



UNICA IRIS Institutional Research Information System

This is the Author's accepted manuscript version of the following contribution:

Andrea Frattolillo, Luca Stabile^{*}, Marco Dell'Isola

Natural ventilation measurements in a multi-room dwelling: Critical aspects and comparability of pressurization and tracer gas decay tests

Journal of Building Engineering

Volume 42, 3 April 2021, 102478

The publisher's version is available at:

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2021.102478

When citing, please refer to the published version.

A. Frattolillo, L. Stabile, M. Dell'Isola - Natural ventilation measurements in a multi-room dwelling: Critical aspects and comparability of pressurization and tracer gas decay tests, Journal of Building Engineering, vol. 42 n. 102478, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2021.102478

<2021>. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <u>https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</u>

This full text was downloaded from UNICA IRIS https://iris.unica.it/

Natural ventilation measurements in a multi-room dwelling: Critical aspects and comparability of pressurization and tracer gas decay tests

Andrea Frattolillo¹, Luca Stabile^{2,*}, Marco Dell'Isola²

¹ Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering and Architecture, University of Cagliari, Cagliari, Italy

² Department of Civil and Mechanical Engineering, University of Cassino and Southern Lazio, Cassino, FR, Italy

10 * corresponding author: l.stabile@unicas.it

11 12

13

3 4

5 6 7

8

9

14 Abstract

15 Ventilation in built environments is essential to guarantee a good indoor air quality and a reduced probability 16 of infection related to virus transmission. Measuring ventilation-related parameters is not easy and currently 17 two methods can be adopted: pressurization and tracer gas decay. The pressurization test measures the 18 airtightness of the building, whereas the tracer gas decay test measures the actual (site- and climate-specific) 19 air exchange rate. Finding a relationship amongst the results provided by the two tests would be very useful 20 in view of an exhaustive characterization of the building ventilation, but it still remains an open challenge for 21 the scientific literature. The present paper aims at investigating the criticalities in correlating the two methods; 22 thus, an experimental campaign was performed in a multi-room dwelling performing both air permeability 23 and air ex- change rate measurements in the entire dwelling and in parts of it. A detailed uncertainty budget 24 of the two methods was also carried out in order to perform metrological compatibility analyses. 25 The results of the campaign highlighted that the actual air exchange rates of the dwelling present a huge 26 variability (from <0.2 to almost 1 h-1) due to the weather conditions. Consequently, the conversion factor be-

tween the air exchange rates at 50 Pa, provided by the blower door tests, and the actual air exchange rates,

28 obtained through the tracer gas decay tests, ranged from <20 to >100, with an exponential decrease as the

- wind velocity increases. Thus, adopting constant conversion factors could significantly overestimate the actualventilation of the building.
- 31

32 Keywords:

33 Blower door test, Tracer gas decay test, Pressurization test, Ventilation, Air exchange rate, Uncertainty budget

34 35

36 1. Introduction

37

The ventilation represents a key aspect in the building design as it is related to both energy saving and indoor air quality of built environments [1-11]. Indeed, the current inclination of the recent technical standards and regulations in the field of energy performances of buildings is reducing the energy losses as much as possible [12-25], then leading to even more airtight buildings aiming at minimizing the ventilation losses too.

- 42 Nonetheless, reducing the outdoor-to-indoor air exchange rates of built environments has led to worse indoor 43 air quality, i.e. made slower the exfiltration of indoor generated pollutants towards outdoors [26-29]. This is 44 even more true for countries characterized by temperate climates where ventilation mainly relies upon the 45 leakages of the building (natural ventilation) and the manual opening of the windows based on the air quality 46 perception of residents (manual airing), whereas no mechanical ventilation systems are typically adopted [12, 47 30-33]. The ventilation strategy of the buildings has recently gain popularity due to the COVID-19 pandemic, 48 in fact, a number of papers demonstrated the airborne transmission route of the virus [34-36], then confirming 49 the key role of increasing the air exchange rates to reduce the probability of infection indoors and, then, to 50 limit the spread of the pandemic [37-39]. 51 Knowing the ventilation rates of buildings would be extremely useful to perform both (i) proper estimates of 52 the energy consumption of the buildings and (ii) predictive risk assessments for people exposed to pollutants
- or infectious agents emitted indoors. As regards the energy consumption, actual values of ventilation rates would allow calculating the actual energy losses due to ventilation, which represent the main cause of energy losses in well insulated buildings [4,7,14,22]. Concerning the exposure to pollutants and infectious agents, and the related risk assessment, measured ventilation rate values would allow the estimate of indoor concentration of pollutants/infectious agent (if the pollutant emission rates of the source are known [38,40,41]) just adopting simplified mass balance equations; then, corresponding dose and risk could be evaluated adopting ad-hoc dosimetry and dose-response models [38,39,42-45].
- 60

61 1.1. Measurement of ventilation rates in buildings

62 Measuring the ventilation-related parameters of the building is not an easy task, indeed two different methods 63 can be adopted to characterize the ventilation of built environments (and both present pros and cons): the 64 pressurization method and the tracer gas decay method. The pressurization method (also known as Blower 65 Door Test, BDT) is actually a measurement of the airtightness of the building. It is defined by the technical 66 standard ISO 9972 [46], which allows to determine the ventilation rates through the building envelope under 67 a fixed indoor-outdoor pressure difference, which is higher than the natural pressure differences. Indeed, in 68 order to reduce possible artifacts related to the outdoor meteo-climatic conditions (e.g. wind), the 69 pressurization method provides an air exchange rate under an indoor-outdoor pressure difference of (typically) 70 50 Pa. Therefore, the BDT is a repeatable test which is able to characterize the airtightness of the buildings 71 and to classify them according to resulting quantities (e.g. the abovementioned air exchange rate at reference 72 pressure difference, the air leakage rate at the reference pressure difference referred to the building envelope 73 area or to the net floor area, etc.), however actual air exchange rates can hardly be derived from BDT data.

- 74 On the contrary, the tracer gas decay method, described by the standard ISO 12569 [47] allows to measure 75 the actual air exchange rate of a confined space (considered as a single-zone) as a function of the specific
- 76 meteo-climatic conditions of the measurement period. Indeed, buildings exposed to similar meteo-climatic
- 77 conditions may present strongly different indoor to outdoor pressure differences due to height, orientation,
- and shape of the buildings as well as to the presence of shields and the use of the openings (doors, windows).
- 79 The method is merely based on the measurement of the dilution rate of a tracer gas previously injected in the

closed environment. Unlike BDT, the tracer gas decay method is not repeatable by definition as it providesactual air exchange rates as a function of the specific measurement conditions [48,49].

82

83 *1.2. Research gaps and needs*

In view of estimating the actual ventilation rates of the buildings under different boundary conditions, e.g. different meteo-climatic conditions, correlating BDT results and actual air exchange rates from tracer gas decay tests would be crucial. Indeed, if a relationship between BDT and tracer gas results were determined, the actual air exchange rate as a function of the weather conditions could be determined a-priori just performing (i) a single pressurization test of the building to characterize its airtightness and (ii) measurements of site-specific weather conditions, which could easily be obtained from a local weather station, to gather information regarding wind direction and velocity at each moment.

91 Actually, a few number of scientific studies attempted to find a correlation between the air permeability and 92 air exchange rate results in order to provide simplified relationships (or conversion factors) to estimate the air 93 exchange rate of a building just using air permeability results provided by a single BDT [31,50–55]. The most 94 comprehensive attempt was carried out by Sherman [54] who derived a conversion factor map for the United 95 States considering the typical site climates of each area of the country, he estimated an annual conversion 96 factor of about 20 with (roughly ranging from 10 to 30). Similar ranges of con-version factors were then 97 obtained for European homes [50]. Nonetheless, such poorly differentiated conversion factors (in terms of 98 sites, averaging times, and weather conditions) remark that finding proper and detailed relationships between 99 blower door and tracer gas tests is still an open research question worthy of further investigations.

An additional aspect to be mentioned and investigated is the effect of the geometry of the zone tested; indeed, both pressurization and tracer gas decay methods can be carried out either in single rooms or in entire dwellings if building preparation and test constraints suggested by the standards are met (e.g. guaranteeing homogeneous tracer gas concentrations within the single zone under testing, sealing unexpected openings during the blower door test, etc.). Nonetheless, no particular indications about performing such tests in dwelling characterized by multiple rooms and complex dwelling layouts are provided.

