

This is a repository copy of Towards an integrated computational method to determine internal spaces for optimum environmental conditions.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/104583/

Version: Accepted Version

#### Article:

Sofotasiou, P., Calautit, J.K., Hughes, B.R. et al. (1 more author) (2016) Towards an integrated computational method to determine internal spaces for optimum environmental conditions. Computers & Fluids, 127. pp. 146-160. ISSN 0045-7930

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compfluid.2015.12.015

Article available under the terms of the CC-BY-NC-ND licence (https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/)

#### Reuse

Unless indicated otherwise, fulltext items are protected by copyright with all rights reserved. The copyright exception in section 29 of the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988 allows the making of a single copy solely for the purpose of non-commercial research or private study within the limits of fair dealing. The publisher or other rights-holder may allow further reproduction and re-use of this version - refer to the White Rose Research Online record for this item. Where records identify the publisher as the copyright holder, users can verify any specific terms of use on the publisher's website.

#### Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



# Towards an integrated computational method to determine internal spaces for optimum environmental conditions

3

4 Polytimi Sofotasiou<sup>a\*</sup>, John Kaiser Calautit<sup>a</sup>, Ben Richard Hughes<sup>a</sup>, Dominic O'Connor<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> School of Mechanical Engineering, University of Sheffield, Sheffield S10 2TN, UK

6 \*Corresponding author. tel: +44(0) 7479232058, e-mail: <u>psofotasiou1@sheffield.ac.uk</u>

7

#### Abstract

Computational Fluid Dynamics tools and Response Surface Methodology optimization techniques 8 9 were coupled for the evaluation of an optimum window opening design that improves the ventilation 10 efficiency in a naturally-ventilated building. The multi-variable optimization problem was based on 11 Design of Experiments analysis and the Central Composite Design method for the sampling process 12 and estimation of quadratic models for the response variables. The Screening optimization method 13 was used for the generation of the optimal design solution. The generated results indicated a good 14 performance of the estimated response surface revealing the strength correlations between the 15 parameters. Window width was found to have greater impact on the flow rate values with correlation 16 coefficient of 73.62%, in comparison to the standard deviation 55.68%, where the window height 17 prevails with correlation coefficient of 96.94% and 12.35% for the flow rate. The CFD results were 18 validated against wind tunnel experiments and the optimization solution was verified with simulation 19 runs, proving the accuracy of the methodology followed, which is applicable to numerous 20 environmental design problems.

21 Keywords: Computational fluid dynamics (CFD); Response Surface Methodology (RSM);
22 Optimization; Natural ventilation

# 23 **1. Introduction**

A successful building design improves the quality of life and facilitates the functional needs of the users. However, the achievement of acceptable design solutions presupposes the contribution of rational multidisciplinary decisions [1]. An important and mandatory step prior to every engineering solution is the conceptual design phase that tends to establish the holistic integrity of the design. The development of software tools has facilitated the decision-making process, by offering the opportunity to evaluate the performance and efficiency of the initial design concept under numerous objective parameters during the conceptual design phase.

Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) software is used to perform multiple types of analysis, regarding a rational approach to design investigation that enables the simulation of air flow and prediction of physical phenomena within building spaces [2]. This technique has been adopted by numerous researchers, to study the thermal comfort of occupants in buildings [3], the positioning of building services [4], natural ventilation [5], heat transfer effects [6], contaminant dispersion [7] and the interaction between indoor and outdoor environments [8].

37 This study presents an integrated computational method to optimise design spaces in the built 38 environment. The work is based on simulation-driven optimisation techniques, using a CFD 39 simulation software integrated with Response Surface Methodology-based design optimisation 40 algorithms and validated against wind tunnel experiments. The method is applied to a generic cross-41 ventilated building structure to investigate natural ventilation efficiency. Since 1992 [9] up to present 42 [10], studies on cross-ventilated buildings have been performed using CFD techniques and validated 43 with real scale measurements, wind tunnel experiments and flow visualization methods [11]. 44 However, the increasing need for adopting integrated design solutions demands further information 45 beyond what it is offered by the investigation of the naturally occurring wind flow in buildings, and 46 it is this research gap under investigation here.

#### 47 **2. Previous related work**

48 Stavrakakis et al. (2012) investigated the optimum window-opening configuration, to improve the 49 indoor thermal comfort in a naturally-ventilated building (NVB). Using a coupled CFD-ANN 50 (Artificial Neutral Network) technique that enabled the evaluation of 126 data pairs to minimise 51 discomfort for 3 different activity levels. On the investigation of the influential behaviour of the air 52 speed and direction towards the ventilation rates in NVB, Shen et al., (2012) combined CFD and 53 Response Surface Methodology (RSM) optimization techniques. They evaluated different Design of 54 Experiment (DoE) methods for the generation of experimental models in a stand-alone software. The 55 obtained results were validated with CFD simulation cases.

56 In a more recent study, Shen et al., (2013) assessed the performance of different DoE methods on the 57 estimation of the ventilation rate in a naturally ventilated livestock. The parameters evaluated were 58 the window opening characteristics and wind conditions. The results indicated that the most accurate 59 response surface model was developed by the Box-Behnken design, followed by the central 60 composite rotation design (CCRD) method. The work also highlighted that the performance of the 61 DoE method may differ, depending on the case study. On the optimization of ventilation efficiency 62 and indoor homogeneous conditions in livestock buildings, Norton et al. (2010) employed CFD tools and Box-Bohnken design methods for the generation of a response function based on the geometrical 63 64 characteristics of the building. The verified RSM method indicated that the environmental 65 heterogeneity is more correlated to the geometrical characteristics of the building and particularly 66 when the most restrictive eave opening conditions, regarding porosity and height, are applied.

Both ANN and RSM are well-recognised techniques that enable the approximation of the interrelated nature of the independent design parameters and their design solutions [15]. However, the aforementioned research topics within the NVB framework, generated the experimental case studies in independent software and used CFD codes to perform parametric analyses and/ or validation ofthe results.

In this study, a commercial CFD software integrated with RSM optimisation techniques is employed to present a parametric simulation method for the analysis and optimisation of a simple crossventilated building. The RSM technique is used to determine the interrelationships between the design parameters and design responses. The Screening optimization technique is employed to identify the optimum window opening dimensions that improve the natural ventilation efficiency in terms of the air flow rate and flow homogeneity. The CFD results were validated against wind tunnel experiments to establish the accuracy of the method.

