



Theoretical overview of heating power and necessary heating supply temperatures in typical Danish single-family houses from the 1900s

Østergaard, Dorte Skaarup; Svendsen, Svend

Published in:
Energy and Buildings

Link to article, DOI:
[10.1016/j.enbuild.2016.05.034](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2016.05.034)

Publication date:
2016

Document Version
Peer reviewed version

[Link back to DTU Orbit](#)

Citation (APA):
Østergaard, D. S., & Svendsen, S. (2016). Theoretical overview of heating power and necessary heating supply temperatures in typical Danish single-family houses from the 1900s. *Energy and Buildings*, 126, 375-383. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2016.05.034>

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

1 Theoretical overview of heating power and necessary heating supply 2 temperatures in typical Danish single-family houses from the 1900s

3 Dorte Skaarup Larsen*, Svend Svendsen

4 *Corresponding author, Tel. +45 42 25 18 80, E-mail address: dskla@byg.dtu.dk.

5 Technical University of Denmark, Department of Civil Engineering, Brovej, Building 118, DK-2800 Kgs. Lyngby,
6 Denmark.

7 Abstract

8 As existing buildings are renovated and energy-efficiency measures are implemented to meet requirements
9 for reduced energy consumption, it becomes easier to heat our homes with low-temperature heating. This
10 study set out to investigate how much the heating system supply temperature can be reduced in typical
11 Danish single-family houses constructed in the 1900s. The study provides a simplified theoretical overview
12 of typical building constructions and standards for the calculation of design heat loss and design heating
13 power in Denmark in the 1900s. The heating power and heating demand in six typical Danish single-family
14 houses constructed in the 1900s were estimated based on simple steady-state calculations. We found that
15 the radiators in existing single-family houses should not necessarily be expected to be over-dimensioned
16 compared to current design heat loss. However, there is considerable potential for using low-temperature
17 space heating in existing single-family houses in typical operation conditions. Older houses were not always
18 found to require higher heating system temperatures than newer houses. We found that when these
19 houses have gone through reasonable energy renovations, most of them can be heated with a supply
20 temperature below 50 °C for more than 97% of the year.

21 **Keywords:** *Low-temperature district heating, low-temperature heating, single-family houses, design heat*
22 *loss, design heating power, radiator over-dimensioning,*

23 1. Introduction

24 Single-family houses account for approximately 60% of the heated residential sector in Denmark [1]. When
25 reductions in the heat consumption of Danish homes are planned, single-family houses are therefore very

important. In Denmark, approximately 40% of single-family houses are heated by district heating [1], which makes modern 4th generation district heating, with its low-temperature operation, a promising solution for improving the energy efficiency of the heat supply in areas with single-family houses [2,3]. The aim with 4th generation district heating is to get supply and return temperatures down to 55 °C and 25 °C, respectively. Such lowering of district heating temperatures will increase the efficiency of heat production and reduce the heat loss from the pipe systems. This is of great importance in low-density building areas, where the relative heat losses from district heating pipes are often high. Earlier studies have investigated the possibility of supplying energy-efficient buildings areas with low-temperature district heating (LTDH) [4,5] and described how LTDH networks can be designed [6]. However, only a few studies have investigated the possibility of heating existing houses with LTDH. These include investigations into the potential for using LTDH in a number of single-family houses from the 1970s, in an area of single-family houses with floor heating from the 1980s, and in an old apartment building in Copenhagen [7–11]. The use of low-temperature heating has also been studied in buildings supplied by natural gas or by heat pumps [12–15], but such studies may not provide good references for investigations on LTDH, because other heat sources do not necessarily require a similar focus on achieving low return temperatures. Most of these investigations on low-temperature district heating were case studies. While case studies can provide good references, they are not necessarily representative of the general building mass. The aim of this study was therefore to provide new knowledge about the potential for the use of LTDH in existing single-family houses in general. The results of the study provide a new theoretical foundation for future discussions on the potential of low-temperature district heating.

1.1 Over-dimensioning of radiators

It is of great importance to ensure that occupant comfort is not compromised if district heating temperatures are lowered. This implies that the radiators must be able cover the heating demands in the

50 existing houses with a lower temperature set than the current one. For this to be possible, the radiators
51 must be over-dimensioned compared to the current heat demand in the buildings. Four main facts suggest
52 that the existing radiators could be over-dimensioned to an extent that allows the heating system
53 temperatures to be lowered for large parts of the year:

- 54 1. The radiators were dimensioned for a very low outdoor temperature that almost never occurs
- 55 2. Internal heat gains from electrical equipment has increased
- 56 3. Radiator dimensions are often larger than required because they come in a limited number of sizes
- 57 4. The energy demands of many existing buildings have been reduced due to energy renovation.

58 Over-dimensioning of radiators has been investigated in a number of studies. In Denmark, the effects of
59 operating district heating networks with lower temperatures have been tested in various studies since the
60 late 80s [16–20]. Based on measurements of supply and return temperatures in the networks, the studies
61 conclude that it is technically possible to provide space heating in existing buildings with supply
62 temperatures as low as 60-65 °C even in cold periods. This indicates that the radiators in the buildings
63 investigated were over-dimensioned, because the radiators were originally dimensioned for higher supply
64 temperatures. These findings have been supported by more recent studies of a number of district heating
65 networks where the annual supply temperatures were successfully reduced through continuous
66 temperature optimization and improved building installations [8,10,21]. In Sweden, a number of field
67 studies have investigated and improved the heating system operation in typical multifamily buildings [22–
68 24]. The studies found that the heating system temperatures in the multifamily buildings investigated were
69 around 50 °C/30 °C and 45 °C/35 °C even at outdoor temperatures around 0 °C [23,24]. These findings
70 indicate that traditional dimensioning of radiators according to the temperature set 80 °C/60 °C often
71 caused radiator sizes to be large enough for the buildings to be heated by low-temperature heating for
72 large parts of the year.

73 In this study, we investigated over-dimensioning of radiators from two different perspectives. First, the
74 design heating power in the typical Danish single-family houses was compared to the current design heat

75 loss to evaluate whether the installed radiators are over-dimensioned compared to current design
76 standards. Secondly, the heating system temperatures necessary to cover the heat demand in the houses
77 at typical outdoor temperatures were calculated. The design conditions were compared to the temperature
78 requirements during a typical year to evaluate whether the radiators are over-dimensioned for the actual
79 operation requirements. Based on these analyses, the study would provide new insights on the definition
80 of over-dimensioned radiators. Furthermore, the study provided new knowledge on the condition of
81 heating systems in typical existing-single-family houses.

