TOPLIGHTING AND ENERGY SAVING IMPLICATIONS FOR CLASSROOMS IN MUSCAT-OMAN

A Thesis in
Architectural Engineering
by
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ABSTRACT

One of the driving forces for a country's economy is its energy consumption. With a rise in electricity prices, fossil fuels being a finite resource, and their major role in producing greenhouse gas emissions (Environmental Protection Agency, 2013), it is important to minimize energy use and or convert to alternative energy sources. The use of natural daylight for lighting the interior of buildings can reduce prime energy demand and lower negative impacts on the environment.

This research study provides some design guidance of toplighting systems for school classrooms in hot climates such as in Muscat, Oman. This work can serve to advice not only engineers, but also architects by providing an understanding of the relationship between daylight delivered through rooftop fenestration systems and the heat gain resulting from these systems. Usually, for architects, the focus is on building design and less emphasis is placed upon building performance and its effectiveness. Integration of energy simulation tools into the design process can help assess the performance of toplighting and its correlation to energy savings within a space. The aim of this study is to assess appropriate daylighing conditions that do not significantly over-light a space while providing a favorable energy balance between cooling and electrical lighting loads.

A classroom analysis of a 9 meter (30 feet) wide by 7.6 meter (25 feet) deep by 3 meter (10 feet) high space was conducted using two simulation programs: DAYSIMps and IES-VE. Three types of rooftop fenestration were analyzed: skylights, clerestory roof monitors, and roof monitor. Standards for the base model follow the ASHRAE 90.1/ IESNA 2013 prescriptive fenestration guidelines. Aperture placement, glazing type, size, and shape are variables that determine illumination and heat gain levels present in the classroom. Adjustments to these parameters were analyzed and compared to the baseline model with no toplighting fenestration in order to assess illumination, glare, energy, and savings response.
CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES ........................................................................................................ VII
LIST OF TABLES .......................................................................................................... X
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .............................................................................................. XII

1 BACKGROUND ........................................................................................................... 1
   1.1 Introduction .......................................................................................................... 1
   1.2 Research Purpose ............................................................................................... 2
      1.2.1 Research Hypothesis .................................................................................. 2
   1.3 Oman’s Energy Consumption ........................................................................... 2
   1.4 Location, Climate and Sky Types ...................................................................... 6
   1.5 Sun’s Position Relative to Location and Facade Orientation .......................... 8
   1.6 Oman’s Architecture ......................................................................................... 9
   1.7 Daylighted School Spaces ................................................................................. 10
      1.7.1 Structural Implications .............................................................................. 10
   1.8 Occupant Comfort ............................................................................................ 11
   1.9 Heat Gain Considerations ................................................................................. 12

2 LITERATURE REVIEW .............................................................................................. 14
   2.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................ 14
   2.2 Energy Savings and Codes .............................................................................. 14
   2.3 Daylighting Benefits ........................................................................................ 16
      2.3.1 Health ......................................................................................................... 16
      2.3.2 Productivity ............................................................................................... 17
      2.3.3 Mental Performance ................................................................................. 17
   2.4 Energy Savings ................................................................................................... 17
   2.5 The use of Toplight in Schools ......................................................................... 18
   2.6 Toplight Size, Shape, and Type ...................................................................... 19
   2.7 Climate Features Appropriate for Skylighting .............................................. 20
   2.8 Glazing Material for Hot Climates ................................................................. 20
   2.9 Previous Study of Toplighting in Hot Climates .............................................. 22
3 METHODOLOGY .......................................................................................................................... 24

3.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................ 24
  3.1.1 Space Function and Condition ....................................................................................... 25
  3.1.2 Occupancy File .................................................................................................................. 26

3.2 Tools ....................................................................................................................................... 27

3.3 Simulation Tools Input ........................................................................................................... 28
  3.3.1 Weather Data ..................................................................................................................... 28
  3.3.2 Building Envelope ............................................................................................................. 30
  3.3.3 Glazing System Input ......................................................................................................... 31

3.4 Glazing Parameters ................................................................................................................. 33
  3.4.1 Glazing Area ...................................................................................................................... 33
  3.4.2 Preliminary Study of Skylight Glazing Area ..................................................................... 34
  3.4.3 Adjusting Toplighting Glazing Area and Shape ............................................................... 37

3.5 Lighting Requirements ........................................................................................................... 38
  3.5.1 Lighting Fixtures ............................................................................................................... 38
  3.5.2 Dimming Controls ............................................................................................................. 41
  3.5.3 Glare ................................................................................................................................. 41

4 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS ...................................................................................................... 42

4.1 Introduction ............................................................................................................................ 42

4.2 Weather Data Results ............................................................................................................ 42

4.3 Illumination Results and Analysis .......................................................................................... 44
  4.3.1 Daylight Autonomy .......................................................................................................... 44
  4.3.2 Spatial Daylight Autonomy .............................................................................................. 50
  4.3.3 Useful Daylight Autonomy .............................................................................................. 51

4.4 Energy Performance Results and Analysis ............................................................................. 56
  4.4.1 Heat Gain Breakdown ...................................................................................................... 56
  4.4.2 Lighting and AC Gain ....................................................................................................... 63
  4.4.3 Glare ................................................................................................................................. 67

4.5 Results Summary and Recommendations ............................................................................. 70

5 CONCLUSIONS .......................................................................................................................... 72

5.1 Summary .............................................................................................................................. 72
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1: Evolution towards Less Energy Consumption ................................................. 1
Figure 1-2: Typical School Fenestrations in Oman ............................................................. 2
Figure 1-3: Total Energy Consumption per Person, By Country, 2010 ............................. 4
Figure 1-4: Source of Electricity Production in Oman, 2010 ........................................ 4
Figure 1-5: Electrical Consumption Per Capita, USA, Saudi Arabia, Oman, 2011 ........ 5
Figure 1-6: Co2 Emissions Per Capita, USA, Saudi Arabia, Oman, 2011 ...................... 5
Figure 1-7: Co2 Emission Per Capita (Middle East), 2010 .............................................. 6
Figure 1-8: Oman’s Location-Muscat .................................................................................. 6
Figure 1-9: Sun's Rays Angle Striking the Earth Based on Latitude ................................. 7
Figure 1-10: Temperature Distribution and Summary Metrics, Muscat ............................ 7
Figure 1-11: Solar Path Diagram with Suns Showing Monthly Solar Position at Solar Noon for Muscat-Oman ................................................................................................... 8
Figure 1-12: Solar Azimuth and Altitude Relative to Solar Time for Muscat-Oman .......... 9
Figure 1-13: Masharabiya System and Daylight ................................................................. 9
Figure 1-14: Typical School External Layout, Oman .......................................................... 10
Figure 1-15: Typical Concrete Slab for School Building in Muscat (Left), Precast Slab (Right) 11
Figure 1-16: Solar Radiation and Heat Gains inside a Building ..................................... 12
Figure 2-1: Net Zero Challenge ......................................................................................... 14
Figure 2-2: Percentage of Co2 Emission by Sector, Oman 1999 ................................. 15
Figure 2-3: Daylight through Skywells ............................................................................. 19
Figure 2-4: Research 3 in 1 Skylight System ..................................................................... 22
Figure 2-5: Iluminance Values for Polycarbonate and Reflected Glass ......................... 22
Figure 3-1: Toplighting Types to Be Investigated ......................................................... 24
Figure 3-2: Classroom Space Dimension ......................................................................... 26
Figure 3-3: Occupancy Schedule (IES-VE) ................................................................... 26
Figure 3-4: Process Breakdown .................................................................28
Figure 3-5: ASHRAE 90.1 Climate Zoning Breakdown for the USA .................29
Figure 3-6: Climate and Weather for Muscat-Oman ....................................29
Figure 3-7: Type1 Glazing 1x1 Meter (3x3 Feet) ........................................34
Figure 3-8: Type2 Glazing 6.7 X 1 Meter (22x3 Feet) On Both Sides ................34
Figure 3-9: Type3 Glazing 6.7 X 1 Meter (22x3 Feet) ..................................34
Figure 3-10: Type3 Comparing 4 Feet vs. 2 Feet Glazing Diameter Energy Performance for 9 Domed Skylights-SkyCalc ..................................................35
Figure 3-11: Type3 Comparing Number and Configuration Energy Performance –SkyCalc .35
Figure 3-12: Type3 Average Illuminance for 3 Configurations–Skycalc ............36
Figure 3-13: Type3 Comparing Number of Skylights and Configurations ..........36
Figure 3-14: Type1, 2, And 3 and Modified Versions .....................................37
Figure 3-15: Fixture A ..................................................................................39
Figure 3-16: Fixture a Layout (DAYSIMps) ..................................................39
Figure 3-17: Fixture B ..................................................................................40
Figure 3-18: Fixture B Layout .....................................................................40
Figure 4-1: Solar Irradiance-Muscat (IES-VE) .............................................43
Figure 4-2: Counts of Sky Clearness for Muscat-Oman ..................................44
Figure 4-3: Type 1 Diffuse Tvis53: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified Da ....45
Figure 4-4: Type 2 Clear Tvis52: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ......45
Figure 4-5: Type 2 Diffuse Tvis32: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ......46
Figure 4-6: Type 3 Clear Tvis52: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ......46
Figure 4-7: Type 1a Diffuse Tvis53: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified Da ....47
Figure 4-8: Type 2a Clear Tvis52: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ......48
Figure 4-9: Type 2a Diffuse Tvis32: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ......48
Figure 4-10: Type 3a Clear Tvis52: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ...49
Figure 4-11: Type 3a Diffuse Tvis32: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA ..49
Figure 4-12: SDA 1000, 50% for Type1, Type2, Type3, and all orientations, clear and diffuse glazing materials ..........................................................50

Figure 4-13: SDA 400, 50% for Type1a, Type2a, Type3a, and all orientations, clear and diffuse glazing materials ..........................................................51

Figure 4-14: DA 1000 (Left), DA 2000 (Right) For Different Types and Orientations ........52

Figure 4-15: UDI 400-2000 (Left), UDI 2000+ (Right) For Different Types and Orientations 53

Figure 4-16: DA 400 (Left), DA 1000 (Right) For Different Types and Orientations ..........54

Figure 4-17: UDI 400-2000 (Left), UDI 2000+ (Right) For Different Types and Orientations 55

Figure 4-18: Sensible Cooling Loads For Type1a On Left And Type 2a On Right For June The 10th, Peak Resulted Due To Heat Accumulation During Evening Hours ...............58

Figure 4-19: Conduction Gain through External Walls, Floors, and Glazing Facing North ...59

Figure 4-20: Conduction Gain Roof and Glazing, Type1, Type2, Type3 on Left (Top to Bottom). Type1a, Type2a, Type3a on Right (Top to Bottom).................................................60

Figure 4-21: Radiation Gain through Glazing per Year..................................................61

Figure 4-22: Annual Space Cooling Sensible and Room Temperature (North Orientation) ..62

Figure 4-23: Base Model with No Toplighting: Lighting and Cooling Energy Consumption 63

Figure 4-24: Total Energy Savings for Type1, 2 and 3 for different orientations and material type64

Figure 4-25: Total Energy Savings for Type1a, 2a and 3a For Different Orientations and Material Types.............................................................................................65

Figure 4-26: Lighting and Cooling Load Gains, Base vs Type1a.......................................65

Figure 4-27: Lighting and Cooling Load Gains, Base vs. Type2 ......................................66

Figure 4-28: Comparison of the Different Types with Total Energy Savings .....................66

Figure 4-29: Daylight Illuminance Values for Each Day Selected for Glare Analysis .........68

Figure 4-30: Luminance Values Type1a, 2a, 3a, respectively for Selected Dates and Times.69

Figure 5-1: Typ1a, Most Appropriate Toplighting Type for Muscat Oman Climate within Simulation Studies .......................................................................................72

Figure 5-2: Students Well-Being, Energy Efficiency and Environment............................73
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1-1: Summary Span/Depth Ratio For Concrete Systems .................................................. 11
Table 2-1: Solar Transmission for Different Glass Types ............................................................ 21
Table 2-2: SFR and Cooling Loads Energy Savings ................................................................. 23
Table 3-1: Toplighting Types to Be Investigated ....................................................................... 25
Table 3-2: Method of Calculating Students Number per Classroom Size ............................... 25
Table 3-3: Recommended Reflectance Values- ASHRAE Advanced Energy Design Guide .26
Table 3-4: Perez Sky Clearness Categories .............................................................................. 29
Table 3-5: ASHRAE 90.1 2013 Building Envelope Requirement for Zone 1 ......................... 30
Table 3-6: Wall Construction Layers (IES-VE) ......................................................................... 30
Table 3-7: Floor Construction Layers (IES-VE) ........................................................................ 31
Table 3-8: Roof Construction Layers (IES-VE) ......................................................................... 31
Table 3-9: Fenestration Requirements ASHRAE 90.1-2013 .................................................... 32
Table 3-10: Example of Products Available in the Market, Vertical Glazing (Left), and Horizontal Glazing (Right) ............................................................... 32
Table 3-11: Glazing Construction Layers (IES-VE) ................................................................. 32
Table 3-13: Minimum Toplight Area ASHRAE 90.1-2013, Table 8.3.4.1 ............................ 33
Table 3-14: Type3 Comparing Number and Configuration Energy Performance –Skycalc ... 35
Table 3-15: 32 W T8 Lamp Dimming Ballast ........................................................................... 41
Table 4-1: Heat Gain Breakdown for All Orientations ............................................................. 57
Table 4-2: Sensible Cooling Loads for Triple Glazing vs Double Glazing ............................. 58
Table 4-3: DGI Glare Analysis for Type1a, 2a, 3a, respectively .............................................. 70
Table 4-4: Matrixes Summary Table for Investigated Toplighting Systems, Highest Values with Lighter Shade ................................................................. 71
Table 4-5: Electrical Lighting vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption and Total Energy Savings for Type1a Triple Glazing (Left), Double Glazing (Right) .................. 71
Table 0-1: North Diffuse - Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types

Table 0-2: North Clear - Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types

Table 0-3: South Diffuse - Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types

Table 0-4: South Clear - Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types

Table 0-5: West Diffuse - Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types

Table 0-6: East Diffuse - Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types
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1 BACKGROUND

“The cast glass, which makes up the outer layer of the façade, sporadically reflects the light and periodically shrouds the gleaming metal writing behind it. In this way, the light is the only material around the building which is forever changing.” - Roger Diener

1.1 Introduction

As the world transforms into a whole web of integrated technologies, building systems should evolve in the same direction; where the building interior and facade communicate effectively with its external surround (see Figure 1.1). Daylighting has been used as a method of illumination in buildings since ancient times. The Pyramids of Giza, Taj Mahal in India, and the Pantheon in Rome are all inspiring precedents that have incorporated natural light as part of their design scheme. Natural lighting use is not limited to illuminating dark spaces, but also utilized as a mean of enhancing space aesthetics, increasing occupant performance, improving the health of occupants, and providing significant energy savings. A certain aspect that makes daylighting variable is its dependence on geographic location. As a result, it interacts uniquely with each building, architecture, orientation, and surround. The Sultanate of Oman, a country located in the South-Eastern quarter of the Arabian Peninsula, is bestowed with abundant sunlight throughout the year. Allowing daylight infiltration into internal spaces should enhance indoor environmental quality, if measured design is put into consideration. One space type that would qualify for such investigation is that of a school classroom.

