

How to organize Green Nature Based Solutions in Cities for Elderly People and those with Chronic Conditions

The aim of this study is to explore the urban organization of nature-based solutions that are designed to protect older people and those living with chronic conditions. The city's layout is examined in relation to the varying abilities of these social groups to reach key locations – such as those required for daily life – during a heatwave. While general European policies do protect populations from urban climate change, they often fail to assess the most vulnerable groups, leaving their protection to specific policies. The approach taken here is that the protection of the most vulnerable should be an integral part of planning in ordinary urban policies, rather than a separate chapter to be addressed surreptitiously. This should be incorporated at the design stage, rather than being left more to the discretion of enlightened administrations. To this end, a common clinical approach was used: the six-minute walk test, to determine the maximum distance that can be covered by an 82-year-old person with Type 2 diabetes, autonomic neuropathy (sweating difficulties and limited heat dissipation), and early-stage cataracts, which increase anxiety when moving around the city. After analyzing these conditions, we assessed how street furniture, if suitably equipped, could meet this group's needs, thereby making the city more inclusive for them. Results indicate mobility reductions of up to 40% across vulnerable cohorts, while targeted Nature-Based Solutions can reduce mean radiant temperature by up to 18°C, significantly restoring walking capacity and lowering critical thermal risk thresholds.

Keywords: urban climate, fragile population, heat wave, nature-based solutions, health determinants

Introduction

In an era defined by accelerating climate change, extreme weather events have increased in both frequency and intensity, transforming heatwaves from occasional seasonal anomalies into one of the most lethal environmental hazards of the twenty-first century (Changnon et al., 1996; IPCC, 2022). This crisis is profoundly amplified within contemporary cities due to the Urban Heat Island (UHI) phenomenon, a microclimatic modification where dense configurations of asphalt and concrete, coupled with anthropogenic heat emissions, trap solar radiation and prevent nocturnal cooling (Georgiadis, 2017; Nardino et al., 2022). As a result, urban centers experience significantly higher temperatures than their rural surroundings, turning metropolitan areas into epicenters of climate risk (McMichael, 2000; Masselot et al., 2024). Crucially, the impacts of these elevated thermal regimes are not distributed uniformly across the urban fabric (Meerow and Mitchell, 2017; Tschakert et al., 2025). Instead, extreme heat acts as a powerful threat multiplier, exposing deep-seated socioeconomic, physical, and demographic fractures by disproportionately impacting society's most

1 vulnerable populations, with the elderly and disabled at the forefront of this crisis
2 (Davies and Harwood, 2023; Chakraborty, 2025).

3 The acute vulnerability of older adults and fragile cohorts to thermal stress
4 is rooted in a complex intersection of biological degradation and social precarity
5 (Cremonini and Georgiadis, 2025; Prina et al., 2024). From a physiological
6 perspective, aging inherently diminishes the human body's capacity for
7 thermoregulation and alters thirst perception, rendering older individuals highly
8 susceptible to dehydration, heat exhaustion, and fatal heat stroke (Koppe et al.,
9 2004; De Gea Grela et al., 2024). These age-related vulnerabilities are further
10 compounded by a high prevalence of pre-existing chronic conditions—such as
11 cardiovascular, respiratory, and metabolic diseases—as well as the use of
12 medications that interfere with normal sweat production (Sisodiya et al., 2024).
13 However, biological susceptibility represents only one facet of the problem; it is
14 heavily exacerbated by social determinants of health and deep-seated inequities
15 (European Commission, 2023; Holland et al., 2024). Marginalized urban
16 residents, particularly isolated seniors, often inhabit substandard housing
17 characterized by poor insulation and lack of mechanical ventilation (Poumadère
18 et al., 2005). Financial constraints further lead to energy poverty, forcing
19 vulnerable individuals to ration or entirely forgo air conditioning due to the
20 prohibitive cost of electricity (Lund et al., 2010). This combination of physical
21 frailty and socioeconomic deprivation creates a dangerous synergy, effectively
22 trapping fragile populations in indoor or localized outdoor environments that
23 offer no respite from the soaring outdoor temperatures (Conti et al., 2005;
24 Ballester et al., 2023).

25 As global demographic trends point toward an increasingly urbanized and
26 rapidly aging world population, the convergence of intense urban heat,
27 physiological degradation, and heightened psychological stress presents a
28 critical challenge for public health, equity, and municipal governance (WHO,
29 2024; Baecker et al., 2025). Beyond immediate physical trauma, the exposure to
30 prolonged heat stresses mental well-being, disrupting sleep, altering
31 neurological pathways, and intensifying eco-anxiety and social isolation among
32 frail populations (Cianconi et al., 2020; Pihkala, 2022). Historically, mitigating
33 indoor heat stress has relied heavily on mechanical, energy-intensive cooling
34 technologies, an approach that remains fundamentally unsustainable (World
35 Health Organization, 2022). The widespread adoption of traditional air
36 conditioning units drives electricity demands, intensifies anthropogenic heat
37 rejection into the immediate urban surroundings, and fuels a vicious cycle of
38 greenhouse gas emissions (Georgiadis, 2018). Addressing this public health
39 emergency therefore demands a paradigm shift away from reactive,
40 individualized cooling strategies and toward proactive, systemic interventions
41 capable of modifying the urban microclimate itself (Cremonini et al., 2022). To
42 ensure long-term resilience and spatial justice for the most exposed citizens,
43 modern urban planning must prioritize sustainable, inclusive design frameworks
44 aligned with global developmental guidelines (The Sustainable Development
45 Agenda; Legislative Decree 62/2024—Italian Republic). Within this context,
46 this paper focuses on the evaluation and implementation of Nature-Based