82 **2. Danish single-family houses and district heating**

83 Typical single-family houses that represent the Danish building mass were identified in the TABULA project,
84 which was aimed at developing typical building typologies for a number of European countries [25,26]. In
85 the Danish contribution to the project, Danish homes were divided into categories depending on their
86 construction period, changes in the building code requirements, and shifts in building traditions. The study
87 looked at single-family houses constructed from before 1850 and down to 2011.

88 Not all categories of single-family houses are of equal interest for a study on low-temperature district
89 heating. As Figure 1 shows, the single-family houses constructed after 2000 only form a small percentage of
90 the total single-family houses in Denmark. Furthermore, only a small percentage of the single-family houses
91 from before 1900 and after 2000 are heated with district heating. This study therefore focuses on typical
92 Danish single-family houses constructed during the 1900s.

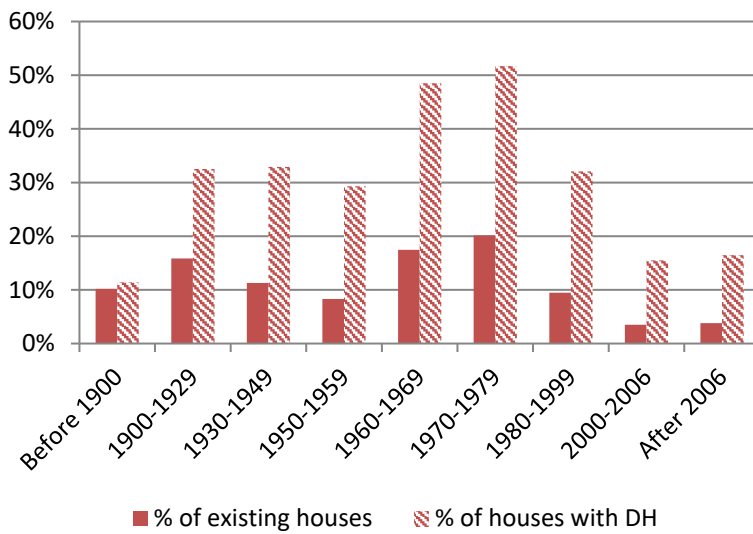




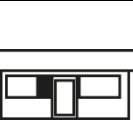



Figure 1. Danish single-family houses by year of construction and heating source [1]

In the TABULA project, the houses constructed in the 1900s were divided into six categories of typical single-family houses. Each category was exemplified by an actual house representing the typical architecture, geometry, and construction of the given time period. The investigations reported in this paper were based on these actual houses. Key data describing the houses are given in Table 1. Basements are assumed not to be heated, and basement temperatures are assumed to be equal to dimensioning ground temperatures.

Table 1 Key data for TABULA houses from 1850 to 1998 [25]. All areas are given with external measures.

	1850-1930	1931-1950	1951-1960	1961-1972	1973-1978	1979-1998
						
Heated area [m ²]	112	140	106	180	138	143
Roof area [m ²]	94	89	106	180	150	143
Wall area [m ²]	98	109	101	121	97	124
Floor area [m ²]	66	88	106	180	138	143
Window area [m ²]	15	22	28	34	22	25
Floors	2	2	1	1	1	1
Basement	Full	Full	Full	None	None	None
Ventilation	Natural	Natural	Natural	Natural	Natural	Natural

3. Method

3.1 Methods for the calculation of design heat loss

The design heating power in each of the representative single-family houses was estimated based on the design heat loss of the house at the time of construction. The procedure for calculating the design heat loss changed during the 1900s. The first Danish guideline for the calculation of dimensioning heat loss in buildings was published in 1953 by the Danish Engineering Association [27]. In the following years, it was printed in several editions, but the only major changes occurred in the version that was published in 1965 [28]. This guideline remained the main standard for the calculation of dimensioning heat losses in buildings until 1977 when the first version of Danish standard DS 418 was published. New versions of this standard were published in 1986, 2002 and 2011 [29,30].

Common for all the published standards is that the design heat loss of a building is calculated as the sum of transmission heat loss through the building components and ventilation heat loss. In the current standard, the transmission and ventilation heat losses are calculated using Equations (1) and (2) respectively.

$$\Phi_{trans} = \sum U \cdot A \cdot (T_i - T_e) + \sum \Psi \cdot l \cdot (T_i - T_e) \quad \text{Eq. (1)}$$

where

Φ_{trans} is the transmission heat loss

U is the U-value of the building component

A is the external area of the building component

Ψ is the linear heat loss coefficient for windows and foundations

l is the length of connections around windows and foundations

T_i is the indoor temperature (20 °C)

T_e is the external temperature (-12 °C for air and 10 °C for ground).

$$\Phi_{vent} = c \cdot \rho \cdot \frac{q_a}{1000} \cdot A \cdot (T_i - T_e) \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$$

where

Φ_{vent} is the ventilation heat loss

c is the heat capacity of air (1005 J/kg K)

ρ is the air density (1.205 kg/m³)

q_a is the air change rate (0.3 l/s pr. m² heated floor area)

A is the heated floor area.

129 The calculation procedure was modified slightly from the publication of the first standard to the current.
 130 The old guidelines applied dimensioning temperatures of 18-22 °C indoors and –15 °C outdoors, while more
 131 recent standards prescribe an indoor temperature of 20 °C and an outdoor temperature of –12 °C.
 132 Furthermore, the areas of building components were based on internal measurements in the old standards,
 133 while more recent standards mainly apply external measurements. In the old guidelines additional heat
 134 losses were included for rooms with several building elements facing the external air or for roof
 135 constructions that were affected by heat radiation to the sky. Linear heat losses were not included in the
 136 older standards. Equation (3) shows the procedure for the calculation of transmission heat loss from a
 137 building according to the oldest standard from 1953.

$$\Phi_{trans} = f_1 \cdot \Sigma U \cdot A \cdot (T_i - T_e) \cdot f_2 \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

138 where

139 Φ_{trans} is the transmission heat loss

140 U is the U-value of the building component

141 A is the internal area of the building component

142 T_i is the indoor temperature (18-22 °C)

143 T_e is the external temperature (–15 °C and 8 °C for ground)

144 f_1 is a factor adding 3% to the heat loss for each additional cold surface (in this study assumed to be 1.075

145 for houses with 1 floor and 1.045 for houses with two floors)

146 f_2 is a factor which is 1.15 for roofs and 1.0 for other constructions.

