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Pollutants emission scenarios for residential ventilation

2

performance assessment. A review

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7 Abstract

8 Performance-based approaches for energy consumption in new buildings are increasingly used in 9 codes and standards. Similarly, there is ongoing research on performance-based approaches for 10 ventilation systems. The aim is to assess indoor air quality (IAQ) performance in low-energy houses 11 at the design stage. In this context, the whole-building IAQ performance modelling process raises a 12 very important question: What are the emission scenarios and occupancy schedules to be used as entry data to calculate the selected performance indicators? We focus on this issue through a 13 14 literature review: firstly oriented toward the occupancy considerations so as to define the emission 15 rates for CO_2 , moisture, formaldehyde and $PM_{2.5}$ to be use as input for ventilation performance assessment. 16

Based on this review, we propose daily schedules for the occupants and their associated moisture and CO₂ emissions. We completed them with emission rate values for the main pollutant sources from indoor activities regarding moisture emissions from laundry, showering and cooking; PM_{2.5} emissions from cooking and formaldehyde from building materials and furniture. Finally, from these values we built three emission rates classified for PM_{2.5} and formaldehyde: high, medium and low.

22 Keywords: Ventilation, indoor air quality, performance, residential buildings, scenarios, review

23 1 Introduction

Net zero-energy residential buildings are in increasing demand in Europe because of the energy performance building directive [1]. Ventilation strategies have a large impact on the heat balance and the associated air conditioning energy need. Improving ventilation strategies also has great potential to reduce the contribution of residential buildings to total energy consumption.

28 Ventilation systems and strategies play another important role in buildings' indoor air quality (IAQ), 29 significantly affecting public health [2–6]. People spend 60–90% of their life in indoor environments 30 (homes, offices, schools, etc.). The current damage to public health estimated by Logue et al. [7] in 31 disability-adjusted life years (µDALY) per person per year from all sources attributable to IAQ, 32 excluding second-hand smoke (SHS) and radon, ranged between the health effects of road traffic accidents (4,000 µDALY.pers⁻¹.year⁻¹) and heart disease from all causes (11,000 µDALY.(pers⁻¹.year⁻¹). 33 34 Health gains in Europe (EU-26) attributed to effective implementation of the energy performance 35 building directive, which includes indoor air quality issues, have been estimated at more than 36 300,000 DALYs per year.

37 In this context, in new certifications and future building regulations, building performance should be 38 extended to indoor environment quality, beyond simply energy performance. In the energy 39 performance field, successive regulations encouraged a performance-based approach, based on an 40 energy consumption requirement for heating and/or cooling at the design stage [8]. In the building 41 ventilation field, regulations throughout the world are mainly still based on prescriptive approaches, 42 with airflow or air change rate requirements [9]. There is ongoing research on performance-based 43 approaches for residential building ventilation; aiming to replace prescriptive approaches. Indeed, 44 the latter methods, with prescribed ventilation rates only, are an imperfect way to achieve a given 45 IAQ. On the opposite, a performance-based approach, using for example IAQ performance indicators 46 instead of ventilation rates, should be more appropriate.

47 Given the lack of relevant performance evaluation method for ventilation systems, we previously developed a performance-based approach for assessing ventilation performance at the building 48 49 scale, at the end of the design stage, much like the regulatory energy performance calculation. This would ensure that ventilation is designed to avoid risks for occupants' health. We should also keep 50 51 in mind, that Indoor Air Quality relies on two main principles: reduction of indoor pollution sources 52 and efficient ventilation. Indeed, the ventilation system can not ensure the all pollutant dilution 53 without a significant impact on the building energy performances. The need to reduce sources of 54 indoor pollution is also a key element in ensuring good IAQ, for example by avoiding smoking 55 cigarettes indoors, burning candles etc... Sources reduction is out of the frame of the developed 56 method, which is focussing exclusively on the ventilation performance assessment. The following scheme gives an overview of the whole building IAQ modelling process for this performance-based 57 approach, the inputs and outputs needed, and identifies the scope of the present paper (Figure 1). 58



- 60 Figure 1. Performance-based approach for ventilation.
- To develop this type of performance-based approach, the following two scientific barriers had to be
- 62 considered:
- 63 What are the relevant parameters, including pollutants, to use for calculating performance
- 64 indicators and what indicators should be used?
- 65 What are the corresponding relevant input data to use regarding occupancy and emission
- 66 scenario parameters?
- 67 Relevant pollutants and performance indicators have been investigated and are often based on at
- least moisture, CO₂, formaldehyde and particle matter PM_{2.5} [10,11]. Indeed, formaldehyde and

69 PM_{2.5} are considered as two pollutants of concern in residential indoor air and were identified among 70 the five pollutants with the highest median DALY loss estimates [13, 7]. In detail, the indoor sources 71 contributing to elevated indoor particle matter levels are mainly related to human activities that generate peak emissions [14]. On the contrary, the sources of formaldehyde emissions are more 72 73 uniformly distributed, both in space and time, and related to building construction materials, furniture and decorative materials [12,7,13–17]. This makes PM_{2.5} and formaldehyde interesting for 74 75 their complementarity. Moisture and CO_2 where selected as historical parameters widely used in the 76 standards and in ventilation systems controls [10,18]. Indoor humidity level should be controlled in 77 order to avoid problems related to condensation, mould growth and material durability. CO₂ 78 concentration is related to human presence and is recognised as a marker for other bioeffluents. 79 Several other pollutants could have been selected, but for the performance-based method to be 80 applied in practice, it is important to promote a low number of pollutants in order to build calculable 81 and useful IAQ indicators.

To calculate IAQ performance indicators as cumulative exposures, we also need the occupancy schedules and parameters emission rates at the design stage of a building. In this paper, we focus on this second barrier aspect through an extensive literature review on the occupancy schedule considerations in a building and CO₂, humidity, PM_{2.5} and formaldehyde emission rate scenarios.

86 2 Methodology

We reviewed the available literature (Standards, Research reports, Scopus, Elsevier, AIVC database)
using the following terms :

- First: "ventilation performance", "smart ventilation performance", "ventilation assessment",
 "ventilation IAQ performance".
- 91 Second: "occupancy patterns", "occupancy schedules", "occupancy IAQ" and "occupant
 92 IAQ".

Last: "IAQ emission", "IAQ rate", "IAQ sources", "emission rate", "cooking emission rate",
combined with "CO₂ "a", "moisture", "humidity", "formaldehyde", "fine particle matter",
"PM_{2.5}", "pollutant", "occupant".

