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# 1     **Structural characterisation of adaptive facades in Europe - Part II: validity of** 2     **conventional experimental testing methods and key issues**

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## 6     **Abstract**

7     Given their intrinsic features, adaptive facades are required to strictly satisfy rigid structural performances, in  
8     addition to typical insulation, thermal and energy requirements. These include a minimum of safety and  
9     serviceability levels under ordinary design loads, durability, robustness, fire resistance, capacity to sustain  
10    severe seismic events or other natural hazards, etc. The overall design process of adaptive facades may  
11    include further challenges and uncertainties especially in the case of complex assemblies, where even  
12    multiple combinations of material-related phenomena, kinematic effects, geometrical and mechanical  
13    characteristics could take place. In this context, experimental testing at the component and / or at the  
14    full-scale assembly level has a fundamental role, to prove that all the expected performance parameters are  
15    properly fulfilled.

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1 Several standards and guideline documents are available in the literature, and provide recommendations and  
2 procedures in support of conventional testing approaches for the certification and performance assessment of  
3 facades. These documents, however, are specifically focused on ordinary, static envelopes, and no provisions  
4 are given for the experimental testing of dynamic, adaptive skins. In this regard, it is hence expected that a  
5 minimum of conventional experimental procedures may be directly extended from static to dynamic facades.  
6 However, the validity of standardized procedures for adaptive skins is still an open issue. Novel and specific  
7 experimental approaches are then necessarily required, to assess the structural characteristics of adaptive  
8 facades, depending on their properties and on the design detailing.

9 In this paper, existing fundamental standards for testing traditional facades are first recalled and commented.  
10 Special care is spent for the validity and reliability of conventional testing methods for innovative, adaptive  
11 envelopes, including a discussion on selected experimental methods for facade components and systems.  
12 Non-conventional testing procedures which may be useful for adaptive skins are then also discussed in the  
13 paper, as resulting from the research efforts of the European COST Action TU1403 'Adaptive facades  
14 network' - 'Structural' Task Group.

15  
16 **Keywords:** adaptive facades, structural performance parameters, metrics, experimental testing, experimental  
17 facilities, testing methods

18

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Next generation of building enclosures are complex adaptive systems combining high-tech components and  
3 latest technology achievements. This might involve the use of smart materials and kinematic mechanisms,  
4 which make them able to respond to transient loading and boundary conditions in order to improve the  
5 overall building performance (see for example [1-3]). Although current numerical tools allow for extensive  
6 investigation of the structural performance of adaptive facades at different levels, as also discussed in [1], the  
7 ultimate verification of performance criteria required by building regulations and standards might involve  
8 dedicated experimental testing procedures.

9 The performance of a building's facade greatly determines the satisfaction of occupants, with regard to  
10 perceived serviceability and some extent safety in operational conditions (see [4-6], etc.). The basic  
11 requirements of a given facade, in this context, cover different aspects that should be properly combined,  
12 being mostly related to airtightness, water-permeability, fire resistance and overall structural performance [7,  
13 8].

14 Given such a final goal, the existing standards and guideline documents for testing facades specify a set of  
15 minimum performance requirements to satisfy, with detailed provisions for systems tested in laboratory  
16 conditions or outdoor environment, respectively. The purpose of testing could be to prove the fulfilment of  
17 specific preconditions, but also to prove the compliance with some strict requirements, thereby highlighting  
18 superior performance of the tested facade. Testing of facades might be also requested by the end user (i.e.,  
19 builder, consulting engineer, etc.), or by an approving authority (i.e., a local or state government body).

20 The performance assessment of a given facade as a whole, in this regard, can be carried out in an  
21 experimental facility or on site, after installation. During laboratory testing, a mock-up is built mimicking a  
22 certain part of the facade (i.e., using the same materials and dimensions as to be constructed in the real  
23 project). The exposures applied at mock-up testing usually represent extreme loading conditions, that during  
24 the building lifetime could lead the system to failure. Testing on site, on the other hand, typically focuses on  
25 the identification of spots with insufficient performance, due to fabrication and/or installation errors. The

1 exposure levels are typically lower than mock-up testing. For adaptive facades, this approach includes the  
2 check of proper functionality, for all the adaptive features.

3 In both the cases, the testing configuration should include all the relevant details for the required  
4 performance assessment, thus a certain flexibility in conventional methods and procedures may be expected  
5 for innovative skins. For example, during experimental testing of the watertightness of a given facade, the  
6 specimen should properly include joints, corners and all the assembly details that could be relevant. A  
7 specific range of static and / or cyclic water pressures is typically of interest to assess the ability of the facade  
8 to avoid water penetrating the building, due to i.e. heavy precipitation. Joint detailing is relevant also for  
9 structural performance assessment of the same facade, but the key boundary/loading configuration of interest  
10 should be properly detected, case by case.

11 The structural performance is in fact commonly associated to the resistance assessment of cladding elements  
12 and connections to the super-structure, against wind loads. However, especially for adaptive facades, more  
13 other issues might also be relevant. The reference wind pressure for design and testing, in this regard, mainly  
14 dependent on the geographical location of the system, but also on the dimensions and on the shape of the full  
15 building. Cladding elements need not only withstand wind loads, but also stay in place with limited  
16 deformations, and possibly null damage. The reliable determination of the limit deformations for adaptive  
17 facades – given the possible presence of moving and/or flexible components – might not be obvious, and in  
18 counterpart could represent a limit of the expected adaptive performances, or in any case be difficult to  
19 satisfy.

20 As far as the airtightness is taken into account, the expected air leakage through the facade (i.e., of primary  
21 interest for energy efficiency and acoustics) must be properly measured, as a function of a given static  
22 pressure. The volume of air leak is then compared with the allowable volume, which is generally provided by  
23 standards for conventional claddings. Fire resistance testing, in addition, is carried out using full scale  
24 mock-ups and typically focuses on reaction to fire of materials and fire spread in the facade system. Impact  
25 and blast load scenarios, finally, should be properly addressed, via test setup configurations able to capture

1 the expected structural dynamics of a given system, at the assembly but also at the component and material  
2 levels.

3 This paper follows and extends the discussion reported in [1], with a specific focus on experimental testing  
4 issues. The document, in particular, first collects some key standard provisions for conventional testing the  
5 performance of conventional facades, with a discussion of adaptive skins (Sections 2 and 3). In addition to  
6 standardized testing methods in use for static facades, a selection of experimental approaches is then  
7 proposed in Section 4, for some key facade components / loading conditions of primary interest for adaptive  
8 systems. As far as the structural performance of dynamic facades must be satisfied under a variability of  
9 multiple parameters (including variations in materials, boundaries, loads, activation systems, etc.), careful  
10 consideration and even unconventional testing approaches may be required, depending on the actual case.  
11 Finally, Section 5 briefly emphasizes the role of certified facilities for adaptive facades.

12

## 13 **2. Relevant standards for the experimental assessment of facades**

### 14 **2.1 Available standards for conventional facades**

15 When conventional facades needs to be experimentally assessed, standardized approaches are available to  
16 investigate their key performances regarding protection of the occupants, namely insulation to external  
17 conditions, on one side, and structural safety and efficiency, on the other side.

