

Air Infiltration Review

a quarterly newsletter from the IEA Air Infiltration and Ventilation Centre

International Energy Agency - AIVC

Vol. 18, No. 1, December 1996

Why CO₂?

Martin Liddament reviews some of the current knowledge about the use of metabolically produced CO₂ in indoor air quality evaluation and control.

Background

The concentration of metabolically produced CO₂ in a space has become a popular indicator of indoor air quality. Increasingly, it is used to control ventilation systems and as a measure of compliance with various Codes and Standards. There is underlying concern, however, that such measurements could give erroneous information and that there may be a general misconception about the significance of metabolic CO₂. The purpose of this note is to summarise recent contributions on this topic, with specific reference to a Seminar and Forum on metabolic carbon dioxide which took place earlier this year at the Atlanta ASHRAE meeting. The reasons for so much interest in CO₂ were summarised at this meeting by Andrew Persily of the US National Institute of Science and Testing (NIST). He emphasised that carbon dioxide is metabolically produced and can therefore be associated with the presence of occupants. Also it is relatively easy and inexpensive to measure, and it is fairly stable in that it is not especially reactive or absorbed by surfaces. In principle CO₂ can be used to evaluate the ventilation rate, determine the proportion

of outdoor air that is blended with recirculated air and provide an indication of perceived indoor air quality.

CO₂ and Toxicity

The health and toxicity implications of carbon dioxide were reviewed by Michael Hodgson, MD of the University of Connecticut Health Sciences Center. His research indicates that, despite largely untested reports to the contrary, there is no physiological evidence that CO₂ has any metabolic influence at concentrations below about 8500 ppm. Between 8500 -10,000 ppm the tidal flow of air through the lungs is increased and above 34,000 ppm the respiratory system becomes more rapid. At 40-45,000 ppm sweating occurs and at about 50,000ppm anxiety is induced. He also reported that in the 19th century, CO₂ was used as a narcotic for surgery, where concentrations approaching 500,000 ppm (50%) were needed. Under all but extreme occupancy conditions, therefore, the removal of CO₂ from a space on grounds that it in itself influences health cannot normally be regarded as an issue.

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Metabolically Produced CO₂

Carbon dioxide is produced as part of metabolism. The rate of production is fairly well defined and is dependent on the level of metabolic activity. Examples are illustrated in Table 1 (BS5925,1990). On this issue, Michael Hodgson noted that, for any specific activity, production rate increases with body weight, reflecting the greater level of physical effort which must be applied. He also noted that physically fit people are able to do a greater level of work for each unit of CO₂ produced.

Activity	Metabolic Rate (W)	CO ₂ Production Rate (l/s)
Sedentary Work	100	.004
Light Work	100-300	.006-.012
Moderate Work	300-500	.012-.020
Heavy Work	500-650	.020-.032
Very Heavy Work	650-800	.026-.032

Table 1 Energy Production Levels and Emission Rates of Carbon Dioxide for Various Levels of Metabolic Activity (Based on BS5925:1990)

Outdoor or Background CO₂ Concentration

Carbon dioxide is a constituent of the outdoor air and evidence suggests that its ambient concentration is gradually increasing. Actual outdoor concentration is dependent on locality and varies from between approximately 350 ppm, away from urban areas, to approximately 400 ppm in city environments.

Indoor or Room Concentration of CO₂

The indoor concentration of carbon dioxide depends on the outdoor level and the production rate of CO₂ within the space. In the office, this extra contribution is primarily assumed to result from metabolism, but in the home open gas cookers could make a further significant contribution. Strictly, to determine the contribution to CO₂ generated in a space, the *difference* between the indoor concentration and the outdoor concentration should be measured. However, for ap-

proximate purposes, an outdoor value of between 350-400 ppm is usually assumed. It is important to be aware, however, that, for precision analysis, some authors, when referring to indoor CO₂ concentration, automatically subtract the outdoor value (i.e they give the *difference* value). On the otherhand most standards, that refer to an acceptable indoor CO₂ concentration, refer to the *absolute* or *total* room concentration.

Steady State Concentration

Metabolically produced CO₂ behaves like any other pollutant in that for a given level of occupancy and rate of ventilation, its concentration will asymptotically rise to a 'steady state' value. At steady state, the concentration will depend on both the outdoor air ventilation rate and the CO₂ production rate, while the time taken to reach steady state concentration will depend on the 'air change' rate alone. The approximate relationship between steady state concentration (absolute) and ventilation rate is illustrated in Figure 1. If steady state concentration has been achieved, and the level of activity is known then, provided there is no other source of generation, the measured CO₂ concentration provides an indication of the amount of 'fresh' outdoor air being supplied to each occupant.

