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Abstract

Buildings vertical surfaces strongly condition microclimate inside the building. The improvement of the thermal behaviour of the building envelope in urban areas is a suitable solution to increase energy savings. Green façades are a promising passive cooling strategy for building envelopes. One parameter useful to evaluate the effectiveness of a green façade is the external surface temperature of the building. The reduction of the building surface temperature in the warm periods obtained with a green layer plays an important role for cooling energy saving. A multiple linear regression model simulating the difference of the surface temperature between a wall covered with vegetation and an uncovered wall was developed. The model was built using the experimental data measured in 2015. The data were recorded by sensors and data logger on three wall prototypes in scale facing south. The prototypes were realized in order to simulate a vertical closure for civil buildings commonly used in the Mediterranean area. The cooling thermal effect of two different climbing plants, *Pandorea jasminoides* variegated and *Rhyncospermum jasminoides*, was analysed and compared, through the evaluation of the external surface temperature of the protected vertical walls in comparison to a control uncovered wall. The model was used to simulate the behaviour of the green walls during summer 2016. The simulated data were compared with the measured data. Coefficients of determination (R^2) higher than 0.96 were obtained. The results of the research showed that the model can simulate the thermal effects of green façade in a similar Mediterranean climate. Data measured and simulated showed that the vegetated walls recorded surface temperatures lower than the uncovered wall up to 7.69 °C in summertime.

Keywords	Multiple linear regression analysis; box plot data visualization; cooling effect; urban agriculture; building thermal performance; climatic data
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To the Editor of
Applied Thermal Engineering

Subject: Paper “Predictive model of surface temperature difference between green façades and uncovered wall in Mediterranean climatic area”

Authors I. Blanco, E. Schettini, G. Vox

Dear Editor,

I would like to submit the research paper entitled “Predictive model of surface temperature difference between green façades and uncovered wall in Mediterranean climatic area”, authors I. Blanco, E. Schettini, G. Vox for publication in Applied Thermal Engineering.

The paper compares the cooling thermal effects of two different climbing plants (*Pandorea jasminoides variegated* and *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*) used as green vertical passive systems on building walls in Mediterranean climate conditions. The climatic data of the experimental site were used to develop a statistical predictive model on the thermal performance of the façade. The statistical predictive model provides a tool to simulate the results of the application of green façades in a similar Mediterranean climate.

Best regards,

Evelia Schettini

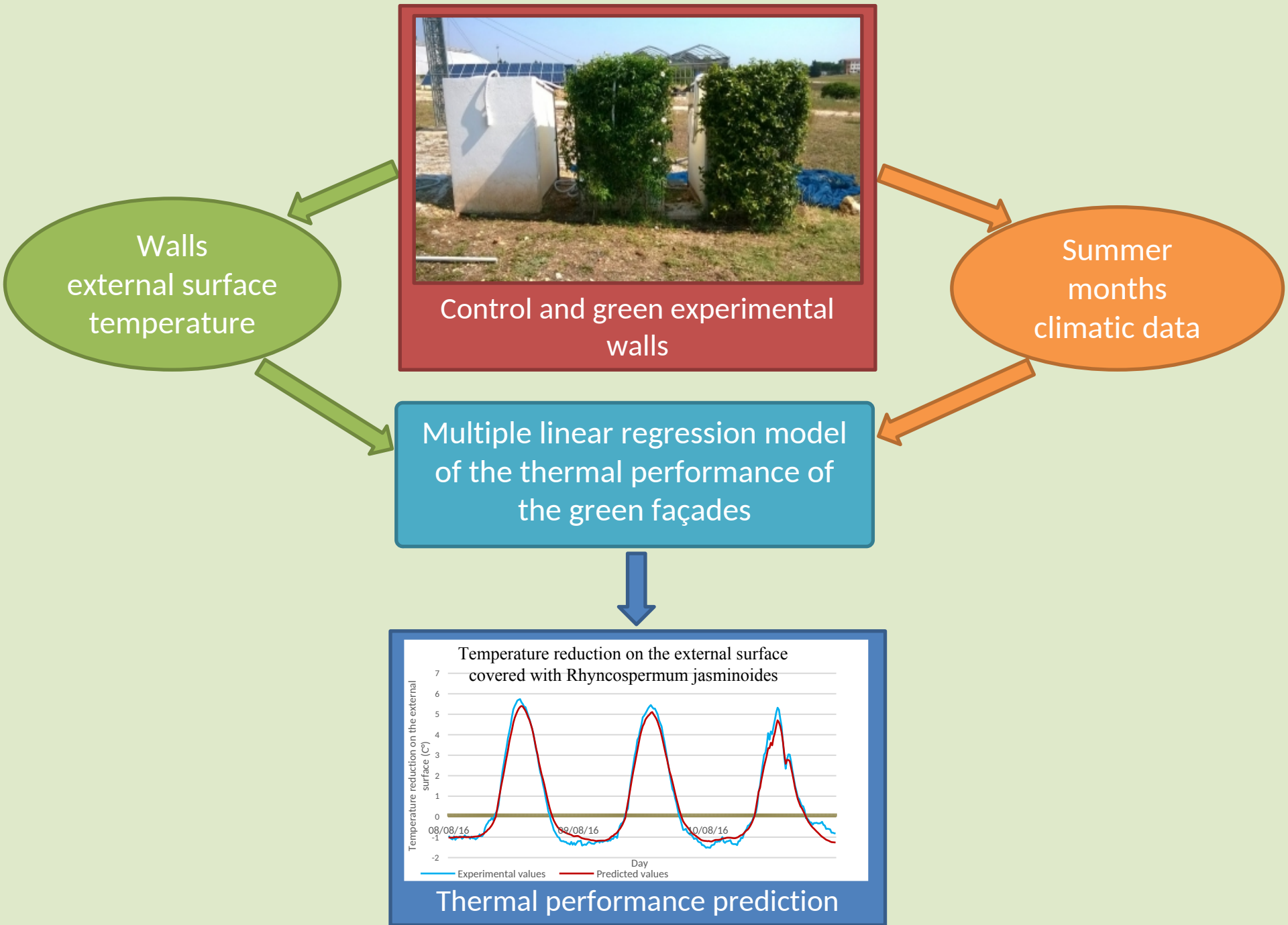
Bari, 19/02/2019

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Highlights:

- The green façade shows lower surface temperature than the control wall.
- A multiple linear regression is developed to simulate thermal behaviour.
- The regression is based on the climate conditions parameters.
- A prediction tool for the thermal benefits of the two green façades.



1 **Predictive model of surface temperature difference between green façades and uncovered wall**
2 **in Mediterranean climatic area**

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17 **Abstract**

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19 improvement of the thermal behaviour of the building envelope in urban areas is a suitable solution
20 to increase energy savings. Green façades are a promising passive cooling strategy for building
21 envelopes. One parameter useful to evaluate the effectiveness of a green façade is the external surface
22 temperature of the building. The reduction of the building surface temperature in the warm periods
23 obtained with a green layer plays an important role for cooling energy saving.

24 A multiple linear regression model simulating the difference of the surface temperature between
25 a wall covered with vegetation and an uncovered wall was developed. The model was built using the
26 experimental data measured in 2015. The data were recorded by sensors and data logger on three wall
27 prototypes in scale facing south. The prototypes were realized in order to simulate a vertical closure
28 for civil buildings commonly used in the Mediterranean area. The cooling thermal effect of two
29 different climbing plants, *Pandorea jasminoides variegated* and *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, was
30 analysed and compared, through the evaluation of the external surface temperature of the protected
31 vertical walls in comparison to a control uncovered wall.

32 The model was used to simulate the behaviour of the green walls during summer 2016. The
33 simulated data were compared with the measured data. Coefficients of determination (R^2) higher than
34 0.96 were obtained. The results of the research showed that the model can simulate the thermal effects
35 of green façade in a similar Mediterranean climate.

36 Data measured and simulated showed that the vegetated walls recorded surface temperatures
37 lower than the uncovered wall up to 7.69 °C in summertime.

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43 1. INTRODUCTION

44 Nowadays the diffusion of the greening technology for more sustainable buildings is
45 encouraged by the worldwide growing interest in urban green (Berardi et al., 2014; Fernandez-Cañero
46 et al., 2013; Santamouris, 2012). Urban Green Infrastructures (UGIs) are sets of man-made elements
47 whose performance is influenced by built environment, climate conditions of the area and used plants
48 (Raji et al., 2015; Gagliano et al., 2015). Public and private green open spaces, planned and
49 unplanned, such as remaining native vegetation, parks, gardens, street trees, sporting fields, golf
50 courses, are classified as UGIs. Moreover, also engineered options such as greenery systems in a
51 building as green roofs, green balconies, sky gardens, indoor sky gardens and vertical greening are
52 UGIs (Norton et al., 2015; Raji et al., 2015; Cameron et al., 2014; Schettini et al., 2016; Schettini et
53 al., 2018a).

54 The thermal effect of greenery systems on the microclimate of buildings is related to the climate
55 conditions of the area, i.e. air temperature and relative humidity, solar radiation, wind velocity and
56 direction. Besides, the vegetation type, plant position, plant height, coverage ratio, leaf area index
57 (LAI), foliage (orientation, dimension, thickness and density), radiometric characteristics of the
58 leaves (emissivity, reflectivity, absorptance and transmissivity), plant's biological processes
59 (photosynthesis, respiration and transpiration), and the growing medium (thickness, water content
60 and density, substrate thermal properties) affect the thermal behaviour of the vegetation. The building
61 itself and the surrounding built environment influence the thermal behaviour of UGI. Building
62 characteristics, such as roof and wall construction materials (Vox et al., 2016), dimension, wall
63 orientation, insulation level, and building indoor usage, must be considered.

