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2 SPECIAL COLLECTION: Alternatives to air conditioning: policies, design, technologies,
3 behaviours

4
5 <LRH>Schoenefeldt

6
7 **RESEARCH**

8
9 Technological transitions in climate control: lessons from the House of Lords

10
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16
17 **ABSTRACT**

18 Mechanical air-conditioning is only a relatively recent development in countries with moderate
19 temperate climates. It was preceded by earlier, less energy-intensive methods of climate
20 control. These methods were deployed in British public buildings from the 1830s until the mid-
21 20th century, when heritage buildings began to be adapted for air-conditioning. The 19th-
22 century methods for providing thermal comfort are examined within the debating chamber of
23 the House of Lords (part the Houses of Parliament in London, UK). This was equipped with
24 facilities for ventilation, cooling, heating, humidification and air purification. These facilities,
25 introduced in 1854, were in use for 112 years. This example shows the idea that thermal
26 comfort is a cultural practice, which was not independent from the particular technologies or
27 social contexts, but substantively shaped by them. This long operational history provides a
28 basis for critical insights into their performance and operation, and also illuminates the cultural
29 and technical factors leading to their substitution with air-conditioning in 1966.

30
31 **PRACTICE RELEVANCE**

32 In light of the climate crisis, the architectural profession is required to reappraise the 20th-
33 century practices and reconsider the utility of the historical methods for providing thermal
34 comfort. Revitalising such methods could provide alternatives to air-conditioning in heritage

35 buildings. To address this fundamental question, however, a deep understanding is needed of
36 these past methods. A reconstruction and critical examination of the design, operation and
37 performance of the House of Lords' original 19th-century system reveals the history of its
38 adaptation and provides a basis for understanding and employing original approaches to
39 thermal comfort which can be useful when renovating historical buildings as well as informing
40 new designs This example provides a useful alternative facilities management model of agency
41 and control, based on occupant experience.

42

43 **KEYWORDS:**

44 air-conditioning; alternative technology; architectural technology; cooling; environmental
45 control; heritage buildings; technological change; temperate climate; thermal comfort

46

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48 **1. INTRODUCTION: RETRACING TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE**

49 Since the mid-20th century mechanical air-conditioning has become an increasingly dominant
50 method of climate control globally. Within the history of architecture, however, its use is a
51 relatively recent phenomenon. It is only 114 years ago since the American engineer Willis
52 Carrier (1876–1950) secured the patent for an Apparatus for Treating Air (1906) and 105 years
53 since the Carrier Corporation, the first commercial manufacturer of air-conditioning
54 equipment, was established (Ackermann 2002; Cooper 1998). The invention was significant
55 because it enabled environmental control to be treated as a problem of mechanical engineering
56 rather than a function of architecture. [AQ4] Banham (1969) described air-conditioning as part
57 of a transition from a historic era, where climatic control was largely delivered through
58 structural solutions, to a modern era, where the function of climate control could be fulfilled
59 by mechanical, energy-intensive systems. The concept of climatically controlled spaces,
60 however, was neither new nor dependent on mechanical solutions. In Britain other methods
61 were deployed until the early 20th century (Lerum 2016). Although their application was
62 largely confined to public buildings, these methods were representative of an alternative
63 tradition of climate control. They were transitional technologies that occupied the space
64 between the structural and mechanical eras. First developed in the 1830s, these technologies
65 became well established by the mid-19th century.

66

67 This article examines the application of these technologies in the House of Lords, which is the
68 second legislative chamber of the British Parliament. Introduced by the physician Goldsworthy

69 Gurney (1793–1875) in 1854, these technologies had the key features of modern air-
70 conditioning, but in contrast to its modern counterpart it followed a hybrid approach that
71 combined passive and mechanical solutions. The historical system, however, was distinct from
72 modern systems in terms not only of its technology but also of its engagement with questions
73 of system control and facilities management. Its operation was underpinned by what could be
74 described as an alternative culture of control, which, aside from the physical and physiological
75 aspects, took into consideration the social aspects of thermal comfort. In a review of the
76 development of 20th-century theory of thermal comfort, Cooper (1982) has argued that modern
77 practice has tended to reduce user autonomy, first through automation and second by
78 transferring control from users to the central administration by technical specialists. The
79 operation of the House of Lords, in contrast, demonstrates a culture of participation, which
80 involved collaborations between occupants, mediators as well as technical specialists. This
81 culture is significant because it affected the system’s day-to-day operation and the wider
82 debates about the historical practices and the shift towards modern technology.

83

84 The remainder of the article is structured as follows. Part 1 provides a reconstruction of the
85 original system created by Gurney. Part 2 investigates its operational history over 112 years
86 and its history provides insights into the experiences of users and technical staff as well as the
87 findings of formal inquiries undertaken by committees, scientists, and engineers to evaluate
88 and improve its performance. Part 3 retraces the discourse and technical inquiries underpinning
89 the transition towards mechanical air-conditioning. This period of transition, which lasted from
90 1935 until 1966, is significant because it involved the last evaluations of the historical system.
91 In addition to air-conditioning, several alternative schemes, aiming at retaining and improving
92 the historical arrangements, were explored.

93

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95 **2. METHODS: A DIACHRONIC VIEW OF ARCHITECTURAL TECHNOLOGY**

96 Gurney’s system was completed in 1854, but it underwent various adaptations. Some of these
97 adaptations were refinements, undertaken as more practical experience was acquired, whilst
98 others were influenced by the views of occupants. To gain insights into the system’s
99 operational history, it is examined through the lens of what Brand (1994) described a
100 diachronic view of architecture. It is concerned with the evolution of buildings over time,
101 looking at their physical form, operation or use. Underlying the diachronic view is a realist
102 perspective because it engages with the practical reality of buildings in use, including the

103 challenges of adaptation of existing structures. Whilst Brand focuses largely on the adaptation
104 for changing uses, the present paper adopted the diachronic view to examine the evolution of
105 climate control practices.

106

107 Gurney's system, and later adaptations, have been reconstructed by combining archival
108 research with site investigations. The archival records cover a period of 112 years and comprise
109 letters, photographs, drawings, technical reports, and transcripts of parliamentary committees
110 and debates, which are held at the National Archives, Historic England and the Parliamentary
111 Archives. The majority of records originated from the Office of Works (1854–1940), Ministry
112 of Works (1940–62) and Ministry of Public Building and Works (1962–70). These government
113 departments were responsible at that time for the operation and maintenance of the Houses of
114 Parliament.

115

116 <A>

117 **3. PART 1: RECONSTRUCTING GURNEY'S APPROACH TO CLIMATE** 118 **CONTROL, 1854**

119 This article focuses on Gurney's system, but it needs to be noted that it was the adaptation of
120 an earlier system, completed by architect Charles Barry (1795–1860) in 1847 (Schoenefeldt
121 2021). Barry's system was only operational for seven years, and Gurney's scheme reused parts
122 of the inherited infrastructure and was underpinned by studies on the performance of Barry's
123 system. Gurney's arrangements remained largely unchanged for 67 years, followed by a period
124 of minor adaptations, but before studying its operational history, it is necessary to study the
125 original design.

