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Influence of surrounding buildings on wind flow around a building predicted by CFD simulations

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Simulation of intermediate terrain between an urban configuration and a meteorological station with the use of roughness length.
- Study of minimum number of surrounding buildings to be included when simulating wind flow around a target building.
- Verification of the simulation results with measured wind velocity on building rooftops.
- Examination of the use of these approaches for different wind directions.

ABSTRACT

This investigation used wind information from a meteorological station to conduct a CFD study of wind distribution in an urban configuration. The study treated the computational domain with detailed building structures only in the proximity of the urban configuration, and treated other regions with roughness. The resulting mean wind velocity was 5.5% higher than that computed with the use of detailed building structures between the meteorological station and the urban configuration, which is acceptable for most applications. This investigation then explored the influence of surrounding buildings on the wind flow around the target building with different geometrical models. The models differed in terms of the geometrical details around the building. The results showed that the surrounding buildings had a considerable impact on the wind flow around the target building due to the sheltering and channeling effect. When the details of the surrounding building structures were not taken into account, the wind flow around the building was inaccurate and unacceptable. The predicted wind speed and pressure distributions improved with an increase in the level of detail of the surrounding building structures. To achieve acceptable results, a CFD simulation should use detailed building structures around the target building within a radius of at least three times the length scale, where the length scale is the largest dimension of the target building. The results of the study can serve as a practical guide for predicting airflow around an urban configuration or a building.

Keywords: Urban wind flow, Geometric model, Surface roughness, Experimental verification

1. Introduction

The investigation of wind around buildings in an urban configuration in the lower part of the atmospheric boundary layer (0-200 m) [1] is crucial in many wind environmental problems, including natural ventilation design, pedestrian comfort, and air pollutant dispersion [2, 3]. Solving wind-environment problems requires the study of wind flow into an urban configuration [4, 5]. With the development of computing resources and grid-generation techniques, an increasing number of researchers have adopted computational fluid dynamics

41 (CFD) in their investigation of urban wind environments [6-9]. The accuracy of CFD
42 simulations relies on many factors, and to the knowledge of the authors, computational
43 domain and representation of surroundings are the prerequisite to acquire accurate results
44 [10].

45 Traditional CFD models for urban flow simulation can be classified as meso-scale models
46 (10 to 200 km in the horizontal direction) and micro-scale models (100 m to 2 km in the
47 horizontal direction) [11,12]. Meso-scale models do not provide detailed flow information
48 below the urban canopy layer. Because these models use parametrization methods for the
49 building details, the results are not useful for designing natural ventilation in buildings,
50 pedestrian comfort, or air-pollutant dispersion [13,14]. Micro-scale models use
51 meteorological data from several kilometer away as the inflow boundary and do not explicitly
52 consider the effect of the distance from the meteorological station to the urban configuration.
53 Thus, the simulated wind environment may not be accurate [15,16]. We [17] previously
54 proposed a full-scale model (typically 2 to 20 km long) that is a cross between a micro-scale
55 and a meso-scale model. The full-scale model is similar to a micro-scale model in that the
56 building details are explicitly constructed; however, the computational domain extends from
57 the urban configuration site to a meteorological station several kilometer away. The full-scale
58 model was able to produce the wind velocity distribution in the urban configuration with the
59 use of wind information from a meteorological station 10 km away from the urban
60 configuration. Although the full-scale model calculated the wind distribution at the urban
61 configuration site with reasonable accuracy, constructing all the building details in the
62 computational domain was very time consuming, and the computation required significant
63 computing resources.

64 In fact, we are concerned only with the flow distribution inside a particular urban
65 configuration. Therefore, it would be more practical to only construct building details inside
66 the urban configuration area, while treating the terrain between the urban configuration and
67 the meteorological station as some kinds of resistance. The question now is how to
68 manipulate the urban architecture between the urban configuration and the meteorological
69 station. Meso-scale models generally use parametrization methods for building details in
70 order to emphasize the impact of geographical and meteorological conditions on urban wind
71 environments [18]. These parametrization methods can be classified into three categories,
72 drag force parametrization [19-21], porosity concepts [22-24] and roughness length
73 approaches [25-27]. The drag force parametrization and porosity concepts use wind tunnel
74 experimental data in which roughness elements are simple cubes with given distributions,
75 whereas actual urban constructions are highly spatially inhomogeneous; thus, the methods
76 may not be suitable for an actual urban environment. The roughness length method is a very
77 simple way to include the effects of urban terrain on wind speed and turbulence by using a
78 prescribed aerodynamic roughness z_0 in contrast to the urban terrain, which is of great
79 importance in building and wind engineering applications. However, the performance of the
80 method in representing building structures in an actual urban area for the purpose of urban
81 flow simulation has not been thoroughly evaluated.

82 In addition to the unresolved issue of representation of the intermediate terrain, another
83 problem is the size of the region in which building details should be explicitly constructed. In
84 an urban area, the wind flow around a building is often influenced by surrounding buildings
85 because of the buffeting, channeling, and sheltering effects [28, 29]. van Hooff and Blocken
86 [30] observed that the ACH (air change rate per hour) in a building was highly dependent on
87 the surrounding buildings. Excluding the urban environment in the computational domain can
88 lead to an overestimation of the ACH. Therefore, to ensure accurate results, it is important to
89 construct a reasonable representation of the surroundings in the CFD simulations. Tominaga
90 et al. [10] suggested the modelling of surrounding buildings within a 1H-2H radius from the

91 target building, where H is the height of the target building. Moreover, at least one additional
92 street block in each direction around the assessment region should also be clearly reproduced.
93 Tong et al. [31] recommended that three layers of buildings in the surroundings ($n = 3$) be
94 modelled explicitly for regular street canyons ($H/W = 1$, where H is the height of the building
95 on the street side, and W is the width of the street) under normal and oblique wind directions,
96 while reducing the influence region to two layers ($n = 2$) for wide canyons ($H/W = 1/3$) and a
97 high-rise configuration. However, previous studies were based on simple cubes with given
98 distributions, whereas the actual building structures in an urban area are extremely complex.
99 It was also difficult to define surrounding layers on the basis of building blocks, because
100 buildings could be distributed densely in some directions but sparsely in the other directions.

