

# Natural ventilation assessment in typical open an semi-open urban environments under various wind directions

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>Semi-open street roofs protect pedestrians from strong sunshine and heavy rains. >But they may affect airflows and ventilation in urban canopy layers (UCL).> Age of air & flow rates are analyzed under wind directions of 0°,15°,30°, 45°.>Walls fully or partly covering street roofs at z=H get the worst UCL ventilation.> Semi-open street roofs at z=1.2H,1.1H get good ventilation and are realistic designs.

1 To be resubmitted to Building and Environment, September 2013 Natural ventilation assessment in typical open and semi-open urban 2 environments under various wind directions 3 4 Jian Hang<sup>a\*</sup>, Zhiwen Luo<sup>b</sup>, Mats Sandberg<sup>c</sup>, Jian Gong<sup>d</sup> 5 6 7 <sup>a</sup>Department of Atmospheric Sciences, School of Environmental Science and Engineering, Sun 8 Yat-Sen University, Guangzhou, Guangdong, P. R. China <sup>b</sup> School of Construction Management and Engineering, University of Reading, Reading, UK 9 <sup>c</sup> Laboratory of Ventilation and Air Quality, University of Gävle, SE-80176 Gävle, Sweden 10 11 <sup>d</sup>School of Civil Engineering and Architecture, Nanchang Hangkong University, Nanchang, 12 Jiangxi, 330063, P. R. China 13 14 \*Corresponding author. Jian Hang Tel: +86-20-84110375; fax: +86-20-84110375 15 E-mail address: hangj3@mail.sysu.edu.cn 16 17

#### 18 Abstract

Semi-open street roofs protect pedestrians from intense sunshine and rains. Their effects on 19 20 natural ventilation of urban canopy layers (UCL) are less understood. This paper investigates two idealized urban models consisting of  $4(2\times 2)$  or  $16(4\times 4)$  buildings under a neutral atmospheric 21 condition with parallel  $(0^{\circ})$  or non-parallel  $(15^{\circ}, 30^{\circ}, 45^{\circ})$  approaching wind. The aspect ratio 22 23 (building height (H) / street width (W)) is 1 and building width is B=3H. Computational fluid 24 dynamic (CFD) simulations were first validated by experimental data, confirming that standard 25  $k - \varepsilon$  model predicted airflow velocity better than RNG  $k - \varepsilon$  model, realizable  $k - \varepsilon$  model and 26 Reynolds stress model. Three ventilation indices were numerically analyzed for ventilation 27 assessment, including flow rates across street roofs and openings to show the mechanisms of air exchange, age of air to display how long external air reaches a place after entering UCL, and 28 29 purging flow rate to quantify the net UCL ventilation capacity induced by mean flows and 30 turbulence.

31 Five semi-open roof types are studied: Walls being hung above street roofs (coverage 32 ratio  $\lambda_a=100\%$ ) at z=1.5H, 1.2H, 1.1H ('Hung1.5H', 'Hung1.2H', 'Hung1.1H' types); Walls partly covering street roofs ( $\lambda_a = 80\%$ ) at z = H ('Partly-covered' type); Walls fully covering street roofs 33 34  $(\lambda_a=100\%)$  at z=H ('Fully-covered' type). They basically obtain worse UCL ventilation than open 35 street roof type due to the decreased roof ventilation. 'Hung1.1H', 'Hung1.2H', 'Hung1.5H' types 36 are better designs than 'Fully-covered' and 'Partly-covered' types. Greater urban size contains larger UCL volume and requires longer time to ventilate. The methodologies and ventilation 37 38 indices are confirmed effective to quantify UCL ventilation.

39

40 Key words: Semi-open street roof; natural ventilation; age of air; purging flow rate; CFD

- 41 simulations; wind tunnel experiment
- 42

#### 43 **1. Introduction**

Wind from rural areas provides cleaner rural air into urban canopy layers (UCL) to help
pollutant and heat dilution. Good UCL ventilation has been known as one of the possible
mitigation solutions to improve urban air environments[1-11], meanwhile ameliorate indoor air
quality through building ventilation systems.

Complemented by wind tunnel/field experiments, computational fluid dynamics (CFD) 48 49 simulations have been widely used to predict turbulent airflow, mass transports and energy 50 budgets within, close to and above different UCLs [2,4-11, 17-26, 28-37], ranging from street 51 canyons, street intersections, cavities and courtyards, up to structured building arrays and 52 realistic urban areas. Good reviews on this topic can be found in the literatures [12-15]. For two-53 dimensional (2D) street canyons [1, 15-19], street aspect ratio (building height/street width, H/W) 54 is the first key parameter to affect the flow regimes and pollutant dispersion. For three-55 dimensional (3D) urban canopy layers, total street length or urban size [8,11,30], building 56 packing density and frontal area density [8,10,20-23], ambient wind directions [23-24, 32, 37], 57 building layouts and height variations [8, 21-23, 25-26] etc, are significant parameters and have 58 been widely investigated.

In addition to the widely studied urban models with open street roofs, semi-open street roof is one of popular urban design elements existing in the realistic urban areas to protect pedestrians from strong sunshine and reduce the inconveniences in rainy or snowy days. Such semi-open

62 street roofs have been reported and investigated by experiments and CFD simulations in the 63 literatures [5-7], including a large naturally ventilated semi-open market building [5], a semi-64 open shopping mall being located in Lisbon, Portugal [6], enclosed-arcade (or semi-open) markets of Korea with eleven arcade-type designs (or semi-open street roof) [7]. Although the 65 requirements of design are different according to various climate conditions, sufficient natural 66 UCL ventilation has been considered as an important environment design factor for more healthy 67 semi-open outdoor environments [5-7]. Fig. 1 shows two other kinds of semi-open street roof 68 69 designs in the suburb of Guangzhou China, which are located in a subtropical region annually 70 characterized by intense solar radiation and precipitation. Fig. 1a shows walls being hung above 71 street roofs of a food court, and Fig. 1b displays walls partially covering street roofs of a retail 72 center. Each shop or restaurant has its own enclosed space with air conditioners inside for 73 cooling in summer (April to September) and with doors connected to the semi-open streets. 74 These semi-open outdoor environments are naturally ventilated to reduce energy consumption. 75 Such semi-open street roof designs are used to provide convenience for pedestrians, but they 76 possibly deteriorate UCL ventilation performance. This paper aims to quantitatively evaluate these effects. Although thermal buoyancy force induced by temperature difference and 77 78 atmospheric stability also influence urban airflows and UCL ventilation [19, 28-29], this paper 79 takes the first step to consider a neutral atmospheric condition assuming that the ambient wind 80 velocity is sufficiently large and thermal effects are negligible.

81 In building ventilation, as reviewed by Chen [27], indoor ventilation indices have been 82 widely used to evaluate how external air enters a room and ventilates it. In recent years, 83 researchers have started to apply similar concepts to estimate UCL ventilation [2,4-11, 24, 28-32, 84 37], including ventilation flow rate and air change rate per hour (ACH) [4, 6-7, 28-30], pollutant 85 exchange rate [31], pollutant retention time and purging flow rate [2,8, 24], age of air and air exchange efficiency [32], city breathability [10-11] etc. This paper emphasizes the quantitative 86 87 analysis of UCL ventilation induced by rural wind assuming that rural air is relatively clean. 88 Flow rates across street openings and street roofs are first analyzed to quantify the mechanisms 89 of air exchange [37], moreover the local mean age of air [32] is used to quantify how long the 90 external air can reach a place after it enters the UCL. Finally, the UCL purging flow rate [2, 8] is 91 also applied to estimate the net UCL ventilation capacity induced by both mean flows and 92 turbulent diffusions.

