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Towards integrating occupant behaviour modelling in simulation-aided building design: Reasons, challenges and solutions

Juan Mahecha Zambrano, Ulrich Filippi Oberegger, Graziano Salvalai

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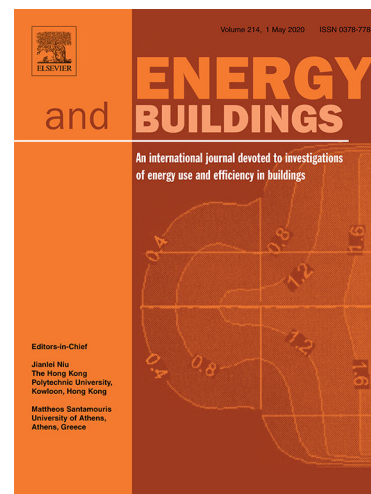
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1 **Review article**

2 **Towards integrating occupant behaviour modelling in simulation-aided**
3 **building design: Reasons, challenges and solutions**

4 *Juan Mahecha Zambrano ^{a,b*}, Ulrich Filippi Oberegger ^b, Graziano Salvalai ^a*

5 *^a Politecnico di Milano, Department of Architecture, Built Environment and Construction Engineering, Via Ponzio 31,*
6 *20133 Milan, Italy*

7 *^b European Academy of Bolzano/Bozen, Institute for Renewable Energy, Via G. Di Vittorio 16, I-39100 Bolzano/Bozen,*
8 *Italy*

9 ** Corresponding author:*

10 *E-mail: juancamilo.mahecha@polimi.it*

11 *Postal address: European Academy of Bolzano/Bozen, Institute for Renewable Energy, Via G. Di Vittorio 16, I-39100*
12 *Bolzano/Bozen, Italy*

13 **Abstract**

14 **Occupant behaviour is an important source of uncertainty in building energy performance simulations.**
15 **This has led to the development and integration of different modelling approaches that represent the**
16 **complex, stochastic nature of human-building interaction. Yet, several barriers prevent their wide use in**
17 **simulation-aided building design. The procedures and practical solutions for integrating occupant**
18 **behaviour models are segmented through the literature. Accordingly, this paper examines the state-of-**
19 **the-art in the application of occupant behaviour models. Based on the PRISMA methodology, the**
20 **literature is critically analysed to: i) identify and map the barriers between theory and application; ii)**
21 **propose a simulation framework establishing the steps for integrating occupant behaviour models into**
22 **building performance simulations; iii) synthesise practical solutions and highlight remaining challenges**
23 **towards a simulation framework adequately integrating occupant behaviour. The paper stresses the**
24 **added value within the decision-making process at different building design stages. Furthermore, key**

25 elements for identifying the appropriated modelling approach for each occupant behaviour aspect are
26 presented considering factors such as type of behaviour, building type, and spatial and temporal scale.
27 Ultimately, this critical review establishes guidelines for the integration of occupant behaviour into
28 building design practice and defines a research pathway for bridging the gap between the OB research
29 field and the simulation-aided building design practice.

30 **Keywords**

31 Occupant behaviour; Occupant behaviour modelling; Building performance simulation; Building
32 design; Human-building interaction.

33 **Abbreviations**

34 ABM: Agent-based model; BPS: Building performance simulation; DNAS: Drivers – Needs – Actions
35 – Systems; EBC: Energy in Buildings and Communities; ECM: Energy conservation measures; EMS:
36 Energy management system; FMU: Functional mock-up interface; HVAC: Heating, ventilation, and air
37 conditioning; IAQ: Indoor air quality; ICT: Information and communication technology; IEA:
38 International Energy Agency; IEQ: Indoor environmental quality; NPV: Net present value; NZEB:
39 Nearly zero-energy buildings; OB: Occupant behaviour; OBM: Occupant behaviour model; OPA:
40 Occupant's presence and actions; PCA: Principal component analysis; PDF: Probability density
41 function; PI: Performance indicator; PV: Photo-voltaic; SA: Sensitivity analysis; TUS: Time use survey;
42 UA: Uncertainty analysis.

43

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64 1. Introduction

65 1.1. Motivation

66 Building Performance Simulation (BPS) tools are extensively used to support the decision-
67 making process in the building design practice. Yet, a disagreement between predicted and
68 actual building energy performance is often observed, the so-called performance gap [1]. As
69 reviewed by Shi et al. [2] this gap could vary by a factor between 0.2 – 4, where in most cases
70 measured energy consumption is higher. Assumptions related to occupant behaviour (OB),
71 weather deviations, and discrepancies between design vs. as-built are acknowledged as main
72 causes [2]. Regarding OB, its representation – comprising both occupants' presence and actions
73 (OPA) – in BPS in terms of static schedules and occupant-related power densities is
74 oversimplified. Occupants are typically described as homogeneous and passive agents although
75 they are diverse and actively interacting with the building and building systems [3].

76 To overcome this challenge, in the last four decades several methods for modelling OPA
77 have been developed [4] aiming at capturing the stochastic nature of the behaviour, the
78 diversity of the occupants, and the two-way interaction between the occupants and their built
79 environment [5]. Notably, IEA-EBC Annex 66 [6] and its follow up, Annex 79 [7] have
80 motivated an international effort for advancing on the OB research. As a result, over 310 OPA
81 models have been produced to better describe actions such as window, shading, and lighting
82 operation, thermostat adjustment, appliance use, and clothing adjustment [4].

83 Despite these efforts, advanced OPA modelling approaches are still mainly applied by
84 researchers and developers as several barriers prevent their widespread application [8]. Indeed,
85 an international survey on current OB modelling approaches revealed that most interviewed

86 practitioners consider OB the most important uncertainty source in BPS. However, BPS
87 typically relies on deterministic schedules or rule-based models [9].

88 *1.2. Existing reviews*

89 Several review articles assessed crucial aspects of the OB modelling research field. For
90 instance, Berger et al. [10] examined studies claiming OB as mainly responsible of the
91 performance gap and assessed their evidence. Harputlugil et al. [11] focused on describing
92 different categories of occupants, understanding occupant's attributes, and exploring the
93 interaction between humans and buildings. Similarly, Wu et al. [12] presented formal
94 definitions for OB, drivers motivating OB, and the impact of OB on building energy analysis.
95 They also started exploring BPS tools representing common OB. Stazi et al. [13] deepened the
96 understanding of OB drivers and the influence of environmental and time-related factors. They
97 reviewed how this information is translated into OB model variables. Different studies focused
98 on the formalisms and application of OB modelling approaches [14–18], describing modelling
99 requirements for different applications and related modelling approaches identifying their
100 strengths and disadvantages, or giving a broad view of the field and the OB impact on energy-
101 saving potential. Osman et al. [19] focused on the exploitation of Time Use Survey (TUS) data
102 for developing OB models and their application on building energy use. Furthermore, while
103 some researchers focused on OB modelling applied to specific contexts such as residential
104 buildings [20], offices [3], and urban scale [21,22], Carlucci et al. [4] performed a systematic
105 review on the modelling approaches and models developed for a wide range of building types,
106 climates, and occupant actions.

107 Regarding the integration and application of OB models in the building design process, Yu
108 et al. [23] focused on the main criteria for comparing and selecting modelling approaches, as
109 well as improving the performance of OB models. Hong et al. [1] reviewed integration

110 approaches of OB models into BPS, their advantages and shortcomings, how to choose them
111 depending on the OB model, and related commercial software capabilities. Finally, Azar et al.
112 [5] investigated simulation-aided occupant-centric design. They established and highlighted
113 fundamental concepts and definitions for occupant-centric design, supporting mechanisms, and
114 design methodologies.

115 **Despite these efforts, most of the articles are focused on the OB research field and few on**
116 **its application within simulation-aided building design. The reasons, challenges, and solutions**
117 **for applying OB models are segmented across the literature.**

118 *1.3. This review: objectives and methodology*

119 **This review aims at establishing a research pathway for bridging the gap between the OB**
120 **research field and its application in simulation-aided building design. To the knowledge of the**
121 **authors, this is the first review discussing in detail proposed and practical solutions to overcome**
122 **the barriers preventing extensive use of advanced OB modelling approaches.** This information
123 is segmented throughout the literature without a clear proposition of the options and steps users
124 need to address, from problem definition to informing the design decision, when implementing
125 advanced OB modelling approaches. To this end, this critical review aims at answering:

- 126 i. What is the added value of considering more advanced OB models in the simulation-
127 aided building design process?
- 128 ii. How to choose the most appropriate OB modelling approach and model depending
129 on the design purpose?
- 130 iii. How can advanced OB models be integrated into BPS accessible and useful for
131 supporting the decision-making process?

132 To clarify, in this paper and as stated by Becker and Parker [24] “a simulation enacts, or
133 implements, or instantiates, a model. A model is a description of some system that is to be
134 simulated, and that model is often a mathematical one. A system contains objects of some sort
135 that interact with each other. A model describes the system in such a way that it can be
136 understood by anyone who can read the description and it describes a system at a particular
137 level of abstraction to be used”.

138 This critical review is divided into two parts. In the first part, a literature survey was
139 performed to draw a general view of the simulation-aided building design field and OB
140 research field, thus identifying the barriers. Exploring key words such as *occupant behaviour*,
141 *building design*, *energy*, *performance*, *practice*, *application*, and *industry*, 18 review articles
142 published after 2015 focusing on the OB field and 12 articles focusing on simulation-aided
143 building design processes were identified and included in Section 2.

144 As for the second part, a more exhaustive literature survey was performed to: i) identify
145 novel and practical solutions to the challenges BPS users need to address for applying advanced
146 OB representations within the building design process; ii) identify most urgent matters that
147 would transform the current complex steps faced by an end-user into a streamlined simulation
148 process seamlessly integrating OB (see Section 3). Using the search engine Scopus,
149 combination of the keywords *occupant*, *behavio**, *building*, *model**, *simulation*, *energy*, and
150 *performance*, and based on the methodology PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for
151 Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) [25], four steps were performed, namely
152 identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion of studies (see Figure 1).

