

## PREDICTION OF THERMAL COMFORT IN A ROOM WITH A COLD AIR DIFFUSION SUPPLY UNIT

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### ABSTRACT

Indoor air flow induced by a fan-coil unit in an air-conditioned environmental chamber is studied experimentally. The supply Archimedes number which is a macroscopic number describing indoor air flow is measured and related to the centreline velocity and temperature decay of the cold air jet issued from the fan-coil unit. The space air diffusion and the thermal comfort using respectively the Air Diffusion Performance Index (ADP) and the Predicted Percentage of Dissatisfied (PPD) are evaluated. Evolution of these indices with the supply Archimedes number is discussed.

### KEYWORDS

Negative buoyant jet, Space air diffusion, Thermal comfort, Air diffusion performance.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of air-conditioned systems is to maintain suitable conditions in an indoor environment. Conditioned air should be supplied in proper quantities and temperatures to reach various thermal requirements of occupied spaces. Large air velocities and temperature gradients should be avoided since these factors, either individually or combined, may cause undesirable conditions for occupants in airconditioned spaces. When these factors are induced by the main driving flows which are respectively the cold air jet issued from the air conditioned system and the plumes created by internal heat loads, it seems important in order to study thermal comfort in the occupied spaces, to well know the behaviour laws of these driving flows and particularly of the cold air jet.

Our experimental work is performed to analyse the fan-coil unit cold air jet and to try to rely it with the indoor thermal comfort and the air diffusion performance.

### 2. EXPERIMENTAL ARRANGEMENT

Experiments were conducted in the CETIAT air-conditioned test chamber located in Villeurbanne, France. Figure 1 presents the longitudinal section of the experimental set-up, made of a single cell of volume  $4.9 \times 2.8 \times 2.8 \text{ m}^3$  bounded on five sides by air volumes regulated at a constant temperature level ( $+25^\circ\text{C}$  for the present study). The sixth side, called the facade, is submitted to the influence of a climatic housing where we can simulate external air temperature variations. For these experiments, this temperature has been set to the value of  $+38^\circ\text{C}$ . Furthermore, electric films uniformly distributed over the floor are used in order to simulate internal heat loads. These loads are balanced, that is to say, for an ambient temperature around  $+25^\circ\text{C}$ , by a hydronic room fan-coil unit ( $0.97\text{m}$  long and  $0.70\text{m}$  high) placed against the facade. The dimensions of the fan-coil unit supply grille are  $0.4 \times 0.06 \text{ m}^2$ . Concerning the cold air jet, we used a crossed hot fibre film probe, type DANTEC 55R52 running in the constant temperature mode to sense the flow velocity, and a cold wire probe type DANTEC 55P31 running in the constant current mode to sense the flow temperature. Both probes are coupled to a computerized digital data acquisition system. For simultaneous measurements of velocity and temperature in the flow, the temperature probe is placed slightly upstream ( $5\text{mm}$ ) and offset ( $2\text{mm}$ ) from the velocity probe. This separation was chosen as a suitable compromise, since a too small separation yields contamination of the temperature sensor by the thermal wake of the hot fibre films, while a too wide separation would increase the spatial resolution unacceptably [Antonia and Chambers 1980]. To minimise scatter, a low pass filter with a cut-off frequency of  $80\text{Hz}$  associated with a long integration time ( $1 \text{ ms}$ ) and an acquisition frequency of  $200\text{Hz}$  were used.

The velocity probe was calibrated for the desired velocity range and flow direction, according to the Cosines Law method developed by Jorgensen (1971), and using the automatic calibrator for hot-wire anemometers developed by DANTEC [Stannov 1995]. The calibration curve of the cold wire probe was obtained with a calibration air chamber. During the measurements, air temperature values were also used to compensate velocity data for temperature change. In order to explore the whole jet, these probes were mounted on an automatic displacement apparatus.

The air velocities and temperatures in the occupied zone of the room were measured with 12 thermoanemometric sensors [Calvet and Lioussé 1971] placed at 80 different locations in the occupancy zone of the room. At each position, measurements were taken during a 15 minute period in order to obtain representative mean air velocities and temperatures. These probes have been calibrated using CETIAT velocity and temperature calibration facilities. The inner wall surface temperatures were measured with 10U2 RTD probes calibrated at the laboratory. At last, indoor relative humidity was measured with a capacitive hygrometer.

0.05	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.25	0.3	0.35
0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0
1.1	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7
1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4
2.5	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	3.1
3.2	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8
3.9	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.5
4.6	4.7	4.8	4.9	5.0	5.1	5.2
5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.9
6.0	6.1	6.2	6.3	6.4	6.5	6.6
6.7	6.8	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.2	7.3
7.4	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.9	8.0
8.1	8.2	8.3	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.7
8.8	8.9	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.4
9.5	9.6	9.7	9.8	9.9	10.0	10.1

Figure 1: Longitudinal section of the experimental set-up.

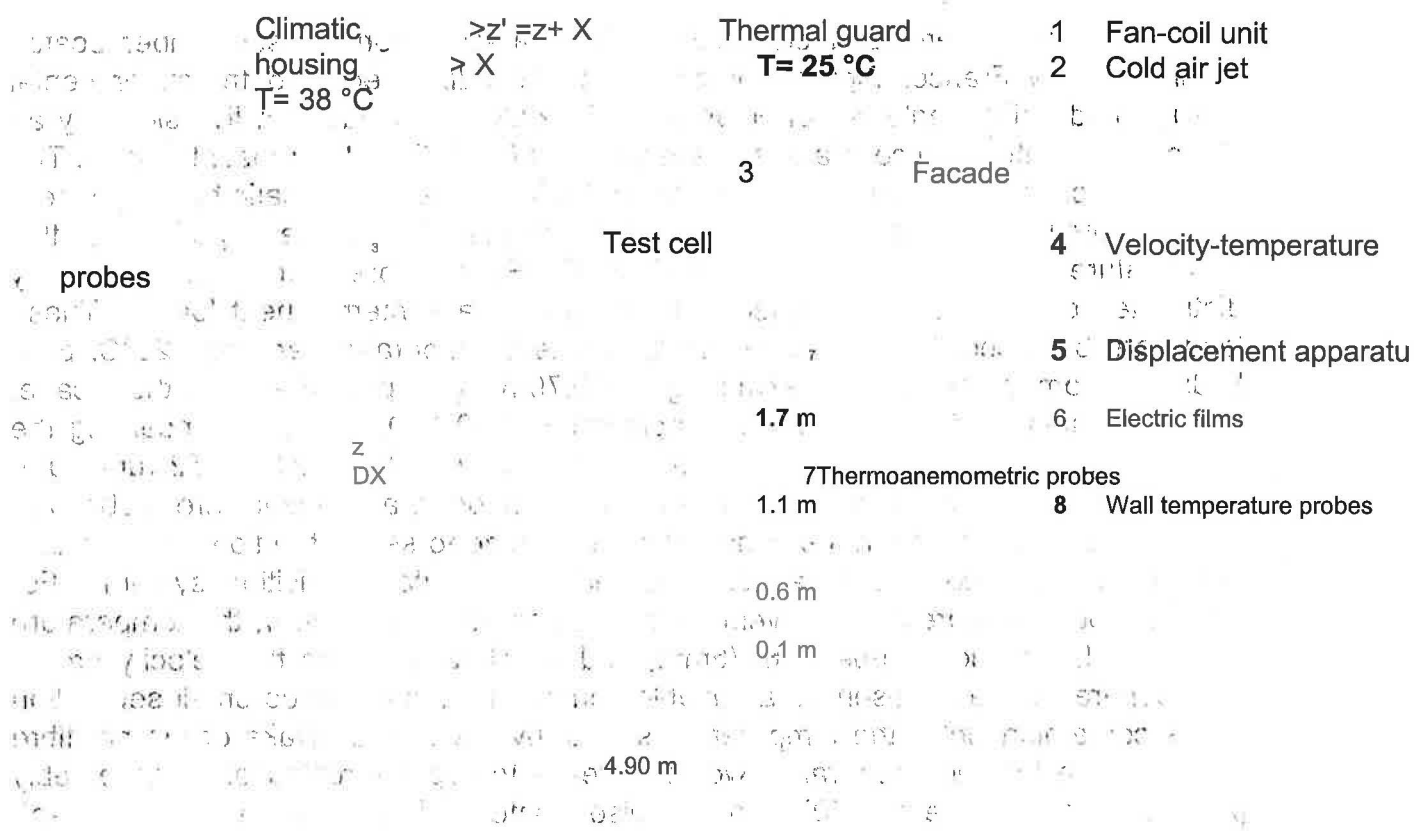


Figure 1. Longitudinal section of the experimental set-up.

### 3. TEST CONDITIONS

18 tests were carried out under a variety of room loads and air flow rate conditions. The parameters used for the experiments are summarized in table 1. All test data were obtained during conditions of thermal equilibrium.

Test No.	Q0 (M <sup>3</sup> /h)	q (W)	U0 (m/S)	TO (°C)	DT0 (°C)	Aro x104
1	285	0	3.16	26.5	0	0
2	291	0	3.24	22.6	3.4	5.0
3	268	0	2.98	22.1	3.9	6.5
4	246	0	2.74	20.4	4.9	10.3
5	278	500	3.10	19.5	6.4	10.4
6	216	0	2.40	21.4	4.3	11.6
7	268	500	2.98	18.6	6.9	12.1
8	281	1150	3.14	14.9	10.1	16.0
9	239	500	2.66	18.2	7.5	16.6
10	284	1100	3.16	14.3	10.7	16.7
11	261	1150	2.92	14.6	10.4	19.1
12	177	0	1.97	19.2	5.9	23.8
13	243	970	2.71	14.1	11.4	24.2
14	204	500	2.27	16.1	8.9	26.9
15	207	900	2.32	14.0	12.2	35.3
16	175	300	1.95	14.2	10.4	42.8
17	167	500	1.86	14.7	11.1	50.2
18	169	700	1.88	13.0	12.8	56.6

Table 1 Experimental conditions.

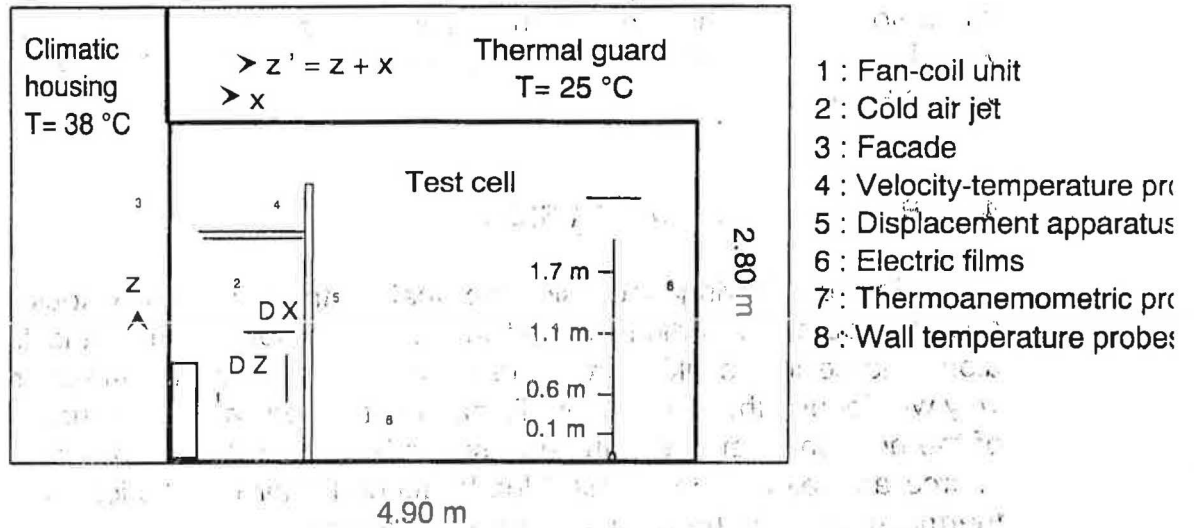


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### 3. TEST CONDITIONS

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Test No.	$Q_0$ ( $\text{m}^3/\text{h}$ )	$q$ (W)	$U_0$ (m/s)	$T_0$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	$DT_0$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	$Ar_0 \times 10^4$
1	285	0	3.16	26.5	0	0
2	291	0	3.24	22.6	3.4	5.0
3	268	0	2.98	22.1	3.9	6.5
4	246	0	2.74	20.4	4.9	10.3
5	278	500	3.10	19.5	6.4	10.4
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17	167	500	1.86	14.7	11.1	50.2
18	169	700	1.88	13.0	12.8	56.6

Table 1 : Experimental conditions.



The Archimedes number  $Ar_o = g\beta DT_o h_o / U_o^2$  is used to characterize the supply conditions. In the calculation of  $Ar_o$ , we used the effective width ( $h_o$ ) of the supply grille. Mean values of exit temperature and velocity were obtained by measuring the temperature and velocity profiles over a 8x12 mesh ( $D_x = 5\text{cm}$  and  $D_y = 0.5\text{cm}$ ). The integration of the velocity profiles over the grille area allows us to calculate the air mass flow rate of the fan-coil unit. The values thus obtained have been compared with those calculated using the water heat balance. The differences between these values are less than 15%.

#### 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the following discussion we analyse the centreline velocity and temperature decay in both the vertical wall jet induced by a fan-coil unit and the horizontal flow along the ceiling resulting from the vertical jet bend at the wall/ceiling corner. In this way we deduce the penetration distance of the vertical jet and the separation distance of the horizontal jet. We further describe how the initial conditions of the air diffusion source as well as internal heat loads affect the air distribution performance and the thermal comfort in the occupied zone of the room.