101 Previous studies have not determined how to correctly represent the urban architecture
102 between the urban configuration and the meteorological station, or how many of the
103 buildings around a target building should be explicitly constructed in a real urban area. This
104 investigation examined the use of roughness length to simulate the intermediate terrain, in
105 order to identify a suitable method for accurately calculating the wind distribution in an urban
106 configuration with limited computing resources. Using the proposed method, this
107 investigation then compared simulations with different surrounding layers and a simplified
108 geometric model. The aim was to reduce the effort in constructing the geometric model with
109 the inclusion of building details and to reduce computing costs, while maintaining the
110 accuracy of the simulated wind flow at an acceptable level.

111 **2. Research Method**

112 This section describes the construction of a geometric model to represent the region
113 between an urban configuration and a meteorological station; the numerical model that was
114 used to compute the wind distribution in the region; the construction of the mesh grid for the
115 computational domain; the boundary conditions that were used; and the experimental
116 procedure for obtaining wind information to validate the numerical results.

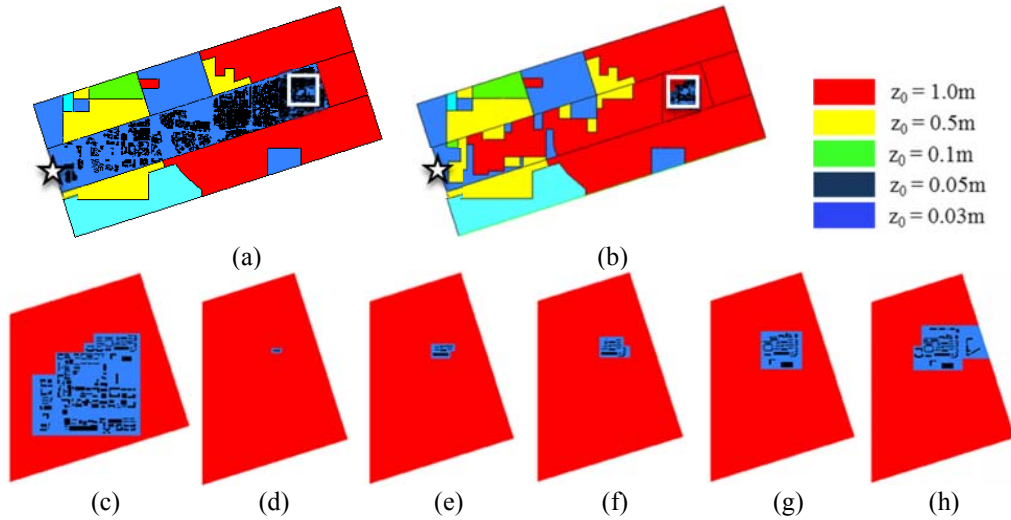
117 **2.1 Geometric model**

118 This investigation first explored the feasibility of simulating the intermediate terrain with
119 the use of roughness length. We used a detailed full-scale geometric model that extended
120 from an urban configuration (Tianjin University) to the nearest meteorological station
121 (Xiqing station), 10 km away in Tianjin, China. The computational domain was 12.6 km
122 long, 5.4 km wide and 0.351 km high, as shown in Fig. 1(a). The model divided the
123 computational domain into three regions: the center region included geometrical details of the
124 buildings between the urban configuration and the meteorological station, and the buildings
125 on both sides were represented by roughness lengths. More detailed information can be found
126 in Liu et al. [17].

127 For comparison, this study also constructed a simplified full-scale model as shown in Fig.
128 1(b). The computational domain of this model was the same as that of the detailed full-scale
129 model, but only the building structures in the urban configuration site concerned (enclosed by
130 the white box in the figure) were explicitly constructed, as shown in Fig. 1(c), while other
131 regions were simplified with roughness length. With the use of a satellite map, the
132 computational domain was partitioned into regions of different roughness length according to
133 building density and building height. Evaluation of these two cases allowed us to identify a
134 suitable method of simulating the intermediate terrain with roughness length in order to
135 accurately calculate the wind distribution in an urban configuration with limited computing
136 resources.

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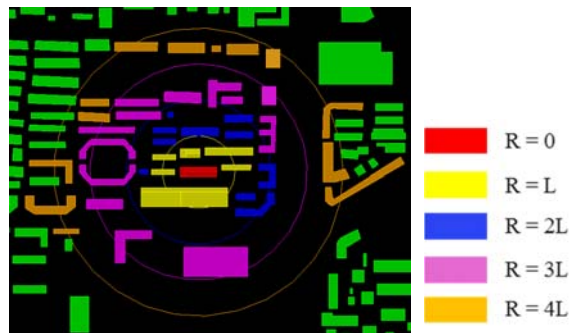


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Fig. 1. Geometric models used in this study: (a) a detailed full-scale geometric model with building structures for the entire computational domain from an urban configuration (indicated by the white box) to the nearest meteorological station (indicated by the star), (b) a simplified full-scale model with detailed building structures inside the urban configuration and roughness lengths for the rest of the computational domain; (c) the building structures of the Tianjin University (TJU) model, (d) a single target building ($R = 0$), (e) with $R = L$ surroundings, (f) with $R = 2L$ surroundings, (g) with $R = 3L$ surroundings, and (h) with $R = 4L$ surroundings.

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Using the simplified method, we then explored the influence of surrounding buildings on the wind flow around a target building. The target building was a residential building inside the urban configuration; it was 65 m long, 15 m wide and 16 m high, as shown in red on the map in Fig. 2. This investigation chose the maximum dimension of the building, i.e., the length ($L = 65$ m), as a scale in the radial direction in order to take into account surrounding buildings at various distances from the target building. Different layers were defined as multiples of the scale. Whenever more than 50% of the area of a surrounding building fell within a given multiple of the radius, it was included in that layer. Fig. 2 shows buildings in five different layers used in this investigation. Fig. 1(d) depicts the layer with only the target building ($R = 0$), Fig. 1(e) the layer with $R = L$ buildings, Fig. 1(f) with $R = 2L$ buildings, Fig. 1(g) with $R = 3L$ buildings, and Fig. 1(h) with $R = 4L$ buildings. The area outside the detailed building structures can be simulated by a roughness length corresponding to the building area. By comparing with the simplified full-scale model, this investigation explored the influence of different layers around the target building.



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Fig. 2. Multiple layers of the surroundings defined for the target building.

