant, 85.78 for water
53.3 for air

The water content may be expressed as grains, with 7000 grains per pound.

EXAMPLE 15. HEATING OF MOIST AIR

DATA: The space to be heated is 5,000 sqft by 9 ft high. The air is to be changed 2 times per hour. The entering air is 60 deg F at 90 percent humidity. The air is to be heated to 120 deg F without adding moisture.

PROCEDURE:

1. Find volume to be heated.

 $Vol. = 9 \ge 5000 = 45,000.$ cuft

2. Find volume flow rate at 120 deg F.

 $dv/dt_{120} = 45,000 \cdot x 2 = 90,000 \cdot cuft/hr$

3. Find vapor pressure of water at 60 deg F and 120 deg F. (Use Program 17.)

> At 60 deg F, $P_{y} = 0.2567$ psi At 120 deg R, $P_{y} = 1.6664$ psi

- Find specific weight of water vapor at 60 deg F per pound of air.
 - $g\rho = \emptyset P/RT = 0.90 x (0.2567 x 144)/(85.78 x (460 + 60)) = 0.000746 lb/cuft$
- 5. Find humidity at 120 deg F.

7. Find humidity ratio, R, of water vapor at 60 deg F.

 $R_{60} = 0.000746/0.0751 = 0.0099$ lb water/lb air

8. Find volume flow rate of air at 60 deg F.

dv/dt₆₀ = 90,000 cuft/hr x (0.0674/0.0751) = 80,772. cuft/hr

9. Find weight flow rate of air.

dw/dt = 80,772 cuft/hr x (0.0751 + 0.000746)lb/cuft = 6126. lb/hr

10. Find change of enthalpy of dry air.

 $dH_a = c_p dT = 0.24 x (120-60) x 6126$ = 88,214. BTU/hr

11. Find change of enthalpy of water vapor.

$$dH_v = w c_p dT = 0.44 x (120-60) x 0.0099 x 6126$$

= 1601. BTU/hr

12. Find total change of enthalpy (and energy for heating). dh/dt = 88,214. + 1601. = 89,815. BTU/hr

COOLING AND DEHUMIDIFYING MOIST AIR

When moist air is cooled the humidity increases. At the saturation point the humidity becomes 100 percent and subsequent cooling requires that the excess moisture be removed by condensation. An appreciable quantity of heat is extracted in the condensation process.

Cooling of moist air without condensation is referred to as removal of "sensible heat", the heat that can be sensed or felt. Condensation heat is known as "latent heat". The ratio of the sensible heat to the total heat (sensible plus latent) is known as the Sensible Heat Factor, SHF.

Cooling capacity is measured by the Standard Ton of Refrigeration. A Ton of cooling is equivalent to the rate of melting one ton of ice at 32 deg F in one day. The heat of melting is 144 BTU/1b. The Ton is therefore 144 BTU/1b x 2000 lb/ 24 hr = 12,000 BTU/hr.

The value of the latent heat is a function of temperature and the ratio of temperature to the critical temperature. For water, the equation becomes:

 $H_{fg} = 42(1166 - T)^{1/2}$

where H_{fg} = Latent heat, BTU/lb T^{fg} = Temperature, deg R

EXAMPLE ¹⁶. COOLING AND DEHUMI DIFYING MOIST AIR

DATA: Air at 80 deg F and 55 percent humidity at 2000 cfm is cooled to 58 deg F and 80 percent humidity. Find the required cooling capacity in Tons.

PROCEDURE:

1. Find vapor pressure at the two temperatures. (Use Program 17)

 $P_{v-80} = 0.5015 \text{ psi}$ $P_{v-58} = 0.2394 \text{ psi}$

1 20

2. Find Humidity Ratio at initial temperature.

$$\frac{R_{80}}{=} = p \left(\frac{P_v}{V} \left(\frac{P_{atm}}{P_u} - \frac{P_v}{V} \right) \left(\frac{M_v}{M_a} \right) \right)$$

= 0.55 x 0.5015/(14.69-(0.55 x 0.5015))(0.6215)
= 0.0119 lb/lb

3. Find dry air specific weight at initial temperature

$$g\rho = P/RT = 144(14.69-(0.55 \times 0.5015))/(53.3 \times (460+80))$$

= 0.0721 lb/cuft

4. Find dry air specific weight at final temperature.

$$g_{\rho} = 144(14.69 - (0.80 \times 0.0.2394))/(53.3 \times (460+58))$$

= 0.0756 lb/cuft

5. Find Humidity Ratio at final temperature.

$$R_{58} = 0.80 \times 0.239 \text{ } (14.69 - (0.80 \times 0.239 \text{ }))(0.6215)$$

= 0.0082 lb/lb

6. Find weight flow rate at initial temperature.

Air:
$$dw/dt = 2000 \operatorname{cuft/min} x 0.0721 \operatorname{lb/cuft}$$

 $80-a = 144.2 \operatorname{lb/min}$

Vapor: $dw/dt_{80-v} = 0.0119 \times 144.2 = 1.72 \text{ lb/min}$

7. Find enthalpy change of moist air, the sensible heat.

Air: $dH/dt_a = c_p dT (dw/dt)$ = 0.24 x (80-58) (144.2) = 761.4 BTU/min

Vapor: $dH/dt_{y} = 0.44 \times (80-58) (1.72 = 16.6 BTU/min)$

Total sensible heat = 761.4 + 16.6 = 778.0 BTU/min or x 60 = 46,681. BTU/hr

8. Find enthalpy change for condensing water, latent heat.

$$H_{fg} = 42(1166-(460+58))^{1/2} = 1069. BTU/lb$$

dH/dt = 1069 BTU/lb x 144.2 lb/min x (0.0119-0.0082) c = 570.35 BTU/min or x 60 = 34,221 BTU/hr

9. Find Sensible Heat Ratio, SHR.

SHR = 46,681/(46,681 + 34,221) = 0.58 or 58 percent
10. Find cooling capacity in Tons.
C = (46,681 + 34,221)/12,000
= 6.74 Tons

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APPENDIX I. CALCULATOR PROGRAMS FOR ENERGY ANALYSIS

- Wall Component Conduction, Single Element 1
- 2 Wall Average Conduction, Multiple Element
- Free Convection, Vertical Flat Plate, Laminar
- Free Convection, Vertical Flat Plate, Turbulent
- Forced Convection, Flat Plate, Laminar
- 3456 Forced Convection, Round Tubes
- 7 Ambient Temperature and Compressible Temperature
- 8 Ambient Pressure and Compressible Pressure
- 9 Forced Convection, Flat Plate, High Velocity
- 10 Nucleate Pool Boiling
- 11 Peak Nucleate Pool Boiling
- 12 Minimum Film Boiling Wall Temperature
- Film Boiling Heat Flux 13
- Radiation Heat Gain
- 1<u>4</u> 15 Radiation Heat Loss
- 16 Heat Exchanger Efficiency
- 17 Water Vapor Pressure
- 18 Humidity Ratio at Dry Bulb Temperature
- 19 Humidity Ratio at Wet Bulb Temperature
- 20 Enthalpy of Air or Water Vapor
- 21 Vapor Pressure at Dry Bulb Temperature and Humidity

Programs are in duplicate for Algebraic and Reverse Polish Notation (RPN)

Algebraic logic is our conventional approach to equation solution with sets of brackets to indicate the order of execution. For example: $((3 \times 7) \text{ DIVIDE } 4) =$, produces $3 \times 7 = 21$, 21 DIVIDE4 = 5.25. This method is used by Texas Instruments in the SR-56 and the TI-57 and by Sharp in the Sharp 5100. Most other makers of calculators use this system.

RPN logic makes use of several calculation registers so that several values can be keyed in at one time to be followed by instructions which will be executed one at a time on the current visible register and the preceeding hidden register. For example: 7, ENTER, 3, X, produces 21. Then, 4, DI VIDE produces 5.25. This method is used by Hewlett-Packard in the HP-25 and subsequent models.

