

1 **Heat mitigation benefits of urban green and blue infrastructures:**
2 **A systematic review of modeling techniques, validation and scenario simulation**
3 **in ENVI-met V4**

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5 Zhixin Liu^a, Wenwen Cheng^b, C.Y.Jim^c, Tobi Eniolu Morakinyo^d, Yuan Shi^a, Edward Ng^{a,e}

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7 a. Institute of Future Cities, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, New Territories, Hong Kong

8 b. College of Architecture, the University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma, USA

9 c. Department of Social Sciences, The Education University of Hong Kong, New Territories, Hong Kong

10 d. School of Geography, University College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland

11 e. School of Architecture, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, New Territories, Hong Kong

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13 **Abstract**

14 Urban green and blue infrastructures (GBI) are considered an effective tool for
15 mitigating urban heat stress and improving human thermal comfort. Many studies have
16 investigated the thermal effects of main GBI types, including trees, green roofs, vertical
17 greenings, and water bodies. Their physical characteristics, planting designs, and the
18 surrounding urban-fabric traits may impact the resultant thermal effects. ENVI-met, a
19 holistic three-dimensional modeling software which can simulate the outdoor
20 microclimate in high resolution, has become a principal GBI research tool. Using this
21 tool, the GBI studies follow a three-step research workflow, i.e., modeling, validation,
22 and scenario simulation. For providing a systematic and synoptic evaluation of the
23 extant research workflow, a comprehensive review was conducted on GBI-targeted
24 studies enlisting ENVI-met as the primary tool. The findings of 79 peer-reviewed
25 studies were analyzed and synthesised for their modeling, validation, and scenario
26 simulation process. Special attention was paid to scrutinising their data sources,
27 evaluating indicator selection, examining main analytical approaches, and distilling
28 recommendations to improve the research workflow. This review provides researchers
29 with an overview of the ENVI-met methodology and recommendations to refine
30 research on GBI thermal effects.

31

32 **Keywords**

33 ENVI-met simulation; vegetation modeling, urban green and blue infrastructure; urban
34 thermal environment; human thermal comfort; planting design

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 Many cities suffer from severe heat stress because of the urban heat island (UHI)
38 effect caused jointly by global warming and intensive urbanization, imposing a major
39 environmental challenge [1]. UHI may considerably increase summer temperatures in
40 megacities, with intensified duration and frequency of hot days and extreme heat stress
41 [2, 3]. The menace of accumulated heat may bring multiple negative impacts such as

42 compromised thermal comfort [4, 5], excess heat-related morbidity and mortality [6-8],
43 degraded air quality [9-11], additional cooling energy consumption, and collateral
44 economic and social costs [12, 13].

45 Climate-sensitive urban design offers a sustainable solution to urban overheating.
46 It involves a combination of innovative choices including urban fabric, urban
47 morphology, and re-integration of urban green and blue infrastructures (GBI) of trees,
48 shrubs, herbs, green-roofs, vertical greenings and water bodies [14]. In particular, urban
49 greenery has been identified as one of the most effective countermeasures due to
50 cooling by shading, guiding airflows, intercepting precipitation, and evapotranspiration
51 [15-24]. Water bodies can cool the overlying and adjoining air through evaporation and
52 convection [25-28]. The direct and spillover cooling effects of urban GBI have been
53 extensively documented in previous reviews [29-40].

54 Traditionally, assessing the thermal effect of GBI is achieved using field
55 monitoring approaches with relevant meteorological instruments. With significant
56 advancements in computation resources in recent decades, numerical simulation has
57 gradually become one of the principal GBI research approaches [32, 33, 41-44].
58 EBM(Energy Balance Models)-based models including RayMan, SOLWEIG, green-
59 CTTC, TEB-Veg, and CFD (Computational Fluid Dynamic)-based models including
60 OpenFOAM, FLUENT, STAR-CCM+, PHOENICS, ENVI-met are commonly used
61 numerical simulation applications [45]. Compared to EBM-based models, CFD-based
62 models have two advantages: their explicit coupling simulation capability and high-
63 resolution [46]; and have been applied in more urban GBI-related studies [45]. Among
64 them, different CFD-based models treat urban GBI in different ways: For plant
65 description, PHOENICS and FLUENT use the so-called Ideal canopy model, which
66 only represents a tree by its crown height, trunk height, and basic plant canopy
67 geometry such as the spherical, oval, and conical. OpenFOAM, the FOLIAGE module
68 of PHOENICS, and the Simple Plant module of ENVI-met use the Statistical method,
69 associating LAI with the plant morphology. ENVI-met 3D-Plant module uses the
70 Geometry method, discretizing the tree crown by mesh generation and defining each
71 plant's own specific shape and spatial position [45]. For plant calculation, plants are
72 considered as porous media for their aerodynamic effects in most CFD-based models,
73 including PHOENICS, FLUENT, OpenFOAM, STAR-CCM+, and ENVI-met. For
74 radiation effects, tree canopies are treated as semi-transparent materials with different
75 light transmittance due to their structural geometry and crown density settings in some
76 CFD-based models such as OpenFOAM, FLUENT, ENVI-met [45, 46].

77 Among the above-mentioned CFD-based models, the ENVI-met, a holistic three-
78 dimensional microclimate CFD model developed by Michael Bruse in 1998 [47-49],
79 has been used by more than half of the vegetation thermal effect simulations [45]. Based
80 on the principles of fluid mechanics, thermodynamics, and atmospheric physics laws,
81 ENVI-met can simulate the surface-plant-air interactions in an urban environment. A
82 unique feature of ENVI-met is the detailed vegetation model [50], in which plants are
83 not only symbolized as a porous media to solar insolation and wind flow, but could
84 actually interact with the surrounding environment by evapotranspiration [22]. With a
85 high spatial resolution, the physiological vegetation processes can be evaluated and

86 vegetation can be represented in a very detailed manner, enabling multiple scenario
87 comparisons that are otherwise impossible in the real world [32].

88 With the continual advancements of ENVI-met, the modeling and calculation of
89 the vegetation model have experienced notable improvements. In V3, plants are
90 modeled as vegetation columns and are unable to characterize the tree shape[51, 52].
91 With several minor patch versions, ENVI-met V4.0 was released in 2014, and it allows
92 vegetation modeling in two ways: *simple plants* and *3D-plants*. The former is similar
93 to the 1D vegetation models in V3, and the latter has the ability to digitize complex tree
94 crown and tree root by clusters of cells with a LAD (leaf area density) and RAD (root
95 area density) [50] . The new function, the plant-as-object model in V4, allows
96 aggregating all calculation processes of trees as a whole, making the *3D-plant* a
97 complete organism [50, 52].

98 For the application of ENVI-met vegetation models, Tsoka et al. [33] reviewed
99 ENVI-met and the thermal performance of urban greenery. They performed a meta-
100 analysis of the ENVI-met evaluation and simulation results, assessing model accuracy
101 and indicating the cooling potential of urban greenery. However, this review focused
102 on the reported data and excluded research methods such as the critical vegetation
103 modeling process.

104 From the research process perspective, most ENVI-met-based GBI research in
105 recent years usually follows a three-step research workflow, i.e., modeling, validation,
106 and scenario simulation, which is universal in numerical-simulation-related research.
107 These systematic procedures influence the accuracy of simulation results and the
108 validity of the simulation-based design recommendations. Although the related
109 intensive studies have followed the three-step research approach, the following issues
110 have remained outstanding:

111 (1) Modeling

112 A holistic technique of vegetation modeling is lacking. With the ENVI-met
113 updates, the differences in vegetation modeling among the versions has become
114 apparent. Due to the complexity and diversity of modeling input data, the GBI-related
115 researchers face a time-consuming task in gleaning and processing the required data.
116 The data acquisition for vegetation modeling input needs to be rationalized and
117 standardized.

118 (2) Validation

119 It has been a consensus to conduct validation before scenario simulation. For
120 studies focusing on GBI thermal effects, the validation should encompass the integrated
121 thermal environment, as well as the ENVI-met simulation performance of GBI itself.
122 A detailed GBI-targeted validation analysis is needed. Moreover, for some validation
123 setting details, the selection of microclimate parameters needs to be scrutinized because
124 inappropriate selections of variables and statistical metrics may bias the validation
125 results.

126 (3) Scenario simulation

127 Concerning the analysis of scenario simulation results, the main analytical aspects
128 of previous studies need to be expressed in-depth to enhance understanding of the
129 research field. Furthermore, to improve comparisons with related studies, the most

130 frequently used analytical approaches, evaluation indicators, and selection criteria can
131 be explained. However, this essential step is often lacking.

132 This study conducts a comprehensive review to synthesize the three research steps
133 of ENVI-met GBI studies and analyze the overall state of the research to resolve the
134 critical issues mentioned above. This review aims to provide researchers with an
135 overview of methodological aspects to refine future research concerning modeling,
136 targeted validation, and systematic simulation analysis. Considering ENVI-met V4 has
137 been released for about six years (since 2014) with significant updates for its vegetation
138 modeling and calculation methods, this review concentrates on ENVI-met V4 and
139 above. Due to the different modeling settings of individual studies, this review will not
140 focus too much on the absolute values of validation and scenario simulation results.
141 Instead, more attention is given to their analytical approaches.

142

143 **2. Methods**

144 This study employed five major bibliographic databases to extract the relevant
145 papers, including JSTOR, ProQuest, Web of Science, PubMed, and Scopus.
146 Combinations of relevant keywords (such as ‘ENVI-met’, ‘green*’,
147 ‘tree*’, ‘vegetation*’, ‘plant*’, ‘water*’, ‘blue*’) were used to search the references.
148 The inclusion criteria used in the search were: 1) the research objects were urban green
149 or blue infrastructures; 2) the research approaches were mainly ENVI-met simulation
150 using V4 and above; and 3) the research goal was to improve the outdoor thermal
151 environment or human thermal comfort. Furthermore, all included papers were peer-
152 reviewed journal articles written in English.

153 Three rounds of literature search were conducted to pinpoint the target papers: title
154 review, abstract review, and full-text review (Fig. 1). In total, 635 non-repetitive articles
155 were initially identified, from which 79 articles were chosen. Four strands of
156 information were extracted from the selected articles: the basic bibliographic profile,
157 vegetation modeling, validation, and scenario simulation (Appendix A).

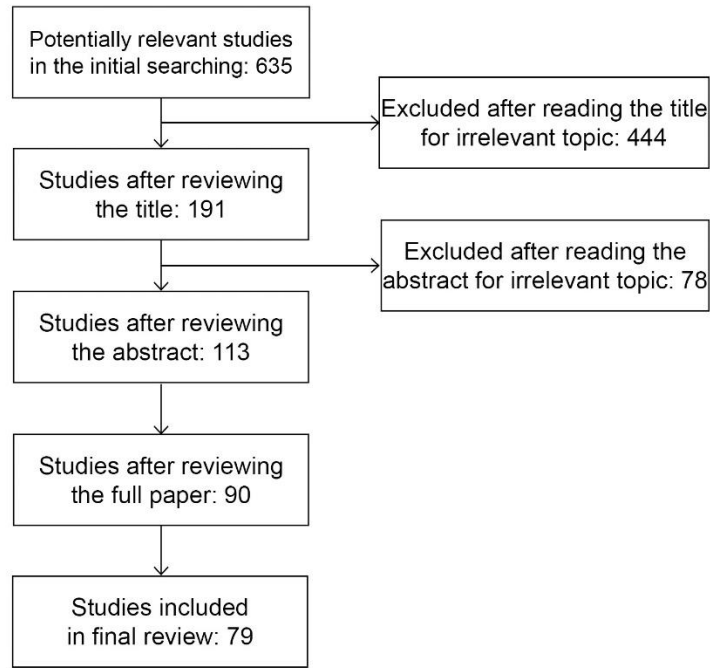


Fig. 1. The literature selection process.