Transient Concentration

More often than not, steady state concentration is not reached. Either the volume of enclosed space is so large that it would take many hours to achieve or the level of occupancy is continually varying. Under these circumstances a 'spot' measurement of CO₂ can become meaningless. Various techniques have been developed, however, to estimate ventilation rate from the transient CO₂ concentration. Persily (1996, 1994), has investigated this in detail and offers several solutions. This aspect has also been addressed by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), following concern that too much reliance is placed on transient spot measurements. John Girman of the EPA indoor environmental division described work involved in looking at the errors associated with spot measurements and devising methods to improve upon ventilation estimated from CO₂ measurements. The main areas of error were concerned with the

Air Infiltration Review

Editor: Janet Blacknell

Air Infiltration Review has a quarterly circulation of 3,500 copies and is currently distributed to organisations in 40 countries. Short articles or correspondence of a general technical nature related to the subject of air infiltration and ventilation are welcome for possible inclusion in AIR. Articles intended for publication must be written in English and should not exceed 1,500 words in length. If you wish to contribute to AIR, please contact the Air Infiltration and Ventilation Centre. Please note that all submitted papers should use SI units.

time it takes to reach steady state, assumptions about the rate of CO₂ generation and fluctuations in outdoor concentration. Below about 3 air changes/hour approximately three hours is needed to achieve a steady state condition, however, work in progress Mudarri (1996) highlights how allowances can be made for the non attainment of steady state conditions based on the duration and level of occupancy. For improved accuracy, more precise knowledge is needed about metabolic generation rate, for example the ratio of production for men and women in similar activity is approximately 1:0.76. Such allowances have been incorporated by Mudarri into a 10 Step Guide to estimating air change rate from relatively straightforward parameters.

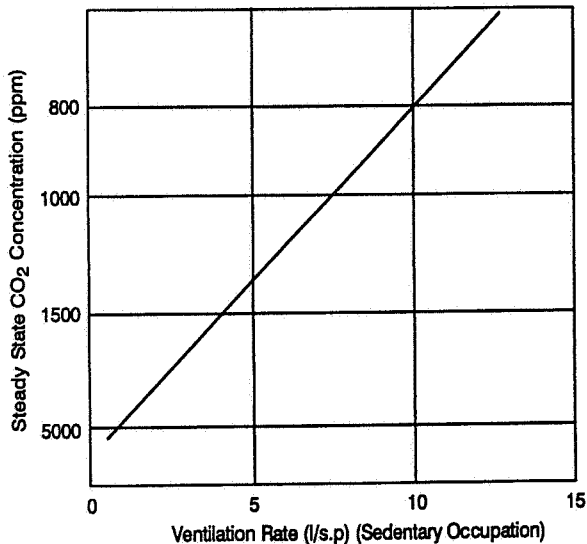


Figure 1: Metabolic carbon dioxide

Room Concentration and 'Perceived' Indoor Air Quality

Andrew Persily reviewed some of the background to the interest in CO₂ including its relationship with people's perception of indoor air quality, principally in relation to odour. He cited a number of examples indicating the relationship between CO₂ concentration and body odour. Particularly, there was consistent data linking CO₂ concentration with the percentage of people 'visiting' a space who were 'dissatisfied' with the level of odour (ppd). This linkage is associated with the actual CO₂ concentration measured rather than the steady state value. Typically, 20% ppd corresponds to a CO₂ concentration of 650 ppm above the outdoor value (i.e. approximately 1000 ppm actual CO₂ concentration (Figure 2).

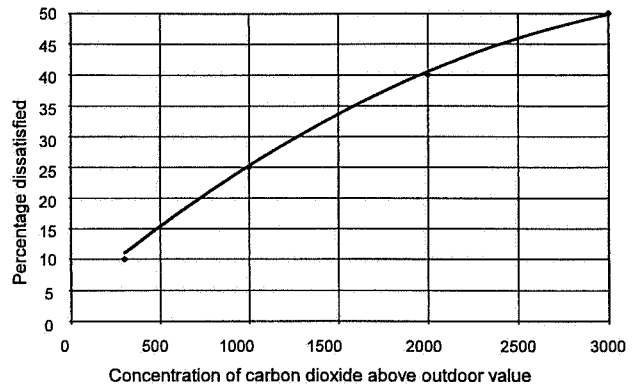


Figure 2: Metabolic Carbon Dioxide as an Indicator of Acceptable Indoor Air Quality

Measuring CO₂

Various techniques are available for the measurement of carbon dioxide, a summary of which was presented by Richard Stoner of Solomat Neotronics. Further information is also described in Chapter 11 of the Guide to Ventilation (Liddament 1996). Techniques vary from precision mass spectrometry to inexpensive detection tubes that undergo colour change in reaction to the presence of carbon dioxide. Probably the most common method for demand control systems is non-dispersive infra-red detection which makes use of the property of a gas to absorb energy from an infra-red light source. The resultant heat generated is detected as a volumetric change. This absorption property is also applied to photo-acoustic detection in which absorption from a pulsed infrared source, tuned to the specific characteristics of CO₂, is translated to a sound wave. The sound intensity is related to gas concentration. Both systems have a resolution of typically ± 50 ppm and suffer from drift caused by dust on optics and a gradual deterioration in lamp performance. Other methods include potentiometric in which CO₂ is diffused into an electrolyte resulting in a change in applied voltage and amperometric based on the electrochemical diffusion of CO₂ across a membrane into an electrolyte. Again sensitivity is typically ± 50 -100 ppm and drift can be significant. Sensor life can also be limited.

Problems and experiences associated with the measurement of metabolically produced CO₂ were further highlighted at an informal forum aimed at assessing the role of CO₂ measurements as a means of estimating outdoor air ventilation rates. Experiences indicated significant instrument drift. One monitored study showed that after a few months a system having a set point of 1000 ppm did not react until the actual concentration had reached 1800 ppm. Several contributors emphasised the need for regular instrument calibration. The conclusion, therefore, must be that any demand control sensor must contain provision for simple (possibly automatic) calibration. In short, an unattended system will fail, probably within only a few months.