18 Within the European Economic area (EEA), all the products with a CE marking have a proved conformity  
19 with the relevant EU standards. Moreover, this allows free movement and sale of those products within the  
20 EEA, regardless of where they are manufactured. The most relevant standard for facades (with a specific  
21 focus on the typology of curtain walls) is certainly the EN 13830 ‘Curtain walling - Product standard’, see [9]  
22 and Section 2.2. Another relevant document is ETAG 034 ‘Guideline for European Technical Approval of  
23 Kits for External Wall Claddings’ [10], issued by European Organisation for Technical Approvals (EOTA).  
24 ETAG documents are issued and applied when product standards do not cover some specific areas. In  
25 addition to specific standards for facades, they have to also fulfil general harmonized requirements for

1 construction products in Europe including mechanical resistance and stability, safety in case of fire, hygiene,  
2 health, protection against noise, energy and sustainable use of natural resources [11].

3 The EN 13830, more in detail, specifies different sub-tests and procedures for a facade performance  
4 classification by experimental testing. The main test procedure according to EN 13830 includes air  
5 permeability, watertightness (static conditions), wind load serviceability / resistance, air permeability, water  
6 vapour permeability, thermal transmittance, airborne sound insulation (see a selected example in Figure  
7 1(a)).

8



(a)



*Pre-test**Detonation**Post-test*

(b)

1 **Figure 1.** Example of experiments on conventional facades: (a) dynamic water penetration test (figure  
2 reproduced with permission from [12]) and (b) blast arena testing (reproduced from [13]).  
3

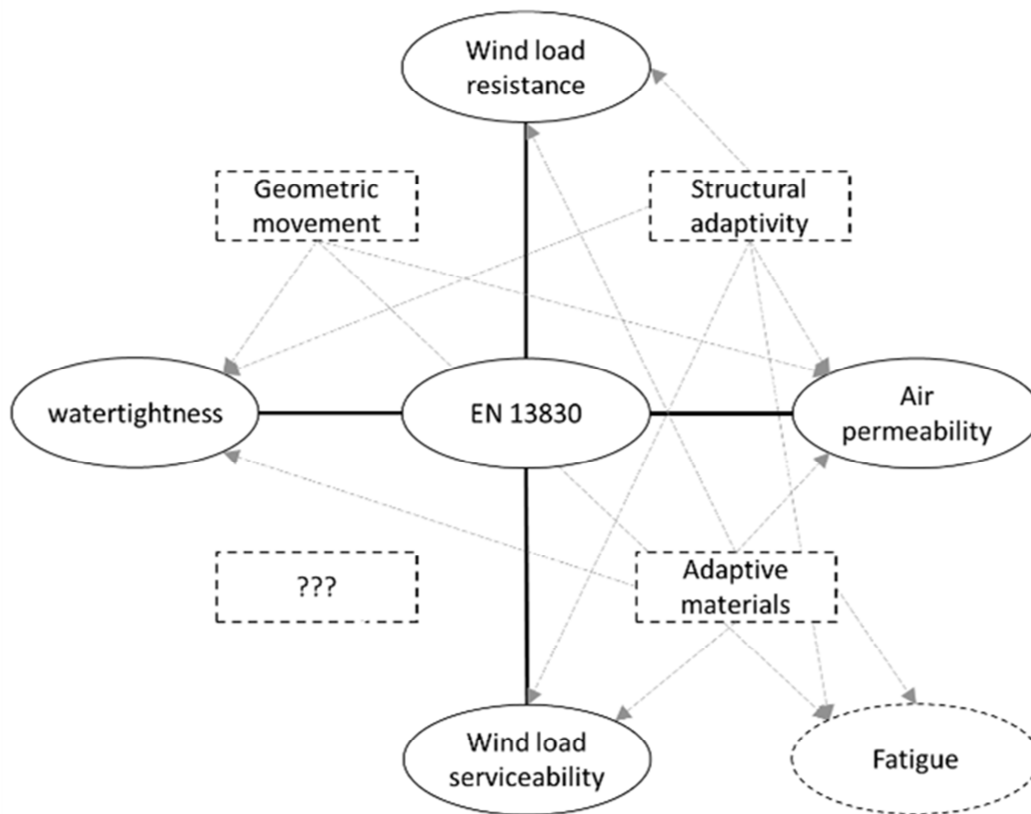


1 The reference experimental procedure has to be performed in one run, for the facade classification. The basic  
 2 assumption is that the facade performance is addressed in reliable operational conditions, rather in an ideal  
 3 laboratory setup. Moreover, the real scale test element often includes all the typical installation tolerances.  
 4 Conventional test methods according to EN 13830 regulations are summarized in Table 1.  
 5 For adaptive facades, however, the actual relation (and hence the possible interference) between separate  
 6 testing methods in use for curtain walls still needs to be assessed.  
 7 Adaptive facades might in fact change material properties, surface conditions, shapes and forms, local or  
 8 global structural characteristics or other relevant features as a reaction to external phenomena (see also [1]).  
 9 Therefore, also the expected performance of dynamic claddings (i.e., in terms of deflection, air tightness,  
 10 water permeability, etc.) could modify within a specific scenario, and possibly do not fulfil the conventional  
 11 requests of standardized test procedures. In accordance with Figure 2 and [18], different intrinsic adaptive  
 12 features for a given skin can influence one or more test parameters. The figure indicates possible interactions  
 13 between adaptive features and relevant key performance parameters. It is also clear that an adaptive material,  
 14 component or assembly - depending on the specific properties and behavioural trends - could have different  
 15 classifications, for each one of the adaptive states of the overall performance.

16  
 17 **Table 1.** Test methods for curtain walls, based on EN 13830 regulations.

<b>Test method</b>	<b>Reference standard</b>
Air permeability	EN 12153 [14]
Resistance to wind load	EN 12179 [15]
Watertightness	EN 12155 [16]
EN 13050 dynamic	EN 1027 [17]

18



1

2 **Figure 2.** Influence diagram for testing adaptive facades, in accordance with existing EN 13830 regulations  
 3 for curtain walls (reproduced from [18]).

4

5

6 An additional challenge arises when further key performance parameters for facades (i.e., thermal shock  
 7 resistance, seismic resistance, watertightness under dynamic conditions, blast resistance (see for example  
 8 Figure 1(b)), etc.) may be required for specific systems, even if not included in the base reference procedure  
 9 for certification.

10 ETAG 034, for example, states requirements accompanied by corresponding test methods in fields of  
 11 mechanical resistance and stability, safety in case of fire, hygiene, health and environment, safety in use,  
 12 protection against noise, energy economy and heat retention, aspects of durability and serviceability.

13 From the point of view of the structure's reliability, the ETAG 034 regulation document defines a number of  
 14 mechanical tests of claddings. There is also a method prescribed for evaluating test results in order to obtain

1 characteristic value for structural design, i.e., breaking force. This method is in accordance with EN 1990  
2 where principles for design based on experiments are given too. The characteristic value is defined as an  
3 estimation of 5% quantile (with 75% confidence) and its value is also dependent on the number of available  
4 results and the standard deviation. Therefore, experimental determination of the characteristic value may lead  
5 to a relatively large number of testing specimens in some cases. Both normal and lognormal distributions can  
6 be used. The design value based on testing is equal to the characteristic value divided by the partial safety  
7 factor of given material. These principles shall be met even in the case of adaptable facades.

