

Measured and simulated thermal behaviour in rammed earth houses in a hot-arid climate. Part A: Structural behaviour

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Abstract

Heating and cooling of residential buildings consumes around ten percent of the world's energy. One approach for reducing these costs is to exploit the high thermal mass of sustainable building materials, for example rammed earth (RE), for intelligent solar passive design. However, there is a lack of scientific evidence about the thermal performance of RE houses in real-world settings.

This research investigated to what extent thermal performance in unconditioned RE structures in rural Australia can be captured by current accreditation software. Two custom-designed houses were built in the hot-arid city of Kalgoorlie-Boulder, Western Australia: one comprising traditional solid cement-stabilised rammed earth walls (RE) and the other walls with an insulating polystyrene core (iRE). Otherwise the houses were identical in orientation and design. The houses were instrumented to monitor indoor temperature and humidity conditions prior to and during occupancy. Results were compared to those simulated using cutting-edge assessment software *BERS Pro* (v4.3) as an example of that used for energy efficiency accreditation in Australia. This first paper in this series discusses the houses' construction and instrumentation and results obtained during the unoccupied period, i.e. those purely demonstrative of the structure's

thermal performance. A second paper in the series presents data gathered during occupancy, to contrast occupant thermal comfort with that predicted numerically.

Measured data showed that both houses performed nominally-identically: the houses did not receive any relative benefit from including iRE. Simulated data was also similar per house. However, measured performance did not match that simulated: simulated rooms had poorer thermal stability and lag and, consequently, exaggerated internal temperature variations. Collected data has been made publicly available for future analyses.

Keywords: rammed earth, insulated rammed earth, thermal stability, thermal lag, environmental monitoring, rural housing

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25 1. Introduction

26 Almost ten percent of the world’s annual energy consumption is used for
27 heating and cooling residential buildings [3, 19]. Reducing this energy demand,
28 even by a small amount, would yield significant environmental and economic
29 savings [23]. Adopting passive thermal designs is one way to achieve this. A key
30 component of this approach is the intelligent use of thermal mass; the passive
31 ability to absorb and retain heat energy [24].

32 Rammed earth (RE) elements have high thermal mass but low thermal re-
33 sistance. RE elements consequently perform poorly under current heating and
34 cooling energy efficiency calculations [22]. In response, RE practitioners around
35 the world developed insulated cavity RE walls (iRE), comprising a central in-
36 sulation panel flanked by external RE leaves. Hall and Allinson [14] and Dong
37 et al. [13] demonstrated that this innovation successfully addressed poor predicted
38 thermal properties whilst retaining the same aesthetic appeal as traditional RE
39 walls. However, iRE construction is slower, and so more costly, owing to the
40 need to compact material either side of the central panel. Furthermore, it is well
41 understood that wall thermal resistance is not the sole predictor of a building’s
42 thermal behaviour; rather, the performance of the building as a complete system
43 must be taken into account [20]. Therefore, substituting iRE for RE may or may
44 not provide adequate performance improvement for its cost depending on the
45 building’s design, location and use.

46 This series examines the ability of current energy accreditation software *BERS*
47 *Pro*, (v4.3), typical of that used in Australia, to simulate the thermal performance
48 of an unconditioned RE and iRE house built in Kalgoorlie-Boulder, Western Aus-
49 tralia. Both houses were designed to optimise passive solar behaviour and both

50 exceeded the minimum energy efficiencies required for construction under the
51 Australian Nationwide House Energy Rating Scheme (NatHERS). This paper,
52 being the first in the series, describes the house construction and instrumenta-
53 tion processes and examines the thermal performance of the structures with no
54 occupants. Measured and simulated performance were contrasted using thermal
55 stability and thermal lag. Measured performance was superior to that predicted
56 by the simulations for both houses, particularly in rooms with lightweight exter-
57 nal walls or north-facing floor-to-ceiling windows.

58 **2. House design**

59 Kalgoorlie-Boulder in Western Australia was selected because its arid climate
60 (Köppen Classification Bwh) is well suited to passive indoor thermal and hu-
61 midity regulation using high thermal mass walls [1]. Temperatures in Kalgoorlie-
62 Boulder can exceed 45°C in Summer and drop to freezing in Winter. As such,
63 houses are almost exclusively fitted with large artificial heating and cooling units
64 that consume a considerable portion of their annual energy and water (through
65 evaporative cooling) budgets [6, 17]. A key aim of this project was to investigate
66 to what extent adopting passive solar design principles founded on using RE
67 could reduce dependence on artificial climate control.

68 Two houses were custom-designed comprising several features to promote
69 beneficial passive solar behaviour: both made extensive use of high thermal mass
70 RE or iRE walls, the living room was placed centrally with a high (3.6m) ceiling
71 and central vent to encourage air flow and a wide veranda shaded the north-
72 facing living room windows. Neither house was equipped with means of artificial
73 heating or cooling, however both houses featured ceiling fans in the living rooms

74 and bedrooms and a central vent in the living rooms connected to a Venturi fan
75 at the roof's apex.

76 Figure 1 shows the houses' floor plan and orientation. The rightmost house
77 in Figure 1 comprised 300mm thick monolithic RE walls throughout. The left-
78 most comprised a mix of 300mm thick iRE and monolithic 300mm RE external
79 walls and 300mm monolithic RE internal walls. Both houses featured lightweight
80 timber stud/insulated steel panel ("Colorbond" walling system, insulation R-
81 value= $1.5m^2K/W$) external walls in the kitchens and bathrooms and both had
82 steel sheet cladding roofs with batt insulation (R-value= $3.0m^2K/W$) and tim-
83 ber lining. Externally, the houses appeared identical. For convenience, these
84 houses will be referred to hereafter as the "monolithic" and "insulated" houses
85 respectively.

86 The RE components were stabilised with roughly 9% by mass of dry soil of
87 Portland cement and compacted to a dry density of approximately $2050kg/m^3$
88 using a reciprocating pneumatic hammer. Raw soil was obtained from a Cool-
89 gardie, roughly 50km from Kalgoorlie-Boulder, from a pit previously used by the
90 contractor, and combined in 3 parts soil to 1 part river sand to improve par-
91 ticle grading. The iRE walls were formed from a central 50mm thick extruded
92 polystyrene panel, flanked by two 125mm RE leaves.

