

School of Architecture The University of Sheffield

United Kingdom

Climatic Effects on School Buildings

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Methods of Optimising the Energy Performance of School Buildings in the Different Climatic Regions of Iran

Thesis Submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Architecture

By

Dedication

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Dedication:

This thesis is dedication to the following:

- The almighty God
- My father and my mother

• My wife, Souzan and my son, Shahab

Acknowledgement

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Acknowledgement

I am forever indebted to the almighty God, who has given me the wisdom, health and fortitude to attain this height in my educational and career pursuit.

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their patience and useful help during the years of my study.

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Abstract

Since the 1970s, over a thirty-year period, awareness of the limitation in fossil fuel reserves has been increased steadily and international attention has been given to an energy conservative way of life.

Like many developing countries, today Iran is beset with serious energy supply

difficulties. The main issues are the rapid increase in energy demand/cost, air pollution caused by over use of fossil fuels (usually used in buildings for heating purposes), the limitation of fossil fuel resources and the difficulties in the transportation and distribution of fossil fuel especially in winter around the country. Therefore, it is crucial to adopt a new strategy for sustainable energy use and to consider the application of renewable energy technologies in the design of buildings. Solar energy is one of the most significant and technically exploitable renewable energy resources available in Iran. This needs to be taken into account seriously, regarding both economical and environmental problems in that country.

Since school buildings in Iran are one of the major consumes of energy for heating, cooling and lighting purposes and according to their inappropriate current design from the energy efficiency point of view, this study has been performed with the aim of developing methods of optimising the energy performance of school buildings in Iran and promoting low energy architecture in the design of these buildings in different climatic regions of Iran.

For this purpose, first the Iranian climatic has been reviewed and appropriate classification was presented. Since solar radiation data have not been calculated in Iran so far, there was a need for a precise calculation of solar radiation for each and every city in order to better exploit the benefits of solar energy for the future of this country. Therefore, the method of calculation of solar radiation in different cities of Iran based on European Solar Atlas and Islamic Republic of Iran Meteorological Organisation's statistics was presented and a spreadsheet excel program was developed for the calculation of solar radiation data of 152 cities of Iran. A comparison has been made between the excel program and Meteonorm. The result

A

showed that the excel program data were more useful in that they were more precise and much more reliable compared to Meteonorm data for Iran. Also, based on solar radiation data another excel program (based on the admittance method) was developed for the calculation of heating, cooling and lighting energy use of buildings in Iran. By using this program the effect of window design on the thermal performance of school buildings and the response of walls and roofs to solar radiation was investigated in hot climates. Substantial saving in the annual running cost of

school buildings as much as 14% was achieved under appropriate window arrangement.

In order to explore the problems of existing design, a case study has been performed on current schools design in Iran and the energy use of these schools was analysed.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Chapter 1

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Introduction

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11 * Background

Before 1973, little action was taken toward a conservative use of energy. With the rapid escalation of energy prices beginning in 1973, and the continuous increase since then, international attention has been given to an energy conservative way of life. The problem of energy use and availability is common to a greater or lesser extent throughout the world. While the industrialized nations depend heavily upon fossil fuels for their industrial processes, the developing nations also desire to increase their

technological capabilities and thus the use of energy in its various forms. The last 50 years have seen a fivefold increase in world energy use partly as a result of the availability of easily extractable fossil fuels (coal, gas and oil) and awareness of the limited nature of these reserves has existed since the 1970s. Although it is unlikely that the world will completely run out of fossil fuels in the this millennium, the majority of easily extractable reserves are located in a small part of the world and the price of fuels will therefore increase.

Depending on the level of industrial activity, a country uses about 30 to 35 percent of its total energy consumption in buildings. Of this amount, about 60 percent is used for heating and air conditioning. This means that of the total energy consumption,

about 20 percent is used in building space heating and air conditioning. Burning fossil fuel is the most important source of providing energy in a building. One of the most serious complications of burning fossil fuel is the release of $CO₂$. The last 70 years have seen a 10% rise in atmospheric levels of $CO₂$ and at the same time global temperatures have risen by 0.2° C. The burning the fossil fuels is thought to account for half the global warming in the world through the greenhouse effect. Fossil fuels are too precious to burn; they should be used wisely and not wastefully and not for the purpose of cooling or heating, etc. it must be stressed that the world's

fossil fuel energy is limited by geological conditions. We are living in period where energy demands must be reduced through any means available. These should include; conservation of energy, employment of renewable energy, energy-conscious planning and design of buildings. Therefore the renewable energies should be the primary 21st Century energy source because it is free and exists all around us waiting to be exploited.

Solar energy is a renewable resource, which can make a useful contribution to the heating and lighting of buildings, and has an important role to play for sustainable development. We get a lot of sunshine, which if properly controlled, can help to reduce a buildings energy bills. Solar energy is also a non-polluting source of energy. Thus its effective utilisation helps to reduce emissions of carbon dioxide and other gases resulting from the use of fossil fuels.

Every building has some of its heating requirements met by solar energy. Sunlight

passing through windows is a source of heat; but most buildings are not specifically designed to utilise solar energy. The value of passive solar heating is enhanced by proper building insulation. A well insulated building requires less energy for heating; and thus much of the heating load can be met by passive solar features. Insulation, like passive solar features, can often be incorporated into new building designs with little increase in construction costs.

Actions to improve building thermal efficiency could result in great energy savings, both for cooling and especially for heating, are through building envelope components (i.e., ceilings, walls, floors and glazing). Therefore, among all efforts to improve building thermal efficiency, application of thermal insulation in opaque components of building envelopes is the most effective and important one. By the installation of thermal insulation in building envelope components, in addition to a reduction of space heating and cooling costs on a long-term basis, other benefits such as occupant comfort and smaller capacity requirements for heating and cooling systems would be realised. Because of the considerable savings in the operating costs of a system and savings in initial costs, insulation pays back its investment in a short period of time.

The total number of school buildings in Iran in the year 2001 is almost 133,210. Since fossil fuels are cheap and plentiful in Iran, the energy consumption for heating, cooling and lighting of school building is dependent on these fuels and renewable energy has not yet been used. As a result of air pollution in Iran and with the aim of reducing the energy consumption of school buildings, the Iranian government has adopted a new strategy for sustainable energy use. They identified solar energy as an important non-polluting and renewable energy source. By making effective use of this

we can limit environmental damage, conserve our fossil fuel reserves and save money.

This study describes the methods of optimising the energy performance of school buildings in the different climatic regions of Iran. It is largely aimed at the architects and engineers involved in the design of school buildings. It will also be of interest to building managers because it gives some idea of the various remodelling options.

12 * Scope of the Problem

The current designs of school buildings in Iran are not energy efficient. One of the reasons for this could be the use of inappropriate glazing-ratios and the materials used in the construction of walls and roofs have little or no thermal insulation.

One of the major problems of the developing countries such as Iran is the lack of knowledge about new technologies in using renewable energy. Therefore, the keys to improved building energy efficiency in the future are to learn and apply these efficient technologies.

One of the simplest methods of doing this is to make use of solar energy as a supplement to the heating and lighting requirements of buildings. This aspect forms a major part of this study.

The transportation and distribution of fossil fuels especially during winter is one of the other problems that the government is now facing in Iran. This also supports the use of renewable sources of energy such as solar energy.

$1₃$ * Hypothesis

Solar energy can be used to contribute to the energy requirement in educational buildings in different climatic regions of Iran.

14 * Aims and Objectives

This study aims to promote low energy architecture in order to improve the design and construction of new and existing school buildings in Iran. It also aims to develop

methods of optimising the energy performance of school buildings in the different climatic regions of Iran.

The objectives of this study are as follow:

- 1) Reducing the use of fossil fuels as a heating resource. This will also affect the following:
- Reducing air pollution due to the consumption of fossil fuels.
- Controlling the current rising of global warming and reducing the adverse environmental impacts of burning fossil fuels as a main source of energy in the world.
- Conservation of energy, employment of renewable energies and environmental sustainability.
- Implementation of solar energy as a natural, cheap and clean source.
- 2) Suggesting an energy-conscious design for school buildings with the aim of reducing the energy costs of heating, cooling and lighting.

- 3). To develop a computer program for calculation of solar radiation in Iran.
- 4) To develop a computer program that facilitates the mathematical computations of heating, cooling and lighting and performs economic analyses.
- 5) Providing new design guidelines for energy efficient school design in Iran.

15 * Methodology

Firstly, a review has been performed on the Iranian climate. Secondly, the history of energy use in the world as well as Iran has been analysed and renewable energy technologies reviewed. By using Islamic Republic of Iran Meteorological Organisation statistics, a solar radiation computation for different cities of Iran has been carried out and an Excel spreadsheet program was designed with the aim of calculating solar radiation for Iranian cities. Then another excel program was developed for the calculation of heating, cooling and lighting energy consumption of buildings in Iran. By using this program the effect of window design on the thermal 5

performance of the buildings has been studied. Also, the response of other building elements (walls, roofs and etc.) to solar radiation was investigated. Finally, a case study has been performed on current schools design in Iran and the energy use of these schools was analysed.

$16 *$ Thesis Structure

Chapter One: Chapter one contains the introduction. It gives a background to the issues. It also includes a descriptive introduction to the scope of the problem, rational, aims, objectives, methodology, and the thesis structure.

This section provides a guide to this thesis. This thesis consists of ten chapters and

appendices, which can be summarised as follows:

Chapter Two: The climatic characteristics of a region have an important impact on different aspects of a building. In many regions of Iran we obtain a lot of sunshine, which if properly used, will help to save a considerable amount of energy. This chapter contains general information about the geography of Iran. Also the climate of Iran is classified into 8 main groups. Then, the characteristics of each climatic group and its subgroups are described in detail.

Chapter Three: The analysis of the history of energy use in the world as well as Iran and a review of renewable energy technologies is dealt with in chapter three. This chapter reviews the potential of some of the major mature renewable energy technologies.

Chapter Four: Solar energy is one of the most important renewable energy sources in the world. Solar radiation data are the best source of information that is related to solar energy besides other meteorological measurements. These data have not been calculated in Iran so far. Therefore, this chapter contains the method of calculation for solar radiation in different cities of Iran and a designed excel sheet program for Iran.

Chapter Five: This chapter reviews the requirements for lighting in schools with the aim of suggesting appropriate levels and glazing ratios for natural lighting.

Chapter Six: In order to calculate the energy requirements of school buildings in Iran for heating, cooling and lighting it is necessary to use a thermal simulation programme. This chapter considers the development of a simulation programme based on the admittance method and the development of a daylighting/ artificial lighting programme. These programmes use the climatic information outlined in chapter 2 along solar radiation outlined in chapter 4 and lighting outlined in chapter 5 in an integrated excel spreadsheet.

Chapter Seven: The choice of fenestration for a building can significantly affect its thermal performance. The energy performance dependence of the reference school on its fenestration design is analysed in chapter seven. The accuracy of simple graphical methods, e.g. the Olgyay method, for estimating the size of fixed external shading devices is also investigated.

Chapter Eight: This chapter reviews the history of educational system and the structure of education in Iran. A case study is performed on the current school design in different climatic regions of Iran with the aim of exploring the problems of current designs and suggesting some advice on how to solve these problems.

Chapter Nine: Chapter nine contains the summary of the work carried out in the research, the contribution the research has made to knowledge and the conclusions derived from this research, including the limitations, recommendation and suggestions for future research.

Appendices: The last section of this thesis contains additional information relevant to this research. It is deemed that this research will not only serve the research and development fraternities, but also make such a factual and valuable knowledge accessible to all members of the construction profession and architecture.

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Climate of Iran

Chapter 2

Climate of Iran

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2* Climate of Iran

$2₁ * Introduction$

The climatic characteristics of a region have an important impact on different aspects of a building. In order to increase the life expectancy of building, to have a better quality of comfort and life in the indoor spaces and to save more energy it is crucial to consider these characteristics in the design of buildings, especially in the $21st$ century using solar energy as a renewable resource and decreasing the fossil fuel consumption and air pollution are really crucial for a clean environment.

The main reasons of the wide variability in different regions of Iran are as follow:

- The difference of latitude between the northest areas and southest one is about 15°.
- More than 2500 metres difference between the highest and lowest altitude in these areas.
- The high mountains of Alborz in the north and Zagros extending from north-west to south-east of Iran.
- The Caspian Sea located in the north limit and Oman Sea and Persian Golf

in the south limit of Iran.

According to the wide variation of climate in Iran, it is necessary to predict a specific type of building and landscape in every climatic region. This type of buildings will benefit from the natural source energy (solar energy, wind and etc.) in their environment. Also, these buildings located in some region of Iran, will be comfortable to live without using fossil fuels and mechanical heating and cooling systems.

$2₂$ * Climate and Building

Of all the factors and elements affecting the built environment in any part of the

world, climate seems to be the most significant. Depending on the location, buildings either need to be heated or cooled to maintain comfortable indoor conditions. In the tropical zone, which is the hottest climatic belt in the world, the main problem is how

to maintain comfortable indoor climate by cooling, either passively or mechanically.

In the hot dry and semiarid climates the heat is even more intense and therefore there

is an even greater need for evolving an architectural philosophy that can effectively cope with the stress of the climate.

Responsiveness to climate has almost become synonymous with responsiveness to the sun, which is quite understandable in some respects since the sun is the source of the prime energy that shapes the climatic belts and life therein. The sun is the ultimate source of energy on which the life force of the earth and it's inhabitants is dependent, and whose movement across the sky gives Man a perception of rhythm, having a strong bearing on time, climate and the seasons. As stated by Knowles (Knowles, 1981).

Generally places on the earth surface closer to the sun have hot/warm climates because of the high intensity of solar radiation, while places relatively further away towards the poles receive less radiation and therefore have temperate/cold climates. Higher solar radiation levels are not simply because zone is 'closer' to the sun but it is

"The sun is fundamental to all life. It is the source of our vision, our warmth, our energy, and the rhythm of our lives. Its movements inform our perceptions of time and space and our scale in the universe".

also affected by other factors such as atmospheric depletion by Ozone, vapours and dust particles and duration of sunshine (Koenigsberger, et al. 1980).

The power of the sun to sustain life on earth is so fundamental and dependable that man cannot conceive of life without energy from the sun (Cook, 1977). The benefit of this solar energy with respect to buildings is not only subjective but also function of the location on the earth surface and consequently the climate. Solar radiation is "magnanimous" in cold/temperate climates where heat is not only needed for comfort but also vital for survival. In warm/hot climates solar radiation is a source of discomfort and every effort is made to cool the building to a comfortable level.

23 * General Geography Information of Iran

 $2_{3,1}$ * Location

Iran is situated in south-western Asia and borders the three CIS states, the Republic of Armenia, the Republic of Azerbaijan, and the Republic of Turkmenistan,

as well as the Caspian Seas to the north, Turkey and Iraq to the west, the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman to the south and Pakistan and Afghanistan to the east.

$2_{3,2}$ * Landscape

A series of massive, heavily eroded mountain ranges surround Iran's high interior basin. Most of the country is above 460 metres, one-sixth of it over 1980 metres. In sharp contrast are the coastal regions outside the mountain ring. In the north, the

 $2_{3.2.1}$ * Mountains: The Zagros range stretches from the border with the Republic of Armenia in the northwest to the Persian Gulf, and then eastward into Baluchistan. As it moves southward, it broadens into a 200 kilometres-wide band of parallel, alternating mountains lying between the plains of Mesopotamia and the great central plateau of Iran. It is drained on the west by streams that cut deep, narrow gorges and

643.72 kilometres strip along the Caspian Sea, never more than 112.65 kilometres wide and frequently narrowing to 16, falls sharply from the 3048 metres summit to 27.4 metres below sea level. In the south, the land drops away from a 610 metres plateau, backed by a rugged escarpment three times as high, to meet the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman.

The arid interior plateau, which extends into Central Asia, is cut by two smaller mountain ranges. Parts of this desert region, known as dasht, are covered by loose

water fertile valleys. The land is extremely hard, difficult to access, and populated largely by pastoral nomads.

The Alborz mountain range, narrower than the Zagros but equally forbidding, runs along the southern shore of the Caspian to meet the border ranges of Khorassan to the east. The highest of its volcanic peaks is 5569 metres, snow-covered mountain Damavand. On the border of Afghanistan, the mountains fall away, to be replaced by barren sand dunes.

stones and sand, gradually merging into fertile soil on the hillsides. Where fresh water can be held, oases have existed from time immemorial, marking the ancient caravan routes. The most remarkable feature of the plateau is a salt waste 322 kilometres long and half as wide, knows as the kavir (deserts). It remains unexplored, since its

treacherous crust has been formed by large, sharp-edged salt masses which cover mud. Cut by deep ravines, it is virtually impenetrable.

 $2_{3.2.2}$ * Deserts: The vast deserts of Iran stretch across the plateau from the northwest, close to Tehran and Qom, for a distance of about 644 kilometres to the southeast and beyond the frontier. Approximately one-sixth of the total area of Iran is barren desert.

The two largest desert areas are known as the Kavir-e-Lut and the Dasht-e-Kavir.

 $2_{3,3,1}$ * The Persian Gulf: The Persian Gulf is the shallow marginal part of the Indian Ocean that lies between the Arabian Peninsula and southeast Iran. The sea has an area of 240,000 square kilometres. Its length is 990 kilometres, and its width varies from a

Third in size of these deserts is the Jazmurian. It is often said that the Kavir-e-Lut and Dasht-e-Kavir are impossible to cross except by the single road which runs from Yazd to Ferdows, but in recent years, heavy trucks and other vehicles have travelled over long stretches of these deserts which contain extensive mineral deposits -chlorides, sulphates and carbonates - and it is only a matter of time before they are exploited.

2_{3.3} * Lakes and Seas

maximum of 338 kilometres to a minimum of 55 kilometres in the Strait of Hormuz. It is bordered on the north, north-east and east by Iran, on the north-west by Iraq and Kuwait, on the west and south-west by Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and Qatar, and on the south and south-east by the United Arab Emirates and partly Oman. The term Persian Gulf is often used to refer not only proper to the Persian Gulf but also to its outlets, the Strait of Hormuz and the Gulf of Oman, which open into the Arabian Sea.

The most important islands of the Persian Gulf on the Iranian side are: Minoo, Kharg, Sheikh Saas, Sheikh Sho'ayb, Hendurabi, Kish, Farur, Sirri, Abu-Mussa, the Greater and Lesser Tunb Qeshm, Hengam, Larak, Farsi, Hormuz and Lavan. The notable ports on the Persian Gulf coast are: Abadan, Khorramshahr, Bandar Iman

Khomeini, Mahshahr, Deilam, Gonaveh, Rig, Bushehr, Bandar Lengeh, Bandar Abbas.

The Iranian shore is mountainous, and there are often cliffs; elsewhere a narrow coastal plain with beaches, intertidal flats, and small estuaries borders the gulf. The coastal plain widens north of Bushehr on the eastern shore of the gulf and passes into 12

the broad deltaic plain of the Tigris, Euphrates and Karun rivers. It is noticeably asymmetrical in profile, with the deepest water occurring along the Iranian coast and a broad shallow area, which is usually less than 37 metres deep, along the Arabian coast.

There are some ephemeral streams on the Iranian coast south of Bushehr, but virtually no fresh water flows into the gulf on its south-west side. Large quantities of fine dust are, however, blown into the sea by predominant north-west winds from the

desert areas of the surrounding lands. The deeper parts of the Persian Gulf adjacent to the Iranian coast and the are around the Tigris-Euphrates Delta are mainly floored with grey-green muds rich in calcium carbonate.

The Persian Gulf has a notoriously bad climate. Temperatures are high, though winters may be quite cool at the north-western extremities. The sparse rainfall occurs mainly as sharp down pours between November and April and is heavier in the northeast. Humidity is high. The little cloud cover is more prevalent in winter than in summer. Thunderstorms and fog are rare, but dust storms and haze occur frequently in summer.

2_{3.3.2} * The Caspian Sea: The Caspian Sea, which is the largest landlocked body of water in the world (424,240 sq. km.), lies some 26 metres below the sea level. It is comparatively shallow, and for some centuries has been slowly shrinking in size. Its salt content is considerably less than that of the oceans and though it abounds with fish, its shelly coasts do not offer any good natural harbours, and sudden and violent

Until the discovery of oil in Iran in 1908, the Persian Gulf area was important mainly for fishing, pearling, the building of dhows, sailcloth making, camel breeding, reed mat making, date cultivating, and the production of other minor products, such as red ochre from the islands in the south. Today these traditional industries have declined, and the economy of the region is dominated by the production of oil.

The Persian Gulf and the surrounding countries produce approximately 31 per cent of the world's total oil production and have 63 per cent of the world's proven reserves. The Persian Gulf area will probably remain and important source of world oil for a long period.

storms make it dangerous for small boats. The important ports on the Caspian coast are: Bandar-Anzali, Noshahr, and Bandar-Turkman.

2_{3.3.3} * Lakes: Along the frontier between Iran and Afghanistan there are several marshy lakes, which expand, and contract according to the season of the year. The largest of these, the Sistan (Hamun-Sabari), in the north of the Sistan & Baluchistan province, is alive with wild fowl.

Real fresh water lakes are exceedingly rare in Iran. There probably are no more than 10 lakes in the whole country, most of them brackish and small in size. The largest are: Lake Urmia (area: 3,900-6,000 sq. km. depending on season) in Western Azerbaijan, Namak (1,806 sq. km.) in the Central province, Bakhtegan (750 sq. km.) in Fars province, Tasht (442 sq. km.) in fars province, Moharloo (208 sq. km.) in Fars province, Howz Soltan (106.5 sq. km.) in Central province.

$2_{3,4}$ * Climate

Iran has a complex climate, ranging from subtropical to subpolar. In winter, a highpressure belt, centered in Siberia, slashes west and south to the interior of the Iranian Plateau, while low pressure systems develop over the warm waters of the Caspian, the Persian Gulf, and the Mediterranean. In summer, one of the lowest pressure centres in the world prevails in the south.

Low pressure patterns in Pakistan generate two regular wind patterns: the Shamal, which blows from February to October north-westerly through the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, and the 120-day summer wind, which sometimes reaches velocities of 70 miles per hour in the Seestan region near the Pakistan frontier. Warm Arabian winds bring heavy moisture from the Persian Gulf. The gulf area, where the heat and humidity are unbearable, stands in sharp contrast to the Caspian coastal region, where moist air from the sea mingles with the dry air currants from the Alborz to create a

soft nightly breeze.

In the summer, temperatures vary from a high of 50° C in Khuzistan at the head of the Persian Gulf to a low of 1° C in Azerbaijan in the north-west. Precipitation also varies greatly, ranging from less than two inches in the south-east to about 25.5 in the Caspian region.

The annual average rain is about 356 millimetres. Winter is normally the rainy season for the whole country. Frequent spring thunderstorms occur, especially in the mountains, where destructive hailstones also fall. The coastal region presents a sharp contrast to the rest of the country.

The high Alborz mountains, which seal off the narrow Caspian Plain, wring moisture from the clouds, trap humidity from the air, and crete a fertile densely populated semitropical region with think forests, swamps, and rice paddies. Temperatures may soar to 38° C, the humidity to 98 per cent. Frost is rare. The monthly average temperature of some cities in Iran has been shown in table 2.1. The climatic data of all cities and stations of Iran are mentioned in appendix A.

Table 2.1: Monthly average temperature of some cities in Iran (National Meteorology Organization)

In Iran, the change from one season to the next is fairly abrupt. By 21 March, the beginning of the Iranian year (Norooz), the fruit trees are in full bud and fresh green wheat covers the fields. Later, while the orchards are in bloom, wild flowers carpet the stony hills. Later, the summer heat bums and kills the flowers, and autumn is not

marked by a display of bright colours and the soft haze of Indian summer; instead,

there is a rapid transition from summer to winter.

24 * Climatic Classification in Iran

24,1 * Present Day Climate of Iran

This section describes those weather systems, which have important effects on the climatic classification in Iran. The climate conditions of Iran show a distinct seasonal pattern, which will be described in this section.

24.1.1 * Conditions in the Cold Season

The major pressure systems that affect Iran in late autumn, winter, and early spring are the Siberian High Pressure (SHP) and Mediterranean Low Pressure (Ganji, 1968; Khalili, 1992; see Fig. 2.1) in winter, SHP is the dominant system in north and central Asia with a strong centre above Baikal Lake (105°-110°E and 50°-55°N), which can send a tongue of very cold-dry weather towards central Iran (Alijani, 1990). The mean pressure in the centre of the SHP is usually higher than 1035 hPa, which can increase to over 1070 hPa. The SHP is a low level system and its thickness is less than 3,000 m and usually works below 2,500 m height. Although the SHP is an important winter system, the overall dominant system is from the westerly sector (Alijani, 1990; Khalili, 1992).

Figure 2.1: Major pressure systems during winter (January). After Khalili (1992). Location of Iran is distinguished by a cross.

The location and strength of the SHP were traditionally believed to be the result of very low energy and vegetation-free surfaces of the Siberian Plateau in the winter.
However, new research shows that it is much controlled by the characteristics of the Subtropical Jet Stream (SJS) in Asia (Alijani, 1990).

Another high-pressure system, which can affect Iran, is the Azores High Pressure system, which is centred basically on the Azores islands, North Atlantic Ocean, with a central pressure of 1025 hPa. This system can push wet weather currents towards the Western Europe and Asia (Beaumont et al., 1988).

atmosphere, the prevailing system on the ground is an extensive hot area of low pressure, which is very unstable, and results in upward movement of the air. This regional low-level system is the major source of dust- and sandstorms in central Iran, particularly when it is amplified by a strong continental tropical current from the northwest (e.g. from Eastern Europe and Scandinavia; Khalili, 1992).

A low-pressure system develops above the Mediterranean Sea between these two high pressures, which can migrate towards the western part of Asia, and Middle East. This system is also an important source of moisture for southwest Asia (Beaumont et al., 1988; Khalili, 1992).

24.12 * Conditions in the Warm Seasons

During warmer periods of the year, usually between May and September, the Subtropical High Pressure (STHP) is generally the dominant system over Iran except for the southern margin of the Caspian Sea (Ganji, 1968). The STHP creates stable, hot and dry conditions, particularly in southern and central Iran, sometimes for more than half the year. Although the STHP is the dominant climatic agent of the high

In summer four major systems, namely the STHP, North Atlantic High Pressure (NAHP), Asia Low Pressure, and Indian Ocean High Pressure (monsoon) systems interact over Iran. However, during different periods their effects are highly variable (Khalili, 1992; Fig. 2.2). The NAHP is the summer version of the winter Azores High Pressure, after bringing wet currents towards Western Europe; loose most of its

moisture before reaching the Middle East area. This system during its movement towards Iran can absorb moisture from the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea and consequently lead to local precipitation along the northern border of Iran and in Azerbaijan (Khalili, 1992). This system occasionally penetrates into the western part

of central Iran and lead to torrential rains during April and early May in the some areas (YMO reports, 1968-1993).

The Asian Low Pressure or Iran-Pakistan Low is centred on western Pakistan and east-central Iran in the summer. This "Low" extends into most of Central Asia as well as the Arabian Desert and can pull weather currents from adjacent high systems. The occurrence of this low-pressure system is an important factor in bringing monsoonal rains into the Indian Subcontinent (Alijani, 1981).

Figure 2.2: Major pressure systems during summer (July). After Khalili (1992). Approximate locations of Iran and central Iran are indicated by a quadrangle and a cross, respectively.

The Indian Ocean High has a central location between Australia and South Africa and can bring a highly moist weather system into the Indian Subcontinent. In its extensive activity it can bring torrential rains into South-eastern part of Iran (Sistan and Baluchistan). The monsoonal precipitation of Southeast Asia depends highly on this system (Ganji, 1968).

As well as these different pressure systems, there is a belt of strong westerly winds, known as the Subtropical Jet Stream (SJS), which is an upper atmospheric feature in the Middle East in general and in Iran in particular (Fig. 2.3). The position of the core of the SJS varies over 15 degrees of latitude from summer to winter in Iran. In July it is centred over the Caspian Sea, while by January it has moved southward to rest above the Persian Gulf (Beaumont et al., 1988). The position and

characteristics of the SJS are believed to be the main factor for climatic conditions of central Iran (Alijani, 1981).

Figure 2.3: Position of the subtropical jet stream and cyclone tracks in winter and summer (from the Iranian Meteorological Organisation; after Beaumont et al., 1989).

The moisture pattern of the Middle East in general, and of Iran in particular, can best be explained by a succession of cyclones from the North Atlantic and the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 2.3). During the summer the cyclone paths tend to pass over the northern part of Turkey and the northern side of the Alborz Mountains, and therefore, they cannot effect the climate of central Iran (Beaumont et al., 1988). During winter, cyclone tracks over the Middle East change towards the south due to southward shift of the SJS core (Alijani, 1981). The cyclonic precipitation during the winter is most important source of moisture for Lebanon, Jordan, Syria, Iraq, and Iran (Alijani, 1981; Beaumont et al., 1988).

The location of Iran, between 25° 3'-39° 47' N and 44°-63° 18' E, makes the climate of this area sensitive to the seasonal changes of the SJS and the polar front locations. Furthermore, the high mountain ranges of the northern, western, and central Iran can modify the regional pattern of the climate and environmental changes over Iran.

24.2 *Iran Climatic Zoning Map

Several climatic classification methods have been used in Iran, such as W Koeppen's method which is based on the botanical and plant environmental conditions, the bio-climatical chart based on the Olgyay methods. A similar chart based on the Ashrea method and finally the Givoni approach which divided Iran into eight main weather categories with 36 sub-categories (Ministry of Housing and Urban Development, 1993). There are five main areas based on the temperature zones of

Iran presented in the Cambridge History of Iran (Cambridge university 1975).

The five classified regions are: 1- Humid and mild 2- Very cold due to 'the high altitude 3- Dry and mild 4- Dry and warm 5- Semi-humid and warm (Figure 2.4).

The humid and mild area lies to the south and east coast of Caspian Sea. The average annual temperature is 14.5°C to 18°C and there is a temperature difference between coldest and warmest days of about 25°C to 35°C. The maximum average temperature in August is about 26°C to 32°C at in the time, coldest day in January is about 12° C to 16° C and falls to zero to $+4$ degrees during the night. There is a high amount of and humidity of the atmosphere is about 50 to 85 percent in the summer

and a maximum of 75 to 95 percent in the winter.

The mountainous region with a relatively high altitude has a very cold winter and moderate and cool summer. The average annual temperature is only about 11°C to 14^oC, the average difference between annual temperatures is about 35^oC to 45^oC. In August the maximum temperature rises to 28°C to 35°C in the daytime and a minimum of 10^oC to 15^oC is recorded for night-time. In the winter, particularly in January and February, daily temperatures reach only two to five degrees and fall to -9 degrees during night. A temperature below freezing occurs for four to five months during in the year. Snow is more common and there is less rain than elsewhere. The humidity is about 20 to 40 percent in summer and 70 to 85 percent in winter.

Figure 2.4: Iran climatic classification (Source: The Cambridge History of Iran)

The essentially dry and mild region is an area of lower altitude. There is a relatively cold winter and a relatively warm and dry summer. The annual average temperature is about 13°C to 17°C. The warmest day temperature in August reach to 31°C to 38°C and in contrast reaches 8°C to 18°C during the night. In winter the temperature is about seven to seventeen degrees in the daytime and from -2 to -6 degrees in the night. This climate is very dry humidity moist for almost three months and there is plenty of sunshine during all seasons.

average temperature is about 16° C to 19° C with 36° C to 42° C of difference between coldest and hottest days of the year. The daytime temperature in summer goes up to 35°C to 39°C. In contrast it falls to 12°C to 23°C during the night. The temperature goes up to 16 degrees in the winter day and falls to zero to -3 degrees during the night. Freezing temperatures during the one-month night occur for about per year.

The dry and warm area is located in the central, often desert parts of the country. There is cold weather in the winter but it is a very warm and dry in the summer. The

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I- Humid and mild region II - Very cold region due to the high altitude III- Dry and mild IV- Dry and warm V- Semi-humid and warm region

Climate of Iran Climate of Iran

The annual rainfall can be as low as 70mm to 800mm and the humidity reaches a maximum of 65 percent.

The semi-humid and warm climate is located in the south Iran, along the northern part of Persian Gulf. It extends from Khozistan province in the west to the province of Sistan and Baluchistan in the East. There is moderate weather in the winter and very hot and semi-dry weather in the summer. The annual average temperature is about 23°C to 27°C and there is a 35°C to 41°C difference between the hottest and coldest

 $2_{4.2.1}$ * The First Climatic Group: This group is composed of one subgroup, which is called strongly cold in winter and suitable in summer. It is located in high altitude regions with over 35° N of latitude and lies more than 2000 metres above the sea level (Figure 2.6). Abali, Lighvan and Polour are the main cities.

days. The temperature reaches 42°C to 46°C in the summer, though only 18°C to 28°C in the same season at night. In February the temperature falls to 16°C to 24°C during in the day and reaches only 3°C to 9°C at night. Freezing weather is very rare and the annual rainfall is about 100mm to 470mm with humidity from about 10 to 90 percent. There are around four to five months of hot weather during which the temperature reaches 38°C at mid-day, and there is little or no need for a heating system for the winter or spring seasons.

2_{4.2.2} * The Second Climatic Group: This group is the largest climatic region and has the greatest number of climatic subgroups. It consists of 8 subgroups and 89 meteorological stations. There are large variations in latitude and altitude (Height) of

The Ministry of Housing and Urban Development of Iran has classified the climate into 8 main groups with 36 subgroups (Figure 2.5):

Since there is no hot weather in this climatic group, there is no need for a cooling system in the summer season. Therefore the most important factor in the design of building in this region is to prevent the loss of heat. The use of solar energy in the heating system of building should be considered.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been

different regions located in this group. As it can be seen from the figure 2.7, this climate is located in the north, east north and west north (except the coasts of Caspian Sea) of Iran. Also it includes the high altitude regions that stretch from northwest to southeast and some high altitude areas in the east.

The climatic circumstances in this group are strongly to relatively cold in the winter and temperate to semi hot- arid in the summer.

There are some regions of altitude less than 1000 metres in northern areas of Iran with higher latitude, for example Mashhad over 985 metres high and Joulfa 704 metres high. However, in the southern limit of this climate including areas of lower latitude some regions of more than 2000 metres high can be seen (for example Baft with 29° N of latitude and 2250 metres high). The combination of these two climatic factors i.e., latitude and height from the sea level, is the reason why the temperature of high altitude regions in the south is similar to the temperature of low altitude areas in the north.

Despite the wide range of temperature in this climate the heating need of building must be achieved through mechanical heating and solar energy. Since the temperature

and humidity are relatively low in almost all subgroups, there is no need for a cooling system. However, in the following subgroups it is necessary to use a cooling system (for a very limited time) in the summer because of the rise of temperature in this season:

- Very cold semi hot.
- Very cold semi hot and arid.
- Cold -semi hot and arid.

The main aims of the climatic design are as follow:

- 1. Reduction of the heat loss.
- 2. Reduction of the effect of wind on the heat loss of buildings.
- 3. Using the solar energy as a heating system.
- 4. Protection of buildings against solar radiation.
- 5. To benefit from the daily variations of air temperature.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.3.

 $2_{4.2.3}$ * The Third Climatic Group: This group is Limited to the southern coasts of Caspian Sea and a narrow region around Urmia Lake (Figure 2.8).

It consists of 25 meteorological stations and 3 subgroups. There are three important factors in this climate, which are the causes of relatively cool weather in

the winter and humidity in the summer:

- High latitude.
- Low altitude.
- Location near by the sea.

Regarding the cloudy sky and lack of solar radiation in the winter, the most important system needed in the buildings during a year is mechanical heating. One of the most important characteristics of this climate is the humidity of weather during summer season. The high level of humidity in the summer causes the lack of thermal comfort. Therefore it seems reasonable that creating a good circulation by wind flow

$2_{4.2.4}$ * The Fourth Climatic Group: This climate consists of 3 subgroups, however according to the number of meteorological stations and geographic area is smaller than the third climatic group (Figure 2.9).

make living more comfortable in buildings during summer season. Also, the U value of the external wall's materials must be low.

Consequently the consumption of energy in the mechanical cooling system will be reduced.

In the relatively cold and cool subgroup the amount of annual rainfall is high. Therefore, it is necessary to protect the buildings against the detrimental effects of rain.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.4.

It is located along the group 3 in two separated regions with higher altitude and in a long distance far from Caspian Coasts. Therefore, in comparison with group 3, the weather is colder in the winter and warmer in the summer.

The climatic characteristics of this region are very to relatively cold in the winter and hot and humid in the summer season. In these situations, the heating requirements of buildings will be achieved by firstly mechanical and then solar energy. For cooling purpose the natural system is the best method.

 $2_{4.2.5}$ * The Fifth Climatic Group: This climate is composed of 7 subgroups and 37 meteorological stations (Figure 2.10).

This region is surrounded by the groups 1 and 6 and located in the central part of Iran. Also it is extended as a narrow band in the southwest of Zagros Mountain. The

For decreasing the amount of heat transmission during winter, it is necessary to use materials with lower U value in the external walls of buildings.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.5.

- $1 -$ using the solar energy.
- 2- Reducing the loss of heat of buildings.
- 3- Preventing the effects of the high temperature on buildings.

variation of latitude and altitude is very wide in this group.

The weather is relatively cold in the winter and semi to very hot in summer season. Since there is plenty of sunshine during all seasons, the solar energy can be used as a heating system in the winter.

