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### Title

The health benefits of reducing micro-heat islands: A 22-year analysis of the impact of urban temperature reduction on heat-related illnesses in California's major cities

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1 **Introduction.** By 2050 nearly 70% of the world's population will live in urban areas, suggesting  
2 a future surge in the density and sprawl of cities<sup>1,2</sup>. In tandem with an urban expansion, there will  
3 be more frequent and severe heat events as a result of anthropogenically accelerated climate  
4 change, thus putting individuals at added risk of experiencing heat-related health issues<sup>3,4</sup>. Cities  
5 encounter a phenomenon known as urban heat islands (UHI) which occur when natural  
6 landscapes are replaced with pavement and buildings that absorb and retain solar radiation,  
7 consequently heating up these surfaces<sup>5</sup>. UHIs and within-city variations referred to as micro-  
8 heat islands can exacerbate the severity of heatwaves and place individuals within  
9 socioeconomically vulnerable urban communities at greater risk of developing heat-related  
10 illnesses (HRI) such as hyperthermia, heat exhaustion, and dehydration<sup>6</sup>.

11 In the United States, the incidence rate of HRIs increases by an average of 6% each year,  
12 with most cases being seen during summer months when climate-change induced extreme heat  
13 events (EHEs) generally occur<sup>7</sup>. For example, in 2006 and 2017, California was struck by a  
14 series of exceptionally severe EHE events that lead to substantial increases in HRIs<sup>8,9</sup>. In 2006,  
15 most of California experienced numerous record breaking daily maximum temperatures and a  
16 similar series of record breaking temperatures occurred in 2017<sup>9</sup>. EHEs can be amplified by an  
17 absence of structural adaptations such as green or blue spaces, which cities rely on to reduce  
18 ambient temperatures<sup>7,10,11</sup>. Urban infrastructural climate adaptive strategies can play a significant  
19 role in reducing the temperature of an urban environment on a fine spatial scale<sup>12</sup>. When looking  
20 at microclimate indicators such as land surface temperature within cities, there is evidence that  
21 differences in these microclimate indicators influence the risk of morbidity/mortality during heat  
22 waves<sup>13,14</sup>.

23           The geography of California is diverse and heterogeneous trends in temperature have  
24 been previously recorded between different regions of California<sup>15</sup>. However, to our knowledge,  
25 these differences in temperature responses to climate change have been observed at the regional,  
26 city, or county resolution but not yet at a ZCTA level within cities in California<sup>9</sup>. In this study,  
27 we narrowed the focus to seven of California’s most populous cities to infer how different urban  
28 landscapes affect temperature changes over a 22-year period. The seven Californian cities  
29 assessed in this study were Sacramento, San Francisco, Oakland, San Jose, Fresno, Los Angeles,  
30 and San Diego and are in seven different counties across several regions (Figure 1). By  
31 measuring trends in temperature by comparing ZCTAs within all seven cities over the past 22  
32 years, we identified significant changes in urban landscape temperatures in the same city.

33           Generally, surface temperatures are higher in urban settings than in nearby rural settings  
34 and a similar trend can occur when looking at different areas within an intracity scale; therefore  
35 individuals living in certain ZCTAs may be especially vulnerable to experiencing HRIs during  
36 extreme heat events<sup>16</sup>. In this study, we define UHIs as ZCTAs within cities that have either  
37 unchanged or increased land surface temperature (LST) from 2000 to 2022. LST is the radiative  
38 skin temperature of the land surface recorded by NASA’s MODIS Terra Land Surface  
39 Temperature and Emissivity Daily Global 1km imagery at night and can be used as a proxy to  
40 infer changes in local UHI distribution over time<sup>17</sup>. We created a 22-year time-series analysis and  
41 categorized LST trends at the ZCTA level in California as decreased, unchanged, or increased  
42 over our study period<sup>18</sup>. We categorize trends over time based on the assumption that  
43 temperatures will be increasing across the study area as the result of climate change, however in  
44 some ZCTAs the temperature will be increasing at a significantly slower rate or possibly  
45 decreasing and therefore were described as “decreased”. If the ZCTA’s temperature appears to

46 be increasing at a significantly higher rate than the other ZCTAs, we defined those as  
47 “increased”. Once these categorizations were made, we then analyzed the difference in monthly  
48 HRIs from two major EHE years in California (2006 and 2017) to quantify the potential  
49 difference in HRIs due to UHI changes between comparable ZCTAs.

