Kristin Breder, Carsten Dreier, Tore Gjelsvik, Roy S. Heiersted, Anker F. Nielsen

WINDOWS

Recent research and experiences by Norwegian Building Research Institute, Trondheim Division

Oslo/Trondheim 1985
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Recent research and experiences made by
Norwegian Building Research Institute

Kristin Breder, Carsten Dreier,
Tore Gjelsvik, Roy S. Heiersted,
Anker F. Nielsen,
NBI Trondheim Division

OSLO/TRONDHEIM 1985

Norges byggeforskningsinstitutt
CONCLUDING REMARKS

After some discussion in the Scandinavian group of experts handling this matter, the test cycle in the laboratory was set to 12 hours -30°C and 12 hours +60°C on the outside of the window over a period of 45 days. The inside temperature throughout the whole period should be +23°C.

After the 45 days, a window shall fulfill the requirement to air and rain penetration.

This test method has now been in use in Sweden and Norway for approximately two years, and the experience is quite clear. It separates the good windows from the less good ones, and gives good reasons to expect a lifetime not less than 30 years for windows standing the durability test.
WINDOWS
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made by Norwegian Building Research Institute

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14X
PREFACE

At the Norwegian Building Research Institute we have been working with window research and development for many years and have made it one of our main fields of interest.

Different types of specialized testing equipment have been developed, built and bought for this purpose. Tests and studies are made both of the complete product and of all the components used for manufacturing the window: Glass, sealants, surface treatment, weather stripping, fittings, aluminium-, plastic- and wooden frames and sashes etc. They include durability, weather resistance, energy consumption, general physical and technical properties etc.

Tests and studies for new development are made in, among other things:

- Driving rain apparatus
- Wind pressure apparatus
- Apparatus for simulated, accelerated ageing
- Special equipment for testing durability of plastic windows
- Ageing of sealed glazing units apparatus
- Guarded hot-box for studies of energy transmission

The papers in this publication are examples from recent work at the Trondheim division of the institute. It is our hope that this volume will bring the reader an understanding of the importance of this field of development, and at the same time some useful practical knowledge about windows as they are produced and used today.

The papers were originally presented on a congress in Gothenburg, arranged by the Swedish Council for Building Research in 1984.

Oslo/Trondheim, March 1985

Jarle R. Herje
Head of Trondheim Division

1. IMPROVING CONDENSATION RESISTANCE ON INNER PANE OF SEALED UNITS BY INCREASING THE GLAZING SPACING

Measurements on wooden windows with double and triple sealed glazing units.

Roy Scott Heierstøl
WATER CONDENSATION CAUSES ADDITIONAL MAINTENANCE OF WOODEN WINDOWS

The accumulation of water and ice along the edge of the inner pane of sealed glazing units is considered a severe problem during periods of heavy frost. The condensation of water starts growing from the corners of the pane and along the bottom sash, gradually shaping isothermal patterns all around the edge. If the water is not frequently dried off, it will finally run down onto the sash and penetrate joints, gradually deteriorating wooden windows.

Both the cold-bridge in the metal spacer and the drained glazing rebate causes the condensation problem. Today's drained and ventilated rebate and the dry glazing using foamed rubber gaskets are designed to prevent wooden windows from rot due to driving rain. Now an additional emphasis is needed in design to eliminate the interior maintenance problem.

THE WOODEN WINDOW USED IN THE TEST

The wooden window is a typical Scandinavian design. This one opens outwards. It is glazed from the outside, using an aluminium glazing bead at tilts across the drained bottom rebate. The dry glazing only uses foamed rubber gaskets, no putty. The standard height of the glazing rebate is 50 mm. The glazing unit is sized to about 10-12 mm overlap with the rebate.

TEST PROCEDURE

The condensation problem is most severe along the bottom sash. The thermal measurements are therefore concentrated in the lower area of the window. Very thin thermocouples are positioned at the vertical centerline at each 10 mm from the cut edge, and glued to the glass along the isotherms.

The tests are performed in a guarded hot box. The environmental conditions are 20°C in the metering chamber and -10°C in the cold chamber. The surface thermal resistances correspond to the building code requirement of 0.12 inside and 0.05 m²K/W outside.

Temperatures are recorded in steady state condition. Measured temperatures are normalized to 20.0°C and -10.0°C air temperatures to allow the highest degree of reference between each test.

Five tests, to maximum rebate height of 60 mm are performed on each window.

Fig. 1. The bottom frame and sash of the test window shown with a triple sealed glazing unit and the ventilated bottom rebate. The two windows in the test are identical except for the double and triple glazing units.

Fig. 2. Thermocouples in position at each 10 mm from the bottom cut edge of the inner glass pane. They are gradually covered by the next added rubber gasket and 10 mm wooden bead.
Table 1.

Double sealed glazing unit.
Measured temperatures at the inner pane with different glazing rebate. Test condition 20°C indoor and -10°C outdoor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position of the thermocouple from the cut edge of the inner pane</th>
<th>Height of glazing rebate in the wooden sash</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>150 mm</td>
<td>10.3°C 10.2°C 10.1°C 10.0°C 10.3°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 mm</td>
<td>9.1    8.7    8.4    7.8    8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 mm</td>
<td>8.3    7.7    7.1    6.8    6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 mm</td>
<td>7.9    7.0    5.7    5.5    5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 mm</td>
<td>6.1    5.0    3.8    3.9    3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mm</td>
<td>3.8    2.5    2.5    2.5    2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mm</td>
<td>-0.3   Standard rebate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 mm</td>
<td>(-1.0) (-2.1) (-2.8) (-3.1) (-3.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.

Triple sealed glazing unit.
Measured temperatures at the inner pane with different glazing rebate. Test condition 20°C indoor and -10°C outdoor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position of the thermocouple from the cut edge of the inner pane</th>
<th>Height of glazing rebate in the wooden sash</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>150 mm</td>
<td>13.4°C 13.4°C 13.4°C 13.4°C 13.3°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 mm</td>
<td>11.8   11.7   11.3   10.9   10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 mm</td>
<td>11.0   10.3   9.5    9.5    9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 mm</td>
<td>10.1   9.1    7.9    7.9    7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 mm</td>
<td>8.4    7.1    5.7    5.7    5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 mm</td>
<td>6.1    4.8    3.8    3.8    3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mm</td>
<td>-2.2   Standard rebate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 mm</td>
<td>(0.7)  (-0.4) (-0.9) (-1.3) (-1.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 3. Double sealed glazing unit.
The temperature at the visible edge of the inner pane increases with the glazing rebate.

