

1 Papadopoulou, M., Raphael, B., Smith, I.F.C. and Sekhar, C. "Optimal Sensor Placement for Time-
2 Dependent Systems: Application to Wind Studies around Buildings." J. Comput. Civ. Eng., Vol 30, no 2,
3 2016, 10.1061/(ASCE)CP.1943-5487.0000497, p.04015024 <http://cedb.asce.org> Copyright ASCE

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3 **OPTIMAL SENSOR PLACEMENT FOR TIME- 4 DEPENDENT SYSTEMS: APPLICATION TO 5 WIND STUDIES AROUND BUILDINGS**

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7 **ABSTRACT**

8 Warm climates pose challenges to building energy consumption and pedestrian comfort.
9 Knowledge of the wind flow around buildings can help address these issues through
improving natural ventilation, energy use and outdoor thermal comfort. Computational Fluid
Dynamics (CFD) simulations are widely used to predict wind flow around buildings, despite

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10 the large discrepancies that often occur between model predictions and actual measurements.
11 Wind speed and direction exhibit a high degree of variability that adds uncertainties in
12 modeling and measurements. Although some studies focus on methods to evaluate and
13 minimize modeling uncertainties, sensor placement has been mostly based on subjective
14 judgment and intuition; no systematic methodology is available to identify optimal sensor
15 locations prior to field measurement. This work proposes a methodology for systematic
16 sensor placement for situations when no measurement data are available and knowledge of
17 the wind environment around buildings is limited. Sequential sensor placement algorithms
18 and criteria are used to identify sensor configurations based on CFD simulation predictions at
19 plausible locations. Optimal sensor configurations are compared for their ability to improve
20 wind speed predictions at another location where no measurements are taken. The
21 methodology is applied to two full-scale building systems of varying size. Results show that
22 the methodology can be applied prior to field measurement to identify optimal configurations
23 of a limited number of sensors that improve wind speed predictions at unmeasured locations.

24 **Author keywords:** Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD); System identification;
25 Uncertainties; Measurement system; Sensors; Model falsification

26 **1. INTRODUCTION**

27 The continuous growth of urban areas has emerged as an important environmental issue
28 around the globe. Of the many consequences of urban growth are poor air quality and thermal
29 comfort, as well as increased energy consumption. The wind environment has a prominent
30 role over these issues and improving knowledge of wind flow around buildings has become
31 important. Recent studies have used computational models, such as Computational Fluid
32 Dynamics (CFD), to assess the wind environment around buildings and address issues related

33 to air pollution (Balczó, et al. 2009; Gousseau, et al. 2011) natural ventilation (Chen 2009),
34 pedestrian comfort (Mochida and Lun 2008) and safety (Blocken, et al. 2012), wind-driven
35 rain (van Hooff, et al. 2011) and convection (Defraeye, et al. 2011). Advantages of CFD
36 simulations are i) they allow the study of complex geometries and ii) they provide detailed
37 information on flow characteristics. However the accuracy of predictions is usually
38 questionable (Assimakopoulos, et al. 2006; Blocken, et al. 2007), in particular when steady-
39 state CFD analysis is performed, since predictions are very sensitive to values of the input
40 parameters (Gousseau, et al. 2011; Murakami 1998). Moreover, wind flow around buildings
41 is dominated by complex phenomena and a high degree of variability is expected, due to
42 large differences in building heights and obstacles, as well as inherent climatic variations
43 (Mochida and Lun 2008; Schatzmann and Leitl 2011).

44 Some researchers have recognized the uncertainty associated with geometric and climatic
45 variations and employed computational parameterization and measurements in search of rules
46 that can be applied to all cases (Martilli, et al. 2003; Oleson, et al. 2008). Recommendations
47 have also been provided on the use of CFD for wind studies around buildings (Franke 2007;
48 Tominaga, et al. 2008). The main issue encountered in previous research is that CFD models
49 have been derived in part from experiments, carried out under specific conditions and within
50 controlled environments. Establishing similitude is consequently a challenge.

51 Field measurements are essential for evaluating CFD predictions and ensuring that
52 simulations have a sound basis. However, field measurements are difficult to perform,
53 expensive, and result in limited quantities of data with low repeatability. More importantly,
54 wind flow varies considerably over space and time and measurements within the urban
55 canopy depend heavily on the location of sensors and sampling frequency (Pavageau and
56 Schatzmann 1999). Previous research has shown that even when measurements are taken

57 under steady ambient conditions, large discrepancies occur between measured and predicted
58 values that are caused by low frequency variations of the flow (Schatzmann and Leitl 2011).
59 These factors add to the uncertainties associated with CFD modeling and field measurements.
60 Related work has shown that using a single model with one set of input parameter values may
61 lead to erroneous predictions (Blocken, et al. 2007; Schatzmann and Leitl 2011). In addition,
62 the limited number of sensor locations poses challenges, since it influences the value of the
63 measurement data and the decisions made based on the data (van Hooff and Blocken 2012).

64 The task of using measurements to infer the behavior of a dynamic system is known as
65 system identification (Ljung 1988). In model-based system identification, physics-based
66 models are used to infer model parameters that are uncertain. Among the common
67 approaches used for inference are based on model validation, such as residual minimization
68 and Bayesian inference. In residual minimization (also known as *model calibration*), values
69 of model parameters are adjusted to minimize the difference between model predictions and
70 measured data; in Bayesian inference conditional probabilities are used to update the prior
71 knowledge on model parameters. These approaches have already been applied in dynamic
72 structural systems. For instance, values of model parameters, such as frequencies and mode
73 shapes, have been estimated using vibration data (Friswell and Mottershead 1995). However,
74 the performance of these approaches depends on the knowledge of modeling errors and their
75 correlations (Beven 2008). Therefore they cannot be applied to wind studies around
76 buildings, since modeling errors are not well known and are associated with the time-
77 dependent atmospheric boundary conditions (Schatzmann and Leitl 2011).

78 Alternatively, inference approaches based on model falsification use measurements to falsify
79 and not validate models that are not in agreement with the data. Such an approach is called
80 error-domain model falsification and it has been proposed for infrastructure diagnosis (Goulet

81 and Smith 2013). Recent work has demonstrated that this approach is more robust compared
82 with Bayesian approaches for cases when systematic modeling errors are not well known
83 (Goulet, et al. 2013). Uncertainties related to model-parameter values are explicitly
84 represented in error-domain model falsification through a multiple-model approach (Raphael
85 and Smith 2013). Falsification of model instances is performed using measured data and
86 estimated error bounds. Non-falsified candidate models are then obtained that explain the
87 measurements and thus describe the behavior of the system through ranges of parameter
88 values. The term *model instance* refers to a computational model in which input parameters
89 are assigned a definite combination of values and the corresponding values of output
90 variables are predicted using a simulation.

91 The success of any system-identification approach depends on measurement data and in
92 model falsification, measurement data are important for falsifying model instances and
93 identifying candidate models. In infrastructure diagnosis, there is a tendency to over-
94 instrument (Brownjohn 2007), and therefore many authors have developed sensor placement
95 methodologies that identify the optimal locations needed for identification and diagnosis of
96 structures. Criteria used for placing sensors have typically involved information gain (Meo
97 and Zumpano 2005; Stephan 2012) and information entropy (Kripakaran and Smith 2009;
98 Papadimitriou 2004; Robert-Nicoud, et al. 2005b). Goulet and Smith proposed a sensor
99 placement methodology that predicted the usefulness of monitoring through the capability to
100 falsify candidate models and reduce measurement-system costs (Goulet and Smith 2012).
101 Most importantly, the methodology incorporates systematic modeling and measurement
102 errors, as well as their dependencies. None of these methodologies and criteria has been
103 adapted to predict the behavior of time-dependent systems at unmeasured locations, such as
104 wind flow around buildings.

105 Compared with infrastructure diagnosis, sensor placement in wind studies around buildings
106 still remains a challenge (van Hooff and Blocken 2012). Sensors have been placed mostly by
107 educated guess, intuitive judgment and common sense. Some researchers have investigated
108 optimal sensor configurations and the information obtained from measured data, either to
109 reduce detection time and consumption of hazardous air pollutants (Hamel, et al. 2006), or to
110 reconstruct a close approximation of the flow field (Mokhasi and Rempfer 2004). Other
111 studies proposed optimal sensor placement approaches based on probabilistic models called
112 Gaussian Processes (GPs) to predict values of several indoor and outdoor environmental
113 variables at unmeasured locations, including temperature, humidity, precipitation and soil
114 moisture (Das and Kempe 2008; Krause, et al. 2008; Osborne, et al. 2008; Wu, et al. 2012).
115 Such approaches are data-driven and require prior knowledge of data distributions and spatial
116 correlations that have been obtained from denser pre-deployment of sensors. However, pre-
117 deploying a large number of wind sensors for outdoor monitoring is costly and time-
118 intensive. Recent work by Du *et al.* (Du, et al. 2014) proposed a mixture GP model based on
119 historical measured data and trained it with CFD simulation predictions to learn spatial
120 correlations. Although Du et al. used the concept of maximum entropy in a similar way to our
121 earlier study (Papadopoulou, et al. 2013), both modeling and measurement data were
122 assumed to be free of errors. None of these studies have presented a rational and systematic
123 sensor placement methodology for wind predictions that includes modeling and measurement
124 uncertainty and can be used prior to field measurement in cases when limited knowledge on
125 wind conditions is available.