96 The first important point we have to consider in this review is the accuracy of the emission rates. 97 These data are not directly measured but are calculated using mass balance equations, combining 98 airflows or air change rate measurements and parameter concentration measurements. As a result, 99 several sources of uncertainty exist: measurement uncertainties on airflows and air change rates, 100 measurement uncertainties on parameter concentrations, and modelling uncertainties (mass 101 balance includes assumptions on occupancy, room configuration, weather data, etc.). Measurement 102 uncertainties include the precision and bias of the measurement device, the impact of the user, the 103 impact of the weather data (for air change rates and airflows), and is well documented in the ISO 104 guide [19]. Air change rates [20–23], ventilation airflows [24,25] and pollutant concentration 105 measurement accuracy, notably sensor accuracy [26–31], are a broad area of research for in-situ and 106 laboratory measurements. We selected only research papers and literature with consistent data on 107 emission rates, with sufficient description of calculation methodology and of measurement uncertainties. 108

109 In addition, at the design stage of a residential building, it is difficult to fully describe occupancy for 110 the entire life span of a building: number and age of the occupants, activities, schedules, etc. It is 111 also impossible to precisely describe all the parameter emission rates for the occupants, their 112 activities, the building materials and furnishings. In a performance-based approach at the design 113 stage of a building, the standards and regulations dealing with this issue must also be considered. 114 We therefore preferred using cyclic schedules (fixed schedules which are reiterated every week), 115 differentiating metabolic emissions, building and occupants' activity emissions, as proposed for 116 humidity and CO_2 in several standards and regulations [10,32–37]. The approach aims to provide a 117 relative comparison of the performance of several ventilation systems, configurations and airflow

rates, building design choices related to ventilation, IAQ labelling products, and even severaloccupant IAQ awareness levels.

120 Then we selected references allowing us to build a scenario to be used as entry data to calculate the 121 performance indicators, in order to assess the ventilation performance of a building at its design 122 stage.

This paper describes a detailed daily life required to calculate IAQ performance indicators. CO₂ and moisture performance indicators use occupants' metabolism and activity (only for humidity) emissions, combined with occupancy schedules, as input data. To calculate the cumulative exposure indicators (for instance, for formaldehyde and PM_{2.5}), we also need detailed occupancy schedules for each occupant. In this literature review, the duration of occupation by room throughout the day and the type of occupant (adult/child) were sought because they could influence the emission rates. In this section, we reviewed 10 papers.

Then the rates and scenarios for moisture, CO₂ and HCHO, PM_{2.5} emissions were studied. CO₂ and
moisture emissions from human metabolism and activities are quite well documented. We reviewed
12 papers and then built and proposed a scenario based on this analysis.

133 In contrast, formaldehyde and PM_{2.5} emission rates remain exploratory, especially in a design 134 approach for ventilation performance assessment. These pollutant emission and concentration 135 measurements and modelling are complex, because of the physics of phenomena involved (e.g. 136 diffusion, resuspension for PM, combined effects for formaldehyde) and available measurement 137 techniques. In addition, formaldehyde emissions are highly dependent on building and furnishing 138 materials. Consequently, we attempted to build low-, medium- and high-polluting emission rate 139 scenarios and chiefly focus on measured pollutant emission rates stemming from the building, the furnishings and the occupants' activities. However, multiple types of data are available and cannot 140 141 be directly used together for scenario proposals, so they were categorised in the formaldehyde and PM_{2.5} sub-sections in three measurement types: 142

Chamber-tested loads: Pollutant emissions due to specific activities, products and building
 materials obtained using test chambers under standardised conditions as described for VOC
 in ISO 16000-9 [38]. We found more data on formaldehyde than PM_{2.5} emission rates.

Lab kitchen: PM_{2.5} emissions due to specific activities measured in unoccupied homes or in
 experimental setups.

In-situ loads: Emission rates measured at the dwelling scale in occupied or unoccupied
 buildings, resulting from the combination of pollutant concentration and air change rate
 measurements in dwellings. We found few data on formaldehyde and PM_{2.5} emission rates.

For PM_{2.5} emissions, of the first 29 references analysed on emission sources and particle exposure in
indoor environments, we selected eight published articles to build and propose a scenario based on

this analysis. For formaldehyde emissions, we reviewed 22 references to build a scenario.

At the end, based on 73 articles reviewed, we provide a summary of the occupancy and emission rate scenarios selected. For emission rates, we conducted a review of the international literature, then we selected the rates and built the scenarios for a European, or even French application.

157 3 Occupancy considerations

158 **3.1** Residential occupancy schedules in the literature

Precisely described data fitting our purposes are rarely found in the literature. Energy performance calculation methods use global occupancy schedules at a whole building scale (indoor/outdoor), whereas a multizone approach requires assuming an occupancy scenario in each room of the house, at each time step, both for the emission rates and exposure aspects.

163 In energy performance calculations, [39] proposed seven discrete occupancy profiles based on a 164 time survey on more than 3000 Belgian dwellings. They differentiated outside, inside awake and 165 inside asleep contexts. A French IAQ national campaign based on a representative sample of the population included 567 homes and 1612 occupants [5]. A total of 1375 occupants provided precise information on their schedules and occupation in the rooms (25% of the sample) so that a database of 1,386,000 tenminute time steps with precise information on occupant location was available and analysed in this study. The results show that people spend on average 67.3% of their time in their homes. This is consistent with results of other surveys in Europe (EXPOLIS, 56–66%) and in the United States (NHAPS: 68.7%). Other interesting results are available in this study:

The differences between weekend days and week days are minimal: the 3 days with the
highest occupancy duration are Sunday (16.6 h), Wednesday (16.5 h) and Saturday (16.3 h),
followed by Thursday (16.1 h). Friday is the least occupied day (15.7 h).

176 - There is no statistical difference between working periods and holidays.

- Occupants are more likely to be at home between 12.00 pm and 2 pm and between 7 pm
 and 7 am.
- Time spent at home is divided, on average, into 9 h 16 min spent in bedrooms, 2 h 49 min
 spent in the living room, 2 h 40 min spent in the kitchen and 38 min spent in the bathroom.

181 To achieve the occupancy consideration in a building this schedule information needs to be 182 completed by a description of the occupants. Human emissions stem from the metabolic functions 183 such as respiration, transpiration and perspiration, depending on different factors such as age [40] 184 (contradicted by [41]) and activity level. Because of the development and growth of the organs of a 185 child, its basic metabolism can reach twice the adult rate. The basic metabolism is defined as the 186 minimum energy expenditure of an organism to ensure daily functions at rest. It decreases between 187 6 years and 18 years: from 19% for boys to 27% for girls [42]. As a result, as explained by [43], even 188 if their body surface area is lower, children's CO₂ and humidity emission rates are as high as those of 189 adults and may even be higher. Measures taken in 20 occupied apartments showed that children's 190 emissions were often under-estimated in the literature and were closer to adults' emissions [44], with emissions measured at 13 L.h⁻¹. for a child and 16 L.h⁻¹ for an adult. The ECA guidelines for 191

- ventilation requirements in buildings [41] compiles data from three studies [45–47], giving emission
- 193 rates for adults and children (Table 1).

| CO₂ emissions [L.h ⁻¹ .occupant ⁻¹] | Water vapour [g.h ⁻¹ .occupant ⁻¹] |
|--|--|
| 19 | 50 |
| 50 | 200 |
| 100 | 430 |
| 170 | 750 |
| 18 | 90 |
| 19 | 50 |
| | CO2 emissions [L.h ⁻¹ .occupant ⁻¹] 19 50 100 170 18 19 19 |

¹⁹⁵ Table 1. Pollutant load caused by occupants. Source: [41]

197 **3.2** Occupancy schedule proposal

198 For our purposes, we used the detailed data from the French IAQ national campaign [5]. The

199 following daily occupancy duration (rounded for a 10-min time step simulation) was retained:

- 200 9 h 20 min in bedrooms,
- 201 2 h 50 min in the living room,
- 202 2 h 40 min in the kitchen,
- 203 40 min in the bathrooms,
- For a total of 9 h 20 min asleep, 14 h 40 min awake, 9 h outside and 15 h inside.