'Demand' Control Ventilation

Notwithstanding problems associated with monitoring metabolic CO₂, it has become a popular component of demand control ventilation systems. This formed part of a major Research Task (Annex 18) of the International Energy Agency's Implementing Agreement for Energy Conservation in Buildings and Community Systems (Mansson 1990).

Conclusions

Carbon dioxide is largely non-toxic with evidence suggesting that concentrations as high as 10,000 ppm or more have no significant health effects.

For normal conditions of occupancy, however, measured CO₂ concentrations significantly above 1000 ppm provide an indication of inadequate ventilation for comfort and may mean that the ventilation rate is inadequate to dilute other, more harmful pollutants that may be present. In this sense, the monitoring of CO₂ concentration can make a valuable contribution

to IAQ assessment.

Unfortunately, a measurement of concentration (especially a 'spot' measurement) at or below 1000 ppm does not necessarily provide an indication of the adequacy of ventilation since there may be other pollutants present or insufficient time has elapsed to provide a steady state reading, or the building may be at reduced occupancy.

If CO₂ is continuously monitored then it is possible to evaluate the adequacy of air change by considering the rates of growth and decay in concentration as the occupancy level varies.

For More Information and References

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Ventilation Literature Database Reaches Ten Thousand

by Janet Blacknell

Ten Thousand Papers

From small beginnings housed on a shelf in an office at the Building Research and Information Association in Bracknell, UK, the AIVC's bibliographic database has emerged as one of the most popular and user friendly sources of specialist information on ventilation and its related subject areas. All those years ago, the database started out as a subset of air infiltration related records from its parent database, Ibsedex. In those days access was via telephone modem and the database used the now cumbersome and outdated software, Status. A far cry, one could say, from the ten thousand record strong library of today with its easy to use IdeaList software and multiple formats - CD or diskette, using Windows or Dos. The name "Airbase" was coined in its early days, and seems to have proved memorable and popular despite the occasional query from non-ventilation related agencies!

Ten Thousand Enquiries!

Seventeen years ago the Air Infiltration and Ventilation Centre was set up under the auspices of the International Energy Agency. The bibliographic database was central to its brief, and together with its library and information service has proved its value over the years with a total of well over ten thousand enquirers consulting the services and 100,000 items of literature sent out over the period.

Sources are many and varied, including a variety of journals, reports from research and commercial organisations, conference proceedings, the AIVC's own publications, which can be provided on loan, and other items discovered through literature searches performed on larger databases and through the World Wide Web. Another major source is of course our own information service users, many of whom contribute their own work as it is published, and help to keep the emphasis on new and up to date research.

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Flow Simulation Using Computational Fluid Dynamics - A Cost Effective Tool for Flow Simulation

by Geoff Whittle, Simulation Technology Ltd.

Introduction

Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) is increasingly being used at the design stage for the evaluation of air distribution and smoke control systems in a wide range of building types.

CFD computer software operates by numerically solving the equations governing fluid flow^[1]. These comprise conservation statements for mass, momentum, energy and turbulence parameters. The equations contain partial derivatives, are highly non-linear and require an iterative solution procedure to yield results.

What must be defined when using CFD software?

The process of running CFD software involves defining the factors which drive the flow (boundary conditions) such as supply air diffusers, natural ventilation openings, exhaust locations and flow rates, heat gains, and hot or cold surfaces together with any objects or obstructions in the space. These are mapped to a computational grid which forms three-dimensional volumes of space completely filling the enclosure to be modelled. The equations are solved at each one of these 'control volumes', usually called 'cells' in 'finite-volume' codes and 'elements' in the alternative 'finite-element' codes. Historically, the finite-volume approach was developed in cartesian (rectangular) geometries. The finite-element method has traditionally allowed more complex and hence realistic geometries to be modelled although the developments which have taken place in CFD mean that many of the old distinctions have become blurred. More accurate techniques for numerically integrating the flow equations coupled with complex geometry capability in finite-volume codes provide a similar level of functionality to the traditional finite-element approach. Finite element codes themselves are changing, further reducing the distance between them.

The user has control over the grid and it is the resolution of the grid which can have an important influence on the accuracy of results. The finer the grid the better but the longer it will take to achieve a solution. A typical grid will comprise many thousands of 'cells'^[2, 3]. Most commercial CFD software uses the finite-volume approach to form the numerical integral of the partial differential equations. Regarding complexity of modelling, much can still be done with cartesian geometry representations - taking advantage of the

much easier model building and faster execution speed.

In using CFD, which places major demands on computer processor speed and RAM (memory), there is always a compromise to be made between accuracy and speed of solution. However, CFD software is becoming more user-friendly and computers very much faster such that high-specification PC's (e.g. fast 486's, Pentium and Pentium Pro) can be particularly cost-effective in running CFD codes and contributing successfully within the time-frame of the design process.

How are the results presented?

Once a solution is obtained the results can be viewed in graphical form as flow patterns (vector plots), temperature and smoke contours, etc. (An example is shown in Figure 1.) The numerical values can be interpreted to make judgements about the acceptability of the thermal environment in terms of air velocities, temperatures, temperature gradients and ventilation effectiveness. In fire modelling it is temperatures and the development and movement of smoke which is the focus of interest either in a 'steady-state' form or evolving with time.