8 It is certainly clear that these standards and procedures are specifically developed for conventional, static  
9 facades. On the other hand, the definition of reliable standard testing procedures for a facade that can be  
10 intended as an adaptive, moveable, dynamic, kinetic, responsive, switchable, interactive, etc., system, is  
11 neither feasible nor promising. Therefore, the applicability of standardized testing approaches and the  
12 reference loading / boundary conditions to assess must be necessarily examined case-by-case. In addition,  
13 any possible negative correlation between a certain adaptive behaviour and several performance criteria  
14 should be also taken into account. For example, if a facade changes the form due to wind load, it is possible  
15 that joints could offer lower air permeability or water-tightness, hence requiring careful attention for  
16 assessment purposes. Additional special care, in this regard, should be spent for dynamic adaptive systems  
17 under extreme loads, including both accidental events, human-induced extreme loads, natural hazards, etc.

## 18 19 **2.2 Feasibility of standardized tests for the assessment of adaptive facades**

20 To achieve the CE marking and based on the existing regulations, a given curtain wall must conventionally  
21 fulfil the EN 13830 test procedure. The recommended testing methods are specifically dedicated to curtain  
22 walls that – in the form of building envelopes – are not expected to contribute to the load-bearing or  
23 stability of the main building structures, and could be replaced independently, when required. The reference  
24 test sample, in this regard, should be representative for the chosen product family, assumed that this sample  
25 contains the less favourable combination of features. The standard test ‘procedure A’ is as follows: air

1 tightness test, water tightness test, serviceability wind load, air tightness test, water tightness test, ultimate  
 2 wind load. The ‘procedure B’ has an additionally test cycle for earthquake resistance.  
 3 Testing of adaptive facades is, in some simple cases, feasible with this standard. Facades with windows,  
 4 doors or shading devices can be seen as adaptive. However, in the case of external shading devices (as slat  
 5 blinds or fabric blinds) they are not an explicit part of the curtain wall testing and underlie EN 1932 [19] and  
 6 others. Technically, the reason might be that conventional external blinds do not affect the facade  
 7 performance. However, due to the representability of the test sample, external blind casings should be  
 8 mounted and are passively part of the tightness testing. For windows and doors, there is another relevant  
 9 product standard, namely the EN 14351-1 standard [20]. Thus, facades with openable windows / doors can  
 10 be considered as simple adaptive facades which underlie two air tightness standards. Therefore, the test  
 11 procedure for air tightness is considered as follows:

- 12 1) Measurement of facility air leakage  $Q_c$  (facade sample fully sealed);
- 13 2) Facade leakage measurement  $Q_{fc}$  (openable joints still sealed);
- 14 3) Measurement of total leakage, after that openable elements have been opened for five times  $Q_{tc}$ .

15  
 16 This gives the leakage for the facade  $Q_f$  (EN 12153 [14]) and for the window / door  $Q_j$  (EN1026 [21])  
 17 respectively, where:

$$18 \quad Q_f = Q_{fc} - Q_c \quad (1)$$

$$19 \quad Q_j = Q_{tc} - Q_{fc} \quad (2)$$

20  
 21 and  $Q_c$ ,  $Q_{tc}$ ,  $Q_{fc}$  are defined above.

22 These are two simple examples of adaptive facades tested according EN 13830. Undoubtedly, this is not  
 23 what we typically consider as adaptive facades, on the other hand, it gives a hint how to handle adaptive  
 24 facades when a CE marking is required. The thoughts previously summarised, in particular, should be taken  
 25 into account when adaptive facade testing is carried out. As the current example shows, there are two ways  
 26 to deal with adaptive features in testing, namely: (a) neglect it if no mutual influence is anticipated, or (b) the

1 performance is covered by other standards. However, possible negative interactions should be properly  
2 investigated, since not covered by standards and, if needed, additional tests should be performed.

3

### 4 **3. Testing the structural performance of adaptive facade systems**

#### 5 **3.1 Experimental testing during system development**

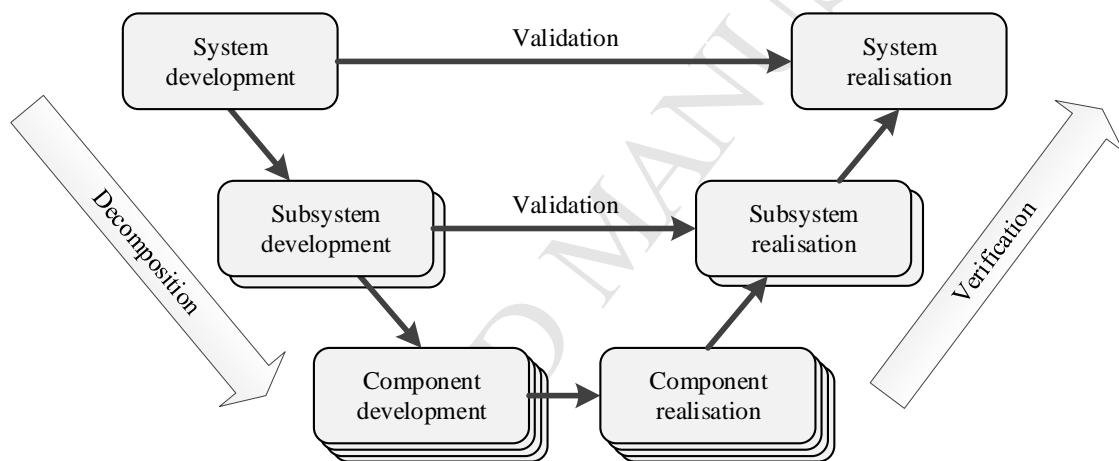
6 The evaluation of the structural performance when developing an adaptive facade concept is a complex task,  
7 since due to its adaptive nature, the loads acting on the building envelop and the way they are transferred to  
8 the building skeleton can vary depending on the circumstances. This leads to complications regarding testing  
9 of the performance, since standardized testing methods might not be applicable directly and a holistic  
10 approach might be needed. The experimental testing should provide relevant information about the  
11 performance of individual components, but also about the system as a whole. Therefore, various  
12 experimental setups might be required, such as testing at component, sub-system and system level to obtain  
13 useful information concerning all relevant aspects of the expected structural response of the facade during its  
14 service life.

15 The structural behaviour of adaptive facade components is greatly affected by the way they are attached to  
16 the main building frame. Sometimes, the joints need to accommodate significant strains or are subjected to  
17 cyclic loading and can consequently accumulate damage. Consideration for local failure phenomena in these  
18 sensitive parts is hence important, when assessing the performance of the facade as a whole. Furthermore,  
19 movable elements need to be secured to the system and prevented from falling out, even in case of  
20 unforeseen circumstances. Thus, considerations of structural integrity and robustness are highly important  
21 for adaptive facades and scenarios of exceptional situations such as i.e. extreme winds, explosions and  
22 impacts might be important.