169 Because of the complexity of the building structures around the target building in different
 170 directions, it was important to perform simulations for other wind directions to confirm the
 171 influence region of the surroundings. For this purpose, we selected the Beichen station and
 172 the Dongli station, as shown in Fig. 3(a). The two stations were located 14.3 km from the
 173 campus in the north-north-west (NNW) direction and 15.1 km from the campus in the east-
 174 south-east (ESE) direction, respectively [32]. Following the same method as was used for the
 175 model shown in Fig. 1(b), Figs. 3(b) and 3(c) depict the corresponding simplified full-scale
 176 models for the two meteorological stations. Again, this study constructed another five
 177 simplified models (with surrounding buildings from $R = 0$ to $R = 4L$) for the Beichen and
 178 Dongli stations.
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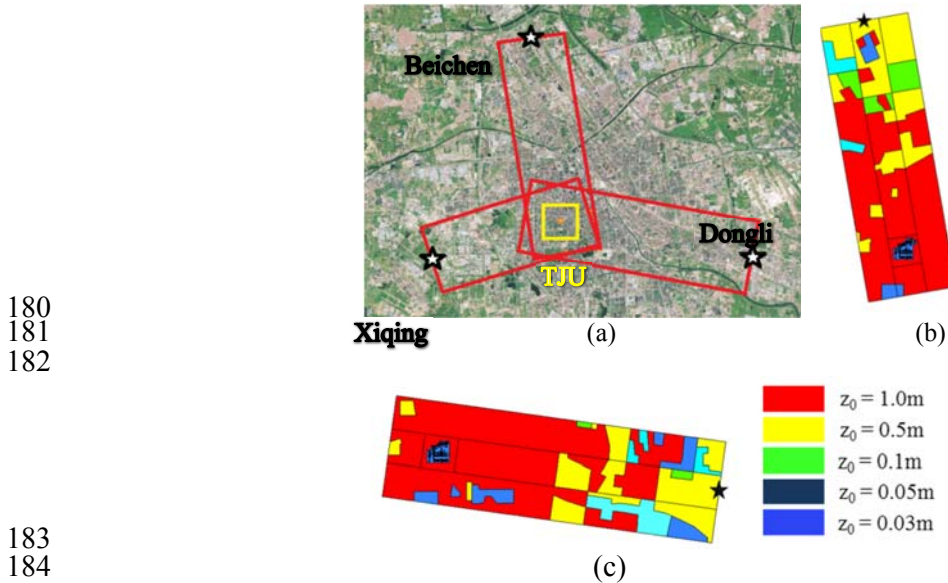


Fig. 3. (a) Relative locations of three meteorological stations around the Tianjin University campus (TJU) and computational domains of the other two simplified full-scale models: (b) Beichen model and (c) Dongli model.

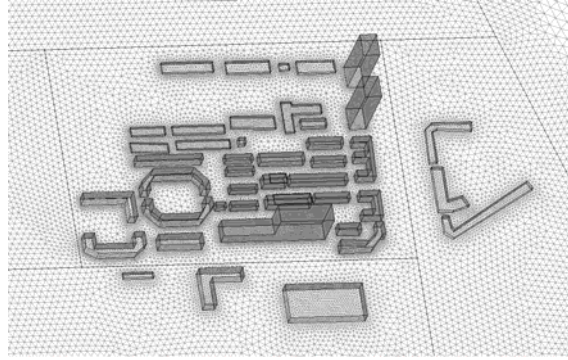
189 2.2 CFD model

190 Our CFD simulations utilized a commercial program, ANSYS Fluent 14.0 [33]. The
 191 simulations used the Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) equations with a realizable
 192 $k-\epsilon$ turbulence model [34] to solve the turbulent wind flow in the computational domain. The
 193 model performed well in simulating urban wind flows with an average relative error of 12%
 194 compared with the measured data [35]. The governing transport equations were solved by
 195 means of the finite volume method. The SIMPLE algorithm was used for pressure and
 196 velocity coupling of the transport equations, and second-order discretization schemes were
 197 used for solving all the independent variables. When the scaled residuals reached 10^{-4} for
 198 mass conservation, U , V , W , k , ϵ , the solution was considered to be converged. Velocity
 199 magnitude on several specified points were also monitored to confirm that the solution did
 200 not change with the iteration, which was another criterion for convergence. For more detailed
 201 information about the numerical technique, please refer to the program manual [33].

202 2.3 Grid arrangement and mesh generation

203 Gambit 2.4.6 was used to generate a discrete grid for discretizing the governing transport
 204 equations. Because of the complexity of the geometric models, this study used a hybrid grid
 205 scheme with a tetrahedral grid, which was easily adapted to the geometric structures. The
 206 maximum grid size was 20 m near the meteorological station, and it was gradually reduced to
 207 7 m at the urban configuration site in the lengthwise direction. The maximum grid size in the

208 vertical direction was 10 m. The grid resolution along the perimeter without buildings was 20
 209 m. For the building structures around the target building, the grid size was refined to 1 m.
 210 This led to a total grid number of 8.9 million for the detailed full-scale model shown in Fig.
 211 1(a). The mesh type for the simplified full-scale model was the same as that for the detailed
 212 full-scale model. Because roughness length was used in place of the detailed building
 213 structures between the urban configuration and the meteorological station, the total grid
 214 number was reduced to 6.1 million for the simplified full-scale models shown in Fig. 1(b) and
 215 Fig. 1(c). With the same method, the grid mesh sizes were 4.7 million, 4.7 million, 4.5
 216 million, 4.4 million and 4.2 million cells for the models shown in Figs. 1(d) to 1(h),
 217 respectively. The grid number for the models with the other two meteorological stations was
 218 slightly higher because the stations were further away from the university campus. Fig. 4
 219 shows the grid cells on the building surfaces and in the perimeter zone for the R = 4L models.
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221 **Fig. 4.** Grid distribution on the building surfaces and in the perimeter zone for the R = 4L models.
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224 2.4 Boundary conditions

225 The simulations used wind data from the meteorological station in the upwind direction as
 226 the inflow boundary conditions. Table 1 lists the selected data for the three meteorological
 227 stations. The upstream vertical boundaries (western and southern boundaries for the Xiqing
 228 model; northern and western boundaries for the Beichen model; and eastern and southern
 229 boundaries for the Dongli model) in the computational domain were set as inflow. The
 230 vertical velocity profile for the inflow boundary was modeled as a power law, and the vertical
 231 profiles for k_z and ε_z was taking from Richards and Hoxey [36].
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$$233 \quad U_z = U_r \left(\frac{z}{z_r} \right)^\alpha \quad (1)$$

$$234 \quad k_z = U_{ABL}^{*2} / \sqrt{C_\mu} \quad (2)$$

$$235 \quad \varepsilon_z = U_{ABL}^{*3} / k(z + z_0) \quad (3)$$

236 where U_r (m/s) is the velocity at reference height z_r (m), and z (m) is height. Because the
 237 meteorological station was located in a suburb, the exponent in the power law was $\alpha = 0.22$
 238 [37] at the two inlet boundaries. k is the Karman constant ($= 0.4$) and U_{ABL}^* is the atmospheric
 239 boundary layer friction velocity. U_{ABL}^* is calculated from the velocity U_r (m/s) at reference
 240 height z_r (m) as

$$240 \quad U_{ABL}^* = kU_r / \ln((h + z_0)/z_0) \quad (4)$$

241 The corresponding two downstream vertical boundaries in the computational domain were
 242 modeled as outflow. The sky was treated as symmetry.