126 This paper proposes a methodology for systematic sensor placement to identify sensor
127 locations that improve predictions for time-dependent systems, such as wind flow around
128 buildings. The methodology uses a multiple-model system identification approach to account
129 for parameter uncertainty in CFD simulation predictions. Existing sensor placement

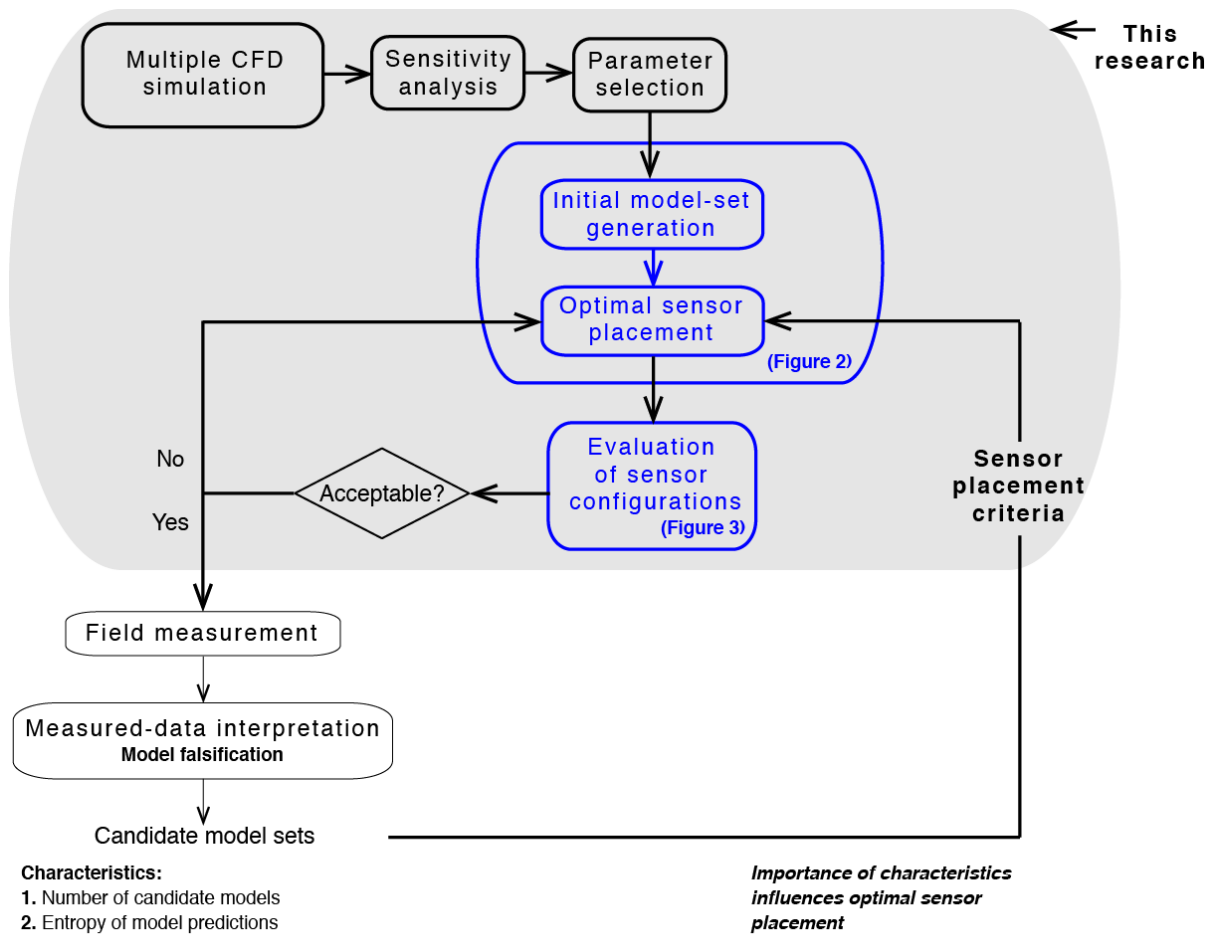
130 algorithms and criteria are evaluated and adapted from system identification to wind studies
131 around buildings. Section 2 summarizes three sequential sensor placement algorithms, based
132 on incremental addition (forward and forward-max algorithms) and removal of sensors
133 (backward algorithm), using entropy and subset-size as placement criteria. The performance
134 evaluation of sensor placement strategies is performed using a combination of simulated and
135 field measurements (Section 2.3). The final sections demonstrate the applicability of the
136 sensor-placement methodology for predicting the time-dependent behavior of wind around
137 buildings, through testing on two full-scale case studies.

138 **2. SYSTEMATIC SENSOR PLACEMENT METHODOLOGY**

139 Important inputs when selecting sensor locations are the objectives of measuring and how the
140 data will be used. Then, the sensor placement strategy is chosen in order to identify the
141 optimal number of sensor locations and their configuration. Several sensor placement criteria
142 may be included, such as sensor characteristics, redundancy of information and cost of
143 equipment; however, studying the effect of multiple and conflicting criteria on sensor
144 placement is outside the context of this paper.

145 In this work, an optimal sensor placement methodology is developed with the objective to
146 improve time-dependent wind predictions around buildings (Fig. 1). The methodology is
147 applied based on the hypothesis that measurement data are best used for model falsification
148 and not for model validation. For each set of data at a particular instant of time, model
149 instances whose predictions are inconsistent with the data are falsified taking into account
150 modeling and measurement uncertainties. The remaining model instances form the *candidate*
151 *model set for this instant of time*. The candidate model sets identified at any given time are

152 used to perform synchronous predictions of wind speed and horizontal direction, at locations
 153 where no measurements are taken.



154

155 Fig. 1. The optimal sensor placement methodology for wind predictions around buildings and
 156 the scope of this work; the contexts of Figures 2 and 3 are also shown.

157 Although specific interpretation strategies are out of the scope of this work (see Fig.1), they
 158 influence the sensor placement criteria. More details on the individual stages of the sensor
 159 placement methodology are given below.

160 2.1. MULTIPLE CFD SIMULATION AND SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

161 The multiple-model approach proposed by Robert-Nicoud et al. (Robert-Nicoud, et al. 2005a)
 162 is adapted for CFD simulations in order to include parameter uncertainties. A discrete

163 population of predictions is generated that describes possible wind behavior around
164 buildings. The discrete population of predictions is generated from simulations, varying
165 values of input parameters that are not precisely known with plausible initial ranges defined
166 by engineering judgment and literature. Since the number of possible value combinations is
167 large, it is necessary to minimize computational cost and reduce the number of parameters.
168 Sensitivity analysis and parameter selection are employed in order to choose a reduced set of
169 parameters that have the highest impact on wind speed and direction predictions. The reduced
170 set of parameters allows a simple-grid sampling through selecting values uniformly within
171 the plausible ranges of the selected parameters; the remaining parameters are set to constant
172 values. Multiple, steady-state CFD simulations are performed using all combinations, k , of
173 values of the selected parameters and discrete populations of wind predictions, $y_{k,j}$, are
174 obtained at possible sensor locations, $j = 1, \dots, n_s$, where n_s is the number of potential sensor
175 locations that are fixed. A definite combination of input values of parameters, and the
176 corresponding wind predictions at the potential locations, is one *model instance*, m . The
177 generated discrete population of model instances is called the *initial model set*, M .

178 Since sensor placement is performed prior to field measurements, optimal sensor
179 configurations are identified using the initial model set, taking into account modeling and
180 measurement errors. The sensor placement criteria depend on the data interpretation approach
181 and in this study the hypothesis is that optimal sensor configurations support multi-model
182 falsification approaches, such as (Goulet, et al. 2013; Vernay, et al. 2014). Therefore the
183 sensor selection criteria should increase the number of falsified model instances and reduce
184 the number of candidate models. The sequence of sensor selection is incremental and two
185 placement strategies are evaluated: addition of sensors from an initial state of no sensors and
186 removal of sensors from an initial state of sensors at all locations. More details are given in
187 the section below.

188 Finally, the performance of the optimal sensor configurations is evaluated for its ability to
189 improve simulation predictions. During this stage, the candidate models identified with the
190 optimal sensor configuration are used to update simulation predictions at an unmeasured
191 location. The update predictions are then compared with measurements taking into account
192 modeling and measurement errors. In this work, the performance of several sensor
193 configurations is evaluated at the same instant in time, with a limited number of available
194 sensors. Therefore, a combination of simulated and field measurements is used during
195 performance evaluation. The evaluation procedure is described in section 2.3.

196 2.2. SEQUENTIAL SENSOR PLACEMENT STRATEGIES

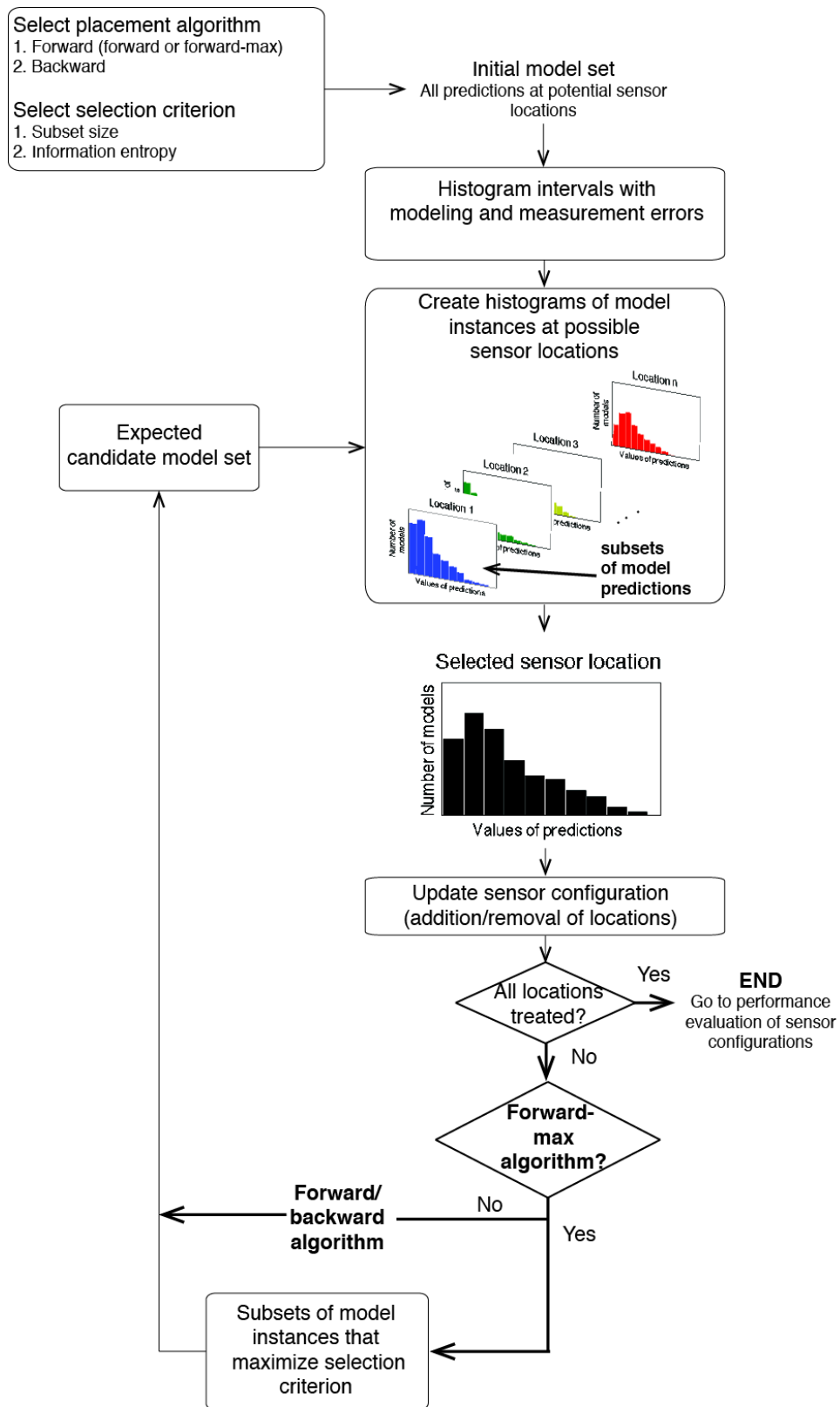
197 Three sequential sensor placement algorithms are coded in MATLAB 8.1: the forward, the
198 forward-max (adapted from (Papadimitriou 2004; Robert-Nicoud, et al. 2005b)) and the
199 backward (adapted from (Goulet and Smith 2012)). The forward and the forward-max
200 algorithms incrementally add sensors to the configuration from an initial condition of no
201 sensors. The backward algorithm incrementally removes sensors from an initial configuration
202 of all potential sensors. Sensor locations are selected using either of two placement criteria:
203 entropy and subset size (adapted from (Kripakaran and Smith 2009; Papadimitriou 2004)).