During the summer season the air humidity is low. For this reason, in some part of warm season using suitable materials in the external walls of buildings will be helpful in the establishment of thermal comfort. However, during the warmest months of summer it is necessary to use mechanical cooling. The main aims of climatic design in this group are as follow:

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.6.

2_{4.2.6} * The Sixth Climatic Group: It is composed of 16 subgroups and 11 meteorological stations and mainly consists of the low altitude regions and the deserts located in the central parts and southeast of Iran (Figure 2.11).

The height in the northern part of this climate is around 1000 metres and more than

1300 metres in the southern areas.

The lowest altitude is in Tabas with 33° 30' N altitude and 690 metres height and the highest one is in Gorgin-khobr with 29° latitude and 1835 metres height.

Two important climatic factors, i.e., low altitude and low latitude are the causes of high temperature in this climate.

The weather is cool to temperate during winter and very hot and arid to strongly

The weather is relatively cold, or cold during the winter and semi hot to very hot and arid in the summer. Because there is plenty of sunshine in the winter, there is no need for mechanical heating during this season. Since the air humidity is low a part of cooling requirements of building will be met by natural ventilation and the remaining by mechanical cooling. The main purposes of climatic design in this group are using solar energy during the winter and shading and natural ventilation (Badgir and etc.) in

the summer.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.7.

 $2_{4.2.7}$ * The Seventh Climatic Group: This group is divided to 5 subgroups and 31 meteorological stations. It consists of areas with low latitude and is extended as a narrow band from west to south and south east of Iran (Figure 2.12).

hot and semi humid in the summer. Therefore, the use of cooling system is extremely

important in this group and there is no need for a heating system.

It is necessary to protect buildings against strong and dusty hot wind in this climate.

The main aims in the climatic design of this group are to protect the building against the hot temperature and strong solar radiation.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.8.

 $2_{4,2.8}$ * The Eighth Climatic Group: This group is composed of 3 subgroups and 12 meteorological stations and is located in the north coasts of Persian Golf and Oman

Sea (Figure 2.13).

The variation in the latitude and altitude of the meteorological stations located in this group is very small. Khark is situated in the lowest altitude of this climate with 29° latitude and 3 metres height. Gheshm is located in the highest altitude with 26° 57' latitude and 31 metres height.

The high temperature and humidity in this climate are the main reasons why it is extremely necessary to use mechanical cooling system with high efficiency in buildings. However, there is no need for heating system during summer season (specially in the subgroup 8-3).

The weather during winter is temperate and suitable and in the summer very hot and arid.

There are three main climatic factors that made this group the worst climatic group in Iran. These factors include very low altitude, low latitude and the location by the

sea.

The main purposes of climatic design are to protect the buildings against the exterior high temperature and solar radiation, shading and establishment of a good air circulation in the interior part of the building.

The geographic characteristics of the cities located in this climate have been shown in table 2.9.

Climate of Iran

Map: Designed by Gorji

Climate of Iran

Figure 2.6: The map of climatic group 1 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

Table 2.2: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 1

Climate of Iran

Figure 2.7: The map of climatic group 2 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

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Continue 2.3: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 2

Climate of Iran

Figure 2.8: The map of climatic group 3 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

Table 2.4: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 3

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Climate of Iran

Figure 2.9: The map of climatic group 4 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

Table 2.5: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 4

Climate of Iran

Figure 2.10: The map of climatic group 5 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

Table 2.6: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 5

Climate of Iran

Table 2.7: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 6

Climate of Iran

Figure 2.12: The map of climatic group 7 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

Table 2.8: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 7

Climate of Iran

Figure 2.13: The map of climatic group 8 of Iran climatic classification (Source: Kasmaei 1993 and designed by Gorji)

Table 2.9: The geographic specifications of the meteorological stations in the climatic group 8

25 * Summary

The impact of climate on different aspects of a building is very important. A total sustainable environment must involve optimum energy-consuming educational centres, specially school buildings, in which optimum climatic orientation would be an essential element.

An understanding of the climate and the biological and psychological comfort of

school buildings is essential for their planning and design.

This chapter has first covered general information about the geography of Iran. The weather systems, which have important effects on the climatic classification in Iran, have been discussed.

The climate of Iran has been appropriately classified into 8 main groups with a total number of 36 subgroups. This chapter has shown that the climate of Iran is very variable with respect to location, covering from hot dry to cold wet zones. This means that there may be different solutions to the design of buildings for energy efficiency depending on the locality within the country.

The data of 216 meteorology stations and cities of Iran have also been described in appendix A.

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$2₆$ * References

History of Energy Use in the World and Iran

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3* History of Energy Use in the World and Iran

$3₁$ * Introduction

The prospect of producing clean, sustainable power in substantial quantities from renewable energy sources is now arousing interest worldwide. This is partly simulated by recent technological developments, which have improved the costeffectiveness of many of the `renewable', and increasing concerns over the

environmental consequences of conventional fossil and nuclear fuel uses.

In this chapter first the history of energy use in the world will be reviewed. Then, it will look on the world energy supply and the world consumption of all forms of primary energies, which will introduce the magnitude of the energy problem in the future. Also, this chapter will outline the resources of energy in Iran, the role of this country in the global energy market, the contribution of Iranian oil and gas to the world supply and the pattern of consumption of oil and gas products in different sectors. The environmental problems, which are associated with large-scale fuel use will be discussed in detail, in order to highlight the danger of burning fossil fuels and to examine the possibility of using renewable energy sources as a partial or perhaps

even complete solution to these problems.

One of the global renewable energy resources is solar energy. It is abundant in Iran and can make a significant contribution to the energy needs of buildings. Therefore, at the end of this chapter we will concentrate on the use of passive solar energy as a clean and cheap source of energy in buildings.

32 * World Energy Use

The dominant aspect of industrial societies is the large-scale use of fossil and to a lesser amount, nuclear fuels. The growing, distribution and preparation of foods is based on the use of energy. Also it is essential for construction, fabrication and the organisation of many other activities (Johansson, 1993). A brief review of world energy use is necessary because it will introduce modern uses of energy. In order to provide light, to cook food and to keep warm wood burning has been used for almost half a million years by mankind. Far more later fire was a useful way to obtain metals, such as iron, copper and etc, and to burn bricks and clay pots.

Near ten or twelve thousand years ago, animals have been used for the purpose of traction. Also for between five and six thousand years the power of wind has been used for the transportation of mankind by ships in the Mediterranean (Goulding, et al 1992).

Near three thousand years ago, the power of wind and water were the source of energy used in mills. Therefore, for many centuries natural forces, such as wind and water, have been the main source of providing energy for transportation and

production (Johansson, 1993).

A considerable number of sophisticated civilisations have used only the energy of animals, human bodies, wind, water and other renewable energies, World Commission for Environment and Development (WCED, 1993). These types of energy sources are still dominantly used in many less industrialised countries (Harland, 1993).

The industrial revolution had important impact on changes to the present intensive use of fuels. This revolution led to an increase in the dependence of fossil fuels. It is divided into three periods. At the earliest stages watermills were introduced. Coke and

coal were used once the steam engine was invented. Therefore, fuels replaced running water as the source of power production. During the nineteenth century coal and iron ores were plentiful and provided the main source of fuel and materials. Ineffective methods of energy use were employed in industrial procedures and resulted in adverse environmental impacts (Laughton, 1990).

During the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of twentieth century the electricity and the internal combustion engine, gas and oil as additional fuels were developed. Also the industry of chemistry creating new materials improved. At that time the availability of more complex materials (mixture of metals, etc.), good transport and cheap fuels resulted in the progress of industrialisation (Boyle, 1996).

In the mid-twentieth century the widespread distribution networks of electricity, began and progressed rapidly to the point at which it was available almost universally in industrialised countries. Industrial culture became totally dependent on fossil fuel with the opening of major oil fields of the Middle East and North Africa. After the

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Second World War the nuclear sources of electricity were introduced as an additional power source and fuels were seen as cheap and plentiful. The consumption of those fuels was mostly inefficient, whilst their adverse environmental impacts were still ignored (Bevan, 1994).

In the late twentieth century, manufacturing is still increasing continuously, but is no longer the largest sector of the economy. Services (especially communications and information processing) are dominant activities, associated with progress in support technologies. The development of scientific and technical knowledge has also been very considerable (Evans, 1990).

In the 1990's, this understanding of energy efficiency is only beginning to be applied, however, economic restrictions have held it back (World Energy Council Statistics, 1993).

There has been a progressive awareness of the environmental effect of industrial societies (especially burning of fossil fuels) since the late 1960's (Houghton, 1992). The occurrence of oil crises in the 1970's-provoked a growth in new techniques for making more efficient use of energy and using renewable sources. It is now technically possible to reduce the use of fuel, simply by giving attention to the energy aspects of the design of buildings, equipment, industrial and biological procedures, low energy materials and many other ways (Gyoh, 1993).

The energy crisis of the early 1970's brought in it's wake a much increased attention to the possibility of using alternative energy technologies (Wozniak, 1979). These energy supply systems are fuelled from a source whose continued existence is actually insured.

During the past twenty years concern about using renewable energy has been growing steadily. Recent studies show that renewable energy will make a

considerable contribution to global energy supplies in the longer term, (Alexander, 1996). Concern in renewable energy has been heightened by a number of interests over the use of fossil fuel energy technologies and their adverse effects on the earth's ecological system (Harland, 1993). The impacts of conventional energy systems on global warming has revitalised concern in renewable energy technologies. The

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environmental impact of renewable energy is little. Almost none of the renewable energy sources releases gaseous or liquid pollutants during operation. Therefore, they are widely seen as part of the solution (Boyles, 1996).

The increasing concern over non-conventional energy sources (new and renewable energy) arises from the understanding that the commercial forms of energy in popular use such as solid forms of fossil fuels and liquid and gaseous hydrocarbons are limited and ultimately exhaustible sources of energy (Boyle, ed 1996). Some observers fear that conventional sources of energy may not be able to fulfil the demands of future generations (Gyoh, 1996).

$3₃$ * World Energy Supply

Modern societies, are now largely dependent on the use of large amount of energy, most of it in the from of fossil fuels, for virtually all aspects of life (Houghton, 1992).

In 1992, the estimated total world consumption of primary energy (in all forms) was approximately 400EJ per year, equivalent to some 9500 million tonnes of oil (mtoe) per year (table and figure 3.1). Assuming, that the world population was about

5300 million, in 1992 the annual average world-fuel-use for every body is equivalent to about 1.8 tonnes of oil. This is equivalent to about 470 imperial gallons of oil per person per year (Boyle, 1996).

Table and figure 3.1: Estimated annual energy consumption 1992 (Source: Boyle, 1996)

It can be seen from figure and table 3.1 (by source in 1992) that oil is the dominant fuel (33%), followed by coal at about 23%. Coal was once the dominant fuel in the world, however is now losing ground rapidly to oil and to gas (around 19% share). Hydro electricity and nuclear are used at around 6% each (DTI, 1995and Boyle, 1996).

These figure also include fuels used by commerce, industry, etc. and large amount of wood and other biological fuels mainly used in the third world. The consumption of these traditional fuels accounts for around 14% to the overall total (Hall, 1991)

The magnitude of the energy problem facing future generations can be illustrated by the following calculation: In 1990, the world's population was about 5 billion people. The best United Nations (UN) estimates of population tendency indicate that it is will increase to around 8 billion by 2025, but stabilising towards the end of the next century at somewhere between 10 and 12 billion people. Most of that rise will be in the less developed countries (LDCs). Fuels are used at an average rate in the developed countries, which is more than six times that in the LDCs. The summary is presented in table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Increase in energy use expected as a result of population increases (Source: Adapted from Holdren, 1990)

Dev = Developed countries. Ldc = Less developed countries. $*$ = Equivalent power.

It can be concluded from table 2 that the developed countries use nearly twice as much fuel as the LDCs, even though they have less than a third of their population

(Greenpeace 1996). Also, the energy use per person in the developed and the less developed countries are coming towards the same point. Given the expected population increase, there is still a rise of 50% in the overall level of global energy use (Boyle, ed 1996).

34 * Iran Energy Sector

The medium to long-term development of the Iranian oil and gas sectors may play a crucial role in the long-term stability of global energy markets. The macro economic performance of the Iranian economy, as the economic foundation determining future domestic demand for oil and gas, together with the level of investment for the expansion of production capacity in the oil and gas sectors will affect the volume of Iranian oil and gas contributions to the world supply. Any under-

estimation of the strategic importance and economic significance of Iranian oil and gas from the Caspian basin and the Persian Gulf, for the stability of future supply to major consuming nations may prove to be hazardous. Regional political and economic developments will undoubtedly affect the expansion in production of Iranian oil and gas, and hence influence Iran's export capabilities in the future. Iran's future oil and gas demand population growth, the rapid rate of urbanization, agricultural and industrial developments as well as the economic dislocation and low investment caused by the eight-year imposed war with Iraq have resulted in an increasing domestic demand for energy in order to rehabilitate the war damaged industries and fuel economic reconstruction. Iran's population in 1996 was estimated at some 60 million. Population growth in Iran was among the highest in the world during the 1980's, during which period it reached a peak of 3.6 percent a year, high enough to double the population in less than twenty years. The resulting pressure on public finance for education, housing, employment, health services and food and energy subsidies, forced the government to introduce strict measures on population control. Following the successful implementation of these policies, the rate of population growth, according to the 1996-97 censuses, fell to an estimated 1.4 percent, with approximately 55 percent of the population being currently under the age of 20. Such a young population necessarily implies a tendency towards higher rates of population growth, as well as a rapid rate of urbanization. This will increase

the pressure on the government not only to create employment opportunities but also

to accommodate the residential and commercial demand for energy, particularly in the

urban transportation sector. The consumption of oil products in the household and

commercial sectors has risen from 80.4 million barrels of oil equivalent in 1990 to

over 116.5 million barrels of oil equivalent in 1995, showing an increase of 50

percent. Over the same period, the transportation sector has increased its consumption

from 96.2 million barrels of oil equivalent, to 137.2 million barrels of oil equivalent, an equivalent growth rate of 43 percent. The consumption of natural gas has similarly registered a sharp increase. The total consumption of gas in the residential sector in 1996-97 was 10,984 million cubic meters, which accounts for 26 percent of total domestic consumption. In the same year, the industrial sector consumed 10,259 million cubic meters; equivalent to 24.3 percent of total domestic consumption. The major end-users in industry are the iron and steel industries. However, power

generation plants are the biggest domestic gas consumers in Iran, consuming about 33 percent of the total domestic gas consumption. In summary, it can be said that the transport, household and commercial sectors are the main users of oil products, equivalent to 24 percent and 20 percent of the total energy consumed in 1995, while industry, household and commercial sectors, with 14.3 percent and 12 percent of the total energy consumed respectively, constitute the main users of natural gas in 1995.

The historical trends in oil and gas consumption, as depicted in tables 3 and 4, clearly demonstrate the increasing pattern of oil and gas consumption in Iran. An extrapolation from these figures suggests that population growth, the rapid rate of urbanization and industrial expansion will lead to increased demand for oil products

and natural gas in the medium and longer terms. It is expected that the gas consumption of households will increase to 14,988 million cubic meters in 1999-2000 (1378). Similarly, the total gas consumption demanded by industry is estimated to increase to 15,190 million cubic meters in 1999-2000 (1378). Power generation will also increase gas consumption to 17,338 million cubic meters in 1999-2000.

A forecast of petroleum and gas consumption in Iran, 1996-2026, is given in table 3.5. Production Capacity Expansion: The increasing level of domestic energy demand on the one hand, and the dependency of the Iranian economy on the export revenues derived from petroleum, on the other hand, implies that the expansion of production capacity is, and will remain, a policy imperative in the foreseeable future. An

examination of historical trends in oil and gas production illustrates this point. Iran

needs to produce more oil and gas in order to increase its contribution to the

incremental world demand and to obtain more hard currency for the financing of its

future economic growth and development, as well as to satisfy growing domestic

demand. Gaining access to domestic and foreign capital for investment in the oil and

gas sectors and effectively managing energy demand while achieving efficiency in energy use, are the main two policy options open to Iranian policy-makers.

While it is true that higher levels of energy consumption are basically essential to fuel higher rates of industrial development and economic growth, the rationalization of domestic energy consumption is a prerequisite to the mobilization of resources for investment to expand production capacity. Adjusting the price of domestic petroleum, from the economic point of view, is the key to domestic energy demand management. Even after doubling the price in March 1995 and maintaining upward price shifts annually, oil product prices have remained the lowest in the world. This clearly encourages waste, inefficiency and the smuggling of petroleum products to neighbouring countries.

Despite the relative success of energy policy-maker's efforts to correct the disparity between domestic and international petroleum product prices, there are limits, within the Iranian macro economic setting, to upward price shifts. It should be noted that the transportation sector accounts for about 40 percent of the demand for oil products in Iran, followed by the household and commercial sectors, which

account for nearly 33 percent. Again, household and commercial sectors consumed about 40 percent of the natural gas, and over 53 percent of the electricity produced in Iran in 1996-97.

Any significant upward shift in household and transportation energy prices may produce adverse social and economic side effects under the prevailing conditions of severe income disparity between different income groups as well as between rural and urban sectors. The rapid expansion of the service sector in conjunction with an increased inclination to use market forces in economic planning, signals the likelihood of a widening inequality gap. It follows that substantial petroleum product price adjustments towards international levels will become increasingly difficult in

the foreseeable future.

This argument holds equally true for industry. While this sector consumes nearly 14 percent of total oil products, it demands about 30 percent of total natural gas produced in Iran. Industrial demand for gas and the consumption of natural gas by power plants, account for more than 70 percent of the total production of natural gas. 52
Although the projects to replace the use of petroleum products with natural gas have resulted in an annual saving of about 750 million dollars over the past few years, any significant price rise in the energy consumed in industry and power plants may hinder the process of industrialization. In fact, although many of the dynamic economics of Asia enjoyed cheap energy at the earlier stages of industrialization, cheap energy may encourage industrial inefficiency. Hence, the optimal setting of energy prices for industrial use should be carefully formulated. The successful implementation of

energy price adjustment would also release substantial financial resources by reducing the amount of subsidies in the energy sector. Despite technical difficulties in accurate estimation, it can be said that subsidies in the energy sector amounted to some 11 billion dollars last year. Such considerable financial resources could be used to enhance the industrialization process and economic growth in Iran.

Taking into account the above mentioned complexities in domestic energy demand management through petroleum product price manipulations, it is estimated that, given a successful scenario of higher energy price implementation, domestic demand for oil products will reach some 2 million barrels per day by the year 2010, a doubling of consumption in less than 15 years. This signifies, once again, the

necessity for the expansion of production capacity in order to maintain and/or increase oil exports as a primary energy-policy option. Needless to say, the expansion of refining capacity as an effective response to domestic incremental demand is another vital energy policy issue facing the Iranian petroleum industry. Further participation in oil and gas activities in the region especially in the Caspian basin, as well as the achievement of increased foreign investment in the Iranian oil and gas industries, are two other key issues in the fulfilment of energy policy objectives. Extended role in Caspian oil and gas development despite U. S. pressure to by-pass Iran, the mere economic fundamentals of pipeline construction and oil and gas marketing imply that Iran, with its unique geographical position, will eventually gain

its historic opportunity as the best possible pipeline route for the export of hydrocarbons from the Caspian basin to international markets.

It is of critical importance to note the substantial economic and political background for closer cooperation between the energy sectors of Iran and the Central Asian republics. Iran has worked hard to develop trade ties with the new republics of

the former Soviet Union following their independence in 1991 and Iran's unique strategic position and its cultural ties with these countries has played a critical role in the success of this endeavour. The 700 km railway link from Bandar-Abbas, a coastal town in the Persian Gulf, to the Iranian national railway network at Bafq, together with the national network extension to Sarakhs free zone on the Turkmenistan border, which opened in 1996, provide ample opportunity for the flow of goods from the Persian Gulf to Central Asia. In fact, the joint construction of highways, railroads,

seaport links and pipelines is the main focus of Iran's policy towards Central Asia, since this facilitates Iran's role in trade and transportation within the region. The Central Asian independent states provide important exports markets, albeit small, for Iranian goods, while the Central Asian countries have benefited considerably from trade and closer economic ties with Iran. This is particularly true of Turkmenistan, which has been adversely affected by non-payment for its gas exports to some countries.

Iran's cooperation in the oil and gas industries of the Caspian basin and Central Asian republics of central importance. The combined efforts of Iran, Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan in oil and gas exploration and marketing would offer these states not

only greater economic independence, but enable them to reach new markets in the Asia Pacific via the Persian Gulf. The swap deal with Kazakhstan represents an innovation in promoting economic links with Central Asia. Under the terms of this deal, Iran delivers oil for Kazakhstan from its southern terminals in the Persian Gulf, in return for receiving the same amount of Kazakh oil in its northern ports. Under the original deal, during the initial phase of the project, deliveries will amount to 40,000 barrels per day, rising to 120,000 barrels.

In another development, the feasibility studies for the construction of a pipeline between Turkmenistan and Turkey through Iran are under way. It is envisaged that this pipeline will run into eastern Iran through Shahroud, Semnan and south of Tehran

towards Tabriz and the Turkish border and will transport about 28 billion cubic meters of Turkmen natural gas per year. Moreover, Iran has financed 80 percent of a 200-km pipeline, which transmits about 4 billion cubic meters annually of Turkmenistan's gas to Kurd-Kuy in northern Iran. It is planned that Iran will increase its gas imports through this pipeline up to 8 billion cubic meters annually for 25 years. Iran, 54

Kazakhstan and Turkmenistan have also reached an agreement on trilateral cooperation for the transfer of Kazakh and Turkmen crude oil through Turkmenistan and Iran to international markets (Ghanimifard, 1998)

The consolidation of the above-mentioned economic and commercial ties between Iran and the energy-rich countries of the Caspian basin suggests that the mutual economic benefit of such cooperation will ultimately defuse adverse external political pressure. This will, in turn, pave the way for more substantial participation in the oil and gas industries of the region. As mentioned earlier, foreign investment is being sought by Iran for oil exploration offshore and onshore, and also for developing major gas fields.

With over 93 billion barrels of proved oil reserves, equivalent to over 9 percent of the world's total, and with over 21 trillion cubic meters of proved gas reserves, equivalent to over 15 percent of the world's total, Iran offers a great prospect for foreign investment in the oil and gas industries. The current levels of oil and gas production indicate that Iran's shares in the world's total production of oil and gas are 5.5 percent and 1.7 percent, respectively. This clearly suggests a long-term comparative advantage for foreign investment, especially in the gas sector. This factor, in addition to the geographical accessibility of Iran to world markets has attracted the interest of a number of major companies in investing in the Iranian oil and gas industries. Total, Gas prom and Petronas were among the serious contenders who have succeeded in signing contracts.

In summary then, the considerable volume of oil and gas reserves, direct accessibility to world markets via the Persian Gulf, its geographical position as a bridge linking the Caspian basin to the Persian Gulf, the growing domestic consumer and investment markets, and last but not least, political stability, have made Iran an attractive market for foreign capital. In fact, it is the working principles of open

economies that will, in the longer-term, determine the functioning of international oil

and gas markets. Short and medium-terms intervention in the international energy markets for the attainment of short-sighted domestic political gains can only disturb the market.

Table 3.3: Crude oil Consumption (Thousand barrels per day)

Table 3.4: Natural Gas Consumption (Marketed) (Billion cubic meters)

Table 3.5: Forecast of Petroleum and Gas Consumption in Iran, 1996-2026 (Million barrels per day of oil equivalent)

	1996	2001	2006	2011	2016	2021	2026
Petroleum	1,361	1,466	1,579	1,701	1,833	1.974	2,127
Gas	0.750	1,195	1,906	2,433	3,105	3,962	5,057
Assumed Population Growth Rate 1.2% Population (mns)	-60	63.6	67.6	71.6	76.1	80.7	85.7

Table 3.6: Crude Oil Production (Thousand barrels per day)

1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988
1,817	1.565	2,421	2,442	2,032	2,192	2,037	2,296	2,476
1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
2,814	3,135	3,399	3,432	3,425	3,596	3,595	3,595	$3,601*$

Table 3.7: Natural Gas Production (Billion cubic meters)

Source: N.I.G.C. * Estimated by N.I.G.C.

The extent of solar energy received by Iran is 8 times more than its total oil and gas reserves, total oil and gas reserves in Iran are equivalent to some 100 billion barrels of oil and 600 trillion cubic feet of gas. The official made the remarks at the

seminar during the international solar energy conference and Islamic states, the first of its kind and which is currently ongoing in Shahryar. The total energy received by Iran amounts yearly to around 10,827 kilo-joules, or 1,000 times the total consumption and export of energy in the country, by utilizing one percent of the \bullet

Chapter 3 **History of Energy Use in the World and Iran**

country's land area, Iran's energy needs can be met through the utilization of solar energy (Mo'tamedi, 1995)

35 * Environmental Problems

At present the world population is faced with various environmental problems. Many of these are the consequence of burning fossil fuels (IEA, 1992). There are widespread concerns about global warming, acidification, climate changes and oil

pollution of the seas, which will be discussed in the next part of this chapter.

35.1 * Global Warming

The issue of global warming needs the most critical attention. It is described as a gradual increase in the global average air temperature at the earth's surface (Boyle, 1996). The average surface temperature of Earth is about 15°C. Over the last century, this average has risen by about 0.6 Celsius degree. Scientists predict further warming of 1.4 to 5.8 Celsius degrees by the year 2100 (Kyoto, 1997). Global warming is the consequence of increases in the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide (CO_2) released by the consumption of fossil fuels is the most significant element of these greenhouse gas emissions (Houghton et al., 1990 and 1992). In addition to CO_2 , water (H₂O), methane (CH₄) and chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs) are also called greenhouse gases. Even in very small (trace) quantities, they can have considerable effects on average temperatures (Boyle, 1996).

At present, the rate of world-wide greenhouse gas emissions is increasing every year. In order to minimize the magnitude of future warming these emissions must begin to decrease. Reducing the consumption of fossil fuels such as coal, oil and natural gas, especially in the industrialized world, is the single most important factor in controlling global warming (ICLEI, 1993).

The effects of global warming on agriculture would be also significant. The most

serious effect is an increase in the risk of long spell of dry weather. The other side effects could be a rise in the sea level, a decrease in the sea ice and reduction of seasonal snow cover (Boyle, 1996).

35.2 * Acid Rain

Another side effect of burning fossil fuels is acid rain. Acid rain is a term, which is used to describe a variety of processes, which might more accurately be referred to as acidic deposition. Natural rainfall is slightly acidic due to dissolved carbon dioxide, picked up in the atmosphere. Organisms and ecosystems all over the planet have adapted to the slightly acidic nature of normal rain, and thus it poses no environmental problems. It is an increase in the acidity of rain, caused by human

activities such as the combustion of fossil fuels that has turned acid rain into a problem. Highly acidic rain can damage or destroy aquatic life, forests, crops and buildings, as well as posing a threat to human health.

The magnitude of the impact of acid rain on environment and health is very dependant upon the type of bedrock and soil in a specific region. Regions where the bedrock and/or soil contain carbonates such as limestone and dolomite are less susceptible to damage by acid rain than areas with igneous bedrock. This is because the carbonate material acts to neutralize the acidity of the precipitation. Carbonates act as a "buffer"; they tend to keep both surface and groundwater at a constant pH.

There are basically two ways of reducing acid rain. Emission control technologies can be attached to smokestacks at power plants and other industries, removing the acid gases before they are emitted into the atmosphere.

The other alternative is to burn less high sulphur fossil fuel. This can be accomplished by switching to alternative sources of energy, or improving the efficiency of our energy consuming technologies. Ultimately, the most effective methods of reducing acid rain are renewable energy and energy efficiency. Renewable energy technologies such as solar and wind energy can produce electricity without any emissions of sulphur dioxide (SO_2) or nitrous oxides (Nox). Both renewable energy and energy efficiency have the added benefit that they also result in reduced

emissions of carbon dioxide, the greenhouse gas most responsible for global warming

(Houghton, ed 1992, ICLEI, 1993).

$3_{5,3}$ * Oil Pollution of the Seas

The transport of oil can cause serious damage to the seas. During the twentieth century the amount of oil production has increased. Therefore, the quantity of oil

transported around the world, especially by sea, has also increased. The size of oil tankers has increased to the point where they are by far the largest commercial ships and this results in large amount of oil being released into the seas.

Although the transport of oil is a safe industry, when accidents happen they have a great net effect. Although the frequency of accidents is small in comparison to the number of tanker journeys, many minor incidents such as oil spills from tankers and

oil storage facilities occur every year, causing significant environmental damage.

At present, the extent of oil pollution is such that clusters of floating oil are common in almost all oceans (Boyle, 1996).

35.4 * Environmental Sustainability and Climate Changes

The continual man-made emissions of "Greenhouse gases" are resulting in global atmospheric warming, local climate changes, and sea-level rise, with the prospect of consequent serious environmental, social and economic impacts.

The most comprehensive scientific assessment of climate change was conducted by Working Group I of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC),

which is organized jointly by the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). The results (Houghton et al., 1990, 1992) are the most authoritative and strongly supported statement on climate change that has ever been made by the international scientific community.

When the atmospheric $CO₂$ concentration is increased at the rate of 1 percent per year, the globally averaged surface temperature increase realized in the model is about 60 percent of the warming expected in the equilibrium state under the given concentration of $CO₂$ (Stouffer, et al., 1989; Murphy, 1992).

Concluded that uncertainties in predicting possible future climate changes exist in

our inadequate understanding and thus inadequate treatment of the following processes (Houghton, et al., 1992):

- Clouds (particularly their feedback effect on warming induced by greenhouse gases, as well as the effect of aerosols on clouds and their radiative properties) and

other elements of the atmospheric water budget, including the processes controlling upper-level water vapour;

- Oceans, which, through their thermal inertia and possible changes in circulation, influence the timing and pattern of climate change;

- Land surface processes that link regional and global climates;

Sources and sinks of greenhouse gases and aerosols and their atmospheric

concentrations (including their indirect effects on global warming);

Polar ice sheets (whose response to climate change also affects predictions of

sea-level rise).

$3₆$ * Renewable Energy

The renewable energy is described as a repeatedly occurring energy flow in the environment that can be controlled and used for the benefit of human beings (HGA, 1992).

Johansson (1997) has shown that by 2050 the emissions of global $CO₂$ would be reduced to 75 percent of their 1985 levels assuming that renewable energies and energy efficiency are both pursued (Figures 3.3 and 3.4).

The assessment of the potential contribution of renewable energies concluded that, with adequate support, renewable energy technologies could provide much of the growing demand at prices lower than those usually predicted for conventional energies (Johansson et al. 1993).

Renewable energy could supply three-fifths of the world's electricity market (Figure 3.1) and two-fifths of the market for fuels used directly (Figure 3.2) by the middle of the twenty-first century.

Some of the benefits of transition to a renewable energy economy, which are not captured in standard economic accounts are social and economic development, land

restoration, reduced air pollution, decrease in the intensity of global warming, fuel

supply diversity and etc (Kaya and Yokobori, 1997).

Figure 3.1: The renewable-intensive global energy scenario, 1985-2050 Electricity generation (Source: Johansson et al., 1993)

Figure 3.3: The renewable-intensive global energy scenario, 1985-2050 Emission of CO₂ (Source: Johansson et al., 1993)

Figure 3.2: The renewable-intensive global energy scenario, 1985-2050 Direct fuel use (Source: Johansson et al., 1993)

Figure 3.4: The renewable-intensive global energy scenario, 1985-2050 Per capita emissions of $CO₂$ (Source: Johansson et al., 1993)

These benefits could be accomplished at no additional cost, because renewable energy is expected to be competitive with conventional energy (Kaya and Yokobori, 1997).

During the past decade, significant technical achievements in renewable energy technologies have been made.

Renewable energy systems have obtained many benefits from progresses in material sciences, biotechnology, electronics and other energy fields.

Furthermore, since the size of most renewable energy equipment is small, the development and use of renewable energy technologies can progress at a faster pace than conventional technologies (Kaya and Yokobori, 1997).

$3₇$ * Passive Solar Energy

Many different techniques can be used to convert sunlight into useful forms of energy. Active and passive solar energy technologies are generally used for space conditioning (heating and cooling), while solar electric technologies such as

photovoltaic cells convert sunlight into electricity. Although the distinction between active and passive solar is blurred, the use of integral building components to capture the sun's energy is considered passive solar. Active solar technologies are generally add-on features, which utilize mechanical means to distribute captured solar energy. 62

An example of active solar energy is a solar hot water heater, while passive solar features may be as simple as south facing windows.

Passive solar building features can be used to heat and cool buildings, as well as provide light. The best time to incorporate passive solar technologies in a building is during the initial design. Passive solar features can often be included in new buildings without significantly adding to construction costs, while at the same time providing energy savings of up to 40%. Designing the buildings we live and work in, to capture the ambient energy of the sun through passive solar features is one of the least expensive and most environmentally friendly methods of providing for our energy needs (Jefferson, et. al., 1991).

The capture of solar energy by passive solar technologies has almost no negative impact on the environment. Passive solar energy gives off no air or water emissions and therefore does not contribute to any of the environmental problems such as acid rain and global warming, which are associated with other source of energy.

There is nothing new about using the sun's energy to heat our living spaces; humankind has used passive solar techniques for thousands of years. In many

countries in the world including Iran, cheap and abundant fossil fuels have led to the abandonment of passive solar building design. Rediscovering passive solar energy and incorporating technological advances can go a long way towards creating a more sustainable energy future.

Every building has some of its heating requirements met by solar energy. Sunlight passing through windows is a source of heat; but most buildings are not specifically designed to utilize solar energy. The value of passive solar heating is enhanced by proper building insulation. A well insulated building requires less energy for heating; and thus much of the heating load can be met by passive solar features. Insulation, like passive solar features, can often be incorporated into new building designs with little increase in construction costs (Energy Mines & Resources Canada, 1990).

Optimum passive solar design begins with the layout of a building plot or subdivision. Buildings must be oriented so that they can take full advantage of available solar energy and subdivisions must be designed in such a way that all

buildings have equal access to sunlight. In the northern hemisphere, it is best to situate buildings with their long axis in an East-West direction. This configuration maximizes solar gain in the winter, when the sun is to the south, and minimizes it in summer afternoons when the sun is in the west.

Direct solar gain, increased thermal mass and attached sunspaces are the most common features of passive solar heating. Many other features exist, but are basically variations on the above. Direct solar gain, the main source of passive solar heat, is

accomplished by capturing the sun's energy through large areas of south facing windows. Window glass is virtually transparent to incoming solar radiation. When sunlight strikes the interior of a building, it is converted into heat which is not as readily transmitted back through the glass, thus resulting in a heat gain inside the house. Window glass, however, is generally not a good insulator, and increased solar heat gain during the day can be offset by loss of heat through windows at night. New high efficiency, triple glazed windows with special coatings have recently been developed that have such a high insulation value that they are net producers of heat even when facing north in the winter (Howes, R.; Fainberg, 1991).

Careful attention to the placement of windows which open and interior partitions can greatly increase the natural flow of air through a building, by capturing the prevailing winds. In climates with hot days and cool nights, night-time ventilation can be used to cool the thermal mass of a building. A building with good insulation and a high thermal mass may then stay cool during the day. As with passive solar heating, fans may be used to encourage this ventilation.

Daylighting is the use of sunlight to replace electric lighting in a building. There is no technology at the current time capable of storing sunlight for release at a later time. Daylighting is therefore most valuable in applications such as school buildings where most of the lighting demand occurs during the day. Windows provide light for

the perimeter of buildings while atria, light-shelves and light-pipes, can transmit daylight into the interior of buildings. In combination with electronic "photo-sensor" controls which adjust electric lights according to light levels, daylighting features can drastically reduce the amount of electricity required to light a building.

The use of daylighting has often been seen as contradictory to the need for keeping a building cool in the summer. Sunshine streaming through a window provides daylight, but is also a source of heat. While this heat is valuable in the winter, it can make buildings unbearably hot in the summer. New window technologies such as films which let in light but not heat, and "smart windows" whose transparency can be adjusted by an electric current, have helped to reconcile the needs for both light, and heat in buildings.

Passive solar energy has the potential to supply a large proportion of the energy needs for a properly designed building such as school. The best opportunity for using passive solar is in new construction. Before the proliferation of fossil fuels, architects routinely designed buildings to utilize available solar energy for heating, cooling and lighting. Recent advances in technology and building materials have greatly expanded the tools for architects to work with, and thus the potential for passive solar energy. Passive solar energy, while often seen as "low-technology", represents in many cases, the cleanest, and least expensive possible source of useful energy for buildings (ICLEI, 1993).

$3₈$ * Conclusion

This chapter has looked at the historical development of energy use and detected that whilst it was a basic element of the creation of an advanced society, it also took place with little attention for the efficiency of use and environmental concerns.

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This chapter has demonstrated that the supply of fossil based fuels is limited and will not meet the medium to long-term needs of countries. There is also a growing awareness internationally that the world must adjust its consumption of energy and limit the emission of harmful global warming gases. This means that in the future the world community must make serious efforts to:

a) Reduce dependence on fossil fuels.

b) Increase the use of renewable less polluting sources of energy.

c) Improve the energy efficiency of countries and in particular the energy efficiency of buildings.

The energy efficiency of buildings can be improved through better design and utilising solar energy as a renewable source of energy to supplement the use of fossil fuels.

