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# CFD simulations of natural cross ventilation through an apartment with modified hourly wind information from a meteorological station

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## HIGHLIGHTS

- Interpolating hour-by-hour wind velocity from a meteorological station into minute-by-minute velocity
- CFD simulations of the outdoor wind velocity around an apartment building and the indoor cross-ventilation rate in an apartment
- Verification of the computed results with corresponding experimental data

## ABSTRACT

Natural ventilation in buildings can improve indoor air quality and thermal comfort and reduce air-conditioning use except for highly polluted area. Traditionally, the inflow boundary conditions for calculating natural ventilation used weather data from a meteorological station that is often in a suburb. The use of hour-by-hour wind velocity from the station may give rise to some errors because of the large time step. This investigation proposed a correlation method for converting the hour-by-hour wind velocity from a meteorological station to minute-by-minute velocity, using data measured on the rooftop of the building of interest. A CFD simulation with the coupled modeling method using the unsteady RNG k- $\epsilon$  model was performed to calculate airflow around the building and airflow in an apartment simultaneously. The computed outdoor wind velocity and indoor ventilation rate were compared with the corresponding experimental data. The results showed that the simulations calculated the outdoor wind velocity on the building rooftop and the cross-ventilation rate through the apartment with acceptable accuracy.

*Keywords:* Unsteady flow, Field measurements, Airflow around building, Meteorological station

## 1. Introduction

Natural ventilation can improve indoor air quality by 20-47% [1], potentially reduce energy consumption by 8-78% [2], and provide a high level of thermal comfort for occupants [3]. Unfortunately, natural ventilation cannot be used in all climates, since the weather conditions, such as the outdoor air quality and thermal environment, are an important factor [4]. Certainly, places such as Kunming, China, have favorable weather for natural ventilation. Even in these places, however, it is challenging to design natural ventilation because of the effects of opening size and location [5,6], the transient interaction between the indoor and

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38 outdoor environment, unsteady wind conditions [7], irregular urban geometry [8], variations  
39 in outdoor air quality [2], and so on.

40 The driving force for natural ventilation is the pressure differential created by wind and  
41 thermal buoyancy. Therefore, in the design of naturally ventilated buildings, the first step is  
42 to obtain reliable meteorological wind information, such as wind speed and direction [9]. One  
43 can then design natural ventilation by various methods, such as the analytical method, (semi-  
44 )empirical models, the wind tunnel method, and the computational fluid dynamics (CFD)  
45 method.

46 Natural ventilation can be divided into wind-driven cross ventilation and single-sided  
47 ventilation. Wind-driven cross ventilation entails a high flow rate through a building and is  
48 more desirable. Therefore, this investigation focused on cross ventilation. Many analytical  
49 and (semi-)empirical models have been developed to calculate cross ventilation rate, such as  
50 the models proposed by Etheridge and Sandberg [10], Chu and Wang [11], and Aynsley [12].  
51 Among the existing method, analytical and (semi-)empirical models can provide rapid  
52 estimates of the cross ventilation rate. Although these models are useful and easy to use, they  
53 introduce large uncertainties due to the assumptions used [13]. The wind tunnel method  
54 exhibits good control of the inflow boundary conditions [14] but does not vary wind speed  
55 and direction over time and is very expensive. Meanwhile, the CFD method can account for  
56 major influencing factors. Although CFD is computationally demanding, its accuracy and  
57 reliability in determining the ventilation rate make it an ideal tool for cross-ventilation design  
58 [15-17].

59 Previously published CFD models for cross-ventilation simulation can be classified into  
60 three types, the decoupled modeling method [18], compact integration modeling method [19],  
61 and coupled modeling method [20]. The decoupled modeling method simulates indoor  
62 airflow separately by assigning fixed pressure at windows, where the pressure is determined  
63 at the building façade with solid building blocks for outdoor airflow simulation [21]. When  
64 this method is used, the computing time and capacity are minimal. However, this simple  
65 method predicts that airflow enters the exterior windows of an apartment perpendicularly,  
66 which is unrealistic and inaccurate. The compact integration modeling method first calculates  
67 outdoor airflow with solid building blocks. The method then simulates airflow through and  
68 around an apartment in a building with the use of flow information extracted at a certain  
69 distance from the building in the outdoor airflow simulation [19]. However, the specified  
70 distance from the building has an impact on the calculated cross-ventilation rate. The coupled  
71 modeling method calculates outdoor wind flow and indoor natural ventilation simultaneously  
72 [22]. This method can capture the complex interaction between outdoor wind flow and indoor  
73 natural ventilation, and thus it is the most accurate. Unfortunately, the coupled modeling  
74 method is the most computationally demanding.

75 Nevertheless, a number of researchers have adopted the coupled modeling method to  
76 investigate cross ventilation. Some researchers have focused on an isolated or generic  
77 building [23-25]. To take into account the influence of surrounding buildings on the airflow  
78 around the building of interest, other researchers have considered the sheltering effect of  
79 neighbouring buildings on the indoor air flow [26-28]. Several investigations have explored  
80 the indoor cross-ventilation rate using actual urban configurations [8,29], but doing so  
81 requires detailed information about urban geometry. It should be noted that all these  
82 investigations used hourly wind velocity and direction obtained from a meteorological station  
83 as inflow boundary conditions. This was because a meteorological station typically provides  
84 hourly data. In reality, cross ventilation should be determined minute by minute or even  
85 second by second. Our earlier studies [30,31] found that, although the hourly wind velocity  
86 and direction from a meteorological station may have been the same at two different  
87 moments in time, the wind speed measured on a building rooftop varied considerably. Should

88 CFD be used to calculate the wind speed on the rooftop, the results would be the same for the  
89 two moments. This is because CFD simulation using hourly wind data cannot account for  
90 wind extremes and variations that occur within a given hour.

91 Thus, appropriate wind information within an hour-long period is prerequisite for  
92 obtaining rational wind flow fields, and subsequently the cross-ventilation rate, by means of  
93 CFD. Although wind may vary significantly within an hour, hourly meteorological data does  
94 not contain this information. Previous studies have not correctly considered the transient  
95 characteristics of wind. To fill this gap, the present investigation proposed the use of a  
96 correlation method to convert hourly wind data from a meteorological station to minute-by-  
97 minute or even second-by-second transient data. The method enabled us to take the unsteady  
98 character of the inflow boundary into account and thus maintain the accuracy of the  
99 simulation results.