93 (Insert Figure 1 somewhere near here)

94 iRE is used in several countries around the world (e.g. Krayenhoff [16]) but
95 is relatively new to Australia. Therefore, concessions were made to structural
96 integrity for iRE panel design. Panels were built with a 300mm monolithic RE
97 border around their extremities (except at the base) and H-shaped ties, cut from
98 10mm reinforcing bar mesh, were placed at 600mm height intervals connecting
99 the leaves. Insulation was not used in any panels $<1000mm$ width, for example

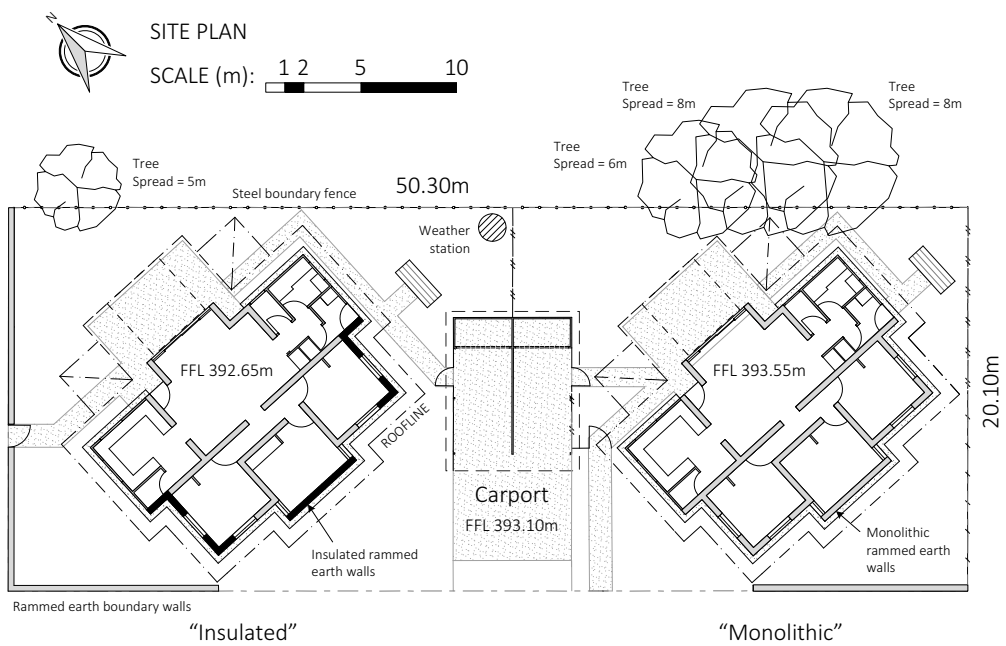


Figure 1: Site plan for the two houses. RE walls are shown in grey and iRE walls in black. Thin grey walls denote lightweight "Colorbond" walling construction. FFL: Finished Floor Level (above mean sea level)

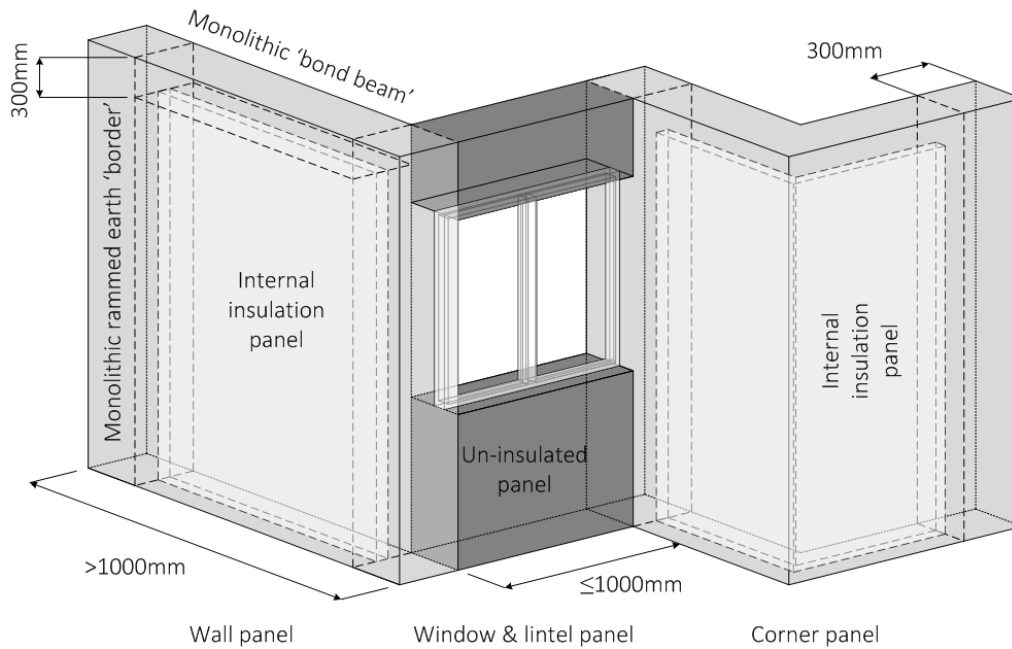


Figure 2: Insulation layout and monolithic structural components in insulated RE panels

100 under windows or in lintels. Resulting insulation configurations for the external
 101 walls, corner panels and lintels are shown in Figure 2.

102 (Insert Figure 2 somewhere near here)

103 3. Instrumentation

104 3.1. Sensor Types

105 The instrumentation layout was designed to accommodate changing regimes
 106 prior to and during occupancy. Prior to occupancy, temperature and humidity
 107 sensors were placed centrally at head and ceiling level in free air in the living
 108 rooms, bedrooms and kitchens to monitor indoor air temperature and humid-
 109 ity. Head-height sensors were then removed on occupancy to avoid damage:
 110 approaches used to determine head-level temperatures from ceiling-level data are

111 discussed in the second part of this series. Sensors were also placed within the
112 RE and iRE walls at head height (and additionally at knee and ceiling height in
113 the living rooms) to monitor temperature changes with depth through the walls.
114 A weather station sensing wind speed and direction, precipitation, dry bulb tem-
115 perature and humidity was positioned between the two houses, as indicated in
116 Figure 1. A schematic representation of the sensor deployment in this study is
117 shown in Figure 3. Positions of all sensor groups per house are shown in Figure 4
118 and described in Table 1.

