

Spatio-temporal effect of urban heat island on cardiovascular diseases

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1 **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

2

3 Spatio-temporal effect of urban heat island on cardiovascular diseases

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 **Background:** As urbanization progresses, urban built-up areas are expanding,
20 increasing the number of urban heat islands (UHIs) and damaging the cardiovascular
21 health of urban residents. This study aimed to explore the spatio-temporal pattern
22 evolution characteristics of the effect of UHI on cardiovascular diseases (CVDs).

23 **Methods:** We analyzed the land surface temperatures (LSTs) retrieved from data from
24 four Landsat remote-sensing images from 1984 to 2017, data on temperature from 95
25 meteorological stations, and data on CVDs mortality. Based on this, landscape pattern
26 indices were used to analyze the pattern-process-function underlying the effect of
27 UHIs on CVDs.

28 **Results:** The effect of UHIs on CVDs increased, thereby increasing the mortality rate
29 by 28.8% and increasing the affected area by 1683.977 km² between 1984 and 2017.
30 The affected areas gradually expanded from the central area of the city, and
31 underwent three evolution stages; the areas highly affected were mainly distributed in
32 the central and southern regions. Patches increased in number, whereas the landscape
33 was fragmented. The area and ratio of high-level patches also showed an upward
34 tendency, increasing the dominance in the overall landscape. The patches of the
35 overall landscape became more complicated in shape, whereas those of high-level
36 ones became less complicated. The degree of concentration of the overall landscape
37 decreased gradually, with the types of landscape patches increasing, reaching a rather
38 even space distribution.

39 **Conclusions:** UHIs drastically increase CVDs mortality by increasing temperatures
40 during summer in Beijing, China. As cities expand, the effect of UHIs on CVDs
41 increases in terms of both intensity and area, with overall landscape in uneven
42 distribution, high-level affected areas in point distribution, and low-level ones in
43 large-area concentration. This study, hence, provides theoretical evidence for the
44 prevention and early warning on CVDs.

45

46 **Keywords**

47 Urban heat island, cardiovascular disease, landscape pattern, spatio-temporal feature

48

49 **Background**

50 Currently, 50% of the world's population lives in cities, and this proportion is
51 expected to rise to 68% by 2050 [1]. As a result, people migrate into cities, and the
52 built-up area continues to expand, which makes the temperature in urban areas
53 significantly higher than that in the surrounding rural areas [2]. It, thus, severely
54 affects the health of urban residents, especially in terms of the cardiovascular system.

55 Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), such as coronary heart disease, cerebrovascular
56 disease, peripheral vascular disease, rheumatic heart disease, congenital heart disease,
57 and heart failure, are disorders of the heart and blood vessels. CVDs are the leading
58 cause of death worldwide. In 2016, a total of 17.9 million people died from CVDs,
59 accounting for 31% of all deaths worldwide. CVDs and their associated deaths are
60 caused by a number of factors [3]. As a result, many epidemiological studies have
61 explored the relationship between air temperature and CVDs [4].

62 The excess mortality that occurs during summers is usually attributed to an
63 increased prevalence of CVDs [5,6]. The relationship between temperature and
64 mortality due to CVDs is usually depicted as U-, V-, or J-shaped, indicating that the
65 mortality rate increases gradually when temperature exceeds the threshold [7].
66 Threshold temperature, a critical standard for identifying the extent of urban heat
67 island (UHI) damage on health [8], can help explore the spatio-temporal pattern of the
68 effect of UHI on CVDs. studies have revealed threshold temperatures. Previous
69 studies, however, mainly focused on quantifying the epidemiologic effect of
70 environmental temperature on CVDs, which was unable to explain the mechanism

71 underlying the spatio-temporal interaction between them.

72 Recently, some scholars have used landscape pattern indices to analyze the
73 spatio-temporal evolution of heat island landscapes [9,10], but not the effect of the
74 spatio-temporal response mechanism of UHI on human health. In addition, the
75 landscape pattern is related to multiple diseases [11,12]. study proved that a positive
76 correlation exists between regional landscape fragmentation and temperature and the
77 incidence rate of Lyme disease [13]. These indicate that the landscape pattern is
78 related to human health, but the focus is always on landscape patterns and the
79 mechanisms by which landscape structures affect disease, and not exploring
80 landscape-pattern-process of the effect of UHI on human health. Thus, this study used
81 the landscape pattern index to study the spatio-temporal evolution of the effect of UHI
82 on CVDs and reveal the pattern-process-function and influencing mechanism of UHI
83 on CVDs.

84 From 1984 to 2018, the UHI effect has become more serious, and the incidence
85 of heat wave has increased significantly, particularly in world-class mega-cities like
86 Beijing. This has led to a sharp increase in mortality due to CVDs. However, the
87 effects of spatio-temporal characteristics of UHI on CVDs mortality remain unclear.
88 This study used data from Landsat remote-sensing, meteorological stations, and maps,
89 to analyze the spatio-temporal evolution of the landscape pattern of UHI on CVDs
90 using data analysis software, such as ENVI, ArcGIS, and Fragstats. Ultimately, this
91 study should provide decision-making evidence for healthy urban planning and
92 optimization of ecological environments, thereby reducing the heat exposure risk of

93 patients with CVDs.

94

95 **Methods**

96 *Data sources and preprocessing*

97 Data sources

98 Data on temperature were retrieved from Landsat satellite images and meteorological
99 stations. The remote-sensing images were taken on August 16 1984, June 17 1991,
100 August 2 1999, and July 10 2017. When the satellite was present in Chinese territory,
101 atmospheric visibility was sound without cloud covering the study area, and the
102 average wind speed two days before image collection was below 2.3 m/s without any
103 precipitation. The meteorological data were collected via hourly observations from the
104 96 meteorological stations in Beijing.

105 CVDs (I00–I60) were classified according to the International Classification of
106 Diseases, 10th revision (ICD-10). Data on CVD mortality in Beijing were obtained
107 from the analysis of the Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention [14].

108

109 Data preprocessing

110 First, a radiometric calibration was performed according to NASA's Landsat
111 handbook [15], and digital number values were converted into the corresponding
112 thermal radiation intensity $L(\lambda)$ values. The images were calibrated to 0.5 m
113 resolution, and any error was controlled within 1 pixel. Next, data were resampled to
114 30 m resolution to be projected to the WGS_1984_UTM_50N coordination system.

115 Last, a database was established using the ArcGIS software to extract remote-sensing
116 data in different periods for analysis.

117

118 ***Research methods***

119 Air temperature retrieval

120 Land surface temperature (LST) and near-surface air temperature (NSAT) are two
121 important parameters for studying the interaction mechanisms of UHI; a good
122 correlation can be established between both. Concurrently, studies prove that LST and
123 land surface index by Thematic Mapper (TM) retrieved [16] can serve as valid data to
124 study urban thermal health [17].