204 The individual stages of the sensor placement strategies are shown in Fig. 2. The first step is
205 to choose the algorithm and the criterion to be evaluated. Then, the range of predicted values
206 at the j^{th} location is divided into equal intervals $(I_{w,i})_j$ of width W . The width W depends on
207 estimates of modeling error, e_{model} , and measurement error, e_{measur} :

$$W = |e_{model}| + |e_{measur}| \quad (2.1)$$

208

209



210

211

212

213

Fig. 2. The three sensor placement algorithms with incremental addition (forward and forward-max) and removal (backward) of sensors, from a configuration of sensors at potential locations.

214 Next, for each possible sensor location j , all model instances from the initial model set M , are
 215 distributed into subsets according to the interval bounds $(I_{w,i})_j$, satisfying the condition that
 216 $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, N_I\}$ and $\forall (m_i)_j \in M : (I_{w,i})_j \leq (m_i)_j \leq (I_{w,i+1})_j$, where N_I is the maximum
 217 number of intervals at the j^{th} location. That is, model instances m_i that predict values within
 218 an interval belong to the same subset. Model instances are grouped into subsets depending on
 219 modeling and measurement errors, and therefore may not be further discriminated using the
 220 current sensor configuration. Histograms of model instances are then created at each location
 221 j and are used to evaluate the chosen placement criterion, entropy or subset size, which are
 222 explained below.

223 The subset-size criterion is a direct measure of the number of model instances in a subset, m_i .
 224 It is used to estimate the expected maximum number of candidate models. Since sensor
 225 placement is performed prior to field measurements, this number corresponds to the subset
 226 with the largest number of model instances, among all subsets of the optimal sensor
 227 locations.

228 On the other hand, entropy is used as an indirect measure of disorder in model instances. It is
 229 computed using the histograms of predictions of the model instances at possible sensor
 230 locations; uniform distributions have the highest entropy. Entropy refers to Shannon entropy
 231 or Information entropy and is defined as:

$$H(y)_j = - \sum_{i=1}^{N_I} p(y_i)_j \log_2(p(y_i)_j) \quad (2.2)$$

232 where $H(y)_j$ is the entropy of a random output variable y , such as wind speed and horizontal
 233 direction, at a sensor location j , $p(y_i)_j$ is the probability of the i^{th} interval of a variable's
 234 distribution, with $i = 1, \dots, N_I$ and N_I is the maximum number of intervals at the j^{th} location.

235 The entropy at each location j is computed through first calculating the number of model
236 instances that lie within each interval, $(m_i)_j$ and then calculating the probability of the
237 interval as $p(y_i)_j = (m_i)_j / M$.

238 According to the hypothesis that measurements are best used to support multiple model
239 falsification, optimal sensor configurations should increase the number of model instances
240 that are falsified and reduce the number of candidate models.

241 For the forward algorithm, using the subset-size criterion, optimal sensor locations are
242 incrementally selected in order to reduce the number of candidate models (the subset-size);
243 locations that provide the minimum subset-size are selected. Using the entropy criterion,
244 optimal locations are incrementally selected to maximize separation between model instances
245 in order to increase the number of model instances that are falsified; locations that provide
246 maximum entropy in model predictions are selected.

247 The backward algorithm is the inverse of forward algorithm and the least useful sensor
248 locations are incrementally removed from a configuration of sensors at all possible locations.
249 Consequently, locations are selected in order of maximum subset-size or minimum entropy.

250 The forward-max algorithm is essentially a forward strategy with regard to incrementally
251 selecting sensor locations, however it works differently after the 1st optimal location is
252 selected. The simple forward algorithm (as well as the backward) is advantageous when
253 compared to global search algorithms with regard to computational cost (Papadimitriou
254 2004). Since sensor selection is based on incremental entropy calculations, mutual
255 information between sensors is disregarded and redundant sensor locations may be selected.
256 For example, the sensor location having the second highest value for entropy might contain
257 the same information as provided by the first location. In general, sensor configuration is a
258 combinatorial optimization problem. If there are N possible sensor locations, there are $(2^N - 1)$

259 number of combinations. Selecting the best k locations from among all these combinations
260 would require evaluating non-redundant information content of each combination.

261 The forward-max algorithm deals with this issue through creating subsets of model instances
262 that predict values within the same intervals of previously selected sensor locations. These is
263 done as follows:

- 264 1. For each subset of model instances $(m_i)_{opt1}$ in the histogram of the 1st optimal
265 location ($opt1$), interval bounds $(I_{w,i})_{opt1}$ are recalculated at all possible sensor
266 locations j .
- 267 2. Each subset $(m_i)_{opt1}$ is *subdivided* into smaller subsets of model instances at all
268 locations j , so that $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, N_I\}$ and $\forall (m_i)_j \in (m_i)_{opt1} : (I_{w,i})_j \leq (m_i)_j \leq$
269 $(I_{w,i+1})_j$ and new histograms of model instances are created. For example, if there
270 are 10 subsets of model instances $(m_i)_{opt1}$ that cannot be separated further with the
271 1st sensor location, and 4 possible sensor locations, for each subset $(m_i)_{opt1}$, 4
272 histograms of model instances are created—one corresponding to each location (in
273 total, 40 histograms).
- 274 3. The chosen criterion is evaluated for all histograms and for each subset the maximum
275 criterion value and the corresponding location are recorded (in the above example, 10
276 criteria values would be recorded).
- 277 4. The recorded values are then compared and the location that scores the maximum
278 value is added to the configuration as the 2nd optimal location ($opt2$). The
279 corresponding subset is stored as, $(m_{opt2})_{opt1}$.
- 280 5. The subset $(m_{opt2})_{opt1}$ of the 1st optimal location is then replaced with the smaller
281 subsets according to the *subdivisions* that location ($opt2$) provides.

282 6. The histogram of the 1st optimal location (*opt1*) is updated and incremental sensor
283 selections are repeated from step 1 until all locations are treated, or no more model
284 instances can be separated.

285 Although the forward-max algorithm does not directly evaluate the mutual information
286 between sensors, the incremental sensor selection is based on the subset of model instances of
287 previously selected sensors that maximizes the chosen criterion. This procedure has linear
288 complexity with respect to the number of model instances and does not depend on the
289 number of combinations of sensor locations. The maximum number of iterations required is
290 equal to the number of possible subdivisions; the upper bound for this quantity is the
291 maximum number of model instances of all subsets of the 1st optimal location.

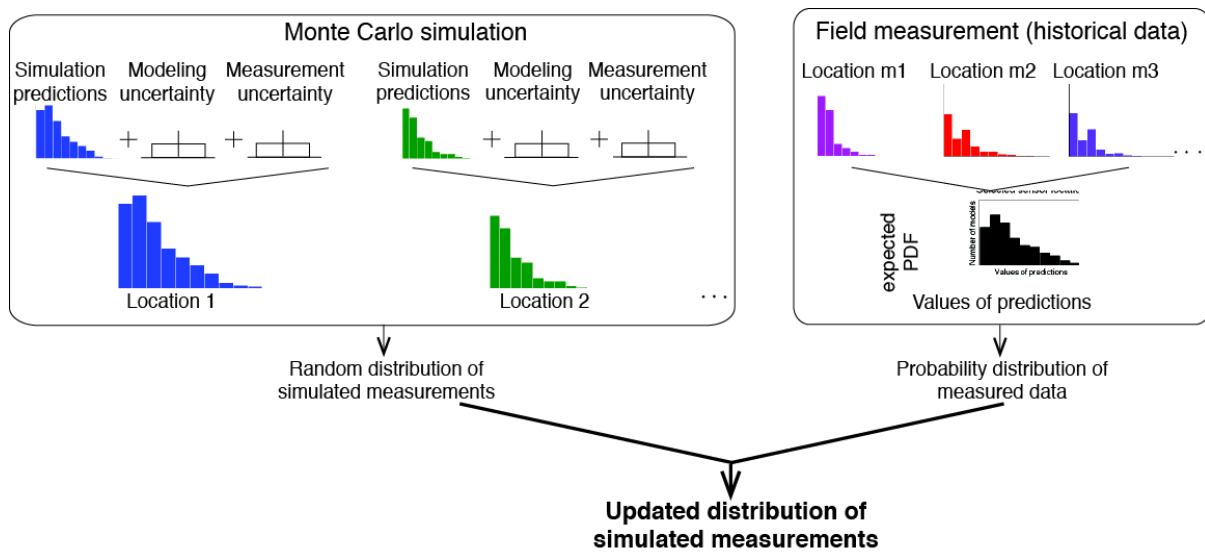
292 For all algorithms, the maximum number of candidate models of the current sensor
293 configuration is recorded during sensor placement and following every update. This number
294 corresponds to the subset with the largest number of model instances among all the subsets of
295 the sensor configuration.

296 2.3. EVALUATION USING SIMULATED AND FIELD MEASUREMENTS

297 Each sensor placement algorithm and criterion is expected to construct a different optimal
298 sensor configuration. In order to evaluate and compare their performance, actual
299 measurements at those locations are needed. Since sensor placement is performed prior to
300 field measurements, data at these locations are not currently available.