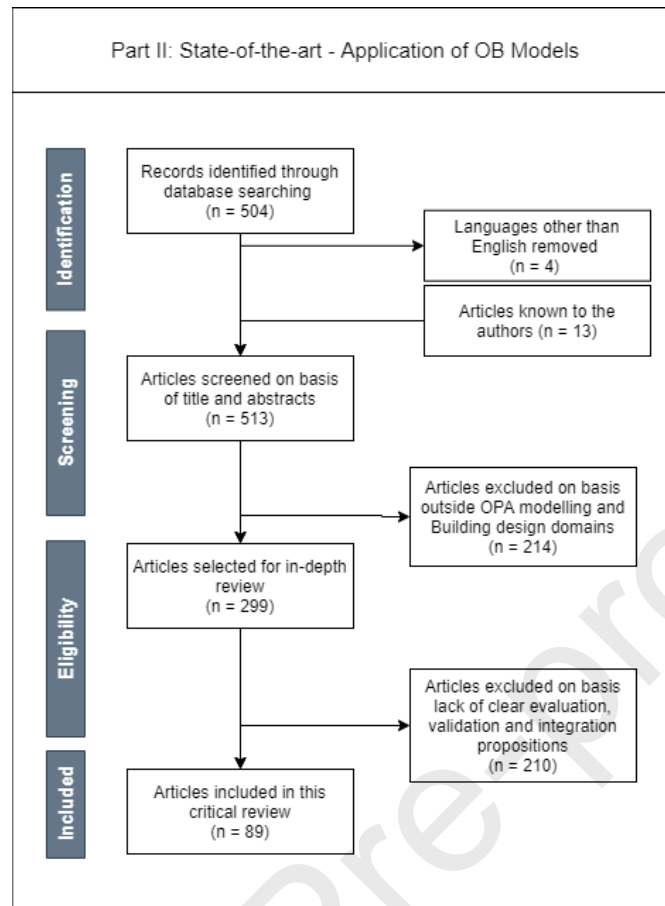


Figure 1. PRISMA workflow - State-of-the-art on the application of OB models

153 The asterisk was used to simultaneously capture word variants (singular and plural as well
 154 as differences between British and American English) such as in behavior* for including
 155 ‘behaviour’ and ‘behavior’. Besides, additional articles known to the authors, and articles citing
 156 or being cited by the articles were manually added to the collection.

157 The selected articles included in this review go beyond the proposition of models but
 158 compare different modelling approaches, apply models from the literature in different contexts,
 159 or present clear model evaluation, validation, or integration methodologies. Special attention
 160 was given to studies demonstrating the application of advanced OPA models in simulation-
 161 aided design practice.

162 Accordingly, the rest of the article is structured as follows: Section 2 presents a general view
 163 of the simulation-aided building design field, the OB research field and maps the research gap

164 between them; Section 3 presents solutions for bridging this gap; Section 4 synthesises the
165 findings and highlights urgent matters requiring further research; Section 5 gives the main
166 conclusions.

167 **2. Simulation-aided building design & OB Research field**

168 **2.1. On simulation-aided building design practice**

169 BPS is the use of computational models to represent physical characteristics, operation and
170 control strategies of a building and its energy systems [26]. It is adopted by building design
171 practitioners i.e. architects, energy modelers, engineers, etc. [27] to reduce uncertainty in the
172 performance of the building and thus assist the building design decision-making process [26].
173 Its application covers a range of purposes such as performing load calculations to select and
174 size HVAC systems; demonstrating code compliance; evaluating design scenarios [28]. To
175 better understand the different simulation requirements, input and output data, and simulation
176 aims, Table 1 (adapted from [29]) presents different building design stages and possible
177 simulation scenarios. This information is necessary to understand the current simulation-aided
178 building design practice and hence the needs of the practitioners.

179 Different disciplines play a role in the building design process (e.g., architects, energy
180 modelers, HVAC engineers). Practitioners can work under different collaborative approaches,
181 for example, the engineer can assist the architect, the practitioner can be both engineer and
182 architect, or they can be partners [30]. As a result, there is a synergy between practitioners with
183 different skills, knowledge, and expertise levels [29], where not necessarily all of them are
184 familiar with the resources and limitations of BPS tools and how to interpret their outputs [31].
185 Furthermore, modelling requirements are different depending on the design stage and type of
186 simulation to be performed [32]. Thus, BPS tools need to produce initial results from a rough

187 building representation and limited input data at early design phases as well as allow for
 188 detailing building components in more advanced design phases [30].

189

190 **Table 1. Aim, inputs and outputs of BPS at different design stages. Adapted from [29]**

	Conceptual Design	Preliminary Design	Detailed Design	Code Compliance
General aim	Examine alternative strategies and its impact on: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achieving the required indoor environment • Investment and life-cycle cost • Energy consumption • Space requirements for HVAC systems 	Specify technical solutions that fulfil the indoor air quality and cost targets of the project: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Definition of main HVAC zones • HVAC central plant • Specific shading systems 	Definition of technical details and detailed building design and its systems.	Demonstrating the building design is compliant with requirements defined by energy codes or green building certifications
Purpose of simulations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impact of building orientation and envelope configuration on energy economy and life-cycle; • Evaluation of architectural concepts involving alternative methods of energy savings; • Day lighting and electrical lighting; • Air flows in open areas of office buildings; • Natural ventilation air flows. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computation of the cooling requirements of systems and rooms; • Comparison of shading alternatives • Comparison of HVAC system alternatives; • Analysis of the zoning of HVAC systems; • Sizing of the central HVAC plant; • Daylighting and electrical lighting design; • Air infiltration; • Achievement of satisfactory indoor climate. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Detailed sizing of air handling and cooling equipment; • Detailed dimensioning of piping and ductwork; • Acoustic analysis of ductwork; • Calibration and balancing of the piping and ductwork; • Simulation of control strategies; • Sizing of special systems; • Special evaluation of comfort. 	Calculation of key performance indicators: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Energy related; • Comfort related.

191

192 Regarding OB, its related uncertainty is recognised as a major challenge within the building
 193 design field. Practitioners may tend to base their assumptions on building energy codes and
 194 standards which rely on outdated and simple OB representations not suitable for every case
 195 [26]. As observed by O'Brien et al. [9], despite practitioners often acknowledge this problem,
 196 they may not implement advanced OB modelling approaches due to barriers such as time
 197 constraints, the substantial effort required, and lack of understanding and education on the
 198 topic. As a result, they favour increasing OB modelling requirements by standards together

199 with modelling capabilities in BPS tools. Consequently, building designers need data, models,
200 tools, case studies and standards that support their practice including the human dimensions of
201 energy use [33].

202 Finally, it has been stressed that more attention should be paid to BPS outputs. Practitioners
203 prefer clear, concise, readable, and well documented information presented in a visual format
204 [29]. This is necessary to promote an effective communication with the different groups of
205 stakeholders involved in the building design decision-making process [31].

206 Summarizing, to promote the integration of OB modelling in the simulation-aided building
207 design field, practitioners need the proper motivation, knowledge, and tools. In this view, it is
208 needed to:

- 209 i. Understand the added value of including OB models in the design process
- 210 ii. Have policies, regulations, and building standards that promote and guide in the use
211 of OB models within the building design process
- 212 iii. Be educated and guided on when and how to use the OB models considering different
213 simulation purposes and design stages (Table 1)
- 214 iv. Develop BPS tools that facilitate the integration and application of OB models whose
215 outputs effectively communicate the results.

216 **2.2. Progress in the OB research field**

217 The OB research field can be described using the occupant-building interaction energy
218 behaviour loop (see Figure 2) consisting of the three, possibly iterated, steps *investigate*,
219 *understand*, *improve* [17]. This schema describes a first stage of *investigation* where data
220 collection techniques are used to gather information about the occupants and how they interact
221 with the building as defined by their presence and actions. The latter include on the one hand

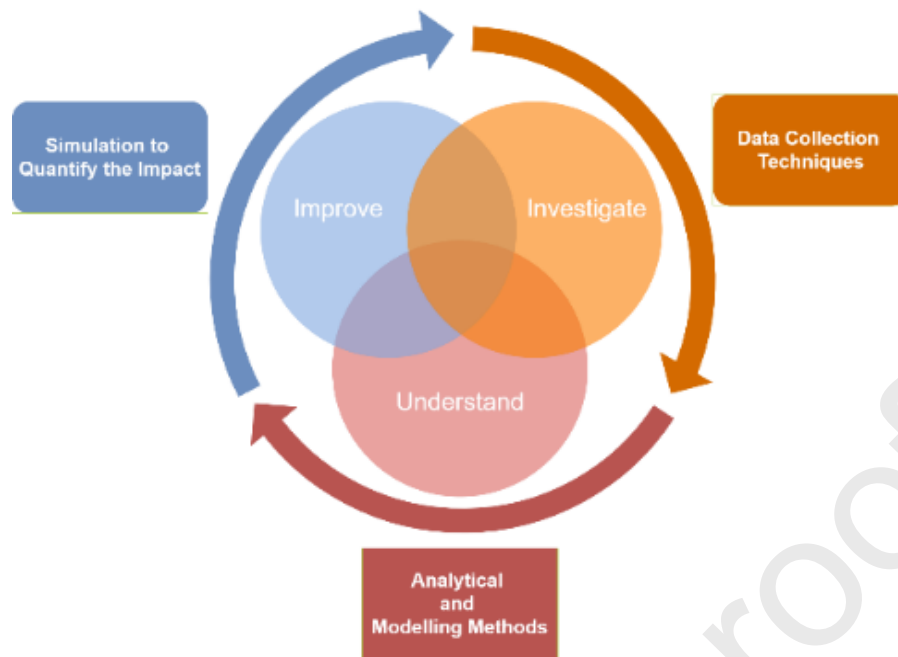


Figure 2. Occupant-building interaction energy behaviour loop. Adapted from [17]

222 adaptive behaviours such as window, light, blind and thermostat operation, intended to adapt
 223 the indoor environment, and on the other hand non-adaptive actions such as appliances use,
 224 which are not driven by physical discomfort but by contextual factors (non-physical factors
 225 affecting the behaviour, habits and attitudes of the occupants) [3]. Different studies have
 226 focused on sensing technologies [15,34,35], highlighting the link between energy consumption
 227 data and occupancy monitoring as opportunity for indirectly identifying behaviours such as
 228 appliance use [34]; proposing a categorization framework for OPA-sensing technologies [35];
 229 emphasising the importance of sensor selection and placement arguing that not only
 230 environmental variables (e.g., CO₂ concentration and temperature) should be considered but
 231 also factors such as room orientation to exclude interferences [15]. Likewise, in-situ monitoring
 232 methods such as *sensor-based* (i.e., to detect occupant presence, measure environmental
 233 variables, and capture occupant actions on building systems), *model-based* (e.g., estimating
 234 occupant presence from CO₂ measurements), and *surveys* have been explored. As a result, the
 235 significance of conducting a monitoring campaign and a documentation process of meaningful
 236 information has been pointed out [36]. Further, surveys are recognised to have potential of

237 revealing the role of socio-economic, cultural and psychological factors in the human-building
238 interaction [37,38]. Finally, developments in immersive virtual reality [39] and the evolution
239 of the Internet of Things (IoT) and Information and Communication Technology (ICT) [33]
240 have made available an increasing amount of data to understand the energy-related behaviour
241 of occupants.