93 Tracer gas techniques [27, 44] are usually used to measure indoor ventilation indices. 94 However for both open or semi-open outdoor spaces, ventilation indices such as age of air and 95 purging flow rate are difficult to be measured by tracer gas techniques, since outdoor environment is not an enclosed space with more complicated openings than indoor, moreover 96 97 perfect mixing and uniform pollutant generation rate in UCLs are difficult to experimentally 98 control. Thus the literatures [5-11, 24, 28-32] usually use experimental data to validate the 99 reliability of CFD methods in predicting concentration and airflow field, then analyze outdoor 100 ventilation indices by using CFD simulations. This paper also utilizes similar methodologies.

101

#### 102 **2. Methodologies**

#### 103 **2.1 Turbulence modeling in CFD simulations**

Large eddy simulation (LES) models are known to perform better in predicting turbulent flows than the Reynolds-Averaged Navier-Stokes (RANS) approaches, but the applicability of LES models is more problematic due to its much longer computational time required than RANS approaches and some issues regarding the implementation of wall and inlet boundary conditions [33-34]. Considering that RANS turbulence models are more time-saving and provide reasonable results for mean flows and the spatial average flow properties [33], this paper adopted RANS turbulence models for evaluating UCL ventilation.

111 UCL ventilation relies on both mean flows and turbulence within the UCL [8, 37]. 112 According to the literatures [35-36], the modified  $k-\varepsilon$  models, for example RNG  $k-\varepsilon$  model, are able to correct the drawback of the standard  $k-\varepsilon$  model that severely over-predicts turbulent 113 114 kinetic energy in separated flows around front corners of buildings, however, they fail to predict the sizes of reattachment lengths behind buildings and under-predict the velocity in weak wind 115 116 regions. It is desirable to compare different RANS turbulence models in predicting urban 117 airflows and UCL ventilation to provide a sensitivity study, including standard  $k-\varepsilon$  model, RNG 118  $k-\varepsilon$  model, realizable  $k-\varepsilon$  model and Reynolds stress model (RSM). 119

120 **2.2 Experimental and CFD set-ups in the validation case** 

121 This paper aims to study UCL ventilation in low-rise idealized and typical urban models 122 consisting of two-storey buildings (about 7m tall). Wind tunnel data was first used to evaluate 123 the reliability of CFD methodologies. As shown in Fig. 2a, Hang et al. [37] performed some

124 wind tunnel experiments to investigate the flow in a small-scale urban model with four square

building blocks (building height H=0.069m, building width B=3H) and two crossing streets

126 (street width W=H, urban size L=7 H). The approaching wind was parallel to the main street and

127 perpendicular to the secondary streets. The scale ratio between small-scale and full-scale models

128 is 1:100. Thus in full-scale real conditions  $H=W\approx 7m$ ,  $B=3H\approx 21m$ ,  $L\approx 49m$ . In small-scale

129 models the height of 1.5 mm (0.22*H*) corresponds to the face level (1.5 m) in full-scale

130 conditions.

131 The measurements were performed in the closed-circuit type wind tunnel at the Laboratory 132 of Ventilation and Air Ouality, University of Gävle, Sweden, with the working section of 11m 133 long, 3m wide, 1.5m tall. Thus the blockage ratio is about 0.6%, which represents the percentage 134 of the small-scale urban model obstructing the test section area  $(3m \times 1.5m)$  of the wind tunnel. 135 The stream-wise, lateral and vertical directions are represented by x, y, z. Hotwire anemometer 136 was used to measure vertical profiles of velocity  $(U_m(z))$  and turbulence intensity (I(z)) in the upstream free flow of wind tunnel (see Fig. 2b), horizontal profiles of velocity  $\overline{u}(x)$  and 137 138 turbulence intensity I(x) along the main street centerline (see Fig. 3b) at z=0.11H (7.5mm). The 139 sampling frequency was 100 Hz. The measurement time was 30s for each point. It is worth 140 mentioning that, the hotwire is only sensitive to velocity components perpendicular to it (i.e. the vertical velocity  $\overline{w}$  and the stream-wise velocity  $\overline{u}$ ). So data measured by the hotwire were 141 actually  $\sqrt{u^2 + w^2}$ . Here the hotwire was only located where the span-wise (y) velocity  $\bar{v}$  was 142 143 zero, including in the upstream free flow and along the main street centerline, so the measured data were actually the velocity magnitude ( $U=\sqrt{u^2+v^2+w^2}$ ). 144

Because there were no roughness elements in wind tunnel experiments, a thin neutral 145 146 atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) and a sharp vertical profile of velocity was produced in the 147 upstream free flow (see Fig. 2b). We only used the measured profiles  $(U_m(z) \text{ and } I(z))$  in Fig. 2b to provide boundary conditions at domain inlet in the CFD validation case. At domain inlet, 148 turbulent kinetic energy is defined as  $k(z)=1.5(I U_m)^2$  and its dissipation rate is  $\varepsilon(z)=C_{\mu}^{3/4}k^{3/2}/l$ , 149 where  $C_{l}=0.09$  and l is the turbulent characteristic length scale. Note that, the maximum velocity 150 151 in the upstream free flow of wind tunnel experiments was 13.33 m/s, however in cases for 152 ventilation analysis, we used a realistic approaching wind (see Eq. (1a)) with a spatial mean 153 velocity of about 3.2 m/s, so in the validation case we actually utilized a smaller fitting velocity

154 profile (maximum velocity is 3.24 m/s, see Fig. 2b) with the same thickness of ABL as that in

- 155 wind tunnel and the similar spatial mean velocity (about 3.2m/s) as that in Eq. (1a). According to
- 156 Snyder [39], Reynolds-number independence can be satisfied if the Reynolds number is greater
- than 4000, i.e. the main structure of turbulence can be almost entirely responsible for the bulk
- 158 transport of momentum and heat or mass transfer. If the velocity z=H=0.069m in the upstream
- 159 free flow (see Fig. 2b) is defined as the reference velocity  $U_{ref} \approx 2.94$  m/s, the reference Reynolds
- 160 number ( $Re_H = \rho U_{ref} H/\mu \approx 13887$ ) is much larger than 4000, Thus the technique of using a smaller
- 161 inflow velocity (i.e. 3.24m/s) can ensure Reynolds number independence.

162 The CFD code FLUENT 6.3 [38] was used to solve the steady-state isothermal turbulent 163 flows. For CFD simulations, we used the same small-scale urban geometries (H=0.069m) as 164 those in wind tunnel experiments. Only half computational domain was used to reduce the calculation time. Fig. 3a displays the computational domain and boundary conditions in the CFD 165 166 validation case. The computational domain is 14.5H wide (1 m) in the lateral (y) direction and 167 11H tall (0.75 m) in the vertical (z) direction. Thus the blockage ratio is about 1.9% (less than 168 3%) satisfying the requirement of the literature [40]. No-slip wall boundary condition was 169 utilized at wall surfaces, and zero normal gradient boundary condition was used at domain 170 outlet, domain roof, domain lateral boundary, domain symmetry boundary.

