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5 In-situ monitoring of occupant behavior in residential buildings – a timely review

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Jia Du^{1*}, Wei Pan¹, Cong Yu¹

7 Abstract

8 Occupant behavior has a significant impact on building energy consumption and sustainable 9 development of the community. In-situ monitoring of occupant behavior is one of the most effective 10 and widely used research methods. It collects data of occupant behavior using smart sensors in the 11 natural environment and, if appropriately designed and applied, can effectively avoid bias in the results. However, previous studies have rarely discussed how to design and apply in-situ monitoring activities 12 13 in residential buildings. This paper, through a comprehensive and critical literature review, aims to 14 close the knowledge gap on in-situ monitoring of occupant behavior in residential buildings. Multiple 15 review techniques were used. First, a conceptual framework of monitoring activities was proposed 16 based on a narrative appraisal of related publications. Second, the body of literature was established

¹ Department of Civil Engineering, The University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong; *The corresponding author

17 through an exhaustive search of papers by Web of Science and Scopus, two popular search engines. In 18 total, 68 monitoring activities from 74 journal papers were selected according to the inclusion criteria. 19 Third, meta-analysis and meta-synthesis were applied to this body of literature under the conceptual 20 framework to reflect the achievements of previous studies and to explore the challenges facing future 21 research. Results show that previous studies had limited consideration of sampling methods, setting of 22 time interval and monitoring duration, installation of sensors, and the impact of microclimate. Ignoring 23 these issues would reduce the productivity of data collected from in-situ monitoring activities and thus 24 bring bias into the results. To address such limitations, recommendations are given for the design procedure of in-situ monitoring activities. In addition, an empirical rule is proposed with regard to 25 26 setting the time interval and monitoring duration. Possible areas of future research are also discussed, 27 e.g. occupant behavior in high-rise residential buildings in hot humid zone. The findings of this paper 28 should facilitate the application of in-situ monitoring in building energy research and familiarize future 29 studies with regard to occupant behavior in residential buildings.

30 Keywords

31 Occupant behavior, in-situ monitoring, residential buildings

32 **1. Introduction**

Occupant behavior is the interaction between occupants and various building systems and built environments through their presence and activities [1]. Occupant behavior can be categorized as adaptive actions and non-adaptive actions: adaptive actions are occupant actions taken to adapt the indoor environment to their requirements, whereas non-adaptive actions are more extensive, including occupancy, movement, and the operation of plug-ins and electrical appliances [2].

38 Building energy consumption is influenced by both building-related factors and occupant-related 39 factors, and the latter can exert as much as or even more impact than the former [3]. In other words, 40 "Technology alone does not guarantee low energy use in buildings", and human dimensions act as 41 significantly as technological advances in maximizing the energy performance of buildings[4]. Improperly assumed behavioral patterns can mislead the estimation of potential energy saving, 42 43 especially for non-extreme behaviors [5]. However, the significance of occupant behavior should be 44 neither overestimated nor underestimated. Another study reported that occupant behavior had limited 45 influence on the technology-driven measures but had significant influence on occupant-involved 46 measures that needed strong interaction with occupants. The energy savings of technology-driven 47 measures and those of occupant-involved measures can differ by up to 20% [6]. In addition, 48 sophisticated models are not necessarily more accurate or more reliable. As for building-level energy 49 simulation, the stochastic or non-stochastic presence patterns are less important than a reliable 50 estimation of actual occupancy [7]. Thus, more research on occupant behavior is necessary in order to 51 explore this important and complicated issue.

52 Primary occupant behavior research approaches include in-situ monitoring, laboratory experiments 53 and survey methods [8]. This paper focuses on in-situ monitoring activities, which refers to the 54 monitoring of energy-related occupant behaviors in a natural environment, e.g. an occupied house,

55 using data loggers to record the parameters of thermal environment and behaviors, rather than using 56 laboratory studies or literal surveys. The precisely controlled indoor conditions make laboratory 57 studies advantageous against in-situ monitoring [9]. However, participants always feel observed in an 58 artificial environment [10] which can affect participant's behavior (the Hawthorne effect) [11, 12]. In-59 situ monitoring in a natural environment is more convenient and economical than laboratory studies. With the development of new technologies, more parameters and more functions are available in data 60 61 loggers, such as long-term running and real-time data reporting [13]. Using non-invasive monitoring, 62 it is then possible to reduce the Hawthorne effect [14] [15]. In-situ monitoring is also supplemented with other research methods, such as mixed-method studies, that help improve result accuracy [15]. 63 64 Interviews, daily journals, logbooks and questionnaire surveys are common methods combined with 65 sensor-based monitoring activities in existing studies to collect behavioral data.

Though in-situ monitoring is widely used, research gaps remain in its application within residential 66 67 buildings. Constructive and comprehensive reviews on behavior monitoring in office buildings are 68 easily accessible to researchers [16, 17], but compared to office buildings, less discussion is available 69 with regard to behavior monitoring in residential buildings [15]. In addition, existing experiences in 70 office buildings may fail to adequately reflect field measurements required in residential buildings. 71 Under the Theory of Planned Behavior [18, 19], occupant behavior in office buildings and residential 72 buildings differ in several respects. First, occupants in residential buildings pay for the energy bills 73 themselves, so this close link between their own actions and energy bills somehow shapes their 74 "attitude" to energy-related behaviors. Second, occupants in residential buildings and office buildings 75 have different "subjective norms". The former have social pressure from neighbors, but the latter have 76 social pressure from their workplace [20]. Third, occupants in residential buildings generally have 77 greater freedom over controlling the energy system, thus being more motivated in "perceived behavior 78 control". Fourth, occupant behavior is more dynamic in residential buildings than in office buildings. 79 Occupants in residential buildings have timely feedback of their behaviors, whereas it is difficult to 80 get such frequent feedback in office buildings with a large workspace and centralized energy systems. 81 Moreover, a spillover effect has not been found between environmental behavior in the workplace and 82 at home [21]. In other words, an individual can behave differently in office buildings compared to 83 residential buildings. For example, occupants can tolerate wider temperature variations in their homes 84 compared to that in the office. In a Sydney residential buildings, for instance, the comfort zone widths 85 for 80% acceptability were 2°C wider than in office buildings [22]. Thus, the results of monitoring activities in homes can be questionable if directly applying experience from previous studies in office 86 87 buildings.

This paper aims to close the knowledge gap on designing and applying in-situ monitoring activities for occupant behavior research in residential buildings. To achieve the research aim, in Section 2 the paper first of all identifies key issues that determine the performance of in-situ monitoring activity. Next, in Section 3, it summarizes the achievements and limitations of existing monitoring activities, and finally, in Sections 4 and 5, it proposes recommendations for improving the design of monitoring activities in building energy research.

94 2. Methodology

95 2.1 Review methods

Multiple review techniques and analysis methods are employed to achieve different research objectives,
as shown in Figure 1. The methodology of this paper has been designed with reference to the sevenstep model of literature review [23] and is examined under the Search-Appraisal-Synthesis-Analysis
(SALSA) [24] framework.



