Clothing resistance and potential evapotranspiration as thermal climate indicators—The example of the Carpathian region

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Abstract
Clothing resistance parameter \( r_{cl} \) and potential evapotranspiration (PET), a major component of Thornthwaite type climate classifications, are used as thermal climate indicators for characterizing the thermal climate of the Carpathian region. \( r_{cl} \) is simulated by a model based on clothed human body energy balance considerations. \( r_{cl} \) refers to a walking human in outdoor conditions, whose somatotype can differ. Somatotype shapes are determined by applying the Heath–Carter somatotype method. PET is estimated using only air temperature and latitude as inputs. In addition \( r_{cl} \) is linked to PET. The annual mean of \( r_{cl} \) is statistically interconnected with annual sum of PET, and the annual fluctuation of \( r_{cl} \) (\( dr_{cl} = r_{cl}^{\text{max}} - r_{cl}^{\text{min}} \)) with the annual fluctuation of PET (\( d\text{PET} = \text{PET}^{\text{max}} - \text{PET}^{\text{min}} \)). The Carpathian region’s thermal climate is analysed by comparing PET results with \( r_{cl} \) model results and \( r_{cl} \) results obtained by statistical link. We showed that \( r_{cl} \) model results are strongly sensitive to human body somatotype variations. It is also shown that the spatial heterogeneity of thermal climates is the lowest in the lowlands and the highest in the mountains. The spatial heterogeneity of \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values obtained by statistical link is comparable to the spatial heterogeneity of PET, but is lower than that obtained from the \( r_{cl} \) model. Similarly to \( r_{cl} \) model results, \( r_{cl} \) results obtained by statistical link are also sensitive to human body somatotype variations. All these results suggest that statistical connections between \( r_{cl} \) and PET and \( dr_{cl} \) and \( d\text{PET} \) can be used as subunits in Thornthwaite type climate classifications to obtain human thermal climate information. Lastly, areas with the largest thermal contrast are reproduced in terms of both the annual sum of PET and the \( r_{cl} \), which is obtained by both the model and the statistical link.

Keywords
Carpathian region, clothing resistance, human body, potential evapotranspiration, somatotype, statistical link, thermal climate
1 | INTRODUCTION

The importance of clothing in human biometeorological studies has been recognized since the 1930s (e.g., Winslow et al., 1937; Gagge et al., 1938; Winslow et al., 1938; Gagge et al., 1941). In these studies role of clothing was investigated by both experimental and theoretical tools handling it as an important input variable on the human body–atmosphere interface. In the second part of the twentieth century (e.g., Auliciems and de Freitas, 1976; de Freitas, 1979) clothing was viewed and interpreted as a human ‘reaction’ to environmental conditions, analysed as a determinant model output. Today, the influence of clothing on biometeorological thermal regulation is typically considered in two ways: as an input parameter (e.g., Havenith et al., 2012) in thermophysiological models (e.g., Fiala et al., 2012) or as a model output representing thermal adaptation behaviour (Lin, 2009; Potchter et al., 2018). In this case, \( r_{cl} \) can be used as a measure for expressing the extent to which human body heat exchange is unbalanced. When there is an excess of heat, the human body needs cooling to reach energy balance. Then \( r_{cl} \) values are negative. Note that in studies published to date negative clothing resistance values were not considered at all, they were simply equated to zero with the argument ‘Since being nude is not acceptable in public, clo values \( \leq 0 \) were set at zero’ (Yan, 2005). In this study, negative clothing resistance values are also used, since they are interpretable when clothing is viewed as a thermal regulator ignoring its human behaviour dependence. Conversely, when there is a heat deficit, the human body needs warming to reach energy balance. In this case, \( r_{cl} \) values are positive. When the human body is in energy balance, it needs neither cooling nor warming sensing this state as comfortable. In this case, \( r_{cl} \) is very close or equal to zero.

