

1 **Outdoor Thermal Comfort Assessment: A Review on Thermal Comfort Research in**  
2 **Australia**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Outdoor thermal comfort could significantly affect the usage and success of urban places.  
18 Accordingly, it is recommended to be considered in both urban design and planning projects.  
19 Urbanisation has been recognised as a major factor in elevated daily temperature values in  
20 Australia. This study aims to investigate the past and current position of outdoor thermal

21 comfort studies in the Australian context. A critical review is conducted to examine the quality  
 22 of thermal comfort assessment in Australia's cities. Twenty-five studies were reviewed to give  
 23 a precise overview of past thermal comfort studies. The review scrutinises the focus of research,  
 24 methodologies applied, data collection methods and results. This review helps main  
 25 stakeholders in urban development better understand the evolution of outdoor thermal comfort  
 26 with respect to liveability. In this line, where possible, the shortcomings are identified, certain  
 27 solutions are provided and the need for further research is highlighted. In particular, future  
 28 studies are necessary to cover missing geographical regions and ethnicities that are not  
 29 considered in the existing literature. Furthermore, more psychological thermal adaptation  
 30 studies are necessary, especially in transient thermal conditions. Qualitative analysis is also  
 31 recommended to be incorporated in further studies in addition to considering the perceived  
 32 environmental quality. The study serves as a reference to researchers, urban designers and  
 33 planners to enhance their knowledge for achieving outdoor thermal comfort and understanding  
 34 the gaps that need to be addressed in further studies.

35 **Keywords:** Thermal conditions; Outdoor thermal comfort; Thermal perception; Urban planning;  
 36 Urban liveability

### Nomenclature

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<b>aAT</b>	Adjusted apparent temperature
<b>aPMV</b>	Adaptive predicted mean vote
<b>AT</b>	Apparent temperature
<b>CTT<sub>out</sub></b>	Critical thermal threshold
<b>D ↓</b>	Diffuse shortwave radiation
<b>ET*</b>	Effective Temperature
<b>HEBIDEX</b>	Heat Budget Index
<b>IPCC</b>	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
<b>K ↓, K ↑</b>	Global shortwave radiation
<b>L ↓, L ↑:</b>	Longwave radiation
<b>LCZ</b>	Local climate zone
<b>MOCI</b>	Mediterranean Outdoor Comfort Index
<b>mPET</b>	Modified physiologically equivalent temperature

<b>MTSV</b>	Mean thermal sensation votes
<b>NTT<sub>out</sub></b>	Neutral thermal threshold
<b>OUT_SET*</b>	Outdoor Standard Effective Temperature
<b>PET</b>	Physiological Equivalent Temperature
<b>PMV</b>	Predicted mean vote
<b>PT</b>	Perceived Temperature
<b>RH</b>	Relative humidity
<b>S<sub>r</sub></b>	Solar radiation
<b>SET</b>	Standard Effective Temperature
<b>STEBIDEX</b>	Skin Temperature Energy Balance Index
<b>T<sub>a</sub></b>	Air temperature
<b>T<sub>g</sub></b>	Globe temperature
<b>T<sub>mrt</sub></b>	Mean radiant temperature
<b>T<sub>s</sub></b>	Surface temperature
<b>T<sub>pref</sub></b>	Preferred temperature
<b>T<sub>n</sub></b>	Neutral temperature
<b>TDI</b>	Thermal discomfort index
<b>TOP</b>	Operative Temperature
<b>UTCI</b>	Universal Thermal Climate Index
<b>UHI</b>	Urban heat island
<b>V<sub>a</sub></b>	Wind speed

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## 37 **1. Introduction**

38 Recent changes in ecosystems have had a negative impact on the liveability of outdoor built  
39 environments [1]. The collective effects of these changes in urban outdoor spaces challenge  
40 effective urban planning which aims to create successful and usable outdoor spaces. Among  
41 the determinants of outdoor environment quality, a high priority is given to the thermal  
42 environment [2]. Hence, urban planners and designers attempt to explore the common grounds  
43 on which people perceive and interact with outdoor meteorological conditions. In fact,  
44 thermally comfortable urban environment can facilitate urban residents' interaction with their  
45 surrounding environment while meeting their everyday demands. Conversely, thermally  
46 uncomfortable environments may discourage participation in outdoor activities and raise  
47 indoor cooling energy consumption [3].

48 Therefore, the notion of thermal comfort theory as a universally recognised benchmark has  
49 been in use for several years to determine how residents may interact with the outdoor thermal

50 environment. Thermal comfort definition is “...*that condition of mind that expresses*  
51 *satisfaction with the thermal environment*” [4, p. 7]. Two main models that underpin the  
52 knowledge of thermal comfort are the steady-state heat-balance theory model [5] and the  
53 adaptive models [6]. These models were initially developed for indoor air quality environment,  
54 and their application has been extended to the outdoor environment.

55 Australia is a leading country in developing thermal comfort theory and practice, mostly in  
56 interior conditions [7-16]. However, recently there has been a growing trend to assess outdoor  
57 thermal comfort [17] coinciding with rapid change in urban design patterns and population  
58 growth, and severe effects of climate change in Australian capital cities [18]. Australian capital  
59 cities are among the most fast-growing cities in developed countries, and there are growing  
60 concerns about thermal conditions in these cities [18-20]. Overall, certain evidence suggests  
61 that Australia is an exceptional case highlighting the need to take urgent decision and action  
62 against potential consequences.

63 In Australia, heatwaves are ranked as the third most severe natural disaster preceded by floods  
64 and bushfires [21]. Hot weather is becoming more common and severe in Australia [22]. The  
65 2003-2012 decade remains one of the country’s warmest with a temperature anomaly of +0.44  
66 °C and all Australian capital cities recorded warmer-than-average maximum temperatures [23].  
67 The latest report by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) states that  
68 Australia will keep getting hotter, resulting in a need to use mechanical means to achieve  
69 comfortable temperature indoors [24]. The record 2012-2013 and 2013-2014 summer  
70 temperature reflect this shift to more hot weather events [23], including the January 2014  
71 heatwave in southeast Australia [25]. The January 2019 heatwave is worth mentioning with  
72 respect to the duration and the average maximum temperature in Australia and Victoria,  
73 respectively [26]. The heatwave records surpassed those that occurred in 2009 [27]. The six

74 days from 12 to 17 January 2019 are all within Australia's ten hottest days on record according  
75 to the Australian Bureau of Meteorology [26].

76 For all the reasons mentioned above, this study is an effort to shed light upon outdoor thermal  
77 comfort research in the Australian context. The aim is to review the quality of outdoor thermal  
78 comfort assessment in Australia's cities. This review can further our understanding of  
79 Australians needs to better interact with outdoor environments and to show how past and  
80 current thermal comfort research can assist with improving urban liveability.

## 81 **2. Methodology**

82 This section explains the procedure followed to find, categorise and review the highly relevant  
83 sources for this review study. The procedure includes inclusion and exclusion criteria that  
84 applied in two stages.

### 85 **2.1. Search procedure and selection criteria**

86 The sources selected for this review study underwent two stages of examination as follows:

87 **Stage I:** to acquire the relevant English language literature for this systematic review, a desktop  
88 search of six major databases was conducted: Google Scholar, Scopus, PubMed, Wiley Online  
89 Library, Water Resource Abstracts (ProQuest), Web of Science and universities' theses  
90 repositories. The keywords used were "*Australia*", "*outdoor*", "*thermal comfort*", "*thermal*  
91 *perception*" and "*thermal preference*". The desktop search resulted in 59 research outputs,  
92 including peer-reviewed journal articles, conferences papers and PhD theses. To make sure that  
93 highly relevant sources were captured, the references of selected sources' references were also  
94 explored.