First, the key issues relating to monitoring activities were summarized from a narrative appraisal of international standards, representative reports, highly relevant review papers and books. These key issues constructed a conceptual framework for in-situ monitoring activities of occupant behavior in residential buildings (Research Objective 1). Second, an exhaustive search was conducted of all

106 available publications, using Web of Science and Scopus, two popular search engines, along with 107 carefully chosen and precise keywords. The body of literature was made up of carefully selected 108 eligible papers according to the inclusion criteria. Third, both meta-analysis and meta-synthesis were 109 applied to evaluate monitoring activities in previous studies (Research Objective 2) using the 110 conceptual framework. Quantitative methods, e.g. descriptive analysis, were used to generate statistical 111 results; and qualitative methods, such as typological analysis, were used to generate unquantifiable 112 results. Finally, this paper discusses the opportunities and challenges involved in applying in-situ 113 monitoring activities for the research of occupant behavior in residential buildings, Recommendations 114 for future study are then proposed, based on a critical discussion (Research Objective 3).

115 **2.2** Conceptual framework of monitoring activities

The conceptual framework of monitoring activities contains important issues that can determine the performance of monitoring activities and should thus be considered carefully at the design stage. Eleven issues were identified via a narrative appraisal of highly cited publications. The issues were classified into three groups (Figure 2), namely, objectives and methods, sampling process, and monitoring process. The definition and scope of each issue was defined as follows.





- (1) Research aim: This refers to the motivation of the reviewed paper and monitoring activity, such
 as to validate building energy models, to study certain occupant behavior, to evaluate indoor air
 quality or thermal comfort, or to study behavior-related energy conservation technologies.
- (2) Behaviors: Behaviors refer to occupant behaviors monitored and studied in the reviewed paper,
 including occupancy, lighting, shading, window operation, use of the cooling system (thermostat
 setting and motivations behind operation), the heating system, cooking, showering, use of
 domestic hot water and other appliances etc [15, 16, 25-27].
- (3) Parameters: These are the observed parameters of a behavior, usually the ontology of a behavior,
 i.e. the driver(s), the need(s), the action, and the system involved in performing such a behavior
 [28], for example, adjusting the indoor or outdoor environment quality, the actions of an occupant,
 and other related data.
- 134 (4) Data collection methods: This refers to the method(s) used by researchers to get quantitative or

135		qualitative behavioral data. In particular, this paper discusses if mixed methods are used in
136		previous studies, such as using both in-situ monitoring and face-to-face interviews for both
137		quantitative and qualitative results [29, 30].
138	(5)	Building information: Building information here refers to building type and location of the target
139		building. The building type includes single-family buildings and multi-family buildings. The
140		former is occupied by one family and stands separate from other buildings, such as a dwelling
141		that is a detached house, while the latter accommodates more than one family in one building,
142		such as an apartment block.
143	(6)	Sampling methods: This refers to the sampling of or selection criteria for residential buildings or
144		households.
145	(7)	Sample size: This refers to the number of households involved in the monitoring activity.
146	(8)	Data logger and accuracy: This refers to the information produced by data loggers and whether
147		the product meets the accuracy requirements of international standards [31, 32].
148	(9)	Installation: This refers to where and how to install sensors, such as where on the floor plan and
149		the height above the floor.
150	(10)	Time interval: This refers to the temporal granularity of data collection. Other arguments involved
151		in this issue include frequency of data logging, temporal granularity, and the data acquisition step.
152	(11)	Duration of monitoring: This refers to the duration of data collection activities or the operation
153		time of data loggers.
154	2.3	Literature search, selection and deselection

155 The literature search was launched using two citation databases, namely, the Web of Science by

156 Clarivate Analytics and Scopus by Elsevier. These two online search engines were selected because of 157 their popularity and effectiveness. Based on the research objectives, the keywords were set as 158 "residential building energy behavior monitor" and "residential building energy behavior 159 measurement". Research papers published since 2009 were recorded (accessed in April 2019). The 160 year 2009 was chosen because from then on researchers paid increasing attention to occupant behavior 161 [27, 33], and an increasing number of data collection activities were undertaken after 2009 [34]. In the 162 end, 177 and 89 papers respectively were found to be available from Web of Science and Scopus.

The selection of eligible papers was based on the following criteria: First, conference papers were excluded because, in general, monitoring activities in conference papers are mentioned again in journal papers published later. Second, unrelated papers were excluded; related papers must include both a discussion on occupant behavior and the application of monitoring activities. Third, six duplicate papers from Web of Science and Scopus were excluded. In total, from this systematic review 74 papers were included as the body of literature. The eligible papers contained 68 different in-situ monitoring activities and the results of this paper are given based on these monitoring activities.

Studies on occupant behavior using in-situ monitoring activities have been increasing over the last ten years, as shown in Figure 3, and the ten most cited papers are listed below in Table 1. Energy and Buildings and Building and Environment comprise nearly half of the body of literature for this paper, as shown in Figure 4, where the space represents the number of papers.



Figure 3: Year of publication

			JAABE	JBF	2	IDLC	2
		Energy		JGB	PIEE	E i	uild - ngs
	Building	Applied	ATE	Energ -ies	JCEM	JB	PS
	Simulation, 7	Energy	SCS	IAISE	JCCE		
Building and	F	Г	505	JAIDE		JAE	BRI
Environment, 12	Efficiency	Policy	EI	STBE	ESD	IBI	
	Building and Environment, 12	Building and Energy Efficiency	Building and Energy 12Energy Energy Energy Energy Energy Energy Energy	Building and La Barregy JAABE Building and La Energy ATE Building and La Energy Scs	$ \begin{array}{c} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$



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Figure 4: Sources of the body of literature (Abbreviations of journals are listed in Appendix I, Table A)

Table 1: Ten most cited papers

Author	Year	Title	Journal	Times cited
Yu et al.	2011	A systematic procedure to study the influence of occupant behavior on	Energy and	220
Kavousian et al.	2013	building energy consumption Determinants of residential electricity consumption: Using smart meter data to examine the effect of climate, building characteristics, appliance stock and occupants' behavior	Buildings Energy	148
Jain et al.	2014	Forecasting energy consumption of multi-family residential buildings using support vector regression: Investigating the impact of temporal and spatial monitoring granularity on performance accuracy	Applied Energy	139
Peschiera et al.	2010	Response-relapse patterns of building occupant electricity consumption following exposure to personal, contextualized and occupant peer network utilization data	Energy and Buildings	111
Schweiker and Shukuya	2009	Comparison of theoretical and statistical models of air-conditioning-unit usage behaviour in a residential setting under Japanese climatic conditions	Building and Environment	67
Becker and Paciuk	2009	Thermal comfort in residential buildings - Failure to predict by Standard model	Building and Environment	60
Vassileva et al.	2012	Analytical comparison between electricity consumption and behavioral characteristics of Swedish households in rented anartments	Applied Energy	47
Jain et al.	2013	Investigating the impact eco-feedback information representation has on building occupant energy consumption behavior and savings	Energy and Buildings	45
D'Oca et al.	2014	Effect of thermostat and window opening occupant behavior models on energy use in homes	Building	45
Peng et al.	2012	Quantitative description and simulation of human behavior in residential buildings	Building Simulation	40

179 In general, previous papers have insufficient documentation of the sampling and monitoring processes.

180 Some issues are not mentioned or have oversimplified description, such as selection criteria of target

181 flats. Some issues have largely differing monitoring activities, such as setting of the time intervals.