This introduction section will first discuss the purpose of this study and its significance in relation to energy consumption. Subsequently, the local climate and sky types will be presented. A section discussing the importance of solar position relative to the building façade follows. After that, the main features of the architecture in Oman and structural implications in relation to school buildings are outlined. Finally a closeout related to the comfort of occupants and heat gain considerations is explained.

Figure 1-1: Evolution towards Less Energy Consumption

Source: Albert, Righter and Tittmann Architects
1.2 Research Purpose

Concerns on energy source exhaustion and pollution that results from these sources has led the industry into reforming building design strategies that serve energy conservation and reduce environmental impacts worldwide. In Oman, most buildings have small window openings, which implies a constant struggle between admitting daylight or blocking heat from entering the interior (see Figure 1-2). In general, it is rare to see buildings that deploy natural light in this climate setting, let alone implementation of a system such as skylights. The overlying purpose of this study is to create a general reference for Architects and Engineers who are interested in implementing toplighting in classrooms within the Middle East or in similar climates. This research examines the use of different roof fenestration types in order to discuss the opportunities and pitfalls of each system and their performance with regards to energy savings.

Figure 1-2: Typical School Fenestrations in Oman

Source: beta uniandi, Lee Blog

1.2.1 Research Hypothesis

The Hypothesis statement that is assumed for this study is as follows:

Appropriate toplighting systems will result in an overall annual energy savings in a classroom space for hot climates such as in Muscat, Oman.

1.3 Oman's Energy Consumption

Energy usage plays an important role in the economic growth of a country. There is a linear relationship between the consumption of energy and a county's gross domestic product (GDP). The main driving force for energy utilization in Oman is its climate; where cooling represents the major energy usage throughout the year. The International Energy Agency (IEA) collected data worldwide on total energy consumption for the year of 2010. The results indicated that Oman falls under the range of 250-400 millions of British Thermal Units (BTU) per person, which ranks second on the bar scale as shown in Figure 1-3. Oman, the main fuel source of electrical production comes from natural gas at 82%, whereas the rest comes from oil (see Figure 1-4).
Due to the abundance of natural gas and oil, the cost of electricity in Oman is inexpensive. Depending on the kilowatt hour (kWh) usage, electricity rates ranges from 10 baiza-30 baiza ($0.026-0.07) per kWh for governmental and residential buildings. Note this is what the consumers pay depending on kWh peak use, where usage of 10,000 or more kWh is charged 3 times more than a usage of 3,000 kWh. For buildings under the commercial sector, the charges are 20 baiza ($0.05) per kWh. The government subsidizes 50% of the total cost, which means that primary cost would be 40 baiza ($0.10) per kWh. Reduction in energy use will offer savings not only for the consumer but also for the government.

The economic growth of Oman has been steadily rising since the 1980's, and simultaneously its energy usage. Currently, the population of Oman is around three million, and one third of it are foreigners. As reported by the IEA, the electricity consumption per capita in Oman is 6,292 kWh, which is approximately half of the electricity use per capita in the USA at 13,246 kWh (see Figure 1-5). The energy consumption per capita in Oman doubled from 2000 to 2011. As global population increases and with the advancement of technology, energy demand may likewise increase. This demand increase, if dependent solely on fossil fuels, will result in an increased carbon footprint. Although electricity use in Oman is about 50% of the USA’s per capita, its carbon dioxide (CO₂) emission is approximately 14% higher than in the USA (see Figure 1-6). The values for CO₂ have tripled from the 1980's to 2010 in Oman, where Oman is considered third highest in the Middle East area for CO₂ emissions per capita (see Figure 1-7). This increase presents a concern to the negative environmental impacts associated with greenhouse gas emissions.

Historically, Oman has exported most of its oil and gas output to maximize revenues. According to the US. Energy Information Agency (EIA), in 2013 Oman exported more than 97% of its oil to countries located in Asia, with 60% of the exports directed to China. Contract obligations with other countries demand Oman to export 55% of gas reserves. These contracts are due for renewal by 2020, therefore the government created the Omani Vision 2020. One of the primary foci of this Vision is reducing the reliance on oil and gas and providing electrical power from inexpensive sources to meet domestic, commercial and industrial demands. The 2020 Vision also plans to gradually cut down on government incentives and reduce its role in providing public services, therefore electricity prices will not stay the same. With the unstable production of oil and gas, these exports have led to a shortage of primary resources that generate electricity to meet domestic demands, especially during seasonal peak times. Oman has only one natural gas pipeline called the Dolphin pipeline. This pipeline runs through the United Arab Emirates to Qatar, where around 5-7 million cubic meters (180-200 million cubic feet) is imported from Qatar per day, ranging from about 5-8% of the total gas production in Oman. Likewise, the fluctuating price of oil and gas has lead the Omani government to promote studies where other energy resources are substituted. To date, no effective alternatives to replace the current natural sources have been implemented, but efforts are being made towards utilizing sources that reduce demand usage of oil and gas to create electricity.
Figure 1-3: Total Energy Consumption per Person, By Country, 2010

*Source: International Energy Agency*

Figure 1-4: Source of Electricity Production in Oman, 2010

*Source: Macro Economy Meter*
Figure 1-5: Electrical Consumption Per Capita, USA, Saudi Arabia, Oman, 2011

*Source: The World Bank, 2014*

Figure 1-6: CO2 Emissions Per Capita, USA, Saudi Arabia, Oman, 2011

*Source: The World Bank, 2014*
1.4 Location, Climate and Sky Types

The Sultanate of Oman is situated between the latitudes of 16° and 28° North and longitudes of 52° and 60° East. The country’s size is approximately 300,000 km² (115,000 mi²) which is close to the size of Arizona in the United States of America, and it has a coast line of 1,700 Km (1,000 mi). Muscat, the capital city of Oman was chosen as a study location for this report. The North city of Muscat, falls at a latitude of 23.58 degrees North, and a longitude of 58.28 degrees East (see Figure 1-8). This location falls very near the Tropic of Cancer where the sun can lie directly overhead during the summer (see Figure 1-9).
The weather in Oman generally represents a hot and arid climate in the desert region and hot and humid along the coast most of the year with the exception of scattered rainfall that averages approximately 4 inches per year (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 1990). The average low temperature is 17.3°C (63.1°F) during the month of January with an average high of 40.4°C (104.7°F) during the month of June (see Figure 1-10). Relative humidity ranges between 42-67% throughout the year and is at its peak during the summer. Though an ideal humidity level would depend on ambient temperature; humans are usually comfortable within the 50-60% range. The mean sunshine hours per year are 3,493.3 hours, which indicates that approximately 80% of the time during the year the sky would be clear in Muscat. Three main categories of skies are usually studied: clear, overcast and partly cloudy. The sky breakdown for Muscat will be addressed in the methodology section of this report using the Perez Sky clearness categories.
1.5 Sun’s Position Relative to Location and Facade Orientation

Elements such as the sun angle, time of the day, and building orientation affect the levels and magnitude of daylight and heat entering a space. The two parameters that describe the position of the sun in the sky are the sun’s altitude and azimuth. The vertical angle between the horizon and the center of the sun's disc is defined as the sun’s altitude and the horizontal angle of the sun in relation to a cardinal direction is referred to as the azimuth. These angles can be determined using the charts from the Illuminating Engineering Society Handbook (Dilaura, Houser, Mistrick, & Steffy, 2011) or via an online sun chart calculator. Noontime altitude angles for Muscat range between 85-90 degrees during the summer (May-July) the highest being during the month of June, and between 41-45 degrees at solar noon during the winter (November-January), with December being the lowest (see Figure 1-12). Overall, the sun’s altitude is relatively high throughout the year, and lower by approximately 45 degrees during the winter. During the summer in June the azimuth angle is between (70E -290W) with little direct sun to the South facing exposure (see Figure 1-11). The azimuth angle is between (116 E-243W) during the month of December at sunrise and sunset of East and West, with no direct sun to the North facing exposure. The position of the sun generally infers that the areas mainly affected by the intensity of direct sunlight and heat are façades facing South, West, East and the rooftop. During summer at noon, the sun’s altitude is nearly perpendicular to the horizontal plane; therefore we would expect equally intense exposure for flat or skylight rooftops during solar noon. We would also expect intense irradiance on the East and West facade during morning and evening hours especially during the summer and equinoxes of March and September. The Northern façade would mainly get indirect sunlight. Precaution is needed to minimize cooling loads when adding glazing to the roof, South, West, and East facing façades.

Figure 1-11: Solar Path Diagram with Suns Showing Monthly Solar Position at Solar Noon for Muscat-Oman

Source: Pv Education
1.6 Oman’s Architecture

The elements that shaped building design in Oman have evolved and revolved around rejecting solar heat. Because of the hot arid nature of the country, most building surfaces and roofs are painted white to reflect the sun’s rays off the facade, therefore providing less heat gain. The roofs of the buildings are flat and generally contain the MEP equipment. Windows are symmetrically placed and structured throughout the façade with no regards to sun direction. These windows are usually shaded using blinds, fabric or external shading such as Masharabiya; a projecting window enclosed with wooden latticework creating a screen that filters light through the window into the room (Feeney, 1974) (see Figure 1-13). The wall of the buildings consist of concrete blocks that serve as a thermal barrier keeping the building cool from the inside, especially during high summer peaks.

Figure 1-12: Solar Azimuth and Altitude Relative to Solar Time for Muscat-Oman

Source: University Of Oregon

Figure 1-13: Masharabiya System and Daylight

Source: Qela, Erick Lafforgue
1.7 Daylighted School Spaces

A typical school layout in Oman would consist of a large central courtyard with surrounding arcades that lead into classrooms. The combination of courtyards and arcades play a role in adding soft illumination throughout the hallways during certain times of the day. Nowadays, even the courtyards are covered with canopies in order to avoid intense solar illumination (see Figure 1-14). Most school buildings are one to two stories resulting in a wide footprint spread when compared to existing office buildings of ten stories. This extensive roof layout makes it more amenable to adding rooftop fenestration. Usually the method for providing daylight into classrooms is via windows, yet a lot of times this daylight transmission is restricted and blocked via shading devices. Incorporating a method such as a skylight with appropriate glazing material could assist in providing quality illumination that is uniformly distributed over the room.

![Typical School External Layout, Oman](image)

*Source: QPS-Oman*

1.7.1 Structural Implications

Studying the structure of a roof in a building is a crucial part in determining the type, spacing, size and feasibility of installing rooftop fenestration. A typical roof structure in Oman uses reinforced concrete. Usually the slab for school buildings in Oman has a depth around 15-20 cm (6-8 inches) with beam spans of 3-4 meters (9-12 feet) and beam depth of 0.5 meters (1.5 feet) (see Figure 1-15). Since rebar, mesh and beams run though this type of structure in both directions; it would be impractical to add skylights to existing buildings with a similar slab arrangement. On the other hand, a precast hollow core concrete plank can span a maximum of 9 m (30 feet) for the same slab depth range in new construction. These planks are typically 1.2 x 1.5 meters (4 x 6 feet), where the skylight could be situated using a metal saddle to hold it in place between the planks. Although a double tee slab structure may have a longer span, it is restricted in beam spacing and depth (see Table 1-1). For example, if spacing between one tee and another is 1.5 meters (5 feet) a minimum beam depth of 0.5 meters (24 inches) is required.
Since buildings are built as habitats for people, it is important to take into consideration comfort measures that would satisfy the average occupant. As per the ASHRAE 90.1 standard, the benchmark for assessing comfort level is that 80% of occupants are satisfied. There are two concerns that should be considered when assessing comfort with skylights: thermal comfort and visual comfort.