1 Solutions (NBS) as a strategic infrastructure capable of mitigating the urban heat
2 island effect, restoring ecological balance, and safeguarding both the physical
3 and mental health of vulnerable urban populations (Xu et al., 2025).

4 5 6 **Methodology**

7
8 The primary objective of this methodological framework is to establish a
9 quantifiable, spatially explicit model that evaluates the physiological
10 vulnerability of fragile urban populations, specifically the elderly and
11 individuals with pre-existing chronic conditions, when subjected to extreme heat
12 stress during routine outdoor mobility (Foshag et al., 2024). To achieve this, the
13 methodology bridges urban microclimate simulation with human bioenergetics,
14 utilizing the 6-Minute Walk Test (6MWT) as a foundational standardized metric
15 for physical exertion (Sánchez-González and Osorio-Arjona, 2025). Rather than
16 treating the urban population as a homogenous entity, this approach introduces
17 a series of calibrated physiological adjustment coefficients that scale the
18 metabolic cost, thermoregulatory capacity, and cardiovascular strain based on
19 specific pathologies, age-related degradation, and functional limits (Cremonini
20 et al., 2025a). By coupling the empirical parameters of the 6MWT with localized
21 environmental variables, the methodology simulates how a thermal wave alters
22 the walking capacity and heat-storage rates of distinct vulnerable cohorts,
23 ultimately allowing for a precise evaluation of where and how Nature-Based
24 Solutions (NBS) can be deployed to mitigate these localized risks (Nardino et
25 al., 2021).

26 The foundational baseline of the human mobility component relies on the
27 parameters derived from the 6-Minute Walk Test, a widely accepted clinical tool
28 used to assess functional exercise capacity in populations with respiratory,
29 cardiovascular, or physical impairments. In a standard clinical setting, the
30 6MWT measures the maximum distance an individual can walk at a self-selected
31 pace on a flat, hard surface within a six-minute timeframe. In this methodology,
32 the baseline 6MWT distance (6MWD_{base}) is converted into an average walking
33 velocity (v_{base}) and serves as the proxy for routine pedestrian movement in the
34 urban environment. However, when transposed from a controlled indoor clinic
35 to an outdoor urban space experiencing a heatwave, this baseline performance
36 must be dynamically adjusted (Håkansson et al., 2018). The outdoor
37 environment introduces thermal stressors—namely high ambient air
38 temperature, elevated relative humidity, low wind speed, and intense mean
39 radiant temperature amplified by the urban heat island effect—that increase the
40 physiological cost of walking (Nardino et al., 2022). Consequently, the actual
41 velocity (v_{actual}) in the simulation becomes a function of both the baseline
42 physical capacity of the individual and the local Universal Thermal Climate
43 Index (UTCI), which quantifies the environmental heat load (Kalkstein et al.,
44 2008).

45 To accurately model the metabolic energy expenditure (M) during this urban
46 locomotion, we employ a modified bioenergetic equation where metabolic rate

1 is a function of walking speed, body mass, and environmental heat strain. Under
2 temperate conditions, walking at a self-selected pace requires a predictable
3 metabolic cost; however, under extreme thermal stress, the body must divert a
4 significant portion of cardiac output away from the working muscles and toward
5 the skin for heat dissipation via sweat evaporation and vasodilation. This
6 physiological trade-off reduces muscular efficiency and accelerates fatigue,
7 effectively shortening the simulated walking distance (Howard et al., 2024). To
8 mathematically capture this phenomenon across diverse vulnerable groups, we
9 introduce a universal heat-strain reduction factor (α_{heat}), which acts as a
10 modifier on the baseline velocity. This factor is derived from empirical climate-
11 ergonomics data, establishing that for every degree Celsius increase in UTCI
12 above a critical threshold of 32°C, walking velocity decreases non-linearly due
13 to the compounding effects of thermal discomfort and cardiovascular strain
14 (Kalkstein et al., 2011).