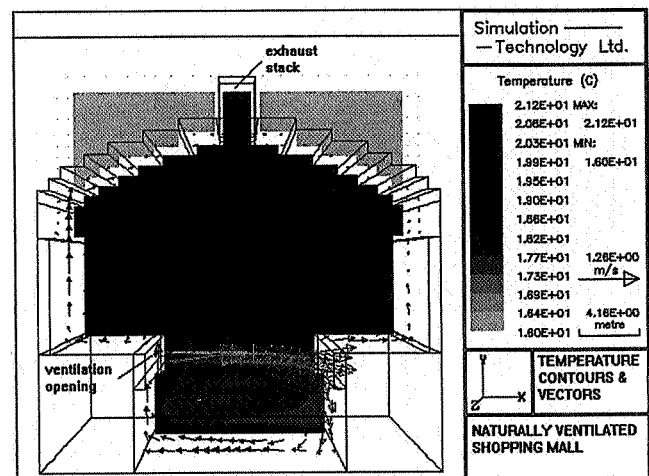


Figure 1: Results presented in graphical form

Are CFD results realistic?

Validation is always an issue with any computer calculation method. With CFD the issue is more complex than usual because of the influence the user can have over the quality of results. This is particularly important in the context of setting boundary conditions, defining the computational grid and procuring converged solutions in high Rayleigh Number (highly buoyant) flow fields within an acceptable computation time. Turbulence modelling is also still an area requiring more research and development. Here, it is the 'k-epsilon' model which is still the 'industry standard' for engineering calculations. Despite the ever present need for more work, sufficient validation has already been done such that, with experience and care, one can have a good level of confidence in the quality of the results [4]. (Much analysis has taken place in IEA ECBCS Annex 26 "Air Flow in Large Enclosures" to evaluate the performance of CFD and to determine the conditions under which it is applicable [5].)

Examples

Figures 1, 2 and 3 show example results from three different types of CFD simulations. The first simulation, Figure 1, is of temperatures and flow patterns in a three-dimensional model of a naturally ventilated shopping mall. The ventilation system comprises low level openings with flow entering from the left in the Figure and exiting at high level through the roof exhaust stack. The outdoor temperature is 16 °C. Occupancy, lighting and solar gains elevate the temperature up to approximately 21 °C at high level. Here, the CFD code used has predicted the natural ventilation flow rate based on external wind pressures, stack (buoyancy) effect and the resistance of the openings.

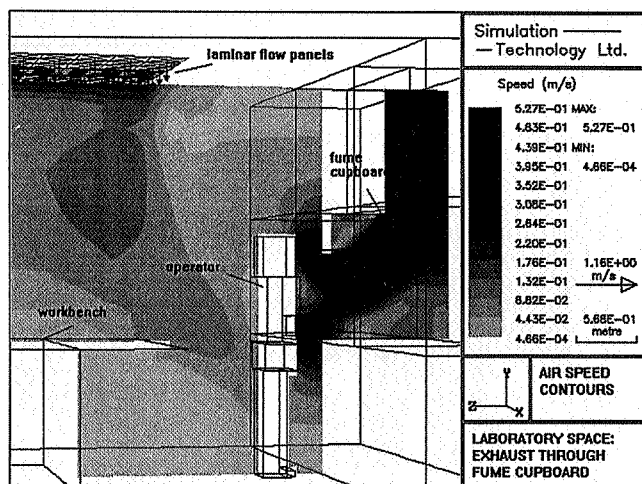


Figure 2: Flow in a laboratory space ventilated by laminar flow panels in ceiling

The second example, shown in Figure 2, represents flow in a laboratory space ventilated by laminar flow panels in the ceiling. The exhaust air is taken through a fume cupboard extract. The Figure shows speed

contours, illustrating the acceleration of flow into the fume cupboard and the wake-influence due to the proximity of the operator. Both the room air distribution and the fume cupboard containment effectiveness are being examined here.

In the third simulation, Figure 3, the development of temperatures and smoke concentrations is predicted in the atrium and occupied areas of a multi-floor office building. Outdoor air enters the atrium at ground level and natural smoke vents allow the smoke to escape at roof level. The temperature stratification in the smoke layer can be seen. At ground level, the volume of outside air entering the building maintains a clear layer, and on the upper floors it is noticeable that floor supply air diffusers (which remain in operation supplying fresh air) are helping to minimise the full impact of the smoke temperatures. From the information generated by CFD judgements can be made regarding the safety and escape of occupants.

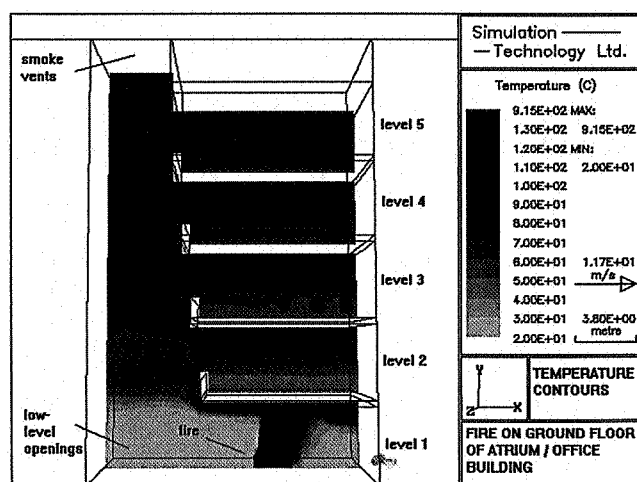


Figure 3: Development of temperatures and smoke concentration in the atrium and occupied areas of a multiflow office building

Conclusions

Fortunately, much of the complexity of a user-friendly CFD code is transparent to the user, who need not concern him/herself about partial differential equations. What is important, though, is that the user is able to properly describe the application to be modelled, to ensure that the solution obtained satisfies certain criteria regarding grid resolution and the consequent residual errors in the solution, and then exercise engineering ability in interpreting the results. An advantage of CFD is that, if necessary, improvements can readily be made to the air distribution design or smoke control system and the calculation re-run.

