

COMPUTATION OF RADIATION CONFIGURATION  
FACTORS BY CONTOUR INTEGRATION

By

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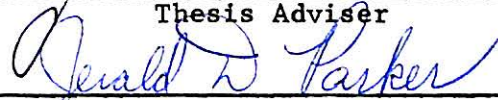
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

It is quite a simple matter to obtain the net exchange of thermal radiation between two black surfaces separated by nonabsorbing media once several factors are known, i.e., the temperatures of the surfaces under consideration, and the geometric relationship of the surfaces. All bodies at temperatures above absolute zero will continuously radiate heat to their surroundings, even though they may at the same time be absorbing more heat than they emit. The net exchange between a black body and its surroundings is merely the difference in the energy radiated from the body and the energy received from the surroundings.

In order to determine the net energy exchange between two bodies, the shape and orientation of the bodies must be considered. The object of this study was to provide a rapid and accurate determination of the geometric relationship between various surfaces. This relationship is referred to as the configuration factor. The configuration factor from surface  $A_1$  to surface  $A_2$ , written as  $F_{1-2}$ , is defined as the fraction of radiant flux leaving surface  $A_1$  directly incident on surface  $A_2$ .

To obtain a mathematical expression for the geometrical relationship between two surfaces, consider a small element of surface  $dA_1$  on  $A_1$  (see Fig. 1). If a hemisphere is placed over  $dA_1$  with  $dA_1$  at the center, the hemisphere will intercept all of the radiation beams emitted by the



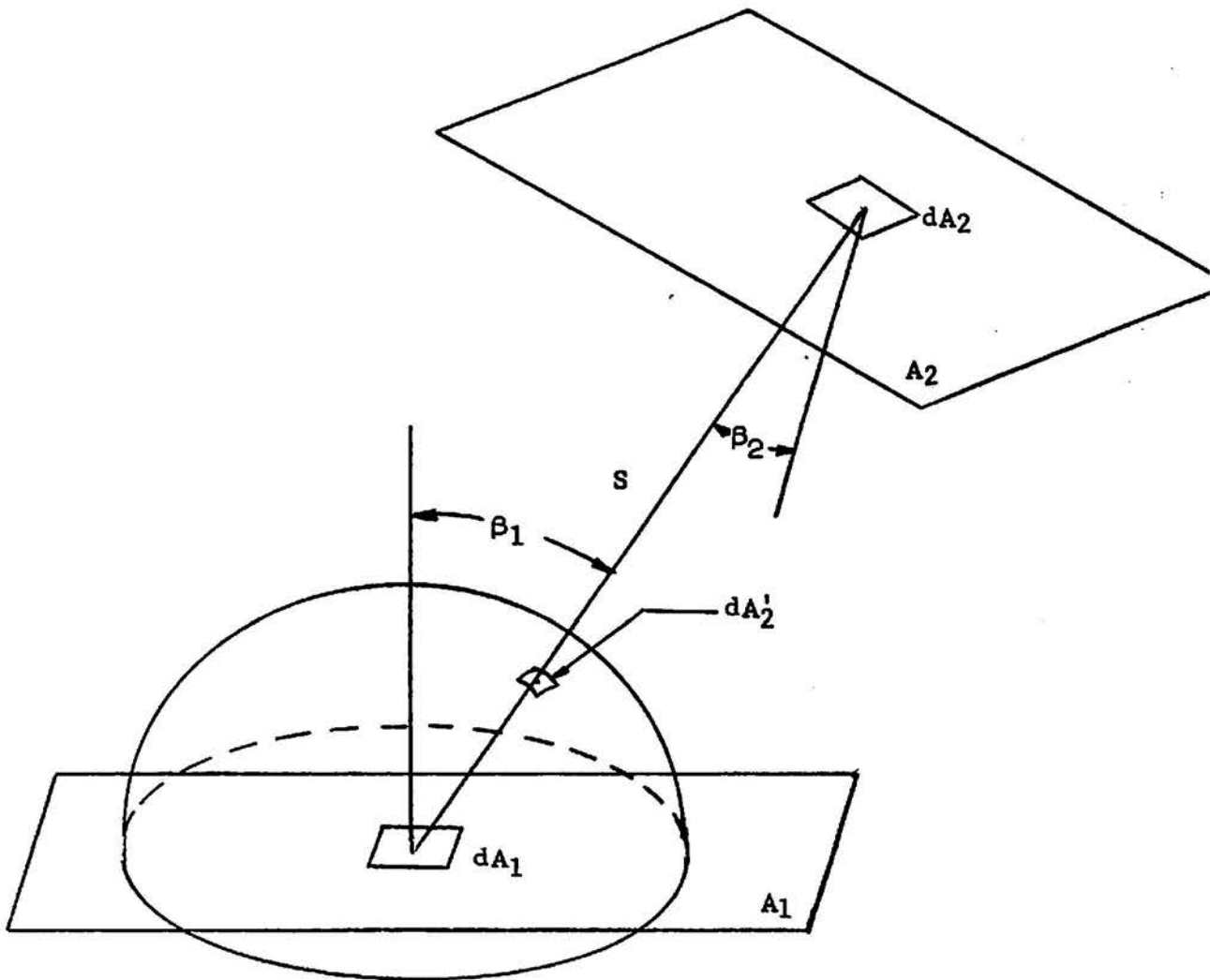


Fig. 1. Geometric Illustration of Configuration Factor

area  $dA_1$ . A point directly above  $dA_1$  on the hemisphere will see  $dA_1$  without distortion, but any other point on the hemisphere will see the projected area of  $dA_1$ , i.e.,  $dA_1 \cos \beta_1$  where  $\beta_1$  is the angle between the normal to  $dA_1$  and the line connecting the center of  $dA_1$  with the point on the hemisphere. The radiant energy emitted from  $dA_1$  per unit of time can be determined from the definition of radiation intensity. Radiation intensity,  $I$ , is defined as the radiant energy emitted by a surface per unit solid angle, per unit time, and per unit area of emitting surface perpendicular to the direction of the ray. The energy emitted from  $dA_1$  reaching an area  $dA'_2$  on the hemisphere is then

$$dq_{1-H} = I \cos \beta_1 dA_1 d\omega_{1-H} \quad (1.1)$$

where  $dq_{1-H}$  = radiant energy emitted from  $dA_1$  per unit time  
 $I$  = intensity of radiation as defined above  
 $\beta_1$  = angle between ray and normal to  $dA_1$   
 $d\omega_{1-H} = \frac{dA'_2}{r^2}$  solid angle subtended at  $dA_1$  by  $dA'_2$  on the hemisphere  
 $r$  = radius of hemisphere

If surface  $A_1$  is assumed to be a diffuse emitter, where the intensity,  $I$ , is independent of the direction of the ray, the total energy emitted per unit time by  $A_1$  will be

$$Q_{1-H} = I \int_H \cos \beta_1 d\omega_{1-H} dA_1 \quad (1.2)$$

where the integration is performed over the hemisphere. If  $dA_2$  is taken as a surface element on  $A_2$ , the subtended solid angle  $d\omega_{1-2}$  is the projected area of  $dA_2$  in the direction of the incident radiation divided

by the distance between  $dA_1$  and  $dA_2$  squared or

$$dq_{1-2} = \frac{I \cos \beta_1 \cos \beta_2 dA_1 dA_2}{s^2} \quad (1.3)$$

where,  $\beta_2$  = angle between normal to  $dA_2$  and incident radiat  
 $s$  = distance between  $dA_1$  and  $dA_2$ .

Integrating equation (1.3) over both surfaces, the total energy  $Q$  per unit time leaving surface  $A_1$  and reaching surface  $A_2$  is

$$Q_{1-2} = I \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \beta_1 \cos \beta_2 dA_1 dA_2}{s^2} \quad (1.4)$$

From the definition of the configuration factor and equations (1.2) and (1.4) there is obtained,

$$F_{1-2} = \frac{I \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \beta_1 \cos \beta_2 dA_2}{s^2}}{I \int \cos \beta_1 dA_1 d\omega_{1-H}} \quad (1.5)$$

The denominator of equation (1.5) integrated over a hemisphere yields  $\pi A_1 I$ , so the mathematical expression for the configuration factor for surfaces  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  becomes:

$$F_{1-2} = \frac{1}{\pi A_1} \int_{A_1} \int_{A_2} \frac{\cos \beta_1 \cos \beta_2 dA_1 dA_2}{s^2} \quad (1.6)$$

Equation (1.6) has been evaluated for a number of configurations, however, for many geometrical relationships and for curved surfaces, the analysis becomes quite complex and tedious. Integration of equation (1.6) can be accomplished by dividing the surfaces into small sub-areas and numerically evaluating the double integral obtained. The method in this study to obtain the configuration factor was obtained from an approach outlined in reference (1). The method involves subdivision

of one of the surfaces into small areas and subsequent computation of irradiation of the second surface by the subarea. This computation involves the evaluation of a contour integral, and the procedure is repeated for each small area, resulting in the average configuration factor from all of the small areas of the subdivided surface to the second surface.

By the use of the reciprocal relationship,

$$A_1 F_{1-2} = A_2 F_{2-1} \quad (1.7)$$

where,

$A_1$  = Area of surface 1

$A_2$  = Area of surface 2

$F_{2-1}$  = Configuration factor from surface 2 to surface 1

the configuration factor for surface 2 to surface 1 can be obtained if the areas of the surfaces in question and the configuration factor for surface 1 to surface 2 are known.

The results of this study are in the form of four electronic computer programs in the Fortran language. The programs were written for the IBM 650 digital computer, but with small additions, they can be made compatible with IBM 704 Fortran. By simply specifying the geometric descriptions required to define the surfaces as the input of the programs a configuration factor will be obtained that is reasonably accurate for engineering applications. A provision has also been provided in the program to increase the accuracy of the result as required.

## CHAPTER II

### EXISTING METHODS FOR COMPUTATION OF RADIATION CONFIGURATION FACTORS

There are several methods by which configuration factors can be computed, however, they mainly are limited to specialized shapes and geometrical relationships, and may involve making some simplifying assumptions. Some of the methods and approaches are discussed here along with their limitations.

As previously mentioned, equation (1.6) can be evaluated numerically by subdividing the surfaces involved into small areas and evaluating the double integral obtained. This method involves considerable calculations, and it is impracticable for any but very simple surfaces. D. C. Hamilton and W. R. Morgan have developed the configuration factor equations for several geometrical relationships in reference (2). A series of curves and tables are presented as the results of numerical evaluation of the equations. The configuration factors are given as functions of dimensionless ratios of the described geometrical parameters of the configurations. Results are tabulated for planes intersecting at various angles, and for configurations involving plane, line and point sources. Configuration factors are also given for cylinders with point and line sources. The information presented can be very useful in certain cases, but due to the mathematical complexity

involved in obtaining the configuration factors, the geometrical relationships presented are limited to specialized cases.

The tabulated results in reference (2) can be extended to a certain extent to cover more general geometrical configurations by the use of geometric flux algebra. With the aid of several basic rules of flux algebra, Hamilton and Morgan show how the configuration factors of a nonintersecting and nonparallel segments of planes can be expanded as functions of the configuration factors for intersecting planes. By dividing the planes into pairs of areas with known configuration factors the desired configuration factor can be found arithmetically from the known factors. This method is limited to isothermal surfaces, also the geometrical relationship must be reducible to known relationships. The procedure involves, in some cases, the squaring and adding of numbers differing by several orders in magnitude which in turn are obtained from a graph. The error in the final result may therefore be many times the error in reading the curves.

William H. McAdams, in reference (3), pp. 66-68, develops a method by which the configuration factor can be evaluated directly for some classes of irregular surfaces. Areas of infinite extent in one direction generated by a straight line moving always parallel to itself, will have identical cross sections on planes normal to the infinite dimension. In one of these cross sections he constructs lines representing tangents between pairs of points, reducing the surface into an equivalent simple enclosure. From a simple relationship between the lines drawn to reduce the complex surface to the equivalent simple surface he obtains the

configuration factor.

If one of the surfaces is small in relation to the other and can be considered a point source, the unit sphere method can be used. A hemisphere of unit radius is constructed about the point source, and the projection of the second surface is obtained on the surface of the hemisphere. This projection is then transferred to the base of the hemisphere. The configuration factor is then the projected area on the base of the hemisphere, divided by the area of the base, or  $\pi$ . The unit sphere method is useful for simple geometrical configurations, but in many cases the method does not lend itself readily to numerical calculations.

Other methods of obtaining the configuration factor exist, employing photography, mechanical integrators, or some type of optical projection. These methods require specialized equipment or models, and can be time consuming.

## CHAPTER III

### CONTOUR INTEGRATION

As was pointed out in the preceding chapter, no readily available method exists for obtaining the configuration factors for all types of surfaces and which does not involve extensive computation or error-inducing simplifying approximations. In many cases difficulty arises from the evaluation of the double integral (1.6). It is possible through the use of vector calculus to replace the double integral of (1.6) with a single integral, saving a considerable amount of labor.

In reference (1), the author describes a method whereby the substitution is made possible. It has been developed for the calculation of illumination from light sources, but it can be readily adapted for radiation heat transfer calculations.<sup>1</sup> In order to demonstrate the vector relationships of thermal radiation, consider a point source, S, placed at the origin of a system of co-ordinates (see Fig. 2). If the intensity of the source in the direction of point P is I, then the irradiation of a surface  $dA_2$  parallel to the x-y plane from a point source is

$$\begin{aligned} G' &= I \cos \theta_z \, d\omega \\ &= I \cos \theta_z \, dA_2 / r^2 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

where  $I$  = intensity of source along  $r$   
 $r$  = distance from source to point P

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<sup>1</sup> See Appendix B.



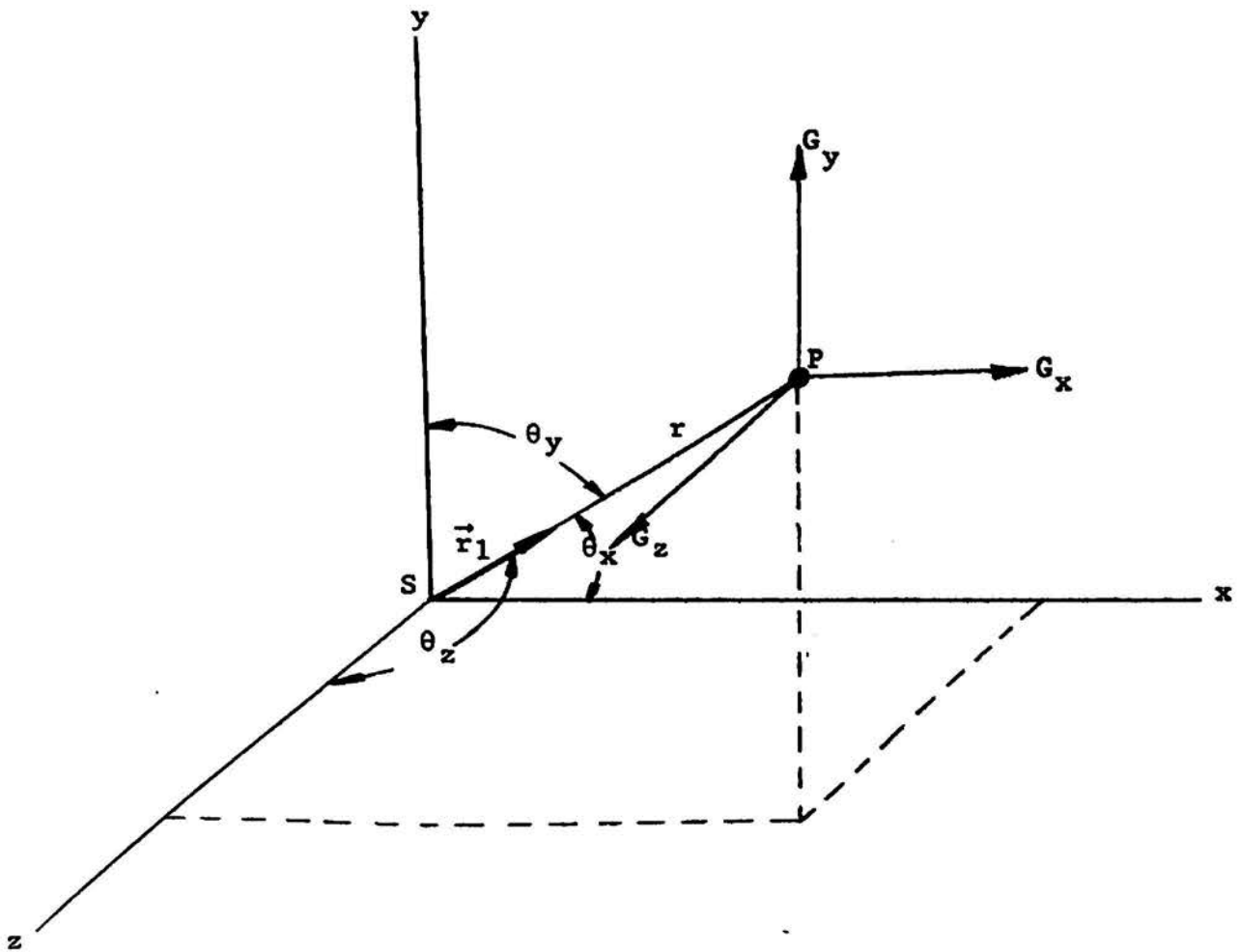


Fig. 2. Illustration of Vector Concepts for Radiation

$\theta_z =$  angle from normal to  $dA_2$  to z axis

$dA_2 =$  area of surface  $dA_2$ .

