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1 **Abstract**

2 Knowledge about how weather conditions affect travel behavior in different user groups and
3 contexts is relevant for planners and policymakers to facilitate sustainable transportation
4 systems. We aimed to assess the influence of day-to-day weather on cycling for transportation
5 among parents of young children with access to different bike types (e-bike vs non e-bike) in
6 a natural study setting over nine months. We hypothesized less impact of weather variability
7 on cycling when using an e-bike compared with a non e-bike. A randomized, controlled trial
8 was conducted in Southern Norway. The intervention group ($n = 18$) was in random order
9 equipped with an e-bike with trailer for child transportation ($n = 6$), a cargo (longtail) bike (n
10 $= 6$) and a traditional bike with trailer ($n = 6$), each for three months. These 18 participants
11 reported cycling on 832 out of 3276 person-days (25%). We used dynamic structural equation
12 modeling for intensive longitudinal data to examine the relations between daily weather
13 conditions, bike type (e-bike vs traditional bike), and cycling (dichotomized daily at yes or
14 no). Air temperature (positively) and wind speed (negatively) were both credible predictors of
15 cycling, whereas the other predictors (precipitation in the morning (yes or no) and presence of
16 snow (yes or no) were not. We added interaction terms between bike type and weather
17 conditions, but none of the interaction terms had a credible effect on cycling. Thus, the
18 relations between weather conditions and cycling were not moderated by bike type among
19 parents of young children.

20

21 **Keywords:** cycling, transportation, weather, parents, e-bike

22

23

24 **Introduction**

25 Cycling for transport could increase total physical activity (PA) levels time-efficiently (de
26 Nazelle et al., 2011; Sahlqvist, Song, & Ogilvie, 2012), and further prevent non-
27 communicable diseases and decrease mortality risk (Celis-Morales et al., 2017; Nordengen,
28 Andersen, Solbraa, & Riiser, 2019; Oja et al., 2011; Saunders, Green, Petticrew, Steinbach, &
29 Roberts, 2013) as well as psychological stress (Avila-Palencia et al., 2018). To enhance
30 cycling for transport, understanding about factors influencing such utilitarian travel is needed,
31 entailing factors at both the individual, societal and environmental level (Haustein, Jensen, &
32 Nielsen, 2019; Heinen, Van Wee, & Maat, 2010). Infrastructural initiatives have shown to
33 improve safety and cycling efficiency, thereby increasing cycling levels substantially
34 (Andersen et al., 2018; Pucher & Buehler, 2017). Also, bike accessibility is found to be a
35 relevant environmental determinant (Bjørnara et al., 2019; Cairns, Behrendt, Raffo,
36 Beaumont, & Kiefer, 2017; Handy, Van Wee, & Kroesen, 2014), and short-term conditions
37 such as work and trip characteristics and weather conditions have shown to influence day-to-
38 day travel mode choices (Heinen, Maat, & Van Wee, 2011).

39 Cycling is considered the most weather-exposed transport mode, and it has been reported that
40 changes in weather conditions could explain about 80% of the variations in daily bike flow
41 (Thomas, Jaarsma, & Tutert, 2013). Still, weather effects seem to differ between different
42 population groups and between geographical, climatological and cultural contexts (Böcker,
43 Dijst, & Prillwitz, 2013; Böcker, Uteng, Liu, & Dijst, 2019), and the relative impact of
44 weather tends to be greater for recreational trips, compared with utilitarian trips (Böcker et al.,
45 2013; Liu, Susilo, & Karlström, 2017). Flynn and colleagues (2012) found that the likelihood
46 of commuting to work by bike increased with higher temperatures and decreased with snow
47 depth and wind speed. Further, Dutch data (Böcker & Thorsson, 2014) has shown significant
48 impact of day-to-day weather variability on frequency and especially duration of commuter