Clothing resistance parameter is a complex quantity since it depends upon both human and environmental characteristics. Among human characteristics the personal, social aspects as well as the activity type are the most determinant. Activity type determines metabolic activity rate, which can vary between 40 and 600 Wm\(^{-2}\) depending on the person. Among environmental factors, it depends upon all those factors that determine the thermal state of the environment. The most important are air temperature, radiation, wind speed and air humidity. Initially (e.g., de Freitas, 1979) rough \( r_{cl} \) estimations were made using climatological air temperature and wind speed estimations and by calculating environmental radiation. Later on (e.g., Yan and Oliver, 1996) station data of air temperature, wind speed, air humidity and cloudiness were used beside the calculation of radiation for seasonal estimates of \( r_{cl} \). In the 21st century (e.g., Yan, 2005; Robaa and Hasanean, 2007), \( r_{cl} \) is estimated by using daily or hourly air temperature, wind speed and cloudiness data calculating environmental radiation. In the studies indicated, the human considered was either standing, or performing an easy activity. There were no sensitivity analyses at all regarding dependence between \( r_{cl} \) and environmental variables. Sensitivity analysis in the subject of the interdependence between clothing resistance, metabolic activity and environmental thermal load can be found in Campbell–Norman’s book (Campbell and Norman, 1998). In this treatment environmental thermal load is represented via operative temperature. Recently, Ács et al. (2019) investigated the sensitivity of \( r_{cl} \) to wind speed variations and to inter-person variations of metabolic heat flux density. They compared these two effects, but did not draw definite conclusions regarding the magnitude of their impacts.

Independent of human thermal comfort studies, empirical climate classification methods have also been developed over the last century. The first quantitative empirical method is constructed by Köppen (1884, 1900, 1918, 1936) and is based on biogeographic considerations. It is still the most popular method because of its simplicity (Kottek et al., 2006; Rubel and Kottek, 2011). Subsequently, as a criticism to Köppen’s method, the Thornthwaite method (Thornthwaite, 1931, 1948) was developed strictly on physically based parameters and without any biogeographic basis. Thornthwaite (1948) introduced the notion of potential evapotranspiration, which served as a basis for his new method. The development of the new model type has evolved over time (Thornthwaite and Mather, 1955; Willmott and Feddema, 1992; Feddema, 2005). Feddema’s (2005) method can currently be treated as the end-product of the Thornthwaite-type approach.

Both clothing resistance \( r_{cl} \) and potential evapotranspiration PET can be treated as thermal climate indicators. \( r_{cl} \) is used for human climate classification purposes (e.g., Auliciems and de Freitas, 1976; Yan, 2005; Robaa and Hasanean, 2007), while PET in Thornthwaite-type climate classifications. So far, there have only been a few attempts at linking empirical and human climate classification results. In these attempts only the Köppen–Geiger method outputs were related either to Physiologically Equivalent Temperature (PET; e.g., Yang and Matzarakis, 2016; Potchter et al., 2018) or to Universal Thermal Climate Index (e.g., Potchter et al., 2018), or to clothing resistance parameter (Ács et al., 2020). In these analyses, the results obtained by models were not statistically linked, they were only compared. PET and \( r_{cl} \) were introduced at approximately the same time (around the middle of the last century), nevertheless they have not been linked to each other to date. By linking them
Thornthwaite-type climate classification would be able to provide extra information in terms of human thermal climates, which was our main motivation. Annual mean $r_{cl}$ is statistically interconnected with annual sum of PET and, in a similar way, the annual fluctuation of $r_{cl}$ ($d r_{cl} = r_{cl}^{\text{max}} - r_{cl}^{\text{min}}$) with the annual fluctuation of PET ($d \text{PET} = \text{PET}^{\text{max}} - \text{PET}^{\text{min}}$).

According to the above, this study has multiple objectives: (a) to characterize the Carpathian region thermal climate in terms of annual mean of $r_{cl}$ and annual sum of PET using an $r_{cl}$ model and the Feddema method; (b) to statistically link annual mean of $r_{cl}$ with annual sum of PET and annual fluctuation of $r_{cl}$ ($d r_{cl} = r_{cl}^{\text{max}} - r_{cl}^{\text{min}}$) with the annual fluctuation of PET ($d \text{PET} = \text{PET}^{\text{max}} - \text{PET}^{\text{min}}$) and (c) to check the behaviour of the statistical models interconnecting $r_{cl}$ and PET and $d r_{cl}$ and $d \text{PET}$. The statistical relationships between $r_{cl}$ and PET and $d r_{cl}$ and $d \text{PET}$ are human-dependent, therefore these relationships should be established separately for endomorphic, mesomorphic and ectomorphic humans. Note that the $r_{cl}$ yield is characterized by both annual mean of $r_{cl}$ and annual fluctuation of $r_{cl}$. Two datasets are used in this study. Climate data refer to the Carpathian region, human data to the Hungarian people. Climate data are taken from the CarpatClim dataset (Spinoni et al., 2015). Somatotype analysis and the calculation of human metabolic flux density is performed by using a Hungarian human dataset (Zsákai et al., 2015) containing data of more than 3,000 people.