Since this is the irradiation of a surface whose normal is z direction, it will be denoted as  $G_z$ . Using the above reasoning, values of the irradiation on surfaces at P whose normals are in y, and z direction are, respectively,

$$\vec{G}_x' = \frac{IdA_2}{r^2} \cos \theta_x$$

$$\vec{G}_y' = \frac{IdA_2}{r^2} \cos \theta_y$$

$$\vec{G}_z' = \frac{IdA_2}{r^2} \cos \theta_z$$

where  $\theta_x, \theta_y, \theta_z$  are the angles between  $r$  and the three co-ordinate axes. The coefficient of the cosine term,  $\frac{IdA_2}{r^2}$ , is the same in

three equations, and is equal to the irradiation of a surface perpendicular to  $r$ . It follows that  $\vec{G}_x, \vec{G}_y,$  and  $\vec{G}_z$  are components of a vector whose magnitude is  $\frac{IdA_2}{r^2}$  and whose direction is from S to

along  $r$ . In vector notation, the irradiation at P is

$$\vec{G}' = G'_x i + G'_y j + G'_z k$$

If  $\vec{r}_1$  is a unit vector along  $r$ ,

$$\vec{G}' = \vec{r}_1 \frac{IdA_2}{r^2}$$

If S is a surface rather than a point source, each element of the surface provides an irradiation vector  $d\vec{G}$  at point P, and the total

irradiation vector at P due to the entire source is the vector sum of all the component vectors. For a single area element  $dA_1$  of a surface source  $A_1$ ,

$$d\vec{G} = \frac{I \cos\phi \, dA_2 \, dA_1}{r^2 \, dA_2} \vec{r}_1 \quad (3.7)$$

where  $\vec{r}_1$  is a unit vector pointing from the particular element toward and  $\phi$  is the angle between the normal to  $dA_1$  and  $r$ . For the entire surface source,

$$\vec{G} = I \int_S \vec{r}_1 \frac{\cos\phi \, dA_1}{r^2} \quad (3.8)$$

Equation (3.8) gives the value of the irradiation on a plane normal to  $r$  at point P. The irradiation on any other plane at point P is obtained by multiplying the absolute value of  $\vec{G}$ , or  $|\vec{G}|$  by the cosine of the angle between  $\vec{G}$  and the normal to the plane.

Using the vector relationship in (3.8), it is now possible to obtain an expression for the configuration factor for an arbitrary geometric relationship. The mathematical expression for the dot product between two vectors is,

$$\vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{n}_1 = |\vec{r}_1| |\vec{n}_1| \cos \phi \quad (3.9)$$

where

$$|\vec{r}_1| = \text{absolute value of vector } \vec{r}_1$$

$$|\vec{n}_1| = \text{absolute value of vector } \vec{n}_1 \text{ normal to surface S}$$

$$\phi = \text{angle between } \vec{r}_1 \text{ and } \vec{n}_1$$

If both  $\vec{r}_1$  and  $\vec{n}_1$  are unit vectors, (3.9) becomes

$$\vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{n}_1 = \cos \phi \quad (3.1)$$

Using the relationship (3.10) in equation (3.8) there is obtained

$$\vec{G} = I \int_S \frac{\vec{r}_1}{r^2} (\vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{n}_1) dA_1$$

What is now desired is the reduction of the surface integral (3.11) to a more easily evaluated line integral around the boundary or contour of the surface S. This can be done with the use of Stokes' theorem. Stokes' theorem relates the surface integral of the curl of a vector quantity to the line integral of the quantity. Stated mathematically

$$\int_S \vec{n}_1 \cdot \text{curl } \vec{A} d\tau = \int_C \vec{A} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

where

$\vec{A}$  = vector point function

$\vec{n}_1$  = unit normal to surface S

$d\vec{s}$  = an element of the contour of surface S

$d\tau$  = an element of area of surface S

If both sides of equation (3.11) are multiplied by an arbitrary vector  $\vec{N}$ , it becomes

$$\vec{N} \cdot \vec{G} = I \int_S \frac{\vec{N} \cdot \vec{r}_1}{r^2} (\vec{r}_1 \cdot \vec{n}_1) dA_1$$

Since dot multiplication is associative, i.e.,  $(t\vec{A}) \cdot \vec{B} = t(\vec{A} \cdot \vec{B})$ , equation (3.13) can be rearranged as

$$\vec{N} \cdot \vec{G} = I \int_S \vec{n}_1 \cdot \left[ \frac{\vec{r}_1}{r^2} (\vec{N} \cdot \vec{r}_1) \right] dA_1$$

It can be shown<sup>1</sup> that

$$\frac{\vec{r}_1}{r} (\vec{N} \cdot \vec{r}_1) = \frac{1}{2} \text{curl} \left( \frac{\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{N}}{r} \right) \quad (3.1)$$

Using this relation, equation (3.14) becomes

$$\vec{N} \cdot \vec{G} = I \int_S \vec{n}_1 \cdot \left[ \frac{1}{2} \text{curl} \left( \frac{\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{N}}{r} \right) \right] dA \quad (3.1)$$

Using Stokes theorem with  $\left( \frac{\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{N}}{r} \right)$  substituted for  $\vec{A}$  in equation (3.16) becomes

$$\vec{N} \cdot \vec{G} = \frac{I}{2} \int_C \left( \frac{\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{N}}{r} \right) \cdot d\vec{s} \quad (3.1)$$

The scalar triple product in (3.17) can be commuted cyclically without altering the sign, and since  $\vec{N}$  is constant with respect to the integration, (it is an arbitrary unit vector) equation (3.17) becomes

$$\vec{N} \cdot \vec{G} = \vec{N} \cdot \frac{I}{2} \int_C \left( \frac{d\vec{s} \times \vec{r}_1}{r} \right) \quad (3.1)$$

or, it follows,

$$\vec{G} = \frac{I}{2} \int_C \frac{d\vec{s} \times \vec{r}_1}{r} \quad (3.1)$$

The mathematical expression of the cross product in (3.19) is

$$\left| \frac{d\vec{s} \times \vec{r}_1}{r} \right| = \frac{1}{r} \sin\theta ds \quad (3.2)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between vector  $d\vec{s}$  and unit vector  $\vec{r}_1$ . Equation (3.20) gives the absolute magnitude of the cross product of the vectors

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<sup>1</sup> See Appendix A.

$\vec{ds}$  and  $\vec{r}_1$ . Setting this magnitude equal to  $|\vec{d\alpha}|$  and substituting (3.20),

$$\vec{G} = \frac{I}{2} \int_C \vec{d\alpha}$$

where  $\vec{d\alpha}$  is a vector whose magnitude is equal to the angle subtended by  $\vec{ds}$  from point P and whose direction is perpendicular to the plane formed by  $\vec{ds}$  and  $\vec{r}_1$  (see Fig. 3). The vector  $\vec{d\alpha}$  points in the direction of rotation of a right handed screw turned from  $\vec{ds}$  to  $\vec{r}_1$ . Equation (3.21) gives the irradiation at a point P due to a surface source S in terms of a contour integral taken around the contour of the source. For surfaces with polygonal boundaries, the  $\vec{d\alpha}$  vectors along one side of the figure are collinear and add directly.

Consider a polygon source ABCDE ( Fig. 4). In order to compute the irradiation at point P due to ABCDE using contour integration, proceed as follows. From equation (3.21), the contribution to the irradiation at P due to side AB is

$$\vec{\Delta}_1 = \frac{I}{2} \int_{AB} \vec{d\alpha}$$

Since  $\vec{d\alpha}$  is a vector perpendicular to the plane formed by  $\vec{ds}$  and  $\vec{r}_1$  and all vectors  $\vec{d\alpha}$  are collinear due to the straight line boundary, the integration indicated in equation (3.22) becomes an ordinary scalar integral. Thus

$$\vec{\Delta}_1 = \vec{\alpha}_1 \frac{I}{2} \int_0^{\varphi} d\alpha$$

(3.23) becomes, after integration,

$$\vec{\Delta}_1 = \vec{\alpha}_1 \frac{I}{2} \varphi_1$$

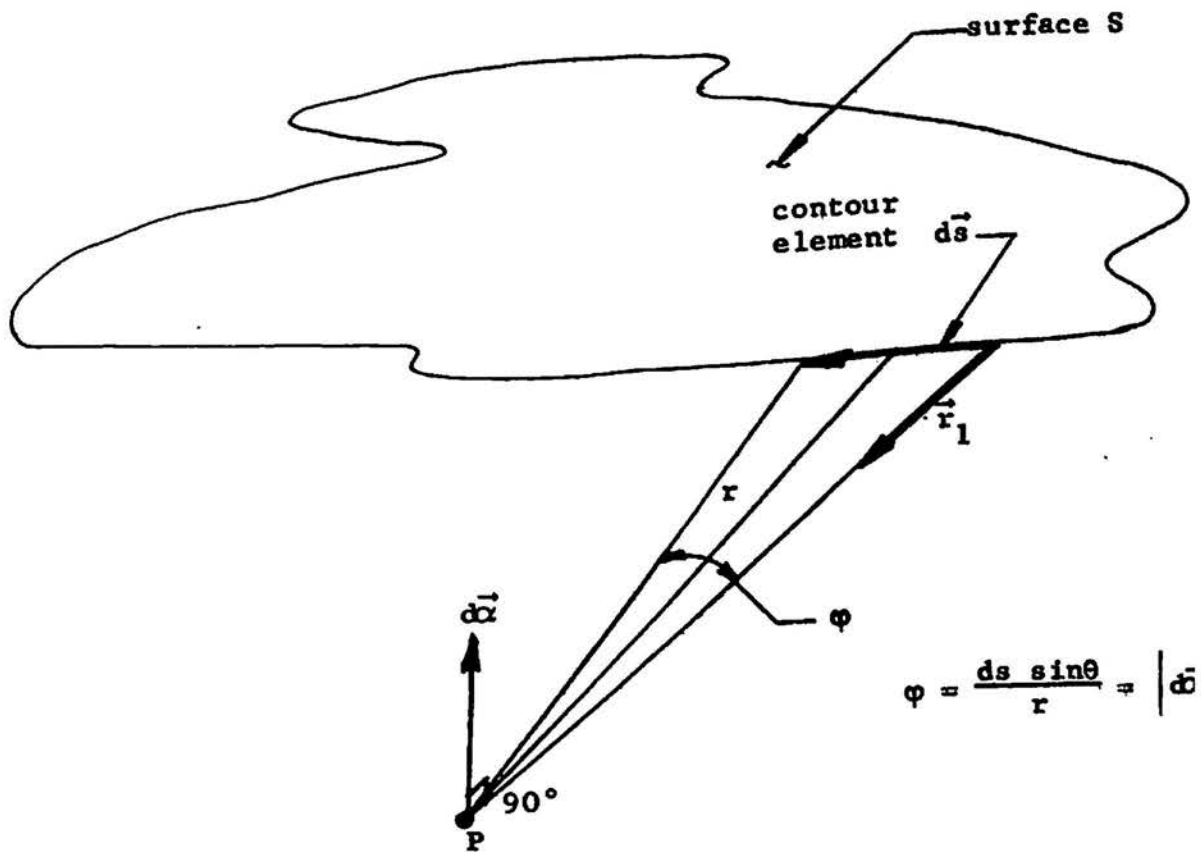


Fig. 3. Contour Integration for Surface  $S$

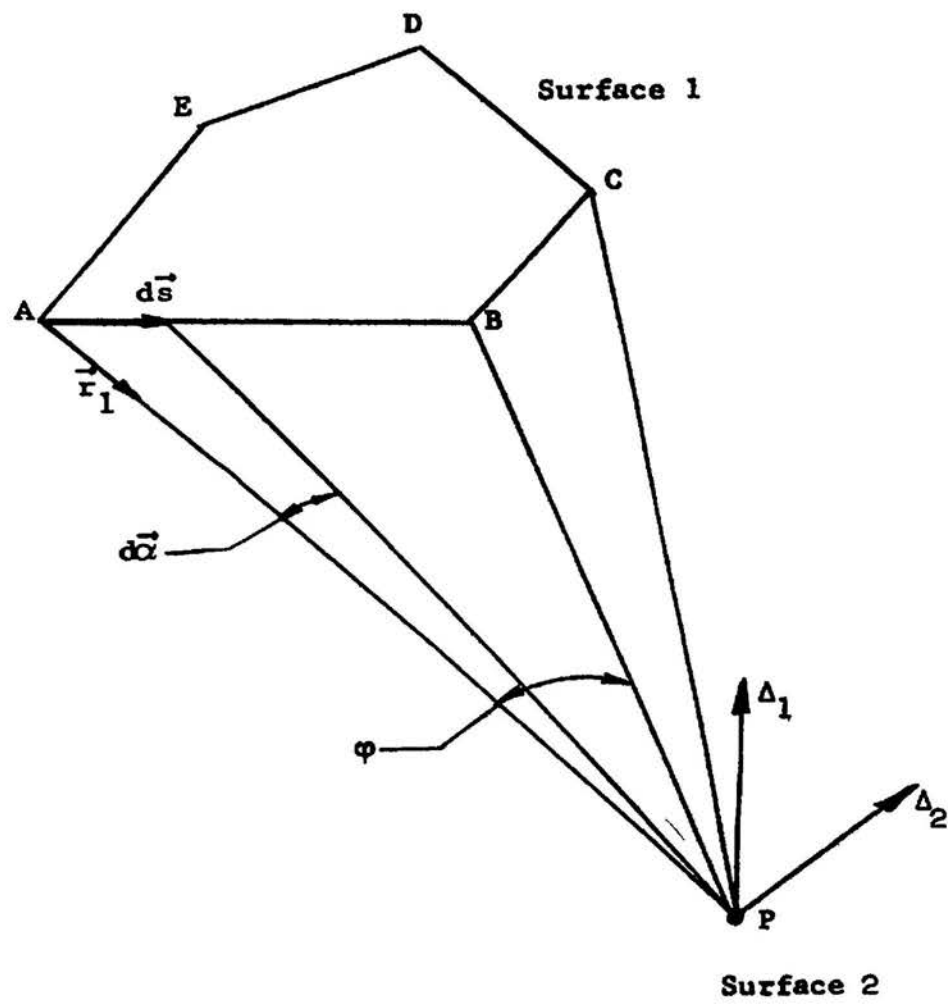


Fig. 4. Contour Integration for Polygon Source



where  $\vec{\alpha}_1$  is a unit vector perpendicular to the plane formed by  $\vec{c}$  and  $\vec{b}$  and  $\varphi_1$  is the angle subtended at P by side A-B of the polygon. The contribution to the irradiation at point P due to side BC is

$$\vec{\Delta}_2 = \vec{\alpha}_2 \frac{I}{2} \varphi_2$$

where  $\vec{\alpha}_2$  is a unit vector perpendicular to plane PBC and  $\varphi_2$  is the angle intercepted at P by side BC. For a polygon of n sides, the irradiation at P is

$$\vec{G} = \frac{I}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \vec{\alpha}_i \varphi_i$$

where  $\vec{\alpha}_i$  is a unit vector normal to the i th plane. The direction will be always the direction dictated by the right hand rule for vector products. The use of equation (3.26) eliminates the need to integrate to obtain the irradiation at a point due to a source having a polygonal boundary.