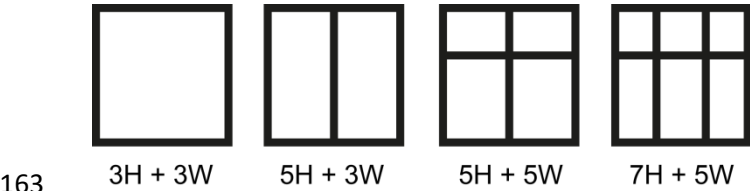
147 The procedure for the calculation of ventilation heat losses has changed completely since the first standard.
 148 At that time, the ventilation heat loss was calculated on the basis of the length of connections around
 149 windows/doors and their frames. The calculation was carried out by estimating the lengths of connections
 150 between each window and the window frames as well as between the window frame and the external wall.
 151 The length of the connections was multiplied by a typical heat loss coefficient depending on the expected
 152 wind profile of the area where the building was situated. The calculation was based on Equation (4). Figure
 153 2 shows the procedure for estimating the length of the connections.

$$\Phi_{vent} = f_3 \cdot f_4 \cdot \Sigma F \cdot L \cdot (T_i - T_e) \quad \text{Eq. (4)}$$

154 where

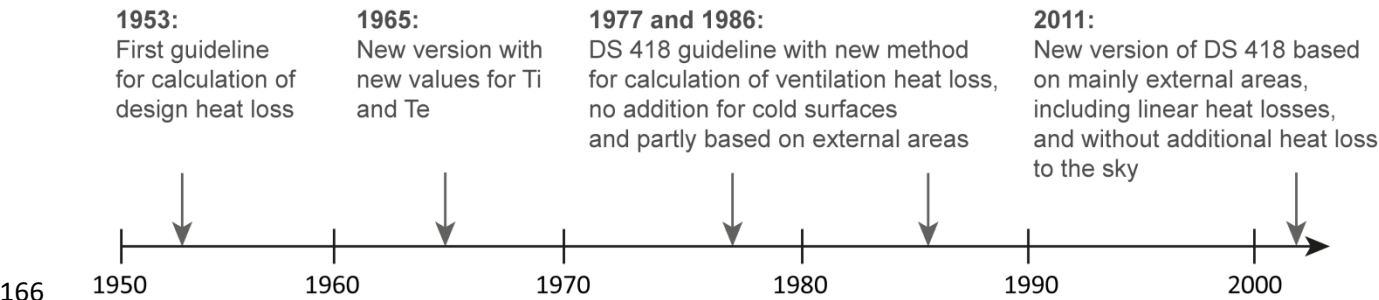
155 Φ_{vent} is the ventilation heat loss

156 f_3 is a factor between 0.75-1.0 reducing heat loss in rooms where windows have different orientations (here
 157 assumed to be 0.75)
 158 f_4 is a factor between 1.0-1.3 depending on the orientation of the windows (here assumed 1.15)
 159 F is the heat loss pr. m connection length (1.2)
 160 L is the length of connections
 161 T_i is the indoor temperature (18-22 °C)
 162 T_e is the external temperature (-15 °C).



164 **Figure 2** Length of connections between windows/doors and wall

165 Figure 3 gives a summary of the changes in the calculation procedures on the publication of new standards.



167 **Figure 3** Timeline showing the changes in the methods for the calculation of design heat loss in Danish standards.

168 **3.2 Building constructions**

169 The constructions of the original houses were determined based on information from the TABULA project
 170 [25] as well as Danish building regulation requirements and guidelines on typical constructions in old
 171 Danish buildings [31,32]. The constructions and insulation levels applied in the calculation of the original
 172 design heat loss in the houses are given in Table 2. The estimated U-values of the constructions are shown
 173 in Figure 4.

174 **Table 2** Typical components, insulation levels, and window types in Danish single-family houses constructed in
 175 different time periods.

CONSTRUCTIONS	1900-1930	1931-1950	1951-1960	1961-1972	1973-1978	1979-1998
Roof insulation	None	25mm	100mm	100mm	100mm	200mm
Floor insulation	Clay	Clay	Clay	Singles	50mm	150mm
Wall type and insulation thickness	Cavity wall 0mm	Cavity wall 0mm	Cavity wall 0mm	Cavity wall 80mm	Brick/LWC 80mm	Brick/LWC 120mm

Window type	1 layer	some double	Thermo	Thermo	Thermo	Thermo
-------------	---------	-------------	--------	--------	--------	--------

3.3 Design heating temperatures

The heating systems in the houses were assumed to consist of two-string radiator-systems which is the most common Danish heating system. The radiators were assumed to be dimensioned in accordance with the design heat loss of each house as calculated according to the original constructions and the standards at the time of construction. The radiators were assumed to be over-dimensioned by 5% due to limitations in radiator sizes available. The design heating power of the radiators depends on the heating source and the design heating temperatures at the time when the radiators were installed in the houses. For instance, some houses were originally heated by an oil boiler, whereas they are now equipped with district heating. When the first hydraulic heating systems with radiators were introduced in the 1920s, the heating was typically delivered from stoves supplied by coal or coke. Oil-burners became more typical in the 1950s at the same time as district heating expanded rapidly. Natural gas was introduced in the 1980s [33,34].

For the oldest houses, we assumed the design temperatures were 90 °C/70 °C, because Danish radiators were tested for this temperature set until the new European norm DS/EN 442 was published in the mid-1990s [35]. Heating systems supplied by natural gas may have been designed according to this temperature set at first, but from the mid-1980s, it became common to use a temperature set of 80 °C/60 °C [36,37]. Since the mid-1990s the building code has required gas-fired heating systems to be dimensioned according to a mean temperature of 55 °C (corresponding to a temperature set of 62.5 °C/47.5 °C) [38]. The same building code required that heating systems supplied by direct and indirect district heating systems should be designed for temperature sets of 70 °C/40 °C and 65 °C/35 °C respectively. Earlier heating systems supplied by district heating were typically designed for a temperature set of 80 °C/60 °C [31] or 80 °C/40 °C [32].

The dimensioning temperature sets that were used for the dimensioning of the radiators in the TABULA houses investigated are shown in Table 3.

199 **Table 3 Design heating system temperatures applied for the calculation of design heating power.**

	1851-1930	1931-1950	1951-1960	1961-1972	1973-1978	1979-1998
Dimensioning temperatures [°C]	90/70	90/70	90/70	80/60	80/40	70/40

200 **3.4 Design heating power**

201 The design heating power installed in the houses was estimated based on the calculated design heat loss in
 202 the original houses at the time of construction. The design heat loss of each of the six single-family houses
 203 was calculated for the original building constructions as shown in Table 2 and in accordance with the
 204 calculation standard at the time of construction. The design heating power was calculated on the basis of
 205 the design heating temperatures at the time of construction as given in Table 3. An additional 5% heating
 206 power was added to the calculated design heating power to take into account over-dimensioning of the
 207 radiators due to limitations in radiator sizes available. The heating powers with the original temperature
 208 sets were converted to the temperature set 60 °C/40 °C, which is the currently required temperature set
 209 for houses supplied by district heating in Denmark. The conversion was carried out using Equations (5) and
 210 (6). The radiator exponent was given the standard value of $n = 1.3$.

$$\phi = \left(\frac{\Delta T}{\Delta T_0} \right)^n \cdot \phi_0 \quad \text{Eq. (5)}$$