106

107 *1.3. Aims of the work*

108 In view of the research gaps and needs mentioned above, in the present paper the two measurement methods 109 are discussed and the criticalities in correlating the results they provide are analyzed. To this end, an 110 experimental analysis was carried out on a private multi-room dwelling located in the Central Italy performing 111 both air permeability and air exchange rate measurements in the entire dwelling and in parts of it. In particular, 112 the specific novel aspects investigated in the paper are: (i) the evaluation of the airtightness gradients within 113 the building through blower door test performed in the entire buildings and in the single rooms separately, (ii) 114 the evaluation of the effect of the meteo- climatic conditions on the actual air exchange rates through tracer 115 gas decay tests under different weather conditions and for different rooms,

(iii) the estimate of a conversion factor between pressurization and tracer gas test results as a function of the meteo-climatic conditions. In order to properly compare the different measurement results a very detailed uncertainty budget of the two methods was also carried out.

- 119
- 120

121 2. Materials and methods

122 2.1. Site description

123 The experimental analysis was performed in a private multi-room dwelling located in the urban area of 124 Frosinone (Central Italy) in the period December 2018–February 2019. The dwelling is at the second floor of 125 a building built in the '70s whose walls are made up of hollow clay bricks-air gap-hollow clay bricks for a 126 total width of 45 cm. The building presents two facades: a South-West facade facing a wide square and a 127 (smaller) sheltered facade facing North-East. The dwelling, whose plant is reported in Fig. 1, has a floor area 128 of 135 m2 and a volume of 378 m3; it is made up of nine rooms, one main door, seven windows. The windows 129 are single glazed wooden windows which belong to the lowest air permeability class defined by the standard 130 EN 12207 [56]. No mechanical ventilation systems were installed in the buildings; thus, the ventilation just 131 relies upon the natural ventilation guaranteed by the air permeability of the building envelope and by manual 132 airing.

133

134 *2.2. Description of the tests*

135 In order to measure the air permeability and the actual air exchange rate of the dwellings/rooms, the following

tests (also summarized in Table 1) were performed:

a) one Blower Door Test of the entire dwelling to measure its air permeability;

b) five Blower Door Tests, one for each room with a window (hall & studio, kitchen & living room,
bathroom, single bedroom, double bedroom) to measure their air permeabilities;

- c) fifteen tracer gas decay tests for each room with a window (hall & studio, kitchen & living room,
 double bedroom) to measure their actual air exchange rates for the specific meteo-climatic conditions
 encountered at those very moments;
- d) three tracer gas decay tests of the entire dwelling (using two different sampling points) to measure its
 actual air exchange rate for the specific meteo-climatic conditions encountered at that very moment.
- 145
- 146



- 147 148
- 149
- 150

151 Table 1 - Summary of the tests performed during the experimental campaign

Test	Measurement method	Room under test	Notes	
а	Blower Door Test	Entire dwelling	1 measurement	
		- hall & studio (test b1)		
	Blower Door Test	- kitchen & living room (test b2)	1	
b		- bathroom (test b3)	each room	
		- single bedroom (test b4)		
		- double bedroom (test b5)		
	Tracer gas decay test	- hall & studio (test c1)		
с		- kitchen & living room (test c2)	for each room/test	
		- double bedroom (test c3)		
d	Tursen oos doory test	Entire dwelling, two sampling points placed in:		
		- kitchen & living room and double bedroom (test d1)	1 measurement for	
	Tracer gas decay lest	- kitchen & living room and hall & studio (test d2)	each test	
		- kitchen & living room and corridor (test d3)		

- 152
- 153
- 154 *2.2.1. Blower door tests*
- The air permeability of the dwelling/rooms (tests a) and b)) was measured through the pressurization test (i.e. BDT), described in the technical standard ISO 9972 [46], using the method known as "method 1", i.e. the test of the "building in use", which prescribes that the ventilation opening have to be closed (not sealed) and the whole building mechanical ventilation or air conditioning opening have to be sealed. In order to characterize the airtightness of the single rooms (test b), only the internal doors between rooms (if any, as occurring in
- 160 kitchen & living room and bathroom) were sealed.

161 The BDT is performed through a room pressurization/depressurization in order to provide the ventilation rates

162 through the envelope $(q_{env}, m^3 h^{-1})$ under a fixed indoor-outdoor pressure difference (Δp , Pa), which is higher

163 than the natural pressure differences. The pressure-flow relationships for the pressurization (q_{env_p}) and 164 depressurization (q_{env_d}) tests are calculated as:

165

$$166 \quad q_{env_p} = C_{env_p} \cdot \left(\frac{T_0}{T_{in}}\right)^{1-m_p} \cdot (\Delta p)^{m_p}$$

$$167 \quad q_{env_d} = C_{env_d} \cdot \left(\frac{T_0}{T_{out}}\right)^{1-m_d} \cdot (\Delta p)^{m_d}$$

$$(1)$$

168

where *m* and C_{env} are the air pressure exponents and the flow coefficients, respectively, estimated by means of a simple linear regression for pressurization and depressurization tests as reported in the ISO 9972 [46], *V* is the volume of the room under test, T_{in} and T_{out} are the indoor and outdoor average air temperature, T_0 is the absolute temperature at standard conditions. Equations (1) allow to calculate the air leakage rate, q_{50} , at a reference pressure difference of 50 Pa: then, the air exchange rate at 50 Pa for pressurization (n_{50_p}) and depressurization (n_{50_d}) tests are obtained dividing the q_{50} values $(q_{50_p}$ and $q_{50_d})$ by the room volume (Eq. (2)). Thus, the n_{50} of the room is calculated as average value of n_{50_p} and n_{50_d} :

176

$$\begin{array}{ll}
177 & n_{50_p} = C_{env_p} \cdot \left(\frac{T_0}{T_{in}}\right)^{1-m_p} \cdot \left(\frac{50\ Pa}{V}\right)^{m_p} \\
178 & n_{50_d} = C_{env_d} \cdot \left(\frac{T_0}{T_{out}}\right)^{1-m_d} \cdot \left(\frac{50\ Pa}{V}\right)^{m_d} \\
179 & n_{50} = \frac{n_{50_p} + n_{50_d}}{2}
\end{array} \tag{2}$$

180

181 The experimental apparatus used to perform BDTs includes: (i) an airproof fan at calibrated flow rates fitted 182 to the door by means of an extensible frame sealed into a door jamb allowing the measurement of pressure 183 differences (positive and negative); (ii) a flow rate regulation system producing indoor-outdoor pressure 184 differences by varying the fan speed; (iii) two primary elements for the flow rate measurement with an 185 uncertainty of about 3%; (iv) a digital micromanometer with an uncertainty of about 1 Pa, to measure the 186 pressure difference both indoor/outdoor and up/downstream to the primary element (in order to calculate the 187 flow rate); (v) a thermo-hygrometer for air temperature and humidity measurements with an uncertainty of 188 about 0.2 °C and 2%, respectively, to correct flow rates at standard conditions. Further details on the BDT 189 methodology are reported in our previous papers [29-31].