126

127

128 **3.1 GURNEY'S DESIGN**

129 This climate was managed by combining ventilation with a 19th-century method of 'air-
130 conditioning'. The latter was a warm air central heating system that incorporated facilities for
131 evaporative cooling, humidification and air filtration. The ventilation was driven by the natural
132 convection of warm air ascending tall shafts, which was enhanced with the aid of coke furnaces
133 and controlled through manually operated valves. The debating chamber had two shafts. One
134 was located at roof level (*Figure 1: 1*), which was connected to the extract flues for the
135 Division Lobbies and an air chamber above the ceiling (*Figure 1: 2*) [AQ5] (Office of Works
136 1967). The second stack comprised a pair of tall shafts (325 ft; 98 m) inside the turrets of

137 Victoria Tower (*Figure 1: 5*) (*House of Commons* 1890–91: Q258). These were connected to
138 the House through a passage inside the basement (*Figure 1: 4*). The ceiling was connected to
139 this passage through four vertical flues (*Figure 1: 3*) inside the wall of the Princes Chamber,
140 each equipped with a separate valve (*Figure 1: B*). As the hot air was forced downwards from
141 the ceiling to the basement, these flues were referred to as a ‘down pulls’. Air was primarily
142 extracted through openings within the ornamental ceiling beams, but some air was also
143 extracted at floor level (*House of Lords* 1883a: Q346) at the north end of the chamber; in an
144 area known as the ‘bar’ the floor could be switched to the Victoria Tower extract network
145 through another valve (*Figure 1: C*).

146

147 [AQ6]

148 **Figure 1: Houses of Parliament: diagrammatic cross-section showing the stack ventilation**
149 **system with control valves.**

150 *Source: Author’s own drawing.*

151

152 The fresh air was sourced from two courtyards at ground level and was ‘conditioned’ inside a
153 large air chamber below the House (*Figure 3*). It was admitted through eight large openings
154 with folding doors that acted as control valves for the supply (*Figure 2: 13*). One half faced
155 the State Officers Court in the west, the other the Peers Court in the east. The doors were
156 operated manually. In winter the air was admitted by opening small panels at the bottom of
157 these doors, whilst in the summer, when larger volumes of air were required for cooling, the
158 complete doors were opened. John Percy, one of the superintendents of the system, reported
159 that they had to be completely open to prevent excessive temperatures during hot weather or
160 when the House was crowded (*Percy* 1866). Behind the doors the air passed through canvas
161 screens (*Figure 2: 4*), removing dust and soot particles, and then heated, using steam-heated
162 batteries (*Figure 2: 5*), and humidified using two methods. In cold dry weather, the humidity
163 was raised with the aid of steam, using an array of ‘vaporisers’ (*Figure 2: 11*). In summer, the
164 air was cooled and humidified through fine sprays of water (*Figure 2: 12*) (*House of Commons*
165 1864). Note: Gurney’s approach to providing thermal comfort in warm weather was distinct
166 from modern methods involving mechanical refrigeration. It relied on the combination of
167 multiple passive techniques. The air temperature was reduced through evaporative cooling,
168 which involved passing air through sprays of cold water. This was provided through sprinklers
169 located inside the two cloisters in front of the air intakes. As it had limited capacity to actively

170 reduce the air temperature, it was complemented by use of solar shading and ventilation, which
171 is explored in the next section.

172

173 **Figure 2:** Cross-section showing features of the environmental system.

174 *Source:* Author's own drawing.

175

176 **Figure 3:** Interior of the air chamber, July 1897, showing canvas screens (left), three rows of
177 heating batteries and apertures to the equalising chamber above.

178 *Source:* [AQ7] Benjamin Stone, Photograph 19.

179

180 After it was 'conditioned', the air ascended through 12 rectangular valves (**Figure 3**) into a
181 'equalising chamber' above (**Figure 2: 6**), which contained additional steam batteries. Most of
182 the air entered the House through perforated floors, but some was introduced at mid-level,
183 using ornamental openings inside the throne and below the 'Peeresses Gallery' (**Office of**
184 **Works** 1867b) [AQ8] (**Figure 2: 16**). The floor, composed of cast-iron gratings and perforated
185 timber panels, was covered with permeable fabric. The original fabric was horsehair, which
186 was later replaced with sisal matting (**Ministry of Works** 1960) (**Figure 4**). Covering an area
187 of 2950 ft² (274 m²), the perforated floor was intended to reduce the risk of peers being exposed
188 to strong currents, in particular when higher ventilation rates were needed to mitigate the
189 impact of large crowds or hot weather. Referring to trials inside the House of Commons,
190 Gurney claimed that the perforated floors allowed [AQ9] 7000 ft³ (198,000 litres) of air per
191 minute to be introduced without producing any 'sensible motion' around the body (**House of**
192 **Lords** 1854: Q643). Later records, however, show that these quantities, which equated to only
193 2.3 air changes per hour, were much lower than the eight air changes required for cooling.

194

195 **Figure 4:** Floor composed of iron gratings and a perforated timber panel below a layer of sisal
196 matting.

197 *Source:* [AQ10] Ministry of Public Building and Works 1967, G 10708/4.

198

199 In the House of Lords, the provision of 'air-conditioning' was confined to a small number of
200 spaces, which were the debating chamber, two Division Lobbies and the corridors behind the
201 galleries (**Figure 5**). The Division Lobbies, which also had grated floors, could be connected
202 to the main air supply through several valves (**Figure 2: 8**) (**Office of Works** 1867c). In the

203 corridors the supply was through vertical flues, each equipped with an individual valve [AQ11]
204 (*Figure 2: 14*).

205

206 **Figure 5: Floor plan of the House of Lords.**

207 *Source: Author's own drawing.*

208

209 3.2 AN AUXILIARY SYSTEM OF NATURAL VENTILATION

210 Conceptually the House resembles a mechanically air-conditioned building, but what
211 distinguishes Gurney's approach from its modern counterpart is the fact that it was not
212 permanently sealed. Although it was ventilated through openings inside the floor and ceiling
213 and also climatically controlled, it incorporated an auxiliary system of natural ventilation. The
214 idea of introducing openable windows was first explored by a Select Committee in 1854 whilst
215 reappraising Barry's earlier system. The idea might appear simplistic, but in the first half of
216 the 19th century it was still common for similar types of spaces, such as lecture halls or
217 courtrooms, to be naturally ventilated. In [AQ12] John Soane's Law Courts (1822–25) in
218 Westminster, for instance, the courtrooms had central heating, whilst the ventilation was
219 provided through doors and windows that were carefully managed by attendants (*The Times*
220 1878). The implications of adopting similar principles inside the House of Lords were reviewed
221 and the provision of openable windows was endorsed in the Committee's final report in July
222 1854.

223

224 The Committee consulted Gurney and Barry and also reviewed the outcome of trials inside the
225 House of Commons. Barry was not supportive. In a statement of 4 May 1854, he argued that
226 altering the existing glazing would be complicated and expensive, but also raised concerns
227 about the risk of draughts if windows were opened during sittings (*House of Lords* 1854:
228 Q495).

