EFFECTS OF SOLAR RADIATION ON BUILDINGS AND THERMAL COMFORT

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of Hertfordshire for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy \bullet

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

For this work to reach the stage it has, I wish to acknowledge and sincerely thank several persons. First, I have to thank Professor Sayigh who is my first supervisor for the inception of the research and for the rare and most encouragement spirit. He has given me all the basic guidelines and his personal literature to worm through. Although I felt to be a lesser person than ever to handle a subject and was unable to vision the particular beam of knowledge that would empower me to scan and unravel

the University campus Dr. Sammi Nasser; who was my second supervisor gave me the full supervision and attention that I needed. His attention to me was not limited to the academic requirements only but extended beyond. He frequently wrote to me in Malawi to give me guidance on the proper methodologies and documentation of this work.

the specific problem area, I later realised that Professor Sayigh had made me fathom enough material in this area to appreciate the subtle but debilitating problem of thermal discomfort in Malawi. That feeling that whatever little would be unravelled would perhaps be a small step on the road map to understanding, building up, and finding possible solutions to the suffering of the many who were not aware of their own abilities to rid themselves of the problem, was itself a mentor.

Working on this subject, far away from the University of Hertfordshire where facilities were available was also a separate story. However, each time I trekked into

In Malawi I was fortunate enough to have access to Professor Terence Davis; Vice Chancellor of Mzuzu University as my local supervisor, who despite his busy schedules, some how, still found generous gaps of time to guide me on statistical

methods of problem analysis.

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Laying hands' on relevant literature would have been the hardest hurdle. However, and it can only be by an act of deity and beyond sheer coincidence to have had just

the right basic literature in this field earlier before I had ever embarked on this research. I want to acknowledge the kindness of Professor All Sayigh, Professor John Duffie of University of Wisconsin in the United States, and Professor H. Cowan of University of Sydney in Australia. I was also very fortunate to have had the assistance of Dr. Joseph Uta, the Librarian of Mzuzu University who helped me to obtain a number of original and valuable research papers from the British Library in London. I also thank the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research of South

Africa, and the Royal Society Arts of London who sent me a number of photocopied

articles as soon as I requested for them.

Lastly, I have to admire the patience of my children Chikumbutso, Meggie, Chitsanzo and that of my dear wife Ivy who was eagerly waiting for the day when I would stop the studious habit in the home. Does it ever come to an end? However, in order to assure her that the end was very close, I made her type this acknowledgement and I am very grateful that this is the end.

B. W. Zingano; February 2003.

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ABSTRACT

This work was undertaken to investigate the perceived problem of Thermal Discomfort in Malawi. One observable effect of thermal discomfort was the amount of foreign exchange that was spent to import air conditioning devices. The purpose of the work was to find out, and quantify the problem of thermal discomfort and outline its effects to the people and country.

In order to investigate the problem of thermal discomfort in depth in a place where the necessary data hardly existed a lot of work had to be done. The work has been outlined in four stages of research, analysis and documentation and these are as follows

1 Literature Review

The subject of Thermal Comfort appears to be location specific, but the general principles are universal. In that context it was necessary to read widely on both historical and contemporary current work. The problem of thermal comfort in general was being discussed as early as 1758 and still remains a big area of research and discussion today. A considerable number of literature that specifically relate to the problem of thermal comfort in the tropics has been reviewed. The problem of scales for thermal comfort measurement has been discussed in detail. It is still not possible to quote a scale that is satisfactory. However, the recent approach of Adaptive Thermal Comfort Model seems to be closer to the answer than the others 2 Analysing Existing Relevant Information And Data In Malawi In the course of this work it was found out that quite a large amount of useful data existed in Malawi. However, this data was not standardised. Most of this data had to

be cleaned and updated. Some of the old formulae are quoted in their original formats in order not to confuse the referencing. The data that exists in Malawi has been recorded on three types of instruments; namely the Gunn Bellum Spherical Pyranometer, the Camp Bell Stoke Sunshine Recorder and the Eppley Pyranometer. Most of the data was recorded using the Camp Bell Stokes Sunshine Recorder. The xx

data recorded on the Gunn Bellum Spherical Pyranometer had to be related to that from the Camp Bell Stokes Sunshine Recorder. The former gave data that was more accurate as was found out when a comparison was made with data recorded on an Eppley Pyranometer. A paper on this subject was accepted for publication in the Renewable Energy Journal of WREN. Wind speeds, air temperatures, and humidity have been analysed to investigate the severity of thermal discomfort relative to locations in Malawi. This has resulted in the identification of three climatic zones. A

tool for testing Thermal Discomfort severity of a location by calculating number Degree Days $(D.d)$ if the altitude (A_L) has been developed; as $D.d = -575.994 \ln A_L + 4226.6$

3 Field Measurements

In order to investigate some of the issues that came out of this work, it was felt simpler to conduct field measurements. For example it would have been possible to build typical experimental houses, and extract performance data on Thermal Comfort from these buildings. However, this approach would have been very expensive. On the other hand it was felt that it was possible to find in the field that were

structural elements as functions of the environment and the need to achieve Thermal **XXI**

representative of typical buildings and could be prepared and tested to extract performance data for use in the work. The latter approach was adopted and has proved to be more realistic than the former.

4 Field Surveys

There were certain areas where the only way to find information was not to conduct experiments but to conduct field conduct surveys. This was done once to find the Preferred Bath Water Temperature (PBWT) and deduce the Neutral Temperature Range for Malawi. This yielded very useful results. The first published paper on this work was in this area (copy of this publication is attached). The second area of field

survey was to survey traditional buildings in seven selected districts stretching from

latitude 9°S to 17°S; covering a terrestrial distance of over 1000 km; over altitudes

from 52 to over 1600 metres above mean sea level (m.a.m.s.l). This again yielded

very useful environmental data that explained why traditional buildings have certain

Comfort. A number of useful equations have been developed. From that sub routine of this research of PBWT survey an equation was developed that related the bath temperature (t_h) to the air temperature (t_{ab}) as; $t_b = 0.3772 t_{ab} + 36.4401$. Part of this work was also published separately in 2001.

From this equation the Thermal Comfort Temperature Range for Malawi was deduced as 22-27°C. From the survey of the traditional buildings, a number of structural elements were that are functions of Thermal Comfort were identified as

derivatives of the desire to have Thermal Comfort in the buildings. A regression equation that can give values of irradiation of the locality in MJm⁻¹ Day⁻¹ was developed.

Lastly the results have been extracted as recommendations directed at policy makers, and both Architects and Engineers to use this data and the results in their design work. It is also further recommended that the national buildings regulations could be updated and revised to incorporate some of the findings. It is strongly believed that some of the findings will be incorporated to update the two main Laws that regulate

Public Health in Malawi. These are the Public Health Act; Cap. 34.01, and the Health and Safety at Work Act, 1977; of the Malawi Laws.

All data that has been cleaned up or measured specifically for this work has been organised and tabulated into ready-to-use tables and are included.

CHAPTER 1

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE PROBLEM OF THERMAL COMFORT IN MALAWI

Solar radiation warms up building structures and if the structures are not designed to allow for natural ventilation or air conditioning the resultant ambient thermal energy causes thermal discomfort. The problem of thermal discomfort in both the living and working environments and its effects on people are not

understood. In many instances the discomfort is accepted as natural without understanding or appreciating the physiological stress this thermal discomfort can cause. Sometimes the solutions undertaken to induce thermal comfort require expenditure that involves foreign exchange. If buildings are designed with thermal comfort using passive techniques, this expenditure may not be necessary.

In Malawi there are areas that are too hot for comfortable living. Thermal discomfort has a number of harmful physiological effects. The human mind can

only command the body's physiological processes effectively within a certain range of temperature. Beyond this range the mental faculties are affected. Intellectual output and work performance can be reduced. Low productivity both mentally and physically can further contribute to external dependence for material wealth of a nation.

In this investigation it is intended to outline and explain the effects of thermal discomfort to peoples' health and how thermal comfort is achieved in traditional buildings. It is probably common knowledge that economic growth of a nation

slows down if the level of trade deficit it has, with its trading partner countries

increases. If the country imports more than it can export, the obvious result is

economic drain of its natural resources and loss of wealth. When people experience thermal discomfort in the living environment, they take positive

action to reduce the discomfort by acquiring cooling devices. For Malawi these devices have to be imported from other countries. As imported items they are only affordable by a few people. This is the current situation in Malawi. What is not known is how much thermal discomfort is experienced. The problem of thermal discomfort may be acknowledged but its severity is not officially appreciated. Thermal discomfort can cause physiological inefficiency while the use of air conditioning equipment to restore comfort requires the use of foreign exchange to procure these devices from abroad. There is need to investigate and find some solutions that can be applied that are effective and affordable to induce thermal. To do this, the geographical, topographical, environmental and other conditions need to be understood by carrying out detailed analyses of the factors that affect thermal discomfort. The purpose of this study is to understand the dimensions of this problem in Malawi and its distribution over the country.

The concept of thermal comfort has not been researched in Malawi. There is no information on what are the temperature limits tolerable by the people. The

standard limit of 19-24°C that is in current in use is adopted from other countries

such as the United State of America and the United Kingdom. In this work it is

also intended o show that the limits of thermal comfort do vary from country to

country and are dependent on several factors including the countries location, the people, and their culture and many other factors.

Although it is acknowledged that there is very little or no information on this subject in Malawi, it would be a tremendous contribution to knowledge to start working in this area. Of course there must be some information in some

countries that are located in a similar geographical location like Malawi.

However, this would on be a starting point and the final usable knowledge must

be that derived from the environment in Malawi.

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1.2. GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION OF MALAWI.

Malawi is a land locked country south of equator in Africa. It has common borders with Tanzania in the North, Zambia in the West, and Mozambique in the East and South.

The country stretches from 9° 20'S to 17° 10'S and 32 $^{\circ}$ 40'E to 35 $^{\circ}$ 55'E. The land mass area is 94,276 sq. km while the total area covered by lakes is 24,208 sq. km; about a third of the land mass; see Appendix 1.1.

that flows into Zambezi River draining into the Indian Ocean. The lake catchments area extends into Tanzania and Mozambique (Pike; 1968). The country has very diverse vegetation ranging from typical tropical forests in the river valleys to savannah and semi arid land. The lowest habitable area is 48

1.3 GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES.

The country lies partly in the Great Rift Valley that starts from the Red Sea in North Africa. The rift valley continues through into part of Kenya, Tanzania and Malawi. The largest water body is Lake Malawi. This lake has an outlet

Figure 1.1 Map of Africa Figure 1.2 Map of Malawi

meters above mean sea level (m.a.m.s.) Nsanje in the South, while the highest habitable area is over 1600 meters a.m s.l, Dedza in the centre and Livingstonia in the North.

1.4. SEASONAL CHANGES.

There are basically four seasons, which can be identified. These seasons phase into each other and distinct changes are not easily perceptible at the beginning

and end of each season. The seasons can be classified as follows;

- Warm and Wet December - February.
- Wet and Cold March May.
- Cold and Dry June - August.
- Hot and Dry September November.

1.5 THE PEOPLE, POPULATION, AND ECONOMIC POTENTIAL The indigenous Malawian people have descended from a very old ethnic group in Central Africa (Pachai; 1967, Rangely; 1964). It has been reported in the

In the hot season air temperatures can be as high as 45°C in the low lying and semi-arid areas. In the high plateaux, air temperatures can be as low as 0°C during the cold season and frost is experienced in these areas (Climate Data tables of Malawi, Meteorological Department, 1982 extracts in appendix 1.2).

The climate falls between the Warm Humid and Warm Dry as classified by Van Straaten et al (1969). Some areas fit the Hot Dry desert climate and Tropical Upland Climate templates as classified by Atkinson; (1953). These temperature profiles necessitate heating (in the cold season; June to August) and cooling (in the hot season; September to December) of habitable areas.

1998 census that Malawi has a population of 9.8 million (Malawi Government

Census; 1998). Over 85% of these people live in rural areas. However, the rate

of migration towards the urban areas is increasing due to the unfavourable

economic pressures in the rural areas. It is further reported that over 87% of the

rural population are engaged in agricultural work. The economic growth is 3.1% (MYER; 1999), and the largest contributor to the GDP is agriculture at 37%, followed by distribution services at 24.2%, manufacturing at 13.4%, and government services at 9.5%. Certainly the economy of the country does not depend on industrial production.

The overall literacy rate of the country is 26% and it is estimated that 3.5 million

are economically active. Sixty four percent of the females are engaged in work compared to 67% of the male population (COMESUN; 1996). The problem is that most of the work is done by hand and therefore productivity is low. Imports exceed exports by 37%. Some of these items are in hi-technology areas and include air conditioning equipment for offices and homes. Some of these items could be proved unnecessary if buildings were constructed properly; incorporating the principles of passive design.

1.6 ENERGY SOURCES AND COST

The extremes of temperature cited in section 1.4; are outside the normal limits of thermal comfort for humans. Thermal Comfort studies conducted in Zambia; which is a neighbouring country to Malawi and a country of similar anthropological origin (Malama; 1998, Harris; 1974), have concluded that the Thermal Comfort range in Zambia is 23.5 to 28.5°C in the warm season. Although similar studies are yet to be done in Malawi; these ranges are likely to be similar to those in Zambia. This assumption then conveys the fact that there is a definite need for heating and cooling in the homes in the two seasons. This energy demand is met by biomass, which provides 93% of the national energy

demand; where 87% is from wood fuel and 6% is from Charcoal. The balance

of 5% comes from petroleum; 1% from coal and 1% from electricity (Kettle;

1991). The people who use air conditioning devices to cool their homes or

offices use some of this electricity. Again if a building is well designed this component of expenditure is not necessary.

The country has 164 MW of installed hydro electricity but the penetration is only 4%. A unit of electricity (I kWh) on Domestic Tariff sells at US\$ 0.02. Considering the per capita income of US\$140, electricity is not affordable to most of the people. The pattern of energy consumption published by the Electricity Supply Corporation of Malawi (ESCOM Reports, 1997,1998) show an increase in electricity consumption between May and August which is the cold season. This must obviously be caused by the need to heat homes water. This part is perhaps necessary however, during the warm moths people use air conditioning devices to cool the liveable environments. This latter part is not necessary and both the energy and the cost of the equipment could be saved.

Dodd reports that wood fuel consumption in Malawi is 4.05 $m³$ per family of five persons (Dodd; 1978). An official government document compiled in 1993

reports that the average per capita consumption had increased to 1.31 m^3 by that year (MOEM; 1993). The most common firewood trees are the Brachystegia, Eucalyptus and Pinus species which have calorific values of 20.26 MJ/Kg, 19.39 MJ/kg and 17.75 MJ/kg respectively. *Brachystegia* species are a typical hardwood with a low growth rate. Oppenshaw reports (Oppenshaw; 1981) that when wood fuel is used in homes, 35% of the energy is used for water heating. Kettle reports (Kettle; 1991) that 87% of the charcoal sold in the urban areas in Malawi, is used for space and water, heating. Most of the financially less able people in the urban areas use charcoal and firewood to heat water and warm the

homes in the cold season. Recent reports have stated that an urban dweller

consumes over twice the mount of wood fuel than the rural dweller. Most of the

charcoal is made from the indigenous trees because of the high calorific values. The Brachystegia species have some of the highest calorific values approaching

20.26 MJ/kg (FRIM; 1979). Calorific value in wood is a function of density of the wood and is directly proportional to that density.

Mkaonja reports that wood generation rate of indigenous trees in Malawi are 0.2 -3.1m³/hectare year (Mkaonja 1979). This explains the extensive deforestation being experienced in Malawi now. This means that the regeneration of wood per year of the indigenous species cannot support a family

in a year at the current rate of fuel wood consumption. In the urban areas,

offices are supplied with fans and electric heaters, or fitted with air conditioners.

Middle and upper income groups have air-conditioned houses; whenever this is

possible. Since the penetration of the electricity grid in Malawi is only four percent, the rest of the people have no access to electricity. It is acknowledged that domestic energy consumption; mainly for heating and cooling forms the biggest portion of the energy used in the home.

In Malawi houses require heating or cooling at the appropriate times of the year

to restore the fluctuating thermal balance. A number of homes use oil for heating and the oil is imported. For cooling, almost all financially able homes use mechanical cooling devices. These are that all imported. Both these requirements use considerable amounts of foreign exchange. The notion of spending energy at a considerable cost to cool or heat homes has to be questioned and alternatives must be explored.

A subtle point to appreciate here is that, while discomfort due to low temperatures can be resolved by simple methods such as clothing and heating,

the problem of high temperatures has no simple solution apart from the removal

of the clothing or applying air cooling devices. The inability to resolve the

thermal discomfort in Malawi may have negative economic consequences that

 $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$

are not yet being taken seriously.

1.7 BUILDING STYLES AND THERMAL COMFORT

Construction in Malawi has developed along the lines of a tradition that was introduced by the British in 1898 (Phiri, 1988, Clark 1996). From that date, generally to date; the popular building styles in urban areas are foreign. Majority of residential buildings in the peri urban areas and the countryside are constructed using indigenous technology that has developed over five hundred

years; (Cole; 1954). While the British influenced architecture has developed in urban areas and local centres, the vernacular architecture still thrives in the countryside.

The principal function of a house is to provide shelter but in the long term the house must be comfortable. One of the most important physiological criteria for comfort in a house is Thermal Comfort. Thermal Comfort is a function of solar irradiance as the main generator of ambient thermal energy. The solar energy induces a number of effects in the environment thus creating different climates

as modified by local geographical features. This climate, in turn, influences human thermal comfort in the environment.

In this work Thermal Comfort will be defined as "that condition of mind which expresses satisfaction with the thermal environment"; according to ASHRAE (Taki et al 1999).

Electricity consumption pattern shows increased energy demand between the months of. May and August when air temperatures are low. This is simple

evidence that thermal comfort is achieved by adding energy to the environment.

Fluctuation of room temperatures in homes could be minimized by careful

design of the buildings. In contrast, the experience by those who have lived in

both traditional and modem types of houses is that the former type of house is

thermally comfortable. It is also a fact that the traditional house costs less to construct and maintain than the modem house. Holm, (1995) reports that in his observation, modem and high cost housing in Southern Africa do not necessarily induce thermal comfort

It is argued in this presentation; that with careful design based on knowledge of passive design, resources that are spent to achieve thermal comfort in liveable

areas can be reduced. Passive design, techniques could be adopted from the vernacular buildings and then use these in modern buildings wherever it is possible. Energy saved from "domestic energy budget" can be directed to other sectors of development. A country's development is directly related to its per capita energy consumption (Saif-UI-Rehman; 1991).

1.8 OBJECTIVES OF CURRENT RESEARCH

The objectives in this research work are to investigate in building parameters and structural elements that moderate the effects of solar radiation on buildings

and consequently to promote thermal comfort. The specific objectives of this work are as follows:

1.8.1 To review literature and study some important parameters on thermal comfort and the condition that is associated with its causes and effects. This has been described in Chapter 2;

1.8.2 To review theories in this area, identify important areas, and compile parameters that govern thermal comfort as specifically applied to the conditions in Malawi. This has been done by reviewing the Thermal

> Comfort limits and conducting field surveys on hot bath/shower temperatures. These have been analysed and treated as dependants of air temperatures, to establish a Preferred Bath Water Temperature for Malawi. The preferred PBWT has been compared to the thermal

comfort temperatures as given by the Predicted Mean Vote (PMV) as published in ISO 7730. This has been done in Chapter 3;

1.8.3 To undertake a detailed analysis of meteorological data from all weather monitoring stations, filtering this data and confirm its reliability, analysing the pattern and distribution of solar radiation in Malawi and identify characteristic geographical zones and requirements for thermal comfort. This has been done in Chapter 4;

1.8.4 To undertake field studies of traditional houses in order to investigate the comparative thermal performance of common building types to establish relative thermal performance under typical solar radiation. This has been done in Chapter 5;

1.8.5 To undertake a detailed house survey to investigate the function of some design features in traditional buildings that contribute to thermal comfort. This has been done in Chapter 6.