64 The presence of UGIs will provide environmental benefits at building and urban scale (Pérez
65 et al., 2014; Raji et al., 2015). UGIs contribute to improve urban climate reducing urban air
66 temperature, extreme air and wall temperature values and thermal excursions on the building surface
67 (Norton et al., 2015; Tan et al., 2014; Vox et al., 2015; Blanco et al., 2017; Campiotti et al., 2013).
68 Urban greening can supply several ecosystem services such as improving aesthetically the place to
69 live and work, removing airborne pollutants and improving air quality, enhancing storm-water
70 management and water run-off quality, providing sound insulation and noise absorption (Cameron et
71 al., 2014; Kohler and Poll, 2010; Rowe, 2011; Fernandez-Cañero et al., 2013). UGIs improve the
72 habitat for invertebrates, birds, weeds and plants promoting and increasing biodiversity. Moreover,
73 UGIs mitigate the frequency and magnitude of the heat events due to urban heat island (Karlessi et
74 al., 2011; Jaffal et al., 2012), reduce the ambient temperatures, improve human thermal comfort and
75 decrease energy loads on building (Pérez et al., 2014; Cameron et al., 2014; Norton et al., 2015).

76 The application of greening systems to the building envelope allows the improvement of the
77 thermal performance of the building. Improving envelope energy performance is a suitable solution
78 to increase energy saving (Balocco and Petrone, 2017). Vertical surfaces of buildings constitute part
79 of the building envelope that strongly condition the microclimate inside the building.

80 The systems that allow greening a building vertical surface are classified with different terms
81 in literature: vertical greening systems (Perini et al., 2011; Oluwafeyikemi and Julie, 2015), vertical
82 greenery systems (Wong et al., 2010; Azkorra et al., 2014; Pérez et al., 2017; Coma et al., 2017),
83 green walls (Kontoleon and Eumorfopoulou, 2010; Su and Lin, 2015; Wong and Baldwin, 2016;
84 Djedjig et al., 2017; Vox et al., 2018b), vertical greens (Perini et al., 2011), vertical gardens (Peck et
85 al., 1999; Alexandri and Jones, 2008; Perini and Ottelé, 2014), bio shades (Ip et al., 2010), vertical
86 landscaping (Allan and Kim, 2016; Yu et al., 2016), green façades (Coma et al., 2014; Flores Larsen

87 et al., 2015; Hoelscher et al., 2016; Blanco et al., 2018), living walls (Charoenkit and Yiemwattana,
88 2016; Safikhani and Baharvand, 2017). Such a wide classification often leads to a non-real
89 interpretation of the results obtained considering the different greening systems.

90 Data of tests carried out in real conditions are generally collected in short time making the
91 comparison of the greening system performance even more difficult. Several authors presented
92 experimental data at real scale concerning short summer periods (Chen et al, 2013; Pérez et al., 2014;
93 Susorova et al., 2014; Vox et al., 2017). The performance of the greenery systems in winter have been
94 less investigated and it requires further investigations (Pérez et al., 2014; Coma et al., 2017; Schettini
95 et al., 2018b).

96 Another problem for the understanding of the scientific results is that some studies reported
97 the maximum temperature differences while other researchers reported the average temperature
98 differences (Charoenkit and Yiemwattana, 2016). The parameter most commonly reported for
99 assessing the thermal performance of green vertical systems is the wall external surface temperature
100 of the building or prototype. Comparisons between surface temperature studies do not allow an
101 adequate assessment of the thermal performance, due to differences in building construction
102 characteristics (Hunter et al., 2014). However, the analysis of this parameter permits comparing the
103 potential effects related to the change of one parameter, such as the plant species, the distance of the
104 supporting structure from the building for the indirect green façades, the irrigation regimes, the
105 climate conditions.

106 Olivieri et al (2014) have expressed the need to develop a performance predictive model of a
107 vegetal façades based on the local weather conditions. Simulation models often were not validated
108 with real data (Pérez et al., 2014; Raji et al., 2015; Hunter et al. 2014).

109 In this research, the system that allows greening a vertical surface is a green façade (Cuce,
110 2016; Riley, 2017; He et al., 2017; Convertino et al., 2019). It is characterized by climbing plants
111 rooted in the ground. The plants climb on a structural support located at a small distance from the
112 wall.

113 Aim of the paper is the development of a statistical predictive model of the thermal performance
114 of the façade in summer (from June to August). The statistical predictive model is a tool to simulate
115 the results of the application of green façades in a similar Mediterranean climate.

116 The thermal performance of the green façade in summertime, period characterised by the
117 highest external air temperature values, was analysed through the evaluation of the external surface
118 temperature of the covered vertical walls in comparison to the uncovered control wall. The multiple
119 linear regression model was built based on the data gathered during summer 2015. The regression
120 model was validated with the data collected during summer 2016.

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123 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

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125 **2.1. Experimental test**

126 The test took place at the experimental centre of the University of Bari in Valenzano (Bari),
127 Italy, having latitude 41° 05' N, longitude 16° 53' E, altitude 85 m asl. The area is characterized by
128 warm temperate climate with calm, dry and hot summer and by a notably variation of solar radiation
129 intensity with season; the winter months are much rainier than the summer months. The

130 Mediterranean climate of the area can be classified as Csa, according to the Kopper-Geiger climate
131 classification (Kottek et al., 2006).

132 In order to simulate a vertical closure for civil buildings commonly used in the Mediterranean
133 area, a vertical wall with perforated bricks joined with mortar was designed. Each brick had a
134 thickness of 0.20 m, a height of 0.25 m and a length of 0.25 m. The masonry was characterized by a
135 thermal conductivity (λ) equal to $0.282 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ (following UNI EN 1745: 2012) and a specific heat
136 capacity (C_p) equal to $840 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$. The thermal properties of the plaster, with a thickness of 0.02
137 m, were: λ equal to $0.55 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and C_p equal to $1000 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$. The wall was characterised by a
138 density (d) equal to 695 kg m^{-3} , a solar absorption coefficient (α_s) equal to 42.1% and a long wave
139 infrared emissivity coefficient (ϵ_{LWIR}) equal to 95.3%.

140 Three wall prototypes in scale, each having a width of 1.00 m and a height equal to 1.55 m,
141 were made facing south. On the backside of each wall, a sealed insulation structure was realized with
142 sheets of expanded polystyrene. Each sheet of expanded polystyrene had a thickness of 0.03 m, λ
143 equal to $0.037 \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$, C_p equal to $1404 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and d equal to 15 kg m^{-3} . The presence of the
144 insulating structure allowed evaluating only the thermal behaviour of the wall due to the plants and
145 to the incident solar radiation. A blue shading net was placed onto the back structure to reduce the
146 effect of the incident solar radiation.

147 The walls were located in a wide open space with no shadow on the vertical surfaces.

148 Two walls were covered with vigorous evergreen climbing plants, one with *Pandorea*
149 *jasminoides* variegated, the second with *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*. The third wall, used as control,
150 was kept uncovered. The plants were transplanted on 18 June 2014. An iron net was placed 0.15 m
151 far from the wall in order to provide a support for the climbing plants (Figure 1).

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153

154 Figure 1. The three walls at the experimental field of the University of Bari; the right one is greened
155 with *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, the central one with *Pandorea jasminoides* variegated
156 and the left one is the control wall (uncovered).

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The drip irrigation method was used for all the plants and fertilization with N, P and K was performed.

2.2. Data acquisition

The external air temperature and relative humidity, the wind speed and direction, the surface temperature of the wall on the external plaster exposed to the solar radiation, the solar radiation on a horizontal plane and the solar radiation incident on the vertical surface were measured during the test. The value of solar radiation on a horizontal plane is a reference radiation value useful for the comparison of different climatic zones. The solar radiation on the vertical wall represents the fraction of solar radiation incident on the south facing green façades.

The external air temperature was measured by a Hygroclip-S3 sensor (Rotronic, Zurich, Switzerland); it was adequately shielded from solar radiation. The temperature of the external plaster surfaces exposed to the solar radiation was measured using thermistors (Tecno.EL s.r.l. Formello, Rome, Italy). Both the solar radiation on a horizontal plane and the solar radiation normal to the wall were measured by means of pyranometers (model 8-48, Eppley Laboratory, Newport, RI, USA) in the wavelength range 0.3-3 mm. Wind speed and direction were measured by Young Wind Sentry anemometer (Young Company, Traverse City, MI, U.S.A).

The climatic parameters were measured with a frequency of 60 s, averaged every 15 min and recorded on a data logger (CR10X, Campbell, Logan, USA) throughout the experimental test.

Plant Leaf Surface Index (LAI) was measured with an AccuPAR PAR/LAI Ceptometer (model LP-80, Decagon Devices Inc., Pullman, WA, USA). LAI varies throughout the year from 2 to 4 for *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, and from 1.5 to 3.5 for *Pandorea jasminoides variegated*. These values ranged from a minimum to a maximum because, despite the plants are evergreen, in winter they lose some leaves.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out with the CoStat software (CoHort Software, Monterey, CA, USA).

