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1 **Effectiveness of design codes for life cycle energy optimisation**

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Abstract

The built environment is materially inefficient, with structural material wastage in the order of 50% being common. As operational energy consumption in buildings falls due to continued tightening of regulations governing the requirements for operational efficiency and due to improvements in the efficiency of energy generation and distribution, present inefficiencies in embodied energy become increasingly significant in the calculation of whole life energy use for a building. This status quo cannot continue if we are to meet carbon emissions reduction targets. We must now tackle embodied energy as vigorously as we have tackled operational energy in buildings in the past.

However, current design methods are poorly suited to controlling material inefficiency in design, which arises as a risk mitigation strategy against unknown loads and uncertain human responses to these loads. Prescriptive design codes are intended to result in buildings capable of providing certain levels of performance. However, these performance levels are often based on unrepresentative laboratory testing, and the actual performance of individual building designs is rarely assessed after construction as part of the traditional design process. A new design approach is required to drive the minimisation of embodied energy (lightweighting) through objective performance data of both structures and their occupants.

This paper uses an industry facing survey to explore for the first time the potential use of ubiquitous sensing technology to measure performance, creating new drivers for *lighter* and *more usable* designs. The use of ubiquitous sensing, of human, structural, and environmental factors, combined with automated data fusion, data interpretation, and knowledge generation is now required to ensure that future generations of building designs are lightweight, lower-carbon, cheaper, and healthier.

Keywords: Performance-based design; built environment; whole life cycle.

39 1 Introduction

40 The structural design of buildings is wasteful [1]. It has been demonstrated [2] that structural
41 engineers regularly over-specify material. This situation arises as a risk mitigation strategy
42 against unknown loads and uncertain human responses to these loads. This paper uses an
43 industry facing survey to explore the potential use of sensing technology to measure
44 performance, creating new drivers for *lighter* and *more usable* designs. Measurement,
45 feedforward and feedback loops, and prototyping, are established practice in aerospace,
46 ICT, medical, automotive and power generation industries, and are used to improve
47 performance by learning from in-service behaviour. Reductions in design uncertainties for
48 these industries have led to significant economic and environmental cost savings, for
49 example through reduced weight and fuel consumption.

50 In stark contrast, the global construction industry has no similar virtuous circle for design,
51 despite being worth \$8.5tr annually [3], and creating and maintaining the built environment
52 that emits about half of the planet's carbon emissions [4]. Structural engineering remains the
53 only engineering discipline that does not consistently measure in-service performance of its
54 designs to drive improvements in both operation and future design. The status quo, where
55 structural material wastage in the order of 50% is common [2, 5], cannot continue if we are
56 to meet carbon emissions reduction targets [6, 7]. Examples of this wastage are described
57 later. Legislation requiring all new European buildings to be nearly zero operational energy
58 by 2020 means that embodied energy may soon comprise the entirety of a building's whole
59 life energy use.

60 1.1 Material utilisation

61 In the design of structural members, the ultimate (Eq.(1)) and serviceability (Eq.(2)) limit
62 states must be satisfied:

$$63 \quad E_{d,ULS} \leq R_d \quad (1)$$

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$$E_{d,SLS} \leq C_d \quad (2)$$

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where $E_{d,ULS}$ is the design value of the effect of actions such as internal force, moment or a vector representing several internal forces or moments; R_d is the design value of the corresponding resistance; $E_{d,SLS}$ is the design value of the effects of actions specified in the serviceability criterion, determined on the basis of the relevant load combination; and C_d is the limiting design value of the relevant serviceability criterion.

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Eq.(1) and Eq.(2) provide no upper limit on *how much* greater than the effect (E_d) the compliance of a member (R_d or C_d) should be. This creates the potential for code-satisfying but materially-inefficient structural elements, a scenario that is frequently encountered [8]. In examining 10,000 steel beams in real buildings, Moynihan and Allwood [2] demonstrated average utilisations of less than 50% of their capacity. Significant material savings could have been made within the requirements of *existing* European design codes. Work by Orr *et al* [5] demonstrates that utilisation of structural concrete is also often low, with the potential for material savings of 30-40% through design optimisation.

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In construction, the use of as few different cross sections as possible is preferred by contractors to simplify logistics, resulting in an increase in overall material usage [2]. In a large floor plate, for example, beam depths may be determined everywhere by a worst case loading scenario in one position. This ensures that whilst one member may, in an infrequent design situation, be working close to its capacity, the vast majority of elements will never be utilised to a significant extent.

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In addition to standardisation of cross sections, structures may be designed for unrealistic vertical loads. Mitchell and Woodgate [9] surveyed 32 office buildings (160,000m²), dividing floor plates into a range of bay sizes for analysis. They found mean loading of 0.57kN/m² and 95% percentile loading of 0.96kN/m² in bays with a mean size of 192m². Slightly higher loading was found at the ground (average 0.62kN/m²) and basement floors (average

89 0.75kN/m²). These loads are significantly less than what is assumed in design [10]. Similar
90 results have been reported around the world, Table 1.

91 **Table 1: Comparison of vertical live loads**

Average live load (kN/m ²)	Survey area (m ²)	Survey location	Reference
0.33	28,818	Ghana	Andam [11]
0.47	34,420	USA	Culver [12]
0.46	11,720	India	Kumar [13]

92
93 In the UK, city centre offices are routinely designed for a vertical floor live loading of 5kN/m²,
94 a figure that was first specified over 100 years ago [14] and is far in excess of the 2.5kN/m²
95 that is required for most office space by the present Eurocodes [10]. There is thus a culture
96 of inefficiency being driven by a perception of letting requirements that does not reflect best
97 design practice. The use of such a high floor loading is often mentioned alongside ‘flexibility’
98 for future use of the space, yet we routinely design our columns and foundations for much
99 smaller loads - the UK National Annex to BS EN 1991-1-1 [10] allows the load in a column to
100 be reduced by 50% in structures of more than 10 storeys.