In Section 3, the theoretical background of the RSM, which is used in the parametric-optimization study, is briefly presented. In Section 4, the case study is introduced followed by the CFD methodology, results and validation study. The optimisation methodology is presented in Section 5, along with the interpretation and verification of results. Finally, the discussion and conclusions are covered in Section 6 and 7 respectively.

# 84 **3. Response Surface Methodology (RSM)**

Pioneers in the exploration of the impact of the design parameters on several design responses were Hotelling (1941) and Friedman and Savage (1947). In mathematical terms, the unknown functional relationship between the design parameters (x) and their design responses (y) can be described by the low-degree polynomial model given by the Eq. (1):

$$y = f(x, \theta) + \varepsilon$$
 Eq. (1)

90 where  $\varepsilon$  is treated as a statistical error. By employing mathematical and statistical methods, first-91 order (Eq. (2)) and second-order (Eq. (3)) polynomial regression models are constructed, based on 92 physical or computer experiments [18].

$$\eta = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$
 Eq. (2)

94 
$$\eta = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{ii} x_i^2 + \sum_{\substack{i=1\\i < j}}^k \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_{ij} x_i x_j$$
 Eq. (3)

93

95 where  $\eta$  represents a design solution (i.e. velocity, temperature, stresses, etc),  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_k$  the 96 design variables (i.e. height, thickness, load, etc) and  $\beta_0, \beta_1, ..., \beta_k$  the unknown regression 97 coefficients.

Box and Wilson (1951) introduced a statistical tool that enables the evaluation of several design parameters, targeting an improved design solution (or response) by satisfying specific requirements. They defined the "experimental region" as the region within which the design parameters vary and the optimum design solution is localized, with the minimum possible number of conducted experiments. This method is known as Response Surface Methodology (RSM) and targets finding an improved, if not optimum, response of given controllable variables.

The RSM calculates approximate values for the regression coefficients, based on the evaluation of either experimental or simulation results generated for a specific number of sample design points. Once the best fitted approximation function is found, several design combinations can be examined, without the need to conduct deterministic response analysis that is an extremely time-consuming process. It is therefore apparent that the performance of a fully accurate design study may necessitate the simultaneous consideration of several independent design variables, resulting in complex mathematical functions/systems.

RSM has been widely used in various projects and disciplines, due to its advantageous performance in approaching mathematically the behaviour of multiscale phenomena, regardless of the nature of the studied parameters [16]. The integration of this method with expensive computer simulation codes has launched a new generation of research studies, which allows the optimization of designs with either large or small number of input and output parameters. Fegade and Patel (2013) studied a parametric finite element model of a rotor, by employing Design of Experiments (DOE) techniques integrated in ANSYS simulation software. They performed 48 simulation runs, aiming at investigating the effect of different rotor diameters on the rotor's frequency. For the purpose of this, two levels factorial design with eleven input parameters per Plankett-Burman1 design was considered and it two rotor diameters were found to have major impact on frequency for the fluid film.

Mandloi and Verma (2009) employed Central Composite Design (CCD) experimental design in order to improve the performance and efficiency of an in-cylinder engine intake port. Based on RSM from ANSYS software, they established a goal-driven optimum design solution, determined by independent geometrical characteristics.

Ng et al. (2008) evaluated the performance index of an air diffusion system integrated in a displacement-ventilated office. With the aid of commercial statistical and CFD software, they used RSM to predict the optimum position for the diffusers, the supply temperature and the exhaust position, in order to provide optimum thermal comfort in the space. The results obtained from the Box-Behnken design models were found to agree 95% with the CFD simulation results, indicating the accuracy of the method, as well as the very promising benefits and results.

# 132 **4. Case study description**

The achievement of an accurate and reliable simulation research study requires full compliance with the fundamental steps and in depth understanding of the CFD simulation and optimization processes. For the purpose of this, a simple benchmark building model was designed, as illustrated in Figure 1. The geometrical characteristics are based on a previously published research paper of Karava et al. (2011). The scaled building dimensions are 0.1m x 0.1m x 0.08m (L x W x H), wall depth of 0.002

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Plankett-Burman experimental design is a factional factorial design, which is manly used for the identification of the most important variables of a partly known system with a large number of independent factors [21].

138 m, and two window openings of 0.018m x 0.046m (H x W), placed on the opposite sides at the

139 centres of the walls to promote natural airflow with the least resistance.



#### 142 Figure 1 Dimensional characteristics of the case study building model.

#### 143 **4.1 CFD set-up**

The CFD simulation analysis was performed with the commercial software ANSYS Workbench 15, since it comprises a complete interface for the implementation of the work. The study was conducted in three phases. The pre-processing phase included the creation of the building model and the domain geometry, and the generation of the computational mesh. The second phase comprised the solver, along with the selection of the transport equations, the physical models and the solver settings. Finally, in the post-processing phase, plots and graphs of the solutions were created and the results were interpreted.

#### 151 **4.2** Governing equations

The simulation of the natural ventilation phenomena was treated as steady and incompressible turbulent flow. The standard k-ε turbulence model was used with standard wall functions, since it is widely used in natural ventilation studies in buildings [11], [25], [26], [27], [28], [30]and it shows good performance when compared with wind tunnel experiments [29], [31], [32], [32][33]. Moreover, when empty rooms are studied, the standard k-ε and the RNG k-ε model have been proven to behave similarly [34], [35]. The governing equations of continuity (4), momentum (5), as
well as the transport equations of the standard k-ε turbulence model (6 & 7) are presented below:

159 
$$\frac{\partial \overline{u_i}}{\partial x_i} = 0$$
 Eq. (4)

160 
$$\frac{\partial \overline{u_i u_j}}{\partial x_j} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial \overline{p}}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \upsilon \left( \frac{\partial \overline{u_i}}{\partial x_j} + \frac{\partial \overline{u_i}}{\partial x_i} \right) \right)$$
Eq. (5)

161 
$$\rho \frac{\partial k}{\partial t} + \rho u_i \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \frac{\mu + \mu_t}{\sigma_k} \right) \frac{\partial k}{\partial x_j} \right] + P - \rho \varepsilon$$
 Eq. (6)

162 
$$\rho \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial t} + \rho u_i \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left[ \left( \frac{\mu + \mu_t}{\sigma_{\varepsilon}} \right) \frac{\partial \varepsilon}{\partial x_j} \right] + c_{\varepsilon 1} \frac{\varepsilon}{k} P - c_{\varepsilon 2} \frac{\rho \varepsilon^2}{k}$$
Eq. (7)

where  $\mu_t$  is the turbulent viscosity calculated by the equation  $\mu_t = C_{\mu} \frac{k^2}{\epsilon}$ , with Cµ=0.09,  $\bar{u}$  and  $\bar{p}$  are the mean (time-averaged) components of velocity and pressure,  $P = \frac{\mu_t}{\rho}S^2$  represents the production of turbulence,  $S = \sqrt{2S_{ij}S_{ij}}$  the shear stress magnitude and C $\epsilon_1$ =1.44, C $\epsilon_2$ =1.92,  $\sigma_k$ = 1.0 and  $\sigma_{\epsilon}$ =1.3 [37].

