Virginia Events

- ADA Accessibility Basics for Portable Restrooms
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Features

Understanding ADA Requirements for Portable Restrooms

Future portable restrooms aren't just about a quick pit stop anymore; theyre evolving into reflections of a more conscientious world. And at the heart of this evolution lies the integration of sustainable materials. Think beyond the standard plastic shell. Were talking about structures built from recycled plastics, bamboo composites, or even hempcrete – materials that significantly reduce the environmental footprint of these temporary facilities.

Imagine a portable restroom with walls crafted from reclaimed wood, giving it a warm, natural feel instead of that sterile, clinical vibe. Special event permits in Virginia municipalities may specify minimum restroom requirements based on expected attendance **porta-potty rental** Hygiene. Or perhaps a unit constructed with bio-based plastics derived from plant sources, minimizing reliance on fossil fuels. These arent just pipe dreams; companies are actively exploring these possibilities.

The benefits extend beyond just feeling good about being green. Sustainable materials can often be more durable and require less maintenance, leading to cost savings in the long run. They can also contribute to better insulation, making the restroom more comfortable in extreme weather conditions.

The challenge, of course, is balancing sustainability with affordability and practicality. Finding materials that are both environmentally friendly and cost-effective requires innovation and collaboration. But as consumer demand for eco-friendly options grows, and as material science continues to advance, we can expect to see more and more portable restrooms embracing this trend. The future of portable sanitation is undoubtedly greener, one sustainable material at a time.

Key Dimensions and Clearances for ADA Porta

Potties —

As we look towards the future of portable restroom design, one of the most exciting trends is the integration of advanced sanitation and hygiene features. This evolution is driven by a growing awareness of health and hygiene, especially in the wake of global health crises. Portable restrooms, once considered basic and utilitarian, are now being reimagined to offer a level of cleanliness and comfort that rivals permanent facilities.

One of the key advancements is the incorporation of touchless technology. This includes sensor-activated faucets, toilets, and hand dryers, which significantly reduce the risk of germ transmission. These features are not only practical but also enhance user experience by providing a more convenient and hygienic interaction with the restroom environment.

Another notable trend is the use of antimicrobial materials in the construction of portable restrooms. These materials, which can inhibit the growth of bacteria and viruses, are being applied to surfaces such as door handles, flush buttons, and even the interiors of the units. This proactive approach to hygiene helps maintain a cleaner environment, reducing the likelihood of contamination and disease spread.

Water conservation is also a critical component of future portable restroom designs. Innovations such as low-flow toilets and waterless urinals are being integrated to reduce water usage without compromising on performance. These features not only contribute to environmental sustainability but also lower operational costs for businesses and event organizers.

In addition to these technological advancements, the design of portable restrooms is becoming more user-friendly and aesthetically pleasing. Modern units are being crafted with sleek lines, comfortable interiors, and even climate control systems to ensure a pleasant experience for users. Features like natural lighting, ventilation, and soundproofing are also being considered to enhance the overall comfort and usability of these facilities.

Moreover, the integration of smart technology is set to revolutionize portable restroom management. IoT devices and mobile apps can provide real-time monitoring of usage, cleanliness, and maintenance needs, allowing for more efficient management and timely interventions. This level of connectivity ensures that portable restrooms remain in optimal condition, providing a reliable and hygienic service.

In conclusion, the future of portable restroom design is being shaped by a commitment to advanced sanitation and hygiene. With innovations in touchless technology, antimicrobial materials, water conservation, and smart management systems, portable restrooms are evolving to meet the highest standards of cleanliness and user comfort. These advancements not only enhance the user experience but also contribute to broader goals of health, sustainability, and efficiency.

restroom rentals virginia

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Essential Features of ADA Compliant Portable Restrooms

Technological Innovations for User Comfort in Future Trends of Portable Restroom Design and Features

As we look towards the future of portable restroom design, one cannot overlook the significant role that technological innovations play in enhancing user comfort. Portable restrooms, often seen as temporary solutions, are increasingly becoming sophisticated spaces that cater to the needs of users in various settings, from outdoor events to disaster relief areas.

One of the most promising trends is the integration of smart technology. Imagine a portable restroom that not only provides basic functionality but also offers a seamless user experience. Smart toilets equipped with sensors can detect usage and automatically adjust settings such as water temperature and seat height. These features ensure that each user has a personalized experience, significantly enhancing comfort.

Another exciting development is the incorporation of eco-friendly technologies. Future portable restrooms may feature advanced waste management systems that convert waste into usable resources. For instance, composting toilets can transform human waste into compost, reducing environmental impact while maintaining hygiene standards. Such innovations not only benefit the environment but also contribute to a more pleasant user experience by minimizing unpleasant odors.

Moreover, the use of sustainable materials in construction is set to revolutionize portable restroom design. Lightweight, durable materials that are easy to transport and assemble can make these facilities more accessible and user-friendly. Additionally, these materials can be designed to withstand harsh weather conditions, ensuring that the restrooms remain functional and comfortable in any environment.

User comfort is also being enhanced through improved sanitation and hygiene features. Self-cleaning technologies, such as UV light disinfection and antimicrobial surfaces, can significantly reduce the risk of contamination. These features provide users with a sense of security and cleanliness, which is crucial for their overall comfort and satisfaction.

Furthermore, the integration of entertainment and relaxation features is becoming more prevalent. Portable restrooms equipped with Wi-Fi, charging stations, and even small seating areas can transform a mundane necessity into a more enjoyable experience. These amenities cater to the modern users need for connectivity and comfort, making the use of portable restrooms a more pleasant and convenient experience.

In conclusion, technological innovations are set to redefine the future of portable restroom design and features. By focusing on user comfort through smart technology, eco-friendly solutions, sustainable materials, enhanced sanitation, and added amenities, these facilities will not only meet the basic needs of users but also exceed their expectations. The future of portable restrooms is bright, promising a blend of functionality, comfort, and sustainability that will benefit users in diverse settings.

Placement and Accessibility Considerations for ADA Porta Potties on Site

Okay, so were talking future portable restrooms, right? And lets be honest, security and privacy arent usually the first things that spring to mind when you think about them. But they should be! Think about it: these things are often in public places, sometimes remote, and vulnerable. We need to seriously amp up the game.

Enhanced security could mean things like smart locks activated by codes or even biometrics. Imagine a construction site where only authorized personnel can access the restrooms, reducing vandalism and misuse. Or picture music festivals where attendees feel safer knowing the restrooms have panic buttons and are monitored (discreetly, of course) via sensors that detect unusual activity.

