Green Building Policy, School Performance, and Educational Leaders’ Perspectives in USA

Scott Kelting, Michael Montoya
California Polytechnic State University, San Luis Obispo, California, USA
skelting@calpoly.edu, mmontoya@calpoly.edu

Abstract
The movement to construct high performance “green” buildings has had unprecedented market growth and continues to become mainstream practice for constructing schools in the United States. Green schools have economic, environmental and health benefits. Research provides information on the use of increased student performance found in green schools to justify building schools to a higher standard of indoor environment quality. There is clear and compelling evidence that schools currently built to specific green standards of indoor environmental quality, (e.g. thermal comfort, indoor air quality, acoustics and lighting,) result in healthier and more productive students and teachers. Current green building policies for schools in the U.S. provide educational decision makers with many choices in their selection of green building strategies. This paper will consider how the results of government requirements for higher performance school buildings may affect the health and performance of students. The research focuses on educational leaders’ perceptions of how they would prioritize green building strategies based on recent governmental policy that requires building green schools. Interview results concluded that educational leaders’ perceived energy savings strategies to be more important than indoor environmental quality in the design and construction of new schools.

Keywords
Green Building, High Performing Schools, Policy, Indoor Environmental Quality

1. Introduction

The United States Green Building Council (USGBC), a widely recognized green building certification organization, categorizes the three primary benefits of green building as: economic, environmental and social. “The economic benefits are: reduced operating costs, enhanced asset value and profits, improved employee productivity and satisfaction, and optimized life-cycle economic performance. The environmental benefits are: protected ecosystems, improved air and water quality, reduced solid waste, and to conserve natural resources. Health benefits are: Improved air, thermal, and acoustic environments, enhanced occupant comfort and health, and minimized strain on local infrastructure” (USGBC, 2009).

The majority of both the building industry participants and environmental agencies in the U.S. have endorsed public green building policy for schools. Green schools have reduced operating costs for school owners and administrators and have improved the health and performance of students and teachers. The current ease of state adoption of green building requirements for projects defies the conventional idea of
environmental policymaking being difficult due to industry opposing environmental interests (Ingram and Mann, 1989).

Public school budgets in the U.S. have been drastically cut as a direct result of the current global economic problems. It has been estimated that the U.S. school infrastructure has a need of $254.6 billion, yet educational leaders have to decide whether to spend funding for facilities or to maintain staffing of school classrooms (Cash & Twinford, 2009). The 21st Century Green High-Performing Public Schools Facilities Act was passed Thursday, May 14, 2009, by the U.S. House of Representatives. This bill authorizes more than $6.4 billion in grant funds to support school repair, renovations and modernization projects in school districts nationwide. Educational leaders are the decision makers for the implementation of green building strategies of the grant funds.

Kelting and Montoya (2011) discussed the green building portion 21st Century Green High-Performing Public Schools Facilities Act. They then presented research pertaining to educational leaders’ current perception that energy savings strategies are more important than daylighting strategies for student performance in the design and construction of new schools. Their reviewers suggested interviewing additional educational leaders and to include additional aspects of indoor environmental quality (IEQ). This paper addresses the reviewers’ suggestions by expanding the literature review to include additional aspects of indoor environmental quality and interviewing additional educational leaders. Additionally, this paper examines government policy, school design and construction’s impact on student performance as a step toward developing a framework for other countries adoption of green building guidelines (Korkmaz et al., 2009).

2. Methodology

The authors used exploratory qualitative research to describe the perceptions of educational leaders. The authors presented the research from this literature review about indoor environmental quality and its’ impact on student performance and discussed the long term economic benefits of green building energy efficiency strategies to each interviewee. The authors then discussed the green building portion 21st Century Green High-Performing Public Schools Facilities Act. Due to the rapid change of green building policy on school buildings and their impact the authors asked the following research question: Do educational leaders perceive indoor environmental quality less important than energy efficiency strategies?

Many decisions are made during the design and construction of green schools. Although the decisions about green building can be complex, in the absence of other considerations, the drivers for decisions are energy efficiency (cost) and indoor environmental quality (functionality and aesthetics). The authors interviewed six kindergarten through 12th grade (K-12) educational leaders from different geographical areas in California to answer the research question. The educational leaders were asked hypothetically, “Given the information on energy efficiency green building methods, and indoor environmental quality and its impact on student performance, how would you prioritize your decisions of energy efficiency or IEQ strategies if awarded grant funds from the 21st Century Green High-Performing Public Schools Facilities Act?” The interviews were summarized and the interviewees’ responses were coded with the decision drivers they identified. The interviews were compared to Kelting and Montoya’s (2011) results.

3. Green Building Policy

Many school facilities have poor indoor environmental conditions that may result in increased health risks for students, as well as inhibited learning and student performance. The initial research about how building occupants are affected by the building’s lighting began in the 1960’s. Soon after, advocacy
coalitions for improving facilities design began what has now turned into the movement for green schools.