These occupancy schedules should be carefully adapted depending on countries and their habits (meal times, school times, work times, etc.).

The number of occupants must be assumed, taking into account the size of the house, to avoid under-estimating the ventilation airflow rates. We would suggest setting the number of occupants based on the number of bedrooms, assuming two occupants in one bedroom and one in each of the others. At the design stage of a building, we could also assume that all occupants are adults, based on the data reported in Table 1.

In the next section, emissions due to occupants will occur where and when occupants are assumedto be present.

¹⁹⁶

4 Emission rate scenarios for a ventilation performance assessment at the design stage

- 215 of a residential building
- 216 **4.1** Moisture
- 217 4.1.1 Moisture emission rates in the literature

In a building the main moisture sources are linked to the occupants' activities such as showering, cooking, dish washing and laundry drying. In addition, the building envelope helps to regulate indoor humidity by exchanging moisture flows with the indoor air. This phenomenon must be represented in the model in order to provide realistic results. We consider this phenomenon of moisture exchange as a buffer (part of the model) and not as an emission source.

In most of the references analysed, mainly including standards, related production is given for a precise activity with a duration per day, sometimes depending on the number of occupants [32– 35,37] (Table 2). Note that two normative documents [34,48] proposing the schedule approach also alternatively suggest using an average constant moisture emission rate, depending on the overall moisture production and the number of occupants. Alternative approaches based on experimental measurements are also proposed [49,50] (Table 2).

229 Table 2: Moisture emission rates of activities

| Activities | Emission rate | Duration | Reference |
|--|--|---------------|-------------------|
| Cooking /person | | | |
| - Breakfast | 100 g.h^{-1} | 0.5 h | |
| - Lunch (weekend) | 75 g.h ⁻¹ (150 g.h ⁻¹) | 1 h | CCEAT [27] |
| - Dinner | 300 g.h^{-1} | 1 h | |
| Shower ^(a) CCFAT / EN 15665 | 300 g | 0.5 h / 6 min | EN 12002 [22] |
| Laundry ^(b) | 100g.h ⁻¹ | 2 h | |
| Laundry drying ^(b) | 50g.h ⁻¹ | 20 h | |
| Electric cooking device | 2000 g.day ⁻¹ 3000 | | |
| Gas cooking device | g.day ⁻¹ | | British standard. |
| Hand dish washing | 400 g.day ⁻¹ | | 1991 [48] & |
| WC/shower/dish washing | 200 g.day ⁻¹ .person ⁻¹ | | TR-14788 [34] |
| Laundry | 500 g.day ⁻¹ | | (called A) |
| Inside drying ^(*) | 1500 g.day ⁻¹ .person ⁻¹ | | |
| Cooking | | | TD 14 00 [24] |
| - Breakfast | 0.6 l.s ⁻¹ | 10 min | IK-14-88 [34] |
| - Lunch | 1 l.s ⁻¹ | 10 min | (called B) |

| - Dinner | 1.5 l.s ⁻¹ | 10 min | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Shower/person | 0.5 l.s ⁻¹ | 10 min | |
| Laundry drying | 0.06 l.s ⁻¹ | 12 h | |
| Moisture generation rate | Low/medium/high | | |
| - 1 person | 3.5/6/9 kg.day ⁻¹ | | British standard, |
| - 2 persons | 4/8/11 kg.day ⁻¹ | | 1991 [48] & |
| - 3 persons | 4/9/12 kg.day ⁻¹ | | TR-14-788 [34] |
| - 4 persons | 5/10/14 kg.day ⁻¹ | | (called C) |
| - 5 persons | 6/11/15 kg.day ⁻¹ | | |
| Cooking meals | | | |
| - Breakfast | 109 ± 20 g | 15 ± 5 min | |
| - Lunch | 288 ± 68 g | 30 ± 2 min | |
| - Dinner | 518 ± 152 g | 40 ± 10 min | Experimental data |
| Dish washing | | | Experimentariata |
| - Breakfast | 25 ± 3 g | 29 ± 3 min | [49 50] cited in [52] |
| - Lunch | 20 ± 3 g | 29 ± 3 min | [49,50] cited in [52] |
| - Dinner | 240 ± 9 g | 29 ± 3 min | |
| Showering | 250 ± 50 g | 10 min | |
| Laundry drying ^(d) | 1850 ± 670 g | 11 ± 2 h | |

(a) With 1 shower.day⁻¹.person⁻¹

(b) With x laundry.week⁻¹ (CCFAT, 2015) (x = 1–4 depending on the number of inhabitants) EN 15 665 (CEN, 2009) (x = 1)

(c) Naturally or with dryer without vent

(d) 20% of the total emissions during the first 2 h

230 The occupants' metabolism is also a source of humidity. The most frequent distinction between

activity levels is when occupants are asleep or awake. For a household of three people, a study used

a value of 2.4 kg.day⁻¹ of water production in each room [51]. Experimental studies also give useful

information with confidence intervals comparable to [49,50] (Table 3).

| | | | | | 234 | Tabl |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-----------|
| Metabolism emission data | Awake | Asleep | At rest | Sources | | |
| - 3–6 years | | | 90 g.h ⁻¹ | ECA guidelines | for ²³⁵ | e 3: |
| - 14–16 years | | | 50 g.h⁻¹ | ventilation require | ments | Mat |
| - Adult | | | 50 g.h ⁻¹ | in buildings [4: | 1]236 | wet |
| - <2 years | 30 g.h⁻¹ | 10 g.h ⁻¹ | | | 227 | - ahol |
| - 10–13 years | 45 g.h ⁻¹ | 15 g.h ⁻¹ | | [40] | 237 | abui |
| >15 years | 55 g.h ⁻¹ | 30 g.h ⁻¹ | | | 238 | ism |
| - per person | 55 g.h ⁻¹ | 38.5 g.h ⁻¹ | | [37] & [53] | | |
| - per person | 55 g.h ⁻¹ | 40 g.h ⁻¹ | | [35] | 239 | mois |
| Recommended duration of | 55 g.h ⁻¹ | 40 g.h⁻¹ | | | 240 | turo |
| emissions | Living room | Bedroom | | [34] &[48] | 240 | ture |
| | 4 h | 10 h | | | 241 | emis |
| - Active people | 70 ± 5 g.h ⁻¹ | $30 \pm 2 \text{ g.h}^{-1}$ | 50 ± 5 g.h ⁻¹ | Experimental da | ata | |
| | 5 | | 5 | [49,50] cited in [| 5242 | sion |
| - for 3 people | | 2.4 kg.day⁻¹ | | [51] | | |
| | (averag | ge 33 g.h⁻¹ per | person) | | 243 | rate |

244 s

Finally, a review on the indoor moisture also showed sources ranging from very simplified to more realistic sources [54]. The simplest is an average constant emission based on [55] which reviewed nine studies, suggesting the average emission of 270 g.h⁻¹ to be used for a 1-year simulation. This review [54] also showed that several experimental and numerical studies preferred using typical cyclic schedules. Lastly, stochastic scenarios could also be used, as demonstrated by [56,57] in office buildings. For a one-zone experimental building, [54] showed how constant emission rates could result in increasing the comfort range by 10–20%, compared to the use of stochastic scenarios.