211 *where*

212 ϕ_0 is the design heating power of the radiators in the house at the original temperature set

213 ϕ is the heating power of the radiators at the temperature set 60 °C/40 °C

214 ΔT is the logarithmic mean temperature the temperature set 60 °C/40 °C

215 ΔT_0 is the logarithmic mean temperature difference at the dimensioning temperatures

216 n is the radiator exponent.

$$\Delta T = \frac{T_s - T_r}{\ln \left(\frac{T_s - T_i}{T_r - T_i} \right)} \quad \text{Eq. (6)}$$

217 *where*

218 T_s is the supply temperature

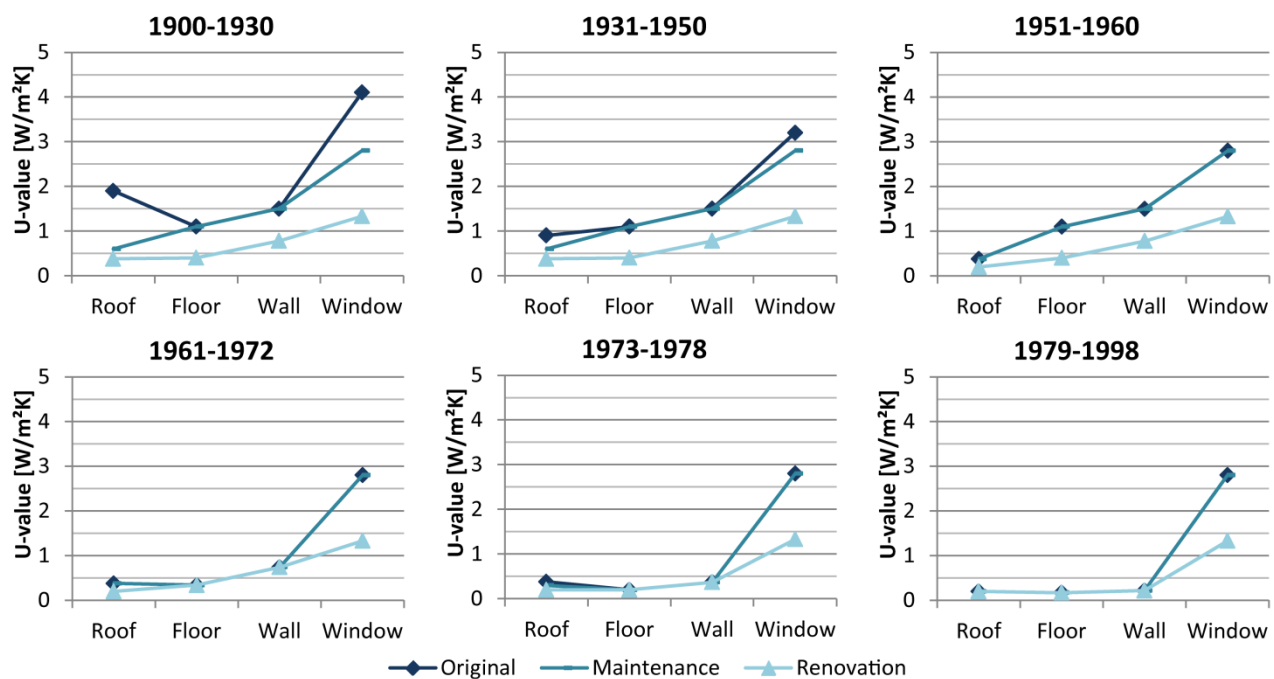
219 T_r is the return temperature

220 T_i is the indoor temperature.

221 **3.5 Current design heat loss**

222 The current design heat loss of the houses depends on the renovations carried out since the construction of
 223 the houses. As a minimum, the houses from the first half of the 1900s were expected to have gone through

224 general maintenance. This was assumed to correspond to a renovation where old windows were replaced
 225 by thermo windows and roofs were equipped with a minimum of 50mm insulation. A large proportion of
 226 the houses constructed during the 1900s have been renovated to a further extent, adding insulation to the
 227 cavity walls or bringing windows or roof insulation to comply with modern standards. The design heat loss
 228 in the houses was calculated for two different stages of refurbishment corresponding to either general
 229 maintenance of the houses or a thorough energy refurbishment. The U-values of the constructions in the
 230 two scenarios are shown in Figure 4 along with the original U-values of the constructions.



231 **Figure 4.** U-values of the constructions in the TABULA houses in their original state, after general maintenance, and
 232 after thorough energy renovation.
 233

234 The design heat loss calculations were carried out in accordance with the current calculation standard. The
 235 design heat loss was compared to the design heating power in the houses, so that we could evaluate
 236 whether the existing radiators are over-dimensioned compared to the current design heat loss and current
 237 design heating temperatures.

3.6 Actual heating demand

The actual heat demands in the houses at typical outdoor temperatures were calculated using stationary calculations. It was assumed that the indoor temperature in the houses was kept at 21 °C. Transmission and ventilation heat losses were calculated according to Equations (1) and (2) and applying the key data for each house given in Table 1 and renovated constructions as shown in Figure 4. Internal heat gains from occupants and equipment were included in the calculations and assumed to be a constant 5 W/m² as suggested in the Danish standards [39]. Heat gains from the Sun and extra heat losses due to high wind velocities were ignored, and no dynamic behaviour was included in the calculations.

The total heating demands in the houses were given as the sum of the transmission heat loss and the ventilation heat loss at each given outdoor temperature. The heating supply temperature necessary to cover the heat loss at the given outdoor temperature was calculated in accordance with the design heating power in the houses using Equations (5) and (6). The cooling of the heating system was assumed to be 20 °C corresponding to the temperature difference between the supply and return temperature in the current design temperature set 60 °C/40 °C. The radiator exponent was assumed to be $n = 1.1$, because a recent study has shown that the radiator exponent describing heat emissions from typical Danish radiators during low-temperature operation is well below 1.3 [40]. The results were visualised in graphs (see Figures 7 - 9 below) showing how large a percentage of the year a given supply temperature is sufficient to heat each of the houses.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Estimated heating power and design heat loss in the TABULA houses

Figure 5 shows the calculated design heat loss in typical Danish houses at the time of construction and in the current situation after either general maintenance or energy renovation. The design heating power of the radiators in the houses with a temperature set of 60 °C/40 °C is also included in the figure.

