



Clear the air
for children



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Clear the air for children

The impact of air pollution on children

October 2016

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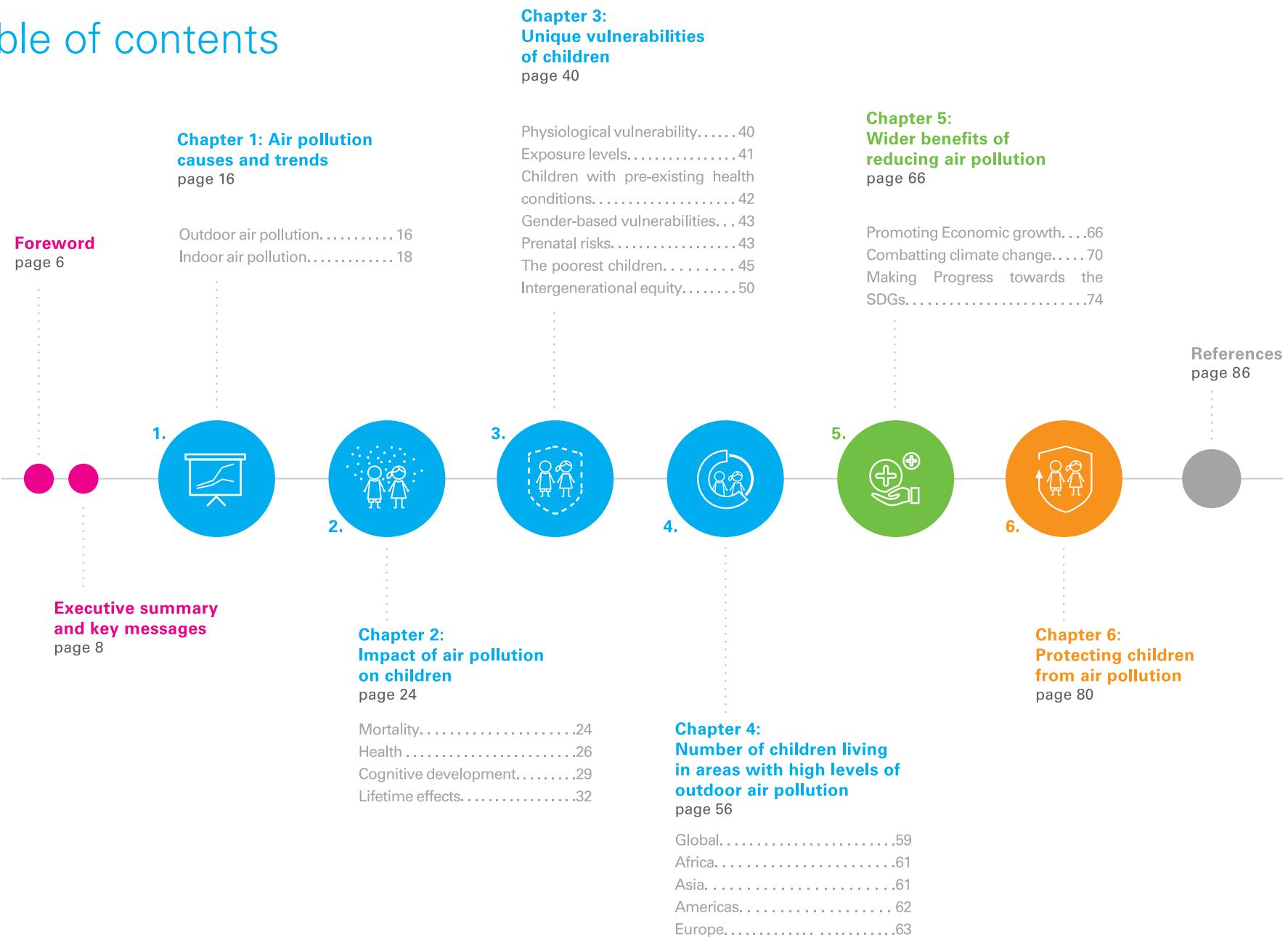
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Foreword

It causes miscarriages, early delivery, and low birth weight.

It contributes to diseases that account for almost 1 in 10 of all deaths of children under the age of five.

It can harm the healthy development of children's brains.

It is a drag on economies and societies, already costing as much as 0.3 per cent of global GDP – and rising.

And in many parts of the world, it is getting worse.

'It' is air pollution. And as both this litany and this report show, the magnitude of the danger it poses – especially to young children – is enormous.

Children breathe twice as quickly as adults, and take in more air relative to their body weight. Their respiratory tracks are more permeable and thus more vulnerable. Their immune systems are weaker. Their brains are still developing.

Ultrafine, airborne pollutants – caused primarily by smoke and fumes – can more easily enter and irritate children's lungs, causing and exacerbating life-threatening disease. Studies show these tiny particles can also cross the blood-brain barrier, which is less resistant in children, causing inflammation, damaging brain tissue, and permanently impairing cognitive development. They even can cross the placental barrier, injuring the developing fetus when the mother is exposed to toxic pollutants.

So urban children growing up too close to industrial sites, smoldering dumps, and electrical generators that burn biomass fuels like dung ... rural children living in unventilated homes where food is prepared on smoking cook stoves ... refugee and migrant children staying in tents filled with wood smoke ... All these children are breathing in pollutants night and day that endanger their health, threaten their lives, and undermine their futures.

Many of these children are already disadvantaged by poverty and deprivation. Some are already at heightened risk from conflicts, crises and the intensifying effects of climate change. Air pollution is yet another threat to their health and wellbeing – and yet another way in which the world is letting them down.

The sheer numbers of children affected are staggering. Based on satellite imagery, in the first analysis of its kind, this report shows that around the world today, 300 million children live in areas with extremely toxic levels of air pollution. Approximately 2 billion children live in areas where pollution levels exceed the minimum air quality standards set by the World Health Organization. These data don't account for the millions of children exposed to air pollution inside the home.

The impact is commensurately shocking. Every year, nearly 600,000 children under the age of five die from diseases caused or exacerbated by the effects of indoor and outdoor air pollution. Millions more suffer from respiratory diseases that diminish their resilience and affect their physical and cognitive development.

As population grows ... as countries continue to develop through rapid industrialization ... and as urbanization increases, experts expect all these numbers to climb.

Unless we act now.

Developed countries have made great strides in reducing outdoor air pollution and protecting children from indoor pollutants. Developing countries – both low and middle income – can and must do so too.

Most urgently, this means promoting greater understanding of the dangers of air pollution – among governments, communities, and families. And it means providing parents with more information on how to protect their children from indoor pollutants. This includes improved ventilation, so smoke does not linger ... better insulation, so less heating fuel is burned ... and cleaner cook stoves. These are all practical solutions that can make a big difference.

Outside the home, it means improving urban planning so schools and playgrounds are not located in close proximity to sources of toxic pollution. It means improving waste disposal systems and increasing public transportation options to reduce automobile traffic and the harmful fossil fuel emissions it produces. It means investing in sustainable energy solutions to reduce reliance on pollution-causing sources of energy.

It also means monitoring air pollution levels more carefully and including this critical data in our approach to other issues, like child health. Health workers who know a sick child has been exposed to high levels of pollution can diagnose illness more quickly, treat it more effectively, and prevent the compounding harm that pollution can cause.

Protecting children from air pollution is not only in their best interests; it is also in the best interests of their societies – a benefit realized in reduced health costs ... in increased productivity ... in a cleaner, safer environment ... and thus, in more sustainable development.

We can make the air safer for children. And because we can, we must.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Anthony Lake".

Anthony Lake
Executive Director, UNICEF

Executive summary and key messages

Around 300 million children currently live in areas where the air is toxic – exceeding international limits by at least six times.

Using satellite imagery of outdoor air pollution, this study found that around 300 million children currently live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds international guidelines by at least six times. In total, around 2 billion children live in areas that exceed the World Health Organization annual limit of 10 µg/m³ (the amount of micrograms of ultra-fine particulate matter per cubic metre of air that constitutes a long term hazard).

Air pollution is linked directly with diseases that kill. In 2012, air pollution was linked with 1 out of every 8 deaths, globally – or around 7 million people.¹ Around 600,000 of those were children under 5 years old, globally.² Almost one million children die from pneumonia each year, more than half of which are directly related to air pollution.

Air pollution can considerably affect children's health.

Studies have shown that air pollution is strongly associated with respiratory conditions such as pneumonia, bronchitis and asthma, among others. It can also exacerbate underlying health issues and prevent children from going to school,³ and there is emerging evidence that it can disrupt physical and cognitive development.⁴ Left untreated, some health complications related to air pollution can last a lifetime.

Air pollution is worsening in many parts of the world. As countries continue to industrialize and urbanize, energy, coal and fuel use tends to increase. A recent publication from the World

Health Organization (WHO) indicates that urban outdoor air pollution has increased by about 8 per cent between 2008 and 2013.⁵ Projections are unfavourable. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), under-five mortality could be 50 per cent higher than current estimates by 2050 as a result of outdoor air pollution.⁶ Another study published in *Nature* found it could be even worse – doubling by 2050.⁷

Children are uniquely vulnerable to air pollution – due both to their physiology as well as to the type and degree of their exposure.

Air pollution can seriously affect the health of the foetus.

Pregnant mothers are advised to avoid air pollution – just as they should avoid smoking or breathing secondhand cigarette smoke. Studies have shown that chronic exposure to high levels of particulate matter (PM2.5 – which consists of particulate matter with a median diameter of less than 2.5 microns, approximately one thirtieth the width of average human hair) is associated with higher rates of early foetal loss, preterm delivery – and lower birthweight.^{8,9}

Children's lungs are in the process of growing and developing, making them especially vulnerable to polluted air. The cell layer on the inside of the respiratory tract is more permeable among young children.¹⁰ Children's respiratory airways are also smaller than adult airways, so infections are more likely to cause blockages than in adults.¹¹ Children breathe twice as fast, taking in more air per unit of body weight, compared to adults.¹²

Furthermore, children's immune systems are still developing, especially at young ages. During early childhood, children are highly susceptible to viruses, bacteria and other infections.¹³ This both increases the risks of respiratory infection and reduces the ability of children to combat it.

Moreover, the effects of air pollution on a child can have lifelong health implications. Air pollution can impair the development of children's lungs, which can affect them through to adulthood. Studies have shown that the lung capacity of children living in polluted environments can be reduced by 20 per cent – similar to the effect of growing up in a home with secondhand cigarette smoke.¹⁴ Studies have also shown that adults who were exposed to chronic air pollution as children tend to have respiratory problems later in life.¹⁵

Poor children are among the most at risk.

Globally, air pollution affects children in low- and middle-income countries more. Up to 88 per cent of all deaths from illnesses associated with outdoor air pollution¹⁶ and over 99 per cent of all deaths from illnesses associated with indoor air pollution occur in low- and middle-income countries.¹⁷ Asia currently accounts for the vast bulk of total deaths attributable to air pollution.¹⁸ The proportions, however, are changing. In Africa, increasing industrial production, urbanization and traffic is causing the rapid rise of outdoor air pollution.^{19,20,21} As this happens, the number of African children exposed to outdoor air pollution is likely to increase, especially as the continent's share

of the global child population is set to increase markedly. By mid-century, more than one in three children globally is projected to be African.²²

Outdoor air pollution tends to be worse in lower-income, urban communities.²³ Lower-income areas are often highly exposed to environmental pollutants such as waste and air pollution.²⁴ Factories and industrial activity are also more common near lower-income areas, and there is often less capacity to manage waste. This can result in burning, including of plastics, rubber and electronics, creating highly toxic airborne chemicals which are highly detrimental to children. Poorer families are also less likely to have resources for good quality ventilation, filtration and air conditioning to protect themselves from harmful air.

Indoor air pollution is most common in lower-income, rural areas. Over 1 billion children live in homes where solid fuels are used in cooking and heating. While outdoor air pollution tends to be worse in poor urban communities, indoor air pollution tends to be worse in rural communities where biomass fuels are more frequently used in cooking and heating due to lack of access to other forms of energy. Eighty-one per cent of rural households in India use biomass fuel, for instance, because it is relatively inexpensive and readily available.²⁵ Even at national levels, income is linked with the use of solid fuels for household energy needs: Thailand – with a per capita income of US\$5,816 – uses biomass to meet 23 per cent of household energy needs, while the United Republic of Tanzania – with a per capita income

of US\$864 – uses biomass to meet 95 per cent of household energy needs.²⁶

A lack of adequate health services and poor initial health makes the poorest children even more at risk. When a child is sick, lacks good nutrition or does not have access to clean water, adequate sanitation and hygiene, respiratory infections, such as pneumonia are more common and potentially more deadly.²⁷ A body's defences require good overall health. A lack of access to health care not only prevents treatment, but can also mean that conditions could go undiagnosed in the first place.²⁸

Reducing air pollution is one of the most important things we can do for children. Research shows that reductions in air pollution have led to improvements in children's respiratory functions.^{29,30,31} A World Health Organization study estimates that meeting global air quality guidelines for PM2.5 could prevent 2.1 million deaths across all age groups per year based on 2010 data.³² It could also improve the overall health of millions more, help to reduce the incidence of acute and chronic respiratory infections among children, and reduce complications during pregnancy and childbirth. Finally, studies show it could improve children's physical and cognitive development, helping them to lead longer and more productive lives.

The benefits of reducing air pollution extend well beyond child health – actions and investments that reduce air pollution can also help grow economies and combat climate change.

Climate change already threatens the well-being of children. Cutting back on fossil fuel combustion and investing in renewable energy sources can help reduce both air pollution and greenhouse gases that contribute to climate change. The multiplier effect of reducing fossil fuel combustion on the well-being of children stands to be enormous.

Reducing air pollution can also significantly help improve productivity and economic performance. As this report shows, air pollution matters greatly to health; the relationships between improved health, cognitive and physical development, higher incomes and improved economic performance are well documented.³³ Furthermore, reduced air pollution can also help lower health expenditures at household and government levels – which add up to billions of dollars of savings at the national level. An OECD study shows that the total annual costs of air pollution currently account for approximately 0.3 per cent of global GDP, and are expected to increase to approximately 1 per cent of GDP by 2060.³⁴ A World Bank/Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation study found that deaths from air pollution cost the global economy about US\$225 billion in lost labour income and more than US\$5 trillion in welfare losses in 2013.³⁵

Reducing air pollution is crucial to making progress on the Sustainable Development Goals. Reducing air pollution will directly influence our progress in achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Issues relating to air quality are mentioned in four places in the SDGs: in the Declaration itself, as well as in three of the SDGs: SDG 3) *Good Health and Well-being*, SDG 11) *Sustainable Cities and Communities* and 12)

Ways in which air pollution relates to the Sustainable Development Goals



Reducing air pollution can help families become healthier, save on medical expenses, and improve productivity.



Power generation, industry and transportation are large contributors to air pollution. A new focus on decreasing energy consumption and on improving sustainable and public transportation could progressively reduce pollution.



Air pollution can cause crop damage and affect food quality and security.



Urban areas significantly contribute to air pollution. Making cities sustainable could progressively improve the air quality.



Air pollution poses a major threat to human health. It is linked to respiratory infection and cardiovascular disease. It causes increases in population morbidity and mortality.



Chemicals released into the air increase air pollution and contribute to harmful effects on human health. Responsible production and consumption could help to reduce these harmful chemicals.



Pollutants such as sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and nitrogen oxide (NO_x) from open fires and the combustion of fossil fuels mix with precipitation causing harmful acid rain that can compromise water quality.



Combustion of fossil fuels plays a key role in the process of climate change, which places food, air and water supplies at risk, and poses a major threat to human health.



Electricity from renewable energy rather than fossil fuels offers significant public health benefits through a reduction in air pollution.



Emissions from combustion of fossil fuels mixed with precipitation cause acid rains that pose a major threat to forests and ecosystems.

Responsible Consumption and Production. Reducing air pollution also indirectly affects progress on a multitude of SDGs, including SDGs 1, 2, 6, 7, 9, 13 and 15. Further, it helps reduce poverty and food insecurity, improve water quality and preserve forests and ecosystems. It is also often related to developing sustainable cities, cleaner energy sources, responsible production and consumption, and combatting climate change.

Protecting children from air pollution requires actions to reduce air pollution, reduce children's exposure to it and better monitor it.

Children should be kept away from anything that harms them - we need to minimize children's exposure to air pollution. Even though the toxic cocktail of chemicals in air pollution is largely invisible to the naked eye, these elements are deadly and affect children's health and well-being. Minimizing exposure requires actions by families and individuals, as well as communities and governments. These can include providing better ventilation, as well as insulation, depending on the source of pollutants in homes; the provision of cleaner cookstoves; and preventing exposure to tobacco smoke. They can include greater knowledge and awareness of how to protect oneself and one's family. Finally, they can include better urban planning and making sure that polluting sources are not built within the immediate vicinity of schools and playgrounds.

We also need to focus efforts on reducing air pollution.

Reducing air pollution will translate into millions of saved lives, and lead to better, healthier lives for our children and future generations. At the governmental level, actions should be implemented to reduce fossil fuel emissions, and increase investments made in sustainable energy and low-carbon development. These include commitments made as part of the COP21 Climate Change Paris Agreement and Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs). Within communities, better management of community resources, including safe waste disposal, better public transportation options, and information and knowledge on reducing pollution, is needed.

We need better monitoring of air pollution. Air quality can fluctuate rapidly in every environment. For example, cooking or heating with biomass in the home can cause a rapid spike in indoor air pollution. Urban outdoor pollution spikes during rush hour in most cities. Waste-burning tends to be practised at certain times of the day in many places. Monitoring systems can help individuals, parents, families, communities and local and national governments become more aware of how air pollution might affect them, and adjust to immediately prevailing conditions to minimize exposure. These measures will not in themselves stop the problem of air pollution – but they are a necessary and important first step. The more we know about air pollution, the better we can figure out how to protect children from its negative effects.



Together, outdoor and indoor air pollution are directly linked with pneumonia and other respiratory diseases that account for almost one in 10 under-five deaths, making air pollution one of the leading dangers to children's health.





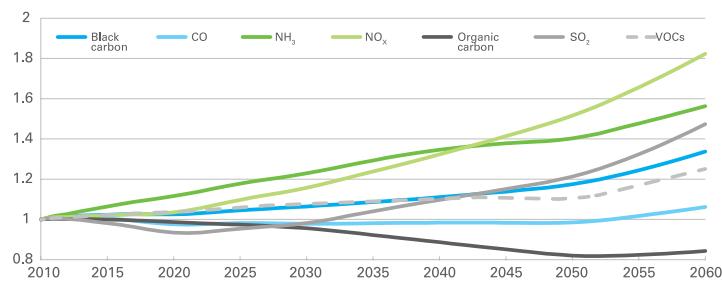
Chapter 1: Air pollution causes and trends

Air pollution can be human-made or occur naturally in the environment. Human-made pollutants are caused by fossil fuel combustion, industrial manufacturing, waste-burning, dust from traffic, smoke, and exhaust from vehicles, ships and airplanes, for example.¹ Fires from brush/forest clearing are also a major source of pollution in the form of smoke and black carbon.² There are also a variety of natural causes, including volcano eruptions that emit large amounts of sulfur and other gases,³ and dust storms that contribute considerably to airborne particulate matter.⁴ Weather patterns can transfer pollutants, both human-made and natural, over long distances and across regions.⁵

Outdoor air pollution

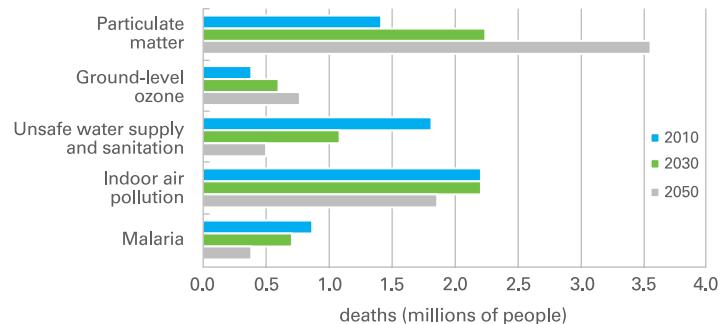
Outdoor air pollution is a growing problem. Recent estimates indicate that urban outdoor air pollution has risen by 8 per cent globally between 2008 and 2013.⁶ Urbanization, which is often associated with rising air pollution, is increasing too – by 2050, up to two thirds of the global population is expected to live in urban areas.⁷ Unless action is taken to control outdoor air pollution, studies show that outdoor air pollution will become the leading cause of environment-related child death by 2050.⁸

Fig. 1: Emission projections over time, index with respect to 2010



Source: The economic consequences of outdoor air pollution, OECD, 2016

Fig. 2: Global premature deaths from selected environmental risks: Baseline, 2010 to 2050



Source: OECD Environmental Outlook Baseline; Output from IMAGE. The economic consequences of outdoor air pollution, OECD, 2016

Air pollution can be high in parts of North America and Europe, but it has improved slightly over the past decade with new environmental regulations and progress in technology.^{9,10} Meanwhile, China and India have been frequently cited as areas where air pollution is at its worst.¹¹

