The 2019 Report of the Lancet Countdown on Health and Climate Change

Appendix

# Section 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.1: Health and heat |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.1.1: Vulnerability to extremes of heat |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix.1 This indicator displays an index derived by taking mean of proportion of the population over 65 years;2 the prevalence of cardiovascular, diabetes and chronic respiratory diseases among population over 65 years using GBD study 2017 estimates;3 and the proportion of the population living in urban areas as a measure of exposure to urban heat island.4 The index ranges between 0 and 100 and is a measure of potential vulnerability to heat exposure of the population over 65 years by country. Aggregated trends are displayed by WHO regional classifications for the period 1990 to 2017. |
| **Data** | 1. Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2017 (GBD 2017) Population Estimates 1950-2017. Seattle, United States: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME), 2018. 2. Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network. Global Burden of Disease Study 2017 (GBD 2017) Results. Seattle, United States: Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME), 2018.Available from <http://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool>. 3. Urban population (% of total) The United Nations Population Division's World Urbanization Prospects. |
| **Caveats** | There is no consistent and universally accepted standard for distinguishing urban from rural areas, in part because of the wide variety of situations across countries. Most countries use an urban classification related to the size or characteristics of settlements.4 This indicator does not include the existence of heat early warning systems, or prevalence of cooling devices. Neither does it include the prevalence of green areas in cities. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | GBD and urbanization estimates now are revised annually; the indicator will be updated every year. |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.1: Health and heat |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.1.2: Health and exposure to warming |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains similar to that described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix,1 with improved resolution for the 2019 report. Change in summer temperature was calculated on a global grid (0.5° spacing). A baseline temperature grid was calculated as the average of summer temperatures (June, July, August for the northern hemisphere, December, January, February for the southern hemisphere) from 1986-2005 using a global grid of temperatures from the ERA-Interim numerical weather reanalysis dataset. Using this same dataset, temperature changes relative to the 1986-2005 average were calculated for every grid point for every year. The ‘area weighted’ average of the grid was calculated by weighting each grid cell by the relative area of that grid cell on the earth’s surface, to take into account the mapping from the 2D rectangular grid to the spherical earth’s surface. The ‘population weighted’ average was calculating by weighting each grid cell by the fraction of the total world population contained within that grid cell. |
| **Data** | Climate data from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), ERA-Interim project.5  Population data from the NASA Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center (SEDAC) Gridded Population of the World (GPWv4).6 |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Future versions of this indicator are expected to migrate to ECMWF ERA5 climate data source. |
| **Additional information** | Figure 1: Trends in heat-related vulnerability for populations over 65 years by WHO region. This is based on an index ranging from 0 to 100 |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.1: Health and heat |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.1.3: Health and exposure of vulnerable populations to heatwaves |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains similar to that described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix,1 with improved resolution for the 2019 report. A heatwave was defined as a period more than 3 days at a given location where the minimum daily temperature was greater than the 99th percentile of the distribution of minimum daily temperature at that location over the 1986-2005 reference period for the summer months. Calculations were performed on a 0.5° global grid using ERA-Interim data.  The gridded 99th percentile of daily minimum temperature was calculated for 1986-2005. For each year from 1986 to present, the number of heatwave events and total days of heatwaves per year was calculated according to the definition above. For each year from 2000 to present, the change in number of occurrences and number of days of heatwaves was calculated.  The vulnerable population was defined as people over the age of 65. Gridded population and demographic data was from GPWv4 was used. The change in exposures in person-events was calculated for each year by multiplying the change in number of heatwave events by the number of vulnerable people per grid cell.  Additionally, the mean change in length of heatwaves weighted by vulnerable population was calculated. |
| **Data** | Climate data from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), ERA-Interim project.5  Population data from the NASA Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center (SEDAC) Gridded Population of the World (GPWv4).6 |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Future versions of this indicator are expected to migrate to ECMWF ERA5 climate data source. |
| **Additional Information** | Figure 2: Mean summer warming relative to the 1986–2005 average |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.1: Health and heat |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.1.4: Change in labour capacity |
| **Methods** | Global gridded (0.5°) three hourly temperature, dew point temperature and surface solar radiation downwards was used to calculate wet bulb globe temperature (WBGT) WBGT indoors (or outdoors in the shade) and WBGT outdoors in the sun. The WBGT calculator used was downloaded from [www.climatechip.org](http://www.climatechip.org). A productivity loss function derived from experimental data was used to quantify the productivity loss with increasing WBGT. This was fully described in the appendix of the 2018 Lancet Countdown Report.1  The productivity loss was calculated for 200W, 300W and 400W metabolic rate corresponding to typical work in the service sector, manufacturing sector and agricultural sector respectively. This gives the potential work hours lost per person per grid cell for each sector. The number of people in each grid cell working in each sector was then estimated from the working population of that grid cell and the approximate percentage of people working in each sector. This is then multiplied by the potential work hours lost per person to obtain the total population weighted hours lost in that grid cell. The total work hours lost (WHL) are then summed for global totals or country totals. To obtain the “equivalent full-time workers lost” as used in **Error! Reference source not found.**, this is divided by 4380 – the potential maximum daylight hours that can be worked per year. |
| **Data** | Climate data from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), ERA-Interim project.5  Population data from the NASA Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center (SEDAC) Gridded Population of the World (GPWv4).6  Sector employment from ILO.7 |
| **Caveats** | The distribution of agricultural, manufacturing and service sector workers is only reported at country level, hence this proportion is distributed evenly to all grid cells. In the future this indicator will have finer detail on the sector employment.  Potential full-time work lost assumes potential work time includes 12 hours a day, 365 days a year. Future versions of this indicator shall work to estimate potential full-time equivalent work lost, by linking potential WHL with average annual hours worked by country and sector. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | This indicator will be updated in future to show the number of workers affected globally and in larger countries (eg China and India). |
| **Additional information** | Table 1: The trend in potential work hours lost for the 3 sectors with the service sector assumed to work at a metabolic rate of 200W, the manufacturing sector at 300W and the agricultural sector at 400W   |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **year** | **agriculture** | **industry** | **service** | **total** | | **2000** | 80.7 | 7.4 | 0.7 | 88.8 | | **2001** | 84.2 | 7.9 | 0.8 | 92.9 | | **2002** | 90.3 | 10.1 | 1.2 | 101.7 | | **2003** | 96.5 | 11.5 | 1.4 | 109.5 | | **2004** | 85 | 9.4 | 0.7 | 95.1 | | **2005** | 94.2 | 12 | 1.5 | 107.6 | | **2006** | 92.9 | 12.2 | 1.2 | 106.3 | | **2007** | 93.1 | 13.3 | 1.4 | 107.8 | | **2008** | 75.7 | 9.2 | 0.8 | 85.6 | | **2009** | 95.6 | 14.4 | 1.5 | 111.5 | | **2010** | 113.4 | 19.1 | 2.2 | 134.7 | | **2011** | 81.9 | 13 | 1.2 | 96.1 | | **2012** | 87.7 | 15.6 | 1.8 | 105.2 | | **2013** | 97 | 17.8 | 1.8 | 116.6 | | **2014** | 97 | 18.3 | 2.2 | 117.6 | | **2015** | 102.1 | 19.4 | 2 | 123.5 | | **2016** | 125.7 | 27.3 | 3.6 | 156.6 | | **2017** | 118.7 | 26.1 | 3.4 | 148.2 | | **2018** | 106.4 | 24 | 3.2 | 133.6 | |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.2: Health and extreme weather events |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.2.1: Wildfires |
| **Methods** | 1. Fire point locations were matched to a political border shapefile from the Global Burden of Disease (version 2017)8 with 195 defined nations. 2. Population count per squared-kilometre was matched to the GBD global shapefile. 3. For each country, the number of fire points were multiplied by the total population count within each country to estimate the number of persons exposed to a fire event in a day. 4. An average of the number of persons exposed to a fire event in a day were averaged for years 2001-2004 and 2015-2018. 5. The average number of persons exposed between 2001-2004 was subtracted from the average number of persons exposed between 2015-2018 . |
| **Data** | 1. Collection 6 active fire product from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS).9 2. The Gridded Population of the World (GPW) version 4. 6 |
| **Caveats** | 1. Cloud cover may introduce spatial biases into fire exposure estimates. 2. While observing the same fire, Terra and Aqua may report slightly different coordinates of the fire centroid, therefore introducing a double counting issue. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | 1. This indicator will be extended to longer term averages. 2. Subnational estimates will be reported to better represent the populations at risk |
| **Additional information** | C:\Users\alice\Downloads\Lancet_Figure_2018.jpg  Figure 3: Person-days exposed to fire by country in 2018. |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.2: Health and extreme weather events |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.2.1: Flood and drought |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains similar to that described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix,1 with improved resolution for the 2019 report.  **Drought**  The drought indicator was based on the WMO-recommended Standard Precipitation Index (SPI),10 based on the 6-month rolling sum of monthly precipitation. The index was calibrated using gridded monthly precipitation data covering the period from 1900-2005 from the CRU monthly precipitation dataset. A given month was defined as being in drought when the SPI for that month is less than -1.5. Yearly totals of months in drought were calculated on a 0.5° global grid.  Exposure to drought was calculated using the GPWv4 gridded population dataset. The drought indicator is defined as gridded sum of months in drought times the gridded population and is given in units of person-months in drought.  **Extreme rainfall**  Extreme rainfall events are defined as starting when the 5-day rolling sum of daily precipitation exceeding the 10-year return level and ending when it dropped below this value. The rolling sum of precipitation was calculated for each day as the sum of the preceding 5 days total precipitation (in mm).  The precipitation value corresponding to the 10-year return period was calculated using the method described the corresponding Lancet Climate Countdown 2018 appendix.1 The baseline precipitation threshold was calculated by applying this method to daily total precipitation derived from ERA-Interim for the period 1986-2005. The number of extreme rainfall events per year in the period 2000 to present was calculated by counting the number of periods for each grid cell where the precipitation exceeded the baseline precipitation threshold, using the daily total precipitation derived from ERA-Interim.  The number of exposure events was calculated by multiplying the number of extreme rainfall events by the number of people in each grid cell, given in units of person-events. Population data was derived from the NASA GWPv4. |
| **Data** | Climate data from European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), ERA-Interim project;5 and from the Climate Research Unit (CRU) climate dataset (University of East Anglia).11  Population data from the NASA Socioeconomic Data and Applications Center (SEDAC) Gridded Population of the World (GPWv4).6 |
| **Caveats** | Precipitation extremes are highly localised, as such significant impacts may not be evident from global mean trends alone. This section defines indicators of meteorological drought and flood risk, which must be understood to be a precursor and a necessary but not sufficient condition for the occurrence of agricultural and hydrological drought and flood. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Future versions of this indicator are expected to migrate to ECMWF ERA5 climate data source. |
| **Additional information** | Figure 4: Mean change in number of extreme rainfall events per year over the 2000-2017 period (change calculated relative to mean of 1986-2005). |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.2: Health and extreme weather events |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.2.3: Lethality of weather-related disasters |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 report of the Lancet Countdown.1 This indicator is based on the generic formulation from a climate change perspective of disasters as a function of hazard, exposure and vulnerability. Year to year variation was measured, showing the number of people killed as a proportion of those affected by different hazard type, normalised by the strength of the individual hazards as a measure of adaptive (or maladaptive) changes in national health care services and the associated disaster preparedness and response.  Here, deaths are defined as the number of people who lost their life because the disaster happened, and people affected as those requiring immediate assistance during a period of emergency; hence requiring basic survival needs such as food, water, shelter, sanitation and immediate medical assistance.  The data has been presented as standardized anomalies, representing the difference between the variable that year and average of the variable from 1990-2009, normalized by the standard deviation of the variable over the same period.  Only statistically significant (at 0.05 significance level) linear trends over time are shown. |
| **Data** | EM-DAT at the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters (CRED) at the Université Catholique de Louvain, Belgium12 |
| **Caveats** | One underlying assumption is that the normalised number of people killed by climate related disasters is an accurate proxy for measuring health impacts of the climate.  This measure ignores the longer causal chains involving the interaction of climate and health.  Finally, a further limitation is that this measure ignores the longer causal chains involving the interactions of weather, climate, disasters, health and health services |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Future efforts will include a comparison of estimates of those exposed with those affected. Additionally, the impact of replacing the number of people killed with the number requiring assistance also explored.  A subsidiary indicator will come from the online Sendai Framework Monitor. Here countries will start reporting against the Sendai Framework indicators and the DRR related indicators of the SDGs. The first Sendai Framework and SDG progress report will be released in 2019. This indicator therefore aims to expand to include country specific progress in vulnerability levels of health service systems to climate risks in relation to this monitoring data. |
| **Additional information** | Significant increases in occurrences of flood and storm related disasters against the base period of 1990-1999 have occurred in Asia, Africa and the Americas.  Figure 5: Time series of occurrences of flood and storm related disasters. Dashed lines and R2 values present the linear relationship between time and the frequency of event occurrences in Africa, the Americas and Asia  Figure 6: Time series of standardized anomalies of the deaths, occurrences and number of people affected by flood and storm hazard related disasters in Africa.  Figure 7: Time series of standardized anomalies of the deaths, occurrences and number of people affected by flood and storm hazard related disasters, in Asia  Figure 8: Time series of standardized anomalies of the deaths, occurrences and number of people affected by flood and storm hazard related disasters, in the Americas.  Figure 9: Time series of standardized anomalies of the ratio of deaths to number of people affected by. flood and storm hazard related disasters, in the Americas. |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.3: Global health trends in climate-sensitive diseases |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix.1 This indicator displays generally unprocessed descriptive trends for selected diseases retrieved from The Global Burden of Disease (GBD) project database over the period 1990-2017.8 The derivation of estimates within the GBD study relies on modelling, rather than analysing direct observations, and the GBD methodology has already been described.13 The trends are aggregated and presented by WHO region as mortality rates per 100,000 individuals per year over the period. As far as can be ascertained from the GBD documentation, climate change and weather are not part of the covariates included in the estimates, making it valid to examine GBD outputs in the light of climate and weather data to formulate coherent inter-country comparisons. Trends are described for: all causes of death, malaria, dengue, diarrhoeal diseases, protein-energy malnutrition, heat and cold exposure, and forces of nature.  Deaths directly related to forces of nature have been adjusted for the effects of the most severe seismic events and related tsunamis. Years with events reported to have caused a substantial death toll from 1990 to 2016 where discounted by replacing with the same countries’ force of nature mortality for the previous year. |
| **Data** | Global Burden of Disease Study 20178 |
| **Caveats** | This is not a direct measure of the impact of climate change on death and disease. Rather, it presents mortality figures for those diseases which are none to be influenced by climate. The trends presented therefore do not show detection and attribution of climate change to death. They do show the impact of climate relevant and climate sensitive diseases on mortality rates globally since 1990. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | GBD estimates are now revised annually. Future versions of this indicator may include additional health conditions, may include morbidity as well as mortality, and may extend to national and subnational scales. Increased interest in geo-spatial disease analyses is likely to lead to additional information, such as fringe zone trends and outbreaks, and associate patterns of diseases to climate anomalies, such as those driven by the ENSO circulation. Future disease trends in the GBD estimates will be linked to direct measurements in resource poor areas in Africa and Asia, for example using longitudinal mortality registers from the INDEPTH network.13 |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.4: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.4.1 Climate-sensitive infectious diseases - **dengue** |
| **Methods** | *Context:*  Cases of dengue have doubled every decade since 1990, with 58∙4 million (23∙6 million–121∙9 million) apparent cases in 2013, accounting for over 10,000 deaths and 1∙14 million (0∙73 million–1∙98 million) disability-adjusted life-years.14 Beside global mobility, climate change has been suggested as one potential contributor to this increase in burden.15 *Aedes aegypti* and *A. albopictus,* the principal vectors of dengue, also carry other important emerging or re-emerging arboviruses, including Yellow Fever, Chikungunya, Mayaro, and Zika viruses, and are likely to be similarly responsive to climate chang  *Methods:*  Methods for calculating vectorial capacity (VC) follow Rocklöv et al. (2019).16 VC refers to a vector's ability to transmit disease to humans. It incorporates interactions between host, virus, and vector, assuming that all three of these elements are present. Specifically, VC represents the average daily number of secondary cases generated by one primary case introduced into a fully susceptible population, and is expressed as:    where *a* is the average vector biting rate, is the probability of vector infection and transmission of virus to its saliva, *p* is the daily survival probability, *n* is the duration of the extrinsic incubation period – EIP, and *m* is the female vector-to-human population ratio. Here *m* is set to 1 assuming female vector and human population are constant. Detailed model description and explanation can be found in Rocklöv et al. (2019).16,17 In this application, the time unit is 1 day and each of the vector parameters depends on temperature, with parameter values derived from the literature, typically from experimental data, as described in Liu-Helmersson et al., (2014).18 Diurnal temperature range (DTR) was reconstructed using a representative daily temperature through a piece-wise sinusoidal function based on the monthly average of daily minimum, maximum, and mean observations.  Historical trends were derived by backcasting the models on data from the Climate Research Unit (CRU) online database, time series (CRU-TS 3.22) of gridded (0.5°) monthly averages of daily temperature observations (minimums, maximum, and mean) for the time period 1950-2017.  Future projections were derived using climate data under two greenhouse gas emission pathways (RCP2.6 and RCP8.5),19 representing the contrast between very strong mitigation action vs. business-as-usual given consequent radiative forcing of greenhouse gases in the year 2100 (+2.6 and +8.5 W m−2, respectively), based on CMIP5 atmosphere-ocean general circulation models.20,21 For each emission pathway, CMIP5 temperature datasets (min, max, mean resolution 0.5 × 0.5°) were used. Calculations from each of the five global models (NorESM1-M, MIROC-ESM-CHEM, IPSL-CM5A-LR, HadGEM2-ES, and GFDL-ESM2M) were averaged to derive a multi-model ensemble.  The annual average VC were extracted values per grid cell to *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* presence locations provided in Kraemer et al. (2015)22 and averaged these values by country to get country-specific trends in VC at monthly (seasonality analysis) or yearly time steps from 1950-2017 for each species. ‘Global vectorial capacity’ indicates globally averaged values across all countries.  Historical percentage change figures reported in the main text were calculated relative to a 1950s baseline (5 year average, 1950-54), either an average for the 2010s (5 year average, 2013-2017) to illustrate the overall trend accounting for interannual variability or for the most recent year for which data were available (2017). Projected percentage changes in VC for each vector in 2030 (taken from 5yr average 2028-2032) was calculated relative to a present baseline (5 yr average 2013-2017).    Figure 10: Change in seasonality of global vectorial capacity for the dengue vectors Aedes aegypti (left) and A. albopictus (right) in the period 1950-2017.  To produce this plot, all countries in the analysis have been centred around their ‘peak month’ as per a 1950 baseline. The plot illustrates that VC is increasing on average in all months of the year, reflecting higher maximum values and broader seasons.    Figure 11: Changes in global vectorial capacity for the dengue virus vectors Aedes aegypti and A. albopictus since 1950. Projections to 2050 are also shown for two RCP scenarios (8.5 is equivalent to a ‘business-as-usual’ high emissions pathway while 2.6 is a strong mitigation pathway, such that the difference illustrates the effect of GHG emissions on disease risk). |
| **Caveats** | Key caveats and limitations of the VC model and its parameterisation are fully described in Liu-Helmersson et al. (2014, 2016)18,23 and Rocklöv et al., (2019).16 VC should not be confused with actual dengue cases, although it is an indicator of the risk of infection. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | The disease indicators will be reported upon annually and assessed against the baseline data and trends presented here. Other climate-sensitive infectious diseases in addition to malaria, *Vibrio*, and dengue will be added through time and the current indicators refined. In future, it is intended to expand efforts to project trends (as for dengue) using available models (e.g., RCPs from AR5). In addition, efforts will expand to link environmental suitability information to disease outcomes e.g., via disease case or surveillance data. Numerous jurisdictions currently already undertake indicator (e.g., annual country- or regional-level reporting of confirmed human cases), event-based (e.g., outbreak investigation and ‘epidemic intelligence’), and biosecurity (e.g., sentinel site) surveillance for infectious diseases, vectors, or key zoonotic hosts. Many of these datasets and methods of analysis could be made available and leveraged in future for the Lancet Countdown. For example, EU member states already report cases of notifiable diseases, zoonotic diseases, and outbreaks of food-borne and zoonotic disease, while vector surveillance remains voluntary.24 |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.4: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.4.1 Climate-sensitive infectious diseases - **malaria** |
| **Methods** | *Context*  Temperature, precipitation and relative humidity are climatic factors that impact the abundance and feeding cycle rate of *Anopheles* mosquitoes, which transmit the *Plasmodium* parasites that cause malaria. Temperature also drives the development rate of *Plasmodium* parasites within the mosquito vectors25Temperatures within the range 18°C to 32°C are considered most suitable for *P. falciparum,* while a lower temperature limit of 15°C has been reported for *P. vivax*.26 Below these lower limits the development of the parasite ceases while above 32°C the survival of the mosquito is compromised. Relative humidity greater than 60% is also considered as a requirement for the mosquito to survive long enough for the parasite to develop sufficiently to be transmitted to the human host stage. Rainfall and surface water are needed for the egg laying and larval stages of the mosquito life cycle, with monthly rainfall accumulation of at least 80mm considered more suitable for transmission.25  A recent study found a significant increase in elevation of the lower temperature limits for the development of malaria parasites in Ethiopia.27 Increasing temperatures in the region are eroding the perceived barrier to malaria transmission, allowing more favourable conditions to begin climbing into densely populated highland areas. Highland areas are the most densely populated agro-climatic zone in sub-Saharan Africa, occupying just 4.4% of the land area but 19.4% (44 million) of the population.  The malaria indicator focuses on determining global changes in climate suitability over time between highland and lowland areas in regions that have not yet achieved elimination.  *Methods*  The number of months suitable for malaria transmission per year from 1950 – 2017 was calculated globally. Suitability is based on empirically-derived thresholds of precipitation, temperature and relative humidity for two primary parasites causing malaria (*Plasmodium falciparum*, *P. vivax*).  Monthly observations of temperature, precipitation and vapour pressure data from the Climate Research Unit (CRU TS4.01)11 were downloaded using the KNMI Climate Explorer.28 The variables were extracted at a 0.5° spatial resolution over land. Elevation data at a 0.5° spatial resolution was obtained from JISAO, University of Washington.29  Following New et al., (2002), relative humidity (RH) was estimated using the formula:  ,  where is vapour pressure and is saturated vapour pressure (in hPa) at mean air temperature *T* in °C, given by:    .  Climatic suitability was defined as the coincidence of precipitation accumulation greater than 80 mm, average temperature between 18°C and 32°C, and relative humidity greater than 60% for *P. falciparum*.25 Suitability for *P. vivax* was calculated using the same thresholds with the exception of a lower average temperature limit of 15°C.25,30 The combined values are an indication of the lower limit for potential malaria transmission for each species.  The mean number of months per year with suitable climate conditions for malaria transmission was then calculated across 3 continents (Africa, Asia, and the Americas) according to the dominant parasite present (Africa = *P falciparum*, other regions = *P. vivax*).31The analysis by malaria management status was further subdivided following country classifications from Newby et al. (2016)32 who classified countries in the following categories: malaria controlling, malaria eliminating, or malaria free (Figure 9) A time series was included for the category malaria controlling countries in Latin America, Africa and Asia (see main text).    Figure 12: Categorisation of countries as malaria-free, eliminating malaria, or controlling malaria, 2015.32  In addition to management status, the analysis was stratified by elevation to contrast trends in highland areas (>=1500m) and lowland areas (<1500m). The percentage change figures reported in the main text were calculated relative to a 1950s baseline (5 year average, 1950-54 compared to 5 year average, 2013-2017) to illustrate the overall trend accounting for interannual variability.    Figure 13: Environmental suitability for malaria 1950 to 2017, grouped by continent and elevation (high >=1500m, low <1500m). Results are for the dominant malarial parasite in each region (P. falciparum in Africa; P vivax in other regions). |
| **Caveats** | These results are based on climatic data, not malaria case data. The malaria suitability climate thresholds used are based on a consensus of the literature. In practice, the optimal and limiting conditions for transmission are dependent on the particular species of the parasite and vector.25Control efforts might limit the impact of these climate changes on malaria or conversely, the climate suitability may either enhance or hamper control efforts.33 |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.4: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases |
| **Indicator** | 1.4.1 Climate-sensitive infectious diseases - ***Vibrio*** |
| **Methods** | *Context*  *Vibrio* spp. are globally distributed aquatic bacteria that are ubiquitous in warm estuarine and coastal waters with low to moderate salinity. *V. parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus*, and non-toxigenic *V. cholerae* (non-O1/non-O139) are pathogenic in humans. These *Vibrio* species are associated with sporadic cases of gastroenteritis, wound infections, ear infections, or septicaemia in circumscribed localities.  *Vibrio* ecology, abundances, distributions, and patterns of infection are often strongly mediated by environmental conditions. Water temperature, salinity, and turbidity predict the distribution and abundance of *V. vulnificus* in Chesapeake Bay, with the number of infections increasing as a result of recent local warming and changes in rainfall.34 Increased water temperatures also explain outbreaks of *Vibrio* infections in countries bordering the Baltic Sea,35 and range expansions in Alaska.36  This indicator focuses on mapping environmental suitability for pathogenic *Vibrio* spp. in coastal zones globally (<30km from coast).  *Methods*:  The indicator uses thresholds of >18°C for Sea Surface Temperature (SST) and <30 PSU for Sea Surface Salinity (SSS). These values were derived on the basis of a consensus in the literature.37-39 Estimates for SST were obtained from NOAA Optimum Interpolation 1/4 Degree Daily Sea Surface Temperature (OISST) Analysis version 2 for the period 1982-2017. This dataset is provided by the NOAA/OAR/ESRL PSD.40 The salinity fields were created from daily data obtained from Mercator Ocean Reanalysis.41  Here suitability is reported at two levels. First, it was calculated the percentage of coastline globally that experienced suitable conditions for *Vibrio* infections and summarised the results across three latitudinal bands (northern latitudes = 40-70°N; tropical latitudes = 25°S-40°N; and southern latitudes = 25-40°S). Second, suitability in two focal regions in which human *Vibrio* infection is frequently observed, the Baltic Sea and the northeastern coast of the United States (36-50°N) were calculated. For the Baltic (main text) and northeastern coast of the United States coast the percentage of coastline suitable for *Vibrio* infections are presented. In addition, the number of days per year suitable for outbreaks is presented for the Baltic (main text). The percentage change figures reported in the main text were calculated relative to a 1980s baseline (5 year average, 1982-86), either an average for the 2010s (5 year average, 2014-2018) to illustrate the overall trend accounting for interannual variability or for the most recent year for which data were available (2018).    Figure 14: Percentage coastline suitable for Vibrio spp., V. parahaemolyticus, V. vulnificus, and non-toxigenic V. cholerae (non-O1/non-O139), by latitude along the United States northeast coastal region (36N-50N).  This Latitude-time plot (Hovmoller diagram, Figure 11) indicates poleward expansion of suitable environments for *Vibrio* spp. in this region. For latitudes >39 and similarly to the Baltic Sea, there is a general widening of the *Vibrio* spp. season as well as an increase in the amount of shoreline affected.    Figure 15: Change in suitability for pathogenic Vibrio outbreaks as a result of changing sea surface temperatures a) globally, divided into three latitudinal bands (northern latitudes = 40-70°N; tropical latitudes = 25°S-40°N; and southern latitudes = 25-40°S); b) the Baltic and c) United States North East coast. |
| **Caveats** | The results are derived on the basis of suitable SST and SSS conditions only, and do not include other potentially important drivers (e.g. globalisation), environmental predictors of pathogenic *Vibrio* infections (e.g., cholorphyll-*a*, turbidity) nor disease case data. Nevertheless, these associations have been explored and are reported in the supporting references included above.  In the global analysis, the slope of the trendlines over the time series is mostly flat for the tropical/subtropical region and the southern Hemisphere. However, the SST-only suitability shows a strong upward trend in the southern hemisphere, indicating that on average temperature conditions are also improving growth conditions for *Vibrio* in these areas, while SSS is generally limiting. However, locally suitable SSS conditions will also occur in these regions on the basis of, for example, variation in local rainfall and river runoff, which can make these regions sporadically suitable for *Vibrio* infections. |