2.3. Climate conditions of the experimental field during 2013-2015

A preliminary study of the climate parameters of the site was carried out. The study was realized in order to define the experimental conditions.

In the period from January 2013 to December 2015, the experimental field was characterized by values of the external air temperature ranging from -1.4°C to 41.4°C. The yearly cumulative solar radiation on a horizontal plane varied in the range 4891-5327 MJ m⁻². The monthly value of cumulative solar radiation on a horizontal plane ranged from 143 MJ m⁻², recorded in January 2014, to 802 MJ m⁻², recorded in July 2015. The annual cumulative solar radiation on the south facing vertical wall varied in the range 3515-3759 MJ m⁻²; the monthly value ranged from 209 MJ m⁻² (January 2014) to 397 MJ m⁻² (September 2013).

2.4. Multiple linear regression analysis

Data can be statistically analysed and modelled by means of a statistical regression analysis. Regression analysis is a methodology to investigate the functional equation between a dependent variable or response and the variables that influence the response, known as independent or predictor or influence variables (Fumo and Biswas, 2015; Yildiz et al., 2017). In relation to the number of

201 predictor variables, simple linear regression has only one predictor variable while multiple linear
 202 regression has more than one predictor variable. The univariate linear regression analysis models the
 203 connection among variables by fitting a linear equation to the data. The linear fitting of multiple linear
 204 regression analysis is attempted by keeping constant all but one of the predictor variables (Fumo and
 205 Biswas, 2015).

206 Regression models are influenced by number of input parameters, kind of data, time interval,
 207 forecasting temporal horizon (Yildiz et al., 2017).

208 In this paper the multiple linear regression technique is used to forecast and model time series.
 209 The response variable that is analysed is the difference of the external surface temperature between
 210 the control wall and the green façade. The response variable at time t is coded as y_t . The external
 211 climate conditions were used as predictors variables: external air temperature and relative humidity,
 212 horizontal and vertical solar radiation, wind velocity and direction.

213 The multiple linear autoregressive model used in this research is:

$$214$$

$$215 y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_2 x_{1,t} + \beta_3 x_{1,t-1} + \beta_4 x_{2,t} + \beta_5 x_{2,t-1} + \beta_6 x_{3,t} + \beta_7 x_{3,t-1} + \beta_8 x_{4,t} + \beta_9 x_{4,t-1} + \beta_{10} x_{5,t} +$$

$$216 \beta_{11} x_{5,t-1} + \beta_{12} x_{6,t} + \beta_{13} x_{6,t-1} + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

$$217$$

218 where: the response variable y_t is the difference between the external surface temperature of the
 219 control wall and of the green façade at time t ; $t = 1, \dots, n=8832$, with a time sample of 900 s, extends
 220 from June to August 2015. The predictor variable y_{t-1} is the difference between the external surface
 221 temperature of the control wall and of the green façade at time $t-1$; $x_{j,t}$ and $x_{j,t-1}$ are the weather
 222 predictor variables at time t and at time $t-1$, respectively, with $j = 1, \dots, 6$. The value $j=1$ refers to the
 223 external air temperature, $j=2$ to the horizontal solar radiation, $j=3$ to the external air relative humidity,
 224 $j=4$ to the wind velocity, $j=5$ to the wind direction and $j=6$ to the vertical solar radiation. β_l , with $l =$
 225 $0, \dots, 13$, are the regression parameters of the model; β_0 is the intercept. ε_t is the error standing for the
 226 difference between the predicted data and the observed data.

227 The objective of the regression model is to minimize the sum of squared errors by varying the
 228 coefficient β_l .

229 The Regression Tool in Excel's Data Analysis add-in was used to obtain the estimated regression
 230 parameters ($\hat{\beta}_l$) with the Least Squares Method.

231 The fitted values (\hat{y}_t) were obtained by using the $\hat{\beta}_l$ values in eq. (1). The error (ε_t) is the
 232 difference between the observed data (y_t) and the fitted data (\hat{y}_t):

$$233$$

$$234 y_t = \hat{y}_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (2)$$

$$235$$

236 The fitted values are obtained considering, for the predictor variables, one of the n observations.

237 Three parameters can be used to measure the quality of the fitting of the multiple linear regression
 238 model: the coefficient of determination (R^2), the adjusted coefficient of determination (R_{adj}^2) and the
 239 root-mean-square error (RMSE). In this research, these parameters for the model proposed are defined
 240 as:

$$241$$

$$242 R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (3)$$

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$$244 \quad R_{adj}^2 = 1 - (1 - R^2) \frac{n-1}{n-p-1} \quad (4)$$

245

$$246 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{n-k}} \quad (5)$$

247

248 where n is the number of observations; p , equal to 13, is the total number of the variables; k , equal to
249 14, is the number of regression coefficients; y_i are the observed data, \bar{y} is the mean value of y_i ,
250 $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ is the sum of squared errors and $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$ is the total sum of squares.

251 The R^2 is a measure of how much variation of the response variable is explained by every
252 predictive variables dataset at time t . It represents the percentage of variability in the independent
253 variable that is explained when considering as if all predictor variables in the model affect the
254 response variable. A high value of the R^2 means that the predictors account for a great amount of
255 variability in the independent variable. The coefficient of determination R^2 ranges between 0 and 1.
256 When R^2 is close to 1 then most of the variation of the observed values can be explained by the model
257 (Raziei and Pereira, 2013). Even with a high value of R^2 , a more detailed analysis is needed to ensure
258 that the model can be used to describe the observed data and to predict the response for another set
259 of data different from the one used to generate the model (Fumo and Biswas, 2015).

260 The R_{adj}^2 indicates how well terms fit a curve or line, but it is adjusted for the number of terms
261 in a model. The R_{adj}^2 gives the percentage of variability explained by only those predictor variables
262 that really affect the response variable. Adding more useless variables to a model, the R_{adj}^2 will
263 decrease. Adding more useful variables, the R_{adj}^2 will increase. The R_{adj}^2 will always be less than or
264 equal to the R^2 for large datasets. R_{adj}^2 can be positive or negative.

265 The RMSE is a standard statistical metric that measures the scatter in the data around the model.
266 It indicates how concentrated the data is around the line of best fit; it measures how accurately the
267 model predicts the response. The RMSE is the most important criterion for fit if the main purpose of
268 the model is prediction and for describing uncertainty. The smaller RSME the better is the model's
269 performance (Raziei and Pereira, 2013). A small RMSE implies that the sample is accurate and
270 precise.

271 Meteorological and surface temperature data recorded during summer 2015 at the experimental
272 field were analysed and a multiple linear regression model was fitted on 2015 data. The model
273 estimates the difference between the external surface temperature of the control wall and of the green
274 façade. Then the model was used to predict the behaviour of the green façade during summer 2016.
275 The validation of the model was done by comparing the data observed during summer 2016 and the
276 data predicted with the model. The predicted data (\hat{y}_{tp}) were obtained by eq. (1), using the predictor
277 variables measured in 2016. The regression parameters where obtained with the data recorded in
278 2015.

279

280 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

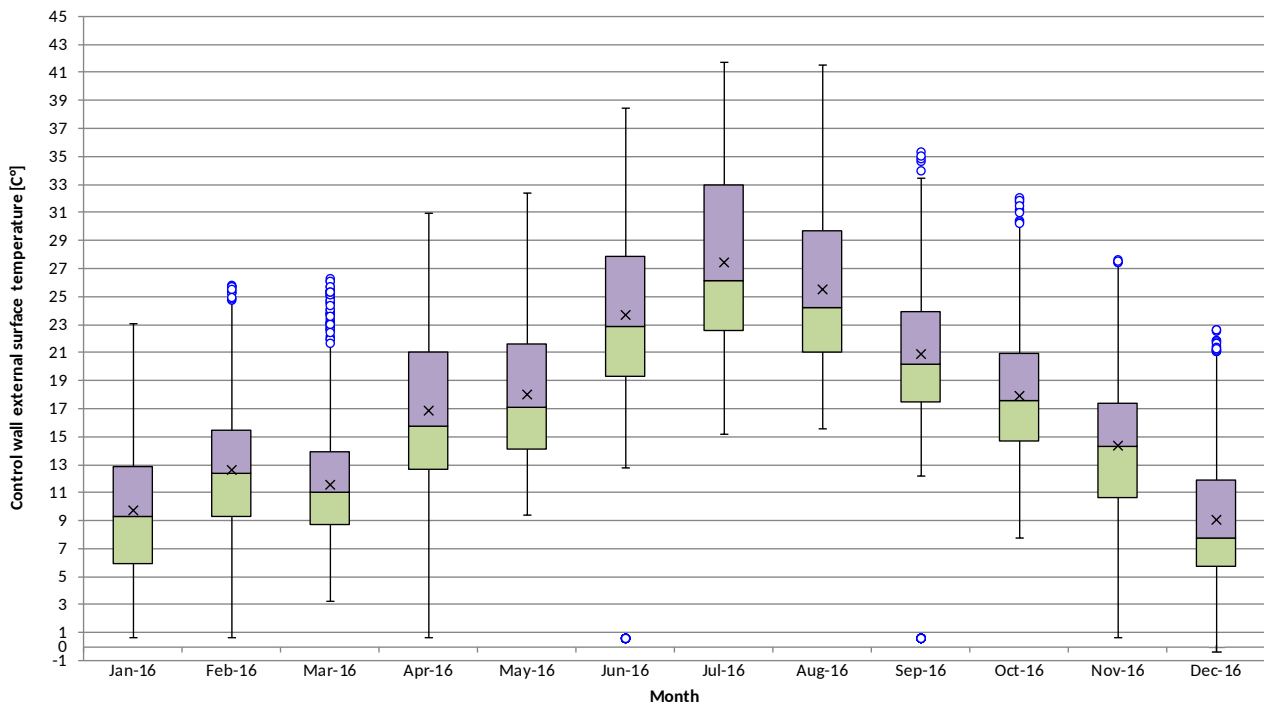
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282 **3.1. The measured wall temperature**

283 The monthly values of the external surface temperature recorded on the uncovered control wall
284 during 2016 are shown in Figure 2 by multiple box-plots (Nuzzo, 2016). The median ranged from
285 7°C to 26°C. Ignoring the outlier values, maximum values were recorded around 41°C and minimum
286 values close to -1°C.