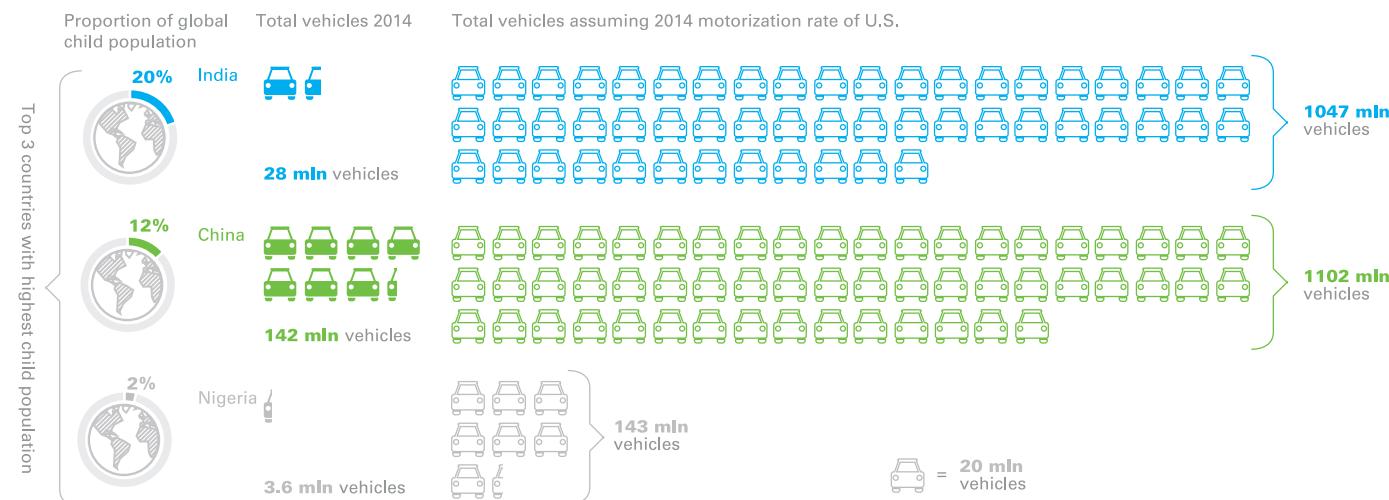
In some cities in Asia, it has exceeded 20 times the WHO guidelines.¹² Nevertheless, there is considerable variation within those countries both regionally and locally, especially in recent years.¹³ In Beijing, for example, latest estimates show an improvement compared to previous years. In fact, data from WHO unveil a striking new analysis: the most polluted city in the world (by PM10 measurements) is now Onitsha, Nigeria. Two other Nigerian cities, Kaduna and Aba, are also among the top 10 most polluted cities. Zabol, Iran, is the most polluted city by PM2.5 measurements. Asian cities continue to occupy the majority of the top of the list for PM2.5 measurements.¹⁴ (For recent lists, see page 57)

Motorization and the investment case for clean transport

As economies industrialize, demand for vehicles is likely to increase. The effect of this can go in two directions: either those cars can be reliant on fossil fuel combustion, or they can be reliant on renewable energy. The difference could be huge for children in those affected countries. Hybrid and electrical vehicles can dramatically reduce the air pollution from vehicles.¹⁵

In the three countries with the highest child populations (India, China and Nigeria), the number of cars is likely to grow considerably in the coming decades, which will be particularly marked in Africa, and substantial too in South Asia. For comparison, if those countries were to have the same motorization rate per capita as the United States of America currently, the number of vehicles would increase by nearly 40 times for India and Nigeria, and 8 times for China. This also does not account for the growth in population over the coming decades. The imperative for green investments could not be stronger.

Fig. 3: Number of vehicles in three most child populous countries (India, China and Nigeria), and if the motorization rate were that of the United States.



Source: The International Organization of Motor Vehicle Manufacturers (2014). World Vehicles in Use – All Vehicles.
UN Population Division, World Population Prospects 2015



Indoor air pollution

Burning of solid fuels for household cooking, heating and lighting is a major cause of household, or indoor, air pollution. Indoor air pollution puts nearly 3 billion people worldwide at risk of ill health and early death.¹⁶ Indoor pollutants include particulate matter (PM10 and PM2.5), mould, dust mites and bacteria, as well as chemicals and Volatile Organic Compounds (such as formaldehyde and benzene) from paints, personal care products and building materials.^{17,18}

The effects of indoor air pollution kill more children globally than outdoor air pollution, especially in Africa and Asia. Eighteen of the nineteen countries where 95 per cent or more of the population use solid fuels for cooking are in sub-Saharan Africa.¹⁹ More than 60 per cent of the population in India continue to use solid fuels in household cooking – contributing to over 100,000 child deaths associated with indoor air pollution in 2012.²⁰

Outdoor air pollution is growing fast. Indoor air pollution, however, is linked to diseases which kill more children.

While outdoor air pollution tends to be an urban issue, indoor air pollution tends to be more of a rural one. However, there is considerable overlap, significant challenges of indoor air pollution in urban areas, as well as outdoor air pollution in rural settings.

The distinction between outdoor and indoor air pollution is more useful for analytical purposes than it is for practical prevention of exposure in day-to-day life. Throughout the course of a day, we move between indoor and outdoor environments almost seamlessly, and the many microenvironments between indoor and outdoor are hard to classify.

Furthermore, indoor air and outdoor air are not completely distinct. Burning of biomass fuels for heating, lighting and cooking, for example, is a major source of ambient, or outdoor, pollution in many cities.²¹ Families also cook outside. Concentrations and types of pollutants vary considerably by time and location, depending on cooking schedules and other daily activities including working hours and transportation rush hours.

Analysis of children's exposure is much more complex than characterizations of 'indoor' and 'outdoor' environments; and awareness of the air quality in all types of environment, across a continuum of micro-environments, is important to maintaining overall health, and the first step to action.





Health-damaging air pollutants

There are many different types of air pollution. Among the most common outdoor pollutants that affect human health are particulate matter (PM), ozone (O_3), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur dioxide (SO_2), carbon monoxide (CO) and chemicals such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs). Many of the pollutants are highly linked, however, and it is difficult to separate their effects. There are also considerable interactions between pollutants, which makes it difficult to determine the cause and effect of a single pollutant.

Most outdoor pollution monitoring systems measure two types of PM: PM_{10} (which is less than 10 microns in diameter) and $PM_{2.5}$ (which is less than 2.5 microns in diameter). Ozone is also frequently monitored.

PM₁₀ is roughly one-seventh the diameter of a normal human hair. It consists of sulfate, nitrates, ammonia, sodium chloride, and black carbon; it may also include concentrations of natural windblown dust. PM_{10} is harmful to health because it can block and inflame nasal and bronchial passages, causing a variety of respiratory-related conditions that lead to illness or death. PM_{10} is a major component of indoor air pollution and forest fires.^{22,23}

PM_{2.5} is often considered even more dangerous to human health because of its ultrafine size (about 1/30th the average width of a human hair). Not only can $PM_{2.5}$ penetrate deep inside the lungs, but it can also enter the bloodstream, causing a variety of health problems including heart disease and other cardiovascular complications. $PM_{2.5}$ is often the result of fossil fuel combustion from vehicle exhaust, industrial production and power plants, as well as from natural sources such as windblown dust and volcanic activity.²⁴

Ozone (O_3), another major pollutant, is formed by a chemical reaction involving sunlight, nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). As a result, the highest levels of ground-level ozone occur during warm, sunny days, particularly in the afternoon. Ozone is a powerful respiratory irritant that can cause lung inflammation, shortness of breath, chest pain, wheezing, coughing and exacerbation of respiratory illnesses such as pneumonia and asthma. Long-term exposure has been linked with chronic respiratory illnesses.^{25,26,27} Approximately 142,000 people died as a result of exposure to ozone in 2010 – an increase of about 6 per cent since 1990.²⁸

Nitrogen oxides (NO_x) are one of the principal pollutants that result from fossil fuel combustion. It occurs closer to roads and factories, or indoors where gas is used for cooking. Nitrogen oxides plays a significant role in the exacerbation of pneumonia, asthma, bronchial symptoms, lung inflammation and reduction in overall lung function.²⁹

Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are produced when burning of fossil fuels is incomplete, and often associated with diesel engines and black carbon.^{30,31} Prenatal exposure to PAHs has been shown to increase the risk of infection, coughing, breathing difficulties and ‘nasal symptoms’ in infants.³² It has also been linked with higher risk of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder and other learning disabilities.³³

Sulphur dioxide (SO_2) is a colourless gas with a very sharp odour. It is formed when sulfur-based coal and oil is burned, or during the smelting of mineral ores that contain sulfur. Sulfur dioxide can become acidic when combined with water, creating acid rain, which causes deforestation.³⁴ SO_2 can affect

the respiratory system, causing coughing, mucus secretion, aggravation of asthma and chronic bronchitis.³⁵ Studies have shown that exposure increases mortality rates, especially among those with cardiac and lung diseases.³⁶

Carbon monoxide (CO) is a colourless, odourless gas, produced most principally by vehicles. Other sources include fuel combustion boilers and incinerators.^{37,38} Exposure to elevated levels is also associated with headaches, visual impairment, reduced cognitive functioning and ability, and reduced ability to perform complex tasks.³⁹ Very high levels can result in unconsciousness and eventually death.⁴⁰

There are other air pollutants such as mercury, fluoride, lead and other heavy metals, often related to the burning of low quality coal for electricity production, heating and brick production.⁴¹

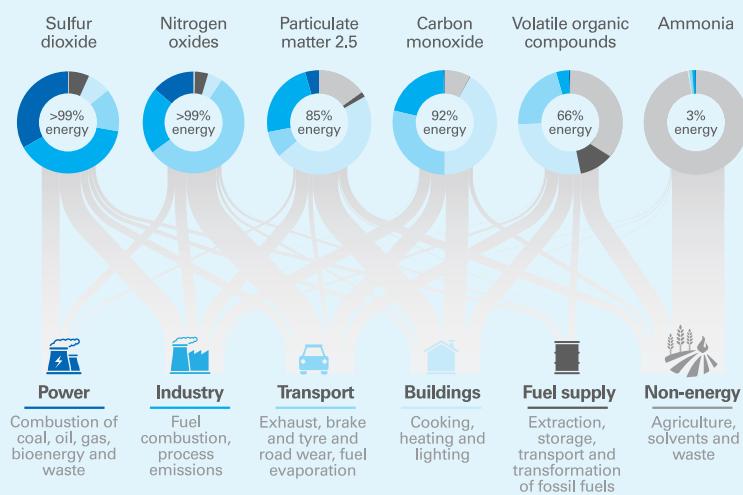
Others include dioxins and furans, some of which are extremely toxic. These are of particular concern in the context of uncontrolled burning of municipal/household waste.⁴²

Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are emitted as gases from certain solids or liquids contained in a number of indoor sources varying from paints to cosmetics, dry cleaning fluids, and automotive products.⁴³

Ammonia (NH_3) is a naturally occurring substance characterized as a colourless alkaline gas with pungent smell. It is hazardous in concentrated forms. It is used extensively in the production of a wide range of pharmaceutical products and commercial cleaning products.⁴⁴

WHO Guideline Limit ^{32, 33}	
PM_{2.5}	
10 µg/m ³ annual mean	
25 µg/m ³ 24-hour mean	
O₃	
100 µg/m ³ 8-hour mean	
NO₂	
40 µg/m ³ annual mean	
200 µg/m ³ 1-hour mean	
PM₁₀	
20 µg/m ³ annual mean	
50 µg/m ³ 24-hour mean	
SO₂	
20 µg/m ³ 24-hour mean	
500 µg/m ³ 10-minute mean	

Fig. 4: Selected primary air pollutants and their sources, 2015



Source: Energy and Air Pollution, *World Energy Outlook Special Report*, International Energy Agency, 2016

Outdoor air pollution is an increasing risk to children, especially in many rapidly growing urban centres around the world.





Chapter 2: Impact of air pollution on children

Mortality

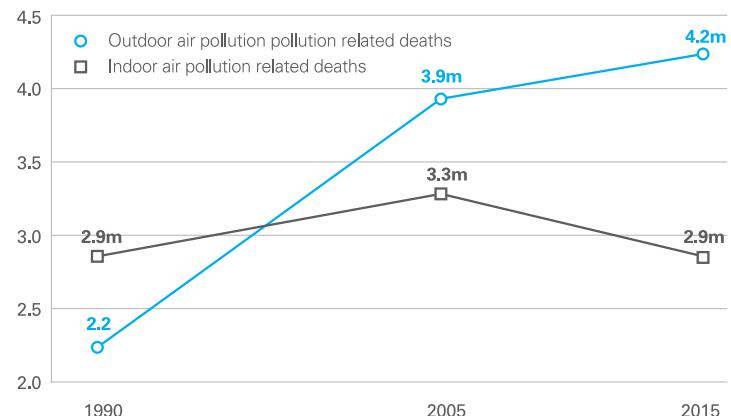
Air pollution is linked with diseases and infections that kill around 600,000 children under 5 years of age per year.¹ Pneumonia accounts for up to 16 per cent of all under-five deaths;² more than half of childhood pneumonia deaths are associated with air pollution.³

Globally, according to the World Health Organization indoor air pollution killed about 4.3 million people and outdoor air pollution killed about 3.7 million in 2012.^{4,5} Focussing on under-5 mortality, the World Health Organization found that approximately 531,000 children under the age of 5 died from household air pollution in 2012, and around 127,000 children under the age of 5 died from outdoor air pollution in 2012.

A 2016 comparative risk assessment of the Global Burden of Disease 2015 study found similar estimates. It found that air pollution exposure was linked with almost 6.5 million deaths worldwide (ranging from 5.7–7.3 million), with 4.2 million due to outdoor air pollution (ranging from 3.7–4.8 million), and just

under 2.9 million due to indoor air pollution (ranging from 2.2–3.6 million). For outdoor air pollution, this represents a considerable increase compared to 2013 estimates, when it was linked with 2.9 million deaths. The number of indoor air pollution deaths remained largely the same between both 2013 and 2015 studies.

Fig. 5: Deaths caused by outdoor and indoor air pollution, 1990 - 2015



Source: IMHE, Global Burden of Disease, 2016

Pneumonia is the biggest killer of children. Air pollution is responsible for about half of pneumonia cases.

Fig. 6: Number of childhood deaths due to pneumonia, 2015


1 in 6 childhood deaths were due to pneumonia in 2015

It translates into...



920 000
childhood deaths per year



2 500
childhood deaths per day

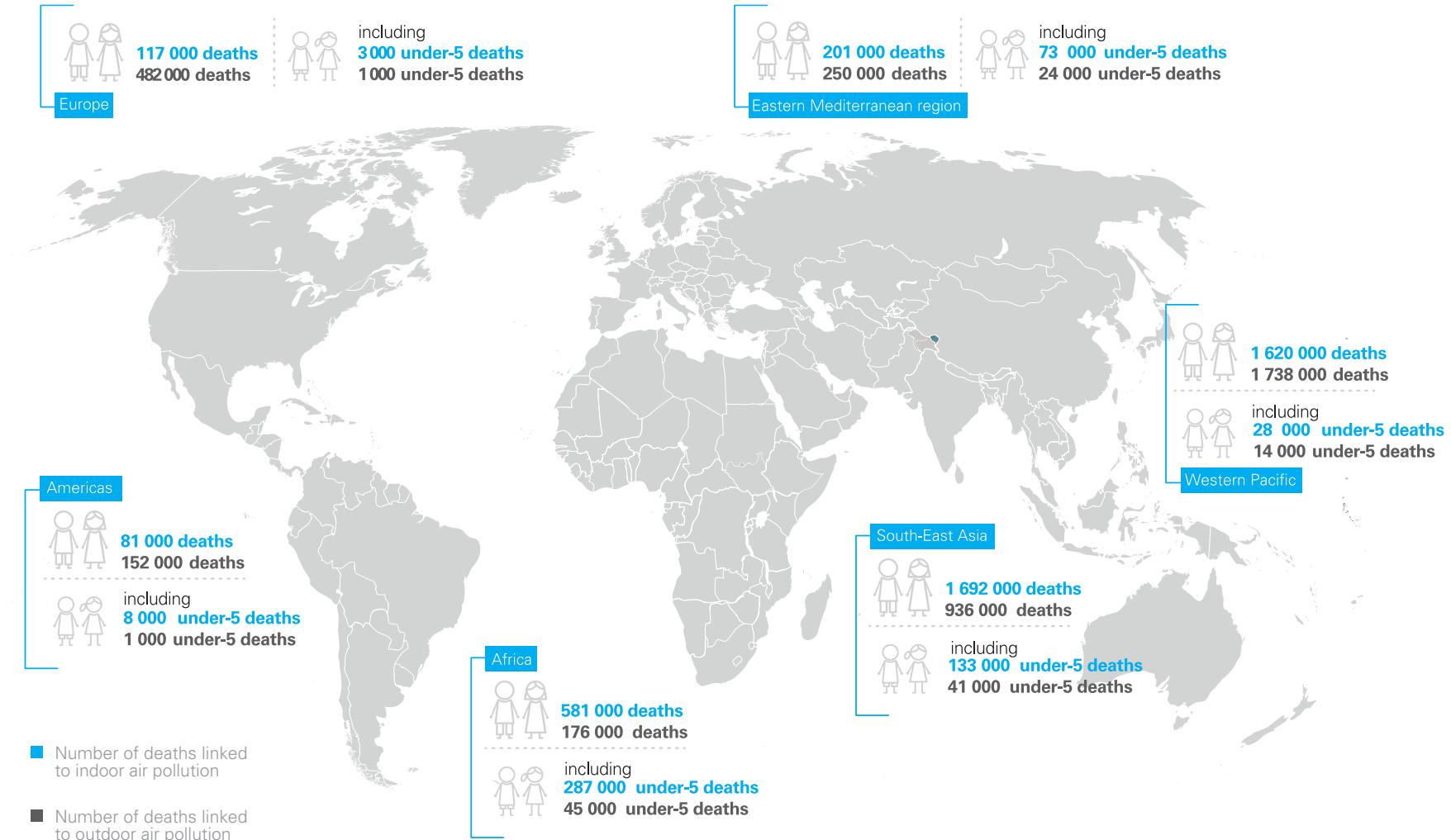


100
childhood deaths per hour

Source: WHO estimates of child cause of death, 2015

Nearly 1 in 10 under-5 deaths is linked to air pollution

Fig. 7: Regional breakdown of deaths from outdoor and indoor air pollution, 2012



This map is for illustrative purposes only.

This map does not reflect a position by UNICEF on the legal status of any country or territory or the delimitation of any frontiers. The dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties. The final boundary between the Sudan and South Sudan has not yet been determined. The final status of the Abyei area has not yet been determined.

Sources: WHO (2012) Burden of disease from Ambient Air Pollution 2012;
WHO (2012) Burden of disease from Household Air Pollution 2012



As air pollution continues to grow, so too will mortality. One meta-analysis of 108 studies found that with every 10 µg/m³ increase in short-term particulate matter exposure, there is approximately a 0.34 per cent increase in risk of death among younger populations in particular.⁶ Other research shows even more severe effects among adults: a 10 µg/m³ increase in exposure to particulate matter increased the risk of premature death by 3 per cent.⁷ World Health Organization guidelines indicate that premature mortality could be reduced by up to 15 per cent where PM10 is reduced from 70 to 20 µg/m³.⁸

Looking forward, the prospects do not look good. Research published in the scientific magazine *Nature* suggest the under-five mortality from acute lower respiratory illness as a result of air pollution could increase by about 50 per cent by 2050.⁹ The same research points to a projected 6.5 million premature deaths among all age groups in 2050. These are roughly in line with recent OECD projections of the number of premature deaths due to outdoor air pollution of 6–9 million by 2060.¹⁰

It should be noted, however, that we do not know the actual health impact of air pollution in all places, in part due to the lack of monitoring of both air pollution and health status. Air pollution monitoring is particularly sparse at ground level in Africa. The health impacts recorded could potentially be an underestimation from what actually is happening in many places. These data gaps need to be addressed in order to better understand the scale of impact on children's health as well as how to respond to it.