## 100 2. Research Method

101 This section describes a correlation method for converting hour-by-hour meteorological  
102 data from a meteorological station into minute-by-minute data. We then discuss the  
103 experimental approach for obtaining wind velocity on a building rooftop and the indoor  
104 cross-ventilation rate in order to validate the method. Finally, this section illustrates the  
105 numerical procedure for computing the cross-ventilation flow.

### 106 2.1 Correlation method for obtaining minute-by-minute wind velocity

107 Traditionally, the inflow boundary conditions for calculating natural ventilation have used  
108 hourly weather data from a meteorological station that is often located in a suburb. The large  
109 time interval contributes significant error to the calculated rate because the wind can change  
110 significantly within an hour. Our previous studies [30,31] found that, although the hourly  
111 wind velocity and wind direction from the meteorological station may have remained the  
112 same within a given period, the wind measured on a building rooftop varied considerably. We  
113 suspect that the wind extremes and variations during the period could be the cause of the  
114 variation.

115 To verify the above hypothesis, the ideal approach would be to obtain more detailed wind  
116 information from a meteorological station. Unfortunately, the finest time interval in the data  
117 provided by a station is one hour. However, a study by Robaa [32] found a very strong  
118 correlation between wind information from a meteorological station and that from a local  
119 weather station within the city, as shown in Figure 1.

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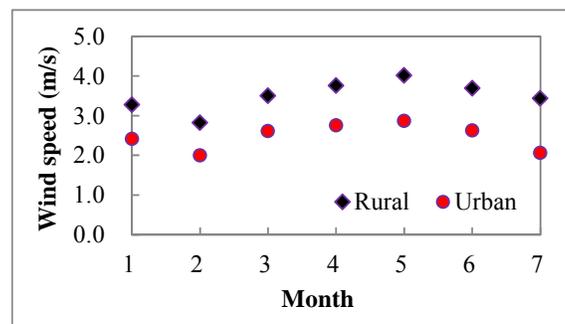


Fig. 1. Comparison of mean wind speed in rural and urban areas [32].

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124 In addition, the ASHRAE Handbook of Fundamentals [33] provides a correlation equation  
 125 linking local wind speed on a building rooftop, terrain type, building height, and wind speed  
 126 from a meteorological station as follows:  
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$$U_H = U_{met} \left( \frac{\delta_{met}}{H_{met}} \right)^{\alpha_{met}} \left( \frac{H}{\delta} \right)^{\alpha} \quad (1)$$

128 where  $U_H$  (m/s) is the local wind speed on the rooftop,  $H$  (m) the building height, and  $U_{met}$   
 129 (m/s) the wind speed from a meteorological station. The coefficients  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha_{met}$  and the  
 130 thickness of boundary layer  $\delta$  in Eq. (1) are related to terrain type [33].  
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133 Although there is heat island effect in urban area, its impact on wind flow is minimum.  
 134 Thus, almost all studies on cross-ventilation assumed isothermal conditions [13,16,34] since  
 135 buoyancy force is much smaller compared with inertial force from wind. Thus, we can use  
 136 Eq. (1) to determine  $U_{met}$  from measured  $U_H$  because the relationship is linear. If  $U_H$  contains  
 137 extremes and large variations within one hour,  $U_{met}$  must have the same behavior. Meanwhile,  
 138 Eq. (1) can also be applied to the average wind velocity in one hour:  
 139

$$U_{ave} = U_{met,ave} \left( \frac{\delta_{met}}{H_{met}} \right)^{\alpha_{met}} \left( \frac{H}{\delta} \right)^{\alpha} \quad (2)$$

140 By combining Eqs. (1) and (2), we obtain  
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$$U_t / U_{ave} = U_{met,t} / U_{met,ave} \quad t = 1, \dots, 60 \text{ min} \quad (3)$$

144 If we consider  $U_t$  and  $U_{met,t}$  as minute-by-minute wind velocity,  $U_{met,t}$  can be obtained from  
 145  $U_t$  according to Eq. (3). Since the minute-by-minute wind information has a sufficiently small  
 146 time interval, it should contain wind extremes and large variations. Note that we only  
 147 considered the relationship between the wind speed at a meteorological station and that on a  
 148 building rooftop. Therefore, this method has been verified only for those cases in which wind  
 149 direction is relatively stable during the period concerned.  
 150

## 151 2.2 Validation method for the correlation via field measurements of wind velocity

152 With the  $U_{met,t}$  from Eq. (3), one can use the coupled modeling method to determine the  
 153 natural ventilation rate through an apartment for a period of time. If the measured cross-  
 154 natural-ventilation rate is the same as the calculated rate, then the correlation method has  
 155 been indirectly validated as reliable and accurate.

156 This investigation measured the wind velocity on a building rooftop and the cross-natural-  
 157 ventilation rate through an apartment in Tianjin, China. Figure 2(a) shows the apartment  
 158 building with a weather station P1 on the rooftop. The cross-ventilation rate was measured in  
 159 a two-bedroom apartment on the third floor of the building. Figure 2(b) shows the floor plan  
 160 of the apartment. Since our objective was to measure cross ventilation in the apartment, we  
 161 artificially created a cross-ventilation passage inside the apartment as enclosed by the red  
 162 lines in the figure. This passage was achieved by closing the hallway to the living room.  
 163 Except for the south window, north window and interior doors that were open, all external  
 164 windows were closed. Therefore, cross ventilation could occur only through the south and

165 north windows. The opening of the south window was 0.15 m wide and 1.2 m high, and that  
166 of the north window was 0.15 m wide and 1.3 m high.  
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170 **Fig. 2.** (a) A weather station installed on the rooftop of an apartment building and (b) the floor plan of the  
171 apartment where cross-ventilation rate was measured.  
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173 This investigation used a HOBO micro weather station to measure the rooftop wind  
174 velocity and direction from March 8, 2018, to May 7, 2018. The measurement location was 2  
175 m above the roof of the apartment building, as shown in Figure 2(a). The measuring  
176 frequency was one minute. The micro weather station had a measuring accuracy of  $\pm 0.4\%$  for  
177 wind speed if it was greater than 0.5 m/s, and  $\pm 5^\circ$  for wind direction. The measured wind data  
178 can be used to convert the wind from the meteorological station in a Tianjin suburb to  
179 minute-by-minute data and to validate the simulated outdoor wind environment around the  
180 building.

