1	Title: Impact of COVID-19 protocols on IEQ and students' perception within educational
2	buildings in Southern Spain.
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during the pandemic. Based on these findings, current pandemic protocols should be revised and redesigned to minimize the impact on student satisfaction and perceived learning performance from the identified environmental sources in this research.

Keywords: Indoor environmental quality, educational buildings, building management,
occupants' satisfaction, IEQ monitoring, natural ventilation.

### 30 Introduction

31 Indoor air quality (IAQ) has received growing attention in recent years due to its short and long-32 term impacts on occupants' health and well-being (Camacho-Montano, Wagner, Erhorn-Kluttig, 33 Mumovic, & Summerfield, 2019; Wargocki et al., 2002). Considering the pollutant 34 concentrations in indoor air (Brelih & Seppänen, 2011; EPA, 2013) and the fact that people tend 35 to spend approximately 90% of their time indoors, the built environment is an important element 36 in its occupants' health and pollutant exposure (Odeh & Hussein, 2016; WHO, 2014). Ventilation 37 measures, such as ensuring an adequate ventilation rate (VR), provide an outdoor airflow that 38 removes or dilutes indoor-generated pollutants and improve IAQ. Ventilation standards and 39 guidelines in European countries, and elsewhere, state that building ventilation is mandatory in 40 order to ensure a satisfactory IAQ level and a healthy indoor built environment (ECA, 2017). 41 However, maintaining an acceptable IAQ is a challenge in highly occupied environments such as 42 educational buildings, where teachers, students and staff spend long periods of time (at least five 43 hours per day) (Choe et al., 2022; ECA, 2017).

Nevertheless, despite the fact that good indoor environmental conditions are essential to providing a healthy, safe, productive and comfortable space, previous research studies have documented inadequate indoor environmental quality (IEQ) in educational buildings (Almeida & De Freitas, 2014; Daisey, Angell, & Apte, 2003; Teli, James, & Jentsch, 2013; Toftum et al., 2015; Van Dijken, Van Bronswijk, & Sundell, 2006). In view of the serious consequences of poor IEQ on students, in recent years previous research has been conducted with the aim of analysing the impact of natural ventilation on indoor environmental conditions in educational buildings. These 51 research works were performed in pre-pandemic scenario. Thus, Sarbu and Pacurar (Sarbu & 52 Pacurar, 2015) conducted a study to evaluate thermal comfort by subjective (using questionnaires) 53 and objective (physical variables) measurements in two naturally ventilated classrooms in the 54 Polytechnic University of Timisoara. They found that the average CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was 1450 ppm and 670 ppm in winter and summer respectively. The reason that this CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was 55 56 lower in the summer season was that the windows were opened more often than they were in 57 winter. Similar results were found in Italian natural ventilated classrooms by Stabile, Dell'Isola, 58 Russi, Massimo and Buonanno (2017) and UK ventilated classrooms by Korsavi, Montazami and 59 Mumovic (2020a, 2020b).

60 Previous studies also concluded that indoor air quality was strongly affected by the adaptive 61 behaviors of the occupants. Regarding the driving factors related to the window-opening behavior 62 in natural ventilated classrooms, Stazi, Naspi, Ulpiani and Di Perna (2017) concluded that 63 students tend to suffer from poor air quality during heating season due to the students' 64 prioritization of satisfying thermal perceptions. Indeed, Stazi affirmed that indoor and outdoor 65 temperature are the main factors driving window-opening behaviors, while CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is not a stimulus. Similar conclusions were obtained by Duarte et al. (2017) and Heracleous and 66 67 Michael (2019) in educational buildings in Portugal and Cyprus, respectively.

68 However, building occupants' behaviours and natural ventilation strategies have been modified 69 as a results of the COVID-19 pandemic. The IAQ and indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentration have recently 70 been highlighted since teaching-learning spaces have become high risk environments for the 71 transmission of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2). Since this is 72 an infectious virus that is mainly airborne, students or teachers could potentially be infected by 73 inhaling a virus-containing aerosol generated when an infected individual exhales, speaks, shouts, 74 coughs or sneezes (Greenhalgh et al., 2021). This fact makes it critical to manage IAQ in 75 classrooms. Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted the opinion in buildings 76 engineering regarding healthy buildings (Awada et al., 2021) and has showed up the importance 77 of ventilation (Gil-Baez et al., 2021).

78 In these circumstances, the closure of educational buildings was a measure taken by governments 79 all over the world, in order to contain the virus transmission, in response to the COVID-19 80 outbreak. Despite the fact that learning activities were moved off-campus through the 81 implementation of digital tools, this change posed difficulties of adaptation for teachers and 82 students. This decision has affected more than 1.5 billion students worldwide and has had a severe 83 impact on the learning process (Debbarma & Durai, 2021). Research conducted by Odriozola-84 González, Planchuelo-Gómez, Irurtia and Luis-García (2020) showed that 50.43% of the 85 respondents at a Spanish University presented a moderate to severe impact of the outbreak. 86 Therefore, Educational Institutions decided to return to face-to-face delivery of some academic 87 activities (e.g. exams and assessments) in order to minimise the impact of the situation on their 88 communities. Consequently, the return to the classroom required the implementation of measures 89 to ensure a safe indoor environment for students and teachers.