Health

Air pollution is linked not only with diseases that kill, but also with poor health and morbidity among millions more children. It causes difficulty breathing. Studies show it is linked with asthma, bronchitis, airways inflammation and even eye irritation.¹² It can cause wheezing, coughing and phlegm production.¹³

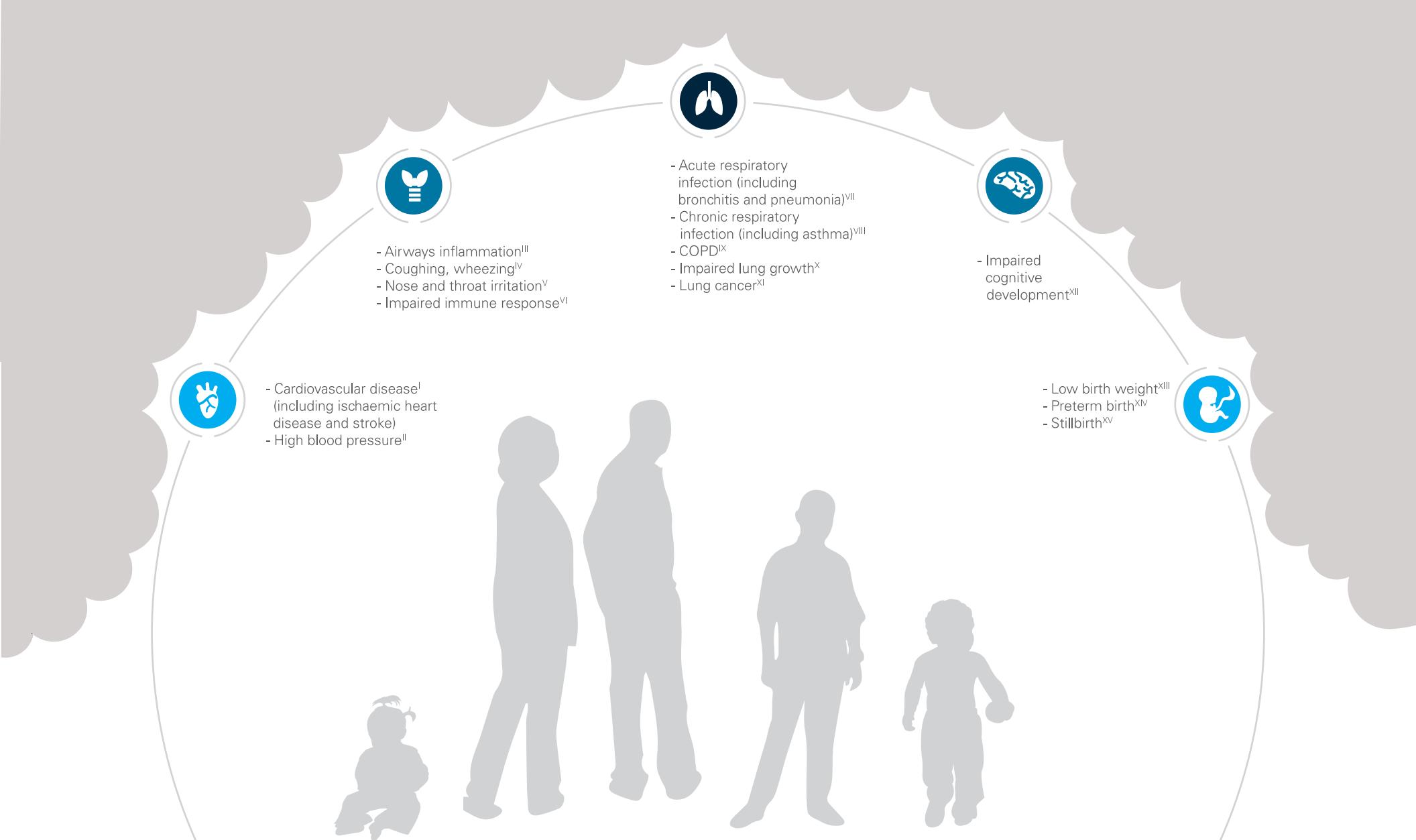
Children who breathe polluted air are at higher risk of potentially severe health problems, in particular, acute respiratory infections such as pneumonia.¹⁴ When these diseases do not kill them,

Careseeking

Fig. 8: Not enough children with symptoms of Acute Respiratory Infection (ARI) are taken for appropriate care



Source: UNICEF Global databases 2016 – data.unicef.org



Air pollution not only kills children and adults – it affects their health as well.

Fig. 9: Health effects of air pollution.

*COPD - Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease



they still severely affect their overall health and development. Exposure can also affect lung growth among children, as the cell layer on the inside of the respiratory tract is more permeable among young children.¹⁵ A mother's chronic exposure to severe air pollution during pregnancy is linked with low birthweight at term, intrauterine growth retardation and small for gestational age embryos.^{16,17,18} These complications can also have longer-term effects on a child's health and development.

Air pollution can further exacerbate underlying health issues. Consistent evidence shows that long-term exposure is associated both with new-onset asthma, as well as with exacerbation of existing asthma.¹⁹ Studies have shown that

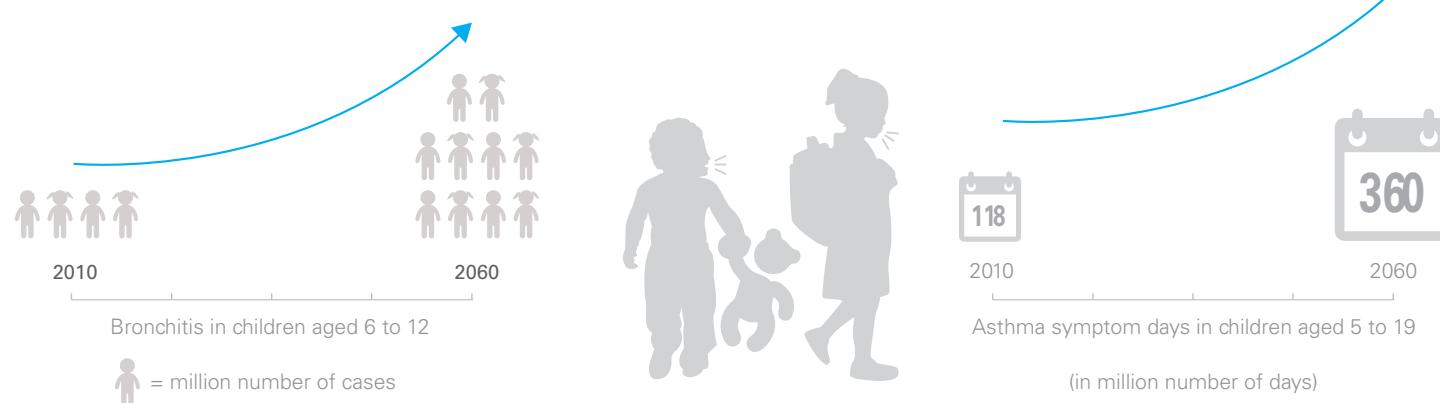
children are up to four times more likely to have significantly reduced lung function in adulthood if they live in highly polluted areas.²⁰

"Every day billions of people are breathing polluted air and raising their risk of succumbing to a pollution-caused illness." World Bank

Asthma already affects up to 14 per cent of children globally according to recent analysis.²¹ And it does not appear to be slowing down: one report found that it increases at rates of about 50 per cent every decade.²²

Bronchitis and asthma are likely to increase significantly in coming decades due to air pollution.

Fig. 10: Projected health impacts at global level



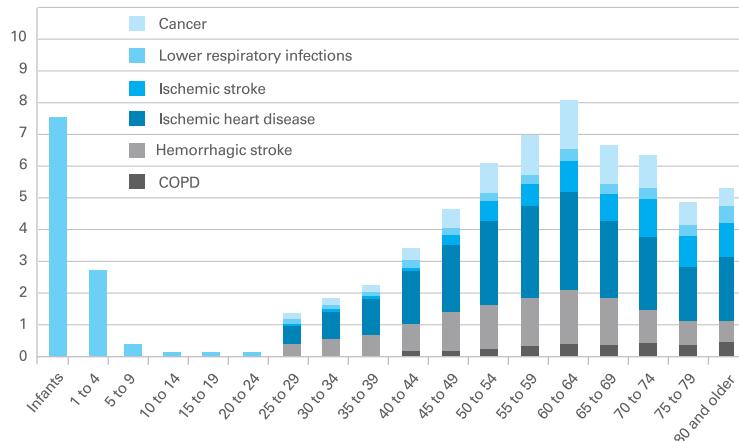
Air pollution also contributes to at least half of all pneumonia cases.²³ Evidence suggests that air pollution can cause oxidative stress and inflammation in the smaller airways, leading to the exacerbation of asthma and chronic bronchitis, airway obstruction and decreased gas exchange. It can also undermine normal lung antimicrobial defense functions by interfering with the clearance and inactivation of bacteria in the lung tissue.²⁴ Health complications can then last throughout the rest of their lives.²⁵ Studies show that halving of indoor air pollution exposure with a chimney stove rather than open fires reduced severe pneumonia by 33 per cent.²⁶

Adults can suffer a variety of health complications due to air pollution. Exposure to air pollution exacerbates existing cardiovascular disease, and is associated with a wide range of cardiovascular effects such as stroke and heart failure.²⁷ Furthermore, there is strong evidence that outdoor air pollution causes lung cancer.²⁸ Emerging evidence shows an association between air pollution and new-onset type 2 diabetes in adults.^{29,30}

Many millions of children live in homes where burning of solid fuels is commonplace – considerably affecting their health. In Africa, more than 350 million children are estimated to live in households where solid fuels are used, while in Asia, over 640 million children are estimated to live in such households (estimates c.a. 2013).[†]

[†] These are only rough estimates for illustrative purposes. No age disaggregated data are available for population in households using solid fuels and therefore it is difficult to estimate the number of children in homes using solid fuels. These numbers were estimated by assuming that the proportion of children in a country using solid fuels is the same as the proportion for the total population. They are generated by taking the proportion of the population using solid fuels in every country and multiplying it by the number of children in the country from the United Nations Population Division. The number of children in households is likely to vary, which can bias the estimates. Solid fuels in rural areas tends to be higher and so too are the numbers of children per household, which is likely to result in an overall underestimate. Furthermore, countries where the proportion of the population using solid fuels is less than 5 per cent are not included, as a precise figure could not be obtained; and in countries where the proportion is greater than 95 per cent, 95 per cent is used. Furthermore, because women and children, especially young children, tend to spend more time near or around the kitchen than male adults, these numbers are likely to be underestimates of actual exposure levels of women and children.

Fig. 11: Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) from ambient PM2.5 pollution by age group, 2013



Source: IHME, GBD 2013.

Cognitive development

New research is demonstrating that air pollution might also affect cognitive development. Inhaled ultrafine particles, such as PM2.5, are so small that they can enter the bloodstream, and recent medical research indicates that this can cause the degeneration of blood-brain barriers, leading to oxidative stress, neuroinflammation and damage of neural tissue.^{31,32,33} As these blood-brain barriers are still developing in children, studies show that their tissue could be less resistant and more vulnerable.³⁴



While there is not yet complete scientific consensus on the impact of air pollution on cognitive development, the evidence base on this topic is growing rapidly. The American Psychological Association has stated, “Over the past decade, researchers have found that high levels of air pollution may damage children’s cognitive abilities, increase adults’ risk of cognitive decline and possibly even contribute to depression.”³⁵ The Royal College of Physicians (UK) published a report in February 2016 explaining: “Because the central nervous system is still developing rapidly after birth, children remain susceptible to harmful effects of air pollution on their neurodevelopment and long-term cognitive health. Several types of air pollution have been associated with harmful effects on neurocognitive development . . . impair[ed] cognitive development and lower[ed] IQ. . . . Children exposed to high indoor NO₂ levels from cooking and heating sources have been shown to have poorer cognitive function and seem to be at increased risk of ADHD.” The European Commission recently released a report about a study that states that green spaces are linked to improved cognitive development in schoolchildren because of lower traffic-related emissions levels.³⁶

Researchers at government agencies, think tanks and academic institutions around the world are examining possible connections between exposure to air pollution (at different stages of life, from pre-natal to elderly) and reduced cognitive function.^{37,38,39,40,41} Much of the literature explores the connection between ambient air pollution and neurotoxicity on brain structure, whether air pollution contributes to neurodegenerative diseases and the response of human brain cells to urban particulate matter from traffic and diesel exhaust.^{42,43,44,45,46} Some studies look at the

benefits of green spaces and well-ventilated offices on the cognitive health and well-being of children and office workers due to reductions in air pollution.^{47,48}

The National Bureau of Economic Research and the Clean Air Research Center at Harvard University studies have found associations between short- and long-term exposure to air pollution and cognitive impacts.^{49,50} Physicians for Social Responsibility investigates how exposure to air pollution can reduce human intelligence and lead to mild cognitive impairment in the elderly.^{51,52}

Other studies examine the social impacts directly on school children. Air pollution has been found to reduce improvement in cognitive development among school children,^{53,54,55} lower attendance rates in school⁵⁶ and lower academic achievement rates.^{57,58,59} Furthermore, as much of this report shows, air pollution can cause sicknesses, which can in turn prevent children from going to school. The effects of air pollution on learning could occur through other channels as well.

Evidence of the impact of air pollution on cognitive development is also found through its impact on the foetus. Studies have shown that because these particles enter the bloodstream, they can also cross the placental barrier and affect the development of the foetus, including both physical and cognitive development.^{60,61} Several studies have shown that pregnant women’s exposure to polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (a pollutant associated with fossil fuel combustion) affects the white matter of the unborn child’s brain significantly – which

is responsible for the communication between different parts of the brain. In consequence, studies have shown that PAHs can cause future developmental delays, lower verbal IQ, and increased signs of anxiety, depression, and problems with attention.^{62,63} Even very low levels of PAHs and lead in a child's blood have been found to result in cognitive delays.^{64,65,66}

The links between cigarette smoking and cognitive development has also been firmly established, including where pregnant mothers are exposed to either primary or secondary cigarette smoke.^{67,68}

Lead in air pollution has long been known to have serious harmful effects on the development of the brain and nervous system

While lead in air pollution has been largely phased out with the introduction of unleaded gasoline, many of the effects are still being felt. Moreover, lead can still be emitted into the air through other processes – such as burning of waste containing lead (including vehicle batteries or leaded paint).⁶⁹

Lead is distributed into the brain, liver, kidney and bones, where it accumulates over time.⁷⁰ It can even transfer from the bones to blood, and affect the foetus during pregnancy – causing intergenerational effects.⁷¹ Lead has shown to reduce intelligence quotient, as well as cause behavioural issues such as reduced attention span, increased antisocial behaviour and reduced educational attainment.⁷² Aside from cognitive impairment, high levels of exposure can cause coma, convulsions and even death.⁷³

It has also been shown to cause anemia, hypertension, renal impairment, immunotoxicity and toxicity to the reproductive organs.⁷⁴

Lead is especially harmful to young children. They absorb about 4–5 times more lead compared with adults from a given source.⁷⁵

Over the past few decades, most countries have phased out leaded gasoline. The economic benefits of reducing lead have been tremendous. One recent study found that the phaseout of leaded gasoline has had an economic benefit of US\$2.45 trillion per year (within a range of US\$2.05–2.83 trillion).⁷⁶



Lifetime effects

Children have their whole lives ahead of them, so anything that has irreversible impacts on their development is especially burdensome. The cell layer on the inside of the respiratory tract is particularly permeable during childhood.⁷⁷ This makes them very vulnerable to intrusions or infections from air pollution. Furthermore, the effects might not become apparent until later in life – potentially decades later.⁷⁸

The lifetime effects from air pollution might also be felt through its impact on cognitive development (as illustrated above).

Studies have also shown that air pollution can have negative effects on cognitive development and coordination – which can have lifelong implications in terms of schooling outcomes and future careers.^{79,80}

Air pollution can lead to respiratory infections that can be reoccurring and/or chronic. These conditions can cause more rapid deterioration of lung capacity.^{81,82} Where children are exposed to high levels of air pollution, as adults they can be more vulnerable to chronic obstructive pulmonary disease,⁸³ cardiovascular disease and lung cancer.⁸⁴

The combination of respiratory, cardiovascular, cognitive, morbidity and reproductive health effects of air pollution have biological as well as social and economic effects that last a lifetime. These include health conditions, school attendance, school performance, health costs and productivity, which affect income, poverty and inequities. Air pollution, through its massive

and cumulative impact on the overall health and well-being of children and parents, can perpetuate intergenerational cycles of inequity.

Effect of smoke-free legislation on childhood asthma

A meta-analysis of 20 studies found a significant relationship between exposure to secondhand smoke and development of childhood asthma.⁸⁵ A number of studies also found the impact of smoke-free legislation on the reduction of childhood asthma. The bans have been associated with at least a 10 per cent reduction in hospital visits for childhood asthma. The review suggested that protection from secondhand smoke in early life prevents instances of asthma and other associated diseases in later life.⁸⁶

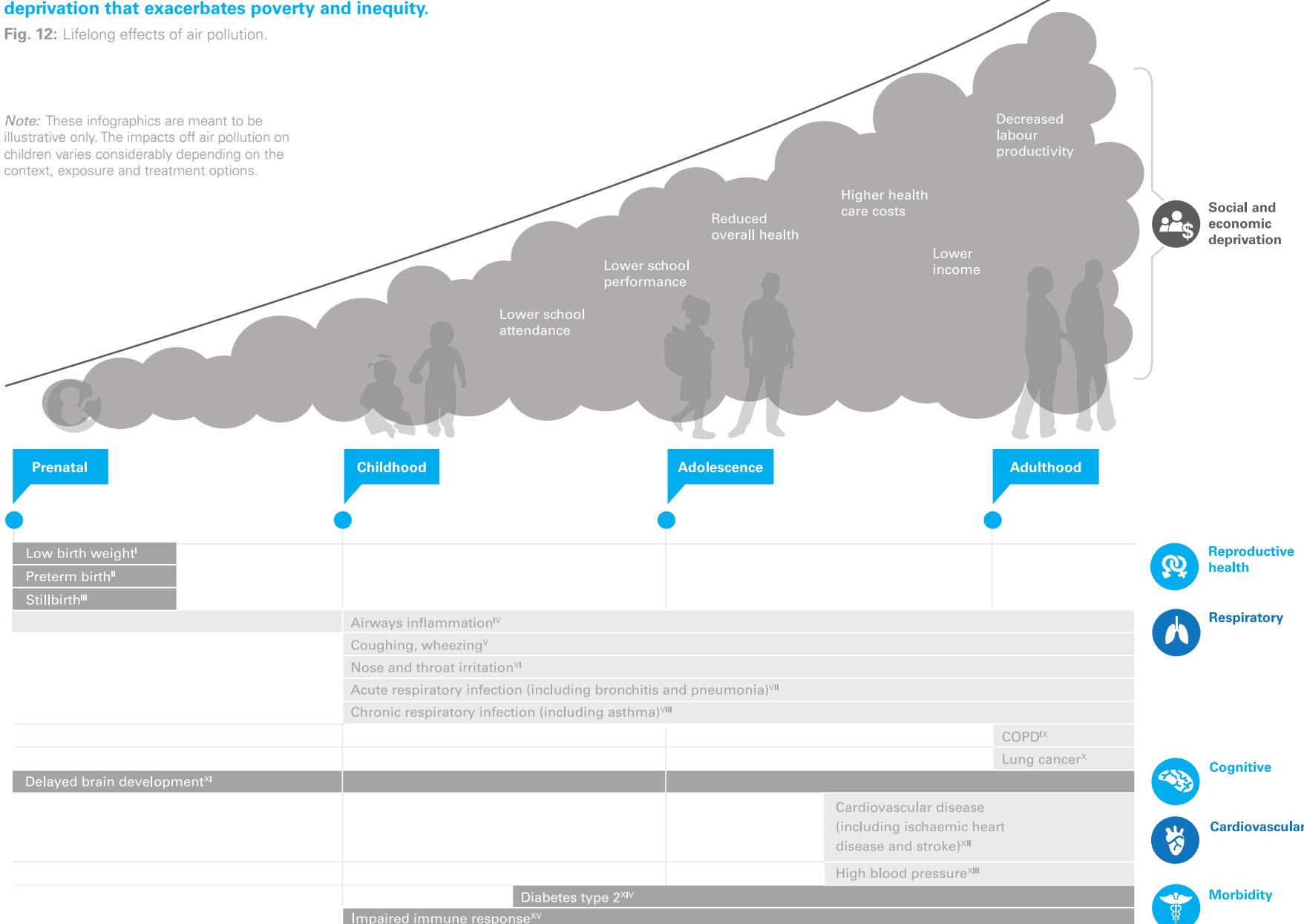
According to researchers, cases of childhood asthma declined because a ban on smoking in public places initiated a self-imposed ban on smoking at home, reducing children's exposure to tobacco smoke both inside and outside the home.⁸⁷

INCREASED RISK OF:
POVERTY
INEQUITY
PREMATURE DEATH

The cumulative effects of air pollution can cause social and economic deprivation that exacerbates poverty and inequity.

Fig. 12: Lifelong effects of air pollution.

Note: These infographics are meant to be illustrative only. The impacts off air pollution on children varies considerably depending on the context, exposure and treatment options.



Waste management and open burning of waste



Open burning of waste is highly hazardous for public health.

The open burning of waste is a large source of toxic air pollutants such as particulates, carbon monoxide, black carbon, dioxins, furans and mercury. These are highly toxic and/or carcinogenic pollutants.⁸⁸ More than 40 per cent of the world's municipal garbage is openly burned⁸⁹ in over 160 countries.^{90,91} In these countries, the most deprived communities without reliable waste collection services are affected the most. Mostly an unmonitored practice, the open burning of waste is often not reported to environmental agencies, and therefore tends to be forgotten in policy responses – an omission that has a particularly heavy cost for women and children.

Poverty and exploitation aggravate the issue.

Women and children are typically responsible for dealing with household waste, and often carry out hazardous disposal practices such as the open burning of waste in the absence of regular collection services.⁹² Research shows that children in Ethiopian households where waste is burned are six times more likely to suffer from acute respiratory infections than children in areas where waste is collected regularly.⁹³

Recycling of valuable elements has become a source of income mostly in the informal sector of developing or emerging industrialized countries, often by burning other elements to retrieve valuable materials. For example, burning of e-waste, such as televisions, computers and mobile phones, is done to extract metals like copper or gold. This process also often

produces toxic fumes.⁹⁴ E-waste recycling workers are often women or children. Their continuous exposure to concentrated levels of air pollutants like lead, aluminium and zinc has devastating consequences, including birth defects and infant mortality.⁹⁵ Other studies found that children at e-waste recycling sites were reported to suffer from breathing ailments, skin infections and stomach diseases as well as significantly higher levels of leukaemia.⁹⁶

Urgent tasks in waste management piling up.