Fig. 4. Triple sealed glazing unit.
The temperatures on the inner glass are measured each 10 mm from the cut edge, indicating very steep gradients in 50 mm edge zone.
MEASURED TEMPERATURES WITH INCREASING GLAZING REBATE

The test results in table 1 and 2 show how an increased rebate to 30 mm, from the standard 20 mm improves the glass temperature by 2.8 K on the double and 2.2 K on the triple unit. (The 20 mm rebate exposes the thermocouple 10 mm from the cut edge as the visual edge of the pane.) Further a 20 mm increase to a 40 mm glazing rebate gives 3.7 K and 3.5 K improvements respectively at an ambient wind condition of -10°C. By this additional 20 mm glazing rebate the temperature difference between the visual edge of the inner pane and the room, is reduced by as much as 20%. This may be just enough to avoid condensation in most climatic situations.

The graphical presentation of the measurements in fig. 3 and 4 indicate a major improvement at the glass temperature by the first 10-20 mm added height to a standard glazing rebate.

The graphs also show a decrease in glass temperature by higher rebate. This is caused by the internal insulation of the glass by the rebate and full-height rubber gasket. If an ordinary gasket was placed only at the top of the rebate, an even stronger cooling of the glass could be expected. All together the lowered glass temperature from the higher rebate, reduces the potential temperature improvement to approximately half. The full potential is the temperature gradient of the inner glass at the standard rebate.

The measured results contain the real interaction between a complex geometry and an exterior forced convection with its ventilation of the glass rebate. Together with the interior natural convection with its air pockets caused by geometry, this problem can hardly be solved by computation only.

CONCLUSION

The improved condensation resistance on sealed units by a higher glazing rebate is a general solution to all types of window designs. At the same time any changes of the exterior ventilated glazing rebate and the dry glazing method must be avoided. Even when such solutions do show good thermal improvements.

The test shows a 20% reduction of temperature difference to the room by an additional 20 mm rebate. The same for both double and triple glazing. However, the double glazing has the highest condensation risk. To give a double glazed unit the same edge temperature as a triple, windows for double glazing need an additional 10 mm height to the glazing rebate.

This is of importance to users of the new LE (low emissivity) coated glazing. Their U-value equals an ordinary triple glazing unit. At the same time they (normally) are double glazing with the same cold-bridge in the spacer as ordinary double units. Consequently with the same initial condensation risk, but with steeper temperature gradients around the edge of the glazing.

2. LIGHT TRANSMITTANCE AND COLOUR TUNING AND RENDERING IN COATED GLAZING

Measurements on 25 coated glazing systems

Kristin Breder
Roy Scott Heiersted
INTRODUCTION

During the past few years several new products with coatings have entered the insulating glass market. These products may be grouped in four different groups as done by the Norwegian Building Research Institute (NBI) in no. A 571.99A (1982) from the series of Building detailsheets.

The group are

0 Units with ordinary glass
1 Solar control units
2 Light and heat control units
3 Low emissivity units

The products have been grouped like this because of their different light and energy properties.

In 1982 NBI did an investigation of a series of different coated products for the Norwegian Consumers Council. Both U-values and optical properties of the units were measured, (Herrestad, 1982). This paper will describe the optical properties as measured, and also as judged visually regarding colour toning of transmitted and reflected light. This project has later been added to by measurements of new products on the marked. Some of these results are also included in this paper.

MEASUREMENTS

Some of the basic figures from the measurements are given in Table 1. If nothing else is stated the products measured were sealed glazing units with the specified product as one glass, and ordinary 4 mm floatglass as the other, and 12 mm air/gas space. The gas content was in some cases also checked, but that is considered as unimportant for this part of the project.

Series 1.

Included in the first series were units numbered from 1 to 13 in Table 1. First the light transmission in the visible range was measured. The figures are given in the table as percent of total incoming light, and also as percent of the transmission in an ordinary double insulating glass unit. As can be seen from the table the amount of visible light transmitted through some of the units is considerably reduced. This is of course especially true for the units belonging to group 1, solar control units, such as no.7 and 9. But as shown in Figure 1, the transmitted light spectra is considerably different, which make the units tone both the colour of the transmitted and reflected light differently.

This is an effect that should be taken into account when such units are used. Two different approaches to describe this colour of the light was attempted. Table W give the CIE coordinates for the transmitted light. This is a standardized way to describe colour, and the next column in the table gives the names of the corresponding colour. This method however, does not give a very clear visual idea of the colour, because the colour saturation might be different. Therefore for this series a visual inspection was done. This was done in front of a light box with white light with colour temperature of 5500 K. Transmitted light was viewed by placing the units in front of the box, keeping the rest of the room dark. The reflected light was observed with the units at about 45° angle to the box and with the dark room as a background. As description of the colours was used a comparison to the colours as given by the Rank Strand electric "Cinecomid" Reference book for colour filter for theatre lighting. The observed colours are very close to the reference, but the saturation of the filter, colours are higher than those of the glass units. As seen from the colour names the visual observation is for more nuanced than the colours given by the CIE system. The descriptions of the reflected light is done in a similar way. For the colour of the transmitted light it is clear that the same type of coating basically give the same colour toning. As example can be seen that the gold coated units are in the green-rose area. However the metal coatings often have an interference layer as adhesion promoter and for protection. Depending on the thickness and type of the interference layer both the transmitted and reflected light can get several different colours. This is especially done on units in group 1 and 2, and the different reflected colours are used for architectural purposes. Results are given in table 1b.

Series 2.

This is the measurements given in the table as no. 14-25. The CIE coordinates and colour is given in table 1a. When compared to series 1, these also give a light change to the yellow part of the visible spectrum. A visual observation was not done on this series, but a general idea can be seen from comparing the CIE coordinates for the two series.

However, an additional measurement was done on this series. That is the colour rendering index Ra. This tells something about how the light source, in this case seen as daylight through the windows, will change the "true" colours which are observed in a room (CIE no. 13.2.1974). The colour rendering index Ra is found for 8 different colours and the Ra is calculated as a mean value for these. German Industrial Standard DIN 5035 gives a fur step grading of light sources with Ra ≥ 85 as best class, and also give certain rules for selecting light sources for different purposes. This is not done for daylight through windows, but it might be possible to view this on the same scale. For certain operations as quality control, and so on, it is recommended that the Ra ≥ 90.

DISCUSSION

This investigation shows that the coating of glass to give better solar control properties and to give better U-values has given additional effects. The solar control units, group 1, and the light and heat control units, group 2, give a lot of possibilities to make units with desired colour reflexes. When this is combined with spandrels with the same colour reflex, new and interesting architectural possibilities have come up.

To a certain limit the coating technology has given possibilities to give good sun control effects, and a protection against overheating during the summer.
But all these products give a certain colouring of the transmitted light, and in some cases this might not be a desirable effect.

The Low Emissivity units, group 3, are basically designed to give as good energy properties as possible, at the same time as the light transmission is unaffected. Some of these units have light transmission curves that are close to those of ordinary float glass units, but they still do colour the light slightly.

"Light quality" is a subjective word, and peoples' opinions are decided a lot by habit and tradition. But in Scandinavia, where great parts of the year offer very little daylight, most people find it desirable to have windows with high light transmittance and little colour toning in the visible light range. This is especially true for residential buildings.