Privacy is just as crucial. Better ventilation to minimize odors is a start, but we can go further. Think about materials that offer superior soundproofing. Nobody wants to feel like theyre putting on a performance. And lets talk about the structural design itself. Are the walls truly opaque? Are there gaps that need addressing? Privacy screens or strategically placed landscaping could add another layer of protection.

Ultimately, these enhanced measures arent just about making the experience more pleasant; theyre about creating a safer, more respectful environment for everyone. And in a world thats increasingly focused on security and personal space, these improvements are not just nice-to-haves, theyre becoming essential. So, yeah, future portable restrooms? Lets make em secure and private, too. Its the human thing to do.

About Chemical toilet

A chemical commode gathers human waste in a holding storage tank and utilizes chemicals to minimize smells. They do not require a connection to a water system and are used in a wide variety of scenarios. These commodes are generally, however not constantly, self-contained and movable. A chemical commode is structured around a fairly little storage tank, which calls for regular emptying. It is not connected to an opening in the ground (like a pit latrine), neither to a septic tank, neither is it plumbed into a metropolitan system resulting in a sewer treatment plant. When the tank is cleared, the contents are normally pumped into a hygienic sewer or directly to a therapy plant. The enclosed portable toilets used on construction sites and at huge celebrations such as music festivals are well-known types of chemical toilets. As they are normally used for brief durations and because of their high costs, they are mostly leased instead of gotten, usually consisting of servicing and cleansing. A simpler, unenclosed, chemical bathroom may be used in camping, travel trailers (campers) and on little watercrafts. Several chemical bathrooms utilize a blue dye in the dish water. In the past, sanitation was typically performed by blending formaldehyde, bleach, or similar chemicals with the toilet water when flushed. Modern solutions are nitrate-

based and job biologically.
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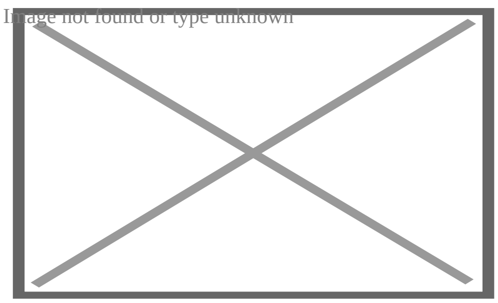
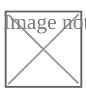
About Ventilation (architecture)



An Ab anbar (water reservoir) with double domes and windcatchers (openings near the top of the towers) in the central desert city of Naeen, Iran. Windcatchers are a form of natural ventilation.[1]



This article's lead section **may need to be rewritten**. Please review the lead guide and help improve the lead of this article if you can. *(July 2025) (Learn how and when to remove this message)*

Ventilation is the intentional introduction of outdoor air into a space. Ventilation is mainly used to control indoor air quality by diluting and displacing indoor effluents and pollutants. It can also be used to control indoor temperature, humidity, and air motion to benefit thermal comfort, satisfaction with other aspects of the indoor environment, or other objectives.

The intentional introduction of outdoor air is usually categorized as either mechanical ventilation, natural ventilation, or mixed-mode ventilation.[2]

- Mechanical ventilation is the intentional fan-driven flow of outdoor air into and/or out from a building. Mechanical ventilation systems may include supply fans (which push outdoor air into a building), exhaust[3] fans (which draw air out of a building and thereby cause equal ventilation flow into a building), or a combination of both (called balanced ventilation if it neither pressurizes nor depressurizes the inside air,[3] or only slightly depressurizes it). Mechanical ventilation is often provided by equipment that is also used to heat and cool a space.
- Natural ventilation is the intentional passive flow of outdoor air into a building through planned openings (such as louvers, doors, and windows). Natural ventilation does not require mechanical systems to move outdoor air. Instead, it relies entirely on passive physical phenomena, such as wind pressure, or the stack effect. Natural ventilation openings may be fixed, or adjustable. Adjustable openings may be controlled automatically (automated), owned by occupants (operable), or a combination of both.

Cross ventilation is a phenomenon of natural ventilation.

- Mixed-mode ventilation systems use both mechanical and natural processes. The mechanical and natural components may be used at the same time, at different times of day, or in different seasons of the year.[4] Since natural ventilation flow depends on environmental conditions, it may not always provide an appropriate amount of ventilation. In this case, mechanical systems may be used to supplement or regulate the naturally driven flow.

Ventilation is typically described as separate from infiltration.

- Infiltration is the circumstantial flow of air from outdoors to indoors through leaks (unplanned openings) in a building envelope. When a building design relies on infiltration to maintain indoor air quality, this flow has been referred to as adventitious ventilation.[5]

The design of buildings that promote occupant health and well-being requires a clear understanding of the ways that ventilation airflow interacts with, dilutes, displaces, or introduces pollutants within the occupied space. Although ventilation is an integral component of maintaining good indoor air quality, it may not be satisfactory alone.[6] A clear understanding of both indoor and outdoor air quality parameters is needed to improve the performance of ventilation in terms of occupant health and energy.[7] In scenarios where outdoor pollution would deteriorate indoor air quality, other treatment devices such as filtration may also be necessary.[8] In kitchen ventilation systems, or for laboratory fume hoods, the design of effective effluent capture can be more important than the bulk amount of ventilation in a space. More generally, the way that an air distribution system causes ventilation to flow into and out of a space impacts the ability of a particular ventilation rate to remove internally generated pollutants. The ability of a system to reduce pollution in space is described as its "ventilation effectiveness". However, the overall impacts of ventilation on indoor air quality can depend on more complex factors such as the sources of pollution, and the ways that activities and airflow interact to affect occupant exposure.

An array of factors related to the design and operation of ventilation systems are regulated by various codes and standards. Standards dealing with the design and operation of ventilation systems to achieve acceptable indoor air quality include the American Society of Heating, Refrigerating and Air-Conditioning Engineers (ASHRAE) Standards 62.1 and 62.2, the International Residential Code, the International Mechanical Code, and the United Kingdom Building Regulations Part F. Other standards that focus on energy conservation also impact the design and operation of ventilation systems, including ASHRAE Standard 90.1, and the International Energy Conservation Code.

When indoor and outdoor conditions are favorable, increasing ventilation beyond the minimum required for indoor air quality can significantly improve both indoor air quality and thermal comfort through ventilative cooling, which also helps reduce the energy demand of buildings.[9][10] During these times, higher ventilation rates, achieved through passive or mechanical means (air-side economizer, ventilative pre-cooling), can be particularly beneficial for enhancing people's physical health.[11] Conversely, when conditions are less favorable, maintaining or improving indoor air quality through ventilation may require increased use of mechanical heating or cooling, leading to higher energy consumption.