125 Atmospheric calibration was applied in this study. First, radiometric calibration
126 was performed according to the NASA manual (landsat.usgs.gov/documents) to
127 transform the digital number into relevant heat radiation intensity. Then, the
128 normalized difference vegetation index (NDVI) and vegetation coverage were
129 calculated. Next, the calculation method for emissivity proposed by Qin et al. was
130 used to obtain land surface emissivity via NDVI and vegetation coverage [18]. Finally,
131 LST was calculated using the following (T_L) formula:

$$132 \quad T_L = \frac{T}{1 + (\lambda T / \rho) \ln \varepsilon} \quad 273.15 \quad (1)$$

133 where λ is the central wavelength of TM6 band (11.5 μm),

134 $\rho = h \times \frac{c}{\sigma} = 1.438 \times 10^{-2} K$ (where Stefan-Boltzmann's constant

135 $\sigma = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} J/K$, Planck's constant $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} Js$, and speed of light,

136 $c = 2.998 \times \frac{10^8 m}{s}$).

137 Data on LST retrieval were collected from the tests in 95 surface meteorological
138 stations between July 10 and August 22 2015, based on which the temperature
139 regression formula was established. The regression formula of land surface
140 temperature was established by using the land surface temperature inversion data of
141 95 weather stations from July 10 to August 22, 2015. These 95 surface meteorological
142 stations are prioritized from 360 surface meteorological stations. First, the coefficient
143 among NDVI, normalized difference water index (NDWI), architectural composition,
144 and daily average temperature were calculated in various scales. The results revealed
145 that daily average temperature was closely related to NDVI at 160 m and LST at 300
146 m resolution. Next, software, such as SPSS and MATLAB, were used for curvilinear
147 regression, indicating that sound regression results had a linear polynomial
148 relationship, and that regression formulas enhance the robustness of sound. The
149 coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.95, the root-mean-square error was 0.13, and
150 the regression formula was as follows:

151
$$T_A = 4.31 + 0.1679T_L - 0.1747y \quad (2)$$

152 where T_A is the daily average temperature, T_L is the LST, and y is the NDVI.

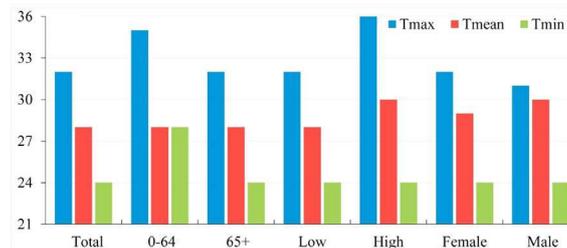
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154 Relationship between increased UHI and increasing CVD mortality

155 UHI controls urban temperature, which leads to increased morbidity and mortality
156 rates due to CVDs, but the effect of high temperature on such mortality still faces a
157 key threshold [19,20]. Based on daily temperature and CVD mortality data from 2007

158 to 2013 in Jinan, China, Li estimated the thermal threshold of CVD mortality using
 159 observation and prospective analysis. The results showed that the maximum, average,
 160 and minimum threshold temperatures in Jinan were 32°C, 28°C, and 24°C, with 4.1%,
 161 7.2%, and 6.6% increases in mortality rates, respectively, per unit rise in temperature
 162 [14] (Fig. 1). This is because Beijing and Jinan belong to the temperate monsoon and
 163 the difference in longitude is small. They both belong to megacities on the same
 164 longitude. Therefore, based on the relationship between daily mean temperature and
 165 CVD mortality assessed, this study explores the spatio-temporal evolution of the
 166 effect of UHI on CVDs.

167



168

Fig. 1. Heat thresholds of Tmax/Tmean/Tmin [14]

169

170 Grading of the effect of UHI on CVDs

171 Modern medical studies have revealed that environmental temperature is closely
 172 related to the physiological activities of the human body. The coziest environmental
 173 temperature is 20–28°C. When the body temperature exceeds 28°C, our blood vessels
 174 dilate, transporting more blood to the skin surface, thereby increasing the temperature
 175 of the skin and making us feel uncomfortable. Once the temperature exceeds 30°C,
 176 some sweat glands are activated to dissipate heat in the form of perspiration, thereby
 177 dilating the skin vessels and re-allocating the blood. Concurrently, more blood enters

178 and leaves the heart, increasing the cardiac load [21,22]. When the temperature
 179 increases beyond 32 °C, it reaches the maximum threshold temperature for CVD
 180 mortality in Jinan [14].

181 All in all, according to the threshold temperature and the physiological response
 182 of the human body to high temperature, this study was based on the threshold
 183 temperature at which UHI affected CVDs in Beijing with the daily average
 184 temperature of 28°C, and the UHI intensity was 2°C. With each unit increase in
 185 threshold temperature, the mortality rate increased by 7.2%. Therefore, we classified
 186 the effect of UHI on CVD mortality into five levels as shown in Table 1. Level 1
 187 implied that UHI had a lower effect on CVD mortality. Levels 2, 3, 4, and 5 represent
 188 medium, high, and very high effects.

189

190 **Table 1.** Grading of the effect of UHI on CVDs mortality

Level	Temperature (°C)	UHI intensity (°C)	Increase in mortality rate (%)	Remark
Level 1	28–29	2.7–3.7	0–7.2	Humans starts to feel a little uncomfortable
Level 2	29–30	3.7–4.7	7.2–14.4	Humans feel uncomfortable, with slight sweating
Level 3	30–31	4.7–5.7	14.4–21.6	Humans feel very uncomfortable, with much sweating
Level 4	31–32	5.7–6.7	21.6–28.8	Cardiovascular system starts to be affected, with increased cardiac output, aggravated cardiac load
Level 5	32+	6.7+	28.8–36	Temperature reaches the critical value of daily maximum temperature for CVD mortality

192

193 Methods of evaluation of landscape pattern indices

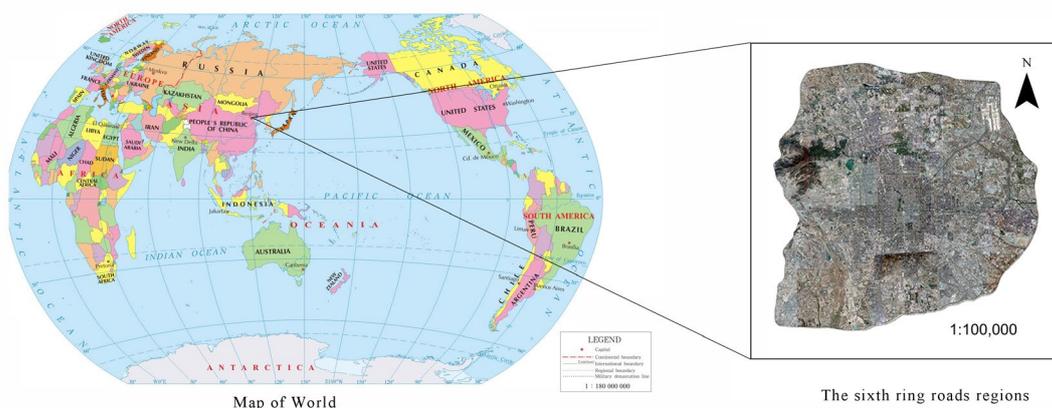
194 Landscape pattern refers to the permutation of landscape patches of various sizes in
195 the landscape space [23]. Quantitative analysis could be performed on changes and
196 differentiation characteristics of landscape patterns by introducing landscape pattern
197 indices. The indices include three levels: patch, class, and landscape. This study,
198 therefore, started from class and landscape levels and selected 10 landscape pattern
199 indices to quantitatively describe the landscape pattern characteristics that yield an
200 effect on CVDs. The indices selected include class level — PD, cohesion
201 (COHESION), and landscape shape index (LSI); and landscape level — main patch
202 area (AREA_MN), shape index (SHAPE_AM), aggregation index (AI), contagion
203 index (CONTAG), and Shannon diversity index (SHDI) [24]. Indices of the class
204 level demonstrate the quantity and structure of patch types at all levels, whereas those
205 of the landscape level reflect the global feature of the study area.