Obtaining the configuration factor using equation (3.26) is a simple matter. Equation (3.26) gives the irradiation at point P due to a polygonal source, and from the definition of the configuration factor, it simply becomes necessary to divide the total irradiation at point P by the total flux emitted by the source. As in the denominator of equation (1.5), the total energy emitted by the source per unit time is  $\sigma T^4 A_1$ . Dividing this into the total flux reaching point P, the result is

$$F_{1-2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \vec{\alpha}_i \varphi_i \frac{dA_2}{A_1}$$

This equation is the basis of the method used to calculate configuration factors for several configurations in this report. As will be shown in the next chapters, the method is readily adaptable for electronic computers and gives excellent results.

## CHAPTER IV

### ADAPTION OF CONTOUR INTEGRATION TO AN ELECTRONIC DIGITAL COMPUTER

The method outlined in the previous chapter lends itself readily to computer calculation. The four computer programs presented in this report all use as a basis of calculation the formula (3.27). The method in the programs is fairly simple. Formula (3.26) expresses the irradiation at a point due to a polygonal source. Since the configuration factor between two surfaces is usually desired, rather than between a point and a surface, it simply becomes necessary to obtain the irradiation at a sufficient number of points on one of the surfaces and add the results vectorially.

In each program, the surfaces are specified as to shape, size, and location by co-ordinates on a cartesian system. The program divides each of the surfaces into small subarea elements, and obtains the co-ordinates of the center of each subarea. The center point of each subarea is considered as a point being irradiated by the second surface. The contour integration theory is then applied to each center point in turn and the results are added vectorially. The final result is then the irradiation by the second surface on the surface defined by the first surface at the points of the subareas, or for a sufficient number of points the

is the total irradiation by the second surface on the first surf

Once the co-ordinates of the center points are known, it is tively simple to apply the contour integration theory using the known procedures of analytic geometry. For example, consider a center point P on the subdivided surface. Assume also that the surface is a polygon ABCDE of five sides (see Fig. 4). To deter irradiation at P using contour integration, according to formula the contribution side AB of the second surface makes to the irra is simply the angle subtended by AB at P multiplied by the unit to the plane PBA. In order to find the unit normal to the plane by P, B and A, the equation of the plane passing through the co- nates of P, B, and A is calculated. This is easily accomplished the equation of a plane is of the form

$$A x + B y + C z + 1 = 0,$$

we can substitute the co-ordinates of each point for x, y, and z result is three equations with three unknowns A, B and C. The c cients of x, y and z in (4.1) are the direction cosines of a nor the plane from the origin. To obtain an expression for the unit to the plane PBA, it is necessary to use the relationship

$$\vec{n}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + C^2}} (A\mathbf{i} + B\mathbf{j} + C\mathbf{k})$$

where  $\vec{n}_1$  is the unit normal to plane PBA.

To obtain the angle subtended by AB at P, the direction cos the lines PA and PB are determined from the relations

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{X_2 - X_1}{d}$$

$$\cos \beta = \frac{Y_2 - Y_1}{d}$$

$$\cos \gamma = \frac{Z_2 - Z_1}{d}$$

where 
$$d = \sqrt{(X_2 - X_1)^2 + (Y_2 - Y_1)^2 + (Z_2 - Z_1)^2}$$

$X_1, Y_1, Z_1$  = co-ordinates of end of line at P

$X_2, Y_2, Z_2$  = co-ordinates of end of line at plane.

The cosine of the angle between the two lines can be determined from the relationship

$$\cos \phi = \cos \alpha_A \cos \alpha_B + \cos \beta_A \cos \beta_B + \cos \gamma_A \cos \gamma_B$$

The angle  $\phi$  is then obtained from the arc cosine relationship. Multiplying the vector  $\vec{n}_1$  by the scalar  $\phi$ , the contribution to the irradiation at P due to side AB is obtained. The process is repeated for sides BC, CD, DE, and EA of the polygon. The equations of the planes PDE, and PEA are obtained, the unit normals to each plane are calculated and multiplied by the angles subtended by each of the sides of the polygon and the results - the x, y and z components of the irradiation vectors are added to obtain the total irradiation at point P. The whole process is then repeated for another point on the surface. The subsequent points are those defined by the co-ordinates of the center points of the polygon on the surface. The result obtained for each point P is added vectorially. Since each point P represents a small area rather than a point, the total irradiation of the second surface by the first surface is obtained by multiplying the vector result obtained above by the cosine of the angle between the irradiation vector and the normal to the second surface.

The procedure is fairly straightforward in cases where even on one of the surfaces can "see" every point on the second surface. A complication arises when one or both of the surfaces are curved. Portions of the surface exist that can see only a part or none of the other surface. In other words, each point on a curved surface has a horizon, and the second surface can either be totally above or below the horizon, or only a portion of the second surface may be above the horizon. If the second surface lies totally below the horizon of a point, no radiant energy can reach the point from the surface, and conversely, no radiant energy leaving the point can reach the surface. In the case of a surface lying partly below the horizon of a point, only the portion from the portion of the surface above the horizon is considered.

In view of this, the programs dealing with curved surfaces make a horizon decision made for each subarea center point. This decision determines the position of the second surface relative to the horizon of the point in question. In cases where the second surface lies above the horizon, the co-ordinates of the points of intersection of the horizon and the surface must be calculated. Considering the second surface to be the polygon ABCD, the point P will be irradiated by the portion of ABCD that appears above the horizon. This new polygon is defined by the co-ordinates of the intersection points of the horizon and ABCD. Even though the original polygon was four-sided, the new polygon can be either three-, four-, or five-sided, depending on the number of intersection points.

A thorough discussion of each of the programs follow in the  
ing chapters.

## CHAPTER V

### PLANE-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

In order to utilize the digital computer to calculate a correction factor using the contour integration theory, it is necessary to present the calculations in a logical sequence and in a format that enables the computer to perform the necessary manipulations. The method whereby this was accomplished utilized the Fortran system. This allowed the program to be written in symbols and algebraic equations closely resembling conventional mathematical formulas. The computer translated this program into a form usable for actual calculation. The Fortran program as written will be discussed since the logic followed readily.

The plane-to-plane program was too large for the storage capacity of the IBM 650 and it appears here in two parts. This does not in any way affect the logic of the program. The splitting of the program was accomplished by using the same dimension statement for both parts of the program. The computer then reserves the same storage area for the variables appearing in the dimension statement in both parts. As a result of this, the information calculated in the first part of the program is saved within the computer in the proper place, and it is not necessary to read in any new information or data before starting the second part of the program. Care had to be taken that the first

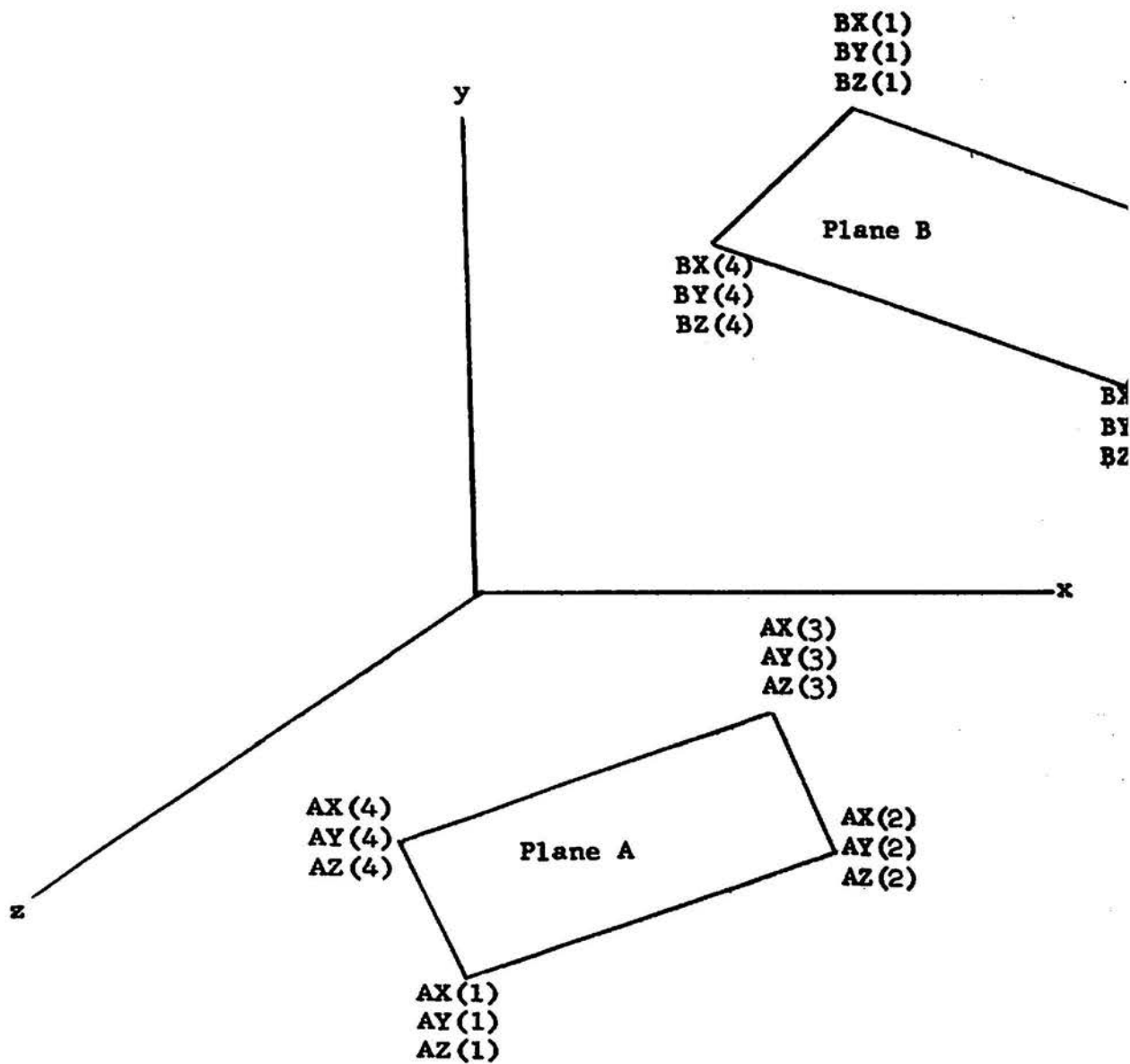


subscripted variable appearing in the dimension statement was the variables used in the second part of the program. The first variable also had to be larger than fourteen. This had to be the computer will use the first fourteen spaces of the dimensions for temporary storage while reading the program on the drum. destroys any information which may have been stored in those locations.

The data input to the program consists of the x, y and z coordinates of the corner points of the planes. The only limitation for the relative orientation of the two planes is that it is necessary for one of the planes to be partially above the horizon of the other plane. The necessary program required is, in order, the problem number, N, and the coordinates of plane A followed by co-ordinates of plane B. The co-ordinates of plane B are cyclic or ordered around the plane (see Fig. 5).

Plane B should be the smaller of the two planes, as it will be divided into a number of subareas. The smaller the plane is, the more accurately it can be represented by a given number of points. The value of N will determine the number of subdivisions for plane B. Plane B will be divided into N squared subareas.

The flow chart for the plane-to-plane program appears in Figure 4. The actual Fortran program statements appear in Table 1. The final calculated result is in the form of the product of the area of plane B and the configuration factor between plane A and plane B. The desired configuration factor can be found easily by the use of the reciprocal relationship in equation (1.7).