Heat gain in buildings located in hot regions is a major comfort concern. There are two sources of heat gain for a building: external and internal gains. External gains result from: roofs, walls, skylights, windows, ventilation and infiltration. Internal heat gain consists of heat emitted from lights, people, and equipment such as projectors and printers (Spitler, 2010) (see Figure 1-16). These heat gains show up in a space either as immediate or latent loads that could surface after hours of storage in certain materials. Careful design should consider the effect of both gains to assure occupant thermal comfort.

**1.8 Occupant Comfort**

| Source: AE422-Dr.Boothby |

| Table 1-1: Summary Span/Depth Ratio For Concrete Systems |

| Reinforced concrete (From ACI 318-05), Table 9.5(a) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | cantilever* | simply supported | continuous one side | continuous both sides |
| slab | 10 | 20 | 24 | 28 |
| beam | 8 | 16 | 18.5 | 21 |

| Prestressed hollow core concrete plank |
|---|---|---|---|
| | cantilever* | simply supported | continuous one side | continuous both sides |
| slab | 10 | 45 | |
| beam | |

| Prestressed concrete double tees and girders |
|---|---|---|---|
| | cantilever* | simply supported | continuous one side | continuous both sides |
| slab | 8 | 20 | |
| beam | | | |

**Figure 1-15: Typical Concrete Slab for School Building in Muscat (Left), Precast Slab (Right)**

*Source: e-Space, Archiproducts*
Thermal comfort is based on the ability of people to shed heat. Good human comfort is generally possible between the ranges from 70-75 F (21 C-24 C) depending on the climate and location. The temperature of the internal core of a human is 98.6 F (37 C) (Anderson, 2014). Having direct sunlight from window fenestration may cause asymmetrical discomfort, where mean radiant temperature would vary significantly, especially for students sitting next to the window. This asymmetrical distribution of heat, where direct sun hits one side of the human body, could cause high discomfort where a person is not able to shed heat evenly. When a proper skylight system with translucent glazing is used, this problem should be eliminated.

![Figure 1-16: Solar Radiation and Heat Gains inside a Building](source: Photoshop, Engineer Pro Guides)

Visual comfort for roof fenestration includes glare assessment. One source for glare discomfort could be from the glazing type chosen. Selection of the glazing plays an important role in glare reduction. Using materials with diffusing properties would reduce the intensity of direct beam radiation entering a space. Another problem that could arise with skylights being a discomfort source to the eye, could be in the high contrast between the ceiling and the skylight. Although proper design of a skylight well can prevent direct view into the skylight, and thus reduce glare, most roof structures for public schools in Oman consist of a thin concrete slab system that does not allow for a well. Also, selecting direct/indirect luminaires could help in minimizing this effect.

1.9 Heat Gain Considerations

When radiant energy is absorbed by a material, it is released over a period of time either through conduction, convection or radiation. The time interval it takes to release solar energy highly depends on the thermal mass properties of that material. Similar to the relation of solar transmittance and heat gain, solar design and thermal storage have an inseparable association. Thermal mass is the ability for a material to absorb, store, and later release heat. A material with higher thermal mass has the ability to store heat for a longer period of time. Similarly, a material with higher thermal diffusivity will release heat into a space more rapidly than a material with less diffusivity. The U-value (thermal transmittance), and R-value (thermal resistance), alone are not adequate to represent heat transfer from material assemblies into a space and do not consider the thermal mass effect of delayed heat load. Most buildings in Oman are constructed from masonry blocks and concrete, which serves as an advantage because of their high thermal mass properties. These materials have a capacity of absorbing radiant heat slowly and releasing it up to 3-5 hours later. This effect is a very important consideration when designing for peak AC systems cooling loads.
When the building envelope is of higher thermal mass, less heating and cooling loads appear as indoor temperature fluctuations and spikes, which leads to a more balanced load on the mechanical system and less energy consumption. This advantage could also lead to a shift in energy demand during the electrical demand peak load time and transfer the load to periods where utility rate charges are lower. In some cases within a hot climate, where low temperatures occur during nighttime, the building mass can be allowed to cool down via natural ventilation and then absorb heat again during the daytime. During peak outdoor temperatures, the indoor space remains cool due to heat storage into the mass, which improves building performance, especially in hot climates. In cold climates this advantage can be used to collect and store heat that is later used to heat a space.
2 LITERATURE REVIEW

“It is impossible to overestimate the important influence of natural light on the interior and exterior forms of buildings and on those who dwell in them. So daylight is the natural beginning” — Derek Phillips

2.1 Introduction

The current trend in lighting design has been moving towards incorporating daylight as an integrated design approach that not only benefits the occupants but also provides energy savings. To support this research effort, the following literature review will first demonstrate the significance of energy efficiency and codes. Then, benefits of natural light in relation to health, occupant productivity, and energy savings is discussed. Second, skylight systems in schools will be addressed. Next, the topic of skylights, their advantages, types, and shapes will be presented. Then, an examination of typical climates for skylight application is introduced, followed by an explanation of glazing material selection for hot climates. Finally, work involving the use of skylights in hot climates is presented.

2.2 Energy Savings and Codes

Since the building industry has undergone various environmental and energy challenges in response to reducing the contribution of buildings to climate change, many new commercial buildings are targeting Ed Maziria’s net-zero challenge by 2030 (see Figure 2-1). At present, organizations such as ASHRAE are working towards mandating baseline construction codes that exceed current LEED requirements for building energy efficiency. The way building construction has to transform, if net-zero is to be achieved, is through better envelope integration, daylighting, and daylight harvesting, and upgraded system technologies.

Figure 2-1: Net Zero Challenge

Source: Architecture 2030
About half of the USA energy consumption and greenhouse gas emissions comes from the building sector (U.S Department of Energy, 2012). The building sector consumes as much energy as the industry and transportation sector all together. The goal for the building industry is to reduce energy demand and usage. In order to achieve this, the building industry energy consumption needs to be reduced. In the USA 75% of all the electricity produced is used to operate buildings, 40% of that, which accounts for electrical usage, and 27% in total energy usage, is for commercial buildings. In comparison, Energy consumption of Oman's building sector is around 55% of the country's total energy demand and it has increased by 59% from 2005 to 2010, which is more than half (Ministry of National Economy, 2010). This increased demand results in an increase in CO₂ emissions. According to the Earth Trends report for 2003, electricity produces the most CO₂ emission into the atmosphere in Oman where it accounts for 30% of the total emission with manufacturing and construction after it (see Figure 2-2).

![Figure 2-2: Percentage of CO₂ Emission by Sector, Oman 1999](image)

Source: Earth Trends

According to US. DOE, refined building energy standards and codes have the potential of saving the U.S.A consumers $330 billion by 2040, which is equivalent to 80 quads of energy savings and over 6.2 billion metric tons of CO₂ emissions (U.S Department of Energy, 2014). In Oman there are no specific dedicated government agencies that promote energy efficiency. Therefore, no definite code is followed. The Oman Green Building Council (OGBC) was formed in 2009 under the Oman Society of Engineering and consists of professionals from different academic backgrounds, sectors, and government officials. This agency focuses on bringing awareness towards sustainable design and forming building solutions that serve the environment. Portions of codes, such as ASHRAE 90.1, are adopted by certain government bodies as guidelines but not as regulated code requirements.

Energy codes provide minimum codes for building construction, however nowadays there is a shift in these minimum code regulations where they are becoming more stringent. In the USA codes geared towards energy consumption and savings are a product of different governmental agencies and organizations such as ASHRAE, ICC, IES, and ANSI. The United States Department of Energy, created in 1977 as a response to the oil crisis in 1973, funds and sponsors a majority of the national laboratory research in relation to building energy efficiency. The U.S. DOE supports the energy code refinements process administrated by ASHREA and ICC. These funded research activities are used to shape energy codes in the USA.

Following the process of code compliance is important where the appropriate energy code needs to be selected in relation to the building type. A compliance path needs to be chosen next within the
applicable energy code, and a familiarity with the code requirements needs to be established. After that, the building must be designed to meet the requirements of these codes. Documentation comes next with the plans and specifications, followed by the construction of the building, and documentation of the as-built conditions. Following these steps may not always reward an energy efficient building. Commissioning of the building systems and subs-systems needs to be performed and verified as to whether they are meeting design intent. In addition, a continuous improvement building loop system needs to be implemented in order to obtain constant improvement towards reducing energy use.

2.3 Daylighting Benefits

2.3.1 Health

Radiation from the sun can be beneficial to the human body and harmful at the same time (Tregenza & Wilson, 2011). A balance between damaging exposure and the optimum level of daylight should be considered when designing a building. Several studies have addressed the possible link between illnesses and lack of sunlight (Lam et al., 2006). Daylight is also a vital source of vitamin D. Studies have shown that insufficiency in vitamin D could increase the risk of cancers, autoimmune diseases and osteoporosis. Recent research indicated that vitamin D deficiency is a problem affecting the Omani community. In the study, 87.5% of Omani participants were categorized as vitamin D deficient (Abiaka, Delghandi, Kaur, & Al-Saleh, 2013). Although most glazing blocks the shorter ultraviolet B (UVB) rays that are responsible for the vitamin’s synthesis process inside the human body; school buildings that incorporate open courtyards and spaces permit direct sunlight exposure to the skin when students are outdoors. Currently, there is no typical glazing material that would admit UVB rays into a building, while at the same time not admitting the intense direct sunbeam.

Seasonal Affective Disorder (SAD) is an illness that has been linked to a deficiency of natural light during gloomy seasons (Ashkenazy, Einat, & Kronfeld-Schor, 2009). A study conducted in a small Russian village, located at 70 degrees North latitude, reported that 27% of the population experienced symptoms of SAD during winter time. These symptoms included depravation of sleep, depression, and fatigue. In the experiment conducted by Hansen and others, it was noted that patients suffering from SAD got relief from their symptoms when exposed to daily doses of light (Hansen, Lund, & Smith-Sivertsen, 1998). This experiment lacked assessments that incorporated natural light into its findings; and instead focused on artificial sources. Evidence was presented that when the eye is exposed to less than 1 kilo-lux of illumination per day, a greater risk of experiencing SAD exists (Tregenza & Wilson, 2011).

Ulrich (1984), found that patients that were provided a daylit window with a view to the outside environment experienced faster recovery than those who had a view of a brick wall (Ulrich, 1984). A study that was conducted within a two year period in Johnston County, North Carolina, observed six schools in which students attended classes. This study compared students who were assigned to a classroom with full spectrum lighting fixtures verses a classroom that used conventional lighting. The study observed that students under the full electrical light spectrum influence were healthier, attended school more frequently and maintained a better mood than their peers who studied under typical light sources (Nicklas, 2009). This study did not observe the effect of natural daylight on students.

The brightness of natural daylight enhances spaciousness and openness of an area. Visual health is an important aspect for an individual's well-being. Eyestrain is considered a major health problem facing occupants in enclosed environments such as an office building or a classroom setting. This condition occurs when the eye is not allowed to focus at different distances over a long time period (Edwards & Torcellini, 2002). Considering a view to the exterior, the balanced range of sunlight spectrum provides the eye with
an improved ability to focus and re-adjust. Additionally, proper daylight levels provide a suitable and optimum range for eyesight (Franta & Anstead, 1994). Although this study focuses primarily on toplighting, it is important to consider the element of an occupant’s view to the exterior for further research.

2.3.2 Productivity

A study that established the relationship between daylight and productivity was conducted in 2002 (Figueiro et al., 2002). This study suggested that daylight plays a role in circadian rhythm regulation and concluded that workers placed next to a window focused better on work tasks in comparison to co-workers who had no daylight exposure through fenestration. Another study concluded that the presence of skylights, among other factors, was the third most important element in designing a retail space (Heschong, Wright, & Okura, 2002). During the 1980’s, the benefits of sunlight were considered crucial; many countries in Europe required staff desks to be located at a minimum of 8 meters (27 feet) from a window (Franta & Anstead, 1994).

Daylighting has also been proven to enhance the mood of students in school facilities (Nicklas et al., 2009). This improvement yields greater motivation and higher achievement. The National Clearinghouse for Education has established a study “Do School Facilities Affect Academic Outcome” and reported that increased student achievement and reduction of poor behavior was a product of increased daylight in classrooms (NCE, 2005). Another study investigated the link between daylighted elementary schools and productivity from three different schools (Heschong, Wright, & Okura, 2003). Even though this study was conducted for different school districts with different environments and climates: California, Washington, and Colorado; one factor remained constant within these studies. This factor presented a significant correlation between the student’s productivity and increased daylight in classrooms.

2.3.3 Mental Performance

Not only productivity improvements but mental enhancement was also linked to the availability of sunlight in a study environment. Researchers have stated that the lack of lighting in schools can substantially affect a student’s ability to learn. In general, children can spend up to 40 hours per week under artificial light in a school building, especially if after school activities are involved. A 1999 case study, commissioned by the Pacific Gas and Electric Company, observed a strong correlation between schools that reported improvements in grades and the amount of daylight present in a classroom (Heschong et al., 1999). This study stated that students exposed to more daylight in the classroom progressed 20% faster on their math tests and 26% faster in their reading tests. To follow up on the study done by the Heschong Mahone Group, another study was done in 2003 comparing different variables such as daylighting, HVAC type and classroom type to assess their correlation to improved learning. Daylight was proven to have a consistently strong association with learning improvements, where students in elementary schools showed up to 21% increase in learning rates (Heschong, 2003).

