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## Comparative experimental approach to investigate the thermal behaviour of vertical greened façades of buildings

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10

11 **Abstract**

12

Greening the building envelope is not a new concept, however it has not been fully approved as  
13 an energy saving method for the built environment. Vertical green can provide a cooling potential  
14 on the building surface, as plants are functioning as a solar filter and prevent the adsorption of  
15 heat radiation of building materials extensively. In this study a comparative thermal analysis of  
16 vertical green attached to a façade element is presented. An experimental set up (stationary  
17 conditions) has been developed to measure the temperature gradient through a reference cavity  
18 wall, in order to quantify the contribution of vegetation to the thermal behaviour of the building  
19 envelope. The results show temperature differences between the bare wall and between the  
20 different vertical greening systems analysed, up to 1.7 °C for the direct greening system and  
21 8.4°C for the living wall system based on planter boxes after 8 hours of heating for summer  
22 conditions, due to the different “material” layers involved. However, the insulation material of the  
23 bare wall moderates the prevailing temperature difference between the outside and inside climate  
24 chamber, resulting in no temperature difference for the interior climate chamber for summer  
25 conditions.

26

27

28

Keywords: vertical greening, green facades, building envelope, climate chamber, thermal  
29 behaviour, cooling, insulation

30

31

32 **1. Introduction**

33

In dense urban areas the prevalence of paved surfaces (with low albedo) and a lack of natural  
34 vegetation are among the major causes of the phenomenon called urban heat island effect:  
35 temperature difference between cities and suburban or rural areas is determined by this  
36 phenomenon [1], [2]. Introducing vegetation back in our cities is a possibility to alter the  
37 microclimate in street canyons [3], [4]. Greened paved surfaces intercept solar radiation and can

38 reduce warming of artificial surfaces as asphalt or concrete, thus reducing the urban heat island  
39 phenomenon by two to four degrees Celsius [5], [6]. Outer surfaces of buildings offer a great and  
40 unused amount of space for re-introducing vegetation in our cities; green roofs and green façades  
41 are possibilities to fulfil this opportunity [7].

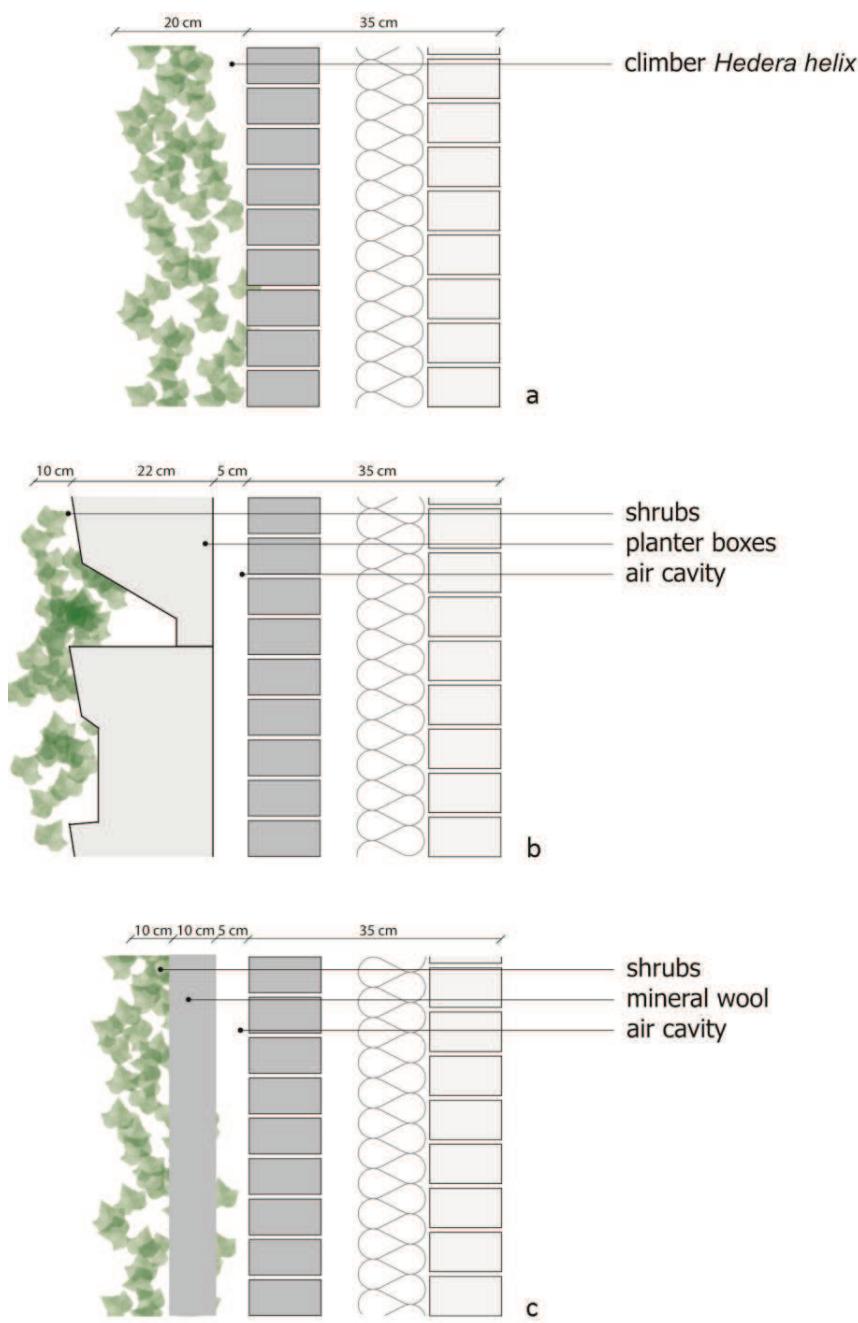
42 Vertical greening systems have a positive influence on the building envelope in terms of thermal  
43 performances, as demonstrated by several studies [8], [9]. Hunter et al. [10] show that green  
44 façades, like other forms of green infrastructure, are increasingly being considered as a design  
45 feature to cool internal building temperatures, reduce building energy consumption and facilitate  
46 urban adaptation to a warming climate. In the beginning of the eighties Krusche et al. [11]  
47 estimate the thermal transmittance ( $U$ ) of a 160 mm plant cover at  $2.9 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$ . Also Minke et al.  
48 [12] suggested some ideas to reduce the exterior coefficient of heat transfer. By reducing the  
49 wind speed along a green façade they suggested that the exterior coefficient of heat transfer of  
50  $25.0 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$  can be lowered to  $7.8 \text{ Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$  which is comparable to the interior coefficient of heat  
51 transfer. Holm [13] shows with field measurements and his DEROB computer model the thermal  
52 improvement potential of leaf covered walls. A layer of vegetation, as a green façade made of  
53 *Hedera helix* can enhance the thermal performances of buildings also during winter season [14].  
54 The authors found the largest savings in energy due to vegetation associated with more extreme  
55 weather, such as cold temperatures, strong wind or rain, increasing energy efficiency by 40-50%  
56 and enhancing wall surface temperatures by  $3^\circ\text{C}$ . Perini et al. [15] show the influence of a green  
57 layer on the reduction of the wind velocity along the surface of a building. An extra stagnant air  
58 layer in optimal situations can be created inside the foliage, so that when the wind speed outside  
59 is the same as inside  $R_{\text{exterior}}$  can be equalized to  $R_{\text{interior}}$ , where  $R$  is the thermal resistance  
60 ( $\text{m}^2\cdot\text{K}\cdot\text{W}^{-1}$ ). In this way the building's thermal resistance can be increased by  $0.09 \text{ m}^2\cdot\text{K}\cdot\text{W}^{-1}$ .  
61 Vertical greening systems insulation value can be optimized by covering with high density foliage,  
62 creating a stagnant air layer behind the foliage [15], exploiting supporting system materials and  
63 their insulation effect and plant species characteristics [14].