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| **Working Group** | 1. Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.4: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.4.1 Climate-sensitive infectious diseases – **cholera (*Vibrio cholerae*)** |
| **Methods** | *Context:*  Cholera is a water-borne disease caused by the bacterium *Vibrio cholerae*, which generally occurs in brackish riverine, estuarine, and coastal waters (Colwell and Huq 2001). Improvements in water sanitation and health care services have facilitated the control of cholera worldwide.42 However, the ongoing, 7th cholera pandemic has an estimated burden of ~2.8 million cases annually that result in ~95,000 deaths per year, mainly in Africa.43  Cholera control is achievable via safe drinking water, vaccines, and effective outbreak response. Hence, epidemics emerge under scenarios of political instability, war, and extreme water events in already fragile countries. Cholera prevention requires the understanding of the distribution and availability of its pathogen, *Vibrio cholerae*, and the role of the environmental condition that facilitate or limit *V. cholerae* emergence and persistence. The abundance of *V. cholerae* is associated to increments in sea surface temperatures and phytoplankton in coastal waters.44 Thus, the distribution *V. cholerae* was reconstructed using an ecological niche modelling approach linking *V. cholerae* reports and fine-scale sea surface temperature and phytoplankton in coastal waters during the last 15 years.  *Methods:*  Analyses were performed following the protocols described by Escobar et al. (2015)45 to estimate suitable sea waters for *V. cholerae* under climate change conditions. The environmental tolerances of *V. cholerae* were determined based on Escobar *et al.* (2015) reports of *V. cholerae* in coastal waters and an ecological niche model based on sea surface temperature and chlorophyll-*a*, which have been found to be main drivers of *V. cholerae* occurrence.44-46 Annual mean, range, maximum, and minimum values of these oceanographic variables were estimated between 2003 and 2018 to compile 15 years of seawater conditions at 4 km2 cell size in the exclusive economic zone of each country around the world (**Error! Reference source not found.**).  C:\Users\escobar1\Downloads\image (1) (1).png  Figure 16: Exclusive economic zone of each country around the world.  A distance of ~200 miles was calculated off the coast of each country to resemble the exclusive economic zone defined by the United Nations with country borders defined elsewhere (Figure 13).47  Suitable seawater conditions for *V. cholerae* were determined by estimating the realized ecological niche of the bacterium. The realized ecological niche was reconstructed by linking *V. cholerae* reports with sea surface temperature and chlorophyll-*a* values from year 2003 as proxies of abiotic and biotic factors respectively.48 Niche models were developed in a calibration of 100 km around each *V. cholerae* report as a proxy of the pathogen’s potential dispersal.45 Models were done using Maxent, a machine learning algorithm.49 The Maxent version integrated in the *kuenm* package in R was used to develop a large population of candidate models from which to select the best model. Candidate Maxent models included different regularization multipliers (i.e., 0.1, 0.5, 1, 1.5, 2) and diverse combinations of model features (i.e., linear, quadratic, threshold, product, hinge). The most parsimonious and significant model was selected as best model.50 Specifically, the best model was selected based on Akaike information criterion, p-value, and omission rates.50,51  The final 2003 model was then projected to all the consecutive years to generate a time-series analysis of suitable coastal areas for *V. cholerae* between 2003 and 2018. Models were projected using model extrapolation and model transference in Maxent.52 The original continuous values of the models (i.e., *V. cholerae* suitability index ranging from 0 to ~1) were converted to binary (i.e., suitable or unsuitable for *V. cholerae*). Binary models were generated using a threshold of 5% omission rate, which removes 5% of the lowest calibration values as a proxy of *α* = 0.05, generally used in statistics.53 The total area suitable for *V. cholerae* by country was used as a proxy of choleratransmission risk. Complementarily, for continuous models, the average *V. cholerae* suitability index was estimated by country as a proxy of cholera transmission risk. Values of suitability were used to generate locally weighted scatterplot smoothing of risk vs. time. |
| **Data** | Data of sea surface temperature and chlorophyll-*a* across coastal areas were collected from the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) sensor in the Aqua satellite—launched in 2002 and part of the NASA Earth Observing System. Data were obtained at 4 km2 spatial resolution and monthly temporal resolution during the period 2003-2018 and available at <https://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/erdMH1sstdmday.html> for sea surface temperature and at <https://coastwatch.pfeg.noaa.gov/erddap/griddap/erdMH1chlamday.html> for chlorophyll-*a*. Monthly averages from sea surface temperature and chlorophyll-*a* layers (i.e., Level 3 MODIS) were used to estimate annual mean, range, maximum, and minimum values for each variable for each year. These values were used during model calibration. |
| **Caveats** | *Vibrio cholerae* is not habitually surveyed in coastal waters or in environmental samples in general.46 Instead, most *V. cholerae* reports originate from human cases in inland areas. The limited number of reports used in this modelling framework could result in an underestimation of the epidemiological potential of *V. cholerae* in coastal waters around the world. To mitigate this limitation, Maxent models were calibrated and projected allowing extrapolation to reduce overfit to the observed values.  Beyond presence of *V. cholerae*,cholera epidemics require a number of non-climate related factors linked to population vulnerability (e.g., unsafe drinking water). Thus, this assessment focused in one component of cholera transmission risk, the plausible availability of *V. cholerae* in terms of the coastal waters suitable for the spread and persistence of the bacterium. |
| **Future Form of**  **Indicator** | Sea surface temperature and chlorophyll-*a* conditions in future years will allow to determine percentages of change and their location in coastal waters around the world. New satellite-derived data will allow determining whether trends observed in this analysis are consistent in the coming years. |
| **Additional**  **Information** | Results indicate that while some locations show stability or decrease in their suitability for *V. cholerae*, overall, a consistent trend to increase *V. cholerae*’scoastal suitability was detected at global scale, with a particularly strong signal for the past five years.    Figure 17: Change in suitability for Vibrio cholerae as a result of changing sea surface temperatures and cholorphyll-a concentrations. Top panel: Regions with an increasing trend (thick black line is the global trend); Middle panel: Regions with a stable trend; Lower panel: Regions with a decreasing trend. Regions are based on continental groupings of seawaters in countries’ exclusive economic zones (EEZs). |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.4: Climate-sensitive infectious diseases |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.4.2: Vulnerability/adaptive capacity to *Aedes*-borne disease |
| **Methods** | This indicator computes adaptive capacity of a given country to manage threats posed by infectious diseases, taking into account core competency in key areas. The key areas are in surveillance, legislation, food safety, human resources, laboratory, point of entry, response, preparedness, risk communication and zoonosis which form part of International Health Regulations (IHR) Core Capacity Monitoring Framework.54,55  Specifically, this indicator displays how the core capacities influence the abundance of *Aedes aegypti* vector for each country and aggregated by WHO regions. The IHR core capacities data covers the period 2010-2017, so trends for this period are presented. Adaptive capacity was computed by taking the vectorial capacity (VC) (including vector abundance) and dividing by the average core capacity. The derived abundance is normalized to range between 0 and 1 before taking the product. The formula below is used for the computation of adaptive capacity.  Vulnerability = Impact / Adaptive Capacity  The temperature dependent dynamic models developed by Liu-Helmersson et al. (2014)56 were used to compute VC and the rainfall and temperature dependent abundance model for *Aedes aegypti* vector abundance computation, an extension of the model developed by Yang et al.57.  Computation of VC and abundance estimates was done for each 0.5 × 0.5 grid cells in the Climatic Research Unit dataset and subsequently aggregated to country level using shapefiles.  The CRU TS 4.0211 climate data drives both the VC and the abundance models.  A composite index was computed by taking average of the 11 core competencies (Figure 15).    Figure 18: Trends in the vulnerability index 2010-2017. |
| **Data** | CRU Ts 4.02,1901-201711  IHR core capacities data, 2010-2017 |
| **Caveats** | The abundance models generate predictions and not observed frequencies in relation to climate conditions, and so should be considered a potential abundance estimate. The IHR data is self-reported by countries and may therefore include reporting bias which would affect this indicator. A reduction of this indicator while keeping the vector hazard constant does not correspond to full protection but indicates rather that the situation has improved by important improvements in core capacities. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | The future indicator will make use of the estimated protective effect (relative risk) of the IHR core capacities in modifying the climate induced hazard on vectors and virus interactions. |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.5: Food security and under-nutrition |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.5.1: Terrestrial food security and under-nutrition |
| **Methods** | Ten-year average yields  Data for trends in yield by country, are calculated in the following way. First, time series yield data for grains (aggregated) were collected for all countries from 1960 to 2016 from FAOSTAT. To enable consistency across time, where countries have become independent/split after 1960, data from their pre-independence status are used. Thus, for Slovakia, for example, pre-1989, Soviet Union data are used; 1989-1992 Czechoslovakia data are used; and from 1993 onwards, Slovakia data are used. A moving ten-year average yield was then calculated for each country. Finally, whether that average has been trending upwards or downwards over a ten-year period was determined.  Prevalence and number of people under-nourished  Data are sourced directly from FAOSTAT.  **Crop duration loss**  Actual crop yields vary from year to year not only with variations in weather, but also with changes in variety, farming practices and the occurrence of pest and disease. Crop yields as estimated by crop models are sensitive to the precise form of the crop model, and many models do not account for the short-term extremes that can significantly affect yields. The effect of year-to-year climatic variability on crop yields is therefore here represented by an agri-climatological proxy indicator, calculated from observed climate data and characterising potential variability in yield. Maize, wheat, rice and soybean were selected as important traded and subsistence crops.  There are several potential proxies for variability from year to year in crop yield, including the number of hot days during critical periods in the growing season58-61 and the accumulated temperature between lower and upper thresholds over the growing season.58 The proxy used here is based on crop duration, defined as the time taken in a year to accumulate the reference period (1981-2010) average growing season accumulated temperature total (ATT).58 If the ATT is reached early, then the crop matures too quickly and yields are lower than average. Here, the crop duration was defined loss as the difference in the time taken (in days) to accumulate the average growing season accumulated temperature.  The index is calculated at a spatial resolution of 0.5x0.5°, across the area of land under cultivation for each crop62 and an area-weighted average calculated. The duration of the growing season and the low and high temperature thresholds for the calculation of ATT vary between crops. Climate data are taken from the CRU TS4 gridded monthly observed climate data set,11 and synthetic daily data are estimated for each grid cell by applying a regional average daily anomaly to the monthly value. The regional average daily anomaly is calculated from the WFDEI daily climatology.63 The plots in the paper show the global average annual change in crop growth duration. The horizontal dashed line shows the average difference in crop growth duration over the reference period 1981-2010. Note that this is not zero because of the non-linear relationship between ATT and the time taken to accumulate a specific value of ATT. |
| **Data** | FAOSTAT  CRU TS4 gridded monthly observed climate data set  WFDEI daily climatology |
| **Caveats** | Different ways of calculating the agri-climate index using different data sets would produce slightly different time series, as would the use of different agri-climate proxies. However, the broad patterns of variability over space and time are likely to be consistent across proxies and data sources. |