119 Multiple sensor types, obtained from three suppliers, were deployed in each
120 of the monitored environments. *Onset* “HOBO” sensors were placed at room
121 ceiling-level (A1–5), within and on the surfaces of the RE and iRE walls (H1–6)
122 and used for the weather station. “Mannheim” sensors, provided by The Uni-
123 versity of Applied Sciences Mannheim in Germany, were used to measure indoor
124 temperature and humidity at head-level and temperature within the RE and iRE
125 walls. Indoor units (A1–5) comprised a single chip-mounted temperature and
126 humidity sensor. Those placed within the walls (M1–4) comprised eight thermis-
127 tors, spaced evenly along the unit’s 260mm length. Wall units were fitted with
128 data cables which were connected to custom-made loggers in the attic. Finally,
129 *Digitech* QP-6013 temperature and humidity sensors were paired with indoor
130 head-level Mannheim sensors (A1–5)) to verify reliability. Digitech sensors had
131 onboard logging and data was downloaded at the end of the unoccupied moni-
132 toring period.

133 (Insert Figure 3 somewhere near here)

134 (Insert Figure 4 somewhere near here)

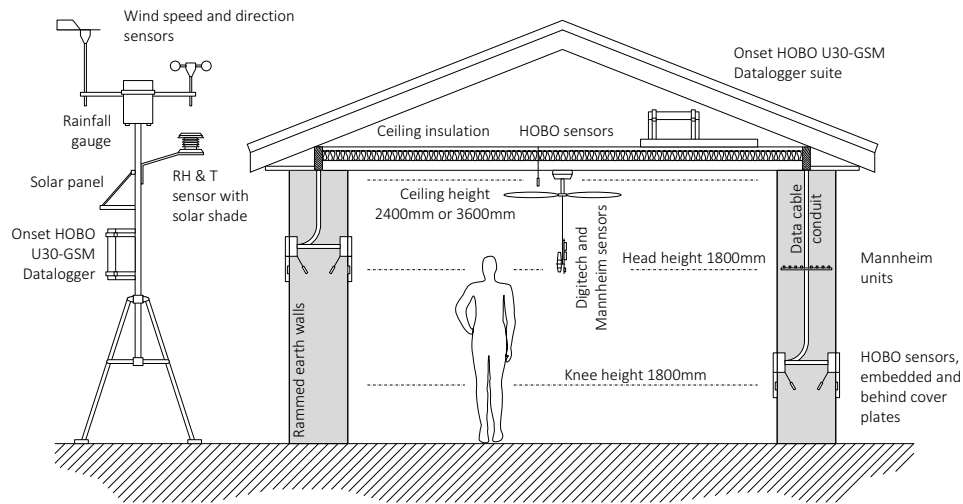


Figure 3: Diagrammatic representation of instrumentation locations. RH & T: Relative humidity and temperature (dry bulb)

Table 1: Sensor group information for locations shown in Figure 4. T: Temperature; RH: Relative Humidity.

Sensor group	Height (mm)	Position	Variables	Period (mins)	Accuracy	Type
A1, 4 & 5	1800	Head	T, RH	5	$\pm 0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 2\%$	Mannheim
	1800	Head	T, RH	5	$\pm 1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 3\%$	Digitech
	2400	Ceiling	T	10	$\pm 0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	HOBO
A2	1800	Head	T, RH	5	$\pm 0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 2\%$	Mannheim
	1800	Head	T, RH	5	$\pm 1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 3\%$	Digitech
	3600	Ceiling	T, RH	10	$\pm 0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 2.5\%$	HOBO
A3	1800	Head	T, RH	5	$\pm 0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 2\%$	Mannheim
	1800	Head	T, RH	5	$\pm 1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 3\%$	Digitech
	2400	Ceiling	T, RH	10	$\pm 0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $\pm 2.5\%$	HOBO
M1	3000	Ceiling	T	5	$\pm 0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	Mannheim
M2-4	1800	Head	T	5	$\pm 0.4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	Mannheim
H1, 2, 4-6	1800	Head	T	10	$\pm 0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	HOBO
H3	600	Knee	T	10	$\pm 0.2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$	HOBO

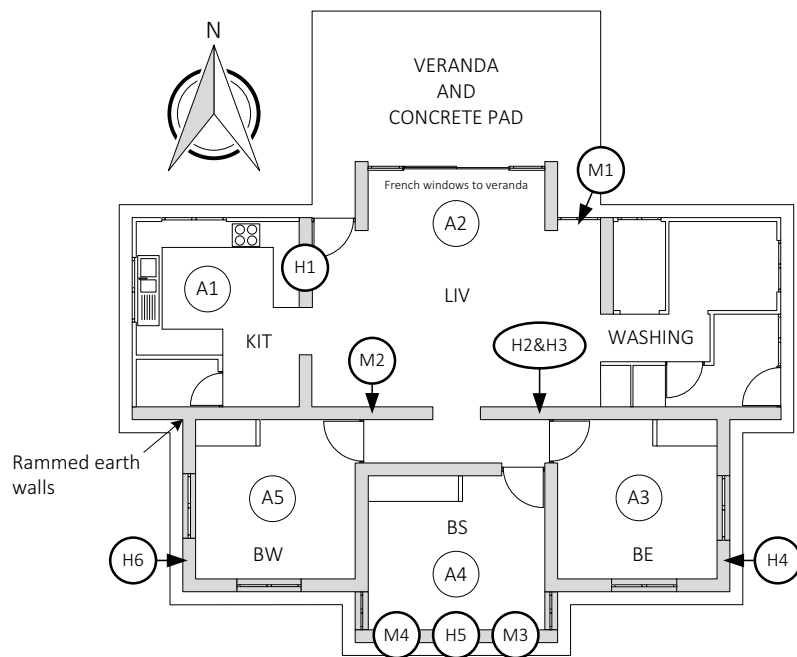


Figure 4: House plan showing sensor positions. KIT: Kitchen; LIV: Living Room; BW, BS, BE: Bedroom East, South and West respectively. Label definitions are given in Table 1.

135 *3.2. Installation*

136 Mannheim units placed within the walls (M1–4) were installed during con-
137 struction. Walls were built up to the required height and a smooth surface created
138 upon which the unit was placed perpendicular to the wall’s face, equidistant be-
139 tween the surfaces. The unit’s central data cable was protected within a PVC
140 conduit. Fine material was packed around the unit and cable and hand-tamped
141 to provide good thermal contact, e.g. as shown in Figure 5. Construction then
142 continued as per the rest of the wall, described in [4]. When in position the
143 most extreme sensors in the units were 27.5mm behind the wall’s surfaces, the
144 remainder spaced evenly at roughly 35mm intervals.

