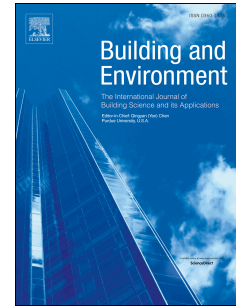


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1 **Assessing airflow rates of a naturally ventilated test facility using a fast and**
2 **simple algorithm supported by local air velocity measurements**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19

20 The high spatial and temporal variations of airflow patterns in ventilation openings of naturally
21 ventilated animal houses make it difficult to accurately measure the airflow rate. This paper focusses
22 on the development of a fast assessment technique for the airflow rate of a naturally ventilated test
23 facility through the combination of a linear algorithm and local air velocity measurements. This
24 assessment technique was validated against detailed measurement results obtained by the measuring
25 method of Van Overbeke et al. (2015) as a reference.

26 The total air velocity $|\bar{U}|$, the normal $|\bar{Y}|$ and tangential velocity component $|\bar{X}|$ and the velocity
27 vector \bar{U} measured at the meteomast were chosen as input variables for the linear algorithms. The
28 airflow rates were split in a group where only uni-directional flows occurred at vent level (no opposite
29 directions of $|\bar{Y}|$ present in the airflow pattern of the opening), and a group where bi-directional flows
30 occurred (the air goes simultaneously in and out of the opening). For airflow rates with uni-directional
31 flows the input variables \bar{U} and $|\bar{Y}|$ yielded the most accurate results. For this reason, it was
32 suggested to use the $|\bar{Y}|$ instead of $|\bar{U}|$ in ASHRAE's formula of $Q = E \times A \times |\bar{U}|$.

33 For bi-directional flows a multiple linear model was suggested where input variable \bar{U} gave the best
34 results to assess the airflow rate.

35

36

Nomenclature

37

38

39

A	Surface area (m ²)
A_p	Partial Surface area (m ²)
ANN	Artificial neural networks
β_0	Regression coefficient Bland Altman plot
β_1	Intercept Bland Altman plot (m ³ /h)
C_D	Still-air discharge component (dimensionless)
E	Opening effectiveness (dimensionless)
MR	Model results
NE	North East
NW	North West
ΔP	Pressure difference across the opening (Pa)
Q_{bi}	Airflow rate with bi-directional flow in the side vents (m ³ /h)
Q_{uni}	Airflow rate with uni-directional flow in the side vents (m ³ /h)
RR	Reference results
SE	South East
SD	Standard deviation
SW	South West
\bar{U}	Velocity vector (m/s)
$ \bar{U} $	Total air velocity (m/s)
V	Reference velocity (m/s)
$ \bar{X} $	Tangential air velocity component (m/s)
$ \bar{Y} $	Perpendicular air velocity component (m/s)
ρ	Air density (kg/m ³)

40 1 Introduction

41 An accurate assessment of ventilation rates of animal houses is important with regard to, among
 42 others, the quantification of the related emissions. The importance of accurate measurements of
 43 ammonia emissions from naturally ventilated animal houses has risen since the increasing awareness
 44 of its major impact on the environment [2] and its consequences as e.g. eutrophication by deposition
 45 on the soil or in the water.

46 However, measuring ventilation rates in commercial animal houses is difficult in practice, due to
 47 significant uncertainties in measurements [3].

48 Emissions from mechanically ventilated animal houses, as commonly used for pig and poultry
 49 production in Western Europe, can be measured and calculated by multiplying the differences in
 50 ammonia concentrations at the inlet and the outlet with the corresponding ventilation rates [4]. A
 51 similar straightforward emission measurement procedure is less evident in naturally ventilated stables
 52 and in particular for dairy stables with large openings, because of the strong dependency of the
 53 emissions on weather conditions and building geometry. Therefore, significant spatial and temporal
 54 variations of the air velocity and of NH₃ concentrations occur in the ventilation openings of the
 55 stables. Errors in emissions measurements are often due to the complexity of the airflow rate
 56 measurements [5–8]. Currently there is no standardized reference method available for measuring the
 57 ventilation rate in naturally ventilated animal housing [7,9,10].

58 Van Overbeke et al. (2015) developed and validated an accurate measuring method for the airflow rate
 59 of a naturally ventilated test facility with continuous direct velocity measurements using moving
 60 sensors (more details are given in §2.3.2). However, simplification is still necessary to achieve a more
 61 practical, time-reduced, low-cost and yet sufficiently accurate method. Combining modelling
 62 techniques with local air velocity measurements could be of interest to develop such a method
 63 [7,9,11]. This with the aim to simplify and speed up the assessment of the ventilation rate and to result
 64 in real time determination of the ventilation rate. With this respect, the method of Van Overbeke et al.
 65 (2015) can serve as an excellent starting point since it provides detailed information on the velocity
 66 profiles in the vents.

67 The conventional envelope model that describes how the air enters and leaves a building, is the
 68 Bernoulli equation as a simplification of the Navier-Stokes equations. This so-called ‘orifice
 69 equation’ [1] is the most general relation describing the airflow rate through large intentional openings
 70 [12–15].

$$71 \quad Q = C_D \times A \times \sqrt{\frac{2x|\Delta P|}{\rho}} \quad [1]$$

72 Where

73 Q = Airflow rate (m³/s)

74 C_D = Still-air discharge component (dimensionless)

75 A = Surface area of the opening (m²)

76 ΔP = Pressure difference across the opening (Pa)

77 ρ = Air density (kg/m³)

78

79 This equation applies a still-air discharge coefficient for a typical opening but it fails for large
 80 openings as the main assumptions are not fulfilled (e.g. pressure and velocity distributions are not
 81 constant in the opening [16]) and changes in weather conditions can cause unsteadiness for measuring
 82 or estimating the parameters in the formula [17,18]. On top of these difficulties, very large openings
 83 (as typically found in dairy cow houses) would make it even more challenging to sample air volumes
 84 using the orifice equation due to the increased possibility of bi-directional flows (Q_{bi}) in the openings
 85 where opposite directions of air velocities normal to the opening are present. This possibility for bi-
 86 directionality makes it also difficult to couple (ammonia) concentration measurements to velocity
 87 measurements to obtain emission values. Models for airflow rates with uni-directional flows (Q_{uni}) in
 88 vent openings give less accurate results when applied to bi-directional flows [9,13]. Also,
 89 measurement methods as e.g. tracer gas tests commonly used in mechanically [19] and naturally
 90 ventilated constructions [20–23], perform poorly in accuracy and precision under naturally ventilated
 91 circumstances [9,13] due to variations in air and concentration.

92 Etheridge (2012) states the airflow rate (Q_{uni}) for very large openings in a formula [2] in non-
 93 dimensional terms.

94

$$\frac{Q}{A \times V} = f(\phi) \quad [2]$$

95 Where

96 V = reference velocity (m/s)

97 f = wind direction as a function of e.g. the surroundings, the shape of the envelope.