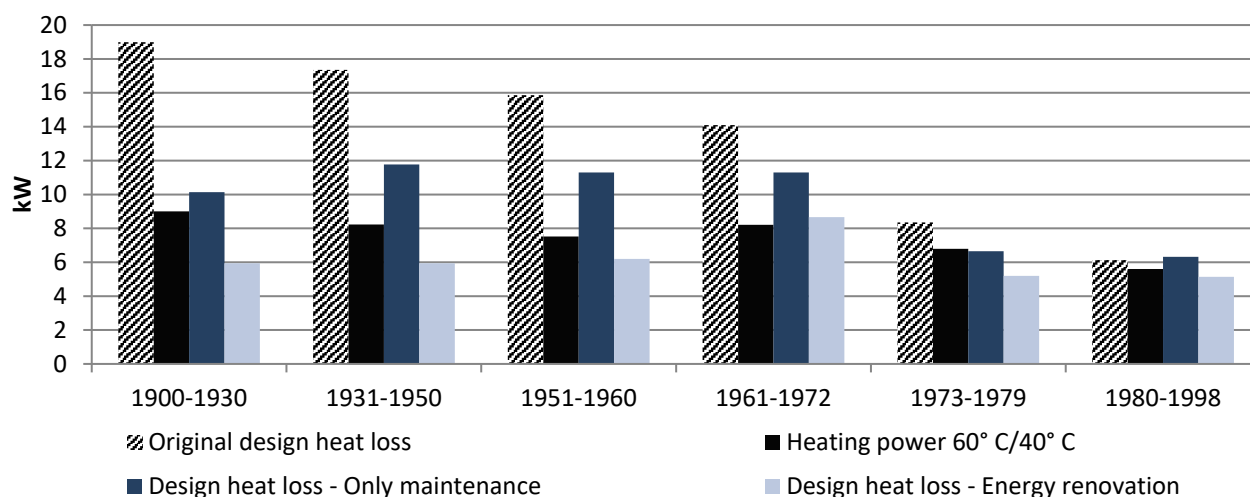


Figure 5 Heating power and design heat loss of the houses after general maintenance and after energy renovation

The figure shows that the heating power covers approximately 50% of the original design heat loss in the older houses, when the current design heating temperatures are taken into account. However, the design heat losses of the old houses are reduced greatly when the current standard and general maintenance of the houses is taken into account. Figure 6 shows the radiator over-dimensioning in the houses according to the design calculations. The displayed minimum and maximum over-dimensioning correspond to the two scenarios of general maintenance and energy renovation of the houses, respectively.

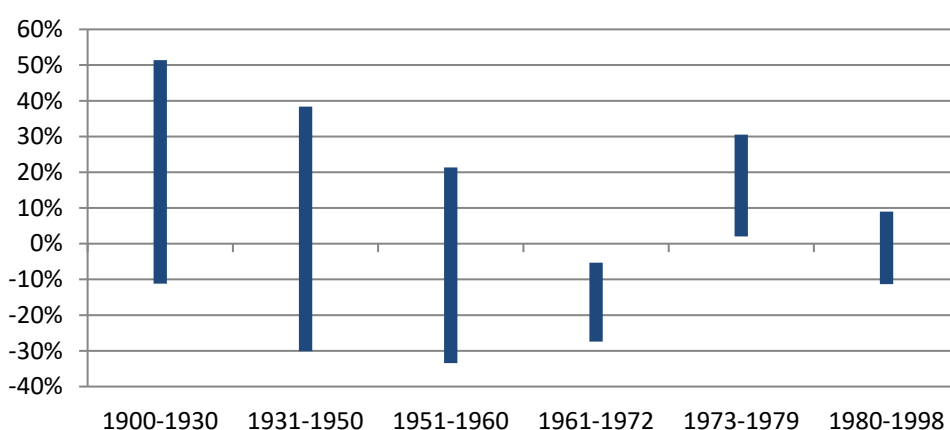


Figure 6 Minimum and maximum over-dimensioning of design heating power of radiators versus design heat loss

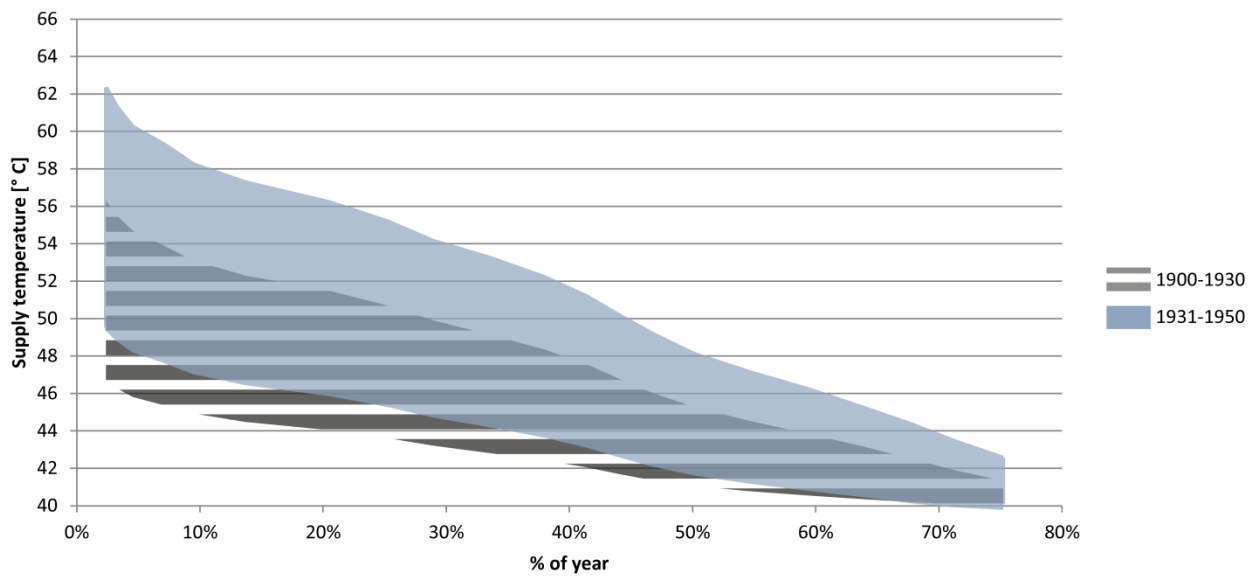
The figure shows that the radiator systems in most of the houses from the 1900s are under-dimensioned in relation to the design temperature set if the houses have only gone through general maintenance. The heating systems in houses constructed between 1931 and 1972 can be under-dimensioned by as much as

274 30% in relation to the current design temperature set. The 1961-1972 house represents a case where there
275 was a reasonable level of insulation in the original house and where the heating system was designed for
276 high temperatures. The results show that the design heating power in this type of house can be expected to
277 be lower than the design heat loss with the current design temperature set, even after energy renovation.
278 However, the figure also shows that the heating systems in most of the houses from the 1900s can be
279 expected to be over-dimensioned by 20-50% compared to current standards when the houses have gone
280 through reasonable energy renovations.