# 167 **4.3** Computational geometry and mesh generation

The size of the computational domain was set according to the wind tunnel's working section dimensions that would be used in sequence for a scaled validation study [39]. More specifically, the domain had dimensions of  $0.5m \ge 1.0m \ge 0.5m$  (W  $\ge L \ge H$ ) (Figure 2), allowing a blockage ratio (Area<sub>model</sub> /Area<sub>tunnel</sub>  $\ge 100\%$ ) of 2.8%, which lies within the recommended values for accurate simulation studies of air flow around buildings located in open flat terrains [40].





### Figure 2 Computational domain and model positioning.

175 The simplicity of the geometry allowed the creation of a fully hexahedral mesh that enables better 176 convergence behaviour. A finer grid was generated around the critical areas of the model, including 177 the building edges, the window openings, as well as, the front, back and lateral flow paths around the 178 building block. The rest of the domain was developed with high-resolution on the connections along 179 the critical areas, starting with height of the neighbour cell at 0.002 m and an increasing size 180 thereafter till the edges of the domain with a ratio of 1.2, leading to a coarser grid size, as illustrated 181 in Figure 3.





185 In order to ensure grid independency, the volume adaptation method was used that enables the 186 refinement and coarsening of the entire fluid volume. The initial mesh that was produced in ANSYS

Mesher, comprised of 1,071,790 hexahedral cells. The refinement and coarsening of the 187 188 computational domain enabled the comparison of the average rates of air velocity in the two window 189 openings. In the initial grid size of 1,071,790 cells, the average wind velocity value was equal to 1.88 190 m/s. The coarsening of the domain led to 647,542 hexahedral cells, with a magnitude of average 191 wind velocity equal to 1.79 m/s. After the refinement of the computational domain, 1,236,636 192 hexahedral cells were produced, with an average wind speed equal to 1.92 m/s. The deviation of the 193 average velocity magnitude from the medium grid was 4.8% for the coarse grid and 2.1% for the fine 194 grid, as shown in Table 1. Thus, the medium size grid was selected for the simulation analysis, 195 ensuring good performance, with reduced computational cost and without compromising the 196 accuracy of the solution.

197 Table 1. Estimated error of average velocity magnitude at the two openings of the building198 block

Computational Grid Size	Average Velocity (m/s)	$\epsilon = (f_2 - f_1)/f_1  100\%$
Coarse: 647,542	1.79	4.8 %
Middle: 1,071,790	1.88	-
Fine: 1,236,636	1.92	2.1 %

#### 199 **4.5** Boundary conditions and solution settings

The boundary conditions set were similar to the one used in the research of Calautit and Hughes (2014), since the same wind tunnel facility was used. A constant wind profile was set at the inlet and zero static pressure at the outlet. At the side, top and ground walls of the domain, no-slip shear condition was applied with roughness height,  $k_s=0.001$  m and roughness constant,  $C_s=0.5$ . The walls of the building block were set with similar roughness height of 0.001 m. The boundary conditions along with the solver settings are summarised in Table 2:

Inlet	Constant velocity $U = 3m/s$			
Outlet	Zero pressure			
Side, Top and Ground walls	k <sub>s</sub> =0.001 m and Cs=0.5			
Building walls	k <sub>s</sub> =0.001 m and C <sub>s</sub> =0.5			
Turbulence model	Standard k-ɛ turbulence model			
Scheme	SIMPLE			
	Pressure: Standard,			
Spatial Discretization	Momentum, Turbulence Kinetic Energy and			
	Diss.Rate: Second Order			

207 Table 2. Boundary conditions and solver settings for the simulation model

#### **208 4.6 CFD results**

209 The initial numerical simulation study generated results of the wind and pressure distributions inside 210 and outside the building block. Figure 4 illustrates the dimensionless velocity patterns and the 211 normalised vectors at the vertical cross section of the domain. The uniform velocity of 3 m/s (used also as reference velocity, U<sub>ref</sub>) at the inlet resulted to a maximum velocity speed of 3.93 m/s and 212 213 2.88 m/s at the exterior and interior areas of the building respectively. According to the results, 214 recirculation zones are developed below the openings of the upwind and downwind walls, as well as 215 across the roof due to flow separation at the top front edge of the building block. At the interior, the 216 air is driven directly from the one side to the other, due to the pressure difference between the two 217 opposite window openings. Recirculation zones are created at both top and bottom parts of the 218 interior windward wall.



220 221 middle of the building block; as U<sub>ref</sub> was taken the inlet velocity magnitude of 3m/s. In case of naturally ventilated buildings, the attainment of sufficient ventilation is important for the 222 223 provision of comfortable indoor environments, mainly counted in terms of air volume induced in the 224 occupied spaces and in terms of homogeneity, for equal flow distribution. Thus, the evaluation of the 225 results was focused on two parameters. The first one was the volumetric flow rate (Q), as an 226 indicator of the air volume passing through the windward window per unit time and the second one 227 was the standard deviation of velocities at the building interior, to assess the homogeneity of the flow. These parameters can be calculated by the Eq. (8) and (9) below: 228

229 
$$Q = \frac{m}{\rho}$$
 Eq. (8)

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma(U_i - \overline{U})^2}{n}}$$
 Eq. (9)

where Q is the flow rate (m<sup>3</sup>/s),  $\dot{m}$  is the mass flow rate (kg/s),  $\rho$  is the air density (1.2 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), SD is the standard deviation of velocities,  $U_i$  is the velocity at interior location i (m/s),  $\overline{U}$  is the mean velocity at the interior of the block (m/s) and n is the number of computational cells at the interior of the block. The expressions were generated in ANSYS post processing and the graphical illustrations along with the obtained numerical values are presented in Table 3.