Ventilation should be considered for its relationship to "venting" for appliances and combustion equipment such as water heaters, furnaces, boilers, and wood stoves. Most importantly, building ventilation design must be careful to avoid the backdraft of combustion products from "naturally vented" appliances into the occupied space. This issue is of greater importance for buildings with more air-tight envelopes. To avoid the hazard, many modern combustion appliances utilize "direct venting" which draws combustion air directly from outdoors, instead of from the indoor environment.

Design of air flow in rooms

[edit]

The air in a room can be supplied and removed in several ways, for example via ceiling ventilation, cross ventilation, floor ventilation or displacement ventilation.[*citation needed*]

Ceiling ventilation

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  Ceiling ventilation

Cross ventilation

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  Cross ventilation

Floor ventilation

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  Floor ventilation

Displacement ventilation

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Displacement
ventilation

Furthermore, the air can be circulated in the room using vortexes which can be initiated in various ways:

Tangential flow vortices, initiated horizontally

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Tangential flow
vortices, initiated
horizontally
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Diffused flow vortices due to roof vortices

Ventilation rates for indoor air quality

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The examples and perspective in this article **deal primarily with the United States and do not represent a worldwide view of the subject**. You may improve this article, discuss the issue on the talk page, or create a new article, as appropriate. *(April 2024) (Learn how and when to remove this message)*

The ventilation rate, for commercial, industrial, and institutional (CII) buildings, is normally expressed by the volumetric flow rate of outdoor air, introduced to the building. The typical units used are cubic feet per minute (CFM) in the imperial system, or liters per second (L/s) in the metric system (even though cubic meter per second is the preferred unit for volumetric flow rate in the SI system of units). The ventilation rate can also be expressed on a per person or per unit floor area basis, such as CFM/p or CFM/ft², or as air changes per hour (ACH).

Standards for residential buildings

[edit]

For residential buildings, which mostly rely on infiltration for meeting their ventilation needs, a common ventilation rate measure is the air change rate (or air changes per hour): the hourly ventilation rate divided by the volume of the space (*I* or *ACH*; units of 1/h). During the winter, ACH may range from 0.50 to 0.41 in a tightly air-sealed house to 1.11 to 1.47 in a loosely air-sealed house.[12]

ASHRAE now recommends ventilation rates dependent upon floor area, as a revision to the 62-2001 standard, in which the minimum ACH was 0.35, but no less than 15 CFM/person (7.1 L/s/person). As of 2003, the standard has been changed to 3 CFM/100 sq. ft. (15 L/s/100 sq. m.) plus 7.5 CFM/person (3.5 L/s/person).[13]

Standards for commercial buildings

[edit]

Ventilation rate procedure

[edit]

Ventilation Rate Procedure is rate based on standard and prescribes the rate at which ventilation air must be delivered to space and various means to the condition that air.[14] Air quality is assessed (through CO_2 measurement) and ventilation rates are mathematically derived using constants.Indoor Air Quality Procedure uses one or more guidelines for the specification of acceptable concentrations of certain contaminants in indoor air but does not prescribe ventilation rates or air treatment methods.[14] This addresses both quantitative and subjective evaluations and is based on the Ventilation Rate Procedure. It also accounts for potential contaminants that may have no measured limits, or for which no limits are not set (such as formaldehyde off-gassing from carpet and furniture).

Natural ventilation

[edit]
Main article: Natural ventilation

Natural ventilation harnesses naturally available forces to supply and remove air in an enclosed space. Poor ventilation in rooms is identified to significantly increase the localized moldy smell in specific places of the room including room corners.[11] There are three types of natural ventilation occurring in buildings: wind-driven ventilation, pressure-driven flows, and stack ventilation.[15] The pressures generated by 'the stack effect' rely upon the buoyancy of heated or rising air. Wind-driven ventilation relies upon the force of the prevailing wind to pull and push air through the enclosed space as well as through breaches in the building's envelope.

Almost all historic buildings were ventilated naturally.[16] The technique was generally abandoned in larger US buildings during the late 20th century as the use of air conditioning became more widespread. However, with the advent of advanced Building Performance Simulation (BPS) software, improved Building Automation Systems (BAS), Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) design requirements, and improved window manufacturing techniques; natural ventilation has made a resurgence in commercial buildings both globally and throughout the US.[17]

The benefits of natural ventilation include:

- Improved indoor air quality (IAQ)
- Energy savings
- Reduction of greenhouse gas emissions
- Occupant control
- Reduction in occupant illness associated with sick building syndrome
- Increased worker productivity

Techniques and architectural features used to ventilate buildings and structures naturally include, but are not limited to:

- Operable windows
- Clerestory windows and vented skylights
- Lev/convection doors
- Night purge ventilation
- Building orientation
- Wind capture façades

Airborne diseases

[edit]

Natural ventilation is a key factor in reducing the spread of airborne illnesses such as tuberculosis, the common cold, influenza, meningitis or COVID-19.[18] Opening doors and windows are good ways to maximize natural ventilation, which would make the risk of airborne contagion much lower than with costly and maintenance-requiring mechanical systems. Old-fashioned clinical areas with high ceilings and large windows provide the greatest protection. Natural ventilation costs little and is maintenance-free, and is particularly suited to limited-resource settings and tropical climates, where the burden of TB and institutional TB transmission is highest. In settings where respiratory isolation is difficult and climate permits, windows and doors should be opened to reduce the risk of airborne contagion. Natural ventilation requires little maintenance and is inexpensive.[19]

Natural ventilation is not practical in much of the infrastructure because of climate. This means that the facilities need to have effective mechanical ventilation systems and or use Ceiling Level UV or FAR UV ventilation systems.