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| **Working Group** | 1: Climate Change Impacts, Exposures and Vulnerability |
| **Indicator** | 1.5: Food security and under-nutrition |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 1.5.2: Marine food security and under-nutrition |
| **People responsible for this indicator** | Fereidoon Owfi, Meisam Tabatabaei, Mahnaz Rabbaniha, Maziar Moradi-Lakeh |
| **Methods** | Sixteen FAO fishing areas (out of 19; the 3 areas excluded are those located in the Antarctica) which are important in terms of projected impacts and vulnerabilities associated with climate change were selected (Table 2 and Figure 17). Sixty-four countries located in these areas (for which Fish Capture Data is currently available) were selected in order to attribute the impacts of climate change (more specifically sea surface temperature; SST) to deterioration of major coral reef sites (Marine Protected Areas), decreased population of commercial fish species, and the consequent decreased consumption of capture-based fish. |
| **Data** | SST data availability ranged from 2003 to 2018 while the data considered on coral reef sites (NOAA Coral Reef Watch Zones), i.e., annual maximum Bleaching Alert Area caused by thermal stress was in five-year intervals (1985-2018). Moreover, the data concerning both capture-based and farmed-based per capita fish consumption in the investigated countries from 1980-2016 were collected and analysed. |
| **Caveats** | There is a lack of information in the available databases such as FAO on fish species composition of the captured and farmed fish products. This could in turn lead to some concerns about the methodological approach used to calculate ω3 intake. More specifically, most of the approaches are based on fish intake, which usually ignore or underestimate variations in ω3 contents of different types of fishes, and especially capture-based compared with farmed-based fish. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Given the unfavourable variations in fish capture over the last three decades, it seems that countries in general have implemented strategies toward increased fish farming to compensate for decreased capture-based per capita fish consumption. However, owing to the substantially lower ω3 contents of farmed fish compared with captured fish, positive health impacts of this approach is in question. Therefore, adaptation strategies should be focused on shifting the existing fish farming activities from fresh water (in-land waters) to marine water (mariculture systems, e.g., cage culture). Moreover, ω3 enrichment in fish farming should also be pursued. |
| **Additional information** | Figure 16 presents changes in sea surface temperature for the 64 countries investigated from different basins from 2003 to 2018. Figure 18 presents the global occurrence zone of coral reefs while Figure 19 reflects the increasing deterioration of annual maximum Bleaching Alert Area globally and threats to marine primary productivity being expected to follow. Figure 20 presents the trend of capture-based per capita fish consumption; a key source of ω3 fatty acids (Table 3). Figure 21 conceptualises the relationship between climate change and decreased consumption of capture-based fish to increased risk of ischemic heart diseases. Between 2003 and 2018, SST rose in 34 of the 64 territorial waters analysed (max. increase 3.5 oC), while even marginal SST decreases (≤1 oC) in 19 out of 30 territorial waters (Figure 16) could be linked to the weakening of a crucial ocean current, i.e., Atlantic Meridional Overturning Current (AMOC) by 15%, in response to melting ice from Greenland.64,65  Summary exposure value (SEV) is the measure of a population's exposure to a risk factor that takes into account the extent of exposure by risk level and the severity of that risk's contribution to disease burden. SEV for “diet low in seafood omega-3 fatty acids” has increased in most of the investigated countries since 1990; however, there are countries with decreasing trends in exposure to this risk factor as well (Table 4). Nevertheless, the total overall number of deaths and disability adjusted life years (DALYs) attributable to diet low in seafood omega-3 fatty acids, has increased in our list of investigated countries; with the most populous countries including China, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Bangladesh having major impacts on this overall increase (Table 5 and Table 6) 66 |

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Figure 19: changes in SST for the 64 countries investigated from 16 FAO fishing areas from 2003 to 2018.

Table 2: Scope of investigation by country, basin, FAO fishing area, and coral reef site