95 **Stage II:** at this stage, the sources that had highly relevant contents were shortlisted, and their  
96 full texts were downloaded. Notably, the sources that had not considered using thermal comfort  
97 index or only used simulation techniques were excluded. Studies that did not involve human  
98 subjects in their research design were also excluded. At the end of this stage, 25 research  
99 outputs remained for analysis.

## 100 **2.2. Thermal comfort research language**

101 The sections below describe the standard terminologies and definitions used in outdoor thermal  
102 comfort studies. These terminologies refer to thermal comfort indices and the concepts used to  
103 describe people's thermal perceptions.

### 104 *2.2.1. Thermal comfort indices*

105 The collective effect of study environmental variables (i.e. air temperature, relative humidity,  
106 wind speed, and mean radiant temperature) and two personal factors (i.e. clothing insulation  
107 and metabolic activity level) is calculated and expressed in the form of one thermal comfort  
108 index. Over one hundred thermal comfort indices have been used to assess and predict  
109 perceptions of comfort in thermal environments, most of these were designed to assess indoor  
110 conditions [28]. Among others, the main three thermal comfort indices, namely Physiological  
111 Equivalent Temperature (PET) [29], Universal Thermal Climate Index (UTCI) [28] and  
112 Outdoor Standard Effective Temperature (OUT\_SET\*) [30] are specifically designed for  
113 outdoor conditions and typically used in outdoor thermal comfort studies. Besides PET, UTCI  
114 and OUT\_SET\*, other common outdoor thermal comfort indices include apparent temperature  
115 (AT), adjusted apparent temperature (aAT), thermal discomfort index (TDI), Effective  
116 Temperature (ET\*), Operative Temperature (TOP) and Perceived Temperature (PT). Some  
117 studies also used predicted mean vote (PMV) or adaptive predicted mean vote (aPMV), but

118 PMV's steady-state assumption could make it unreliable for fluctuating outdoor conditions  
 119 [31]. In an early study, de Freitas [32] used the Skin Temperature Energy Balance Index  
 120 (STEBIDEX) and Heat Budget Index (HEBIDEX) to define thermal sensation threshold levels,  
 121 using the beachgoers in Caloundra as case studies.

122 Pickup and de Dear [30] extended the Standard Effective Temperature (SET) thermal comfort  
 123 index in order to apply it in outdoor settings. This thermal index which still holds the basis of  
 124 two-node model [33] have been used in various comfort research [34]. Recent studies mostly  
 125 used PET or UTCI as outdoor thermal comfort indices. For a comprehensive review of thermal  
 126 comfort indices, please refer to de Freitas and Grigorieva [35] and Coccolo, et al. [36].

127 *2.2.2. Thermal perceptions*

128 For the subjective perception for the outdoor thermal environment, the common terms used in  
 129 thermal comfort surveys are provided in Table 1. The definitions of thermal preference, thermal  
 130 sensation and thermal acceptability are derived from ISO 10551 [37].

Term	Description
Neutral temperature	A temperature at which most people feel neither cool nor warm. Here are two methods to define the neutral temperature: a) to define it by solving zero to the equation of linear regression between mean thermal sensation votes (MTSV) and index temperature values [17]; b) to define it using Probit analysis for two categories of “warmer than neutral” and “cooler than neutral” [38]
Preferred temperature	A temperature value at which people prefer neither warmer nor cooler environment. To define preferred temperature, the three-point scale of McIntyre [39] on thermal preference is split into the two categories of “change to cooler temperature” and “change to warmer temperature”. Then, the preferred temperature is the temperature at which the Probit curves of “change to cooler temperature” and “change to warmer temperature” cross.

Thermal preference	A 3-point scale including “prefer warmer”, “no change” or “prefer cooler”, or a 7-point scale from “prefer much warmer” to “prefer much cooler” [37].
Thermal sensation	A 7-point scale from cold (-3) to hot (+3), with 0 being neutral [37].
Thermal acceptability	Thermal acceptability is indicated by generally acceptable or generally unacceptable [37].
Neutral thermal threshold ( $NTT_{out}$ )	The $NTT_{out}$ refers to the threshold temperature in which a significant decrease in outdoor activities occurs [40].
Critical thermal threshold ( $CTT_{out}$ )	The $CTT_{out}$ refers to the zero-activity threshold temperature [40].

131 **Table 1. Various terms used to describe human thermal perceptions**

132 **3. Results**

133 Following the application of the approach described in section 2.1, only 25 published research  
134 outputs (using observation and survey approach) were found to be suitable for our review and  
135 analysis. Apart from two studies published in 1985 [32] and 2003 [38], the other sources were  
136 released since 2012. Table 2 summarises the studies found to have the characteristics  
137 mentioned above.

138 Table 2 summarises these studies and compares their features. Further details of each study are  
139 provided in the subsequent sections. Four of these studies were published in the form of a  
140 doctoral thesis; others were presented in peer-reviewed journals (Table 2). However, for ease  
141 of access, where available, this review referred to the journal papers drawing on the Ph.D.  
142 theses reviewed. Comparison between these studies can reveal valuable information on the  
143 extent of variation, the aim and research approach in particular.

144



City	Season/ place	Method	Focus of the study	Sample size	Target population	Reference
Melbourne	Spring, summer, autumn, Educational precinct	Q, M, O	Exploring the adequacy of comfort standards in assessing people's thermal perceptions; the impact of contextual factors on thermal perceptions	1059 Male: 707 Female: 352	University students (i.e. overseas and local), academic and professional staff	[41-47]
Melbourne	Summer, Botanical garden(s)	Q, M, O,	Finding the specifications of thermal comfort and adaptation among visitors of Melbourne Botanical Gardens, in both heatwave and non-heatwave periods.	3241 Male: 1366 Female: 1875	Melbourne Botanical Garden's local and overseas visitors	[48-53]
Melbourne, Adelaide, Sydney	Spring, summer, autumn, Three city centres, 10 urban precincts, and 10 public spaces	Q (online & hardcopy), M, O, SD	Investigation of urban residents' outdoor activity choices	318 observation sets 108 (hard copy), 159 (online) Gender not recorded	Public	[40, 54-57]
Geelong	Summer, Street (during a cultural diversity festival parade)	Q, M	Examining the influence of cultural background on the thermal comfort perception	100 Gender sample size not recorded	Festival goers	[58]
Melbourne	Summer and winter, Federation Square	Q, M	Identification of climate and culture background role in thermal perceptions	1021 Gender sample size not recorded	Users of a busy plaza in Melbourne (locals & overseas)	[59]
Melbourne	Summer and winter, Federation Square and university campus	Q, M	The 2013 study identifies the climate and culture background role in thermal perceptions. The 2018 study identifies the different outdoor thermal comfort benchmarks for Melbourne in various seasons and public spaces	2123 Male:891 Female:1232	Pedestrians in plaza and university campus	[17, 60]
Melbourne, Adelaide	Summer, Outdoor spaces in Mawson Lake, Adelaide and Melbourne	Q, M	To identify thermally comfortable temperatures in outdoor settings	680 Gender not recorded	Pedestrians	[61]
Sydney	Winter, summer, Six semi-outdoor and outdoor spaces	Q, M	Evaluation of thermal comfort conditions in urban spaces by specifying seasonal neutral and preferred temperatures	1018 Gender sample size not recorded	Users of typical outdoor and semi-outdoor urban places in Sydney	[38]
Caloundra	All year round, Beachside	Q, M	Test the applicability of heat balance models under coastal conditions	179 Gender not recorded	Holidaymakers on a beachside	[32]

145 **Note: Q: questionnaire, M: measurement, O: observation, SD: secondary data**

146 **Table 2 Summary of Australian studies assessing outdoor thermal comfort using observation and survey**

147 **3.1. The focus of study**

148 A total of 25 studies that investigated outdoor thermal comfort in the Australian context have been  
149 identified in this study. Among these, 20 studies focused on Melbourne and Sydney, being the two  
150 major cities (Table 2). In Australia, these two cities had the largest increase in population between  
151 2017 and 2018 of 119,400 and 93,400 for Melbourne and Sydney, respectively [62]. According to the  
152 latest census report, Melbourne and Sydney along with the other capital cities (i.e. Adelaide, Brisbane,  
153 Canberra, Perth, Darwin, and Hobart), accommodate 66.5% of the total population [63]. Due to this  
154 demographic status, these cities have experienced fundamental urban design reforms [64] and therefore,  
155 have severely faced issues rooted in urban heat island phenomenon and thermal discomfort [65].  
156 According to these factors, the main outdoor thermal studies in Australia focused on capital cities.