##### 4.1. Cold air jet characteristics

Figure 2 presents the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature for all the tests. From the Figure 2, we can distinguish three types of cold air jet behaviour according to the Archimedes number values. For the Archimedes number values less than 0.00121 (tests 1 to 7), the jet reaches the ceiling and the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature of the jet can be described by relations close to those usually used for linear isothermal wall jets [Rajaratnam, 1976]. Considering higher Archimedes number values (tests 8 to 13), the jet also reaches the ceiling but, along this surface, we can notice the influence of the negative buoyancy which tends to reduce the jet penetration. At last, for tests 14 to 18 which were carried out with the higher Archimedes number values, the vertical cold air jet does not reach the ceiling and a reverse flow occurs resulting in a self feeding of the jet as it appears on the decay of the centreline temperature.

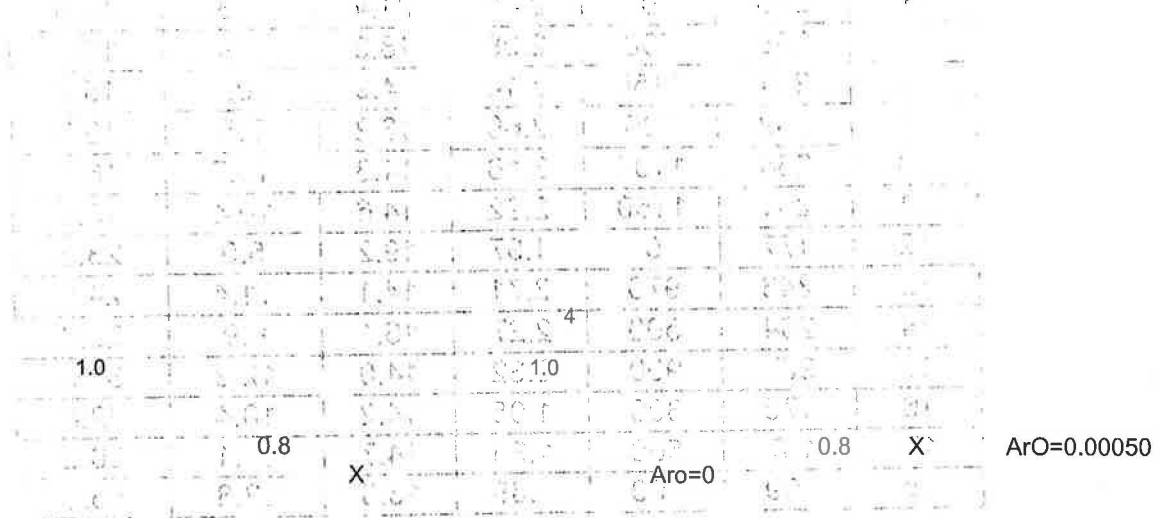




Figure 2. Decay of the centreline velocity and temperature of the cold air jet.

#### 4.1.1. Vertical jet analysis

We can describe the vertical jet by using a general scaling law as proposed by Grimitlyn and Pozin (1993). So, the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature can be defined by.

$$\begin{aligned}
 U_c/U_0 &= K_v [hJ(z+z_0)]^{-0.5} \\
 DTM/DT_0 &= K_T [hJ(z+z_0)]^{-0.5} \\
 K &= [1 - A (K_T/K_v)^2]^{0.5} \text{Aro} ((z+z_0)/h_0)
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

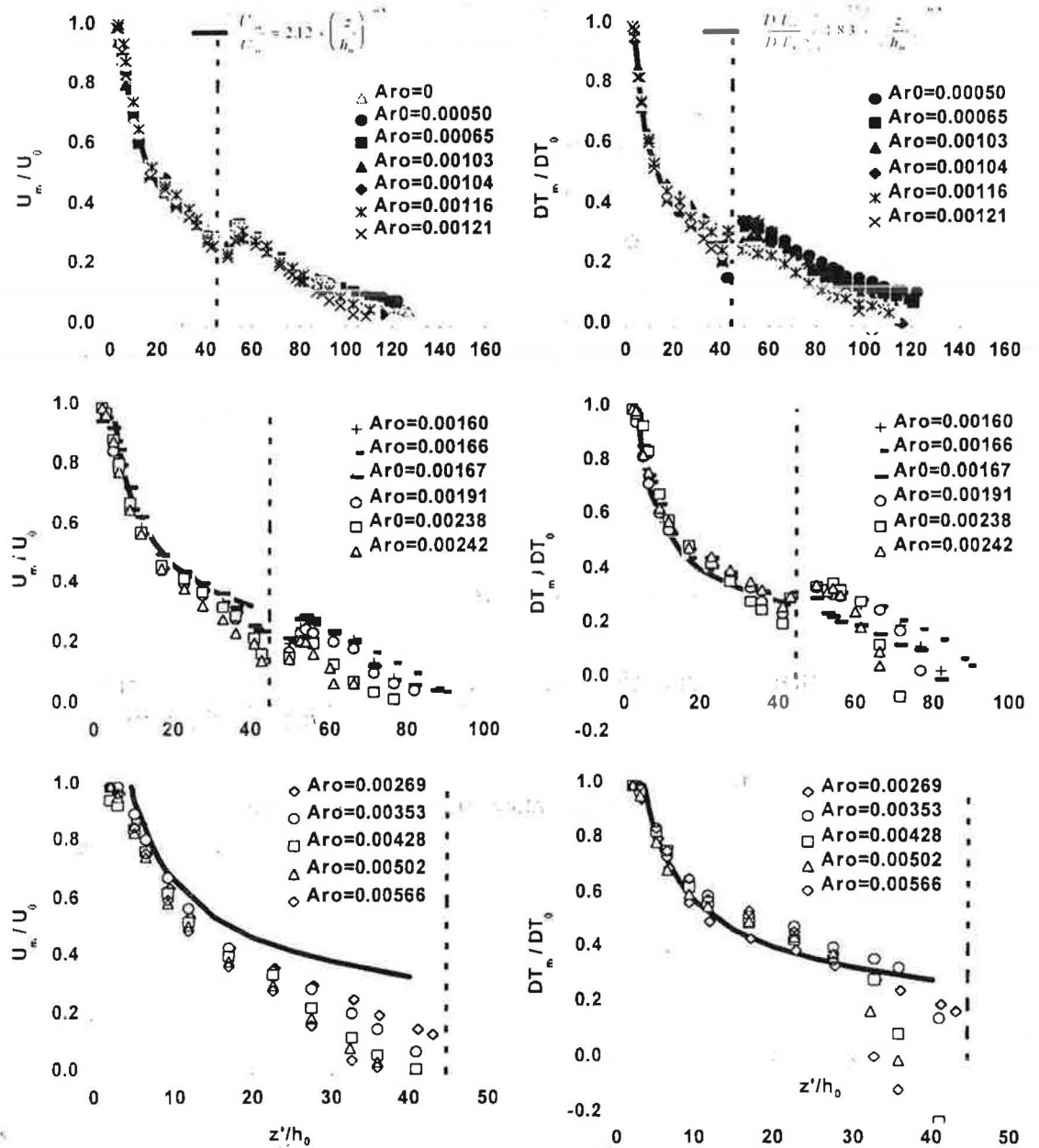


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#### 4.1.1. Vertical jet analysis

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$$U_m/U_0 = K_v [h_0/(z+z_0)]^{0.5} K_p \quad (1)$$

$$DT_m/DT_0 = K_T [h_0/(z+z_0)]^{0.5} / K_n \quad (2)$$

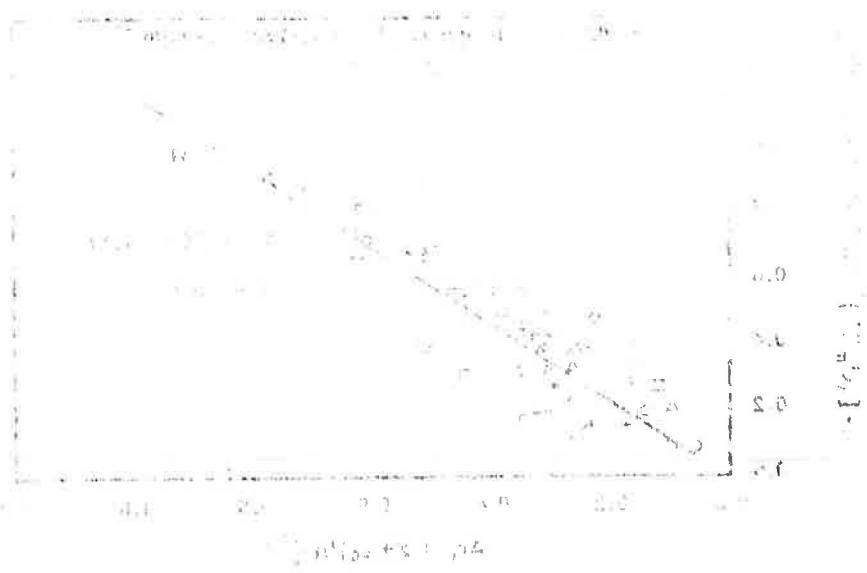
$$K_n = [1 - A (K_T/K_v^2) Ar_0 ((z+z_0)/h_0)^{3/2}]^{1/3} \quad (3)$$



Figure 4. Decay of the centreline velocity of the cold vertical wall jet.

The theoretical value of the jet penetration is defined at the location where the velocity value is zero. Here, it is difficult to get a jet penetration with this criteria because of the confinement effect. So, as proposed by Goldman and Jaluria(1986),

0.0  
0.1  
0.2  
0.3  
0.4  
0.5  
0.6  
0.7  
0.8  
0.9  
1.0



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The centreline velocity and temperature constants  $K_V$  and  $K_T$  as well as the virtual origin value  $z_0$  are obtained with tests 1 to 3 for which the negative buoyancy is zero or negligible (see Figure 3). On the other hand a  $A$  value equal to 2.87 is estimated with tests 4 to 18 (see Figure 4). For linear free jets, the  $A$  value is equal to 1 [Grimitlyn and Pozin 1993] which is lower than the one found here. We think that due, for the wall jet, to a lower ambient air entrainment resulting in a larger influence of the exit Archimedes number on the jet characteristics.

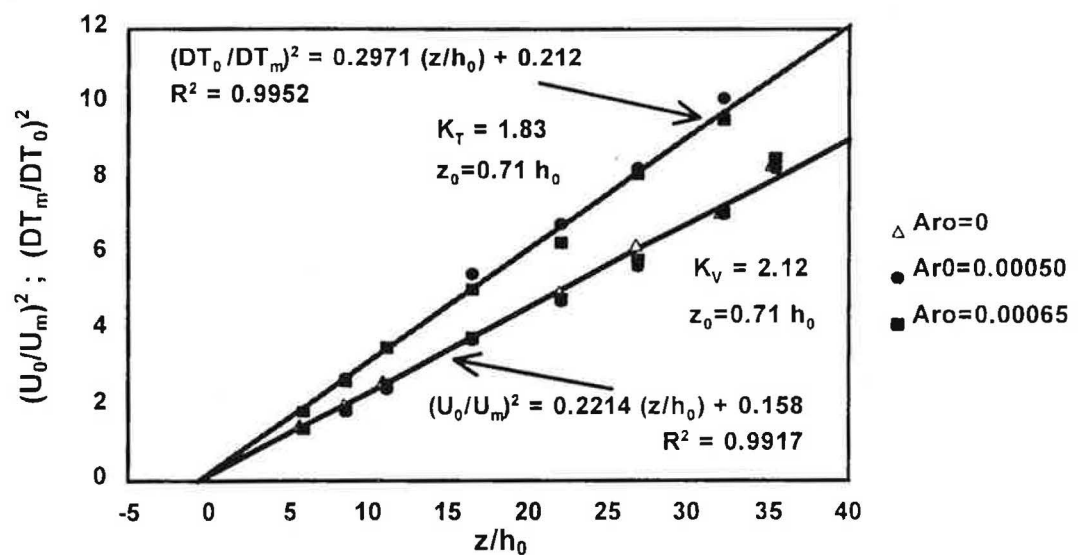


Figure 3. Evaluation of the centreline velocity and temperature constants  $K_V$  and  $K_T$  and the virtual origin  $z_0$

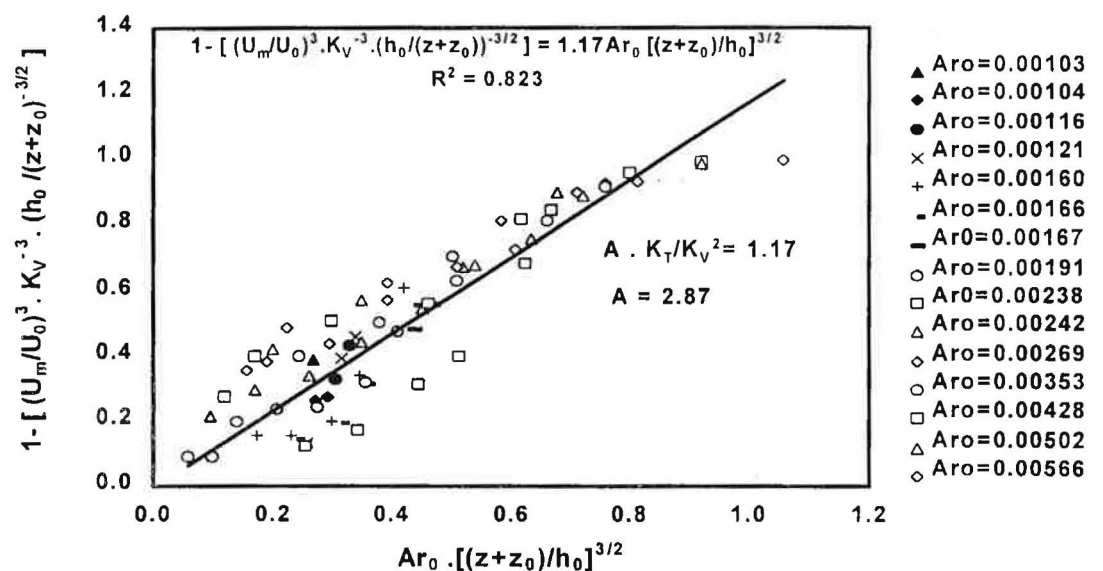


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The theoretical value of the jet penetration is defined at the location where the velocity value is zero. Here, it is difficult to get a jet penetration with this criterion because of the confinement effect. So, as proposed by Goldman and Jaluria (1980)

we choose to determine the jet penetration at the location where the local centreline difference temperature  $DT$ , is less than 1% of the exit temperature difference  $DTO$ . Furthermore, we have distinguished the maximum rise of the vertical jet and the