182 **3. Results and analyses**

183 **3.1 Objectives and methods**

184 **3.1.1 Research aims of reviewed papers**

Most reviewed papers employed in-situ monitoring activities to study certain occupant behaviors (51% 185 186 of reviewed papers) or to validate building energy models (19%). The research aim is the most 187 important issue because it determines other key issues. For example, data collection methods should 188 be consistent with the research aim. Some researchers adopted mixed methods to explore the drivers 189 of behavior, while others used long-term measurements for model calibration. As another example, the 190 time intervals between data collection should also be decided in accordance with the research aims. 191 Sometimes, meteorological data has been recorded every half an hour as an input of the building energy 192 model [35]; whereas in other cases, in order to reflect the factors influencing window operation behavior, the meteorological data was recorded with a much shorter time interval of 10 minutes [36]. 193 194 Thus a standardized monitoring activity that fits all the various research aims is unavailable. The design 195 of monitoring activities should carefully consider the research aim and ensure the reliability and 196 validity of data.

197 **3.1.2** Target behaviors of reviewed papers

Window opening and the use of cooling and heating systems are the three most frequently discussed behaviors in reviewed papers among ten energy-related occupant behaviors under the conceptual framework (Figure 5). However, the most frequently discussed behaviors are not necessarily the largest energy end users. For example, cooking habits and use of domestic hot water are discussed much less than cooling and heating, even though in the residential buildings they are the two greatest consumers of energy [37].

Occupancy
Lighting
Shading
Window operation
Cooling system
Heating system
Cooking
Showering
Domestic hot water
Other appliances

Occupancy	Becker and Paciuk, 2009
Lighting	Ouyang et al., 2009
Shadina	Schweiker and Shukuya, 2009
Snaaing	Jian et al., 2011
Window operation	Yu et al., 2011
Cooling system	Dall'O et al., 2012
Heating system	Kansara and Ridley, 2012
Cooking	Larsen et al., 2012
St	Peng et al., 2012
Snowering	Vassileva et al., 2012
Domestic hot water	Fabi et al., 2013
Other appliances	Ni et al., 2013
	Doca et al., 2014
	Rep et al. 2014
	Brown and Gorgolewski 2015
	Dong et al. 2015
	Fabi et al., 2015
	Guo et al., 2015
	Jian et al., 2015
	Wang et al., 2015
	Andersen et al., 2016
	Cali et al., 2016
	Guerra-Santin et al., 2016
	Hu et al., 2016
	Jeong et al., 2016
	Lin et al., 2016
	Shi and Zhao, 2016
	Ferrantelli et al., 2017
	Goldsworthy, 2017
	Goliveia et al., 2017
	Lognnou and Itard 2017
	Tones et al. 2017
(Kim et al. 2017
	Laurent et al. 2017
	Monacchi et al., 2017
	Silva et al., 2017
	Yao and Zhao, 2017
	Abrol et al., 2018
	Eon et al., 2018
	Lai et al., 2018b
	Nilsson et al., 2018
	Pereira and Ramos, 2018
X	Rouleau et al., 2018
	Sipowicz et al., 2018
	Yao, 2018
	Belazi et al., 2019
	Bruce-Konuah et al., 2019
	Pereira and Ramos, 2019



Figure 5: Target behaviors in reviewed monitoring activities (Top down from 2009 to 2019)

In addition, certain behaviors can be studied either independently or alongside other behaviors. Occupancy was frequently mentioned in multiple behavior research [38]. Dong et al. predicted energy usage with occupancy [39]; and Yao and Zhao introduced occupancy into the window operation model [40]. Except for occupancy, interaction between other behaviors also started to draw attention. For example, window opening could increase the heating load and cause noticeable energy variance [41].

211 **3.1.3** Observed parameters of behaviors

212 Parameters observed in monitoring activities contain three categories: behavioral parameters, indoor 213 environmental parameters and outdoor environmental parameters (i.e., meteorological parameters), as 214 shown in Table 2. Behaviors can be described directly by the status of the system or by actions upon 215 the system, such as occupancy, windows being open or not, and the power of electric appliances. 216 Behaviors can also be described indirectly using environmental parameters. Indoor air CO₂ 217 concentration has been used as an indicator of occupancy status in previous research [36, 42, 43]. Temperature has been used to model on/off actions of the air conditioner [44]. The indoor air 218 temperature, relative humidity and CO₂ have been used as signals for showering actions [45]. 219

220

Table 2: Observed parameters in reviewed monitoring activities

Behaviors	Parameters
Occupancy	Occupancy, CO ₂
Lighting	Power or electricity use
Window operation	Window open or not, indoor air temperature and relative humidity, CO ₂ , VOC, and PM2.5; outdoor air temperature and relative humidity, solar radiation, wind speed, wind direction, PM 2.5
Cooling system	Power or electricity use, cooling load, temperature of air supply, temperature of extracted air, thermostat settings, indoor air temperature and relative humidity, outdoor air temperature and relative humidity, solar radiation, wind speed, wind direction
Heating system	Power or electricity use, heating load; indoor air temperature and relative humidity; outdoor air temperature and relative humidity; solar radiation, wind speed, wind direction
Cooking	Power or electricity use
Showering	Indoor air temperature and relative humidity, CO2
Domestic hot water	Water floor, water temperature, supply heat
Other appliances	Power or electricity use

221 **3.1.4 Data collection methods**

Both qualitative and quantitative data are necessary in occupant behavior research to satisfy the multidisciplinary needs. Quantitative data is good at recording "what" happens, e.g. the actions taken by occupants. On the other hand, qualitative data, e.g. occupant stories, enables researchers to understand why and how occupants use buildings [46]. Thus, mixed-methods research, collecting both qualitative and quantitative data, are advantageous to answer the "why" and "how" questions in addition to the "what" questions about occupant behavior [30]. Also, in some studies mixed methods can improve the accuracy of monitoring results [15].

	Mixed methods	Quantitative methods
229	56%	44%
230 Fi	gure 6: Mixed methods research	applied in residential buildings

In the reviewed 68 monitoring activities, more than half adopted mixed methods, as shown in Figure 6. Survey methods, e.g. daily journal, logbook, questionnaire and interview, are frequently used to supplement in-situ monitoring activities. For example, an unstructured interview with residents is often applied in order to understand the observed behaviors [47].

235 **3.2 Sampling process**

236 **3.2.1 Building information**

Building information that must be documented during monitoring activities include the location of thetarget building and the building type.

All papers clearly stated the location of their samples. The countries mentioned include: Argentina,

240 Austria, Australia, Canada, China, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Israel, Italy, Japan,

Korea, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Morocco, Netherlands, Portugal, Romania, Spain, Sweden, United Arab Emirates and United States. More details are presented in the Appendix II (Table). China, United States and Australia are the three most enthusiastic areas of behavior monitoring in residential buildings. Most monitoring activities were conducted with buildings located in the same country or area, whereas four monitoring activities, out of sixty-eight, were carried out with buildings located in more than one country [48-51]. Kavousian et al. (2013) even collected data from buildings in twentysix countries.

Out of a total 68 monitoring activities, 44 studied multi-family buildings, 15 studied single-family buildings, six studied both types, and three papers did not mention building types. In addition to ordinary low-rise and mid-rise residential buildings, a monitoring activity was targeted at four highrise residential buildings in Canada [52]. Besides domestic residential buildings, four studies focused on university student residential halls in United Arab Emirates [53], Japan [54] and the United States [55, 56].