98

99 ASHRAE (2009) suggests a similar practical formula [3] including the opening effectiveness.

$$Q = E \times A \times V \quad [3]$$

100 E = the opening effectiveness of the ventilation opening (dimensionless)

101 V = reference velocity (m/s)

102

103 Different values for E are given depending on the wind incidence angle to the opening. For
 104 perpendicular winds it varies between 0.5 to 0.6 and for winds diagonal to the ventilation opening
 105 between 0.25 and 0.35 [24].

106 Many references were found in field measurements presenting linear fits between the airflow rate and
 107 the total velocity for greenhouses [25], between the airflow rate and perpendicular velocity component
 108 for dairy stables [26] and multi-zone test building [27]. These references show a considerable amount
 109 of information has been found in the peer reviewed literature assessing natural ventilation with simple

110 algorithms, but it is not always clear which input variables result in the most accurately modelled
111 airflow rates, or which algorithm to use for airflow rates with bi-directional flows. Especially there is
112 little information to be found in the literature body on the accuracy of the respective proposed models.
113 Of course this is not unexpected since the lack of a reference method for airflow rate measurements. In
114 order to estimate the accuracy of a model, some studies [28,29] base the reference airflow rate on
115 pressure differences in the opening, but pressure is highly fluctuating at large openings while it cannot
116 be applied to the formula of Q_{uni} . When direct measurements are done, single measurements are
117 mostly assumed to represent the mean velocity for a large surface area in the opening, usually with no
118 prior calibrating of the single velocity measurement to the mean velocity of the represented area. For
119 these experiments without calibration, it is possible to calculate the precision of the method used but
120 not the accuracy of the method. Because the method of Van Overbeke et al. (2015) scans the surface
121 area with an ultrasonic anemometer moving step-by-step in the opening, it creates the opportunity to
122 define a better estimation of the real airflow rates and as thus the accuracy and precision of a
123 simplified method where limited velocity measurements are used.

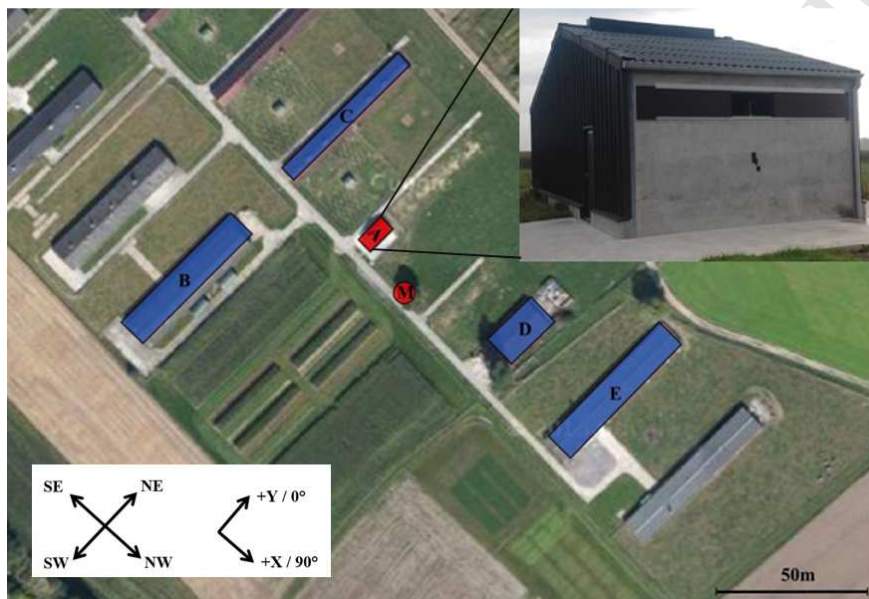
124 The objective of this paper was to develop a fast, accurate and simple to use airflow rate assessment
125 technique for a naturally ventilated test facility combining a fast algorithm with a limited number of
126 local air velocity measurements collected on a meteomast. The assessment technique is tested for
127 airflow rates of both uni- or bi-directional flows occurring in the side opening evaluated to the
128 commonly used formula of ASHRAE to calculate the airflow rate. Artificial neural networks (ANN)
129 were applied to evaluate the input variables before applying linear algorithms in order to find existing
130 correlations. The algorithms were validated by comparing to detailed airflow rates obtained by the
131 measuring method of Van Overbeke et al. (2015, 2014a, 2014b) as a reference.

132
133

134 2 Materials and Methods

135 2.1 Test facility and instrumentation

136 The test facility was situated on a site of the Institute for Agricultural and Fisheries Research in
 137 Merelbeke, Belgium (+50° 58' 38.56" N, +3° 46' 45.68" E; A on Fig. 1). The building was located in a
 138 rural area and was oriented such that the side openings faced NE and SW, the latter being the
 139 dominant wind direction in Flanders.



140

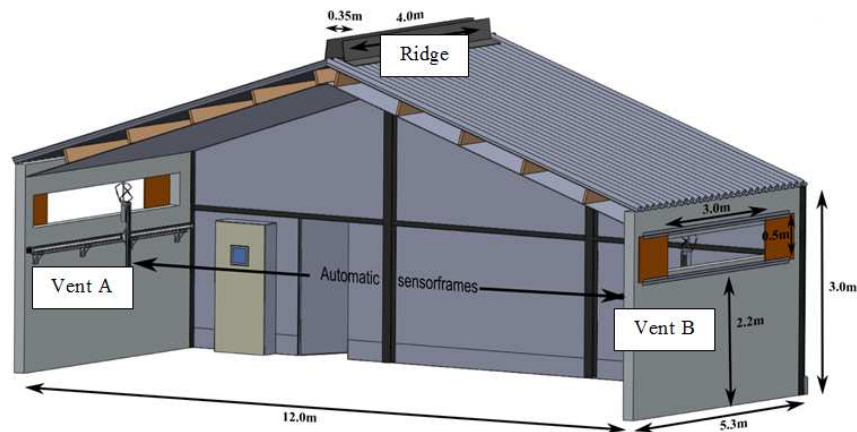
141 **Fig. 1: Site and building of the experimental set-up. The surrounding buildings were located at a distance of 50m from**
 142 **the test facility. (A) test facility (B-C-D-E) neighbouring buildings (M) meteoromast**

143 The test facility represented a section of a naturally ventilated pig house as commonly found in
 144 Flanders (Belgium). The internal dimensions of the test facility were 12.0 m length, 5.4 m width and
 145 4.9 m ridge height. Its internal volume was 251 m³ (Fig. 2). The two opposite concrete sidewalls had a
 146 ventilation opening of 4.5 m by 0.5 m and a depth of 0.2 m but were adjusted with metal plates to 3.0
 147 m. The ridge vent was 4.0m by 0.35m and could be closed and sealed when desired. A door and a gate
 148 were present in the test facility, though always kept closed during the experiments.

