

# A model for calculating single-sided natural ventilation rate in an urban residential apartment

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## ABSTRACT

Natural ventilation is an energy-efficient ventilation method for residential buildings, but it is not easy to determine the natural ventilation rate. This investigation developed a simple model for calculating the ventilation rate for an apartment with single-sided natural ventilation with buoyancy and wind pressure effects, based on a wind-driven model. To validate the model, field measurements were conducted in an apartment in an urban residential building in Tianjin, China. The experiment measured indoor and outdoor air temperature, wind speed and direction, wind pressure coefficient at an opening of the apartment, and ventilation rate through the single opening. The results indicated that the wind pressure coefficients calculated by Eq.12 did not agree well with the measured data. However, most of the measurements show a stronger buoyancy effect than wind pressure effect. Our new model was able to predict the ventilation rate with an average error of 13.1%. When we used six other models found in the literature to predict the ventilation rate, the errors ranged from 12.9% to 46.1%. Thus, not only does our model perform very well in predicting the ventilation rate, but it also shown the Interaction between buoyancy and wind pressure.

*Keywords:* Buoyancy effect, wind pressure effect, simple model, model comparison, field experiment, validation

## Nomenclature

A – opening area	$\alpha$ – an exponent in the wind speed power law
$C_d$ – discharge coefficient	$\rho$ – air density
$C_p$ – pressure coefficient	$\theta$ – wind angle clockwise from north
h – opening height	
l – opening width	<i>Subscript</i>
P – pressure	ave – average
Q – ventilation rate	cal – calculated
$Q_{in}$ – inflow rate	eff – effective
$Q_{out}$ – outflow rate	i – indoor
T – air temperature	lim – limited
U – wind speed	mea – measured
$U_{10}$ – wind speed at an altitude of 10 m	o – outdoor
z – height from ground	ref – reference position
$z_0$ – neutral plane height from ground	s – buoyancy pressure driven
	w – wind-driven

## 34 1. Introduction

35 Better ventilation strategies are needed for controlling indoor pollutants<sup>[1]</sup> in residential  
36 buildings in China. Natural ventilation of residential buildings has great potential for  
37 reducing energy use<sup>[2]</sup>, achieving thermal comfort<sup>[3]</sup>, and creating a healthy indoor  
38 environment<sup>[4-9]</sup>. Two types of natural ventilation are available: single-sided ventilation and  
39 cross ventilation<sup>[10]</sup>. Although single-sided ventilation is less efficient than cross ventilation,  
40 it is more prevalent in residential buildings in urban areas because it is easier to achieve<sup>[2, 8,</sup>  
41 <sup>11]</sup>. A survey of window-opening habits of Chinese residents revealed that 86.8% of the  
42 residents chose single-sided ventilation in northern China<sup>[12]</sup>. However, single-sided natural  
43 ventilation in urban areas is often affected by the surrounding terrain and surrounding  
44 buildings<sup>[13]</sup> and is highly dependent on the wind environment<sup>[14, 15]</sup>. It is essential to find a  
45 suitable method for determining the ventilation rate provided by single-sided natural  
46 ventilation.

47 Among the existing methods, empirical models can provide rapid estimates of the  
48 natural ventilation rate<sup>[11,16]</sup>. The most widely used and essential empirical model for  
49 calculating natural ventilation rate was proposed by Warren<sup>[17, 18]</sup> on the basis of mixing layer  
50 theory. The model calculates wind-driven and buoyancy-driven ventilation rates separately  
51 and uses the higher value as the total ventilation rate. To improve Warren's model, Dascalaki  
52 et al.<sup>[19, 20]</sup> multiplied the buoyancy-driven ventilation model by a synthetic factor that is a  
53 function of the Grashof number and Reynolds number in place of the discharge coefficient.  
54 However, the synthetic factor was obtained by experimental data fitting and did not consider  
55 wind direction. From Warren's buoyancy-driven ventilation model, Caciolo et al.<sup>[21, 22]</sup>  
56 converted wind speed into effective temperature difference and developed a new correlation  
57 adapted to leeward conditions. Although various correlations have been developed for  
58 windward and leeward conditions, they have not reflected the wind angle. Tang et al.<sup>[23]</sup>  
59 found that the above models did not perform well when the temperature difference was less  
60 than 1 K, and they developed a model for low wind speed in an urban setting. De Gids and  
61 Phaff<sup>[24]</sup> developed an empirical correlation that considers the impact of both wind and stack  
62 pressure on ventilation rate by means of an orifice outflow model. Again, however, the model  
63 did not account for wind direction. Larsen and Heiselberg<sup>[25]</sup> proposed a model that  
64 correlated empirical constants with windward, parallel or leeward flow by fitting it with wind  
65 tunnel experimental data. However, the model did not cover all the wind directions and did  
66 not consider the varied airflow along the height of the opening. We<sup>[26]</sup> previously developed  
67 an empirical model for wind-driven, single-sided ventilation, which accounted for wind  
68 velocity profiles and the interaction between window opening and incoming wind. The  
69 window type could be sliding, awning, hopper, or casement type. The model quantified the  
70 influence of eddy penetration on ventilation rate but did not consider the impact of stack  
71 effect on ventilation.

72 The preceding review shows that none of the models available in the literature is ideal.  
73 No model considers wind speed, all directions and air temperature difference at the same  
74 time, nor reflects the interaction of wind and buoyancy pressure. It is thus necessary to  
75 develop a new model that considers systematically the impact of wind speed, wind direction,  
76 and indoor and outdoor air temperature difference on single-sided natural ventilation in an  
77 apartment in an urban area. This forms the objective of the investigation reported in this  
78 paper.

79

## 80 2. Mathematical model

81 This investigation sought to expand our previous model<sup>[26]</sup> to account for stack effect in an  
 82 apartment with single-sided natural ventilation. The model assumes that the bi-directional  
 83 flow was non-uniform through the opening and was governed by the wind pressure along the  
 84 opening. The wind pressure on the surface in the atmospheric boundary layer can be  
 85 described as<sup>[27]</sup>

$$86 P_{wind}(z) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_o C_p U^2(z) \quad (1)$$

87 The model also assumes that wind speed distribution in an urban setting can be represented  
 88 by the power law equation <sup>[27, 28]</sup>

$$89 U(z) = U_{ref} \left( \frac{z}{z_{ref}} \right)^\alpha \quad (2)$$

90 where  $\alpha$  is determined by the terrain category <sup>[29]</sup>, 0.3 in Large city centers;  $U_{ref}$  and  $z_{ref}$  are  
 91 wind speed and the height of the reference location, where is at the height of the roof in this  
 92 investigation,  $z_{ref}=18\text{m}$ . The model determines the pressure difference that causes flow  
 93 across the opening from the following equation:

$$94 \Delta P(z) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_o C_p U^2(z) - P_i \quad (3)$$