252 4.1.2 Analysis and scenario proposals

253 First of all, all the metabolism moisture emission rates in the literature reviewed are within the same 254 range, so we suggest using the moisture generation rates for the metabolism emission of 55/40 g.h⁻¹ 255 (awake/asleep). Next step is to quantify the dispersion of moisture emissions rates due to activities, 256 given in Table 2. In order to compared them, we calculated for each reference ([34]-A, [34]-257 B,[35],[37],[50]) the related daily moisture emissions, assuming one or five occupants, taking into 258 account metabolism, cooking, showering, laundry and clothes drying. We assumed one laundry, one 259 clothes drying per person and per week, and we calculated an average weighted emission rate per 260 day. Lastly, we compared the calculated results expressed as an average emission rate in kg per day 261 to the thresholds given in TR 14 788-C [34] (Table 4, Table 5). From these tables, we can observe that no standard gives high emission rates, and that these are in most cases low, and become medium if 262 263 we consider five occupants.

| | Reference | Calculated daily emissions [kg.day ⁻¹] | Low 3.5 kg.day ⁻¹ | Medium 6 kg.day ⁻¹ | High 9 kg.day⁻¹ |
|--------|------------------|---|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|
| nt | TR 14-788-A [34] | 4.1 | - | Х | - |
| Ibai | TR 14-788-в [34] | 2.6 | х | - | - |
| סככו | EN-15-665 [35] | 1.4 | х | - | - |
| - - | CCFAT, 2015 [37] | 1.6 | х | - | - |

| | Experimental Data [50] | 2.0 | х | - | - |
|-----|----------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| 264 | Table 4. Comparing calculated of | aily moisture emissions | with thresholds | given in TR 1 | 14-788-C (CEN, |
| 265 | 2006a), one occupant. | | | | |

266

267 Table 5. Comparing calculated daily moisture emissions with thresholds given in TR 14-788-C [34],

268 five occupants.

| | Reference | Calculated daily emissions [kg.day ⁻¹] | Low 6 kg.day ⁻¹ | Medium 11 kg.day ⁻¹ | High 15 kg.day ⁻¹ |
|------|------------------------|---|-------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| | TR 14-788-A [34] | 8.4 | - | Х | - |
| ants | TR 14-788-B [34] | 7.2 | - | Х | - |
| äno | EN-15-665 [35] | 4.9 | х | - | - |
| õ | CCFAT, 2015 [37] | 7.9 | - | х | - |
| ы | Experimental Data [50] | 5.2 | х | - | - |

| 270 | Consequently, for our analysis, for the activity emissions, we suggest using the TR 14-788-A [34] |
|-----|--|
| 271 | data, because it is the most handicapping reference. We combined them with the emission duration |
| 272 | given by [49,50] because these data came from in-situ measurements, published in an IEA Annex |
| 273 | and cited in [52]. The following moisture generation scenarios could be used: |
| | |
| 274 | - One shower per person per day, with an emission of 1440 g.h ⁻¹ for 10 min per shower; |
| 275 | - Cooking periods per day: 1512 g.h ⁻¹ for breakfast for 15 min; 2268 g.h ⁻¹ for lunch for 30 min; |
| 276 | 2844 g.h ⁻¹ for dinner for 40 min; |
| 277 | - One laundry per person per week: 252 g.h ⁻¹ for 2 h; |
| 278 | - One laundry drying per person per week (same days): 136.8 g.h ⁻¹ for 11 h. |
| | |
| 279 | This results in an average production of 6 kg.day ⁻¹ for five occupants, which is a rather low emission |
| 280 | scenario. |

281 4.2 Carbon dioxide

282 4.2.1 Emission rates in the literature: analysis and proposal

CO₂ emission rates are due to occupant metabolism and depend on the occupants' size and activity. The literature gives the same order of magnitude and generally proposes making a difference between asleep and awake times, adults and children, as summarised in Table 6, which shows a quite good consensus around the value of 18 L.h⁻¹ for an awake adult with a low level of activity. For a sleeping adult, the emission rates vary between 10 and 16 L.h⁻¹.

288 Table 6: CO₂ metabolism emission rates

| Emission rates | [L.(h.person) ⁻¹] | Sources |
|---|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| Sedentary | | |
| - 3–6 years | 18 | [41] |
| - 14–16 years | 19 | [41] |
| - Adult | 19 | |
| Awake | 16 | [25] ([27] |
| Asleep | 10 | [35]+[37] |
| Awake/asleep | | |
| - <2 year-old | 8/4 | Appay 27 /EA [40] |
| - 10- to 13-year-old | 12/8 | Annex 27 ILA [40] |
| - >15-year-old | 18/12 | |
| Asleep, measured in occupied apartments | | |
| - Child | 13 | [44] |
| - Adult | 16 | |
| Child (medium exercise) | 10 | |
| Adult (office work) | 18 | [58] |
| Adult (asleep) | 15 | |

289

290 Given this data, and as we are at the design stage of a building with generally no idea of occupant

age, we considered that all occupants are adults, as explained in the above section. Finally, we used

the emission rates proposed by Persily [58]: 18 L.h⁻¹ and 15 L.h⁻¹ for an "awake" or "asleep" occupant

293 of a residential building. The first value shows quite good consensus and the second allows one to

avoid over-estimating ventilation performance.

295 4.3 Formaldehyde

296 4.3.1 Formaldehyde emission rates

297 4.3.1.1 General considerations

298 For formaldehyde, several authors have highlighted the correlation of concentrations and emissions 299 with temperature, relative humidity and air exchange rates [59]. Using a multivariate model fit on 300 observational data testing temperature, humidity, the air change rate and outdoor concentration, 301 [60] considered temperature to be the best correlated with the increase in the formaldehyde 302 concentration. A chamber test study proposed a semi-empirical correlation law between the initial 303 material's emittable concentration and the combined effect of humidity and temperature [61]. 304 Moreover, the formaldehyde emissions of new houses from construction materials, such as wood 305 products, are known to be constant for approximately nine months and then start to decrease [62], 306 to reach a steady state emission rate after a few years [59].

307 4.3.1.2 Rates obtained in chamber-tested loads

The study reported by Plaisance et al. [63] used a passive flux sampler for 6 h to define a linear equation between the formaldehyde mass collected and the emission rate of the tested material in a test chamber, according the ISO 16000-9 standard [38]. Depending on the surface tested, they calculated emission rates within the range [11.2; 682] μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻².