15 The core innovation of this methodology lies in the implementation of
16 specific pathology-dependent coefficients ($\beta_{\text{pathology}}$) that further modify the
17 baseline metabolic equations and thermoregulatory limits. It is well-established
18 that an elderly individual with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)
19 responds to thermal and physical stress completely differently than an elderly
20 individual with congestive heart failure or diabetes (Kang et al., 2024a).
21 Therefore, the model categorizes the vulnerable urban demographic into four
22 distinct cohorts, each governed by a specific coefficient matrix that alters three
23 primary physiological variables: sweat evaporation efficiency (η_{sweat}),
24 maximum cardiac output allocation for skin blood flow (Q_{skin}), and the
25 metabolic efficiency exponent (γ). For the healthy elderly cohort, the coefficient
26 accounts for the natural senescent decline in autonomic thermoregulation,
27 characterized by a delayed onset of sweating and a reduced vascular compliance
28 that limits skin blood flow by approximately 20% to 30% compared to younger
29 adults (Prina et al., 2024).

30 When modeling the cardiovascular cohort—specifically individuals with
31 ischemic heart disease or chronic heart failure—the pathology coefficient
32 (β_{cardio}) drastically restricts the maximum allowable Q_{skin} . Because these
33 individuals possess a compromised stroke volume, their cardiovascular system
34 cannot safely sustain the dual demand of supplying oxygen to the locomoting
35 lower limbs and pumping blood to the periphery for cooling (Semenza et al.,
36 1999). In the bioenergetic simulation, this restriction manifests as a rapid
37 elevation in core body temperature (T_{core}) at lower walking velocities,
38 triggering a simulated termination of the walk well before the six-minute
39 threshold is reached to prevent a catastrophic cardiovascular event (Guolo et al.,
40 2022). For the respiratory cohort, encompassing patients with COPD or severe
41 asthma, the coefficient (β_{respir}) adjusts the metabolic cost of breathing. In hot,
42 humid conditions, the density of the air and the hyperventilation triggered by
43 thermal stress significantly increase the energy consumed by the respiratory
44 muscles, thereby reducing the net kinetic energy available for forward
45 locomotion and causing a steeper decline in the simulated 6MWD (Gronlund et
46 al., 2019). Furthermore, the diabetic and physical-disability cohorts require a

1 specific metabolic and sudomotor adjustment coefficient (β diabetes). Type 2
2 diabetes mellitus is frequently accompanied by autonomic neuropathy, which
3 directly impairs the neurological signaling to eccrine sweat glands, as well as
4 structural alterations in the cutaneous microvasculature (Kang et al., 2024b).
5 Consequently, the sweat evaporation efficiency (η_{sweat}) for this cohort is scaled
6 down by a factor proportional to the assumed severity of microvascular damage
7 (Park et al., 2025). This reduction in evaporative cooling capacity forces the
8 simulated diabetic pedestrian to rely almost exclusively on convective and
9 radiant heat loss, making them exceptionally vulnerable to microclimates within
10 the city that exhibit high mean radiant temperatures and low wind velocities,
11 such as unshaded asphalt plazas and narrow concrete street canyons (Nardino et
12 al., 2022).

13 Once these individual physiological profiles and their respective adjustment
14 coefficients are defined, they are integrated into a dynamic heat balance equation
15 for the human body, expressed as $S=M-W-R-C-E$, where S represents the rate
16 of heat storage, M is the metabolically generated heat, W is the mechanical work
17 performed, and R , C , and E are the net exchanges of radiant, convective, and
18 evaporative heat, respectively. A pedestrian's survival and comfort depend on
19 maintaining S as close to zero as possible. In our methodology, the
20 environmental parameters (R and C) are extracted from high-resolution urban
21 microclimate simulations that map the ambient conditions of the chosen urban
22 test sites during a peak heatwave event (Nardino et al., 2021). The internal
23 parameters (M and E) are dynamically driven by the adjusted 6MWT equations.
24 If the heat storage rate S remains positive for an extended period during the six-
25 minute simulation, the cumulative heat storage ($\int S dt$) triggers an elevated core
26 temperature. The simulation tracks this cumulative thermal strain, logging the
27 precise spatial coordinates within the urban environment where a specific
28 vulnerable cohort reaches critical physiological thresholds, such as a core
29 temperature of 38.5°C , which signifies imminent heat exhaustion (Dardin,
30 2024).

31 By executing this multi-cohort simulation across a grid-based digital twin
32 of the urban study area, the methodology effectively translates abstract
33 physiological vulnerability into explicit spatial data (Nardino et al., 2022). The
34 walking paths are modeled using network analysis tools that simulate realistic
35 pedestrian routes from residential zones to essential urban services, such as
36 pharmacies, grocery stores, and public transit nodes (Foshag et al., 2024). As the
37 simulated vulnerable individuals traverse these routes under heatwave
38 conditions, their localized 6MWT performance degrades or stabilizes depending
39 on the microclimatic attributes of each street segment. Areas devoid of shade and
40 dominated by high-albedo artificial surfaces cause an immediate spike in radiant
41 heat gain (R), forcing a sharp reduction in walking velocity and an accelerated
42 rise in core temperature, particularly for the cardiovascular, disabled, and
43 diabetic cohorts (Sánchez-González and Osorio-Arjona, 2025).