Advocacy policy change is a temporal process that focuses on policy subsystems, intergovernmental aspects, and public policies (Jenkins-Smith and Sabatier, 1994). The temporal change process typically takes at least a decade and has successes and failures dependent on the advocacy and on external factors. Advocacy coalitions have both a top-down and a bottom-up perspective. The policy subsystem focuses on multiple levels and not a single institution but is found in various arenas. The intergovernmental aspect is typically broad, stemming from the local grass-roots level up to the federal level. The public policies aspect typically corresponds to belief systems by being theory based, prioritizing values and incorporating perceptions. In the early 2000’s there was a spike in oil prices to nearly $80 a barrel, heating and energy costs soared and there was seemingly no end in sight for these increases (Rothenberg, 2006). This created a large punctuation that stimulated quick decisions toward implementing green building policies. Scholars have employed the punctuated-equilibrium theory to understand a variety of policymaking situations (Baumgartner, & Jones, 2009). Practitioners have cited punctuated-equilibrium theory as a policy theory that can quickly change in the face of accumulating factual evidence (Speth, 2004). The convergences of the advocacy coalition and the external factor of punctuated-equilibrium have created a “policy window”. This policy window has been explained as the multiple streams theory (Kingdon, 1984). Theoretically, this window is currently open and the 21st Century Green High-Performing Public Schools Facilities Act will likely assist with keeping the policy window open longer.

The 21st Century Green High-Performing Public School Facilities Act provides funding for schools to incorporate more sustainable practices in their facilities, and is broad in design allowing educational leaders flexibility in their decisions about the sustainable design strategies they decide to incorporate as part of the grant. The 21st Century Green High-Performing Public School Facilities Act “Directs local education agencies (LEAs) grantees to use a percentage of their grant, rising in 10% increments from 50% in FY2010 to 100% in FY2015, for public school modernization, renovation, repairs, or construction that meet Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) green building rating standards, Energy Star standards, Collaborative for High Performance Schools (CHPS) criteria, Green Building Initiative environmental design and rating standards (Green Globes), or equivalent standards adopted by the entities that have jurisdiction over such LEAs. Requires the Secretary to provide outreach and technical assistance to states and LEAs concerning the best practices in school modernization, renovation, repair, and construction” (govtrack.us, Section 309, 2009). Some of these standards are associations that have been formed due to years of advocacy coalitions for green building and are specifically associated with schools and student performance. This bill encourages energy efficiency and the use of renewable resources, but does not delineate a detailed plan for indoor environmental quality, nor does it use student performance as a justification.

4. Indoor Environmental Quality and Student Performance

Historically, educational decision makers have perceived indoor environmental qualities such as thermal comfort, indoor air quality, acoustics and lighting to be the top four physical variables of educational facility designs that have the largest impact on learning (Bosch, 2006 p.335-336).

4.1 Thermal Comfort: Thermal comfort relates to the temperature of a room at which people are comfortable in their tasks. The general agreement between researchers is that thermal comfort is defined by the satisfaction of a percentage of the people in a particular environment (Hoof, Mazej, & Hensen, 2010). There is a strong relationship between student achievement and thermal factors in the learning environments (Earthman & Lemasters, 1998). There is a string of studies relating thermal comfort and student performance that all tie back to the early studies conducted in 1931 by the New York Commission of Ventilation (Earthman, 2002). With the goal of healthy students in mind, the commission studied city
and rural classrooms, as well as an experimental classroom at a local college, to determine the best air temperatures in classrooms. The experiment subjected students to different temperatures and correlated them to the illnesses that occurred. Results found temperatures between 67 and 73 degrees Fahrenheit with a humidity level at 50% reduced illnesses (Earthman, 2002). McGuffey (1982) was one of the first to research the impacts of heating and air conditioning on learning, and her work is still widely cited (Schneider, 2002). Harner (1974) concluded the ideal temperature range for learning reading and math was between 68 and 74 degrees Fahrenheit (as cited by Earthman, 2002 and Schneider, 2002).