Several databases have been developed to verify such chamber-tested data. Pandora is a very large free-access database for indoor pollutant emission rates [64], with more than 8000 emission rates from the literature classified by sources, including formaldehyde and $PM_{2.5}$. Other databases were found such as the one developed in the EPEHCT project [65] and the NIST Database [66], including formaldehyde. In these databases, formaldehyde emission rates for common materials can be found with a large spread, as for example for gypsum board (Pandora: in range [0.3; 42] μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻²) or fibreboard medium (NIST: in range [14; 640] μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻², Pandora: [237 – 320] μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻²). As a conclusion, the range of emission values is quite different from one database to another and therelationship with the in situ rates obtained in houses is complex.

321 4.3.1.3 In-situ rates obtained in houses

The EN-15251 standard [67] provides two emission rates for formaldehyde: 50 μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻² for lowpolluting buildings (glass, steel, rock) and 20 μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻² for very-low-polluting buildings (without tobacco), considering the material surface areas. EN-16798-1 [68] updates these emission rates to 100 and 50 μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻², respectively, based on the results calculated for the European Reference Room as specified in CEN/TS-16516.

327 A test conducted by [62,69] was repeated three times on seven unoccupied prefabricated houses 328 and on seven unoccupied site-built houses, located in eastern and southern USA, under two 329 different climates, hot-humid and mixed-humid. The formaldehyde concentration was measured 330 using two active samplers, inside and outside. The indoor sampler was located in the living/dining 331 room 1.5 m above the floor. In addition, SF_6 was used as a tracer gas to measure the air change 332 rates. The average constant emission rate was calculated from the average concentrations measured 333 and the air change rate measured, using the mass conservation equation on the whole house considered as one zone. The result was an average emission rate of 44.17 (± 36%) µg.h⁻¹.m⁻², 334 335 considering the houses floor surface areas.

336 The study conducted by [60] took measurements of 24 student residence rooms with five different surfaces (flooring, ceiling and walls, doors, bed and other furniture), for three construction ages. 337 Formaldehyde concentrations were measured over 6 h with both conventional active samplers and 338 339 passive samplers. Thirteen to 15 passive samplers were used per student room, with measurements 340 taken in the room, in the common corridor adjacent to the room, and outside. Air change rates were 341 measured using a CO_2 (tracer gas) injection method. Depending on the age of the building and the type of surface, the resulting average emission rates were within the range [1.4; 87.3] µg.h⁻¹.m⁻², 342 343 considering the material surface areas. Table 7 summarises all the emission rates reviewed.

| Materials | Emission rates [μg.h ⁻¹ m ⁻²] per m ² of material surface area unless specified otherwise | Reference |
|---|--|--|
| Low-polluting building | | EN_15_251 [67] |
| (glass, steel, rock) | 50 | In-situ loads |
| Very-low-polluting | | m-situ iouus |
| building (without tobacco) | 20 | |
| Low-polluting building | | FN-16798-1 [68] |
| (stone, glass, ceramics and | 100 | In-situ loads |
| non-treated metal) | | in situ iouus |
| Very-low-polluting building | 30 | |
| 7 Unoccupied and | [per m ² of floor surface area] | [62,70] |
| 7 Occupied houses | average: 44.17 ± 36% | In-situ loads |
| | median: 41.72 | |
| H1 (built in 1998) | [Average ± std dev (range)] | |
| - Flooring | 2.3 ± (1.2-5.5) | |
| Ceiling and wall | 3.6 ± 1.7 (1.2-6.3) | |
| - Door | 4.0 ± 2.0 (1.2-6.4) | |
| - Bed | 3.3 ± 1.8 (1.2-6.7) | |
| - Other furniture | 2.8 ± 0.9 (1.2-3.6) | |
| H2 (built in 1975, renovated in 2003) | | |
| - Flooring | 1.4 ± 0.7 (1.2-2.4) | |
| Ceiling and wall | 3.2 ± 2.0 (1.2-7.1) | [60] |
| - Door | 2.6 ± 1.6 (1.2-5.5) | In-situ loads |
| - Bed | 2.8 ± 1.7 (1.2-5.8) | |
| - Other furniture | 3.4 ± 0.6 (2.8-4.4) | |
| H3 (built in 1991) | | |
| - Flooring | 5.3±3.5 (2.5-13.0) | |
| Ceiling and wall | 8.8±2.8 (4.1-12.1) | |
| - Door | 7.0±4.2 (1.2-14.7) | |
| - Bed | 87.3±37.5 (21.3-131.3) | |
| - Other furniture | 2.9±1.9 (1.2-7.0) | |
| Fibreboard medium 1 | 92.5 | |
| Fibreboard medium 2 | 135.5 | |
| Fibreboard medium 3 | 133.3 | [63] |
| Sealing plaster | 43.4 | [03] Chamber-tested loads |
| Finishing plaster | 682 | chamber tested loads |
| OSB | 11.2 | |
| Chipboard | 244.4 | |
| More than 8000 emission rates from cons | sumer products and building materials | Pandora Database [71] EPEHCT project [65] NIST Database [72] Chamber-tested loads |

344

Table 7: Overview of formaldehyde emission rates found in the literature

345 4.3.2 Analysis and scenario proposals

346 Few of these formaldehyde data are fully useful for a performance-based approach to ventilation.

347 We found either few or no data on average in-situ loads directly measured at the dwelling scale, and

especially in low-energy dwellings considered as representative. Consequently, the available datapose two problems:

Firstly, it is difficult to extrapolate emission rate behaviours from test chamber conditions to
 in-situ conditions, notably because of the complex physical phenomena (combined effects,
 resuspension, etc.). As illustrated in Table 7, the order of magnitude of emission rates
 between chamber-tested loads in [63] and in-situ loads in [60] varies by a factor of a 10 to
 100.

355 Secondly, it is difficult to build robust scenarios from the material, product and activity scale to the dwelling scale, as highlighted in [73]. Indeed, due to the wide variety of materials 356 357 available, the emission per m² of floor area varies from one building to another. In addition, 358 the type of building materials and furniture and the quantities used (floor coverings, wall 359 paintings, etc.) depend on the purpose of the buildings as well as on the design or construction methods used. Precise data are not yet described in scientific studies. In 360 addition, emission rates for common materials are available with a high variability and even 361 362 within the same type of material emission properties can vary considerably, as shown by the diversity of values presented in the databases [64], [66] or as illustrated in [63] for the 363 364 Fibreboard medium 1,2,3. Consequently, arbitrary choices must be made to establish input 365 data (using databases such as Pandora) for a detailed IAQ modelling at the scale of a 366 residential building, as shown by [74].

We accordingly suggest using the simplified calculation method in [75] and applying it to unpublished data gathered on French low-energy homes to calculate average *in-situ* loads at the dwelling scale.