49 cycling, and the inclination to cycle to work tend to decrease in proportion to increased wind
50 speed, and increase with higher temperature (Heinen et al., 2011). Precipitation, on the other
51 hand, has repeatedly been found to influence cycling negatively (Böcker & Thorsson, 2014;
52 Flynn, Dana, Sears, & Aultman-Hall, 2012; Heinen et al., 2011). Flynn et al. (2012) reported
53 that participants in Vermont, US were almost twice as likely to cycle to work on days with no
54 morning precipitation, while Böcker and Thorsson (2014) found linear negative effects of
55 precipitation on cycling frequencies as well as cycling durations in a Dutch sample. Further,
56 Heinen and colleagues (2011) reported that both the duration and the quantity of rain affected
57 cycling negatively. However, no effect of precipitation on the probability of cycling (Cervero
58 & Duncan, 2003), or less effect of rain than of temperature (Brandenburg, Matzarakis, &
59 Arnberger, 2007), has been reported as well. Besides, weather factors co-occur, and the effect
60 of different meteorological measures on travel pattern has shown to be interrelated. For
61 example, Phung and Rose (2008) found a combined negative effect of wind and light rain on
62 cycling counts in Melbourne.

63 The frequency and intensity of some extreme weather and climate events have increased
64 because of global warming and will continue to increase especially under medium and high
65 emission scenarios (Shukla et al., 2019). Thus, knowledge about the influence of weather
66 conditions on travel behavior in different user groups and contexts, and across different bike
67 types, is relevant for planners and policymakers to facilitate sustainable transportation
68 systems and climate change adaptation. Long term travel demand forecasting without
69 considering weather impacts could potentially over- or underestimate future travel demand,
70 which may result in misleading policy implications.

71 E-bikes are increasingly popular as they overcome typical barriers to traditional pedal cycling
72 (Fishman & Cherry, 2016), while still providing health benefits from PA as e-bike users cycle
73 longer distances (Castro et al., 2019), and more frequently (Jahre et al., 2019). In addition,

74 seasonal variations could become less problematic when being provided with assistance from
75 an electric motor (Plazier, Weitkamp, & van den Berg, 2017). It has been suggested that the
76 power and the heavy weight of an e-bike could provide better grip under snowy and icy
77 conditions, thereby making it easier to cycle during all seasons, yet to a greater extent for avid
78 cyclists than for newcomers (Edge, Dean, Cuomo, & Keshav, 2018). Supporting this, we
79 recently reported from the current intervention project CARTOBIKE that when being
80 provided with access to an e-bike (compared with access to a non e-bike) the participants
81 cycled about twice the distance for the trial period in total, and about four times the distance
82 during the winter period (Bjørnara et al., 2019). Nonetheless, for parents with young children
83 most factors influencing transportation mode choice tend to support car use, yet it has been
84 proposed that the cohort of millennials may be more open to more sustainable transportation
85 alternatives to the car, compared with earlier generations (McCarthy, Delbosc, Currie, &
86 Molloy, 2017).

87 To the best of our knowledge, no previous studies have addressed the impact of weather
88 conditions on everyday cycling in parents of young children. Therefore, the objectives of the
89 present study were to: i) assess how day-to-day weather variability influence cycling for
90 transport in parents of young children, and ii) how these associations relate to bike type (e-
91 bike vs. non e-bike). We hypothesized that day-to-day weather variability would have less
92 influence on cycling frequency when using an e-bike compared to when using a non e-bike.

93 **Materials and methods**

94 *Setting*

95 The present study was conducted in the region of Kristiansand, situated on the coast in
96 Southern Norway. The climate in the region is temperate with sporadic snowfall during the
97 winter months (i.e. late December, January, and February). Average annual temperature based
98 on the current official climate normal period (1991-2020) is 7.6 °C with mean January and

99 July temperatures of 0.2 and 16.6 °C, respectively. Winter temperatures are rarely below –10
100 °C, while average annual precipitation is 1,381 mm (MET, 2021). Compared with other large
101 cities in Norway the cycling share is relatively high in Kristiansand (8%), yet the proportion
102 using private car for the work commute is still considerable (64%) (Statens Vegvesen, 2018).