Loc.	WA <u>Name</u>	RPN LL COMP	PROGRAM 1 DNENT CONDU Value	CTION, S	INGLE Dimen	ELEMEN sion_	T	
0 1 2	A _x / k _x L _x	A	1.0 3.6 x 0.1	10 ⁻⁵	BTU/s feet	(Area ec-ft-	a ratio) -deg F)
		00 01 02 03 04 05 06	CL 1 CL 0 K CL 2 DIVIDE STOP	U _x , 3.	6 x 10	- ⁴ BTU) J/sec-ft	t ² -deg F
WA	LL AVE <u>Name</u>	RP RAGE COR	N PROGRAM NDUCTION, M Value	2. WITIPLE	ELEMEN Dimen	T sion		
0 1 2 3	U U2 U3 U3		3.6 x 0.40 1.26 x 10.0	10 ⁻⁴ : 10 ⁻³	BTU/s " "	ec-ft ² """ ""	-deg F " "	
	00 01 02 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15	RCL 0 1/x STO 7 RCL 1 1/x STO + 7 RCL 2 1/x STO + 7 RCL 3 1/x STO + 7 RCL 3 1/x STO + 7 RCL 7 1/x STOP	(GOTO 13 (GOTO 13 U, 2.79 x	if Loc. if Loc 3 : 10 ⁻⁴ BT	2 and is ze U/sec-	3 are ero) .ft ² -de	zero)	

		RPN PR	OGRAM	3.	
	E CONVECTI Name	ON, VERTIC. Value	AL FL#	T PLATE, I Dimension	
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	C1 C2 C3 dT P rL/k scratch	0.508 0.952 1.77 x 5. 7.9 10593.	10 ⁷	see note deg. F ft/(BTU/s	sec-ft-deg F)
		Note: C ₃ G _r P _r	= g ß <1 x	² 1 ³ /۳2 الم ⁹	
RCL 4 RCL 1 + 1 ENTER 4 DIVIDE Y ^X STO 7 RCL 2 RCL 2 RCL 3 X 1 ENTER 4 DIVIDE Y ^X RCL 7 DIVIDE STO 7 RCL 4			22 23 256 28 90 33 33 35 35	1 ENTER 2 DIVIDE Y ^X STO X 7 RCL 0 STO X 7 RCL 7 RCL 7 RCL 5 DIVIDE RCL 3 X STOP	N _u , 80.29 h, 7.6 x 10 ⁻⁴ BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F Q/A, 0.0379 BTU/sec-ft ²

		FRI	EE CONVECTION	RPN PR	OGRAM CAL FI	4 AT PLATE,	TURBULENT
	2 3 4 5 6 7	$\frac{\begin{array}{c} Name \\ C_1 \\ C_2 \\ C_4 \\ dr \\ P_r \\ k^r \\ scrate \\ scrate \end{array}$	Value 0.23 0.33 3.38 x 10 20. 0.72 3.72 x 10 ch ch	Dimen 0 ⁶ see deg 0 ⁻⁶ BTU/	<u>sion</u> note F sec-ft	Note:	$C_{l_{1}} = g\beta \rho^{2} / \mu^{2}$ $G_{r} = C_{l_{1}} L^{3} dT$ $G_{r} P_{r} > 1 \ge 10^{9}$
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08	RCI RCI X STC RCI RCI X RCI				09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17	X RCL 1 Y ^X STO X 6 RCL 6 STOP RCL 3 X STOP	h, 2.98 x 10 ⁻⁴ BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F Q/A, 0.0060 ₂ BTU/sec-ft
		FC Loc. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	$\begin{array}{c c} P \\ L^{r} \\ k \\ V \\ \ell \\ dT \cdot C_{1} \\ scratch \\ \end{array}$	RPN PR ION, FL alue 7.9 1.5 9.44 x 4.0 1.94 2.34 x 100.664	OGRAM AT PLA 10 ⁻⁵ 10 ⁻⁵	5 TE, LAMINA <u>Dimension</u> ft BTU/sec-f ft/sec slugs/ft ³ lb-sec/ft deg F	R t-deg F 2 ⁼ (1b/ft ³)/32.2 ft /sec ²
00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	RCI RCI X RCI X RCI DIV STC SQR STC RCI 1 ENT 3 DIV	, 1 , 3 , 4 , 5 , 1 , 7 , 7 , 7 , 7 , 0 , 0 , 0 , 0 , 0 , 0 , 1 , 1 , 3 , 1 , 3 , 4 , 5 , 7 , 7 , 0 , 7 , 0 , 1 , 1 , 3	Rn, 497,435 (Must be leathan 500,000	• 55 0)	16 17 18 20 21 22 23 24 25 27 28 29 30	Y ^X STO X 7 RCL 6 FRAC STO X 7 RCL 1 RCL 2 DI VIDE RCL 7 IN VERT DI VIDE RCL 6 INTEGER X STOP	N _u h, 0.0587 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F' Q/A, 5.87 BTU/sec-ft ²

			RPN PROGRAM	м 6.			
		FORCED	CONVECTION, ROUN	ND TUB	BES, LAMINA	R AND	TURBULENT
	Loc.	Name	Value		Dimension		
	0	Dia.	0.0254		feet		
	1	C ₁	25.25			2	
	2	μ'	0.00008		lb-sec/ft	L	
	3	02.03	3000.023				
	4	C_{1}^{2}	4 . 36 r				
	5	k ⁴	3.6×10^{-5}		BTU/sec-f	t-deg	F
	6	scratch					
	7	Pr	1.9				
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07	IN P RCL DI V RCL DI V RCL DI V RCL	UT dW 1 IDE 0 IDE 2 IDE 3	0.01 laminar 0.30 turb. lb/sec R . 195. lamin;	17 18 19 20 21 22 23 ar2)	8 Y STO 6 RCL 7 4 Y		
08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16	IF (GO T RCL RCL X RCL DI V GO T ROL	(x ∢ y) TO 16 5 4 0 IDE TO 34	n 5847. turb. h, laminar 0.0062 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg	25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 F	RCL 6 X RCL 3 FRAC X RCL 5 X RCL 0 DIVIDE	h. 1	turb.,0.043
		_	,	33	STOP	BTÚ/ :	sec-ft ² -deg F

	AMBIE	NT TEMPERA	RPN PRO)GRAM PRESSI	7. IBLE TEMPER	RATURI	E	
	Loc.	Name	Value	Dir	nension	-		
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	T _{s1} Height C ₂ c _p /c _v M ⁿ _n scratch scratch	519.69 25. -0.007888 460. 1.4 2.0	deg 100 	g R. 00 feet nversion			
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13	RCL 2 RCL 1 X e RCL 0 X STO 6 STOP RCL 4 1 - 2 DI VI DE	т _о , 426	deg. R	14 15 17 18 20 21 23 24 25 26	STO 7 RCL 5 SQUARE STO X 7 1 STO + 7 RCL 7 RCL 7 RCL 6 X STOP RCL 3 - STOP	Τ _s , Τ _s ,	768 . 308.	deg R deg. F

		RPN PR	OGRAM	8			
T	AMBIENT	PRESSURE AND	COMPR	ESSIBLE P	RESSUE	₹E	
roc.	Name	Value	יובע	nension			
0 1 2 3 4 5	C ₁ C ₂ Height c _{p/c} v M _M v	2116. -0.0414 20. 1.4 1.0	11 10 	/ft ² 000 feet 			
6	scratch	1					
7	C ₃	144.	cr	nversion			
00 01 RCL 1 02 RCL 2 03 X 04 e ^X 05 RCL 0 06 X 07 STO 5 08 RCL 3 09 1 10 - 11 2 12 DI VIDE 13 RCL 4 14 SQUARE 15 X 16 1	P ₀ , 92	24. 16/ft ²	17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 27 28 29 31 32 33	+ STO 6 RCL 3 1 - RCL 3 IN VERT DI VIDE RCL 6 IN VERT Y ^X RCL 5 X STOP RCL 7 DI VIDE STOP	P _s , P _x ,	1750 . 12 . 15	lb/ft ² lb/in ²

			RPN PR	OGRAM	9, Part 1	of 4
	Loc.	FORCED CONVEC Name	TION, F Value	LAT P	LATE, HIGE Dimens	sion
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	$ \begin{array}{c} T_{O} \\ C_{1} \\ m_{n} \\ g \\ c_{p} \\ \mu^{p} \\ k \\ scratch \end{array} $	400. 0.207 1.5 32.2 0.241 3.97 x 6.94 x	10 ⁻⁷ 10 ⁻⁶	deg F ft/se BTU/I lb-se BTU/s	ec ² b-deg F ec/ft ² sec-ft-deg F
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13	RCL 2 SQUARE RCL 1 X STO 7 1 + RCL 0 X STOP RCL 3 RCL 4 X	T _s , 586. deg	R	14 15 17 18 20 21 22 23 24 25 27	RCL 5 X RCL 6 DIVIDE STOP SQRT STOP RCL 7 X 1 + RCL 0 X STOP	P _r , 0.44 r, 0.666 T _{aw} , 524. deg R
	Loc	• Name	RPN PR Value	OGRAM	9, Part 2 Dimens	c of 4 ion
	0 1 2 3 4 7	T _O T _{aw} T _{wall} C1 C2 scratch	400. 524. 450. 0.22 2402.		deg R deg R deg R kgR =	1.4 x 32.2 x (1544/53.3)
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10	RCL 1 RCL 0 RCL 3 X STO 7 RCL 2 RCL 0 2		80	11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21	DIVIDE RCL 7 + RCL 0 + STOP RCL 4 RCL 0 X SQRT STOP	T _{bl} , 452. deg R V _c , 980. ft/sec