370 Based on these measurements, we define three classes of formaldehyde emissions to be used 371 as input data for IAQ modelling, and for ventilation performance-based approaches at the 372 design stage of low-energy houses:

- The low-emission class: 4.5 μg.h⁻¹.m⁻², per m² of floor surface area, defined by the
 minimum calculated value;
- The medium-emission class: 12.0 μg.h⁻¹.m⁻², per m² of floor surface area, defined by the
 median calculated value;
- The high-emission class: 23.6 μg.h⁻¹.m⁻², per m² of floor surface area, defined by the
 maximum calculated value.
- 379 4.4 PM_{2.5} particles
- 380 4.4.1 PM_{2.5} emission rates in the literature

381 4.4.1.1 General considerations

The most widely studied PM_{2.5} indoor emission sources are principally candle combustion, smoking 382 383 and cooking activities. The emission values of hairspray [76] are usually occasional and relatively low, 384 in comparison with candle combustion [77] or incense [78,79], cooking activities [80] and smoking 385 emissions. As described in the introduction, this work focuses on the assessment of ventilation 386 performance, which should be seen as complementary to the reduction of indoor pollution sources. 387 Smoking is a significant indoor emission source but it is not included in this review because it is more 388 relative to the performance of occupants than to ventilation system performance. The source of the 389 emissions can easily be reduced by influencing the habits of the occupants. From this perspective, 390 Borsboom et al. [17] propose that tobacco smoke should not be considered in setting ventilation 391 standards. A similar choice is made for candles and incense: they are related to habits and are excluded from our study. 392

Several studies showed that cooking is one of the most PM_{2.5}-emitting activities [13,81–83]. Ji et al. [80] corroborated this, providing measurements in an experimental house to quantify occupant exposure to ultrafine particles. They directly calculated this indicator from concentration measurements using occupancy schedules, without calculating emission rates. Each source was tested at least three times, and the concentration was measured in three different spaces to quantify the impact of the pollutant on the entire dwelling. We could thus classify the source into four categories depending on its global impact intensity (high, medium, limited, low). This study highlighted that the largest sources were: cooking and extra-heating for the high-impact sources, the toaster for the medium-impact sources, and incense, cigarettes, and candles for the limited-impact sources.

PM_{2.5} concentrations and emissions were also strongly correlated with outdoor conditions, intensity
and type of ventilation, air leakage level and deposition and resuspension conditions [81,82,84,85].
Given their mass, particle matter is deposited on surfaces by gravity and various common actions
can resuspend these particles. Moreover, particle matter can be formed by a chemical gaseous
reaction such as between ozone and terpene [86].

Based on this first literature analysis, we retained only emissions from cooking activities to build the
PM_{2.5} emission rate scenarios. Two review papers on the chemical components of particle matters
[87] and their impact on cooking emission rates [88] have recently been published.

411 4.4.1.2 Rates obtained in test chambers

A study was carried out in a 32-m³ test chamber in a research laboratory to characterise emissions 412 413 from various activities (frying, gas stove, smoking, vacuuming, heater, radiator, scented candle, pure wax candle) [78]. The PM_{2.5} concentration was measured by two different particle counters: a 414 415 condensation particle counter and an optical particle counter. The concentration was continuously 416 monitored before, during and after all the emission tests. A tracer gas decay method was used to 417 determine the air change rate, based on concentration measurements made continuously over 2h 418 with a photo-acoustic spectroscopy device. Emission rates were lastly calculated through air change 419 rate concentration measurements and expressed as particles per minute. Unfortunately, these 420 emission rates in particles per minute cannot be used in cooking emission rate research, because conversion into mg.min⁻¹ is impossible. 421

Finally, the recent study conducted by O'Leary et al. [89] used a test-chamber protocol with controlled ventilation to very precisely measure the PM_{2.5} emission rate throughout the cooking processes. The four meals selected for this experiment were based on typical European portions and food types from representative data, like the panel method [90] or the Western cooking type survey conducted by [91,92].

427 4.4.1.3 Rates obtained in a lab kitchen

428 Firstly, the study of [93] characterised the particle emissions of several foods (cheese, chips, bacon) by testing the impact of the oil used (sunflower, peanut, olive), the cooking method (frying/grilling) 429 and temperature. These cooking tests were conducted in laboratory conditions in an 82-m² kitchen 430 431 using electric and gas stoves. The results show that the higher the cooking temperature, the higher 432 the particle emission rate is, as shown with the 50-g bacon experiment; 0.52 mg.min⁻¹ emitted with minimum power ($171^{\circ}C \pm 17^{\circ}C$) versus 13 mg.min⁻¹ with maximum power ($242^{\circ}C \pm 5.2^{\circ}C$). Oil type 433 may also influence the emission rate (chips, sunflower oil, 1.20 mg.min⁻¹; chips, olive oil, 2.80 434 mg.min⁻¹) and this confirms that grilling activities are the highest emission sources, especially with 435 436 gas stove cooking.

437 Other in-situ studies focused on cooking only one food, e.g. [94] for the $PM_{2.5}$ emitted during the 438 cooking of ground beef in a dwelling. In this study, the test conditions were set up to limit other 439 indoor and outdoor emission sources, for example, by closing all the doors during the test period 440 and ventilating before the experiment. The resulting measurements were divided into four rate 441 ranges [3.3 µm >2.1 µm >1.1 µm >0.65 µm >0.43 µm] and the value retained was the total average 442 emission rate equal to 44.9 mg.min⁻¹.

Recently, [95] also measured the PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ generation rate *in situ* for cooking in an experimental building based on grilling and frying activities (fish, meat, egg). Measurements were taken for 30 min including the time for cooking the ingredients (fish broiling: 13 min; meat frying: 6 min; egg frying: 4 min; meat broiling, 3 min). The comparison of experimental building results [95] between frying (deep frying meat, 2.14 mg.min⁻¹) and grilling (meat broiling, 16.08 mg.min⁻¹)
confirmed that higher particle emissions come from grilling/broiling activities.

449 In greater detail, [91,92] tested 25 typical Chinese dishes in a domestic kitchen based on an online survey of 309 families to determine common cooking behaviours in China. A professional cook 450 451 performed five cooking methods with gas stoves (stir-frying, pan-frying, deep-frying, steaming and 452 boiling), varying the weight of the ingredients, the type of meat, the meat/vegetable ratio and the type of oil. Measuring the emission generation rate includes the use of cooking tools during the 453 454 process, with doors and windows closed and ventilation systems turned off. They found that water cooking methods such as boiling [0.08 mg.min⁻¹] and steaming [0.05 mg.min⁻¹] produce fewer 455 emissions compared to other frying cooking methods (stir-frying [2.56 mg.min⁻¹], pan-frying[1.61 456 457 mg.min⁻¹].

458 4.4.1.4 In-situ rates obtained

459 The oldest *in-situ* study was conducted by [96] in the 1990s on a panel of 178 residents in Riverside, CA (USA). The PM₁₀ measurements were taken with personal exposure devices; at the same time the 460 PM_{2.5} rates were measured in each house using indoor and outdoor stationary monitors for two 461 462 consecutive 12-h periods. The monitors used were based on a PM₁₀ filter behind an impactor plate. The PM_{10} emission rate of cooking activities was estimated at 4.1 ± 1.6 mg.min⁻¹ with 40% of the 463 particles smaller than 2.5 μ m, with 1.7 ± 0.6 mg.min⁻¹ as the PM_{2.5} cooking emission rate. Other 464 sources excluding cooking and smoking were estimated to emit 0.093 mg.min⁻¹ for the PM₁₀ fraction, 465 with 20% smaller than 2.5 µm (approximately 0.018 mg.min⁻¹) as PM_{2.5}. This study identified smoking 466 467 and cooking as the two main indoor particle sources and provides an estimation of cooking emission rates but without distinguishing cooking methods. 468

In Australia, PM_{2.5} measurements were conducted on 16 houses [13]. The concentration was estimated simultaneously with a condensation particle counter and a photometer (sampling time 10 and 30 s) over more than 48 h in the kitchen. Air change rates were measured with a tracer gas

472 method using CO₂ during the unoccupied period. The emission rate was then calculated using 473 concentration, air change rate, volume, and penetration efficiency and deposition rate. The authors 474 published data on cooking, frying, grilling, toasting, smoking, vacuuming and other emission rates 475 within the range [0.07; 2.78] mg.min⁻¹. The results confirm that cooking activities are the main PM_{2.5} 476 sources in dwellings, with high emission levels during frying and grilling activities. The concentration 477 increased more than 30 times the normal background concentration level during frying and up to 90 478 times during grilling.