301 For performance evaluation, several sensor configurations need to be compared at the same
302 time instant. This could require costly deployment of a large number of sensors. Simulated
303 measurements are therefore generated at optimal locations and historically measured field
304 data are used to create realistic measurements. The simulated measurements are used for

305 making predictions at other locations in order to compute parameters such as prediction
 306 range, which indicate the capability of the algorithm to improve the quality of predictions.
 307 The procedure to generate simulated measurements is shown in Fig. 3. First, predictions of
 308 the initial model set are combined with modeling and measurement uncertainties of random
 309 distribution using a Monte Carlo simulation. Thousands of initial values of simulated
 310 measurements are generated at the optimal locations and a random sample is extracted from
 311 the combined distribution.



312
 313 Fig. 3. Framework for generating simulated measurements based on historically measured
 314 data and through combining simulation predictions with uncertainties.

315 Historically measured data, available at other locations, are used to obtain more realistic
 316 values for simulated measurements. It is assumed that the sample distribution of the
 317 simulated measurements at the locations historically measured should follow the probability
 318 distribution of the measurement data. Therefore, the set of initial simulated measurements is
 319 sampled in order to obtain a similar probability distribution to the one measured. The
 320 corresponding values at other locations, where no measurement data are available, are picked
 321 from the initial values of simulated measurements. An updated sample of simulated

322 measurements is thus obtained at the optimal locations. This sample forms the final set of
323 simulated measurements.

324 Each simulated measurement from the final set is treated as an independent time step and
325 model instances are falsified simultaneously over the optimal sensor locations. An
326 independent candidate model set is obtained for each time step and is used to update
327 predictions at an unmeasured location, which has been randomly selected. The resulting
328 prediction ranges are compared with the initially generated simulated measurements at the
329 same location.

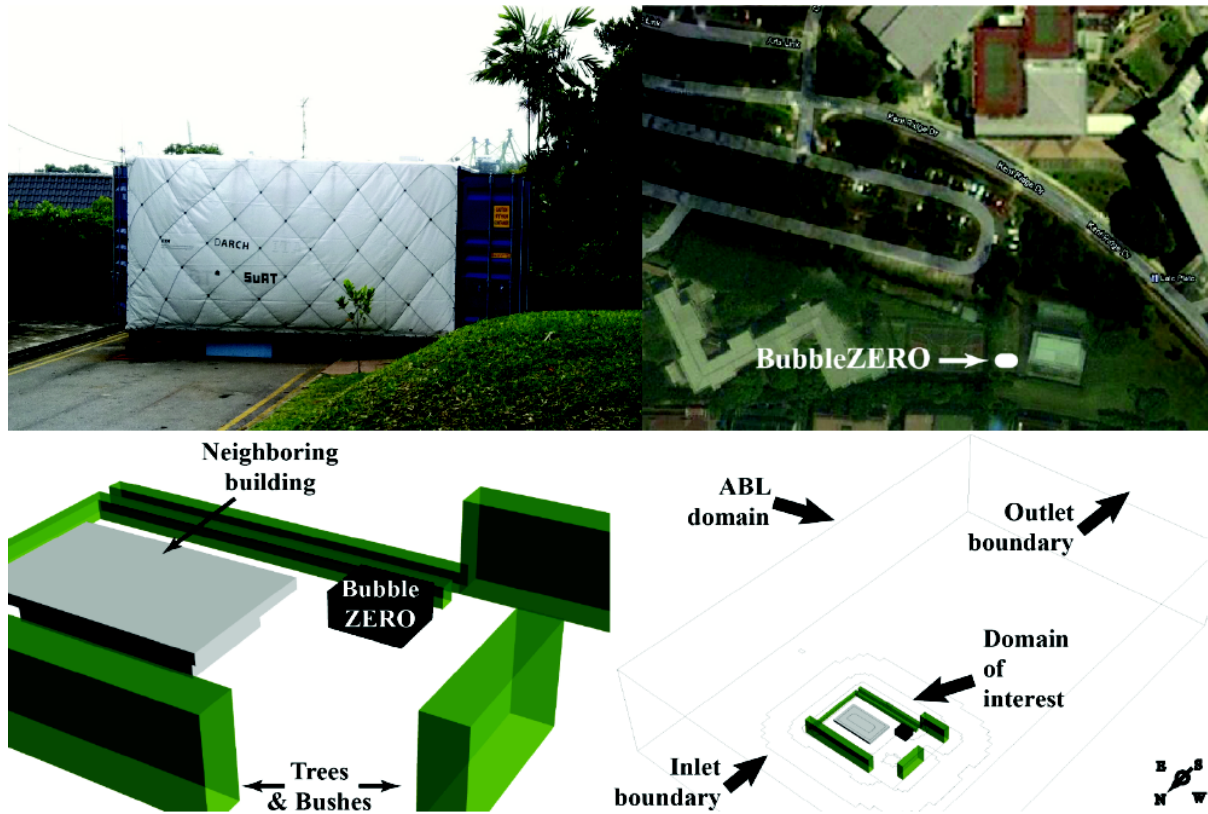
330 In order for the identification to be successful, the optimal sensor configuration should not
331 only reduce the number of candidate models and narrow prediction ranges, but the prediction
332 ranges should also contain the simulated measurements. The performance of the sensor
333 placement strategies is therefore assessed with respect to prediction ranges, number of
334 candidate models and success in identification.

335 **3. APPLICATIONS**

336 **3.1. CASE STUDY 1: BUBBLEZERO**

337 The sensor configuration methodology was applied to BubbleZERO, which is an
338 experimental facility of the Singapore-ETH center for Global Environmental Sustainability,
339 located on NUS campus (Fig. 4, top). Its simple geometry, as well as the tropical climate of
340 Singapore that is characterized by uniform temperatures and two distinct monsoon seasons,
341 made it a good candidate for this study.

342



343

344 Fig. 4. (Top) Location of BubbleZERO and (bottom) 3D views of the computational domain.

345 CFD simulations are performed with ANSYS Workbench 14.5, which is a platform that
 346 offers a probabilistic analysis in GUI mode using design exploration tools. FLUENT is used
 347 as a solver for the equations of flow motion and the Design Exploration tool for sensitivity
 348 analysis and feature selection. The simulations require geometrical simplifications and
 349 assumptions related to the numerical methods that control the solver:

- 350 • The geometry consists of the BubbleZERO, with dimensions $5 \text{ m} \times 6 \text{ m} \times 3 \text{ m}$, and
 351 obstacles in proximity: a neighboring building and vegetation (Fig. 4, bottom). The
 352 orography of the area is assumed uniform and surface details of obstacles are omitted.
 353 The entire size of the computational domain (or *boundary domain*) is $220 \text{ m} \times 140$
 354 $\text{m} \times 40 \text{ m}$. The extent of the modeled area and the size of the domain are defined
 355 according to recommendations available in literature (Franke 2007; Tominaga, et al.
 356 2008).

357 • Assumptions with regard to numerical simplifications include the CutCell Cartesian
358 meshing that is used as a discretization method to generate a predominantly
359 hexahedral mesh with minimum user input. The SIMPLE algorithm is employed to
360 achieve pressure-velocity coupling and second-order discretization is used as a
361 pressure interpolation scheme. Finally, the single-precision solver is considered
362 sufficiently accurate for this study.

363 3.1.1. NUMERICAL ANALYSIS AND SIMULATION

364 The behavior of wind around the BubbleZERO and the neighboring obstacles is characterized
365 by a set of mathematical models, parameters, variables and constants that describe flow
366 motion. The selected mathematical models are the RANS-equations, the realizable k-ε
367 equations to represent turbulence and the standard wall-functions to treat near-wall
368 turbulence. Steady-RANS analysis using the realizable k-ε equations is one of the most
369 economical approaches to solve turbulent flows.

370 In total, 15 parameters are identified related to the geometry, the discretization and the
371 boundary conditions. These include parameters related to the discretization method, the
372 geometry of the boundary domain, the surface roughness of the terrain and of the buildings,
373 the inertial resistance of the vegetation, as well as inlet boundary conditions including wind
374 speed, horizontal direction, turbulence kinetic energy and eddy dissipation. The following
375 equations are used to describe boundary conditions:

$$U(y) = \frac{u_* \ln\left(\frac{z+z_0}{z_0}\right)}{\kappa} \quad (3.1)$$

376 where $U(y)$ is the wind speed at height z , u_* is the atmospheric-boundary-layer friction (or
377 *shear*) velocity, z_0 the surface roughness and $\kappa \cong 0.41$ the von Kármán constant.

$$k = \frac{u_*^2}{\sqrt{C_\mu}} \quad (3.2)$$

378 where k is the turbulence kinetic energy and C_μ a model constant.

$$\varepsilon(y) = \frac{u_*^3}{\kappa(z + z_0)} \quad (3.3)$$

379 where $\varepsilon(y)$ is the turbulence eddy dissipation at height z .

380 In FLUENT, the surface roughness is represented by the roughness height, z_0 , which is
381 modified using the equivalent sand-grain roughness, $k_{s,ABL}$, (Equation(3.4)3.4).

$$k_{s,ABL} = \frac{9.793z_0}{C_s} \quad (3.4)$$

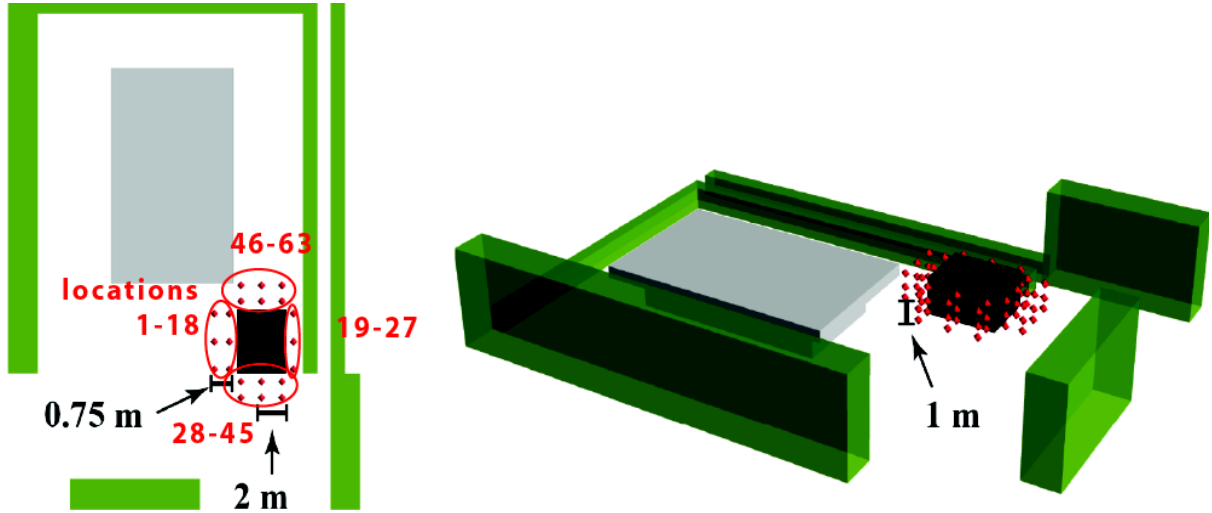
382 where C_s is the roughness constant, set to satisfy the constraint $k_{s,ABL} \leq z_p$, and z_p is the grid
383 resolution (the distance of the centroid of the wall-adjacent cell to the wall).