281 **4.2 Required heating system temperatures**

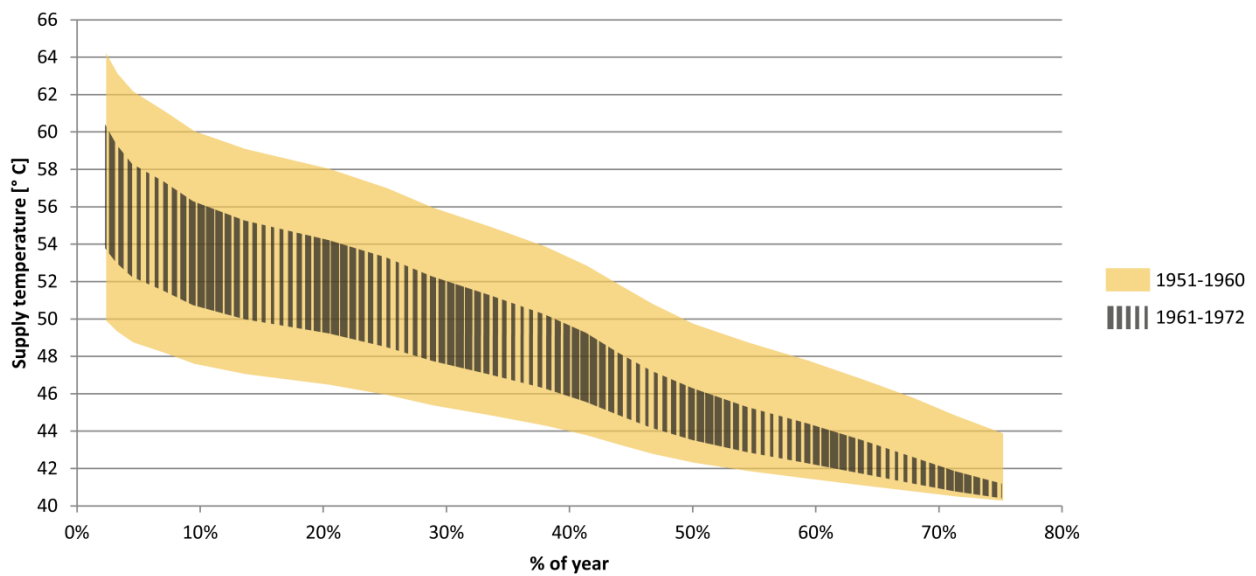
282 Figures 7 - 9 show the supply temperatures that are necessary to cover the calculated actual heat demand
283 in the current houses. The figures are based on a return temperature that is 20 °C lower than the supply
284 temperature. The outdoor temperatures have been converted to annual percentages in proportion to the
285 occurrence of the temperatures in the weather data set for the design reference year in Copenhagen 2001-
286 2010. The upper line of the areas marked corresponds to the situation where the house has gone through
287 only general maintenance, while the lower line corresponds to the situation where the house was subject
288 to an energy renovation. The areas marked between the lines visualise the expected supply temperatures
289 necessary to cover the heating demands in typical existing Danish single-family houses at various levels of
290 refurbishment. Figure 7, for example, shows that a Danish single-family house constructed between 1900
291 and 1930 that has gone through general maintenance requires a heating supply temperature above 55 °C
292 for approximately 5% of the year in order to maintain a 21 °C indoor temperature. The figures are based on
293 a 20 °C cooling in the heating system.

294



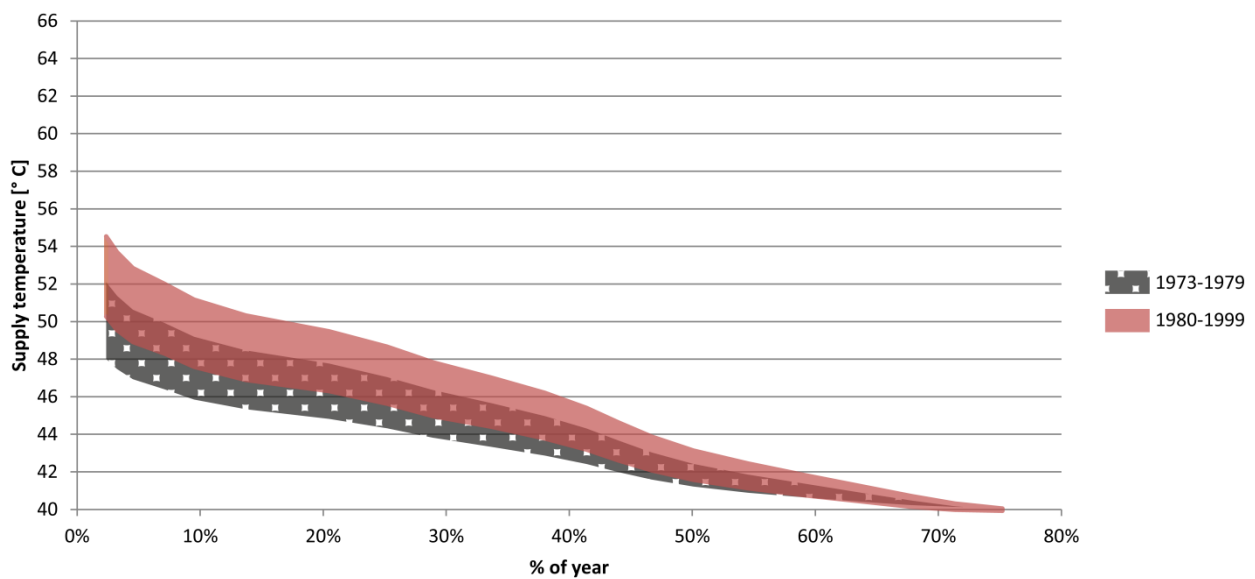
295

296 **Figure 7 Comparison between design heating power of the radiators in the TABULA houses calculated according to**
 297 **the old methods and the current stationary heating demand of the houses at different outdoor temperatures.**



298

299 **Figure 8 Comparison between design heating power of the radiators in the TABULA houses calculated according to**
 300 **the old methods and the future stationary heating demand of the houses at different outdoor temperatures.**



301

302 **Figure 9 Comparison between design heating power of the radiators in the TABULA houses calculated according to**
 303 **the old methods and the future stationary heating demand of the houses at different outdoor temperatures.**

304 Figure 9 shows that typical Danish single-family houses that were constructed after 1973 can be heated
 305 with a supply temperature of 55 °C for more than 97% of the year. Most of the houses built before 1973
 306 can be heated with supply temperatures below 55 °C for the majority of the year as well. This means that
 307 there is not necessarily a correlation between the age of the house and the supply temperature required to
 308 heat the house. However, the old houses form a less uniform mass. In some cases, there is a difference of
 309 more than 10 °C between the supply temperatures required in an energy renovated house and those
 310 required in a house that has only gone through general maintenance.