95 This investigation considered the pressure difference caused by the indoor-outdoor air  
 96 temperature difference by modifying Eq. (3)

$$97 \Delta P(z) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_o C_p U^2(z) + P_o - P_i - (\rho_o - \rho_i)gz \quad (4)$$

98 The pressure difference across the opening,  $\Delta P(z_0)$ , is zero at the neutral plane height  
 99 ( $\Delta P(z_0) = 0$ ). Then the static pressure difference ( $P_i - P_o$ )( $z_0$ ) can be expressed as

$$100 (P_i - P_o)(z_0) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_o C_p U^2(z_0) - (\rho_o - \rho_i)gz_0 \quad (5)$$

101 and the pressure difference in Eq. (4) along the opening height is

$$102 \Delta P(z) = \frac{1}{2}\rho_o C_p (U^2(z) - U^2(z_0)) + (\rho_o - \rho_i)g(z_0 - z) \quad (6)$$

103 Combined Eq. (1)-(2), Eq. (6) and  $Q = \int C_d l \sqrt{\frac{2\Delta P(z)}{\rho}} dz$ , taking into account the buoyancy  
 104 effect in our previous model for wind-driven ventilation <sup>[26]</sup>,

$$105 Q = \frac{C_d l \int_{z_0}^h \sqrt{C_p (z^{2\alpha} - z_0^{2\alpha}) dz}}{z_{ref}^{\alpha/2}} U_{ref} \quad (7)$$

106 Then we got the calculation formula of the ventilation rate driven-by buoyancy and wind  
 107 pressure:

$$108 Q = C_d l \int_{z_0}^h \sqrt{\left| C_p \frac{U_{ref}^2 T_i}{z_{ref}^{2\alpha} T_a} (z^{2\alpha} - z_0^{2\alpha}) + \frac{2(T_i - T_o)}{T_a} g(z_0 - z) \right|} dz \quad (8)$$

109 where  $C_d = 0.6$  is a discharge coefficient related to opening characteristics<sup>[30, 31]</sup> and  $\alpha$  is a  
 110 power law exponent in Eq.(2). The  $z_0$  is neutral plane height <sup>[22]</sup>, which can be obtained by  
 111 solving the equation

$$112 Q_{in} = Q_{out} \quad (9)$$

113 The proposed new model reflects the interaction of wind pressure and stack pressure.  
 114 Our previous paper <sup>[26]</sup> explained the physical meaning of the first term in the square root.  
 115 The physical meaning of the second term is very clearly the pressure difference caused by  
 116 buoyancy.

117

118 **3. Field experiment**

119 Due to the difficulty of obtaining the required parameters in Eq. (8) at the same time in  
 120 previous literatures, to verify the proposed model, this investigation conducted field  
 121 measurements of the natural ventilation rate under various conditions. This section describes  
 122 the methods and measured parameters in an apartment located in an urban area in Tianjin,  
 123 China. The apartment building was 65 m long, 15 m wide and 16 m high, as shown in Fig.  
 124 1(a). Our measurements were conducted from March 26, 2017 to November 22, 2017 in a  
 125 two-bedroom apartment on the third floor of the building (designated with a star in the  
 126 figure). Fig. 1(b) shows the floor plan of the apartment, and the red box indicates the master  
 127 bedroom used for measuring single-sided natural ventilation. The master bedroom had an  
 128 area of 16.98 m<sup>2</sup>, including a 3.33 m<sup>2</sup> balcony, and a floor height of 2.6 m. The net volume of  
 129 the room was 39.83 m<sup>3</sup> with the exclusion of the wardrobe, bed and nightstands. The window  
 130 had four sliding panes, and the one opened for the experiment had an area of 0.55 m<sup>2</sup> (0.46 m  
 131 wide and 1.2 m high).



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 134 **Fig. 1.** (a) Apartment building in Tianjin, China, with weather stations on the roof as indicated by the  
 135 two red boxes and (b) floor plan of the two-bedroom apartment

137 This investigation measured outdoor wind speed at the reference position ( $U_{ref}$ ),  
 138 outdoor air temperature ( $T_o$ ), indoor air temperature ( $T_i$ ), wind pressure coefficient ( $C_p$ ) and  
 139 ventilation rate ( $Q$ ). The following subsections will show the detailed experimental methods  
 140 for measuring these parameters.

142 **3.1 Outdoor weather parameters**

143 Fig.1 (a) also shows two HOBO micro weather stations installed at a height of 2 m  
 144 above the rooftop of the building for measuring outdoor wind velocity, wind direction, and  
 145 air temperature. The micro weather stations had a measuring accuracy of  $\pm 0.4\%$  for wind  
 146 velocity when it was greater than 0.5 m/s,  $\pm 5^\circ$  for wind direction, and  $\pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$  for air  
 147 temperature. The measuring frequency was once per minute. Those values were averaged  
 148 over the period of the measurements for model validation. Because of the vector nature of  
 149 wind direction, the average value may not be appropriate, and therefore vector decomposition  
 150 was adopted. The synthetic wind angle [32] was

151 
$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{\sum(U_i \times \sin\theta_i)}{\sum(U_i \times \cos\theta_i)} \right) \quad (10)$$

152 where  $\theta$  is the average wind direction and  $\theta_i$  is the wind direction of the  $i$ -th minute in the  
 153 experiment data set.

154

155 **3.2 Indoor temperature**

156 In order to consider the effect of stack pressure on natural ventilation, indoor and  
 157 outdoor air temperatures were measured with DS18B20 temperature sensors that had an error  
 158 of  $\pm 0.5$  K. Because the indoor temperature distribution may not have been uniform, this  
 159 experiment used eight temperature sensors for measuring the indoor air temperature as shown  
 160 in Fig. 2, where sensor P1 was placed in the enclosed balcony and other 7 sensors evenly  
 161 distributed in the three directions of the bedroom. Note that the door between the room and  
 162 the balcony was open during the experiment.



163  
 164 *Fig. 2. Placement of indoor air temperature sensors*  
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166 **3.3 Wind pressure coefficient**

167 Eq. (8) contains the wind pressure coefficient,  $C_p$ , which accounts for the impact of  
 168 building shape and wind pressure<sup>[33, 34]</sup> on natural ventilation. The pressure coefficient can be  
 169 calculated from the measured static pressure and velocity as:

170 
$$C_p = \frac{P_{wall} - P_{ref}}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U_{ref}^2(z)} \quad (11)$$

171 The following empirical equation<sup>[35]</sup> is used to calculate the wind pressure coefficient from  
 172 the shape coefficient and wind direction:

173 
$$C_p = 0.6 \times \ln \left[ 1.248 - 0.703 \sin \frac{\beta}{2} - 1.175 (\sin \beta)^2 + 0.131 (\sin 2\beta G)^3 + 0.769 \cos \frac{\beta}{2} + \right.$$
  
 174 
$$\left. 0.07 G^2 (\sin \frac{\beta}{2})^2 + 0.717 (\cos \frac{\beta}{2})^2 \right] \quad (12)$$