236

Expression	Value	Graphic Illustration
Flow Rate Q (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	1.81 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	Velocity [m/s] 2.58 2.15 1.72 1.29 0.86 0.44 0.01 Velocity vectors at the windward window opening (left) and vertical velocity distribution in the middle of the opening (right)
St_Dev_Vel (m/s)	0.512	U/U <sub>ref</sub> 0.96 0.80 0.64 0.32 0.16 0.00 Dimensionless velocity magnitudes at the interior of the building block, on the windward (left) and leeward side (right)

# 237 Table 3. Graphical illustration of the CFD simulation results

238 It was observed that the incoming air stream through the front window opening developed an almost 239 symmetrical distribution of velocity magnitudes, with a maximum value of 2.58 m/. In the interior of 240 the building block, the highest velocity magnitudes were recorded at the horizontal flow path 241 between the two openings. The percentage distribution of velocity magnitudes are presented in 242 Figure 5, indicating that around 48% of the internal points have velocity magnitudes lower than 0.29 243 m/s. On the windward wall of the building model, recirculation zones were developed on top and 244 below the window opening, creating intensively ventilated areas, compared to the leeward side of the 245 building, where calm zones were observed, making the internal airflow relatively heterogeneous.



Figure 5 Histogram of dimensionless velocity distribution (left) and dimensionless velocity vectors (right) at the interior of the building block.



# 250 **4.7.1 Inlet velocity profile**

For the current study a constant velocity profile was set as inlet boundary condition, in order to match the one produced from the available wind tunnel facility, in the knowledge that it cannot represent a realistic flow field. The generated velocity profile at the longitudinal direction in the centre of the building block is illustrated in Figure 6, by the red line. The results are compared with the one produced by the study of Ramponi and Blocken (2012) (see Figure 6 black dashed line), in which a logarithmic velocity profile was applied at the inlet.

According to Chen and Srebric (2002) studies with significant level of accuracy are produced, provided that the generated trends are consistent. It is also highlighted the fact that "very high accuracy, while desirable, is not essential since most design changes are incremental variations from a baseline". Therefore, since our research is not directly focused on the ventilation performance of the building block, but on the methodology to optimise the parameters that will improve the built environment, a constant inlet velocity profile may be accepted.





# Figure 6 Velocity profile at a longitudinal line in the middle of the building block.

265 4.7.2 Wind tunnel validation

For the validation of the numerical simulation, the wind tunnel facility of the Civil Engineering Department at the University of Leeds was used. The closed-loop wind tunnel is 5.6 m long, with test section dimensions of  $0.5m \ge 1.0m \ge 0.5m$  (W  $\ge L \ge H$ ) [39]. The performance assessment of the model was based on velocity measurements on specific locations inside the building block and outside the window openings, as illustrated in Figure 7.





Figure 7 Model positioning in the wind tunnel test section and CFD velocity vectors indicating
 airflow distribution (a); hot wire measurement points of velocity speeds (b).

A uniform velocity profile of 3 m/s was achieved, identical to the one used for the numerical

simulation. The speed measurements were conducted using a hot wire probe (Testo 425), obtaining

results with  $\pm 1.0\%$  rdg accuracy at velocity values of  $\leq 8$ m/s. For each measurement point, five repeated measurements of 2 min duration were performed to reduce the human error factor. The hot wire was placed on the exact proximity of the windward and leeward window openings and in three symmetric internal positions of the building model. The results obtained are presented in Table 4 and Figure 8.

Table 4. Comparison of velocity magnitudes in five building locations from wind tunnel
 measurements and CFD simulation.

Measurement	P1 (-0.03m)	P2(0.024m)	P3 (0.05m)	P4(0.074m)	P5 (0.013m)
Point	_ <b>∪</b> , 1			U ↓	- -
W.T. Velocity	1.95 m/s	2.66 m/s	2.67 m/s	2.36 m/s	2.54 m/s
CFD Velocity	1.84 m/s	2.87 m/s	2.76 m/s	2.59 m/s	2.97 m/s
Error	5.9 %	7.3 %	3.3 %	8.9 %	14.5 %

283





Figure 8 Graphical comparison of velocity magnitudes obtained by CFD and WT experiments
 in five measurement points.

According to the velocity values obtained from the wind tunnel experiments, the k-ε model performs
well, validating the CFD methodology followed for the wind flow simulation. The generated errors

of 5.9% and 3.3%, at the inlet and the interior of the building, are within acceptable limits, if we take

290 under consideration the human, experimental and mechanical errors. The highest recorded error of 291 14.5% at the outlet (P5) can be explained by the induced turbulence in the leeward underpressure 292 region of the building block that increases the uncertainty of both numerical and experimental value.

# 293 5. RSM metamodel methodology

The Response Surface Optimisation technique is a simulation driven optimisation tool that enables the exploration of various design parameters and displays the interactions among them and the resulting solutions. A DoE study was performed and combined with RSM, in ANSYS Design Exploration 15.0. The methodology followed for the identification of the optimum design solution can be summarised in steps 1 to 4, as shown in Table 5, and has doable extension to similar design exploration problems.





#### 301 **5.1 RSM set up**

302 Once the input building design is created and the primary simulation run is completed (as presented 303 in section 4), the optimization problem can be modelled. The first step concerns the identification of 304 the input independent variables, their design space (or constraints), as well as the output dependent 305 variables (Table 6). In the case of cross-ventilated buildings, the window positioning and window 306 configuration has been found to play a determinant role in enhancing natural ventilation efficiency 307 (Stavrakakis et al., 2012; Bangalee et al., 2013). Therefore, in consideration of the predicted results, 308 the dimensional characteristics of the window openings, the width and height, were selected as the 309 input continuous parameters. Additional derived input parameters were defined in order to keep the 310 windows always centralised regardless configuration. The design space, within which the exploration 311 of several design alternatives would be performed, was defined based on rational criteria. The range 312 of the input variables was from 0.01 m to 0.018 m for the window height and from 0.023 m to 0.046 313 m for the window width. Output parameters were set the flow rate through the front window opening 314 and the homogeneity of the flow inside the room, represented by the standard deviation of velocities.

Parameter	S	Name	Initial Value	Constrains
Input	<b>P1</b>	Window_Height	0.018 m	0.01 m≤ <b>P1</b> ≤0.018 m
	P2	Window_Width	0.046 m	0.023 m≤ <b>P2</b> ≤0.046 m
	<b>P3</b>	Horizontal_Dist	0.027 m	<b>P3</b> =(0.1- <b>P2</b> )/2
	<b>P4</b>	Vertical_Dist	0.031 m	<b>P4</b> =(0.08- <b>P1</b> )/2
	P5	Flow_Rate_Q	$1.81 \text{ x} 10^{-3} \text{ m}^{3}/\text{s}$	
Output P6		St_Dev_Sensor_Vel	0.512 m/s	
	P1 P4	P3 $P2$	(laft) and output (right) r	

**Table 6. Quantification of input and output parameters** 

After having defined the number of input and output parameters, the generation of the design points was performed using the Auto-defined Central Composite Design (CCD) scheme. The CCD consists of one central point, 2N star (or axial) points and a two-level full factorial design (2<sup>N</sup> factorial points) [18]. The number of the design points can be determined by Eq. (10)

$$DP = 1 + 2N + 2^N$$
 Eq. (10)

322 where N is the number of input parameters (or factors).