J

horizontal jet separation from the ceiling. For the first one, an expression has been determined using the general scaling laws of the turbulent buoyant jets proposed by Chen and Rodi (1979). In this way, we define:

$$Z1 = (z/h_0) Ar_0^{2/3} \quad (4)$$

$$U1 = (U_m/U_0) Ar_0^{-1/3} \quad (5)$$

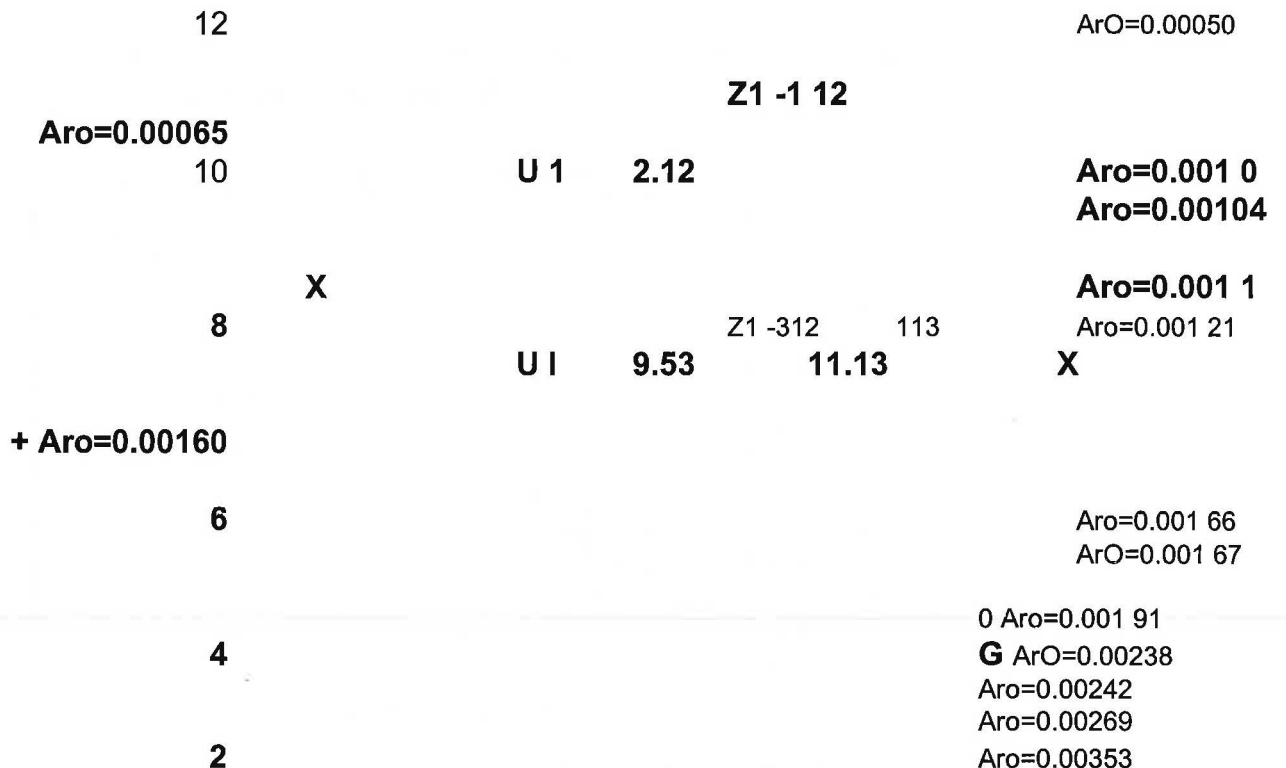
$$T1 = (DT/DTO) Ar_0^{-1/3} \quad (6)$$

Figures 5 and 6 show the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature thus obtained. From Figures 5 and 6, we can define the maximum rise of the vertical jet (8p) as:

$$z/h_0 = 0.95 Ar_0^{-2/3} \quad (7)$$

The relation (7) is deduced from the non-dimensional axial distance  $Z1$  equal to 0.95 for which experimental values of the non-dimensional velocity and temperature difference are zero. Notice that the velocity law given by relation (1) is zero for  $Z1$  equal to 0.90 and then slightly lower than the experimental value. This is due to confinement effect in the short end region ( $0.9 < Z1 < 0.95$ ) which is not taken into account in the velocity law.

The equation (7) gives lower  $z/h_0$  values than those proposed by Grimitlyn and Pozin (1979) because of the  $A$  value as discussed earlier.



Aro=0.00428

Aro=0.00502

Aro=0.00566

0

0.0 0.1 0.2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.7 0.8

0.9 1.0

Z1

Figure 5. Decay of the centreline velocity of the vertical jet.

7

0.00000000  
0.00000000

0.00000000  
0.00000000  
0.00000000  
0.00000000

we choose to determine the jet penetration at the location where the local centre difference temperature  $DT_m$  is less than 1% of the exit temperature difference  $DT_0$ . Furthermore, we have to distinguish the maximum rise of the vertical jet and horizontal jet separation from the ceiling. For the first one, an expression has been determined by using the general scaling laws of the turbulent buoyant jets proposed by Chen and Rodi (1980). In this way, we define:

$$Z1 = (z/h_0) Ar_0^{2/3} \quad (4)$$

$$U1 = (U_m/U_0) Ar_0^{-1/3} \quad (5)$$

$$T1 = (DT_m/DT_0) Ar_0^{-1/3} \quad (6)$$

Figures 5 and 6 show the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature that were obtained.

From Figures 5 and 6, we can define the maximum rise of the vertical jet ( $\delta_p$ ) as:

$$\delta_p/h_0 = 0.95 Ar_0^{-2/3} \quad (7)$$

The relation (7) is deduced from the non-dimensional axial distance  $Z1$  equal to 0.95 for which the experimental values of the non-dimensional velocity and temperature difference are zero. Let's notice that the velocity law given by relation (1) is zero for  $Z1$  equal to 0.90 and then slightly lower than the experimental value. This is due to the confinement effect in the short end region ( $0.90 < Z1 < 0.95$ ) which is not taken into account in the velocity law.

The equation (7) gives lower  $\delta_p$  values than those proposed by Grimitlyn and Poch (1993) because of the  $A$  value as discussed earlier.

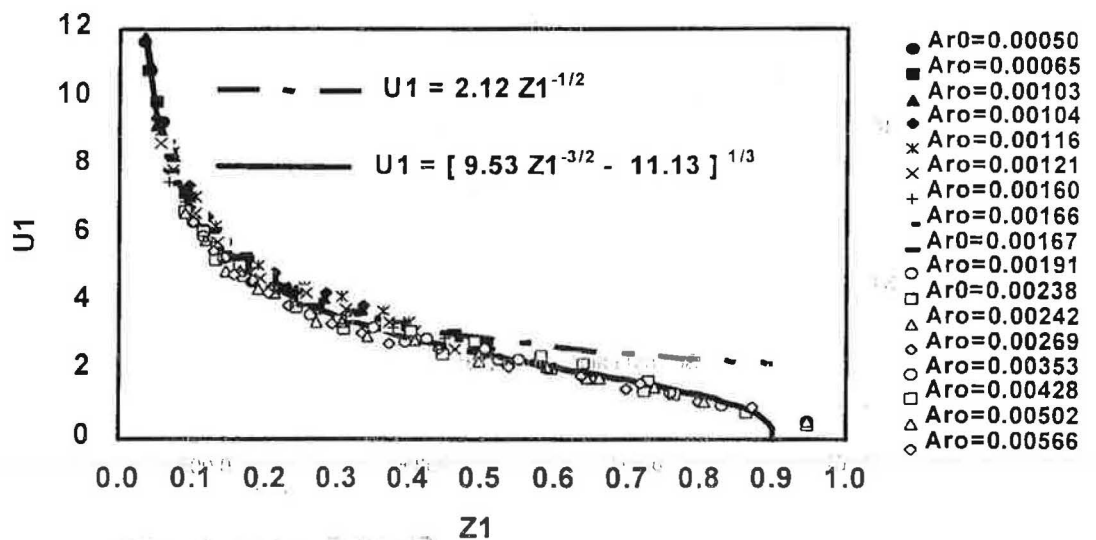


Figure 5. Decay of the centreline velocity of the vertical jet.

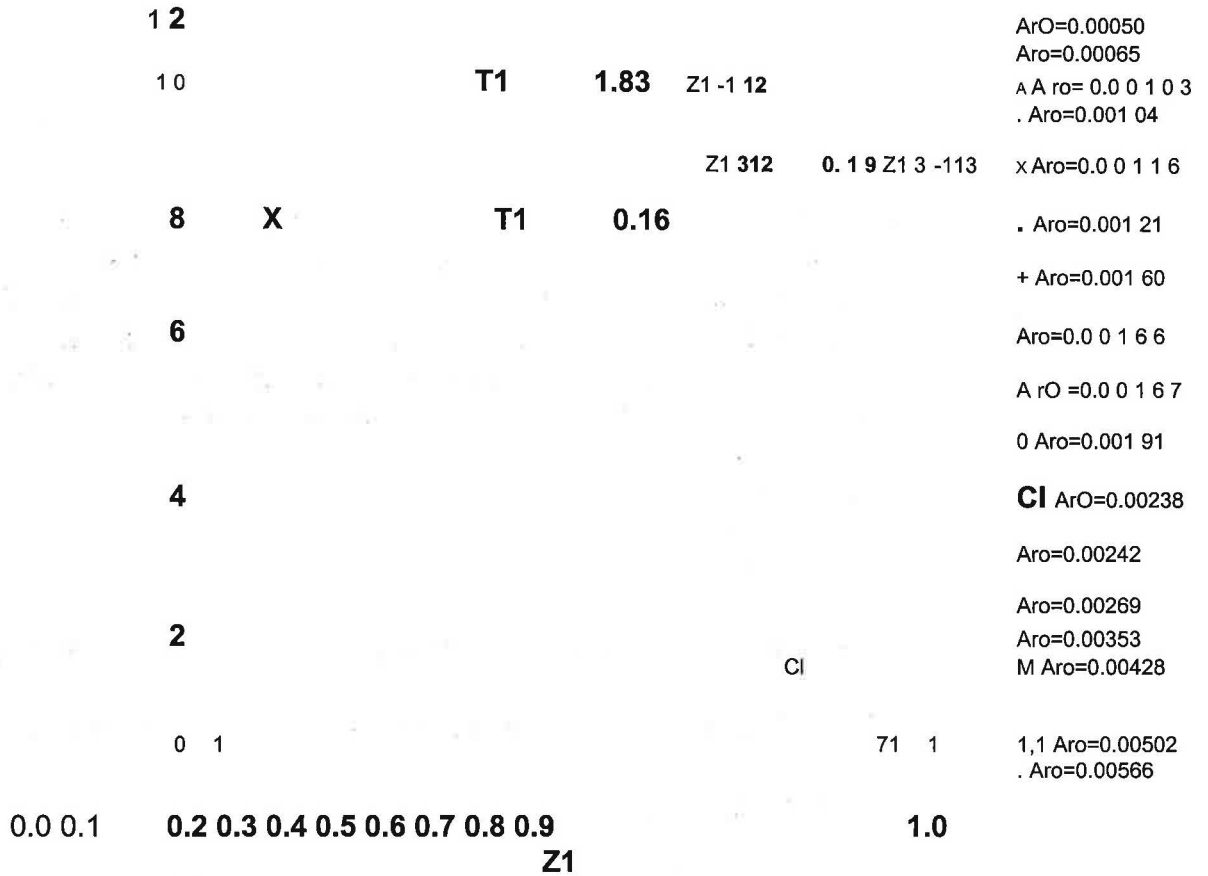


Figure 6. Decay of the centreline temperature of the vertical jet.

Figure 7 shows the jet penetration values for tests when the vertical jet does not reach the ceiling. We notice that the experimental values of the jet penetration along the ceiling are close to relation (7). In addition, the empirical law proposed by Goldman and Jaluria (1986) for a warm wall jet diffused down is close to ours.

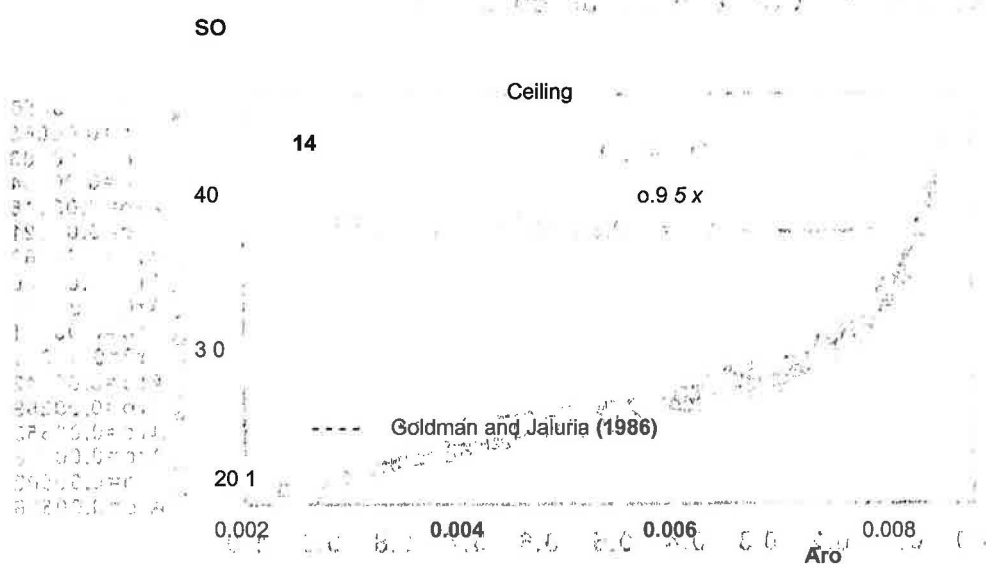


Figure 7. Jet penetration.