157 The two exceptions investigated outdoor thermal comfort in regional cities, being Caloundra [32], and  
158 Geelong [58]. In the first study, de Freitas [32] investigated the relationship between the body's heat  
159 balance and holidaymakers' thermal preference in a beach while undertaking the recreational activities.  
160 The second study [58] aimed to examine the influence of culture and environmental attitude on  
161 participants' thermal requirements in outdoor public places. The results demonstrated the impact of  
162 cultural diversity on thermal perception which is a crucial aspect to be considered in multicultural  
163 societies.

164 In a more comprehensive work executed by Spagnolo and de Dear [38], people's thermal comfort in  
165 various outdoor spaces was investigated in Sydney to determine the contextual-based thermal  
166 neutrality using different thermal indices. The work was a breakthrough in the field of outdoor thermal  
167 comfort, and the proposed protocol has been adopted by many researchers [66-69]. Spagnolo and de  
168 Dear [38] provided useful information on thermal perceptions based on predictions and suggested that  
169 indoor comfort thresholds are not directly applicable to outdoor environments.

170 In another effort to determine the thermal perception range for Australians, Loughnan, et al. [61]  
171 performed a comparative study between Melbourne and Adelaide. The study aimed to improve  
172 Australian bio-meteorological knowledge in an urban environment with respect to the concept of  
173 Water Sensitive Urban Design and thermal comfort [70]. However, research findings were limitedly  
174 disseminated, and no further details about this work were published. Similarly, the outdoor thermal  
175 perception range was identified for Melbourne and other areas with temperate oceanic (Köppen Cfb)  
176 climate conditions by multiple studies [17, 43, 47, 59, 60]. These studies estimated urban residents  
177 thermal comfort requirements and calibrated the PET ranges against them.

178 Besides thermal comfort surveys, outdoor activity choices under different summer conditions in  
179 Melbourne, Sydney and Adelaide were investigated using direct observation [40, 54]. A similar  
180 approach was adopted by Shooshtarian, et al. [42], who also considered how seasons and place  
181 characters influence usage patterns. Changes in activity choices reflect people's limit of outdoor  
182 thermal adaptation.

183 With an increasing number of outdoor thermal comfort studies, and placing stress on human  
184 parameters as an active recipient instead of passive [71], the attention is given to the requirements of  
185 specific outdoor space users with special comfort requirements including people with diverse cultural  
186 backgrounds [72]. In view of this, Kenawy [60] and Kenawy and Elkadi [59] performed comfort  
187 research in Melbourne to understand the cultural diversity impacts on the outdoor thermal comfort.  
188 The study was designed to find the impact and interaction between different factors including cultural  
189 and climatic background on thermal comfort and perception in outdoor places. These research findings  
190 are of particular importance for the context of Australia as a multicultural country as it seeks to ways  
191 of providing social inclusion for its residents [14, 73, 74]. The study was confined to two different  
192 outdoor places including an urban square and a university campus during summer and winter. The  
193 research findings could also be convenient for tourism decision-makers to consider the tourists'

194 comfort requirements. Other studies identified that the weather conditions are ranked as the first or at  
195 most the second concern for the holidaymakers [32, 67].

196 The limitation identified in the previous studies on the special requirements of short-term visitors has  
197 been addressed by a work conducted in Melbourne's Botanic Gardens [51]. Multiple nationalities of  
198 visitors and diverse microclimates inside the garden offer further insight into how various factors affect  
199 outdoor thermal comfort [51]. Lam, et al. [50] compared thermal sensations of visitors who  
200 experienced heatwave conditions with those visitors under non-heatwave conditions, indicating the  
201 possible influence of thermal expectation. Furthermore, Lam, et al. [48] investigated the inter-daily  
202 variation of thermal perception before and after a heatwave. The results of the above studies contribute  
203 to the informed decision-making process for better management of recreational places, where the sites  
204 are frequently visited by tourists across Australia. These studies also promote a better understanding  
205 of the position of urban parks and gardens in the provision of human thermal comfort. The effects of  
206 urban design and elements in outdoor conditions have been the focus of various comfort-related studies  
207 [75-80].

208 Another study in Melbourne specifically focused on the impact of contextual factors on human-place-  
209 weather relationship in an educational precinct [44-46]. The results proved that there are multiple non-  
210 thermal factors that can modify the way outdoor users perceive comfort in outdoor spaces. Based on  
211 this result, it was suggested that current thermal comfort assessment methods are inadequate.

### 212 **3.2. Target population**

213 The reviewed studies involved collecting comfort data using participants' self-report judgment about  
214 outdoor thermal conditions (Table 2). The sample size of these studies ranged from 100 respondents  
215 [58] to 3241 respondents [50, 53]. Different outdoor places' users were considered in the reviewed  
216 studies. Public places' users were the most frequently used sample [54, 58-61], followed by  
217 holidaymakers and tourist [38, 50, 51], as well as university students and staff [17, 43, 60]. In four

218 studies a distinction was made between local and overseas space users [44, 51, 59, 60] and their thermal  
219 responses were separately reported. In terms of gender frequency distribution, only several studies  
220 reported such a distribution as identified in Table 2 [44, 46, 49-51, 60]. It is clear from Table 2 that the  
221 samples in these studies were characterised by unbalanced ratios between genders. However, this  
222 gender ratio could be relevant to the actual representation of the targeted population. Various findings  
223 were reported in relation to the outdoor thermal comfort perception for different gender. Shooshtarian  
224 and Ridley [46] reported an insignificant correlation between gender and thermal perception. The  
225 authors added that both genders reported similar thermal perception and maintained this pattern  
226 throughout the study period. However, there was a significant gender difference in clothing choices.  
227 Opposite results were reported by Lam, et al. [51], as their study revealed that female visitors generally  
228 felt hotter than male visitors (higher mean thermal sensation) when the air temperature was 24.2 °C to  
229 40.6 °C. However, there was no significant difference between the clothing worn by the different  
230 genders. These results were also in line with Kenawy [60], who found a significant association between  
231 gender and thermal sensation votes for both summer and winter seasons. The study also reported that  
232 female respondents were less tolerant of heat and cold stress, as they were having higher mean thermal  
233 sensation vote in both summer and winter.

### 234 **3.3. Data collection methods**

#### 235 *3.3.1. Questionnaire survey*

236 The reviewed studies used a structured interview to collect data human place relationship. The data  
237 collected was generally grouped into four categories: personal details (e.g. age, gender, status of  
238 residency, clothing, position/activity), thermal perceptions (i.e. thermal sensation, thermal preference,  
239 thermal acceptance, overall comfort), thermal adaptive strategies, and place-related enquires (e.g.  
240 usage pattern and exposure before the survey). In Table 3, a summary of the items included in each of  
241 the four categories is presented. The number of questions in the questionnaires ranged from 3 to 14

242 questions. Except for the study in Caloundra, all other studies enquired demographic details, among  
243 which the main questions were the age group and gender.