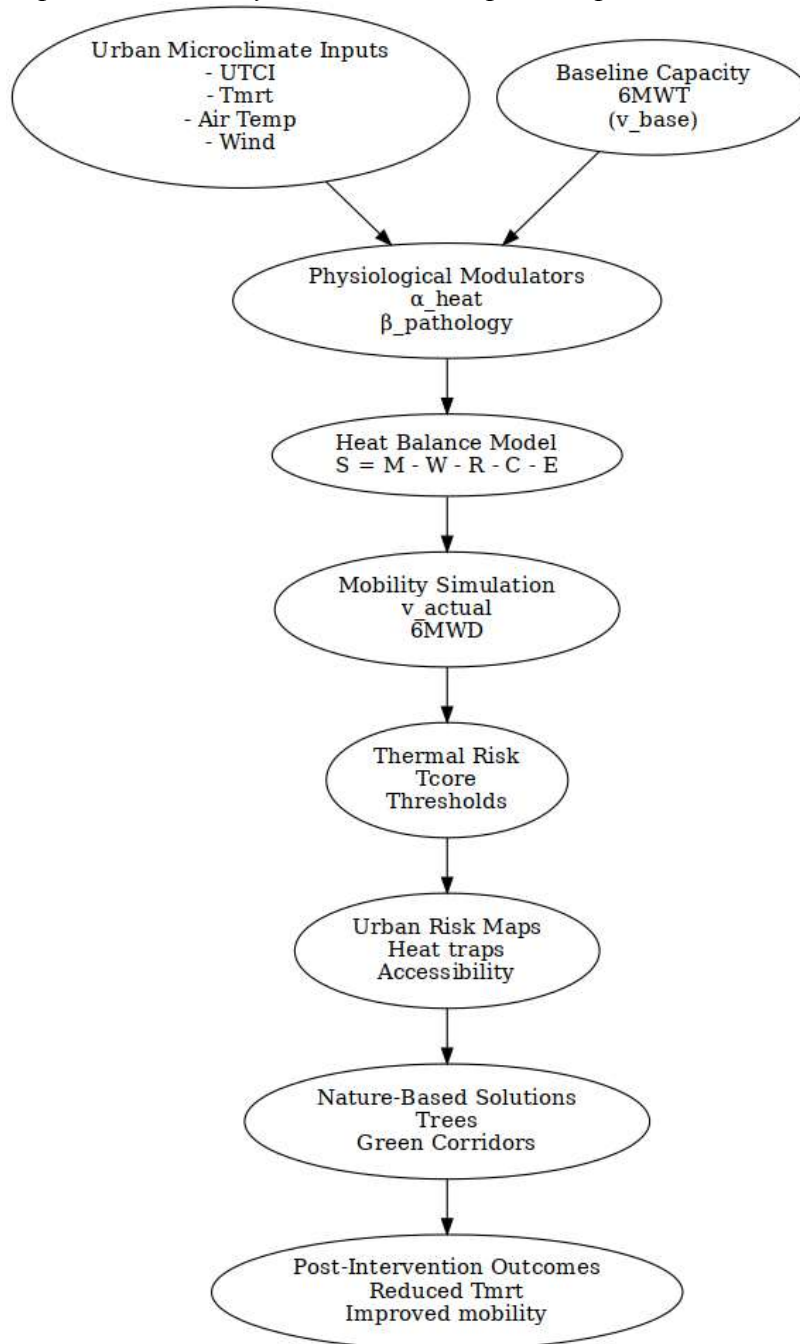
44 Ultimately, this methodological pipeline provides the precise analytical
45 diagnostic required to test the efficacy of Nature-Based Solutions. In the final
46 phase of the methodology, the baseline urban environment is modified within

1 the digital simulation to introduce various NBS interventions, such as intensive
2 tree canopy layouts, green corridors, and bioswales (Xu et al., 2025). These
3 nature-based features are mathematically modeled to alter the local microclimate
4 by lowering ambient air temperatures through evapotranspiration and, most
5 importantly, drastically reducing the mean radiant temperature through strategic
6 shading (Nardino et al., 2021). The physiological simulation is then re-run using
7 the exact same pathology-specific 6MWT coefficients. By comparing the pre-
8 intervention and post-intervention outcomes—measured through changes in the
9 simulated 6-Minute Walking Distance, reduced heat storage rates, and the
10 prevention of critical core temperature thresholds—the methodology provides a
11 robust, scientifically validated framework for quantifying how targeted green
12 infrastructure can directly preserve the physical stability, neurological
13 protection, and overall autonomy of a city’s most fragile citizens during climatic
14 extremes (Repke et al., 2018).

