

1 Summer Heat Risk Index: how to integrate 2 recent climatic changes and soil 3 consumption component

4 Alfonso Crisci¹, Luca Congedo², Marco Morabito¹, and Michele Munafò²

5 ¹IBIMET CNR, Institute of Biometeorology National Research Council, Firenze, Italy

6 ²ISPRA – Italian National Institute for Environmental Protection and Research

7 ABSTRACT

8 Face to the urban resiliency two major environmental threats are widely recognized: the increasing
9 summer air temperatures and the soil consumption that affects a large number of city in Italy. The work
10 have the goal to present preliminary the actual Heat Summer Risk defined by using Crichton's Risk
11 Triangle (Crichton, 1999) on the second Italian level of administration (ADM2 - Province). For each
12 administrative unit we have considered as hazard layer the most recent trend of summer air temperature
13 assessed (1980-2014); the exposure layer is individuated by the amount of population living in each
14 province and finally as vulnerable layer the mean degree of soil consumption expressed in percentage
15 was considered. Thanks to these information Crichton's methodology are able to give a quantitative
16 risk value index further classified in five risk class. Data sources was provided by several authoritative
17 institutions : (i) ISPRA (Italian National Institute for Environmental Protection and Research) that provide
18 data about density of soil consumption for 2015 as reported in the Soil Consumption Report 2016;
19 (ii) ECAD (European Climate Assessment & Dataset) that gives detailed historical daily climatic layers
20 (E-OBS 1950-2015 v 13.0); (iii) ISTAT (Italian National Institute of Statistics) that provides the last updates
21 on Italian population data (2016). The results was mapped and presented. All computations was carried
22 out in R-STAT environment by using different library available for Spatial and Trend Analysis. Data and
23 code are released in public repository.

24 Keywords: Climate changes, Soil consumption, Urban Resiliency, Italy

25 INTRODUCTION

26 Following the definition of risk "*The probability of harmful consequences or expected losses resulting*
27 *from a given hazard to a given element at danger or peril, over a specified time period*" provided by
28 European Commission (Schneiderbauer and Ehrlich, 2004), it is hard do not taken into account the last
29 claims reported by the IPCC 5th Assessment Report (IPCC AR5) concerning the heat wave phenomenon
30 and the summer temperature increase over the Mediterranean area (IPCC, 2015; IPCC and Pachauri,
31 2015). Is it possible to define a specific "Heat Summer Risk"? The climate literature confirms that
32 Mediterranean area are under pressure in regard to the increase of summer temperature (Diffenbaugh
33 et al., 2007; Bartolini et al., 2008; Kuglitsch et al., 2010; Bartolini et al., 2012). The related phenomena of
34 heat-wave, defined as a prolonged period of excessively hot weather, becomes frequent after 1998 and now
35 are more clearly defined in terms of temperature threshold, spatial and temporal extension (Stefanon et al.,
36 2012; Russo et al., 2015). Heat-waves are the climatic driver of the increase of air summer temperature
37 and the risks associated are potentially significant for human health. When summer temperature are
38 higher than normal climatology many sectors of society and environment are deeply involved. Surely
39 health care sector and work insurance are the first ones impacted by a modified climatic summer heat risk
40 (Morabito et al., 2006; Kovats and Kristie, 2006; McMichael et al., 2006; Morabito et al., 2012). Higher
41 summer temperature are costly and a very good parameter to evaluate its economic impact is the growth
42 of electric consumption that have strong relationship with high temperature (Le Comte and Warren,
43 1981; Vardoulakis et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2015). During hot periods air-cooling electrical devices add a
44 considerable peak demand on electrical utility grids (Liang et al., 2016). Undoubtedly the impact of the
45 increasing heat in summers depends in large measure by the quality of city urbanization and the buildings