64 Eumorfopoulou et al. [16] reported the temperature cooling potential of plant covered walls in a  
65 Mediterranean climate; the effect was up to  $10.8^\circ\text{C}$ . Another recent study by Wong et al. [17] on  
66 a free standing wall in Hortpark (Singapore) with vertical greening types shows a maximum  
67 reduction of  $11.6^\circ\text{C}$ . The green plant layer will also reduce the amount of UV light that will reach  
68 building materials, since by constructing green façades great quantities of solar radiation will be  
69 adsorbed for the growth of plants and their biological functions [11]. Since UV light deteriorates  
70 the mechanical properties of coatings, paints, plastics, etc. plants will also affect durability  
71 aspects of constructions [17]. However, in the case of green façade directly attached, climbing  
72 plants may deteriorate the building envelope outer layer, especially in the case of plaster walls  
73 [18], [19]

74 Susorova et al. [20] demonstrate that façade orientation plays an important role as well for

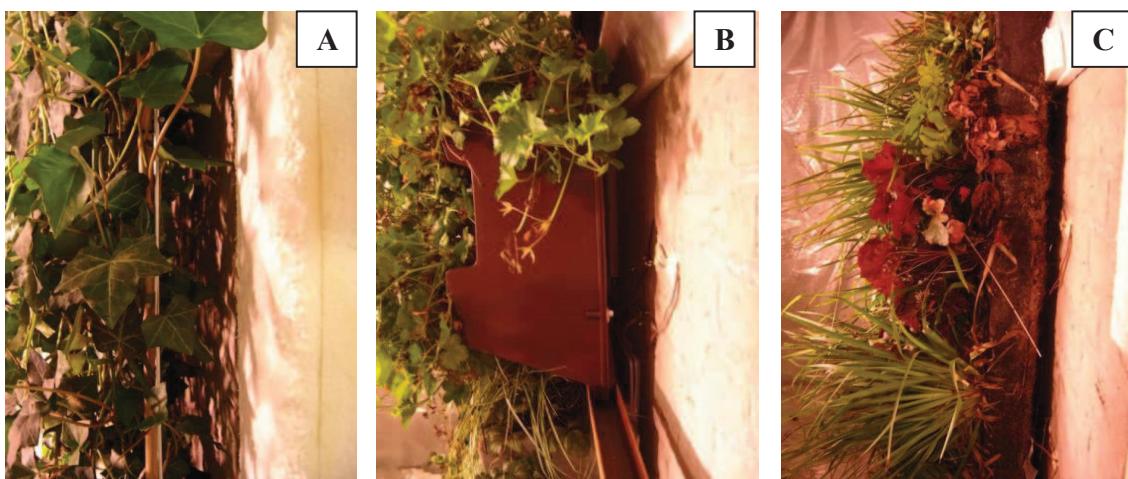
75 cooling capacity due to shadow and evapotranspiration provided by plants. In addition, studies  
76 show a potential energy saving for air conditioning that can be obtained with vertical greening  
77 systems up to 40-60% in Mediterranean area [3], [21]–[24]  
78 The discussed studies, showing the potential effects of vertical greening systems on the  
79 microclimate, are all done under variable environmental conditions.  
80  
81 The present study aims to classify the thermal benefits of green façades or plant covered  
82 cladding systems under boundary conditions. The results of this study can be used for giving  
83 evidence of the effects of vertical green as an “extra insulation” layer”, to support the decision  
84 process for architects, building owners, etc. This “technical/thermal green” strategy of increasing  
85 exterior insulation properties of vertical surfaces stimulates upgrading or retrofitting of existing  
86 (under-insulated) façades without the added cost of interior or traditional exterior insulation  
87 systems. An insulation material mitigates the impact of the created temperature difference  
88 between inside and outside [25]. In the research work done by Eumorfopoulou and Aravantinos  
89 [26], it was found that a planted roof contributes to the thermal protection of a building but that it  
90 cannot replace the thermal insulation layer. From a scientific point of view it is relevant to verify if  
91 this effect is also valid for green façades.  
92 A comparison between a bare façade and a plant covered façade is investigated in order to  
93 quantify the contribution of vegetation to the thermal behaviour of the building envelope, with  
94 three different greening systems applied (a direct green façade and two different living wall  
95 systems), during summer and winter seasons.  
96 The experimental study aims at identifying differences between the bare wall and between the  
97 different vertical greening systems, due to the different layers involved (a biotic and biotic  
98 components).  
99 The experiment presented seeks at analysing the relation between vegetation and the built  
100 environment. In particular it is focused on the possible contribution of vertical greening systems in  
101 improving the thermal behaviour of the building envelope.  
102 The main objective of the presented study is to measure the temperature gradient through a  
103 vertical greened façade element, to quantify the thermal resistance of vertical greening systems  
104 and to understand the thermal behaviour in warm (up to 35°C) and cold conditions (down to -5°C).  
105  
106 **2. Experimental set up and methodology**  
107 This research describes a procedure for comparative measurements of steady-state (stationary  
108 condition) heat transfer through a cavity wall with three different vertical greening systems:  
109 *Hedera helix* directly to the wall and two living wall systems are based on mineral wool and  
110 planter boxes. The bare wall configuration serves as a reference measurement, besides it gives  
111 information over the total energy performance of the composite façade when it is covered with

112 vertical green. The living wall system based on planter boxes uses *Lamium galeobdolon*, *Carex*,  
113 *Alchemilla*, and *Host*, the one based on mineral wool: *Ferns*, *Geraniums*, and *Carex*. According to  
114 Perini et al. [27], although species have different evaporation capacities, which affect the cooling  
115 effect, the major role is played by the supporting system itself. The analysis of these greening  
116 systems using different configurations, layers and materials will provide useful information about  
117 the influence of the systems' characteristics on thermal performances. The bare wall stratigraphy  
118 analysed represents a typical/common European building envelope.