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244 **Table 1.**

245 Wind data for the three weather stations

Station	Time (GMT+08:00)	Wind Velocity (m/s)	Wind Direction
Xiqing station	1:00 pm on October 31, 2017	2.8	214° (south-west wind)
Beichen station	1:00 pm on February 25, 2017	2.8	339° (north-north-west wind)
Dongli station	7:00 pm on July 02, 2017	2.7	108° (east-south-east wind)

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247 This investigation used the roughness length method for the ground surfaces to represent
 248 roughness elements between the urban configuration and the meteorological stations. The
 249 roughness length method incorporates the effects of roughness elements on wind speed and
 250 turbulence by using a prescribed aerodynamic roughness z_0 in contrast to the urban terrain,
 251 where aerodynamic roughness z_0 is equivalent to the height at which the wind speed
 252 theoretically becomes zero. The z_0 value can be found in [38]. In ANSYS Fluent, wall
 253 functions with a roughness modification based on the equivalent sand-grain roughness height
 254 k_s and the roughness constant C_s can be used to reflect the influence of roughness elements on
 255 the urban wind flow field [33]. Therefore, the prescribed aerodynamic roughness z_0 can be
 256 defined in ANSYS Fluent after correct conversion to the corresponding k_s and C_s values. This
 257 study used the conversion equation from Blocken et al. [1]. Standard wall function was used
 258 for the wall surfaces. And the value of y^+ was within the range of 30 to 300 for all cases.

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$$k_s C_s = 9.793 z_0 \quad (5)$$

260

261 Table 2 lists the z_0 values for different terrains [37] and the corresponding k_s and C_s values as
 262 converted for this investigation. The legends in Figs. 1 and 3 show the different roughness
 263 lengths used for the computational domains according to the building density and building
 264 height as determined from a satellite map. Note that when the detailed building structures in
 265 Fig. 1(c) were replaced by roughness in the simplified models (Figs. 1(d) to 1(h)), z_0 was set
 266 as 1.0 m because the area was highly dense. The surfaces of the buildings in the
 267 computational domain were assumed to be non-slip conditions for the wind.

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269 **Table 2.**

270 Roughness and case setup for different terrains [1, 38]

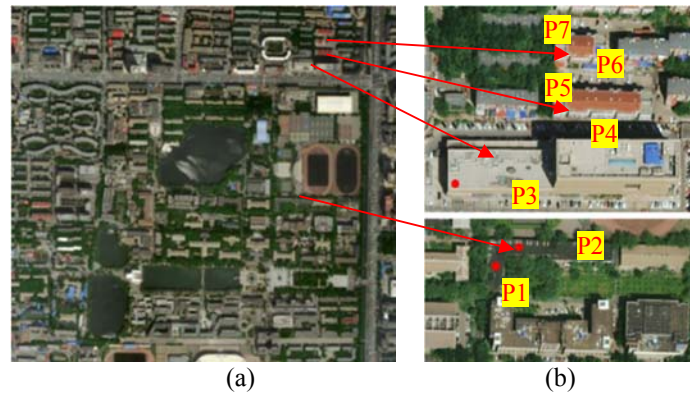
Type	z_0 (m)	k_s (m)	C_s
Grassland	0.03	0.5	0.59
Few isolated obstacles	0.05	1.0	0.5
Low crops / Occasional large obstacles	0.1	1.0	1.0
Parkland / Shrubs / Numerous obstacles	0.5	1.0	4.897
Densely distributed mid-rise and high-rise buildings	1.0	1.0	9.793

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272 2.5 Field measurements for CFD validation

273 Validation of CFD simulations with experimental data is essential. This study calculated
 274 wind flow for the university campus with the use of wind information from a meteorological
 275 station. For validation purposes, seven HOBO micro weather stations were used to measure
 276 the wind velocity magnitude and wind direction on the roofs of four buildings on the campus.
 277 The measurement locations were 2 m above the rooftops, and the data was collected from
 278 November 6, 2016, to December 31, 2017, as shown in Fig. 5. The building with locations P4
 279 and P5 was our target building. The wind speed and wind direction was measured once every

280 minute. The measured data was averaged hourly for consistency with hourly data from the
281 meteorological stations. Note that for the wind direction, measured data in one hour may
282 scattered at 0-90° and 270-360° when measured wind was from the north, directly arithmetic
283 mean wind direction will be wrong under such circumstances. Therefore, this investigation
284 processed the wind direction data by plus 360° when the measured data was at the range of 0-
285 90° when wind was from north. Then the revised data will be used to conduct mathematic
286 average. The micro weather stations had a measurement accuracy of $\pm 0.4\%$ for wind speed
287 when it was greater than 0.5 m/s and $\pm 5^\circ$ for wind direction.
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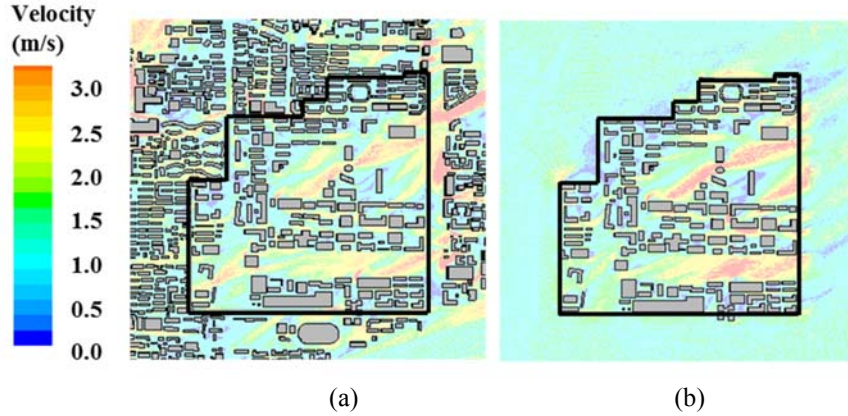
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291 **Fig. 5.** Seven measurement positions at a height of 2 m above the rooftops of four buildings on the
292 university campus: (a) building locations and (b) sensor locations.
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294 3. Results

295 This section describes (1) the comparison of detailed and simplified full-scale geometric
296 models, (2) the comparison of different layers around the target building with Xiqing model,
297 and (3) the comparison of different geometric models for other wind directions.