Since the amount of solar radiation in Iran is great enough to meet a part of the heating, cooling and lighting needs, therefore it seems that using passive solar energy in the design of new schools will help us to:

- Create a more sustainable environment in the future.
- Reduce the consumption of fossil fuels.
- - Provide the cleanest and least expensive possible source of useful energy in schools.
- Save a considerable amount of energy
- .
... - Introduce the advantages of this technology to architects in order to be incorporated in the design of buildings.

The next chapter reviews the calculation of solar energy as a resource of renewable energy. This is believed, will set the framework for a better understanding of Solar Radiation Computation In Iranian Cities.

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Chapter 4

Solar Radiation Computation in Iranian Cities

Solar Radiation Computation in Iranian Cities

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$4₁ * Introducing$

In Chapter 3 it was shown that solar radiation could be used to supplement the use of fossil fuels in the drive to reduce the dependence on fossil fuels. However in order to do so it is necessary to be able to estimate the solar radiation values for surfaces of

buildings.

This thesis aims to produce a methodology for optimising the energy performance of school buildings in Iran and therefore it is necessary that solar radiation values for building surfaces in the selected cities in Iran can be calculated.

Comprehensive hourly solar radiation data for Iran was not available from the Islamic Republic of Iran's Meteorological Office and therefore it is necessary to develop algorithms for calculating such values and to evaluate them against the limited published data for Iran.

The intensity of solar radiation at a particular location will have two components $$ the direct radiation and diffuse radiation. Direct radiation (beam radiation) is the solar radiation received from the sun without any change of direction. Diffuse radiation is the solar radiation received from the sun after its direction has been changed by reflection and scattering by the atmosphere.

When solar radiation reaches the earth's surface, its intensity is little more than

half the value at the top of the atmosphere. Prediction of the value at a particular location is difficult and will depend on local conditions such as pollution; the amount of cloud cover and the length of the path the solar radiation takes through the atmosphere. The final value differs with the time of day, season of the year and position on the earth's surface.

This chapter discusses the method of calculation of solar radiation for cities, such as Tehran, Esfahan, etc. by using the algorithms developed in the European Solar Atlas modified by information from the Islamic Republic of Iran Meteorological Organisation (IRIMO). The equations developed in the European Solar Atlas after

modification have been used to develop a spreadsheet programme to enable calculations of solar intensities to be carried out. The Excel spreadsheet was then used as part of the overall calculation programme for predicting energy usage, which is described in this chapter.

The equations used to calculate both direct and diffuse solar radiation are the ones used in the SERC Meteorological Data Base Handbook and The University of Sheffield Building Science Internal Reports BS 28, 30, 44, 46 and BS 66. It was decided to use this work (although old) as there is a lack of reliable solar data or correction factors for Iran, and it was felt that the basic equations relating to solar radiation would be robust enough for the work in this thesis.

Finally in order to ensure that the values calculated by the following procedures were suitable to be used in the energy estimation part of this work, the results had to be checked against available data. This was carried out by comparing the results with those produced by the Swiss programme Meteonorm Version 3.

However in some of the equations the values given are specific for the European situation and are not appropriate for Iran. In such cases modifications have been made

to ensure that the calculated values are appropriate.

The Chapter is split into three sections, the first dealing with the calculation of direct solar radiation, the second with diffuse solar radiation and the third with the validation of the calculated results.

Section 1 – Calculation of Direct Solar Radiation

42 * Calculation of Direct Solar Radiation on a surface

The basic equation adopted for estimating the value of the direct solar radiation on a

surface was that adopted by Page (Page and Sharples, 1988) and is shown below. This equation requires a knowledge of other modifying factors and these are explained in the following sections. However before this equation can be solved it is necessary to have an understanding of the basic geometry of the relationship between the position of the sun and the receiving surface. These relationships are also outlined.

 $I_c = I_{oj} \exp(-m \delta_R T_L)$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.1 In order to calculate clear sky direct irradiance on a horizontal or inclined surface $I_c(\beta,\alpha)$ is calculated by:

 $I_c (\beta, \alpha) = I_c \cos\left(\beta, \alpha\right)$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.2

Where, I_c is the intensity of solar radiation measured normal to the solar beam and cosv (β, α) is the cosine of angle of incidence.

 $I_c (0.0) = I_{oJ} exp(-m \delta_R T_L) sin\gamma$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.3 Where, I_{oJ} is the extraterrestrial irradiance at normal incidence on day J (Wm⁻²), m is the relative air mass, δ_R is the rayleigh optical thickness at given air mass and T_L is the linke turbidity factor.

$4₃$ * Factors Affecting the Value of Solar Radiation Reaching a Building Surface

For a horizontal surface:

In order to estimate the value of solar radiation at a surface it is necessary to be able to estimate the reduction from the value at the boundary of the Earth's atmosphere. These reductions are caused by absorption of radiation by the atmosphere, water vapour and other pollutants. Finally at the surface the value of radiation is a function of the angle the surface makes with the direct beam. Figure 4.1 shows how the extraterrestrial value is modified by passage through the atmosphere

Figure 4.1: Global mean energy flows between the surface and atmosphere, Reproduced from Trenberth et at 1996 (Harvey, 2000)

The earth revolves not only around its own axis but also around the sun. The latter movement takes place in an elliptical path so that the earth is at a varying distance from the sun at different times of the year. The shortest sun-earth distance happens around first of January when the earth is $147.1*10^6$ Km away from the sun while the longest is around first of July being $152.1*10^6$ Kilometres. The earth's axis is tilted at an angle of 66.5° to its plane of movement around the sun. This inclination is responsible for the declination angle of the sun and different duration of sunshine at'a given point on the earth's surface. All the above factors affect the availability of solar radiation reaching the earth's surface. The intensity of solar radiation normal to the sun's rays at the outer limits of the earth's atmosphere at mean sun-earth distance is known as solar constant (I_o) , Its most accepted value is 1367 Wm⁻². The variation in the intensity of solar radiation at the earth's atmosphere outer limit due to the change in sun- earth distance is related to the solar constant in the following algorithm as suggested by Gruter (1984).

 $I_{oj} = I_0 * [1.0 + 0.03344 \cos (J' - 2.80^\circ)]$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.4

Where: **J'** is day angle and we can calculate by that formula $(J' = J/365.25 * 360)$ and J is day number.

In order to calculate the values of solar radiation it is necessary to have information relating to the following parameters:

$4_{3,1}$ * Solar Altitude and Azimuth

The sun's position at any point on the earth's surface is defined by the altitude angle of the sun and its azimuth angle usually measured from the north (see figure 4.2). If the latitude of the site is known then these two angles are given by the following relationships:

 $4_{3.1.1}$ * Solar Altitude (y)

Solar altitude is the angular height of the sun measured from the horizon. Above the horizon is positive, below is negative. The sun directly in the centre of the sky has a solar altitude of 90 degrees. Solar altitude is a measure in a horizontal coordinate system. The horizontal coordinate system takes the observation point as the origin

For computation at the hourly level it is economical to calculate daily values of (sin4 cosö) first because their values remain constant for the day, and then to retain the values for consequent calculation hour at different values of ω .

 $\sin\gamma = \sin\phi \sin\delta + \cos\phi \cos\delta \cos\omega$ degrees Algorithm 4.5

Where, ϕ is the latitude of the site (N +ve, S -ve), δ is the declination angle of the sun

with respect to earth's equator and ω is the solar hour angle.

and fixes the sun's position by giving a compass direction (azimuth) and elevation above the horizon (altitude).

Figure 4.2: Sun's movement through the sky vault showing solar azimuth and altitude of sun

 $4_{3,1,2}$ * Solar Azimuth (ψ)

Solar azimuth is the angular position of the sun measured around the horizon with north being 180 degrees, east -90 degrees, south 0 degrees and west +90 degrees. The solar azimuth angle in the northern hemisphere is between the vertical plane containing the direction of the sun, and the vertical plane running true north- south measured from south. The value of azimuth angle is positive when the sun is to the west of south i.e. during the afternoon in solar time. It has a negative value when the sun is east of south. For the southern hemisphere the reference direction is true north. The sun's position is often described as a bearing from true north, and this is

sometimes incorrectly referred to as the solar azimuth angle. It is important to adopt the correct definition in using the algorithms below (Page and Sharples, 1988):

 $\cos \psi = (\sin \phi \sin \gamma - \sin \delta) / \cos \phi \cos \gamma$ degrees Algorithm 4.6 $\sin \psi = \cos \delta \sin \omega / \cos \gamma$ degrees Algorithm 4.7

$4_{3.2}$ * Solar Declination (8)

Solar declination is a measure of how many degrees north (positive) or south (negative) of the equator that the sun is when viewed from the centre of the earth. This varies from approximately +23.5 (North) in June to -23.5 (South) in December. The graph below (see figure 4.3) shows how solar declination varies throughout the year. Solar declination is described as the angle between the sun's rays and the earth's equatorial plane. Declination values are positive when the sun is north of the equator (March 21 to September 23) and negative when the sun is south of equator. Maximum and minimum values of δ are +23° 27' and -23° 27'. In order to estimate monthly mean levels of global, horizontal solar radiation it is necessary to establish the value of the solar declination δ . The values of δ were calculated from the following algorithms (Gruter, 1984):

 δ = sin⁻¹(0.3978 sin[J'- 80.2 + 1.92 sin(J'- 2.8)]) degrees Algorithm 4.8

Figure 4.3: Solar Declination (Source: Web site

In table 4.1 the recommended values of day number (J) and solar declination for estimating monthly (for first day of each month of Iranian calendar) mean levels of solar radiation are presented having been calculated by the above Algorithm 4.8.

Table 4.1: The recommended values of day number J and solar declination δ for estimating monthly mean global solar radiation levels (Northern Hemisphere)

$4_{3,3}$ * Solar Hour Angle (ω)

computational procedure by using the hour angle at every half hour between astronomical sunrise and sunset, i.e. t_r and t_s . As we can see in algorithm 4.11, 4.12 all calculations are performed in local apparent time (Solar time $=$ t).

 $\omega = 15$ (t - 12) degrees Algorithm 4.9

 $4_{3.4}$ * Astronomical Day Length (N_o)

The solar hour angle for a particular location on the earth is zero when the sun is directly overhead, negative before local noon and positive in the afternoon. In one 24 hour period, the solar hour angle changes by 360 degrees (i.e. one revolution). As the earth rotates 360° about its axis in 24 hours, in one hour the rotation is 15°. By convention the hour angle is negative before noon and positive after noon, i. e. 09.00 LAT represents an hour angle of -45° and 15.00 LAT represents an hour angle of +45°. Calculations are carried out at hourly intervals in the European Community

Iran is located between latitudes 25° N and 39° N. The city of Yazd (latitude 32° N) is selected as an example and values of N_{o} , t_r and t_s are shown in tables 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4.

The astronomical day length is defined as that time during which the centre of the solar disc is above the horizon and is given by: $N_0 = (1/7.5) \cos^{-1}$ (-tan ϕ tan δ) hours Algorithm 4.10 The times of sunrise, t_r , and sunset, t_s , in local apparent time (i.e. solar time) are found from:

Tables 4.2: Values of N_o for latitude 32° N, for all days in Yazd-Iran, calculated by Gorji.

Tables 4.3: Values of " t, " for latitude 32° N for all days in Yazd-Iran, calculated by Gorji.

Table 4.4: Values of " t, " for latitude 32° N for all days in Yazd-Iran, Calculated by Gorji.

from as Universal Time. The equation of time is a measure of the difference between mean time and true (or solar time). Since 1930 and a decision of the International Astronomical Union the equation of time has been measured with a positive maximum in November. The equation of time is measured in degrees, and may be converted to minutes by multiplying by 4 (i.e., 1 degree $=4$ minutes of time) (Web site 2).

43.5 * Conversion of Local Mean Time to Local Apparent Time

Our concepts of time are based on an earth centred (geocentric) view of the motion of the sun (solar time). True time is based on the motion of the physical sun around the earth. The movement of the sun around the earth is non-uniform. The sun's apparent (or true) motion varies due to:

- The elliptical nature of the earth's orbit,
- The inclination of the axis of the earth's rotation, and
- The perturbations of the moon and the other planets.

The difference between true time and mean time is called the equation of time. Mean time (which is the time that our watches try and keep) is time based on the average motion of a fictional sun, which moves at a uniform rate. There are many related mean time measures. The most well known are Greenwich Mean Time also

The computation effort is simplified by using local apparent time (solar time) in solar studies. A conversion procedure with two stages is used where data related to local mean time (clock time) are needed. The equation of time (ET), which allows for perturbations in the earth's rotation, is calculated in the first stage. The second stage deals with the difference between the longitude of the site under consideration and the reference time zone longitude for the site (Gruter, 1984).

 $ET = -0.128 \sin (J' - 2.8) - 0.165 \sin (2J' + 19.7)$ hours Algorithm 4.13

 $LAT = LMT + (\lambda - \lambda_R / 15) + ET - c$ hours Algorithm 4.14

Where, λ is the longitude of site, λ_R is the reference longitude of the time zone (positive to the east of Greenwich), c is the correction for summer time, if used (usually +1 in spring and summer, zero in autumn and winter) the dates of introduction of summer very from country to country, LAT is the local apparent time and LMT is the local mean time.

The value of λ_R for Iranian time zone was estimated as $+$ 52.5 and Table 4.5 gives values of equation of time (ET) for all days based on this. Iran is located between longitudes 45° E and 63° E. The city of Yazd with longitude 54° E is selected as an example and values of LAT for this city are illustrated in table 4.6.

Table 4.5: The equation of time (ET) for all days calculated by Gorji (Units: Hours)

D/Mon	Jan.	Feb.	Mar	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
	-0.057	-0.225	-0.217	-0.074	0.047	0.038	-0.060	-0.104	0.004	0.184	0.276	0.175
	-0.064	-0.228	-0.214	-0.069	0.049	0.035	-0.063	-0.103	0.009	0.189	0.276	0.169
	-0.072	-0.230	-0.211	-0.063	0.051	0.033	-0.066	-0.102	0.015	0.194	0.275	0.162
	-0.079	-0.232	-0.207	-0.058	0.053	0.030	-0.069	-0.100	0.021	0.200	0.275	0.156
	-0.086	-0.234	-0.204	-0.053	0.054	0.027	-0.072	-0.099	0.027	0.205	0.274	0.149
	-0.093	-0.236	-0.200	-0.048	0.056	0.024	-0.075	-0.097	0.033	0.210	0.273	0.142
	-0.100	-0.237	-0.196	-0.043	0.057	0.021	-0.078	-0.095	0.039	0.214	0.271	0.135
8	-0.107	-0.238	-0.192	-0.038	0.058	0.018	-0.080	-0.093	0.045	0.219	0.270	0.128
9	-0.114	-0.240	-0.188	-0.033	0.059	0.015	-0.083	-0.091	0.051	0.224	0.268	0.121
10	-0.120	-0.240	-0.184	-0.028	0.060	0.012	-0.085	-0.088	0.057	0.228	0.266	0.114
11	-0.127	-0.241	-0.180	-0.024	0.060	0.009	-0.088	-0.086	0.063	0.232	0.263	0.107
12	-0.133	-0.241	-0.175	-0.019	0.061	0.005	-0.090	-0.083	0.069	0.236	0.261	0.099
13	-0.140	-0.242	-0.171	-0.015	0.061	0.002	-0.092	-0.080	0.075	0.240	0.258	0.092
14	-0.146	-0.241	-0.166	-0.010	0.061	-0.001	-0.094	-0.077	0.082	0.244	0.255	0.084
15	-0.152	-0.241	-0.161	-0.006	0.061	-0.005	-0.096	-0.074	0.088	0.247	0.252	0.077
16	-0.157	-0.241	-0.157	-0.001	0.061	-0.008	-0.097	-0.070	0.094	0.250	0.249	0.069
17	-0.163	-0.240	-0.152	0.003	0.061	-0.012	-0.099	-0.067	0.100	0.254	0.245	0.061
18	-0.168	-0.239	-0.147	0.007	0.060	-0.015	-0.100	-0.063	0.107	0.257	0.241	0.053
19	-0.174	-0.238	-0.142	0.011	0.059	-0.019	-0.102	-0.059	0.113	0.259	0.237	0.046
20	-0.179	-0.237	-0.137	0.014	0.058	-0.022	-0.103	-0.055	0.119	0.262	0.233	0.038
21	-0.184	-0.235	-0.132	0.018	0.058	-0.026	-0.104	-0.051	0.125	0.264	0.229	0.030
22	-0.189	-0.234	-0.127	0.022	0.056	-0.029	-0.105	-0.047	0.131	0.266	0.224	0.022
23	-0.193	-0.232	-0.121	0.025	0.055	-0.033	-0.105	-0.042	0.137	0.268	0.219	0.014
24	-0.197	-0.230	-0.116	0.028	0.054	-0.036	-0.106	-0.038	0.144	0.270	0.214	0.007
25	-0.202	-0.228	-0.111	0.031	0.052	-0.040	-0.106	-0.033	0.149	0.272	0.209	-0.001
26	-0.206	-0.225	-0.106	0.034	0.051	-0.043	-0.106	-0.028	0.155	0.273	0.204	-0.009
27	-0.209	-0.223	-0.100	0.037	0.049	-0.047	-0.106	-0.023	0.161	0.274	0.199	-0.017
28.	-0.213	-0.220	-0.095	0.040	0.047	-0.050	-0.106	-0.018	0.167	0.275	0.193	-0.025
29	-0.216		-0.090	0.042	0.045	-0.053	-0.106	-0.013	0.173	0.276	0.187	-0.032
30	-0.220		-0.084	0.045	0.043	-0.057	-0.105	-0.007	0.178	0.276	0.181	-0.040
31	-0.222		-0.079		0.040		-0.105	-0.002		0.276		-0.047

Table 4.6: Values of LAT with longitude 54° E for all days in Yazd-Iran, calculated by Gorji LMT=12.00

43.6 * Wall Solar Azimuth

This is the angle which describes the sun's position in relation to a given plane on the earth's surface (see figure 4.4), and is calculated from the following formula:

 $cos v = cos \gamma cos \alpha_f sin \beta + sin \gamma cos \beta$ degrees Algorithm 4.15

Where, v is the angle of incidence of solar beam on surface, α_f is the wall-solar azimuth, which is the difference between the solar azimuth and the orientation of the surface and β is the inclination of the surface from the horizontal plane.

 $\alpha_f = \psi - \alpha$ degrees Algorithm 4.16

The wall solar azimuth angle is the angle between the vertical plane containing the normal to the surface and the vertical plane passing through the centre of the solar

disc, i.e. it is the resolved angle on the horizontal plane between the direction of the

sun and the normal to the surface. The values are between -180° and $+180^\circ$.

Where, α is the surface azimuth angle measured from due south in northern hemisphere and for due north in southern hemisphere (Easterly values -ve).

 $4_{3.7}$ * Air Mass (The Path Length of the Sun's Rays Through the Earth's Atmosphere)

Figure 4.4: Sun's position with respect to the vertical surface showing wall-solar azimuth and

Normally a fixed amount of the scattering and absorbing gases such as ozone, oxygen and carbon dioxide is present in the atmosphere which are responsible for absorbing and reflecting a proportion of the solar radiation. The depletion in the intensity of direct solar beam will be a function of the path length through the earth's atmosphere. On the other hand, path length has a relationship with the solar altitude angle and in general is recognised as air mass denoted by m (Moon, 1940). Therefore:

 $m = 1/siny$ dimensionless Algorithm 4.17

According to algorithm 4.17 it will be observed that the value of m for altitude angles below 10° will be too large and erroneous. In order to avoid this discrepancy, Rodgers and Souster (1976) proposed the following relationship.

$$
m = \exp \left[a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{6} a_i \left(\sin\gamma\right)^i\right] \quad \text{(for } \gamma = 10^\circ\text{)} \quad \text{dimensionless} \quad \text{Algorithm 4.18}
$$

Where constants a_i , $i=0,1,...,6$ are given the following values:

 $a_0 = 3.67985$ $a_1 = -24.4465$ $a_2 = 154.017$ $a_3 = -747.181$ $a_4 = 2263.36$ $a_5 = -3804.89$ $a_6 = 2661.05$

$4_{3.8}$ * Turbidity

Clear skies are important in predicting the peak solar irradiance and daylight illuminance levels for active solar energy utilisation and passive energy-efficient building designs. The clearness of the sky is affected by the clarity of the atmosphere, which is usually expressed in terms of a turbidity index. The sky contains air

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angle of incidence designed by Gorji.

molecules, water vapour, dust and aerosols (Hussain, et al. 2000). The attenuation of solar energy through an atmosphere gives an indication of the atmospheric turbidity.

43,8,1 * Linke Turbidity Factor

Firstly the value of T_L is calculated, as shown in this algorithm 4.19, and then the corrected for solar altitude.

In order to provide the basis for assessing the impacts of atmospheric turbidity on the direct beam irradiance at any site, the linke turbidity factor has been developed. There are two steps in calculating the turbidity factor.

i) The Linke Turbidity factor is found from:

 I_L = 22.76 + 0.0536 ϕ - dimensionless Algorithm 4.19

The atmospheric turbidity index (ATI) is chosen from table 4.7 regarding the type of atmosphere associated with the site.

The atmospheric transmittance per unit air mass q_a represents the proportion of extraterrestrial irradiance per unit air mass, which would be directly transmitted through the atmosphere as direct irradiance in the absence of any scattering by the

Table 4.7: Classification of ATI with site (Dogniaux and Lemoine, 1983)

ii) Corrections for Solar Altitude

The correction for Solar Altitude ware made in accordance with the recommendations of the WMO (1981).

 - If T_L \leq 2.5 then:

 $T_{\rm L} = T_{\rm L}$ - (0.85 - 2.25 siny + 1.11 sin⁻y) (T_L - 1) / 1.5 Algorithm 4.20

-Otherwise If T_L $>$ = 2.5 then:

 $T_L = T_L$. $-0.85 + 2.25$ siny $-$

dimensionless Algorithm 4.21

43.8.2 * Atmospheric Transmittance Coefficient for Absorption by Air

atmosphere. The amount of absorption increases as the path length increases. The absorbed energy is, of course, not available for scattering. The function for q_a^m used by Valko has been used in these calculations and listed in table 4.8 (Valko, 1975 and Collman, 1971).

$$
q_a^{\prime\prime} = (\sum_{i=0}^5 a_i \gamma^i) (0.506 * 0.010788 \text{ T}_L) \qquad \text{dimensionless} \qquad \text{Algorithm 4.22}
$$

Where the values of a_i are given by:

$$
a_0 = 1.294 \t a_2 = -3.973 * 10-4 \t a_4 = -2.2145 * 10-8
$$

$$
a_1 = 2.4417 * 10-2 \t a_3 = 3.8034 * 10-6 \t a_5 = 5.8332 * 10-11
$$

Table 4.8: Atmospheric transmittance after absorption alone q_a^m (dimensionless) (Valko, 1975)

Solar	Linke Turbidity Factor T _L							
Altitude						v	Л	
0°	0.641	0.627	0.613	0.599	0.585	0.571	0.557	0.543
2°	0.664	0.650	0.621	0.621	0.606	0.592	0.557	0.563
4°	0.686	0.671	0.656	0.641	0.626	0.611	0.596	0.582
6°	0.707	0.691	0.676	0.660	0.645	0.630	0.614	0.599
8°	0.726	0.710	0.694	0.678	0.663	0.647	0.631	0.615
10°	0.744	0.728	0.711	0.695	0.679	0.663	0.647	0.630
12°	0.761	0.744	0.727	0.711	0.694	0.678	0.661	0.645
14°	0.776	0.759	0.742	0.726	0.709	0.692	0.675	0.658
16°	0.791	0.774	0.756	0.739	0.722	0.707	0.688	0.670
18°	0.805	0.787	0.770	0.752	0.734	0.717	0.699	0.682
20°	0.817	0.800	0.782	0.764	0.746	0.728	0.711	0.693
22°	0.829	0.811	0.793	0.775	0.757	0.739	0.721	0.703
24°	0.840	0.822	0.804	0.785	0.764	0.749	0.730	0.712
26°	0.851	0.832	0.814	0.795	0.776	0.758	0.739	0,721
28°	0.860	0.841	0.823	0.804	0.785	0.767	0.748	0.729
30°	0.869	0.850	0.831	0.812	0.793	0.774	0.756	0.737
32°	0.877	0.858	0.839	0.820	0.801	0.782	0.763	0.744
34°	0.885	0.866	0.847	0.827	0.808	0.789	0.769	0.750
36°	0.892	0.873	0.853	0.834	0.815	0.795	0.776	0.756
38°	0.899	0.879	0.860	0.840	0.821	0.801	0.781	0.762
40°	0.905	0.885	0.866	0.846	0.826	0.807	0.787	0.767
42°	0.911	0.891	0.871	0.851	0.831	0.812	0.792	0.772
44°	0.916	0.896	0.876	0.856	0.836	0.816	0.796	0.776
46°	0.921	0.901	0.881	0.861	0.841	0.821	0.801	0.780
48°	0.925	0.905	0.885	0.865	0.845	0.825	0.804	0.784
50°	0.929	0.909	0.889	0.869	0.848	0.828	0.808	0.788
52°	0.933	0.913	0.893	0.872	0.852	0.832	0.811	0.791
54°	0.937	0.916	0.896	0.875	0.855	0.835	0.814	0.794
56°	0.940	0.919	0.899	0.878	0.858	0.837	0.817	0.796
58°	0.943	0.922	0.902	0.881	0.860	0.840	0.819	0.799
60°	0.945	0.925	0.904	0.883	0.863	0.842	0.822	0.801
62°	0.947	0.927	0.906	0.886	0.865	0.844	0.824	0.803
64°	0.950	0.929	0.908	0.888	0.867	0.846	0.825	0.805
66°	0.951	0.931	0.910	0.889	0.868	0.848	0.827	0.806
68°	0.953	0.932	0.911	0.891	0.870	0.849	0.828	0.808
70°	0.954	0.934	0.913	0.892	0.871	0.850	0.830	0.809
72°	0.956	0.935	0.914	0.893	0.872	0.852	0.831	0.810
74°	0.957	0.936	0.915	0.894	0.873	0.852	0.832	0.811
76°	0.958	0.937	0.916	0.895	0.874	0.853	0.832	0.812
78°	0.958	0.937	0.916	0.896	0.875	0.854	0.833	0.812
80°	0.959	0.938	0.917	0.896	0.875	0.854	0.833	0.813
82°	0.959	0.938	0.917	0.896	0.876	0.855	0.834	0.813
84°	0.959	0.939	0.918	0.897	0.876	0.855	0.834	0.813
86°	0.960	0.939	0.918	0.897	0.876	0.855	0.834	0.813
88°	0.960	0.939	0.918	0.897	0.876	0.855	0.834	0.813
90°	0.960	0.939	0.918	0.897	0.876	0.855	0.834	0.813

 \bullet

$4_{3.9}$ * Height above sea level

The height of the receiving surface relative to sea level will affect the amount of radiation received by that surface. It was suggested by Kasten, (1965) and Rodgers, Souster, and Page, (1978) that this could be established by using the ratio of atmospheric pressure differences between the receiving surface and sea level. The ratio (PP_o) is used to correct the path length to take account of station height. This correction is especially important in mountainous areas. Z is the height site above sea

level by metres.

 δ_R = 1/ (0.9m + 9.4) per unit air mass dimensionless Algorithm 4.25 43.11 * Water Vapour

If Height < 4000 metres:
$$
P/P_0 = 1.0 \cdot (\frac{Z}{1000})
$$
 dimensionless Algorithm 4.23
And if: 4000 \le Height<10000 metres:
 $P/P_0 = \exp (\frac{Z}{1000} (-0.1174 - 0.0017 * \frac{Z}{1000}))$ Algorithm 4.24

4_{3.10} * Optical Thickness

The optical thickness of a pure rayleigh scattering atmosphere per unit air mass along a specified path length is described as the reyleigh optical thickness. The rayleigh optical thickness is dependent on the precise optical path and hence on relative air mass because solar radiation is not a monochromatic radiation (Kasten,

1980).

The water vapour content of the air over a given site is the other main atmospheric constituent, which is responsible for the further depletion of the solar beam. In general, it is referred to as precipitable water constituent of the atmosphere. The precipitable water constituent of the atmosphere is defined as the thickness (usually in mm) of the layer of liquid water resulting from condensing the water vapour present between the earth's surface and the upper limit of the atmosphere. According to Curtis

and Lawrence (Curtis and Lawrence, 1972) the bulk of this water is present near the earth's surface and is nearly absent at a height of 10-12 Km.

Generally, this water constituent is composed of up to 4% of the atmosphere by volume and approximately 3% by weight. The absorption of the solar beam by the atmospheric water constituent is proportional to the depth of this content. Therefore,

the transmission factor for water content is related to the air mass (Bannon and Steele, 1960).

Monteith, (1961) has also written about the relationship between the precipitable water constituent and atmosphere derived from vapour pressure $W_{(mm)}$:

 W_{mm} = exp (0.295 \sqrt{e} - 0.803 units: mm Algorithm 4.26 The analysis carried out in this thesis is based on the work of Smith (1966) in which he used a correction factor λ to calculate the water content as outlined below.

 $Ln(W) = 0.1133 -$ - Ln $(\lambda + 1)$ + 0.0393 t_d units: cm Algorithm 4.27 Smith tabulated λ for a variety of situations, which are illustrated in table 4.9.

The estimation of water content of the atmosphere has been the subject of many researchers all of whom have addressed the problem in a different way. Some of the work carried out by Hann (1901), Mirza (1971) and Robinson (1966) are simple in their approach (based on an understanding of vapour pressure) but are unable to deal

with seasonal variations.

Table 4.9: Dependence of λ in algorithm 4.27 seasonal and latitudinal variations, calculated by Gorji.

44 * Present Analysis

It has been shown by Smith that λ varies with both season as well as latitude.

Different seasons are marked by specific ranges of dew point temperatures so that λ

can be expressed in terms of the dew point temperature t_d for a particular latitudinal

band. By interpolating values of λ against different seasons a regression analysis can

be performed to relate t_d with λ . When average values of t_d for Esfahan (32° 27[']N) in

Iran were plotted against λ from table 4.9 a line of the following form was found to be fit the data (see figure 4.5).

$$
t_d = -80.00\lambda + 280.1
$$
 Which gave: $\lambda = \frac{280.1 - t_d}{80.0}$

Where: $\lambda = 3.00$ and $t_d = -0.5$ °C = 31.1 °F (for Esfahan)

Using the above value of λ algorithm 4.27 can be rewritten as:

Ln $\left(\frac{360.1-t_d}{80.00}\right)$ + 0.0393 t_d Algorithm 4.28

Ln (W) = [0.1133 - Ln (
$$
\frac{m}{80.00}
$$
) + 0.0393 t_d Algorithm 4.28

Therefore algorithm 4.27 can be rewritten to account for this latitudinal variation in λ in the following form:

The above equation can be used to assess the atmospheric water content over Esfahan in terms of only one independent variable i.e. dew point temperature t_d . Table 4.9, however, shows that the variation of λ is more significant in terms of latitudes rather than seasons. Therefore a relationship between λ and latitudes can be of great importance for general prediction of water content for different sites.

 $Ln(W) = 0.1133 -$ - Ln $(a\phi^2 + b\phi + c) + 0.0393 t_d$ Algorithm 4.29 Where: $a = -0.0004005952$ b = 0.020297619 c = 2.783110119 It may be noted that in all cases where the values of the dew point temperature t_d are assumed to be given in ${}^{\circ}$ F. Thus for t_d given in ${}^{\circ}$ C the above algorithm is written as:

 $Ln(W) = 0.1133 -$ Ln (a φ ⁻ + b φ + c) + 0.0393(1.8 t_d+32) units: cm Algorithm 4.30

Where a, b and c are the same as before and t_d is given in $^{\circ}C$.

For this purpose a quadratic regression was performed between average values of λ for different seasons as taken from table 4.9 and latitude (ϕ) and the following equation fitted the data:

 $\lambda = -0.0004005952\phi^2 + 0.02029761\phi + 2.78110119$

Algorithm 4.30 was then applied to calculate water contents of the atmosphere over Esfahan region using dew point temperature data supplied by Iran Meteorological Organisation (IRIMO). Results are shown in table 4.10 and figure 4.5.

Table 4.10: Monthly mean water content of the atmosphere over Esfahan region given by Algorithm 4.30 calculated by Gorji (water content $=$ amount of precipitation).

November	$-1.$	9.9
December	-4.4	9.C
Annual	$-U.$	

Figure 4.5: Monthly mean water content of the atmosphere over Esfahan region

It should be observed that Esfahan has a semi-hot climate, the rainy season occurring during December, January, February, March and April. Therefore during these periods the average water content of the atmosphere should be higher than at other times of the year.

Section 2 – Calculation of Diffuse Radiation

$4₅$ * Calculation of Diffuse Radiation on Building Surfaces

The scattering of the direct solar beam by different atmospheric contents will result to the formation of diffuse solar radiation. When the sky condition is clear the amount of diffuse sky radiation is dependent on the quality of the atmospheric. The value of

diffuse radiation on different surfaces does not show any geometric relationship because of its non-directional nature. Thus, often it may be desired to introduce particular relationships for surfaces of different slopes.
$4_{5.1}$ * Clear Sky Diffuse Irradiance on a Horizontal Surface (D_c)

In the first stage of the process, this algorithm mainly estimates the difference between the energy that could arrive with only absorption and without scattering and the direct beam energy that actually arrives on a horizontal plane and splits it into two equal parts. It is assumed that half the scattered energy passes towards the ground (forward scattering). By adding the pragmatic correction factor f_1 , the basic algorithm developed was modified (Aydinli, 1981):

$\boldsymbol{a_i}$	Ŋ:
9.27173×10^{-1}	-1.90432×10^{-1}
1.85002×10^{-2}	1.82259×10^{-2}
-5.37651×10^{-4}	-6.01334×10^{-4}
5.51224×10^{-6}	1.10146×10^{-5}
-1.50178×10^{-8}	-1.00432×10^{-7}
-3.81556×10^{-11}	3.53849×10^{-10}

Table 4.11: For calculation of f_1

4_{5.2} * Ratio of Inclined Surface to Horizontal Surface Clear Sky Diffuse Irradiance f_2^* -Simple Two Component Model

$$
D_c = 0.5 \left(I_{oj} * \sin \gamma * q_a^m - I_c (0,0) \right) f_1 \qquad Wm^2 \text{ Algorithm 4.31}
$$

$$
f_1 = \sum_{i=0}^{5} a_i \gamma^i + (\sum_{i=0}^{5} b_i \gamma^i)^* (T_L - 5) \qquad \text{Algorithm 4.32}
$$

 $i=0$ $i=0$ Where f_1 is forward scattering correction factor for clear sky diffuse irradiance and the values of a_i and b_i are determined as a function of i as follows:

4_{5.3} * Dividing the Diffuse Irradiance From the Sky Into a Background Component and a Clear Sky Component $\stackrel{2}{\rightarrow}$ $_b$ D_c / D_c = $\sum_{i=0}$ ($\sum_{i=0}$ a_{ij} T_L¹) γ ¹ dimensionless $i=0$ $j=0$ Algorithm 4.33

Table 4.12: Values of a_{ij} used in algorithm 4.33

In this method the clear sky irradiance is divided into two constituents: an isotropic background part and a circumsolar component which is treated as a point source located at the centre of the solar disc adding to the direct irradiance. These two constituents are calculated from the value of horizontal surface diffuse irradiance D_{c} . The first step is to calculate the ratio of horizontal background diffuse to total diffuse irradiance.

This ratio may be used directly to calculate the horizontal surface background irradiance from the total horizontal surface diffuse irradiance. Then, the horizontal surface circumsolar constituent may be obtained as the difference.

> $_{c}D_{c}=D_{c}$ $-\mathbf{b}D_c$ Wm² Algorithm 4.34

Where $_bD_c$ is background diffuse irradiance on a horizontal surface, a_{ij} are a set of constants shown in the table 4.12 and $_{c}D_{c}$ is the circumsolar diffuse irradiance on a

The background diffuse irradiance on a surface bD_c (β, α) of slope β may be calculated from the following algorithm:

By rearranging algorithm 4.35 and 4.36, the ratio of the clear sky inclined surface diffuse irradiance to horizontal surface diffuse irradiance (f_2^*) , can be found:

horizontal surface for a cloudless day (Page, 1986).

45.4 * Estimating the Slope Irradiance Due to Diffuse Radiation From the Clear Sky

$$
{b}D{c}(\beta,\alpha) = {}_{b}D_{c} * 0.5 (1 + cos\beta)
$$
 Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.35

The circumsolar diffuse irradiance on a surface of solar (β) and orientation having

angle of solar incidence (v), $_cD_c(\beta,\alpha)$ is calculated by:

 $_{c}D_{c}(\beta,\alpha) = {}_{c}D_{c} \cos\theta / \sin\theta$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.36

Where K_d is correction factor for sun earth distance and G_b is Overcast Sky Global Irradiance.

The ratio of overcast sky diffuse irradiance on a surface of slope β to that on a horizontal surface is calculated by algorithm 4.39. It is derived by analytic

$$
f_2^{\bullet} = 0.5 \left({bD_c / D_c} \right)^{\ast} (1 + \cos \beta) + (1 - bD_c / D_c) \cos \gamma / \sin \gamma
$$
 Algorithm 4.37

$4_{5.5}$ * Overcast Sky Diffuse Irradiance on a Horizontal Surface D_b

As this overcast sky diffuse irradiance on a horizontal surface is sensitive to only one variable (solar altitude), it does not allow for variations in overcast sky irradiance caused by different types of cloud cover (Krochmann, 1964).