50 Our first objective in this study was to identify monthly ZCTA temperature trends  
51 between 2000 and 2022 within seven major cities in California and categorize them as decreased,  
52 unchanged, or increased. The second objective was to determine if there was a decrease in HRIs  
53 in 2017 when compared to 2006 for ZCTAs that we classified as decreased versus unchanged  
54 using propensity scoring and inverse probability weighting. We hypothesize that ZCTAs with  
55 decreased temperature trends would be associated with decreased rates of HRIs between 2006  
56 and 2017 when compared with their unchanged or increased counterparts, which are areas  
57 considered to be UHIs in this study.

## 58 **Methods.**

59 **Study areas.** We focused on seven of the eight most populous cities in California. We omitted  
60 Long Beach, the seventh most populous city, because of its proximity and geographic similarities  
61 to Los Angeles. The seven cities we studied were Sacramento, Oakland, San Francisco, San Jose,  
62 Fresno, Los Angeles, and San Diego which, in this analysis, had 29, 14, 28, 28, 18, 64, and 35  
63 ZCTAs of interest per city, respectively (Table 1). We chose to include three San Francisco Bay  
64 Area cities because of the geographic and temperature heterogeneities between Oakland, San  
65 Francisco, and San Jose<sup>19</sup>. All seven cities had a population sum of 7,507,023 individuals, with  
66 Los Angeles, San Diego, and San Jose being the top three most populous cities, in that order.

67 **Data acquisition.** We utilized Google Earth Engine ([earthengine.google.com](http://earthengine.google.com)) to download  
68 MODIS Terra Land Surface Temperature and Emissivity Daily Global 1km (MOD11A1 V6.1)  
69 imagery with temperature value derived from MOD11\_L2 swath product for the entirety of  
70 California. We extracted monthly land surface temperature values for each ZCTA population-  
71 weighted centroid, which is a single point coordinate versus an area that makes up the ZCTA  
72 boundary, within the state from March of 2000 to the end of October of 2022. Because the  
73 effects of UHI are most noticeable at night, we focused on the nighttime LST imagery from  
74 MODIS<sup>20</sup>.

75 For ZCTA level data, we relied on TIGER US Census 5-digit Zip Code Tabulation Areas  
76 2010 data from the US Census Bureau ([census.gov](http://census.gov)). The centroid coordinates found in this  
77 dataset allowed us to weight our mean LST to the most populated areas within each zip code,  
78 which is a common interpolation technique<sup>21</sup>. Demographic data was collected from the  
79 American Community Survey's 2017 5-year estimates and were used to develop propensity  
80 scores in our model.

81 To illustrate the potential impacts of different trajectories of UHI on hospital admissions,  
82 we conducted a case study in which we focused on the difference between two major  
83 summertime extreme heat events taking place in 2006 and 2017. We obtained HRI data through  
84 the California Health and Human Services Agency. The data contains ZCTA level mortality and  
85 morbidity emergency department (ED) and patient discharge data (PDD) for all of California. In  
86 Supplemental Table 1, we included the complete list of heat-related illnesses ICD codes  
87 considered to characterize heat-related illnesses (HRI) for our study. To ensure we had enough

88 cases within each ZCTA to maintain sufficient statistical power, we compared ZCTA-level  
89 monthly HRI count for both years 2006 and 2017 during the EHE of interest.