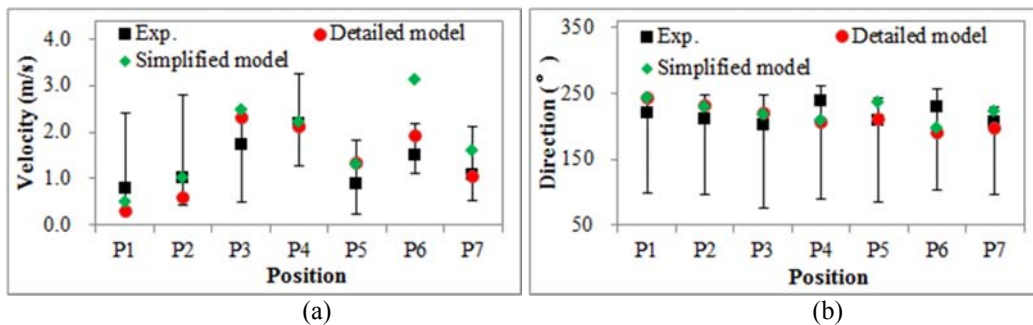
298 3.1 Comparison of detailed and simplified full-scale geometric models

299 This study first compared the detailed full-scale model with the simplified full-scale model
300 in predicting airflow on the university campus, as shown in Fig. 6. The figure depicts the
301 wind flow fields at a height of 2 m above the ground. The average velocity magnitudes over
302 the urban configuration area of interest, as shown in the black box area in Fig. 6, from the
303 detailed full-scale model and simplified full-scale model were 1.28 m/s and 1.35 m/s,
304 respectively. The wind velocity calculated by the simplified model was 5.5% higher than that
305 calculated by the detailed model. In some regions the simplified model had higher velocities
306 in the simplified model than the detailed model. The difference may imply that the roughness
307 length method cannot fully represent the building structures. Although the two models
308 obtained different wind flow fields around buildings located in the upwind direction, such as
309 in the upper wind regions near the bold lines on the left side and at the bottom, this is because
310 the immediate surroundings of these buildings in the upwind direction were excluded in the
311 simplified model, the wind fields were very similar in most areas enclosed by the bold lines,
312 as shown in Fig. 6. Therefore, it can be concluded that the flow field inside the urban
313 configuration was affected primarily by the immediately surrounding building structures
314 rather than the urban architecture between the urban configuration and the meteorological
315 station.
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319 **Fig. 6.** Comparison of the wind flow on the university campus as predicted by (a) the detailed full-scale
320 model and (b) the simplified full-scale model.

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322 Fig. 7 compares the simulated wind speed and wind direction with that measured at the
323 rooftop locations in Fig. 5. Our measurements demonstrated that although the hourly wind
324 velocity and wind direction from the meteorological station was the same at all locations,
325 measured data inside the urban configuration varied because the wind was inherently time-
326 dependent. In addition, the location of the HOBO systems (2 m above the roof) might be in
327 the recirculation region above the building so that the measured data would be unstable.
328 Therefore, the error bars of the experimental data represent the variation range of the wind
329 magnitude at the seven measurement locations when the wind information from the
330 meteorological station was the same as that set for the inflow boundary condition. The
331 squares represent the mean wind speed from the experimental data. The results indicate that
332 the computed wind speeds and wind direction from the detailed and simplified full-scale
333 models were within the actual wind variations at most of the positions. The average relative
334 error for the computed wind speed in comparison with the mean experimental data was
335 31.6% for the detailed full-scale model and 40.8% for the simplified full-scale model. And
336 the average relative error for the computed wind direction in comparison with the mean
337 experimental data was 9.4% and 10.7% for the detailed full-scale model and the simplified
338 full-scale model, respectively. Neither model considered the trees around the buildings, only
339 taking into account the influence of the trees by means of the roughness length of 0.03 m
340 inside the urban configuration, as shown in Fig. 1. In addition, there were differences
341 between the geometric model and the actual building structures even inside the urban
342 configuration. Therefore, we considered the computed results acceptable for such a complex
343 case. The results obtained by the simplified full-scale model were very close to those from
344 the detailed full-scale model, and thus the simplified model could be used to calculate wind
345 distribution in an urban configuration.



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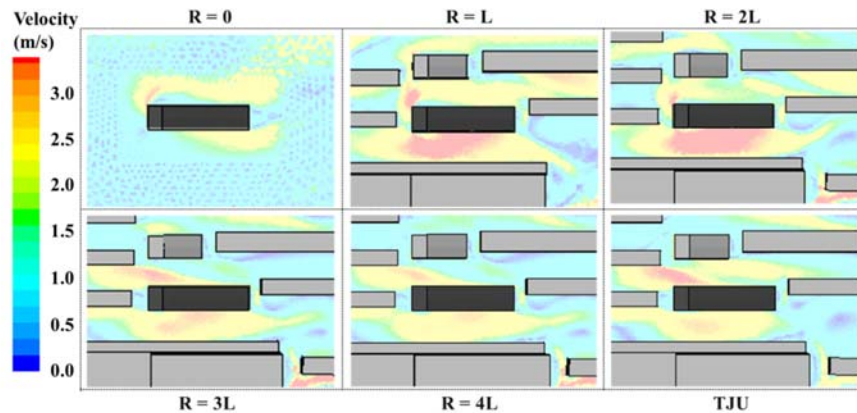
349 **Fig. 7.** Comparison of the wind speed simulated by the detailed and simplified full-scale models with that
350 measured at seven locations on building rooftops inside the urban configuration: (a) wind velocity and (b)
351 wind direction.
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353 This study also compared the computing time required by the two CFD models. All the
354 simulations were performed on a workstation with 24 cores and 128 Gb memory. The
355 computing times for the detailed and simplified full-scale models were 41.8 h and 28.7 h,
356 respectively. The simplified full-scale model used a grid number that was only 69% of that in
357 the detailed full-scale model. Thus, the simplified model can reduce computing time by at
358 least one third. In addition, the effort required to construct the geometric model was much
359 smaller for the simplified model, because it did not require detailed building information
360 outside the urban configuration concerned. Therefore, the simplified full-scale model is a
361 better choice for numerical simulation of an urban wind environment.

