

Envelope heat load characteristics of the building cluster considering radiate heat exchange process in an urban district

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ABSTRACT

We developed a numerical model to calculate the annual envelope thermal load of several buildings in the urban area taking a radiative impact of neighboring buildings into consideration. We conducted benchmark tests on air-conditioning thermal load simulation targeting single building to verify this development model and confirmed that we can obtain results appropriate compared to those obtained with existing air-conditioning thermal load calculation tools. Moreover, we conducted case studies targeting building clusters. Their results proved for the first time that a change in the aspect ratio between building height and pitch significantly affects envelope thermal load and quantitatively proved an effect of higher reflection of the urban surface on cooling and heating load.

Introduction

Energy saving of buildings is one of important factors in order to address the issue of global warming (IPCC, 2018). In the past, a number of the latest technologies were conducted to the buildings for the reduction of thermal load and improvement of energy performance of equipment and facilities of buildings (SHASE 2017). The simulation technology to predict thermal load of buildings is, in particular, the basis of the designers' direction of energy minimum. In general, the response factor method based on the Laplace transformation theory was applied to the thermal load predictive model so that the heat-transfer process of multi-layer walls can be calculated efficiently (Mitalas and Stephenson 1967).

On the other hand, if we extend the target of analysis to the city level, there are a variety of possibilities of energy-saving design such as radiate interactions in multi buildings, cooling effects of greenery or water and optimal placement of DHC system all of which cannot be achieved by only one building. As part of these possibilities, it is necessary to handle complex geometric forms and diversified physical phenomena to predict an outdoor thermal environment. Therefore, it is difficult for the traditional method on the basis of the linear theory to be extended to the non-linear problem and to respond to the problem of coordinating several buildings. This study applies the finite difference method and intends to establish a thermal load prediction method targeting several buildings in the urban area taking into account a neighboring radiative impact which has not been considered sufficiently in the past such as shades formed by buildings.

Method

We assume that each building consists of one room in the thermal load prediction targeting several buildings in the urban area. We predicted thermal load integrated the envelope as a whole and it is noted that we did not handle the problem of realistic buildings with several rooms.

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A similar assumption is made in the urban canopy model (Taha *et al.* 1991). However, this study is more precious in that the thermal load characteristics of each building in the urban area can be considered individually. Figure 1 shows the heat balance of the urban surface and the heat balance in buildings. We can see that this model has a coupled structure of those heat balances. The finite difference method applies as an analytical method, since it has high non-linearity and targets diversified physical phenomena.

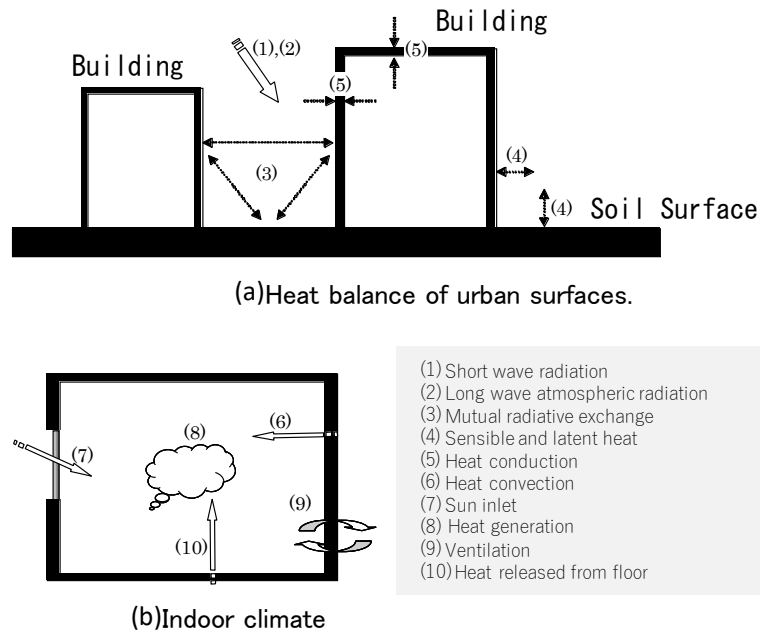


Figure 1 Heat balance model of urban surfaces coupling Indoor climate.