1.8.6 To propose a design procedure that can be used by those persons in Malawi who are responsible for the designing the liveable environments and who can design buildings using the approach to improve thermal comfort. This has been presented in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 2

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 THE HUMAN BODY THERMAL BALANCE

The Thermal Comfort Criteria are considered here as a function of the sum of

the intrinsic body thermal energy and thermal energy gained from the environment. The body energy is generated by chemical processes in cells that break down ingested food and release energy forms that are required by the

body muscles, growth and replacement of body tissue. From a consideration of the First Law of thermodynamics namely that energy is always conserved irrespective of form. A simple thermal energy balance paradigm is presented in fig. 2.1.

Inputs Solar Radiation Chemical energy (from ingested food) Heat and Light from other fuel sources in the environment and home Λ \Box Human **Body** Output Thermal Energy (by Conduction Convection and radiation) Stored body energy as fat and tissue Excreta other body fluids

Physical and muscular

Figure 2.1 Thermal Energy Balance in the Body.

Figure 2.1 shows how the law of conservation of energy is upheld outline that; a energy audit of the body should show that the energy input into the body must balance with the sum of energy stored and extracted from the body. In reference to the thermal energy; this energy balance infers that the entropy of the body must not be altered.

The first law of thermodynamics in this particular case can be outlined in a very

simplified format as;

$$
Q_b = \sum_{i=1}^{n \to \infty} (Q_{L} \cdot Q_{N})
$$
 (2.1)
Q_n is the *n*th energy component in the body as heat, fat, tissue and all the heat in the body fluids and excreta.

A comfortable house must maintain a thermal balance; namely that the house must moderate and maintain a thermal balance required by the body to prevent the body from losing or gaining thermal energy and alter the balance. The most important measurable environmental parameters that cause this change are solar radiation, temperature, humidity, wind and precipitation (Givoni; 1969, Barrington 1962 and 1967). In liveable environments the thermal balance must be maintained. To maintain this state of balance, (Coveney, 1992) thermal

energy must be extracted out of the building or added to the building. Or the design of the building structure must be such that the natural thermal energy storage and exchange between the structure and the environment matches those rates that promote the thermal balance in the body.

Figure 2.2 The Thermal Balance System that Interacts with the Body

 (t_b, t_a, t_e) represent body, air, and environment temperatures respectively. Energy figures adapted from Hill et al, (1995) some extreme parts of the body can be at 5° C e.g. toe, cheek and ear when the internal organs are still at 37 $^{\circ}$ C)

Figure 2.2 presents an extended paradigm that shows the overall thermal balance

in the three domains; namely body, house, and environment. Of the three

domains, the home has the smallest tolerance range.

2.2 THE MEASUREMENT OF BODY THERMAL COMFORT

The subjective sensation of heat in the body is a common phenomenon. However, an objective method to establish cause and effect quantitatively has taken a long time to be understood scientifically and to be resolved. Literature shows that as early as 400 B.C; Hypocrites described the effects of climate on thermal comfort (Webb; 1959). McPherson reports; (1962) that Galileo in 1593,

attempted to determine temperature as an index of thermal sensation and that Benjamin Franklin in 1729, demonstrated rates of absorption of solar radiation by clothes of different colours. Franklin is probably; the first to demonstrate that thermal comfort is also a function of the type and colour of clothes; a rather subtle factor that can make that marginal difference on whether the body is kept warm or cold.

The problem of thermal sensation, in the course of time, has been resolved through two distinct approaches.

2.2.1 The approach to find an objective index for measuring body temperature is Thermal Index.

2.2.2. The approach to find a subjective index that measures body warmth

as a Thermal Comfort Index.

2.3 OBJECTIVE MEASUREMENT OF TEMPERATURE AS INDEX FOR THERMAL COMFORT

In the history of science, the problems of thermometry, calorimetry, and thermodynamics have been key areas for the advances in science in general, but

also in the furtherance of the deep understanding of dynamics of body thermal

energy in particular.
Relevant to the study of thermal energy in the human body, are the familiar Kirchoff, Kelvin, Plank, and Wiens laws of thermal transfers as reported by Hill (Hill et al; 1995) Emissive power from a black body

When power from a black is plotted as a function of wavelength, a characteristic curve is, and the sun emits power as black, a relationship is obtained where Wiens Displacement Law can be illustrated. Wiens Law states:

$$
\lambda_{\max} T = \text{Constant} \tag{2.2}
$$

= 2898 × 10⁻¹⁶ W⁻²

the body. The normal body temperature is 36.7° C while rectal temperature is 37^0 C, skin temperature is constantly at 35^0 C being the interface between the body and the environment.

The change of entropy of a body can be defined as;

$$
\delta S = \left(\delta Q \frac{1}{T}\right) \tag{2.3}
$$

Thermal changes in the body can be assessed through monitoring the temperatures. Givoni (1969) reports that body temperatures measured in the mouth and rectum can accurately represent the temperature of the core organs of

From this discussion it has been outlined that the normal inner body temperature is 37°C. In the review that follows in this work, numerous measurements and surveys have shown that generally, the common limits of *Thermal Comfort* vary between 18°C and 28°C.

From these facts, and if the body can be likened, theoretically, to a Carrot

engine, practical pieces of information emerge as follows:

2.3.1 The maximum wavelength (λ_{max}) of radiation emitted by the body at 35^oC

is 9410 nm; directly from the equation (2.2)

2.3.2 The theoretical efficiency (η_k) of the body (from the second first law) can

where the subscripts represent the absolute temperature in question

be evaluated as follows:

$$
\eta_{301} \, {}^{0}\mathrm{K} = 6.13\% \tag{2.4}
$$

 η_{291} °K=2.40% (2.5)

$$
\eta_{310} \, \, \mathrm{^0K}_{=0\%} \tag{2.6}
$$

As far as the objective measurements of temperature are concerned, and purely from a mechanical point of view at zero efficiency, the chemical processing mechanisms that constitute life should cease to work. Jones; (1973) reports that sweating ceases at 40.5°C, while death occurs at 43.5°C. This report directly supports the thermodynamic deduction that sweating as a mechanism to cool the

The Agreement Board of Republic of South Africa reported later in section 2.8 has recommended 30°C as the absolute maximum temperature for habitable areas (Wentzel et al, 1981). All these facts confirm the fact that the body can only function normally within a specific temperature range with minor adjustment to culture and geographical location of the subject.

body sets in at 25°C but the risk of death starts at 35°C (BRS 66).

2.4 THE PROBLEMS OF THERMAL COMFORT

In section 2.2, it has been shown that objective measurement can indicate upper temperature limits where the body ceases to function from a mechanical point of view. However, life as is known is reactive and humans survive, although for short periods; in temperatures higher than 70°C which is equivalent to 100°C radiant temperature (Budd et al, 1974 and Jones, 1973). As a demonstration of subjective experience on the inadequacy of temperature measurement to indicate

thermal "feeling", Ellis as reported by McPherson, (1962) wrote in 1758;

"The same thermometer I have had in equatorial parts of Africa at Jamaica and West India Islands and on examination of my journals I did not find that quick silver ever rose above the 87 and to that seldom. And yet I think I have felt those degrees with moist air more disagreeable than what I feel

This excerpt indicates the need for other methods for measuring the thermal "feeling" in the human body that cannot be detected by the dry bulb thermometer.

2.5 Thermal Indices and Measuring Devices.

The main temperature scales in common use are the Fahrenheit and Centigrade Scales. There are not less than nineteen thermal indices that have been developed in the course of time. It is important here to classify and briefly comment on their uses.

The main classifications can be listed as follows:

2.5.1 Those that measure the physical parameters in the environment.

2.5.2 Those that are based on the measurement of the physical strain caused by

the environment.

2.5.3 Those that are based on the resultant interaction of the body/environment

interface.

Tables 2.1 and 2.2 show summaries of thermal indices and their basic working principles. The author has observed that the measurement of the physical factors can only be done as accurately as the instruments can allow. However, the measurement of the factors in table 2.3, have the intrinsic problem of interpretation, lack of standardisation and vague limits of sensation.

Macpherson reports that work by Baurine de Saussure, as early as 1873; led to the perfection of an instrument to measure humidity. This work; Macpherson further reports, was later complemented by Lislie who devised the anemometer (Macpherson, 1962). Humidity and air movement are now known to be very important factors in thermal comfort assessment. The two inventions added a new dimension towards resolving the problem of quantifying thermal comfort.

2.6 Measurement of Subjective Warmth.

A number of factors that determine physiological thermal comfort have been reported, correspondingly there are a number of interventions that have been

devised to moderate different problems. For purposes of detailed discussion it is

necessary to classify these factors as;

- 2.6.1. Environmental factors;
- 2.6.2. Physiological factors;
- 2.6.3. Sociological factors.

Table 2.3 summarises specific effects of these factors and lists the selected references of previous work. Most of the detailed work on thermal comfort has been done in the temperate climate areas as reported by Winslow et al; (1937),

and Humphreys; (1975). This study draws some principles from these works but attempts to concentrate on literature that reports research work from the tropical areas where climatic conditions are similar to those experiences in Malawi.

£ \mathbf{r} Þ

 $\overline{1}$

Indices

 $\overline{2}$

The type of clothes can add to limits. This phenomenon is as in 2.3.2 above. It has also b that people from hot countries countries initially enjoy the co and can tolerate lower therma "uovelty"

opportunity for choice. Howe clothing regimes are not conv value of on the body. This fac certain working activity and c Heavy clothing on the body r body agility to make free mo

2.7 THE SUBJECTIVE SCALES OF THERMAL COMFORT

The subjective scale of Thermal Comfort was developed to accurately represent the human thermal sensation. There are two distinct lines of investigations. One line of investigation is the laboratory based as performed by Blagden (McPherson; 1962), Houghten et al; (1923), Givoni; (1969), Bedford; (1936), The other line of investigation is the field survey method; as performed by

McPherson; (1962), Ambler; (1966), and Webb; (1959), Hind marsh and McPherson; (1962), Budd et al; (1974), and Humphrey's; (1975).

The large number of indices used in assessing thermal comfort; now exceeding nineteen, demonstrates the immense difficulty that exists in standardising subjective scales. Even for the same scaling format the ASHRAE, CIBSE, and the ISO 7730 do not agree Humphrey's (1975) rates Air Temperature; (AT) as the simplest index to use when the differences between air temperature and radiant temperature are less than $2^{\circ}C$ and air speed < 0.2 ms⁻¹. Given; (1969). rates Effective Temperature (ET) (Yaglou; 1947) which is the temperature derived after taking into account the effect of humidity and air velocity, as one

Humphrey's (1975) has critically examined the techniques used to derive parameters of thermal comfort. His report indicates that data collection and analysis, of the results can be grouped into two types of scales. The two groups are; the symmetrical as in the Bedford and the ASHRAE scales, and the asymmetrical scales as in the Ambler, Grooms, and the Sharma scales. Typical scales are presented in table 2.3 including their numerical designations.

of the least reliable in predicting the expected physiological and sensory

response. Wentzel et al; (1981), reports that the Corrected Standard Effective

Temperature (CET) and the Standard Effective Temperature (SET) are more useful in evaluating thermal environments.

Humphrey's has conducted a detailed comfort scales correlation analysis of fifteen indices and reports that it was not possible to compare the performance of each index relative to the other. The study excluded CET and SET scales. The results the analysis showed that while the Air Temperature correlation with thermal comfort was 0.52, the Equatorial Comfort Index (described below) had a correlation of 0.48. This suggests that either of the indices would give satisfactory results for purposes of analysing a tropical environment. A similar conclusion is reached by Woodlard who has conducted a multi-regression analysis of five of these indices, namely; Air temperature, Globe temperature, Heat Stress Index, Index of Thermal Stress and Corrected Effective Temperature (Woodlard; 1981). However, it is appreciated here that each one of the indices has been developed to indicate specific information in a given situation. And all indices and scales attempt to evaluate the physiological conditions and sensory

response of a person on thermal comfort in the areas of temperature sensation, thermal discomfort and thermal effects on health.

2.8 TOOLS IN USE FOR PREDICTING THERMAL COMFORT

The depth of the problem and intricacy of the arguments to accurately determine Thermal Comfort are evidenced in the variety of assessment tools that have been developed. These are as follows:

2.8.1 Predictive Equations. In this group are numerous equations such as those

developed by Vincent (1890), Du Bois and Du Bois; (1916), Ambler

(1955) Webb (1959); Givoni; (1969) Humphrey's; (1975), and Wentzel et

al; (1981).

2.8.2 Charts and Monograms. In this group commonly known as bio climatic charts, are included those developed by Houghton et al; (1923), Aglow (1947), Misheard as reported by Givoni, (1969), Olglay, (1963) and the Equatorial Comfort Index (BRS 66). The charts use the environmental factors, namely dry bulb, wet bulb, radiant temperature, and air velocity. Other calculated and observed conditions include metabolic rates and levels of clothing

2.8.3 Vote Count Distribution. These include the Bedford scale, (1936) the Ambler scale; (1955), and the Humphrey's; (1975) scale based on neutral zone, and as adopted by the CIBSE and also as accepted by the ISO, as ISO 7730.

The vote count scales are based on subjects' responses to questions put to them on how comfortable they feel in given thermal environments. By plotting the votes through a range of temperatures from low to high relative to body temperature, a neutral zone is determined where 80-100% of the subjects feel comfortable. Although the vote scales are the closest method to describe the subjective feeling, the problems of lack of thresholds still do exist. Some of these scales match subjects' feelings but even then, specific feelings or sensations are not the same for different people.

The units of these scales are not absolute and are only relative. The Webb scale (1959) has nine points and is classified as symmetrical. The Ambler Scale (1955) has seven points and is classified as asymmetrical. The Goromosov scale

has four points only and is asymmetrical (Humphreys; 1975). The Bedford

scale (1936); when rearranged to make level vote count four as a neutral point,

are symmetrical

Koch et al (1960) report on a six point linear scale that describes perspiration but do not describe how this scale could be equated or compared to similar scales that measure body heat stress such as the H.S.I and the Index of ITS. Other scales shown in Table 2.3. Generally these scales describe the feeling but are not in themselves quantitative.

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Table 2.4

Symmo

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SYMMETRICAL SCA
Bedford scale (1936

(1959) scale Ambler

It is noted that Koch et al ;(1960) have introduced yet another term. This term is Pleasantness. The author classifies this as a tertiary scale after the scales measured by instruments and the neutral temperature ranges deduced from vote counts. The scale of Pleasantness brings in the psychological state of mind superimposed on the physiological state. The experience may be subjectively easy to describe but it would not be easy to share the experience of each description. If culture is considered as an influential factor then the problem

becomes more complicated. Ahamed working with his colleagues states that, "culture and sensation affect people's description of sensation and not sensation itself."

In 1949-1950; Webb collected a lot of data while in Singapore and derived an equation that predicts Thermal Comfort Temperature (t_{tc}) approximated to

developed the Singapore Index. It is not very sensitive to thermal sensory perception and has a very narrow range. From this Singapore index the Equatorial Comfort Index monogram was developed and published as BRS No.66.

$$
t_{\rm tc} = \frac{1}{2} (t_{\rm a} - t_{\rm w}) - \frac{1}{4} V^{\frac{1}{2}} \qquad (2.7)
$$

Equation (2.8) was developed through using male subjects, from that, Webb

This monogram takes into account the climatic conditions of typical tropical country climates such as that of Malawi. This scale is useful for assessing buildings in the tropical countries in order to determine how to achieve thermal

comfort.

Using the concepts of neutral zone as adopted by the CIBSE ; (1988) and the

ISO 7730; (1994) recommends the comfort vote distribution diagram as a basis

for assessing thermal comfort. The ISO standard recommends thermal comfort ranges of 20-24°C and 23.0-26°C for winter and summer respectively. Humphrey's; (1975), after a rigorous analysis of a large number of thermal comfort temperature ranges, suggested the following equation:

$$
t_n = 2.56 + 0.831t_m \qquad (2.8)
$$

Considering that, in all the neutral zone scales analysed, the common temperature range for adults was 4 deg C, equation (2.9) is modified to;

$$
\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A})
$$

$$
R_m = 0.64 + 0.25 t_n - 0.208 t_m
$$
 (2.9)

This form of the equation is convenient for immediate practical use since it is possible to vary at will, during the building design process. Using this equation in conjunction with others can lead to accurate predictions of indoor temperatures of a building at the design stage.

2.9 THERMAL COMFORT IN WORKING CONDITIONS THAT INVOLVE STRENUOUS PHYSICAL WORK

Equations 2.9 and 2.10 are all assuming sedentary subjects where the metabolic rate M <100 watts. In order to cover working environments the Agreement Board of South Africa (Wentzel et al; 1981) have recommended the use of SET in warm environment. The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) of South Africa defines neutral temperature as;

"The temperature of a sea level isotherm environment at 50 per cent relative humidity, air movement 0.1 $-$ 0.15 ms, in which a sedentary occupant at a metabolic rate of 1.1 met (64 $Wm⁻²$) wearing clothing of an insulation value of 0.6 Clo,) would exchange the same amount of heat at the same mean skin temperature and skin-wetness as observed in the

actual environment and actual clothing under consideration ".

The SET just like the ITS evaluated by Givoni; (1969) takes into account of radiation. However, the parameters used in SET and ITS are not easily

measurable but the indices are useful for factory type of work where it is necessary to monitor physiological stress.

2.10 THERMAL COMFORT AND RISK TO HEALTH

Thermal balance equations are based on the fact that the body thermal balance must be maintained at all times if the body is to function normally. Andersen; (1968) reports that mental deterioration of acclimatised persons start at 30°C

while a temperature of 27^oC was found to cause impairment in learning in school pupils. Human efficiency (thinking and finger dexterity) is maximised within the thermal comfort zone. It is therefore very important to note that these tools for assessing thermal comfort have made it possible for environments to be reviewed and predictions made whether an environment would promote efficiency in human physiological activities or would put health at risk. Andersen also reports and admits that, a low temperature limit at which harmful and irreversible physiological changes would occur is yet to be agreed by researchers in this field.

2.11 EVALUATION OF THE DATA REPORTED IN THIRTY SIX REFERENCES

Temperature data published in thirty-six references on the subject of thermal comfort were analysed. These data included medians and ranges of thermal comfort temperatures. Most of the data quoted in literature is from either temperate or humid climate countries. Nonetheless it was felt that a detailed analysis of these data could reveal some very useful information that can support this work. The data has been statistically analysed to show the distribution of the frequency (f) occurrence of the preferred comfortable temperatures. As

shown on the table, each temperature was entered separately as a frequency

occurrence. Fractions of a degree are rounded off to the nearest whole number.

In all there were 262 temperatures points entered. The results of the analysis from figure 2.3 that are worthy noting are as follows.

> Mean Temperature 21.7°C Standard deviation 7 Median 22 °C Minimum Temperature 11°C and

Maximum Temperature 33°C

The minimum and maximum temperatures reported werel1°C and 33°C. These are included in the analysis. From figure 2.3, the highest frequency of 26 occurs at 23-24 $^{\circ}$ C. If in general the width of the comfort zone is deg $^{\circ}$ C difference, as observed by Humphreys; (1975), and a temperature mean of 22°C are adopted then, the neutral zone across these countries is 20° C 24° C. Inese temperatures are within the limits as proposed by the ISO 7730 and the limits reported by Malama; (1998).