**4.1.2. Horizontal jet analysis**

The wall jet change from a vertical trajectory to a horizontal one at the wall/ceiling corner results in a change of the velocity and temperature decay characteristics. Measurements of the centreline velocity and temperature profiles taken at different stations downstream the wall/ceiling corner, are expressed in



Figure 1: Centreline velocity profiles

Figure 2: Centreline temperature profiles

The velocity profiles at the wall/ceiling corner result in a change of the velocity and temperature decay characteristics. Measurements of the centreline velocity and temperature profiles taken at different stations downstream the wall/ceiling corner, are expressed in



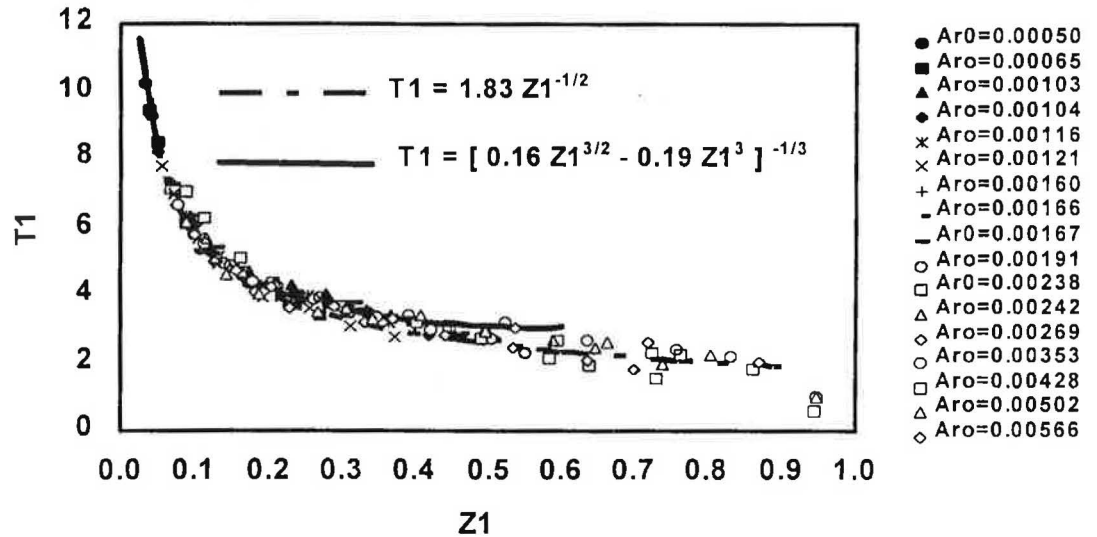


Figure 6. Decay of the centreline temperature of the vertical jet.

Figure 7 shows the jet penetration values for tests when the vertical jet does reach the ceiling. We can notice that the experimental values of the jet penetration along the ceiling are close to relation (7). In addition, the empirical law proposed Goldman and Jaluria (1986) for a warm wall jet diffused downward is close to ours

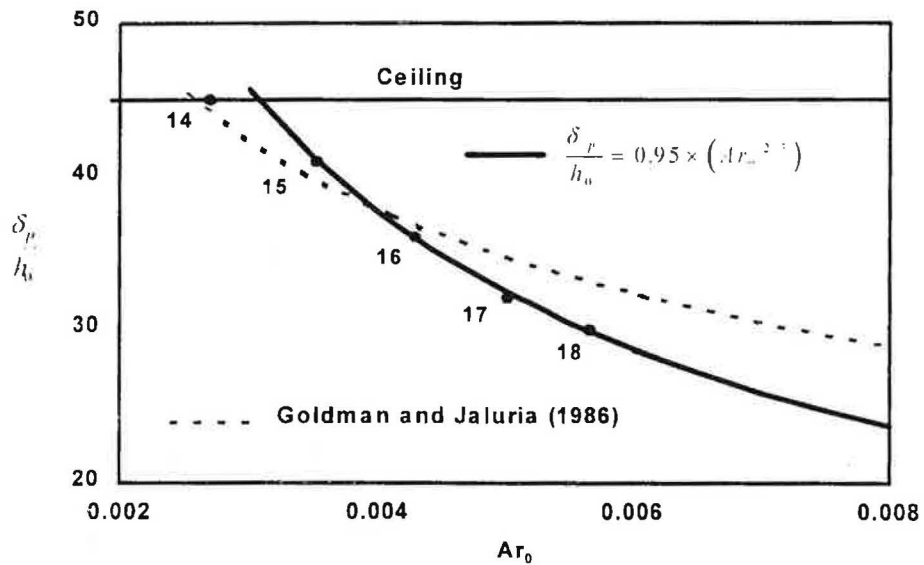


Figure 7. Jet penetration.

#### 4.1.2. Horizontal jet analysis

The wall jet change from a vertical trajectory to a horizontal one at the wall/ceiling corner results in a change of the velocity and temperature decay characteristics. Measurements of the centreline velocity and temperature profiles taken at different stations downstream of the wall/ceiling corner, are expressed

terms of the centreline velocity and temperature decay. The x axis is taken along the centre of the jet with an origin at the wall/ceffing corner.

The velocity decay in the isothermal horizontal jet (test 1) is found to be related to the grille a SO and characterized by the presence of three distinct regions in terms of the axis velocity de (Figure 8) indicating a three-dimensional evolution of the jet [Sforza 1970, Sforza 1977, 1976]. Our results are qualitatively very similar to those of the authors and one can disting respectively in the x direction:

a region of flow establishment or potential core..

$$U_M/U_{0h} = 1 \quad 0 < (x+x_0)/@SO \leq 2 \quad (8)$$

a two-dimensional flow region..

$$U_M/U_{0h} = 1.5 [(x/@SO) - 1]^{-0.5} \quad 2 < (x+x_0)/@SO \leq 10 \quad (9)$$

an axisymmetric region..

$$U_M/U_{0h} = 5.6 [(x/@SO) - 1]^{-1.08} \quad (x+x_0)/@SO > 10 \quad (10)$$

The virtual origin value  $x_0 = -5@Sc$  obtained with the isothermal jet is the same that the v proposed by Jackman (1971).

1.0

$$U/U_0 = 1.5 [(X/X_0) - 1]^{-0.5}$$

$$U/U_0 = 5.6 [(X/X_0) - 1]^{-1.08}$$

0.5

$x_0 = 5 S,$

0.1 1

0.1

1.0

10.0

100.0

$(X/X_0) \cdot 10^0$

Figure 8.. Decay of the centreline velocity of the isothermal horizontal jet.

For the non-isothermal horizontal jet, the velocity and temperature decay are found to be related to the "horizontal" Archimedes number defined at the wall/ceiling corner by..

$$Ar_{Oh} = g \rho D T_{0h} @SO / U_{0h}^2$$

... ..

... ..

... ..

... ..

... ..

... ..

... ..

terms of the centreline velocity and temperature decay. The x axis is taken along centreline of the jet with an origin at the wall/ceiling corner.

The velocity decay in the isothermal horizontal jet (test 1) is found to be related to grille area  $S_0$  and characterized by the presence of three distinct regions in term the axis velocity decay (Figure 8) indicating a three-dimensional evolution of the [Sforza 1970, Sforza 1977, Sfeir 1976]. Our results are qualitatively very simila those of the authors and one can distinguish respectively in the x direction:

a region of flow establishment or potential core:

$$U_m/U_{oh} = 1 \quad 0 \leq (x+x_0)/\sqrt{S_0} \leq 2 \quad (8)$$

a two-dimensional flow region:

$$U_m/U_{oh} = 1.5 [(x/\sqrt{S_0}) - 5]^{-0.5} \quad 2 \leq (x+x_0)/\sqrt{S_0} \leq 10 \quad (9)$$

an axisymmetric region:

$$U_m/U_{oh} = 5.6 [(x/\sqrt{S_0}) - 5]^{-1.08} \quad (x+x_0)/\sqrt{S_0} \geq 10 \quad (10)$$

The virtual origin value  $x_0 = -5\sqrt{S_0}$  obtained with the isothermal jet is the same that value proposed by Jackman (1971).

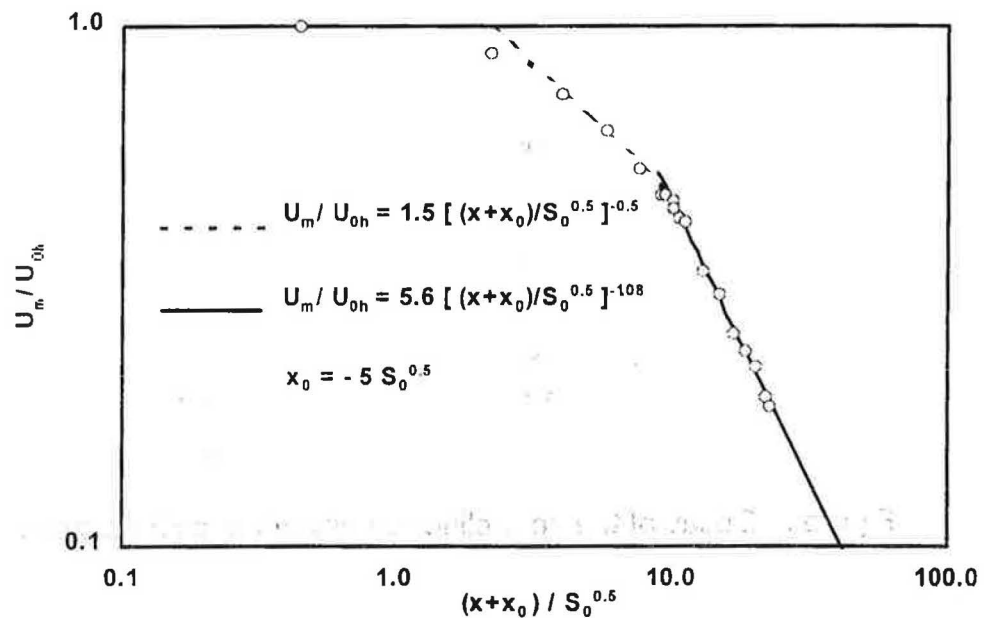


Figure 8: Decay of the centreline velocity of the isothermal horizontal jet.

For the non-isothermal horizontal jet, the velocity and temperature decay are fou to be related to the "horizontal" Archimedes number defined at the wall/ceiling corr by:

$$Ar_{oh} = g\beta DT_{oh} \sqrt{S_0} / U_{oh}^2 \quad (11)$$

So, in order to study the Archimedes number effect on the centreline velocity temperature in the horizontal jet re-formed along the ceiling, appropriate scaling laws allowe to gather respectively for velocity and temperature every horizontal jets on a same graph. Th scaling laws are defined as.

$$X1 = [(x+x_0) NS_0] ArOh \quad (12)$$

$$U1h = UM/U0h ArOh^{-1/2} \quad (13)$$

$$T1h = DTM/DT1h ArOh^{-1/2} \quad (14)$$

Figures 9 and 10 show the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature thus obtained. can distinguish respectively for the velocity and temperature distributions two distinct regi First, the two-dimensional region extends to  $X1=0.10$ . As in the case of the isothermal jet, non-isothermal jet decays within the two-dimensional region with a decay index  $n=0.5$  an velocity constant  $Kv=1.5$ . The velocity distribution in a non-isothermal jet is similar to that in isothermal jet. This confirms the assumption usually done in the literature which is to use isothermal jet law to describe the maximal velocity decay in a horizontal nonisothermal However, as we can see on figures 9 and 10, this assumption is not available anymore in terminal region, where the evolution of the maximal values seems to be closely correlated the Archimedes number. In this region the buoyancy force tends to accelerate the jet diffus particularly for a jet of high Archimedes number.

1 0 0 . 0 0

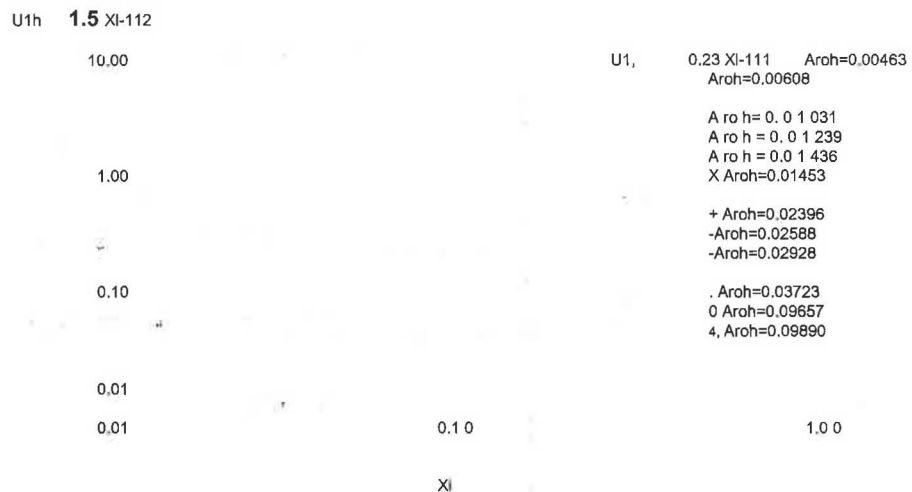


Figure 9. Decay of the centreline velocity of the cold horizontal wall jet.