Verification of model by benchmark tests

BESTEST (Judkoff and Neymark 1995) approved by IEA is a highly reliable benchmark test, because it records results of calculations of thermal load of single building on the basis of detailed calculation conditions and main tools. As the outcomes by our development tool can be applicable to analysis of single building, we compared NO.600 which incorporates various conditions such as openings and intermittent air conditioning in BESTEST. The outline of NO.600 is shown in Figure 2. Figure 3 compares our tool with calculation tools used by other countries to calculate the annual cooling thermal load and heating load. The cooling load falls within the range of the results obtained with traditional tools. On the other hand, the heating load is undervalued compared to the results obtained using traditional tools, but the values are similar.

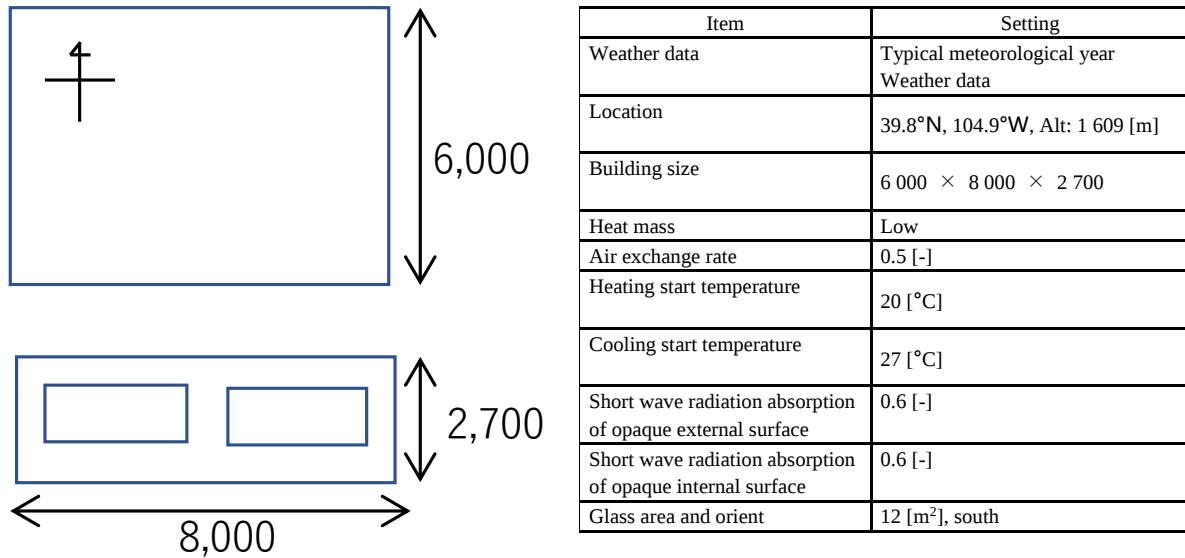


Figure 2 Building form and settings in BESTEST NO. 600.

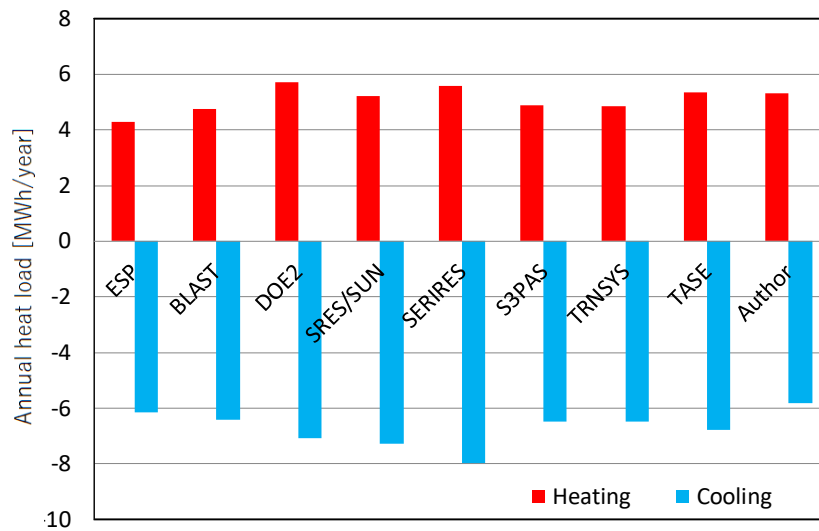


Figure 3 Simulated results of NO. 600.

In the figure, heating load is displayed to the positive side, cooling load to the negative side.

