AIR-COOLING AND DEHUMIDIFYING COILS

THE MAJORITY of the equipment used today for cooling and dehumidifying an airstream under forced convection incorporates a coil section that contains one or more cooling coils assembled in a coil bank arrangement. Such coil sections are used extensively as components in room terminal units; larger factory-assembled, self-contained air conditioners; central station air handlers; and field built-up systems. The applications of each type of coil are limited to the field within which the coil is rated. Other limitations are imposed by code requirements, proper choice of materials for the fluids used, the configuration of the air handler, and economic analysis of the possible alternatives for each installation.

USES FOR COILS

Coils are used for air cooling with or without accompanying dehumidification. Examples of cooling applications without dehumidification are (1) precooling coils that use well water or other relatively high-temperature water to reduce the load on the refrigerating equipment and (2) chilled water coils that remove sensible heat from chemical moisture-absorption apparatus. The heat-pipe coil is also used as a supplementary heat exchanger for preconditioning in air-side sensible cooling (see Chapter 44). Most coil sections provide air sensible cooling and dehumidification simultaneously.

The assembly usually includes a means of cleaning air to protect the coil from accumulation of dirt and to keep dust and foreign matter out of the conditioned space. Although cooling and dehumidification are their principal functions, cooling coils can also be wetted with water or a hygroscopic liquid to aid in air cleaning, odor absorption, or frost prevention. Coils are also evaporatively cooled with a water spray to improve efficiency or capacity. Chapter 19 has more information on indirect evaporative cooling. For general comfort conditioning, cooling, and dehumidifying, the **extended surface (finned) cooling coil** design is the most popular and practical.

COIL CONSTRUCTION AND ARRANGEMENT

In finned coils, the external surface of the tubes is primary, and the fin surface is secondary. The primary surface generally consists of rows of round tubes or pipes that may be staggered or placed in line with respect to the airflow. Flattened tubes or tubes with other nonround internal passageways are sometimes used. The inside surface of the tubes is usually smooth and plain, but some coil designs have various forms of internal fins or turbulence promoters (either fabricated or extruded) to enhance performance. The individual tube passes in a coil are usually interconnected by return bends (or hairpin bend tubes) to form the serpentine arrangement of multipass tube circuits. Coils are usually available with different circuit arrangements and combinations offering varying numbers of parallel water flow passes within the tube core (Figure 1).

Cooling coils for water, aqueous glycol, brine, or halocarbon refrigerants usually have aluminum fins on copper tubes, although

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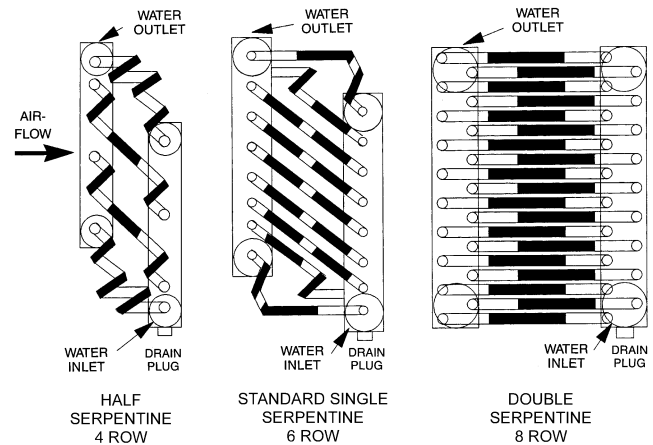

Fig. 1   Typical Water Circuit Arrangement

copper fins on copper tubes and aluminum fins on aluminum tubes (excluding water) are also used. Adhesives are sometimes used to bond header connections, return bends, and fin-tube joints, particularly for aluminum-to-aluminum joints. Certain special-application coils feature an all-aluminum extruded tube-and-fin surface.

Common core tube outside diameters are 8, 10, 12.5, 16, 20, and 25 mm, with fins spaced 1.4 to 6.4 mm apart. Tube spacing ranges from 15 to 75 mm on equilateral (staggered) or rectangular (in-line) centers, depending on the width of individual fins and on other performance considerations. Fins should be spaced according to the job to be performed, with special attention given to air friction; possibility of lint accumulation; and frost accumulation, especially at lower temperatures.

Tube wall thickness and the required use of alloys other than copper are determined mainly by the coil's working pressure and safety factor for hydrostatic burst (pressure). Fin type and header construction also play a large part in this determination. Local job site codes and applicable nationally recognized safety standards should be consulted in the design and application of these coils.

Water and Aqueous Glycol Coils

Good performance of water-type coils requires both the elimination of all air and water traps within the water circuit and the proper distribution of water. Unless properly vented, air may accumulate in the coil tube circuits, reducing thermal performance and possibly causing noise or vibration in the piping system. Air vent and drain connections are usually provided on the coil water headers, but this does not eliminate the need to install, operate, and maintain the coil tube core in a level position. Individual coil vents and drain plugs are often incorporated on the headers (Figure 1). Water traps within the tubing of a properly leveled coil are usually caused by (1) improper nondraining circuit design and/or (2) center-of-coil downward sag.

Such a situation may cause tube failure (e.g., freeze-up in cold climates or tube erosion due to untreated mineralized water).

