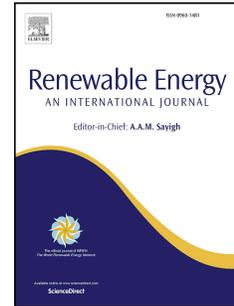


# Journal Pre-proof

Heat transfer model for energy-active windows – An evaluation of efficient reuse of waste heat in buildings

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PII: S0960-1481(20)31609-8

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2020.10.043>

Reference: RENE 14333

To appear in: *Renewable Energy*

Received Date: 9 July 2020

Revised Date: 6 October 2020

Accepted Date: 8 October 2020

Please cite this article as: Nourozi B, Ploskić A, Chen Y, Ning-Wei Chiu J, Wang Q, Heat transfer model for energy-active windows – An evaluation of efficient reuse of waste heat in buildings, *Renewable Energy* (2020), doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.renene.2020.10.043>.

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**Credit author statement**

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1 **Heat transfer model for energy-active windows – An evaluation of efficient**  
2 **reuse of waste heat in buildings**

3

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15        **Abstract**

16    Minimizing thermal losses through windows and maintaining large glazing areas to provide  
17    adequate natural lighting in residential buildings are essential considerations for modern  
18    architecture, sustainability, and indoor comfort. In this study, a detailed heat transfer model for a  
19    novel energy-active window (EAW) is developed and validated to rate its thermal performance.  
20    An EAW utilizes low-grade heat to reduce building heat losses during the winter season. A  
21    thorough literature review was conducted to select the correct heat-transfer correlations for the  
22    investigated configuration. A two-dimensional finite differencing scheme was applied to  
23    approximate the vertical and horizontal temperature distribution across the EAW. Detailed  
24    temperature gradients, across the height and width of the window, were obtained. Thorough  
25    sensitivity analyses of the governing parameters were conducted to evaluate the windows' thermal  
26    performance. The results indicate that EAWs have the potential to reduce heating power demand  
27    by approximately  $2.2 \text{ W/m}^2_{\text{floor area}}$  and  $1.3 \text{ W/m}^2_{\text{floor area}}$  at outdoor temperatures of  $-20^\circ\text{C}$  and  $-$   
28     $5^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively, for buildings with a window-to-floor area ratio of 10%. This potential increases  
29    proportionally with the ratio. The highest thermal efficiency of EAW is achieved when the  
30    temperature of the supplied air inside the EAW is equal to or above room temperature.

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39    **Keywords:**

40    waste heat; energy efficiency; ventilated window; heat transfer; transmittance; energy conservation

## Nomenclature

*Abbreviations*

EAE	Energy active envelope
EAW	Energy active window
TGW	Triple-glazed window
PCM	Phase change material

*Latin letters*

$Ra$	Rayleigh number, [-]
$Gr$	Grashof number, [-]
$Pr$	Prandtl number, [-]
$Nu$	Nusselt number, [-]
$Re$	Reynolds number, [-]
$Ri$	Richardson number, [-]
$AR$	Aspect ratio of window $L/d_s$ , [-]
$a$	Absorption coefficient of solar radiation of the pane
$b$	Window width, [m]
$c_p$	Specific heat capacity, [ $Jkg^{-1}K^{-1}$ ]
$d_s$	Slot width, [m]
$g$	Gravitational acceleration, [ $ms^{-2}$ ]
$h$	Heat transfer coefficient, [ $Wm^{-2}K^{-1}$ ]
$I$	Solar radiation on a pane
$k$	Thermal conductivity [ $Wm^{-1}K^{-1}$ ]
$L$	Window height, [m]
$L_{char}$	Characteristic length, [m]
$Q_{gain}$	Heat gain, [W]
$R$	Thermal resistance, [ $m^2KW^{-1}$ ]
$T$	Temperature, [ $^{\circ}C$ ] (or [K])
$t$	Window pane (glass) thickness, [m]
$U$	Thermal transmittance (of window), [ $Wm^{-2}K^{-1}$ ]
$v$	Air velocity in slots, [ $ms^{-1}$ ]

*Greek letters*

$\rho$	Density, [ $kgm^{-3}$ ]
$\sigma$	Stefan-Boltzmann constant, $5.67 \times 10^{-8}$ , [ $Wm^{-2}K^{-4}$ ]
$\varepsilon$	Emissivity of a surface, [-]
$\mu$	Dynamic viscosity, [ $kgm^{-1}s^{-1}$ ]
$\nu$	Kinematic viscosity, [ $m^2s^{-1}$ ]
$\beta$	Thermal expansion coefficient, [ $K^{-1}$ ]
$\Delta x$	Grid size along the window height, [m]

*Subscripts*

$i$	Denoting a term in a sequence along the window height
$j$	Denoting a term in a sequence across the window section
$in$	Indoor
$out$	Outdoor
$conv$	Convection
$cond$	Conduction
$rad$	Radiation
$g$	Glass ( $U_g$ )
$w$	Window ( $U_w$ )
$floor$	Room floor (area) ( $A_{floor}$ )
$surf$	Glass surface
$surf, in$	Surface of interior glass
$s$	Slot

## 42 1 Introduction

43 Glazing area in buildings commonly has the lowest thermal resistance compared to the entire  
44 building envelope. Lowering the heat transmittance of windows is essential in order to minimize  
45 the heating demand of buildings in cold climates. Despite recent developments in research to  
46 improve fenestration technology, heat losses from windows are still responsible for  
47 approximately 60% of energy loss in residential buildings [1]. Therefore, innovative designs of  
48 building fenestration can considerably decrease both building energy demand and peak thermal  
49 loads.

50 Heat transfer between windows and the occupants is conducted in three modes: short-wave solar  
51 radiation from outdoors through the window panes, long-wave radiative heat transfer between  
52 the window panes and occupants, and convection current caused by cold draughts from the cold  
53 surface of windows during winter time. Some of the applied techniques for decreasing the long-  
54 wave radiative heat transfer in windows are low-emittance coatings applied on a glass surface,  
55 suspended films, photovoltaic, and aerogel glazing [2–5]. Chow et al. [6] evaluated the energy  
56 performance of tinted, reflective, and anti-reflective glass in windows to decrease the solar  
57 radiative heat transfer from windows. Similarly, the cold draught from the window's surface can  
58 be reduced by increasing the thermal resistance of the window. A commonly used technique for  
59 this purpose is multilayer glazing [7,8]. In order to further increase the thermal resistance of the  
60 window, the gaps between the panes can be vacuumed [9–11], filled with an inert gas with low  
61 conductivity [12], or nanoparticle-enhanced PCM [13,14]. Hu et al. [15] investigated a PCM  
62 enhanced ventilation window for preheating/precooling ventilation applications. It was reported  
63 that, compared to a conventional window, this window had the potential to increase the inlet air  
64 temperature by 2°C for 12 hours in a day (heating mode), and maintain the inlet air temperature  
65 by average 1.4°C lower during 7 hours in a day.

66 Another innovative design of windows is to direct fresh or exhaust airflow into the gap between  
67 the window panes. This changes the heat transfer type between the window panes in the gaps.  
68 Lago et al. [16] and Zeyninejad et al. [17] investigated the thermal performance of a ventilated  
69 double-glazed window with a solar reflective film. Lago et al. found that with the optimum  
70 spacing of 25 mm, the heat gain to the internal ambient in summer time could be at its minimum.  
71 Zhang et al. [18] compared the performance of a conventional triple-glazed window (TGW) with  
72 a triple-glazed exhaust air window. This window utilized the low-grade thermal energy from the  
73 room exhaust air between the panes. Their results showed that using the triple-glazed exhaust air  
74 window could reduce the annual accumulated cooling and heating loads by approximately 25%

75 and 50%, respectively. Michaux et al. [19] analyzed the thermal performance of an airflow  
76 window with conventional double- and triple-glazed windows. They showed a significant  
77 reduction in the energy required to heat the fresh supply air to the room by 36–79% for night-  
78 and day-time conditions. Liu et al. [20] investigated the energy efficiency and perceived thermal  
79 comfort in a space equipped with 15 different window configurations, concluding that ventilated  
80 windows had the potential to reduce the heating/cooling demands of buildings and improve the  
81 thermal comfort. Lollini et al. [21] studied the efficiency of a dynamic glazing system that actively  
82 responds to the external environmental loads. They analyzed the variables that determine the  
83 system performance such as U- and g-value. Furthermore, they investigated the glazing type,  
84 airflow slot thickness, airflow rate in slots etc. to provide the best performance under different  
85 weather conditions and in several building types.