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161 **3. Results**

162 **3.1. Basic bibliometric profile**

163 Some basic statistics were extracted from the papers. These included the year of
 164 publication, journal name, geographical distribution of study area, climate zone, and
 165 GBI type. Fig.2 shows the yearly distribution of the studies. There was a continual
 166 increase from 2015 to 2020 with most articles (32, 40.51%) published in 2020. The top
 167 five journals were *Building and Environment* (11), *Sustainable Cities and Society* (10),
 168 *Urban Forestry & Urban Greening* (9), *Sustainability* (6), and *Energy and Buildings*
 169 (5).

170 For geographical distribution, most studies were conducted in Asia and Europe
 171 (46, 58.23% and 18, 22.78%, respectively), followed by Africa (9, 11.39%), North
 172 America (4, 5.06%), and South America (1, 1.27%) (Fig.3). Research in Asia was
 173 generated largely in China (29, 36.71%) with some in Iran (5, 6.33%), the former
 174 including 29.11% (23) from mainland China and 7.59% (6) from Hong Kong SAR,
 175 China. European studies were mainly conducted in Germany and Italy (6, 7.59% and 4,
 176 5.06%, respectively). Four studies covered more than one city, of which three focused
 177 on cities in one continent [20, 53, 54], and one on megacities from different continents
 178 [16]. The single-city-based studies concentrated on large cities such as Hong Kong (6),
 179 Nanjing (6), and Cairo (5).

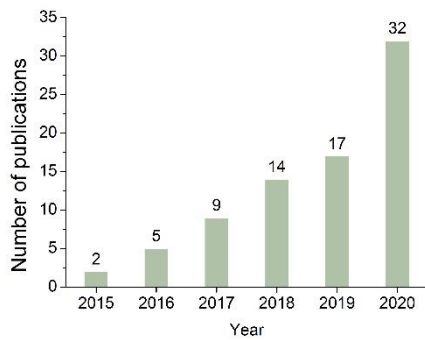


Fig. 2. Yearly distribution of the studies.

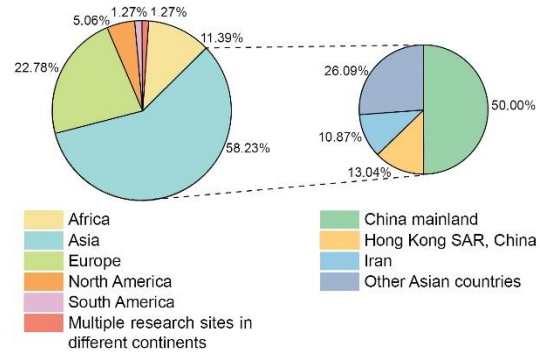


Fig. 3. Geographical distribution of the study areas.

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181 By the Köppen-Geiger climate classification [55], most studies were conducted in
 182 the temperate zone (48, 60.76%), followed by the arid zone (14, 17.72%), the cold zone
 183 (7, 8.86%), and the tropical zone (6, 7.59%) (Fig.4). In the temperate zone (C), Cfa,
 184 Cfb, and Cwa were the most frequently studied locations (27.85%, 13.92%, and 10.13%,
 185 respectively), mostly contributed by China mainland and Hong Kong SAR, China.
 186 Some studies covered multiple research sites (4, 5.06%) by comparing cities in different
 187 climate zones [16, 20, 53, 54].

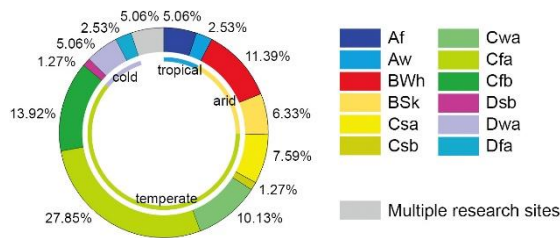


Fig. 4. Distribution of the reviewed studies by Köppen-Geiger climate zones.

188

189 3.2. Main types of GBI

190 Fig. 5 shows the main GBI types investigated by the studies (other landscape
 191 elements such as buildings and pavements were not counted here). Approximately two-
 192 thirds of the studies focused on only one GBI type. The studies were strongly biased
 193 toward trees (27, 34.18%), followed by green roofs (12, 15.19%), vertical greenings (6,
 194 7.59%), and water bodies (4, 5.06%). Grass and shrubs were not investigated as an
 195 independent element but usually combined with other GBI types. About one-third of
 196 the studies focused on the thermal effects of a combination of different GBI types. Trees
 197 with grass (8, 10.13%), trees with green roofs and vertical greenings (5, 6.33%), trees
 198 with grass and shrubs (5, 6.33%) were the top combinations. Consequently, trees as the
 199 most frequently used GBI type was considered by 69.72% (55) of the studies. The
 200 concentration on trees is understandable for their prominent biomass, visual impacts,
 201 and effective regulation of the outdoor thermal environment.

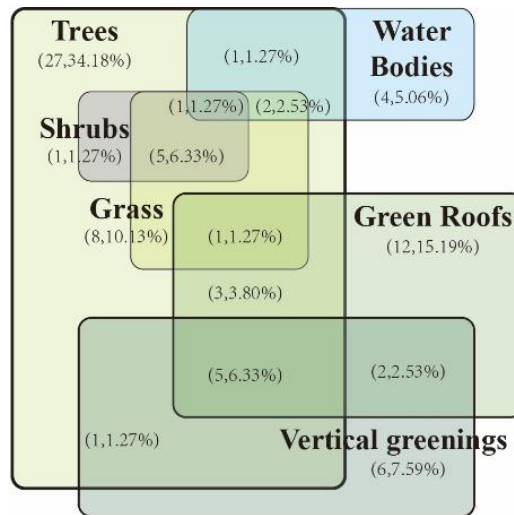


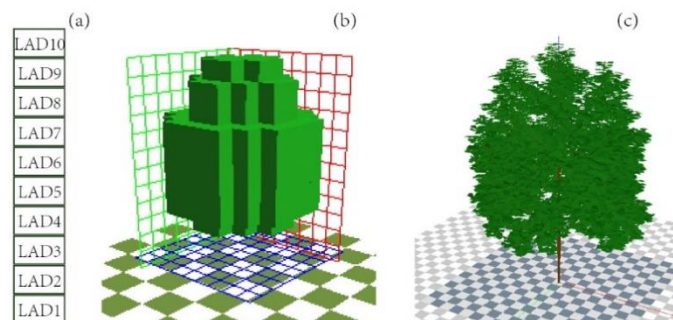
Fig. 5. The GBI research foci of the studies.

202

203 3.3. Building models of urban green and blue infrastructures in ENVI-met

204 3.3.1. Building tree models

205 ENVI-met V4 allows to build tree models in two ways: *simple plants* and *3D-plants*
 206 (Fig. 6 (a)(b)). The former is 1D vegetation model mainly for shrubs and grass, defined
 207 by plant height, ten-layers LAD, and ten-layers RAD [51]. It is similar to the vegetation
 208 model in V3. For *3D-plants*, a three-dimensional plant editing tool named *Albero* can
 209 digitize complex tree models by clusters of cells with a LAD and RAD [50], allowing
 210 a plant-as-object simulation such as object-based water access and soil water extraction
 211 [50]. Table 1 compares the input parameters of tree modeling between the latest version,
 212 V4.4.5 (*3D-plants*), and the previous version V3 (simple vertical structures). Modeling
 213 a 3D tree model in ENVI-met V4 and above demands more detailed data on physical
 214 traits. Furthermore, in a future version, a new method, Lindenmayer-System, will be
 215 implemented in ENVI-met to depict more realistic plants with detailed leaf clusters,
 216 branching systems, and plant biomechanics calculations (Fig.6 (c)) [56].



217

218 **Fig. 6.** ENVI-met tree models: (a) *simple plants*; (b) *3D-plants*; and (c) the model
 219 using the Lindenmayer-System in a future version [56].

220

221 **Table 1.** The input parameters of tree modeling in ENVI-met V3 and V4.4.5.

Plant parameter	Input variable	V3 [51, 57]	V4.4.5
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Tree & crown geometry	Tree height	√	√
	Crown diameter	-	√
Leaf properties	Leaf Area Density (LAD)	√	√
	Leaf type	-	√
	Foliage shortwave albedo	√	√
	Foliage shortwave transmittance	-	√
	Leaf weight	-	√
	Isoprene capacity	-	√
	CO ₂ fixation type	√	√
	Tree calendar	-	√
Root geometry	Root Area Density (RAD)	√	√
	Root depth	√	√
	Root diameter	-	√
	Root geometry	-	√

222

223 Modeling a 3D tree in ENVI-met V4 needs detailed data on physical traits to build
 224 more accurate tree models that can better denote reality. However, due to limitations of
 225 time or instruments, most studies simplified the tree modeling process. Four approaches
 226 were commonly adopted to acquire physical tree properties, including citing the
 227 literature [18, 23, 58-64], measuring representative trees [20, 22, 24, 53, 65-75],
 228 parameterizing according to the physical tree characteristics [3, 76-80], and selecting
 229 existing tree models from the *Albero* database [19, 28, 81, 82]. For on-site
 230 measurements, leaf albedo was mainly obtained from spectrophotometers [83] or two
 231 albedometers (e.g. CMP21 pyranometer, Kipp & Zonen, Delft, the Netherlands) [53,
 232 84]. Leaf Area Index (LAI) was obtained from hemispherical photographs captured by
 233 cameras with a fisheye lens [22, 24, 67, 75, 85], scanner [77], or plant canopy analyzer
 234 (e.g., LAI-2000 or 2200, LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) [53, 71, 75, 84]. The
 235 distribution of LAD is difficult to measure precisely [86]; however, the following
 236 empirical formula from Lalic and Mihailovic [86] can estimate it from LAI and tree
 237 height:

$$238 \quad LAI = \int_0^h LAD \cdot \Delta z \quad (1)$$

239 where h is tree height (m), Δz is vertical grid size (m), LAI is leaf area index, and LAD
 240 is leaf area density (m^2/m^3).

241 Furthermore, some databases of tree morphological characteristics have been
 242 generated for ENVI-met modeling. Liu et al. [15] measured 152 common tree species
 243 in Guangzhou, China, and developed a regression prediction model for general tree
 244 morphological characteristics. Asef et al. [87] developed a method mixing direct and
 245 indirect measurements to obtain LAI values to build models of common trees in Cairo.
 246 These approaches were based on previous studies confirming the strong correlations
 247 among tree morphology parameters [88-90].

248 Some studies do not select specific tree species but parameterize tree models

249 according to generic physical characteristics (tree height, trunk height, foliage density,
250 and crown diameter) [3, 76-80]. For instance, foliage density and tree height can be
251 sub-classified as “dense foliage, moderate foliage, and sparse foliage” and “tall tree,
252 medium tree, and short tree” [3], respectively. Karimi et al. [21] reported that the
253 combinations of physical parameters and their respective sub-forms could permit a
254 more accurate evaluation of the thermal effects of physical tree characteristics.

