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# 1 A critical evaluation of the dynamic nature of indoor-outdoor air quality ratios

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7

## 8 Abstract

9 Long term, continuous indoor and outdoor pollutant monitoring was evaluated from a case study  
10 hospital, school, office and 18 apartments in the UK. Data was examined in order to explore the  
11 dynamic behaviour of indoor-outdoor ratios (I/O) for both particulate matter and nitrogen dioxide.  
12 Traditionally I/O ratios have been determined as single aggregate values or static parameters, from  
13 passive sampling or short periods of continuous monitoring. Whilst widely reported, I/O ratios are  
14 seen as too variable to be of wider use. However, this work reveals the dynamic nature of I/O ratios,  
15 with strong diurnal and seasonal variation observed for both particulate matter and nitrogen  
16 dioxide. Higher I/O ratios tended to be seen during core or occupied hours, associated with  
17 increased human activity and higher ventilation rates. This means that static I/O ratios determined  
18 by passive sampling techniques, rather than continuous measurements filtered to core hours, may  
19 underestimate I/O ratios associated with occupant exposure. Further, the I/O ratio is shown to be  
20 strongly influenced by occupant activity and window opening behaviour. As such, it may represent a  
21 personal variable as much as one associated with a building. It is argued that traditionally reported  
22 static I/O ratios simplify these dynamic behaviour and modes of operation into a single aggregate  
23 value, losing key information in the process. Further, without contextual information on the  
24 operation and use of a building during measurements a reported I/O ratio may be hard to interpret  
25 or compare to wider studies. Finally, it is argued that the I/O ratio, whilst a limited metric, when  
26 evaluated dynamically provides a useful building operation parameter, describing the relationship  
27 the building has with the outdoor environment. This can help better define ventilation strategies,  
28 schedules, the influence of occupant behaviour and significance of indoor sources.

29

## 30 1. Introduction

31 Although the most important environmental predictor driving health effects is considered to be  
32 individual-level exposure, most epidemiological studies concerning air pollution utilise outdoor  
33 concentrations at the nearest central monitoring station or modelled ambient concentrations often  
34 at postcode level (Hoek et al., 2013). Models for chronic health impacts and mortality tend to use  
35 outdoor annual mean concentrations (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Pedersen et al., 2013), without  
36 accounting for any diurnal /seasonal variations or modifying effects of building envelopes on indoor  
37 exposure. However, people spend most of their time indoors and within indoor microenvironments.

38 The use of outdoor concentrations as proxies of exposure therefore implicitly assumes the  
39 attenuation of ambient concentrations by buildings is the same for all participants (Cohen et al.,  
40 2009), with exposure estimates that do not take into account time activity patterns, indoor  
41 generated pollutants or factors influencing infiltration of pollutants indoors. Evidence from the built  
42 environment indicates that building characteristics, ventilation, penetration efficiency and indoor  
43 activities have a significant impact on indoor concentrations (Blondeau et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2019;  
44 Majd et al., 2019; Stranger et al., 2008; Wichmann et al., 2010).The influence of building

45 characteristics has even been picked up within population health studies, for example, PM<sub>10</sub>  
 46 associated hospital admissions were lower in US cities with higher proportions of air conditioning  
 47 (Janssen et al., 2002).

48 The modifying impact building envelopes have on outdoor concentrations penetrating in the indoor  
 49 environment has not been adequately addressed in many health studies and therefore remains a  
 50 potential source of exposure error and a cause of the large bandwidth seen in mortality estimates (Ji  
 51 and Zhao, 2015; Sarnat et al., 2007).

52 In light of these concerns, some epidemiological studies and large scale building stock models have  
 53 instead attempted to incorporate metrics to quantify the modifying effect of a building upon  
 54 outdoor concentrations (Chen et al., 2012; Ji and Zhao, 2015; Taylor et al., 2019). To this purpose, an  
 55 infiltration factor ( $F_{inf}$ ), the fraction of outdoor pollutants remaining airborne after penetrating  
 56 indoors, may be used. Under assumptions of ideal and instantaneous mixing, uniform air exchange  
 57 rates and approximated steady state (i.e. analysed over a minimum of 24hours), indoor  
 58 concentrations can be described by a first-order differential equation with the analytical solution:  
 59 (Wallace and Williams, 2005):

$$60 \quad C_{in} = F_{inf}C_{out} + \frac{S}{V \cdot (a+k)} \quad 1$$

61 Where the infiltration factor can further be defined as:

$$62 \quad F_{inf} = \left( \frac{P \cdot a}{(a+k)} \right) \quad 2$$

63 Here,  $C_{in}$  and  $C_{out}$  are the indoor and outdoor mass concentration ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $P$  is the penetration factor  
 64 across the building envelope,  $a$  is the air exchange rate ( $\text{h}^{-1}$ ),  $k$  is the total decay rate of particles ( $\text{h}^{-1}$ )  
 65 that depends on the aerodynamic diameter,  $S$  is the source strength ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{h}^{-1}$ ) and  $V$  is the volume of  
 66 the building ( $\text{m}^3$ ).

67 Estimates of  $F_{inf}$  can be generated through a variety of methods. Modelling studies may base estimates  
 68 of  $P$ ,  $a$  and  $k$  upon previous literature (e.g. Chen et al., 2012; Fabian et al., 2012; Fazli et al., 2021; Li  
 69 and Friedrich, 2019), sometimes supported by building surveys and questionnaires, in order to  
 70 determine the likely relationship between indoor and outdoor concentrations (Cohen et al., 2009).  
 71 Alternatively,  $F_{inf}$  may be based upon direct measurements of pollutants with no internal sources (e.g.  
 72 particulate sulfate (Wilson et al., 2000)), via linear regression or a range of dynamic solutions to the  
 73 mass balance equation (Diapouli et al., 2013a; Wang et al., 2016). However, in reviewing these  
 74 techniques Diapouli et al (2013) note the determination of  $P$  and  $k$  remains challenging, with reported  
 75 values within the literature varying significantly. Similarly, approaches must consider how to  
 76 accurately filter out or account for internally generated contributions across analytical periods. Finally,  
 77 the air exchange rate,  $a$ , is considered a critical exposure factor that may potentially modify health  
 78 effect estimates reported in epidemiological studies (Long and Sarnat, 2004). However, studies show  
 79 significant variation in air exchange rates, both in time and between buildings, countries and  
 80 occupants (Dimitroulopoulou, 2012; Dimitroulopoulou and Bartzis, 2014; Øie et al., 1998). Further,  
 81 measurements of representative air exchange rates are subject to significant uncertainties,  
 82 particularly regarding occupancy, multizonal airflows, sensor accuracies, temporal variations and  
 83 analytical methods (Batterman, 2017; Johnston and Stafford, 2016; Kabirikopaei and Lau, 2020). As a  
 84 result of these challenges, the determination of more accurate and relevant methods of determining  
 85 the relationship between indoor and outdoor air is thought to be a key future task in air pollution  
 86 exposure assessment (Sarnat et al., 2007).

87 An alternative, simpler metric is to define the ratio of indoor pollutant concentrations in relation to  
 88 outdoor concentrations. This indoor-outdoor (I/O) ratio allows a more direct field measurement and  
 89 avoids uncertainties in determining individual parameters in equation 2. The I/O ratio has been  
 90 measured for particulate matter and nitrogen dioxide since the 1980s (Monn et al., 1997) and can be  
 91 defined by:

$$92 \quad I/O = \frac{C_{in}}{C_{out}} \quad 3$$

93 Or, importantly when utilising continuous, real-time measurements:

$$94 \quad I/O_{i,j} = \frac{\sum_i^j C_{in}}{\sum_i^j C_{out}} = \frac{\sum_i^j C_{in}/n}{\sum_i^j C_{out}/n} \quad 4$$

95 Where  $i$  and  $j$  are the beginning and end of an analytical period and  $n$  is the number of measurements  
 96 over that period. More fully, combining equation 4 and equation 1:

$$97 \quad I/O = \frac{C_{in}}{C_{out}} = \left( \frac{P \cdot a}{(a+k)} \right) + \frac{S}{V \cdot (a+k) C_{out}} \quad 5$$

98 As can be seen in equation 5, the I/O ratio is a function of a building's penetration factor (of each  
 99 specific pollutant), air change rate, loss rate due to chemical sinks or deposition and the presence of  
 100 any indoor sources. It can also be considered that in the absence of indoor sources ( $S = 0$ ) the indoor-  
 101 outdoor ratio can be considered equivalent to the infiltration factor ( $I/O = F_{inf}$ ).