86 The above-mentioned studies either utilized the fresh supply outdoor air between the glazing to  
87 preheat the supply air to the rooms, or used indoor (exhaust) air to heat/cool the window panes  
88 during winter/summer. The present paper presents the winter performance of an innovative  
89 EAW that utilizes low-grade energy, such as waste heat in a sealed air loop between the window  
90 panes. The purpose of using EAW is to utilize waste heat to maintain higher window-surface  
91 temperatures in winter. This technology converts conventional passive windows into an energy-  
92 active component in addition to previously studied dynamic glazing systems [22]. This will reduce  
93 building heating demand, improve the indoor thermal comfort, and alleviate peak heating  
94 demands.

### 95 **1.1 Concept of EAW and heat sources**

96 The investigated EAW was composed of a double-slot glazing configuration and a closed air loop,  
97 see Figure 1. The middle glazing assembly was a super-insulated double-pane window filled with  
98 argon to minimize the transverse heat transfer from the supply to the return air slot. The sealed  
99 closed air loop ensured the avoidance of accumulation of dust on the glass surfaces, and the  
100 avoidance of frosting by maintaining a low level of humidity in the air. A built-in heat exchanger  
101 combined with a fan underneath the window provided heated air to the slots. A schematic of the  
102 analyzed EAW and connections to two possible heat sources, return water from heat emission  
103 system, and/or working medium in a heat pump cycle are illustrated in Figure 1a and Figure 1b.

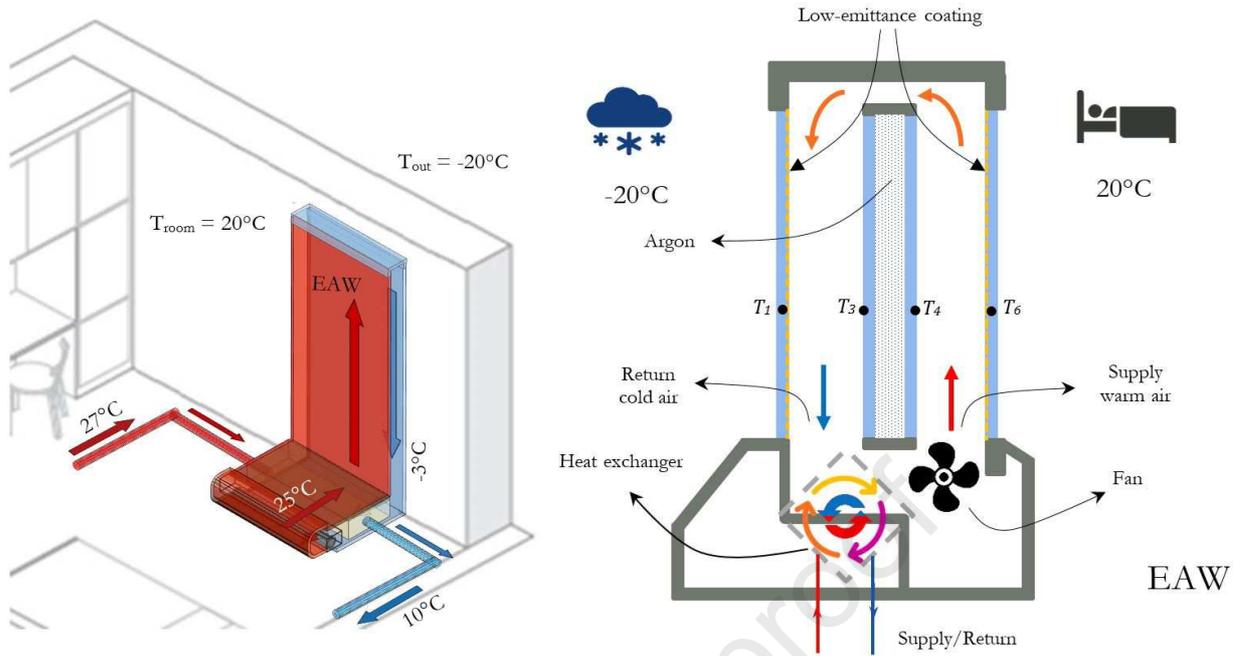


Figure 1a: Schematic of EAW configuration and the connection to heat sources.

104

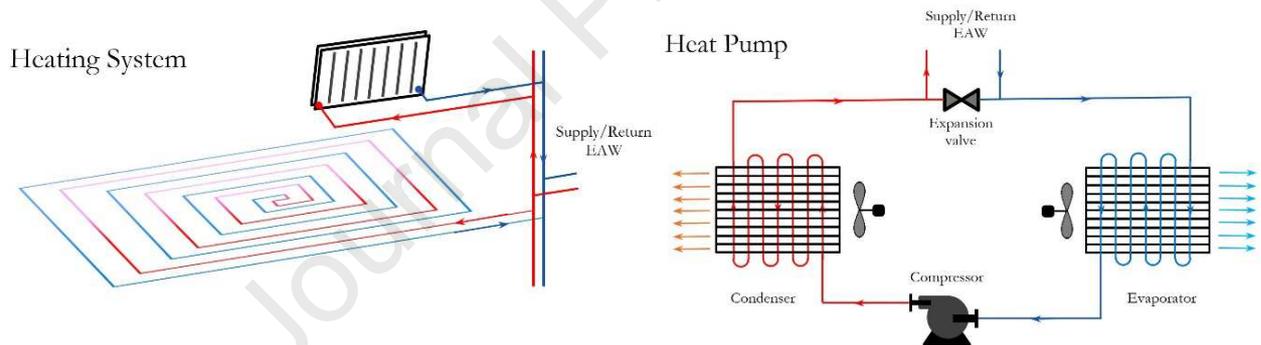


Figure 1b: Two possible low-grade heat sources for EAW, floor heating, and a heat pump cycle.

105 Detailed information about EAW components was reported in a complementary study [23]. The  
 106 heat transfer model in the cross-section and along the height of the EAW is the focus of this  
 107 paper. A major challenge of heat transfer modelling in the slots of EAW lies in the convective  
 108 mechanism. As shown above, the current Nusselt correlations for the laminar flow in narrow  
 109 asymmetrically heated gaps are limited in the open literature. It is often unknown which type of  
 110 heat transfer – convective or radiative – controls the heat transfer mechanism through the  
 111 investigated window type, nor is it certain which convection type (natural, mixed or forced) is  
 112 predominant between the surfaces. Accordingly, we conducted a thorough study to develop a  
 113 valid heat transfer model for the energy-active window.

## 114 1.2 Objectives

115 The main objective of this study is to analyze the thermal performance of an EAW as shown in  
116 Figure 1. The goal is to develop a valid simulation model for this novel window type, which is  
117 designed and will be field-tested in 2020. The second goal is to select the relevant Nusselt  
118 correlations and assess their validity for the investigated configuration. Lastly, the thermal  
119 performance of this novel window type is compared with the performance of a corresponding  
120 conventional triple-glazed window.

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## 121 2 Methodology with Literature Review

122 The thermal performance of an energy-active window is evaluated for the heating mode in winter  
 123 and compared to a conventional triple-glazed window. Heat losses across these two window  
 124 types are investigated with heat transfer analysis through the windows in the transversal direction.  
 125 Figure 2 illustrates the detailed heat transfer modes in the cross-section of a conventional TGW  
 126 and an EAW.

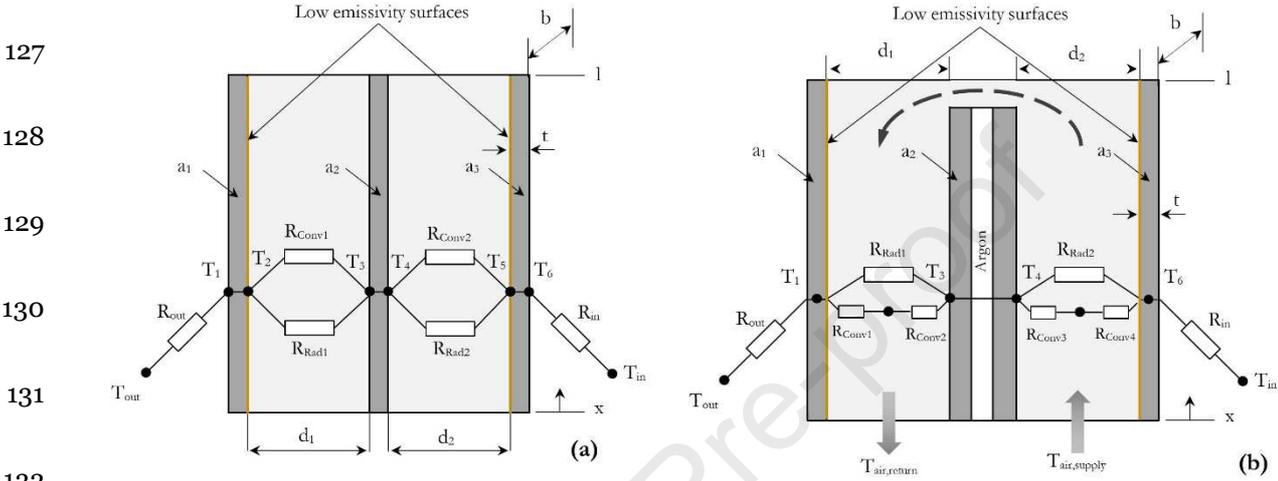


Figure 2: Studied windows, (a) conventional triple-glazed window, (b) energy active window EAW