287 Concerning the warmest period in the summer 2016, from June to August, the external surface
288 temperatures recorded on the control wall were characterized by a high variability and the median
289 was in the range 22-26°C. The period from June to August recorded surface temperature peaks on the
290 control wall over 38°C, neglecting the outlier values. The other warm months were characterised by
291 maximum values of about 32-33°C. Thus, the mitigation of the wall surface temperature due to the
292 presence of the plants was analysed for June, July and August when the cooling effect is expected to
293 be more effective.

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Figure 2: External surface temperature of the control wall during 2016.

299 A value of the horizontal solar radiation of 200 Wm⁻² was found by Vox et al. (2018a) as a
300 threshold value for arousing a cooling effect by the green façades on the wall external surfaces. A
301 solar radiation threshold value emerged as necessary to incite notable cooling functions on the walls
302 behind the green layers during daytime, with a direct dependence of the surface temperature on the
303 solar radiation level. This result is in agreement with Jim (2015) that assessed a solar radiation
304 minimum value of 300 Wm⁻² for mobilizing effective transpiration cooling for indirect green façades
305 forming a 10 cm air gap between wall and support mesh.

306 Table 1 shows the monthly average of the daily maximum difference between the surface
307 temperature recorded on the control wall and the surface temperature recorded on the green walls in
308 2016. One-way ANOVA analysis at a 95% probability level were performed for each month of the

309 analysed period in order to compare the average values. Duncan's test was applied with a significance
 310 level equal of 0.05. No significant difference was recorded between the two plants.

311 The ANOVA analysis showed that statistically significant differences were recorded between
 312 the green walls and the control wall for the monthly average of the daily variation of the wall external
 313 surface temperature (Table 1). It was calculated as the difference between the highest temperature
 314 and the lowest temperature registered each day during daytime, when solar radiation on a horizontal
 315 surface was higher than 200 W m⁻². In June and August no significant difference was reported
 316 between the two plants for the temperature variation. During July, that was the hottest month,
 317 *Rhynchospermum jasminoides* showed the lowest temperature variation (7.93 °C). This value was
 318 statistically different from the variation recorded both for the wall covered with *Pandorea*
 319 *jasminoides variegated* and for the control wall.

320 In August, the following maximum daytime temperature variation were recorded: 11.75°C for
 321 *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, 13.42 °C for *Pandorea jasminoides variegated* and 18.40 °C for the
 322 control wall (Table 2). The variations were evaluated when solar radiation on a horizontal surface
 323 was higher than 200 W m⁻².

324 The average of the maximum reduction of the covered walls surface temperature versus the
 325 uncovered control wall showed no significant difference between the two plants (Table 1).

326 The highest maximum reduction value between the surface temperature measured on the control
 327 wall and on the green wall was recorded in August: 7.69°C for *Rhynchospermum jasminoides* and 7.67
 328 °C for *Pandorea jasminoides variegated* (Table 2).

329
 330 Table 1: Monthly average of the daily maximum difference value between the surface temperature
 331 recorded on the control wall and on the green walls; average daytime temperature variation with solar
 332 radiation on a horizontal surface higher than 200 W m⁻². Data recorded in 2016.

333

	Average of the maximum reduction of the covered walls surface temperature versus the control wall (°C)			Average variation of the wall external surface temperature during daytime; solar radiation on a horizontal surface ≥ 200 W m ⁻² (°C)		
	June	July	August	June	July	August
Rhynchospermum jasminoides	5.07 ^a	5.81 ^a	5.93 ^a	7.13 ^b	7.93 ^c	6.65 ^b
Pandorea jasminoides variegated	5.08 ^a	5.57 ^a	5.46 ^a	8.10 ^b	9.07 ^b	7.87 ^b
Control wall	-	-	-	12.44 ^a	14.08 ^a	12.94 ^a

334 ^{a-c}Average values of the temperature in a column (i.e. for a specific month) with a different superscript letter statistically
 335 differ at P < 0.05 using Duncan's test.

336

337 In one summer month with Thessaloniki's climatic conditions, characterised by warm
 338 temperate humid climate, Eumorfopoulou and Kontoleon (2009) reported a temperature reduction of
 339 the maximum values in the exterior surface of a plant-covered east wall equal in average to 5.7 °C,

340 varying from 1.9 °C to 8.3 °C. Pérez et al. (2014) reported a reduction from 1.7 °C to 13.0 °C of the
 341 external building surface temperature in warm temperate climate region in the case of a wall covered
 342 with traditional green façades during summertime. Susorova et al. (2014) reported an average
 343 decrease of the façade surface temperatures due to the presence of vegetation on the façade from 1.0
 344 °C to 9.0 °C during summer on brick infills external surface.

345
 346 Table 2: Maximum difference value between the surface temperature recorded on the control wall
 347 and the surface temperature recorded on the green walls; maximum daytime temperature variation
 348 considering solar radiation on a horizontal surface higher than 200 W m⁻². Data recorded in 2016.

	Maximum reduction of wall external surface temperature versus control wall (°C)			Maximum range of wall external surface temperature during daytime; solar radiation on a horizontal surface $\geq 200 \text{ W m}^{-2}$ (°C)		
	June	July	August	June	July	August
Rhynchospermum jasminoides	6.48	7.02	7.69	10.87	10.41	11.75
Pandorea jasminoides variegated	6.58	6.73	7.67	12.32	11.96	13.42
Control wall				17.54	16.87	18.40

350
 351

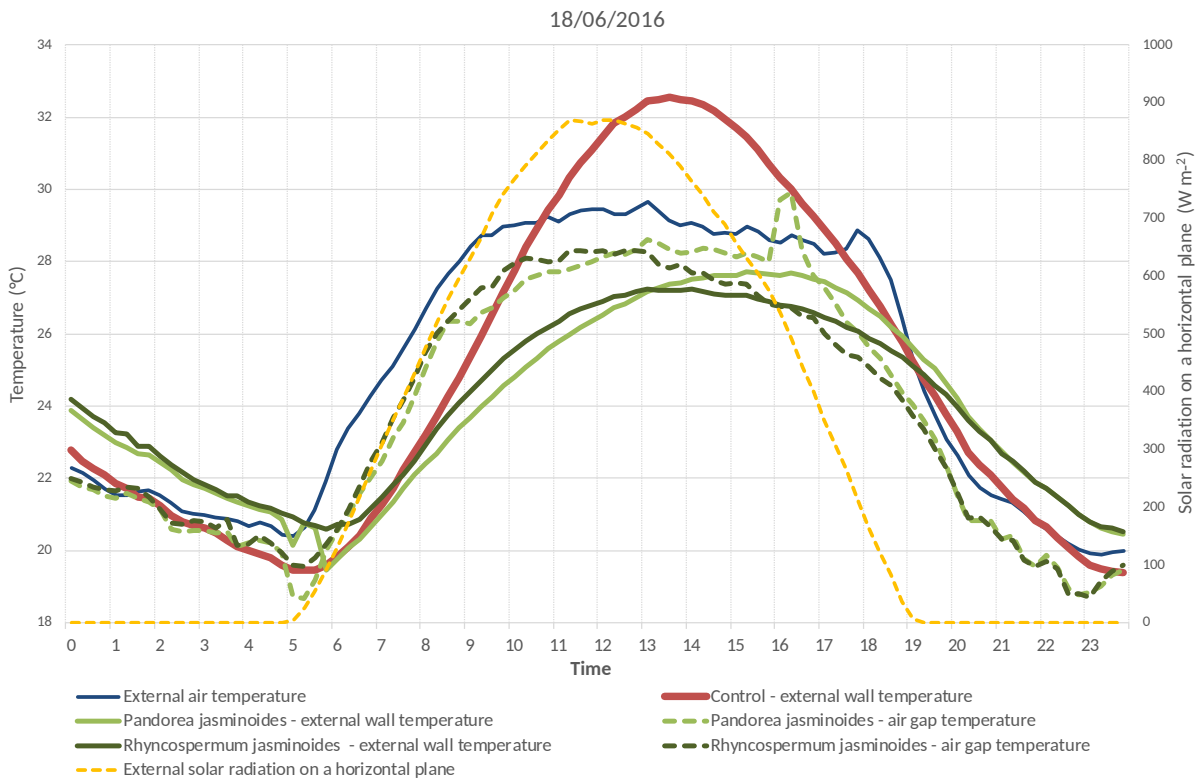
352 The daily thermal behaviour of the walls is shown in Figures 3-5. One typical sunny day for
 353 month was chosen. The external air temperature, the surface temperature of the external plaster of the
 354 three walls exposed to solar radiation, the temperature of the air gap between the vegetation and the
 355 wall, the solar radiation on a horizontal plane are shown.