| **No.** | **Country** | **Country Code** | | **FAO**  **Fishing Area** | **Large Marine Basin**  **(Ocean)** | **Coral Reef**  **Location** | **Marine Protected Areas with Coral Reefs** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **ISO** | **UN** |
| 1 | Canada  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/d/d9/Flag_of_Canada_%28Pantone%29.svg/23px-Flag_of_Canada_%28Pantone%29.svg.png | CA | 124 | 18 | Arctic Sea | - | - |
| 21 | North-West Atlantic | - | - |
| 67 | North-East Pacific | - | - |
| 2 | United Kingdom  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/thumb/a/ae/Flag_of_the_United_Kingdom.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_United_Kingdom.svg.png | GB | 826 | 27 | North-East Atlantic | - | - |
| 3 | Finland  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/b/bc/Flag_of_Finland.svg/23px-Flag_of_Finland.svg.png | FI | 246 | - | - |
| 4 | Norway  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/d/d9/Flag_of_Norway.svg/21px-Flag_of_Norway.svg.png | NO | 578 | - | - |
| 5 | Estonia  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/8/8f/Flag_of_Estonia.svg/23px-Flag_of_Estonia.svg.png | EE | 233 | - | - |
| 6 | Portugal  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/5/5c/Flag_of_Portugal.svg/23px-Flag_of_Portugal.svg.png | PT | 620 | - | - |
| 7 | Germany  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/thumb/b/ba/Flag_of_Germany.svg/23px-Flag_of_Germany.svg.png | DE | 276 | - | - |
| 8 | Netherlands  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/2/20/Flag_of_the_Netherlands.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_Netherlands.svg.png | NL | 528 | - | - |
| 9 | Spain  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/thumb/9/9a/Flag_of_Spain.svg/23px-Flag_of_Spain.svg.png | ES | 724 | 27 | North-East Atlantic | - | - |
| 37 | Mediterranean Sea | - | - |
| 10 | Cuba  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/b/bd/Flag_of_Cuba.svg/23px-Flag_of_Cuba.svg.png | CU | 192 | 31 | West-Central Atlantic | Caribbean Sea,  Gulf of Mexico | Cayo Coco, Cayo Guillermo, Cayo Romano, Cayo Sabinal, Cayos de Ana Maria, Cienaga de Zapata, Punta Frances, Punta Pederales, Peninsula de Guanahacabibes, Cienaga de Zapata, Buenavista,  Subarchipielago de Jardines de la Reina, Subarchipielago de los Canarreos, Sur Isla,de la Juventud,  Subarchipielago de Sabana-Camaguey, Cuchillas del Toa, Desembarco del Granma, |
| 11 | Dominican Republic  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/9/9f/Flag_of_the_Dominican_Republic.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_Dominican_Republic.svg.png | DO | 214 | Del Este, Marine Mammal, Jaragua, Litoral Sur (Santo Domingol),  Montecristi, Parque Submarino la Caleta |
| 12 | Honduras  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/8/82/Flag_of_Honduras.svg/23px-Flag_of_Honduras.svg.png | HN | 340 | Bahia de Chismuyo, Cayos Cochinos, El Jicarito, El Quebrachal, Guameru, Guapinol, Las Iguanas,  Islas del Cisne, Jeanette Kawas, la Alemania, Ragged Cay, Laguna de Guaymoreto, Montecristo,  Punta Isopo, Teonostal, Parque Nacional Jeanette Kawas, Refugio de Vida Silvestre Punta Izopo |
| 13 | Jamaica  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/0/0a/Flag_of_Jamaica.svg/23px-Flag_of_Jamaica.svg.png | JM | 388 | Bogue, Middle Morant Cay, Montego Bay, Negril, Ocho Rios, Portland Bight |
| 14 | Dominica  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/c/c4/Flag_of_Dominica.svg/23px-Flag_of_Dominica.svg.png | DM | 212 | Cabrits, Soufriere / Scott,s Head |
| 15 | Trinidad & Tobago  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/6/64/Flag_of_Trinidad_and_Tobago.svg/23px-Flag_of_Trinidad_and_Tobago.svg.png | TT | 780 | Buccoo Reef, Little Tobago |
| 16 | Barbados  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/e/ef/Flag_of_Barbados.svg/23px-Flag_of_Barbados.svg.png | BB | 052 | Barbados |
| 17 | Saint Kitts & Nevis  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/f/fe/Flag_of_Saint_Kitts_and_Nevis.svg/23px-Flag_of_Saint_Kitts_and_Nevis.svg.png | KN | 659 | Southeast Peninsula |
| 18 | Belize  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/e/e7/Flag_of_Belize.svg/23px-Flag_of_Belize.svg.png | BZ | 084 | Bacalar Chico, Blue Hole, Gladden Spit, Half Moon Caye, Hol Chan, Sapodilla Cayes, Port Honduras,  Glovers Reef, Man-o-War Cay, South Water Caay, Belize Barrier Reef Reserve System |
| 19 | Haiti  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/5/56/Flag_of_Haiti.svg/23px-Flag_of_Haiti.svg.png | HT | 332 | - |
| 20 | Nicaragua  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/1/19/Flag_of_Nicaragua.svg/23px-Flag_of_Nicaragua.svg.png | NI | 558 | 31 | West-Central Atlantic | Caribbean Sea, | Cayos Miskitos |
| 77 | East-Central Pacific | - | - |
| 21 | Mauritania  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/4/43/Flag_of_Mauritania.svg/23px-Flag_of_Mauritania.svg.png | MR | 478 | 34 | East-Central Atlantic | - | - |
| 22 | Senegal  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/f/fd/Flag_of_Senegal.svg/23px-Flag_of_Senegal.svg.png | SN | 686 | - | - |
| 23 | Cape Verde  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/38/Flag_of_Cape_Verde.svg/23px-Flag_of_Cape_Verde.svg.png | CV | 132 | - | - |
| 24 | Nigeria  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/7/79/Flag_of_Nigeria.svg/23px-Flag_of_Nigeria.svg.png | NG | 566 | - | - |
| 25 | Cameroon  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/4/4f/Flag_of_Cameroon.svg/23px-Flag_of_Cameroon.svg.png | CM | 120 | - | - |
| 26 | Benin  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/0/0a/Flag_of_Benin.svg/23px-Flag_of_Benin.svg.png | BJ | 204 | - | - |
| 27 | Equatorial Guinea  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/31/Flag_of_Equatorial_Guinea.svg/23px-Flag_of_Equatorial_Guinea.svg.png | GQ | 226 | - | - |
| 28 | Bosnia & Herzegovina  Bosnia and Herzegovina | BA | 070 | 37 | Mediterranean Sea  &  Black Sea | - | - |
| 29 | Greece  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/5/5c/Flag_of_Greece.svg/23px-Flag_of_Greece.svg.png | GR | 300 | - | - |
| 30 | Italy  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/thumb/0/03/Flag_of_Italy.svg/23px-Flag_of_Italy.svg.png | IT | 380 | - | - |
| 31 | Algeria  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/7/77/Flag_of_Algeria.svg/23px-Flag_of_Algeria.svg.png | DZ | 012 | - | - |
| 32 | Malta  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/7/73/Flag_of_Malta.svg/23px-Flag_of_Malta.svg.png | MT | 470 | - | - |
| 33 | Albania  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/36/Flag_of_Albania.svg/21px-Flag_of_Albania.svg.png | AL | 008 | - | - |
| 34 | Bulgaria  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/9/9a/Flag_of_Bulgaria.svg/23px-Flag_of_Bulgaria.svg.png | BG | 100 | - | - |
| 35 | Suriname  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/6/60/Flag_of_Suriname.svg/23px-Flag_of_Suriname.svg.png | SR | 740 | 41 | South-West Atlantic | Western Atlantic | - |
| 36 | Argentina  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/1/1a/Flag_of_Argentina.svg/23px-Flag_of_Argentina.svg.png | AR | 032 | - |
| 37 | Brazil  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/thumb/0/05/Flag_of_Brazil.svg/22px-Flag_of_Brazil.svg.png | BR | 076 | Abrolhos Bank, Atol das Rocas, Fernabdo de Noronha, Parcel Manoel Luis,  Recife de Fora, Parque Estadual Marinho do Parcel Manoel Luis, |
| 38 | Angola  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/9/9d/Flag_of_Angola.svg/23px-Flag_of_Angola.svg.png | AO | 024 | 47 | South-East Atlantic | - | - |
| 39 | Namibia  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/0/00/Flag_of_Namibia.svg/23px-Flag_of_Namibia.svg.png | NA | 516 | - | - |
| 40 | Iran  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/c/ca/Flag_of_Iran.svg/23px-Flag_of_Iran.svg.png | IR | 364 | 51 | West Indian  (South-East) | Persian Gulf,  Hormoz Strait | Sheedvar & Lavan Islands, Kish & Hendourabi Islands, Kharg & Kharko Islands,  Qeshm, Hormoz, Hengam, Islands, Farour & Bani Farour Islands, Nayband Bay, Dayyer & Nakhilo |
| 41 | Kuwait  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/a/aa/Flag_of_Kuwait.svg/23px-Flag_of_Kuwait.svg.png | KW | 414 | Persian Gulf | Kubbar, Qaro Island and Um Al-Maradem Islands |
| 42 | United Arab Emirates  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/c/cb/Flag_of_the_United_Arab_Emirates.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_United_Arab_Emirates.svg.png | AE | 784 | Rul Dibba, Dadna, Al Aqa, Al Bidiyah, Al Yasat, Marawaah |
| 43 | Qatar  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/6/65/Flag_of_Qatar.svg/23px-Flag_of_Qatar.svg.png | QA | 634 | Khor Al Oudeid, Halul Island, Fasht al Dibal |
| 44 | Saudi Arabia  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/0/0d/Flag_of_Saudi_Arabia.svg/23px-Flag_of_Saudi_Arabia.svg.png | SA | 682 | Red Sea,  Persian Gulf | Asir, Dawat Ad-Dafl , Dawat al- Musallamiyah, Coral, Farasan and Umm al-Qamari Islands |
| 45 | Oman  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/d/dd/Flag_of_Oman.svg/23px-Flag_of_Oman.svg.png | OM | 512 | Arabian Sea,  Gulf of Oman | Daymaniyat Islands |
| 46 | Pakistan  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/32/Flag_of_Pakistan.svg/23px-Flag_of_Pakistan.svg.png | PK | 586 | [Astola (Haft Talar) Island](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Astola_Island) |
| 47 | Comoros  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/9/94/Flag_of_the_Comoros.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_Comoros.svg.png | KM | 174 | Mozambique Channel | Moheli |
| 48 | Djibouti  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/34/Flag_of_Djibouti.svg/23px-Flag_of_Djibouti.svg.png | DJ | 262 | Gulf of Aden | Maskali Sud, Musha, |
| 49 | Kenya  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/4/49/Flag_of_Kenya.svg/23px-Flag_of_Kenya.svg.png | KE | 404 | African East Coasts | Diani, Kisite, Kiunga, Malindi, Malindi-Watamu,  Mombasa, Mpunguti, Watamu |
| 50 | Bangladesh  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/f/f9/Flag_of_Bangladesh.svg/23px-Flag_of_Bangladesh.svg.png | BD | 050 | 57 | East Indian | Bay of Bengal | Island of St. Martin’s |
| 51 | Myanmar  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/8/8c/Flag_of_Myanmar.svg/23px-Flag_of_Myanmar.svg.png | MM | 104 | Lampi, Moscos Island |
| 52 | Australia  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/thumb/b/b9/Flag_of_Australia.svg/23px-Flag_of_Australia.svg.png | AU | 036 | 57 | East Indian | Shark Bay | Ashmore Reef, Cobourg, Coringa-Harold, Mermaid Reef, Ningaloo, Christmas & Solitary Islands,  Elizabeth and Middleton Reefs, Emden, Great Barrier Reef, Lihou Reef, Lord Howe Island,  Pulu Keeling, Rowley Shoals, Shark Bay Western Australia, Solitary Island, Yongala, South West Cobourg Peninsula, Lord Howe Island, Moreton Bay, Shoalwater & Corio Bays, Cocos Islands |
| 71 | West-Central Pacific  (Indo-Pacific) | Timor & Arafura Sea,  Gulf of Carpentaria |
| 81 | South-West Pacific | Torres Strait, Coral Sea,  Tasman Sea, Papua Gulf |
| 53 | China  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/f/fa/Flag_of_the_People%27s_Republic_of_China.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_People%27s_Republic_of_China.svg.png | CN | 156 | 61 | North-West Pacific | South China Sea | Kat o Cau, Shan Hu Jiao |
| 54 | South Korea  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/0/09/Flag_of_South_Korea.svg/23px-Flag_of_South_Korea.svg.png | KR | 410 | - | - |
| 55 | Indonesia  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/9/9f/Flag_of_Indonesia.svg/23px-Flag_of_Indonesia.svg.png | ID | 360 | 57 | East Indian | - | Over 17000 islands with 60 Coral Reef sites as MPAs  (51020 km2 of Reef area) |
| 71 | West-Central Pacific  (Indo-Pacific) | Banda,Timor,Seram Seas,  Moluca, Flores,Java Seas,  Celebes Sea, Triton Bay |
| 56 | Philippines  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/9/99/Flag_of_the_Philippines.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_Philippines.svg.png | PH | 608 | 71 | West-Central Pacific  (Indo-Pacific) | China & Philippine Seas, Sulawesi,Sibuyan,Sulu Seas | Over 7000 islands with 60 Coral Reef sites as MPAs  (25060 km2 of Reef area) |
| 57 | Fiji  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/b/ba/Flag_of_Fiji.svg/23px-Flag_of_Fiji.svg.png | FJ | 242 | Koro Sea | Viti Levu, Vanua Levu, Beqa Barrier Reef, Kadavu, Yasawa, |
| 58 | Tuvalu  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/38/Flag_of_Tuvalu.svg/23px-Flag_of_Tuvalu.svg.png | TV | 798 | - | - |
| 59 | El Salvador  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/34/Flag_of_El_Salvador.svg/23px-Flag_of_El_Salvador.svg.png | SV | 222 | 77 | East-Central Pacific | - | - |
| 60 | Guatemala  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/e/ec/Flag_of_Guatemala.svg/23px-Flag_of_Guatemala.svg.png | GT | 320 | - | - |
| 61 | Cook Islands  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/3/35/Flag_of_the_Cook_Islands.svg/23px-Flag_of_the_Cook_Islands.svg.png | CK | 184 | 81 | South-West Pacific | - | - |
| 62 | Chile  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/7/78/Flag_of_Chile.svg/23px-Flag_of_Chile.svg.png | CL | 152 | 87 | South-East Pacific | - | - |
| 63 | Peru  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/c/cf/Flag_of_Peru.svg/23px-Flag_of_Peru.svg.png | PE | 604 | - | - |
| 64 | Ecuador  https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/e/e8/Flag_of_Ecuador.svg/23px-Flag_of_Ecuador.svg.png | EC | 218 | - | - |

*\* Sources:*

- Ramsar Site (International Wetland)https://www.ramsar.org/country-profiles

- UNESCO Biosphere Reserve (MAB) https://en.unesco.org/countries

- UNESCO World Heritage Site <https://whc.unesco.org/en/list>

- IUCN (Marine Protected Areas – MPAs) https://www.iucn.org/theme/marine-and-polar/our-work/marine-protected-areas

- Wells et al. (2008) [Wells S, Sheppard V, Van Lavieren H, Barnard N, Kershaw F, Corrigan C, Teleki K, Stock P, Adler E. National and regional networks of marine protected areas: a review of progress. Master Evaluation for the UN Effort. World Conservation Monitoring Centre, Cambridge, UK, 2008.]

Table 3: Comparison of the ω3 fatty acids content of farmed and captured fish.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **No** | **Species (Common / Scientific name)** | **Omega 3 (g/kg)** | |
| **Captured** | **Farmed** |
| 1 | Sea bream (*Pagellus* sp.) | 5.67-11.73 | 2.88-3.81 |
| 3 | Sturgeon (*Huso huso*) | 25.31 | 7.24 |
| 4 | Sturgeon (*Acipenser baerii*) | 19.98 | 5.23 |
| 5 | Sturgeon (*Acipenser naccarii*) | 16.66 | 3.51 |
| 6 | Sturgeon (*Acipenser transmontanus*) | 17.62 | 4.18 |
| 7 | Sturgeon (*Acipenser nudiventri*) | 18.08 | 6.35 |
| 8 | Channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*) | 1.7 | 1 |
| 9 | Catfishes (*Clarias* sp. ; *Heterobranchus* sp.) | 2 | 1.25 - 1.7 |
| 10 | African catfish (*Pangasius hypophthlmus*) | 2.6 | 1.25 |
| 11 | Catfishes (*Clarias* sp. ; *Heterobranchus* sp.) | 2.4 | 1.25 |
| 12 | Indian carp (*Cyprinus* sp.) | 1.9 | 1.5 |
| 13 | Chinese carp (*Cyprinus* sp.) | 2.64 | 1.37 |
| 14 | Red drum (*Sciaenops ocellatus*) | 2.1 | 1.8 |
| 15 | Salmon (*Oncorhynchus* sp.) | 34.8 - 51.46 | 14.26 |
| 16 | Atlantic salmon (*Salmo* *salar*) | 19 | 12 – 15.55 |
| 17 | Rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) | 11.82 | 6 - 10 |
| 18 | Bluefin tuna (*Thunnus thynnus*) | 15 | 12 |
| 19 | Cod (Gadus sp.) | 1.12 | 0.12 |
| 20 | Asian sea bass (*Dicentrachus labrax*) | 3.9 | 0.36 |
| 21 | Blackspot bass (*Micropterus salmoides*) | 1.6 | 0.36 |
| 21 | [Eel](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Japanese_eel) (*Anguilla japonica*) | 15 | 10.2 |
| 22 | [Flatfish](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flatfish) ([*Paralichthys olivaceus*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paralichthys_olivaceus)) | 13.15 | 4 - 6 |
| 23 | Mullet (*Mugil* sp.) | 10 | 0.12 |