103 *Study design*

104 The present study includes secondary analyses of the research project CARTOBIKE, a
105 randomized controlled trial being conducted among a free-living setting in Southern Norway
106 from September 2017 to May 2018. For the participants in the intervention group ($n = 18$) the
107 trial entailed, in random order, three months access to an e-bike with trailer ($n = 6$), three
108 months access to a human powered cargo (longtail) bike ($n = 6$), and three months access to a
109 traditional bike with trailer ($n = 6$) (Bjørnara et al., 2017). The intervention arms followed the
110 autumn (September–November), winter (December–February) and spring (March–May)
111 seasons, respectively. The e-bikes (pedal-assisted) were Emotion Neo Cross/Neo Jet (BH
112 Bikes, Vitoria, Spain), 2012-model (weight 21.8 kg). The longtails were Surly Big Dummy
113 (Surly Bikes, Minnesota, US), 2010–2017 models (weight 21.8 kg (26.6 kg including one
114 child seat)). The traditional bikes were two different models; DBS Rallar Flåm (DBS,
115 Taiwan), 2013 model (weight 13.5 kg), and one Kalkhoff Jubilee (Kalkhoff, Cloppenburg,
116 Germany), 2017 model (weight 13.5 kg). The bike trailers were of the type Spectra Eco
117 (Cycleurope, Stockholm, Sweden, weight 14 kg). More detailed information about the bikes
118 and following equipment was recently published (Bjørnara et al., 2019). If any technical
119 issues arose during the trial, participants were offered assistance from a bike repair shop. Bike
120 helmets for both parent and child, a safety vest, and lights were provided, and during the
121 winter season the bikes were equipped with winter tires with studs. Cycling was voluntary,
122 meaning that no cycling instructions were given. Research clearance was obtained from The
123 Norwegian Center for Research Data (number 52964), and the guidelines in the Declaration

124 of Helsinki (World Medical Association, 2013) was followed. Participants received written
125 information about study aims and procedures before providing consent for participation
126 electronically. The trial was registered at clinicaltrials.gov 27 April 2017 (NCT03131518).

127 *Study sample*

128 To recruit participants, the kindergartens and businesses in Kristiansand municipality were
129 contacted, and Facebook announcements were tailored to the target group. Inclusion criteria
130 were to have at least one child born in year 2013, 2014 or 2015 attending kindergarten, to
131 reside 2-10 km from the workplace and <3 km from the kindergarten and the grocery store,
132 having car-access, being physically inactive (<150 min per week of moderate-to-vigorous
133 intensity physical activity), and having cycled less than once weekly throughout the last
134 twelve months to the workplace, the kindergarten or the grocery store (Bjørnara et al., 2019).
135 From May 2017 through August 2017 a total of 36 participants living in Southern Norway
136 were enrolled in the study and were randomized to intervention and control groups. The study
137 includes data from the 18 participants in the intervention group.

138 **Measurements**

139 *Cycling*

140 Cycling distance and time were measured continuously throughout the nine months with a
141 bicycle computer (CatEye Velo 9, CatEye, Osaka, Japan), and recorded daily by each
142 participant. The project coordinator collected the recorded cycling data every third month, i.e
143 after each cycling period, when the bike type was changed. A dichotomous cycling variable
144 was constructed (yes/no), entailing that all days with recorded cycling data were classified as
145 cycling days.

146 *Weather conditions*

147 Daily meteorological data for the region of Kristiansand was obtained from The Norwegian
148 Meteorological Institute (MET Norway), for the time period from September 2017 until mid-
149 June 2018. The meteorological stations are located at Kjevik, approximately 12 km east of the
150 city center (latitude 58.20 degrees, longitude 8.08 degrees) and at Kristiansand fire station
151 (precipitation only) about one km east of the city center (latitude 58.16 degrees, longitude
152 8.00 degrees). Weather parameters were measured at 7 a.m. and comprised air temperature
153 (°C); wind speed (m/s), precipitation (mm last hour) and snow depth (cm, measured at 6 a.m.).

154 ***Background information***

155 When signing up and providing consent, participants answered a web-based questionnaire
156 assessing relevant background information, such as sex, date of birth, ethnicity and
157 educational level, and information assessing eligibility for inclusion cycling frequency over
158 the past 12 months, habitual PA-level and distance to selected destinations.