244 There was a great variation in the structure of the questionnaire used in these studies, as it was aligned  
245 with the aim and focus of each study. However, certain sections remained constant in the administered  
246 questionnaires. For thermal perception scales, all studies employed the ASHRAE thermal sensation  
247 scale [4] with seven choices (i.e. cold (-3), cool (-2), slightly cool (-1), neutral (0), slightly warm (+1),  
248 warm (+2) and hot (+3)); except two that used its 9 point version [32, 58].

249 The cultural background as an indication of acclimatisation was also considered in some studies [46,  
250 51, 58, 60]. Kenawy and Elkadi [58] compared the thermal comfort of respondents from various  
251 cultural backgrounds. Later, Kenawy [60] and Kenawy and Elkadi [59] extended this comparison to  
252 include the other categories. Lam, et al. [51] also examined the difference in the thermal comfort  
253 perceptions for visitors from Australia, Europe, North America and China. These studies found that  
254 acclimatization, thermal history and expectation would likely contribute to differences in thermal  
255 perception among respondents from various cultural backgrounds and climate zones.

256 Different studies use surveys to explore people's thermal adaptive strategies. These adaptive strategies  
257 include changes in clothing [48, 50, 51], personal accessories (e.g. hat, umbrella) and behavioural  
258 adjustment, such as the length of stay outdoor and choices to move to shaded places [42]. Thermal  
259 perception in different seasons and study sites in the same city can also be used as an indicator of  
260 thermal adaptation [17, 43]. Other adaptive strategies are examined by asking respondents' frequency  
261 of checking weather forecasts, as well as their subjective perception of urban site characteristics,  
262 including greenery and water features [57]. Overall, choices of thermal adaptive strategies depend on  
263 place character and seasons, which can inform outdoor space management.

264

Reference	Personal details	Thermal perception scale	Place-related parameters	Thermal adaptive strategies	Number of questions
Shooshtarian et al. [41-43, 45-47]	Gender, age group, activity, clothing, residency status, personal accessories, companionship,	<b>Thermal acceptance</b> (ASHRAE 7 points) <b>Thermal preference</b> (McIntyre 3 points) <b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points) <b>Overall comfort</b> (7 points) <b>Bedford preference</b> (3 points)	<i>What brings you here (in this particular outdoor place)?</i> Having a break/ resting, getting fresh air, playing passage to another place, change of environment, having lunch/snack, read/write, meeting/waiting for someone, others (please specify) <i>Which of the following statements about this particular place is close to your opinion:</i> I agree/ disagree/ have no idea about the establishment of more natural green spaces in this place <i>Which feature(s) do you find attractive in this place?</i> Plants and exposure to nature, an environment with better ambient conditions, the beauty of the place compared to other environments, convenient access and closeness to my school/workplace, others (please specify) <i>How often do you come to/pass this place?</i> Daily, several times/week, a few times/week, a few times/ month, rarely, first time <i>Where were you 15 minutes prior to this survey?</i> Indoor non-ventilated space, indoor- conditioned space, outdoor-under shade, outdoor- exposed to sunlight <i>If you were outdoors, how long have you spent in this particular outdoor place?</i> Less than 5 minutes, 5-10 minutes, 10-30 minutes, more than 30 minutes <i>Did you check the weather forecasts today before leaving home?</i> yes/no	<i>What measures would you take to feel more comfortable?</i> Use umbrella/hat, move to shade/sunlight, reduce/add clothing, no change, others (please specify)	14
Lam et al. [48-52]	Gender, age group, activity, clothing, residency status	<b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points) <b>Thermal preference</b> (McIntyre 3 points)	<i>For the last 5-10 minutes were you mainly in</i> outdoor, exposed (in the sun), outdoor, shaded (including tree shade), indoor (no air conditioning), or air-conditioned? <i>What is your main reason for visiting the garden? (Choose one option)</i> relaxation, garden's scenery, time with family/friends, enjoy outdoors exercise, view plant species, other reasons (please specify).	<i>In which garden location would you like more shade?</i>	9
Kenawy and Elkadi [58]	Age, gender and cultural background	<b>Thermal sensation</b> (9 points) <b>Thermal preference</b> (McIntyre 3 points) <b>Perception of individual weather parameters</b> (air temperature, humidity, wind speed and solar intensity)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Kenawy and Elkadi [17]	Age, gender, clothing, activities	<b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points)	Time of response, the location of respondents in the place, and sky conditions	Not specified in questionnaire. However, thermal adaptation was indicated by difference in thermal perception in various	N/A

			<b>Thermal preference</b> (McIntyre 3 points)		seasons and survey locations (public square vs university campus)	
Sharifi et al. [56]	Age, activity		<b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points)	- Questions on frequency of necessary, optional and social activities - Thermal sensation vote across different activities - Outdoor activity choices in different thermal conditions - Effective climate factors in outdoor attendance	- A question about weather information updating - A question about spatial preferences during heat stress conditions - A question on heat-health awareness	11
Sharifi [57]	Gender, age, activity		<b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points)	<i>How often do you attend public spaces in the Adelaide metropolitan area?</i> Daily, two-three times/ week, once a week, once-twice/ month, rarely, never	<i>How often do you check the weather predictions (from radio, TV, phone apps, etc)?</i> Several times/day, daily, once a week, only when going outdoors, two-times/week, never <i>Which feature of visited public spaces did attract you during last year very hot days?</i> Open grass cover, open-air hard landscape, shade from tree canopies/temporary structures/buildings, outdoor air conditioners, water features, shopping /dining/sport/swimming facilities, social events.	11
Loughnan et al. [61]	NS		<b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points)	N/A	N/A	N/A
Spagnolo and de Dear [38]	Gender, activity, clothing		<b>Thermal sensation</b> (ASHRAE 7 points) Thermal preference (McIntyre 3 points)	N/A	N/A	5
de Freitas [32]	Gender		<b>Thermal sensation</b> (9 points) Thermal pleasantness (5 points)	N/A	N/A	3

265 **Table 3. Structure of the questionnaires used in thermal comfort studies in Australia**

266



267       3.3.2. *Measurement and instrumentation*

268 Table 4 summarizes the data collection methods, devices used and analytical models for  
269 outdoor thermal comfort studies in Australia. Most studies stated the model of the instrument  
270 used, except for Loughnan, et al. [61] and Kenawy and Elkadi [58]. Although these studies  
271 used different models of weather stations, many of them measured the basic parameters for  
272 thermal comfort, including air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and mean radiant  
273 temperature or solar radiation. Most studies used either PET, UTCI or OUT\_SET\* in their  
274 analysis. Rayman Pro was usually used to calculate the thermal comfort indices. The AT is  
275 another common index used when wind speed or  $T_{mrt}$  data are unavailable. The measurement  
276 height of sensors is generally around 1.1 m to 1.5 m, which corresponds to the centre of gravity  
277 of the human body [34]. Notably, Kenawy [60] and Kenawy and Elkadi [17, 59] used a mobile  
278 cart to measure meteorological variables at different heights, for example at 0.1, 0.6, 1.1 and  
279 1.7m above the floor respectively (representing lying, sitting and standing people).