**TABLE 1a. Measured optical properties.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>PRODUCT</th>
<th>% light trans.</th>
<th>Relative trans. to double unit (%)</th>
<th>Max. wave length trans. [um]</th>
<th>CIE coordinates for trans. light</th>
<th>CIE colour</th>
<th>Re-index</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Thermoplus 1.6</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>0.329</td>
<td>0.357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Thermoplus 1.4</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Aurexin 66/44</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>0.355</td>
<td>0.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Inf. Neutral 51/39</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Therm. Comfort</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>0.328</td>
<td>0.352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Stopay Gold 40/27</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>0.324</td>
<td>0.375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Therm. Clear Stopol</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Olinaplas GRS 1.4</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Scotchtint 19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>0.204</td>
<td>0.312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Kappafloat</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>0.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Kappafloat, triple</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>0.336</td>
<td>0.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Double unit</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Triple unit</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>6mm floatglass + 4mm Kappafloat</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>6mm Spectrafloat + 4mm Kappafloat</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>0.368</td>
<td>0.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>6mm laminated glass + 4mm Kappafloat</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>6mm Suncool Azur</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>6mm Suncool Bronze</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>0.357</td>
<td>0.374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>6mm Suncool Silver</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>0.337</td>
<td>0.347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>6mm Suncool Azur + 4mm Kappafloat</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>0.366</td>
<td>0.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>6mm Suncool Bronze + 4mm Kappafloat</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>6mm Suncool Silver + 4mm Kappafloat</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>0.354</td>
<td>0.353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Comfort Glasverbel</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>0.340</td>
<td>0.346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Iplus Neutral</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>0.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Lasitukko LE</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>0.342</td>
<td>0.354</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1. Transmitted light spectra for some commercial available products.
### TABLE 1b. Visually observed properties.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. PRODUCT</th>
<th>CIE colour</th>
<th>Visual colour observation transmission</th>
<th>Visual colour observation reflection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Thermoplus 1:6</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Pale green + pale rose</td>
<td>Straw tint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Thermoplus 1:4</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Auresin 66/44</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Pale yellow</td>
<td>Pale lavender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Inf.Neutral 51/39</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Pale green + pale rose</td>
<td>Pale gold + steel blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Thern. Comfort</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Straw tint + steel tint</td>
<td>Pale rose + pale grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Stopay Gold 40/27</td>
<td>Green yellow</td>
<td>Straw tint + ariel blue</td>
<td>Gold tint + pale green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Thern.Clear Stopsol</td>
<td>Yellow</td>
<td>Chocolate tint</td>
<td>Pale grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Climeplus GLS 1:4</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Pale green + pale rose</td>
<td>Straw tint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Scotch tint 9</td>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>Steel tint</td>
<td>Pale grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Kapfarcloaf</td>
<td>YellowOrange</td>
<td>Chocolate tint + pale rose</td>
<td>Arial blue + pale grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Kapfarcloaf, triple</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Double unit</td>
<td>Green</td>
<td>Pale grey</td>
<td>Steel tint + pale grey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Triple unit</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### REFERENCES


---

### 3. TRENDS IN PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT OF COATED GLAZING

Kristin Breder
Roy Scott Heiersted
INTRODUCTION.

Coated glass for building purposes has been known for quite a few years. In one of the first known examples it was used for architectural purpose, but it was discovered that the coated glass also offered a considerable solar shading effect. In many cases, especially in commercial buildings this is a desirable effect, and different metal coatings was developed for solar control purposes. In addition these products were used as special architectural effects. Then it was seen that some of the coatings, such as the gold coatings, lowered the U-value for the sealed units. As energy saving became a more important factor in the building design, this effect has shown to be one of the most interesting. Work was done on coatings which lowered the U-value and at the same time had high transmittance for visible sunlight. This research work has led to the Low Emissivity Coatings (Lid coatings) which are on the market today.

PRODUCTS AVAILABLE TODAY.

Much of the recent interest also in commercial available units have been concentrated on the Lid-types. These products actually have Low Emissivity, but also a fairly high absorbance. Figure 1 shows the radiation properties for a solar control unit and a Lid-unit.

As it is seen from the example the product actually benefit from the fact that the amount of absorbed energy in the coating is rather high. The solar heat gain is improved because some of the absorbed heat is transmitted into the room as secondary heat. Also the unit will feel more comfortable because the temperature on the inner glass is increased. For solar control units the absorbance in the coated layer is used opposite direction. The coating is on the inside of the outer glass, and the secondary heat is transmitted to the outside.

The ideal coating with respect to energy saving properties is the one which combines low U-values with high solar factor. The solar factor is a measure of the total solar energy transmitted to the room, measured relatively to a normal double unit. An example of the solar radiation properties for three different units are shown in table 1.

Table 1. Example of the distribution of the solar radiation. Incoming radiation is 100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>&quot;Auresin&quot;</th>
<th>&quot;Zenith&quot;</th>
<th>Ordinary unit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reflected, R_s</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absorbed, A_s</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transmitted T_s</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absorbed,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- outer glass</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- inner glass</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heat, - out B_R</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- in B_R</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total solar</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heat to inside</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TET*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*) TET (Total Energy Transmission) = T_s + B_R

The U-value may be additionally lowered by filling the units with low conducting gas, this will not change the solar factor.
POSSIBLE COATINGS.

A coating with high solar factor and low U-value will be a coating with high transmittance in the visible area and low transmittance in the infrared area. This is shown in the dotted line in figure 2. The solid line represents measurements on an Indium Tin Oxide film.

![Graph of spectral transmittance and reflectance for a LG-coating.](image)

**Fig. 2.** Spectral transmittance and reflectance for a LG-coating (solid line). Dotted line represents ideal curve.

To achieve these properties there are certain physical properties the coating must possess. (Lamport 1951). The coating must be conductive to be reflective in the infrared area. To ensure transmittance in the visible area the energy band gap in the molecules must be sufficiently large, and there must be a limited number of exited levels within this gap. The infrared reflection is increased by increased thickness, but then the visible transmittance is reduced. Further the infrared reflectivity is improved by high mobility of the electrons.

Once these requirements are stated, the physicists have systematically investigated coatings that theoretically may seem to have the desired properties. The work has been concentrated on single layer films of semiconducting material, on metal films, and on metal with interference coatings and protective coatings. An overview of some of the more promising ones are given in Table 2.

### Table 2. Possible coatings for LG-purposes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semiconducting materials</th>
<th>Metal coatings with protective layer</th>
<th>Multilayer film</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In$_2$O$_3$:Sn</td>
<td>Au/Bi$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>TiO$_2$/Ag/TiO$_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SnO$_2$:Sb</td>
<td>Au$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>Bi$_2$O$_3$/Au/Bi$_2$O$_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SnO$_2$:F</td>
<td>Cu$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>ZnS/Ag/ZnS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cd$_2$Sn$_4$:In</td>
<td>Al$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td>ZnS/Cu/ZnS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cd$_2$Sn$_4$:Al</td>
<td>Ag/Bi$_2$O$_3$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SnO$_2$</td>
<td>SiO$_2$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MnF$_2$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Once the ideal coating is found, it must be possible to produce on a larger scale. Therefore a lot of research is done on coating technology, and several methods are available. This will however not be covered further in this paper.