The study is organized as follows. The clothing resistance model is briefly presented in Section 2.1. The somatotype classification method is described in Section 2.2. The calculation method of PET is presented in Section 2.3. The region and climatic data are introduced in Section 2.4 and human data in Section 2.5. Results are presented in Section 3; the Carpathian region's thermal climate according to PET in Section 3.1; the somatotype classification results in Section 3.2; the $r_{cl}$ model results in Section 3.3; the results of the statistical linking in Section 3.4 and the thermal climate results obtained by regression curves connecting $r_{cl}$ and PET and $d r_{cl}$ and $d \text{PET}$ in Section 3.5. A discussion of the proposed method and the results obtained can be found in Section 4. The conclusions reached are presented in Section 5.

## 2 | METHODS AND DATA

The clothing resistance model, the Heath-Carter somatotype classification method, the calculation method of PET and the basic meteorological and human dataset characteristics are presented below.
where $M_{bo}$ is body mass (kg), $L_{bo}$ is body length (cm) and $A_{bo}$ is body surface ($m^2$). $A_{bo}$ is estimated after the well-known Dubois and Dubois (1915) formula,

$$A_{bo} = 0.2 \cdot M_{bo}^{0.425} \cdot \left( \frac{L_{bo}}{100} \right)^{0.725}.$$  

(6)

$M$ can vary from human to human, or from human group to human group depending on somatotype. Latent heat and mechanical work flux densities can be simply parameterised via $M$ according to Campbell and Norman (1998) and Auliciems and Kalma (1979), respectively.

Air temperature and isothermal net radiation flux density are the most important environmental variables. $r_{Th}$ is a resistance parameter combining thermal radiative and convective heat exchange effects. It depends upon $T_a$ and wind velocity (Campbell and Norman, 1998). In this study, $r_{Th}$ is used as a human thermal climate indicator expressing thermal load, accordingly in the case of a heat deficit it is positive, and conversely, in the case of heat excess it is negative. In the case of thermal neutrality or comfort, it is zero or close to zero.

2.2 | The Heath–Carter somatotype classification method

Metabolic heat flux density can be linked to somatotype independent of ethnic group. This motivated us to use a somatotype method for characterizing people. Today, the Heath–Carter somatotype classification method (Carter and Heath, 1990) is the most frequently used morphological body shape categorisation method. The method uses body height, body weight, long bone widths of the extremities, circumferences on the extremities, as well as skinfold thickness both on the torso and the extremities. The output of the method is somatotype, which may be characterized by its endomorphy, mesomorphy and ectomorphy.

Endomorphy represents relative fatness. Higher ratings in this somatotype component mean larger deposits of subcutaneous fat, and so a more rounded body can be estimated. Mesomorphy is a rating on a continuum of musculo-skeletal robustness relative to stature. Higher ratings in mesomorphy mean greater muscle mass with wider bone diameters relative to stature. Ectomorphy is the component of somatotype that estimates the relative linearity or slenderness of a physique. Higher ectomorphy ratings mean a smaller body mass relative to stature and more elongated limb segments (Carter and Heath, 1990).

Quantitative determinations of endomorphy, mesomorphy and ectomorphy can be found, for instance, in the work of Bodzsár and Zsákai (2004).