206

207 *Survey of Research Areas*

208 Beijing (39.56°N, 116.20°E), one of the first-tier cities in the world, is the center for
209 politics, economy, and culture of China, belonging to the semi-humid continental
210 monsoon of the north temperate zone, which is hot and humid during summer. At the
211 end of 2018, the permanent population in Beijing reached 21.542 million, the rate of
212 urbanization was 86.5%, and the gross domestic product exceeded 3 trillion Yuan.

213 As the population and economy rocketed, environmental problems, such as UHI
214 arose, yielding a negative impact on both the physiological and psychological health
215 of urban residents. Against the backdrop of economic globalization, the urban sprawl
216 in Beijing became more probable as UHI became more serious [25]; thus, high
217 temperatures engulfed Beijing for 22 days in 2017, gaining worldwide attention. It is
218 therefore of significance to study UHI in Beijing (Fig. 2).



219

220 Fig. 2. Outline of the study area

221

222 Results

223 *Spatial characteristics of the effect of UHI on CVDs*

224 During 1984–2017, the effect of UHI on CVDs increased from level 2 to level 4,
225 resulting in a 28.8% increase in mortality rate and a 1683.977 km² increase in the
226 affected area. Affected areas showed a trend of expansion from the central area
227 outwards in spatial distribution, showing an obvious spatio-temporal correlation with
228 the process of urban sprawl. The highly affected areas were chiefly concentrated in
229 the central and southern parts; the air temperature in the northern mountainous area
230 was relatively low, making it easier to build up high pressure. Meanwhile, air

231 temperature in the urban area was relatively high, resulting in low pressure and
232 triggering cold air flow from the northern mountainous area to the urban area.

233 As illustrated in Fig. 3, levels 1 and 2 affected areas only emerged within the
234 sixth ring road of Beijing during 1984–1999; no highly affected areas were spotted. In
235 detail, level 1 affected areas were mainly distributed in the urban center, gradually
236 expanding to the southern suburbs. Level 2 affected areas were smaller and scattered
237 in the south. In 2017, level 1 patches shrunk drastically, whereas level 2 patches
238 expanded drastically and transformed from scattered points to relatively concentrated
239 plates and facets. Meanwhile, some low-level patches in business centers transformed
240 into high-level patches. Such drastic changes in the spatial distribution of all affected
241 areas were triggered by the fact that in the past two decades, Beijing city (particularly
242 the urban area) developed rapidly as businesses increased, resulting in a series of
243 environmental problems and affecting the cardiovascular health of residents.

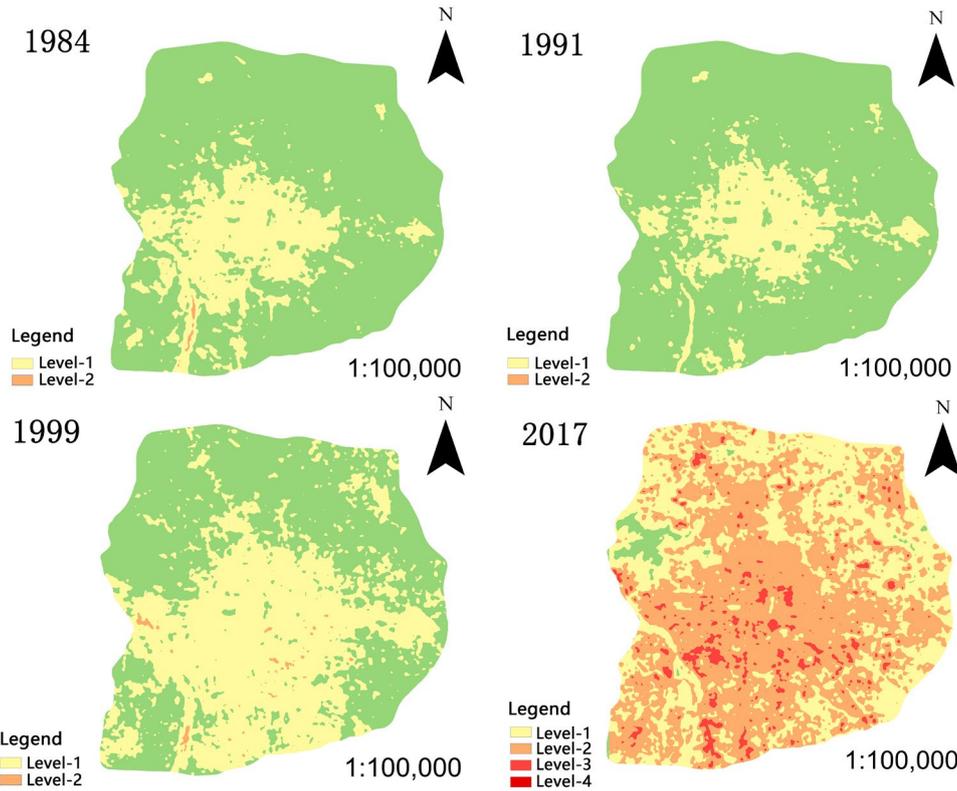


Fig. 3. Distribution of affected areas during 1984–2017

Landscape pattern analysis of the effect of UHI on CVDs

Changes in class level

The changes in PD between 1984 and 2017 are shown in Table 2. In general, PD increased in a fluctuating manner, indicating that affected areas at all levels showed a tremendous trend of fragmentation and separation. In detail, during 1984–1991, levels 1 and 2 affected areas increased slowly yet stably due to the rather slow pace of urban construction. During 1999–2017, however, levels 1 and 2 affected areas decreased, whereas levels 3 and 4 affected areas emerged. This was mainly because urban sprawl tremendously increased the temperature in urban centers, exacerbated the cardiovascular health of residents, and led to a gradual transformation of level 1

257 affected areas into high-level ones.