102 The I/O metric therefore not only describes the building as a pollutant modifier but also incorporates  
 103 the operation of and activity within a building, including indoor sources. Estimates of I/O ratios have  
 104 been established for a range of pollutants, buildings and countries, with significant review articles  
 105 covering studies on nitrogen dioxide (Hu and Zhao, 2020; Kalimeri et al., 2019; Salonen et al., 2019),  
 106 particulate matter (Chen and Zhao, 2011; Kalimeri et al., 2019) and ozone (Kalimeri et al., 2019;  
 107 Weschler, 2000). Importantly, significant ranges in I/O estimates exist both across study samples,  
 108 between studies and within buildings across time (Wallace and Williams, 2005). This latter point is  
 109 important, with further studies indicating seasonal and shorter-term temporal variations in I/O  
 110 ratios measured within a single building or zone (Allen Ryan W. et al., 2012; Cyrus et al., 2004).

111 The focus and scope of this paper is restricted to understanding I/O ratios within the context of  
 112 human health and buildings designed and operated for occupied spaces. As such, some conclusions  
 113 will not apply to other areas where I/O ratios have also been adopted, such as in cultural heritage  
 114 where they are used to detail relationships between outdoor and various indoor environments, such  
 115 as showcases and closed depositories (e.g. Grau-Bové and Strlič, 2013; Lazaridis et al., 2015).

### 116 *1.1 Measuring the I/O ratio*

117 Importantly, the definition of any measured I/O ratio is then further formed by the nature of the  
 118 measurement itself. Many of the largest studies of indoor air quality have at least partly used some  
 119 form of diffusive sampling over 5 to 14 day periods (e.g. Allen Ryan W. et al., 2012; Mandin et al.,  
 120 2017; Schneider et al., 2001; Shaw et al., 2020; SINPHONIE, 2014). Some of these data sets have then  
 121 been used to determine distributions of I/O ratios for different building types (Kalimeri et al., 2019).  
 122 However, fundamentally this means the measured I/O incorporates significant unoccupied periods  
 123 during which activities and building operation and indoor sources ( $S$ ) are likely to significantly differ.  
 124 For example, a 5-day passive measurement would typically represent just a third of core occupied  
 125 school hours (e.g. 8am – 4pm) and two-thirds unoccupied periods. Similarly, out-of-hours sampling of

126 internal VOCs has been found to either over or under-estimate concentrations, depending on the  
127 pollutant species (WHO Europe, 2020).

128 This bias in sampling period is further compounded by the non-static nature of buildings. Air exchange  
129 rates in both mechanically and naturally ventilated buildings are likely to increase during occupied  
130 hours, meaning these periods may experience a higher ingress of outdoor air pollution to the indoor  
131 environment than during unoccupied periods. More specifically, this can be considered an increase in  
132 the  $F_{inf}$  component, as a result of the higher air exchange rate across occupied periods. Even in a  
133 24hour operation, sealed envelope hospital, demand-controlled ventilation has been found to result  
134 in higher I/O ratios for nitrogen dioxide across the core daytime hours (Stamp et al., 2020). The result  
135 is that any aggregated passive measurement is likely to underestimate the I/O experienced across this  
136 period. The potential bias in sampling period may be given further significance by the fact that the  
137 daytime periods with the highest I/O ratio may also coincide with the highest, traffic-related, outdoor  
138 concentrations.

139 Shorter-term aggregate sampling, taking place over a few hours or days and eliciting a single measured  
140 concentration for this time period, can avoid this out-of-hours sampling period bias (e.g. (Viana et al.,  
141 2014). However, even with measurements across multiple seasons (e.g. Li and Lin, 2003), these may  
142 only represent small snap-shots of a complex and highly variable parameter.

143 The alternative is to use continuous or real-time measurements (e.g. laser scattering, optical particle  
144 counters, electrochemical sensors). This approach allows careful filtering and selection of appropriate  
145 analysis periods. Until recently, with large, expensive and impractical equipment, continuous  
146 measurements have often been limited to periods of a few days to weeks (e.g. (Branco et al., 2014;  
147 Huang et al., 2015; Jones et al., 2000). However, improvements in sensing technologies can enable  
148 more affordable measurements at improved accuracies, in multiple locations, allowing I/O ratios to  
149 be assessed and examined at high resolutions across significantly longer periods (Chatzidiakou et al.,  
150 2019).

## 151 *1.2 Aims*

152 In summary, I/O ratios have been measured across numerous studies since the 1980s and continue to  
153 be widely reported for a range of pollutants in many IAQ studies. Whilst the I/O ratio has been directly  
154 used in a few health studies (Borrego et al., 2006; Setton et al., 2008), more commonly building  
155 modifiers are omitted or else infiltration factors preferred (Fazli et al., 2021). Therefore, whilst I/O  
156 ratios remain widely measured and reported, the large variation in measured values and range of  
157 influencing factors mean that they are unlikely to be useful to epidemiologists (Poupard et al., 2005).

158 This paper aims to use several long-term, continuous data sets from a range of UK building types to  
159 evaluate the variation seen in I/O ratios under greater detail. This includes variation due to diurnal  
160 and seasonal effects, measurement methods, building operation modes, occupant behaviour and  
161 measurement uncertainties. The aim of these investigations is to understand the dynamic nature of  
162 I/O ratios and the influential factors behind this variation. From this, a critique of the validity and  
163 relevance of I/O ratios can be made, particularly when they are evaluated as a static metric.

164 A further hypothesis is that the information held within a dynamically assessed I/O ratio might prove  
165 more insightful as a building operation parameter. Whilst individual, static I/O ratios may prove useful  
166 within a larger population of results, a dynamic I/O may indicate, on an individual building basis, how  
167 the influence of outdoor air, ventilation practices and indoor sources of pollutants impact indoor air  
168 quality – particularly when longer data sets can be acquired. Subsequently this may lead to improved  
169 evidence on how building design and operation might mitigate these effects.

170 **2. Research Methods**

171 Data from long-term, simultaneous outdoor and indoor air quality measurements has been re-  
 172 analysed focusing on determining I/O ratios from continuous monitoring. This includes measurements  
 173 from a hospital, a school, an office and in 18 low-energy apartments over a 6 - 12 month period.  
 174 Further details of the case study buildings and monitoring campaigns can be found in previous  
 175 publications (Cooper et al., 2021; Stamp et al., 2020). A summary of the case studies can be found in  
 176 Table 1.

177 *Table 1: Details of monitoring campaigns used in analysis.*

Case Study	Monitored Locations	Monitored Duration	Ventilation strategy	Year of Completion	Air Permeability	Location
Hospital	1 (3 sampled indoor zones)	8 Months (Jan – Aug)	Mechanical Ventilation, fully sealed (F9 filters)	2015	$< 5 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{h}^{-1} / \text{m}^2$ at 50 Pa	City Centre, UK
School	1 (3 sampled indoor zones)	6 Months (Jan-June)	Mechanical ventilation, openable windows (F7 filters)	2014	$< 5 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{h}^{-1} / \text{m}^2$ at 50 Pa	South London, UK
Office	1 (3 sampled indoor zones)	8 Months (Jan – Aug)	Naturally ventilated	2014	$4.7 \text{ m}^3 / \text{h}$ per $\text{m}^2$ at 50 Pa	Town-Centre, UK
Apartments (Site A)	11 (1 zone – living room)	Between 6 – 12 Months (June – May)	Background MVHR (G3 filters), openable windows	2015	$2\text{--}3 \text{ m}^3 / (\text{h} \cdot \text{m}^2)$ at 50Pa	East London, UK
Apartments (Site B)	7 (1 zone – living room)	Between 6 – 12 Months (June – May)	natural ventilation and trickle-ventilators	2007	$< 5 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{h}^{-1} / \text{m}^2$ at 50 Pa	East London, UK

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179 The analysis of I/O ratio focuses on measurements of particulate matter ( $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$ ) and nitrogen  
 180 dioxide ( $\text{NO}_2$ ). Complimentary measurements of carbon dioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ , as a proxy for ventilation rates)  
 181 and TVOCs (as a proxy for internally generated pollutants) have been made simultaneously in all  
 182 locations, alongside temperature, humidity and locally installed weather stations. Within the case  
 183 study apartments, window-opening and occupant presence have additionally been monitored  
 184 directly, allowing more explicit evaluation of occupant behaviours on I/O ratios. Details of the  
 185 monitoring equipment is given in Table 2. Sensors have been co-located and evaluated against  
 186 reference instruments, with appropriate linear corrections applied to improve accuracy or precision  
 187 between the deployed sensors. Specific details can be found in the supplementary material of Stamp  
 188 et al., (Stamp et al., 2020), with Chatzidiakou et al., (2019) providing a broader look this process and  
 189 a more detailed evaluation of sensor performance. Particulate matter data has additionally been  
 190 filtered to avoid bias at high humidity ( $>88\%$ ), because exposure of the particles to relative humidity  
 191 (RH) results in hygroscopic growth of particles and leads to mass overestimation (Crilley et al., 2018).  
 192 The optical particle counters limited ability to capture particles at the lower end of particle sizes (range  
 193  $0.38 = 17 \mu\text{m}$ ) may also impact the results of the study. For example, parts of the urban aerosol fine  
 194 mode fraction ( $0.2 - 0.3 \mu\text{m}$ ) may not be sufficiently observed. This may further limit the equivalence  
 195 of I/O ratios (see section 4.6 for further discussion).