311 The results show that the houses can be heated with a supply temperature below 60 °C for 97% of the year,
 312 even in a case where the heating system in a house is under-dimensioned by 25% compared to the current
 313 design heat loss. If all existing single-family houses go through reasonable energy renovation measures, a
 314 supply temperature below 54 °C was found to be sufficient to heat the houses for more than 97% of the
 315 year. In this respect, it could be argued that it is likely that the existing radiators in typical single-family
 316 houses from the 1900s are over-dimensioned for the actual heating demands in the houses. However, this
 317 would indirectly suggest that heating systems are generally over-dimensioned when current design
 318 methods are applied.

5. Uncertainties and assumptions

The results presented in this paper are subject to a number of uncertainties, because the study conducted was largely theoretical. The results should only be used therefore as an overall indication of tendencies in the existing Danish building stock. The houses investigated were typical Danish single-family houses identified in the TABULA project [25], so they do not represent all existing Danish single-family houses. Original building constructions may differ from the constructions analysed in this study, as may the design heating system temperatures and the energy renovation measures that might be considered reasonable to carry out. These parameters have a large influence on the results, and the focus on a few representative houses means that a number of other building constructions were not analysed. However, the typical houses analysed in this study show a wide range of different types of construction and design heating system temperatures. This means that they may be used to draw some general conclusions on the potential for using low-temperature district heating in existing single-family houses.

The estimated heating powers available in the existing houses were based on calculations of design heat loss. This method does not necessarily provide a reasonable estimate of the actual radiator heating power in existing houses. It can be expected that radiators were sometimes dimensioned according to the rule of thumb, engineering experience, or practical considerations, such as fitting the radiator into the available area under a given window or using similar radiators in all rooms of a house. Such design methods may have met the building regulations at the given time, but probably added to the over-dimensioning of the radiators in some houses and rooms. This means that radiators may be over-dimensioned to a larger extent than is illustrated in this study.

Because the study was based on a simplified analysis of data from the TABULA project, the building constructions and ventilation losses were not known or analysed in detail. The calculations carried out were simple stationary calculations, in which dynamic properties were not taken into account. This means that the results only provide an indication of the possibility of heating existing houses with low-temperature

343 heating. A detailed analysis should include the dynamic properties of, for example, heating systems,
344 thermal building mass, and heat gains from direct sunlight.

345 To heat existing single-family houses with low-temperature heating as suggested in this study, the heating
346 systems in the houses must function well and the heating power must be distributed evenly in the houses.
347 The study does not take into account room partitions. This may be an important factor because radiator
348 sizes may differ from room to room, or occupants may have changed or removed some radiators during
349 refurbishment of their houses. If the radiators in some rooms are greatly under-dimensioned for the
350 heating demand in a given room, it may be necessary to increase the supply temperature to maintain a 21
351 °C indoor temperature in all rooms. It can therefore be expected that it will be necessary to replace a few
352 critical radiators in some houses to be able to use the low supply temperatures suggested in this study.

353 This study should be seen as a theoretical investigation of a number of standard houses that can serve as
354 background knowledge about radiator dimensions in existing single-family houses. Furthermore, the study
355 provides a reference for future investigations and an indication of the overall tendencies in the heating
356 systems and heating demands of typical Danish single-family houses from the 1900s.

357 **6. Conclusion**

358 The results of this study indicate that it is not always accurate to assume that the radiators in typical Danish
359 single-family houses from the 1900s are over-dimensioned compared to the design heat loss. On the other
360 hand, the radiators might often be considered to be “over-dimensioned” for the current heat demands in
361 the single-family houses.

362 The study found that typical existing Danish single-family houses can be heated with low-temperature
363 heating with supply and return temperatures below 55 °C/35 °C for large parts of the year. Houses that
364 have gone through reasonable energy renovations can often be heated with a supply temperature below
365 50 °C for more than 97% of the year. The results of the study indicate that the houses constructed in the
366 beginning of the 1900s are not more difficult to heat with low-temperature heating than houses

constructed in the latter half of the 1900s. However, there is a larger span between the heating system temperatures required in older houses, depending on the renovation measures that have been implemented in the houses. Typical house constructions after 1973 were found to have rather similar heating system temperature requirements.

Acknowledgement

The work presented in this article was a result of the research activities of the Strategic Research Centre for 4th Generation District Heating (4DH), which received funding from the Innovation Fund Denmark.

References

- [1] Statistics Denmark, Danmarks Statistik, (2014). <http://www.dst.dk/da/> (accessed August 28, 2014).
- [2] H. Lund, S. Werner, R. Wiltshire, S. Svendsen, J.E. Thorsen, F. Hvelplund, et al., 4th Generation District Heating (4GDH): Integrating smart thermal grids into future sustainable energy systems, *Energy*. 68 (2014) 1–11. doi:10.1016/j.energy.2014.02.089.
- [3] Dansk Fjernvarmes F&U konto, Varmeplan Danmark 2008 [Heating Plan Denmark 2008], 2008.
- [4] A. Dalla Rosa, J.E. Christensen, Low-energy district heating in energy-efficient building areas, *Energy*. 36 (2011) 6890–6899. doi:10.1016/j.energy.2011.10.001.
- [5] Danish Energy Agency, EUDP 2010-II, Demonstration i Lystrup – Fuldskalademonstration af lavtemperaturfjernvarme i eksisterende bebyggelser - Journalnr. 64010-0479 [Demonstration in Lystrup – Full scale demonstration of low-temperature district heating in existing building areas], 2014.
- [6] Danish Energy Agency and EUDP 2010-II, Guidelines for Low-Temperature District Heating, 2014.
- [7] M. Brand, S. Svendsen, Renewable-based low-temperature district heating for existing buildings in various stages of refurbishment, *Energy*. 62 (2013) 311–319. doi:10.1016/j.energy.2013.09.027.
- [8] Danish Energy Agency, EUDP 2010-II, Demonstration i Tilst Energistyrelsen – Fuldskala demonstration af lavtemperatur fjernvarme i eksisterende bebyggelser - Journalnr. 64010-0479 [Demonstration in Tilst – Full scale demonstration of low-temperature district heating in existing buildings], 2014.