175 Since the wind pressure coefficient calculated by Eq. (12) may not be accurate, this  
 176 study also measured the wind pressure coefficient to validate the equation. Measurements of  
 177  $P_{wall}$  and  $P_{ref}$  were conducted by using a low differential pressure transducer with accuracy  
 178 of 0.4% within the range of  $\pm 25$  Pa (Setra Model 261C). The measurement frequency for  
 179 wind pressure was once per minute. The pressure  $P_{wall}$  on the surface of the building was  
 180 determined at the center height of the opening. The wind pressure coefficient was then  
 181 calculated by Eq. (11) with the use of the measured pressure difference. Fig. 3 shows the  
 182 locations of the pressure sensors.  
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185 **Fig. 3.** Schematic of pressure measurement positions near the window and the reference position at  
186 the weather station  
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### 188 3.4 Natural ventilation rate

189 To measure the ventilation rate in the room with the single-sided opening, one mature  
190 and widely used approach is the tracer gas decay method<sup>[36-38]</sup>. This investigation sealed all  
191 the openings at the beginning of the experiment. Next, carbon dioxide as the tracer gas was  
192 released into the room, and a fan was used to enhance the mixing in the room until the CO<sub>2</sub>  
193 concentration was at least 3500 ppm higher than the outdoor concentration. The fan was then  
194 switched off, and a window was opened for about 40 minutes to simulate single-sided  
195 ventilation. The window opening was 0.46 m wide and 1.2 m high.

196 The decay method required complete mixing of the tracer gas in the room. To verify the  
197 uniformity of the indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentration during the experimental period, the concentration  
198 was measured at six different locations in the room. The measuring accuracy of the CO<sub>2</sub>  
199 sensors is  $\pm 50$ ppm. The results indicated a maximum difference of 240 ppm when the indoor  
200 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration reached 3500 ppm. The ventilation rate was determined by using a method  
201 from the literature<sup>[39]</sup>.  
202

## 203 4. Results

204 Based on the direct measurement data obtained in section 3, this section describes (1)  
205 the experimental results, (2) model validation by experimental results, and (3) the comparison  
206 of the proposed model with different previous models.  
207

### 208 4.1 Experimental results

209 This section presents the experimental results obtained from this investigation of single-  
210 sided natural ventilation in the apartment in Tianjin from March 26, 2017 to November 22,  
211 2017. The experimental data was intended for validating the proposed model described by  
212 Eq. (8).

213 We conducted 50 sets of measurements under the meteorological conditions with wind  
214 direction changed by less than 90° during the experiment. Table 1 shows ten selected sets of  
215 data and corresponding standard deviation that are arranged according to increasing indoor-  
216 outdoor air temperature difference, from -2.3 K to 13.2 K, and the corresponding wind  
217 direction, wind velocity, outdoor air temperature, mean indoor air temperature, and  
218 ventilation rate. The table also provides the minimum and maximum ventilation rate. The  
219 measurements were conducted with wind angle varying from 14° to 338°, indoor temperature  
220 between 288.6 K and 303.2 K, and outdoor temperature ranging from 277.1 K to 303.8 K.

221 The data provides information about variations in the meteorological parameters and indoor-  
 222 outdoor air temperature difference. Because of the sheltering effect of the building envelope,  
 223 the impact of neighboring apartments, indoor heating source and the thermal mass of the  
 224 apartment, the indoor air temperature varied less than the outdoor air temperature.

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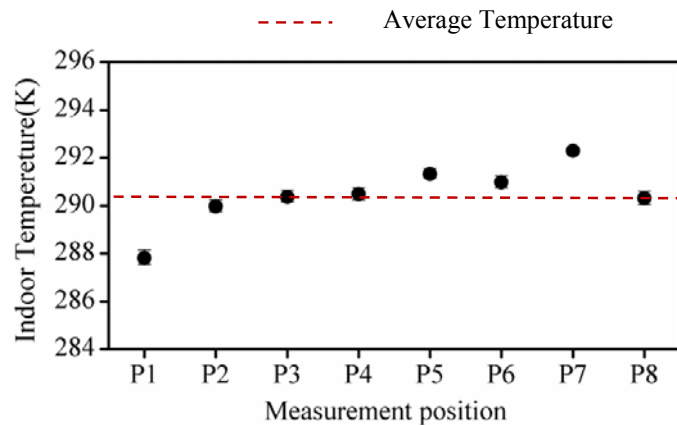
*Table 1. Selected sets of measured data*

	$T_i - T_o$	Direction (°)	U (m/s)	$T_o$ (K)	$T_i$ (K)	ACH (h <sup>-1</sup> )	R <sup>2</sup>
Selected data	-2.3	251±13	1.98±0.28	303.2±0.1	300.9±0.5	3.14	0.988
	-1.1	245±20	1.95±0.72	301.0±0.5	299.9±0.1	2.78	0.995
	0.4	77±35	0.04±0.12	301.4±0.1	301.8±0.0	1.59	0.996
	1.2	241±19	3.06±1.43	299.2±0.1	300.4±0.3	3.08	0.995
	2.0	244±18	1.93±0.56	287.9±0.2	289.9±1.1	3.28	0.998
	3.8	242±16	1.59±0.40	293.9±0.2	297.7±0.5	4.09	0.996
	4.6	204±7	1.17±0.31	284.7±0.2	289.3±0.7	4.06	0.998
	7.0	231±19	1.29±0.45	281.6±0.1	288.6±0.9	5.77	0.992
	9.1	90±13	1.19±0.59	282.7±0.0	291.8±1.1	5.00	0.996
	12.1	36±30	0.85±0.48	277.1±0.1	289.2±1.4	6.40	0.988
Min	-2.3	14	0.04	277.1	288.6	1.25	
Max	13.2	338	3.61	303.8	303.2	6.90	

227

228 Note that Eq. (8) uses a mean indoor air temperature. The air temperature in the  
 229 bedroom of the apartment was not uniform. At the maximum indoor-outdoor air temperature  
 230 difference of 13.2 K, Fig. 4 depicts the indoor air temperature distribution for the positions  
 231 shown in Fig. 2. The temperature difference along the longitudinal direction was 4.7 K, and  
 232 along the vertical direction it was 2.6 K.

233



234 **Fig. 4** Temperature distribution measured in the bedroom at the maximum indoor-outdoor air  
 235 temperature difference of 13.2 K.