196 Measurements were aggregated to hourly intervals to estimate I/O ratios to reduce noise and reduce  
 197 the effect of lags between indoor and outdoor concentrations. All analysis was performed in R  
 198 software (R Core Team, 2021).

199 *Table 2: Details of monitoring equipment used in case study buildings.*

Parameter	Sensor	Range	Resolution	Accuracy
Temperature	Thermistor	-30.0 to 65.0°C	0.1°C	±0.2°C at 20°C ±0.4°C for -5 to 40°C ±1.0°C for -20 to 65°C
Relative Humidity	Capacitive	0.0 to 100.0%	0.10%	±2% RH (0 to 90% RH) ±4% RH (0 to 100% RH)
CO <sub>2</sub>	Non-dispersive infra red (E+E Elektronik)	0-5000ppm	1ppm	<±50ppm, +3%
Particulate Matter (PM <sub>2.5</sub> & PM <sub>10</sub> )	Optical Particle Counter (Alphasense OPC-N2) Size segregated particles in the range (0.38 to 17 µm)	0 to 500 µg/m <sup>3</sup>	0.01 µg/m <sup>3</sup>	-
Airflow	-	0.00 to 500 ml/s	0.01 ml/s	-
Nitrogen Dioxide (NO <sub>2</sub> )	Electrochemical (Alphasense NO2-A43F)	0.00 to 3.00 ppm	0.1 ppb	-
Total Volatile Organic Compounds (TVOCs)	Photoionization detector (Alphasense PID-AH2)	0.00 to 50.00 ppm	10ppb	-
Occupancy	Passive Infrared Sensors (PIR) (HOBO UX90-05)	0-1 (Unoccupied – Occupied)	-	-
Window Status	Reed Contact Switches (Eltek GS34)	0-1 (Open – Closed)	-	-

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### 202 3. Results

203 Results from re-analysed I/O ratios are explored within this section. This includes diurnal variations  
 204 (section 3.1), seasonal variations (3.2), differences associated with passive and continuous  
 205 measurement methods (3.3), variations between apartments (3.4) and variations with occupant  
 206 behaviour (3.5).

#### 207 3.1 Diurnal Variations in I/O ratios

208 The diurnal behaviour of I/O ratios can be seen for the monitored hospital, school, office and 18  
 209 apartments in Figure 1.

210 In the mechanically ventilated hospital and hybrid school, the I/O ratio for nitrogen dioxide is seen to  
 211 increase by a factor of two during core operation hours. Both buildings adopted CO<sub>2</sub> based demand-  
 212 controlled ventilation strategies, that would increase ventilation rates during core hours to maintain  
 213 low indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. However, by increasing the air change rate to maintain low indoor CO<sub>2</sub>  
 214 concentrations, there was an unintended ingress of NO<sub>2</sub> from the outside air.

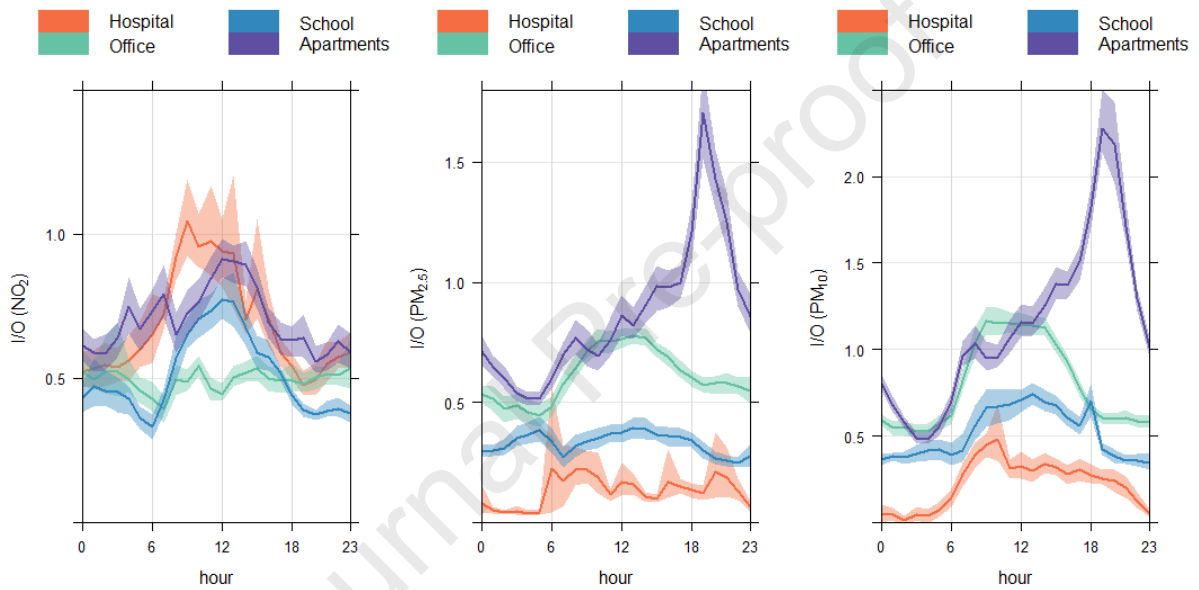
215 For particulate matter, within the fully mechanical hospital (F9 filters) and hybrid school (F7 filters),  
 216 the impact of filtration is clear, with low I/O ratios for both PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>. However, within all non-  
 217 domestic buildings, the I/O ratio of particulate matter is again seen to increase across core hours.  
 218 Again, this may be associated with increased ingress from outdoors, but, given particle filtration in



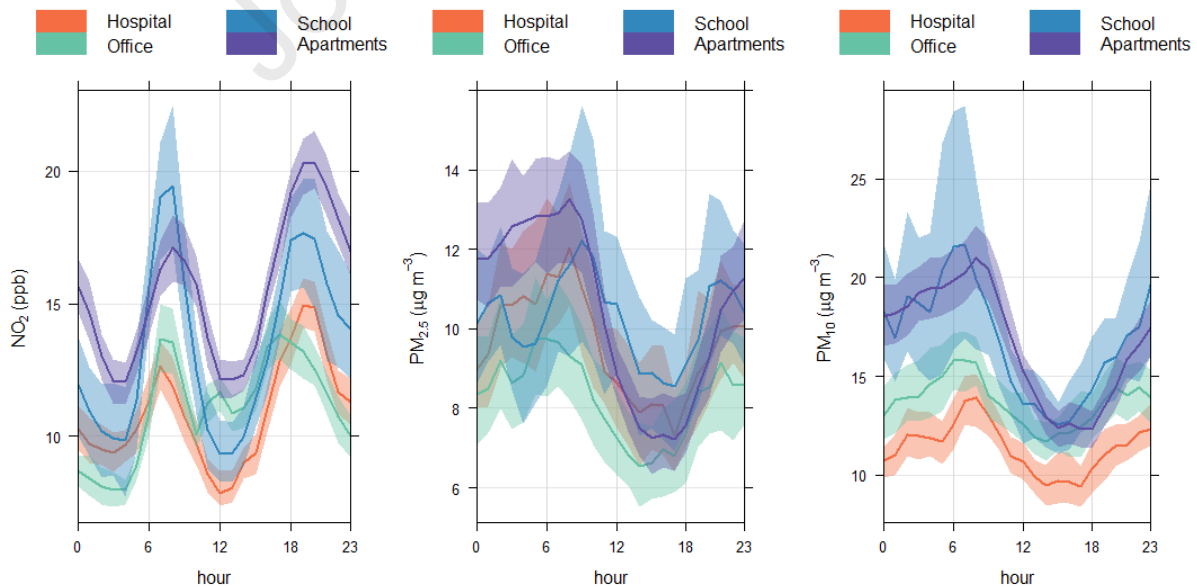
219 mechanically ventilated buildings, the more significant contribution to this is likely to be indoor  
 220 generated and re-suspended particles during the occupied periods, particularly for  $PM_{10}$ .

221 With more varied occupancy schedules, apartments show altogether different diurnal patterns. The  
 222 I/O ratio for  $NO_2$  again peaks during the middle of the day, but peaks in particulate matter occur during  
 223 the evening, associated with increased occupant activity. A strong peak is seen around 19:00-20:00,  
 224 with I/O ratios reaching above 1.5 for  $PM_{2.5}$  and above 2 for  $PM_{10}$ . These indicate the strong influence  
 225 of internal sources, e.g. cooking, across these periods.

226 Such diurnal variations are seen in other studies, with indoor concentrations and I/O ratios varying  
 227 significantly across the day (Challoner and Gill, 2014; Jones et al., 2000), and between weekdays and  
 228 weekends (Branco et al., 2014) or peaking during core hours in schools (Branco et al., 2019) and  
 229 hospitals (Cyrys et al., 2004).