NEW POSSIBILITIES

Still there are several possibilities in the coating technology that have not been investigated. A lot of interesting materials have been suggested and some interesting work have been done. Materials that might have very good LG-properties are TiN, ZnNi, BMN, LiK$_2$Sn$_4$, and AlN$_3$ (Granqvist 82). Other possibilities, as shown by Swedish researchers, might be to use new types of multilayer coatings. Promising research has been done on Indium Tin Oxide (ITO) coatings with an outer layer of MgF$_2$.

This combination has shown to give very high solar transmission, even higher than for the uncoated glass. At the same time the infrared reflection is only slightly decreased. (Samberg et al 1982). Another approach to increase the solar transmittance is to use a conducting microswath with a grid spacing of a few microns. Then the solar radiation can be transmitted and thermal radiation reflected.

Still another interesting technology is optically switching materials (Granqvist 82). Electrochromic coatings have an absorption which can be changed reversible by the application of a voltage with positive or negative polarity. Some materials of this type is already in use for other purposes.
Photochromic coatings have a reversible irradiation induced absorption, and thermochromic materials display a reversible temperature dependent change of the optical properties.

Research on the glass itself might also prove to be useful. A more transparent glass, and thus a unit with high solar factor might be possible to achieve by changing the composition, for instance to get an iron-free glass. Such units with an optimal gas mixture will perform very good as energy-saving glazing.

REFERENCES.


Introduction

There has been a rising interest in buildings with glazed rooms - sunspaces - for protection against the outdoor climate. The conclusions in this paper are drawn from a study of sunspaces in Scandinavia with very little or no sunradiation in the winter. Calculations for single-family houses (Nielsen 1968) with a sunspace have shown that the energy savings are small, and it is very expensive to heat the sunspace all the year. In this paper we will look on large buildings with sunspaces. In Trondheim we have two buildings of this type. First the university center at Dragvoll and the second a new hotel (Royal Garden) at the river. The calculations of energy consumption are done on a block of flats, but other building types could also use sunspaces as office-buildings and hotels.

Block of Flats

The energy consumption and the temperatures are calculated for a block with 3 floors and 15 flats. The building is 50 m long, 12 m wide and 9 m high. The gables are oriented against south and north. The thermal insulation is in accordance with the Norwegian building code - B-values of roofs 0.2 of walls 0.25 and of windows 2.1 W/m²K. The triple glazing comes to 20 % of the floor area of the building. The windows are placed evenly in all facades. The indoor temperature in the flats is 21°C, and the heat gain from human beings and electrical appliances are 15 kWh/day in each flat. The air change is 0.5 times pr. hour. Two of these blocks are placed parallel with 12 meters distance. The room between the blocks is provided with gables and roof of single or double glass. The area of the sunspace is 600 m². The air change in the sunspace is 1 time pr. hour. It is taken into account that the solar heat gain through the windows facing the sunspace is reduced. Because of the glazing in the sunspace and the shadow from the other block. During the period of planning and design it is important to know the expected energy consumption for different lay-outs of the building. This could be done with a large complex computer program, but would be very expensive. For this purpose it is better to use a simplified method as EFP 1 and only use the complex program in a later phase. We are using a version of the EFP 1 program (Nielsen 1984) with modifications for calculations on multi-room buildings. This gives rather accurate calculations of the energy consumption and the mean temperature in the sunspace.

Blocks with and without sunspace

In all the calculations is used climate from Trondheim in Norway. The first calculations are done on a single block without sunspace for two cases:

1. Full sun on all facades 171 kWh/year
2. Shadow on east or west facade 183 kWh/year

In the next calculation the sunspace between the two blocks is taken into account. With single glazing the energy saving is 7 % of the second case. Double glazing would save 2 % more.

Ventilation system

The calculated savings from the use of sunspace are small, but it is possible to get more savings from a change of the ventilation system. If the ventilation air of the blocks can be taken from the sunspace and the exhaust air blown out in the sunspace the savings would be 25 %. A part of these savings could be used to change the construction of the facades facing the sunspace to a mean U-value of 2.1 W/m²K. This value is used in all later calculations. The energy consumption would then be 180 kWh/year for single glazing and 165 kWh/year for double glazing. In reality it would be difficult to get that low energy consumption, as part of the ventilation has to go outside the sunspace. That is the case for exhaust from kitchens and toilets.

Temperatures in the sunspace

The mean temperature is calculated each month by the computer program. Days with sun will have temperatures above the mean and days without sun temperature below the mean. The number of hours with each temperature could only be calculated with a complex computer program. The sunspace temperature with single glazing is shown in figure 1 together with the outdoor temperature. The temperature is 5-6°C higher than the outdoor temperature in the winter. With double glazing the temperature would be 20°C higher than single glazing.

In the figure is shown how much of the heating of the sunspace comes from the sun. In the winter the sun has nearly no effect - it is heat loss from the blocks that is important. In the summer the sun is more important.

The low temperature of the sunspace in the winter will give problems with ice and snow on the glazing. In summer there will be problems with overheating in some periods.

Heating of the sunspace

In this case we calculate with a more realistic ventilation system. Ventilation air to the flats is taken from the outside and heated in the block. The exhaust air from the flat is used to heat the sunspace. This gives a higher energy consumption than the earlier system.

The system could not heat the sunspace very much so we calculate the extra heating in the sunspace to get a certain minimum temperature. If we heat the sunspace the energy consumption in the blocks will go down. In figure 2 is the yearly total energy consumption of the two blocks and the sunspace depending on the temperature in the sunspace. With single glazing the energy consumption is rising for temperatures above +5°C. With double glazing the rising starts at +10°C and with triple glazing at +15°C. This shows that if we select the right glazing it is possible to heat the sunspace with the same energy as the blocks would have without sunspace.
Conclusions

The calculations show that use of sunspaces between large buildings will give energy savings even in a Scandinavian climate. But it is very important to use the best ventilation system and to utilise the heat losses from the buildings. In our climate both the winter and the summer conditions have to be taken into account in the design (Nielsen 1983).

The economy of sunspaces is interesting as the price could be lower than ordinary buildings with the same volume. If the sunspace is used as a living area then the area in the adjoining building could be reduced. It is also possible to use simple constructions as the outdoor climate does not touch the facade against the sunspace. It is expected that more buildings with sunspaces will be built in the future.

Bibliography


Figure 1. Mean temperatures for sunspace in Trondheim, Norway.

Figure 2. Energy consumption for the 3 blocks and the sunspace with variable minimum temperature in the sunspace.
INRODUCTION

Sealed glazing units are manufactured with dry air or gas between the panes and a gas- and vapour-tight seal along the edges. The practical service life of such units is obviously dependent upon the efficiency of the edge seal. A high water vapour diffusion rate or a rapid breakdown of the edge seal will reduce the practical service life of the units considerably.