Case studies

We conducted 12 case studies shown in Table 1 by changing the aspect ratio of the layout of buildings and the solar reflectance of the urban surface. The meteorological conditions and other conditions of buildings are set to be the same as those used in BESTEST. Figure 4 shows the surface temperature distribution at 2:00 p.m., August. Here, it is noted each hourly simulated surface temperature is monthly averaged from 1 August to 31 August. The surface temperature of windows facing south is low. We can understand that shades created depending on the distance from neighboring buildings affect the surface temperature. Figure 5 shows the surface temperature distribution in medium located cases where the solar reflectance of the roof, wall and ground increased. A highly reflective roof decreased the roof surface temperature by around 15 degrees, but no change is found in other areas. A highly reflective wall decreased the wall surface temperature by around 10 degrees, and the window surface temperature increases by 2-3 degrees due to reflection from the wall surface. A highly reflective ground decreases the ground temperature by around 10 degrees and more, and the wall surface/window surface temperatures increase by 2-3 degrees due to reflection from the ground.

Figure 6 shows the relationship between the annual envelope thermal load and the aspect ratio. Moreover, Figure 7 indicates relative changes in a similar manner on the basis of the cases before the roof, wall and window were replaced to highly reflective ones. Consequently, relative change can be shown by next equation.

$$\text{Relative change} = \frac{(\text{annual load with measures} - \text{annual load without measures})}{\text{annual load without measures}} \times 100 \quad \text{aspect ratio.} \quad (1)$$

These results proved that the change in the aspect ratio, that is, the change in the distance from neighboring buildings dominantly affects the envelope thermal load. If a highly reflective roof is adopted, the cooling load shown by dotted line may drop by 6~12%, but the heating load shown by solid line increases by 1~2%. It was also proven that relative changes become notable in cases where the aspect ratio is smaller. A highly reflective wall surface result in the reduced cooling load by 1~4%, and it was proven that relative changes become notable in cases where the aspect ratio is larger. The changes by high albedo wall are not clear in heating load. In the case of a highly reflective ground, the cooling load increases by 2~5%, while the heating load increases by 0~1%. It was proven that relative changes become notable in cases where the aspect ratio is larger.

Conclusion

We created a model of the heat transfer process of several buildings in the urban area and developed a method of calculating the envelope thermal load by building. We conducted benchmark tests on single building on the basis of BESTEST. It indicated that the major air-conditioning thermal load calculation tools and the development tools we used in this study produce similar results. We also conducted case studies on several buildings, and it was proven for the first time that a change in the distance from the next building significantly affects the envelope thermal load. Moreover, it was proven quantitatively that the highly reflective surface of buildings contributes to the reduced cooling load, while the highly reflective ground increases the

cooling load. In addition, further consideration will be required for the verification of numerical modeling.

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Table 1 Case study changing the aspect ratio of the layout of buildings and the solar reflectance. Aspect ratios (building pitch L/ building height H/) for low, medium, high layout are 0.37, 0.93, 1.85. Building surface albedo is 0.4 for default, 0.8 for countermeasure, and soil surface albedo 0.2 for default, 0.6 for countermeasure.

Name	Aspect Ratio	High Albedo
Case_ℓ	low	None
Case_m	medium	None
Case_h	high	None
Case_ℓ R	low	Roof
Case_mR	medium	Roof
Case_hR	high	Roof
Case_ℓ W	low	Wall
Case_mW	medium	Wall
Case_hW	high	Wall
Case_ℓ S	low	Soil
Case_mS	medium	Soil
Case_hS	high	Soil

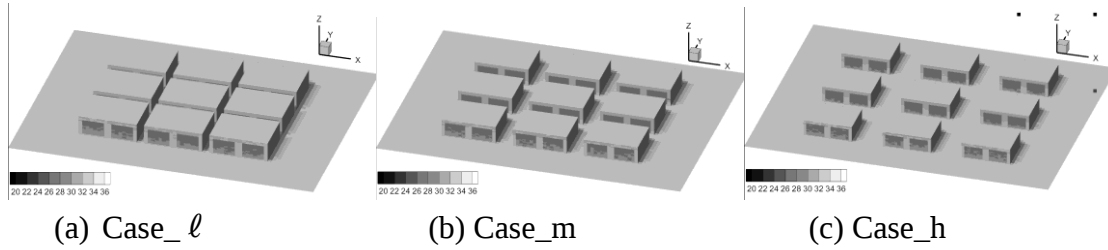


Figure 4 Simulated surface temperatures at 14:00, August.
Panel (a) shows the case of aspect ratio low, panel (b) medium and panel (c) high.