134 Equation 1 is obtained by applying the energy balance at each temperature point on the window  
 135 pane surfaces. This analytical derivation of the heat transfer equations for EAW is based on  
 136 Schmidt and Johansson [24].

$$T_j \left( \frac{1}{R_j} + \frac{1}{R_{j+1}} \right) - \frac{T_{j-1}}{R_j} - \frac{T_{j+1}}{R_{j+1}} = a_j I \quad (1)$$

137 where  $T_j$  is the temperature on each pane surface,  $I$  and  $a_j$  are solar radiation and the  
 138 coefficient of solar radiation absorption on each pane, and  $R_j$  is the total thermal resistance in  
 139 each slot, as shown in Equation 2:

$$R_j = \frac{R_{Rad_j} R_{Conv_j}}{R_{Rad_j} + R_{Conv_j}} \quad (2)$$

140 Table 1 presents the mathematical and empirical equations used for heat transfer approximation  
 141 in this study. The validity range for each equation and the conditions in which they are utilized  
 142 are provided in Table 1:

143 Table 1: Mathematical and empirical equations used for calculation of heat transfer coefficients used in Equation 1 and 2.

Reference	Equation	Equation No.		Validity
	$h_{conv} = Nu \frac{k_{gas}}{L_{char}}$	(3)	Convective heat transfer coefficient	
	$h_{rad} = \frac{\sigma (T_{surf,1} + T_{surf,2})(T_{surf,1}^2 + T_{surf,2}^2)}{\frac{1}{\epsilon_{surf,1}} + \frac{1}{\epsilon_{surf,2}} - 1}$	(4)	Radiative heat transfer coefficient between two panes of different emissivity	
	$h_{cond} = \frac{k_g}{t}$	(5)	Conductive heat transfer coefficient through a pane	
	$Pr = c_{p,gas} \frac{\mu_{gas}}{k_{gas}}$	(6)	Prandtl number	
	$Gr = \frac{g \beta_{gas} (T_{gas} - T_{surf}) L^3}{\nu_{gas}^2}$	(7)	Grashof number	
	$Ra_L = GrPr = \frac{\rho^2 g \beta \Delta T L^3 c_p}{\mu k}$	(8)	Rayleigh number for the inner window surface	
Zhao et al. [25]	$Nu = \left( 1 + 4.4265 \times 10^{-4} \times \left( \frac{Ra_L}{AR} \right)^{1.36869} \right)^{0.326071}$	(9)	Nusselt number for large aspect ratio (AR) vertical cavities. Used here for calculating natural convective heat transfer coefficient between window panes	$30 \leq AR \leq 110$ $Re_L < 20000$
Churchill & Chu [26]	$Nu_{in} = \left[ 0.825 + \frac{0.387 Ra_L^{1/6}}{\left[ 1 + \left( \frac{0.492}{Pr_{in}} \right)^{9/16} \right]^{8/27}} \right]^2$	(10)	Nusselt number for the inner window surface facing room	Entire range of Rayleigh number
Bar-Cohen & Rohsenow [27]	$Ra_{d_s} = \frac{\rho^2 g \beta \Delta T d_s^4 c_p}{\mu k L}$	(11)	Modified Rayleigh number for slots used in Equation 12	
Bar-Cohen & Rohsenow [27]	$Nu = \left[ \frac{144}{(Ra_{d_s})^2} + \frac{2.873}{(Ra_{d_s})^{1/2}} \right]^{-1/2}$	(12)	Nusselt correlation for vertical asymmetrically heated isothermal parallel plates	
Edwards et al. [28]	$Nu = 7.54 + \frac{0.03 (D_h/L) RePr}{1 + 0.016 [(D_h/L) RePr]^{2/3}}$	(13)	Laminar forced convection between isothermal parallel plates	$Re_{D_h} < 2800$
Stephan [29]	$Nu = 7.55 + \frac{0.024 (RePr D_h/L)^{1.14}}{1 + 0.0358 Pr^{0.81} [RePr D_h/L]^{0.64}}$	(14)	Laminar forced convection between isothermal parallel plates	
Granryd [30]	$Nu = 7.54 + \frac{0.0289 (RePr D_h/L)^{1.37}}{1 + 0.0438 (RePr D_h/L)^{0.87}}$	(15)	Laminar forced convection between isothermal parallel plates	$Re_{D_h} < 2500$

## 144 2.1 Boundary conditions

145 In this study, indoor and outdoor air temperatures are assumed to be at +20°C and -20°C,  
 146 respectively. Furthermore, the sensitivity analysis of an outdoor temperature between -30°C and  
 147 +10°C on the window U-value is also performed. Intermittent solar radiation especially during  
 148 winter season in Sweden, and low outdoor temperatures that happen during night are more  
 149 critical for examining the window performance with the absence of solar radiation. The gas  
 150 utilized in the slots for the TGW is krypton. For EAW, air is used as heat transfer fluid in the  
 151 slots. The window parameters and additional boundary conditions are presented in Table 2.

152 Table 2: Parameters and boundary conditions used in EAW simulations

Parameter	$(L \times b \times t)$	$d_s$	$U_g$	$h_{out}$	$\dot{m}_{air}$	$T_{in}$	$T_{out}$	$\epsilon$
Unit	m <sup>3</sup>	m	Wm <sup>-2</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>	Wm <sup>-2</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>	kgs <sup>-1</sup>	°C	°C	[-]
Value	1×1×0.04	0.01	5.75	34	0.003	20	-20	0.84 (and 0.12)

153

## 154 2.2 Heat transfer from window interior and exterior surfaces

155 The heat transfer mechanism on the interior and exterior window surfaces are radiation and  
 156 convection. Thus, radiative and convective heat transfer correlations for vertical plates are  
 157 adopted in this paper. The air flow type on the exterior window surface depends on the weather  
 158 conditions. The total thermal transmittance across the window is mainly dependent on the largest  
 159 thermal resistance, as they are in series. Therefore, different values for the outdoor heat transfer  
 160 coefficient, which has a larger value than other sections in the window, induce a negligible  
 161 difference, as shown in the results section. A commonly used value of peak load calculation for  
 162 the exterior heat transfer coefficient,  $h_{out}$ , in winter is used in this investigation [31].

163 The empirical correlation of the average Nusselt number for natural convection over a vertical  
 164 surface by Churchill and Chu [26], shown in Equation 10, is considered. This equation is valid for  
 165 the entire range of Rayleigh number. Equation 3, presented in its general form, is used to  
 166 approximate the convective heat transfer on the interior window surface.

167 Finally, the U-value of the window is evaluated with energy balance as shown in Equation 16.

$$\frac{U_w}{h_{in}} = \frac{T_{in} - T_{surf,in}}{T_{in} - T_{out}} \quad (16)$$

168 where  $T_{surf,in}$  is the temperature of inner glazing facing room and  $h_{in}$  is the heat transfer  
169 coefficient on this surface.

### 170 2.3 Heat transfer between window panes

171 The radiative heat transfer coefficients between the window panes and the conductive heat  
172 transfer coefficient in the window panes are calculated with Equations 4 and 5; see Table 1 for  
173 both window types. The convective heat transfer modeling due to differences in the air flow in  
174 the TGW and EAW are presented in the Subsections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2, respectively.

#### 175 2.3.1 Triple-glazed windows

176 Heat transfer across the window depends on three modes of convection and radiation in the slot  
177 and conduction in the window panes. The gas conduction in the slots can be neglected since the  
178 Rayleigh number is larger than the critical limit [32–34]. The critical Rayleigh number in  
179 rectangular vertical cavities exposed to a horizontal heat flow is 1000; below this number, the  
180 buoyancy forces cannot overcome the viscous forces [32]. Rayleigh numbers for the studied  
181 TGW are 1280 and 1390 for the inner and outer slots, respectively. This explains that heat  
182 transfer due to advection is dominant compared to conduction.