Much work has been carried out over the years to make it possible to forecast the expected service life of sealed glazing units. The traditional way is by accelerated aging tests in the laboratory. The value of such tests has been disputed. Anyhow, they usually constitute the most important part of the basis for a rapid evaluation of new types of unit.

The alternative to laboratory testing is to collect information from units on natural exposure. To follow up units in the field is, however, a time-consuming job. A more rapid and effective way is by making systematical field studies on units of different age.


The most comprehensive field study carried out by the Norwegian Building Research Institute is the one known as the West Coast Field Study 1963. This study covered a total of 2040 sealed glazing units, divided on ten different brand names and installation years from 1951 to 1963. The units were then up to 12 years old when inspected in 1963. The study covered visual inspection as well as measurement of dew point. Detailed results are found in the report (1).

Later on, the same units have been inspected again in 1973 and 1983. In 1963, a total of 2040 units was included. In 1983, the number of counting units had been reduced to 1769. The difference is coming from a couple of buildings wrecked down and removed, several cases of remodeling and change of windows, as well as units broken by accidents. Only units that could be followed through from 1963 to 1983 have been taken as counting. These were from 20 to 32 years old at the final inspection.

RESULTS

The units studied covered a total of ten types or brands. Included was one type of all-glass unit with fused edge seal in Group I, two types of unit with direct glass-to-metal seal in Group II and seven types with glued edge seal in Group III. Details are found in Table 1. The distribution of the counting units is shown in Table 2.

The types of damage recorded in 1973 and 1983 were the same as in 1963. Included were observations of visible condensation and sweating at the time of inspection, measured dew point above or at the critical limit, visible cracks in the glass as a result of condensation, visible cracks in the metal seal as well as deflection of the metal seal. Cracks in the glass, cracks in the metal seal and deflection of metal seal were, however, only
Table 1. Classification of the products studied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Type of seal</th>
<th>Brand name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>All-glass</td>
<td>Gado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>Glass-to-metal</td>
<td>Schalker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thermopane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aluco</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aterphone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cudo</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duoterm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Multipane</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Polylglass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Polyverbel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>Glued</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Distribution of units on different types and year of installation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of unit</th>
<th>1951-52</th>
<th>-53</th>
<th>-54</th>
<th>-55</th>
<th>-56</th>
<th>-57</th>
<th>-58</th>
<th>-59</th>
<th>-60</th>
<th>-61</th>
<th>62/3</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gado</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schalker</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>345</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermopane</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluco</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aterphone</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duoterm</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>44</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>372</td>
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<tr>
<td>Polylglass</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyverbel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

recorded in connection with visible condensation or dew points above the critical limit. For practical reasons, it was found convenient to distinguish between only two types of damage when the material was treated in detail:

1. Visible condensation and scumming.
2. Dew point above the critical limit.

In addition, recordings on replacement of units were sorted out. On this basis, damage frequencies have been calculated for all combinations of type of unit and year of installation. The results will appear from Table 3. In each counting square in the table, three figures are given. The one at the top is for 1963, the central figure for 1973 and the one at the bottom for 1983.

Table 3. Damage frequencies, %.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of unit</th>
<th>Year of installation</th>
<th>Average all years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gado</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schalker</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thermopane</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aluco</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aterphone</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cudo</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duoterm</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multipane</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polylglass</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyverbel</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A closer study of Table 3 reveals that the results are very diversified. Some of the brands seem to have had edge seals with such a poor durability that there is nothing left after a period from 10 to 20 years of natural exposure. Others have served much better, and the best results are obviously found for the glass-to-metal seal units Schalker and Thermopane as well as the 1961/63 production of the glued types Polylglass and Polyverbel. The latter results are closely related to well-known changes in the products.
Also for Schalker and Thermopane, the production from some of the years seems to be much better than from some of the others. In general, the results may look discouraging. It should be noted, however, that about two thirds of the Schalker and Thermopane units were still in good condition after a service period from 20 to 32 years.

The measured dew points have been treated statistically. The limited space available does not make it possible to represent all data here, but a few selected results can be given. Figure 1 shows the median dew point values for the Thermopane units, as measured in 1965, 1973 and 1983 respectively. All units with a dew point at or above the critical limit of -5°C are here for simplicity marked with a dew point of -5°C. There is, as can be expected, a move towards inferior dew point with increasing age. For the years 1955, 1956, 1958 and 1960/61, the average unit had in 1983 reached the critical limit. This corresponds very well with the figures in Table 1. The average remaining service life for the rest of the units can be predicted from the data given.

![Figure 1: Median dew points for the Thermopane units.](image)

Another selected set of results is given in Table 4, showing the damage frequencies as a function of the type of window. More data will be given in the final report.

It should be emphasized that the results presented here are valid only for the types of sealed glazing units produced in the years from 1951 to 1963, installed in the windows from that period of time with the installation technique and materials used in the same period.

### Table 4. Distribution of recorded damage on different kinds of window, all types of units included.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of window</th>
<th>Number of units checked</th>
<th>1963</th>
<th>1973</th>
<th>1983</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fixed windows</td>
<td>1021</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horizontally pivoted windows</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sashhung windows</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top- and bottom-hung windows</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doors</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1769</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**References:**

6. INFLUENCE OF COATED GLAZING ON EQUIVALENT U-VALUES FOR WINDOWS

Anker F. Nielsen

INTRODUCTION

The most well-known simplified method for calculation of energy consumption is the degree-day method. The degree-day is the integrated value of the temperature difference between indoor and outside climate during the heating season. By multiplying the degree-days with the specific heat loss of the building, the energy consumption is found. But it does not take into account the effect of the heat gain from internal sources and insulation. This is treated by not using the indoor temperature as the base of the degree-day, but an lower temperature. This method is acceptable for internal gains, that is nearly constant each month through the year. For solar heat gain it is not so easy, as the amount of sun is changing from month to month. In old houses without thermal insulation the fault is not very large, but for new highly insulated houses the results could be quite misleading.

THE ENERGY BALANCE OF THE WINDOW

The window has two effects on the energy balance - first it is a part of the thermal loss of the building and second it is giving solar heat gain.

Heating loss

The heat loss is described in the U-value of the window, as it can be calculated or measured from the materials used. The U-value includes both the value of the frame and the glazing. As the glazing is the part of the building with the lowest U-value, a lot of work has been done by using more panes, selective coatings on the panes and gas-fillings in the cavity.

Solar heat gain

The solar heat gain is described as the amount of energy coming into the building through the glazing. The energy includes both direct radiation and secondary heat from absorption in the glasses. The solar heat gain is dependent on the number of panes and the selective coatings on the panes.

Utilization of the solar heat gain

From the previous information it is possible to calculate both the heat loss and the solar heat gain. From the difference we get the energy balance. But that is not correct because we can not be sure that the solar heat gain can be utilized in the building. It depends on the heat loss of the rest of the building, the total area of glazing, the climate and the internal heat gain.