479 A study in the USA also took PM_{2.5} measurements on 37 residential homes over 7 consecutive days 480 for each of four seasons [90]. Concentrations were monitored for 24 h inside and outside using a 481 filter-based monitor. The air change rate was measured with a tracer gas method, using 482 perfluorocarbon. The air change rate was calculated with a mass balance. At the same time, each 483 occupant carried a passive sample monitor, collecting the personal PM_{2.5} data every minute, and had 484 to fill in a 15-min time-step schedule. This provided the occupants' location and activities so that 485 emission rates of specific cooking actions (frying, grilling, toast, stovetop, burned) could be calculated with 36 mg.min⁻¹ as the average value within the range of [10; 470] mg.min⁻¹. 486

Recently, an *in-situ* campaign was conducted on 30 residential buildings and one experimental building to characterise PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} generated by Korean cooking activities over 1 month [95]. In the residential buildings the emissions of soup cooking, broiling and frying activities were measured for a total of 30 min including both cooking time limited to 15 min to prevent over-cooking and preparation time. The results were compared with Western cooking types [13] [96]: Asian cooking gave slightly higher emission rate values within the range [0.39 mg.min⁻¹; 20.54 mg.min⁻¹] (Table 8).

493 Table 8: Overview of PM_{2.5} emission rates

| Cooking activities | Emission rate [mg.min ⁻¹] | Duration [min] | Reference |
|---|---|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Cooking (any food preparation using stove, no frying or grilling) | 0.11 | | [12] |
| Frying (any food preparation using frying) | 2.68 | 10 | [13] In situ landa |
| Grilling (any food preparation using grilling) | 2.78 | | m-situ iouus |
| Frying | | 8-10 | [93] |

| Mozzarella 50 g (sunflower oil) electric pan, 190°C | 0.03 | | Lab kitchen |
|---|--|------------------------------|---|
| Chips 50 g (sunflower oil) electric pan, 190°C | 0.03 | | |
| Chips 50 g (sunflower oil) gas stove, max power | 1.20 | | |
| Chips 50 g (peanut oil) electric frying pan, 190°C | 0.06 | | |
| Chips 50 g (peanut oil) gas stove, max power | 1.80 | | |
| - Chips 50 g (olive oil) electric frying pan, 190°C | 0.20 | | |
| - Chips 50 g (olive oil) gas stove, max power | 2.80 | | |
| Grilling | | | |
| - Aubergine 30 g, gas stove, max power | 0.52 | | |
| - Cheese 70 g, gas stove, max power | 9.5 | | |
| - Wurstel 130 g, gas stove, max power | 10 | | |
| - Bacon 50 g electric stove | 1.5 | | |
| - Bacon 50 g gas stove, min power | 0.52 | | |
| - Bacon 50 g gas stove, max power | 13 | | |
| Cooking | | | |
| - Residential building, minimum value | 0.39 | | |
| - Residential building maximum value | 20 54 | | |
| Boiling | 2010 1 | | |
| - Residential building soun | 2 01 | | [95] |
| Fruing | 2.01 | | Lah kitchen & |
| - Residential building | 3 80 | 13 | In-situ loads |
| - Experimental building deep frying meat | 5.80 2.14 | 15 | m-situ iouus |
| - Experimental building, deep nying meat | 10.85 | | |
| Grilling | 10.85 | | |
| Besidential building | 12.02 | | |
| - Residential building fich broiling | 12,02 | | |
| - Experimental building, fish broiling | 22.04 | | |
| | 10.08 | | [04] |
| Grilling Ground heaf | 44.00 | 20 | [94] Lab kitaban |
| | 44.90 | | LUD KILLINEN |
| | 20 | | |
| - All cooking events | 36 | | |
| | | | |
| - Multiple events | 29 | | [00] |
| Multiple events Stove top | 29 17 | 11 | [90] |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven | 29 17 10 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned | 29 17 10 470 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying | 29 17 10 470 60 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling | 29 17 10 470 60 173 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling | 29 17 10 470 60 173 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 | 11 | [90] In-situ loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) Boiling | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) Boiling Steaming | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 0.05 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) Boiling Steaming Boiling | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 0.05 0.08 | 28 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) Boiling Steaming Boiling Boiling Frying | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 0.05 0.08 | 11 28 3-33 mean: 13 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads [91,92] Lab kitchen |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) Boiling Steaming Boiling Frying Deep-frying | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 0.05 0.08 0.32 | 11 28 3-33 mean: 13 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads [91,92] Lab kitchen |
| Multiple events Stove top Oven Burned Frying Grilling Boiling Meal 2, chicken (oil), potatoes, green beans (water) Meal 1, chicken, potatoes (oil), green beans (water) Frying Meal 3, pasta (water) ,onion, bacon, beef, tomatoes (oil) Meal 4, stir-fry, chicken, prechopped vegetable, noodles (oil) Boiling Steaming Boiling Frying Deep-frying Pan-frying | 29 17 10 470 60 173 0.80 0.62 1.90 3.20 0.05 0.08 0.32 1.61 | 11 28 3-33 mean: 13 | [90] In-situ loads [89] Chamber- tested loads [91,92] Lab kitchen |

495 4.4.2 Analysis and scenario proposals

We grouped cooking emission sources in four cooking types: boiling, frying, grilling and a total cooking category taking into account any food preparation (Table 9). As expected in the articles and confirmed by the minimum, mean, maximum and median values, grilling is the highest and boiling is the lowest PM_{2.5} emission cooking type.

| Cooking type | | Emission ra | te [mg.min⁻¹] | |
|---------------------|------|-------------|----------------------|--------|
| | min | mean | тах | median |
| Boiling | 0.05 | 0.74 | 2.01 | 0.44 |
| Frying activities | 0.03 | 5.32 | 60.00 | 1.85 |
| Grilling activities | 0.52 | 25.56 | 173.00 | 11.01 |
| Total cooking | 0.03 | 12.65 | 173.00 | 2.56 |

500 Table 9. Emission rate values

501

502 Finally, a few studies took into account the entire cooking process with several food types for a 503 complete meal and the associated duration, especially for a representative French cooking scenario 504 context.