181 To measure the cross-ventilation rate, this investigation used the tracer-gas-concentration  
182 decay method. Carbon dioxide was used as the tracer gas. Strictly, to obtain reliable results  
183 for the air change rate in an enclosure using the tracer-gas technique, the tracer gas should be  
184 uniformly mixed in the enclosure. However, complete mixing is difficult to achieve in a real  
185 building because of the complexity of the building's interior layout. Moreover, cross  
186 ventilation in the apartment involved four separated zones connected by three interior doors  
187 as shown in Figure 2(b), which further increased the complexity. According to Charlesworth  
188 [35], one can overcome this problem by measuring the tracer-gas concentration at several  
189 locations. The mean of these concentrations can then be assumed to be the average  
190 concentration in the entire enclosure. Therefore, this investigation measured the CO<sub>2</sub>  
191 concentration at five different locations, shown as P1 to P5 in Figure 2(b). Carbon dioxide  
192 was first released in each room, and two portable fans and one air-conditioning unit in  
193 ventilation mode were used to mix the CO<sub>2</sub> with the room air. When the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at  
194 all five measuring locations reached about 5000 ppm, the CO<sub>2</sub> injection, the fans, and the air-  
195 conditioning unit were all switched off. The south and north windows were then opened,  
196 while the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at the five locations were continuously measured until the  
197 concentration reached 500 ppm. The measurements lasted from 30 to 90 minutes, depending  
198 on the outdoor airflow conditions. The tracer-gas-decay method was used to calculate the  
199 corresponding ventilation rate from the CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations [36].

## 200 2.3 Numerical procedure for computing cross-ventilation flow

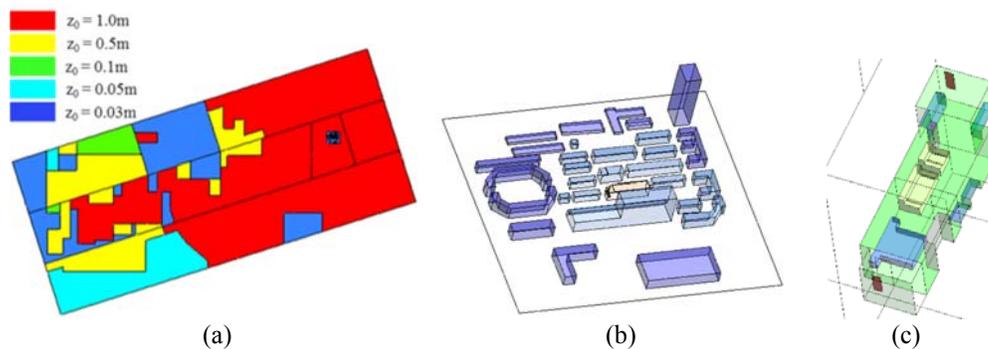
### 201 2.3.1 Brief description of turbulence model

202 This investigation used a commercial CFD program, ANSYS Fluent 14.0 [37], to conduct  
203 the coupled modeling. The modeling used the unsteady Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes

204 (RANS) equations with the RNG  $k-\epsilon$  turbulence model [38] to solve the turbulent wind flow  
205 in the computational domain. The model has performed well in simulating urban wind flows  
206 [29]. The governing transport equations were solved by using the finite volume method. The  
207 species equation was utilized to calculate the transient decay of the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration. The  
208 numerical method used the SIMPLE algorithm for coupling pressure and velocity equations,  
209 and the second-order discretization schemes for the convection and viscous terms of the  
210 governing equations. The modeling used the second-order implicit time integration for  
211 temporal discretization with a time step of 30 s. Van Hooff and Blocken [29] compared three  
212 different time-step sizes ( $\Delta t = 5$  s, 10 s and 30 s) and found that the time-step size had no  
213 noticeable effect on the scaled residuals. In the present study, the results were considered  
214 converged when the residuals for all the independent parameters reached  $10^{-4}$  at the end of  
215 each time step. For more detailed information about the numerical technique, please refer to  
216 the program manual [36]. In addition, this investigation compared steady and un-steady  
217 RANS simulations.

### 218 2.3.2 Geometrical model

219 Our previous study [31] proposed a full-scale model which can be used to calculate the  
220 wind flow around a building by using wind information from the nearest meteorological  
221 station. To achieve acceptable results, a CFD simulation should incorporate detailed  
222 structures around the building within a radius of at least three times the length scale, where  
223 the length scale is the maximum dimension of the building. Therefore, we used a full-scale  
224 model that extended from the apartment building with surrounding buildings within three  
225 length scales to the nearest nearby meteorological station, which was located 10 km away, as  
226 shown in Fig. 3(a). The other regions were simplified with different roughness lengths,  
227 illustrated in different colors. The computational domain was 12.6 km long, 5.4 km wide and  
228 0.351 km high. Figure 3(b) depicts the buildings within three length scales around the  
229 apartment building. Figure 3(c) illustrates the layout of the apartment used in the coupled  
230 modeling.  
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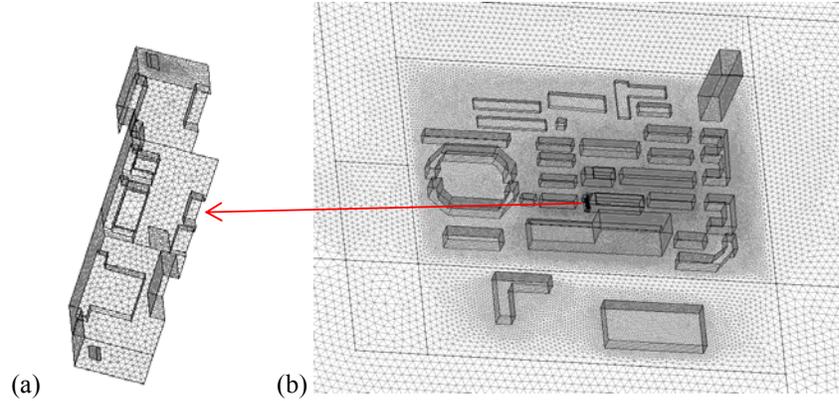


234 **Fig. 3.** Geometric model used in this study: (a) full-scale model with detailed building structures around  
235 the apartment building within three length scales and different roughness lengths for the rest of the  
236 computational domain, (b) detailed geometry of the apartment building with surrounding buildings within  
237 three length scales, and (c) layout of the apartment.