119

120 Figure 1 Vertical greening systems analysed in the study: (a) direct green façade,  
121 system based on planter boxes, (c) living wall system based on mineral wool.



133 Figure 2 Cross section of the vertical greening systems analysed in the study (a) direct green  
134 façade, (b) living wall system based on planter boxes, (c) living wall system based on mineral  
135 wool.

136  
137 The designed apparatus – called “hot box” – is intended to reproduce different boundary  
138 conditions of a specimen between two different environments, in the presented research is  
139 chosen for an “indoor” and “outdoor” environment. A digital temperature controller and convective  
140 heater as well as infrared radiation bulbs maintain the box temperature as close as possible to  
141 environmental outdoor conditions. The total energy input represents the heat transfer through the  
142 test system. An automatic data collection system is used in this experiment, so that tests can be  
143 conducted over a long period of time (if needed) to assure steady-state conditions and to  
144 determine reproducibility of the laboratory measurements.

145 This study investigates the effects of vertical greening systems in warm (up to 35°C) and cold  
146 conditions (down to -5°C). For this reason, representative days are chosen and analysed  
147 (according to e.g.[28]). Each system was measured 3 times for summer and winter condition. The  
148 summer measurements are conducted over a time span of 8 hours when it is assumed to reach a  
149 steady state situation. The winter measurements are conducted over a larger time span of 72  
150 hours to reach a steady state situation.

151

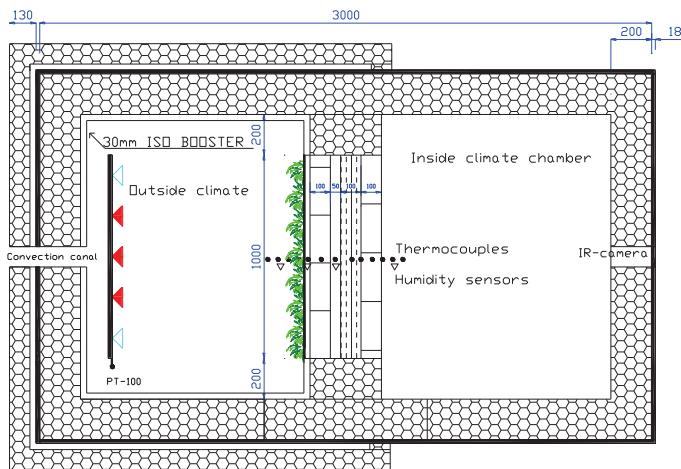
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### 153 **2.1 Experimental details of the climate chamber**

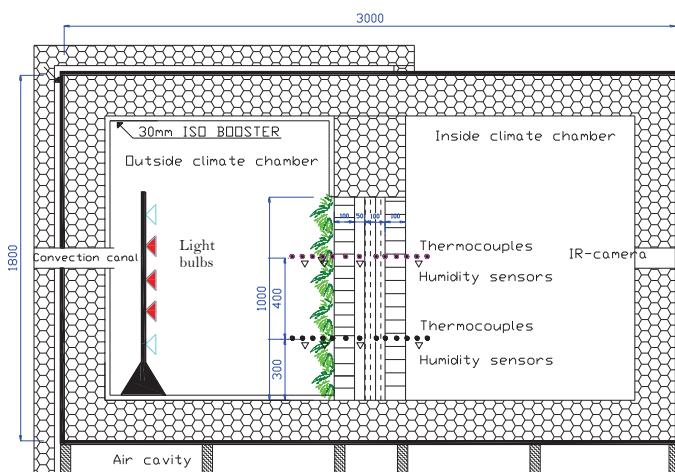
154 The climate chamber used in this experiment was designed and constructed according to NEN-  
155 EN 1934. The standard requires a “hot” chamber on one side of the tested specimen and a heat  
156 sink in the form of a “cold” chamber in which environmental conditions are imposed.

157 The constructed box (the so called “outside and inside” climate chamber) is insulated from its  
158 surroundings using 200 mm (two layers overlapped of 100 mm) of expanded polystyrene  
159 insulation (EPS) insulation material, with a conductivity of 0.036 W/m.K. The two layers of EPS  
160 are glued together and fixed to a plywood face of 18 mm in order to get some stiffness between  
161 the panels. In the so called “outside” climate chamber extra insulation material is attached to the  
162 EPS in order to minimize heat loss. For this application ISOBOOSTER-T1 sheets of 240 mm  
163 thickness are used with a *U* - value of 0.42 W/m<sup>2</sup>·K. The outside and inside climate chambers  
164 have the same dimensions and are as follows (figures 3 and 4):

- 165 - length L = 1.10 m  
166 - width w = 1.40 m  
167 - height H = 1.40 m



168



169

170

171 Figure 3 top view and cross section view of the designed box and the positions of the  
172 thermocouples used; dimensions in mm.

173

174 In the middle of the box a cavity wall is constructed as reference material and to test vertical  
175 greening systems placed in front of it (figure 4). The cavity wall also directly forms a sample  
176 holder for vertical green cladding systems. For the living wall systems an air cavity is created  
177 between living wall panel and the façade (figure 1).

178



179  
180 Figure 4 side and front view of the constructed cavity wall used for the experiments.  
181

182 In this way the box is divided into two chambers: an “outside” climate chamber and an “inside”  
183 climate chamber as it is mentioned in the text. In order to minimize the heat loss through the walls  
184 of the “outside” climate chamber, an extra insulation layer of 100 mm EPS with an air cavity of 30  
185 mm is constructed at the outside of the box (only around the outside climate chamber). This extra  
186 layer serves as a guard by keeping the temperature of the air cavity the same as temperature in  
187 the “outside” climate chamber. The guard section ensures that the lateral heat flow rate from the  
188 outside chamber is nearly zero to the guard section. The relative humidity in the climate chamber  
189 was measured by Honeywell hygrometers with a thermoset polymer capacitive sensing element  
190 during the experiments to exclude the influence of evapotranspiration of the different green  
191 systems. The relative humidity in the “outside” climate chamber was brought to 85% with an  
192 electric Honeywell ultrasonic air humidifier before the measurement was started.

193 The temperature of the guard section (extra air cavity) is controlled with a PT100 in combination  
194 with an ENDA ET1411 digital thermostat temperature controller (connected to a solid state relay).  
195 The box tightness (thermal leakage) inside and outside the box was determined by the use of an  
196 infrared camera (FLIR A320).