Fig. 3b displays the grid arrangements in *x*-*y* plane of the validation case. Finer grids are produced within the UCL and near wall surfaces, building corners, street openings. The grid size near the ground is 0.036H(dz=2.5mm). There are 6 cells vertically from *z*=0 to the pedestrian height (*z*=20mm=0.29*H*). The grid size near building roofs at *z*=*H* is 0.022H (d*z*=1.5mm). The horizontal grid size (d*x* and d*y*) near building surfaces varies from 0.022H to 0.043H. The maximum expansion ratio from building surfaces to the surrounding is 1.15 and the total number of hexahedral cells is about 0.82 million.

In the CFD validation case, all CFD set-ups including computational domain size,
boundary conditions and grid arrangements fulfilled the major CFD guidelines recommended by
Tominaga et al. [40].

181

#### 182 **2.3 CFD set-ups for flow modelling**

183 After the CFD validation case, more urban configurations with or without semi-open street 184 roofs and various ambient wind directions were investigated. To better illustrate idealized urban

185 models, all test cases were defined as Case [number of rows-number of columns, wind direction, 186 roof type]. 'Open' roof type denotes open street roofs; As shown in Fig. 4a-4c, four wind directions of  $0^{\circ}$ ,  $15^{\circ}$ ,  $30^{\circ}$ ,  $45^{\circ}$  were included. So the name of validation case is Case [2-2, 0, 187 Open] with four buildings (2 rows, 2 columns), a parallel approaching wind  $(0^{\circ})$  and open street 188 189 roof ('Open' roof type). As displayed in Fig. 4c, a bigger urban model with 16 buildings (4 190 columns, 4 rows, urban size  $L=15H\approx105$  m in full scale) was also investigated in CFD 191 simulations. Besides the 'Open' roof type, Fig. 5 shows the other five types studied in CFD 192 simulations. 'Fully-covered' roof type (see Fig. 5a) means walls entirely covering street roofs 193 with a coverage ratio( $\lambda_a$ ) of 100% at z=H, and 'Partly-covered' roof type (see Fig. 5b) represents 194 street roofs being partly covered ( $\lambda_a$ =80%) by walls at z=H. Roof types of 'Hung1.5H', 195 'Hung1.2H' and 'Hung1.1H' (see Fig. 5c) represent walls being hung above street roofs ( $\lambda_a=100\%$ ) at z=1.5H, 1.2H and 1.1H, respectively. As summarized in Table 1, total 48 test cases were 196

197 numerically investigated.

For test cases with a parallel approaching wind  $(0^{\circ})$ , the computational domain and 198 199 boundary conditions were similar as the CFD validation case. A power-law velocity profile was 200 applied at domain inlet with a power-law exponent of 0.16(see Eq. (1a)). As reported by Lien 201 and Yee [41], it represents a neutral atmospheric boundary layer (ABL) with a depth of 1.8 m 202 created in the wind tunnel by using spires and floor roughness with a roughness length of 203 approximately  $z_0=0.001$  m. In full-scale real conditions, it corresponds to a neutrally-stratified ABL with a surface roughness of  $z_0=0.1m$  [42] (i.e. a neutral ABL above open rural area with a 204 205 regular cover of low crop and occasional large obstacles [43]) The spatial mean velocity at 206 domain inlet calculated from Eq. (1a) approximately equals to that calculated from the inflow 207 velocity profile of the CFD validation case (see Fig. 2b). The inlet profiles of turbulent kinetic 208 energy and its dissipation rate were calculated by Eq. (1b)-(1c)) [30,41].

$$\overline{u}(z) = U_0(z) = U_H(z/H)^{0.16}, \quad \overline{v}(z) = \overline{w}(z) = 0$$
(1a)

$$k_0(z) = u_*^2 / \sqrt{C_{\mu}}$$
 (1b)

211 
$$\mathcal{E}_{0}(z) = C_{\mu}^{3/4} k_{0}(z)^{3/2} / (\kappa_{v} z)$$
(1c)

where the friction velocity  $u_*=0.24 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ ,  $\kappa_v = 0.41$  is von Karman's constant,  $U_H=2.66 \text{ ms}^{-1}$  is the reference velocity at z=H=0.069 m of domain inlet.

For test cases with a non-parallel approaching wind  $(15^{\circ}, 30^{\circ}, 45^{\circ})$ , there are two domain inlets and two domain outlets(see Fig. 4a). At domain inlets, the power-law velocity profiles (stream-wise velocity  $\overline{u} = U_0(z)\cos\theta$ , span-wise velocity  $\overline{v} = U_0(z)\sin\theta$  and vertical velocity  $\overline{w}(z) = 0$ ) and profiles of turbulent quantities in Eq. (1b)-(1c) were used to provide boundary conditions. Zero normal gradient conditions were still used at two domain outlets and domain roof.

220 Fig. 6a and 6b show two examples of the grid arrangements in test cases with four  $(2 \times 2)$ 221 buildings and semi-open street roofs. Note that, the thickness of hung walls to produce semi-222 open street roofs was zero in CFD models. The grid arrangements were similar with those in the 223 CFD validation case except three points: The first is that the grids near semi-open street roofs 224 (i.e. at z=1.1H, 1.2H, 1.5H) are also fine with a grid size of dz=0.014H=1mm (see Fig. 6b); The 225 second is that for test cases with 16 buildings the maximum expansion ratio of grid size from 226 wall surfaces to the surrounding is 1.2 which is less than 1.3 and satisfies the CFD guideline 227 [40]; The third is that the grid number in cases with 'Partly-covered' roof type (see Fig. 6a) is a 228 little more than the other roof types, because fine grids with grid size of dy=0.029H were also 229 generated near lateral boundaries of partly-covered street roofs. The maximum grid number is 230 about 3.5 million in Case [4-4,45, Partly-covered].

All transport equations were discretized by the second order upwind scheme to increase the accuracy and reduce numerical diffusion. The SIMPLE scheme was used for the pressure and velocity coupling. CFD simulations were run until all residuals became constant. Overall, residual for the continuity equation was below  $10^{-4}$ , residuals for the velocity components and *k* were below  $10^{-7}$ , residuals for pollutant concentration and  $\varepsilon$  were below  $0.5 \times 10^{-5}$  and  $0.5 \times 10^{-4}$ respectively.

237

#### 238 **2.4 Ventilation assessment indices**

#### 239 **2.4.1 Age of air**

The local mean age of air  $(\tau_p)$  was originally defined in indoor ventilation and can be measured by tracer gas techniques [44]. The local age of air in UCLs represents the mean time required for the external young air to reach a point since it enters UCLs. If the age of air in rural areas is zero, the greater age of air in UCLs represents a greater probability to be polluted. The

244 UCL age of air depicts how rural air is supplied and distributed within UCLs. Hang et al. [32]

first introduced the homogeneous emission method [44] to numerically predict age of air in

246 UCLs.

247 The governing equations of time-averaged pollutant concentration ( $\bar{c}$ , kg/m<sup>3</sup>) and the age of 248 air ( $\tau_p$ , s) are displayed as below:

249 
$$\frac{-u_j}{u_j}\frac{\partial \tau_p}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k}(K_c\frac{\partial \tau_p}{\partial x_k}) = 1$$

250 
$$\overline{u}_{j}\frac{\partial \overline{c}}{\partial x_{j}} - \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}(K_{c}\frac{\partial \overline{c}}{\partial x_{j}}) = S_{c}$$

251 where  $\overline{u}_{j}$  is the velocity components  $(\overline{u}, \overline{v}, \overline{w})$  in the stream-wise (x), span-wise (y) and 252 vertical (z) directions,  $K_c = v_t / S_{ct}$  is the turbulent eddy diffusivity of pollutants,  $v_t$  is the 253 kinematic eddy viscosity,  $S_{ct}$  is the turbulent Schimdt number ( $S_{ct}$ =0.7) [8, 10, 20, 45].  $S_c$  is the 254 pollutant source term (kgm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>).