101 It could be argued that it is unlikely that all floors in a building would be loaded equally, yet in
102 city centres, where rents are high and single buildings are let out floor by floor to different
103 companies, it is not unreasonable to suggest that each floor plate might see approximately
104 the same load. The crucial point is that this will be far less than 5kN/m², which is useful for
105 the building owner if all the columns have been sized for a smaller total loading. Tellingly,
106 column reduction factors may not be used if loads “*have been specifically determined from*
107 *knowledge of the proposed use of the structure*” [10].

108 Two opportunities therefore exist to drive the lightweighting of new structures:

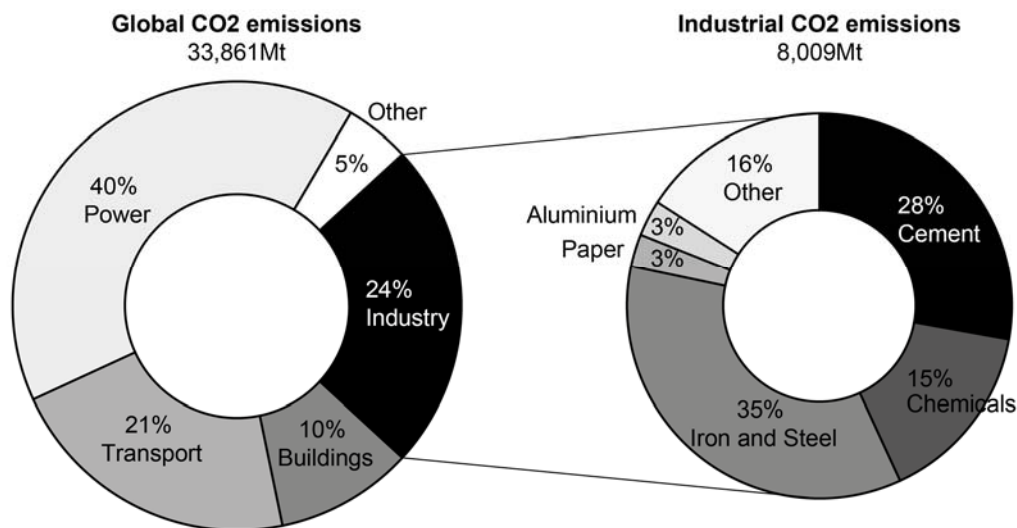
- 109 1. To design them for realistic loads;
- 110 2. To design their members with much higher utilisation factors.

111 Both of these opportunities require a much more certain basis for design, with the required
112 reduction in current uncertainty coming from the measurement of performance of real
113 structures. A huge opportunity to reduce material waste exists at the design stage, because
114 fundamental decisions related to loading, materials, form, and complexity made at this stage
115 will have a significant impact on total embodied energy [15].

116 The desk study of Moynihan and Allwood [2] is illuminating, but to understand real structural
117 behaviour we must measure the actual performance of buildings in-situ. This is particularly
118 important in indeterminate structures where computer modelling should be supplemented by
119 actual performance data.

120 1.2 Material emissions

121 Nearly two-thirds of industrial CO₂ emissions arise from the production of cement, iron and
122 steel, and aluminium, all of which are ubiquitous in the construction of buildings and
123 structures, Figure 1.



124

125 **Figure 1: Global CO₂ emissions in 2013 demonstrating the importance of key building materials [16]**

126 Allwood *et al* [8] describe four major strategies for reducing material demand through
127 material efficiency:

- 128 a) Longer-lasting products;

- 129 b) Modularisation and remanufacturing;
- 130 c) Component re-use and
- 131 d) Designing products with less material.

132 To tackle the issue of material efficiency in construction of buildings and structures,
133 *lightweighting* (designing products with less material) must become an established part of
134 design practice. To design structural components with less material, a full understanding of
135 the performance requirements of that component is required. Whilst this is commonplace in
136 other industries, measuring and understanding the performance of buildings and structures
137 is highly challenging. It is relatively easy to obtain strain gauge data for a beam, but much
138 more difficult to interpret this data stream into design knowledge that could be utilised in the
139 design of future buildings. Significant long term research is required in this field.

140 For performance measurement to be useful, it is necessary to determine the level of
141 performance and how it compares to a more typical building or structure in the same climate,
142 with the same occupancies, for example. This requires the specification of benchmarks,
143 such as a building's performance over time, to measure improvements that result from
144 retrofitting or changes in operations. However, factors such as the design, building materials,
145 heating and cooling systems, as well as occupants' behaviour, all add together to form a
146 system that is more complicated than the sum of its parts. Minimising the gap between
147 designed building performance and the "as built" performance must take this into account
148 [17].

149 **1.3 The importance of embodied energy in the construction market**

150 The minimisation of operational energy has been the focus of both design regulations [18]
151 and research [19], but relatively little attention has been paid to minimising embodied energy
152 [5]. Arup [17] note that whilst the embodied energy of a building or structure was previously
153 operational energy for another industry, not counting embodied energy puts the construction
154 industry at risk of 1) using energy saving products where the energy required in manufacture

155 far outweighs savings in use; 2) seeing materials arriving on site as 'carbon free'; 3) reducing
156 pressure to minimise material wastage; and 4) increasing the likelihood of demolition and
157 reconstruction rather than refurbishment, as the embodied carbon of an existing structure is
158 not highly valued.

159 Current estimates of the split between operational and embodied whole life energy use
160 range from 10:90 to 80:20 [19]. Despite this wide range, it is clear that as operational energy
161 reduces due to a continued tightening of regulations governing the requirements for
162 operational efficiency [18] and improvements in the efficiency of energy generation and
163 distribution [8], the proportion of whole life energy associated with embodied energy will
164 increase [19, 20].