THE EQUIVALENT U-VALUE

The energy balance of the window is found from the heat loss and the utilized solar heat gain. The equivalent U-value is defined as:
\[ U_e = U - \left( \frac{Q_S \cdot \alpha}{(24 \cdot DD)} \right) \text{ W/m}^2\text{K} \]

where \( U \) is the ordinary \( U \)-value
\( Q_S \) is the solar heat gain
\( \alpha \) is the utilisation factor
\( DD \) is the degree-days.

This equation shows that the equivalent \( U \)-value is not only dependent on the material properties of the window, but also of the building (utilisation factor) and the climate (solar heat gain and degree-days). The equivalent \( U \)-value will describe a window type, but the value is not useful, if we do not know under which conditions it is calculated.

THE NORWEGIAN BUILDING CODE

In the Norwegian building code from 1981 and Norwegian Standard NS 3031 equivalent \( U \)-values have been included for calculation of energy consumption and criteria for the amount of glazing that is allowed in a building. The equivalent \( U \)-values have only been stated for ordinary clear glass panes as shown in table 1.

These values are not correct in real buildings, and it does not include the new glasings with coated panes and gasfillings. These glasings can be described by two parameters - the \( U \)-value \( U \) and the relative solar factor \( S \). The last is defined as the solar heat gain for the glazing divided by the solar heat gain for ordinary double pane. Measurements of these two parameters are found in Heiersted and Nielsen 1983. The Norwegian Building Research Institute has made formulas, that can be used for all types of glazing. The table 2 gives the values that have been made to fit with the building code on the ordinary double and triple pane.

CALCULATIONS OF THE EQUIVALENT \( U \)-VALUE

From calculations of energy consumption in buildings with the EFB 1-method (Nielson 1984) it is possible to calculate the real equivalent \( U \)-value. This has been done for a single family house placed in Oslo 59°56 (figure 1) and in Tromsø 69°30 (figure 2). The calculations have been done for different window area, orientation and solar factors. The first \( m^2 \) of window area will always give the lowest equivalent \( U \)-value. That is because the solar heat is small and the utilisation factor is high. When the window area increases, the equivalent \( U \)-value will always be higher. That is explained from the utilisation factor that will decrease when the solar heat gain increases and the heat loss do not increase in the same tempo. The variations from the climate is great specially for southfacing windows. The values do not fit very good with the equivalent \( U \)-values in the Norwegian building code - specially not for ordinary window areas between 15 and 25 \( m^2 \).

DESIGN METHODS FOR WINDOWS

The use of the equivalent \( U \)-value as a method to select windows for a low energy consumption in a building is not very good. The equivalent \( U \)-value depends on a lot of parameters:

- \( U \)-values of the window
- solar factor of the window
- transmission and ventilation losses of the building
- window area and orientation
- internal heat gain in the building
- solar climate of the location
- temperature climate of the location
- the calculation period (month/winter/year)

This shows that it would be very confusing for the architect and engineer to use the equivalent \( U \)-value. We have found, that the use of a design chart will make it much easier for the consultants. This is described in the papers (Nielson and Heiersted 1983) and (Heiersted 1984). In reality these design charts are another way of giving an equivalent \( U \)-value, but it is easier to use and describe. It is important to get away from the ordinary building codes that only state the ordinary \( U \)-value and do not take the solar heat gain into account. But the ordinary equivalent \( U \)-value is not to be recommended.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Nielson, A. F. and Heiersted, R. S., 1983, Selection of glazing for low energy consumption in residential building types under different climates, CIB 9th Congress, Stockholm, Vol 3a, page (379-388)


Heiersted, R. S., 1984, Energy saving potential with different glazing in residential houses, Windows in Building Design and Maintenance, Gothenburg, June 1984

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Window</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Equivalent U-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Double pane</td>
<td>south</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U=3.0 W/m²K</td>
<td>west/east</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>north</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triple pane</td>
<td>south</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U=2.1 W/m²K</td>
<td>west/east</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>north</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.
Equivalent U-values from NS 3031

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Equivalent U-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>south</td>
<td>$U_e = 0.7U - 1.25 - 1.0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>west/east</td>
<td>$U_e = 0.5U - 0.75$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>north</td>
<td>$U_e = 0.9U - 1.15 + 0.6$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.
Formulas for coated glazing, supplement to NS 3031. $U$ is ordinary U-value, $S$ is solar factor.

Figure 1.
Equivalent U-value for single family house with ordinary triple panes in Oslo

Figure 2.
Equivalent U-value for single family house with ordinary triple panes in Tromsø
INTRODUCTION

In the planning and design phase it is important to calculate the energy consumption for the building, if a low energy consumption is wanted. As an example - what happens if we change the window area or the type of glazing? We could take an complex computer program that is using hourly values as a lot of input data. In most cases it would be timeconsuming and expensive. We could instead take the simplified method known as degree-day-method. It is fast and easy to use, but the results is not reliable for highly insulated buildings and coated glazings. The best method will be to use a simplified method, that is based on results from a complex computer program and verified against it later. The EFB 1 is a method of this type developed at the Thermal Insulation Laboratory in Denmark (Nielsen 1972). IEA (International Energy Agency) has made a evaluation of methods for calculations of energy savings in residential buildings (Källblad 1983). One of the methods is EFB 1, that has been found to have high or medium confidence in energy saving results.

PRINCIPLE

In EFB 1 the calculations are done month by month from three quantities:

- The transmission and ventilation heat loss of the building.
- The internal heat gain from persons, electric appliances and hot water.
- The solar heat gain from insulation through the windows.

From these three monthly values we calculate two limits for the energy consumption $Q_{min}$ and $Q_{max}$. The real consumption will be between these limits. The actual value is dependent of the heat accumulation in the building.

Transmission and ventilation loss ($Q_{TV}$)

For every month we calculate the transmission loss from the building design, areas and U-values. The ventilation is calculated from the volume, fresh air shift, specific heat of air and temperature difference. As indoor temperature is used the mean value TInst. $21^\circ$C. As outdoor temperature the monthly mean temperature.
Internal heat gains \( (Q_I) \)

The internal gains from persons and electric appliances is calculated based on evaluation of the use of the building. The value can change from month to month.

Solar heat gains \( (Q_S) \)

Based on size and type of windows the insulation through the windows can be calculated. The insolation of a \( 1 \text{ m}^2 \) double pane is calculated and tabulated for different directions of the window. The solar gain is calculated as insolation times area times relative solar factor. The last value is defined as the amount of energy going through a certain window divided by the energy going through a normal double pane. Values of the solar factor is found in Heierstredt and Nielsen 1983.

Limit values for the energy consumption.