	FORC Loc.	RPN CED CONVECTION, Name	PROGRAM 9, FLAT PLATE Value	Part 3 of <i>l</i> , HIGH VELOC 	ITY ion
	0 1 2 3 4	L M V ⁿ C	10. 1.5 980. 7.37 x 10 3.97 x 10	ft ft/se 7 lb-se	ec /ft ³ = (lb/ft ³)/32.2 c/ft ²
00 01 02 03 04 05	RCL O RCL 1 X RCL 2 X		06 07 08 09 10	RCL 3 X RCL 4 DIVIDE STOP	R_n , 2.729 x 10 ⁷
	Loc.	RPN F	ROGRAM 9, P. Value	art 4 of 4	Dimension
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Pr Rn C1 C2 C3 TeW. Twallscratch	0.44 2.73 x 10 0.029 (turi 0.332 (lam 0.80 (turi 0.50 (lam 1.44 x 10 ⁰ 524. 523.	0 ⁷ bulent) inar) bulent) inar)	 (L/k) = 10./(6.94 deg R x 10 ⁻⁶) deg R
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11	RCL O 1 ENTER 3 DIVIDE y ^X STO 7 RCL 1 RCL 3 y RCL 7 X		13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21	RCL 2 X RCL 4 DIVIDE RCL 5 RCL 6 - X STOP	h, 0.0136 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F Q/A, 0.0136

			RPN PROGR	AM 10	
	Loc.	NUC Name	Value	OILING Dimens	ion
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6	Twall ^{-T} sa Pfg c ^r csf g liq C ₁	20. 970. 1.9 1.0 0.013 2.05 x 10 124.	deg F BTU/1 BTU/1 BTU/1 -4 lb/se (see :	b b-deg F c-ft note) 1/2
	Note:	$C_1 = ((g/g_0))$) ((gp _{liq} - g	r (معر م))''2
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10	RCL 3 RCL 0 X RCL 1 DIVIDE RCL 4 DIVIDE RCL 2 1		1 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 22 22	1 7 2 y ^x 3 DIVIDE 4 3 5 y ^x 6 RCL 5 7 X 8 RCL 1 9 X 0 RCL 6 1 X 2 STOP	Q/A,

3.726 BTU/sec-ft²

		P	ፑል κ ΜΠΟ	R] ፲፱፻	PN PR	GRAM	11				
		Loc.	Name		Value	LUX		D	imens	ion	
		0 1 2 3 4 5 6	C_1 a/g P_r g_{C_2} scrate	:h	26.87 1.0 1.88 0.00 1036. 62.33	7 3 04 •8 3		-	lb/ft (ft/s lb/ft	(56 ec ²) 2 (5	ee note) 2 see note)
		Note:	C ₁ =	0.144	h _{fg} (g	SP vap) ^{1/2}				
			° ₂ =	(g ρ_{li}	q - g(o _{vap})	² /g	liq			
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12	RCL 5 RCL 4 X RCL 3 X SQRT SQRT SQRT STO 6 RCL 2 2 4 5					14 15 16 17 18 20 21 22 23 24 25 26	CHG y STO RCL 2 5 y STO RCL STO RCL STO	SGN X 6 1 X 6 X 6 X 6	Q	/A,	
ر.)								92	.3 1	BTU/sec-ft ²

	Loc. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6	MINIMUM F Name Sp.Gr. A Colv Corit Cl Scratch	RPN ULM BOI Value 2.71 26.9 0.004 1164. 0.144 0.99	PROGRAM	12 L TEMPERA: Dimension Specific Atomic we Liquid sn Liquid, o	TURE Gravity of wall eight of wall urface tension, lb/ft deg R
00 01 02 03 05 06 78 910 11 23	RCL 0 RCL 1 DIVIDE RCL 4 yx STO 6 RCL 5 STO X 6 RCL 2 3 1/x CHG SCN yx			14 15 16 17 18 19 21 22 23 45 6 78 29	STO X 6 RCL 6 STOP CHG SGN e ^x CHG SGN 1 + RCL 3 INVERT X, y ^x 1 • 5 X STOP	m, 2.25 y ^T Leid., 830. deg R (370. deg F)

			RPN PRO	OGRAM	13, Part	1 of 2
	Loc.	Name	Value_		Dimension	ı
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	P hfg c pdf D vap (liq (vap	0.94 700. 0.47 200. 3.9 x 10 0.10 1.86 8.01 x 10	7 -4	,vapo BTU/lb vapor, deg F lb-sec/1 ft (lb/ft ³ /	or BTU/lb-deg F ft ² ((32.2 ft/sec ²) "
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13	RCL 1 RCL 2 DIVIDE RCL 3 DIVIDE STOP RCL 5 RCL 4 DIVIDE SQUARE RCL 5 X RCL 6	⊖, 7.45		14 15 17 18 20 21 22 24 25 27 26 27	RCL 7 X RCL 7 X 3 2 2 2 X STOP RCL 0 X STOP	G_{r} , 3.15 x 10 ⁸ R_{a} , 2.96 x 10 ⁸
	Loc.	Name	RPN PRO Value	OGRAM	13, Part 2 Dimension	2 of 2
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	R _a D Kvap C1 Tc Tsat T _{wall}	7.45 2.96 x 10 ⁶ 0.10 9.0 x 10 0.94 1165. 672. 860.	3 4	feet BTU/sec-f deg R deg R deg R	t-deg F
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11	RCL O RCL 6 RCL 5 DIVIDE SQUARE DIVIDE RCL 1 X SQRT SQRT RCL 4		87	12 13 14 15 16 17 18 20 21 22 23	X STOP RCL 3 X RCL 2 DIVIDE STOP RCL 7 RCL 6 - X STOP	N _u , 268. h, 2.41 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F 453 Q/A, BTU/sec-f

Q/A , BTU/sec-ft 2

		Loc	I RADIATI Name	RPN PROG ON HEAT (Value	RAM 14 GAIN	Dimension
		0 1 2 3 4 5 6	T Tsource St-By const. Area object Relative rad. es x a scnatch	5000. 500. 4.758 x 10. 2.5 x 1 0.9	10 ⁻¹³	deg R deg R BTU/ft ² -sec-deg R ⁴ ft ² , $(r_1/r_2)^2$
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09	RCL 1 4 yx STO 6 RCL 0 4 yx RCL 6			10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	RCL 2 X RCL 3 X RCL 4 X RCL 5 X STOP	Q, 6.69 BTU/sec

RPN PROGRAM 15 RADIATION HEAT LOSS

		Loc.	Name	Value	Dimension
		0 1 2 3 上	Tbody Tbackground S _t -B const. Area ^z object	500. 460. 4.758 x 10 ⁻¹³ 100.	deg R deg R BTU/sec-ft ² -deg R ⁴ ft ²
		5 6	e stratch	0.8	
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08	RCL 1 4 yx STO 6 RCL 0 4 yx RCL 6			09 - 10 RCL 2 11 X 12 RCL 3 13 X 14 RCL 5 15 X 16 STOP	Q, 0,67 BTU/sec

	Loc.	RI HEAT E Name	PN PROGR XCHANGER Value	AM 16 EFFIC	, Part 1 of 3 CIENCY Dimension	
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	dWc dWh cp-c cp-h A U scratch scratch	2.5 1.5 0.99 1.10 20.0 0.25		lb/sec lb/sec cold, BTU/1 hot, BTU/1 ft ² BTU/sec-ft ²	b-deg F b-deg F -deg F
00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13	RCL 0 RCL 2 X STOP STO 6 RCL 1 RCL 3 X STO 7 STOP RCL 6 IF(x les GO TO 16	c _c , (2.48) c _h , (1.65) s than y)	= x = y	14 15 16 17 20 21 22 24 26 27	DIVIDE GO TO 19 STO 7 INVERT, x,y DIVIDE STO 6 STOP RCL 4 RCL 5 X RCL 7 DIVIDE STO 7 STOP	C _{mir} /C _{max} (0.67) C _{min} N _{tu} (3.03)

		Loc.	F COUNTER Name	RPN PROGRAM RFLOW HEAT Value_	1 16, Part EXCHANGER Dimer	; 2 of 3 R EFFICII nsion	ENCY		
		6 7	C _{min} /C _{max} N _{tu}	0.67 3.03					
28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37	1 RCL 6 - RCL 7 CHG SG X e ^X STO 7 RCL 6 X	łN		38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47	1 IN VERT - STO 6 RCL 7 1 IN VERT - RCL 6 DI VIDE ST OP	х,у х,у	eff.	, (0.84
		Loc.	RI PARALLEL F Name	PN PROGRAM LOW HEAT E Value	1 16, Part XCHANGER Dimer	; 3 of 3 EFFICIEN nsion	1CX		
		6 7	C _{min} /C _{max} N _{tu}	0.67 3.03					

		° a			
28 29 30 31 32 33 34	1 RCL 6 + RCL 7 X CHG SGN e ^X		35 36 37 38 39 41 42 43	1 INVERT x,y - STO 7 RCL 6 1 + RCL 7 INVERT x.y	
			43 44	IN VERT X.Y DI VIDE	
			45	STOP	eff ., 0 . 60

