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# HOW LOCAL CLIMATE ZONES INFLUENCE URBAN AIR TEMPERATURE: MEASUREMENTS BY BICYCLE IN DIJON, FRANCE

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*Key words: UHI, Urban form, LCZ, Iterated transect, ANalysis Of VAriance, Thermal impacts*

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## HIGHLIGHTS:

1. Night time air temperature is measured while cycling along an iterated transect
2. ANOVA is used to gauge the impact of urban forms on local temperatures
3. Urban forms affect urban heat islands regardless of background temperature
4. Thermal environments are characterized by Local Climate Zones
5. Vegetation exerts a cooling effect and high-density building a warming effect

## ABSTRACT:

*This study analyses mobile measurements of urban temperatures in Dijon (eastern France) to quantify the influence of urban form on the micro-scale variability of air temperature. A route was ridden identically on 33 spring and summer evenings on a bike fitted out with measuring instruments (VeloClim). These evenings followed sunny calm days conducive to the formation of thermal contrasts and urban heat islands (UHIs). Two typologies, Corine Land Cover (CLC) and Local Climate Zones (LCZ), are used to assess the impact of urban form and land cover on air temperatures based on ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA). ANOVA is applied to the mean of runs to maximize the effect of surface states, and to each run individually to maximize the influence of weather conditions.*

*The results show that both typologies prove relevant and complementary for studying the impact of vegetated and artificialized zones on urban temperature. Temperature variations on intra-urban scales are significantly modulated by urban form and land cover types. Vegetated areas are systematically cooler than impervious surfaces. Independently of meteorological conditions, urban form has a decisive influence on air temperature and each CLC or LCZ category has an original air temperature signature.*

## 38 1. Introduction

39 Urban heat islands (UHIs) have been studied for over 100 years now (Stewart, 2019). They are defined  
40 in terms of the variation between background rural temperatures and peak urban temperatures (Oke,  
41 1973). Pioneering works from the early nineteenth to the early twentieth century highlighted the  
42 impact of cities on temperatures (Howard, 1833; Renou, 1868). Innovative methodology from 1920 to  
43 1940 contributed to quantifying and mapping this effect (Schmidt, 1927) and experimental studies  
44 from 1950 to 1980 provided a better understanding of it (Sundborg, 1951). The present study stems  
45 from work done on innovative methods for measuring urban temperature by means of a mobile  
46 campaign. It assesses the influence of land surface properties on temperature in an urban environment  
47 and the associated uncertainties induced by the approximation of surface properties.

48 Urban characteristics and the diversity of materials in built-up areas may contribute to the warming of  
49 the urban boundary layer (Oke, 1973), including surface temperatures (Berg and Metzler, 1934;  
50 Takahashi, 1959; Unger et al., 2010), and to the intensification of UHIs (Runnalls and Oke, 2013). By  
51 contrast, vegetated areas tend to lower surface temperatures, both locally and within a radius 300–  
52 1000 m (Petralli et al., 2014), and promote urban cool islands (UCIs). UHIs are both more intense and  
53 more frequent in the evening and throughout the night (Berg and Metzler, 1934; Eliasson, 1996;  
54 Runnalls and Oke, 2013) because paved surfaces slow and reduce night time cooling, whereas cooling  
55 occurs more rapidly in vegetated areas (Berg and Metzler, 1934; Sun et al., 2009; Sun, 2011;  
56 Heusinkveld et al., 2014; Song et al., 2014). UHIs contribute to increased thermal stress and even  
57 mortality among the urban population, as has been reported in France (Fouillet et al., 2006; Pascal et  
58 al., 2018) and Europe (Robine et al., 2008). The increasing frequency, duration and intensity of  
59 heatwaves further amplify their adverse effects on health (Hajat et al., 2010; Tan et al., 2010; Revi et  
60 al., 2014). An understanding of the dynamics of the urban climate and the impacts of urban properties  
61 on temperatures may pave the way for sustainable urbanization with the potential to improve thermal  
62 comfort and reduce mortality in urban areas (Revi et al., 2014). Improving cities' resilience with  
63 respect to climate hazards is an issue of increasing importance that needs to be achieved through low-  
64 carbon strategies.

65 Achieving this requires a capacity to characterize surface properties in urban areas and temperature  
66 fluctuations in time and space. Many modern typologies have been developed to characterize the  
67 properties of cities worldwide (see Lehnert et al., 2021 for a review) and to assess the impact of urban  
68 form and land cover on urban climate. Among them, two complementary typologies, widely used  
69 across Europe, have proved to be suitable for urban climate studies (Zhou et al., 2013; Leconte et al.,  
70 2015; Petrișor and Petrișor, 2015; Lehnert et al., 2018; Richard et al., 2018): Corine Land Cover  
71 (CLC; Büttner et al., 2002) and Local Climate Zone (LCZ; Stewart and Oke, 2012). The CLC  
72 typology provides a macro-scale view of urban areas (Zhou et al., 2013; Petrișor and Petrișor, 2015)  
73 with potentially relevant information for climate (and climate modelling), such as the density of  
74 impervious surfaces or of vegetation types. The LCZ typology is a climate-related approach designed  
75 for studying UHIs and facilitating comparison across cities regardless of their size, geographical  
76 location, urban structure, building characteristics and land-cover types (Stewart and Oke, 2012). The  
77 LCZ typology provides a local-scale summary of urban areas accounting for both surface properties  
78 (building heights and densities) and land cover (permeability, vegetation). Therefore the two  
79 typologies allow us to characterize the urban form, defined as the spatial relation between physical  
80 features, natural physical forms and built physical forms (Kropf, 2009; 2014), on two complementary  
81 scales.

82 As a result of increased experimentation and methodological innovation to describe the heat island  
83 phenomenon (Stewart, 2019), several methods have been developed for measuring urban air  
84 temperature. The most widely used are networks of fixed stations generally spaced a few hundred  
85 meters to a few kilometres apart. A network density of this order yields information on a local scale  
86 ranging from  $10^2$  to  $5 \times 10^4$  m (Oke, 1987). Such networks have the advantage of regular repeatability  
87 (hourly or even sub-hourly measurements).

88 In Dijon Métropole (Burgundy, France), the Measuring Urban System of Temperature of Air Round  
89 Dijon (MUSTARDijon) was first introduced in 2014 to monitor air temperature (Richard et al., 2018,  
90 2021). With 47 stations (Fig. 1), this network has demonstrated the relevance of the CLC and LCZ  
91 typologies for characterizing coherent thermal environments (Richard et al., 2018) and studying UHI  
92 intensity during hot spells and heat waves (Richard et al., 2021).

93 Nevertheless, the MUSTARDijon network was not designed to measure temperature variations on the  
94 micro-scale which is the most relevant scale for urban planning (Ng et al., 2015). On such micro-  
95 scales,  $10^2$  to  $10^3$  m (Renou, 1868; Hann, 1885; Oke, 1987; Buttstädt et al., 2011; Tsin et al., 2016),  
96 mobile measurements are more appropriate (Tsin et al., 2016) since they sample temperature at high  
97 frequencies within and between urban form categories (Brandsma and Wolters, 2012; Buttstädt et al.,  
98 2011; Lehnert et al., 2018). Since they were first used in Europe in the 1920s, mobile measurements  
99 have been widely employed to assess the impact of urban form on intra-urban temperature patterns  
100 (see the review by Stewart, 2019). Mobile measurements, whether made on foot (Brooks, 1931; Tsin  
101 et al., 2016), by bicycle (Bundel and Wolf, 1933; Brandsma and Wolters, 2012; Heusinkveld et al.,  
102 2014; Rajkovich and Larsen, 2016; Lehnert et al., 2018) or with motorized vehicles (Schmidt, 1927;  
103 Pepler, 1929; Fukui and Wada, 1941; Hart and Sailor, 2009; Buttstädt et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2009;  
104 Sun, 2011; Leconte et al., 2017), have the drawback of coarse and often irregular sampling over long  
105 time-period.

106 By combining urban form data, fixed networks and mobile measurements, it becomes possible to  
107 observe the spatio-temporal variability of air temperature driven by surface properties on local and  
108 micro scales (Buttstädt et al., 2011; Fenner et al., 2014; Leconte et al., 2017; Beck et al., 2018; Lehnert  
109 et al., 2018). For instance, Fenner et al. (2014) show that temperatures recorded at fixed stations in  
110 Berlin (Germany) are modified by the different LCZs and their distinct surface properties. Similar  
111 findings have been obtained using mobile measurements in Olomouc (Czech Republic) (Lehnert et al.,  
112 2018). Night time air temperatures recorded in Nancy (France) reveal frequent UHIs with temperature  
113 differences of  $0.5\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $2\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in urbanized LCZ categories compared to natural categories (Leconte et  
114 al., 2017). All these studies use LCZs to describe and help relate UHIs to urban characteristics.

115 Most of the above mentioned studies address the impact of urban form on temperature variability on  
116 local to micro scales (a few metres). However, it is still unclear to what extent such impacts may be  
117 sensitive to the choice of the urban form typologies. This study aims to fill this gap by examining the  
118 influence of CLC and LCZ typologies on the local to micro scale variability of temperature. To that  
119 end, we conducted a campaign of mobile temperature measurements along an iterated transect  
120 accounting for the diversity of surface properties in Dijon Métropole.

