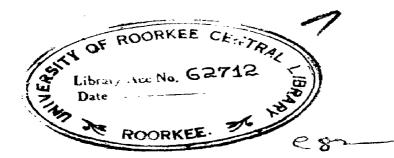
UNIVERSITY OF ROORKEE, ROORKEE (U.P.)

Certified that the attached dissertation on In-Place Testing of
Insulated Systems.*
was submitted by
Sri G.K. Sharma.
and accepted for the award of Degree of Master of Engineering in Applied Thermodynaulos
vide Notification No. Ex/82/E-218 (6x2m)/1965 dated

(S.S. Spivasteva) Assistant Registrar (Exam.)

PSUP(R) 126 Ch. 1961--1,000

IN - PLACE TESTING OF INSULATED SYSTEMS



CHECKED 1995

THESIS submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of MASTER OF ENGINEERING IN

Applied Thermodynamics -, Refrigeration & Airconditioning

GOPAL KRISHAN SHARMA



DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING UNIVERSITY OF ROORKEE ROORKEE(INDIA) September, 1963



CERTIFICATE

Cortified that the dissortation entitled "In-place testing of insulated systems" which is being submitted by Sri Copal Krishan Sharma As a partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Engineering in Eachenical Engineering of the University of Reerkee, is a record of benafide work carried out by him under my supervision and guidance. The results embedded in this thesis have not been submitted for award of any other degree or diploma.

This is to cortify further that he has worked for a period of four and half months for the Master of Engineering Thesis at the University of Forkee.

B. C. Laychanthin: 24/9/13

(B.C. Rayshaudhuri) Sonior Sciontific Officor, Hoad of Hoat Transfor Section, Control Exilding Roscarch Instituto, R 0 0 R K E E (India)

Noorkoo Dated Soptombor 26, 1963.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The work has been done under the able guidance of Sri B.C. Raychaudhuri, Senior Scientific Officer, Head of Heat Transfer Section, Central Building Research Institute, Roorkee once part time teacher at University of Roorkee, whose deep theoretical background coupled with his vast practical experience in the field of heat transfer, spread over a span of many years, has been of great utility and the author wishes to express his deep and sincere gratitude to him for the same.

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The author wishes to extend his heartfelt thanks to Sri Dinesh Mohan, Director, Central Building Research Institute Roorkee and Dr. Vachaspati, Head of Physics Department for providing necessary equipment.

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S U M M A RY

In-place test studies on glass wool insulated six inches thick wall of a cold storage, conducted at University of Roorkee during summer monsoon in 1963, revealed remarkable variations of apparent conductivity 'k' with packing density, j The heat transfer across the wall was measured by means of heat-flow-meters put at exterior and interior faces and temperature distribution was measured by means of several thermo couples placed at the faces and in the body of the insulation. The temperature distribution curves were plotted and by drawing tangents at the inter-faces dt/dL values were obtained. Fourier's Law of steady state heat conduction was applied to obtain thermal conductivity by dividing heat flow rate by dt/dL. Three days' time was given before recording the data to ensure that the insulation was nearly in thermal equilibrium . The temperature distribution curves in all the cases were convex upward (when T as ordinate L as abscissa), thereby giving a steeper temperature gradient on cold side. For a practically constant rate of heat flow this meanta decreased 'k' value at low temperature. At any packing density the conductivity was found higher at higher temperature.

The effect of packing density on "k" value was also obsorved. Densities were changed by removing or adding the insulation layers. Moisture contents in the insulation were obtained for every set of packing density by taking insulation samples from both the cold and hot sides in air tight glass weighing bottles and calculating the percentage loss in weight after drying at 105 deg. C in the oven. It was observed that as the density increased conductivity decreased till a density of 4.125 lbs/cubic feet was reached when 1t was minimum 0.336 BTU inch/sq.ft. hr. deg. F at 85 deg. F, and 0.241 at 42 deg. F. The average moisture content at 85 deg. F mean temperature was 0.3% while that at 42 deg. F mean temperature was 7.0%. Any further increase in density resulted in increase of conductivity. When the density was reduced to 2.25 tons /cu. ft., the conductivity increased to 0.590 that is 75.6% at 85 deg. I and to 0.336 that is 39.4 percent at 42 deg. F. A greater rise at 85 deg. F being attributed to radiation effect being greater at higher mean temperatures. The above results were obtained from innbtion slabs without using any vapour barier and where 85 deg. F indicated the hot gace temperature while 42 deg. F indicated the cold face temperature. Three densities were tried with the use of vapour barrier on the hot side while the cold side was kept exposed to the refrigerated space. For changing the packing density the

vapour barrier was removed and again put every time. Because of partial removal of moisture the conductivity decreased from those at the same packing density and without vapour barrier. At the density of 4.125 lbs/cu.ft. the conductivity decreases from 0.336 to 0.334 that is 0.6% at 81 deg. F for a decrease of 0.11 % in moisture and from 0.241 to 0.225, that is 6.6% at 42 deg. F for a decrease of 1.4 % in moisture content, temperature dependency of 'k' being neglected between 81 deg. F and 85 deg. F.

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INTRODUCTION

There are many factors and conditions which effect the thermal conductivity of insulating materials. Some of these are within the materials themselves, some are result of conditions under which heat transfer takes place and other s are within the mechanism by which heat is transferred through the material. Some of the factors inherent in the material are structure, density and moisture content Some of those which may be attributed to conditions under which heat is transferred are mean temperature and in some cases orientation of test sample. Most changes which effect the overall rate of heat transfer, through the sample will also disturb the relationship between the amounts given off by radiation, convection or conduction. An analysis of the effect on thermal conductivity of a given material caused by changing any one of the foregoing factors may thus become very complicated. For instance. increasing the density of a material may either increase or decrease its thermal conductivity depending upon the structure of the material and the range over which the density is changed. The moisture content will have a greater effect on the thermal conductivity of some materials than on others. Likewise the orientation of a sample.

that is, the direction of heat flow through the sample may have a major effect on some samples while on others there may be no effect what-so-ever.

As is well known, heat is transforred through most insulating materials by a combination of conduction, convection and radiation. Any change in the structure, density or moisture content of the sample or variation of test conditions will usually affect differently the rate of heat transfer by various methods. The overall effect may be one of increasing or decreasing the conductivity.

The purpose of the work described here was to set up test conditions and to provide apparatus by which in-place test studies be conducted on glass wool insulated six inches thick cold storage wall. No attempt was made to cover a long list of factors affecting the thermal conductivity so as to furnish a complete analysis of the conductivity as affected by these factors. However, the variation of thermal conductivity with density of packing with and without vapour barrier so as to include the effect of moisture was thoroughly studied. The use of laboratory thermal conductivities was questioned due to the effect of moisture distribution within the insulating walls. Moreover the thermal conductivity tests made in the laboratory will not tell the true story of the performance of the insulating materials under actual conditions of usage because of difficulty rather impossibility of duplicating field conditions in the laboratory.