The selected scheme enabled the creation of 9 rotatable and symmetrical designs, including the initial one. The calculation of their responses was the most time consuming part of the study, as they were solved sequentially to achieve convergence in every simulation run. The results obtained are listed in Table 7 and represent the design space within which the quadratic response surface was constructed.

Design	P1 (m)	P2 (m)	P5 (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	P6 (m/s)
Point	Window_Height	Window_Width	Flow_Rate_Q	St_Dev_Sensor_Vel
1 (DP 6)	0.014	0.0345	1.01 x10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.443
2 (DP 2)	0.01	0.0345	$0.69 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.380
3 (DP 8)	0.018	0.0345	$1.34 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.491
4 (DP 4)	0.014	0.023	$0.66 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.438
5 (DP 5)	0.014	0.046	$1.37 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.469
6 (DP 1)	0.01	0.023	0.46 x10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.374
7 (DP 7)	0.018	0.023	$0.87 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.477
8 (DP 3)	0.01	0.046	$0.93 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.402
9 (DP 0)	0.018	0.046	1.81 x10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.512

328 Table 7. CCD-based Design Points and their obtained CFD solutions

The second step was the selection of a Response Surface Type algorithm. For the purpose of this, the Standard Response Surface was adopted, allowing the implementation of a regression analysis to generate a second-order fitted response for estimating the correlations among the selected parameters. The second-order models are commonly used for optimisation processes, due to their flexible nature and ability to perform better in complex problems (Myers et al., 2009). In this stage, the relationships between the independent and dependent parameters can be investigated, by providing a graphical insight into the design sensitivity analysis.

336 Next to the optimization problem was the selection of the objective function and the optimisation 337 algorithm. The objective of the optimization was to improve the natural ventilation efficiency. This 338 could be achieved by increasing the flow rate and also by promoting the flow homogeneity in the 339 area of interest. Thus, the resulting optimization aims were to maximise Flow\_Rate\_Q (P5) and 340 simultaneously minimise St\_Dev\_Vel (P6), within the restricted range values set for the window 341 height (P1) and width (P2). The Screening optimization algorithm was used, which is based on the simple concept of sampling and sorting, identifying the most significant and influential variables, 342 343 regarding the predefined objectives and constraints [43]. 1,000 uniformly distributed sample sets 344 were generated for correlation, within the optimization domain, which constitutes one of the main 345 benefits of this method. Figure 9 illustrates the evolution of the sample sets by a red curve and the 346 location of the design sample points in the predefined design space by a blue dot.



Figure 9 History chart of the sampling design points for the two output parameters; Flow Rate
 (left) and Standard Deviation of velocities (right).

The generated response surface was evaluated against its quality and accuracy by the response surface's Goodness of Fit. Figure 10 (top) illustrates the fit of the regressed model on the response function, by plotting the predicted response values versus the observed values from the design points.

<sup>350</sup> **5.2 RSM results** 

354 The Goodness of Fit also enabled the evaluation of the performance of the selected meta-modeling algorithm. The coefficient of determination ( $\mathbb{R}^2$ ) was equal to 1 (or 100%) for the flow rate and equal 355 356 to 0.9989 (or 99.89%) for the standard deviation, indicating a well-represented response surface by 357 the parametric model. However, the verification point for the flow rate showed a small deviation 358 from the diagonal line, indicating the need to refine the response surface. After taking under 359 consideration this point to the response surface, the updated Goodness of Fit (Figure 10 bottom) 360 resulted to an improved response surface with a reduction of the maximum relative residuals from 361 13.77% to 0.21% for the flow rate and from 0.42% to 0.19% for the standard deviation.

362 The RSM analysis produced estimations of the correlation between the independent and dependent 363 parameters, based on the input and output values of the Design Points, allowing the graphical 364 exploration of any design alternative within the constraint limits (Table 8 a). It also permitted the 365 quantification of the relationship between the input variables and their responses (Table 8 b, c). The 366 predicted coefficients of determination for every input variable indicated their impact effect on the 367 design responses and thus gave a first insight on the sensitivity of the design solution. Furthermore, 368 the results permitted the exploration of any design point within the design region, considering that 369 they were values obtained from the response surface and not from actual simulation runs.









Figure 10 Goodness of fit for the estimated response surface function; initial prediction (top)
 and improved prediction (bottom).

## 374 Table 8. Results of Standard Response Surface algorithm



#### 375 **5.3** Correlation of parameters

A Parameters Correlation analysis was conducted, in order to assess the impact role of each input parameters on the design outputs and ascribe the degree of quadratic correlation between two parameters, with either a linear or quadratic trend, using the Spearman's rank correlation<sup>2</sup>. The implementation required the generation of 60 unique and randomly selected design sets, based on Latin Hypercube Sampling (LHS) method, according to which the input parameters have at least 5% deviation of correlations.

As indicated in Table 9, the window height emerges to be the most influential parameter when the standard deviation is evaluated, with correlation value of 96.9%, compared to 12.35% for the window width. While in the flow rate, the window width prevails slightly over the window height with correlation values equal to 73.6% and 55.7%, respectively.



**Table 9. Linear correlation matrix and estimated correlation values between parameters** 

Scatter plots were also produced to identify the degree to which the regression lines represent the model data. Figure 11 illustrates the generated linear and quadratic trend lines for each parameter pair. The multiple regression analysis showed that quadratic trend lines were a better fit for the input variables. The estimated coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ) showed that 39.9% and 54.6% of the Flow\_Rate variation can be explained by the variation of the Window\_Height and Window\_Width, respectively. The variability of the Standard\_Deviation can be strongly explained by the

 $P6 = St_Dev_Sensor_Vel(SD)$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Spearman's rank correlation is used to identify the relationship between parameters that belong in complex nonlinear data sets, without taking under consideration the outliers [44].

- 393 Window\_Height with a percentage of 92.1%, as opposed to the Window\_Width that gave a poor
- 394 coefficient of determination equal to 12.9%.