2.4 Energy Savings

Nowadays, the focus in construction has shifted to buildings that have the lowest negative impact on the environment (Selkowitz, 1998). Financed by the United States Department of Energy (DOE), a protocol was developed for assessing the benefits of green buildings. Through this protocol, the Daylight Dividends research program was established. Daylight Dividends inspected the effectiveness of daylight use in several types of non-residential buildings. Formed in 2003, the research program investigated multiple case studies of different building types and reported on their energy performance. These studies focused on improving indoor environment quality, comfort, and building performance. The research also addressed the challenges
that face projects that use daylight, such as school buildings. Daylighting evaluation was performed under the program for four schools that have similar footprints in Northern California. Roof monitors and clerestories were the main focus of this study. Elements such as baffles, shades, light shelves and overhangs and their incorporation with rooftop fenestration were evaluated. Some of the challenges faced were inappropriate design of rooftop fenestration. For example, baffles added to a roof monitor facing North in a gymnasium space for one of the schools did not serve any purpose; and in fact blocked most of the useful daylight from entering the space (Eckerlin, 2005).

Typically, a majority of working hours are during daytime; and a significant amount of electric output can be reduced through these peak hours of electrical use with daylight. Reduction of electric light usage is usually associated with significant energy savings. The National Clearinghouse for Education also stated that classrooms with effective daylight systems produced lower electric loads and experienced reduced cooling and heating loads (NEC, 2005). According to the U.S. DOE, 15% of the electricity consumed in the United States comes from electric lighting in buildings (Wymelenberg, 2014). A recent study in New York City indicated that daylight systems can potentially offer energy savings of over $70 million dollars when incorporated into office buildings in that city (Hinge, 2012). Research findings related to photocell control show that lighting electrical consumption can be reduced by 20% to 60% if a proper daylight control system is implemented (Littlefair, 2001). Controlling electric light via photosensors is becoming mandatory for building design in certain cities in the United States of America (U.S Department of Energy, 2012).

2.5 The use of Toplight in Schools

A detailed study that provided guidelines to manufacturers and specifiers in 2013 touched upon the subject of photosensor performance in a classroom using different fenestration configurations (Mistrick & Sarkar, 2013). This study showed that a savings of 40-50% can be achieved depending on the lighting system used and occupancy schedule. The research also indicated that dimming two to three rows of the luminaires would result in the most savings. This study was done using the advanced computer software, Radiance. Since the study results were based on a simulation tool, it would be interesting to compare the findings in an actual classroom setting. Another study was done in the same year that focused on the photosensor settings using closed-loop control and its performance in a classroom (Ranasinghe & Mistrick, 2013). One of the conclusions of this study is that an acceptable photosensor location in a classroom would be 3 meters (10 feet) away from the window with a ceiling height of 3.65 meters (12 feet). This study was focused on the calibration of photosensors in a room with windows only and did not study calibration impacts for toplighting. Currently in the USA, energy codes require automatic control or minimal manual control of electrical lighting in areas where sunlight is available (US DOE, 2012)

In the USA, several cities have implemented skylights into their school design scheme. Energy codes have started mandating skylight installations in large spaces such as warehouses or school gymnasiums. An example of skylight implementation in school buildings is the Capistrano Unified School District in Southern California. The district has constructed a total of sixteen schools that incorporated skylights as part of a Board resolution on mandating natural light in the early 1980s (Edison International, 2003). Experimenting with different sky lighting configurations, the system that seemed to work best is a splayed skylight that utilized an inverted plastic pyramidal prismatic Diffuser to disperse light evenly across the classroom (see Figure 2-3).
A collaborative research project done via the Sultan Qaboos University in 2003 investigated different passive measures such as envelope insulation, glazing, and shading in relation to the variation in cooling load for school buildings in Oman. For the glazing, it was concluded that using a triple glazing material reduced the peak cooling load by 7.7% for the month of June. Since this study evaluated an existing school building plan, it only examined vertical windows, and it did not consider different orientations for the fenestration (Zurigat, Al-Hinai, Jubran, & Al-Masoud, 2003).

2.6 Toplight Size, Shape, and Type

Roof fenestration can vary in shape, size and structure. In general, deeper skylight wells produce a more focused distribution of light compared to wells with shorter depth. It has been determined that splaying a well’s sides can significantly improve efficiency, and at the same time provide for a wider beam distribution (Serres & Murdoch, 1990). In 2013, a new method was developed to calculate splayed well efficiency (Mistrick, 2013). This method reinforced that splayed wells provide for more efficient delivery of daylight than vertical wells. Under the ASHRAE and IESNA Standard 90.1-2010, the general provisions for envelope compliance contain mandatory provisions that must be satisfied. This standard lists two compliance options: a prescriptive option and a performance method. The prescriptive path consists of following minimum code compliance, whereas the performance method has less implied restrictions in lieu to codes, with the condition of demonstrating minimum energy achievements. For the prescriptive building method, the ratio of skylight area to roof area cannot exceed 5% in ASHRAE 90.1-2010(ANSI/ASHRAE/IES, 2010). This ratio has been increased in ASHRAE 90.1-2013 to a maximum of 6%, providing that a photocell lighting control system is implemented. Although size and configuration of toplighting is important, it is equally vital to consider the position of the roof fenestration. South-facing clerestory glazing would contribute additional heat gain and glare, especially during the winter, in comparison to a North facing clerestory.

Another toplighting method that has been established in the markets recently is tubular skylighting. A light tube typically contains a 25-54 cm (10-21 inch) diameter shaft with a rooftop solar collector that collects and delivers sunlight through it. Because of its shaft design, a light tube transmits less heat during
the daytime. Both splayed well and tubular skylights have limitations as they could only be located on the story connected to the roof, therefore a reliable substitute system that could deliver sunlight to multiple stories via the rooftop is worthy of exploration. Another drawback to using both systems in Oman is that both systems require a deep roof slab height which does not conform to most school building roof structures depths in Oman.

2.7 Climate Features Appropriate for Skylighting

Skylights are commonly used in cold to moderate environments. There are few skylight applications in regions of high temperature. Fenestration in warm climates is usually associated with an increase in cooling load. A study conducted in 1985 for non-residential buildings in hot climates indicated that total energy savings is associated with mechanical, electrical, and plumbing systems as an integrated whole (Arasteh, Johnson, Selkowitz, & Connell, 1985). Toplights that produce higher illumination require higher cooling loads; consequently it is important to consider a proper lighting control strategy that integrates with a building’s electrical lighting system (Department of Energy, 2012).

A 2005 article suggested that the application of skylights in hot and humid climates such as Florida could add to electricity consumption rather than facilitate energy savings (Sheinkopf, 2003). For instance, a 1.2 x 0.6 meter (2 x 4 foot) clear skylight can increase the air-conditioning load by approximately 240 kWh annually. This amounts to 4 dollars per month per skylight. Considering the high angle of the sun in that location, two or four more times the heat is transferred into a space than produced from vertical windows. A translucent skylight for hot climates is much more effective than a transparent one, since it can disperse the direct sunlight, creating ambient illumination. The article also suggested locating skylights on a porch next to a window, where heat gain is reduced and reflected light enters the room. In contrary to adding the opening to the roof, the porch technique does not allow for uniform distribution since most of the light will be distributed through a vertical aperture.

2.8 Glazing Material for Hot Climates

Material selection plays an important role when it comes to skylight performance. While it is desirable to have transparent glazing as a mean of maximizing external view, the position of the sun in the sky may cause glare from direct sunlight through clear glass. For skylights, the angles causing glare would be higher than that of a vertical window. White translucent acrylic or prismatic clear material provide diffuse light that is emitted into the room providing minimal glare for skylights. In the case of a clerestory or roof monitor this may vary depending on the facing direction glazing opening. For example, the North facing façade of a roof monitor for Muscat’s location will not acquire the problem of glare since there is no direct sunbeam entering the space from that orientation both during winter and summer. Therefore, such a setting may not require a translucent material.

In order to acquire diffuse light, most manufacturers add white pigment to acrylic and polycarbonate glazing. This pigmentation absorbs light and reduces the visible light transmittance. Thus, a balance of the pigment needs to be maintained for optimal diffusion with higher transmittance (Stanford University, 2014). Prismatic glazing does not require pigmentation and therefore performs better than acrylic material.

With skylights, there is radiative heat that is produced from the sun and conductive heat that passes through the skylight materials. The material type not only determines the glare percentage, but also the amount of heat that passes through it. Most skylights transmit long and short wave-length radiation through
its aperture. The shorter waves, within the visible spectrum, provide for vision, whereas the long waves radiate heat into the space. This solar heat transfer may be useful in a cold climate setup where heating loads can be reduced, but in hot climates it may have the opposite effect and increase cooling loads.

Another important method of heat transfer for a skylight is conduction. The temperature difference between the outside and the inside dictates the amount of heat gain or loss through the glazing medium. Since the concern for a cooling season is the heat gain inside a space, the thermal conductivity (U-Factor) is a value to be considered for the complete skylight structure.

Since heat gain is a major concern when selecting glazing material in hot climates, usually a double or triple pane unit is recommended. The additional glass pane reduces the amount of light transmittance, and therefore reduces heat transfer. For example a double glass layer allows for approximately 75% of light to pass through (see Table 2-1). A low-emittance (Low-E) coating, where a thin metallic oxide layer is deposited on the glazing surface, is also suggested for hot climates. Coating a glass surface with a low-E material blocks a significant amount of radiant heat transfer, thus lowering the total heat flow through an aperture. According to a study of “Daylighting of Buildings in a Hot Climate” a clear 4 mm (1/8 inch) thick glass will transmit 89% of the visible light. A tinted glass however could have a visible light transmittance between 25 and 45% (Ne’eman & Shrifteilig, 1982). Admitting less light from the sun may reduce heat gain inside a space, but the electric lighting load may increase as a result. In general, glazing materials with low solar heat gain coefficient (SHGC), appropriate visible light transmittance (T-vis) and high light to solar gain ratio (LSG) work best for a hot climate (Dilaura et al., 2011).

The National Fenestration Rating Council (NFRC) provides ratings on energy efficiency for windows, doors and skylights. A test procedure, NFRC-300, was developed in 1994 to calculate the overall transmittance of glazing materials. There are limitations to the test procedure since it is expensive and manufacturers cannot provide the test for their entire product line (Russo, McKown, Roger, & Brotzman, 2001). Another limitation to the test is that the U-factor; the amount of heat transferred through a material, is calculated only for the glazing part in contrast to calculating heat conduction for the whole skylight material including the frame.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Solar (Heat) Transmission Values for Typical Glass Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Glazing Type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear, Single</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear, Double</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-e, Double, Clear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-e, Tinted, Gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-e, Argon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2-1: Solar Transmission for Different Glass Types
2.9 Previous Study of Toplighting in Hot Climates

Most research conducted with skylights is limited to locations in the United States and focus on moderate to cold climates at high latitudes. A few cases are studied in tropical climate settings such as an analysis conducted in Indonesia. The study in Indonesia indicated that incorporating a 3 in 1 louver shading device skylight that may serve as an element that permits daylight inside a space (see Figure 2-4), while at the same time collecting heat to provide hot water (Mintorogo, 2005). As per the study, this system provides an effective method of reducing solar radiation gain, while offering energy savings of as much as 634,500 Btu per day for a 10 hours of solar radiation exposure. The investigation also indicated that using reflective glazing blocks approximately 12% more solar radiation than that of a polycarbonate material (see Figure 2-8). Another interesting finding in this study was the demonstration that a higher SFR (Skylight to Floor Ratio) does not necessarily lead to higher energy consumption if a proper system is used. Using the 3 in 1 system, as indicated by the report, a 10% SFR yielded cooling load savings of up to 9 times than that of a 1% SFR (See Table 2-2)

![Figure 2-4: Research 3 in 1 Skylight System](image)

![Figure 2-5: Illuminance Values for Polycarbonate and Reflected Glass](image)
Table 2-2: SFR and Cooling Loads Energy Savings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Energy Saved (Btu/h)</th>
<th>SFR 1%</th>
<th>SFR 2%</th>
<th>SFR 4%</th>
<th>SFR 6%</th>
<th>SFR 8%</th>
<th>SFR 10%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6,345</td>
<td>12,692</td>
<td>25,385</td>
<td>38,078</td>
<td>50,771</td>
<td>63,450</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although the findings were quite interesting, the report only mentioned the TVis (Visible Transmittance) value for the polycarbonate system, and the Shading Coefficient (SC) for the reflective glazing material. No other heat coefficient values for the glazing systems were mentioned.

In the book “Energy-efficient Buildings in India” written by Mili Majumdar in 2001, it was recommended to have rooftops clerestory that face North and South in hot humid climates for residential buildings (Majumdar, 2001). The author mentions that proper glazing and overhangs for roof monitors facing North and South would be a better system than a horizontal glazing system such as a skylight, where the monitors allow better illumination during the winter and less direct sunlight during the summer.

A comprehensive report on cost-effective energy in school design guidelines, that include the building envelope in its recommendations, was prepared by the DOE for school buildings in a tropical island climate (U.S. Department of Energy, 2004). This guideline suggested energy saving tactics for school buildings in hot humid climates. The report also referenced that out of all the typically high performance systems used, daylighting has the greatest impact in terms of energy conservation. The study suggested that roof monitors are ideal if facing North, but if oriented to the South, baffles and overhangs would need to be part of the design. Another suggestion is to paint the roof in highly reflective paint such as white in order to add more daylight through the monitors. These guidelines were design recommendations for new or existing construction. Although challenging, a comparison of actual building data and simulation data needs to be developed to confirm these results.
3 METHODOLOGY

“Space and light and order. Those are the things that men need just as much as they need bread or a place to sleep” - Le Corbusier

3.1 Introduction

This section will describe the methods to be used in this research in order to assess the viability of toplighting for a school classroom in Oman. Since daylighting design involves two elements: light quality and energy performance, two main simulation tools are used to evaluate the results. To assess daylight quantity and quality, DAYSIMps, a Radiance-based daylighting simulation engine, is utilized. For energy evaluation, the Integrated Environment Solution-Virtual Environment (IES-VE), a suite of analysis tools that assesses building performance, is incorporated. The IES-VE simulation tool also integrates Radiance as one of its methods to generate daylighting calculations through a graphical user interface.