- The authors point out, once again, that the air permeability measurement does not provide directly information on the actual air exchange rate of the building/room, nonetheless, as mentioned above, a rough estimate of the air exchange rate can be obtained according the "rule of thumb" reported in the scientific literature, and quite acceptable for US buildings, which estimates the air exchange rate (n, h^{-1}) dividing the n_{50} value by a factor N (on average equal to 20, but varying from 10 to 30) [53-55]. The authors emphasize that the BDT of the entire dwelling provides an average airtightness of the zone
- 195 The autions emphasize that the BDT of the entire dwenning provides an average antightness of the zone 196 considered. Therefore, in the case of dwellings characterized by large volumes, and/or multiple rooms, and/or
- 197 complex dwelling layout, partial retrofit of walls and openings, the n_{50} value resulting from the BDT of the

- 198 entire dwelling cannot highlight possible airtightness gradients within the dwelling itself. In other words, the
- 199 BDT can just provide an average airtightness of the dwelling.
- 200 Therefore, in order to check for the effect of possible non-uniform airtightness of the dwelling, the n_{50} of the
- 201 entire dwelling obtained from the test a) was also compared to the n_{50} of the entire dwelling
- 202 obtained as room volume-weighted average (hereinafter reported as n_{50} w) on the basis of the n_{50} data of each
- room gathered from the test b).
- 204

205 2.2.2. Tracer gas decay tests

- The measurements of the actual air exchange rate of the dwelling/rooms were performed through the "single zone" tracer gas decay method according to the standard ISO 12569 [47]. The CO_2 was adopted as tracer gas; thus, a CO_2 tank was employed as source and mixing fans were used to homogenize the tracer gas concentration in the dwelling/room under investigation. CO_2 concentration measurements were performed through non-dispersive infrared analyzers (Testo ambient CO_2 probe; concentration range: 0-10000 ppm) with 1 s sampling frequency.
- Since CO_2 concentration in the room is uniform and no other CO_2 sources (such as people, combustion, chemical reactions) are present, the air exchange rate (*n*, h⁻¹) of the dwelling/room was determined according to the exponential decay equation [57]:
- 215

216
$$n = \frac{1}{\Delta t} \cdot \ln \frac{CO_2_peak-CO_2_out}{CO_2_final-CO_2_out}$$
(3)

217

where CO_{2-peak} , $CO_{2-final}$ and CO_{2-out} represent the initial peak, final, and outdoor CO_2 concentrations and Δt the time interval between CO_{2-peak} and $CO_{2-final}$. Outdoor CO_2 concentrations were also measured before and after the decay test through a further non-dispersive infrared sensor: CO_{2-out} here used represents the average value.

For the test c) (tracer gas decay test of the rooms) the measurements were performed keeping window of the room closed and sealing the internal doors in order to carry out an actual single-zone decay test (i.e. nullifying the flow rates between adjacent rooms); the CO_2 probe indoor was installed in the middle of the room not directly exposed to the source. The CO_2 concentration in the room was led to >2000 ppm, then the source and the fan were stopped and the concentration was measured continuously for about 2 h.

227 For the test d) (tracer gas decay test of the dwelling) the measurements were performed as described for the 228 abovementioned test c) and keeping all the internal doors open. Due to the high volume under investigation, 229 two measurement points were considered for each of the three tests. Thus, two identical ambient CO₂ probes 230 were used simultaneously. Two mixing fans were also used in order to improve the CO₂ concentration 231 uniformity within the entire dwelling. Different measurement points for the three tests were considered; in 232 particular, the two probes were installed in kitchen & living room and double bedroom for the test d1, in 233 kitchen & living room and hall & studio for the test d2, and in kitchen & living room and corridor for the test 234 d3 as summarized in Table 1.

- 235 Since the actual air exchange rate of the building/room is strongly affected by the meteo-climatic conditions, 236 wind direction and velocity data were gathered from a climate monitoring station near to the building under 237 investigation. On the contrary, previous studies showed that the effect of the indoor-outdoor temperature 238 differences was not significant with respect to the wind effect, thus indoor and outdoor temperatures were not 239 considered in the present experimental analysis [48]. The authors highlight that, in contrast to BDTs, the tracer 240 gas decay tests allow to evaluate possible non-uniform air exchange rates within the dwelling as a function of 241 such outdoor conditions. On the basis of the n_{50} values (test b) obtained from BDTs and the actual air exchange 242 rates (test c) obtained through the tracer gas decay tests, the n_{50}/n ratio for each room was evaluated and 243 compared to the factor N = 20.
- 244

245 2.3. Uncertainty budget

In order to compare the air permeability and actual air exchange data between the different rooms and the entire dwelling an uncertainty budget of the two measurement methods was carried out. Indeed, as an example, the metrological compatibility of the data, assessable as normalized error [58], can be evaluated only if the uncertainty of the data under comparison is carried out [59]. Thus, in the following sub-section the uncertainty budgets for BDTs and tracer gas decay tests were described.

251

252 2.3.1. Blower door test uncertainty budget

The uncertainty budget of the BDT allows to evaluated the n_{50} uncertainty value considering the relationship reported in equations (1) and (2). The uncertainties of n_{50_p} , n_{50_d} and, consequently, of n_{50} can be evaluated, according to the Guide to the Expression of Uncertainty in Measurement [59], and considering the uncertainty contributions uncorrelated, as:

257

258
$$u_{n_{50,p}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial n_{50,p}}{\partial V}\right)^{2} \cdot (u_{V})^{2} + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50,p}}{\partial C_{env,p}}\right)^{2} \cdot \left(u_{C_{env,p}}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50,p}}{\partial m_{p}}\right)^{2} \cdot \left(u_{m_{p}}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50,p}}{\partial T_{in}}\right)^{2} \cdot \left(u_{T_{in}}\right)^{2}}$$

$$259 \qquad u_{n_{50_d}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial n_{50_d}}{\partial V}\right)^2 \cdot (u_V)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50_d}}{\partial C_{env_d}}\right)^2 \cdot \left(u_{C_{env_d}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50_d}}{\partial m_p}\right)^2 \cdot \left(u_{m_d}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50_d}}{\partial T_{in}}\right)^2 \cdot \left(u_{T_{in}}\right)^2} \tag{4}$$

260
$$u_{n_{50}} = \sqrt{\left(u_{n_{50}p}\right)^2 + \left(u_{n_{50}d}\right)^2}$$

261

262 The uncertainty contributions of m ($u_{m p}$ and $u_{m d}$) and C_{env} ($u_{Cenv p}$ and $u_{Cenv d}$) were assessed through the 263 method suggested in the Annex C of the ISO 9972 standard [46]. In particular, the standard defines the method 264 to evaluate the confidence intervals of such quantities, then the corresponding standard uncertainties were 265 evaluated considering a Gaussian distribution of the values within such intervals. The authors point out that 266 m and C_{env} are obtained as a result of the regression of pressure difference and flow rate values measured 267 during pressurization and depressurization tests. Thus, the confidence intervals (and the resulting 268 uncertainties) of m and C_{env} include the type A and type B uncertainties of pressure differences and flow rates. 269 The uncertainty contributions of room volume (V) were gathered from the paper [31] where a detailed analysis

270 of the uncertainty contributions of the BDT was carried out. Finally, the uncertainty of the indoor and outdoor

271 air temperature (T_{in} and T_{out}) measurements were obtained from the metrological performances provided by

- 272 the instrument manufacturer (resulting in $\pm 3\%$ of measured value).
- Moreover, since the n_{50} of the entire dwelling obtained from the test a) was compared to the n_{50} of the entire dwelling obtained as room volume-weighted average evaluated from the n_{50} data of the rooms (test b), the

275 uncertainty of such volume-weighted average n_{50_w} value was determined in order to check the metrological 276 compatibility of the two measurements. The uncertainty of the room volume-weighted average n_{50} was 277 determined as:

278

279
$$u_{n_{50}w} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{5} \left[\left(\frac{\partial n_{50}w}{\partial n_{50i}} \right)^2 \cdot \left(u_{n_{50i}} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50}w}{\partial V_i} \right)^2 \cdot \left(u_{V_i} \right)^2 \right]}$$
(5)

280

where the *i*-th n_{50i} and V_i values represent the n_{50} and volume of the five different rooms tested in the test b. The uncertainty contribution of the volume can be considered reasonably insignificant with respect to the n_{50} one, thus the second term in the sum of eq. (5) can be considered negligible. The metrological compatibility of the n_{50} values of the entire dwelling obtained as measurement on the entire dwelling (test a) and room volume-weighted average of the rooms (test b) was checked through the normalized error *E*n defined in the ISO 10012 standard [58] as:

287

288
$$E_n = \frac{|n_{50} - n_{50_W}|}{\sqrt{(u_{n_{50}})^2 + (u_{n_{50_W}})^2}}$$
(6)

289

where U_{n50} and U_{n50_w} represent the expanded uncertainties of n_{50} values measured on the entire dwelling (test a) and calculated as room volume-weighted average, respectively; such expanded uncertainties are obtained multiplying the standard uncertainties (u_{n50} and u_{n50_w}) by the statistical cover factor k = 2 (confidence level 95%). The measurements were considered compatible for En < 1.

