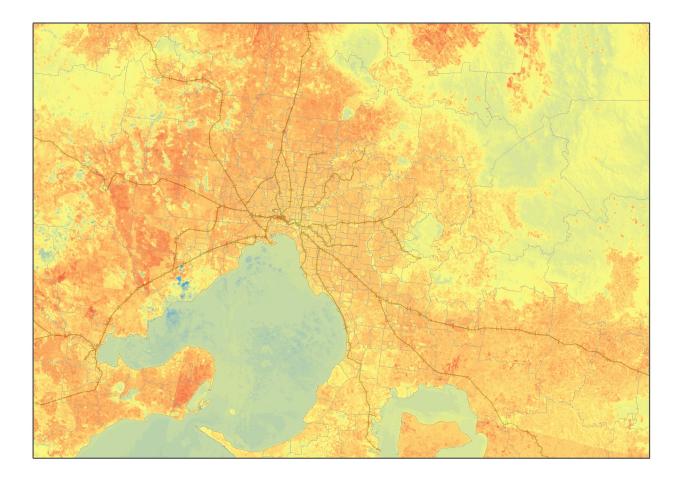
# Urban Vegetation, Urban Heat Islands and Heat Vulnerability Assessment in Melbourne, 2018











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## **Executive summary**

This report provides a statistical analysis of the relationship between urban vegetation cover and urban heat island effect (UHI) in Melbourne metropolitan area, based on 2018 vegetation cover and land surface temperature data. Both the vegetation and UHI data were attributed to ABS 2016 census Mesh Blocks. This report also presents a heat vulnerability assessment at the SA1 (Statistical Area 1) level, making use of 2016 Census data along with the 2018 vegetation cover and land surface temperature data. The report provides an updated assessment of the relationship between UHI and vegetation cover, and an updated HVI, from the previously submitted interim report based on 2014 vegetation cover and land surface temperature data (Sun et al., 2018). The 2014 and 2018 temperature analysis are not directly compared in this project, as land surface temperature derived from Landsat thermal images is subject to the availability of satellite images, which causes significant annual variation between two different years due to climatic factors which are difficult to control for.

The vegetation structure data was produced using CSIRO's Urban Monitor<sup>TM</sup> approach (Caccetta *et al*, 2018). This provides a three dimensional representation of the spatial distribution of vegetation at 30 centimetre resolution. Vegetation cover was grouped into five height classes: grass (0-0.5m); shrub (0.5-3m); small tree (3-10m); medium tree (10-15m); large tree (15m+).

The UHI is a measure of the deviation of urban temperatures relative to a non-urban baseline. The UHI measure was derived from land surface temperature (LST) data based on Landsat 8 thermal infrared data collected by the United States Geological Survey (USGS). This data provides a two dimensional representation of the spatial distribution of UHI at 30-meter resolution landscape (Devereux, & Caccetta, 2017).

## Summary of LST results:

- Results show that mean UHI LST (UHI\_2018\_m) varied from 10.20°C to -7.16°C at Mesh Block level.
- Four LGAs have over 9.5°C mean composite summer UHI (Brimbank, Casey, Melton, Moonee Valley).
- With the exception of Mornington Peninsular, Yarra Ranges and Nillumbik, all urban LGAs had over 7.0°C mean composite summer UHI.
- Large UHI concentration areas appeared in the west and southeast part of Melbourne metropolitan, along with some scattered areas with strong UHI effects in the northern suburbs. Lower LST concentration areas were mainly along the coastal areas, eastern and north eastern suburbs and highly vegetated areas.

## Global (classic statistical) relationships:

- UHI had weak negative global correlations with percentage of grass and shrub covers.
- UHI has medium global correlation with all other measures of vegetation covers; with the strongest negative correlation being with percentage of total tree cover.
- Both simple regression models and multiple regression models show weak to moderate negative relationships (R<sup>2</sup> < 0.40) between UHI and urban vegetation types.

• Therefore, analysis of the global relationship between UHI and vegetation confirms that vegetation is related to reduced UHI, but does not reveal the spatial variation of the relationship.