197

198 Temperature measurements were made using thermocouples and PT100 sensors. Amount and  
199 position of the thermocouples is given in table 1 and schematically presented in figure 3. The data  
200 is collected and recorded on a data logger with a frequency of acquisition of 60 scans per hour.  
201 The total system is controlled by a personal computer. In order to study the effect of convection  
202 (warm air) and radiation (sunshine) on the heat transfer trough a greened wall both are tested  
203 separately.

204

205     Control system convection and radiation

206     The convection heating system in the climate chambers (inside/outside) consists of a hot gun in  
207     an insulated enclosure. The maximum power output of the hot gun is 1500 Watt. The temperature  
208     of the outside climate chamber is also controlled with a PT100 in combination with an ENDA  
209     ET1411 digital thermostat temperature controller. The radiation power system in the outside  
210     climate chamber consists of nine PAR38 light bulbs placed in front of the specimen which are  
211     used to supply radiation energy, during summer measurements (Figure 3), which must simulate  
212     the radiation. Three PAR30 light bulbs were used during summer and winter measurements to  
213     serve as daylight and to ensure that metabolism and photosynthesis processes could continue  
214     during the measurements.

215

216     Data acquisition

217     For the thermal data acquisition four calibrated "Advantech 4781" USB modules are used to read  
218     the thermocouples. The data acquisition for the humidity sensors is done by a multifunctional  
219     DAQ NI USB-6211 module.

220

221     Thermocouple measurements

222     All used thermocouples are of type T (Cu-Ni) with a diameter of 0.25 mm. Two PT100 are used to  
223     measure the temperature in the outside climate chamber and in the guard section. Near the  
224     PT100 a thermocouple was placed to verify the temperature in the outside climate chamber. Each  
225     thermocouple measurement consists of two measurements on the same x-axis but on a different  
226     height (y-axis) (figure 3, shown by the dotted lines).

227

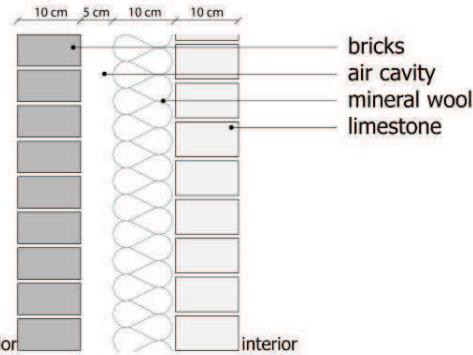
228     The temperature inside the canopy of the tested vertical greening systems is measured by  
229     placing thermocouples on the backside of the leaves with thin transparent tape.

230

231     Specimen/sample mounting

232     The reference cavity wall consists of an inner wall of 100 mm thickness (limestone), mineral  
233     insulation material of 100 mm thickness (Rockwool), cavity of 50 mm thickness and an outer wall  
234     of 100 mm thickness (brick), (figure 5).

235



236

237 Figure 5 cross section of the reference cavity wall as used for the experiment.

238

239 **2.2 Theoretical calculations - thermal transfer coefficient**240 For the thermal transfer coefficient the symbol  $U$  is used. The coefficient ( $\text{Wm}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$ ) expresses the  
241 quantity of energy (W) passing through a material per area ( $\text{m}^2$ ) and per temperature difference  
242 (K) between the two sides of the material. From thermal equilibrium theory it follows that:

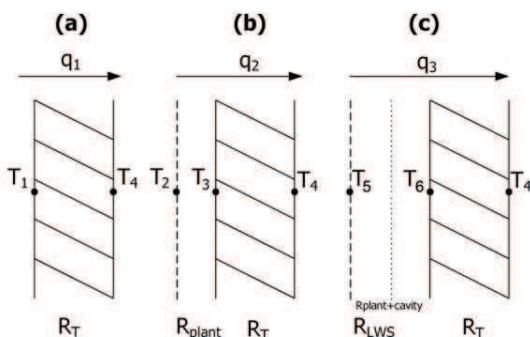
243

244 
$$U = \frac{Q}{A(T_i - T_e)} = 1/R \quad (1)$$

245

246 With  $Q$  the energy required for heating,  $A$  the area of the specimen,  $T_i$  the temperature of the  
247 inside chamber and  $T_e$  the temperature of the outside chamber. The formula can be used under  
248 the conditions that the heat transfer through the specimen is stable and that there are no heat  
249 losses thought the wall of the heating chamber. The extra insulation layer with heated cavity  
250 (same temperature as inside the outside chamber) ensures that there is no exchange of heat out  
251 of the chamber. The heat loss therefore can be neglected.

252



253

254

255 Figure 6 Variables used for calculating the heat flow through a bare façade (a), directly greened  
256 façade (b) and a façade covered with a LWS panel (c). The dotted line represents the air cavity  
257 between plants and wall and the dashed line the plants.

258  
259 For steady state conditions, the rate of heat flow ( $q$ ) per unit area through the building's fabric  
260 with an  $R$ -value, an indoor surface temperature ( $T_4$ ) and an outdoor surface temperature ( $T_1$ ) is  
261 given by equation (2).

262 
$$q_1 = \frac{(T_1 - T_4)}{R_T} \quad (\text{W m}^{-2}) \quad (2)$$

263  
264 Where  $T_1$  (K) is the external surface temperature,  $T_4$  (K) is the internal surface temperature,  $R_T$   
265 ( $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K} \cdot \text{W}^{-1}$ ) is the thermal resistance of the wall.

266  
267 As for the direct greened façade can be found:

268 
$$q_2 = \frac{(T_2 - T_4)}{R_{plant} + R_T} = \frac{(T_2 - T_3)}{R_{plant}} + \frac{(T_3 - T_4)}{R_T} \quad (\text{W m}^{-2}) \quad (3)$$

269  
270 Where  $q$  is the heat flow,  $T_2$  (K) is the surface temperature of plants,  $T_3$  (K) is the surface  
271 temperature below plants and  $R_{plant}$  ( $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K} \cdot \text{W}^{-1}$ ) the thermal resistance of the plant species. For a  
272 façade covered with LWS panels can be found:

273 
$$q_3 = \frac{(T_5 - T_4)}{R_{LWS} + R_T} = \frac{(T_5 - T_6)}{R_{LWS}} + \frac{(T_6 - T_4)}{R_T} \quad (\text{W m}^{-2}) \quad (4)$$

274  
275 Where  $T_5$  (K) is the surface temperature of the living wall system,  $T_6$  (K) is the surface  
276 temperature below LWS and  $R_{LWS}$  ( $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K} \cdot \text{W}^{-1}$ ) the thermal resistance of the LWS.