90 In this regard, while the selection of an appropriate ventilation strategy in naturally ventilated 91 classrooms can provide effective ventilation and low levels of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, it also has an 92 impact on all other indoor environmental variables. Ventilation levels affect indoor air 93 temperature, air quality and acoustic parameters and they also impact, in a more indirect manner, 94 the learning performance and capacity of students (Aguilar, de la Hoz-Torres, Martínez-Aires, & 95 Ruiz, 2021; Daisey et al., 2003; Chryso Heracleous & Michael, 2018). IEQ factors have been 96 associated with student learning and achievements, as well as illness and adverse health 97 symptoms, leading to student absenteeism (Berman et al., 2018; Durán-Narucki, 2008; Eide, 98 Showalter, & Goldhaber, 2010; Haverinen-Shaughnessy, Shaughnessy, Cole, Toyinbo, & 99 Moschandreas, 2015; Mendell & Heath, 2005).

Recent research conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic scenario has evaluated the impact of natural ventilation protocols in the indoor physical environmental variables of classrooms in regions with similar climate conditions. Thus, in Villanueva et al. (2021) was assessed indoor air conditions in 19 schools (pre-school, primary and secondary) and it was found that most classrooms met the increased ventilation conditions through natural ventilation systems, although

105 a total of 5 (26%) classrooms were found to exceed the recommended CO<sub>2</sub> concentration limit 106 value (700 ppm) set by the COVID protocols. In a related research, Gil-Baez et al. (2021) 107 evaluated environmental conditions in schools with natural ventilation systems during the 108 COVID-19 pandemic. The results showed that natural ventilation systems can ensure adequate 109 indoor air quality without compromising comfort conditions in mild weather conditions. 110 However, these previous research studies have not conducted an evaluation of student satisfaction 111 and sensation based on direct methods (i.e. surveying occupants) during the COVID-19 scenario. 112 Therefore, with the aim of complementing this issue, the problem statement of the present work 113 is to analyse the influence of COVID-19 protocols through the use of direct methods (sensor 114 monitoring and a field survey campaign) in educational buildings to drive conclusions from the 115 impact of these protocols on the indoor environmental conditions.

116 In addition, it should also be borne in mind that exam period has an important impact on the 117 student body in any academic year. From the analysis of the evolution of the pandemic event, it 118 is observed that new peaks of the crisis caused by COVID-19 may occur during exam periods. In 119 order to prevent the spread of COVID-19 in university spaces, the IEQ of teaching-learning spaces 120 should be assessed during exams after the reopening of educational buildings. However, a very 121 limited research has been conducted during extreme events such as the COVID-19 pandemic, 122 which had analyzed the impact of the application of these extraordinary protocols on the indoor 123 environmental conditions in educational buildings. In this sense, the objective of this study is to 124 evaluate the indoor environmental quality of teaching-learning spaces and the impact of COVID-125 19 protocols on students' perception and satisfaction during exams after the reopening of 126 educational buildings. For this purpose, an on-site monitoring campaign and a questionnaire 127 survey were conducted simultaneously during two periods of exams on Fuentenueva Campus at 128 the University of Granada.

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### 131 Methodology

## 132 Study area and building description

The Fuentenueva Campus is located in Granada, Andalusia (37°11′ N, 3°36′ W). This Campus is sited in the urban part of the city. Granada has a Mediterranean climate with hot and dry summers and cool damp winters. It is also characterised by strong daily and seasonal variations in temperature (AEMET, 2021). The daily average temperatures and RH is 34°C and 37% in the hottest month (July) and 13°C and 72% in the coldest (January). However, night temperatures can drop to ~1°C in the coldest month.

139 Ten classrooms were selected in three educational buildings of the Fuentenueva Campus, for this 140 research study. The ventilation system of the buildings is based on natural ventilation. All 141 classrooms have manually operated windows on at least one side (see Figure 1 in the 142 supplementary material online). The classrooms were selected according to the reopening plan of 143 the University of Granada (UGR, 2020). The characteristics of the classrooms are shown in the 144 Table 1 in the supplementary material online. The heating system was operating during the study 145 and none of the classrooms had air conditioning equipment or mechanical ventilation systems. 146 The guidelines for the return to face-to-face activity were based on maximising occupancy while 147 respecting the 1.5 m distance rule between users. In addition, priority was given to classrooms 148 with natural cross ventilation between doors and windows.

# 149 COVID-19 protocols in teaching-learning spaces

As in many countries, a COVID-19 protocol were adopted in the teaching-learning spaces with the aim of maintaining a sufficient fresh air supply to obtain a low virus level concentration and therefore preventing virus transmission. Specifically, the University of Granada approved a plan (UGR, 2020) based on the recommendations of the Ministry of Health of the Spanish Government (2020) and taking into account the current status of these spaces, as was stated in the WHO (2015) report. In this context, the COVID-19 protocols implemented during the examination period included: physical distancing (at least 1.5 m), wearing a face mask, handwashing, maintaining