## Local (spatially explicit) relationships:

• When considering the spatial variation in the relationship among LST and vegetation (using Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) and Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR)) we found that tree types are better predictors of UHI than grass and shrub vegetation cover UHI. When local area effects are considered, the combined all vegetation structure is a useful predictor of the UHI with *R*<sup>2</sup>=0.90.

## Heat Vulnerability

- High-risk areas with Heat Vulnerability Index (HVI) 5 were mainly distributed in the suburban areas of Melton, Brimbank, Darebin, Casey, Wyndham LGAs. The risks in some areas were high, despite the lower magnitude of UHI, because of the high human sensitivity or lower adaptive capability to heat, such as the SA1s in north Dandenong and Casey.
- Implications: The impact of UHI effects were weakened due to the low social vulnerability in some suburban areas benefitting from the low proportion of sensitive population or the high level of socioeconomic development, such as Nillumbik and some SA1s in Manningham LGAs. By contrast, high social vulnerability intensifies heat health risks in some newly urbanised areas of Melbourne, such as Tarneit and Altona North.

## Introduction

Temperatures in many urban areas are warmer than their rural surroundings. This phenomenon is known as the 'Urban Heat Island' which refers to temperature differences attributable to urbanisation. Urban heat islands can have multiple impacts on health, resource use, and air quality. In the absence of a dense network of meteorological stations to measure air temperature, satellite thermal infrared imagery is commonly used to estimate land surface temperatures (LST) instead. Land surface temperatures are most similar to near-ground air temperatures early in the morning. In most situations, however, land surface temperatures are useful for gauging the level of exposure to urban heat, even if there is not always a direct relationship with air temperature. In response to growing heat vulnerability of our urban dwellers, a body of research has sought to identify the causes of warming in urban areas and determine how increasing temperatures manifest as the urban heat island effect (Mirzaei, 2015).

The correlation between urban green space and cooler urban temperatures has been established. However, detecting this correlation does not provide the specific information urban planners require to effectively utilise and develop urban green space as an adaptive strategy to protect urban dwellers from heat. First, this correlation is often observed using vague definitions of green space including broad categorisations of green space itself (Estoque, Murayama, & Myint, 2017), the use of remotely sensed normalised difference vegetation index (NDVI) values (Chun & Guldmann, 2014; Guo et al., 2015), or simply comparing urban surface temperatures with vegetated areas a short distance from urban areas (Zhou, Zhang, Li, Huang, & Zhu, 2016). Variation in the categorisation of green space can obscure the diversity of vegetation in urban areas; or can identify relationships between vegetation and cooling in rural areas which may not translate effectively to urban environments. Wang, Zhan, and Ouyang (2017) also highlight the limitations with existing categorisations of built-up areas and the relationship with temperature. The result is that urban planners lack information concerning how the spatial arrangement and structure of urban vegetation can be used to generate local cooling effects.

This report provides a statistical analysis of the relationship between high resolution urban vegetation cover and satellite derived urban heat island effect (UHI) in Melbourne via both classic and spatial explicit statistical approaches. The report provides an updated assessment of the relationship between UHI and vegetation cover, and an updated HVI, from the previously submitted interim report based on 2014 vegetation cover and land surface temperature data (Sun et al., 2018). The 2014 and 2018 temperature analysis are not directly compared, as land surface temperature measurement is subject to the availability of satellite thermal images, e.g., Landsat-8 has a 16-day revisit cycle, which caused significant annual variation between different years due to climatic factors which are difficult to control for.

## Approach

Aim: Analyse the relationships between urban vegetation structure (cover and height of the tree, shrub, and grass) and UHI.

## Vegetation data:

The vegetation cover data was produced using CSIRO's Urban Monitor approach (Caccetta *et al*, 2018). This provides a three-dimensional representation of the spatial distribution of vegetation at 20

centimetre resolution. Vegetation cover was grouped into five height classes: grass (0-0.5m); shrub (0.5-3m); small tree (3-10m); medium tree (10-15m); large tree (15m+).