46 characteristics and in particular their thermal performance (Kapsomenakis et al., 2013; Petralli et al.,
 47 2014). Urban design defines spatially, at the city scale, the risk for people (Morabito et al., 2015). Recently
 48 it is pointed that exist a significant role played by soil consumption in urban areas as the key factor to
 49 determinate the thermal state in Italy (Morabito et al., 2016). The public attention on soil consumption
 50 in Italy is grown thanks to the publication of Soil Consumption Report by ISPRA (ISPRA, 2014). This
 51 important environmental topic has been largely investigated not only Italy (Munafò et al., 2013a; Salvati,
 52 2013; Munafò et al., 2013b; Salvati et al., 2013) but also in Europe (Hennig et al., 2015) and represent an
 53 important factor of vulnerability. Analyzing all claims reported in literature seems important to build a
 54 resuming indicator of the heat summer heat risk because its impact is strongly heterogeneous in the urban
 55 environment and very complex. A simple Heat Summer Risk Index is proposed in this work and could be
 56 suitable to evaluate a spatial representation of this kind of risk useful for land-use decision-makers for
 57 promoting an efficient soil sealing management in urban environments.

58 DATA AND METHODS

59 Three data source are used in the work: (i) the ISTAT (Italian National Institute of Statistics) population
 60 data valid at 01-01-2016 and available at website <http://demo.istat.it/pop2016> 1; (ii) ISPRA (Italian
 61 National Institute for Environmental Protection and Research) soil consumption data relative to 2015
 62 at provincial scale expressed as percentage on entire surface 2; (iii) the ECA&D (European Climate
 63 Assessment and Datasets) E-OBS mean air temperature climate gridded layers (Haylock et al., 2008)
 64 that are available at website: <http://www.ecad.eu/download/ensembles/download.php>. From the ISTAT
 65 web data- portal the geographical bounds of Italian provinces are available and are freely available at
 66 <http://www.istat.it/it/archivio/124086>. These ones are used to perform a data extraction on E-OBS climate
 67 layers obtaining the mean daily air temperature for each Italian provinces covering the period starting
 68 from 1980 to 2015. The extraction of data was performed by using R *raster* package (Hijmans, 2015).
 69 The average daily summaries were aggregated seasonally (July, August and September) creating a set
 70 of 20 annual time series. For each temperature series a non-parametric trend analysis was performed by
 71 using R *trend* packages (Pohlert, 2016). For every province it was estimate the annual Sen's slope of
 72 summer mean air temperature (Sen, 1968). These values are the temperature's linear trend relative to
 73 1080-2015 and they are scaled to decennial variation (degC/10Years) 3. Having these three data layers the
 74 Crichton's methodology has been applied to calculate the Summer Heat Risk Index (SHRI) working only
 75 on the normalized data. The normalization was used to obtain the layers of hazard (Summer Temperature
 76 trend), exposure (Population) and vulnerability (percentage of soil consumption) on the same scale (0
 77 to 1) by dividing each value of an individual layer by the range of variability. The following step was
 78 the combination of the normalized layers through a weighting procedure. More general expression 1 and
 79 SHRI formulation 2 are here presented.

$$Risk = (0.5 * Vulnerability + 0.5 * Exposure) * 0.5 + Hazard * 0.5 \quad (1)$$

$$SHRI = (0.5 * Norm_Perc_Soil + 0.5 * Norm_Population) * 0.5 + Norm_T_trend * 0.5 \quad (2)$$

80 To avoid subjective manipulation, all weightings were kept equal. Population layer are linked to
 81 Soil Consumption so the exposure and vulnerability layers were combined in a single "exposed and
 82 vulnerable" layer (each weighted at 50%) that which was then combined with the hazard layer (weighted
 83 at 50%). SHRI varies from 0 and 1 and represents a risk evaluation face to the hazard considered.
 84 The final province-specific mapping visualization was created by splitting the SHRI values into five
 85 equal-risk levels: very low ($SHRI \leq 0.2$), low ($0.2 < SHRI \leq 0.4$), moderate ($0.4 < SHRI \leq 0.6$), high
 86 ($0.6 < SHRI \leq 0.8$), and very high ($SHRI > 0.8$). Graphical environment for maps was done by using
 87 JavaScript Leaflet Library available trough the R *leaflet* package (Cheng and Xie, 2016). The code and
 88 repository is available at website https://github.com/alfcrisci/ogrs_2016_SHRI_paper.