258 Table 2. Changes in PD during 1992–2018

	1984	1991	1999	2017
Level 1	0.0692	0.078	0.1159	0.0957
Level 2	0.0022	0.0022	0.0159	0.071
Level 3	0	0	0	0.1275
Level 4	0	0	0	0.0004

259

260 The changes in LSI between 1984 and 2017 are shown in Table 3. LSI increased
261 generally, indicating that affected areas at all levels became more complicated in
262 shape. During 1999–2017, the LSI of levels 1 and 2 affected areas increased rapidly;
263 the fast urbanization triggered the expansion of urban shape and added many patches
264 of independent built-up areas. Meanwhile, levels 3 and 4 affected areas were less
265 complicated because high-level affected areas were mainly concentrated in business
266 centers and resident areas where patch shapes tended to be simpler.

267 Table 3. Changes in LSI during 1992–2018

	1984	1991	1999	2017
Level 1	12.1617	13.1989	14.5865	23.0332
Level 2	3.5948	2.3	6.8798	22.6149
Level 3	0	0	0	18.6593
Level 4	0	0	0	1.0714

268

269 The changes in COHESION between 1984 and 2017 are shown in Table 4. The
 270 COHESION of level 1 affected areas was stable, indicating that patches shared sound
 271 interconnectivity with relatively concentrated distribution, which was not beneficial to
 272 the rapid thermal dissipation inside patches. The elevated air temperature increased
 273 the CVD mortality rate. COHESION of level 2 affected areas fluctuated due to urban
 274 renovation. In addition, COHESION of levels 3 and 4 affected areas were relatively
 275 low with weaker interconnectivity; patches were small in area and distributed in
 276 points.

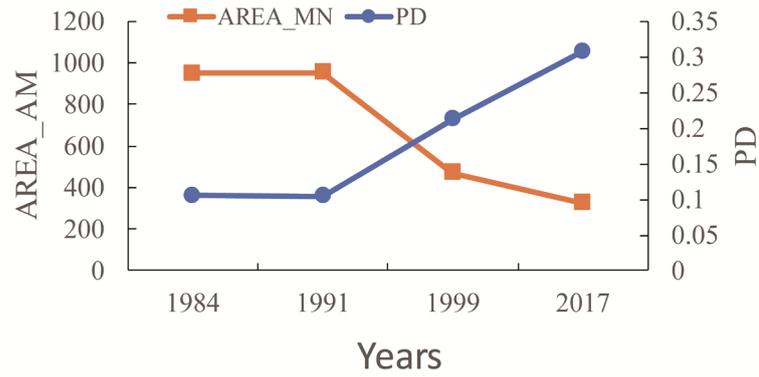
277 Table 4. Changes in COHESION during 1992–2018

	1984	1991	1999	2017
Level 1	99.8218	99.6738	99.8833	99.7612
Level 2	97.0525	90.0021	96.2389	99.9433
Level 3	0	0	0	96.9449
Level 4	0	0	0	84.978

278

279 Changes in landscape level

280 The changes in PD and AREA_MN between 1984 and 2017 are shown in Fig. 4. PD
 281 increased generally, whereas AREA_MN index decreased, indicating that the
 282 landscape distribution was heading towards fragmentation. During 1984–1991, PD
 283 and AREA_MN nearly remained unchanged due to the rather slow pace of urban
 284 construction.



285
286 Fig. 4. Changes in PD and AREA_MN during 1984–2017

287

288 The changes in SHAPE_AM between 1984 and 2017 are shown in Fig. 5.

289 SHAPE_AM increased generally, indicating that the shape of all affected areas

290 became irregular and that the effect of UHI on CVDs became much more complicated

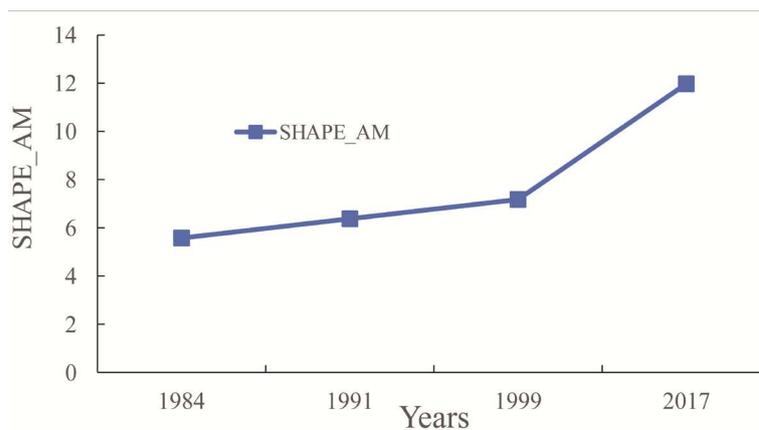
291 in spatial distribution. During 1984–1999, SHAPE_AM increased steadily due to the

292 rather slow pace of urban development and that urban form was quite stable. However,

293 SHAPE_AM increased rapidly during 1999–2017; rapid urban development and

294 three-dimensional expansion resulted in many new business centers and development

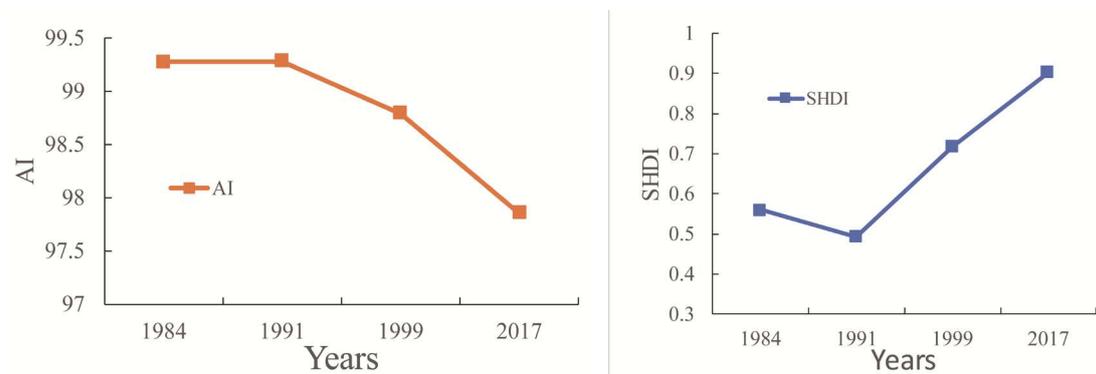
295 projects.



296
297 Fig. 5. Changes in SHAPE_AM during 1984–2017

298

299 The changes in AI and SHDI between 1984 and 2017 are shown in Fig. 6. AI
 300 decreased in general, indicating that the overall landscape was distributed in a
 301 scattered manner, and that the landscape was highly fragmented. Patch adjacency was
 302 much more decentralized, and the interconnectivity within the affected areas was
 303 weak. During 1984–2017, SHDI, an index that describes the diversity of patch,
 304 increased generally, indicating that urban built-up areas expanded towards suburbs. In
 305 addition, the increased UHI yielded a greater impact on many types of landscape
 306 patches with a higher degree of fragmentation. During 1984–1991, SHDI decreased
 307 slightly; the effect of UHI on CVD mortality was not very obvious as urbanization
 308 slowed down, so that the expansion of level 2 areas dropped in scale, resulting in
 309 reduced diversity of patch types.