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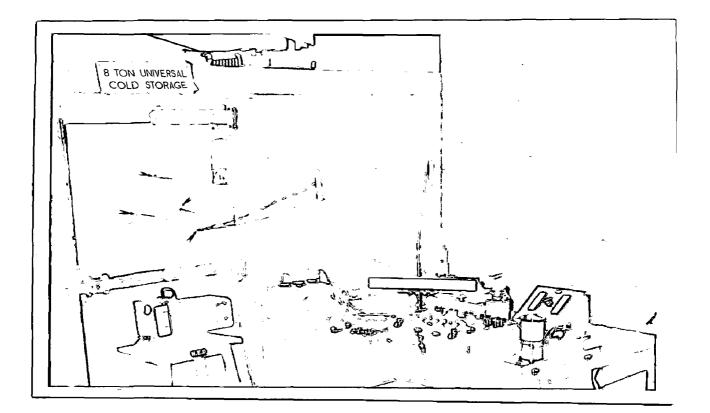
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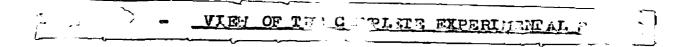
METHOD USED.

Glass wool is a fibrous material with a large amount of air in a continuous air type of arrangement. Heat is transferred across the air spaces by radiation, conduction, and (or) convection. If the open spaces are small, as would occur when tightly packed, the transfer of heat is by radiation across the space, by conduction of air in the air space, and by solid conduction of fibres. With relatively small temperature drops across the air spaces, the heat transfer through the whole mass may be taken as by conduction. But in case of loosely packed wool the radiation becomes an important factor with a greater temperature difference across the air spaces. Furthermore, convection currents are also set up. In such a case, a coefficient of conductivity cannot correctly represent its apparent conductivity. Since it has been a common practice among engineers to employ a 'k' value for all sorts of materials, the total heat transmitted by all the modes will be taken as conducted through the insulation and Fourier's equation of heat flow would be applicable. The

k value will in a true sense be k_{apparant} The method will be to determine rate of heat transfered by heat-meter and the temperature gradient in the wall by thermo - couples placed at different depths into the insulation.

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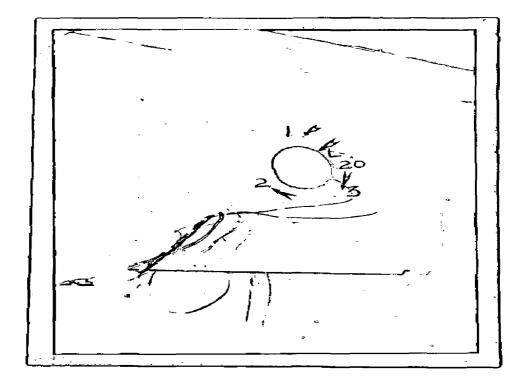




DESCRIPTION OF APPARATUS :

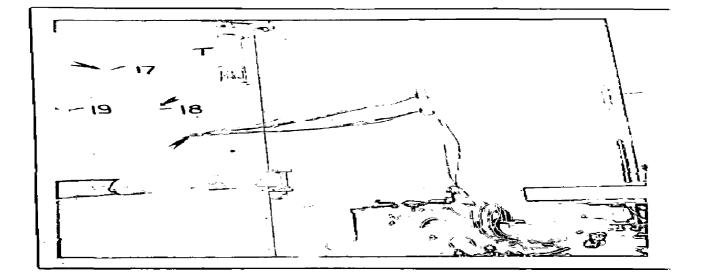
The cold storage on which tests were conducted was of eight tons capacity. This was a walk-in-type cooler and housed inside the laboratory room. The dimensions of the cold room were 12 x 12 x 62 cu.ft. and of its door were 6 x 2 x 1 cu. ft. The upper half portion of the door was used as the test pannel. The metallic sheets from both sides of the door were replaced by in thick plywood boards. The insulation was held in position in the panel by these two plywood boards which were secured to the frame of the door by wood screws. The inner board was screwed permanently while the hot side one was removable for the purpose of adding or removing insulation from the test pannel to vary the packing density. Heat flow through the insulation was measured by the use of heat-meters.

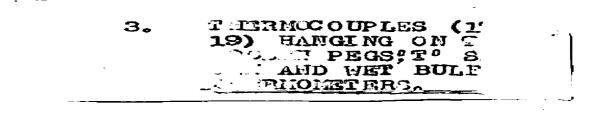
A heat-meter⁽¹⁾ is composed of multijunction thermopile arranged in a bakelite slab. ¹he thermopile consists of a series of thermo couples so positioned that one set of junctions (hot junctions) is in a plane adjacent and parallel to one face of the bakelite slab;



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the other set of junctions ("Cold junctions") is in a plane adjacent and parallel to theother face of the slab. Heat flow through the slab generates an electromotive force due to difference in temperature between the hot and cold junct-1ons of the thermopile. Each heat-meter is calibrated by means of guarded-hoplate arrangement and the calibration constant in B.T.U. per hour sq.ft mv is determined for a given value of heat-meter temperature which is obtained from thermocouple embedded in the heat-meter. The change in thermopile electromotive force due to temperature occurs in a consistant manner; correction from the base calibration temperature may be represented by the help of a curve. Two heat meters were used one at the exterior interface and one at interior interface to measure the heat entering and leaving the wall. A proper thermal contact between the heat meter and the board surface was obtained by using a very thin soft cloth under the meter plates, and by pressing the heat meter firmly against the board. The cloth also facilitate theat meter removal, after completing the work, without any damage to its contact surface with the board. A mild adhesive like quickfix was used and a

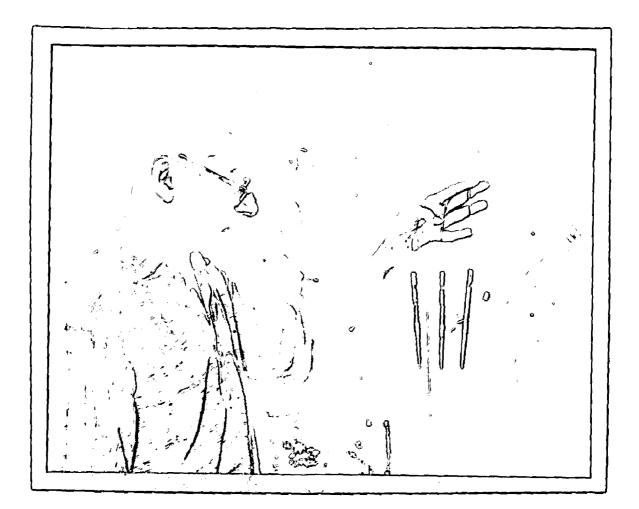




definite precaution was taken not to allow any air film getting entrapped between the meter and the board. If this be not prevented, the air film would cause the heat-meters readings to be incorrect.