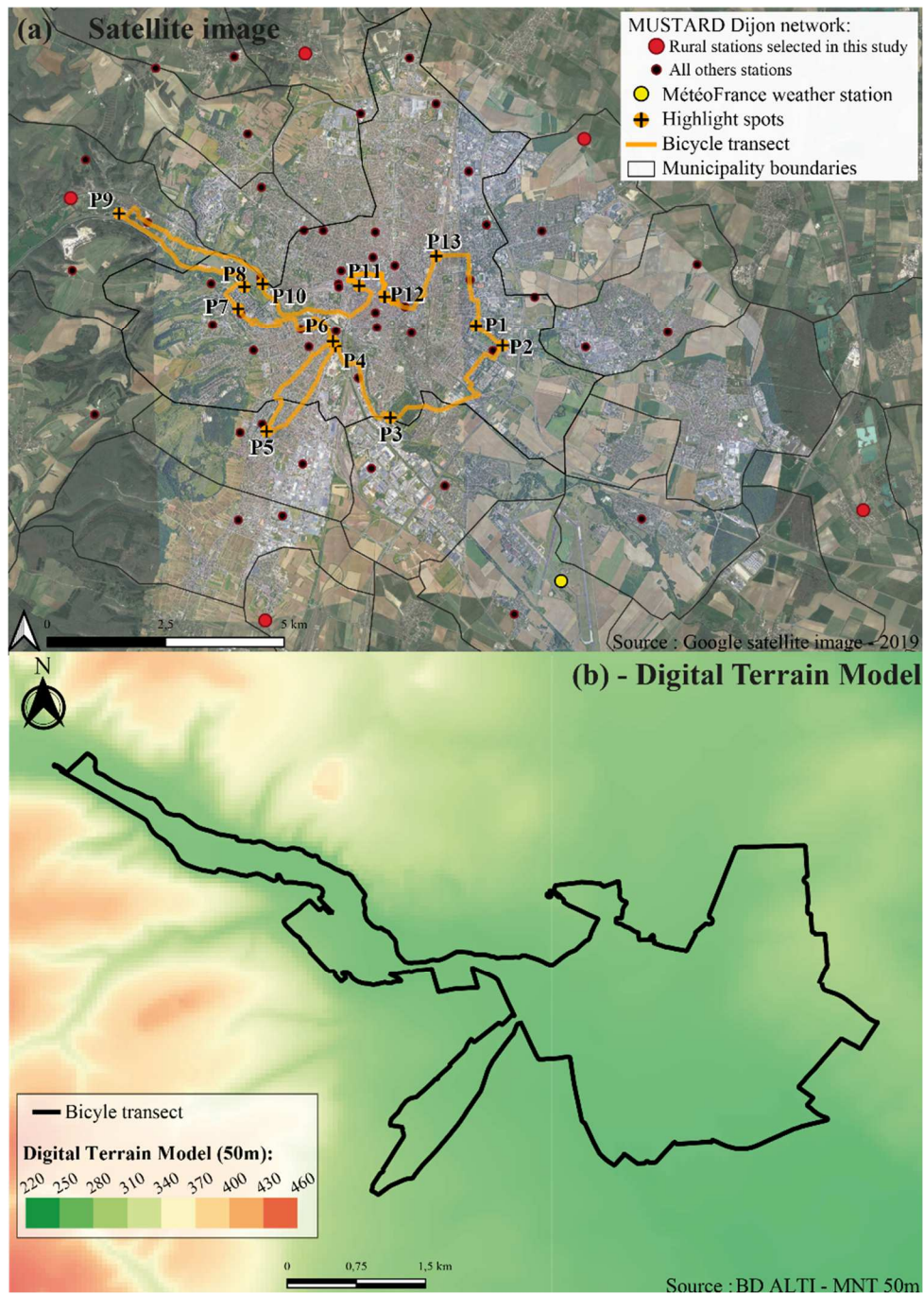
121 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the Dijon Métropole urban area, the mobile  
122 measurements and CLC/LCZ typologies, as well as the method used to assess their impact on  
123 temperature. Section 3 presents and validates the LCZ categories in Dijon Métropole and assesses the  
124 impact of the two typologies on the spatio-temporal variability. Sections 4 and 5 present the discussion  
125 and the main conclusions, respectively.

## 126 **2. Study area, material and method**

### 127 **2.1 The Dijon Métropole urban area**

128 The study was conducted in Dijon Métropole in Burgundy, eastern France. This conurbation extends  
129 over  $\sim 240\text{ km}^2$  in a radio-concentric pattern (Fig. 1a). It covers 23 boroughs (*communes*) and with its  
130 260,000 or so inhabitants is typical of mid-size cities in Western Europe (Giffinger et al., 2010, 2007).  
131 The elevation of the conurbation varies from 220 m to 460 m westward (Fig. 1b). Its western part is  
132 marked by a plateau incised by a steep-sided valley where forest dominates. Its eastern part is marked  
133 by a plain with openfield type cereal farmland. Dijon Métropole is characterized by warm/cold

134 temperatures and dry/wet conditions during summer/winter (Kottek et al., 2006) and by marked/weak  
 135 interannual variability in temperature/precipitation (Joly et al., 2010).



136  
 137 **Fig. 1.** Spatial characteristics of the mobile measurements. (a) Transect of the mobile measurement of  
 138 temperature in Dijon Métropole and location of the MUSTARDijon network recording hourly temperatures. The  
 139 rural stations in red are used to produce thermal indicators. The Météo-France weather station in yellow is used  
 140 to characterize the general weather conditions of the runs. P1 to P13 are the highlight spots along the transect  
 141 used to divide the transect in smaller units homogeneous in terms of surfaces properties (downtown, urban parks,  
 142 dense built-up areas...). (b) Digital Terrain Model at 50-metre resolution.

143 **2.2 Corine Land Cover and Local Climate Zone typologies**

144 Two typologies are used to examine the potential impact of urban form (local surface structure, cover,  
 145 fabric, and metabolism) on air temperature. The CLC typology (Büttner et al., 2002), produced in  
 146 2012, groups land-cover into 44 categories based on satellite images using a minimum mapping unit of

147 25 hectares for raster data and a minimum width of 100 m for vectorial data. The CLC typology is  
148 efficient at identifying well-structured patterns of land cover (e.g. artificial, agricultural and humid  
149 areas) but does not allow for a detailed characterization of urban form at local scale (e.g. no distinction  
150 between buildings and roads, or between low- and high-rise buildings) (Petrișor and Petrișor, 2015).


151 To overcome this limitation, we also consider the LCZ typology developed by Stewart and Oke  
152 (2012). LCZs list urban and rural environments in 17 categories mixing local-scale criteria (e.g.  
153 building density and height, vegetation density and type). Of the different methods developed for  
154 mapping LCZs (Lehnert et al., 2021), we used the WUDAPT (World Urban Database and Access  
155 Portal Tools) method (Brousse et al., 2016; Ching et al., 2018), which effectively delineates LCZs  
156 (Verdonck et al., 2017) and produces results very similar to more sophisticated approaches such as  
157 Geographical Information System methods (Gál et al., 2015). The WUDAPT method maps LCZs  
158 based on semi-automatic classification algorithms applied to satellite images (Bechtel and Daneke,  
159 2012; Brousse et al., 2016; Bechtel et al., 2019). Following Ching et al. (2018), this classification has  
160 been constructed from a set of training areas in Dijon Métropole based on high-resolution Google  
161 Earth images. Except for this critical point, the WUDAPT method is objective, simple and suitable for  
162 any city. We defined 70 training areas in Google Earth for the subsequent classification of  
163 multispectral Landsat-8 data available for seven dates in the SAGA-GIS software (23 September 2013,  
164 11 April 2015, 19 July 2015, 14 August 2016, 30 August 2016, 2 January 2017 and 8 March 2017).  
165 Taking multiple Landsat-8 images at different times is important to capture the spectral response of  
166 vegetation due to seasonality (Bechtel and Daneke, 2012). The LCZ typology for Dijon Métropole  
167 (termed the level 0 product in WUDAPT) was generated at 100 m-resolution and is presented and  
168 compared to CLC in section 3.

## 169 **2.3 Bicycle measurement protocol**

### 170 2.3.1 *Mobile meteorological station: VeloClim*

171 The temperature data were collected using a cargo bike (called VeloClim: Fig. 2) equipped with a 2 m  
172 mast, and forming an effective, low-carbon way to measure urban climate (Brandsma and Wolters,  
173 2012; Heusinkveld et al., 2014; Rajkovich and Larsen, 2016; Lehnert et al., 2018). The instruments,  
174 their technical characteristics and positioning on VeloClim are shown in Fig. 2 and summarized as  
175 follows:

- 176 • Georeferencing of the transect every 5 m, using a differential GPS (1) connected to a GPS  
177 antenna (1) at the top of the mast;
- 178 • Temperature (2) and humidity (3) measurements every second via a HOBO U23 v2 sensor  
179 located in an M-RSA solar radiation shield (4) and attached to a data logger (5). According to  
180 HOBO, the temperature sensor has a response time of  $\sim 180$  seconds at a speed of  $1 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ . In  
181 fact, sensitivity tests comparing fixed and mobile temperature measurements point to a  
182 response time of  $\sim 30$  seconds at a speed of  $5 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , which corresponds to the mean speed of  
183 the VeloClim during the campaign. The 30 second lag has been accounted for by (i) taking a  
184 30 second break before entering vegetated areas and (ii) applying a spatial filter to avoid  
185 mixed influences of different CLCs/LCZs on temperature, thereby eliminating a sizeable part  
186 of the problem by disregarding temperatures 200 m upstream and downstream of each  
187 CLC/LCZ (see section 3.2.2);
- 188 • Wind measurement taken only when the bike is at rest, at 13 locations along the transect,  
189 using an anemometer (6) and a wind vane (7) mounted on either side of the mast (not analysed  
190 in this study).