362 3.2 Comparison of different layers around the target building

363 After validating the method used to represent the intermediate terrain with roughness, this
364 investigation studied the influence of surrounding layers on the wind flow around the target
365 building. Next, the performance of the other five geometrical models with different
366 surrounding layers for predicting the wind speed and static pressure around the target
367 building was explored. The prediction by the simplified full-scale model was used as the
368 baseline for comparison. All the models used the same wind velocity profiles from the
369 meteorological station as the inlet boundary conditions and the same roughness length on the
370 ground surface without building details.

371 Fig. 8 depicts the wind flow around the target building (the black rectangle) as predicted by
372 the models at a height of 2 m above the ground. The wind flow field computed by the $R = 0$
373 model was very different from the fields computed by the other models. The $R = 0$ model
374 could not take into account the effect of the surrounding buildings on the wind direction and
375 velocity magnitude around the target building. The wind velocities around the building
376 predicted by the $R = L$ and $R = 2L$ models were larger than the velocity predicted by the $R = 0$
377 model because of the channeling effect generated by the adjacent buildings. With the
378 inclusion of the surrounding buildings in the $R = 3L$ and $R = 4L$ models, the wind speed
379 decreased because of blockage by the buildings in the outer layer. The wind flow fields
380 obtained by the $R = 3L$ and $R = 4L$ models were similar to that obtained by the simplified
381 full-scale model (or TJU model, as shown in Figs. 8-12), which was considered to be the
382 most accurate because it took into account the large, detailed building structures. The
383 surrounding area incorporated by the $R = 3L$ model seemed to be the minimum required for
384 obtaining acceptable wind flow around the building in the CFD simulation.
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386 **Fig. 8.** Comparison of the wind flow around the target building as predicted by the six models.

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Fig. 9 compares the static pressure distributions around the target building as computed by the six models. Since the wind struck the target building directly in the $R = 0$ model, the pressure distribution in the windward direction was the highest, as shown in Fig. 8. Because of the very different airflow pattern in the leeward direction, the $R = 0$ model also predicted a very different pressure distribution, as shown in Fig. 9(b). As an increasing number of surrounding buildings were included in the simulations, the pressure distributions gradually became similar to those produced by the TJU model. Again, the results indicate that surrounding area incorporated by the $R = 3L$ model seemed to be the minimum necessary for obtaining acceptable pressure distributions around the building.

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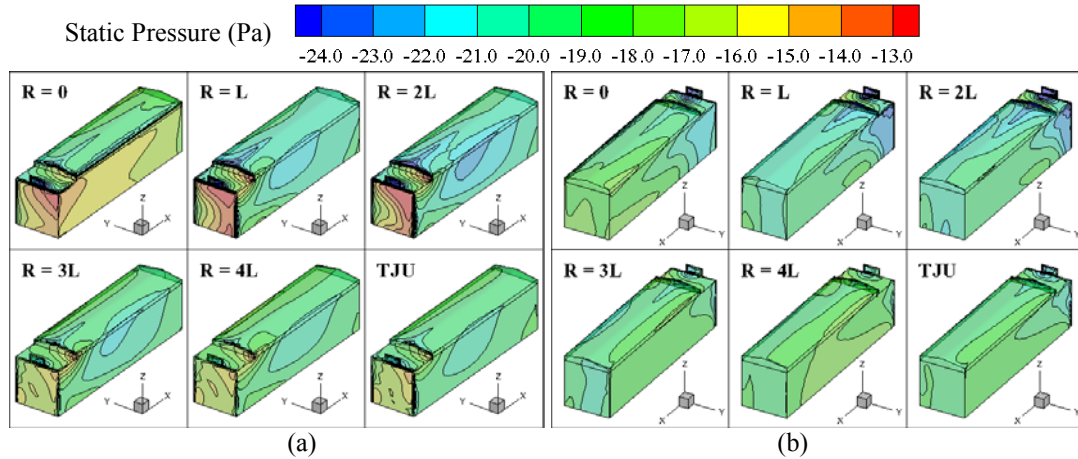
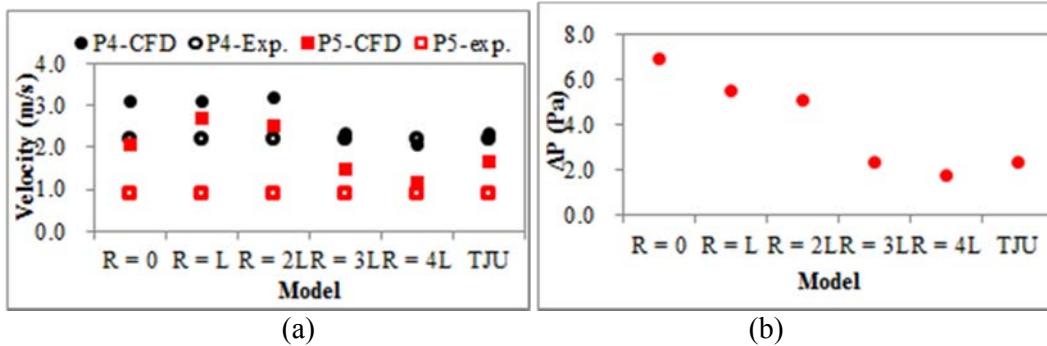


Fig. 9. Comparison of the static pressure distributions around the building as simulated by the six models: (a) in the windward region and (b) in the leeward region.

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Fig. 10 further compares the wind velocity at P4 and P5, which were located on the roof of the target building, and the average static pressure difference in the windward region (south and west walls) and leeward region (north and east walls) as computed by the six models. We have not included other data because the $R = 0$ model did not incorporate information about the other buildings. Because of the channeling effect created by the surrounding buildings, the wind velocity at P5 increased from the $R = 0$ to the $R = L$ model. The velocity magnitude at the two locations then decreased with the increase in the number of surrounding buildings and gradually approached the experimental data (mean wind speed measured at P4 and P5) from the $R = 3L$ to $R = 4L$ to TJU model. The velocity magnitude decreased with the increase in the number of buildings around the target building. When $R \geq 3L$, the results were the same as those of the TJU model, and therefore the $R = 3L$ model seems sufficient. The pressure difference (ΔP) of the target building decreased from 6.9 Pa in the $R = 0$ model to 5.5 Pa in the $R = L$ model. This is because the target building was no longer struck directly by the approaching wind. The pressure difference decreased with the increase in the number of the surrounding buildings and gradually became stable at 2.3 Pa when $R \geq 3L$, because of the sheltering effect of the surrounding buildings. Both the velocity magnitude and pressure difference decreased with the increase in the number of buildings around the target building. When $R \geq 3L$, the results were the same as the TJU model, and therefore the $R = 3L$ model again seems sufficient.