## UHI data:

The UHI is a measure of the deviation of urban temperatures relative to a non-urban baseline. The UHI measure was derived from land surface temperature (LST) data based on Landsat 8 thermal infrared data collected by the United States Geological Survey (USGS). This data provides a two dimensional representation of the spatial distribution of UHI at 30-meter resolution landscape (CSIRO, Thermal client report 2017).

The Landsat 8 thermal infrared data used for this study were collected by the USGS at approximately 9.50 AM Eastern Standard Time (EST); 10:50 AM Daylight Saving Time (DST). Only images in summer 2017–18 that were cloud free across all of metropolitan Melbourne were included in this project. The UHI is a measure of the deviation of urban temperatures relative to a non-urban baseline. Native vegetated sites were used to establish the baseline. This was achieved by estimating a first-order fit to the temperature of native vegetation within and around each urban centre. This fit captures any broad-scale temperature trend that is likely independent of urbanisation, such as cooling with increased latitude or proximity to the coast. After subtracting this fit, the residuals may be interpreted as showing finer scale deviations from this trend, including deviations attributable to urbanisation of the landscape (CSIRO, Thermal client report 2017).

## Analysis:

We analysed and quantified Landsat-8 derived Land Surface Temperature (LST) and vegetation types (Urban Monitor data) to investigate their relationship for total 55603 Mesh Blocks in Melbourne. Both datasets were corresponding to the year of 2018. The average difference in summer LST (UHI\_2018\_m) to baseline LST was used as the dependent variable. Both UHI and vegetation data were attributed to ABS 2016 Mesh Block boundary (GIS shapefile layer).

Eight explanatory fields were set up:

PerGrass: Percentage of Grass PerShrub: Percentage of Shrubs PerTr3\_10m: Percentage of Tree with height from 3 to 10 meters PerTr10\_15: Percentage of Tree with height from 5 to 15 meters PerTr15mPI: Percentage of Tree with height over 15 meters PerAnyVeg: Percentage of all vegetation (Grass, Shrubs, Trees) PerAnyTree: Percentage of all Tree types PerTrAndSh: Percentage of all Tree types and Shrubs UHI\_2018\_m: Average difference in Land Surface Temperature (LST) to baseline LST

We integrated indicators of heat vulnerability to calculate a Heat Vulnerability Index (HVI) at SA1 level. The index consists of three component layers: heat exposure, sensitivity to heat, and adaptive capability. Integration was accomplished by summing the scores from the three vulnerability components, dividing the SA1s into quintiles, and attributing SA1s with a *Heat Vulnerability Rating* scaled from 1 to 5.

## **Results:**

## 1. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics help understand the distribution of the variables used across different geographical levels.

## 1.1. Mesh Block level:

The eight explanatory fields listed above were attributed to the Spatial dataset of ABS Mesh Blocks across Melbourne metro area, subject to vegetation data availability (coverage of 2018 aerial imagery), n=55603.

Across the whole dataset: Results show that mean UHI LST (UHI\_2018\_m) varied from 16.89°C to - 8.92°C at Mesh Block level (Table 1). The mean temperature was 8.36 °C above baseline LST.

					Std.				
	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Deviation	Skew	ness	Kurt	osis
							Std.		Std.
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Error	Statistic	Error
PerGrass	55603	0.00	94.42	12.2166	11.21015	2.443	0.010	7.924	0.021
PerShrub	55603	0.00	37.57	6.5293	3.13384	0.664	0.010	4.511	0.021
PerTr03_10	55603	0.00	54.36	9.3492	5.42745	0.883	0.010	2.127	0.021
PerTr10_15	55603	0.00	39.52	2.4252	3.08840	2.513	0.010	9.343	0.021
PerTr15Pl	55603	0.00	71.61	1.5239	4.24101	6.069	0.010	47.956	0.021
PerAnyTree	55603	0.00	79.17	13.2983	10.00905	1.688	0.010	4.062	0.021
PerShrbTre	55603	0.00	82.62	19.8276	11.06801	1.187	0.010	2.616	0.021
PerAnyVeg	55603	0.00	97.59	32.0441	15.82258	1.015	0.010	1.608	0.021
UHI_2018_m	55603	-8.92	16.89	8.3571	2.18003	-1.019	0.010	3.881	0.021