4.2 Indoor air quality: Poor indoor air quality (IAQ) has the potential to affect students, staff and faculty’s comfort and health, which may affect attendance, concentration and performance. Poor indoor air quality problems in schools are attributed to environmental tobacco smoke, formaldehyde, volatile organic compounds, nitrogen oxides, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, allergen, radon, pesticides, lead, mold and dust (Sundersingh & Bearg, 2003, p.2). The main reason for poor indoor air quality is inadequate ventilation with outside air (Daisey et al., 2003). The American Society for Heating, Refrigerating and Air-conditioning Engineers (ASHRAE) has recommendations for minimum ventilation rates for acceptable indoor air quality. Indoor air quality can be monitored in buildings by monitoring the carbon dioxide levels in the classroom air. Studies indicate that the indoor air pollutants range from two to one hundred times higher than the outdoors (U.S. EPA, 2000), which is considered “sick building syndrome”. Over 43 percent of U.S. schools have reported problems associated with indoor air quality (NCES, 2000). These school facilities are classified as facilities with sick building syndrome. People exposed to indoor environments of sick buildings complain about symptoms such as upper respiratory problems, skin irritation, headache and fatigue (Kreiss, 1989). One of the major health risks to students is asthma which is related to poor indoor air quality. Data on asthma, asthmatic symptoms and allergies was gathered over a two-year period for 1,476 students in 39 randomly selected schools (Smedje & Norback, 2000). The off-gassing of chemicals from carpeting in schools has been considered to be a primary cause for poor indoor air quality. Twenty-three different studies were also analyzed on carpet and indoor air quality, the results of which concluded that carpet does not increase asthma and allergies (Sauerhoff, 2008).

There is still debate that the quality of indoor air directly correlates with the comfort and performance of students, faculty and staff in today’s schools. The majority of research found linked poor indoor air quality to sick teachers and students which resulted in a lack of performance due to illnesses and led to absenteeism (Kennedy, 2001). These illnesses, such as asthma, resulting from students being exposed to sick building syndrome may also result in learning deficits while students are in class (Mendell et al., 1996).

The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has an Indoor Air Quality Tools for Schools (IAQ IFS) Kit. This kit can be used to assist existing schools to improve their indoor air quality. In 2006, a questionnaire about schools IAQ management program was sent out to selected school regionally across the nation (Moglia et al., 2006). Out of the 890 respondents, 40 percent of them had an active IAQ management program. The study concluded that an IAQ management program that is continuously supported by the administration is a valuable factor in improving the learning environment.

4.3 Acoustics: Another classroom factor that contributes to indoor environmental quality is acoustics. Research correlates the link between acoustics and educational outcomes. Good acoustics have been recognized as a fundamental aspect to good academic performance (Schneider, 2002, p. 6). Outside noise has been found to result in students’ dissatisfaction with their classroom, stress and lower achievement (Earthman and Lemaster,1998). Unwanted noise inside the classroom has also been recognized as having an impact on student learning (Earthman and Lemaster,1998).

In order to prevent noise interfering with student learning, effective acoustical measures should be implemented during the design and construction phases (Glass, 1985). When designing a learning
environment the acoustical elements that potentially impact learning and need to be addressed include: limiting outside noise, background noise from heating ventilation and air conditioning (HVAC) systems, and reducing distracting indoor sounds (Stewart, 2009). Outside noise can be described as interfering with the learning environment due to sound transmission (Stewart, 2009). Stewart recommends designing the exterior walls of the room to follow American National Standards Institute’s (ANSI) Sound Transmission Class (STC) Ratings to minimize the noise from outside the classroom (Stewart, 2009).

Reverberation time inside the classroom is the technical phrase that describes indoor sounds that distract from learning (Stewart, 2009, p. 30). The HVAC system in a classroom can generate enough noise that it makes it difficult for the classroom participants to hear and communicate. Reducing the noise of the HVAC system includes distributing the sound in the learning environment and maximizing the distance between the fan and first diffuser (Stewart, 2009). ANSI and The Collaborative for High Performance Schools (CHPS) have collaborated to create a standard for the HVAC reverberation. Having the proper amount of sound absorptive materials in the space to mitigate the reverberation and errant sound transmission and achieve building standards is recommended to reduce a potential impact on learning (Stewart, 2009). Two specific recommended materials to reduce noise are carpet and ceiling tile (Stewart, 2009). Student achievement was reported to be higher in schools with carpet, and the carpeting improved the acoustics of the learning environment. The study concluded that overall student achievement is higher in classrooms with lower reverberation times (Tanner and Langford, p. 42).

4.4 Lighting and Student Performance: Lighting is one of the primary design elements considered in common green building practices. Lighting is commonly used as a justification for building greener schools because of its documented positive impact on energy use and student performance. Lighting has been determined to be a fundamental contributing factor to a school building’s overall indoor environmental quality. Many of the classrooms built in the 1960’s were built with very few windows. The architectural thought process was that this type of design would make conditioning the indoor air more efficient, be more secure, quieter and reduce maintenance costs. The lack of windows led to controlled experiments involving school children and fluorescent lighting with UV lamps (Zamkova & Krivitskaya, 1966). Students who were exposed to the UV light showed resistance to fatigue, improved academic performance, improved stability of clear vision, and increased weight and growth. Another study examined elementary school students’ dental health, growth and development, attendance, and academic achievement when subjected to four different types of lights (Hathaway, 1992). These lights were full-spectrum fluorescent lamps, full-spectrum fluorescent lamps with ultraviolet light supplements, cool white fluorescent lamps, and high-pressure sodium vapor lamps. Some of these studies results were controversial and have been labeled as “fads” that affect school lighting decisions. For example in the 1970’s, full spectrum lighting manufacturers made claims that their fluorescent lamps provided health benefits (Benya, 2001). In 1985, the United States Food and Drug Administration (FDA) ruled that the full spectrum lamps provided no health benefits. The strong claims about UV enhanced “full-spectrum” lamps have been based on poor research that does not meet the basic standards of scientific research (Gifford, 1994). This information led to studies about daylighting. Earthman and Lemasters (1998) reported that there were no significant relationships between student performance and windowless facilities. They found that light with ultra-violet content seemed to improve student health, but daylight appeared to improve student achievement.