165 The built environment influences more than half of all UK carbon emissions [4]. Figure 2
166 presents the broad areas of a building's life cycle, highlighting the proportion of CO₂
167 emissions the construction industry has the ability to influence [4]. The importance of in-use
168 energy is clear, and this sector has received significant research attention in recent years.
169 As operational energy falls, the proportion of whole life energy coming from manufacture
170 (embodied energy) is due to increase in proportion rapidly. The minimisation of embodied
171 energy (lightweighting) is now an urgent design criterion. Given the importance of design,
172 and the role of both clients and designers, design methods that include whole-life carbon
173 accounting of both operational and embodied energy consumption, over a significant period
174 of time, are required.

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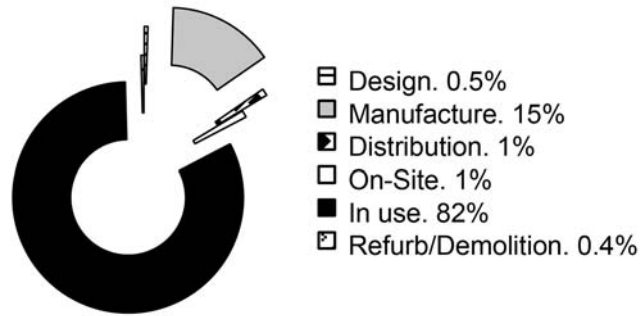


Figure 2: CO₂ emissions the construction industry has the ability to influence (after [4])

1.4 The performance gap

Building codes establish minimum requirements for safety through the specification of prescriptive criteria that regulate acceptable materials of construction, identify approved structural and non-structural systems, specify required minimum levels of strength and stiffness, and control the details of how a building is to be put together. Although these prescriptive criteria are intended to result in buildings capable of providing certain levels of performance, the *actual performance* of individual building designs is not assessed *after construction* as part of the traditional code-based design process. As a result, we do not know how well our buildings perform. The performance of some buildings could therefore be better than the minimum standards anticipated by the code, while the performance of others could be worse [21]. We are unable to frequently update codified design requirements despite the vast numbers of buildings that are constructed each year, which have the potential to provide exactly the data required to ensure that design standards truly inform best practice.

2 Exploring alternative approaches

Whole life environmental, economic and social costs are rarely taken into account in codified design methods. The concept of minimising embodied energy is far less advanced within both industry and research, where focus remains on improving operational energy efficiency [17, 22-25]. The importance of undertaking a life cycle analysis to select the optimum

197 construction solution increases when this design is correlated against the total energy use of
198 the building.

199 A key purpose of codes of practice is to offer guidance on dealing with uncertainties in the
200 design and construction process of structures. Developments in sensing technology now
201 offer opportunities to measure what happens in real-life structures, and may thereby enable
202 an alternative design approach that employs measurements to minimize and better manage
203 uncertainties in the built environment.

204 In the future, big data pertinent to every structure could potentially be used to update the
205 information in existing design codes of practice. This transformation will facilitate the design
206 of fit for purpose, resilient structures, with minimal whole life environmental, economic and
207 social costs and will contribute to minimise the gap that is found in buildings from a structural
208 and energy perspective. To assess the appetite from industry for such a shift in thinking an
209 international survey was undertaken.

210 **2.1 Survey**

211 A survey of professionals in the built environment was undertaken to establish industry
212 satisfaction with current design codes of practice and their appetite for alternative design
213 approaches which could integrate intelligent sensing, data processing, and performance
214 based design in order to secure a sustainable built environment.

215 The survey took into consideration:

- 216 1. Areas in which the use of an alternative design approach would be beneficial, to both
217 individual designers and to companies; and
- 218 2. Information that a designer has available related to the current life cycle performance
219 of buildings.

220 To collect this data, an integrated survey was designed to collect data using two different
221 methods: given list method and free form method [26]. The survey describes user
222 experiences with different types of buildings and structures, focusing on suitability of current

223 design codes and also on measurements and data analysis in buildings and structures. The
 224 survey questions are given in Table 2. The survey was completed online, and distributed to a
 225 target list of global professionals (practitioners and academics) in the construction industry.

226 **Table 2: Survey questions**

	Question	Response
1	Your sector	Given list: <i>Industry</i> <i>Academia</i>
2	Your region of work	Given list: <i>Europe, North America, South America, Asia, Oceania, Africa</i>
3	Your position	Given list: <i>Graduate, Associate, Associate Director, Director, Executive Officer</i>
4	How satisfied are you with current design codes?	Given list: <i>From 1: Completely dissatisfied (You consider them to be extremely unrealistic or overly conservative) to 7: Completely satisfied (You consider them to deal suitably with the uncertainties in modelling civil engineering environments)</i>
4(a)	If you selected a rating of less than 6, please list two reasons why you feel that current design codes are inappropriate	Free text
4(b)	Can you list two examples of structures designed using codes of practice which have subsequently failed to meet client requirements on performance?	Free text
5	To what extent do you think that existing design codes facilitate the design of structures which have minimal whole life (embodied and operational) energy use?	Given list <i>From 1: Not at all to 7: Completely</i>
6	How comfortable would you be with the implementation of a design approach that uses measurements from real buildings to justify design decisions? (For example by using measured data from vibrations, deflections, and loadings in real buildings, to inform future design projects.)	Given list <i>From 1: Not at all to 7: Completely comfortable</i>
7	How frequently do you measure the as-built versus as-designed performance of your projects?	Given list <i>From 1: Never, to 7: Always</i>
8	How often do you utilise the post-construction performance of one or more structures to inform subsequent designs?	Given list <i>From 1: Never 7: Always</i>
9	Which, if any, of the following actions and conditions have you attempted to measure in buildings that you have designed?	Given list <i>Select at least 1 option: Fatigue, Vibration, Live loading, Durability, Cracking, None, Other</i>
10	What challenges have you met when trying to interpret sensor data to understand building/structure/infrastructure performance?	Free text

	Question	Response
11	In your experience, where can the use of sensing data and measurements make a difference for clients?	Free text

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228 2.2 Survey results

229 The whole process resulted in 78 survey submissions, of which 12 were incomplete
 230 responses. Of the 66 valid responses, 39 (60%) were from industry and 27 (40%) from
 231 academia. A summary of region of work and jobs of the respondents is given in Table 3.