384 Vegetation is modeled as porous media, C , with inertial resistance set in the x- and y-
385 direction as below (Guo and Maghirang 2012):

$$C = C_d d_{SA} \quad (3.5)$$

386 where C_d is the drag coefficient, varying from 0.1 to 0.5, and d_{SA} is the local leaf-area
387 density, with range 1 to 7 (Tiwary, et al. 2006).

388 Sensitivity analysis is carried out with the Design Exploration tool in Workbench in order to
389 reduce the number of parameters and minimize computational cost. An Optimal Space-
390 Filling design (Ansys 2011) with CCD sampling (Box and Hunter 1957) is applied, resulting
391 in 283 simulations. The wind speed, referring to the magnitude of the horizontal component
392 of the velocity vector, and the horizontal direction, in degrees, were the output variables of
393 the simulations. Distributions of the output variables were built as a full second-order
394 polynomial response-surface and predictions of wind speed and horizontal direction were
395 obtained at 63 possible sensor locations, which were fixed uniformly near the BubbleZERO,
396 at three height levels: 0.6, 1.5, 2.7 m (Fig. 5).



397

398

Fig. 5. Possible sensor locations: top view on the left and front view on the right

399

Spearman's rho correlation coefficient, ρ_j , between the 15 input parameters and the output

400

wind speed and horizontal direction, is calculated at each potential sensor location from

401

Equation (3.6):

$$\rho_j = - \frac{\sum_k (x_{k,j} - \bar{x}_j)(y_{k,j} - \bar{y}_j)}{\sqrt{\sum_k (x_{k,j} - \bar{x}_j)^2 (y_{k,j} - \bar{y}_j)^2}} \quad (3.6)$$

402

where $x_{k,j}$, $y_{k,j}$ the ranks of the input parameters and output variables respectively at each

403

location $j \in \{1, \dots, 63\}$, with $k = 1, \dots, n$ the size of the sample and \bar{x}_j , \bar{y}_j the mean values.

404

For each input parameter and output variable, the average correlation coefficient $\bar{\rho}_j$ is

405

calculated over all potential sensor locations. The parameters with the highest $\bar{\rho}_j$ over the two

406

output variables are identified as parameters with the highest impact on wind predictions. In

407

order to study wind variability, computational cost had to be reduced by selecting the three

408

parameters with the highest $\bar{\rho}_j$: wind speed, horizontal direction and turbulence kinetic

409

energy at the inlet boundary (with coefficients 0.6, 0.4 and 0.1, respectively).

410

Although the selected parameters are inlet boundary conditions that might be measured, this

411

is not always practical. Orographic constraints are present in both the pilot study and the

412 second case study (Section 3.2). One of the major issues encountered is the difficulty in
413 deploying sensors remote from the buildings in order to measure the undisturbed flow. In
414 most previous experiments, reference weather stations were used to obtain the values for inlet
415 boundary conditions. However, it is doubtful whether weather station data accurately
416 represent inlet conditions of the simulation model because of the high spatial and temporal
417 variability in climatic conditions. In most cases, resources are limited and only a few points
418 can be measured, which are therefore selected near the buildings. The influence of the sensor
419 locations on the measured data has, however, never been examined (Schatzmann and Leidl
420 2011).

421 Simulations were performed by varying values of the parameters within plausible ranges
422 shown in Table 1. The reduced number of parameters allowed a simple-grid sampling
423 through selecting values uniformly within the ranges. A set of 1024 combinations of values
424 was created and simulations were carried out. A discrete population of wind-speed and
425 horizontal-direction predictions at the 63 possible sensor locations was the output of the
426 simulations.

427 Recent work (Vernay, et al. 2014) has demonstrated that the range of modeling errors
428 associated with wind direction can vary significantly, depending on input values of boundary
429 conditions and sensor locations. The study estimated that modeling errors associated with
430 wind direction could be the most that is possible, up to 180 degrees both ways. This is largely
431 due to use of a steady-state RANS analysis that uses time-averaged equations to describe
432 flow behavior. Therefore, in this study wind direction is not considered and only wind speed
433 predictions are employed to demonstrate the application of the methodology.

434 Table 1 Parameters and their ranges of values used to generate the initial model set.

Parameter	Lower	Upper	Unit	Comments
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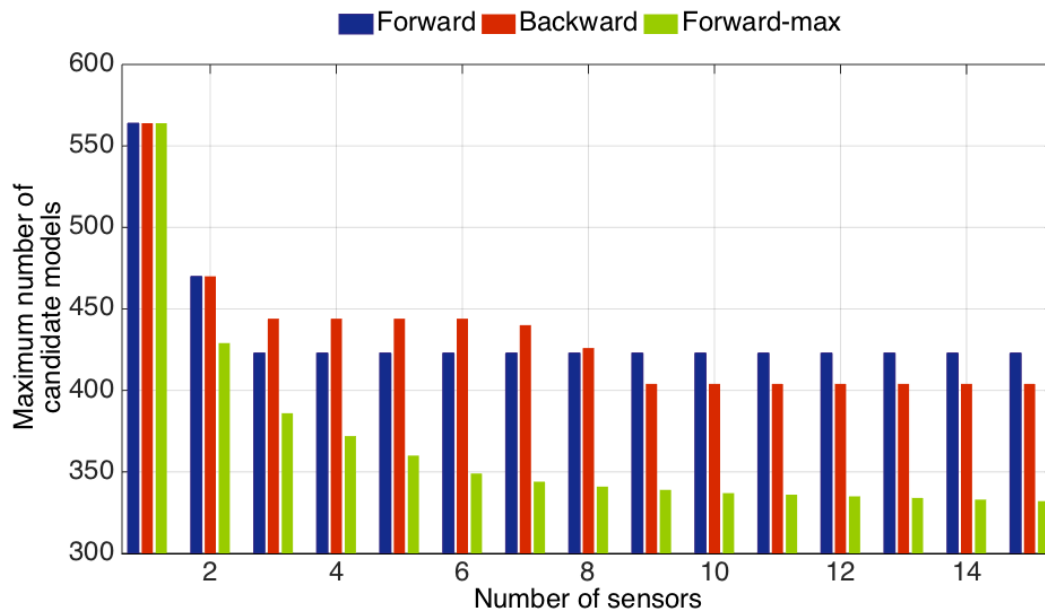
	value	value		
Horizontal wind direction	1	360	deg	The wind direction varied from 1 to 360 degrees in order to account for possible values.
Wind speed	0.5	7.2	m/s	The lower and upper bounds were set according to meteorological data obtained from the Changi WMO, Singapore.
Turbulent kinetic energy	0.08	7.23	J/kg	The lower and upper bounds were set according to (Franke 2007; Tominaga, et al. 2008).

435 3.1.2. OPTIMAL SENSOR PLACEMENT

436 Sensor placement strategies and criteria were evaluated using the initial model set in order to
437 reveal optimal sensor configurations. The range of modeling errors can vary on average
438 between -0.8 and +0.6 m/s for horizontal wind speed (Vernay, et al. 2014). In this study, a
439 spatially uniform and constant value of modeling error is defined equal to ± 0.7 m/s. The
440 range of measurement errors depends on the characteristics of the measurement equipment
441 and is set to 0.1 m/s.

442 Fig. 6 shows a comparison of three sensor placement algorithms for wind-speed predictions
443 using entropy as a placement criterion. The bars represent the maximum number of candidate
444 models that is expected for a set of optimally placed sensors. For all the algorithms, the rate
445 of change in the maximum number of candidate models is negligible after the 3rd sensor is
446 added to the configuration: for the forward and backward algorithms it levels off and for the
447 forward-max it drops below 5%. However, the forward-max algorithm estimates a
448 significantly lower number of candidate models than the forward and backward algorithms.

449 The difference exceeds 50 candidate models for sensor configurations of four sensors and
 450 above. Overall, the forward-max algorithm has a better performance than the forward and
 451 backward algorithms in reducing the number of candidate models, while requiring the least
 452 number of sensors.

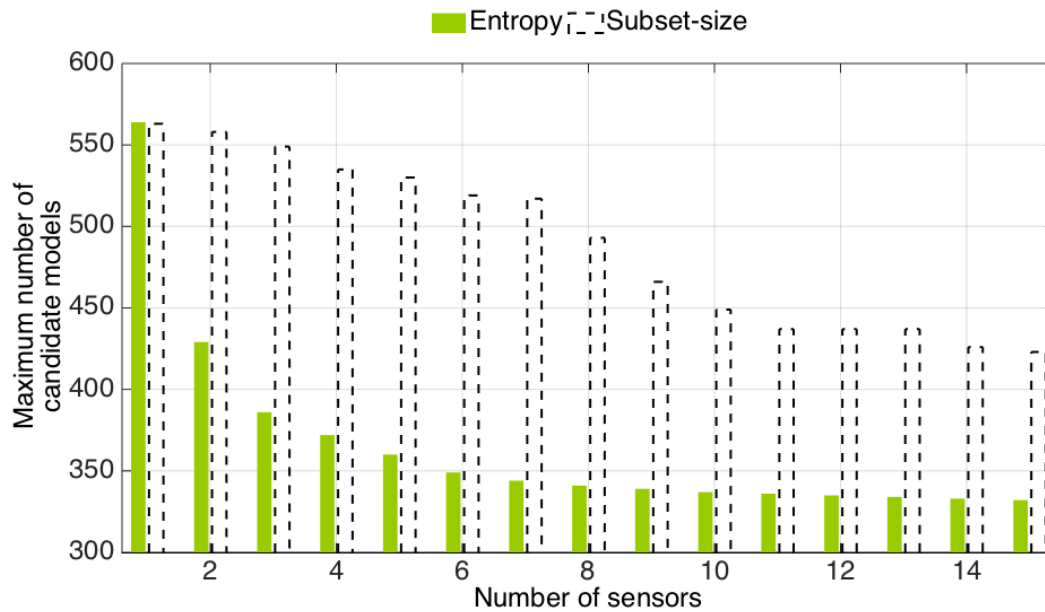


453

454 Fig. 6. Comparison of three sensor placement algorithms in estimating the expected
 455 maximum number of candidate models, using entropy as a placement criterion; a maximum
 456 set of 15 optimally placed sensors is displayed out of the possible 63.