183 For natural convection between window panes, the spacing between the panes serves as the  
184 characteristic length. Air properties used in equations are chosen at respective air bulk  
185 temperatures between  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $+40^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The slots between the TGW panes are sealed at the  
186 bottom and top and the encased gas is treated as an enclosed cavity. Correlations for the  
187 convective heat transfer in narrow cavities with large aspect ratios (AR) optimally predict the heat  
188 transfer in slots between the window panes. The Nusselt relation suggested by Zhao et al. [25]  
189 covers ARs of  $30 \leq \text{AR} \leq 110$  and is used here to estimate convective heat transfer in the glazing  
190 cavities where  $\text{AR} = 100$  (see Equation 9).

#### 191 2.3.2 Energy-active windows

192 Unlike the conventional triple-glazed window, the air flow between panes in the EAW is driven  
193 by an integrated fan below the window, cf. Figure 1. The injected air velocity in this study is  
194 approximately 0.24 m/s, which is equal to air mass flowrate of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  kg/s in the slots. This air

195 flow rate results in laminar flow with Reynolds number of 300 to 400 due to fluctuation in  
 196 temperatures. The glass surface exposed to the fan-driven air flow transfers heat with both  
 197 natural and forced convection. The dominance of each type is shown through the Richardson  
 198 number  $Ri = \frac{Gr}{Re^2}$  which is studied for similar cases [35–38]. These literatures suggested  
 199  $Ri = 0.25$  and  $Ri = 4$  as the limits for forced, mixed, and natural convection in these studies.  
 200 For Richardson numbers above 4, inertia forces are negligible and natural convection is dominant.  
 201 Forced convection is the major heat transfer mechanism for Richardson numbers below 0.25;  
 202 therefore, buoyancy forces are omitted in this regime. At the intermediate range, the mixed  
 203 convection is dominant in the slots, and the Nusselt number is calculated with Equation 17  
 204 [28,31].

$$Nu_{\text{mixed}} = \left( Nu_{\text{forced}}^3 + Nu_{\text{natural}}^3 \right)^{1/3} \quad (17)$$

205 Three commonly used Nusselt correlations for laminar forced convective heat transfer for  
 206 parallel plates are listed in Equations 13, 14, and 15 in Table 1. These relations were originally  
 207 developed for prediction of convective heat transfer between symmetrically heated parallel plates  
 208 with uniform surface temperature. In this study, window pane (surface) temperatures are  
 209 asymmetrically heated due to a large indoor and outdoor temperature difference and due to the  
 210 injected hot air flow. This results in air slots enclosed by asymmetric glazing temperatures. As a  
 211 simplification, the surface temperature of each glazing is assumed to be uniform. Shah and  
 212 London [39] considered this important difference in the boundary condition and suggested the  
 213 values for the fully developed Nusselt numbers for symmetrically and asymmetrically heated  
 214 parallel plates with uniform surface temperatures, see Equation 18.

$$\begin{cases} \text{If } T_{w_1} \neq T_{w_2} & Nu_1 = Nu_2 = 4 \\ \text{If } T_{w_1} = T_{w_2} & Nu_T = 7.54070087 \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

215 As can be seen, the fully developed Nusselt number for asymmetrical temperature conditions was  
 216 significantly lower than that of symmetrically heated wall temperatures. The Nusselt correlations  
 217 shown in Equations 13, 14, and 15 consist of a constant value (7.54 and 7.55), followed by a  
 218 correction term for hydro-dynamical and thermal undeveloped flows. Therefore, these constant  
 219 values of 7.54 in Equations 13 and 15 and 7.55 in Equation 14 are changed to 4 to more correctly  
 220 consider the effects of asymmetrically heated boundaries, as shown in Equation 18. The modified

221 Equations 13–15 are presented in Figure 3 for the relevant flow velocities and Reynolds numbers  
 222 in the EAW.

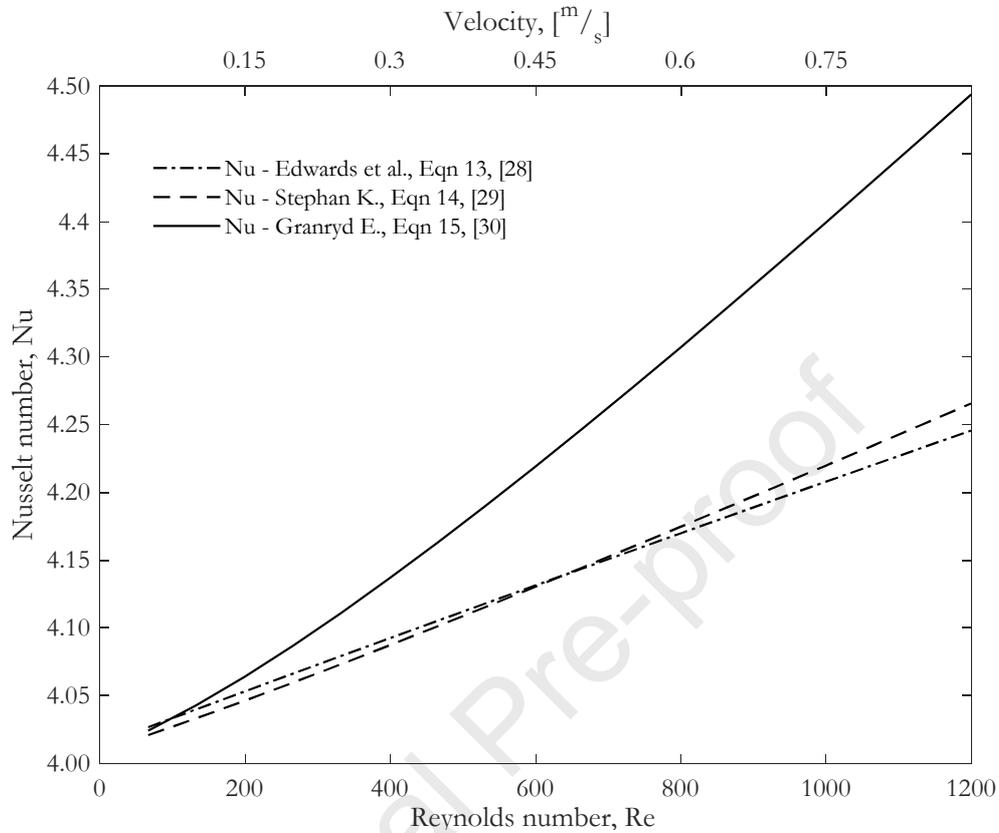


Figure 3: Nusselt correlations for laminar forced convective heat transfer for parallel plate flow

223

224 Figure 3 shows that the difference between the predicted Nusselt numbers by Equations 13, 14,  
 225 and 15 was negligible for Reynolds numbers between 50 and 1200. For the air velocity of 0.24  
 226 m/s and the corresponding Reynolds number (approximately 300) in this study, the difference  
 227 among Equations 13–15 was less than 1%. Thus, Equation 13 by Edwards et al. [28] is put  
 228 forward in this study.

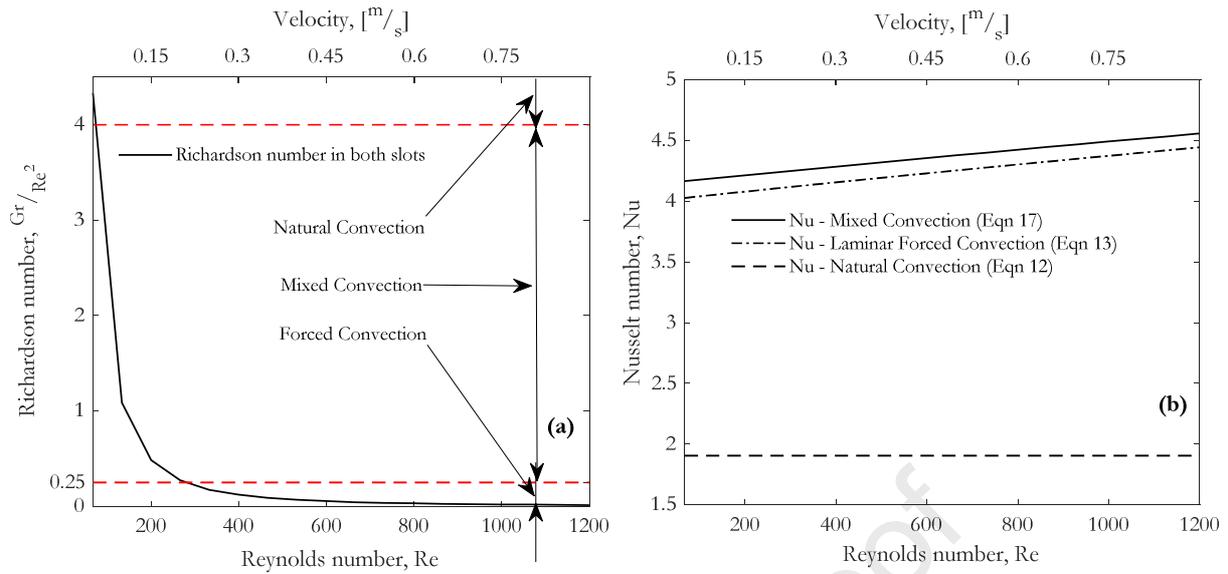


Figure 4: Convective heat transfer type according to the Richardson and Reynolds numbers in slots

229

230 As discussed above, the choice of correct correlations for natural, mixed and forced convection  
 231 in the slots is evaluated using the Richardson number ( $Gr/Re^2$ ). Figure 4a illustrates the  
 232 corresponding Richardson number for each convection type in an expectable range for relevant  
 233 airflow velocity and Reynolds number in the slots. It can be seen that for Reynolds numbers  
 234 higher than 270, laminar forced convection was the dominant heat transfer mechanism, which  
 235 means that buoyancy forces are negligible. Figure 4b presents the Nusselt correlations given by  
 236 Equations 12, 13, and 17 for natural, laminar forced, and mixed convection, respectively. Since  
 237 the Reynolds number of the supplied air flow to the slots is above 300, all calculations of  
 238 convective heat transfer in the slots of EAW can be assimilated to forced convection.