23 Adaptive facades are complex systems with a complicated set of requirements. To deal with verification of  
24 such requirements through testing the top-level design specifications can be propagated down to various  
25 subsystem and component levels in a consistent and efficient way as shown in case of a facade development

1 project by Flansbjer et al. [22]. This process is often supported by numerical modelling, using i.e. the Finite  
 2 Element method, to simulate different testing configurations and study the effect of changing various design  
 3 parameters.

4 During the facade system development, desirable targets of structural performance are identified together  
 5 with other aspects such as architectural, functional, structural, economic, environmental etc. These structural  
 6 performance goals are then broken down into verifiable structural requirements concerning component  
 7 behaviour, material and connection characteristics. With this the tasks for testing those characteristics are  
 8 defined and the structural performance is validated following a bottom-up approach (Figure 3).



10  
 11 **Figure 3.** Facade system structural performance validation through testing (figure adapted from [22]).

12  
 13 The validation through testing is typically and naturally builds upon standardised testing procedures since  
 14 construction product manufacturers, testing institutes and authorities are familiar with those methods.  
 15 Reasonable modification of standard tests is, however, often needed to study specific questions related to the  
 16 performance of adaptive facades.

17

### 1 3.2 Structural adaptivity for testing

2 Structural adaptivity is beyond traditional structural engineering, which typically deals with systems in static  
3 and dynamic equilibrium. In a structurally adaptivity system the equilibrium might change gradually  
4 involving large deformations and movements. The system is thus often a mechanism where the stiffness, the  
5 geometry or the external forces are controlled either ‘manually’ or ‘automatically’. ‘Manually’ and  
6 ‘automatically’ here refers to the extent the structural response to the changes in the environment is  
7 regulated.

8 From a pure structural point of view, adaptive facade systems can take several forms, involving different  
9 combinations of materials and kinetic mechanisms. More in detail, extreme conditions could derive from  
10 exceptional design loads (i.e., impact, fire, natural hazards, etc.), but also from an unsafe geometrical /  
11 mechanical variation of restraints (activation systems).

12 In this sense, the actual lack of specific regulations for ‘general’ adaptivity forms, makes it also difficult to  
13 make a clear distinction between structural testing methods, procedures and tasks for the same systems.

14 Generally speaking, for a given adaptive facade, testing should first focus on selected regions/components  
15 which are representative of the most common (and/or most critical) elements of the full building envelope.

16 As such, this selection is strictly related to the complexity of a given detail / assembly, or to the condition  
17 under and frequency at this component /assembly is expected to move / deform [23].

18 Further difficulties related to the structural performance assessment by testing (compared to conventional  
19 facades) can arise when specific Ultimate Limit State (ULS) and Service Limit State (SLS) performances  
20 should be ensured for a given adaptive system. In the majority of the cases, adaptive skins result from  
21 free-form design, complex technical solutions and multiple kinematics. Field testing, finally, should always  
22 include accurate investigations at the facade-to-substructure interface. In Table 2, some suggestions are  
23 provided. However, given the relatively high number of possibilities for adaptiveness (including adaptive  
24 features and control strategies), it would be impossible to make a comprehensive list.

1 **Table 2.** Examples of performance parameters for the structural characterisation of adaptive facades by  
 2 testing (recommendations from the EU-COST TU1403 ‘Structural’ Task). Specific configuration definitions  
 3 are reported in [1].

<b>Performance parameter</b>	<b>Configuration to assess</b>	<b>Testing recommended at:</b> F= full-scale / assembly level S = small-scale / single component level
<i>Structural behaviour</i>	Active cable length control and active cable prestress control through mechanical actuators, for cable-stayed facades to optimise material use (depending on the loading conditions)	F+S
	Shape memory alloys (with increased temperature the mechanical properties of a cable change => higher stiffness, higher prestress)	F+S
	High-strength thin glass (flexibility combined with high-strength)	F+S
	Fatigue of moving components / materials (depending on the expected design loads)	S
<i>Safety (ULS)</i>	Reinforcement that acts in the event of damage/overload	F
<i>Flexibility (SLS)</i>	Maximum deformations deriving from service design loads should not exceed a certain reference limit	F
<i>Safety under extreme actions / hazards (fire, explosions, seismic events, hurricanes, flooding, etc.)</i>	In case of hurricane (solid) solar shutters could close to protect the facade and (more importantly) the building occupants. These shutters are hence intended as sacrificial components.	F+S
	Fire shutters integrated in the facade in the event of fire	F
	Foam interlayers/paints that respond/act in the event of fire.	F
	Inflatable barriers or shutters, in case of flooding (to a certain water level, i.e. 50cm)	F
	Airbags for facades	F
	Fuses / shock absorbers / dampers, in case of explosion or seismic action	F+S
	Use of the whole facade as a sacrificial layer / shock absorber / energy dissipator	F+S
<i>Durability</i>	Self-healing materials, such as self-healing concrete	F+S
	Quick / cheap retrofitting of facades or facade elements through 3D printing technologies (regularly update your facade by cheap 3D printed polymer components that may deteriorate structurally much quicker than conventional materials such as aluminium, but at the same time being able to respond to the latest requirements/regulations)	F+S
	Fatigue of moving components/materials (depending on the expected design loads)	F+S

4



1 The key aspect in Table 2 is that – for structural purposes – the safe performance of a given adaptive skin  
2 may require a different number and / or type of experiments, both at the component and at the assembly level.  
3 At the same time, from Table 2, it is possible to notice that the required experimental method can be different  
4 for a given dynamic skin (when the building class of use, or design load modifies), also in presence of  
5 similar mechanical features. In other words, the basic structural requirements that an adaptive façade needs  
6 to fulfil to provide appropriate reliability levels from both a human safety and economic perspective can  
7 involve different experimental methods (even non-conventional), depending on the source and typology of  
8 adaptivity.

9 As also discussed in [1], adaptive facades are not standard assemblies and their performance is hardly  
10 tangible by out of-the-box testing procedures. On the other hand, there are established tests to claim  
11 compliance with essential structural requirements, therefore a holistic approach has to be applied. This could  
12 be done by an agreement among the customer, manufacturers of components and testing laboratory regarding  
13 declaration of the adaptive facade performance and selection of standards to be applied or adjusted. In some  
14 cases, the development of additional and unique tests is a major part in adaptive facade design.

15 For example, thinking about out-of-plane movement of adaptive facades, there could be joints that allow  
16 water to penetrate without impact to water-tightness; however, water could remain and enclosed when the  
17 facade moves back its original shape. The movable parts of adaptive facades can also affect their lifetime  
18 with regard to the possible cyclic load and fatigue of individual parts. Experimental verification of the  
19 durability and reliability will always require individually designed test procedures. Also, under wind loads,  
20 moving parts can cause changes in airflow, especially in the case of high-rise buildings which may require  
21 subsequent verification of the building model behaviour in the wind tunnel. Marutaa et al. [24], in this regard,  
22 reported experimental data for a model in 1/300 scale of a high-rise house (square section, 75m the height).  
23 There, it was shown that wind pressure effects are strongly affected by the surface roughness, particularly  
24 near the leading edge of the side walls, where local severe peak pressures are expected to decrease with  
25 increasing roughness. The latter, in fact, can reduce the development of conical vortices occurring at the  
26 extreme regions (i.e., lower and higher parts) of buildings.