Ventilation is measured in terms of air changes per hour (ACH). As of 2023, the CDC recommends that all spaces have a minimum of 5 ACH.[20] For hospital rooms with airborne contagions the CDC recommends a minimum of 12 ACH.[21] Challenges in facility ventilation are public unawareness,[22][23] ineffective government oversight, poor building codes that are based on comfort levels, poor system operations, poor maintenance, and lack of transparency.[24]

Pressure, both political and economic, to improve energy conservation has led to decreased ventilation rates. Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning rates have dropped since the energy crisis in the 1970s and the banning of cigarette smoke in the 1980s and 1990s.[25][26][*better source needed*]

Mechanical ventilation

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Main article: HVAC

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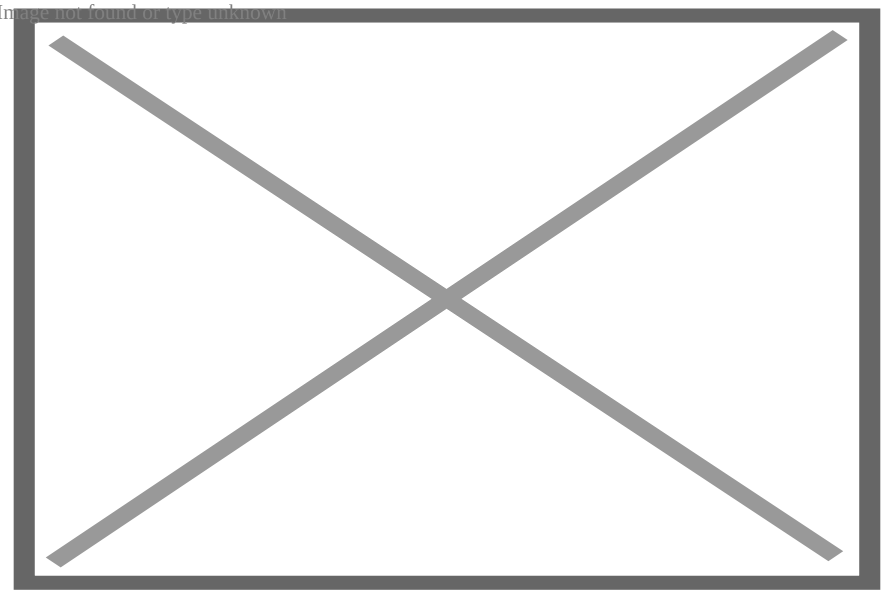

An axial belt-drive exhaust fan serving an underground car park. This exhaust fan's operation is interlocked with the concentration of contaminants emitted by internal combustion engines.

Mechanical ventilation of buildings and structures can be achieved by the use of the following techniques:

- Whole-house ventilation
- Mixing ventilation
- Displacement ventilation
- Dedicated subaerial air supply

Demand-controlled ventilation (DCV)

[edit]

Demand-controlled ventilation (**DCV**, also known as Demand Control Ventilation) makes it possible to maintain air quality while conserving energy.[27][28] ASHRAE has determined that "It is consistent with the ventilation rate procedure that demand control be permitted for use to reduce the total outdoor air supply during periods of less occupancy."[29] In a DCV system, CO_2 sensors control the amount of ventilation.[30][31] During peak occupancy, CO

$_2$ levels rise, and the system adjusts to deliver the same amount of outdoor air as would be used by the ventilation-rate procedure.[32] However, when spaces are less occupied, CO_2 levels reduce, and the system reduces ventilation to conserves energy. DCV is a well-established practice,[33] and is required in high occupancy spaces by building energy standards such as ASHRAE 90.1.[34]

Personalized ventilation

[edit]

This section needs to be **updated**. Please help update this article to reflect recent events or newly available information. *(September 2024)*

Personalized ventilation is an air distribution strategy that allows individuals to control the amount of ventilation received. The approach delivers fresh air more directly to the breathing zone and aims to improve the air quality of inhaled air. Personalized ventilation provides much higher ventilation effectiveness than conventional mixing ventilation systems by displacing pollution from the breathing zone with far less air volume. Beyond improved air quality benefits, the strategy can also improve occupants' thermal comfort, perceived air quality, and overall satisfaction with the indoor environment. Individuals' preferences for temperature and air movement are not equal, and so traditional approaches to homogeneous environmental control have failed to achieve high occupant satisfaction. Techniques such as personalized ventilation facilitate control of a more diverse thermal environment that can improve thermal satisfaction for most occupants.

Local exhaust ventilation

[edit]

See also: Power tool

Local exhaust ventilation addresses the issue of avoiding the contamination of indoor air by specific high-emission sources by capturing airborne contaminants before they are spread into the environment. This can include water vapor control, lavatory effluent control, solvent vapors from industrial processes, and dust from wood- and metal-working machinery. Air can be exhausted through pressurized hoods or the use of fans and pressurizing a specific area.[35]

A local exhaust system is composed of five basic parts:

1. A hood that captures the contaminant at its source
2. Ducts for transporting the air
3. An air-cleaning device that removes/minimizes the contaminant

4. A fan that moves the air through the system
5. An exhaust stack through which the contaminated air is discharged[35]

In the UK, the use of LEV systems has regulations set out by the Health and Safety Executive (HSE) which are referred to as the Control of Substances Hazardous to Health (CoSHH). Under CoSHH, legislation is set to protect users of LEV systems by ensuring that all equipment is tested at least every fourteen months to ensure the LEV systems are performing adequately. All parts of the system must be visually inspected and thoroughly tested and where any parts are found to be defective, the inspector must issue a red label to identify the defective part and the issue.

The owner of the LEV system must then have the defective parts repaired or replaced before the system can be used.

Smart ventilation

[edit]

Smart ventilation is a process of continually adjusting the ventilation system in time, and optionally by location, to provide the desired IAQ benefits while minimizing energy consumption, utility bills, and other non-IAQ costs (such as thermal discomfort or noise). A smart ventilation system adjusts ventilation rates in time or by location in a building to be responsive to one or more of the following: occupancy, outdoor thermal and air quality conditions, electricity grid needs, direct sensing of contaminants, operation of other air moving and air cleaning systems. In addition, smart ventilation systems can provide information to building owners, occupants, and managers on operational energy consumption and indoor air quality as well as a signal when systems need maintenance or repair. Being responsive to occupancy means that a smart ventilation system can adjust ventilation depending on demand such as reducing ventilation if the building is unoccupied. Smart ventilation can time-shift ventilation to periods when a) indoor-outdoor temperature differences are smaller (and away from peak outdoor temperatures and humidity), b) when indoor-outdoor temperatures are appropriate for ventilative cooling, or c) when outdoor air quality is acceptable. Being responsive to electricity grid needs means providing flexibility to electricity demand (including direct signals from utilities) and integration with electric grid control strategies. Smart ventilation systems can have sensors to detect airflow, systems pressures, or fan energy use in such a way that systems failures can be detected and repaired, as well as when system components need maintenance, such as filter replacement.[36]

Ventilation and combustion

[edit]

Combustion (in a fireplace, gas heater, candle, oil lamp, etc.) consumes oxygen while producing carbon dioxide and other unhealthy gases and smoke, requiring ventilation air.