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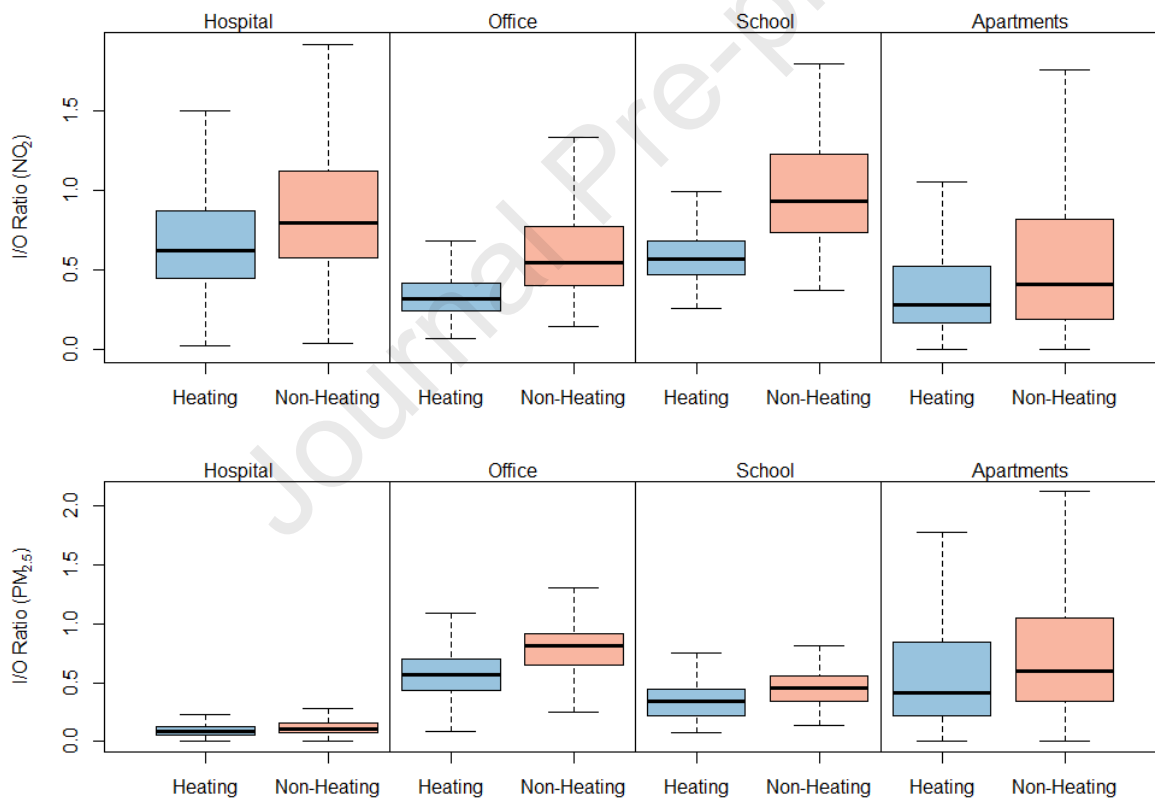
232 *Figure 1: Top row - Aggregated or 'typical' I/O ratios for  $NO_2$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $PM_{10}$ . Evaluated over 6-9 month periods in a school,*  
 233 *hospital, office (3 internal zones in each -Mon-Fri only) and 18 apartments (living rooms). Bottom row – corresponding*  
 234 *outdoor concentrations for each site and pollutant.*

## 235 3.2 Seasonal variations in I/O ratios

236 Figure 2 shows the I/O ratios for  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  in the heating (Oct-Mar) and non-heating  
 237 seasons (Apr-Sep). Increases in the I/O across the non-heating season can be observed in all cases  
 238 for  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . Such differences are not seen for  $\text{PM}_{10}$ , where potentially higher indoor  
 239 contributions and the impact of re-suspension may negate any seasonal effect.

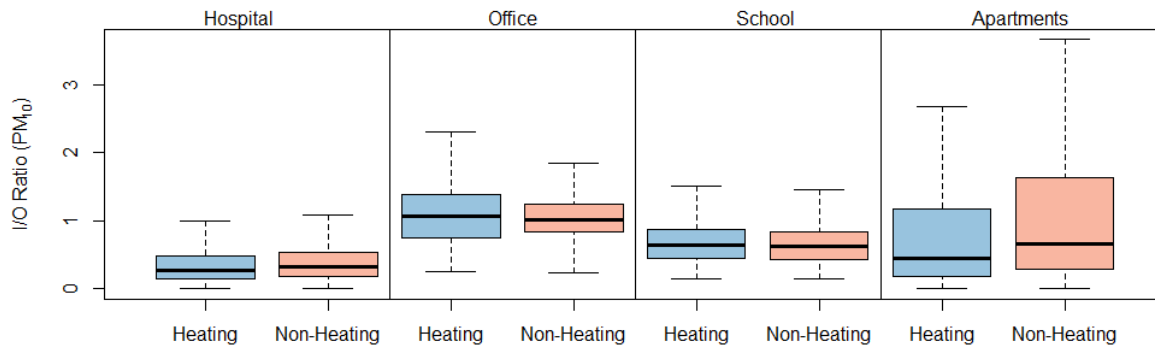
240 Similar seasonal variations have been picked up in a number of previous studies. Trends may be  
 241 dependent on the significance of internal sources, but typically higher I/O ratios have been observed  
 242 during the summer under higher ventilation rates (Cyrus et al., 2004; Hu and Zhao, 2020;  
 243 Martuzevicius et al., 2008; Stamp et al., 2021). This trend corresponds to findings of a stronger  
 244 association between both ambient  $\text{NO}_2$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentrations and mortality during warm  
 245 seasons, when along with spending more time outside, increased ventilation rates resulted in higher  
 246 ingress of ambient  $\text{NO}_2$  to the indoors (Rojas-Bracho et al., 2002; Samoli Evangelia et al., 2013).

247 The seasonality seen here has two main implications. Firstly, it re-enforces the need to capture  
 248 seasonal variation within I/O measurements. Secondly, it indicates the influence of changing building  
 249 operation and occupant behaviours between the two seasons.



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Figure 2: Seasonal variations in I/O ratios for the case study hospital, school and office (all working hours only), as well as the 18 apartments.

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### 3.3 Comparing I/O ratios defined by diffusive and continuous sampling

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For a metric to be comparable and provide useful insights, it must be consistent across potential measurement methods. However, there is a risk that I/O ratios measured by either passive or continuous sampling yield different results. The diurnal variations already seen in section 3.1 suggest that out-of-hours sampling period bias may significantly impact passive sampling methods, where a static I/O ratio is measured across full 24-hour periods.

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In Figure 3, continuously measured I/O ratios for the non-domestic case studies have been re-analysed into a series of hypothetical 5-day passive measurements and compared to hourly continuous estimates utilising occupied hours only (i.e. the full data set has been analysed with either a range of average 5-day indoor and outdoor concentrations across this period, representing passive measurements of the I/O ratio, or as continuous measured and calculated hourly I/O ratios, across core hours only).

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In some cases, for example NO<sub>2</sub> within the naturally ventilated office, there is little observable difference between the passive and continuous approaches, as I/O ratios are not seen to drastically vary across the day (Figure 1). However, when building operation is significantly different during core hours (e.g. hospital – NO<sub>2</sub>) or when human activity increases across core hours (e.g. office – particulate matter) significant differences are seen. The overall difference between I/O ratios defined in core hours, outside core hours and across all weekday hours can be seen in Table 3.

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When bias occurs, it can have a significant impact, particularly as core building hours may coincide with peaks in external traffic-related pollutants. For example, annual mean ambient NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, across all hours at the school site were 19 ppb. Applying the median I/O ratio of 0.43, calculated across all hours (i.e. as if from passive measurements) would give a mean internal concentration of 8.2ppb. However, applying the typical daily profile of the I/O ratio (as seen in Figure 1), across outdoor concentrations during core hours (23.8ppb), would give a concentration during core occupied hours of 12.2ppb (49% higher). Similarly, for PM<sub>2.5</sub> the two approaches lead to mean internal concentrations of 3.2 and 6.3 µg/m<sup>3</sup> respectively (97% higher).