A rectangular classroom analysis was built to perform the simulations. Three baseline model types were created. Domed skylights (Type1), clerestory roof monitors (Type2) and single direction roof monitor (Type3) scenarios were investigated as baseline studies (see Figure 3-1). Skylight to roof ratios (SFR), orientations, glazing material and shape were adjustable parameters within these rooftop Types. Different factors within these scenarios were adjusted in order to reach an optimized quality, quantity and savings. Lux levels, distribution at the work-plane, and glare were the metrics used to evaluate the lighting quality and quantity portion of this study. Lighting load and cooling loads were the metrics used to evaluate energy savings (see Table 3-1). A baseline model with no rooftop glazing was built to be compare each adjusted scenario’s performance for thermal analysis.

Type1: Domed Skylight
Type2: Clerestory Roof Monitors
Type3: Roof Monitors

Figure 3-1: Toplighting Types to Be Investigated
The following sections will present the tools, setups, and parameters applied to perform the research simulations.

3.1.1 Space Function and Condition

The space simulated will serve as a general classroom. The dimensions for this space will represent a typical classroom in Oman, which has an average of 25-35 students per class. The dimensions of the classroom is set to 9 meters (30 feet) wide by 7.6 meters (25 feet) deep by 3 meters (10 feet) high and with a roof slab of 20 centimeters (8 inches) deep (see Figure 3-2). In general, 2 square meter (22 square feet) is required per student for space in a classroom (Arizona State University, 2011). For a 750 square feet classroom, maximum of 31 total of students and a teacher were considered (see Table 3-2).

For the illumination calculations, the work-plane for this study was placed at 0.75 meters (2.5 feet) above floor level. The room is maintained at a constant indoor temperature of 24°C (75 F). As per the minimum ventilation rates in breathing zone per ANSI/ASHRAE Standards 62.1, this was set to 0.12 cfm/ft². The reflectance values were set to 70/50/20 for the ceiling, walls and floor, respectively as per ASHRAE/IES Advanced Energy Design Guides recommendation reflections for schools (see Table 3-3). The roof reflectance was set to 80% and the ground to 20%.

Maximum sensible gain for computers was set to 1 W/ft² with a 0.22 radiant factor. For the fluorescent lights the LPD was set to 0.83 W/ft². For people gain the maximum sensible gain was set to 225 Btu/h per person, and maximum latent gain was set at 105 Btu/h per person.

Table 3-1: Toplighting Types to Be Investigated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Toplighting</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Glazing Material</th>
<th>Glazing Shape</th>
<th>Illumination</th>
<th>Glare</th>
<th>Lighting Load</th>
<th>Cooling Load</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Domed Skylight</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Translucent Low-E</td>
<td>Domed</td>
<td>DA SDA UDI</td>
<td>DGP</td>
<td>kWh</td>
<td>kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Clerestory Roof Monitor</td>
<td>N + E</td>
<td>Clear-Low-E + Translucent</td>
<td>Flat</td>
<td>DA SDA UDI</td>
<td>DGP</td>
<td>kWh</td>
<td>kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Roof Monitor</td>
<td>N + E + W + S</td>
<td>Clear-Low-E + Translucent</td>
<td>Flat</td>
<td>DA SDA UDI</td>
<td>DGP</td>
<td>kWh</td>
<td>kWh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3-2: Method of Calculating Students Number per Classroom Size
Figure 3-2: Classroom Space Dimension

![Classroom Space Dimension Diagram](image)

Table 3-3: Recommended Reflectance Values - ASHRAE Advanced Energy Design Guide

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Office</th>
<th>K-12 School</th>
<th>Small Retail</th>
<th>Small Hospital and Healthcare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ceiling: ≥80%</td>
<td>≥80%</td>
<td>Ceiling: 70%</td>
<td>Ceiling: 80%</td>
<td>Ceiling: 85% (direct lighting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(90% if indirect</td>
<td>(preferred</td>
<td>(preferred</td>
<td>(80% if daylight zone)</td>
<td>and at least 90% (indirect and/or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lighting)</td>
<td>80-90%)</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>zone)</td>
<td>daylighting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walls: ≥70%</td>
<td>≥70%</td>
<td>Walls: 50%</td>
<td>Wall: 50%</td>
<td>Walls: 50% (70% for walls adjacent to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(same for &gt;2.5-ft.</td>
<td>(preferred</td>
<td>(70% if daylight</td>
<td>(70% if daylight</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertical partitions)</td>
<td>50%)</td>
<td>zone)</td>
<td>zone)</td>
<td>daylight apertures)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Floor: 20%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Floor: 20%</td>
<td>Floor: 20%</td>
<td>Floor: 20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.2 Occupancy File

Generally public schools start at 7am in the morning and end around 2 pm. Some schools do incorporate after-hour activities therefore that was also considered into the schedule. The occupancy schedule was set from 6 am to 4 pm for both the electric lighting and HVAC systems (see Figure 3-3). Daylight time savings are not applicable in Oman.

![Occupancy Schedule Diagram](image)

Figure 3-3: Occupancy Schedule (IES-VE)
3.2 Tools

This section will breakdown each software simulation and the inputs required for each (see Figure 3-4). Since students in a classroom are subjected to different daylight exposure depending on the time of day and weather conditions; adequate light levels and comfortable temperature should be maintained during occupied times. This requires a simulation tool that does hourly-based analysis. Both simulation tools, DASYSIMps and IES-VE, perform a time-step series analysis for a one-year period. These one year analyses, consisting of 8,760 hours of annual output, were aggregated into monthly data.

The program DASYSIMps incorporates the Perez sky model into its simulation calculations using daylight coefficients and backward raytracing. DASYSIMps calculates Daylight Autonomy (DA) and Useful Daylight Illuminance (UDI) based on these daylighting coefficients. One advantage that DASYSIMps has over IES-VE is that it utilizes a critical point to locate the area in the room that requires the most light for photosensor system calibration, where if the target illuminance is met at the critical point, then adequate illuminance levels should be sufficient at all other work-plane points (Dilaura et al., 2011). It also calculates the DA, UDI, sDA, whereas IES-VE does not put these metrics into consideration.

To calculate Daylight Autonomy (DA) and Useful Daylight Illuminance (UDI) based on the weather file for Muscat, there are several steps that were followed. As a starting point, the basic classroom model was created in SketchUp Pro 2014. After that, a RAD file for each scenario was extracted from SketchUp using a Radiance plugin tool that was installed in SketchUp. These RAD files contain the geometry of the classroom. Another material RAD file was created where the reflectance and transmittance of each surface was assigned. A local weather file was uploaded. An occupancy schedule, representing typical school hours in Oman, was created. To set up the illuminance points, an analysis array with a grid spacing of 0.6 x 0.6 meters (2 x 2 feet) was created resulting in a total of 180 points for the classroom area. An electrical lighting layout and schedule was also established, meeting the target illuminance of 400 lux (40 fc), in order to analyze the dimming system performance in relation to daylight output. Metrics such as DA, sDA, cDA, UDI, and illuminance threshold were analyzed for each scenario. These metrics were bases for the location of the work plane critical point, where it was located at the grid point that required the most electrical light output within the room, for each layout Type, throughout the year.

Next, the IES-VE tool was used to assess the heat gain, cooling loads, and energy savings breakdowns. The same EPW weather data was imported into the program as well as the occupancy schedule. Model geometry matching the SketchUp model parameters for all three classroom configurations were created in the ModelIT interface within IES-VE for this analysis. The construction templates for the classroom envelope was setup for the walls, floor, ceiling, roof and glazing system. For the wall, floor, ceiling and roof material, the construction layers were setup with thermal properties such as material thickness, conductivity, and specific heat capacity input to determine the total U-value, mass, and thermal mass of these material elements. The thermal construction layers for the glazing was set up as well, where properties such as thickness, conductivity and Tvis were input. Adjusting these inputs provides an output of total glazing SHGC and U-values. IES-VE also provided net U-value including the frames of the toplighting. Room conditions such as cooling profile and cooling set point were adjusted to the desired targets. Internal gains such as lighting and people were added. A typical AC split package that is used in Oman classrooms and system air flow were selected as per required Cubic Feet per Minute (CFM) for the classroom, and required loads from external and internal gains. The heat gain was broken into sections to assess the percentage of gain from each material, i.e. glass, roof, floor, etc. Annual mechanical loads were calculated and compared to savings from the electrical lighting loads. Finally, a glare analysis was performed to compare the best visual setting.
3.3 Simulation Tools Input

3.3.1 Weather Data

As a starting point, a weather data file is needed in order to assess the climate’s influence on building design. Inputs such as solar irradiation, temperature, humidity, and wind are factors that have an impact on building simulation and design. For this study, Typical Metrological Year (TMY) weather data was used. TMY data is a range of annual weather phenomena, usually collected in a period of 20 years, then averaged out for a particular location. The first TMY data was collected between 1948 and 1980, followed by TMY2 within the period 1961 and 1990, and lastly TMY3 data represents data collected from the period of 1991-2005 (Wilcox & Marion, 2008). Since the weather file for Muscat represents a 1995 meteorological one-year set, it is therefore considered a TMY3 file. This weather data was generated by the Seeb International Airport in Oman and translated into an EPW file format. The file includes climate data plus information such as longitude, latitude, time zone, and site elevation. The following metrics are usually included in a weather file:

- direct and Diffuse irradiance
- dry bulb temperature
- dew point temperature
- wet bulb temperature
- wind speed and direction

- global horizontal radiation
- relative humidity
- absolute humidity
- cloud cover
- rainfall

Using IES-VE to assess Oman’s climate zone, the EPW file was input, Oman is categorized as a 1B climate zone (hot and dry) climate per ASHRAE 90.1, 2010 zoning (see Figures 3-5 and 3-6). A further
analysis for sky clearness was conducted using the direct and diffuse irradiance values from the EPW file. The method used to evaluate cloud cover was the Perez sky clearness index (see Table 3-4). A calculation using the formula for the eight Perez skies was formed to determine the clearness of the sky as follows:

\[ \epsilon = \left( \frac{(Dh + I)}{Dh + \kappa Z^3} \right) \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 + \kappa Z^2}} \]

Where:
- \( \epsilon \) = Sky clearness
- \( Dh \) = horizontal Diffuse irradiance
- \( I \) = normal incidence direct irradiance
- \( \kappa \) = constant equal to 1.041 for \( Z \) in radians
- \( Z \) = Solar Zenith Angle

The results for the sky clearness count will be discussed in the results section.

Table 1. Discrete sky clearness categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \epsilon ) category</th>
<th>lower bound</th>
<th>upper bound</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Overcast</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 1.065</td>
<td>1.230</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. 1.230</td>
<td>1.500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. 1.500</td>
<td>1.950</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 1.950</td>
<td>2.800</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 2.800</td>
<td>4.500</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. 4.500</td>
<td>6.200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Clear</td>
<td>6.200</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3-4: Perez Sky Clearness Categories

Figure 3-5: ASHRAE 90.1 Climate Zoning Breakdown for the USA

Figure 3-6: Climate and Weather for Muscat-Oman

Source: IES-VE
3.3.2  Building Envelope

For the building envelope, material layering were selected in order to meet the ASHRAE 90.1 minimum requirement for climate zone 1 (see Tables 3-5 to 8-3).

Table 3-5: ASHRAE 90.1 2013 Building Envelope Requirement for Zone 1

Source: ANSI/ASHRAE/IES Standard 90.1-2013

Table 3-6: Wall Construction Layers (IES-VE)
3.3.3 Glazing System Input

Current glazing systems that are used for windows in Muscat are comprised of aluminum frame, double-glazed, 6 mm (1/4 inch) thick clear float glass with 12 mm (1/2 inch) air gap and 6 mm (1/4 inch) thick tinted reflective glass on the outside. Glazing with moderately low U-value, low SHGC, and high Tvis are desired for a hot climate. ASHRAE 90.1-2010 has set standards for the U-value, SHGC in climate zone 1. For vertical fenestration, these standards require a maximum U-factor of 1.2 and SHGC of 0.25. For horizontal fenestration a range from 1.98-1.36 for the U-factor is required, depending on the skylight construction. ASHRAE 90.1-2013 has updated these values (see Table 3-9). In addition a range of 0.36-0.19 for the SHGC is required for skylights, depending on the skylight to roof area. Values that matched the ASHRAE 90.1, 2010 glazing requirement for vertical fenestration in zone-1 were found from PPG glazing with a 25% SHGC, 52% Tvis, and 23% U factor. For domed skylight values, a 26% SHGC, 54% Tvis, and 45% U factor glazing material from Bristolite is available. These values were later matched in the simulation tools and experimented with.