In the homogeneous emission method[44], a relation between these two variables was mathematically derived. If a homogenous pollutant release rate ( $S_c$ , kgm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) is defined in the entire UCL, the age of air ( $\tau_n$ , s) can be calculated:

Eq. (4) illustrates a relationship that, with a uniform pollutant source in the entire UCL, higher pollutant concentration at a point represents that it takes the external clean air a longer time to arrive.

Fig.6c shows an example of defining uniform pollutant source in the entire UCL. In this paper, the pollutant emission rate was small ( $S_c=10^{-7}$ kg m<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) to ensure the source release producing little disturbance to the flow field. The inflow concentration at domain inlet was defined zero, and the zero normal flux condition was used at wall surfaces. At all other boundaries zero normal gradient condition was utilized.

Because the age of air in small-scale urban models is small (scale ratio 1:100), the age of air was normalized in Eq. (5a). To compare the age of air in the entire UCLs, this paper also analyzed the normalized spatial mean age of air ( $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$ ) in Eq. (5b)

$$\tau_p^* = \tau_p \times 100 \tag{5a}$$

9

(2)

(3)

271 
$$< \tau_p^* >= \int_{Vol} \tau_p^* dx dy dz / Vol$$

(5b)

- where *Vol* is the entire UCL volume.
- 273

#### 274 **2.4.2 Ventilation flow rates and UCL purging flow rates**

Both mean flows and turbulent diffusions are significant factors for UCL ventilation [37] and pollutant removal [8]. The purging flow rate represents the net flow rate induced by both mean flows and turbulent diffusions for a volume to be purged out by wind through it. It has been used to quantify the ventilation in UCLs [2] and at the pedestrian levels [8].

This paper mainly emphasizes the purging flow rate for the entire UCL. If a passive contaminant source is generated within the entire UCL (see Fig. 6c) with a uniform emission rate (here  $S_c=10^{-7}$  kgm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>), the UCL purging flow rate (*PFR*, m<sup>3</sup>/s) is calculated in Eq. (6).

282 
$$PFR = \frac{S_c \times Vol}{\langle \overline{c} \rangle} = \frac{S_c \times Vol}{\int \int \overline{c} dx dy dz / Vol}$$
(6)

Here  $\langle \overline{c} \rangle$  is the spatially-averaged concentration in the entire UCL volume (*Vol*). It is worth mentioning that *PFR* is independent of pollutant sources, and illustrates the net UCL ventilation capacity due to both mean flows and turbulent diffusion.

Because *PFR* is small for small-scale urban models (scale ratio 1:100), *PFR* is normalized by the reference flow rate  $(Q_{\infty})$ .

288 
$$PFR^* = \frac{S_c \times Vol}{\langle \overline{c} \rangle Q_{\infty}} = \frac{PFR}{Q_{\infty}}$$
(7)

$$Q_{\infty} = H \times \int_0^H U_0(z) dz \tag{8}$$

where  $Q_{\infty} = 0.01093 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$  is the flow rate far upstream through the same area with a windward street opening (area  $A = H \times H$ ),  $U_0(z)$  is defined in Eq. (1a).

Fig. 4b-4c show the definition of street openings in test cases with 4 (2×2) and 16 (4×4) buildings. To quantify the ventilation pattern, all flow rates entering and leaving UCL volumes were normalized by the reference flow rate ( $Q_{\infty}$ ), including  $Q^*$  due to mean flows (see Eq. (9)) and  $Q^*_{roof}(turb)$  due to turbulence fluctuations across street roofs [37] (see Eq. (10)):

296 
$$Q^* = \int \vec{V} \cdot \vec{n} dA / Q_{\infty}$$
(9)

$$Q^*_{roof}(turb) = \pm \int 0.5\sigma_w dA/Q_\infty$$
<sup>(10)</sup>

where in Eq.(9),  $\vec{V}$  is velocity vector,  $\vec{n}$  is the normal direction of street openings or street roofs, A is surface area; In Eq.(10),  $\sigma_w = \sqrt{w'w'} = \sqrt{2k/3}$  is the fluctuation velocity on street roofs based on the approximation of isotropic turbulence (*k* is the turbulent kinetic energy).

301 Due to the flow balance by mean flows, the total flow rate leaving UCL ( $Q_{out}$ ) through 302 UCL boundaries equals to that entering UCL ( $Q_{in}$ ). They are named as the total flow rates by 303 mean flows  $Q_T$  and are normalized by the reference flow rate  $Q_{\infty}$ .

$$304 Q_T^* = Q_{in}^* = Q_{out}^* (11)$$

305 By applying the above concepts, this paper quantifies the effects of semi-open street roofs 306 and various wind directions on the age distribution, the ventilation pattern and the entire UCL 307 ventilation capacity.

308

#### **309 3. Results and discussions**

#### 310 **3.1 Evaluation and validation of CFD results**

Fig. 7 shows the validation of CFD results by using the measured horizontal profiles of 311 312 velocity and turbulent intensity along street centerline at z=0.11H in Case [2-2.0, Open]. x/H=0313 denotes the location of windward street opening (at O1). The velocity was normalized by the 314 inflow velocity at domain inlet at the same height (z=0.11H). In comparison to wind tunnel data, 315 the standard k- $\varepsilon$  model and realizable k- $\varepsilon$  model predicted the velocity profile better than RNG k-316  $\varepsilon$  model and RSM model. More importantly the standard k- $\varepsilon$  model performed the best in 317 predicting airflow velocity in the downstream region of the main street. This finding agrees with 318 the literature [35-36] that non-standard  $k - \varepsilon$  models perform better in predicting separate flows 319 but do worse in predicting airflow velocity in weak wind regions. All RANS turbulence models 320 can only predict the shape of turbulence intensity profile, thus  $Q^*_{roof}(turb)$  calculated by CFD 321 simulations were only used to provide a reference study and the relative values of  $Q^*_{roof}(turb)$ 322 among different test cases were emphasized. Since the better prediction of mean flows within

323 UCL and along the streets is more important, this paper hereby regards the standard k- $\varepsilon$  model 324 as the default turbulence model in the following CFD simulations.

For the validation case (medium grid, 0.8 million), a finer grid arrangement with the minimum grid size of 0.014*H* and grid number of 1.3 million was used to perform a grid independence study. As displayed in Fig. 7c, numerical results were not sensitive to the grid refinement, indicating present grid arrangements in Fig. 3b were sufficiently fine.

329

#### 330 **3.2 Ventilation assessment in cases with four buildings**

In this subsection, the effects of semi-open street roofs and various wind directions in test cases with four buildings and two crossing streets (i.e. Case [2-2,wind direction, roof type], see Table 1) were investigated.