The minimum energy consumption is calculated considering that heat gain from sun, electric appliances and persons for one month can be utilized 100% to cover transmission loss and ventilation loss. A house with such high heat capacity is practically impossible to build. If the heat gain is bigger than the consumption it will cause a useless heat surplus.

\[
Q_{\text{MIN}} = \gamma \cdot Q_{TV}
\]

\[
\gamma = 1 - 0.4027 \cdot \left[ \frac{Q_S}{Q_{TV}} + 0.0838 \right] \frac{Q_S}{Q_{TV}}
\]

Note: If \( \gamma \) is less than 15% of \( Q_{TV} \) then \( Q_S \), can be utilized 100%.

Besides heat gain from insulation we have also heat gain from persons and electric appliances. For residential houses it would be most reasonable to assume that the heat supply \( Q_t \) is independent of \( Q_S \). In other words the energy consumption can be reduced once more using the same formula:

\[
Q_{\text{MAX}} = \gamma \cdot Q_{\text{MIN}}
\]

where \( \gamma \) is formula with inserted values \( Q_t \) instead of \( Q_S \) and \( Q_{\text{MIN}} \) instead of \( Q_{TV} \).

By calculating \( Q_{\text{MAX}} + Q_S = Q_t > Q_{TV} \) the useless heat surplus can be calculated.

Heat accumulation.

From the previous section a maximum and minimum energy consumption is calculated. Between these two limits more exact and dynamic calculations will be found. From experience the following can be stated; if we place \( Q_{TV} \) as 0% and \( Q_{TV} \) as 100% the value would depend on the construction materials:

- 40 - 50% mostly bricks and concrete
- 50 - 60% mostly lightweight concrete
- 60 - 80% mostly fibrous plaster

DATA FOR CALCULATIONS

It is important to know which data is necessary to make calculations of the energy consumption with EPB 1. The data are divided in three groups - climate data, building data and user data. The first part can not be changed. The second part can be changed in the planning and design phase. The third part gives the users influence.

Climate data.

The outdoor temperature is the mean for each month. The insolation through a \( 1 \text{ m}^2 \) double pane should be calculated in kwh/month with windows facing north, south, east and west. These data are necessary for each location with a different climate.

Building data.

These must be calculated from the drawings and descriptions of the building. The most important is areas, U-values, fresh air shift, heat recovery and indoor temperature. For windows we need to know more because these have both heat loss and heat gain. The heat loss is calculated from U-value of the glass, U-value of the frame and the area of glass and frame. The heat gain is calculated from the glass area, the reflective solar factor, the direction of the window and eventually an outdoor shading. The selection of the glazing is important as both the U-value and the solar factor can be changed. Values of these parameters is found in Heierstedt and Nielsen 1983.

User data.

If we make comparisons of calculated and measured energy consumption a wide range of result could be expected. That is because of the inhabitants use the building in their own way. They can change certain data as indoor temperature, ventilation rate, indoor shading of windows and the heat gain from persons, hot water and electric appliances.
But these parameters can be taken into account in the calculation and give a better agreement between calculated and measured energy consumptions.

EXAMPLES

The EFB 1 method has been used to calculate the effect of different window sizes and different glass types. An example of the calculation will be given at the poster session. It is made as a handcalculation method but also programmed on Texas Instruments TI-59, Hewlett Packard CV-41 and as an FORTRAN version. EFB 1 is used in Denmark and Norway, but we have tried it on other climates as describes in Nielson and Heiersted 1983.

Selection of glazing.

The method has been used for calculations of energy consumption on houses with different glazings. For a single family house in Oslo with 15% windows the energy consumption is found to be 15.5 kWh/year. The glazing has a U-value of 3 W/m²K and a solar factor of 0.6. This is equivalent with normal double pane. Similar calculations has been made with other types of glazings. The results are best described with a relative energy consumption scale on the Y-axis, where 100% is the value for clear double pane. On the x-axis is the k-value of the glazing. In the chart is lines for different solar factors. This chart will change for different building types and glazing areas. Architects and engineers can use this chart for easy prediction of energy consumption for different types of glazings.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


8. ENERGY SAVING POTENTIAL WITH DIFFERENT GLAZING IN RESIDENTIAL HOUSES

Generalised design charts and equations allow simultaneous comparison with solar and thermal properties of different glazing products.

Roy Scott Heliersted

THERMAL AND SOLAR PROPERTIES OF GLAZING

Today's coated products have an improved thermal insulation compared with ordinary double and triple clear glass units. However, this achievement is reached by sacrificing a significant portion of the direct solar transmittance. The energy saving potential of today's coated glazing is not significantly improved from ordinary triple units (Heliersted 1983).

Clear glass panes only have a slight influence on the annual solar heat gain. But with coated glazing the solar property of the window changes within a wide range. It seems necessary to introduce two design parameters for glazing properties in residential application, both the thermal transmittance (U-value) and the solar heat gain (Solar factor).

Thermal transmittance (U-value)

It is the U-value of the glazing itself which is to be used as variable in the design charts and equations. Make sure the U-values of comparing glazing products refer to the same test method or the same calculation model.

The most significant improvement of U-value of glazing lies in the coating technology on glass. The limit to the low emissivity property is the visible effects as daylight transmittance and colour toning and -rendering (Breder 1984).

Solar heat gain (S-factor)

The total solar heat gain through a particular glazing is given relative to a double glazing of 4 mm clear glass panes. This ratio is named the Solar factor, and not a shading coefficient to emphasis that a high solar heat gain is considered a favourable property in residential use in colder climates.

Because the coated glazing significantly reduces the direct solar transmittance, today's products of low emissivity glazing actually benefit from the fact that the coating absorbs just as much as it reflects. The absorption in the inner glass helps improving the solar heat gain quite similar to three layers of clear glass (Heliersted 1983).

CALCULATING THE ENERGY DEMAND OF HOUSES

Differences in the solar property of glazing may lead to higher energy demand even if the thermal insulation of the glazing is improved. It is important to point out this delicate balance of the solar and thermal properties. To check the significance of each product, calculations of energy consumption are made in four different houses.

During the computer calculations with the EF-1 method, all parameters of the house except the solar and thermal properties of glazing are kept constant (Nielsen 1984).
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Glazing unit</th>
<th>U-value (W/m²K)</th>
<th>Solar transmittance (%)</th>
<th>Solar factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary glass, Double, 12 mm air</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>70 % + 7 %</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard triple, 2x12 mm air</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>61 % + 10 %</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar control coating, Gold + argon</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>35 % + 10 %</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gold + argon</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>22 % + 6 %</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.E.-coated, single, Tioxide + air</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>47 % + 24 %</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silver + air</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>46 % + 13 %</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silver + argon</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>46 % + 14 %</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L.E.-coated, triple, Silver + air</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>40 % + 15 %</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Areal heat-loss ratio (A-ratio)

All the reference houses initially use a sealed double glazing unit of U = 3.0 W/m²K and S = 1.00 (Solar factor) to simulate a 100% energy demand. Table 2 shows the various heat-losses in the reference houses. The A-ratio (Areal heat-loss ratio) for the double glazing will in a following chapter bridge the individual buildings into one generalized model.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>House</th>
<th>Windows x = U · A / (W/K)</th>
<th>Building envelope</th>
<th>Areal heat-loss ratio A / x/y (S/K)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B815</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>144.0 + 44.1 = 188.1</td>
<td>0.287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B25</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>177.0 + 44.1 = 221.1</td>
<td>0.407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TH15</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>99.1 + 47.6 = 146.7</td>
<td>0.337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THB5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>129.3 + 47.6 = 176.9</td>
<td>0.466</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference houses

The calculated houses are insulated according to the Norwegian Building Code, with U-values for walls and floor/ceiling about 0.25 to 0.30 W/m²K. The ventilation rate is half on air change per hour, and the free heat from people and electricity is 5600 KWh/year.