The hot side meter had a constant of 23.2 BTU/ hr. sq.ft. mv. at 85 deg. F and the cold side meter had a constant of 11.77 BTU/ hr. sq.ft. mv. at a temperature of 42 deg. F. as corrected for the temperatures mentioned with the help of temperature correction curves. These values were supplied by the heat transfer section of Central Building Research Institute Roorkee, through the courtesy of which these heat meters were obtained.

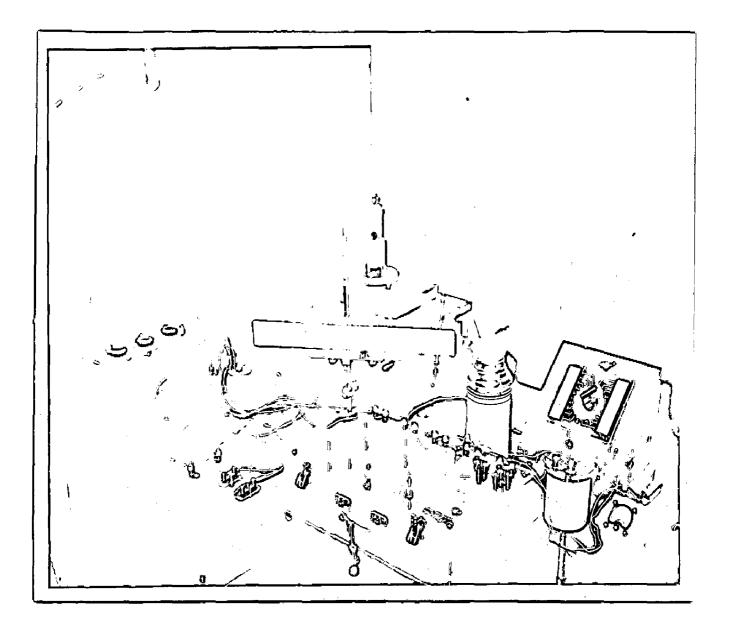
Copper-constantan thermo-couples were used for measuring various temperatures. To determine the temperature distribution across the insulation, thermocouples were put at the two interfaces and at one third points of the insulation pack. Ambient temperatures inside and outside were determined by keeping hot junctions at five inches distance from the boards into the space. Five inches long wooden pegs were fixed to the plywood with quickfix and hot junction



UTHOR'S HAND ARE THREE Y CING THERMOCOUPLES (11, ULATION EODY. HANGING USED I 14,15 2. é3 , iš ,

were kept at their projecting end. The termocouples for the interface temperature were placed on the plywood boards and kept in position by the adhesive tape, put slightly off the junction. A little of quickfix was used to keep the junctions in contact with the board. However, care was taken against the use of too much quickfix which would otherwise form an insulating coating on the hot junction. To put the body thermo-couples in place correctly, presented a problem. The easiest way and the one which was adopted was to use thin wooden skews of length 6 inches equal to the insulation thickness, which could be inserted into the insulation pack. The thermo-couples were fixed at one third points on the skew. Since wood with much higher thermal conductivity than the insulation, would effect the heat flow meter reading, the skew was not placed in the test space. Test space is the insulation field space enclosed by the heat- meters. Instead, three skews each with two thermo-couples at one third points were inserted into the insulation so as to form the edges of an imaginary symmetrical triangular prism enclosing the test space. The mean of the three in-place thermocouple readings was taken as the temperature in the test space at the position of that plane parallel to the

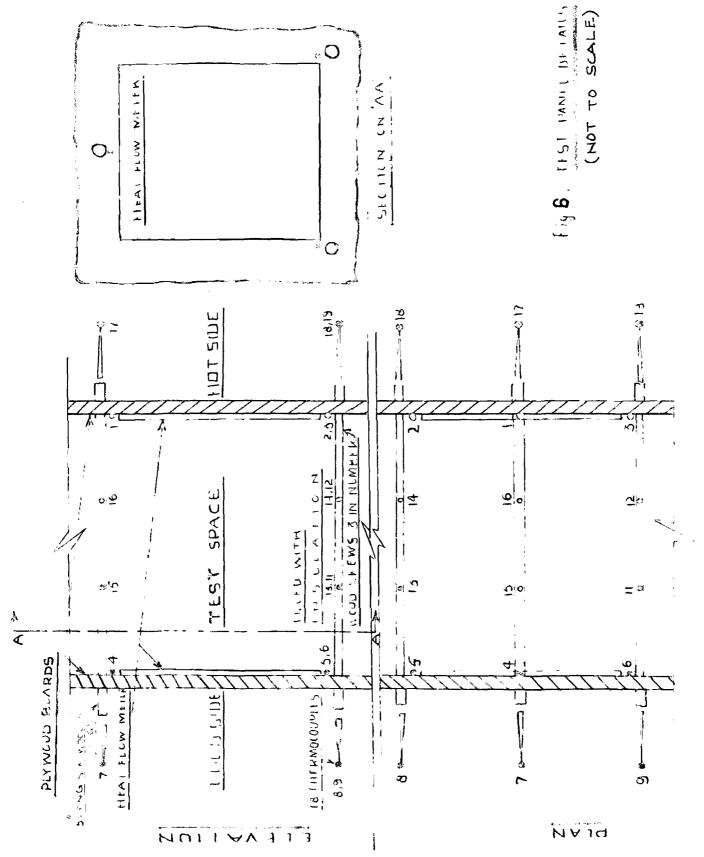
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tost surface. Likewise for the interfaces, three thermo-couples were put on each board in the pattern of a triangle with the hot junctions at vertices. For ambient temperatures also three pegs were fixed on each board. In all 20 (twenty) thermo-couples were used with relative position as shown in Fig. 6.

The thermo-couples leads were connected through a twenty point selector switch to a manually operated potentiometer. The potentiometer had a least count of 0.1 micro volt and was thus sufficiently purposeful to read the emf. (0.171mv) generated corresponding to the lowest temperature encountered; 40 deg. F. This is the temperature at which the cold storage was maintained. The electrical outputs of the heat-meters were also delivered to the same potentiometor.

The Galvanomoter used was moving coil type with lamp and scale arrangement and had a sensitivity of 1 mm. / 3 micro volt., when scale was put at a moter distance from it. Six volt storage battery was used for the lamp and two volts wore tapped from it for the potentiomoter. A standard coll was used for the standardization of the potentiomoter and crushed ico filled in a thormos flask was used as cold junction.