Depending on performance requirements, the water velocity inside the tubes usually ranges from approximately 0.3 to 2.4 m/s, and the design water pressure drop across the coils varies from about 15 to 150 kPa. For nuclear HVAC applications, ASME *Standard* AG-1, Code on Nuclear Air and Gas Treatment, requires a minimum tube velocity of 0.6 m/s. ARI *Standard* 410 requires a minimum of 0.3 m/s or a Reynolds number of 3100 or greater. This yields more predictable performance.

In certain cases, the water may contain considerable sand and other foreign matter (e.g., in precooling coils using well water or in applications where minerals in the cooling water deposit on and foul the tube surface). It is best to filter out such sediment. Some coil manufacturers offer removable water header plates or a removable plug for each tube that allows the tube to be cleaned, ensuring a continuation of rated performance while the cooling units are in service. Where buildup of scale deposits or fouling of the water-side surface is expected, a scale factor is sometimes included when calculating thermal performance of the coils. Cupronickel, red brass, bronze, and other tube alloys help protect against corrosion and erosion deterioration caused primarily by internal fluid flow abrasive sediment. The core tubes of properly designed and installed coils should feature circuits that (1) have equally developed line length; (2) are self-draining by means of gravity during the coil's off cycle; (3) have the minimum pressure drop to aid in water distribution from the supply header without requiring an excessive pumping pressure; and (4) have equal feed and return by the supply and return header. Design for the proper in-tube water velocity determines the circuitry style required. Multirow coils are usually circuited to the cross-counterflow arrangement and oriented for top-outlet/bottom-feed connection.

Direct-Expansion Coils

Coils for halocarbon refrigerants present more complex cooling fluid distribution problems than do water or brine coils. The coil should cool effectively and uniformly throughout, with even refrigerant distribution. Halocarbon coils are used on two types of refrigerated systems: flooded and direct-expansion.

A flooded system is used mainly when a small temperature difference between the air and refrigerant is desired. Chapter 3 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Refrigeration* describes flooded systems in more detail.

For direct-expansion systems, two of the most commonly used refrigerant liquid metering arrangements are the capillary tube assembly (or restrictor orifice) and the thermostatic expansion valve (TXV) device. The **capillary tube** is applied in factory-assembled, self-contained air conditioners up to approximately 35 kW capacity but is most widely used on smaller capacity models such as window or room units. In this system, the bore and length of a capillary tube are sized so that at full load, under design conditions, just enough liquid refrigerant to be evaporated completely is metered from the condenser to the evaporator coil. While this type of metering arrangement does not operate over a wide range of conditions as efficiently as a thermostatic expansion valve system, its performance is targeted for a specific design condition.

A **thermostatic expansion valve** system is commonly used for all direct-expansion coil applications described in this chapter, particularly field-assembled coil sections and those used in central air-handling units and the larger, factory-assembled hermetic air conditioners. This system depends on the TXV to automatically regulate the rate of refrigerant liquid flow to the coil in direct proportion to the evaporation rate of refrigerant liquid in the coil, thereby maintaining optimum performance over a wide range of conditions. The superheat at the coil suction outlet is continually maintained within the usual predetermined limits of 3 to 6 K. Because the TXV responds to the superheat at the coil outlet, the superheat within the

coil is produced with the least possible sacrifice of active evaporating surface.

The length of each coil's refrigerant circuits, from the TXV's distributor feed tubes through the suction header, should be equal. The length of each circuit should be optimized to provide good heat transfer, good oil return, and a complementary pressure drop across the circuit. The coil should be installed level, and coil circuitry should be designed to self-drain by gravity toward the suction header connection.

To ensure reasonably uniform refrigerant distribution in multi-circuit coils, a distributor is placed between the TXV and coil inlets to divide the refrigerant equally among the coil circuits. The refrigerant distributor must be effective in distributing both liquid and vapor because the refrigerant entering the coil is usually a mixture of the two, although mainly liquid by mass. Distributors can be placed in either the vertical or the horizontal position; however, the vertical down position usually distributes refrigerant between coil circuits better than the horizontal position for varying load conditions.

The individual coil circuit connections from the refrigerant distributor to the coil inlet are made of small-diameter tubing; the connections are all the same length and diameter so that the same flow occurs between each refrigerant distributor tube and each coil circuit. To approximate uniform refrigerant distribution, the refrigerant should flow to each refrigerant distributor circuit in proportion to the load on that coil. The heat load must be distributed equally to each of its refrigerant circuits to obtain optimum coil performance. If the coil load cannot be distributed uniformly, the coil should be recircuited and connected with more than one TXV to feed the circuits (individual suction may also help). In this way, the refrigerant distribution is reduced in proportion to the number of distributors that may have less of an effect on overall coil performance when the design must accommodate some unequal circuit loading. Unequal circuit loading may also be caused by such variables as uneven air velocity across the face of the coil, uneven entering air temperature, improper coil circuiting, oversized orifice in distributor, or the TXV's not being directly connected (close-coupled) to the distributor.

Control of Coils

Cooling capacity of water coils is controlled by varying either water flow or airflow. Water flow can be controlled by a three-way mixing, modulating, and/or throttling valve. For airflow control, face and bypass dampers are used. When cooling demand decreases, the coil face damper starts to close, and the bypass damper opens. In some cases, airflow is varied by controlling the fan capacity with speed controls, inlet vanes, or discharge dampers.

Chapter 45 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Applications* addresses the control of air-cooling coils to meet system or space requirements and factors to consider when sizing automatic valves for water coils. The selection and application of refrigerant flow control devices (e.g., thermostatic expansion valves, capillary tube types, constant pressure expansion valves, evaporator pressure regulators, suction pressure regulators, and solenoid valves) as used with direct-expansion coils are discussed in Chapter 45 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Refrigeration*.