- 294
- 295 2.3.2. Tracer gas decay test uncertainty budget

The uncertainty budget of the tracer gas decay test allows to evaluate the *n* uncertainty value (u_n) considering the relationship reported in equation (3) and the error propagation laws of each parameter reported in such relationship. Thus, the uncertainties of *n* can be evaluated, according to the Guide to the Expression of Uncertainty in Measurement [59], as:

300

$$301 \quad u_{n} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_peak}} \end{pmatrix}^{2} \cdot \left(u_{CO_{2_peak}} \right)^{2} + \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_final}} \right)^{2} \cdot \left(u_{CO_{2_final}} \right)^{2} + \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_out}} \right)^{2} \cdot \left(u_{CO_{2_out}} \right)^{2} + \\ + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_peak}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_final}} \right) \cdot u_{CO_{2_peak}} \cdot u_{CO_{2_final}} \cdot r(CO_{2_peak}; CO_{2_final}) + \\ + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_peak}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_out}} \right) \cdot u_{CO_{2_peak}} \cdot u_{CO_{2_out}} \cdot r(CO_{2_peak}; CO_{2_out}) + \\ + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_final}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_out}} \right) \cdot u_{CO_{2_final}} \cdot u_{CO_{2_out}} \cdot r(CO_{2_final}; CO_{2_out}) + \\ + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_final}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial CO_{2_out}} \right) \cdot u_{CO_{2_final}} \cdot u_{CO_{2_out}} \cdot r(CO_{2_final}; CO_{2_out}) + \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

303 where the uncertainties of the CO₂ measurements (CO_{2-peak}, CO_{2-final}, CO_{2-out}) represent the uncertainties of the 304 CO₂ probes. Such uncertainties were evaluated on the basis of the data provided by the manufacturer in terms 305 of resolution (1 ppm), accuracy (± 50 ppm + 3% of measured value, provided at T = 295 K), and temperature 306 effect (\pm (T-295) × (2 ppm + 0.4% of measured value)/K), whereas the effects of static pressure and dew-point 307 were considered negligible [60]. In this case the effect of CO₂ measurement uncertainties (CO_{2-peak}, CO_{2-final}, 308 CO_{2-out}) cannot be considered uncorrelated, as they were performed with the same instruments; then, in the 309 evaluation of the uncertainty of n, the correlation factors amongst the three CO₂ values were considered. In 310 particular, we considered different correlation factors: i) $r (CO_{2-peak}, CO_{2-final}) = 0.8$, ii) $r(CO_{2-peak}, CO_{2-out}) =$ 311 0.5, iii) $r(CO_{2-\text{final}}, CO_{2-\text{out}}) = 0.5$. Finally, the uncertainty contribution of the time interval Δt was considered 312 negligible. The uncertainty budgets of n_{50} (test b) and n (test c) also allowed to evaluate the uncertainty of the 313 n_{50}/n ratio for each room as:

314

315
$$u_{n_{50}/n} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial n_{50}/n}{\partial n_{50}}\right)^2 \cdot \left(u_{n_{50}}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial n_{50}/n}{\partial n}\right)^2 \cdot (u_n)^2}$$
(8)

316317

318 **3. Results and discussions**

319 *3.1. BDT results*

320 In Table 2 the air permeability results, obtained from the BDTs performed on the dwelling (test a) and rooms 321 (test b), are reported in terms of air exchange rate at 50 Pa (n_{50}, h^{-1}) . The n_{50} measured for the entire building 322 was equal to 12.2 ± 2.3 h⁻¹, whereas the n_{50} values measured in the five rooms ranged from 13.6 ± 1.8 to 15.9323 \pm 4.1 h⁻¹. The main contributions to the overall uncertainty, summarized in Table 2, were due to the air pressure 324 exponents (m) and the flow coefficients (C_{env}), both >40% for almost all the rooms tested in both the 325 conditions (depressurization and pressurization); a minor contribution (<20% for most of the rooms) was due 326 to the uncertainty of the room volume, whereas the temperature contribution resulted negligible. The main 327 contribution to the uncertainty of m and Cenv was somehow expected since these values result from the 328 regression of the measured values of ventilation rates through the classroom envelope $(q_{env}, m^3 h^{-1})$ and indoor-329 outdoor pressure difference (Δp , Pa), thus they include both type A and B errors (e.g. due to the instruments 330 and to the user) of the measurement itself. Indeed, the authors point out that a possible contribution to q_{env} and 331 Δp (and then m and C_{env}) uncertainty is due to possible systematic errors on the measurand in conducting the 332 tests (installation effects), as an example, possible leakages through the BDT frame itself as well as through 333 unintentional micro-openings (e.g. ducts, electrical cables) could lead to unexpected infiltrations/exfiltrations 334 slightly overestimating the n_{50} value. This could explain the lower n_{50} value obtained for the entire building with respect to the single rooms, as well as the slightly higher n_{50} values for kitchen & living room and 335 336 bathroom, i.e. the rooms with multiple internal doors. A deeper investigation of the possible systematic errors 337 due to such installation effect could help to reduce such error and then the corresponding uncertainty of the 338 n_{50} data. Nonetheless, the n_{50} data of the rooms are quite similar, indeed the standard deviation of the five 339 values is about 1 h-1 (i.e. <10% of the mean value); thus, the slight room-by-room differences in air 340 permeability inside the dwelling can be considered negligible. In other words, the dwelling under investigation 341 does not present differences in terms of air permeability. This was somehow expected since the same type of 342 windows were installed in all the rooms and no partial retrofit of the dwelling were carried out over the years 343 (i.e. the type of construction was the same for all the rooms).

344 The En obtained when comparing the measured n_{50} value for the entire building (test a, 12.2 h-1) and that 345 calculated from the room volume-weighted average (n_{50} w, 14.9 h⁻¹) resulted <1; thus, the estimate of the air 346 permeability of a dwelling obtained as weighted average value from measurements performed in the 347 individual rooms are metrologically compatible. Moreover, averaging over the room data allows obtaining, as expected, a lower uncertainty for $n_{50 \text{ w}}$ (1.7 h⁻¹, that is 11%) with respect the test n_{50} of the entire building 348 349 (2.3 h⁻¹, that is 19%). Indeed, the average value reduces the contribution of larger uncertainties recognized in 350 some rooms, such as the kitchen & living room which accounts for 78% of the n_{50} w uncertainty due to its 351 largest volume and uncertainty. As mentioned above the slight larger n_{50} value of the building estimated on 352 the basis of the single room values, could be related to systematic installation errors leading to a slight 353 overestimate of the air permeability.

354 355

Table 2 – Results of n_{50} obtained from Blower Door Tests performed in the dwelling/ rooms investigated (test a and test b) and room volume-weighted average $(n_{50}w)$ calculated for the entire dwelling from the test b) results. Data are expressed as measured values \pm expanded uncertainty (U n_{50} and U $n_{50}w$, confidence level 95%). The weights of the ith uncertainty component (i.e. *V*, *T*, *m*, *C*_{env}) on the n_{50} uncertainty of the entire dwelling and of the rooms - evaluated as $(\partial n_{50}/\partial i)^2 \cdot (u_i)^2/(un_{50})^2$ - are also reported for pressurization (p) and depressurization (d) tests. The weights of the uncertainty of each room on the n_{50} value of the entire dwelling evaluated as room volume-weighted average ($n_{50}w$) are also summarized.

Test	Room tested	n50 (h ⁻¹)	weight of each uncertainty component (%)				
			$V(\mathbf{p}; \mathbf{d})$	<i>T</i> (p; d)	<i>m</i> (p; d)	C_{env} (p; d)	
a	Entire dwelling	12.2 ± 2.3	10%; 15%	<1%; <1%	9%; 37%	81%; 48%	
b1	hall & studio	13.8 ± 2.3	11%, 13%	<1%; <1%	44%; 42%	45%; 45%	
b2	kitchen & living room	15.9 ± 4.1	4%; 6%	<1%; <1%	52%; 41%	44%; 53%	
b3	bathroom	14.7 ± 1.9	52%; 7%	<1%; <1%	21%; 37%	27%; 56	
b4	single bedroom	13.6 ± 1.8	7%; 5%	<1%; <1%	40%; 41%	53%; 54%	
b5	double bedroom	15.4 ± 2.8	9%; 18%	<1%; <1%	42%; 37%	49%; 45%	
Calculated	Entire dwelling-room		weight of each room on the entire dwelling uncertainty (%):				
from test	volume weighted	14.9 ± 1.7	hall & studio = 10% ; kitchen & living room = 78% ;				
b results	average $(n_{50 \text{ w}})$		bathroom = 2% ; single bedroom = 2% ; double bedroom = 8%				

363

364

- 365 *3.2. Tracer gas decay test results*
- 366 *3.2.1. Single room tests*
- 367 In Table 3 the air exchange rates measured in the three rooms (test c1, hall & studio; test c2, kitchen & living
- 368 room; test c3, double bedroom) through the tracer gas decay test are reported.
- 369
- **Table 3** Actual air exchange rates (n, h^{-1}) measured in each room through the tracer gas decay test (test c) and estimated
- 371 n_{50}/n ratios: data are expressed as measured value \pm expanded uncertainty (confidence level 95%). Wind conditions
- during the tests are also summarized, in particular, wind velocity, prevalent direction,
- and wind velocity component (u) perpendicular to the windows are reported.