310
 311 Fig. 6. Changes in AI and SHDI during 1984–2017

312
 313 ***Response mechanism of UHI on CVDs***

314 High temperature increases CVD mortality by affecting cardiopulmonary functions,
 315 including the blood pressure, blood viscosity, serum cholesterol, and heart rate [26,27].
 316 First, elevated air temperatures increase the heart rate and myocardial oxygen
 317 consumption in the human body. Meanwhile blood is transported faster from organs to

318 the skin surface, creating higher pressure on the heart and lungs [28], further
319 increasing the incidence rate of CVDs. In addition, the amount of perspiration from
320 the human body increases. Conversely, this leads to a massive loss of sodium, pH
321 imbalance, and electrolyte disturbance in cells, further resulting in arrhythmia and
322 malfunction of the circulation system, which eventually induces CVDs [29].
323 Conversely, blood viscosity and cholesterol level increase, but the effective
324 circulating volume decreases, triggering insufficient blood supply through the
325 coronary arteries and even myocardial infarction [30]. Last, inappropriate use of air
326 conditioning also indirectly increases the CVD mortality rate. In detail, when the
327 indoor-outdoor temperature difference is $>8^{\circ}\text{C}$, it becomes difficult for the human
328 body to adjust to the current temperature within a short time. Such drastic differences
329 lead to continuous constriction or dilatation of blood vessels, resulting in a
330 disturbance of blood circulation and further triggering myocardial infarction or stroke.

331 UHI mainly affects CVD mortality among elderly people older than 65 years by
332 increasing temperature during summer. Under high temperatures, the body functions
333 of elderly people decline and the amount and rate of perspiration of each gland
334 reduces; thus, loss of heat in turn increases the accumulated heat inside the body,
335 exacerbating the tension on the cardiovascular system. Under long-term thermal
336 stimulation, constant perspiration causes the blood plasma volume to decrease
337 dramatically; however, blood viscosity increases, thereby increasing the CVD
338 mortality rate [8]. Moreover, some drugs usually taken by elderly people disturb the
339 normal perspiration or other processes that adjust body temperature, thereby

340 exacerbating the CVD mortality rate.

341 Elevated temperature during the summer caused by UHI is usually accompanied
342 by increased air pollution, which yields a severe impact on CVDs. Atmospheric
343 particulates triggered by heat waves increase in density, and increase the blood
344 viscosity, pressure, and heart rate variability, thereby triggering diseases such as acute
345 myocardial infarction [31]. Moreover, the increase in ozone density caused by high
346 temperature exacerbates the CVD mortality. Some studies have proven that with every
347 $10 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ rise in ozone levels in the air, the CVD mortality rate among the Chinese
348 population increases by 0.448% [32]. This is because the increased ozone density
349 triggers inflammation, oxidative stress, and myocardial cell damage, and affects
350 vessel structure and the transcription mechanism, lipid metabolism, and
351 cardiovascular autonomic regulation [33].

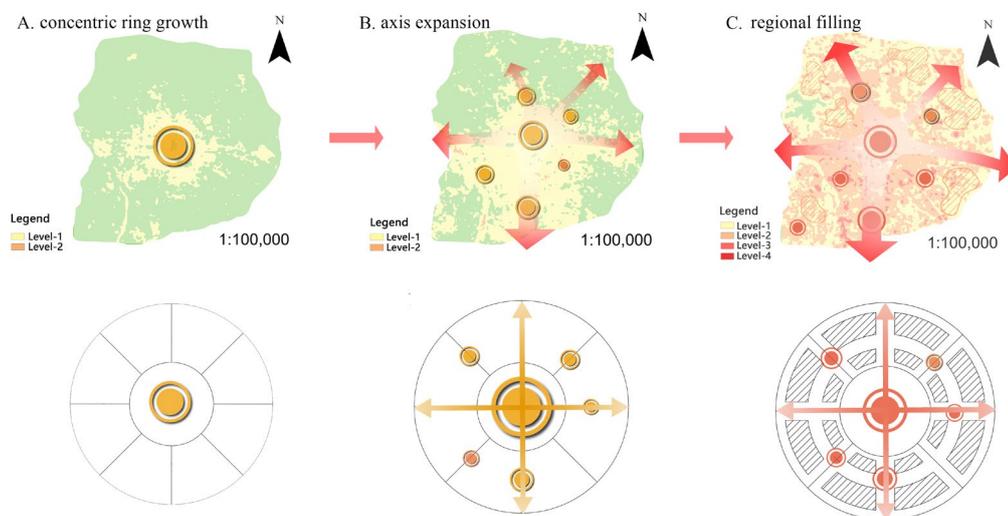
352

353 **Discussion**

354 Our findings showed that UHIs have a significant effect on CVDs mortality by
355 increasing ambient temperature in summer. Previous studies have proven that high
356 temperatures are significantly correlated with CVDs mortality [34]. Baaghideh and
357 Mayvaneh proposed that maximum air temperature was significantly positively
358 correlated to CVDs mortality ($r = 0.83$, $p = 0.01$). The mortality rate increased by
359 4.27% per unit rise in maximum air temperature (95% confidence interval, 0.91–7.00)
360 [35]. This is consistent with our study. And related studies have explained the reasons.
361 heat waves activated the inflammation system, destroyed the structure of endothelial

362 cells in coronary arteries, increased the permeability of the tunica intima, reduced the
363 superoxide dismutase activity of heart tissues, and finally increased the lipoprotein
364 levels in oxygenated blood. As a result, high levels of cholesterol penetrated and were
365 deposited on the tunica intima, causing atherosclerosis and exacerbating coronary
366 heart disease [36].

367 Our findings revealed that the UHIs effect on CVDs have typical spatial and
368 temporal characteristics. And the affected areas gradually expand to suburbs, mainly
369 in central and southern urban areas. Previous studies have reported that high
370 temperature clusters of heat wave in Beijing are mainly within the second ring road of
371 Beijing, whereas heat wave risk obviously decreases from the second to sixth ring
372 roads [37]. The spatial distribution of high temperature heat waves has certain
373 similarities with our study, which further supports the impact of UHIs effect on CVDs.
374 Meanwhile, the findings of this study demonstrated that the effect of UHI on CVDs
375 evolves through three stages, namely concentric ring growth, axis expansion, and
376 regional filling (Fig. 7).



377

378 Fig. 7. Stages of form evolution of UHI on CVDs

379 We also found that UHIs have a typical landscape pattern process for the effect
380 on CVDs. The overall landscape is distributed in a scattered manner. Similar studies
381 revealed that the incidence of vector-borne Lyme disease is significantly related to the
382 degree of regional landscape fragmentation and temperature [14]. Therefore, it is
383 feasible to use the landscape pattern index method to study the effect of UHI on
384 CVDs. This study provides a theoretical basis for the optimization of urban spatial
385 structure and green space system. In the process of rapid urban development,
386 according to the law of coordinated changes in environment and residents' health, the
387 heat hazard sensitive space of the heat island is pre-judged, and then the
388 countermeasures for the controllable and adjusted planning factors are taken.