Table 1. Mean and Std of UHI\_2018 and urban vegetation types for total 55603 Mesh Blocks

## 1.2. LGA level:

The bar chart in Figure 1 shows, at the LGA level, the average difference in Land Surface Temperature (LST) to baseline LST. When aggregated to LGA, mean UHI LST (UHI\_2018\_m) varied from 0.03°C to 10.75°C. Four LGA have over 9.5°C mean UHI (Brimbank, Casey, Melton, Moonee Valley). Note that some urban fringe LGAs only contain part of the LGA area due to the vegetation cover data availability. For a detailed breakdown of LGA statistics see **Appendix 1** for data table and box plots).



Figure 1. The average difference (°C) in Land Surface Temperature (LST) to baseline LST (°C) between LGAs (LGA name 2016)

1.3. Spatial variation and the clusters of UHI:

The sum of UHI effects at LGA level (Figure 1) present an average value for overview. They do not indicate the specific areas with significant UHI effects. The spatial pattern of UHI was investigated using Local Moran's I, a spatial statistical method, to identify clusters of UHI at Mesh Block level (Figure 2). The red areas indication regions where high value (mean UHI) areas are next to other high values. UHI large concentration areas appeared in the west (e.g. Melton) and southeast (e.g. Casey) part of Melbourne metropolitan, along with some scattered areas with strong UHI effects in the northern suburbs. Lower LST concentration areas were mainly along the coastal areas, Yarra Valley and highly vegetated areas. The red areas represent regions most effected by UHI, as there is a significant concentration of UHI at Mesh Block level. Therefore, these areas may be appropriate to target with initiatives to reduce UHI.

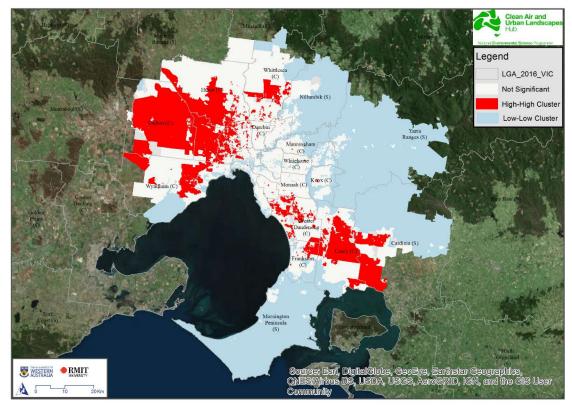


Figure 2. Map of UHI concentration areas in Melbourne metropolitan based on landsat-8 derived LST

## 2. Relationship analysis

2.1. Global correlations between LST and urban vegetation

Pearson Correlation statistics were performed to explore the strength of the associations between vegetation structure variables and LST (Table 2). Eight vegetation structure variables (percentage of Grass, Shrubs, Trees with three different heights, all vegetation, all trees, Shrubs& all Trees in each Mesh Block) and the average difference in summer LST (UHI\_2018\_m) to baseline LST were used for analysis in SPSS.

		PerGra ss	PerShr ub	PerTr3_1 0m	PerTr10_ 15	PerTr15m Pl	PerAnyV eg	PerAnyTr ee	PerTrAnd Sh
	Pearson Correlati on	034**	162**	474**	451**	447**	426**	585**	575 <sup>**</sup>
UHI_2018 _m	Sig. (2- tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	55603	55603	55603	55603	55603	55603	55603	55603

Table 2. Pearson Correlation coefficients between UHI_2018 and urban vegetation	n typoc
Table 2. Pearson correlation coefficients between ORI_2016 and urban vegetation	ni types

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

UHI\_2018\_m has inverse correlations with the eight fields, with strongest coefficient (r) of 0.585 for PerAnyTree.