149 A meteoromast equipped with a 2D ultrasonic anemometer (Thies®, Göttingen, Germany) was installed
 150 to measure the wind velocity components (tangential component $|\bar{X}|$ - and normal component $|\bar{Y}|$ to the
 151 ventilation opening), wind direction and temperature with a frequency of 1Hz, at a standard height of
 152 10m above field level (5 m above the top of the test facility). In the test facility, a total of eight 2D and
 153 two 3D ultrasonic sensors (Thies®, Göttingen, Germany) were installed. Each of the two side
 154 openings was equipped with a 3D ultrasonic sensor installed on a 2D-linear guiding system (Fig. 2),
 155 that transported the sensor to pre-set places across the window openings where air velocities were
 156 automatically scanned following the sampling strategy developed by Van Overbeke et al. (2015). The
 157 ridge vent was equipped with eight 2D ultrasonic sensors equally distributed along the opening (one

158 sensor malfunctioned during the experiment). Velocity and temperature were measured at a frequency
 159 of 50Hz and 33Hz for the 2DS and 3DS, respectively, and stored as 1s averages in a central logger
 160 (dataTaker® DT85M, Australia) via a serial interface (RS422)".

161



162

163 **Fig. 2 : A 3D sketch of the test facility at the Institute for Agricultural and Fisheries Research in Merelbeke**

164

165 The measurement system described above was activated for continuous monitoring, day and night
 166 over several months (December 2014 through March 2015) in order to cover a wide range of outdoor
 167 wind conditions.

168 The design of the test facility was almost completely symmetrical, except for the placement of the
 169 (closed) doors and the central electrical unit (with the wiring, datalogger, soft- and hardware).

170

171 **2.2 Data Collection and Model Development Methods**

172 **2.2.1 General approach**

173

174 Detailed airflow rate calculations were executed using the method of Van Overbeke et al. (2014a,
 175 2014b, 2015). Data was collected for different experimental setups during periods of variable outside
 176 weather conditions. Different input variables were tested for their appropriateness using Artificial
 177 Neural Networks (ANN), selected for further processing and used within a linear algorithm to
 178 determine the airflow rates. Finally, methods for analysing the results, regression analysis and Bland
 179 Altman analysis were described. These methods will be described in more detail in the next
 180 paragraphs. All data processing, filtering, ANN and statistical analyses mentioned in this study were
 181 performed with the software Matlab ® R2013a.

182

183

184 **2.2.2 Reference airflow rate measurements**

185

186
 187 Detailed airflow rate measurements were conducted in the test facility, using the method proposed by
 188 Van Overbeke et al. (2015) with moving sensors for the side vents and a method with fixed sensors to
 189 sample the ridge vent.

190 Air velocities were measured in the side vents by a moving sensor in each side opening. The spatial
 191 variation of the airflow pattern in the side openings was measured by sampling the full surface of the
 192 opening, divided in 48 measurement places. Every measuring place was sampled for 10×1 s before
 193 moving to the next sampling place. When all 48 places were sampled, the sensor started a new
 194 measuring round. To measure the total airflow rate, ten measuring rounds were repeated. The air
 195 velocity per measuring place was calculated by taking the mean of the 10 rounds of 10×1 s. All these
 196 measured mean air velocities were used to calculate the airflow rate with formula [4]. The
 197 measurement of one unique airflow rate took approximately 1,5 h. The temporal variation of the
 198 airflow pattern was minimized because of this averaging over 1,5h. The temporal variation of velocity
 199 at the sampling locations was logged over a semi-continuously by the moving sensors. Furthermore,
 200 the meteorologist continuously logged the actual wind conditions in order to account for temporal
 201 variations over the full length of the measurements. For each repetition of scanning the opening (48
 202 measuring places, each 10 min approximately), a new sliding mean of the total airflow rates could be
 203 calculated. One of the major advantages of the method was that it was able to measure the full airflow
 204 rate pattern, so that when bi-directionality occurred, this could be registered in detail.

205 The velocities in the ridge vent were measured with eight fixed sensors (equally spread over the
 206 length; one sensor failed during the measurements). The mean velocities were calculated over the
 207 same period, 1,5 h, as the velocities in the openings. For every time a new measuring round started for
 208 the sensor in the side opening, a new sliding mean was calculated in the ridge opening.

209 The principle to calculate the airflow rate was the same for the side and the ridge openings. The partial
 210 airflow rates through equal areas (A_p) in the window opening are summed to form the total airflow
 211 rate (Q) [4]. The partial airflows were obtained by multiplying the locally measured perpendicular air
 212 velocity ($|\bar{Y}|$) by the partial opening area (A_p). The airflow rate results of this method were used as
 213 reference to compare the airflow rates resulting from the application of the simplified algorithms.

$$Q = \sum_1^N (|\bar{Y}| \times A_p \times 3600) \quad [4]$$

214
 215 Where:

216 Q = mean airflow rate over a period of approximately 1,5h (m^3/h)
 217 $|\bar{Y}|$ = mean perpendicular air velocity over a period of approximately 1,5h (m/s)
 218 A_p = partial opening surface area (m^2)
 219 N = total number of surfaces in the side or ridge vents

220
 221
 222
 223

224 2.2.3 Preliminary data analysis

225

226 Different velocity components were tested to use as input variables to determine the airflow rate.
227 These velocity components were the perpendicular $|\bar{Y}|$ and parallel $|\bar{X}|$ component, the total velocity
228 $|\bar{U}|$ and the velocity vector \bar{U} all measured at the metemast. Because an ultrasonic 2D anemometer
229 was used, the $|\bar{X}|$ -, $|\bar{Y}|$ -component and \bar{U} were immediately available, the $|\bar{U}|$ was derived from the
230 measurements. Previous research showed that models for airflow rates with uni-directional flows gave
231 less accurate results when applied for bi-directional flows [9,13]. For this reason, the data was split in
232 a group where bi-directional Q_{bi} and a group where only uni-directional flows Q_{uni} occurred. The flow
233 pattern of the data set was categorized as bi-directional when at least one normal velocity component
234 in the side opening had a different sign (opposite direction) compared to the other respective normal
235 components. To rule out the effect of variations or short term fluctuations in the opening, only the
236 mean velocity and not the separate measurements were taken into account to evaluate the bi-
237 directionality in the openings.

238 Before applying a simple mathematical algorithm, Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) were used to
239 extract or identify the most promising input variables. ANN are information processing systems that
240 can 'learn' a relationship between input and output variables by studying given data [32]. Through a
241 process of 'learning' ANN are able to perform useful computations. ANN already proved to be
242 efficient for assessing natural ventilation [33]. The most common model used for function fitting
243 problems is the feedforward model [32] which was used within this research. This model placed the
244 neurons in several layers. The first and last layers represent input and output, respectively. The output
245 layer gives the results that are evaluated by the network. For every input variable, 8 different networks
246 were tested. These networks differed from each other by different properties of the learning rate, the
247 amount of neurons or the momentum rate.