229

230 Barry's reservations are not surprising as the scheme represented a clear departure from his
231 original concept. From 1847 to 1854 the chamber was mechanically ventilated and
232 permanently sealed in order to exclude atmospheric pollution and maintain stable climate
233 conditions. The original windows had two layers of fixed glazing, comprising an inner layer of
234 stained glass and an external layer of clear plate glass. According to Alfred Meeson, a civil
235 engineer who had supervised the operation of Barry's system, their purpose was to provide:

236

237 stratum of air between the two glazings, which would prevent the cooling action of the
238 external atmosphere upon that of the House.

239 (House of Lords 1854: 104)

240

241 Meeson also warned that the opening of windows could result in draughts and loss of control
242 over the temperature, but he admitted that in ‘some states of the weather it might be very
243 pleasant and agreeable’ (House of Lords 1854: Q148).

244

245 Gurney, in contrast, advocated the introduction of openable windows (House of Lords 1854:
246 Q437). One key objective, first outlined in his report from 10 April 1854, was to achieve direct
247 communication ‘between the interior of the building and the open air’. He proposed fitting
248 openable windows inside the chamber and corridors. The original intention for the windows,
249 however, was neither to assist nor to replace the stacks, but to refresh the atmosphere before
250 and after sittings. Following the trials in the House of Commons, however, Gurney changed
251 his position. On 8 May 1854, he reported that ‘draughts could be felt, but not offensively’,
252 [AQ13] and in summer he believed that peers:

253

254 will like the windows open during sittings, there is a freshness from them which is very
255 agreeable.

256 (House of Lords 1854: Q692)

257

258 In his final report of 17 June 1854, Gurney made some allowance for their deployment during
259 sittings for ‘times when it was desirable’ (Gurney 1854) [AQ14] (Figure 6).

260

261 **Figure 6:** Open windows inside the Lords Chamber, 1869.

262 *Source:* [AQ15] British Library.

263

264 Gurney’s scheme, completed in December 1854, involved substantial changes to Barry’s
265 original glazing. A total of 24 casements, two in each window, were installed inside the
266 debating chamber alone (Office of Works 1854; Barry 1854) (Figures 1: a and 2: a). These
267 were operated with cords from the exterior (Ministry of Works 1943a). The chamber windows
268 were also provided with retractable solar blinds (Figures 2: e, 5: e and 7) to protect the interior
269 from sunlight in the morning and afternoon. Although the House is enclosed with heavy
270 masonry walls, a substantial part of the exterior envelope was glazed. At the upper level glazing

271 accounted for nearly 40% of the wall surface, making the interior highly susceptible to heat
272 loss in winter and solar gains in summer. As the glazing was east and west facing, exposure to
273 sunlight were also highest in summer, when it was not always desirable.

274

275 **Figure 7:** Aerial photograph, January 1948, showing the external shading reinstated after the
276 war.

277 *Source:* [AQ16] [Historic England Archives, Photograph OP17839.](#)

278

279 Further operable lights were introduced in the adjacent lobbies, four in each of the two Division
280 Lobbies (**Figures 2** and **5: d**) and 12 inside the corridor at gallery level [AQ17] (**Figure 5: b**)
281 (**Office of Works** 1929b, 1929c). This arrangement allowed fresh air to be introduced either
282 directly, using the openings windows within the chamber itself, or indirectly, through several
283 doors, which use the windows inside Division Lobbies and gallery corridors (**Figures 1, 2** and
284 **5: c, f**).

285

286 These arrangements illustrate that environmental management was not solely the function of
287 building services. It represented a historical example of a hybrid system, which could be
288 operated in different modes [AQ18] (**Figure 8**). In the sealed mode the air was conditioned,
289 introduced through the floor and extracted through the ceiling with the aid of shafts. In the
290 second mode, some fresh air was introduced through windows at a high level. In the third mode,
291 which was only deployed occasionally to mitigate overheating during large sittings or hot
292 weather, natural ventilation was increased by opening windows and doors on the principal and
293 gallery level (**Ministry of Public Building** 1964).

294

295 **Figure 8:** Three operational modes.

296 *Source:* Author's own drawing

297

298 3.3 THE OPERATIONAL ARCHITECTURE

299 The system was operated manually, following a set of environmental monitoring and control
300 procedures. In addition to the ventilation, cooling, heating and humidification, staff had to
301 manage the auxiliary system of windows, doors and shades, and also monitor the internal
302 climate through measurements, direct observations and the review of user feedback. Archival
303 records do not provide details about the degree of control that Gurney aimed to provide, apart
304 from a brief note in a report of 1857, which refers to 'working temperature' of 64°F (18°C)

305 and relative humidity between 55% and 82% (House of Commons 1857). Temperatures were
306 measured with traditional mercury thermometers, whilst dry- and wet-bulb thermometers were
307 deployed to measure relative humidity. Between 1862 and 1889 temperature readings were
308 collected every 30 minutes at different locations within the House (House of Lords 1869a:
309 Q105) and recorded in paper registers (House of Lords 1883a: Q344). Historical photographs
310 show, for instance, that two thermometers were fixed to the wooden screens of the bar (Farmer
311 n.d.) and one near the box for the Usher of the Black Rod (Stone 1897). The collection of data
312 enabled staff to receive constant feedback on the state of the internal climate, and temperature
313 records were also acted as evidence used in conversation with users.¹

314

315 The technical staff also collaborated with senior officials inside the House, who took a central
316 role in communication feedback on user experience and in managing the auxiliary system.
317 Whilst the technical staff was not permitted to enter the chamber during sittings, officials had
318 dedicated seats inside, enabling them to directly interact with the peers. The Lord High
319 Chancellor, who was the presiding officer, sat on the Woolsack in the centre, whilst the
320 Serjeant-at-Arms had a dedicated seat near the throne, and the Usher of the Black Rod occupied
321 a box at the opposite end (House of Lords 1950a). Acting as intermediaries, these officials
322 interacted with the lords about issues of thermal comfort, air quality or the use of windows,
323 and, if necessary, issued instructions to the ventilation department for ad-hoc adjustments.

324

325 This level of participation of officials, which continued until the 1960s (Lord Chamberlain
326 1963), illustrate that Gurney's system was dependent on a social feedback mechanism. This
327 process is not solely a matter of historical interest, but was a central feature of an approach to
328 thermal comfort that took into consideration user experience alongside measurements. User
329 feedback were important in its operation in two ways. In addition to enabling a continual
330 engagement with personal experiences and expectations, it gave the operational staff insights
331 into the full range of thermal stimuli, including those that were not measured as part of the
332 monitoring regime. Amongst such factors was the cooling effect of currents entering through
333 the perforated floors or the impact of natural ventilation. *Figure 9* shows the respective role of
334 measurements, direct observation by staff and officials and user feedback in its day-to-
335 management.

336

337 **Figure 9: Socio-technical control and feedback system.**

338 *Note: M = measurements; O = direct observation by staff and officials; and SR = user feedback.*

339 *Source: Author's own drawing.*

340

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342 **4. PART 2: THE OPERATIONAL HISTORY OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS, 1854–** 343 **1966**

344 The previous section has shown that lords and officials had roles in the operation of the system.
345 Institutional records, covering 112 years of operational history, illustrate that they also
346 participated in investigations into the performance of Gurney's arrangements. Most of these
347 investigations were initiated by peers and officials rather than engineers. Peers voiced criticism
348 in parliamentary debates, wrote letters to the Office of Works and also exercised influence
349 through Select Committees responsible for the administration.² The fact that the membership
350 of these committees comprised lords and officials rather than technologists is significant as it
351 gave users the ability to influence the direction of technical studies undertaken by the Office
352 of Works.