 $G_b = D_b = K_d (2.6 +182.6 \sin \gamma)$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.38

integration, using the Moon and Spencer overcast sky radiance distribution (Krochmann, 1979).

 $f_3 = 0.1819$ [1.178 (1+cos β) + π /180 (180 - β) cos β + sin β] Algorithm 4.39

 D_b (β , α), from the overcast sky diffuse irradiance on a horizontal surface, D_b , using the following algorithm:

$D_b(\beta,\alpha) = f_3D_b$ units: Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.40

$4_{5.6}$ * Monthly Mean Relative Sunshine Duration for a 4^o Horizon σ_{4m}

Now it is simple to drive the overcast sky diffuse irradiance on an inclined surface,

This method is used as computational method to the measure of the monthly mean fraction of any hour during which the sun is assumed to be shining. The mean relative sunshine duration can estimate the monthly mean direct bean irradiance from the clear sky values. It also estimates the proportion of the monthly mean diffuse irradiance ascribed to blue clear sky conditions (the remaining diffuse fraction being treated as coming from an overcast sky). Since hourly sunshine records are unavailable for the majority of Iranian stations, the relative sunshine duration is calculated by a method on a monthly mean daily basis. The method cannot, therefore, deal with asymmetries of mean sunshine availability across the day. Around sunrise and sunset, when the path length is greatest, the solar beam intensity usually will not be strong enough to burn the card on the sunshine records. The result is an overestimation of the effective day length and therefore, an underestimate of the daily mean relative sunshine duration, if the possible day length is based on the astronomical day length. An additional complication is that few sites exist without some small obstruction of the horizon due to vegetation etc. With the aim to compensate for these effects, the effective day length is calculated assuming the horizon to be 4° above the horizontal plane. By using the monthly mean value of the solar declination from table 4.1, the monthly mean 4° sunrise day length is calculated.

The monthly mean relative sunshine duration is calculated from the monthly mean

daily sunshine data. This data is available for over 200 Iranian stations in the Islamic

Republic of Iran Meteorological Organisation (IRIMO). It is a commonly available climatologically statistic.

The monthly mean relative sunshine duration calculated on a 4° degree sunrise basis, σ_{4m} is given by the following algorithm:

 σ_{4m} = 7.5 N/(cos⁻¹ ((sin 4° – sin ϕ sin δ)/(cos ϕ cos δ))) Algorithm 4.41

Where, N is monthly mean daily-recorded bright sunshine (hours).

4_{5.7} * Computation of Monthly Mean Direct Beam Irradiance From Clear Day Direct Beam Irradiance Values I_m (β, α)

The base of the calculation is to decrease the direct beam irradiance in proportion

to the relative sunshine duration (σ_{4m}) . This relative duration is determined assuming

- When the sky is partially clouded (with broken cloud), the sunshine record has a tendency to be over-exaggerated on the broken card burn record.
- The card may not burn when the sun is very low and the weather is very turbid. Also in a very turbid condition, the card may not burn until the sun's altitude is quite high.

Algorithm 4.42 has been suggested by page (1986), for the calculation of monthly mean direct beam irradiance from clear day direct beam irradiance values $I_m(\beta,\alpha)$:

a 4° degree horizon for calculating day length. This method has practical weaknesses, which are caused by several reasons:

• The Linke Turbidity Factor on clear day has a tendency to be lower than the monthly average values. This is partly because the precipitable water vapour constituent tends to be lower than average on clear days. Therefore, there is less H_2O absorption in the infrared.

$$
I_m (\beta, \alpha) = f_4 \sigma_{4m} I_c (\beta, \alpha)
$$
 Units: Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.42

Where f_4 is calculated by the following procedure.

If
$$
\gamma < 45^\circ
$$
, then: $f_4 = \sum_{j=0}^3 (\sum_{i=0}^2 (a_{ij} * \gamma^i)(\sigma_{4m}))$

Otherwise:
$$
f_4 = \sum_{j=0}^{3} (\sum_{i=0}^{2} (a_{ij} * 45^{i})(\sigma_{4m})^{j}
$$

The values of aij are illustrated in the following table:

Table 4.13: Values of aij

Page (1986) has developed the following formulae with the aim to calculate the monthly mean hourly values of the diffuse irradiance on a horizontal surface (D_m) .

4_{5.8} * Estimation of Monthly Mean Hourly Values of the Diffuse Irradiance on a Horizontal Surface D_m

Table 4.14: Values of b_i, c_i and d_i

Dı	Cı	dı
0.5212 2.429	0.83202 0.011619	7.12889 -14.9747
-3.383 1.432	$-1.8832 * 104$ $9.8559 * 10^{-7}$	9.10674

The uncorrected value of the monthly mean horizontal diffuse irradiance uD_m at solar altitude γ , is calculated by:

 $_{\rm u}$ D_m = $_{\rm G4m}$ D_c + (1 - $_{\rm G4m}$) (D_{0.25} – 0.25 $_{\rm G4m}$ D_c) / 0.75 Wm⁻ Algorithm 4.44 The monthly mean diffuse irradiance for a monthly mean relative sunshine duration of 0.25, $D_{0.25}$, is calculated by the following algorithm: $D_{0.25} = (2 + 5.3 \gamma) K_d$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.45

Values of b_i , c_i and d_i are shown in the following table:

45,9 * Monthly Mean Diffuse Irradiance From Sky Incident Upon an Inclined Surface $D_{ms}(\beta,\alpha)$

At first, the horizontal component of the monthly mean diffuse irradiance at any solar altitude has to be divided into two components, a clear sky component, and an

overcast sky/cloudy sky component. This division is achieved using the monthly mean relative sunshine duration σ_{4m} . Then the two separate horizontal components for clear and overcast/partially cloudy skies are converted into inclined surface values using the appropriate slope algorithms outlined earlier. It is assumed that the contribution from the clouds in the case of the partially clouded sky can be estimated on the basis that the mean radiance distribution is adequately described by the Moon and Spencer overcast sky luminance distribution function. The two components are

Stage 1: Splitting the Horizontal Diffuse Irradiance Into Two Components – Blue Sky Component and Overcast/Partially Clouded Component

 $c_{\rm cm} = \sigma_{4\rm m} D_c$ Units: Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.46 Overcast/partially clouded component of horizontal diffuse irradiance $_{pc}D_m$ is calculated by:

Where D_m is monthly mean diffuse irradiance on a horizontal surface at a given solar altitude.

then added together to calculate the monthly mean diffuse irradiance reaching the slope from the sky. Page developed the following algorithms (1986).

1. The uncorrected clear sky contribution to monthly mean diffuse irradiance on slope, $_{\text{uc}}D_{\text{m}}(\beta,\alpha)$ is calculated by:

 $_{\text{uc}}D_{\text{m}}(\beta,\alpha) = f_2 \, _{\text{c}}D_{\text{m}} = \sigma_{4\text{m}} D_{\text{c}}(\beta,\alpha)$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.48

Clear sky component of horizontal diffuse irradiance, is calculated by:

The monthly mean diffuse irradiance from the sky on the plane ${}_{uc}D_m$ (β,α) uncorrected is obtained by adding the two components, therefore:

$$
_{pc}D_m = D_m - \sigma_{4m} D_c
$$
 Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.47

Stage 2: Converting horizontal components to slope values and recombining to find diffuse irradiance on slope from sky

The calculation continues in two stages:

The uncorrected overcast sky/partially clouded sky contribution to monthly mean

diffuse irradiance on slope, $ucD_m (\beta, \alpha)$ is calculated by:

$$
{\rm upc}D{\rm m}(\beta,\alpha) = f_{3\rm pc}D_{\rm m} \qquad Wm^{-2} \qquad \text{Algorithm 4.49}
$$

$_{\text{u}}D_{\text{ms}}(\beta,\alpha) = f_{2} \,_{\text{c}}D_{\text{m}} + f_{3} \,_{\text{pc}}D_{\text{m}}$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.50

2. An empirical additional correction factor C.F. is then applied, but only if the modulus of the wall solar azimuth angle lies between 45° and 135°. The additional correction is, for $45^{\circ} < \alpha_f < 135^{\circ}$,

$$
C.F. = 1 + \sin \beta \sin 2 (\alpha_f - 45) (0.19 - 0.14 \sin \gamma)
$$

Otherwise C.F. $= 1$, thus the mean monthly diffuse contribution from the sky alone is:

$D_{\text{ms}} (\beta, \alpha) = {}_{u}D_{\text{ms}} (\beta, \alpha) * C.F.$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.51

4_{5.10} * Ratio of Ground Reflected Irradiance on an Inclined Surface to Global Irradiance on a Horizontal Surface f_6

By using this algorithm the ground reflected irradiance under any conditions i.e., clear, overcast or average may be calculated (provided the global irradiance is known). It assumes that ground reflected irradiance is isotropically distributed. The algorithm may also be used on a daily basis to convert integrated horizontal surface values to slopes, as f_6 is solely dependent on slope angle and ground albedo (ρ_g) and is independent of time of day.

$R_g (\beta, \alpha) = f_6 * G$ Units: Wm^2 Algorithm 4.53

By using this ratio the amount of ground reflected irradiance on inclined surfaces $R_g(\beta,\alpha)$ from the global horizontal irradiance (G) may be calculated. The ratio can be applied to clear, overcast and average day calculations and is independent of orientation.

 $f_6 = 0.5 \rho_g (1.0 - \cos \beta)$ dimensionless Algorithm 4.52

 $4_{5.11}$ *Ground Reflected Irradiance on Inclined Surfaces R_g (β, α)

The monthly mean global irradiance on an inclined surface G_m (β, α), including direct sky, diffuses sky and ground reflected irradiances is calculated by:

$G_m (\beta, \alpha) = I_m (\beta, \alpha) + D_{ms} (\beta, \alpha) + R_{gm} (\beta, \alpha)$ Wm⁻² Algorithm 4.54

Where $I_m(\beta, \alpha)$ is monthly mean direct beam irradiance on inclined plane, $D_{ms}(\beta, \alpha)$

is monthly mean sky diffuse irradiance and $R_{gm}(\beta,\alpha)$ is monthly mean ground reflected irradiance on inclined plane.

Table 4.15: Mean hourly global radiation values for north orientation, for each month in Tehran, Solar time, W/m²

By using the equations outlined in section 1 and 2, an example of solar radiation calculation in north, east, west, south and horizontal surfaces for the city of Tehran are presented in tables 4.15- 4.19.

Table 4.16: Mean hourly global radiation values for east orientation, for each month in Tehran, Solar time, W/m²

Table 4.17: Mean hourly global radiation values for west orientation, for each month in Babolsar, Solar time, W/m2

Table 4.18: Mean hourly global radiation values for south orientation, for each month in Tehran, Solar time, W/m2

Table 4.19: Mean hourly global radiation values for horizontal, for each month in Tehran, Solar time, W/m2

Section 3 – Validation of the Calculated Data

46 * Validation of the Calculated Data

Solar radiation data from the IRIMO was not available to allow an evaluation exercise to be carried out, however the School of Architecture has a copy of the Swiss produced simulation model - Meteonorm Version 3 which is able to estimate the values of solar radiation on any surface anywhere in the world. This programme uses published data from over 625 primary sites worldwide and if a chosen location is not at one of these sites the programme will estimate the values by interpolating between the values from the nearest site.

From the handbook of Meteonorm it is stated that the accuracy is 11% for monthly radiation values and comparisons of total radiation due to the length of the time

period over which data is generated (10 year or longer periods) is less than 2%.

46.1 * Comparisons Between Gorji Calculated Data and Meteonorm

The evaluation was carried out for four sites in Iran as Meteonorm Version 3 only had data from these four primary sites and it was felt that by using other sites in Iran errors could be introduced due to the calculation process within Meteonorm itself.

Table 4.20: Solar radiation in different orientations-Tehran-Iran with Meteonorm programme (Kwhrs/sq.m)

				Meteonorm Horizontal $ S - 60$ deg. $ S - 90$ deg $ SE - 90$ deg $ E - 90$ deg $ NE - 90$ deg Direct Beam			
Jan.	38	76	66	45	19		91
Feb.	47	75	60	47	26		98
Mar.	67	78	51	51	37	12	116
Apr.	91		38	46	42	20	143
May	118	75	24	45	52	34	178
Jun.	156	84	18	51	70	50	229
Jul.	165	96	24	54	69	46	239
<u>Aug.</u>	153	112 .	45	65	67	38	231
Sept.	117	120		70	55	21	194
Oct.	85	120	90	73	43	10	161
Nov.	48	90	76	57	26	2	109
Dec.	34	76	68	48	19		90

Table 4.21: Solar radiation in different orientations-Tehran-Iran with Gorji programme (Kwhrs/sq.m)

Solar Radiation Computation in Iranian Cities

 $4_{61.1}$ * Site $1-$ Tehran-Iran

Table 4.22: Percentage difference between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation-Tehran-Iran (Percentage=% Error)

Figure 4.7: Solar radiation in different orientations-Tehran-Iran (Gorji calculation)

Figure 4.8: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji calculation-Tehran (Difference)

Figure 4.6: Solar radiation in different orientations-Tehran-Iran (Meteonorm)

Table 4.23: Solar radiation in different orientations-Yazd-Iran with Meteonorm programme (Kwhrs/sq.m)

				Meteonorm Horizontal $ S - 60$ deg. $ S - 90$ deg $ SE - 90$ deg $ E - 90$ deg $ NE - 90$ deg Direct Beam			
Jan.	31	57	48	33			69
Feb.	45	66	50	39	23		88
Mar.	63	70	44	39	28		106
Apr.	87	67	28	39	40	22	136
May	109	63	16	36	45	30	158
Jun.	163	80	12	46	66	50	236
Jul.	166	88		51		51	238
<u>Aug.</u>	146	100	36	60	66	39	221
Sept.	112	107	58	65	55	23	179
Oct.	78	103	74	62	39	9	143
Nov.		71	59	49	25	3	88
Dec.	28	55	48	35	15		67

Table 4.24: Solar radiation in different orientations-Yazd-Iran with Gorji programme (Kwhrs/sq.m)

 $4₆₁₂ * Site 2-Yazd-Iran$

Gorji calculation				Horizontal $ S - 60$ deg. $ S - 90$ deg $ SE - 90$ deg $ E - 90$ deg $ NE - 90$ deg Direct Beam			
Jan.	34.72	66.96	52.08	37.82	15.50	1.12	78
Feb.	49.28	71.68	48.16	43.96	26.04	5.71	101
Mar.	69.44	79.36	43.40	44.02	31.31	10.39	119
Apr.	88.80	72.00	25.20	43.50	39.42	24.25	157
May	116.56	74.40	16.62	40.92	48.23	33.25	181
Jun.	143.10	84.00	12.72	48.60	56.10	42.77	228
Jul.	153.14	89.28	18.35	53.32	64.17	45.49	241
Aug.	139.50	99.20	33.23	63.24	58.31	41.23	252
Sept.	112.80	108.00	54.48	70.20	50.67	25.68	208
Oct.	86.80	116.56	78.37	70.99	44.64	10.39	165
Nov.	46.80	79.20	64.80	55.80	28.20	3.42	102
Dec.	32.24	62.00	52.33	38.75	17.05	1.12	76

Table 4.25: Percentage difference between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation-Yazd-Iran (Percentage=% Error)

Figure 4.9: Solar radiation in different orientations-Yazd-Iran (Meteonorm)

Figure 4.10: Solar radiation in different orientations-Yazd-Iran (Gorji calculation)

Figure 4.11: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji calculation-Yazd (Difference)

Table 4.26: Solar radiation in different orientations-Isfahan-Iran with Meteonorm programme (Kwhrs/sq.m)

							Meteonorm Horizontal $ S - 60$ deg. $ S - 90$ deg $ SE - 90$ deg $ E - 90$ deg $ NE - 90$ deg Direct Beam
Jan.	39		59	43			75
Feb.	52 ₂	76	57	43	21		94
Mar.	69		49	42	27		89
Apr.	100	82	37		35	15	152
May	132	83	23	40	45	27	165
Jun.	175	95	18	44	58	40	237
Jul.	176	101	22	48	59	39	226
<u>Aug.</u>	162	.	43	58	56	29	218
Sept.	124	121	69	64	46	16	182
Oct.	87	115	82	64	34	6	141
Nov.	51	87		52	22		95
Dec.	36		61	44	16		70

Table 4.27: Solar radiation in different orientations-Isfahan-Iran with Gorji programme (Kwhrs/sq.m)

 4_{613} * Site 3 – Isfahan-Iran

Table 4.28: Percentage difference between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation-Isfahan-Iran (Percentage=% Error)

Figure 4.12: Solar radiation in different orientations-Isfahan-Iran (Nettonorm)

Figure 4.13: Solar radiation in different orientations-Isfahan-Iran (Gorji calculation)

Figure 4.14: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji calculation-Isfahan (Difference)

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 $4_{61.4}$ * Site 4 – Mashhad-Iran

Table 4.29: Solar radiation in different orientations-Mashhad-Iran with Meteonorm programme (Kwhrs/sq. m)

				$ \text{Meteonorm} $ Horizontal $ S - 60$ deg. $ S - 90$ deg $ SE - 90$ deg $ E - 90$ deg $ NE - 90$ deg Direct Beam			
Jan.	43	87	75	54			88
Feb.	56	88	69	52	24		99
Mar.	72	86	58	48	30		115
Apr.	103	90	45	47	38	16	141
May	132	89	30	44		27	164
Jun.	174	103	26	49	59	38	241
Jul.	175	110	31	53	60	36	235
<u>Aug.</u>	164	129	55	66	59	28	230
Sept.	128	136	84	74	50	15	199
Oct.	93	133	100		39	6	168
Nov.	56	106	89	65	25	2	124
Dec.	41	88	79	56	20		97

Table 4.30: Solar radiation in different orientations-Mashhad-Iran with Gorji programme (Kwhrs/sq. m)

Gorji calculation		Horizontal $ S - 60$ deg. $ $		$S - 90$ deg $ SE - 90$ deg $ E - 90$ deg $ NE - 90$ deg Direct Beam			
Jan.	38.75	76.19	66.52	48.40	19.90	1.15	90.35
Feb.	49.18	74.76	58.52	44.52	22.23	3.36	88.69
Mar.	65.47	75.33	50.22	43.86	29.44	8.98	107.70
Apr.	93.50	78.60	39.00	44.70	39.08	17.87	135.48
May	135.43	99.36	33.79	48.36	53.32	29.32	185.38
Jun.	158.01	111.87	30.00	55.80	65.19	37.20	227.79
Jul.	173.26	123.93	35.65	61.07	66.65	37.64	249.93
Aug.	167.72	134.88	58.89	75.33	66.03	32.24	251.39
Sept.	122.28	127.92	77.09	75.35	56.50	17.10	200.97
Oct.	85.52	120.54	90.87	73.54	41.87	6.76	160.93
Nov.	51.23	91.87	78.23	57.87	25.66	2.22	111.37
Dec.	37.55	77.71	69.48	50.07	19.24	0.99	90.82

Table 4.31: Percentage difference between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation-Mashhad-Iran (Percentage=% Error)

Figure 4.15: Solar radiation in different orientations-Mashhad-Iran (Meteonorm)

Figure 4.16: Solar radiation in different orientations-Mashhad-Iran (Gorji calculation)

Figure 4.17: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji calculation-Mashhad (Difference)

$4_{6,2}$ * Conclusions from the Analysis

Four cities in Iran were selected and the solar radiation value for building surfaces was calculated using the excel based spreadsheet programme which was developed from the solar radiation algorithms outlined above. Figures 4.18 and 4.19 show an input and output screen of this programme. The climatic data of these cities are included in Meteonorm programme. The radiation values were then calculated for the four cities using the Meteonorm programme. The calculated data has been compared with data produced by Meteonorm programme and found to be within the normally accepted error bands of 10%. Although, there are small differences in the tables (see tables 4.20 to 4.31) and graphs (see figures 4.6 to 4.17), the results are relatively similar. These differences in the results between December and April could be attributed to several facts, namely lower altitude values of the sun and the resultant differences in turbidity and possibly greater air pollution. These factors would need further investigation and more information on actual measured values before they could be corrected. However as the absolute values in these months are relatively low (in the range 90 kwh/m² compared to the July values in the region of 250 kwh/m²) then the slightly higher percentage differences were not regarded as being too

significant in estimating the energy requirements of buildings.

In addition, they support the calculations done by excel based spreadsheet programme and show that the results are dependable. Due to the fact that the country has 8 different climate zones and the human settlements are located variously among these zones, solar radiation differs and should be estimated as precisely as possible. The result of this comparison show that the excel based spreadsheet programme is suitable for the calculation of solar radiation values in all cities in Iran. Details of comparison between the spreadsheet excel program and Meteonorm program has been made in appendix B.

47 * Summary

Solar radiation data are important in renewable energy resource planning. However, these data have not yet been made available calculated in Iran. Therefore, there is the need for the precise calculation of solar radiation for each and every city of Iran in order to better exploit the benefits of solar energy for the future of this country.

This chapter has discussed the method of calculation of solar radiation in different cities of Iran based on European Solar Atlas and Islamic Republic of Iran Meteorological Organisation's statistics (IRIMO). The equations developed in this chapter have been used in excel based spreadsheet to calculate the solar radiation values on any surface anywhere in Iran. An example of the input and output sheets of the hourly solar radiation calculation programme is presented in figures 4.18 and 4.19. The calculated data has been compared with data produced by the computer programme Meteonorm and found to be within the normally accepted error bands of 10%. The spreadsheet programme developed to calculate the solar radiation intensities was further developed to include a procedure to calculate the energy flows

across the building elements and is discussed in Chapter 6.

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Figure 4.18: The first input page of the hourly solar radiation calculations programme

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Figure 4.19: The output page of the hourly solar radiation calculations programme

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5* Schools Lighting Requirements

$5₁$ * Introduction

One of the essential factors in the design of school buildings is lighting. It is necessary in every building, especially in schools where good natural lighting is required. A successful school design depends to a great deal on the quality of the visual environment (DES, 1967). Therefore, architects should keep in mind that good lighting conditions is very important in providing a suitable educational environment. Nevertheless, it is accepted that the visual comfort in schools depends on the quality of the whole visual environment. This leads to the concern upon the quality and quantity of lighting.

Different criteria of lighting design are shown in the following framework (figure 5.1). The role of these criteria in the lighting design will not be equal. However, in order to achieve the best solution all should be taken into account (DFEE, 1999).

Figure 5.1: Design framework (DFEE, 1999)

In order to allow for various tasks it may be necessary to provide flexibility in the lighting. Local task lighting can be very useful for particular activities. One of the important factors that should be considered in selecting the type of local task light (such as surface temperature of the fitting) is safety. One of the alternatives to higher

The Designer needs to consider the functional requirements of the special space. It is essential to examine the type of lighting required and the amount of light to be certain that the occupants of the space can carry out their special activities without visual difficulty and in a comfortable visual environment. Therefore the activity requirements for particular spaces have to be analysed.

levels of illuminance (especially for the visually impaired) is an increase in the contrast or the size of the task detail.

This feature of lighting addresses the appearance of the lit scene and the aim is to create a visually interesting and pleasant environment. This means producing a light pattern that has variation in the luminance and a sensitive use of surface colour.

architecture. This will apply to the lighting elements, i.e. windows and luminaries, and their production of light patterns.

The installation of natural and electric lighting has to be integrated in the

This will lead to the maximum use of daylight by using electric light to complement daylight and using energy-efficient electric lighting that only works when it is required. This last point can be dealt with the positions of the control switches, the organisation of the lighting circuits to have a connection with the daylight distribution and the use of the space. Useful energy savings can be provided by automatic controls however, it is necessary that any controls are used friendly, i. e., they do not restrict the use of the space, (BRE, 1996).

The type of luminaries should be selected with the aim of giving an average initial circuit luminous efficacy of 65 lumens per circuit watt for the fixed lighting equipment within the building. Emergency lighting systems and equipment, which are not fixed such as, track-mounted luminaries are excluded from this figure (HMSO, 1995).

After a period of time all lighting will worsen because of dirt build-up on the windows, on the lamps and luminaries, on the reflecting surfaces of the space and also due to a decrease in the output of the lamp's light. In order to be certain that the lit environment is satisfactory over the whole maintenance cycle, the designer has to examine these matters in making decisions. Therefore, there is a need to have liaison

with the client with the aim of planning an appropriate maintenance programme.

It is important to remember that using a wide range of different types of lamp makes the next replacement much more complicated. All lighting elements including windows should be easy to clean and maintain.

 $5₂$ * Design Criteria

$5_{2.1}$ * Daylighting

It has been suggested that the minimum level of daylight in school buildings should be 2% day light factor (DES, 1977). The daylight factor is defined as that percentage of the outside level reaching the working plane from the outside. This includes the light reflected from internal and external surfaces (see figure 5.2). Windows should provide light and view in school buildings. In table 5.1 the size of

openings, which provides the 2% daylight are shown in percentage (DES, 1977).

Figure 5.2: Daylight factor components (designed by Gorji)

Table 5.1: Percentage of openings to the depth of the teaching space (DES, 1977).

Side windows or rooflights can obtain these percentages. By using rooflights the capital cost will increase and the view out will be eliminated (DES, 1977). Also, they will be difficult to shade and protect from direct sun. Side windows; provide light, view out, fresh air and possible escape (DES, 1967). The size of windows should be

considered in the climate of Iran (especially in centre and south). Alan Konya suggests medium sized windows to ensure good airflow during summer and allow the penetration of sun during winter (Konya, 1980). The quality of good lighting can be obtained without excessively large areas of glass.

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During daylight hours, natural light should be the first means of lighting. A space is likely to be considered well lit if the average daylight factor is 4-5%. For the daylight illuminance to be adequate for the task, it will be necessary to achieve a level of not less than 300 lux in the classrooms, and for particularly demanding tasks not less than 500 lux (see chapter 6 section 2). When this level cannot be obtained, it will be necessary that the daylight be supplemented by electric light. Sometimes, light exterior surfaces can be used in order to increase reflected light (Research centre,

1992 and DFEE, 1999).

The window design should be relevant to the layout and activities, which, are planned for the internal space (for example, to avoid silhouetting effects and excessive contrasts in brightness).

Daylight and particularly direct sunlight can cause discomfort and disability glare. This problem can often be resolved by careful and appropriate design of the window to minimise glare. The other alternative is to provide adjustable blinds in order to screen the glare source when necessary. Also, blinds can improve the thermal environment by decreasing heat gains. External blinds are more expensive than the

internal blinds. Nevertheless, external blinds are more effective in preventing solar heat gain. Internal blinds are often difficult to maintain. Also, they are a source of noise when windows are open. Traditional architectural forms in Yazd were able to aid in the control of the internal environment through such devices as wind catchers to help in providing natural ventilation and dome structures to provide daylight and ventilation. In this thesis the author is interested in optimising school design in different climate zones in Iran. Devices, which may be appropriate in one climate zone may not be appropriate in another and therefore the author felt that to investigate the use of traditional forms would (although interesting) fall outside the scope of his work.

Windows provide natural variation of light through the day and external visual interest. Therefore, for the window area to be adequate for this purpose, for example in Babolsar, it is recommended that a minimum glazed area of 20% of the internal elevation of the exterior wall be provided (as a result in chapter 6 section 2). Windows need to be also examined in terms of other environmental factors such as,

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the thermal and acoustic performance together with the energy efficiency of the building.

$5_{2,2}$ * Electric Lighting

The electric lighting installation has to provide all the requirements illustrated in the design framework. According to task lighting, for most school tasks, an illuminance of 300 lux will be suitable. If the task is particularly demanding (e. g., the task detail content is small or it has a low contrast) a value of not less than 500 lux

will be necessary: in some circumstances, this can be obtained by a local supplement to the general lighting. Although the human eye is able to operate in low lighting levels there is strong evidence that visual acuity drops off with low levels (Boyce, 1973). Therefore in an education environment where reading plays an important part of the daily tasks it is necessary to ensure that the eye can function efficiently with minimum strain. It is therefore suggested that design guidelines adopted in countries where research effort has been carried out into visual acuity are adopted. For stairs and corridors a maintained illuminance at floor level in the range 80-120 lux is recommended. Entrance halls, lobbies and waiting rooms need a higher illuminance in the range 175-250 lux at an appropriate level. Reception areas should

be lit to a level in the range 250-350 lux on the working plane (see table 5 2).

In order to avoid from discomfort glare, where a regular arrangement of luminaries is used, the Glare Index shall be limited to no more than 19, (CIBSE, 1985). Also, it will be important to avoid visual discomfort from individual luminaries and from reflected images, particularly on computer screens.

The avoidance of subliminal lamp flicker is another consideration on visual comfort. This is important because it can induce epileptic fits in susceptible pupils. It can be minimised by using high frequency control gear or using more than one phase of a three-phase supply in a lead-lag arrangement. The stroboscopic effect of lamp

flicker must be addressed in areas with rotating machinery (e.g., circular saws).

One of the important parts of learning is colour appreciation. For this reason it is essential to use electric light sources that present colour perfectly (especially in art and design rooms). Providing good colour is not now very expensive to reach. Therefore, lamps with a CIE colour-rendering index of not less than 80 are 118

recommended. With respect to colour appearance, lamps with a warm to intermediate classification (Correlated colour temperature 2527°C-3727°C) should be used. Switching arrangements should facilitate shared use of spaces where suitable (CIBES, J 1985).

52.3 * Combined Daylighting and Electric Lighting

When the daylighting recommendations cannot be obtained throughout a space a particularly designed supplement of electric lighting should be provided. In addition

to providing a combined illuminance for activities being undertaken, a suitable appearance should be achieved by a balance of brightness throughout the space to cope with relatively bright windows. Preferential lighting and especially wall lighting in areas far from the window can obtain this.

$5_{2.4}$ * Lighting Quantity

It is stated by the Department of Education and Science that the lowest level of illumination on a working plane at any point should not be less than 150 lumens and where fluorescent lighting is used it should not be less than 300 lumens (DES, 1977). In spaces, where combined lighting is needed (such as laboratory) illumination should not be less than 200 lumens (Ibid). The level of illumination for each space in the

school is shown in the table 5.4.

52.5 * Lighting Quality

Lighting is divided in two types: natural and artificial. In schools, daylight should be the main source in working areas. Artificial lighting is needed to supplement daylight occasionally on the dullest days, in darkness or at night. In teaching areas, the level of maintained illumination and daylight factor should not be less than 108 lumens per $m²$ and 2% respectively (DES, 1967). The 2% daylight factor could be obtained with a glazed area of 15 to 20% of the floor area. The main problems are glare and overheating, caused by the presence of the sun. Appropriate solutions

should be taken at an early stage of design.

$5_{2.6}$ * Glare

In order to obtain a good visual environment, it is recommended that equilibrium of brightness throughout the room and a balance of direct and indirect lighting be achieved. This prevents the impacts of glare. The glare index for each space in a 119

school is illustrated in the table 5.2. Glare can be caused by bright areas of sky seen through windows, projection of sunlight on desks and chalkboards, unscreened lamps, fluorescent lamps, etc. To avoid the inconveniences caused by glare it is recommended to:

1) Avoid putting windows on the visual focal points (for example chalkboards).

2) Increase the general brightness of the room by selecting the appropriate colour

for ceilings and walls (bright colours are desirable).

3) Use blinds, curtains, screens and other shading devices (DES, 1967).

Table 5.2: Illuminance, uniformity ratio and limiting glare index for schools (DFEE, 1999)

$5_{2.7}$ * Emergency Lighting

The aim of emergency lighting is to produce sufficient illumination, in the event of a failure of the electricity supply to the normal electric lighting, in order to be able to evacuate the building quickly and safely and to control processes and etc., securely.

Emergency lighting in school buildings is provided only in areas where the general public have access in the evenings. Halls and drama spaces are also included. Emergency lighting is not usually provided on escape routes, except from public areas, since the children are familiar with the buildings and there is only a small part of the school year in the hours of darkness. Emergency lighting should be considered

in upstairs escape corridors; escape stairways, corridors without windows and areas

with dangerous machinery.

It is advised that the emergency lighting should be the maintained type for halls, gymnasium and other areas used by the public during the hours of darkness. Where

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part of the premises is licensed it will be essential to follow the guidance of the Local Fire Authority.

Emergency Lighting should make visible safe passageways out of the building, the fire alarm call points, the fire fighting equipment, escape signs and any changes of direction or stairs (DFEE, 1999).

 $5₃$ * Lighting for Pupils With Visual and Hearing Impairments

Lighting and acoustic criteria are critical both to the hearing impaired and the visually impaired. The design of particular accommodation for the visually impaired is beyond the scope of this thesis but specialist advice can be obtained from the Royal National Institute for the Building. (RNIB/GBDA Joint Mobility and The Partially Sighted Society, London), However, design choices should be considered for all schools. Many of the low cost or no cost procedures can be applied to existing buildings such as tactile surfaces and types of luminaires.

Other means, such as providing or facilitating the use of visual aids can be examined as necessary. A general guide is given in the following part that can be helpful in the majority of cases. Visual impairment is composed of two main conditions:

1) Field Defects: In this condition, what is seen is clear but the visual field is restricted. In some cases only the central part of the field is seen (tunnel vision). Therefore, mobility would be impaired. However, in these cases the ability of reading and doing fine work would be largely unaffected (DFEE, 1999).

Conversely, in other cases there is a loss of central vision. This means that movements can be performed in safety but the ability of performing detailed tasks (such as reading or sewing) would be very difficult and sometimes impossible. In all types of field defect the amount of task illumination is not important supposing that

normal advices are followed.

2) Loss of Acuity (blurring of vision): The extent of the blurring is widely variable. Some pupils need to bring objects very close to their eyes to see well. It may also be associated with loss of colour vision.

Depending on the cause of the loss of acuity, higher illuminance and large print can be helpful. Many schools now can produce their own reading material and the use of a san serif font of at least 14 point size can be a useful aid. Glare should be avoided because it can aggravate the effects of low acuity. A 'white' board on a dark coloured wall can be a source of glare whereas a traditional "blackboard" would not. Also, a view of a daylight scene through a window is another source of glare (DFEE, 1999).

Loss of visual field and acuity can coexist. Also, the special problems experienced by people suffering from visual impairment and their responses to light and other environmental features are very variable.

In order to have access to an electrical supply, cope with excess daylight or use any other aid, it may be necessary to allow the student to change position and move within the teaching space.

 $5_{3,2}$ * Use of Colour

The usage of higher task illuminance is helpful to those whose acuity can be improved by the contraction of the iris, resulting in a greater depth of field. However, in some patients, such as those with central cornea opacities, the iris has to be dilated with the aim that the pupil can see around the opacity. In this condition, more light not only will not improve the difficulty but also will aggravate the problem.

53.1 * Positioning

The position of visually impaired pupil should be located where they can best see

the work. This may be a seat outside the normal arrangement, such as immediately in front of the board or the teacher.

Also, it is important that any visual aids are available for usage. These can include a wide range from hand-held or stand mounted optical magnifiers to CCTV magnifiers. Local task lighting can also be useful.

Colour and contrast are especially important to the people with visual and hearing impairments (RNIB, 1995). For example down lighters in reception or teaching areas provoke harsh shadows, which limit lip-reading. Colour should be used carefully in order to assist pupils in the identification of a place. It may be more necessary than an elaborate lighting installation.

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In some visually impaired cases there is some degree of colour blindness and it is of great importance that contrast should be introduced in luminance and not only colours. For example, pale green and pale cream may be clearly distinguished by the normally sighted pupils but be seen as a single shade of grey by some pupils with visual impairment. In order to aid orientation within a space, contrast should be used in the décor. For example, using a darker colour for the architrave around a door will help to identify the location of the door and a handle, which clearly contrasts with the

surface of the door, will show which way it swings. In some spaces orientation may be introduced by the furniture arrangement or by windows during daylight hours. In others it can be established by making one wall distinctly different (for example by adding a large clock or changing the colour. Whatever method is used, it is best adhered to throughout the building, i.e., the different wall is always to the same side of the main exit from the space (ICI, 1997).

Surfaces finished with high gloss should be used carefully since they can reflect bright lights such as sunlight. Generally, eggshell finishes are to be preferred because some directional reflection is desirable rather than dead matt surfaces, which may be difficult to place precisely. Also, changing the tactile qualities of surfaces can be

helpful to reinforce visual contrasts. In school buildings they are most important for the blind.

 $5_{3,3}$ * Daylight

Daylight should be the principal light source in the design of schools. The colour of the window wall should be light, in order to reduce contrast with outdoor scene, and window reveals may be splayed to increase the apparent size of the glazing.

Depending on the type of visual impairment, sunlight can be either help or an obstruction. Therefore, some means for the control of its quantity should be provided. Traditionally this has been by means of blinds. In circulation spaces, the design of

fenestration should decrease glare hazards. Large areas of glazing should to be clearly

seen. Otherwise, it can be dangerous to the people with visual impairment. They can

be marked with a contrasting feature at eye level in order to avoid accidents. This will

make them visible even in low light levels.

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53.4 * Electric Light

It is important to control the glare from overhead lighting especially for visually impaired pupils. For fluorescent lamps, high frequency electronic ballasts are more preferred since they avoid subliminal flicker. Also, they can prevent the demonstration of annoying visible flicker that can happen with conventionally ballasted lamps at the end of their life. If high frequency ballasts are used, attention should be given to the use of a regulated version, which can be darken to allow the

adjustment of the illuminance level in order to suit the individual as well as to save energy. Usually, the additional cost is modest. It is not economic to install more than the recommended illuminance on the off chance that they will be useful some day to a hypothetical visually impaired pupil. Additional illuminance can be reading supplied when the need arises from local task lighting luminaries.