157 healthy facilities and increasing natural ventilation. In fact, the Ministry of Health of the Spanish 158 Government (2020) recommended that the ventilation rate should be at least 12.5 litres/second 159 per person in teaching-learning spaces. Since an increase of the ventilation rate is required, two 160 strategies can be adopted: natural ventilation (increasing the flow of outside air through windows 161 and doors according to the characteristics of the classroom) or mechanical ventilation (by 162 increasing system capacity). In the case of educational buildings in Southern Spain, as in most 163 European countries, classrooms are naturally ventilated (WHO, 2015) and thus the contingency 164 and action plan for COVID-19 drawn up by the universities considered these circumstances. In 165 this sense, the plan drawn up by the University of Granada (similar to others from European 166 educational organisations) stated the following protocol in classrooms for the academic activities: 167 one hour before the start of classes, all windows and doors were opened. This configuration was 168 maintained during the face-to-face teaching-learning activities. Finally, the windows remained 169 opened for one hour after the end of the activities. In addition, it also stated that one of the 170 measures of ventilation required for the reopening of educational centres was: "even if the weather 171 conditions are adverse, ventilation must be carried out by means of natural ventilation through 172 open windows and doors" (UGR, 2020).

### 173 Data collection

In order to assess the IEQ factors in classrooms during the exams, objective (on site monitoring) and subjective (questionnaire survey) data collection were carried out. A measurement campaign was performed between January and July 2021. The campaign was divided into two monitoring periods: P1 (during the 3<sup>rd</sup> wave of COVID-19 infections, a period when restrictions on citizens were in place) and P2 (between the 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> wave of infections, during a period of relaxation of the measures and reopening of educational centres).

## 180 Questionnaire survey

In this study, university students who were performing face-to-face academic activities during
both periods were selected. The subjective responses of the participants were collected through a

questionnaire. The used questionnaire comprised five parts: 1) General information, 2) Acoustic comfort, 3) Lighting comfort, 4) Thermal comfort, and 5) Overall comfort. These questions and the 7-point Likert scale with 0 as neutral is based on the UNE–CEN/TR 16798-2:2019 scale and the questionnaire was validated by an focus expert group prior to be applied to the respondents.

187 In 'General information' (1), respondents answered questions about their age, sex and type of 188 mask used during the exam session. In parts 2), 3) and 4), they responded to questions about their 189 satisfaction, sensation and performance interference, in terms of acoustics, lighting and thermal 190 environmental conditions. A 7-point Likert scale was used to evaluate IEQ. The satisfaction 191 ratings ranged from 'very satisfied' (+3) to 'very dissatisfied' (-3). For sensation, the range for 192 acoustic was from 'too quiet' (+3) to 'too noisy' (-3), for light from 'too bright' (+3) to 'too dark' 193 (-3) and for thermal from 'too hot' (+3) to 'too cold' (-3). For interference assessment, the range 194 was from 'enhances a lot' (+3) to 'interferes a lot' (-3). In addition, participants reported possible 195 causes of dissatisfaction and interference for each of the variables analysed. Participants could 196 select one or more causes of dissatisfaction. Finally, part 5) evaluated the overall satisfaction and 197 interference (acoustic, lighting and thermal). The questions contained in the questionnaire are 198 provided in Table 2 in the supplementary material online.

In addition, clothing insulation was annotated by the researchers during the survey time using a
checklist from UNE 7730 Standard. Based on these data, clothing insulation was then calculated
following Tables C.1 and C.2 in the UNE 7730 Standard.

# 202 IEQ monitoring

In addition to the questionnaire survey, IEQ sensor monitoring was carried out during the faceto-face exams. The duration of the measurement was between 1.5 and 2.0 hours, according to the exam duration. For this purpose, temperature (°C), relative humidity (%), air speed (m/s), lighting (lux), CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (ppm) and sound pressure level (dBA) were measured. All variables were measured in 1 minute intervals. Table 1 shows the characteristics of the sensors used. The

- sensors were placed around the classroom close to the students, 0.6 m above the floor and with a
- 209 separation >1 m from surrounding surfaces.
- 210 Table 1. Sensor characteristics.

Sensor	Variable	Range measurement	Accuracy
	Temperature	0 to 50°C	±0.21°C
$\mathbf{U} \cap \mathbf{P} \cap \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{V} 1 1 0 2$	RH	1 to 90%	±2%
HOBO MATIOZ	$CO_2$	0 to 5,000 ppm	$\pm 50 \text{ ppm} \pm 5\% \text{ of}$ reading
HOBO® MX1104	Light	0 to 167,731 lux	±10% typical for direct sunlight
HD403TS2 Delta OHM <sup>®</sup>	Air velocity	0.1 to 5 m/s	$\pm$ 0.2 m/s + 3% f.s.
Imperum-R TECNITAX® Ingeniería	Sound pressure level	35–115 dBA	$\pm 1 \text{ dBA}$

Outdoor climatological physical data were obtained from a meteorological station located at the
Cartuja Campus of University of Granada. The data were provided by the State Meteorological
Agency of Spain (AEMET).

# 215 Statistical analysis

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216 The statistical analysis focused on analysing the existence of differences between the probability distributions for both periods (P1 and P2), age, sex and different types of masks. The normality 217 218 of the data was checked by goodness-of-fit tests (P-P probability plots and the Kolmogorov-219 Smirnov test). Regarding normal distributions, the parametric paired t-test was used. For the rest, 220 the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test was used. Levene's test for equality of variances was 221 used to check the homoscedasticity requirement during the performance of the paired t-test. In 222 addition, a study of the correlations between the different variables was carried out. Parametric 223 Pearson correlations was used in the analysis. SPSS software (v. 23.0) was used in the statistical 224 analysis.