159 ***Data analyses***

160 The statistical analyses were performed using Mplus version 8.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-
161 2017). Descriptive analyses were conducted, and continuous variables are presented as means
162 and standard deviations (*SD*), while categorical variables are presented as numbers and
163 percentage. The unit of analysis was person-day records for weekdays (all weekend days and
164 holidays were excluded), with ‘cycled’ (yes/no) as the outcome variable. We used dynamic
165 structural equation modeling (DSEM; Asparouhov, Hamaker, & Muthén, 2018) for intensive
166 longitudinal data to examine the relations between daily weather conditions, bike type, and
167 cycling. DSEM integrates features from time-series analysis, multilevel modeling, and
168 structural equation modeling into one flexible model. More specifically, the DSEM model
169 deals with autocorrelations and can incorporate lagged regressions, can include time trends,
170 allows inclusion of both time-varying and time-invariant covariates, and can circumvent

171 problems with missing observations and unequal intervals using a Kalman filter approach
172 (McNeish & Hamaker, 2020).

173 The specific model used in the current study was the multilevel AR(1) model, which
174 incorporates the outcome as a lagged predictor and daily weather conditions and bike type as
175 time-varying covariates. To clearly distinguish the within-person effects from the between-
176 person effects we used latent mean centering (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2019). Latent mean
177 centering has several advantages, such as providing a clear interpretation of the within-person
178 effects, eliminates known biases for the autoregressive effects (i.e., Nickell's bias) and other
179 time-varying covariates (i.e., Lüdtkes bias), and provides an intercept that can be interpreted
180 as the person's mean. We focus on the within-person level model because the primary interest
181 in the current study was on the daily associations between weather conditions, bike type, and
182 cycling. First, we examined the magnitude of lagged effects and time trends in the outcome.
183 Second, we added the within-person predictors to the model. Precipitation and snow depth
184 were dichotomized; precipitation into (0) <0.1 mm/h and (1) ≥ 0.1 mm/h, and snow depth into
185 (0) no snow (<0.1 cm) and (1) snow (≥ 0.1 cm), whereas air temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$) and wind speed
186 (m/s) were kept as continuous variables. Bike type was dichotomized into (0) non e-bike
187 (longtail and traditional bike) and (1) e-bike. Third, we added within-person interactions
188 between each of the weather condition variables and bike type using the product-first and
189 center-second (PIC2) approach (Loeys, Josephy, & Dewitte, 2018). We used the magnitude
190 of the standardized within-level estimates that are averaged across persons as an indication of
191 which predictor variable has the strongest direct relation with the outcome variable (or
192 explains most unique variance in the outcome variable; Schuurman et al., 2016). We
193 estimated both fixed (i.e., means) and random (i.e., variances) effects in these models.

194

195 Bayesian multilevel models with a probit link function were estimated using two Markov
196 chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) chains and 100000 iterations. Chain convergence was assessed
197 using the potential scale reduction factor (PSRF; Brooks & Gelman, 1998), where a low (<
198 1.05) and stable PSRF was considered evidence of chain convergence. We relied on the
199 default noninformative prior specification in Mplus. Parameter estimates were evaluated using
200 the 95% credibility intervals (CI). If the 95% CI did not include zero, it was considered as a
201 credible parameter estimate (Zyphur & Oswald, 2015).

202 **Results**

203 The current study sample comprised nine females and nine males with mean (SD) age 35.8
204 (5.0) years. Sixteen (89%) participants were native Norwegians (participants and both parents
205 born in Norway), and ten (56%) participants reported higher educational level (≥ 4 years of
206 college/university education). Further, median distances from home to workplace,
207 kindergarten and grocery store was 7.1km, 1.3km, and 1.4 km, respectively.

208 Descriptive statistics for the study variables are presented in Table 1. The total number of
209 weekdays with valid cycling data was 3276 person-days. In sum, participants reported cycling
210 on 832 (25%) of these days. In the first model, we estimated the autoregressive effect and
211 time trend. The lagged effect across days was 0.399 (95% CI [0.213, 0.556]) indicating that
212 cycling the previous day was positively related to cycling the next day. The time trend was -
213 0.004 (95% CI [-0.007, 0.000]) suggesting a weak decline in cycling across time. Given the
214 weak time trend and to reduce model complexity, we did not include the time trend on
215 subsequent models.