Test	Room tested	Wind velocity (m/s) and prevalent direction	Wind velocity component <i>u</i> (m/s)	<i>n</i> (h ⁻¹)	n_{50}/n ratio	
		1.4 m/s; S-SE	0.5 m/s	0.31±0.06	43.9±10.7	
		3.3 m/s; E	3.3 m/s	$0.44{\pm}0.07$	31.5±7.3	
		3.4 m/s; NE-SE	2.4 m/s	$0.42{\pm}0.06$	32.8±7.0	
		1.0 m/s; SW	0.9 m/s	$0.46{\pm}0.07$	29.8±6.6	
		2.1 m/s; S-SE	0.8 m/s	$0.49{\pm}0.07$	28.1±6.3	
		2.4 m/s; E-SE	1.9 m/s	0.25 ± 0.05	54.5±14.2	
c1	hall & studio	2.4 m/s; E-SE	1.9 m/s	$0.59{\pm}0.08$	23.4±5.0	
		1.3 m/s; W-SW	1.2 m/s	$0.70{\pm}0.11$	19.7±4.7	
		1.5 m/s; E-SE	1.2 m/s	0.27 ± 0.05	51.1±13.1	
		1.5 m/s; N-E	1.1 m/s	$0.14{\pm}0.03$	100.6±27.4	
		1.5 m/s; N	0.3 m/s	$0.29{\pm}0.05$	47.6±11.0	
		1.5 m/s; S-SW	0.8 m/s	$0.34{\pm}0.05$	40.7±9.3	
		2.6 m/s; SW	2.1 m/s	$0.27{\pm}0.05$	50.3±12.0	
		1.3 m/s; S-SE	0.5 m/s	0.31 ± 0.06	51.9±16.7	
		5.7 m/s; S-SE	2.2 m/s	0.69 ± 0.11	22.9±7.0	
		4.4 m/s; S-E	3.1 m/s	$0.54{\pm}0.07$	29.3±8.5	
	kitchen & living room	1.4 m/s; E-SE	1.2 m/s	0.68 ± 0.09	23.3±6.8	
		1.5 m/s; S-E	1.1 m/s	$0.84{\pm}0.14$	18.9±5.9	
~?		1.6 m/s; S-SE	0.6 m/s	0.56 ± 0.10	28.2 ± 8.8	
C2		1.3 m/s; S-SW	0.7 m/s	0.90 ± 0.14	17.7±5.4	
		1.6 m/s; W-SE	1.3 m/s	0.30 ± 0.05	53.0±16.6	
		1.6 m/s; S-SE	0.6 m/s	0.26 ± 0.05	62.1±20.1	
		2.6 m/s; S-NW	1.0 m/s	0.22 ± 0.04	71.4±22.6	
		1.3 m/s; W-SE	1.0 m/s	0.33 ± 0.06	48.1±15.1	
		2.6 m/s; SE-SW	1.8 m/s	$0.50{\pm}0.08$	31.8±9.7	
	double bedroom	6.5 m/s; N-NW	2.5 m/s	0.96 ± 0.13	16.0 ± 3.6	
		3.4 m/s; NW-NE	2.4 m/s	0.30 ± 0.03	51.1 ± 10.4	
		1.5 m/s; W	1.5 m/s	0.73 ± 0.11	21.2 ± 5.0	
		1.6 m/s; W	1.6 m/s	0.33 ± 0.04	47.1±9.9	
		1.7 m/s; W	1.7 m/s	0.42 ± 0.05	36.5 ± 8.0	
		1.5 m/s; S-SW	0.8 m/s	0.21 ± 0.04	72.0±17.6	
c3		0.5 m/s; NE	0.4 m/s	0.18 ± 0.04	85.9 ± 22.9	
		1.5 m/s; E	1.5 m/s	0.21 ± 0.04	74.8±19.2	
		1.0 m/s; E	1.0 m/s	0.16±0.03	94.7±25.0	
		3.1 m/s; N	0.6 m/s	0.17±0.03	93.3±23.2	
		5.4 m/s; NW	2.9 m/s	0.48 ± 0.06	32.4±7.1	
		3.6 m/s; N-NW	1.4 m/s	0.24 ± 0.04	63.6 ± 15.0	
		1.6 m/s; S-SW	0.9 m/s	0.33 ± 0.06	47.2±12.0	

375

376 Due to measurement issues (i.e. malfunction of CO₂ probe and/or unavailability of meteo-climatic data) the

377 remaining valid measurements for hall & studio, kitchen & living room, and double bedroom were 13, 12 and

- 378 13 (with respect to the fifteen performed), respectively. The data present a huge variability likely depending 379 on the different outdoor wind conditions: indeed, *n* ranged from 0.31 ± 0.06 h⁻¹ and 0.70 ± 0.11 h⁻¹ for hall & studio, from 0.22 ± 0.04 h⁻¹ and 0.90 ± 0.14 h⁻¹ for kitchen & living room, and from 0.16 ± 0.03 h⁻¹ and 0.96380 381 ± 0.13 h⁻¹ for double bedroom. The effect of the wind direction and velocity is clearly recognizable in Fig. 2 382 where the air exchange rates measured in the different rooms (and the corresponding expanded uncertainties) 383 as a function of the wind velocity component (u) perpendicular to the window are reported. The trend shows 384 an exponential increase of the ventilation (in particular for test c1 and c2) as the face velocity of the wind on 385 the windows increase. The uncertainty of the *n* values obtained through the tracer gas decay test according to 386 the approach described in section 2.3.2 ranged from 10% to 21%; such variability is mainly due to the different 387 CO₂ concentrations levels measured during the decay tests, as clearly stated by eq. (7), indeed, as expected, 388 for lower CO_{2-peak} and CO_{2-final} concentrations higher uncertainties were obtained [61]. A detailed discussion 389 of the uncertainty results of each tracer gas decay test is not reported for the sake of brevity.
- The ratio between the n_{50} values obtained through the blower door test and the actual air exchange rates here presented clearly demonstrates that the "rule of thumb" reported in the scientific literature to estimate the annual average air exchange rate (i.e. dividing the n_{50} by a factor N = 20) [53-55] would fail by a large amount in the specific case study here presented. Indeed, the n_{50}/n ratio resulted in the ranges $19.7 \pm 4.7 \div 100.6 \pm$ 27.4 for hall & studio, $17.7 \pm 5.4 \div 71.4 \pm 22.6$ for kitchen & living room, and $16.0 \pm 3.6 \div 94.7 \pm 25.0$ for double bedroom. The suggested value of 20 doesn't even fall within the uncertainties of the n_{50}/n ratios, despite such uncertainty is quite high (20% to 32%).
- 397



Fig. 2. - Air exchange rates measured for test c3 in the double bedroom as a function of the wind velocity component
(u) perpendicular to the window. Expanded uncertainties of the air exchange rates are also reported.

401



Fig. 3. – Ratios between the n_{50} values obtained through the blower door test and the actual air exchange rates *n* measured through the tracer gas decay tests (n_{50}/n) as a function of the component of the wind velocity perpendicular to the windows (u). All the tests performed in all the rooms are reported. Minimum (min), maximum (max) and average (avg) fitting curves are also reported.