145 HOBO wall sensors (H1–6) were installed via customised conduits. As for the
146 Mannheim units, HOBO conduits were protected from damage by placing them
147 on smoothed surfaces and manually packing fine material around them prior to
148 ramming (Figure 5). Sensors were grouted into 12mm diameter channels, drilled
149 diagonally downwards from the conduit into the wall to a depth of 70mm from the
150 wall’s surface. The grout comprised fine material from the parent RE material,
151 mixed with Portland cement to provide the same thermal environment to the
152 bulk of the wall [5]. Surface-mounted sensors were held in place and protected by
153 insulated cover plates. Embedded and surface sensors were aligned horizontally to
154 the desired height above the floor (configuration shown schematically in Figure 3).

155 (Insert Figure 5 somewhere near here)

156 Head-level sensors within the rooms (A1–5 at 1800mm) were installed af-
157 ter construction was complete; paired Mannheim and Digitech sensors were sus-
158 pended from the ceilings at the required height to ensure free air flow around
159 them. Ceiling-level sensors (A1–5 at 2400 or 3600mm) were passed through ex-
160 isting light or fan fittings from the roof cavity to reduce their visual impact. A2

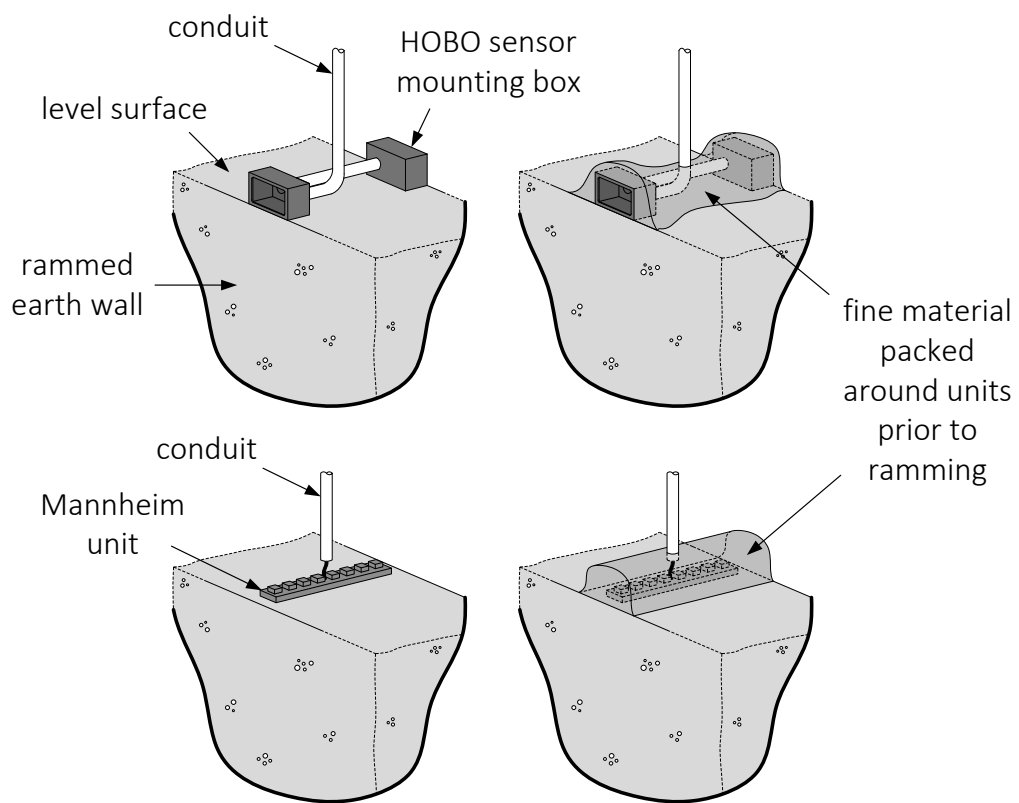


Figure 5: Packing fine material around the sensor units or conduits for protection during ramming

161 was shaded from the nearby floor-to-ceiling windows by the window lintel.

162 **4. Measured Data**

163 *4.1. Collection*

164 The sensors generated over 16,000 measurements a day per house, continu-
165 ously collected since 2014/09/01 (yyyy/mm/dd). Sensor readings were transmit-
166 ted from loggers in the roof spaces of each house to cloud servers using *Telstra's*
167 2G and 3G mobile phone data networks. The following workflow was developed
168 to manage the data. Real-time data streams were imported from third party
169 (external weather data and the Onset HOBOLink portal) web systems. To per-
170 mit remote HOBO sensor data collection, four HOBO U30-GSM loggers were
171 used per house and a dedicated HOBO U30-GSM logger was also allocated to
172 the weather station. Mannheim sensor data from within the walls (M1–M4) was
173 transmitted to a cloud web server. Additionally, data from head-level Mannheim
174 sensors (A1–5 1800mm) was transmitted wirelessly and stored locally on two
175 customised Raspberry-pis and uploaded at the end of the unoccupied monitoring
176 period.

177 *4.2. Cleaning*

178 Each data stream was collated, cleaned and imported into three Sqlite (www.sqlite.org)
179 databases: outdoor (BoM and weather station data); indoor (A1–
180 5); and in-wall (M1–4 and H1–6). The data analysed in this paper is from the
181 head level sensors (A1–5), the in-wall sensors M1–M4, and public weather data
182 from the Bureau of Meterology, recorded during the period when the house was
183 unoccupied. The data was cleaned by removing out of range readings (e.g. -
184 100 RH, +500 temperature). Missing values up to a maximum of 2 hours were

185 estimated using linear interpolation. Hourly values were generated by averaging
186 the values from ± 0.5 hrs either side of the hour in question.

187 *4.3. Visualisation and Analysis*

188 A web application was developed to provide a configurable front end for in-
189 teractive visualisation of the data as time series. This interface was used for
190 visual exploration, statistical summary analyses, data mining and for thermal
191 modelling. Each of these applications had different requirements such as the
192 measurement interval and temporal scope of the data, the completeness of the
193 time series (e.g. whether missing values were allowed or not), and the num-
194 ber of sensor streams to be integrated. These different applications were sup-
195 ported as database views: that is, as virtual tables that selected and integrated
196 the required data from the original databases in an efficient way. For addi-
197 tional analysis and visualisation tasks, data could be exported to R or Mat-
198 LAB. A subset of the project data is available for viewing and download from
199 <http://datascience.ecm.uwa.edu.au:55555/>.