For factory-assembled, self-contained packaged systems or field-assembled systems employing direct-expansion coils equipped with TXVs, a single valve is sometimes used for each coil; in other cases, two or more valves are used. The thermostatic expansion valve controls the refrigerant flow rate through the coil circuits so that the refrigerant vapor at the coil outlet is superheated properly. Superheat is obtained with suitable coil design and proper valve selection. Unlike water flow control valves, standard pressure/temperature-type thermostatic expansion valves alone do not control the refrigeration system's capacity or the temperature of the leaving air, nor do they maintain ambient conditions in specific spaces. However, some electronically controlled TXVs have these attributes.
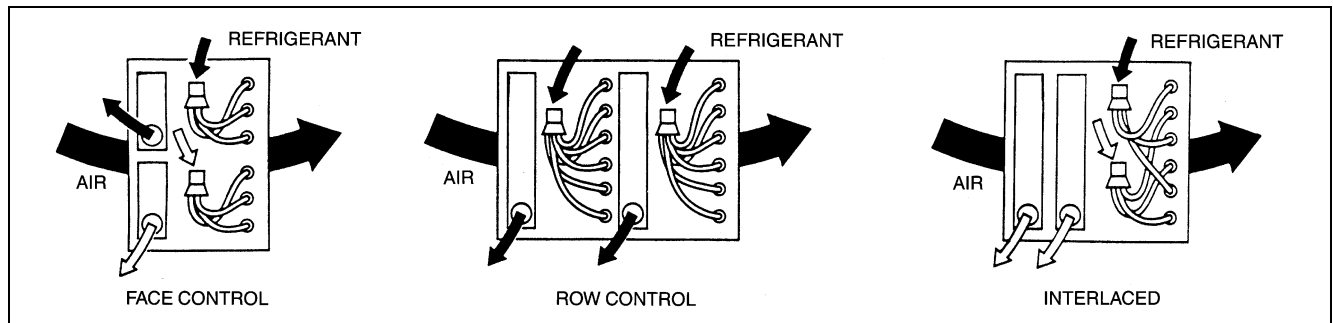
Fig. 2 Arrangements for Coils with Multiple Thermostatic Expansion Valves

In order to match the refrigeration load requirements for the conditioned space to the cooling capacity of the coil(s), a thermostat located in the conditioned space(s) or in the return air temporarily interrupts refrigerant flow to the direct-expansion cooling coils by stopping the compressor(s) and/or closing the solenoid liquid-line valve(s). Other solenoids unload compressors by means of suction control. For jobs with only a single zone of conditioned space, the compressor's on-off control is frequently used to modulate coil capacity. The selection and application of evaporator pressure regulators and similar regulators that are temperature operated and respond to the temperature of the conditioned air are covered in Chapter 45 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Refrigeration.*

Applications with multiple zones of conditioned space often use solenoid liquid-line valves to vary coil capacity. These valves should be used where thermostatic expansion valves feed certain types (or sections) of evaporator coils that may, according to load variations, require a temporary but positive interruption of refrigerant flow. This applies particularly to multiples of evaporator coils in a unit where one or more must be shut off temporarily to regulate its zone capacity. In such cases, a solenoid valve should be installed directly upstream of the thermostatic expansion valve(s). If more than one expansion valve feeds a particular zone coil, they may all be controlled by a single solenoid valve.

For a coil controlled by multiple refrigerant expansion valves, there are three arrangements: (1) face control, in which the coil is divided across its face; (2) row control; and (3) interlaced circuitry (Figure 2).

Face control, which is the most widely used because of its simplicity, equally loads all refrigerant circuits within the coil. Face control has the disadvantage of permitting reevaporation of condensate on the coil portion not in operation and bypassing air into the conditioned space during partial load conditions, when some of the TXVs are on an off-cycle. However, while the bottom portion of the coil is cooling, some of the advantages of single-zone humidity control can be achieved with air bypasses through the inactive top portion.

Row control, seldom available as standard equipment, eliminates air bypassing during partial load operation and minimizes condensate reevaporation. Close attention is required for accurate calculation of row-depth capacity, circuit design, and TXV sizing.

Interlaced circuit control uses whole face area and depth of coil when some of the expansion valves are shut off. Without a corresponding drop in airflow, modulating the refrigerant flow to an interlaced coil produces an increased coil surface temperature, thereby necessitating compressor protection (e.g., suction pressure regulators or compressor multiplexing).

Flow Arrangement

In the air-conditioning process, the relation of the fluid flow arrangement within the coil tubes to the coil depth greatly influences the performance of the heat transfer surface. Generally, air-cooling and dehumidifying coils are multirow and circuited for **counterflow** arrangement. The inlet air is applied at right angles to

the coil's tube face (coil height), which is also at the coil's outlet header location. The air exits at the opposite face (side) of the coil where the corresponding inlet header is located. Counterflow can produce the highest possible heat exchange within the shortest possible (coil row) depth because it has the closest temperature relationships between tube fluid and air at each (air) side of the coil; the temperature of the entering air more closely approaches the temperature of the leaving fluid than the temperature of the leaving air approaches the temperature of the entry fluid. The potential of realizing the highest possible mean temperature difference is thus arranged for optimum performance.