334

#### **335 3.2.1 Effect of semi-open street roofs in four example test cases**

336 Fig. 8a displays three-dimensional (3D) streamline in four test cases (only half domain,  $0^{\circ}$ ), 337 i.e. Case [2-2, 0, Open], Case [2-2, 0, Hung1.2H], Case [2-2, 0, Partly-covered], Case [2-2, 338 0.Fully-covered]. Channel flows are found in the main streets parallel to the approaching wind 339 and 3D helical flows exist in the secondary streets. These channel and helical flows produce air 340 exchange and turbulent diffusion through street openings and street roofs. Different semi-open 341 street roofs may produce various flow pattern and ventilation capacity but this effect cannot be 342 clearly displayed by only 3D streamlines in Fig. 8a. To quantify this effect, Fig. 8b shows the normalized age of air ( $\tau_n^* = \tau_n \times 100$ ) in z=0.22H (i.e. 1.5m in full scale) and normalized flow 343 344 rates  $(Q^*)$  in these four test cases. Positive values denote air entering UCLs and negative ones represent air leaving UCLs.  $\tau_n^*$  along the main street (Street 1 and Street 3) is relatively small 345 (i.e. air is relatively young) because  $Q^*$  through O1 and O3 are always large ( $Q^*(O1)=1.048$  to 346 347 0.848;  $Q^*(O3) = -0.551$  to -0.813). In the secondary streets (Street 2 and Street 4),  $Q^*$  through O2 (O4) are small (only 0.086 to -0.019). Thus the roof ventilations are more significant to the 348 secondary streets. For example, in Case [2-2, 0, Open],  $\tau_p^*$  in Street 2 (or Street 4) is similar 349 350 with that in Street 3 because the flow rates across street roofs are comparable to those across O1 351 and O3, including the upward and downward flow rates due to mean flows  $(Q^*_{roof}(out)=-0.825)$ and  $Q^*_{roof}(in)=0.148$ ), and the effective flow rate induced by turbulence fluctuations 352

353  $(Q^*_{roof}(turb) = 1.211)$ . For types of 'Hung1.2H' and 'Partly-covered', roof ventilation capacity 354 significantly decreases, including  $Q^*_{roof}(out)=-0.825$  to -0.424 and -0.306,  $Q^*_{roof}(in)=0.148$  to 355 0.116 and 0.008,  $Q^*_{roof}(turb)=1.211$  to 1.059 and 0.258. Moreover  $Q^*$  across O1 decreases a little 356 (1.048 to 0.999 and 0.950) due to the displacement by semi-open street roofs, and  $Q^*$  across O3 357 increases a little (-0.551 to -0.684 and -0.685). These results show that semi-open street roofs not 358 only pose additional flow resistances and therefore reduce the ventilation by vertical mean flows 359 and turbulence across street roofs, but also influence the inflow rates and redistribution of 360 airflows along the streets within UCL, especially driving more air across Street 3 (O3). Thus in contrast to Case [2-2, 0, Open], models with semi-open street roofs obtain much greater  $\tau_n^*$  and 361 older air in the secondary streets due to the weakened roof ventilation. An extreme example is 362 'Fully-covered' type, in which the flow rates across street roofs are zero, and  $\tau_p^*$  in the 363 364 secondary street (125 to 225) is much greater than that in the main street (0-45). The UCL spatial mean age of air  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$  with 'Open' and 'Hung1.2H' types are 24.3 and 37.7, which is much 365 smaller than  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$  with 'Partly-covered' and 'Fully-covered' types (54.9 and 90.4), confirming 366 367 that the 'Hung1.2H' type provide better overall UCL ventilation than 'Partly-covered' and 'Fully-368 covered' types.

369

#### 370 **3.2.2 Effect of ambient wind directions in four example test cases**

Fig. 9 displays 3D streamline,  $\tau_p^*$  and  $Q^*$  in Case [2-2, 0, Hung1.5H], Case [2-2, 15, 371 372 Hung1.5H], Case [2-2, 30, Hung1.5H] and Case [2-2, 45, Hung1.5H]. The flow patterns are 373 obviously different and flow rates are redistributed. With a parallel approaching wind, air enters 374 UCL through O1, O2 and O4, then leaves through O3. Moreover 3D helical flows mainly exist 375 in Street 2 and Street 4 where air is relatively old. With non-parallel approaching wind, air enters 376 UCLs across O1 and O2, then leaves through O3 and O4; Recirculation flows exist in all four streets and  $\tau_{p}^{*}$  is relatively large in the downstream streets (Street 3 and Street 4) and in 377 recirculation regions. If wind directions change from  $0^{\circ}$  to  $15^{\circ}$ ,  $30^{\circ}$ ,  $45^{\circ}$ , both roof ventilation and 378 379 overall UCL ventilation are improved including  $Q^*_{roof}(out)$  varies from -0.547 (0°) to -0.939(15°), -0.919 (30 °) and -0.730 (45 °),  $Q^*_{roof}(in)$  changes from 0.106 (0°) to 0.586(15°), 1.092 (30°) and 380 1.041(45°)), and  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$  decreases from 29.6 (0°) to 22.6 (15°), 18.9 (30°) and 18.5 (45°). 381

382 These results confirm that  $30^{\circ}$  and  $45^{\circ}$  produce better UCL ventilation than  $0^{\circ}$  and  $15^{\circ}$ .

383	As discussed and reported by the literature [2, 8-11, 18-20, 24, 31-32, 45], turbulent Schimdt
384	numbers $(S_{ct})$ may influence numerical results of pollutant dispersion. As displayed in Table 2,
385	the effects of different $S_{ct}$ and turbulence models are studied in Case [2-2, 0, Open] to quantify
386	the sensitivity of turbulence models and $S_{ct}$ on UCL ventilation: $S_{ct} = 1.0, 0.7$ and 0.4 are used in
387	standard k- $\varepsilon$ model, $S_{ct}$ =0.7 in RNG k- $\varepsilon$ model, and $S_{ct}$ =0.7 in Realizable k- $\varepsilon$ model. With the
388	same standard <i>k</i> - $\varepsilon$ model and <i>S</i> <sub><i>ct</i></sub> of 1.0, 0.7 or 0.4, $\langle \tau_p^* \rangle$ in the entire UCL are 26.4, 24.3 and
389	21.2, respectively, showing that smaller $S_{ct}$ may enhance pollutant dispersion by turbulent
390	diffusion and slightly reduce the age of air. With the same $S_{ct}$ of 0.7, realizable $k$ - $\varepsilon$ model and
391	RNG $k$ - $\varepsilon$ model obtain different flow rates through O3 and street roofs which result in a little
392	greater $< \tau_p^* > (27.2 \text{ and } 28.2)$ than that by standard $k - \varepsilon$ model (24.3). Especially $Q^*$ across O3
393	predicted by RNG $k$ - $\varepsilon$ model is much smaller than those by the other two, which can be
394	explained by the fact that RNG k- $\varepsilon$ model significantly over-predicts $Q^*_{roof}(out)$ (-1.127) than the
395	other two (-0.825 and -0.844). To be consistent, standard $k - \varepsilon$ model with $S_{ct}$ of 0.7 was selected
396	as the default settings in CFD simulations.