389 This study had some limitations. One limitation is that we used the linear
390 regression model; this study subtracted the effect of the intercept during air
391 temperature retrieval to better reflect the intensity of UHI, resulting in overall
392 underestimation of the effect on CVDs mortality. Finally, given the impact that
393 weather and climate have on satellite images, this study used the two images to
394 explore the spatio-temporal effect of UHI on CVDs during 1999–2017. The
395 temperature-mortality relationship in this study cites the results of the Jinan study. The
396 original study lacked data and did not consider air pollution, smoking, eating habits,
397 etc., which may affect the temporal and spatial evolution of CVDs in UHI.

398
399 **Conclusions**

400 As UHI keeps intensifying, the effect level and area on CVDs show an upward
401 trend and three evolution stages (concentric ring growth, axis expansion, and regional
402 filling). The affected areas spread from the central urban area to suburbs, whereas
403 more severely affected areas are mostly located in the central and southern areas.

404 The landscape pattern of the effect of UHI on CVDs reveals, in terms of quantity,
405 a gradual fragmentation of the patches with the rise of patch quantity and density, and
406 high-level patch plaque dominance. In terms of shape, the patches become irregular
407 and space imbalanced; in terms of structure, the patch types of the entire landscape
408 are more, yet weakly interconnected, whereas low-level areas are better
409 interconnected in clusters.

410 UHI increases the environmental temperature during summer, and long-term
411 exposure to high temperatures affects the functions of the human heart, thereby
412 triggering CVDs and increasing the mortality rate during summer.

413 This study uses the landscape indices to assess the characteristics of the effect of
414 UHI on CVDs, demonstrates the trend of spatio-temporal evolution of this effect, and
415 provides theoretical evidence for early warning on CVDs.

416

417 **List of abbreviations**

418 AI, aggregation index; AREA_MN, mean patch area; CONTAG, contagion index;
419 CVDs, cardiovascular diseases; ED, edge density; ICD-10, International
420 Classification of Diseases, 10th revision; LSI, landscape shape index; LST, land
421 surface temperature; NDVI, normalized difference vegetation index; NDWI,

422 normalized difference water index; NSAT, near-surface air temperature; PD, patch
423 density; SHAPE_AM, shape index; SHDI, Shannon diversity index; UHI, urban heat
424 island

425

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435 **Authors' contributions:**

436 HHC performed the data analyses and developed the study protocol. DX contri
437 buted significantly to analysis and refined the manuscript. YHL revised the ma
438 nuscript. HC helped perform the analysis with constructive discussions. PZR pl
439 ayed an important role in interpreting the results. LW performed the typesetting.

440 All authors commented on the manuscript at various stages. All authors read
441 and approved the final version of the paper.

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578

Figures

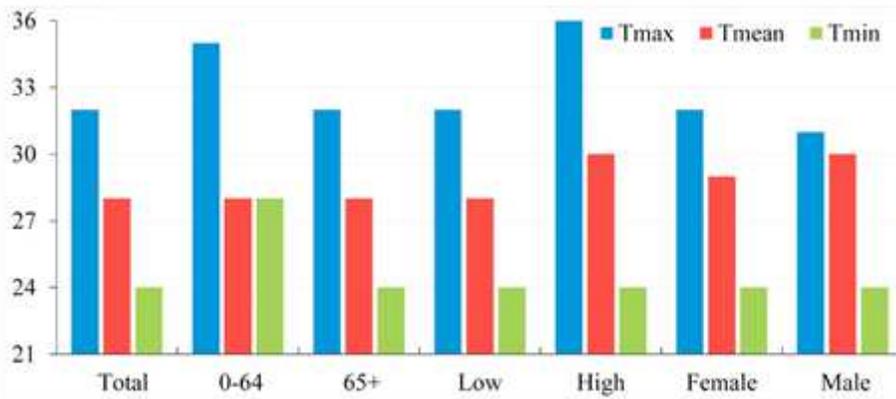


Figure 1

Heat thresholds of Tmax/Tmean/Tmin [14]

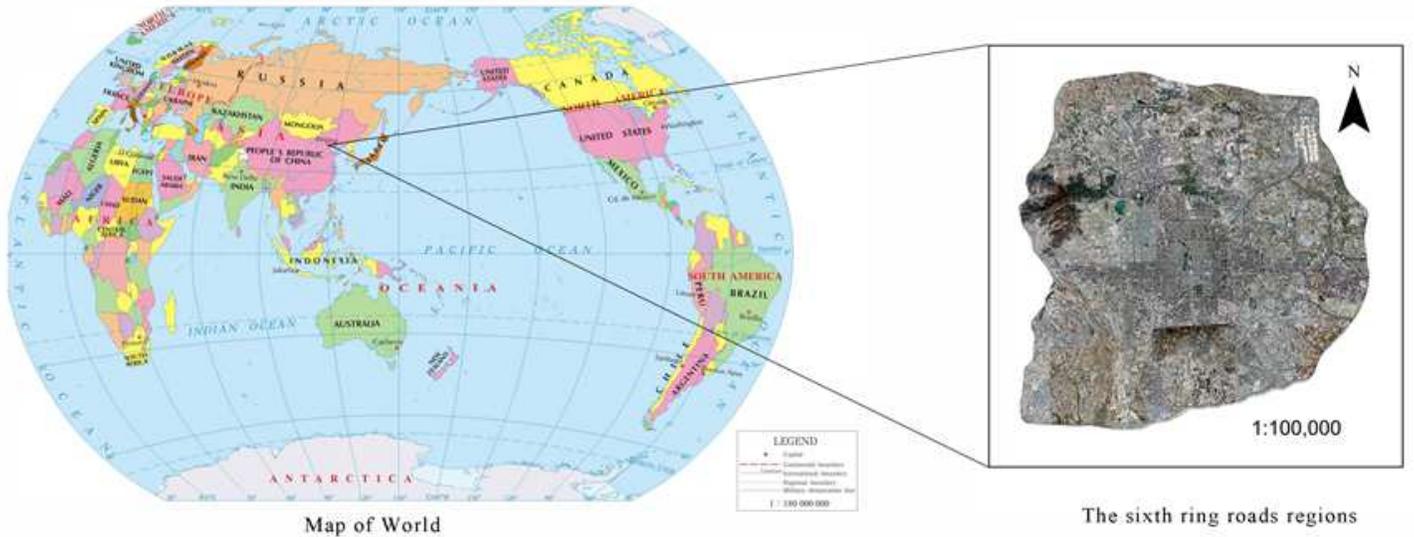


Figure 2

Outline of the study area Note: The designations employed and the presentation of the material on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of Research Square concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. This map has been provided by the authors.