### 238 2.3.3 Grid arrangement and mesh generation

239 Gambit software (version 2.4.6) [39] was used to generate a discrete grid for discretizing  
240 the governing transport equations. Because of the complexity of the geometrical model, this  
241 study used a hybrid grid scheme with a tetrahedral grid, which can be adapted to various  
242 geometric structures. The grid size for the apartment shown in Fig. 3(c) was 0.1 m. The grid

243 size for the domain shown in Fig. 3(b) ranged from 1 to 7 m, and for the remaining area  
 244 shown in Fig. 3(a) it ranged from 7 to 20 m. The maximum grid size in the vertical direction  
 245 was 10 m. The resulting total grid number was 4.8 million. Fig. 4(a) depicts the grid cell  
 246 distribution for the apartment and Fig. 4(b) the distribution around the building. Our previous  
 247 papers [30,31] show that the grid resolution can lead to grid independent results.  
 248



249 (a) (b)  
 250  
 251 **Fig. 4.** Grid cell distribution for (a) the apartment and (b) the building surroundings.

#### 252 2.3.4 Boundary conditions

253 The modeling used wind data from a meteorological station in the upwind direction as the  
 254 inflow boundary conditions. The meteorological station was located 10 km southwest of the  
 255 apartment building. This investigation selected the time period from 19:00 to 20:00 on April  
 256 18, 2018, for modelling the airflow around the building. The corresponding wind angles from  
 257 the meteorological station at 19:00 and 20:00 were 220° and 219°, respectively, which were  
 258 from the southwest direction. Thus, the meteorological station was located in upstream of the  
 259 apartment building. The simulation was able to set vertical western and southern boundaries  
 260 in the computational domain as inflow. The two downstream vertical boundaries in the  
 261 computational domain were modeled as outflow. The sky was treated as symmetric. The  
 262 ground surface was simulated as non-slip conditions with roughness.

263  
 264 The roughness length ( $z_0$ ) for the ground surface between the meteorological station and  
 265 the apartment region was determined from sand-grain roughness height  $k_s$  and the roughness  
 266 constant  $C_s$  derived by Blocken et al. [41]:  
 267

$$268 \quad k_s C_s = 9.793 z_0 \quad (4)$$

269 The simulations employed the standard wall function [41, 42] to describe the sand-grain-  
 270 based roughness. When the  $k_s$  and  $C_s$  are varied, Eq. (4) can be used to describe different  
 271 aerodynamic roughness lengths,  $z_0$ , to take into account the influence of roughness elements  
 272 on the wind flow field. Table 1 lists  $z_0$  values for different terrains and the corresponding  $k_s$   
 273 and  $C_s$ . Figure 3(a) shows the different roughness lengths used for the computational domain.  
 274

275 **Table 1.**  
 276 Roughness for different terrains [40, 43]

Type	$z_0$ (m)	$k_s$ (m)	$C_s$ (m)
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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The wind speed measurements from the meteorological station ( $U_{met,ave}$ ) at 7:00 PM and 8:00 PM were both 1.8 m/s. According to Eq. (3), the correlated minute-by-minute wind speed,  $U_{met,t}$ , can be used to define the inflow profiles,  $U_{z,t}$ . The vertical velocity profile for the inflow boundary was modeled as a power law, and the vertical profiles for  $k_{z,t}$  and  $\varepsilon_{z,t}$  were taken from AIJ guidelines for practical applications of CFD to the pedestrian wind environment around buildings [44], as follows:

$$U_{z,t} = U_{r,t} \left( \frac{z}{z_r} \right)^\alpha \quad (5)$$

$$k_{z,t} = (I_{z,t} U_{z,t})^2 \quad (6)$$

$$\varepsilon_{z,t} = U_{ABL,t}^{*3} / k(z + z_0) \quad (7)$$

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where

$$I_{z,t} = 0.1 \left( \frac{z}{z_G} \right)^{(-\alpha-0.05)} \quad (8)$$

$$U_{ABL,t}^* = k U_{r,t} / \ln((z_r + z_0) / z_0) \quad (9)$$

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The  $U_{z,t}$  (m/s) is the minute-by-minute velocity profile (m/s). The  $U_{r,t}$  (m/s) in Eq. (5) is the minute-by-minute velocity at reference height  $z_r$  (m), and  $z$  (m) is height. Because the meteorological station was located in a suburb, the exponent in the power law was  $\alpha = 0.22$  [33] at the two inlet boundaries. The  $k_{z,t}$  is the vertical distribution of turbulent energy. The  $I_{z,t}$  in Eq. (6) is the minute-by-minute turbulent intensity profile. The  $\varepsilon_{z,t}$  is the turbulence dissipation profile. In Eq. (7),  $U_{ABL}^*$  is the atmospheric boundary layer friction velocity, while  $k$  is the Karman constant ( $= 0.4$ ). The  $z_G$  (m) in Eq. (8) is the boundary layer height ( $= 370$  m) determined by terrain category [33].

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Note that we conducted both unsteady and steady CFD simulations for airflow around the building. For the unsteady simulation, the profiles for  $U$ ,  $k$ , and  $\square$  at the inflow boundaries were provided minute-by-minute. For the steady CFD simulation, the profiles were defined using the average data in that period.

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Figure 5 shows the wind rose of Tianjin. The prevailing wind was from south-south-west direction. The annual frequency of our simulated case is 2.2%.