**Fig. 5. Plane-to-Plane Configuration**

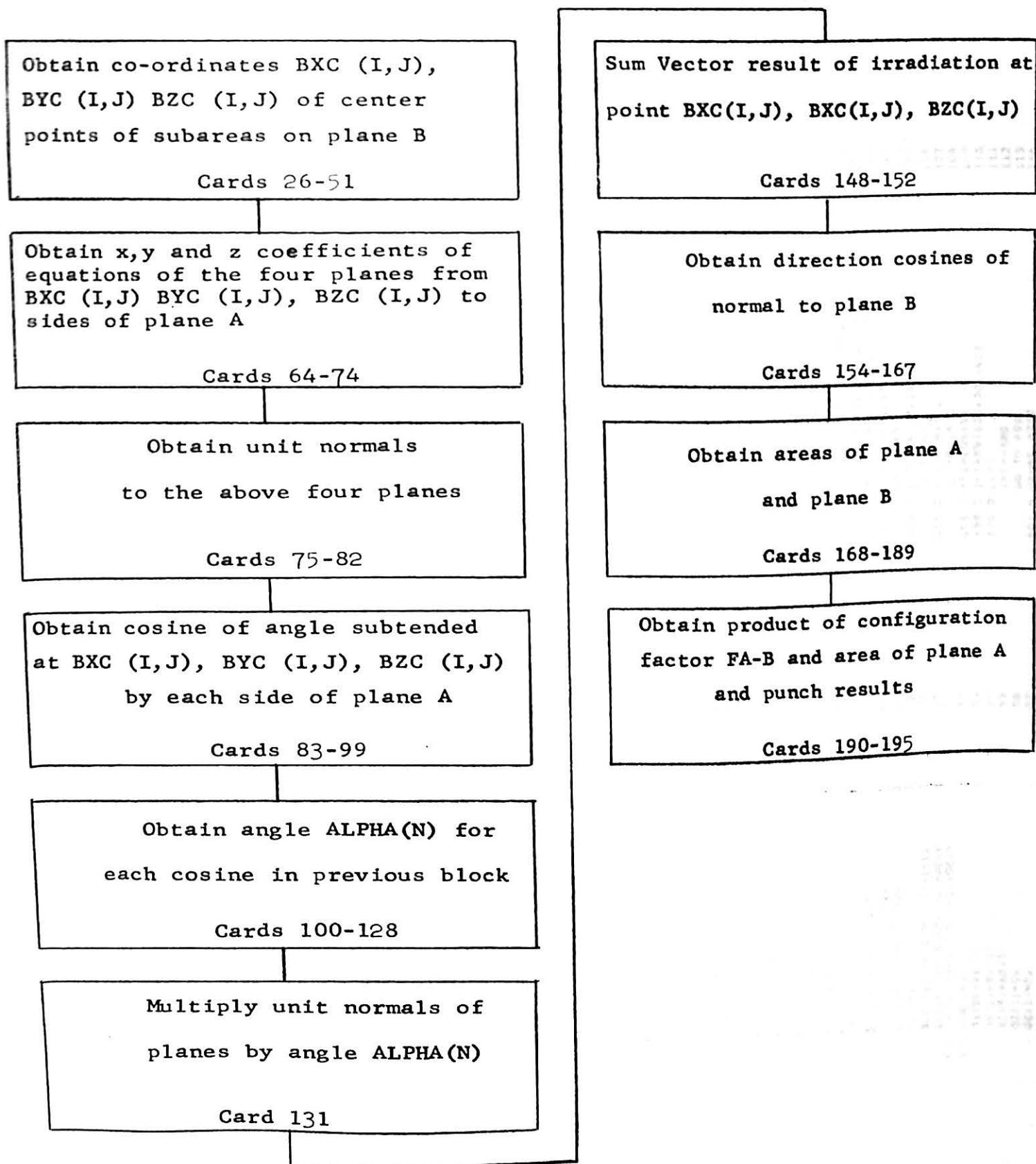


Fig. 6. Block Diagram of Plane-to-Plane Program

TABLE I

## PLANE-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

C 0000 0	RADIATION CONFIGURATION FACTO	1	G3(1)=0.	58
C 0000 0	RS FOR FLAT RECTANGULAR PLANES	2	DO13I=1,N1	59
	DIMENSIONR(18).	3	DO13J=1,N1	60
1	AX(5)+AY(5).	4	BXC=BXC(I,J)	61
2	AZ(5)+BX(4)+BY(4)+BZ(4).	5	BYC=BYC(I,J)	62
3	CSTH(3,5)+COS(4)+ALPHA(4)	6	BZC=BZC(I,J)	63
	DIMENSIONBXC(10,10)+BYC(10,10)	7	DO7M=1,4	64
1	+BZC(10,10)+G1(1)+G2(1)+G3(1).	8	E(M,1)=BYC *(AZ(M)-AZ(M+1)	65
2	E(4,3)+PRONO(1)+N1(1)	9	1 )+AY(M)*(AZ(M+1)-BZC )+AY(	66
	READ,PRONO(1)+N1(1)+AX(1).	10	2 M+1)+BZC -AZ(M)	67
1	AY(1)+AZ(1)+AX(2)+AY(2)	11	E(M,2)=BZC *(AX(M)-AX(M+1)	68
	READ,AZ(2)+AX(3)+AY(3)+AZ(3).	12	1 )+AZ(M)*(AX(M+1)-BXC )+AZ(	69
1	AX(4)+AY(4)+AZ(4)	13	2 M+1)+BXC -AX(M)	70
	READ,BX(1)+BY(1)+BZ(1)+BX(2).	14	E(M,3)=BXC *(AY(M)-AY(M+1)	71
1	BY(2)+BZ(2)+BX(3)	15	1 )+AX(M)*(AY(M+1)-BYC )+AX(	72
	READ,BY(3)+BZ(3)+BX(4)+BY(4).	16	2 M+1)+BYC -AY(M)	73
1	BZ(4)	17	7 C CONTINUE	74
C 0000 0	INCREM. MID POINT COORDS	18	DO8M=1,4	75
	S=N1(1)	19	ESQD=E(M,1)*E(M,1)+E(M,2)*E(M,	76
	N1=N1(1)	20	1 2)+E(M,3)*E(M,3)	77
	A0=1.5707879	21	R(M)=SQRTF(ESQD)	78
	A1=-.21412453	22	8 0 CONTINUE	79
	A2=.08466649	23	DO9M=1,4	80
	A3=-.03575663	24	DO9N=1,3	81
	A4=.00864884	25	9 0 E(M,N)=E(M,N)/R(M)	82
	DELXR=(BX(2)-BX(1))/S	26	DO10M=1,4	83
	XR=BX(1)-DELXR/2.	27	DELX=BXC -AX(N)	84
	DELXL=(BX(3)-BX(4))/S	28	DELY=BYC -AY(N)	85
	XL=BX(4)-DELXL/2.	29	DELZ=BZC -AZ(N)	86
	DELYR=(BY(2)-BY(1))/S	30	R1SQD=DELX*DELX+DELY*DELY+DELZ	87
	YR=BY(1)-DELYR/2.	31	1 *DELZ	88
	DELYL=(BY(3)-BY(4))/S	32	R1=SQRTF(R1SQD)	89
	YL=BY(4)-DELYL/2.	33	CSTH(1,N)=DELX/R1	90
	DELZR=(BZ(2)-BZ(1))/S	34	CSTH(2,N)=DELY/R1	91
	ZR=BZ(1)-DELZR/2.	35	10 0 CSTH(3,N)=DELZ/R1	92
	DELZL=(BZ(3)-BZ(4))/S	36	CSTH(1,5)=CSTH(1,1)	93
	ZL=BZ(4)-DELZL/2.	37	CSTH(2,5)=CSTH(2,1)	94
	DELX=(XL-XR)/S	38	CSTH(3,5)=CSTH(3,1)	95
	DELY=(YL-YR)/S	39	DO 650 N=1,4	96
	DELZ=(ZL-ZR)/S	40	COS(N)=CSTH(1,N)*CSTH(1,N+1)+	97
	DO 6 M=1,N1	41	1 CSTH(2,N)*CSTH(2,N+1)+CSTH(3,N	98
	XR=XR+DELXR	42	2 )*CSTH(3,N+1)	99
	YR=YR+DELYR	43	IF(COS(N))651,652,653	100
	ZR=ZR+DELZR	44	651 0 IF(COS(N)+1.1658,654,659	101
	BXC(M,1)=XR+DELX/2.	45	653 0 IF(COS(N)-1.1659,655,657	102
	BYC(M,1)=YR+DELY/2.	46	652 0 ALPHA(N)=1.57079	103
	BZC(M,1)=ZR+DELZ/2.	47	GO TO 650	104
	DO5J=2,N1	48	654 0 ALPHA(N)=3.14159	105
	BZC(M,J)=BZC(M,J-1)+DELZ	49	GO TO 650	106
	BXC(M,J)=BXC(M,J-1)+DELX	50	655 0 ALPHA(N)=0.	107
4 0	BYC(M,J)=BYC(M,J-1)+DELY	51	GO TO 650	108

TABLE I (Continued)

802 0	LL=0	115					172
803 0	PHI=ARG*(ARG*(ARG*(A4*ARG+	116					173
803 1	A3)+A2)+A1)+A0	117					174
	PHI2=SQRTF(1.-ARG)	118					175
	ANGLE=PHI*PHI2	119					176
	IF(LL=1)810,815,820	120					177
815 0	ANGLE=3.14159-ANGLE	121					178
810 0	ALPHA(N)=ANGLE	122					179
	GO TO 650	123					180
820 0	PAUSE 9877	124					181
658 0	IF(COS(N)+1.0001)656,654,654	125					182
657 0	IF(COS(N)-1.0001)655,655,656	126					183
656 0	PAUSE 1111	127					184
650 0	CONTINUE	128					185
	DO12M=1,4	129					186
	DO12N=1,3	130					187
12 0	E(M,N)=E(M,N)*ALPHA(M)	131					188
	G1(1)= G1(1) +E(1,1)+E	132					189
1	(2,1)+E(3,1)+E(4,1)	133					190
	G2(1)=G2(1) +E(1,2)+E	134					191
1	(2,2)+E(3,2)+E(4,2)	135					192
	G3(1)=G3(1) +E(1,3)+E	136					193
1	(2,3)+E(3,3)+E(4,3)	137					194
13 0	CONTINUE	138					195
	END	139					196
C 0000 0	START SECONDPROGRAM	140					197
	DIMENSIONR(18),	141					
1	AX(5),AY(5),	142					
2	AZ(5),BX(4),BY(4),BZ(4),	143					
3	CSTH(3,5),COS(4),ALPHA(4)	144					
	DIMENSIONBXC(10,10),BYC(10,10)	145					
1	BZC(10,10),G1(1),G2(1),G3(1),	146					
2	E(4,3),PRONO(1),N1(1)	147					
	S=N1(1)	148					
	S1=SQRTF(G1(1)*G1(1)+G2(1)*	149					
1	G2(1)+G3(1)*G3(1))	150					
	CSBTX=G1(1)/S1	151					
	CSBTY=G2(1)/S1	152					
	CSBTZ=G3(1)/S1	153					
C 0000 0	AREA OF PLANES CALCULATION	154					
	D1=BY(1)*(BZ(2)-BZ(3))+BY(2)*(	155					
1	BZ(3)-BZ(1))+BY(3)*(BZ(1)-BZ(2)	156					
2	))	157					
	D2=BZ(1)*(BX(2)-BX(3))+BZ(2)*(	158					
1	BX(3)-BX(1))+BZ(3)*(BX(1)-BX(2)	159					
2	))	160					
	D3=BX(1)*(BY(2)-BY(3))+BX(2)*(	161					
1	BY(3)-BY(1))+BX(3)*(BY(1)-BY(2)	162					
2	))	163					
	RSQD=D1*D1+D2*D2+D3*D3	164					
	R=SQRTF(RSQD)	165					
	CSALX=D1/R	166					
	SIDE1=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*DEL						
1	Y+DELZ*DELZ)						
	DELX=BX(3)-BX(2)						
	DELY=BY(3)-BY(2)						
	DELZ=BZ(3)-BZ(2)						
	SIDE2=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*DEL						
1	Y+DELZ*DELZ)						
	AREAB=SIDE1*SIDE2						
	DELX=AX(2)-AX(1)						
	DELY=AY(2)-AY(1)						
	DELZ=AZ(2)-AZ(1)						
	SIDE1=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*DEL						
1	Y+DELZ*DELZ)						
	DELX=AX(3)-AX(2)						
	DELY=AY(3)-AY(2)						
	DELZ=AZ(3)-AZ(2)						
	SIDE2=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*DEL						
1	Y+DELZ*DELZ)						
	AREAA=SIDE1*SIDE2						
	COS1=CSALX*CSBTX+CSALY*CSBTY+C						
1	SALZ*CSBTZ						
	GAB=(S1*COS1)/(6.28318)						
	AAGAB=GAB*AREAB/(S*5)						
	PUNCH,PRONO(1),AREAA,AREAB,						
1	AAGAB						
	END						

## CHAPTER VI

### CYLINDER-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

The basic method for calculating the configuration factor for a cylinder to a plane differs little from the method used in the plane-to-plane program. As was pointed out in the derivation of equation (3.27), the summation replaces the integral sign only when the source is a polygon. Because of this, the cylinder is the surface to be subdivided and represented by the center points of the subareas. One of the differences between the cylinder-to-plane program and the plane-to-plane program is of course the method by which the subareas are obtained along with their respective center point co-ordinates.

The biggest difference, however, is represented by the addition of a horizon decision loop. As was mentioned previously, there may be points on a curved surface which cannot "see" any or all of the second surface. Before equation (3.27) can be evaluated for any particular subarea center point, a horizon decision is made for the point. If the plane lies totally above the horizon for the point, the contour integration is performed as in the preceding program. If the plane lies totally below the horizon for the point, the program will then skip the contour integration for that point, and progress to the next point on the cylinder and repeat the horizon decision until a point is found from which

the plane can be seen. If only a portion of the plane can be seen, it will be in the form of a three-, four-, or five-sided polygon. The corner points of the polygon will be represented by the co-ordinates of the original corners appearing above the horizon and the co-ordinates of the intersection points between the horizon and the plane. The latter co-ordinates are calculated within the horizon decision loop. The contour integration is then performed for the new polygon representing the portion of the plane appearing above the horizon.

The horizon decision is performed by rotating the y axis about the z axis to the point being considered. The co-ordinates of the corner points of the plane are then calculated for the new rotated axis. Since the point in question now lies on the y axis, it simply becomes necessary to compare the radius of the cylinder with the rotated co-ordinates of the plane. Any corner point of the plane whose ordinate has a value less than the radius of the cylinder lies below the horizon of the point being considered on the cylinder. When the corner point lies below the horizon, the co-ordinates of the intersection point between the horizon and the plane is then calculated. The co-ordinates so calculated are then transformed back to the original axis location before the rotation was made. The contour integration is then performed with relation to the original axes.

As in the plane-to-plane program, the irradiation vector must be multiplied by the normal to the subarea. The normal to the subarea is calculated from the gradient of the cylinder evaluated at the center of the subarea in question.

The cylinder to plane program will calculate configuration factors for full cylinders, or for any segment of a cylindrical surface, to a plane located anywhere outside the cylindrical surface. The necessary data input are the co-ordinates and angles necessary to describe the geometrical relationship of the cylinder and plane. The axis of the cylinder is located along the z axis (see Fig. 7). The angular size of the cylinder is defined by angles  $\theta_{1}$  and  $\theta_{2}$  in degrees. Taking the y axis as zero degrees and proceeding clockwise, the angle ( $\theta_{2} - \theta_{1}$ ) must define the angular segment of the cylinder. The length of the cylinder is designated by the co-ordinates ZL and ZR of its end points. The radius of the cylinder is designated by R. The plane is defined by the x, y, and z co-ordinates of the corner points, designated as AX(1), AY(1), AZ(1), AX(2), AY(2), AZ(2), etc. The subscripts of the corner points must be cyclic or ordered around the plane.

A block diagram of the cylinder to plane program along with the Fortran program appears on the following pages.