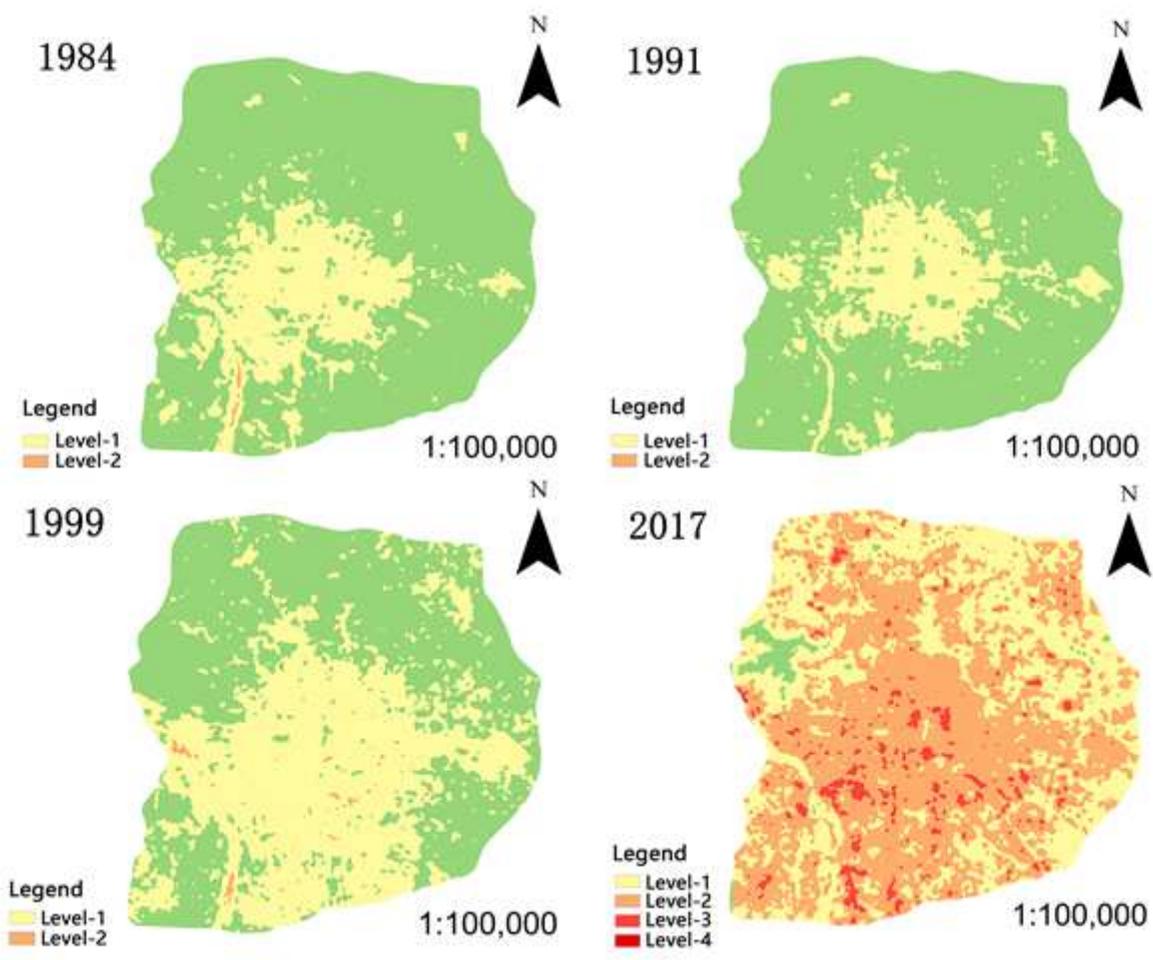


Figure 3

Distribution of affected areas during 1984–2017

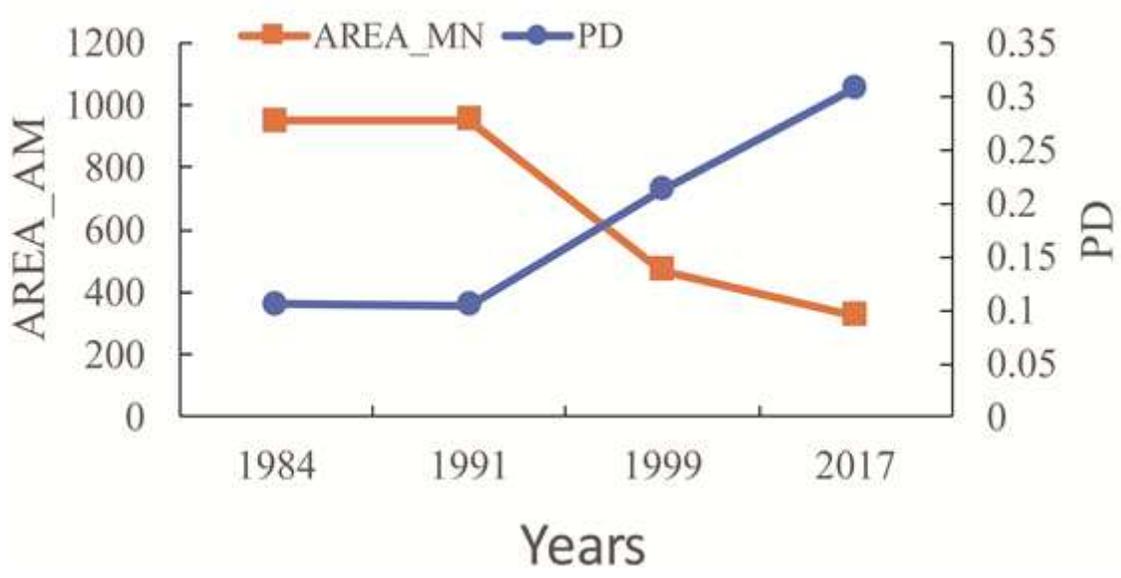


Figure 4

Changes in PD and AREA_MN during 1984–2017

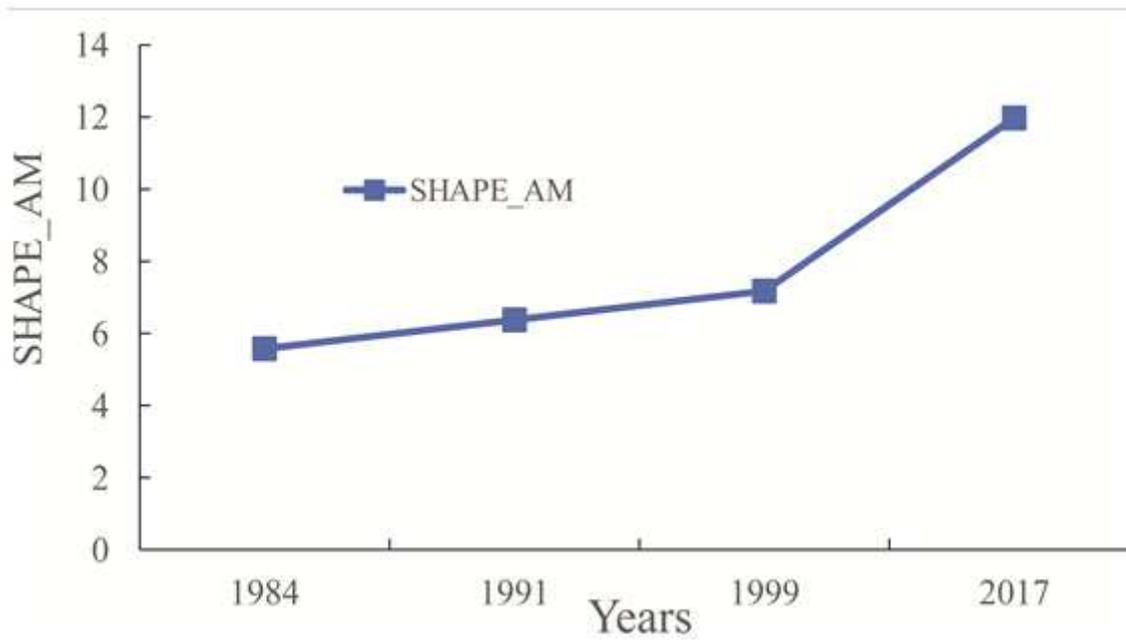


Figure 5