225 **Results** 

# 226 **On-site IEQ monitoring**

Table 2 shows the objective values obtained from the sensors during IEQ measurements in the periods P1 and P2. As can be seen, the mean outdoor temperature in P1 was  $12.2^{\circ}C$  (±  $4.6^{\circ}C$ ), while the indoor temperature was  $18.4^{\circ}C$  (±  $2.1^{\circ}C$ ). In contrast, the mean outdoor and indoor temperature was  $26.3^{\circ}C$  (±  $6.1^{\circ}C$ ) and  $27.4^{\circ}C$  (±  $2.0^{\circ}C$ ) respectively in P2. Regarding RH, in P1 it was  $46.3^{\circ}$  (±  $9.8^{\circ}$ ) and in P2 it was  $34.5^{\circ}$  (±  $7.5^{\circ}$ ).

232 The values defined by Spanish state regulations (RITE, 2007) in the winter season are 21-23°C 233 and RH between 40-50%, and in the summer season 23-25°C and RH between 45-60%. From the 234 analysis of these values, it can be concluded that indoor temperature was outside the comfort 235 range defined in state regulations in P1, while the RH was within the defined ranges in the same 236 period. The same case can be observed in P2 for both mean indoor temperature and RH. Similar 237 results have been shown in previous studies carried out in educational buildings in a 238 Mediterranean climate during the COVID-19 pandemic. Gil-Baez et al. (2021), found indoor 239 temperatures ranging from 18.61° to 24.41°C inside classrooms, while HR values ranged from 240 32.42% to 67.90%.

241 For air velocity, the mean value obtained was 0.11 m/s ( $\pm$  0.08 m/s) in P1 and 0.08 m/s ( $\pm$  0.04 242 m/s) in P2. The air velocity is moderate given the natural ventilation strategies implemented in 243 the classrooms. Regarding  $CO_2$  concentration, the average levels obtained were low (517 ppm 244 and 440 ppm in P1 and P2, respectively). These levels are derived from the protocol established 245 for COVID-19 spread control (the limitation of occupancy inside the classrooms and 1.50 m social 246 distance, combined with natural cross ventilation between doors and windows). The values are 247 far below the recommendations established in international guidelines, such as those indicated by 248 the WHO (2000) and RITE (2007) (i.e. 1000 ppm and 900 ppm, respectively).

The mean lighting values in the P1 and P2 periods were 351 lux and 527 lux, the latter being higher due to the higher number of sunshine hours. Finally, with respect to the indoor acoustic environment, the continuous sound pressure level ( $L_{Aeq}$ ) during the exams in P1 and P2 was 57.0 dBA and 54.5 dBA, respectively. In this sense, there were unusually high values for the academic activities being carried out (exams). This was evident, since keeping the windows and doors open 254 causes an increase in background noise levels derived from traffic (in an urban area of Granada),

as well as the rest of the activities occurring around the University.

Indoor Temperature (°C)		Out Tempe (°	door erature C)	HR	(%)	A velo (m	.ir ocity n/s)	C (pp	O2 om)	Ligł (lu	nting (x)	L (dF	<sup>Aeq</sup> BA)	
Period	P1	P2	P1	P2	P1	P2	P1	P2	P1	P2	P1	P2	P1	P2
Max	21.6	29.3	21.8	33.7	62.6	48.3	0.28	0.16	668	576	506	815	62.6	64.3
Min	15.6	22.0	7.5	16.7	27.9	24.5	0.03	0.01	401	397	310	221	51.6	49.8
Average	18.4	27.4	12.2	26.3	46.3	34.5	0.11	0.08	517	440	351	527	57.0	54.5
Median	18.1	27.8	10.7	25.0	47.9	35.3	0.08	0.08	510	428	356	558	56.5	53.7
SD	2.1	2.0	4.6	6.1	9.8	7.5	0.08	0.04	83	46	134	185	2.9	4.1

256 Table 2. Main values obtained for the IEQ measurements during the 2 periods

257

# 258 Questionnaire survey responses

# 259 General information

260	A total of 491 questionnaires were obtained during the measurement campaign, of which 57
261	(12%) were discarded due to incompleteness, resulting in a total of 434 valid questionnaires (222
262	corresponding to P1 and 212 corresponding to P2). Table 3 shows the general information from
263	the participants. The age range of the majority of the survey respondents was between 18 and 25
264	years, with a similar distribution in both periods (71% and 87% in P1 and P2, respectively). This
265	age range is usual among undergraduate students. In terms of the distribution of men and women,
266	they are similar in both periods (65-59% and 35-41%, respectively). Since students were siting
267	during face-to-face exams, this is considered a sedentary activity and the metabolic rate is
268	assumed to be 1.2 met. In addition, the median insulation clothing value obtained in P1 and P2
269	were 0.74 clo and 0.57 clo respectively, with a difference between periods of 0.17 clo. Figure 1
270	shows the clothing insulation values of students during the survey time in periods P1 and P2.