Instruments	Components	Data accuracy
1 GPS	Trimble GeoExplorer 2008 series	depends on the number of satellites and correction accuracy
2 Temperature sensor	HOBO Pro V2 U23-004	$\pm 0.21 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} / \pm 0.2 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$
3 Humidity sensor	Temperature/RH Smart Sensor : S-THB-M00X	$\pm 2.5\%$ between 10% and 90%
4 Solar radiation shield	M-RS3b	
5 Data logger	HOBO micro station	depends on the instrument
6 Anemometer	Wind Speed Smart Sensor : S-WDA-M003	$\pm 1.1 \text{ m/s}$
7 Weather vane	Wind Direction Smart Sensor : S-WDA-M003	$\pm 5^\circ$

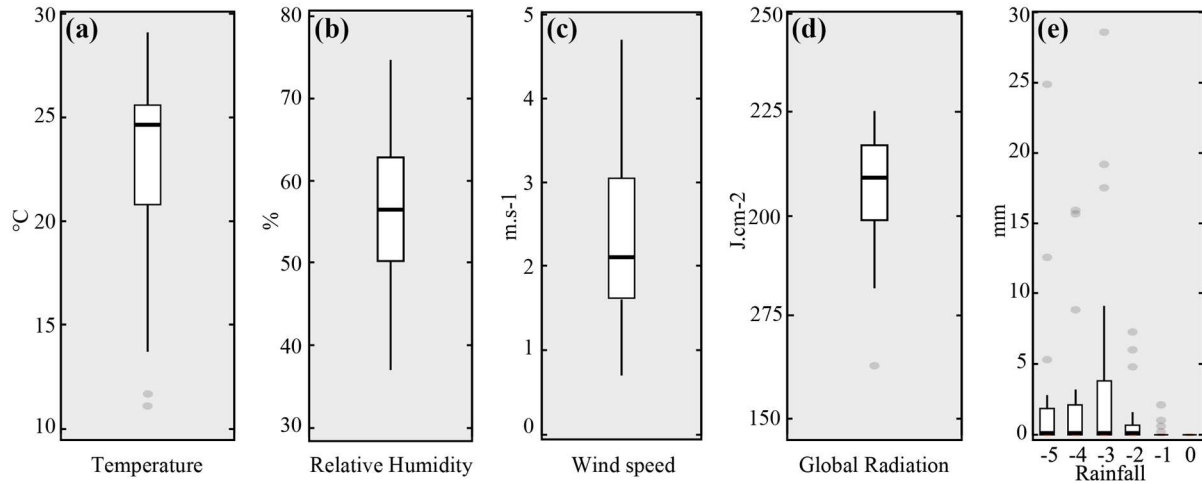
191  
192

**Fig. 2.** Technical characteristics of the VeloClim measurement devices.

193 **2.3.2** *Bicycle transect: an iterated measurement protocol*

194 A campaign of 33 mobile measurement runs was conducted from 2016 to 2018. All 33 runs were  
 195 carried out in late spring or summer (April to August) from late afternoon to early night (19 to 22  
 196 UTC) to maximize city-countryside thermal contrasts (Richard et al., 2018). The runs all followed the  
 197 same relatively flat (i.e. 40 m difference between the lowest and highest points) transect of 33.9 km  
 198 (Fig. 1b). The transect was ridden in about 2 hours 30 minutes with VeloClim and air temperature was  
 199 recorded every 5 m, 2 m above the ground level. The transect was designed to be representative of the  
 200 urban area by crossing over various types of surfaces and spaces ranging from dense zones like the  
 201 city centre to vegetated zones, mostly in the outskirts. The transect and the different LCZs crossed  
 202 along the transect are detailed in section 3.

203 Figure 3 shows the weather conditions during and a few days prior to each run, as provided by the  
 204 Météo-France synoptic weather station located south of Dijon (yellow dot in Fig. 1a). All runs were  
 205 associated with pleasant calm weather conditions conducive to the formation of heat contrasts, that is  
 206 high temperature, little wind, few clouds in the daytime before and rather dry conditions at least during  
 207 two days prior to the runs. During the hours when the runs were carried out, temperatures generally  
 208 fluctuated between 22 and 26 °C, relative humidity levels between 50 and 65% and wind speeds  
 209 between 1.5 and 3 m.s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 3a-c). During the entire day of the runs, the weather was systematically  
 210 very sunny (Fig. 3d) and without rain (Fig. 3e). Nevertheless, rain was sometimes observed during the  
 211 previous days (Fig. 3e).



212 **Fig. 3.** Meteorological conditions at Dijon Longvic (Météo-France station) for the period of measurement. (a)  
 213 Temperature at 2 m (19:00–21:00 UTC mean). (b) Relative humidity (19:00–21:00 UTC mean). (c) Wind speed  
 214 at 10m (19:00–21:00 UTC mean). (d) Global radiation (06:00–18:00 UTC mean). (e) Rainfall (daily  
 215 accumulation) during the 5 days preceding the runs.  
 216

217 Nine out of the 33 runs were affected by instrument malfunctions or major gaps in GPS reception and  
 218 are not analysed in this study. A few spatially-limited values were also missing in the 24 remaining  
 219 runs due to GPS reception gaps. These missing values were replaced over the same transect by  
 220 statistical interpolation (see section 2.3.3) assuming the VeloClim moved at constant speed ( $\sim 5 \text{ m.s}^{-1}$ )  
 221 over the time when gaps occurred.

### 222 2.3.3 *VeloClim data: Rural index and calibration of mobile measurements*

223 Since not all runs were made at the same time of the same season and did not all last exactly 2 hours  
 224 30 minutes, the raw temperature records were standardized in two stages to ensure the measurements  
 225 are comparable. Furthermore, this allows us to compute synchronous temperature differences between  
 226 rural background temperatures and urban mobile temperatures.

227 The first stage ensures synchronization over the same transect of data logged jointly by the differential  
 228 GPS and the HOBO sensor. This processing corrects time discrepancies between the two devices and  
 229 then uses the nearest neighbour method to project all observations onto a single standard transect of  
 230 6800 points. The second stage takes account of the time changes in temperature between departure and  
 231 the end of the run. To that end, we use the MUSTARDijon network to compute temperature gradients  
 232 between the city and countryside via observations recorded at five rural stations located at altitudes  
 233 very close to those of the transect (cf. red dots in Fig. 1a). This adjustment takes account of the  
 234 observation times between the mobile measurements and reference station measurements (Brandsma  
 235 and Wolters, 2012; Rajkovich and Larsen, 2016) to calculate the calibrated and validated temperature  
 236 differences between mobile measurements in the city and fixed measurements in the rural area. These  
 237 temperature differences are then used and analysed extensively in the remainder of this work.

## 238 2.4 Assessing the impact of CLCs and LCZs on temperature

239 The impact of CLCs or LCZs on air temperature is assessed in two stages. First, we qualitatively  
 240 discuss the mean impact of urban form on temperature by plotting the mean temperature profile (i.e.,  
 241 the temperature difference against the rural index averaged for the 24 runs) along the transect together  
 242 with the different CLCs/LCZs along it. Second, we quantify the urban form impact on temperature for  
 243 each of the 24 runs through analyses of variance (ANOVAs: Storch and Zwiers, 1999). ANOVAs are  
 244 used to decompose total temperature variance according to the CLC or LCZ typology and to test  
 245 whether temperature contrasts occur mostly between the categories of each typology, or within them.  
 246 In ANOVAs, the total sum of squares (SST, the squared terms being deviations of each temperature



247 reading from the mean temperature regardless of the CLC/LCZ typology) is used to express the total  
248 variation of temperature that can be attributed to the various categories (i.e. the  $N$  CLCs or  $M$  LCZs).  
249 SST is then decomposed into the CLC/LCZ typology as follows:

$$250 \text{ SST} = \text{SS}_{\text{LCZ1}} + \text{SS}_{\text{LCZ2}} + \text{SS}_{\text{LCZ3}} + \dots + \text{SS}_{\text{LCZG}} \quad (\text{Eq. A})$$

251 with  $\text{SS}$ , the squared deviations of each temperature record within a CLC/LCZ category from the mean  
252 temperature of the corresponding category.