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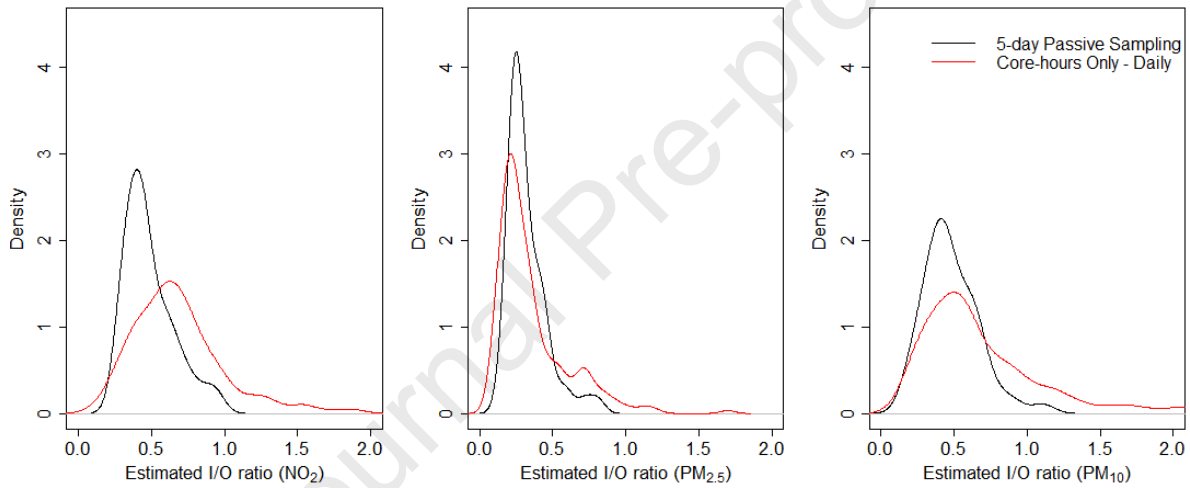
285 Table 3: I/O ratios during core and outside of core hours. Note: ALL is still only working days, not including weekends.

	Pollutant	Core Hours - median	Outside Hours - median	All Hours - median
Office	NO <sub>2</sub>	0.40	0.41	0.40
	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.71	0.50	0.58
	PM <sub>10</sub>	1.01	0.57	0.69
Hospital	NO <sub>2</sub>	0.71	0.48	0.57
	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.09	0.05	0.07
	PM <sub>10</sub>	0.25	0.09	0.16
School	NO <sub>2</sub>	0.61	0.39	0.43
	PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.37	0.29	0.31
	PM <sub>10</sub>	0.63	0.39	0.45

286

287

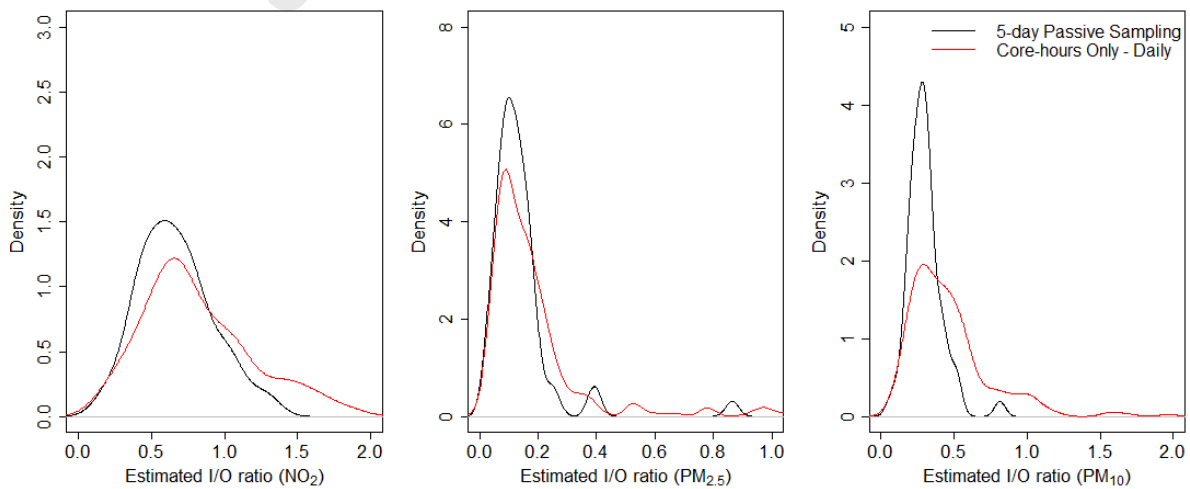
## School



288

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## Hospital



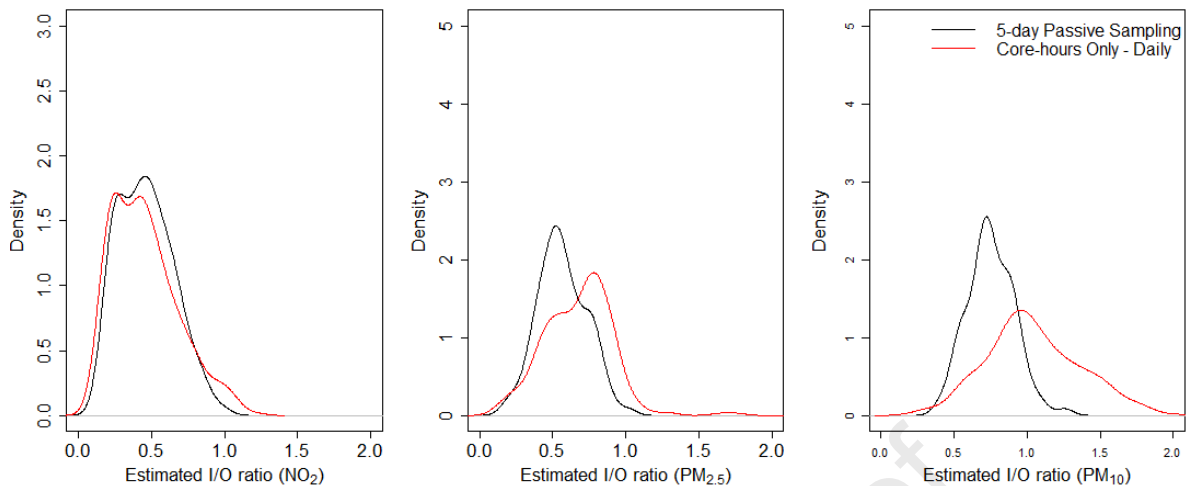
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## Office



294

295 *Figure 3: Comparison of I/O ratio measured by hypothetical 5-day passive sampling (black) and continuous sampling based*  
 296 *upon core hours only (red), across full 6-8month monitoring campaigns.*

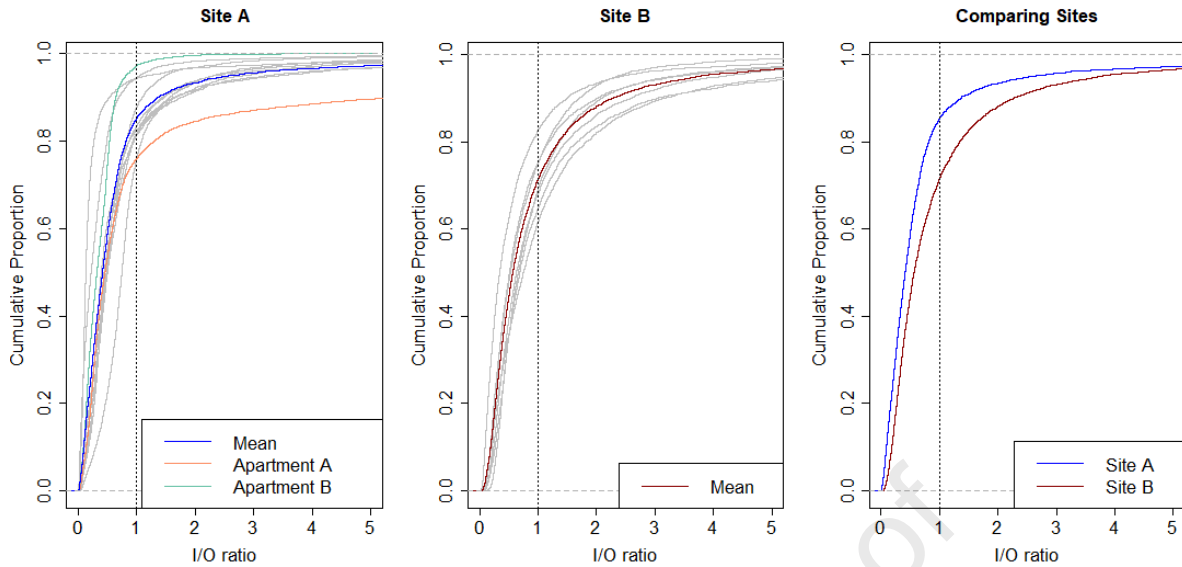
### 297 3.4 Variations in between and within apartments

298 The variable and dynamic nature of I/O ratios can be further explored by looking at data across 6-12  
 299 months in cumulative distribution plots from 18 individual apartments (Figure 4). Initially, it should  
 300 be noted that there is both a significant range in the I/O ratio defined within each individual  
 301 apartment over the measurement period, but also between apartments and between the two  
 302 different developments as a whole. Differences may be observed in the distribution of I/O ratios at  
 303 values less than 1, generally more reflective of the relationship between indoor and outdoor air, and  
 304 in the proportion of time spent with an I/O ratio greater than 1, a reflection of the magnitude,  
 305 frequency and decay rate of indoor sources.

306 Two cases are highlighted in the left image of Figure 4. Case A reveals significant periods in which  
 307 the I/O ratio is greater than 1, with 24% of total recorded time spent above this threshold. In  
 308 contrast, case B exceeds an I/O ratio above 1 for just 2.7% of the total monitored period. This is a  
 309 clear response to the strength, duration and frequency of indoor sources experienced in each  
 310 apartment.