200 **5. Simulated Data**

201 Since the early 1990s all new structures in Australia must achieve a minimum
202 energy efficiency, expressed as a “star rating” out of 10, for construction to be
203 permitted. A rating of 10 stars infers that the house will require almost no heat-
204 ing or cooling energy (≤ 3 MJ/m².annum) to maintain a thermally-comfortable
205 environment [9]. Star ratings are awarded based on energy efficiencies calculated
206 by Australian Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation
207 (CSIRO) accredited software. *AccuRate* and *BERS Pro* are the most popular
208 software packages, both of which use the *Chenath* calculation engine. *Chenath*

Table 2: Material and component thermal properties used in *BERS Pro* simulations

Material/component	Density (dry) (kg/m ³)	Resistance (mK/W)	Capacitance (kJ/m ³ K)	R-value (m ² K/W)
Rammed earth	2000	0.80	1940.0	-
Extruded polystyrene	32	35.72	340	-
Concrete	2400	0.69	2112.0	-
Steel	N/A	0.02	3900.0	-
Timber (softwood)	N/A	10.00	1057.5	-
External surface	-	-	-	0.04
Internal surface	-	-	-	0.12
Total uninsulated wall	-	-	-	0.40
Total iRE panel	-	-	-	2.14

209 version 2.26 (2012) was used to assess the proposed house designs prior to con-
 210 struction. Both houses exceeded the minimum standard of 6/10 stars: 8.3 and
 211 6.4 for the insulated and monolithic houses respectively (conditioned floor area
 212 99.7m²).

213 In this study, measured performance was compared to that simulated using
 214 *BERS Pro* v4.3 (*Chenath* v3.13, released September 2015). Simulations were
 215 based on 30-year average annual temperature (as required by the rating sys-
 216 tem). Default thermal properties for relevant materials were selected to permit
 217 comparisons between previous and future analyses (Table 2). Simulations of the
 218 unoccupied houses assumed that external doors and windows remained shut and
 219 that no artificial heating or cooling (including cooking, bathing etc.) was used.

220 (Insert Table 2 somewhere near here)

221 6. Thermal Performance Metrics

222 Measured data from occupied dwellings provides ‘real world’ information but
 223 separating the occupants’ and structures’ behaviour is complex and sometimes
 224 subjective. Hence, this study split its investigation into both an unoccupied and

225 an occupied phase, the latter discussed in Part B of this series, to examine the
226 house’s structural thermal performance in the absence and presence of human
227 factors respectively. Logging of internal, unoccupied conditions was from 1st
228 September 2014 until 1st December 2014. Doors and windows were closed during
229 this time. Since ceiling-level sensors were disguised by light and fan fixtures,
230 effects of light or fan activation on recorded variables were tested. However, no
231 significant effects were found.

232 The following sections describes the metrics that were used to examine and
233 compare houses’ unoccupied thermal performance.

234 *6.1. Thermal stability*

235 The Thermal Stability Coefficient (TSC) expresses a structure’s resistance to
236 temperature fluctuations:

$$\text{TSC} = \frac{T_{i,max} - T_{i,min}}{T_{o,max} - T_{o,min}}, \quad (1)$$

237 where $T_{i,max} - T_{i,min}$ and $T_{o,max} - T_{o,min}$ are the range of daily indoor and outdoor
238 dry bulb temperatures respectively [12]. The lower the TSC value, the better the
239 structure or room was as mitigating outdoor temperature extremes.

240 *6.2. Thermal lag*

241 Thermal lag is the time difference between daily peak outdoor and indoor
242 temperatures. RE structures are traditionally considered to boast long thermal
243 lags: it is this property that is commonly (and incorrectly) associated with good
244 ‘insulative’ properties. Rather, RE has poor thermal resistance but a high ther-
245 mal mass [22]. Thermal lag is a popular parameter to describe the performance
246 of high thermal mass structures (e.g. Hall and Allinson [14]) and so permits a

247 comparison between this and other assessments. However, evaluating thermal lag
248 in real-world conditions can be troublesome, in that lags must be calculated for
249 periods displaying nominally-sinusoidal temperature fluctuations which are not
250 always the case in practice. Filters were applied to measured and simulated data
251 to select appropriate days for calculating thermal lag, as illustrated in Figure 6.
252 Appropriate days had to satisfy the following properties:

- 253 1. The time of the daily minimum must precede that of the maximum for
254 both inside and outside measurements, e.g. the first 24 hour period shown
255 in Figure 6. Days that do not meet this sinusoidal constraint are unsafe and
256 so excluded. Typically in Kalgoorlie-Boulder the outdoor minima occurs
257 around 06:00 and the outdoor maxima around 16:00.
- 258 2. Negative ‘lags’ can occur due to sudden drops in outdoor temperature (e.g.
259 the second and third 24 hour period in Figure 6). Such unsafe days were
260 excluded.
- 261 3. For unsafe days of type 1 or 2 (above) the following two days were also
262 excluded to avoid anomalies from extreme weather events.
- 263 4. Any days where the time of the indoor peak was too uncertain were ex-
264 cluded (final 24 hours in Figure 6). One source of uncertainty was days
265 with multiple peaks where more than three hours were within 0.01°C of
266 the maximum value. Another source of uncertainty was when the indoor
267 maxima occurred across a day boundary (between 22:00 and 01:00). For
268 days with 3 or fewer hours within 0.01°C of the maximum value, the final
269 such hour was taken as the peak, so reporting the upper bound for the
270 thermal lag. Finally, thermal lags of 0 hours were allowed.