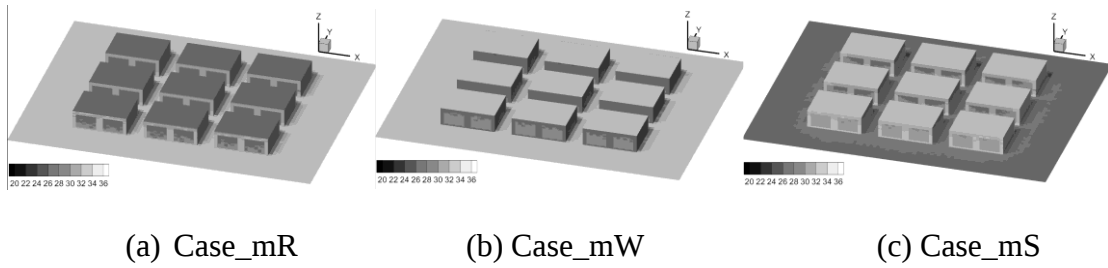


Figure 5 Simulated surface temperatures at 14:00, August.
Panel (a)-(c) shows the cases of aspect ratio medium, panel (a) high albedo roof, panel (b) high albedo wall and panel (c) high albedo soil, respectively.

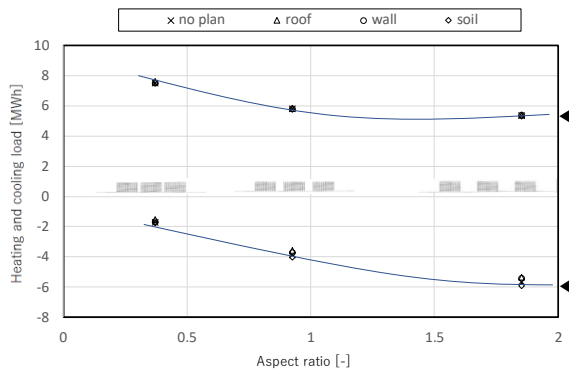


Figure 6 Relation between aspect ratio and annual load.

The arrow heads shown in the right side of the figure show the numerical result of case_m.

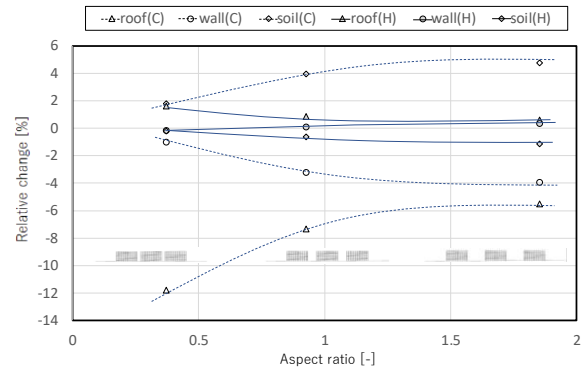


Figure 7 Relation between aspect ratio and relative change of annual load.

If relative change is displayed to the negative side, the loads decrease by measures. On the contrary, the loads increase by measures in the positive side.

Minimizing the inconsistencies of urban building energy simulations through strong microclimate coupling

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ABSTRACT

The impact of microclimate conditions on energy demand is investigated through various coupling schemes between a zonal microclimatic tool and an urban building energy simulation software for a canyon settlement. Additionally, the impact of split air condition units on ambient air temperatures is examined for an annual period. The numerical calculations for a mild oceanic climate confirm the necessity of integrating the microclimate conditions in building energy performance simulations. Air conditioning units, have a significant impact on air temperature both for cooling and heating period. Furthermore, discrepancies emerging from online and offline coupling schemes are highlighted.

Introduction

The increased urbanization of the past decades combined with energy harvesting constructions and huge alterations in land use constitute the base of the local climate change, known as urban heat island (UHI) effect. It deals with the development of higher air temperatures in city centers compare to the rural environment. UHI is experimentally documented for hundreds of cities around the world (Santamouris 2015). Local characteristics and their respective heat sources contribute to the amplitude of the effect (Santamouris et al. 2015). In parallel, energy demand for cooling is the fastest growing end-use in buildings. According to IEA's Tracking Clean Energy Progress 10 air conditioners will be sold every second over the next 30 years.