216 In the second model (Table 2), we included daily weather conditions and bike type as within-
217 person predictors of cycling. The fixed effects indicated that air temperature (Estimate =
218 0.026, 95% CI [0.009, 0.044]) and wind speed (Estimate = -0.053, 95% CI [-0.086, -0.020])
219 were both credible predictors of cycling (i.e., the 95% CI did not include zero), whereas the

220 95% CI of the other predictors included zero indicating a higher degree of uncertainty in their
221 point estimates. The within-level R² averaged across individuals was 0.270 (95% CI [0.223,
222 0.325]), indicating that the predictors combined explained 27.0% of the variance in cycling at
223 the within-person level. A comparison of the standardized within-person estimates averaged
224 across persons indicated that the lagged effect of previous cycling (0.289) explained most
225 unique variance in the outcome variable, followed by air temperature (0.147), wind speed (-
226 0.108), e-bike (0.072), snow depth (-0.047), and precipitation (0.001).

227 In the third model, we added interaction terms between bike type and weather conditions
228 (Table 3). However, none of the interaction terms were credible predictors of cycling (i.e., the
229 95% CI included zero). Thus, the relations between weather conditions and cycling were not
230 moderated by bike type.

231 **Discussion**

232 The current study aimed to assess how day-to-day weather variability influenced cycling for
233 transport in parents of young children participating in the CARTOBIKE-intervention
234 (Bjørnara et al., 2017), and how these associations were related to bike type (e-bike vs. non e-
235 bike). Results showed that higher wind speed affected cycling negatively, while higher air
236 temperatures affected cycling positively. For precipitation and presence of snow, no impact
237 on cycling frequency was found. The impact of weather on cycling was not different for bike
238 type being used (e-bike vs. non e-bike). This means that wind speed affected both e-biking
239 and cycling with non e-bikes negatively to a similar degree, while air temperature affected
240 positively to a similar degree. This contradicts our hypothesis that the day-to-day weather
241 variability would have less influence on cycling frequency when using an e-bike compared to
242 when using a non e-bike.

243 Previous studies on effects of weather on cycling has found that in general, warm, sunny, dry
244 and light conditions tend to facilitate walking and cycling, while cold, wet, windy and dark

245 conditions, and very high temperatures (above 25-30 °C), seem to cause a shift from active to
246 motorized transportation modes (Böcker et al., 2013; Böcker et al., 2019). Partly differing
247 results in the present study may relate to sample traits, for example that for parents of young
248 children precipitation may have a different impact than for the adult population in general.
249 Nevertheless, one could expect precipitation to be more relevant when transporting young
250 children, since young children might be more vulnerable to weather. Therefore, these
251 differences may be more likely explained by variances in weather effects on cycling across
252 different cultural, climatological and geographical contexts, in addition to between user
253 groups (Böcker et al., 2013; Böcker et al., 2019). Böcker and colleagues (2019) explored the
254 effects of weather on transport mode choices (trips made by foot, bike, public transport or
255 car), destination choices, trip distances and trip chaining in the regions of Utrecht, Oslo,
256 Stavanger, and Stockholm, and revealed considerable disparities. For example, the authors
257 reported that they could not detect any significant precipitation (or wind) effects on transport
258 mode choice in Stavanger, Oslo or Stockholm, but in Utrecht there was an effect. Proposed
259 explanations were greater exposure to wet conditions in Utrecht, as 20.4% of recorded trips
260 were conducted under wet conditions, compared with 10.1% in Oslo and 9.4% in Stockholm
261 (Böcker et al., 2019), or differences in cycling culture, habits and adaptations across regions,
262 and further differences in cycling shares (26.3% in Utrecht, 2.7% in Stockholm, 6.3% in
263 Stavanger and 4.5% in Oslo). These results are, however, not directly comparable to the
264 present study due to the intervention approach in the present study, as well as the selected
265 sample of parents with young children.

266 Also, weather is suggested to be a subjective perception just as much as an objective measure
267 (Knez, Thorsson, Eliasson, & Lindberg, 2009; Thorsson, Lindqvist, & Lindqvist, 2004),
268 entailing that subjects with different socio-demographics, living in different socio-cultural
269 contexts, could perceive weather differently under equal weather conditions (Knez et al.,

270 2009). In turn, such a heterogeneity in weather reference point would likely affect individual's
271 everyday travel decisions. Nonetheless, people's reference points and subjective weather
272 perceptions could possibly modify, following a dynamic climate change (Liu, 2016), making
273 seasonality less important and weather parameters more relevant in themselves.