	RPN PRO WATER VAPOR	GRAM 17 R PRESSURE			
	Loc. Name Val	lue Dime	nsion		
	0 Temp. Const. 2 1 C ₁ 7.2 2 C ₂ -3.5 3 Crit. Temp. 11 4 Scratch	460 Deg. 262 305 65. Deg	R. R.		
	$P = log^{-1} (C_1 + C_2 (1/$	(T/T _c)))			
00 01 02 03 04 05	Enter Value, 32. deg F RCL O + RCL 3 DI VIDE 1/X	06 07 08 09 10 11	RCL 2 X RCL 1 + 10 ^x STOP	P = 0.0917	psi

RPN PROGRAM 18

_

Loc.	Name Value	Dimension
0 1 2 3 4 5 6	$\begin{array}{cccc} & W_2 & ratio & 0.012 \mu \\ & T_1 & dry & bulb & 80. \\ & T_2 & wet & bulb & 6 \mu \\ & c_{pa} & & 0.2 \mu \\ & c_{pv} & & 0.4 \mu \\ & H_1^{pv} & & 1101. \\ & H_1^{g} & & 20.3 \end{array}$	Lb water/lb dry air Deg F Deg. F BTU/lb-deg F, specific heat """" BTU/lb, heat of evaporiz. BTU/lb, heat of sat. liquid
T	$W_1 = W_2 - ((T_1 - T_2))$	$c_{pa} + c_{pv}))/(H_g - H_1)$
00 01 RCL 0 02 RCL 4 03 X 04 RCL 3 05 + 06 RCL 1 07 RCL 2 08 -		09 X 10 RCL 5 11 RCL 6 12 - 13 DIVIDE 14 CHG SGN 15 RCL 0 16 + 17 STOP W = 0.0088 lb/lb

RPN PROGRAM 19

HUN	LLULTY RATI	O AT WEL BUI	LB TEMPERATURE
Loc.	Name	Value	Dimension
0	M/M	0.6215	
1	v Pa	0.2947	psi, vapor pressure
2	P_{atm}	14.69	Atmosp. Press, psia

	W ₂	= (M_V/M_a)	$P_{v'}(P_{atm} -$	P) v	
00			05	INVERT	
01	RCL 2		06	DIVIDE	
02	RCL 1		07	RCL O	
03	-		08	Х	
04	RCL 1		09	STOP	$W_2 = 0.0127 \text{ lb/lb}$

RPN PROGRAM 20 ENTHALPY OF AIR OR WATER VAPOR Loc. Name Value Dimension Air Water 1202. 0.3 860. 460 1.0 925. 9.8 1166. 460. 0.7 01231 C1 C2 C3 C3 n4 Reference, deg R $H = C_1 - C_2 (C_3 - (460 + T))^n$ y^x RCL 1 Enter T, 64 deg F 07 00 RCL 3 08 01 02 + 09 Х CHG SGN CHG SGN 03 10 04 RCL 2 RCL O 11 05 12 + + 06 RCL 4 13 STOP H= 20.31 water H= 1101.2 air BTU/lb

		I	PN PROGRAM	21		
	VAPOR PRESSURE AT DRY BULB TEMPERATURE					
		AND	RELATI VE H	UMIDITY		
	Loc.	Name	Value	Dimensio	n	
	0	W ₁	0.0088	Humidity	ratio, lb/lb	
	1	P'atm	14.69	psia		
	2	M_/M_	1.6088			
	3	P _{w-sat}	0.5015	pai		
	_		- () (/ -			
	P _v 1	= $W_1 P_{atm}$ (1	$(1 + \frac{M}{v})/(1 + \frac{M}{v})$	(M_a/M_v)	v ₁)	
	Ø	= P /P				
	Þ	'v1''v-sat	D			
00			08	DI VI DE		
01	RCL O		09	RCL 1		
02	RCL 2		10	Х		
03	Х		11	RCLO		
04	1		12	Х		
05	+		13	STOP	$P_{v1} = 0.2051 \text{ psi}$	
06	RCL 2		14	RCL 3	VI	
07	INVERT		15	DI VI DE		
			16	STOP	$\emptyset = 0.409 \text{ or } 41$	%

		WALL Loc.	ALGE COMPONEN Name	BRAIC PROG T CONDUCTIO Value	RAM I ON,	NUMBER 1 SINGLE ELEM Dimension	ENT		
		0 1 2	A _x /A k L _x	1.0 3.6 x 10 ⁻⁵ 0.1	วี	(Area BTU/sec-ft feet	ratic -deg) F	
LRN 00 01 02 03 04	RCL O X RCL 1 EQUAL				05 06 07 08	DIVIDE RCL 2 EQUAL R/S LRN	U _x ,	3.6 x 10 ⁻⁴ , BTU/sec-ft ² -deg	2 g F

		WA Loc.	ALGI LL COMPO <u>Name</u>	EBRAIC PROGRAM DNENT CONDUCTIO	NUMBER 2 N, MULTIPLE Dimension	ELEMENT
		0 1 2 3 7	U ₁ U ₂ U3 UJ strate	3.6×10^{-4} 0.40 1.26 x 10^{-3} 10.0 ch	BTU/sec-ft ² " "	-deg F
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07	O STO 7 RCL 0 SBR 1 RCL 1 SBR 1 RCL 2			08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17	SBR 1 RCL 3 SBR 1 RCL 7 1/x R/S 2nd Lbl 1 1/x SUM 7 INV SBR LRN	U, 2.79 x 10 ⁻⁴ BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F

ALGEBRAIC PROGRAM 3 FREE CONVECTION, VERTICAL FLAT PLATE, LAMINAR							
	Loc.	Name	Value	Dim	ension		
	0 1 2 3 4 6	d T •C ₁ C ₂ C3 P LŽk scratch	5.508 0.952 1.77 x 10 ⁷ 7.9 10593.	deg See ft/	F (doubl note (BTU/sec-ft-d	e storage) leg F)	
			Note:	C3 = g	β L ³ γ ² /μ	2	
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 06 07 08 09 11 12 13 14 15 17 18 20 21 22	RCL 3 + RCL 1 EQUAL yX • 2 5 EQUAL STO 6 RCL 0 2nd Int X RCL 2 EQUAL yX • 2 5 EQUAL DI VIDE RCL 6	G _r ,8	8.85 x 10 ⁷	2345678901233456789012345	EQUAL STO 6 RCL 3 Y 5 EQUAL 2nd Prd 6 RCL 0 Inv 2nd Int 2nd Prd 6 RCL 6 DIVIDE RCL 4 EQUAL R/S STO 6 RCL 0 2nd Int X RCL 6 EQUAL R/S LRN	Nu h, 0.00758 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F Q/A, 0.0379 BTU/sec-ft ²	
	$G_{r} P_{r} = 6.99 \times 10^{\circ}$						

			ALGEBRAIC PRO	gram 4	
	_	FREE CONVE	CTION, VERTICAL	FLAT PLATE,	TURBULENT
	Loc.	Name	Value	Dimension	
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	$ \begin{array}{c} C_1\\ C_2\\ C_{l_4}\\ dT\\ P_r\\ k\\ scratch\\ L\\ Note: C_{l_4} \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{r} 0.23 \\ 0.33 \\ 3.38 \times 10^{6} \\ 20. \\ 0.72 \\ 3.72 \times 10^{-6} \\ \\ 4.0 \end{array}$ $= g g r^{2} / \mu^{2}$	see note deg F BTU/sec-ft- ft	deg F = C _{1.} L ³ dT
		4 G	P must exceed	r 1 v 10 ⁹	4
		^G r	r	I X IU	
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10	(RCL 0 X RCL 5) STO 6 (RCL 2 X RCL 1		17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28	2nd Prd 6 RCL 6 R/S (RCL 7 y ^X 3 EQUAL X RCL 2 X RCL 2	h, 2.95 x 10 ⁻⁴ BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F
10 11 12 13 14 15 16	RCL 4 X RCL 3) yx RCL 1 EQUAL		28 29 30 31 32	RCL 3 X RCL 4) R/S LRN	G _r P _r , 3.1 x 10 ⁹
	Loc.	ALGEBF FORCED CONVECT Name Valu	AIC PROGE	RAM 5 PLATE, LAMINAR Dimension	
---	---	--	--	--	---
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	$ \begin{array}{cccc} P & 7.9 \\ L^r & 1.5 \\ k & 9.4 \\ V & 4.0 \\ \rho & 1.9 \\ \rho & 2.3 \\ df.C & 100 \\ scratch & \\ \end{array} $	4×10^{-5} 4×10^{-5} 664	ft BTU/sec-ft-deg ft/sec ₃ (lb/ft ³)/(32.2 lb-sec/ft ² deg F	F ft/sec ²)
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13	(RCL 1 X RCL 3 X RCL 4 DIVIDE RCL 5) R/S SQRT STO 7 ECL 0	R _n , 497,435.	18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	2nd Prd 7 RCL 6 INV 2nd Int 2nd Prd 7 (RCL 7 X RCL 2 DIVIDE RCL 1) R/S X RCL 6 2nd Int	Nu h, 0.6597 BTU/sec -ft ² -deg F
14 15 16 17	yx 3 1/x EQUAL		33 34	EQUAL R/S LRN	Q/A, 5.869 BTU/sec -ft ²