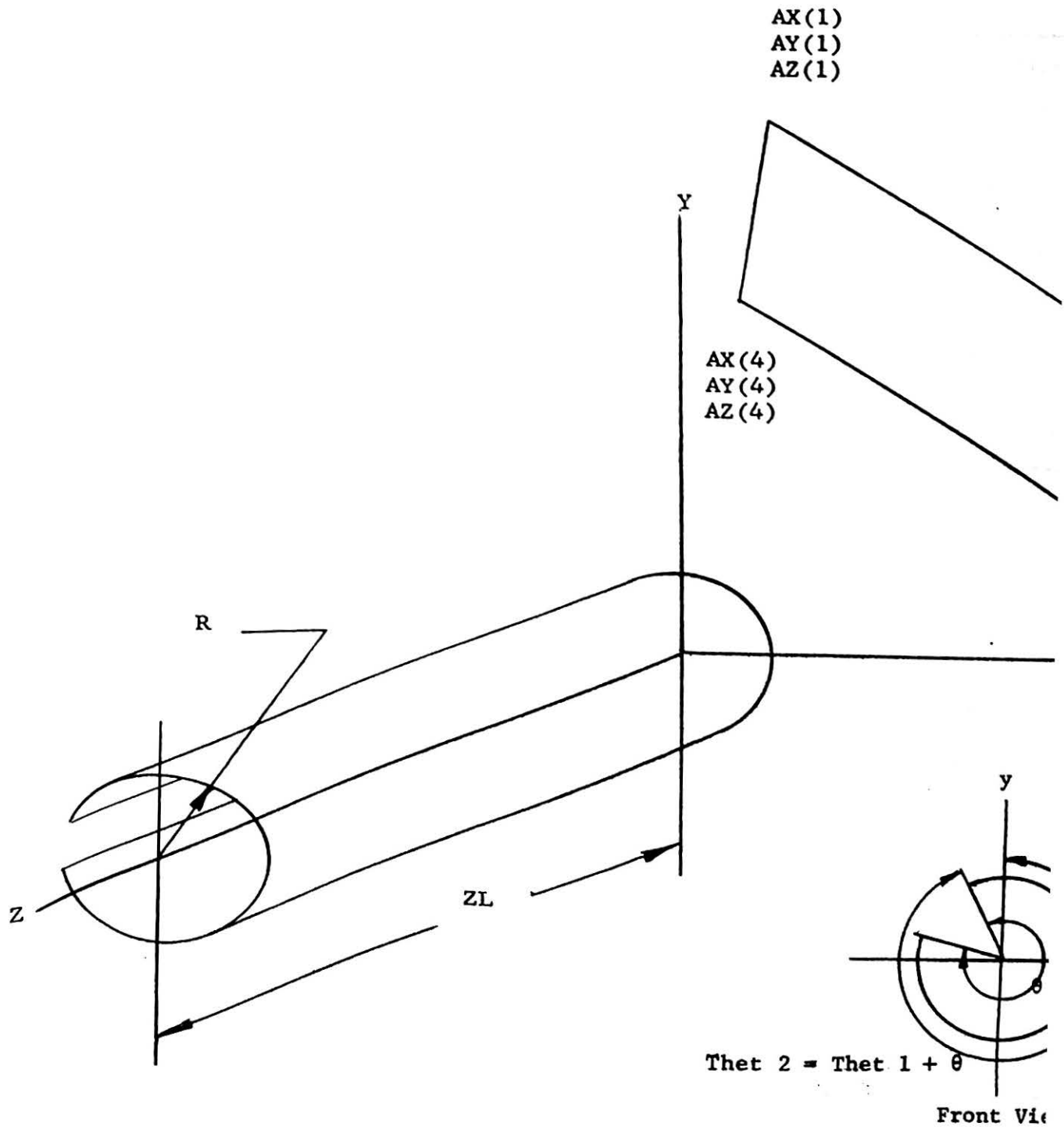


Fig. 7. Cylinder-to-Plane Configuration

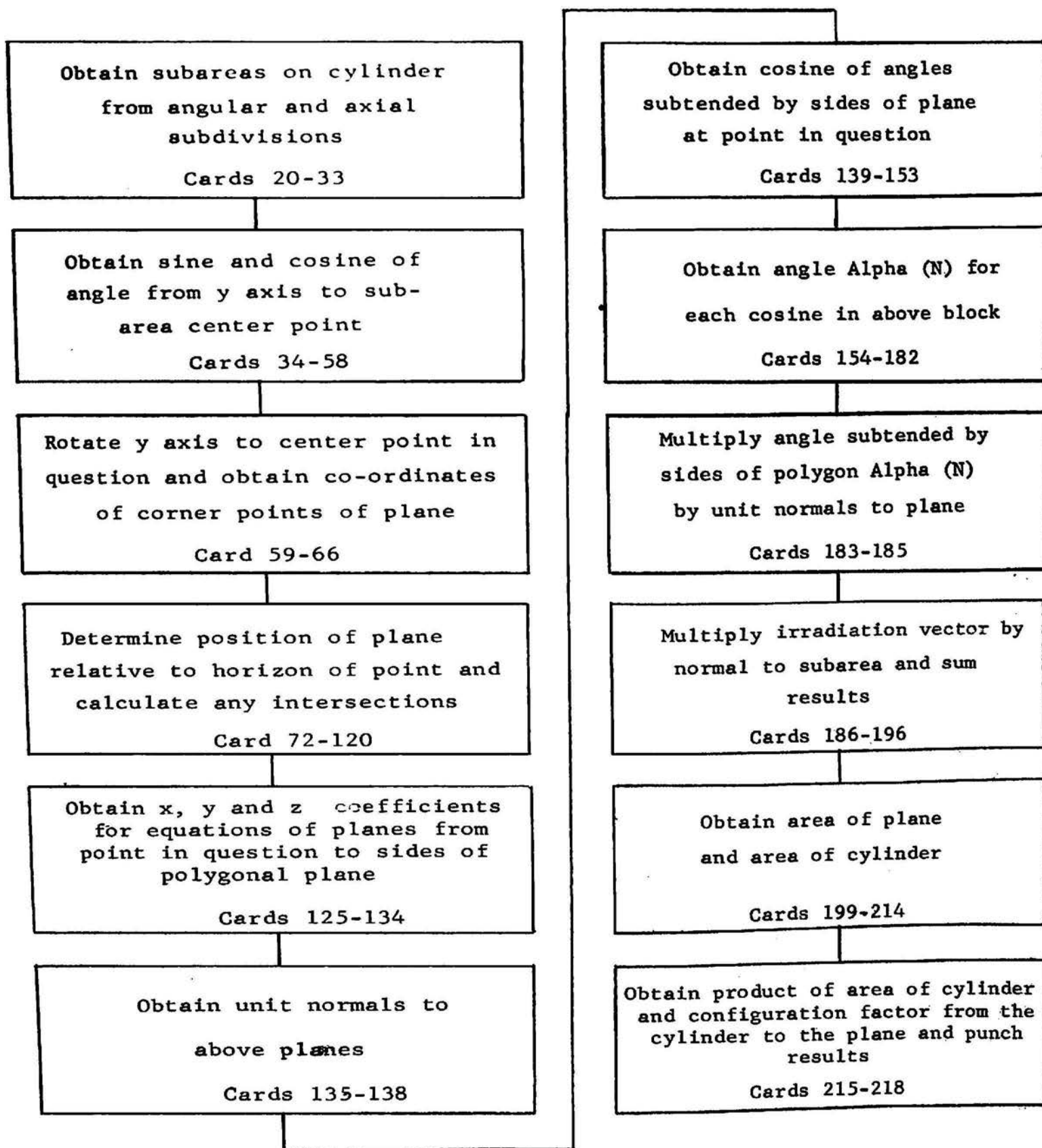


Fig. 8. Block Diagram of Cylinder-to-Plane Program

TABLE II  
CYLINDER-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

C 0000 0	CONFIG FAC CYLINDER TO PLANE	1	CSALR=VAR1	58
	DIMENSIONAR(5),AX(5),AY(5),AZ	2	DO 510 N=1,4	59
1	(5),AXR(5),AYR(5),CSTHX(6),	3	AXR(N)=AX(N)*CSALR-AY(N)*SNALR	60
2	CSTHY(6),CSTHZ(6),CX(6),CY(6)	4	510 0 AYR(N)=AY(N)*CSALR+AX(N)*SNALR	61
	DIMENSION CZ(6),E(5,3),ALPHA(5	5	AXR(5)=AXR(1)	62
1	),CSS(5)	6	AYR(5)=AYR(1)	63
1 0	READ,PRONO,J2, AX(1),	7	BX=R*SNALR	64
1 1	AY(1),AZ(1),AX(2)	8	BY=R*CSALR	65
	READ,AY(2),AZ(2),AX(3),AY(3),	9	BZ=CON1	66
1	AZ(3),AX(4),AY(4)	10	600 0 DO 671 N1=1,J2	67
	READ,AZ(4),THET1,THET2,	11	BZ=BZ+DELZ1	68
1	ZR,ZL,R	12	TMP1=0.	69
	AN=J2	13	TMP2=0.	70
	A0=1.5707879	14	TMP3=0.	71
	A1=-.21412453	15	K=0	72
	A2=.08466649	16	DO 350 N=1,4	73
	A3=-.03575663	17	IF (AYR(N)-R) 310,320,330	74
	A4=.00864884	18	310 0 IF (AYR(N+1)-R) 350,350,311	75
C 0000 0	OBTAIN COORD MD PTS	19	311 0 K=K+1	76
	DELTH=(THET2-THET1)/AN	20	LA=0	77
1	*0.0174533	21	312 0 XR=(R-AYR(N+1))*(AXR(N)-AXR	78
	THET3=THET1*0.0174533-	22	312 1 (N+1))/(AYR(N)-AYR(N+1))	79
1	DELTH/2.0	23	312 2 +AXR(N+1)	80
C 0000 0	DETERMINE OF HORIZ INTERSECT	24	K1=K+LA	81
	G1=0.	25	CX(K1)=XR*CSALR+R*SNALR	82
	G2=0.	26	CY(K1)=R*CSALR-XR*SNALR	83
	G3=0.	27	CZ(K1)=(R-AYR(N+1))*(AZ(N)-AZ	84
	AX(5)=AX(1)	28	1 (N+1))/(AYR(N)-AYR(N+1))	85
	AY(5)=AY(1)	29	2 +AZ(N+1)	86
	AZ(5)=AZ(1)	30	IF (LA-1) 350,334,313	87
	DELZ1=(ZL-ZR)/AN	31	313 0 PAUSE 7777	88
	BZ=ZR-DELZ1/2.	32	320 0 IF (AYR(N+1)-R) 321,322,323	89
	CON1=BZ	33	321 0 K=K+1	90
500 0	DO 672 N=1,J2	34	GO TO 350	91
	THET3=THET3+DELTH	35	322 0 K=K+1	92
	NA=1	36	CX(K)=AX(N)	93
	ARGM=THET3	37	CY(K)=AY(N)	94
220 0	CON4=ARGM	38	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	95
	ARGM=ARGM-1.570788	39	GO TO 350	96
	IF (ARGM) 202,202,204	40	323 0 K=K+1	97
	NA=NA+1	41	CX(K)=AX(N)	98
	GO TO 220	42	CY(K)=AY(N)	99
202 0	ARGM=CON4	43	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	100
	VAR1=SINF(ARGM)	44	CX(K+1)=AX(N+1)	101
	VAR2=COSF(ARGM)	45	CY(K+1)=AY(N+1)	102
	GO TO (229,230,231,232,229,	46	CZ(K+1)=AZ(N+1)	103
1	230,231,232,229,230),NA	47	GO TO 350	104
229 0	SNALR=VAR1	48	330 0 K=K+1	105
	CSALR=VAR2	49	IF (AYR(N+1)-R) 331,332,332	106
	GO TO 250	50	331 0 CX(K)=AX(N)	107
230 0	SNALR=VAR2	51	CY(K)=AY(N)	108
	CSALR=-VAR1	52	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	109
	GO TO 250	53	LA=1	110
231 0	SNALR=-VAR1	54	GO TO 312	111
	CSALR=-VAR2	55	334 0 K=K+1	112
	GO TO 250	56	GO TO 350	113
232 0	SNALR=-VAR2	57	332 0 CX(K)=AX(N)	114



## CHAPTER VII

### SPHERE-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

As in the previous two programs, the basic method used to calculate the configuration factor is the same. This program will calculate the configuration factor from a sphere to a plane or from any portion of a spherical surface that can be defined by the method used in the program. The center of the sphere is located at the origin. Taking the y axis as positive and proceeding clockwise, a spherical segment is designated using the angles  $\text{Alph } 1$  and  $\text{Alph } 2$ . The angle ( $\text{Alph } 2 - \text{Alph } 1$ ) must define the angular segment of the sphere (see Fig. 9). The portion of the spherical segment is defined by the coordinates of the edges.

The plane is defined by the x, y, and z co-ordinates of the corner points exactly the same way as in the cylinder-to-plane program. As in the previous programs, the accuracy of the results can be varied by specifying a greater value for J2.

The basic difference between the cylinder-to-plane program and the sphere-to-plane program is in the axis rotation procedure. All points on the surface of a cylinder along a line parallel to the axis of the cylinder have the same horizon plane. Because of this, a horizon decision need only be made for one point on the line. In the case of a

sphere, each and every point on the surface of the sphere has a corresponding point on the plane. In addition, if the axis is to be rotated to a point on the plane, it must be rotated through two angles in order to use the transformation relationships to calculate the new co-ordinates of the corner points of the plane. After the z axis is rotated through two angles to the point in question, the z co-ordinates of the corner points of the plane are compared with the radius of the sphere from the previous program to determine which corner points are above the plane and horizon intersections are calculated when they exist. The co-ordinates of the intersections are then transformed back to the original axes. The contour integration is then performed with the original axes.

A block diagram of the sphere-to-plane program, along with the Fortran program, follows.