Estimates from 2012 project that worldwide municipal waste is going to almost double by 2025, making the issue all the more pressing to solve.⁹⁷ The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) reports that, globally, 3 billion people lack access to controlled waste disposal facilities.⁹⁸ Several countries, municipalities and communities, however, have developed promising practices pairing environmentally sound management of waste with action on waste prevention and improved social justice for those working in the sector.



Examples of sources of air pollution

Fig. 13: This image represents illustrative examples of sources of air pollution and some of the major pollutants. It is not meant to include every possible source - there are many more.



Human-made pollutants are caused by fossil fuel combustion, industrial manufacturing, waste-burning, dust from traffic, smoke, and exhaust from automobiles, ships, and airplanes. Fires and brush clearing are also a major source of pollution in the form of smoke and black carbon.

Burning of solid fuels for household cooking, heating and lighting is a major cause of household, or indoor, air pollution.



Poor children are among
the most at-risk from air
pollution.



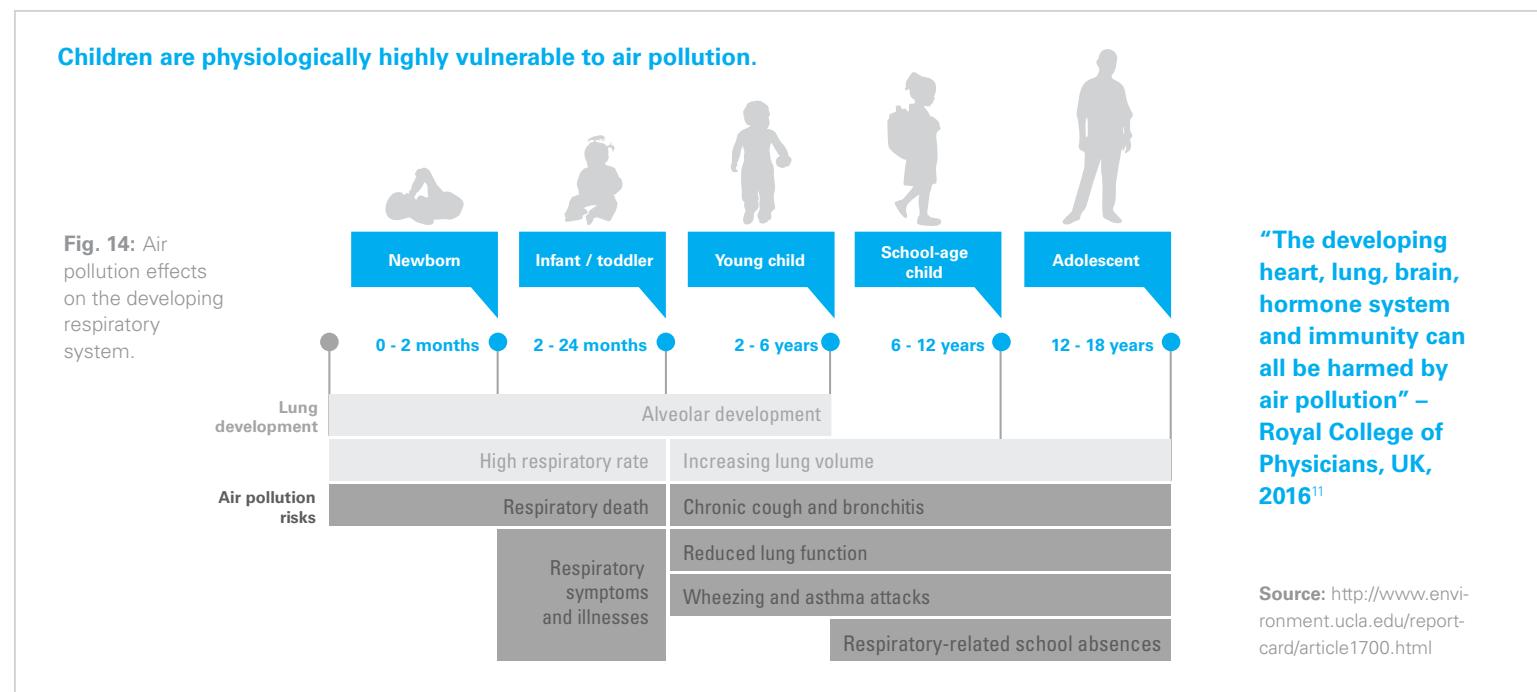


Chapter 3: Unique vulnerabilities of children

Physiological vulnerability

Children are more physiologically vulnerable to air pollution than adults. Children's lungs are still developing, and the inner lining is especially permeable during the early years of life. The number of alveoli (air sacs) in the human lung increases from about 24 million at birth to about 257 million by the age of four.¹ From these air sacs, life-sustaining oxygen is transferred to the blood. Children's lungs and air passages are also smaller. If they become inflamed, it can result in blocked airways. In adults, on the other hand, air can be distributed deeply and throughout the lung, circumventing obstructed areas.²

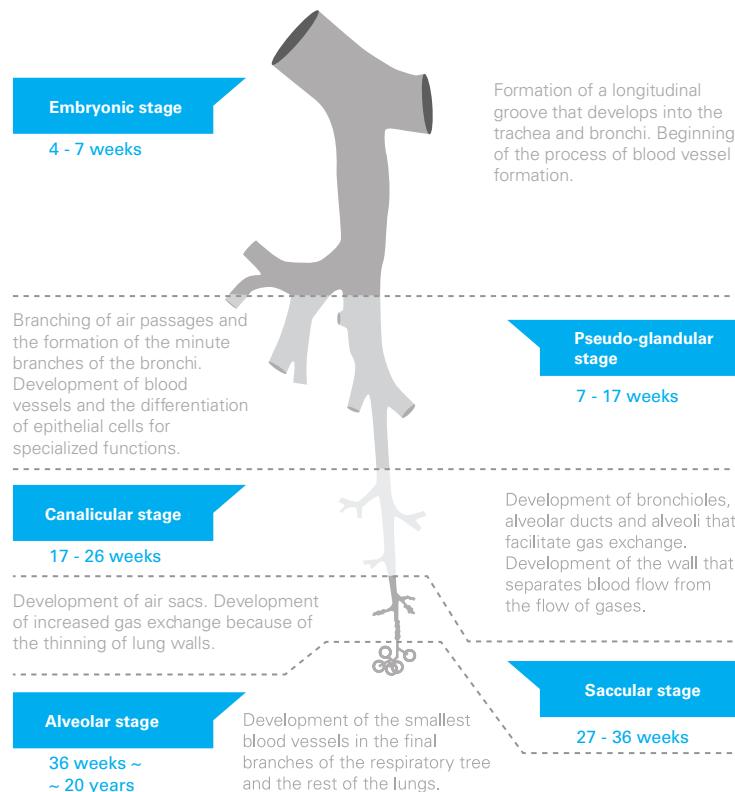
Children's immune systems are also still developing, and are therefore more vulnerable to respiratory infections resulting from exposure to harmful pollutants. Pneumonia, the single largest infectious cause of death in children under 5 worldwide, is often linked to exposure to air pollution.³ Similarly asthma, one of the most common chronic health conditions in children, is often caused by air pollution.⁴ Additionally, lead that is inhaled is more easily deposited in the growing bones of children.⁵ Sulfuric acid that is inhaled has been shown to interfere with the mucociliary clearance system of the lungs.⁶ Ozone has been shown to



prevent a child's immune system from fighting infections.⁷ Even short-term exposure to ozone can affect the movement of gases and liquids between lungs and bloodstream, facilitating allergic sensitization.⁸

A child's lungs are in essential stages of development the first few years of their life.

Fig. 15: Principal stages of lung development in humans.



Source: Adapted from: Kajekar R. Environmental factors and development outcomes in the lung. *Pharmacol Ther* 2007; 114: 129-45.

Indoor air pollution can be especially harmful due to the incredibly high concentration of pollutants. Widely cited studies report a three-fold increase in risk of acute respiratory infections in children with exposure to smoke from biomass fuel, and an 80 per cent increase in risk of developing pneumonia.^{9,10}

"The developing heart, lung, brain, hormone system and immunity can all be harmed by pollution." – Royal College of Physicians, UK, 2016¹¹

Exposure levels

Children are also more physically exposed to air pollution than adults. Children breathe faster than adults – and more per unit of body weight. They also, therefore, breathe a higher amount of contaminants – per unit of body weight. Higher rates of mouth-breathing compared to nose-breathing among children also increase the amount of pollution inhaled.¹² Mouth breathing bypasses some of the preliminary filtration that occurs in nasal passages.

Children spend more hours per day outdoors than adults, and studies have also shown that they tend to be more active outdoors than adults as well.^{13,14} Furthermore, young children tend to play closer to the ground, where particulate matter (PM), such as dust and other pollutants, is found in higher concentrations.¹⁵

Children under age 5 spend more time in cooking areas because of their reliance on their mothers.¹⁶ Children, especially girls, continue to be highly exposed to indoor air pollution as they are



often with their mothers and participate in household cooking and heating-related activities.

Children with pre-existing health conditions

Children with underlying health conditions can be especially vulnerable to air pollution. Air pollution not only causes but can often worsens underlying conditions such as asthma, diabetes, bronchitis and COPD. Children with chronic heart and lung disease, and immunocompromised and malnourished children are at particular risk.¹⁷

Asthma is most common in children under 10 years old.¹⁸ Studies have shown that when air pollution levels are high, children with asthma visit the emergency room more frequently and use more medicine than at other times.¹⁹ In one study, children with asthma were 18 per cent more at risk of an asthma episode during a day with increased particulate matter (especially from diesel vehicles).^{20,21}

People with pre-existing respiratory diseases such as pneumonia, chronic bronchitis and COPD are at higher risk of negative effects from air pollution. Ozone can cause coughing, painful breathing, lung and throat irritation and wheezing, all of which most severely affect people with pre-existing respiratory diseases.²² Several European studies have concluded that daily mortality increases by 0.3 per cent with every 10 µg/m³ increase in ozone exposure, and it increases by 0.4 per cent for people who have heart disease.²³

People with cardiovascular diseases, including heart disease and high blood pressure, are more susceptible to air pollution. This is especially the case among older populations. Long-term exposure is linked with stroke and ischaemic heart disease.²⁴ One study showed a 0.6 per cent increase in mortality from cardiovascular disease per 20 µg/m³ increase in PM10. Another study indicated a 1.5 per cent increase in cardiovascular mortality and hospitalization rates for heart failure and irregular heart rhythm per 20 µg/m³ increase in PM10.²⁵ Pollution from wildfires has also been shown to worsen chronic heart diseases.²⁶

People with diabetes are at increased risk from air pollution, especially particulate matter. PM2.5 interferes with proper cell and blood function.²⁷ One study demonstrated that in communities with high proportions of people with diabetes, hospital admissions doubled during periods of high levels of air pollution.²⁸

Monitoring air pollution in India

To support action to limit citizen's exposure to air pollution, including that of children, the Government of India has expanded air quality monitoring and research. It now provides location-specific near real-time air quality data and forecasts for its largest cities. UNICEF is supporting programme partners in Jaipur in measuring the impact of pollution on the breathing capacity of children and advises citizens on the risks of air pollution and how to limit exposure and its adverse effects.²⁹ A mobile van and app help reach citizens with the new service.³⁰

Gender-based vulnerabilities

A growing body of literature highlights gender disparities on vulnerability to indoor and outdoor air pollution. Physiological factors, including a woman's reproductive cycle, as well as socially constructed norms related to behaviour and occupation factor into potential disparities. Maternal health can be at considerable risk due to the effects of air pollution. Risks include foetal loss and preterm delivery (for more on prenatal effects, see next section).

Where biomass is used in cooking and heating homes, and where women are more involved in cooking and heating in those homes, they are acutely vulnerable to household smoke that it generates. This is especially the case in homes where ventilation is poor, and where cooking takes place throughout the day. In most cases, women are also more affected in terms of time lost due to fuel collection.³¹

One study on Bangladesh found that children under age 5, regardless of gender, spend an hour a day in cooking areas because of their reliance on their mothers. From age 5 to 60, women's hours in cooking areas steadily rise from 1 hour a day to 3.8 hours a day, while men's hours in cooking areas decline from 1 hour a day to 0.2 hours a day. After age 60, women's hours in cooking areas rapidly fall, averaging at 1.5 hours a day. However, women's time in cooking areas beyond the age of 60 still remains higher than men's (averaging at 0.2 hours per day).³²

Prenatal risks

Air pollution can affect the foetus considerably. Studies have shown stark associations between high levels of PM and foetal loss, preterm delivery and lower birthweight and fertility.^{33,34,35,36} In Mongolia, for example, PM is higher during the winter when families burn coal to keep warm. This coincides with levels of foetal deaths up to three times greater during those months.³⁷

Fig. 16: Calendar monthly averages of ambient air pollutant levels correlated with hours of darkness in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia. (A) SO₂. (B) CO. (C) NO₂. (D) PM10. (E) PM2.5. Monthly average air pollutant levels are shown as light blue bars; seasonal hours of darkness during the annual solar cycle of 2011 are shown as blue dots and a connecting line.

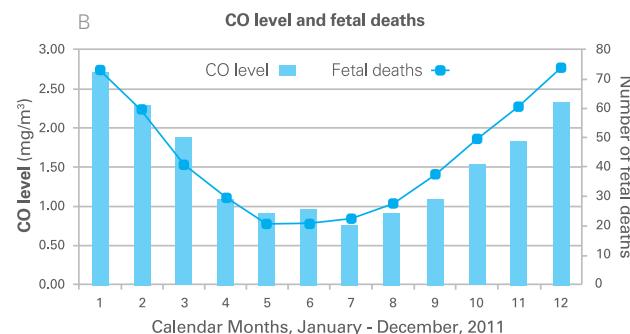
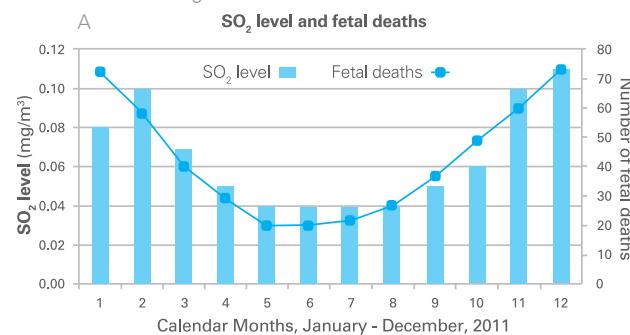
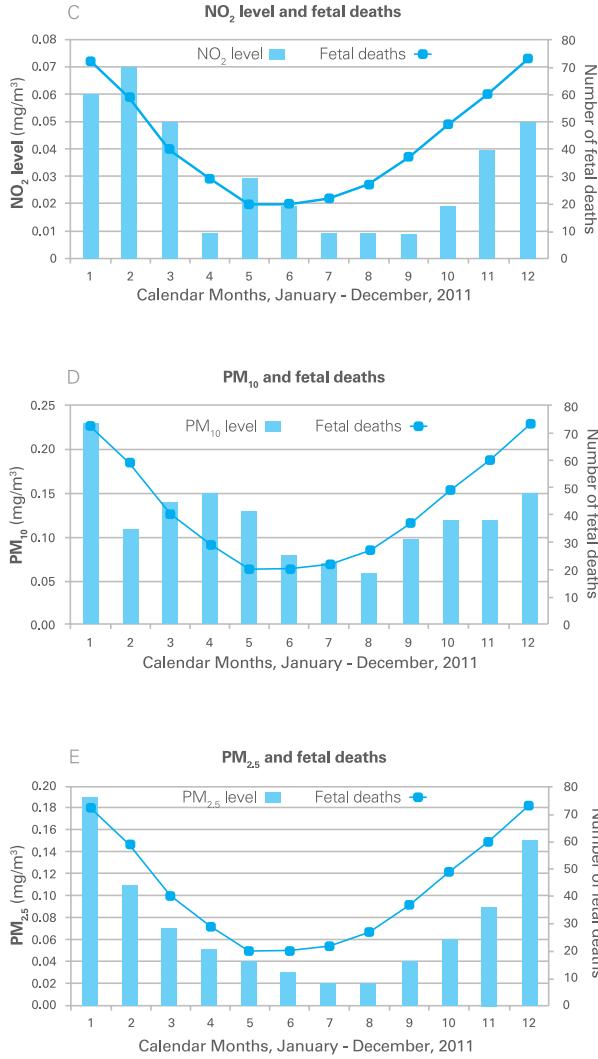


Fig. 16: (continued)



Source: Enkhmaa et al. BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth 2014, 14:146

Prenatal development is a critical time for the formation and maturation of important body systems. There is no other stage in life where such rapid changes occur. Organ damage that happens during these times can be irreversible. Some of the harmful effects from maternal exposure to air pollution are due to a reduced exchange of oxygen, resulting in foetal growth impairment. Moreover, air pollution and other toxic chemicals can interfere with critical stages of organ development, affecting further development in other stages. The brain and nervous system are particularly sensitive during this time period.³⁸

The foetus's health is intrinsically connected to the mother's health. Although the mother's placenta filters out many harmful substances, very fine particles such as PM2.5 and heavy metals, such as lead, can still reach the foetus.³⁹

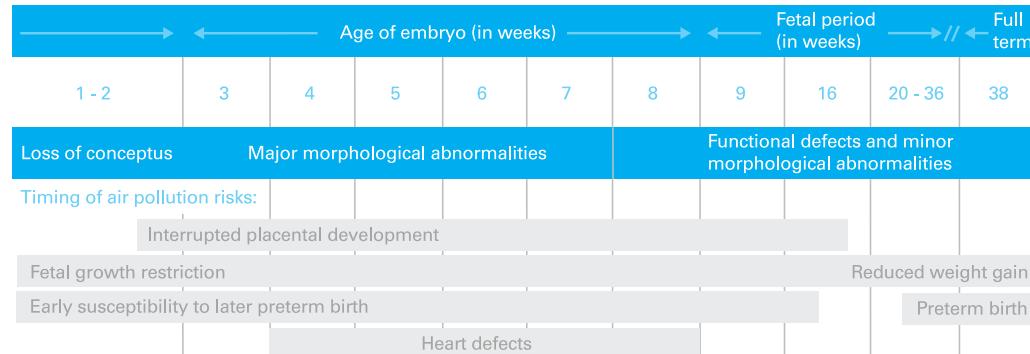
Furthermore, many of the effects might not even be visible in early life, and might only become apparent during the ageing process later in life.⁴⁰ Organ development continues for several years.

Studies have found that high levels of exposure to air pollution among pregnant mothers increases the child's likelihood of developing asthma before the age of 6,⁴¹ as well as higher rates of childhood obesity.⁴² Studies have also found that exposure can lead to height deficits among children.⁴³

Research suggests that prenatal exposure to high levels of air pollution affects childhood mental health. This can increase the risk of such conditions as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

Air pollution poses significant risks to pregnant mothers and prenatal development.

Fig. 17: Critical periods of risk from air pollution during fetal development.



Source: Ritz B, Willhelm M. Air pollution impacts on infants and children. UCLA Institute of the Environment: Southern California Environmental Report Card – Fall 2008, Los Angeles, CA: 2008.

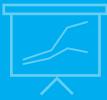
(ADHD), symptoms of anxiety, depression and inattention, and behavioural disorders. Studies show these conditions inhibit the development of a child's self-regulating behaviours and social competency.⁴⁴

The poorest children

Air pollution affects the poorest children most. Across both developed and developing countries, studies show that poorer families live in areas where pollution levels are higher. Air pollution combines with other aspects of the social, physical and geographical environment to create a disproportional disease burden on poorer communities.^{45,46}

In the United States, studies show that air pollution is higher in non-white and low-income neighbourhoods, and lower in

predominantly white neighbourhoods.^{47,48} Disparities exist in areas such as the South Bronx in New York City, where studies have shown that asthma rates are four times the national average.⁴⁹ In Canada, studies show that more socially disadvantaged communities tend to experience highest levels of traffic-related air pollution.⁵⁰ In Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam, exposure to particulate matter and NO₂ were found to be higher among poor neighbourhoods – and use of air conditioning and better quality ventilation systems in homes were higher among those not living in poverty.⁵¹ Similarly, studies show that poorer cities are at risk for higher levels of outdoor air pollution due to traffic and industry.⁵² In China, factories emitting large amounts of pollution are moving to suburbs where costs are lower and where migrant workers congregate.^{53,54,55,56,57}



Economic development is one of the factors that determines the use of solid fuels for household energy needs.⁵⁸ Poorer families are more likely to use biomass and wood in regular household cooking and for heating, increasing the risk of pneumonia and respiratory tract infections.⁵⁹

Lower-income households tend to have poor ventilation systems, and these ventilation systems can worsen indoor air pollution.⁶⁰ One study found that indoor smoke from cooking can be 20 times higher than international limits.⁶¹ A study in Andhra Pradesh, India, found that solid fuel use created a mean 24-hour average concentration of particulate matter that ranged from 73 to 732 µg/m³.⁶² Guidelines from the WHO indicate that it should not exceed 10 µg/m³.