236

237 Measurement of the pressure difference between the reference position and the surface  
 238 of the window, as shown in Fig. 3, allowed the wind pressure coefficient to be obtained by  
 239 Eq. (11). Fig. 5 shows the wind pressure coefficients and wind directions from one of the  
 240 tests, in which the average wind speed was 2.03 m/s. Because of the natural pulsation  
 241 characteristics of wind, the wind pressure coefficients changed continuously. This study used  
 242 the average wind pressure coefficient in Eq. (8).  
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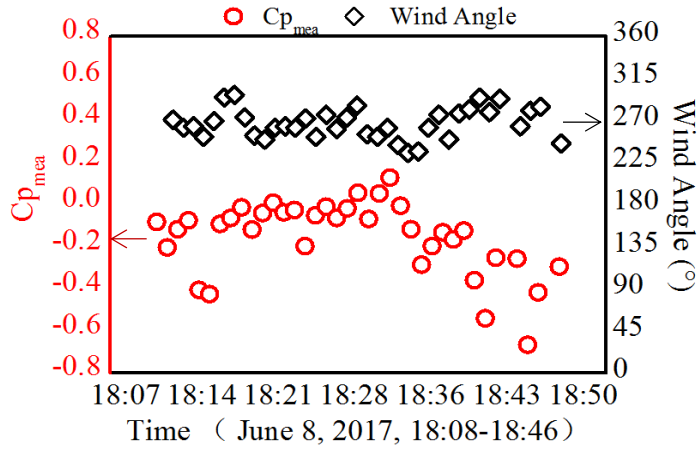


Fig. 5. Wind pressure coefficient and wind direction in one of the tests

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A key piece of data for validating the proposed model is the ventilation rate,  $Q$ , which was obtained experimentally by the tracer-gas method as discussed in Section 3.4. With  $\text{CO}_2$  as the tracer gas, Fig. 6 depicts the difference in indoor and outdoor  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration in a measurement with an average wind speed of 1.15 m/s and wind direction of  $266^\circ$ . The results were the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration decay over time at six positions in the bedroom. The ventilation rate calculated from the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration decay was averaged at 5.14 ACH with a  $0.55 \text{ m}^2$  window opening area for the room. The maximum difference in ventilation rate among those positions was only 4%. Unlike the highly non-uniform air temperature, the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration distribution was fairly uniform. The results demonstrate that the uniformity of the tracer gas decay in the room was acceptable. Therefore, position 6 was used as the sampling point for subsequent ventilation rate measurements.

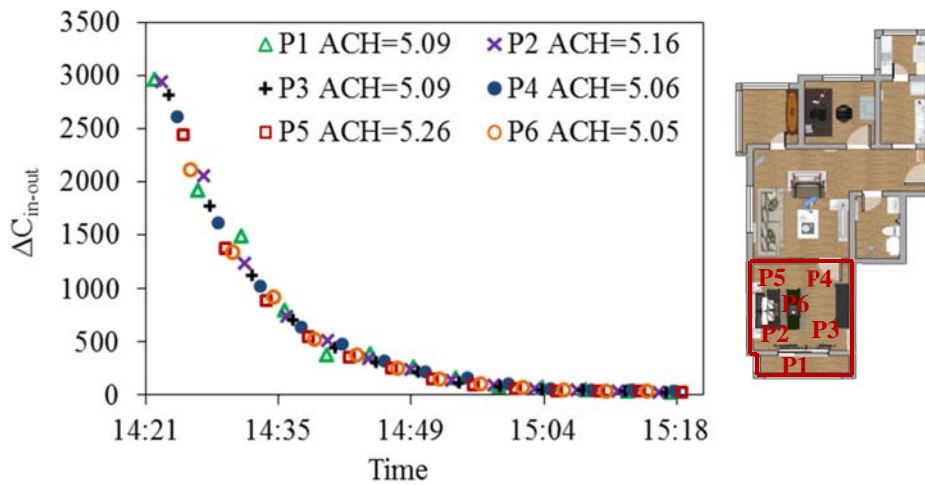


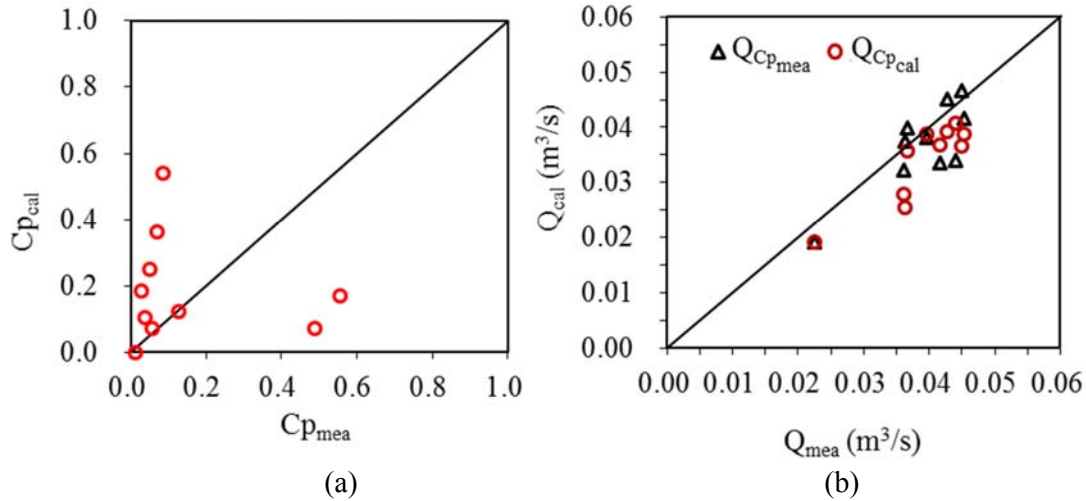
Fig. 6  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration decay measured at six different positions in the bedroom and the corresponding calculated ventilation rate

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The pressure coefficients on the building surface outside the window were measured as described in Section 3.3. Fig. 7(a) compares the wind pressure coefficients calculated by Eq. (11) with those calculated by Eq. (12) with the use of measured parameters for 10 of the 50 cases. Among the ten cases, six of them exhibited a significant difference. Note that the calculated pressure coefficients were the average surface values for low-rise buildings, which were not the same as the values measured at single points as in this investigation. Also, the



269 calculated coefficients were for a steady state, whereas the measurements had exhibited  
 270 significant fluctuations as depicted in Fig. 5. Although the agreement between the calculated  
 271 and measured wind pressure coefficients was disappointing, it was not a surprise.  
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**Fig. 7.** Comparison of (a) pressure coefficients and (b) ventilation rates obtained with calculated and measured pressure coefficients

278 Nevertheless, the ventilation rates determined by the proposed model with the pressure  
 279 coefficients calculated by Eq. (11) were similar to the rates determined with experimental  
 280 pressure coefficients calculated by Eq. (12), as shown in Fig. 7(b). In the proposed model,  
 281 one can see that  $C_p$  may not be the dominating factor. The reference wind velocity and  
 282 neutral plane height were equally important. Taking the case with  $C_{p_{cal}} = 0.17$  and  $C_{p_{mea}} =$   
 283  $0.56$  in Fig. 7(a) as an example, the corresponding calculated ventilation rates were  $0.041$   
 284  $m^3/s$  and  $0.034 m^3/s$ , respectively, when all other variables remain unchanged. The difference  
 285 in the calculated ventilation rates was 17%. Therefore, the proposed model was not very  
 286 sensitive to the wind pressure coefficient. Fig. 7 shows that the average difference between  
 287 the measured and calculated ventilation rates was only 13.2%.  
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#### 289 4.2 Model validation