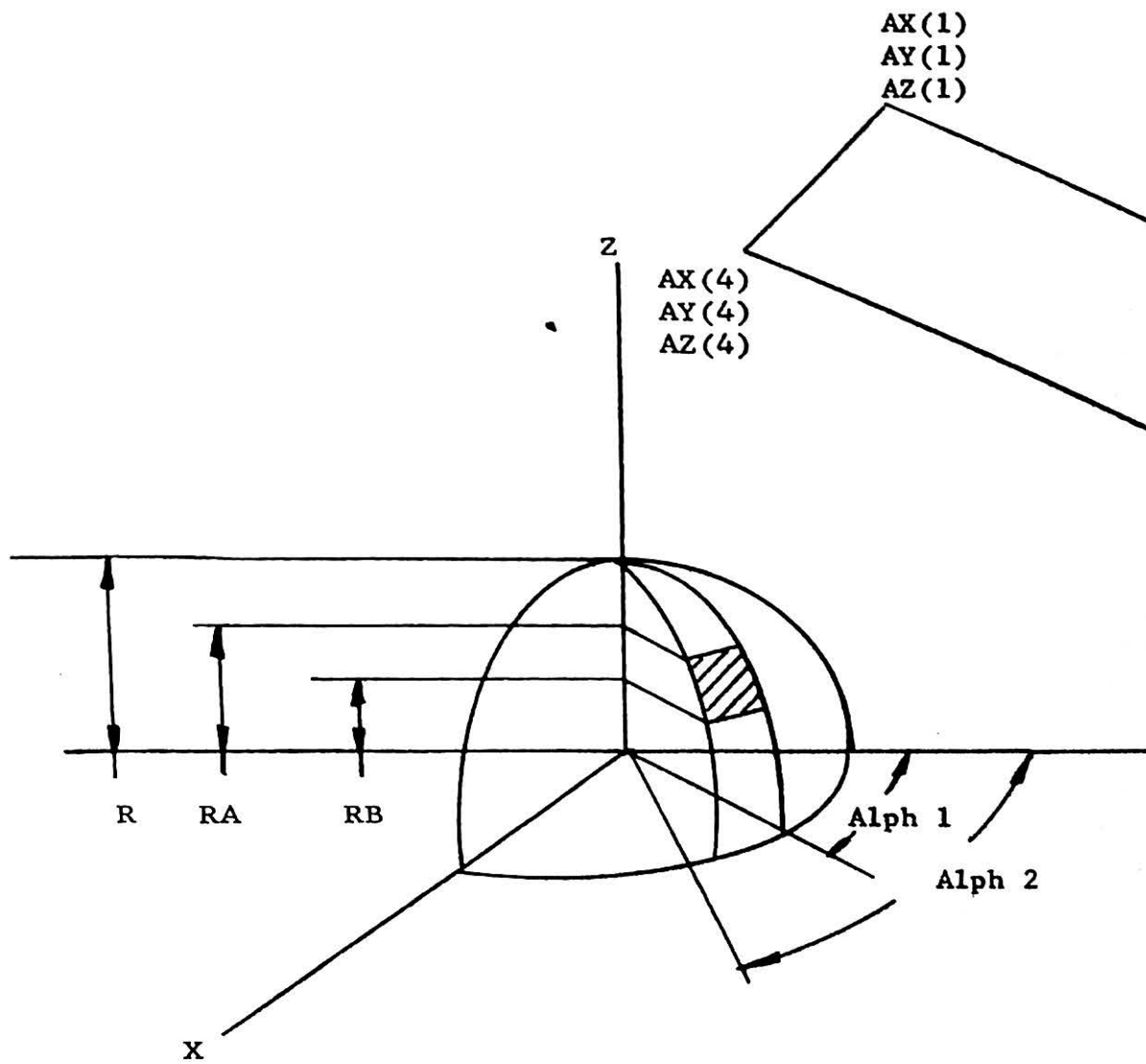


Fig. 9. Sphere-to-Plane Configuration

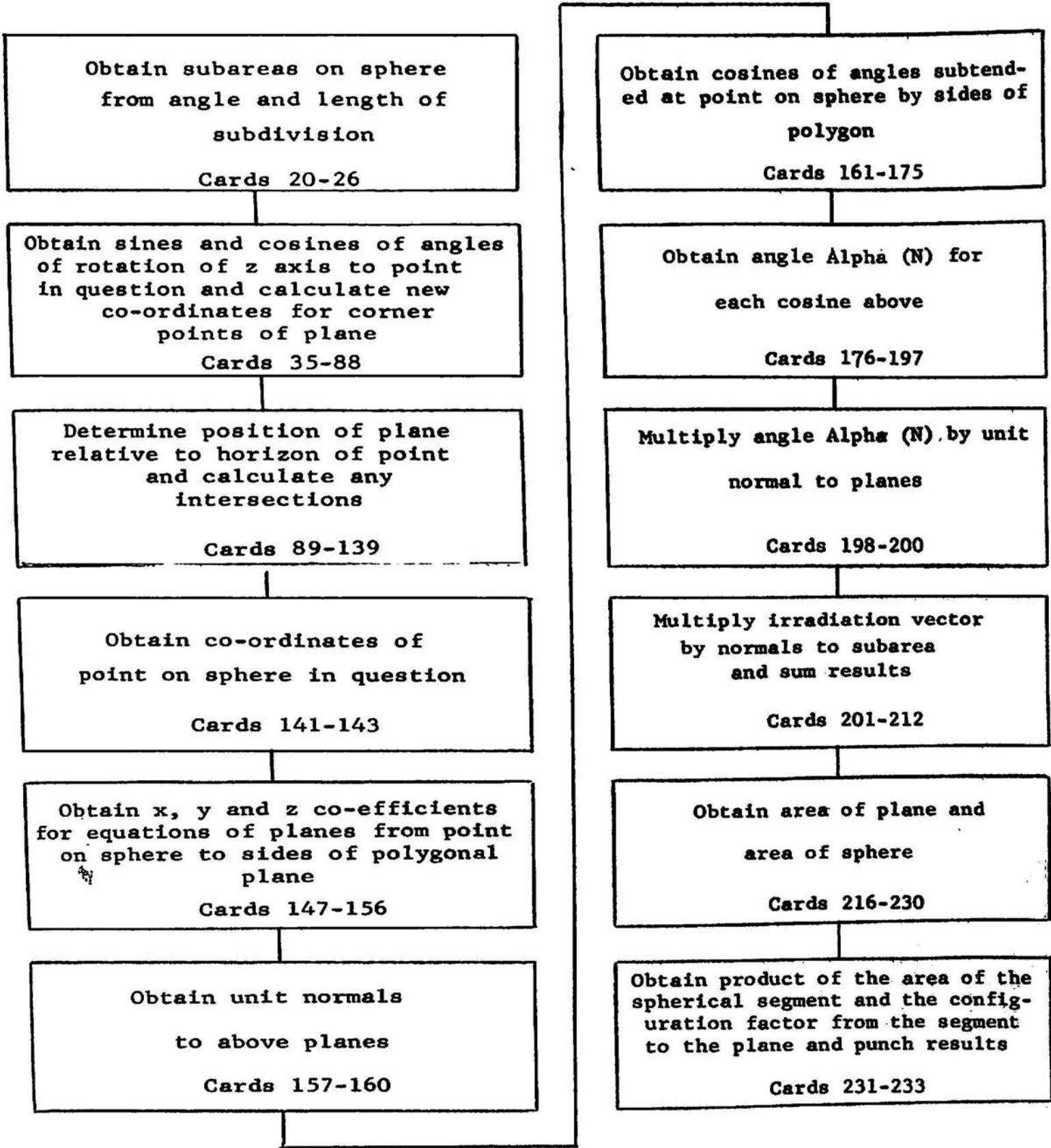


Fig. 10. Block Diagram of Sphere-to-Plane Program



TABLE III

## SPHERE-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

C 0000	0	RADIATION CONFIG HEMI PLANE	1	204	C	NA=NA+1	58
		DIMENSIONAR(5),AX(5),AY(5),AZ	2			GO TO 220	59
	1	(5),AYR(4),CSTHX(6),CSTHY(6),	3	202	0	ARGM=CON4	60
	2	CSTHZ(6)	4	210	0	VAR3=SINF(ARGM)	61
		DIMENSION AXRR(5),AYRR(5),AZ	5			VAR4=COSF(ARGM)	62
	1	RR(5),CX(6),CY(6),CZ(6),E(5,3)	6			GO TO (229,230,231,232,229,	63
	2	,CSS(5),ALPHA(5)	7			1 230,231,232,229,230),NA	64
	1	0 READ,PRONO,J2, AX(1),	8	229	0	VAR1=VAR3	65
	1	AY(1),AZ(1),AX(2)	9			VAR2=VAR4	66
		READ,AY(2),AZ(2),AX(3),AY(3),	10			GO TO 250	67
	1	AZ(3),AX(4),AY(4)	11	230	0	VAR1=VAR4	68
		READ,AZ(4),ALPH1,ALPH2,R,RA,RB	12			VAR2=-VAR3	69
		AN=J2	13			GO TO 250	70
		A0=1.5707879	14	231	0	VAR1=-VAR3	71
		A1=-.21412453	15			VAR2=-VAR4	72
		A2=.08466649	16			GO TO 250	73
		A3=-.03575663	17	232	0	VAR1=-VAR4	74
		A4=.00864884	18			VAR2=VAR3	75
C 0000	0	OBTAIN COORD MD PTS	19	250	0	GO TO (201,280),LN	76
		DELAL=((ALPH2-ALPH1)/AN)	20	280	0	SNTHR=VAR1	77
	1	*0.0174533	21			CSTHR=VAR2	78
		ALPH3=ALPH1*0.0174533-	22			TMP1=0.	79
	1	DELAL/2.0	23			TMP2=0.	80
		DELR=(RA-RB)/AN	24			TMP3=0.	81
		RC=RB-DELR/2.	25	601	0	DO 610 J=1,4	82
		CON1=RC	26			AYRR(J)=AYR(J)*CSTHR-AZ(J)*	83
C 0000	0	DETERMIN OF HORIZ INTERSECT	27			1 SNTHR	84
		G1=0.	28			AYRR(5)=AYRR(1)	85
		G2=0.	29	610	0	AZRR(J)=AZ(J)*CSTHR+	86
		G3=0.	30	610	1	AYR(J)*SNTHR	87
		AX(5)=AX(1)	31			AZRR(5)=AZRR(1)	88
		AY(5)=AY(1)	32			K=0	89
		AZ(5)=AZ(1)	33			DO 350 N=1,4	90
500	0	DO 672 M=1,J2	34			IF(AZRR(N)-R)310,320,330	91
		ALPH3=ALPH3+DELAL	35	310	0	IF(AZRR(N+1)-R)350,350,311	92
		ARGM=ALPH3	36	311	0	K=K+1	93
		LN=1	37			LA=0	94
		GO TO 200	38	312	0	YRR=(R-AZRR(N+1))*(AYRR(N)-	95
201	0	SNALR=VAR1	39			312 1 AYRR(N+1))/(AZRR(N)-AZRR(N+1))	96
		CSALR=VAR2	40	312	2	+AYRR(N+1)	97
505	0	DOSION=1.4	41			XRR=(R-AZRR(N+1))*(AXRR(N)-	98
		AXRR(N)=AX(N)*CSALR-AY(N)*	42			1 AXRR(N+1))/(AZRR(N)-AZRR(N+1))	99
	1	SNALR	43			2 +AXRR(N+1)	100
		AXRR(5)=AXRR(1)	44			YR=YRR+CSTHR*R*SNTHR	101
510	0	AYR(N)=AY(N)*CSALR+AX(N)*SNALR	45			K1=K+LA	102
		RC=CON1	46			CX(K1)=XRR*CSALR+YR*SNALR	103
600	0	DO 671 N1=1,J2	47			CY(K1)=YR*CSALR-XRR*SNALR	104
		RC=RC+DELR	48			CZ(K1)=R*CSTHR-YRR*SNTHR	105
		ARG=RC/R	49			IF(LA-1)350,330,311	106
			50	313	0	PAUSE 77777	107

TABLE III (Continued)

	GO TO 350	115	DO 650 I=1,K	172
	K=K+1	116	CSS(I)=CSTMX(I)*CSTMZ(I+1)+	173
323 0	CX(K)=AX(N)	117	1 CSTHY(I)*CSTHY(I+1)+CSTMZ(I)*	174
	CY(K)=AY(N)	118	2 CSTMZ(I+1)	175
	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	119	IF(CSS(I))1651,652,653	177
	CX(K+1)=AX(N+1)	120	651 0 IF(CSS(I)+1,1658,654,659	176
	CY(K+1)=AY(N+1)	121	653 0 IF(CSS(I)-1,1659,655,657	178
	CZ(K+1)=AZ(N+1)	122	652 0 ALPHA(I)=1.57079	179
	GO TO 350	123	GO TO 650	180
330 0	K=K+1	124	654 0 ALPHA(I)=3.14159	181
	IF(AZRR(N+1)-R)331,332,332	125	GO TO 650	182
331 0	CX(K)=AX(N)	126	655 0 ALPHA(I)=3.	183
	CY(K)=AY(N)	127	GO TO 650	184
	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	128	659 0 ARG=CSS(I)	185
	LA=1	129	LM=1	186
	GO TO 312	130	799 0 IF(ARG)800,802,802	187
334 0	K=K+1	131	800 0 LL=1	188
	GO TO 350	132	ARG=-ARG	189
332 0	CX(K)=AX(N)	133	GO TO 803	190
	CY(K)=AY(N)	134	802 0 LL=0	191
	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	135	803 0 PHI=ARG*(ARG*(ARG*(A4*ARG+	192
	CX(K+1)=AX(N+1)	136	803 1 A3)+A2)+A1)+AC	193
	CY(K+1)=AY(N+1)	137	PHI2=SQRT(1.-ARG)	194
	CZ(K+1)=AZ(N+1)	138	ANGLE=PHI*PHI2	195
350 0	CONTINUE	139	IF(LL-1)810,815,820	196
	IF(K-2)671,671,620	140	815 0 ANGLE=3.14159-ANGLE	197
620 0	BY=R*SNTHR*CSALR	141	GO TO 810	198
	BX=R*SNTHR*SNALR	142	820 0 PAUSE 9877	199
	BZ=R*CSTHR	143	810 0 IF(LM-1)840,850,860	200
	CX(K+1)=CX(I)	144	840 0 PAUSE 9887	201
	CY(K+1)=CY(I)	145	850 0 ALPHA(I)=ANGLE	202
	CZ(K+1)=CZ(I)	146	GO TO 650	203
	DO 640 I=1,K	147	658 0 IF(CSS(I)+1.0001)656,654,654	204
	E(I,1)=BY*(CZ(I)-CZ(I+1))+CY	148	657 0 IF(CSS(I)-1.0001)655,655,656	205
	1 (I)*(CZ(I+1)-BZ)+CY(I+1)*(BZ-	149	656 0 PAUSE 1111	206
	2 CZ(I)	150	650 0 CONTINUE	207
	E(I,2)=BZ*(CX(I)-CX(I+1))+CZ(I	151	DO 660 I=1,K	208
	1 I)*(CX(I+1)-BX)+CZ(I+1)*(BX-	152	DO 660 J=1,3	209
	2 CX(I)	153	660 0 E(I,J)=E(I,J)*ALPHA(I)	210
	E(I,3)=BX*(CY(I)-CY(I+1))+CX(I	154	DO 665 I=1,K	211
	1 I)*(CY(I+1)-BY)+CX(I+1)*(BY-	155	TMP1=E(I,1)+TMP1	212
	2 CY(I)	156	TMP2=E(I,2)+TMP2	213
	AR(I)=SQRT(E(I,1)*E(I,1)+E(I	157	TMP3=E(I,3)+TMP3	214
	1,2)*E(I,2)+E(I,3)*E(I,3))	158	TEMP=SQRT((TMP1*TMP1+TMP2*	215
	DO 630 J=1,3	159	1 TMP2+TMP3*TMP3)*(BX*BX+BY*BY	216
630 0	E(I,J)=E(I,J)/AR(I)	160	2 +BZ*BZ)	217
	DELX=BX-CX(I)	161	CSGMA=(TMP1*BX+TMP2*BY	218
	DELY=BY-CY(I)	162	1 +TMP3*BZ)/TEMP	219
	DELZ=BZ-CZ(I)	163	G1=TMP1*CSGMA+G1	220

TABLE III (Continued)

	DELZ=AZ(2)-AZ(1)	229
	SIDE1=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*DEL	230
1	Y+DELZ*DELZ)	231
	DELX=AX(3)-AX(2)	232
	DELY=AY(3)-AY(2)	233
	DELZ=AZ(3)-AZ(2)	234
	SIDE2=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*DEL	235
1	Y+DELZ*DELZ)	236
	AREAA=SIDE1*SIDE2	237
C 0000 0	AREA OF HEMISPHERE	238
	AREAB=.017453*R*(ALPH2-ALPH1)	239
1	*(RA-RB)	240
	AAGAB=S1*AREAB/(AN*AN*6.28318)	241
	PUNCH,PRONO ,AREAA,AREAB,	242
1	AAGAB	243
	GO TO 1	244
	END	245

## CHAPTER VIII

### CONE-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

The cone in this program can be a full cone, a frustrum, or a segment of a frustrum of a cone. The axis of the cone is on the x-y plane. The segment of the cone is defined, as in the previous programs, by the angle  $(\text{Alph } 2 - \text{Alph } 1)$ . The intersection of the conical surface with the x-y axis is designated as AH, and the height of the cone is designated as BH. The base of the cone is always on the x-y plane. The radius of the base is designated as R (see Fig. 12). The plane is defined, as in the previous programs, by the cyclic co-ordinates of the corner points. The cone-to-plane program differs somewhat from the preceding two programs for curved surfaces. One of the differences arises due to the fact that each subdivision on the cone does not have the same area. In the preceding programs, the  $dA$  term in equation (3.27) was removed from the summation since the surface was divided into equal subareas. On the conical surface, however, each subdivision becomes smaller in area as the program proceeds toward the apex of the cone. As a result, the  $dA$  term cannot be removed from the summation in equation (3.27). The area must be calculated for each subdivision. In addition to the method used to calculate the co-ordinates of the center point of each sub-area, a major difference occurs in the horizon decision. Since the conical surface does not present a constant radius

which to compare the co-ordinates of the corner points of the vector method was used to determine the plane's relative position to the horizon of the point.

The vector method is accomplished by first calculating the coordinates of the intersection point of a normal to the conical surface from the origin. A unit normal to the conical surface from the origin is then obtained. The x axis is then rotated so that the point on the conical surface is contained in the x-y plane. The x, y co-ordinates of the corner points of the plane are then calculated with respect to the new axes. A vector from the origin to each corner point is then obtained, and from the dot product of each vector so obtained and the unit normal to the conical surface, a horizon decision is made. Figure 11 shows a projection of plane ABCD on rotated x'-y' plane. The point in question will be on line GH and its horizon is the perpendicular to the page.

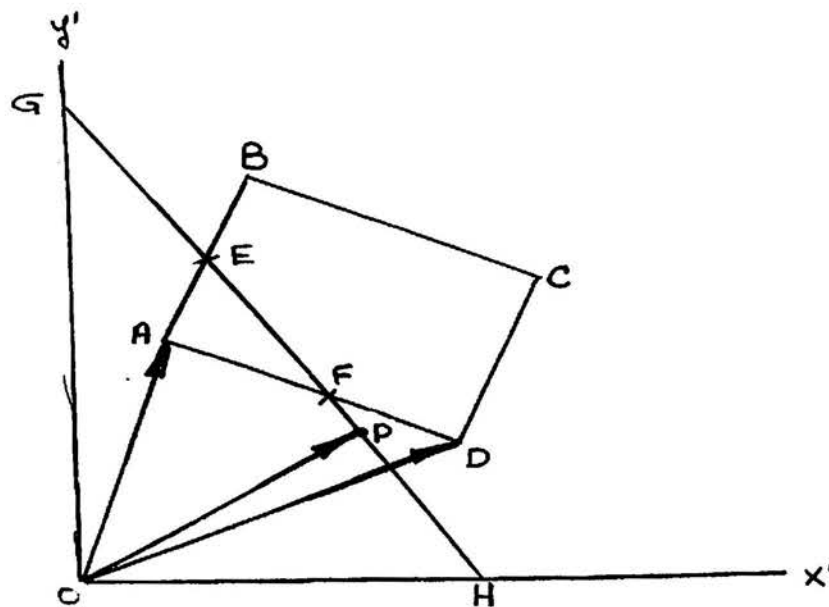


Fig. 11. Horizon Decision for Cone

If vector  $\vec{OD}$  is dotted with a unit vector along OP, the result will be greater than the magnitude of the unit vector, therefore, point D of the plane appears above the horizon of vector  $\vec{OA}$ . If vector  $\vec{OA}$  is dotted with the unit vector along OP, the magnitude of the result will be less than the magnitude of unit vector along OP, therefore, point A of the plane will be below the horizon of point P. The coordinates of the intersection F will then be calculated. The process is repeated for all four points ABCD of the plane, and the polygon EBCDF is formed. The area of polygon EBCDF is the area of ABCD that point P actually sees. The contour integration is then carried out for this polygon with reference to the original contour.