The individual somatotypes were estimated by using the following regression equations introduced by Carter et al. (1983):

$$ENM = -0.7182 + 0.1451 \cdot S - 0.00068 \cdot S^2 + 0.000014 \cdot S^3,$$

(7)

$$MEM = 0.858 \cdot HB + 0.601 \cdot FB + 0.188 \cdot AC + 0.161 \cdot CC - 0.131 \cdot He + 4.5,$$

(8)

$$ECM = \begin{cases} 0.732 \cdot HWR - 28.58, & \text{if } HWR \geq 40.75 \\ 0.463 \cdot HWR - 17.63, & \text{if } 38.25 < HWR < 40.75 \\ 0.1, & \text{if } HWR \leq 38.25, \end{cases}$$

(9)

where $ENM$ is endomorphy, $MEM$ is mesomorphy, $ECM$ is ectomorphy $S$ is the sum of the triceps, subcapular and supraspinal skinfolds (mm), $HB$ is humerus biepicodylar width (cm), $FB$ is femur biepicodylar width (cm), $AC$ is upper arm circumference (cm, corrected with skinfold thickness on the triceps), $CC$ is calf circumference (cm, corrected with skinfold thickness on the calf), $He$ is height (cm) and HWR is ponderal index. HWR is calculated as

$$HWR = \frac{\text{height (cm)}}{\text{weight (kg)}}^{1/3}.$$  

(10)

2.3 | Calculation of PET

There are many formulae (e.g., Jianbiao et al., 2005) for estimating PET, the simplest PET formulae use only air temperature $T_a$ and latitude as inputs (e.g., Xu and Singh, 2001). We used the Thornthwaite type (1948) formula based on $T_a$ and daylight length, as presented in McKenney and Rosenberg (1993). For the $i^{th}$ month $(i = 1, \ldots, 12)$

$$PET_i = 1.6 \cdot \left( \frac{L_i}{12} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{N_i}{30} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{10 \cdot T_{ai}}{I} \right)^{A},$$

(11)

where $I$ is a heat index introduced by Thornthwaite (1948) as

$$I = \sum_{i=1}^{12} t_i,$$

(12)
TABLE 1  The thermal types used in Feddema (2005) method

| Thermal types | Annual sum of potential evapotranspiration (PET) (mm year⁻¹) |
|---------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| Torrid        | >1,500                                                      |
| Hot           | 1,200 < PET ≤ 1,500                                        |
| Warm          | 900 < PET ≤ 1,200                                          |
| Cool          | 600 < PET ≤ 900                                            |
| Cold          | 300 < PET ≤ 600                                            |
| Frost         | 0 < PET ≤ 300                                              |

\[
t_i = \begin{cases} \left( \frac{\tan \phi}{2} \right)^{1.514}, & \text{if } T_{ai} > 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } T_{ai} \leq 0 \end{cases} \quad (13)
\]

\[
A = 6.75 \cdot 10^{-7} \cdot I^3 - 7.71 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot I^2 + 1.792 \cdot 10^{-2} \cdot I + 0.49239. \quad (14)
\]

\[
N_i = \text{the number of days in the } i^{th} \text{ month}, \quad T_{ai} = \text{mean monthly air temperature (°C) of the } i^{th} \text{ month and } L_i = \text{mean monthly daylight length (hr)}. \quad (15)
\]

\[
L_i = \frac{24}{180} \arccos\left(-\tan \phi \cdot \tan \delta_i\right),
\]

where \(\phi\) is latitude (°) and \(\delta_i\) is declination (°) on the central day of the \(i^{th}\) month.

PET together with precipitation are the main quantities of the Feddema (2005) method. The Feddema method is a revised Thornthwaite type (Thornthwaite, 1948) method. It is strictly physically based without possessing any biogeographic basis as, for instance, in the Köppen (1918, 1936) method. It calculates and classifies heat and water availability while trying to be as simple as possible. The thermal types used in Feddema (2005) method are presented in Table 1.

Note that these thermal types are not constructed according to human thermal sensation votes; only by proportionate subdividing the range of PET.