This shows:

- Grass has a weak negative impact on UHI (*r* =-0.034).
- Shrub has weak negative impact on UHI (r = -0.162).
- All individual tree types have medium negative impact on UHI (-0.4 > r > -0.5).
- All trees and shrubs&trees have medium negative impact on UHI (*r* <-0.5).
- Therefor in terms of reducing UHI, it is trees that would have the most impact, whereas shrubs minor and grass very little.
- 2.2. Global regressions for LST and urban vegetation

Simple and multiple linear regressions were performed to examine the relationships between average difference in LST to baseline LST (dependent variable) and urban vegetation structures (independent variables) in order to estimate the causal effects of vegetation on LST or to predict how effective urban vegetation can be to reduce the LST.

2.2.1.Simple linear regression for LST and each vegetation types or combinations

Dependent variable: UHI\_2018\_m

Independent variables: PerGrass; PerShrub; PerTr3\_10m; PerTr10\_15; PerTr15mPl; PerAnyVeg; PerAnyTree; PerTrAndSh.

Simple Regression Results/observation: Scatter plots in Appendix 2 (Figure s4 – Figure s11)

"AnyTree" is observed as the best predictor of the explanatory variables (R<sup>2</sup> =0.34), however, under simple linear it is a weak predictor of reduced UHI.

2.2.2. Multiple linear regression for LST and the combination of all vegetation types

Dependent variable: UHI\_2018\_m

Independent variables: PerGrass; PerShrub; PerTr3\_10m; PerTr10\_15; PerTr15mPl

SPSS Regression method: Enter

The outputs from the multiple linear regression are in Table 3 and 4. As with single regression, multiple regression finds the combination of vegetation types is a weak predictor of UHI ( $R^2 = 0.356$ ). We expect that these weak relationship is partly due to geographical factors, in particular distance decay. For example, patches of small and isolated vegetation are not likely to influence UHI; whereas agglomerations of vegetation and tree patches are more likely to impact UHI.

Table 3. Summary of Multiple linear regression model

Model	R	R <sup>2</sup>	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.597ª	0.356	0.356	1.74901

a. Predictors: (Constant), PerTr15mPl, PerGrass, PerTr3\_10m, PerShrub, PerTr10\_15

	Coefficientsª							
		Unstandardi	Unstandardized Coefficients Standardized Coefficients					
Model		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.		
1 (Constar	nt)	10.322	0.02		520.939	0.00		
PerGrass	S	-0.012	0.001	-0.062	-17.313	0.00		
PerShru	b	-0.006	0.003	-0.009	-2.175	0.03		
PerTr3_	10m	-0.154	0.002	-0.383	-74.395	0.00		
PerTr10	_15	-0.028	0.004	-0.04	-7.414	0.00		
PerTr15	mPl	-0.177	0.002	-0.344	-81.618	0.00		

#### Table 4. Coefficients of multiple linear regression model

a. Dependent Variable: UHI\_2018\_m

## 2.3. Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) for LST (UHI) and urban vegetation

Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) is a technique for exploratory data analysis that provides estimates of regression coefficients for each geographical location, based on a weighting of other observations near that location. The basic assumption is that observations exhibit spatial dependency: in some areas the influence might be much stronger than in other areas. This has its root from the first law of geography "Everything is related to everything else, but near things are more related than distant things". The geographically weighted regression (GWR) method, a spatial form of linear regression, analyses spatial relationships between variables. GWR is more effective than global regression at exploring the spatially varied relationship between LST and vegetation variables.

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression, serves as a starting point to select the key explanatory variables. OLS is similar to linear regression but gives the maximum likelihood estimation on the relationships between dependent and independent variables. It is also used to measure the variables' multicollinearity with the variance inflation factor (VIF).

## Observations from the OLS and GWR results:

OLS results (Table 5) show that all vegetation types have negative relationships with UHI effect, although both grass and shrub are very poor predictors for UHI effect (r < 0.01). In addition, no significant multicollinearity was found between the explanatory variables (VIFs are moderate). We then used all the five vegetation types as explanatory variables to build a GWR model. Results of GWR (Table 6) show that the model achieved adjusted R<sup>2</sup>=0.90, which indicates that LST difference in 90% of studied Mesh Blocks was explained by the combination of three types of vegetation. R-Squared is a measure of goodness of fit. Its value varies from 0.0 to 1.0, with higher values being preferable. It may be interpreted as the proportion of dependent variable variance accounted for by the regression model.