Even at national levels, there is a relationship between wealth and the use of solid fuels for household energy needs. For example, Thailand – with a per capita income of US\$5,816 – uses biomass to meet 23 per cent of household energy needs, while the United Republic of Tanzania – with a per capita income of US\$864 – uses biomass to meet 95 per cent of household energy needs.⁶³

Household construction and ventilation can make a big difference to indoor pollution levels

A study of 600 rural, peri-urban and urban households in Bangladesh found that ventilation influences the variation of PM in a household. The level of PM concentration in a household differed according to whether the kitchen had mud walls and its location. For households with inside cooking and non-mud wall construction, the average PM level was 223 µg/m³ for all fuels and 250 µg/m³ for firewood. For households with inside cooking and mud wall construction, the average PM level was 515 µg/m³ for all fuels and 498 µg/m³ for firewood. Mud wall construction increased the concentration of indoor PM concentration because the walls are frequently recoated with mud, which acts as a seal against ventilation. The study also found that indoor PM10 concentration increased by 253 µg/m³ when the kitchen was located indoors and reduced by 158 µg/m³ when the kitchen was located outdoors. When the kitchen was located outdoors, mud walls acted as a seal against the entry of PM gases inside.⁶⁴

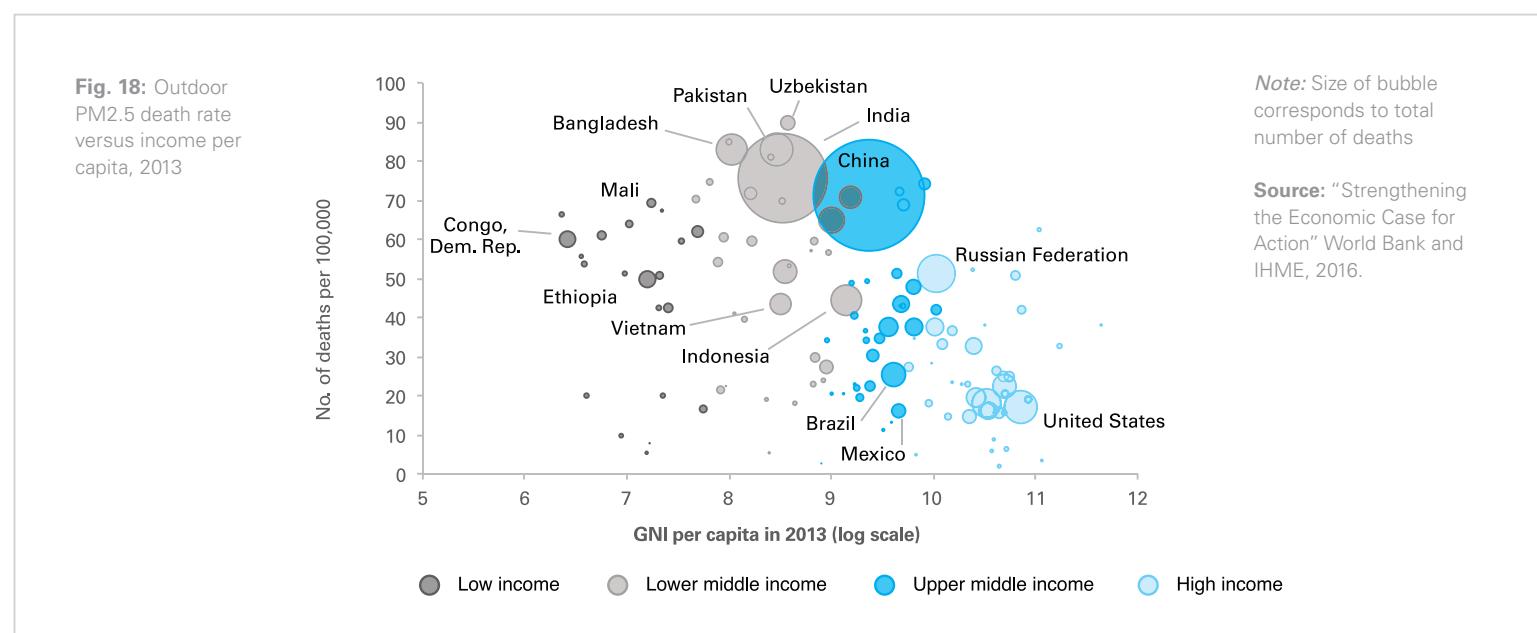




At a global scale, air pollution is concentrated in low- and middle-income countries. In fact, almost 90 per cent of deaths from outdoor air pollution occur in low- and middle-income countries,⁶⁵ and more than 99 per cent of deaths from indoor air pollution occur in low- and middle-income countries.⁶⁶

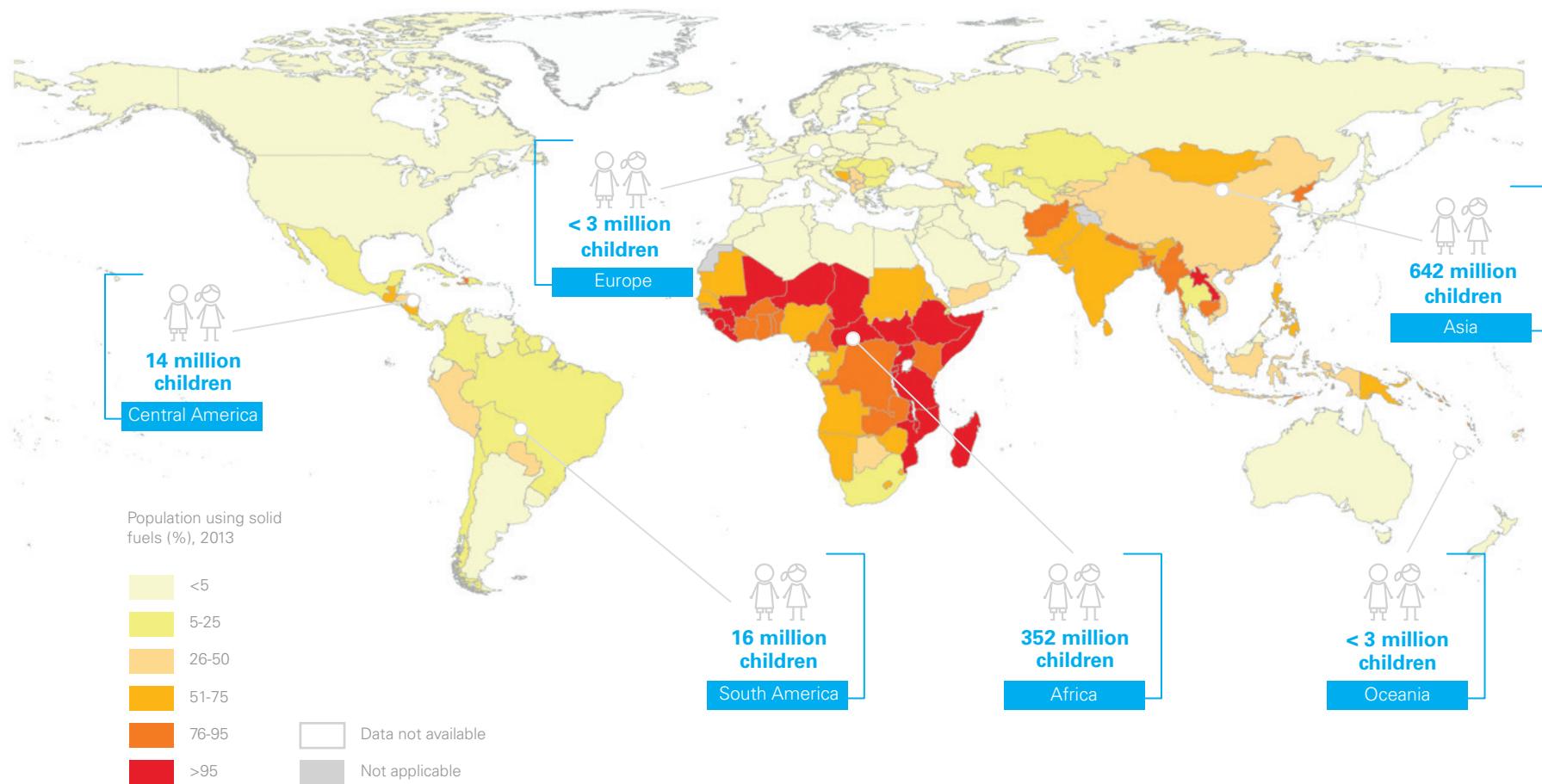
According to the Global Burden of Disease, children under the age of 5 in low- and middle-income countries are 60 times more likely to die from exposure to air pollution compared with children in high-income countries.^{67,68} For every 100,000 people, 31.5 die from air pollution in low- and middle-income countries, compared with 0.5 in high-income countries.⁶⁹

Indoor air pollution is highest in Africa, where the proportion of the population using solid fuels can, in many countries, exceed 95 per cent.⁷⁰ Outdoor air pollution is highest in both Asia and Africa.⁷¹ As industrial production continues to move to lower-cost production, low- and middle-income countries are likely to witness increasing levels of outdoor air pollution.⁷² These countries will then share not only the highest rates of mortality due to indoor air pollution, as they currently do, but also an increasing share of the mortality burden of outdoor air pollution.⁷³



Over 1 billion children live in homes where solid fuels are used in cooking and heating.

Fig. 19: Population using solid fuels (%), 2013



These are only rough estimates for illustrative purposes. No age disaggregated data are available for population in households using solid fuels and therefore it is difficult to estimate the number of children in homes using solid fuels. These numbers were estimated by assuming that the proportion of children in a country using solid fuels is the same as the proportion for the total population. They are generated by taking the proportion of the population using solid fuels in every country and multiplying it by the number of children in the country from the United Nations Population Division. The number of children in households is likely to vary, which can bias the estimates. Solid fuels in rural areas tends to be higher and so too are the numbers of children per household, which is likely to result in an overall underestimate. Furthermore, countries where the proportion of the population using solid fuels is less than 5 per cent are not included, as a precise figure could not be obtained; and in countries where the proportion is greater than 95 per cent, 95 per cent is used. Furthermore, because women and children, especially young children, tend to spend more time near or around the kitchen than male adults, these numbers are likely to be underestimates of actual exposure levels of women and children.

Data Source: World Health Organization Global Health Observatory Data Repository

Map Production: Health Statistics and Information Systems (HSI), Global Health Observatory 2014



Intergenerational equity

Intergenerational equity is the principle of fairness between generations. It underlines the ethical standard that we cannot discount the cost of harm when it falls on future generations – those not yet born. The principle tells us that we have a responsibility to future generations to leave them with a planet that is liveable, a place where the natural environment is not more degraded than when we received it. The principle aims to prevent the effects of decisions that are unjust and to prevent harm and degradation from being passed on to future generations.

As this report shows, reducing global air quality has a detrimental impact on children – including before birth. It also affects poor children the most. Furthermore, unless air quality is improved, the direct and indirect effects of air pollution will be passed on to generations not yet born. The lifetime effects of air pollution can lower future incomes and reduce the capacity of future adults to care for their children. All these effects can create and perpetuate intergenerational inequity.

Moreover, air pollution, which includes several short-lived greenhouse gases, is also linked to the principle of intergenerational equity through the Conference of Parties (COP) Paris Agreement. The Agreement acknowledges in the Preamble “*that climate change is a common concern of humankind*,” and signatories agree to “*respect, promote and consider their respective obligations on . . . intergenerational equity*.”⁷⁴

Forest fires and air pollution

In 2015, the El Niño weather phenomenon led to drought in many places and rendered forests and peatlands to tinderboxes, and fires out of control.⁷⁵ Peat fires emit more carbon and methane than regular fires of a similar extent, thereby doing more damage to the global climate, and creating more toxic smog.^{76,77} The smog from the fires raging in Indonesia led to closed schools, disabled airports and the country’s declaring a state of emergency in six provinces. In total, 40 million Indonesians were exposed to hazardous levels of air pollution and approximately 5 million students experienced school closures due to the 2015 fires.^{78,79,80} The smog not only spread across Indonesia, but also to neighbouring Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand and the Philippines. Overall, the haze led to more than 500,000 cases of respiratory illnesses in Southeast Asia.^{81,82} It is projected that climate change may lead to even more powerful El Niño weather phenomena, which will make droughts even more intense and forest fires even more likely.^{83,84}



Indoor air pollution with country examples



Indoor air pollution is caused in large part by cooking with inefficient cooking methods, such as cooking with solid fuels over open fires, and by burning biomass in ovens in unventilated homes. In 2012, 534,000 deaths of children under 5 were attributed to indoor air pollution, with the majority of these deaths caused by acute lower respiratory infections (ALRI).⁸⁵ There is also evidence linking indoor air pollution to low birthweight, tuberculosis, ischemic heart disease, cataracts, asthma and nasopharyngeal and laryngeal cancers.⁸⁶

Women and girls are exposed to high levels of PM and carbon monoxide exposure as a consequence of disproportionately long periods of time spent at home near the family's stove.⁸⁷ Young children and babies are often kept close to the stove as their caregivers are preparing meals. Investments in clean cooking and awareness of the issue can thus substantially benefit child survival and development and public health outcomes. Substituting wood and other solid fuels that are traditionally collected by women and girls would bring additional co-benefits for their safety, education and equality as well as for the environment.

Bangladesh

Bangladesh has one of the largest burdens of child mortality associated with indoor air pollution. More than 8,500 children per year die from diseases caused by household air pollution (HAP) and 89 per cent of households use solid fuels – mostly wood, agricultural waste and cow dung – for cooking and space heating.⁸⁸

The reasons for relatively limited uptake of improved cookstoves to date include a lack of awareness of health risks associated with HAP, higher costs compared to traditional cookstoves and competing development priorities.⁸⁹ Seeking to overcome these barriers, the Bangladesh Country Action Plan for Clean Cookstoves is a governmental strategy to achieve the goal of 100 per cent clean cooking solutions by 2030. The target is to disseminate improved cookstoves to more than 30 million households by 2030.⁹⁰ If this goal is reached, it will significantly reduce the direct and indirect health effects of children's exposure to air pollutants. It will also have a positive impact on women's health and time spent in the kitchen as Bangladeshi women, on average, spend four to five hours a day on cooking, and six to eight hours a day in the kitchen.⁹¹

Zimbabwe

Indoor air pollution from solid fuels is the leading risk factor contributing to the disease burden in Zimbabwe. In 2010, more than 3,000 child deaths from 0–4 years were caused by acute lower respiratory infections (ALRI). Research also shows that children in Zimbabwean households using wood, dung or straw for cooking were more than twice as likely to have suffered from ALRI than children from households using Liquefied Petroleum Gas (LPG), natural gas or electricity.⁹²

To address this issue, UNICEF Zimbabwe partnered with the government to implement an improved cookstove programme in 2015 and 2016 in Hurungwe and Nuanetsi. Through these projects, women learned to construct the stoves themselves, as well as train other women to do the same. The resources

to make the stoves are free and locally available. The pilot programmes reached 3,480 households (comprising approximately 17,400 indirect beneficiaries). The stoves have reduced specific fuel consumption by as much as 39 per cent.^{93,94}

The projects not only helped reduce indoor air pollution and improve children's health, but also contributed to local forest conservation, reduced time spent collecting firewood and making positive impacts on local economies. Furthermore, more children were able to go to school on time because they spent less time preparing food and heating bath water.⁹⁵

Awareness-raising and training are central components of UNICEF's cookstove project in Zimbabwe. Families are informed about the health risks of indoor air pollution, and how cooking in environments with fewer emissions and more ventilation (for example, outdoors) can significantly benefit health outcomes. Men and women learn about proper kitchen ventilation, how to reduce pollution during fire ignition and how using appropriately dried firewood can significantly reduce pollution levels.⁹⁶

Mongolia

In Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia, air pollution is at its worst during the harsh and prolonged winters, with temperatures reaching as low as -40°C . Coal, wood and other solid fuels are then used by 70 per cent of the country's population for heating purposes.^{97,98} These fuels contribute to both outdoor and indoor pollution levels and are further aggravated by a weather phenomenon in the winter that traps air pollutants near the ground.⁹⁹ This concentrates pollutants and makes Ulaanbaatar, a city of only

1.2 million, one of the cities with the worst air quality in the world, at times worse than Beijing and Delhi.^{100,101} Pollution levels are worst in informal settlements whose inhabitants, typically living in circular tents (*gers*), rely on raw coal for heating and cooking.¹⁰²

Evidence shows alarmingly strong statistical correlations between seasonal levels of air pollution and pregnancy loss in Ulaanbaatar. In the winter, when air pollution levels are higher due to coal burning for domestic heating, the number of miscarriages increases more than threefold – from 23 foetal deaths per 1,000 live births in May, to 73 per 1,000 live births in December.¹⁰³

UNICEF Mongolia prepared a study and advocated for urgent action on air pollution in the country. A consultation with international and national experts on the issue helped to formulate initial responses and policy recommendations. These include measures to stop and replace coal combustion in residential areas as well as specific child health-related actions.¹⁰⁴ UNICEF Mongolia is engaging innovators and adolescents on monitoring pollution levels, and working with partners on the issue.¹⁰⁵

300 million children live in areas where the outdoor air is toxic – exceeding six times international limits.





Chapter 4: Number of children living in areas with high levels of outdoor air pollution

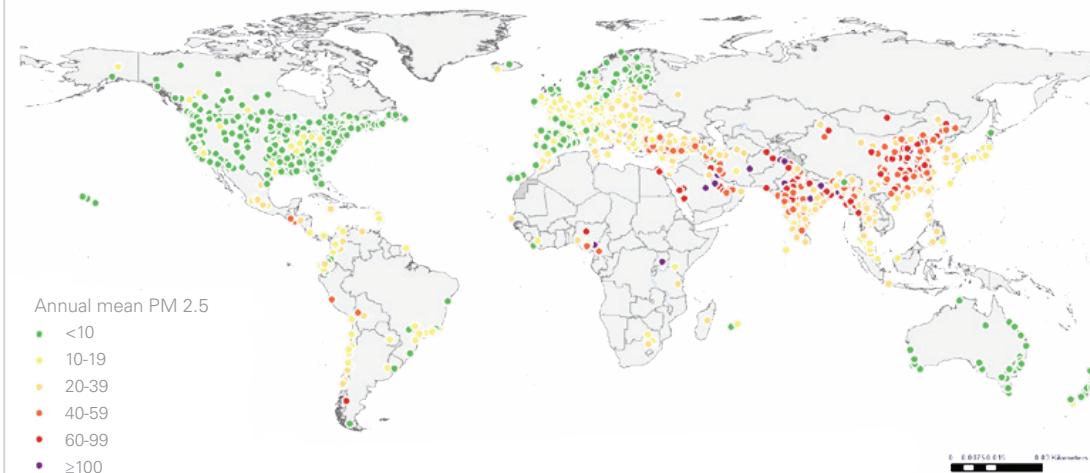
As air pollution has significant negative health implications for children, this report attempts to gauge the number of children who are exposed to highly polluted air.

Ground-level air sensors, which provide localized indication of PM_{2.5}, are the most accurate measure of air quality.^{1,2} The map below includes the results of ground-level monitoring of PM_{2.5} in 3,000 cities around the world. Air pollution levels tend to be highest in East Asia, South Asia and the Middle East and North African regions. They tend to be lower in North America, Europe and parts of the Western Pacific region.

80 per cent of people living in the urban areas presented in *Figure 20* are exposed to air quality levels that exceed WHO limits. Approximately 98 per cent of cities in low and middle income countries on the map do not meet WHO guideline limits for PM_{2.5} ($<10 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). In high-income countries, however, 56 per cent of cities do not meet WHO guideline limits.³ According to the most recent update (2016), between 2008 and 2013, there has been an 8 per cent increase in global levels of urban air pollution. Improvements, however, were seen in some regions.

There are, however, fewer ground-level sensors in Africa compared to North America, Europe and Asia. As a result, global estimates of numbers of children exposed to poor air quality cannot be produced using ground-level monitoring systems.

Fig. 20: Concentration of particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 μ or less (PM_{2.5}) in nearly 3000 urban areas*, 2008-2015



The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the World Health Organization concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries. Dotted and dashed lines on maps represent approximate border lines for which there may not yet be full agreement.

Data Source: World Health Organization

Map Production: Information and Evidence Research (IER)
World Health Organization

*The mean annual concentration of fine suspended particles of less than 2.5 microns in diameter is a common measure of air pollution. The mean is an urban population – weighted average from cities with available air pollution measures.

Recent ground-level monitoring estimates in urban areas reveal striking findings

Recent urban estimates point to striking findings, including the inclusion of several Nigerian cities among the top ten most polluted by PM10 standards. Moreover, many of the most polluted places in the world are no longer megacities and capitals – but rather medium-sized cities, suburban and manufacturing centres.