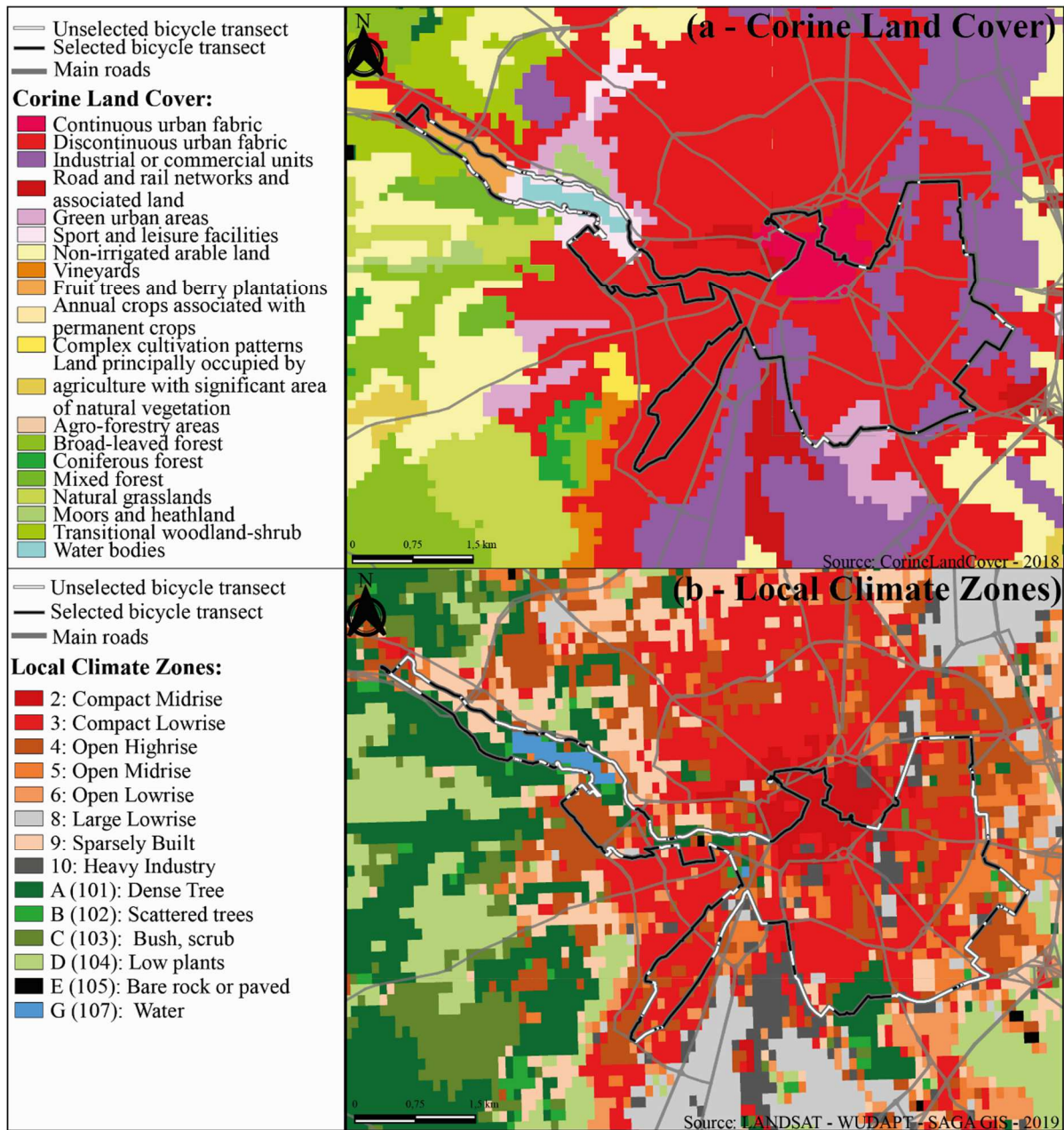
253 The  $F$ -test is used for determining the significance of the decomposition. The null-hypothesis is that  
254 the CLC/LCZ typology does not impact temperature, i.e., the temperature variance between the  
255 different categories is significantly weaker than the temperature variance within each category. Since  
256 the  $F$ -test is sensitive to non-normal distributions, we verify the normality of temperature distributions  
257 both regardless of and according to the CLC/LCZ typology using the Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro and  
258 Wilk, 1965) at the 95% confidence level. Temperatures recorded for each of the 24 runs are found to  
259 comply with a normal distribution for 100% of the runs regardless of the CLCs/LCZs and for 60% of  
260 the runs when tests are applied to individual CLC/LCZ categories.

261 Following Lehnert et al. (2018) and Geletič and Lehnert (2016), we use the Tukey test, also called  
262 Honestly Significant Difference (Tukey, 1962; Haynes, 2013), to identify urban form categories  
263 associated with temperatures that significantly differ from those of a reference category. CLC 111  
264 (continuous urban fabric) and LCZ 2 (compact midrise) are selected as the references for the CLC and  
265 LCZ typologies respectively, since they correspond to densely built and little vegetated areas of the  
266 city centre.

### 267 **3. CLC and LCZ contributions to urban air temperature**

#### 268 **3.1 Assessment of CLC and LCZ typologies**

269 Fig. 4 shows the 20 CLCs and 14 LCZs, as defined in section 2.2, for Dijon Métropole. The CLC  
270 typology provides spatially smoothed categories of land-use, with a predominance of impervious  
271 surfaces within and around the city centre and permeable surfaces in the surrounding rural  
272 environment (Fig. 4a). The most frequently recurring categories are the discontinuous urban fabric  
273 (53%), industrial or commercial units (16%) and sport and leisure facilities (11%). This simple  
274 partitioning is much more detailed and subtler when viewed on the LCZ spectrum (Fig. 4b). The  
275 partitioning is more homogeneous among the LCZs, with e.g. 20% of the city classified as LCZ 3 and  
276 another 20% as LCZ 4.



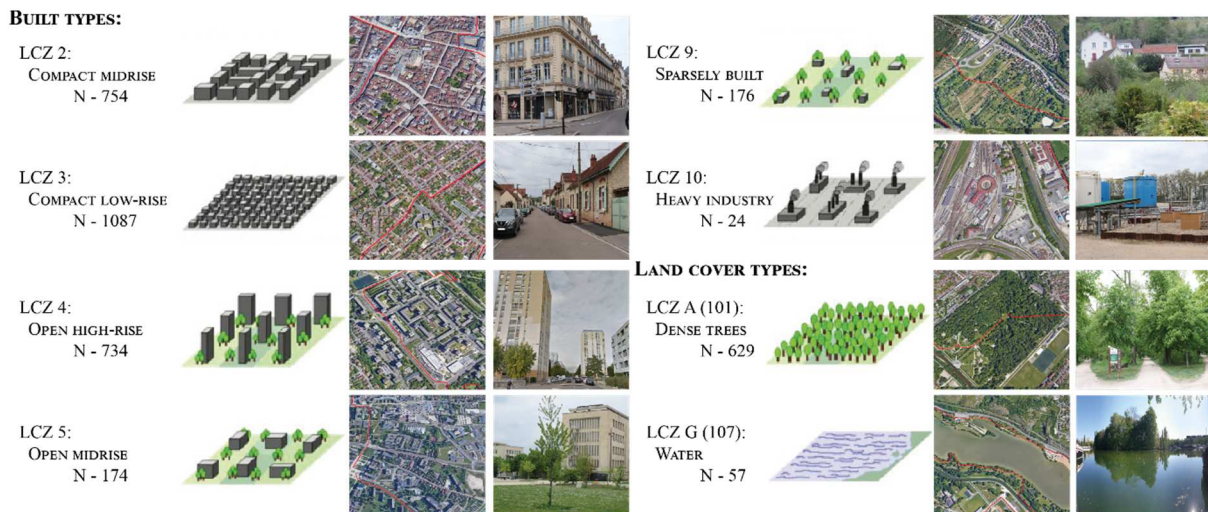
277  
 278 **Fig. 4.** Classification of Dijon Métropole surface properties. (a) Corine Land Cover (version 2012 - Büttner et  
 279 al., 2002). (b) Local Climate Zones - Level 0 (Stewart and Oke, 2012). The black and white line shows the  
 280 bicycle transect. The black line represents the sample used for analysis. The white line represents transition  
 281 zones between different CLCs/LCZs, which are not analysed in this study.

282 In detail, the dense medieval city centre (LCZ 2) is surrounded by two rings of boulevards. The inner  
 283 Haussman-type ring serves the city centre whereas the outer one serves dense residential areas (LCZ  
 284 3) and large collective infrastructures (LCZ 5: regional hospital, university campus, etc.). Although the  
 285 city centre is dense and largely impervious, vegetation is not entirely absent and makes up nearly 4.3%  
 286 of the area. The residential space (LCZs 3 and 4) is vegetated and less densely built than LCZ 2  
 287 (vegetation and buildings cover 8.9% and 15.4% of the area, respectively). The urban area is also less  
 288 densely built around trading estates (LCZs 8 and 10) and lower-density residential areas (LCZs 5 and  
 289 6) out to the peri-urban boroughs (LCZ 9) of the conurbation. Other noticeable characteristics of the  
 290 Dijon metropolitan area concern a 33 ha urban park with dense vegetation (LCZ A) located south of  
 291 the city centre, as well as scattered vegetation (LCZs B and C) around water bodies.

292 More particularly, the LCZ categories crossed along the transect (Fig. 5) can be summarized as  
 293 follows (see also Fig.1a for the location of highlight spots - P):

- 294 (i) the eastern part of the transect (P1–P6) is in the lowland area (mean elevation 250 m) mostly  
 295 in the urban space. At highlight spot P3, the route runs through a 33 ha park (LCZ A) before  
 296 heading north through a trading estate (LCZs 8 and 10) and then a cycle/tow path (LCZs B  
 297 and D). It runs south between P4 and P6 through a residential area (LCZs 3 and 4);  
 298 (ii) the western part of the transect (P6–P11) leads around a man-made lake (LCZ G) in a steep-  
 299 sided valley. This part runs through less densely built areas (LCZs 5 and 7) surrounded by  
 300 forest (LCZ A), allotments (LCZ 6) in the far west, and then along the main river of the  
 301 conurbation before coming back to the city centre (LCZ 2);  
 302 (iii) the third section (P11–P13 then back to P1) runs through the medieval city centre and two  
 303 small urban parks, after highlight spots P11 and P12, covering 2.5 ha and 0.4 ha, respectively.  
 304 The route then ends by climbing a small hill (P13 towards P1) characterized by a more open  
 305 urban space (LCZ 5) and vegetated space around large tertiary infrastructures (sports stadium,  
 306 hospital grounds, and university campus) and the outer boulevards.