255 Modeling individual trees of different species in a study site is time-consuming.
256 In general, representative trees selected from the literature or field observations were
257 commonly used to represent other trees in a study site. Generally, either several
258 representative trees [18, 21, 23, 58-61, 63, 85, 91-99] or only one [96, 100-111] tree
259 were used, depending on the research purposes. For studies that focused on the
260 combined thermal effects of tree planting strategies (i.e., tree arrangement, number of
261 trees, etc.) and geometries of surrounding urban fabric (urban blocks [101, 107, 109],
262 street canyons [102, 103], residential areas [104, 105, 108, 110], etc.), most studies
263 hypothesized with only one representative tree in the study site.

264 Notably, although the resolution of tree models is 1m×1m×1m in *Albero*, their 3D
265 representation in the *SPACE* modeling area may look different if their resolutions are
266 different. *Albero* can visualize the new trees at different resolutions, making it possible
267 to set the data for different horizontal and vertical grid sizes [112].

268 3.3.2. *Building green roof and vertical greening models*

269 ENVI-met V4.4 denotes an important division between an indirect expression of
270 green roof/façade and a new green roof/façade module [68]. The previous ENVI-met
271 version did not have a dedicated vertical greening module. Researchers could only
272 append 1D simple plants on the grid before the wall to emulate indirectly the shading
273 and reduced building emission of longwave radiation [22, 113, 114]. However, the
274 resolution of ENVI-met dictates a minimum 0.5 m distance between two grids [115],
275 which deviates considerably from reality. In contrast, the new green roof/façade module
276 since V4.4 can combine the building, greening, and substrate and consider the heat and
277 vapor exchanges within and between the greenery and substrate layers. The detailed
278 vegetation and substrate type of green roof/façade can be edited in the *Greening* section
279 of the database manager. The main input parameters include LAI, plant thickness, and
280 leaf angle distribution [68]. Notably, even in V4.4 and above, all the plants, including
281 tree models on the green roof, are *simple plants*. The substrate properties include
282 emissivity, albedo, water coefficient of substrate for plants, air gap width between
283 substrate and wall.

284 Most reviewed studies used the previous ENVI-met versions (before V4.4 but at
285 least V4.0) without the new green roof/facade module. Therefore, the properties of
286 green roof/façade in these studies were mainly represented by LAI, plant height, albedo,
287 and soil depth. LAI and plant height were the most frequently used input parameters
288 [61, 77, 113, 116] usually representing the characteristics of intensive [16, 75, 93, 117]
289 and extensive [16, 65, 75, 84, 117] green roofs. However, many reviewed studies lacked
290 explanations for setting or assuming LAI and plant height values [65, 93, 103, 116-118].
291 Moreover, some studies did not provide any modeling descriptions, because they
292 focused mainly on the coverage ratio of green roofs [106, 115, 119] or vertical greenings

293 [120] or their combinations [92, 121], not the greening type itself.

294 ENVI-met V4.4 and above allows more detailed green roof/façade modeling.
295 Aboelata et al. [122] built models for intensive and extensive green roofs by obtaining
296 data on root depth, plant height, plant width, plant form, and leaf weight from a plant
297 guidebook. To model the local green façade more accurately, Peng et al. [68, 123]
298 obtained the LAD and leaf albedo from field measurements. They adopted the plant
299 transmittance from the default values of three related species.

300 3.3.3. *Building urban blue infrastructure models*

301 Water bodies in ENVI-met are represented as a special soil type partly transparent
302 to shortwave radiation [25]. Users can define its thermal properties in ENVI-met
303 Database Manager, i.e. setting the heat capacity, heat conductivity, among others. For
304 water depth setting, users can link water with a user-defined profile on the “profile”
305 section in Database Manager, defining as water or water ground surface (sediment)
306 material at different depths. The calculated processes inside the water include the
307 transmission and absorption of shortwave radiation inside the water [25]. However, no
308 second energy balance and no additional boundary conditions are respectively used for
309 the water ground surface (sediment) and water bodies themselves. Therefore, the water
310 grids are considered deep enough to allow attenuation of nearly all shortwave radiation
311 inside the water bodies [25].

312 In ENVI-met V4.0 and above, water spray simulation, including fountains and
313 water mist cooling is supported [33]. The default water fountain is a point source in 4m
314 height. The placing height and source geometry (point, line, area) can be specified by
315 the user. Also, ENVI-met includes the possibility to model water sprayed into the local
316 atmosphere as a specific “particle dispersing source” [124]. The water nozzles can be
317 inserted in the model as punctual “water sources” at the center of the grid cells [124].
318 The water source’s features such as partical diameter and particle density were managed
319 in the section “pollutant conditions” of the project advanced settings in ENVI-met
320 [124].

321 3.3.4. *Building background urban environment models*

322 To build models of the urban background environment, approximately two-thirds
323 of the studies employed case studies, namely real and particular place as the
324 fundamental background environment. This method is commonly used in targeted
325 research, analyzing whether a specific site's planting design can provide enough thermal
326 comfort and determine the most effective modifications [18]. However, the conclusions
327 from case studies have limited generality because their applicability to other locations
328 is unknown [15].

329 About one-third of the reviewed studies used idealized environmental models. The
330 physical characteristics of study areas, e.g., the aspect ratio of street canyons and
331 building density of urban blocks were extracted from which some general findings can
332 be distilled. To outline the morphological features of the studied areas, Liu et al. [15]
333 and Rui et al. [104] summarized the morphological characteristics of residential areas
334 from field measurements. They set up abstract models from statistical results. Peng et
335 al. [123] developed some idealized urban blocks based on a spatial and statistical

336 analysis of more than 13,000 realistic city blocks via ArcGIS. Furthermore, Morakinyo
337 et al. [3, 22] combined parametric and case studies in one comprehensive research,
338 which offers the advantages of both approaches.

339

340 **3.4. Validation of ENVI-met's urban green and blue infrastructure models**

341 *3.4.1. Significance of validation*

342 Although previous research have specifically evaluated the ENVI-met vegetation
343 model [50, 52, 83, 112, 125, 126], a comprehensive validation must be made before
344 conducting a simulation study for two reasons. First, while ENVI-met has a solid
345 physical foundation [47, 48, 50, 51], simulation still cannot fully represent the real
346 world because of the use of “approximations” [110]. To shorten simulation time, ENVI-
347 met simplifies some calculations of vegetation models:

348 1) Radiation

- 349 • Plants do not influence the reflected shortwave radiation (i.e., tree canopies
350 are neither considered as reflecting objects nor as obstructions to wall-
351 reflected shortwave fluxes) [51].
- 352 • Plants do not influence the diffused shortwave radiation (i.e., shortwave
353 radiation cannot be absorbed when passing through vegetation, and there is
354 no scattering of direct shortwave radiation) [51].
- 355 • The shortwave radiation scattered upwards by the ground and vegetation is
356 not taken into account [51].
- 357 • The incoming longwave radiation emitted by nearby plants and surfaces is
358 not calculated based on the temperature of the single surfaces and leaves
359 within the field of view, but instead on an average temperature [51]. As
360 Huttner [51] noted, this may underestimate shaded areas or overestimate
361 sunlit areas because ENVI-met will assign the same amount of emitted
362 longwave radiation to both shaded and sunlit facades.

363 2) Evapotranspiration

- 364 • The heat convection between the leaf surface and surrounding air and the
365 radiation heat transfer between the leaf surface, sky, and ground surfaces
366 are not taken into account [51].
- 367 • The heat storage for leaves is not taken into account [50].

368 With these simplifications, how ENVI-met vegetation models perform in each
369 study must be validated before conducting scenario simulations. Second, the existing
370 evaluations primarily focused on common local tree species with characteristics that
371 differ significantly from other studies. The special features, especially tree-crown
372 geometries, leaf properties, generated tree models with quite different thermal effects
373 in different study areas. Such results demand validation to assess the reliability of
374 current simulation results and avoid misjudgment [83, 127].

375 *3.4.2. Validation variables*

376 Validation through in-situ measurements is vital, and 72.15% (54) of the reviewed
377 literature did so. The information, including the evaluation parameters, calculated

378 statistical metrics and temporal period, was extracted for this current study (cf.
379 Appendix B). Air temperature (Ta) was the most frequently evaluated meteorological
380 variable (50, 92.59% among the studies with validation), followed by relative humidity
381 (RH, 15, 27.78%) and mean radiant temperature (Tmrt, 7, 12.96%). Surface
382 temperature (Ts), wind speed (WS), solar radiation (SR), longwave radiation (LR), and
383 physiological equivalent temperature (PET) were chosen by less than 10% of the
384 validated studies. The instruments for measuring Ta and RH are relatively easy to obtain.
385 Before *full forcing* was offered in V4.4 [127], *simple forcing* could only allow dynamic
386 changes in the inflow values of Ta and RH [112]. Also, neither the observed SR nor WS
387 can be matched hourly using the *simple forcing*, i.e., SR can only be adjusted from the
388 built-in data by the adjustment factor (0.5-1.5) [51, 83, 128], and wind information
389 (both speed and direction) can remain static throughout the simulation time based on
390 the initial input value.

391 Notably, the diversity of Tmrt estimation methods may cause some deviations.
392 ENVI-met calculates Tmrt for a cylindrically-shaped body, using the incoming
393 longwave and shortwave radiation [129]. In some studies, Tmrt was generally estimated
394 based on a global temperature measurement [3, 22, 24, 95, 97, 107] or six individual
395 shortwave and longwave radiant flux measurements [130]. Therefore, when selecting
396 Tmrt as the ENVI-met validation variable, the deviation between different calculation
397 methods should be noted.

398 3.4.3. Statistical metrics

399 Except for a few studies that only used a simple comparison [81, 108], most studies
400 with validation have applied statistical metrics. Thirty-five (64.81%) studies with
401 validation used the coefficient of determination R^2 , a key output of regression analysis
402 describing the proportion of the total variance explained by a model [131]. Other
403 commonly used metrics were RMSE (Root Mean Square Error, 31, 57.41%), d (index
404 of agreement, 13, 24.07%), and MAE (Mean Absolute Error, 9, 16.67%). The sub-level
405 metrics of RMSE, i.e., RMSEs (Systematic Root Mean Square Error) and RMSEu
406 (Unsystematic Root Mean Square Error), and MBE (Mean Bias Error), MAPE (Mean
407 Absolute Percentage Error), NMSE (Normalized Mean Squared Error) were also used.
408 However, only about 10% of the validated studies chose them. Detailed definitions of
409 the above statistical metrics and their advantages and disadvantages for model
410 evaluation can be found in previous studies [131-134]. Most of the reviewed studies
411 employed two or three metrics, but some [20, 22, 75, 77, 92, 95, 116, 121] chose only
412 R^2 . Willmott et al. [133] remarked that this might result in misjudgment because R^2 can
413 only assess the overall model performance. The value of R^2 does not verify that the
414 simulated and observed values are consistent; its magnitude is not often related to the
415 size of the differences between observation and simulation values [133].