239 In the case of very low airflow velocities in the slots, natural convection in the slots are to be  
 240 considered with the Nusselt correlation suggested by Bar-Cohen and Rohsenow [27]. Thus,  
 241 Equation 12 is used to calculate the Nusselt number for vertical isothermal parallel plates with  
 242 asymmetric temperatures for natural convection in the slots.

#### 243 2.4 Prediction of vertical temperature distribution in slots

244 A two-dimensional finite differencing scheme is used to approximate the vertical and transverse  
 245 temperature distribution between the window panes. Since the airflow in the slots is only affected  
 246 by the upstream properties, an upwind differencing scheme is used for the thermal modeling of  
 247 the air, as presented in Equation 19 [40].



258 As shown in Figure 5, the window is discretized along the height and energy Equations 19, 20,  
 259 and 21 are used over each air and pane control volume. The minimum number of mesh along the  
 260 height of the window for mesh independence amounts to 150 from this study. The radiative and  
 261 convective heat transfer coefficients used in both equations are calculated as described in  
 262 Sections 2.2 and 2.3.

## 263 2.5 Validation

264 In the following two subsections, the validity of the developed modeling approach is verified by  
 265 comparison with available data from previous studies. The conventional TGW model is validated  
 266 as a base model for the EAW. Nusselt correlations used in the models are discussed and the front  
 267 and end boundary conditions are compared against measured data for both window types.

### 268 2.5.1 Validation of TGW simulation

269 The simulated heat transfer for the triple-glazed window is validated against measured data  
 270 reported by Larsson et al. [41]. Two different indoor and outdoor temperature conditions are  
 271 investigated and the results are shown in Figure 6. The temperature gradients across the cross-  
 272 section of a one-meter-high TGW with krypton in 12 mm wide slots is shown. Temperatures  $T_1$ –  
 273  $T_6$  comply with the temperature points shown in Figure 2a. The window height is 1m, which  
 274 means the aspect ratio is 83.

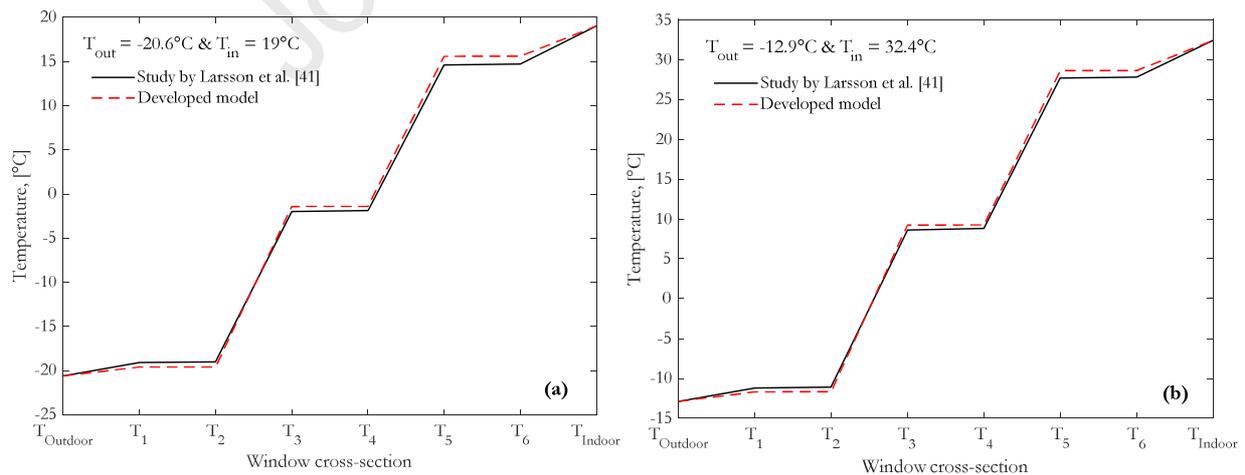


Figure 6: Comparison of the developed model with the study by Larsson et al. [41] for two outdoor and indoor temperatures. The AR =83.

275

276 The simulated temperature change across the window shows good agreement with the measured  
 277 one by Larsson et al [41]. The maximum deviations between the two methods are 0.9 °C and 1°C  
 278 (2.9% and 5.7%), respectively, for the two studied temperature conditions.

279 The deviations in the temperature profiles in Figure 6 are due to different Nusselt correlations.  
 280 Larsson et al. calculated the Nusselt number for a cavity configuration using the Nusselt  
 281 correlation suggested by Elsherbiny et al. [42]. In the present study, however, the Nusselt  
 282 correlation suggested by Zhao et al. [25] has been used because it is more suitable for convective  
 283 heat transfer in the slots. Correlations suggested by Elsherbiny et al. result in higher Nusselt  
 284 values for larger Rayleigh numbers and aspect ratios compared to the correlation proposed by  
 285 Zhao et al. The higher accuracy of the correlations was previously elaborated and thoroughly  
 286 discussed by Zhao et al. [25].

### 287 2.5.2 Validation of the developed EAW simulation model

288 The thermal performance of a prototype of an EAW was previously investigated by Bergman  
 289 [43]. Bergman measured the air flow and inner glazing temperatures of an EAW installed in a  
 290 demonstration building. The results of these temperature measurements for various airflow rates  
 291 are compared to the simulated values in this study and are presented in Figure 7.

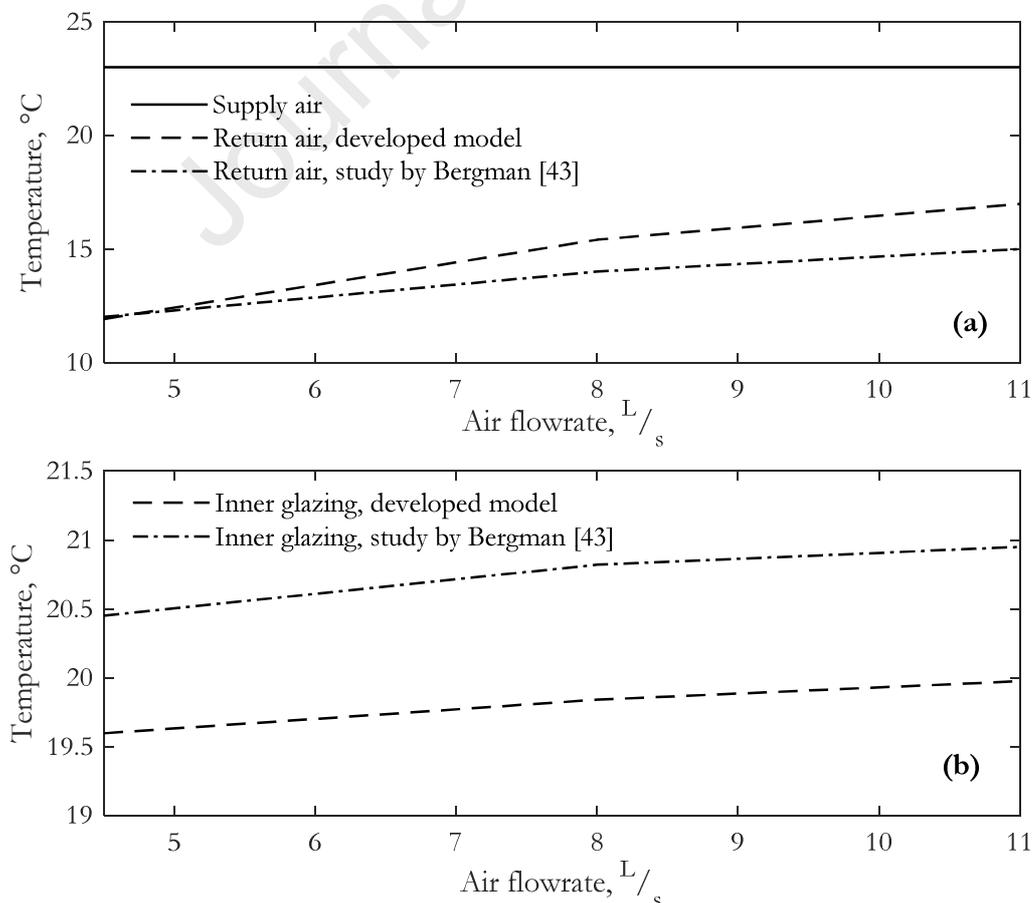


Figure 7: Simulated and measured [43] return air and inner glazing temperatures for EAW.