Table 4: Summary exposure value (SEV) to diet low in seafood omega 3 in the selected countries per 100 individuals, 1990 to 2017 (Global Burden of Disease 2017)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Country** | **Year** | | | | | | |
| **1990** | **1995** | **2000** | **2005** | **2010** | **2015** | **2017** |
| Albania | 41.8 | 43.5 | 44.6 | 44.5 | 44.6 | 46.2 | 46.8 |
| Algeria | 32.7 | 35.0 | 37.8 | 41.3 | 45.6 | 48.7 | 49.5 |
| Angola | 32.6 | 32.2 | 31.4 | 30.2 | 27.5 | 26.1 | 26.2 |
| Argentina | 29.9 | 28.8 | 28.0 | 29.2 | 26.7 | 24.8 | 25.1 |
| Australia | 35.7 | 35.3 | 35.7 | 34.8 | 33.7 | 33.3 | 33.1 |
| Bangladesh | 34.8 | 36.1 | 38.8 | 41.9 | 45.1 | 48.6 | 50.0 |
| Barbados | 34.3 | 35.1 | 36.0 | 38.1 | 38.9 | 40.6 | 41.2 |
| Belize | 29.1 | 29.5 | 30.8 | 31.3 | 32.3 | 34.1 | 35.1 |
| Benin | 30.8 | 31.0 | 30.9 | 30.5 | 30.2 | 30.5 | 30.9 |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | 52.3 | 57.3 | 55.1 | 56.8 | 58.0 | 58.4 | 58.4 |
| Brazil | 31.9 | 30.8 | 29.4 | 29.8 | 29.4 | 28.9 | 29.7 |
| Bulgaria | 47.2 | 50.6 | 54.8 | 56.5 | 56.1 | 56.0 | 55.4 |
| Cameroon | 28.2 | 29.0 | 29.9 | 30.3 | 31.2 | 32.6 | 33.2 |
| Canada | 31.0 | 31.3 | 28.6 | 26.6 | 26.9 | 27.0 | 26.9 |
| Cape Verde | 33.6 | 34.1 | 33.3 | 33.3 | 34.9 | 38.5 | 40.1 |
| Chile | 40.5 | 39.2 | 38.7 | 38.7 | 37.5 | 36.5 | 36.5 |
| China | 47.0 | 51.5 | 54.6 | 55.9 | 56.3 | 57.7 | 57.4 |
| Comoros | 31.7 | 33.4 | 34.9 | 35.6 | 36.4 | 38.3 | 39.2 |
| Cuba | 45.6 | 52.0 | 55.4 | 54.7 | 53.4 | 53.7 | 54.0 |
| Djibouti | 31.3 | 33.6 | 34.7 | 37.1 | 39.6 | 42.4 | 43.1 |
| Dominica | 37.0 | 38.6 | 39.6 | 40.1 | 40.5 | 41.7 | 42.3 |
| Dominican Republic | 32.6 | 33.7 | 33.6 | 33.3 | 33.6 | 35.0 | 35.2 |
| Ecuador | 34.0 | 34.3 | 34.2 | 34.0 | 33.8 | 34.1 | 34.9 |
| El Salvador | 34.7 | 35.4 | 35.5 | 36.1 | 37.1 | 38.6 | 39.4 |
| Equatorial Guinea | 33.3 | 31.5 | 27.6 | 21.5 | 17.9 | 17.8 | 19.3 |
| Estonia | 47.0 | 49.2 | 50.8 | 50.8 | 50.2 | 50.1 | 49.6 |
| Fiji | 36.5 | 37.1 | 38.2 | 39.4 | 39.8 | 39.1 | 38.9 |
| Finland | 46.8 | 47.0 | 43.9 | 45.8 | 46.3 | 46.5 | 46.7 |
| Germany | 51.6 | 51.7 | 52.2 | 54.7 | 55.1 | 54.0 | 53.2 |
| Greece | 48.6 | 50.3 | 51.8 | 52.9 | 53.8 | 56.4 | 56.9 |
| Guatemala | 31.2 | 30.3 | 29.3 | 29.8 | 31.3 | 33.3 | 34.3 |
| Haiti | 36.7 | 36.7 | 36.8 | 37.7 | 39.3 | 41.2 | 42.0 |
| Honduras | 30.3 | 29.7 | 29.2 | 29.7 | 30.8 | 32.5 | 33.2 |
| Indonesia | 40.6 | 42.6 | 45.1 | 47.1 | 48.3 | 49.1 | 49.5 |
| Iran | 31.9 | 33.5 | 35.2 | 38.2 | 41.0 | 44.7 | 45.8 |
| Italy | 45.9 | 48.5 | 51.4 | 53.1 | 53.5 | 54.0 | 54.2 |
| Jamaica | 30.9 | 31.0 | 30.6 | 30.0 | 30.6 | 33.0 | 34.2 |
| Kenya | 27.8 | 29.1 | 30.1 | 30.5 | 30.9 | 32.0 | 32.6 |
| Kuwait | 34.0 | 33.7 | 28.0 | 24.6 | 23.8 | 28.1 | 30.0 |
| Malta | 46.0 | 45.4 | 45.2 | 45.4 | 46.1 | 47.0 | 46.7 |
| Mauritania | 33.3 | 33.9 | 34.1 | 33.9 | 33.7 | 33.9 | 34.2 |
| Myanmar | 41.0 | 42.8 | 43.8 | 43.2 | 41.4 | 40.4 | 40.5 |
| Namibia | 33.2 | 33.1 | 32.6 | 32.0 | 32.5 | 34.2 | 35.1 |
| Netherlands | 47.0 | 47.9 | 49.1 | 49.8 | 49.9 | 49.7 | 49.5 |
| Nicaragua | 29.6 | 31.2 | 32.6 | 34.0 | 35.7 | 37.8 | 38.6 |
| Nigeria | 35.6 | 35.4 | 35.4 | 35.1 | 34.3 | 33.6 | 33.5 |
| Norway | 46.4 | 46.6 | 46.0 | 44.8 | 43.3 | 42.4 | 42.3 |
| Oman | 32.4 | 31.3 | 29.8 | 29.9 | 32.9 | 40.4 | 41.9 |
| Pakistan | 32.5 | 31.7 | 31.5 | 32.6 | 34.3 | 36.2 | 36.9 |
| Peru | 35.7 | 37.5 | 39.7 | 42.2 | 43.4 | 43.6 | 43.9 |
| Philippines | 35.8 | 36.3 | 36.3 | 36.6 | 37.4 | 38.1 | 38.4 |
| Portugal | 49.0 | 47.8 | 48.0 | 49.5 | 50.2 | 50.9 | 51.0 |
| Qatar | 29.1 | 31.3 | 27.8 | 24.0 | 23.5 | 22.1 | 22.5 |
| Saudi Arabia | 26.4 | 26.7 | 27.6 | 29.0 | 30.1 | 31.0 | 31.9 |
| Senegal | 31.1 | 32.1 | 33.4 | 34.2 | 34.3 | 34.6 | 34.7 |
| South Korea | 46.6 | 48.2 | 50.2 | 52.5 | 53.8 | 53.9 | 54.1 |
| Spain | 43.0 | 44.9 | 46.2 | 47.1 | 48.0 | 49.4 | 49.2 |
| Suriname | 32.3 | 35.4 | 36.2 | 36.5 | 36.1 | 35.1 | 35.8 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 37.4 | 39.9 | 39.8 | 38.1 | 36.0 | 35.0 | 35.4 |
| United Arab Emirates | 30.2 | 30.2 | 28.3 | 30.7 | 40.5 | 49.0 | 49.3 |
| United Kingdom | 46.3 | 46.2 | 45.3 | 43.9 | 43.5 | 43.8 | 43.8 |

Table 5: Deaths attributable to diet low in seafood omega 3 fatty acids, 1990-2017 (Global Burden of Disease 2017)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Country** | **Year** | | | | | | |
| **1990** | **1995** | **2000** | **2005** | **2010** | **2015** | **2017** |
| Albania | 542 | 537 | 632 | 743 | 743 | 821 | 846 |
| Algeria | 5,497 | 6,038 | 6,644 | 7,034 | 7,509 | 8,438 | 8,810 |
| Angola | 1,129 | 1,319 | 1,462 | 1,505 | 1,483 | 1,533 | 1,626 |
| Argentina | 6,911 | 6,204 | 5,920 | 5,805 | 5,426 | 4,928 | 5,032 |
| Australia | 4,160 | 3,808 | 3,329 | 2,770 | 2,525 | 2,503 | 2,692 |
| Bangladesh | 6,802 | 6,911 | 8,918 | 16,543 | 24,646 | 26,869 | 28,602 |
| Barbados | 52 | 48 | 40 | 36 | 32 | 37 | 39 |
| Belize | 24 | 26 | 30 | 26 | 26 | 28 | 30 |
| Benin | 409 | 465 | 521 | 553 | 599 | 682 | 708 |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | 1,505 | 1,807 | 1,514 | 1,400 | 1,360 | 1,406 | 1,391 |
| Brazil | 21,341 | 19,898 | 18,539 | 18,572 | 18,715 | 18,689 | 20,149 |
| Bulgaria | 5,014 | 6,098 | 6,294 | 5,814 | 5,199 | 4,869 | 4,830 |
| Cameroon | 669 | 884 | 1,237 | 1,497 | 1,629 | 1,747 | 1,790 |
| Canada | 5,384 | 5,277 | 4,537 | 3,871 | 3,569 | 3,840 | 3,970 |
| Cape Verde | 53 | 55 | 55 | 57 | 60 | 66 | 70 |
| Chile | 1,942 | 1,640 | 1,424 | 1,420 | 1,438 | 1,424 | 1,501 |
| China | 119,567 | 129,879 | 148,541 | 193,370 | 237,886 | 282,083 | 284,292 |
| Comoros | 59 | 66 | 71 | 73 | 79 | 89 | 94 |
| Cuba | 3,414 | 3,762 | 3,234 | 3,076 | 2,959 | 3,126 | 3,208 |
| Djibouti | 30 | 44 | 60 | 74 | 89 | 108 | 117 |
| Dominica | 16 | 15 | 12 | 10 | 10 | 11 | 11 |
| Dominican Republic | 857 | 910 | 1,026 | 1,269 | 1,488 | 1,956 | 2,005 |
| Ecuador | 946 | 986 | 1,111 | 1,250 | 1,190 | 1,214 | 1,311 |
| El Salvador | 747 | 779 | 750 | 857 | 887 | 972 | 984 |
| Equatorial Guinea | 81 | 78 | 56 | 36 | 30 | 32 | 36 |
| Estonia | 1,059 | 1,145 | 961 | 816 | 616 | 524 | 545 |
| Fiji | 177 | 197 | 230 | 228 | 254 | 264 | 267 |
| Finland | 2,284 | 2,001 | 1,708 | 1,594 | 1,526 | 1,402 | 1,505 |
| Germany | 39,907 | 34,567 | 30,912 | 26,505 | 24,100 | 24,287 | 24,720 |
| Greece | 3,222 | 3,351 | 3,467 | 3,459 | 3,379 | 3,342 | 3,576 |
| Guatemala | 854 | 873 | 878 | 924 | 1,029 | 1,233 | 1,371 |
| Haiti | 1,586 | 1,670 | 1,669 | 1,720 | 1,788 | 1,961 | 2,069 |
| Honduras | 601 | 795 | 901 | 997 | 1,107 | 1,320 | 1,400 |
| Indonesia | 22,660 | 25,559 | 31,199 | 37,337 | 42,449 | 46,970 | 48,178 |
| Iran | 10,696 | 11,379 | 12,335 | 12,740 | 12,739 | 14,211 | 14,955 |
| Italy | 14,145 | 13,878 | 13,501 | 12,600 | 12,015 | 12,341 | 12,067 |
| Jamaica | 247 | 259 | 230 | 181 | 207 | 257 | 274 |
| Kenya | 918 | 1,157 | 1,653 | 2,200 | 2,456 | 2,657 | 2,791 |
| Kuwait | 176 | 168 | 171 | 165 | 165 | 209 | 248 |
| Malta | 128 | 116 | 116 | 110 | 107 | 110 | 119 |
| Mauritania | 322 | 326 | 313 | 311 | 321 | 352 | 367 |
| Myanmar | 6,467 | 6,968 | 7,123 | 6,633 | 5,666 | 5,370 | 5,380 |
| Namibia | 178 | 220 | 280 | 255 | 195 | 196 | 206 |
| Netherlands | 4,405 | 4,028 | 3,684 | 2,937 | 2,406 | 2,278 | 2,377 |
| Nicaragua | 294 | 377 | 401 | 470 | 468 | 563 | 568 |
| Nigeria | 6,771 | 7,406 | 8,442 | 8,138 | 8,027 | 9,355 | 9,930 |
| Norway | 1,840 | 1,594 | 1,355 | 1,016 | 865 | 731 | 754 |
| Oman | 348 | 361 | 349 | 327 | 330 | 446 | 478 |
| Pakistan | 19,117 | 24,669 | 28,642 | 33,227 | 36,996 | 42,395 | 44,576 |
| Peru | 1,905 | 2,334 | 2,036 | 2,160 | 2,419 | 2,245 | 2,409 |
| Philippines | 8,648 | 11,400 | 13,133 | 14,043 | 16,907 | 19,515 | 19,792 |
| Portugal | 2,682 | 2,435 | 2,234 | 1,906 | 1,701 | 1,609 | 1,713 |
| Qatar | 36 | 48 | 45 | 39 | 42 | 51 | 58 |
| Saudi Arabia | 1,487 | 1,618 | 1,812 | 2,359 | 2,771 | 2,859 | 2,955 |
| Senegal | 773 | 915 | 1,048 | 1,110 | 1,207 | 1,379 | 1,422 |
| South Korea | 6,437 | 4,093 | 3,339 | 3,276 | 3,300 | 3,363 | 3,462 |
| Spain | 8,641 | 8,404 | 8,034 | 7,582 | 6,680 | 6,856 | 6,726 |
| Suriname | 74 | 65 | 68 | 73 | 72 | 81 | 85 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 305 | 345 | 327 | 277 | 233 | 243 | 265 |
| United Arab Emirates | 106 | 146 | 176 | 193 | 338 | 630 | 775 |
| United Kingdom | 26,612 | 22,970 | 18,228 | 13,863 | 11,137 | 10,412 | 10,663 |
| Total | 383,261 | 395,373 | 416,958 | 469,434 | 525,591 | 589,486 | 603,192 |

Table 6: Disability-adjusted Life Years (DALYs) attributable to diet low in seafood omega 3 fatty acids, 1990-2017 (Global Burden of Disease 2017)