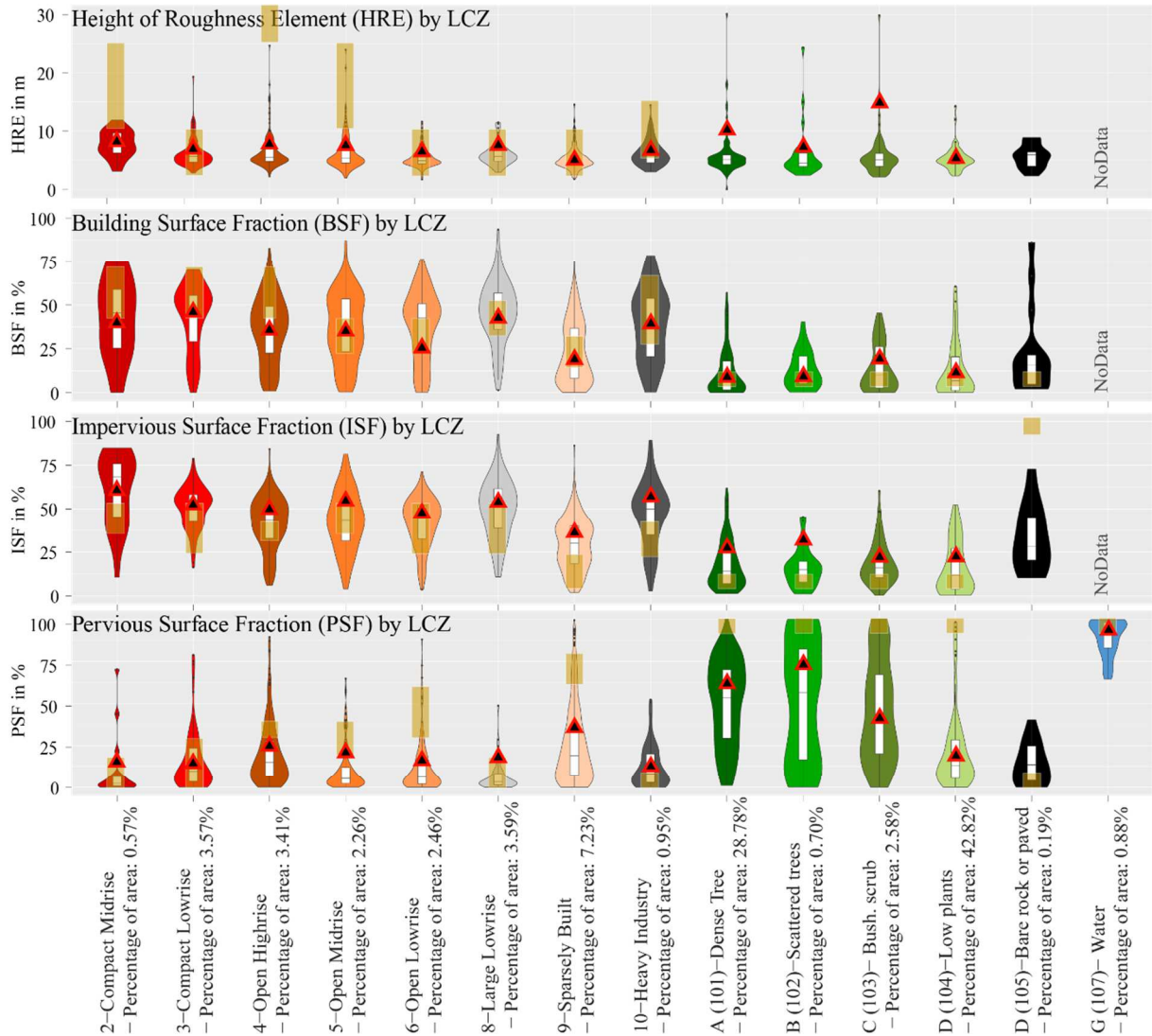
307 Impervious surfaces represent ~75% of the surface crossed along the transect regardless of the  
 308 typology. Except for LCZ G, the route passes directly through the main LCZs, as illustrated in Figure  
 309 5.



310  
 311 **Fig. 5.** Main LCZs along the VeloClim transect used to assess the impact of urban form on temperature. N  
 312 corresponds to the number of classified pixels selected for the analysis. Copyright: Diagrams from Stewart and  
 313 Oke (2012); Satellite images from CNES/Airbus, Maxar Technologies and Google Earth. All photographs by the  
 314 authors except LCZ G by Claire Fabre.

315 To validate the LCZs obtained in Dijon Métropole, Fig. 6 compares their properties to canonical LCZs  
 316 using four metrics defined by Stewart and Oke (2012) and Geletič and Lehnert (2016): the Height of  
 317 Roughness Element (HRE), the Building Surface Fraction (BSF), the Impervious Surface Fraction  
 318 (ISF) and the Pervious Surface Fraction (PSF). These metrics have been computed for both the whole  
 319 city and along the transect (violin plots and triangles in Fig. 6, respectively) using the BD TOPO  
 320 database (IGN, 2016; Emery et al., 2017) describing urban morphology across France. The accuracy  
 321 of our classification depends on the metric considered. Compared to canonical LCZs (Stewart and  
 322 Oke, 2012), HRE is underestimated by 52% over densely built categories (LCZs 2, 4 and 5) because of  
 323 a local political decision to limit the height of buildings. PSF also tends to be underestimated,  
 324 especially for LCZs with vegetation (LCZs A, B, C and D). This bias reaches ~50%. It is mainly the  
 325 consequence of shortcomings with the BD TOPO database in describing low vegetation and even  
 326 overall vegetation when its coverage is less than 200 m<sup>2</sup>. Hence, the PSF is underestimated by ~90%  
 327 for LCZ D. On the other hand, the BSF and, to a larger extent, ISF, accurately fit the canonical values

328 provided by Stewart and Oke (2012), lending credibility to our classification. It is also worth noting  
 329 that the LCZ properties are generally closer to the canonical values when computed along the transect  
 330 than for the Dijon metropolitan area as a whole.



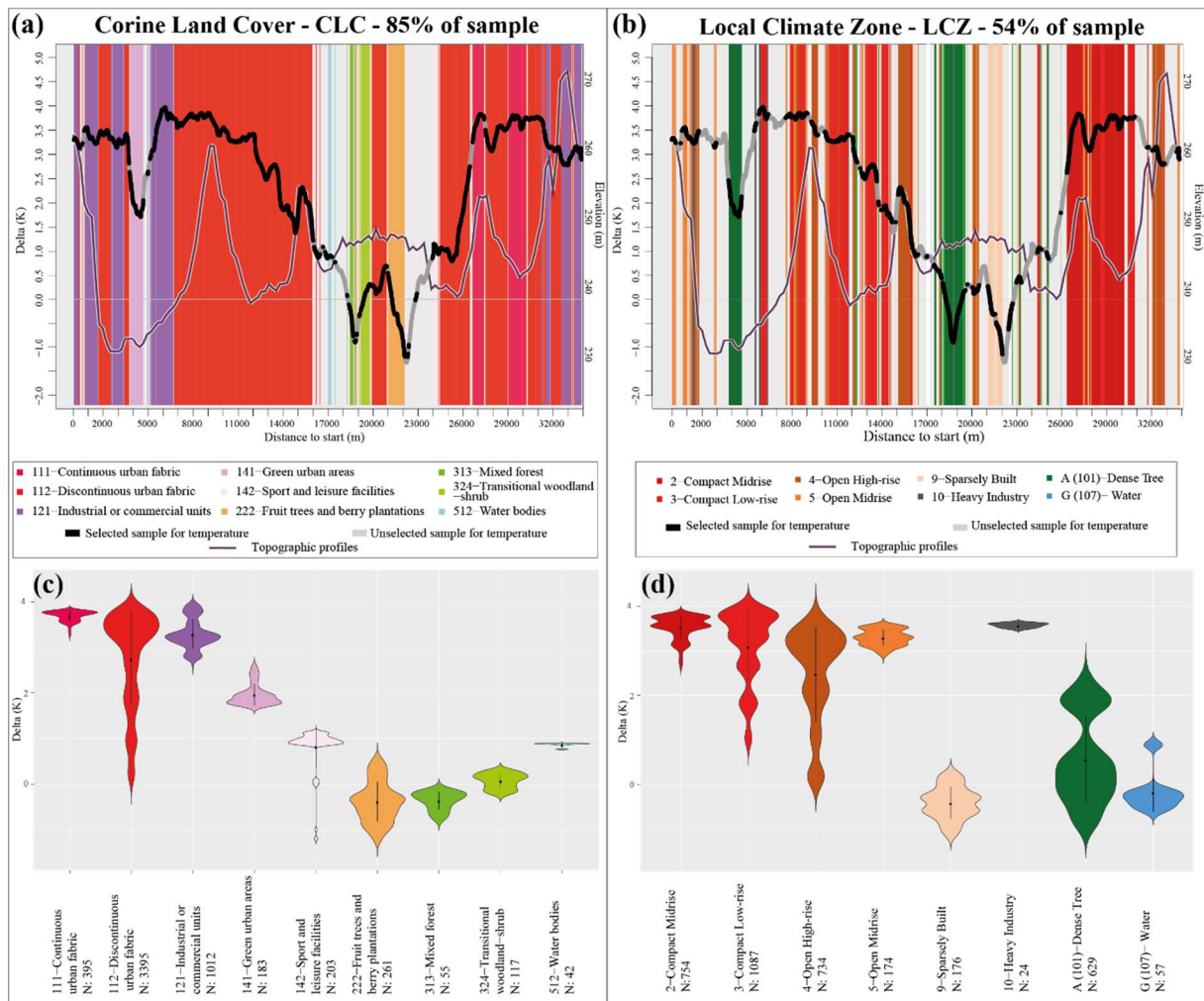
331  
 332 **Fig. 6.** Properties of each LCZ category in terms of Height of Roughness Element (HRE), Building Surface  
 333 Fraction (BSF), Impervious Surface Fraction (ISF) and Pervious Surface Fraction (PSF). The violin plots and  
 334 triangles show the LCZ properties for the whole of Dijon Métropole and for the VeloClim transect, respectively.  
 335 The rectangles in yellow show the LCZ properties as defined by Stewart and Oke (2012).