89 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

90 The final map 4 describe a well-defined pattern of the Summer Heat risk existing actually in Italy. The
 91 provinces with the greatest SHRI were those including the largest cities such as Rome, Naples and

92 Milan. These areas are more localized in Italian territory. Many other northern and southern areas also
93 exhibited a high SHRI level. Central areas, with the exception of Rome, and mountain areas (on the Alps
94 and Apennines) seems less vulnerable, showing a general low level of SHRI. SHRI Italian pattern has
95 deep implications for policy making, suggesting that each city's climate and soil consumption, must be
96 considered into climate change mitigation strategies (Fu et al., 2015). The significant trends in climate
97 variables as temperatures due tell us that urban areas are facing a strong adaptation imperative (Carter
98 et al., 2015).

99 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

100 We acknowledge the E-OBS dataset from the EU-FP6 project ENSEMBLES (<http://ensembles-eu.metoffice.com>)
101 and the data providers in the ECA&D project (<http://www.ecad.eu>). This study was supported by the
102 European Project Culture And RiSk management in Man-made And Natural Disasters (CARISMAND) -
103 H2020-DRS-2014 - Grant agreement no: 65374.

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184 FIGURES

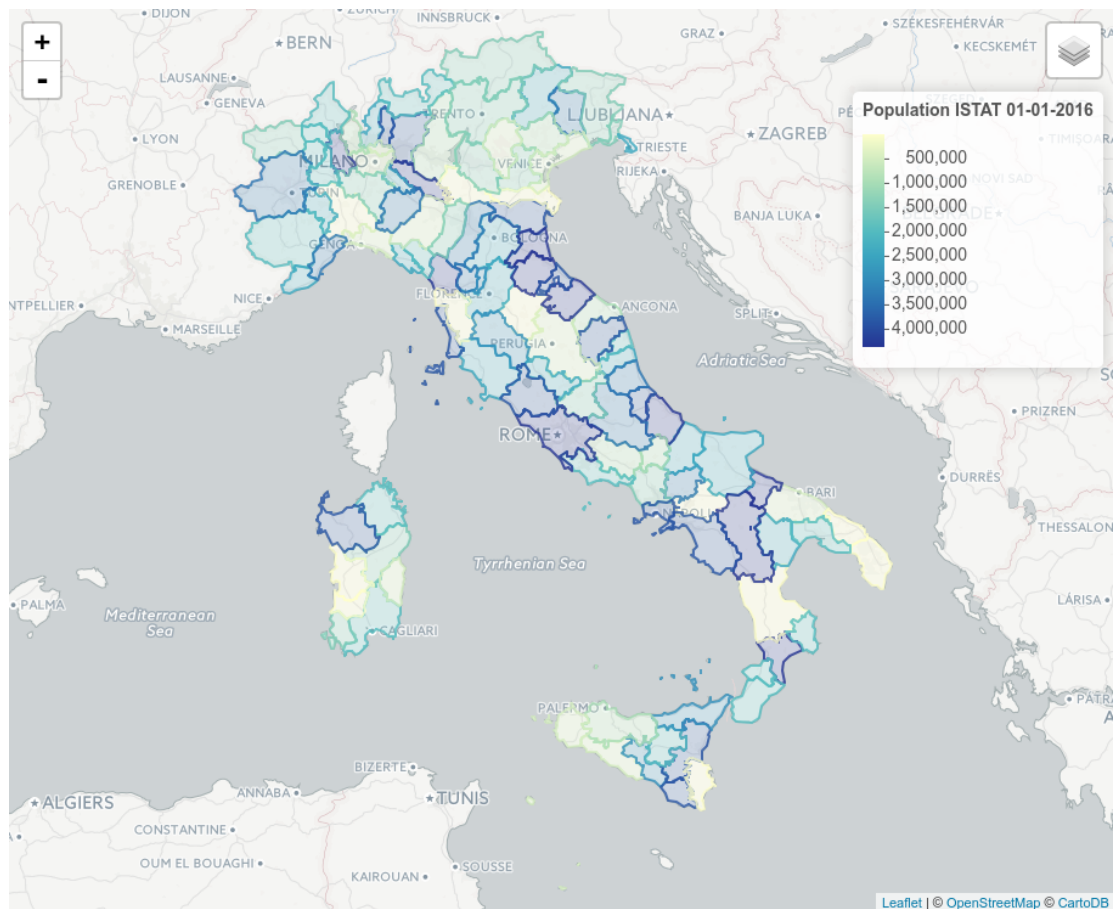


Figure 1. ISTAT Italian Population data by Province

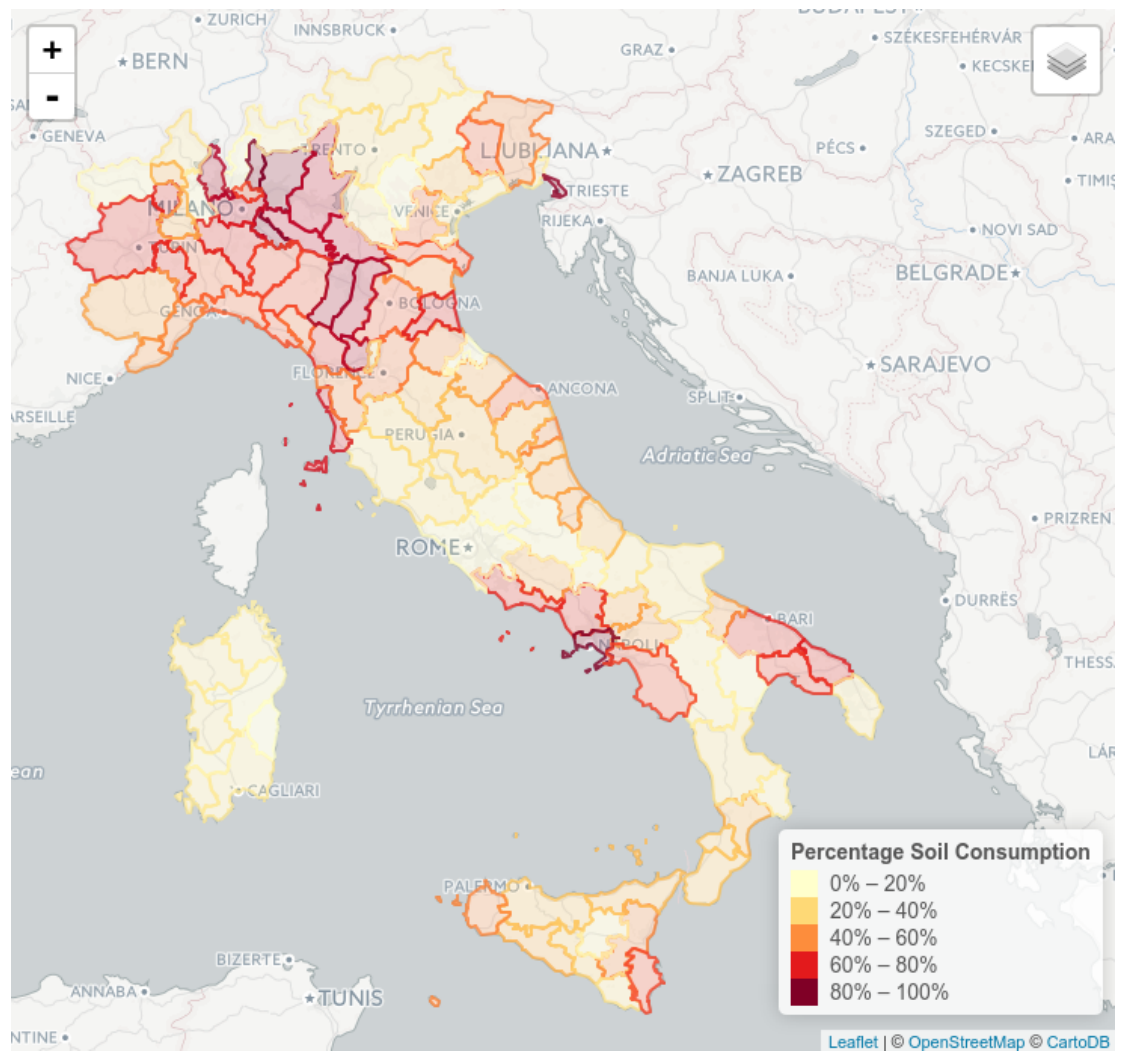


Figure 2. ISPRA Percentage of soil consumption by Province

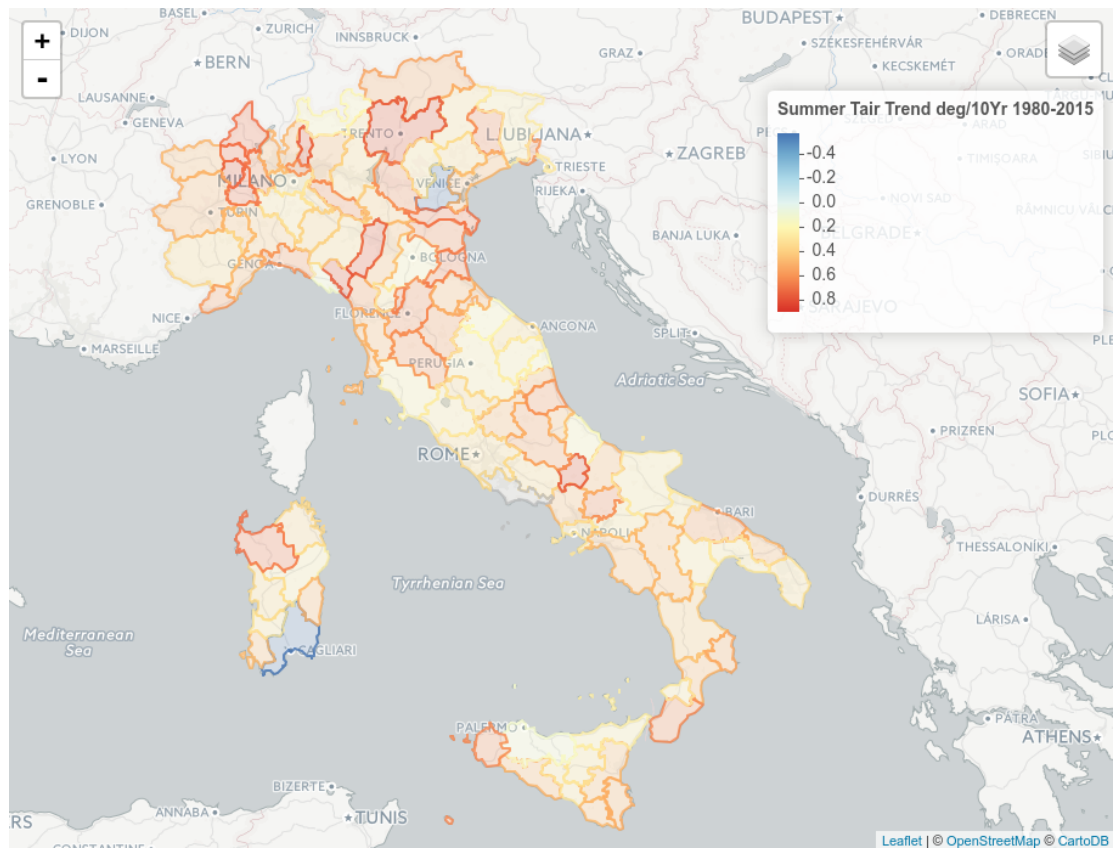


Figure 3. Summer mean air temperature trend by Province 1980-2015

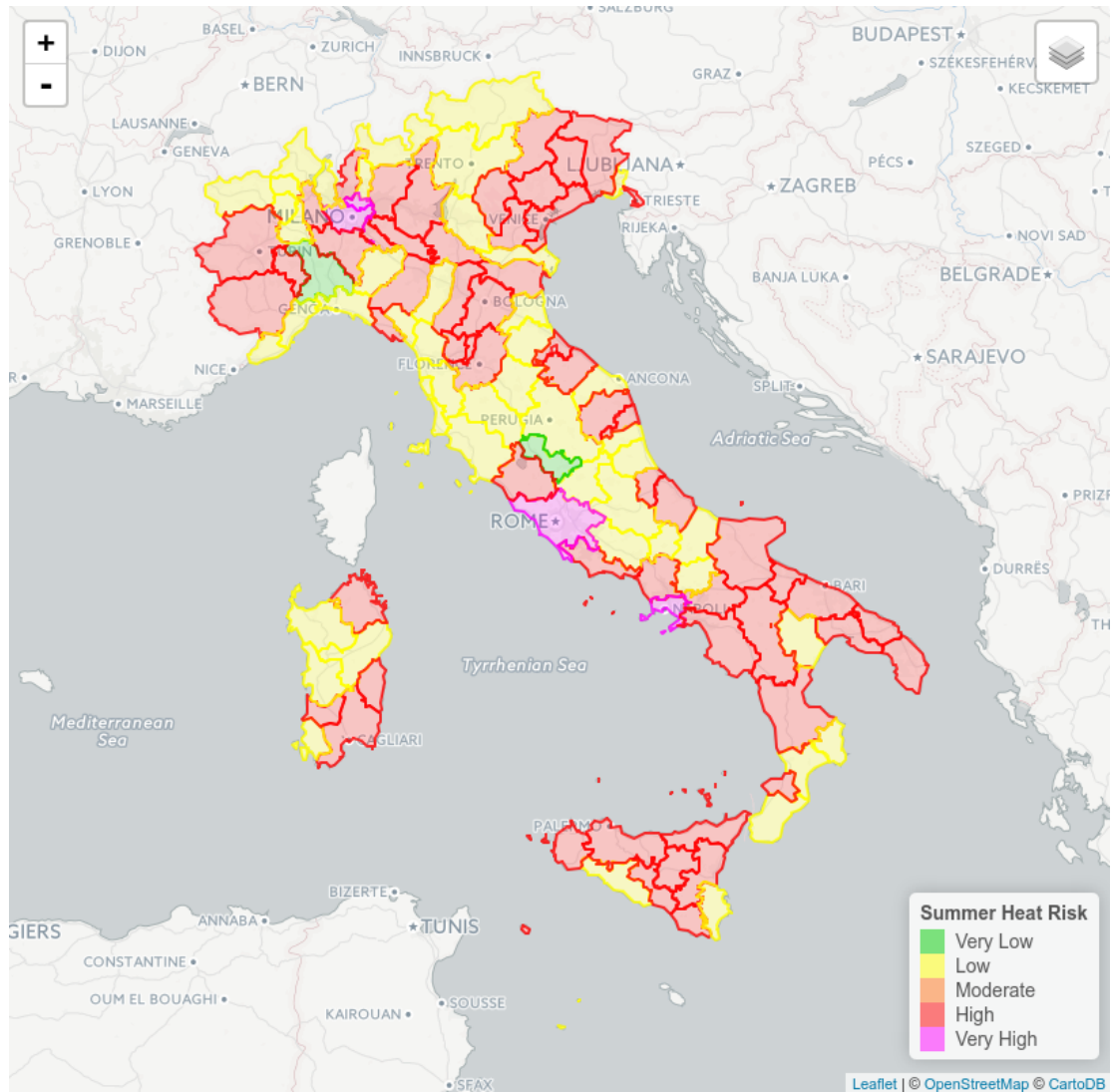


Figure 4. Summer Heat Risk Index (SHRI) classes by Province