232 Region of the world and seniority of position were required questions to provide a sufficiently
 233 detailed profile of respondents to the survey. The results from the given list method
 234 presented in Table 2 are presented in Figure 3 to Figure 8

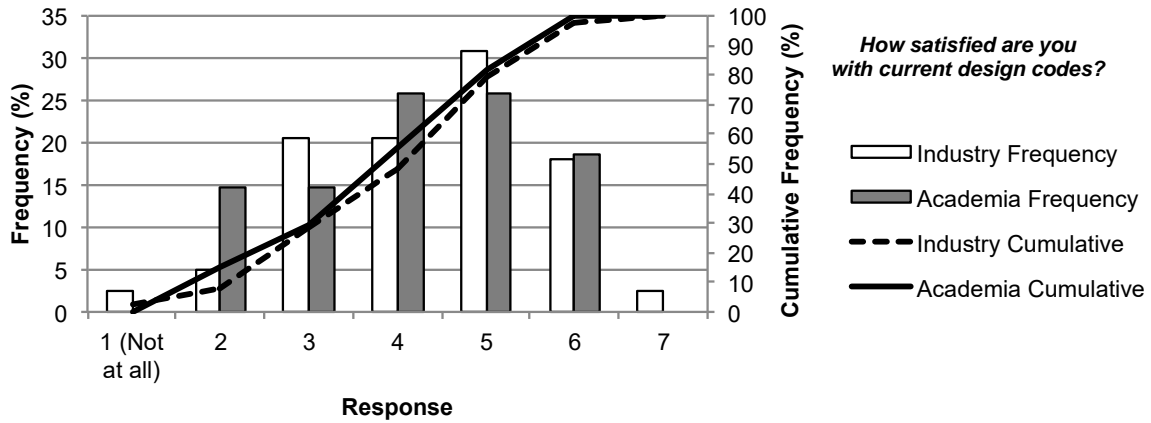
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Table 3: Summary of region of work and role of respondents

Region of work ¹	Industry (% ²)	Region of work ¹	Academia (% ²)
Europe	82% [32]	Europe	67% [18]
North America	10% [4]	North America	15% [4]
South America	5% [2]	South America	0% [0]
Asia	15% [6]	Asia	4% [1]
Oceania	3% [1]	Oceania	4% [1]
Africa	3% [1]	Africa	11% [3]
Position	Industry (%)	Position ³	Academia (%)
Graduate	10% [4]	Post-doc	18% [5]
Associate	13% [5]	Lecturer	22% [6]
Associate Director	15% [6]	Senior Lecturer	4% [1]
Director	33% [13]	Reader	15% [4]
Executive Officer	8% [3]	Professor	37% [10]
Other	21% [8]	Other	4% [1]

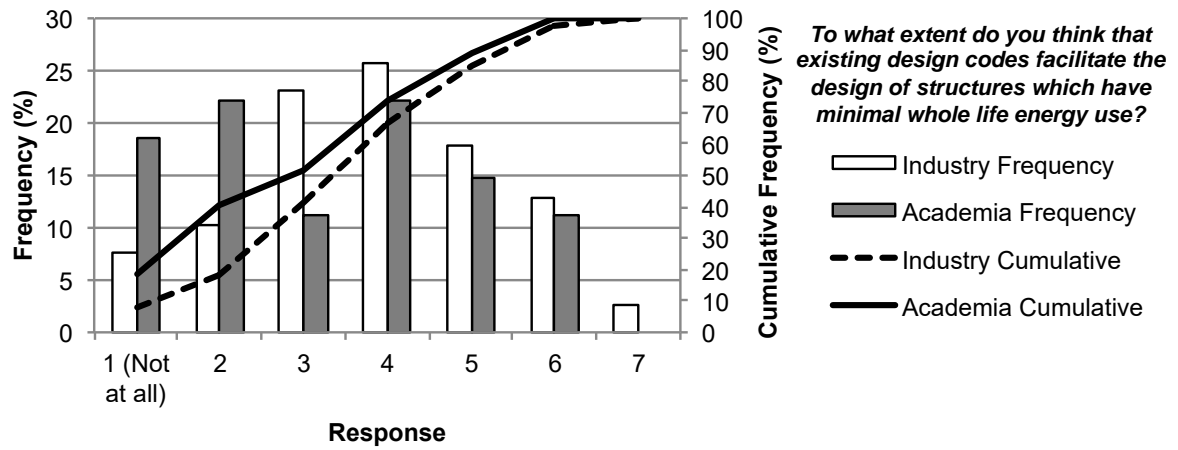
Notes: ¹ Region of work allowed multiple regions to be chosen, percentage given in terms of number of valid survey responses. ²Participants could select more than one region of work. ³ Positions for academia were mapped to positions in industry in broad terms using a British career progression model.