336 **3.2 Impact of CLCs/LCZs on temperature along the transect**

337 To properly assess the impact of urban form on air temperature, Stewart and Oke (2012) recommend  
 338 avoiding the mixed influence of different LCZs and, by extension, CLCs on air temperature. To do so,  
 339 we consider a buffer of 400 m around each record and keep only those records when at least 55% of  
 340 the buffer area is covered by a single LCZ or CLC category. This criterion guarantees the selection of  
 341 temperature in homogeneous urban categories without reducing the sample size too drastically. The  
 342 different buffer sizes tested (i.e. 400 m and 1000 m) lead to similar results (not shown). The sample  
 343 selected for analysing the urban form–temperature relationship in the remainder of this study is shown  
 344 in black in Fig. 4. It corresponds to 85% of temperature records for CLCs and 54% for LCZs. About  
 345 85% (15%) of this sample belong to urban (natural) environments for CLCs, differing slightly from  
 346 the proportions for LCZs (~80% versus 20%).

347 3.2.1 Impact on mean temperature

348 The mean temperature differences averaged over the 24 runs (see section 3.1 for details on their  
 349 computation) are shown along the transect in Fig. 7 together with the altitude and all corresponding  
 350 CLC/LCZ categories. On average, temperature differences vary between -1.5 K and +4 K along the  
 351 transect (against the rural index derived from the MUSTARDijon network: see section 2.3), hence a  
 352 marked spatial amplitude of 5.5 K (Fig. 7a. and 7b). Altitude changes partially explain temperature  
 353 variability along the transect, as reflected by the thermal inversion of ~1 K between the plain (km 1 to  
 354 16 and 26 to 33 in Fig. 7a and 7b) and the valley (km 16 to 25). The impact of altitude on temperature  
 355 remains weak, though, (spatial correlation close to 0) and cannot account, for example, for the abrupt  
 356 variation in temperature between km 17 and 24. On the other hand, the urban form categories seem to  
 357 play a major role regardless of the typology considered. Areas with the highest temperatures  
 358 correspond to categories describing highly artificial, mineral, and impervious surfaces (e.g. CLCs 111,  
 359 112 and 121 in Fig. 7a; LCZs 2, 3, 4, 5 and 10 in Fig. 7b). By contrast, the coolest areas correspond to  
 360 sparsely built and, to a larger extent, highly vegetated zones (CLCs 222, 313, 324 and 512; LCZs 9, A  
 361 and G).

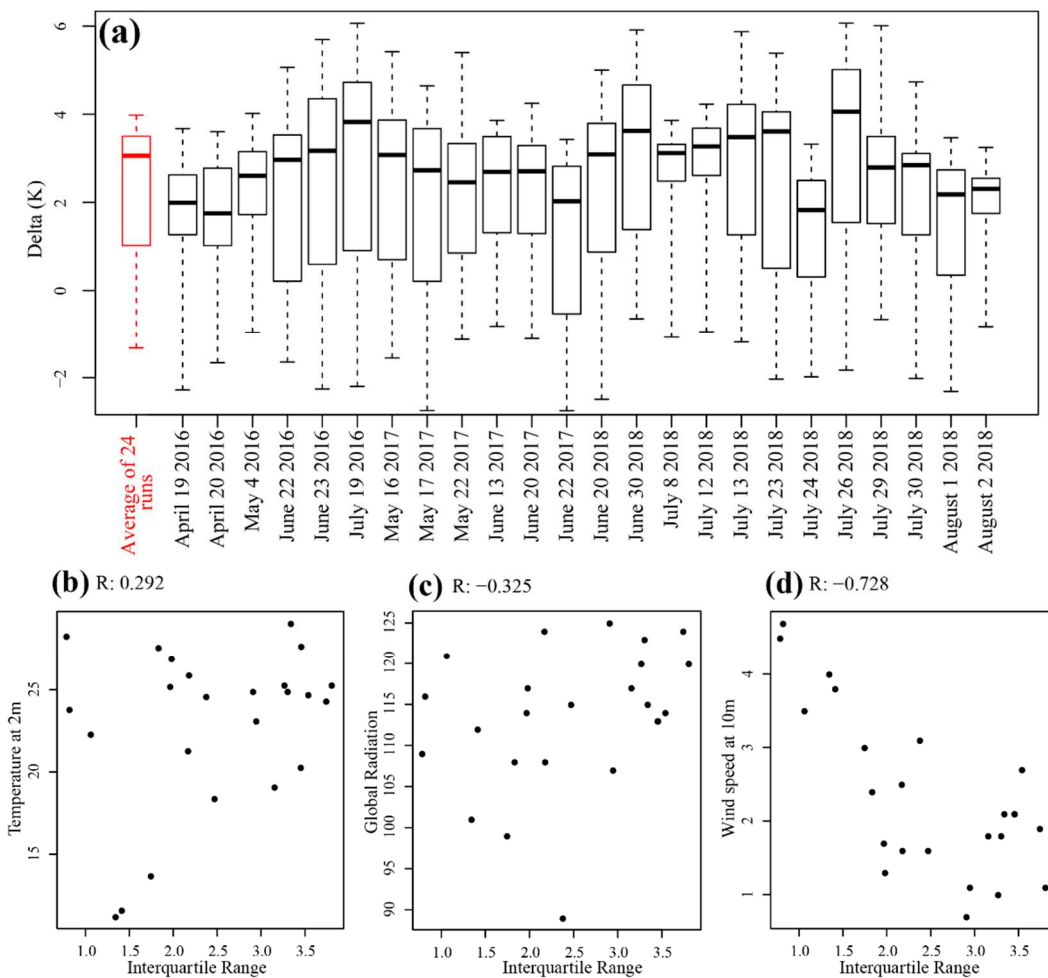


363 **Fig. 7.** Temperature and urban form along the transect. (a) Temperature differences against the rural index,  
 364 averaged for the 24 runs (black and white line) together with the CLC categories (shadings) and the altitude  
 365 (grey line). The influence of urban form on temperature is assessed when at least 55% of the area in a 400 m  
 366 radius around each temperature record is covered by the same CLC (see section 3.2). The selected sample is  
 367 shown in black for temperature and in shades of colour for CLC categories. (b) Same as (a) but for LCZ  
 368 categories. (c) Temperature differences for the 24 runs associated with each CLC category. (d) Same as (c) but  
 369 for each LCZ category.

370 These qualitative results are confirmed by ANOVAs computed using the temperature averaged over  
 371 the 24 runs, and indicating that ~60% (~70%) of the temperature variability along the transect is  
 372 explained by the 9 CLCs (8 LCZs) (see Fig. 9). This is further confirmed by the distribution of  
 373 temperature differences of the 24 runs according to the CLCs/LCZs (Fig. 7c-d, respectively). The  
 374 temperature distribution also indicates that the influence of urban form on air temperature is by no  
 375 means perfect. For instance, temperature variability remains non-negligible within CLC 112 and LCZs  
 376 3 and 4, which lie at the intersection between densely built and highly vegetated zones (Fig. 4). This is  
 377 also the case for LCZ A, which depicts a bi-modal distribution of temperature differences against the  
 378 rural index. LCZ A corresponds mainly to (1) the 33 ha urban park located south of the city centre and  
 379 (2) forests/gardens located in the western part of the city. These two zones, although similarly  
 380 characterized by local minima of temperature (Fig. 7b), nonetheless display very dissimilar  
 381 temperature levels (the urban park area being warmer). This is probably due to (1) the proximity  
 382 between the city centre and the park and (2) the slight thermal inversion discussed above and that  
 383 cools the gardens located in the lower parts of the valley, west of the conurbation.

384 **3.2.2 Impact on temporal variability**

385 The above analysis provides an average view of the impact of CLC and LCZ categories on  
 386 temperature, which may overestimate the relative weight of surface conditions by increasing the signal  
 387 (static surface properties, including urban form and soil sealing) to noise (atmospheric dynamics,  
 388 including synoptic wind and atmospheric turbulence) ratio. Here, we go one step further by assessing  
 389 (1) the spatial variability of temperature along the transect for the 24 runs, (2) the role of weather  
 390 conditions in modulating that variability and (3) the consequences for the urban form–temperature  
 391 relationship for both typologies.



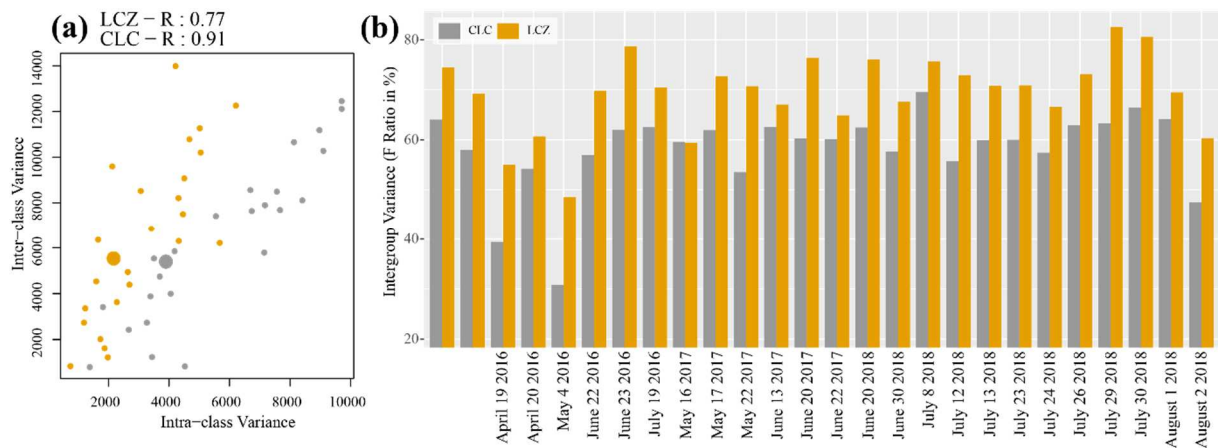
392

393 **Fig. 8.** Spatial variability of temperature along the transect and relationship with weather conditions. (a) Spatial  
 394 variability of temperature for each run and averaged for the 24 runs. (b) Relationship between temperature  
 395 spatial variability defined as the interquartile range (x-axis; rectangle in panel a) and 2 m temperature recorded at  
 396 Dijon-Longvic and averaged between 19 and 21 UTC of each run (y-axis). (c) Same as (b) but for global  
 397 radiation averaged between 06 and 18 UTC. (d) Same as (c) but for wind speed at 10 m averaged between 19  
 398 and 21 UTC.