274 Further, some contrasting results in the present study compared with previous findings, may
275 also relate to methodological issues like study design (intervention vs observational studies),
276 or different measures of weather variables (dummy variables vs ratio-scale variables). The
277 intervention design of the present study (unlike the abovementioned studies) may have
278 influenced the lack of effect of precipitation and presence of snow on cycling. Although there
279 were no cycling instructions, the awareness of being part of a research study, and thereby
280 being 'observed' (McCambridge, Witton, & Elbourne, 2014), may have encouraged cycling
281 also under less favorable weather conditions.

282 To the best of our knowledge, no previous studies have addressed the impact of weather
283 conditions on everyday cycling across the yearly seasons, using different bike types. Based on
284 previous findings in project CARTOBIKE, showing that the e-bike obtained the greatest
285 cycling amount for the trial period in total compared with the longtail and the traditional bike
286 (Bjørnara et al., 2019), we hypothesized less impact of day-to-day weather variability on
287 cycling when using the e-bike, compared with days when using a non e-bike (longtail or the
288 traditional bike). Also, earlier findings that seasonal variations seem to become less
289 problematic when being provided with assistance from an electric motor (Plazier et al., 2017),
290 and the suggestion that the power and the heavy weight of an e-bike could offer more traction
291 under winter conditions (Edge et al., 2018), support an expectation of overall increased
292 cycling under diverse weather conditions when riding an e-bike. Nonetheless, we could not
293 find such differences in the present study, meaning that stronger winds reduced cycling and
294 higher temperatures increased cycling, regardless of having motorized assistance or not. On

295 the other hand, there were large individual differences in cycling among the participants in
296 CARTOBIKE (Bjørnara et al., 2019). That is, although the e-bike was the most used bike type
297 overall, those who cycled the most tended to do so with all three bike types (e-bike, longtail
298 and traditional bike).

299 *Strengths and limitations*

300 One study strength was the natural setting of the intervention (i.e. bike access with no cycling
301 instructions), enabling to explore the effect of accessibility on voluntary cycling, and further
302 the impact of day-to-day weather variations on voluntary cycling. Usage of data collected
303 longitudinally allows for better insight into the decision to cycle than would have been
304 possible with cross-sectional data, due to the opportunity to investigate a person's decision at
305 multiple time points while controlling for potential confounders. Compared with previous
306 studies linking cycling reports to weather data (Böcker & Thorsson, 2014; Flynn et al., 2012;
307 Heinen et al., 2011), the present trial lasting for nine months represents an extended time
308 period, measuring cycling objectively, yet in a limited number of subjects (Bjørnara et al.,
309 2019). Dichotomizing cycling into days and not specific trips might also be considered a
310 limitation, a decision to cycle is made for each trip. Further, due to the lack of a routine for
311 cycling in our participants, it might be that the decision to cycle (or not) was based on
312 perceived weather conditions at the departure time, for which hourly and more accurate data
313 would be a better solution than daily data (Böcker et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017). Thus, the
314 present study was based on weather data measured at 7 a.m. each morning. However, weather
315 conditions (especially precipitation) might vary greatly throughout the day, and it might not
316 account equally well for participants with non-regular work schedules. Likewise, the decision
317 to exclude weekends and holidays from the analyses accounts mainly for those with regular
318 work schedules, yet it could be justified by the family perspective of the project, and further
319 the kindergartens' opening hours. Another potential limitation was the small sample size at

320 the between-person level. However, there were numerous observations (182 days) for each
321 subject. It also might be, by chance, that the most eager individuals were clustered within one
322 group, which in turn could influence cycling during the different seasons. Indeed, five of the
323 seven participants with total fewest cycling days throughout the study, used the e-bike during
324 fall season. It is also important to bear in mind that the participants in this study were all users
325 of motorized transport modes before participating in this trial, and that they probably needed a
326 period to get used to travelling by bicycles. At the same time, they were eager to participate
327 and therefore motivated to start cycling (Bjørnara et al., 2019). This adaptation period might
328 have influenced the results.