This temperature range agrees with the observations made by Andersen (1968) where some countries in Europe have made it mandatory that the thermal comfort limits must be $18^{\circ}C \le t_{\alpha} + \Delta$ temp $\le 22^{\circ}C$. In this case the term Δ temp represents the incremental temperature difference between the air temperature and the upper limit of the thermal comfort. The literature survey includes countries in temperate climate, humid climate, and warm climates. Andersen emphasises that for interhuman and intrahuman reactions on static and dynamic conditions, the acceptable medic-hygienic limits must be 20-22°C

Authors gn

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Vario $\overline{ }$ $\overline{26}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{21}$ 25 26 $\overline{24}$ \mathbf{B} 26 23 reported 24 $\overline{22}$ $\overline{}$ $\overline{21}$ \sim 20 $\overline{20}$ $\overline{6}$ $\overline{19}$ $\overline{}$ S $\overline{\mathbf{S}}$ $\overline{18}$ \blacktriangleleft $\overline{}$ Ranges $\overline{ }$ \overline{r} ╼ $\sum_{i=1}^{n}$ ष $\overline{}$ ϵ $\overline{5}$ ⊢ $\overline{4}$ $\tilde{5}$ omfort ⊢ $\overline{5}$ ϵ ⊢ $\overline{12}$ \sim \sim $^{\rm +}$ **The Contract of the Contract** .

Table 2.5

rma Ther

RECORDED TEMPERATURE POINTS (Deg C)

Figure 2.3 A graph of Calculated Frequency Distribution of the Comfort Temperatures as Abstracted from Table 2.4.

Malama conducted his vote count of thermal comfort work in Zambia; a country which shares a common border with Malawi and lies almost within the same latitudes. The people of the two countries have the same ancestral origin. This eliminates the factors of differences in geographical, climatic and cultural differences. The conclusion in Malama's work is perhaps a result that would be closest and suitable for application in Malawi, if the vote count exercise and an ý_Froyy l 35

analysis were to be carried out to compare the results.

2.12 DETAILED EVALUATION OF SELECTED BASIC THERMAL COMFORT CRITERIA

2.12. lThe Role of the skin as an interface and the Surface Area of the Body In this entire quest for a method to quantify the thermal comfort feeling, the aim was to come up with an easy but repeatable method of measurement. Unfortunately the criterion of Thermal Comfort is a function of subjectivity. The definition spelled out by ASHRAE includes ".... state of mind... " whereas the definition by the CSIR makes it very abstract and not user friendly as a reference standard.

However, there are a few formulae that have enabled workers in this field to identify the role of the various factors that contribute to Thermal Comfort. It is necessary to discuss these briefly.

Ambler (1955) formulated an empirical formula for Effective Temperature as

follows;

$$
t_{\rm cf} = t_{\rm w} + \left(\frac{t_{\rm a} - t_{\rm w}}{3}\right) + A_{\rm x} \tag{2.10}
$$

In this formula and as suggested by Houghten and Yagloglou (1923) the factor of atmospheric water pressure is taken into account indirectly by the use of t_w . However, in this equation, radiant heat from the surroundings is completely ignored.

The ambler equation was later modified to take into account of radiant heat.

This is the Equivalent Temperature t_{eq} . An empirical equation is reported as $\text{follows: } t_{eq} = 0.522t_{\text{a}} + 0.478t_{\text{w}} 0.1474\sqrt{A_Y(100-1)}$ (2.11)

Ambler reports that the neutral temperature is different during sleep and is also different amongst races. This brings in the aspect of body surface and exposure. Bedford reports (1936) that the metabolism is high at low temperatures and is low at high temperatures. This observation agrees with that of Ambler but the commonality might lie in the need to consider size of a person, and whether the body is exposed or not.

The idea of heat loss implicitly brings in the effect of surface area of the body. Both Humphrey (1970) and Bedford quote the Dubois Equation of surface areas where if a persons body surface are (A_b) can be calculated from;

$$
A_b = W_b^{0.423} \times H_b^{0.732} \, 0.2024 \tag{2.12}
$$

Bedford (1936) also reports the Vincent Equation (1890); that considered the actual temperature of the skin and formulated an equation as follows

$$
t_s = 26.5 + 0.3t_s + 0. t_r - 1.2 A_z
$$
 (2.13)

The equation is one of the most earliest and comprehensive. Although this equation was not popular the missing factor that led to the correction of the Effective Temperature to Equivalent Effective temperature had already been taken into account. However, the Vincent formula ignored the partial water pressure in the atmosphere.

The problem in this search for an index for thermal comfort lay on the relationship of the measurable air, body and radiant temperatures, and wind speed to the subjective feeling. Bedford (1936) extended his analysis and

derived two simple regression equations as follows;

$$
t_b = 0.399t_a + 29.22
$$
 (2.14)

$$
t_b = 0.399t_a + 0.363t_w + 25.76
$$
 (2.15)

These can be viewed as purely mechanical and would perhaps not be very useful in assessing thermal comfort over the range of a living subject since they do not show any limiting factors. At high temperatures there would be not any body temperatures worthy talking about. The subject would have since died of the heat! However the two equations can be combined and the body temperature can

be given in terms of t_w only.

2.12.2 Simplicity of Scales.

A great deal of rationalisation and simplification of the scales of thermal comfort can be attributed to work by Bedford (1936), McPherson (1962) and Humphrey (1975). Bedford was the first to propose the seven point subjective scale that is in use by the ASHRAE. He also derived an equation that relates the subjective scale (S) to the air temperature, mean surrounding temperature, and

air speed. His original equation is as follows;

$$
S_k = 11.16 - 0.0556t_a - 0.0538t_w - 0.372p + 0.00144\sqrt{A_r(100 - t_a)}
$$
 (2.16)

The subjective scale assess the severity of discomfort reported by persons as count votes under negative or positive thermal stress. In this context the zero point is regarded as a neutral temperature where 80-100% persons would report that they are comfortable. On each end of the scale the extreme (cold or hot) is represented by a value of 3. Both Bedford (1936) and Humphrey (1975) have carried out correlation exercises comparing the popular temperature indices

against the vote count scale. In each case the Equivalent Temperature was

found to be the best with a correlation of 0.52. Although the equation

incorporates all of the important parameters that are reputed to be factors of

thermal comfort the close fit on a scale of -1 to $+1$ is still only 0.52 of the causal relationship; in this case between the vote count and the Equivalent Temperature are not completely satisfactory.

scale, the Predicted Mean Vote (PMV) and the Predicted Percentage Dissatisfied (PPD) have been developed as design tools. Recent work (Hessian et al; 2002) has shown that using the relevant parameter levels that relate to the various PMV points, as a rational assessment of the thermal comfort conditions in an experiment can successfully be undertaken. For example it has been shown that window orientations of a building model can to give best ventilation or high PMV; on a scale of 1-7, when the windows are wind facing.

2.12.3 Extended use of the Vote Count Scale

The Vote Count approach has been accepted by both ASHRAE and CIBSE. However, taking a vote count for design purposes would be tedious. These

> for old buildings and $AW = 0.22t - 4.23$ (2.18)

In another assessment (Taki et al 2002) the PMV, the assessment method was

renamed as Actual Mean Vote (AMV) and was used to assess the thermal comfort in new and old buildings in Libya. In this most recent work the following equations make an interesting result.

 $AWV = 0.6t_a - 14.97$ (2.17)

for new buildings

These formulae show that people felt comfortable in old buildings at higher temperatures while the same conditions were achievable at lower temperatures

in new buildings. The new buildings in this particular were air-conditioned. These observations agree with those of De Dear and Auliciems (1988) and as shown on table 3.3; that in air-conditioned rooms people's neutral temperatures

shift to the lower temperatures. This can mean a higher cost due to the large amount of thermal energy that has to be extracted in order to bring the temperatures down to the required temperatures.

2.12.4 The Adaptive Thermal Comfort Approach

The adaptive Thermal Comfort Model is a relatively new approach. In the authors view, it represents level 4 of search for Thermal Comfort Index. Briefly

- Level 1 Instrumentation such as thermometers and hygrometer etc.
- Level 2 Analytical charts, monograms and regression equations. In this group are the bio climatic charts, including the widely used Psychometric chart.
- Level 3 the PMV and PPD scaling methods.
- Level 4 The Adaptive Thermal Comfort Models (ATCM).

"If a change occurs that produces discomfort, people will tend to act to restore their comfort."

the progress in Thermal Comfort Indexing can be categorised as follows;

Humphrey cites the Adaptive Principle as;

This approach appears to overcome the problems that have been exhibited in the correlation scales. The correlations of the ATCM with subjects comfort of course appears to be better than all the others discussed in levels 1 to 3.

There may be still a few problems with the ATCM. For example if a specific

place is uncomfortable rather than do something to the cause, the subject moves

to a location where the effect of that cause is absent. However, since this

approach is based on the subject's own reactions then the approach is practical and is useful.

It has been observed that the neutral temperature zone changes with time of the day (Ambler, 1966), season (Hindmarsh and McPherson; 1962), and even with the weather of the day (Ambler, 1955). From this body of information, it would seem that charting a comfort zone as constant throughout the year as is the case

by Koenigsberger et al; (1974), could be misleading. It is more accurate to state that the comfort range temperatures are lower (cooler) in winter and at night than in summer and during the day. Therefore the neutral temperature would tend to vary with the subjects anticipation for better and balanced thermal conditions in the environment. This observation is supported by computation (Ahmed et al, 1990) where data from Dakhar in Bangaladesh; which is a tropical country, was used. It may be said that there is no such a thing as "Optimum Thermal Comfort Temperature"; (Humphrey and Nicol 1970). The terms that will be used in the current studies are Neutral Zone of 4 deg °C

differences and the Thermal Comfort Range as the general range between the minimum and maximum reported Comfortable Temperature Ranges namely 11-33 °C. Thus the Neutral Zone is taken as 4 deg \degree C and the Comfortable Temperature Ranges is 22 deg C.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.1. SOLAR RADIATION, ITS TERRESTRIAL DISTRIBUTION, AND PATTERN.

Almost all the thermal energy on earth except nuclear and chemical energy originates from the sun. The sun located on one of the arms of the Milkyway

galaxy at a distance of 1.496 x 10^8 Km holds the key to life as we know it on earth. It is a star classified as type dG2 on the astronomical scale and is 4.5 billion years old (Calder; 1969, Halacy; 1980) and radiates energy in the form of waves; radio, infra-red rays, ultra-violet rays, X-rays and gamma-rays and matter; primary cosmic rays, and neutrinos. The sun radiates the energy with a typical profile of a black body at 6000°K, as deduced from Abbots work, (Chandrasekhar; 1994, Coulson; 1975), peaking at the visible range of 350mn 850nm (Sayigh; 1979), with an energy intensity of 2.6 $Wcm⁻²$ nm⁻¹. Out of 3.8x10²³ kW of energy radiated out by the sun, the earth intercepts $1.7x10^{14}$ kW only. This is the energy that generates life on earth but also causes thermal discomfort wherever the ambient temperature is higher than the body temperature. Naturally ventilated and comfortable buildings are only those that incorporate structural features that are specifically designed; either intuitively or through simulation and laboratory work to mitigate the effects of this radiation.

The earth's thermal balance is maintained due to its axial rotation and its inclination at $66\frac{1}{2}$ to the plane of its solar orbit. The solar constant is 1353

Wm⁻² (Kondratyev; 1972, Sayigh; 1979) but attenuated by atmospheric constituents including the length of the optical path or air mass (Coulson; 1975), aerosols (Elhadid and Shaahid; 1994), solar zenith, atmospheric

3.2 THE IRRADIANCE ON THE EARTH'S SURFACE

turbidity; (Moseley et al 1999), cloud cover (Udo and Aro; 1999), and terrestrial conditions, (Samimi; 1994, Ertekin and Yaldtz; 1999).

These factors can be grouped into three areas namely:

- 3.2.1 Astronomical factors; which include solar distance inclination and zenith;
- 3.2.2 Atmospheric factors; which include air mass, water vapour, dust, particles and aerosols; and

3.2.3 Terrestrial factors that include altitude and ground albedo. Generally the extraterrestrial solar intensity is reduced to 70 per cent by the time it reaches the earth's surface (Jones; 1973). The intensity characteristics follow the Bouguer - Lambert Law which for a plane parallel and horizontal atmosphere can be written as;

$$
I_{\lambda} = I_{\text{OA}} \exp(-\tau_{\lambda} \sec \alpha_{z})
$$
 (3.1)

If the optical thickness of the atmosphere is defined from any height Z, equation 3.1 can be modified to read

$$
\tau(\lambda, Z) = \int_{z}^{\infty} \beta(\lambda, Z) \delta Z
$$
 (3.2)

Where $\beta(\lambda Z)$ is an attenuation coefficient which is a function of both λ and Z .

Considering that the attenuation is true absorption and scattering (Mier and Raleigh Scatters; Coulson; 1975), the attenuation can be summed as;

$$
\beta = \beta_{a} + \beta_{a} \tag{3.3}
$$

where the subscripts s and a represent scattering and absorption.

The degree of attenuation depends on the optical path length as defined by the

angle of solar incidence (α_z) , and the type and density of the aerosols, gases

and water vapour present, in the atmosphere.

3.3 INCIDENT SOLAR RADIATION, ITS COMPONENTS, AND MEASUREMENT

There are a number of standard equations used for calculating solar irradiance. One of these which is recommended by the ASHRAE is given as $I_t = A / \exp(B / \sin \alpha)$ (3.4)

Fig. 3. IThe Constants Used to Evaluate Solar Radiation (from Jones; 1963)

The total radiation (I) reaching earth's surface can also be estimated by

$$
\mathbf{I}_{t} = \mathbf{I} \cos \alpha + \mathbf{I}_{d} + \mathbf{I}_{r} \qquad (3.5)
$$

The A.S.H.R.H.E. Guide evaluates I_d and I_r as

$$
I_{d} + I_{r} = CI F_{s} + \rho I(C + \sin \alpha) F_{g}
$$
 (3.6)
Where C varies throughout the year as in figure 3.1
Usually
$$
F_{g} = 0.5 (I \cos \psi)
$$
 (3.7)

Where ψ is the angle of tilt to the horizontal surface;

and $F_s = 1 - F_g$ when the surface in question is directly exposed to

the radiation from the ground.

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46

$6f$ values the Constants for Determining
(3.4 and.(3.6)

The reflected radiation is mainly long wave radiation of $\lambda \geq 3000$ nm; (Sayigh; 1979) and this long wave radiation. For thermal comfort under a shade where; I cos $\alpha \approx 0$ the sum of $I_d + I_r$ should not exceed the metabolic rate if the body has to remain at a state where it will be emitting the excess heat. In other words the body has to continue to emit radiation to maintain the comfort balance by getting rid of waste thermal energy. The wavelength of the radiation from the

surrounding environment must then be $\lambda \geq 9410$ nm as predictable by equation

2.3. This would be a condition where a breeze in the shade restores the body to

thermal equilibrium. This happens the in the tropics.

3.3.1 The Direct Beam, Diffuse and Reflected Radiation

The solar radiation has three components namely *direct* beam, *diffuse* and the reflected components. These are related to each other as follows.

$$
I_t = I_d + I_f + I_r \tag{3.8}
$$

It is relatively easy to measure the global solar radiation using a number of instruments. The global radiation in Malawi has been evaluated from data recorded on Gunn Bellman Spherical pyranometer and the Campbell Stokes Sunshine Recorders. However, in practice the direct beam can also be determined by subtraction using the relationship in equation 3.7; and the reflected component is less than 10% and in most instances this component is so small that it can be ignored. In lowland areas in Malawi and in the dry season, the reflected component can be high. This would be due to the ground albedo that increases, as the ground gets bare of vegetation. Consequently the long

wave contribution increases.

3.3.2 Diffuse Component

The diffuse radiation is not directional. Valko conducted a number of measurements of the diffuse radiation at different horizontal angles of mounted solarimeters and established a relationship between diffuse radiation and global radiation (Valko; 1968). The relationship is presented as follows; $I_c = \cos^{-2} \alpha_i / 2I_f + \sin^{-2} \alpha_i / 2A_2 I_t$ (3.9) $A₂$ is equal to 0.2; and

The diffuse radiation is predominantly short wave in the bandwidth 115 \leq 2000nm. (Sayigh; 1979). Van Deventer and Dold (1964) report that vertical surfaces receive short wave radiation that includes the ground reflected radiation. It is therefore important to note that the ground reflection can contribute to high temperatures in the shade of a building. This confirms the general observation that during a strong sunny day, a bare ground in front of a verandah "feels" hot.

Measurement of the diffuse component of the solar radiation is not easy. However, work by (Liu and Jordan, 1960) established formulae that are useful

component to the global radiation. A table of a, b, and $(a + b)$ to indicating how these constants vary in different countries is shown in table 3.1.

for calculating the solar radiation on a horizontal surface, the magnitude of the diffuse component, and the clearness index of the sky. Further work by others; (Mason 1966, Reindl *et al*; 1980, Gopinathan; 1990,1992, Chen *et al*; 1993, Ideriah *et al*, 1989, Chandrasekaran and Kumar; 1994, Kudish and Ianet; 1993, Karapantsios et al; 1999, Maduekwe and Garba et al; 1999, Soler et al; 1999, Feuillard *et al*; 1989, Camps and Soler 1992 and Ashjaee *et al*; 1993), show that these formats of formulae can be used for evaluating the diffuse component including clearness indices. Hinrichsen; (1994), has shown that in equation (3.9) discussed below, the constant a is actually the ratio of the diffuse component to the global radiation while the b(s/S) is the ratio of the direct

 $\frac{6}{5}$

that all the constants reported for Malawi are within this range as reported by

While these empirical relationships can give a fairly accurate level of diffuse radiation if it is required, they can also be used to indicate the clearness of the local sky.

$$
I_{d}/I_{o} = \alpha
$$
 (3.10)
 $I_{d}/I_{o} = b(s/S)$ (3.11)

In this statement the reflected radiation is ignored. Most authors treat the diffuse component as isotropic. Others still treat it as anisotropic. In either case the results do not show big differences.

Moseley et al; (1993) report that; although cloud cover can reduce global radiation by 15 per cent, it increases the diffuse component by 30 per cent. Diffuse radiation as short-wave radiation, is very prone to scatter by the Raleigh and Mier scatters (Coulson; (1975). However, in the shade of a house, the verandah, short wave radiation from the sky seen from the verandah and as a component of the total, can cause the discomfort if the total irradiance value of diffuse and reflected components exceeds that emitted by the body through its metabolic rate.

Long wave radiation is defined as $\lambda \geq 3000$ nm and is non directional. Where a surface, can 'see' another surface, long wave radiation is exchanged until equilibrium in thermal energy level is established (Duffie and Beckman; 1974). Udo and Aro; (1999) report that long wave radiation can contribute to the global value by 9.9% in summer and up to 7% in winter. This agrees with the observation recorded in section 3.3 above. It has been discussed in section 2.2.4; that short wave radiation influences the air temperature in the shade of a house. If the sum of the diffuse radiation and the reflected radiation exceeds the metabolic

3.3.3 The Reflected Component

rate, then the body would gain heat due to the absence of a cold sink. This results in body thermal discomfort. This is a typical case where it would be best to use

global temperature as an index to evaluate the prevalent comfort conditions.