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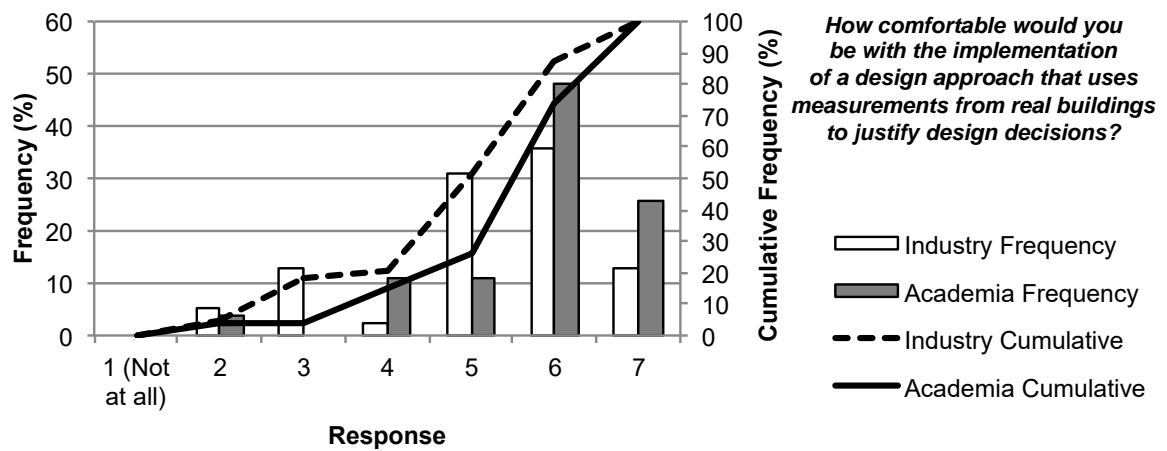
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238 Figure 3: Responses to Q4 (Table 2)



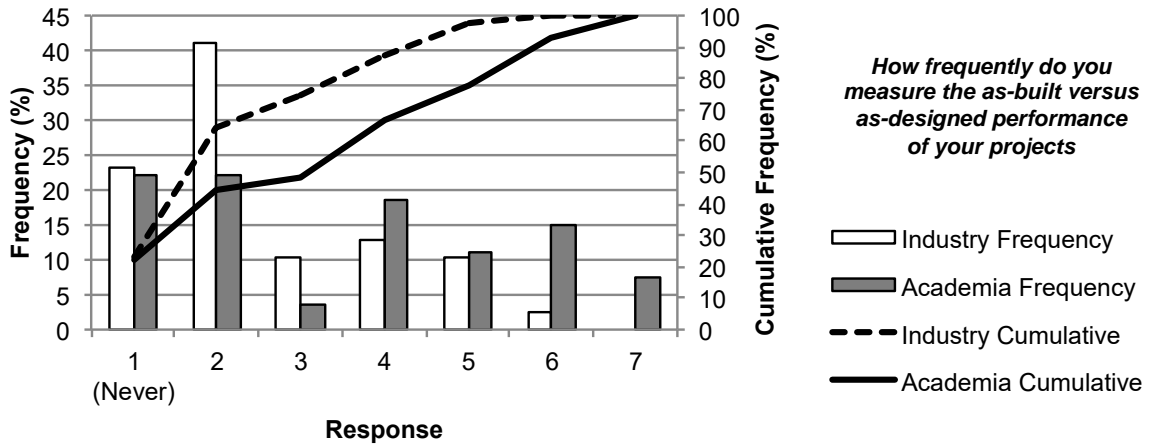
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240 Figure 4: Responses to Q5 (Table 2)



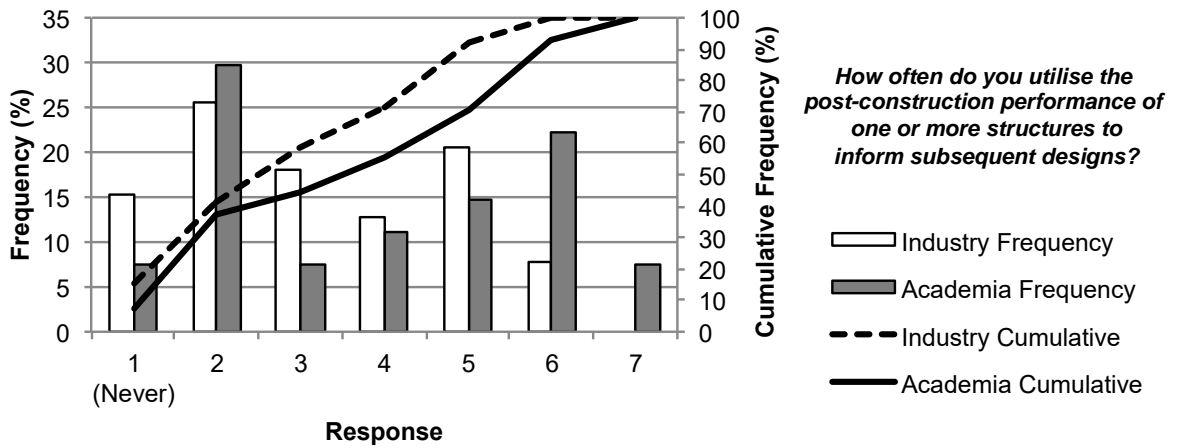
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242 Figure 5: Responses to Q6 (Table 2)



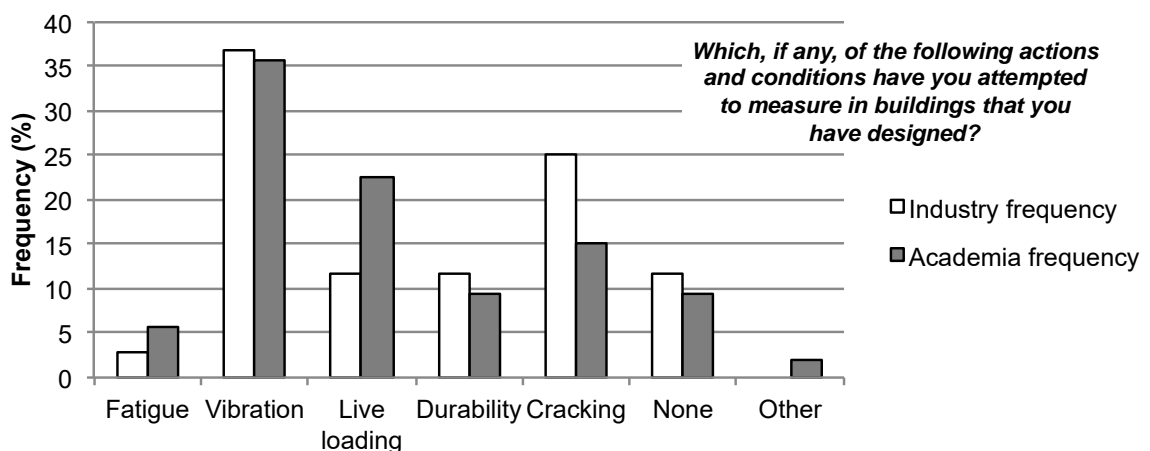
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244 Figure 6: Responses to Q7 (Table 2)