Table 5. OLS observations						
Coefficients	р	VIF				
-0.0121	0.00	1.11				
-0.0064	0.03	1.55				
-0.1539	0.00	2.29				
-0.0279	0.00	2.45				
-0.1767	0.00	1.53				
	Coefficients -0.0121 -0.0064 -0.1539 -0.0279	Coefficients p   -0.0121 0.00   -0.0064 0.03   -0.1539 0.00   -0.0279 0.00				

	OBJECTID *	VARNAME	VARIABLE	DEFINITION
•	1	Neighbors	100	
	2	ResidualSquares	20036.085101	
	3	EffectiveNumber	10198.675105	•
	4	Sigma	0.666688	
	5	AICc	118971.667534	
	6	R2	0.922734	
	7	R2Adjusted	0.905254	
	8	Dependent Field	0	UHI18_m
	9	Explanatory Field	1	PerGrass
	10	Explanatory Field	2	PerShrub
	11	Explanatory Field	3	PerTr03_10
	12	Explanatory Field	4	PerTr10_15
	13	Explanatory Field	5	PerTr15Pl

Table 6. GWR report on R<sup>2</sup>

To examine the spatial weighted influence of vegetation cover structure the GWR model generates local estimates (coefficients and R<sup>2</sup>) for the dependent variable (UHI). The spatial changes in the magnitude of the R<sup>2</sup> parameter indicate the locally changing influence of tree cover structure on the dependent variable, here the UHI (see Figure 3). This is the essence of spatial heterogeneity: the structure of the model changes from place to place across the study area as the parameter estimates change in relation to each other in the model. Local R<sup>2</sup> range between 0.0 and 1.0 indicating how well the local regression model fits observed UHI values. Very low values indicate the local model is performing poorly. Mapping the Local R<sup>2</sup> values to see where GWR predicts well and where it predicts poorly may provide clues about important variables that may be missing from the regression model.

The GWR model also generates the local coefficients for independent variables. The coefficients for the individual contribution of the three different vegetation classifications (grass, shrubs, tree 3-10m; tree 10-15m; tree 15+) to the UHI effect are included in **Appendix 3**). The effects vary between different types and across different locations. In practical terms the local estimates can be used for mitigating strategies. The results also recognise that small and isolated patches of vegetation are less likely to influence temperature (expect perhaps at very local scale and undetectable by satellite), than consolidated patches.

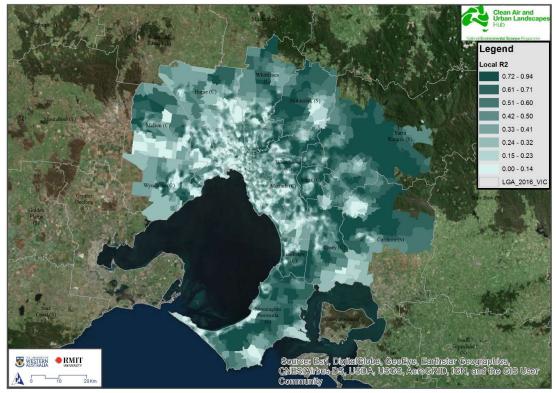


Figure 3. Local R<sup>2</sup> of GWR analysis between vegetation types and LST in Melbourne. darker colour indicates high goodness-of-fit.

## 3. Vulnerability Assessment

The heat vulnerability assessment is to identify areas where we might expect high vulnerability to heat waves. We focus on areas with higher UHI relative to baseline; in combination with selected land cover attributes and demographic characteristics. Table 7 shows the breakdown indicators for calculate the Heat Vulnerability Index (HVI).