416 3.4.4. Reported validation results of the vegetation model

417 Almost all the validation studies have confirmed the general reliability of ENVI-
418 met. Even though the research topics were focused on GBI, most validation studies only
419 compared several pairs of measured and observed points in an integrated thermal
420 environment, rather than conducting a GBI-targeted validation. Only some studies

421 performed the targeted validation and compared the results among open areas,
422 vegetated areas, and their differences [3, 22, 24, 67, 68, 77, 95, 113, 123]. These study
423 evaluated trees, green facades, and simple plants, including the parameters of Ta, Tmrt,
424 RH, TS, etc. Particularly, Li et al. [67] evaluated the vertical Ta distribution from the
425 ground surface to 2-m height in the open space and under the tree canopy and reported
426 that the closer to the ground surface, the greater the differences between measured and
427 simulated Ta under the canopy. Appendix C shows the GBI-targeted validation results.
428 In most cases, the simulation performance in vegetated areas was slightly better than
429 those in open areas [3, 22, 24, 68, 95, 123] (except some validation results of green
430 façade [113, 123] and *simple plants* [77]).

431 Summarized from the reviewed studies, as well as the previous evaluations which
432 focused on the simulation performance of GBI [50, 52, 83, 112, 125, 126], deviations
433 between simulated and observed values may occur due to three reasons:

- 434 1) ENVI-met limitations:
- 435 • ENVI-met simplified tree model calculation methods (mentioned in 3.4.1)
 - 436 • The hypothesis of static cloud and wind conditions in *simple forcing*
- 437 2) Modeling assumptions:
- 438 • The assumed rather than measured modeling input data due to the lack of
439 scientific monitoring using instruments [3, 22, 24, 112, 113, 125, 135-137],
440 including the thermal properties of surrounding buildings (e.g., emissivity,
441 thermal conductivity, specific heat capacity, absorption coefficient of walls,
442 etc.) and the properties of trees (e.g., foliage albedo, LAD, and root
443 geometry).
 - 444 • The simplified rotary tree crown models in *Albero* [83].
 - 445 • Study domain trees' generalization: For a complex urban environment,
446 choosing some typical vegetation on behalf of the study area's vegetation
447 systems may also introduce a certain level of uncertainty [137].
- 448 3) Unsystematic errors from experimental operations:
- 449 • The anthropogenic heat generated by humans, vehicles, and mechanical
450 cooling systems is not accounted for in ENVI-met [3, 22, 24, 138].
 - 451 • The transmitted solar energy through a non-uniform canopy may
452 overestimate SR, which would not occur in the simulation [83].
 - 453 • The measurement error of LAD may influence the foliage distribution and
454 may also introduce uncertainty [137].
 - 455 • The initialization data of Ta and RH sometimes were obtained from nearby
456 weather stations, which may be different from the experimental site [33].

457 For the differences between open and vegetated sites, the simulated reduction of
458 both Ta and Tmrt under tree canopy were less significant than the observed values [22,
459 83]. This result may occur due to two reasons. First, ENVI-met can reflect the general
460 trends well, but the simulation fluctuation is always more stable than the observation
461 [139]. Second, as noted in previous validations [136], ENVI-met tends to overestimate
462 the Ta of the ground layer, especially in tree-shaded areas, which means that the Ta
463 reduction tends to be underestimated.

464 For the validation of blue infrastructures, most water-related studies just evaluated

465 the overall simulation performance by choosing some comparison points but lacked a
466 targeted validation for water [28, 63, 73, 76, 94]. In particular, Guiseppe et al. [124]
467 focused on water mist cooling and showed a high prediction accuracy for Ta.

468

469 **3.5. Main analytical aspects of simulation results**

470 The analytical indicators and main analytical aspects of trees, green roofs, vertical
471 greenings and water bodies were illustrated in Fig. 7.

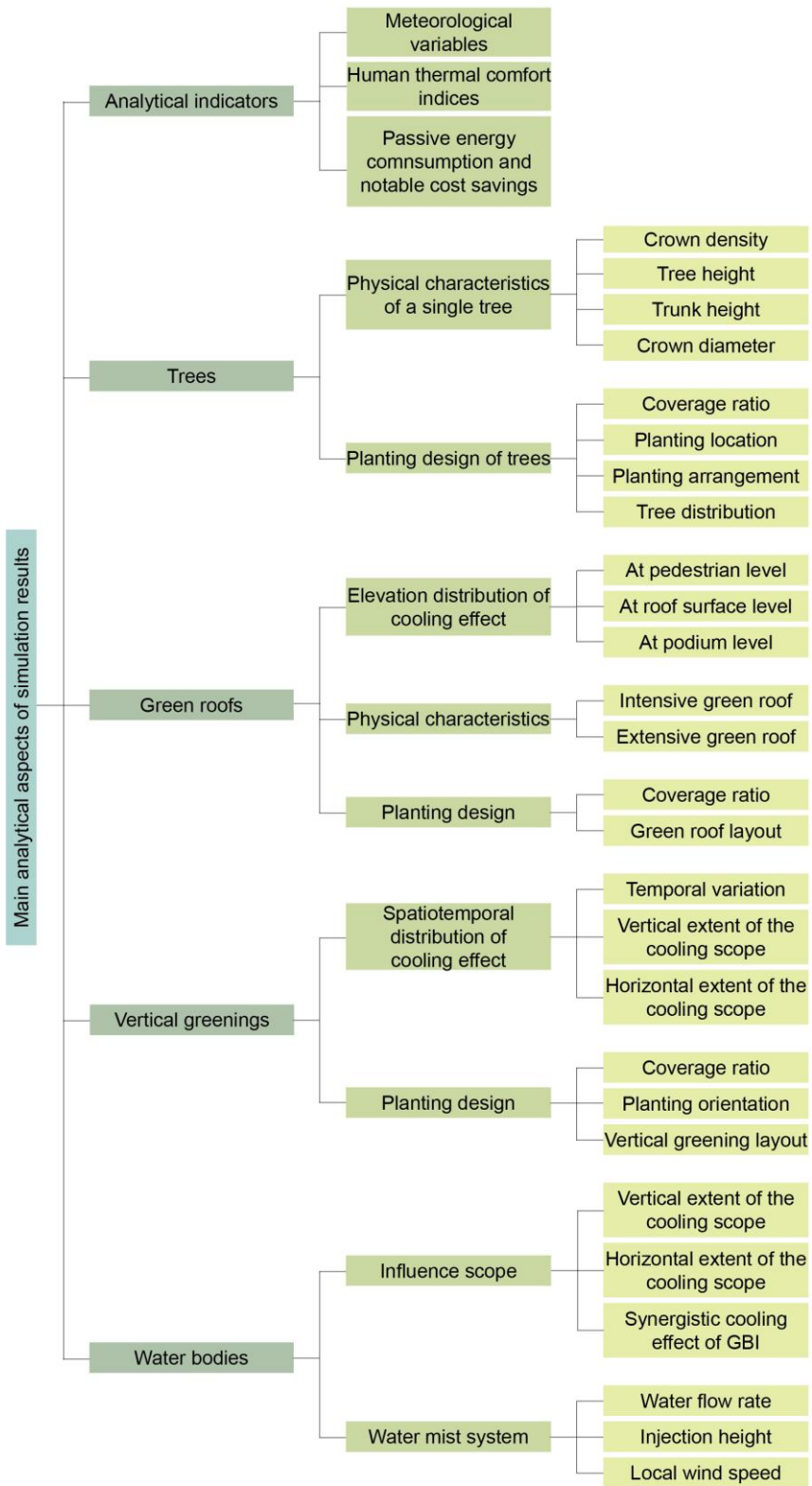


Fig. 7. Main analytical aspects of simulation results

3.5.1. Analytical indicators

a) Meteorological variables

In this study, Ta, Tmrt, RH, and WS were the most frequently used meteorological

477 variables to evaluate the outdoor thermal environment because they can directly reflect
478 microclimate changes [108]. As the most familiar and basic meteorological variable, Ta
479 was selected by almost all studies (70, 88.61%), and 11 studies used Ta as the only
480 analytical variable [54, 61, 65, 75, 106, 116, 118, 124, 140-142]. However, Rahul et al.
481 [28] reported that using only Ta was insufficient for thermal stress investigation. Tmrt
482 with more diverse spatial variations than Ta [66, 102] is strongly influenced by the tree-
483 shading effect and by the human body exposed to shortwave and longwave radiation
484 fluxes (especially direct shortwave radiation) [20, 23]. Because vegetation in ENVI-
485 met is a living organism that interacts with the underlying surface and overlying air
486 [24], the RH's value and distribution are related to the biophysical processes of
487 transpiration and evapotranspiration of vegetation [91, 92]. WS was used as several
488 studies indicated that the vegetation effect on the pedestrian thermal environment and
489 human thermal comfort was associated with wind condition [96].

490 Most measured and simulated meteorological variables were set at the pedestrian
491 height (typical 1.5 – 2 m). However, green roof studies tend to focus on the
492 microclimate at the roof or podium level. For temporal variations, representative hours
493 were commonly used. Many studies selected 15:00 data [3, 16, 22, 23, 25, 79, 81, 91,
494 97, 98, 111, 116, 143] for three reasons. First, 15:00 is often the hottest and most
495 uncomfortable hour in a real situation [16, 25, 81, 91, 97, 98, 116, 143]. Second, the
496 maximum difference between the thermal comfort of open and vegetated areas
497 generally occur at this moment [93]. Third, it is a time that residents tend to engage in
498 outdoor activities [15].

499 Other studies used different hours. Besides 15:00, 14:00 was viewed as the hottest
500 hour in some studies [18, 19, 63, 65, 68, 78, 93, 101, 124]. The 12:00 data represented
501 the noon scenario [19, 22, 23, 70, 81]. Regarding nocturnal representative hours, 20:00
502 [25, 65, 101], 00:00 [3, 16] and 05:00 [18, 78] were commonly adopted. However, Wu
503 et al. [72] observed that assessing the thermal status of a continuous period would be
504 more meaningful for outdoor activities planning than a single time point.

505 b) Human thermal comfort indices

506 Human thermal comfort indices were computed. In order of usage frequency, they
507 included PET (physiological equivalent temperature) (36, 45.57%), PMV (predicted
508 mean vote) (11, 13.92%), UTCI (universal thermal climate index)(3, 3.80%), COMFA
509 (COMfort Formula) (1, 1.27%) and TEP (temperature of equivalent perception) (1,
510 1.27%). The definitions of these indices have been summarized in a paper [144]. The
511 indices can be calculated from the ENVI-met meteorological output values or extracted
512 from BioMet directly, which is a post-processor tool in ENVI-met.

513 PET was widely selected for four reasons. First, PET embraces comprehensive
514 outdoor microclimate and human elements, making it more acceptable and suitable for
515 assessing outdoor human thermal comfort. It is a function of four main meteorological
516 variables of Ta, RH, WS, and Tmrt. Tmrt considers radiation fluxes on body heat
517 balance from all possible directions and wavelengths (including shortwave and
518 longwave radiation) [3, 22-24, 74, 85, 93, 97, 102, 110, 113]. For human elements, PET
519 considers gender, height, age, weight, clothing heat resistance, and metabolic heat [97,
520 110, 145]. Second, PET is the most widely used index in urban climatology [78, 93,

521 101, 102], and recommended by German guidelines for urban and regional planners
522 [99, 101, 111]. As diverse studies have used PET to evaluate the thermal environment,
523 researchers can compare different regions and climate zones. Third, many previous
524 subjective thermal sensation studies have developed human thermal sensation scales
525 for different regions and climate zones [3, 22, 102], making them more suitable for
526 evaluating the human thermal sensation. Fourth, expressed in Celsius (°C), the results
527 are comprehensible to people who may not be familiar with human-biometeorological
528 terminology [93, 145, 146].