277  
278 Via expression (2) one can derive the thermal resistance of the plant layer for a direct greened  
279 façade (eq. 3). The same can be found for the thermal resistance of a façade covered with a LWS  
280 concept (eq.4):

281  
282 
$$R_{PLANT} = R_T \frac{(T_2 - T_3)}{(T_3 - T_4)} \quad (\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K} \cdot \text{W}^{-1}) \quad (5)$$

283  
284 
$$R_{LWS} = R_T \frac{(T_5 - T_6)}{(T_6 - T_4)} \quad (\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{K} \cdot \text{W}^{-1}) \quad (6)$$

285  
286 In order to calculate the overall thermal resistance of the reference cavity wall and the vertical  
287 green systems analysed the material properties are used as given by the product information  
288 sheets of the used materials in this experiment (Table 2). Besides it was used to compare the  
289 theoretical calculations with the retrieved measuring data from the experimental set up. The  
290 theoretical temperature line is for this purpose as well plotted in figures 7-12. The question mark  
291 in table 2 represents the experimentally value to determined for thermal resistance of a vertical  
292 green system in the presented research.

293

294 Table 2 cavity wall + vertical greening systems layers and related thermal resistance and  
295 conductivity.

Nr.	Layers of the construction	Thickness <i>d</i> [m]	Thermal conductivity <i>λ</i> [W/(m·K)]	Thermal resistance construction $R_c=d/\lambda$ [(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)/W]
0	<b>Vegetation layer</b>	<b>0.1-0.2</b>		?
1	<i>external surface resistance</i>			0.04
2	masonry (clay)	0.1	1.00	0.10
3	Cavity	0.05		0.17
4	insulation material (mineral wool)	0.1	0.035	2.85
5	masonry (lime stone)	0.1	1.00	0.10
6	<i>internal surface resistance</i>			0.013
	Total	0.45-0.55		<b>3.27 + ?</b>

296

297 **3. Results and discussion**

298

299 3.1 Direct façade greening

300 For the direct greening principle it is found that for the summer condition the average temperature  
 301 of the wall surface ( $T_{ext\ wall\ surface}$ ) is lower compared to the bare wall. The difference of  
 302 temperature is reaching 1.7°C after 8 hours of heating. The insulation material inside the bare  
 303 wall moderates the prevailing temperature difference between the outside and inside climate  
 304 chamber, resulting in no temperature difference for the inside climate chamber (figure 7). The  
 305 winter measurement after 72 hours shows that the wall surface covered directly with *Hedera helix*  
 306 is warmer compared to the bare wall, with a temperature difference of 1.7°C. The air temperature  
 307 of the inside climate chamber is lowered with 0.7°C in the case of the bare wall, which means that  
 308 the vegetation layer slows down the rate of heat flow through the façade, resulting in an improved  
 309 *R*-value of the system compared to the bare façade (figure 8).

310

311 3.2. Living wall system based on planter boxes

312 For the planter boxes system (LWS), it was found that for the summer condition the average  
 313 temperature of the wall surface is lower compared to the bare wall, with a temperature difference  
 314 reaching 8.4°C after 8 hours of heating (figure 9). This is a substantial difference with the direct  
 315 greening system. Also for the living wall system based on planter boxes it was noticed that the  
 316 insulation material inside the bare wall moderate the prevailing temperature difference between  
 317 the outside and inside climate chamber, resulting in no temperature difference for the interior  
 318 climate chamber. It is noteworthy to mention that the temperature difference between the air of  
 319 the exterior chamber and the temperature of the extra created air cavity between LWS and

320 façade is 8.6°C. It was noticed that the humidity inside the exterior climate chamber lays between  
321 85% and 100% for the measurement; this is probably related to the moisture content of the  
322 substrates used for the living wall systems.

323 The winter measurement shows after 72 hours a temperature difference between the surface of  
324 the bare wall and the wall covered with planter boxes of 10.6°C, with a temperature difference  
325 between the exterior air temperature and the extra created cavity of 5.5°C. The interior air  
326 temperature difference after the measurement came up 2.1°C and thus resulting in an improved  
327 *R-value* of the system compared to the bare façade (figure 10).

328

329 3.3. Living wall system based on mineral wool

330 For the living wall system based on mineral wool (LWS), it was found that for the summer  
331 condition the average temperature of the wall surface is lower compared to the bare wall, with a  
332 temperature difference reaching 5.9°C after 8 hours of heating (figure 11). The air temperature  
333 difference between the exterior chamber and the air temperature of the extra created air cavity  
334 between LWS and façade was 5.9°C.

335 The winter measurement show a temperature difference after 72 hours between the surface of  
336 the bare wall and the wall covered with planter boxes of 10.6°C, with a temperature difference  
337 between the exterior air temperature and the extra created cavity of 4.6°C. The interior chamber  
338 air temperature difference after 72 hours came up 2.1°C and thus resulting also in an improved  
339 *R-value* of the system compared to the bare façade (figure 12).

340

341 Table 3. Summer season, temperatures recorded for 8 hours based on steady state situation.

Systems analysed	measuring points summer temperature (°C)				
	T <sub>ext</sub>	T <sub>foliage</sub>	T <sub>ext. wall surface</sub>	T <sub>int. surface (outside)</sub>	T <sub>int.</sub>
bare wall	34.8	--	T <sub>1</sub> ; 32.6	T <sub>4</sub> ; 24.3	24.1
(a) direct green façade	34.1	T <sub>2</sub> ; 31.4	T <sub>3</sub> ; 31.0	T <sub>4</sub> ; 23.9	24.0
(b) living wall system based on planter boxes	31.8	T <sub>5</sub> ; 29.4	T <sub>6</sub> ; 24.2	T <sub>4</sub> ; 23.4	23.1
(c) living wall system based on mineral wool	34.8	T <sub>5</sub> ; 30.4	T <sub>6</sub> ; 26.8	T <sub>4</sub> ; 24.7	24.4