54 * Design of Shading Devices

In climatic consideration, shading has great importance. Although the external openings should be decreased as much as possible together with providing good view and light, they should be shaded as well. Generally, there are two types of shading devices, i.e. internal and external shading devices. External shading devices are most suitable for the type of climate in central and south of Iran (i.e. Yazd, Boshehr, Bandar-abbas, Kerman, etc.). Internal shading devices will be appropriate for other type of climate. They release the radiation absorbed to the interior and as glass prevent long wave radiation from escaping. This will create overheating problems (Givoni, 1981). Then, the solution for the climate of central and south are external shading devices. There are two types of external shading devices, depending on the altitude of the sun and the orientation of the facade, which needs to be shaded. These two categories are horizontal and vertical shading devices (Ibid).

54.1 * Determination of Shading Devices

The determination of under heated and overheated periods of the year could make

possible the design of shading devices (Koenigsberger, et al. 1973). For this purpose,

the temperature- shading chart has been prepared (Figure 5.3). The comfort zone for

schools in the considered region varies from 20 to 24° C (Research centre, 1992). The

shading chart has been obtained by the method described by Martin Evans (Evans,
1980), (Figure 5.4). The curved lines on the chart have been obtained by joining the equal temperatures at different periods. The overheated period has been located approximately between the $15th$ of June to the $30th$ of September between 10 a.m. and 6 p.m. The under heated period has been located from the $15th$ of November to the 30th of March. The overheated period has been repeated on the corresponding sunpath, latitude 32° north (Figure 5.5). By using a shadow angle protector several shadow angles have been determined for the following orientations: east (north-south axis), south-east (35° from the east-west axis), south (east-west axis), south-west (35° from the east-west axis), west (north-south axis) and north-west (35° from the southnorth) (see table 5.3).

Figure 5.3: Yearly shading chart of the City of Yazd (Razjouyan, 1987)

Figure 5.4: Chart Showing the months and Hours Lines for the Determination of Overheated and Under Heated Periods of the Year (Evans, 1980)

Table 5.3: Vertical and Horizontal Shadow Angles in Degrees (Aiche, 1987)

For economical and practical reasons the following notes are suggested:

- a) For east, west and near these orientations, a vertical shadow angle of 60° is a compromise solution (this means an overhang of 60 to 80 cm).
- b) For the horizontal shadow angle a compromise solution is an angle of 60[°]. This means vertical louvres of 30 cm (Figure 5.6).

A compromise solution for vertical shadow angle is an angle of 60° this means an overhang of about 60 to 80 cm. A compromise solution for horizontal shadow angle is an angle of 60° this means a vertical louver of about 30 cm.

54.2 * Economy of Shading Devices

Economy of shading devices can be provided if:

Schools Lighting Requirements

The microclimate of buildings is influenced to a large scale by trees. Olgyay explains in his book called "Design with climate" that:

- a) A compromise solution not exceeding two types of shading devices is found.
- b) External openings are kept at their minimum; this limits the quantity of shading devices.
- c) Parts of the building can be designed for shading as well. For horizontal shading devices, it is possible to project the roof to obtain an overhang. For the vertical shading devices, it is possible to shape the external elevation to produce vertical louvres.
- d) Shading devices can act as a radiator in cold periods and brings heat during hot periods. Olgyay suggests that the shading device should be connected at necessary points only (Olgyay, 1963).
- 54.3 * Shading Effect of Trees and Vegetation
	-

"... Trees contribute much to the immediate physical environment. They reduce air borne sounds with great efficiency if densely planted. The viscous surface of leaves catches dust and filters the air. Vegetation can also secure visual privacy and reduce annoying effects" (Olgyay, 1963). Trees contribute also in the reduction of heat loss from building during winter and the absorption of radiation in summer. Their selection should then be subject to their shading performance and their position to different orientations.

$5₅$ * Summary

The daylight factor of 1.5%, which is generally recognised as being a suitable level of illumination on the working plane, is based upon a temperate zone sky with an internal level of approximately 300 lux.

In this chapter the assumption has been made that Iran has a mean sky value of 35 to 40 Klux (see tables 6.5 to 6.9 in chapter 6). The openings necessary to give the equivalent of a 1.5% daylight factor have been calculated on this basis. The point is emphasised that direct sun should not be allowed to penetrate into working rooms in order to reduce heat gain.

Priority should be given to daylight as the main source of light in working areas,

except in special circumstances. Wherever possible a daylit space should have an average daylight factor of 4-5%.

Teaching spaces should have views out except in special circumstances. A minimum glazed area of 20% of the internal elevation of the exterior wall is recommended to provide adequate views out.

A maintained illuminance at floor level in the range 80-120 lux is recommended for stairs and corridors. Entrance halls, lobbies and waiting rooms require a higher illuminance in the range 175-250 lux on the appropriate plane.

Each room or other space in a school building shall have lighting appropriate to its

normal use. The illuminance of teaching accommodation shall be not less than 300 lux on the working plane.

In teaching accommodation where visually demanding tasks are carried out (like painting room), provision shall be made for a task illuminance of not less than 500 lux on the working plane, for more recommended illuminance values for school building see table 5.4, which has been brought together from sources in Iran and UK:

Table 5.4: Recommended illuminance value for school building in Iran (Sources: Research centre, 1992 and DFEE, 1999)

$5₆$ * References

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Chapter 6

The Programme of Admittance Method and lighting

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Section 1: Admittance Programme

6* The Programme of Admittance Method and lighting

$6₁$ * Introduction

In order to calculate the energy requirements of school buildings in Iran for heating, cooling and lighting it is necessary to use a simulation programme. In this thesis it was decided to use the Admittance procedure and a new programme was developed for this purpose. This chapter considers the details of the admittance method and lighting programme.

Chapter 6 is composed of two sections. The first section considers the Admittance Method Programme, which is used in the analysis of the energy requirements of buildings for heating and cooling loads.

The second section describes the method of calculation of daylighting, which is used in the lighting simulation programme. Effective daylighting design requires consideration of different factors such as daylight factor, luminous efficacy of solar radiation, orientation factor, glass transmittance factor, average reflectance of material and etc. which are need for calculation of exterior and interior illuminance, are

discussed in this section.

Section 1: Admittance Programme

$6₂$ * Using the Monthly or Annual Admittance Programme

The programme used for the analysis of the energy performance of the school designs was developed within the school of Architecture for general research and building analysis. It is based on the Chartered Institute of Building Services Engineers Guide Book A- Admittance Procedure Section A6.

In the departmental version the solar radiation values are imported from the solar prediction model Meteonorm as tables in an excel worksheet. These tables are then accessed by the calculation worksheet. The version used in this thesis is based on the departmental version but has been modified so as to be able to use the solar radiation data calculated by the routines outlined in chapter 4. Other modifications included

simplifying the input worksheets to either enable of disable heating or cooling and also to be able to specify to a greater extent the internal gains from people, lights and equipment. The input sheet was also re-written so as to give the necessary information for running the solar radiation model. Figures 6.5 to 6.9 show both the input sheets and the output sheets. It can be seen from these figures that the outputs are given in terms of the monthly energy requirements for heating/cooling as bar charts and also graphical representations of the constituent energy flows (Ventilation,

solar gains, internal gains from people and equipment).

63 * Background

The traditional energy analysis of buildings was carried out using steady state techniques, which only considered the steady heat flows across a structure in terms of the thermal resistance of the structure and the temperature difference across the structure.

 $Q = A^* U^*$ (Inside temperature – Outside Temperature) Algorithm 6.1

Where: Q is the heat loss in Watt, A is the area of the surface in square meter and

U is the thermal resistance of the surface in W/m^2 °C.

$6_{3,1}$ * Thermal Transmittance or U-value

Thermal transmittance or U-value is defined as the rate of heat flow in watts through one square meter of a non-homogeneous construction when the temperature differential of one degree centigrade is fixed across both sides of the construction. A unit is W/m^2 °C. It is the reciprocal of the overall thermal resistance of construction, which includes the surface resistances.

The overall coefficient of heat transfer or thermal transmittance (U-value) in one

way is a measure of the evaluation of thermal exchange in various construction units.

The total flow of heat per unit area across any building component is the product of

U-value and temperature differential of the air over two sides of the component. The

overall thermal resistance of a construction is calculated as follows (see figure 6.1):

 $U = 1/R_t$ Algorithm 6.2

 $R_t = 1 / R_{si} + t_1 / k_1 + t_2 / k_2 + \cdots + 1 / R_{so}$ Algorithm 6.3

Where: $R_t =$ Overall thermal resistance of a wall $(m^2 °C/W)$

 R_{si} = Inside surface conductance (W/m^{2 o}C)

k = Thermal conductivity of material (W/m^{2 o}C)

 $t = Thickness$ of material, m

 $R_{so} =$ Outside surface conductance (W/m^{2 o}C)

The following is the calculation of U-value for a brick roof construction (see figure 6.2) typical to Iran. Table 6.1 also shows typical U values of constructions found in Iran.

Figure 6.2: A typical brick roof construction

125 en gypsum

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 $R_t = 1/18.87 + 0.04/0.43 + 0.04/0.25 + 0.11/0.96 + 0.025/0.46 + 1/4.59 = 0.693$ m². °c/w

 $U = 1 / R_t = 1 / o. 693 = 1.44$ w/^oc.m²

Table 6.1: U-value of some typical construction used in walls, roofs, floors and windows in Iran

This type of analysis is unable to take into account the storage properties of the building materials or the hourly variation in temperatures. It is therefore limited in its use in determining the energy gains and losses of buildings.

Steady state analysis is often not sufficient because:

- The thermal properties of buildings can vary and in lightweight buildings give a rapid response to climate changes.
- **Building services systems often have a rapid response, which the steady state** analysis is unable to take into account.
- Intermittent occupancy patterns are more common which requires a rapid response from the building services.

In order to be able to calculate more accurately the energy gains and losses of buildings a dynamic simulation process is necessary which is able to take into account both the daily variation in air temperatures but also include the ability of the building fabric to store energy and also to add internal heat gains.

There are several computer programmes available, which are able to carry out such

an analysis for example (IES, TAS ESPr) but all of these are full dynamic programmes, which require hourly temperature data along with a very detailed building specification. They also take a considerable time to both input the building information and to obtain results and because of their complexity it was decided not to use such tools.

The programme which was used in this thesis was an excel based spreadsheet Admittance model. This has the advantage that it is able to take into account some of the variables not able to be used in a steady state model but also being excel based it could be included with the solar radiation model to provide a seamless join between the two.

64 * The Admittance Procedure

The programme used in this thesis has been developed from the Admittance procedure given in the Chartered Institute of Building Services (CIBSE) Guide Book $A -$ Section A6. This procedure was developed to give a prediction method for dynamic thermal performance. It takes into account:

- a) The daily cycle in temperature
- b) The modifying effect of the thermal mass of the building materials on temperature fluctuations
- c) Solar heat gains
- d) Variations in ventilation and internal gains

The model works by firstly estimating the mean energy flow across the structure and then adding or subtracting flows, which would be expected at specific time intervals (one hour). It assumes that the daily cycle in temperature and energy flows is cyclic.

Modification factors are applied to the flows to ensure that the model takes into account thermal storage and the re-admission of heat from the internal surfaces to the room/ building. These factors will be explained in this chapter.

An illustration of the type of curve, which would be expected from the use of the Admittance procedure, is shown in figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3: An illustration of the type of curve (CIBSE Guide $A - A6$)

$6₅$ * The Equations Used Within the Excel Programme

The equations used in this admittance procedure are set out below.

* Mean Solar Gain

 $Q'_s = S I' A_g$ Algorithm 6.4

Where: Q' , is mean solar gain (Watt), I' is mean solar intensity (W/m²), S is solar gain factor and A_g is sunlit area of glazing (square meter).

* Swing in Solar gain

 $Q''_s = S_a A_g (I_p - I')$ Algorithm 6.5

Where: Q ["], is swing in effective heat gain due to solar radiation (Watt), S_a is glass blind correction factor and I_p is peak intensity of solar radiation (W/m²).

$6_{5,1}$ * Glass Blind Correction Factors

If in the glazing system there exists blinds then these will have an effect of the

transmission of solar energy into the space and therefore within the CIBSE procedure

are given a rang of correction factors to the this into account. The factors are shown

in table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Glass/ Blind correction factors (CIBSE, 1986)

values (W/°C), C_v is ventilation loss (W/°C), t'_{ei} is mean internal environmental temperature ($^{\circ}$ C) and $t'_{a\sigma}$ is mean outdoor air temperature ($^{\circ}$ C). The environmental temperature is defined as:

Where t_a is the air temperature and t_r is the radiant temperature. In the climate of Iran it is normal that the surface temperatures are close to the air temperature and therefore in most situations the environmental temperature is taken as the air temperature.

* Mean fabric and ventilation gain

$$
Q'_{t} = F_{au} (\Sigma AU + C_{v}) (t'_{ei} - t'_{ao})
$$
 Algorithm 6.6

Where: ΣAU is sun of products of areas of exposed surfaces and the appropriate U

decrement factor dependent on the thickness of the wall or roof structure, t_{so} is sol-air temperature at time of peak hour less time lag ($^{\circ}$ C) and t_{so} is mean sol-air temperature (°C).

$$
t'_e = (t_a / 3) + (2 * t_r / 3)
$$
 Algorithm 6.7

* Swing in fabric gain

$Q''_f = F_{ay}f AU (t_{so} - t'_{so})$ Algorithm 6.8

Where: Q''_f is swing in the effective heat input due to structural gain (Watt), f is

$6_{5,2}$ * Sol-Air Temperature

In the calculation procedure the solar radiation values are included in a term known as the Sol-Air Temperature (for ease of calculation). This hypothetical temperature can be described as that temperature which, in the absence of solar radiation, would give the same rate of heat transfer through the wall or roof as exists with the actual outdoor air temperature and the incident solar radiation. It is given as:

$T_{so} = t_{ao} + R_{so} (aI_t + \varepsilon I_l)$ Algorithm 6.9

Where: T_{so} is the sol-air temperature, t_{ao} is the outside air temperature, R_{so} is the external surface resistance, α is absorption coefficient for the solar radiation at the external surface, I_t is the total solar radiation value incident on the surface, ϵ is the emissivity of the external surface (the proportion of long wave solar radiation reflected from the surface), and I_1 is the long wave solar radiation incident on the surface.

65.3 * Decrement Factor

The decrement factor is the ratio of the rate of heat flow through a structure to the

internal space temperature for each degree of swing in external temperature about its mean value, to the steady state rate of heat flow or U value. It is the attenuation of a wave travelling through an element of the building structure. For thin surfaces of low thermal capacity, the decrement factor could be taken as 1 but it decreases with increasing thickness and thermal capacity. An illustration of how the decrement varies with thickness and the degree of thermal insulation is shown in figure 6.4a (CIBSE Guide Book A).

 $6_{5.4}$ * Time Lag

The time lag of a structure can be defined as the time it takes for an initial energy

flux to travel across the structure. The higher the thermal mass the slower will be the rate of travel through the structure. Typically dense structures can have time lags in excess of 9 hours which means that if a structure is exposed to an energy flux at say 10 noon it will be 9pm when that flux reaches the inside surface. Figure 6.4b shows

how the time lag can vary for different structures (CIBSE Guide Book A).

65,5 * Surface Factor

As all surfaces in an enclosure are able to absorb energy it is necessary to be able to take this into account in the calculation of energy flows. The two correction factors F_{au} and F_{ay} are therefore used to do so. These factors deal with the ability of the

The surface factor is the ratio of the variation of heat flow about its mean value readmitted to a space from the surface, to the variation of heat flow about its mean value absorbed in the surface. The surface factor decreases and its time lag increases with increasing thermal; capacity and they are almost constant with thickness. It is used when allowing for solar radiation and the radiative component of internal gains on internal surfaces. Values of surface factor are shown in table 6.3.

Table 6.3: Surface factors

$6_{5.6}$ * Factors F_{au} and F_{ay}

Figure 6.4: Values of time lag and decrement factor (CIBSE, 1986)

structure to absorb heat and can be calculated from a knowledge of the U value and the surface heat transfer coefficient along with the area of the surfaces bounding the space under consideration.

$$
F_{\text{au}} = h_{\text{a}} \sum(A) / (h_{\text{a}} \sum(A) + \sum(AU) \qquad \text{Algorithm 6.10}
$$

And:

- h_a = surface heat transfer coefficient for the external wall (inside the room)
- A = the area of the internal surfaces
- \bullet U = values of surfaces
- \bullet Y = admittance of the surfaces

Quite often the F_{au} and F_{ay} are taken as 1 if details of the internal surfaces are not known or are unclear.

$$
F_{ay} = h_a \sum(A) / (h_a \sum(A) + \sum(AY) \qquad \text{Algorithm 6.11}
$$

Where:

65.7 * Other Factors Taken Into Consideration

- 1. Mean internal air temperature (for each month)
- 2. Activity of occupants
- 3. Heating and cooling systems enabled/disabled (for each month)
- 4. Number of people occupying the space each hour of the day (for each month)
- 5. Lighting loads for each hour of the day (for each month)
- 6. Other heat gains for the space for each hour of the day (for each month)
- 7. Air changes per hour for each hour of the day (for each month)

In the model developed for this work the glazing ratio was specified along with the location, orientation and inclination. From this input the solar transfer across the windows was calculated.

$66*$ The Admittance Procedure Within the Excel Programme

The following is a list of the information necessary for running the excel programme.

 $6_{6,1}$ \sim Site Details – necessary for calculating the solar radiation

- Location of building Latitude and Longitude
- Orientation and inclination of the surfaces of the building
- 66.2 * Building Details for running the excel programme
	- 1. Area of surface
- 7. Glass/Blind correction factor
- 2. U value of surface
- 3. Time Lag
- 4. Decrement factor
- 5. F_{au} and F_{av}

6. Glazing Ratio %

$6₇$ * Operation of the Admittance Model

- 8. Mean internal air temperature
- 9. Activity level of the occupants
- 10. Internal heat gains form equipment
- 11. Natural ventilation rate

The programme takes the input data and carries out the following calculations to arrive at a result.

- 1. Firstly the solar radiation values are calculated according to the equations given in chapter 4 and then this information is used to calculate the following:
- 2. The Sol- Air temperature and then modify it for time lag
- 3. The mean energy flow across the structural elements, modified by time lag surface factor and decrement factor

4. The difference in the energy flow from the mean (on an hour by hour bases)

5. The energy transfer through the windows, modified by the Glass/Blind correction factor

- 6. Internal heat gains from occupancy and other loads such as lighting and equipment
- 7. Natural ventilation loads

All of the above loads are then added together to produce a total energy load for the month under consideration.

The programme uses hourly data for each day of the year and therefore it is a simple matter of adding the daily loads to obtain monthly values.

$6_8 *$ Input

An example of the input page is given below and shows the variables, which are considered.

Figure 6.5: The first input page of the analysis programme

Figure 6.6: Internal variables considered in the programme

Figure 6.7: The output page showing how the energy usage is given tabular and also in graphical form

69 * Graph of Mean Monthly Energy Flows

The programme also shows the mean monthly energy flows as shown below:

Figure 6.9: Monthly average heating and cooling loads

Figure 6.8: Shows typical mean monthly energy flows

Section 2: Lighting Programme

6_{10} * Lighting

Key elements in the design of an energy efficient lighting system are the integration of the electric lighting with daylight to avoid unnecessarily high levels of electric lighting. Inevitably, daylight will need to be supplemented by electric lighting. To successfully do this, a knowledge has to be gained of the illuminance due

to daylight throughout the day and throughout the year. Therefore, it is necessary to calculate the illuminance due to daylight. This section describes the method of estimation of this illuminance, which is used for the calculation of lighting loads in school buildings in Iran.

The main strategy of lighting programme is to provide the lighting requirements of schools in Iran mainly by daylight and to use electric lighting when adequate daylight is not available. In order to calculate the lighting loads in different spaces of school building in this thesis the building code of Iran (Research centre, 1992) has been used (see table 5.4, Chapter 5)

6_{11} * Daylighting Design

Daylight is the result of the scattering of the solar beam in the atmosphere, and its inter-reflection and absorption at the earth's surface. It varies with the position of the sun in the sky, weather and terrain. The light falling on a window has three separate elements for architectural design; direct sunlight, diffuse light from the sky and light reflected from the ground and other buildings.

 $6_{11,1}$ * Direct Sunlight

The intensity of direct sunlight varies with the length of the beam's path through the atmosphere. It also depends on the atmospheric turbidity, which determines the amount that the solar beam is scattered and absorbed along its path. Although the prediction of the sun's position in the sky can be made precisely that is dominated by the presence of cloud, the occurrence of sunlight on the ground can be specified only in terms of frequency distributions (based on meteorological records). The intensity

of the sun's beam is given in term of solar illuminance, which shows the amount of light falling on a surface directly facing the sun. The probability of sunlight is expressed by relative sunshine duration, the ratio of actual sunshine hours to the sunshine hours that would occur with cloudless skies. The description of atmospheric turbidity is made by the linke turbidity factor. This factor is the ratio of the optical thickness of a moist turbid atmosphere to that of a clean dry atmosphere, considering total solar radiation (Asimakopoulos, 1996).

$6_{11.2}$ * Diffuse Light from the Sky

As sunlight passes through the atmosphere, a portion is scattered by dust, water vapour and other suspended particles. This scattering, acting in concert with clouds, produces sky luminance. Skies are divided into three categories: clear, partly cloudy and cloudy. When the sky is not completely overcast, the sky luminance distribution may change rapidly and by large amounts as the sun is alternately obscured, partly obscured or fully revealed (Marks, 1993).

$6_{11,3}$ * Reflected Light

Direct sunlight is associated with overheating in hot climates. Therefore, windows are often designed to exclude it and solar control has a major role in the design of buildings in these types of climate. In order to exclude direct sunlight, shading devices can be used on windows. However, the amount of sky visible from the interior will be also reduced and the entry of skylight will be restricted. In such circumstances sunlight reflected from external surfaces, the ground and opposite buildings, can be a major source of diffuse light. It may provide the main daylighting in an interior. In cool climates, when windows are designed for overcast sky conditions, the externally reflected light is usually only a small fraction of the total daylight entering a room. However, sky brightness is affected by ground reflection (Asimakopoulos, 1996). There is significant inter-reflection between ground and

clouds with large areas of light-coloured ground surface. Table 6.4 shows typical

reflectance of building materials (British Standard, 1992): More information about

solar radiation is given in chapter 4.

Table 6.4: Approximate values of reflectance under diffuse daylight (British Standard, 1992)

6_{12} * Daylight Quantity

Where: Lu_i is interior illuminance (lux), Lu_e is exterior illuminance (lux) and O_f Orientation factor.

$6_{12.1}$ * Exterior Illuminance

The illuminance provided by the daylight can be determined from the following algorithm by the definition of daylight factor (DF) (DfEE, 1999):

$Lu_i = Lu_e * (DF/100) * O_f$ Algorithm 6.12

For calculation of exterior illuminance we need to know about luminous efficacy of solar radiation. The luminous efficacy of solar radiation is defined as the ratio between illuminance and irradiance. Thus, if irradiance measurements or calculations are available it is possible to estimate illuminance values using a luminous efficiency

(Robledo and Soler, 2001). The luminous efficiency of energy-radiation depends on

its spectral composition; there is no constant relationship between radiation intensity

and its lighting effect or illuminance. However, as a general guidance, the value of

100 lumens/watt can be used for solar radiation. This would give an illumination of

100 lux for every W/m² intensity or 100 000 lux per kW/m² (Koenigsberger, et al.

1973, Marks, 1993 and Dr. N Baker, Martin Centre, Cambridge University, private communication).

As discussed in chapter 4, the amount of solar radiation can be calculated for different cities in Iran by using the designed excel sheet programme. Also using the following formula can perform the estimation of hourly or monthly illuminance value:

Solar radiation (W/m²) x 100 lumens/watt = Illuminance (Lux) Algorithm 6.12

Five cities of Iran located in different climate have been selected and their average exterior illuminance are illustrated in tables 6.5 6.9.

Table 6.5: Mean hourly global illuminance values for each month in Babolsar, solar time

Average Exterior Illuminance kLux						Horizontal		BABOLSAR				
Hours	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec
	Ω											
						2.28	1.20					
			0.41	5.31	11.02	14.36	13.38	8.55	.86	0	0	
	0.12	3.67	10.14	17.36	24.68	29.11	28.73	24.48	15.70	6.56	0.80	0
	9.10	14.34	21.97	29.97	38.61	44.00	44.43	41.61	32.20	20.03	11.06	7.39
	19.03	24.56	32.86	41.16	50.86	57.12	58.34	57.09	47.64	33.33	21.75	16.84
10	27.29	32.74	41.32	49.75	60.33	67.30	69.16	69.21	59.85	44.05	30.59	24.76
	32.63	37.92	46.62	55.15	66.33	73.77	76.05	76.92	67.61	50.90	36.30	29.91
12	34.47	39.69	48.43	56.99	68.39	76.00	78.42	79.57	70.28	53.25	38.26	31.68
13	32.63	37.92	46.62	55.15	66.33	73.77	76.05	76.92	67.61	50.90	36.30	29.91
14	27.29	32.74	41.32	49.75	60.33	67.30	69.16	69.21	59.85	44.05	30.59	24.76
15	19.03	24.56	32.86	41.16	50.86	57.12	58.34	57.09	47.64	33.33	21.75	16.84
16	9.10	14.34	21.97	29.97	38.61	44.00	44.43	41.61	32.20	20.03	11.06	7.39
17	0.12	3.67	10.14	17.36	24.68	29.11	28.73	24.48	15.70	6.56	0.80	
18		0	0.41	5.31	11.02	14.36	13.38	8.55	1.86			
19						2.28	1.20					
20												
21				0		0						
22												
23												
24												

Table 6.6: Mean hourly global illuminance values for each month in Tehran, solar time

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Table 6.7: Mean hourly global illuminance values for each month in Yazd, solar time

Table 6.8; Mean hourly global illuminance values for each month in Mashhad, solar time

Table 6.9: Mean hourly global illuminance values for each month in Isfahan, solar time

612.2 * Orientation Factor

The reason for the introduction of window orientation factor is that even with overcast skies, there is a considerable variation in luminance (the southern sky having the greatest effect). Table 6.10 gives values of orientation factor (DfEE, 1999):

> Table 6.10: Window orientation factors for calculation of interior illuminance (DfEE, 1999)

Orientation of window | Orientation factor

612.3 * Daylight Factor

Average daylight factor is the process, which takes place as the human visual system adjusts itself to the brightness or the colour of the visual field (Saxon, 1997). The average daylight factor can be estimated from the following formula (DfEE, 1999):

$\overline{DF} = (T W \theta) / A(1-R^2)$ Algorithm 6.13

Where: $\overline{D}F$ is average daylight factor (%), T is diffuse transmittance of glazing

material including effects of dirt. Typical transmittance values for clean, clear single and double-glazing are 0.8 and 0.65 respectively. For the value T, the glass transmittance will need to be multiplied by a factor to take account of dirt on the glass (see table 6.6), W is net glazed area of window (m^2) , θ is angle in degrees subtended, in the vertical plane normal to the window, by sky visible from the centre of the window (see figure 6.10), A is total area of interior surfaces including windows (m^2) , and R is area-weighted average reflectance of interior surfaces, including windows (see table 6.4).

An example of the input page (daylight factor excel sheet programme, which has been developed in the main excel sheet programme) is given figure 6.11 and shows

the variables, which are considered.

Table 6.11: Correction factors to transmittance values for dirt on glass (DIEE, 1999)

Figure 6.10: Angle of θ , which defines visible sky from centre of window/rooflight

Figure 6.11: The calculation page of the daylighting analysis programme

6_{13} * Output

This lighting programme enables the calculation of the period of time during the school day in which adequate daylight is available and from this information it is then possible to establish how much electric lighting is required during periods when adequate daylight is not available (These values are shown in Figure 6.12 and Figure 6.7). This electrical energy requirement is then used in the main Excel spreadsheet as the input for artificial lighting requirement.

In this chapter the calculation programme for heating, cooling and lighting of buildings in Iran has been explained. The Admittance procedure has been outlined and various input factors relevant to Iranian building code have been shown.

The details of lighting programme have been discussed and the exterior illuminance has been calculated for 5 cities in Iran, located in different climatic regions. Then different factors, which are important in the calculation of interior illuminance, were described. At the end the method of the estimation of monthly lighting loads has been outlined.

Some examples of input and output of this programme has been shown as tables and figures.

The following chapters make use of this programme to calculate the heating, cooling and lighting energy use of schools in Iran.

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Figure 6.12: Monthly average lighting loads

6_{14} * Summary

615 * Reference

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The Effect of Window Design on the Thermal Performance of Buildings

Chapter 7

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Chapter 7 The Effect of Window Design on the Thermal Performance of Buildings

7* The Effect of Window Design on the Thermal Performance of Buildings

$7₁$ * Introduction

The type of window in a building has a considerable effect on its thermal and visual performance, construction and operating costs. Currently the role of window design in energy conservation is an area in which much research is being carried out.

The window has to be not only energy efficient, but also has to take other purposes such as daylight, privacy and view into account. Windows are the most practical method of providing fresh air, which is required for an inhabitable environment. Also, windows are used to create beauty to the façade of buildings.

Windows have an essential role in creating a balanced indoor environment in hot dry climates. The design practice of the moderate climates with large area of glazing has been chosen in contemporary designed buildings. This will increase the cooling load in air-conditioned buildings, and overheating problems in uncontrolled buildings.

There are large ranges of window systems, which can reduce the energy requirement of buildings and improve the energy balance of windows. There are two types of window systems. The first type is composed of some treatment of the glass itself, which might consist of reflective and absorptive films or application of multilayer glazing such as double-glazing. The second type consists of opaque solar barriers and insulation, which may decrease the transfer of energy (Mckennan, 1984).

Although special glasses such as heat reflecting or heat absorbing glasses can reduce the heat transfer through windows, however they are expensive and affect the view and reduce the amount of daylight entering, and are not commonly used in

school buildings. External shading devices are examples of opaque solar barriers, which are more practical in school buildings.

To quantify the effect of window design on energy use and the cost of controlling buildings, the excel program developed in chapter 4 and 6 was used to compare the effect of glazing area, orientation and shading. This special program has been

Chapter 7 The Effect of Window Design on the Thermal Performance of Buildings

developed for the calculation of solar radiation, heating, cooling and lighting of building in 152 cities of Iran. In this chapter the city of Yazd has been chosen and studied in detail.

$7₂$ * The Heat Transfer of Window in buildings

As will be discussed later, one variable that has an important influence upon the thermal performance of windows is the angle of incidence determined by the position

of the sun relative to the Window. Therefore, the sun's position during the course of the year needs to be known.

72.1 * The Sun-Surface Geometry

In the northern hemisphere the solar azimuth angle is between the vertical plane containing the direction of the sun, and the vertical plane running true north- south measured from south. The azimuth angle has a positive value when the sun is to the west of south i.e. during the afternoon in solar time. It has a negative value when the

The sun's position at any point on the earth's surface is defined by the altitude angle of the sun and its azimuth angle usually measured from the north. If the latitude of the site is known then these two angles are given by the following relationships:

$7_{2.1.1}$ * Solar Altitude (y)

sun is east of south. For the southern hemisphere the reference direction is true north. The sun's position is often described as a bearing from true north, and this is sometimes incorrectly referred to as the solar azimuth angle. It is important to adopt the correct definition in using the algorithms below: $Cos \psi = (sin\phi sin\gamma - sin\delta) / cos\phi cos\gamma$ degrees Algorithm 7.2

Solar altitude is the angle between the centre of the solar disc and the horizontal plane. For computation at the hourly level it is economical to calculate daily values of

(sind cosö) first because their values remain constant for the day, and then to retain

the values for consequent calculation hour at different values of ω .

- $\sin\gamma = \sin\phi \sin\delta + \cos\phi \cos\delta \cos\omega$ degrees Algorithm 7.1
 $\phi =$ Latitude of the site (N +ve, S -ve). degrees degrees
- ϕ = Latitude of the site (N +ve, S -ve). degrees
• δ = Declination angle of the sun with respect to earth's equator. degrees δ = Declination angle of the sun with respect to earth's equator. degrees ω = Solar hour angle. Degrees
- \circ \in Solar hour angle.

$7_{2,1,2}$ * Solar Azimuth (ψ)

 $\sin \psi = \cos \delta \sin \omega / \cos \gamma$ degrees Algorithm 7.3 - If siny $\lt 0$ If siny < 0 -cosy = cosy If siny > 0 cosy = cosy

Figure 7.1: Solar positions the azimuth is denoted by (ψ) and the altitude by (γ) (Source: Koenigsberger, et al. 1973)

Figure 7.1 illustrates these angles. For different time of day and year, these angles can be found from various almanacs, can be calculated from astronomical equations or may be determined from solar charts.

Solar charts are arranged in a from which it is possible to read off solar altitude and azimuth angles to an accuracy sufficient for design purposes for different latitudes (Richards, 1978). In this form, they are helpful also in enabling one to visualise the extent of the apparent daily sweep of the sun across the sky. The solar

chart corresponding to the site in question in this study, i. e. latitude 32° N, is shown in figure 7.2.

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{F}}$

Chapter 7 The Effect of Window Design on the Thermal Performance of Buildings

$7_{2,1,3}$ * Angle of Incidence of Solar Beam on Surface

The sun's position in relation to a surface can be determined from the solar altitude and azimuth angles. From figure 7.3, the horizontal component of the angle of incidence (α_f) will be the difference between the solar azimuth (ψ) and the wall azimuth (α) . The wall azimuth, which determines the wall orientation, corresponds to the angle on the horizontal plane between true north and the line normal to the wall. Therefore for a wall facing west for example, the azimuth is 270 degrees. The vertical

component is the same as solar altitude (γ) . The angle of incidence (ν) , i.e. the angle between a line perpendicular to the wall and the sun's direction, can be found by the following equation (for more information see Appendix B):

In the case of transparent material, e.g. glass, the proportion of energy directly transmitted through it, depends on the angle of incidence of the incoming radiation. As the angle of incidence increases, penetration through the glass drops off sharply.

$$
Cos v = Cos \gamma * Cos \alpha_f
$$
 Algorithm 7.4

Figure 7.3: The angle of incidence (v) (Razjouyan, 1987)

<u>Sun</u>

As it can be seen from figure 7.4 the proportion of the energy transmitted through clear float glass changes little within angles of incidence from zero to 40 degrees, and then starts to decrease rapidly as the angle of incidence increases towards 90 degrees. This feature is helpful, as it reduces solar gain in summer when the sun is at high altitudes. Total heat gain factor is the fraction of the incident radiation that is

transferred through the glass by direct transmission and by the inward release of

absorbed energy (Figure 7.4). The relative proportion of reflected, absorbed and

transmitted radiation for normal incidence is shown in figure 7.5.

Figure 7.4: Transmission qualities of 4mm clear float glass (Koenigsberger, et al. 1973)

$7_{2,2}$ * Thermal Properties of Glass

When solar radiation meets the glass, a fraction of it passes directly through the glass, a fraction is reflected back into the atmosphere, and the remainder is absorbed (Figure 7.5). The angle of incidence of the incoming radiation and the spectral properties of the glass determine the relative proportions of these three components.

Figure 7.5: Relative proportion of reflected, absorbed and transmitted radiation for 4mm clear float glass for normal incidence (Givoni, 1969)

The solar energy absorbed by the glass provokes an increase in glass temperature until equilibrium is reached between the rate of heat absorption by the glass and the

rate of heat dissipation from the glass by convection and radiation, both into the room and to the outdoors. The heat storage in the glass remains constant at equilibrium.

The differential transparency to short wave and long-wave radiation is the distinctive characteristic of glass. Glass transmits most of the radiation in the range
Therefore, the transmission of radiation by glass take place by a selective way, permitting solar radiation to penetrate into the buildings to be absorbed by the internal surfaces and objects and to increase their temperature. But the heated surfaces emit radiation at peak intensity with a wavelength of about 10 microns and this radiation cannot be transmitted outwards through the glass owing to its opaqueness to this wavelength. This event is called the 'green house' effect.

0.4 - 2.5 microns, which approximately coincides with the range of the solar spectrum. It is opaque to radiation of longer wavelength 10 microns (Givoni, 1969).

In different type of glasses the absolute and relative transmittance of light and heat are different. Glasses, which are used in the building industry, are divided into different types, based on their spectral transmission, absorption and reflection characteristics. The main types are divided into clear, heat absorbing and heat reflective glasses. The first type is the most common in school buildings in Iran.

Heat absorbing glasses absorb a large percentage of the incident solar radiation since they contain a higher proportion of iron oxide. This causes a considerable rise of the temperature of the glass. In practice the high temperatures reached by these

glasses exposed to sunlight can in be a serious cause of discomfort to the occupants as a result of the effects of directional long-wave radiation from the glass (Van Straaten, 1964).

Heat-reflecting glasses are made by the deposition of a very thin metallic coating on the surface of the glass, which reflects selectively a larger proportion of solar radiation. While reflective glasses can be of considerable advantage during the cooling season, they reduce the transmission of solar heat in winter, when the heat would be desirable for distribution within the buildings.