402

408

409 Thus, the "rule of thumb" relationship would strongly overestimate the actual air exchange rates of the rooms 410 and the exfiltration of indoor-generated pollutants or infectious agents as well, thus, in case of risk assessment, 411 adopting such "rule of thumb" relationship would strongly underestimate the risk of exposed population. Such 412 an overestimate of the air exchange rate is expected to be due to the outdoor microclimatic conditions, in 413 particular wind velocity and direction. To this end in Fig. 3 the n_{50}/n ratios evaluated for the three rooms under 414 investigation (and the corresponding expanded uncertainties) are reported as a function of the wind velocity 415 component (u) perpendicular to the windows (both the those facing east and west). The figure clearly shows 416 that as the wind velocity increases a significative reduction of the n_{50}/n ratio was observed, nonetheless, the 417 expected value of N = 20 is not reached also at highest wind velocities occurring during the tests. The n_{50}/n 418 data can be included in area of the graph defined by maximum and minimum fitting curves; in particular, an 419 exponential decrease of the n_{50}/n ratios with respect to the velocity component u is recognizable for u higher 420 than 1 m/s, whereas, a roughly constant trend was recognized at lower u. For the dwelling under investigation, 421 the minimum and maximum constant values for u < 1 m/s (named A0 in the figure) were set at 16 and 104, 422 respectively (average value 59); while the minimum and maximum asymptotic values (named A2 in the 423 figure) were set at 15 and 25, respectively (average value 20). The authors point out that such relationship is 424 specific of the dwelling under investigation and that providing a proper and transferable relationship between 425 n_{50}/n and wind velocity and direction is behind the scope of this paper. Nonetheless, future developments of 426 the study should be focused on this aspect, in particular, different dwelling characterized by different types of 427 windows, types of construction, floor level should be considered and analyzed under different wind 428 conditions. This could lead to a more detailed evaluation of the n_{50}/n ratio with respect to that provided by 429 Sherman [54] for the United States. The authors also highlight that the measurements here shown were 430 performed over a limited period of the year (Dec 2018–Feb 2019), thus, the results are specific of the meteo-431 climatic conditions occurring in that period. Nonetheless, on the basis of the archives of meteo-climatic data 432 recorded by the weather station, the annual average wind velocity component (u) perpendicular to the 433 windows was slightly lower than 2 m/s; thus, the annual average n_{50}/n ratio is expected to be much larger than 434 20 as well.

435

436 *3.2.2. Entire dwelling*

In Table 4 the results of the test d (tracer gas decay test of the entire dwelling through measurements in two different sampling points) are summarized. In particular, the air temperature and the CO_2 peak concentrations measured by the two probes during the test are reported along with the actual air exchange rates determined according to eq. (3). The tests were carried out under homogeneous temperature and CO_2 peak concentrations, indeed the normalized errors of the CO_2 peak concentrations in the two rooms were <1 for each test, moreover the peaks of the two rooms occurred simultaneously as clearly shown in Fig. 4, then confirming the CO_2 uniform distribution in the dwelling.

444

445Table 4 - Air temperatures, wind conditions, CO_2 peak concentrations and actual air exchange rates measured during the446test d in the two sampling points considered. Air temperatures are expressed as mean \pm standard deviation in order to447show the stability during the test, whereas CO_2 peak concentrations and actual air exchange rates are reported as448measured value \pm expanded uncertainty.

Test	Wind velocity (m/s) and	ity Air temperature during the test (°C)		CO _{2-peak} (ppm)		Actual air exchange rate, n (h ⁻¹)	
Test	prevalent	Sampling	Sampling	Sampling	Sampling	Sampling	Sampling
	direction	point 1	point 2	point 1	point 2	point 1	point 2
d1	2.06 m/s; S	17.7±0.3	18.0 ± 0.1	2558±176	2319±168	0.33 ± 0.05	0.16 ± 0.03
d2	2.36 m/s; SE	19.4 ± 0.1	19.6 ± 0.2	3349±203	3304±201	0.15 ± 0.02	$0.24{\pm}0.02$
d3	1.56 m/s; N-S	12.7±0.1	12.9±0.1	2297±167	2148±161	0.13 ± 0.03	0.16 ± 0.03

- 449
- 450

451 Nonetheless, even if the measurements were carried out under homogeneous temperature and CO₂ conditions, 452 the air exchange rates measured at the two different sampling points may differ significantly. In particular, 453 when the sampling points are placed in two rooms both with windows (tests d1 and d2) the air exchange rates 454 in the two rooms differ more than 1.5-fold (*n* equals to 0.33 vs. 0.16 h^{-1} for test d1, and 0.15 vs. 0.24 h^{-1} for 455 test d2). On the contrary, the air exchange rates measured during the test d3 in the kitchen & living room and 456 corridor resulted quite similar, this could be due to the fact that the air exchange rate in the corridor is less 457 effected by the windows and, maybe, by the lower wind velocity. The results here obtained point out that even 458 when a uniform concentration in the rooms is achieved, e.g. through appropriate mixing devices as suggested 459 by the standard ISO 12569 [47], air exchange rate gradients within the dwelling can occur. Such gradients can 460 just be recognized using multiple probes, likely as a function of the size and the subdivision of the dwelling; this aspect is actually not considered in the standard and further scientific investigations should be carried out.
Specifically, experimental analyses considering a higher number of measurements, including different outdoor conditions, and with more probes within the dwelling should be designed in order to carry out detailed analyses of the effect of the outdoor conditions on the air exchange rate gradients.

465



466

Fig. 4. - CO₂ trends measured during the test d (measurement of the decay rate of the entire dwelling) by the two probes
placed in two different sampling points within the dwelling. CO₂ data are here graphed as 5-min average values. The
error bars represent the expanded uncertainty of the CO₂ probes.

- 470
- 471

472 4. Conclusions

473 This study was carried out in order to provide an insight into the two main measurement methods of building 474 ventilation-related parameters, i.e. blower door test and tracer gas decay test, and to determine their 475 comparability. To this end an experimental campaign was carried out on a multi-room dwelling in Italy where 476 blower door tests and tracer gas decay tests were performed in the entire dwelling and parts of it (i.e. single 477 rooms). Moreover, to assess the comparability of the tests, uncertainty budgets of the two methods were also 478 carried out. The results of the study demonstrated that, even when the airtightness of the dwelling is uniform 479 (as obtained from the blower door tests performed in each room), the actual air exchange rates of the dwelling 480 present a huge variability (from <0.2 to almost 1 h⁻¹) likely depending on the different outdoor wind 481 conditions. In particular, an exponential increase of the actual air exchange rate was obtained as a function of 482 the face velocity of the wind on the windows. As a consequence, the ratio between the air exchange rates at 483 50 Pa (n_{50}) provided by the blower door tests and the actual air exchange rates (*n*) obtained through the tracer 484 gas decay test presented huge variability as well, ranging from <20 up to >100. Thus, the widely accepted 485 "rule of thumb" suggesting a constant conversion factor of 20 could be extremely misleading as it would 486 overestimate the air exchange rate. To this end, the authors strongly suggest avoiding the use of a constant