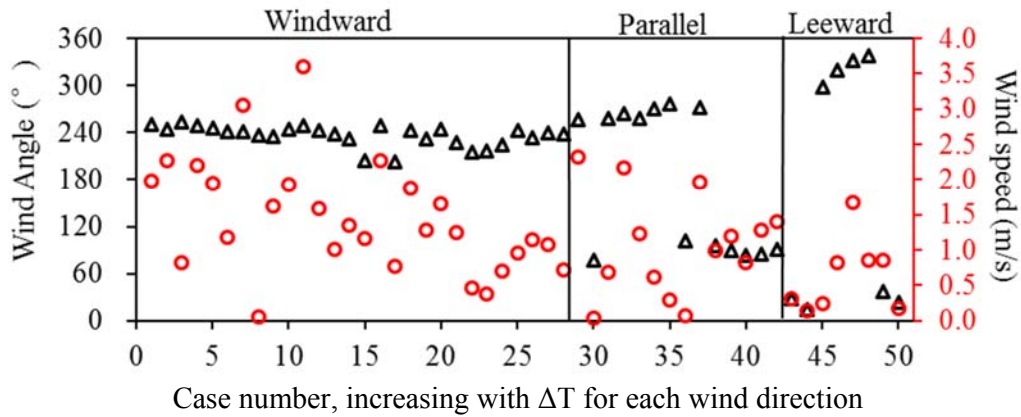
290 This investigation measured 50 sets of single-sided ventilation rates for the apartment  
 291 with a south-facing opening (window). According to the wind angles, the wind direction at  
 292 the opening could be classified as windward, parallel, or leeward as shown in Table 2. Fig. 8  
 293 displays the average wind angle and speed for the 50 cases. For each type of wind direction,  
 294 the case numbers increased with increasing  $\Delta T = T_i - T_o$ .

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**Table 2** Relationship between wind direction at the opening and wind angle

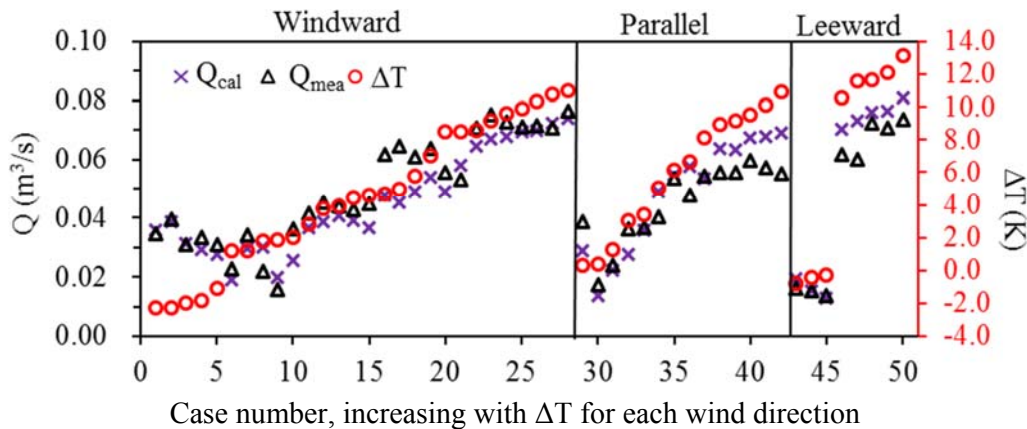
Wind direction	Wind angle
windward	105°-255°
parallel	75°-105°, 255°-285°
leeward	0°-75°, 285°-360°

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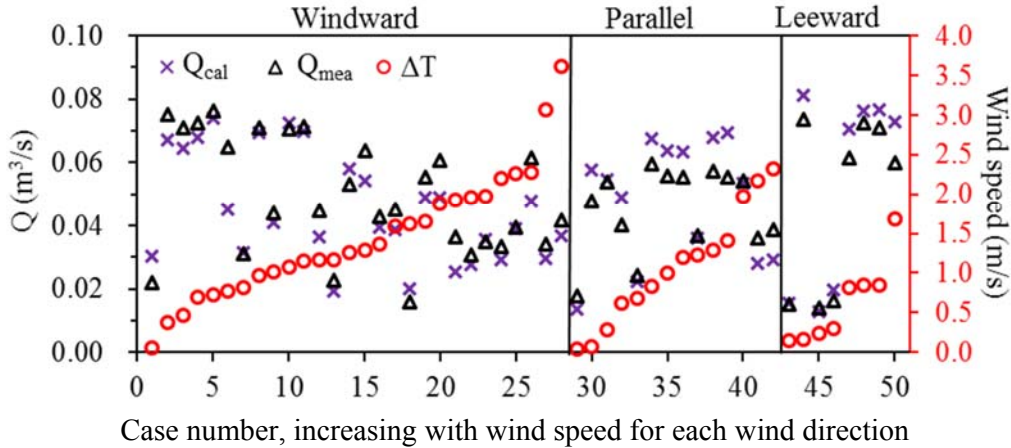
298  
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300 **Fig. 8.** Distribution of the average wind angle and speed for the 50 sets of measurements  
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302 **Fig. 9** compares the measured ventilation rate with that calculated by the proposed  
303 model for different wind directions and speeds under various temperature differences  
304 between the indoor and outdoor air. The case numbers in **Fig. 9** correspond to those in **Fig. 8**.  
305 As illustrated by **Fig. 9**, the proposed model in the windward cases had an average error of  
306 12.7%. In the leeward cases, the error was 11.2%, and large errors occurred with a large  
307 indoor-outdoor air temperature difference. The proposed model had the worst performance  
308 in the parallel cases, with an average error of 15.1%. Because of the complex outdoor airflow  
309 near the window, the flow contained numerous eddies of various sizes. The eddy penetration  
310 through the opening affected the ventilation rate and may have played a major role in natural  
311 ventilation in the parallel cases. In light of the model's simplicity and the fact that it did not  
312 account for the fluctuation effect, its performance was not bad.  
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316 **Fig. 9.** Comparison of the calculated and measured ventilation rates for the 50 cases  
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318 Note that the ventilation rate increased approximately with the increase in indoor-  
319 outdoor air temperature difference, as illustrated by **Fig. 9**. When the case numbers were  
320 rearranged according to the increase in wind speed for each wind direction, as shown in **Fig.**  
321 **10**, the measured and calculated ventilation rates did not show a clear trend of increase with  
322 higher wind speed.  
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325 Case number, increasing with wind speed for each wind direction  
326 **Fig. 10.** Comparison of the calculated and measured ventilation rates with the increase in wind speed  
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328 To further study whether the ventilation in our experiment was dominated by the  
329 buoyancy force, the ventilation rates driven by wind pressure and buoyancy force were  
330 calculated for each of the 50 cases. In the case of only wind-driven ventilation, Eq. (8)  
331 becomes the same as our previous model as:

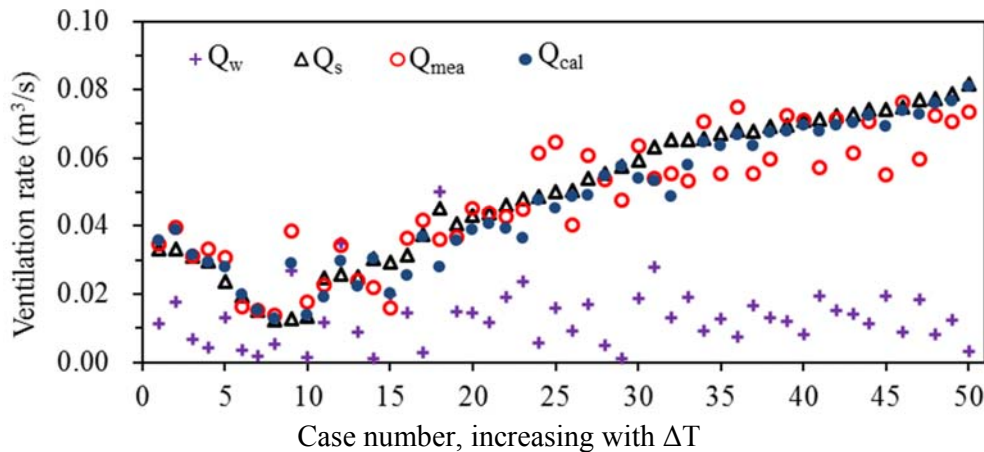
$$332 \quad Q_w = \frac{C_d l \sqrt{C_p} \int_{z_0}^h \sqrt{z^{2\alpha} - z_0^{2\alpha}} dz}{z_{ref}^\alpha} U_{ref}$$

333 For only buoyancy-driven ventilation, Eq. (8) is

$$334 \quad Q_s = C_d l \int_{z_0}^h \sqrt{\left| \frac{2(T_i - T_o)}{T_{ave}} g(z_0 - z) \right|} dz = \frac{1}{3} C_d A \sqrt{\left| \frac{2g(T_i - T_o)}{T_{ave}} (h - z_0) \right|} dz \quad (13)$$

335 When the height of the neutral plane is at the middle of the opening ( $z_0 = \frac{h}{2}$ ), Eq. (13) and  
336 Warren's buoyancy pressure ventilation model are exactly the same.

337 Fig. 11 illustrates the ventilation rate determined by wind pressure ( $Q_w$ ) as calculated by  
338 Eq. (7), the rate determined by buoyancy force ( $Q_s$ ) from Eq. (14), the measured rate ( $Q_{mea}$ ),  
339 and the rate calculated by Eq. (8) for the combined effects of wind pressure and buoyancy  
340 force ( $Q_{cal}$ ). The  $Q_w$  was smaller than  $Q_s$  even with a small temperature difference between  
341 indoor and outdoor air. The  $Q_s$  was very close to  $Q_{mea}$ , which indicates a strong buoyancy  
342 effect. Taking the wind pressure into consideration,  $Q_{cal}$  was generally larger than  $Q_s$ , but not  
343 always. This is because the buoyancy force was not always in the same direction as the wind  
344 force, which will be discussed later.



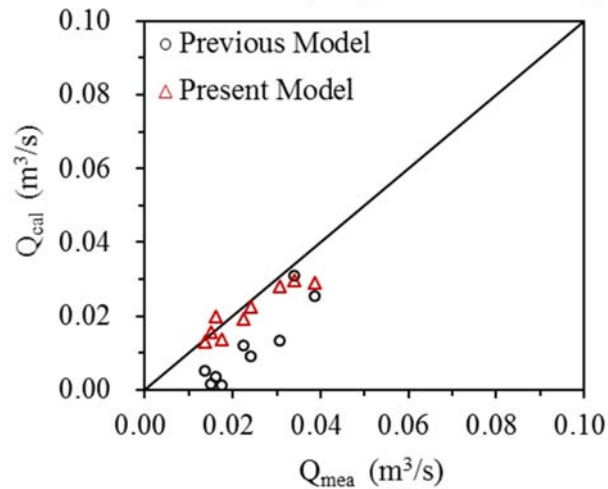
345  
346 Case number, increasing with  $\Delta T$   
347 **Fig. 11.** Comparisons of the ventilation rates calculated by different models with the measured data

348 Because of the attenuation of wind speed by the urban ground roughness and  
 349 surrounding buildings, the wind speed in the urban area rapidly decreased. As shown in Fig.  
 350 8, the wind speed at the reference position was generally less than 2 m/s. As the opening was  
 351 not very large, the wind-driven ventilation rate was quite low. Thus, the single-sided natural  
 352 ventilation in our study was dominated by the temperature difference between the indoor and  
 353 outdoor air.  
 354

### 355 4.3 Comparisons with previous models

356 Although the model proposed here performed fairly well according to the comparison  
 357 of predicted and measured ventilation rate, this investigation took the additional step of  
 358 comparing the performance of our model with other popular models found in the literature.  
 359 The comparison was made for various wind speeds and indoor-outdoor air temperature  
 360 differences.

361 Our previous model<sup>[26]</sup> was developed for wind-driven natural ventilation under isothermal  
 362 conditions and is actually our base model without considering thermal buoyancy. The  
 363 ventilation rate is determined by Eq. (13). Fig. 12 compares the ventilation rates calculated by  
 364 Eq. (13) and the new model with our experimental data. In the selected cases, the indoor-  
 365 outdoor air temperature difference was less than 1.8 K. In a completely isothermal case, our  
 366 present and previous models would be exactly the same. The differences shown in the figure  
 367 indicate that even a small temperature difference between indoor and outdoor air could cause  
 368 some degree of difference in the two models' predictions of ventilation rate. Our previous  
 369 model predicted lower ventilation rate when buoyancy was not taken into account, which is  
 370 understandable. Thus, the effect of thermal buoyancy should not be neglected.