In the absence of a dense network of meteorological stations to measure air temperature, satellite thermal infrared imagery is commonly used to estimate land surface temperatures (LST) instead. Land surface temperatures are most close to near-ground air temperatures early in the morning. In most situations, land surface temperatures are useful for gauging the level of exposure to urban heat (Inostroza, Palme, & de la Barrera, 2016). We used LST derived UHI for heat exposure indicator. It is also acknowledged that socioeconomic factors play an important role in the ability of populations to prepare for, respond to, and recover from heat and their vulnerability (Rohat et al., 2019; Wilhelmi & Hayden, 2010).

Land cover provides a sensitivity indicator for the retention of heat in the urban environment.

- Following above analysis of vegetation impact of UHI, we used % trees as a sensitivity indicator, with high cover corresponding with a low sensitivity score.
- We used % roads as a sensitivity indicator, with high cover corresponding with a high sensitivity score, as roads retain heat in the urban environment.
  - Note: % built up area is commonly used as a sensitivity indicator. If DELWP can provide building footprint data, this can be included in the analysis.

Demographic data:

- We used population density (persons per square km) as a sensitivity indicator, with high number corresponding with a high sensitivity score, as denser populations are more sensitive to heat related health complications.
- We used population (Percentage) of people >= 65 years old as a sensitivity indicator, with high number corresponding with a high sensitivity score, as elderly people are more sensitive to heat related health complications.
- We used population (Percentage) of people <= 4 years old as a sensitivity indicator, with high number corresponding with a high sensitivity score, as very young people are more sensitive to heat related health complications.
- We used persons in need of care as a sensitivity indicator, with high number corresponding with a high sensitivity score, as persons needing care are more sensitive to heat related health complications.
- We used SEIFA-IRSD as an adaptive indicator, with high deciles corresponding with a high adaptive capacity score, as more advantaged populations have more resources to respond to heat.

We used SEIFA-IEO as an adaptive indicator, with high deciles corresponding with a high adaptive capacity score, as more advantaged populations have more resources to respond to heat.

Table 7. Indicators of exposure,	sensitivity and adaptive capa	rity for heat vulnerability index
	sensitive and adaptive capa	ity for ficat value ability filack

s;	meshblock	meshblock	based on	n based	n based	based on	se to 0-1	index
			,					
meshblock	based on	based on	n density	populatio	populatio	need care	Normali	al level
mean UHI based on	mean cover	mean cover	mean populatio	mean elderly	mean very young	mean Persons	c index score;	and occupation
each SA1	each SA1	each SA1	each SA1	each SA1	each SA1	each SA1	economi	Eucational
A) Assign	<b>B</b> ) Assign	<b>C</b> ) Assign	density D) Assign	E) Assign	young F) Assign	need care <b>G</b> ) Assign	IRSD H) Socio-	I)
UHI	Vegetation	Roads	Population	Elderly	Very	Persons	SEIFA-	SEIFA-IEO
Exposure Indicator					e capacity cators			

Exposure indicator into Quintiles

Sensitivity Indicators into Quintiles

Adaptive capacity indicators into Quintiles

Sum aggregated indicators to determine vulnerability score. This gives equal weighting (one third each) to exposure, sensitivity, and adaptability.

Heat Vulnerability Index = Exposure Index + Sensitivity Index– Adaptive Capacity Index

HVI 1 = First quintile (1/3 (A + (B+C+D+E+F+G)/6 - (H+I)/2)HVI 2 = Second quintile (1/3 (A + (B+C+D+E+F+G)/6 - (H+I)/2)HVI 3 = Third quintile (1/3 (A + (B+C+D+E+F+G)/6 - (H+I)/2)HVI 4 = Fourth quintile (1/3 (A + (B+C+D+E+F+G)/6 - (H+I)/2)HVI 5 = Fifth quintile (1/3 (A + (B+C+D+E+F+G)/6 - (H+I)/2)HVI 0: means that the SA1 has no population in census 2016. Normalisation and equal weighting for individual variables were used in the calculation with the reference of other studies (Aubrecht & Özceylan, 2013; Chow, Chuang, & Gober, 2012; Dong et al., 2014; Tomlinson, Chapman, Thornes, & Baker, 2011; Vescovi, Rebetez, & Rong, 2005). The original scores of indicators were normalised between 0 and 1 using min-max normalisation, so that the normalized values of variables are relative importance measures of each SA1s in relation to the others.