342

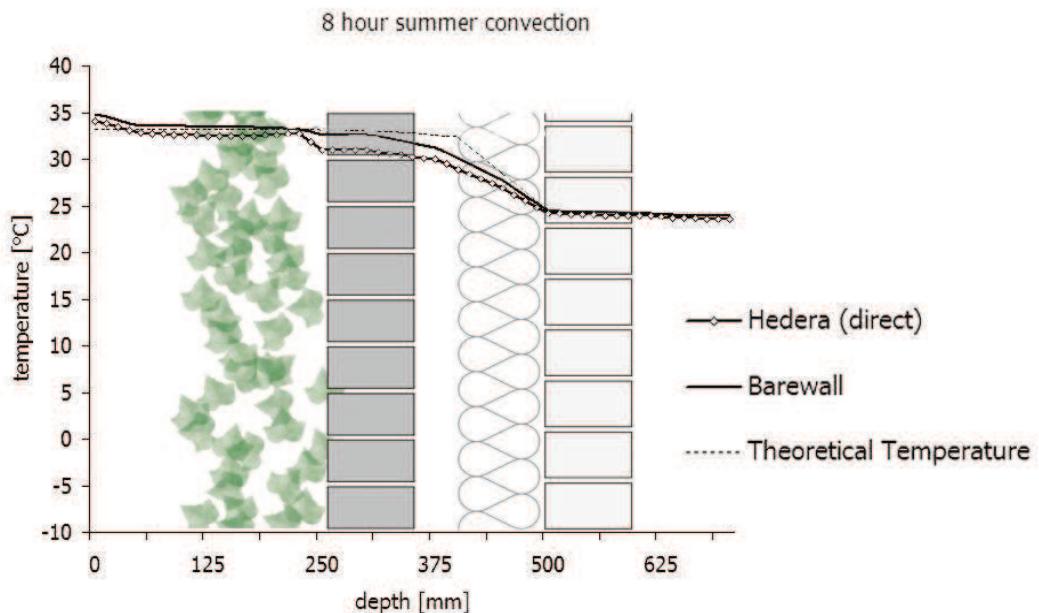
343

344 Table 4, Winter season, temperatures recorded for 72 hours based on steady state situation

Systems analysed	measuring points winter temperature (°C)				
	T <sub>ext</sub>	T <sub>foliage</sub>	T <sub>ext. wall surface</sub>	T <sub>int. surface (outside)</sub>	T <sub>int.</sub>
bare wall	-7.6	--	T <sub>1</sub> ; -6.6	T <sub>4</sub> ; 17.7	17.9
(a) direct green façade	-6.2	T <sub>2</sub> ; -6.4	T <sub>3</sub> ; -5.0	T <sub>4</sub> ; 19.2	19.9
(b) living wall system based on planter boxes	-1.2	T <sub>5</sub> ; -2.1	T <sub>6</sub> ; 4.0	T <sub>4</sub> ; 20.0	20.1
(c) living wall system	-2.1	T <sub>5</sub> ; -3.0	T <sub>6</sub> ; 4.0	T <sub>4</sub> ; 20.1	20.0

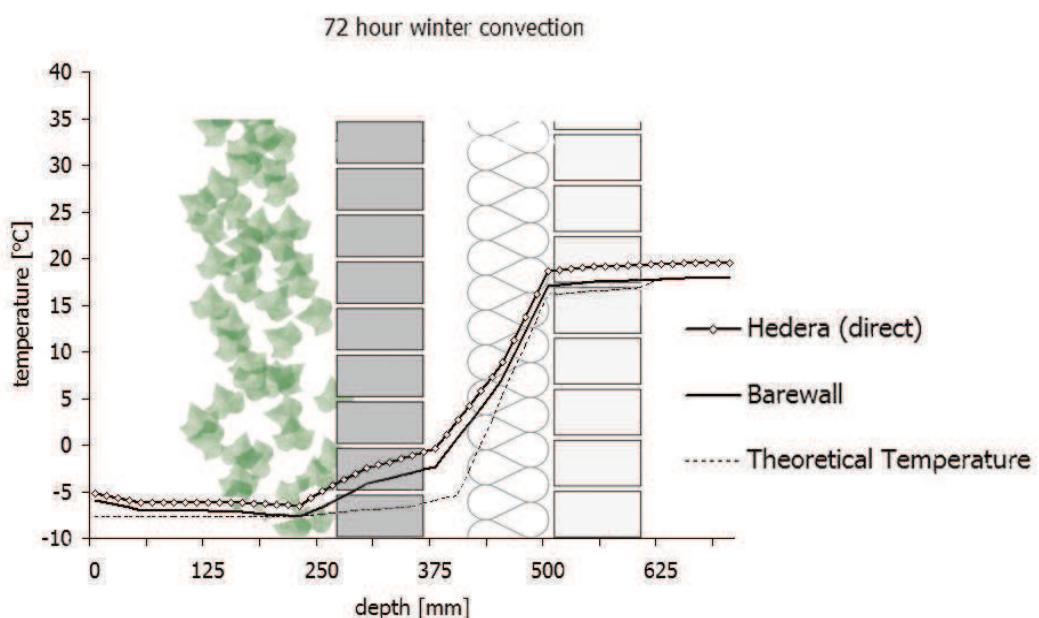
345  
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based on mineral wool					
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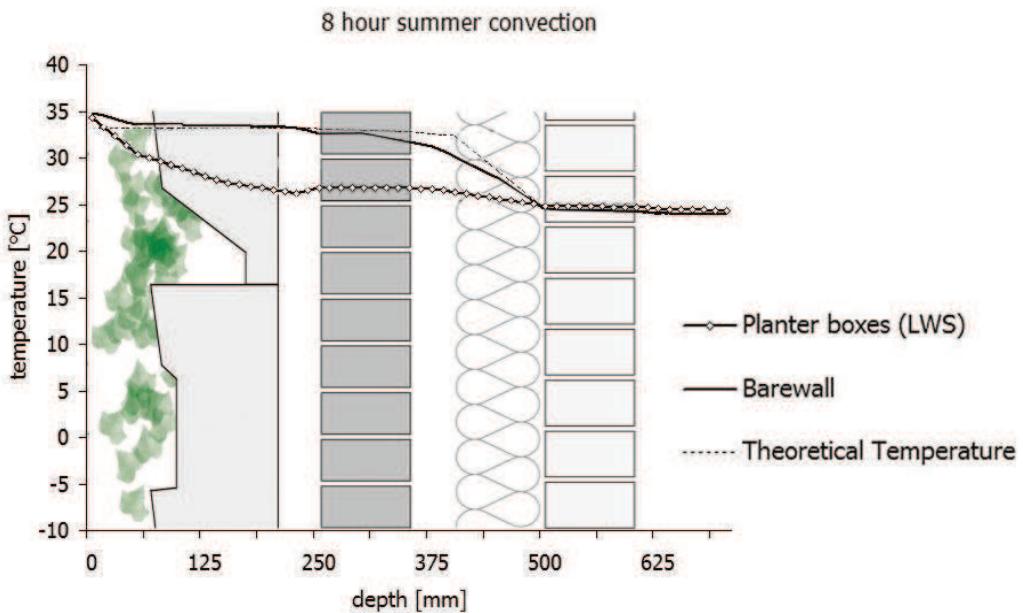
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Figure 7 direct green façade – 8 hours summer convection