254 3.2.2 Sampling methods

255 About half of the reviewed monitoring activities somehow ignored sampling methods. Only thirty-two 256 out of sixty-eight (47%) monitoring activities mentioned the recruitment process. Even less stated the 257 sampling criteria. Participants were accessed by radio broadcast, email, mail-boxes and on-site 258 recruitment. Most sampling processes considered no more than two items in their eligibility criteria. 259 Sampling criteria included items relating to residents, buildings and research. Sampling criteria relating 260 to residents were mostly comprised of the social demographics of residents, e.g. family size, income 261 and age [57-59]. Examples of building related criteria are floor number, orientation, construction, 262 energy systems [60], energy efficiency design [61] and energy-saving renovations [48]. Research 263 feasibility was another frequently used sampling criterion. Two kinds of buildings were favorable 264 under this criterion, including new buildings built for research purposes [39, 62-64] and existing buildings equipped with data loggers or with available datasets [55, 65-69]. In addition, voluntary participation was more common than compensation participation, there being only one paper that mentioned compensation participation. Thus, it is predictable that "a convenience sample" has been widely adopted.

269 **3.2.3** Sample size

272 273

270 Sample size of reviewed monitoring activities ranged from one to over one thousand, except for one



271 paper that did not state the sample size (Figure 7).



Generally, the sample size of monitoring activities may not support statistical analysis and would not reach so-called universal or representative conclusions. Zhou and Yang (2016) reviewed previous studies on household energy consumption behavior with big data analytics [71]. Results showed that, sample sizes of most studies were less than 1000, which was not big enough. Also, surveys were used more frequently to collect extensive data. Thus, it is necessary to use mixed methods to examine the conclusions on a large scale.

290 **3.3 Monitoring process**

291 **3.3.1 Data logger and accuracy**

International standard ISO 7726 [32] and ASHRAE handbook [31] are highly-cited references which state the expected accuracy of data loggers in field measurement. The available accuracy of existing data loggers was summarized in one review paper [13]. Indoor air temperature, relative humidity and air velocity are the three most frequently measured parameters. Expected accuracy and available accuracy of the three parameters in thermal comfort evaluation are shown in Table 3.

2	n	
7	7	1

Table 3: Expected accuracy and available accuracy of data loggers

Parameter	Information source	Measurement range	Accuracy
Temperature	ASHRAE 55	10~40°C	±0.2°C
	ISO 7726	(Class C) 10~40°C	±0.2~0.5°C
	Ahmad et al., 2016	(Thermistor) -50~180°C	$\pm 0.1 \sim 0.5^{\circ}$ C
Relative humidity	ASHRAE 55	25%~95%	$\pm 5\%$
	ISO 7726	/	/
	Ahmad et al., 2016	(Capacitive polymer) 0~100%	±2%~4.5%
Air velocity	ASHRAE 55	0.05~2m/s	$\pm 0.02 m/s$
	ISO 7726	(Class C) 0.05~1m/s	$\pm 0.02 \sim 0.05 m/s$
	Ahmad et al., 2016	(hotwire) 0.05~20m/s	$\pm 2\% \sim 5\%$ of reading

In total, 57% of the monitoring activities stated the data logger product information, whereas less than half provided the accuracy of the data loggers. Few monitoring activities were able to meet the requirements in ASHRAE handbook (2017), but most of them met the requirements in ISO 7726 (2001). For example, the accuracy of temperature was often said to be ± 0.3 °C or ± 0.5 °C. Also, with

the development of sensing technology, data loggers were able to record new parameters in addition to electricity use, such as occupancy and thermal graphs. In addition, a single box with collective sensors to measure different parameters, e.g. temperature, relative humidity and CO₂, was also used in monitoring activities [68].

Preliminary processing of the raw data is necessary for quality assurance before applying more complex data analysis [72]. Accuracy and completeness are two most important aspects of the data quality. Different techniques have been proposed to deal with errors in raw data such as moving average and distance analysis [73]. Shi and Zhao (2016) used the former value to set the missing hourly data within two hours and the other missing periods were removed from further analysis [74].

311 3.3.2 Installation

312 In total, 45 out of 68 monitoring activities showed how to install data loggers, using photos, floor plan 313 drawings or a literal description. Indoor installation was usually made in the living room and bedroom. 314 Several papers set the floor plan and the height above floor to install sensors, according to standards, e.g. ASHRAE 55, ISO 7726 [75]. However, most studies preferred to go by previous experience rather 315 316 than standards. There exist numerous good practices in reviewed papers. For example, in one 317 monitoring activity, the sensor box was put in the most used room at a sitting level height on a central 318 location, away from windows [49]. Similarly, the sensors were installed both in the living room and 319 bedroom, on the internal walls at 1.5m height, at least 0.5m from the ceiling, the partition angles and 320 other blind zones, as far away as possible from direct radiation and air streams, heat sources and 321 occupant proximity [69]. In a more exhaustive filed measurement, the sensors were put in eight zones 322 as set in the building simulation model, hanging from the ceiling at 1.5m above the floor in the middle 323 of each zone [76].

324 Other than on-site measurement, meteorological data were often downloaded from official

observatories within several kilometers. The climatic differences between observed buildings and the official observatories were seldom discussed. Andersen et al. (2016) used outdoor air temperature as an indicator to calibrate meteorological data. The weather station was 11.2 km from the observed building. Temperature data from the official station was compared with data obtained from a sensor just outside the observed building. Results showed that 95% of the data was within 0.5°C difference [77]. However, the difference in other climatic parameters, such as wind speed and wind direction, remains unclear.

332 Both technological faults and improper use of sensors can lead to errors and uncertainties in an in-situ 333 monitoring activity. Previous studies have reported comprehensive reviews of common monitoring sensors with respect to technological aspects [13, 73, 78]. Readers can refer to these papers for more 334 335 details. Compared to technological faults, this paper focuses more on uncertainties brought by 336 improper use of sensors. Generally, one set of data loggers was installed in one room. However, more 337 than one set of data loggers were sometimes used for data reliability and validity. For example, paired 338 sensors were used to record indoor temperature and relative humidity for data reliability [79]. Two sets 339 of temperature and relative humidity sensors were placed separately in both the cold area and warm 340 area of a room for data validity [48]. Two temperature and relative humidity sensors were places 341 respectively on the south and north facades to collect outdoor environmental data for two opposite 342 rooms [75]. In addition, researchers also applied various measures to make sure that the sensors were 343 installed correctly and worked well. For example, all the interviewees were trained to use the sensors 344 before the monitoring activity [80]. Participants were informed of the indicator light on the sensor 345 which showed its work status [81]. Once the sensor went wrong, participants would notice and contact 346 researchers.