356 The wall external surface temperature of the control wall rose in the morning in synch with the
 357 solar radiation values more than the temperature of the external side of the walls screened by the
 358 plants. During the daytime, with the solar radiation on a horizontal surface higher than 200 W m⁻²,
 359 the external wall temperature of the control wall was always higher than the external wall temperature
 360 of the green façades. The presence of the vegetation layer mitigated the temperature of the external
 361 plaster of the walls. The maximum value of the wall surface temperature of the green façade was
 362 always recorded at least 1 hour late in comparison to the maximum value of the wall surface
 363 temperature of the control wall.

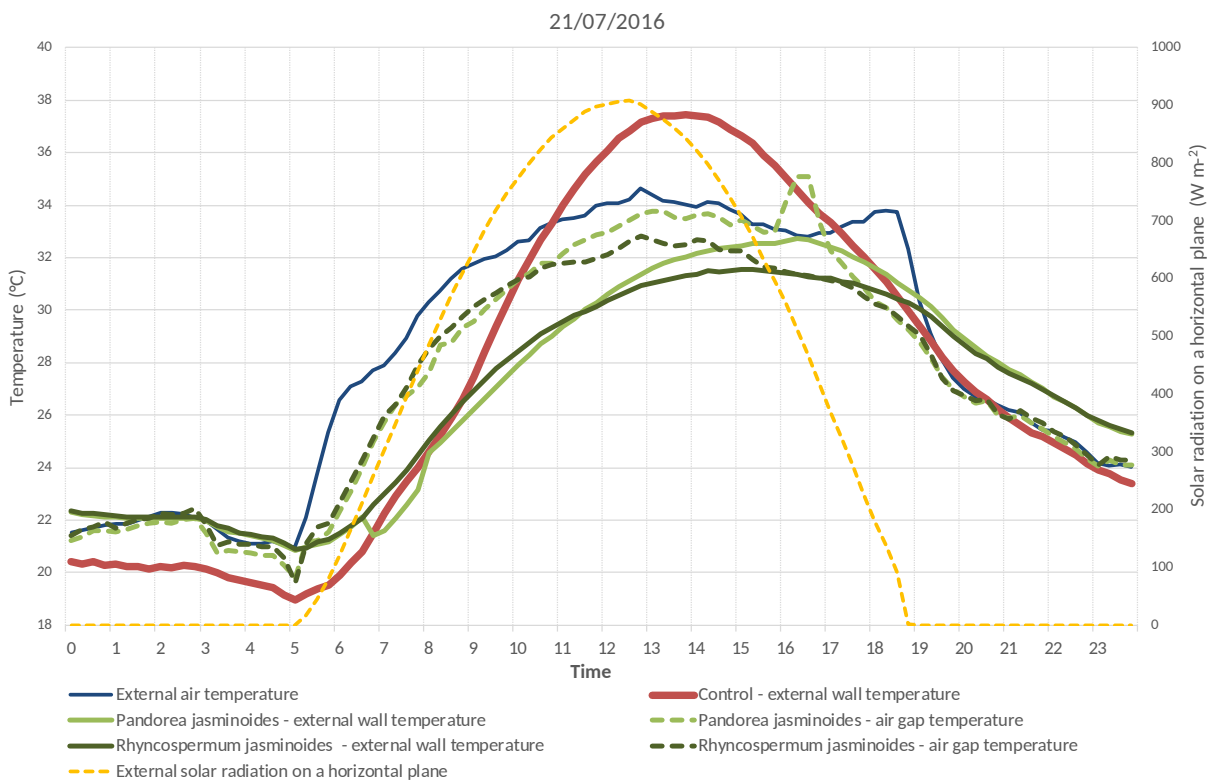
364 After sunset and at nighttime, the temperatures on the external wall of the green façades were
 365 higher than the temperatures on the control wall up to 2 °C. The green façades acted as thermal screens
 366 during night, but this behaviour is not desirable in summer.

367 The air-gap temperatures always followed the hourly evolution of the external ambient air
 368 temperature (Fig. 3-5). The air-gap temperatures often remained below the external ambient air
 369 temperature mainly for *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*. It is in agreement with the findings of Chen et
 370 al. (2013) and Pérez et al. (2011), which assessed the ability of the green façades to create a behind-

371 green layer microclimate, characterized by lower air temperature than the external one during daytime
 372 in summer sunny days.
 373

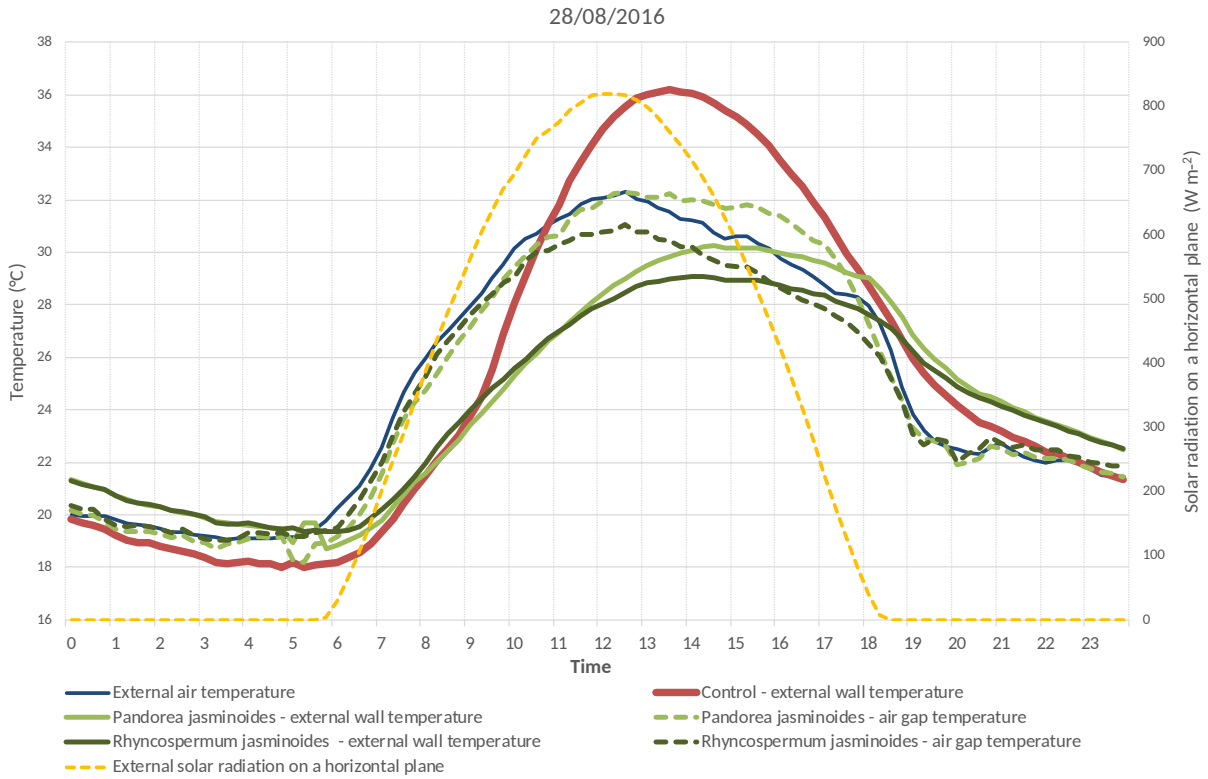


374
 375 Figure 3: External air temperature, surface temperature of the external plaster of the three walls
 376 exposed to solar radiation, air gap temperature between the vegetation and the wall, solar radiation
 377 on a horizontal plane; 18/06/2016.
 378



379

380 Figure 4: External air temperature, surface temperature of the external plaster of the three walls
 381 exposed to solar radiation, air gap temperature between the vegetation and the wall, solar radiation
 382 on a horizontal plane; 21/07/2016.
 383








384 Figure 5: External air temperature, surface temperature of the external plaster of the three walls
 385 exposed to solar radiation, air gap temperature between the vegetation and the wall, solar radiation
 386 on a horizontal plane; 28/08/2016.
 387
 388

389 3.2. Regression analysis results

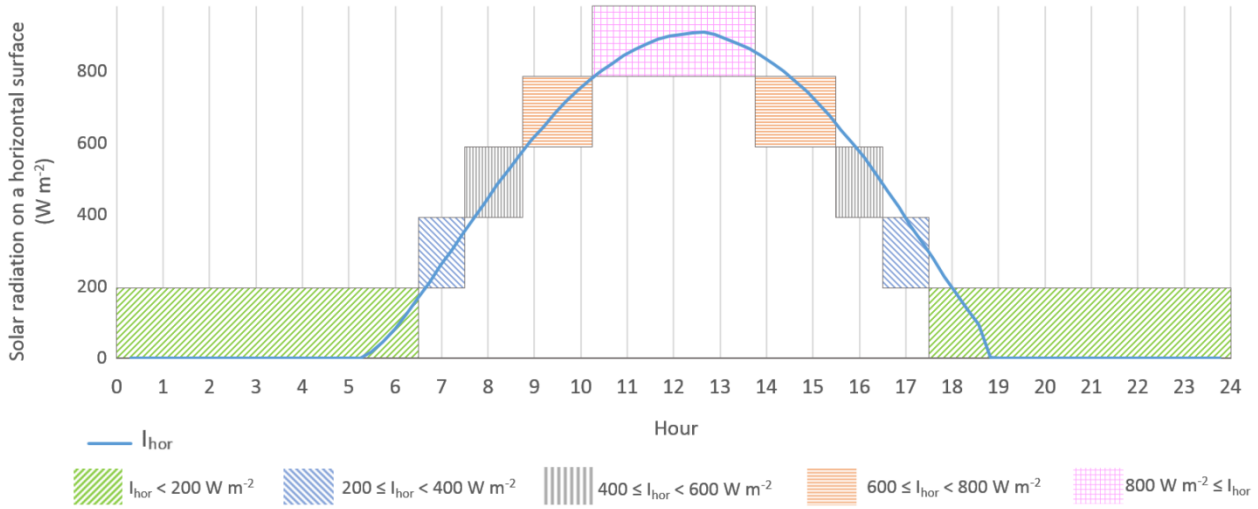
390 The regression model estimated the difference of temperature between the control wall without
 391 vegetation and the green wall at time t . It was built based on the data measured during summer 2015
 392 at the experimental field.