3.4. ASSESSMENT AND MEASUREMENT OF SOLAR RADIATION IN MALAWI

3.4.1 Global Radiation

Baker; (1959) analysed three years solar radiation data recorded in Central Africa using the Angström formula. This formula is of the general form;

The solar measuring instruments in Malawi were originally set up on Agricultural Research Stations. Out of the nineteen stations, one station has data taken for six years, three stations have data taken for nine years and the rest of the stations have data taken from more than ten years.

$$
I_t/I_o = a + b \quad (s/S)
$$
 (3.9)

Vernon; (1965), reports results of a detailed study of solar radiation that included eleven stations in Malawi. The results of the two studies established a precursor of the formula that is now being used by Meteorological Department

It has been reported in recent literature that the form of the Angström formula is too simplistic. A number of workers have generated different versions of this formula to explicitly indicate its usefulness (Feuillard et al, Coppoline; 1989, Gueymard et al 1992, Garrison and Adler 1992, Hinirichen; 1994, Abdel Wahab; (1993), Lewis; 1989, Haluan et al 1993, Frangi et al; 1992 and Yeboah et al ; 1990). Many researchers have examined differed regimes of solar radiation (Hans

Barker Eqn., (1959)

\n
$$
I_{t} = I_{0} 0.32 + 0.47 \text{(s/S)}
$$
\nCal cm⁻² day⁻¹ (3.10)

\nVernon Eqn., (1963)

\n
$$
I_{t} = I_{0} 0.316 \text{Cos } L + 0.52 \text{(s/S)}
$$
\nCal cm⁻² day⁻¹ (3.11)

et al, Kambezidis et al,; 1994, Anguir et al 1992, Ertchin and Yaldtz; 1999,

Molineaux and Inecichen; 1996). In the author's view these other versions may be

of academic interest but they do not give results with better accuracy than the original Angstrom formula.

Radiation data calculated using the Ångström formula; as adopted by the Meteorological Department in Malawi, was compared with data recorded on an Eppley Pyranometer from the same station (Zingano; 1986). The results were within 10% difference. However, there were slight variations in the values of constants a and b. These constants have already been referred to, in table 3.1. The table contrasts the Malawi constants with those from other countries. These constants are not exactly constant throughout the year. However, the long-term

averages have been found to give reliable results. Some of the limitations to accuracy stem from the fact that the sunshine recorders themselves require minimum irradiance threshold of 50-Watts $m²$ to burn the sensitive paper that is used to record the intensity of the radiation (Samimi; 1994).

The Meteorological" Department in Malawi has now installed modem Kipp Zonen solarameters in some of the stations. However, due to the proven accuracy of the data derived from the Angstrom formula, it has become acceptable to use data from both sources as equivalent. In this work it will not be necessary to identify

the method that was used to record the data on each location.

3.5 EFFECTS OF SOLAR RADIATION ON THERMAL COMFORT. The effect of solar radiation on a building is discernible by the increase of the fabric temperature (Gupter; 1985), Ashley and Reynolds 1994, Bansal et al 1993, Garge and Gupta, 1986). The reradiated energy from the fabric affects the

occupants. However, for human thermal comfort and efficiency at work in the absence of any localised thermal radiation (McIntyre; 1977) the resulting temperature must be within the range $ZZ -$ 26°C as deduced from the analysis in

A number of natural phenomena can be exploited to optimise indoor air velocities

in order to achieve thermal comfort and it is the air velocity that lowers radiant

temperature. These include proper orientation, usage of wind towers/catchers, and 53

channelling of incoming air over water, (Bansal et al; 1988), ventilating the underside of the house (building on platform) (Garg and Oreszcezyn; 1994). Air velocity cools an environment by creating a thermal gradient as long as the air temperature is lower than the skin temperature. This process removes the energy from the skin and therefore allowing more energy from the inner body to come to the skin zone thereby creating the cooling effect. These techniques promote evaporation and convection and thereby cooling the body to its normal temperature. Since the body produces its own heat, and if it has to dissipate this

The human body loses thermal energy in three ways (Du Bois and Du Bois Bedford; 1936 CIBSE; 1998). Yaglou and Drinker, 1929, Jones; 1973) as follows: Radiation 45%

heat, there has to be cold sink. These natural phenomena create that sink.

3.5.1 Processes of Energy Loss From the Body

cooling effect. It is quite clear that the higher the difference between p_w and p_s . the larger is the cooling effect. This is one phenomenon that can be exploited when locating a building and deciding where to put the window openings.

Thermal balance in the body is given as

$$
M - W = E + R + C + S \tag{3.12}
$$

The cooling on the body is a result of evaporation of sweat. For a transverse flow, the rate of evaporation E_v is given as

$$
E_V = (0.0187 + 0.1614 V)(p_w - p_s)W m^2
$$
 (3.13)

This equation is very illustrative. Thus the higher the air velocity the higher is the

Evaporation of water from the body is not dependent on the air temperature but on

the air vapour pressure (Givoni; 1969). Givoni has derived practical equations that

illustrate this fact clearly;

$$
R_b = 22(t_w - t_s)
$$
 (3.14)
\n
$$
C_b = 2 V^{0.5} (t_a - t_s)
$$
 (3.15)

The effect of wind on thermal comfort is considerable. Wind velocity has the effect of lowering the radiant temperature in the immediate environment. Adarve et al; 1988 report that in natural ventilation 40-50% of the external wind speed can be achieved indoor with the right window openings that allow laminar air flows. These openings would have to be such that as when the open area ≥ 0.33 of the

and
$$
E_{b_{max}} = 10 V^{0.4} (p_s - p_a)
$$
 (3.16)

area of the enclosing side. To achieve the same effect, mechanical devices can be

used to condition the air in the immediate environment. However, the latter

method is very unsustainable and not accessible to everybody in Malawi.

Air conditioning involves lowering the temperature of incoming air and reducing its moisture content so that the air has a high capacity to extract heat from the enclosure or environment (Hoogendoorn and Afgan; 1978). This function can be performed mechanically but it has the problems of high cost and has negative psychological impact on occupants. A number of reports have called this effect of air conditioned buildings on people as the `sick building syndrome' Hounam; (1980), De Dear and Aulcieums; (1986).

3.6 BUILDING STRUCTURES AND ENVIRONMENTAL THERMAL CONDITIONS

Mechanical devices can maintain thermal comfort temperature in a building but the running cost can be high. It is reported that air conditioning can cost up to 30% of the building cost (Szokolay; 1976, Turner and Szokolay; 1985) and up to 40% of the annual running cost (Anson and Spencer; 1973, Ballinger et al; 1993, Twidell and Johnstone 1994). Recent research has shown that the neutral zone in air-conditioned rooms is lower than in naturally ventilated rooms. The

implication of this finding is that air conditioning is actually more expensive than originally thought because ventilation engineers for a given design unnecessarily

prescribe low temperatures. An alternative approach to maintain the required temperatures in a building is to "design with nature". There are several of these passive design approaches. (Kreith and Kreider; 1978, Kreith; 1973, Carter, 1994, Sick and Leppänen; 1994). This is the passive design approach. It would be useful to explore to explore how the passive designs are achieved specially in the tropical regions such as Malawi.

In passive design the effects of radiation can either be utilised to warm

environment directly or indirectly. The principle of thermal mass in heat storage can be used to store the thermal energy when it is available and release it when it is required to warm the liveable environment. Thus if a building is constructed using dense materials that are also bad thermal conductors such as stone and brick, the building retains heat longer than if the same building were built with light materials that are good thermal conductors.

There are two typical natural heating cycles in a building. The first is the long periodic variation of summer and winter temperatures and the other is the short

night and day cycle. (Humphreys; 1975, Ambler, 1966, Hindmarsh and Macpherson; 1962) have observed that people can easily adjust for the former but find difficulties to adjust for the latter which can cause discomfort.

3.7 CHOICE AND NON-CHOICE MATRIX OF THERMAL COMFORT

It is convenient to group the thermal comfort factors into four sectors namely;

objective-non-choice, objective choice, subjective non-choice and subjective

choice. A qualitative evaluation table is suggested and is shown in table 3.2

below. In the current work categories 1A and 2A are not considered critical since

these are not choices and there is very little that can be done about them.

Categories 1B and 2B are areas where action can be taken to minimise extreme

effects of the environmental factors if thermal comfort conditions to be

maintained. Factors in 1B are functions of time that can be formulated by analysing empirical data and modelling (Klein; 1987).

Table 3.2 Choice and non choice of Thermal Comfort Parameters

Table 3.3 shows a list of conditions that have been cited by various authors and the respective associated shift of Neutral Zone Temperatures. The factors vary from objective conditions to subjective. Although this table is similar to table 3.2 it adds a dimension of association. It explains why the Thermal Comfort Temperatures are different in different countries and races in different seasons. Recent observations by Rajah and Mito; (2002) indicate that the ambient environment generates physical and emotional effect on man. If the physical and emotional reactions are positive then work is enjoyed and the efficiency can be high.

A long-term observation and careful analysis of traditional structures can reveal areas where the building design details of these structures have exploited the natural phenomena that promote thermal comfort.

3.8 REDUCTION OF INDOOR TEMPERATURE THROUGH THE WALL AND CEILING.

In a typical building structure the thermal comfort depends on its thermal capacity and, natural ventilation surrounding it Croome; (19810, Szokolay and Ruston; (1985), Turner and Szokolay; (1980), Jones; (19730, and Iqzquierdo et al; (1994). In steady state conditions, it can be shown, in a simplified form that the rate at ,

which a building gains total thermal energy through radiation, conduction, and convection in excess of the comfort limit can be approximated to

$$
Q = I_t AF - AF U_L (t_{\rm eit} - t_d)
$$
 (3.17)

The CIBSE recommends that the value of $(t_{\rm ei})$ should be evaluated as follows;

$$
t_{ci} = 1/2 t_{ci} + 2/3 t_m
$$
 (3.18)

The solar energy is mostly absorbed by the building structure. However, if the building is made of light materials, the building stabilises at the ambient

The thermal capacity of a building can moderate the temperature inside the building. A large thermal capacity has the effect of increasing the time lag between the peak of solar irradiance and the indoor temperature. Van Straaten et

temperature very quickly and then radiates out the excess heat. If equation (3.17) is intergrated over a period it would give the quantity of heat gained if the mass of the building was known. Szokolay and Riston (1985), report that mean radiant temperature can also be used instead of the mean surface temperature. By choice, walls can be designed in such a way as to reject the incoming radiation (Kraus et al 1993, Ozkan; 1991, Lotz and Richards 1964, Hodgson and Lotz 1965. These can include the use of reflective materials on the roof or completely obstructing the direct radiation by overhang structures to protect the walls of the building (Sutton and McGregor; 1986, Clarke; 1985, Tarrassdi; 1975, Van Ettinger; 1960)

and a careful orientation of the building to avoid the direct radiation.

al; (1969) report that out of eight experimental walls and roof types where the floor was made of same material (concrete), the most effective combination to lower the indoor temperature in a house with its roof and white walls. The next best result was obtained from a house with brick walls and insulated roof space. The latter achieved a maximum temperature of 2.6 deg. C; below maximum outdoor temperature. Lotz; and Richards (1964) report that a roof space with a reflective insulation metal foil as is the practice in South Africa; loses reflectivity as soon as dust settles on it and this, reduces the insulation effect of the foil.

However, he also observes that this type of insulation can reduce peak indoor air temperature by 2.9 deg C. Wooley; (1983), reports experimental results in which he uses twelve types of walls. A hollow concrete block wall with 100mm thick polystyrene is found to be the most stable wall in maintaining the temperature within the thermal comfort zone. However, when the polystyrene insulation is removed and adjustable louvers fixed to the walls, the performance of the wall is still lower but is better than all the other eleven types

Reduction of indoor temperature requires not only barriers to cut off radiation but

the incorporation of materials that have low conductivity values or can reflect radiation to slow down the immigration of thermal energy into the liveable area.

It is reported in most recent work (Zakaria and Woods 2002) that for a roof to contribute effectively to Thermal Comfort it must be a roof, with an optimum space of 100mm, insulation of 50mm and the material must be of a light colour.

3.9 REDUCTION OF INDOOR TEMPERATURE BY INCREASING AIR SPEED

Mitchel and Biggs (1964) report that the wind velocity (measured at 10m height)

can be related to indoor air changes (κ) as follows;

$$
\kappa = \sigma + \beta V \tag{3.19}
$$

In this case the numbers of air changes to any room are useful in ventilating the

room. This equation then relates the number of air changes to the outside air speed 60

and can be a useful guide in designing rooms if the wind speed of the location is known

This report confirms that wind speed as read from Wind Rose diagrams can be

used to estimate the indoor air Speed design a thermally comfortable building at

the design stage. The indoor air speed influences the thermal comfort by

increasing the convective heat exchange. For a full dressed person (Givoni, 1969)

the body heat exchange factor is related to the indoor wing speed as follows.

$$
C = \varphi V^{0.3} (t_a - 35)
$$
 (3.20)

The CIBSE Guide recommends a minimum air velocity of 0.1 ms⁻¹ in liveable environments. Adarve et al; (1988) report that in a well ventilated building, a minimum value of 40% of the outdoor air speed can be achieved indoors. However, when the ambient air temperature reaches 35°C; which is the skin temperature, any further increase in air speed does not have a cooling effect on the body (Givoni; 1969). De Dear and Auliciems (1988) confirm the psychological phenomenon that high temperatures and low air speeds are easily acceptable during the day when the same conditions are not acceptable in the night. This has been discussed in the earlier sections.

Wright and Hollands; (1989) report that in a typical roof of a house where corrugated iron sheets are used, convective air currents can be induced in the corrugations of the sheets and they have a cooling effect in the enclosed spaces. However, this effect is small compared to the heat that is radiated from the metal surface, and as a result the indoor temperature can be high in the house and this can result in uncomfortable conditions. In Malawi these corrugated iron roofed buildings are very common and during the hot months of the year many people must feel this effects.

Recent work in this area (Ansley and Thain; 2002) has shown that cooling sensation on the skin can be evaluated using the following equation.

$$
C_s = 3.67(V - 0.2) - (V - 2)^2
$$
 (3.21)

One of the reported work by Ansley and Thain was that air gusts at frequencies of

0.3-0.5Hz give better cooling effect than an air flow at constant speed. This particular effect is attributed to the peak response of the human cold cuteneous

thermo receptors located just under the skin. These have an optimum response at this frequency range. Ceiling fans easily create air gusts. Ceiling fans of 1.2-1.5 metres diameter at speed of 315 rpm are being recommended as alternatives to air conditioning units in a room. The power consumption of a fan of this size at this speed would be 160 watts. The speed of this fan at the tips of the blades would be 25 ms⁻¹ and would influence 452 m^3 . This is one of the devices that are used for cooling environments. Although the power consumption of a ceiling fan as reported is as low as this, the question of use of electricity is in cases not

3.10 EFFECT OF LEVELS OF HUMIDITY ON AIR TEMPERATURE The CIBSE Guide (Al-a) indicates that thermal comfort conditions are achievable with humidity levels in the range of 40 70%. However humidity levels below 40% in carpeted rooms are likely to cause shocks due to electrostatics. Koch et al; (1960), carried out investigations on the levels of comfort relative to humidity while the temperature was monitored. Their findings confirm that a change of humidity from 30% to 85% only induces a corresponding change in temperature of

0.61 degrees Celsius. Yoglu also reports that a humidity change of 20-80% caused a corresponding temperature change of 1.67 deg C. This seems to suggest that humidity is not a very important variable for thermal comfort.

3.11 EFFECT OF CLOTHING ON THERMAL COMFORT The effect of clothing on thermal comfort is quite considerable. The rate of flow of

thermal energy from the clothing surface to the surrounding can be expressed as;

$$
kM = (t_c - t_a)h_c + (t_c - t_m)h_r
$$
 (3.22)

Humphreys (1970) has shown that equation can be rearranged such that

$$
kM\left(\frac{1}{1+1+1}\right) = t_c - \left(\frac{h_c t_a + h_r}{1+1+1}\right)
$$

$$
\left(\frac{1}{h_{c} + hr}\right)^{2} = t_{c} - \left(\frac{1}{h_{c} + h_{r}}\right)
$$
 (3.23)

In this case the temperature

$$
\left(\frac{h_c t_a + h_r}{h_c + h_r}\right)
$$

is a weighted mean between
$$
t_a
$$
 and t_s .

This weighted mean is dependent on the type of clothing. A unit for the insulation value of clothing is a Clo. One Clo unit is equivalent to 0.155 W \cdot ¹m \cdot ² deg. C. Work by Fanger; (1967), and Woolard; (1981) and others (Forte and Holliers; 1970) confirm that the Clo unit correlates very well with actual subjective experiences. The values vary from 0- Clo for a naked person, to full *arctic winter* clothing at 3 Clo. The coldest conditions in Malawi would require a clothing value of 1.5 Clo; using Fanger's visual scale of clothing classification.

3.12. EFFECT OF VAPOUR PRESSURE ON AIR TEMPERATURE Vapour pressure is a complex function of air velocity and humidity. However, it promotes the evaporation of sweat from the skin. Vapour pressure is crucial in assessing the Index of Thermal Stress (ITS) that has been mentioned in section 2.8. and gives the following sweat rate:

$$
S_r = [(M - W) + C + R](1/f_s)
$$
 (3.24)

In this formula, the effect of vapour pressure is not immediately discernible. The effect of vapour pressure is in fact included in the assessment of the sweat rate. Givoni (1969) has assessed this equation and found that it overestimates the

warming effect of humidity. A better method for assessing the effect of vapour pressure is given by the Heat Stress Index (HSI) developed by Belding and Hatch (1955). This index is defined as;

$$
HSI = \frac{Evaporation cooling required}{Max evaporative cooling possible}
$$
 (3.25)

This expression was later modified and presented as a Relative Strain (RS) and given by

$$
RSI = \frac{M(I_{cw} + I_n) + 5155(t_a - 35) + R I_n}{7.5(44 - P_a)}
$$
(3.26)

$$
(.3(44 - P_a))
$$

Hounam; (1968) reports that in normal indoor situations; $M = 115 W m^2$; in this case I_{cw} = 0.4 Clo, I_n = 0.4 and R=0 equal air-wall temperature.

After substituting these in 3.26 simplifies the equation to;

This is a very useful format of the equation. Corresponding useful significant effects of average man are listed in table 3.4

$$
RSI = \frac{10.7 + 0.74(t_{a-}53)}{44 - P_a}
$$
 (3.27)

Table 3.4 Effects of Relative Strain of an Average Man

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 ANALYSIS OF PATTERN OF SOLAR RADIATION

DISTRIBUTION AND FACTORS THAT AFFECT THERMAL COMFORT IN MALAWI

4.1 FILTERING OF RECORDED SOLAR RADIATION DATA TO ESTABLISH ITS CREDIBILITY

Most of the agricultural stations in Malawi monitor meteorological data. Almost all the data used in this work has been recorded over a period of ten years or more. In some cases these data has been recorded for the past fifty years, Appendix 4.2 shows details of these stations. The data are recorded using two different instruments, the Gunn-Bellan Spherical Pyranometer and the Camp-Bell Stokes Sunshine Recorder. As part of this work a full report has been submitted for publication separately (Zingano *et al*; 2001). However, the main argument and conclusions of that work are illustrated herein below.

From 1973 to 1977; one weather station; Salima had captured data from both of these instruments. These data have been used to derive a relationship between one set to the other. All this data was recorded in Carls cm⁻² Day⁻¹. The results and the differences between the data recorded on the two instruments are shown in figures 4.1 and 4.2.

As reported above, most of the meteorological data recorded in Malawi has been captured on the two rather inaccurate but useful instruments; The Gunn-Bellan Spherical Pyranometer and the Camp-Bell Stokes Sunshine Recorder. This

presented another hurdle but a challenge. In order to be confident about the data

that was to be used, a separate detailed study had to be undertaken to establish the

nature and credibility of the data. It was felt that it was important that the relative

accuracy of these data be established. To confirm the degree of accuracy, data

from one weather station where both instruments were used are analysed in table 4.1. The corresponding Scatter Gram is shown in figure 4.3. The data used in this analysis is shown in Appendices 4.5 and 4.5

Table 4.1. Statistical Parameters Showing The Simple Relationship Between Data Recorded On A Gunn-Bellan Pyranometer And That Calculated From Data On A Camp-Bell Stokes Sunshine Recorder $(N=60)$.

Fig. 4 1. Gunn-Bellan Data. Fig. 4 2. Sunshine Recorder Data.