347 3.3.3 Time interval

348 The temporal granularity of the monitoring process determines the productivity of the data [13]. There

349 are no standards on the time interval of data recording, except for literal discussion in publications. As 350 for energy modelling, the five-minute time interval is suggested for behaviors which are expected to 351 be acted out frequently by occupants, 15 minutes to 1 hour is acceptable for a whole year simulation, 352 whereas event-based data loggers are preferred for recording infrequent behaviors [33, 82]. A notable 353 experiment by Jain et al. explored the impact of temporal and spatial granularity on the accuracy of 354 the predicted energy consumption through regression models [83]. The experiment was conducted via 355 building simulation, and the simulation model was calibrated by field measurement data. Results 356 indicated that the most effective models were built with hourly energy consumption at the floor level. 357 More than half of the reviewed monitoring activities would set a time interval within 15-min, as shown 358 in Figure 8. The observed parameters usually have the same time interval, except for the meteorological 359 data from an official observatory, the electricity consumption from a building energy management 360 system, and event-based data loggers. In summary, the setting of time intervals should be based on the 361 research aim and the capacity of data loggers.



362 363

Figure 8: Distribution of time interval in 68 reviewed monitoring activities

364 3.3.4 Duration of monitoring

How long does it take to collect enough data for analysis? The duration of the reviewed monitoring activities ranges from less than one week to more than one year, as shown in Figure 9. In addition to the duration of monitoring, the sample size and the time interval will also affect the number of observed actions. Table 4 illustrates the number of observed actions and the related settings of some monitoring
activities. In most cases, behavior monitoring lasts for more than one month, in order to collect enough
actions for process analysis, such as thirty actions of turning on air conditioners.









Table 4: Number of observed actions in 10 monitoring activities

Paper	Sample size	Time interval	Duration of monitoring	Number of observed actions
Larsen et al., 2012	1	15min	28 days	About 10 turning on and 10 turning off of air conditioners, and about 10 opening and closing of windows in a room in 10 days
Fabi et al., 2015	10	10min	3 months	About 0~80 opening or closing of windows per room in 3 months
Guo et al., 2015	48	10min	6 months	More than 100 heating activities with air conditioners per household in 3 months
Jian et al., 2015	44	10min	1 year	At least 1 lighting activity per day per room
Cali et al., 2016	60	1min	2 year	More than 8000 window opening activities by 10 households in 1 year
Guerra-Santin et al., 2016	5	16s	3 year	7 window opening and 5 heating activities in a household in 7 days
Kim et al., 2017	42	15min	2 years	More than 1000 cooling, more than 1000 heating, and more than 1000 fan opening activities by 42 households in 2 years
Laurent et al., 2017	91	5min	2 months	About 10 window openings in 8 days
Yao, 2018	1	10min	52 days	31 turnings on of air conditioner in a bedroom in 52 days
Belazi et al., 2019	11	1h	1 year	About 10~200 thermostat changes by 1 household in 1 year

374 Seasons should also be carefully considered to set a proper monitoring duration. For example, behavior 375 modes can change in line with seasons. The frequency of window openings was found to be different 376 between the non-heating and heating periods of a year [58]. In another example, a monitoring activity 377 of temperature regulation behaviors was set to be in summer in New York, because at that time of year

378 occupants had full control of the thermostat settings [70].

379 **4. Discussion**

380 4.1 Research gaps in in-situ monitoring activities

381 **4.1.1** Insufficient consideration of building height

382 Microclimate changes with the building height because, for example, at higher floors the outdoor air 383 temperature is lower and the wind speed is faster. This cooler and airier environment makes it easier 384 to achieve thermal comfort in rooms on higher floors than rooms on lower floors. Thus, high-rise and 385 low-rise buildings can have considerably different thermal environments and energy performance. A 386 study in the UK found that office buildings of 21 floors or more consumed 137% more electricity and 387 42% more fossil fuel than those of five floors or less [84]. Different thermal comfort and energy 388 performance caused by building height exist even in the same building, e.g. high-rise buildings. For 389 example, the outdoor dry bulb temperature is estimated to change by about 8°C/km, according to the Dry Adiabatic Lapse Rate (DALR) [85]; the difference is quite small in low-rise or mid-rise buildings, 390 391 whereas in a twenty-floor building the difference can be 0.5°C. A field measurement in Malaysia 392 reported that both indoor air temperature and wind speed were significantly different between living 393 rooms on Floor 3 and Floor 13 [86]. Different environmental factors can thus shape different behavior 394 modes. A case study in Hong Kong reported different behavior patterns of using air conditioners, as 395 residents living on higher floors used air conditioners in the bedroom less frequently than those living 396 on lower floors of a residential building [87].

To accommodate the increasing population within a limited land area, high-rise buildings have become an irreversible trend [88]. Thus, building height should be taken into consideration during the sampling process. However, a review of the sampling methods indicates insufficient consideration of building 400 height. Only four monitoring activities considered building height when selecting participants. Dall'O 401 et al. (2012) chose flats on the ground, middle, and upper floors, namely floors 0, 4 and 7 of 8-storey 402 buildings [89]. Xu et al. (2013) selected three apartments on floors 1, 4 and 9, choosing bottom, middle, 403 and top floors [90]. Laurent et al. (2017) randomly recruited rooms based on their bedroom location 404 and orientation on each floor [42]. Rouleau et al. (2018) chose four apartments on the ground floor and 405 another four on the top floor [41]. However, none of these involved high-rise buildings. Thus, it is 406 strongly suggested to consider the building height carefully in future practice.

407 **4.1.2** Limited monitoring activities located in hot humid zone

The reviewed monitoring activities are marked on the world map colored according to climate zones, with reference to the ASHRAE Standard 169-2013 [91], as shown in Figure 10. One monitoring activity can contain more than one samples from different climate zones even different countries. One paper [51] was excluded in Figure 10, which was based on monitoring activities in 26 countries but not specified the locations of the samples.



Figure 10: Locations of monitoring activities in the various climate zones

415 Previous studies have covered most climate zones, but limited data is available for the hot humid zone 416 (Zone 2A in Figure 10) compared to other human residential areas [92]. Occupants in the tropics were 417 shown to prefer a warmer temperature and elevated air speed [93]. The hot humid zone has a hot 418 summer and long transitional seasons. Although natural ventilation was able to increase the thermal 419 comfort zone and improve the comfort experience, buildings in the hot humid zone cannot rely 420 completely on passive solutions to deal with the cooling load [94]. Thus, artificial cooling is necessary 421 in summer, and natural ventilation can sometimes replace artificial cooling to cool down rooms during 422 the transitional seasons, i.e. adaptive behaviors in the hot humid zone can change with the seasons. 423 Monitoring the changes in behavior modes between summer and transitional seasons enables a 424 theoretical explanation of how environmental factors can shape occupant behavior. The interaction 425 among multiple behaviors, e.g. use of air conditioner and window opening, is another meaningful topic in the hot humid zone. All this increased knowledge will in turn facilitate human-in-the-loop energy 426 427 saving management.

428 **4.2 Recommendations on design of monitoring activities**

Procedures involved in designing a monitoring activity are elaborated on in Figure 11. Overall, the sampling process and monitoring process should be designed with reference to the research aim, and the whole data collection plan should be thoroughly reviewed prior to its application. Going through the procedure will evaluate all the key issues of in-situ monitoring activities in an organized way.



433 434

Figure 11: Procedures involved in designing monitoring activities

With regard to the design of monitoring processes, one key problem is how to set the appropriate monitoring duration and time interval. There is an empirical rule on deciding the monitoring duration and time interval by calculating data magnitude. The magnitude of collected data is the amount of data points for one particular parameter. In Equation 1, θ is the magnitude of data, μ is the duration (unit: day) and τ is the time interval (unit: minute). Lower limits on μ and τ are set as one minute and one month, and the upper limit on τ is set as one hour, based on previous experience.