73 * Performance Analysis of External Shading Devices

Shading is one of the most important parameters for achieving good climatic condition in building in countries with hot dry climates (Shaviv, 1984). Solar heat gain through windows is a major factor in increasing cooling loads in temperature controlled buildings and has a considerable impact on the rise of the indoor, air

temperature and overheating in free-floated buildings. To decrease the effect of solar heat, shaded structures and protected windows should be considered.

In the early stage of design the protection of structures against solar radiation should be examined. Planners should consider the provision of desirable shading in summer while allowing individual buildings to benefit from solar radiation in winter. Architects should give more attention to this issue when examining sitting, orientation, external features of buildings etc., otherwise, the extent of direct sunlight penetration may only be realised after the construction of a building is completed.

Shading the glass affects the quantity of incident radiation. Therefore it modifies the heat flow to the interior and eventually the indoor temperatures. The quantitative modification depends on the size and location of the shading with respects to the internal or external glass. When shading catches radiation outside the glass, the temperature of the device increases due to the absorption of radiation by the shading material. Because glass is opaque to long-wave radiation, heat flow by convection and radiation from the shade has minimum effect on the glass. Therefore, only a small fraction of the incident radiation reflected inwards by the shade might penetrate

When internal shading, for example Venetian blinds are used, solar radiation is transmitted through the glass before interception. The radiation absorbed into the shading material is re-released to the interior. Nearly all of this heat remains within the space as the opaqueness of the glass prevents long-wave radiative heat dissipation. Only the radiation reflected outwards from the shading at the original wavelengths is transmitted partly to the exterior, which has no effect on internal heat. Therefore, the effectiveness of internal shading devices is limited to the extent to which short-wave radiation is reflected back through the glass. It is much less effective than the external shades in limiting heat admittance.

Most fixed shading systems are less efficient than controllable shading systems. For example, fixed shading devices may unnecessarily decrease the quantity of daylight indoors even when the sun is not shading on them. Consequently, more electrical light may have to be used than with adjustable or operable shades. Fixed shading devices can contribute to the heating system by obstructing the welcome 162

An appropriate method to analyse the performance of external shading devices is the use of the horizontal and vertical shadow angles. The horizontal shadow angle (α_f) is the difference between the wall azimuth and solar azimuth beyond which the

radiation in cooler periods of the year. According to the capital and maintenance cost controllable shading systems are usually more expensive. This study is limited to the effects of fixed external shading devices, since they are the most feasible devices in practice.

sun is obstructed and characterises a vertical shading device. The vertical shadow angle (v) is measured on a vertical plane normal to the elevation considered and characterises a horizontal shading device. Figure 7.6 shows horizontal and vertical shadow angles.

Figure 7.6: Horizontal (α_f) and vertical (v) shadow angles (Koenigsberger, et al. 1973)

As it can be seen in figure 7.7, by using shadow-angle protractors, which represent horizontal and vertical shadow angles, shading masks can be constructed to show the performance of shading devices. The form of the shading mask is only identified by the angular relations and is independent of the actual size of the device. Therefore, a deep overhang, and a set of small horizontal louvers with the same vertical shadow angle, will have the same shading mask.

The design of shading devices is done practically in most cases by using graphic sun charts, which allows one to relate the sun path in the sky vault to the orientation and shape of a specific window. In order to evaluate the performance of fixed external shading devices, the method of Olgyay (Olgyay, A. and Olgyay, V., 1957) was chosen firstly to estimate the size and type of shading devices. In the second attempt my excel program was used to predict the effect of proposed devices on the annual energy requirements of spaces.

The design of shading devices using the Olgyay method can be carried out in four steps. In the first step, the time is determined when shading is needed (overheated period). According to the developers of the method, provision for shading is required at any time when the outdoor air temperature exceeds 21 °C in regions of latitude of 40 approximately. For every 5 degrees latitude change towards the equator the limiting temperature should be elevated by 0.44 °C for acclimatisation purposes. For example, Yazd (latitude of about 32[°] N), we considered that the limiting temperature during the overheated period was 22° C. The temperatures, which fall over the limiting temperature, will define the overheated period, or the times when shading is needed. This can be listed on a chart, when the hourly and the monthly divisions

serve as ordinates. Having done so, the yearly shading chart of Yazd was constructed and illustrated in figure 7.8.

Figure 7.8: Yearly shading chart of the City of Yazd (Razjouyan, 1987)

In the second step, the position of the sun, when shading is needed is determined. This can be performed by transferring the overheated period determined in the yearly shading chart to a sun-path diagram corresponding the latitude of the site (See figure 7.9).

Figure 7.9: Overheated period transferred from the yearly shading chart (fig. 7.8) to the solar chart (Razjouyan, 1987)

In the diagram, each line represents two dates when the sun has the same path during the course of the year. As shown in figure 7.9, the darker area of the overheated period indicates when shading is required on both dates.

Any shading device has a characteristic-shading mask, which explains the performance of the device. Shading masks are independent of latitude, orientation and time, because they are a conventionalised geometric description. They are also independent of the scale of the device. As mentioned before, the performance of

shading devices is defined by their angular relation to the facade.

The shading masks of shading devices can be constructed in the third step. The shading mask should generally cover as much as possible of the indicated overheated period while not cover too much of the under heated period, when sunshine is needed for its warm effect. Masks can be drawn when the total surface is in shade (i.e. 100 percent shading), and when only half of the surface is in shade, i.e. 50 percent shading. The designers of this method observe that if the 50 percent border of a shading mask covers the outer perimeter of the indicated overheated period area, the shading device should be effective.

In the fourth step, the dimensions of the shading device are determined. This can be easily done using the shadow angle protractor of the same scale as the solar chart. In figures 7.10 to 7.13, the shadow angle protractor of the same scale of the solar chart is placed on the solar chart with the centre of the protractor directly over the mid-point of the chart. The protractor is then turned about its centre until the base-line

assumes the orientation of the exposed wall, which it is supposed to present. The 100 and 50 percent shading masks indicated by darker and lighter areas respectively were superimposed accordingly for four cardinal orientations. Shading windows facing south is relatively an easy task. The 100 and 50 percent masks presented in figure 7.10. Constructed shading masks define the type and the angle of device only, and possibilities remain for various design arrangements. For example, the shading device for south facing windows of the reference school (window's height $= 1.5$ m) can be an

overhang with a depth of 1.26m directly over the window, or can comprise a set of horizontal louvers having a vertical shadow angle of about 50 degrees. Vertical fins are more effective in intercepting solar radiation falling on windows facing north. A set of vertical fins at a 16 degrees angle measured from the wall seems to be satisfactory (Figure 7.11).

Figure 7.10: Shading mask for south facing windows (Razjouyan, 1987)

Figure 7.11: Shading mask for north facing windows (Razjouyan, 1987)

Figure 7.12: Shading mask for cast facing windows (Razjouyan, 1987)

Providing adequate shading for east and west orientations is not accomplished as easily as for the other two orientations. Vertical fins provide poor shading in summer, while cutting off almost all radiation in winter. Vertical fins with their members oblique to the south to cut off sunrays are more effective than vertical ones normal to the wall. For classrooms facing these orientation it is almost impossible to stop the sun rays in summer while allowing its entrance in winter by means of fixed shading devices. Movable shading devices or means of providing seasonal shading, for example by means of deciduous trees planted opposite the wall, and could be more

effective. For east and west facing windows, horizontal shading devices having a vertical shadow angle of 35 degrees, for example a horizontal overhang of a depth of 2.15m, whose shading masks are shown in figures 7.12 and 7.13 respectively may be considered. Figure 7.14 shows some possible forms of shading devices whose shading masks were illustrated in figures 7.10 to 7.13.

7_4 * Windows Dimensions

discussed later in this chapter. At first the psychological reactions associated with window design will be discussed briefly in the following part.

According to studies concerning with the psychological reactions associated with windows it can be concluded that the limitation of the function of windows to the provision of light and air would be incorrect. In order to create an environment both thermally and visually comfortable to the occupants other benefits ascribed to windows such as daylight, view, sunshine, privacy, etc. should be considered in design processes. The effect of window design on energy requirements would be

Shading Mask Sections of two possible arrangements of horizontal devices having the same shading characteristics which may be used on the east or west elevation

Figure 7.14: Design of shading devices using the Olgyay Method

Shading Mask

Sections of two possible arrangements of horizontal devices having the same shading characteristics which may be used on the south elevation

Shading Mask Plan of possible arrangements of vertical fins which may be used on the north elevation

The visible part of the global solar radiation, i. e. daylight, has always been used as the major light source to illuminate building interiors. Providing an adequate quantity

of light for the tasks involved, with satisfactory distribution of brightness to give freedom from visual discomfort, is the aim of good interior daylighting. The basic principles of good lighting apply in tropical conditions as elsewhere (Hopkinson, et al. 1966).

For design purposes two main climatic patterns for daylight calculation, i. e. the overcast sky and the clear sky have been described.

The characteristic of hot dry climates is the presence of continuous sunshine from cloudless skies. Therefore, direct sunlight as well as skylight should be considered. One more source of interior light will be that reflected off the ground, and from buildings opposite. The amount of indoor daylight can be increased considerably by this component of illumination. In some cases, with bright ground and surroundings, the external reflected component can reach as 50% of the overall daylight received (Ne'eman and Shrifteilig, 1982).

Where the main consideration in controlling solar penetration lies with the exclusion of solar heat in hot seasons, as is invariably the case in hot and zones, as mentioned before the most effective way of control is to block the direct rays from

the sun before they can pass through the glazed areas.

 σ , σ

Thus, when the sun is excluded from an interior, the main source of interior light will be that reflected off the ground, and from objects nearby. The dry light-coloured ground, and the white or light coloured buildings characteristic of these areas will result in surfaces of very high luminance due to reflected sunlight. The reflected light from these sources is usually of such high level that special measures have to be taken to screen the ground and opposing facades from the view of the occupants of a building. The advantage of arranging buildings around shaded courtyards is that their luminance can be controlled by the use of vegetation. Furthermore, placing windows very high with the sill above eye level is useful. However, because of the lack of view it might be less acceptable. Using devices such as louvers, woven fabrics and etc. in

the form of protected windows known as "mashrabias", has also some advantages.

In daylighting design, the fact that a greater proportion of light flux is more likely to enter a classroom from below the horizontal plane if external sun control devices,

e.g. overhangs, are used is important. A large spectrum of human tasks needs downward illumination on horizontal surfaces. This can be provided by using internal surfaces of high reflectance and taking advantage of the high proportion of the incident flux received on the ceiling and upper section of walls in the classroom as externally reflected light coming from the ground and opposing facades.

Therefore, the aim of achieving an energy efficient design should be to maximise solar gain when it is wanted and to exclude it when it is not. In this respect, factors such as orientation, the positioning of openings in external walls, depth of the reveals, the placing of structural projections, e.g. balconies, overhangs, sun-break walls,

There is a considerable relationship between our desire for sunshine and the prevalent climate. This desire may be strongest for people living in the northern latitudes where the duration of sunshine can be quite limited. Conversely in hot climates with an abundance of sunshine, people have a tendency to avoid sunshine in their buildings in hot periods of the year because of its excessive heat. However, during cold periods of the year, they welcome some sun in their buildings. By reducing heating loads this will contribute to the heating system.

In the context of Islamic culture the maintenance of visual privacy is of prime significance in school design. It is recommended that windows open to public spaces, e.g. streets, should be protected to provide school privacy so that people can not

canopies, etc. and means of landscaping should be all considered in the planning and design.

Privacy is the other factor that must be considered in window design. Windows express social relationship, since through them one may see others and be seen. The importance of privacy is variable depending on the type of culture and buildings and the task involved.

- observe the pupil activities specially in girls schools. Protected windows, known as "mashrabias", were helpful since they not only filtered the light and controlled the glare, but also let people to see through them without being seen. However, today's rapidly developed buildings with outward orientation have not been capable to solve
- this problem (Tavassoli, 1984).

 $\epsilon_{\rm c}$

It seems that the easiest way to control solar heat gain and to maintain visual is decreasing the size of windows. However, if windows are too small, they may no longer provide adequate daylight or a good view out. Very small windows can create annoying glare spots through contrast with the darker surrounding wall (Hopkinson, 1972). By graduation of brightness, splayed reveals can decrease the glare of small windows to some extent.

There are window sizes, which are too small to satisfy the visual comfort of the occupants. If a recommendation has to be made (provided visual privacy can be satisfied), it would be that windows should occupy at least 20% of the wall area [Ne'eman and Hopkinson, 1970, Keighley, 1973. a, Baxter, 1979).

$7₅$ * Window Design and Energy Requirements

With the aim of investigating the effect of different window systems on the thermal performance of buildings, the energy requirements of four classrooms of the reference school facing four cardinal orientations (south, north, east and west) were examined. In all cases the lighting loads were determined from a required lighting level of 300 Lux and by using the daylighting programme the electrical energy required to meet this requirement was found (Chapter 6). Different areas of glazing were obtained by changing the window width whilst keeping the height at a constant l. 5 metres. Changing the width from I to 6 metres in increments of I metre, results in window to wall ratios of 10, 20,30,40 and 50 percent respectively. The arrangement of windows on the facade of classrooms is shown in figure 7.15:

Figure 7.15: Different window arrangements (Designed by Gorji)

It was considered that identical zones surrounded internal partitions, with no heat flow through them. The roof is a "warm type" roof whose design specification is similar to that shown in figure 7.16. Construction details of the floor, external walls and partitions are the same as those shown in table 7.1. Control strategies are the same for four classrooms and as those for intermittent operations. The glass chosen is 171

a single pane of 4mm clear float, which is the most common and available glass, used in schools.

Figure 7.16: Roof Types

Table 7.1: Construction details

i.e. by radiation, convection, or between the device and the opaque fabric, are neglected.

Depending on the extent of the projection of shading devices over windows, they may cast some shadow on adjacent structures. In the simulations whose results are reported here, it was imposed that the shadow of the devices would fall only on the glazing and not on adjacent components. This can be for example the case of small devices in the form of external louvers, etc. This assumption was made with the aim of keeping the heat flow through the walls as much as possible the same in classrooms with and without window shading devices. Furthermore, the effect of shading devices is limited to intercepting the direct solar radiation only. Thus, any other heat exchanges, which might happen between shading devices and windows,

Figures 7.17 to 7.20 show the calculated annual cooling, heating and lighting requirements of classrooms having different window systems.

Table 7.2: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the north facing classroom

Figure 7.17: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the north facing classroom

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Table 7.3: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the east facing classroom

Figure 7.18: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the east facing classroom

Table 7.4: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the west facing classroom

Figure 7.19: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the west facing classroom

> The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the west facing classroom

Table 7.5: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the south facing classroom

Figure 7.20: The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the south facing classroom

> The effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the south facing classroom

The difference between the rate of heat gain and loss through the glazing area, i.e. the energy balance of glazing, shows whether the glazing would increase or decrease the energy demand of an enclosure over a given period. The trend in the annual cooling requirements of the classrooms whose energy demands are shown in figures 7.17 to 7.20 indicates that there are energy penalties associated with windows regardless of the orientation of classrooms. In other way, during the cooling season the value of the energy balance of glazing has a positive sign:

|Heat gain through glass| $-$ |heat loss through glass| >0

Also it can be concluded from figures 7.17 to 7.20 that increasing the window areas reduce the heating requirements in all orientations (because the useful heat content of the solar energy can be transmitted indoors by larger areas of glazing) except north. Since at latitude 32° N, windows facing north do not receive any sunshine over the entire heating season, larger windows slightly increases the heating demand of the north facing classrooms during the heating period.

The orientation of the window has great significance in the relative performance of shading devices. Since the north facing windows do not receive a great amount of

direct solar radiation over the cooling season, the effect of shading devices in decreasing cooling loads is not of great importance (Figure 7.17). In contrast, using shading devices in east and west facing windows is an effective environmental control method for decreasing the cooling needs.

The incorporation of shading devices in the design increases heating loads because shading devices obstruct some of the winter sun's rays and consequently decrease the useful heat content of the solar energy,

By using data given in figures 7.17 to 7.20, figure 7.21 has been constructed in order to make a better comparison. Table 7.7 shows the ratios of the energy

requirements of different classrooms having different window systems when

compared with the windowless classrooms of the same orientation.

Table 7.6: The effect of window size and shading on loads

Figure 7.21: The effect of window size and shading on loads

Comparing the numbers shown in table 7.7 can assess the potential energy savings and penalties associated with the window design. By increasing the area of unshaded windows the cooling loads would considerably be increased. For example, the cooling requirements of the east facing classroom having a window comprising 50% of its wall area is 2.7 times greater than that of the windowless classroom of the same orientation. Or, increasing the window area of the east facing classroom from 20 to 50% would result in an increase in the cooling load by 63% $((2.7/1.66) * 100\%)$.

The increase in the percentage of the cooling loads as the result of increasing the glazing areas would be smaller when shading devices are incorporated into the design. For example, the cooling requirements of the east facing classroom would increase by 38% ((1.82/1.32)* 100%) when the area of the shaded window increases from 20 to 50% of the wall area.

Table 7.7: The effects of window design and orientation on the annual energy requirements of classrooms

The effect of incorporating shading devices into the design of windows on the energy requirements of classrooms can also be calculated from the numbers shown in table 7.7. For example, the cooling requirements of the east facing classroom with a window comprising 20% of its wall area would be decreased by 20% $((1-1.32/1.66)$ *100%) as the result of the effect of the shading device in intercepting the passage of direct solar radiation into classroom.

76 * Economic Considerations

The cooling and heating loads indicate the energy that has to be extracted and added respectively and are not energy consumptions. Energy consumptions depend on the refrigeration system coefficient of performance and the heating system efficiency.

If the annual cooling load is given by L_c (Kwhrs), the heating load L_h (Kwhrs) and the lighting L_1 (Kwhrs), then the total annual energy requirements, Q_t , is calculated by the following algorithm:

Where cop is the coefficient of performance of the cooling system (the efficiency) and f the overall efficiency of the heating system. For Iran the cooling system is typically electricity driven whilst gas is used for heating. If the cost of electricity is C_e

per Kwhrs and that of gas C_g per Kwhrs, the total annual cost C_t is calculated by:

According to economic considerations, changes in loads require to be taken into account with regard to their fundamental effect on purchasing energy. The designer of a school and the education council will be concerned with running costs and the cost effectiveness of any change in the design of the building. Without taking the full steps of estimating savings associated with an investment that occurs over an extended period of time, an important comparison of estimated savings can be made by casting

the computed results into current cost savings.

$$
Q_t = L_l + (L_c / \text{cop}) + L_h / f \qquad \text{(Kwhrs)} \qquad \text{Algorithm 7.5}
$$

$$
C_t = (L_1 + (L_c / \text{cop})) * C_e + (L_h / f) * C_g
$$
 Algorithm 7.6

This can be written as:

$$
C_1/C_g = (L_1 + (L_c / \text{cop}))^* N + (L_h/f)
$$
 Algorithm 7.7

Where N is the ratio of electricity cost to gas cost, C_e/C_g . Values of cop, f and N vary depending on the efficiencies of the refrigeration system, heating system and the local prices of fuels respectively. By assuming that values of cop may vary between 2 and 3, and those of f between 0.6 and 0.8, and N between 3 to 6, different scenarios may be considered. We studied 3 scenarios. In scenario 1 (SCI), we took middle range variables, i.e. values of 2.5, 0.7 and 4.5 for cop, f and N respectively. By substituting these values in equation 7.7 we will obtain the following algorithm:

$C_t/C_g = 4.5 L_1 + 1.8 L_c + 1.43 L_h$ for SC1 Algorithm 7.8

Scenario 2 (SC2) was in the favour of heating loads, i.e. values of 2, 0.8 and 6 were selected for cop, f and N respectively. And finally in scenario 3 (SC3), values of 3,0.6 and 3 were assigned for cop, f and N respectively. By substituting these values in equation 7.7, we obtain:

> $C_0/C_g = 3 L_1 + L_c + 1.67 L_h$ for SC3 Algorithm 7.10

The cost effectiveness of design solutions, e.g. modifications in window design now can be cast into values of C_t/C_g named as Annual Cost factor $(C_t/C_g = ACF)$.

$$
C_{t}/C_{g} = 3 (2L_{1} + L_{c}) + 1.25 L_{h}
$$
 for SC2 Algorithm 7.9 and:

As discussed before, in order to provide more realistic performance determinants the effect of design solutions on energy needs may be cast into the cost of purchasing energy. As an example, Figure 7.22 has been constructed assuming the conditions of scenario 1 apply, i.e. using equation 7.8. South orientation is the optimal orientation under the conditions set. Unobstructed windows comprising up to about 25% of the south facing wall, appear to be more efficient in energy terms than those incorporating shading devices designed using the Olgyay method. At other orientations, small shaded windows are preferable. It seems that shading north facing

windows makes no significant savings.

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$

The differences between the Annual Cost factors of classrooms with that of windowless classrooms of the same orientation indicate that except for the classroom

facing south, having an unshaded window comprising 10% of its wall area, the presence of windows is associated with cost penalties (Figure 7.22).

Table 7.8: Fenestration cost analyses assuming Scenario 1 applies

 $(cop = 2.5, f = 0.7, N = 4.5)$

Figure 7.22: Fenestration cost analyses assuming Scenario 1 applies

The efficiency of shading devices depends on their ability to intercept solar radiation as much as possible during summer while allowing its entrance into the

building in winter. With the aim to investigate the accuracy of graphical methods in determining the size of devices, the thermal performance of devices of other dimensions was analysed. Some results are stated in the following paragraphs.

In figures 7.23 and 7.24, annual cooling, heating and lighting needs of the south and east facing zones under a series of different window arrangements are illustrated

shading devices of different sizes (note that shading devices designed using the Olgyay method have vertical shadow angles of 50 and 35 degrees for south and east orientations respectively) were included in the design of windows comprising 20% and 50% of the wall area. The former percentage gives a suitable window size to satisfy view and be reasonably energy efficient. The latter reflects recent tendencies in current domestic architecture.

same for devices having shadow angles greater than 60 degrees, e.g. overhangs deeper than 0.90 meter (Figure 7.23). However, using extensive shading devices over east facing windows keeps reducing the cooling loads with a diminishing effect (Figure 7.24). On both orientations, larger shading devices tend to increase heating loads as they obstruct the winter sun to higher amount.

In the case of the south facing classroom, the cooling loads are practically the

Table 7.9: The effect of the size of the shading device on the annual cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the south facing classroom

Figure 7.23: The effect of the size of the shading device on the annual cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the south facing classroom

Table 7.10: The effect of the size of the shading device on the annual cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the east facing classroom

Figure 7.24: The effect of the size of the shading device on the annual cooling, heating and lighting requirements of the east facing classroom

Calculated annual cost factors under different scenarios are outlined in figurers 7.25 and 7.26 by applying equations 7.8,7.9 and 7.10 developed in this chapter. Figure 7.25, shows the effect of the size of shading devices incorporated in the design of south facing windows. Therefore, we can find the optimal size of the device by

choosing a scenario representing the nearest conditions. Using the Olgyay method, the estimated shadow angle of the device determined to be 50 degrees. Figure 7.25 reveal that this is overestimated under any scenario.

Table 7.11: Fenestration cost analyses for south facing classroom

Figure 7.25: Fenestration cost analyses for south facing classroom

Table 7.12: Fenestration cost analyses for cast facing classroom

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Figure 7.26: Fenestration cost analyses for cast facing classroom

Taking scenario I for example, the graph indicates that a device having a vertical shadow angle of 60 degrees is the most suitable for large windows while a smaller overhang of an angle of 70 degrees should be sufficient for smaller windows.

The size of shading devices for east facing windows, having a vertical shadow angle 35 degrees, estimated by the Olgyay method, seems to be more reasonable (Figure 7.26).

Other researchers has reported this fact that the estimated size of shading devices designed by using the graphical methods may be larger than required (Etzion, 1985).

According to the results obtained, the fenestration design of the reference school (Figure 7.27) was modified as shown in figure 7.28. The size of the windows of the reference school, each comprising 20% of its wall area, was not changed, as it is appropriate to satisfy view out, while being reasonably energy efficient. East and west facing windows in four corner classrooms, i. e. zones 1,3,7, and 9, were eliminated

because of their poor thermal performance.

No devices were considered for north facing windows since shading on these windows does not show significant savings. Shading devices having a vertical shadow angle of 70 degrees were placed over south facing windows, and those with an angle of 35 degrees on east and west facing windows.

Figure 7.27: Floor plan of the reference school

Notes:

Classroom Dimensions: 6.00* 6.00m Floor-ceiling height: 3.00m Windows: width: 2.40m Sill height: 1.00m Head height: 2.50m

Doors: Width: 1.00m

Height: 2.00m

Figure 7.28: Reference school with new window arrangements

The external walls of the models are 220 mm brickwork plastered internally. The floor is concrete and the roof is a traditional warm roof consisting a concrete slab insulated externally and internal partitions are 110 mm brickwork plastered on both sides. The glass chosen is a single pane of 4 mm clear float, which is the most commonly available glass, used in the school industry.

In figure 7.29 are shown the annual heating, cooling and lighting loads and the associated annual cost factors (assuming scenario 1 applies) of both the original

reference school (Figure 7.27) and the school with the new window arrangements (Figure 7.28). A substantial saving in the annual running cost as much as 14% has been achieved under the new design strategy (Gorji and Ward, 2001).

Note: Figures 7.27 and 7.28 are just model plans with two different passive and non-passive zones for calculation of heating, cooling and lighting energy requirements in these zones. They are not real school plan.

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Chapter 7 The Effect of Window Design on the Thermal Performance of Buildings

Table 7.13: The effect of fenestration design on energy requirements

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Table 7.14: The effect of fenestration design on energy requirements and energy cost

 $Old = Reference School (Fig 5.27)$ New = Reference School (Fig 5.28)

Figure 7.29: The effect of fenestration design on energy requirements

Figure 7.30: The effect of fenestration design on energy requirements

77 * Summary

The role of windows in energy conservation and the design of fenestration have a particular importance in buildings. Many researchers have given special attention to improve the energy balance of windows in order to reduce the energy requirements of buildings. The consequences of these researches are the large and growing range of different window systems.

In this chapter the effect of glazing areas, orientation and shading on the use and saving of energy in buildings is discussed.

The city of Yazd, located in hot dry climate of Iran is selected and the yearly shading chart of this city is constructed. Also the design of shading devices using the Olgyay method is outlined.

Different parameters that must be considered in window design are mentioned and the effect of different window systems on the thermal performance of buildings is investigated.

Daylight, has always been used as the major source to illuminate the interior part

of building. Also solar radiation has been considered as a source to heat buildings. Therefore, these two parameters have been used in the calculation of heating, cooling and lighting loads of classrooms.

Furthermore, the effect of window size and shading on the cooling, heating and lighting requirements of classrooms has been investigated in four directions.

Finally, in this chapter the cost effectiveness of different fenestration design is analysed and in order to reduce the cost of energy used in school buildings a new design strategy for window arrangements is suggested.

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Chapter 8 The Educational System and Current School's Design in Iran

Chapter 8

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8* The Educational System and Current School's Design in Iran

$8₁ * Introducing$

The philosophical concept of education in Iran could be defined as aiming for the creation of a good and righteous man. This is a major aspect of an education, which must achieve a basic objective: It must enable man to understand and feel Allah so

that he worships him in full conviction of his Oneness.

In this way, man should develop all his knowledge, facilities, to equip him, for a better life, knowing that these things all come from Allah so he should pray for them. The sources of knowledge of Islamic education have been classified into the following categories:

1) The human intellect and its tools are in a constant interaction with the physical universe on the levels of observation, contemplation, experimentation and application. In Iran knowledge presented initially in school is continued at university.

2) The human being is developed spiritually and morally as well as physically. So

the best ways to develop these qualities are by obedience to Allah's laws. Determining of these laws, in Iran, there are some specialised organisations, similar to universities, which present these subjects. These systems also accept students who have completed high school.

The Iranian education system is controlled by four organisations. The school system including high schools are organised by the Ministry of Education; universities and colleges are organised by the Ministries (Science, Research and Technology) and (Health and Medicine Education) and religious universities are organised by the "Hozeh- Elmieh".

In order to suggest a new design for school buildings in Iran, it would be necessary to review the history of the educational system, the population of pupils and the design of the existing schools. Therefore, a case study will be performed in various climatic regions of Iran. Furthermore, a comparison will be made between the

Chapter 8 The Educational System and Current School's Design in Iran

calculated annual energy used and the actual energy consumption of the current school buildings.

$8₂$ * The History of Education in Iran

Prior to the mid-nineteenth century, it was traditional in Iran for education to be associated with religious institutions. The clergy, Shia and non-Shia, assumed responsibility for instructing youth in basic literacy and the fundamentals of religion.

Knowledge of reading and writing was not considered necessary for all the population, and thus education generally was restricted to the sons of the economic and political elite. Typically, this involved a few years of study in a local school, or maktab. Those who desired to acquire more advanced knowledge could continue in a religious college, or madraseh, where all fields of religious science were taught. A perceived need to provide instruction in subjects that were not part of the traditional religious curriculum, such as accounting, European languages, military science, and technology, led to the establishment of the first government school in 1851. For many years this remained the only institution of higher learning in the country (Cyberiran, 1996).

By the early twentieth century there were several schools teaching foreign languages and sciences, including a few for girls. These schools were run by foreign missionaries, private Iranians, and the government. Their function was to educate the children of the elite. During the Constitutional Revolution (1905-1907), a number of reform-minded individuals proposed the establishment of a nationwide, public, primary school system. Progress in opening new schools was steady but slow, and by the end of the Qajar dynasty (1925) there were approximately 3,300 government schools with a total enrolment of about 110,000 students (Ibid).

During the Pahlavi era (1925-79), the government implemented a number of policies aimed at modernising the country and expanded the education system. The Ministry of Education was given responsibility for regulating all public and private schools and drafted a uniform curriculum for primary and for secondary education. The entire public system was secular and for many years remained based upon the French model. Its objective was to train Iranians, for modern occupations in

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administration, management, science, and teaching. This education system was the single most important factor in the creation of the secularised middle class.

The goal of creating a nationwide education system was never achieved during the Pahlavi era. In 1940 only 10 percent of all elementary-age children were enrolled in school, and less than 1 percent of youths between the ages of 12 and 20 were in secondary school. These statistics did not increase significantly until the early 1960s, when the government initiated programs to improve and expand the public school system. By 1978 approximately 75 percent of all elementary-age children were enrolled in primary schools, while somewhat less than 50 percent of all teenagers were attending secondary schools (Ibid).

Modern college and university education also was developed under the Pahlavis; by the 1920s, the country had several institutes of higher education. In 1934 the institutes associated with government ministries were combined to form the University of Tehran, which was coeducational from its inception. Following World War II, universities were founded in other major cities, such as Tabriz, Esfahan, Mashhad, Shiraz, and Ahvaz. During the 1970s, these universities were expanded,

and colleges and vocational institutes were set up in several cities.

One of the first measures adopted by the government after the Revolution in 1979 was the desecularisation of the public school system. This was a three-pronged program that involved purging courses and textbooks believed to slander Islam and substituting courses on religion; purging teachers to ensure that only those who understood the true meaning of Islam (i.e., were not secular) remained in the schools; and regulating the behaviour and dress of students.

Although the government reintroduced the study of religion into the public school curriculum from primary grades through college, it did not act to alter the basic organisation of the education system. Thus, as late as the school year 1986-1987, schools had not changed significantly from the pattern prior to the Revolution. Students studied in primary schools for five years, beginning the first grade at about age seven. Then they spent three years, designated the guidance cycle, in a middle school. In this cycle, the future training of students was determined by their aptitude as demonstrated on examinations. Students were then directed into one of three kinds 196
of four-year high schools: the academic cycle, preparing for college; the science and mathematics cycle, preparing for university programs in engineering and medicine; and the vocational technical cycle.

The Ministry of Education announced that nearly 11.5 million students were registered for elementary and secondary schools during the academic year 1986-1987 (Ibid). Statistics on the percentage of young people aged seven through nineteen enrolled in school have not been available since the Revolution. It is generally estimated that the percentages have remained similar to those before the Revolution: school attendance of about 78 percent of elementary-age children and less than 50 percent of secondary-age youth.

Since the Revolution, high school education has experienced significantly more drastic changes than elementary and secondary school education. High school education (Reform system) covers three years and a one-year pre-university programme. This education offers three branches: theoretical, technical-vocational and skill-knowledge (kar-Danesh). Each are divided into different fields. The required total number of credits leading to the High School Certificate is 96. The courses offered in the first year are common and after successfully completing the first year, based on aptitude, interest and the grades obtained in guidance school, students can continue their studies. The one-year pre-university programme prepares students to enter university and higher education institutions. To enter this course, students should pass the appropriate exam. After successfully passing the one-year period, they are granted the Pre-University Certificate and can sit for the National Entrance Exam of universities and higher education institutions. Qualified students entering the technical-vocational branch can continue studies leading to the Post-Diploma degree (technician) or sit for the Pre-University Examination. Those who wish to acquire skills before completing secondary education can enter the skill-knowledge branch

and obtain first or second class Skill Certificate or sit for the Pre-University

Examination as well (UNESCO, 2000).

83 * The Population and Pupils in Iran

The Population in Iran is increasing at a similar rate to that in other developing

countries. The sharp increase in the last century in particular is considerable (see table

8.1). Around the year 1900 the population of the country was about 9 million. During the first part of the twentieth century the population grew relatively slowly. Subsequently a rapid increase occurred by factors such as the non-restriction on birth control and improvement in general health conditions, which took place in Iran from 1979 (Statistical centre, 1998).

After the revolution in 1979, Iran with 3.8% annual average population growth rate was one of the countries in which the population was growing very fast. This

population passed from 36 million in 1979 to 66 million inhabitants in 2000. With a simple estimate near the 42.5% of the total population is between 0-18 years old. The high annual growth rate and the percentage of the young population explains the big task of the government to provide this population with the basic facilities of life, the most important of which is providing them with schooling. However, in recent years the government is encouraging people to use birth control, a policy which is having some effects as is shown by the fall in the birth rate down to 2.12% in the 1995 (Ibid) and 0.72% in the year 2001. (see tables 8.1,8.2). In order to achieve the schooling needs of the country; the ministry of education has build up almost 93,247 schools (70% of the total existing number) during the last 22 years, i. e. since the revolution in

1979. The total number of school buildings in Iran in year 2001 is almost 133,210. Although the huge numbers of new school buildings, more than 50% of schools has been used in two different shifts during the same working day i.e. morning and afternoon during the last educational year (Bourbour, 2001). Therefore, the government has still some problems in, providing new school buildings.

In the educational year 2001-02 the total number of 18,034,616 pupils will attend three different levels of education throughout the country. The detail of the number of pupils in1996 and 2001 has been shown in table 10.3 (UNESCO, 2000 and IRNA, 2001).

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Table 8.1: The population of Iran from 1901-2000 (UNESCO, 2000 and Statistical centre 1998)

Table 8.2: The population of Iran from 2000 - 2001 (UNESCO, 2000 and CIA, 2001)

Table 8.3: Pupils by grade both sex in three levels of education in Iran (1996, 2001) (NESCO, 2000 and IRNA, 2001)

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84 * The Aims and Policies of Iranian Education

The aims and policies of Iranian education are based on three categories i.e. the belief and morality, social objectives and the knowledge of life. There are four different social policies in Iranian education as shown in below (Figure 8.1):

Figure 8.1: The aims and policies of Iranian education

$8₅$ * The Structure of Education in Iran

The following chart shows the structure of education in Iran at different stages in Iran (Figure 8.2).

The pattern of the general educational system in Iran comprises four levels:

A) From age 3 to 6, the children go to kindergarten and nursery. The children have freedom to attend during this period and mostly; these schools are in the private

sector.

B) From age 7, to 11, the children go to primary for 5 years.

C) From age 12 to 14, the children attend to Secondary school for 3 years.

D) From age 15 to 18, the children are admitted to high school for 4 years.

One of the most important features that characterises the Iranian system is the complete separation of boys and girls education. This requires duplication of facilities and administration as well as instruction throughout the elementary, intermediate and high school periods. But in general at university males and females study together.

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Figure 8.2: The structure of Iranian education

$8₆ * The Curriculum and Teaching Methods$

Male and female have almost the same curriculum and text books are prescribed by the central authorities at all levels for both sexes.

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Teaching method and curriculum are based on a class group organisation, where age groups split all students up and each age group is divided into classes usually between 30-40 students. This is similar to the traditional pattern found in western countries.

Despite the philosophy of Islamic education at the head of the hierarchical order of Iranian educational aims, educational system is not yet totally Islamised.

What is happening in Iran is that the traditional western method of general education has been adapted for the Iranian situation.

This system started in 1851 in a high school called "Darolfonon" in Tehran (Zamiry 1992). Several years later, the system had been developed in all levels in schools and universities.

Since the Iranian revolution (1979), Iranian education was changed in different parts. The most important one was the change in the contents of books that were taught in schools in all subjects, especially in humanities and social sciences.

But the method of education is still based on the concept of a traditional approach, which depends on the assumption that children are more or less ambivalent towards education, and that means of teaching them are matters of direction, compulsion and restraint. It is the responsibility of the teacher to bring this about. Emphasis is usually made on 'what is to be learned' assuming that education involves the student in acquiring important knowledge skills. T. W. Moor comments that:

"Education is thus represented as a sort of translation between a full and an empty vessel. The teachers a full man, a repository of socially important Knowledge and skills and attitudes, whereas the pupil is empty and needs to be filled up." (Moore, T. W., 1974, p. 20)

It is possible to notice some conflicts between the Islamic educational aspects in

Iran and their application in practice. For example, although the principles of the educational policy encourage the spirit of scientific research and thinking among students, and it also allows individual differences to be discussed among them. Teaching methods in schools tent to respond to that individualism by following the traditional approaches.