393 Due to the great amount of heterogeneous data and to the variable thermal performance of the
 394 green walls through the different hours of the day, the observed data related to summer 2015 were
 395 grouped in 5 radiation slots. They were characterized by intervals of solar radiation on a horizontal
 396 surface (I_{hor}) as shown in Table 3. Figure 6 shows the distribution of the radiation slots in a typical
 397 summer day at the experimental site.

398
 399 Table 3: Solar Radiation slots used in the regression model

		Solar Radiation on a horizontal surface
	$I_{hor} < 200$	$I_{hor} < 200 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
	$I_{hor} 200-400$	$200 \leq I_{hor} < 400 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
	$I_{hor} 400-600$	$400 \leq I_{hor} < 600 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
	$I_{hor} 600-800$	$600 \leq I_{hor} < 800 \text{ W m}^{-2}$
	$I_{hor} \geq 800$	$I_{hor} \geq 800 \text{ W m}^{-2}$

400
401
402
403



404
405
406

Figure 6: Daily distribution of the radiation slots.

407 A regression model for each green wall and for each I_{hor} was developed by using the data
408 observed in the summer season 2015 (June-August 2015). 5 regressive models for each plant were
409 developed, as shown in Tables 4-5. The models reproduce the thermal performance of the green
410 façades in comparison with the control wall described in this research.

411 A regression coefficient β_i measures the partial effect of the predictor variable x_j on \hat{y}_i holding
412 the other predictor variables fixed. This interpretation is not valid, of course, for the intercept β_0 . The
413 value of the coefficients β_i is characterised by the unit of the measurement, thus these coefficients
414 cannot be compared to each other. Therefore, the coefficients β_i cannot be assumed as indicators of
415 the importance of the predictor variable in the explanation of the variability of the \hat{y}_i .

416 When a coefficient β_i is equal to 0, it means that the influence of the related predictor weather
417 variable on the difference of temperature between the control wall without vegetation and the green
418 wall is not significant.

419 The coefficients related the external air temperature predictor variable (β_2 and β_3) are
420 significant for every I_{hor} : often β_2 is positive and high while β_3 is smaller in absolute value and
421 negative. Therefore, the contribution of the predictor at time $t-1$ often partially compensates for the
422 contribution at the following time t . A positive and high value for β_2 means that the higher the
423 temperature, the greater the difference of temperature between the control wall without vegetation
424 and the green wall.

425 The coefficients that explain the dependency of the solar radiation variable are β_4 and β_5
426 (horizontal solar radiation) and β_{12} and β_{13} (vertical solar radiation); these coefficients can be positive
427 or negative characterised by a low absolute value.

428 The dependency on the external air relative humidity variable is highlighted by the β_6 and β_7
429 coefficients. A positive low value for β_6 means that the higher the humidity, the greater the difference
430 of temperature between the control wall without vegetation and the green wall.

431 The dependency on the wind velocity variable is highlighted by the β_8 and β_9 coefficients while
432 on the wind direction by the β_{10} and β_{11} coefficients. As expected, the lowest dependence of the wind
433 velocity variable results for $I_{\text{hor}} < 200 \text{ Wm}^{-2}$, from sunset to sunrise when the wind has generally
434 calmed down compared to other hours of the day.

435 Tables 4-5 also show the parameters of quality analysis. It can be noted that the coefficients R^2
436 and R_{adj}^2 are very high, with values higher than 0.95, for all the radiation slots and for both the green
437 walls. R^2 and R_{adj}^2 show the goodness of the fit by the trained models. In this case, they have similar
438 values due to the large datasets being used. The scattering around the model explained by RMSE is
439 low.

440 A multiple regression model becomes more effective by adding a significant variable to it, while
441 the addition of an unimportant variable can make the model worse. Thus, in order to analyse the
442 importance of the individual regression coefficients, the Student t test was applied. The t-value
443 represents the test statistic for the Student t test. The t-values test the hypothesis that the coefficient
444 is different from 0. The coefficient with the highest t-value identifies the most important variable.

445 The t-values connected to the individual regression coefficients are presented in Tables 6-7. In
446 both green façades the coefficients related to the variables external air temperature $x_{1,t}$ and vertical
447 solar radiation $x_{12,t}$ show high t-values. Thus $x_{1,t}$ and $x_{12,t}$ confirm to be the parameters with the
448 greatest influence on the dependent variable, in addition to y_{t-1} , as expected.

449 The predictive models described by Olivieri et al (2014) concern a green façade covered with
450 sedum and a wall characterised by metal finish; they are characterized by values of R^2 varying
451 between 0.63 and 0.87.

452

Table 4: Estimated regression coefficients and quality model parameters for the green wall covered with *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, for the summer period 2015.

Estimated Regression coefficient		β_0	β_1	β_2	β_3	β_4	β_5	β_6	β_7	β_8	β_9	β_{10}	β_{11}	β_{12}	β_{13}			
Quality model parameters																R^2	R_{adj}^2	RMSE
Predictor variable to whom the regression coefficient is related		y_{t-1}	$x_{1,t}$	$x_{1,t-1}$	$x_{2,t}$	$x_{2,t-1}$	$x_{3,t}$	$x_{3,t-1}$	$x_{4,t}$	$x_{4,t-1}$	$x_{5,t}$	$x_{5,t-1}$	$x_{6,t}$	$x_{6,t-1}$				
Weather predictors variables		External Air Temperature		External Air Temperature	External solar radiation horizontal	External solar radiation horizontal	External Air relative Humidity	External Air relative Humidity	Wind Velocity	Wind Velocity	Wind Direction	Wind Direction	External solar radiation vertical	External solar radiation vertical				
Slot of solar radiation	$I_{hor\ 200}$	-0.2484	0.9297	0.0798	-0.0787	-0.0006	0	0.0045	-0.0035	0.0069	0	0.0001	0.0001	0.0041	-0.0019	0.99	0.99	0.06
	$I_{hor\ 200-400}$	0.0000	0.9291	0.1261	-0.1302	0	0	0	0	0.0428	-0.0440	0.0002	0	0	0	0.99	0.99	0.11
	$I_{hor\ 400-600}$	-0.5393	0.9288	0.0957	-0.0877	0.0004	-0.0003	0.0103	-0.0076	0	0	0	0	0.0009	0	1.00	1.00	0.11
	$I_{hor\ 600-800}$	-0.2462	0.9218	0.1280	-0.1247	0.0002	0	0.0019	0	-0.0361	0	-0.0003	0	0.0018	-0.0006	1.00	1.00	0.12
	$I_{hor\ 800}$	-0.3601	0.9223	0.1469	-0.1398	0.0002	0	0.0026	0	-0.0198	-0.0240	-0.0007	-0.0002	0.0019	-0.0005	0.99	0.99	0.12

Table 5: Estimated regression coefficients and quality model parameters for the green wall covered with *Pandorea jasminoides variegated*, for the summer period 2015.

Estimated Regression coefficient		β_0	β_1	β_2	β_3	β_4	β_5	β_6	β_7	β_8	β_9	β_{10}	β_{11}	β_{12}	β_{13}			
Quality model parameters															R^2	R_{adj}^2	RMSE	
Predictor variable to whom the regression coefficient is related		Y_{t-1}	$X_{1,t}$	$X_{1,t-1}$	$X_{2,t}$	$X_{2,t-1}$	$X_{3,t}$	$X_{3,t-1}$	$X_{4,t}$	$X_{4,t-1}$	$X_{5,t}$	$X_{5,t-1}$	$X_{6,t}$	$X_{6,t-1}$				
Weather predictors variables		External Air Temperature		External Air Temperature	External solar radiation horizontal	External solar radiation horizontal	External Air relative Humidity	External Air relative Humidity	Wind Velocity	Wind Velocity	Wind Direction	Wind Direction	External solar radiation vertical	External solar radiation vertical				
Slot of solar radiation	$I_{hor\ 200}$	-0.3915	0.9064	0.0972	-0.0914	0	0	0.0013	0	0.0062	0	0.0002	0	0.0031	-0.0030	0.95	0.95	0.14
	$I_{hor\ 200-400}$	-0.4110	0.8511	0.1233	-0.1119	-0.0004	0	0	0	0.0582	-0.0682	0	0	0.0040	-0.0021	0.96	0.96	0.20
	$I_{hor\ 400-600}$	-0.8940	0.8581	0.0225	0	0.0020	-0.0020	0.0034	0	-0.0305	0	0	0	-0.0021	0.0041	0.98	0.98	0.20
	$I_{hor\ 600-800}$	-0.3841	0.8777	0.1172	-0.1038	-0.0002	0	0	0	-0.0484	0	-0.0004	0	0.0029	-0.0006	0.99	0.99	0.15
	$I_{hor\ 800}$	-0.5010	0.8912	0.1496	-0.1360	-0.0002	0	0	0	-0.0516	0	-0.0006	0	0.0026	0	0.99	0.99	0.14