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Country** | **Year** | | | | | | |
| **1990** | **1995** | **2000** | **2005** | **2010** | **2015** | **2017** |
| Albania | 11,541 | 11,161 | 13,154 | 15,308 | 14,492 | 15,235 | 15,410 |
| Algeria | 139,829 | 150,946 | 161,565 | 163,089 | 168,555 | 185,858 | 192,052 |
| Angola | 30,599 | 36,230 | 40,296 | 41,548 | 40,510 | 41,272 | 43,486 |
| Argentina | 141,250 | 124,897 | 115,838 | 109,912 | 99,350 | 87,146 | 89,483 |
| Australia | 75,593 | 63,849 | 53,459 | 42,297 | 36,764 | 35,250 | 37,286 |
| Bangladesh | 177,363 | 187,478 | 247,801 | 463,242 | 670,341 | 712,404 | 743,846 |
| Barbados | 912 | 830 | 711 | 661 | 600 | 669 | 698 |
| Belize | 503 | 589 | 689 | 600 | 605 | 661 | 726 |
| Benin | 9,155 | 10,836 | 12,503 | 13,352 | 14,394 | 16,428 | 16,998 |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | 34,012 | 40,487 | 32,253 | 28,837 | 25,959 | 25,183 | 24,523 |
| Brazil | 551,840 | 505,105 | 465,799 | 455,187 | 450,223 | 431,814 | 461,409 |
| Bulgaria | 98,667 | 119,143 | 120,004 | 110,816 | 95,216 | 86,435 | 85,260 |
| Cameroon | 15,800 | 21,722 | 31,672 | 38,730 | 41,910 | 44,430 | 45,397 |
| Canada | 97,247 | 90,592 | 74,010 | 61,155 | 55,148 | 58,164 | 58,417 |
| Cape Verde | 974 | 1,043 | 1,082 | 1,119 | 1,174 | 1,287 | 1,345 |
| Chile | 37,817 | 31,923 | 27,711 | 28,194 | 28,891 | 27,935 | 28,681 |
| China | 3,053,285 | 3,375,982 | 3,659,304 | 4,144,350 | 4,819,810 | 5,723,980 | 5,617,600 |
| Comoros | 1,552 | 1,729 | 1,848 | 1,857 | 1,987 | 2,205 | 2,305 |
| Cuba | 67,904 | 71,872 | 62,890 | 57,842 | 54,408 | 56,468 | 57,661 |
| Djibouti | 895 | 1,296 | 1,780 | 2,201 | 2,619 | 3,082 | 3,287 |
| Dominica | 286 | 261 | 205 | 185 | 177 | 191 | 192 |
| Dominican Republic | 22,031 | 23,299 | 25,112 | 30,011 | 34,413 | 45,153 | 46,127 |
| Ecuador | 21,971 | 23,285 | 26,140 | 29,184 | 27,368 | 26,025 | 27,721 |
| El Salvador | 18,069 | 18,127 | 16,714 | 18,132 | 18,199 | 19,569 | 19,803 |
| Equatorial Guinea | 2,122 | 2,060 | 1,441 | 874 | 718 | 739 | 831 |
| Estonia | 20,086 | 22,795 | 17,664 | 14,143 | 9,724 | 7,657 | 7,663 |
| Fiji | 5,458 | 6,040 | 7,069 | 6,909 | 7,490 | 7,615 | 7,643 |
| Finland | 43,262 | 35,111 | 27,382 | 25,374 | 22,819 | 19,542 | 20,669 |
| Germany | 682,817 | 568,132 | 486,885 | 411,449 | 355,293 | 332,416 | 337,579 |
| Greece | 61,396 | 62,297 | 63,497 | 61,702 | 58,700 | 54,790 | 56,433 |
| Guatemala | 22,413 | 22,920 | 22,835 | 22,440 | 24,169 | 27,610 | 30,769 |
| Haiti | 42,230 | 44,068 | 43,623 | 44,507 | 46,311 | 50,349 | 52,830 |
| Honduras | 17,436 | 21,521 | 24,057 | 25,985 | 27,457 | 31,506 | 33,186 |
| Indonesia | 656,063 | 726,049 | 872,321 | 1,042,882 | 1,177,162 | 1,285,908 | 1,301,318 |
| Iran | 277,220 | 285,486 | 298,665 | 300,658 | 291,825 | 310,766 | 321,485 |
| Italy | 249,027 | 230,307 | 209,338 | 183,071 | 163,466 | 159,549 | 150,771 |
| Jamaica | 4,517 | 4,756 | 4,291 | 3,187 | 3,790 | 4,959 | 5,259 |
| Kenya | 21,170 | 27,711 | 42,183 | 58,601 | 65,604 | 69,438 | 72,347 |
| Kuwait | 5,664 | 5,340 | 5,383 | 5,152 | 5,259 | 6,663 | 7,850 |
| Malta | 2,428 | 2,126 | 2,040 | 1,873 | 1,737 | 1,713 | 1,827 |
| Mauritania | 7,576 | 7,655 | 7,333 | 7,192 | 7,348 | 7,963 | 8,249 |
| Myanmar | 172,931 | 184,164 | 185,858 | 170,553 | 142,763 | 130,920 | 129,488 |
| Namibia | 4,174 | 5,075 | 6,561 | 5,878 | 4,282 | 4,162 | 4,349 |
| Netherlands | 82,902 | 73,588 | 65,929 | 50,190 | 38,630 | 33,828 | 34,774 |
| Nicaragua | 6,729 | 8,372 | 8,600 | 9,966 | 9,714 | 11,595 | 11,528 |
| Nigeria | 144,626 | 159,737 | 186,849 | 181,494 | 178,489 | 208,897 | 222,680 |
| Norway | 32,246 | 26,215 | 20,669 | 14,775 | 12,112 | 9,855 | 10,150 |
| Oman | 9,755 | 9,980 | 9,576 | 8,925 | 8,822 | 12,591 | 13,622 |
| Pakistan | 493,052 | 661,240 | 788,322 | 928,222 | 1,033,683 | 1,179,641 | 1,234,636 |
| Peru | 43,310 | 51,843 | 43,916 | 46,424 | 51,786 | 44,825 | 47,004 |
| Philippines | 249,714 | 317,686 | 368,030 | 399,842 | 479,791 | 544,601 | 548,154 |
| Portugal | 49,909 | 43,985 | 38,909 | 31,224 | 25,702 | 22,873 | 23,890 |
| Qatar | 1,139 | 1,520 | 1,336 | 1,159 | 1,345 | 1,596 | 1,807 |
| Saudi Arabia | 36,292 | 41,002 | 46,643 | 63,398 | 76,597 | 82,971 | 87,138 |
| Senegal | 18,526 | 22,235 | 25,680 | 26,984 | 28,924 | 32,763 | 33,717 |
| South Korea | 164,697 | 95,390 | 73,451 | 66,409 | 62,941 | 58,276 | 57,100 |
| Spain | 154,307 | 144,292 | 131,412 | 120,075 | 102,795 | 99,177 | 94,949 |
| Suriname | 1,774 | 1,642 | 1,725 | 1,838 | 1,795 | 1,928 | 2,020 |
| Trinidad and Tobago | 7,261 | 8,045 | 7,600 | 6,412 | 5,349 | 5,460 | 5,853 |
| United Arab Emirates | 3,410 | 4,764 | 5,632 | 6,267 | 12,230 | 22,316 | 26,927 |
| United Kingdom | 488,039 | 401,595 | 307,467 | 227,825 | 180,867 | 165,346 | 169,413 |
| Total | 8,894,768 | 9,249,430 | 9,652,707 | 10,441,666 | 11,430,603 | 12,699,646 | 12,795,622 |

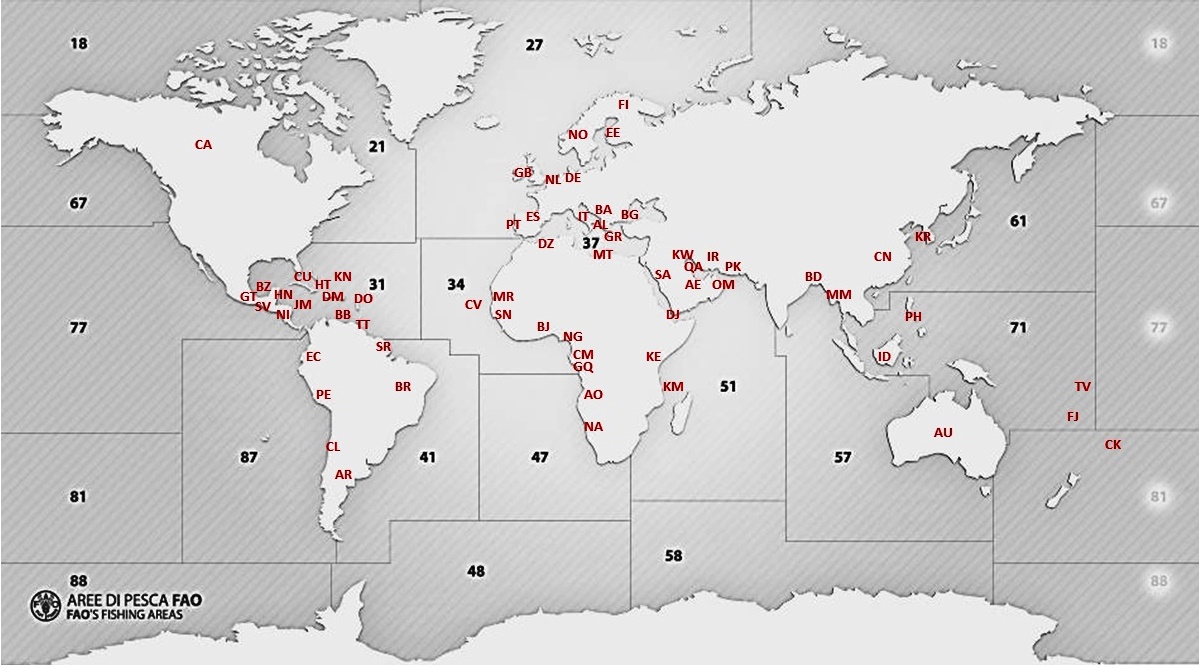
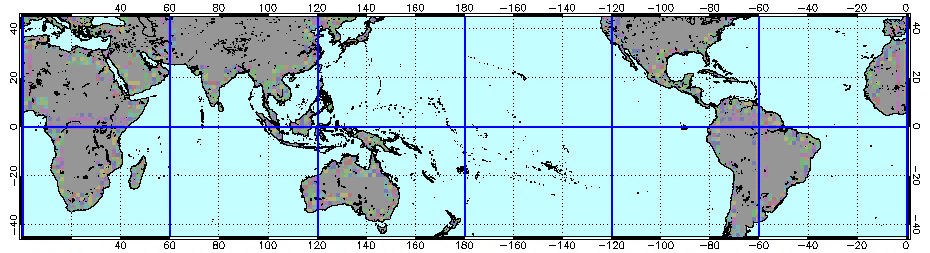


Figure 20: Geographical location of selected countries and their respective marine basins (FAO fishing areas)\*

\* Source of the map: <http://www.fao.org/tempref/fi/maps/Default.htm>



**Coral Reef Occurrence Zone**

**Coral Reef Occurrence Zone**

Figure 21: Global occurrence zone of coral reefs\*

\* Source: NOOA Coral Reef Watch ([*https://coralreefwatch.noaa.gov/product/5km/description\_tile\_60x40degree.php*](https://coralreefwatch.noaa.gov/product/5km/description_tile_60x40degree.php))

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| **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_1985.tif1985**  **Thermal stress level**  **Thermal stress level**  **Thermal stress level** | **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_1990.tif1990**  **Thermal stress level** |
| **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_1995.tif1995** | **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_2000.tif2000**  **Thermal stress level**  **Thermal stress level** |
| **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_2005.tif2005** | **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_2010.tif2010**  **Thermal stress level** |
| **2015** | **C:\Users\fereidoon\Desktop\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global_2018\NOAA Coral Reef Watch Global 5km Satellite Bleaching Alert Area_2018.tif2018**  **Thermal stress level** |

Figure 22: Comparing annual maximum Bleaching Alert Area caused by thermal stress in five-year intervals (1985-2018)\*. (Map resolution: 3600×7200 pixels, each pixel equals approx. 5-km)

\* *Source:* NOAA Coral Reef Watch. 2018, updated daily. NOAA Coral Reef Watch Version 3.1 Daily Global 5-km Satellite Coral Bleaching Degree Heating Week Product, Jun. 3, 2013-Jun. 2, 2014. College Park, Maryland, USA: NOAA Coral Reef Watch. Data set accessed 2018-09-01 at https://coralreefwatch.noaa.gov/satellite/hdf/index.php.

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Figure 23: Trends of capture-based and farmed-based per capita fish consumption in the 64 countries investigated over the period of 1980-2016

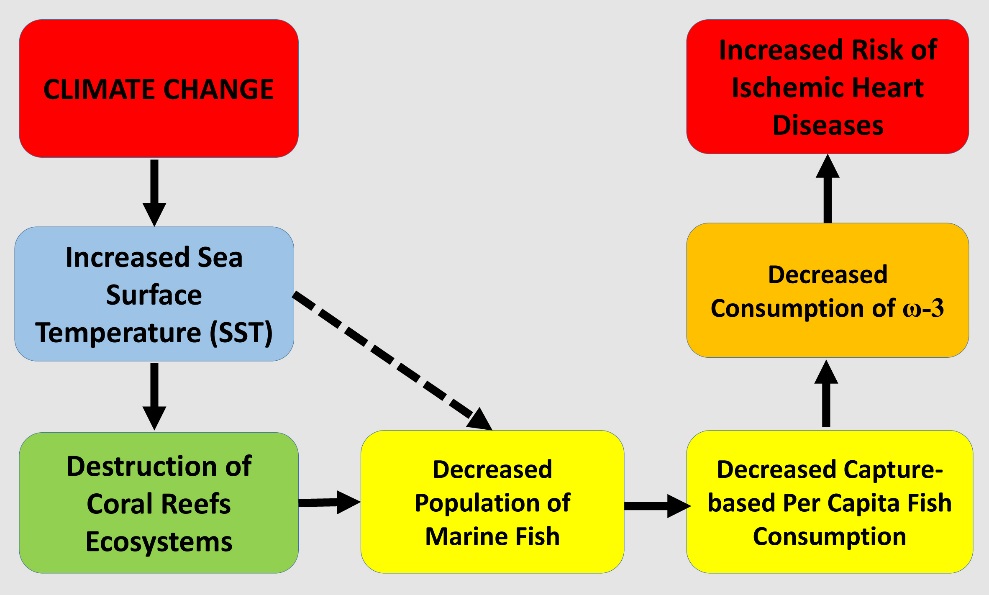


Figure 24: Pathway conceptualising the link between climate change and decreased consumption of capture-based fish to increased risk of ischemic heart diseases

# Section 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.1: Adaptation planning and assessment |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 2.1.1: National adaptation plans for health |
| **Methods** | The collection of data for this exercise included a voluntary national survey, the WHO Climate and Health Country Profile Survey (2018) that was sent to all WHO member states and was completed by ministry of health focal points. Of the 194 WHO member states, 100 participated in the survey, providing representation from all 6 WHO regions, World Bank Group-defined income categories, and a diverse range of threats and vulnerabilities to the health effects of climate change. Survey participation has grown substantially from the 40 Member States that completed the 2015 WHO Climate and Health Country Survey.  Validation of the 2018 country reported data was undertaken in multiple steps. First, survey responses were reviewed for missing information or inconsistencies with follow-up questions directed to survey respondents. A summary of responses were shared with key informants such as WHO regional focal points and external experts for review and comments. Source documents such as national health strategies and plans, and scientific assessments of health vulnerabilities and assessments were collected. A desktop review was conducted to compare with survey results with follow-up to survey respondents to seek clarification or additional documentation. In the case of vulnerability and adaptation assessments, findings were also cross referenced with existing external publications.67 Finally, partial results were reviewed by key national health and climate stakeholders and ministry of health officials as part of the development and review of the WHO UNFCCC health and climate change country profiles.  Further information on the WHO Climate and Health Country Survey, its methodology and the WHO Health and Climate Change Country Profile Initiative can be found at <https://www.who.int/globalchange/resources/countries/en/> |
| **Data** | 2018 WHO Health and Climate Country Survey |
| **Caveats** | The survey sample is not a representative sample of all countries as this survey was voluntary, however, the inclusion of 100 countries in this survey compared with 40 in the 2015 survey demonstrates a large increase in coverage. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | The WHO Climate and Health Country Survey will be conducted biennially and will continue to be the primary source of data to track this indicator.  The future evolution of this indicator will explore the monitoring and review of the existing strategies/plans and progress on level of implementation of strategies/plans. With more countries initiating the NAP process, alignment of the health component with the overall NAP will also be more closely monitored. Interim information regarding the specific content of national strategies/plans, as explored in this qualitative analysis, may be re-assessed in the future. |

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.1: Adaptation planning and assessment |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 2.1.2: National assessments of climate change impacts, vulnerability, and adaptation for health |
| **Methods** | Similar to the methods provided for indicator 2.1.1, national assessments of vulnerability, impacts and adaptation for health (health V&As) were monitored through the 2018 WHO Climate and Health Country Survey. |
| **Data** | 2018 WHO Health and Climate Country Survey |
| **Caveats** | The survey sample is not a representative sample of all countries as this survey was voluntary, however, the inclusion of 100 countries in this survey compared with 40 in the 2015 survey demonstrates a large increase in coverage. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | The WHO Climate and Health Country Survey will be conducted biennially and will continue to be the primary source of data to track this indicator.  The future evolution of this indicator will explore the coverage and comprehensive of the assessments, such as the use of qualitative and/or quantitative data and the use of future projections of risks of climate-sensitive diseases. |
| **Additional Information** | Figure 25: Number of countries that have conducted a scientific assessment of health vulnerability and adaptation to climate change (n=100) |

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.1: Adaptation planning and assessment |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 2.1.3: City-level climate change risk assessments |
| **Methods** | The CDP serves as an official reporting platform for the Compact of Mayors, and administrates, collects and analyses a global survey of city based environmental and climate change data on an annual basis.  In 2018, 489 cities participated in the survey, with 469 reporting publicly, that included questions on emissions, adaptation assessments and plans.  Respondents to the surveys to describe the magnitude of the impact of climate based hazards (extremely serious, serious, less serious) and identify three critical assets or services that may be most impacted. Based on this data two indicators can be developed.  The first is a global cities-based indicator of government areas that have undertaken a climate change risk or vulnerability assessment.  The second is global cities-based indicator of the perceived vulnerability of health infrastructure to climate change. |
| **Data** | CDP Cities Data |
| **Caveats** | This is a sample survey and cities are under no obligation to respond. As such the survey may suffer from selection bias. The majority of responding cities are also from High Income Countries (69%). As such, the results are not representative . |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | The CDP collect this data annually and it is foreseen that the data collection will continue to 2030. |
| **Additional information** | Figure 26: Proportion of cities that have conducted climate change risk assessments, by World Bank income group  Table 7: Cities that responded to the 2019 CDP survey by WBG Income Group   |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | | **World Bank income Group** | **Freq.** | **Percentage** | | High Income | 297 | 61% | | Upper Middle Income | 141 | 29% | | Lower Middle Income | 32 | 6% | | Low Income | 19 | 4% | | Total Cities | 489 |  |   Table 8: Cities by CPD Region that have undertaken a climate change risk or vulnerability assessment at the local government area   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | Africa | East Asia | Europe | Latin America | North America | Middle East | South Asia & Oceania | South & West Asia | | Yes | 16 | 11 | 75 | 43 | 83 | 0 | 14 | 2 | | No | 11 | 2 | 13 | 45 | 28 | 1 | 0 | 3 | | In Progress | 8 | 1 | 18 | 23 | 26 | 2 | 4 | 0 | | Intend  future | 3 | 0 | 5 | 12 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | Don't know | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | Total | 39 | 14 | 111 | 124 | 155 | 3 | 18 | 5 | |