271	Table 3.	General	l information	from (	questionnaire	survey	participants.

<b>X</b> 7 • ·	^	Responses			
Varia	ble	P1	P2		
	n/a	5 (2%)	9 (4%)		
Age	18-25	157 (71%)	184 (87%)		
-	+25	60 (27%)	19 (9%)		
C	Male	144 (65%)	125 (59%)		
Sex	Female	78 (35%)	87 (41%)		
Type of mask	n/a	4 (2%)	0 (0%)		

	FFP2	136 (61%)	85 (40%)
	Surgical	61 (27%)	101 (48%)
	Cloth	16 (7%)	20 (9%)
	Other	5 (2%)	6 (3%)
272			





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Figure 1. Clothing insulation values in P1 and P2.

Regarding the use of masks, there is a clear difference between P1 and P2. During the first period, the use of FFP2 type masks was the most common (61%) compared to surgical (27%). However, during the P2 period, the percentage of users using surgical masks (48%) was higher than that using FFP2 (40%). It should be noted that Granada was facing the 3<sup>rd</sup> wave of the COVID-19 pandemic during P1, compared to P2, when it was at a plateau prior to the escalation of the 4<sup>th</sup> wave.

281

## 282 Indoor acoustic environment

Figure 2 shows the results obtained during P1 and P2 in relation to the indoor acoustic environment. As can be seen, the results of question acoustic satisfaction show a low percentage of dissatisfaction (the sum of very dissatisfied, dissatisfied and slightly dissatisfied) of 27% in P1 and 12% in P2. This was in contrast to 64% and 80% of satisfied (the sum of slightly satisfied, satisfied and very satisfied) in both periods, respectively.



288



Figure 2. Distribution of votes for indoor acoustic environment questions.

290 Regarding the results obtained in acoustic sensation, only 18% in P1 and 5% in P2 considered the 291 noise level in the classroom to be noisy or very noisy. Consequently, regarding the perception of 292 the interference of the noise factor with student performance, 42% indicated (in question AC.3 293 about acoustic impact on task performance) that the noise interfered with them (considering the 294 sum of interferes a lot, interferes and interferes a little) in P1, and 24% in P2. Figure 3 shows the 295 causes of dissatisfaction with the indoor acoustic environment. It should be noted that, in both P1 296 and P2, the sum of the three main causes of dissatisfaction (>70%) came from noise sources 297 outside the classroom (i.e. outdoor traffic noise, other outdoor noise and people talking in 298 neighbouring areas).



299

300 Figure 3. Analysis of the dissatisfaction causes regarding the indoor acoustic environment.

# 301 Indoor lighting environment

302 The obtained results related to indoor lighting environment showed that 89% of respondents were

303 satisfied with the interior lighting in P1, increasing to 93% in P2 (Figure 4). In the case of lighting

304 sensation, 18% and 15% of respondents indicated that the environment was too dark in P1 and

305 P2, respectively; with 0% indicating that the lighting environment was too bright in both cases.







Figure 4. Distribution of votes for indoor lighting environment questions.

308 In addition, regarding the interference of the lighting environment with the students' performance, 309 7% indicated that it interfered with the activity in P1, compared to 3% of students that indicated 310 that it interfered in P2. Among the causes of dissatisfaction (Figure 5), insufficient daylight is the 311 most frequently indicated in both periods (25% in P1 and 19% in P2); followed by "electric 312 lighting is an undesirable color" (16%) in P1 and "shadows on the workspace" (19%) in P2. It 313 should be pointed out that the protocol implemented as a consequence of COVID-19 had no 314 impact on classroom lighting. The opening of doors and windows and the distribution of students 315 in the classroom during exams did not change the interior lighting of the classroom.



316

317 Figure 5. Analysis of the dissatisfaction causes regarding the indoor lighting environment.



#### 318 **Indoor thermal environment**

319 Figure 6 shows the results obtained in the questionnaire survey concerning the thermal 320 environment inside the classrooms. It should be noted that of all the different factors analysed, 321 thermal environment is the only one that provides opposite responses in the two periods. The 322 dissatisfaction rate was 53% and satisfaction rate was 31% in P1, compared to 17% and 66% in 323 P2, respectively.

324 Regarding thermal sensation in P1, 28% indicated cool-cold and 33% slightly cool. In P2, on the 325 contrary, 24% indicated warm-hot and 27% slightly warm. This is due to the fact that P1 coincided 326 with the winter season and P2 with the spring-summer season. As for the evaluation of 327 interference performance, 53% of the respondents indicated that the indoor thermal environmental 328 condition interfered at least slightly during P1. By contrast, in P2, 49% indicated that the indoor 329 thermal environment improved their ability to perform their work.

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Figure 6. Distribution of votes for indoor thermal environment questions.

Figure 7 summarises the main causes of dissatisfaction with the indoor thermal environment. It can be seen that, in both periods, drafts are the main cause of dissatisfaction. This cause is especially important in P1, constituting one third of the votes among the causes of dissatisfaction. The second most-voted cause was that the air movement was too high (16%). Both causes are directly related to the COVID-19 contingency plan measures (keeping doors and windows open). The next cause is related to the heating system not responding fast enough (14%). In this sense, the facilities are not designed to meet the demands of this new pandemic situation.

During P2, drafts account for about a quarter of the votes indicated among the causes of thermal discomfort (22%). This cause is followed by 'surfaces around me are warmer/cooler' (14%) and 'the air movement is too low' (14%). In this sense, the social distance (at least 1.5 m) caused the

- 343 students to be evenly distributed throughout the classroom. Therefore, some students were closer
- to the windows than the rest. This fact resulted in some students being more exposed to air currents
- 345 than others were and, therefore, were more exposed to solar radiation.