2.4 | Region and climatic data

Climatic data are taken from the CarpatClim dataset (Spinoni et al., 2015). This dataset is a new product of the Hungarian Meteorological Service created in cooperation with surrounding central European services. The data chosen refer to the period 1971–2000; their spatio-temporal resolution is 0.1° × 0.1° with a daily time-step. CarpatClim data are quality controlled and homogenized daily data obtained by using MASH (Multiple Analysis of Series for Homogenization) technique. The original MASH procedure (Szentimrey, 1999) treated monthly time series, whilst its last version (MASHv3.03; Szentimrey, 2011) deals with daily series as well. It is an efficient multiple breakpoint detection method giving homogenized time series as end result (e.g., Rasol et al., 2008; Zhen and Zhong-Wei, 2009; Domonkos, 2013; Li et al., 2016; Yimer et al., 2021). In the MASH method relative homogeneity test procedure is applied by using additive (e.g., temperature) or multiplicative (e.g., wind) model depending on climate element considered. The method consists of two parts. In the first part, monthly data are treated (quality control, completion of missing data, homogenization of monthly series with or without using metadata providing homogenized monthly, seasonal and annual series, verification of the homogenization results), in the second part, daily data are handled (quality control, completion of missing data, homogenization of daily series by using detected monthly inhomogeneities and control of the homogenized daily series). Note that in construction of CarpatClim dataset metadata were not used. A Carpathian region climate analysis on the basis of the CarpatClim dataset can be read, for instance, in the works of Spinoni et al. (2012; 2015), Cheval et al. (2014). The CarpatClim dataset region together with the main geographical designations are presented in Figure 1.

The region is located between the 17 and 27°E longitude lines and 44–50°N latitude lines containing 6,161 grid points representing the Carpathian Basin region almost completely. In this study, we used data on global radiation, cloud cover, air temperature, vapour pressure and 10 m wind speed. Monthly data are calculated from the daily data; 30-year mean is calculated for the period 1971–2000.

2.5 | Human data

Human body characteristics are taken from a Hungarian human dataset (Utczás et al., 2015; Zsákai et al., 2015; Bodzsár et al., 2016) constructed at the Department of Biological Anthropology, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary. The dataset contains the data of about 2,000 Hungarian children and 1,000 Hungarian adults. Determination of somatotype is carried out for almost all children and adults. From this set of adults, we chose two persons who were extremely endomorphic and mesomorphic and one person who was ectomorphic. The basic human characteristics of these persons are presented in Table 2.
The most important human state variable is body mass. The humans are chosen according to their body mass regardless of their sex. We assume that there is relationship between body shape and metabolic rate. Note that for a walking human the total energy flux density $M$ increases from ectomorphic $M^{\text{ecto}}$ through mesomorphic $M^{\text{meso}}$ to endomorphic $M^{\text{endo}}$ somatotype, that is $M^{\text{ecto}} < M^{\text{meso}} < M^{\text{endo}}$.

3 | RESULTS

To give a complete analysis we will separately discuss (a) the area distribution of the annual sum of the PET values obtained by the Thornthwaite type (1948) formula, (b) the Heath–Carter somatotype classification method results, (c) the area distribution characteristics of $r_{cl}$ fields obtained from the $r_{cl}$ model, (d) the main characteristics of the regression curves obtained by linking $r_{cl}$ and PET and $d_{r_{cl}}$ and dPET values and (e) the area distribution characteristics of the $r_{cl}$ fields obtained by using regression curves. $r_{cl}$ related discussions are performed for persons whose somatotypes are very different.

3.1 | The thermal climate of the Carpathian region according to PET

The area distribution of the annual sum of PET in the Carpathian region for the period 1971–2000 is presented in Figure 2.

According to Thornthwaite (1948) or Feddema (2005) two thermal types can be distinguished; the thermal type ‘cold’ (blue on the map) in the mountains (concretely Mount Papuk, the Apuseni Mountains, the Carpathians) and the thermal type ‘cool’ (orange and red) in the lower regions (the Little Hungarian Plain, the Great Hungarian Plain, the Wallachian Plain and Bačka and Banat). In lower parts of Ukraine, as well as in many areas of the Transylvanian Plateau an intermediate thermal type ‘cold/cool’ (green) is observable. Note that the Thornthwaite/Feddema methods do not treat annual fluctuation of PET.

3.2 | Heath-Carter somatotype classification results

The morphological body shape of the three studied subjects can be summarized as follows (Table 3): the endomorphic component (9.24) dominates (the component is greater by at least 1 component unit than the other components) in the endomorphic female’s somatotype, her relative fatness is rather high, however the mesomorphic component (7.42) is high as well, so her body shape is characterized by robust musculo-skeletal development, too. The mesomorphic male’s somatotype is also characterized by an increased level of musculo-skeletal robusticity and fatness, but in his case the mesomorphic component (8.80) is dominant. In the case of the ectomorphic female these two components of the Heath–Carter somatotype are very low (endomorphy: 2.67, mesomorphy: 2.12), the ectomorphic component (5.35) dominates her body shape; her somatotype reflects a