245

246 Figure 7: Responses to Q8 (Table 2)



247

248 Figure 8: Responses to Q9 (Table 2)

249 **2.3 Survey analysis**

250 The analysis to the quantitative data from the survey shows that, generally, both industry
251 and academia have similar views to the potential use of ubiquitous sensing technology to
252 measure performance as the basis for future drivers of *lighter* and *more usable* designs.

253 **2.3.1 Given list responses**

254 In response to the question “*How satisfied are you with current design codes?*” it can be said
255 that Industry is slightly happier with design codes than Academia - 48% of Industry
256 answered less than 4 and 58% of Academia answered less than 4.

257 Regarding the question “*To what extent do you think that existing design codes facilitate the*
258 *design of structures which have minimal whole life energy use?*” answers from practitioners
259 and academics are similar. Half of the industrial respondents agree that current design
260 codes of practice do not facilitate the design of structures which have minimal whole life
261 energy use.

262 Around 80% of the industry and academia are comfortable or completely comfortable
263 (providing a score greater than 5) with the concept that measurements from real buildings
264 should be used to inform subsequent designs. However, the majority does not measure the
265 as-built versus as-designed performance of projects, and the majority does not utilise the
266 information collected from post-construction performance of structures to inform subsequent
267 designs.

268 About one in five practitioners and academics surveyed never measure as built versus as-
269 designed performance of projects, with the vast majority of both sets of professionals giving
270 a score less than 4.

271 Besides this, the results from the fifth question “*How often do you utilise the post-*
272 *construction performance of one or more structures to inform subsequent designs?*” show
273 that 15% of the industry never utilise post-construction performance and around 70% gave a
274 score less than 4. In responses from academia, a low 7% never utilise post-construction

275 performance and about half gave a score less than 4. Regarding the types of measurements
276 that are usually made in buildings, the majority only measure vibration and cracking of
277 structures. Durability and live loading represent a mere 8% each.

278 All of the data support the view that academia and industry should work together to change
279 present design methods, as the same changes are desired by both sectors. This change
280 must be led by significant joint research projects that are undertaken both in the laboratory
281 and 'in the wild', to validate and develop the design protocols that future building design will
282 rely on.

283 **2.3.2 Free form responses**

284 The full data set of the surveys (redacted for confidentiality) is provided in the data archive
285 (see data access statement). In the following section a summary of responses to the four
286 free form questions is collated and summarised.

287 There were 29 responses from industry and 20 responses from academia to Q4(a). The
288 most frequently reported criticism of design codes from industry was their conservatism
289 (*"Loading codes are overly conservative"; "conservatisms become so high in some cases
290 that they are inappropriate"*). Codes were described as *"out-dated"* and *"difficult to interpret"*,
291 with respondents commenting on the difficulty of applying "idealised" code methods to "real-
292 world" engineering. Overly complex code methods were also mentioned as a key barrier to
293 innovation (*"Overly complex and prescriptive, which inhibits creativity and innovation, as well
294 as encouraging mistakes"*).

295 Responses from Academia were also concerned with overly conservative codes (*"Overly
296 conservative and encourages engineers to blindly follow rules rather than the laws of
297 physics"*). The empirical basis of many design codes was also identified as a key limitation of
298 codes (*"Based on empiricism; source of design rules often unclear"*) along with the sources
299 of these empirical equations (*"Much of the information used in design is informed by data
300 collected in labs on scaled models", "Experimental testing is poorly addressed!"*). Codes

301 were identified as requiring more real world-data (*“They do not cover situations encountered*
302 *in real life”, “lack of sufficient feedback loop of information on structural performance from as*
303 *built structures”*).

304 These responses highlight the need for design methods that are 1) based on real world
305 measured performance from tests on realistically sized elements; 2) provide an appropriate
306 level of conservatism; and 3) do not prevent or limit engineering creativity. Academia and
307 industry are in broad agreement in these three areas.

308 A further concern arises from structures that nominally satisfy the design code, but then fail
309 in-service due to unforeseen loading or structural behaviour. There were 24 responses from
310 industry and 14 responses from academia to Q4(b). The majority of responses mentioned
311 serviceability level failures (*“vibrations”, “accrations due to wind loading”, “deflection limits”*).
312 Only a small number of structures were named in the survey, with one respondent noting
313 *“There are cases but couldn't mention them due to client confidentiality”*. This highlights a
314 key barrier within civil structural engineering in which poor performance is infrequently
315 reported, meaning that the industry as a whole struggles to learn from past mistakes. Only in
316 extreme circumstances do serviceability level issues get widely reported for major structures
317 [27, 28], and whilst full structural collapse remains infrequent such events are widely
318 reported [29]. In the UK, a well established confidential reporting mechanism exists for
319 structural-related failures [30], with the goal of improving best practice.

320 Industry respondents to Q4(b) highlighted that *“The majority of structures are over*
321 *designed”* and *“are inefficient”* meaning that this *“overdesign provides overcapacity which*
322 *compensates for...mistakes or misunderstandings”*. Another respondent highlighted that
323 structural performance is only one type of failure, with *“missed opportunities for resource*
324 *effectiveness and economy, constrained by code”*.