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.2: Climate information services for health |
| **Methods** | The number of WMO member states whose Meteorological and Hydrological services are providing climate services to the health sector is calculated based on self-reported information provided by member states to the World Meteorological Organization (WMO) through the Country Profile Database Integrated questionnaire. The questionnaire is one of the main source of information to the WMO Country Profile data base and is open all year round for WMO members to update their profile information. Reported data reflects answers to Question number 6.2 of this questionnaire: “Please indicate which user communities/sectors your NMS provides with climate products/information and estimate the extent to which these products are used to improve decisions”. “Human Health” is one of multiple sectors which can be chosen. |
| **Data** | World Meteorological Organization Country Profile data base, which can be consulted online at <https://www.wmo.int/cpdb/>. |
| **Caveats** | The current data source from WMO only considers climate services provided by NMS. It is unclear the degree to which other providers, such as academic institutions and research projects, private sector products, products from other Ministries, or regional and global products and services are being used, in proportion to services made available by NMS.  The open questionnaire can be updated at any time by WMO members, therefore the figures here reported may change over the year. As each country may update their profile information at different moments in time, snap shots do not reflect progress for any given year but rather information provided until a certain date.  The current questionnaire does not record the number of WMO members that do not provide climate services to the health sector.  The questionnaire captures information on the provision of climate services, the status of service provision to the health sector (divided in 5 categories) and the type of services provided (divided in 5 categories as well). However, only the provision and status of climate service has been reported here due to uncertainties over the quality of the data on the type of services provided. Questions do not capture the source or quality of the service and only one of the answer option covers the utility of the climate services. They do not capture whether data originates from national meteorological observations or is resulting from regional or global products. They do not capture the potential use of all-sector forecasts or outlooks which are accessed and used by the health sector.  The WMO and WHO have some differences in their individual Member States. Responses collected from WMO Member States, were reclassified according to WHO Region. WMO members that are not individual WHO members were excluded from the analyses and include Macao and Hong Kong (reported as China), Curaçao and St. Maartens. The following WHO Members are not Members of WMO, therefore representative data is not available: Andorra, Equatorial Guinea, Marshall Islands, Nauru, Palau, San Marino. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | WMO will implement new survey instruments in 2019 to provide greater insight on the status of climate service provision for the health sector, and the type of service provided. Other complementary WMO surveys capturing specific product types, user satisfaction, and application areas, may be publicly available in the future to inform future editions of this indicator.  The World Health Organization (WHO) conducts a regular climate and health country survey with ministries of health or national health authorities in its 194 Member States. In 2017, this survey added indicators on the inclusion of meteorological information in integrated risk monitoring and early warning systems for climate-sensitive diseases. This information may be used to improve this indicator in future publications. |
| **Additional information** | Full list of countries providing climate services: Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Barbados, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Brazil, Cameroon, Chad, Chile, China, Côte d’Ivoire, Croatia, Cyprus, Germany, Dominica, Ecuador, Egypt, El Salvador, Fiji, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Guinea-Bissau, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Iraq, Ireland, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Latvia, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Mali, Mexico, Mozambique, Morocco, Myanmar, Niger, Nigeria, Northern Macedonia, Peru, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Russian Federation, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Senegal, Serbia, Singapore, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sudan, Thailand, Trinidad y Tobago, Ukraine, United Kingdom, United Republic of Tanzania, United States of America, Venezuela and Zimbabwe. |

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.3: Adaptation delivery and implementation |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 2.3.1: Detection, preparedness and response to health emergencies |
| **Methods** | This indicator takes data from the International Health Regulations (IHR (2005)) State Party Self- Assessment Annual Reporting Tool (SPAR).  Under the IHR (2005) all States Parties are required to have or to develop minimum core public health capacities to implement the IHR (2005) effectively. IHR (2005) also states that all States Parties should report to the World Health Assembly annually on the implementation of IHR (2005). In order to facilitate this process, WHO developed an IHR Monitoring questionnaire, interpreting the Core Capacity Requirements in Annex 1 of IHR (2005) into 20 indicators for 13 capacities. Since 2010, this self-reporting IHR monitoring questionnaire is sent annually to National IHR Focal Points (NFPs) for data collection. It contains a checklist of 20 indicators specifically developed for monitoring the development and implementation of 13 IHR capacities. The method of estimation calculates the proportion/percentage of attributes (a set of specific elements or functions which reflect the level of performance or achievement of a specific indicator) reported to be in place in a country.  The core capacities to implement the International Health Regulations (2005) have been established by a technical group of experts, as those capacities required to detect, assess, notify and report events, and to respond to public health risks and emergencies of national and international concern. To assess the development and strengthening of core capacities, a set of components are measured for each of the core capacities, by considering a set of one to three indicators that measure the status and progress in developing and strengthening the IHR core capacities. Each indicator is assessed by using a group of specific elements referred to as ‘attributes’ that represents a complex set of activities or elements required to carry out this component. The annual questionnaire has been conducted since 2010 with a response rate of 72% in 2012, 66% in 2016 and 85% in 2017, and 100% of countries reporting at least once since 2010. Annual reporting results are complemented by after action reviews, exercises, and joint external evaluation (JEE).  At the beginning of 2018, in compliance with the recommendations of the IHR Review Committee on Second Extensions for Establishing National Public Health Capacities and on IHR Implementation , and following formal global consultations with States Parties held in 2015, 2016, and 2017, and 2018, the WHO Secretariat replaced the IHR Monitoring questionnaire by the “IHR State Party Self-assessment Annual Reporting (SPAR) Tool”. This has strong implication for the future of this indicator: preparedness and response capacities have now been merged into one capacity called “C8: National health emergency framework”; one capacity relevant to climate adaptation and resilience has been added ( “C9: Health services provision”); and a in change capacity grading has been introduced, which requires countries to grade their capacity indicators in progressive levels from 1 to 5 as opposed to the previous “Yes/No/Not know” answers options. The components of these levels are presented in |
| **Data** | International Health Regulations (2005) Annual Reporting. Data is available through the Global Health Observatory Data Repository for 2010-2017 <http://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.main.IHR?lang=en>  And through the SPAR interactive for 2018 <http://gamapserver.who.int/gho/interactive_charts/ihrspar/atlas7.html?indicator=i7&amp;geog=0&amp;indicator=i7&amp;date=2018&amp;bbox=-312.53597590361454,-62.897000000000006,312.53597590361454,90.59700000000002&amp;printmode=true> |
| **Caveats** | There are some limitations to considering these capacities as proxies of health-system adaptive capacity and system resilience. Most importantly, IHR monitoring questionnaires responses are self-reported. Secondly, the countries that report IHR implementation annually differ from year to year within these regional aggregate scores. Thirdly, IHR Core Capacity Requirements are not specific to climate change, and hence whilst they provide a proxy baseline, they do not directly measure a country’s adaptive capacity in relation to climate driven risk changes. Fourthly, these findings capture potential capacity – not action. Finally, the quality of surveillance for early detection and warning is not shown and neither is the impact of that surveillance on public health. Response systems have been inadequate in numerous public health emergencies and thus the presence of such plans is not a proxy for their effectiveness. Nonetheless, these four capacities provide a useful starting point to consider the potential adaptive capacity of health systems globally. |
| **Additional information** | Table 9: Levels for the National Health Emergency Framework Capacity (C8) of the IHR (2005) SPAR Tool.68   |  |  | | --- | --- | | C8.1: Planning for emergency preparedness and response mechanism | | | Level 1 | A public health emergency risk profile and plans for emergency preparedness and response are under development | | Level 2 | Public health emergency risk profiles have been developed and emergency preparedness measures for priority public health risks is available at the national level | | Level 3 | Based on the all-hazard health emergency risk profile, plans for multisectoral all-hazard public health emergency preparedness and response are in place at the national levels | | Level 4 | Based on the all-hazard health emergency risk profile, plans for multisectoral all-hazard public health emergency preparedness and response are in place at national, intermediate and local levels | | Level 5 | Based on updated all-hazard health emergency risk profile and resource mapping, plans for multisectoral all-hazard public health emergency preparedness and response plan are regularly tested and updated | | C8.2 Management of health emergency response operations | | | Level 1 | A health sector emergency response coordination mechanism60 or incident management system linked with a national emergency operation centre is under development | | Level 2 | A health sector emergency response coordination mechanism or incident management system linked with a national emergency operation centre are in place at the primary level of response | | Level 3 | Health sector emergency response coordination mechanisms and incident management system linked with a national emergency operation centre are in place at the primary level of response | | Level 4 | Health sector emergency response coordination mechanisms and incident management system linked with a national emergency operation centre are in place at national, intermediate and local levels | | Level 5 | A health sector emergency response coordination mechanism and incident management system linked with a national emergency operation centre have been tested and updated regularly | | C8.3 Emergency resource mobilization | | | Level 1 | Inventories and maps of existing health sector resources for emergency response are under development | | Level 2 | Inventories and maps of existing health sector resources for emergency response are in place at the national level | | Level 3 | Inventories and maps of existing health sector resrources for emergency response are in place at the national, intermediate and local levels  AND  A mechanism to send and/or receive international assistance is in place | | Level 4 | Access to existing health sector resources for emergency response is in place at national, intermediate and local levels | | Level 5 | Resource mapping and mobilization mechanisms are regularly tested and updated |     Figure 27: Implementation status of the IHR National Health Emergency Framework Core Capacity (C8) for all 194 WHO Member States for 2018  Table 10: National Health Emergency Framework by country for 2018. Numbers 1-5 correspond to the level of implementation of each of the components. 0=no implementation.69   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **Country** | **C.8.1** | **C.8.2** | **C.8.3** | | Afghanistan | 1 | 1 | 2 | | Albania | Other | Other | Other | | Algeria | 3 | 1 | 4 | | Andorra | 0 | 0 | 0 | | Angola | 2 | 3 | 4 | | Antigua and Barbuda | 1 | 4 | 4 | | Argentina | 2 | 2 | 2 | | Armenia | 3 | 4 | 4 | | Australia | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Austria | 2 | 2 | 1 | | Azerbaijan | 3 | 4 | 4 | | Bahamas | 3 | 4 | 4 | | Bahrain | 5 | 4 | 4 | | Bangladesh | 2 | 3 | 2 | | Barbados | No data | No data | No data | | Belarus | No data | No data | No data | | Belgium | 5 | 4 | 4 | | Belize | 2 | 4 | 4 | | Benin | 2 | 2 | 0 | | Bhutan | 2 | 3 | 2 | | Bolivia (Plurinational State of) | Other | Other | Other | | Bosnia and Herzegovina | 1 | 2 | 1 | | Botswana | 1 | 1 | 0 | | Brazil | 5 | 3 | 5 | | Brunei Darussalam | No data | No data | No data | | Bulgaria | 2 | 2 | 4 | | Burkina Faso | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Burundi | 1 | 1 | 0 | | Cabo Verde | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Cambodia | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Cameroon | 2 | 2 | 1 | | Canada | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Central African Republic | 0 | 2 | 2 | | Chad | 2 | 1 | 1 | | Chile | 3 | 4 | 4 | | China | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Colombia | 2 | 5 | 4 | | Comoros | 1 | 1 | 0 | | Congo | 3 | 1 | 3 | | Cook Islands | 2 | 4 | 4 | | Costa Rica | 1 | 2 | 1 | | CÃ´te d'Ivoire | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Croatia | 2 | 3 | 2 | | Cuba | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Cyprus | 4 | 5 | 4 | | Czechia | 2 | 4 | 4 | | Democratic People's Republic of Korea | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Democratic Republic of the Congo | 2 | 1 | 2 | | Denmark | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Djibouti | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Dominica | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Dominican Republic | 1 | 2 | 5 | | Ecuador | 3 | 5 | 4 | | Egypt | 5 | 5 | 5 | | El Salvador | 4 | 4 | 1 | | Equatorial Guinea | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Eritrea | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Estonia | 3 | 4 | 4 | | Eswatini | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Ethiopia | 4 | 3 | 4 | | Fiji | 3 | 3 | 2 | | Finland | 4 | 5 | 5 | | France | 5 | 5 | 1 | | Gabon | 2 | 1 | 1 | | Gambia | 2 | 1 | 2 | | Georgia | 4 | 3 | 3 | | Germany | 4 | 5 | 5 | | Ghana | 2 | 1 | 1 | | Greece | No data | No data | No data | | Grenada | No data | No data | No data | | Guatemala | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Guinea | 2 | 4 | 5 | | Guinea-Bissau | 2 | 3 | 3 | | Guyana | Other | Other | Other | | Haiti | 1 | 5 | 1 | | Honduras | 0 | 2 | 1 | | Hungary | 2 | 4 | 3 | | Iceland | 5 | 5 | 5 | | India | 3 | 3 | 4 | | Indonesia | 3 | 3 | 2 | | Iran (Islamic Republic of) | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Iraq | 4 | 4 | 5 | | Ireland | 4 | 5 | 3 | | Israel | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Italy | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Jamaica | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Japan | Other | Other | Other | | Jordan | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Kazakhstan | 1 | 1 | 4 | | Kenya | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Kiribati | 3 | 1 | 1 | | Kuwait | 2 | 3 | 2 | | Kyrgyzstan | 3 | 4 | 4 | | Lao People's Democratic Republic | 2 | 2 | 2 | | Latvia | 5 | 4 | 3 | | Lebanon | 3 | 3 | 3 | | Lesotho | 0 | 0 | 2 | | Liberia | 1 | 5 | 1 | | Libya | 0 | 0 | 4 | | Lithuania | 5 | 5 | 4 | | Luxembourg | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Madagascar | 1 | 2 | 1 | | Malawi | 2 | 1 | 2 | | Malaysia | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Maldives | 4 | 3 | 1 | | Mali | 3 | 3 | 2 | | Malta | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Marshall Islands | 2 | 5 | 5 | | Mauritania | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Mauritius | 3 | 4 | 2 | | Mexico | 5 | 5 | 3 | | Micronesia (Federated States of) | Other | Other | Other | | Monaco | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Mongolia | 5 | 4 | 4 | | Montenegro | 4 | 2 | 2 | | Morocco | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Mozambique | 3 | 2 | 2 | | Myanmar | 2 | 3 | 4 | | Namibia | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Nauru | 0 | 0 | 0 | | Nepal | 1 | 3 | 2 | | Netherlands | 5 | 5 | 4 | | New Zealand | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Nicaragua | 3 | 4 | 4 | | Niger | 4 | 1 | 2 | | Nigeria | 2 | 3 | 1 | | Niue | 2 | 4 | 4 | | Norway | 5 | 5 | 4 | | Oman | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Pakistan | 2 | 2 | 3 | | Palau | 4 | 5 | 4 | | Panama | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Papua New Guinea | 2 | 3 | 1 | | Paraguay | 2 | 2 | 2 | | Peru | 2 | 4 | 3 | | Philippines | No data | No data | No data | | Poland | No data | No data | No data | | Portugal | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Qatar | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Republic of Korea | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Republic of Moldova | 1 | 4 | 3 | | Romania | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Russian Federation | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Rwanda | 1 | 2 | 3 | | Saint Kitts and Nevis | 1 | 3 | 3 | | Saint Lucia | 2 | 4 | 1 | | Saint Vincent and the Grenadines | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Samoa | 4 | 4 | 4 | | San Marino | 1 | 1 | 2 | | Sao Tome and Principe | 1 | 0 | 0 | | Saudi Arabia | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Senegal | 2 | 3 | 3 | | Serbia | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Seychelles | 1 | 1 | 1 | | Sierra Leone | 2 | 4 | 2 | | Singapore | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Slovakia | 2 | 5 | 5 | | Slovenia | 4 | 3 | 5 | | Solomon Islands | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Somalia | 1 | 1 | 1 | | South Africa | 1 | 4 | 1 | | South Sudan | 2 | 3 | 1 | | Spain | 5 | 4 | 4 | | Sri Lanka | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Sudan | 4 | 5 | 5 | | Suriname | 4 | 5 | 4 | | Sweden | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Switzerland | Other | Other | Other | | Syrian Arab Republic | 2 | 3 | 3 | | Tajikistan | 4 | 4 | 4 | | Thailand | 3 | 3 | 3 | | Republic of North Macedonia | 3 | 3 | 1 | | Timor-Leste | 1 | 1 | 2 | | Togo | 2 | 3 | 1 | | Tonga | 2 | 3 | 4 | | Trinidad and Tobago | 2 | 3 | 1 | | Tunisia | 2 | 4 | 4 | | Turkey | 1 | 4 | 4 | | Turkmenistan | 4 | 4 | 3 | | Tuvalu | 5 | 5 | 4 | | Uganda | 3 | 4 | 3 | | Ukraine | 1 | 4 | 4 | | United Arab Emirates | 5 | 5 | 5 | | United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland | 5 | 5 | 5 | | United Republic of Tanzania | 3 | 3 | 1 | | United States of America | 5 | 5 | 5 | | Uruguay | 5 | 5 | 4 | | Uzbekistan | 3 | 3 | 2 | | Vanuatu | 1 | 3 | 4 | | Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) | 4 | 4 | 3 | | Viet Nam | 2 | 3 | 2 | | Yemen | 3 | 3 | 3 | | Zambia | 1 | 3 | 1 | | Zimbabwe | 2 | 2 | 1 |   Table 11: Implementation status by WHO region. Data taken from WHO.68   |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **WHO Region** | **0-24%** | **25-49%** | **50-74%** | **75-100%** | **50-100%** | | Africa | 25.53% | 53.19% | 21.28% | 0% | 21.28% | | Americas | 5.71% | 20% | 28.57% | 34.29% | 62.86% | | East Mediterranean | 9.52% | 19.05% | 19.05% | 52.38% | 71.43% | | Europe | 3.77% | 11.32% | 28.30% | 47.17% | 75.47% | | South-East Asia | 0% | 45.45% | 45.45% | 9.09% | 54.54% | | Western Pacific | 3.70% | 22.22% | 18.52% | 40.74% | 59.26% | |