Figure 11 Correlation charts with quadratic and linear trend lines for the Flow Rate (top) and the Standard Deviation of Velocities (bottom)

398 5.4 Optimization results

395 396

397

On the improvement of the ventilation performance, the Screening optimisation method was employed that allowed the generation of 1,000 window design samples to be evaluated against the objective set. The optimisation results contained information about the candidate optimum design solutions, Pareto optimality and sensitivities analysis of the studied parameters. Figure 12 illustrates the generated design space, where feasible design solutions exist. Tradeoff charts, also known as Pareto fronts, enable the exploration of the best (blue), worst (red), feasible and infeasible designs.





413 **Table 10. Candidate Points generated from the Screening method** 

405

Candidate	P1 (m)	P2 (m)	P5 (m <sup>3</sup> /s)	P6 (m/s)
Points	Window_Height	Window_Width	Flow_Rate_Q	St_Dev_Vel
Candidate Point 1	10.03 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	40.26 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	$0.818 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.390
Candidate Point 2	10.06 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	43.14 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	$0.882 \text{ x} 10^{-3}$	0.397
Candidate Point 3	$10.00 \text{ x } 10^{-3}$	46.00 x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.937 x10 <sup>-3</sup>	0.405

The dimensions of the optimum window opening are 0.01m height and 0.046m width. The values of the output parameters over the initial design deviate -48% and -21% for the flow rate and the standard deviation respectively. It is worth highlighting that the flow rate was not maximized, but minimized in order to achieve local optimality.

#### 418 **5.5 Robust Analysis**

On the impact identification of the uncontrollable parameters on the design response, a robust design analysis was performed. The robust design consists of a Six Sigma Analysis that investigates the performance of the predicted response surface, by incorporating factors, uncertainties and assumptions that are not taken under consideration during the RSM analysis. Thus, the robustness of the model presupposes an unattained design, regarding the possible biases due to model misspecification and misstatements and the distribution of the error [45].

The Six Sigma Analysis followed the same steps and settings used in the Design of Experiments and the Response Surface (refer to Table 5); with the main difference being that the inputs variables were treated as uncertainty parameters. The LHS method was adopted for the generation of 100 samples and the obtained results were focused on the sensitivities of output variables with respect to the input parameters and the statistical distribution of the samples responses.

430 The sensitivity graph produced was not representative of the local sensitivities (such as in Table 9), 431 but of the global statistical sensitivities, irrespective of the values of input parameters. As illustrated 432 in Table 11, the sensitivity correlation coefficients highlighted the window width to affect most the 433 flow rate with a value of 75.57% and the window height to maintain the highest impact role on the 434 Standard Deviation response, with a correlation coefficient equal to 82.06%. It is worth mentioning 435 that when the factor of the Standard Deviation was assessed, the window width appears to have an 436 increased strength of correlation (54.04%) when compared with the one obtained from the RS 437 analysis (12.35%) (see Table 9).





439 In order to prove the robustness of the model, the Six Sigma quality criterion needs to be satisfied. 440 According to this, the output parameters should lie within the lower and upper specification limits of 441 a Gaussian distribution. According to Figure 13, in the flow rate distribution the highest probability density is in the range of  $0.97 \times 10^{-3}$  m<sup>3</sup>/s. The distribution is positively skewed and slightly flat, with 442 443 a skewness value of 0.22 and a kurtosis value of -0.55, approximating the graph of the normal 444 distribution. The standard deviation distribution shows a negative skewness of -0.23 and a small 445 kurtosis of -0.007, with the maximum probability density to lie in the range of the mean value (0.44 446 m/s) that gives the image of normal distribution.



Figure 13 Statistical distribution functions for P5\_Flow\_Rate (left) and P6\_St\_Dev\_Vel (right).

### 450 **5.6 RSM optimization verification**

The verification of the optimization method concerns the comparison of the values estimated for the output parameters by the RSM metamodel and those obtained by the CFD simulation runs for the three candidate points. The calculated design solutions from the numerical simulation are presented in Table 12.

Candidate Points	Candidate RSM	e Point 1 CFD	Candidat RSM	e Point 2 CFD	Candidate RSM	e Point 3 CFD
Window Height (m)	10.03 x	x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	10.06	x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	10.00 :	x 10 <sup>-3</sup>
Window Width (m)	40.26 x	x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	43.14	x 10 <sup>-3</sup>	46.00 :	x 10 <sup>-3</sup>
Flow_Rate $(x \ 10^{-3} \ m^3/s)$	0.818	0.837	0.882	0.901	0.937	0.9362
St_Dev_Vel (m/s)	0.390	0.406	0.397	0.414	0.4047	0.4049

455 **Table 12. Verification of the optimization-generated Candidate Points** 

According to the results, the values of both flow rate and standard deviation for the CP1 and CP2
were underestimated over a maximum of 4.8%. The CP3 seems to be the optimum one for our case
study, since it maintains the lowest value of standard deviation and the highest flow rate, satisfying
the set of optimisation objectives.
The verification of the results enabled the production of two different error indicators. As shown in

Table 13, the maximum error for the flow rate was equal to 4.28% and the one for the standard deviation equal to 2.32%, proving the high quality optimization results, verifying at the same time the Response Surface Methodology study.

464	Table 13. Error between	CFD and	<b>RSM results</b>	for the	three	candidate	points
-----	-------------------------	---------	--------------------	---------	-------	-----------	--------

Candidate Point	Error Flow_Rate	Error St_Dev_Vel	
Candidate Point 1	2.32 %	4.10 %	
Candidate Point 2	2.15 %	4.28 %	
Candidate Point 3	0.03 %	0.07 %	

### 466 **6. Discussion**

The RSM metamodel-based optimization technique allows the determination of the response of several design variables after approximating a response function, averting the need for timeconsuming parametric studies [46]. It is a valuable tool when the relationship of the independent variables needs to be assessed, regarding multiple design responses. However, the RSM method should be carried out with extreme caution, when targets to the identification of those conditions that will achieve the maxima or minima of the response function.

The arbitrary selection of the independent (input) variables is pre-dominantly user-based, and the optimization of one response criterion does not always presuppose the optimization of other criteria of the model and vice versa. Also the number of the selected parameters is of great importance, since it determines the number of the studied design points, upon which the response surface function will be based. Thus, the type and the number of the input parameters should always be selected after rational consideration, in order to maximise the quality of the results within reasonable computational time.

480 Moreover, the conduction of the DoE study, within a certain design space, bounded by dimensional 481 constraints, can only conclude to improved design solutions, or local optimal, which sometimes may 482 abstain from the global optimal solution.