An open chimney promotes infiltration (i.e. natural ventilation) because of the negative pressure change induced by the buoyant, warmer air leaving through the chimney. The warm air is typically replaced by heavier, cold air.

Ventilation in a structure is also needed for removing water vapor produced by respiration, burning, and cooking, and for removing odors. If water vapor is permitted to accumulate, it may damage the structure, insulation, or finishes. [*citation needed*] When operating, an air conditioner usually removes excess moisture from the air. A dehumidifier may also be appropriate for removing airborne moisture.

Calculation for acceptable ventilation rate

[edit]

Ventilation guidelines are based on the minimum ventilation rate required to maintain acceptable levels of effluents. Carbon dioxide is used as a reference point, as it is the gas of highest emission at a relatively constant value of 0.005 L/s. The mass balance equation is:

$Q = G/ (C_i ? C_a)$

- Q = ventilation rate (L/s)
- G = CO_2 generation rate
- C_i = acceptable indoor CO_2 concentration
- C_a = ambient CO_2 concentration[37]

Smoking and ventilation

[edit]

ASHRAE standard 62 states that air removed from an area with environmental tobacco smoke shall not be recirculated into ETS-free air. A space with ETS requires more ventilation to achieve similar perceived air quality to that of a non-smoking environment.

The amount of ventilation in an ETS area is equal to the amount of an ETS-free area plus the amount V, where:

$V = DSD \times VA \times A/60E$

- V = recommended extra flow rate in CFM (L/s)
- DSD = design smoking density (estimated number of cigarettes smoked per hour per unit area)
- VA = volume of ventilation air per cigarette for the room being designed (ft^3/cig)
- E = contaminant removal effectiveness[38]

History

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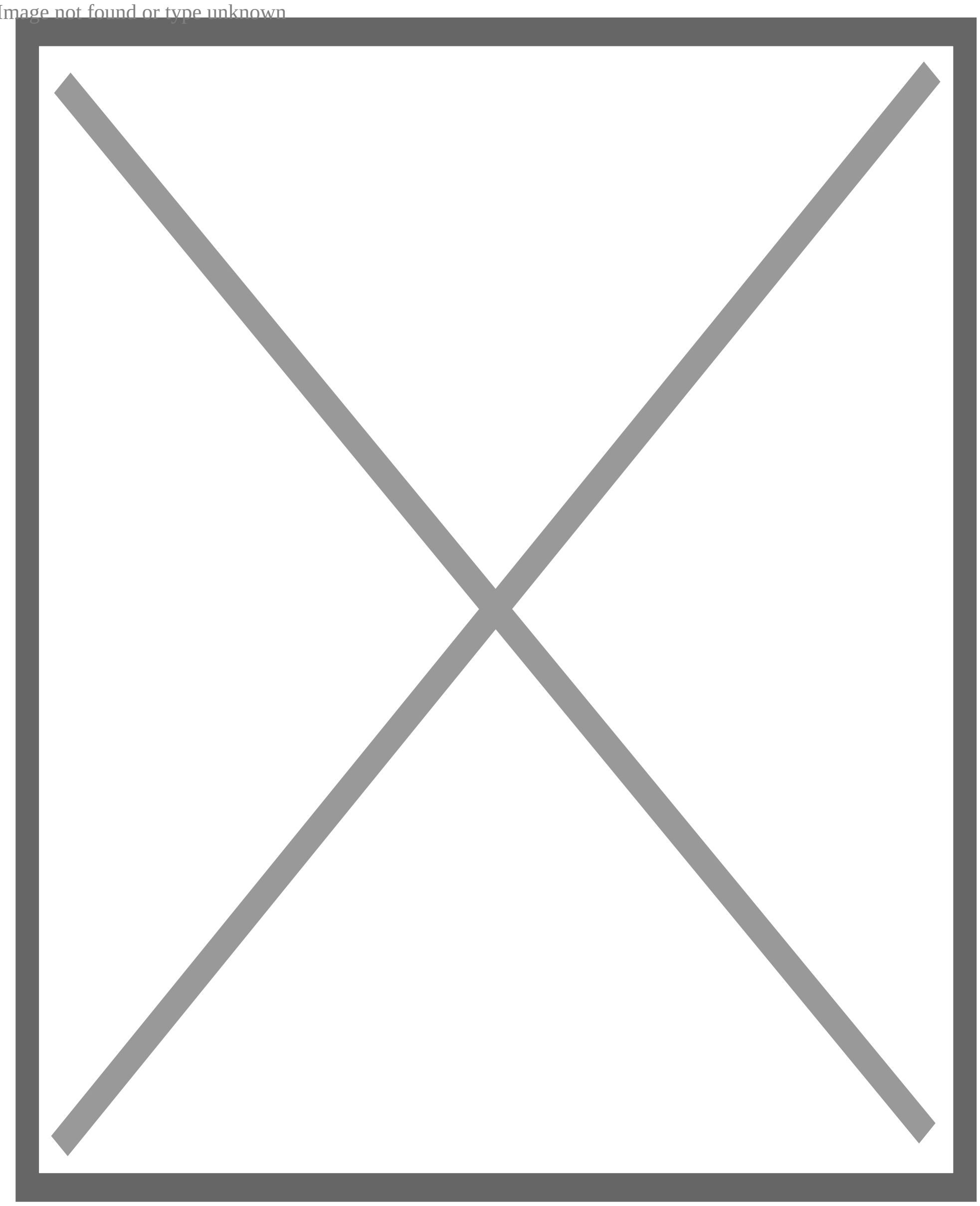

This ancient Roman house uses a variety of passive cooling and passive ventilation techniques. Heavy masonry walls, small exterior windows, and a narrow walled garden oriented N-S shade the house, preventing heat gain. The house opens onto a central atrium with an impluvium (open to the sky); the evaporative cooling of the water causes a cross-draft from atrium to garden.

Primitive ventilation systems were found at the Plo?nik archeological site (belonging to the Vin?a culture) in Serbia and were built into early copper smelting furnaces. The furnace, built on the outside of the workshop, featured earthen pipe-like air vents with hundreds of tiny holes in them and a prototype chimney to ensure air goes into the furnace to feed the fire and smoke comes out safely.[39]

Passive ventilation and passive cooling systems were widely written about around the Mediterranean by Classical times. Both sources of heat and sources of cooling (such as fountains and subterranean heat reservoirs) were used to drive air circulation, and buildings were designed to encourage or exclude drafts, according to climate and function. Public bathhouses were often particularly sophisticated in their heating and cooling. Icehouses are some millennia old, and were part of a well-developed ice industry by classical times.