Most direct-expansion coils also follow this general scheme of thermal counterflow, but the requirements for proper superheat control may necessitate a hybrid combination of parallel flow and counterflow. (Air flows in the same direction as the refrigerant in parallel flow operation.) Quite often, the optimum design for large coils is parallel flow arrangement in the coil's initial (entry) boiling region followed by counterflow in the superheat (exit) region. Such a hybrid arrangement is commonly used for process applications that require a low temperature difference (low TD).

Coil hand refers to either the right hand (RH) or left hand (LH) for counterflow arrangement of a multirow counterflow coil. There is no convention for what constitutes LH or RH, so manufacturers usually establish a convention for their own coils. Most manufacturers designate the location of the inlet water header or refrigerant distributor as the coil hand reference point. Figure 3 illustrates the more widely accepted coil hand designation for multirow water or refrigerant coils.

Applications

Figure 4 shows a typical arrangement of coils in a field built-up central station system. All air should be filtered to prevent dirt, insects, and foreign matter from accumulating on the coils. The cooling coil (and humidifier, when used) should include a drain pan under each coil to catch the condensate formed during the cooling cycle (and the excess water from the humidifier). The drain connection should be on the downstream side of the coils, be of ample size, have accessible cleanouts, and discharge to an indirect waste or storm sewer. The drain also requires a deep-seal trap so that no sewer gas can enter the system. Precautions must be taken if there is a possibility that the drain might freeze. The drain pan, unit casing, and water piping should be insulated to prevent sweating.

Factory-assembled central station air handlers incorporate most of the design features outlined for field built-up systems. These packaged units can generally accommodate various sizes, types, and row depths of cooling and heating coils to meet most job requirements. This usually eliminates the need for field built-up central systems, except on very large jobs.

The design features of the coil (fin spacing, tube spacing, face height, type of fins), together with the amount of moisture on the coil and the degree of surface cleanliness, determine the air velocity at which condensed moisture blows off the coil. Generally, condensate
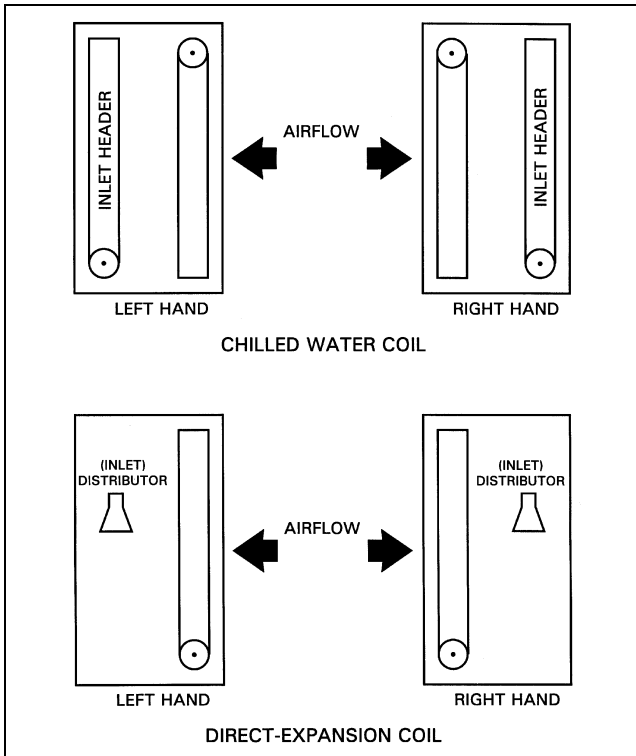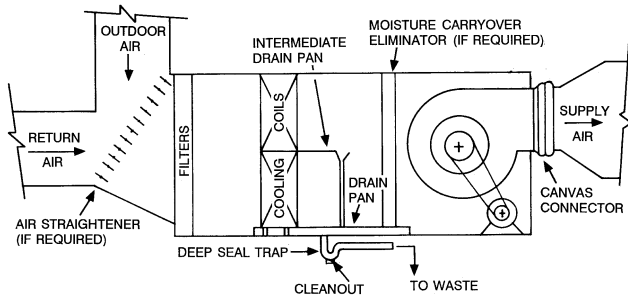
Fig. 3   Typical Coil Hand Designation

Fig. 4   Typical Arrangement of Cooling Coil Assembly in Built-Up or Packaged Central Station Air Handler

Fig. 5   Coil Bank Arrangement with Intermediate Condensate Pan
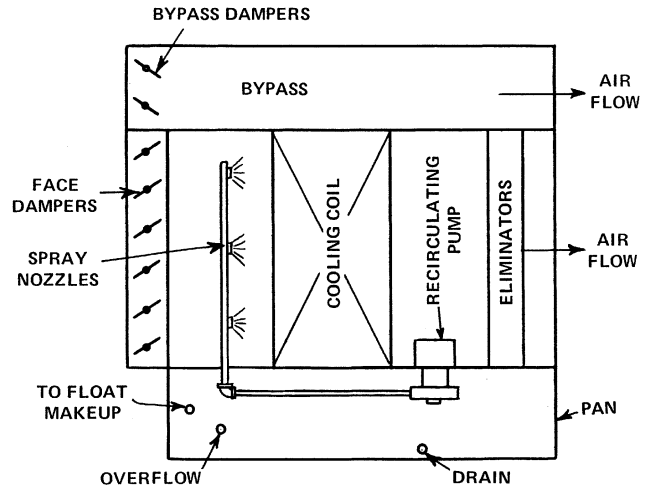
Fig. 6   Sprayed-Coil System with Air Bypass

water begins to be blown off a plate fin coil face at air velocities above 3 m/s. Water blowoff from the coils into air ductwork external to the air-conditioning unit should be prevented. However, water blowoff from the coils is not usually a problem if coil fin heights are limited to 1140 mm and the unit is set up to catch and dispose of the condensate. When a number of coils are stacked one above another, the condensate is carried into the airstream as it drips from one coil to the next. A downstream eliminator section could prevent this, but an intermediate drain pan and/or condensate trough (Figure 5) to collect the condensate and conduct it directly to the main drain pan is preferred. Extending downstream of the coil, each drain pan length should be at least one-half the coil height, and somewhat greater when coil airflow face velocities and/or humidity levels are higher.