242 In the *understanding* stage, the data collected is analysed and modelled to identify influential
243 factors motivating OB and quantifying its impact on building performance [17]. Here, an
244 important milestone was the establishment of the DNAS (drivers – needs – actions – systems)
245 ontology to describe energy-related OB where: the *drivers* identify the motivation behind a
246 behaviour; the *needs* specify what occupants look to fulfil; *actions* are carried out by the
247 occupants; the building *systems* are acted upon by the occupants [40]. Recently, this ontology
248 has been extended to include socio-economic characteristics, geographical location, subjective
249 values, occupant activities, and collective and individual adaptive actions [41]. Accordingly,
250 several reviews focused on the drivers behind occupants' actions exploring: fan use in different
251 types of buildings [42]; light-switching behaviour in office buildings [43]; how climatic factors,
252 social and personal attributes, architecture and interior design features, energy regulations and
253 economic parameters affect the energy-related OB [12]. As a result, complex interactions have
254 been noticed requiring the combination of multidisciplinary approaches, cognitive behavioural
255 methods, and cognitive complex theory to provide a better understanding. This is because OB
256 is influenced by: environmental, time-related, contextual, physiological, psychological, social,
257 and random factors (i.e., uncertain, not quantifiable factors) [13].

258 The increasing knowledge on drivers of energy-related OB has led to the production of a
259 myriad of modelling approaches and models thus, a large body of literature has focused on
260 classifying them and identifying their limitations and opportunities. Based on the research goal
261 OB models are classified as: *agent-based modelling* where agents are simulated to assess the

262 interaction with each other and the external environment; *statistical analysis* performed to
263 discover a numerical relationship between OB and for example indoor/outdoor environmental
264 factors; *data mining approaches* used to learn behavioural patterns from information such as
265 appliance energy consumption; *stochastic process modelling* developed to estimate occupancy
266 state (e.g., whether an occupant is present or not) and related energy consumption [15]. Further,
267 depending on the action modelled, they are differentiated between occupancy, adaptive, and
268 non-adaptive models [3]. OB models can be also classified depending on their level of
269 complexity (listed from the lowest to the highest level): fixed schedules, data-based (non-
270 probabilistic) models, stochastic (probabilistic) models, and agent-based models (ABM) [8].
271 Ultimately, more than 300 models have been developed and included in dynamic open-access
272 database [4].

273 In the *improving* stage (see Figure 2), simulations are performed to quantify the impact of
274 the occupants on energy-saving strategies, low energy building, or robust building design [17].
275 In this context, OB models can be integrated to the BPS program using a *direct input* or *control*
276 method, a *built-in OB model*, a *user function* or *custom code*, or a *co-simulation* scheme [1]
277 (see Section 3.5 for details). On a higher-level perspective, the simulation-aided occupant-
278 centric building design process has been explored [5]. In this context, occupant-centric refers
279 to considering the occupants and their well-being as the main priority throughout the building
280 life cycle. Accordingly, occupant-centric metrics of building performance are defined covering
281 aspects such as thermal comfort, indoor air quality (IAQ), well-being (i.e., physical, mental,
282 emotional, and social health of a person), space planning, and energy use [5]. Finally, design
283 strategies such as parametric design, optimization, and probabilistic design have been explored
284 towards promoting an evolution from simple parametric design – where best/worst scenarios
285 are employed – to probabilistic design in which stochastic models can quantify the likelihood
286 of extreme results [5].

287 **2.3. The gap between OB research and OB models application**

288 This section presents the main research gaps reported in the literature that need to be
289 addressed towards promoting the integration of OB models in the simulation-aided building
290 design process. To this end, three knowledge domains are defined: the fundamental knowledge
291 domain i.e., fundamental knowledge required for completely understanding the different
292 aspects of the human-building interaction; the integrated knowledge domain i.e., the
293 knowledge require for integrating the models within the design process; supporting tools i.e.,
294 the OB capabilities of BPS tools and post-processing modules. Table 2 presents the research
295 gaps, their corresponding knowledge domain and related BPS user's need. Some gaps are not
296 directly associated with a user's need, nevertheless they are presented in Table 2 since they
297 need to be addressed to resolve other research gaps.

298 Starting in the fundamental knowledge domain of the three components of the human-
299 building interaction research loop (Figure 2) an urgent need for standardized protocols is
300 required. Notably, in the data collection area monitoring campaigns require standardized
301 procedures for their design, execution, and documentation. This would allow to properly
302 compare the findings from different studies. As a result, a deeper understanding of the energy,
303 comfort, and wellbeing-related OB would be achieved, assessing the influence of contextual
304 factors on the behaviour. Further, more data and from other domains than the ones widely

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Table 2. Research gaps reported in the literature

Ref.	Research Gap	Towards	Knowledge Domain	Practitioners need
[15]	The selection and placement of sensors is not well researched - Understanding the impact of sensor distribution on model development	Improving the quality of data collection processes and thus the quality of the developed OB models. Reducing uncertainty.	Fundamental	-
[20]	Encouraging mixed approaches i.e., sensor based and survey data collection campaigns to reduce uncertainty			
[11]	Multidisciplinary study of OB: Including not only environmental factors but demographic, psychological, and social factors	Understanding all the factors influencing OB.	Fundamental	-
[5]	Need for designing and collecting large-scale measured data of occupants	Allowing comparative analysis between studies performed by different parties. Possibility to understand influential factors and differences between contexts.	Fundamental	-
[14]	Lack of common occupant database for various applications			
[17]	Collection of adequate data using standard protocol and regulation of privacy issues			
[4]	Lack of standard data collection methodologies - Ontology	Ensuring quality of data used to understand and model OB.	Fundamental	-
[11]	Lack of a standard for data collection and lack of protocols for data analysis make it difficult to compare outcomes			
[13]	Lack of standardized methods for monitoring OB			

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Table 2. Research gaps reported in the literature (Cont.)

Ref.	Research Gap	Towards	Knowledge Domain	Practitioners need
[4]	OB research in more contexts: Climates zones, building types, OB aspects, countries	Allowing the understanding and modelling of OB for meeting specific needs in different contexts.	Fundamental	Available models
[34]	Understanding influence of building size on occupants' energy behaviour			
[14]	Lack of new models that meet the specific needs for the application			
[14]	Challenge of training and validation of the developed model	Understanding accuracy and performance of OB models.	Fundamental	Models' strengths and limitations
[4]	Lack of standard model testing framework			
[4]	Lack of evaluation and validation protocols of OB Models			
[34]	Simulation research is recommended to test and verify the assumptions used to develop the models			
[17]	Lack of standardization of OB model development			
[17]	Lack of verification of behaviour models			
[8]	Lack of model validation			
[13]	Lack of standardized methods for modelling OB and validating OB models			
[15]	Improving validation of OB models			

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Table 2. Research gaps reported in the literature (Cont.)

Ref.	Research Gap	Towards	Knowledge Domain	Practitioners need
[4]	Lack of methodologies for transferring OB models between different contexts			
[44]	The available studies on the transferability of different machine models for occupancy and window-opening behaviours is limited by now.			
[8]	Models are developed for specific locations, which might undermine their generalizability to other locations			
[5]	Understanding application and limitation of models: Generalizability	Understanding specific applicability contexts of OB models.	Integrated	Models' application / Guidelines
[14]	Understanding scalability of models: a simple occupancy model may not work for the same building type.	Allowing transferring models from one context to another.		
[34]	Testing and validating the scalability of future models for different building types, different occupant social networks, and within multiple buildings			
[20]	Lack of understanding of models' scalability: Occupant behaviour models cannot be extrapolated due to the direct relation with monitoring data			
[17]	Evaluation of applicability of behaviour model			
[8]	Difficulty for choosing the most suitable model for a specific case			
[8]	Models are rarely developed as a simulation framework i.e., without guidelines for future use	Guiding the selection of the most suitable OB model in each specific case	Integrated	Guidelines
[15]	Lack of guidelines for choosing OB models depending on the building type			

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Table 2. Research gaps reported in the literature (Cont.)

Ref.	Research Gap	Towards	Knowledge Domain	Practitioners need
[4]	Combined OB modelling i.e., modelling multiple aspects of OB			
[14]	Lack of connections among different models	Allowing the appropriate simultaneous modelling of different OB aspects	Integrated	Guidelines
[13]	Lack of understanding for defining sequence of behaviours and hierarchies of actions			
[5]	Improving and updating occupant behaviour modelling requirements in building codes, standards, and certifications	Motivating and guiding the integration of OB models into the simulation-aided building design practice	Fundamental	Motivation Guidelines
[5]	Occupant-centric metrics: Imbalance on the research, normalization by building features instead of occupants' aspects, guidelines for their use	Developing tools for improving the building design decision-making process	Fundamental	Guidelines Supporting tools
[5]	Demonstration of occupant-centric design using advance modelling approaches and techniques in actual buildings	Demonstrating the added-value of implementing OB models in the building design practice. Scaling the OB research progress into the building design practice	Fundamental	Guidelines
[45]	it is necessary that the academic researchers and building practitioners community become in- formed about the weaknesses and strengths of the various modelling methods and how the developed models perform in real-world situations.			

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Table 2. Research gaps reported in the literature (Cont.)