397

#### **398 3.2.2 Overall ventilation assessment in cases with four (2×2) buildings**

399 To quantify the effect of semi-open street roofs on UCL ventilation flow rates, Fig. 10 400 shows  $Q^*$  through O1-O4 and  $Q^*_{roof}(out)$ ,  $Q^*_{roof}(in)$ ,  $Q^*_{roof}(turb)$  in all test cases with 4 buildings and wind directions of 0° to 45°. Roof types change from 'Open', 'Hung1.5H', 'Hung1.2H', 401 402 'Hung1.1H', to 'Partly-covered' and 'Fully-covered' (reading figure from left to right). Roof ventilations for 'Fully-covered' type are all zero. For wind directions of 0° and 15° (see Fig.10a-403 404 10b), roof type variations result in a slightly decreasing flow rates across O1 and an increasing 405 flow rates across O3. More importantly, the flow rates across street roofs are all significantly 406 weakened, including  $Q^*_{roof}(out)$  from -0.825 (0°) and -1.156(15°) to 0,  $Q^*_{roof}(in)$  from 0.148 (0°) and 0.619 (15°) to 0, and  $Q^*_{roof}(turb)$  from 1.211(0°) and 1.315 (15°) to 0. Moreover,  $Q^*$  across 407 408 O2 and O4 are relatively small for wind direction of  $0^{\circ}$  (see Fig. 10a), but they become considerably large for wind direction of 15° (see Fig. 10b). For wind directions of 30° and 45° 409 (see Fig.10c-10d), similar findings exist due to such roof type variations that all roof ventilation 410 indices decrease quickly and  $Q^*$  across street openings decrease a little. 411

412 To quantify the reduction of UCL ventilation as roof types varying from 'Open' type to 413 'Fully-covered' type, the normalized ventilation ratio (NVR) is defined as the value of ventilation 414 indices in a case divided by those with 'open street roofs' and the same wind direction. Thus for 415 cases with open street roofs, NVR=1, and  $Q^*$  across street roofs for 'Fully-covered' roof type are 416 all zero (NVR=0). Fig. 11 displays  $Q^*_{roof}$  (in) and  $Q^*_{roof}$  (out),  $Q^*_{roof}$  (turb), total normalized flow rates by mean flows ( $Q_T^*$ ), normalized UCL purging flow rate (*PFR*\*),  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$  in the entire 417 UCL, and their NVR values for all 24 cases with 4 buildings. With the same roof type, wind 418 419 direction of 30° and 45° obtain greater  $Q^*_{roof}$  (in) and  $Q^*_{roof}$  (turb), larger  $Q_T^*$  and PFR\*, smaller  $<\tau_n^*>$ , showing that 30° and 45° produce better UCL ventilation than 0° and 15°. In addition, 420 421 Fig.11a-11b also confirm that, all roof ventilation indices decrease as roof type varies from 422 'Open' to 'Partly-covered', and NVR for 'Partly-covered' type are as small as 5.6% to 34% for 423  $Q^*_{roof}$  (in), 18.0%-37.1% for  $Q^*_{roof}$  (out), and 21.3%-22.6% for  $Q^*_{roof}$  (turb) respectively. Fig. 424 11c-11d displays that overall UCL ventilation basically decreases from 'Open' type to 'Fully-425 covered' type, indicated by the fact as below: the NVR of  $Q_T^*$  are 87%-99% for 'Hung1.5H' type, 426 81%-92% for 'Hung1.2H' type, 67%-78% for 'Hung1.1H' type, 57%-72% for 'Partly-covered' 427 type and 41%-62% for 'Fully-covered' type; the NVR of PFR\* are from 82%-110%, 64%-110%, 52%-104% to 44%-87% and 27%-64%, and the NVR of  $< \tau_p^* >$  are from 90%-122%, 91%-428 429 155%, 96%-190% to 115%-226% and 156-373%. Overall, Fig. 11d-11e confirm that roof types 430 of 'Hung1.5H', 'Hung1.2H' and 'Hung1.1H' may produce relatively considerable UCL ventilation in contrast to 'Open' type (i.e. NVR are 52%-110% for PFR\* and 91%-190% for  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$ ). 431 432 Considering 'Hung1.1H' and 'Hung1.2H' types are more realistic, they are proposed as better 433 semi-open street roof configurations. Meanwhile, Fig. 11d-11e also verify that, if roof types 434 change from 'Open" to 'Fully-covered', overall UCL ventilation with  $0^{\circ}$  wind direction may 435 decrease much more significantly (NVR are 100% to 27% for PFR\*, and 100% to 372% for  $<\tau_{n}^{*}>$ ) than the other wind directions, because the secondary streets with 0° wind direction and 436 437 semi-open street roofs tend to be poorly ventilated.

438

#### 439 **3.3 Ventilation assessment in test cases with sixteen buildings**

What happen if urban size enlarges? To quantify this effect, test cases with 16 buildings areinvestigated, as summarized in Table 1. Fig. 12 displays normalized age of air in four test cases,

i.e. Case [4-4, 0, Hung1.2H], Case [4-4, 15, Hung1.2H], Case [4-4, 30, Hung1.2H], Case [4-4, 45,
Hung1.2H]. The ventilation patterns are similar with those consisting of 4 buildings. For wind
direction of 0°, air mainly enters UCL across windward street openings of O1a, O1b, O1c, and
leaves UCL through leeward openings of O3a, O3b, O3c. For wind directions of 15°, 30°, and
45°, air enters UCL through O1a to O1c and O2a to O2c, then leaves UCL across O2a to O2c
and O4a to O4c. Age of air is relatively large and air is old in recirculation regions and
downstream regions.

449 UCL ventilation indices and their normalized ventilation ratios (NVR) in all 24 test cases with 16 buildings are quantitatively analyzed, including  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (in) and  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (out) in Fig. 13a, 450  $Q^*_{roof}$  (turb) in Fig. 13b,  $Q_T^*$  in Fig. 13c, *PFR*\* in Fig. 13d and  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$  in the entire UCL in Fig. 451 452 13e. It is found that UCL ventilation indices basically become a little better if wind directions change from  $0^{\circ}$  and  $15^{\circ}$  to  $30^{\circ}$  and  $45^{\circ}$ . More importantly, roof type variations from 'Open' to 453 454 'Fully-covered' produce a large decreasing rate of overall UCL ventilation and obtain 455 macroscopically older air, which can be represented by the below data. For roof ventilation 456 indices(see Fig. 13a-13b), NVR for 'Fully-covered' type are all zero, and those for 'Partly-457 covered' type are 11%-23% for  $Q^*_{roof}$  (in), 28%-39% for  $Q^*_{roof}$  (out), and 16%-22% for  $Q^*_{roof}$ 458 (turb). For overall UCL ventilation, NVR of  $Q_T^*$  (see Fig. 13c) are 81%-96% for 'Hung1.5H' type, 459 78%-87% for 'Hung1.2H' type, 65%-86% for 'Hung1.1H' type, 52%-61% for 'Partly-covered' 460 type and 28%-50% for 'Fully-covered' type, and NVR of PFR\*(see Fig. 13d) for the above roof types are 84%-90%, 76%-87%, 65%-86%, 52%-68%, and 36%-45% respectively, moreover NVR 461 of  $\langle \tau_n^* \rangle$  increase from 111%-120%, 115%-131%, 116%-154% to 148%-192%, 223%-279% 462 (i.e. air becomes older). Results also confirm that, 'Hung1.5H', 'Hung1.2H' and 'Hung1.1H' types 463 464 produce a little smaller but comparable UCL ventilation in contrast to 'Open' type. Thus for cases 465 with 16 buildings, the roof types of 'Hung1.2H' and 'Hung1.1H' are better choices considering 466 they are more realistic designs.