1 Regarding existing standards and test procedures, the experimental testing of adaptive facades could be  
2 consequently a challenging task. There are probably various options to customize test facilities to the  
3 adaptive behaviour. Therefore, a careful preparation and a lot of ‘what if’-thinking is the key factor for  
4 satisfactory adaptive facade tests.

5

#### 6 **4. Selected experimental testing methods of facade components and systems**

7 Beside the recommended testing procedures – actually in use for the certification and classification of  
8 conventional facades (see also Section 2) – the innovativeness of adaptive skins often requires the use of  
9 dedicated testing methods. These could result from the use of special / unconventional construction materials,  
10 as well as from the presence of time-varying boundaries (i.e., due to kinematic mechanisms, or degradation  
11 of material properties, etc.), as well as extreme design loads, where the adaptiveness of novel skins may lead  
12 to critical performances, compared to static facades. While the certification testing procedures are limited to  
13 selected performance parameters assessment, in this regard, experimental testing may involve novel loading  
14 configurations, measurement techniques, etc. The following sections, in this regard, are aimed at providing a  
15 general view on the potential and reliability of experimental methods for adaptive facades, with specific  
16 attention for structural performance aspects.

#### 17 **4.1 Testing of mechanical connections**

18 Regardless of whether it is a conventional or an adaptive facade, today's design is characterized by a variety  
19 of building materials. Besides ordinary steel or wooden components and glass panes, a wide range of  
20 structural facade components exists. These can be made of plastics, textiles, transparent foils or single layer  
21 polymer membrane, or a multitude of sandwich structures that are characterized by the interaction of  
22 different materials. In all these possible configurations, a key role is assigned to mechanical connections and  
23 joints, allowing the physical interaction and even complex dynamic performance of multiple facade  
24 components. Contemporary architecture, in fact, does not limit the use of materials or surface finishes,  
25 resulting in relatively large variability of materials and their joints. In most cases, however - especially when

1 using glass or non-conventional materials - there are no guidelines or standard procedures for the appropriate  
2 experimental verification of joints.

3 Requirements for the aesthetic appearance of buildings limit the use of individual types of mechanical  
4 fasteners which are indispensable either for connections of single components to a supporting structure, or to  
5 one component to another. For example, there is a trend in the last 30 years to maximize transparency in case  
6 of glass facades and reduce the size of glass supports and visibility of connections. Screws with a  
7 countersunk head or welds are often used, thus the surface of the facade cladding remain smooth without any  
8 disruption by the raised heads of bolted supports. New promising developments in adhesively bonded  
9 connections for civil engineering applications provides new possibilities for facade connections and in the  
10 same time associated problems such as durability and long-term mechanical properties.

11 Procedures for the design and experimental verification of common mechanical fasteners used for the  
12 connection of steel, thin-walled cold-formed profiles or wooden framing members are given in the relevant  
13 European standards, see for example the EN 1990, or EN 1993-1-1 [25] and EN 1995-1-1 [26]. The ETAG  
14 034 also states requirements on an external cladding, mechanically fastened to a frame and specifies  
15 corresponding test methods and procedures in the fields of mechanical resistance and stability, safety in case  
16 of fire, hygiene, health and environment, safety in use, protection against noise, energy economy and heat  
17 retention, aspects of durability and serviceability [11]. In the case of the design of structural glass pane  
18 connections [27], normative documents or rules for their experimental verification are not yet available.

19 Bolted connections for glass applications have been used in a wide variety for decades due to requirements  
20 on minimal visual impact. Their design is based on the experience from practice and the results of  
21 experimental testing. Bolted connections generate high local stresses because of the bolt is subjected to shear  
22 forces, whereas the connected members are locally subjected to compressive stress at the location of contact  
23 with the bolt and tensile stresses on side of the bolt hole. In the case of brittle materials such as glass, the  
24 material is unable to accommodate local stress concentrations by yielding such as elasto-plastic materials,  
25 and it represents the major problem of bolted connections for brittle materials. Through the years of  
26 application of bolted connections for facades, the protruded bolt connection was evolved further in

1 countersunk fixing that uses conical holes and bolts to resist out-of-plane loading and obtain smooth external  
2 surface without any protrusions. Relatively recently developed articulated bolts, which includes a ball and  
3 socket, allows free rotation of the facade panel and reduce stress concentrations [28].  
4 Countersunk bolts can be embedded during the lamination process of laminated glass panels where interlayer  
5 creates an adhesive bond between glass plates and a metal component of the bolt. Embedded countersunk  
6 bolts for laminated glass panes can be used as an alternative to the conventional bolted connections, however,  
7 their use is limited due to the lack of knowledge about the behaviour under the short / long-term loading and  
8 fatigue. Embedded countersunk bolts for laminated glass were recently experimentally tested at the Czech  
9 Technical University (CTU) in Prague, see Figure 4(a). The typical failure pattern is shown in Figures 4(b)  
10 and (c), where the embedded metal part was first delaminated from the glass pane, together with the  
11 propagation of several small bubbles around it, while subsequently the failure of glass followed.

12

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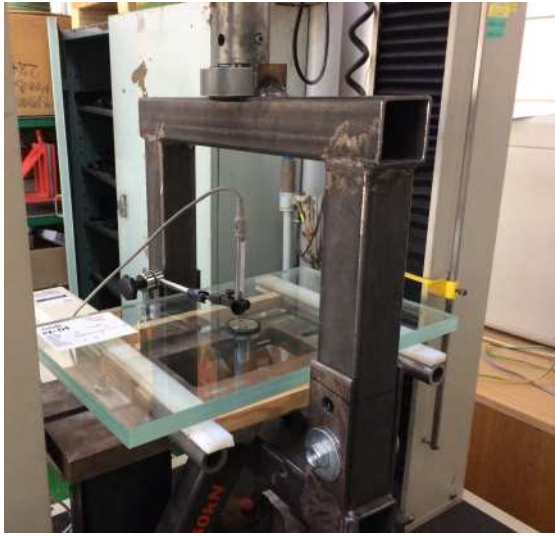
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(a)



(b)



(c)

**Figure 4.** Pull-out test for an embedded countersunk bolt. (a) Test set-up; (b) delamination of the bolt head and bubbles around the bolt head; (c) failure of the glass pane with the hole for the countersunk bolt.

## 1    **4.2    Testing of adhesive joints**

2    Requirements for the aesthetic appearance of buildings, together with a more uniform stress distribution,  
3    generally lead to different types of connection, for both conventional claddings or adaptive facades.  
4    Adhesive connections, in this regard, provide a number of advantages such as a more uniform stress  
5    distribution along the connection (as a function of the adhesive stiffness and joint geometry), joining  
6    dissimilar materials, including further positive aspects like low weight of the load-bearing components,  
7    smooth surface of the cladding elements and a marked reduction of local thermal bridges.