(In both cases Mean of the Monthly Mean values for 5-years is superimposed to illustrate the general shape of the pattern)

Predictor

From this analysis a simple relationship between the data from the two different sources can be represented as follows:

$$
I_{1G} = K(0.5879)I_{1S} + 215.709 \text{ MJ m}^2 \text{Day}^1 \tag{4.1}
$$

Scatter Plot of SUNSHINE-R vs GUNN-B

GUNN-B Calrs/cmlDay

Fig. 4 3; Scatter Gram of Data recorded on a Camp- Bell Stokes Sunshine Recorder Vs that from a Gunn-Bellan Spherical Pyranometer.

4.2 LEVELS OF SOLAR RADIATION

The global solar irradiance intensity in Malawi can be as high as $940 \, \text{Wm}^2$ on a clear October sky and as low as 65 Wm⁻² when the rain cumulus clouds are low in the rainy season (Zingano, 1986). The annual variations show peaks in September and March (Equinox periods). However, the March peak is lower than the September peak. The former is during the rainy season and it is suggested that this is due to the humidity levels that are constantly high and cloud covers common. These attenuate the radiation and lower the peak values. Figure 4.4 shows solar radiation levels of all locations where solar radiation data is recorded. The altitude

and radiation levels as recorded at all the meteorological stations under study are shown in Appendix 4.3. Details of radiation levels are shown in Appendix 4.4.

The daily radiation intensity varies with solar altitude angle. However, there are more clear days in the warm dry months (September-November) than in the warm wet and dry cold months as is shown figure 4.5; which shows cloud cover and total sunshine periods. Generally the intensity of radiation is highest in lowland areas. This can be attributed to high contribution from long wave radiation reflected from

the surrounding hills; (see Appendix 1.1)

Figure 4.4 Level Of Radiation From All Meteorology Stations
(Note the equivalent values in MJ m⁻¹ Day⁻¹)

In order to identify areas of extreme temperatures an analysis of cloud cover has been carried out as shown in figure 4.5. This figure confirms that there is less cloud cover in the months of September and October. This explains the radiation

data in figure 4.4. Otherwise the levels of radiation should be the same in February to March as in

DEC AUG SEPT **NOV MAY** \mathbf{u} **JUN** α **MAR APRIL JAN FBB MONTHS**

 \bullet KARONGA \bullet KARONGA \oplus THYOLO \bullet THYOLO \bullet OHOHR \star CHO-R Figure 4.5 Averaged Monthly Sunshine Hours and Cloud Cover (Octas)

> (Note that Sunshine is a consequential reciprocal of cloud cover and Sunshine hours in Malawi cloud cover hardly goes beyond 6 hours).

September and October. These would be the corresponding months when the

Solar angles would be high in Malawi. In other words since the sun is overhead twice a year over Malawi, there should also be two similar radiation peaks.

4.3 ANALYSIS OF GEOGRAPHICAL ZONES

4.3.1 Variation of Temperature With Altitude

Air temperature is the commonest index that is useful for measuring thermal comfort. In order to identify variation and distribution of air temperature areas a further analysis has been done in three stages as follows:

sea level (a.m.s.l), and through this process, three distinct zones are identified for convenience of classification as follows;

> Upland areas where Midland areas where Lowland areas where $A_1 \ge 1000$ m $800 < A₁ < 1000$ m; $A₁ \leq 800$ m; and

The first step was to perform a graphical analysis of the locations and correlate these with the respective elevations (h) of the meteorological stations above mean

These areas are graphically presented in figure 4.6. Details of altitudes of each Meteorology station and when each was established are those listed and described

in Appendix 4.2, while all the data for the selected stations have been processed and presented in readable form in Appendices 4.8,4.10; and 4.11

The second step was to use the Mahoney method of analysing climatic data by adopting the upper limit of the neutral temperature range of 27°C for Malawi; as will be justified in the conclusion section of this work, as a datum to calculate the excess temperatures. In this case the Mean Maximum Temperatures from the meteorological data were used rather than the Mean Temperatures to avoid underestimation of the excess temperatures. However, the frequency and duration

of the Mean Maximum Temperatures are not available from the recorded data.

The frequency and duration would give a more accurate picture of the severity. In

this case the intention is to detect where in the country and over which months would the thermal discomfort conditions likely to occur. Figure 4.7 is a plot of

cumulative degree-days against the locations. The details of data for this evaluation see appendix 4.9. This is a preliminary attempt to quantify the degree of discomfort levels in each month.

2500

Figure 4.7 Cumulative Degree Days Above 27°C As The Upper Limit Of The Neutral Comfort Zone.

The monthly cumulative degree-days (D.d) are abstracted from appendix 4.8. The degree -day is a product of excess temperature above the upper limit of the comfort zone and the number of days during which that excess occurs. Data on the ranges of Monthly Mean Maximum, Mean and Mean Minimum Temperatures in all zones relative to the comfort zone are shown in figures 4.8-4.10. It can be seen in these figures that although there is a problem of thermal discomfort in every zone, the worst zones occur in the low altitude areas. Where the Thermal Comfort range is superimposed on

these figures it is quite obvious that for Malawi the attention should be paid to the lowland areas where thermal discomfort problems are most acute. Details of mean hourly temperatures at all areas under study have been included in appendix 4.1 and 4.5.

Fig. 4.8 Annual Mean Maximum Temperatures Compared to the Neutral

Temperature Range in the Typical Lowland Areas.

Fig. 4.9 Annual Mean Maximum Temperatures Compared to the Neutral Temperature Range in the Typical Mid Altitude Areas.

Fig. 4.10 Monthly Mean Maximum Temperatures Compared to the

73

Neutral Temperature Range in Typical High Altitude Areas.

These graphs also show the shift of the comfort range against the Monthly Mean Maximum temperatures in the three zones. However, when the Humphrey's formula (Equation 2.9) is used to calculate the neutral temperatures using the mean temperatures, a graphical presentation is shown in figure 4.11.

Fig. 4.11; Monthly Mean Temperatures in Lowland Areas showing the Comfort Range as stated in literature. The black lines contrast the Neutral Range for Malawi

(Monthly Corresponding Neutral Temperatures as calculated from Humphrey 's ' formula and on the locations. The neutral temperatures are indicated as neutral (T'') where the second letter in the bracket $(')$ is representing the name of the

location.

In figure 4.11, almost all the locations (except Nkhata-Bay), in January, October, November and December, have mean temperatures above the comfortable range. From figure 4.8; it can be seen that these lowland areas require cooling almost all the year round.

The third step was to plot Degree-Days against the altitude of the meteorological stations. The degree day concept is familiar in Europe and other cold countries where it is used to estimate the cost of central heating. In this work D.d concept is being used in reverse to indicate the extraction of energy from the building. To do

this the Mean Maximum Temperatures were analysed and compared with the altitudes. A scatter gram is shown in figure 4.12. Figure 4.7; above suggests that there is a definite relationship that can be deduced and exists between the assessed Degree Days and the Altitude of a location. When the Degree Days are plotted against the natural logarithm of the altitude the result is figure 4.12

Scatter Plot of LINALT vs DEGREED

Fig. 4.12 Plot of Degree Days Versus Location, Altitude Data

Figure 4.12 yields a regression equation as follows;

$$
D.d = -575.994 \ln A_L + 4226. \qquad (4.2)
$$

This equation has a $p<0.045$ and an $r=0.9252$. The likely problem in this result might lie in the fact that the Degree Day value is calculated from the Monthly Mean Maximum temperatures that are recorded at the metrological stations; Appendix 4.8. These data do not show the frequency and the duration when the 27°C upper limit is exceeded in the month. However, the assessment that has led to the deduction of equation 4.2 assumes that the excess occurs over the entire

month. Nevertheless this problem can be taken care of by including a factor in equation (4.2) that would take into account the exact duration of the excess temperatures in each month as a ratio of the days when the upper limit was not exceeded at each location. Equation (4.2) can be modified by a factor f_d to read;

> Where f_d would be defined as the ratio of the number of actual days when the 27°C upper limit is exceeded in any given month to the number of days in that month.

This analysis confirms that thermal discomfort conditions get worse inversely to the height of a location above mean sea level. Therefore the severity of thermal discomfort is as in the order shown in figure 4.7; above. The extreme thermal conditions being those experienced at Makhanga at an altitude of 102 m.a.m.s.l..

$$
D.d = f_d(-575.94 \ln A_L + 4226)
$$
 (4.3)

This equation would be useful as testing tool in the design process to identify the

severity of the degree of discomfort at any given location where new buildings would be required.

Main zone Characteristic and differences are shown in table 4.2. From this table it

can be seen that the Monthly Mean Minimum temperature is 24.83 °C whereas the

Monthly Mean Maximum temperature is 29.49 °C. In all the lowland areas the

Monthly Mean Maximum temperatures exceed 27°C.

An inspection of the data from the meteorological stations shows that the monthly Absolute Minimum Temperature can be as low as 0 °C as is the case for Mzuzu and as high as $44.4\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ as is the case for Makhanga.

While the above is sufficient to identify the problem areas there is need for a more detailed programme for recording data for solving equation (4.3). This concept is also relatively new in the cold countries where a new thinking is being undertaken to re-examine this area (Kaplanis et al; 2000). To evaluate the number of Degree

In point of fact whereas the reference temperature t_{ref} would be a function of time, it would be stochastic from day to day. However, the effect of the excess thermal energy above the reference temperature is what has to be estimated and pumped out (in the case of tropical countries) as thermal energy, in order to effect thermal comfort for a healthy environment.

Days the following equation has been proposed.

$$
D.d = \int_{t_{\text{max}}}^{t_{\text{max}}} (t_{\text{ref}} - t_{\text{a}}) p(t) dt
$$
 (4.4)

Where N represents the number of days where the upper limit of thermal comfort t is exceeded as average temperature of the h_i hour and the n_i day at intervals Δt These concepts may be general but the detailed analysis have to be specific to a

The concept in equation 4.4 can be used in reverse by inserting a negative sign before the integral sign or changing the term $(t_{ref} - t_a)$ to $(t_a - t_{ref})$ where $t_{ref} < t_a$ in a typical Tropical climate.

The excessive Degree Days in the tropical climate can be assessed as a function of time as;

$$
D.d = \sum_{i=1}^{n=1} [t_a - t_{ref}(h_i; n_j)] \Delta t \qquad (4.5)
$$

country; in this work to Malawi.

78

 \mathfrak{Z}^+

 $\frac{K}{4}$.

 \blacktriangleleft

4.3.2 Variation Of Mean Maximum Air Temperature As An Index Of Thermal Discomfort

In the preceding discussions it was shown that air temperature is one of the most important indicators of thermal discomfort. There are several formats that have been devised to express the temperature as an index. However, the most common format is the Centigrade scale and is used in meteorological stations. One of the objectives of this work is to find practical tools that can be used by architects and engineers in the field at the design stage of any liveable buildings to check whether

the criteria for thermal comfort are being met. These tools can be in form of predictive formulae, graphs, and charts.

The information that is easy to find on any survey map of Malawi are altitude; and latitudes and longitudes. In addition and for Malawi; there is a meteorological station in every one of the twenty-four districts. Agricultural stations are also evenly distributed over the country and these stations keep records of air temperature, rainfall, and humidity and sunshine hours. Simple tools that practitioners can use to predict the environmental thermal conditions can be

One other important parameter that would be useful in assessing the severity of thermal discomfort is the Mean Maximum Temperature of a location. From the analysis of the Hourly Mean Maximum Temperatures (HMMT) of different locations it is useful to use the obvious relationship between the HMMT at 1400 hours and the Monthly Mean Maximum Temperature (MMMT); see Appendix 4.5. From the meteorological data at each station, it is observed that the maximum air temperatures occur at 1400 hours. It can be inferred that at that hour the

ambient solar thermal energy distribution in the environment reaches a steady

state. To establish the relationship between the two parameters all the data from

the meteorological stations were analysed. To summarise these results figures

4.13-4.18 show scatter grams for five typical stations

Scatter Plot of ANNMEAN vs DAY1400

Fig. 4.13 Scatter Gram for Chitipa District; Latitude is 9° 42' S Altitude is 1285m

Scatter Plot of ANNMEAN vs DAY1400

Fig. 4.14. Scatter Gram for Karonga District; Latitude is 9° 56'S. Altitude is 529m

Scatter Plot of ANNMEAN vs DAY 1400

Fig. 4.15. Scatter Gram for Dedza District; Latitude is 14° 19 S'. Altitude is 1632m

Scatter Plot of ANNMEAN vs DAY 1400

Fig. 4.16. Scatter Gram for Thyolo District; Latitude is 16° 08 S. Altitude is 820m

Scatter Plot of ANNMEAN vs DAY1400

Fig. 4.17 Scatter Gram for Makhanga in Nsanje District at Latitude is 16° 31'S; Altitude is 52mamsl

Scatter Plot of ANNMEANMA vs DAYMEANMA

DAYMEANMA

Fig. 4.18. Scatter Gram for All Nineteen Meteorology Stations Under Study

An empirical equation can be extracted from these analyses. From figure 4.18 the following equation has been derived

$$
t_{a-h1400} = -0.78 + 0.98078 t_{a-mm}
$$
 (4.6)

The correlation in this case is $r=0.9278$; and $p<0.01$. This equation would be

useful for estimating the Monthly Annual Mean Maximum Temperature at a

location by taking a careful note of the Hourly Mean Maximum temperature of

Table 4.3. Comparative Table Of Selected Statistics Of The Test Renresentative Stations Location | Zone | Latitude | Altitude | Constant | Correlation | P-Value | N

that location at 1400 hours. Table 4.3. contrasts the constants in column five, the

correlations in column six and the probabilities in column seven when the equation

is applied to each of the five selected districts. The correlation is best when all the

data from all the meteorological stations in each district are combined in the last row.

4.4 THE NEED FOR REFERENCE TEMPERATURES AS LIMITS OF THERMAL COMFORT) IN MALAWI

In the preceding discussions air temperature, wind speed and humidity (Houghten and Yagloglou; 1923) have been reported to be the principal variables for thermal comfort in the controlled environment. It has also been discussed that amongst other variables the neutral temperature depends on culture and geographical location. It is a fact that the neutral temperature in Malawi has hitherto been assumed as those quoted in standard ventilation engineering books and manuals

such as the ASHRAE and CIBSE documents. There is no literature that suggests that the indoor temperatures requirements that are in current use have been derived from local tests and research in Malawi.

For the assessment of severity of thermal discomfort it is necessary to have a reference temperature as an upper limit of thermal comfort for Malawi. The author proposed that if the two variables of humidity and wind speed were kept constant then the neutral temperature could be assessed with respect to the air temperature. One way to do this cheaply was to use the Preferred Bath Water Temperature (PBWT). The PBWT would be a temperature that would represent a thermal balance in an individual who is taking a bath or a shower. A full paper on the methodology and procedure of the method has been published (Zingano; 2001). The deduction draws its relevance on the fact that although the body temperature is 36.5°C, the skin temperature is always at 35°C (Givoni; 1969). If this skin temperature is taken as a reference point that constitutes an interface of body and air, then any environmental temperature higher or lower than this would either induce a thermal gradient into the body or outwards away from the skin.

4.4.1 Deduction of Mid Point of Thermal Comfort Zone From a Preferred Bath Water Temperature (PBWT).

In order to investigate the view questioned by Koch et al, (1960) that there is very little contribution on thermal comfort from the humidity, the author sought to investigate this problem in local context and at low cost. Preferred Bath Water Temperature (PBWT) is different for different persons. The air in a bathroom or shower is definitely saturated. The author sought to find a relationship between the bath water and the ambient temperatures in the bath/shower room where humidity

would be at constant level. What was required was to conduct a survey of PBWTs in several locations within the country and analyse these data. Standard temperature measuring techniques and methods were used Gagge, (1937).

Twenty mercury-in-glass thermometers were distributed to selected persons who had access to hot water baths and showers in three cities, including lecturers at the University of Malawi. The three cities were Lilongwe in the central region, Blantyre and Zomba in the southern region. The data sheet had clear instructions

on how to take the ambient temperature in the bathroom.

Fig 4.19 Frequency Distribution Of Air Temperature In A Bathroom

WATERTEMP

Fig 4.20 Frequency Distribution Of Preferred Bath Water Temperature

The instructions issued to all the respondents were that the air temperature in the bath/shower room should be recorded before the hot water was turned on and then the temperature of the water recorded when the bath/shower was mixed to the preferred temperature. The survey was conducted from April to August through the coldest season (May - July). The process involved travelling to each city to collect the data and distribute the thermometers to another set of persons Although

a number of thermometers were broken in this process, there were more than 400 questionnaires that were collected from respondents. This data was checked for obvious errors. Out of these submissions 276 respondents were accepted as reasonable. These data have been analysed statistically as indicated in figures 4.19 and 4.20 showing the histograms of the data.

4.4.2 Data Treatment

The first step was to plot the data to find the statistical characteristics as shown in Table 4.4. This table shows that the data consistent and accurate and can be used

to extract reliable information.

Table 4.4 Selected statistical parameters of Bath water and Air Temperatures.

A test for correlation, using Pearson's correlation, shows that the two sets of data are correlated by $r = 0.3418$ and giving $p \le 0.045$. A scatter plot of the data gives a constant of 36.44 and a coefficient of -0.34; again, giving a probability of $p \leq$ 0.045 which is taken as the acceptable confidence level. The other statistical parameters of interest are; $r^2 = 0.1203$, and the sample population n as 276. The Scatter Gram is shown in figure 4.21. An equation of the form $y = ax + c$ is constructed as follows:

When the skin temperature 35^oC is taken as the air temperature t_{ab} and substituted into the equation (4.7), it gives 24.8 $\mathrm{^0C}$ as the preferred bath water temperature (t_b). And when the bath air temperature is at 0 ^oC, the preferred bath water temperature becomes 36.44 °C . This is almost the normal body temperature. This relationship is informative in the sense that it predicts what is expected that when the air temperature is at 0° C, the bath water temperature has to be at 36.44 $^{\circ}$ C for a comfortable bath. It can be inferred without contradiction that the mean

$$
t_{b} = -0.334 t_{ab} + 36.44 \qquad (4.7)
$$

comfortable temperature for people in Malawi is 24.8 °C

Scatter Plot of WATERTEMP vs AIRTEMP

Fig 4.21 A Scatter gram of PBWT against the Air Temperature

Although figure 4.21 would seem to be an unacceptable result as far as a normal regression analysis is concerned the author has chosen to present the results as produced on the 'Statistix' statistical package that was used. These are the results as analysed and applying the least square method of analysis gives the results presented here.

Although a survey of neutral temperatures has not been done in Malawi, it can safely be inferred that 24.6°C would be the middle point of the thermal comfort zone. The observed figure (24.6°C) compares very well with the temperature ranges of $23.5 -$ 28.5°C and 22 - 24°C reported by Malama (1998) and ISO 7730

respectively. Malama's survey was done in Zambia that has a common border with Malawi and the people in the two countries are of the same ethnic origin. The logical extension of the argument in this case is that preferred temperatures of the two people would not be very different as discussed before in section 2.10.

Until such a time that a thermal comfort survey is done, it is proposed that Malawi should adopt 24.6°C as the mid point of the comfortable temperature zone.

4.5 PATTERN OF WIND VELOCITY AS A VARIABLE OF THERMAL COMFORT

4.5.1 Zone Distribution Of Wind Velocities

Wind velocity analysis was done in two ways. The first step was to estimate probable indoor wind velocities; assuming well ventilated indoors, by using the rule that if the windows are windward facing and have a minimum area of 33% of

the containing wall;. (Adarve et al 1988). Mean wind speeds from all the three zones are shown in Figure 4.22; where the respective computed indoor wind speeds at 40% are contrasted against the external wind speeds. The detailed data are shown in appendix 4.9. Van Straaten (1964) concludes that the effect of wind to cool indoor spaces depends on its speed, direction, its frequency, and general shape of the building. In this case if the houses are constructed with the windows facing the direction of the prevailing wind the indoor wind speeds would be acceptable for the thermal comfort.