Fig. 21: Cities by PM2.5 pollution

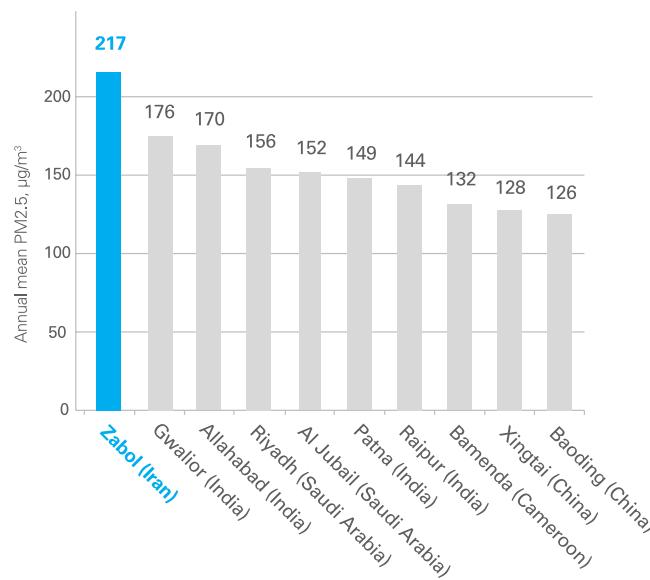
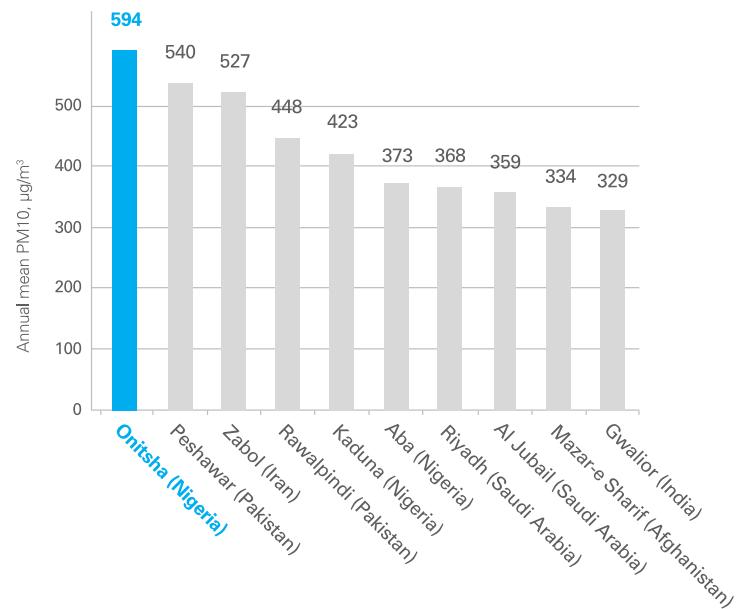


Fig. 22: Cities by PM10 pollution



Source: WHO Global Urban Ambient Air Pollution Database (2016)



Satellite imagery offers an alternative for global estimates.

Methodology

Population Data

The Gridded Population of the World version 4 (GPWv4) data set used as the basis for this analysis was derived from best available administrative boundary population counts for 2010 by the Center for International Earth Science Information Network (CIESIN) at Columbia University. GPWv4 is constructed from national or subnational input areal units of varying resolutions, which will show differences in the visual display of information depending on the resolution of the input boundaries, and represents the best available global population data. The GPWv4 data was then augmented by incorporating best available, higher-resolution data from WorldPop for South America, Africa and Asia. WorldPop uses census, survey, satellite, social media, cell phone and other spatial data sets, integrated into peer-reviewed statistical methods to produce open, fully documented and consistent gridded maps of population distributions. WorldPop works with statistics agencies, ministries of health and other organizations to construct databases of the most spatially detailed and recent population census data available.

The new hybrid gridded population data was calibrated to United Nations World Population Prospects projections for 2015, so that the national population totals equalled those from the United Nations. The percentage of the population under 18 years of age was then calculated on a national level, and enhanced with subnational boundaries and percentages for 58 countries provided by ICF International through the DHS Programme. The percentages were then used to estimate the number and location of children under 18 years of age in 2015 around the world.

For future populations, gridded population data was augmented by United Nations population projection data for the year 2050, showing the total number of people per nation, as well as the percentage of children under 18 years of age. Those projections were used as a multiplier to derive the number and location of children under 18 years of age in 2050 globally based on the gridded population data.

Air Quality Data

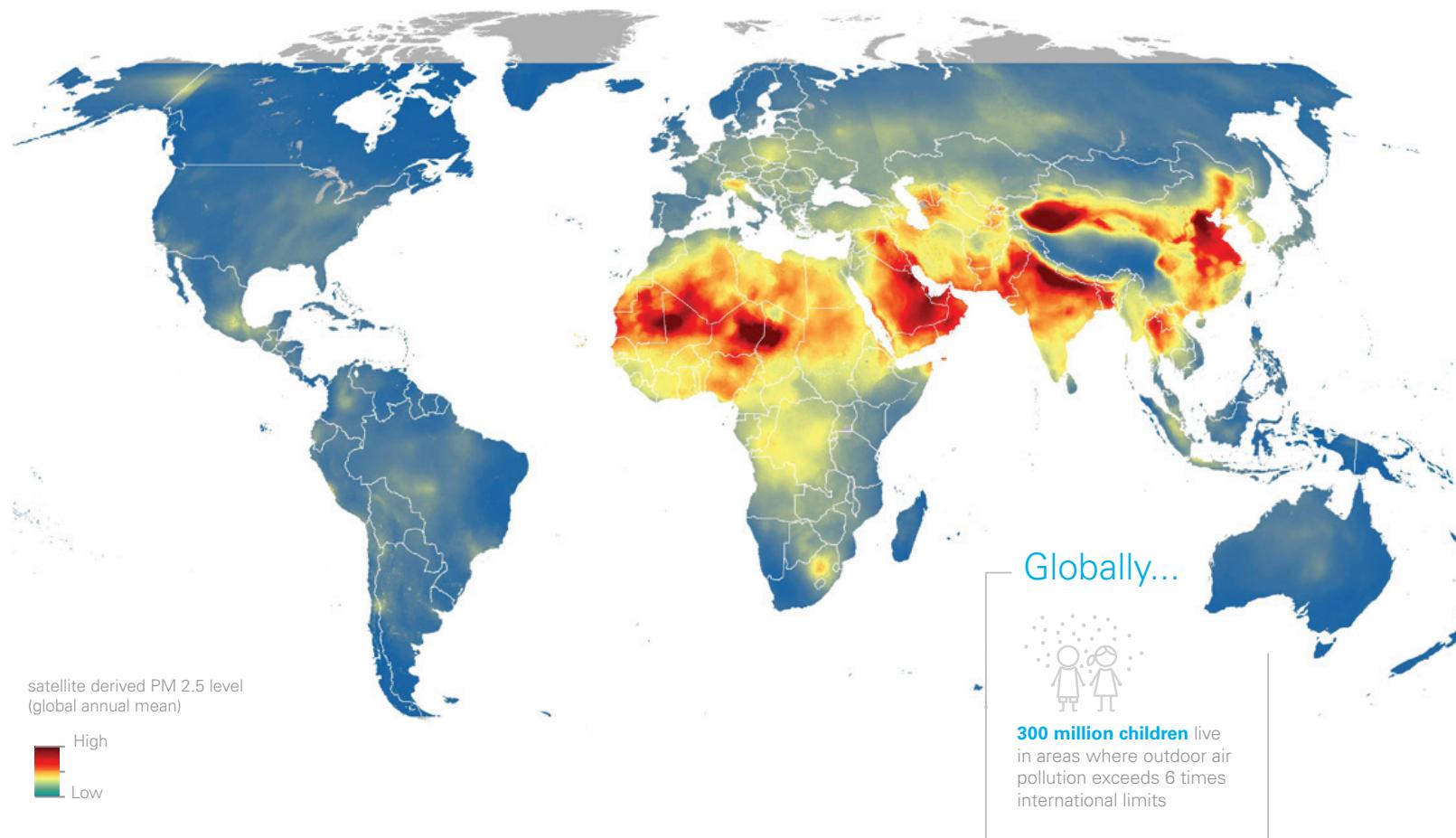
Ground-level fine particulate matter (PM2.5) was derived by the Atmospheric Composition Analysis Group at Dalhousie University, Canada. Their process combined Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) retrievals from the NASA MODIS, MISR and SeaWiFS instruments with the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model, and subsequently calibrated them to global ground-based observations of PM2.5 using Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR). The best available data for the last three years (2012–2014) were averaged together as the basis for the current situation analysis.

The best available historic data for the first three years of global measurement (1998–2000) were averaged together as the basis for the historic trend analysis.

Overlaying the newly available high-resolution satellite imagery on PM2.5 with child population estimates for every square kilometre, based on CIESIN and WorldPop data calibrated using United Nations population estimates and DHS subnational demographic data, gives us the best global sense of the number of children living in high pollution zones.

Around 2 billion children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds international limits.

Fig. 23: Satellite derived PM 2.5 level (global annual average), 2012-2014



This map is for illustrative purposes only. This map does not reflect a position by UNICEF on the legal status of any country or territory or the delimitation of any frontiers. The dotted line represents approximately the Line of Control in Jammu and Kashmir agreed upon by India and Pakistan. The final status of Jammu and Kashmir has not yet been agreed upon by the parties. The final boundary between the Sudan and South Sudan has not yet been determined. The final status of the Abyei area has not yet been determined.

Source of maps: van Donkelaar, A., R.V Martin, M.Brauer, N. C. Hsu, R. A. Kahn, R. C Levy, A. Lyapustin, A. M. Sayer, and D. M Winker, "Global Estimates of Fine Particulate Matter using a Combined Geophysical-Statistical Method with Information from Satellites, Models, and Monitors," Environ. Sci. Technol, doi: 10.1021/acs.est.5b05833, 2016.



Findings:

- **Around 2 billion children currently live in areas where outdoor air pollution (PM_{2.5}) exceeds international limits.⁵**
- **Almost 300 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution is toxic – exceeding six times international limits.**

It should be noted, however, that the satellite imagery picks up dust, as visible in the North Africa and Sahara region. Some modelling⁶ is able to remove these effects. Windblown dust does, however, affect children and respiratory conditions, and is included as part of the WHO guidelines on thresholds for air pollution. Studies have also shown that it affects mortality and morbidity during episodes of high concentrations.^{7,8,9,10} Therefore, because of its direct effect on children's health, we have included it in this analysis.

It should also be noted that these estimates can change based on seasonal and even daily fluctuations in outdoor air quality. For example, we know that air pollution is high during the winter in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia, due to high amounts of solid fuel burning to keep warm, but the satellite images are unlikely to pick this up. Furthermore, the maps are not an indication of actual exposure, but rather indicate living in an area where outdoor air quality on a macro-level and over time has been determined to be poor. Exposure is based on many factors, which depend

mostly on contextual locality and individual behaviour. For example, it depends on whether a child lives near roads with heavy traffic, where and when the child plays outdoors, whether significant waste-burning in the neighbourhood takes place, or whether children live in a home which uses biomass for cooking or heating.^{11,12,13}

These figures do not include children living in high levels of indoor air pollution. Most children exposed to high levels of indoor air pollution live in rural areas, where ambient air pollution tends to be lower.

Furthermore, living in an area where air pollution levels are very high does not mean the child is exposed to air pollution all the time. As this report demonstrates, much can be done to protect children (see chapter 6).

In Africa...



520 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds international limits



60 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 4 times international limits



370 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 2 times international limits



Less than a million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 6 times international limits

Fig. 24 Satellite derived PM 2.5 level (global annual average), Africa, 2012-2014

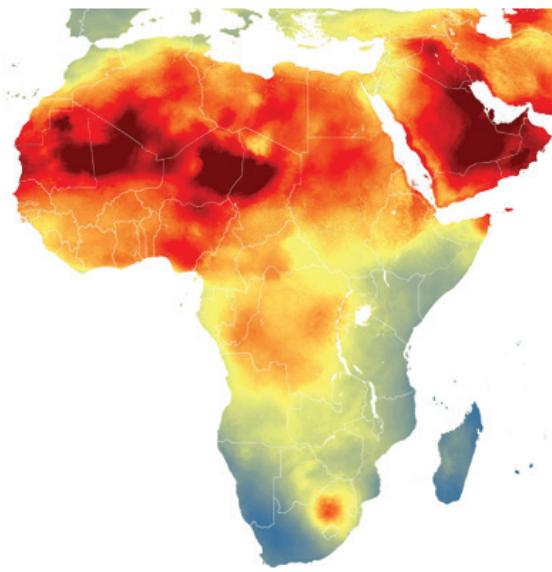
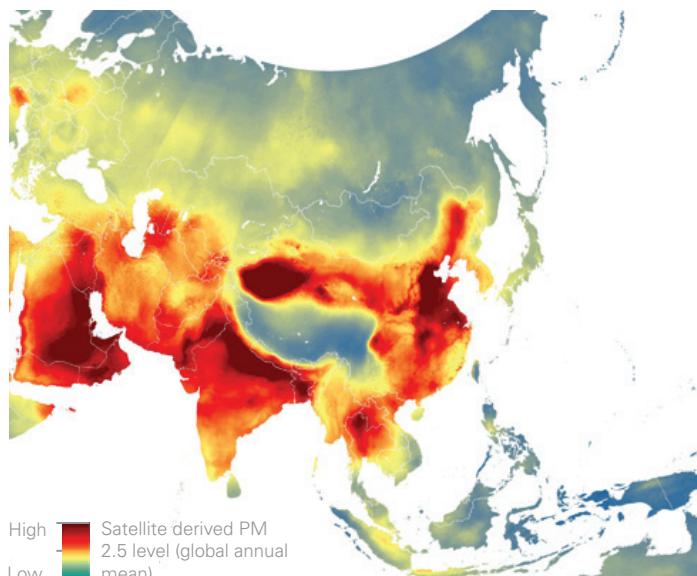


Fig. 25: Satellite derived PM 2.5 level (global annual average), Asia, 2012-2014



Source of maps: van Donkelaar, A., R.V Martin, M.Brauer, N. C. Hsu, R. A. Kahn, R. C Levy, A. Lyapustin, A. M. Sayer, and D. M Winker, "Global Estimates of Fine Particulate Matter using a Combined Geophysical-Statistical Method with Information from Satellites, Models, and Monitors", Environ. Sci. Technol, doi: 10.1021/acs.est.5b05833, 2016.

In Asia...



1.22 billion children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds international limits



1.08 billion children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 2 times international limits



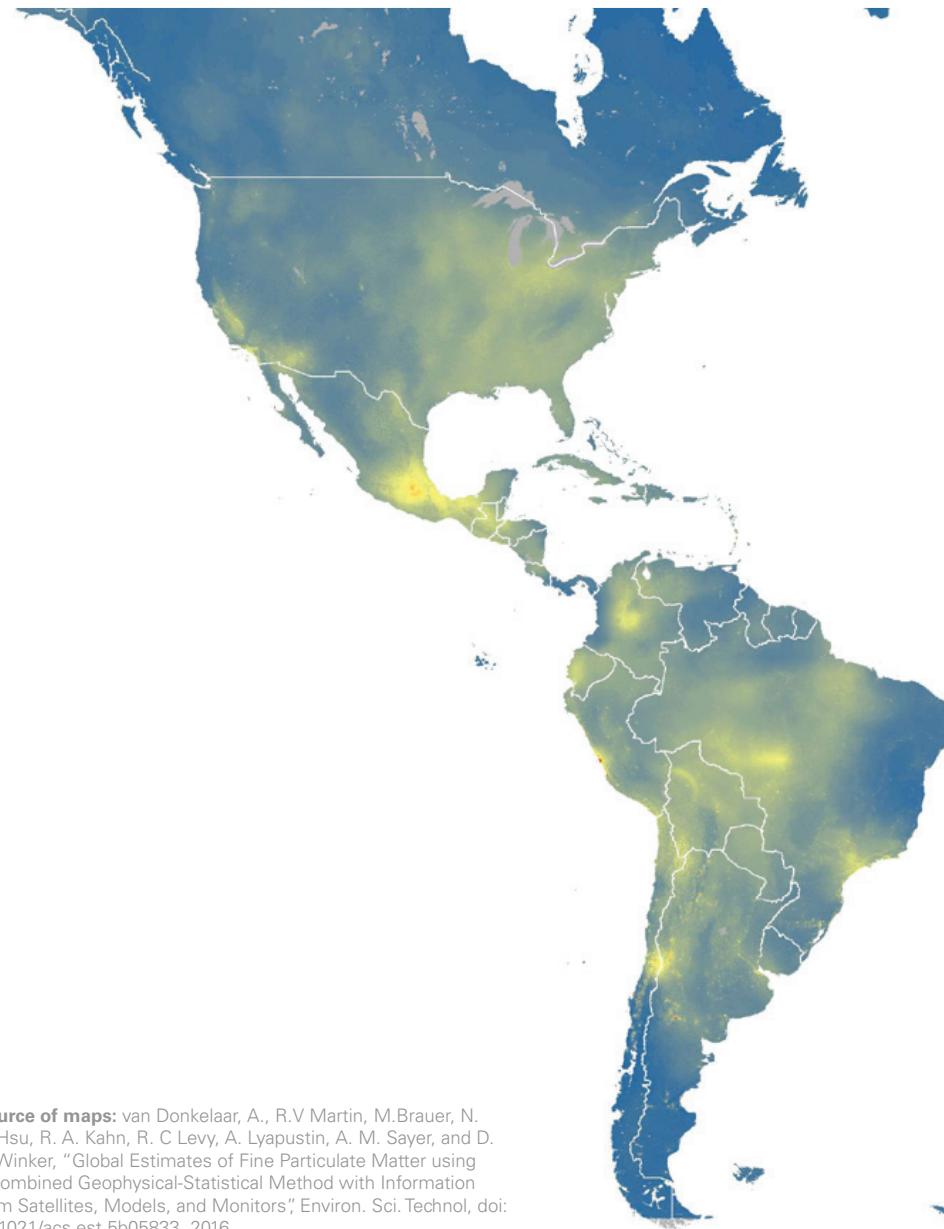
660 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 4 times international limits



300 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 6 times international limits



Fig. 26: Satellite derived PM 2.5 level (global annual average), Americas, 2012-2014



Source of maps: van Donkelaar, A., R.V Martin, M.Brauer, N. C. Hsu, R. A. Kahn, R. C Levy, A. Lyapustin, A. M. Sayer, and D. M Winker, "Global Estimates of Fine Particulate Matter using a Combined Geophysical-Statistical Method with Information from Satellites, Models, and Monitors", Environ. Sci. Technol, doi: 10.1021/acs.est.5b05833, 2016.

In The Americas...



130 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds international limits

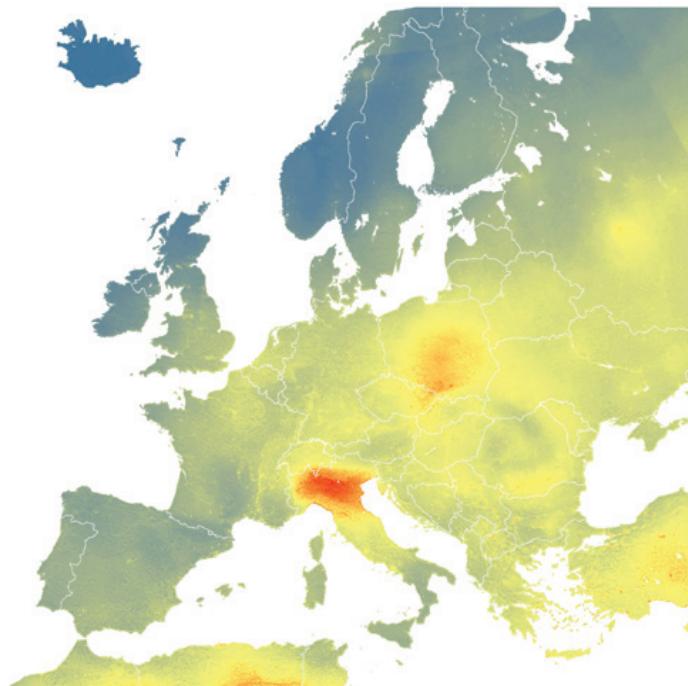


20 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 2 times international limits



Over 1 million children live in areas where outdoor air pollution exceeds 4 times international limits

Fig. 27: Satellite derived PM 2.5 level (global annual average), Europe, 2012-2014



In Europe...



120 million children
live in areas where
outdoor air pollution
exceeds international
limits



20 million children
live in areas where
outdoor air pollution
exceeds 2 times
international limits

Source of maps: van Donkelaar, A., R.V Martin, M.Brauer, N. C. Hsu, R. A. Kahn, R. C Levy, A. Lyapustin, A. M. Sayer, and D. M Winker, "Global Estimates of Fine Particulate Matter using a Combined Geophysical-Statistical Method with Information from Satellites, Models, and Monitors," Environ. Sci. Technol, doi: 10.1021/acs.est.5b05833, 2016.

Number of children living in areas which exceed international limits, by UNICEF Region

UNICEF Region	PM _{2.5} annual mean			
	>10 µg/m ³	>20 µg/m ³	>40 µg/m ³	>60 µg/m ³
CEE/CIS	100 million	40 million	2.3 million	
East Asia and the Pacific	450 million	360 million	190 million	70 million
Eastern and Southern Africa	200 million	70 million		
Latin America and the Caribbean	100 million	20 million	1.3 million	
Middle East and North Africa	170 million	140 million	30 million	10 million
South Asia	620 million	610 million	440 million	220 million
West and Central Africa	240 million	240 million	60 million	
Others	130 million	20 million		
Global	2 billion	1.5 billion	720 million	300 million

With actions to reduce air pollution, we can tackle threats to children's health and climate change – at the same time.





Chapter 5: Wider benefits of reducing air pollution

As this report demonstrates there are significant links between air pollution and health. But, reducing air pollution also has wider benefits, including promoting economic growth, fighting climate change and achieving the SDGs.