353

354 The history of these engagements can be divided into four phases. The first period was
355 characterised by earlier evaluations of Gurney's system, which was followed by a period of
356 minor adaptations in which new technologies were introduced to enhance its performance. The
357 third phase (1935–62) was dominated by a final reappraisal of the system, using modern
358 scientific methods, and first inquiries into adopting mechanical air-conditioning. The final
359 phase (1962–66) was the development of the first air-conditioning system.

360

361 **4.1 THE FIRST PERIOD: GURNEY'S ORIGINAL SYSTEM IN USE, 1863–1922**

362 For the first seven years the operation of the system was under Gurney's direct supervision,
363 but the earliest inquiries into questions of climate control were undertaken the 1860s, when
364 John Percy had succeeded Gurney as superintendent. In July 1865, the administrative Select
365 Committee came to the conclusion that the system was 'capable of great improvement', and
366 asked the Office of Works to undertake an investigation (*Daily News* 1865). This inquiry,
367 coordinated by Percy, identified problems with the cooling strategy. In his report, dated 20
368 February 1866, he wrote that evaporative cooling was not always sufficient to mitigate high
369 temperatures during the summer and that it was necessary to exploit the cooling effect of
370 currents to improve comfort. When the air was warm, Percy noted, [AQ19] 'a higher velocity
371 will not merely be tolerated, but even may prove agreeable' (Percy 1866). This approach,
372 however, was difficult to realise in practice because the doors inside the courtyards did not

373 provide enough control to prevent ‘perceptible currents’ around the legs. To gain better control,
374 Percy remodelled the evaporate cooling system and also fitted the doors with adjustable louvres
375 ‘capable of easy and accurate adjustment’ (*Figure 10*).

376

377 **Figure 10:** Interior of the air chamber, 4 March 1966, showing the adjustable louvres of the
378 intakes.

379 *Source:* [AQ20] Strategic Estates Archives, Photograph G 10708/2.

380

381 Issues with managing currents, however, did not cease. Three years later, they were revisited
382 in response to new complaints. In summer 1869, when the lords had multiple larger debates,
383 the ventilation department had received several reports from peers, and on 16 July 1869, the
384 issue also became the subject of a debate. During this debate, lords mentioned draughts and
385 high temperatures, and some voiced a general scepticism of Gurney’s system, advocating a
386 return a simpler system of openable windows (*House of Lords* 1869b).

387

388 In an oral statement of 27 July 1869, Percy admitted to the Select Committee that the existing
389 cooling strategy, combining increased ventilation with mildly cooled air, had limitations. The
390 desired air temperature could be maintained at most times, apart from periods when exposed
391 to hot weather or crowded conditions (*House of Lords* 1869a: Q103). Historical data seem to
392 confirm his claim. Between February and June 1869, temperatures ranged from 60°F (15.5°C)
393 to 66°F (19°C), but reached 75°F (24°C) in July (*Office of Works* 1869). The ability to mitigate
394 high temperatures was limited as the injection of cooled air or a raising of the ventilation rate
395 could cause discomfort. Percy’s observation was that the atmosphere was ‘agreeable to the
396 largest number of persons’ at temperatures 62–64°F if the velocity did not exceed 1 ft 6 inches
397 per second [AQ21] (*House of Lords* 1869: Q12).

398

399 During hot summer days, such conditions were difficult to maintain. Percy reported that he
400 could provide the highest ventilation rate, which was eight air changes per hour, and kept the
401 temperature of the supply air between 58 and 59°F, but he received complaints from peers
402 about ‘cold draughts to their feet’ [AQ22] (*House of Lords* 1869: Q90–91). The ventilation
403 rate, which equated to 28.5 l/s per person during a high occupancy with 400 peers, was
404 extremely large, and calculations suggest they would have resulted in velocities five times
405 higher than Percy’s upper limit.

406

407 4.2 DIVERGING REGIMES OF A SYSTEM MANAGED IN DIALOGUE

408 Percy's statement illustrates the limitations of Gurney's system, but it also drew attention to
409 the issue of peers influencing the opening of windows. In Percy's view this prevented the
410 implementation of an effective cooling strategy. He believed that the interior could be kept
411 cooler if it remained sealed and supplied with cooled air through the floor. In hot weather, he
412 argued, open windows caused internal temperatures to rise, and during cool or windy
413 conditions they produced 'downdraughts of air on the heads of Peers'. He did intend to prohibit
414 the practice, but advised it to be limited to periods when it would not produce 'sensible
415 draughts' (House of Lords 1869a: Q104).

416

417 This illustrates that the technical staff and users had different views on the use of natural
418 ventilation, and this was also mirrored in the divisions of operational responsibilities. The
419 technical staff, which focused on the main system, did not have direct control over the windows
420 or shades. Their control was governed by the Lord Chancellor, drawing on his own
421 observations or feedback from fellow peers. His instructions did not always adhere to the
422 control regimes advocated by the engineers, but reflected the expectations of users. As such, it
423 could be argued that environmental control was subject two distinct regimes, reflecting
424 different views on how the climate ought to be managed, and the records show that user
425 interventions could become disruptive [AQ23] (House of Lords 1883: Q327).

426

427 Between 1878 and 1886, the interior climate became subject of further debates and inquiries,
428 and these revealed that summer cooling remained the most prominent issue. In July 1878, when
429 internal temperatures as high 75°F (24°C) were recorded (House of Lords 1878). Over the next
430 five years the records do not include any further mentions, but another review was undertaken
431 in 1883. This was led by an ad-hoc Select Committee and chaired by the Lord Chancellor
432 (House of Lords 1883b). This was originally appointed to review the acoustic and seating
433 arrangements, but following a request from the Earl of Milltown, it also revisited questions of
434 climate control (House of Lords 1883c). Percy gave another oral statement in which he largely
435 recounted the points he had raised during the 1869 inquiry. The Select Committee did not make
436 any recommendations, but three years later another review was undertaken. On 26 February
437 1886, the Earl of Limerick presented a motion asking for the Select Committee to undertake
438 another examination (House of Lords 1886a). The Select Committee only undertook a brief
439 assessment of the temperature records and in its report, published in March 1886,
440 acknowledged that temperature could become 'excessive for either comfort or health 'and

441 instructed the temperatures to be kept at a [AQ24] ‘uniform rate’ of 60°F (15.5°C) (House of
442 Lords 1883a).

443

444 4.3 THE SECOND PERIOD: INCREMENTAL CHANGE AND HYPOTHETICAL 445 DESIGN STUDIES, 1911–62

446 The period from 1865 and 1886 has shown that several smaller inquiries had been conducted
447 in response to criticism from peers, but Gurney’s system remained largely unchanged. In the
448 earlier 20th century, however, it entered a new phase, which lasted 38 years and was
449 characterised by hypothetical design studies looking at improvements of the system. These
450 were coordinated by the Engineering Division of the Office of Works, which, established in
451 1900, employed a team of specialist building services engineers (House of Commons 1914).