329 Precipitation data was missing for in total 19 out of 182 weekdays (9.6%), and associations
330 between cycling and precipitation could be distorted by often highly localized precipitation. In
331 Norway, the areas along the south coast (like in the region of Kristiansand) have generally the
332 highest intensities of rainfall during a few hours or shorter (Hanssen-Bauer et al., 2017). Such
333 rainfall is dominated by highly localized showers with areas close by receiving no
334 precipitation, probably affecting participants who were located too far away from the weather
335 stations. It is therefore limiting that we included precipitation at a single time point in the
336 morning. Still, that might be the moment when deciding to cycle or not. For wind speed and
337 air temperature, the weather at the place where the decision to travel was made may be
338 different from the weather at the point of observation. Also, it might be considered a
339 limitation that we did not adjust for daylight, which is clearly associated with season and
340 weather. Furthermore, since a convenience sample was recruited, those highly educated were
341 overrepresented (compared with corresponding age groups in the Norwegian population),
342 resulting in reduced generalizability to the general population of parents with children
343 attending kindergarten. Similarly, results may not be generalizable to parents living in other
344 cultural, geographical and infrastructural contexts than the present sample.

345 ***Perspectives***

346 The present study contributes to increased knowledge concerning the influence of weather
347 conditions on everyday cycling with different bike types in parents of young children in
348 geographical, infrastructural and cultural contexts differing from those in typical cycling
349 cultures like the Netherlands and Denmark. Understanding the impact of weather conditions
350 on day-to-day travel mode choices in different contexts and user groups, and across different
351 bike types, is relevant for planners and policymakers to predict future travel demand, and
352 further facilitate sustainable transportation systems. For example, less cycling due to cold
353 temperatures and strong wind could potentially be mitigated by infrastructural initiatives such
354 as sanding or salting of ice along cycling routes and bike lanes, in addition to wind barriers
355 (e.g. in the forms of trees or others), especially along main cycling infrastructures. Also,
356 customized bike equipment (e.g. clothing and tires), appropriate storage rooms at workplaces,
357 and cycling education addressing safe and (more) comfortable riding in rough weather and
358 under winter conditions, may extend the range of conditions in which cycling for
359 transportation is perceived feasible (Winters, Friesen, Koehoorn, & Teschke, 2007).

360 Moreover, although some researchers have made attempts to assess associations between
361 integrated weather indices with travel behavior, future analyses could possibly advantage
362 from including combined weather effects to a larger extent (Böcker et al., 2013). In addition,
363 future studies should aim for increased understanding on how individuals perceive weather
364 through using subjective weather perception measures, and qualitative approaches such as
365 focus groups, in addition to objective measures.

366 **Conclusion**

367 Weather conditions posed a significant impact on everyday cycling in a sample of parents of
368 young children residing in Southern Norway, regardless of bike type being used. We found
369 that higher wind speed decreased cycling, while higher air temperatures increased cycling.

370 For precipitation and presence of snow, no impact on cycling frequency was found. Contrary
371 to our hypothesis, we did not find that using an e-bike made parents of young children less
372 influenced by bad weather than when using a conventional bike.

373 **Abbreviations**

374 PA: physical activity; E-bike: Electric assisted bicycle; Km: kilometers.

375 **Declarations**

376 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

377 Research clearance was assigned by The Norwegian Social Science Data Services (number
378 52964), and all participants were given written information about study objectives and
379 methods prior providing consent electronically.

380 *Consent for publication*

381 Not applicable.

382 *Availability of data and material*

383 The datasets used and analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding
384 author on reasonable request.

385 *Competing interests*

386 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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390 by the University of Agder, Faculty of Health and Sports Sciences.

391 *Author's contributions*

392 EB, HBB and SB conceived the study with substantial contributions concerning study design
393 from SJtV, AF, BD, and LBA. HBB collected all data except from the weather variables,
394 while KI provided meteorological data and HBB analyzed the data together with AS. AS did
395 the final analyses. HBB interpreted the data and drafted the manuscript together with EB, with
396 critical input regarding data interpretation and relevant intellectual content from SB, SJtV,
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