When water is likely to carry over from the air-conditioning unit into external air ductwork, and no other means of prevention is provided, eliminator plates should be installed on the downstream side of the coils. Usually, eliminator plates are not included in packaged units because other means of preventing carryover, such as space made available within the unit design for longer drain pan(s), are included in the design.
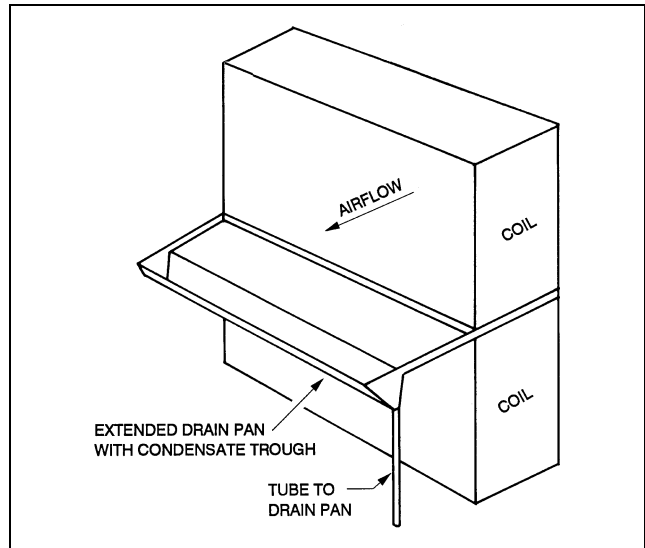
However, on sprayed-coil units, eliminators are usually included in the design. Such cooling and dehumidifying coils are sometimes sprayed with water to increase the rate of heat transfer, provide outlet air approaching saturation, and continually wash the surface of the coil. Coil sprays require a collecting tank, eliminators, and a recirculating pump (see Figure 6). Figure 6 also shows an air bypass, which helps a thermostat control maintain the humidity ratio by diverting a portion of the return air from the coil.

In field-assembled systems or factory-assembled central station air-handling units, the fans are usually positioned downstream from the coil(s) in a draw-through arrangement. This arrangement provides acceptable airflow uniformity across the coil face more often than does the blow-through arrangement. In a blow-through arrangement, fan location upstream from the coils may require air baffles or diffuser plates between the fan discharge and the cooling coil to obtain uniform airflow. This is often the case in packaged multizone unit design. Airflow is considered to be uniform when the measured flow across the entire coil face varies no more than 20%.

Air-cooling and dehumidifying coil frames, as well as all drain pans and troughs, should be of an acceptable corrosion-resistant material suitable for the system and its expected useful service life.

The air handler's coil section enclosure should be corrosion-resistant; be properly double-wall insulated; and have adequate access doors for changing air filters, cleaning coils, adjusting flow control valves, and maintaining motors.

Where suction line risers are used for air-cooling coils in direct-expansion refrigeration systems, the suction line must be sized properly to ensure oil return from coil to compressor at minimum load conditions. Oil return is normally intrinsic with factory-assembled, self-contained air conditioners but must be considered for factory-assembled central station units or field-installed cooling coil banks where suction line risers are required and are assembled at the job site. Sizing, design, and arrangement of suction lines and their risers are described in Chapter 3 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Refrigeration*.

COIL SELECTION

When selecting a coil, the following factors should be considered:

- Job requirements—cooling, dehumidifying, and the capacity required to properly balance with other system components (e.g., compressor equipment in the case of direct-expansion coils)
- Temperature conditions of entering air
- Available cooling media and operating temperatures
- Space and dimensional limitations
- Air and cooling fluid quantities, including distribution and limitations
- Allowable frictional resistances in air circuit (including coils)
- Allowable frictional resistances in cooling media piping system (including coils)
- Characteristics of individual coil designs and circuitry possibilities
- Individual installation requirements such as type of automatic control to be used; presence of corrosive atmosphere; design pressures; and durability of tube, fins, and frame material

Chapters 28 and 29 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Fundamentals* contains information on load calculation.

Air quantity is affected by such factors as design parameters, codes, space, and equipment. The resistance through the air circuit influences the fan power and speed. This resistance may be limited to allow the use of a given size fan motor, to keep the operating expense low, or because of sound-level requirements. The air friction loss across the cooling coil—in summation with other series air pressure drops for such elements as air filters, water sprays, heating coils, air grilles, and ductwork—determines the static pressure requirement for the complete airway system. The static pressure requirement is used in selecting the fans and drives to obtain the design air quantity under operating conditions. See Chapter 18 for a description of fan selection.