| Humans            | Age (years) | Body mass (kg) | Body length (cm) | Basal metabolic flux density (Wm$^{-2}$) | Walking energy flux density (Wm$^{-2}$) | Total energy flux density (Wm$^{-2}$) |
|-------------------|-------------|----------------|------------------|------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Endomorphic female | 24          | 132.5          | 168.5            | 43.6                                     | 144.8                                  | 188.5                                 |
| Mesomorphic male   | 19          | 82             | 172.6            | 45.4                                     | 105.6                                  | 151                                   |
| Ectomorphic female | 19          | 46             | 166.1            | 41                                       | 80.7                                   | 121.2                                 |
linear body shape with very low fatness and musculoskeletal development.

3.3 The thermal climate of the Carpathian region according to the \( r_{cl} \) model

The thermal climate of the region and the time period considered in terms of annual mean and annual fluctuation of clothing resistance values for an endomorphic, mesomorphic and ectomorphic human are presented in Figure 3.

Initially it is important to note that since the \( r_{cl} \) model is sensitive to human body somatotype variations, we avoid the use of arbitrary selected category boundaries for the \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values, which can lead to severely manipulated results. The application of the main percentiles (0th, 25th, 50th, 75th and 100th) of the \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values as category boundaries is an objective and reproducible categorisation method. At first glance, we can see that the area distribution structure of the \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) fields is very similar for all three humans; the deviations are represented via their shifted \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values. The lowest \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values refer to endomorphic somatotype, the highest to ectomorphic somatotype. The area inhomogeneity is mostly caused by inhomogeneities in \( dr_{cl} \) fields. \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) changes in the North Hungarian Mountains with respect to the lowlands can be unequivocally observed. Note how large the \( dr_{cl} \) values are on the Transylvanian Plateau, for the ectomorphic somatotype 2.26–3.05 [clo], and for the endomorphic somatotype 1.50–2.05 [clo]. \( dr_{cl} \) values decrease with increase of elevation, this can be observed going from the Wallachian Plain towards the Carpathians. So, for instance, for the mesomorphic somatotype \( dr_{cl} \) values decrease from 1.75–2.38 through 1.65–1.74 to 1.20–1.64 [clo]. In the same area the \( dr_{cl} \) values for ectomorphic somatotype decrease from 2.26–3.05 through 2.21–2.25 to 1.53–2.20 [clo] remaining above 2 [clo]. Similarly large \( dr_{cl} \) changes can be found on the Transylvanian Plateau.

Areas with large thermal contrast (adjacent pixels, or pixels close to each other, which have high and low \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values) are of special importance. Such areas can be observed around Mount Papuk, the Retezat Mountains and the Făgăraș Mountains independently of somatotype. So, for instance, in the Făgăraș Mountains \( r_{cl} \) changes from 0.17–0.48 to 0.67–1.26 [clo] for an endomorphic human and from 0.59–0.96 to 1.24–2.05 [clo] for an ectomorphic human. In summary: the thermal maps obtained possess great spatial heterogeneity, except in the central part of the Great Hungarian Plain. It is noteworthy that in this region a more detailed spatial pattern of any thermal indicator can be achieved; for example, for PET after its rescaling (Ács et al., 2015).
FIGURE 3  The area distribution of annual mean \(r_{cl}\) in clo) and annual fluctuation \((dr_{cl}\) in clo) clothing resistance values estimated by the model in the CarpatClim dataset region for the period 1971–2000 for an (a) endomorphic, (b) mesomorphic and (c) ectomorphic human. The annual fluctuation of clothing resistance is the difference of the maximum and the minimum monthly clothing resistance values. Figures 3 and 5 are created by using functions from packages maps (Brownrigg et al., 2018), fields (Nychka et al., 2017) and RColorBrewer (Neuwirth, 2014) [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]
3.4 Linking clothing resistance to potential evapotranspiration

The fields of mean annual $r_{cl}$ and of annual sum of PET, as well as the fields of the annual fluctuation of $r_{cl}$ and PET are constructed for the CarpatClim dataset region (about 6,000 grid points) and compared to each other. The results of the comparisons of the $r_{cl}$ and PET fields and the $d r_{cl}$ and $d PET$ fields are presented in Figure 4.