Table 6: t -values for the estimated regression coefficients for the green wall covered with *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, for the summer period 2015.

		t values													
Estimated Regression coefficient		β_0	β_1	β_2	β_3	β_4	β_5	β_6	β_7	β_8	β_9	β_{10}	β_{11}	β_{12}	β_{13}
Predictor variable to whom the regression coefficient is related		Y_{t-1}	$X_{1,t}$	$X_{1,t-1}$	$X_{2,t}$	$X_{2,t-1}$	$X_{3,t}$	$X_{3,t-1}$	$X_{4,t}$	$X_{4,t-1}$	$X_{5,t}$	$X_{5,t-1}$	$X_{6,t}$	$X_{6,t-1}$	
Slot of solar radiation	$I_{hor\ 200}$	-18.7532	452.2826	24.9633	-24.7520	-7.1618		7.6639	-5.8971	7.5257		2.6402	3.2594	15.3185	-10.4104
	$I_{hor\ 200-400}$		188.6119	11.3593	-11.5942					4.7248	-4.7095	2.6155			
	$I_{hor\ 400-600}$	-8.0228	309.3902	6.3024	-5.7320	4.9900	-4.5227	3.7734	-2.8566					9.9100	
	$I_{hor\ 600-800}$	-3.5560	349.6711	12.0055	-11.7481	4.6788		3.9699		-8.3222		-4.6222		15.5231	-5.1987
	$I_{hor\ 800}$	-4.8567	287.0584	13.4283	-12.7777	5.7365		5.2636		-2.6074	-3.2402	-8.1288	-2.7625	21.3396	-5.7590

Table 7: *t*-values for the estimated regression coefficients for the green wall covered with *Pandorea jasminoides variegated*, for the summer period 2015.

		t values													
Estimated Regression coefficient		β_0	β_1	β_2	β_3	β_4	β_5	β_6	β_7	β_8	β_9	β_{10}	β_{11}	β_{12}	β_{13}
Predictor variable to whom the regression coefficient is related		Y_{t-1}	$X_{1,t}$	$X_{1,t-1}$	$X_{2,t}$	$X_{2,t-1}$	$X_{3,t}$	$X_{3,t-1}$	$X_{4,t}$	$X_{4,t-1}$	$X_{5,t}$	$X_{5,t-1}$	$X_{6,t}$	$X_{6,t-1}$	
Slot of solar radiation	$I_{hor\ 200}$	-11.2070	183.4354	15.9750	-15.4290			8.1673	2.7744		3.8887		7.7124	-7.8066	
	$I_{hor\ 200-400}$	-4.8556	76.6593	5.6440	-5.0289	-3.1565			3.4415	-3.9074			7.3328	-3.8128	
	$I_{hor\ 400-600}$	-6.2462	103.9778	6.5624		6.5789	-7.0016	3.7466	-3.9686				-3.0516	5.5188	
	$I_{hor\ 600-800}$	-7.8042	216.9989	8.9842	-7.9374	-4.2656			-9.3785		-4.5116		22.5625	-4.6244	
	$I_{hor\ 800}$	-9.2642	225.4776	11.8691	-10.7676	-4.3664			-9.7011		-6.7293		33.5433		

453 3.3. Use of the predictive model in the case study

454

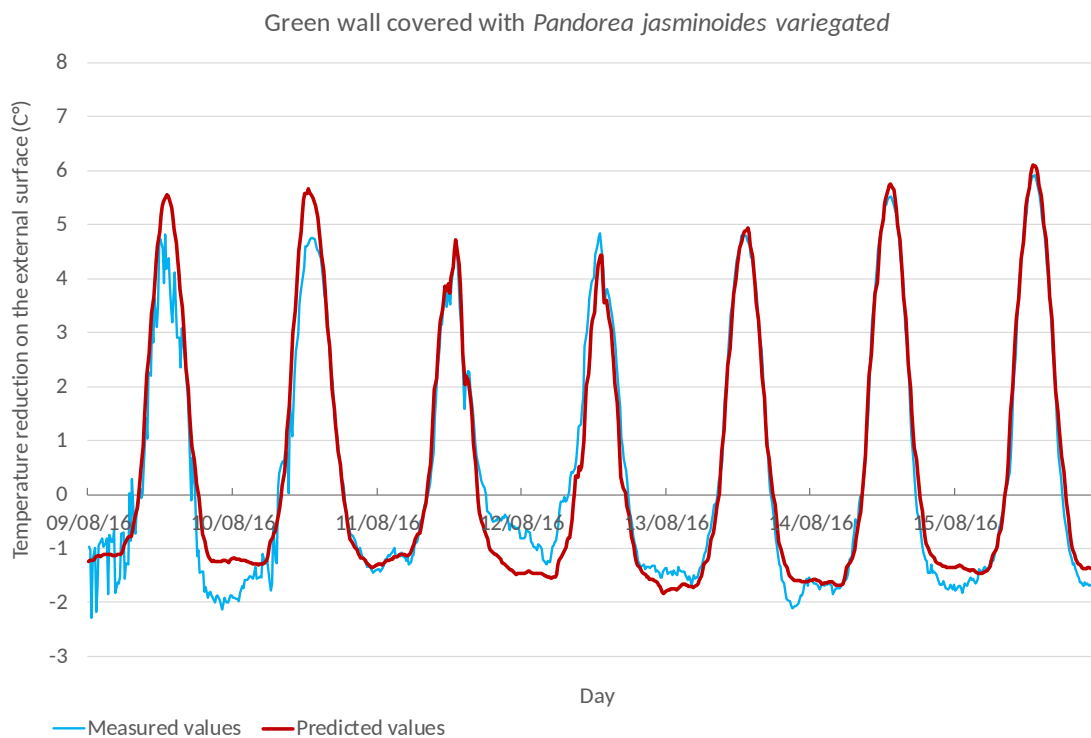
455 The predictive model was calibrated using the data recorded during summer 2015. The model
456 was used to simulate the difference between the surface temperatures of the walls during summer
457 2016. External air temperature and relative humidity, solar radiation, wind velocity and direction
458 were used as model input.

459 Figures 7-8 show the difference of the external surface temperature between the control wall
460 and the green walls, comparing the simulated values and the values measured at the experimental
461 field. The data concern 9-15 August 2016, a long period of clear sky.

462 As shown in Figure 7, the maximum difference between the external surface temperature of the
463 control wall and of the green wall covered with *Pandorea jasminoides variegated* was 6.10 °C and
464 5.92 °C for the simulated values and the measured values, respectively. The highest negative
465 difference between the external surface temperature of the control wall and of the green wall was
466 -1.83 °C and -2.29 °C for the simulated values and the measured values, respectively.

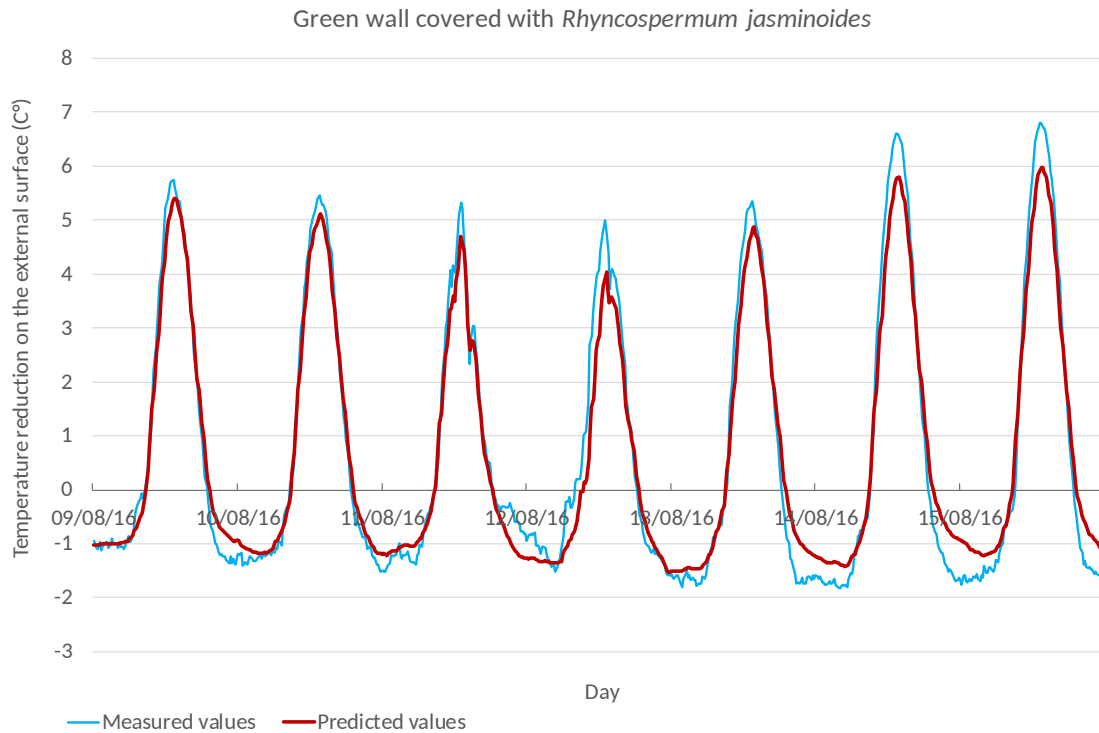
467 Concerning the *Rhynchospermum jasminoides* (Figure 8), the maximum difference between the
468 external surface temperature of the control wall and the green wall was 5.98 °C and 6.80 °C in the
469 case of the simulated values and of the measured values, respectively. The highest negative difference
470 between the external surface temperature of the control wall and of the green wall was
471 -1.52 °C and -1.83 °C for the simulated values and the measured values, respectively.