The question of cost-effectiveness is particularly important. Historically, such computer codes have been too expensive and too difficult to use to make a substantial impact in the buildings and construction industry. Now, however, CFD software prices are

falling and performance and usability increasing such that acquiring an in-house CFD capability or, indeed, commissioning external CFD studies can be a realistic and relatively low-cost option giving a substantial return in the quality of the project.

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International Energy Agency's Air Infiltration and Ventilation Centre

18th Annual AIVC Conference

Ventilation and Cooling

Greece

23rd - 26th September 1997

First Announcement and Call for Papers

Abstracts of approximately 300-500 words are invited from authors of AIVC and non-AIVC countries on the following or related topics and should be submitted by February 17th, 1997.

Specific areas of interest include:

ventilation for cooling
night cooling
architectural strategies
strategies for non residential buildings
strategies for dwellings
impact of air infiltration achieving acceptable indoor comfort
calculation for design
measurement methods

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Optimum Ventilation and Air Flow Control in Buildings

17th - 20th September 1996, Hotel 11, Gothenburg, Sweden

Conference Report by Malcolm Orme

The 17th Annual AIVC Conference was convened this year at Hotel 11 in Gothenburg, in western Sweden. For the first time, an invitation was extended to all participating countries of the IEA Energy Conservation in Buildings and Community Systems Programme. This resulted in over 100 delegates attending 4 sessions of oral presentations based on submitted papers and a further 3 poster sessions, a total of 59 presentations from 15 countries.

Keynote Speaker and the Opening Session

The Keynote Speaker at the Conference, Bertil Pettersson, Director General of the Swedish Board for Building Research, stated in his address that much of the world's energy is obtained

and used in a non-sustainable way. He continued by stressing that existing energy supplies must be used more efficiently and renewable energy sources should be further exploited. Citing the example of Sweden, he indicated that while the total floor area of the Swedish residential and service sector building stock had increased by about 40% from 1970 to 1995, the total energy consumption had remained roughly constant. This implied that the specific energy consumption (energy used per unit of floor area) had decreased by approximately 25% during the same period. Furthermore, he also outlined the benefits of International Energy Agency collaborative research with the aim of decreasing total energy consumption. The benefits that he observed included:

- shared costs,
- pooled resources,
- the avoidance of mistakes and duplicated efforts, and
- the development of a common understanding of technical methods.

The first paper in the opening session, called "Optimum ventilation and air flow control in buildings?", examined the overall theme of the Conference, and was presented by Tor-Göran Malmström (Royal Insti-

tute of Technology, Sweden). In this paper he explained the factors affecting indoor air quality. In particular, he emphasised that internal pollutant sources should first be controlled and then the quality of the air entering the room should be verified. He then continued by discussing how air flow control can be used to determine the quality and rate of air exchange.

This session also included a paper by Bjørn Larsen (The Vekst Foundation, Norway) explaining his computerised method for balancing ventilation systems, a practical demonstration of which was also given at the Conference. The method he described makes it possible to pre-set ventilation terminals at the factory to desired pressure loss characteristics (achieved by damper positioning). In this way, mechanical ventilation systems can be balanced before they have been installed. (Figure 1)

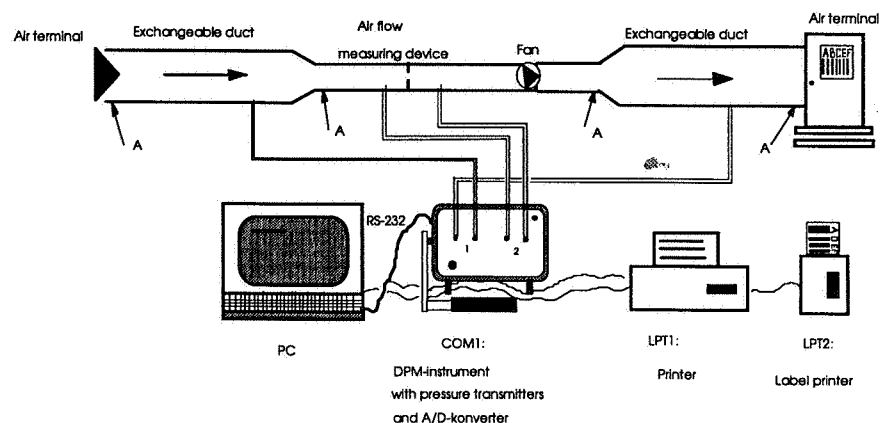


Figure 1 A "DPM machine" for presetting air terminals

Offices and Other Non-Residential Buildings

Two contributions from the UK Building Research Establishment focused on office buildings. Martin White discussed the efficiency of single-sided and cross ventilation in office spaces, while Brian Webb considered summer cooling for office-type buildings by night ventilation. Although not restricted in application to non-residential buildings, Matheos Santamouris (University of Athens, Greece) reported on the progress of the natural ventilation studies made within the European PASCOOL project. This included single-sided and cross ventilation, as well as flow through

large internal openings in the context of natural ventilation for cooling. The project has resulted in the development of several applicable calculation tools. Passive cooling was also the subject of other presentations from Greece, Sweden and Switzerland.(Fig 2)