To this end, particular attention has been paid to the feedback of AC systems on outdoor air temperatures. De Munck (De Munck et al. 2013) demonstrate a coupling scheme between a meso-meteorological model and a single layer-module to account for the built environment, in order to estimate Paris air temperature increase due to air conditioning units. The 6 days' simulation period was chosen for anticyclonic conditions of the 2003's heatwave. The outcomes revealed a maximum of 2°C for the future doubling of air conditioning waste heat released to air. Similarly, Salamanca et al. (2011) integrated a meso-scale with a multilayer urban canopy and a simplified building energy model for the city of Houston (nested area of 110km). The results obtained from a 2-day simulation period, found an increase in night temperatures of up to 2°C. Concerning district scale, a coupled "ping-pong" scheme was developed from Hsieh et al. (2007) based on a BES and a computational fluid dynamics (CFD) code. In this study only five simulation hours were realized during a hot night in Taipei city in Taiwan, although the authors indicated that the maximum measured heat island intensity was depicted at 2pm with a value of 4.9°C. He estimated that the maximum air temperature increase was found to be 1.89°C for a fixed COP value of a window type AC unit. Finally, Wen and Lian (Wen and Lian 2009) developed a

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mathematical nested urban box model, to correlate the atmospheric stability with the possible air temperature increase due to the fluxes of the AC units injected in the lower level of the atmosphere. In their method building parameterizations were not taken into account. They estimated that air temperature increase could reach 2.56°C and 0.2°C under inversion and normal conditions respectively. These studies could give an estimation about the amplitude of the UHI combined with systems feedback in air temperatures, however they are either temporally limited (from hours to days) either the representation of buildings as cells of coverage ratio do not allow to correlate individual building thermal footprint with the local ambient environment.

The dependency of rising energy demand and local climatic phenomena is demonstrated in various studies. Considerable attention has been concentrated to cooling dominated period, since the phenomenon is much more intense during it. To this end, various numerical approaches and studies arise with the scope of estimating the potential energy loss capture due to the local phenomena. Usually, a Building Energy Simulation (BES) model coupled with a microclimate code is preferred. Martin (Martin et al. 2017), performed a one-way coupling of a lumped thermal parameter model with a BES. The outcomes of this study showed that the divergence between estimates of the cooling demand varies whether detailed and simplified BEMs are run under isolated or non-isolated conditions. Gobakis (Gobakis and Kolokotsa 2017) followed a similar coupling approach between a BES and a microclimate model to study the impact of different convective heat transfer coefficients to a building settlement in the University campus of Chania. In their study showed that cooling demand could vary up to 25%. Another effort to minimize the uncertainties of building energy simulation has been conducted by Allegrini (Allegrini, Dorer, and Carmeliet 2012). In their approach, they examined the variations on energy demand between a stand-alone building and buildings integrated in a street canyon by coupling a 2D CFD code and a BES tool for a moderate climate in Basel, Switzerland. He showed that space cooling demand is higher while space heating demand lower for the street-canyon configuration. He suggested that neglecting UHI effect leads to an important underestimation of the cooling demand. This type of approaches seem capable to serve the concept of Net zero energy buildings (NZEB) however, they are also temporally limited due to the time expensive microclimate simulations (CFD), and also spatially restrained, as they account just for the building scale. Moreover, the offline coupling schemes, could give a general estimation about the actual environmental conditions but crucial information is lost. Considering a district, the site-specific air temperature could significantly vary.

In order to extend the boundaries of the simulation domain, a novel series of coupled models have emerged. Mauree (Mauree et al. 2017), applied a one-way coupling scheme between an UBEM and a 1D meteorological model to study the impact on energy demand when urban climate is taken into account for the EPFL campus. They demonstrated that the wind speed and air temperature deviations compared to a typical dataset, could lead to a reduction of the simulating heating demand error by a factor of 2.

In this framework, we propose a new methodology of a coupling scheme between an UBEM and a coupled microclimate model aiming in a twofold study: minimizing the inconsistencies of the UBEM model by considering local microclimate phenomena and testing the impact of energy systems to microclimate and vice versa. The developed coupled model allows to take into account a variety of phenomena, such as detailed radiative and convective transfers for the buildings and the outdoor environment, building thermal transfers, and a diversity of detailed representation of energy systems.

In the present study, three coupling schemes are tested for a street canyon settlement. Annual simulation results of energy loads are examined, while the feedback of air conditioning

systems to ambient air is also evaluated. Furthermore, the discrepancies between online and offline coupling schemes are estimated.

Methodology

Overview

Considering the existing challenges in energy assessment simulations, a strong coupling scheme (Kyriakodis, 2019) is implemented to enhance the meteorological boundary conditions of the urban building energy model. The proposed combination could offer also the possibility to address the objective of systems feedback to air temperatures, subtracting them from the sensible heat ejected from the buildings. Thus, a research developed tool, (1) EnviBatE (Gros, Bozonnet, and Inard 2014), representing a coupled scheme between a simplified BES tool, a solar radiation model and an urban airflow simulation code and a dynamic simulation platform based on the bottom-up approach for district and territory energy assessment, (2) Dimosim (Riederer et al. 2015) have been selected to fulfill the assessment. EnviBatE initially aim to assess building energy demand, including microclimate interactions on buildings. It was further used to study the impact of cool materials in various rehabilitation projects. Dimosim developed with the aim to simulate any possible combination of systems, models and buildings at any scale, at a high execution time and in a modular and flexible way in order to respond to any demand and type of project. Both tools are developed in object-oriented programming language, Python.