292 The supply air temperature for present simulation and previous demonstration was 23 °C. The  
293 injected airflow rate to the slots varied between 4.5-11 L/s in the study by Bergman [43]. The  
294 temperature of the inner glazing was measured at four locations of the pane to identify the  
295 transverse and vertical temperature gradients. Figure 7a shows the measured and the simulated  
296 return air temperatures as they diverge with the increasing airflow rate. Comparison showed that  
297 the measured and simulated temperatures for the low airflow rate (4.5 L/s) are in excellent  
298 agreement, and the maximum deviation was 2 °C, which corresponds to 12%, at an airflow rate  
299 of 11 L/s. Figure 7b shows the measured and simulated inner glazing temperatures at the studied  
300 air flowrate of 4.5-11 L/s. The maximum temperature difference between these two methods was  
301 approximately 0.7 °C, which corresponds to 4% at flowrate of 11 L/s. In this study, airflow rate  
302 of 2.4–5.7 L/s is investigated and the maximum deviation in this range is 3%. This comparison  
303 verifies that the selected heat transfer equations and the developed simulation model are valid.

304 **3 Results**

305 The thermal performance results of the mentioned EAE were presented by comparing them with  
 306 a conventional TGW. The key parameters of windows were identified and their impact on the  
 307 performance of both window types was studied.

308 **3.1 EAW performance**

309 Figure 8 depicts the air and pane temperature distribution along the EAW height. The indoor and  
 310 outdoor temperatures were  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively, as introduced in Section 2. Supply air  
 311 temperature to the slot was  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the return air temperature at the bottom of window, as can  
 312 be seen, was  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

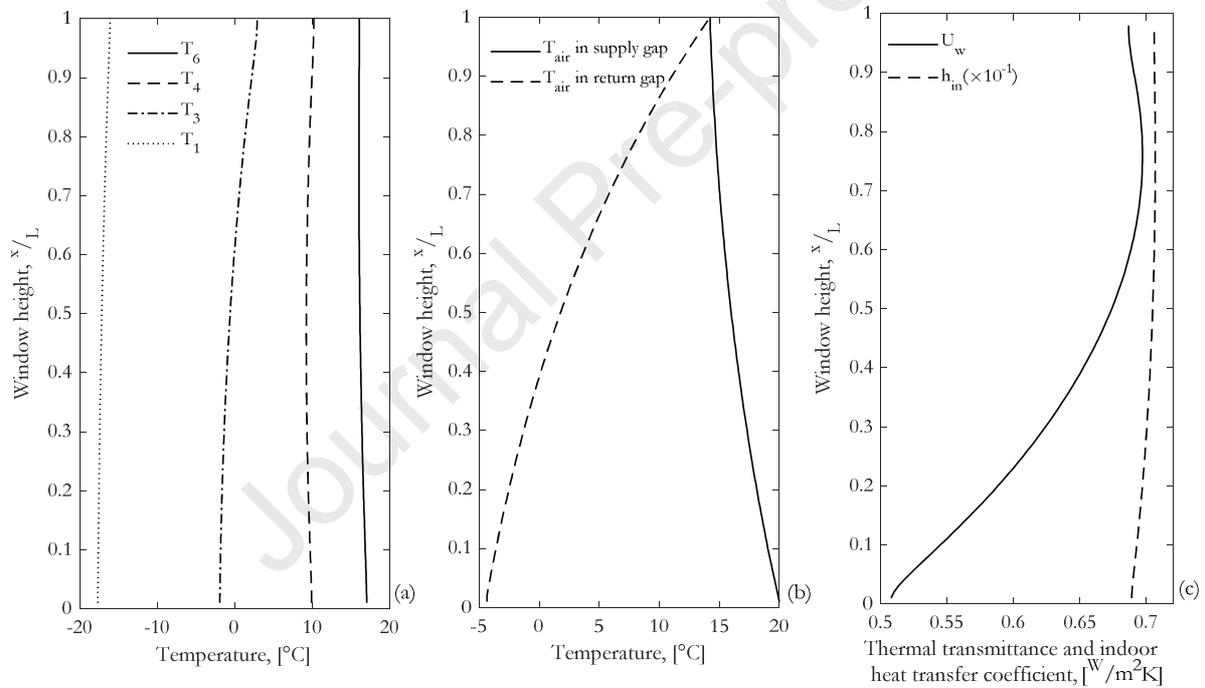


Figure 8: Air and panes temperature and U-value along the height of the EAW

313

314 The supply and return air temperature in the slots is shown in Figure 8(a). The air temperature at  
 315 the upper window edge was  $14^{\circ}\text{C}$  and decreased to  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$  at the bottom of the return slot facing  
 316 outdoors. The glass temperatures are shown in Figure 8(b), where temperatures  $T_1$ ,  $T_3$ ,  $T_4$ , and  $T_6$   
 317 comply with the surface temperatures presented in Figure 1. Surface temperatures  $T_4$  and  $T_6$  were  
 318 almost constant along the window height compared to the other two ( $T_1$  and  $T_3$ ). Figure 8(c)  
 319 shows the representative U-value along the window height. Due to different inner glazing

320 temperature and indoor heat transfer coefficient, the U-value varied from 0.5–0.7 W/m<sup>2</sup>K. The  
 321 indoor heat transfer coefficient,  $h_n$ , varied from 6.8–7.1 W/m<sup>2</sup>K.

### 322 3.2 Impact of slot size

323 Within the cross-section of windows, the vacuum or gas-filled gaps have the largest thermal  
 324 resistance compared to the window panes. Therefore, the size of the gap and the properties of  
 325 the encased gas influence the total heat transfer through the window cross-section.

326 Figure 9 shows the impact of sizing of slots of the EAW on the U-value along the window height  
 327 and the return air temperature from the slots. Three cases of EAW designs with 10mm, 12.5mm,  
 328 and 15mm slot width in a range of injected air temperatures were simulated. By increasing the  
 329 slot size for every supply air temperature, the return air temperature also increased. In contrast,  
 330 the average U-value along the window height decreased when supply temperatures were raised.  
 331 However, at a supply air temperature of approximately 18°C, the effect of slot size on the U-  
 332 value was negligible. Therefore, the U-value decreased in wider slots and for supply air  
 333 temperatures below 18°C, and increased for wider slots and for supply air temperatures above  
 334 18°C.