280 All the reviewed studies measured air temperature and relative humidity. The measurement  
281 probes measuring both variables were reported to be placed inside radiation shield in three  
282 studies. Five studies did not use radiation shield, whereas seven studies did not mention  
283 whether the probes were shielded or not. It would be good to put temperature sensor in some  
284 kinds of shield to protect it from direct solar radiation loading. However, in direct sunlight with  
285 little wind, the temperature inside the shield might be higher than the actual ambient  
286 temperature [81]. This radiative forcing on sensor-shield system could lead to systematic error  
287 in air temperature measurement, which might require correction [81, 82].

288 Wind speed measurement can produce issues if the anemometer is not sensitive to low wind  
289 speed, such as two-dimensional cup anemometers (used in six studies) and impeller-type  
290 anemometers (used in six studies). In outdoor settings where wind direction varies greatly,

291 omni-directional anemometer (used by Shooshtarian and Rajagopalan [43], Kenawy and  
292 Elkadi [17] and Spagnolo and de Dear [38]) would be preferred over one-directional  
293 anemometer. Alternatively, vane mount on a tripod can be used to change the instrument  
294 direction to face the prevailing wind (e.g. Kestrel portable weather stations used in Lam, et al.  
295 [51]).

296 Those studies that estimated  $T_{mrt}$  mostly used the globe thermometers method, but the diameter  
297 of globes used varied. For example, past studies have used 150-mm black globe [41-43, 45-50,  
298 52], 40-mm black globe [54, 55], 38-mm black globe [17, 60] and 25-mm black globe  
299 (calibrated against 150-mm black globe) [48-50, 52]. In other outdoor studies [83, 84], 40-mm  
300 grey globe thermometers (RAL 7001) were often used instead of the 150-mm black globe. The  
301 globe diameter will likely affect its response time. Ideally, the  $T_{mrt}$  estimated through  $T_g$  from  
302 globe thermometers should be calibrated with integral radiation measurements at each study  
303 location (e.g. using three net radiometers measuring three-dimensional radiation fields) [34] In  
304 this way, the accuracy of  $T_{mrt}$  calculated from globe thermometers can be improved. As the  
305 three net radiometers method can be expensive, Spagnolo and de Dear [38] suggested using  
306 radiation sensors measuring two hemispheres, one facing upward and the other downward.  
307 They adopted a  $T_{mrt}$  formula consisted of direct, diffuse, reflected short-wave radiation and  
308 infrared fluxes. This particular method can simplify the measurement procedure and produce  
309 more accurate  $T_{mrt}$  measurement than the black globe method.

Reference	Devices used	Index used	Software used
Shooshtarian et al. [41-43, 45-47]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH, V<sub>a</sub></b> : Weather station - Testo 480 IAQ Pro <b>T<sub>g</sub></b> : 150-mm diameter black globe thermometer <b>S<sub>r</sub></b> : Silicon Smart HOBO S-LIB-M003 sensor <b>T<sub>s</sub></b> : HOBO Pendant UA-001-64	PET, OUT_SET*, UTCI	Rayman Pro 2.1
Lam et al. [48-52]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH</b> : Vaisala HMP155A Probe <b>V<sub>a</sub></b> : Met One 014A-L anemometer <b>T<sub>g</sub></b> : 150-mm diameter black globe thermometer with Omega 44031 precision thermistor inside <b>S<sub>r</sub></b> : Apogee SP-212 Amplified Pyranometer Kestrel 4400 Heat Stress trackers were also used to measure <b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH, V<sub>a</sub></b> , and <b>T<sub>g</sub></b> (25-mm black globe)	UTCI, AT	Rayman Pro 2.1
Sharifi et al. [54, 55]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH</b> : EXTECH RHT20 <b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH, V<sub>a</sub></b> : Kestrel 3000 and Kestrel 5500 <b>T<sub>g</sub></b> : EXTECH HT30 (40-mm black globe)	UTCI, PET, SET, OUT_SET*, AT, aAT, aPMV	Rayman Pro 2017, UTCI calculator on <a href="http://www.utci.org/">http://www.utci.org/</a> , SET values estimated based on regression analysis between AT and UTCI
Sharifi et al. [40]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH, V<sub>a</sub></b> : EXTECH RHT20, Kestrel 4000	AT	Not specified
Kenawy and Elkadi [17, 60]	The Mobile Architecture and Built Environment Laboratory (Mabel) thermal comfort carts, with Campbell Scientific CR23X data logger <b>T<sub>a</sub></b> : OMEGA,44032 linear thermistors <b>RH</b> : HyCal integrated humidity sensor (IH-3605-B) <b>V<sub>a</sub></b> : Digital TSI anemometers with omnidirectional hot wire type of anemometer probes <b>T<sub>g</sub></b> : OMEGA,44032 linear thermistors inside 38-mm diameter black table-tennis ball	PET	Rayman version 1.2
Loughnan et al [61]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH, V<sub>a</sub>, T<sub>g</sub>, S<sub>r</sub></b> : portable weather station (model not specified)	Air temperature	Thermal comfort calculator
Kenawy and Elkadi [58]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH, V<sub>a</sub>, S<sub>r</sub></b> : portable weather station (model not specified)	PMV	Not specified
Spagnolo and de Dear, [38]	<b>T<sub>a</sub></b> : Omega 44032 linear composite thermistor <b>RH</b> : HyCal IH-3605B solid state hygrometer <b>V<sub>a</sub></b> : TSI 8475-150 omnidirectional heated-sphere anemometer, Mini-Rimco 3-cup photochopper anemometer <b>K ↓, K ↑, D ↓</b> : LiCor LI-200SA Silicon pyranometer <b>L ↓, L ↑</b> : Eko MS-201 pyrgeometer	PET, OUT_SET*, PT, TOP, ET	WinComf© software (ET* & OUT_SET*), Source code from Jendritzky and Staiger (PT), Program from Peter Hoeppe (PET)
de Freitas [32]	<b>T<sub>a</sub>, RH</b> : aspirated Assmann psychrometer <b>T<sub>s</sub></b> : Ultrakust Type 4444-1 equipped with a T <sub>s</sub> sensing <b>V<sub>a</sub></b> : Casella cup anemometer <b>S<sub>r</sub></b> : Kipp, Moll thermopile	Skin Temperature Energy Balance Index (STEBIDEX), Heat Budget Index (HEBIDEX)	Using equations presented in the paper

310 **Note:** T<sub>a</sub>: air temperature (°C), RH: relative humidity (%), V<sub>a</sub>: wind speed (m/s), T<sub>g</sub>: Globe temperature (°C), T<sub>s</sub>: surface  
311 temperature (°C), T<sub>mrt</sub>: mean radiant temperature (°C), S<sub>r</sub>: Solar radiation (W/m<sup>2</sup>), K ↓, K ↑: Global shortwave radiation  
312 (W/m<sup>2</sup>), D ↓: Diffuse shortwave radiation (W/m<sup>2</sup>), L ↓, L ↑: Longwave radiation (W/m<sup>2</sup>)

313 **Table 4. Summary of characteristics of data collection methods used in thermal comfort**  
314 **studies**

315        3.3.3. *Observation*

316 Past Australian studies have examined the impact of urban morphology (e.g. aspect ratio and  
317 street orientation) [85, 86], tree shade [85-88] and water-sensitive urban design [89] on outdoor  
318 thermal comfort, using thermal indices such as PET and UTCI. However, these studies do not  
319 involve human subjects in their research design. For the purpose of this review, we focus on  
320 observation studies where researchers stand aside and observe how people interact with  
321 outdoor built environments.

322 Apart from thermal comfort surveys and microclimate measurement, direct observation is  
323 another method to investigate people's activity pattern associated with different physical  
324 attributes of spaces and outdoor thermal conditions. In direct observation studies, it is not  
325 necessary to interfere with subjects during observation. This method could lead to accurate  
326 activity pattern results because people's behaviour might change when researchers involve the  
327 subjects in their investigation.