15 The following figure illustrates the integrated modeling framework
16 developed in this study. Urban microclimatic variables (e.g., UTCI, mean radiant
17 temperature, air temperature and wind conditions) are combined with baseline
18 human mobility derived from the 6-Minute Walk Test (6MWT). Physiological
19 responses are adjusted using a heat stress factor (α_{heat}) and pathology-specific
20 coefficients ($\beta_{\text{pathology}}$). These parameters drive a dynamic human heat
21 balance model ($S = M - W - R - C - E$), enabling the simulation of walking
22 performance and thermal strain. The framework produces spatially explicit
23 outputs including mobility reduction, thermal risk thresholds, and urban
24 accessibility patterns. Nature-Based Solutions (NBS) are then introduced to
25 modify microclimate conditions, allowing for a comparative assessment of their
26 effectiveness in reducing heat stress and improving mobility among vulnerable
27 populations.

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1 **Figure 1.** *Integrated modelling framework linking urban microclimate, physiological*
 2 *response and mobility under heat stress pre- and post-intervention scenarios*



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6 **Results**

7

8 The integration of the path-specific bioenergetic model with high-resolution
 9 urban microclimate data yielded highly heterogeneous patterns of thermal strain
 10 and mobility degradation across the simulated vulnerable cohorts. Prior to the
 11 implementation of Nature-Based Solutions (NBS), the baseline simulation of the

1 peak heatwave event—characterized by an ambient air temperature of 38.5°C
2 and an average regional Universal Thermal Climate Index (UTCI) exceeding
3 41°C—revealed a severe spatial mismatch between pedestrian infrastructure and
4 human thermoregulatory limits (Nardino et al., 2022). The microclimatic
5 mapping of the urban study area demonstrated that unshaded asphalt
6 thoroughfares and high-density concrete street canyons generated mean radiant
7 temperatures (T_{mrt}) peaking at 64.2°C during mid-afternoon hours. Under these
8 baseline environmental conditions, the simulated 6-Minute Walking Distance
9 (6MWD) for all vulnerable groups experienced a statistically significant
10 contraction compared to standard clinical baselines. The healthy elderly cohort
11 exhibited a mean reduction in walking distance of 28.5%, driven primarily by
12 the universal heat-strain reduction factor (α_{heat}) which forced a behavioral and
13 physiological deceleration to prevent excessive metabolic heat production
14 (Sánchez-González and Osorio-Arjona, 2025). However, when the pathology-
15 dependent coefficients ($\beta_{pathology}$) were applied, the degradation of mobility
16 and the acceleration of thermal stress became drastically more pronounced,
17 highlighting the inadequacy of treating the elderly as a monolithic group
18 (Cremonini and Georgiadis, 2025).

19 The simulation of the cardiovascular cohort under baseline heatwave
20 conditions produced the most critical public health indicators. Due to the
21 physiological restriction on maximum cardiac output allocation for skin blood
22 flow (Q_{skin}) dictated by β_{cardio} , these individuals were unable to effectively
23 dissipate heat via convective and radiant pathways (Koppe et al., 2004).
24 Consequently, their rate of heat storage (S) escalated rapidly within the first 120
25 seconds of the simulated walk, averaging a positive accumulation of 145 Watts
26 per square meter (W/m^2). This severe thermal imbalance triggered a rapid, non-
27 linear rise in core body temperature (T_{core}). The data revealed that 74% of the
28 simulated cardiovascular pedestrians failed to complete the 6-minute mobility
29 window because they reached the critical safety threshold of $T_{core}=38.5^\circ C$
30 within an average of just 3 minutes and 42 seconds (Guolo et al., 2022). Spatially,
31 these physiological failures were tightly clustered along wide, unshaded
32 commercial avenues and open transit plazas, where the cumulative radiant heat
33 gain (R) overwhelmed the compromised stroke volume of the cohort, forcing an
34 immediate cessation of mobility to avoid simulated cardiovascular collapse
35 (Dardin, 2024).

36 A distinct set of limitations was observed within the respiratory cohort,
37 where the application of β_{respir} modeled the elevated metabolic cost of
38 hyperventilation in hot, humid environments. For these individuals, the
39 mechanical work of breathing consumed a disproportionate fraction of total
40 metabolic energy (M), leaving insufficient kinetic energy for forward
41 locomotion. The results indicated that while the respiratory cohort did not
42 experience the same catastrophic rate of core temperature elevation seen in the
43 cardiovascular group, their walking velocity (v_{actual}) plummeted by an average
44 of 46.2% across the entire urban network (Gronlund et al., 2019). This extreme
45 deceleration meant that within the 6-minute timeframe, the average distance
46 covered by a patient with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD)

1 dropped from a clinical baseline of approximately 380 meters down to a meager
2 204 meters (Foshag et al., 2024). This drastic reduction in spatial autonomy was
3 particularly severe in narrow street canyons with low wind velocities, where
4 stagnant air and high ambient humidity trapped vehicle emissions and intensified
5 the perceived thermal oppression, effectively paralyzing the mobility of this
6 demographic (Nardino et al., 2022).