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1942

1942



Figure 1: Scatter plot showing the relationship between X and Y.



So, in order to study the Archimedes number effect on the centreline velocity temperature in the horizontal jet re-formed along the ceiling, appropriate scaling allowed us to gather respectively for velocity and temperature every horizontal on a same graph. These scaling laws are defined as:

$$X1 = [(x+x_0) / \sqrt{S_0}] Ar_{0h} \quad (12)$$

$$U1h = U_m / U_{0h} Ar_{0h}^{-1/2} \quad (13)$$

$$T1h = DT_m / DT_{0h} Ar_{0h}^{-1/2} \quad (14)$$

Figures 9 and 10 show the decay of the centreline velocity and temperature obtained. One can distinguish respectively for the velocity and temperature distributions two distinct regions. First, the two-dimensional region extends  $X1=0.10$ . As in the case of the isothermal jet, the non-isothermal jet decays with the two-dimensional region with a decay index  $n=0.5$  and a velocity constant  $K_v=1$ . The velocity distribution in a non-isothermal jet is similar to that in an isothermal jet. This confirms the assumption usually done in the literature which is to use isothermal jet law to describe the maximal velocity decay in a horizontal non-isothermal jet. However, as we can see on figures 9 and 10, this assumption is available anymore in the terminal region, where the evolution of the maximal velocity seems to be closely correlated with the Archimedes number. In this region buoyancy force tends to accelerate the jet diffusion, particularly for a jet of high Archimedes number.

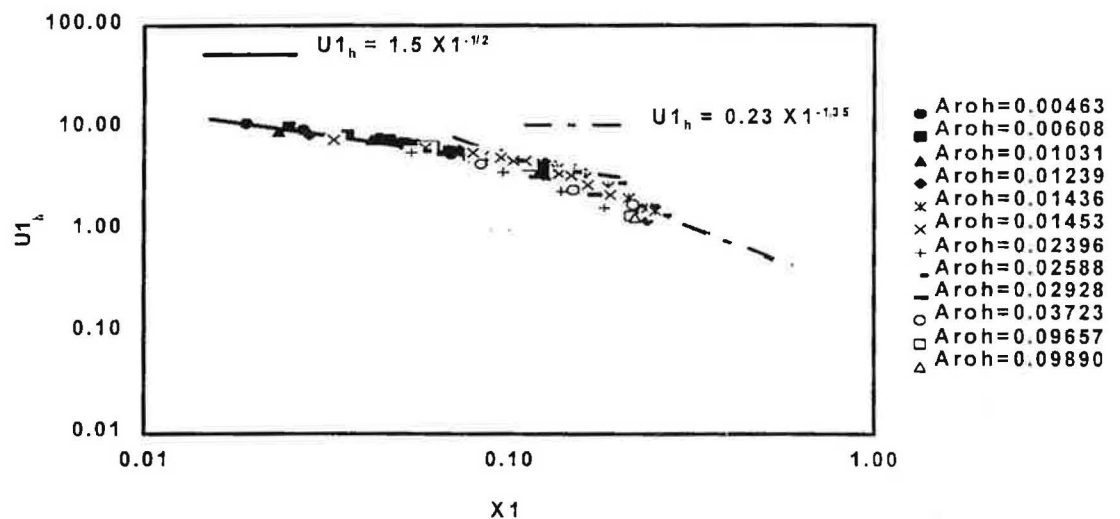


Figure 9. Decay of the centreline velocity of the cold horizontal wall jet.

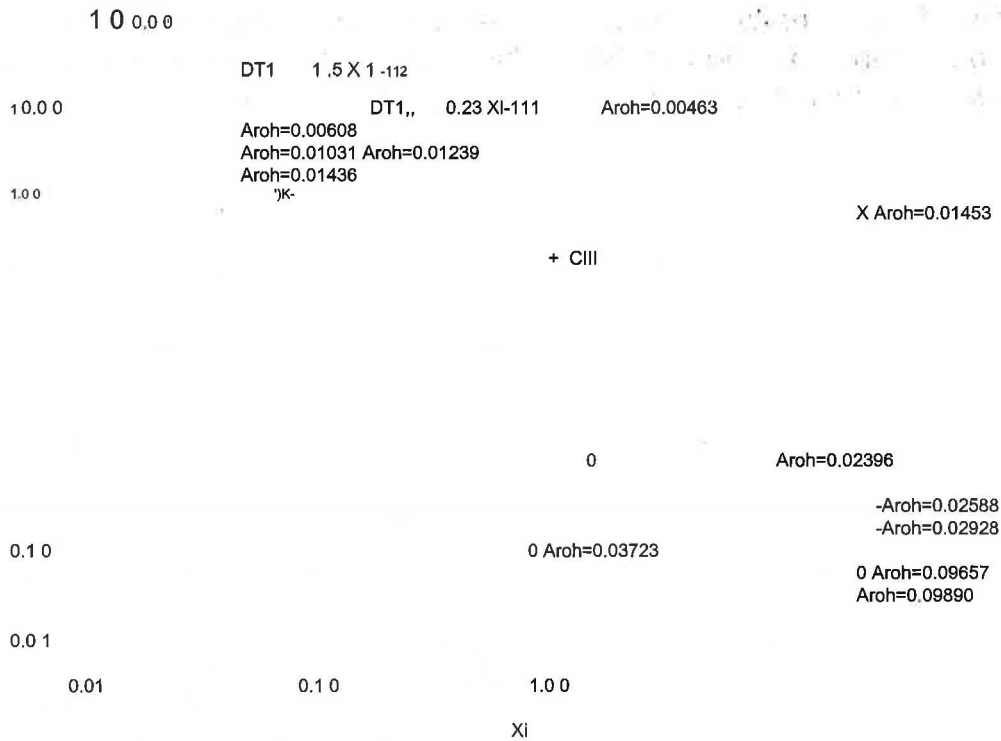


Figure 10. Decay of the centreline temperature of the cold horizontal wall jet.

We measured the distance from the wall/ceiling corner at which the cold jet separates from the ceiling,  $X_s$ , due to the downward buoyancy force and we obtained a linear correlation between  $X_s/2SO$  and  $Ar^{-1/2}$  (see Figure 1 1). The results can be represented by the following relationship.

$$X_s/2SO = 2.06 Ar^{-1/2} \quad (15)$$

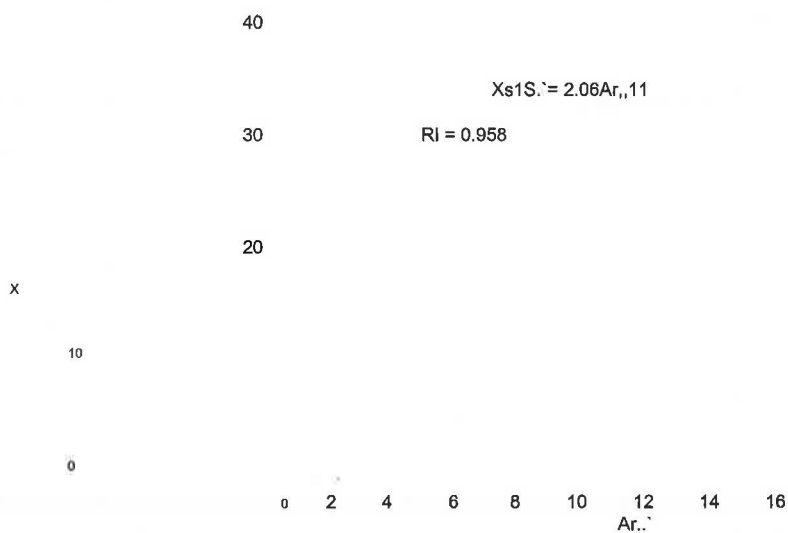


Figure 1 1: Separation distance of the horizontal cold jet

A review of the literature shows that several researchers in this area measured separation distance of a non-isothermal horizontal wall jet. For example Rodahl (1977) presented his results for both linear and axisymmetric jets in the following form..

$$\frac{A's}{Ca.A} \quad / (11) \quad (16)$$

S11

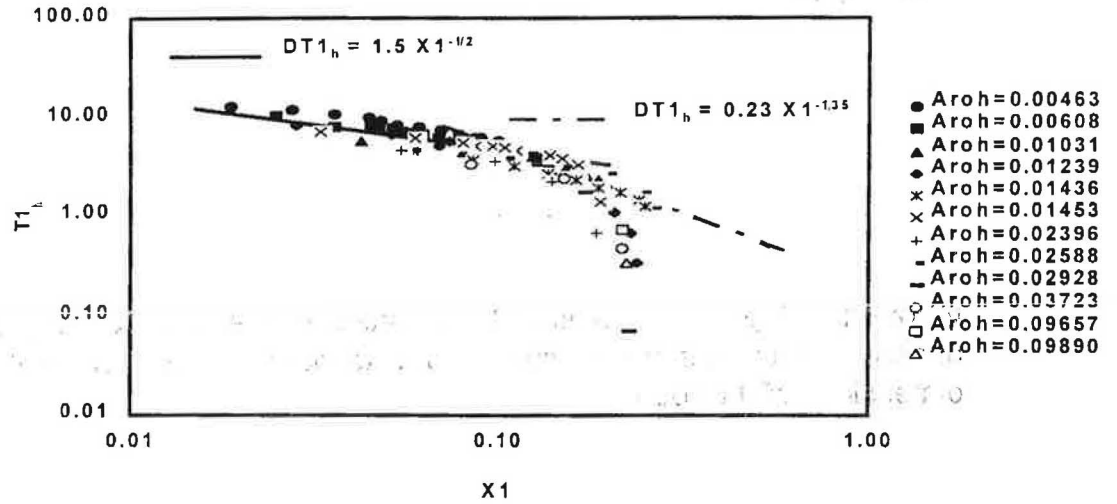


Figure 10. Decay of the centreline temperature of the cold horizontal wall jet.

We measured the distance from the wall/ceiling corner at which the cold separates from the ceiling,  $X_s$ , due to the downward buoyancy force and obtained a linear correlation between  $X_s/\sqrt{S_0}$  and  $Ar_0^{-1.2}$  (see Figure 11). The res can be represented by the following relationship:

$$\frac{X_s}{\sqrt{S_0}} = 2.06 \cdot Ar_0^{-1.2} \quad (15)$$

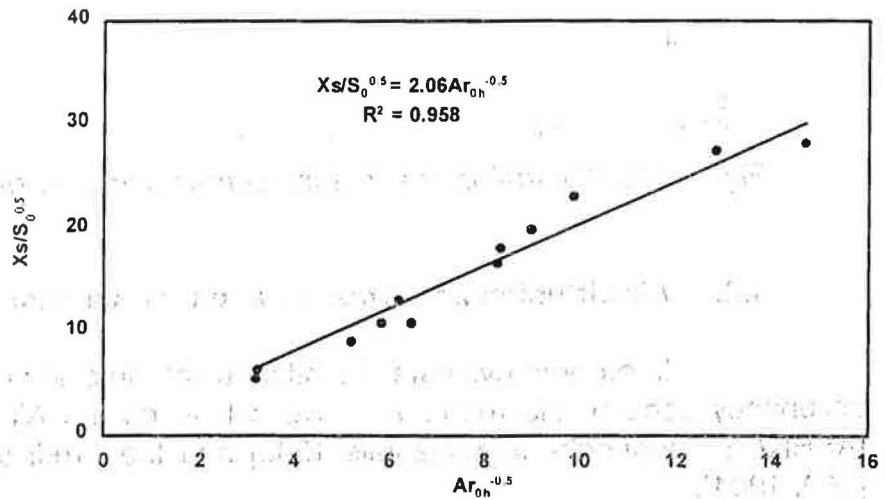


Figure 11: Separation distance of the horizontal cold jet

A review of the literature shows that several researchers in this area measure separation distance of a non-isothermal horizontal wall jet. For example Roda (1977) presented his results for both linear and axisymmetric jets in the following form:

$$\frac{X_s}{\sqrt{S_0}} = C u \cdot Ar_0^{-1.2} \quad (16)$$

where the coefficient  $Ca$  depends on the jet type and the location of the internal heat loads. an axisymmetric jet and for heat loads supplied from the floor, Rodhai (1977) reported a value  $Ca$  equal to 2.3. Our experiments show that for the three-dimensional jet the separation occurs within the axisymmetric region and the experimental data show fairly nice agreement with author's results. In addition some measurements made by different researchers for three-dimensional wall jets

reported in Figure 12 confirm the variation of the type  $X_s/0-ArOh$ . Still, the scattering which appears on the  $Ca$  value may be due to both the location of the internal heat loads and dimensions of the room.

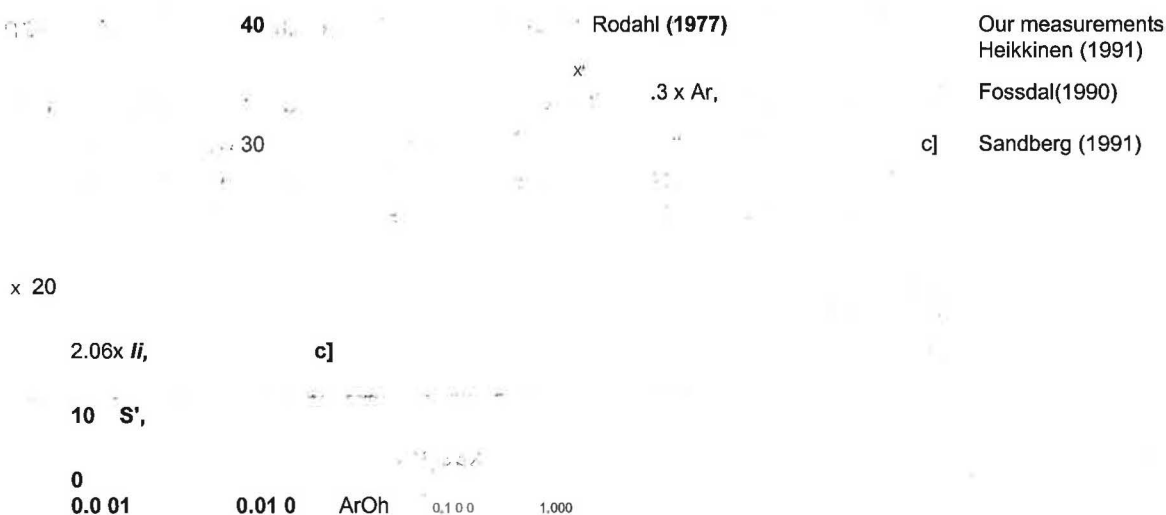


Figure 12. Illustration of some experimental results of separation distance

#### 4.2. Air diffusion performance and thermal comfort

In order to evaluate the influence of the cold air jet and the internal heat loads on occupancy zone of the room, we have calculated the Air Diffusion Performance Index (ADPI) [ASHRAE Handbook-Fundamentals 1989] and the Predicted Percentage of Dissatisfied (PPD) [ISO, 1984].