The next step was to illustrate the data on radar graphs of the wind velocities to indicate the magnitudes of these velocities over the months. These are shown in figures 4.23-4.25;. Wind rose diagrams are constructed and shown in figure 4.26. These wind roses confirm that the dominant prevailing wind direction over the country is from the South-East. This is a very useful fact in the design process if buildings have to take advantage of natural ventilation.

The wind average velocities in the uplands as shown in figure 4.22 are quite adequate to compensate for any high temperatures that might be outside the comfort range if the principles of cross ventilation are applied at the design stage

of any building. Generally the high wind speeds occur in the hot dry months. This is an advantage because it would be easier to achieve natural ventilation given a well-analysed design.

Averaged Outdoor Air Velocities Contrasted With Estimated Fig. 4.22. **Indoor Air Velocities; Using Darve's Method.**

Fig 4.23 Wind Speeds In High Altitude Areas (Note the Maximum speeds in October; speeds in ms⁻¹)

Fig. 4.24; Wind Speeds In Mid Altitude Areas (Note the Maximum speeds in October; velocities in ms⁻¹)

Fig. 4.25; Wind Velocities In Low Altitude Areas (Note the Maximum rates in October; velocities in ms⁻¹)

Fig. 4.26 Constructed Wind Rose Map of Malawi Showing the Dominant South-Easterly Prevailing Wind Direction.

THE VARIATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF HUMIDITY LEVELS 4.6 Humidity levels in all the three zones were analysed and it is shown that there are hardly significant differences in the three zones. As discussed in this section the humidity does not seem to be a problem since levels from 40% to 85% are quite tolerable. Data showing how the humidity varies in the three zones is shown in figure 4.27–4.29. Humidity data in all districts is tabled in Appendix4.10.

HUMIDITY OF UPLAND AREAS

Fig. 4.27 Humidity In Upland Areas Exhibiting Showing Five Months Of Uncomfortable Humidity Levels For Mzuzu.

Fig 4.28. Humidity for Mid-Altitude Areas; Showing one Uncomfortable Month for Thyolo. (The problem of High Humidity Is Negligible in this zone)

Fig. 4.29 Humidity For Low Altitude Areas; (The Problem Of Intolerable Humidity does not exist In This Zone.)

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 FIELD INVESTIGATIONS

5.1 MONITORING THE PERFORMANCE OF TYPICAL HOUSES WITH

REFERENCE TO ENVIRONMENTAL PARAMETERS

At the beginning of the research it had been recognised that some field research work would be necessary in order to establish certain facts. Some of those results

would then be used to enhance and to support this work. This was very obvious because there was hardly any basic literature on the subject of Thermal Comfort in Malawi. The objective of this part of the field measurements was to find out the differences in thermal comfort experienced in winter in three types of houses that are typical of most houses in Malawi. The characteristics of the building types are as follows;

5.1.1 A Traditional House.

This house is framed with poles/bamboos/grass and adobe clad and thatched.

This type of building is very common in Malawi. Detailed specifications are shown on figure 5.2. This house was constructed in 1967.

5.1.2 An Intermediate Technology House.

This type of house is constructed with brick walls but the roof is constructed of blue gum rafters, purlins, and sisal reinforced concrete tiles. The details are shown on figure 5.4 This house was constructed in 1994.

5.1.3 A Modern House.

The walls are in bricks but the roof is constructed out of sawn pine as rafters and purlins and covered in corrugated galvanised iron as roofing sheets.

The details are shown on figure 5.6. This house was constructed in 1967.

All measurements were taken at 900mm height from the floor/ground level

both indoors and outdoors.

The pyranometers were mounted at 2400mm height in order to clear the obstructions from the surrounding bushes.

5.2 LOCATION

It was difficult to identify three different houses within close proximity to each other in a suitable climatic zone. It was further considered vital that the three house types should be monitored simultaneously in order to ensure that they were all responding to the same environmental conditions and stimuli.

Special houses could not be constructed for this experiment due to lack of funding. A fairly extensive search was done to identify three such houses within reasonable distance of each other. Three typical houses were found within 50 metres of each other at Ekwendeni in Mzuzu; the headquarters of the Northern Region of the country. Ekwendeni is a small township that was initially developed by Church of Scotland Missionaries who settled here in 1910. A sketch showing the relative positions of these houses and the pyranometer station are shown in figure 5.1

Fig. 5.1 Sketch Of Locality For The Measurements At Ekwendeni

 $: (Grid at Approxm.100m)$

5.3 FIELD INVESTIGATION

Discussion in Section 2.9 confirms that neutral temperatures on the cold end

of the thermal comfort range can be as low as 11°C. A neutral zone proposed for Malawi is 22°C to 26°C (Zingano; 2001). Literature suggests that there is no physiological damage to the body in the temperatures below the thermal comfort zone whereas there is considerable risk at the high end of this range. The objective of this investigation was to find out how the Thermal Comfort range varies in the houses a typical winter day. For this particular exercise, a typical winter day was selected and defined as; Any day within seven days on either side of the Winter Solstice Date; 22nd June. For typical high altitude area winter conditions, this location fitted the criteria. The location is close to a meteorology station at Mzuzu and there was ten years data available at this meteorology station.

5.4 MONITORED PARAMETERS AND INSTRUMENTATION Due to the difficulty in procuring all the necessary instruments, it was decided that only air velocity, dry bulb temperature, solar irradiance and

solar illuminance would be monitored both indoor and outdoor, simultaneously, on the three houses. Although illuminance is not one of the factors that affect thermal comfort, it was felt that the data captured could be used for other lines of enquiries at a future date.

5.4.1 Illuminance

This parameter was measured with a Minolta Lux metre manufactured in Japan, which had a range of $0-9,999$ Lux. The scale for this parameter is relatively large compared to the others. The data has been compressed by

factors in order to fit on the same graph. The data is presented as lux $\times 10^3$ for outdoor illuminance and lux \times 10² for indoor illuminance.

5.4.2 Air Temperature

This was measured on a Marks Variable Electric meter, powered by batteries and manufactured in Germany. The instrument works on the principle of a hot wire anemometer using Newton's law of cooling. The sensitive part is mounted on a metre long tractable antenna. The scale was readable to a tenth of a degree and this was quite easy to read since the meter pointer was mounted on a mirror background using non parallax imaging principle. Temperature was measured on Celsius scale.

5.4.3 Air Velocity

The sensitivities of these pyranometers were 5.04×10^{-6} v/Wm⁻² and the data were readable on both an LCD screen and a print-out. In order to fit this on the same graph the data were compressed by a factor of 100 and this data is shown as watts

m^{-2} x 100.

The same instrument in 5.4.2 could be switched to a different scale to measure air velocity. It was a very convenient instrument in the sense that it could be inserted into a room and the temperature read out without the interference of the reader entering the room. These data were measured in ms⁻¹ but were converted to cms⁻¹ in order to fit the scale:

5.4.4 Solar Irradiance

Solar irradiance was measured on a Kipp and Zonen Solar Integrator CC 12 on two channels connected to two CM 11 pyranometers whose apertures were as follows:

> Short wave cut off $: \lambda \leq 280$ nm Long wave cut off : $\lambda \geq 3000$ nm

Plate 5.1 Kipp Zonnen Integrator C11 with Irradiance Sensors C12. Aperture of Sensors 280< λ <3000 nm.

5.4.5 Measurement

The measurements were taken on $26th$ June 1997 after getting all the necessary permissions from government, local chiefs, and the owners of the houses. Preliminary measurement trials were made on $25th$ June 1997 to determine the minimum reading cycle. All occupants of these houses were informed not to change their living habits on the day when the measurements would be taken. Care was taken by the data reading team not to disrupt any occupants' activities. Data were taken every hour in all the houses. A complete data recording session lasted for 15 minutes for all the three houses. Measurement started at 0700 hours and readings were taken every hour up to 1700 hours, when the sun

disappeared behind a hill nearby, in the West. The photographic record of the

actual houses that were measured is shown in Appendix 5.1.

5.4.6 Results

5.4.6.1 *Ventilation*: The prevailing wind on this particular site was predominantly South Easterly and that was evidenced by the growth structure of the local blue gum trees (*Eucalyptus Arborea*). These were leaning toward the North West. All the houses had fairly open areas at the wall plate levels where the air was continuous from the outside to the inside. Indoor velocities in the modem house were slightly higher than in the other two houses. The house in figure 5.6 was better ventilated and had more and bigger windows than the other two houses in figures. 5.2 and 5.4. In this presentation it has been decided to present both the data and the graphical form of the data so that the specific subtle differences in performance can be appreciated

Data to all the measurements on the three houses is presented in tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. These data were converted to convenient units to make the graphical presentation fit the scale.

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Fig 5.

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House ðf Through Wall Section

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⋖ Construction Fig 5.6 Detailed Description Of

NONITORED PARAMETERS

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Fig

The results show that the modem house in figure 5.7 had the best illuminance level. This is attributed to the level of fenestration in this house type. This house had the highest window/floor area ratio. When these figures are examined in detail, it is observed that the traditional house was cooling slowest of the three house types. This fact confirms that this type of house moderates extreme temperatures better than the other two types of houses. Detailed comparative performance data of these results are shown in table 5.4

Table 5.4 Summary Of Notable Differences On The Performance Of The **Houses**

The results in table 5.4 show some subtle differences among the three house types. Although the rates of warming up per hour as shown on the graphs of the houses appear by 1700 hours the net gain in indoor temperatures was highest in the traditional house. The house retained more heat than the others. The traditional house, on the other hand, had the poorest average illuminance while the modem house had the highest illuminance. Indoor air velocity was better in the modern house than in the other two. The remark column in the table is focusing on the air penetration into the houses. Thus the highest outdoor air velocities were 10 cms⁻¹

and 15 cms⁻¹ in the localities of both the traditional and the Intermediate house respectively, but the indoor air velocities were much less than 0.1 m^{s-1} in both cases. On the other hand when the outdoor air velocity was 5 ms⁻¹ in the locality of the modem house the indoor air velocity was only 0.1 ms'' This particular

It was to observed that even at 15°C in the early hours of the morning, on this winter day, the people in the area including the occupants were dressed in clothes with insulation values of not higher than 0.5 Clo using the Fanger's Visual Classification; (Fanger; 1988). The author was not able to establish whether the people were just not able to afford clothes of higher rating than 0.5 Clo. However, it was observed that while the irradiance intensity was lower than 400 Wm⁻¹, the people preferred to sit in the sun while at higher irradiance levels definitely higher than $600 \, \text{Wm}^2$, the people preferred to sit in the shade of verandas. It can be concluded here that solar irradiance of 600 Wm^2 is the upper limit when people

result does not agree with Adarve's prediction that the indoor wind velocity should be 40% of the outdoor velocity. The specific condition laid down by Adarve et al (1991) is that the ratio of the window area to that of the containing wall must not less than 1:3. All the three houses did not meet this condition. The limitation of the sensitivity of the anemometer is also a limitation here. However, the recorded indoor wind velocity of 0.1ms⁻¹ is the minimum acceptable indoor wind velocity.

5.4.7 General Observations

Although the air temperatures ranged from 15° C. - 27.5°C on this day, the people did not seem desperately uncomfortable. However, this is a unique situation where the people had a choice either to put on clothes of higher Clo value or move to a warmer place, they opted for the latter. In other words this is the true practical example of the Adaptation Principle (Humphrey; 2002).

cannot tolerate the exposure for the mere reason of absorbing a body thermal energy deficit.

5.4.8 Remarks on the Results

In a working situation such as is the case in schools, this freedom is limited and movements would simply be too disruptive. Although these measurements were done on one day only, the results confirm that at an air temperature as low as 15°C the people were not desperately uncomfortable. This seems to suggest that in Malawi, it would not make economic sense to worry about low temperatures. Priority should be directed to cooling rather than heating. Certainly, literature in Chapter 2 confirms that there are no known physiological risks at temperatures lower than the comfortable limits. However, there is evidence that at temperatures higher than the upper limit, mental activity starts to be disrupted. This leads to low productivity in whatever task is to be performed. At still higher temperatures then there is the risk of heat stroke. In terms of the world wide recorded Thermal Comfort Range, this temperature is still within the range but definitely outside the

established Neutral Zone of thermal comfort.

It is probable that the variations observed on the graphs on wind velocities around each house are due to the effect of the local shrubs and trees surrounding each house. However, the instrument that was used was not sensitive enough to detect indoor air velocities lower than 0.1 m s⁻¹ although it was possible to record and interpolate to speeds of $0.05m^{s-1}$. On the other hand, the traditional house had the poorest indoor day lighting. This perhaps reveals the fact that life in this society is generally outside and about in the Verandah. And in the traditional setting, there are perhaps very few tasks performed indoors that require illuminance levels as high as the recommended range of $50 -$ 300 lux in the various rooms in the home (Tut and Adler; 1997).

Although these houses were different in size, construction and had minor orientation differences these differences did not affect the overall response of each one of them. Since these buildings are basic models of houses in Malawi these results can be can be taken as basic information to be refined in future.

CHAPTER SIX.

6.0 INVESTIGATION THERMAL COMFORT PRINCIPLES IN TRADITIONAL BUILDINGCONSTRUCTION

6.1 SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE IN BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

In this section the intention is to investigate how the structural features of the traditional house are related to the concepts of thermal comfort. It is further intended

to investigate how these relationships vary with factors that are known to influence thermal comfort in a given locality namely; altitude, latitude, air temperature, solar radiation, wind velocity, precipitation, and humidity. A direct method to do this is to conduct a detailed survey of the structural features and compare their contribution to thermal comfort. In other words it is possible to find out what adaptive techniques have been devised by the people in the course of time.

A tradition in construction is the preservation of a set of techniques that have proved to work in a given cultural / environmental interface. Perhaps this process alone cannot be classified as a science. However, the principles upon which the traditional construction rules are based may be similar to those that can be deduced through scientific analysis. Chapters 1, 2 and 3 contain much evidence that has been deduced through scientific analysis. The end result is the identification of parameters that promote thermal comfort in the built environment. However, it is known that man has always dared to tame the environment. The methods used to term the environment in vernacular architecture may not be as efficient as those techniques used in modern buildings. Although the techniques in the latter may be construed to

be more efficient than those in the former, the intentions in both may be the same.

The fact that there are traditional solutions that have been derived to solve problems

of thermal discomfort in the environment would seem to suggest that those solutions

might be based on experience. Hernandez and Rivera (1979) report that a principle

upheld by knowledge can coincide with that which can be derived through scientific analysis.

Ahmed (1974) reports that internal dimensions of a building have a bearing on the internal mean radiant temperatures that influence thermal comfort in the room. However, his findings show that an increase in ceiling height does not have a linear relationship to a decrease in the mean radiant temperature although the radiant temperature of the room is directly related to the temperature of the ceiling. Rapport,

(1985) has observed that vernacular architecture necessarily relates to the environment for its form and function. It can be inferred that the principles of passive design intrinsic in traditional buildings reflect the knowledge to live in a thermally comfortable environment as best as is possible. This may include the consideration of cost that is involved.

Hypothesis. One of the factors that has influenced the structure, roof shape, and dimensions of a traditional building is the need to achieve thermal comfort.

In order to prove this hypothesis, it is necessary to undertake a detailed survey and conduct a statistical analysis of the data collected in the survey.

6.2 PRELIMINARY SURVEY OF TRADITIONAL HOUSES IN FOUR DISTRICTS.

A preliminary survey of traditional houses in four districts, as part of this research has shown that despite the fact that there are no manuals for constructing traditional houses, there are definitely certain technical procedures and constants that can be interpreted as "traditional technical rules". Some of the results of this survey

conducted by the author in Chitipa, Karonga, Mzimba and Mchinji are shown in figures 6.1-6.4 and table 6.1 below. The buildings surveyed are few in number because the survey was directed at selecting buildings that would represent heterogeneous samples. This preliminary result certainly confirms that there must be certain simple structural relationships within the structural elements of the traditional 116

house that can be attributed to the search for Thermal Comfort. Bearing in mind that measuring instruments are not used in designing these structures except knowledge, how much does that simple relationship integrate and reflect the effects of environmental factors?

These preliminary results do indicate that although there are no written rules in the traditional building construction, there are apparently, salient norms and regulations that subsist in the construction practice. Do some of these rules directly relate to the

local levels of incident solar radiation and it is possible that there may be some direct relationships.

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Table 6.1 Preliminary Statistical Data on Surveyed Sam

Further questions that must be asked are what are the principles for passive design that have been used in this traditional construction practice? To what extent can they be incorporated in modern buildings to enhance thermal comfort and save the country's foreign exchange and increase productivity of the people by increasing their physiological and mental output? Is it possible that there may be some elements in the traditional practices that are based on sound scientific principles in passive design? Is it possible that there may be some elements in the traditional practices that can be scientifically deducible?

Fig 6.1 A Plot of House Roof Height Against House Length and Width in **Chitipa District on Plan**

Fig 6.3 A Plot of House Roof Height Against House Length and Width in **Mzimba District**

ROOFAPEX (mm)

A Plot of House Roof Height Against House Length and Width in **Fig 6.4 Mchinji District**

Figures 6.1-6.4 show scatter grams of preliminary results of the survey of the relationship between the Height of a house roof against its Length (HL), and the

Width (HW). Although it is geometrically expected that these dimensions would have certain proportional relationships, the subtle point here is that the people do not use tapes or compasses in the construction process. It is suspected here that these dimensions are generated from some knowledge that is a function of the environmental factors since the correlations appear to be typified by the locality. In this case it was decided to do some detailed studies in this area to uncover any empirical rules that may exist in the construction of a typical traditional house. In the preliminary results, it is also important to note that there are obvious differences

There is at the moment, hardly any literature that investigates the relationship of some of the traditional practices and relates them to known scientific principles. This is an opportunity that can be missed. Cassirier (1923) makes an assertion on perceptive scientific enquiry as;

amongst the districts. These may be due to the terrestrial differences. These differences may be the terrestrial factor that may be part of the consideration in the house design process as part of the local knowledge.

"To 'know' is to advance from the immediacy of sensation and perception to the purely cogitated and meditated `cause' to dissect the simple matter of sensory impressions into strata of `grounds' and 'consequences"' (Cassirier; 1923).

Lefebvre (1992) has described how an opportunity to enquire in time can be missed and therefore an opportunity to extend knowledge to mankind is lost. He sums up his thoughts as:

"When no heed is paid to the relations that inhere in social facts,

knowledge misses its target; our understanding is reduced to a confirmation of the undefined and indefinable multiplicity of things, and gets lost in classifications, descriptions and segmentations" (Lefebvre, 1992)
6.3 THE DEPENDENCE AND DEVELOPMENT OF CONSTRUCTION TECHNOLOGY ON LOCAL MATERIALS

The Intuitive apprenticeship (Hernandez and Rivera; 1979) in the traditional buildings construction manifests itself in the roof shape. In the house plan and roof shape are reflected effort to construct the house at least cost, but come up with an optimum device effective, and most efficiently to keep out solar radiation and precipitation. Koenigsberger (1978) concludes that an optimum solution for a building shape involves sacrificing light for coolness, acoustic quality for safety, structural simplicity for user convenience, and ease of maintenance for savings in capital investment. Saini (1978) reports that an alternative to-air conditioning at any geographical location is a careful selection and use of building materials and techniques that are locally available.

Common indigenous materials and construction schemes in Malawi are listed in table 6.2. A mixture of local materials and imported processed materials are used in modem buildings despite the high cost of imported components. The form and

style of traditional buildings have been derived with due regard to the prevailing climatic conditions. The roof shapes have empirically been developed over hundreds of years and are therefore very deterministic and proven.