347 Figure 7. Analysis of the dissatisfaction causes regarding the indoor thermal environment.

# 348 **Overall satisfaction**

Finally, Figure 8 shows the overall satisfaction of students with the indoor environment. The results show that 65% of the respondents were satisfied with the overall IEQ in the classroom in P1 while, during P2, the overall satisfaction rose to 87%. Moreover, only 36% indicated that the IEQs were an improvement during P1, compared to 68% in P2. Furthermore, the results show that during P1 (corresponding to the winter season), the opening of doors and windows to achieve good ventilation was more dissatisfying than P2. In this regard, during P1, 31% of the responses indicated that their productivity was decreased by the indoor environmental conditions.







Figure 8. Distribution of votes for overall indoor environment conditions.

#### 358 Statistical analysis and correlations

359 Firstly, since the measurement campaign was carried out in two different periods (P1 and P2), a 360 t-test was conducted, in order to determine if there was a significant difference in the response 361 obtained between the two periods (data provided in Table 3 in the supplementary material online). 362 The obtained results about the indoor acoustic, thermal and lighting environment showed that the 363 difference between the mean values of satisfaction, sensation and performance interference were 364 statistically significant (con p < 0.000 in all the cases), with the exception of lighting sensation, 365 whose mean values were not significantly different between periods (p=0.175).

366 Regarding the overall indoor environment, the results obtained show that there were significant differences between the mean values of overall workspace satisfaction (OV.1) and overall impact 367 368 on task performance (OV.2) (p<0.001 in both cases). In addition to the previous analysis, it was 369 found that no significant differences were observed in the sex distribution in both periods. Moreover, no significant differences were observed in any of the variables' distributions 370 371 according to sex.

372 Secondly, since it was found that the surgical mask and the FFP2 mask were the ones most used 373 by the students, a t-test was performed to determine if there are differences between the answers 374 provided according to the type of mask used. The results show that there are significant 375 differences in acoustic satisfaction (p<0.001), acoustic sensation (p<0.001), acoustic impact on 376 task performance (p=0.003) and thermal satisfaction (p=0.009).

Finally, the values obtained from the correlation analysis are shown in Figure 9. On the one hand, the results suggest that the overall satisfaction of students during exams (OV.1) is conditioned by multiple factors. It is worth noting the positive relationship with AC.2 ( $\rho$ =0.66, p<0.001), in which it can be seen that a quiet environment contributes to increasing overall satisfaction and improved student performance.



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Figure 9. Correlation analysis.

Moreover, overall workspace satisfaction (OV.1) shows a moderate correlation with thermal environment satisfaction (TH.1) ( $\rho$ =0.51, p<0.001). These correlations suggest that the indoor acoustic environment, as well as the thermal environment, have a greater influence on overall satisfaction than the variables related to the lighting of the indoor environment. In addition, in relation to OV.2 performance, the only variable with a moderate correlation was the indoor acoustics (AC.2) ( $\rho$ =0.52, p<0.001).

390 On the other hand, in relation to thermal satisfaction and thermal sensation, it is observed that, in 391 the range of temperatures in which the measurement campaign was carried out, there is a positive 392 relationship between the interior temperature and the students' thermal satisfaction and sensation 393 with it ( $\rho$ =0.44, p<0.001 and  $\rho$ =0.55, p<0.001, respectively). In contrast, a negative relationship 394 is obtained between the acoustic satisfaction and acoustic sensation with the L<sub>Aeq</sub> sound pressure 395 level, the quieter the environment, the more satisfied students are with it ( $\rho$ =-0.31, p<0.001 and 396  $\rho$ =-0.35, p<0.001, respectively).

397 Figure 10 shows the relationship between thermal, acoustic and lighting sensation votes with the 398 indoor temperature, sound pressure level and lighting, respectively. As can be seen, with the 399 exception of the relationship between TSV and temperature, the obtained coefficients of 400 determination  $(R^2)$  are quite low. Previous research reported that the individual differences between subjects affect the high variability of sensation votes and this result in a low coefficient 401 402 of determination (Jowkar, Rijal, Montazami, Brusey, & Temeljotov-Salaj, 2020). From these 403 results, the neutral temperature obtained was 23.2 °C. The differences between the neutral 404 temperature and the average indoor temperature obtained in P1 (18.4 °C) was -4.81 °C and in P2 405 (27.4 °C) was +4.2 °C. Regarding the acoustic sensation votes, students considered that L<sub>Aeg</sub> above 406 60 dBA were noisy. Finally, regarding the lighting sensation votes, the range of lighting values 407 measured in this study (200-800 lux) were considered as a bright environment.



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409 410 Figure 10. (a) Relationship between TSV and temperature. (b) Relationship between ASV and sound pressure level. (c) Relationship between LSV and Lighting.