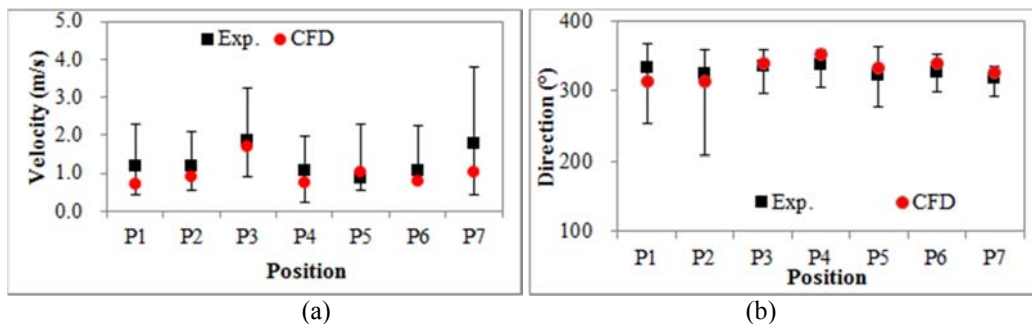


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424 **Fig. 10.** Comparison of (a) wind speed and (b) static pressure difference as simulated by the six
425 models.

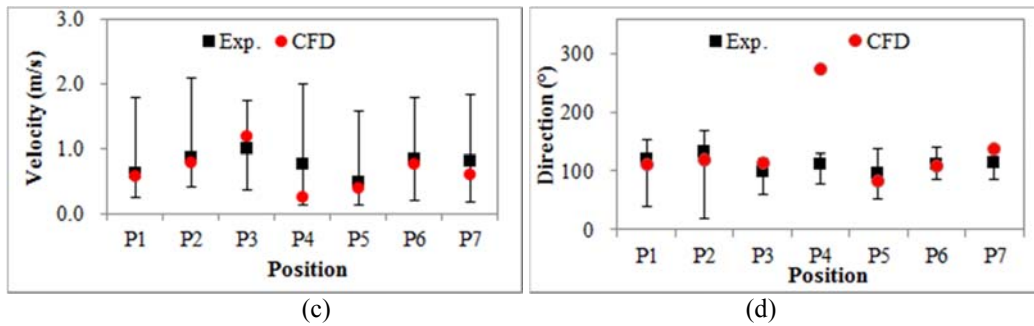
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427 **3.3 Comparison of different geometric models for other wind directions**

428 Sections 3.1 and 3.2 discussed the performance of the roughness method in representing
429 the immediate terrain, and the influence of surrounding layers of buildings on the wind flow
430 around the target building from one wind direction. In order to verify that the results are
431 sufficiently universal, this study also performed simulations for the other two wind
432 directions.

433 Fig. 11 compares the simulated wind speed and wind direction on the rooftops of the
434 buildings on the campus with the measured data for the other two simplified full-scale
435 models shown in Figs. 3(b) and 3(c). Again, the error bars of the experimental data represent
436 the variation range of the wind magnitude at the seven measurement locations when the wind
437 information from the meteorological stations was the same as that set for the inflow boundary
438 conditions. The squares represent the mean wind speed from the experimental data. The
439 results show that the wind speeds computed by the simplified full-scale models for the
440 Beichen station (Fig. 11(a) and Fig. 11(b)) and Dongli station (Fig. 11(c) and Fig. 11(d))
441 were within the actual wind speed and wind direction variations at most locations except for
442 P4 in Fig. 11(d). This is probably because P4 was located in the vortex zone due to the block
443 of the pitched roof, as shown in Fig. 9, on the east side of the target building. Therefore, it
444 was difficult to accurately calculate the wind direction as well as wind speed. The average
445 relative errors of computed wind speed compared with the mean experimental data for the
446 two simplified full-scale models were 26.0% and 22.6%, respectively. And the average
447 relative errors of computed wind direction compared with the mean experimental data for the
448 two simplified full-scale models were 3.5% and 31.3%, respectively. Because of the
449 simplifications of the geometric models, we considered the computed results acceptable for
450 such complex cases. These two simulations confirmed the results shown in Section 3.1, i.e.,
451 that the simplified full-scale model can be used for numerical simulation of an urban wind
452 environment.

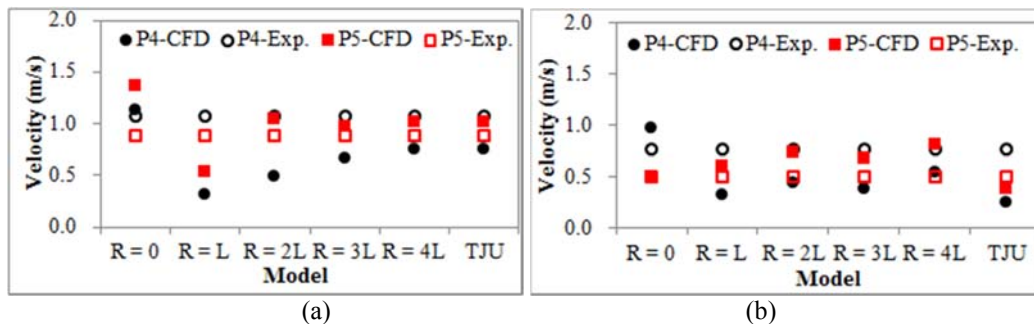


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458 **Fig. 11.** Comparison of the wind speed and wind direction as simulated by the simplified full-scale models
459 with that measured at seven locations on building rooftops in the urban configuration: (a) wind speed
460 computed by Beichen model, (b) wind direction computed by Beichen model, (c) wind speed computed by
461 Dongli model, and (d) wind direction computed by Dongli model.