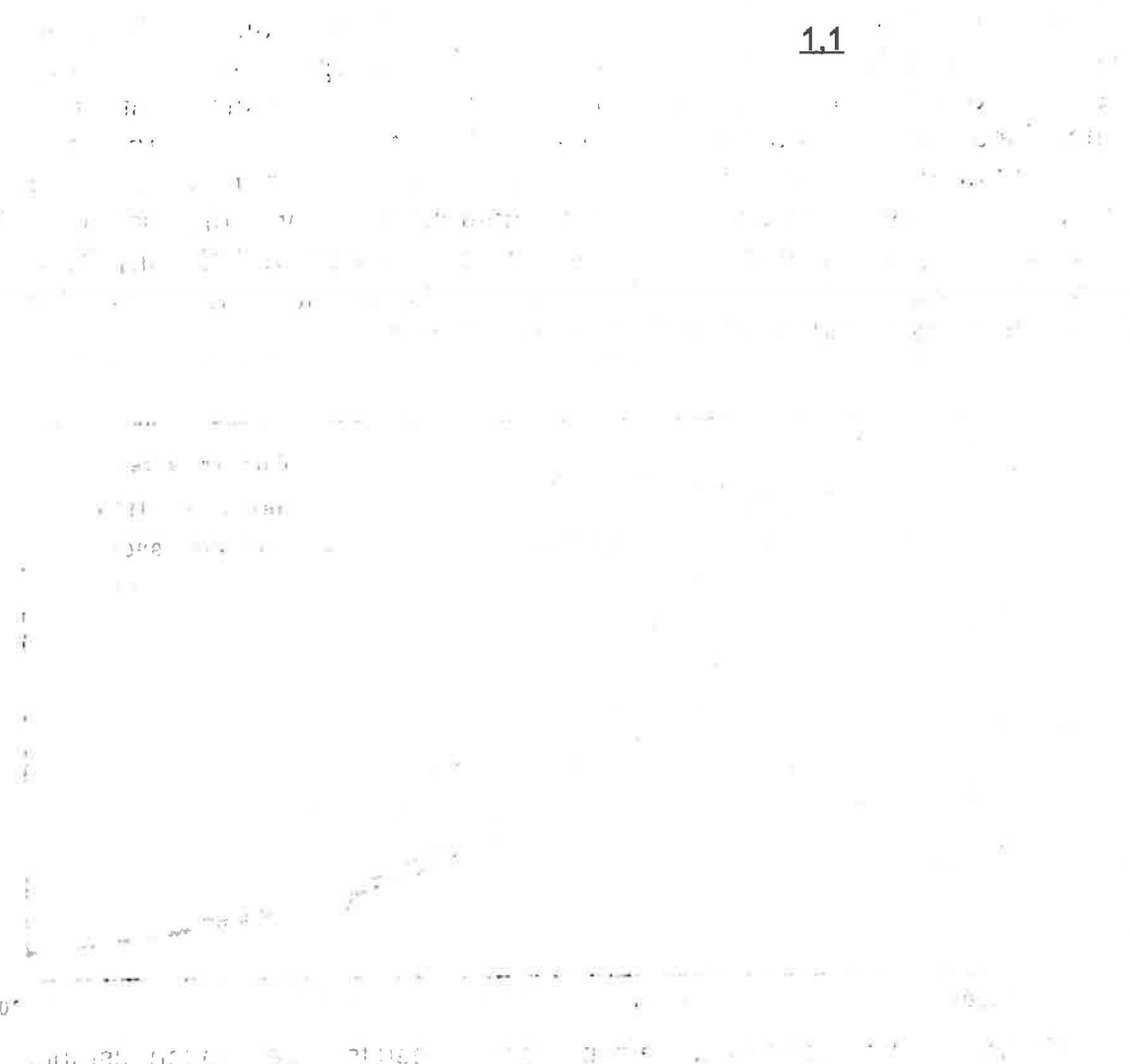
The ADPI is based on the evaluation of the effective draft temperature (EDT) defined in equation (17). The Air Diffusion Performance Index is a percentage which is defined by the number of points measured in an occupied zone where EDT is within the set limit ( $>-1.7^{\circ}C$  and  $<1.1^{\circ}C$ ) and the air velocity is less than 0.35m/s over the total number of points measured in the occupied zone.

$$EDT = (T - 7@) - 8. (U) - 0.15) \quad (17)$$

T, et U, local air temperature and velocity

Ta mean ' mean air temperature in the occupied zone

### 1.1



The ARI is based on the evaluation of the objective and subjective indices of thermal comfort. The ARI is defined by the number of hours of the year in which the thermal environment is acceptable. The ARI is calculated by the following equation:

$$ARI = \frac{1}{8760} \int_{0}^{8760} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-0.033(EDT - 0.5)}} dt$$

where EDT is the equivalent air layer thickness, defined by the number of hours of the year in which the thermal environment is acceptable.

$$ARI = \frac{1}{8760} \int_{0}^{8760} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-0.033(EDT - 0.5)}} dt \quad (18)$$

of local air temperature and velocity  
 mean air temperature in the occupied zone



where the coefficient  $Ca$  depends on the jet type and the location of the internal loads. For an axisymmetric jet and for heat loads supplied from the floor, Rodahl (1977) reported a value of  $Ca$  equal to 2.3. Our experiments show that for the three-dimensional jet the separation occurs within the axisymmetric region and our experimental data show fairly nice agreement with the author's results. In addition, some measurements made by different researchers for three-dimensional wall jets are reported in Figure 12 confirm the variation of the type  $X_s/\sqrt{S_0} \sim Ar_{0h}^{-1/2}$ . Still, the scattering which appears on the  $Ca$  value may be due to both the location of internal heat loads and the dimensions of the room.

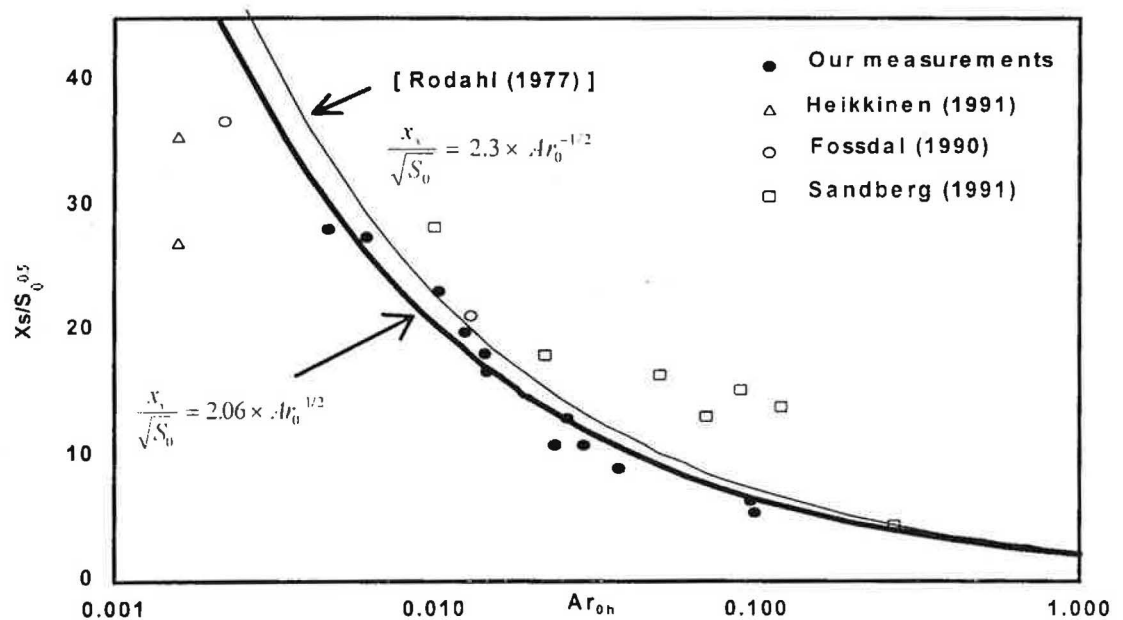


Figure 12: Illustration of some experimental results of separation distance

#### 4.2. Air diffusion performance and thermal comfort

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The ADPI is based on the evaluation of the effective draft temperature (EDT) defined in equation (17). The Air Diffusion Performance Index is a percentage which is defined by the number of points measured in an occupied zone where EDT is within the set limit ( $> -1.7^\circ\text{C}$  and  $< 1.1^\circ\text{C}$ ) and the air velocity is less than 0.35 m/s over the total number of points measured in the occupied zone.

$$EDT = (T_i - T_{a\text{mean}}) - 8 \cdot (U_i - 0.15) \quad (17)$$

$T_i$  et  $U_i$ : local air temperature and velocity

$T_{a\text{mean}}$ : mean air temperature in the occupied zone

Figure 13 shows the experimental values of the ADPI as a function of the 'et Archimedes num Aro.

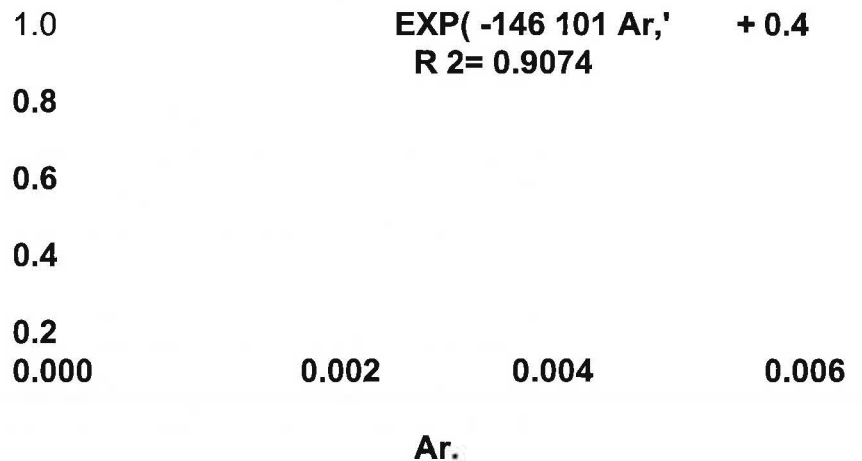


Figure 13. ADPI in the occupancy zone of the room.

It can be seen that the ADPI is maximal (100%) for an Archimedes number less than 0.001, then decreases beyond this value as a Gaussian curve with a minimum value of about 4 corresponding to an Archimedes number of 0.006. So, it seems that the ADPI is not related to internal heat loads. This might be attributed to the fact that the ADPI is a measurement of cool mode conditions and only provides the evaluation of velocity and temperature uniformity in room. In fact, the ADPI is based only on air velocity and effective draft temperature combination of local temperature differences from the room average, and is not related to the level of air temperature in the room. In addition, mean radiant temperature which is mostly influenced by internal heat loads is not taken into account. Consequently, the use of ADPI to describe thermal comfort may not be adequate. However, it could be considered as a reference value to characterize indoor air flow diffusion.

Fanger (1972), developed a mathematical model to predict the thermal and physiological response of a human to an environment. The basis of this model is that the internal temperature of the human body remains constant if there is a balance between the heat production by the body and the heat loss to the environment. The heat balance equation for a clothed person is.

$$M \pm W - E - RES = \pm K \pm R \pm C \quad (18) \text{ where..}$$

- M. Metabolism
- W. External work
- E. Heat exchange by evaporation
- RES. Heat exchange by respiration
- K Heat conduction through clothing
- R. Heat exchange by radiation
- C.. Heat exchange by conduction

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Figure 13 shows the experimental values of the ADPI as a function of the Archimedes number  $Ar_0$ .

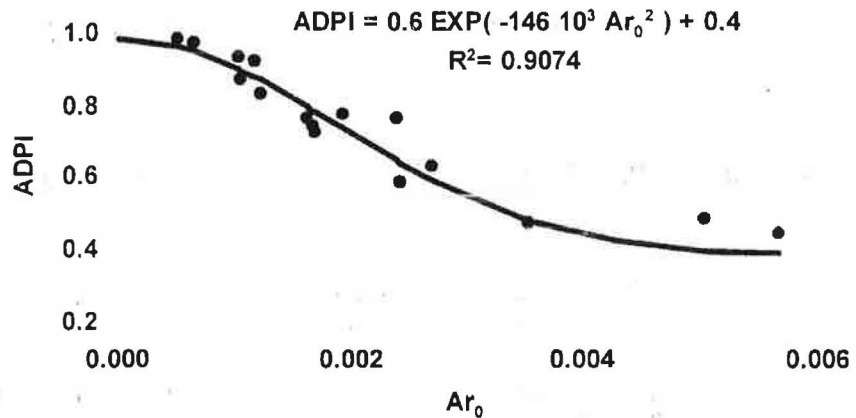


Figure 13. ADPI in the occupancy zone of the room.