248 The different input variables of the wind velocities $|\bar{U}|$, $|\bar{Y}|$, $|\bar{X}|$ and \bar{U} were used as inputs for the
249 network. The reference airflow rates of the stable, obtained using the method of Van Overbeke et al.
250 (2015) and calculated with formula 4, were introduced as targets for the model. The evaluation of the
251 network results were based on R^2 -values. ANN were only used to establish whether a strong
252 correlation existed between the input variables and the airflow rates and to make a further selection of
253 potential estimators of the airflow rates.

254 2.2.4 Simple mathematical algorithms

255

256 After testing the correlations with ANN, (multiple) linear regression modelling was applied to find fast
257 and simple algorithms to assess the airflow rates for uni- and bi-directional flows. The airflow rate was
258 used as dependent variable and the candidate input variables as independent variables. Simple linear

259 regression [5] was applied to assess the airflow rate with respective input variables $|\bar{U}|$, $|\bar{Y}|$ and $|\bar{X}|$.
 260 Multiple linear regression [6] was used when \bar{U} was implemented.

261

$$Q(x) = p_1 \times x_1 + c \quad [5]$$

$$Q(x) = p_1 \times x_1 + p_2 \times x_2 + c \quad [6]$$

262 where:

263 $p_{1,2}$ = constants (m²)

264 $x_{1,2}$ = input variables (m/s)

265 c = constant (m³/s)

266

267 The agreement between the modelled and the reference data was assessed using regression parameters
 268 and Bland Altman analysis. Because the experiments were performed under almost isothermal
 269 conditions (no extra heat was added), the assumption was made that no ventilation would occur with
 270 absence of wind (measured on the meteoromast). Therefore the intercept of the models was set to zero.
 271 The accuracy of the linear regression models was tested with two different methods: (1) the coefficient
 272 of determination and the regression coefficient; (2) the Bland Altman method [34], with which the
 273 respective absolute differences between the modelled and experimental results are related to the
 274 average of the modelled and reference results. The agreement between model results and experimental
 275 results is analyzed with the slope β_0 and the intercept β_1 (see formula [7]). Ideal models will result in
 276 coefficients close to zero.

277

$$(MR - RR) = \beta_0 \times \frac{MR+RR}{2} + \beta_1 \quad [7]$$

279

280 Where:

281 $MR - RR$ = difference between the modelled results (MR) and the reference results (RR) (m³/h)

282 $\frac{MR+RR}{2}$ = average of the modelled results and the reference results

283 β_0 = coefficient of performance (dimensionless)

284 β_1 = intercept (m³/h)

285

286 **3 Results**

287 **3.1 Experimental data**

288

289 The measured airflow rates were split into 2 groups based on the uni- or bi-directional character of the
 290 flows. In total, 5953 Q_{uni} and 1477 Q_{bi} mean sliding airflow rates were calculated. An example of a bi-
 291 directional flow in a side vent A is presented in Fig. 3. In this case, Vent A served as the main inlet

292 opening, with part of the opening functioning as an outlet. The separation between the opposite wind
 293 direction zone appeared vertical in the cases of bi-directional flows formed due to the wind (not to be
 294 confused with bi-directional flows formed by the stack-effect).

295

1.87	1.30	1.27	1.12	0.98	0.90	1.19	1.11	1.07	0.90	0.18	-0.07
2.09	1.96	1.83	1.60	1.50	1.54	1.57	1.66	1.57	1.11	0.27	-0.10
2.13	1.82	1.89	1.78	1.74	1.72	1.79	1.68	1.34	0.84	0.14	-0.09
2.02	1.61	1.48	1.29	1.50	1.42	1.48	1.53	1.29	0.86	0.04	-0.10

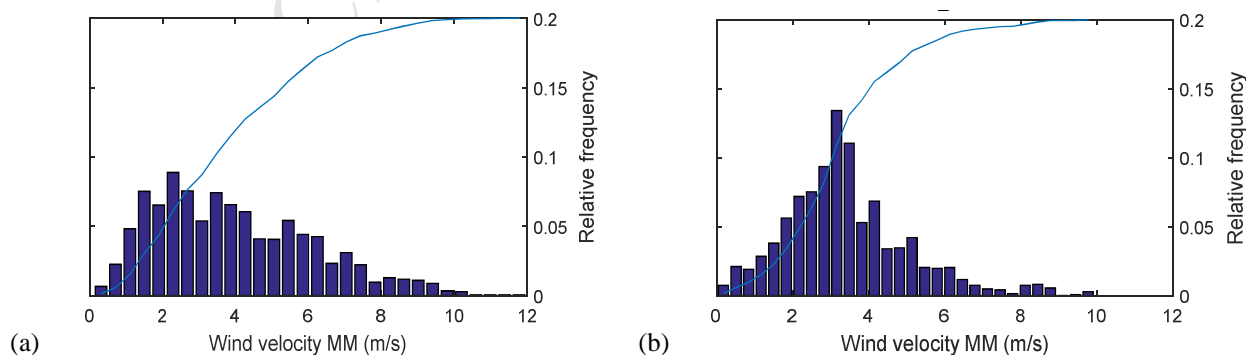
296

297 **Fig. 3: Measured average velocities (m/s) for each sampling place of Vent A with wind direction 47°; wind velocity 3**
 298 **m/s measured at the meteomast; the scale intensity of colors (hot to cold) is related to the magnitude of the velocity.**

299

300 The Q_{uni} values ranged between of 1 612 m³/h and 36 546 m³/h, as the Q_{bi} values varied between 1
 301 455 m³/h and 26 792 m³/h. The magnitude of the airflow rates are influenced only by the outside
 302 weather conditions as temperature, wind direction and wind velocity. The wind roses and wind
 303 distribution profiles obtained from the data from the meteomast during the measurements are
 304 presented in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 respectively. The mean and standard deviation of the incidence angles of
 305 the airflow rates Q_{uni} and Q_{bi} were respectively $(66 \pm 15)^\circ$ and $(33 \pm 18)^\circ$. As seen in Fig. 5, distinction
 306 between uni-directional and bi-directional flows was found to depend mainly on the wind direction,
 307 but the results were not strictly linked to specific wind directions as both flow groups occurred at cross
 308 covering ranges of wind direction. Overall, the Q_{uni} occurred for wind directions between $(272$ and
 309 $83)^\circ$ and $(93$ and $264)^\circ$, Q_{bi} occurred for wind directions between $(4$ and $157)^\circ$ and $(201$ and $355)^\circ$. It
 310 was seen that the airflow rates with uni-directional flows not only occurred as expected for winds
 311 normal or diagonal to the opening and the airflow rates with bi-directional flows occurred not only for
 312 side winds. The unexpected results, as normal wind that produced a bi-directional flow, were mainly
 313 caused in circumstances of low wind velocities and probably in non-perfect isothermal conditions.