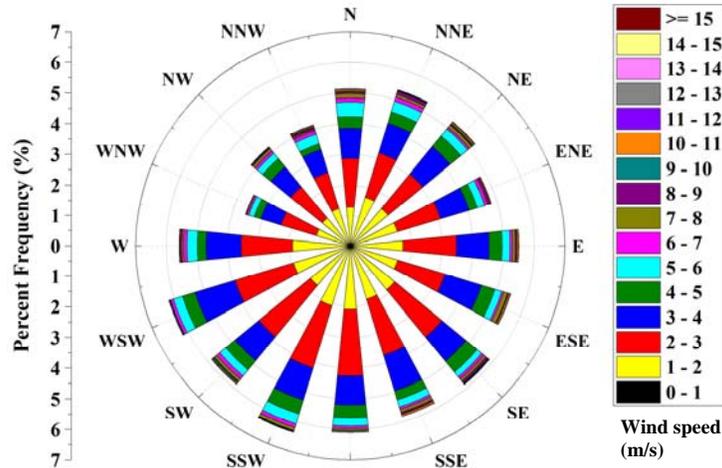


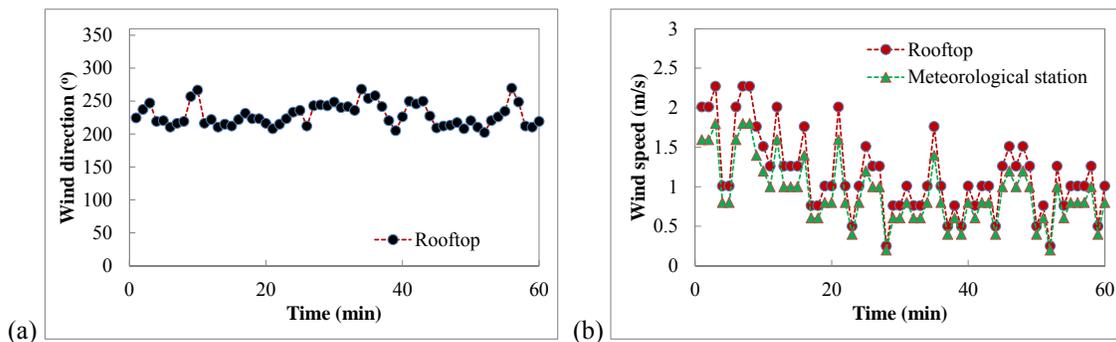
Fig. 5. Wind rose of Tianjin.

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### 307 3. Results

#### 308 3.1 Conversion of hourly wind speed to minute-by-minute data

309 For conversion of hour-by-hour meteorological data from a meteorological station to  
 310 minute-by-minute data, the wind direction during the period under consideration needs to be  
 311 relatively stable. Figure 6(a) depicts the wind-direction variation on the rooftop from 19:00 to  
 312 20:00 on April 18, 2018, which was stable. According to [45], the average for the first two  
 313 minutes of an hour can be used to represent the hourly weather data. Therefore, the average  
 314 wind speed for the first two minutes was used as the denominator in Eq. (3). Figure 6(b)  
 315 depicts the minute-by-minute wind speed with the wind velocity from the meteorological  
 316 station and the building rooftop from 19:00 to 20:00. The calculated wind speed was time-  
 317 dependent and dynamic. Traditional CFD simulations using constant wind speed do not  
 318 consider the dynamic wind speed, which may cause errors.  
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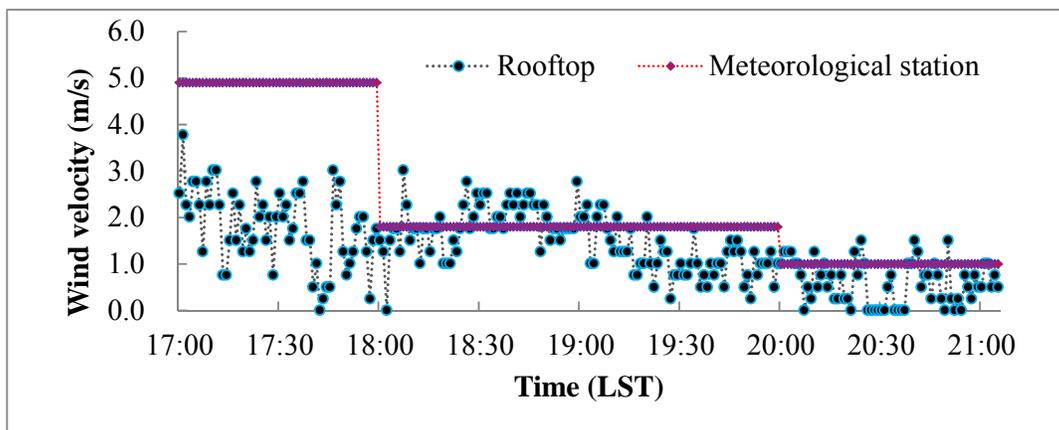
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321 Fig. 6. (a) The measured wind direction on the rooftop of the apartment building, and (b) the converted  
 322 minute-by-minute wind speed with the wind velocity from the meteorological station and the building  
 323 rooftop.

324 3.2 Outdoor wind-speed simulations

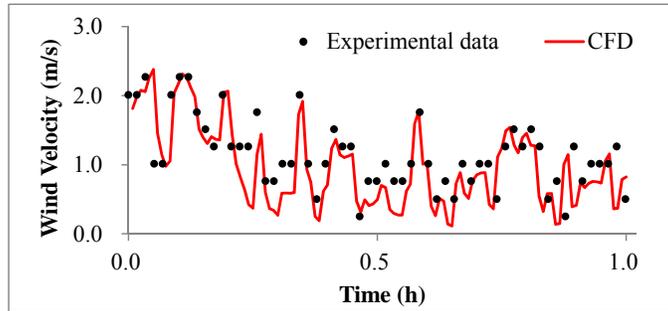
325 This investigation first conducted a steady CFD simulation, which is a popular method of  
326 calculating airflow around a building. The simulated wind speed on the building rooftop was  
327 1.73 m/s. When we averaged the measured wind speed on the roof of the apartment building  
328 from 19:00 to 19:02, the value was 2.27 m/s. Meanwhile, when we averaged the minute-by-  
329 minute wind speed from 19:00 to 20:00, the value was 1.1 m/s. The calculated wind speed  
330 did not agree with the two averaged wind speeds from the measurements.

331 For further analysis of the differences, Figure 7 shows the minute-by-minute wind speed  
332 on the building rooftop and the hourly data from the meteorological station from 17:00 to  
333 21:00 on April 18, 2018. The wind speed from the meteorological station decreased from 4.9  
334 m/s to 1.0 m/s during this period. The wind speed on the rooftop exhibited the same trend,  
335 but the changes were not proportional. Although the wind speed measurements from the  
336 meteorological station at 19:00 and 20:00 were both 1.8 m/s which appear steady, the wind  
337 speed on the roof continued to decrease. By using the steady-state numerical simulations with  
338 the inflow boundary conditions from the meteorological station at 19:00 and 20:00, the CFD  
339 simulation would have produced the same results. Thus, the steady-state simulations seemed  
340 problematic. The main reason was that the hourly wind speed from the meteorological station  
341 did not represent the wind variation during the two hours. The question, then, was whether  
342 transient simulations with minute-by-minute wind speed would result in better agreement  
343 between the simulation and the measured data.



344  
345 **Fig.7.** Minute-by-minute wind speed on the building rooftop and hourly wind velocity from the  
346 meteorological station from 17:00 to 21:00.