271 (Insert Figure 6 somewhere near here)

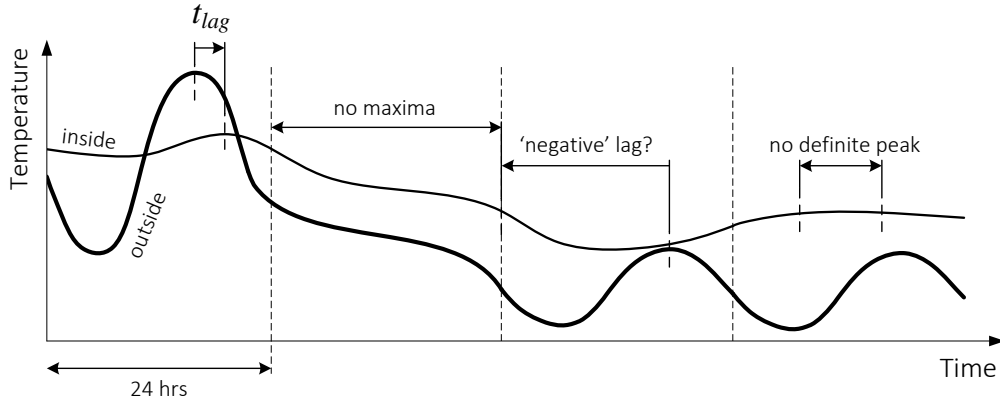


Figure 6: Filtering processes used to define thermal lag

272 **7. Results and Discussion**

273 The following questions were addressed:

- 274 1. To what extent did the houses mitigate outdoor temperature extremes?
 275 2. To what extent did indoor temperature peaks lag outdoor peaks?
 276 3. To what extent did the performance of the monolithic and insulated houses
 277 differ?
 278 4. To what extent did the measured and predicted behaviours differ?

279 Two sets of climate data were used for the analysis. *BERS Pro* simulations
 280 were based on 30-year average annual temperature data (as required by the rating
 281 system). The measured climate data was from the nearest Bureau of Meteorology
 282 weather station at Kalgoorlie airport. The two datasets were statistically different
 283 (unpaired Welch Two sample t-test p value = $8.996e-27$): simulated climate data
 284 was colder than measured values by roughly 2°C but shared a similar interquartile
 285 range. As diurnal temperature ranges were similar, however, direct comparisons
 286 between measured and simulated thermal stability and thermal lag were valid.

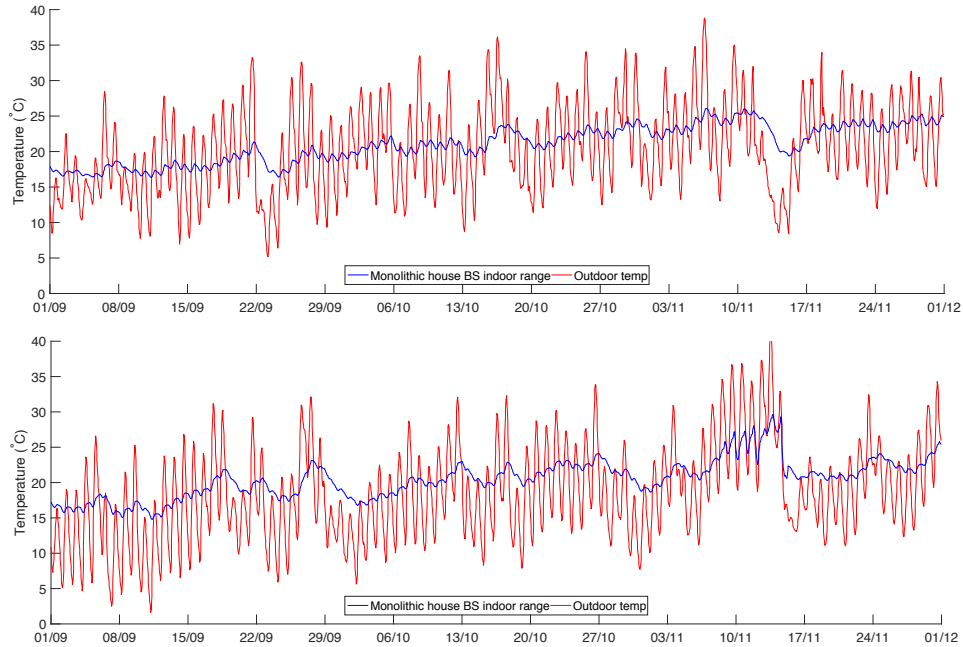


Figure 7: Monolithic house southern bedroom (BS) indoor and outdoor dry bulb temperatures for measured (top) and simulated (bottom) data. Outdoor temperatures are 2014 measurements or 30 year average for the simulations.

287 *7.1. Thermal stability*

288 An example of indoor and outdoor dry bulb temperature data captured in
 289 the southern bedroom (the room with the greatest RE or iRE envelope) is shown
 290 in Figure 7 (top). *BERS Pro* simulated data for the same period is shown in
 291 Figure 7 (bottom). Results in the insulated house were visually identical and so
 292 are not shown.

293 (Insert Figure 7 somewhere near here)

294 *7.1.1. Measured performance*

295 TSC results for the iRE and RE houses, using both measured and simulated
 296 data, are given in Table 3. TSCs in all rooms in both houses were between the
 297 ranges found by Serrano et al. [21] for insulated and uninsulated test cells (0.030–

298 0.256 respectively). TSC variation from day to day was minimal: the few spikes
299 that occurred corresponded to rapid changes in cloud cover.

300 Stability differences between houses were small but not statistically signifi-
301 cant (unpaired p value 0.0559): over this analysis period both houses mitigated
302 temperatures equally well. However, given that p was close to 0.05, a longer
303 period or a period comprising different seasons may have demonstrated signifi-
304 cant differences. Kitchen and then living room TSCs were the highest for both
305 houses, i.e. these rooms mitigated temperature extremes the most poorly. Mean
306 living room and kitchen TSCs were lower (i.e. better) in the insulated house;
307 poorer performance in the monolithic house may indicate reduced external shad-
308 ing, perhaps due to its higher elevation or exposed eastern rooms (e.g. no shading
309 from the central carport). Bedroom TSCs were similar for both houses and the
310 southern bedrooms produced the lowest TSCs. This variation between rooms
311 agreed well with the distribution of internal and external thermal mass; rooms
312 with greater RE or iRE envelopes produced lower TSCs. Notably, whether the
313 envelope comprised RE or iRE made no statistical impact.