The current investigation conducted a RSM metamodel-based optimization technique, using the ANSYS commercial platform. The main aim was the presentation of a validated analysis of experiments for the identification of improved (or locally optimal) conditions in the building's interior environment, based on a set of controllable variables. For this purpose, a CCD design was adopted for fitting a second order response surface regression model. The problem set was a two response optimization, including the maximization of the flow rate from the frontal window opening and the minimization of the standard deviation of internal velocities, deeming to a homogeneousventilation rate inside the building block.

In the first step a CFD simulation study on the wind distribution inside and outside the building
block was performed, followed by wind tunnel velocity measurements that validated the
methodology and the k-ε turbulence model used.

In the DoE study, nine design points were generated and the produced response function revealed the estimated relationships and correlations of input and output parameters. The flow rate was more influenced by the window width, rather than the window height with correlation coefficients of 73.62% and 55.68% respectively, as compared to the standard deviation, for which the window height was the predominant factor of the response with a correlation coefficient of 96.94%, as opposed to 12.35% for the window width.

500 The robust assessment, performed by the Six Sigma Analysis, revealed a reliable curve-fitted model 501 and arising extrapolation errors due to unrepresentative samples' selection or sampling error were 502 small to make the analysis imprecise.

503 Finally, the multi-objective optimization highlighted three candidate points with the most favourable 504 behaviour for the improvement of indoor airflow conditions. Their verification was valuable, because 505 even if the deviation of the results was small, it was important to prove the accuracy of the 506 methodology.

# 507 **7. Conclusion**

The verified solution of the optimal design for the window opening indicated that improved indoor airflow condition inside the building block, as described by the ventilation rate and the airflow homogeneity, was obtained by a 0.046 m wide and 0.01 m height opening characteristics. It was also concluded that both dimensional parameters were influencing the design solution on a different level. Coupled CFD and optimizations techniques were found to be important tools for the analysis and evaluation of multiple parameters and responses, producing comparative results that may assist decision-making process towards improved (if not optimum) design solutions. Finally, it was deduced that the presented methodology can be successfully used in studies of the built environment, allowing users to select throughout a plethora of parameters that are relevant to the equivalent case study.

#### 518 8. References

- 519 [1]. N. P. Suh, The Principles of Design, vol. 226. Oxford University Press, 1990, p. 401.
- 520 [2]. X. Shen, G. Zhang, and B. Bjerg, "Investigation of response surface methodology for
  521 modelling ventilation rate of a naturally ventilated building," Building and Environment,
  522 vol. 54, pp. 174–185, 2012.
- 523 [3]. M. Hajdukiewicz, M. Geron, and M. M. Keane, "Calibrated CFD simulation to evaluate
  524 thermal comfort in a highly-glazed naturally ventilated room," Building and Environment,
  525 vol. 70, pp. 73–89, 2013.
- 526 [4]. S. Wang and D. Zhu, "Application of CFD in retrofitting air-conditioning systems in 527 industrial buildings," Energy and Buildings, vol. 35, no. 9, pp. 893–902, 2003.
- J. K. Calautit and B. R. Hughes, "Wind tunnel and CFD study of the natural ventilation
  performance of a commercial multi-directional wind tower," Building and Environment,
  vol. 80, pp. 71–83, 2014.
- 531 [6]. T. Zhang, H. Zhou, and S. Wang, "An adjustment to the standard temperature wall 532 function for CFD modeling of indoor convective heat transfer," Building and 533 Environment, vol. 68, pp. 159–169, 2013.
- 534 [7]. J. Srebric, V. Vukovic, G. He, and X. Yang, "CFD boundary conditions for contaminant 535 dispersion, heat transfer and airflow simulations around human occupants in indoor 536 environments," Building and Environment, vol. 43, no. 3, pp. 294–303, 2008.

- 537 [8]. S. Murakami, R. Ooka, A. Mochida, S. Yoshida, and Sangjin Kim, "CFD analysis of wind
  538 climate from human scale to urban scale," Journal of Wind Engineering and Industrial
  539 Aerodynamics, vol. 81, no. 1–3. pp. 57–81, 1999.
- 540 [9]. S. Kato, S. Murakami, A. Mochida, S. Akabayashi, and Y. Tominaga, "Velocity-pressure
  541 field of cross ventilation with open windows analyzed by wind tunnel and numerical
  542 simulation," Journal of Wind Engineering and Industrial Aerodynamics, vol. 44, no. 1–3.
  543 pp. 2575–2586, 1992.
- 544 [10]. C. R. Chu and B. F. Chiang, "Wind-driven cross ventilation in long buildings," Building 545 and Environment, vol. 80, pp. 150–158, 2014.
- 546 [11]. B. Blocken, "50 years of Computational Wind Engineering: Past, present and future,"
  547 Journal of Wind Engineering and Industrial Aerodynamics, vol. 129, pp. 69–102, 2014.
- 548 [12]. G. M. Stavrakakis, P. L. Zervas, H. Sarimveis, and N. C. Markatos, "Optimization of
  549 window-openings design for thermal comfort in naturally ventilated buildings," Applied
  550 Mathematical Modelling, vol. 36, no. 1, pp. 193–211, 2012.
- 551 [13]. X. Shen, G. Zhang, and B. Bjerg, "Assessments of experimental designs in response 552 surface modelling process: Estimating ventilation rate in naturally ventilated livestock 553 buildings," Energy and Buildings, vol. 62, pp. 570–580, 2013.
- 554 [14]. T. Norton, J. Grant, R. Fallon, and D. W. Sun, "Optimising the ventilation configuration 555 of naturally ventilated livestock buildings for improved indoor environmental 556 homogeneity," Building and Environment, vol. 45, no. 4, pp. 983–995, 2010.
- 557 [15]. T. W. Simpson, J. D. Poplinski, P. N. Koch, and J. K. Allen, "Metamodels for Computer558 based Engineering Design: Survey and recommendations," Engineering With Computers,
  559 vol. 17, no. 2. pp. 129–150, 2001.
- 560 [16]. H. Hotelling, "Experimental Determination of the Maximum of a Function," The Annals
  561 of Mathematical Statistics, vol. 12, no. 1, pp. 20–45, 1941.