Assessing ventilation systems and kitchen hood performance, the O'Leary study [89] is particularly relevant and fits our overall performance evaluation approach for ventilation systems. It took into account all the cooking steps in a European context. The authors proposed meal 1, with the lowest emissions, with chicken and potatoes fried in oil and green beans boiled in water [0.62 mg.min⁻¹]. Meal 3 with pasta bolognaise had an intermediary emission rate [1.9 mg.min⁻¹]. Meal 4 had the highest emissions with fried chicken and vegetable noodle wok cooking [3.2 mg.min⁻¹]. This gave three combinations of meal 1, 3 and 4 to propose three realistic cooking scenarios for 1 week:

Low-emission cooking practices, with the hypothesis of 50% of the meals a week, emit fewer
 emissions, like meal 1, and the other 50% of the meals have medium emissions, like meal 3.

514 - Intermediate-emission cooking practices use diversified cooking methods, where the meal

515 types are equally distributed over a week [1/3 meal 1; 1/3 meal 3; 1/3 meal 4].

High-emission cooking practices, with the hypothesis that 50% of the meals a week emit a
high level of emissions, such as meal 4, and the other 50% meals emit a medium range of
emissions, such as meal 3.

519 These three scenarios are summarised in Table 10 as mean values repeated twice a day with a 520 cooking duration of 28 min.

| Scenario | Emission rate [mg.min ⁻¹] | Duration [min] | |
|--|---------------------------------------|----------------|--|
| Low-emission cooking practice (mainly boiling) | 1.26 | 28 | |
| Intermediate-emission cooking practice | 1.91 | 28 | |
| High-emission cooking practice (mainly grilling) | 2.55 | 28 | |

521 Table 10. PM_{2.5} emission rate scenarios

522

523 5 Synthesis of selected occupancy and emission input scenarios

Figure 2 summarises the input data for assessing ventilation performance at the design stage of a building, classified into pollutant scenario data, moisture scenario data, and inhabitant occupancy data. For PM_{2.5} and formaldehyde emission rates, we propose three classes of emissions: high, medium and low, to be selected depending on the available data at the design stage.

528 For formaldehyde for instance:

If only A-class IAQ-labelled materials [97] are used and occupants are aware of this, the lowemission formaldehyde rate can be used in the IAQ calculation. To achieve a low emission
rate, it is necessary to increase the occupants' awareness and help them become lowemitting occupants in all their activities and furnishings. Tools have been developed for
occupants for this purpose [98]. An *in-situ* measurement campaign could also be required
once the building is occupied to encourage the low emission rate.

535 - If no information is given, or only D-class IAQ-labelling materials are used, a high-emission
536 formaldehyde rate must be used.

537 - In other cases, a medium-emission formaldehyde rate can be used.

538 For PM_{2.5}:

| 539 | - | If the occupants are aware of IAQ , and their habits confirm they rarely use grilling, and if |
|-----|---|---|
| 540 | | they agree with an in-situ measurement campaign once the building is occupied, a low- |
| 541 | | emission $PM_{2.5}$ rate can be used in the IAQ calculation. |
| 542 | - | If no information is given, a high-emission PM _{2.5} rate must be used. |
| 543 | - | If the occupants are aware of IAQ, and their habits confirm they rarely use grilling, a |
| 544 | | medium-emission PM _{2.5} rate can be used. |

Scenarios for ventilation performance assessement in residential building



545

546 Figure 2. Selected input data to be used in a performance-based approach for ventilation.

548 6 Conclusion and perspectives

549 We need a performance-based approach for assessing ventilation performance at the building scale, 550 at the design stage, like the regulatory energy performance calculation to ensure energy 551 performance. Ventilation performance assessment is often based on CO₂, moisture, as they are 552 commonly used, and on formaldehyde and PM_{2.5} as they would be complementary. To calculate 553 such IAQ performance indicators, few occupancy schedules and emission rate parameters are available today. This paper provides an extensive literature review of 73 articles covering detailed 554 occupancy schedules throughout the day and the year in a house, with emission rates reflecting 555 556 occupants and activities (e.g. showering, cooking), as well as building material and furniture emission 557 rates.

558 We found relevant data on occupancy schedules, even if most of them were not precise enough to provide information on occupancy in all the rooms in a house. Substantial relevant data on CO₂ and 559 560 humidity emissions due to inhabitants' metabolism and activities are available in the literature and 561 we selected those that could be used in a performance-based approach at the design stage. We 562 noted a lack of exploitable data that could be used to model PM_{2.5} and formaldehyde average and 563 peak emissions at the dwelling scale. As a result, we proposed using three levels of constant emission rates for formaldehyde: the low-emission rate: 4.5 μ g.h⁻¹.m⁻²; the medium-emission rate: 564 12.0 µg.h⁻¹.m⁻²; and the high-emission rate: 23.6 µg.h⁻¹.m⁻². For PM_{2.5}, we also proposed three classes 565 of emissions for cooking activities associated with a 28-min period twice a day: the low-emission 566 rate: 1.26 mg.min⁻¹; the medium-emission rate: 1.91 mg.min⁻¹; and the high-emission rate: 2.55 567 mg.min⁻¹. 568

569 Our objective was to build emission scenarios for a European, or even French, application. 570 Nevertheless, the data gathered in the present review, as well as the way of analysing them and 571 constructing scenarios are sufficiently described and referenced here and can be easily adapted for 572 applications in other countries.

573 We focused on long-term exposure but this approach should also be adapted to consider acute 574 exposure, another topic of interest and a health concern.

575 As for the study's limitations, there is a lack of consistent emission data on both formaldehyde and 576 PM_{2.5} emissions at a building scale; consequently, the scenario proposals must be considered as a 577 preliminary suggestion for overall ventilation performance assessment, which could be improved 578 with further studies. The main objective of this work was to build a first baseline, directly usable in a 579 method for assessing ventilation performance. Obviously, the proposed scenarios can evolve and be 580 completed and improved in the future, as and when they are published, and according to the 581 context of application in different regions or countries. One of the tracks would be to add relevant 582 behaviours with other pollutant emissions, such as toasting toast for breakfast, for example, for 583 PM_{2.5}. Another would be to link formaldehyde emissions to a series of scenarios for materials and 584 furniture depending on the type of building and occupants, when consistent data are available. In 585 addition, it is also possible to extend the IAQ indicators by adding other pollutants, although this 586 then adds to the knowledge of emissions data and complicates the indication of IAQ levels and the 587 operational aspect of the performance-based approach.

588 Nevertheless, it is now possible to assess the ventilation performance at the design stage of a 589 residential building from an IAQ point of view, using the proposed occupancy schedules and 590 emission scenarios as input data. In future work, these scenarios will be applied in a standardised 591 approach, by modelling ventilation systems and strategies, air inlets and outlets configurations, 592 airflow rates, etc. Such a standardised approach will allow for example a relative comparison of the 593 performance of classic ventilation strategies and innovative ones, as smart ventilation strategies. In 594 order to help at the design stage, the method can be used to select a ventilation system that targets 595 a level of energy and IAQ performance, to comply with an overall performance requirement, but also 596 to achieve IAQ labelled products and even improve IAQ awareness among occupants.

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598 7 References

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