325 Responses from Academia to Q4(b) also focused on serviceability (*"vibration", "aeroelastic*
326 *instability", "dynamic responses", and "fatigue"*). The issue of confidentiality (*"many not in*
327 *public domain"*) was again raised.

328 There were 25 responses from Industry and 18 responses from Academia to Q10 (*"What*
329 *challenges have you met when trying to interpret sensor data to understand*
330 *building/structure/infrastructure performance?"*). Key themes in responses from industry
331 include the length of time required (*"extended period of time to get any useful data"*), and the
332 time and expense of processing the data (*"time required to process data meaningfully",*
333 *"Lack of staff that understand this data and are able to interpret this in a meaningful*
334 *manner"*). The interpretation of data was identified as a key challenge (*"difficult to convert*
335 *into an easily usable form", "noise from oversensitivity", "Elimination of false readings"*),
336 along with the cost (*"Nobody wants to pay"*) and the fact that the building owner or
337 maintenance company may not have the capacity to interpret sensor data to inform their
338 day-to-day work.

339 Key themes in responses from academia focused on the difficulties of managing and
340 interpreting large amounts of data (*"too much data", "loss of information in processing",*
341 *"noise", "hard to find reliable information", "we have even less experience as a profession in*
342 *interpreting data from real life than designing based on code"*). The difficulties of installing
343 sensing systems was also highlighted (*"Getting permission to collect data", "Exact details*
344 *and positioning of sensors required", "cost"*). The issue of permission is a key criterion for
345 future design methods. If the structural engineering profession is to achieve a design
346 process that can learn from real, measured behaviour, then much work is required to
347 convince our clients that the sharing of such data is in their long-term interest. Only with a
348 full understanding of how structures behave and the impact that they have on the health of
349 the building occupants, will structural engineers and designers be able to make informed
350 design decisions. This process will drive both sustainability (reduced material consumption
351 by understand what shape our structures really should be to achieve serviceability and

352 ultimate limit state performance) and productivity (improved internal design of the human-
353 structure interaction).

354 Q11 (*In your experience, where can the use of sensing data and measurements make a*
355 *difference for clients?*) received 29 responses from industry and 20 responses from
356 academia. Industry responses included the potential for savings in embodied energy
357 (“material use”) through reduced conservatism, and all stages of a building life cycle from
358 design, construction (“*construction costs*”), maintenance (“*assessment of the performamce*
359 *of the structure, which leads to proactive...maintenance*”), and retrofit (“demonstrating
360 adequate performance of the building (hence delaying demolition)”). The importance of
361 sensor design was highlighted, with benefits “*only when designed with the end use in mind*”.

362 The potential for sensor data to reduce uncertainty was highlighted as a benefit to clients
363 (“*Obtaining...sensing...data to improve prediction methods can only be of help to clients*”),
364 but in contrast it was also noted that: “*Clients are often concerned about using this sort of*
365 *data and putting their particular project at risk if it is constructed*”. Convincing clients of a
366 reduction in floor loading from the often used $4\text{kN/m}^2 + 1\text{kN/m}^2$ for partitions was highlighted,
367 with “*very little appetite to change this (even though it is very conservative) as a lesser*
368 *loading allowance is seen as a 'worse' product*”. This highlights the non-engineering
369 challenges of data collection and interpretation.

370 One response saw little benefit to clients at all, “*unless they build multiple similar buildings*”,
371 which of course does happen, particularly for office and residential developers. Even more
372 significantly, the potential for sensors in multiple different buildings to inform vertical and
373 lateral loading requirements is very large – turning the detailed building-specific data into
374 generalised design principles. This presents a huge challenge.

375 Responses from Academia to Q11 again focused on the potential for data collection to drive
376 material efficiency. Concerns on client attitudes were again highlighted (“*Few clients build*
377 *sufficiently regularly that the data is useful to inform their own future project*”). It is worth

378 noting that many University campuses are engaged in significant building projects, making
379 University Estates Departments a key target for a sensing based design approach. The use
380 of data to inform maintenance and building operation was highlighted (“Use of their own data
381 can save energy use and refurb costs”) and use of *others’* data was suggested as a further
382 route to impact (“*Use of OTHERS’ sensing data can save material=cost during design.*”).

383 The free-text responses from both Industry and Academia highlight some of the challenges
384 and opportunities of using real-building data as the basis for future designs. In the following
385 section this is explored further in the context of using sensing to achieve our carbon targets.

386 **3 Future use of sensing**

387 The results of the survey show that the majority of industry does not currently utilise
388 widespread measurement of performance to inform subsequent designs (Figure 6), but is
389 indeed comfortable with the possibility of using measured data to justify design decisions
390 (Figure 5).

391 Despite some good practice, particularly relating to bridges and infrastructure, the use of
392 sensing to measure the structural performance of buildings and structures is still infrequent.
393 There is a greater body of work in the measurement of internal quality (temperature,
394 humidity, VOCs, CO₂, productivity, health) but very little of this work is correlated to the
395 behaviour of the structure within which the people exist. Humans spend 90% of their time
396 indoors, and yet we do very little to measure, learn from, and improve this environment [31,
397 32]. Sick building syndrome is a well known [33], but poorly understood, phenomenon. An
398 increasing association of sick building syndrome with airtight buildings has the potential to
399 inhibit moves towards greater energy efficiency [34, 35]. A large body of research is now
400 required to link building physics, structural response, and human behaviour in buildings and
401 structures to provide holistic drivers towards lightweighting. Understanding how humans
402 react to buildings, and the effect of the built environment on our health, is essential [36].
403 These measurements must in future be made on both the materials and the occupants of

404 existing and new buildings. Building users are often not the same people as the clients, and
405 instead of only talking to a client at the start of a project it is now required to engage with the
406 real users of buildings throughout the lifetime of a building, placing them at the heart of the
407 design process.