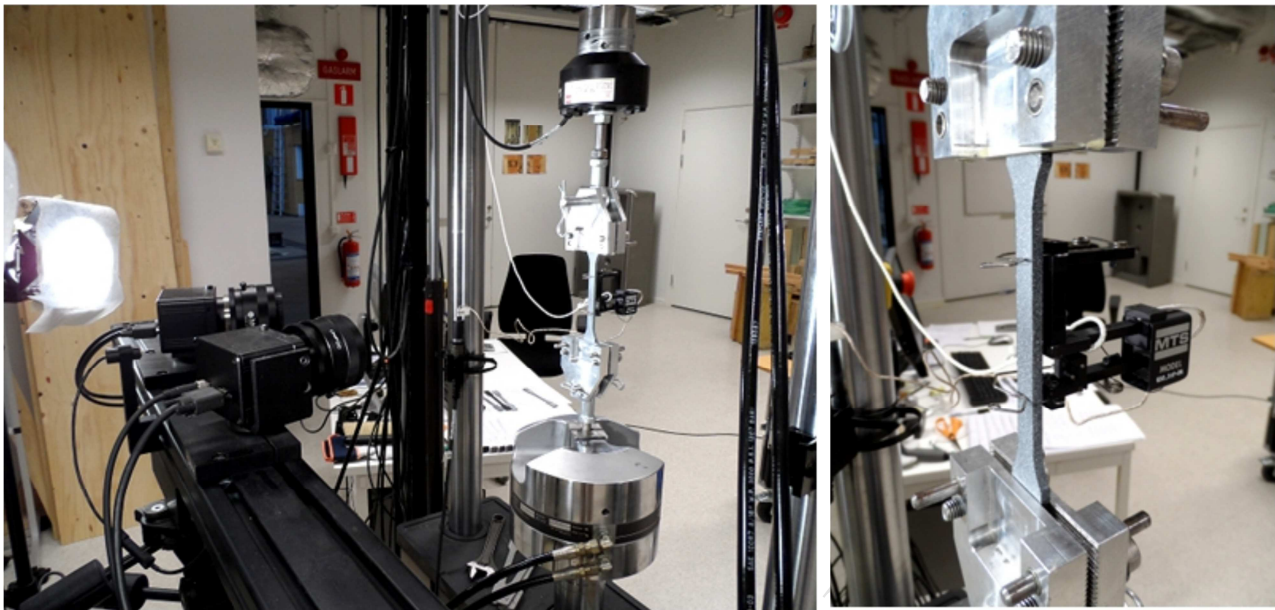
8    For these reasons, structural silicones sealants have been used in facade joints for many years, given their  
9    high durability. Silicone adhesives are known as flexible adhesives with relatively low strength  
10    (approximately 1 MPa) and Young's modulus, which are applied in several millimetres thickness. For that  
11    reason, structural silicones are often used for 4-side bonding systems, thus a low strength is compensated by  
12    a quite large bonded area. The procedures for experimental verification mechanical properties of silicone  
13    joints are given by ETAG 002 [29].

14

15

16

17



(a)

(b)

**Figure 5.** Tensile test of epoxy adhesive with combined measurement of strain using extensometer and Digital Image Correlation (DIC) techniques [30].

1

2 Apart from conventional testing approaches, contact-less techniques can be also implemented to assess the  
3 mechanical properties of a given adhesive joint. The Digital Image Correlation (DIC) approach, in this  
4 regard, can offer reliable predictions and robust background, in addition to common measurement techniques,  
5 see for example Figure 5 and [30].

6 The so-called, recently developed Transparent Structural Silicone Adhesive (TSSA) combines excellent  
7 transparency and superior mechanical characteristics (see for example [31]). It is usually used for metal-to  
8 glass connection without penetration of the glass members. In comparison to ‘standard’ silicone sealants, in  
9 addition, it shows higher stiffness and strength, which makes it suitable for structural applications [32].

10 The requirements for larger, disrupted facade elements from various materials, as well as slender support  
11 frames and structures, lead to the requirements on higher strength of joints to be able to transfer higher  
12 loading. Subsequently, semi-rigid adhesives (mostly polyurethanes and acrylates) with higher strength than  
13 flexible silicones and reasonable elongation at break are needed for current facade adhesive joints. Also,

1 recently developed structural silicones provide greater tensile strength up to 3 MPa according to  
2 manufacturer's documents [33, 34] and even a new generation of structural silicones are designed for point  
3 fixings with 1 mm thick bond-line and tensile strength 4.5 MPa [34].

4 An adaptive facade is an engineering application with specific requirements, such as durability and  
5 compatibility despite joining unconventional materials. The design life time and the environmental ageing  
6 effects of adhesive connections are hence fundamental aspects for the knowledge completion about  
7 polymeric adhesives in facades. Actually, several codes and guideline documents are available for the  
8 assessment of adhesive joints durability (see for example [35, 36], etc.). However, these regulations are  
9 specific for the automotive or the aerospace industries, hence cannot be directly extended to facade  
10 connections, due to a wide series of intrinsic features and differences, like for example the joining materials,  
11 the operational environments of joints, the in-service conditions, included loading configurations, as well as  
12 curing properties, joint geometry, manufacturing conditions and joint life time. In the latter case, it is  
13 important to remind that the actual / conventional service life of adhesively bonded connections for civil  
14 engineering and building applications is significantly larger than the service life of adhesives assemblies for  
15 aerospace structures. In this context, the durability of adhesive connections for facade applications has been  
16 largely investigated at the Klokner Institute of CTU Prague. The experimental programme (still in progress)  
17 included two adhesive samples with different chemical base (a two-part acrylate and a Silane Terminated  
18 Polymer (STP)), together with four batches (i.e., a reference set, extended cataplasma, neutral salt spray test,  
19 or immersion in water). Various types of substrate and treatment were also considered for the joints (i.e.,  
20 blank aluminium with a smooth or roughened surface, anodized aluminium, Zn-electroplated steel with the  
21 smooth or roughened surface), see [37] for a detailed description of test methods. Worth of interest is that the  
22 available experimental results showed that the most critical ageing method cannot be identified easily, for  
23 facade adhesive joints, because the mechanical degradation effects are different, as far as the chemical base  
24 of adhesives modifies. Consequently, further extended studies and dedicated tests are hence required.

25



### 1 **4.3 Impact testing**

2 In additions to typical loads acting on the adaptive building enclosures, impact loads may in some cases be  
3 decisive factors for its design, both, in terms of safety in use and maintaining adaptive performance  
4 characteristics. Elements of adaptive facades may be subjected to different types of impact, depending on its  
5 nature (i.e., hard body or soft body) and direction (i.e., acting from inside or outside of the building). In  
6 addition, the impact performance of an adaptive facade panels may be influenced by many factors including  
7 the flexibility of the element itself and the stiffness of the supporting structures, see for example [38-42].  
8 Therefore, as a general rule, different impact locations should be considered for a given facade panel, namely  
9 represented by its central region, the midpoint section, the panel edges, the regions in the vicinity of supports  
10 and any other key impact locations that may affect the structural safety and kinematic performance of the  
11 facade as a whole.

12 Several standards and technical recommendations specify the principles of testing of building facade  
13 elements subjected to impact actions [43-46]. In general, all the standard procedures involve a mass making  
14 into pendulum motion impacting selected areas of the element with a defined impact energy depending on  
15 the mass of the body and drop height (see also Figure 6).