The development of forced ventilation was spurred by the common belief in the late 18th and early 19th century in the miasma theory of disease, where stagnant 'airs' were thought to spread illness. An early method of ventilation was the use of a ventilating fire near an air vent which would forcibly cause the air in the building to circulate. English engineer John Theophilus Desaguliers provided an early example of this when he installed ventilating fires in the air tubes on the roof of the House of Commons. Starting with the Covent Garden Theatre, gas burning chandeliers on the ceiling were often specially designed to perform a ventilating role.

Mechanical systems

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Further information: Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning § Mechanical or forced ventilation

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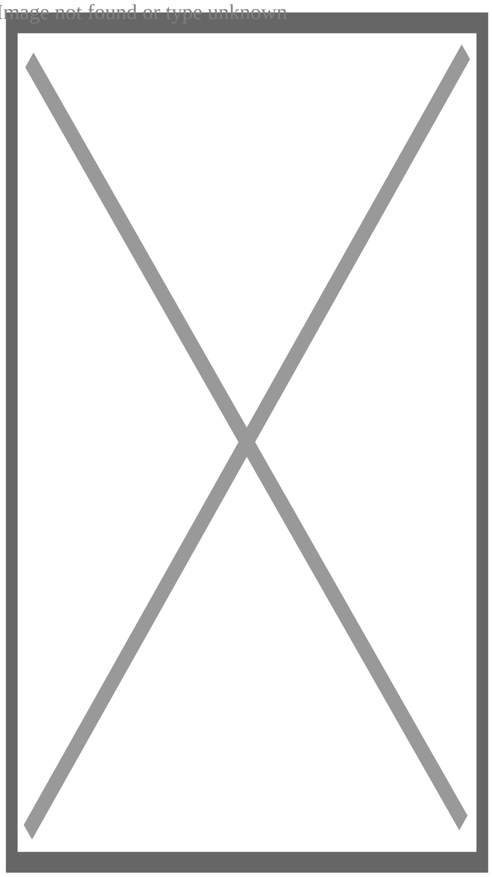

The Central Tower of the Palace of Westminster. This octagonal spire was for ventilation purposes, in the more complex system imposed by Reid on Barry, in which it was to draw air out of the Palace. The design was for the aesthetic disguise of its function.[40][41]

A more sophisticated system involving the use of mechanical equipment to circulate the air was developed in the mid-19th century. A basic system of bellows was put in place to ventilate Newgate Prison and outlying buildings, by the engineer Stephen Hales in the mid-1700s. The problem with these early devices was that they required constant human labor to operate. David Boswell Reid was called to testify before a Parliamentary committee on proposed architectural designs for the new House of Commons, after the old one burned down in a fire in 1834.[40] In January 1840 Reid was appointed by the committee for the House of Lords dealing with the construction of the replacement for the Houses of Parliament. The post was in the capacity of ventilation engineer, in effect; and with its creation there began a long series of quarrels between Reid and Charles Barry, the architect.[42]

Reid advocated the installation of a very advanced ventilation system in the new House. His design had air being drawn into an underground chamber, where it would undergo either heating or cooling. It would then ascend into the chamber through thousands of small holes drilled into the floor, and would be extracted through the ceiling by a special ventilation fire within a great stack.[43]

Reid's reputation was made by his work in Westminster. He was commissioned for an air quality survey in 1837 by the Leeds and Selby Railway in their tunnel.[44] The steam vessels built for the Niger expedition of 1841 were fitted with ventilation systems based on Reid's Westminster model.[45] Air was dried, filtered and passed over charcoal.[46][47] Reid's ventilation method was also applied more fully to St. George's Hall, Liverpool, where the architect, Harvey Lonsdale Elmes, requested that Reid should be involved in ventilation design.[48] Reid considered this the only building in which his system was completely carried out.[49]

Fans

[edit]

With the advent of practical steam power, ceiling fans could finally be used for ventilation. Reid installed four steam-powered fans in the ceiling of St George's Hospital in Liverpool, so that the pressure produced by the fans would force the incoming air upward and through vents in the ceiling. Reid's pioneering work provides the basis for ventilation systems to this day.[43] He was remembered as "Dr. Reid the ventilator" in the twenty-first century in discussions of energy efficiency, by Lord Wade of Chorlton.[50]

History and development of ventilation rate standards

[edit]

Ventilating a space with fresh air aims to avoid "bad air". The study of what constitutes bad air dates back to the 1600s when the scientist Mayow studied asphyxia of animals in confined bottles.[51] The poisonous component of air was later identified as carbon dioxide (CO_2), by Lavoisier in the very late 1700s, starting a debate as to the nature of "bad air" which humans perceive to be stuffy or unpleasant. Early hypotheses included excess concentrations of CO_2 and oxygen depletion. However, by the late 1800s, scientists thought biological contamination, not oxygen or CO_2, was the primary component of unacceptable indoor air. However, it was noted as early as 1872 that CO_2 concentration closely correlates to perceived air quality.

The first estimate of minimum ventilation rates was developed by Tredgold in 1836.[52] This was followed by subsequent studies on the topic by Billings [53] in 1886 and Flugge in 1905. The recommendations of Billings and Flugge were incorporated into numerous building codes from 1900–the 1920s and published as an industry standard by ASHVE (the predecessor to ASHRAE) in 1914.[51]

The study continued into the varied effects of thermal comfort, oxygen, carbon dioxide, and biological contaminants. The research was conducted with human subjects in controlled test chambers. Two studies, published between 1909 and 1911, showed that carbon dioxide was not the offending component. Subjects remained satisfied in chambers with high levels of CO_2, so long as the chamber remained cool.[51] (Subsequently, it has been determined that CO_2 is, in fact, harmful at concentrations over 50,000ppm[54])

ASHVE began a robust research effort in 1919. By 1935, ASHVE-funded research conducted by Lemberg, Brandt, and Morse – again using human subjects in test chambers – suggested the primary component of "bad air" was an odor, perceived by the human olfactory nerves.[55] Human response to odor was found to be logarithmic to contaminant concentrations, and related to temperature. At lower, more comfortable temperatures, lower ventilation rates were satisfactory. A 1936 human test chamber study by Yaglou, Riley, and Coggins culminated much of this effort, considering odor, room volume, occupant age, cooling equipment effects, and recirculated air implications, which guided ventilation rates.[56] The Yagle research has been validated, and adopted into industry standards, beginning with the ASA code in 1946. From this research base, ASHRAE (having replaced ASHVE) developed space-by-space recommendations, and published them as ASHRAE Standard 62-1975: Ventilation for acceptable indoor air quality.