Workflow

Import layouts. The geometrical data of Dimosim are characterized by an open structure to enable multiple data sources like databases, standardized information models, or self-defined file formats. More in detail, the structural geometrical file corresponds to a cityGML or json file format. The data are obtained by 2D or 3D vector databases. EnviBatE uses a design software of 3D modeling to process the geometrical layouts. A module capable to transform data between the referenced formats, has been implemented in the coupled model. It allows to index the studied elements (building, surfaces) while in parallel, ensures that the building footprints are identically imported to both tools.

Meshes generation. The generation of various different meshes is a necessary action in order to perform the microclimate simulations. Each of them corresponds to a different calculation domain. At the end, all of them are integrated in a unique final zonal mesh that accounts for buildings, outdoor surfaces and outdoor air cells. More in detail, EnviBatE tool, is using a fine triangulated mesh (**Figure 1b**) for the calculation of solar radiation, a hexahedral structure grid for the airflow calculation (**Figure 1a**) and an unstructured zonal outdoor mesh (**Figure 1c**). Indexation and generation of the meshes are automatically performed by the core code of the tool. In the actual case study, we choose a characteristic length of the outdoor cells equal to the length of each thermal zone. This option ensures that the heat injected from buildings and the respective system flux is equally diffused in the adjacent air volumes.

Solar calculation. Solar radiation is pre-processed for both tools. In this case study, we choose to integrate in the coupled model the solar radiation calculation module of EnviBatE. It corresponds to Solene (Groleau, Fragnaud, and Rosant 2003) radiation model and it is based in the radiosity

method. This option allows to evaluate the: 1) direct solar irradiance, 2) sky luminance, 3) solar reflections and longwave interchanges in the urban environment. The spatial resolution of the solar mesh corresponds to maximum 2m, discretizing each building surface to at least 44 sub-surfaces (**Figure 1b**). At the end, the incident radiation corresponds to the sum of its respective triangles. Sky vault generation is required and it is also discretized to 256 patches.

In order to perform fast calculations in a detailed meshed geometry, the calculation is performed in a daily basis with standard conditions of a clear sky. Thus, solar irradiance from the meteorological file was used to weight it as a function of real conditions. For the diffuse component, daily average Perez coefficients were used.

Airflow calculation. For the airflow calculation, the three components (u , v , w) of air velocity are required for each outdoor cell. They are provided to the model by the use of the urban airflow model QUIC (Pardyjak and Brown 2003). This model is based on empirical laws and a zonal approach developed by Rockle (1990) to provide airflows consistent with the continuity equation. This approach was selected in order to avoid time consuming CFD calculations, as our purpose is to compute the coupled effects of buildings and microclimate over an annual period. The computational domain of this case study consists of $86 \times 86 \times 24$ computational cells, discretized to $1(dx) \times 1(dy) \times 3(dz)$ m for each axis respectively (**Figure 1a**).

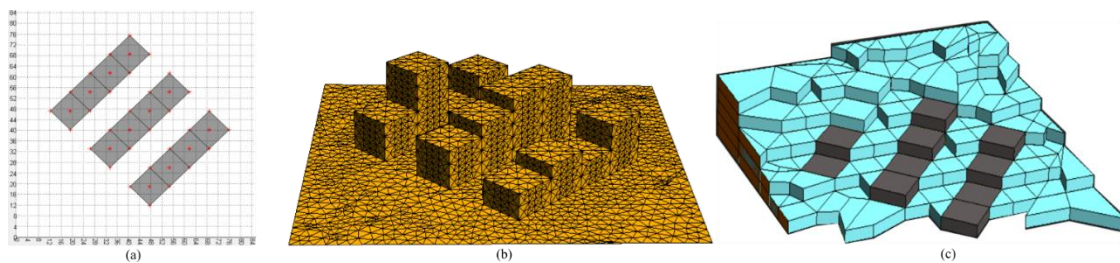


Figure 1. The fine airflow grid (a), triangulated solar mesh (b) and the integrated zonal mesh (c).