Within the region PET ranges between 370 and 740 mm·year$^{-1}$, the corresponding clothing resistance changes are between 1.2 and 0.3 [clo] for an endomorphic and 2.0–0.7 [clo] for an ectomorphic human, with clear separation between the somatotypes. The clothing resistance of an ectomorphic human $r_{cl}^{ecto}$ is larger than the clothing resistance of an endomorphic human $r_{cl}^{endo}$ since $M^{ecto} < M^{endo}$. The point cloud of a mesomorphic human is not presented to avoid congestion of points referring to three humans. A reciprocal model is fitted to the point clouds connecting $r_{cl}$ and PET; the fitting coefficients and the R-squared values for all three somatotypes are given in Table 4. All regression coefficients can be considered as significant at a significance level of 0.1%. The distance between the two curves becomes slightly larger going from warmer (thermal type ‘cool’ [Feddema, 2005]) to colder (thermal type ‘cold’) PET values. The scatter of points linking $d r_{cl}$ and $d PET$ is much larger than the scatter of points linking $r_{cl}$ and PET. $d PET$ values vary between 90 and 145 (mm·month$^{-1}$). $d r_{cl}$ points ranges between 1.1 and 1.7 [clo] for an endomorphic and 1.6–2.5 [clo] for an ectomorphic human. $d r_{cl}$ increases as $d PET$ increases, but this increase is much slower in a range of $d PET$ of 115–130 (mm·month$^{-1}$). The point clouds connecting $d r_{cl}$ and $d PET$ are fitted by a third order regression polynomial; the fitting coefficients for all three somatotypes can be found in Table 5. The quality of the regression is better when regressing $r_{cl}$ on PET than when regressing $d r_{cl}$ on $d PET$. For both regression models, the quality of the regression is the best in the case of the ectomorphic human and the worst in the case of the endomorphic human.
3.5 | The thermal climate of the Carpathian Basin according to regression curves connecting \( r_{cl} \) and PET and \( dr_{cl} \) and dPET

The \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) thermal indicator maps obtained by the regression curves connecting \( r_{cl} \) and PET and \( dr_{cl} \) and dPET for endomorphic, mesomorphic and ectomorphic somatotypes are presented in Figure 5.

Inspecting Figure 5, we can hardly see differences in the spatial structure of \( r_{cl} \) and \( dr_{cl} \) values between different somatotypes. Some minor differences can be observed, for instance, in the Little-Hungarian Plain and in the southern parts of North Hungarian Mountains. The main characteristics of the region’s thermal climate are well reproduced. So, for instance, the hottest areas are located in Banat, the thermal inhomogeneity in mountains is larger than in the lowland, the seasonal thermal fluctuation is less in the mountains than in the lowland and the areas with the largest thermal contrast are located around Mount Papuk, the Retezat Mountains and the Făgărăș Mountains independently of somatotype. It is logical that the area inhomogeneity in Figure 5 (13 classes) is less than the area inhomogeneity in Figure 3 (16 classes). Note that Banat is cooler in Figure 5 than in Figure 3 independently of somatotype. So, for instance, in Figure 5, the range of \( r_{cl} \) for ectomorphic human is 0.86–0.97 [clo]; in Figure 3, the same \( r_{cl} \) is changing between 0.59 and 0.96 [clo]. In summary, thermal heterogeneity obtained by the models linking \( r_{cl} \) and PET and \( dr_{cl} \) and dPET is at least as well represented as the thermal heterogeneity obtained by Feddema’s method, but its thermal heterogeneity is smaller than the thermal heterogeneity obtained by the clothing resistance model.