As more architecture incorporated mechanical ventilation, the cost of outdoor air ventilation came under some scrutiny. In 1973, in response to the 1973 oil crisis and conservation concerns, ASHRAE Standards 62-73 and 62–81) reduced required ventilation from 10 CFM (4.76 L/s) per person to 5 CFM (2.37 L/s) per person. In cold, warm, humid, or dusty climates, it is preferable to minimize ventilation with outdoor air to conserve energy, cost, or filtration. This critique (e.g. Tiller[57]) led ASHRAE to reduce outdoor ventilation rates in 1981, particularly in non-smoking areas. However subsequent research by Fanger,[58] W. Cain, and Janssen validated the Yagle model. The reduced ventilation rates were found to be a contributing factor to sick building syndrome.[59]

The 1989 ASHRAE standard (Standard 62–89) states that appropriate ventilation guidelines are 20 CFM (9.2 L/s) per person in an office building, and 15 CFM (7.1 L/s) per person for schools, while 2004 Standard 62.1-2004 has lower recommendations again (see tables below). ANSI/ASHRAE (Standard 62–89) speculated that "comfort (odor) criteria are likely to be satisfied if the ventilation rate is set so that 1,000 ppm CO_2 is not exceeded"[60] while OSHA has set a limit of 5000 ppm over 8 hours.[61]

Historical ventilation rates

Author or source	Year	Ventilation rate (IP)	Ventilation rate (SI)	Basis or rationale
Tredgold	1836	4 CFM per person	2 L/s per person	Basic metabolic needs, breathing rate, and candle burning

Billings	1895	30 CFM per person	15 L/s per person	Indoor air hygiene, preventing spread of disease
Flugge	1905	30 CFM per person	15 L/s per person	Excessive temperature or unpleasant odor
ASHVE	1914	30 CFM per person	15 L/s per person	Based on Billings, Flugge and contemporaries
Early US Codes	1925	30 CFM per person	15 L/s per person	Same as above
Yaglou	1936	15 CFM per person	7.5 L/s per person	Odor control, outdoor air as a fraction of total air
ASA	1946	15 CFM per person	7.5 L/s per person	Based on Yahlou and contemporaries
ASHRAE	1975	15 CFM per person	7.5 L/s per person	Same as above
ASHRAE	1981	10 CFM per person	5 L/s per person	For non-smoking areas, reduced.
ASHRAE	1989	15 CFM per person	7.5 L/s per person	Based on Fanger, W. Cain, and Janssen

ASHRAE continues to publish space-by-space ventilation rate recommendations, which are decided by a consensus committee of industry experts. The modern descendants of ASHRAE standard 62-1975 are ASHRAE Standard 62.1, for non-residential spaces, and ASHRAE 62.2 for residences.

In 2004, the calculation method was revised to include both an occupant-based contamination component and an area–based contamination component.[62] These two components are additive, to arrive at an overall ventilation rate. The change was made to recognize that densely populated areas were sometimes overventilated (leading to higher energy and cost) using a per-person methodology.

Occupant Based Ventilation Rates,[62] ANSI/ASHRAE Standard 62.1-2004

IP Units	SI Units	Category	Examples
0 cfm/person	0 L/s/person	Spaces where ventilation requirements are primarily associated with building elements, not occupants.	Storage Rooms, Warehouses
5 cfm/person	2.5 L/s/person	Spaces occupied by adults, engaged in low levels of activity	Office space
7.5 cfm/person	3.5 L/s/person	Spaces where occupants are engaged in higher levels of activity, but not strenuous, or activities generating more contaminants	Retail spaces, lobbies

10 cfm/person	5 L/s/person	Spaces where occupants are engaged in more strenuous activity, but not exercise, or activities generating more contaminants	Classrooms, school settings
20 cfm/person	10 L/s/person	Spaces where occupants are engaged in exercise, or activities generating many contaminants	dance floors, exercise rooms

Area-based ventilation rates,[62] ANSI/ASHRAE Standard 62.1-2004

IP Units	SI Units	Category	Examples
0.06 cfm/ft^2	0.30 $L/s/m^2$	Spaces where space contamination is normal, or similar to an office environment	Conference rooms, lobbies
0.12 cfm/ft^2	0.60 $L/s/m^2$	Spaces where space contamination is significantly higher than an office environment	Classrooms, museums
0.18 cfm/ft^2	0.90 $L/s/m^2$	Spaces where space contamination is even higher than the previous category	Laboratories, art classrooms
0.30 cfm/ft^2	1.5 $L/s/m^2$	Specific spaces in sports or entertainment where contaminants are released	Sports, entertainment
0.48 cfm/ft^2	2.4 $L/s/m^2$	Reserved for indoor swimming areas, where chemical concentrations are high	Indoor swimming areas

The addition of occupant- and area-based ventilation rates found in the tables above often results in significantly reduced rates compared to the former standard. This is compensated in other sections of the standard which require that this minimum amount of air is delivered to the breathing zone of the individual occupant at all times. The total outdoor air intake of the ventilation system (in multiple-zone variable air volume (VAV) systems) might therefore be similar to the airflow required by the 1989 standard.
From 1999 to 2010, there was considerable development of the application protocol for ventilation rates. These advancements address occupant- and process-based ventilation rates, room ventilation effectiveness, and system ventilation effectiveness[63]

Problems

[edit]

- In hot, humid climates, unconditioned ventilation air can daily deliver approximately 260 milliliters of water for each cubic meters per hour (m^3/h) of outdoor air (or one pound of water each day for each cubic feet per minute of outdoor air per day), annual average.[*citation needed*] This is a great deal of moisture and can create serious indoor moisture and mold problems. For example, given a 150 m^2 building with an airflow of 180 m^3/h this could result in about 47 liters of water accumulated per day.
- Ventilation efficiency is determined by design and layout, and is dependent upon the placement and proximity of diffusers and return air outlets. If they are located closely together, supply air may mix with stale air, decreasing the efficiency of the HVAC system, and creating air quality problems.