The assessment of heat vulnerability as SA1 level provides more detailed pattern of spatial heterogeneity than other studies at LGA level. However, the data can be aggregated to SA3 or LGA level.

Figure 3 maps the HVI at SA1 across the study area (HVI 1-5 corresponding to lowest-highest vulnerability to heat). High-risk areas with Heat Vulnerability Index (HVI) 5 were mainly distributed in the suburban areas of Melton, Brimbank, Darebin, Casey, Wyndham LGAs. The risks in some areas were high, despite the lower magnitude of UHI, because of the high human sensitivity or lower adaptive capability to heat, such as the SA1s in north Dandenong and Casey. The impact of UHI effects were weakened due to the low social vulnerability in some suburban areas benefitting from the low proportion of sensitive population or the high level of socioeconomic development, such as Nillumbik and some SA1s in Manningham LGAs. By contrast, high social vulnerability intensifies heat health risks in some newly urbanised areas of Melbourne, such as Tarneit and Altona North.

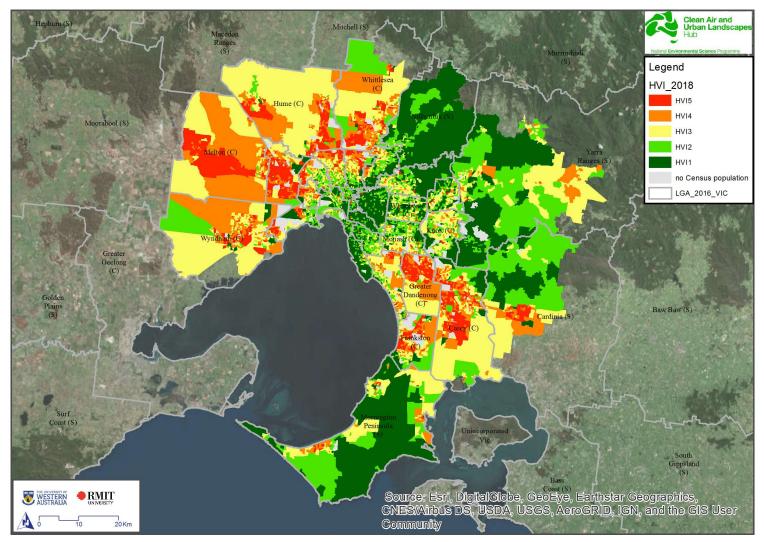


Figure 3. Map of Heat Vulnerability Index (HVI) at SA1 level in Melbourne metropolitan area

#### 4. Further work: identifying areas for heat mitigating

Hot weather is a threat to human health, particularly for vulnerable populations, such as older or very young people in cities. Increased vegetation can help reduce temperatures and exposure to heat hazards. The spatial heterogeneity of heat-related diseases suggests that interventions (e.g. tree planting) should be targeted for maximum impact. Analysing heat vulnerability for communities offers opportunities for presenting information to support decision-making.

The relationships between UHI and vegetation cover are spatially varying and therefore needed to be studied by means of geographically weighted models. To further predict the degree of heat reduction, more variables can be included and PCA (Principal component analysis) can be used to decide the important variables. Likewise, more heat vulnerability indicators can be included and PCA can be used to determine the level of heat vulnerability at local scales by providing insights into these indexes (Bao, Li, & Yu, 2015; Inostroza et al., 2016; Loughnan, 2013).

Taking consideration of both the influence of vegetation on UHI (local R<sup>2</sup> values from GWR) and HVI, we can identify SA1 areas where trees have higher impact on temperature and where the communities are more vulnerable to heat. These are areas to target for potential heat mitigation via increases in tree cover.

The findings in this exercise warn against the simplistic use of global spatial or statistical analysis on available data to target areas for interventions. The approach enables local governments to identify hot spots of vulnerability, and allocate resources such as increased vegetation cover to vulnerable populations.

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