The Heschong Mahone Group (1999) prepared one of the most detailed studies investigating the relationship between natural daylighting and student performance for Pacific Gas & Electric and the California Board for Energy Efficiency. Their data set included over 21,000 students in more than over 100-schools. The three U.S. school districts in the study were located in Orange County, CA, Seattle, WA, and Fort Collins, CO. The results found a positive and significant correlation between the presence of daylighting and student performance (Heschong Mahone Group, 1999). In a 1 year study at Orange County’s Capistrano school district, students with the most daylight in their classrooms progressed twenty percent faster in math, and twenty-six percent faster in reading than students with the least amount of
natural daylight in their classrooms. The results additionally indicated that views out of windows increased performance by five to ten percent. The results appeared to be valid because the three school districts analyzed had different teaching styles and curricula, different facility designs. Yet, there was not a peer review on the study. The Heschong Mahone Group published a re-analysis of the report in 2001 to address any concerns in the validity of the study. Some of these concerns related to better teachers being assigned to daylight classrooms and the aggregation of data across four grade levels. The peer review panel was satisfied with the methodology and rigor of the statistical analysis. They concluded: a) Students in classrooms with the most daylight had 21 percent higher learning rate performance compared to least amount of daylight. b) No teacher assignment bias to classrooms. c) Daylighting effect does not vary by grade. d) Physical classroom characteristics such as daylighting, operable windows, air conditioning, and portable classrooms are not associated with absenteeism (Heschong Mahone Group, 2001).

Due to current material and design improvements such as energy-efficient windows and skylights, along with renewed indications for positive psychological and physiological effects of daylight, there has been an increase in interest in daylight in schools (Benya, 2001). The advocacy groups are also pointing out energy efficiency and the associated cost savings as an additional benefit of daylighting. A recent study of a middle school in North Carolina indicated an energy savings of 50% in lighting and 11% of total building energy reductions through daylighting. About 60% of the building’s total square footage is provided with natural daylighting as compared to a code compliant building without daylighting utilization (Eckerlin et al., 2007).

5. Results

Currently, there are a number of green building guidelines from which educational leaders may choose and still be in compliance to receive grant monies. Not all of the green building guidelines incorporate the same prescriptive methods for indoor environmental quality. This demonstrates the vast array of options in green building guidelines that are available for building “green” schools. Similar to Kelting and Montoya’s (2011) results, all of the educational leaders interviewed perceived energy efficiency strategies to outweigh the health and student performance benefits of indoor environmental quality. The educational leaders felt the decision to strictly reduce energy consumption and reduce their operating costs took precedence over student performance. The educational leaders seemed very skeptical of the research that correlated IEQ to student performance and many of them had not heard of this research before. All of the educational leaders interviewed were familiar with the general long-term economic benefits of utilizing energy efficiency strategies when considering investing in greener facilities. One respondent mentioned California’s grid neutral initiative and felt energy efficiency would not only save money but would help prevent global warming. Overall, the respondents felt that by spending the money on strategies that increase energy efficiency, a school could reduce their building’s energy costs for the life of the building. The savings could be used for other ways to improve student performance. All the educational leaders interviewed revealed they would look to other more traditional pedagogical methods to improve the students’ performance.

6. Conclusion

Educational leaders perceived energy savings strategies to be more important than indoor environmental quality in the design and construction of new schools. These results mirrored Kelting and Montoya’s (2011) results about educational leaders’ perceptions on daylighting. Additionally, the 21st Century Green High-Performing Public Schools Facilities Act identifies green building standards that can be used to develop a framework for other countries adoption of green building guidelines. Two areas of potential research have been identified. A first area of future research would be additional research that further substantiates the link between indoor environmental quality and student performance. A second potential
area for further research would be to study the decisions made about green building strategies during the design and construction of schools that received money from the 21st Century Green High-Performing Public School Facilities Act. The goal for this effort is to provide both the U.S. and other countries information about the strategies that are most commonly used to assist with their adoption of green building guidelines.

7. References