371  
 372 **Fig. 12.** Comparison of the ventilation rates calculated by our previous model<sup>[26]</sup> and present model  
 373 with the measured data  
 374

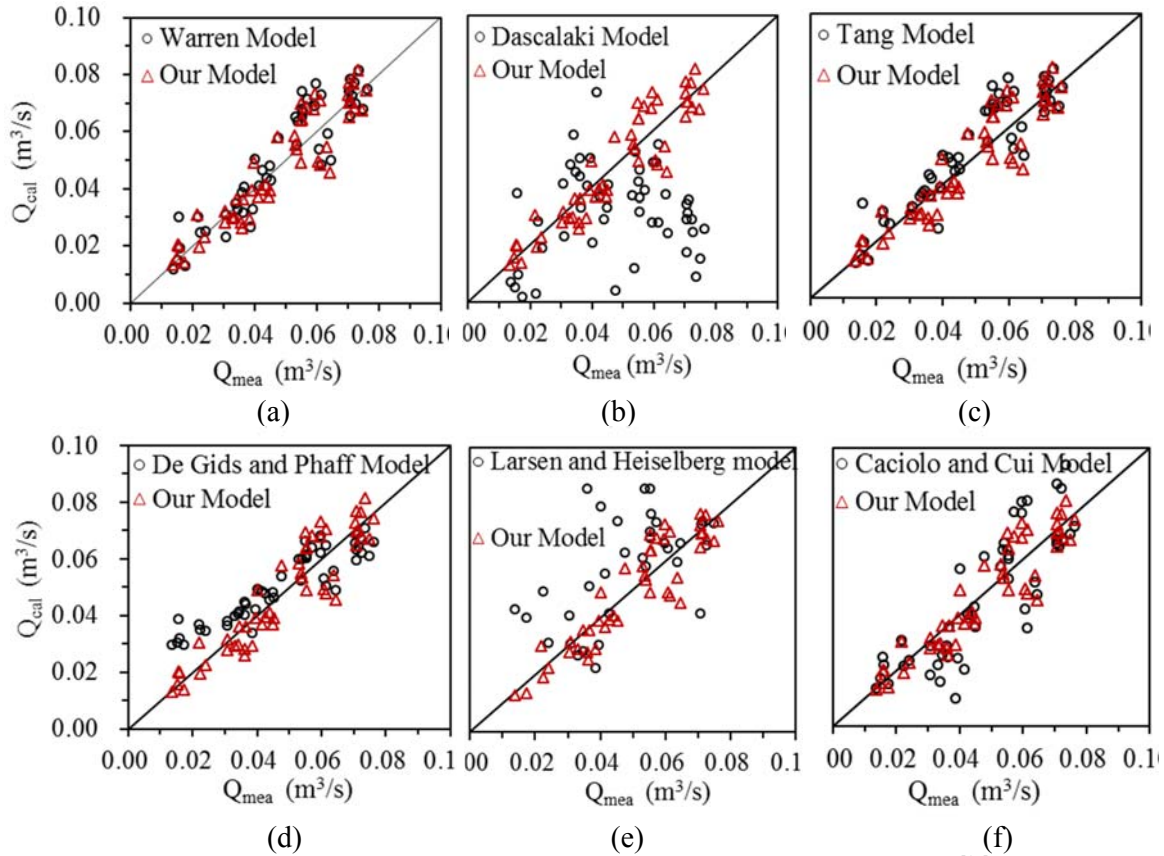
375 We compared the performance of our model with that of six other models from the  
 376 literature. Warren's model calculates the wind-driven and buoyancy-driven ventilation rates,  
 377 respectively, as

$$378 \quad Q_w = 0.025A_{eff}U \quad (14)$$

$$379 \quad Q_s = \frac{1}{3}A_{eff}C_d \sqrt{\frac{gh\Delta T}{T_{ave}}} \quad (15)$$

380 The larger of  $Q_w$  and  $Q_s$  was taken as the total ventilation rate. In fact, when either the  
 381 buoyancy pressure or wind pressure played a dominant role, the model ignored the influence  
 382 of the other. Fig. 13(a) compares the performance of our model with Warren's model. Since

383 the cases were dominated by the buoyancy effect, the impact of the wind pressure was not  
 384 very evident. Our model had a 13.1% average error while Warren's model had an average  
 385 error of 14.7%. Our model performed slightly better than Warren's model because the impact  
 386 of pressure was included in our model.  
 387



388  
 389 **Fig. 13.** Comparison of the performance of our model with the models from Warren<sup>[17]</sup>, Dascalaki et  
 390 al.<sup>[19]</sup>, Tang et al.<sup>[23]</sup>, De Gids and Phaff<sup>[24]</sup>, Larsen and Heiselberg<sup>[25]</sup> and Caciolo and Cui<sup>[21]</sup> with  
 391 the use of our measured data as a reference.

392  
 393 Dascalaki et al.<sup>[19]</sup> used a correction parameter CF that is a function of the Grashof and  
 394 Reynolds numbers to replace the discharge coefficient in predicting the total ventilation rate  
 395 by

$$396 \quad Q = CF \cdot \frac{1}{3} A \sqrt{\frac{gh(T_i - T_o)}{T_i}} \quad \text{with } CF = 0.08(Gr/Re_D^2)^{-0.38} \quad (16)$$

397 where the constant and exponent in the CF calculation were obtained by fitting with their  
 398 experimental data. Fig. 13(b) shows that their model did not perform as well as our model.  
 399 The average error of their model was 46.1%, which was close to that found in other studies  
 400<sup>[23]</sup>. The key is to obtain the correct CF. The empirical fitting parameters used by Dascalaki et  
 401 al. would depend very much on the similarity of the experimental data and the case to be  
 402 predicted.

403 Experimental results obtained in primary schools in Beijing by Tang et al.<sup>[23]</sup> indicated  
 404 that some previous models had large errors when the local wind speed was less than 1 m/s.  
 405 By fitting with their data, Tang et al. obtained an empirical correlation coefficient for local  
 406 wind speed less than 1 m/s ( $U_L < 1 \text{ m/s}$ ) that was based on Warren's model, as follows:

$$Q = C_d \cdot \frac{1}{3} A \sqrt{\frac{gh|T_i - T_o|}{T_i} + \frac{c}{|T_i - T_o|}} \quad (17)$$

Fig. 13(c) compares Tang's (2016) model and our model for  $U_L < 1 \text{ m/s}$  in our experiments. Their model performed very well with an average error of 12.9%, compared with our model with 13.1% error. Since their experiment was performed under similar weather conditions to ours, the empirical correlation coefficient would be very suitable for our cases. Therefore, such good performance should not be surprising. Whether or not their empirical correlation coefficient would work for other weather conditions is unknown. Nevertheless, our model's performance is no poorer than that of their model.

De Gids and Phaff<sup>[24]</sup> developed a correlation to calculate ventilation rate from a combination of wind, buoyancy, and fluctuation by

$$Q = \frac{1}{2} A \sqrt{(0.001U_{10}^2 + 0.0035h\Delta T + 0.01)} \quad (18)$$

Fig. 13(d) compares the performance of De Gids and Phaff's model with that of our model. The constants in the equation were obtained from their experimental data without considering wind angles or the sign of  $\Delta T$ . Their model overestimated ventilation rates in most cases and had an average error of 24.2%. Obviously, the wind angle and the sign of  $\Delta T$  are important factors in the ventilation rate.

Larsen and Heiselberg<sup>[25]</sup> developed the following model by using wind tunnel experimental data and taking into account limited wind directions (windward, parallel and leeward):

$$Q = A \sqrt{C_1 f(\beta_v)^2 |C_p| U^2 + C_2 h \Delta T + \frac{\Delta C_{p,opening}(\beta_v) \Delta T}{U^2}} \quad (19)$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are empirical parameters related to wind directions, and  $f(\beta_v)$  and  $\Delta C_{p,opening}$  are functions related to incidence angle  $\beta_v$ . Fig. 13(e) illustrates the performance of the model for our cases. Their model had an average error of 24.1%. In a few cases, the errors were very significant. A possible reason is that their data did not fully cover our cases.