		ALGEE	RAIC PROG	RAM 6	5	
	FORCED C Loc. Na	ON VECTION, me	ROUND TUE Value	ES, I	AMINAR AND TU	RBULENT
	0 D 1 C 2 C 3 C 4 C 5 k 7 s	ia. 1.C ₂ 3 rcratch, t	0.0254 25.29 3000.023 0.00008 4.36 3.6 x 10 1.9	5	feet lb-sec/ft ² BTU/sec-ft-d	eg F
LRN 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	Enter dW DI VIDE (RCL 1 X RCL 0 X RCL 3) EQUAL R/S STO 7 RCL 2 2nd Int x t 2nd x > t SBR 1 (RCL 4 X RCL 5 DI VIDE RCL 0) R/S	0.01 La 0.30 Tu R _n , 195. 5838	minar rb., lb/se laminar . turb.	256 290123456789012345678	GO TO 2 2nd Lbl 1 Y ^X 8 EQUAL STO 7 RCL 6 Y 4 EQUAL 2nd Prd 7 RCL 2 IN V 2nd Int 2nd Prd 7 (RCL 7 X RCL 5 DI VIDE RCL 0) R/S LRN	h, turb. 0.0434 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F
		BTU/sec-f	t-deg F			

		ALGE	BRAIC PRO	GRAM	7			
	AMBIEN	T TEMPERATU	RE AND CO	MPRES	SIBLE TEMPE	RATUR	E	
	Loc.	Name	Value		Dimensio	n		
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	T Height C1 C2/c _v M ^p stratch scratch	519.69 25. -0.007 460. 1.4 2.0 	888	deg R (t 1000 fee conversi Ratio of 	emp.(t on fa spec:	@ sea ctor ific l	level) meats
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15	RCL 2 X RCL 1 EQUAL INV ln x X RCL 0 EQUAL STO 6 R/S RCL 4 - 1 EQUAL DI VIDE	т _о , 426. с	leg R	16 17 18 20 21 22 23 24 26 27 28 29 31 32	2 EQUAL STO 7 RCL 5 SQUARE 2nd Prd 7 1 SUM 7 RCL 7 X RCL 7 X RCL 6 EQUAL R/S - RCL 3 EQUAL R/S LRN	Τ _s , Τ _s ,	768 . 308.	deg R deg R

	Loc. 0 1 2 3 4	AMBIENT PRE <u>Name</u> C C C C L C L C C L C C C C C C C C C C C C C	ALGEBRAIC SSURE AND Value 2116. -0.0414 20. 1.4 1.0	PROGE COMPR	AM 8 ESSIBLE PRI Dimensio 1b/ft ² 1000. 1 	ESSURE on (press. ft	@ sea	level)
	5 6 7	scratch scratch scratch	 					
LRN 00 01 02 03 05 06 07 08 09 01 12 13 14 56 17 18 92 12 23 24	RCL 1 X RCL 2 EQUAL INV ln X X RCL 0 EQUAL STO 5 RCL 3 - 1 EQUAL DI VIDE 2 EQUAL STO 6 RCL 4 SQUARE X RCL 6 EQUAL + 1	P ₀ , 924.	lb/ft ²	2567890123345678901234456789	EQUAL STO 6 RCL 3 - 1 EQUAL DIVIDE RCL 3 EQUAL 1/x STO 7 RCL 6 y ^x RCL 7 EQUAL X RCL 7 EQUAL X RCL 5 EQUAL R/S DIVIDE 1 4 EQUAL R/S LRN	P _s , P _s ,1	1750.	lb/ft ² lb/in ²

				ALGEBI	RAIC PRO	GRAM 9, Part	1 of 4	
		Loc.	FOR <u>Name</u>	CED CON Value	VECTION	, FLAT PLATE, Dimension	HIGH VELOCITY	
		01234567	r_0 m_1 g^n c_p μ_k scratch	400. 0.207 1.5 32.2 0.241 3.97 6.94	7 x 10 ⁻⁷ x 10 ⁻⁶	deg R (7 -1)/2 ft/sec ² BTU/1b-deg lb-sec/ft ² BTU/sec-ft	F -deg F	
LRN 001 003 005 007 009 01112 1345 167 18920	RCL 0 X (RCL 2 SQUARE X RCL 1 + 1) EQUAL R/S (RCL 3 X RCL 4 X RCL 5 DIVIDE RCL 6		T _s , 586.	deg R	21 22 23 25 27 29 31 33 45 67 8 33 35 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33 33) R/S SQRT R/S X RCL 2 SQUARE EQUAL X RCL 1 EQUAL X RCL 1 EQUAL X RCL 0 EQUAL X RCL 0 EQUAL R/S LRN	P _r , 0.142 r, 0.664 T _{aw} , 523. deg	R

		Loc	FORC	ALG ED CONV	EBRAIC ECTION, Value	PROGRAM FLAT PI	9, Part 2 ATE, HIGH Dimension	of 4 VELOCITY	
		0 1 2 3 4 5	T T C S	0 aw wall 1 2 cratch	400. 523. 450. 0.22 2402	• 7	deg R deg R deg R g R = 1	•4 x 32•2 x 53•3	
LRN 00 01 02 03 05 06 07 09 10 11 12 13 14 5 16	 (RCL : (RCL :)) STO : (5 X (RCL :	3 1 5 2				17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 26 27 28 29 30 31 32	- RCL O) SUM 5 RCL 0 SUM 5 RCL 5 R/S (RCL 4 X RCL 0) SQRT R/S LRN	T _{bl} , 452. degR V _c , 980. ft/sec	2
			Loc.	ALGEB Name	RAIC PRO	GRAM 9,	Part 3 o: Dimensi	fЦ ion	
			0 1 2 3 4	L V V C V	10.0 1.5 980 7.3 3.9) 7 x 10 ⁻⁴ 7 x 10-7	ft ft/sec, (lb/ft- lb-sec,	³)/(32.2 ft/sec ²) /ft ²	
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06	(RCL (X RCL 7 X RCL 2) 1 2				07 08 09 10 11 12	X RCL 3 DIVIDE RCL 4) R/S LRN	R _n , 2.729 x 1	10 ⁷

	Loc.	Name	ALGEBR FORCED CONVEC Value	AIC CTION	PROGI	RAM 9 AT PI	, Pa ATE, Dime	art 4 of 4 , HIGH VELOCITY ension
	0 1 23456	P Rn L/k T _{aw} T _{wall} scrat C ₁	0.44 3.00 x 2.73 x 1.44 x 524, 523. 0.332 0.029	105 107 10 ⁶ lam	lamin turbu inar bulen	nar ul.	(exa 10. deg deg	- ample) ft/(6.94 x 10 ⁻⁶) R. R.
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13	RCL O yx 3 1/x EQUAL STO 5 RCL 1 yx 5 (lami EQUAL 2nd Pro RCL 6	nar), 8 15	(turbulent)		14 15 17 18 20 22 23 24 26 27	2nd RCL DIVJ RCL EQU/ R/S X (RCL - RCL) EQU/ R/S LRN	Prd 5 IDE 2 L h, 3 4 L Q/	 5 9.6 x 10⁻⁵ laminar 0.0136 turbulent BTU/sec-ft²-deg F A, 9.6 x 10⁻⁵ laminar 0.0136 turbulent BTU/sec-ft²

		AI	GEBRAIC PROG	RAM 10	
	Loc.	NUCI Name	LEATE POOL BO	ILING Dimension	
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Twall-Tsat hfg Pr cp csg g/~ C1 scratch	20. 970. 1.9 1.0 0.013 2.05 x 10 ⁻ 124.	deg F BTU/lb BTU/lb-deg H lb/sec-ft see note	F
		Note: $C_1 = ($	(g/g ₀) ((g/g)	/(_{vap} - gرa - p	$(\sigma'))^{1/2}$
LRN 00 01 02 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	(RCL 3 X RCL 0) STO 7 (RCL 2 yx 1 7 EQUAL X RCL 1 X RCL 1 X RCL 4		18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34) 1/x 2nd Prd 7 RCL 7 y ^x 3 EQUAL X (RCL 5 X RCL 5 X RCL 1 X RCL 6) EQUAL R/S LRN	Q/A, 3.726 BTU/ sec-ft ²