The conditioned air face velocity is determined by economic evaluation of initial and operating costs for the complete installation as influenced by (1) heat transfer performance of the specific coil surface type for various combinations of face areas and row depths as a function of the air velocity; (2) air-side frictional resistance for the complete air circuit (including coils), which affects fan size, power, and sound-level requirements; and (3) condensate water carryover considerations. The allowable friction through the water or brine coil circuitry may be dictated by the pressure available from a given size pump and pump motor, as well as the same economic factors governing the air side made applicable to the water side. Additionally, the adverse effect of high cooling water velocities on erosion-corrosion of tube walls is a major factor in sizing and circuitry to keep tube velocity below the recommended maximums. On larger coils, water pressure drop limits of 45 to 60 kPa usually keep such velocities within acceptable limits of 0.6 to 0.8 m/s, depending on circuit design.

Coil ratings are based on a uniform velocity. Design interference with uniform airflow through the coil makes predicting coil performance difficult as well as inaccurate. Such airflow interference may be caused by the entrance of air at odd angles or by the inadvertent blocking of a portion of the coil face. To obtain rated performance, the volumetric airflow quantity must be adjusted on the job to correspond to that at which the coil was rated and must be kept at that value. At start-up for air balance, the most common causes of incorrect airflow are the lack of altitude correction to standard air (where applicable) and ductwork problems. At commissioning, the most common causes of an air quantity deficiency are fouling of the filters and collection of dirt or frost on the coils. These difficulties can be avoided through proper design, start-up checkout, and regular servicing.

The required total heat capacity of the cooling coil should be in balance with the capacity of other refrigerant system components such as the compressor, water chiller, condenser, and refrigerant liquid metering device. Chapter 44 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Refrigeration* describes methods of estimating balanced system capacity under various operating conditions when using direct-expansion coils for both factory- and field-assembled systems.

In the case of dehumidifying coils, it is important that the proper amount of surface area be installed to obtain the ratio of air-side sensible-to-total heat required for maintaining the air dry-bulb and wet-bulb temperatures in the conditioned space. This is an important consideration when preconditioning is done by reheat arrangement. The method for calculating the sensible and total heat loads and the leaving air conditions at the coil to satisfy the sensible-to-total heat ratio required for the conditioned space is covered in Appendix D of *Cooling and Heating Load Calculation Principles* (Pedersen et al. 1998).

The same room air conditions can be maintained with different air quantities (including outside and return air) through a coil. However, for a given total air quantity with fixed percentages of outside and return air, there is only one set of air conditions leaving the coil that will precisely maintain the room design air conditions. Once the air quantity and leaving air conditions at the coil have been selected, there is usually only one combination of face area, row depth, and air face velocity for a given coil surface that will precisely maintain the required room ambient conditions. Therefore, in making final coil selections it is necessary to recheck the initial selection to ensure that the leaving air conditions, as calculated by a coil selection computer program or other procedure, will match those determined from the cooling load estimate.

Coil ratings and selections can be obtained from manufacturers' catalogs. Most catalogs contain extensive tables giving the performance of coils at various air and water velocities and entering humidity and temperatures. Most manufacturers provide computerized coil selection programs to potential customers. The final choice can then be made based on system performance and economic requirements.

Performance and Ratings

The long-term performance of an extended surface air-cooling and dehumidifying coil depends on its correct design to specified conditions and material specifications, proper matching to other system components, proper installation, and proper maintenance as required.

In accordance with ARI *Standard* 410, Forced-Circulation Air-Cooling and Air-Heating Coils, dry surface (sensible cooling) coils and dehumidifying coils (which both cool and dehumidify), particularly those used for field-assembled coil banks or factory-assembled packaged units using different combinations of coils, are usually rated within the following parameters:

Entering air dry-bulb temperature: 18 to 38°C
Entering air wet-bulb temperature: 15 to 30°C (If air is not dehumidified in the application, select coils based on sensible heat transfer.)

Air face velocity: 1 to 4 m/s

Evaporator refrigerant saturation temperature: −1 to 13°C at coil suction outlet (refrigerant vapor superheat at coil suction outlet is 3 K or higher)

Entering chilled water temperature: 1.5 to 18°C

Water velocity: 0.3 to 2.4 m/s

For cold ethylene glycol solution: 0.3 to 1.8 m/s, −18 to 32°C entering dry-bulb temperature, 15 to 27°C entering wet-bulb temperature, 10 to 60% aqueous glycol concentration by mass

The air-side ratio of sensible to total heat removed by dehumidifying coils varies in practice from about 0.6 to 1.0 (i.e., sensible heat is from 60 to 100% of the total, depending on the application). Sample problems in Chapter 29 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Fundamentals* or in Appendix D of *Cooling and Heating Load Calculation Principles* (Pedersen et al. 1998) illustrate the calculation of sensible heat ratio. For a given coil surface design and arrangement, the required sensible heat ratio may be satisfied by wide variations in and combinations of air face velocity, in-tube temperature, flow rate, entering air temperature, coil depth, and so forth, although the variations may be self-limiting. The maximum coil air face velocity should be limited to a value that prevents water carryover into the air ductwork. Dehumidifying coils for comfort application are frequently selected in the range of 2.0 to 2.5 m/s air face velocity.