It can be seen that the ADPI is maximal (100%) for an Archimedes number less than 0.001, and then decreases beyond this value as a Gaussian curve with a minimum value of about 40% corresponding to an Archimedes number of 0.006. So, it can be seen that the ADPI is not related to the internal heat loads. This might be attributed to the fact that the ADPI is a measurement of cooling mode conditions and only provides the evaluation of velocity and temperature uniformity in the room. In fact, the ADPI is based only on air velocity and effective draft temperature, a combination of local temperature differences from the room average, and is not related to the level of temperature in the room. In addition, mean radiant temperature which is most influenced by internal heat loads is not taken into account. Consequently, the use of ADPI to describe thermal comfort may not be adequate. However, it could be considered as a reference value to characterize indoor air flow diffusion.

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M: Metabolism

W : External work

E: Heat exchange by evaporation

RES: Heat exchange by respiration

K: Heat conduction through clothing

R: Heat exchange by radiation

C: Heat exchange by conduction

Fanger then developed a procedure, based on the testing of subjects in an environment chamber, to calculate the thermal sensation or Predicted Mean Vote (PMV) given by the following relationship:

$$PMV = (0.303 e^{-0.1975} m + 0.028) [(M - W) - 3.05 \times 10^{-3} (5.733 - 6.99(M - W) - Pa) - 0.42 \{(M - W) - 58.15\} - 1.7 \times 10^{-5} M (5.867 - Pa) - 3.96 \times 10^{-8} (t_r + 273)^4 + 0.0014 M (34 - t_a) - (t_a - t_c) - f_{cl} h_{cl} - f_{cl} h_{cl} - f_{cl} h_{cl} - f_{cl} h_{cl}]$$

where..

$$t_a = 35.7 - 0.028 (M - W) - 0.155 [3.96 \times 10^{-8} (t_r + 273)^4 + f_{cl} h_{cl} + f_{cl} h_{cl} + f_{cl} h_{cl} + f_{cl} h_{cl}] + f_{cl} h_{cl}$$

h <sub>cl</sub>	2.28 (t <sub>c</sub> - t <sub>a</sub> ) <sup>0.25</sup>	if	2.28 (t <sub>a</sub> - t <sub>c</sub> ) <sup>0.25</sup>	> 1.2	1.2
h <sub>cl</sub>	12.1 @v	if	2.28 (t <sub>a</sub> - t <sub>c</sub> ) <sup>0.25</sup>	< 1.2	1.2
f <sub>cl</sub>	= 1.00 + 0.2 IC <sub>1</sub>	if	IC <sub>1</sub> < 0.5	clo	
f <sub>cl</sub>	= 1.05 + 0.1 IC <sub>1</sub>	if	IC <sub>1</sub> > 0.5	clo	

2

IC<sub>1</sub>, Thermal resistance of clothing, clo ( 1 clo @ 0.155 m K/W

f<sub>cl</sub>, Ratio of the surface of the area of the clothed body to the surface area of the nude body t<sub>a</sub>, Room air temperature, °C t<sub>r</sub>, Mean radiant temperature, °C v, Air velocity, m/s

Pa, Water vapour pressure, Pa

t<sub>c</sub>, Surface temperature of clothing, °C

h<sub>cl</sub>, Convective heat transfer coefficient, W/M<sup>2</sup> K

The PMV index gives values over the range -3 to +3 corresponding respectively to cold and hot thermal sensation. Using the PMV value, the Predicted Percentage of Dissatisfied (PPD) can be calculated as:

$$PPD = 100 - 95 \exp[-(0.03353 PMV^4 + 0.2176 PMV^2)] \quad (20)$$

The lowest value of PPD is 5% dissatisfied corresponding to a PMV of zero and an acceptable maximum of dissatisfied is set to 10% corresponding to a PMV value between -0.5 and +0.5.

The PMV and PPD indices provide an evaluation of comfort for individual points in the occupancy zone. In order to evaluate comfort for the whole room, the Lowest Possible Percentage of Dissatisfied (1-PPD) [Fanger, 1972] is used. The 1-PPD is calculated using the PMV and PPD of each location in the room. First, the average PMV of the room is calculated. The mean PMV value will be a negative or a positive value, or zero. If the average PMV is zero, the 1-PPD is simply the mean of

Fanger then developed a procedure, based on the testing of subjects in environmental chamber, to calculate the thermal sensation or Predicted Mean \ (PMV) given by the following relationship:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PMV} = & (0.303 e^{-0.036 M} + 0.028) [(M - W) \\ & - 3.05 \times 10^{-3} \{5.733 - 6.99(M - W) - P_a\} \\ & - 0.42 \{(M - W) - 58.15\} \\ & - 1.7 \times 10^{-5} M (5.867 - P_a) - 0.0014 M (34 - t_a) \\ & - 3.96 \times 10^{-8} f_{cl} \{(t_{cl} + 273)^4 - (t_r + 273)^4\} - f_{cl} h_c (t_{cl} - t_a)] \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where:

$$t_{cl} = 35.7 - 0.028 (M - W) - 0.155 I_{cl} [ 3.96 \times 10^{-8} f_{cl} \{(t_{cl} + 273)^4 - (t_r + 273)^4\} + f_{cl} h_c (t_{cl} - t_a)]$$

$$\begin{aligned} h_c &= 2.28 (t_{cl} - t_a)^{0.25} & \text{if } 2.28 (t_{cl} - t_a)^{0.25} > 12.1 \sqrt{v} \\ h_c &= 12.1 \sqrt{v} & \text{if } 2.28 (t_{cl} - t_a)^{0.25} < 12.1 \sqrt{v} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_{cl} &= 1.00 + 0.2 I_{cl} & \text{if } I_{cl} < 0.5 \text{ clo} \\ f_{cl} &= 1.05 + 0.1 I_{cl} & \text{if } I_{cl} > 0.5 \text{ clo} \end{aligned}$$

$I_{cl}$ : Thermal resistance of clothing, clo ( 1 clo  $\approx$  0.155 m<sup>2</sup> K/W )

$f_{cl}$ : Ratio of the surface of the area of the clothed body to the surface area of the nude body

$t_a$ : Room air temperature, °C

$t_r$ : Mean radiant temperature, °C

$v$ : Air velocity, m/s

$P_a$ : Water vapour pressure, Pa

$t_{cl}$ : Surface temperature of clothing, °C

$h_c$ : Convective heat transfer coefficient, W/m<sup>2</sup>K

The PMV index gives values over the range -3 to +3 corresponding respectively cold and hot thermal sensation. Using the PMV value, the Predicted Percentage Dissatisfied (PPD) can be calculated as:

$$\text{PPD} = 100 - 95 \exp[ -(0.03353 \text{ PMV}^4 + 0.2176 \text{ PMV}^2) ] \quad (20)$$

The lowest value of PPD is 5% dissatisfied corresponding to a PMV of zero and acceptable maximum of dissatisfied is set to 10% corresponding to a PMV value between -0.5 and +0.5.

The PMV and PPD indices provide an evaluation of comfort for individual points the occupancy zone. In order to evaluate comfort for the whole room, the Low Possible Percentage of Dissatisfied (LPPD) [Fanger, 1972] is used. The LPPD calculated using the PMV and PPD of each location in the room. First, the average PMV of the whole room is calculated. The mean PMV value will be a negative or positive value, or zero. If the average PMV is zero, the LPPD is simply the mean

the PPID (P1PID,, ) for the entire space. If the average PIVIV is non-zero then the LIPPID is based on corrected values of the PMV of each location in the room. The corrected values of PIVIV are found by subtracting the average PIVIV from the PIVIV value of each point. With the corrected PIVIV value for each location, the corresponding corrected PIPID value for each point is then found. The LIPPID can then be obtained as the average of the corrected PIPID values for the whole room.

It is convenient to note that the LIPPID index takes a minimum value of 5% in thermally uniform environment and the difference between LPIPID and 5% is a measure of the non-uniformity of the room environment. Fanger (1 972) set a value of 6% as a maximum value for acceptable LIPPID.

The calculation of PMV, PIPID and LIPPID comfort indices were performed for all tests. The maximum value of IPPID (PPDmax ) recorded for each test is plotted in Figure 14 against the ratio of internal heat loads to the surface area of the floor.

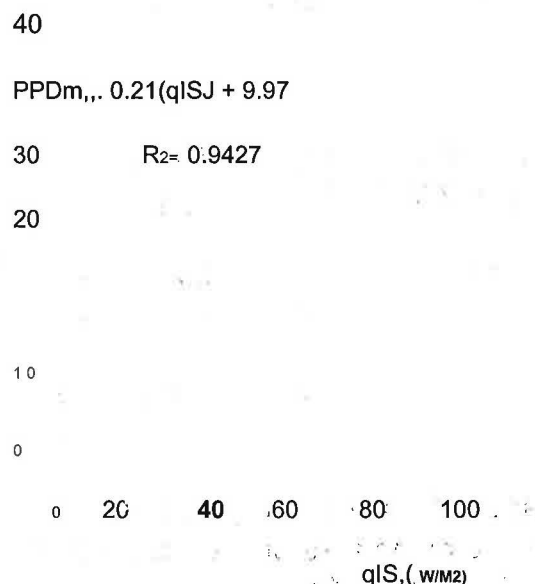


Figure 14. Maximum value of IPPID against internal heat loads

Obviously, there is a fairly good correlation between the maximum value of PPID and internal heat loads. For every tests carried out without internal heat loads the maximum value of PPID is not higher than acceptable maximum of dissatisfied (1 0%). Furthermore, as we can see on Figure 14 the maximum dissatisfied linearly increases as the internal heat loads increases. Consequently, it seems that Archimedes number Aro itself may not be adequate to analyse comfort indices variation. So, in order to study simultaneous effects of supply conditions and internal heat loads, we have defined a corrected Archimedes number Aroc as..

$$Aroc = gq/(pCpUO \cdot 10) \quad (21)$$

We have plotted respectively on Figures 15, 16 and 17 the percentage of measurement points in the room for which the PPID value is higher than acceptable value of 10%, the average percentage of dissatisfied (PPDm,@,n ) and the lowest possible percentage of dissatisfied (LIPPID) against the corrected Archimedes number Aro,

The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that every entry should be supported by a valid receipt or invoice. The text also mentions the need for regular audits to ensure the integrity of the financial data.

In the second section, the author details the various methods used for data collection and analysis. This includes the use of statistical software and manual calculations. The importance of cross-checking data from different sources is highlighted to minimize errors.

The third part of the document focuses on the implementation of internal controls. It describes how these controls are designed to prevent fraud and ensure compliance with regulatory requirements. The text provides examples of specific control measures that have been put in place.

Finally, the document concludes with a summary of the key findings and recommendations. It stresses the need for ongoing monitoring and improvement of the financial reporting process to maintain the highest standards of accuracy and transparency.

The following table provides a detailed breakdown of the financial data for the period under review. Each row represents a different category, and the columns show the values for each quarter and the total for the year.

Category	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Total
Revenue	120,000	130,000	140,000	150,000	540,000
Expenses	80,000	85,000	90,000	95,000	350,000
Profit	40,000	45,000	50,000	55,000	190,000

The data shows a steady increase in both revenue and profit over the four quarters, indicating a positive financial performance. The consistent growth in expenses is noted but remains within the expected range.

The next section discusses the challenges faced during the reporting process. One major challenge was the incomplete data received from some departments. This was addressed by following up with the relevant staff and ensuring that all necessary information was provided in a timely manner.

Another challenge was the complexity of the financial data, which required a high level of attention to detail. To overcome this, the team implemented a double-checking system where each entry was verified by a second person before being included in the final report.

Despite these challenges, the team successfully completed the reporting process and produced a comprehensive and accurate financial statement. The experience has provided valuable insights into the importance of clear communication and thorough data verification.

In conclusion, the financial reporting process is a critical component of any organization's operations. It provides a clear and concise overview of the company's financial health and is essential for informed decision-making. By following best practices and maintaining a high level of accuracy, organizations can ensure that their financial statements are reliable and transparent.

The author expresses gratitude to the team members who worked tirelessly to complete this report. Their dedication and attention to detail were instrumental in achieving the desired results. The author also looks forward to continuing to improve the reporting process in the future.



the PPD ( $PPD_{mean}$ ) for the entire space. If the average PMV is non-zero then LPPD is based on corrected values of the PMV of each location in the room. Corrected values of PMV are found by subtracting the average PMV from the PMV value of each point. With the corrected PMV value for each location, the corresponding corrected PPD value for each point is then found. The LPPD can then be obtained as the average of the corrected PPD values for the whole room. It is convenient to note that the LPPD index takes a minimum value of 5% in a thermally uniform environment and the difference between LPPD and 5% is a measure of the non-uniformity of the room environment. Fanger (1972) set a value of 6% as a maximum value for acceptable LPPD. The calculation of PMV, PPD and LPPD comfort indices were performed for all test conditions. The maximum value of PPD ( $PPD_{max}$ ) recorded for each test is plotted in Figure 14 against the ratio of internal heat loads to the surface area of the floor.