			AL PEAK NI	GEBRAIC PROG	RAM 11 FUIX	
		Loc.	Name	Value	Dimension	<u>1</u>
		0 1 2 3 4 5 6	C1 a/g Pr g g ₀ C2 scratch	26.87 1.0 1.88 0.004 1036. 62.33	see note lb/ft (32.2 ft/s see note	$\sec^2)^2$
		Note:	С ₁ = 0.144 С ₂ = (gрі	$\frac{h_{fg} (g \rho_v)^2}{-g \rho_v)^2/g \rho}$	' 1	
LRN 00 02 03 05 06 07 08 90 11 23 14 15	(RCL 5 X RCL 4 X RCL 3) y 4 1/x EQUAL STO 6 RCL 2 y			16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	2 4 5 CHG SGN EQUAL 2nd Prd 6 RCL 1 y ^x 4 1/x EQUAL 2nd Prd 6 RCL 0 2nd Prd 6 RCL 0 2nd Prd 6 RCL 6 R/S LRN	Q/A, 92.3 BTU/sec-ft ²

	MINIM	A: UM FILM BOI <u>Name</u>	LGEBRAIC LING WALL Value	PROGI TEMI	RAM 12 PERATURE Dimension				
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6	Sp. Gr. A Glv Tcrit C1 c1 scratch	2.71 26.9 0.00Ц 116Ц. 0.ЦЦЦ 0.99		Specific gr Atomic numk Liquid surf Liquid, deg	ravity of per of wa Cace tens g R	wall 11 ion, 1	lb/f	t
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17	RCL 0 DIVIDE RCL 1 EQUAL YX RCL 4 EQUAL ST 0 6 RCL 2 YX 3 1/x CHG SGN EQUAL 2nd Prd 6 RCL 5 2nd Prd 6			18 19 21 22 22 22 26 28 29 31 23 34 35 3 3 33 35 37	RCL 6 R/S CHG SGN INV ln x STO 6 1 - RCL 6 EQUAL STO 6 RCL 3 Y ^x RCL 6 EQUAL X 1 5 EQUAL X	m, 2.2	5 830. 370.	deg deg	RF

				ALGEBRAIC P	ROGRA	M 13, Part 1	of 2	
		Loc.	Name	Value		Dimension		
		0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Prv hfg Cpv dT Dv C 1 C v	0.94 700. 0.47 200. 3.9 x 10-7 0.10 1.86 8.01 x 10 ⁻⁷	4	BTU/1b BTU/1b-deg deg F 1b-sec/ft ² ft (1b/ft ³)/(3	F 32.2 ft/sec "	2 ²)
LRN 00 01 02 03 05 06 07 08 09 11 12 14 15 16 17 18	RCL DIVI (RCL X RCL) EQUA R/S ((RCL) DIVI (RCL) DIVI	1 DE 2 3 L 5 DE 4	⊖, 7.45		19 21 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	y ^x 2) X (RCL 6 - RCL 7) X 3 2 2 X RCL 7) R/S X RCL 0 EQUAL R/S	G _r , 3.15 R _a , 2.96	x 10 ⁸ x 10 ⁸

				ALGEBRAIC	PROG	RAM 13 Part	2 of 2
		Loc.	Name	Value	-	Dimension	
		01234567	€ R _a D C1 Tc Tsat Twall	7.45 2.96 x 0.10 9.0 x 1 0.94 1165. 672. 860.	10 ⁸ 0-4	ft BTU/sec-ft deg R deg R deg R	-deg F
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 07	(CL 6 DIVIDE RCL 5 EQUAL				21 22 23 25 25 27 28 29 29	X RCL 4 EQUAL R/S X (RCL 3 DIVIDE RCL 2	N _u , 268.
00 09 10 11 12 13 14	CHG SGN EQUAL X RCL O X RCL 1)	1			30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37) EQUAL X (RCL 7 - RCL 6)	h, 2.41 BTU/sec-ft ² -deg F
17 17 18 19 20	y 4 1/x EQUAL)				38 39	EQUAL R/S LRN	Q/A, 453. BTU/sec-ft ²

		I	LGEBRAIC F	ROGR	AM 14		
	Loc.	Name	Value	EAT.	GALN	Dimension	_
	0 1 2 3 4 5	${f T}_{source} {f T}_{body} {f S}_{t} - {f B}_{Area} {f Z}_{bog} {f (r_b/r_s)}^2 {f e}_s {f x}^a {f a}_b$	5000. 500. 4.758 x ty 10. 2.5 x 0.9	: 10 ⁻ : 10 ^{-,}	13 3	deg R deg R BTU/sec-1 ft ² square of	t ² -deg R ⁴ relative radius
(RCL y ^x 4 - RCL y ^x 4) X	0 1			11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21	(RCL 2 X RCL 3 RCL 4 X RCL 5) EQUAL R/S LRN	Q, 6.	.69 BTU/sec
	Loc.	A Name	LGEBRAIC P RADIATION Value	ROGR. HEAT	AM 15 LOSS	Dimension	
	0 1 2 3 4	Tbody Tbackg St-B _z Area t e b	500. Found 460 4.758 body 100. 0.8	• x 1(₀ -13	deg R deg R BTU/sec-ft ft ² 	2-deg R ⁴
(RCL (y ^x 4 RCL 7 RCL 7	D 1			10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	X (CL 2 X RCL 3 X RCL 4) FQUAL		
		$\frac{\text{Loc.}}{0}$ 1 2 3 4 5 $\frac{1}{5}$	$ \begin{array}{c cccc} Ioc. Name \\ Uoc. Name \\ 0 Tsource 1 Tbody 2 St-B \\ 3 Area Tbod 4 (rb/rs)^2 5 e_s x ab \\ \hline C(rb/rs)^2 \\ 5 e_s x ab \\ for the second second$	A LGEBRAIG F RADIATION H Loc. Name Value 0 T source 5000. 1 Tbody 500. 2 St-B 4.758 x 3 Area ² body 10. 4 (rb/rs) ² 2.5 x 5 e x ab 0.9 5 e x ab 0.9 (RCL 0 y ^x 4 - RCL 1 y ^x 4 0 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 100. 2 St-B _z 3 Area body 100. 4 e _b 0.8	ALGEBRAIG PROGR RADIATION HEAT <u>Loc. Name</u> Value 0 T source 5000. 1 Tbody 4.758×10^{-1} 3 Area ² body 10. 4 $(r_b/r_s)^2$ 2.5 x 10 ⁻¹ 5 $e_x a_b$ 0.9 s 11 12 (RCL 0 11 y ^X 15 4 RCL 1 20 1 Tbody 500. 1 Tbody 100. 4 e_b 0.8 0 T 1 12 10 10 11 11 12 10 11 12 12 13 14 15 14 15 14 16 10 11 10 11 11 12 12 13 14 15 16 10 11 11 12 12 12 13 14 15 14 15 16 10 11 11 12 10 11 11 12 12 12 13 14 15 16 10 11 11 12 10 11 11 12 10 11 11 11 12 12 13 14 15 16 10 11 11 11 12 10 11 11 11 11 11 12 10 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 12 15 16 16 17 17 18	AIGEBRAIG PROGRAM 14 RADIATION HEAT GAIN Loc. Name Value 0 T_source 5000. 1 T_body 500. 2 St-B μ .758 x 10 ⁻¹³ 3 Area ² body 10. 4 $(r_b/r_s)^2$ 2.5 x 10 ⁻³ 5 $e_x a_b$ 0.9 (12 RGL 2 13 x RCL 0 14 RCL 3 y ^x 15 x 4 16 RCL 4 7 x RCL 1 18 RCL 5 y ^x 19) 4 20 EQUAL 2 St-B 4.758 x 10 ⁻¹³ X IFN AIGEBRAIC PROGRAM 15 RADIATION HEAT LOSS Loc. Name Value 0 T_body 500. 1 T_background μ 60. 2 St-B 4.758 x 10 ⁻¹³ 3 Area body 100. 4 e_b 0.8 RCL 0 13 x y ^x 14 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1 (1	AIGEBRAIC PROGRAM 14 RADIATION HEAT GAIN Loc. Name Value Dimension 0 T_source 5000. deg R 1 T_body 500. deg R 2 S ₁ -B μ .758 x 10 ⁻¹³ BTU/sec-1 3 Area ² body 10. t^2 5 e_x^{ab} 0.9 11 (($r_b/r_s)^2$ 2.5 x 10 ⁻³ square of 5 e_x^{ab} 0.9 11 ((12 RCL 2 13 X RCL 0 14 RCL 3 y ^X 15 X 4 16 RCL 4 7 X RCL 1 18 RCL 5 y ^X 19) 4 20 EQUAL 21 R/S Q, 6. X AIGEBRAIC PROGRAM 15 RADIATION HEAT LOSS Loc. Name Value Dimension 0 T _{body} 500. deg R 1 T _{background} 460. 173 2 St-B _z 4.758 x 10 ⁻¹³ BTU/sec-ft 6 deg R 1 T _{background} 460. ft ² 3 Area body 100. ft ² 1 T _{background} 460. ft ² 3 Area body 100. ft ² 1 T _{background} 460. ft ² 3 Area body 100. ft ² 4 e_b 0.8