399 Fig. 8a shows the spatial variability of temperature for each of the 24 runs. All the runs are markedly  
 400 different from the mean run shown in red and considered so far. The median of the temperature  
 401 difference with surrounding rural stations ranges from +2 K to +4 K. This confirms that all runs were  
 402 conducted in the presence of UHIs. Two main types of UHIs emerge: those associated with high  
 403 spatial variability in temperature along the transect (11 out of the 24 runs: 22 and 23 June 2016, 19  
 404 July 2016, 16 and 17 May 2017, 22 June 2018, 20 and 30 June 2018, 13, 23 and 26 July 2018) and  
 405 those associated with low variability (the 13 remaining runs). Fig. 8b-d intersects the spatial variability  
 406 of temperature along the transect, as measured by the interquartile range, with three hourly parameters  
 407 recorded at the Météo-France synoptic weather station (see Fig. 1a) during each run: temperature and  
 408 wind speed, both averaged between 19 and 21 UTC, and global radiation averaged between 06 and 18  
 409 UTC (that is, the day before the runs). Temperature spatial variability does not seem to be influenced  
 410 by the background temperature conditions (Fig. 8b) nor by global radiation (Fig. 8c) for the 24 runs.

411 Wind has a marked impact, promoting more ventilation within the urban canopy layer, and so more  
 412 homogeneous temperatures as its speed increases (Fig. 8d). The effect of wind speed on the urban  
 413 form–temperature relationship is further assessed by intersecting the temperature variability within (x-  
 414 axis) and between (y-axis) the CLC/LCZ categories for each run (Fig. 9a). Wind speed does not  
 415 modulate the impact of CLC categories on temperature, since temperature variability between and  
 416 within CLCs co-vary linearly (Fig. 9a, grey dots). However, the impact of LCZs on temperature tends  
 417 to increase as wind speed decreases (and temperature spatial variability increases), as reflected by the  
 418 exponential shape of the scatterplot (Fig. 9a, orange dots).

419 Importantly, the urban form explains more than 50% of the temperature variability along the transect  
 420 in 21/23 out of the 24 runs for CLC/LCZ typologies, respectively (Fig. 9b). Except for a few runs (e.g.  
 421 29 and 30 July 2018), this contribution is almost systematically larger when temperature variability is  
 422 high and wind speed is low. Therefore, the urban form remains the main driver of temperature spatial  
 423 variability during occurrences of UHIs, and its impact is much greater under low wind speed  
 424 conditions.

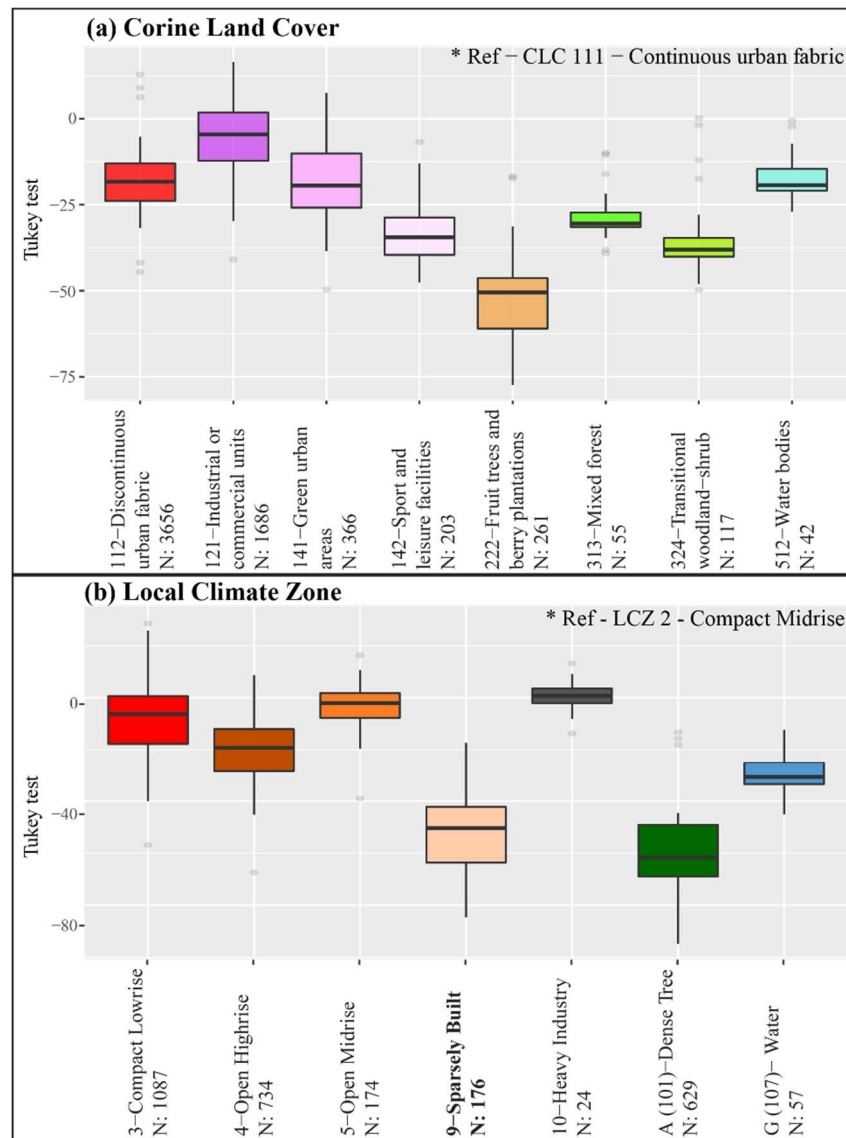


425 **Fig. 9.** Synthesis of ANOVA for each run. (a) Relation between intra-class and inter-class temperature variance  
 426 for CLCs (grey) and LCZs (orange). Small/large dots represent each run/the 24-run mean. (b) Fraction of  
 427 temperature variability (%) explained by each typology (CLC in grey and LCZ in orange).  
 428

429 **3.3 Effects of the different CLC and LCZ categories on air temperature**

430 Previous sections indicate a strong and significant impact of the urban form on urban air temperature  
 431 spatial variability. Here, we seek to identify the urban form categories that have the greatest impact on  
 432 temperature, not only in terms of temperature differences, but also in terms of frequency. In other  
 433 words, we attempt here to determine whether the influence of a given category is recurrent or  
 434 occasional. For each of the 24 runs, we compare temperature differences of the different categories in  
 435 each typology against CLC 111 and LCZ 2 using the Tukey test (see section 2.4). Figure 10  
 436 summarizes the results for the 24 runs and Table 1 shows the number of runs (as a percentage) when  
 437 temperatures associated with each category differ significantly (either warmer or colder) from those of  
 438 CLC 111/LCZ 2 at different confidence levels.

439 Both typologies point to two main groups acting differently on temperatures. The first group  
 440 corresponds to built or impervious surfaces located from the city centre towards the outskirts (CLCs  
 441 112, 121 and 141; LCZs 3, 4, 5 and 10). Associated temperatures are mostly slightly cooler than the  
 442 reference category. The second group describes peri-urban and natural environments (CLCs 142, 222,  
 443 313, 324 and, to a lesser extent, 512; LCZs 9, A and G), which are clearly cooler than the reference  
 444 category. These two groups depict the contrast between impervious surfaces associated with warm  
 445 temperatures and pervious surfaces leading to significantly cooler air temperatures.



446



447 **Fig. 10.** Impact of each CLC and LCZ category on temperature for the 24 runs. (a) Result of the Tukey test  
 448 between each CLC category and CLC 111 (continuous urban fabric). The more Tukey test values deviate from 0,  
 449 the more the temperature associated with each CLC category differs from that of CLC 111. (b) Same as (a) but  
 450 for LCZ categories compared to LCZ 2 (compact midrise).

451 Except for CLC 121 and LCZ 10, Table 1 demonstrates that temperatures associated with each  
 452 category shown in Figure 10 differ significantly from those of the reference category for at least 90%  
 453 of the runs at the 90% confidence level. Among them, sparsely built zones (LCZ 9) and forests (CLC  
 454 222 and LCZ A) are characterized by the coolest temperatures, a signal significant at the 99.99%  
 455 confidence level in at least 70% of the runs. This shows that the influence of vegetation is recurrent to  
 456 some extent, and could be considered as quasi-systematic, during the nights conducive to the  
 457 development of UHIs.