- 401 [9] Danish Energy Agency, EUDP 2008-II, CO₂-reductions in low energy buildings and communities by
 402 implementation of low-temperature district heating systems. Demonstration cases in
 403 EnergyFlexHouse and Boligforeningen Ringgården - Journalnr. 63011-0152, DTU BYG, 2011.
 404 http://www.byg.dtu.dk/Publikationer/Byg_rapporter.aspx.
 405
- 406 [10] Danish Energy Agency, EUDP 2010-II, Demonstration i Sønderby – Fuldskalademonstration af
 407 lavtemperaturfjernvarme i eksisterende bebyggelser - Journalnr. 64010-0479 [Demonstration in
 408 Sønderby – Full scale demonstration of low-temperature district heating in existing buildings], 2014.
 409 <http://www.danskfjernvarme.dk/groen-energi/projekter/lavtemperaturfjernvarme>.
 410
- 411 [11] M. Harrestrup, S. Svendsen, Changes in heat load profile of typical Danish multi-storey buildings
 412 when energy-renovated and supplied with low-temperature district heating, Int. J. Sustain. Energy.
 413 34 (2013) 232–247. doi:10.1080/14786451.2013.848863.
 414
- 415 [12] A. Hesaraki, S. Holmberg, Energy performance of low temperature heating systems in five new-built
 416 Swedish dwellings: A case study using simulations and on-site measurements, Build. Environ. 64
 417 (2013) 85–93. doi:10.1016/j.buildenv.2013.02.009.
 418
- 419 [13] Z. Nagy, D. Rossi, C. Hersberger, S.D. Irigoyen, C. Miller, A. Schlueter, Balancing envelope and
 420 heating system parameters for zero emissions retrofit using building sensor data, Appl. Energy. 131
 421 (2014) 56–66. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2014.06.024.
 422
- 423 [14] I. Sârbu, Energy analysis of low temperature heating systems, WSEAS Trans. Heat Mass Transf. 5
 424 (2010) 123–132.
 425
- 426 [15] A. Hasan, J. Kurnitski, K. Jokiranta, A combined low temperature water heating system consisting of
 427 radiators and floor heating, Energy Build. 41 (2009) 470–479. doi:10.1016/j.enbuild.2008.11.016.
 428
- 429 [16] N.B. Andersen, M. Grimmig, Lavtemperaturvarme i Eksisterende Boliger [Low-temperature heating
 430 in existing homes], The Danish Technological Institute, 1988.
 431
- 432 [17] B. Jørgensen, Lavtemperaturdrift af eksisterende fjernvarmenet [Low-temperature operation of
 433 existing district heating networks], The Danish Technological Institute, 1988.
 434
- 435 [18] B. Aastrup, B. Haurballe, F. Hammer, Fjernvarmens temperatur er væsentlig, når der skal bygges
 436 decentrale k/v-anlæg [District heating temperature is vital when building decentralised combined
 437 heat and power stations], Fjernvarmen [District Heating]. 30 (1991) 10–13.
 438
- 439 [19] M. Røvs Hansen, C. Larsen, Lavtemperaturfjernvarme [Low-temperature district heating], Aalborg
 440 University, 1989.
 441
- 442 [20] A.H. Pedersen, F. Hammer, Energi og bymiljø - Spændende samarbejde mellem Århus Kommune

443 Værker og Stadtwerke Kiel [Energy and urban environment - Interesting collaboration between
 444 Århus Kommunale Værker and Stadtwerke Kiel], Fjernvarmen [District Heating]. 32 (1993) 56–59.
 445

446 [21] Dansk Fjernvarmes F&U konto, Etablering af lavtemperaturfjernvarme i eksisterende
 447 fjernvarmeforsyning [Establishment of low-temperature district heating in existing district heating
 448 systems], COWI, 2014. <http://www.danskfjernvarme.dk/viden-om/f-u-konto>.
 449

450 [22] J. Wollerstrand, P. Ljunggren, P.O. Johansson, Optimal reglering av radiatorsystem [Optimal
 451 regulation of radiator systems], Svensk Fjärrvärme [Swedish District Heating], 2007.
 452

453 [23] J. Wollerstrand, P. Lauenburg, Fältförsök med adaptiv reglering av radiatorsystem [Field experiment
 454 with adaptive regulation of radiator system], Svensk Fjärrvärme [Swedish District Heating], 2009.
 455

456 [24] A. Trüschel, Värdet av injustering [The value of balancing], Svensk Fjärrvärme [Swedish District
 457 Heating], 2005.
 458

459 [25] K.B. Wittchen, J. Kragh, Danish building typologies - participation in the TABULA project, Danish
 460 Building Research Institute, 2012.
 461

462 [26] J. Kragh, K.B. Wittchen, Development of two Danish building typologies for residential buildings,
 463 Energy Build. 68 (2014) 79–86. doi:10.1016/j.enbuild.2013.04.028.
 464

465 [27] Dansk Ingeniørforening, Regler for beregning af bygningers varmetab, 1953.
 466

467 [28] Dansk Ingeniørforening, Regler for beregning af bygningers varmetab, 1965.
 468

469 [29] Dansk Ingeniørforening, Beregning af bygningers varmetab. DS 418, 1986.
 470

471 [30] Danish Standards, DS 418:2011 - Beregning af bygningers varmetab [Calculation of heat loss from
 472 buildings], 2011.
 473

474 [31] Danish Energy Agency, Håndbog for energikonsulenter. Enfamiliehuse. Beregnet forbrug - 2012
 475 [Handbook for energy consultants. Single-family houses. Calculated consumption - 2012], 2012.
 476

477 [32] Videntcenter for energibesparelser i bygninger, GUIDE - Varmeafgivsystemer, 2011.
 478

479 [33] Dansk Gasteknisk Center, Naturgasfakta, (2015). [http://www.naturgasfakta.dk/copy_of_miljoekrav-](http://www.naturgasfakta.dk/copy_of_miljoekrav-til-energianlaeg/historie)
 480 [til-energianlaeg/historie](http://www.naturgasfakta.dk/copy_of_miljoekrav-til-energianlaeg/historie).
 481

- 482 [34] Danish Technological Institute, Eftersyn og service af fjernvarmeanlæg, 2015.
483
- 484 [35] Danish Building Research Institute, Varmeanlæg med vand som medium [Hydraulic heating systems]
485 - SBI-anvisning 175, 2000.
486
- 487 [36] R. Thiemke, Effekt af forøgelse af radiatorkapacitet [Effect of increased nominal radiator heating
488 power], Dansk Gasteknisk Center, Hørsholm, Denmark, 1998.
489
- 490 [37] Dansk Gasteknisk Center, Beregning af varmeanlæg til parcelhuse, 1995.
491
- 492 [38] Danish Energy Agency, Bygningsreglementet [Building Regulations], (2014).
493 <http://bygningsreglementet.dk/> (accessed September 7, 2015).
494
- 495 [39] S. Aggerholm, K. Grau, Bygningers energibehov - PC-program og beregningsvejledning [Energy
496 demand of buildings - PC-program and calculation guide] - SBI-anvisning 213, Danish Building
497 Research Institute, 2005.
498
- 499 [40] O. Paulsen, F. Rosenberg, Dimensionering af radiatorer til lavtemperatursystemer [Dimensioning of
500 radiators for low temperature systems], HVAC. 48 (2012) 46–53.
501