90 **Identifying urban heat islands (UHIs).** To classify ZCTAs as urban versus rural we relied on  
91 the CalEPA Urban Heat Island Interactive Maps urban and rural ZCTA classifications<sup>22</sup>. Using  
92 the “urban” and “rural” classifications, we completed sensitivity analyses to determine the most  
93 statistically meaningful approach to identify urban heat islands which can be found in our  
94 GitHub repository (<https://github.com/emlasky/TemperatureTrendsAcrossCA.git>). We  
95 determined that, because this study focuses solely on ZCTAs that fall within urban areas, ZCTAs  
96 that were considered “rural” by CalEPA were filtered out of the dataset and excluded from this  
97 study. Using only “urban” classified ZCTAs, we calculated temperatures within the 95<sup>th</sup>  
98 percentile of monthly temperatures within a given year, which primarily occurred during the  
99 summer months between June and September and created indices of monthly mean land surface  
100 temperature estimates for each ZCTA over the 22-year period to identify micro heat islands in  
101 the seven cities (Figure 2). We then compared each ZCTA to the ZCTA with the lowest LST at  
102 the start of the study ( $LST_{min}$ ) in the same city’s boundaries (ex: comparing all target ZCTAs in  
103 Los Angeles to the ZCTA with the lowest LST in Los Angeles). Instead of defining an absolute  
104 temperature change threshold for all ZCTAs regardless of city, we defined relative thresholds of  
105 temperature change between ZCTAs in the same city which resulted in differences of amplitude  
106 of temperature change as dependent on the city. We used the  $LST_{min}$  to find the difference in  
107 temperature per ZCTA within that city by pairing the target ZCTA with the  $LST_{min}$  for the same  
108 month and year using the following equation:

$$109 \quad \Delta T_i = LST_i - (LST_{min})$$

110 **Linear regression comparison of ZCTAs.** We categorized our ZCTAs into decreased,  
111 unchanged, or increased LST trends. We performed linear regression analyses to identify which  
112 ZCTAs experienced statistically significant positive or negative, or non-significant positive or  
113 negative trends and mapped their locations (Figure 3) To create our three categories, we  
114 calculated the slope and  $p$ -values of the change in ZCTA's with LST measurements in the 95<sup>th</sup>  
115 percentile from 2000-2022. We used a threshold of  $p = 0.10$  for our main analyses. We mapped  
116 our ZCTA categorizations using ArcGIS Pro (Version 2.9.3) to identify the locations of our  
117 ZCTAs. All syntax to reproduce our results in California or elsewhere can be found at the  
118 following link: <https://github.com/emlasky/TemperatureTrendsAcrossCA.git>.

119 **Determining difference of HRI between decreased and unchanged ZCTAs.** We calculated  
120 the difference in HRIs between the 2006 and 2017 EHEs. We aggregated monthly PDD/ED HRI  
121 data to the annual level and found the difference by subtracting the sum of HRIs for the year  
122 2017 by the sum of HRIs for 2006 for each individual ZCTA( $x$ ) in the study using the following  
123 equation:

124

$$125 \quad \Delta HRI_{i=x} = \sum HRI_{2017, i=x} - \sum HRI_{2006, i=x}$$

126 **Inverse probability of treatment weighting (IPTW) estimation.** We identified ZCTA  
127 propensity scores using a logistic regression model conditional upon ten covariates: total  
128 population, total number of males, percent of population under eighteen, percent of population  
129 over 65, percent of population that is white, total housing units, total commuters over sixteen,  
130 number of individuals with an income below 10,000, total number of individuals with a college  
131 degree, and population without health insurance. We chose these ten covariates based on prior

132 literature, which intends to control for a holistic range of sociodemographic variables that may  
133 directly influence the likelihood of living in a ZCTA with certain temperature trends<sup>23</sup>.  
134 Quantifying the conditional probability of a ZCTA falling into the decreased temperature trend  
135 based on specific covariates allows for us to create a pseudo-randomized study using  
136 observational data by balancing ZCTAs independently of the outcome thus limiting confounding  
137 from variables we are uninterested in observing<sup>24,25</sup>. Additionally, we incorporated each city as  
138 the random effect in our model to preserve the number of observations while accounting for  
139 unobserved heterogeneity among the ZCTAs in the study.

140         Based on the estimated propensity scores, we used the inverse probability of treatment  
141 weighting (IPTW) to balance the ZCTA characteristics (i.e. confounders) between decreased and  
142 unchanged ZCTAs<sup>26</sup>. We then performed logistic regression analyses using ZCTA temperature  
143 trend status as the predictor, the difference in HRI between the two EHE years as the dependent  
144 variable and weighted the model with the IPTW values that we calculated using the propensity  
145 scores (Figure 2).