314



315
 316

Fig. 4: Wind profile distribution and cumulative relative frequency graph of the total velocity at the meteomast for the airflow rates with occurring (a) uni-directional and (b) bi-directional flows

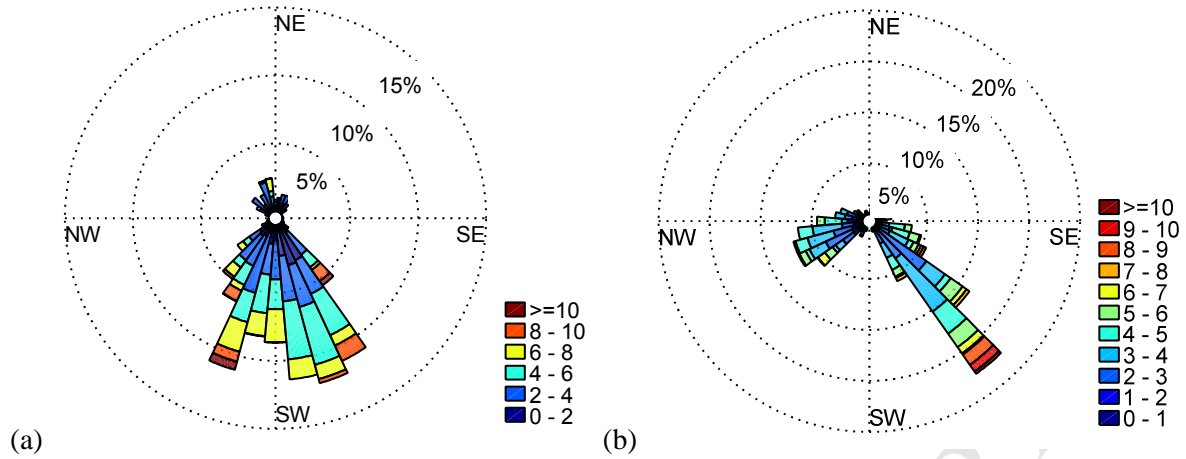


Fig. 5: Wind rose with data of airflow rates with (a) uni-directional flows series and (b) bi-directional flows series in the side openings of the test facility

3.2 Assessing the airflow rate for unidirectional flows in the side vents

3.2.1 Preliminary data analysis with ANN

The data of the airflow rates with uni-directional flows in the side vents were applied to ANN. The input variables $|\bar{U}|$, $|\bar{Y}|$, $|\bar{X}|$ and \bar{U} measured on the metemast were used as input, the airflow rates as output. Table 1 shows the mean R^2 -values and their standard deviations of the relation between the reference Q and the results of the ANN with different configurations. The R^2 -values for the total velocity $|\bar{U}|$, perpendicular velocity $|\bar{Y}|$, and velocity vector \bar{U} gave very high results above 98%. The standard deviation between the 8 different ANN's were very small so there was no need to look for the best configuration of ANN as these three input variables all resulted in good correlations. The parallel velocity component $|\bar{X}|$ gave lower R^2 -values compared to the other input variables, therefore this component was left out for further processing.

Table 1: Mean and SD of the R^2 -values for the measured and modelled data for different input variables (%)

Input	Mean	SD
$ \bar{U} $	98.12	0.15
$ \bar{Y} $	98.28	0.07
$ \bar{X} $	55.49	4.63
\bar{U}	99.40	0.08

3.2.2 Modelling and analysis of simple airflow rate algorithms

Table 2 presents model parameters and the analysis results from the linear curve fitting of the candidate input variables for the Q_{uni} . The parameters showed that the coefficient for input variable

341 $|\bar{Y}|$ stayed approximately the same for models with inputs variables $|\bar{Y}|$ and \bar{U} . The results for the
 342 regression analysis showed that the $|\bar{U}|$, $|\bar{Y}|$ and \bar{U} input variables yielded good linear correlations with
 343 the airflow rate data for uni-directional flows. However, the Bland-Altman analysis showed that the
 344 $|\bar{Y}|$ - and \bar{U} -models had slightly better results than the total velocity $|\bar{U}|$. The $|\bar{Y}|$ component appeared
 345 to be the most important contributor in the correlation because the results for the $|\bar{Y}|$ -model, with only
 346 the perpendicular velocity component as input variable, were comparable to \bar{U} . The results with the
 347 $|\bar{Y}|$ and \bar{U} -input variables lay in the same range, with the latter slightly higher for the regression
 348 correlation and lower for the Bland Altman correlation. The graphs (Fig. 6) confirm the good
 349 agreements for the reference and modelled airflow rates. Only small differences can be seen between
 350 the graphs, depending on the different input variables used. A possible explanation was that all graphs
 351 included modelled data with $|\bar{Y}|$ -velocity component as input as $|\bar{U}|$, $|\bar{Y}|$ and \bar{U} . Because this data
 352 concerned uni-directional flows, the $|\bar{Y}|$ -velocity component (perpendicular) was mostly larger than
 353 the $|\bar{X}|$ -component (parallel) and on top of this, combined with a lower regression coefficient for $|\bar{X}|$.
 354 The graphs show a deviation for the data to the regression line for low values. Even though no extra
 355 heat was added, it was possible the stack-effect occurred and gave some airflow rate for some
 356 situations with a high sun, a clear sky and above all, a low wind speed.
 357 All three proposed models could identify the true airflow values consistently and had good estimation
 358 performances, with $|\bar{Y}|$ and \bar{U} as the best input variables for the models. Input variable $|\bar{Y}|$ had
 359 preference of choice over components \bar{U} because one component less was needed to obtain similar
 360 modelling performance.

361

362

363 **Table 2: Model parameters of the airflow rate related to an input variable: coefficient of variable ($p_{1,2}$) and constant**
 364 **(c); regression analysis results for the modelled and measured total Q_{uni} : slope (a), intercept (m^3/h) (b) and coefficient**
 365 **of determination (R^2)**

<i>Input</i>	p_1	c	p_2	a	b	R^2
$ \bar{U} $	3267	0	-	0.92	1234	0.96
$ \bar{Y} $	3588	0	-	0.95	673	0.96
\bar{U}	3346 ($ \bar{Y} $)	0	653 ($ \bar{X} $)	0.94	866	0.97