(a)									(b)							
Sign	112-Discontinuous urban fabric - N : 3656	121-Industrial or commercial units - N : 1686	141-Green urban areas - N : 366	142-Sport and leisure facilities - N : 203	222-Fruit trees and berry plantations - N : 261	313-Mixed forest - N : 55	324-Transitional woodland-shrub - N : 117	512-Water bodies - N : 42	Sign	3-Compact Low-rise - N : 1087	4-Open High-rise - N : 734	5-Open Midrise - N : 174	9-Sparsely Built - N : 176	10-Heavy Industry - N : 24	A (101)-Dense Tree - N : 629	G (107)- Water - N : 57
.	100%	80%	96%	100%	100%	100%	92%	96%	.	88%	100%	76%	100%	72%	100%	100%
*	100%	80%	96%	100%	100%	100%	92%	92%	*	88%	96%	72%	100%	60%	100%	100%
**	100%	72%	96%	100%	100%	100%	92%	92%	**	88%	96%	72%	100%	52%	100%	100%
***	8%	0%	4%	20%	88%	0%	24%	0%	***	4%	8%	0%	72%	0%	88%	8%

458 Signif. codes: 0 '\*\*\*' 0,001 '\*\*' 0,01 '\*' 0,05 '.' - confidence interval : < 2,2e-16

459 **Tab 1.** Percentage of runs when temperatures associated with a category are significantly different from those of  
 460 the city centre (CLC 111 or LCZ 2). (a) CLC categories. (b) LCZ categories. The percentage is shown at the  
 461 (\*\*\*) 99.99%, (\*\*) 99%, (\*) 90% and (.) 95% confidence level according to the Tukey test.

## 462 4. Discussion

463 This paper is an attempt to assess the impact of urban form on the spatial variability of temperatures  
 464 on the local to micro scales based on mobile temperature measurements and two urban form  
 465 typologies (CLC and LCZ). Such a quantification is a challenging exercise for four main reasons:

- 466 - First, mobile measurements are subject to lag errors (here, the response time of the  
 467 temperature sensor is ~30 seconds at 5 m.s<sup>-1</sup>). Lag errors make it difficult to measure the  
 468 “unadulterated” influence of the CLC/LCZ categories on temperature;
- 469 - Second, the relationship is sensitive to sample size. Here, the sample is much smaller for  
 470 LCZs (54% of the temperature records) than for CLCs (85%). By construction, we introduce  
 471 more heterogeneity in CLCs than LCZs. The same analysis conducted using the same sample  
 472 (54%) leads to very similar results, with ~70% of the temperature variability explained by  
 473 surface states regardless of the typology. This illustrates that the way temperatures are  
 474 sampled within and between urban categories is critical to the quantification of their influence  
 475 on temperatures;

- 476 - Third, the relationship between temperature and the CLC/LCZ categories is quantified through  
477 simple statistics (ANOVA). This approach does not account for warm/cold advection from  
478 one CLC/LCZ category to the surrounding ones. For instance, LCZ A (dense trees) mixes a 33  
479 ha urban park close to the city centre and forests located in the western part of the city that  
480 both have the effect of lowering temperatures but with different amplitudes because the  
481 influence of adjacent LCZ categories is not explicitly considered. In this particular case,  
482 temperatures in the urban park may also be influenced by warmer temperatures recorded  
483 around the park. More sophisticated approaches or a physical based analysis (e.g. urban  
484 climate modelling) are required to account for temperature advection and interactions between  
485 the different CLC/LCZ categories;
- 486 - Last, other physical features (e.g. altitude) and atmospheric circulation also affect temperature  
487 variability and may exacerbate or counter-balance the influence of urban form. The cases  
488 studied here correspond to calm weather conditions conducive to UHI development. The  
489 temperature along the transect is not correlated to the altitude profile (Fig. 7a-b), suggesting a  
490 weak control of altitude on temperature during the campaign. While wind speed remains  
491 relatively low during all runs, the influence of CLC/LCZ categories clearly decreases for the  
492 most windy runs (3–4 m.s<sup>-1</sup>). Consistent with Brandsma and Wolters (2012) and Lehnert et al.  
493 (2018), low wind speeds result in less ventilation of the urban canopy layer and promote UHIs  
494 on the meso scale and spatially more heterogeneous temperatures on the local scale. In this  
495 study, we merely used wind speed from the synoptic weather station located south of the city  
496 (Fig. 1a), but the synoptic wind often differs markedly from the local wind conditions  
497 prevailing throughout the city. Here, the wind measurements made at 13 fixed locations along  
498 the VeloClim transect during all runs appear of little use for further interpreting temperature  
499 variability patterns, since the runs correspond to calm evenings and wind speeds were found to  
500 be within the instrumentation error range.

501 Despite the above limitations, two robust conclusions emerge from our study. Qualitatively, the CLC  
502 and LCZ typologies reveal a significant influence of urban form on temperature variability within the  
503 city, and between the city and its surrounding environment. Among the different CLC/LCZ categories,  
504 two major groups strongly impact temperatures. Densely built zones characterized by artificial,  
505 mineral and impervious surfaces are recurrently associated with warm temperatures and UHIs. By  
506 contrast, vegetated zones tend to cool temperatures and may promote UCIs. These effects are  
507 consistent with those identified in many cities worldwide over the last 100 years (Stewart, 2019).  
508 Quantitatively, our paper points to high sensitivity of the relationship between temperature and urban  
509 form on the local to micro scales depending on the typology used to synthesize surface properties. The  
510 CLC typology provides a macro-scale summary of surface properties and is thus less efficient for  
511 discriminating intra-urban temperature variability than the micro-scale summary provided by the LCZ  
512 typology (Fig. 9b). This is not surprising since the different CLC categories do not account for  
513 building characteristics (e.g. height and density), which are known to influence temperatures (Howard,  
514 1833; Berg and Metzler, 1934; Oke, 2006; Stewart, 2019). Moreover, they can mix heterogeneous  
515 surfaces. For instance, CLC 112 merges small urban parks, housing estates, collective housing,  
516 detached housing and private gardens that may have antagonistic effects on temperatures. While our  
517 LCZ categories have some limitations induced by the WUDAPT approach (Lehnert, 2021) and the  
518 input data (BD TOPO), they better discriminate surface properties and are thus more suitable than  
519 CLCs when it comes to assessing urban form effects on urban climate (see e.g. Fig. 9b). The LCZ  
520 typology better discriminates surface properties and is thus more suitable than CLC for assessing  
521 urban form effects on urban climate (see e.g. Fig. 9b). This corroborates previous work (Buttstädt et  
522 al., 2011; Leconte et al., 2017; Lehnert et al., 2018).

## 523 **5. Conclusion**

524 This paper presents the results of a mobile measurement campaign involving repeated runs over the  
525 same transect in a medium-sized French conurbation. The results improve our understanding of the  
526 influence of surface conditions on air temperature at 2 m above ground level on a local scale, as seen  
527 by two different and complementary typologies of urban form. Analysis of temperature spatial  
528 variability cross-validated with CLC and LCZ categories has made it possible to reveal a marked and

529 significant effect of certain types of urban form and their properties on UHIs and UCIs, independently  
530 of the background temperature. According to the two typologies tested, the urban developments that  
531 promote less intense UHIs have two major characteristics: (1) a low density of building (but not  
532 necessarily of population as in the case of LCZ 9) and (2) the presence of mixed high and low  
533 vegetation. Several major points about the effects in urban settings are noticeable:

- 534 - CLC and LCZ typologies are relevant and complementary for analysing the heterogeneity of  
535 surface contrasts on the scale of the urban space.
- 536 - On a local scale, the urban form has a decisive effect on air temperature independently of  
537 weather conditions. Temperature variability appears to be driven essentially by surface  
538 conditions (especially urban morphology and soil sealing). However, this claim should be  
539 nuanced by noting that, for this measurement campaign, weather conditions were similar with  
540 little wind and few clouds during the daytime, thereby maximizing the influence of surface  
541 properties on local air temperature.
- 542 - Accordingly, urban form has a greater effect on air temperature when spatial temperature  
543 constraints are strong and wind speed is low. Under windy conditions, temperatures become  
544 more uniform across the city, the weather takes the upper hand and the temperature pattern  
545 reflects spatial structures of a larger scale, thereby reducing the influence of surface  
546 conditions.
- 547 - The evenings when the surface contribution is weakest are the same for both typologies (CLC  
548 and LCZ), suggesting that the large-scale weather patterns, especially wind speed, prevail over  
549 surface conditions at those times.
- 550 - The LCZ typology is suitable for discriminating and understanding temperatures on a local  
551 scale, whereas CLC cannot readily account for the diversity of intra-urban categories on a  
552 local scale. This is especially true for discontinuous urban zones.

553 The discriminating effect of CLC and LCZ categories on air temperature can be explained primarily  
554 by their intrinsic characteristics, such as the impervious surfaces, the shape and size of the built area,  
555 the occurrence and type of vegetation. The most heavily vegetated surfaces, with both grass and trees,  
556 and surfaces associated with the presence of water, very likely promote night time urban cooling and  
557 may lead to the formation of UCIs. Even so, these zones are not widespread and vary in size.  
558 Developments such as allotments, and not just large zones of vegetation, may play a part in improving  
559 thermal comfort on summer evenings and nights. Less dense, more scattered buildings and the  
560 presence of a vegetation zone in residential areas are developments that are generally cooler than the  
561 city centre, conducive to UCIs within urban environments. The results achieved in this work suggest  
562 therefore that vegetation in cities is a primordial condition and recurrently effective over time for  
563 cooling urban air on evenings following sunny days with little wind. Vegetation in the city therefore  
564 seems to be a type of land cover and surface state that can significantly attenuate UHI phenomena and  
565 so help cities adapt to climate change while providing ecosystem and landscape services.

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