Ref.	Research Gap	Towards	Knowledge Domain	Practitioners need
[13]	Lack of standardized methods for simulating OB			
[34]	Guidelines for integration of OB models into current BPS tools			
[17]	Lack of support for co-simulation			
[5]	Improving interoperability of OB models and BPS	Developing supporting BPS tools that integrate OB models thus, reducing the time and effort required by the BPS users	Supporting tools	BPS Software capabilities
[17]	Inflexibility of behaviour software modules			
[15]	A knowledge gap exists between the integration of occupant behaviour models and current energy simulation software.			
[8]	Lack of integration of OB models in BPS software			
[5]	Communication strategies of BPS results using advance OB models	Post-processing BPS results to better inform the decision-making process	Supporting tools	BPS Software capabilities

323 covered in the literature (i.e., geographically from developed countries in the northern
324 hemisphere; according to the building use, residential and commercial buildings; regarding
325 occupant actions, window, lighting, shading, HVAC systems operation) [4], is required to
326 allow developing models for missing contexts, testing the scalability of developed models and
327 defining a hierarchy of actions. The last aspect is fundamental for the integration of OB models
328 into the design practice [17] (see Section 3.5).

329 Developments in the data collection field go in parallel with the evolution of the modelling
330 front where **it is urgent** to establish standardized guidelines and systematic procedures for
331 developing new models and documenting them [13,45]. Similarly, standardized and
332 methodical model evaluation and validation protocols are required [4,14,17,34,45]. Most of the
333 models are developed splitting a single dataset into two parts for model development (training)
334 and *internal* validation, respectively, and are therefore presented without proper *external*
335 validation (including data from different contexts). Additionally, developed models must be
336 tested in different building types, locations, seasons, etc. All in all, the robustness, scalability
337 and transferability of OB models is not well understood [5,13,14,20,34].

338 In the simulation field three main aspects need to be addressed [5,44]. First, it is essential to
339 develop occupant-centric metrics with corresponding guidelines for their implementation.
340 Currently, the scope of the metrics used is limited to energy and comfort aspects, which are
341 normalised by building features instead of occupant-related factors. Second, the development
342 and demonstration of design methodologies using advanced OB modelling approaches need
343 further investigation. Third, the advances in the OB field need to be demonstrated in real
344 scenarios and building design applications. Filling these gaps will allow designing buildings
345 that are robust to OB while reducing the energy consumption and promoting occupants'
346 wellbeing.

347 Regarding the integrated knowledge, several aspects emerge. First, guidelines for model
 348 integration need to be formulated together with the model documentation [13,15,34,45]. The
 349 lack of such guidelines results in researchers using different integration strategies, presenting
 350 the models without a simulation framework, and increasing the difficulty of making models
 351 interchangeable. Second, the most suitable modelling approach depends on the simulation aim
 352 and context, thus requiring the definition of qualitative and quantitative selection criteria [5,8].
 353 Equally important, new OB modules need to be developed to include advanced modelling
 354 approaches in current BPS software [33].

355 Finally, based on the information presented in this section, a conceptual map of the main
 356 issues that need to be addressed for integrating OB modelling into the simulation-aided
 357 building design practice is presented in Figure 3.

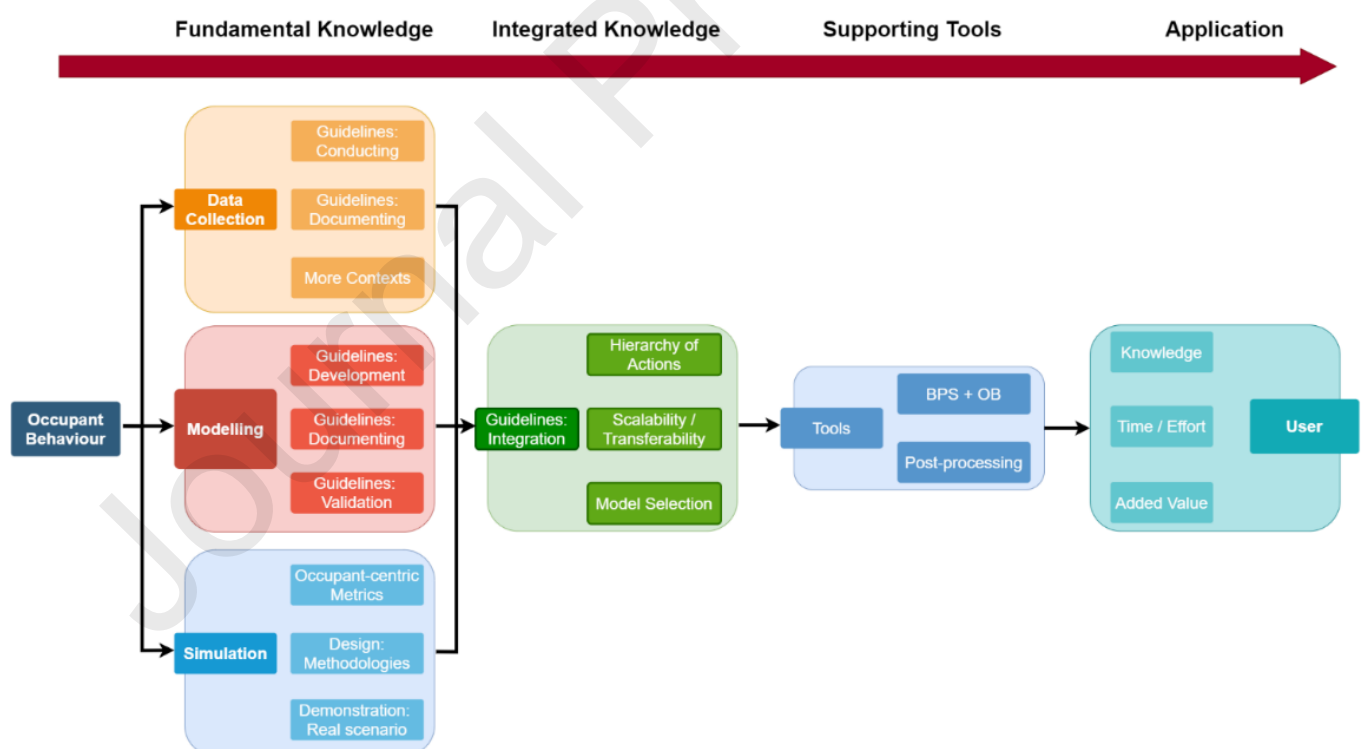


Figure 3. Conceptual map - OB research gap

358

3. Integrating occupant behaviour in BPS

Following a logical workflow with the steps a user would need to address with the knowledge and tools available today, the literature is analysed to identify the propositions for facing each of the steps (Sections 3.2 - 3.6) and to draw a research pathway towards a full integration of advanced OB modelling approaches into the simulation-aided building design process. Yet, the discussion starts in Section 3.1 highlighting the added value of including OB models and supporting design practices.

3.1. Value proposition

It is necessary to explicitly review the advantages of OB models since the different stakeholders related to the building design practice are often not well informed about the added-value of this approach, the contractors are typically not adding resources, neither budget nor time, to the projects for this, and codes, standards, and green certifications do not yet require or guide the application of advanced OB models [9,46–48].

Current standard schedules and nominal densities conventionally used to represent OB oversimplify human-building interaction [4]. As a result, buildings do not achieve the desired performance; building systems are over- or undersized; payback periods are wrongly estimated and investment decisions misled [32,49]. With Advanced OB modelling techniques modellers would have the ability to explore different occupant-related scenarios, assess building resilience, and quantify the potential for adaptive behaviour to achieve comfort in extreme situations [46]. A summary of studies highlighting the added value of using OB models in the building design practice is presented in Table 3.

380

Table 3. Summary of studies showing added-value from OB models

Ref.	Simulation aim	Design stage	OB Models	Highlights
[32]	Best performing shading strategy	Preliminary / Detailed Design	Dynamic and stochastic models for lighting and blind operation	Without the OB models suboptimal strategies would be chosen. Dynamic models captured the influence of the design alternatives on OB. Therefore, the design decision-making process was better informed.
[50]	Optimize façade design and fenestration geometry considering energy use	Conceptual design	Stochastic models for: Occupancy, lighting and equipment use, thermostat adjustment and blinds operation	Building's design alternatives could lead to changes in the indoor environment. Occupants are encouraged to use building components (e.g., blinds) towards reducing energy use. Optimal configuration calculated using dynamic OB (two-way human building interaction).
[51]	Evaluating thermal comfort	Conceptual design	Stochastic models for window operation	Stochastic models can in principle better capture the dynamic nature of occupants' actions, the study showed that a standard model can over-predict comfort.
[52]	Optimize façade design and fenestration geometry for thermal comfort	Conceptual design	Stochastic models for window operation	The deterministic model likely overpredicted thermal comfort and underestimated the need for cooling measures. The stochastic approach seemed to better model the dynamic nature of occupants' actions and optimal solutions resulted in more shading elements.
[53]	Identifying the most influential aspects of energy needs	Conceptual design	Stochastic models for presence; windows, shading, and lighting use; heating set-point temperature adjustment.	Parameters identify for further optimisation: for example, intensive opening of windows and the temperature set-point had a more significant effect on heating needs than the orientation or the performance of the building.
[54]	Defining HVAC systems and evaluating performance of ground source heat pumps	Detailed design	Probabilistic model for Air conditioning operation	This study investigated thermal imbalance, building load, and heat pump performance. Information that can be used to inform design of HVAC systems and heat pumps considering the occupant behaviour, in this case the operation of the air conditioning units.
[55]	Sizing HVAC systems	Detailed design	Stochastic model for generating lighting, plug-load, and occupancy profiles	The standard schedules used in practice are reasonable, though conservative compared to measured values for predicting peak internal gains, relative to stochastic synthetic schedules.
[56]	Identifying optimal occupant's seating position and orientation considering visual comfort	Interior design	Blinds operation model	Performance prediction based on simulation using simple assumptions may deviate from actual performance and lead to a wrong decision in selecting appropriate furniture layout.

Table 3. Summary of studies showing added-value from OB models (Cont.)