529 PMV is also a frequently used index chosen for three reasons. First, meteorological
530 variables of T_a , RH, WS, and T_{mrt} , and personal factors (e.g., clothing heat resistance
531 and human activity) are considered comprehensively [20, 71, 104, 147]. By extending
532 the clothing and activity factors and radiation fluxes (including shortwave and
533 longwave radiation), the indoor PMV index can be applied to the outdoor environment
534 [18, 20, 147]. Second, it has been adopted worldwide and used in various studies [18,
535 147, 148], making it easy to compare different studies. Third, the PMV numerical
536 results denote directly human thermal sensation and do not need categories or scales.
537 However, in some extreme thermal conditions, the calculated PMV value may be above
538 +4. This means that although the result is numerically correct, it is off-scale vis-à-vis
539 the original Fanger experimental data (-4 to +4) [105]. For this reason, the ENVI-met
540 website suggests using PET as a thermal comfort scale (see, [https://envi-
541 met.info/doku.php?id=apps:biomet_pmv](https://envi-met.info/doku.php?id=apps:biomet_pmv)).

542 UTCI was considered better in representing specific climates, weather, locations
543 and depicted temporal variability of thermal conditions [72]. Moreover, UTCI is more
544 sensitive to WS and RH, whereas PET is more sensitive to T_{mrt} [149]. Therefore, some
545 studies used both UTCI and PET [28, 95]. Only one study chose COMFA because of
546 comprehensive consideration, relatively high scale resolution, and detailed human
547 energy budget description [15]. One study chose TEP because it is an index based on a
548 linear equation developed for local conditions [57].

549 c) Passive energy consumption and notable cost savings

550 Passive energy-saving performance presents a way to evaluate the cooling effect
551 of GBI. It is commonly estimated from the simulated T_a reduction between open and
552 greened areas at a vertical extent by the equations in some papers [24, 73, 85, 137, 150].
553 Notably, Morakinyo et al. [24] proposed that the selected vertical calculation extent
554 should fulfill two conditions: higher than the tallest tree in the domain; and shows
555 stability in vertical T_a gradient. In the reviewed studies, at the top of the next vertical
556 grid above the tallest trees [24, 85], mean building height [150], and vertical cooling
557 effect extent from simulation results [73] were also used.

558 Furthermore, similar to the theoretical estimation approach mentioned above,
559 passive indoor energy saving from vertical greenings can be estimated via ENVI-met
560 simulated indoor air temperature [151]. The energy-saving power (in kWh) and air-
561 conditioner refrigeration power can be converted according to energy conservation
562 values to demonstrate intuitively the cooling efficiency of vertical greenings.

563 The coupled outdoor-indoor simulation was a further approach to understand the
564 interaction of the outdoor environment with indoor cooling-heating energy demand and

565 the energy-saving effect of GBI. As ENVI-met is not a Building Energy Simulation
566 (BES) tool, DesignBuilder and EnergyPlus are often employed but driven by ENVI-
567 met simulated micro-climate data. Specifically, DesignBuilder, a model for building
568 energy consumption calculation, can connect with ENVI-met using ENVI-met
569 outputted EPW weather files as its input weather data (Ta, WS, and RH are required)
570 [53, 58, 84, 122]. EnergyPlus, an indoor energy use model, can co-simulate with ENVI-
571 met via its outputted EPW weather file as a boundary condition to estimate the energy-
572 saving performance of green roof or vertical greening [16, 64, 100, 123]. Morakinyo et
573 al. [16] reported that using ENVI-met output weather files is more accurate and targeted
574 than using a conventional city's representative EPW file.

575 Notable cost savings is another evaluation index. Yang et al. [110] compared the
576 economics of different greening patterns by estimate the expense of reducing 1 °C PET,
577 including the purchase and the maintenance prices.

578

579 3.5.2. *Main analytical aspects of trees*

580 a) Physical characteristics of a single tree

581 When analyzing the thermal effect from physical characteristics of a tree, crown
582 density, tree height, trunk height, and crown diameter are the main analytical factors.

583 Crown density is the primary determinant of a tree's heat reduction potential [3,
584 22, 24, 72], contributing about 60% of Ta reduction [24]. In general, a tree with high
585 foliage density is a high heat mitigator and vice-versa, as confirmed by previous studies
586 [3, 60].

587 In reality, the number, type, size, and arrangement of leaves affect collectively
588 crown density. In ENVI-met, this combined metric is generally represented by LAI [91],
589 a relatively easy-to-obtained physical characteristic to describe the whole crown's
590 density. The strong positive correlations between LAI and solar radiation attenuation
591 [22-24], and reduction in Ta [23, 78], Tmrt [24, 109], PET [23, 24, 58], and TS [109]
592 under the canopy have been confirmed. However, a tree with a dense crown may block
593 the wind and increase Ta [59], an effect that should be assessed critically. Also, more
594 longwave radiation is trapped at nighttime due to higher LAI, which may lead to less
595 nocturnal cooling beneath tree canopies [22, 102]. Furthermore, crown density
596 distribution per height (i.e., LAD) was investigated for further analysis [15, 20, 23].
597 The trees with similar LAI but different vertical LAD distribution determined the
598 magnitude of solar attenuation [23].

599 Tree height was an essential tree parameter for human thermal comfort
600 improvement [22]. Weaker than LAI, a strong and positive correlation among tree
601 height and Tmrt [24] and PET [22] reduction has been confirmed. When trees have the
602 same LAI values, the tallest tree with a broad and scattered crown recorded the most
603 solar attenuation [23].

604 Trunk height is the distance between the lower surface of the tree crown and the
605 ground. The correlation between trunk height and solar radiation attenuation [23, 24]
606 and PET reduction [23] was not as strong as crown density (LAI). However, it
607 significantly affected the airflow and radiation blocking [21, 24]. Trunk height has a
608 stronger correlation with wind speed than crown density or tree height [24], i.e., a crown

609 at greater height can bring better ventilation [152]. In contrast, for more shading beneath
610 the tree, the crown should be at a lower height [15, 24].

611 Due to the “umbrella effect” [153], broader tree crowns can provide more shading
612 [15], more TS reduction [21], and more UHI depression [70] than narrower tree crowns.
613 However, a wide tree crown may obstruct wind and ventilation [62].

614 b) Planting design of trees

615 Tree planting design is another important element influencing thermal effects [81].
616 Areas with similar tree cover but different planting design produced different thermal
617 performance [15, 23, 96, 147] due to effects on wind speed, wind direction, and shading
618 pattern [137, 154]. A good tree-planting design embodies the thermal benefits of both
619 ventilation and shading [147].

620 The tree-planting design includes some key attributes: number of trees (tree
621 coverage ratio) and tree planting patterns (including tree arrangement, planting
622 orientation, intervals among trees, etc.). Additionally, some green indices could reflect
623 the planting pattern quantitatively, such as the landscaping deviation index [105],
624 landscaping isolation index [105], and land shape index [78], etc.

625 The number of trees in a particular place is generally quantitatively represented by
626 tree coverage ratio (TCR) [95] or green coverage ratio (GCR) [24, 94]. Many reviewed
627 studies confirmed linear correlations between TCR and the surrounding microclimate:
628 a higher TCR lowering T_a [24, 54, 65, 143] and PET [94, 110], and raising RH [81,
629 146] in the daytime. However, some reviewed studies found that the correlations were
630 non-linear because of WS and RH variations, indicator selection, tree planting pattern,
631 background urban environment, and ENVI-met version [54, 95, 99, 143]. Overall, the
632 impact of trees cannot be considered as *the more, the better*, especially in high-density
633 urban areas [155].

634 A tree’s thermal contributions may be underutilized if planted in the wrong place,
635 leading to wasted overlapped shadows or airflow blocking [3]. Also, in an urban
636 environment, the background thermal environment was regulated by urban morphology,
637 which may strengthen or weaken the thermal effects of trees. Therefore, planting design
638 should incorporate appropriate tree planting location, arrangement, orientation, and
639 inter-tree interval to optimize the shaded area and improve ventilation.

640 To increase the shaded area and reduce nocturnal trapping of longwave radiation
641 [15, 95, 98], tree arrangement had been considered. Compared with the clustered and
642 random patterns, the equal-interval arrangement (square or triangular pattern) showed
643 better T_a and T_{mrt} reduction, and human thermal comfort improvement [15, 81, 98].
644 This is because scattered trees can provide more shade, avoid unnecessary overlapped
645 tree crowns, and interact more with the surrounding environment. Also, every single
646 tree's full transpirational cooling potential can be achieved due to the “oasis effect” [15,
647 54, 78, 98, 111].

648 Several studies have tackled the effects of tree distribution. Investigating the most
649 suitable inter-tree distance, Zhang et al. [97] used a height-to-distance ratio of trees (as
650 “Aspect ratio of trees”, ART) to characterize tree distribution. They proposed that ART
651 < 2 could improve human thermal comfort. Zheng et al. [80] reported that optimum for
652 cooling was achieved at a pedestrian level when the inter-tree distance equals the crown

653 width. The shading effect of street trees varied with the morphology of street canyons
654 and trees, as well as the time of the day [23]. Lee et al. [102] suggested not to plant
655 trees in the north-facing sidewalk in N-S street canyons because the south-bordering
656 buildings shaded them. Morakinyo et al. [3] reported that trees with high crown density
657 were at their best when planted in open-areas because shading from buildings and trees
658 may overlap in high-density urban areas to reduce the tree shading effect.

659 Concerning ventilation, trees can reduce wind speed. However, trees can be planted
660 in wind paths to enhance ventilation [96]. Trees parallel to wind direction have a
661 stronger cooling effect [78, 147] because of the fresh breeze effect due to air cooling
662 after passing through trees [81]. Cooler areas can be found in the downwind direction
663 in ENVI-met simulation [95]. Similarly, in the street canyon, the general belief is that
664 vegetation can reduce in-canyon WS and its reduction magnitude was mostly dependent
665 on the prevailing wind direction and vegetation density [23]. However, Lee et al. [102]
666 reported that in deep street canyons the effect of increasing airflow speed was much
667 lower than that of increasing tree coverage.

668

669 *3.5.3. Main analytical aspects of green roofs*

670 a) Elevation distribution of cooling effect

671 Green roofs' thermal performance was often analyzed at two levels, namely the
672 pedestrian and roof surface levels. For buildings with podiums, the thermal
673 performance at the podium level was also evaluated.

674 At the pedestrian level, green roofs' cooling effect was very low [93, 99, 103]
675 because they do not provide additional shade at the street level and are not located close
676 to pedestrians [99, 138]. Many reviewed studies found that the green-roof cooling effect
677 decreased significantly with the increase in vertical distance between the green roofs
678 and the ground [65, 75, 92, 93, 99, 117, 138, 156, 157]. The inflection point was
679 approximately 10 m [93, 117, 158, 159]. Moreover, Zhang et al. [75] reported that when
680 the vertical distance (building height) exceeded 60 m, the effects on pedestrian T_a were
681 negligible. Furthermore, urban density also affected the pedestrian cooling effect of
682 green roofs. They had a negative correlation, i.e., green roofs' cooling effect on
683 pedestrians was insignificant in a high-rise and high-density urban environment [16,
684 117, 156].

685 In contrast, green roofs' cooling effect is more pronounced at the roof surface level
686 than the pedestrian level [118]. Vegetation can significantly modify the radiation regime,
687 enhance turbulence near the roof surface and intensify heat exchanges between the roof
688 surface and near-roof air [93]. T_a reduction, however, was mostly restricted to the roof
689 level [93].