Finally, the educational approach at the moment and in the future, in Iran will accommodate a change towards new Islamic education best described as `human centred' which includes `child centred', `teaching and learning' and uses `teacher personality' and `social cultures'.

It is considered important to illustrate this by including some views of Iranian schools and some pictures from this kind of life. Several plants of schools in Iran will

Figure 8.5: Based on individual works and not group work

be shown to develop this theme.

8_{6.1} * Classroom Types

Figure 8.3: Fixed desks and chairs

A

Figure 8.6: Blackboard has a special position

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Figure 8.4: Pupils have their own places

8_{6.2} * Answering or Explaining the Subject

86.3 * Facilities in Classroom

86.4 * Examinations

Figure 8.9: Teachers control students Figure 8.10: Examinations in school

8_{6.5} * Assembly Hall

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Figure 8.11: Place for meetings or examinations or community activities

Figure 8.7: Education equipment accessible only by teachers

Figure 8.8: Display board and clotheshorse accessible by pupils

Figure 8.12: Place for religious activities and prayers

 $8_{6.6}$ * Corridors

Figure 8.13: Main circulation for all activities

Figure 8.14: Access to classrooms and different floors

8_{6.7} * The View of School's Design in Rural Regions of Iran

Figure 8.15: A school with three classrooms in the hot and dry weather in a rural region in Iran

Figure 8.16: A school with three classrooms in the humid weather in a rural region in Iran

$8₇$ * The Design of Current Schools in Iran (Case Study)

In this section thirteen types of primary, secondary and high school built in different climatic regions of Iran has been selected. The basic data of the case study is summarised in the table 8.4. The details of the design, construction materials, amount

of energy used and geographic characteristics of the cities are explained. In order to investigate the impact of climate on energy consumption of school buildings, schools located in different climatic zones have been selected in this case study (see figure 8.17). Since the design of school buildings is not based on a common pattern in different counties of Iran, designers and constructors apply their own designs based on climate and the materials available in the county. Therefore in this case study we have different designs in different climatic zones. The amount of actual annual energy used has been calculated based on the information taken from the manager of each school. The values of energy used for heating, cooling and lighting are calculated by using dynamic separate excel sheet program designed by myself. At the end a

comparison has been made between the calculated annual energy consumption and the actual annual energy used.

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Figure 8 17: Climatic zones and location of the case study

Table 8.4: Summary table of the basic data of the case study

Type: Primary school Usable area: 1850 m^2 Pupils: 600 Location: Ghazvin
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 36° 15' Degrees (north) Longitude: -50° 00' Degrees (east) Altitude: 1377 metres
Azimuth: -20° 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -20° 00' Degrees
Climate: Cold-Temperate (see chapter ? Crown ? and subcrow

Climate: Cold-Temperate (see chapter 2, Group 2 and subgroup 2-5) \mathbb{R} Mean yearly temperature: 14.37^{oC}

In none of the 13 cases studied in this chapter thermal insulation has not been installed in building envelope components (i.e., ceilings, walls, floors). All windows are single glazed and educational spaces standards recommended by the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education, 1995) have not been applied in the design and construction of these schools.

It seems that some of these buildings have been designed for being used as an office or a house. However, since the Iranian government faces financial limitations

in providing new schools, these buildings are temporary used in order to meet the existing educational requirements of the country.

87.1 * Primary School with 20 Classrooms (School number 1)

This three-story primary school comprises twenty classrooms; four of them located

at the ground floor, eight at the first floor and the remaining eight at the second floor.

There is a large assembly hall with the height of 6 m located at the first floor.

The building is steel framed with brick walls and steel framed window. The construction of the walls is 40 mm stone cladding, 220 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground and first floor roofs are composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster. The second floor roof consists of 40 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm concrete, 80 mm expanded clay, and 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 27.8% in north wall, 28.5% in the south wall, 10% in the west & east wall. The glazing ratio of first and second floors are 29% in north, 55% in south, 24% in west and 25% in the east wall. The direction of the building is extended from east to west and has a nearly rectangular plan. The assembly hall is a hexagon located at the north part of the school.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gas-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24^{oC} in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.5: The amount of actual annual energy used

Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs
	\bullet - \bullet	139,782*
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*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.6: The calculated annual energy consumption

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Figure 8.18: The plan of the ground floor of a primary school with 20 classrooms (Number 1)

Figure 8.19: The plan of the low ground floor of a primary school with 20 classrooms (Number 1)

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Figure 8.20: The plan of the first floor of a primary school with 20 classrooms (Number 1)

Figure 8.23: The north elevation of a primary school with 20 classrooms (Number 1)

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Figure 8.26: The section B-B of a primary school with 20 classrooms (Number 1)

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Figure 8.27: The section A-A of a primary school with 20 classrooms (Number 1)

$8_{7.2}$ * Secondary School with 3 Classrooms (School number 2)

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Type: Secondary school 
Usable area: 344 \text{ m}^2Pupils: 90 
Location: Ghazvin (Mahmodabad) 
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 36° 15' Degrees (north) 
                                    Longitude: -50° 00' Degrees (east) 
                                    Altitude: 1377 metres<br>Azimuth: -13<sup>°</sup> 00' Degrees
Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -13° 00' Degrees
Climate: Cold-Temperate (see chapter 2, Group 2 and subgroup 2-5)
```
Mean yearly temperature: 14.37^{oC}

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 24% in north wall, 30% in the south wall, 10% in the west wall and 7% in the east wall.

This secondary school comprises three classrooms at the ground floor. It is located in the rural area of Ghazvin.

The school has a rectangular plan with 25.50 m length and 13.50 m width and 4 m height and the direction is extended from east to west.

Heating is provided by oil stove. The indoor temperature must be set to 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. This school did not use a cooling system.

The building has masonry wall (brick) and steel framed window. The construction of the walls is 30 mm cement, 335 mm brickwork and 13 mm dense plaster. The roof consists of 20 mm cement, 40 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 30 mm plaster. There is an additional sloped ceiling containing wood frame and asbestos sheet.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.7: The amount of actual annual energy used

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.8: The calculated annual energy consumption

Figure 8.31: The south elevation of a secondary school with 3 classrooms (Number 2)

Type: High school Usable area: 1600 m^2 Pupils: 270 Location: Ghazvin
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 36° 15' Degrees (north) Longitude: -50° 00' Degrees (east) Altitude: 1377 metres
Azimuth: +8[°] 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Climate: Cold-Temperate (see chapter 2, Group 2 and subgroup 2-5) Mean yearly temperature: 14.37^{oC}

This two-story high school comprises nine classrooms, three of them located at the

ground floor and the other six at the first floor.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 34.7% in north wall, 35.4% in the south wall, 16.2% in the west & east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 33.45% in north, 34.35% in south, 16.2% in west and 19.75% in the east wall.

The school has a rectangular plan with 29.5 m length and 27.1 m width and 7 m height (the room height is 3 m at each floor) and the direction is expended from east

The building is steel framed with brick walls and aluminium framed window. The

construction of the walls is 40 mm stone cladding, 220 mm brickwork and 13 mm plaster. The Ground floor roof consists of 50 mm floor tile, 20 mm cement, 80 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 40 mm plaster. The first floor roof composed of 40 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm cement, 150 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 40 mm plaster.

to west.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gas-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24^{oC} in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.9: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.10: The calculated annual energy consumption

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Figure 8.34: The plan of the first floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 3)

Figure 8.35: The south and north elevations of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 3)

Figure 8.36: The west and east elevations of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 3)

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Figure 8.37: The sections B-B and A-A of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 3)

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87.4 * Special Primary School with 5 Classrooms (School number 4)

Type: Special primary school (for children with special need) Usable area: $600m^2$ Pupils: 50 Location: Ghom Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 34° 38' Degrees (north) Longitude: -50° 53' Degrees (east) Altitude: 928 metres Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: +18° 00' Degrees Climate: Relatively cold-Hot (see chapter 2, Group 5 and subgroup 5-3)

Mean yearly temperature: 17.58^{oC}

This two-story special primary school comprises five classrooms, three of them located at the ground floor and the other two at the first floor.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 15% in north wall, 24% in the south wall, 12% in the west wall and 5% in the east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 15% in north, 24% in south, 3% in west and 28% in the east wall.

The building has masonry wall (brick) and steel framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 225 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The Ground floor roof consists of 50 mm floor tile, 20 mm cement, 80 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 40 mm plaster. The first floor roof composed of 40 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm cement, 150 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 40 mm plaster.

The plan of the ground floor consists of two rectangles with the following dimensions: 26m x 14m and 8m x 7.3m. The first floor has a rectangular plan with 14 m length and 12.7 m width. The room height is 3 m at each floor and the direction is extended from east to west.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gasoline-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.11: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.12: The calculated annual energy consumption

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs	
With window control	74,516.0	30,626.0	45,900.43	With Daylighting
Non-window control	74,516.0	39,089.3	75,396.1	Non Daylighting
With shading	74,503.6	28,482.6	47,106.36	With shading & Daylighting

Figure 8.38: The plan of the ground floor of a special primary school with 5 classrooms (Number 4)

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Figure 8.39: The plan of the first floor of a special primary school with 5 classrooms (Number 4)

Figure 8.40: The west elevation of a special primary school with 5 classrooms (Number 4) $\frac{1}{2}$

Figure 8.41: The east elevation of a special primary school with 5 classrooms (Number 4)

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Figure 8.42: The south elevation $\&$ section A-A of a special primary school with 5 classrooms (Number 4)

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Figure 8.43: The north elevation $\&$ section B-B of a special primary school with 5

classrooms (Number 4)

 $8_{7.5}$ * Secondary School with 9 Classrooms (School number 5)

Type: Secondary school Usable area: $1400m^2$ Pupils: 270 Location: Ghom Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 34° 38' Degrees (north) Longitude: -50° 53' Degrees (east) Altitude: 928 metres
Azimuth: +25[°] 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Climate: Relatively cold-Hot (see chapter 2, Group 5 and subgroup 5-3)

Mean yearly temperature: 17.58^{oC}

This two-story secondary school comprises nine classrooms, three of them located at the ground floor and the other six at the first floor.

north wall, 31% in the south wall, 26% in the west wall and 22% in the east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 34.5% in north, 43.2% in south, 9% in west and 9% in the east wall.

The school has a rectangular plan with 42 m length and 16 m width and 7 m height (the room height is 3m at each floor) and the direction is expended from east to west.

The building is steel framed with brick walls and aluminium framed window. The construction of the walls is 30 mm cement, 225 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The Ground floor roof consists of 50 mm floor tile, 20 mm cement, 80 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 40 mm plaster. The first floor roof composed of 40 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm cement, 150 mm expanded clay, 110 mm brick and 40 mm plaster.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 30% in

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gas-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air

changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5

during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.13: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.14: The calculated annual energy consumption

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs	
With window control	131,926.2	81,309.5	73,419.96	With Daylighting
Non-window control	131,926.2	80,760.6	136,655.44	Non Daylighting
With shading	131,926.2	62,493.2	73,891.44	With shading & Daylighting

Figure 8.44: The plan of the ground floor of a secondary school with 9 classrooms (Number 5)

Figure 8.45: The plan of the first floor of a secondary school with 9 classrooms (Number 5)

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Figure 8.46: The west elevation of a secondary school with 9 classrooms (Number 5)

Figure 8.47: East elevation

Figure 8.48: Section B-B

Figure 8.49: The north and south elevations & section A-A of a secondary school with 9

classrooms (Number 5)

 $8_{7.6}$ * Special Primary School with 9 Classrooms (School number 6)

```
Type: Special primary school (for children with special need) 
Usable area: 790 \text{ m}^2Pupils: 80 
Location: Yazd 
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 31° 54' Degrees (north) 
                                          Longitude: -54° 24' Degrees (east) 
                                          Altitude: 1230 metres<br>Azimuth: -25<sup>°</sup> 00' Degrees
Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -25°00' Degrees<br>Climates Baletivaly aald Het and exid (ese abentar 2. Crown 5
Climate: Relatively cold-Hot and arid (see chapter 2, Group 5 and subgroup 5-4)
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Mean yearly temperature: 19°C

This two-story special primary school comprises nine classrooms, three of them located at the ground floor and the other six at the first floor.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 15% in north wall, 24.64% in the south wall, 12% in the west wall and 5.1% in the east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 19.3% in north, 12% in south, 21% in west and 21% in the east wall.

The building has masonry wall (brick) and wood framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 225 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground floor roofs are composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster. The first floor roof consists of 30 mm tile & cement, 25 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm concrete, 80 mm expanded clay, and 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster.

The plan of the ground floor consists of two rectangles with the following dimensions: 26m* 14m and 8m* 7.3m. The first floor has a rectangular plan with 14 m length and 26 m width. The room height is 3 m at each floor and the direction is extended from east to west.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gasoline-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to

 24° C in the warm season and 20° C in the cold one. The cooling system consists of

electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.15: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.16: The calculated annual energy consumption

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs	
With window control	75,758.2	49,504.2	53,670.6	With Daylighting
Non-window control	75,758.2	60,857.3	91,888.99	Non Daylighting
With shading	75,758.2	47,139.3	58,909.03	With shading & Daylighting

Figure 8.50: The plan of the ground floor of a special primary school with 9 classrooms (Number

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Figure 8.51: The plan of the first floor of a special primary school with 9 classrooms (Number 6)

Figure 8.52: The sections A-A and B-B of a special primary school with 9 classrooms (Number 6)

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Figure 8.53: The north, south, east and west elevations of a special primary school with 9 classrooms (Number 6)

 $8_{7.7}$ * Secondary School with 12 Classrooms (School number 7)

Type: Secondary school Usable area: 2300 m^2 Pupils: 360 Location: Yazd Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 31° 54' Degrees (north) Longitude: -54° 24' Degrees (east) Altitude: 1230 metres
Azimuth: -19[°] 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -19°00' Degrees
Climate: Pelatively cold Hot and exid (see abontar ? Crown 5 Climate: Relatively cold-Hot and arid (see chapter 2, Group 5 and subgroup 5-4) Climate:

Mean yearly temperature: 19°C

This two-story secondary school 'comprises twelve classrooms, three of them located at the ground floor and the other nine at the first floor.

The building is steel framed with brick walls and aluminium framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 225 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground floor roofs are composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster. The first floor roof consists of 30 mm tile $\&$ cement, 25 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm concrete, 80 mm expanded clay, and 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 30% in north wall, 31% in the south wall, 26% in the west wall and 22% in the east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 34.5% in north, 43.2% in south, 9% in west and 9% in the east wall.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gas-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24^oC in the warm season and 20^oC in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5

during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.17: The amount of actual annual energy used

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs
Electricity	\bullet	$\bullet\bullet$	220,274
Gas	133,893	\bullet	\bullet
Gasoline	$\bullet \bullet$	e q	$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n$

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs	
With window control	179,697.6	129,397.1	124,511.91	With Daylighting
Non-window control	179,697.6	165,476.1	223,832.16	Non Daylighting
With shading	179,697.6	122,099.3	66,988.46	With shading& Daylighting

Table 8.18: The calculated annual energy consumption

Figure 8.54: The plan of the ground floor of a secondary school with 12 classrooms (Number 7)

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Figure 8.55: The plan of the first floor of a secondary school with 12 classrooms (Number 7)

Figure 8.56: The sections A-A, B-B, C-C of a secondary school with 12 classrooms (Number 7)

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Type: High school 
Usable area: 1200m^2Pupils: 270 
Location: Yazd 
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 31° 54' Degrees (north) 
                                          Longitude: -54° 24' Degrees (east) 
                                          Altitude: 1230 metres<br>Azimuth: -27° 00' Degrees
Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -27° 00' Degrees<br>Climate: Relatively cold Hot and arid (see chanter ? Croup 5)
Climate: Relatively cold-Hot and and (see chapter 2, Group 5 and subgroup 5-4) \overline{ }Mean yearly temperature: 19<sup>oC</sup>
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$8_{7,8}$ * High School with 9 Classrooms (School number 8)

This two-story high school comprises nine classrooms, four of them located at the

ground floor and the other five at the first floor.

The building is steel framed with brick walls and wood framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 225 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground floor roofs are composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm

concrete block and 15 mm plaster. The first floor roof consists of 30 mm tile $\&$ cement, 25 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm concrete, 80 mm expanded clay, and 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 29.8% in north wall, 54.8% in the south wall and 25.25% in the west & east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 28.1% in north, 30.7% in south and 21.7% in west & east wall.

The school has a rectangular plan with dimensions of $28m \times 23.5m$. There is a small central yard with is a rectangle with dimensions of 5.6m x 4.8m. The room height is 3 m at each floor and the direction is expended from east to west.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gas-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24^{oC} in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric water-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air

changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.19: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.20: The calculated annual energy consumption

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Figure 8.58: The plan of the ground floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 8)

Figure 8.59: The plan of the first floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 8)

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Figure 8.60: The north and south elevations of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 8)

Figure 8.61: The sections A-A & B-B of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 8)

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Figure 8.62: The east elevation of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 8)

Type: Special primary school (for children with special need) Usable area: 1783 m^2 Pupils: 120 Location: Babolsar
Geographic characteristics:

Latitude: 36° 43' Degrees (north) Longitude: -52° 39' Degrees (east) Altitude: -21 metres
Azimuth: -3[°] 00' Degrees

Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -3° 00′ Degrees
Climate: Cald Uumid (see abentar 2, Croup 2, and subgroup Climate: Cold-Humid (see chapter 2, Group 3 and subgroup $3-3$) Mean yearly temperature: 16.29°

87 9* Special Primary School with 13 Classrooms (School number 9)

This three-story special primary school comprises thirteen classrooms, one of them located at the ground floor six at the first floor and the remaining six at the second floor.

The building is steel framed with brick walls and steel framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 220 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground and first floor roofs are composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster. The second floor roof is sloped ceiling containing steel frame and asbestos sheet. There is additional 25 mm blanket

insulation over purlins.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 26% in

north wall, 40% in the south wall, 14% in the west wall and 25.4% in the east wall.

The glazing ratio of first floor is 33.55% in north, 35.77% in south, 15% in west and

20.4% in the east wall. Also the glazing ratio of second floor is 35.65% in north, 35.77% in south, 15.8% in west and 21.46% in the east wall.

This school has a L shaped plan consisting of three floors. The area of each floor is 595 m2, and the total height of the building is 10 metres, and the direction is expended from east to west.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled

gasoline-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric gas-based cooler (only in the office).

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.21: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the

total amount of energy used by lighting and gas-based cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.22: The calculated annual energy consumption

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Figure 8.63: The plan of the ground floor of a special primary school with 13 classrooms (Number 9)

Figure 8.64: The plan of the first & second floors of a special primary school with 13 classrooms

Figure 8.65: The south elevation of a special primary school with 13 classrooms (Number 9)

Figure 8.66: The north elevation of a special primary school with 13 classrooms (Number 9)

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Figure 8.67: The west and east elevations of a special primary school with 13 classrooms

(Number 9)

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Figure 8.68: The section A-A of a special primary school with 13 classrooms (Number 9)

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Type: Secondary school Usable area: 1017 m^2 Pupils: 270 Location: Babolsar
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 36° 43' Degrees (north) Longitude: -52° 39' Degrees (east) Altitude: -21 metres
Azimuth: +10° 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Climate: Cold-Humid (see chapter 2, Group 3 and subgroup 3-3) Mean yearly temperature: 16.29°

Figure 8.69: The section B-B of a special primary school with 13 classrooms (Number 9)

87.10 *Secondary School with 9 Classrooms (School number 10)

This two-story secondary school comprises nine classrooms, three of them located

at the ground floor and the other six at the first floor.

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- The building is concrete framed with brick walls and aluminium framed window.
- If The construction of the walls is 30 mm cement, 220 mm brick and 13 mm plaster.
	- The ground floor roof is composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm

brick block and 15 mm plaster. The first floor roof is sloped ceiling containing wood frame and steel sheet and there is additional 25 mm blanket insulation over purlins.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground & first floors are 29% in north wall, 37% in the south wall, 10.8% in the west wall and 12.6% in the east wall.

north west and north east of building there are two play-grounds measuring 12.4 m^{*} 7 m. The total height of the building is 7.5 m. The direction is expended from east to west.

The school has a rectangular plan with 31.2 m length and 23.8 m width. At the

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gasoline-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. The cooling system consists of electric gas-based cooler.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5

during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.23: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the

total amount of energy used by lighting and gas-based cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.24: The calculated annual energy consumption

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Figure 8.72: The north elevation $\&$ section A-A $\&$ south elevation of a secondary school with 9 classrooms (Number 10)

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Figure 8.73: The section B-B & east and west elevations of a secondary school with 9 classrooms

87.11 * High School with 9 Classrooms (School number 11)