452

453 The earliest design studies were undertaken in response to overheating issues during an
454 exceptionally hot summer in 1911. In July, the Office of Works received a note saying that the:

455

456 ventilation is not nearly sufficient in hot weather and the atmosphere is at times very
457 oppressive

458

459 and that the lords wished a larger number of openable windows (Office of Works 1911). Whilst
460 acknowledging occasional issues with high temperature, the resident engineer, Arthur Patey,
461 did not believe that they could be resolved through a larger number of openable windows (Patey
462 1911a). Following his advice, Chief Engineer Howard McFerran informed the Lord Great
463 Chamberlain that improvements could only be achieved if the system were substantially
464 remodelled (McFerran 1911). Over the following six months, Patey collaborated with Dr Louis
465 Parkes, sanitary advisor to the Office of Works, to produce two schemes that look at the
466 problem from physiological and technical perspectives (Patey 1911b).

467

468 The first scheme reversed the direction of the ventilation by moving the air supply to the
469 ceiling. Parkes endorsed this arrangement as it would prevent currents entering near the body,
470 even when the ventilation rates were boosted with electrically powered fans (Patey 1912b). It
471 had two pairs of fans, one for the supply at roof level and another serving the floor level extract,
472 located inside Victoria Tower. The second scheme (*Figure 11*) remodelled the air intake,
473 following principles that were previously adopted inside the House of Commons (Schoenefeldt
474 2019). It involved introducing three intakes on the river terrace, which were linked to the House

475 through passages at basement level. The supply air was driven by electric fans and conditioned
476 using a system of radiators, water jets and air filters (Patey 1912a).

477

478 **Figure 11:** Floor plan of the scheme for new air intake, 1912.

479 [AQ 1 = Intakes on the terrace; 2 = tempering radiator; 3 = wire gauze filters and water sprayers;
480 4 = fans; 5 = heating batteries; 6 = damper to switch between cold air (bypass) and the heating
481 mode; 7 = air passage; 8 = damper to divert the supply to the fog filter during heavy smog; 9 =
482 fog filter (during heavy smog only); 10 = valves for supply to the chamber above; blue = cold
483 air; and pink = warm air.

484 *Source:* [AQ25] National Archives.

485

486 Due to the high costs, none of the proposals was realised, and following the outbreak of the
487 First World War in 1914, the inquiries were paused for six years. The only change, completed
488 in 1923, was the installation of electric extract fans, which replaced the use of stacks with coke
489 fires (Office of Works 1923). Although they were never implemented, Patey's proposals
490 represented a significant change in the approach to improving climate control. He did not go
491 as far as introducing mechanical air-conditioning, but Patey was the first to consider the
492 application of new technologies. This raised the question whether the historical system could
493 be retained and improved through minor adaptations, or needed replacing.

494

495 <A>

496 **5. PART 3: TRANSITION TO MECHANICAL AIR-CONDITIONING**

497 5.1 FIRST ENQUIRIES, 1935–37

498 The idea of an air-conditioned chamber was first proposed by peers in 1935. On 24 July, the
499 Marquess of Linlithgow presented a motion, asking the Offices Committee to consider the
500 introduction 'of an up-to-date air conditioning plant', claiming that modern technology could
501 offer a higher level of control. The Earl of Onslow, who acted as its chairman, considered the
502 matter too technical for the Offices Committee, and referred the query to the Engineering
503 Division. This subsequently conducted a large scientific investigation to evaluate the
504 performance of the existing system and determine whether air-conditioning would be necessary
505 to achieve adequate levels of comfort (Macintyre 1935).

506

507 **Figure 12:** Temperature and humidity recorded inside the House of Lords, October 1935 and
508 September 1936.

509 *Source: Author's own drawing.*

510

511 In his final report dated 18 November 1936, Dr Thomas Bedford, a physiologist from the
512 Medical Research Council (MRC) who was renowned for his pioneering research on thermal
513 comfort, concluded that high indoor temperatures, combined with insufficient air movement,
514 were the main cause of discomfort in summer (Bedford 1936c). His study yielded detailed data
515 on the internal conditions (Office of Works 1936a, 1936b), but did not include data of the
516 external conditions. An analysis, undertaken using historical weather data from the observatory
517 at Kensington Palace, London (*Figure 12*), suggests that the interior was always marginally
518 cooler than outdoors. Although this was not always sufficient for comfort, problems with
519 excessive temperatures or relative humidity only occurred for short periods. The MRC wrote
520 that at temperatures between 65°F (18°C) and 70°F (21°C), which was typical for the chamber,
521 a relative humidity of 35–65% would be acceptable from a thermal comfort perspective. At
522 70°F (21°C), it noted, discomfort would only be experienced if the relative humidity either
523 fell below 25% or exceeded 70% (Bedford 1938). The historical data suggest that such
524 conditions only occurred briefly. Temperature above 70°F (21°C) were encountered on 15 days
525 over the monitoring period. Most of these occurred during the hottest period of the year (18–
526 26 June) when outdoor temperatures of 76°F (24.4°C) to 83°F (28°C) were recorded. On these
527 days, the internal temperature ranged from 72°F (22°C) to 77°F (25°C). In May, July and
528 August, temperatures between 72°F (22°C) and 73°F (23°C) were recorded on only five days.
529 Relative humidity in excess of 70% was recorded on 49 days between June and September
530 1936, but only coincided with indoor temperatures of 70°F (21°C) or above on five days.

531

532 The study also concluded that the opening of windows only caused a marginal rise in
533 temperature in summer, but noticeably improved comfort by increasing air movement (Bedford
534 1936d, 1936e). These findings were significant because they not only challenged earlier claims
535 by engineers that the interior had to be sealed for Gurney's cooling strategy to be effective, but
536 also provided evidence that supported the claims by peers that opening windows could improve
537 comfort, which hitherto had only been an assumption based on personal experience.

538

539 The final verdict of the study was that air-conditioning could help to improve conditions in
540 summer, but also that additional changes were necessary to provide air movement. Following
541 a principle that had been tested inside the House of Commons in the 1920s (Schoenefeldt

542 2022), Bedford proposed to relocate the air supply from the floor to the gallery level and create
543 an artificial breeze by injecting air horizontally into the space.

544

545 As this proposal would have required substantial and expensive alterations, the Office of Works
546 explored cheaper alternatives. John Macintyre, the engineer who had reviewed Bedford's
547 scheme, suggested agitating the air through a simple arrangements of ceiling fan instead of
548 remodelling the supply (Macintyre 1936). At the beginning of 1937, a technical committee
549 with staff from the Office of Works and MRC reviewed Bedford's and Macintyre's reports.
550 Aware of the cost implications, it recommended mostly operational changes. During the
551 daytime, it advised keeping the windows sealed and shaded and providing air movement
552 through ceiling fans (DSIR 1937), whilst during the night windows were to be opened to cool
553 the structural fabric naturally. Neither the smaller interventions nor Bedford's scheme was
554 implemented, and following the outbreak of the Second World War in 1939, the inquiries were
555 intermitted for a decade.