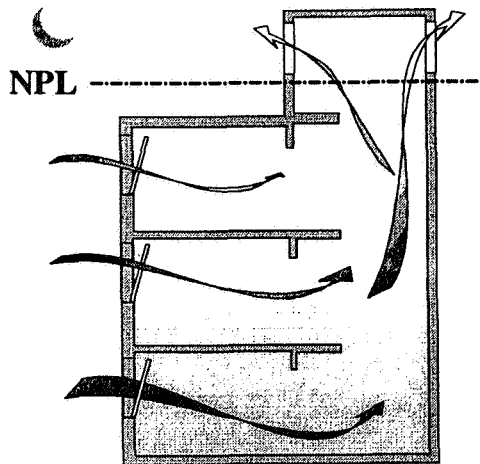


Figure 2: Cooling improvement for night cooling system

Mikko Suokas (Fincoil-teollisuus Oy, Finland) advised on how to reduce draught problems in cooled working rooms. His view was that the 'throw' from air-cooling devices should stay close to the ceiling for as long as possible, without interference from either beams, light fittings, or walls. In this way, the cooled air mixes better with the existing room air, without causing draughts in the occupied zone.

Peter Wouters from Belgium (BBRI) expanded on the subject of non-residential ventilation. In "Ventilation requirements in non-domestic buildings and energy efficiency", voted as the Best Paper at the Conference, he proposed that ventilation rate requirements for non-domestic buildings may vary by up to a factor of 10 depending on whether or not the levels of emissions from the building materials are taken into account. This, he argued, could potentially have a large consequent effect on energy consumption. Anders Nilson (Bengt Dahlgren AB, Sweden) also considered energy efficiency, specifically in office buildings, with an energy and system analysis study.

Public Assembly Buildings

Findings from measurements made in a cinema (with a downwards mixing ventilation system) were reported by Yonghui Jin (Narvik Institute of Technology, Norway). 'Step-up' and 'step-down' tracer gas measurements enabled the calculation of local and room air change efficiencies, which indicated that close to perfect mixing was occurring. Carbon dioxide concentrations were found to vary linearly with the number of occupants. The design of another type of public assembly building, in this case a naturally ventilated concert hall, was discussed by Robert Cohen (HGA Consulting Engineers Ltd, UK). This project used computational fluid dynamics to decide the

size and locations of the ventilation openings. In addition, a dynamic thermal model was used to confirm that the likely number of hours per year above a certain temperature level was acceptable.(Figure 3)

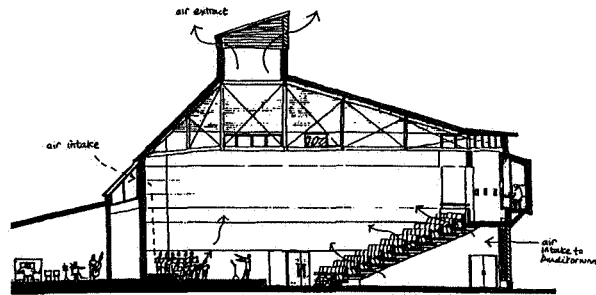


Figure 3: Building section

Ventilation of Transportation-Related Structures

Certain presentations at the Conference examined ventilation of structures intended for transportation-related purposes. Willem de Gids (TNO, Netherlands) described how a dynamic ventilation model had been used to improve the design of a ventilation system in a train tunnel with a shopping centre above, thus improving air quality in the centre and reducing cleaning costs (Figure 4). The problems associated with the cooling and ventilation of a high speed underground transportation system were outlined by Peter Rosemann (Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Switzerland). This major project plans to link the major Swiss cities with a train network involving partially evacuated tunnels (to reduce aerodynamic drag). In addition, design guidelines for ventilation systems for pollution control in large semi-enclosed bus terminals were presented. Concerning this work, Joanna Yiu (Polytechnic University, Hong Kong) indicated that industrial occupational exposure limits were the most applicable existing guidelines to deal with the pollutants contained in diesel fuel exhausts. However, she did not consider them to be ideal, because they are based on working conditions only for healthy adults.

Statistical Analysis

In his poster, Jerzy Sowa (Warsaw University of Technology, Poland) compared different methods of incorporating stochastic factors into deterministic models of indoor air quality. Approaches taken used time series data as inputs to contaminant dispersal models, Monte-Carlo analysis, and a stochastic differential equation model. The mean values of pollutant concentration found with all three methods were very similar. However, the spread of the results as measured by the standard deviation showed a wide variation. Related work was described by Krystyna Pietrzyk (Chalmers University of Technology, Sweden). She explained how probability density functions

of the air change rate in a single family house had been derived, with two-parameter Weibull distributions assumed for the wind velocity. The air change rates were found to approximately follow either normal or log-normal distributions depending on the wind direction.

Johnny Kronvall (J&W Consulting Engineers, Sweden) has been investigating system safety analysis as a method of finding "the probability that a ventilation system provides certain required air flow rates in each occupied part of a building during the time between scheduled maintenance occasions." He suggested that this is a promising technique for judging the reliability of mechanical ventilation systems. But, he cautioned that data for the mechanical reliability of individual components would need to be collated for it to be practical.