## 411 Discussion

412 The results highlight that the natural ventilation strategies were effective since the average indoor 413 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration level was 517 ppm in P1 and 440 ppm in P2. If these values are compared with 414 other results found in other studies carried out during the COVID-19 pandemic period in similar 415 climatological regions, it is observed that similar low concentration values were also reported in 416 studies conducted in educational buildings (Miranda, Romero, Valero-Amaro, Arranz, & 417 Montero, 2021; Villanueva et al., 2021). In contrast, Gil-Baez et al. (2021) reported higher CO<sub>2</sub> 418 concentrations (between 969 - 2919 ppm). These values were higher since, unlike our study, the 419 windows and doors remained closed during part of the time of the study. The same reason explains 420 that the results obtained in our study differ from those found by other research carried out in 421 Southern Spain prior to the COVID-19 outbreak. So, Fernández-Agüera, Campano, Domínguez-422 Amarillo, Acosta and Sendra (2019) conducted on sited measurements in classrooms and found 423 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration values above 1000 ppm, with higher values during winter season due to the 424 ventilation strategy (windows and doors were closed in the around 60% of the classrooms 425 analysed).

426 In terms of the indoor air temperature and RH, in our research it was measured an average 427 temperature of 18.4 °C (ranged from 15.6° to 21.6°) and an average HR of 46.3% (ranged from 428 27.9% to 62.6%) in P1, while in P2 it was 27.4 °C (ranged from 22.0° to 29.3°) and 34.5% (ranged 429 from 24.5% to 48.3%), respectively. These values are similar to those obtained for other authors 430 in the period of the COVID19 pandemic (Gil-Baez et al., 2021; Miranda et al., 2021) but they are 431 quite different from the pre-pandemic time period. Indeed, Fernández-Agüera et al. (2019) 432 reported values between 37 - 59 % and temperature values between 17.8 - 24.2 °C during midseason, and between 44 - 64 % and 19.2 - 22.7 °C respectively during winter season). 433

The average air velocity was 0.11 m/s (ranged between 0.03 - 0.28m/s) in P1 and 0.08 m/s (0.01-0.16) in P2. Miranda et al. (2021) reported lower values in their measurement campaign conducted in winter season (air velocity ranged from 0.003 to 0.12). These results are in accordance with the ventilation strategy adopted in each case.

Regarding the indoor acoustic environment, the L<sub>Aeq</sub> was 57.0 dBA in P1 and 54.5 dBA in P2 respectively. Previous field tests developed by the authors (de la Hoz-Torres, Aguilar, Ruiz, & Martínez-Aires, 2021) showed that natural ventilation strategies through opening windows and doors affect the indoor acoustics quality during the teaching process. In fact, it was found that background noise level can be increased between 6.4 dBA and 12.6 dBA in contrast to the same scenarios with closed doors and windows.

444 With regard to the data obtained from the occupant surveys, it is interesting to note that the 445 average overall satisfaction was 65% during P1 and 87% during P2. The highest percentage of 446 dissatisfied students in both periods is related to the indoor thermal conditions (53% in P1 and 447 17% in P2). The continuous natural ventilation by opening doors and windows has conditioned 448 the indoor temperature of the classroom, resulting in wider temperature ranges in both periods 449 than the values reported in studies carried out before the COVID-19 pandemic (Fernández-Agüera 450 et al., 2019). Before the implementation of the epidemic protocols, students could open and close 451 windows freely. However, during the pandemic, windows had to be kept open even if outdoor 452 environmental conditions were adverse. Furthermore, from the obtained results, it was observed that students were more satisfied with a slightly warm environment versus a cooler environment. 453 454 This is reflected by the fact that the percentage of dissatisfied students is higher in the season 455 when the average indoor temperature was lower (winter, i.e. P1). In comparison to P1, natural 456 ventilation during P2 can lead to an improvement of the indoor thermal environment, since 457 ventilation can regulate the indoor temperature. Previous studies reported improvement of the 458 indoor thermal environment through natural ventilation. Heracleous and Michael (2018) 459 concluded that, since classrooms in Southern European countries have been diachronically 460 naturally ventilated, natural ventilation strategies can improve thermal comfort in intermediate

seasons (fresh outdoor airflow is welcomed by the occupants in the classrooms). However,
measures to reduce the risk of overheating must be adopted in the warmer periods (Duarte et al.,
2017).

464 It is also interesting to note that the clothing insulation values obtained in both periods (0.74 clo 465 in P1 and 0.57 clo in P2) are similar to the values reported in a previous study conducted before 466 COVID-19 pandemic (0.56 clo in warm seasons and 0.77 clo in winter season) (Wang, Kim, 467 Xiong, & Yin, 2019). If the obtained values are compared with those reference clothing insulation 468 values set in the Spanish state regulation (RITE, 2007) for sedentary activities (1.2 met), it is 469 found that the clothing insulation value obtained during P2 is similar (RITE states a 0.5 clo value 470 for the warm season) but the value obtained in P1 is lower (RITE states a 1.0 clo value for the 471 cold season). In this sense, the high percentage of dissatisfied students in P1 may be influenced 472 by both factors: (1) students were dressed with inadequate clothing insulation and (2) the 473 temperature inside the classroom was lower as a result of the implemented COVID-19 protocols.

In addition, it should be noted that wearing a face mask may affect the thermal comfort of
students. In fact, previous research have showed that the type of mask and the ambient
temperature affect thermal comfort (Zender-Świercz, Telejko & Galiszewska, 2021; Milošević et
al., 2022).