16 The “hard body” impact test simulates the impact resulting from a hard object accidentally falling against the  
17 panel. Such a configuration includes two hard body masses for testing, equal to 0.5 and 1 kg, released from  
18 an reference height that produces an impact energy from 3 to 10J, respectively. The “soft body” impact test  
19 simulates an impact resulting from a person falling against the panel. To this aim, the soft body impactor has  
20 a typical mass of 50kg and is built with a leader bag filled by glass spheres [43-45], or can consists in two  
21 pneumatic tires with a steel mass [46]. Accordingly, the expected impact energy is in the range of 120 to  
22 500J.

23 In such a kind of testing protocol, finally, special consideration should be spent for the fundamental dynamic  
24 parameters of the sample to assess, namely the vibration frequencies and damping capacity, and their  
25 sensitivity to the actual boundary conditions (see [48]).



**Figure 6.** Soft body impact test of point-fixed laminated glass panel [47].

1

#### 2 **4.4 Fire resistance testing**

3 Within the design configurations that a facade may be required to sustain, fire loading certainly represents a  
4 critical condition requiring appropriate safety levels and experimental methods.

5 Figure 7, for example, shows a fire experiment according to SP Fire 105, a dedicated test method for  
6 full-scale facades, as in use at the fire lab facilities of RISE Research Institutes of Sweden (RISE) in Sweden  
7 (see [49] for further details). Fire resistance assessment investigations, as known, represent a key topic for  
8 buildings in general, but especially for facades performance evaluations, both in the case of glazing  
9 components - typically highly sensitive to elevated temperatures – but in general for building systems in  
10 which combustible materials are used (see for example [50-54], etc.). The SP Fire 105 test method, in  
11 particular, specifies a procedure to determine the reaction to fire of materials and construction of external  
12 wall assemblies or facade claddings, when exposed to fire from a simulated apartment fire with flames  
13 emerging out through a window opening. The behaviour of the construction, the materials and the fire spread

1 (flame spread) in the wall/cladding can be studied (Figure 7). To reliably assess the fire performance of the  
2 entire system, the facade needs to be tested in full-scale. Due to the differences in building regulations  
3 throughout the countries, large differences can be observed in the testing methods in Europe. Accordingly, a  
4 harmonised European methodology for testing and classification of facade systems is currently under  
5 development, allowing to assess all relevant modes of vertical fire spread.

6



7 **Figure 7.** Fire lab facilities at RISE Research Institutes of Sweden. Example of (a) full-scale experimental  
8 setup and (b) damage propagation for a facade exposed to fire loading.

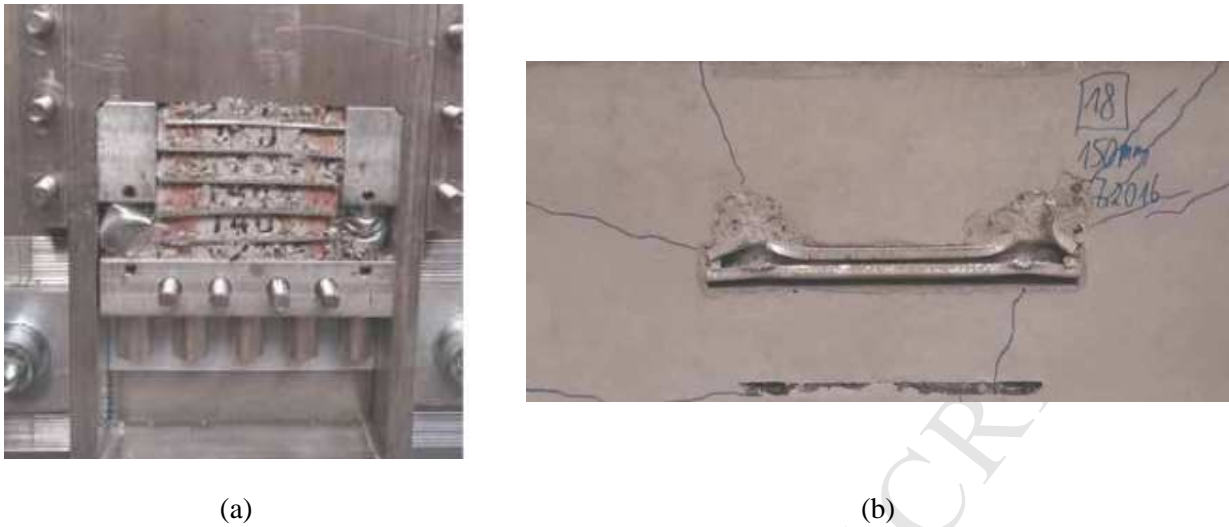
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#### 10 **4.5 Blast resistant testing**

11 The determination of the blast protection level of civil engineering buildings components against explosive  
12 effects, in general, represents a topic of crucial importance, in current design practice. Even much more  
13 catastrophic effects can be expected – given a blast event – in the case of envelopes and facades, where these  
14 systems are required to provide the first line of defence of the building occupants. However, some crucial  
15 aspects still need to be properly addressed.

1 First, some key aspects for the optimal design of blast resistant structures have been only marginally  
2 considered in the last decades, and currently require urgent and appropriate regulations. This is especially  
3 true in terms of experimental testing, with careful consideration for facades, where the intrinsic material  
4 brittleness is the major influencing parameter for blast-resistant assemblies. While the blast assessment of  
5 buildings and complex systems is in fact usually achieved by means of experimental investigations, general  
6 regulations and guidelines are currently missing for curtain walls, with the exception of limited documents /  
7 test configurations that do not reflect the variability of geometrical / mechanical features of innovative  
8 dynamic skins. In this regard, the European Reference Network for Critical Infrastructure Protection  
9 (ERNICIP) - Thematic Group “Resistance of Structures to Explosion Effects” is currently attempting at  
10 developing a set of specific guidelines and recommendations to harmonise test procedures in experimental  
11 testing of facades (especially glazed systems) under blast (see for example [55, 56]).

12 Experimental testing may then be reliable and useful to address and optimize novel facade components. In  
13 [57], for example, special brackets have been tested and proposed as an efficient solution for the mitigation  
14 of conventional glass curtain walls under blast, see Figure 8. The dissipative joint aims at reducing the  
15 stiffness of conventional rigid restraints at the interface between curtain walls and the building sub-structures  
16 (i.e., the inter-storey floor slabs), based on a mechanism able to activate under high strain impulsive events  
17 only, while preserving the structural load bearing capacity under ordinary loads. As far as part of the  
18 incoming blast energy can be dissipated via sacrificial components, this can strongly reduce the expected  
19 effects on the facade components, hence resulting in enhanced dynamic performance and optimized design  
20 assumptions.



1 **Figure 8.** Experimental testing of dissipative brackets for facades under blast [57]: (a) bracket detail (front  
 2 view) and (b) damaged slab connection after testing.