556

557 5.2 THE HOUSE OF LORDS UNDER TEMPORARY OCCUPATION, 1941–50

558 In May 1941, the House of Commons chamber was destroyed by German incendiary bombs,
559 whilst the House of Lords, which had suffered comparatively minor damage, was repaired and
560 altered to function as a temporary home for the House of Commons. The lords decanted to a
561 small temporary chamber inside the King's Robing Room at the south end of the Royal Gallery.
562 Amongst the alterations to the historic Lords Chamber was the enlargement of the seating area
563 (House of Lords 1949), installation of acoustic panels (NPL 1941), and repairs of war damage
564 to the windows and Gurney's system [AQ26] (House of Lords 1943). The changes to Gurney'
565 system included the introduction of steam radiators (Figure 10) and the reinstatement of the
566 air intakes and evaporate cooling [AQ27] (House of Commons 1947a, 1947b).

567

568 Members of Parliament occupied the Lords Chamber from June 1941 to October 1950, and
569 despite the higher occupancy, the number of complaints about the climate was low, a fact that
570 significantly influenced later discussions about air-conditioning after the war. During the war
571 years, the records only include evidence of two complaints regarding the climate (House of
572 Commons 1943a, 1943b). Instead, most of the criticism was about the [AQ28] 'absence of
573 daylight' (House of Commons 1942a, 1942b), but due to blackout requirements, glazing was
574 only reintroduced during the summer of 1945 (Ministry of Works 1943b). Similar to Gurney's
575 original design, the new windows had two layers of glazing and external blinds (Ministry of

576 Works 1943c, 1947), but the number of openable casement was reduced by half, and instead
577 of reinstating the old system of ropes, casements were fitted with mechanical winding gears
578 that were manually operated from the exterior. The Speaker of the House of Commons was
579 charged with directing the opening and closing of the new windows and blinds (Burgess 1946)
580 [AQ29] (Figure 13).

581

582 **Figure 13:** Details of windows with operating gear, 20 October 1943.

583 *Note:* 1 = Hand-operated gear on the exterior with a handle; 2 = upper boxes; 3 = vertical rod
584 linking the hand-operated gear to the upper gearbox; 4 = horizontal rod linking the upper
585 gearbox to the levers of two openable casements; 5 = levers; 6 = vertical rod linking the bottom
586 and top levers of the casements; 7 = openable casement; and 8 = two layers of fixed glazing
587 with stained glass internally and plain glass externally.

588 *Source:* National Archives, Work 11 Series, Box 443.

589

590 5.3 SIMPLE RESTORATION DURING DECANT, 1950–51

591 In October 1950, the Members of Parliament moved into their new chamber, but the lords
592 continued to sit in the Robing Room for another six months to allow their chamber to be
593 restored [AQ30] (House of Lords 1850c, 1850d). This focused largely on the interior, but a
594 subcommittee appointed by the Offices Committee to plan the restoration [AQ31] (House of
595 Lords 1850a, 1850b), was commissioned by the ministry to revisit Bedford's original proposal
596 from 1936. In final report of July 1950, the ministry concluded that it would be difficult to
597 implemented without causing damage to the historic fabric (Sizer 1950). In the autumn, when
598 the ministry's Maintenance Division had taken over the coordination of the restoration
599 programme, the inquiry was discontinued and instead it explored a series of smaller
600 interventions. The original estimates and specifications show that the Maintenance Division
601 proposed to introduce an electrical monitoring system and replace the canvas screens with a
602 mechanical air purification system (Mole 1950). Only the monitoring system was adopted,
603 which was a first step towards the mechanisation of environmental monitoring procedures.
604 Although staff still had to take record readings and enter them manually into paper logbooks,
605 the technology simplified this process by enabling staff to take readings remotely. The
606 conventional thermometers inside the chamber and lobbies were replaced with seven 'distance
607 reading thermometers' which could be read remotely from a control panel at the north end of
608 the chamber (Ministry of Works 1951).

609

610 5.4 RETURN TO THE OLD HOUSE, 1951

611 The lords returned to their historical chamber on 29 May 1951 (House of Lords 1951a), and
612 four months later the ministry's Engineering Division briefly revisited the question of air-
613 conditioning, but, as before, it concluded that the problems were not sufficiently serious to
614 justify the expense and postponed its inquiries. The ministry only reconsidered the adoption of
615 air-conditioning after five years, following a request from the Lord Great Chamberlain,
616 Marquis of Cholmondeley. A short inquiry was completed in January 1956. An engineer, H.
617 T. Denbon, produced a proposal and concluded that it was feasible to install air-conditioning
618 equipment without damaging the interior. His proposal was to place it inside the roof space and
619 introduce conditioned air from the top using the historical ceiling apertures.

620
621 However, the cost of the proposed installation, estimated at £100,000, was still high and
622 considered too expensive by the Leader of the House, Alec Douglas-Home (Denbon 1956).

623
624 No further alterations were undertaken for three years, but criticism of the climate did not cease.
625 In the summer of 1959, Cholmondeley asked the Offices Committee to consider another
626 inquiry. The Sergeant-at-Arms observed that a 'general dissatisfaction' was voiced by its
627 members [AQ32] 'about the ventilation arrangements in the chamber, both in warm summer
628 weather and in winter' (Mackintosh 1959). The Offices Committee also believed that the
629 climate could only be materially improved through air-conditioning, but considered the cost
630 prohibitive. Instead, Cholmondeley proposed that the resident engineer, Thomas Hoyland,
631 investigate how the situation could instead be 'ameliorated at moderate expense' (Mackintosh
632 1959). In August 1959, Hoyland presented his preliminary report, which provided a first
633 technical appraisal of Gurney's system in its post-war state (Hoyland 1959). He identified
634 cooling and humidity control as the main issue. In winter, he noted, the atmosphere was
635 difficult to breath as the relative humidity was too low, whilst the historical method of
636 evaporative cooling was not always effective. He attributed it to the fact that the sprinklers
637 were fed with ordinary mains water without being chilled, and that air inside the courtyards
638 was also often too hot, reaching temperatures of up to 85°F (29°C).

639
640 Over the following two years, Hoyland and Denbon trialled various technical interventions to
641 rectify these shortfalls (Bull 1959). Amongst these were experiments with automating
642 temperature control through thermostatic devices (Cunliffe 1960a). Denbon found that these
643 thermostats achieved 'a constant temperature in the chamber within reasonable limits' in

644 winter, but did not help to regulate of relative humidity or prevent high temperatures in
645 summer. A brief trial with mechanical humidification was undertaken, but it was discontinued
646 due to the noise of the equipment (Mackintosh 1959). The installation of more silent
647 equipment, estimated to cost £3000, was considered too expensive (Cunliffe 1960a). The last
648 alteration was the installation of a new, more silent, extractor fan, which, by reducing noise
649 levels, allowed the mechanical ventilation to operate at higher rates during sittings (Cunliffe
650 1960b). On 30 March 1960, Denbon sent a summary of his findings to the Lord Chamberlain
651 in which he admitted that the level of improvement that could be achieved with a small budget
652 was limited (Denbon 1960).