The final glazing construction for the vertical fenestration consisted of a triple glazed window with a Net U-value of 1.50 W/m²k (0.26 Btu/hr-ft²-F). The Tvis and SHGC were 52% and 25% respectively. Availability of glazing Materials from the market with similar values were verified (see Table 3-10). For the horizontal glazing the net U-value added up to 1.54 W/m²k (0.27 Btu/hr-ft²-F). The Tvis and SHGC were calculated to 53% and 26% (see Table 3-11).
Table 3-9: Fenestration Requirements ASHRAE 90.1-2013

Source: ANSI/ASHRAE/IES Standard 90.1-2013

Table 3-10: Example of Products Available in the Market, Vertical Glazing (Left), and Horizontal Glazing (Right)

Source: PPG Glass (Left), Bristolite Daylighting Systems

Table 3-11: Glazing Construction Layers (IES-VE)
3.4  Glazing Parameters

3.4.1  Glazing Area

In ASHRAE 90.1, 2010, the maximum vertical fenestration area limit is 40% or less of the gross wall area. As for a horizontal maximum, the limit is 5% or less of the roof area. Changes were made in ASHRAE 90.1, 2013 where the limit was reduced to a maximum of 3% for horizontal glazing and this limit can be increased up to 6% provided that: the glazing material haze factor is greater than 90%, TVis is greater than 40%, photocontrols are used, and daylight area is greater than half of the floor area. As for toplighting area provisions in ASHRAE 90.1, 2013, the minimum toplighting glazing area is mandated by the LPD provided daylight area rather than the square footage of the space. For example, ASHRAE 90.1, 2013 requires that a minimum of 50% of the floor area directly under a roof with an LPD of greater than 5 W/m² (0.5 W/ft²) should be in the daylight area. An area with an LPD between 11 W/m² (1 W/ft²) and 14 W/m² (1.4 W/ft²) requires a minimum 3.3% toplighting area to daylight area ratio, provided that there is photosensor control for the electrical lighting system (see Table 3-12).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General Lighting Power Density or Lighting Power Allowances in Daylight Zone-Area (W/m²)</th>
<th>Minimum Toplighting Area to Daylight Zone Area Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.4 W/ft² (14 W/m²) &lt; LPD</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 W/ft² (10 W/m²) &lt; LPD &lt; 14 W/m² (1.4 W/ft²)</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.5 W/ft² (5 W/m²) &lt; LPD &lt; 1.0 W/ft² (10 W/m²)</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3-12: Minimum Toplight Area ASHRAE 90.1-2013, Table 8.3.4.1

Source: ANSI/ASHRAE/IES Standard 90.1-2013

Each skylight for Type1 was circular with a diameter of 0.6 meter (2 feet). Note that later on in the study Type1 was modified to to (3’x3’) square shaped skylight with domed glazing values, since it is more common to use square-shaped skylight opening. With 9 skylights of 2 feet diameter, the skylight to roof ratio for Type1 is 3.8%. The dimensions for the Type2 clerestory roof monitor glazing are 6.7 meters (22 feet) by 1 meter (3 feet). This glazing is on both sides of each monitor resulting in a SRR of 52% for this setting, where the total glazing area for three monitors sum up to 36 square meter (396 Square feet) and the total roof area is 69.7 square meters (750 square feet). The amount of glazing for Type3 is half the glazing for Type2 resulting in a total skylight to roof ratio (SRR) of 26%. (see Figures 3-7-3-9)
Figure 3-7: Type1 Glazing 1x1 Meter (3x3 Feet)

Figure 3-8: Type2 Glazing 6.7 X1 Meter (22x3 Feet) On Both Sides

Figure 3-9: Type3 Glazing 6.7 X1 Meter (22x3 Feet)

3.4.2 Preliminary Study of Skylight Glazing Area

For the Type1 domed skylight, three configurations were examined to arrive at the final SFR discussed in the section bellow. SkyCalc, a Microsoft Excel-based tool, was preliminarily used for optimizing the domed skylight layout and numbers. SkyCalc uses typical hourly weather data to compute the energy impacts (lighting, cooling, and heating) in a given space that contains skylights, for a given city. It also predicts average hourly illumination, by month and time of day, for a given horizontal skylight design. Since SkyCalc only considers for horizontal skylight glazing orientation, only the Type1 skylight was examined using this tool. Phoenix, Arizona’s weather file was used as a location that has approximate weather to that of Muscat, Oman.
First, several dome diameters were input into SkyCalc to determine the most efficient size for this room configuration. As seen in Figure 3-10, a 19.2% SFR domed skylight performs relatively poorly in comparison to a 4.9% SFR dome diameter.

Next, three different skylight layouts having 6, 8, and 9 skylights, respectively, with SFR values of 3.2%, 4.3%, and 4.8% were studied for energy performance and savings. The results showed that annual energy savings for the three numbers were not that different; which amounted to approximately 1,000 kWh/year (see Figure3-11). Average daylight illumination values did not show significant differences between the three layouts (see Figure 3-12). It was also noted that introducing skylights aided in the energy savings for electric lighting that outweighed energy losses from cooling (see Table 3-13). After that, the layout of these numbers were arranged across the roof and a selection of 9 skylights was made since it would provide a more even distribution along the walls, where posters and blackboards would be located in a classroom (see Figure3-13).
Figure 3-12: Type3 Average Illuminance for 3 Configurations – Skycalc

Figure 3-13: Type3 Comparing Number of Skylights and Configurations
3.4.3 Adjusting Toplighting Glazing Area and Shape

Modifications and adjustments were performed for each of Type1, 2, and 3 toplighting systems resulting in Type1a, 2a, and 3a (see Figure 3-14). Since it is more common to use square-shaped skylights, the circular domed skylight was modified to (3’x3’) squares for Type1 and (2’x2’) squares for Type1a at the slab opening, using values from domed shaped skylights in the simulation. For the Type2 toplight, the shape of the clerestory was modified to where it contained only 2 glazing panes in comparison to 6 panels. This reduced the area to 12 square meter (132 square feet), which is 33% less glazing area than the original geometry, leading to Type2a. The glazing area for Type3 was modified to 50% less glazing leading to Type3a. The resulting heat gain and illuminance values are discussed in the results section of this report.

![Figure 3-14: Type1, 2, And 3 and Modified Versions](image-url)
3.5 Lighting Requirements

The design illumination level for a classroom as per IESNA 10th Edition Handbook is 400 lux for the horizontal level with a ratio of 2:1 for the average to minimum illuminance at work-plane level. As for the vertical plane, a standard of 150 lux on the surfaces is recommended. For daylight, usually up to 2000 lux (200 fc) of daylight illuminance for the interior is acceptable.

3.5.1 Lighting Fixtures

The general characteristics of the luminaire to be used for evaluation of energy savings is a ceiling mounted semi-direct fluorescent fixture with a dimmable ballast. For this research there would be only one zone of luminaires that is dimmed. Two different luminaires were chosen (see Figures 3-15- 3-16). Eight units of Fixture A are used for each classroom setting with Type2 and Type3 roof monitors. Twelve units of Fixture B are used for Type1 domed skylights. Fixture A consists of two 32-watt T8 linear Fluorescent lamp and Fixture B of a three 32-watt T8 linear Fluorescent lamp. Both fixtures have lumen output of 2,850 per lamp.

As per ASHRAE 90.1-2013, the Lighting Power Density (LPD) requirement for a classroom, using the space by space method, is 1.24 W/ft². For a 750 ft² classroom, the maximum wattage allowed with a LPD of 1.24 is 930 watts. Considering the ballast factor of 88% for a 32 watt lamp, the total wattage for both Fixture A and B layout is 672 watts (8 units x 3 lamps x 28 Watts) and (12 units x 2 lamps x 28 Watts) with an LPD of 0.83 which is below the allowed maximum per ASHRAE 90.1-2013 requirements. When the electrical lights are constantly on all day for 10 hours, 6720 watt-hours are consumed per day (6.72 kWh). For a month this adds up to 201.6 kWh. If this usage is assumed to be constant for 7 days a week, it results in a total of 2,419 kWh yearly of electrical lighting energy consumption. Using a dimming system should result in the total reduction of electrical light energy consumption.
Figure 3-15: Fixture A
Source: Lithonia Lighting

Figure 3-16: Fixture a Layout (DAYSIMps)
Source: DAYSIMps
Figure 3-17: Fixture B

*Source: Lithonia Lighting*

Figure 3-18: Fixture B Layout

*Source: DAYSIMps*
3.5.2 Dimming Controls

The dimming system will consist of a closed-loop proportional (sliding set-point) dimming algorithm. For spatial illumination detection a cosine response 120-degree cutoff sensor was applied at ceiling level. The dimming system for the T8 lamps has a maximum ballast factor of 0.88 and a minimum ballast factor of 0.05, with a maximum and minimum input power of 59, and 14 watts respectively. (see Table 3-15)

---

Table 3-14: 32 W T8 Lamp Dimming Ballast

Source: Osram Sylvania

3.5.3 Glare

High contrast in luminance levels within the human field of vision causes glare. Glare sensitivity varies from one person to another therefore lighting conditions are typically accounted by their probability or potential. Depending on the person’s location in a room and view direction, glare potential may differ. Glare could be caused for different reasons which include: any direct light source with no diffusion for direct the sunlight, reflections from specular surfaces, surfaces that are adjacent yet differ significantly in luminance levels, such as a bright light Diffused from translucent fenestration in a dim room. Considering these causes of glare, the choice of a direct fixture may result in high contrast produced between the ceiling and skylight causing glare. Therefore, direct/indirect fixtures may be desirable in rooftop fenestration settings, even though typical schools in Oman use direct mounted fixtures. Shading may also be required depending on glazing orientation, time of day, and seasonal variations to block direct sunlight. IES-VE considers six different Glare indices:

- The Guth Visual Probability
- CIE Glare Index
- Unified Glare Rating
- Daylight glare index
- BRS Glare Rating
- Guth Disability Glare

Since this study is focused on glare resulting from the sun, Daylight Glare Index (DGI) was the metric chosen to evaluate glare, where it considers glare from large daylight apertures and the sky. The other indices were mainly designed to detect glare from luminaire sources. For the DGI, a value of 31 or greater is considered a source of glare potential and intolerable. On the opposite end, a value of 18 and less is considered barely noticeable by the human eye.
And not by Eastern windows only, when daylight comes, comes in the light, In front the sun climbs slow, how slowly, But Westward, look, the land is bright. Arthur Hugh Clough

4 RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This section of the report breaks down and analyzes the outcomes resulting from the different model geometries, orientations, glazing transmittance values, and thermal properties, such as the solar heat gain coefficient. The section also includes results outcome of the sky clearness analyzed from the weather data of Muscat-Oman. Furthermore, the investigation focuses on the lighting aspects of the study, then moves into the heat gain aspect, after that compares the energy impacts of each scenario, and finally concludes with the glare potential analysis for selected scenes.

The metrics that are compared for the lighting portion of this study are: DA, sDA, and UDI. These metrics are useful because they take into account the dynamic behavior of daylight in a space throughout the year. DA is one of the first annual daylight metrics created in 1989 and then improved by Christoph Reinhart (Reinhart, Mardaljevic, & Roger, 2006). Daylight Autonomy (DA) measures the percentage of occupied hours at a certain grid point where the illumination level exceeds a specific target. It is correlated to times where electric light can be turned off. Continuous Daylight Autonomy is similar to DA with the exception that it awards partial credit for times where a portion of the target value is met by daylight. For example, if the target illuminance is set to 400 lux, and 200 lux is picked up by the sensor at a certain grid point, half of a credit-hour is received at this time. The cDA is useful when dimming is used and where daylight falls below the minimum threshold. Spatial Daylight Autonomy measures the percentage of space area that achieves a certain target illuminance at least 50% of the occupied hours. Useful Daylight Autonomy UDI is a metric that measures the occupied time between two illuminance values. Additionally, UDI ranges also provides the percentage of time below or above a specified threshold to quantify hours with low and extreme daylight levels.

The metric that was used for the cooling and lighting loads is the kilowatt hour (kWh). kWh is a unit measure of energy similar to Btu and Joules, in contrast to kW which is a measure of power or the rate of energy that is used, similar to Joules per second or Watts. In order to accurately calculate energy savings, kWh measures need to be compared for the same period of time in each situation. For example kWh for a three month consumption period cannot be compared to kW for annual consumption.

4.2 Weather Data Results

The examination of the weather file indicated that not only does the constant change in the sun's position relative to building orientation and location present a challenge, but also the unpredictability of the cloud cover distribution and change in surrounding environment complicates design for daylight. When analyzing the irradiance both from sun and sky from the EPW file data, it was noted that the irradiance from the sun was less in summer than during the winter time. It was also noted that the irradiance from the sky was inversely correlated to that of the sun where it increased during the summer and decreased during the winter (see Figure 4-1).

Using the Perez sky cleanness index, as indicated in the methods section, it was determined that approximately 77% of the time the sky was classified as partly cloudy, 10% clear, and 13% cloudy (see Figure 4-2). This obscure finding may have been due to having higher humidity levels during the summer that absorb and scatter the sunlight. Also, the possibility of dust particles present in the air that could
disperse the light through the atmosphere resulting in a more Diffuse irradiance condition. Note that the city of Muscat is subject to wind coming from the North-West during the spring and summer, called the Shamal winds. These winds peak at daytime and carry dust through the air and decrease during the nighttime (Ali, 1994).

Figure 4-1: Solar Irradiance-Muscat (IES-VE)
4.3 Illumination Results and Analysis

4.3.1 Daylight Autonomy

DA for Types 1, 2, and 3 were investigated. For DA$_{400}$ most of the grid points fell under 80-100% DA$_{400}$. This meant that the target illuminance of 400 lux was met and exceeded most of the time during the year for these conditions. Consequently, DA$_{1000}$ was examined to see the percentage of time that the illuminance was exceeded at this target for each grid point per year (see Figures 4-14). A percentage range of where these points fell was determined using the illuminance file output from DAYSIMPS and were calculated in an Excel sheet. The cumulative frequency of these ranges were then calculated to determine the percent of room area meeting a certain target DA.