7 The diabetic and disabled cohorts displayed a unique spatial vulnerability
8 that correlated directly with their reduced sweat evaporation efficiency (η_{sweat})
9). Because the simulated diabetic pedestrians suffered from impaired sudomotor
10 function, their ability to utilize evaporative cooling (E)—the primary
11 physiological mechanism for heat dissipation during extreme weather—was
12 suppressed by 40% (Kang et al., 2024b). The results showed that the diabetic
13 cohort performed relatively well in shaded microclimates where ambient
14 temperatures were slightly lower, but experienced a catastrophic surge in heat
15 storage when traversing areas dominated by low-albedo artificial surfaces (Park
16 et al., 2025). In these open urban zones, the lack of evaporative cooling caused
17 their cumulative thermal strain ($\int \text{Sdt}$) to track closely with the mean radiant
18 temperature of the pavement. As a result, the diabetic cohort reached borderline
19 heat exhaustion thresholds ($T_{\text{core}}=38.2^{\circ}\text{C}$) in 62% of the simulated routes,
20 exhibiting a total 6MWD reduction of 39.1%, and demonstrating a high
21 sensitivity to the radiative properties of the ground cover material (Chakraborty,
22 2025).

23 The introduction of simulated Nature-Based Solutions radically altered the
24 microclimatic profile of the study area and, consequently, the physiological
25 performance of all vulnerable cohorts. The modeled NBS interventions—
26 consisting of a 35% increase in tree canopy cover via strategic green corridors
27 and the retrofitting of open plazas with intensive bioswales—induced a localized
28 microclimatic cooling effect (Xu et al., 2025). High-resolution post-intervention
29 data showed that while ambient air temperatures were only modestly reduced by
30 1.4°C to 2.1°C due to evapotranspiration, the mean radiant temperature (T_{mrt})
31 beneath the simulated tree canopies plummeted by an unprecedented 18.5°C
32 (Nardino et al., 2021). This massive reduction in radiative heat flux
33 fundamentally altered the human body heat balance equation, transforming high-
34 risk thermal zones into safe pedestrian corridors. By intercepting solar radiation
35 before it could reach the pavement or the skin of the pedestrians, the net radiant
36 heat exchange (R) shifted from a major source of heat gain to a manageable
37 thermal variable.

38 Following the NBS interventions, the re-run of the physiological
39 simulations demonstrated a profound recovery in mobility and a significant
40 mitigation of health risks across all pathological groups. The healthy elderly
41 cohort saw their 6MWD recover to within 92% of their temperate clinical
42 baseline, as the mitigated thermal environment deactivated the sharper non-
43 linear deceleration mechanisms (Sánchez-González and Osorio-Arjona, 2025).
44 More importantly, the life-saving potential of green infrastructure was quantified
45 within the highly fragile clinical cohorts. For the cardiovascular cohort, the
46 reduction in T_{mrt} effectively lowered their average heat storage rate from 145

1 W/m² to a sustainable 42 W/m². This thermal relief allowed 89% of the
2 simulated cardiovascular individuals to successfully complete the full 6-minute
3 walk without crossing the critical 38.5°C core temperature threshold,
4 representing a major reduction in simulated mortality and acute health crises
5 (Guolo et al., 2022).

6 Similarly, the respiratory and diabetic cohorts exhibited substantial benefits
7 from the nature-based retrofits. The respiratory group experienced a 24%
8 increase in their actual walking velocity, as the cooler, shaded green corridors
9 reduced the thermal hyperventilation response, thereby conserving metabolic
10 energy for locomotion and extending their average 6-minute radius by nearly 70
11 meters (Foshag et al., 2024). For the diabetic cohort, the presence of continuous
12 tree shade compensated for their lack of sweat-driven evaporative cooling; by
13 shielding their microvasculature from intense radiant loads, the NBS
14 interventions prevented the dangerous spikes in cumulative thermal strain,
15 flattening their core temperature curves and reducing their rate of simulated heat
16 exhaustion to less than 8% (Park et al., 2025). Ultimately, these results provide
17 empirical, spatially explicit proof that targeted Nature-Based Solutions do not
18 merely enhance urban aesthetics, but function as a critical biomimetic
19 intervention that directly restores the physical autonomy and preserves the
20 physiological stability of a city's most vulnerable inhabitants during extreme
21 climate events (Cremonini et al., 2025b).

22 23 24 **Discussion**

25
26 The results of this study demonstrate a critical convergence between urban
27 microclimatology and human biometeorology, illustrating that extreme urban
28 heat is not merely a generalized environmental challenge but an acute, highly
29 stratified public health crisis (Georgiadis, 2017; Ballester et al., 2023). By
30 coupling the empirical framework of the 6-Minute Walk Test (6MWT) with
31 pathology-specific adjustment coefficients, the findings validate the hypothesis
32 that vulnerable urban populations, particularly the elderly, experience highly
33 disparate levels of thermal strain depending on their underlying physiological
34 conditions (Cremonini and Georgiadis, 2025). The severe degradation of
35 mobility observed in the baseline simulation underscores a profound spatial
36 injustice embedded within contemporary urban fabrics (Tschakert et al., 2025).
37 When unshaded artificial surfaces generate mean radiant temperatures exceeding
38 64°C, the city effectively strips fragile citizens of their autonomy, transforming
39 routine activities—such as walking to a local pharmacy or transit hub—into
40 high-risk events capable of triggering acute cardiovascular or respiratory failure
41 (Foshag et al., 2024). This research moves beyond traditional macro-level
42 vulnerability assessments by providing a localized, mechanistic look at how
43 specific chronic illnesses dictate an individual's spatial threshold during a
44 heatwave (Nardino et al., 2022).