- System imbalances occur when components of the HVAC system are improperly adjusted or installed and can create pressure differences (too much-circulating air creating a draft or too little circulating air creating stagnancy).
- Cross-contamination occurs when pressure differences arise, forcing potentially contaminated air from one zone to an uncontaminated zone. This often involves undesired odors or VOCs.
- Re-entry of exhaust air occurs when exhaust outlets and fresh air intakes are either too close, prevailing winds change exhaust patterns or infiltration between intake and exhaust air flows.
- Entrainment of contaminated outdoor air through intake flows will result in indoor air contamination. There are a variety of contaminated air sources, ranging from industrial effluent to VOCs put off by nearby construction work.[64] A recent study revealed that in urban European buildings equipped with ventilation systems lacking outdoor air filtration, the exposure to outdoor-originating pollutants indoors resulted in more Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) than exposure to indoor-emitted pollutants.[65]

See also

[edit]

- Architectural engineering
- Biological safety
- Cleanroom
- Environmental tobacco smoke
- Fume hood
- Head-end power
- Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning
- Heat recovery ventilation
- Mechanical engineering
- Room air distribution
- Sick building syndrome
- Siheyuan
- Solar chimney
- Tulou
- Windcatcher

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  - EBC Annex 9 Minimum Ventilation Rates
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  - EBC Annex 26 Energy Efficient Ventilation of Large Enclosures
  - EBC Annex 27 Evaluation and Demonstration of Domestic Ventilation Systems
  - EBC Annex 35 Control Strategies for Hybrid Ventilation in New and Retrofitted Office Buildings (HYBVENT)
  - EBC Annex 62 Ventilative Cooling

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- Indoor Air Journal
- Indoor Air Conference Proceedings

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[edit]

- ASHRAE Standard 62.1 – Ventilation for Acceptable Indoor Air Quality
- ASHRAE Standard 62.2 – Ventilation for Acceptable Indoor Air Quality in Residential Buildings

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Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning

Fundamental concepts	○ Air changes per hour (ACH) ○ Bake-out ○ Building envelope ○ Convection ○ Dilution ○ Domestic energy consumption ○ Enthalpy ○ Fluid dynamics ○ Gas compressor ○ Heat pump and refrigeration cycle ○ Heat transfer ○ Humidity ○ Infiltration ○ Latent heat ○ Noise control ○ Outgassing ○ Particulates ○ Psychrometrics ○ Sensible heat ○ Stack effect ○ Thermal comfort ○ Thermal destratification ○ Thermal mass ○ Thermodynamics ○ Vapour pressure of water

Technology	○ Absorption-compression heat pump ○ Absorption refrigerator ○ Air barrier ○ Air conditioning ○ Antifreeze ○ Automobile air conditioning ○ Autonomous building ○ Building insulation materials ○ Central heating ○ Central solar heating ○ Chilled beam ○ Chilled water ○ Constant air volume (CAV) ○ Coolant ○ Cross ventilation ○ Dedicated outdoor air system (DOAS) ○ Deep water source cooling ○ Demand controlled ventilation (DCV) ○ Displacement ventilation ○ District cooling ○ District heating ○ Electric heating ○ Energy recovery ventilation (ERV) ○ Firestop ○ Forced-air ○ Forced-air gas ○ Free cooling ○ Heat recovery ventilation (HRV) ○ Hybrid heat ○ Hydronics ○ Ice storage air conditioning ○ Kitchen ventilation ○ Mixed-mode ventilation ○ Microgeneration ○ Passive cooling ○ Passive daytime radiative cooling ○ Passive house ○ Passive ventilation ○ Radiant heating and cooling ○ Radiant cooling ○ Radiant heating ○ Radon mitigation ○ Refrigeration ○ Renewable heat ○ Room air distribution ○ Solar air heat ○ Solar combisystem ○ Solar cooling ○ Solar heating ○ Thermal insulation

- Air conditioner inverter
- Air door
- Air filter
- Air handler
- Air ionizer
- Air-mixing plenum
- Air purifier
- Air source heat pump
- Attic fan
- Automatic balancing valve
- Back boiler
- Barrier pipe
- Blast damper
- Boiler
- Centrifugal fan
- Ceramic heater
- Chiller
- Condensate pump
- Condenser
- Condensing boiler
- Convection heater
- Compressor
- Cooling tower
- Damper
- Dehumidifier
- Duct
- Economizer
- Electrostatic precipitator
- Evaporative cooler
- Evaporator
- Exhaust hood
- Expansion tank
- Fan
- Fan coil unit
- Fan filter unit
- Fan heater
- Fire damper
- Fireplace
- Fireplace insert
- Freeze stat
- Flue
- Freon
- Fume hood
- Furnace
- Gas compressor
- Gas heater
- Gasoline heater
- Grease duct

Components

- Grille
- Ground-coupled heat exchanger

Measurement and control	○ Air flow meter ○ Aquastat ○ BACnet ○ Blower door ○ Building automation ○ Carbon dioxide sensor ○ Clean air delivery rate (CADR) ○ Control valve ○ Gas detector ○ Home energy monitor ○ Humidistat ○ HVAC control system ○ Infrared thermometer ○ Intelligent buildings ○ LonWorks ○ Minimum efficiency reporting value (MERV) ○ Normal temperature and pressure (NTP) ○ OpenTherm ○ Programmable communicating thermostat ○ Programmable thermostat ○ Psychrometrics ○ Room temperature ○ Smart thermostat ○ Standard temperature and pressure (STP) ○ Thermographic camera ○ Thermostat ○ Thermostatic radiator valve
Professions, trades, and services	○ Architectural acoustics ○ Architectural engineering ○ Architectural technologist ○ Building services engineering ○ Building information modeling (BIM) ○ Deep energy retrofit ○ Duct cleaning ○ Duct leakage testing ○ Environmental engineering ○ Hydronic balancing ○ Kitchen exhaust cleaning ○ Mechanical engineering ○ Mechanical, electrical, and plumbing ○ Mold growth, assessment, and remediation ○ Refrigerant reclamation ○ Testing, adjusting, balancing

Industry organizations

- AHRI
- AMCA
- ASHRAE
- ASTM International
- BRE
- BSRIA
- CIBSE
- Institute of Refrigeration
- IIR
- LEED
- SMACNA
- UMC

Health and safety

- Indoor air quality (IAQ)
- Passive smoking
- Sick building syndrome (SBS)
- Volatile organic compound (VOC)

See also

- ASHRAE Handbook
- Building science
- Fireproofing
- Glossary of HVAC terms
- Warm Spaces
- World Refrigeration Day
- Template:Fire protection
- Template:Home automation
- Template:Solar energy

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National

- Czech Republic

Other

- NARA

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