Building models. Both models perform building energy simulations for energy consumption (heating, cooling, ventilation and lighting) in buildings. Notably, the building model of EnviBatE is established with the Weighting Factors method (Rousseau 1978). The surface temperature, calculation is strongly coupled to the respective outdoor air temperature, allowing to take into account convective exchanges. Ventilation and occupancy schedules are also included in the model, according to French national regulations or user defined data. In parallel, the building model of Dimosim, corresponds to RC structure taking into consideration the necessary features to perform the thermal calculations. Windows, wall/roof and floor external envelopes, thermal bridges and internal mass, ventilation/infiltration and internal gains from occupants and appliances are included to perform the thermal model computation. In the current version of Dimosim, heat exchange between zones is neglected and only thermal inertia is considered. This is currently being updated and multizone calculations could be achieved in a future version of the tool.

Case study Implementation

The case study is based in an urban canyon settlement composed of 16 buildings of various heights randomly selected. The orientation of the domain is 45° (from N counter clockwise). Each thermal zone is 3m height and the floor surface is 100m^2 . Window to wall ratio is assumed to be 0.2. The thermal transmittance is 0.34, 0.78 and $2.5 [\text{W/m}^2\text{K}]$ and the solar reflectance is 0.3, 0.2

is causing a further increase on energy loads for cooling, presenting a maximum difference of 2.1%.

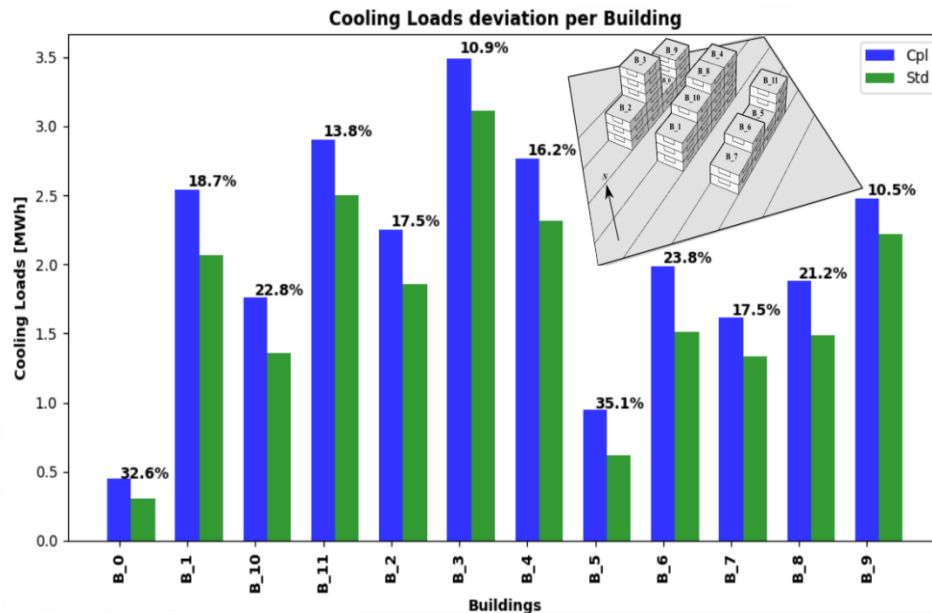


Figure 4. Cooling loads comparison between standalone and coupled simulations.

Heating loads are also presenting the same trend especially when system fluxes are taken into account. In general, the increase is less intense but still significant. The average increase of heating loads is 7%, while the peak is way much smoother, reaching 7.8% (B_5). Systems feedback is captured and presents a further slight increase of heating loads with a maximum value of 1.2%.

A straight comparison between the standalone (UBEM) and the coupled model (Cpl_Ts) is not possible to be conducted, mainly due to the fact that the surface temperature parameter is not converging between the two models. Although, the maximum absolute difference of the surface temperature between the two models is 1,2°C, it is sufficient to underestimate the effect of local climate conditions to the ambient environment.

The average increase of the cooling loads is 20%, while the peak is reaching 35%. The 2-storey buildings are mainly affected due to the interference with the outdoor space. Generally for the entire cooling period the difference between S3 and S4 is almost neglectible reaching maximum the value of 0.02%. Further studies (hourly load differences, different climatic zones, etc.) have to be examined in order to correlate more accurately the temperature increase with the increase of cooling loads. Referring to bibliography this is in agreement with (Santamouris, 2015) for a mild climate.