487	conversion factor to evaluate the actual air exchange rate but rather adopting an exponential relationship as a					
488	function of the component of the wind velocity perpendicular to the windows.					
489						
490	Authors' statement					
491	Andrea Frattolillo: Methodology, Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Writing-Reviewing and Editing:					
492	Luc	a Stabile: (Corresponding Author): Conceptualization, Methodology, Data curation, Formal analysis,				
493	Oria	zinal draft preparation:				
494	Mar	co Dell'Isola: Conceptualization, Methodology, Supervision, Writing-Reviewing and Editing				
195	1,141	ee Den norm Conceptualization, mentodology, Super mion, "mang net to mig and Dataing.				
406	Dee	levetion of commuting interest				
490	Dec					
497	I he	authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could				
498	hav	e appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.				
499						
500						
501	Ref	erences				
502	[1]	K. Akbari, R. Oman, Impacts of heat recovery ventilators on energy savings and indoor radon level, Manag.				
503		Environ. Qual. Int. J. 24 (2013) 682-694, https://doi.org/10.1108/MEQ-06-2012-0050.				
504	[2]	H.B. Awbi, Ventilation for good indoor air quality and energy efficiency, Energy Procedia 112 (2017) 277-286,				
505		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2017.03.1098.				
506	[3]	M. Gil-Baez, À. Barrios-Padura, M. Molina-Huelva, R. Chacartegui, Natural ventilation systems in 21st-century				
507		for near zero energy school buildings, Energy 137 (2017) 1186–1200,				
508		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2017.05.188.				
509	[4]	G. Guyot, M.H. Sherman, I.S. Walker, Smart ventilation energy and indoor air quality performance in residential				
510		buildings: a review, Energy Build. 165 (2018) 416–430, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2017.12.051</u> .				
511	[5]	A. Hesaraki, J.A. Myhren, S. Holmberg, Influence of different ventilation levels on indoor air quality and energy				
512		savings: a case study of a single-family house, Sustainable Cities and Society 19 (2015) 165–172,				
513	[(]]	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scs.2015.08.004.				
514	[6]	W.W. Nazaroff, Residential air-change rates: a critical review, Indoor Air (2021), $h_{\rm eff} = 10.1111/(-1.12785)$				
515	[7]	nups://doi.org/10.1111/ma.12/85 n/a.				
510	[/]	L. Stable, G. Buohanno, A. Frattonno, M. Den Isola, The effect of the ventilation retront in a school on CO2,				
518		https://doi.org/10.1016/i.buildeny.2019.04.001				
519	[8]	L Stabile A Massimo I Canale A Russi A Andrade M Dell'Isola The effect of ventilation strategies on				
520	[0]	indoor air quality and energy consumptions in classrooms. Buildings 9 (2019)				
521		https://doi.org/10.3390/buildings9050110				
522	[9]	E. Zender, 'Swiercz, Improvement of indoor air quality by way of using decentralised ventilation. J.Build Eng 32				
523	L~]	(2020) 101663, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2020.101663.				
524	[10]	W.J. Trompetter, M. Boulic, T. Ancelet, J.C. Garcia-Ramirez, P.K. Davy, Y. Wang, R. Phipps, The effect of				
525	г J	ventilation on air particulate matter in school classrooms, J.Build Eng 18 (2018) 164–171,				
526		https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2018.03.009.				

- 527 [11] H.S. Ganesh, K. Seo, H.E. Fritz, T.F. Edgar, A. Novoselac, M. Baldea, Indoor air quality and energy management
 528 in buildings using combined moving horizon estimation and model predictive control, J.Build Eng 33 (2021)
 529 101552, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2020.101552.
- [12] S. Attia, P. Eleftheriou, F. Xeni, R. Morlot, C. M'en'ezo, V. Kostopoulos, M. Betsi, I. Kalaitzoglou, L. Pagliano,
 M. Cellura, M. Almeida, M. Ferreira, T. Baracu, V. Badescu, R. Crutescu, J.M. Hidalgo-Betanzos, Overview and
 future challenges of nearly zero energy buildings (nZEB) design in Southern Europe, Energy Build. 155 (2017)
 439–458, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2017.09.043.
- 534 [13] D. D'Agostino, L. Mazzarella, What is a Nearly zero energy building? Overview, implementation and
 535 comparison of definitions, J.Build Eng 21 (2019) 200–212, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2018.10.019.
- 536 [14] D. D'Agostino, L. Mazzarella, Data on energy consumption and Nearly zero energy buildings (NZEBs) in
 537 Europe, Data in Brief 21 (2018) 2470–2474, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dib.2018.11.094</u>.
- 538 [15] European Parliament and Council of the European Union, Directive 2010/31/EU of the European Parliament and
 539 of the Council of 19 May 2010 on the Energy Performance of Buildings, recast, 2010.
- [16] X. Xu, Q.-S. Jia, Z. Xu, B. Zhang, X. Guan, On joint control of heating, ventilation, and air conditioning and
 natural ventilation in a meeting room for energy saving, Asian J. Contr. 18 (2016) 1781–1804,
 https://doi.org/10.1002/asjc.1260.
- 543 [17] B. Simanic, B. Nordquist, H. Bagge, D. Johansson, Indoor air temperatures, CO2 concentrations and ventilation
 544 rates: long-term measurements in newly built low energy schools in Sweden, J.Build Eng 25 (2019) 100827,
 545 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2019.100827</u>.
- 546 [18] C. Heracleous, A. Michael, Experimental assessment of the impact of natural ventilation on indoor air quality and
 547 thermal comfort conditions of educational buildings in the Eastern Mediterranean region during the heating
 548 period, J.Build Eng 26 (2019) 100917, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2019.100917.
- 549 [19] T. Kalm'ar, F. Kalm'ar, Investigation of natural aeration in home offices during the heating season case study,
 550 J.Build Eng 35 (2021) 102052, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2020.102052</u>.
- 551 [20] A. Franco, F. Leccese, Measurement of CO2 concentration for occupancy estimation in educational buildings
 552 with energy efficiency purposes, J.Build Eng 32 (2020) 101714, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2020.101714</u>.
- 553 [21] G. Litti, A. Audenaert, M. Lavagna, Life cycle operating energy saving from windows retrofitting in heritage
 buildings accounting for technical performance decay, J.Build Eng 17 (2018) 135–153,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jobe.2018.02.006.
- L. Canale, M. Dell'Isola, G. Ficco, B. Di Pietra, A. Frattolillo, Estimating the impact of heat accounting on Italian
 residential energy consumption in different scenarios, Energy Build. 168 (2018) 385–398,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2018.03.040.
- L. Canale, M. Dell'Isola, G. Ficco, T. Cholewa, S. Siggelsten, I. Balen, A comprehensive review on heat
 accounting and cost allocation in residential buildings in EU, Energy Build. 202 (2019) 109398,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2019.109398.
- 562 [24] M. Dell'Isola, G. Ficco, F. Arpino, G. Cortellessa, L. Canale, A novel model for the evaluation of heat accounting
 563 systems reliability in residential buildings, Energy Build. 150 (2017) 281–293,
 564 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enbuild.2017.06.007.
- 565 [25] M. Dell'Isola, G. Ficco, L. Canale, B.I. Palella, G. Puglisi, An IoT integrated tool to enhance user awareness on
- energy consumption in residential buildings, Atmosphere 10 (2019), <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/atmos10120743</u>.

- 567 [26] N. Canha, C. Mandin, O. Ramalho, G. Wyart, J. Rib'eron, C. Dassonville, O. H"anninen, S.M. Almeida, M.
 568 Derbez, Assessment of ventilation and indoor air pollutants in nursery and elementary schools in France, Indoor
 569 Air 26 (2016) 350–365, https://doi.org/10.1111/ina.12222.
- 570 [27] W.R. Chan, S. Parthasarathy, W.J. Fisk, T.E. McKone, Estimated effect of ventilation and filtration on chronic
 571 health risks in U.S. offices, schools, and retail stores, Indoor Air (2015), <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/ina.12189</u>.
- 572 [28] A. Pacitto, F. Amato, T. Moreno, M. Pandolfi, A. Fonseca, M. Mazaheri, L. Stabile, G. Buonanno, X. Querol,
 573 Effect of ventilation strategies and air purifiers on the children's exposure to airborne particles and gaseous
 574 pollutants in school gyms, Sci. Total Environ. 712 (2020) 135673,
- 575 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.135673</u>.
- 576 [29] L. Stabile, M. Dell'Isola, A. Frattolillo, A. Massimo, A. Russi, Effect of natural ventilation and manual airing on
 577 indoor air quality in naturally ventilated Italian classrooms, Build. Environ. 98 (2016) 180–189,
 578 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2016.01.009</u>.
- 579 [30] F.R. d'Ambrosio Alfano, M. Dell'Isola, G. Ficco, B.I. Palella, G. Riccio, Experimental air-tightness analysis in
 580 mediterranean buildings after windows retrofit, Sustainability (Switzerland) (2016) 8,
 581 https://doi.org/10.3390/su8100991.
- 582 [31] F.R. d'Ambrosio Alfano, M. Dell'Isola, G. Ficco, F. Tassini, Experimental analysis of air tightness in
 583 Mediterranean buildings using the fan pressurization method, Build. Environ. 53 (2012) 16–25,
 584 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2011.12.017.
- [32] P.V. Dorizas, M.-N. Assimakopoulos, C. Helmis, M. Santamouris, An integrated evaluation study of the
 ventilation rate, the exposure and the indoor air quality in naturally ventilated classrooms in the Mediterranean
 region during spring, Sci. Total Environ. 502 (2015) 557–570, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2014.09.060.
- [33] A. Pacitto, L. Stabile, L. Morawska, M. Nyarku, M.A. Torkmahalleh, Z. Akhmetvaliyeva, A. Andrade, F.H.
 Dominski, P. Mantecca, W.H. Shetaya, M. Mazaheri, R. Jayaratne, S. Marchetti, S.K. Hassan, A. El-Mekawy, E.
 F. Mohamed, L. Canale, A. Frattolillo, G. Buonanno, Daily submicron particle doses received by populations
 living in different low- and middle-income countries, Environ. Pollut. 269 (2021) 116229,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.116229.
- [34] A.C. Fears, W.B. Klimstra, P. Duprex, A. Hartman, S.C. Weaver, K.C. Plante, D. Mirchandani, J.A. Plante, P.V.
 Aguilar, D. Fern'andez, A. Nalca, A. Totura, D. Dyer, B. Kearney, M. Lackemeyer, J.K. Bohannon, R. Johnson,
 R.F. Garry, D. S. Reed, C.J. Roy, Comparative Dynamic Aerosol Efficiencies of Three Emergent Coronaviruses
- and the Unusual Persistence of SARS-CoV-2 in Aerosol Suspensions, MedRxiv, 2020, p. 2020,
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.04.13.20063784</u>.
- 598 [35] L. Morawska, J. Cao, Airborne transmission of SARS-CoV-2: the world should face the reality, Environ. Int. 139
 599 (2020) 105730, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2020.105730.
- [36] N. van Doremalen, T. Bushmaker, D.H. Morris, M.G. Holbrook, A. Gamble, B. N. Williamson, A. Tamin, J.L.
 Harcourt, N.J. Thornburg, S.I. Gerber, J.O. Lloyd-Smith, E. de Wit, V.J. Munster, Aerosol and surface stability of
 SARS-CoV-2 as compared with SARS-CoV-1, N. Engl. J. Med. 382 (2020) 1564–1567,
- 603 <u>https://doi.org/10.1056/NEJMc2004973</u>.
- 604 [37] G. Buonanno, L. Stabile, L. Morawska, Estimation of airborne viral emission: quanta emission rate of SARS-
- 605 CoV-2 for infection risk assessment, Environ. Int. 141 (2020) 105794, 606 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2020.105794
- 606 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2020.105794</u>.