311 Cumulative frequency plots can be seen for I/O ratios for NO<sub>2</sub> in Figure 5. Here, apartment C is  
 312 highlighted as having a significantly lower I/O ratio when the I/O ratio is less than 1. Apartment C  
 313 had a window open in the living room just 19% of the time, compared to an average of 46% of time  
 314 across all apartments, indicating a lower rate of ingress from the external environment.

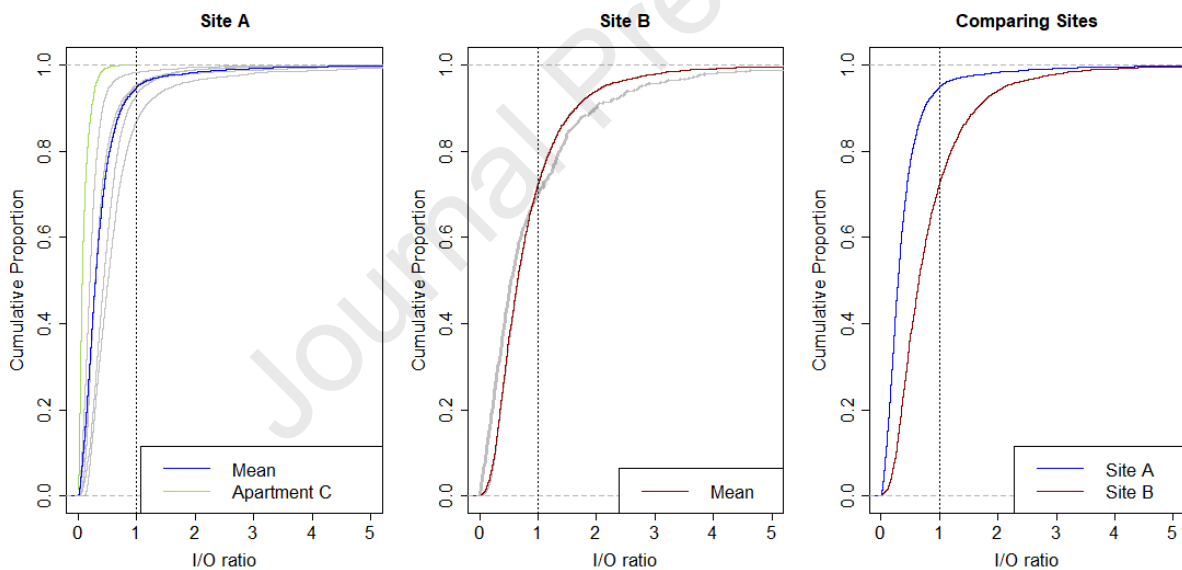
315 Previous studies have typically defined buildings with I/O ratios below 0.8 as having few internal  
 316 sources and above 1.2 as likely having significant indoor sources (Deng et al., 2017). Here it can be  
 317 seen that using static I/O ratios in such definitions may be a simplification of a range of modes in  
 318 each apartment. This may include various use of mechanical ventilation, configurations of openable  
 319 windows and internal partitions and activities within the apartments. The measurement of I/O ratios  
 320 over extended periods of time therefore can be useful in understanding the variation of I/O ratio  
 321 under different modes of operation and the significance of internal sources.



322

323 Figure 4: Cumulative frequency plots for I/O ( $PM_{2.5}$ ) for individual flats within two developments. Individual apartments are  
 324 represented with grey lines, mean of all apartments in blue/red.

325



326

327 Figure 5: Cumulative frequency plots for I/O ( $NO_2$ ) for individual flats within two developments. Individual apartments are  
 328 represented with grey lines, mean of all apartments in blue/red. Fewer flats recorded  $NO_2$  across the full period than  
 329 particulate matter ( $N=7$ ).

### 330 3.5 Variations in I/O ratios due to occupant behaviour – window use

331 The role of occupant behaviour as a driving force of varying I/O ratios can be more directly investigated  
 332 through window monitoring. Measurements in the 18 apartments were accompanied by recordings  
 333 of both window use (open/shut) and occupancy. This allows a more direct examination of occupant  
 334 actions upon the I/O ratio and on indoor air quality more generally.

335 Table 4 shows the median I/O ratio under a range of conditions between the apartments. Firstly, I/O  
 336 ratios show significant increases between periods in which windows are closed or open, increasing

337 from 0.38 to 0.63 for  $PM_{2.5}$ , 0.37 to 0.74 for  $PM_{10}$  and 0.42 to 0.69 for  $NO_2$ . This indicates the strong  
 338 influence of ventilation practices and occupant behaviours within apartments.

339 Additionally, passive infrared (PIR) and  $CO_2$  sensors can be used to help determine occupancy. The  
 340 most significant difference between occupied and unoccupied periods can again be seen for  $PM_{10}$  (0.35-  
 341 0.60). Given the I/O ratio only increases at this higher particle size, it is thought this largely relates to  
 342 particle resuspension during occupied periods. Further, infiltration factors may be obtained by  
 343 selecting periods in which both windows are closed and the apartment has been unoccupied for at  
 344 least the preceding 4 hours (to remove lingering indoor sources). These values are again significantly  
 345 lower than within other periods and may prove useful in understanding the proportion of pollutant  
 346 ingress that occurs via uncontrolled infiltration through the fabric.

347 *Table 4: I/O in apartments under different conditions.*

	Median I/O		
	$PM_{2.5}$	$PM_{10}$	$NO_2$
All Data	0.47	0.49	0.51
Windows Open	0.63	0.74	0.69
Windows Closed	0.38	0.37	0.42
Occupied	0.49	0.60	0.52
Unoccupied	0.47	0.35	0.43
Windows Closed – Unoccupied for 4 hr	0.19	0.11	0.13

348

349 The impact of window actions can be seen across short timescales in Figure 6 and Figure 7. Here, the  
 350 average indoor concentration or I/O ratio is shown for  $CO_2$ ,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $NO_2$  and TVOCs as a function of the  
 351 duration a window has been open (Figure 6) or shut (Figure 7). Whilst opening a window leads to  
 352 reductions in both  $CO_2$  and TVOCs, the I/O for both  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $NO_2$  is seen to increase in response,  
 353 indicating a higher proportion of outdoor pollutants enter the indoor environment.

354 When a window is closed, the opposite effect can be observed. Increasing  $CO_2$  and TVOC  
 355 concentrations are accompanied by reducing I/O ratios in both  $NO_2$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ . Across shorter  
 356 measurements in both open and closed states, both Cyrus et al., (2004) and Yin et al., (2019) noted  
 357 similar increases in I/O ratios for particulate matter when windows were open. This is further evidence  
 358 not only in the dynamic nature of I/O ratios but also on the direct influence of occupant behaviour,  
 359 leading to seasonal effects seen elsewhere.