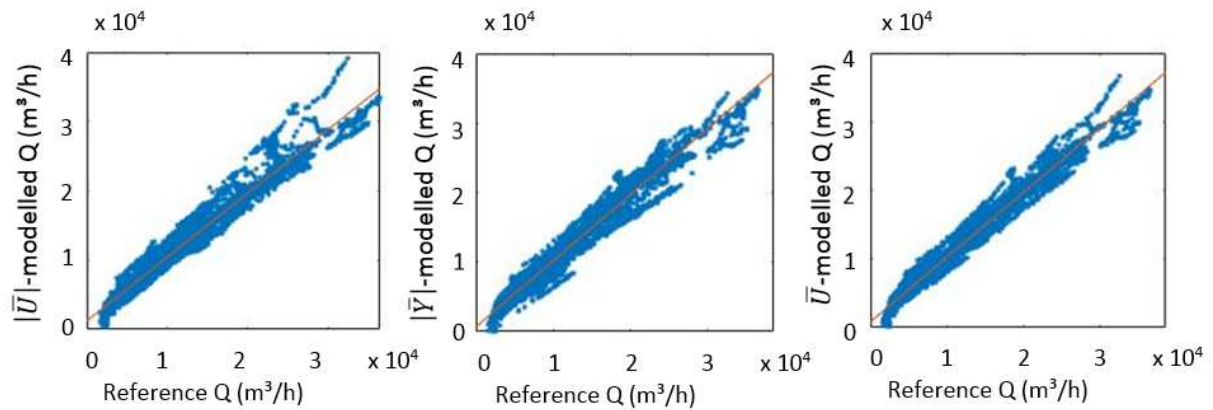
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Table 3: Bland Altman results for the comparison of a modelled to measured Q_{uni}

<i>Input</i>	β_0	β_1
$ \bar{U} $	0.07	-1033
$ \bar{Y} $	0.03	-457
\bar{U}	0.05	-722

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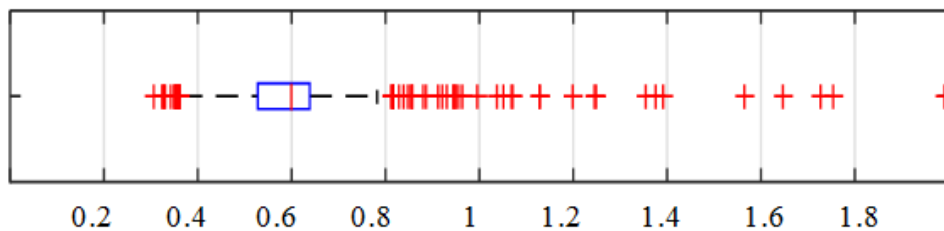
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371 Fig. 6: (Linear) correlation between the reference and the modelled Q_{uni} for input variables (a) total velocity $|\bar{U}|$; (b) perpendicular
 372 velocity $|\bar{V}|$; (c) velocity vector \bar{U}

373

374 3.2.3 Ventilation opening effectiveness

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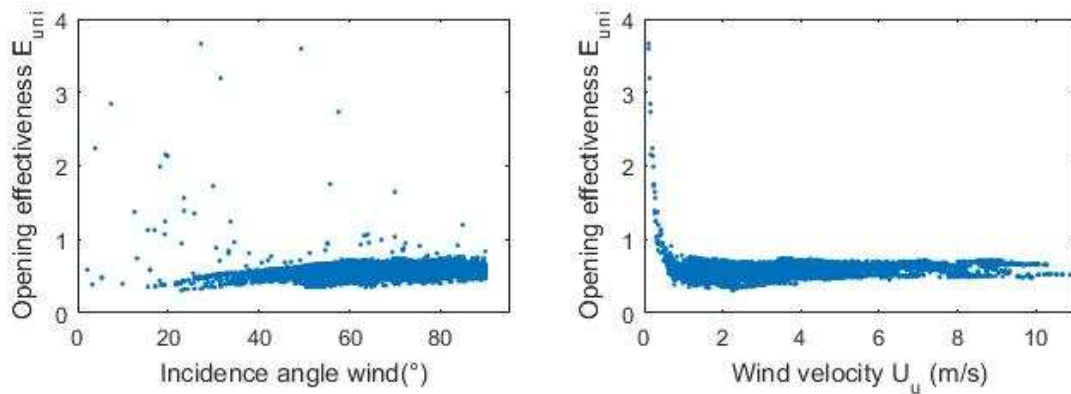
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378 Fig. 7: boxplot E -factor for airflow rates with unidirectional flows

379

380 Formula [3] which calculates the airflow rate with the opening effectiveness through the inlet opening,
 381 proposed by ASHRAE (2009) was applied to the data of the reference airflow rates to determine the
 382 E -values. Fig. 7 shows a boxplot of the E -values calculated for each reference airflow rate. The
 383 median E was 0.59 and the 25- and 75-percentile were 0.53 and 0.64 respectively. Outliers were found
 384 below 0.36 and above 0.78. Not all outliers were given on the boxplot as some even got up to 6. The
 385 E -values plotted against total wind velocity in Fig. 8 (b) showed that these outliers were only
 386 appearing for low velocities smaller than 1 m/s, a mathematical artefact. This could be explained
 387 because the E 's result in very high values when divided by these low wind velocities. For finding any
 388 correlation between the E and the incidence angle and the wind velocity, these outliers were
 389 separated from the data. A R^2 -value of 0.23 and 0.13 was found for the incidence angle and the wind
 390 velocity respectively. The regression coefficients 0.003 and 0.12 showed an increase of E with
 391 increasing incidence angle and wind velocity respectively. Fig. 8 (a) showed overall lower E -values
 392 when the wind became more parallel with the opening, in other words, when the incidence angle
 393 decreased.

393



394

395 Fig. 8: E-values (opening effectiveness) for Q_{uni} plotted against the (a) incidence angle of the wind ($^{\circ}$) and (b) the wind velocity
396 (m/s)

397

398 3.3 Assessing the airflow rate for bidirectional flows in the side vents

399 3.3.1 Preliminary data analysis with ANN

400

401 Table 4 presents mean R^2 -values and their standard deviations of between the reference Q_{bi} and the
402 results of the different ANN. The input variables $|\bar{Y}|$ and \bar{U} gave highest correlations and therefore
403 showed best potential to find a good fit with Q_{bi} . The perpendicular component $|\bar{Y}|$ still showed to be a
404 very important factor to assess the airflow rate, even for bi-directional flows occurring for mainly
405 diagonal and parallel winds. The tangential component was still for this dataset the least good
406 predictor for the airflow rate modelling, but it became a more important determination factor for the
407 airflow rate correlation compared to the results voor Q_{uni} , probably due to the character of the wind
408 (diagonal to parallel). Because of the lower results compared to the other input variables, $|\bar{X}|$ was left
409 out for further processing. The total velocity $|\bar{U}|$ resulted in lower results than found for the uni-
410 directional flows. An explanation could be that the bi-directional flows have larger $|\bar{X}|$ components
411 compared to $|\bar{Y}|$. This can result in a large total velocity, but as seen for the input variable $|\bar{X}|$, it will
412 not necessarily result in a good relation with the airflow rates.