#### 4 4.6 Multi-functional outdoor testing

5 In conclusion, it is generally recommended to perform the experiments in laboratories and facilities that have  
 6 accreditations to relevant test methods for facades, when the final intention is to certify products. According  
 7 to EC regulation No 765/2008, the ‘accreditation’ by a National Accreditation Body confirms that a  
 8 Conformity Assessment Body meets the requirements set by harmonized standards and, where applicable,  
 9 any additional requirement (including those set out in relevant sectorial schemes) to carry out a specific  
 10 conformity assessment activity. A full list of European accredited laboratories, including their key testing  
 11 methods and certification bodies, can be usually found in the databases of the National Accreditation Bodies,  
 12 which are associated with the European cooperation for Accreditation (EA), see [58]. Figure 8, in this regard,  
 13 presents a selection of EU facilities that are accredited for a large number of experimental methods for the  
 14 structural performance assessment of facades and curtain walls (with special consideration for EU-COST  
 15 Action TU1403 Partner Countries).

1 Given such a general rule, however, the recommendation to test in accredited laboratory cannot be fully  
 2 applicable in all cases, because the actual offer is limited, especially in case of adaptive facades. Careful  
 3 consideration is required, for example, when extreme design loads are expected.



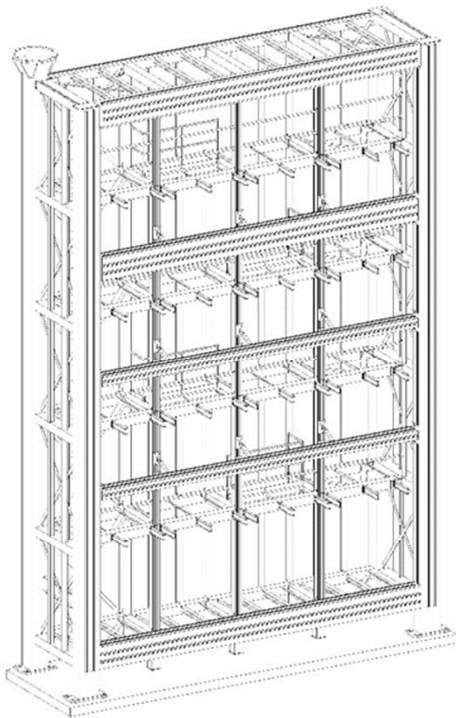
4  
 5 **Figure 9.** Selection of accredited European testing laboratories for facades assessment (EU-COST TU1403  
 6 Partner Countries).

7  
 8 Among the selection of Figure 8, in this regard, the Facade Engineering Centre (CC FM) at the Lucerne  
 9 University of Applied Sciences (HSLU, Switzerland) provides one of the biggest facade and window test  
 10 facilities in Europe. The facility is especially designed to be used beyond standard test methods. For example,  
 11 multiple storey facades can be tested with simulated floor slabs. Facades with high deflections, like cable  
 12 facades, can also be tested.

13 The test rig is designed as a continuously adjustable, outdoor facility (see Figure 10) with an accessible  
 14 pressure chamber (2.5m deep) and external sprinkling. In case of high deflecting facades, a maximum  
 15 deformation up to 0.9m can be allowed into the chamber.

16 The test facility has the following specifications:

1	Dimensions	$8 \times 12 \text{ m}^2$
2	Pressure	$\pm 10000 \text{ Pa}$ (depending on tightness, fan max $800 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ )
3	Pressure pulse	-3000 Pa to 3000 Pa within 5 seconds
4	Driving rain	up to $4 \text{ L}/(\text{m}^2 \text{ min})$
5		
6		



(a)



(b)

**Figure 10.** CC FM test facility at HSLU (Switzerland): (a) 3D sketch and of (b) photo reproduced from [59] (Copyright © HSLU, 2014)

7

8 Wireless instruments ensure a straight forward handling during installations, as well as during testing.

9 The technical centre is located beside the facade test facility and is divided in two parts; the engine part and  
 10 control part. The engine part contains the devices for pressure generation and rainwater with a water  
 11 reservoir for independent water supply of the main water supply. In the control part, the monitoring and

1 control computer based on HOLTEN test equipment is located. All signals of pressure and wireless  
2 displacement transducers are collected from the control part.

3 Test procedures can either manual or programmed controlled. For standard procedures appropriate program  
4 routines are available. For specified observations or a detailed view in individual procedure steps the facility  
5 can be manually controlled. In case of standardized testing, results and classification output can directly be  
6 given, such as (a) test metrics; (b) air tightness; (c) water penetration; (d) static load resistance; (e) dynamic  
7 load resistance; (f) deflections.

8 While the test rig is primarily designed to be used beyond standard test procedures, the CC FM has strong  
9 experience with unconventional test procedures that could be relevant for adaptive facades. For example, this  
10 is the case of hurricane impact testing, involving exceptional dynamic performances for the façade  
11 components. Accordingly, further adaptivity / flexibility for adaptive facades is also required for the testing  
12 infrastructures.

13

## 14 **5. Conclusion**

15 In this paper, an insight on novel adaptive facades was reported, with special care for the structural  
16 performance assessment of smart envelopes. Although adaptive facades are getting gradually more common  
17 in modern building skins, their structural design still represents a challenging task. Major issues are related to  
18 the characterisation of their mechanical performance, even in lack of specific design regulations and  
19 provisions in support of engineers for appropriate experimental testing approaches. In this regard, the recent  
20 outcomes of the 'Structural' Task Group involved in the EU COST Action TU1403 were briefly summarised  
21 in this review paper, aiming at discussing the existing standards and testing methods for conventional  
22 facades, and pointing out the key features of adaptive skins and the need of dedicated procedures for their  
23 performance characterisation based on experiments.

24 Firstly, for performance assessments according to EN 13830 or ETAG 034 standardized test procedures for  
25 static facades represent a challenge for adaptive facades. There, a given adaptive façade can have different



1 performances (depending i.e. on system change, activation mechanism, triggering event), and thus resulting  
2 in different performance indicators to properly evaluate. The applicability of conventional experimental test  
3 methods to adaptive facades, given the favourable or unfavourable adaptive states and the possible  
4 interactions between test procedures and adaptivity, must be considered carefully. Additional experimental  
5 tests might be also necessary, to offer appropriate safety levels to adaptive skins, even under extreme design  
6 loads or unfavourable mechanical conditions. A generalized methodology and testing suggestion – i.e., able  
7 to cover all the possible structural adaptivity forms - is however currently not possible. In some cases,  
8 unconventional experimental approaches (inclusive of innovative monitoring systems) may be also required.  
9 The final result is an adaptivity of experimental strategies that should be able to point out the possible critical  
10 aspects and performances of structurally efficient adaptive facades.

11

## 12 **Acknowledgement**

13 This paper collects some outcomes of the ‘Structural’ Task Group within the EU-COST Action TU1403  
14 ‘Adaptive Facades Network’ (2014-2018, <http://www.tu1403.eu>).

15 In this regard, the COST Association is gratefully acknowledged for providing excellent research networking  
16 between the involved authors, as well as with international experts.

17 All the Network members that supported the ‘Structural’ TG activities are also acknowledged for their  
18 valuable cooperation.

19

20

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1. Adaptive facades are increasingly used in buildings, but these novel skins lack in an appropriate structural characterisation
2. The paper gives a set of definitions and rules for structural performance assessment of adaptive skins
3. A classification approach is proposed for structural adaptive systems
4. Reliable metrics and structural performance indicators are suggested
5. A discussion of experimental methods and regulations for structural testing is presented