Impact on Air Temperature

The impact of systems flux to ambient air is captured on both coupling procedures. During the summer period, the air temperature of the canyon derived from the coupled simulations is increasing and most of the canyon cells present a 0.2 - 0.5°C increase of air temperature. At the same time the average air temperature of the canyon is slightly higher compared to the standalone simulation. The absolute difference varies from 0.1 °C to 1.4 °C (Figure 1Figure 5a). The same trend is observed also for the heating period. The range of difference is higher, since the heating

loads and the respective ejected flux of a heating dominated city (La Rochelle) are higher. The maximum air difference is observed inside the canyon with an absolute value of 1.94 (Figure 5b).

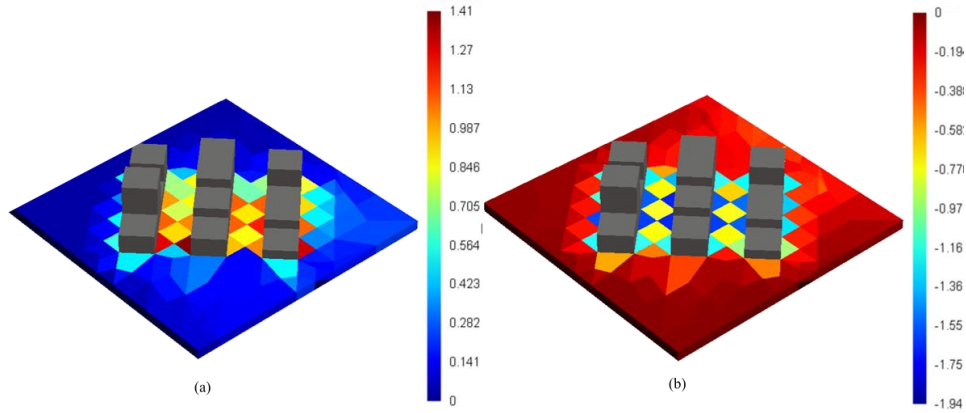


Figure 5: Maximum absolute difference of the air temperature distribution in the canyon during cooling (a) and heating (b) periods when system fluxes are injected.

Coupling Schemes Comparison (Online Vs Offline)

In this section we present the discrepancies between the online coupling scheme (Cpl_Inter) and the commonly used approach of offline coupling. As shown in Figure 6. Online Vs offline comparative results. the average relative difference on cooling loads between online and offline coupling scenarios is reaching 8%. The maximum difference is approximately 22%. Moreover, the cooling loads of two buildings (B_3 and B_9) are overestimated in the offline coupling scenario, while in the rest of them, we can observe an underestimation.

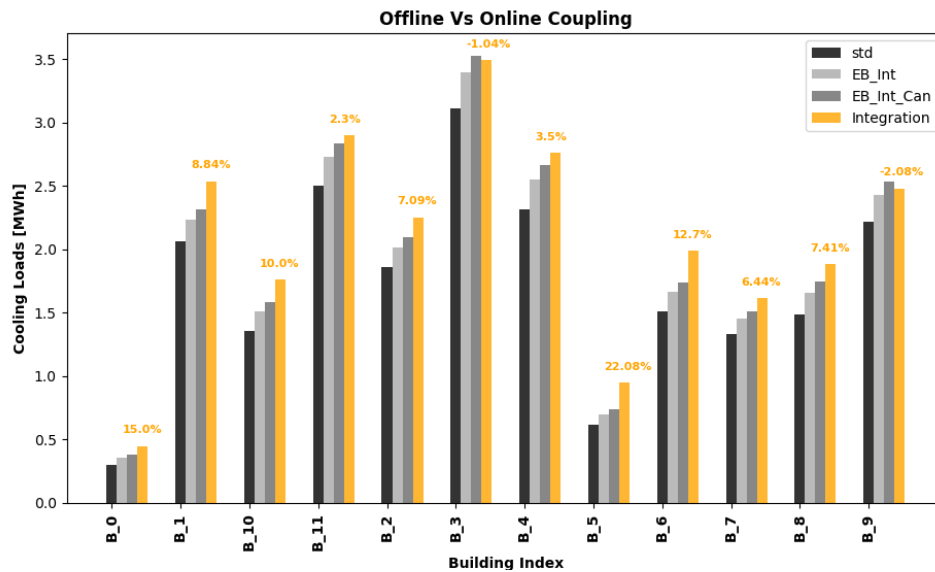


Figure 6. Online Vs offline comparative results.

Discussion & future perspectives

A monitoring campaign for a district in La Rochelle (smart meters and local meteorological stations) is actually ongoing. The onsite measurements could allow validating the new developed model. Comparative analysis for different climate zones, building thermal characteristics and system types is also ongoing.

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