328 Previously, the relationship between outdoor thermal conditions (e.g. UTCI) and pedestrians'  
329 outdoor neutral thermal threshold ( $NTT_{out}$ ) was examined in Adelaide, Sydney and Melbourne  
330 [40, 54-56, 90]. Pedestrian activity patterns could be necessary (e.g. walking and working),  
331 optional (e.g. standing and sitting) and social (e.g. group activities) [40]. The upper threshold  
332 of outdoor thermal neutrality was 25 °C, 26 °C and 30 °C for Melbourne, Sydney and Adelaide,  
333 respectively [55]. In these three cities, people were still able to maintain thermal comfort by  
334 changing clothing and activity rate when UTCI was 22 °C– 34 °C [54]. However, UTCI beyond  
335 34 °C saw a decline in optional and social activities, and the zero-activity threshold was reached  
336 at UTCI = 48 °C (i.e. critical thermal threshold -  $CTT_{out}$ ), indicating the limit of behavioural

337 heat adaptation [54]. Both  $NTT_{out}$  and  $CTT_{out}$  illustrates the level of heat resilience in urban  
338 open space, which has an important implication for urban planning.

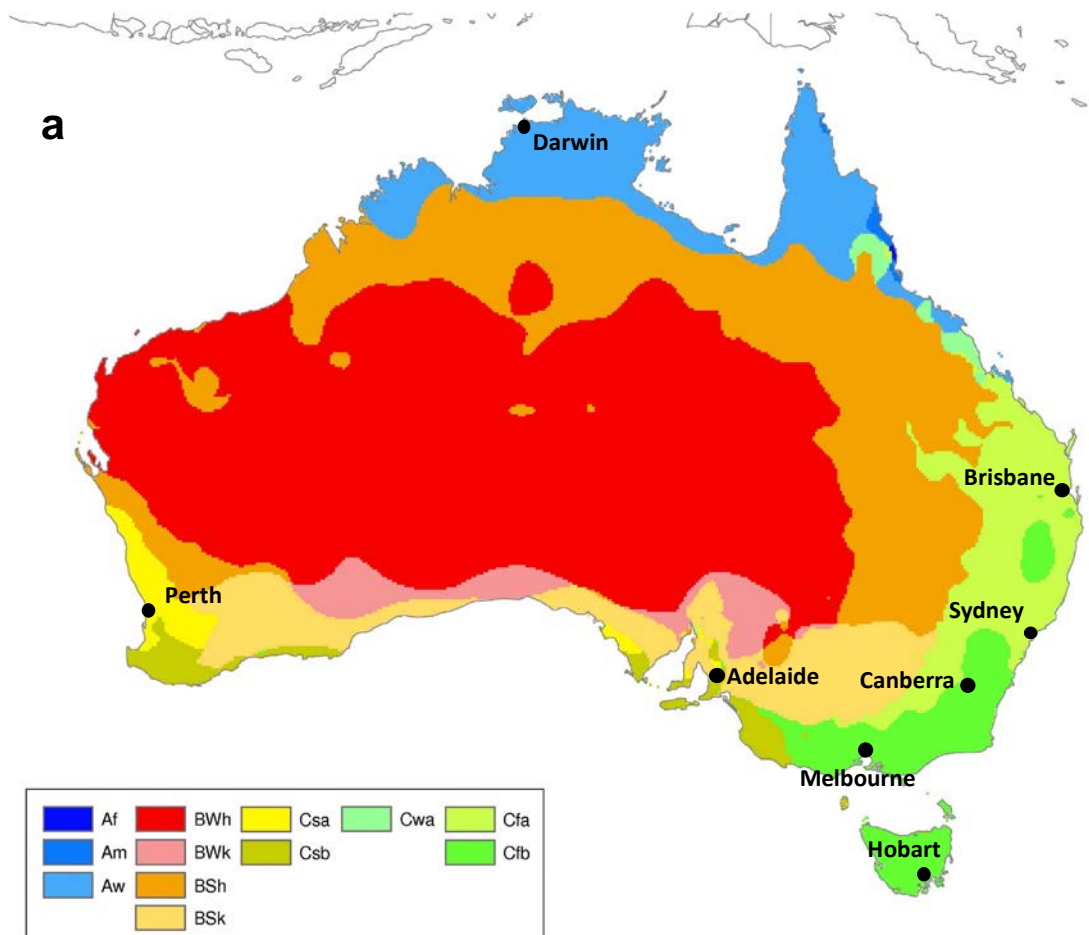
339 In another Melbourne study, the usage pattern characteristics in different seasons were  
340 examined by counting the number of people and their activities every 30 minutes, together with  
341 mobile weather station measurement [42]. They found that Melbourne people tend to modify  
342 their usage patterns and behaviours depending on seasonal weather conditions. The frequency  
343 of visit, length of stay outdoor, type of visitors and activities, as well as adaptive thermal  
344 measures all differed between spring, summer and autumn. Moreover, the influence of weather  
345 conditions on people's usage pattern was more evident in autumn. This influence of seasonal  
346 change on usage pattern could be due to changes in people's thermal expectation and thermal  
347 preference [43].

348 Apart from meteorological conditions, the type of public space also affects pedestrian activity  
349 patterns. In particular, Sharifi, et al. [40, p. 1833] defined heat resilience as 'the ability of the  
350 space to support its normal activities when experiencing out-of-comfort temperatures'. In  
351 observing the user pattern of different urban space, the heat resilience of urban green space was  
352 higher than other public space, and the hard landscape was largely avoided by pedestrians  
353 during heat stress conditions [56]. In brief, outdoor activity pattern can be used to assess  
354 people's thermal adaptation behaviour and preference of place usage in different outdoor  
355 thermal conditions.

#### 356 **3.4. Study areas and methods for thermal comfort assessment**

357 Past Australian studies have used both microclimate observation and surveys to examine  
358 outdoor thermal comfort. More than half of these studies focused on Melbourne, Victoria  
359 (Köppen Cfb); several studies focused on Adelaide, South Australia (Köppen Csa) and Sydney,

360 New South Wales (Köppen Cfa) (Figure 1). One study was in Caloundra, Queensland (Köppen  
361 Csb), 90 km north of Brisbane. Table 5 summarizes the neutral PET or UTCI range in different  
362 outdoor thermal comfort survey studies in Australia. Most studies used linear regression  
363 analysis between thermal indices and mean thermal sensation votes (MTSV) to derive the  
364 neutral range of thermal indices. This neutral thermal index range reveals the thermal comfort  
365 range in different study sites and cities, which is determined by solving the linear regression  
366 equation with MTSV of  $\pm 0.5$  [17]. Most past Australian studies used PET and UTCI to derive  
367 this thermal neutral range, but some studies only used air temperature [61]. In another Sydney  
368 study, the OUT\_SET\* threshold limit values are shown to differ between people with different  
369 metabolic rates (spectator: 1.2 mets, tourist: 2.2 mets and athlete: 9 mets) [91]. All studies  
370 examined the thermal neutral range during summer, and only a few studies investigated the  
371 thermal neutral range in winter [17, 38], spring and autumn [45]. The winter thermal neutral  
372 range was higher than that of summer in both Melbourne [45] and Sydney studies [38].  
373 Melbourne people's preferred wind speed was also higher in summer (4.51 m/s) and spring  
374 (2.04 m/s) compared with autumn (1.25 m/s) [41]. The thermal neutral PET range in Melbourne  
375 botanic gardens [53] is wider than the Federation Square and university campuses in Melbourne  
376 [17, 45], suggesting that people are more likely to feel neutral in urban green space. Our  
377 analysis shows that even within the same climate zone, there is an intra-urban difference in  
378 thermal comfort requirement depending on the site characteristics.