Ref.	Simulation aim	Design stage	OB Models	Highlights
[57]	Assessment of Robustness of energy performance of Zero-Net-Energy (ZNE) homes	ZNE Design	Occupant's diversity represented by OB parameters defined for different energy use attitudes: austerity, standard, and wasteful	Diversity in occupant behaviour styles can be more disadvantageous for ZNE performance than climate change. In this case wasteful style occupants can double energy consumption compared with the standard occupants. OB plays an essential role when designing net-zero buildings.
[58]	Assessment of the robustness of building's energy and comfort performance against OB	Code compliance & Building certifications	Stochastic model for generating schedules for: occupancy, hot water and electricity consumption, heating set point temperature and openings of windows	Poor robustness identified for heating demand, total energy use, and hours of discomfort The heating set point temperature, electricity use, and window openings behaviour are the main occupant parameters impacting thermal comfort
[59]	Assessment of building's energy and comfort performance	Code compliance & Building certifications	Stochastic models for occupancy, lighting, and blind use	The results show the deviation between the conventional and advanced OB modelling approaches in the predicted energy and daylight performance. The stochastic OB modelling approach – by capturing the influence of design alterations over the occupant behaviour and vice versa – can realistically predict energy and daylight performance.
[60]	Assessment of energy, economic and emissions savings from renovation strategy based on thermal insulation and windows upgrades	Retrofitting	Occupant's diversity represented by OB parameters defined for different energy use attitudes: standard and wasteful	The energy retrofit is economically and energetically feasible for a standard building occupation, but sometimes wrong habits can reduce the convenience, if energy-intensive behaviours occur
[61]	Assessment of energy and economic savings from renovation strategy based on thermal insulation	Retrofitting	Stochastic model for air conditioning operation	Results show there is a significant overestimation of cooling energy saving by standard-based AC setting. This results in overestimating the net present value. The study encourages using stochastic models for better informing retrofitting strategies
[49]	Estimation of electricity demand and feasibility of on-site generation using PV panels	Retrofitting	Electricity and gas demand profiles estimated based on occupancy patterns for household type: single senior, single adult, seniors couple, adults couple, three adults, single parent house- hold and nuclear family.	Renovation solution that considers the influence of occupants in the building performance with the objective of decreasing uncertainties related to energy savings and return of investments.

383 As shown in Table 3, the benefits of OB models pertain different stages of the building life
384 cycle. In *early architectural design or conceptual design stages*, it has been shown [50–52]
385 that advanced OB modelling can help decide over factors such as aspect ratio and orientation
386 of the building, roof type, glazing fraction, position of the windows, shading type and
387 configuration towards reducing energy consumption, enhancing comfort, or promoting the
388 benefits of natural ventilation. In other words, dynamic OB models allow the designer to assess
389 how design alternatives influence adaptive behaviours to maximise comfort while reducing
390 energy consumption. Concerning a more *advanced design* stage, mathematical and statistical
391 techniques (e.g., factorial design) can be used together with advanced OB modelling
392 approaches to find the most relevant parameters affecting specific performance indicators (PIs),
393 e.g., heating and cooling demand. By accounting for the occupant-related uncertainty and
394 describing PIs with probability distributions or expected ranges, it is possible to achieve more
395 robust (i.e., the variability of the PI against OB is reduced) and resilient designs [32,53].
396 Concerning *building systems*, OB should be considered in their selection and sizing process.
397 Occupants' preferences in terms of the indoor environment, occupancy, appliance use levels,
398 and the control flexibility the occupants have with each system influence system performance.
399 An advanced OB representation gives designers the opportunity of accounting for the
400 occupants' diversity and their interaction with the building systems. Modellers are better
401 informed to find more comprehensive and optimised solutions within an expected range of OB
402 than if they use a single, averaged or conservative deterministic schedule [54,55].

403 The evaluation of IEQ is another important front that can profit from advanced OB modelling
404 approaches. For example, with stochastic models capturing the occupant interaction with
405 shading systems, daylight levels and glare can be realistically predicted for proper visual
406 comfort assessment. This information can be used to inform interior designers regarding the

407 best desk layout and seated positions [56]. By including realistic lighting and blinds use in the
408 design of lighting and shading systems, appropriate design decisions can be taken improving
409 visual comfort [62]. Knowing the occupants' diverse needs and preferences regarding indoor
410 air quality and thermal comfort, the most suitable ventilation strategy can be determined [63].

411 Energy-related OB has a high relative impact on the energy performance of nearly zero-
412 energy buildings (NZEBs) [49,57], plus-energy buildings etc., making the use of advanced OB
413 models particularly important in this context. To ensure that the designs achieve desired
414 performance targets and that they are code-compliant, the uncertainty added by the occupants
415 needs to be minimised and the design robustness to the OB maximised [58]. To this end,
416 multiple OB patterns can be used to generate PI probability distributions, and stochastic models
417 can capture the influence of design alternatives over the occupants and vice versa, hence, the
418 building performance and its potential variation can be realistically predicted [57–59].
419 Furthermore, the electricity demand can be better estimated so that on-site electricity
420 generation (i.e. using PV panels) can be properly designed [49]. Finally, energy conservation
421 measures (ECM) and retrofit strategies can be better designed and evaluated using advanced
422 OB modelling approaches. It has been demonstrated that energy savings associated to ECMs
423 could be significantly overestimated using traditional modelling approaches. This in turn
424 misleads the economic assessment, i.e., Net Present Value (NPV) is overestimated [60,61,64]
425 and the ECM prioritization process wrongly executed [65].

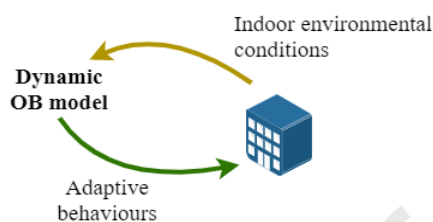
426 To summarize, there are three main characteristics of the OB models that add value to the
427 building design process over standard representations (see Table 4).

428

Table 4. Potential of OB models

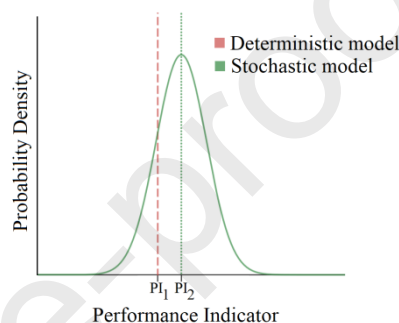
Two-way human-building interaction

Assessing how design alternatives influence adaptive behaviours to maximise comfort while reducing energy consumption



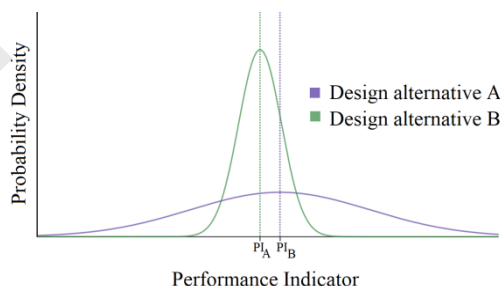
Uncertainty in PI

Estimating what is the range or expected value of the building performance considering occupants diversity - e.g., Probability distribution of PI



Robustness against OB

Assessing what is the impact of the OB on the performance of different design alternatives



429 3.2. Identifying influential occupant behaviour

430 The BPS process integrates aspects of building design, weather and environmental
 431 information, and OB to estimate building performance. The complex and dynamic interaction
 432 between these elements and the non-linear nature of involved physical phenomena make the
 433 BPS process challenging [66]. Additional complexity from advanced OB models can enhance
 434 the accuracy and robustness of BPS [4], yet a balance between accuracy and complexity is
 435 required to avoid the so-called curse of dimensionality, i.e., introducing too many parameters

436 with respect to available data. This is an issue that leads to further difficulty when identifying
437 the most significant parameters within the model, so that calibrating or using BPS models
438 become demanding tasks [8,66]. Consequently, it is essential to identify the elements of OB to
439 which the BPS process is more sensitive, so that each element can be determined with the
440 appropriate level of accuracy. Nonetheless, it has been demonstrated that the impact of the OB
441 is case- and context-specific and that defining general guidelines is impossible [32] thus,
442 identifying the most relevant aspects of the OB needs to be an integral step of the BPS
443 procedure.

444 Sensitivity analysis (SA) and uncertainty analysis (UA) are used to reduce model complexity
445 associated with BPS [23]: simplifying a model by screening parameters; performing robustness
446 analysis; validating a model; and evaluating the model's sensitivity to errors [67]. SA is a
447 method that quantifies how the uncertainty of the inputs is propagated to the uncertainty of the
448 output. It focuses on ranking the input parameters regarding their contribution to the output
449 uncertainty. On the other hand, UA analyses the response of the simulation output considering,
450 along with input variations, the lack of knowledge and errors of the model. Together, they
451 quantify uncertainties in the inputs and outputs of the BPS process [23,66]. In this view,
452 O'Neill et al. [66] aimed at establishing systematic guidelines for the application of SA
453 discussing: *input categories*, such as urban-level and building-level design parameters,
454 building envelope characteristics, ventilation and infiltration parameters, HVAC and other
455 mechanical systems, OB aspects, economic factors, weather information, control strategies;
456 *output categories*, namely building load and energy consumption, occupant thermal and visual
457 comfort, indoor environmental factors, outdoor environmental factors, economic factors,
458 equipment performance; *probability density functions* (PDFs) associated to uncertainties;
459 *sampling methods* to propagate the uncertainty of the inputs through the whole model; *SA*

460 *methodologies*, such as screening, local, and global approaches; *available tools* for performing
461 such SA studies (readers are referred to [66] for details).

462 As stressed by Yu et al. [23] there is a limited cover of SA and UA studies dealing with OB
463 parameters. They showed that the main focus of SA and UA studies on OB is understanding
464 the impact of internal gains and presence while adaptive behaviours are assumed to be fixed
465 scenarios. These studies assume occupancy scenarios and probability distributions for
466 occupant-related inputs or use synthetic profiles from OB models. Further, O'Neill et al.
467 showed that OB is mostly considered together with building envelope and mechanical systems
468 parameters to understand its impact on building load and energy consumption as well as
469 occupants' thermal and visual comfort.

470 SA and UA studies might be infeasible within the simulation-aided building design practice
471 because of the computational cost and time required i.e., large amount of runs required to
472 evaluate all the parameter variations. Alternatively, a fast screening method was proposed for
473 identifying the most relevant OB aspects as part of the fit-for-purpose strategy developed by
474 Gaetani et al. [32] for choosing the most suitable modelling approach (for details see Section
475 3.3). It quantifies in one simulation the influence of OB aspects. Instead of using different OB
476 scenarios, it calculates impact indices for each aspect of the OB, which are expressed in terms
477 of ratios extracted from the building energy balance.