413

414 Table 4: Mean, standard deviation (SD) of the R^2 correlation coefficients (%) between measured and ANN modelled
415 Q_{bi} for different input variables

Input	Mean	SD
$ \bar{U} $	88.21	1.82
$ \bar{Y} $	96.76	0.70
$ \bar{X} $	64.87	4.92
\bar{U}	98.74	0.88

416

417

418 3.3.2 Modelling and analysis of simple airflow rate algorithms

419

420 Table 5 shows the model parameters and the results of the correlations of the models built for the bi-
 421 directional flows. Table 6 gives the results of the Bland Altman analysis. Both input variables $|\bar{U}|$
 422 and $|\bar{Y}|$ applied to the Q_{bi} gave lower results for the regression and Bland Altman correlations as
 423 applied to the Q_{uni} . These showed that applying input variable $|\bar{Y}|$ alone gave insufficient information
 424 to assess the airflow rate with bi-directional flows. Input variable \bar{U} gave a very good correlation,
 425 ANN showed that $|\bar{X}|$ alone was insufficient for assessing the Q_{bi} , but gave satisfying results in
 426 combination with $|\bar{Y}|$ (\bar{U}). The regression and Bland Altman results were high for input variable \bar{U}
 427 compared to the other variables. The graphs on Fig. 9 show that the total velocity $|\bar{U}|$ gave the least
 428 good correlation for the modelled and reference Q_{bi} . The input variable $|\bar{Y}|$ alone improved the results,
 429 which could indicate that $|\bar{Y}|$ is more important than $|\bar{X}|$ to assess the ventilation rate. Though the
 430 modelling weight of $|\bar{X}|$ is less heavy than the weight of $|\bar{Y}|$, $|\bar{X}|$ is still of great importance for the
 431 accuracy of the model to find the best results for the Q_{bi} . These findings can be seen in the model
 432 parameters for input variable \bar{U} , the coefficient of $|\bar{Y}|$ was more than 3 times higher than the
 433 coefficient of $|\bar{X}|$, but was found lower than the coefficient of $|\bar{Y}|$ when only this parameter was used.
 434 The models with the best fit, the models with input variable \bar{U} , confirmed the importance in
 435 differentiation in models for Q_{bi} and Q_{uni} by a significant lower value of coefficient of $|\bar{Y}|$ for Q_{bi} than
 436 for Q_{uni} .

437

438 **Table 5: Model parameters of the airflow rate related to an input variable: coefficient of variable ($p_{1,2}$) and constant**
 439 **(c); regression analysis results between the modelled and measured total Q_{bi} : slope (a), intercept (m^3/h) (b) and**
 440 **coefficient of determination (R^2)**

Input	p_1	c	p_2	a	b	R^2
$ \bar{U} $	2164	0	-	0.69	2410	0.76
$ \bar{Y} $	3597	0	-	1.10	-1354	0.92
\bar{U}	2736 ($ \bar{Y} $)	0	808($ \bar{X} $)	0.97	174	0.96

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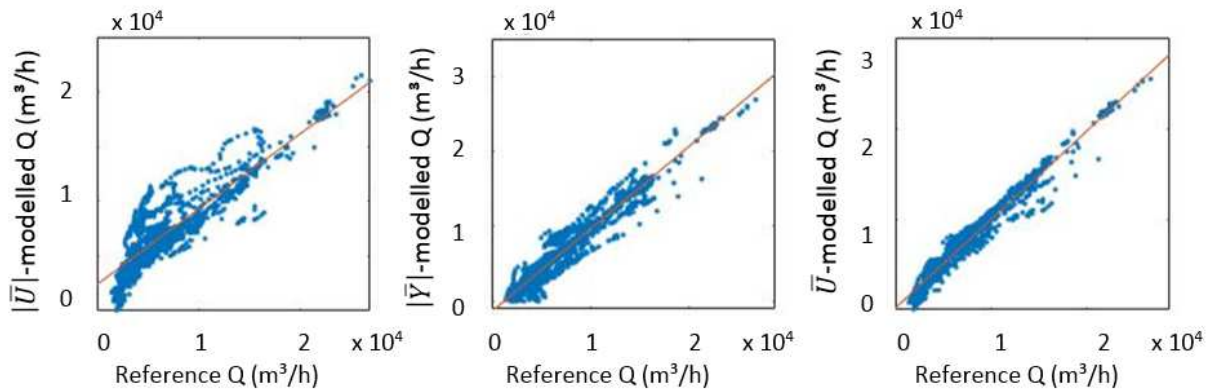
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Table 6: Results of the Bland-Altman analysis for bi-directional airflow rates.

Input	β_0	β_1
$ \bar{U} $	0.25	-1988
$ \bar{Y} $	-0.14	1595
\bar{U}	0.01	-29

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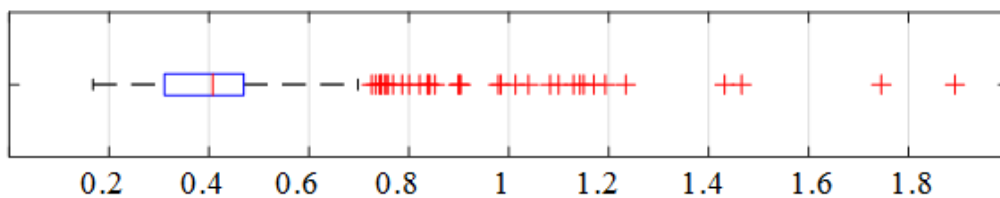
Fig. 9: (Linear) correlation between the reference and the modelled Q_{bi} for input variables (a) total velocity $|\bar{U}|$; (b) perpendicular velocity $|\bar{Y}|$; (c) velocity vector \bar{U}

451 3.3.3 Ventilation opening effectiveness

452

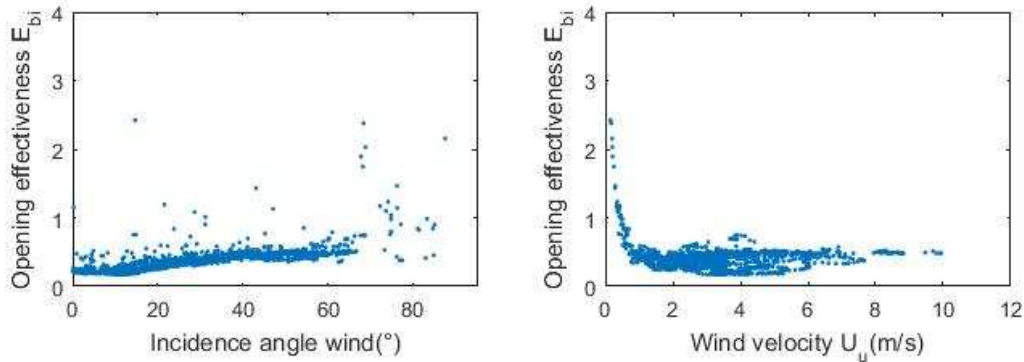
453 Similar to results of the Q_{uni} , the E-values for the Q_{bi} were also calculated. Fig. 10 shows a boxplot of
454 the E-values for Q_{bi} . The median value was 0.41, the 25- and 75-percentile were 0.31 and 0.47
455 respectively. The outliers were found above 0.70. Similar to the E-values of the Q_{uni} , high E-values
456 appeared with low wind velocities (Fig. 11). Similar to the data for the unidirectional flows, the
457 outliers seen in Fig. 9 are appearing only for low wind velocities (<1 m/s). Correlations were calculated
458 for the data without these outliers. The E-values increased with increasing incidence angle, a
459 regression coefficient of 0.0051 and R^2 -value of 0.65 were found for the regression line. No clear
460 relation was found with the total wind velocity measured on the metemast, the R^2 -value was found to
461 be small (5×10^{-4}). The opening effectiveness showed the same behaviour versus the perpendicular
462 and parallel velocity component as seen for the total velocity: small velocity components gave high
463 values and velocity components above approximately 1 m/s gave, they did not give extra information
464 to the opening effectiveness.