DIMENSIONS & SPECIFICATIONS:

Itom	Description.	Romarks.
Insulation	Glass wool Face Area=23x18ft	
Tost panel	Width = 6inch.	Kopt same for all sets.
	Centre ht. above ground = 5 ft.	Kept same for all sets.
Temperature measurement	By Copper- Constantan thormo couples.	Cold junction temp. 32 deg. F (ice)
Heat flow rate measurement	By heat-flow- meters.	Exterior meter- Fabricated and calibrated by C.B.R.I , Roorkeo 6 inch dia. 1/16 inch thick. Constant 22.2 BTU/hr.sq.ft mv at 125 deg. F. Interior meter - Manufactured by Bechkman and Whitley, U.S.A. 40 inch. sq. plate. 1/16" thick. Constant 11.169 BTU/hr.sq.ft.mv at 80 deg. F.
E. M. F. measurement	By portable potentiometer, Galvanometer (moving coil)	Least count 0.1 micro volt. Sensitivity 1mm per 3 micro volts.
Time of the year.	Late Summer 1963(A-ug Sept.)	At such time variation in minimum and maximum temperatures 1s not much.
Place of In-Place tests on cold storage.	University of Roorkee(India)	30 deg. N. latitude.

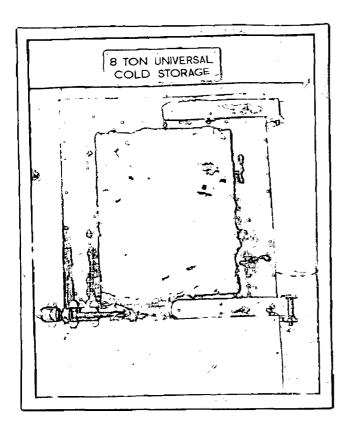
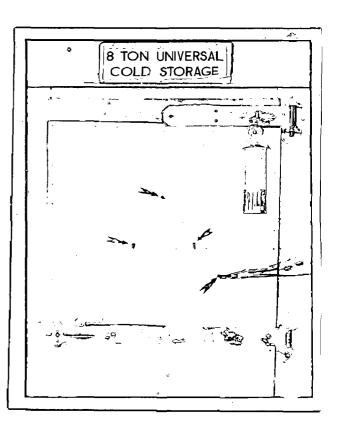
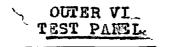


FIG. 7. GL DE PAT · · · .





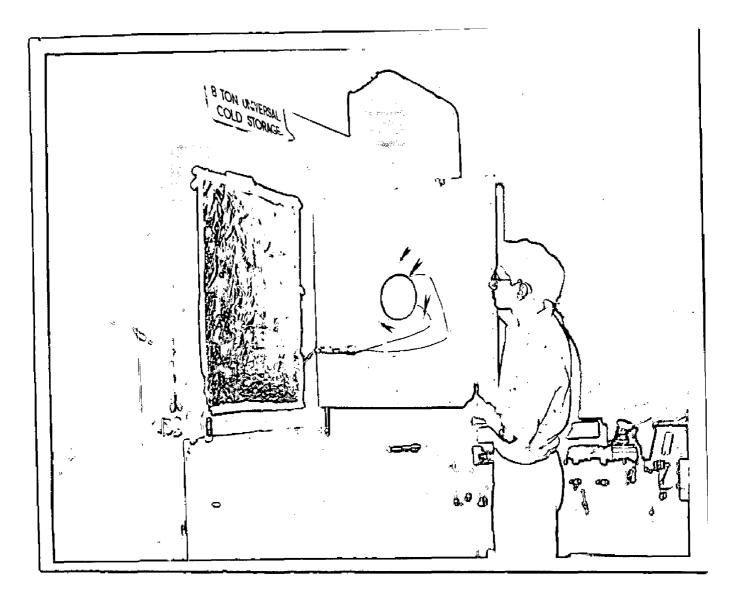
TEST PROCEDURE:

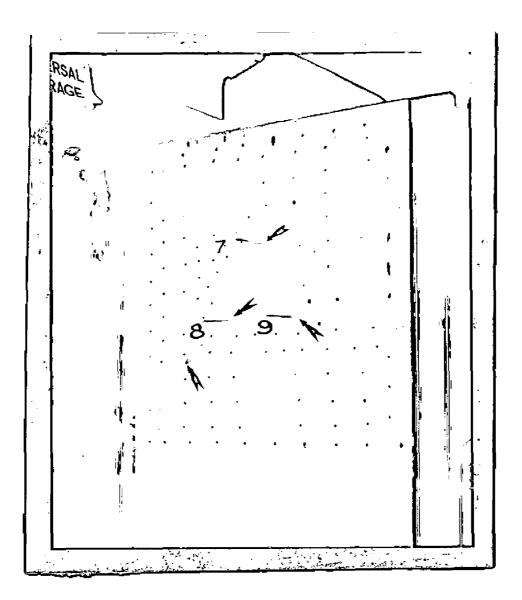
Before starting the plant the whole pack of insulation was removed from the panel and weighod accurately. The pack was then put back in the panol and three skows each carrying two thermo-couples were insorted at their position. The outer board was put in place and screwed to the frame of the door.

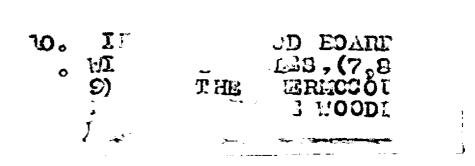
The plant was started . It maintained a temperature of 42.5 (±2.5) Deg. F. After 3 day's (to bring the insulation in thermal equilibrium) the various temperatures and heat flow rates were measured. Since there was a variation of 5 dog. F inside the cold storage, the reading wero started just a fractional degree before 40 deg. F and continued till just a fractional dogree after 40 dog. F. In all the truc senses though the ambient inside temperaturo was not exactly 40 deg. F but the variation was too snall a fraction of a degree to bo detected on the tomporature gauge with naked eyes. To a fair dogree of engineering accurecy it was assuned, thorefore, that all the readings were taken when the inside temperature was constant at 40 deg. F.

It was remarkable to note that the outside temperature was steady all the 24 hours with a very negligible variation of not more than 1 deg. F. It was firstly because of such a time (August-September) of the year when there was little differencein the maximum and minimum temperatures of the day and secondly due to the storage effect of the laboratory in which the plant was housed. Thus giving a stabilizing time of three days for each set and taking the readings at times when the internal ambient air temperature was close to 40 deg. F and with roughly constant outside ambient air temperature, would gurantee that the thermal state was <u>more or less</u> steady.

As a matter of fact it took slightly more than 15 minutes to read 20 thermo-couples and two heat-meter readings and since the inside temperature went sufficiently off 40° F during this time, only body thermo-couples (nos. 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 & 16) and interface thermocouples (Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 & 6) and heat-meter readings were taken. Inside ambient temperature was obtained from the temperature gauge provided on the plant and outside temperature from the thermometer hung outside near the outer face of the panel. These readings were however checked at times with the thermo-couple readings. Clock thermograph was used to find the 24 hours variations







in the outside conditions and was also placed near the outerface of the panel.