379



380

381 **Figure 1a) Australia capital cities according to Köppen climate zones [adapted from 92];**  
 382 **b) number of outdoor thermal comfort studies according to the states of Australia. Note**  
 383 **that some studies have multiple study sites.**

Study site/reference	Köppen climate zone	Neutral PET/UTCI range (°C) (MTSV ± 0.5)			Analytical model
		Summer	Winter	Other	
Federation Square and Deakin Burwood campus, Melbourne [17]	Cfb	17-22.9 (PET)	20-28.4 (PET)	N/A	Linear regression (LR) MTSV vs PET bn (0.5 °C)
Education Precinct (RMIT University),	Cfb	16.5-24.5 (PET)	N/A	14.9-23.6 (PET, Spring)	Linear regression Spring: $y=0.1149PET-2.2116$

Melbourne [43, 45]				21.5-28.7 (PET, Autumn)	Summer: $y = 0.1251PET - 2.5615$ Autumn: $y = 0.14PET - 3.5144$
Mawson Lake, Adelaide [61]	Csa	25-30.6 (air temperature)	N/A	N/A	Not specified
Melbourne (location unspecified) [61]	Cfb	19.9 - 23.2 (air temperature)	N/A	N/A	Not specified
Melbourne Garden, Melbourne [53]	Cfb	6.8*-21.1 (PET) 11.2-23.2 (UTCI)	N/A	N/A	Linear regression $Y = 0.0699PET - 0.9783$ $Y = 0.0836UTCI - 1.4389$
Cranbourne Garden, Melbourne [53]	Cfb	10.7-27.7 (PET) 14.6-24.1 (UTCI)	N/A	N/A	Linear regression $Y = 0.0589PET - 1.1319$ $Y = 0.1004UTCI - 2.205$
Melbourne and Cranbourne Garden, Melbourne [49]	Cfb	14.6-24.1 (UTCI)	N/A	N/A	Linear regression $Y = 0.1047UTCI - 2.0257$
Semi-outdoor locations, Sydney [38]	Cfa	21.5-24.0 (PET)	26.4-32.4 (PET)	N/A	Probit analysis

384 \* The PET linear regression line does not touch  $MTSV = -0.5$ , survey results indicate that  $MTSV = -0.5$   
385 reached at  $13\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  PET.

386 **Table 5 A comparison of modified neutral PET/UTCI range for various study sites in**  
387 **Australia**

388 **4. Discussion**

389 **4.1. Need to develop a guideline for thermal comfort studies**

390 Currently, the assessment of outdoor thermal comfort follows the universal standards [4, 93,  
391 94] that are designed for indoor conditions. However, their adequacy for outdoor conditions  
392 and certain contexts are challenged by several researchers. Researchers believe that a universal  
393 standard might not be as useful as a local thermal comfort that has the luxury of accounting  
394 contextual factors in the assessment of thermal comfort conditions. As a result, developing and  
395 compliance by local standards is becoming more favoured relative to a universal standard due  
396 to our improved understanding of the impact of contextual factors and thermal adaptation on  
397 the perception of outdoor thermal comfort [95].



398 With the increase in the number of studies investigating outdoor thermal comfort conditions in  
399 Australia, there is a huge potential to develop a local thermal comfort standard for outdoor  
400 settings. Such a standard can be used as a benchmark against which property managers can  
401 measure up thermal comfort conditions of their managed outdoor spaces.

402 Developing a local thermal comfort standard seems to be in direct relation with adopting a  
403 standardised assessing procedure. Comfort data that is derived from the application of uniform  
404 assessing procedure is generally more reliable and can provide a higher level of confidence  
405 about comfort conditions of various thermal environments. The need for a standardised  
406 assessing procedure was first suggested by Johansson, et al. [34] and was followed by other  
407 researchers in different contextual conditions [96]. To date, most of the efforts in this respect  
408 have been geared towards the development of thermal comfort index such as Mediterranean  
409 Outdoor Comfort Index (MOCI) [97] and modified physiologically equivalent temperature  
410 (mPET) [98].

#### 411 **4.2. Gaps, limitations and future directions**

412 Past Australian studies have made some advancement in how different factors affect outdoor  
413 thermal comfort, including culture, demography and urban configurations. However, several  
414 gaps are identified in the literature that warrant further study. First, certain regions and  
415 ethnicities in Australia are not well-studied. Second, the timescale and mechanism of outdoor  
416 physiological adaptation need further research, particularly in cases of transient thermal  
417 comfort. Third, the mechanism behind the interaction between thermal perception and other  
418 human senses (e.g. visual, acoustic) requires greater understanding, together with the influence  
419 of psychological adaptation. Fourth, few Australian studies have used qualitative methods to  
420 assess outdoor thermal comfort. Future research directions to address these gaps are discussed  
421 below.

422 Australia encompasses many climate zones, but for the most part Australian studies focused  
423 on Victoria, South Australia and New South Wales. Outdoor thermal comfort studies are  
424 missing in several major cities and climate zones in Australia, including Perth and Brisbane.  
425 Many studies also focus on capital cities in each state and territory. Regional studies (including  
426 rural areas) that had different urban development patterns may warrant different comfort level,  
427 which requires further study.

428 Australia is proud of its multicultural society, and as a result besides climate zones, future  
429 studies should also examine the differences in comfort requirements between different ethnic  
430 groups ;for instance, aboriginal people. In addition to European ethnicities, comfort  
431 requirements of Asians and the Aboriginals are also worth studying. It is because differences  
432 in thermal history, acclimatisation, cultural background and body could affect thermal  
433 perceptions among these groups.

434 Previous Australian studies have examined how physiological variables affect indoor thermal  
435 comfort [99, 100]. However, limited outdoor studies have used the same approach to  
436 investigate physiological heat adaptation and their impact on outdoor thermal comfort. The  
437 lack of such studies is possibly due to the cost and difficulty to measure physiological variables  
438 in transient outdoor environment. Recently, the University of New South Wales researchers  
439 from Project Coolbit has combined physiological measurement from Fitbit and thermal  
440 comfort survey to assess spatio-temporal distribution of outdoor thermal comfort [101, 102].  
441 Future studies can continue to examine whether the timescale of heat acclimatization and  
442 thermal comfort differ for people who exercise outdoor.

443 Transient thermal comfort has gained interest in outdoor thermal comfort research in recent  
444 years [103-105]. It would be interesting to adopt the framework of alliesthesia [106] to examine

445 the thermal comfort of people who transit from indoor environment to semi-outdoor or outdoor  
446 settings. Alliesthesia refers to the phenomenon that ‘a given stimulus can induce a pleasant or  
447 unpleasant sensation depending on the subject’s internal state’ [107, p. 1107]. During summer,  
448 any expectation of the prospect of a cooler environment could induce thermal comfort [38].  
449 Moreover, researchers can use transect data to obtain transient thermal comfort [108]. In certain  
450 shopping districts, pedestrians can move in and out of air-conditioned shopping malls, which  
451 means they might not be able to reach the minimum 30 minutes residency time suggested by  
452 Krüger, et al. [109]. Indeed, it would be interesting to carry out studies under such conditions,  
453 thereby evaluating the time-exposure effect on the prediction bias of thermal sensation.