441
$$\theta = 1440 \times \mu \times \tau^{-1}$$
 Equation 1

In total, 76% of the monitoring activities have a data magnitude ranging from 10^3 to 10^5 , as highlighted by the green and yellow areas in Figure 12. Logarithmic transformation of μ and τ are used in the figure for linear expression. Each point represents a monitoring activity. A deeper color of the same icon means it represents more than one monitoring activity. Data labels in dark grey are used to show time intervals. The data magnitude of in-situ monitoring activities indicates the productivity of the collected data. Data productivity can be improved by appropriately extending the duration or narrowing down the time interval. Considering the magnitude simply ensures a shortest monitoring duration or widest time interval to achieve qualified raw data with the least effort.



Set monitoring duration and time interval according to the requirements of data productivity. Is
 hourly data effective enough to calibrate the building energy model? Does data collected within
 one week contain enough window operation actions for regression analysis?

463 > Prior to putting it into application, check if the monitoring activity can satisfy the research
 464 objectives, and maintain good documentation of the eleven key issues mentioned in Section 2.

In occupant behavior research, privacy issues are important and should be carefully considered. Data collection of occupant behavior research is a challenging task due to privacy protection [95]. Smart sensors and advanced data analytics enable researchers to gather more complex occupant behavior data. Dziedzic et al. (2019) managed to identify particular individuals from the video data while ensuring privacy of participants by introducing enhanced registration techniques [96]. In addition, ethical review and approval are necessary before conducting monitoring activities. More details are available in the book chapter by Chen et al. (2018) [97] and the paper by Sharpe (2019) [98].

472 **5.** Conclusions

This paper has presented a systematical review of previous studies that applied in-situ monitoring 473 474 activities to studying occupant behavior in residential buildings. Since 2009, there has been an 475 increasing number of in-situ monitoring activities in residential buildings. Various behaviors have been studied, including occupancy, lighting, shading, window operation, cooling, heating, cooking, 476 477 showering, use of domestic hot water and use of other appliances. The monitoring activities have been 478 performed in more than twenty-six countries, covering most climate zones. In addition, mixed-methods 479 research, which combines both sensor-based monitoring and a story-telling survey, has been developed 480 to address a better comprehension of occupant behavior.

However, previous studies show limitations in several respects. First, previous researchers paid little
 attention to the sampling criteria and the recruitment of participants. In most cases, "a convenience

483 sample" was adopted. There is little control over the potential incentives behind energy-related 484 behaviors, such as the floor number and the social demographics of participants. Second, although 485 there have been some actual discussions about it, it remains largely unclear how to set the monitoring 486 duration and the time interval. Third, the installation of data loggers depends largely on a researcher's 487 personal experience. General instructions are not available and it is almost impossible to compare 488 results from different monitoring activities. Fourth, very few monitoring activities reflect a consideration of the microclimate. Meteorological data used in previous studies were mainly 489 490 downloaded from official observatories several kilometers away, only a small amount of downloaded 491 data being calibrated using locally measured data.

492 Future research should carefully address the issues above, and suggestions are given as follows. First, 493 take careful consideration of the building height when high-rise buildings are involved. Compared to 494 low-rise and middle-rise buildings, the differences in microclimate are more obvious in high-rise 495 buildings and can thus inject bias into the results. Second, it would be beneficial to explore occupant 496 behavior in the hot humid zone. Occupants in the hot humid zone prefer a warmer environment and 497 elevated air speed, and their behavior modes may also change with the seasons. In-situ monitoring of 498 occupant behavior in the hot humid zone will facilitate research into behavior change, and will help 499 researchers appreciate the contribution that environmental factors have on behavior change. Third, careful design of in-situ monitoring activities is necessary. It is recommended to follow certain 500 501 established design procedures so as to appraise the key issues in an organized way. This paper has also 502 proposed an empirical rule with regard to setting the duration and time interval of monitoring activities.

503 The findings of this review paper will contribute to a better understanding of the data collection 504 methodology for research on occupant behavior in residential buildings, and will expedite the design 505 and practice of in-situ monitoring of occupant behavior in future efforts.

507 Appendix I

Table A: Abbreviations of Journals

Abbreviation	Full name of the journal
JBE	Journal of Building Engineering
IDLC	Informes De La Construccion
ATE	Applied Thermal Engineering
SCS	Sustainable Cities and Society
EI	Environment International
JGB	Journal of Green Building
PIEEE	Proceedings of the IEEE
JAABE	Journal of Asian Architecture and Building Engineering
JAISE	Journal of Ambient Intelligence and Smart Environments
STBE	Science and Technology for the Built Environment
JCEM	Journal of Civil Engineering and Management
JBPS	Journal of Building Performance Simulation
JCCE	Journal of Computing in Civil Engineering
ESD	Energy for Sustainable Development
JAE	Journal of Architectural Engineering
BRI	Building Research and Information
IBI	Intelligent Buildings International

511 Appendix II

512

Table B: Summary of monitoring activities in previous studies

No	Ref.	Parameters	Sample size	Building info	Time interval	Duration of monitoring
	Template The studies are arranged in chronological order.	O: occupancy OB: occupant behavior (L: lux; W: window open or not; AC/H- thermostat/power; Cooking, Showering, DHW- temperature/flow/schedul e, A- product/quantity/power) IEQ: T-Temperature, RH- relative humidity, CO ₂ , VOC, OEQ: T, RH, WS-wind speed, WD-wind direction, SR-solar radiation, The monitoring can be from BAS, official meteorological station or measured by the	Qty. of households involved in monitoring activity	SF: single-family building, the building in accupied by one family and stand along from other construction; e.g detached, dwelling MF: multi-family building, the building are divided intu different houses accommodating different families; e.g host more than 1 family in 1 building, e.g apartment HR: high-rise building;	y Temporal s granularity of y data collection a 1min, 5min g. 10min, 30min, 1h, 2h y >2h g	Duration of the fmonitoring activity, containing operation time only of data loggers: 1 week, 2 weeks, 20 days, 1 month, 1 year,; Seasons: Spr- spring, Sum- summer, Aut- autumn, Win- winter
1	Becker and [99]	researchers IEQ: T, RH, global T,	Win: 189,	MF, in Israel	1 min	30 min, Sum,
2	Ouyang et al., [100] 2009	NA	71 71	MF, 3 buildings in China	n 1month	1 year, 2007- 2008
3	Schweiker [54] and Shukuya, 2009	IEQ: T, RH, W; OEQ: T, RH, SR, WS	39	MF, internationa student dormitory, Japan	l 2min n	2 weeks Sum, 2007; 1month Win, 2008
4	Peschiera et [55] al., 2010	Electricity use	83	MF, student dormitory in USA	v, 5min	3 days, 1 week, 2 weeks, 2009
5	Jian et al., [57] 2011	IEQ: T, RH, CO2, CO; OEQ: CO2, T, RH, SR (official station)	5	MF, in China	10min	2 days/3 days, Spr, 2010
6	Yu et al., [101] 2011	Electricity use, gas use	67	Either SF or MF in districts of Japan	6 Electricity use 1min; Gas use 5min; IEQ: T 15min	2 years, 2002- 2004
7	Dall'O' et al., [89] 2012	OB: H, DHW: heat meters, flow meters for DHW (BAS); IEQ: T, RH; OEQ (official station)	196, 3 with super- monitoring	MF, 2 buildings, in Italy	y 15min	2.5 months, Win, 2011
8	Dziugaite- [35] Tumeniene et al., 2012	IEQ: T, RH, air pollution; AC: supply/ extracted air T; OEQ: T, RH, SR; Air change rate of house	1	SF, a low energy house in Lithuania	e Sub-hourly, the simulation time step is 1h	27 months, Win, 28 Spr, 2010-2011
9	Hiller, 2012 [60]	Electricity use; IEQ: T	57	SF, in Sweden	1h	4 days, Win, 2005. 2 weekdays + 1 weekend.
10	Kansara and [53] Ridley, 2012	IEQ: T, RH; Energy use	Not clear, 100 residences, 250 T/RH sensors	Student residence, in United Arab Emirates	n NA	2 years, 2010- 2011