467

#### 468 **3.4 Effect of urban size on UCL ventilation**

469 To quantify how overall UCL ventilations change if building number or urban size

- 470 increases, Fig. 13b-13e also compares  $Q^*_{roof}$  (turb),  $Q_T^*$ , *PFR*\* and  $\langle \tau_p^* \rangle$  between urban
- 471 models with 4 or 16 buildings (the smaller or bigger model). By analyzing Fig. 13b-13d,  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$

472 (turb),  $Q_T^*$  and *PFR*<sup>\*</sup> in the bigger model are found several times (about 3.2-4.7 for  $Q^*_{roof}$ , 1.2-473 2.6 for  $Q_T^*$ , 0.8-3.5 for *PFR*\*) larger than those in the smaller model. Larger urban model 474 obtains greater ventilation capacity because their total area of street openings and street roofs are 475 2 and 5.2 times greater than the smaller one. However it does not represent larger urban model can produces better overall UCL ventilation. It can be confirmed by Fig. 13e that  $\langle \tau_{p}^{*} \rangle$  in the 476 477 bigger model is about 1.4 to 3.5 times as great as that in the smaller model, showing that the 478 bigger model obtains macroscopically older air. It is because the bigger model has a UCL 479 volume of 5.2 times larger than that in the smaller model and requires longer time for wind to 480 flow through.

481

#### 482 **3.5 Discussions and Future outlooks**

483 Further investigations are still required before formulating a practical guidelines for these 484 semi-open street roof designs, such as the effect of the surrounding building height, the effect of 485 atmospheric thermal stratification (not neutral) and buoyancy force due to solar shading, the 486 analysis of rain-cover and shading capability etc. This paper is one of the first attempts to 487 quantify and address a relationship between semi-open street roof configurations and UCL 488 ventilation indices. The methodologies and techniques utilized in this paper are promising, and 489 possibly provide a valid tool to investigate UCL ventilation in other types of idealized or realistic 490 urban configurations.

491

#### 492 **4.** Conclusions

493 The arrangements of semi-open street roofs in urban space are effective to protect 494 pedestrians from strong sunshine and heavy rains or snows. Their effects on urban canopy layer 495 (UCL) ventilation are still not fully understood. This paper numerically quantified how five types 496 of semi-open street roofs influence isothermal turbulent airflows and UCL ventilation 497 performance under a neutral atmospheric condition with various ambient wind directions  $(0^{\circ}, 15^{\circ}, 15^{\circ})$  $30^{\circ}$ ,  $45^{\circ}$ ). Two small-scale idealized urban models were investigated consisting of 4 (2×2) or 16 498 499  $(4\times4)$  buildings with uniform building height of H=0.069m, and street aspect ratio of H/W=1, 500 corresponding to full-scale urban models of about 7m tall, 49m and 105m long as the scale ratio 501 is 1:100. In contrast to 'Open' roof type (open street roof), five kinds of semi-open street roofs 502 were included: Walls are hung above open street roofs (coverage ratio  $\lambda_a=100\%$ ) at z=1.1H, 1.2H,

503 1.5*H*, i.e. types of 'Hung1.1H', 'Hung1.2H', 'Hung1.5H'; Walls partly cover street roofs at z=H

504 ( $\lambda_a=80\%$ ), i.e. 'Partly-covered' type; Walls are set up to cover the entire street roof at z=H

505 ( $\lambda_a=100\%$ ), i.e. 'Fully-covered' type. The age of air and its spatial mean value, flow rates across

506 street openings and street roofs, the UCL purging flow rate were numerically analyzed to

507 quantify UCL ventilation.

508 Results show that the prediction of airflow velocity by using standard k- $\varepsilon$  model agreed 509 better with wind tunnel data than other three RANS turbulence models. Semi-open street roofs 510 significantly influence UCL ventilation patterns and redistribute flow rates across street openings 511 and street roofs. As roof types vary from 'Open' to 'Hung1.5H', 'Hung1.2H', 'Hung1.1H' then to 512 'Partly-covered' and 'Fully-covered', both roof ventilation and overall UCL ventilation 513 performance are basically weakened. The net UCL ventilation is the worst for the 'Fully-covered' 514 type, followed by the 'Partly-covered' type. The roof types of 'Hung1.2H' and 'Hung1.1H' are 515 proposed because they produce comparable UCL ventilation, meanwhile are more realistic roof 516 designs. Oblique ambient wind directions of 30° and 45° obtain better UCL ventilation than 15° 517 and  $0^{\circ}$ . If the building number increases from 4 (2×2) to 16 (4×4), air in the entire UCL becomes 518 macroscopically older because the greater UCL volume requires longer time for rural wind to 519 flow through.

520

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526

#### 527 Nomenclature

528	Α	area of a surface $(m^2)$
529	B,H,L,W	building width, building height, total length, street width
530	$\bar{c}_{,<}\bar{c}_{>}$	time-averaged pollutant concentration(kgm <sup>-3</sup> ) and its spatial mean value
531	$K_c, v_t$	turbulent eddy diffusivity of pollutant and momentum $K_c = v_t / S_{ct}$
532	k, $\varepsilon$	turbulent kinetic energy and its dissipation rate

533	$\vec{n}$	normal direction of street openings or canopy roofs
534	NVR	normalized ventilation ratio in contrast to models with 'open' street roofs
535	PFR,PFR*	purging flow rate and its normalized value ( $PFR^*=PFR/Q_{\infty}$ )
536	$Q^{*}$	normalized flow rate through street openings or street roofs
537	$Q_{in}$ *, $Q_{out}$ *	normalized total inflow and outflow rate for entire UCL
538	$Q_{_T}*$	total ventilation flow rate by mean flows (m <sup>3</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
539	$Q_{\infty}$	reference flow rate in upstream free flow to normalize flow rates
540	$Q^*_{\rm roof}$ (turb)	normalized effective flow rate across street roofs by turbulence
541	$Q^*_{\rm roof}$ (in)	normalized inflow rate across street roofs by downward flows
542	$Q^*_{\mathrm{roof}}$ (out)	normalized outflow rate across street roofs by upward outflows
543	$S_c$	pollutant release rate
544	S <sub>ct</sub>	turbulent Schmidt number
545	$\sigma_{_w}$	fluctuation velocity on street roofs
546	${oldsymbol{ au}}_p$ , ${oldsymbol{ au}}_p^*$	age of air (s) and its normalized value
547	$< au_{p}^{*}>$	normalized spatial mean age of air
548	$U_{\rm m}, I_{\rm m}$	velocity, turbulence intensity measured in upstream free flow
549	$U_0(z)$	velocity profiles used at CFD domain inlet for ventilation cases
550	$U_{H}$	reference velocity (2.66m/s) at $z=H$
551	$\overline{u_j}, x_j$	velocity and coordinate components
552	$\vec{V}$	velocity vector
553	Vol	control volume
554	<i>x</i> , <i>y</i> , <i>z</i>	stream-wise, span-wise, vertical directions
555		
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#### 663 Figure list

- Fig. 1. Two urban configurations of semi-open street roof design: (a) Walls being hung above street roofs of food court, (b) Walls being partly covered at street roof height (z=H) of retail center.
- 667
- Fig. 2. Model descriptions of experimental model: (a) The idealized urban model with 4
- buildings and open street roof, (b) Vertical profiles of velocity and turbulence intensity in theupstream free flow of wind tunnel experiment.
- 671
- Fig. 3. (a) Computational domain for cases with a parallel approaching wind  $(0^{\circ})$  and half domain size, (b) Grid arrangements in *x*-*y* plane in the validation case.
- 674
- Fig. 4. (a) Computational domain with oblique wind direction and full domain size. Model
- 676 descriptions of urban models with (b) 4 ( $2\times 2$ ) buildings and (c) 16 ( $4\times 4$ ) buildings.
- 677
- Fig. 5. (a)'Fully-covered' roof type: walls fully cover street roofs at z=H (b) 'Partly-covered' roof
- type: walls partly cover street roofs at z=H, (c) Types of 'Hung1.5H', 'Hung1.2H', 'Hung1.1H':
- 680 walls are hung above street roofs at z=1.1H, 1.2H, 15H.
- 681

- Fig. 6. Two examples of grid arrangements for urban geometries with 4 buildings: (a) in x-y
- 683 plane, (b) in *x-z* plane. (c)Definition of uniform pollutant source in UCL volume.