478 **3.3. Choosing the most suitable OB modelling approach**

479 For the most influential aspects of the BPS, the practitioner have the option of improving the
480 estimations to reduce epistemic uncertainty or improving their representation to better account
481 for their uncertainty [32,46]. As illustrated in Section 2.3, guidelines for choosing the most
482 suitable model are still missing. To this end, this section discusses the findings reported in the
483 literature regarding the application of advanced OB models considering: *type of behaviour*

484 (e.g., adaptive behaviours) [3,4,32,68–71]; *building design stage* [3,18,23,55,65,72–77];
485 *spatial scale* of the study, i.e., whether it is at room or building level [3,9,23,65,78]. This is
486 because the aforementioned dimensions dictate the modelling requirements in terms of
487 resolution, complexity, and accuracy [23,32,79].

488 Advanced OB modelling can be static or dynamic regarding the interaction with the BPS
489 tool. The former approach generates inputs for the building energy model at the beginning of
490 the simulation, while the latter has continuous and two-way interaction with the simulation,
491 i.e., at each time step the output of a dynamic OB model affects the simulation, which in turn
492 generates inputs for the OB model [65]. Therefore, presence and non-adaptive behaviours,
493 which are mainly driven by contextual factors (e.g., occupant's routines), are better represented
494 by static models. Instead, depending on the degree of accuracy required, adaptive behaviours
495 can be characterized either by static or dynamic models. For example, when estimating the
496 total annual energy consumption of a building stock, the averaging effects of OB at large scales
497 may allow the use of static models. In contrast, if the aim of the study is estimating the
498 distribution of the peak load of a building, the interactions of the occupants with building
499 systems such as thermostats and windows become highly relevant requiring dynamic models
500 [3,9,23,65,78].

501 Presence and non-adaptive behaviours are typically modelled by schedules, discrete-time
502 Markov models, and survival models [3]. Schedules can be fixed corresponding to *standards*
503 (e.g., ASHRAE Standard 90.1), according to *monitoring data*, or considering different *types of*
504 *occupants* (e.g., high/low occupancy scenarios) [3,68]. Markov-chain models predict the
505 likelihood of a state to happen depending on the state of the previous time step together with
506 state transition probabilities. The states can be defined as *arrivals*, *departures*, and *breaks* for
507 office buildings [3] while in residential buildings they can be defined, for instance, as *at home*
508 *and active*, *at home and sleeping*, *not at home* [69]. Survival models estimate the time until an

509 event happens, such as considering the arrival time, when the occupant will leave, or how much
510 time passes until the TV is turned off after turning it on [70,71]. Adaptive behaviours can be
511 modelled using schedules, rule-based models (i.e., deterministic models), stochastic models
512 such as Bernoulli models, discrete-time or discrete-event Markov models, and data-driven
513 models based on machine learning techniques such as artificial neural networks, deep learning
514 algorithms, and decision trees [3,4,32]. Furthermore, it has been highlighted that despite
515 survival models are better suited for presence and non-adaptive behaviours, they can be
516 modified for adaptive behaviours. However, they are only recommended for infrequently
517 executed actions such as shading systems use. This is because the survival curves are given at
518 particular environmental conditions that can be significantly influenced by the adaptive
519 behaviours [3].

520 Concerning building life cycle stages, some suggestions are proposed for specific modelling
521 approaches. For example, Bernoulli models (i.e., low complexity stochastic models) predict
522 the likelihood of the state of a building system given defined predicting parameters [73]. Since
523 they are computationally efficient and do not require much information, they are suitable for
524 estimating the performance at the whole building level during early design [74]. However, they
525 should not be used for comparing design alternatives or quantifying occupant comfort metrics.
526 This is because generally Bernoulli models do not use indoor environmental conditions as
527 predicting variables. Therefore, the impact of design alternatives on the behaviour cannot be
528 captured [3]. Moreover, these models predict the state of the building rather than the occupant
529 action (e.g., having a window open vs. an occupant opening a window). Thus, they cannot
530 predict the number of interactions between the occupant and the building systems as a proxy
531 for occupant comfort [23]. An ABM represents the occupants as individual agents capable of
532 interacting with other agents and their surrounding environment. The agents are characterized
533 by personal attributes and preferences along with rules that define their interactions [18,72]. In

534 this way, this modelling approach can be used to represent with a great level of detail the OB
535 and its relationship with the building performance considering not only environmental factors
536 but psychological, social, cultural, and economic characteristics of the occupants. Therefore,
537 an ABM can be used to reduce the occupant-related uncertainty when sizing building
538 equipment, designing NZEBs, or assessing occupant comfort [75–77]. Nevertheless, ABMs
539 have limited scalability. At small spatial scales (e.g., room level) few occupants can be
540 modelled using an ABM, but at larger scales (e.g., building level) the number of occupants
541 makes this approach impractical [15,16,55,72]. As an alternative, static-stochastic OB models
542 can be used to generate profiles that account for occupant diversity. These models can be
543 developed from monitored data to generate heat gains and electricity profiles for OB such as
544 occupancy, equipment use, and lighting use. Using these synthetic profiles as inputs of BPS,
545 peak loads and total energy use estimations can be more reliable for properly sizing, for
546 example, HVAC and PV systems [55,65].

547 An important milestone was the fit-for-purpose strategy developed by Gaetani et al. [32] that
548 aims at defining the most suitable level of complexity required for representing each OB aspect
549 within the BPS study. Thus, their approach is specifically developed for supporting the building
550 design practice in the decision-making process as well as in the selection of the most suitable
551 modelling approach. The core of the strategy comprises three sequential steps: the impact
552 indices method [80] (presented in Section 3.2), the diversity patterns method [79], and the
553 Mann-Whitney U test [79]. First, the impact indices method is performed, and the lowest level
554 of complexity (i.e., schedules and rule-based models) should be imposed for the OB aspects
555 that show low influence on the PIs [32,80]. For the ones with a high impact, the diversity
556 patterns method should be applied by using schedules or rule-based models to define low/high
557 variations. Then, simulations are run to calculate the PI. This approach is applied to test the
558 sensitivity of the results to the variations. Thus, the definition of the diversity patterns becomes

559 crucial [32,79]. In other words, while the impact indices method extracts the contribution of
560 each OB aspect using a single schedule, the diversity patterns method tests the sensitivity
561 against the variation produced by schedules representing low/high OB scenarios. Finally, if
562 the diversity patterns method is not conclusive, the Mann-Whitney U test would be performed.
563 It assesses if the results from the low OB level and the high OB level simulations (i.e., from
564 the diversity patterns) are significantly different, and ultimately which aspects of the OB are
565 causing the spread in the results and are therefore worth focusing on [32,79].

566 In summary, systematic, and general guidelines for supporting the building design
567 practitioner in selecting the most suitable modelling approach do not exist. Furthermore, the
568 suggestions presented are not definitive since they are drawn from a limited number of studies
569 that compare and apply advanced OB modelling approaches. These suggestions might be
570 conditional to the context of each study. Despite them being a good starting point, a systematic
571 methodology for selecting the modelling approach is an urgent matter in the field [5]. The fit-
572 for-purpose methodology developed by Gaetani et al. [32] is the only quantitative method
573 proposed. Still, its demonstration is limited to office buildings, heating, and cooling demand
574 estimation, and using virtual experiments instead of real case studies. Further, like any
575 approach, its effectiveness is conditional to the validity of the specific models a practitioner
576 chooses.

577 ***3.4. Choosing and adapting the OB model***

578 Carlucci et al. [4] have made available a comprehensive database containing more than 300
579 OB models published in the literature. They cover OB aspects such as presence, window
580 operation, lighting operation, thermostat adjustment, shading operation, appliance use, and
581 clothing adjustment. Further, these aspects were developed from data for 17 countries, 14
582 climate zones based on the Köppen-Geiger classification, and various building uses (offices,

583 commercial, residential, educational, hotels). Identifying the most suitable OB model and
584 transferring it to a given deployment space requires analysing the motivation, drivers, and
585 actions that characterise the OB, and the different dimensions of the deployment space (for a
586 detailed definition refer to [78]); the evaluation and validation of OB models; procedures to
587 transfer a model from the development space to the deployment space. On the one hand, the
588 OB in buildings is influenced by environmental, time-related, contextual, psychological,
589 physiological, social, and economic factors. On the other hand, OB models are mainly
590 developed using environmental and time-related factors as predictive variables [13].
591 Accordingly, these models have hidden information and imprinted characteristics of the
592 occupants that go beyond the predictive variables [20]. Therefore, the extrapolation from a
593 development space to a deployment space must be carefully evaluated [14].

594 In the view of drivers and factors affecting OB, deep reviews have been conducted to
595 understand the influential factors for different actions across different building types [13,81].
596 While definitive and general conclusions have not been reached yet, the results presented
597 provide an idea of the differences that might exist between different contexts. For example,
598 indoor and outdoor temperatures are the main drivers of window operation in both residential
599 and office buildings. However, indoor air quality seems to be a relevant factor only for
600 residential buildings. Additionally, while in office buildings arrival and departure times
601 influence the frequency of the interactions with windows, in residential buildings this
602 frequency is related to the different types of activities (e.g., cooking) [13,44]. Lighting and
603 shading system uses are commonly studied simultaneously in office or commercial buildings
604 [13]. This is because of their high correlation and their combined effect on visual comfort. The
605 interactions of the occupants with these systems are mainly driven by time-related factors (e.g.,
606 arrival and departure events, absence duration) and visual, comfort-related factors (e.g., work
607 plane illuminance and glare) [62]. Instead, turning off the lights is mainly driven by departure

608 times rather than illuminance levels [82]. In residential buildings the research on shading
609 systems use is limited. However, it is observed to be noticeably infrequent (e.g., once shadings
610 are open, they remain in this state for long periods) and not only driven by time-related and
611 environmental factors but sometimes also privacy issues. Further, lighting use is mainly driven
612 by time-related factors, type of activities, and illuminance levels [20]. Furthermore, aspects
613 related to the building orientation can have an impact on OB. For example, drivers and
614 frequency of shading operation could be different whether shading systems are located in a
615 north or south façade [64]. Concerning air-conditioning, thermostats, fans, and doors, the
616 indoor and outdoor temperatures are the main factors influencing their operation [13].
617 Additionally, in office buildings, the spatial scale has a big impact on OB such as lighting,
618 shading, and window operation. For instance, in single offices the occupant is more
619 autonomous to decide what to do, whereas in open-space office floors these behaviours are
620 constrained by social interactions [83]. Finally, diversity, preferences, and lifestyles of the
621 occupants have a greater impact in residential buildings, where occupants usually have
622 complete control on the building systems, rather than in office buildings, where OBs could be
623 limited by the building design aspects (e.g., the impossibility to open windows) and centrally
624 controlled systems (e.g., central HVAC units).