Sweden) spoke about how he has been checking ventilation rates by carbon dioxide monitoring. Again from Seden, Björn Hedin (Lund Institute of Technology) introduced a new model to extract more information from standard tracer gas measurements of ventilation air flows. The effect of recirculation on air change effectiveness (sometimes called the coefficient of air change performance) was the subject of a contribution by Clifford Federspiel (Johnson Controls Inc, USA). He proposed a relative measure of air change effectiveness that can be used to take into account the age of supply air when the fraction of recirculated air is greater than zero. An advantage of this measure, he argued, is that it can identify systems in which 'short-circuiting' is occurring.

Karl Janssens from Belgium (Catholic University of Leuven) gave an account of laboratory tests for the determination of 'local specific fresh air flow rates' in an imperfectly mixed ventilated air space. In addition, work from France and the UK reported on measurements and modelling respectively for calculating the pollutant removal effectiveness and air change efficiency for various ventilation strategies.

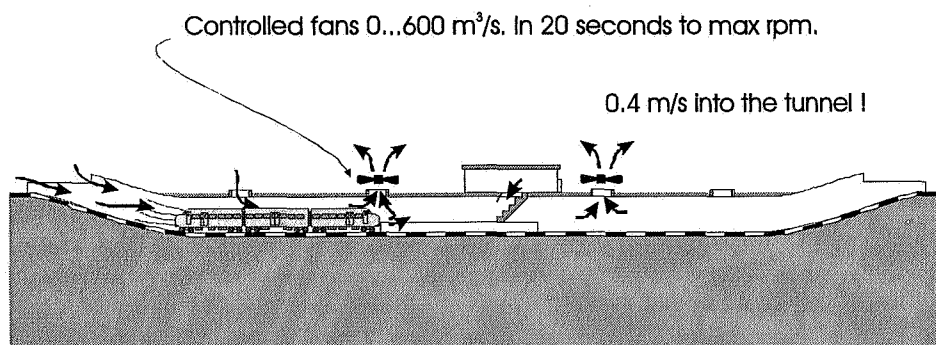


Figure 4: Tunnel with fans

Applicability of Crack Flow Equations

Two of the fundamental assumptions concerning the applicability of crack flow equations have been investigated by researchers in the UK and the USA. An experimental study of crack flow with varying pressure differentials was the subject of a presentation given by Steve Sharples (University of Sheffield, UK). He proposed that the results confirmed the often assumed view that it is acceptable to consider average steady-state pressure differentials in place of time-varying differentials. Another important issue discussed at the Conference was that the application of experimentally measured airtightness data (typically measured at greater than 10 Pa pressure difference) to numerical models often relies on an extrapolation down to the pressure differences (typically less than 10 Pa) encountered due to natural driving forces. The power law is an appropriate method for extrapolating from measured airtightness data to lower pressure differences was the conclusion reached by Max Sherman (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, USA).

Measures of Ventilation Performance

Lars Ekberg (Chalmers University of Technology,

External Contaminants and the Internal Distribution of Pollutants

Vina Kukadia, (Building Research Establishment, UK) presented the outcome of a pilot study designed to find the effect of external atmospheric pollution on indoor air quality. Another external pollutant, radon, is of continuing concern and in connection with this, Pirjo Korhonen (University of Kuopio, Finland) has compared indoor levels of radon between workplaces and homes located nearby in different parts of Finland. Certain features of particulate pollution interactions with indoor surfaces were explained by Miriam Byrne (Imperial College, UK), who has been carrying out measurements and modelling for risk assessment and contaminant control. Also at the Conference, George Walton (NIST, USA) demonstrated the latest version of his multizone airflow and contaminant dispersal model, CONTAM96, which includes a graphical user interface.

Dwellings

The work of members of the European Standards Committee CEN TC156 (Ventilation) was reported by Andrew Cripps (Building Research Establishment, UK) with his paper on calculation methods for the determination of air flow rates in dwellings. Two delegates from Sweden each talked about residential ventilation. One of these was Per Levin (Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden), who outlined the devel-

opment of a simple occupancy-controlled exhaust air ventilation system. The other was Åke Blomsterberg (Swedish National Testing and Research Institute, Sweden), who discussed the influence of outdoor air vents and airtightness on natural ventilation.

Max Sherman (Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, USA) proposed the most appropriate types of residential ventilation systems for the different regions of the USA. This was based on modelling for various levels of airtightness of the dwelling stock to predict resultant energy consumption while still meeting ventilation requirements. On a connected subject, Don Stevens (Stevens and Associates, USA) identified the evolution of ventilation in manufactured housing in the north-western United States. The findings from a measurement survey of the indoor air quality of 30 houses with distributed heating systems in Quebec were given by Denis Parent (Hydro-Québec, Canada). He concluded that during the milder part of the heating season only the minority of the tested houses had adequate ventilation, with an improvement during the colder part. Also, there didn't seem to be a significant correlation between building airtightness and indoor air quality.

IEA ECBCS Annex 27

Other contributions on dwellings concerned products of the continuing work of IEA ECBCS Annex 27 "Evaluation and Demonstration of Domestic Ventilation Systems". Peter Op't Veld (Cauberg-Huygen Consulting Engineers, Netherlands) gave an overview of his assessment of aspects of noise and ventilation systems. This covered the transmission of outdoor noise, noise generated by ventilation system components and the impact of a system on sound transmission in or between dwellings. His work for this Annex has produced a simplified tool for the selection of ventilation systems based on the criteria of noise. Also as part of Annex 27, Lars-Göran Månsson (LGM Consult AB, Sweden) outlined the progress made in developing a simplified tool for evaluating domestic ventilation systems' ability to provide an acceptable indoor air quality.