457 In Fig. 7 the entropy and the subset-size placement criteria are compared for wind-speed
 458 predictions using the forward-max sensor placement algorithm. When the subset-size
 459 criterion is employed, the estimated maximum number of candidate models is consistently
 460 higher than using the entropy criterion. Although the maximum difference between the two
 461 criteria decreases with the number of sensors, it is retained above 150 candidate models when
 462 less than ten sensors are deployed. Nevertheless, the entropy-based configuration of four
 463 sensors estimates a maximum of 372 candidate models, which is 36% of the size of the initial

464 model set; the subset-size criterion estimates a 1.5 times larger upper bound of 535 candidate
 465 models for the same number of sensors.



466

467 Fig. 7. Comparison of the entropy and the subset-size placement criteria in estimating the
 468 expected maximum number of candidate models, using the forward-max sensor placement
 469 algorithm; a maximum set of 15 optimally placed sensors is displayed out of the possible 63.

470 Fig. 8 presents the optimal sensor configurations of 4 sensors using the forward-max
 471 algorithm with the entropy (left) and the subset-size (right) placement criteria for predicting
 472 wind speed. Except the sensor location L17, the two criteria propose different optimal sensor
 473 configurations. Employing the subset-size criterion, no location is selected near the south
 474 façade of the building and with entropy, no locations is selected near the west façade of the
 475 building. Using either criterion, the 2nd and 3rd location are selected near the north façade.
 476 Overall, the optimal configurations are sensitive to the placement criterion and no common
 477 configurations are found.

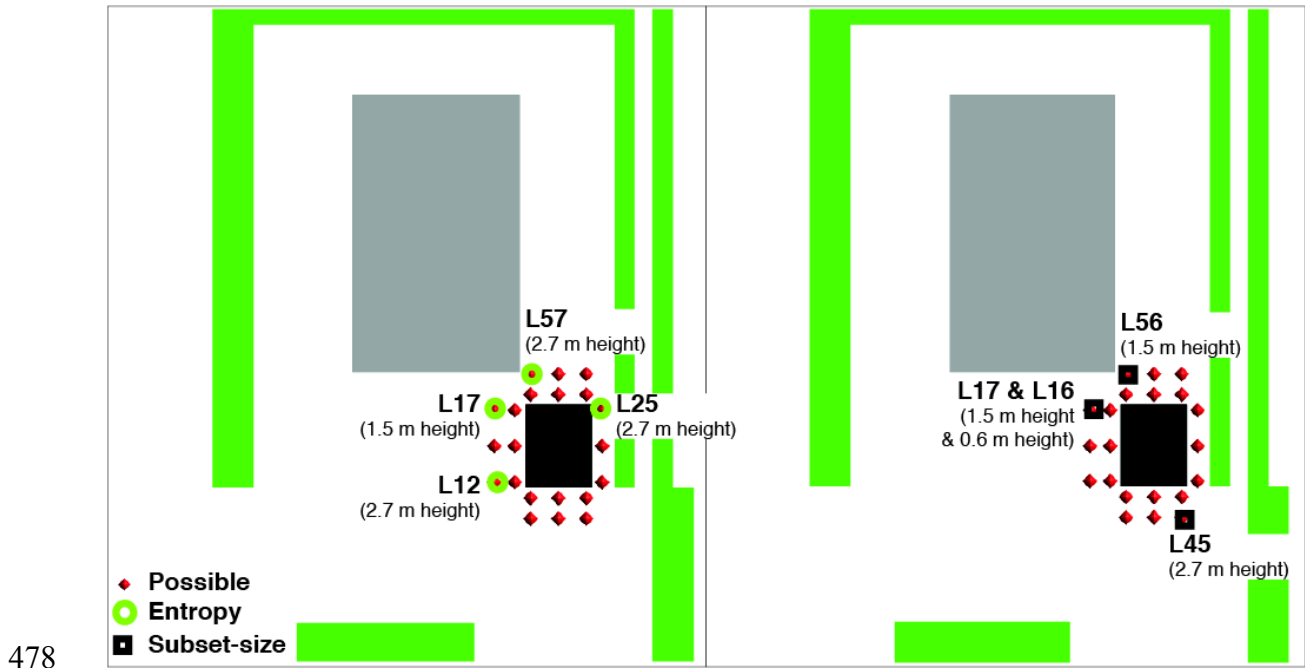
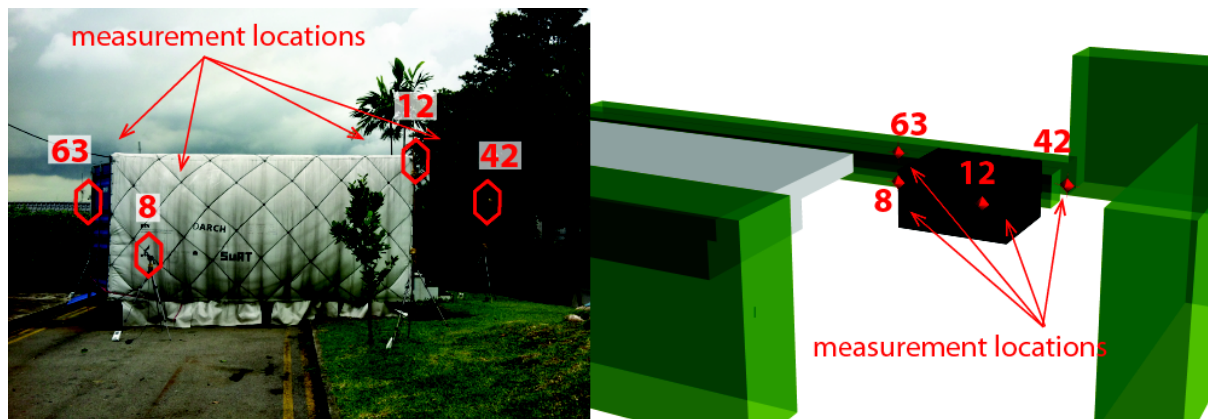


Fig. 8. Optimal sensor locations of the first four sensors for predicting wind-speed, obtained using the forward-max sensor placement with the entropy (left) and the subset-size (right) placement criteria.

3.1.3. EVALUATION OF SENSOR CONFIGURATIONS

A measurement campaign was carried out around the BubbleZERO in order to evaluate the optimal sensor placement methodology. Four sets of Wireless Vantage Pro2™ and Vantage Pro2 Plus™ weather stations were used for testing with resolution 0.1 m/s and 22.5 deg. Measurements were taken on December 18, 2012 under rainy conditions, which justified the premise of negligible convective effects and the use of isothermal condition during modeling. Four sensor locations were chosen at random (Fig. 9) and data were collected for a period of two hours, starting at 1pm. The sampling frequency was 2 sec for wind speed and 1 sec for wind direction, while data were recorded every 10 sec. A moving average time series was computed with a short averaging window of 60 sec. The objective is to capture short-term variations in atmospheric boundary conditions and minimize the effect of seasonal variations on flow.



494

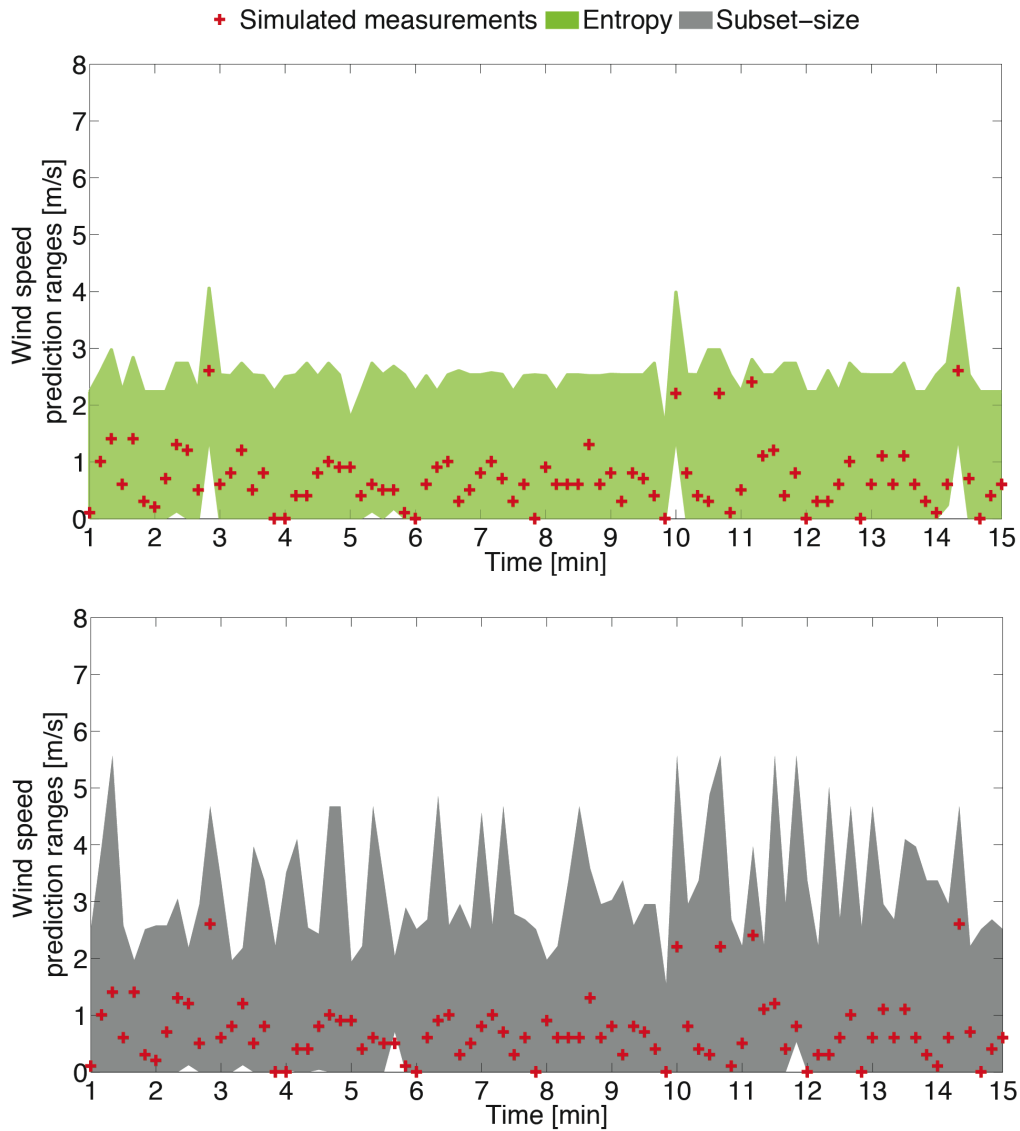
495 Fig. 9. On-site measurement locations (left) and the same locations in the simulation
 496 environment (right).