Changes in SHAPE_AM during 1984–2017

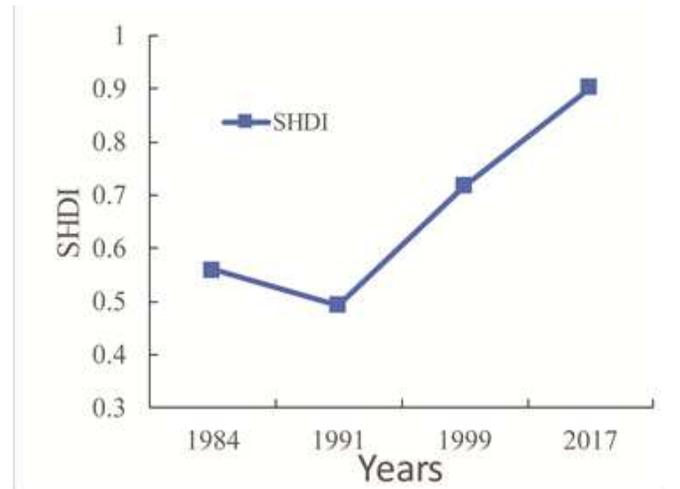
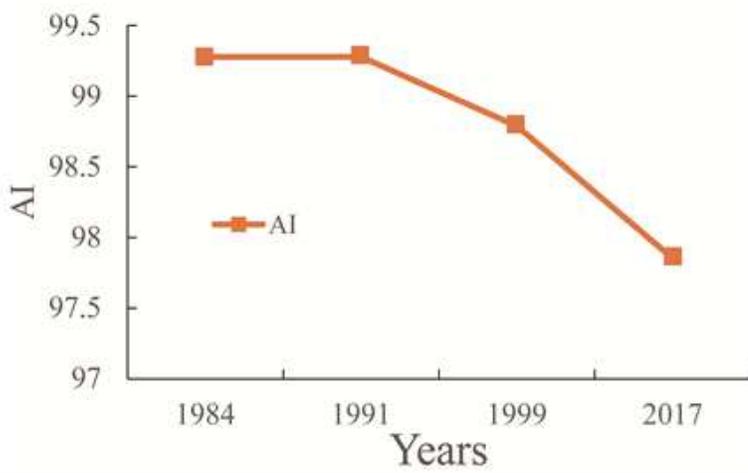


Figure 6

Changes in AI and SHDI during 1984–2017

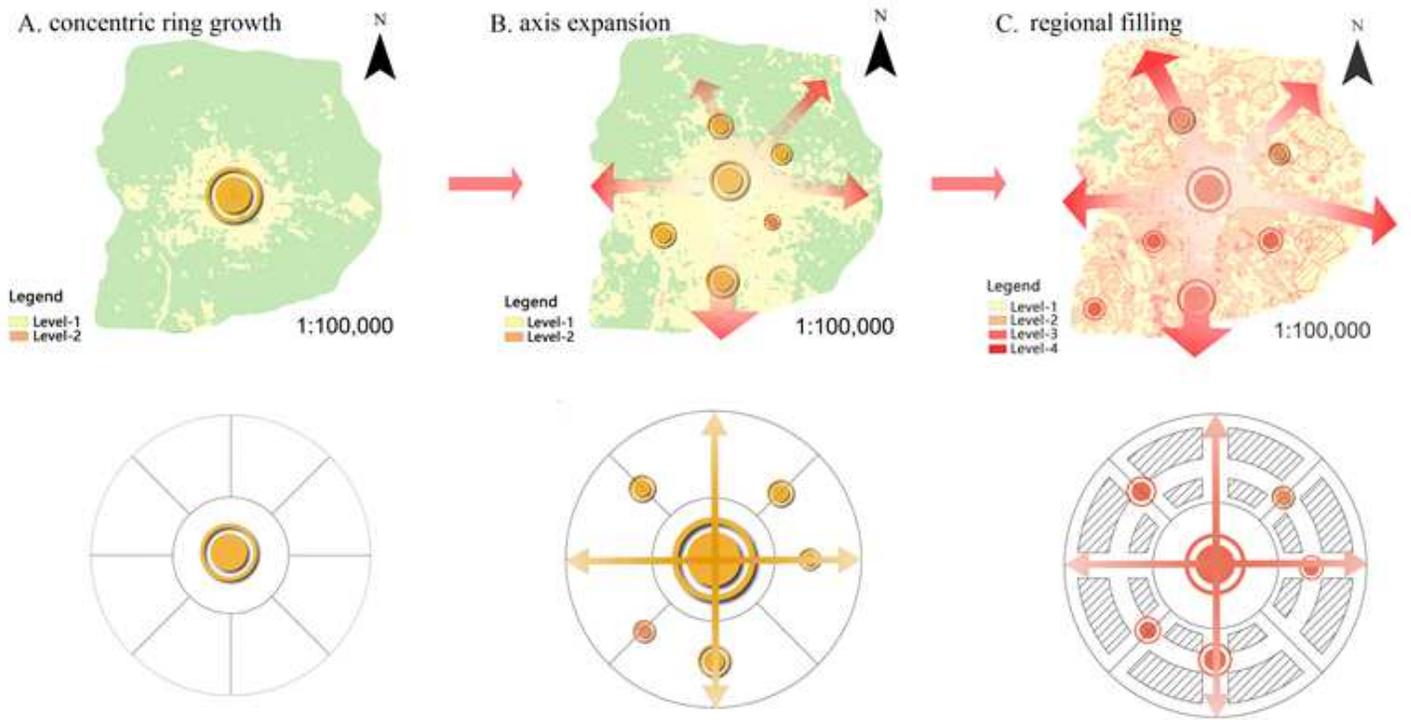


Figure 7

Stages of form evolution of UHI on CVDs