The block diagram and the Fortran program for cone-to-point observation factor follows.

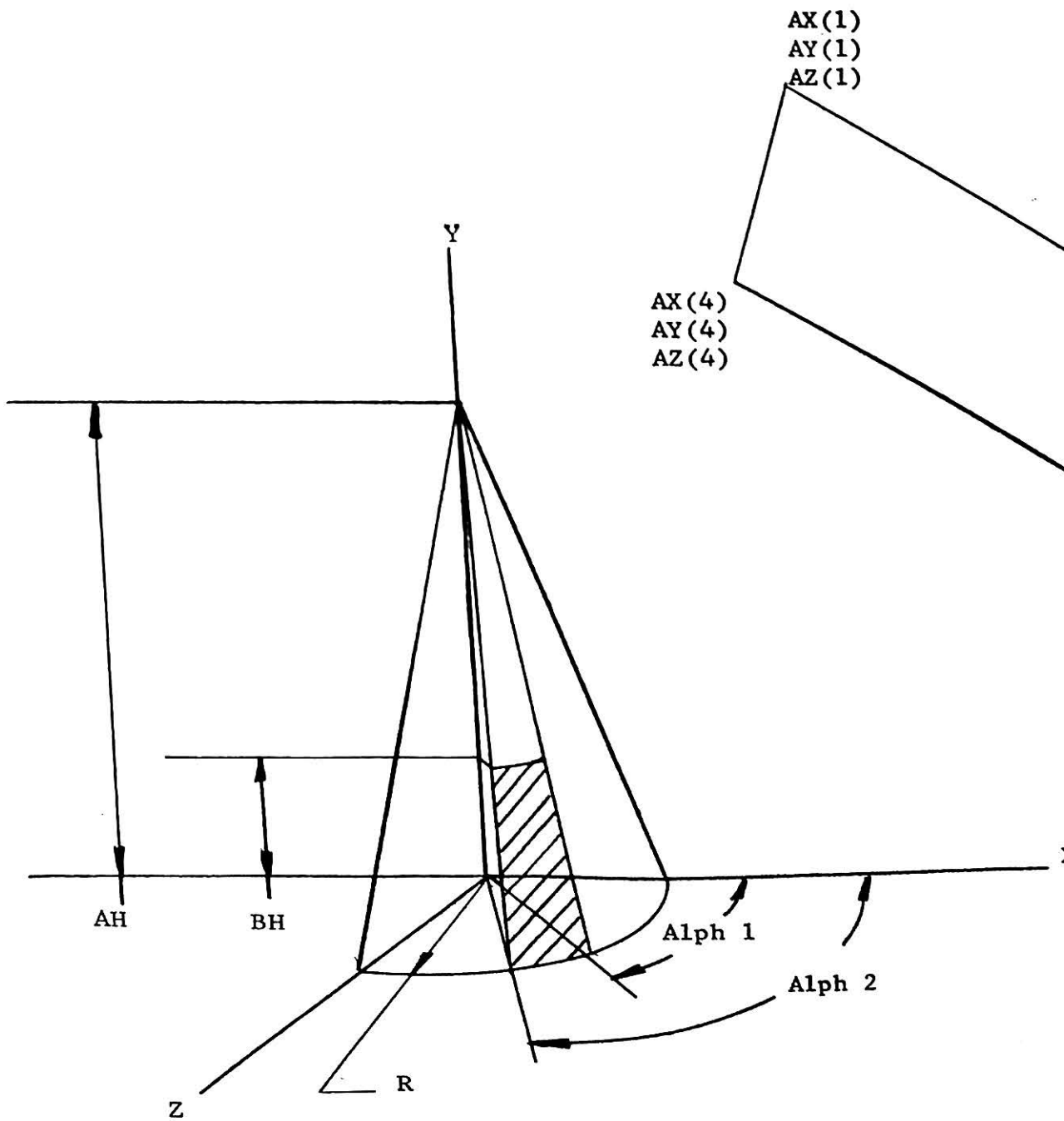


Fig. 12. Cone-to-Plane Configuration

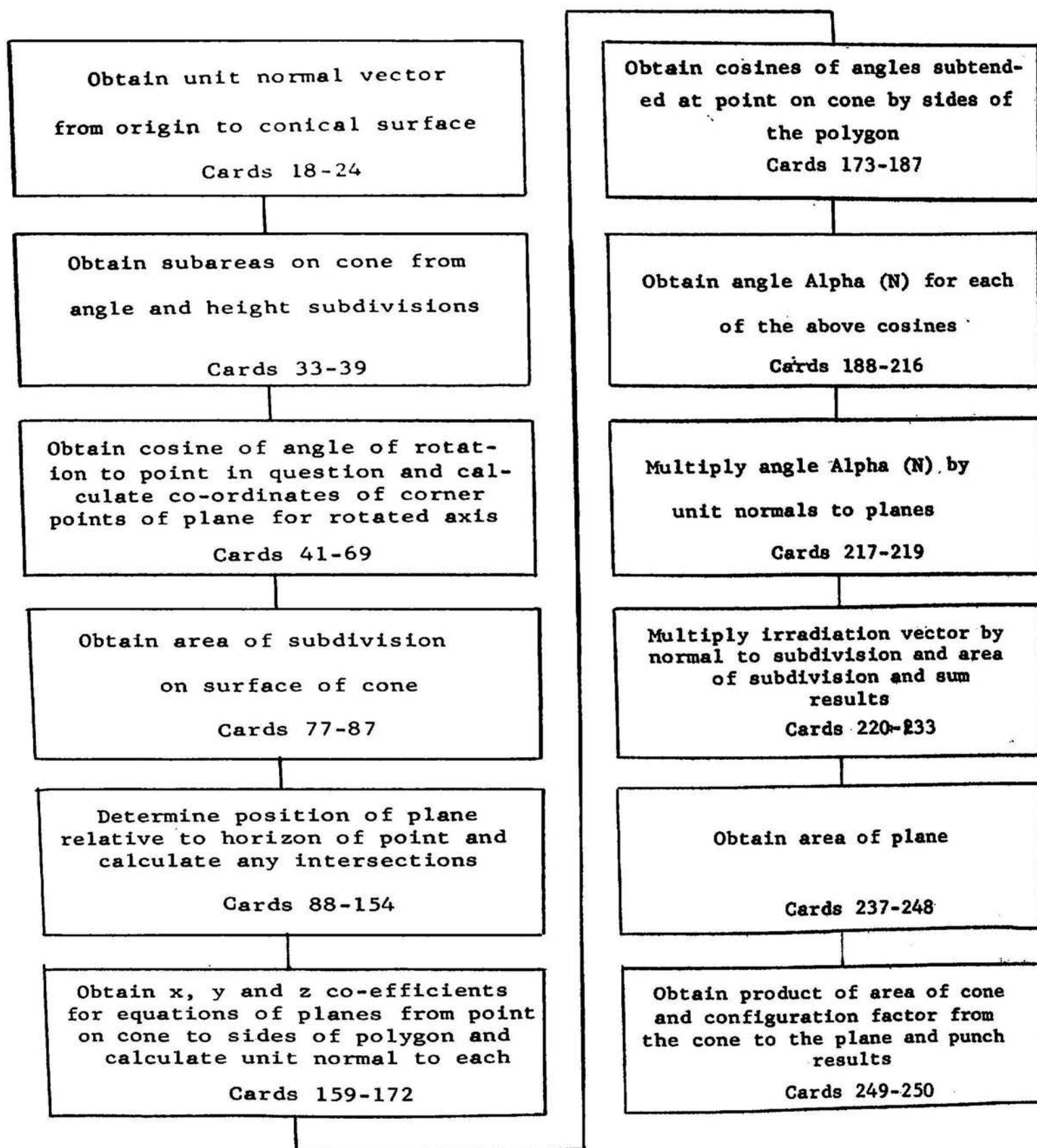


Fig. 13. Block Diagram of Cone-to-Plane Program



TABLE IV

CONE-TO-PLANE PROGRAM

C 0000	0	RAD CONFIG FAC CONE TO PLANE	1		CSALR=-VAP1	58	
		DIMENSIONAR(5),AX(5),AY(5),	2		GO TO 250	59	
	1	AZ(5),CSTHX(6),CSTHY(6),CSTHZ	3	231	0	SNALR=-VAP1	60
	2	(6),CSS(6),AXR(5),AZR(5)	4		CSALR=-VAP2	61	
		DIMENSIONCX(6),CY(6),CZ(6),	5		GO TO 250	62	
	1	E(5),3),ALPHA(5)	6	232	0	SNALR=-VAP2	63
	1	0	7		CSALR=VAP1	64	
	1	1	8	250	0	DO 510 N=1,4	65
		AY(1),AZ(1),AX(2)	9		AZR(N)=AZ(N)*C'ALP+AX(N)*C'NAL	66	
		READ,AY(2),AZ(2),AX(3),AY(3),	10	510	0	AXR(N)=AX(N)*C'ALP-AZ(N)*C'NAL	67
		AZ(3),AX(4),AY(4)	11		AXR(5)=AXR(1)	68	
		READ,AZ(4),ALPH1,ALPH2,R,AM,BH	12		AZR(5)=AZR(1)	69	
		AM=J2	13		RB=R	70	
		A0=1.5707879	14		AM2=C.	71	
		A1=-.21412453	15		BYC=-DELH/2.	72	
		A2=.08466649	16	600	0	DO 671 N1=1,J2	73
		A3=-.03575663	17		TMP1=C.	74	
		A4=.00864884	18		TMP2=C.	75	
C 0000	0	OBTAIN UNIT NORMAL VECTOR	19		TMP3=C.	76	
		PROD=AH*R/(R*R+AH*AH)	20		RB1=RB	77	
		XV=PROD*AH	21		BYC=BYC+DELH	78	
		YV=PROD*R	22		AM2=AM2+DELH	79	
		AMOD=SQRTF(XV*XV+YV*YV)	23		RC=R-TEMP1*BYC	80	
		ABAR=XV/AMOD	24		RB=R-TEMP1*AM2	81	
		BBAR=YV/AMOD	25		ANT2=RB1+RB	82	
C 0000	0	DETERMINATION OF HORIZON INTER	26		ANT3=SQRTF(DELH*DELH+(RB1-RB1)*	83	
		G1=0.	27	1	(RB1-RB1)	84	
		G2=0.	28		DAREA=ANT1*ANT2*ANT3	85	
		G3=0.	29		BX=RC*CSALR	86	
		AREAB=0.	30		BZ=RC*SNALR	87	
		AX(5)=AX(1)	31		K=0	88	
		AY(5)=AY(1)	32		DO 350 N=1,4	89	
		AZ(5)=AZ(1)	33		DOT=ABAR*AXR(N)+BBAR*AY(N)	90	
		DELAL=((ALPH2-ALPH1)/AM)	34		IF(DOT) 310,307,302	91	
	1	0.0174533	35	302	0	IF(DOT-AMOD)310,320,330	92
		ALPH3=ALPH1*0.0174533-	36	310	0	DOT=ABAR*AXR(N+1)+BBAR*AY(N+1)	93
	1	DELAL/2.0	37		IF(DOT)350,311,311	94	
		DELH=BH/AM	38	311	0	IF(DOT-AMOD)350,350,312	95
		TEMP1=R/H	39	312	0	K=K-1	96
		ANT1=0.5*DELAL	40		LB=0	97	
500	0	DO 672 N=1,J2	41	313	0	K1=K+LB	98
		ALPH3=ALPH3+DELAL	42		TEMP2=AXR(N+1)-AXR(N)	99	
		ARGH=ALPH3	43		SLP2=AH/R	100	
		NA=1	44		IF(TEMP2)400,401,400	101	
220	0	CON4=ARGH	45	400	0	SLP1=(AY(N+1)-Y(N))/TEMP2	102
		ARGH=ARGH-1.5707879	46		XR=(AH+AXR(N))*LP1-AY(N)/	103	
		IF(ARGH)202,207,204	47	1	(SLP1+SLP2)	104	
204	0	NA=NA+1	48		YR=AH-SLP2*XR	105	
		GO TO 220	49		ZR=1(XR-AXR(N))*(AZR(N+1)-	106	
202	0	ARGH=CON4					

TABLE IV (Continued)

	CY(K)=YR	115	530 0 E(I,J)=E(I,J)/P(I)	172
	CZ(K)=ZR*CSALR-XR*SNALR	116	DELX=Bx-CX(I)	173
316 0	IF(LB-11350,333,317	117	DELY=BYC-CY(I)	174
317 0	PAUSE 77777	118	DELZ=BZ-CZ(I)	175
320 0	DOT=ABAR*AXR(N+1)+BBAR*AY(N+1)	119	R1=SQRT(DELX*DELX+DELY*DELY	177
	IF(DOT)322,321,321	120	1 +DELZ*DELZ	176
321 0	IF(DOT-AMOD)322,323,325	121	CSTHX(I)=DELX/R1	178
322 0	K=K+1	122	CSTHY(I)=DELY/R1	179
	GO TO 350	123	640 0 CSTHZ(I)=DELZ/R1	180
323 0	LA=0	124	CSTHX(K+1)=CSTHX(I)	181
324 0	K=K+1	125	CSTHY(K+1)=CSTHY(I)	182
	CX(K)=AX(N)	126	CSTHZ(K+1)=CSTHZ(I)	183
	CY(K)=AY(N)	127	DO 650 I=1,K	184
	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	128	CSS(I)=CSTHX(I)*CSTHX(I)+	185
	IF(LA-11350,327,326	129	1 CSTHY(I)*CSTHY(I)+CSTHZ(I)*	186
326 0	PAUSE 87777	130	2 CSTHZ(I)+	187
327 0	CX(K+1)=AX(N+1)	131	IF(CSS(I))651,652,653	188
	CY(K+1)=AY(N+1)	132	651 0 IF(CSS(I))+1,1658,654,659	189
	CZ(K+1)=AZ(N+1)	133	653 0 IF(CSS(I))-1,1659,655,657	190
	GO TO 350	134	652 0 ALPHA(I)=1.57079	191
325 0	LA=1	135	GO TO 650	192
	GO TO 324	136	654 0 ALPHA(I)=3.14159	193
330 0	K=K+1	137	GO TO 650	194
	DOT=ABAR*AXR(N+1)+BBAR*AY(N+1)	138	655 0 ALPHA(I)=0.	195
	IF(DOT)331,332,332	139	GO TO 650	196
332 0	IF(DOT-AMOD)331,334,334	140	659 0 ARG=CSS(I)	197
331 0	CX(K)=AX(N)	141	799 0 IF(ARG)800,801,802	198
	CY(K)=AY(N)	142	800 0 LL=1	199
	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	143	ARG=-ARG	200
	LB=1	144	GO TO 803	201
	GO TO 313	145	801 0 PAUSE 9777	202
333 0	K=K+1	146	802 0 LL=0	203
	GO TO 350	147	803 0 PHI=ARG*(ARG*(ARG*(A4*ARG+	204
334 0	CX(K)=AX(N)	148	A3)+A2)+A1)+A0	205
	CY(K)=AY(N)	149	PHI2=SQRT(1.-ARG)	206
	CZ(K)=AZ(N)	150	ANGLE=PHI*PHI2	207
	CX(K+1)=AX(N+1)	151	IF(ILL-11810,815,820	208
	CY(K+1)=AY(N+1)	152	815 0 ANGLE=3.14159-ANGLE	209
	CZ(K+1)=AZ(N+1)	153	810 0 ALPHA(I)=ANGLE	210
350 0	CONTINUE	154	GO TO 650	211
	IF(K-2)670,670,620	155	820 0 PAUSE 9877	212
620 0	CX(K+1)=CX(I)	156	658 0 IF(CSS(I)+1.0001)656,654,654	213
	CY(K+1)=CY(I)	157	657 0 IF(CSS(I)-1.0001)655,655,656	214
	CZ(K+1)=CZ(I)	158	656 0 PAUSE 1111	215
	DO 640 I=1,K	159	650 0 CONTINUE	216
	E(I,1)=BYC*(CZ(I)-CZ(I+1))	160	DO 660 I=1,K	217
1	+CY(I)*(CZ(I+1)-BZ)+CY(I+1)*	161	DO 660 J=1,3	218
2	(BZ-CZ(I))	162	660 0 E(I,J)=E(I,J)*ALPHA(I)	219
	E(I,2)=BZ*(CX(I)-CX(I+1))	163	DO 665 I=1,K	220
	+CY(I)*(CX(I+1)-BX)+CZ(I+1)*	164	TMP1=E(I,1)+TMP1	221