690 Green roofs on building podiums can increase the thermal comfort at the podium
691 level where the cooling intensity was independent of roof height [93].

692 b) Physical characteristics of green roofs

693 Green roofs can be regarded as a constant heat sink via evapotranspiration,
694 radiative energy absorption, and heat fluxes [19, 92, 160]. Previous studies have
695 confirmed the thermal effects of physical characteristics, including vegetation type,

696 albedo, leaf density (generally represented by LAI), plant height, and soil depth. The
697 roof vegetation increased surface albedo, reduced shortwave-radiation uptake [93], and
698 lowered roof-surface temperature significantly, especially during intense daytime solar
699 radiation[16, 61]. Increasing LAI had a positive impact on the cooling effect at the
700 pedestrian level [138]. However, green roofs' energy-saving capacity was more
701 influenced by soil depth than LAI [138]. Zhang et al. [75] found that plant height played
702 a critical role in cooling. When the plant height was < 1 m, the TA reduction induced
703 by green roofs was insignificant at pedestrian level [75].

704 Furthermore, green roofs can be categorized into two types, i.e., intensive and
705 extensive, with different vegetation growth form and soil depth [16, 117, 122]. Intensive
706 green roofs can reduce Ta more than extensive ones at both the pedestrian and roof
707 surface levels due to thicker soil and greater foliage density and canopy height [16, 118,
708 122].

709 Overall, few studies on green-roof physical characteristics have been conducted
710 because green roofs' detailed modeling function is only available in V4.4 and above.

711 c) Planting design of green roofs

712 The vegetation coverage ratio had a positive correlation with cooling performance.
713 Kim et al. [141] surmised that installing green roofs in all buildings can have the
714 greatest thermal effect at the city scale. Zhang et al. [75] reported that cooling
715 performance might reach a threshold at a given coverage ratio which was determined
716 to be 75%. Sahnoune et al. [106] arrived at a lower value of 50% as the best ratio.
717 However, the coverage ratio was less affected by Ta reduction than foliage density and
718 canopy height [16].

719 The green roof layout can influence the pedestrian thermal environment mainly
720 due to the ventilation effect. Kim et al. [136] identified a linear green roof oriented
721 perpendicular to the wind direction as the most effective configuration. Zhang et al. [75]
722 proposed installing green roofs on the upwind side to bring more pedestrian-level
723 cooling. The Ta may broadly fall, especially on the building's leeward side with a green
724 roof [117].

725 To some extent, the green roof layout was largely based on the building layout,
726 which presented a fundamental influence on the thermal environment. The enclosing
727 layout of green roofs/buildings had the most significant cooling effect, followed by the
728 array and scattered ones [117]. Also, a larger interval between the buildings brought a
729 stronger green-roof cooling effect on the leeward block, and vice versa [93, 118]. When
730 the building interval was large, ventilation could contribute notably to cooling.

731

732 3.5.4. Main analytical aspects of vertical greenings

733 a) Spatiotemporal distribution of cooling effect

734 The temporal variation and spatial distribution are the two general foci regarding
735 the cooling effect of vertical greenings, which affect both outdoor and indoor thermal
736 environments. Thermal comfort is essential in both diurnal and nocturnal periods. In
737 the daytime, the cooling effect is attributed to shading, thermal insulation, and
738 evaporative cooling of vegetation [68, 113]. Vertical greenings can provide effective

739 thermal insulation in the daytime [68]. In the nighttime, they provide a passive warming
740 effect by suppressing outgoing longwave radiation from the exterior building walls and
741 the subdued vegetation evapotranspiration, resulting in a higher wall surface
742 temperature than bare wall [68, 77].

743 The vertical extent of the cooling scope has been discussed frequently. Vertical
744 greenings can provide a cooling effect spreading from the ground to 10–20 m above
745 the building roofs [68]. Peng et al. [68] reported that block-scale green facades could
746 improve the pedestrian-level microclimate more effectively than the upper-layer
747 microclimate and identified three factors regulating the vertical distribution of cooling.
748 First, more energy for evaporation can be provided by the higher ground-level T_a .
749 Second, cool air may accumulate due to the low SR at the ground level. Third, due to
750 the buoyancy effect, the cool air tends to sink and stay at the canyon's bottom. Many
751 studies found no significant benefit to pedestrian comfort by increasing vertical
752 greening height above a certain threshold [114, 140]. It is because the upper-layer
753 airflow may weaken cooling due to its dispersion and dilution of the cooled air [68].
754 Acero et al. [114] recommended a critical height of 6 m.

755 For the horizontal extent of the cooling scope, “the closer to the green wall, the
756 more cooling it will be” [77, 113]. Katsoulas et al. [77] recorded that the T_{mrt} difference
757 between green and bare walls became insignificant at a distance > 2.5 m.

758 The cooling effect on the indoor thermal environment is generally represented by
759 T_a and wall surface temperature [77, 113, 151, 161]. A lower wall surface temperature
760 can reduce indoor cooling energy demand [113].

761 b) Planting design of vertical greenings

762 For the coverage ratio of vertical greenings, it was agreed that “the more, the better”
763 [113, 123]. Moreover, the cooling effect of the coverage ratio was more substantial than
764 orientation and position [113]. However, Morakinyo et al. [113] found that green walls
765 might reduce WS to dampen cooling, especially near the greened surface. The
766 magnitude varied depending on coverage ratio, orientation, and proximity to the
767 pedestrian level.

768 Regarding the planting orientation, when the same quantity of vertical greenings
769 is installed on East-West and North-South facades, the former can provide more cooling
770 due to higher exposure to sunlight [113].

771 As a natural cover on the building envelope, the vertical greening cooling effect is
772 contingent upon its intrinsic traits and building properties. Like green roofs, the vertical
773 greening layout was also dependent on building layout, regulating the horizontal
774 movement of cooling air and ventilation [68]. The amount of vertical greenings that can
775 be installed was related to the density of the built-up urban fabric [113]. With increasing
776 urban density, the percentage of vertical greenings exposed to direct solar radiation
777 decreased. Similar to the assessment of trees, vertical greenings provided better cooling
778 performance in low-density urban sites [123].

779

780 3.5.5. Main analytical aspects of water bodies

781 Water bodies have a strong impact on microclimate, especially on T_a reduction [76],

782 due to their horizontal heat and water vapor exchange through evaporation, solar
783 radiation absorption, and ventilation effect [73, 94]. Endowed with high heat storage
784 and sizeable thermal inertia, many reviewed studies have confirmed both daytime
785 cooling and nocturnal warming effects [25, 63, 76]. Two kinds of water bodies are
786 recognized in ENVI-met, namely static water bodies and water mist systems. Most
787 water-related studies covered the former. The morphological characteristics and
788 influence scope of water bodies are commonly evaluated.

789 a) Influence scope of water bodies

790 Using Ta as an indicator, Jacobs et al. [25] found small Ta differences between
791 watered and reference sites, especially at night, but the horizontal influence scope was
792 slightly larger over the water area. Xu et al. [73] noticed the best cooling effect at the
793 center of the water body, and it may decrease gradually from center to water edge [73].
794 Rahul et al. [28] found differences between the PET and UTCI trends due to differential
795 sensitivity to RH (UTCI is very sensitive to RH, but PET is not). Jiang et al. [76]
796 reported that water bodies' downwind direction experienced a more notable cooling
797 effect. In a traditional Chinese garden, Xu et al. [73] detected the considerable
798 horizontal extension of a cooling effect and 20-m vertical extension above the water
799 surface.

800 There is a strong synergistic cooling effect between green and blue components.
801 The water body's openness can increase the shading effect of trees and promote natural
802 ventilation [25]. Shi et al. [63] suggested planting low LAI trees at the water edge to
803 tap the reduced effect on WS and promote nighttime heat emission. The shading effect
804 of waterfront greening can weaken the solar radiation reaching a water body. The
805 influence scope of this synergistic cooling effect can extend 7–12 m from the water
806 edge. To investigate the correlation between spatial structural factors of waterfront
807 green space and the cooling effect, Jiang et al. [142] combined ArcGIS, ENVI-met, and
808 the BRT (Boosted regression trees) machine learning method to analyze the pro-rata
809 contributions of multidimensional spatial variables, marginal effect, and correlation
810 relationship of each green space. They found the influence scope of the synergistic
811 cooling effect of urban GBI to be 800–1000 m. The marginal effect of waterfront green
812 space can reach its maximum at 20–25 m width and stabilise at > 55 m.

813 b) Water mist system

814 A water mist system has three key design factors: water flow rate, injection height,
815 and local wind speed. The cooling capacity increases with increasing water flow rate
816 and decreases with increasing WS [124]. However, with only up to 0.5 °C reductions
817 on Ta and PET, Jacobs et al. [25] concluded that the cooling effect of vaporizing water
818 at fountains (4 m high water jets) and sprays had limited magnitude and spatial spread.
819

820 4. Discussion and conclusion

821 Modeling, validating, and scenario simulating are three essential parts in
822 investigating the thermal performance of urban green and blue infrastructures using
823 ENVI-met. This study reviewed 79 relevant recent studies that used ENVI-met V4 and

824 above, analyzed and summarized the pertinent findings. The following observations
825 and recommendations can be distilled from the comprehensive review of the three
826 research steps.

827 (a) Modeling

828 Modeling with real data is recommended. The more detailed and accurate plant
829 models, the better ENVI-met can denote reality. Although it is understandable to use
830 cited values or ENVI-met default values due to the comprehensiveness of the ENVI-
831 met vegetation modeling platform and the lack of scientific instruments, this study
832 suggests at least using the LAI and plant height values from field measurement, for
833 accurately simulating the parameters with the most significant impact on microclimate.
834 For the other plant parameters such as root geometry, a sensitivity test can be conducted
835 to see whether they have a considerable impact on the user's research topics.

836 For water body modeling, similar to the modeling of vegetation, a more accurate
837 setting of water body characteristics leads to more realistic simulation results. We
838 suggest measuring the characteristics (i.e., the depth and turbidity) of the water body in
839 the study area and set the extinction coefficient and heat exchange coefficient for the
840 water body in the model correspondingly.

841 When reporting, a more detailed description of the modeling process can be
842 provided. In some studies, the modeling values (e.g., LAI, tree height, among others)
843 were assigned without explanation, i.e., it is not known whether they were extracted
844 from other references or just used as simply defined values. The omission may raise
845 queries regarding the appropriateness of the citations. This study recommends an
846 adequate assessment of the cited or default values' suitability to the research questions.

847 (b) Validating

848 The content of validation can be more consistent with the research topic. For the
849 validation plan, many studies investigated the thermal effect of greenery as the
850 differences between greenery and open areas. It follows that the validation should focus
851 on the ENVI-met simulation of the performance of greenery and open areas and their
852 differences. However, some reviewed studies just validated the entire thermal
853 environment rather than focusing on the gist of the research. Targeted and
854 comprehensive validation is still lacking, especially for water bodies. The water
855 temperature, as well as air temperature, relative humidity and wind speed above and
856 near the water bodies are details that can be focused on in validation.

857 Most studies selected air temperature as their primary validation variable.
858 However, when it comes to scenario simulation analysis, the plant's radiation
859 obstruction effect and ventilation guiding effect as well as water bodies' evaporation
860 cooling effect were usually mentioned as key discussion points. For such GBI studies,
861 we suggest adding at least one radiation-related variable (e.g., shortwave radiation
862 downward, T_{mrt}) or one ventilation-related variable (e.g., wind speed) when validating,
863 consisting with the user's research discussion. For statistical metrics, only choosing R^2
864 is not enough and may result in misjudgment [133]. Combining two or three metrics
865 such as RMSE, d , and MAE is suggested.