497 A sample set of simulated measurements of 2 hours is generated (as described in Section 2.3)
 498 at the potential sensor locations. In order to create realistic data, the probability distribution
 499 of the simulated measurements is updated according to the distribution of the measured data
 500 at the same locations.

501 Model falsification is performed independently for each time step of the simulated
 502 measurements, using the optimal configurations identified by the forward-max algorithm
 503 with the two placement criteria. The resulting candidate model sets are used to obtain ranges
 504 of wind speed predictions at a 4th unseen location. Each candidate model set represents a set
 505 of boundary conditions and wind-speed prediction ranges at that instant of time.

506 Fig. 10 presents a comparison of the wind-speed prediction ranges obtained using the
 507 entropy-based configuration and the subset-size-based configuration of four sensors with the
 508 forward-max placement algorithm. Although a short duration of 15 minutes is displayed, the
 509 results of the entire 2-hour prediction period are determined. There is a slight difference in
 510 the performance of the two placement criteria: the average size of the candidate model set for
 511 a 2-hour prediction period drops by 86% using the entropy criterion and by 88% using the
 512 subset-size criterion (from the initial model set of 1024). Remarkably, 95% of the simulated

513 measurements are within the prediction range using either criterion. However, estimated
514 prediction ranges show differences. On average, the prediction range is reduced to 2.4 m/s
515 using the entropy-based configuration and to 3.2 m/s using the subset-size-based
516 configuration. This difference in the performance of the two criteria is in agreement with the
517 results in Fig. 7.

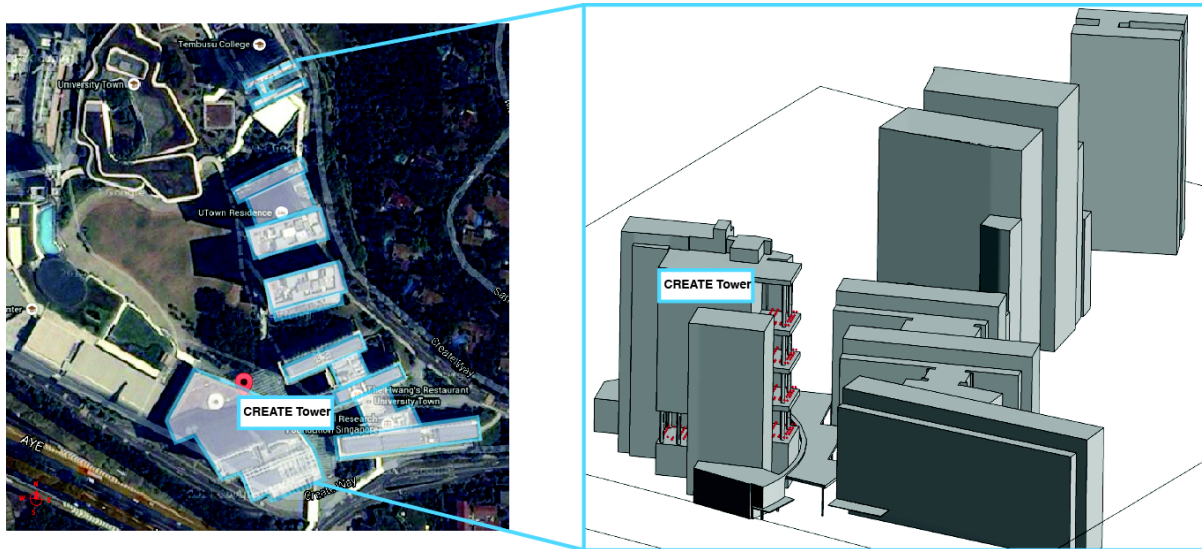


518

519 Fig. 10. Comparison of the wind-speed prediction ranges at an unseen location near
520 BubbleZERO, using the entropy-based (top) and subset-size-based (bottom) sensor
521 configuration of three sensors provided by the forward-max algorithm; a short duration of 15
522 min is displayed from a 2-hr measurement period.

523 3.2. CASE STUDY 2: CREATE TOWER

524 The optimal sensor placement methodology was tested on a larger case study in order to
525 demonstrate its applicability. The study involved the CREATE Tower, a 60 meter high office
526 building on NUS campus in Singapore (Fig. 11).



527

528 Fig. 11. (Left) Location of CREATE Tower and surrounding buildings considered in
529 modeling and (right) their 3D views in the simulation environment.

530 The same procedure with Case study 1 is followed and geometric simplifications and
531 assumptions are made during the numerical analysis. Steady-RANS analysis is employed
532 using the realizable $k-\epsilon$ equations and the standard wall-functions. In total, 9 initial
533 parameters are identified related to the geometry, the discretization and the boundary
534 conditions. These are related to the discretization method, the geometry of the boundary
535 domain, surface roughness, wind speed and horizontal direction at the inlet boundary; the
536 parameters are set similar to Section 3.1.1.

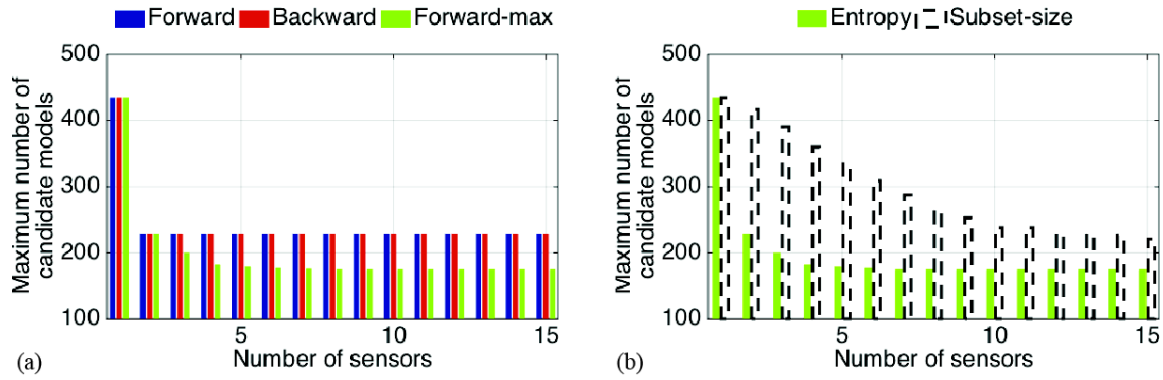
537 Sensitivity analysis is performed and three parameters are identified to have the highest
538 Spearman's correlation coefficient: wind speed, horizontal direction and surface roughness of
539 buildings (with coefficients 0.4, 0.3 and 0.1, respectively).

540 Multiple CFD simulations are performed, using ANSYS FLUENT, varying values of these
541 parameters within the plausible ranges [0 8.7] m/s, [1 360] deg, [8E-3 0.2] m, defined by
542 engineering judgment and available literature (Franke 2007; Tominaga, et al. 2008). The
543 reduced set of parameters allows simple grid sampling and in total 768 CFD simulations are
544 performed. A discrete population of wind speed predictions is obtained at 187 possible sensor
545 locations, which are fixed uniformly at 1.5 m height near the balconies (east and west) and
546 the north terrace of CREATE Tower (Fig. 11, right). This initial model set was used to
547 evaluate the sensor placement algorithms and criteria and to verify that results are in
548 agreement with Sections 3.1.2 and 3.1.3.

549 Fig. 12 (a) shows a comparison of the three sensor placement algorithms using entropy as the
550 selection criterion. After placing the second sensor, the forward-max algorithm consistently
551 estimates lower values for the maximum number of candidate models than the forward and
552 backward algorithms, which provide the same results. This difference levels off after the 6th
553 sensor is selected, and is retained to around 50 candidate models.

554 In Fig. 12 (b), the entropy criterion is compared against the subset-size criterion for its ability
555 to falsify candidate models, using the forward-max sensor placement algorithm. Results are
556 similar with the BubbleZERO case study (Fig. 7), since sensor locations selected using the
557 subset-size criterion estimate a maximum number of candidate models that is consistently
558 higher than using the entropy criterion. Although the maximum difference levels off with the
559 number of sensors, it is more than 100 candidate models for configurations involving less
560 than 7 sensors.

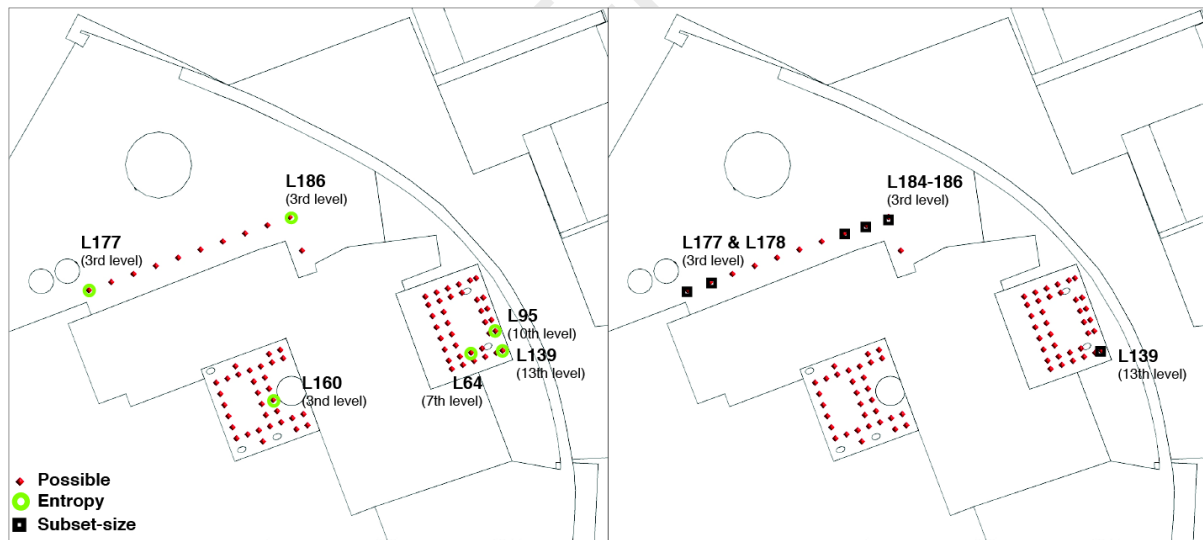
561



562

563 Fig. 12 Comparison of (a) the three sensor placement algorithms using the entropy criterion
 564 and (b) the two placement criteria using the forward-max algorithm, for wind-speed
 565 predictions; only the first 15 optimal sensor locations are displayed.