Multi-zone calculations of air flows and tracer gas

measurements in dwellings were compared by Charlotte Svensson (J&W Consulting Engineers, Sweden). This forms part of the Swedish contribution to Annex 27. The study highlighted the good agreement that can be obtained between measurements and calculations when the input parameters of the model are consistent with the experimental configuration. Along similar lines, Jacques Riberon (CSTB, France) gave an account of a comparison of ventilation systems performances in residential buildings made with the model SIREN.

Innovative Technologies

Conventionally, air dehumidification has been achieved by refrigerative systems. However with current environmental concerns, alternative approaches are being sought. As part of an investigation of dehumidification by absorption, Jürgen Röben (University of Essen, Germany) described a theoretical model of an open cycle dehumidification process using hygroscopic materials to absorb the moisture. The Best Poster at the Conference was awarded to Peter Hansson (Royal Institute of Technology, Sweden) for his poster, "A technique to improve the performance of displacement ventilation during cold climate conditions". He has devised a method of using warm air extracted at ceiling level to heat cold surfaces and so improve ventilation efficiency and thermal comfort by reducing downdraught.

Guest Speaker and Close of Conference

The Guest Speaker at the Conference Banquet was Professor Enno Abel of Chalmers Institute of Technology, who in addition presented the Best Paper and Best Poster awards. Willem de Gids (TNO, Netherlands) and Martin Liddament (AIVC, UK) summed-up and closed the Conference. The AIVC would like to extend thanks to the Conference Participants and also to the companies who exhibited their products (LHG Kanalflokt, Boverket, Scandfilter, Pentiaq AB and Stifab AB).

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 Tokyo, 108 Japan Tel: +81 3 3798 5122 Fax: +81 3
 3798 5130

Building Energy: Insuring a Sustainable Future
 March 12-15, 1997
 Radisson Hotel and Conference Center, Cromwell,
 Connecticut, USA
 NESEA, 50 Miles Street, Greenfield, MA
 01301-3212, USA Tel: 413 774 6051 Fax: 413 774
 6053

Cold Climate HVAC
 30 April - 2 May, 1997
 Reykjavik, Iceland Skogarhild 18 IS 101 Reykjavik,
 Iceland

CIB TG8 Second International Conference
Buildings and the Environment
 9-12 June 1997
 Paris, France
 Scientific Secretariat Dr Sylviane Nibel ENEA
 Department CSTB 84, Avenue Jean Jaures, BP 02
 77421 Marne la Vallee Cedex 2 France Tel: +33 (1)
 64 68 8301 Fax: +33 (1) 64 68 83 50 email
 nibel@cstb.fr

ITEEC 97 Third International Thermal Energy &
Environment Congress
 9-12 June 1997
 Marrakesh, Morocco
 Send abstracts to: Dr F Haghighat Centre for
 Building Studies Concordia University 1455 De
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in Industry "How Industry will produce energy
efficiency services in the 21st century"
 July 8-11, 1997
 Sheraton Saratoga Springs, New York, USA
 Debbie Giallombardo, ACEEE Conference Office,
 1001 Connecticut Ave NW, Suite 801, Washington
 DC 20036, USA Tel: 202 429 8873 Fax: 202 429
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 August 30 - September 2, 1997
 Brussels, Belgium
 Clima 2000 '97, c/o SRBII, Ravenstein 3, B-1000
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Building Simulation '97 International Building
Performance Simulation Association
 September 8-10 1997
 Fifth International Conference Prague, Czech
 Republic
 Secretariat Building Simulation '97 Faculty of
 Mechanical Engineering Dept of Environmental
 Engineering Czech Technical University in Prague
 Technicka 4 166 07 Prague 6 Czech Republic
 Tel/Fax +42 2 2435 5616 email bs97@fsid.cvut.cz

Ventilation '97 5th International Symposium on
Ventilation for Contaminant Control
 14-17 September 1997
 The Westlin Hotel, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada
 Ventilation '97, ACGIH, 1330 Kemper Meadow Dr.,
 Cincinnati, Ohio 45240, USA Tel: (513) 742 2020
 Fax: (513) 742 3355 email ACGIH_mem@pol.com

Ventilation and Cooling
 International Energy Agency's Air Infiltration and
 Ventilation Centre - 18th Annual AIVC Conference
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 Greece
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TECHNICAL NOTES

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of Standards, Codes of Practice and Regulations, Limb M J, 1994, TN 43

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Garage Ventilation, 1994, BIB2

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Air intake positioning to avoid contamination of ventilation air, 1995, BIB4

Heat pumps for ventilation exhaust air heat recovery, 1996, BIB5

AIVC CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Earlier AIVC Conference Proceedings are available as individual papers. Contents pages can be forwarded on request.

'Ventilation System Performance' Belgirate, Italy, 1990, (11th)

'Air Movement and Ventilation Control within Buildings', Ottawa, Canada, 1991, 3 volumes, (12th)

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'Energy Impact of Air Infiltration and Ventilation', Denmark, 1993, (14th)

'The role of ventilation', Buxton, UK, 1994, (15th)

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Published by
Air Infiltration and Ventilation Centre
University of Warwick Science Park
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