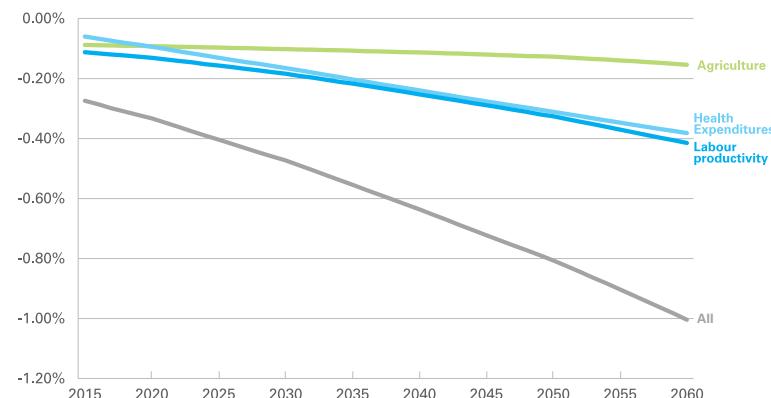
Promoting economic growth

The links between health and economic growth have been well established.¹ Air pollution affects a child's cognitive development, which in turn can affect school attendance and performance.^{2,3} This, in turn, affects a child's future income potential, productivity and eventually impacts on economic growth. Illness to air pollution also raises a family's medical expenses – and prolonged exposure during childhood can cause complex and chronic health conditions that can be costly to manage to treat throughout a childhood and into adulthood.

It follows that by reducing air pollution, families and governments can save on medical expenses and improve the health of children as well as their future employment and well-being. This can have ripple effects for their employment, wages and for the economy as a whole.

Various studies demonstrate this connection. One study found that a 10 ppb decrease in ozone concentrations increases worker productivity by 4.2 per cent. Another study found that the closure of a factory in Mexico increased work hours (per week) among nearby residents by up to 1.3 hours, or 3.5 per cent. A US study on the effects of policy reform shows that the United States Clean Air Act Amendments could have an economic value of up to US\$2 trillion by the year 2020 – offsetting initial implementation costs.⁴

Fig. 28: Change in global GDP from combined market impacts of air pollution



Source: The economic consequences of outdoor air pollution, OECD, 2016
ENV-linkages model

Air pollution also affects economic growth through its impact on crop yields and ecosystems.⁵ High amounts of ozone can cause reduced growth and yield as well as premature plant death.^{6,7} Furthermore, acidic and nitrogen compounds in the air can deposit onto the land, affecting overall water and soil quality, including biodiversity.⁸ The impact of air pollution on agricultural productivity and crop yields is linked to families' incomes, local economic development and broader GDP growth.⁹

Biodiversity and ecosystems are also dependent on clean air – and their degradation can translate into significant economic consequences. The effects of air pollution on ecosystems also affect those families who rely on them to support their livelihoods. It can also affect aquatic ecosystems and livelihoods associated with them, including the loss of biota sensitive

to increased acidity of surface waters, as well as increased phytoplankton and algal growth.^{10,11,12}

Global studies have revealed the tremendous impact that air pollution has on the world economy. The OECD examined the potential economic costs of air pollution based on future projections of air quality around the world. The study evaluates market costs, including health expenditures, labour productivity and reductions in agricultural yields. Findings predict that the economic costs of air pollution will gradually increase from 0.3 per cent of global GDP to around 1 per cent of GDP by 2060.¹³ Another recent study by the World Bank and the Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME) indicates even greater economic costs of air pollution. The authors found that deaths from air pollution cost the global economy about US\$225 billion in lost labour income and more than US\$5 trillion in welfare losses in 2013.¹⁴

But the economic effect can also be felt at the individual and household level. Measures to reduce air pollution are highly cost-effective for families and communities. Clean cookstoves, for example, have been shown to provide significant household savings, mostly in terms of fuel, but also in terms of reduced expenses from illness.^{15,16} The net cost for every individual who switches from biomass to LPG for cooking fuel is US\$2.10, while the net benefit per person is US\$14.40. The benefits of switching to a cleaner cookstove are even greater: the net cost for every individual who switches from a traditional cookstove to a cleaner one is US\$5.50, while the net benefit per person is US\$16.70. The net benefit is highly positive because the immediate savings

on fuel offset the cost of the cleaner stove.¹⁷ Because such interventions save more money than they cost, the same study found that making clean stoves available to those using biomass fuels and coal on traditional stoves would result in a negative intervention cost of US\$34 billion and would generate an economic return of US\$104 billion a year over a ten-year period. In other words, the present net annual value would be US\$138 billion.¹⁸

There are further economic effects of cleaner cookstoves. The reliance on wood as a household fuel can put pressure on forests, particularly in areas where fuel wood is scarce and the demand for wood outweighs natural regrowth. Unsustainable wood harvesting can lead to forest degradation, which may result in a loss of habitat and biodiversity.^{19,20}

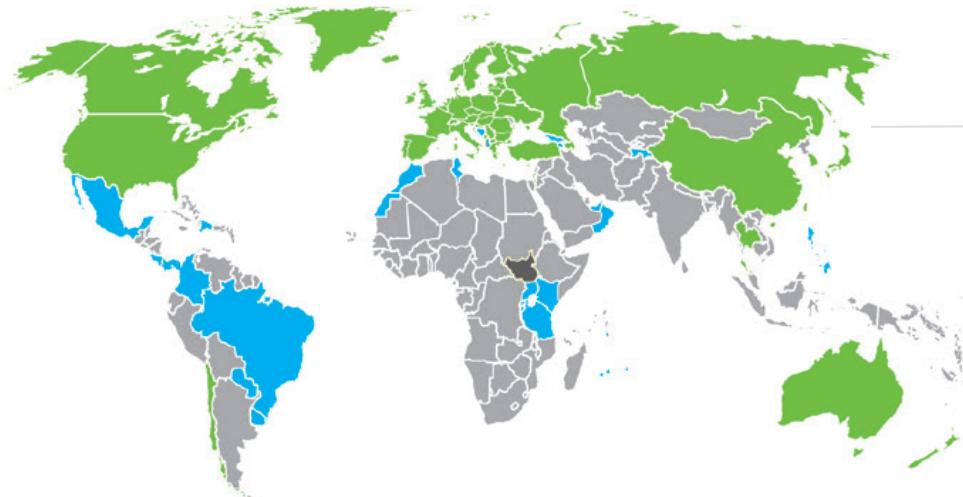
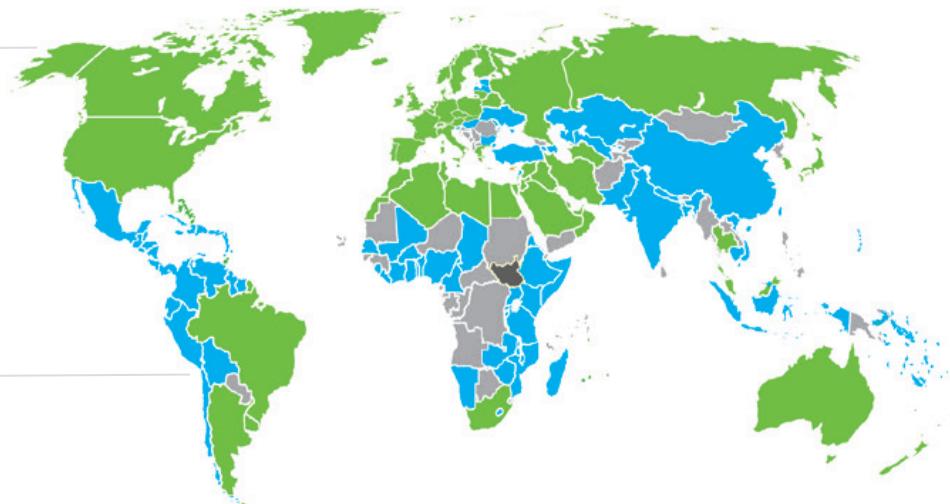
The opportunity cost of inefficient cookstoves can also be substantial. Households reliant on traditional biomass fuels often spend many hours a day on fuel collection and thus have less time available for other essential tasks.²¹ This limits time available for income generation, schooling and other opportunities for economic development. Similarly, households with limited or no access to clean and reliable sources of lighting (e.g., electricity) can lose opportunities for educational and income-generating activities outside of daylight hours.²²

But dependence on inefficient household fuels and appliances is often linked to poverty – and reinforces itself. Poor households frequently do not have the resources to obtain cleaner, more efficient fuels and appliances in the first place.



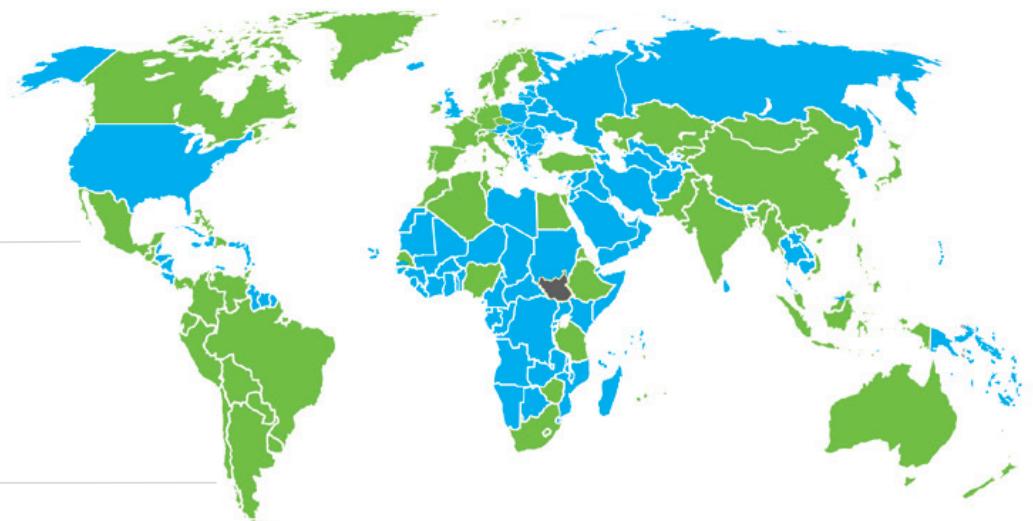
Indoor air pollution

- Countries with good access to non-solid fuels and programmes to promote efficient cook/heating stoves
- Countries that lack either good access to non-solid fuels or programmes to promote efficient cook/heating stoves
- Countries that have no good access to non solid-fuels and do not have programmes to promote efficient cook/heating stoves
- No data



Fuels and vehicles

- Countries with low Sulphur fuels (50ppm) and advanced vehicle emission standards (Euro 4)
- Countries with either low Sulphur fuels (50ppm) or advanced vehicle emission standards (Euro 4)
- Countries with neither low Sulphur fuels (50ppm) nor advanced vehicle emission standards (Euro 4)
- No data



Public Transport

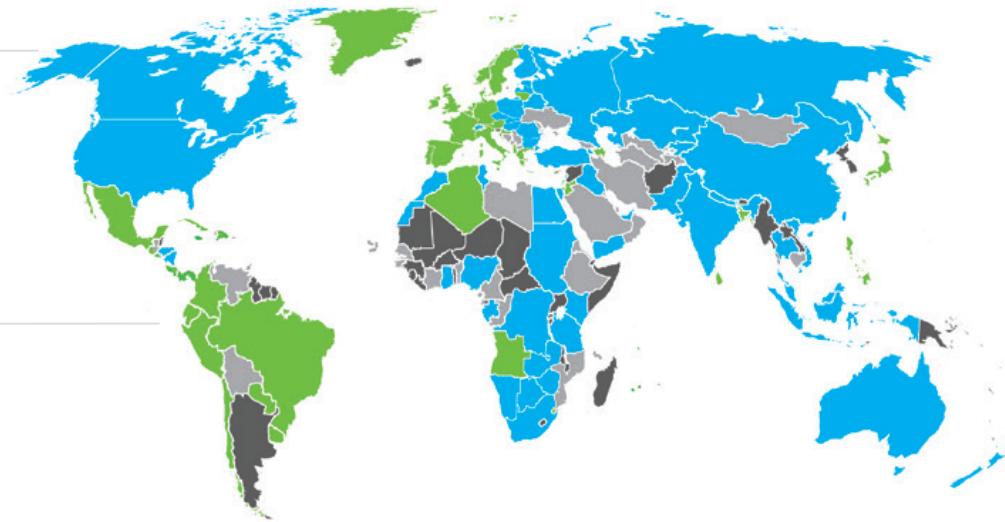
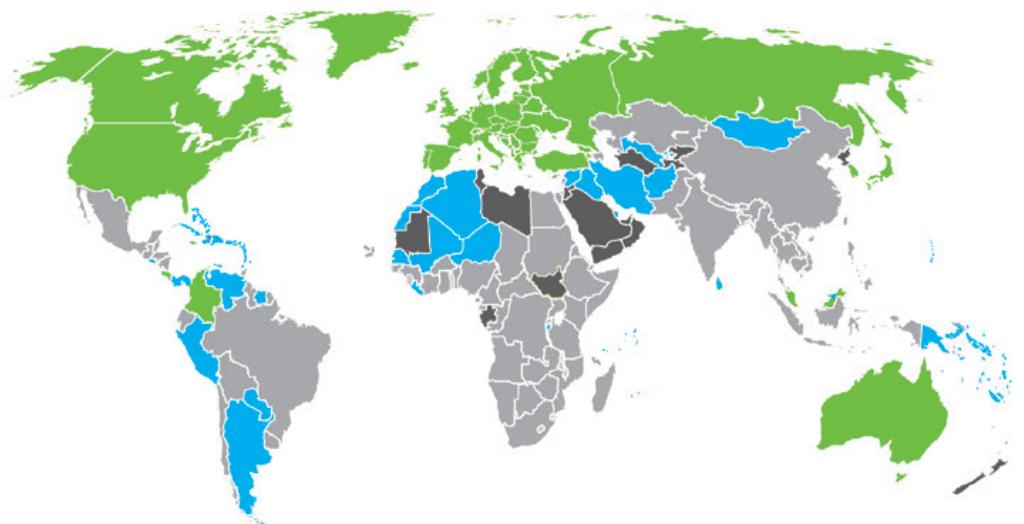
- Countries that have made major investments in public transport in the last 5 years
- Countries that have made some investments in public transport in the last 5 years
- No data

Source: Actions on Air Quality: Policies and Programmes for improving air quality around the world. United Nations Environment Programme (2016)



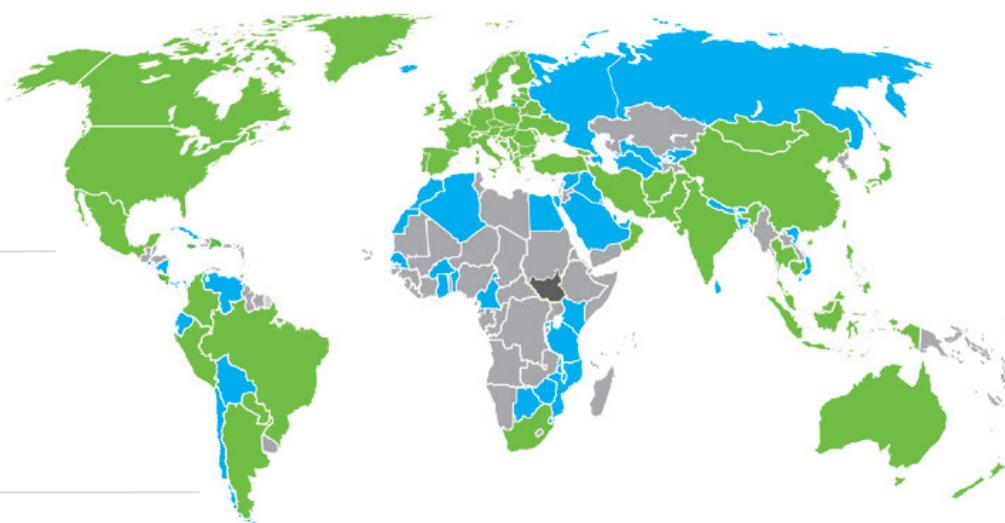
Industry

- Countries with incentives and high industrial energy efficiency
- Countries with incentives and low industrial energy efficiency or no incentives but have high industrial energy efficiency
- Countries with low industrial energy efficiency and no incentives
- No data



Burning waste

- Burning of both agricultural and municipal waste is strictly regulated
- Burning of either agricultural or municipal waste is regulated but still practised
- Burning of both agricultural and municipal waste is not regulated and is commonly practised
- No data



Air quality laws / Regulations

- Countries with AAQS and air quality laws & regulations
- Countries with either AAQS or air quality laws & regulations
- Countries without AAQS and air quality laws & regulations
- No data

Source: Actions on Air Quality: Policies and Programmes for improving air quality around the world. United Nations Environment Programme (2016)



Combatting climate change

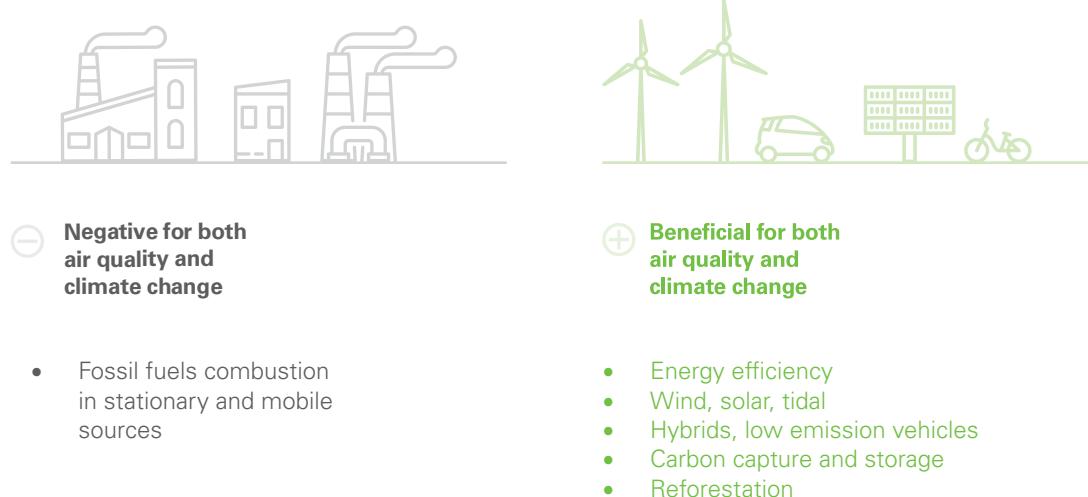
Actions to reduce air pollution and greenhouse gas emissions go hand in hand. However, it should be noted that while there is some overlap, some of the pollutants that affect children's health are not the same as greenhouse gases. Particulate matter, is short-lived and stays in the atmosphere for only a matter of months, possibly a few years, whereas carbon dioxide (CO_2) stays in the atmosphere for many years, even decades.

Nonetheless, short-lived pollutants do play a role in climate change. Firstly, they are often produced by the same action as long-lived climate pollutants: fossil fuel combustion. Moreover, some of the pollutants do have warming effects. Studies have shown that actions to reduce short-lived climate pollutants could reduce global warming by as much as 0.5°C by 2050*. Black carbon (a form of PM2.5) comes from incomplete combustion and significantly contributes to climate change. Black carbon absorbs sunlight, and when it is deposited on snow or ice, it facilitates melting. Black carbon is estimated to be responsible for approximately 15 per cent of the current excessive warming of global temperatures.²³

Many mitigation actions have been found to have health co-benefits. The United Nations Environment Programme and the World Meteorological Organization conducted an extensive study that found that a small suite of mitigation actions among short-lived climate pollutants could prevent as many as 3.5–5 million premature deaths per year. These actions, listed in *Figure 31*, will also help towards achieving objectives outlined in each individual country's Nationally-Determined Contributions (INDCs) as part of the COP21 Climate Change Agreement.²⁴ Some of the key examples include: supporting active and rapid/mass transport; higher vehicle emissions efficiency standards; switching from fossil fuels to renewables for large-scale power production; promoting healthy diets low in red meat and processed meats and rich in plant-based foods; reducing food waste; using low-emission stoves and/or fuel switching to reduce solid fuel use; and passive building design principles; among others.

*UNEP & WMO (2011) Integrated Assessment of Black Carbon and Tropospheric Ozone, Nairobi, Kenya

Fig. 29: Policy map displaying air quality (AQ) and climate change (CC) interactions.



Source: Adapted from Defra (2010). *Air pollution: Action in a changing climate*.

Clean air, economic growth and carbon reduction in China

The metropolitan of Shenzhen is a pioneer for air quality management in China and a model for the *win-win-win* case of: clean air – low carbon – economic growth. As the first Chinese city with a population of over 10 million to successfully achieve the national air quality standard, the metropolitan region/city of Shenzhen is voluntarily aiming to further reduce PM2.5 levels and achieve the more stringent one proposed by the WHO by 2020. After having achieved the PM2.5 national standard, its GDP grew by 8.9 per cent versus China's national average of 6.9 per cent growth in 2015. The energy use per unit of GDP is only half of China's national average. Shenzhen is one of the cities supported jointly by the Children's Investment Fund Foundation and the Energy Foundation China. The partnership supported cities, and also successfully pushed for revision of China's Air Law and provided technical support regarding its implementation and enforcement in Shenzhen and other cities. The partnership successfully pushed for measures accelerating improved outcomes regarding air pollution and the reduction of greenhouse gases.

Provided by The Children's Investment Fund Foundation (CIFF)



Climate and health win-wins

Fig. 30: Potential magnitude of climate and health impacts of selected mitigation actions.