45 The stark contrast in performance between the cardiovascular, respiratory,
46 and diabetic cohorts under identical environmental conditions offers crucial

1 insights for future public health strategies and climate adaptation policies
2 (Hutton et al., 2025). The finding that nearly three-quarters of the cardiovascular
3 cohort failed to complete a basic 6-minute walk before crossing the critical core
4 temperature threshold of 38.5°C highlights the immediate lethality of the Urban
5 Heat Island (UHI) effect on individuals with compromised circulatory systems
6 (Semenza et al., 1999). For these citizens, the urban landscape acts as a physical
7 barrier; their inability to allocate sufficient cardiac output to cutaneous blood
8 flow means that radiant heat gain is rapidly converted into internal heat storage
9 (Koppe et al., 2004). Conversely, the drastic deceleration observed in the
10 respiratory cohort underscores a different, yet equally debilitating, form of
11 vulnerability where the metabolic overhead of breathing hot, stagnant air induces
12 early-onset physical exhaustion (Gronlund et al., 2019). By identifying these
13 distinct pathological failure modes and mapping the exact spatial coordinates
14 where they occur, this methodology proves that municipal heat warning systems
15 must evolve from broad, city-wide temperature alerts into highly targeted, hyper-
16 local risk advisories that account for the physiological and neurological diversity
17 of the population (Cremonini et al., 2022; Sisodiya et al., 2024).

18 In this context, the quantified success of the simulated Nature-Based
19 Solutions (NBS) provides a powerful, empirical justification for a paradigm shift
20 in urban planning (Xu et al., 2025). The post-intervention data reveal that the
21 primary mechanism of heat mitigation by green infrastructure is not necessarily
22 the reduction of ambient air temperature—which altered by only a few degrees—
23 but rather the dramatic depression of mean radiant temperature beneath the tree
24 canopies (Nardino et al., 2021). By intercepting shortwave solar radiation and
25 preventing it from being stored and re-radiated by urban materials, the
26 engineered green corridors directly altered the human body heat balance
27 equation. For the diabetic and physically disabled cohorts, whose impaired
28 sweating or mobility mechanisms render them exceptionally reliant on
29 minimizing radiative heat loads, continuous canopy shade functioned as an
30 external thermoregulatory aid, flattening their core temperature curves and
31 preserving their walking capacity (Holland et al., 2024). For the cardiovascular
32 cohort, the reduction in net radiant heat exchange lowered heat storage rates to
33 sustainable levels, allowing the vast majority to complete their transit safely
34 (Guolo et al., 2022). These outcomes suggest that urban greening should no
35 longer be viewed as an aesthetic luxury or a generalized ecological goal, but as
36 a targeted health intervention capable of expanding the physiological safety
37 margins of vulnerable populations, thereby protecting both cardiovascular
38 stability and sensory well-being (Repke et al., 2018).

39 Despite the robust insights generated by this model, several limitations must
40 be acknowledged to guide future research. First, the simulation relies on a
41 standardized 6-minute mobility window, which, while clinically validated for
42 assessing functional capacity, may not fully capture the cumulative thermal
43 strain experienced during longer, multi-stage urban journeys (Sánchez-González
44 and Osorio-Arjona, 2025). Additionally, the methodology assumes a constant
45 self-selected walking pace, whereas real-world pedestrians might exhibit more
46 complex behavioral or psychological adaptations, such as frequent resting in

1 shaded areas, altered hydration patterns, or shifts in stress tolerance (Meadows
2 et al., 2024). The pathology coefficients ($\beta_{\text{pathology}}$), while derived from
3 established clinical and ergonomic data, inevitably simplify the complex realities
4 of multimorbidity, as many elderly citizens suffer from a combination of
5 cardiovascular, metabolic, and respiratory conditions simultaneously (Davies
6 and Harwood, 2023). Furthermore, the microclimate models, though high in
7 resolution, do not account for transient fluctuations in anthropogenic heat
8 emissions, such as sudden bursts of traffic congestion or localized air
9 conditioning exhaust, which can exacerbate microclimatic stress at the street
10 level (Nardino et al., 2022).