653

654 5.5 TRANSITIONING TOWARDS A FIRST AIR-CONDITIONING SYSTEM, 655 1962–66

656 These investigations show that the engineers had significant limitations imposed on what could
657 be done. Without access to adequate funding, they could only implement minor interventions,
658 whilst peers continued to voice their dissatisfaction. Between 1961 and 1963, attitudes towards
659 the cost or practical benefits of air-conditioning also began to change. In 1963, Cholmondeley
660 initiated a new inquiry in response to criticism by Lord Amphthill. During a sitting on 18 March
661 1963, he stated that:

662

663 my throat gets drier and drier, I often wish your Lordships could do your work in the
664 same pleasant temperature and humidity as exists in the making and packing rooms in
665 our factories. Seriously, my Lords, something should be done about the ventilation of
666 this Chamber.

667 (House of Lords 1963a)

668

669 Although it was only a single remark, it prompted Cholmondeley to commission a new
670 investigation (Mackintosh 1963). In contrast to previous inquiries, Cholmondeley no longer
671 objected to the idea on cost grounds, and also felt more confident that H.M. Treasury would
672 fund it [AQ33] (Ministry of Public Building 1864). The Engineering Division subsequently
673 reviewed the previous studies and also examined technological advances that had been made
674 since Denbon's inquiry of 1956. One important development was the introduction of high-
675 velocity fans, which enabled the use of smaller ducts and made it easier to accommodate air-
676 conditioning within the historic fabric (Bedford 1963). The Office Committee approved a
677 feasibility study on 31 July 1963, and this time also considered the adoption of air-conditioning

678 ‘a matter of urgency’ (House of Lords 1963b). In three months, the Engineering Division
679 completed the feasibility study and structural surveys, which were coordinated by the building
680 services engineer, J. C. Knight. The purpose of the survey was to gain a better understanding
681 of the existing system and how far it could provide the space required to accommodate the air-
682 conditioning equipment without damaging the historic fabric.

683

684 At the end of November 1963, the Engineering Division had completed a cost estimate, report
685 and drawings (*Figure 14*) for a first detailed proposal (Ministry of Public Building 1963).
686 These show that the entire system was to be placed inside the existing air chambers below the
687 House, but none of the old masonry shafts was reused. As it was considered impossible to
688 provide outlets at gallery level without interfering with the ornamental panels (Waterman
689 1964), they had to be provided at floor level. The use of perforated floors, however, was to be
690 discontinued and replaced with a series of rectangular floor grills below the benches. They
691 were linked to four air-handling units through metal ducts. The intention was to subdivide the
692 debating into four separate zones to enable the interior climate to be controlled locally. Each
693 plant was linked to a separate set of sensors inside the chamber, and provided with automated
694 controls, enabling it to react to any climatic changes caused by fluctuations in occupancy level
695 or weather conditions (Barrow 1964a; Engineering Division 1963). The air extract continued
696 at the ceiling. As a result of these constraints, the proposed system only allowed the atmosphere
697 on the principal floor to be air-conditioned.

698

699 **Figure 14:** Proposed air-conditioning system, November 1963, show ductwork and the
700 configuration of floor grills.

701 *Source:* National Archives, Work 11 Series, Box 588.

702

703 5.6 EXPERIMENTAL VERIFICATION, 1964–65

704 Knight advised that the design was tested and refined through physical experiments. Their
705 purpose was to predict how far the new configuration of outlets would produce uncomfortable
706 current around the benches (Bowley 1964a).

707

708 The proposal was to install a life-size mock-up of the system inside the House. It was composed
709 of a single air-handling unit, which was attached to new grills underneath four rows of benches
710 through flexible ducts (*Figure 15*). The objective was to test the arrangement *in situ* and also

711 to [AQ34] ‘obtain the reaction of Peers to the various alternative methods of introducing air’
712 (Barrow 1964b).

713

714 The trials were undertaken in April 1965. Victor Medvei, Chief Medical Advisor to H.M.
715 Treasury, stressed that:

716

717 [AQ35] great care must be taken to reduce the draught to a minimum and the
718 temperature of the air coming in from below should not be kept too low.

719 (Medvei 1964)

720

721 The first demonstration, conducted on 8 April, was attended by the Sergeant-at-Arms and seven
722 peers, four of whom were members of the Offices Committee. The engineers reported that the
723 participant feedback was positive, but following requests from Lord Merthyr, Chairman of the
724 Office Committee, additional demonstrations were undertaken during actual sittings on 13–14
725 April 1965, with attendance of 100–200 peers (Ministry of Public Building 1965a). On these
726 two days the interior temperature was closely monitored (Ministry of Public Building 1965b)
727 and the Serjeant-at-Arms also observed the peers to obtain their [AQ36] ‘reaction to air
728 movement from the floor’ (Ministry of Public Building 1965c). The Sergeant did not receive
729 any complaints about currents and the engineers’ log mentions only ‘one complaint of
730 overheating at 4.40 approx’ on 14 April 1965 (Ministry of Public Building 1965d). Although
731 the test phase was only brief, the engineers considered it sufficient to verify the viability of the
732 new configuration of outlets from a comfort perspective. The full air-conditioning system was
733 completed and operational in October 1966 (House of Commons 1966), which marked the end
734 of a prolonged period of transition from historical to modern principles of climate control.

735

736 **Figure 15:** Sketch of the mock-up system, June 1965.

737 *Source:* [AQ37] Parliamentary Archives, POW/1/13.

738

739 <A>

740 **6. CONCLUSIONS: RECOVERING THE ENVIRONMENTAL HERITAGE**

741 The operational history of the House of Lords has elucidated a process of technological change
742 within a historic building. This has demonstrated that practices of environmental control were
743 subject to changes, and these were the outcome of critical engagements with the system’s
744 performance, considering the perspectives of consultants, operators and users. It underwent

745 several cycles of reappraisal, and these reflected a gradual change in the approach to improving
746 climate control. Over the first 50 years the focus was on the assessment and refinement of
747 Gurney's original principles, but from 1911, it shifted towards enhancements through modern
748 technologies. These enhancements continued to follow rather than disrupt the original
749 principles, but during the final phase, which began in 1935, adherence to the original principles
750 began to fade and the final installation of mechanical air-conditioning in 1966 marked a clear
751 break. This break resulted in the decommissioning of the historical technical arrangements,
752 which, aside from the early methods of 'air-conditioning', constitute auxiliary systems of
753 natural ventilation and shading. However, these changes were not solely technological. They
754 also involved the discontinuation of the complex social processes associated with the historical
755 system.

756

757 6.1 EPHEMERAL ARCHITECTURES OF CHANGE

758 This research did not explore whether the new technology was more effective than its historical
759 predecessor or if occupants were satisfied with the thermal comfort provision of the new
760 mechanical air-conditioning system, but it showed that its decommissioning was not driven by
761 evidence of the technical deficiencies alone, but also by a shift in attitude towards 19th-century
762 technology amongst engineers and occupants. The primary focuses of this shift in attitude was
763 on thermal comfort, whilst current concerns, such as energy efficiency, carbon emissions or
764 operational costs associated with mechanical solutions, did not receive any considerations.
765 Occupants were no longer prepared to tolerate the levels of thermal comfort of the previous
766 decades, and from the mid-1930s engineers also began to adopt the view that adequate climate
767 conditions could not always be maintained without air-conditioning.