146 All analyses were conducted with RStudio (Version 2021.09.2) using *dplyr* and *tidyverse*.

147 **Results.** When observing 216 ZCTAs throughout California during months that fell within the  
148 95<sup>th</sup> percentile for LST, 43 ZCTAs decreased, 161 were unchanged, and 12 got worse over the  
149 22-year study period (Table 1). Most ZCTAs in each city remain unchanged over 22 years (161  
150 out of 216 or ~75% of the total number of ZCTAs). We potentially observed spatial clustering of  
151 decreased and increased ZCTAs in Oakland, Los Angeles, and San Jose, however an  
152 investigation of this clustering goes beyond the scope of this paper (Figure 3) Los Angeles had



153 the greatest number of decreased ZCTAs (26), the largest proportion of ZCTAs (32.7%), and the  
154 greatest population observed in the study (2,456,601) (Table 1). San Diego and Sacramento had  
155 only one decreased ZCTA each. San Diego and San Jose, the second and third most populated  
156 cities in the study, had four increased ZCTAs each, which was the most of all seven cities  
157 (Figure 4). Los Angeles had the greatest proportion of individuals living in decreased ZCTAs  
158 while San Diego and San Jose had the greatest proportion of individuals living in increased  
159 ZCTAs (Figure 4)

160

161 In Supplemental Table 2 and Figure 1, we show the descriptive statistics for the ten  
162 covariates we controlled for and the estimated propensity scores and IPTW. Of the 216 observed  
163 ZCTAs, 150 had HRI data for both 2006 and 2017. The largest difference and increase in HRI  
164 between these two EHE years was a ZCTA in Los Angeles that saw an increase of 41 HRIs over  
165 the study period. The greatest reduction in HRI was a ZCTA in Sacramento that had twelve  
166 fewer HRIs over the study period. The mean  $\Delta$ HRI for all 150 ZCTAs was 4.5. The mean  $\Delta$ HRI  
167 for decreased and unchanged ZCTAs was 3.5 and 4.9, respectively (Table 2). When comparing  
168 the  $\Delta$ HRI between decreased and unchanged ZCTAs during the 2006 and 2017 EHEs, it was  
169 found that ZCTAs classified as decreased observed a reduction of 3.2 HRIs (Table 3).

170

171 **Discussion.** In this study, we proposed an approach to categorize the micro-heat islands temporal  
172 trends of neighborhoods within the most populated California as decreased, unchanged, or  
173 increased. We found that some cities had greater proportions of decreased ZCTAs than others  
174 which had no significant improvement or significantly worsening temperatures over the study

175 period (Figure 3). Based on preexisting knowledge of cooling methods in urban settings, it may  
176 be inferred that ZCTAs that have decreased temperature trends over time have undergone heat  
177 adaptation strategies such as greening, increasing shade, and other heat reducing infrastructure  
178 choices. The opposite may be said for ZCTAs that have experienced no improvement or  
179 increased in temperature over time. As an example of the potential correlation between increased  
180 greening and reduced temperatures, an increased change in NDVI in Los Angeles between the  
181 years of 2000 and 2020 was observed for the downtown portion of the city<sup>27</sup>. In our analysis, the  
182 downtown portion of the city was observed to have decreased temperature trends (Figure 3).  
183 Though this provides some evidence of the influence increasing greenness may have on  
184 temperature trends, investigating the correlation between NDVI and decreased temperature  
185 trends is beyond the scope of this study, and we recommend further research be conducted to  
186 investigate if there is indeed a correlation between heat adaptation strategies and our findings.  
187 Additionally, we have included newspaper articles and planning presentations for some of the  
188 cities researched in this study in our GitHub.

189 We then analyzed to which extent such being categorized as decreased, unchanged, or  
190 increased was associated with a differential change in heat-related illnesses between two major  
191 extreme heat events across the last two decades. We showed that ZCTAs categorized as  
192 decreased experienced 3.2 fewer heat-related illnesses over the summertime study period than  
193 unchanged ZCTAs in 2017 when comparing the number of HRIs during the 2006 and 2017 heat  
194 wave years (Table 3). The average number of summertime HRIs by ZCTA in 2006 was 4.3 and  
195 8.8 in 2017, therefore a decrease of 3.2 HRIs is not a trivial reduction (Error: Reference source  
196 not foundTable 2). This study illustrates that ZCTAs with lower summertime temperatures  
197 reduce the number of HRIs, especially during extreme heat events.