478 It is also remarkable that the second indoor environmental condition with the highest percentage 479 of dissatisfied students was the acoustic conditions. This percentage was much higher in the first 480 period (P1) than in the second (P2). In fact, if the LARQ values are compared between both periods, 481 it can be observed that the average level in P1 (57.0 dBA) is also higher than the average level 482 obtained in P2 (54.5 dBA). Since the academic activities in which the measurement campaign 483 was conducted were exams, where the activity does not require teacher/student interaction, noise 484 can be an important factor in student performance. In this sense, there is a relationship between 485 the protocol implemented to ensure effective ventilation of the classroom (all doors and windows 486 open during the academic activity) and the LAeq level inside the classroom. External noise sources 487 contribute to increasing indoor LAeq noise levels to a greater extent than in pre-pandemic 488 conditions (closed windows and doors). This fact is conditioned by the location of the university
489 campus in the centre of the urban part of Granada. Previous studies have already highlighted that
490 noise pollution is a problem in educational buildings in large cities (Ali, 2013; Chiang & Lai,
491 2008; Shield & Dockrell, 2004), so this is exacerbated by the measures implemented as a result
492 of the COVID-19 pandemic.

493 In summary, acoustic and thermal conditions have influenced the student's satisfaction. Indeed, 494 the statistical analysis results have shown a moderate-high relationship between the overall 495 students' satisfaction with acoustic satisfaction and with thermal satisfaction ( $\rho=0.64$ ; p<0.001496 and  $\rho=0.51$ ; p<0.001, respectively). Since pandemic protocols and ventilation strategies influence 497 environmental conditions, their modification and adaptation could provide safe and secure spaces 498 for the people and the environment. It should bear in mind that the percentage of students 499 dissatisfied with the indoor environmental conditions in classrooms after implementing the 500 COVID-19 protocols was higher in P1 than in P2. This fact suggests that pandemic protocols 501 should be rethought and different strategies should be designed to adapt them to each seasonal 502 period. Adaptations to improve indoor thermal conditions have to be prioritized during cold 503 season since it was one of the major causes of students' dissatisfaction. The redesign process of 504 ventilation protocols should give priority to ensuring an indoor temperature close to the neutral 505 temperature (23.3°C). Additionally, given the influence of acoustic conditions on overall student 506 satisfaction, this process has also to prioritize providing suitable acoustic conditions during both 507 time periods, avoiding high noise level values that have been rated by students as noisy (60.0 508 dBA).

Finally, this research shows that a COVID-19 ventilation strategy based on continuous natural ventilation through windows and doors provides effective air renewal and low CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, but it does not ensure a minimum IEQ and occupant satisfaction. In addition, it should be taken in into account that natural ventilation strategies based only in the subjective physical response of students are not able to provide a minimum IAQ during severe conditions (winter and fall), so a ventilation strategy based on only those subjective data is not suitable 515 (Stabile, Dell'Isola, Frattolillo, Massimo, & Russi, 2016). In view of these facts, the selection of 516 the ventilation strategy based on taking into account both an effective air renewal for low  $CO_2$ 517 concentrations and IEQ factors for occupant satisfaction becomes essential in this process and 518 pandemic protocols should consider these findings in the process of redesigning ventilation 519 strategies.

520

# 521 Limitations

The measurement campaign conducted in this study was carried out only during the months when face-to-face activities took place in educational buildings in the academic year 2020-2021. These activities only included exams, since all the other learning activities were moved off-campus (on line) in order to prevent the virus transmission. Therefore, the obtained results should not be extended without further analysis to other seasons or scenarios where different ventilation strategies could have been implemented (i.e. windows are not continuously opened or the classroom is mechanically ventilated).

Additionally, it should be noted that this measurement campaign has been conducted in university educational buildings. Further research will be needed in order to expand these results to other types of educational buildings and scenarios, since their characteristics may be different (spaces with less surface area, higher occupancy density, ventilation systems, etc.).

## 533 Conclusion

The situation arising from the pandemic caused by COVID-19 has led to an increased interest in achieving a good IAQ in the indoor built environment. The characteristics of educational buildings (high occupancy density and natural ventilation systems in most of the spaces) result in challenging conditions for building engineers and managers. These circumstances have led to the implementation of protocols to increase the air change rate in classrooms through the opening of windows and doors. Consequently, in addition to IAQ, the other IEQ factors have been affected by these measures, providing values very different from those expected under normal operatingconditions.

542 This research shows that the implemented protocols have had an impact on student satisfaction 543 regarding the indoor built environment. Although ventilation strategies have provided effective 544 air renewal, it is clear that they have also disturbed indoor environmental conditions in 545 classrooms, and not always in the sense of an IEQ improvement. In this sense, it should be noted 546 that academic activities such as exams provide stress to students, which in turn can be also 547 affected by poor IEQ conditions in classrooms. The obtained results show that pandemic protocols 548 should not only prioritise ensuring a good IAQ but also the rest of IEQ factors by considering 549 how the extend of this condition and its potential to disturb the student performance could be. In 550 view of these facts, and given that most educational building in Europe are naturally ventilated, 551 the finding of the current study could be successfully used to define and redesign the ventilation 552 pandemic protocols of educational building in countries with similar climatic conditions (e.g. 553 Mediterranean climate). Future research studies should address the development of systems and 554 devices combined with redesigned safety protocols that ensure not only that indoor spaces are 555 safe but also that they maintain acceptable levels of satisfaction in relation to IEQ. This is crucial 556 in order to make buildings resilient and minimise the impact of pandemics on the learning process 557 of future generations.

558

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565

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