866 Furthermore, the validation can play its due role. The validation results can not
867 only provide ENVI-met a simple evaluation as accurate or reliable, but it can also

868 additionally be combined with a scenario simulation discussion, reporting the
869 overestimated or underestimated values and providing more accurate planting
870 recommendations.

871 (c) Scenario simulation

872 The main analytical aspects of scenario simulations clearly demonstrated the
873 mechanisms of the cooling effect of urban green and blue infrastructures. However,
874 using only air temperature as the performance indicator is insufficient [28]. Analyzing
875 together with radiation and ventilation related variables such as shortwave radiation,
876 longwave radiation, wind speed, and wind direction, will provide a comprehensive
877 perspective. For human thermal comfort, ENVI-met website suggests using PET as a
878 thermal comfort scale. However, this study suggests systematically and critically
879 analyzing the index's characteristics and suitability (i.e., how, why, when, and for
880 whom/under what conditions a model can or should be applied [162]) before utilization
881 and discussion. Moreover, other multidimensional indicators such as the extent of
882 energy-saving, cost-saving, air quality improvement can be adopted by supplementing
883 ENVI-met analysis with other tools. This expanded approach can better inform
884 planting-design recommendations and serve multiple objectives.

885 Additionally, the temporal variations, growing process, and seasonal variations of
886 greenery can be investigated using an extended thermal performance period [98].
887 Besides comparing different greenery settings, horizontal comparisons under different
888 background conditions can be conducted. For instance, the greenery effects in different
889 climatic regions, seasons, or weather scenarios can be compared and contrasted.

890 Cities are diverse, in which the urban greenery, water bodies, buildings, paved
891 areas, and other urban elements interact jointly, independently, synergistically, or
892 antagonistically with each other to beget the resultant outdoor thermal environment.
893 The continuous advancements in numerical simulation technology can improve
894 understanding of the elaborate mechanisms of the urban thermal environment. The
895 research findings can provide more detailed and targeted recommendations for
896 policymakers, urban planners, and landscape designers. This review comprehensively
897 evaluated and summarized ENVI-met applications to urban green and blue
898 infrastructures, identified some limitations, and proposed some alternatives and
899 improvements. Studies from a relatively large scale to a micro-scale, combining ENVI-
900 met with Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) and remote sensing, were not
901 reviewed here. They constitute another research domain worthy of attention.

902

903 **Acknowledgement**

904 This research is supported by the General Research Fund (RGC Ref No. 14617220)
905 from the Research Grants Council (RGC) of Hong Kong.

906

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Appendix A. Basic information of the reviewed studies

Reference	Name of journal	Publication year	City	Continent	Climate zone	Season	GBI type	Validation	ENVI-met version	Combined with other software/model
(Abdi, Hami et al. 2020)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2020	Tabriz, Iran	Asia	BSk	Summer	Trees	√	4.1	-
(Aboelata 2020)	Building and Environment	2020	Cairo, Egypt	Africa	BWh	Summer	Trees, Grass	√	4.3.2	DesignBuilder
(Aboelata and Sodoudi 2019)	Building and Environment	2019	Cairo, Egypt	Africa	BWh	Summer	Trees, Grass	√	4.3.2	DesignBuilder
(Aboelata and Sodoudi 2020)	Building and Environment	2020	Cairo, Egypt	Africa	BWh	Summer	Trees, Grass	√	4.3.2	DesignBuilder
(Acero, Koh et al. 2019)	Building Simulation	2019	Singapore	Asia	Af	Summer	Vertical greenings	-	4.3	-
(Al Jadaa, Abu Raed et al. 2019)	Journal of Mechanical and Industrial Engineering	2019	Abu Dhabi, UAE	Asia	BWh	Summer, Winter	Green roofs	-	4+ (Academic version)	-
(Altunkasa and Uslu 2020)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2020	Adana, Turkey	Asia	Csa	Summer, Winter	Trees	-	4+	-
(Antoniadis, Katsoulas et al. 2018)	International Journal of Biometeorology	2019	Volos, Greece	Europe	Csa	Summer	Trees	√	4	-
(Atwa, Ibrahim et al. 2020)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2020	New Borg El Arab, Egypt	Africa	BWh	Summer	Trees	√	4+	-
(Berardi 2016)	Energy and Buildings	2016	Toronto, Canada	North America	Dfa	Summer	Green roofs	√	4	EnergyPlus
(Berardi, Jandaghian et al. 2020)	Science of the Total Environment	2020	Toronto, Canada	North America	Dfa	Summer	Trees	√	4.4	WRF-UCM
(Bochenek and Klemm 2020)	atmosphere	2020	Lodz, Poland	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Green roofs, Vertical greenings	-	4+ (Science version)	-
(Chen, Zheng et al. 2020)	sustainability	2020	Changsha, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Green roofs	√	4	-
(Cipolla, Maglionico et al. 2018)	Acta Horticulturae	2018	Bologna, Italy	Europe	Cfa	autumn	Green roofs	-	4+	-
(Daemei, Azmoodeh et al. 2018)	Journal of Building Engineering	2018	Tehran, Iran	Asia	BSk	Summer, Winter	Vertical greenings	√	4	-

(Duarte, Shinzato et al. 2015)	Urban Climate	2015	Sao Paulo, Brazil	South America	Cfb	Summer, Autumn	Trees	√	4	-
(Fabbri, Canuti et al. 2017)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2017	Russi, Italy	Europe	Cfa	Summer, Winter	Trees	-	4	-
(Fahmy, El-Hady et al. 2017)	Energy and Buildings	2017	New Borg El-Arab, 6th of October , Egypt	Africa	-	Summer	Trees, Green roofs, Vertical greenings	-	4	DesignBuilder
(Fahmy, Ibrahim et al. 2018)	Building Simulation	2018	Cairo, Egypt	Africa	BWh	summer	Trees, Green roofs, Vertical greenings	-	4+	-
(Farhadi, Faizi et al. 2019)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2019	Tehran, Iran	Asia	BSk	Summer	Green roofs	√	4.3	-
(Fikfak, Lavtižar et al. 2020)	Sustainability	2020	Ljubljana, Slovenia	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Vertical greenings	-	4+(Science version)	-
(Gatto, Buccolieri et al. 2020)	Forests	2020	Lecce, Italy	Europe	-	Summer, Winter	Trees	√	4+	-
(Herath, Halwatura et al. 2018)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2018	Lahti, Finland	Asia	Af	Summer	Trees, Green roofs, Vertical greenings	√	4	-
(Jacobs, Klok et al. 2020)	Urban Climate	2020	Bambalapitiya, Sri Lanka	Europe	Cfb	summer	Water bodies	-	4.1.3	-
(Jiang, Han et al. 2018)	Sustainability	2018	Various cities, Netherlands	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Shrubs, Water bodies	√	4	-
(Jin, Bai et al. 2018)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2018	Shanghai, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Green roofs	√	4	-
(Karimi, Sanaieian et al. 2020)	Energy Reports	2020	Chongqing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees	√	4.3.2	-
(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)	International journal of biometeorology	2017	Tehran, Iran	Asia	BSk	Summer	Trees	√	4	-
(Kim, Lee et al. 2020)	Sustainability	2020	Arta, Greece	Europe	Csa	Summer	Green roofs, Vertical greenings	√	4	-
(Knaus and Haase 2020)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2020	Seoul, Korea	Asia	Dwa	Summer	Green roofs	-	4+	-
(Kong, Middel et al. 2016)	Applied Energy	2016	Berlin, Germany	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Green roofs	-	4.4	-
(Lalošević, Komatina et al. 2018)	Thermal Science	2018	Nanjing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Shrubs	√	4+	-
(Lee, Mayer et al. 2016)	Landscape and Urban Planning	2016	Belgrade, Serbia	Europe	Cfa	Summer	Green roofs	-	4	-
			Freiburg, Germany	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Grass	√	4	-

(Lee, Mayer et al. 2020)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2020	Freiburg, Germany	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees	-	4	-
(Li, Wang et al. 2020)	Journal of Cleaner Production	2020	Guangzhou, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Water bodies	√	4+	-
(Li, Zheng et al. 2019)	Energies	2019	Changsha, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Vertical greenings	-	4.4.1	-
(Li and Song 2019)	International Review for Spatial Planning and Sustainable Development	2019	Seoul, Korea	Asia	Dwa	Summer	Trees, Shrubs	√	4	-
(Liu, Brown et al. 2020)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2020	Guangzhou, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees	-	4.2	-
(Lobaccaro and Acero 2015)	Urban Climate	2015	Bilbao, Spain	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Green roofs, Grass	-	4	-
(Makido, Hellman et al. 2019)	Atmosphere	2019	Portland, USA	North America	Csb	Summer	Trees, Green roofs	√	4.2	-
(Manteghi, Shukri et al. 2019)	Journal of Advanced Research in Fluid Mechanics and Thermal Sciences	2019	Melaka, Malaysia	Asia	Af	Summer	Water bodies	-	4	-
(Morakinyo, Dahanayake et al. 2017)	Energy and Buildings	2017	Hong Kong SAR, China Cairo, Egypt Tokyo, Japan Paris, France	Asia	-	Summer	Green roofs	-	4	EnergyPlus
(Morakinyo, Kong et al. 2017)	Building and Environment	2017	Hong Kong SAR, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Trees	√	4	-
(Morakinyo, Lai et al. 2019)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2019	Hong Kong SAR, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Vertical greenings	√	4	-
(Morakinyo and Lam 2016)	Building and Environment	2016	Hong Kong SAR, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Trees	-	4	-
(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2018)	Building and Environment	2018	Hong Kong SAR, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Trees	√	4	-
(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2020)	Science of the Total Environment	2020	Hong Kong SAR, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Trees	√	4	-

(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)	Building and Environment	2020	Hong Kong SAR, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Trees	√	4.3	-
(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)	Building and Environment	2020	Nanjing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Vertical greenings	√	4.4	-
(Rahul, Mukherjee et al. 2020)	International Journal of Biometeorology	2020	Roorkee, India	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Water bodies	√	4.4.4	-
(Rui, Buccolieri et al. 2018)	Forests	2018	Nanjing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass	-	4.3	-
(Rui, Buccolieri et al. 2019)	Building Simulation	2019	Nanjing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Shrubs	-	4	-
(Sahnoune and Benhassine 2017)	International Journal of Environmental Science and Development	2017	Constantine, Algeria	Africa	Csa	Summer	Green roofs	-	4	-
(Shi, Song et al. 2020)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2020	Chongqing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Water bodies	√	4.4	-
(Sodoudi, Zhang et al. 2018)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2018	Berlin, Germany	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Grass, Shrubs	√	4	-
(Srivanit and Jareemit 2020)	Journal of Building Engineering	2020	Bangkok, Thailand	Asia	Aw	Summer	Trees	√	4+	-
(Su, Cai et al. 2017)	Sustainability	2017	Nanjing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Shrubs	√	4+	-
(Teshnehdel, Akbari et al. 2020)	Building and Environment	2020	Tabriz, Iran	Asia	BSk	Summer, Winter	Trees	√	4	-
(Tukiran, Ariffin et al. 2017)	International Journal of GEOMATE	2017	Penang, Malaysia	Asia	Af	Winter	Trees	√	4	-
(Wang, Ni et al. 2019)	Journal of Cleaner Production	2019	Shenzhen, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer, Winter, Autumn	Trees, Green roofs	√	4.3.2	-
(Wu and Chen 2017)	Landscape and Urban Planning	2017	Beijing, China	Asia	Dwa	Summer	Trees	√	4+	-
(Wu, Dou et al. 2019)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2019	Beijing, Xiamen, Changchun, China	Asia	-	Summer	Trees	√	4+	-
(Xu, Liu et al. 2019)	Energy & Buildings	2019	Beijing, China	Asia	Dwa	Summer	Trees, Water bodies	√	4+	-