TABLE IV (Continued)

	CSGMA=CON1+R*BYC/TEMP3	229
	G1=(TMP1*CSGMA)*DAREA+G1	230
	G2=TMP2*CSGMA*DAREA+G2	231
	G3=TMP3*CSGMA*DAREA+G3	232
670 0	AREAB=AREAB+DAREA	233
671 0	CONTINUE	234
672 0	CONTINUE	235
	S1=SQRTF(G1*G1+G2*G2+G3*G3)	236
C 0000 0	AREA OF PLANE	237
	DELX=AX(2)-AX(1)	238
	DELY=AY(2)-AY(1)	239
	DELZ=AZ(2)-AZ(1)	240
	SIDE1=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*	241
1	DELY+DELZ*DELZ)	242
	DELX=AX(3)-AX(2)	243
	DELY=AY(3)-AY(2)	244
	DELZ=AZ(3)-AZ(2)	245
	SIDE2=SQRTF(DELX*DELX+DELY*	246
1	DELY+DELZ*DELZ)	247
	AREAA=SIDE1*SIDE2	248
	AACAB=C1/4-38318	249

## CHAPTER IX

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to provide the means for determining the radiation configuration factor for various types of surfaces. Using contour integration theory, it was possible to eliminate the formidable task of evaluating the double integral in equation (1.6) for a configuration factor for two surfaces. With the use of vector calculus, equation (1.6) can be transformed into an easily evaluated contour integral.

The computer programs that were developed using the contour integration theory provided results with good accuracy. The difficulties obtained were checked with values obtained by the use of the double integral in equation (1.6). In reference (2) the author presents a set of tables and graphs giving configuration factors for various surface relationships obtained through the use of the integral in (1.6). The configuration factors were calculated with the programs presented in this report and checked with the results listed in the above reference. The results were in agreement for the configurations calculated. The cylinder-to-plane program was checked by comparing values obtained for the configuration factors of planes intersecting at finite angles, and parallel planes. The cylinder-to-plane program was checked also

with a configuration given for a line source parallel to a cylinder of equal length. Since the program will also calculate a configuration factor for a segment of a cylindrical surface, a configuration factor was calculated for a thin (approximately ten degrees) segment of a cylinder and a plane. The result was compared with the configuration factor obtained from the plane-to-plane program for a narrow strip and a larger parallel plane. The surfaces were so devised that the only difference in the surfaces for both programs was the slight curvature in the cylindrical segment. The results from the two programs compared favorably. The sphere-to-plane program was checked in the same way as the previous two programs. Since the tabulated configuration factors for spheres and planes in reference (2) was very limited, the program was further checked by describing a narrow strip on the surface of a sphere of large radius irradiating a parallel plane. Again the geometrical relationship between the spherical strip and the plane approximated the narrow strip and larger plane of the plane-to-plane program. The results again compared satisfactorily with the results of the previous two programs. The sphere-to-plane program was checked further by describing a full sphere and a plane in such a way that the plane represented one side of a cubical box enclosing the sphere. The answer to this particular configuration is known from logical considerations. If a sphere is located in the center of a cubical box, the energy reaching any side of the box would be exactly one-sixth of the total energy leaving the sphere, since all of the energy leaving the sphere will be intercepted equally on all sides of the enclosure. Even though the sphere was approximated by only one hundred points, (the

parameter J2 was given a value of ten) half of which cannot "see" the plane, the resulting configuration factor was very close to one-sixth. The cone-to-plane program was checked by describing a very tall cone with a small base. A frustrum of the cone closely approximated the cylinder used in the cylinder-to-plane program. The results obtained for the configuration compared very favorably with the data listed in reference (2) and the results obtained from the cylinder-to-plane program. The program was checked further by describing a narrow strip on the conical surface and a larger plane, the configuration approximating those used in checking the previous three programs. As was expected, the result was very close to being the same as for the similar configuration in the cylinder-to-plane program and compared favorably with the results obtained from the plane-to-plane and sphere-to-plane programs for that configuration.

For comparison purposes, some of the results obtained with the programs are presented in Table V, along with values obtained from reference (2). The parameter J2 is also listed. It was found during the program evaluation that a much larger value of J2 had a comparatively small effect when the surface that is subdivided is small in comparison to the other surface. The surfaces that are subdivided, as mentioned previously, are the B plane in the plane-to-plane program and the curved surfaces in the remaining programs. This fact can be utilized to save computer time when possible.

TABLE V  
COMPUTER PROGRAM RESULTS

Description of Configuration	J2	F <sub>1-2</sub>	Desired Result	Source of Result
1. Two planes each 30 by 30 intersecting at angle of:				
30°	3	.63968		
	6	.62579	.6202	Ref. 2
2. 60°	3	.37542		
	6	.37255	.3712	"
3. 90°	3	.19918		
	6	.19983	.20004	"
4. 120°	3	.08493		
	6	.08615	.08700	"
5. 150°	3	.02666		
	6	.02112	.02151	"
6. Two parallel 30 by 30 planes 30 units apart				
	3	.20326		
	6	.20006	.19982	"
7. Narrow strip 0.16 by 30 and parallel plane 30 by 60				
	3	.48721	Not available	
8. Narrow strip 0.16 by 30 and plane 30 by 60 per- pendicular to one end				
	3	.21648	Not available	

TABLE V(Continued)

Description of Configuration	J2	F <sub>1-2</sub>	Desired Result
9. Full cylinder and narrow parallel plane	10	.19480	0.200
10. Narrow cylindrical segment and parallel plane 30 by 60	3	.47099	.48721
11. Narrow cylindrical segment and plane 30 by 60 perpendicular to one end	3	.21460	.21648
12. Full sphere and one side of cubical enclosure	10	.16454	.16667
13. Narrow spherical strip and parallel 30 by 60 plane	3	.47052	.47099
14. Narrow spherical strip and 30 by 60 plane perpendicular to one end	3	.21566	.21460
15. Narrow conical strip and parallel 30 by 60 plane	3	.47102	.47099
16. Narrow conical strip and 30 by 60 plane perpendicular to one end	3	.21062	.21460
17. Frustrum of full cone and narrow parallel strip	10	.19602	.19480



CHAPTER X

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

The programs presented in this report detail a method by which the configuration factor can be calculated between two surfaces with an electronic computer. In the last three programs, curved surfaces were presented containing areas that could not "see" the second surface, and a horizon decision had to be made for each point on the curved surface. If only a portion of the plane could be seen, it was a fairly simple matter to calculate the intersection points. If the second surface is another curved surface rather than a flat plane, complications rapidly become apparent. For example, consider a simplified case of two cylinders with parallel axes. It becomes more complicated to obtain the visible portion of the second cylinder from any given point on the first cylinder. In addition, the given point no longer "sees" a polygonal surface. The ends of the cylinder will be seen as a portion of an ellipse or as a full ellipse. The irradiation vectors at the given point will no longer be collinear. The integral in equation (3.22) is no longer an ordinary scalar one. A program was developed for two parallel cylinders with the above factors considered, but it exceeded the capacity of the computer and could not be checked. The program evaluated the integral in (3.22) numerically, and used the vector method in the horizon decision. By the

use of the vector horizon decision method and a numerical method of evaluating the integral (3.22), the theory of contour integration can be extended to develop programs covering a large amount of surfaces more complicated than developed in this report.

The programs are limited to calculating the configuration factor for diffuse surfaces where the intensity is independent of the angle from normal, more commonly referred to as Lambert radiators. Many engineering materials do not radiate as Lambert radiators. This fact can be taken into consideration in the calculation of the configuration factor by a modification to the programs. If the intensity can be expressed as a function to the angle from the normal to the surface, it would be possible to incorporate the necessary changes in the programs to accommodate non-Lambertian radiators.

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## APPENDIX A

### VECTOR IDENTITY

The vector identity used in Chapter III in the mathematical derivation of the contour integral (footnote 1) will now be shown to be true. The identity is

$$\frac{\vec{r}_1}{r^2} (\vec{N} \cdot \vec{r}_1) = \frac{1}{2} \text{curl} \left( \frac{\vec{r}_1}{r} \times \vec{N} \right) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where  $\vec{r}_1$  = unit vector along  $r$   
 $r$  = magnitude of vector  $r$   
 $\vec{N}$  = arbitrary unit vector

The expansion of the vector cross product in equation (A-1) yields

$$\frac{\vec{r}_1}{r} \times \vec{N} = \frac{1}{r} (r_y N_z - r_z N_y) \mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{r} (r_z N_x - r_x N_z) \mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{r} (r_x N_y - r_y N_x) \mathbf{k} \quad (\text{A.2})$$

Where the subscripts denote the x, y, and z components of the respective unit vectors. Unit vector  $\vec{r}_1$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{r}_1 &= r_x \mathbf{i} + r_y \mathbf{j} + r_z \mathbf{k} \\ \text{or} \quad \vec{r}_1 &= \frac{x}{r} \mathbf{i} + \frac{y}{r} \mathbf{j} + \frac{z}{r} \mathbf{k} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.3})$$

where x, y, and z are the components of vector r. Using the relation (A.3) in equation (A.2) and obtaining the curl indicated in (A.1), the result is

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{curl} \left( \frac{\vec{r}_1}{r} \times \vec{N} \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{x}{r^2} N_y - \frac{y}{r^2} N_x \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{z}{r^2} N_x - \frac{x}{r^2} N_z \right) i \\
&+ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( \frac{y}{r^2} N_z - \frac{z}{r^2} N_y \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{x}{r^2} N_y - \frac{y}{r^2} N_x \right) j \\
&+ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{z}{r^2} N_x - \frac{x}{r^2} N_z \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{y}{r^2} N_z - \frac{z}{r^2} N_y \right) k \quad (\text{A.4})
\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\vec{N}$  was defined as an arbitrary unit vector it is constant with respect to the differentiation. Performing the differentiation in equation (A.4) and simplifying, the result is

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{2} \text{curl} \left( \frac{\vec{r}_1}{r} \times \vec{N} \right) &= - \left( \frac{x^2 N_x}{r^4} + \frac{xy N_y}{r^4} + \frac{xz N_z}{r^4} \right) i \\
&- \left( \frac{xy N_x}{r^4} + \frac{y^2 N_y}{r^4} + \frac{yz N_z}{r^4} \right) j \\
&- \left( \frac{xz N_x}{r^4} + \frac{yz N_y}{r^4} + \frac{z^2 N_z}{r^4} \right) k \quad (\text{A.5})
\end{aligned}$$

The left hand side of equation (A.1) when expanded yields

$$\frac{\vec{r}_1}{r^2} \left( \vec{N} \cdot \vec{r}_1 \right) = \frac{1}{r^2} \left( \frac{x}{r} i + \frac{y}{r} j + \frac{z}{r} k \right) \left( N_x \frac{x}{r} + N_y \frac{y}{r} + N_z \frac{z}{r} \right) \quad (\text{A.6})$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\vec{r}_1}{r^2} \left( \vec{N} \cdot \vec{r}_1 \right) &= \frac{1}{r^4} \left( x^2 N_x + xy N_y + xz N_z \right) i \\
&+ \frac{1}{r^4} \left( xy N_x + y^2 N_y + yz N_z \right) j \\
&+ \frac{1}{r^4} \left( xz N_x + yz N_y + z^2 N_z \right) k \quad (\text{A.7})
\end{aligned}$$

The minus sign in equation (A.4) will disappear due to the direction taken for vector  $\vec{r}_1$ . Vector  $\vec{r}_1$  was taken as a vector pointing from the variable point on the surface S toward the fixed point P rather than in the usual opposite sense.

## APPENDIX B

### CORRELATION BETWEEN RADIATION AND ILLUMINATION

Much of the theory involved in the derivation of the contour integration method of calculating configuration factors has its background in illuminating engineering. Since light is merely radiant energy with wave lengths in the visible portion of the frequency spectrum, the theoretical considerations are identical. The only difference in the energy flux considered in the field of illumination and the energy flux considered in the field of radiation heat transfer is the wave length, or the frequency range in which the radiant energy lies.

An illuminating engineer is more concerned with the visual effect produced when a ray of energy strikes a surface, whereas a heat transfer engineer would be interested in the temperature effect due to the ray. As a result of this difference in interest, the units and definitions used in the two fields are not, in most cases, directly applicable to both fields.

A ray of radiant energy incident on a surface appears the same to the surface regardless of whether or not it is in the visible frequency range. The only difference can occur in the magnitude of the effect on the surface. An illuminating engineer is interested in the luminous flux rather than the radiant flux striking the surface. Luminous flux is only that part of the radiant flux that invokes a sensation to the eye. Since

the eye can detect a difference in brightness, color, and saturation, or paleness of the color, an illuminating engineer needs three quantities with which to calculate the visual effects in which he is interested. In contrast, the heat transfer engineer, in most cases, is mainly interested in only one quantity - the total energy absorbed by the surface. The tools of the illuminating engineer - the equations and mathematical formulas - are more often expressed in terms of luminous flux or photometric quantities. A correlation exists, therefore, between the quantities associated with heat transfer calculations and illumination calculations. The range of wavelengths considered for heat transfer calculations is much greater than the visible spectrum. With the exception of luminous efficiencies and some specialized quantities existing in one field only, the correspondence between the quantities used in the two fields is presented in Table VI.



TABLE VI

## CORRELATION BETWEEN RADIATION AND ILLUMINATION QUANTITIES

HEAT TRANSFER QUANTITY			PHOTOMETRIC QUANTITY		
Quantity	Symbol	Unit	Quantity	Symbol	Unit
Radiant Energy	Q	BTU	Light	Q	Lumen-Sec
Radiant Flux	$\phi$	$\frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{Hr}}$	Luminous Flux	F	Lumen
Total Emissive Power E		Hr. $\frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{Sq. Ft.}}$	Luminosity	L	$\frac{\text{Lumen}}{\text{Sq. Ft.}}$
Irradiation	G	Hr. $\frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{Sq. Ft.}}$	Illumination	E	$\frac{\text{Lumen}}{\text{Sq. Ft.}}$
Intensity	I	Hr. $\frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{Sq. Ft.}} - \text{Steradian}$	Intensity	I	$\frac{\text{Lumen}}{\text{Steradian}}$

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