	Loc.	ALGEB HE Name	RAIC PROGRAM AT EXCHANGER Value	16, EFFI	Part 1 of 3 CIENCY Dimension	
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7	dW cold dW hot cp-c cp-h Area U scratch scratch	2.5 (1.5) 1.5 (2.5) 0.99 1.10 20.0 0.25		Interchange " BTU/lb-deg F " ft ² BTU/sec-ft ²	for check, lb/sec
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12	RCL 0 X RCL 2 EQUAL STO 6 R/S x t RCL 1 X RCL 3 EQUAL R/S	C _{cold} , BTU/s	2.457 (1.485) ec-deg F	23 24 25 26 27 28 29 31 32 31 32 33 45 36	RCL 5 DI VIDE RCL 7) R/S GO TO 2 2nd Lbl 1 DI VIDE RCL 6 EQUAL 1/x R/S (RCL 4	N _{tu} , 3.03 ((c _{min} /c _{max}), 0.54
13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22	2nd x > SBR 1 STO 7 DI VIDE RCL 6 EQUAL R/S (RCL 4 X	c _{min} /c	_{nax} , 0.67	37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44	X RCL 5 DIVIDE RCL 6) R/S 2nd Lbl 2 R/S LRN	(N _{tu} , 3.37)

	Loc.	AI <u>Name</u>	GEBRAIC HEAT H Value	PROGRAM EXCHANGER	16, Part 2 o: EFFICIENCY, (Dimension	f 3 COUNTERFLOW
	0 1 2 3 4 5 6	Ntu Cmin/C _{max} Cmin Th-i Stritch xcratch	3.37 0.67 1.65 160. 80.		BTU/sec-deg deg F deg F	F
LRN 00 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 90 11 12 34 56 78 90 11 12 34 56 78 90 11 12 34 56 78 90 11 12 34 56 78 90 11 23 45 20 00 00 12 23 04 50 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	(1 RCL 1) X RCL 0 EQUAL CHG SGN IN V ln x STO 6 CHG SGN + 1 EQUAL STO 5 RCL 6 X RCL 1 EQUAL			21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 31 23 45 67 89 31 33 45 67 8 940 41	CHG SGN + 1 EQUAL 1/x X RCL 5 EQUAL R/S X (RCL 2 X (RCL 2 X (RCL 3 - RCL 4)) EQUAL R/S LRN	eff., 0.86 Q, 113. BTU/sec

			AI	GEBRA HEAT	IC PI	ROGRAI	M 16, Pa R EFFIC	art 3 c IENCY, 1	of 3 PARALLEL	FLOW
	Lo	00.	Name		Value		Dim	ension		
			Ntu C _{max} /C _r C _{min} Th-i Tc-i scratch scratch	nin 1	3.37 0.67 1.69 160 80	?	BTU, deg deg	/sec-deg F F	g F	
LRN 001 023 045 06 078 090 112 123 145 16	(1 + RCL 1) X RCL 0 EQUAL CHG SGN IN V ln x CHG SGN + 1 EQUAL STO 5 1					18 19 21 22 22 22 22 22 22 23 23 23 23 23 23 23	RCL 1 EQUAL DIVIDE RCL 5 EQUAL 1/x R/S X (RCL 2 X (RCL 2 X (RCL 3 - RCL 4)) EQUAL		eff ., 0	•596
17	+					36	R/S LRN		Q, 78.75	BTU/sec

		AL	GEBRAIC PRO	GRAM 17			
		WATE	R VAPOR PRE	SSURE			
	Loc.	Name V	alue D	imension			
	0 1 2 3 4	Temp. Const. C ₁ C ₂ Crit. Temp. Scratch	ц60. I 7.262 - 3.505 - 1165. I	beg R.	-		
LRN 00 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08	ENTER VA + RCL O EQUAL DI VIDE RCL 3 EQUAL 1/X X	LUE, 32. deg F	09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 IRN	RCL 2 EQUAL STO 4 RCL 1 SUM 4 RCL 4 INV 2nd 1 STOP	og p =	0.0917	psi

$$P = \log^{-1} (C_1 + C_2 (1/(T/T_c)))$$

ALGEBRAIC PROGRAM 18

		HUMI DI TY	RATIO	AT DRY	BULB	TEMPERA	TUR	E		
	Loc.	Name	1	Value	Dime	nsion				
	0	Wo		0.0124	Lb 1	water/lb	dr	y a	air	
	1	$T_1 dry$	bulb	80.	Deg	F		-		
	2	T' wet	bulb	64.	Deg	F				
	3			0.24	BTU	/lb-deg	F,	sp	ecific 1	heat
	Ĩ4	cnr		0.44	11	0		-	11	11
	Ś	H		1101.	BTU	/lb. hea	t o	f	evapori	Z.
	Ē	H ^g		20.3	BTU	/lb. hea	t o	f	sat. li	auid.
	7	Scratcl	h		,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,				1
	•									
	W, =	$W_{\rm O} - ((T_{\rm o}))$	T.)(o	c + W.	c))/(H ₋ -	H-)			
		2	1 2	pa 2	2 pv	g	Т'			
LRN					13	RCL 2				
00					11)				
01	(15	EQUAL				
02	RCL O				16	DIVIDE				
03	X				17	(
	RCT,)				18	RCL 5				
05)				19	-				
06	+				20	RCL 6				
07	RCT, 3				21)				
08	FOUAT.				22	FQUAT.				
09	X				23	CHG SGN				
10	î (2)	+				
11	RCI. 1				25	RCT. O				
12	-				26	FOLIAT				
	-			113	27	STOP	1.7	_	0 0088	72/72
				כיי	-1	D101	w 1	-	0.0000	то\ то

AIGEGRAIC PROGRAM 19 HUMIDITY RATIO AT WET BULB TEMPERATURE NameValueDimensionM / M0.6215Dimension P^{V} 0.2947psi, vapor pressure P_{atm}^{V} 14.69psia, Atmo. Press. Loc. Name 1 2 $W_2 = (M_v/M_a) P_v/(P_{atm} - P_v)$ LRN 00 07 Х ___ (RCL 1 80 01 RCL 2 09 EQUAL 02 10 03 Х RCL 1 11 RCL O 04 12 05) EQUAL STOP W₂ = 0.0127 lb/lb 06 1/x13 IRN ALGEBRAIC PROGRAM 20 ENTHALPY OF AIR OR WATER VAPOR Loc. Name Value Dimension Air Water $\overline{C_1}$ 925. 0 1202. 0.3 9.8 860. 1166. 460. 460. Reference, deg R 1.0 0.7 1 2 3 上 $H = C_1 - C_2 (C_3 - (460 + T)^n)$ LRN Enter T, 64 deg F 00 09 RCL 4 01 10 EQUAL + 02 RCL 3 11 Х 12 03 EQUAL RCL 1 CHG SGN 13 ΟД EQUAL 14 05 + CHG SGN 06 RCL 2 15 + 16 07 EQUAL RCL O $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{X}}$ 80 EQUAL 17 18 STOP H = 20.31 water IRN H = 1101.2 air BTU/1b

		ALGEBRAIC PROGRAM 21	
		VAPOR PRESSURE AT DRY BULB TEMPERATURE	
		Loc. Name Value Dimension 0 W ₁ 0.0088 Humidity ratio, lb/lb 1 P _{atm} 14.69 psia 2 M/M 1.6088 3 P _v ^a v 0.5015 psi	
		$P_{v1} = W_1 P_{atm} (M_a/M_v) / (M_a/M_v) W_1)$	
		$\emptyset = P_{v1}/P_{v-sat}$	
LRN			
00		12 RCL 2	
01		13 X 11. PCT 1	
02	X V	15	
	RCL 2	16 EQUAL	
05)	17 X	
06	+	18 RCL O	
07	1	19 EQUAL	
08	EQUAL	$20 \text{ STOP } P_{1} = 0.2051$	psi
09	1/x	21 DI VI DE	
10	X	22 RUL 3	
11	C	$2 \sum EWURL$	1,1 02
		$\frac{24}{1.8N} = 0.407 01$	4' /0

APPENDIX II.

ENERGY ANALYSIS DATA

FOREWORD

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FOREWORD

The energy analyst has a frequent need to estimate the properties of materials for which he is unable to discover values in the literature. Fortunately, there is a good deal of order in the universe.

One valuable tool in this search is the Principle of Corresponding States. This principle tells us that if the molecules are nearly the same and if their state is the same (liquid, gas or solid) then their properties should be proportional to the ratio of the temperature to the critical temperature.

For example, consider the elements nitrogen, with a molecular weight of 14.0 and oxygen with a molecular weight of 16.0. The critical temperature of nitrogen is 228 deg R and for oxygen is 279 deg R. Assume that we are given the thermal conductivity, k, of nitrogen at 182 deg R as 1.66×10^{-5} BTU/sec-ft-deg R. What might we expect for the value of oxygen?