4 | DISCUSSION

The evolution of generic and human climate methods took place independently of each other. There have been only a few attempts at interconnecting them (e.g., Yang and Matzarakis, 2016; Potchter et al., 2018; Ács et al., 2020); in these studies, among the generic methods, the Köppen method was always used. In the work of Yang and Matzarakis (2016), the implementation of human thermal comfort information in Köppen–Geiger climate classification is done by estimating PET\(^h\) using the RayMan model (Matzarakis et al., 2007) in 12 Chinese cities with 3-hr time resolution in the period 2000–2012. Human thermal comfort information is provided by determining frequencies of PET\(^h\) for PET\(^h\) \(<8^\circ\text{C}\) (thermal sensation: cold, very cold), for PET\(^h\) \(>35^\circ\text{C}\) (thermal sensation: hot, very hot) and for \(8^\circ\text{C} <\text{PET}^h < 35^\circ\text{C}\) (thermal sensation from cool to warm). Köppen’s method is also used in the work of Potchter et al. (2018). This study reviewed the climatic variability of the neutral category
FIGURE 5 The area distribution of the annual mean ($r_{cl}$ in clo) and annual fluctuation ($dr_{cl}$ in clo) values of clothing resistance estimated using the regression curves connecting $r_{cl}$ and PET and $dr_{cl}$ and dPET in the CarpatClim dataset region for the period 1971–2000 for (a) an endomorphic, (b) mesomorphic and (c) ectomorphic human. The annual fluctuation of clothing resistance is the difference of the maximum and the minimum monthly clothing resistance values [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

(no thermal stress) range of modified PET and the Universal Thermal Climate Index. The climate types are characterized by the Köppen method. Recently, Ács et al. (2020) have compared the area distribution of Köppen climate types and the clothing resistance parameter values in the Carpathian region. In this study, we have focused on potential evapotranspiration and clothing resistance with the aim to see (a) how they are capable of reproducing the Carpathian region’s thermal climate characteristics and (b) whether there is the possibility to link them methodologically. We chose PET-based generic methods, since PET and human thermal indicators can be interconnected, if not otherwise then statistically. So far none of the human thermal climate
indicators have been linked to PET. The idea and the success of this linking are supported by fact that \( r_{cl} \) strongly depends on \( T_o \) (Equation 2), at the same time \( T_a \) and PET are similar quantities. They equally depend on radiation balance, air temperature and wind speed. Of course, there is no sense of interconnection of \( r_{cl} \) and PET in cold and very cold climates. In cold climates the interconnection of \( r_{cl} \) and \( T_a \) has to be preferred and this is a clear drawback of approaches based on interconnecting \( r_{cl} \) and PET. Our results suggest that the interconnection of \( r_{cl} \) and PET and \( d_{r_{cl}} \) and dPET on the annual scale can be used in the Carpathian region. Having determined this link, we constructed the first hybrid models that methodologically interconnect human and descriptive climate model information. These statistical sub-modules can be used in Feddema’s method for obtaining extra information regarding human thermal climates. Of course, both the \( r_{cl} \) and the PET models should remain as simple as possible. So, when simulating \( r_{cl} \) a one-node model (Katić et al., 2016) is to be used; the use of two-node or multi-node models is not required since the treatment of skin temperature variation is not indispensable in climatological applications. PET, similarly to \( r_{cl} \), should also be parameterised as simply as possible in climatological applications. Consequently, we preferred the air temperature based formula of McKenney and Rosenberg (1993).

Processing human data, an increase of the \( M \) of a walking human from ectomorphic through mesomorphic to endomorphic somatotype (\( M^{exto} < M^{meso} < M^{endo} \)) is observed. The humans considered belong to completely different somatotypes, this is well illustrated by results presented in Table 3. The \( M \)-body shape relationship is not statistically proven, this is a task for the future. As a consequence, the strong dependence of \( r_{cl} \) on somatotype is noteworthy. This unique dependence in terms of human thermal sensation votes is not yet confirmed, this is also an important future task. Regarding the Carpathian region thermal climate characteristics, the following relationships can be highlighted: (1) In terms of clothing resistance characteristics (annual mean of \( r_{cl} \) and annual fluctuation of \( r_{cl} \)) spatial heterogeneity is larger in mountainous areas than in lowlands. (2) In terms of annual fluctuation of \( r_{cl} \) values, seasonal fluctuations are larger in lowlands than in mountainous areas. (3) Areas with the largest thermal contrast are reproduced not only in terms of clothing resistance parameter but also in terms of annual sum of PET.

### 5 CONCLUSIONS

The following main conclusions can be drawn: (1) On example of the Carpathian region, we showed that PET based generic methods can provide extra human thermal climate information by linking PET and the output of human thermal climate method, (2) extra human thermal climate information cannot be successfully served without having any information regarding the human body somatotype and (3) the Heath-Carter somatotype classification method seems to be a good tool for distinguishing inter-person or inter-human group variations in climatological applications.

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