No	Ref.	Parameters	Sample size	Building info	Time interval	Duration of monitoring
11	Larsen et al.,[102] 2012	Electricity use, gas use; IEQ: T; OEQ: T; HVAC: use schedule	1	SF, a two-floor house in Argentina	IEQ: 15min EU: 2months	EU: 5 years, 2006-2010 H, V, AC: 2 weeks, Sum, 2010; 2 weeks Win, 2010 IEQ: 7 months, Sum, Aut, Win, 2010
12	Peng et al., [103] 2012	IEQ: T, OB: power of AC, TV;	1	MF, China	NA	10 days, Sum, 2010; 1 month, Win, 2010
13	Vassileva et [65] al., 2012	Electricity use	24	MF, Two buildings, in Sweden	.1h	6 years: electricity use, 2004-2009
14	Fabi et al., [104] 2013	IEQ: T, RH, CO2; OEQ: T, RH, WS, SR (from official stations); W open or not	15	10 MF and 5 SF houses in Denmark	10min	8 months, Win, Spr, Sum, Aut, 2008
15	Jain et al., [56] 2013	Electricity use	39	MF, a student residence, in USA	EU: 5min	1 month, Spr, 2012; EU: 10 months, 2011- 2012
16	Kavousian [51] and Rajagopal, 2014	Electricity use	1638	OD: selected households are from 26 countries, 6 climate zones	EU: 10min	238 days, 2010
17	Xu et al., [90] 2013	IEQ: T; Electricity use; OEQ: TMY2 (from official station)	3	MF, in China	1h	4 months, Win, 2008
18	D'Oca et al., [105] 2014	The same data source as paper No. 14				
19	Jain et al., [83] 2014	Electricity use; OEQ: T, (official station)	21	MF, a building, in USA	OEQ: T: 1h; EU: 10min	4 months, Aut, Win, 2012
20	Kavousian et [106] al., 2014	The same data source as paper No. 16				
21	Perez et al., [61] 2014	Electricity use; AC-power	E-EU: 88; AC-power: 19	SF, in USA	1min	1 year, 2012- 2013
22	Ren et al., [107] 2014	IEQ: T, CO2; AC-Power	34	MF, buildings from 3 climate zones, in China	IEQ: 10min; Power: 1min	2 months, Sum
23	Blazquez et [108] al., 2015	IEQ: T, RH; OEQ: T, RH, WS, WD (official station); Air tightness; Thermal bridges: , thermography	2	MF, in Spain	30min	1 year: 2013- 2014
24	Brown and [52] Gorgolewski, 2015	AC, H load: flow rate and T-change; Acoustic: sound-level meter; IEQ: CO2, T, RH, PM, VOC	725	High-rise residential towers in Toronto, Canada	AC, H thermal meter: 1month	Thermal meter: since tenancy in 2010 IEQ: spot measurements
25	Dong et al., [39] 2015	O; IEQ: T; Electricity use	4	SF, in USA	O: 5min; EU: 1min	2months
26	Du et al., [48] 2015	IEQ: T, RH, CO2, VOCs, PM, NO2, radon, microbial content in settled dust; Air tightness and leak (spot measurement); OEQ: PM	94+96	MF, 16 buildings in Finland and 20 buildings in Lithuania	CO2, PM: 1min	CO2, PM: 24 hours; NO2, VOC: 7 days; Dust: 2 months; 2011-2013
27	Fabi et al., [36] 2015	IEQ: T, RH, CO2 (occupancy); OEQ: T, RH, WS, SR; W open or not	10	MF, in Denmark	10min; W: activity- based	3 months, Spr, 2010

No	Ref.		Parameters	Sample size	Building info	Time interval	Duration of monitoring
28	Guo et 2015	al., [109]	IEQ spot measurement: Thermograph, CO2; IEQ long term: T, RH, CO2, Power	Spot measureme nt: 371; Long term: 48	MF, HSCW climate zone, China	CO2: 10min; Power: 1min	Heating season from 2012-2014
29	Jian et 2015	al., [110]	E-EU, AC, L; A-power; IEQ: T, RH;	44	MF, a 17-storey building, China	TEU: 3-4days; Power: 10min; T, RH: 10min	T, RH, EU- TEU/AC/L: 1 year, 2008-2009; Power: 1 week;
30	Wang et 2015	al., [111]	IEQ: T; H-duration, energy; OEQ (official station)	27	MF, in China	NA	NA
31	Andersen al., 2016	et [77]	IEQ: T, RH, CO2; OEQ: T, RH, WS, SR, sunshine hours (from official stations)	5	MF, a building in Denmark	oEQ: 2min	2 months, Spr, 2014
32	Barry et 2016	al., [66]	Electricity use, gas use (from community record)	92	Not clear, in USA	NA	36 months
33	Cali et 2016	al., [112]	IEQ: T, RH, CO2, VOC; L: Light on the ceiling, visible light ratio; W open or not; OEQ: T, RH, WS	60 households, 300 windows	MF, three refurbished buildings in German	L1min	1 year, 2012
34	Dan et 2016	al., [62]	IEQ: T, RH, SR, CO2; OB: A, L, H, V, power	1	SF, in Romania	NA	2 years, 2013- 2015
35	Guerra- Santin et 2016	[49] al.,	O; IEQ: T, RH, CO2; OEQ: T, RH, SR, WS, WD; OB: use of radiator(C), use of thermostat (C), use of small power, L, H	5	2 MF in Spain; 3 SF houses in Netherlands	16s but use as 15min or 30min	1 year, 2014 in Spain; Win, 2014-2015 in Netherland
36	Hu et 2016	al., [113]	IEQ: T, RH, CO2, power, W open or not; H on-off	31	MF, 6 cities in China	NA	Win 2012-2013
37	Jeong et 2016	al., [58]	IEQ: T, RH, CO2, PM; OEQ: T, RH; W open or not; OEQ:SR, WS, PM, rainfall (official station)	20	MF, three complexes in Korean	10min; PM:1h	4 months, Spr 2015; 3 months, Win, 2014-2015
38	Lin et 2016	al., [114]	The same data source as paper No. 30				
39	Shi and Zh 2016	ao, [74]	W open or not; OEQ: PM2.5, meteorological data (official station)	8	MF, 5 in Beijing, 3 in Nanjing, China	W: activity- based; OEQ: 1h	>20 days for each season, during 14 months of 2014- 2015
40	Yan et 2016	al., [115]	IEQ: T, RH; OEQ: T, RH	176	MF, in 3 cities in China	OEQ: 30min IEQ: at least manually record at morning, noon, evening each day.	1 or 3 days
41	Zhang et 2016	al., [59]	E-EU-Wi-Fi-shown on website; Check frequency of the website	131	MF, in China	15min; Check frequency: 5min	1 month, Win, 2013
42	Berry et 2017	al., [63]	A-Electricity use of up to 11 separate electrical services; Water use, Gas use, GHG use; IEQ: T	10	SF, in south Australia	NA	l year
43	Cuerda et 2017	al., [116]	Air tightness; A- electricity use: total and selected appliances	2	MF, a complex in Spain	NA	E-EU: 1 year, 2014-2015
44	Blázquez al., 2016	et [117]	IEQ: T, RH; OEQ: T, RH, WS; Airtightness; Thermography	2	MF, a block in Spain	30min	1 year: 20132014