The operating ratings of dehumidifying coils for factory-assembled, self-contained air conditioners are generally determined in conjunction with laboratory testing for the system capacity of the complete unit assembly. For example, a standard rating point has been 54 L/s per kilowatt of refrigeration effect), not to exceed 60 L/s per kilowatt for unitary equipment. Refrigerant (e.g., R-22) duty would be 3 to 6 K superheat for an appropriate balance at 7°C saturated suction. For water coils, circuitry would operate at 1.2 m/s, 5.5°C inlet water, 6.7 K rise (or 36 mL/s per kilowatt of refrigeration effect). The standard ratings at 26.7°C dry bulb and 19.5°C wet bulb are representative of the entering air conditions encountered in many comfort operations. While the indoor conditions are usually lower than 19.5°C wet bulb, it is usually assumed that the introduction of outdoor air brings the mixture of air to the cooling coil up to about 26.7°C dry bulb/19.5°C wet bulb entering air design conditions.

Dehumidifying coils for field-assembled projects and central station air-handling units were formerly selected according to coil rating tables but are now selected by computerized selection programs. Either way, selecting coils from the load division indicated by the load calculation works satisfactorily for the usual human comfort applications. Additional design precautions and refinements are necessary for more exacting industrial applications and for all types of air conditioning in humid areas. One such refinement, the dual-path air process, uses a separate cooling coil to cool and dehumidify the ventilation air before mixing it with recirculated air. This process dehumidifies what is usually the main source of moisture—makeup outside air. Reheat is another refinement that is required for some industrial applications and is finding greater use in commercial and comfort applications.

Airflow ratings are based on standard air of 1.20 kg/m^3 at 20°C and a barometric pressure of 101.325 kPa. In some developed, mountainous areas with a sufficiently large market, coil ratings and altitude-corrected psychrometrics are available for their particular altitudes.

When checking the operation of dehumidifying coils, climatic conditions must be considered. Most problems are encountered at light-load conditions, when the cooling requirement is considerably less than at design conditions. In hot, dry climates, where the outdoor dew point is consistently low, dehumidifying is not generally a problem, and the light-load design point condition does not pose any special problems. In hot, humid climates, the light-load condition has a higher proportion of moisture and a correspondingly lower proportion of sensible heat. The result is higher dew points in the conditioned spaces during light-load conditions unless a special means for controlling the inside dew points (e.g., reheat or dual path) is used.

Fin surface freezing at light loads should be avoided. Freezing occurs when a dehumidification coil's surface temperature falls below 0°C. Freezing does not occur with standard coils for comfort installations unless the refrigerant evaporating temperature at the coil outlet is below −4 to −2°C saturated; the exact value depends on the design of the coil, its operating dew point, and the amount of loading. With coil and condensing units to balance at low temperatures at peak loads (not a customary design choice), freezing may occur when the load suddenly decreases. The possibility of this type of surface freezing is greater if a bypass is used because it causes less air to be passed through the coil at light loads.

AIRFLOW RESISTANCE

A cooling coil's airflow resistance (air friction) depends on the tube pattern and fin geometry (tube size and spacing, fin configuration, and number of in-line or staggered rows), the coil face velocity, and the amount of moisture on the coil. The coil air friction may also be affected by the degree of aerodynamic cleanliness of the coil core; burrs on fin edges may increase coil friction and increase the tendency to pocket dirt or lint on the faces. A completely dry coil, removing only sensible heat, offers approximately one-third less resistance to airflow than a dehumidifying coil removing both sensible and latent heat.

For a given surface and airflow, an increase in the number of rows or number of fins increases the airflow resistance. Therefore, the final selection involves the economic balancing of the initial cost of the coil against the operating costs of the coil geometry combinations available to adequately meet the performance requirements.

The aluminum fin surfaces of new dehumidifying coils tend to inhibit condensate sheeting action until they have aged for a year. Recently developed hydrophilic aluminum fin surface coatings reduce the water droplet surface tension, producing a more evenly dispersed wetted surface action at initial start-up. Manufacturers have tried different methods of applying such coatings, including dipping the coil into a tank, coating the fin stock material, or subjecting the material to a chemical etching process. Tests have shown as much as a 30% reduction in air pressure drop across a hydrophilic coil as opposed a new untreated coil.

HEAT TRANSFER

The heat transmission rate of air passing over a clean tube (with or without extended surface) to a fluid flowing within it is impeded principally by three thermal resistances. The first, from the air to the surface of the exterior fin and tube assembly, is known as the surface air-side film thermal resistance. The second is the metal thermal resistance to the conductance of heat through the exterior fin and tube assembly. The third is the in-tube fluid-side film thermal resistance, which impedes the flow of heat between the internal surface of the metal and the fluid flowing within the tube. For some applications, an additional thermal resistance is factored in to account for external and/or internal surface fouling. Usually, the combination of the metal and tube-side film resistance is considerably lower than the air-side surface resistance.

For a reduction in thermal resistance, the fin surface is fabricated with die-formed corrugations instead of the traditional flat design. At low airflows or wide fin spacing, the air-side transfer coefficient is virtually the same for flat and corrugated fins. Under normal comfort conditioning operation, the corrugated fin surface is designed to reduce the boundary air film thickness by undulating the passing airstream within the coil; this produces a marked improvement in heat

transfer without much airflow penalty. Further fin enhancements, including the louvered and lanced fin designs, have been driven by the desire to duplicate throughout the coil depth the thin boundary air film characteristic of the fin's leading edge. Louvered fin design maximizes the number of fin surface leading edges throughout the entire secondary surface area and increases the external secondary surface area A_s through the multiplicity of edges.