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348 Next, this investigation conducted unsteady CFD simulations by using the modified  
349 minute-by-minute meteorological wind information shown in Figure 5 as inflow boundary  
350 conditions. Figure 8 compares the simulated wind speed with the measured data on the  
351 rooftop of the apartment building. The numerical simulation results agreed well with the  
352 measured data. The mean relative error between the numerical results and the experimental  
353 data was 24.4%. The error was acceptable for studying airflow around buildings, since there  
354 were many uncertainties that could have contributed to this error. This study did not consider  
355 the details of the trees around the buildings, but treating them as a roughness length of 0.03 m  
356 inside the urban configuration as shown in Fig. 3(a). In addition, there were differences  
357 between the geometric model and the actual building structures even inside the urban  
358 configuration. Those would cause some errors.  
359

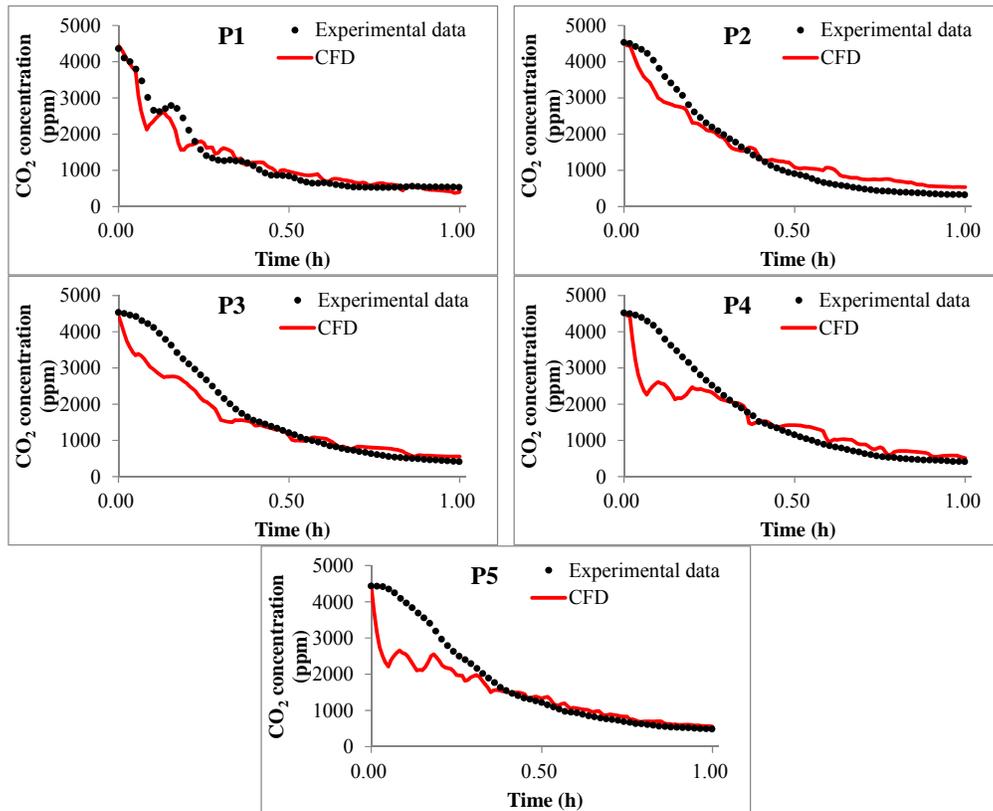


360

361 **Fig. 8.** Comparison of the simulated wind speed with the measured data on the rooftop of the apartment  
 362 building.

363 3.3 Calculation of cross-ventilation flow rate

364 The CFD simulation used in this investigation calculated not only the airflow around the  
 365 building but also the airflow in the apartment, with the use of the coupled modeling method.  
 366 At the same time, the simulation determined the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration decay curves in the  
 367 apartment by using the source information from the measurements. Figure 9 compares the  
 368 simulated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration decay with the measured data at the five measuring locations in  
 369 the apartment (as indicated in Figure 2(b)). After 20 minutes, the simulated CO<sub>2</sub>  
 370 concentration decayed in the same way as that in the experiment. However, there were  
 371 significant differences within the first 20 minutes.  
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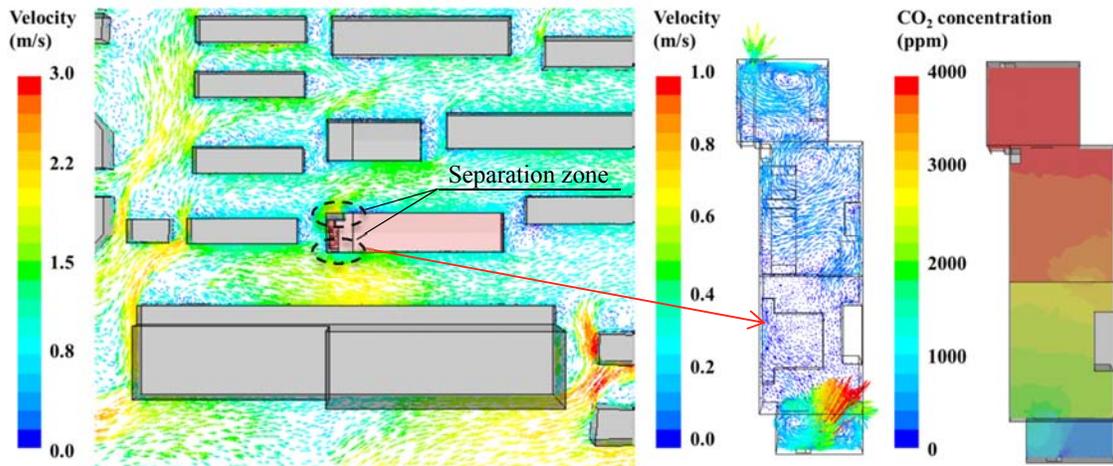
377

378

**Fig. 9.** Comparison between measured and simulated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration decay curves at the five locations  
 in Figure 2(b).