Table 6.2 Common Construction Materials in Malawi

Botanical classification of grasses used for thatching houses in Malawi are as follows 'Kanyumbu is *Hyparrhenia nyassae*, 'Wanje is Setaria palustri 'Mlaza is *Hyphaene Natalensis* 'Bamboos; POACEAE family but specifically Oxytenanthra and Orundinaria

6.4 'THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

6.4.1 Power of Solar Radiation Incident on Buildings

Theoretically the total power contained in the part of solar spectrum that is relevant for this work can be defined as follows:

$$
\mathbf{P_r} = \int_{300}^{3000} \mathbf{W_s} \lambda \delta \lambda \tag{6.1}
$$

If the average absorptance of a building structure is γ , and the average directional reflectance is R; then γ can be defined as :

> $(1 - R_{\lambda})$ $_{\lambda}$ W_s $\lambda \delta \lambda$ is the total radiation absorbed by the surface.

For a building $60 -$ 80% of the heat again is through the roof while the 20 40% is

Where $W_s \lambda$ is the air mass 2 (or air mass 1) terrestrial radiation at

Wave length λ between λ and $\lambda + \delta \lambda$

through the wall (Naher et al; 1998); Nason, (1985) reports that, heat gain in buildings is highest at high solar elevation angles in the tropics.

6.4.2 Seasonal Changes of; Maximum and Minimum Solar Angles Thermal gains into a building structure are mainly due to solar radiation. Other minor sources are the long wave radiation emitted from human bodies and radiation from lighting and heating activities in the environment or home. From geometrical consideration of the earth's tilt angle and movement (Jones; 1973) the relationship between the tilt angle, hour angle, and altitude of the sun is expressed

as

$\sin \alpha = \sin d \sin L + \cos d \cos L \cos h.$ (6.3) At noon when $h = 90^0$ then equation 6.3 reduces to

$$
\alpha_{\text{noon}} = 90 - (\text{L-d}). \tag{6.4}
$$

$$
124
$$

Table 6.3 Calculated Minimum and Maximum Solar Altitude Angles for Chitipa, Lilongwe and Nsanje Districts.

(Deduced from equation (6.4), also refer to appendix 1.1 for locations of the places).

Table 6.3; shows that no place in the country experiences solar altitude angle lower than 49%°, which would be the cold season; (latitudes shown are to the nearest degree). On 22^{nd} December at noon, the sun is $14\frac{1}{2}$ ° south of Chitipa, 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ ° south of Lilongwe, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ ° south of Nsanje (refer to Appendix 1.1). These are still at maximum altitude angles for these locations during the year.

A typical house is built with a plinth in the verandah. It has been observed that this plinth, although commonly used for ease of sitting in the verandah, it is designed carefully and intuitively to cut out the direct solar radiation at some critical hour of the day by reducing the aperture of the verandah. In figure 6.5, α_1 , α_2 and τ_1, τ_2 are the solar altitude and the Wall -Solar Azimuth angles respectively. Both in cold and hot seasons, the roof of the house has to cut off the critical radiation at the appropriate solar altitude and Wall – Solar Azimuth angles. Thus at any given location the individual through the experience assesses the environmental sense data and the house is then constructed in such a manner that

α_1 and α_2 are the critical angles at Wall- Solar Azimuth τ_1 , and τ_2 to the effect

thermal comfort.

Fig 6.5 Geometry of a Typical Traditional House in Relation to the Solar Path

Figure 6.6 shows how the intensity of solar radiation on a vertical wall varies with the angle of incidence of the solar beam and the Wall -Solar Azimuth angles.

These data clearly shows that the most critical solar altitude angles where radiation will be most intense are between 30° and 35° . Figure 6.7 shows the same data in 2D, just to improve the description of the phenomenon. How has this problem been resolved in the traditional roofs?

It is the intention in this research to investigate how this problem has been resolved in the traditional house design, and how an optimum solution for thermal comfort for the entire year has been achieved.

Variation of Incident Radiation on a Vertical Wall as Solar Fig. 6.6 ; **Elevation Changes Relative to Wall-Solar Azimuth Angles.**

Fig. 6.7 A 2D Presentation of the figure 6. 6 Showing Irradiance at given Solar Altitude Angles and Wall-Solar Azimuth Angles. (Data abstracted from CIBSE Guide Data applicable to the Lowland Areas

at 0-300 m a.m.s.l.

Figure 6.6 shows that at any given Wall-Solar Azimuth angle the maximum irradiance bombarding the walls would be at a Solar Altitude angle of 35°. In

order to prevent the house from gaining excessive thermal energy the walls must be in the shade where only the two components of the total radiation; the diffuse (I_d) and the reflected (I_r) can reach the walls. These components contain less energy than the direct component (I_t) . It is also necessary to show that the roof of the traditional house is designed to resolve this problem and therefore constructed to minimise heat gain from the direct solar radiation at the critical angles. Popper has observed that;

"It is true that errors of observation occur and that they give rise to false singular statements, but the scientist scarcely ever has occasion to describe a singular statement as non-empirical or metaphysical " (Popper; 1972).

6.5 DETAILED SURVEY OF SELECTED BUILDINGS

6.5.1 Nomenclature

The Nomenclature for the analysis of a typical traditional house are shown in figure 6.8. Some of the known physical variations of a building in the location zones where the survey was to be focused are discussed in section 6.2. The

specific variables that are suspected to affect the thermal comfort in the house structure on site are; altitude, latitude, solar radiation, precipitation, wind velocity temperature and, humidity. The builder would therefore by experience and tradition, orientate and construct a house so that the thermal comfort conditions are optimised. In this work it is also intended to investigate any possible correlation of the building structures in the three identified zones in relation to some of these site variables. In the survey of the house, the dimensions that were selected were those that moderate the extreme effects of weather in the house.

One practical decision that was made right at the outset of the survey was to focus

the investigations on external structures that would not require the surveyor to

enter into a house in order to take the necessary data. This decision paid off in the

sense that permission to enter the house was not necessary and that irrespective of

whether the house owner was present or not the house data could be recorded. Figure 6.8 shows the variables that were measured. In addition to those described in table 6.4 where all the variables are described.

Ed \mathbf{a}_{2} Ground level

Fig 6.8; A Typical Section Of A House Showing The Wall Height (R_1) at the entrance, Eaves Width (E_w) , Verandah Depth (E_d) , The Roof Slope (0), Eaves Height (H_e), and The Verandah Height (H_k)

Table 6.4 Selected House Parameters Were Suspected To Influence Thermal Comfort in a House. (These acronyms are in the analysis to correspond to the data labels in Appendix 6.1)

must cut off its radiation at angle α . In this argument this angle will be designated the Critical Solar Angle. However, the roof has to be constructed at a slope θ that will have been determined by the builder's own judgement through knowledge. It is argued here that since there are no measuring instruments used in setting out of

6.5.2 Basis for the Argument

In order to prevent the strong radiation bombarding the walls of a house, the roof

the roof and that the knowledge that the builder has, it is further assumed, is a direct function of the experience in the environment would be the leading determinant of the roof angle θ . Amongst the factors that have to be considered as the environmental experience, is the process of integrating all parameters that would be necessary to achieve a practical roof slope. In this process, the following would be included;

1. The need to cut off the solar irradiance at the Critical Solar Angle;.

Where F_2 would be equal to μ Mg and μ is the coefficient of friction of the glass on the roof purlins.

2. The need to construct the roof at an angle that will maintain the grass on the roof without it sliding down under its own weight. In this case if the grass mass is M; it can be shown that the force F_1 acting on the grass downwards; (using simple resolution of forces) would be; $F_1 = MgSin \theta$ (6.5) However, the downward force would be opposed by an equal and opposite force F_2 acting in the same plane. Thus for the grass to stay on the roof, in the absence of any added forces, including cohesion; then a state of equilibrium would have to hold such that;

$$
F_2 = MgSin \theta \tag{6.6}
$$

$$
(6.6)
$$

- 3. The need to have a roof slope that would facilitate a maximum water run off coefficient to minimize roof leakages.
- 4. The need to have a Verandah depth that would minimise the risk of catching a wind gust that would otherwise lift the roof off its anchors in the walls.

The data taken from the houses in the nine districts can reveal the validity of these suppositions. In all, nineteen variables have been included in the data tables in

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Appendix 6.1. Plates 6.1-6.4 illustrate the point on how the problem of thermal comfort is dealt with in traditional house construction

Plate No 6.1 Gable roofed Houses At altitude 1149 a.m.s.l and location 13[°] 59'S and 33°38'E.

(Lines are inserted to illustrate the angles of the roofs and the photographing camera here is located north of the village but slightly west).

Plate No.6.1 Shows a large village composed of mixed house styles but most of the gable roofed houses are orientated East-West with the roofs sloping at angle θ to cut off the strong solar radiation incident at critical angles such that angles subtended at 0900 hours $\leq \alpha \leq 1500$ hours

Plate No 6.2 A Typical Village In A Valley In Ntcheu District At Altitude 1500 m.a.m.s.l. 14° 35' S and 34° 34'E. (Note the house different sizes but obeying to the same rule).

m. a.m.s. l at 15° 10' S and 34° 50'E . (Note that all the walls are protected from the strong radiation).

Plate No 6.3 A Typical Village In A Valley In Ntcheu District At Altitude 600

Plate No 6.4 A Typical Village On A Hill In A Valley In Mwanza District At Altitude 1550; at approximately 14° 35' S and 34°34'E

(Plates 1-4 illustrate typical villages with houses of different sizes. The differences may well reflect the status and financial ability of the respective owners. However, what is evident is that they all intuitively conform to a certain code of roof construction irrespective of the house plan and form. Note the strong shadow on a typical tropical sun day. House walls are all well protected from the direct sun by the suitable depths of eaves and the roof slope angles. The solar irradiance on this day was at 850 $Wm⁻²$).

From a geometric point of view the important parameters in figure 6.8; are the roof slope θ the eaves width E_w, and the Solar Critical Angle θ . It has been described in section 6.10 that if the roof construction has not successfully achieve the angle α_1 in the post construction activity of the house; i.e. finishing floor and the

verandah height H_{k;} is constructed such that this error is corrected by reducing α_2

to α_1 . Very simple relationships can be drawn from figure 6.8 to deduce angles α .

and α as shown below.

$$
\tan \theta = \left[R_1 \left(H_e - H_k \right) \right] / E_w \tag{6.8}
$$

$$
\tan \alpha = (H_e - H_k)/E_w
$$
 (6.9)

The measurement that were required K_1 , H_e , , H_k E_w and E_d then α_1 could be calculated

It must be noted that the roof apex was not measured due to the fact that the survey was designed to avoid entry into houses. However, from the relationships derived,

the apices can be calculated since the width and length of each house were measured. For purposes of this work that calculation is not necessary. However, the measurement of the house height to underside of the house roof the door was very necessary since geometrically, the apex of every house is proportional to R_1 and He

In this investigation it will be shown that there are indeed traditional techniques that have been established here and ensure that parameters R_1 , H_e , E_w , α and θ are , those that optimise the factors listed from 1-4 above. If these parameters have

been found to be optimum in traditional practice then they must, without fail, be useful in modem architecture.

It is necessary to investigate how these measured parameters vary with the other physical and environmental parameters namely; latitude; altitude, radiation, ambient temperature, rainfall humidity, and wind velocity. Any correlation amongst these parameters would be useful to architects and engineers in the practice of designing structures in the built environment.

6.6 SELECTION OF DISTRICT AND AREA TO BE SURVEYED

It was imperative to make the house survey as inexpensive cost as possible. In

order to cover all the typical zones it was further necessary to travel a distance of

about one thousand kilometres from the northern end of the country 9° 20'S to 17°

10'S. It was also necessary to conduct each local survey in an area close to a weather station within the locality from where meteorological data could be extracted. Table 6.5 shows a list of the districts, number of houses surveyed and the selected environmental parameters. The most important point to note is the fact that these districts represented all the typical zones identified in section 4.2.1.

Table 6.5 Classification of the Selected Districts Surveyed and the Number of Houses in each District (N), and the Environmental Parameters

6.7 METHODOLOGY OF SURVEY

In order to eliminate some local influences on the orientation of a house the following criteria were taken into account in the survey.

6.4.1 -The house had to be away from a road to eliminate the possible

influence of the road for the orientation of the entrance door

6.4.2 -The houses in the area had to be heterogeneous; namely that all the

house types listed in table 6.6 had to be included.

Table 6.6 House Plan And Roof Types Of The Building Surveyed

For each location, the prevailing wind direction was recorded by observing the natural vegetation as described in section 5.4.6, and by interviewing the local residents.

6.8 ANALYSIS OF THE FUNCTIONS OF THE HOUSE STRUCTURES In the analysis the effort was directed at those structural elements that appeared to shield the house from the effect of extreme weather. In figure 6.8. the following elements were observed to have the assigned structural functions: Depth of the Eaves (E_w) Cuts off the direct radiation at the appropriate time and prevents the walls from gaining excessive heat. Height of Eaves (H_e) reduces the aperture of Verandah Roof Slope Angle (θ) Optimises the exclusion of the direct solar radiation

To minimise intrusion into people's privacy and to make sure that even those houses whose occupants were not present at the time of the visit the structures to be measured were carefully chosen to give complete and meaningful results. The survey techniques had been perfected in the trial survey in section 6.2; and choice of house elements to be measured had also been made.

Height of Verandah (H_k) Modifies the height of eave to correct the verandah aperture to the optimum size.

during the year from winter to summer and from morning to afternoon.

The practical principle involved here is that if the strong irradiance starts at solar angle α_1 then this angle must just protect the wall in order to cut off the 60-80% of thermal energy. In this case the critical aperture is H_v . If the house is constructed with eaves height H_{e} ; such that H_{e} H, then there has to be a correction or a modifying structural feature that must; be used to correct this situation so that H_y is the suitable aperture at the critical angle. α_1 . This structural element appears to be H_k which is the verandah plinth height. In the analysis it is

necessary to prove that there is a correlation between the roof angle θ and correction feature H_k

From Field observation it seems that E_d is not important in the solar radiation exclusion argument. However, it is geometrically correct to conclude that the angle of slope θ defines the Verandah aperture R_2 such that H_v is always equal to

 R_2 Where this is not achieved during the construction of the house and that the critical solar angle is α_1 becomes α_2 such that $\alpha_2 > \alpha_1$ then intuitively the

magnitude of H_k is determined to a level where the relationship represented in

equation (6.9) should be maintained in order to have the correct aperture R_3 .

In the results significance values of $p \le 0.045$ were regarded as acceptable. Those 138

For thermal comfort conditions to exist in the house, it is necessary to maximise the exclusion of the strong irradiance. However, since the solar angle varies from hour to hour in each day and from month to month in the course of the year it is suspected here that the roof angle chosen by the builder through experience is the optimum for all the critical days of the year.

6.9 CHOICE OF VARIABLES IN THE HOUSE SURVEY

In order to analyse the relatively large volume data from the nine selected

districts, representing all the three zones, as listed in table 6.5; a correlation and

significance levels analysis using Pearson's partial relationship was curried out.

parameters that were found to have significant correlations were further tested using multi-regression analysis to deduce empirical equations of the relationship. Detailed figures showing all the parameters that are shown in the survey are in listed Appendix 6.1.

It was also decided to explore the distribution of preferred house dimensions in the selected districts. Since the length and width of each house were measured for rectangular and square houses, and diameters for round houses, it was

decided to include in the analysis, a factor of the house plan area as an indirect function. It is felt that the area factor would be better than the actual linear dimensions from the survey. Thus there were three classes of variables that were identified; namely the physical, the environmental and the on-site parameters.

6.10 ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

6.10.1 Selected Analysis Techniques.

In order to derive practical information from the survey four statistical

techniques were used. These techniques were;

1 Scatter grams;

2 Normal Distribution Histograms;

3 Multiple Regression Analysis; and

4 Pearson's Associations.

6.10.2 Pearson's Associations Test

For a quick review of the correlations amongst all the chosen parameters, the Pearson Association analysis was used and the complete results are shown in appendix 6.2. However, for detailed analysis it is necessary to show relationships that exist between the chosen structural features and the

 ϵ

environmental parameters.

From the statistical relationships shown on table 6.7, empirical relationships

can be deduced as follows;

$$
1 \quad H_e = \quad 0.27 R_a
$$

$$
2 \qquad \theta = 0.26 R_{\rm a} - 0.28 H_{\rm e}
$$

$$
3 \t Ed = 0.10 Ra + 0.30 He - 0.190
$$

$$
4 \tE_W = 0.38 R_a + 0.11 H_e - 0.140 + 0.37 E_d
$$

5
$$
H_K = 0.005 R_a + 0.37 H_e - 0.04 \theta + 0.28 E_d - 0.01 E_w
$$

$$
6 \quad \text{A}_{\text{f}} = 0.49 \, \text{R}_{\text{a}} + 0.38 \, \text{H}_{\text{e}} - 0.170 + 0.32 \, \text{E}_{\text{d}} + 0.21 \, \text{E}_{\text{w}} + 0.18 \, \text{H}_{\text{K}}
$$

It is desired to accept a significance level of $p \le 0.045$. In this case and after inspecting the correlations and their significance levels values in table 6.7, then only relationships 1,2 and 6 are acceptable and likely to give correct figures. These relationships may have occurred due to the type of building materials or the physiological dimensions of the occupants

Table 6.7 • Correlations and Probabilities Amongst the Structura Elements (N=259)

Table 6.8 Correlations and Probabilities Amongst the Physical and Environmental Parameters (N=281)

In this table 6.8 the relationships that have acceptable significance values; $p \le 0.045$ are the following;

This being an empirical relationship the units of the solar radiation in relationship 1 would be in MJm⁻²Day^{-1.}

$$
I_t = -0.63 H_L - 0.38 H_m
$$

$$
R_r = 0.21 H_L + 0.82 H_m - 0.15 I_t
$$

6.10.3 Distribution Of Structural Features From North To South

One of the easiest visual ways to show how these the differences of magnitudes of these are parameters are distributed from north to the south was to do the skew

analysis (ς) . These results are shown in figures 6.9-6.15. Table 6.9 shows the

important descriptive statistics. These could be very important in drafting

National Building Regulations for Malawi.

For practitioners in Malawi, the distribution of these structural features would be useful as guidelines in designing. These structural features may have empirically been designed to function and give optimum performance of the house..

Table 6.9 Descriptive Statistics Showing Technical Values That Could Be Considered In Drawing Up National Building Regulations

the control of the control of the con-

뜨 မိ Ea 6.10 Fig.

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145

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0052 š 11 Б ribut Dist Height plinth Verandah

٥ Fig.

 146

.8794 $\widehat{\mathbb{I}}$ **CD Distribution** Width 8 \mathbf{E}

 ϵ

◒

Koustukang

VERANDAH PLINTH HEIGHT VERSUS EAVES HEIGHT. 6.11

There are a number observations that can be drawn from appendices 6.1 and 6.2 and tables 6.7 and 6.8. These graphs figures 6.16.and6.17 represent measured dimensions from 276 house. Using the least square method it is clear that the best constructed houses are those that fall on the line. One of the relationships that are of interest is that plinth height H_k and H_v determine the level and duration of the solar radiation that would be reaching the walls.