For Type1 Diffuse, 100% of the room floor area was covered at 55% DA$_{1000}$. This meant that 100% of the floor area reached the target value of 1000 lux at least 55% of the time. This floor area coverage decreased as the DA percentage increased above 55%. For Type2 clear the percent of DA$_{1000}$ increased where approximately 65% DA gave 100% coverage for both orientations. For the Diffuse glazing of Type2 this value went back down to 55% for 100% of floor area. For Type3 clear, coverage was achieved at only a DA 25%, with South orientation having the highest area coverage as DA percentage increased. When the glazing was changed into Diffuse for Type3, a 100% room coverage was met at a DA percent of only 15%. Note that the North orientation had the lowest room area percent coverage, since the glazing is in shade for nearly the entire year (see Figures 4-3 to 4-6).

Figure 4-2: Counts of Sky Clearness for Muscat-Oman
Figure 4-3: Type 1 Diffuse Tvis53: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA

Figure 4-4: Type 2 Clear Tvis52: % of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA
Figure 4-5: Type 2 Diffuse Tvis32: % of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA

Figure 4-6: Type 3 Clear Tvis52: % of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA
DA for Types 1a, 2a, and 3a were also investigated. The DA\textsubscript{1000} values for were low for most of the models therefore DA\textsubscript{400} was investigated for the scenarios with less glazing area (see Figure 4-16). For Type1a Diffuse, 100\% of the room floor area was covered at 55\% DA\textsubscript{400}. This meant that 100\% of the floor area reached the target value of 400 lux at least 55\% of the time. This floor area coverage decreased as the DA percentage increased above 55\%. For Type2a clear the percent of DA\textsubscript{400} decreased where approximately 45\% DA gave 100\% coverage for both orientations. For the Diffuse glazing of Type2a this value remained at 45\% for 100\% of floor area with the exception of a further decrease in the NS orientation as DA increased. For Type3 clear, coverage was achieved at only a DA 25\%, with South orientation having the highest area coverage as DA percentage increased and North having the lowest value. When the glazing was changed into Diffuse for Type3, a 100\% room coverage was met at a DA percent of only 15\%. Similarly, the North orientation had the lowest room area percent coverage (see Figures 4-7 to 4-11).

![Figure 4-7: Type 1a Diffuse Tvis53: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified Da](image-url)
Figure 4-8: Type 2a Clear Tvis52: % of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA

Figure 4-9: Type 2a Diffuse Tvis32: % Of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA
Figure 4-10: Type 3a Clear Tvis52: % of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA

Figure 4-11: Type 3a Diffuse Tvis32: % of Room Area Meeting a Specified DA
4.3.2 Spatial Daylight Autonomy

It was noted that all large glazing area Types (1, 2, and 3) for different orientations yielded 100% sDA\(_{400, 50\%}\). This means that the target illuminance is met over 100% of the floor space, for at least 50% of the occupied schedule from 6 am - 4 pm. Next, sDA\(_{1000, 50\%}\) was studied to examine the percentage area coverage at a higher target (see Figure 4-16). For sDA\(_{1000, 50\%}\), it was observed that most of the scenarios had an sDA that exceeded 50% of the room area. The exceptions were Type3 Clear North, and Type3 Diffuse North. Since Type3 has glazing only on one side, the low sDA value for the North orientation is most likely due to light entering the space only from diffuse and reflected light from the ground, roof and sky (see Figure 4-12).

For modified geometries and glazing areas of Types 1a, 2a, and 3a sDA\(_{400, 50\%}\) did not cover 100% of the floor area for all cases (see Figure 4-13). Since the modified models contain less glazing, sDA\(_{400, 50\%}\) was analyzed for this case. All cases exceeded 50% of floor area with the expectation of Type3a Diffuse. In this case, Type3a North, clear glass provides a more appropriate glazing, since it admits more Diffused and reflected light.

![Figure 4-12: SDA\(_{1000, 50\%}\) for Type1, Type2, Type3, and all orientations, clear and diffuse glazing materials](image-url)

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50
4.3.3 Useful Daylight Autonomy

Just because a space meets 100% sDA for a specified occupancy condition does not necessarily mean that it is a well-designed daylit area. Similarly, the percent of time a certain grid point meets or exceeds target illuminance does not guarantee quality illuminance. Exceeding target illuminance may result in having too much light in the space which may cause glare and unwanted heat gain, therefore UDI was analyzed to detect hours with extreme lows and highs in illuminance levels. Two parts for UDI were studied. The first part was for UDI$_{400-2000}$ to determine the percentage of hours when useful illuminance between 400 to 2000 lux was detected. The second part was for UDI$_{2000+}$ where hours with illuminance at 2000 lux or above are tallied for the purpose of quantifying excessive daylight conditions that may cause glare or discomfort.

For the large glazing area Types, it was noted that Type1, 2 East-West Clear and Diffuse, 2 North-South Clear and Diffuse, 3 South Clear and Diffuse had illuminance hour percentages that fell between the 30%-60% of the hour range (see Figure 4-15). These values may cause discomfort to the students in the classrooms, where hot spots occur. Also high luminance values resulting from extreme daylight entering the space may cause discomfort glare for the eyes, especially facing the vertical glazing surfaces.

When examining the UDI$_{400-2000}$ and UDI$_{2000+}$ for the modified model Types 1a, 2a, and 3a, it was noted that all of models had high hour percentages within the 400 and 2000 lux UDI range, but varied in their distribution intensity on the floor plane depending on the glazing size and room orientation (see Figure 4-23. Furthermore, there were very few hours falling above 2000 lux within the grid area, since the glazing area was reduced for each Type (see Figure 4-17).
Figure 4-14: DA 1000 (Left), DA 2000 (Right) For Different Types and Orientations
Figure 4-15: UDI 400-2000 (Left), UDI 2000+ (Right) For Different Types and Orientations
Figure 4-16: DA 400 (Left), DA 1000 (Right) For Different Types and Orientations
Figure 4-17: UDI 400-2000 (Left), UDI 2000+ (Right) For Different Types and Orientations
4.4 Energy Performance Results and Analysis

4.4.1 Heat Gain Breakdown

An analysis of the conduction heat gain from the wall, ground and glazing was conducted. Also the radiative heat gain from the glazing was obtained (see Table 4-1). It was noted that when the shorter side of the building faces North and South, and the longer side of the building faces East and West, higher conduction gains on the wall were observed. For example, the conduction gain for the base model was 9719 kBtu when the shorter side faced East and increased to 9836 kBtu, when facing North. Although this is a 1.2% increase, this is due to the minor difference in wall length, where the room dimensions are 25’ x30’. When comparing the conduction heat from the glazing for each scenario, the least conduction heat was observed in Type1a (see Figure 4-19). The highest conduction gain was observed in Type2, since this model contained the most glazing area and the placement of this glazing was vertical. Another observation was that the lower the glazing area present in the model, the higher the wall conduction, mainly in Types 2 and 3, where the alteration included less glazing area and added more wall area to the monitors and clerestories. Conductions gain from the roof and glazing were also analysed and compared throughout the year (see Figure 4-20). One of the reasons that conduction from Type2, Type2a, Type3, Type3a were higher at 8,000 kBtu than Type1 and Type1a at 6,500 kBtu could be due to more roof area in these models. We also note that the lower the glazing area, the lower is the conducted heat. Type2 has the most conduction gain and Typ1a with the least.

Another observation that was made is that horizontal glazing, in Type1 and Type1a, had more potential to lose heat during the nighttime in comparison to the vertical glazing (see Figure 4-18). Since the AC schedule is set to operate from 6 am to 4pm, a lot of the heat is released through the building envelope, and radiated to the sky. This phenomenon may be beneficial in decreasing the cooling load required in the morning. Another finding that was observed is that when the glazing was switched from triple to double, this change allowed for more radiative exchange between the glass and sky, especially during night and lower cooling loads peak at morning (see Table 4-2).

Referring to Figure 4-21, the solar radiation from the glazing is shown for each orientation. It was noted that Type2 has the most radiation gain. This gain was reduced by more than 50% when the model was modified to Type2a. Type1a and Type3a North had the least radiation. Although it was thought that Type1 would gain a lot of radiation, especially with the sun’s high altitude in summer, due to the hazing effect of the sky; lower direct solar radiation is obtained during the summer months. This may be one reason for less solar gain through the horizontal glazing surfaces.

The correlation between inside temperature of a room and the sensible cooling load required was graphed for the entire year (see Figure 4-22). Due to the increase in outside temperature during the summer, the temperature in the room increases as well. The higher the glazing area, the higher the inside temperature due to conduction and radiation, which results in an increase in cooling loads.
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<th>Ground-k</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>Glazing-k</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
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Table 4-1: Heat Gain Breakdown for All Orientations
Figure 4-18: Sensible Cooling Loads For Type 1a On Left And Type 2a On Right For June The 10th, Peak Resulted Due To Heat Accumulation During Evening Hours

<table>
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Table 4-2: Sensible Cooling Loads for Triple Glazing vs Double Glazing
Figure 4-19: Conduction Gain through External Walls, Floors, and Glazing Facing North
Figure 4-20: Conduction Gain Roof and Glazing, Type1, Type2, Type3 on Left (Top to Bottom). Type1a, Type2a, Type3a on Right (Top to Bottom)
Figure 4-21: Radiation Gain through Glazing per Year
Figure 4-22: Annual Space Cooling Sensible and Room Temperature (North Orientation)
4.4.2 Lighting and AC Gain

The total annual lighting energy consumption was calculated to be 2,272 kWh (7,753 kBtu) and the total annual sensible space conditioning was 17,146 kWh (58,505 kBtu) for the base model with no toplighting (see Figure 4-23). These values were set as a baseline to calculate the energy savings for each scenario. Although in reality energy consumption is represented in positive values, in IES-VE Sensible cooling loads are represented in negative values and heating loads in positive values.

Using a Diffuse material of 53% \( T_{vis} \) and a SHGC of 25% for all Types and orientation, we gain the most savings from Type1a at 2,157 kWh (7,355 kBtu), and the least savings from Type2 East-West Diffuse with a loss at -2,735 (-9584 kBtu). This is expected due to the high glazing ratio where the cooling energy exceeds the reduction in lighting energy. Since the North façade has the least exposure from direct sun, where only Diffuse light from the sky and reflected light from the ground and roof are available, both Diffuse and Clear materials were explored for the North orientation. When the material was changed from Diffuse to clear for Type3 in the North orientation, we observe that we gain total energy saving of 369 kWh (1,258 kBtu), where with the Diffuse material there was an energy increase (see Figure 4-24). There were no energy savings for Type2 and Type3 for all orientations and glazing Types, with the exception of the North Clear for Type3. All Type2a resulted in energy savings with a maximum value of 933 kWh (3,183 kBtu) for the North-South Diffuse Type (see Figure 4-25). The only savings from Type3a were the South Diffuse and South Clear.

![Figure 4-23: Base Model with No Toplighting: Lighting and Cooling Energy Consumption](image)
When Type1a was analyzed in terms of lighting and cooling loads we note that we had reduction in energy consumption for both loads (see Figure 4-26). In addition it was observed that although Type2 North had a less total lighting loads, but due to the glazing area, the heat permitted into the building resulted in a total energy reduction (see Figure 4-27).

In general, when studying the 3 different toplighting Types, the most energy savings resulted from Type1a Diffuse at 2,157 kWh (7,355 kBtu), followed by Type1 Diffuse at 1,242 kWh (4234 kBtu), then Type2a at North-South Diffuse at 933 kWh (3,183 kBtu) (see Figure 4-28).

![Figure 4-24: Total Energy Savings for Type1, 2 and 3 for different orientations and material type](image-url)
Figure 4-25: Total Energy Savings for Type1a, 2a and 3a For Different Orientations and Material Types

Figure 4-26: Lighting and Cooling Load Gains, Base vs Type1a
Figure 4-27: Lighting and Cooling Load Gains, Base vs. Type2

Figure 4-28: Comparison of the Different Types with Total Energy Savings
4.4.3 Glare

The models with the best savings from each Type were selected for a glare analysis. For the Type1 classification, Type1a South Diffuse was selected. Since orientation is not as crucial as the time of the day and month for the square skylights, the day was picked at October 20 from the weather file, where there was significant contribution from the sun at solar noon and where the solar altitude is high and almost perpendicular to the glazing surface. For the category Type2, Type2a North Diffuse was selected. For this geometry Type, a time where the solar altitude is low was selected during the winter at 11 am, where the irradiance from the sun is high. For Type3 category, Type3a West Diffuse was analyzed for glare. For this scenario, October 10 was selected at 3 pm where significant solar radiation was striking the façade glazing (see Figure 4-29).