625 A second aspect to be considered when choosing a specific OB model is the model
626 development and quality evaluation processes. Notably, Mahdavi and Tahmasebi [84]
627 discussed several necessary conditions for a systematic assessment of the models: the model
628 validation should be performed with a dataset different from the one used for model
629 development; models from a single behavioural study should not be extrapolated to all
630 deployment spaces; measures need to be taken to reduce bias in the evaluation process, i.e., not
631 only an internal validation process should be performed but an external evaluation, double-
632 blind studies, and round-robin tests as well [23,70,84]. In consequence, models with

633 insufficient documentation or simple evaluation tests, and models developed using short
634 monitoring periods or small sample sizes (e.g., one apartment) cannot be generalized and
635 should be used with caution [23].

636 A third aspect to consider when using an OB model developed for a different context are the
637 mechanisms for transferring the model. Again, studies undertaking this kind of procedures are
638 limited. In general, models are developed and used in the same context, or they are selected
639 without exhaustive criteria and further adaptations. However, an alternative is to obtain
640 calibration data from the context of interest and use it for fitting probability curves of the
641 models to obtain specific model coefficients [62,84,85]. Since existing data is not always
642 available, the development of factors to transfer the models from one context to another would
643 be beneficial to the design practice [86]. For example, in the residential sector, scaling factors
644 have been proposed to adapt an occupancy model developed for the UK to the Canadian context
645 [87]. To do so, the time occupants usually spend in different activities is compared to scale the
646 models accordingly (e.g., from an aggregated point of view, in Canada people spend about 35
647 minutes less at home and awake than people in the UK). This methodology is only suitable
648 assuming that both countries have a similar lifestyle [87].

649 **3.5. Implementing the OB models into the BPS**

650 Advanced OB models are not readily available in most of the commercial BPS tools [5].
651 Therefore, dedicated integration approaches are required. Hong et al. [5] thoroughly reviewed
652 and classified those approaches in: (a) *direct input* where the user defines temporal schedules
653 for thermostat settings, occupancy, lighting, plug loads, and the HVAC system. Here, the user
654 pre-calculates the schedules, so there is no runtime communication between the pre-calculation
655 module and the BPS software; (b) *built-in OB models* in which a dedicated OB module is
656 already implemented within the BPS software. Yet, this type of modules is found in a reduced

657 number of BPS programs [1] and the implemented OB models lack of conclusive evidence of
658 their generalizability [84]; (c) *user functions* that allow the user to write custom functions or
659 codes to incorporate or overwrite supervisory controls without the need for recompiling the
660 BPS engine. Deterministic and stochastic OB models can be included using this methodology;
661 (d) *co-simulation* allowing the use of different simulation tools to be integrated and run
662 simultaneously in a coupled runtime routine. In this latter case, BPS tools specialised on
663 different aspects can be combined to achieve a consistent analysis [5]. For example, an OB
664 module written in Python can be used along with EnergyPlus under a two-way interaction
665 between these components. As a result, dynamic stochastic OB models can be included in the
666 estimation of building performance metrics [88,89]. Nevertheless, OB models have been
667 integrated into BPS software (for a comprehensive list of key integration efforts refer to [5]).
668 For example, Gunay et al. [90] implemented 20 OB models using Energy Management System
669 (EMS) scripts in a user function approach for EnergyPlus. Since this approach lacks
670 interoperability and exchangeability between OB models and BPS tools, the co-simulation
671 approach has gained significant attention [91]. For instance, using Functional Mockup Units
672 (FMU) different simulation tools can be compiled into units, which are then interconnected by
673 the Functional Mockup Interface (FMI) using a combination of XML files, binaries, and C
674 code zipped into a single file [92]. Hong et al. [93] developed the obXML and obFMU tools.
675 The former standardizes the representation and exchange of OB models, while the latter is a
676 software component module working as the engine to compute the OB models. Together they
677 can be used for co-simulation with different BPS software equipped with FMI compatibility.

678 The previous paragraph discussed possibilities for the integration of OB models into the BPS
679 simulation from a technical point of view. Equally important, the hierarchy of OB actions needs
680 to be discussed. It refers to the priority each occupant action has among different options to
681 fulfil the same occupant's need. For example, occupants could either decide to adjust their

682 clothing or to change their thermostat setpoint to achieve thermal comfort. This hierarchy of
683 actions needs to be defined to implement suitable logics within the simulation framework when
684 considering multiple models. This concept becomes relevant when developing ABMs that
685 integrate different behavioural actions, as well as when considering multiple models for
686 representing different behaviours in a BPS study [74]. As highlighted by Stazi et al. [13], few
687 studies have addressed this problem. Some observations indicate that this hierarchy is
688 conditional to the context of the study so that general conclusions cannot be defined [94]. For
689 instance, Langevin et al. [95] noticed that clothing adjustment is preferred in both naturally
690 ventilated and air-conditioned buildings. However, in naturally ventilated buildings window
691 operation is chosen over fan operation whereas in air-conditioned buildings this sequence is
692 reversed. Moreover, Kwak et al. [96] analysed the impact of implementing window and AC
693 operation models, as well as interchanging their order of execution, in the energy consumption
694 of a residential building. As a result, the prediction of the energy consumption has a variation
695 of 7.5%. Considering that different actions have a different impact on occupant comfort and
696 energy consumption, taking into account the behavioural hierarchy and assessing its influence
697 in the BPS simulations is essential [76].

698 ***3.6. Performing the simulation and post-processing results***

699 The inclusion of advanced OB models makes it necessary to review and discuss technical
700 issues such as methods for conducting the simulations, the number of runs required, and
701 methods for analysing the results. From the practitioner perspective, the whole BPS process
702 must minimise model preparation and computational requirements to be feasible within the
703 building design practice [46].

704 Azar et al. [5] exhaustively reviewed studies applying OB modelling formalisms to inform
705 design decisions. They stressed the reduced number of works on this topic despite advances in

706 the modelling field as well as a general focus on providing a proof-of-concept rather than
707 effectively applying the proposed methodologies in actual building design applications. They
708 categorised the research in four main areas: (a) *proposed workflows* such as the fit-for-purpose
709 strategy developed by Gaetani et al. [32] and the best practices book for selecting the most
710 appropriate modelling approach by Gilani and O'Brien [65] (covered in Section 3.3); (b)
711 *parametric design* propositions where the impact of extreme occupant-related conditions are
712 evaluated using the concept of personas [5], i.e., the building performance is evaluated by
713 implementing schedules, densities, or OB models that represent a different type of occupants
714 such as active and passive [97–99], or austerity, normal, and wasteful [100]; (c) *design*
715 *optimization* studies [5] in which geometric design alternatives and spatial layouts are
716 evaluated using advanced OB models along with optimization algorithms (e.g., genetic
717 algorithms, ant colony algorithm). Remarkably, not only energy-related performance indicators
718 are used as optimization objectives but also organizational and productivity metrics; (d)
719 *probabilistic design* methods that exploit the use of advanced OB modelling approaches and
720 minimise the variance of non-deterministic outputs. In other words, this methodology aims to
721 support designs that are robust to the impact of OB [5].

722 Another key point emerges when using stochastic OB models in BPS. Contrary to
723 deterministic studies, a stochastic simulation will calculate a different output each time it is run
724 [65]. Therefore, a criterion must be established for determining the minimum number of
725 simulations required. Researchers often choose the number of simulations based on other
726 references or perform simulations until certain convergence criteria are fulfilled. Different
727 recommendations can be found varying from 10 to 100 simulations [23,32,56,62,64,101]. A
728 common approach for defining the number of simulations is to calculate the mean value and
729 variance of the performance indicators while the number of simulations increases. When the
730 change in those parameters is small, the simulation process can be stopped [102]. Graphically,

731 the cumulative mean of the outputs is plotted, and the simulation process stopped when the
732 curve becomes flat without an upward or downward trend. Quantitatively, the percentage
733 variation of the cumulative output's mean and variance is calculated and when it is smaller than
734 a threshold (i.e., a tolerance) the simulation process is stopped [61].

735 Finally, BPS tools do not post-process the aggregate results from multiple simulation neither
736 visually nor quantitatively. This means the practitioner will be left with a set of results for each
737 design configuration multiplied by the number of design alternatives or scenarios studied. For
738 the latter, the postprocessing and visualization process needs to be performed manually [46].
739 As a result, researchers follow different strategies for analysing and communicating the results,
740 such as: a) box plots of the outputs [32]; b) fitting the outputs to probability distribution
741 functions such as the normal distribution and reporting the output mean value and a confidence
742 interval at a defined significance level [64]; c) data mining of stochastic BPS, which has
743 recently emerged as an alternative for analysing simultaneously all the simulation results to
744 identify the influential aspects of the BPS model. Here, correlation matrices, Pearson
745 correlation coefficients, and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) can be exploited to
746 understand the role of each model parameter in the estimation of the performance indicators
747 [53].

748 4. Discussion

749 This article critically reviewed the efforts aiming at transferring the knowledge developed
750 within the OB research field to the simulation-aided building design process. While involuntary
751 exclusion of relevant articles can be a limitation of this work, the PRISMA methodology was
752 followed to minimise this risk. In line with the research questions in Section 1.3, this review
753 covers findings related to the building design process. Building operation and control were
754 considered out of scope.