- 607 [38] G. Buonanno, L. Morawska, L. Stabile, Quantitative assessment of the risk of airborne transmission of SARS608 CoV-2 infection: prospective and retrospective applications, Environ. Int. 145 (2020) 106112,
 609 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2020.106112.
- [39] S.L. Miller, W.W. Nazaroff, J.L. Jimenez, A. Boerstra, G. Buonanno, S.J. Dancer, J. Kurnitski, L.C. Marr, L.
 Morawska, C. Noakes, Transmission of SARS-CoV-2 by inhalation of respiratory aerosol in the Skagit Valley
- 612 Chorale superspreading event, Indoor Air (2020), https://doi.org/10.1111/ina.12751 n/a.
- [40] L. Stabile, G. De Luca, A. Pacitto, L. Morawska, P. Avino, G. Buonanno, Ultrafine particle emission from floor
 cleaning products, Indoor Air (2020), https://doi.org/10.1111/ina.12713 n/a.
- [41] L. Stabile, M. Scungio, G. Buonanno, F. Arpino, G. Ficco, Airborne particle emission of a commercial 3D
- 616 printer: the effect of filament material and printing temperature, Indoor Air 27 (2017) 398–408,
 617 <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/ina.12310</u>.
- [42] T. Hussein, A. Wierzbicka, J. L"ondahl, M. Lazaridis, O. H"anninen, Indoor aerosol modeling for assessment of
 exposure and respiratory tract deposited dose, Atmos. Environ. 106 (2015) 402–411,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.07.034.
- [43] T. Moreno, R.M. Pint'o, A. Bosch, N. Moreno, A. Alastuey, M.C. Minguill'on, E. Anfruns-Estrada, S. Guix, C.
 Fuentes, G. Buonanno, L. Stabile, L. Morawska, X. Querol, Tracing surface and airborne SARS-CoV-2 RNA
- 623 inside public buses and subway trains, Environ. Int. 147 (2021) 106326,
- 624 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2020.106326</u>.
- [44] C. Ribalta, A.J. Koivisto, A. Salmatonidis, A. L'opez-Lilao, E. Monfort, M. Viana, Modeling of high nanoparticle
 exposure in an indoor industrial scenario with a one-box model, Int. J. Environ. Res. Publ. Health 16 (2019),
 https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph16101695.
- [45] M. Scungio, T. Vitanza, L. Stabile, G. Buonanno, L. Morawska, Characterization of particle emission from laser
 printers, Sci. Total Environ. 586 (2017) 623–630, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.02.030</u>.
- [46] International Organization for Standardization, ISO 9972 Thermal Performance of Buildings Determination of
 Air Permeability of Buildings Fan Pressurization Method, 2015.
- [47] International Organization for Standardization, ISO 12569:2017, Thermal Performance of Buildings and
 Materials Determination of Specific Airflow Rate in Buildings Tracer Gas Dilution Method, 2017.
- [48] R.M.S.F. Almeida, E. Barreira, P. Moreira, A discussion regarding the measurement of ventilation rates using
 tracer gas and decay technique, Infrastructure 5 (2020) 85–97, https://doi.org/10.3390/infrastructures5100085.
- [49] R.M.S.F. Almeida, E. Barreira, P. Moreira, Assessing the variability of the air change rate through tracer gas
 measurements, Energy Procedia 132 (2017) 831–836, <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2017.10.013</u>.
- 638 [50] C. Dubrul, Inhabitant Behaviour with Respect to Ventilation A Summary Report of IEA Annex VIII, Air
 639 Infiltration and Ventilation Centre, 1988.
- [51] H.L. Gough, Z. Luo, C.H. Halios, M.-F. King, C.J. Noakes, C.S.B. Grimmond, J. F. Barlow, R. Hoxey, A.D.
 Quinn, Field measurement of natural ventilation rate in an idealised full-scale building located in a staggered
 urban array: comparison between tracer gas and pressure-based methods, Build. Environ. 137 (2018) 246–256,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2018.03.055.
- 644 [52] G. Hong, D.D. Kim, Airtightness of electrical, mechanical and architectural components in South Korean
- apartment buildings using the fan pressurization and tracer gas method, Build. Environ. 132 (2018) 21–29,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2018.01.024.
- 647 [53] A.K. Persily, G.T. Linteris, A comparison of measured and predicted infiltration rates, ASHRAE Transactions 89648 (1983).

- [54] M.H. Sherman, Estimation of infiltration from leakage and climate indicators, Energy Build. 10 (1987) 81–86,
 https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-7788(87)90008-9.
- [55] J. Sundell, H. Levin, W.W. Nazaroff, W.S. Cain, W.J. Fisk, D.T. Grimsrud, F. Gyntelberg, Y. Li, A.K. Persily,
 A.C. Pickering, J.M. Samet, J.D. Spengler, S. T. Taylor, C.J. Weschler, Ventilation rates and health:
- multidisciplinary review of the scientific literature, Indoor Air 21 (2011) 191–204, <u>https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-</u>
 0668.2010.00703.x.
- [56] European Committee for Standardization, EN 12207:2016. Windows and Doors Air Permeability Classification, 2016.
- [57] N. Mahyuddin, H.B. Awbi, A review of CO2 measurement procedures in ventilation research, Int. J. Vent. 10
 (2012) 353–370, https://doi.org/10.5555/2044-4044-10.4.353.
- [58] International Organization for Standardization, ISO 10012 Measurement Management Systems Requirements
 for Measurement Processes and Measuring Equipment, 2003.
- [59] Joint Committee for Guides in Metrology, Evaluation of Measurement Data Guide to the Expression of
 Uncertainty in Measurement, 2008.
- [60] L.B. Mendes, N.W.M. Ogink, N. Edouard, H.J.C. van Dooren, I. de F.F. Tinôco, J. Mosquera, NDIR gas sensor
 for spatial monitoring of carbon dioxide concentrations in naturally ventilated livestock buildings, Sensors 15
 (2015) 11239–11257, <u>https://doi.org/10.3390/s150511239</u>.
- [61] A. Kabirikopaei, J. Lau, Uncertainty analysis of various CO2-Based tracer-gas methods for estimating seasonal
 ventilation rates in classrooms with different mechanical systems, Build. Environ. 179 (2020) 107003,
 <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2020.107003</u>.
- 669