Caciolo and Cui<sup>[21]</sup> developed two models to predict windward and leeward ventilation, respectively, through CFD simulations. For windward ventilation,

$$Q = Q_s + Q_w = \frac{1}{3} A C_d \sqrt{\frac{gh\Delta T_{eff}}{T_{ave}}} + 0.00357A(U - U_{lim}) \quad (20)$$

where effective air temperature difference  $\Delta T_{eff} = \Delta T(1.234 - 0.490U + 0.048U^2)$  and  $U_{lim} = 1.23 \text{ m/s}$ . For leeward ventilation,

$$Q = Q_{s,eff} = \frac{1}{3} A C_d \sqrt{\frac{gh\Delta T_{eff}}{T_{ave}}}, \Delta T_{eff} = \Delta T(1.355 - 0.179U_{lim}) \quad (21)$$

where  $Q_{s,eff}$  is the effective ventilation rate driven by the buoyancy force. Although the models were designed for windward and leeward conditions, respectively, Fig. 13(f) shows that their models had an average error of 22.3% in predicting our cases. The approximations used in CFD, wind angles, etc., could have contributed to the error.

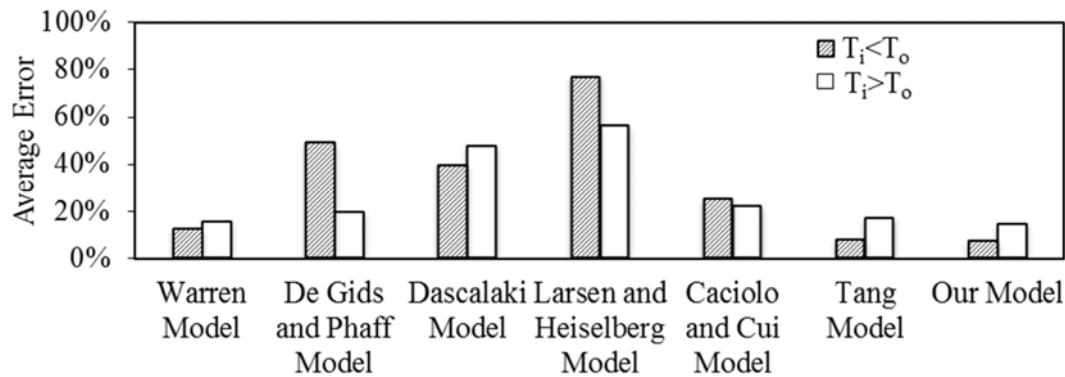
The above comparison demonstrates that our model is one of the most successful in predicting the natural ventilation rate through a single opening. The prediction had an average error of 13.1%, which is acceptable for design practice.

## 5. Discussion

The models found in our literature review did not emphasize the significance of the sign in the indoor-outdoor temperature difference,  $\Delta T = T_i - T_o$ . Because of the thermal inertia of the building used in our experiment, it was possible for the indoor temperature to be lower

449 than the outdoor temperature in the transitional season, as found in several cases shown in  
 450 Fig. 9. The proposed model considered the sign of  $\Delta T$ , which could be important for the  
 451 interaction between the wind force and the buoyancy force. If the wind pressure in the  
 452 outdoor space was positive, when  $T_i > T_o$ , the air would have flowed in through the lower  
 453 part of the window opening, and the buoyancy force would have enhanced ventilation. When  
 454  $T_i < T_o$ , the ventilation would have been hindered by the buoyancy force. Our model could  
 455 correctly deal with the sign of  $\Delta T$ , whereas the other models could not.

456 Most of the investigations in the literature considered indoor air temperature to be  
 457 higher than that outdoors [17-24]. As shown in Fig. 14, we found these models from De Gids  
 458 and Phaff, Larsen and Heiselberg, and Caciolo and Cui performed better with  $T_i > T_o$  than  $T_i$   
 459  $< T_o$  for the 50 cases displayed in Fig. (8). Since there were not many cases with  $T_i < T_o$ , the  
 460 models should not produce overly large errors when the sign of  $\Delta T$  is not taken into account.  
 461



462

$T_i < T_o$	12.2%	47.8%	39.4%	76.8%	24.8%	7.6%	7.2%
$T_o < T_i$	15.2%	19.5%	47.4%	56.0%	21.9%	16.7%	14.3%

463

**Fig. 14.** The impact of  $\Delta T = T_i - T_o$  on the errors in the ventilation rate calculated by different models.

464

465 In addition, near the windows it is street canyon, where the wind environment is  
 466 strongly influenced by the configuration of the street canyon [40, 41]. Then the power law wind  
 467 profile used to predict the wind speed at the window would bring unpredictable errors, and  
 468 varied with the environment around the residence. The wind pressure coefficient in the  
 469 proposed model was the surface average result for an isolated building obtained through  
 470 empirical correlation. It is not certain what the errors would be for an apartment with many  
 471 surrounding buildings. The wind pressure coefficient is normally linked to the undisturbed  
 472 airstream from the upwind direction. This is difficult to determine in an urban environment  
 473 with complex city topography and skyline. All of these factors would make the calculation of  
 474 ventilation rate through a single opening very challenging.  
 475

475

## 476 6. Conclusions

477 This investigation developed a new model with considerable physical significance for  
 478 single-sided natural ventilation driven by wind pressure and buoyancy force, on the basis of  
 479 our previous study. The model was validated by measured data obtained in an apartment in  
 480 an urban area. The study led to the following conclusions:

481

- When the 50 sets of ventilation data obtained in the apartment are used for  
 482 comparison, our model is able to predict the natural ventilation rate with an average  
 483 error of 13.1%. The data include a single opening with airflow in windward, parallel,  
 484 and leeward directions and an indoor-outdoor air temperature difference ranging from

485 -2.3 K to 13.2 K. The data show that the buoyancy force in our measured data was  
486 higher than the wind pressure force because of the high urban building density.  
487 • This investigation also assessed the performance of six other models found in our  
488 literature review. Some of the models were purely empirical. Those models calculated  
489 the natural ventilation rates through the opening with an average error ranging from  
490 12.9% to 46.1%. Thus, our model performed well in comparison with the other  
491 models.  
492 • Our model takes into account the impact of both positive and negative buoyancy  
493 forces on natural ventilation through a single opening with outside air pressure,  
494 whereas the other models may not do so. However, the wind profile in an urban  
495 environment may not be described by a power-law equation, and the pressure  
496 distribution on the building envelope was different from that for a single building in  
497 an open area. Thus, it was difficult to calculate the wind pressure coefficient of the  
498 apartment with reasonable accuracy.  
499

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