Sector and mitigation action	Certainty of major short-lived climate pollutants-related climate benefit ¹	Aggregate level of potential health benefit ²	Main health benefits (blue = direct benefits of reduced air pollution; gray = indirect benefits of reduced air pollution; green = ancillary health benefits)	Potential level of CO2 reduction co-benefit
Transport				
Support active (and rapid mass) transport	High	High	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather Increased physical activity Reduced noise Fewer road traffic injuries ³	High
Ultra-low sulfur diesel with diesel particle filters	Medium-high	Medium	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	None
Higher vehicle emissions/efficiency standards	High ⁴	Medium-high	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	High ⁴
Agriculture				
Alternate wet/dry rice irrigation	Medium-high ⁵	Low-medium	Less crop damage and extreme weather Reduced vector-borne disease	Low ⁵
Improved manure management	Low-medium	Low-medium	Reduced zoonotic disease Improved indoor air quality	Low
Reduced open burning of agricultural fields	Medium	Low-medium	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	Low
Promoting healthy diets low in red meat and processed meats rich in plant-based foods ⁶	High	High	Less crop damage and extreme weather Reduced obesity and diet-related non-communicable diseases	Medium-high ⁷
Reducing food waste	Medium-high	Low-medium	Less crop damage and extreme weather Reduced food insecurity/undernutrition	Medium-high ⁷
Household air pollution and building design				
Low emission stoves and/or fuel switching to reduce solid fuel use	Medium-high	High	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather Lower violence and injury risk during fuel collection Fewer burns	Medium ⁷

Improved lighting to replace kerosene lamps	Medium	Medium	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather Fewer burns / Fewer poisonings	Low-medium
Passive design principles	Low-medium	Medium	Thermal regulation Improved indoor air quality	Medium
Energy supply/electricity				
Switch from fossil fuels to renewables for large scale power production ⁷	Low	High (coal/oil) Low-medium (gas)	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather Fewer occupational injuries	High (coal/oil) Medium-high (gas)
Replacement or supplementation of small-scale diesel generators with renewables	Low-medium	Low-medium	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather Reduced noise	Low-medium
Control of fugitive emissions from the fossil fuel industry	High	Low	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	Low-medium ⁸
Industry				
Improved brick kilns	Low-medium	Medium	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	Low-medium ⁷
Improved coke ovens	Low-medium	Medium	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	Low-medium ⁷
Control of fugitive emissions from the fossil fuel industry	High	Low	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	Low-medium
Waste management				
Landfill gas recovery	Medium	Low	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather	Low-medium ⁹
Improved wastewater treatment (including sanitation provision)	Medium	Medium-high	Improved air quality Less crop damage and extreme weather Reduced infectious disease risk	Low-medium ⁹

1. Incorporates both the potential for major emissions reductions as well as the certainty that those reductions will have the desired climate effect. For example, reducing BC emissions from BC-rich sources (e.g. diesel) will have less uncertainty than reducing BC from sources higher in co-emitted cooling agents (e.g. open burning). Near-term refers to anytime over the next few decades, though some climate benefits may occur almost immediately. 2. Assessed at the population level. 3. Assumes provision of safe infrastructure. 4. Increased efficiency may induce increased travel (a 'rebound') so should be combined with the complementary interventions (e.g. fuel taxes). 5. Note that potential climate benefit could potentially be offset by increases in nitrous oxide emissions, a long-lived greenhouse gas. 6. Avoid where there is a high risk of nutrient inadequacy. 7. Includes potential of CO₂ uptake by reforested land or use for bioenergy crops. 8. Does not include fugitive emissions, which are considered separately. 9. Includes potential displacement of fossil fuels by utilizing captured gas.

Source: Climate and Clean Air Coalition, World Health Organization (2015) 'Reducing Global Health Risks Through Mitigation of Short-Lived Climate Pollutants. Scoping Report For Policy-makers.'



Making progress towards the SDGs

Air quality affects a range of rights and is connected to several international commitments, such as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Air quality is mentioned in four places in the SDGs:

Declaration

9. We envisage a world in which every country enjoys sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth and decent work for all. A world in which consumption and production patterns and use of all natural resources — from **air** to land, from rivers, lakes and aquifers to oceans and seas — are sustainable. One in which democracy, good governance and the rule of law, as well as an enabling environment at the national and international levels, are essential for sustainable development, including sustained and inclusive economic growth, social development, environmental protection and the eradication of poverty and hunger. One in which development and the application of technology are climate-sensitive, respect biodiversity and are resilient. One in which humanity lives in harmony with nature and in which wildlife and other living species are protected.²⁵

Goal 3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

3.9 By 2030, substantially reduce the number of deaths and illnesses from hazardous chemicals and **air**, water and soil **pollution** and contamination.²⁶

Goal 11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

11.6 By 2030, reduce the adverse per capita environmental impact of cities, including by paying special attention to **air quality** and municipal and other waste management.²⁷

Goal 12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

12.4 By 2020, achieve the environmentally sound management of chemicals and all wastes throughout their life cycle, in accordance with agreed international frameworks, and significantly reduce their release to **air**, water and soil in order to minimize their adverse impacts on human health and the environment.²⁸

Air pollution is also indirectly related to Goals 1, 2, 6, 7, 9, 13 and 15. Reducing air pollution can help reduce poverty both by enhancing health and productivity, as well as by saving money through reduced medical expenses. It is directly related to improving child and adult health – a key goal in the SDGs. Reduction of many air pollutants can also help improve the environment, reduce acid rain and protect ecosystems – which affects both water quality as well as food security. Reducing air pollution is also a co-benefit of many of the goals, including providing affordable and clean energy, responsible production and consumption, better urban planning and infrastructure, climate action and several others.

Sustainable Development Goals that are closely related to reducing air pollution



Reducing air pollution can help families become healthier, save on medical expenses, and improve productivity.



Air pollution can cause crop damage and affect food quality and security.



Air pollution poses a major threat to human health. It is linked to respiratory infection and cardiovascular disease. It causes increases in population morbidity and mortality.



Pollutants such as sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and nitrogen oxide (NO_x) from open fires and the combustion of fossil fuels mix with precipitation causing harmful acid rain that can compromise water quality.



Electricity from renewable energy rather than fossil fuels offers significant public health benefits through a reduction in air pollution.



Power generation, industry and transportation are large contributors to air pollution. A new focus on decreasing energy consumption and on improving sustainable and public transportation could progressively reduce pollution.



Urban areas significantly contribute to air pollution. Making cities sustainable could progressively improve the air quality.



Chemicals released into the air increase air pollution and contribute to harmful effects on human health. Responsible production and consumption could help to reduce these harmful chemicals.



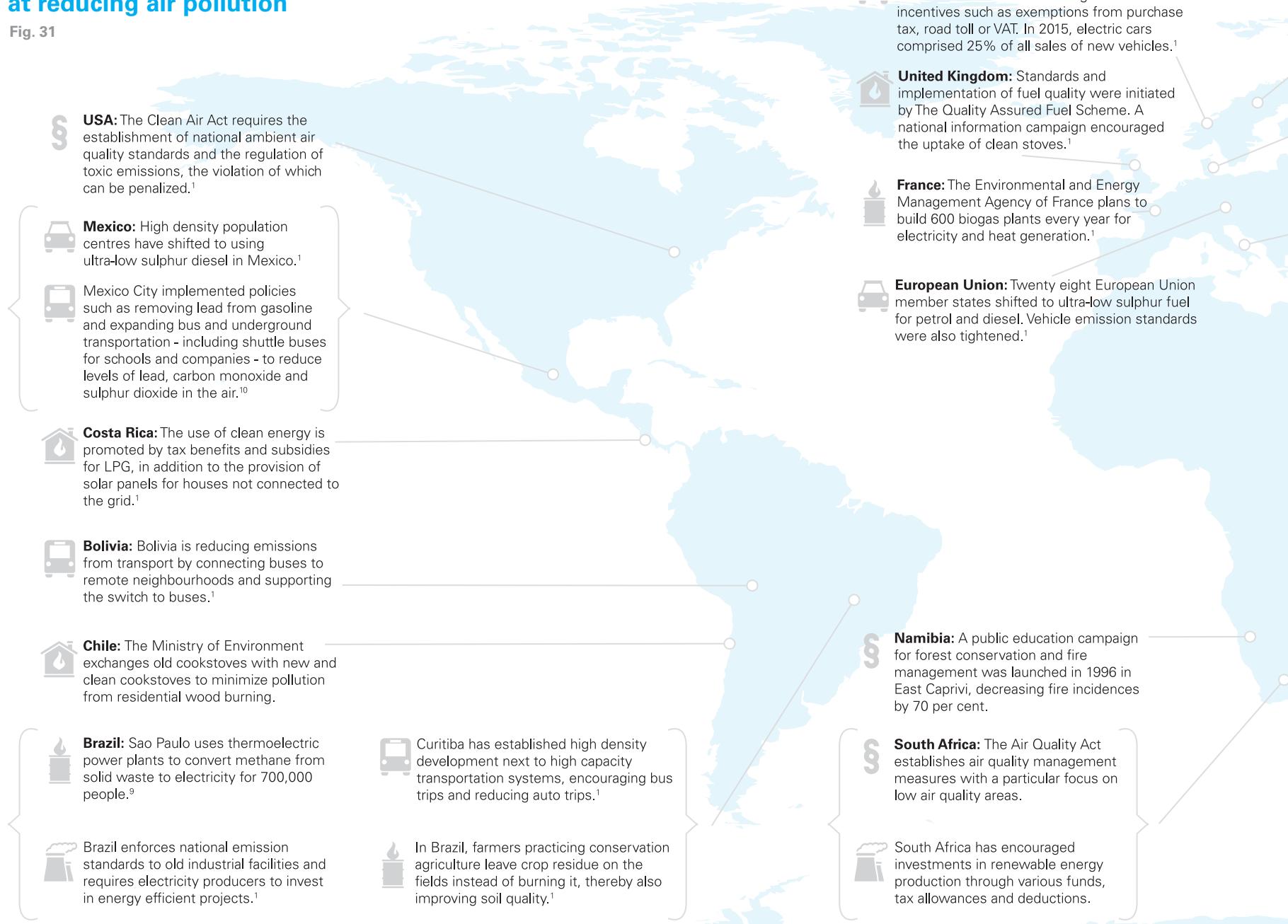
Combustion of fossil fuels plays a key role in the process of climate change, which places food, air and water supplies at risk, and poses a major threat to human health.



Emissions from combustion of fossil fuels mixed with precipitation cause acid rains that pose a major threat to forests and ecosystems.

Selected examples of policy initiatives aimed at reducing air pollution

Fig. 31



1. Actions on Air Quality: United Nations Environment Programme, 2014.

2. Country Action Plan for Clean Cookstoves: Power Division, Government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, 2013.

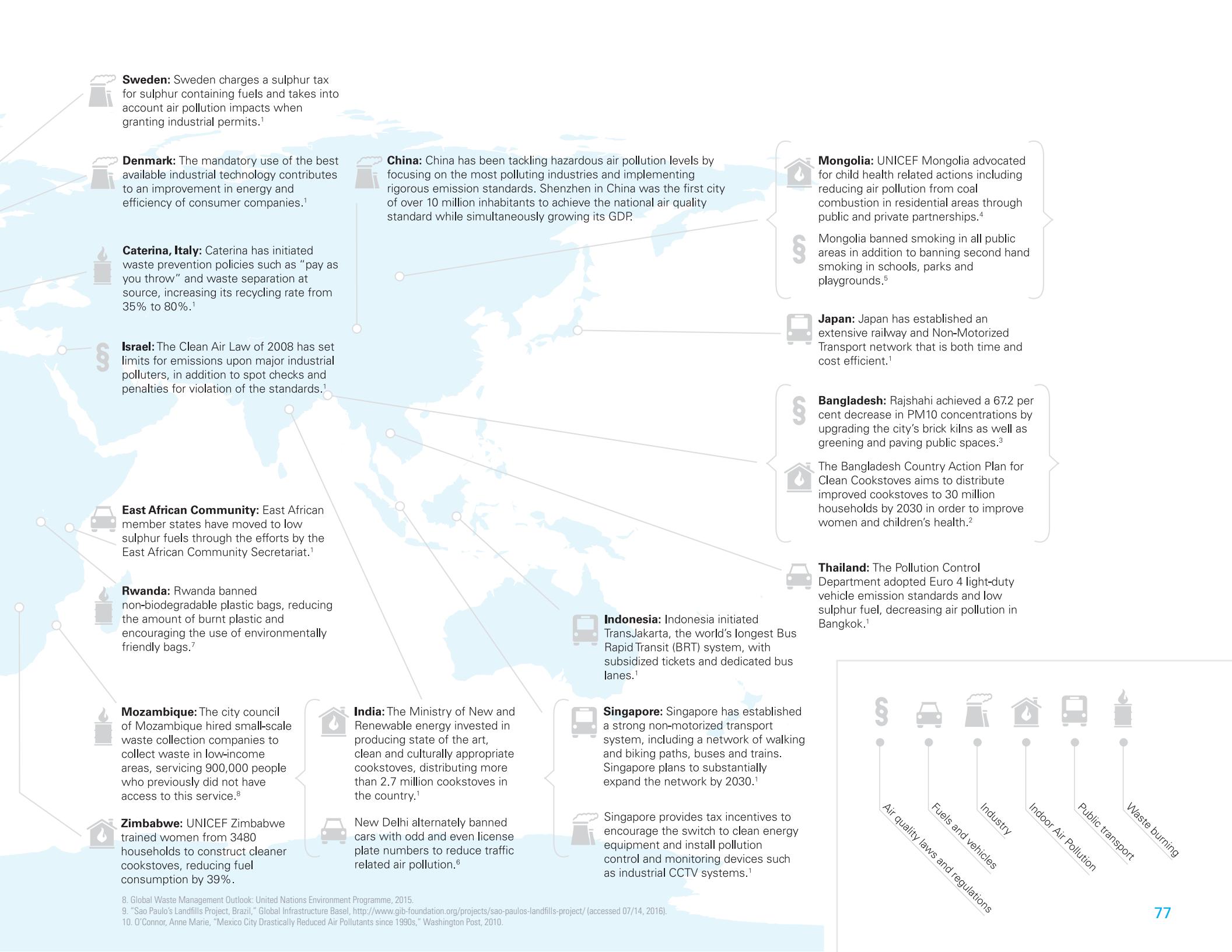
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Chapter 6: Protecting children from air pollution

The science is clear: reducing air pollution levels saves and improves the quality of children's lives. It can help to reduce the incidence of acute and chronic respiratory infections such as pneumonia and asthma among children. Reducing air pollution would reduce complications during pregnancy and childbirth, as well as improve children's development, helping them to lead longer and more productive lives, and benefit sustainable development and climate change mitigation.

As a broad framework, protecting children from air pollution requires a four-pronged approach:

1 Greater efforts to reduce air pollution. Air pollution is linked to diseases which kill many children. It is also a threat to their health and development. Reducing it will translate to millions of saved lives, and better healthier lives for all children and their children. Reducing air pollution will require a multitude of actions at various levels, from government to households and local communities – including actions to reduce fossil fuel combustion, investments in sustainable energy and low-carbon development policies.

Within households, it will require supporting the emerging clean cooking sector and ensuring that high-quality cookstoves and fuels are accessible and adopted by millions of households, as well as cleaner heating and cooling systems. It might also include provision of solar panels and other alternatives to diesel generators.

Within communities, it will require better management of community resources, including waste disposal, better public transportation options, and information and knowledge on reducing pollution. Nationally and internationally, technology and legislation that reduces harmful pollutants from vehicle emissions, and actions to reduce transport emissions in general, can make a big difference in mitigating outdoor air pollution.

2 Minimize children's exposure to air pollution. Children should be kept away from anything that harms them. Even though the toxic cocktail of chemicals in air pollution is invisible to the naked eye, these elements are deadly and affect children's health and well-being. Minimizing exposure includes better waste management systems, and improved ventilation. It can mean better ventilation and design-construction in homes to minimize exposure to both indoor and outdoor pollutants. This, in turn, will necessitate child sensitive urban planning so that polluting sources are kept away from places where children spend time, such as schools.¹

3 Improve children's overall health, so that when they are exposed to air pollution the risks of further health complications are reduced. The pre-existing health of a child can greatly affect the degree to which air pollution affects their health. Providing all children with access to quality and affordable medical care, including vaccines and medicines that prevent infections that can lead to pneumonia, as well as exclusive breastfeeding, better nutrition, and maternal health care, helps build their resilience to many of the negative effects of air

pollution. Access to safe water and sanitation is also crucial in supporting children's health and risks associated with air pollution.

The children who are most vulnerable to air pollution are the ones who already suffer from poor health. Air pollution exacerbates inequity, as it further compromises their health, their future livelihood, and even their potential survival. Helping to improve the quality of the air breathed by the poorest children will be crucial in combatting inequity and preventing intergenerational cycles of poverty.

4 Better monitoring of air pollution and its link with children's health. Air quality can fluctuate rapidly in every environment. For example, cooking or heating with biomass in the home can cause a rapid, temporary spike in pollution. Also, urban ambient pollution tends to be highest during rush hour in most countries. Waste-burning is often worse at certain times of the day, too.

Monitoring devices and systems that help individuals, parents, families, communities and local and national governments adjust to immediately prevailing conditions will help minimize exposure and will educate the public and policymakers on key health risks. Better monitoring can also inspire greater action by a range of public and private stakeholders. It can lead to government standards, regulation and policies that work towards the realization of the World Health Organization air quality guidelines. Links between air pollution and child health should also be

monitored, including through early diagnosis of illnesses and registration at health clinics, to help prevent the compounding negative impacts of air pollution on children's health. This may include better surveillance and early warning systems of child health and air pollution.

Action now needs to be taken across all levels of society – by parents, guardians, schoolteachers, medical professionals, local planning and city governments, as well as national governments, policymakers and the private sector. Parents, guardians and schoolteachers need to be empowered with accurate information about air pollution, and medical professionals should be trained so they can 'prescribe' emission-reduction tactics. This will require coordination and policy alignment.

No single sector can tackle air pollution alone – within government ministries it cuts across environment, health, social welfare, energy, finance and regulatory sectors. It also needs to be addressed across the public, private and civil society sectors and requires harmonized approaches to address the multitude of forces that cause air pollution – from consumer behaviour patterns to organizational and regulatory actions. This, in turn, will require more institutional capacity and coordination, as well as resources for programming. It will require working in a more integrated and effective manner – including across agencies and very much in line with the 2030 Agenda for Development. Air pollution affects about two billion of the world's children. It will require all of us to clear the air for them, and make it safe to breathe.

¹ United States Environmental Protection Agency, 'Best Practices for Reducing Near-Road Air Pollution Exposure at Schools', accessed 27 July 2016.

Examples of actions to be taken

Reduce air pollution



Support households to reduce indoor air pollution from cooking and heating with solid fuels.

Adopt cleaner cooking and heating fuels to reduce household air pollution.



Apply low-carbon development strategies in energy generation, housing and industry.



Install good quality filters on smokestacks.

Design traffic and urban spaces to avoid generating air pollution.



Switch from coal and polluting hydrocarbons to cleaner fuels and energy.



Make improvements and develop regulations for the open burning of waste.

Reduce exposure



Raise awareness of the harm pollutants cause children and pregnant women.



Restrict household air pollution around children as much as possible.

Install good quality air ventilation and/or filtration systems in homes and areas where children spend time.



Limit exposure of children to air pollution when levels are high.



Reduce children's exposure to second-hand tobacco smoke.



Improve air quality in children's environments through better urban planning, including green spaces.



Evacuation plans should rescue children who are threatened by the air pollution caused by forest fire, not only those who are in the immediate path of the fire.



Restrict highly polluting traffic around areas where children spend time such as schools, playgrounds, parks and residential areas.



Major sources of air pollution such as factories or heavy traffic should be kept at distance from schools and parks.



Raise awareness among those who care and provide services for children.

Improve child health



Provide children with access to good quality healthcare and WASH to improve their health and protect them from the negative effects of air pollution.



Encourage and support children and youth to participate in local environmental activities.



Increase understanding that child health, growth and development depends on both controlling root environmental causes of poor health, and clinical responses to disease.



Provide proper medical treatment to children with asthma, and other chronic respiratory conditions.



Increase the coverage of pneumococcal vaccines and treatment in community care centers.

Provide oxygen treatment innovations such as low cost oxygen concentrators.

O₂



Provide amoxicillin dispersible tablets as a first-line treatment.



Promote exclusive breastfeeding in the first 6 months to help prevent pneumonia.



Improve child nutrition to help fight air pollution related diseases.

Provide prenatal and postnatal healthcare for mothers and children.



Improve policy and monitoring



Develop and implement national laws and regulations for the detection of environmental diseases.



Develop and build consensus on children's environmental health indicators.



Monitor air quality systematically.



Fully recognize the important role of environmental protection in child survival, development and protection.



Utilize accurate and low-cost devices to easily diagnose pneumonia.



Give special policy attention to disadvantaged children who are closer and more vulnerable to environmental hazards.



Strengthen coordination and cooperation among government departments on air pollution.



Local governments should actively disseminate health warnings so that people can better protect themselves, and children, from air pollution.



Recognize the danger signs of pneumonia and seek care quickly.



Make sure that children's rights and their special vulnerabilities are systematically taken into account in discussions and negotiations on environmental agreements.

The science is clear: reducing
air pollution levels can save
children's lives.



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CHAPTER 3: UNIQUE VULNERABILITIES OF CHILDREN

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CHAPTER 4: NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING IN AREAS WITH HIGH LEVELS OF OUTDOOR AIR POLLUTION

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CHAPTER 5: WIDER BENEFITS OF REDUCING AIR POLLUTION

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