454 To quantify the effect of urban morphology characteristics on outdoor thermal comfort. Recent  
455 studies have also adopted local climate zone (LCZ) schemes [103, 110]. LCZ schemes reflect  
456 built type (low-rise to high-rise) and land cover type (e.g. vegetation and water) of a  
457 neighbourhood [111]. Through the LCZ approach, it is possible to derive the spatial  
458 characteristics that have the main influence on outdoor thermal comfort [110]. Despite these  
459 advantages, there remain some concerns about whether applying the LCZ concept at the micro-  
460 scale is valid, given that the source area for outdoor thermal comfort and local-scale approaches  
461 are fundamentally different in terms of influences for all the relevant climate variables. Other  
462 study limitation includes limited samples in certain LCZ classes. LCZ classification becomes  
463 problematic when study areas have diversified visual outlook and heterogenous urban  
464 morphology. In such areas, further study is required to understand the influence of site-related  
465 physiological, psychological, social and meteorological factors on outdoor thermal comfort, as  
466 well as seasonal differences. To overcome issues related to LCZ application to human scale,  
467 researchers have explored alternative methods by developing miniaturized weather stations

468 which could be directly worn by pedestrian [103, 105, 112-114] or set on bicycles [89, 115,  
469 116] or cars [117, 118].

470 In an urban environment, there is a complex interplay between thermal comfort and multi-  
471 sensory stimulus. Recent studies have focused on how perceived environmental quality (such  
472 as visual, acoustic, air quality and olfactory) interacts with thermal perception [119, 120]. Apart  
473 from physiological reasons, the phenomenological view of embodiment and multi-sensory  
474 perception can also be a possible factor [121]. Over similar UTCI range, people's thermal  
475 sensation was shown to be higher at higher incoming solar radiation [52], indicating a potential  
476 interaction between people's visual comfort and thermal perception. Perceived acoustic  
477 environment and aesthetic quality also influenced outdoor thermal perception, suggesting  
478 possible psychological pathways in explaining how people perceive outdoor thermal comfort  
479 [119, 120]. Current studies mainly reveal the association between perceived environmental  
480 quality and thermal comfort, but more studies are necessary to understand the underlying  
481 mechanism of such association.

482 Most Australian studies have used quantitative approaches to assess outdoor thermal comfort,  
483 whereas few studies have employed qualitative approaches. Future studies could adopt  
484 qualitative approaches to assess outdoor thermal comfort, which shed light on the spatial  
485 attributes of urban places and people's synesthetic experience of these places [122]. This  
486 subjective experience can potentially influence people's thermal perception, which is difficult  
487 to capture through quantitative methods.

488 Direct observation has the advantage of not interfering with subjects, but it could have selection  
489 bias. For instance, people who choose to come out during extreme heat conditions might be  
490 more heat resilient and not representing the general public. Future direct observation studies

491 can record people’s adaptive behaviour, such as the use of hat and umbrella, as well as gender  
492 and age differences in outdoor activity patterns. Researchers could also develop choice  
493 experiments with respect to thermal comfort, particularly on how microclimate-related stress  
494 influences outdoor space users’ behaviour, such as the length of stay at one location. This result  
495 could potentially inform how much energy is ‘wasted’ because people choose to spend their  
496 time indoor in air-conditioned buildings or cars [54], rather than walking or using public transit  
497 to their destination. This resulted in waste heat from air-conditioning that further exacerbates  
498 urban heat island effects. By promoting the heat resilience in a public space, it achieves the co-  
499 benefits of more liveable neighbourhood, more healthy population and less energy  
500 consumption.

501 Other examples of qualitative assessment methods include “thermal walk” [123], “cognitive  
502 microclimate map” [122] and “photographic comparison” [124]. Thermal walk uses thermal  
503 notation to assess changes in people’s thermal perception and reasons associated with those  
504 changes along a transect [122]. In addition, cognitive maps provide a general picture of  
505 people’s thermal perception in a neighbourhood, thereby highlighting places that elicit long-  
506 term thermal discomfort. By assessing the visual aspect of photo and spatial characteristics of  
507 places shown in photos, photographic comparison presents a complementary visual appraisal  
508 approach in outdoor thermal comfort survey [124]. In brief, employing both quantitative and  
509 qualitative approaches can provide a more in-depth understanding on people’s perception of  
510 thermal comfort in outdoor settings.

## 511 **5. Conclusion**

512 This study presented a critical review of outdoor thermal comfort within urban context in  
513 Australia. The focus on Australian context derived from the rapid urbanisation and population

514 growth in its capital cities, as well as the presence of severe heat waves that are considered as  
515 one of its major natural disasters. The selected reviewed papers resulted from two stages. The  
516 first stage involved a search in six credible academic databases. Publications identified from  
517 this stage were then filtered and those focusing on simulation techniques only and those  
518 disregarding thermal comfort indices were excluded, resulting in 25 publications. From the  
519 search, it was clear that outdoor thermal comfort studies in Australia are limited which exposes  
520 the need for additional research. Most of the selected studies focused on urban space within  
521 Melbourne and Sydney having temperate oceanic Köppen Cfb, and humid subtropical climate  
522 Köppen Cfa, respectively. Few studies investigated thermal comfort in South Australia and  
523 Queensland classified as hot-summer Mediterranean climate Köppen Csa, and warm-summer  
524 Mediterranean climate Köppen Csb, respectively. The main studies in Sydney focused on  
525 determining the contextual based thermal neutrality using different thermal indices. The  
526 outdoor activity choice under different meteorological conditions during summer were also  
527 examined in Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide. In Melbourne, multiple studies focused on  
528 identifying thermal comfort requirements. These studies used both subjective thermal comfort  
529 assessment and objective meteorological field observation and used the PET or UTCI as the  
530 thermal index to report thermal comfort data. Direct observation was used to identify the impact  
531 of seasons and urban characteristics on usage patterns, showing that changes in activity choices  
532 reflect people's limit for outdoor thermal adaptation. The impact of contextual factors on the  
533 human-places-weather relationship was also investigated in educational precincts. Several  
534 studies investigated the effect of climate and cultural background on outdoor thermal comfort  
535 perception, including the thermal requirement of short-term visitors. Thermal adaptive  
536 strategies were examined in most Melbourne studies.

537 The selected studies used microclimate monitoring and questionnaire surveys in order to collect  
538 meteorological conditions and humans' perception of outdoor thermal environments. The  
539 structure of the questionnaire varied according to the main aim of the studies. However, the  
540 main data collected involved demographic details, thermal perceptions, thermal adaptive  
541 strategies and place related enquires. Most of the studies adopted the 7-points ASHRAE scale  
542 to determine thermal perceptions. The environmental variables recorded in the reviewed  
543 studies, included air temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, mean radiant temperature and  
544 solar radiation., PET, UTCI and OUT\_SET\* were commonly used as thermal comfort indices.  
545 Direct observation is another method that was used in some of the studies to investigate the  
546 users' activity pattern within urban places. The observation focused on noticing users' activity  
547 and usage patterns, as well as various thermal adaptation strategies. The neutral PET/UTCI  
548 ranges was calculated by different reviewed studies, using different analysis, including linear  
549 regression and probit analysis.

550 From reviewing the outdoor thermal studies in Australia, different recommendations are  
551 suggested. Firstly, it is necessary to develop a local standard for assessing thermal comfort.  
552 This is because adopting universal standards is found to be limiting the impact of contextual  
553 factors and thermal adaptation on outdoor thermal comfort perception. Having such a local  
554 standard, at least for different climatic zones, could provide higher levels of confidence in  
555 assessing thermal comfort conditions. Secondly, further research is needed to cover the regions  
556 and ethnicities that were not considered in the existing literature. Thirdly, more psychological  
557 thermal adaptation analysis and studies are suggested especially in transient thermal conditions  
558 as the Australian urban design patterns advocate such spaces. Lastly, qualitative analysis is  
559 recommended to be added in future studies. The interaction between perceived environmental

560 quality (e.g. visual and acoustic environment) and outdoor thermal comfort can be further  
561 examined

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