755 One of the most important points addressed by this review is why advanced OB models
756 should be included into BPS (see Section 3.1). The advantages and potential of using advanced
757 OB models over standard representations such as fixed, periodic schedules go beyond having
758 an exact description of the OB. This is especially important since, as stressed in Section 3.4,
759 OB is influenced not only by environmental and time-related factors but economic, socio-
760 cultural, psychological, and physiological ones as well. Thus, developing generalized models
761 entirely replacing standard schedules will be virtually impossible. Instead, the use of OB
762 models gives the practitioner the possibility of a) understanding how the diversity of the
763 occupants influences the building performance and b) predicting the probability distribution of
764 PIs, i.e., the likelihood of a PI falling within a certain range. Second, dynamic OB models allow
765 considering the two-way interaction between the occupants and the building and its systems.
766 While the occupants affect the building performance passively (e.g., through OPA-related heat
767 gains) and actively (e.g., adjusting the thermostat), the building design can influence the OB
768 (e.g., the location and size of the windows could encourage occupants to adopt natural over
769 mechanical ventilation modes). Including this interaction gives the designer the possibility to
770 design a building that promotes energy-efficient behaviours and is more robust to the impact
771 of the OPA. Accounting for the occupant-related uncertainty allows the designer to make
772 better-informed decisions, e.g., avoiding overestimation of energy savings from ECMs.

773 It was also highlighted that it is not always necessary to use advanced OB models (See
774 Section 3.3). Each case has specific requirements in terms of OB and energy model complexity
775 and accuracy depending on the deployment space (i.e., climate, location, building type, use,
776 and systems, occupant characteristics, spatial and temporal scale). As a result, identifying the
777 OB aspects that significantly impact the PIs needs to be an integral part of the BPS process. To
778 this end, a fit-for-purpose strategy is required so that the most adequate level of complexity can
779 be imposed for each of them. General methodologies using a screening method are

780 recommended, so that subsequent analysis focuses only on a small set of parameters reducing
781 computational cost without compromising reliability. Furthermore, since OB models are not
782 always the answer, standard schedules should be reviewed and updated to improve the OB
783 representation. Similarly, proposing a variety of standard schedules that represent different OB
784 scenarios tailored to different building life cycle stages and simulation purposes can be
785 beneficial for the practitioner to better assess the building performance.

786 Further, the literature has shown preliminary observations regarding which modelling
787 approaches should be used or avoided for the different dimensions of the deployment space.
788 Regarding occupancy (i.e., presence) and non-adaptive behaviours (e.g., use of appliances)
789 static models are recommended, while for adaptive behaviours the approach could be static or
790 dynamic. The latter is especially recommended if different design alternatives are explored or
791 if the PIs are related to occupant comfort. In these cases, the two-way interaction between the
792 occupants and the building becomes highly relevant. Further, at large spatial scales (e.g., whole
793 high-rise building) or when considering aggregated PIs (e.g., annual energy use), averaging
794 effects are responsible for a reduced impact of the occupant diversity compared to small spatial
795 scales (e.g., room level) or disaggregated PIs (e.g., peak load). Consequently, while in the first
796 scenario low complexity models can be used, in the second one higher complexity is
797 recommended. Further research is yet required to define systematic and fit-for-purpose
798 guidelines for selecting the most suitable modelling approach.

799 This critical review also identifies two main points that required attention for promoting the
800 use of OB models. On the one hand, it is urgent to define systematic guidelines for evaluating
801 and documenting the models including not only an internal but also an external and double-
802 blind process; conduct systematic monitoring campaigns to compare the differences in OB in
803 different contexts; perform comparative studies to assess the generalizability and applicability
804 of the models. These efforts will potentially help to define coefficients for transferring the

805 models from one context to another, hence enhancing the generalizability of OB models. On
806 the other hand, understanding and defining behavioural hierarchies are required to specify
807 which logic should be used to execute multiple OB models.

808 Regarding the automation of the BPS process, this is an important aspect to be considered
809 in each of the steps so that practitioner's time and effort is minimised. For example, a pre-
810 processing engine can generate a set of synthetic schedules identifying diverse scenarios
811 depending on the application (e.g., equipment sizing, robust design), possibly along with an
812 estimated probability measure on how often a scenario is expected to occur. This would allow
813 designers giving appropriate weight to extreme OBs with a high potential impact on PIs but
814 happening rarely. Then, the user could decide which subset of scenarios is worth investigating
815 further. For stochastic OB models, a default tolerance threshold can be defined together with a
816 maximum number of runs. The simulation would stop when one of these criteria is met. Finally,
817 the outputs can be automatically visualized, and representative statistics computed.

818 Finally, the reviewed articles show the possibility of exploiting the potential of advanced
819 OB models by performing parametric studies, design optimization, and probabilistic design.
820 Yet, few studies have demonstrated these strategies using OB models. Further, the stochastic
821 nature of the models introduces a level of difficulty that can be overcome by automating
822 processes (e.g., running the simulations, calculating convergence parameters) and by applying
823 statistical and data-mining techniques for analysing the outputs to, in the end, inform the design
824 decision.

825 All in all, with the knowledge and tools available today, the integration of OB modelling
826 into simulation-building design practice is a complex process, almost completely manual,
827 without proper guidance. As shown in Figure 4 (left – Today simulation framework), on top of
828 the traditional steps problem definition, development of the energy model and informing the

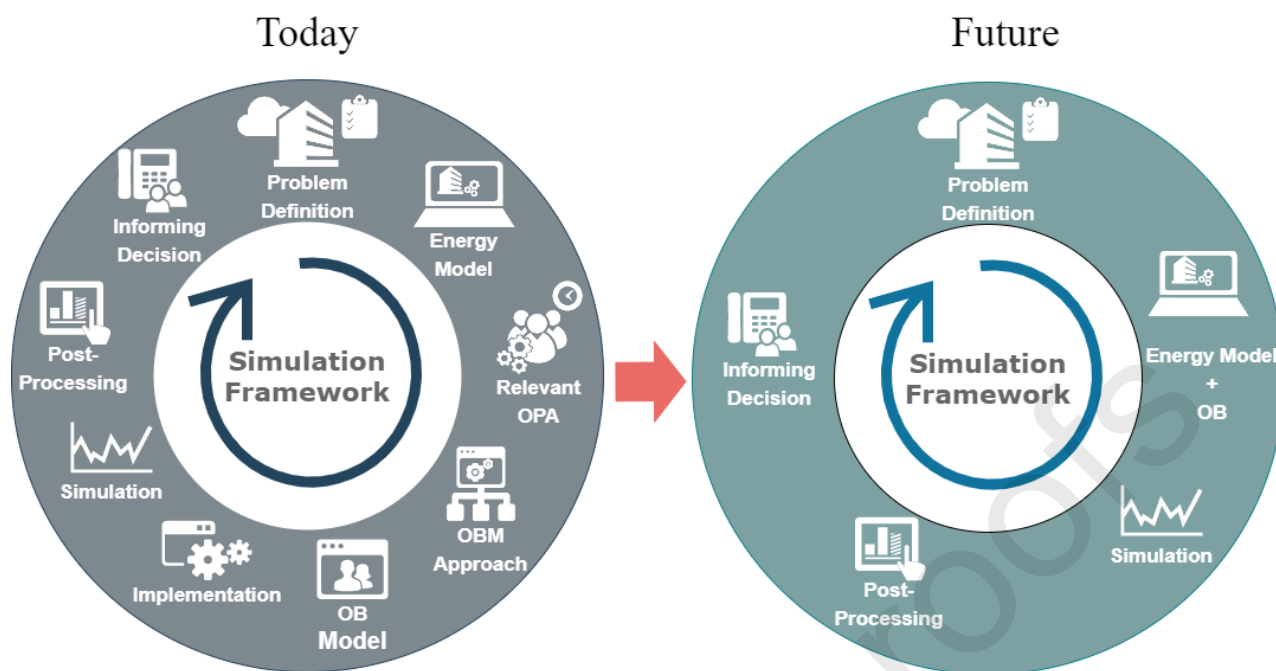


Figure 4. Simulation framework

829 decision of a BPS study, the user needs to identify relevant OPA, choose the OB modelling
 830 approaches, choose an OB model, and implement the model. Furthermore, performing the
 831 simulation and post-processing the results gain additional complexity due to the stochastic
 832 nature of OB models and increased numbers of simulations required. This paper presented
 833 solutions towards guiding and simplifying this process but more importantly, highlighted the
 834 challenges that need to be addressed for answering to the BPS user needs and fully integrating
 835 the OB models into a BPS framework as in Figure 4 (Right – Future simulation framework).

836 5. Conclusions

837 Among other endeavours, the research community is aiming at improving the representation
 838 of the energy-related OB and, at the same time, better accounting for the occupant-related
 839 uncertainty for bridging the energy performance gap. However, as illustrated in Section 2.3,
 840 several barriers are preventing the use of advanced OB modelling approaches in the simulation-
 841 aided building design field. To this aim, a simulation framework was proposed to establish a

842 clear path for integrating the OB model in the building design practice. The literature on this
843 topic was critically analysed for synthesising the practical solutions developed in each step.

844 First, it was highlighted the added value of better representing the stochastic and dynamic
845 nature of the OB through advanced modelling approaches. Across the different building design
846 stages, advanced OB models contribute to desired building performance, sizing building
847 systems, estimating payback periods, and informing investment decisions. Ultimately, it will
848 be possible to achieve the targets imposed by the different policies for mitigating environmental
849 problems by improving the building robustness and resilience. Second, the strategies and
850 solutions for identifying the most influential OB aspects, the most suitable modelling approach,
851 and the most adequate model were reviewed. It is stressed that these steps are case specific and
852 thus require a fit-for-purpose strategy fully integrated within the simulation framework. To
853 reach this point, it is urgent to define the scalability and applicability OB models to different
854 contexts. In parallel, simulation software needs to evolve for automatically integrating the OB
855 models, performing multiple simulations resulting from the application of stochastic models,
856 and post-processing the aggregated results. This will reduce the time and effort a user needs to
857 invest for performing the BPS.

858 In summary, the findings of this work aim to serve as guidelines for researchers and
859 practitioners pursuing the integration of OB models in the building design process and
860 performance evaluation. Likewise, our study presented the most urgent matters that need to be
861 addressed for encouraging the application of OB models in building design processes.

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1186 **Occupant behaviour modelling and building design practice:**
1187 **Towards bridging the gap between the academy and the industry**

1188 Highlights

- 1189
- The application of OB models in the building design process is reviewed.
- 1190
- The role of OB models for a robust and resilient built environment is highlighted.
- 1191
- The gap between the occupant behaviour research field and the end-users is mapped.
- 1192
- A simulation framework for integrating OB models in the design practice is
- 1193
- proposed.
- 1194
- Criteria for evaluating, choosing, and adapting OB models are given.

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1197 Declaration of interests

1198

1199 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal

1200 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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1202 The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be

1203 considered as potential competing interests:

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