462
463 Fig. 12 further compares the velocity at P4 and P5, which were located on the rooftop of
464 the target building, as computed by the different models with different surrounding layers.
465 Fig. 9 shows the sheltering effect of the baffle on the roof of the target building. The wind
466 velocity at P4 and P5 decreased from the $R = 0$ model to the $R = L$ model because these
467 points were located in the recirculation zone in the Beichen model, as shown in Fig. 12(a). As
468 the number of surrounding buildings increased, the velocity magnitude at the two locations
469 increased because of the change in wind direction and velocity magnitude around the
470 building, and gradually approached the experimental data from the $R = 3L$ to $R = 4L$ to TJU
471 model. Fig. 9 also indicates that the pitched roof on the east side of the target building may
472 block most wind from the southeast for the Dongli model. Fig. 12(b) shows that the wind
473 velocity at P4 and P5 did not change greatly from the $R = 0$ to the $R = 4L$ model. A
474 comparison of the wind flow and static pressure distributions around the target building with
475 different surrounding layers again shows that the $R \geq 3L$ models performed as well as the
476 TJU model.

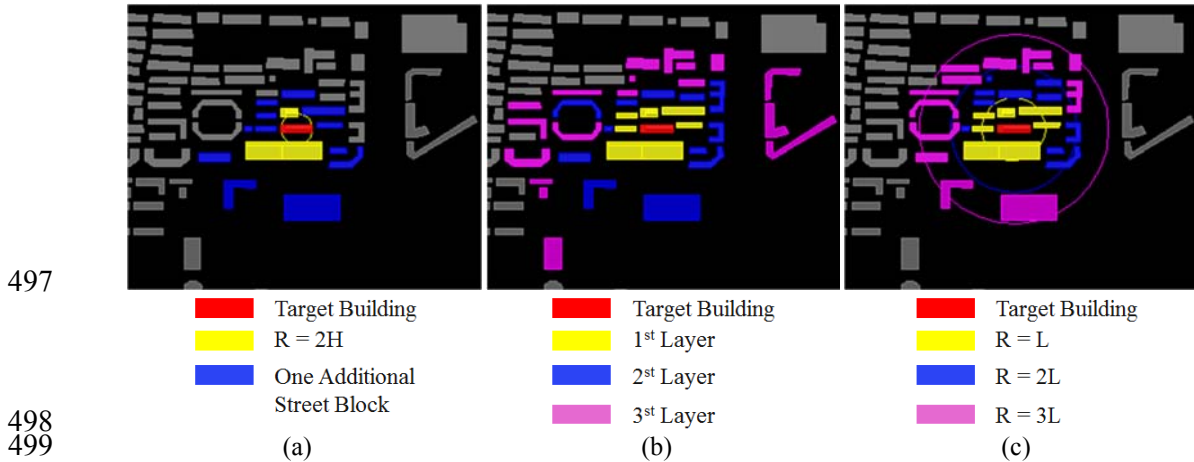


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479 **Fig. 12.** Comparison of the wind speed simulated by the simplified full-scale models with that measured at
480 seven locations on building rooftops in the urban configuration: (a) Beichen model and (b) Dongli model.

483 4. Discussion

484 This investigation further compared the region where surrounding buildings should be
485 explicitly constructed according to our investigation with the other two earlier guidelines
486 from Tominaga et al. [10] and Tong et al. [31]. The comparison was performed using the
487 same urban configuration. The region from Tominaga et al. [10] was the smallest, as shown
488 in Fig. 13(a). They suggested using the height of the target building as radius to cover
489 surrounding buildings. However, for the urban configuration used in this study, the target
490 building exhibited a low height of 16 m but a large length of 65 m. The region from Tong et
491 al. [31] was the largest, as shown in Fig. 13(b). But it was difficult to define surrounding

492 layers based on building blocks because buildings were densely distributed in some
 493 directions while sparsely in other directions. This investigation chose the maximum
 494 dimension of the building as a scale in the radial direction to cover surrounding buildings.
 495 The results of this investigation may be more practical for use.
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500 **Fig. 13.** Comparison of the region where surrounding buildings should be explicitly constructed
 501 according to: (a) Tominaga et al. [10], (b) Tong et al. [31] and (c) our investigation.
 502

503 The full-scale model performed quite well for the complex cases presented in this study.
 504 However, the model had several limitations:
 505

- 506 • The location of the HOBO systems (2 m above the roof) might be in the recirculation
 507 region above the building. Therefore it might be difficult to obtain a good agreement
 508 between the simulation results and the measurement data.
- 509 • The detailed full-scale geometrical model was established with the aid of a satellite
 510 image because no geometric models were publicly available. The roughness partition
 511 of the simplified full-scale model was based on this image. The model used
 512 approximations that may have affected the wind profiles. We were unable to estimate
 513 the errors that may have resulted.
- 514 • This study used a realizable $k-\epsilon$ model to simulate the urban wind flow under steady-
 515 state conditions. However, wind constantly changes in direction and magnitude.
 516 Should a transient simulation method be used, it could improve the accuracy but
 517 would significantly increase the computing costs.
- 518 • There were only three weather stations located close to the university campus. In
 519 actual practice, wind could flow into the urban configuration from all directions. Can
 520 we reliably use wind information from the three stations for calculating airflow on the
 521 university campus? If there were only one weather station in the city, could we use the
 522 wind information from this station as the boundary condition if the wind came from
 523 the opposite direction?

524 **5. Conclusions**

525 This investigation conducted CFD simulations of the wind environment in an urban
 526 configuration to identify a suitable method for simulating intermediate terrain with the use of
 527 roughness length. Next, this investigation conducted CFD simulations of the wind
 528 environment around a building to identify the minimum size of the surrounding area, with
 529 detailed building structures, that should be included in the geometric model. The study led to
 530 the following conclusions:

- 531 • The velocity flow fields obtained with the detailed and simplified full-scale models
532 were very similar. The mean wind velocity computed by the simplified model was
533 5.5% higher than that computed by the detailed model inside the urban configuration.
534 This may imply that the roughness length method cannot fully represent the building
535 structures, but the error was not significant.
- 536 • The simplified full-scale model used only 69% of the grid number used by the
537 detailed full-scale model. Thus, the simplified model can reduce the computing time
538 by at least one-third, as well as the effort required to construct the geometric model.
- 539 • The airflow and pressure distributions around the target building computed with the
540 use of only the building and different roughness lengths for the surroundings (the $R =$
541 0 model) did not generate acceptable results. By using the maximum dimension of the
542 building, L , as the scale, this study found that the region within at least a $3L$ radius of
543 the building should be simulated with detailed building structures in order to obtain
544 sufficiently accurate wind flow and pressure distributions around the building.

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