360

361

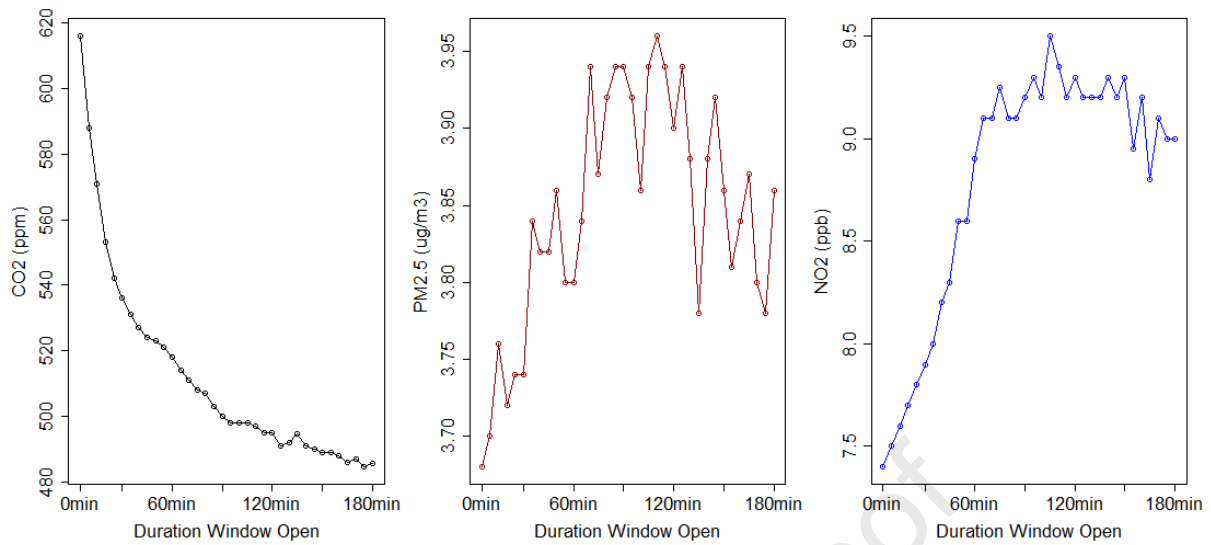
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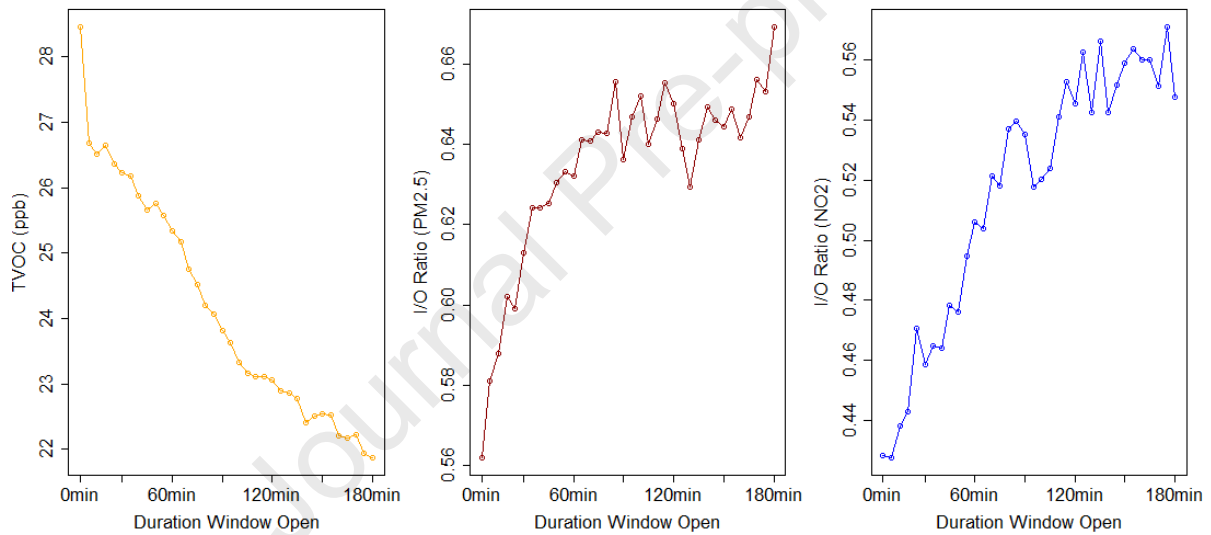
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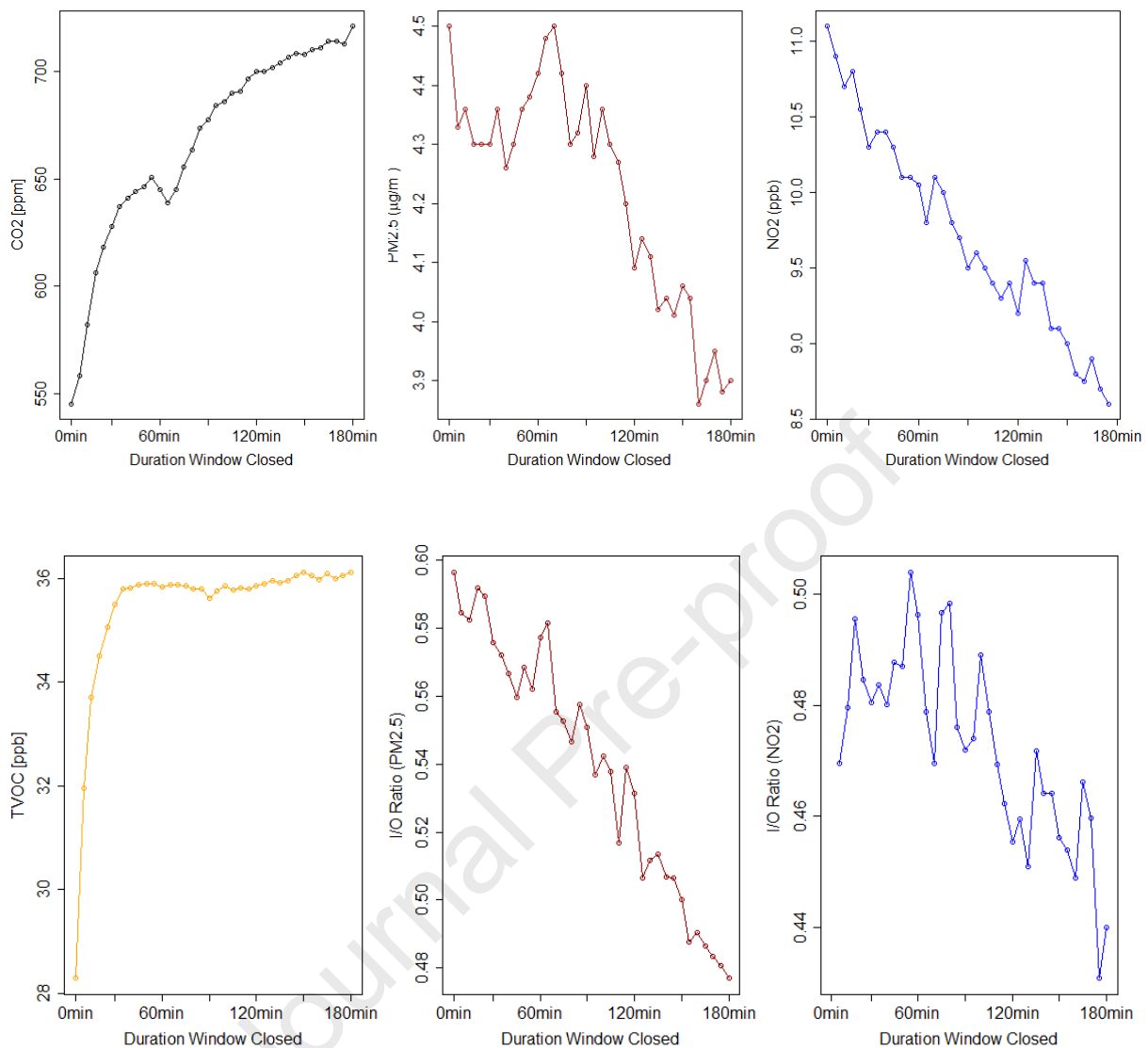
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367

368 *Figure 6: Impact of opening a window upon CO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, TVOC, I/O ratio (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and I/O ratio (NO<sub>2</sub>). Aggregated response*  
 369 *from whole monitoring periods within the 18 apartments from moment of window opening/closing and the subsequent 3*  
 370 *hours. Data from full monitored periods (June-May).*

371



372

373

374 *Figure 7: Impact of shutting a window upon CO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, TVOC, I/O ratio (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and I/O ratio (NO<sub>2</sub>). Aggregated*  
 375 *response from whole monitoring periods within the 18 apartments from moment of window opening/closing and the*  
 376 *subsequent 3 hours. Data from full monitored periods (June-May).*

## 377 4. Discussion

### 378 4.1 Static I/O ratios

379 Previous studies have helped to establish the relationship between I/O ratios and ventilation types  
 380 (Ho et al., 2004; Hu and Zhao, 2020), building locations (Nunes et al., 2016), airtightness  
 381 (Chatzidiakou et al., 2015; Poupard et al., 2005) and therefore identifying the potential for higher  
 382 exposure in such settings. In particular, cheaper, non-intrusive passive sampling has allowed larger  
 383 samples of buildings to be assessed, helping to determine values or distributions of I/O ratios to be  
 384 used within modelling or epidemiological studies.

385 However, as analysis here has shown, passive sampling over several full 24-hour periods is likely to  
 386 lead to a sampling period bias in many buildings. In most cases, this will have the effect of  
 387 underestimating the I/O ratio which is associated with core operation hours and most strongly  
 388 associated with exposure. Significantly, static measurements of I/O ratios using passive sampling

389 may also dampen the difference between buildings with significant operational differences. For  
390 example, if we considered two identical schools, one with a 5 L/s.p ventilation rate the other  
391 adopting 10 L/s.p. Across occupied hours we would expect a significant increase in penetration of  
392 pollution from outdoors into the building with higher ventilation rate (assuming that the ventilation  
393 air is 100% outdoor air and not filtered). However, through static measurements this difference is  
394 largely diminished through the inclusion of 16 unoccupied hours alongside the 8 occupied hours.  
395 This means that such passively measured values should not be used in further modelling or  
396 epidemiological studies and may not accurately reflect a building's operation or exposure of  
397 occupants. Equally, in the absence of contextual details (e.g. ventilation rate, hours of operation,  
398 window status, weather conditions) the use of such values is prone to mis-interpretation.

#### 399 *4.2 Dynamic I/O ratios*

400 Assessing I/O ratios on a dynamic basis will allow data to be filtered and sampling period bias to be  
401 avoided, with the estimated I/O values more closely linked to exposure during occupation. These  
402 may therefore provide more suitable values for modelling and epidemiological studies. Sensor costs,  
403 performance and intrusiveness have limited the length and scale of such measurements to date,  
404 although technological improvements in air quality sensors may overcome these challenges and  
405 capture longer term behaviours.