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Type: High school (Kar danesh school) 
Usable area: 1530 \text{ m}^2Pupils: 360 
Location: Babolsar 
Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 36° 43' Degrees (north) 
                                 Longitude: -52° 39' Degrees (east) 
                                 Altitude: -21 metres 
Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: +18° 00' Degrees 
Climate: Cold-Humid (see chapter 2, Group 3 and subgroup 3-3)
```
Mean yearly temperature: 16.29^{oC}

This three-story high school comprises nine classrooms; five of them located at the first floor, and the other four at the first floor. Pupils learn different technical skills in this high school. Therefore, it is composed of different laboratories and workshops.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 44.5% in north wall, 59% in the south wall, 12% in the west wall and 0% in the east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 51% in north & south, 4% in west and 4% in the east wall. Also the glazing ratio of second floor is 51% in north & south, 4% in west and 0% in the east wall.

The school has a rectangular plan with the dimensions of 33.5 m x 15 m. The height of each floor is 3 metres, and the direction is expended from east to west.

The building is concrete framed with brick walls and steel framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 220 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground and first floor roofs are composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 220 mm brick block and 15 mm plaster. The second floor roof is sloped ceiling containing wood frame and steel sheet and there is additional 25 mm blanket insulation over purlins.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gasoline-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to

 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. There is no cooling system in the

classrooms. However, an electric gas-based cooler is used in the head teacher office.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.25: The amount of actual annual energy used

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the

total amount of energy used by lighting and gas-based cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.26: The calculated annual energy consumption

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs	
With window control	146,055.0	63,116.9	85,779.81	With Daylighting
Non-window control	146,055.0	140,765.4	167,874.12	Non Daylighting
With shading	146,055.0	57,559.4	86,919.08	With shading & Daylighting

Figure 8.74: The plan of the ground floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

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Figure 8.75: The plan of the first floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

Figure 8.76: The plan of the second floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

Figure 8.77: The north elevation of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

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Figure 8.78: The south elevation of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

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Figure 8.81: The section A-A of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

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Figure 8.82: The section B-B of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 11)

$8_{7.12}$ * High School with 9 Classrooms (School number 12)

Type: High school Usable area: 1665 m^2 Pupils: 360 Location: Ardabil Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 37° 32' Degrees (north) Longitude: -48° 17' Degrees (east) Altitude: 1372 metres
Azimuth: 00[°] 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Climate: Very cold-Temperate (see chapter 2, Group 2 and subgroup 2-2)

Mean yearly temperature: 8.88^{oC}

This four-story high school comprises nine classrooms, five of them located at the first floor and the other four at the second floor. Pupils learn different technical skills in this high school like school number 11. Therefore, it is composed of different laboratories and workshops.

The building is steel framed with brick walls and steel framed window. The low ground floor walls construction is 110 mm brick, 10 mm insulation, 335 mm brickwork and 30 mm stone cladding. The ground floor walls are 50 mm stone sheet, 335 mm brick and 15 mm plaster. The first &second floor walls construction is 50 mm stone sheet, 225 mm brick and 15 mm plaster. The low ground, ground and first

floor roofs consists of 50 mm floor tile, 20 mm cement, 80 mm expanded clay, 300 mm brick block and 15 mm plaster. The second floor roof composed of 40 mm Tile, 20mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm cement, 150 mm expanded clay 50 mm concrete, 15 mm plaster.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the low ground floor is 9.6% in north wall, 14.5% in the south wall, 0% in the west &east wall. The ground floor is 53% in north wall, 48% in the south wall and 20% in the west &east wall. Also the glazing ratio of first and second floor is 50.5% in north, 59% in south and 20% in west & east wall.

The school has a rectangular plan with 26 m length and 16 m width. Each floor has

3m height, and the direction is expended from east to west.

Heating is provided by a central heating system with thermostatically controlled gasoline-fired units and conventional radiators. The indoor temperature must be set to

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 24° in the warm season and 20° in the cold one. Since the weather is always cold during the opening periods of school there is no need for using a cooling system.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.27: The amount of actual annual energy used

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.28: The calculated annual energy consumption

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Figure 8.83: The plan of the Low ground floor & ground floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 12)

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Figure 8.84: The plan of the first and second floor of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 12)

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Figure 8.87: The east elevation of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 12)

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Figure 8.88: The west elevation of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 12)

Figure 8.89: The section B-B of a high school with 9 classrooms (Number 12)

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Type: High school Usable area: $1550m²$ Pupils: 360 Location: Bandar-Abbas Geographic characteristics: Latitude: 27° 13' Degrees (north) Longitude: 56° 22' Degrees (east) Altitude: 10 metres
Azimuth: -5[°] 00' Degrees Azimuth angle of building: Azimuth: -5°00' Degrees
Climate: Tamperate Very Hot and Humid (see aboutes ? Cuay Climate: Temperate-Very Hot and Humid (see chapter 2, Group 8 and subgroup 8-2) M_{cusp}

Mean yearly temperature: 27.98^{oC}

87.13 * High School with 12 Classrooms (School number 13)

This two-story high school comprises twelve classrooms, six of them located at the ground floor and the other six at the first floor.

Since the weather is always hot no heating system has been used and the cooling system is electric gas-based cooler. The indoor temperature must be set to 24^{oC} in the warm season and 20° in the cold one.

The building has masonry wall (brick) and steel framed window. The construction of the walls is 110 mm brickwork, 335 mm brick and 13 mm plaster. The ground floor roof is composed of 50 mm floor tile, 50 mm concrete, 250 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster. The first floor roof consists of 30 mm tile $\&$ cement, 25 mm asphalt and insulation, 20 mm cement, 80 mm expanded clay, and 50 mm concrete, 250 mm concrete block and 15 mm plaster.

The windows are single glazed and the glazing ratio of the ground floor is 17.7% in north wall, 29.4% in the south wall and 20% in the west $\&$ east wall. The glazing ratio of first floor is 18.1% in north, 18.5% in south and 18.6% in west & east wall.

The plan of this school is a rectangular with 32.4 m length and 27 m width and a central yard measuring $9m * 11 m$. Each floor has 3 m height and the direction is expended from north to south. There are three entrances located at the east, west and south.

The holiday period starts from mid-June until mid-September. The number of air changes per hour is considered to be 1.2 during the active period of school and 0.5 during the inactive period. Also the illuminance design is 300 lux.

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The amount of actual annual energy used is:

Table 8.29: The amount of actual annual energy used

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling Kwhrs	Lighting Kwhrs
Electricity	œœ		387,788*
Gas	DO	\bullet	\bullet
Gasoline	No heating	\bullet \bullet	\bullet

*Note: The amount of energy mentioned in the lighting part is the total amount of energy used by lighting and cooling.

The calculated annual energy consumption (My dynamic excel sheet program) is:

Table 8.30: The calculated annual energy consumption

	Heating Kwhrs	Cooling K whrs	Lighting Kwhrs	
With window control	34,900.6	359,606.5	99,780.26	With Daylighting
Non-window control	34,900.6	368,845.9	148, 141.54	Non Daylighting
With shading	34,900.6	352,454.8	103081.78	With shading & Daylighting

Figure 8.91: The plan of the ground floor of a high school with 12 classrooms (Number 13)

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Figure 8.92: The plan of the first floor of a high school with 12 classrooms (Number 13)

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Figure 8.93: The west, north and south elevations of a high school with 12 classrooms (Number 13)

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Figure 8.94: The sections B-B, C-C and D-D of a high school with 12 classrooms (Number 13)

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88 * Average Annual Heating, Cooling and Lighting Energy Used and Requirements

For the thirteen schools for which energy data was available the annual heating, cooling and lighting energy used was normalised to consumptions per sq. metre floor area. Using the excel spreadsheets the theoretical energy usage for each of the schools was established and again normalised to a consumption per sq. metre floor area. The

results of this analysis are shown in Table 8.31.

Table 8.31: The average annual heating, cooling and lighting energy used and requirements

Units: Kwhrs/year.m²

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- ϕ the excel spreadsheet programmes were to be used to generate a new design code for
- school buildings in different parts of Iran and therefore the excel programmes had to
- \pm be able to simulate the likely energy performance to a reasonable degree of accuracy.
- It is recognised that one year's data from the thirteen schools is not perhaps the best
- set of data but it was all that was available. As can be seen from table 8.33 and figure 261

89 * Results

A comparison has been made between the amount of actual annual energy used and calculated annual energy consumption in 13 different types of schools in various climatic regions of Iran (table 8.32).

The main objective of this comparison was to evaluate the robustness of the excel

spreadsheet programmes over a range of climate zones in Iran. This was important as

8.95 the difference between the actual annual energy used and the calculated annual energy consumption ranges from a few percentage points to over 30%. This degree of difference is not uncommon in buildings as many assumptions had to be made in the running of the excel spreadsheet. For example we had little or no actual information on the exact occupancy patterns, time of occupancy, internal loads or indeed actual temperatures both inside and outside. Without such information it was necessary to use likely values for the following variables:

Table 8.32: Comparison between amounts of actual energy used and calculated annual energy consumption

Occupancy patterns based on normal school days in Iran

Internal air temperatures of 20C in winter 24C in summer

Internal loadings of 27 W/m2

Solar radiation values established from the simulation programme outlined in Chapter 4

External air temperature data from the Iranian Metrological Office.

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It is recognised that in using the above assumptions that there will be some variations between the predicted energy use and the actual use but without a full monitoring programme of the schools considered it is difficult to see how such differences can be accounted for. However given that the average difference is 23.46% it was felt that this was good enough to allow the model to be used in parametric studies. It is also recognised that the results obtained from the excel spreadsheet programme are only indicative of the energy performance and could not

be used as an actual indication of the real energy usage. These arguments are also used in the justification of the new LT for Europe simulation package developed by Dr. N Baker and others at the Martin Centre, Cambridge University.

> Table 8.33: Comparison between amounts of actual energy used and calculated annual energy consumption

Figure 8.95: Comparison between amounts of actual energy used and calculated annual energy consumption

In order to examine the effect of window size and its orientation on energy demands of spaces, 13 schools are considered. It is assumed that there is no heat flow through internal partitions. Window design of these schools is changed. Different areas of glazing are obtained by changing the window width whilst keeping the height at a constant 1.5 metres. In all cases windows are located centrally on the external walls with a constant window sill height of 1.20 metres. The occupancy is assumed zero in all schools. By changing the width of windows different glazing ratios of 5,

10,15,20,25,30,35,40,45 and 50 percent are obtained respectively.

The annual cooling, heating and lighting requirements of schools having different glazing ratio are calculated (see appendix C). In terms of economics, changes in loads need to be considered with respect to their ultimate on purchasing energy. The designer of a school and its ultimate occupier will be concerned with running costs and the cost effectiveness of any modification in the design of building. It is of use, therefore, if the energy consequences of changing the window design can be expressed in terms of cost.

Annual heating, cooling and lighting loads together with the annual cost factors of all 13 schools with different glazing ratios are calculated under scenario 1 (equation

7.8, chapter 7) and are shown in figures 10.96. The best glazing ratios are as follow:

Schools No. 1,2,3,9,10,11,12: 50% School No. 5: 20%
Schools No. 4.6,7.8: 15% School No. 13: 10% Schools No. $4,6,7,8:15\%$

In order to choose the best glazing ratio of four cardinal orientations the annual cost factor is calculated in our 13 cases (see appendix Q. The details of this calculation are mentioned in table 8.34.

Schools	The best glazing ratio %				
	North	South	West	East	
School No. 1	50	40	20	50	
School No. 2	10	45	20	50	
School No. 3	50	45	50	50	
School No. 4	50	20	10	50	
School No. 5	50	20	50	50	
School No. 6	15	15	10	50	
School No. 7	50	15		50	
School No. 8	15	20	10	50	
School No. 9	50	20	20	50	
School No. 10	50	15	50	25	
School No. 11	50	15	50	50	
School No. 12	50	50	50	50	
School No. 13	50	15		10	

Table 8.34: The best glazing ratio of four cardinal orientations

Figures 8.96: The calculated annual energy consumption by different glazing ratio

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Glazing ratio %

The existing window design is compared with suggested window design. As it can be seen from table 8.35 and figure 8.97 the energy requirements will decrease by a minimum of 2.1% in school No. 4, maximum 9.1% in school No. 9 and average 5%.

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maximum of 8.6% in school No. 13 and school No. 12 respectively and average will be 4.5%.

By applying thermal insulation in envelope components (i.e., walls $\&$ ceilings) of a building, the consumption of energy will be reduced by 11% (Eslami, 1987).

By modifying the type of glazing of windows (i. e. from single glazing to double glazing) the consumption of energy will decrease by a minimum of 1.6% and a

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According to the results of this case study, if a suitable window design is selected in existing schools, the cost of energy consumption of 12521 new school buildings (by adding 5% to 4.5% and then multiplying to 133,210 which is the total number of schools in Iran) can be provided by the substantial savings in the annual running costs.

By conclusion, substantial savings in the annual running cost of school buildings can be achieved under the new design strategy.

Table 8.35: Comparison annual cost of energy use in cases with existing window design

 $ACF = Annual Cost Factor$

Figure 8.97: Comparison of energy use in cases with existing and sugge i. $V₁$ low desigr

Figure 8.98: Comparison of energy use in cases with single and double-glazing windows

Table 8.36: Comparison of energy use in cases with single and double-glazing windows
8_{10} * Summary

This chapter has set out to evaluate the accuracy of the excel spreadsheet programmes against a limited amount of actual energy consumption data from 13 schools in different climate zones in Iran. This comparison has indicated that - although there were some differences the overall performance of the programmes was of sufficient accuracy to justify their use in parametric studies.

Following on from this work a parametric analysis of the façade design for schools in different climatic zones in Iran was carried out and the results presented above in both tabular and graphical form. These results have indicated the likely optimum glazing ratios for building facades.

The value of this work was to enable an understanding of the role which facade design plays in the optimisation of the facade design of school buildings in Iran and as an introduction to the development of a new Design Code for both better energy efficiency and space planning.

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8₁₁ * References

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Chapter 9

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Chapter 9

Conclusion

Conclusion

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9* Conclusion

91 * Conclusion

The amount of solar radiation in Iran is great enough to meet a part of our heating and lighting needs in school buildings. Many different technologies can be used to convert sunlight into useful forms of energy. The best time to incorporate passive solar technologies in a building is during the initial design. Passive solar features if properly used can provide an energy saving of up to 40%. Therefore it is one of the least expensive and most environmentally friendly methods of providing our energy needs. Because of their form and use (mostly during daytime), new school buildings represent the most favourable category of non-domestic buildings in which passive solar design techniques could be employed to pursue energy efficiency.

This work has investigated several aspects of school design in Iran, including the need to have a more accurate model of solar radiation.

• The work carried out by the author was:

1- Because there is little actual information on the amount of solar radiation

available in Iran a new and tested model for the prediction of solar radiation on any surface anywhere in Iran was developed from first principals.

- 2- The development of an excel based spreadsheet thermal admittance model which uses solar radiation data (developed in conclusion 1) to calculate the energy performance of a school design.
- 3- The development of an excel based daylight model which used solar radiation data from solar radiation programme (designed in chapter 4) to calculate the lighting requirements in school building.
- 4- Using the models (2 and 3) testing them against actual schools in Iran to determine their accuracy. These tests indicated that the models were of sufficient accuracy to allow them to be used for parametric studies.

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• Conclusions drawn from the work outlined above:

The main conclusions, which can be drawn from this work, are:

According to the results of solar radiation computation in Iranian cities and the separate excel sheet programme, the passive solar features considered in the design of school buildings are the absorption and transmission of solar radiation through walls and windows and the use of sunlight for daylighting. A parametric study of the

energy performance of a suggested model on fenestration design in hot climate of Iran was carried out. The Excel computer programme was used to analyse the variations in heating, cooling and lighting loads due to changes in orientation, size and shading of windows. The results were that a substantial saving in the annual running cost of school buildings as much as 14% could be achieved under appropriate glazing ratios. From the studies carried out the best glazing ratios were found to be as follows:

I. West facing windows is 10%.

II. For the six different climate zones are:

Table 9.1: The best glazing ratio in six different cities of Iran

It can also be concluded that in hot humid climate regions of Iran it is necessary to consider the application of shading in the school design and in hot dry climate regions to consider other solutions such as verandas, colonnades and small enclosed courtyards, in order to obtain the maximum amount of shade and coolness. Therefore, these results may encourage the adoption of passive solar measures in future school design in Iran.

It can be concluded from the effect of roof design on the thermal performance of school building that roofs in the hot and humid climate region (especially in the climate zone 8 in chapter 2) should be finished in light colours, particularly when the insulating materials are incorporated in their construction. The most effective method is to construct a second roof over the first.

A case study was performed on 13 schools in different climatic regions of Iran in order to explore the problems of current design from the energy point of view. The results of this study can be used in a new energy efficient design of school buildings in the future. The disadvantages of current design are as follow:

- 1- The south facing glazing ratio should be increased to 50% in cold climatic regions and to 15% in hot climate.
- 2- With the aim of reducing the energy used for cooling in the warm season in warm humid climates specially in south of Iran designers must ensure that the windows are shaded in the mid period of the day $(10:00 -$ 14: 00 hrs). It
	-
- a- The standard of educational spaces has not been observed in the design of school buildings.
- b- The type of windows is single glazed and the glazing ratio is high.
- c- No thermal insulation has been installed in walls and roofs.

After selecting the appropriate glazing ratio in the case studies the energy requirements decreased by up to 9.1%. Also, by replacing existing windows (not optimised) by double-glazed windows the energy consumption was decreased by up to 8.6%.

It can also be concluded that:

is also recognised that in hot humid and hot dry climates that to promote natural ventilation high ceilings are helpful as they allow warm air to rise above head height and also provide sufficient buoyancy forces to move the

air.

- 3- With the aim of reducing the energy used for lighting, the glazing ratio of the roof should be at least 5%. Care should be taken in providing roof lighting as the strong sun could result in an increased cooling requirement or an increase on thermal discomfort. Roof lights, which do not face south, should therefore be considered. This means designers must only use diffuse lighting in the roof in hot and hot dry climate.
- 4- Daylighting strategies in the hot dry climates in Iran must consider the

sunlight reflected from adjacent roofs and building surfaces as this is an important component of sky lighting (see figure 9.1) and properly designed skylighting devices can function as windcatchers (Badgir) and/or vents for convective air currents (see figure 9.2).

Figure 9.1: Sun reflects Figure 9.2: Windcatcher as a ventilator

$9₂ * Discussion$

The study of present school buildings in Iran indicates that these buildings in most climates are neither energy efficient nor can they provide the desired physical comfort. The results of this study performed on different climatic regions in Iran and the consequences of solar radiation computation in most cities showed that solar energy can make a very useful contribution to the heating and lighting of school buildings. Furthermore, solar radiation is abundant in most climatic regions of Iran, as

a cheap and clean source of energy and its effective application will help in reducing the consumption of fossil fuels, saving energy and conserving it for future generations. Also, its impact on reducing the air pollution, which is a great problem in Iran, should not be underestimated.

The case study performed on the energy consumption of 13 schools in different climatic regions of Iran showed that thermal insulation and window type (double glazing windows with appropriate glazing ratio), if properly used and designed, can result in substantial savings in the annual running cost of school buildings and considerable reduction in the consumption of fossil fuels.

In the investigation of the effect of roof design on the thermal performance of buildings a reference school located in hot climate in Iran was studied and concluded

that in hot humid climates the roofs should be finished in light colours (for example in Bandar-abbas) and a roof with more shade like a Dome form in the hot dry climate (for example in Yazd). Also, the thermal resistance of roofs have important impact on their surface temperatures.

We can design passive solar schools to reduce the energy requirements for heating only in the cold climate regions in Iran, Although some problems may arise with the passive solar designed schools such as glare from the direct sun, overheating in summer and excessive heat loss in winter, these schools need cost no more than ordinary schools. Other benefits are the availability of extra usable place, improvement in the amenity value and reduction of energy consumption in school

buildings. However in a hot dry climate such as Yazd, other solution such as verandaz and colonnades should be considered. These solutions will promote more ventilation Thus lowering the temperature of the building surfaces, which results in a reduction in the radiant heat emission from the surfaces. A lower radiant temperature will aid in the reduction in the cooling energy requirement. Other ways are to use small-enclosed courtyards with a water pool in order to the maximum the amount of shade and coolness from the evaporation of the water.

The design features of passive solar schools in the developed countries with similar climates (such as the UK) are very useful in suggesting a general guideline for energy efficient school design in the cold climate regions in Iran. Such features include the use of passive cooling/ heating by the use of thermal mass, the use of atrium spaces to provide passive heating and daylight penetration. School building design is influenced by the prevalent climate, social factors, philosophy of education and technical advances in construction techniques and materials. Unfortunately in

Iran and many other developing countries the relationship between educationalists, architects and those engaged in educational activities is relatively absent, which obstructs the mechanism of school building innovation. Therefore, firstly a strong relationship has to be built between different people engaged in educational activities in Iran. Concerning to the progressive need in providing new school building in Iran, and in order to solve the problem of providing the cost of energy use for heating, lighting and cooling of current school building, the application of advanced technologies for the improvement of energy performance of school building is now necessary. By using the experiences of developed countries and the transmission of their technologies in the design and construction of energy efficient buildings, the quality of the internal environment i.e. lighting, heating, ventilation and energy consumption could be improved and be brought to the required standards in Iran.

Solar energy usage can be improved by incorporating passive solar features like atria and conservatories. Therefore, it is necessary to consider these concepts in the new design of energy efficient school building specially in the cold climate regions in Iran.

Generally, we have to realise that for providing a rational and energy efficient

school design in Iran a balance between educational, economical, environmental and social needs should be considered in the design process. Flexibility and adaptability are also crucial in this design.

93 * Recommendations

An important incentive to the use of daylight in buildings is the need to reduce the energy costs of lighting. In school buildings the electricity used by lighting can be a significant proportion of the total energy use. When daylight is planned from early design stages of a building, there can be a large saving in its lifetime use of energy.

But daylighting is not free. Large areas of glazing can cause unacceptable heat

gain and loss through the building fabric and can also increase both construction costs

and maintenance costs.

The following guidelines are useful to the designer:

- 1- The optimum use of daylighting for energy saving in large school buildings usually comes with a combination of well-controlled electric lighting during daytime hours and windows of optimum size. Costs tend to increase when windows are either very big or very small, or when ceilings are very high.
- 2- Daylighting must be assessed in the early design stages in conjunction with the thermal performance of the building.

3- Electric lighting to be used during daytime hours must be designed in conjunction with the windows, considering both the layout of luminaries and the electric lighting control system.

The flow of thermal energy through the windows of a building can be greater than through any other part of the external cladding. When in winter the exterior air temperature is low there can be significant heat loss. When direct sunlight falls on a window, there can be rapid heat gain.

Natural ventilation is an important function of windows in a designed to minimise energy use, In most cases the requirements of window location for air movement are compatible with the requirements of good daylight distribution, but conflicts can arise when users attempt to screen windows to reduce sunlight or glare in hot weather.

The effectiveness of any energy-saving programme depends crucially on the management of the building on all staff and teachers having the knowledge and motivation to avoid unnecessary energy use. This applies not only to staff and teachers occupying the building during normal working hours but also to maintenance and cleaning personnel who may work early in the morning or during the evening.

Decisions about the form of windows for good lighting are inseparable from other

requirements of environmental control. These can determine the basic form of the buildings, its orientation and its mass; they also affect window size, the use of shading devices and the choice of glazing. Daylighting cannot be considered in isolation; its quality and integration with the thermal and acoustic environment are determined above all by decisions made in the early design stages of a building.

$9₄$ * Further Study and Research

Work in this area may be expanded in a number of different ways. Some suggestions for further research emerge from this study.

 \triangleleft The focus of this study was on school buildings. The extension of the study for developing standards and suggesting guidelines for other types of buildings (residential, industrial and commercial) are also important. Parameters such as

 \bullet In this study the energy use of heating, cooling and lighting of designed models with different glazing ratio was calculated in only six climatic subgroups (out of 32 subgroups) of Iran. Therefore, further research is needed in all climatic subgroups of Iran in order to provide a general and perfect guideline in this area of work.

building operating conditions, window types, building operating hours and sometimes construction systems are different for these types of buildings.

 \bullet In this research a dynamic excel sheet program was designed for calculation of solar radiation in all cities of Iran. It is important to complete this work i.e., providing a general program for the calculation of solar radiation in Iran.

- \triangleleft Further development of the LT method as an energy design tool to provides an output of annual primary energy for lighting, heating, cooling and ventilation
- \blacklozenge More detailed studies into daylighting as a means of offsetting fossil fuel consumption.
- \rightarrow More detailed studies into the effects of thermal insulation on the energy performance of buildings.

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Glossary, Abbreviation

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and Symbol

GLOSSARY:

Absorptance The ratio of radiation absorbed at a surface to the radiation on that surface. The absorptance varies with radiation wavelength and angle of incidence.

Absorption Transformation of radiant energy to a different form of energy by the intervention of matter

Access A route such as a road that allows people or goods to reach a destination

Air Mass Number A measure of the path length of sunlight through the atmosphere: expressed in comparison with unit path length where the sun is directly overhead: used to define the intensity and spectral distribution of sunlight.

Altitude Angle The angular height of a point above the horizon.

Air Changes Per Hour (ac/h), Number of times in an hour a volume of air equal to the volume of a room or building is renewed with outside air.

Air Leakage The uncontrolled flow of air through the building envelope.

Astronomical Day Length Astronomical day length is the time during which the centre of the solar disc is above an altitude of zero degrees (without any allowance for atmospheric refraction).

Atmosphere A mixture of gases surrounding the Earth. Earth's atmosphere consists of 79.1% nitrogen (by volume), 20.9% oxygen and 0.03% carbon dioxide and trace amounts of other gases. It can be divided into number of layers according to thermal properties (temperature). The layer nearest the earth is the troposphere (up to about 10-15 km above the surface), next is the stratosphere (up to about 50 km) followed by the mesosphere (up to 80-90 km) and finally the thermosphere or ionosphere which extends into space. There is little mixing of gasses between layers.

Average Daylight Factor The process, which takes place as the human visual system adjusts itself to the brightness or the colour of the visual field.

Axis Imaginary straight line around which symmetry can be established, or objects in respect with each other can be interrelated.

Azimuth Angle The angular distance between true south and a point on the horizontal plane: negative to the east, positive to the west. Barrel of Oil A common unit of capacity for petroleum and its products. 1 barrel $(bbl) = 158.987$ Litres = 42 US gallons. Base Temperature A temperature datum taken as a base for the calculation of heating degree days; for example, the setting on the main thermostat

Atrium Partially open-roofed courtyard.

controlling the heating appliances, or a volume-weighted mean whole-house temperature; or the balance point temperature.

Biofuels Nonfossil biomass energy source and biomass-derived fuels, which together encompass all energy sources from recent-term organic (plant and animal) matter.

Clear Sky In any month, the sky conditions producing the mean maximum daily global radiation on a horizontal surface.

Biomass The living weight of an animal or plant population: more generally, plant and tree material on the earth's surface. Carbon dioxide is a bi-product of Biomass burning.

Comfort Zone The range of values of the environmental variables, sometimes expressed in the form of a temperature equivalent, the combined effect of which is perceived as comfortable or acceptable.

Condensation The deposition of moisture held by the air in a room onto an internal surface. This occurs when the temperature of a surface is below saturation point relative to the water vapour content of the air, i.e. too low to hold the moisture in vapour form.

Climate System The Earth's climate is determined by the interactive behaviour of the atmosphere, the oceans, the biosphere, the cryosphere and the geosphere, which all make up the climate system.

Climate The prevalent long term weather conditions in a particular area.

Conduction Mode of heat transfers within or between materials at different temperature involving transmission of kinetic energy at molecule level; the rate of heat transfer depends on the thermal conductivity.

Climatology Climatology, like meteorology, is a science of the atmosphere. Meteorology is primarily concerned with atmospheric process; climatology deals chiefly with the results of those processes.

Convection Mode of heat transfer in fluids (air or water) or between a surface and adjacent fluid due to difference in temperature.

Day Angle (J') The day angle J' expresses the day number J as an angle from 1200 hours on the 31st December. A year length of 365.25 days is used.

Day Number (J) The day number J represents the number of days which have elapsed since the beginning of a year. For example, 1st January has J=1 whilst 1st February has $J = 31 + 1 = 32$. A year is normally

Contrast Subjectively this term describes the difference in appearance of two parts of a visual field seen simultaneously or successively. The difference may be one of brightness or colour or both.

Cryosphere That part of the earth's surface consisting of ice masses and snow deposits.

taken as 365 days (i.e. not a leap year with 366 days) for solar calculations

Daylight The light from the sun and sky.

Daylight Factor The illuminance received at a point indoors, from a sky of known or assumed luminance distribution, expressed as a percentage of the horizontal illuminance outdoors from an unobstructed hemisphere of the same sky.

Diffuse Radiation Solar radiation scattered by the atmosphere.

Direct Glare Glare caused when excessively bright parts of the visual field are

Energy Source A substance, such as petroleum, natural gas, or coal that supplies heat or power. Generally, electricity and renewable forms of energy, such as biomass, geothermal, wind, and solar, are considered to be energy sources. Energy Supply The net output of all commercial forms of primary energy at a given time. Environment The sum of all external conditions, both natural and artificial, affecting the life, development and survival of an organism or system. Fossil Fuel Any hydrocarbon deposit that can be burned for heat or power such as coal, oil or natural gas. Geosphere The soils, sediments and rock layers of the Earth's crust, both continental and beneath the ocean floors.

Geothermal Energy The thermal energy transferred to water or steam from molten underground rock.

Glare The discomfort or impairment of vision experienced when parts of the visual field are excessively bright in relation to the general surroundings.

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Global Irradiance The total irradiance (sunlight intensity) falling on a surface: the sum of the direct and diffuse irradiance

Global Warming A theory that increased concentrations of greenhouse gases are causing an elevation in the Earth's surface temperature. See also greenhouse gases.

Greenhouse Effect A term used to describe the effect where greenhouse gases trap reemitted infrared radiation, so heating up the atmosphere. This is a natural phenomenon and increases the Earth's average surface temperature from -18° (the effective radiation temperature) to $+15^{\circ}$.

Greenhouse Gases These include water vapour, carbon dioxide, tropospheric ozone,

nitrous oxide, methane and other lesser gases. They allow shortwave ultra-violet (UV) radiation to pass through unimpeded but trap long wave infrared radiation re-emitted from the Earth. Water vapour is the most important greenhouse gas but it is thought that concentrations in the atmosphere are being little affected by human activity. This is not the case with carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide where human activity is leading to increased levels of these gases in the atmosphere and enhancing the natural greenhouse effect.

Heating Load (KWh) The amount of useful heat required to maintain spaces in a building at their design temperatures over a given period.

Illuminance The luminous flux density at a surface, i.e., the luminous flux incident per unit area (lumens per square metre $(lm/m²)$ or lux).

Illumination The process of lighting an object or surface.

using electrical power.

Local Restricted to a nearby area.

Location Where a settlement is situated.

Long-wave Radiation Radiation emitted between 5 and 30 µm wavelength; for example, the radiation emitted from surfaces in a room, or from the outside surfaces of external building elements.

Luminaire **An apparatus which controls the distribution of light given by a** lamp or lamps and which includes all the components necessary for fixing and protecting the lamps and for connecting them to the supply circuit. Luminaires has superseded the term lighting fitting.

Luminance The physical measure of the stimulus, which produces the sensation of brightness, measured by the luminous intensity of the light emitted or reflected in a given direction from a surface element in the same direction. The SI unit of luminance is the candela per square metre (cd/m^2) .

Lux (1x) Illuminance produced on a surface of unit area by a unit of luminous flux of 1 lumen uniformly distributed over the surface.

> coalmine, etc.) to extract, process, transport and distribute the fuels used for domestic and other purposes; it is a quantity that is higher than the calorific value of those fuels (delivered energy) by an amount representing the energy cost of extraction, processing, transportation and distribution of fuels.

Megawatt (MW) Unit of energy equal to 1,000,000W.

Alegawatt-hour (MWh) Unit of energy equal to 1,000,000Wh.

Meteorology The science of weather-related phenomena (vid. Climatology).

Relative Humidity The mass of vapour contained by air at a given temperature expressed as a percentage of the mass of vapour that would cause

Paleoclimatology The study of climate and climate change during the geological past.

Renewable Energy Energy obtained from sources that are essentially inexhaustible. Includes wood, waste, geothermal, wind, photovoltaic and solar thermal energy.

Rural Belonging to the countryside rather than the city.

Photovoltaics (PV) Cell Semiconductor device that converts light to electricity using the photovoltaic effect.

Primary Energy (KWh) The total amount of energy drawn from primary source (oilfield,

Radiation Energy emitted in the form of electromagnetic waves. Radiation has differing characteristics depending upon the wavelength. Radiation from the Sun has a short wavelength (Ultra-violet) whilst energy re-radiated from the Earth's surface and the atmosphere has a long wavelength (infra-red).

Reflectance The ratio of the luminous flux reflected from a surface to the luminous flux incident on it.

saturation at the same temperature.

Settlement Any permanent place of residence of people.

Site The actual piece of land where a settlement is situated.

Solar Altitude (degrees) Solar Altitude is the Angle Between the Centre of the Solar Disc and the Horizontal Plane

Solar Collector Equipment that actively concentrates thermal energy from the sun. The energy is usually used for space heating, for water heating, or for heating swimming pools. Either air or liquid is the working fluid.

Solar Declination (degrees) Solar declination is the angle between the sun's rays and the earth's equatorial plane. Declination values are positive when the sun is north of the equator (March 21 to September 23) and negative when the sun is south of equator. Maximum and minimum values of δ are $+23^{\circ}$ 27' and -23° 27'

Solar Energy The radiant energy of the Sun that can be converted into other forms of energy, such as heat or electricity.

Solar Hour Angle (degrees) The solar hour angle ω expresses the time of day in terms of the angle of rotation of the earth about its axis from its solar noon position at a specific place. As the earth rotates 360° about its axis in 24 hours, in one hour the rotation is 15°. By convention the hour angle is negative before noon and positive after noon, i.e. 09.00 LAT represents an hour angle of -45° and 15.00 LAT represents an hour angle of $+45^\circ$

Solar Transmission (Or solar transmittance). The ratio of global solar radiation transmitted by a glazing material to the radiation incident on the outside surface of the material.

Station Height Correction The station height correction is the ratio of mean atmospheric
(P/P_o) pressure (P) at the elevation of the site to mean atmospheric pressure (P) at the elevation of the site to mean atmospheric pressure at sea level (P_0) . The ratio (PP_0) is used to correct the path length to take account of station height.

Troposphere The lowest layer of the atmosphere. The altitude of the troposphere varies with latitude, from about 16 km at the equator to only 8 km at the poles. Normally there is a decrease in temperature with height. This layer contains 75% of the total gaseous mass of the atmosphere and virtually all the water vapour and aerosols. This

Solar-thermal Energy Conversion: Use of impinging solar radiation as a heat source.

Surface Azimuth Angle Surface azimuth angle measured from due south in Northern hemisphere and for due north in Southern hemisphere (Easterly values -ve) (Degrees)

Tilt The angle between a surface and the horizontal plane.

Transmittance The ratio of luminous flux transmitted by a material to the incident

luminous flux.

zone is responsible for most of the weather phenomena experienced and where atmospheric turbulence is most marked.

Useful Energy (KWh) The final amount of heat or work for which fuels were used; the actual demand for energy and the purpose for its use. Useful energy is the product of delivered energy by the efficiency of the appliance used for the task.

U-value $(W/m^2.^\circ C)$ (or thermal transmittance). A thermal conductance that includes the thermal exchanges at surfaces and in cavities; the reciprocal of the sum of the thermal resistances of the constituent layers of a composite element plus the surface resistances at the external and internal surfaces. The U-value decreases with thermal insulation.

Ventilation The process of supplying fresh air to a space.

Wall Solar Azimuth Angle The wall solar azimuth angle is the angle between the vertical plane containing the normal to the surface and the vertical plane passing through the centre of the solar disc, i.e. it is the resolved angle on the horizontal plane between the direction of the sun and the normal to the surface. The values lie between -180° and $+180^\circ$

Watt (W) Unit of power.

Watt-hour (Wh) Unity of energy; one Wh is consumed when one watt of power is used for a period of one hour.

Zone **An area or region, which can be identified by a special feature.** A town zone is an area of the town where one particular activity, such as housing or industry, is dominated.

ASHRAE American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers, Inc.

ATI The Atmospheric Turbidity Index

World Meteorological Organisation (WMO): A specialised UN agency responsible for establishment of meteorological stations and networks, and the

monitoring of meteorological observations.

ABBREVIATION:

ACF Annual Cost Factor

ac/h Air Changes per Hour

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t_d Dew Point Temperature (${}^{\circ}$ F)

Fraction of Possible Sunshine in that Particular Hour

F, Forward Scattering Correction Factor

Cloudless Day

Solar Radiation Including Both the Components of Short Wave and Long Wave Radiation

Mechanical Ventilation سمسا \mathbf{v}

 $R_g (\beta, \alpha)$ (Wm⁻²) Ground Reflected Irradiance on Inclined Surfaces

 $I_m(\beta,\alpha)$ (Wm⁻²) Monthly Mean Direct Beam Irradiance on Inclined Plane

 $D_{ms} (\beta, \alpha)$ (Wm⁻²) Monthly Mean Sky Diffuse Irradiance

 $R_{gm} (\beta, \alpha)$ (Wm⁻²) Monthly Mean Ground Reflected Irradiance on Inclined Plane

^Ný Long Wave Radiation

Natural Ventilation

Convection

Thermal Conduction

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Appendix A

The Data of Meteorology

Stations & Cities of Iran

292

Station No.: 6 57 6 5 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 55° 10' E
Station Name: Azadshahr 1. atitude: 37° 05' N Altitude: 6 m

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Station No.: 12 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 47° 03' E
Station Name: Ahmadvand Latitude: 34° 28' N Altitude: 1400 m

Station No.: 18 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 45° 05' E
Station Name: Urmieh Latitude: 37° 32' N Altitude: 1312 m

Station No.: 24 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 51° 21' E
Station Name: Emam-Ghais Latitude: 31° 44' N Altitude: 2400 m

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Station No.: 30 Station Name: Ahwaz (Mollasani)

Station Type: Latitude:

Climatological

Longitude: Altitude:

48° 53' E 50 m

Station No.: 36 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 47° 07' E

Station Name: Kermanshah Latitude: 34° 19' N Altitude: 1322 m

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Station No.: Station Name: 42 Bojnourd Station Type: Latitude:

Sinoptice 37° 28' N Longitude: Altitude:

57" 20' E 1074 m

Station No.: 48 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 56° 22' E
Station Name: Bandar-Abbas Latitude: 27° 13' N Altitude: 10 m

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Station No.: 54 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 50° 04' E
Station Name: Boein-Zahra Latitude: 35° 46' N Altitude: 1282 m

Station No.: 60 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 50° 54' E
Station Name: Pole-Zamankhan Latitude: 32° 29' N Altitude: 1860 m

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Station No.: 64 Station Type: $\bigg)$ Climatological Longitude: 55° 33' E 28° 04' N Station Name: Tashkouiyeh (Kallegah) Latitude:
Jan Feb Mar Apr May Altitude: $\frac{750 \text{ m}}{\text{Dec}}$

Station No.: 66 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 46° 17' E
Station Name: Tabriz I atitude: 38° 05' N Altitude: 1361 m

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Station No.: 72 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 51° 25' E Station Name: Tehran (Doshan-Tappeh) Latitude: 35° 42' N Altitude: 1232 m

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Station No.: 72 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 51° 25' E

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Station No.: 78 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 50° 16' E

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Station No.: 84 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 59° 07' E

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Station No.:

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Station Type:

Sinoptice

Longitude:

48° 18' E

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Station No.:

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Station Type:

Climatological

Longitude:

49[°] 22' E

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Station No.: 108 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 57°31' E

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Station Type:

Sinoptice

Longitude:

61° 29' E

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Station No.:

Station Type:

Climatological

Longitude:

48° 53' E

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Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Year

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Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Year

Station No.: 138 Station Type: Sinoptice Longitude: 52° 35' E

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Station No.: 144 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 51° 03' E

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Station No.: 168 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 50° 50' E

Station Name: Koutiyan-Safiabad

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Appendix A The Data of Meteorology Stations & Cities of Iran

Station No.: 174

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Station Type:

Climatological

Longitude:

55° 10' E

 $\frac{1520 \text{ m}}{\text{Dec}}$ Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Year

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Dec Jan Feb Mar Apr May Jun Jul Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec Year

Station No.: 186 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 52° 48' E

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Appendix A The Data of Meteorology Stations & Cities of Iran

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Station No.: 190

Station Type: Latitude:

Climatological

Longitude: Altitude:

48° 49' E 1740 m

Appendix A The Data of Meteorology Stations & Cities of Iran

Station No.: Station Name: 196 Mirjaveh

Station Type:

Climatological

Longitude:

61° 27' E 900 m

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 57° $04'$ E

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Station No.: 202 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 51° 32' E
Station Name: Noorabad-Mamasani Latitude: 30° 13' N Altitude: 900 m Station Name: Noorabad-Mamasani

Station No.: 204 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 51° 33' E

Appendix A The Data of Meteorology Stations & Cities of Iran

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Neyshabour 36° 12' N Altitude: $\frac{1350 \text{ m}}{\text{D} \cdot \text{m}}$

Climatological 32° 24' N

Station No.: 208

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Station Type: Latitude:

Longitude: Altitude:

52° 3T E 1450 m

Appendix A The Data of Meteorology Stations & Cities of Iran

Station No.: 214 Station Type: Climatological Longitude: 55° 16' E

T mg (C) 10.8 12.4 13.2 15.0 15.8 19.3 19.2 19.8 20.9 18.8 15.2 11.4 16.0

RHmax (%) 86.0 84.0 77.0 72.0 62.0 56.0 53.0 57.0 58.0 66.0 77.0 86.0 69.5

RHmin (%) 68.0 58.0 50.0 41.0 34.0 25.0 26.0 25.0 25.0 33.0 44.0 64.0 41.1

Rain (mm) 47.4 22.2 25.9 20.5 6.6 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 4.1 13.1 50.6 190.4

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Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

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Appendix B

Comparison Between the

Spreadsheet Excel Program and

Meteonorm Calculation of

Solar Radiation

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Table and Figures C.2: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in Units: Kwhrs/sq.m south surface-Tehran-Iran

Table and Figures C.3: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in east surface-Tehran-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

Table and Figures C.4: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in Units: Kwhrs/sq.m south surface-Tehran-Iran

Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation **Appendix B**

Table and Figures C.5: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in Units: Kwhrs/sq.m south-east surface-Tehran-Iran

Table and Figures C.6: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in Units: Kwhrs/sq.m north-east surface-Tehran-Iran

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

Table and Figures C.7: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in Units: Kwhrs/sq.m irradiation of beam-Tehran-Iran

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Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

Table and Figures C.8: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in horizontal surface-Yazd-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

Table and Figures C.9: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in Units: Kwhrs/sq.m south surface-Yazd-Iran

Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation **Appendix B**

Table and Figures C.10: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in east surface-Yazd-Iran

Table and Figures C.11: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in south surface-Yazd-Iran

Table and Figures C.12: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in south-east surface-Yazd-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

Table and Figures C.13: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in north-east surface-Yazd-Iran

Table and Figures C.14: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in irradiation of beam-Yazd-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

in horizontal surface-Isfahan-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m $-10%$ Actual $H-Gh$ $+10\%$ $H-Gh$ Horizontal Gorji Error $\%$ Error Meteo. Error 11.28 35.1 39 43.40 42.9 Jan. 3.38 53.76 46.8 Feb. 52 59.0 9.62 62.1 82.5 75.64 Mar. 69 -5.44 104.6 90 94.56 100 Apr. -5.87 118.8 May 124.25 137.4 132 -15.66 157.5 147.60 165.1 175 Jun. -12.28 158.4 154.38 172.0 176 Jly

Table and Figures C.15: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation

141.05

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 -12.93

145.8

Table and Figures C.16: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in south surface-Isfahan-Iran

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

Table and Figures C.17: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in east surface-Isfahan-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

Table and Figures C.18: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in south surface-Isfahan-Iran

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

Table and Figures C.19: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in south-east surface-Isfahan-Iran

Table and Figures C.20: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in north-east surface-Isfahan-Iran

Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation **Appendix B**

Table and Figures C.21: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation **Hnits: Kwhrs/sq.m** in irradiation of heam-Isfahan-Iran

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

m norizoniai suriace-masnnad-iran					UMIS: INWHIS/SQ.M
Horizontal	$H-Gh$ Meteo.	H-Gh Gorji	$+10%$ Error	$-10%$ Error	Actual Error $\%$
Jan.	43	38.75	47.3	38.7	-9.88
Feb.	56	49.18	54.8	50.4	-12.17
Mar.	72	65.47	72.7	64.8	-9.07
Apr.	103	93.50	103.8	92.7	-9.22
May	132	135.43	148.6	118.8	2.6
Jun.	174	158.01	175.4	156.6	-9.19
Jly	175	173.26	190.8	157.5	-0.99
Aug.	164	167.72	184.1	147.6	2.27

Table and Figures C.22: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in horizontal curface. Machhad. Iran Linite: Kwhreleam

Table and Figures C.23: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Unite: Kwhre/som in couth curface Machhad Jran

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

Table and Figures C.24: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in east surface-Mashhad-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

Table and Figures C.25: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m in couth curface. Machhad. Iran

Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation **Appendix B**

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SE-90 deg	H-Gh Meteo.	H-Gh Gorji	$+10%$ Error	-10% Error	Actual Error %	
Jan.	54	48.40	59.4	48.6	-10.38	
Feb.	52	44.52	49.7	46.8	-14.38 -8.62	
Mar.	48	43.86	48.7	43.2		
Apr.	47	44.70	49.4	42.3	-4.9	
May	44	48.36	52.8	39.6	9.91	
Jun.	49	55.80	60.7	44.1	13.88	
J ly	53	61.07	66.4	47.7	15.23	
А но	66	75.33	819	59.4	14.14	

Table and Figures C.26: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation Units: Kwhrs/sq.m. in south-east surface-Mashhad-Iran

Table and Figures C.27: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation

Appendix B Comparison Between the Excel program and Meteonorm Calculation of Solar Radiation

Table and Figures C.28: Comparison between Meteonorm and Gorji solar radiation calculation in irradiation of beam-Mashhad-Iran Units: Kwhrs/sq.m

The Calculation of Annual Energy Consumption for 13 Cases in Iran

In order to examine the effect of window size and its orientation on energy demands of spaces, 13 schools are considered. It is assumed that there is no heat flow

through internal partitions. Window design of these schools is changed. Different areas of glazing are obtained by changing the window width whilst keeping the height at a constant 1.5 metres.

In all cases windows are located centrally on the external walls with a constant windowsill height of 1.20 metres. The occupancy is assumed zero in all schools.

By changing the width of windows different glazing ratios of 5,10,15,20,25,30, 35,40,45 and 50 percent are obtained respectively.

The values of annual energy used for heating, cooling and lighting are calculated by using dynamic separate excel sheet program designed by myself. In this calculation all actual characteristics of each case such as, azimuth angle of building, materials of the roof and walls and the type of window and glazing ratio have not been changed. The scenario 1 (equation 7.8, chapter 7) has been applied for the analysis of the cost of fenestration.

Table C.1: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 1 with single glazing windows)

Table C.2: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 2 with single glazing windows)

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The Calculation of Annual Energy Consumption for 13 Cases in Iran

Table C.3: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 3 with single glazing windows)

Table C.4: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 4 with single glazing windows)

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The Calculation of Annual Energy Consumption for 13 Cases in Iran

Table C.5: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 5 with single glazing windows)

Table C.6: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 6 with single glazing windows)

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Table C.7: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 7 with single glazing windows)

Table C.8: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 8 with single glazing windows)

The Calculation of Annual Energy Consumption for 13 Cases in Iran

Table C.9: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 9 with single glazing windows)

Table C.10: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 10 with single glazing windows)

Table C.11: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 11 with single glazing windows)

Table C.12: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 12 with single glazing windows)

Table C.13: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 13 with single glazing windows)

Table C.14: Fenestration cost analyses assuming scenario 1 applied with single-glazing windows $(cop = 2.5, f = 0.7, N=4.5, equation 7.8, chapter 7)$

 $ACF = Annual Cost Factor$

Table C. 15: Fenestration cost analyses assuming scenario I applied with single-glazing windows $(cop = 2.5, f = 0.7, N=4.5, equation 7.8, chapter 7)$

Continue

Unit: ACF*								Glazing ratio $\%$				
				10		20	25	30	35	40	45	50
	North	141900	140374	137416	136121	136964	136816	136702	136047	134905	132142	128440
School South		193279	149273	134329	131626	129445	132330	133626	135989	139229	142675	147857
No. 5	West	46985	43766	41632	41652	41880	42662	43314	43277	42916	41840	41320
	East	46487	37831	35449	34074	33622	33733	33749	34157	34374	33745	33509
	Total	428651	371244	348826	343473	341910	345540	347390	349470	351424	350402	351127
	North	70902	69935	68964	68559	69287	69794	70558	70998	70940	71108	71608
School South 112688			86161	75157	72432	73873	74494	76408	77540	79166	80981	83787
No. 6	West	34914	29042	28016	28574	29358	30531	31882	33266	34471	35605	36263
	East	39715	36526	34322	33584	33678	33834	33999	33875	33430	32555	32003
	Total	258219	221665	206458	203149	206196	208652	212848	215680	218006	220248	223660
	North	262755	261671	256387	255330	257415	257319	260523	262658	260629	257513	251427
$ \mathbf{School} $ South $ 305924 $			231456	200413	194512	195995	201189	203850	208092	212832	219026	222853
No. 7	West	188517	155319	151317	156349	161078	166340	172614	178258	183898	188120	190871
	East	190584						167347 159397 157771 157929 158427 159752	154328	152113	147295	143187
	Total	947780	815793	767515	763962	772417	783275	796740	803336	809471	811954	808338
	North	51204	50842	49498	49170	49679	49994	50700	50591	51100	51208	51122
School South		102153	76779	67605	66976	66475	68159	68984	69860	71264	73250	74857
No. 8	West	96236	77129	76130	77574	80062	83159	86801	89728	91887	94384	96955
	East	97618	88257	83830	82748	82475	82715	82276	81803	77873	76732	73383
	Total	347211	293007	277063	276467	278691	284027	288761	291981	292125	295574	296316
	North	147828	148724	147177	146867	145916	145641	145308	143833	139263	132888	128468
School South			176992 130524					108688 105212 102242 102278 102569 103994		105616	108993	111693
No. 9	West	32551	111432	106219	108367	105997	107149	110078	111349	108238	106728	109175
	East	132964	111588	102635	101391	99964	99577	93935	89184	85671	85273	79431
	Total	590334	502268	464719	461837	454118	454645	451890	448360	438787	433881	428767
	North	81417	81784	81137	80484	80243	79333	79785	78216	77325	73416	70620
School South		136640	99712	85355	82929	83453	85009	85773	85627	87265	88323	90147
No. 10	West	73916	64140	60484	60210	61134	62481	62959	60657	59599	60158	58832
	East	73568	57982	54617	52793	51357	51149	50768	48679	47901	45398	45393
			Total 365541 303619 281592 276417 276187 277972					279286	273179	272089	267295	264992
	North	134917	134753	132420	130677	130745	131384	129254	128387	124628	117665	114574
School South			205048 152025	132867	127308	129614	131692	132180	134855	137704	138809	142657
$\bf{No.}$ 11 West		54000	48901	45347	45282	45781	46423	46905	45836	45414	44784	43263
	East	53480	42260	38766	37630	37034	36562	36657	36125	35682	35463	34631
	Total		447445 377939	349399	340897	343173	346061	344996	345204	343428	336722	335125
	North	128049	128980	128853	128728	129620	129505	130405	129958	130151	129707	127492
$ \mathbf{School} $ South 239005			193335	167831	156569	146185	138983	133003	127435	122738	120331	118855
No. 12	West	87227	77411	72776		71957 71421 70817		70309	70078	67117	65964	65384
	East	87227	78129	73539	72458	71664	71033	70436	69775	66520	65066	64374
	Total	541508	477854	442999	429712	418891	410338	404153	397245	386526	381069	376105
	North	124838	126352	124741	124052	124654	125301	125920	122586	120550	121127	120468
School South		165277	140473		135497 134657	138069	142661	148498	152562	157265	163686	170119
No. 13	West	151086	132483	135036	139250	143390	148614	154390	160691	162748	163190	166884
	East	1510681	136113	134035	138961	144011	149184	153842	152142	154096	153493	153514
	Total	592269	535421	529310	536920 550125		565759	582649	587981	594660	601496	610986

Table C.16: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 1 with double glazing windows)

Table C.17: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 2 with double glazing windows)

The Calculation of Annual Energy Consumption for 13 Cases in Iran

Table C.18: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 3 with double glazing windows)

Table C.19: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 4 with double glazing windows)

Table C.20: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 5 with double glazing windows)

Table C.21: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 6 with double glazing windows)

Table C.22: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 7 with double glazing windows)

Table C.23: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 8 with double glazing windows)

Table C.24: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 9 with double glazing windows)

Table C.25: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 10 with double glazing windows)

Table C.26: The calculated annual energy consumption

(School No. 11 with double glazing windows)

Table C.27: The calculated annual energy consumption (School No. 12 with double glazing windows)

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The Calculation of Annual Energy Consumption for 13 Cases in Iran

Table C.28: The calculated annual energy consumption

Table C.29: Fenestration cost analyses assuming scenario 1 applied with double-glazing windows $(cop = 2.5, f = 0.7, N=4.5, equation 7.8, chapter 7)$

Table C.30: Fenestration cost analyses assuming scenario 1 applied with double-glazing windows $(cop = 2.5, f = 0.7, N=4.5, equation 7.8, chapter 7)$

Continue

 $ACF = Annual Cost Factor$