472



473 Figure 7: Difference of the external surface temperature between the control wall and the green wall
474 covered with *Pandorea jasminoides variegated*: simulated data and measured data at the
475 experimental field, 9-15/08/2016.

477



478

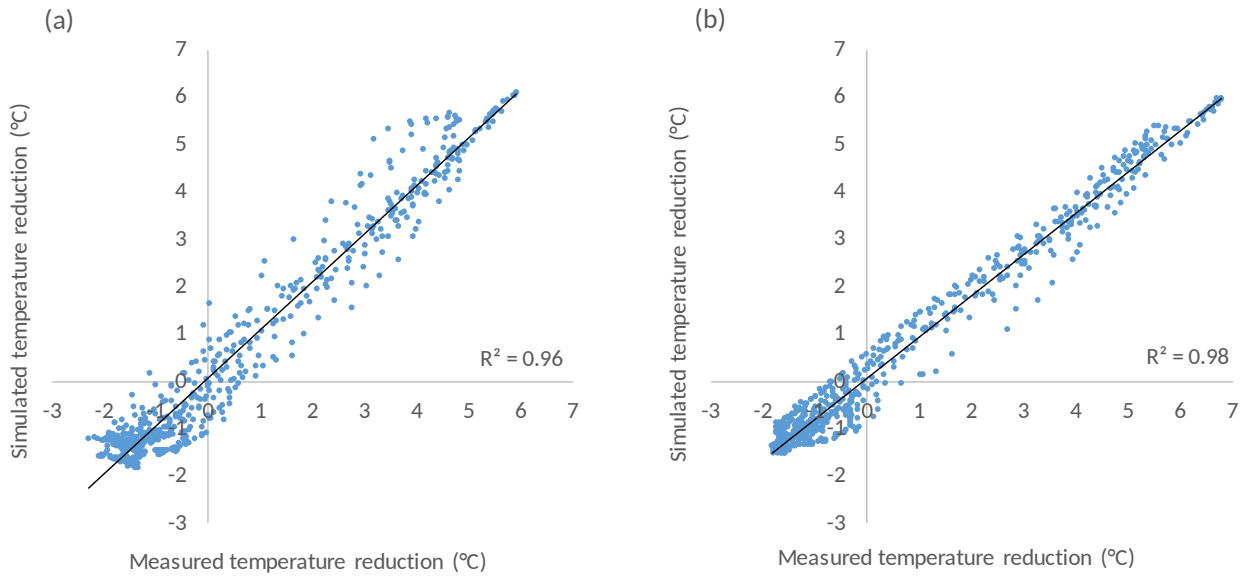
479 Figure 8: Difference of the external surface temperature between the control wall and the green wall
 480 covered with *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*: simulated data and measured data at the experimental
 481 field, 9-15/08/2016.

482

483 Figure 9 shows the correlation analyses for the simulated results and experimental results for
 484 the difference of the external surface temperature between the control wall and the green walls.
 485 Coefficients of determination (R^2) were 0.96 and 0.98 for the wall covered with *Pandorea*
 486 *jasminoides variegated* and the one covered with *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, respectively. For both
 487 cases, determination coefficients show a good agreement between simulated results and experimental
 488 results because they are approaching 1.

489 The simulated and experimental differences of temperature deviate by maximum 1.95 °C, with
 490 an average difference between the numerical predictions and the experimental measurements of 0.07
 491 °C and a standard deviation equal to 0.49 °C, for the wall covered with *Pandorea jasminoides*
 492 *variegated*. The simulated and experimental differences of temperature deviate by maximum 1.59 °C,
 493 with an average difference between the numerical predictions and the experimental measurements of
 494 -0.03 °C and a standard deviation equal to 0.46 °C, for the wall covered with *Rhynchospermum*
 495 *jasminoides*. The RMSE was 0.50 °C and 0.46 °C for the validation of the model regarding *Pandorea*
 496 *jasminoides variegated* and *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*, respectively. These values show the good
 497 agreement between the simulation results and the experimental measurements and are comparable
 498 with the results of the validation of the analytical models presented by Susorova et al. (2013), Djedjig
 499 at al. (2015), Scarpa et al. (2014), Dahanayake and Chow (2017), Suklje et al. (2019), He et al. (2017).

500



501

502 Figure 9: Comparison of simulated and experimental difference of the external surface
 503 temperature between the control wall and the wall covered with *Pandorea jasminoides variegated* (a)
 504 and *Rhynchospermum jasminoides* (b), 9-15/08/2016.

505

506 Susorova et al. (2013) studied the thermal effects of plants on heat fluxes through building
 507 external walls through a self-developed a mathematical model of a green façade. The model was
 508 experimentally validated taking into consideration a bare wall and a green façade with *P. tricuspidata*,
 509 south exposed, on a real building in Chicago, USA. The comparison of the measured and modelled
 510 exterior surface temperatures for the vegetated facades showed R^2 values equal to 0.96 on a sunny
 511 day and 0.86 on a cloudy day.

512 Djedjig at al. (2015) developed a green envelope model and integrated it into a building
 513 simulation software (TRNSYS). The results were validated through experimental comparisons during
 514 one summer month with an outdoor reduced scale building having a west-oriented green wall. The
 515 average difference between the numerical predictions and the experimental measurements of the
 516 green wall surface temperature during the month of august was 0.22 °C for the vegetated facade with
 517 a mean-root-square error of 1.42 °C.

518 Scarpa et al. (2014) developed a living wall mathematical model that was able to account for
 519 different features of living walls. The model validation was carried out through comparison with field
 520 measurements assessed during a summer and a winter week on two different kinds of living walls,
 521 one with closed air cavity and grass and the other one with open air cavity and a vertical garden. The
 522 maximum difference between the simulated and the field data of the external surface temperature of
 523 the living wall during the summer week was 1.0 °C. The RMSE for the living wall with the open air
 524 cavity was 1.1 and 0.4 during the summer and winter validation period, respectively. The RMSE was
 525 0.5 during both the summer and winter validation period, for the living wall with the closed air cavity.

526 A self-developed mathematical model integrated into EnergyPlus building simulation program
 527 was used by Dahanayake and Chow (2017) for analysing the impact of living walls on building energy
 528 performance. The simulation results regarding the exterior surface temperature were validated against
 529 two experimental studies carried out on living walls in a summer month and in the period June-
 530 September respectively. The agreement of simulated results with experiment results was assessed by

531 means of a correlation analysis showing R^2 values of 0.88 and 0.80 for each experimental study,
532 respectively.

533 Suklje et al. (2019) proposed a modelling approach that considers the vertical greenery system
534 as a homogeneous layer with apparent thermo-physical properties. The model was validated on the
535 period July-August against the data that were generated for an indirect green façade in summer
536 conditions by using a validated thermal response model, for vertical green systems, developed in a
537 previous study (Suklje et al. 2016). It was shown that outer surface temperature of the building
538 envelope differs by maximum ± 1.1 °C, with standard deviation equal to 0.3 °C, from the calculated
539 data.

540 He et al. (2017) investigated the thermal performance of living wall system by developing a
541 coupled heat and moisture transfer model. Model output parameters were compared with field data,
542 measured in a summer and a winter week, in order to validate the accuracy of the model. The analysis
543 on the exterior surface temperature of living wall structure layer showed an RMSE of 0.15 °C both
544 in summer and winter conditions.

545
546

547 4. CONCLUSION

548 Building design requires nowadays the use of energy performance simulation models. A
549 predictive model for the estimation of the difference of temperature between an uncovered wall and
550 vegetated walls was developed. External climate conditions were used as predictors and input of the
551 model: external air temperature and relative humidity, horizontal and vertical solar radiation, wind
552 velocity and direction. The data measured in the summer 2015 were used to build the model, data
553 were grouped in 5 solar radiation slots in order to facilitate the interpretation of the predictive models.
554 The developed overall model refers to green façades covered with *Pandorea jasminoides variegated*
555 and *Rhynchospermum jasminoides*.

556 The model was validated by comparing the data of the surface temperatures measured in the
557 summer 2016 with the data obtained by the model, using the climatic data of 2016 as model input.
558 The validation showed good results with coefficients of determination (R^2) higher than 0.96. A
559 maximum standard deviation equal to 0.49 °C between the numerical predictions and the
560 measurements was recorded for the difference of temperature between the uncovered and the
561 vegetated walls.

562 The research showed that the model can be used for the prediction of the thermal benefits of
563 the green façades in the Mediterranean area during summer, by adopting a new dataset of weather
564 conditions. The results indicate that in early design phases the statistical models can be a valid
565 substitute of the energy simulation models for buildings characterized by constructive characteristics
566 typical of this Mediterranean area.

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