406 Beyond the determination of the I/O for use in wider studies, it may also be argued that a  
407 dynamically assessed I/O ratio may be useful as a building performance metric. This may provide  
408 useful information on an individual building basis. For example, dynamic I/O ratios demonstrated  
409 here have shown the impact on indoor air quality of opening windows, CO<sub>2</sub> demand-controlled  
410 ventilation (with and without filtration), ingress from infiltration, cases with significant indoor  
411 sources and the influence of particulate resuspension during occupancy. This might lead to suitable  
412 interventions, for example scheduling ventilation rates around external pollution, control based on  
413 external pollutants, optimising window opening or improving extraction to reduce internal peaks.

#### 414 *4.3 Limitations in I/O as a metric*

415 The broader limitations of a I/O, whether analysed statically or dynamically, can also be considered.  
416 In their review, Chen and Zhao, (2011) concluded that the considerable variation of I/O ratios meant  
417 that they were 'hardly helpful for understanding the indoor-outdoor relationship', with the  
418 penetration factor a more relevant metric. However, given the influence of ventilation and window  
419 opening on exposure during occupied hours, it would seem understanding ventilation and occupant  
420 behaviours remains crucial.

421

#### 422 *4.4 I/O ratio as a physical or personal variable*

423 The I/O ratio has been described as a building modifier, representing the impact the building fabric  
424 and services might have on outdoor pollutants reaching the indoor environment. However, results  
425 here indicate that two key influential factors are related to the occupant(s) rather than the building  
426 itself. Both indoor generation and window opening, are shown to be influential variables for the I/O  
427 ratio. However, both vary significantly between buildings or apartments and may be linked to a much  
428 wider range of social-physical factors. Within dwellings, particularly where the occupant has  
429 significant control over ventilation, the I/O ratio may therefore provide a much stronger description  
430 of the occupants than the building itself.

#### 431 *4.5 Uncertainty in I/O*

432 Uncertainty in estimated I/O ratios is a result of the uncertainty in both indoor and outdoor  
 433 measurements. Error propagation rules would define the uncertainty in an I/O ratio as:

$$434 \quad \frac{\delta(I/O)}{I/O} = \left[ \left( \frac{\delta C_{in}}{C_{in}} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\delta C_{out}}{C_{out}} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

435 Where,  $\delta(I/O)$ ,  $\delta C_{in}$  and  $\delta C_{out}$  are the uncertainties in the I/O ratio, measured indoor and measured  
 436 outdoor pollutant concentrations.

437 The EU Directive 2008/50/EC defines acceptable levels of uncertainty for indicative ambient air quality  
 438 measurements of particulate matter (50%) and sulphur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide and carbon  
 439 monoxide (25%) and Ozone (30%). If both indoor and outdoor measurements incorporated  
 440 uncertainties at these limits, this would translate to overall significant uncertainties in I/O estimates  
 441 for particulate matter (70%), sulphur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide and carbon monoxide (35%) and Ozone  
 442 (42%). Clearly, even with good quality instrumentation and stable conditions, any estimated I/O ratio  
 443 will contain significant measurement uncertainty, particularly at low concentrations. This supports the  
 444 argument that the dynamic I/O ratio works better as an informative metric, rather than an absolute  
 445 value.

446

#### 447 *4.6 Lack of equivalency between measurements.*

448 Measurement uncertainties are further compounded by the lack of equivalency between  
 449 measurement systems, particularly with lower cost portable systems (Karagulian et al., 2019). Such  
 450 inequivalent indoor and outdoor measurements will only serve to increase the uncertainty in I/O  
 451 estimates. Even if identical measurement systems are used in both indoor and outdoor  
 452 measurements, their performance may alter with the varying composition of pollutants and their  
 453 respective environments, with humidity and temperature bias impacting measurements of many  
 454 pollutants (Crilley et al., 2018). An example within this study is the limitations of low-cost sensors to  
 455 capture fine-mode aerosols in the urban environment. Where compositions of outdoor and indoor air  
 456 differ, these limitations in measurements may lead to further bias.

457 Estimates of I/O ratios have also been determined with  $C_{out}$  based upon local central monitoring  
 458 stations (e.g. Braniš et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2018). Whilst this may improve the accuracy of outdoor  
 459 measurements, issues around equivalency remain and such approaches may introduce further spatial  
 460 uncertainty between the central monitoring station and at the site of a case study building.

461 Finally, there may be significant definitional uncertainty in estimated I/O ratios. Definitional  
 462 uncertainty is defined by JCGM 100 as 'Component of measurement uncertainty resulting from the  
 463 finite amount of detail in the definition of a measurand'. In this case, it applies to the uncertainty in  
 464 the definition of the I/O ratio and in particular the location of an external measurement. For  
 465 example, an I/O ratio of an apartment defined by an external measurement at ground level will not  
 466 be equivalent to an I/O ratio defined by an external measurement at the height of the apartment.  
 467 Whilst urban background and roadside measurements are generally well defined, what external  
 468 measurement point is most appropriate or indeed informative is less clear, particularly with mixed  
 469 mode ventilation strategies, and may be a function of ventilation intake locations, natural ventilation  
 470 openings, local spatial effects and practical constraints.

471

#### 472 *4.7 Comparisons to $F_{inf}$*

473 Infiltration factors have been cited as less variable and therefore more useful in health studies than  
474 I/O ratios (Poupard et al., 2005). There is however an important note of terminology.

475 Within the built environment, infiltration is typically defined as uncontrolled air movement between  
476 indoor and outdoor environments (e.g. via cracks and gaps in the building fabric). On the other hand,  
477 ventilation describes the controlled provision of outdoor air either via mechanical systems or via  
478 openable windows etc. The infiltration factor is perhaps therefore a misnomer. The air exchange rate  
479 of a building is tied to both infiltration and ventilation rates. Particularly in modern, low-energy,  
480 airtight buildings, it is the ventilation component that is likely to dominate, particularly during  
481 occupied hours. The infiltration factor is therefore closely linked to ventilation practices and as such,  
482 to the operation of a building and actions of its occupants. Given the strong associated with ventilation  
483 practices,  $F_{inf}$  is again expected to be a function of both a building and its occupants, varying in similar  
484 ways to the I/O ratio investigated here.

485

## 486 5. Conclusions

487 The study has analysed long term indoor and outdoor pollutant monitoring in a hospital, school, office  
488 and 18 apartments. The results indicated strong diurnal and seasonal variation in I/O ratios for  
489 particulate matter and nitrogen dioxide. Diurnal variation was shown to reveal the potential for  
490 significant bias if static I/O ratios are measured through passive sampling. As a result, static I/O  
491 measurements may not reasonably account for, and are likely to underestimate, the expected  
492 exposure levels in associated indoor environments. This is likely to result in many of the I/O ratios and  
493 infiltration factors previously estimated to underestimate actual indoor concentrations during  
494 occupied periods.

495 The results presented indicate how I/O ratios are strongly influenced by ventilation rates, window  
496 opening actions and by the occupancy patterns and activities within a building. Therefore I/O ratios  
497 should not be thought of as a physical building parameter, but rather a metric that describes both the  
498 building and the behaviour of the occupants that occupy and manage it. Whilst academic literature  
499 has focused on measuring and reporting I/O ratios over the past four decades, the dynamic nature  
500 and behavioural component of I/O ratios means that drawing together and making use of reported  
501 I/O ratios is not straightforward and it is perhaps unsurprising that reported values demonstrate too  
502 much variation to often be useful. Static I/O ratios hide this dynamic behaviour and as a result, such  
503 comparisons or compiled data sets may mean little without contextual information, both on the  
504 measurement made and the state of the building during the measurement (e.g. ventilation rate,  
505 window opening, activities, occupancy).

506 However, it is argued that the I/O ratio, when evaluated dynamically from continuous measurements,  
507 provides a useful building operation parameter. Dynamic I/O ratios may help describe the relationship  
508 the building has with the outdoor environment and importantly the role of building operation and  
509 occupant behaviour. This can help better understand ventilation strategies, schedules, the influence  
510 of occupant behaviour and the significance of indoor sources. The use of a dynamic I/O ratio may  
511 therefore provide effective information for designing and operating buildings to improve indoor air  
512 quality.

513

514

515

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520

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778

## Highlights: A critical evaluation of the dynamic nature of indoor-outdoor air quality ratios

- *I/O ratios are shown to have significant dynamic variation, varying diurnally, seasonally as well as with building operation and occupant behaviour.*
- *Whilst static I/O ratios are widely reported, they hide this dynamic behaviour, limiting their interpretation and comparability..*
- *I/O ratios measured passively across integer 24 hour periods will be meaningless in many buildings.*
- *I/O ratios are shown to be strongly related to occupant behaviours and therefore represent a personal variable as much as a physical building metric.*
- *Dynamically assessed I/O ratios may prove useful as building performance metrics, indicating the relationship between indoor-outdoor air and the role of building operation.*

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Journal Pre-proof