566 Fig. 13 shows the optimal locations of six sensors, using the forward-max algorithm with the
 567 entropy (left) and the subset-size (right) placement criteria for predicting wind speed. Similar
 568 with the Case study 1 (Fig. 8), the two criteria construct different optimal configurations.



569

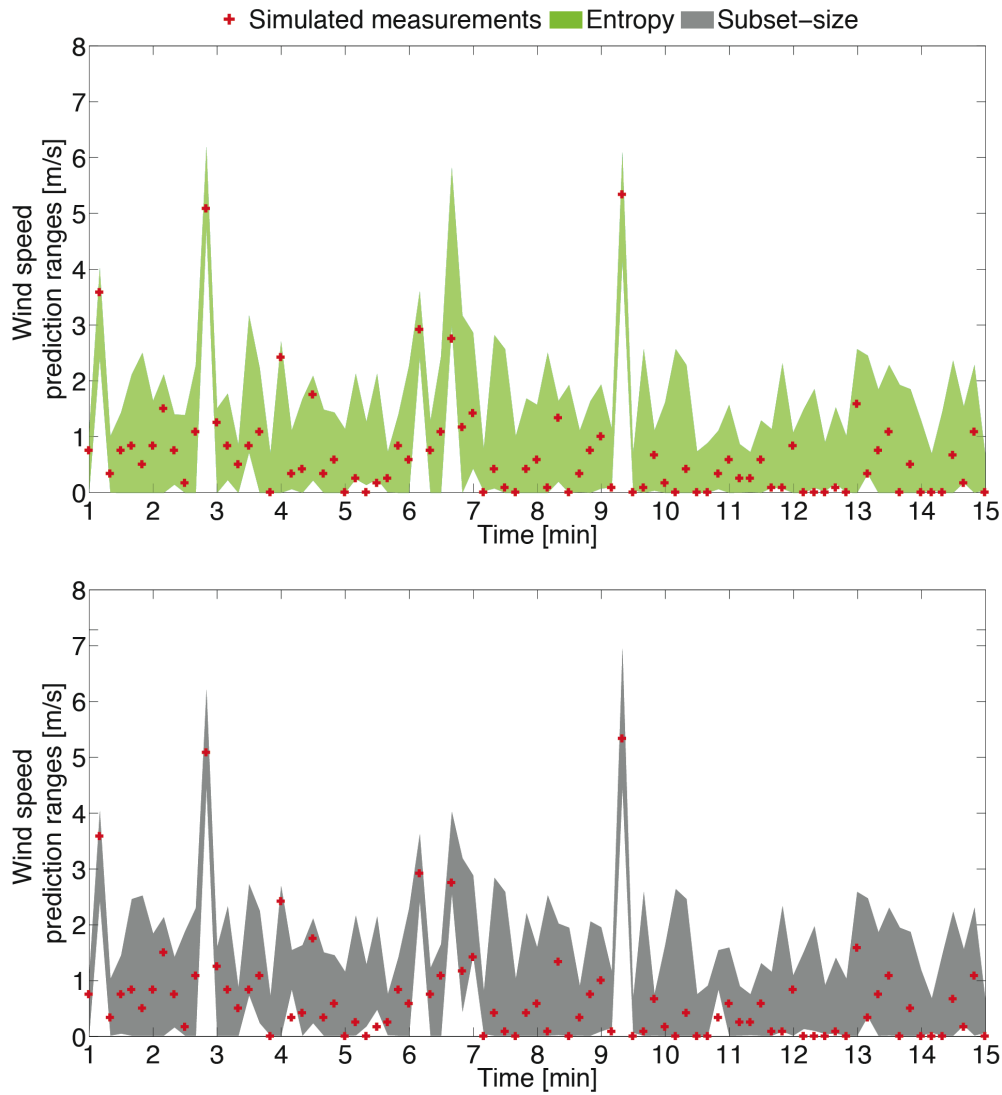
570 Fig. 13. Optimal sensor locations of the first six sensors for predicting wind-speed near
 571 CREATE Tower, obtained using the forward-max sensor placement with the entropy (left)
 572 and the subset-size (right) placement criteria.

573 Although, the above results are similar to those from the small case study (Fig. 6 and Fig. 7),
574 the minimum number of sensors selected is increased from four to six, while the differences
575 in the performance of the algorithms and placement criteria is reduced. These differences are
576 attributed to the effects associated with the size of the case study. The distances between
577 possible sensor locations are large (4 m) compared with the BubbleZERO study (Section 0)
578 and this means that the area covered by the sensors is different. Such differences create
579 varying sensitivities to the selection criteria.

580 As was done in Section 3.1.3, the optimal sensor configurations are evaluated using a realistic
581 sample distribution of simulated measurements generated based on historical measurements
582 taken at other locations. A total of 2 hours of simulated measurements are used to falsify
583 model instances. A set of candidate models is obtained at each time step and used to update
584 wind-speed predictions at an unmeasured (unseen) location.

585 Fig. 14 presents a comparison of the ranges of wind-speed predictions obtained at the
586 unmeasured location using entropy-based and subset-size based configurations of six sensors,
587 provided by the forward-max algorithm. Similar results are obtained using either criterion,
588 consistent with the results in Fig. 12 (b) and Fig. 13. The average size of the candidate model
589 set for a 2-hour prediction period drops by 99% (from the initial model set of 768 instances)
590 and the prediction range reduces to almost 1.7 m/s. On average, 67% of the simulated
591 measurements are within the prediction range, which indicates that the accuracy has not been
592 significantly affected by the reduction in the size of candidate model set. Furthermore, it is
593 seen that simulated measurements that lie outside the prediction range are quite close to the
594 boundary (Fig. 14).

595



596

597 Fig. 14. Comparison of the wind-speed prediction ranges at an unseen location near CREATE
 598 Tower, using the entropy-based (top) and subset-size-based (bottom) sensor configuration of
 599 three sensors provided by the forward-max algorithm; a short duration of 15 min is displayed
 600 from a 2-hr measurement period.

601 Applying the methodology to a second case study with significant differences in size
 602 confirmed that the candidate models identified using an entropy-based configuration with a
 603 forward-max placement algorithm can be used most effectively to make predictions at
 604 locations where no measured data are available. Overall, it was demonstrated that the
 605 methodology could be employed to identify optimal sensor configurations that improve the

606 accuracy of wind-speed predictions and are able to capture the variability of atmospheric
607 boundary conditions.

608 **4. DISCUSSION**

609 Optimal sensor configurations were identified using three sensor placement algorithms and
610 two criteria and were compared according to their ability to accurately predict short-term
611 wind speed variation around buildings. Although the sensor placement strategies evaluated in
612 this paper are similar to (Goulet and Smith 2012; Papadimitriou 2004; Robert-Nicoud, et al.
613 2005b), they also have important differences as follows:

- 614 • In (Goulet and Smith 2012) a backward strategy has been proposed using a similar
615 placement criterion to the subset-size criterion included in this work. However,
616 Goulet and Smith generated simulated measurements from random values of model
617 predictions and used them to select sensor locations.
- 618 • The performance of forward and backward sensor placements was compared in
619 (Papadimitriou 2004) with entropy as a placement criterion. However, Bayesian
620 statistical methodology was employed to identify optimal configurations.
- 621 • The forward-max algorithm was inspired from (Robert-Nicoud, et al. 2005b) who
622 combined it with the entropy criterion. However, Robert-Nicoud et al. did not
623 explicitly use the subset-size criterion to guide the search for optimal sensor locations.

624 None of the above studies presented a comparison of the performance of the three algorithms
625 and two criteria for improving the accuracy of predictions using a multiple-model
626 falsification approach. Moreover the above studies concentrated on the identification of
627 structural systems; sensor placement strategies have never been evaluated for time-dependent
628 systems such as wind studies around buildings.

629 CFD-simulation predictions were employed during the optimal sensor placement and thus the
630 number of assumptions during the application of CFD affected the results. Sensitivity
631 analysis was employed to deal with this issue, since current computational means imposed a
632 constraint on the number of parameters and variables that could be studied. Furthermore,
633 isothermal conditions were assumed during modeling, which are justified, since
634 measurements were taken during rainy conditions to minimize effects of convection on wind
635 flow.

636 An important contribution of this work is that the effects of modeling error are explicitly
637 incorporated in the optimal sensor placement methodology. Evaluation of the approach using
638 measurements from a full-scale case study is another significant contribution.

639 A limitation of this work is that systematic errors as well as spatial correlations between
640 errors are not considered. In this work modeling errors are also assumed to be constant. It is
641 known that modeling errors associated with wind speed and direction may vary from location
642 to location. This is due to the RANS-based modeling used in this work, which employs time-
643 averaged equations of flow motion. Ongoing research in our group is studying the effects of
644 modeling errors in terms of horizontal wind direction, input values of boundary conditions
645 and sensor locations. Including such aspects is expected to increase further the accuracy of
646 wind predictions. Future investigations will incorporate systematic modeling errors and
647 spatial correlations in the sensor placement methodology to allow the examination of wind
648 direction predictions at unmeasured locations.

649

650 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

651 A multiple-model system identification approach has been successfully employed to optimize
652 sensor configurations that improve the accuracy of predictions of time-dependent systems,
653 such as wind-flow around buildings. Specific conclusions are as follows:

- 654 1. Sensor placement based on an incrementally updated forward-max algorithm is better
655 than forward and backward algorithms for falsifying model instances of wind speed.
- 656 2. Information entropy is a better sensor placement criterion than the subset size for
657 falsifying model instances of wind speed; the degree of reduction in model instances
658 depends on the number of sensors used for identification and the size of the case
659 study.
- 660 3. Although information entropy provides a similar reduction in prediction ranges than
661 the subset-size criterion, it can provide better identification of wind speed depending
662 on the size of the case study.
- 663 4. Sensor locations that have been configured using entropy with an incrementally
664 updated forward-max algorithm can improve predictions of wind speed at
665 unmeasured locations while capturing time-variability.

666 **6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

667 This research has been conducted at the Singapore-ETH Centre for Global Environmental
668 Sustainability (SEC), co-funded by the Singapore National Research Foundation (NRF) and
669 ETH Zurich. The authors would like to gratefully acknowledge the support of Prof. M.
670 Santamouris, Dr. J-A. Goulet and D.G. Vernay.

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