Fourteen sets of readings were taken in a day at an interval of nearly one hour for one density of packing. After completing the set, the outer board was removed and swung aside as shown in Fig.9. The glass wool samples from exterior and interior interfaces of the pack were taken in separate air tight weighing bottles for moisture content determination. The samples were dried at 105 deg. C for four hours in an electric oven and the loss in weight due to moisture removal was determined.

The packing density was calculated by dividing the weight of the pack by the volume of the panel which was nearly 2 cu.ft. (2.04 cu.ft. exactly). Several densities of packing below and above the original one were tested and moisture contents determined for all.

The behaviour of the glass wool was studied with vapour barrier also. No vapour dam was used. A number of holes in diameter were drilled in the inner board to let the vapours move out of the insulation into the cold space. A vapour barrier, aluminium foil sheet was put on the outer face of the pack to check the entry of vapour from outside into the insulation.

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ACCURACY OF DATA:

It was observed that an electro motive force of 3 micro volts (corresponding to about 0.2 deg. F produced a deflection of one milimeter on the scale and since the accuracy in reading the scale was approximately one milimeter therefore the estimated accuracy of the temperature readings is ± 2 Deg. F.

The heat-meter readings are estimated to be correct to ± 2.5 %.

-==0=-

RESULTS EVALUATION.

Fourier's Law for the conduction of heat states that for steady flow, the rate of heat flow is equal to the product of three factors : area of the section, taken at right angles to the heat flow; temperature gradient, the change of temperature per unit length along the path of heat-flow; and a proportionality factor known as the thermal conductivity. In the field test set up the heatmeters measured rate of heat flow at the interfaces. The equation for heat flow at the interface may be written

 $q/A = k_i (dt /DL)$

.

Where

Ð	= Rate of heat flow BFU/hr.
A	= Interfacial area of section through
	which q occurs; sq.ft.
at/al	= Slope of tangent to the curve of
	temperature distribution at
	interface, deg. F/inch.
k _i	= Thermal conductivity at interface

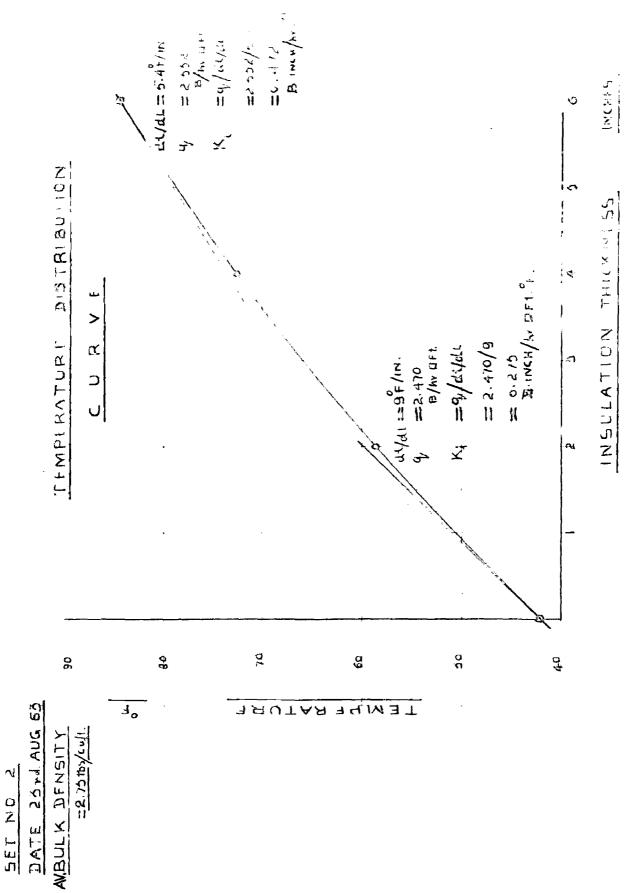
Therefore, the expression for conductivity at the interface is

$$k_1 = \frac{q/A}{dt/dL}$$

With respect to the thermal conductivity of the insulating material at the interface, this equation may be interpretted as follows :

The meter-measured heat flow per hr. per sq.ft, at a given interface divided by the slope of the tangent to the temperature distribution curve at that interface point is equal to the thermal conductivity of the insulating material at the interface.

The curve of temperature distribution and the developement of the tangents at the interfaces are important considerations in evaluating the data. The curves of temperature distribution for each packing density were drawn for the width of the panel equal to the distance between the interface surfaces of the heat-meters. Since test conditions were so chosen which ensured steady conditions the curve of temperature distribution should be practically a straight line for a short distance into the insulation. For drawing the tangents, the curves were extrapolated a little on both sides and the geometric property " A tangent is a Chord in its limiting case" was utilized. This method is similar to



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that used by Simons⁽²⁾. Temperature distribution curve with tangents located has been shown for one case in Fig. !! . The conductivities reported are those at the interfaces and the temperatures shown are the mean temperatures over the steady state period of test.

The conductance of the insulation pack is obtained by dividing the heat flow rate by temperature difference across the pack. The temper ture taken are the temperatures at interior and exterior interfaces. Expressing symbolically:

Where

c = Conductance BFU/hr. sq.ft. deg. F.
q/A = heat flow rate per unit area.
BFU/sq.ft. hr.
dt = temperature difference between exterior

Calculating for the second set.

c = $\frac{2.47}{42.1}$ = 0.0587 BTU/hr.sq.ft.deg.F. The heat entering the cold space is

and interior inter-faces deg. F.

nearly equal to that entering the wall. The former,

contributing to the heat load is of practical importance and has been taken for calculations.

The design value of conductivity, K_D is obtained by multiplying the conductance value with the insulation thickness.

 $K_{\text{Design}} = C \times L.$

Where

C = Conductance. BTU/hr.sq.ft.deg.F. L = Insulation thickness in inches. Calculating for the second set K is equal to 0.0587 x 6 = 0.3522 BTU inch/ ht. sq.ft. deg.F.

Over all cofficient of heat transfer "U" is obtained by the formula.

$$1/U = 1/U' - \left(\frac{2L}{K}\right)_{K}$$

Where

U = Overall coefficient of heat transfer and includes the effect of insulation pack and surface film; HPU/hr. sq.ft. deg. F. U* = Overall coefficient of heat transfer for the test pannel embracing the affects of insulation pack, plywood, and surface film; assuming surface film coefficients being same on the plywood as well as on insulation pack surface.

$$= \frac{q/A}{t_0 - t_1}$$
 Where t_0 and t_1 are
external and internal

embient temperatures.

L = thickness of plywood board in inches.
K = Conductivity of plywood in BTU

inch/hr. sq.ft. deg. F.

Calculating U for the second set.