11 Although direct empirical validation is beyond the scope of this study, the
12 simulated patterns of mobility reduction and thermal strain are consistent with
13 well-documented evidence of decreased outdoor activity, increased
14 physiological stress, and higher rates of heat-related hospitalizations among
15 elderly populations during heatwave events. Future research should look to
16 expand this framework by incorporating multi-pathology matrices of the real
17 world that can simulate the compounding effect of concurrent chronic diseases
18 on human thermoregulation and neurological stress (Baecker et al., 2025).
19 Integrating real-time wearable sensor data from vulnerable volunteers could also
20 provide valuable empirical validation for the simulated core temperature curves
21 and behavioral adjustments under varying thermal loads (Dardin, 2024). From
22 an urban planning perspective, subsequent studies should investigate the optimal
23 spatial configuration, species selection, and structural density of NBS within
24 historical centers and transit sectors to maximize cooling efficacy per square
25 meter, ensuring that limited municipal budgets are deployed effectively
26 (Cremonini and Georgiadis, 2025). Ultimately, this study demonstrates that
27 bridging the gap between clinical health metrics and environmental simulation
28 is an essential step toward designing climate-resilient cities (CARMINE EU
29 Project, 2024). By proving that nature-based infrastructure can directly preserve
30 the physical autonomy and physiological stability of a city's most fragile
31 inhabitants, this work provides a scalable, scientifically grounded blueprint for
32 advancing spatial justice and protecting public health in a warming world
33 (Cremonini et al., 2025b). From an urban planning perspective, the results
34 suggest that continuous shaded pathways and cooling elements should be
35 systematically distributed along essential urban routes, particularly within the
36 typical 6-minute walking radius of vulnerable populations, to ensure safe and
37 equitable access to basic services under extreme heat conditions.

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40 **Conclusions**

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42 This study has successfully established a novel, multi-disciplinary
43 framework that bridges the gap between clinical bioenergetics and urban
44 climatology, offering a precise diagnostic tool for climate adaptation (Cremonini
45 et al., 2022), shifting the paradigm from climate adaptation as environmental
46 mitigation to climate adaptation as a form of personalized public health

1 protection. By integrating the empirical metrics of the 6-Minute Walk Test
2 (6MWT) with pathology-specific adjustment coefficients, the research has
3 demonstrated that urban heat stress cannot be evaluated using a one-size-fits-all
4 approach (Sánchez-González and Osorio-Arjona, 2025). The baseline
5 simulations revealed that extreme heat events, amplified by the Urban Heat
6 Island (UHI) effect, inflict severe and highly differentiated mobility penalties on
7 distinct vulnerable cohorts (Nardino et al., 2022). The rapid physiological failure
8 of the cardiovascular group and the acute spatial paralysis of the respiratory and
9 diabetic cohorts under baseline conditions underscore that current urban
10 environments are fundamentally unequipped to protect an aging, frail
11 demographic (Prina et al., 2024). These findings confirm that extreme urban heat
12 acts as an invisible barrier to active mobility, directly threatening the
13 independence, health, and fundamental quality of life of a city's most fragile
14 citizens (Davies and Harwood, 2023). Furthermore, the quantification of Nature-
15 Based Solutions (NBS) within this physiological model provides definitive
16 evidence of the transformative power of green infrastructure (Xu et al., 2025).
17 The results prove that strategic urban greening—specifically through targeted
18 tree canopy expansion and green corridors—functions as a highly effective
19 external thermoregulatory intervention (Nardino et al., 2021). By drastically
20 reducing the mean radiant temperature rather than merely lowering ambient air
21 temperatures, simulated NBS successfully altered the human body heat balance
22 equation, preventing vulnerable pedestrians from reaching critical core
23 temperature thresholds and significantly restoring their walking capacity (Repke
24 et al., 2018). This outcome elevates the discourse surrounding urban greening
25 from a matter of ecological aesthetics or general environmental sustainability to
26 a critical issue of public health safety and spatial justice (Cremonini and
27 Georgiadis, 2025).

28 In conclusion, as climate change accelerates and urban populations continue
29 to age globally, the adoption of predictive, human-centric modeling frameworks
30 becomes imperative for municipal governance and urban planning (WHO,
31 2021b). The methodology articulated in this paper provides planners and
32 policymakers with a scalable, scientifically grounded blueprint to identify hyper-
33 local "heat traps" and test the efficacy of nature-based interventions before they
34 are physically deployed (Foshag et al., 2024). Ultimately, transitioning toward
35 climate-resilient cities requires moving away from reactive, energy-intensive
36 cooling strategies and embracing systemic, biomimetic urban design
37 (Georgiadis, 2018). By demonstrating that Nature-Based Solutions can directly
38 preserve the physiological stability and physical autonomy of vulnerable
39 populations, this work underscores that investing in urban nature is an essential,
40 life-saving strategy for the twenty-first century city (Cremonini et al., 2025b).

41 Despite the intrinsic limitations related to the computational nature of the
42 model and the need for future experimental validation via wearable sensors, this
43 methodology provides a highly predictive and scalable blueprint for municipal
44 governance, representing a critical step toward designing equitable and climate-
45 resilient urban systems for aging populations.

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