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350  
351

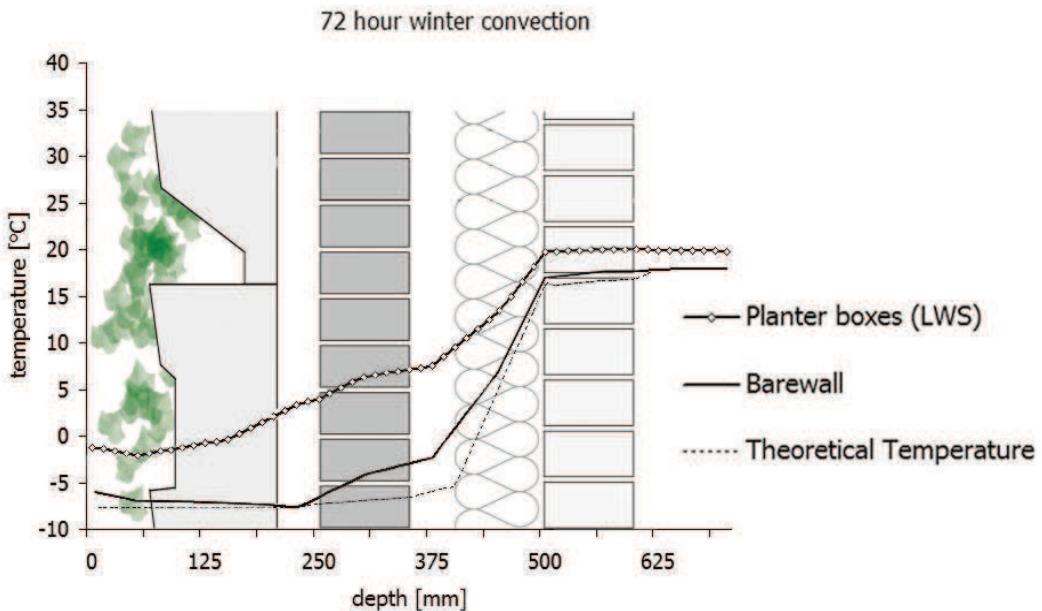
Figure 8 direct green façade – 72 hours winter convection



352

353

Figure 9 LWS based on planter boxes – 8 hours summer convection

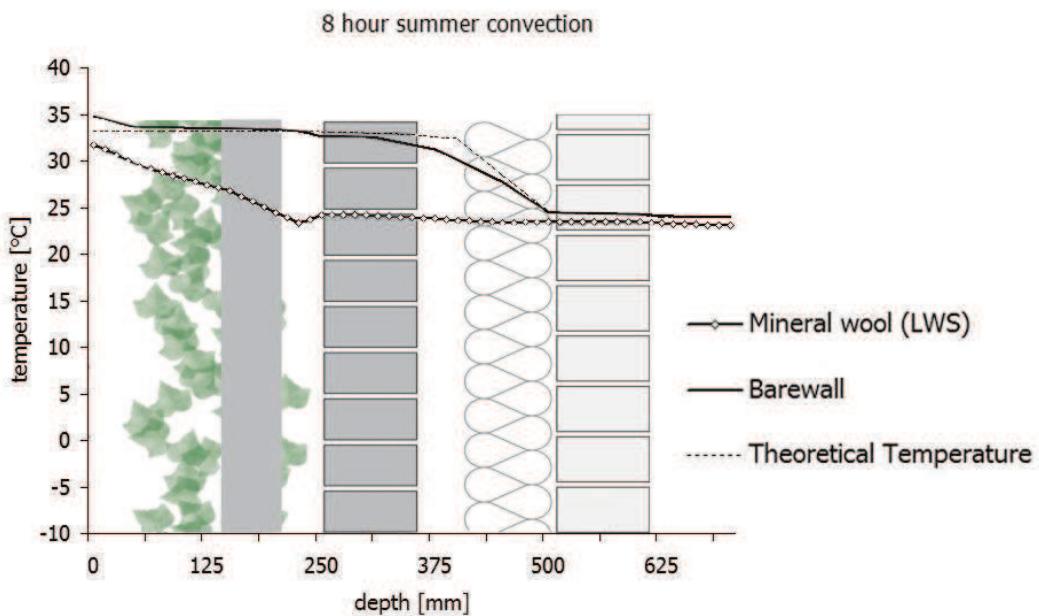


354

355

Figure 10 LWS based on planter boxes – 72 hours winter convection

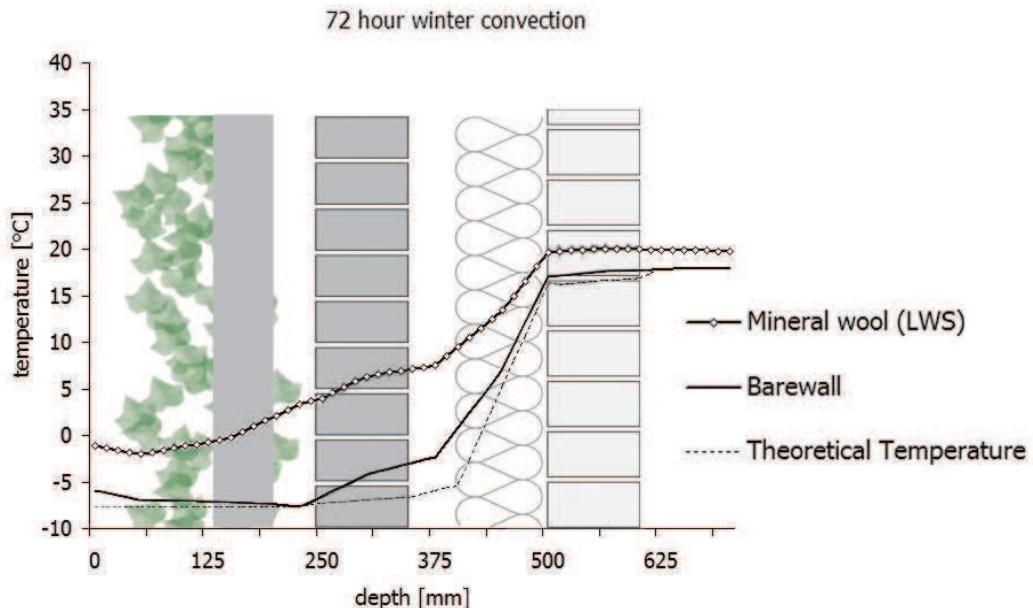
356



357

358      Figure 11 LWS based on mineral wool – 8 hours summer convection

359



360

361      Figure 12 LWS based on mineral wool – 72 hours winter convection

362

### 3.4 Calculation of thermal resistances and critical analysis of the obtained data

364 The conducted experiment allows estimating the thermal resistance of the vertical greening  
365 systems, according to paragraph 2.2. The calculation of equivalent R-values is based on the data  
366 collected in the experimental climate chamber, in particular on the measured interior and exterior  
367 surface temperatures, both for a summer and winter situation (Tables 5-6). For steady state  
368 conditions, the rate of heat flow per unit area through the direct greened façade can be estimated  
369 according to equations 3 and 5. For the living wall concepts equations 4 and 6 are used.