 $1/U = 46/2.47 - (\frac{2 \times 1/4}{0.9})$

from which U = 0.0551 BTU/hr. sq.ft. deg. F.

. **.**

-101-

Av. packing density lbs/cft		Moisture % by weight.	Conducti- vity B in/ft ² hr ^o F	Moisture % by wt.	K _{design} B in/hr ft ² ° _F	'U' B/hr ft ² ° _F	Av. moisture % by wt.
WITHOU:	r vapour at 42°F	BARRIER	at 85 ⁰ F		· · · ·		
2,250	0.336	7.19%	0.590	0.268%	0.4428	0.071	3.7%
2.750	0.275	6.93%	0.472	0.283#	0.3522	0.0551	3.6%
3.500	0.260	7.12%	0.351	0.278 🐔	0.2928	0.0656	3.7%
4.125	0.241	7.26%	0.336	0.311%	0.2850	0.0448	3.7%
4.625	0.252	6.89%	0.348	0.305%	0.2970	0.0476	3.6%
			· ·	• •			
WITH V	APOUR BAR	RIER ON HO	T SIDE AND	COLD SIDE	EXPOSED		

RESULTS

 at 42°F
 at 81°F

 3.500
 0.232
 5.37%
 0.347
 0.192%
 0.2838
 0.0450
 2.8%

 4.125
 0.225
 5.88%
 0.334
 0.185 %
 0.2700
 0.0427
 3.0%

 4.625
 0.244
 5.61%
 0.344
 0.182%
 0.2892
 0.0445
 2.9%

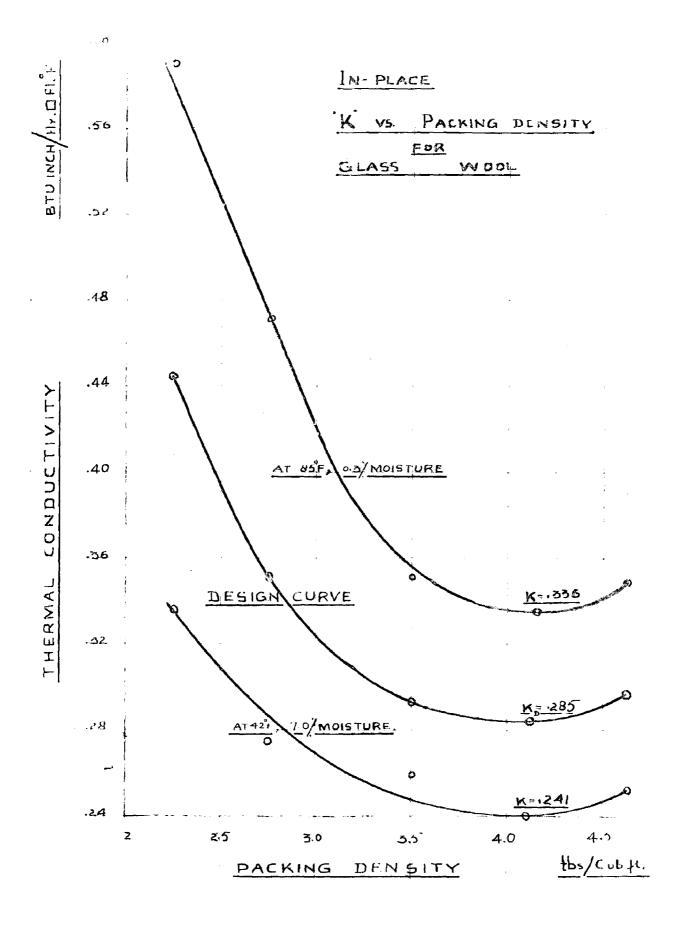


Fig 12.

IN-PLACE

K vs PACKING DENSITY FOR GLASS WOOL WITH VAPOR BARRIER ON HOT SIDE

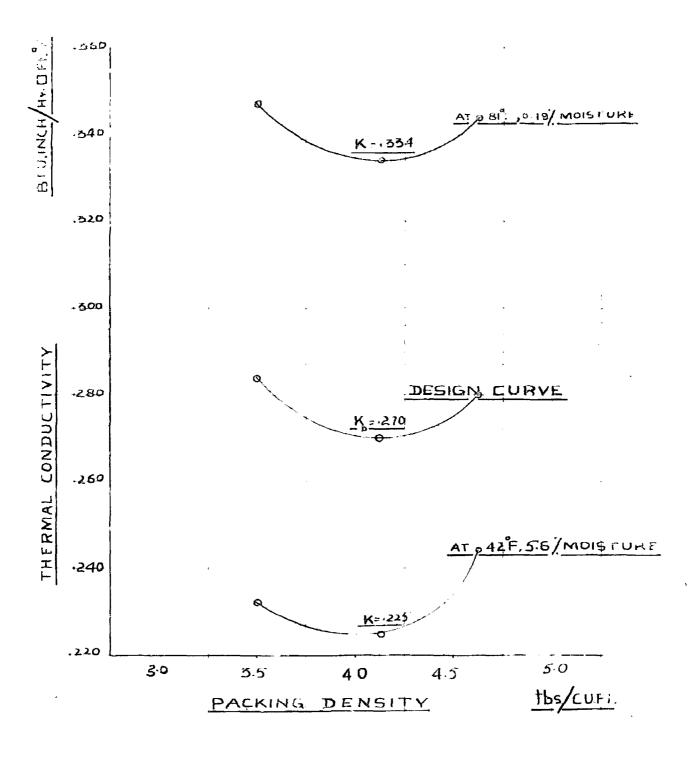


Fig13.

N-PLACE

U'VS PACKING DENSITY FOR GLASS WOOL

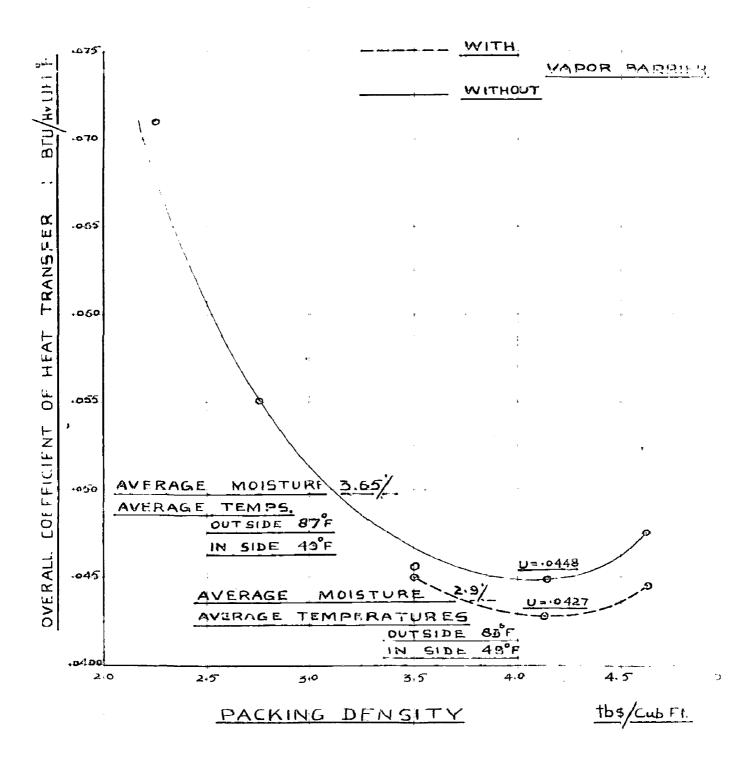


Fig. 14.