314 *7.1.2. Simulated performance*

315 All simulated TSCs were higher (i.e. worse) than measured values for corre-
316 sponding rooms (all unpaired $p < 0.0000$). However, simulated TSCs between
317 the houses were statistically similar (unpaired $p = 0.2171$): neither house was
318 predicted to outperform the other. The quality of the simulated performances'
319 match to measured values varied with the room envelopes' thermal masses: the
320 southern bedrooms gave the lowest TSCs and showed the best match to measured
321 performance, whereas kitchen and living room TSCs were the highest and almost
322 double those measured. Therefore, for the houses investigated here, the default

Table 3: TSCs per monitored room for both houses. Bold entries indicate maximum values. TSC: Thermal Stability Coefficient; SD: Standard Deviation; n sample size

House	Room	Measured			Simulated		
		TSC	SD	N	TSC	SD	N
Insulated	Liv	0.143	0.078	61	0.427	0.069	91
	BE	0.117	0.069	91	0.171	0.082	91
	BS	0.108	0.089	91	0.145	0.077	91
	BW	0.143	0.100	91	0.193	0.076	91
	Kit	0.147	0.089	91	0.419	0.072	91
Monolithic	Liv	0.185	0.109	61	0.425	0.069	91
	BE	0.106	0.060	91	0.146	0.087	91
	BS	0.103	0.089	91	0.119	0.084	91
	BW	0.146	0.100	91	0.160	0.078	91
	Kit	0.191	0.096	91	0.414	0.070	91

323 *BERS Pro* stability predictions were overly pessimistic.

324 (Insert Table 3 somewhere near here)

325 7.2. Thermal lag

326 Thermal lags found per room are given in Table 4. Comparing the overall
327 performance of each house, measured values showed that both houses performed
328 significantly similarly (unpaired $p = 0.3898$): both houses were just as capable at
329 offsetting peak indoor temperatures. However, *simulated* thermal lags were sig-
330 nificantly different between houses (unpaired $p = 0.01124$): the monolithic house
331 outperformed the insulated house (longer thermal lags).

332 (Insert Table 4 somewhere near here)

333 7.2.1. Measured performance

334 Contrasting the individual rooms between houses demonstrated small but
335 significant differences in all but the western bedrooms (p values Liv=0.0425,
336 BE=0.0002, BS=0.0000, **BW=0.0938**, Kit=0.0031): within the confidence of
337 the data, lags were shorter in the insulated house, i.e. converting walls to iRE

Table 4: Thermal lags per monitored room. TL: Mean thermal lag; SD: Standard Deviation; N: sample size (days with “safe” measurements). *Simulated BS had many unsafe days with maxima across the day boundary.

House	Room	Measured (hrs)			Simulated (hrs)		
		TL	SD	N	TL	SD	N
Insulated	Liv	0.480	0.770	25	0.690	1.538	29
	BE	0.650	0.893	40	2.085	1.195	47
	BS	0.805	0.928	41	2.444	1.486	45
	BW	0.949	1.146	39	3.080	0.900	50
	Kit	0.850	1.210	40	3.460	1.631	50
Monolithic	Liv	0.364	0.658	22	0.357	1.193	28
	BE	0.864	0.930	44	2.818	1.263	44
	BS	1.500	1.151	44	5.750*	1.960*	12*
	BW	0.658	0.966	38	3.523	1.089	44
	Kit	0.583	0.806	36	3.400	1.629	50

marginally *reduced* the room’s ability to offset peak temperatures. In all cases, thermal lag increased with greater thermal mass envelope, as anticipated. Rooms with longer thermal lags also demonstrated lower TSCs.

Measured mean lags were < 1 hour in most cases: the lower bound of those previously reported for RE structures comprising similar wall thicknesses and densities. For example, Daniel et al. [11] measured lags of 1–2 hours in South Australia (Köppen climate classifications Cfb and Csa) and Milani and Labaki [18] around 4 hours in southeast Brazil (Cfa). Longer lags were found by Soebarto [22] (6 hours in South Australia ,Csb) and Baggs et al. [2] and Serrano et al. [21] reported lags of up to 10 hours in Summer (Csa). In general, longer lags were found for single-room structures with good control over internal conditions (e.g. unoccupied “test cells” with few or no windows or doors). Shorter lags were associated with occupied, multi-room dwellings. Results found here suggest that thermal lags for real RE houses fall towards the lower end of this spectrum, i.e. the common claim that RE structures boast high thermal lags is perhaps an

353 exaggeration.

354 7.2.2. *Simulated performance*

355 Simulated thermal lags were longer than measured values in both houses; ex-
356 cepting the living rooms, lags were ≥ 2 hours. Lags differed significantly between
357 the houses in the bedrooms but not in the living rooms or kitchens (p values
358 **Liv=0.1058**, BE=0.0000, BS=0.0106, BW=0.0035, **Kit=0.6593**). Overall, the
359 monolithic house achieved the longest thermal lags. However, it should be noted
360 that a high number of “unsafe” days were simulated in the monolithic house’s
361 southern bedroom, reducing the sample size: its high >5 hour lag is not reliable.

362 The match between simulated and measured thermal lags was poor in all
363 rooms but the living rooms: lags were up to *triple* their measured counterparts.
364 Matches were poorest in those rooms with more massive envelopes. Notably,
365 these rooms all displayed several examples of days with *two* peak temperatures,
366 the second often higher than the first, separated by up to two hours. These
367 ‘secondary’ peaks were associated with incident solar radiation and so worsened
368 from East to West. Hence, simulated lags in the kitchen were also poorly matched
369 to measured values, despite that room’s less massive envelope: as the westernmost
370 room, incident sunlight affected that room last. These effects were not found in
371 reality and it is unclear why they arose in the simulations, given the high solar
372 elevation (approaching Summer) and the houses’ large eaves. However, it was
373 evident that such peaks greatly skewed anticipated thermal lag values.

374 7.3. *Temperature profiles in the walls*

375 The southernmost wall (running East-West) in the southern bedrooms, as
376 the longest expanse of continuous RE or iRE in either house, was instrumented
377 (M3, M4 and H5) to monitor temperature profiles through it and relate those

378 to temperature fluctuations within and outside the room. Temperature profiles
379 through the walls over five consecutive days (each with nominally-sinusoidal out-
380 door temperature variation) are shown in Figure 8. Results for M3 & M4 are the
381 average of the two groups. The inset plots in Figure 8 show:

- 382 • the average change in recorded temperature amplitude per sensor in the unit
383 (M3 and M4), termed the “temperature amplitude ratio”, TAR (TAR =
384 $\ln \frac{\Delta T_i}{\Delta T_{i+1}}$ where ΔT_i and ΔT_{i+1} are the diurnal temperature ranges measured
385 at sensors i and $i + 1$);
- 386 • the time delay between recorded peak temperatures.