- 562 [17]. M. Friedman; and L. J. Savage, "Planning Experiments Seeking Maxima," in Techniques
  563 of Statistical Analysis, M. H. and W. A. C. Eisenhart and Wallis, Eds. N.York-London:
  564 McGraw-Hill, 1947, pp. 363–72.
- 565 [18]. W. C. R. Myers, A. Khuri, "Response Methodology:," Technometrics, vol. 31, no. 2, pp.
  566 137–157, 1988.
- 567 [19]. G. E. P. Box and K. B. Wilson, "On the Experimental Attainment of Optimum 568 Conditions," Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 1–45, 1951.
- [20]. R. Fegade and V. Patel, "Unbalanced Response and Design Optimization of Rotor by
  ANSYS and Design of Experiments," International Journal of Scientific & Engineering
  Research, vol. 4, no. 7, pp. 1521–1535, 2013.
- 572 [21]. J. Plackett, R., Burman, "The Design of Optimum Multifactorial Experiments,"
  573 Biometrika, vol. 33, no. 4, pp. 305–325, 1946.
- 574 [22]. P. Mandloi and G. Verma, "Design Optimization of an in-Cylinder Engine Intake Port," in
  575 Nafems World Congress 2009, 2009.
- 576 [23]. K. C. Ng, K. Kadirgama, and E. Y. K. Ng, "Response surface models for CFD predictions 577 of air diffusion performance index in a displacement ventilated office," Energy and 578 Buildings, vol. 40, pp. 774–781, 2008.
- 579 [24]. P. Karava, T. Stathopoulos, and A. Athienitis, "Airflow assessment in cross-ventilated
  580 buildings with operable façade elements". Building and Environment, vol. 46, no 1,
  581 pp.266-279, 2011.
- 582 [25]. S. Driss, Z. Driss and I. Kallel Kammoun, 'Numerical simulation and wind tunnel
  583 experiments on wind-induced natural ventilation in isolated building with patio', Energy,
  584 vol. 90, pp. 917-925, 2015.

- 585 [26]. N. Wong and S. Heryanto, 'The study of active stack effect to enhance natural ventilation
  586 using wind tunnel and computational fluid dynamics (CFD) simulations', Energy and
  587 Buildings, vol. 36, no. 7, pp. 668-678, 2004.
- 588 [27]. M. Mora-Pérez, I. Guillén-Guillamón and P. López-Jiménez, 'Computational analysis of
  589 wind interactions for comparing different buildings sites in terms of natural ventilation',
  590 Advances in Engineering Software, vol. 88, pp. 73-82, 2015.
- 591 [28]. J. Song and X. Meng, 'The Improvement of Ventilation Design in School Buildings Using
   592 CFD Simulation', Procedia Engineering, vol. 121, pp. 1475-1481, 2015.
- 593 [29]. G. Carrilho da Graça, Q. Chen, L. R. Glicksman, and L. K. Norford, "Simulation of wind594 driven ventilative cooling systems for an apartment building in Beijing and Shanghai,"
  595 Energy and Buildings, vol. 34, no. 1, pp. 1–11, 2002.
- 596 [30]. S. Driss, Z. Driss and I. Kallel Kammoun, 'Impact of Shape of Obstacle Roof on the
  597 Turbulent Flow in a Wind Tunnel', American Journal of Energy Research, vol. 2, no. 4,
  598 pp. 90-98, 2014.
- [31]. L. James Lo, D. Banks and A. Novoselac, 'Combined wind tunnel and CFD analysis for
  indoor airflow prediction of wind-driven cross ventilation', Building and Environment,
  vol. 60, pp. 12-23, 2013.
- [32]. J. Calautit, and B. Hughes, "Measurement and prediction of the indoor airflow in a room
  ventilated with a commercial wind tower," Energy and Buildings, vol 84, pp.367-377,
  2014.
- [33]. J. Calautit, and B. Hughes, "Wind tunnel and CFD study of the natural ventilation
  performance of a commercial multi-directional wind tower", Building and Environment,
  80, pp.71-83, 2014.
- 608 [34]. Z. Q. Thai, W. Zhang, Z. Zhang, and Q. Y. Chen, "Evaluation of various turbulence 609 models in predicting airflow and turbulence in enclosed environments by CFD: part 1 -

- 610 Summary of prevalent turbulence models," HVAC & R Research, vol. 13, no. 6, pp. 853–
  611 870, 2007.
- 612 [35]. D. O'Connor, J. Calautit, and B. Hughes, "A study of passive ventilation integrated with
  613 heat recovery", Energy and Buildings, 82, pp.799-811, 2014.
- 614 [36]. R. Ramponi and B. Blocken, 'CFD simulation of cross-ventilation for a generic isolated
  615 building: Impact of computational parameters', Building and Environment, vol. 53, pp. 34616 48, 2012.
- 617 [37]. Q. Chen and J. Srebric, 'A Procedure for Verification, Validation, and Reporting of Indoor
  618 Environment CFD Analyses', HVAC&R Res., vol. 8, no. 2, pp. 201-216, 2002.
- 619 [38]. R. I. Bates, P. D., Lane, S. N. and Ferguson, Computational fluid dynamics. Chichester,
  620 UK: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd, 2005.
- [39]. J. K. Calautit, H. N. Chaudhry, B. R. Hughes, and L. F. Sim, "A validated design methodology for a closed-loop subsonic wind tunnel," Journal of Wind Engineering and Industrial Aerodynamics, vol. 125, pp. 180–194, 2014.
- [40]. F. Joerg, "Recommendations of the COST action C14 on the use of CFD in predicting
  pedestrian wind environment," Fourth International Symposium on Computational Wind
  Engineering, pp. 529–532, 2006.
- [41]. Bangalee, M., Miau, J., Lin, S. and Yang, J. "Flow visualization, PIV measurement and
  CFD calculation for fluid-driven natural cross-ventilation in a scale model". Energy and
  Buildings, vol 66, pp.306-314, 2013.
- 630 [42]. Myers, R., Montgomery, D. and Anderson-Cook, C. (2009). Response surface
  631 methodology. Hoboken, N.J.: Wiley.
- [43]. ANSYS, "Design Exploration, Release 12.1," no. November. ANSYS, Inc, Southpointe
  275 Technology Drive Canonsburg, PA 15317, 2009.
- 634 [44]. Borradaile, G. (2003). Statistics of earth science data. Berlin: Springer.

- 635 [45]. A. I. Khuri and S. Mukhopadhyay, "Response surface methodology," WIREs
  636 Computational Statistics, vol. 2, pp. 128–149, 2010.
- [46]. J. Cheng and Q. S. Li, "Application of the response surface methods to solve inverse
  reliability problems with implicit response functions," Computational Mechanics, vol. 43,
  pp. 451–459, 2009.