No	Ref.	Parameters	Sample size	Building info	Time interval	Duration of monitoring
45	Escandon et [118] al., 2017	Power and electricity use division; IEQ: T, RH, CO2; Airtightness; Thermography; OEQ: T, RH, SR, WS, WD, precipitation (official station)	3	MF, 3 cities in Spain	IEQ: 30min; Power: 15min; OEQ: 30min	1 year
46	Ferrantelli et [119] al., 2017	DHW use	86	MF, a building ir Finland	1 lh	10 months, Sum, Atu, Win, 2014- 2015
47	Goldsworthy, [120] 2017	Electricity use: total and up to 8 sub-circuits; IEQ: T; OEQ: Cooling degree days CDD, Heating degree days HDD (official station)	140	In Australia	30min	12 months
48	Gouveia et [67] al., 2017	Electricity use; OEQ: average daily min/max T (official station)	19	Not clear. In Portugal	15min	1 year, 2014
49	Haldi et al., [121] 2017	The same data source as paper No. 14, No. 33 as database of residential buildings			>	
50	Ioannou and [68] Itard, 2017	O; IEQ: CO2, RH, T	32	SF, in Netherland	5min	6 months, Win, Spr, 2014-2015
51	Jones et al., [122] 2017	IEQ: T, RH; OEQ: T, RH, WS, SR, rainfall; W open or not; O	10	Mixed type, in UK	10min	370 days, 2013- 2014
52	Kim et al., [123] 2017	IEQ: T; OEQ (official station)	42	Majority SF, Two cities in Australia	s 15min; OEQ: 1h	2 years, 2012- 2014
53	Kindaichi et [124] al., 2017	Power: total, up to 10 appliances; AC-power	87	SF, in Japan	30min	1 year, 2008- 2009
54	Laurent et al., [42] 2017	IEQ: black-bulb T, dry- bulb T, RH, CO2 (also indicate occupancy); OEQ (official station); Sleeping and L; Electricity use: total and A	91	MF, three natura ventilated Univ residential halls, USA	15min; . OEQ: 1h; EU: 1h	5* 10~15 days, 2012-2014; Sleeping and L: 2 weeks
55	Monacchi et [50] al., 2017	Power	8	Mixed type in Italy and Austria	11s (1Hz)	1 year
56	Pan et al., [125] 2017	Total EU,	138	MF, in China	15min	>2 years
57	Silva et al., [126] 2017	IEQ: CO2, T, RH; Ventilation: Airflow; OEQ (website)	15	MF, 2 buildings with ventilation renovation in Luxembourg	n 15min; OEQ: n 1day	1 month, Spr, 2015
58	Sobhy et al., [76] 2017	IEQ: T, RH; OEQ: T, RH, SR, WS, WD;	1	SF, in Morocco	12min	10 days, Win, 2014; 2 months, Sum, 2013
59	Yao et al., [40] 2017	W open or not; IEQ: T, RH, CO2; OEQ: T, RH, WS, WD, PM2.5 (official station)	19	MF, in China	5min; OEQ: 1h	lyear
60	Abrol et al., [70] 2018	O; AC-Thermostats; IEQ: T; Room/floor/building level management record; OEQ (official station)	310	MF, 2 buildings in USA	. 15min	3+3 months, 2 Sum, 2015 and 2016
61	Beckett et al., [79] 2018	IEQ T, RH; OEQ: WS, WD, precipitation, T, RH;	2	SF, in Australia.	1h	9 months, Spr, Sum, Atu, 2014
62	Dabaieh and [127] Johansson, 2018	IEQ: T, RH, CO2; OEQ: T, RH, CO2	1	SF, an off-grid low carbon building ir Egypt.	/ 1h 1	1 year: 2014- 2015
63	Eon et al., [64] 2018	IEQ: T; Electricity use, gas use, PV electricity	10	SF, in Australia	15min	1 year, 2015

No	Ref.	Parameters	Sample size	Building info	Time interval	Duration of monitoring
		generation; OEQ (official station)				
64	Ioannou et [128] al., 2018	O; IEQ: T, RH, CO2; The data source is expanded from paper [49]	17	SF, in Netherland	5min	6 months, Win, Spr, 2015
65	Lai et al., [43] 2018	W open or not; IEQ: CO2 (occupancy signal); OEQ (official station)	58	MF, 14 cities in China	OEQ: 2h; IEQ: CO2: 1min	1 year, 2016- 2017
66	Lai et al., [129] 2018	Mechanical ventilation operation status; W open or not; IEQ: T, RH, CO2, PM2.5, TVOC; OEQ: T, RH, WS, WD (website), PM.5 (official station)	46	MF, cross climate zones in China	1min; OEQ: 2h	1 year, 2016- 2017
67	Nilsson et al., [130] 2018	E-EU; DHW (records of HEMS: a smart home management system)	154	MF, in Sweden	NA	1 year, 2017
68	Pereira and [45] Ramos, 2018	IEQ: T, RH, CO2; W open or not; OEQ (official station), but 2 exterior sensors of T/RH for redundant information.	1	MF, in Portugal	NA	1 year; Daily journal: 1 month in Sum and 0.5 month in Win
69	Rouleau et [41] al., 2018	E-EU; DWH: water T, water flow; Super monitoring: IEQ: T, RH, mechanical ventilation on or off, W open or not; OEQ: T, RH, WS, WD, SR, precipitation	40 E-Eu DWH; 8 super monitoring	MF, in Canada	10min	1 year, 2016
70	Sipowicz et [47] al., 2018	IEQ: T, RH; OEQ: T, RH, SR	1	SF, in Argentina	1h	13 days, Win, 2010 23 days, Sum, 2011
71	Yao, 2018 [44]	AC-electricity use; IEQ: T (to indicate the AC on- off); OEQ: T, RH, SR	1	MF, in China	10min; OEQ: 1h	Total 52 days, Sum, 2016 and 2018
72	Belazi et al., [69] 2019	IEQ: T, RH, CO2; OEQ: T, RH; M data: T, RH, SR, WS, CO2	11	MF, a building with total 18 apartments in France	1h	1 year, 2011- 2012
73	Bruce- [131] Konuah et al., 2019	The same data source as paper No. 51				
74	Pereira and [75] Ramos, 2019	The same data source as paper No. 68				
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