Where an application allows an economical use of coil construction materials, the mass and size of the coil can be reduced when boundary air and water films are lessened. For example, the exterior surface resistance can be reduced to nearly the same as the fluid-side resistance through the use of lanced and/or louvered fins. External as well as internal tube fins (or internal turbulators) can economically decrease overall heat transfer surface resistances. Also, water sprays applied to a particular flat fin coil surface may increase the overall heat transfer slightly, although they may better serve other purposes such as air and coil cleaning.

The transfer of heat between the cooling medium and the airstream across a coil is influenced by the following variables:

- Temperature difference between fluids
- Design and surface arrangement of the coil
- Velocity and character of the airstream
- Velocity and character of the in-tube coolant

With water coils, only the water temperature rises. With coils of volatile refrigerants, an appreciable pressure drop and a corresponding change in evaporating temperature through the refrigerant circuit often occur. Alternative refrigerants to R-22, such as R-407C, which has a temperature glide, will have an evaporation temperature rise of 4 to 7 K through the evaporator. This must be considered in the design and performance calculation of the coil. A compensating pressure drop in the coil may partially, or even totally, compensate for the low-side temperature glide of a zeotropic refrigerant blend. The rating of direct-expansion coils is further complicated by the refrigerant evaporating in part of the circuit and superheating in the remainder. Thus, for halocarbon refrigerants, a cooling coil is tested and rated with a specific distributing and liquid-metering device, and the capacities are stated with the superheat condition of the leaving vapor.

At a given air mass velocity, performance depends on the turbulence of airflow into the coil and the uniformity of air distribution over the coil face. The latter is necessary to obtain reliable test ratings and realize rated performance in actual installations. The air resistance through the coils assists in distributing the air properly, but the effect is frequently inadequate where inlet duct connections are brought in at sharp angles to the coil face. Reverse air currents may pass through a portion of the coils. These currents reduce the capacity but can be avoided with proper inlet air vanes or baffles. Air blades may also be required. Remember that coil performance ratings (ARI *Standard* 410) represent optimum conditions resulting from adequate and reliable laboratory tests (ASHRAE *Standard* 33).

For cases when available data must be extended, for arriving at general design criteria for a single, unique installation, or for understanding the calculation progression, the following material and illustrative examples for calculating cooling coil performance are useful guides.

PERFORMANCE OF SENSIBLE COOLING COILS

The performance of sensible cooling coils depends on the following factors. See the section on Symbols for an explanation of the variables.

1. The overall coefficient U_o of sensible heat transfer between airstream and coolant fluid
2. The mean temperature difference Δt_m between airstream and coolant fluid

3. The physical dimensions of and data for the coil (such as coil face area A_a and total external surface area A_o) with characteristics of the heat transfer surface

The sensible heat cooling capacity q_{td} of a given coil is expressed by the following equation:

$$q_{td} = U_o F_s A_a N_r \Delta t_m \qquad (1a)$$

with

$$F_s = A_o / A_a N_r \qquad (1b)$$

Assuming no extraneous heat losses, the same amount of sensible heat is lost from the airstream:

$$q_{td} = 1000 w_a c_p (t_{a1} - t_{a2}) \qquad (2a)$$

with

$$w_a = \rho_a A_a V_a \qquad (2b)$$

The same amount of sensible heat is absorbed by the coolant; for a nonvolatile type, it is

$$q_{td} = 1000 w_r c_r (t_{r2} - t_{r1}) \qquad (3)$$

For a nonvolatile coolant in thermal counterflow with the air, the mean temperature difference in Equation (1a) is expressed as

$$\Delta t_m = \frac{(t_{a1} - t_{r2}) - (t_{a2} - t_{r1})}{\ln[(t_{a1} - t_{r2})/(t_{a2} - t_{r1})]} \qquad (4)$$

The proper temperature differences for various crossflow situations are given in many texts, including Mueller (1973). These calculations are based on various assumptions, among them that U for the total external surface is constant. While this assumption is generally not valid for multirow coils, the use of crossflow temperature differences from Mueller (1973) or other texts should be preferable to Equation (4), which applies only to counterflow. However, the use of the log mean temperature difference is widespread.

The overall heat transfer coefficient U_o for a given coil design, whether bare-pipe or finned-type, with clean, nonfouled surfaces, consists of the combined effect of three individual heat transfer coefficients:

1. The **film coefficient** f_a of sensible heat transfer between air and the external surface of the coil
2. The **unit conductance** $1/R_{md}$ of the coil material (i.e., tube wall, fins, tube-to-fin thermal resistance)
3. The **film coefficient** f_r of heat transfer between the internal coil surface and the coolant fluid within the coil

These three individual coefficients acting in series form an overall coefficient of heat transfer in accordance with the material given in Chapters 3 and 23 of the *ASHRAE Handbook—Fundamentals*.

For a bare-pipe coil, the overall coefficient of heat transfer for sensible cooling (without dehumidification) can be expressed by a simplified basic equation:

$$U_o = \frac{1}{(1/f_a) + (D_o - D_i)/2000k + (B/f_r)} \qquad (5a)$$

When pipe or tube walls are thin and made of material with high conductivity (as in typical heating and cooling coils), the term $(D_o - D_i)/2000k$ in Equation (5a) frequently becomes negligible and is generally disregarded. (This effect in typical bare-pipe cooling coils seldom exceeds 1 to 2% of the overall coefficient.) Thus, the overall coefficient for bare pipe in its simplest form is