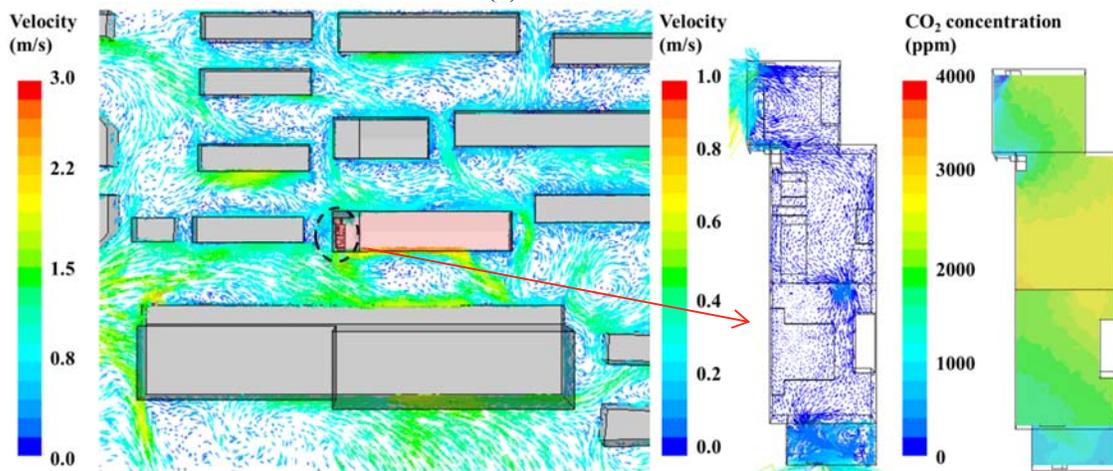
379 For analysis of the differences, Figure 10 depicts the airflow around the building, the  
 380 airflow in the apartment, and the indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentration distribution at a height of 7.9 m  
 381 above the ground at different time steps, i.e., t = 3, 10, and 20 min. At t = 3 min, the outdoor  
 382 air flowed into the apartment through the southern window, as shown in the middle section of  
 383 Figure 10(a). The average air velocity at the south window was 1.1 m/s. The CO<sub>2</sub>  
 384 concentration decreased considerably in the southern room (bedroom). The right-hand section  
 385 of Figure 10(a) shows considerable spatial concentration gradients inside the apartment.  
 386 Since the two exterior windows were located in the separation zones of the approaching wind  
 387 around the apartment, as shown in the left-hand section of Figure 10(a), the amount of  
 388 outdoor air entering or leaving the apartment through the windows was very sensitive to the  
 389 wind direction and speed around the window areas. It is well known that the RNG k-ε model  
 390 has difficulty in predicting the separations accurately, and the discrepancy between the  
 391 computed and measured CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was large. Van Hoof et al [46] found that the LES  
 392 simulation can provide a very good agreement with the experimental data for cross-  
 393 ventilation rate. However, the use of LES entails an increase in computational demand with a  
 394 factor of 80 to 100.  
 395

396  
 397

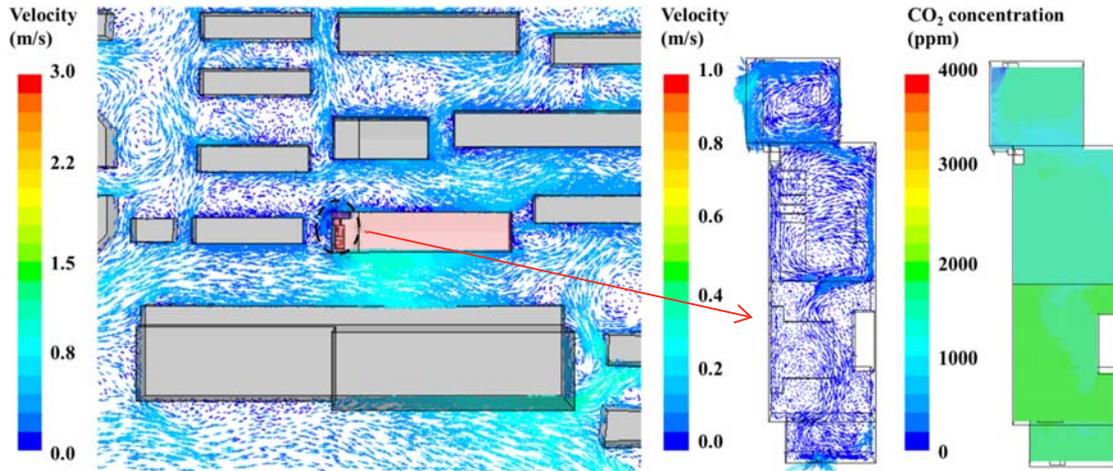


(a) t = 3 min

398  
 399



(b) t = 10 min



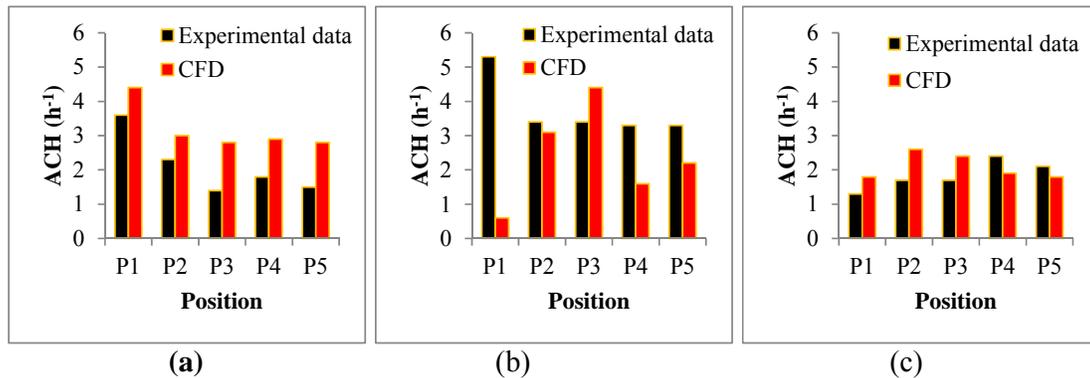
(c)  $t = 20$  min

**Fig. 10.** Airflow around the building (left), airflow in the apartment (middle), and indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentration distribution (right) at a height of 7.9 m above the ground at different time steps: (a)  $t = 3$  min, (b)  $t = 10$  min, and (c)  $t = 20$  min.

At  $t = 10$  min, the wind speed around the building became lower, as shown in the left-hand section of Figure 10(b). The two separation zones outside the exterior windows disappeared. The average air velocity at the south window was reduced to 0.6 m/s. The CFD simulation should be accurate, and, as a result, it narrowed the difference between the calculated and measured CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the apartment. Although the wind separation appeared again at  $t = 20$  min, as illustrated in the left-hand section of Figure 10(c), the separation occurred only on the outside of the southern window, and the wind speed was again very low. From  $t = 20$  min to  $t = 60$  min, Figure 8 depicts a low wind speed, and our CFD simulation did not show again the separation on the outside of northern window. Therefore, the predicted CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the apartment agreed quite well with the measured data.