370

371 Table 5 Estimated R-values for the greening systems tested under summer condition; assuming a  
372 steady state situation after 8 hours of heating. The values regarding the living wall systems must  
373 be considered as not reliable due to the unexpected high value(s).

374

Summarized thermal resistances summer measurement	
<i>Vertical greening systems</i>	<i>R-value (m<sup>2</sup>·K·W<sup>-1</sup>)</i>
Bare wall	3.43
<i>Hedera helix</i> direct	0.66
LWS based on planter boxes	12.81
LWS based on mineral wool	33.15

375

376 **Table 6 Estimated R-values for the greening systems tested under winter condition;**  
377 **assuming a steady state situation after 72 hours of cooling.**

378

Summarized thermal resistances winter measurement	
<i>Vertical greening systems</i>	<i>R-value (m<sup>2</sup>·K·W<sup>-1</sup>)</i>
Bare wall	3.42
<i>Hedera helix</i> direct	0.18
LWS based on planter boxes	1.30
LWS based on mineral wool	1.10

379

380 The R-values values calculated for the summer measurement (Table 5) are extremely high. This  
381 is probably related to insufficient measuring time (8 hours) to reach a steady state situation for the  
382 heat flow through the vertical greening systems, in particular for the living wall systems analysed,  
383 due to the high temperature differences between the several layers (vegetation, materials, air,  
384 etc.) involved. The temperature gradient  $\Delta T_{lws}$  (difference between  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ ) has a high  
385 influence on the outcome of the equation used (eq. 6). The larger the temperature drop over the  
386 living wall system, the higher the  $R_{lws}$  value will be. In the case of the summer measurements  
387 after 8 hours heating, high temperature gradient ( $T_1-T_3$  up to 10°C) over the living wall systems  
388 was found as earlier described (see also figures 10 and 12), whereas the temperature gradient  
389 over the bare wall ( $T_3-T_4$ ) appeared to be 1.5°C as a maximum. Noteworthy to mention is the  
390 striking temperature drop found for the LWS systems under summer conditions between the  
391 supporting material and substrate and façade (figures 10 and 12). The reason for this could be  
392 because of the evaporative cooling capacity of the composite system, however further research is  
393 needed to really understand this mechanism.

394 Worth mentioning; the real effect of the moisture content (evapotranspiration; the contribution of  
395 vegetation and substrate) on the heat transfer mechanism is inside a closed and sealed  
396 environment should be further investigated. In fact, also the evaporation and the water (vapour)  
397 trapped inside the chambers plays a role. It is likely that this mechanism causes the high  
398 temperature differences found for the summer measurement. Building materials (abiotic) are  
399 tested via the same principle (steady state) according to the standard NEN-EN 1934, the  
400 difference with the executed experiment is the introduction of a (unknown) biological factor. In  
401 practice the (exterior climate chamber) humidity levels are affected due to ventilation by wind.  
402 Interior humidity levels are mostly influenced by the use of a building (human activity, cooking,  
403 etc.).

404

405 *R-values* deriving from winter measurement, presented in table 6, are lower compared to the  
406 ones derived from summer measurements. This is related to the measuring time of 72 hours  
407 which tends to be really steady state. Another important aspect is the evaporative character of the  
408 vertical greening systems under colder temperatures (frost) which is less compared to the  
409 summer measurement were the plants (+substrate) are constantly (evapo)transpirating to fulfil  
410 their biological functions (metabolism). Again it is observed that the greening systems positively  
411 influence the temperature development through the façade. This still indicates that the thermal  
412 resistance of the construction is improved by adding a green layer.

413

414 **Conclusion**

415 The present research allows studying the thermal behaviour during summer and winter seasons  
416 of different vertical greening systems under boundary conditions. From the summer

417 measurements a considerable effect in reducing the temperature development in the exterior  
418 masonry by applying vertical greening systems can be noticed, in particular for the living wall  
419 systems analysed. This means that less accumulation will occur in a greened façade, resulting in  
420 less heat radiation at night. Such effect results in energy saving for air conditioning and also in a  
421 possible reduction of urban heat island effect. It can also be noticed that the greening systems  
422 influence positively the temperature development through the façade, resulting in an improvement  
423 of the thermal resistance of the construction.

424 The results obtained show that the experimental set-up (climate chamber "hotbox") acts  
425 wherefore it was designed, as from a building physics point of view positive temperature  
426 differences were found between the bare wall and the different vertical greening systems  
427 attached to the same bare wall configuration.

428

429 The main conclusions that can be drawn from the presented results are the following:

430

- 431 - For all the cases analysed it was noticed that the insulation material inside the bare wall  
432 moderates the prevailing temperature difference between the outside and inside climate  
433 chamber, resulting in no temperature difference for the interior climate chamber for  
434 summer conditions in this comparative study. However vertical greening system reduce  
435 outdoor temperature resulting in urban heat island mitigation.
- 436 - Temperature differences can be found between the bare wall and vertical greening  
437 systems that were attached to the same bare wall.
- 438 - The direct façade greening intercepts the solar radiation as shown by the temperature  
439 difference of 1.7°C after 8 hours of heating for summer conditions; for winter conditions  
440 warmer temperatures are found due to the presence of *Hedera helix*, which means that  
441 the vegetation layer slows down the rate of heat flow through the façade, resulting in an  
442 improved *R-value* of the system compared to the initial bare supporting wall.
- 443 - The results related to the living wall system based on planter boxes show a temperature  
444 difference reaching 8.4°C after 8 hours of heating compared to the bare wall; for the  
445 winter measurement the interior air temperature difference after the measurement came  
446 up 2.1°C and thus resulting in an improved *R-value* of the system compared to the initial  
447 bare supporting wall.
- 448 - The living wall system based on mineral wool is the most effective with regard to summer  
449 cooling with a temperature difference reaching 5.8°C after 8 hours of heating compared  
450 to the bare wall. For the winter measurements a similar trend compared to the living wall  
451 system based on planter boxes was noticed (i.e. the interior chamber air temperature  
452 difference after 72 hours came up 2.1°C), resulting in an improved *R-value* of the system  
453 compared to the initial bare supporting wall.

454

455 This research gives insight in the positive influence of green systems on the thermal behaviour of  
456 buildings. Starting from the measurements, an estimation of R-values is provided. In order to  
457 obtain more realistic results regarding the *R-value* of greening systems, reaching a steady state  
458 situation (with a measuring form more than 8 hours) and improving of the climate chamber is  
459 needed. In fact, enlarging the volume of the exterior chamber (i.e. where the greenery is placed)  
460 could lower the influence of evaporation. Additional research is required for an accurate thermal  
461 resistance calculation.

462

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469

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