The solar heat gain utilization in the reference houses correspond to a middle-to-light weight building structure. The four different houses (Nielsen 1983):
- Detached single-family house of 120 m² living area and 15% window-to-floor area (B815)
- Semi single-family house with 25% window area (B25)
- Terraced house (town house) of 110 m² living area and 15% window area (TH15)
- Semi terraced house with 25% window area (THB5)

Design charts for residential houses

By introducing an ordinary double glazing as a reference, the relative energy demand caused by other glazing products become equal for most climates. Even the geographical orientation of the building is neglected by the relative scale. Meaning there is always a 100% energy demand with double glazing for any building, climate and orientation (Heiersted 1983).

This leads to design charts and equations which let architects and consultants easily handle both the thermal insulation and the solar heat gain properties of the glazing simultaneously.

Fig. 1 shows the design charts for the two detached single-family houses with 15% and 25% window-to-floor area. Fig. 2 shows the same diagrams for the terraced houses.

The relative energy demand for each house may be expressed as equations (Eq. 1):

- House B815: Single-family, 15% windows
  \[ E = 81.29 + 13.25 \cdot U - 21.04 \cdot S \] (S/K)
- House B25: Single-family, 25% windows
  \[ E = 70.49 + 19.23 \cdot U - 28.18 \cdot S \] (S/K)
- House TH15: Terraced, 15% windows
  \[ E = 75.85 + 16.21 \cdot U - 24.48 \cdot S \] (S/K)
- House THB5: Terraced, 25% windows
  \[ E = 63.54 + 22.71 \cdot U - 31.56 \cdot S \] (S/K)

Fig. 1. Relative energy demand in detached single-family houses.
Fig. 2. Relative energy demand in terraced houses (town houses).

MODELLING A MULTI-BUILDING EQUATION

The individual equations (Eq. 1) for the reference houses show a variable sensitivity to changes in the U-value and the S-factor. There is an obvious dependence of the window-to-floor ratio and the heat-losses in the windows and building envelope.

To allow a simpler mathematical regression, these equations may be rewritten:

\[ E = 100 + B \cdot (3-U) + C \cdot (1-S) \]  
(\text{Eq. 2})

By linear regression the coefficients (B) to the U-value and (C) to the S-factor are expressed as functions of the A-ratio, i.e. the areal heat-loss ratio of the windows versus the building envelope and ventilation (Table 2). Data for the reference houses give:

\[ B = 1.45 - 51.57 \cdot A \quad (n = 4, R^2 = 1.00) \]  
(\text{Eq. 3})

\[ C = 4.64 + 57.92 \cdot A \quad (n = 4, R^2 = 1.00) \]

The multi-building equation is modelled from the rewritten Eq. 2 and the substitution of Eq. 3. The relative energy demand for detached and terraced houses (Eq. 4):

\[ E = (108.99 - 96.79 \cdot A) + U \cdot (51.57 \cdot A - 1.45) + S \cdot (57.92 \cdot A + 4.64) \]

where,  \(U(\text{kW/m}^2\text{K})\), thermal transmittance

\(S(-)\), relative solar heat gain (solar factor)

\(A(-)\), areal heat-loss ratio

The limitations to the multi-building equation do only depend on the areal heat-loss ratio of the windows, as long as the floor area and the standard of insulation are fairly comparable to Scandinavian residential houses.

The areal heat-loss ratio may be interpreted:

\[ A = 0.0 \text{ when there is 0 m}^2 \text{ window area} \]
\[ A \rightarrow 0.7 \text{ for extreme large window area} \]

Proposed limitation, \(0.55 > A > 0.15\)
INTRODUCTION

There has been no durability tests on windows except for weather-o-meter tests on surface treatments. For wooden windows, such a test can establish the frequency of maintenance, but not tell how long a window will last without any special treatment.

For windows made out of so-called maintenance-free materials, we needed a test method to evaluate the different types of raw material combinations resistant to climatic exposure.

PVC extrusions for window profiles were introduced in Middle Europe more than twenty years ago. The experience with these windows on natural exposure is of great value, but the material technology runs very fast, bringing new and perhaps better suitable materials for window constructions. Thanks to that, the gained experience in the material behaviour over the last twenty years is of less importance and can not be transferred directly to the new developed materials and constructions.

Therefore a test method for durability was needed to save time and get a quick answer to the questions involved.

TEMPERATURE CYCLING TEST

We know that the most important climatic factors affecting facade materials are wind, rain, sunshine and temperature, of which sunshine and temperature will affect the PVC in a special way. In the Scandinavian countries with long and hard winters, also rapid temperature changes are of importance to establish the lifetime of a PVC construction.

Thanks to that knowledge, the temperature had to be involved in a new test method, and based on earlier experience with all kinds of window testing, we started the work with the special method for white PVC construction.

In the first experimental series we introduced 4 different PVC extrusions in windows together with 2 types of wooden windows. After measuring rain and wind penetration, all windows were installed into a well insulated wall between two chambers. The temperature in the "hot" chamber was +23°C during the whole test. In the cold chamber, the temperature was kept on -30°C for 10 hours, and then changed to +65°C for 14 hours. The cycle was repeated for 30 days.
During this period all deformations of sashes and frames were measured, and the first test period ended with a new rain and wind penetration test.

The deformation which occurred on the PVC test windows had exactly the same characteristics which we have seen on windows in practice, while no deformation at all could be measured on the wooden windows.

The repeated rain and wind penetration test showed clearly the increasing leakage thanks to the deformation, more or less on the different constructions. The measured deformation curve also showed that the deformation in the cold period of the test cycle did not quite return to the origin during the hot period, and we got what we call a permanent deformation on the windows.

On PVC profiles reinforced by means of aluminium or steel channels, the movements were less than on not reinforced ones, and the constructive details of the different profile systems affected the movements and the deformation.

After a resting period of 3 months, where the deformation was naturally reduced, we started another 30-days cycle period with temperature variations. The same happened again with slowly increasing deformation, and also the air and water leakage increased.

CORRELATION WITH PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

We had now found a method for testing durability of PVC windows in the laboratory. But what about the number of cycles and the correlation with practical conditions?

Measurements on 15 years old windows installed in Germany gave us the answer. We measured exactly the same type of deformation which we had produced in the laboratory. And the dimensions of the deformation increased according to the age of the window.