The eye view position was set to 3 feet, where the student was considered at a seated position, and the eye focus point was set to 3.5’. For all Types there were a few conditions where the luminance levels were 7 times higher than the threshold luminance. Although Type3a has less glazing area than Type2a, it resulted in a higher luminance threshold. This may be due to the high contrast between the dark wall adjacent to the fenestration opening and brightness of the glazing (see Figure 4-30). As for the Daylight Glare Index (DGI), for all scenario, values were below the threshold of 31, which indicated tolerable glare to the human eye, where the pupil of the eye can adapt from one level of brightness to another with ease. At certain angles the DGI was below 18, which indicates barely noticeable glare (see Table 4-3). Overall there was no discomfort glare detected as per the DGI measure.
Figure 4-29: Daylight Illuminance Values for Each Day Selected for Glare Analysis
Figure 4-30: Luminance Values Type1a, 2a, 3a, respectively for Selected Dates and Times
Table 4-3: DGI Glare Analysis for Type1a, 2a, 3a, respectively

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<td>-20</td>
<td>-30</td>
<td>-40</td>
<td>-50</td>
<td>-60</td>
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</table>

4.5 Results Summary and Recommendations

The summary Table 4-4 shows the overall matrices that were discussed previously. For the greater glazing area of Types 1, 2, and 3, the DA_{1000} value was set to 70%. For example, Type1 indicated that 70% of the time 60% of the room area receives a 1000 lux. The DA values for Types1a, 2a, and 3a were set to 400 due to very low illuminance values at 1000 lux and beyond. The sDA_{1000} and sDA_{400} were considered for 50% of the occupancy hours and most orientations resulted in high sDA values with the exception of the North diffused. It is also noted that all Types1a, 2a, 3a had no UDI values above 2000 lux, which aided in reducing glare, hot spots, and cooling loads.

In general, we could see that greater savings were achieved from less glazing area, with the exception of Type3a North, where Type3 Clear North yielded the most savings at 369 kWh. Since the North façade scenarios require no shading devices, a recommendation could be to increase the glazing area, admitting indirect daylight through the glazing and allowing for additional energy savings. Despite earning some energy savings for the South facing glazing façades in both Types3a Diffuse and Clear, precaution should be taken during winter time where the solar altitude is at a low of 45 degrees for Muscat, Oman. Shading devices or overhangs may be appropriate for the South orientation to block direct sunlight that may enter the space. Similarly for Type 2a East-West, the low angle of the sun in the morning and late in the afternoon should be avoided using vertical shading devices. Providing these shading elements may aid in reducing the cooling loads as well. Type1a was the only case where savings were achieved for both lighting and cooling. Another recommendation for Oman’s climate weather is that using a double glazed material rather than a triple glazed for the horizontal glazing surfaces could lead to more energy savings (see Table 4-5).
### Table 4-4: Matrixes Summary Table for Investigated Toplighting Systems, Highest Values with Lighter Shade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Room % at 70% DA1000</th>
<th>SDA1000 50%</th>
<th>UDI 2000+ (20-30%)</th>
<th>Lighting Savings (kWh/year)</th>
<th>Cooling Savings (kWh/year)</th>
<th>Total Savings (kWh/year)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>N-Diffuse</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>98%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2,030</td>
<td>-789</td>
<td>1,242</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NS-Diffuse</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>38%</td>
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<td>-3,886</td>
<td>-1,884</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NS-Clear</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>1,963</td>
<td>-3,943</td>
<td>-1,979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>EW-Diffuse</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>99%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>2,039</td>
<td>-4,776</td>
<td>-2,737</td>
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<tr>
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<td>N-Diffuse</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>N-Clear</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>S-Diffuse</td>
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<td>7%</td>
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<td>-1,184</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>West-Diffuse</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>1,409</td>
<td>-2,271</td>
<td>-862</td>
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</table>

### Table 4-5: Electrical Lighting vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption and Total Energy Savings for Type1a Triple Glazing (Left), Double Glazing (Right)

Note: the negative values in tables 4-5 for the cooling energy consumption represents values from IES-VE software. In reality these values are denoted as a positive. For example AC energy consumption for Type1a with -5,7121 kBTu is a decrease of 1,384 kBTu from the Base case.
5 CONCLUSIONS

"A room is not a room without natural light"-Louis Khan

5.1 Summary

Three base models, Type1, Type2, and Type3 were selected for daylight analysis in the climate settings of Muscat, Oman. Tvis values and SHGC values that were similar to available values in the market were input for each Type. Orientations varied for each scenario depending of the geometry of the toplighting system. Diffuse and clear glazing were part of the fenestration material selection. These models were studied in DAYSIMps to make sure adequate illuminance, as per target requirements, was met. Metrics such as DA, sDA, and UDI were evaluated. These models were then simulated in IES-VE to assess heat gain breakdown. Based on observation of conduction and radiant heat gain from the glazing for each scenario, modifications were made to the glazing area, where it was reduced for each aperture Type. Heat gain was then re-examined. These modified Types were simulated again in DAYSIMps for daylight metrics evaluation. Energy savings were evaluated for each scenario. Glare was checked for the one optimum arrangement from each Type, where high glare potential might occur.

It was concluded that Type1a 2’x2’ skylight resulted in the best total savings in terms of lighting and cooling for Oman’s climate within the tested models. Type1a also had the least glare potential out of the three study cases and met illumination requirements. When UDI 2000+ was examined for this Type, no illumination values that exceeded the 2000 lux threshold were observed (see Figure 5-1). Other systems such as Type1, Type2a (North-South, East-West) and Type3a North yielded energy savings as well. Material choices had an impact on allowable heat transfer and lighting transmittance. For example, double glazing material resulted in 15% increase in total savings for Type1a when compared to triple glazing savings for the same Type. This result does not only serve energy savings but also reduces cost implications where the cost of a triple glazing system could range from 10-20% more than that of a double glazing.

Figure 5-1: Typ1a, Most Appropriate Toplighting Type for Muscat Oman Climate within Simulation Studies
Generally, glazing area, Geometry, and orientation were factors in the result outcome in this research. In addition, Climate factors such as the atmosphere’s clearness contributed to the final results. Furthermore, material choices, such as diffuse and clear, and visible light transmittance had an impact on the end results.

Results from this study are expected to provide an overall basis for architects and engineers to follow when designing toplighting in a similar climate. These findings are meant to improve the indoor quality for school occupants, provide energy savings for both consumers and government, and reduce harmful emissions for the environment as a whole. This research also shows the significance of integrating the lighting and mechanical systems when accounting for energy savings. Since one type of toplighting may allow substantial amount of savings in electric lighting loads, but due to the climate, added heat to the room, results in overall less or no energy saving.

In conclusion, this study demonstrates that, if appropriately designed, toplighting systems does result in an overall annual energy savings in a classroom space for hot climates such as in Muscat, Oman. The correct application of rooftop systems could lead to better indoor quality, enhanced environment and energy savings.

![Image](image.jpg)

**Figure 5-2: Students Well-Being, Energy Efficiency and Environment**

*Source: Cognition Education*

### 5.2 Limitations

There are some limitations to this study where the climate focus was for the city of Muscat and Oman has a variation of climates within its geography. No windows were considered in this investigation, where typical classrooms in Oman are built with at least some view glazing areas. The $T_{vis}$ of 52%, 53%, and 32% and the SHGC values of 25% and 26% were studied in this investigation. Different glazing material properties for the $T_{vis}$ and the SHGC could be explored in further studies. For further investigation, variety of geometry and glazing modifications can be applied to where optimum saving levels can be achieved for each study case. In addition, other toplighting systems such as tube skylights could be explored. This study was based on simulation tools, comparing case studies observed in actual buildings for the same climate settings is importance for results verifications and comparison. Overhangs and shading devices were not part of this study.
GLOSSARY

Toplighting: daylighting system that primarily delivers light to interior spaces from the roof

Skylight: fenestration surface having a slope of less than 60 degrees from the horizontal plane

Clerestory: that part of a building that rises clear of the roofs or other parts and whose walls contain windows for lighting the interior

Monitor: vertical fenestration integral to the roof

Visible Light Transmittance (Tvis): a percentage (0-100%) of the fraction of incident flux (visible light) arriving at a normal angle of incidence (on surface) that passes through a material. The higher the Tvis the less glazing area is required to illuminate a space. A material that is opaque has a Tvis value of zero

Light to Solar Gain (LSG): the ratio of Tvis over SHGC. It is a metric to compare material suitability in hot climates. High LSG helps in minimizing the cooling loads yet permitting more light and promotes energy efficiency. It is not good for cold climates where having heat during cold seasons is desirable.

Solar Heat Gain Coefficient (SHGC): a value from (0.0-1.0) represents the fraction of incident solar radiation transmitted through a glazing material into a space either through direct transmission or through absorption and subsequent radiation, conduction or convection it considers the transmission of UV and inferred radiation. When a space needs to be cooled a glazing material that transmits visible wavelengths and reject none-visible wavelength is desirable.

Lighting Power Density (LPD): the maximum lighting power per unit area of a building classification of space function.

Skylight to Roof Ratio (SRR): the net glazing area divided by the gross roof area

Skylight to Floor Ratio (SRR): the net glazing area divided by the gross floor area

Note: definitions were referenced from the ASHRAE 90.1/ IESNA 2013 and the Illuminating Engineering Society Handbook
REFERENCES


### APPENDIX

The following appendix provides details for energy consumption and savings for all Types. From the tables we can see the patterns of increase or decrease of both lighting and AC loads energy consumption as per toplighting fenestration Type, glazing area, orientations and variation in seasons (see Tables 8-1-8-6). Note that the negative values in tables bellow for the cooling energy consumption represents values from IES-VE software. In reality these values are denoted as a positive.

#### Table 0-1: North Diffuse- Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for all Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Base Light Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
<th>Base Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
<th>Typ1 Light Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
<th>Typ1 Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
<th>Light Energy Consumption (kBtu)</th>
<th>Cooling Energy Consumption (kBtu)</th>
<th>Total Energy Savings (kBtu)</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Base Light Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
<th>Base Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
<th>Typ1 Light Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
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Note: The negative values in the tables for cooling energy consumption represent values from IES-VE software.
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<th>Date</th>
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<th>Base Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu)</th>
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Table 0-2: North Clear- Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types
| Date       | Base Light Energy Gain (kBtu) | Base Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu) | Type1 Light Energy Gain (kBtu) | Type1 Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu) | Total Energy Gain (kBtu) | Date       | Base Light Energy Gain (kBtu) | Base Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu) | Type1 Light Energy Gain (kBtu) | Type1 Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu) | Total Energy Gain (kBtu) | Date       | Base Light Energy Gain (kBtu) | Base Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu) | Type1 Light Energy Gain (kBtu) | Type1 Cooling Energy Gain (kBtu) | Total Energy Gain (kBtu) |
|------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------------|------------|
| Feb 01-28  | 895                            | 3156                            | 632                            | 27                             | 670                     | Mar 01-31  | 658                            | 3269                            | 33                             | 352                             | 349                     | 179                   | 895                            | 3156                            | 632                            | 27                             | 670                     | Mar 01-31  |
| Mar 01-31  | 658                            | 3269                            | 33                             | 352                             | 670                     | Apr 01-30  | 637                            | 3064                            | 64                             | 395                             | 339                     | 179                   | 658                            | 3269                            | 33                             | 352                             | 670                     | Apr 01-30  |
| Apr 01-30  | 637                            | 3064                            | 64                             | 395                             | 339                     | May 01-31  | 658                            | 3123                            | 50                             | 435                             | 392                     | 179                   | 637                            | 3064                            | 64                             | 395                             | 339                     | May 01-31  |
| May 01-31  | 658                            | 3123                            | 50                             | 435                             | 392                     | Jun 01-30  | 637                            | 3130                            | 77                             | 546                             | 434                     | 179                   | 658                            | 3123                            | 50                             | 435                             | 392                     | Jun 01-30  |
| Jun 01-30  | 637                            | 3130                            | 77                             | 546                             | 434                     | Jul 01-31  | 658                            | 3148                            | 94                             | 690                             | 494                     | 179                   | 637                            | 3130                            | 77                             | 546                             | 434                     | Jul 01-31  |
| Jul 01-31  | 658                            | 3148                            | 94                             | 690                             | 494                     | Aug 01-31  | 637                            | 3165                            | 110                            | 831                             | 621                     | 179                   | 658                            | 3148                            | 94                             | 690                             | 494                     | Aug 01-31  |
| Aug 01-31  | 637                            | 3165                            | 110                            | 831                             | 621                     | Sep 01-30  | 637                            | 3180                            | 128                            | 1016                            | 839                     | 179                   | 637                            | 3165                            | 110                            | 831                             | 621                     | Sep 01-30  |
| Sep 01-30  | 637                            | 3180                            | 128                            | 1016                            | 839                     | Oct 01-31  | 637                            | 3207                            | 144                            | 1259                            | 1058                    | 179                   | 637                            | 3180                            | 128                            | 1016                            | 839                     | Oct 01-31  |
| Oct 01-31  | 637                            | 3207                            | 144                            | 1259                            | 1058                    | Nov 01-30  | 637                            | 3233                            | 163                            | 1522                            | 1200                    | 179                   | 637                            | 3207                            | 144                            | 1259                            | 1058                    | Nov 01-30  |
| Nov 01-30  | 637                            | 3233                            | 163                            | 1522                            | 1200                    | Dec 01-31  | 637                            | 3264                            | 186                            | 1790                            | 1355                    | 179                   | 637                            | 3233                            | 163                            | 1522                            | 1200                    | Dec 01-31  |
| Dec 01-31  | 637                            | 3264                            | 186                            | 1790                            | 1355                    | Summed total| 775.5                           | 583.05                           | 402                           | 3125                           | 2570                    | 179                   | 775.5                           | 583.05                           | 402                           | 3125                           | 2570                    | Summed total|

Table 0-3: South Diffuse- Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types
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Table 0-5: West Diffuse- Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types
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Table 0-6: East Diffuse- Electrical Lighting Vs Sensible Cooling Energy Consumption for All Types