Reducing exposure of the building walls to radiation is one of the ways to control the indoor temperature. Figure 6.16 shows the relationship between the eaves height and the verandah plinth height. This result has p<0.045 and correlation $r=0.3652$. The empirical equation that is drawn from this scatter gram is;

$$
H_v = 32.37 + 0.11 H_k \qquad 6.10.
$$

This result is expected if the Verandah plinth height H_k has to adjust the eaves height to the acceptable height H_v which is the aperture such that the critical solar angle is achieved to minimise the thermal energy gain in the house walls

Scatter Plot of HKG vs EAVESHT

A Scatter Gram Of Eaves Height (H_v) Against Verandah $Fig.6.16$ Plinth Height (H_k)

HOUSE ROOF SLOPE VERSUS EAVES HEIGHT 6.12

Figure 6.17 Shows the relationship between the Roof slope and the eaves height. This is probably expected given the structural geometry. However, what is important to note here is the fact that figure 6.16 and 6.17 have an inverse relationship. The empirical equation that is drawn from this scatter gram is as follows;

 $35.9170 - .00528$ H_k $\theta =$

 (6.11)

The values of $p<0.045$ and correlation $r = 0.2764$.

Scatter Plot of EAVESHT vs ROOFSL

Fig.6.17 A Scatter Gram Of Roof Slope Angle (θ) Against Height Of Eaves (H_v)

RADIATION SOLAR 6.13 **VERSUS** THE **HOUSE SELEC**

HOUSE STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS

Table 6.10 illustrates the relationships amongst the Solar radiation and the house structure features; Roof slope, Eaves height, Roof apex, Verandah depth, Eaves width and the verandah plinth height.

Table 6.10 Selected Statistical Relationships of Radiation and House Structural Elements (N=261)

 $I_t = 21.1901 + 8.513$ * 10^{-5} R₁ – 5.189 * 10^{-4} H_k – 2.386 * 10^{-4} H_y $+3.614 * 10^{-4} E_w + 0.01342 \ \theta - 1.200 * 10^{-6} E_d$ (6.12)

The Empirical equation of these elements as derivatives of the local radiation levels is as follows. From least square method the analysis the following empirical equation is derived.

In this equation; p<0.045; and r^2 = 0.1073. It is clear in table 6.10 that the verandah depth (VDEPTH) is least influenced by the intensity of solar radiation. The probability for this parameter (VDEPTH) is $p=0.9045$. This is evidenced by the fact that the coefficient of this factor in equation 6.10 is the least. The most influential parameter to this equation is the Roof Slope

(ROOFSL) and the weakest is the VDEPTH relationship.

Equation (6.12) establishes a relationship that exists amongst all the structural features and solar radiation. It is the roof slope that determines the eaves

height and then aperture is modified by the plinth height wherever necessary. The subtle conclusion to note is that the solar radiation does not influence the depth of the Verandah. Indeed this should be the expected result. The verandah depth E_d is not necessarily equal to width of the eaves E_w . It is also important to note that all other structural features except the verandah depth are intuitively determined by the builder as a direct function of his assessment of the severity of the solar radiation in the environment.

Tables 6.9 and 6.10; show that there are relationships that between the solar radiation and the structural features in the traditional houses. The intuitive skills of the local builders into their designs structural elements that moderate the effects of the environmental factors that promote thermal discomfort. This is a subtle point but provides basic information that is a knowledge gap that must be addressed and this area can be researched further for incorporating this knowledge in the modem construction technologies of houses.

CHAPTER 7

7.0 FINAL DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE WORK

7.1 DISCUSSION

Malawi is a country within the tropics and its climate can be described as Warm-Humid and Wet- Dry. However, some parts of the country are hot and have climate conditions almost similar to desert conditions in the dry season. Other parts of the country enjoy cool temperature climate that is prevalent in upland areas.

Where the ambient temperatures persistently approach and exceed the body temperature, problems of thermal discomfort are experienced. In this state the body experiences thermal stress and this stress can lead to mental incapacitation, onset of physiological disabilities and even death due to heart failure. This occurs because the body as an engine has to have a cold sink in order to dissipate the excess heat. In the absence of this heat sink, the body's systems efficiency drops to zero and in theory this means that the body is not working.

In this work it is discussed that thermal comfort is critical to creative thinking, maximum physiological output, and physical activity. These activities determine the productivity of a people in any country. The common solution to maintain thermal comfort in a liveable environment in modem times is to use

air conditioning. Mechanical air conditioning is only accessible to a few financially able persons, and drains a country's wealth through importation of the cooling devices. This is the problem experienced in Malawi. However careful analysis of the environment and sensitive design to achieve natural

cooling and environmental temperature within the thermal comfort range can be achieved.

Extensive research work as reviewed in literature in chapter 2 has shown that thermal comfort temperature is dependent on age, sex, culture, health, clothing level of humidity, local air velocity, ambient temperature and most important of all; levels of solar irradiance.

There are known upper limits of temperatures beyond which the body suffers permanent physiological damage. There are also no irreversible physiological damages that the body suffers from short period exposure to temperatures below the lower comfort limit compared to the risk of exposure for similar periods at the higher temperatures beyond the upper of the thermal comfort limit. The literature survey has shown that the worldwide temperature range for thermal comfort is from 11^0C to 35⁰C.

There is quite substantial evidence that to some extent the state of mind and expectation of persons affects their own degree of thermal comfort. This phenomenon is more related to times of the day and seasonal changes. This phenomenon is designated as anticipation. Thermal comfort is a complex subject that can be defined by using both subjective and objective scale indices. The simplest and most reliable although not very accurate indicator of thermal discomfort is air temperature. For

practical purposes and for use at the design stage the annual mean maximum

temperature is a useful index in order to avoid over or under assessment..

Clothing, humidity, and air velocity play very important roles in moderating the degree of discomfort in environments where temperatures are outside the neutral temperature range of $22-26^{\circ}$ C. The most common neutral temperature zone extends from 18° C to 26° C, where in a vote count, 80% 100% of the 153

respondents in a given survey would feel comfortable. Rigorous analysis of the data that has been published indicates that the median of the neutral zone is 24^oC. Research conducted in Zambia shows that the neutral temperature fits in within 2^0C on either side of 24^0C . In a survey of preferred shower bath temperatures in Malawi the mid point of the neutral temperature was found to be 24.6^oC. By assigning a range to this point of $2^{0}C$ on either side of the mid point the neutral zone for Malawi is approximated to $22{\text -}27^{\circ}\text{C}$. In this work, 22 27°C is established as the neutral temperature zone for Malawi, which is in close agreement with the ISO 7730 Standard. If a design is based on ISO 7730 the effect would be to over design the air conditioning device and this would be a waste of scarce resources of a nation. The recommendation from this work is that Malawi should adopt this range as the neutral temperature range in order to avoid over designing air conditioning equipment. It must be noted that if the ISO recommendation of a range of PMV as -0.5<PMV< +0.5 were to be taken, then the neutral range for Malawi would be 24.1° C -25.1° C. On the other hand Fanger (Fanger; 1988) recommends a comfort range of 20 24°C in winter and 23 26°C in summer corresponding to Clo values of between 1 and 0.5

respectively. Malawi is a tropical country where temperature ranges are as shown on Appendix 4.5. Since acclimatisation in thermal comfort is also important, then the proposed neutral range here is correct as an annual range. From observations the most popular and common clothing in Malawi corresponds to the pictorial designation suggested by Fanger which is between Clo 0.3 and Clo 1.0.

 $Fig 7.1$ Fanger's Method for classifying the Severity of Clo values (After Fanger1998). Boxed area matches with common clothing practice in Malawi

For Malawi the problem of thermal discomfort should mainly concentrate on the reduction of room temperature as illustrated in the short study of the three

houses in Ekwendeni, and the survey of daily and annual mean-maximum temperatures. This is the area where costs are unnecessarily being incurred by procuring air conditioning equipment that is otherwise not necessary if thorough environmental analyses are carried out at the design stage to allow the incorporation of passive design. Wherever nothing is done about the thermal discomfort, the human physiological output will inevitably be low. The latter is subtle and would manifest itself in low productivity and creativity of the people; as discussed at the end of chapter six, although the people themselves would generally not be aware of this fact.

The solar radiation pattern in Malawi reflects the diverse physical features of Radiation is higher in the low altitude areas than on the high the country. altitude areas. On the other hand, wind velocities are higher on the high 155

altitude areas than in low altitude areas. However, the wind velocities in the low altitude areas are high enough to allow the required minimum indoor wind velocities to be achieved if a building was properly orientated with respect to the direction of the prevailing wind, which is predominantly south-easterly.

In the highland areas, temperatures that are higher than the comfortable range can easily be corrected in the building design by taking advantage of the air velocities, which are sometimes in excess of 4 ms''. However, there is hardly

Detailed analysis shows that the country can be divided into three zones namely; High altitude areas are over 1000 m.a.m.s.l. Mid altitude areas are 800-

1000 m.a.m.s.l., and Low altitude areas are 52-800 m.a.m.s.l. The lowest habitable area with a meteorological station is Ngabu in the extreme south of Malawi where the altitude is 52 m.a.m.s.l.

The air temperature varies inversely with the altitude. The radiation in the low altitude areas can be as high as 21.7 MJ m⁻² Day^{-1.} The peak irradiance can be as high as 940 Wm⁻² while the lowest irradiance during the day can be as low as $60Wm⁻²$ When there are low rain clouds.

any difference in humidity levels between the upland and lowland areas. In any case humidity does not seem to be a problem in Malawi since the wind velocities throughout the year are high enough to cause air movement when the humidity levels are high. Humidity above 85% would only be a problem if the wind velocities were to remain below 0.1ms⁻¹. This is indeed not the situation in Malawi.

The analysis has confirmed that temperatures in the low altitude areas are

outside the thermal comfort range in the warm and dry season. Although the

analyses of meteorological data show that the air temperature in the cold

season, in the high altitude areas can fall below the comfortable range, the field

observations have shown that at these low temperatures people don't seem to 156

exhibit desperate signs of discomfort. It is a common observation that when temperatures fall below the comfortable limit people put on clothes of high Clo values. This is a simpler solution to restore thermal comfort. However, this simple solution is only possible and convenient at the lower temperature limits. At the upper end of the thermal comfort temperatures limit it is not as simple and convenient to apply a solution

The analysis of the building dimensions surveyed in nine carefully selected

representative districts from north to south of Malawi show that there are very important structural elements incorporated in the houses that are intuitively designed to promote thermal comfort. The survey has also shown that these structural elements are related to the terrestrial and environmental factors of latitude, altitude, temperature, humidity, wind velocity, precipitation and solar radiation. There appears to be appreciable differences in these relationships amongst the nine districts. The survey that has been carried out in the nine representative districts has yielded useful information. However, the differences that have been observed trigger further interesting questions on how

the problem of thermal discomfort has been dealt in the traditional construction techniques.

The hypothesis that was tested was whether there would be some structural elements in traditional buildings that are intuitively designed to maximise thermal comfort in the environment. The hypothesis suggests that indeed there may be structural features that are intuitively designed to promote thermal comfort. The most important result is that both architects and engineers can learn a lot from adopting the concepts used in the traditional construction

techniques. These traditional construction techniques are based on intuition or

experience but can be traced to verifiable scientifically principles.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

Malawi as a country, especially the low altitude areas, can have high temperatures and for the sake of good health, high productivity, and to save the little foreign exchange that is spent to import air conditioning devices it is necessary that thermal comfort through passive design be maintained in the liveable areas. Maintaining the thermal comfort through mechanical ventilation is not always necessary when a careful study of the meteorological data of the area is carefully studied. An Assessment of the severity of thermal

discomfort of any given location can be worked out by using the Degree. Day formula.

However, it is possible that by adopting the traditional methods of reducing temperatures, thermal comfort can be achieved in most buildings in low altitude areas.

In this study the following summaries and conclusions are definitely important in considering thermal comfort.

1 Factors that Affect Thermal Comfort in a Person

The problem of thermal comfort is a complex one but it has identifiable factors. These factors define how early and severe the thermal comfort can be experienced by any individual. These are sex, age, health condition, psychological condition, body activity state, culture, state of acclimatisation, and anticipation

2 Range and Zone of Thermal comfort

While the thermal comfort range worldwide is 11-33°C and the neutral

zone for thermal comfort is 18-26°C' the neutral temperature zone in

Malawi is 22-27 °C.

3 Temperature Zones in Malawi

There are indices for thermal comfort and the most commonly used index is body temperatures. In Malawi mean air temperatures can be as high as 40°C and as low as 0°C. The air temperature varies inversely with the altitude. Thermal comfort is affected by temperature, humidity and wind velocity. The country can be classified into three zones with respect to altitude in order to deal with the problem of thermal comfort in a rational manner. These zones

The high altitude zone $A_L \le 1000$ m.a.m.s.1 The mid altitude zone $800 < A_L < 1000$ m.a.m.s. The low altitude zone $A_L \geq 48$ m.a.m.s.l

Field observations have shown that people basking in the morning sunshine will chose to sit in sunshade at irradiance levels of between 400-600 Wm^{-2} . At

These zones have definite climatic differences. Using the results in this work it is now possible to calculate radiation of a location using the terrestrial and environmental parameters. Solar Radiation can also be calculated using the structural elements of traditional buildings as shown in this work.; equation

(6.10) repeated below which when rationalised further can be approximated to

4 Levels of Solar Radiation in Malawi

Astronomically the solar radiation in Malawi should have equal peaks in September and March. However, the March peak is lower than the September peak due to high levels of humidity. The available solar radiation data in Malawi has been measured using two different instruments but the results from these instruments are in close agreement. These data are still reliable to be

used to assess an environment

irradiance intensities of higher than $600 \, \text{Wm}^2$ people will certainly sit in the shade

The high thermal gain; 60-80% that occurs through the building walls has been minimised in traditional buildings by the Verandah. Therefore, the problem of thermal comfort in a building can be minimised by keeping out the direct radiation from bombarding the walls.

> Varying the roof slope angle; Reducing the house height; and Maintaining the verandah aperture at a level where the solar $-$

5 Traditional Techniques That Minimise Thermal Discomfort Field observations suggest that the thatched roof has better insulation properties than the corrugated iron roof or the concrete tile roof. A survey of houses in nine districts has shown that the indoor temperatures can be reduced if the solar radiation is cut off. In traditional buildings this has been achieved by.

verandah critical angle will be achieved. The veranda plinth height is the device that has been used to achieve a correction if the aperture is outside the acceptable range. There are some correlations between the house structural elements and local solar radiation levels. Those that have high correlations are the following: Roof slope Height of Eaves Veranda plinth height

These three parameters vary with latitude and altitude. This means that for

solar heat gain control, sensitive designs must take into account the latitude

and altitude of the location in order to specify the correct roof height and

verandah plinth wherever practicable.

6 Tentative Recommendations To Augment The National Building Regulations In Malawi.

In this study it has been shown that in Malawi the thermal conditions especially in the low altitude areas are not optimum for the body to work at its best output levels. The factors that affect thermal comfort are listed and levels of these in different locations in Malawi have been discussed. By analysing the traditional techniques of building construction, structural elements that reduce thermal gain in a building have been identified. The recommendations below are made in the interest of economy of resources, the health, and productivity of the people. Air conditioning should be used as a last resort when and where conditions are extreme and cannot be termed by passive design. The air conditioning solution would vary and should be a function of the house design and shape (Spencer and Anson 1973)

In order to achieve Thermal Comfort Conditions it is recommended that the following design procedures be followed;

- 1. A map showing contours of a site must always be used at the stage of site investigation. The designer would be able to extract the altitude and latitude of the location from the map.
- 2. Meteorological data from the nearest agricultural or meteorological; station should be used to derive solar radiation of the location after standardising the data by using equation (4.1). From this exercise the severity of thermal discomfort can be assessed.
-

The direction of prevailing wind should be determined by inspection

of a wind Rose Map or by observing the natural vegetation.

- 4. In the absence of a pyranometer solar radiation levels should be calculated using equation 6.10 as long as those environmental factors are recorded in the locality.
- 5. Wherever roofing materials are used other than metal the minimum roof slope angle should be 26°. This angle is optimised for the effects of radiation, prevention of roof leakage and minimisation of the roof being blown off the building.

6. In order to maintain minimum solar heat gain in single storey houses, the minimum width of the roof eaves should be 600 mm to cut the strong solar radiation at 0900 and before 1500 hours during the months of August to November when the radiation in Malawi is highest. In order to make sure that the building walls are in shade between 0900 and 1500 hours the local solar critical angle must be calculated and the eaves designed accordingly.

- 7. If the project funds permit to pay for air conditioning equipment this should be designed to achieve a neutral temperature of 22-27°C.
- 8. From the empirical analyses of the field data and in order to minimise the negative effects of weather and optimise thermal comfort in single storey buildings, the dimensions listed in table 7 should be adopted minima as abstracted from the mean values in table 6.9.

9 The minimum ceiling height at places of work as specified in the Public Health Act; Cap. 34.0., Occupation Health and Safety at Work Act, 1977; in the Laws of Malawi should be reviewed to take into consideration of functional issues of ceiling height.

Table 7.1 Recommended Minimum Structural Elements For Single Storey Houses For Malawi.

7.3 SUGGSTIONS FOR FUTURE EXTENSION OF THIS WORK

The importance of thermal comfort and its effect on health have been outlined in this work. Air conditioning devices are not the only way to effect thermal comfort. However, the solution to this problem does not only lie in the use of air conditioning devices. It is argued that if anything the consideration for use of air conditioning must be done as a last option. To many the use of air conditioning devices is a necessity

and not a luxury. This is only in the absence of professional advice that can permeate through the building regulations to emphasize that the process of designing of habitable buildings must be a thorough procedure that should include rigorous justification.

One of the areas that will need detailed countrywide analysis is the question of the risk assessment of damage to health. The Degree Day procedure must be assessed in detail to find exactly the excess temperature in each zone. This may mean holding discussions with the

meteorological authorities and requesting them to extend/modify or refine some parameters in the data collection system and network.

For thermal risk assessment it is proposed here that the mean maximum temperatures should be used. A detailed frequency analysis on how often and for how long do these occur should be done.

Some of the public buildings such as hospitals and schools have to be examined under the criteria of Thermal Comfort. It is possible that there may be unnecessarily suffering that occurs and causes thermal stress especially in infants and elderly people. The question of academic

performance in schools must also be raised. If the temperatures that have been discussed and their effects are to be upheld then there has to be certain rules and regulations in schools that will ensure that pupils and students are not subjected to temperatures where the thermal comfort will compromise their academic performance. One of the obvious research areas on this matter is to conduct a thorough academic performance of pupils in all the three zones.

The other areas to investigate would be to extend the meteorological

data base, to study properties of modem materials that respond to solar radiation such as characteristics of glass and its response to the whole of the solar spectrum and develop solutions to the problem of thermal comfort. The ultimate aim of the further investigation would be to understand the built environment and use inexpensive techniques to achieve thermal comfort in buildings and minimise the importation of the air conditioning devices. The statutory law that governs the health of workers at their places of work can continue to be updated in the light of new information.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1.1. Map of Physical Features of Malawi

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Appendix 4.9 Cumulative Degree Day Figures In Excess Of 27°c

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Appendix 5.1

Plate 5.2 The actual Traditional House That was monitored. Built in 1967 and the roof renewed three times. The Owner/ Architect was quite willing to show the visiting team tall parts of the house and relate its history.

Plate 5.3 The same traditional house taken at a different hour of the day to illustrate how the roof protects all the walls from the strong irradiance at the high hour angles.

Plate 5.5 Another intermediate technology house. Although the windows have been improved, the walls are not fully protected from the strong irradiance during the late morning and early afternoon. Note the insolation through the window and the exposure of half of the front wall. Note the small verandah and plinth.

Plate 5.4 An intermediate technology house. This is the actual house that was measured. This was a special construction programme where government through the United Nations Programme; Habitat introduced the sisal fibre/cement roof which was hand made by each house owner. Some of the windows were simple concrete hollow blocks

Plate 5.6This house was built in 1967; The same year as the traditional house. Note the rusting on the corrugated iron sheets. The owner admitted that he had never painted the roof. Thirty five years later the roof has rusted. Note the high plinth and the poor protection of the walls from the strong irradiance.

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