This investigation further calculated the air change rate in the apartment by using the tracer-gas-decay method [36] with the simulated and measured CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Since significant differences existed in the first 20 minutes for the simulated results, this investigation calculated the air change rate through piecewise fitting at different time intervals, i.e., from  $t = 0$  to 20 min, from  $t = 10$  to 20 min, and from  $t = 20$  to 60 min. Figure 11 compares the calculated air change rate with the measured data in the five measurement locations at different time intervals. As expected, from  $t = 0$  to 10 min, CFD calculated a 50% higher air change rate than the measured data because of the two separations of the wind outside the exterior windows of the apartment. From  $t = 10$  to 20 min, CFD under-predicted the air exchange rate in most of the locations in the apartment by an average of 37%. As shown in Figure 8, the predicted wind speed was generally lower than the measured value during this period, which was mainly due to the underestimation of the fluctuations around the building by the RNG  $k-\epsilon$  model [47]. The fluctuations reproduced by the model were only by vortex shedding. However, the actual fluctuations comprised a combination of the atmospheric turbulence, building-induced turbulence, and vortex shedding behind the building. Therefore, it may lead to the underestimation of CFD values. The difference was smaller than during the first 10 minutes. From  $t = 20$  to 60 min, the air change rate predicted by CFD was higher than the in the experiment at locations P1, P2, and P3 but lower at P4 and P5. Although the tracer-gas method is effective for measuring the ventilation rate under steady-state conditions, the cross ventilation studied here was not steady. In addition, the CFD prediction still shows the wind separation outside the southern window. Because of the deficiency of the RNG  $k-\epsilon$  model and the tracer-gas method, the mean difference between the

438 CFD result and experiment data during this period was 14% on average, which is acceptable  
 439 for ventilation design.  
 440



441  
 442 **Fig. 11.** Comparison of the CFD-simulated and experimentally determined air change rate at the five  
 443 locations in the apartment due to cross ventilation, at different time intervals: (a) from  $t = 0$  to 10 min, (b)  
 444 from  $t = 10$  to 20 min, and (c) from  $t = 20$  to 60 min.  
 445  
 446

447 Conventional study of cross ventilation would use steady CFD simulations. According to  
 448 the results of steady CFD simulation shown in Section 3.2, the corresponding air change rate  
 449 in the apartment would be 5.3 ACH, calculated as the simulated volumetric flow rate through  
 450 the apartment ( $475.2 \text{ m}^3/\text{h}$ ) over the apartment volume ( $89.2 \text{ m}^3$ ). The steady CFD simulation  
 451 significantly overestimated the air change rate, by a factor of two, which is unacceptable.

#### 452 4. Discussion

453 Note that this investigation had the following limitations:

- 454 • This investigation proposed a method for converting hour-by-hour meteorological data  
 455 from a meteorological station into minute-by-minute data. However, this method  
 456 requires that at least one local weather station be installed at the building site of  
 457 interest. This would increase the cost of a design project, and it may not always  
 458 feasible. In addition, the proposed method (even if it is using annual data from the  
 459 meteorological station) would not be able to upscale the process for annual prediction  
 460 of the ACH which could be very useful for passive design of the buildings.
- 461 • This investigation modified the inflow boundary conditions only for the variation in  
 462 wind speed. However, wind direction is also constantly changing. The relationship  
 463 between the wind direction from the meteorological station and that on the rooftop of  
 464 the building may not be simply linear, and should be further investigated.
- 465 • This investigation only used wind data from one meteorological station in the upwind  
 466 direction. In designing natural ventilation, one should consider that the prevailing  
 467 wind could come from more than one direction. It is essential to study the feasibility of  
 468 using the same meteorological weather station when it is located in the downstream  
 469 region of the prevailing wind. This is very important because most medium and small  
 470 cities in China, for example, have only one meteorological station.
- 471 • With the modified minute-by-minute weather data, this investigation used unsteady  
 472 CFD simulations to simultaneously calculate airflow around a building and airflow in  
 473 an apartment. For comparison, this investigation also conducted conventional steady  
 474 CFD simulations. On the same workstation with 24 cores and 128 Gb memory, the  
 475 computing times for the unsteady and steady simulations were and 58.7 h and 20.6 h,

476 respectively. The unsteady simulation improved the accuracy but would significantly  
477 increase computing costs.

- 478 • Because of our limited computing capacity, we only used a time step of 30 s for the  
479 unsteady numerical simulations with the RNG k- $\epsilon$  model. A previous study [29] found  
480 that time-step size had little influence on the final results. Of course, this applies only  
481 to RANS modeling. If the unsteady simulations were performed by means of large-  
482 eddy simulations, the time step would be much smaller and the grid resolution would  
483 be much finer.
- 484 • Most energy simulation programs cannot determine accurate airflow entering a  
485 building by natural ventilation, while room air temperature and heating cooling load  
486 heavily depend on the airflow. On the other hand, CFD can calculate natural  
487 ventilation rate with reasonable accuracy. The combination of CFD and energy  
488 simulations can be found in hundreds of papers, such as [48,49]. The modification  
489 method proposed could further increase the accuracy of the simulated ACH results.

## 490 **5. Conclusions**

491 This study performed CFD simulations with the unsteady RNG k- $\epsilon$  model to calculate  
492 simultaneously the airflow around a building and the cross-ventilation through an apartment.  
493 The method used coupled modeling to perform these simultaneous calculations. The study  
494 led to the following conclusions:

- 495 • Traditional CFD simulations using constant wind speed do not consider the dynamic  
496 wind speed, which may cause errors. This investigation proposed a correlation  
497 method to convert hour-by-hour meteorological data from a meteorological station to  
498 minute-by-minute data.
- 499 • With the modified minute-by-minute data, the variation trend of the wind speed at the  
500 rooftop measuring location can be reproduced satisfactorily by the unsteady CFD  
501 simulation. The mean relative error between the experimental data and the numerical  
502 result was 24.4%.
- 503 • When a modified inflow boundary condition is used, the CFD model can predict cross  
504 ventilation through the apartment. However, for the specific hour investigated here,  
505 the wind generated two separations outside the southern and northern exterior  
506 windows. Since the RNG k- $\epsilon$  model could not predict the separation accurately, there  
507 were significant difference between the predicted and measured air change rate in the  
508 apartment. The use of the tracer-gas method for the unsteady flow contributed further  
509 to the difference. Nevertheless, the difference was much smaller than for the  
510 conventional steady CFD simulation, which would overestimate the air change rate by  
511 a factor of two.

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