335

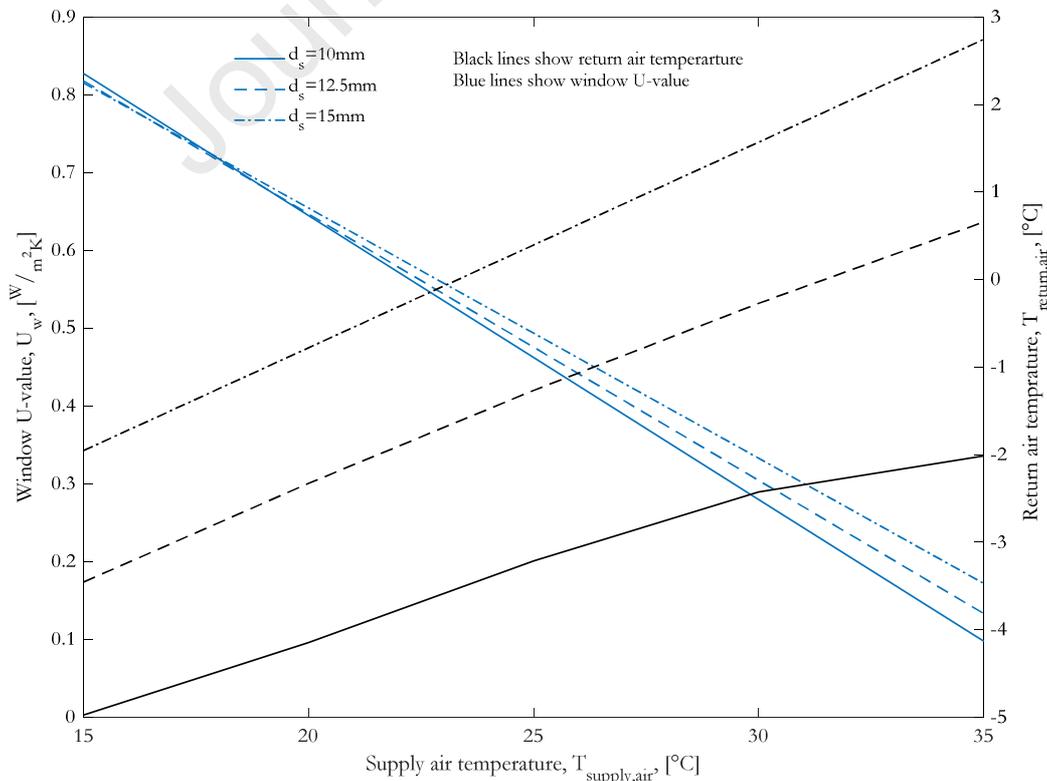


Figure 9: Impact of slot size on air temperature in the slots and U-value

### 336 3.3 Impact of temperature difference

337 The window U-values presented by window manufacturers are commonly defined for a specific  
 338 temperature difference on the two sides of the window surfaces. In practice, these values vary as  
 339 the outdoor temperature changes. Figure 10 indicates such influence of outdoor temperature on  
 340 the U-value and the return air temperature in the slots. These results are presented for four  
 341 different supply air temperatures to the slots. Note that the indoor temperature remained  
 342 constant (20°C) for the entire simulations. Therefore, the temperature difference at the two sides  
 343 of the window varied between 10°C and 50°C.

344 As can be seen, the return air temperature constantly increased by the increased outdoor  
 345 temperature. This trend was not affected by the supply air temperature. However, the average U-  
 346 value of the window along the height was dependent on the supply air temperature. For supply  
 347 air temperatures below 20°C, the U-value increased by increasing the outdoor temperature. For  
 348 supply air temperatures above 20°C, the U-value decreased as the outdoor temperature increased.

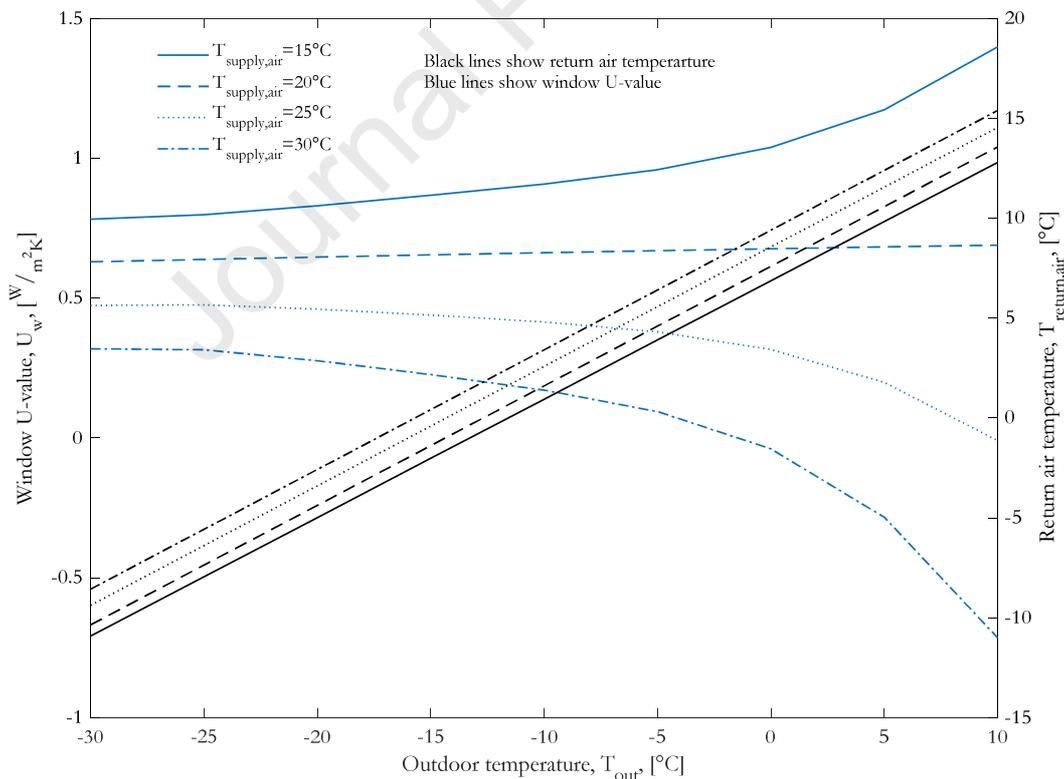


Figure 10: Impact of outdoor temperature on EAW U-value,  $T_{in} = 20^{\circ}\text{C}$

349

### 3.4 Impact of airflow rate on EAW performance

The thermal performance of EAW could also be affected by the injected airflow rate to the slots. Furthermore, higher velocities due to increased airflow rates will affect the rate of convective heat transfer in the slots. Thus, Figure 11 illustrates the effect of the injected air velocity on the EAW thermal transmittance and the return air temperature.

The thermal performance of EAW was investigated by injecting warm air (20°C) with velocities ranging from 0.24–0.57 m/s, which corresponds to air flowrates of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$ – $7 \times 10^{-3}$  kg/s. As can be seen, higher air velocity in the slots resulted in an increase in the return air temperature to the heat exchanger at the bottom of EAW. The slope of the black lines increased for higher air velocities, which means that the return air temperature increased proportionally with the supply air velocity.

However, the U-value (blue lines) decreased with both supply air velocity and temperature. In other words, higher air velocities in the slots at constant supply temperatures resulted in lower thermal transmittance. Similarly, injecting the air with higher temperatures to the slots resulted in lower average U-values along the window height.

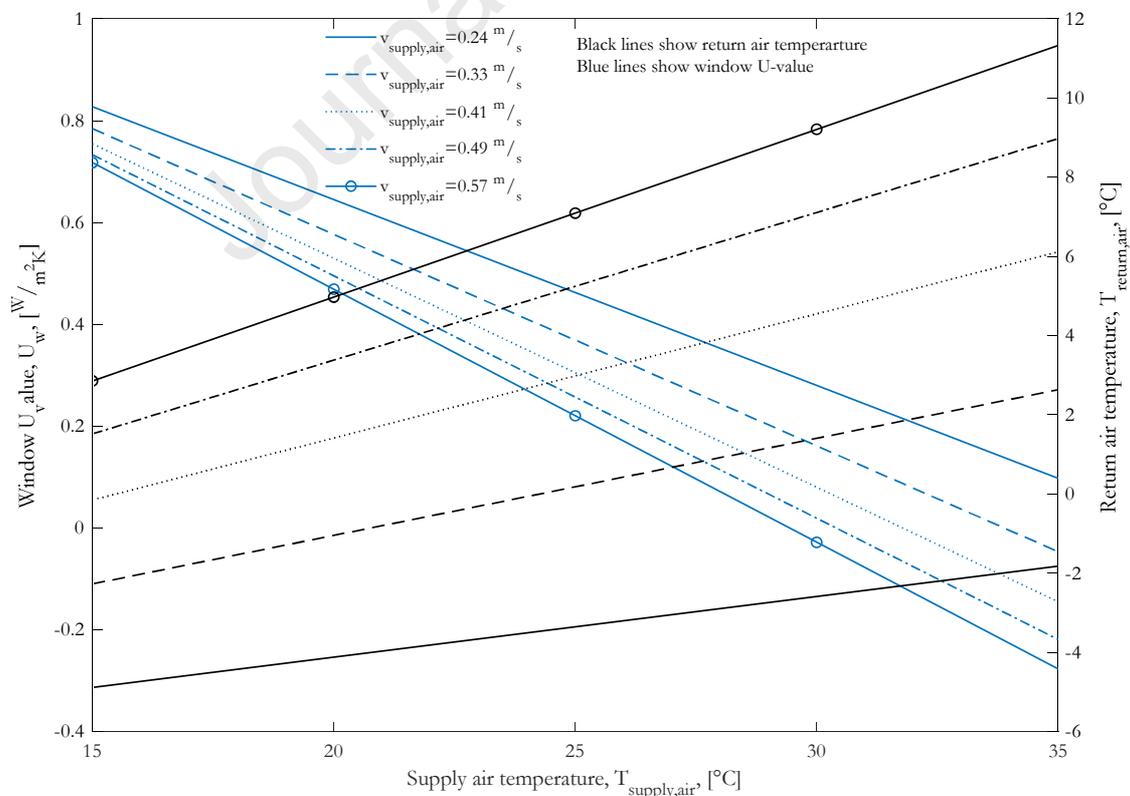


Figure 11: Impact of air velocity in slots on window U-value and return air temperature for air velocities between 0.24 and 0.57 m/s (air flowrates of  $3 \times 10^{-3}$  –  $7 \times 10^{-3}$  kg/s)

## 365 4 Discussion

366 In this paper, the heat transfer in an energy-active window (EAW) has been investigated. The  
367 window was heated by a tempered internal air flow that was circulated between window panes.  
368 Results have shown that the total heat transfer rate through this window type was mostly  
369 controlled by the thermal radiation between the panes. However, the heat transfer rate between  
370 the injected warm air and the panes was predominantly governed by the convection that has been  
371 evaluated in this study. For convectational windows, the narrow distance between the window  
372 panes and the height of the window resulted in high aspect ratios. Nusselt correlations for such  
373 configurations are rare in the available literature. In this study, appropriate Nusselt correlations  
374 from two previous studies were used to model the heat transfer through conventional triple-  
375 glazed windows. The obtained results were compared with results from a previous study. A close  
376 agreement between the simulated and the previous data was obtained.