408 Performance-based design aims to create clear statistical relationships between design
409 decisions and satisfaction levels demonstrated by the building system, using research
410 evidence to predict this performance related to design decisions. The decision-making
411 process is non-linear, since the building environment is a complex system. Choices cannot
412 be based on cause-and-effect predictions; instead, they depend on variable components
413 and mutual relationships. Technical systems, such as heating, ventilation and air-
414 conditioning, have interrelated design choices and related performance requirements (such
415 as energy use, comfort and use cycles) are variable components [23].

416 The performance-based design of buildings currently includes structural assessment
417 regarding mainly structural ultimate limit states and in-service energy performance
418 assessment. However, the performance simulation is carried out at the end of the design
419 stage and therefore, is not included as a decision-making tool [37]. In addition, the
420 environmental impact is rarely considered in whole-life cycle terms [38].

421 Ariyaratne and Moncaster [38] investigated how designers are looking to the importance of
422 assessing the environmental impact of buildings, namely concerning embodied carbon.
423 Undertaking an industry survey they studied the effectiveness of some of these methods.
424 One of the key ideas identified through the survey was the preference for quantitative
425 information about the environmental assessment of a design from early stages of a project.

426 Iddon and Firth [39] developed a BIM tool to simultaneously estimate embodied and
427 operational carbon over a 60-year service life for a typical four bedroom detached house.
428 Using the tool, four different construction scenarios are evaluated, representing a range of
429 current construction methods used in present day UK house building. The results show that

430 cradle-to-gate embodied carbon represents 20–26% (initial embodied carbon) of the total 60-
431 year carbon emissions, with operational carbon representing 74–80% of total emissions.
432 Construction scenarios that reduce operational carbon by improving the thermal envelope
433 led to a 1–13% increase in embodied carbon but a 4–5% decrease in operational carbon
434 compared to the original scenario construction method.

435 Building Information Modelling (BIM) will support project stakeholders in the identification of
436 opportunities to improve energy efficiency through the creation and use of intelligent
437 databases. However, there are currently limited comprehensive data available, no coherent
438 method for data capture and few incentives for project stakeholders to reduce initial
439 embodied energy [4, 39, 40].

440 A reduction in operational carbon is likely to lead to an increase in embodied carbon, both in
441 real and proportional terms, further strengthening the conclusion of previous studies that
442 have demonstrated that embodied carbon increases as operational carbon decreases. Thus,
443 performance based design should be developed towards the optimization of operational
444 carbon and energy minimizing the necessary embodied carbon of construction solutions.

445 Currently, the use of fully integrated whole life performance based design that accounts for
446 structural- and human-related performance criteria is still at the exploratory stage. The
447 combination of reliable data measured from buildings, with optimisation algorithms and tools
448 for performance-based design will contribute to achieve not only design optimisation but also
449 auto-optimisation of the buildings and structures.

450 The installation of sensors in buildings is normally undertaken for project-specific objectives.
451 In order to learn from designs across the built environment, widespread sensing of human,
452 structural, and environmental data is required in all buildings and structures. The challenges
453 of processing, interpreting, and analysing such data sets are not insignificant, but will provide
454 the step change in design practice that is required if we are to reduce design uncertainty and
455 enable lightweighting of all future designs.

466 4 Conclusions

467 Building design codes establish minimum requirements for safety through the specification of
468 prescriptive criteria. Although these prescriptive criteria are intended to result in buildings
469 capable of providing certain levels of performance, the actual performance of individual
470 building designs is not assessed as part of the traditional code design process. A significant
471 gap may exist between predicted and real behaviour, primarily because as-built behaviour is
472 not yet well understood.

473 Whole life environmental, economic and social costs are infrequently considered in design,
474 and are not yet explicitly taken into account in design regulations. The concept of minimising
475 initial embodied energy is poorly advanced within industry, and most existing studies focus
476 on improvements in operational energy efficiency. This is particularly important as buildings
477 use larger quantities of materials and systems to achieve minimum energy consumption,
478 particularly when air-tightness is a key design goal. Measuring what happens in real-life
479 structures would enable alternative design approaches that can minimise and better manage
480 design uncertainties.

481 A survey was designed to collect designer level experiences, focusing on suitability of
482 current design codes and on measurements and data analysis in buildings and structures.
483 The results from both quantitative and free form data support a general opinion that design
484 codes do not yet adequately deal with certain serviceability level issues and few codes
485 directly account for real-world performance of structures.

486 This justifies current research moves by the authors towards performance based design
487 approaches that use measurements from real buildings and their occupants to justify future
488 design decisions. The survey also demonstrated the need for frequent updating of design
489 codes to take into account recent knowledge about climate change and new material
490 developments. There are missed opportunities for resource effectiveness and economy due

481 to constraints of design codes. The strengthening of the link between waste reduction and
482 resource efficiency could be enhanced if a better approach is implemented.

483 The majority of the survey participants do not utilise the information collected from post-
484 construction performance of structures to inform subsequent designs. Where measurements
485 are taken, a focus is on 'engineering' data such as vibration and cracking, rather than the
486 much more difficult to measure interactions amongst structure, environment, and occupant
487 health.

488 Current design does not regularly take into account the environmental impact of construction
489 over the whole life cycle of a building or structure. The combination of reliable data
490 measured from buildings, with optimisation algorithms and tools for performance-based
491 design are required to achieve design optimisation and the minimisation of embodied
492 energy. The use of ubiquitous sensing of human, structural, and environmental factors,
493 combined with automated data fusion, data interpretation, and knowledge generation is now
494 required to ensure that future generations of building designs are lightweight, lower-carbon,
495 cheaper, and healthier. This paper provides the evidence base for the need for this
496 transformative design approach.

497 **5 Data access statement**

498 All data created during this research are openly available from the University of Bath data
499 archive at <http://doi.org/10.15125/12345> (*note: to be updated before publication*).

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