198           The first limitation of this study was the spatial resolution at which the temperature data  
199 (LST) is available. The MODIS satellite records data at a spatial resolution of 1km that may not  
200 be precise enough to identify temperature differences in smaller ZCTAs that are adjacent to one  
201 another, and this may be why we perceived clustering in Los Angeles (Figure 3). Other  
202 alternative remote sensing products may provide more spatially granular data, however these  
203 satellites do not provide data at the temporal granularity that was essential to this study. Though  
204 not a limitation, we chose to identify UHIs by finding the difference of the ZCTA with the  
205 minimum monthly LST to all other ZCTA monthly LSTs in the same city over the study period,  
206 which we considered to be an effective way of identifying UHIs for the purposes of this study.  
207 There are different methods to identify UHIs that are equally valid, and our results may have  
208 differed to an extent had we used a different UHI categorization method<sup>28</sup>. Finally, we only  
209 focused on HRI as the primary cause of hospital admission of interest to ensure that these events  
210 were directly related to heat exposure and to highlight the potential variation in heat burden that  
211 can be attributable to changes in microclimate environments within a city over time. This  
212 approach is an underestimation of the total burden attributable of heat exposures but restricting  
213 our health data to only HRI codes limited ambiguity about how to directly attribute an  
214 individual's illness<sup>29</sup>.

215           Temperatures are generally increasing in California and prior studies looking at long-  
216 term meteorological station data have shown regional differences in the rate at which  
217 temperatures are increasing, which may be attributed to geographic phenomena such as coastal  
218 cooling, fog, and wind-related effects<sup>30</sup>. These studies have indicated differences in the  
219 magnitude of change of temperature across different regions of California, therefore the effect of  
220 urban climate adaptation strategies will be dependent on the region each city is situated in and

221 even the distinct microclimates within each city<sup>15,31</sup>. We attempted to limit the effect geographic  
222 variation may have on temperature shifts by finding the slope of temperature trends by ZCTA  
223 using the LST<sub>min</sub> from the ZCTA's respective city, however we recommend investigating these  
224 geographic differences and their effect on temperature trends further.

225         This study demonstrates the importance of analyzing UHIs within major cities. We found  
226 differing proportions of decreased, unchanged, increased UHIs in each city that may have  
227 resulted from some cities undergoing climate adaptive strategies to a greater extent than others<sup>32-</sup>  
228 <sup>35</sup>. The implications of this study would indicate that significantly reducing temperature in  
229 ZCTAs decreases the number of HRIs for those ZCTAs, thus suggesting the protective effect  
230 climate adaptive strategies may have on human health during EHEs. Though California has a  
231 reputation for being an ambitious environmental leader and has committed to climate related  
232 policies, these commitments are not mandated on finer geographic scales and adoption and  
233 implementation of climate adaptation plans at the city-level varies across the state. Poorly  
234 designed policies and variance in urgency to invest in climate adaptation strategies may be based  
235 on the political culture of the city and proximity to other cities that are adopting these  
236 strategies<sup>33,34</sup>. Further, regional differences and sensitivity to the impacts of climate change may  
237 play a significant role in determining the urgency of adopting climate adaptive policies.

238         Overall, most of the populations in all seven cities fell within the unchanged temperature  
239 trend, indicating a public health need for greater adoption of climate adaptation strategies (Table  
240 1). The 2022 IPCC report on Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability (working group II),  
241 emphasized the necessity of implementing proactive adaptation strategies, since they can reduce  
242 by more than half the health burden attributable to climate sensitive exposure such as extreme  
243 heat by the end of the century. Though our investigation looks at change in temperature in cities

244 and not necessarily in response to cooling strategies, as cities in the United States and beyond  
245 invest heavily in developing their resilience against increasing temperatures, the methodological  
246 approach we proposed can be used, adapted, and expanded to guide investments to minimize the  
247 health impacts of extreme heat.

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*GitHub Link: Temperature Trends Across CA*

<https://github.com/emlasky/TemperatureTrendsAcrossCA>