377 Nusselt correlations for narrow open cavities with different surface temperatures and low  
378 Richardson numbers are also rare in the available literature, which made modeling work  
379 challenging. In this paper, well-known Nusselt correlations for laminar forced convection were  
380 adjusted for use in EAWs, whose panes had different surface temperatures. Because of this, the  
381 constant value in the original Nusselt correlations was changed according to recommendations in  
382 the literature. Furthermore, a detailed mapping of the convection type (natural, mixed or forced)  
383 inside the window slots was performed to correctly evaluate the heat transfer characteristics in  
384 these parts.

385 As presented in Figure 8, the airflow temperature dropped more significantly in the return slot  
386 compared to the supply slot. This showed that the heat transferred from the EAW to outdoor  
387 was largely higher than the heat transfer to an indoor environment. Therefore, low-grade heat,  
388 such as waste heat, should preferably be used for heat supply to EAW. Another reason for such  
389 temperature profile for the air along the window height is the high thermal insulation of the  
390 middle section, in which argon is utilized. As a result,  $T_4$  and  $T_6$  profiles were less affected by the  
391 air temperature in the return slot.

392 The present study did not examine the effects of flow disturbances on the inner glazing towards  
393 the room due to factors such as occupants' movements, room heaters, and curtains. Thus, the  
394 indoor heat transfer coefficient was rather constant along the window height. This, together with  
395 used constant heat transfer coefficient on the glazing towards outdoor, resulted in a fairly  
396 uniform temperature distribution along the window panes.

397 The thermal performance of the EAW was quantified as an average U-value along the window  
 398 height. The U-value was impacted by several parameters that were given special notice in Figure 9,  
 399 Figure 10 and Figure 11. These figures generally showed that by increasing the supply air  
 400 temperature the U-value dropped. This was independent of variations in the slot gap, outdoor  
 401 temperature, and the air velocity in the slots. However, if the supply air temperature was equal to  
 402 the indoor temperature, the U-value was not affected by the outdoor temperature. Thus, an  
 403 important conclusion that could be drawn from Figure 10 is that to ensure low U-values at  
 404 different outdoor temperatures, the supply air temperature to EAW must be above the indoor  
 405 temperature, which was 20 °C in this study. The negative U-values in Figures 9, 10, and 11  
 406 represent the heat transfer to indoor. In this situation, the window acts as a heat emitter for the  
 407 indoor environment since its surface temperature is higher than the room temperature.

408 The return air temperature from EAW can be used to evaluate the rate of the used heat from a  
 409 waste heat source and the heat gain by the window. As can be observed in Figure 9, Figure 10,  
 410 and Figure 11, the return air temperature was raised by increasing the supply air temperature to  
 411 EAW, the injected air velocity, and the slot size.

412 According to the latest Swedish building regulation release provided by Boverket (The Swedish  
 413 National Board of Housing, Building and Planning), the window glazing area should be at least  
 414 10% of the floor area [44]. The studied EAW case here, shown in Figure 8, can be compared to a  
 415 conventional window with nominal U-value of 1.2 W/m<sup>2</sup>°C at two outdoor temperatures of -  
 416 20°C and -5°C, using Equation 22. The room heat gains by replacing the conventional window  
 417 with EAW will be 13–22 W for each window unit area. Assuming a window-to-floor area ratio of  
 418 10% and given the indoor/outdoor conditions, the evaluated EAW has a potential to reduce the  
 419 room heating demand by 1.3-2.2 W/m<sup>2</sup><sub>floor area</sub> for the mentioned outdoor temperatures.

$$\frac{Q_{gain}}{A_{floor}} = (U_{TGW} - U_{EAW})(T_{in} - T_{out}) \frac{A_w}{A_{floor}} \quad (22)$$

420 The real-life implementation of the studied window has not yet been evaluated and its thermal  
 421 energy and power implications have not been fully attained. Therefore, a pilot study will be  
 422 conducted to evaluate the feasibility, cost, and other implications in order to improve the concept  
 423 design prior to further industrialization.

424 **5 Conclusions**

425 In this study, thermal performance of a novel energy-active window (EAW) type was evaluated  
426 and compared with a conventional triple-glazed window. According to the previous studies, the  
427 Nusselt correlations used for evaluating the laminar forced convective heat transfer in narrow  
428 slots with asymmetric temperatures result in considerably lower values compared to symmetric  
429 conditions. Moreover, the unique configuration of the studied window with specific airflow  
430 regime mandated use of modified correlations to simulate the heat transfer mechanism correctly.  
431 Therefore, a detailed heat transfer model was developed and validated for the investigated  
432 configuration of EAW. The major findings are:

- 433 • The heat source for the energy-active window must come from a low-grade thermal  
434 source or waste heat since a large share of supplied heat to the EAW is transferred to the  
435 outdoor.
- 436 • Thermal radiation is the dominant heat transfer mechanism for both the EAW and the  
437 conventional triple-glazed window.
- 438 • The Nusselt number for parallel plates with asymmetric surface temperatures is  
439 approximately 1.9 times lower than for symmetric (same) surface temperatures. This fact  
440 should be considered carefully when designing heat exchangers with different surface  
441 temperatures, as was shown in this study.
- 442 • At various outdoor and supply temperatures, the effect of slot size is negligible. For an  
443 example, at outdoor and supply temperatures of  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $18^{\circ}\text{C}$ , the U-value is not  
444 impacted by the slot size.
- 445 • The U-value of energy-active window is significantly influenced by variations in supply  
446 (injected) air temperature. In order to maintain a low U-value ( $< 0.65 \text{ W/m}^2 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), the  
447 supply air temperature to EAW must be above the indoor temperature.
- 448 • For a window-to-floor area ratio of 10%, the EAW could potentially reduce the building  
449 heating demand by approximately  $2.2 \text{ W/m}^2_{\text{floor area}}$  and  $1.3 \text{ W/m}^2_{\text{floor area}}$  at outdoor  
450 temperatures of  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$ , respectively. The potential increases proportionally  
451 with the window-to-floor area ratio.

452 **Acknowledgement**

453 This work is financially supported by Boverket (Swedish National Board of Housing, Building  
454 and Planning). Contributions from Uponor AB, Bravida Holding AB and KTH Live-In Lab in  
455 providing valuable information and practical support are acknowledged. The authors would also  
456 gratefully appreciate the support from Dr. Peter Platell from LOWTE AB for EAW prototyping.  
457

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- 550

Highlights:

- Thermal performance of a novel window type is investigated
- A detailed heat transfer model is developed and validated
- Waste heat is efficiently used to decrease building peak heat demands
- Suggested window type has lower transmittance than conventional equivalent

Journal Pre-proof

## **Response to Reviewers**

Comments received on 2020-10-06 - Ms. Ref. No. RENE-D-20-03385

Title: Heat transfer model for energy-active windows – An evaluation of efficient reuse of waste heat in buildings

The authors are again grateful for the reviewers' comments. The minor changes requested by the first reviewer are applied in the new version.

### **Reviewer #1:**

The authors respond to the reviewers' comments.

I have yet one recommendation: when you compare temperature profile, for example in figure 7a, please do not use percentage but difference in degrees because it is very unusual to use percentage to describe temperature changes.

- Response:
  - This is addressed in the new version.

### **Reviewer #2:**

No further recommendations are needed.

The authors want once again to thank the reviewers for their time spent on reviewing our manuscript and for their valuable comments.

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Journal Pre-proof