DISCUSSION:

The results will be discussed under two sub-headings:

> A. Justification of Results: - to show that the results are reasonable and in appreciable agreement with the work done by others, and are sufficiently accurate for engineering use.

B. Analysis of Results:

A. JUSTIFICATION OF RESULTS:

Glass wool is prepared by issuing molten glass in a small stream from furnace and breaking the mass into fine fibres by a blast of steam. This fibrous material in the form of wool has a high percentage of volume occupied by air in the form of continuous open spaces. A space filled with loose fibrous materials, for example rockwool, glasswool, shredded red wood bark etc. consists largely of air. The weight of the lime stone or glass is roughly 165 lbs/cu.ft. but if glass wool be packed in a space to a density of 3 lbs/ cu.ft. it would occupy only 2 percent of volume, the remainder being air.

The 'k' value of glass wool would obviously lie in between those of glass and air and appreciably towards the latter. The values of conductivity obtained varied from 0.241 HTU inch./sq. ft.hr. Deg. F. minimum to 0.59 maximum, these values being at different temperatures and different packing densities. The conductivity values of glass and air are approximately 5.5 and 0.169⁽⁴⁾ respectively which bracket these values and justify the results. Also the values obtained are in appreciable agreement to those obtained by other workers in this particular field. Some laboratory tests, of course have been conduited on glasswool but unfortunately, comparatively little work seems to have been done on its in-place testing as the author has not so far come across even a single publication on its inplace data to compare with. A similar work on in-place testing of red wood bark fibre was however conducted in U.S.A. by Edward Simons⁽²⁾ Consulting Engineer San Francisco, on walls of various cold storages. Rowley, Jordan and Lander (5) tested at University of Minnesota many insulating materials for conductivity values

at different low mean temperatures and found that for a glass wool specimen (dry) one inch thick packed to a density of 1.65 lbs/cu.ft. the 'k' values at 42 deg. F and 85deg F were 0.257 BTU inch, /hr.sq.ft.Deg.F and 0.298 respectively. The corresponding in-place values obtained by the author are 0.336 BTU inch/hr.sq.ft deg.F at 42 deg.F & 0.59 at 85 deg. F at a slightly higher density of 2.25 lbs/cu, ft. Queer and Hechler (6) found that 'k' values (dry specimen) at packing densities of 2.49 and 3.12 lbs/cu.ft. & at mean temperature of 65 deg. F were 0.257 & 0.251 respectively while the corresponding values obtained by author are 0.397 and 0.322 respectively. With vapour barrier on hot side and cold side exposed, the minimum and maximum values obtained are, for the range of packing densities tested. 0.225 at 42 deg. F and 0.347 at 81 deg. F which are less than those without vapour barrier. It is seen that the in-place values are higher than the established laboratory values in all the The difference being because of Cases. test conditions being widely different in laboratory and the field tests.

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Allcutt and Ewens⁽³⁾ investigated the question of convection in certain insulausing a square vertical plate tors. apparatus with a heater sixteen inches square and guard four inches wide surrounding the heater. they found, with thickness varying from one to four inches, that glass wool (1.5 lbs/cu.ft) showed a remarkable variation of conductivity with thickness. With increase in thickness, increase in the conductivity was observed. It is due to the convection currents in the sample being more at greater widths and also due to the change in contact resistance between the plate and the sample. Thickness being different (6" in-place, 1" laboratory) in the two cases is therefore, one of those factors which explain the increased in-place values over those obtained by Rowley, Jordan and Lander⁽⁵⁾. Another important factor which explains this increase is moisture in insulation. Moisture has a pronounsed effect on the thermal conductivity of insulating materials. The conductivity of water is 4.8 BTU.inch/hr. sq.ft. Deg. F which is more than 15 times that of glass wool at ordinary temperatures & packing densities. If moisture is present

in insulation one would expect the "k" value to be higher than that of dry material.

The effect of moisture on the conductivity is very difficult to determine accurately, because in making a thormal conductivity test, a temperature difference between two sides of the specimen is maintained and moisture always tends to migrate from warmer to colder side.

In interpretting these results, it should be noted that all previous works with which the in-place values have been compared for agreement were made under laboratory conditions, with extreme care taken to prevent any condensation of moisture within the material. The thermal conductivity measurement as made in the dry state (A.S.T.M. Specifications) in the laboratory will not tell the true story of the performance of insulating material under actual conditions of usage.

B. ANALYSIS OF RESULTS:

The line of temperature distributionacross the wall is convex upward in all the cases. For a practical constant rate of heat flow, the decrease in conductivity to overcome the steeper temperature gradient on the cold side is quite evident. It is found that <u>ik' value at 85 deg. F is greater than that</u> at 42 deg. F. with average moisture content of 3.6 percent. This is explained by 3 factors - the conductivity of glassfibre, the conductivity of air in the air spaces and the inner radiation, all of which increase with increase of temperature to give a combined greater value of apparant conductivity at higher temperature.

Because the constitution of glass wool involves air spaces within the pack, there is usually an appreciable amount of heat transfer by convection and readiation. The amount of heat transferred by radiation across an air space between parallel surfaces is proportional to difference of fourth power of surface temperatures. Thus radiation may be an important factor in the transmission of heat through a por-

ous material particularly at low packing

density when sufficient temperature difference exists across the pore. Moreover the rate of radiant heat will be much greater at higher mean temperature than it will be at low even though the temperature difference may be same in both cases (because of the fourth power law). This explains greater change of conductivity at lower packing densities for the same two mean temperatures. At density of 2.25 lbs/cu.ft. conductivity increases from 0.336 BTU inch/hr. sa.ft. deg F. to 0.59 i.e. 75.6 percent for a temperature tide from 42 deg. F to 85 deg. F while at 2.75 lbs/cu, ft. the increase is only 61% for the same temperature rise.