387 In both cases, shaded regions show one standard deviation about the mean (solid
388 line). As each Mannheim unit comprised eight individual sensors, the TAR and
389 time delays were calculated over seven intervals (number 1 being between the
390 pair closest to the wall’s inside face).

391 (Insert Figure 8 somewhere near here)

392 In both houses, it is obvious from Figure 8 that indoor temperature led that
393 in the walls, i.e. peak indoor temperatures occurred *before* those recorded by
394 those sensors nearest to the wall’s inside face. The same result was found for
395 the surface-mounted sensors (H5). In the monolithic RE wall, TAR and delay
396 reduced from the wall’s outer to the inner face. Such a result was not expected:
397 rather, if heat exchange was purely driven by outdoor temperature, the reducing
398 thermal gradient between sensor pairs would be expected to produce constant
399 TAR and increasing delays [7]. Hence, heat transfer through the walls responded
400 to, rather than controlled, indoor air temperature. Instead, indoor air tempera-
401 ture was seemingly largely governed by factors more in-phase with the outdoor
402 air, for example solar radiation through windows, outdoor air ingress or heating

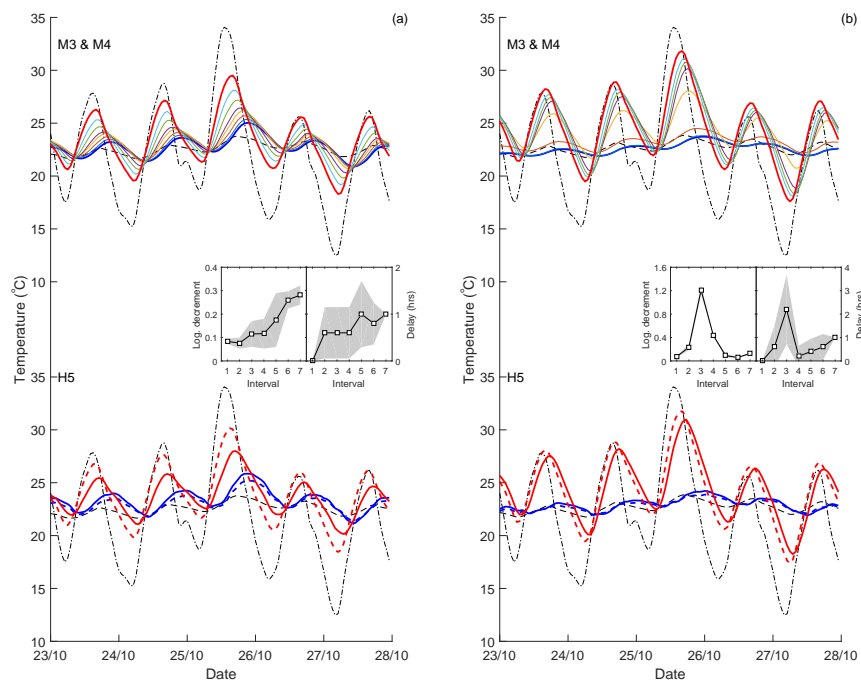


Figure 8: Southern bedroom wall temperature profiles: a) monolithic house; b) insulated house. Sensor groups numbered as per Figure 4. Black dash-dotted line (—·—): Outdoor temperature. Black dashed line (— —): Indoor temperature. Bold red and bold blue lines: innermost and outermost sensors respectively. Dashed bold red and blue lines: outdoor and indoor wall surface temperatures respectively. Inset: mean logarithmic temperature decrement and delay between Mannheim sensor intervals.

403 effects from the ceiling. In the iRE wall, TAR increased significantly across the
404 insulation as did delay. Increased TAR demonstrated that the insulation resisted
405 heat transfer between the two RE leaves, as expected. However, no delay would
406 be expected across the insulation, as delay indicates thermal communication.
407 The commensurate increase in delay indicates that the wall continued to exhibit
408 massive element behaviour, i.e. the two RE leaves remained thermally connected.
409 Cold bridging between the leaves may have arisen due to the vertical data ca-
410 ble conduit, which intersected the insulation. Consequently, temperature profiles
411 within the iRE walls also *lagged* indoor temperature by roughly four hours.

412 These results support TSC and thermal lag results discussed above when
413 compared to previous works. For those structures with few windows or doors,
414 thermal lag and stability is strongly controlled by heat transfer through the walls,
415 giving rise to high thermal lags. However, in more complex structures, heat
416 transfer is governed by additional mechanisms, somewhat bypassing the walls
417 and negating their benefits.

418 *7.4. Consequences of incorporating iRE*

419 A key aim of this study was to identify any thermal benefits associated with
420 the more complex and costly iRE construction. For the specific circumstances
421 investigated in this work, results showed that the inclusion of iRE had no sta-
422 tistical impact on house thermal performance. Despite prediction quality issues,
423 *BERS Pro* simulations also indicated that the inclusion of iRE would make no
424 significant benefit.

425 8. Conclusions

426 This paper examined the structural thermal performance of two rammed earth
427 houses in Kalgoorlie-Boulder, Western Australia. The houses were built to opti-
428 mise passive solar performance and comprised mixes of RE, iRE and lightweight
429 insulated walls. A substantial sensor and logging array was installed and perfor-
430 mance was also simulated using the state-of-the-art thermal modelling software
431 *BERS Pro* v4.3, as an example of that used for energy efficiency accreditation in
432 Australia.

433 Measured data showed that both houses performed similarly when unoccupied
434 in terms of both thermal stability and thermal lag. Measured thermal stabilities
435 were similar to those found in previous studies. However, thermal lags were
436 shorter. Temperature profiles through the walls demonstrated that low thermal
437 lags were due to indoor air temperatures responding to additional factors, i.e.
438 that the massive walls were not the sole contributor to indoor performance.

439 Thermal stabilities calculated from simulated data were similar for both houses.
440 However, simulations predicted longer thermal lags in the monolithic house (i.e.
441 that only comprising solid cement-stabilised rammed earth walls). Results showed
442 that this was due to unrealistic indoor air temperature spikes occurring in the
443 early evenings, associated with incident sunlight. The overall match between sim-
444 ulated and measured performance was poor: measured performance was superior
445 for both houses.

446 Overall, results showed that including iRE in the houses' external envelopes
447 afforded no advantage to thermal performance. However, it is emphasized that
448 this result is only for those specific circumstances investigated here and that
449 insulation may afford benefits in other climates or when a house is occupied.

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