(Yang, Zhou et al. 2018)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2018	Xi'an, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees	√	4	-
(Yang, Zhou et al. 2019)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2019	Xi'an, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass, Shrubs	√	4.3.2	-
(Yilmaz, Mutlu et al. 2020)	Environmental Science and Pollution Research	2020	Erzurum, Turkey	Asia	Dsb	Summer, Winter	Trees	√	4.4.2	-
(Zhang, Bao-Jie et al. 2019)	International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health	2019	Hangzhou, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Green roofs	√	4.3.1	-
(Zhang, Zhan et al. 2018)	Building and Environment	2018	Wuhan, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer, Winter	Trees	√	4	-
(Zhao, Sailor et al. 2018)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening Sustainability	2018	Tempe, USA	North America	BWh	Summer	Trees	√	4+	-
(Zheng, Bedra et al. 2018)	Advances in Space Research	2018	Shantou, China	Asia	Cwa	Summer	Trees	-	4.3.2	-
(Ziaul and Pal 2020)	Journal of Engineering and Applied Science	2020	West Bengal, India	Asia	Aw	Summer	Green roofs, Vertical greenings	√	4.1	Landsat
(Zölch, Maderspacher et al. 2016)	Urban Forestry & Urban Greening	2016	Munich, Germany	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Green roofs, Vertical greenings	-	4	-
(Zölch, Rahman et al. 2019)	Building and Environment	2019	Munich, Germany	Europe	Cfb	Summer	Trees, Grass	√	4.2	-
(Di Giuseppe, Ulpiani et al. 2020)	Energy & Buildings	2020	Rome, Italy	Europe	Csa	Summer	Water bodies	√	4.4.3	-
(Fahmy and Abdelghany 2020)	Journal of Engineering and Applied Science	2020	New Cairo, Egypt	Africa	BWh	Summer	Trees, Grass	-	4.3.2	-
(Jiang, Jiang et al. 2020)	International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health	2020	Shanghai, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Trees, Grass	-	4.3	ArcGIS, machine learning
(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)	Applied Energy	2020	Nanjing, China	Asia	Cfa	Summer	Vertical greenings	√	4.4	Energy plus

(Aboelata 2020)	Energy	2020	Cairo, Egypt	Africa	BWh	Summer	Green roofs	√	4.4.4	DesignBuilder
(Tsoka, Leduc et al. 2021)	Sustainable Cities and Society	2020	Thessaloniki, Greece	Europe	Csa	Summer	Trees	√	4	Energy plus

(Jin, Bai et al. 2018)	Summer	Ta	-	0.68-1.21	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		RH	-	2.92%-6.13%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Karimi, Sanaieian et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.826	-	-	-	-	0.25	-	2.6	-	-
(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)	Summer	Ta	0.93-0.98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		RH	0.8-0.86	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		SR	0.97	8.50%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Kong, Middel et al. 2016)	Summer	Ta	-	1.14	0.43	1.06	0.95	-	-	-	-	-
(Lee, Mayer et al. 2016)	Summer	Ta	0.85	0.66	0.19	0.62	0.95	-	-	-	-	-
		Tmrt	0.86	5.49	2.39	4.94	0.95	-	-	-	-	-
		PET	0.77	3.98	3.06	2.52	0.84	-	-	-	-	-
(Li, Wang et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.9-0.96	0.37-1.14	-	-	0.86-0.97	1-2.84	-	-	-	-
		RH	0.63-0.75	2.73-3.32	-	-	0.71-0.77	4.65-5.61	-	-	-	-
(Li and Song 2019)	Summer	Ta	-	1.59-2.16	-	-	0.7-0.8	1.4-2.01	1.27-2.01	-	-	-
(Makido, Hellman et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.66-0.93	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Morakinyo, Kong et al. 2017)	Summer, autumn	Ta	0.79-0.81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Summer, autumn	Tmrt	0.69-0.74	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Morakinyo, Lai et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.89	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.1	-
		RH	0.76	11.10%	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.9	-
		Emitted longwave flux	0.66-0.7	40.7-42.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.7-8.5	-
		Ts	0.6-0.74	2.3-5.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.8-12.1	-
(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2018)	Summer	Ta	0.79-0.81	1-1.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.7-5.1	-
		Tmrt	0.69-0.74	2.2-3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.7-13.2	-

(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.79-0.81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.7-5.1	-
		Tmrt	0.69-0.74	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7.7-13.2	-
(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)	Summer	T	0.79-0.81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Tmrt	0.69-0.74	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)	Summer	Ts	-	1.4-1.81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Ta	-	0.31-0.35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Rahul, Mukherjee et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.96-0.98	0.7-3.7	-	-	0.96-0.98	-	-	-	-	-
(Shi, Song et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	-	1.02-1.95	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		RH	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.86-6.45	-
(Sodoudi, Zhang et al. 2018)	Summer	Ta	0.92	1.26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Srivanit and Jareemit 2020)	Summer	Tmrt	0.91	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Normalized mean squared error :0.17
(Su, Cai et al. 2017)	Autumn	Ts	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Simple quantitative analysis
(Teshnehdel, Akbari et al. 2020)	Winter	Ta	over 0.89	0.78	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		RH	0.90	1.71%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Tukiran, Ariffin et al. 2017)	Winter	Ta	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Paired difference Mean:0.50 StD:0.98
		RH	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Paired difference Mean:2.44 StD:4.58
		WS	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Paired difference Mean:0.06 StD:0.33
		SR	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Paired difference Mean:17.35 StD:28.89
(Wang, Ni et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.62-0.93	0.54-1.45	-	-	0.65-0.99	0.41-1.26	-	-	-	-
	Autumn	Ta	0.66-0.79	0.46-0.72	-	-	0.71-0.87	0.40-0.61	-	-	-	-
	Winter	Ta	0.71-0.78	0.31-0.70	-	-	0.83-0.93	0.26-0.63	-	-	-	-
(Wu and Chen 2017)	Summer	Ta	-	1.05	-	-	0.93	0.95	-0.49	-	-	-
(Wu, Dou et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	-	1.05	-	-	0.93	0.95	-0.49	-	-	-

(Xu, Liu et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.79- 0.89	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Yang, Zhou et al. 2018)	Summer	Ta	0.92- 0.0.98	0.94- 2.34	0.39- 1.81	0.85- 1.49	-	-	0.38- 1.58	-	-	-
		RH	0.87- 0.92	2.04%- 2.94%	0.58%- 2.58%	1.4%- 1.95%	-	-	(- 2.54%)- (- 0.77%)	-	-	-
(Yang, Zhou et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.79	3.72	2.14	5.68	-	-	-	-	8.90%	-
		RH	2.65%	1.25%	3.53%	4.76%	-	-	-	-	4.76%	-
(Yilmaz, Mutlu et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.77- 0.78	-	-	-	1.00	-	-	-	-	-
	Winter	Ta	0.81- 0.92	-	-	-	0.88- 0.91	-	-	-	-	-
(Zhang, Bao-Jie et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.89	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Zhang, Zhan et al. 2018)	Summer	Ta	0.89	1.46	-	-	0.91	0.77	-	-	-	-
		WS	0.71	0.19	-	-	0.77	0.14	-	-	-	-
		Tmrt	0.89	5.21	-	-	0.78	4.82	-	-	-	-
	Winter	Ta	0.71	0.97	-	-	0.72	0.9	-	-	-	-
		WS	0.51	0.14	-	-	0.81	0.1	-	-	-	-
		Tmrt	0.89	5.03	-	-	0.76	4.71	-	-	-	-
(Zhao, Sailor et al. 2018)	Summer	Ta	-	1.1-2.1	1.1-2.1	0.1-0.2	-	1.1-2	-	-	-	-
(Ziaul and Pal 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.72- 0.92	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Zölch, Rahman et al. 2019)	Summer	Ta	0.93- 0.94	1.28- 1.36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
(Di Giuseppe, Ulpiani et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.81- 0.93	0.73- 0.98	-	-	0.93- 0.98	-	-	-	-	-
(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)	Summer	Ta	0.99	0.31- 0.35	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		RH	0.97- 0.98	4.09%- 4.22%	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Ts	0.51- 0.97	1.4- 1.81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note: The difference measure terms have the units of the corresponding variable.

Appendix C. The reported GBI-targeted validation results

GBI type	Evaluation parameter	Evaluation target	R ²	RMSE	d	MAE	MBE	MAPE	Reference
Tree	Ta	Unshaded area	-	1.59	0.8	1.4	1.27	-	(Li and Song 2019)
			0.79	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)
			0.79	1.4	-	-	-	5.1	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2018)
			0.79	-	-	-	-	5.1	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2020)
			0.79	-	-	-	-	-	(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)
	Tree-shaded area	-	2.16	0.7	2.01	2.01	-	(Li and Song 2019)	
		0.81	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)	
		0.81	1	-	-	-	3.7	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2018)	
		0.81	-	-	-	-	3.7	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2020)	
		0.81	-	-	-	-	-	(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)	
	Tmrt	Unshaded area	0.69	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)
			0.69	3.9	-	-	-	13.2	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2018)
			0.69	-	-	-	-	13.2	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2020)
			0.69	-	-	-	-	-	(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)
			0.74	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)
	Tree-shaded area	0.74	2.2	-	-	-	7.7	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2018)	
0.74		-	-	-	-	7.7	(Morakinyo, Lau et al. 2020)		
0.74		-	-	-	-	-	(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)		
0.74		-	-	-	-	-	(Ouyang, Morakinyo et al. 2020)		
Green façade	Ta	Near bare façade	-	0.35	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
			0.99	0.35	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
		Near green façade	-	0.31	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
			0.99	0.31	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
	RH	Differences between bare and green façade	-	0.16	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
			0.97	4.22	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
			0.98	4.09	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
			0.6	5.1	-	-	-	12.1	(Morakinyo, Lai et al. 2019)
TS	Bare façade	-	1.81	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)	

		0.97	1.81	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
		0.74	2.3	-	-	-	5.8	(Morakinyo, Lai et al. 2019)
	Green façade	-	1.4	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
		0.51	1.4	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
	Differences between bare and green façade	-	1.24	-	-	-	-	(Peng, Jiang et al. 2020)
	Emitted long wave flux							
	Bare façade	0.7	40.7	-	-	-	7.7	(Morakinyo, Lai et al. 2019)
	Green façade	0.66	42.0	-	-	-	8.5	(Morakinyo, Lai et al. 2019)
	Ta							
	Atrium without planted hydroponic pergola	0.98	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)
	Atrium with planted hydroponic pergola	0.86	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)
<i>Simple plant</i>								
	RH							
	Atrium without planted hydroponic pergola	0.93	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)
	Atrium with planted hydroponic pergola	0.8	-	-	-	-	-	(Katsoulas, Antoniadis et al. 2017)

Note: The difference measure terms have the units of the corresponding variable

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