It is interesting to note that the effect of moisture is much less pronounced than the effect of conduction radiation and (or) convection upon conductivity. Therefore, although at 85 deg. F the moisture is 0.3% and at 42 deg. F the moisture is 7% the apparent conductivity at any packing density was more for the higher temperature i.e. 85 deg. F but for moisture consideration where it should have been less. Since heat is transforred through a material by conduction, by radiation through open spaces and by any gas that is enclosed in the material, and sime increaseing the density of a given material changes its charactoristics for heat flow by each of these three methods, there is no simple straight line relation between density and overall conductivity, that will apply to the insulating material. Two phys icists J.D. Verschoor and Paul Greebler⁽⁷⁾ at John Manville Research Centre have derived an expression fot thermal conductivity of gas within insulation. Expressing symbolically :

$$K_{cd} = K_{g} \frac{L_{f}}{L_{f} + L_{g}}$$

Where

Mcd = Apparent 'K' due to gas conduction. EFU inch/hr. sq.ft. deg.F.
L_f = Equivalent pore size of fibrous insulation in microns.
= 0.785 D/f.
D = Fibre diametor in microns.
f = Fractional volume of insulation occupied by fitbers.
CIAM UNIVERSITY OF ROOMAGE ROORKEE.

L = Mean free path of gas molecules in free gas, microns.

Lg is a function of temperature and pressure. It is inversely proportional to pressure and increases with increase of temperature.

K_g = Thermal conductivity of free gas BTU inch./hr.sq.ft deg.F

It is assumed that the fibres lie in planes parallel to mat which they form but that they are otherwise randomly orientated. It is further assumed that the direction of heat flow is perpendicular to the planes in which the fibres lie. This assumption being consistent with many practical application of fibrous insulations. Also it is assumed that fibres are uniform in diameter and that the insulation is free from any non fibrous solid particles.

At atmospheric pressure the value of L_g is much less as compared to L_f . As L_f is decreased, it has a direct effect on K_{cd} which decreases with it. The decrease in L_f can be effected by increase in packing density which which means that as the density increases K_{cd} decreases.

Heat transfer by radiation can be treated by considering the fibrous insulation as successive plates of fibres perpendicular to the direction of heat flow. The average spacing between the plates is L_{f} , since this is the average distance that a photon of the radiation field can move in the direction of heat flow before encountering a fibre. The expression for the apparant conductivity contributed by radiation has been derived by physicists J. D. Verschoor and Paul Greebler⁽⁷⁾.

$$K_{ra} = 2.74 \times 10^{-13} \frac{T^{3}}{m} \frac{L}{f}$$

Where

• • •

K ra	.	Apparent "K" due to radiation
		BTU inch/hr. sq.ft. deg.F
Tm	#	Absolute mean temperature in
· ·		Deg. R.
L _f		as before, pore size in m cron.
a		Fraction of incident radiant energy absorbed by a fibre, di- mensionless.

and the second second product of the second s

It is evident that K like K decroases with

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decrease of Lf , that is, with increase in packing density.

Convection rate of heat transfer also has a direct bearing on L_f . Glass wool consists largely of air and since the air passages are continuous they offer little resistance to Qir flow when loosely packed or conversely high resistance to convection curronts when closely packed thus decreasing K_{CV} with increase of density, that is, with decrease of L_f .

Fig. 12 shows that in the curve for 85 deg. F the 'K' value at bulk density of 2.25 lbs/cu.ft. is 0.59 HTU inch. /hr.sq.ft.deg. F which falls to 0.336 as density is increased to 4.125 lbs/cu.ft. At the low packing density, f, the fractional volume occupied by the fibres is much less with the result that L_f , the effective pore size, which varies inversely with f has a high magnitude. As the density is increased more fibres come in to space thereby increasing f and decreasing L_f . K_{cd} , K_{cv} and K_{ra} being directly dependent upon $\frac{1}{f}$ also decrease with decrease in L_f . But there is another contributory factor

to 'K' - the series solid conduction, which acts otherwise. Series sold conduction contributes a percentage of total thermal conductivity equal to the volume fraction of the fibre present. This factor being directly dependant upon f, increases with decrease in Lf thus always acting in opposition to the previous three factors which decrease with decrese in Lo Thus whereas K , K , K have decreasing effect on 'K', the solid conduction calling the corresponding conductivity by Kg , has an increasing effect. At any packing density the 'K' value is the summation of all the four values that is K , K_{cv}, K_{ra}, K_s. The curve of (K_{cd} + $K_{c,v} + K_{ra}$) if be drawn against packing density, will be a dropping curve while that of K will be a rising curve. It will be seen that a density of 2.25 lbs/cu.ft. the 'K' value is 0.59. HUInch/hr. sq.ft. deg.F. As the density is increased the decrease in (K + K + K) is much more than the cd cv ra increase in K with the result that there is a net decrease in 'K' value. Till the packing density of 4.125 lbs/cu.ft. is reached where the increase in 'K ' nullifies

the decrease in $(K_{cd} + K_{cv} + K_{ra})$. This is the value of packing density at which

"K'; the overall conductivity is minimum.

Any further packing would mean the increase in K_s over weighing the decrease in $(K_{cd} + K_{cv} + K_{ra})$ with the result of net increase in 'K', the overall apparant conductivity.

Moisture is one of the most difficult problems to cope with in an insulated low temperature structure. For cold storages moisture genetration is most serious during summer when the outdoor temperature and absolute humidity are high while the indoor temperature and absolute humidity are low. These condirions cause a difference in the vapour pressure outside and inside of the cold storage which forces the moisture into the insulation through the outside surface. As the p vapour passes through the wall towards the inner side, it soon falls to a temperature corresponding to the dew point which causes condensation and moisture accumulation in the insulation. When a vapour barrier is placed on the outside surface of the insulation it acts to reduce the vapour flow from

outside into the insulation. If the inside surface be exposed, the vapour pressure gradients from the body of the insulation to the conditions at the surface of the refrigerating coil tend to cause vapour flow into the refrigerated space with the result of net decrease in overall moisture, content in the insulation. As already discussed the conductivity of the insulating material decreases with decrease in its moisture content, the effect of vapour barrier in causing a decrease in the conductivity is evident.

The decrease in average moisture content dep to applying vapour barrier was only from 3.65% t6.2.9% with the result the corresponding decrease in conductivity was not much. One reason for a small decrease in average moisture content may be attributed to a small period of time(4 days) given to every set for attaining stabilized conditions and the other to the partial exposure of the cold surface. Because of heat meter boing placed on the wooden board, it was not possible to remove the board so as to give full exposure to the surface. However sufficient number of d" holes were made in the board to create conditions as nearly to the full exposure.

<u>CONCLUSIONS</u>:

From the In-place Testing of six inches thick glass wool insulated wall of a cold storage, the following conclusions are derived:

- 1. In-place thermal conductivity values are higher than the laboratory values.
- 2. Thermal conductivity is higher at higher temperature.
- 3. All other factors affectingthe conductivity remaining constant, there is a finite value of packing density at which thermal conductivity is minimum.
- 4. Vapour warrier affects in decreasing the thermal conductivity.

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