684

- Fig. 7. Validation profiles of (a) velocity and (b) turbulence intensity along the street centerline
- 686 at z=0.11H by using different turbulence models. (c) Horizontal profiles of velocity for a grid

687 independence study.

- 688
- 689 Fig. 8. (a) 3D streamline, (b)  $\tau_p * \text{ in } z=0.22H \text{ and } Q^* \text{ in Case } [2-2, 0, \text{ Open}], \text{ Case } [2-2, 0, \text{ open}]$

Hung1.2H], Case [2-2, 0, Partly-covered], Case [2-2, 0, Fully-covered].

- 691
- 692 Fig. 9. (a) 3D streamline, (b)  $\tau_p^*$  and  $Q^*$  in Case [2-2, 0, Hung1.5H], Case [2-2, 15, Hung1.5H],
- 693 Case [2-2, 30, Hung1.5H], Case [2-2, 45, Hung1.5H]. Note that in Fig. 9b, negative values of  $Q^*$
- by mean flows denote air leaving UCL and positive ones represent air entering UCL.
- 695
- 696 Fig. 10.  $Q^*$  in urban models with 4 buildings and wind directions of (a) 0°, (b) 15°, (c) 30°, 697 (d)45°.
- 698
- 699 Fig. 11. Ventilation indices and their *NVR* for test cases with 4 buildings: (a)  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (in) and 700  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (out), (b)  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (turb), (c)  $Q_T^*$ , (d) *PFR*\*, (e) <  $\tau_n^* >$ .
- 701
- Fig. 12.  $\tau_p * \text{ in } z=0.22H \text{ in } (a) \text{ Case } [4-4, 0, \text{Hung1.2H}], (b) \text{ Case } [4-4, 15, \text{Hung1.2H}], (c) \text{ Case}$ [4-4, 30, Hung1.2H], (d) Case [4-4, 45, Hung1.2H].
- 704
- Fig. 13. Ventilation indices and their *NVR*: (a)  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (in) and  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (out) in 24 test cases with
- 16 buildings, In all 48 test cases: (b)  $Q^*_{\text{roof}}$  (turb), (c)  $Q_T^*$ , (d)  $PFR^*$ , (e)  $<\tau_p^*>$ .

2 rows, 2 columns	(2×2)	4 rows, 4 columns $(4\times4)$			
Case name*	Ambient wind	Case name	Ambient wind		
	direction $\theta^{\circ}$		direction $\theta^{\circ}$		
[2-2, 0, Open]		[4-4, 0, Open]			
[2-2, 0, Hung1.5H]		[4-4, 0, Hung1.5H]			
[2-2, 0, Hung1.2H]	$0^{\rm o}$	[4-4, 0, Hung1.2H]	0°		
[2-2, 0, Hung1.1H]		[4-4, 0, Hung1.1H]			
[2-2, 0,Partly-covered]		[4-4, 0,Partly-covered]			
[2-2, 0, Fully-covered]		[4-4, 0, Fully-covered]			
[2-2, 15, Open]		[4-4, 15, Open]			
[2-2, 15, Hung1.5H]		[4-4, 15, Hung1.5H]	· ·		
[2-2, 15, Hung1.2H]	15°	[4-4, 15, Hung1.2H]	15°		
[2-2, 15, Hung1.1H]		[4-4, 15, Hung1.1H]			
[2-2, 15,Partly-covered]		[4-4, 15,Partly-covered]			
[2-2, 15, Fully-covered]		[4-4, 15, Fully-covered]			
[2-2, 30, Open]		[4-4, 30, Open]			
[2-2, 30, Hung1.5H]		[4-4, 30, Hung1.5H]			
[2-2, 30, Hung1.2H]	30°	[4-4, 30, Hung1.2H]	30 °		
[2-2, 30, Hung1.1H]		[4-4, 30, Hung1.1H]			
[2-2, 30,Partly-covered]		[4-4, 30,Partly-covered]			
[2-2, 30, Fully-covered]	4	[4-4, 30, Fully-covered]			
		Y			
[2-2, 45, Open]		[4-4, 45, Open]			
[2-2, 45, Hung1.5H]		[4-4, 45, Hung1.5H]			
[2-2, 45, Hung1.2H]	45°	[4-4, 45, Hung1.2H]	45 °		
[2-2, 45, Hung1.1H]		[4-4, 45, Hung1.1H]	]		
[2-2, 45,Partly-covered]		[4-4, 45,Partly-covered]	]		
[2-2, 45, Fully-covered]		[4-4, 45, Fully-covered]			

Table 1 Model descriptions of 48 test cases.

\*Case name is defined as [row number-column number, wind direction ( $\theta^{\circ}$ ), roof type]. Open' denotes open street roofs; 'Fully-covered' and 'Partly-covered' means solid walls 'fully or 'partly cover' street roofs at *z*=*H*. 'Hung1.5H, Hung1.2H and Hung1.1H' represent solid walls are 'Hung' above street roofs at *z*=1.5*H*, 1.2*H* and 1.1*H*.

Table 2 Effect of turbulence models and turbulent Schimdt number (*Sct*) on  $\langle \tau_p^* \rangle$ , *PFR*\* and  $Q_T^*$  in the entire UCL,  $Q_{\text{roof}}(\text{turb})^*$  and  $Q^*$  across O3 in Case [2-2, 0, Open].

Turbulence models	Sct	$< \tau_p^* >$	PFR*	$Q_{T}^{*}$	$Q^*_{roof}(out)$	$Q^*_{roof}(in)$	$Q^*_{roof}(turb)$	<i>Q</i> *(O3)
	0.4	21.2	1.847	1.376	-0.825	0.148	1.211	-0.551
Standard $k$ - $\varepsilon$	0.7	24.3	1.609					
	1.0	26.4	1.482					
Realizable $k$ - $\varepsilon$	0.7	27.2	1.439	1.401	-0.844	0.145	1.066	-0.536
RNG $k$ - $\varepsilon$	0.7	28.8	1.358	1.378	-1.127	0.181	0.919	-0.274

\*Negative values denote air leaving UCL and positive ones represent air entering it.



(a)





(b)



Fig. 2. Hang et al.



Fig. 3 Hang et al.





Fig. 4. Hang et al.



Fig. 5. Hang et al.



Fig.6. Hang et al.

(c)



Fig. 7. Hang et al.



Fig. 8 Hang et al.



Fig. 9 Hang et al.





Fig.10. Hang et al.







Fig. 11. Hang et al.





Fig. 12. Hang et al.







(e)

Fig. 13 Hang et al.



Fig. 6 Hang et al.



Fig. 7 Hang et al.





Fig. 10. Hang et al.