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Fig. 10: boxplot E-factor for airflow rates with bidirectional flows



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Fig. 11 : E-values (opening effectiveness) for Q_{bi} plotted against the (a) incidence angle of the wind ($^{\circ}$) and (b) the wind velocity (m/s)

474 4 Discussion

475

476 Easy models to measure naturally ventilated airflow rates are widely available in literature. Chu et al.
 477 (2015), Choinière et al. (1992) already found linear correlations between the total velocity and the
 478 airflow rates in naturally ventilated greenhouses, Nääs (1988), Verlinde et al. (1998), Yu et al. (2002)
 479 in test rooms in wind tunnels, ASHRAE (1981) and Etheridge (2012) for naturally ventilated
 480 buildings. Other researchers as Joo et al., (2014) and Lo et al., (2012) suggested a linear fit between
 481 the perpendicular component $|\bar{Y}|$ and velocities in the opening in a large dairy stable and a multi-zone
 482 test building respectively.

483 In this article, the input variables $|\bar{U}|$, $|\bar{Y}|$, $|\bar{X}|$ and \bar{U} were tested to find the best input variable in a
 484 simple linear model for airflow rate assessment for both uni-directional (Q_{uni}) and bi-directional (Q_{bi})
 485 airflows. For Q_{uni} , \bar{U} and $|\bar{Y}|$ were found to be the most accurate input variables, where $|\bar{Y}|$ was the
 486 most practical input variable because only one velocity component was needed. For 2D or 3D
 487 ultrasonic anemometers both the tangential and normal velocity component are available, which
 488 makes the input variable \bar{U} most accurate and practical for all wind directions.

489 In literature mostly it is not clearly specified whether the proposed models can be applied for Q_{uni} and
 490 Q_{bi} . Though, if specified, it is mostly stated that these were proposed for Q_{uni} and when used for Q_{bi} ,
 491 the accuracy will be low [9,13]. No specific models were found in literature for assessing airflow rates
 492 based on direct measurements with occurring bi-directional flows caused by the wind effect (not to be
 493 confused with models for bi-directional flows due to temperature differences). Our study suggested to
 494 use a multiple linear model where the tangential and perpendicular velocity components (\bar{U}) are both
 495 included.

496 Though \bar{U} was found to be a good input variable for both Q_{uni} and Q_{bi} , it was not suggested to use the
 497 same parameters for both models due to the differences in character of the flow pattern.

498 E is assumed to be a constant depending on the wind direction, [0.5-0.6] for perpendicular winds and
499 [0.25-0.35] for diagonal winds [24]. The median opening effectiveness of 0.59 for the reference
500 airflow rates was found to lay within these ranges. But values of percentile 75 and above (outliers), lay
501 within the range between 0.64 and 0.78. One possible explanation for the higher values for E found in
502 this study might be that no obstructions were present in the test facility during measurements. The
503 suggested E value in literature of 0.5-0.6 are given for practical use in naturally ventilated stables
504 where animals and the arrangement of pen equipment, short partition walls and obstacles inside the
505 buildings can affect the efficiency of the ventilation [29].

506 In literature, the reference velocity to calculate the opening effectiveness E is the total velocity $|\bar{U}|$.
507 Nääs (1988) and Yu et al. (2002) confirmed the wind angle of incidence is the most important factor
508 influencing opening effectiveness. Our study suggested to use $|\bar{Y}|$ instead of $|\bar{U}|$ within the formula,
509 due to the results where $|\bar{Y}|$ correlated better with Q_{umi} . The suggested values of the opening
510 effectiveness (E) should be checked in another study for its appropriateness with this new parameter.

511 For Q_{bi} , the situation was different. The results of these experiments showed that the perpendicular
512 velocity component $|\bar{Y}|$ had a major influence on the resulting airflow rates, but the tangential
513 component $|\bar{X}|$ had also an important contribution on the airflow rate. This means that applying $|\bar{Y}|$ as
514 suggested for Q_{bi} would give less accurate results because no contribution of the tangential component
515 was present. The use of $|\bar{U}|$ could also lead to less accurate results, because this parameter does not
516 allow for a differentiation in the magnitude of $|\bar{Y}|$ or $|\bar{X}|$. For Q_{bi} it is suggested not to use the formula
517 with the opening effectiveness as $|\bar{U}|$ or $|\bar{Y}|$ are not giving accurate results to assess the airflow rate. In
518 this situation the multiple linear regression with \bar{U} should be used for accurate results.

519 Further research should focus on commercial animal houses with large openings (dairy stables) to
520 validate the model findings of this study.

521 **5 Conclusions**

522
523 In order to find a fast and simple airflow rate assessment technique for a naturally ventilated test
524 facility, a linear model was applied using velocity measurements on a meteor mast of 10m height.
525 Different combinations of velocity components were tested to find the most accurate input variable to
526 assess the airflow rate. The total velocity ($|\bar{U}|$), the perpendicular ($|\bar{Y}|$) and the tangential velocity
527 component ($|\bar{X}|$) and the velocity vector (\bar{U}) of the air velocity were tested as input variables. The
528 calculated airflow rates were compared to the reference airflow rates measured by the detailed
529 method developed by Van Overbeke et al., 2015.

530 In addition, the data for modelling the airflow rates was split in uni- and bi-directional flows (opposite
531 directions are present in the airflow pattern of an opening).

532 For uni-directional flows, $|\bar{V}|$ and \bar{U} yielded the most accurate airflow rates, though $|\bar{V}|$ being the
533 easiest input variable because only one velocity component was needed to model the airflow rates. For
534 this reason, it was found to give the best correlation using $|\bar{V}|$ in ASHRAE's formula of $Q=E \times A \times |\bar{U}|$.
535 A multiple linear model was suggested for airflow rates with bi-directional flows. The \bar{U} input variable
536 was found to be the best input variable. Though $|\bar{V}|$ was found to have the most weight within the
537 models. $|\bar{X}|$ was found to be an important contributor too for an accurate estimation of the airflow rate.

538
539

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Highlights

- Linear models were proposed for airflow rates with both uni- and bi-directional flows
- Different input variables were compared: the total air velocity, the perpendicular ($|\vec{V}|$) and tangential velocity component $|\vec{X}|$, and the velocity vector \vec{U} .
- A modification to the opening effectiveness equation is proposed.