768

769 The substantial cost for the installation of mechanical air-conditioning, alongside the impact of
770 two world wars, however, led to its adoption being delayed by 30 years. Over this period
771 engineers had to confine themselves to minor alterations. Only in the mid-1960s did the House
772 of Lords administration feel that it could justify the cost. The debates about installation costs
773 are significant because they are underpinned by the fundamental question of how far the lords
774 would accept some thermal discomfort, even if it were moderate and confined to brief periods.
775 It also needs to be noted that advocacy for air-conditioning was largely founded on the opinion
776 of some peers. Between 1935 and 1964, the air-conditioning question was revisited multiple
777 times in response to comments from individuals, yet this represented only the view of a small,

778 yet vocal, minority. Their comments cannot be considered objective evidence of building
779 performance.

780

781 By providing a critical understanding of the relationship between architecture and climate
782 control, this research also touches on issues of historic building conservation. The changes of
783 the 20th century represented a disruption of a historical relationship characterised by a hybrid
784 of architectural and technological approaches to climate control. In the House of Lords, as in
785 other public buildings of the 19th century, the introduction of air-conditioning resulted in the
786 historical environmental features becoming redundant. Some were lost, but most lay dormant
787 within the fabric. Although currently inactive, these features are the tangible evidence of the
788 transient environmental heritage of architecture. This research suggests that the evolution of
789 climate control practices of historical buildings can only be fully understood if they are viewed
790 as a process of continual engagement, in which past and current arrangements represent no
791 more than transient positions.

792

793 6.2 A HERITAGE-LED APPROACH TO ENVIRONMENTAL DESIGN

794 **Vidar** (2015) and **Short** (2017), amongst others, have argued that past environmental principles
795 could provide lessons for the modern sustainable architecture, but this article suggests that the
796 future restoration of historic public buildings offers the opportunity to re-examine the utility of
797 past principles and explore how far their revival could provide the basis for what could be
798 described a heritage-led approach to sustainable system design. In contrast to the principles of
799 engineering design deployed in the design of new buildings, this heritage-led approach begins
800 with a recovery of knowledge of the environmental principles underlying the original design
801 of existing buildings. The study of operational histories of environmental technologies, which
802 has been demonstrated here, can provide the foundation for such a heritage-led approach. It
803 can provide designers with the knowledge needed to reappraise the past rejection of historical
804 principles in favour of mechanical engineering solutions. The history of past inquiries suggests
805 that the verdict of the 1960s was not definitive nor are the physical changes irreversible, with
806 climate change providing the impetus for future reappraisals. These need to engage with
807 changes in the cultural definition of comfort. Historically summer temperature of 75°F (24°C)
808 were considered unacceptable, but according to current technical guidance, the House never
809 experienced overheating. The highest temperature found in the archival records, 77°F (25°C),
810 is acceptable according to current Chartered Institution of Building Services Engineers
811 (CIBSE) guidance for non-airconditioned office buildings, and overheating only occurs in non-

812 airconditioned environments if the temperature exceeds 28°C (82.4F) for more than 1% of the
813 occupied period (CIBSE 2006: 1.11–1.12).

814

815 To fully appreciate the system, however, its performance needs to be assessed in the light of
816 its social approach to delivering comfort, which sheds critical light on current and late 20th-
817 century practices of facilities management. [AQ38] According to Cooper (1982), modern
818 approaches to facilities management involve the ‘expropriation from building occupants of
819 user autonomy’ through a transfer to automated systems and a paternalistic model of
820 centralised control, and administration by technical specialists on the occupant’s behalf. In the
821 House of Lords, the system was operated by technical specialists who were tasked to maintain
822 physical conditions that were believed to satisfy the majority of occupants in most
823 circumstances. These, however, could be adjusted any time to reflect changes in occupants’
824 perception of the thermal environment. If viewed through the lens of Cooper’s critique, the
825 historical system demonstrates an alternative approach to environmental control, which
826 attempted to reconcile user autonomy with centralised management. This approach closely
827 aligns with the principles of adaptive comfort theory, which is based on the assumption that
828 occupants feel comfortable in a greater range of conditions if they are given the opportunity to
829 adapt to their environment, either through personal changes, such as clothing, activity or
830 posture, or by allowing them to adjust the controls of the environmental system (Humphreys
831 *et al.* 2020). In the House of Lords, occupants could effect some changes to the ventilation,
832 climate conditions or the use of windows, but as it was a shared space of opportunities for
833 adjustment had to be paired with a process of mediation, which was convened by officials
834 rather than technologists. These officials were occupants themselves, had the authority to
835 influence the operation, but they also advocated for the views and demands of their co-
836 occupants in communications with the technical staff. Their view of how the system ought to
837 be managed did not always align with those of technical operators. It involved an ongoing
838 process of negotiation between user- and specialist-led approaches to control.

839

840 These mechanisms of user participation were critical for the practical implementation of the
841 historical approach to thermal comfort. Without mechanical refrigeration, the House relied on
842 the combination of multiple techniques for cooling, and intimate knowledge of occupant
843 experience of the combined effect of these methods was fundamental to their practical
844 implementation. As a direct result, delivering thermal comfort was highly dependent on
845 complex social processes, and these can be considered part of the intangible heritage of past

846 environmental practices. These provide evidence of the idea that thermal comfort is a cultural
847 practice, which was not independent from the particular technologies or social contexts, but
848 substantively shaped by them. The 20th-century theory of thermal comfort was strongly
849 influenced by the development of design standards for air-conditioned environments. In the
850 case of the House of Lords, it was shaped by the capabilities and limitations of 19th-century
851 technologies. This was most clearly illustrated by the passive cooling strategy. As its capacity
852 to reduce air temperature was relatively limited compared with modern systems with
853 mechanical refrigeration, it had to exploit other physiological mechanisms to achieve thermal
854 comfort, such as the cooling sensation of increased air movement. This demonstrated an
855 alternative culture of thermal comfort, which was characterised by the utilisation of multiple
856 approaches to delivering human comfort in hot weather, which varied over time, yielding a
857 system with a high degree of operational agility. Therefore, if the critical revival of historical
858 methods of climate control is to provide an alternative to air-conditioning, its design needs to
859 be based on an understanding of these alternative cultures. Designers need not only to engage
860 with the technical design aspects, such as the relative environmental functions of architectural
861 fabric and building services, but also to develop an understanding of their implications for the
862 culture of facilities management.

863

864 <A>**NOTES**

865 **t/s to move endnotes here**

866

867 <A>**ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

868 [AQ1]

869

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873

874 <A>**COMPETING INTERESTS**

875 [AQ2] The author has no competing interests to declare.

876

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¹ The technical staff was employed by HM Office of Works, a government department that, from 1854 to 1943, was in charge of managing the parliamentary estate. It had set up the Department of Ventilation, Warming and Lighting to coordinate the operation and maintenance of building services across Parliament.

² From 1864 to 1889, the Lords administration was led by the Select Committee on the Office of the Clerk of the Parliaments and Office of the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod. From 1890, the committee became known as the House of Lords Offices Committee ([House of Commons 1894](#)).