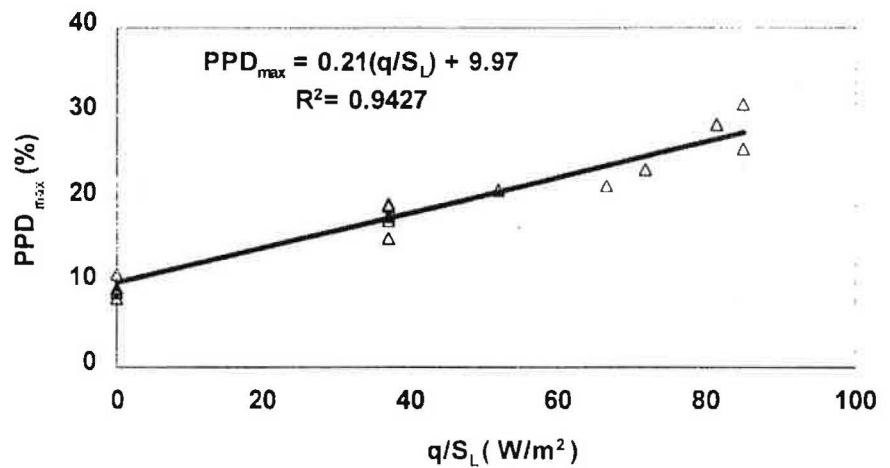


Figure 14: Maximum value of PPD against internal heat loads

Obviously, there is a fairly good correlation between the maximum value of PPD and internal heat loads. For every tests carried out without internal heat loads the maximum value of PPD is not higher than acceptable maximum of dissatisfied (10%). Furthermore, as we can see on Figure 14 the maximum dissatisfied line increases as the internal heat loads increases. Consequently, it seems Archimedes number  $Ar_0$  itself may not be adequate to analyse comfort index variation. So, in order to study simultaneous effects of supply conditions and internal heat loads, we have defined a corrected Archimedes number  $Ar_{0c}$  as:

$$Ar_{0c} = g\beta q / (\rho C_p U_0^3 l_0) \quad (21)$$

We have plotted respectively on Figures 15, 16 and 17 the percentage measurement points in the room for which the PPD value is higher than acceptable value of 10%, the average percentage of dissatisfied ( $PPD_{mean}$ ) and the low possible percentage of dissatisfied (LPPD) against the corrected Archimedes number  $Ar_{0c}$ .

OWPD10 = 9.6 ArOC + 0.1  
 0.8 W = 0.9237

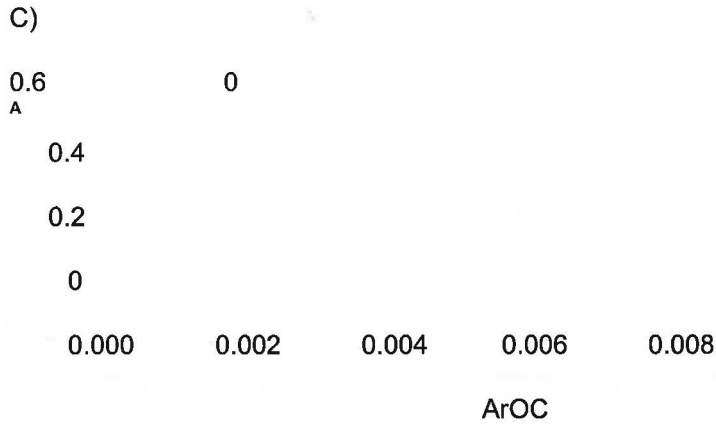


Figure 15.. Percentage of measurement points above the maximum acceptable PPD

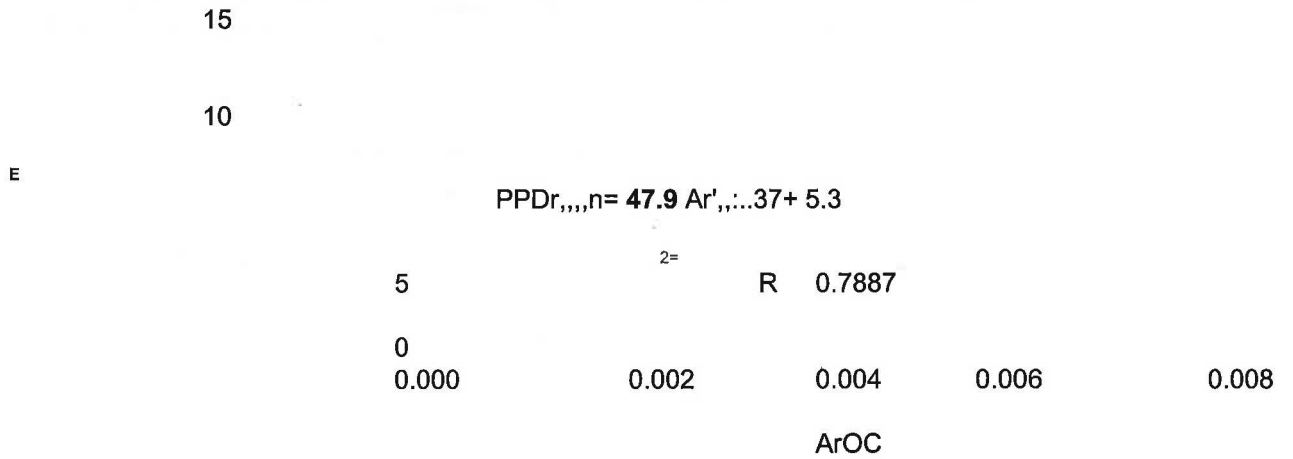


Figure 16.. Average Predicted Percentage of Dissatisfied

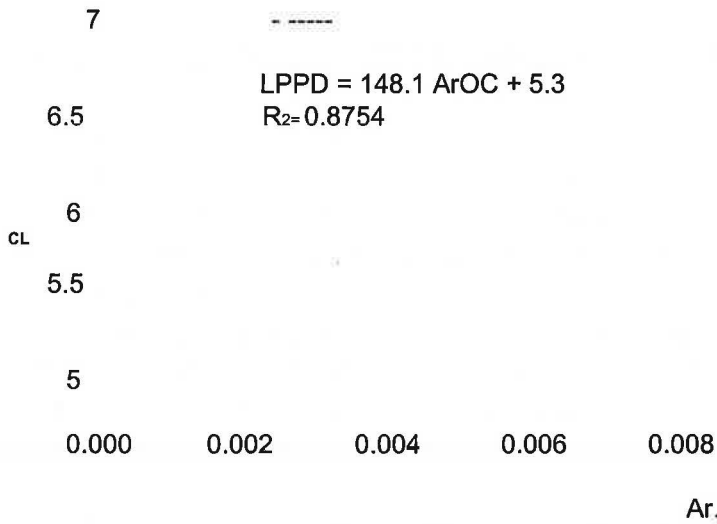


Figure 17: Lowest Possible Percentage of Dissatisfied

The first part of the document discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that every entry should be supported by a valid receipt or invoice. This ensures transparency and allows for easy verification of the data.

In the second section, the author outlines the various methods used to collect and analyze the data. This includes both primary and secondary data collection techniques. The primary data was gathered through direct observation and interviews, while secondary data was obtained from existing reports and databases.

The analysis of the data revealed several key trends and patterns. One of the most significant findings was the correlation between certain variables, which suggests a causal relationship. This insight is crucial for understanding the underlying factors that influence the outcomes.

Based on the findings, the author proposes several recommendations to improve the current processes. These include implementing more robust data management systems, enhancing the training of staff, and establishing regular communication channels. These measures are expected to lead to more efficient operations and better overall performance.

In conclusion, this study has provided valuable insights into the complexities of the system. The data clearly indicates that there is a need for more structured and systematic approaches. By following the proposed recommendations, it is anticipated that the organization will achieve its goals more effectively and sustainably.

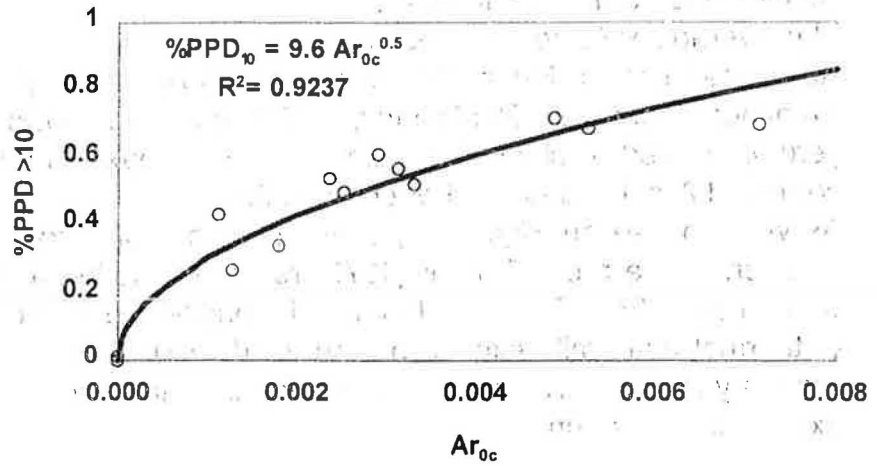


Figure 15: Percentage of measurement points above the maximum acceptable PFD

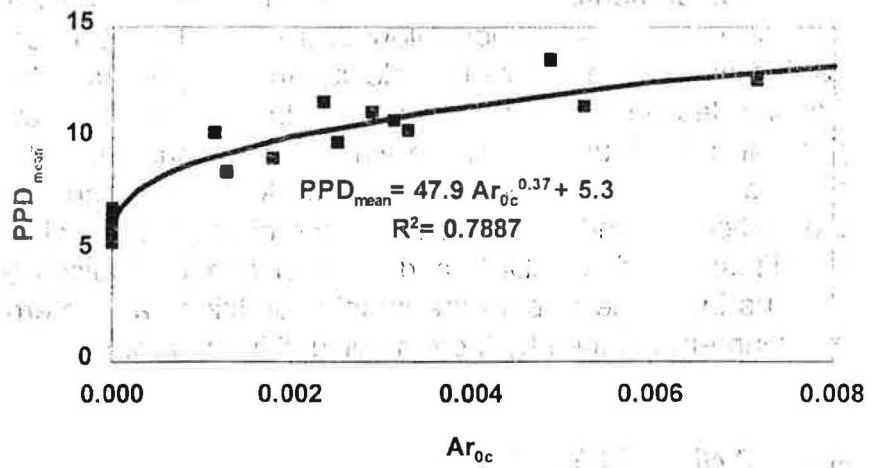


Figure 16: Average Predicted Percentage of Dissatisfied

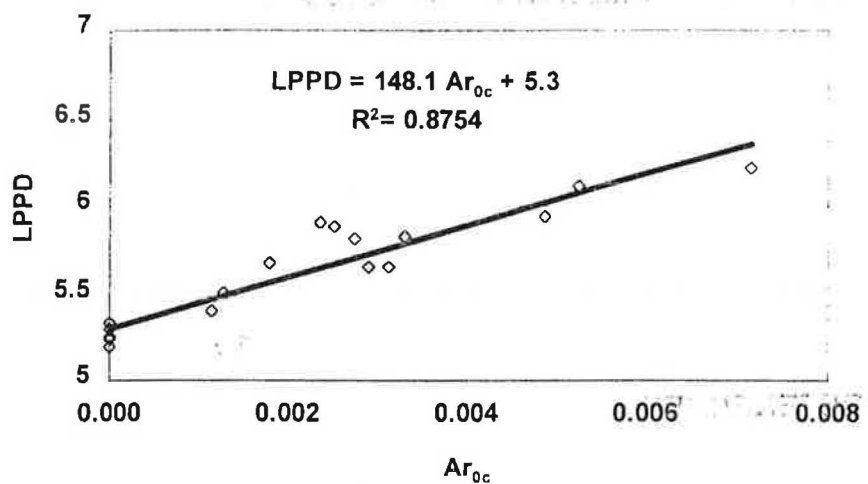


Figure 17: Lowest Possible Percentage of Dissatisfied

It may be seen from Figure 15 that the percentage of measurement points of PPD higher than 10% is zero for all tests which have zero corrected Archimedes number. This agrees with the previous observation concerning the same tests in Figure 14. Furthermore, the percentage value increases versus the corrected Archimedes number as a power correlation and reaches a maximum value of 80% for a corrected Archimedes number of about 0.007.

The average PPD values describe the general thermal comfort obtained in the room. As we can see on Figure 16, these also show a fairly good correlation with corrected Archimedes number. Particularly, PPD<sub>mean</sub> curve shows a minimum value of 5.3% for zero corrected Archimedes number and a maximum value less than 15% for a corrected Archimedes number equal to 0.007.

As we can see on Figure 17, LPPD is also well correlated to corrected Archimedes number. If we recall Fanger (1972) recommendation of a maximum of 6% for LPPD, we can state from Figure 17 that an air-conditioned environment is satisfactory in terms of thermal uniformity except for corrected Archimedes number higher than 0.005 and precisely for tests 17 and 18 where high internal heat loads were associated to a high exit Archimedes number.

## 5. CONCLUSION

Experimental studies on the air diffusion induced by a fan-coil unit in a test cell were studied under various flow and internal heat loads conditions. A first analysis carried out on the centreline velocity and temperature showed the influence of the exit Archimedes number on their decay. In this way, we have been able to point out the general behaviour laws of the vertical and horizontal jets. These ones allowed us to deduce a relationship between the exit Archimedes number and both the penetration of the vertical jet and separation distance of the horizontal jet. At last, the analysis of the air diffusion index (ADPI) and thermal comfort indices (PPD and LPPD) shows the obvious influence of both the supply conditions and internal heat loads on the thermal environment induced by the fan-coil unit in the room.

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## NOMENCLATURE

- Ar Archimedes number  $z'$  distance from grille measured vertically up the ceiling and then horizontally across the room from the wall/ceiling corner (m)
- DT air mean difference temperature
- CC) exit width of the supply grille (m)
- ho exit width of the supply grille (m)
- zo virtual origin of vertical jet (m)
- l10 exit length of the supply grille (m)
- 3p jet penetration (m)
- KT decay temperature coefficient
- Kv decay velocity coefficient
- Subscripts
- Q air flow rate (M3/h)
- m centreline value
- q internal heat load (W)
- 0 inlet value
- SO area of supply grille (M2)
- Oh wall/ceiling corner value
- SL floor area (M2)
- T air temperature ("C)
- U air mean velocity in x or z direction (m/S)
- x horizontal distance from the wall/ceiling corner (m)
- xO virtual origin of horizontal jet

Xs separation distance (m)

z vertical distance from supply grille (m)