1. The critical temperature ratio for nitrogen is

 $R_{\rm N}$ = 182/228 = 0.80

2. The temperature of oxygen at 0.80 critical is

 $T_0 = 0.80 \times 279 = 223 \text{ deg R}$

3. Compare the actual value for k to that predicted by the principle of corresponding states (PCS).

By PCS, $k = 1.66 \times 10^{-5}$ BTU/sec-ft-deg R Actual, $k = 1.72 \times 10^{-5}$ "

The critical point itself is a valuable aid to organizing thermal and physical data. Surface tension and heat of vaporization vanish at the critical point. Specific weight of the gas and of the liquid are identical at the critical point. Vapor pressure, as shown previously, is found to vary as the logarithm of the inverse temperature ratio. Critical points and normal boiling points (boiling temperature at one atmosphere pressure) are usually found from tables in chemical handbooks, see Engine Thermodynamics, Ref. 14.











TABLE 1. CONDUCTIVITY AND SPECIFIC WEIGHT, GASES

MATERIAL (@ 14.7 PSI)	TEMP.	SPECIFIC WEIGHT	CONDUCTIVITY
	deg F	1b/ft ³	BTU/sec-ft-deg_F
Air, Nitrogen	32 . 212.	0.080	3.77×10^{-6}
Hydrogen	32 • 212 •	0.00561	2.62×10^{-5} 3.33×10^{-5}
Ethane	32.	0.0847	2.92×10^{-6}
Chlorine	32.	0.201	1.23 "
Carbon Dioxide	32.	0.123	2.24 "
	212.	-	3.07 "
Ammonia	32.	0.048	3.26 "
	212		4.47 "
Water Vapor	212.	0.0372	4.03 "
Freon 12	70.	0.0338	•

TABLE 2. CONDUCTIVITY AND SPECIFIC WEIGHT, LIQUIDS

MATERIAL	TEMP.	SPECIFIC WEIGHT	CONDUCTIVITY
	deg F	1b/ft-3	BTU/sec-ft-deg F
Water	32• 140• 270	62.	8.91×10^{-5} 1.05×10^{-4} 6.25×10^{-3}
Kerosene Ammonia Freon 12	68• 32• 32•	48. 40.0 (62. 87. (45.	$\begin{array}{c} 2.43 \times 10^{-5} \\ PSIA) 8.66 \times 10^{-5} \\ PSIA) 1.16 \times 10^{-5} \end{array}$

			N		
MATERTAL	SPECIFIC	EI A	HERMAL CONDUC	XTLVLTY ۲/۱	
	11/ft	BTU/sec-ft -deg F	BTU-in/hr -ft ² -deg F	"R/inch"	"R-value" (4 inch)
Glass fiber	4. to 9.	6.11×10^{-6}	0.26	4.	16.
Polyurethane, foam	л о	3.94×10^{-9}	0.17	•9	24.
Expanded Vermiculite		1.04×10^{-2}	0.45	5• •	œ
Expanded Perlite		8.56×10^{-0}	0.37	• ~	12.
Window Glass	162.	1.42×10^{-4}	6.13	0•2	
Corkboard	10.	6.94×10^{-0}	0.30	۰ ۳	12.
Ice	57.	3.56×10^{-4}	15.38	0•1	
Wood, Oak	<u>5</u> 1.	6 . 39 x 10-5	2.76	0•4	
Wood, Balsa	7.3	7.41 x 10-0	0.32	۰ ۳	12.
Fiberboard; Cellulcse	14.	6.67×10^{-0}	0.29	<u></u> . Ц.	16.
Asbestos		1.29 x 10 ⁻	0.56	5°	° œ
Plaster-Sand		1.29×10^{-4}	5 . 0	0•2	
Plaster-Sand, wood lath		5.79 x 10		0•4	
Concrete Block, cored		1.30×10^{-4}	5 . 60	0•2	
Brick, Common	100.	1.16×10^{-4}	5•0	0•2	

TABLE 3. CONDUCTIVITY AND SPECIFIC WEIGHT, SOLIDS

TABLE 4. CONDUCTIVITY AND SPECIFIC WEIGHT, METALS

MATERIAL	TEMP.	SPECIFIC WEIGHT	CONDUCTIVITY
	deg F	$1b/ft^3$	BTU/sec-ft-deg_F
Aluminum Brass Copper Gold Iron Steel Nickel Platinum Silver Sodium Zinc	32. 68. 32. 32. 64. 32. 32. 32. 32. 32. 32. 32.	168. 528. 557. 1204. 491. 490. 552. 1338. 655. 60. 445.	3.41×10^{-2} 1.78×10^{-2} 6.20×10^{-2} 4.79×10^{-2} 1.08×10^{-2} 7.18×10^{-3} 9.44×10^{-3} 1.12×10^{-2} 6.50×10^{-2} 2.19×10^{-2} 1.79×10^{-2}

TABLE 5. VISCOSITY, SPECIFIC HEAT AND EXPANSION OF LIQUIDS

MATERIAL	TEMP.	VISCOSITY	EXPANSION	SPECIFIC
	deg F	lb-sec/ft ²	ft ³ /ft ³ -deg F	HEAT BTU/1b-deg_F
Water	32.	3.73 x 10 ⁻⁵	-0.5×10^{-4}	1.01
	140.	1.11 "	2.5 "	1.00
	270.	5.18×10^{-6}	4.5 "	1.00
Kerosene	-50.	1.25×10^{-4}		
	60.	4.39×10^{-5}	5.0 "	0.50
	200.	1.44 "-6		
Ammonia	32.	5.00×10^{-5}	$1_{2} \ge 10^{-5}$	1.11
Freon 12	32.	6.21 "	1.7 "	0.223

TABLE 6. VISCOSITY, SPECIFIC HEAT AND EXPANSION OF GASES

MATERIAL	TEMP.	VISCOSITY	EXPANSION GOEFFICIENT	SPECIFIC HEAT
	deg F	lb-sec/ft ²	ft ³ /ft ³ -deg F	BTU/lb-deg F
Water Vapo	or 212.	2.71 x 10 ⁻⁷	2.18 x 10 ⁻³	0.45
_	500.	1.97 "		0.47
	1000.	3.48 "		0.51
	2000.	6.55 "	ა	0.60
Hydrogen	59.	1.84×10^{-6}	2.0×10^{-5}	3.39
	392.			3.46
Ammonia	32.	1.92×10^{-4}		
	59.			0.52
	212.	2.69 " _		-
Air	0.	3.45×10^{-7}	2.0×10^{-3}	0.239
	100.	3.96 "		0.241
	200.	<u>1,18</u> "		0.242
	500	5.86 "	104	0.248
	1500.	9.14 "	125	0.277

TABLE 7. RATIO OF SPECIFIC HEATS, MOLECULAR WEIGHT AND GAS CONSTANT

MATERIAL	° _p ∕° _v	GAS CONSTANT, R	MOLECULAR WEIGH
Air	1.40	53.3	29.
Hydrogen	1.40	767.	2.0
Ammonia	1.31	89.5	17.0
Water Vapor	1.32	85.78	18.0

TABLE 8. HEAT OF EVAPORATION AND FUSION

MATERIAL	HEAT OF EVAPORATION @ one atmosphere BTU/lb	HEAT OF FUSION BTU/lb
Water	970. (212. deg F)	143.
Ammonia	588.	194.
Hydrogen	192.	25.
Oxygen	92.	6.
Nitrogen	86.	11.

TABLE 9. RADIATION SURFACE TEMPERATURES

SURFACE	TEMPERATURE deg_R
Incandescence	
Red. Visible in dark	1200-1300
Red. Visible in sunlight	1500
Yellow	2200-2300
Blue-White	3400
Sun	10800
Molten Metal	
Lead	1080
Sulfur	706
Copper, Gold	2440
Silicon	3050
Iron	3240
Platinum	3651

MATERIAL	TEMP.	REZE SPECIFIC	N ORMAL TEMP •	BOIL SPECIFIC	TEMP.	CRITICAL P SPECIFIC	OINT PRESS.
	deg R	1p/ft	deg R	NELGHT 1b/ft3	deg R	NELGHT'3	$1b/in^2$
Water	492.	57 5 solid	672 。	59.9 liquid	1165°	19.2	3207 。
Amnonia	352.	solid solid	- 0†††	40.6 liquid	730.		1636.
LETTEON 12	213.	solid solid	. 8£µ	gas Jiquid	692.		582 。
Hydrogen	26.	5.4 solid	36.	4.36 liquid	59 ° 8	2.05	188.
		pinbil 0.4		0.00 gas			

TABLE 10. SPECIFIC WEIGHT PHASE CHANGE DATA

nts (all colors) Paint, Bronze Paint er		SSI VITY 0.96 0.66 0.66	ABSORF 0.00
: objects	0.92 to Polished Metal	o 0.96 Oxidized Metal	Polished Metal
	0 °07	0.10 to 0.20	
	0°00	0.55 to 0.60 0.55 to 0.75	0.50
	0.025 0.03		0°07
	0.20 0.036	0.06 to 0.90	0.45
	0.06	0.04 to 0.60	0°70
	0.10		0°05

ENERGY ANALYSIS