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.3: Adaptation delivery and implementation |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 2.3.2: Air conditioning – benefits and harms |
| **Methods** | A meta-analysis found having home air conditioning to be the strongest protective factor against heatwave-related mortality (pooled relative risk [RR] = 0.23; 95% confidence interval = 0.1 – 0.6; based on 6 studies) and having visited other air conditioned environments as the second most protective factor (pooled RR = 0.34; 95% confidence interval = 0.2 – 0.5; based on 5 studies).70 Thus, residential air conditioning is of special interest with regard to protection against heatwave-related mortality.  The prevented fraction is the percent reduction in an adverse health outcome due to a preventive exposure, compared with the scenario of complete absence of the exposure.71 The prevented fraction is determined by two factors: 1) the relative risk of the adverse health outcome in exposed persons compared with unexposed persons and 2) the prevalence of the exposure. The prevented fraction increases with decreasing relative risk and with increasing prevalence of exposure. The formula for prevented fraction is simply:  Pe(1 – RR)  Where Pe is the prevalence of the exposure and RR is the relative risk of the adverse health outcome in exposed persons compared with unexposed persons.  For the air conditioning indicator, the prevented fraction is the percent reduction in heatwave-related deaths due to a given proportion of the population (Pac) having household air conditioning, compared with a scenario of complete absence of household air conditioning. Thus, the prevented fraction is simply:  Pac(1 – RR)  As intuitively expected, according to this formula, the higher the protection against heatwave-related mortality conferred by household air conditioning (i.e., the lower the relative risk of heatwave-related mortality in persons living in a household with air conditioning versus persons living in a household without air conditioning), the greater the prevented fraction; and the higher the proportion of the population with access to household air conditioning, the greater the prevented fraction.  Pac was assumed to be the same as the proportion of households with air conditioning. These data were kindly provided by the International Energy Agency. Based on the meta-analysis mentioned above, an RR of 0.23 was assumed. Thus, the formula for prevented fraction is:  Pac(1 – RR) = Pac(1 – 0.23) = Pac(0.77)  The prevented fraction could range from 0 for a region with no household air conditioning (i.e., Pac = 0) to 0.77 for a region in which every household has air conditioning (i.e., Pac = 1.0). A low prevented fraction does not necessarily translate into a high absolute number of heatwave-related deaths because in a given country/region the number of heatwave-related deaths that would occur in the complete absence of household air conditioning may be low.    To estimate premature deaths from ambient PM2.5 due to electricity use for air conditioning, country/region-specific premature deaths due to PM2.5 emissions from power plants were estimated, as described in the appendix for Indicator 3.3.2. Then, country/region-specific data on final energy consumption from air conditioning, kindly provided by the International Energy Agency (IEA), was used to calculate the proportion of electricity generation used for air conditioning. This proportion was applied to the total premature deaths due to PM2.5 emissions from power plants to estimate the number of premature deaths due to air conditioning. |
| **Data** | The IEA kindly provided data on the proportion of households with air conditioning (used for the prevented fraction calculation), CO2 emissions due to air conditioning (megatons), and final energy consumption for air conditioning (terawatt hours; used for the calculation of premature deaths due to PM2.5 from air conditioning) in the entire world and for major countries/regions. |
| **Caveats** | For the prevented fraction calculation, an RR of 0.23 was assumed for heatwave-related death for persons living in a household with air conditioning versus persons living in a household without air conditioning, based on a meta-analysis that included 6 studies, 4 from the United States and 2 from France. This RR may differ in other parts of the world. Furthermore, the proportion of households with air conditioning was used to estimate the proportion of the population having household air conditioning. The estimate did not take into account the size of households with versus without air conditioning or the vulnerability to heat stress of persons living in households with versus without air conditioning. Finally, data limitations prevented the estimation of the absolute number of heatwave-related deaths prevented by air conditioning.    To estimate premature deaths due to PM2.5 emissions from air conditioning, it was assumed that in a given country/region, the electricity market is completely connected, so that the share of electricity used for air conditioning can be equally applied to power plant emissions throughout the country/region. This assumption may not be accurate for larger countries/regions. |
| **Future form of indicator** | The meta-analysis of the relationship between living with air conditioning and heatwave-related (or, more generally, heat-related) mortality will be updated. If there are sufficient studies, morbidity will also be examined. The indicator may be updated each year as new data becomes available. City-level case studies to estimate absolute number of lives saved from air conditioning versus premature deaths from exposure to PM2.5 due to air conditioning may also be performed. Additionally, national building codes, minimum energy performance standards and labeling rules for air conditioners, and progress on implementing the Kigali Amendment may be tracked in the future. |
| **Additional information** | Figure 28: Percent of households with air conditioning, by selected countries/regions (data kindly provided by International Energy Agency)  Figure 29: Prevented fraction of heatwave-related mortality due to air conditioning by selected countries/regions  Figure 30: CO2 emissions from air conditioning by selected countries/regions (data kindly provided by International Energy Agency)  Figure 31: Premature deaths due to PM2.5 emissions from air conditioning (data on final energy consumption for air conditioning used for this calculation kindly provided by the International Energy Agency) |

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| **Working Group** | 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health |
| **Indicator** | 2.4: Spending on adaptation for health and health-related activities |
| **Methods** | The ‘Adaptation and Resilience to Climate Change’ dataset is the same data source that used in the 2017 and 2018 Lancet Countdown reports.1,72 It measures spending on economic activities related to adaptation and resilience to climate change. It was developed by data research firm kMatrix73 in partnership with numerous stakeholders, and includes the key adaptation measures identified by the IPCC. This classification of adaptation activities was originally developed from attempts by the UK Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs to measure adaptation in 2009/201074. The definition of adaptation activities was extended through collaboration with the Greater London Authority in 2014, and updated through a project with Climate-KIC in 2017. This added several new industrial sectors as well as significantly expanding the activities under health and healthcare.  The methodology used for data acquisition and analysis is based on a system called as ‘profiling’, which was originally developed at Harvard Business School to track and analyse technical and industrial change.75 This is the basis for building taxonomies of economic activities and value chains, which can then be populated with estimates of key economic metrics like sales value and employment by triangulating transactional and operational business data to estimate economic values. This methodology is particularly valuable in areas where government statistics and standard industry classifications are not available.76 When measuring an industry or sector, the new taxonomy is populated from the bottom up, searching for evidence for the ideal definition and including only economic activities where sufficient evidence is available.  For each transaction listed in the adaptation economy data, a minimum of seven separate sources must independently record the transaction for it to be confirmed and included in the database. Triangulating data from multiple sources permits large volumes of unsorted, fragmented data of different types from different sources to be processed to arrive at more accurate estimates of transactional value that would not be possible using a single source. For the adaptation economy, data are produced to a confidence level of around 80%. Accessing and analysing multiple types of data is also key to identifying the ‘purpose’ behind an economic activity, which is key for accurately assigning economic activities to the adaptation dataset.  Developing the new definition of adaptation and resilience to climate change involved the top-down taxonomy of the entire ‘make and mend’ economy, and then adaptation and resilience in all forms. Then these categories were filtered to isolate economic activities that can be strictly identified as being relevant to adaptation and resilience to climate change. The taxonomy of A&RCC is drawn from 11 sectors of the economy at-large: Agriculture & Forestry, Built Environment, Disaster Preparedness, Energy, Health/Health Care, ICT, Natural Environment, Professional Services, Transport, Waste and Water.74,77  There are a number of activities across different sectors that are ‘health-related’ in the adaptation and resilience to climate change dataset, outside of the strictly-defined healthcare sector. The indicator design therefore required the definition of those activities from the other 10 sectors of the A&RCC data that can be clearly related to health, and thus should be included in a definition of ‘health-related’ adaptation spending. The robust interim approach used for the 2017 and 2018 Lancet Countdown was again adopted for this year’s Lancet Countdown. The 'health-related’ activities consists of the activities of the Healthcare/Health Sector, Disaster Preparedness and Agriculture adaptation activities from the kMatrix dataset. A methodology is under development to define a full health-related adaptation definition across the entire A&RCC dataset, and an initial definition of an expanded health-related adaptation classification has been proposed.  Geographical Coverage:  The A&RCC dataset has global coverage for 226 countries and territories. Data has been reported for a subset of countries and territories for whom adaptation spending data, regional and income classifications, and population estimates are available. This year’s indicator covers 191 countries and territories with data reported in the A&RCC dataset, and that are assigned a region in the WHO regional classification and an income group in the World Bank income group classification.78 Per Capita values are based on 183 countries that also have population estimates from the IMF World Economic Outlook.79 |
| **Data** | Adaptation and Resilience to Climate Change dataset:  kMatrix Ltd, in partnership with University College London  Comparison Data:  The classification of WHO Regions was taken from the WHO Data Repository Metadata.78  WHO metadata reports the World Bank Income Grouping values from 2018 (released 2018, based on 2017 calendar year data).  2015 to 2018 Population and GDP estimates from the April 2019 update of the IMF World Economic Outlook were used to calculate fiscal year values for 2015/16, 2016/17 and 2017/18.79  For comparability, global total values present the global total for countries or territories that are included in the regional and world bank analysis. It does not include the 35 countries and territories which have neither a WHO Region nor a World Bank Income Group. Most of these are overseas territories or sub-national jurisdictions with relatively lower levels of adaptation spending. However, several larger states or jurisdictions that are not included in this global total are: Hong Kong, Taiwan and Puerto Rico. |
| **Caveats** | Economic activity or transactions are only measured where there is an economic ‘footprint’, i.e. where there is transactional/financial data available to be measured. Therefore, public sector spending without an economic ‘footprint’ (government spending on salaries, for example), cannot be measured. It also not possible to directly identify what percentage of measured spending is public versus private. Values are not currently adjusted for inflation. Values of sales generated are not directly comparable with values derived from national statistics.  The reference period is the financial years 2015/16 to 2017/18. Further historical data could be available in the future. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | There will be three major developments in the future form of the indicator.  The first will be the development of the ‘three-tier’ definition of;  1) adaptation activities with direct, important health impacts  2) those with less direct or more minor health impacts  3) those with no health impact or too tenuous a health impact.  Secondly, in the future it is likely to possible to present historical data for the indicator, in order to provide trend data on change in spend over time.  Finally, in the future the aim is to develop an indicator of adaptation spending as a percentage of the overall health sector spend and health-related spend as a percentage of the entire economy (represented by 24 industries), compiled using transactional data. |

# Section 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.1: Energy system and Health |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 3.1.1: Carbon intensity of the energy system |
| **Methods** | This indicator contains two components:   1. Carbon intensity of the energy system, both at global and regional scales, (1972-2016), in tCO2/TJ; and 2. Global CO2 emissions from energy combustion by fuel, in GtCO2 (1972-2017). Global emissions without fuel breakdown are also provided for 2018. This sub-indicator is complimented by scenario values for 2050 of CO2 emissions.   Technical definition is the tonnes of CO₂ emitted for each unit (TJ) of primary energy supplied.  The rationale for the indicator choice is that carbon intensity of the energy system will provide information on the level of fossil fuel use, which has associated air pollution impacts. Higher intensity values indicate a more fossil dominated system, and one that is likely to have a higher coal share. As countries pursue climate mitigation goals, the carbon intensity is likely to reduce with benefits for air pollution.  The indicator is calculated based on total CO2 emissions from fossil fuel combustion divided by Total Primary Energy Supply (TPES). TPES reflects the total amount of primary energy used in a specific country, accounting for the flow of energy imports and exports.  The data are available for most countries of the world, for the period 1971-2016.  Future CO2 emissions for 2050 are taken from the IIASA hosted scenario database containing Integrated Assessment Model scenarios used in the IPCC SR1.5 report.80 |
| **Data** | This indicator is based on based on the IEA dataset, CO2 Emissions From Fuel Combustion: CO2 Indicators, accessed via the UK data service.81  Future emission values from Huppmann et al. 2018.80 |
| **Caveats** | The indicator does not provide information on the share of different fossil fuels, their use in different sectors, and the absolute levels of usage. These are all important elements in understanding the air pollution emissions, and their impacts. Therefore, additional indicators (3.1.2 & 3.1.3) provide additional complimentary information. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | This indicator will need to be updated to provide the data for the most recent years, which have seen important shifts in the use of fossil fuels, particularly coal. |
| **Additional information** | This year’s report includes data to 2016, supplemented with additional statistics for 201782 and 2018,83 and shows that global emissions of CO2 from fuel combustion, having been flat between 2014-16, have increased since that period, reaching a new high of 33.1 GtCO2 in 2018.83 (see Figure 19 in main report) This 2.6% increase over the last two years is due to continued growth in energy demand, most of which is met by fossil fuels.  As shown in Figure 26 below, these emissions need to fall (from 2019) at a rate of around 7.4% every year to get to levels in 2050 consistent with the 1.5°C target.  The carbon intensity of the system also needs to reduce to near zero by 2050. In the last 15 years, carbon intensity has largely plateaued, as the growth of low carbon energy is insufficient to displace fossil fuels to start to bend the intensity curve downwards. In primary energy terms, low carbon energy accounted for 19% of total demand in 2018, down from 20% in 2000. Based on recent IEA data in the last couple of years, carbon intensity is reported to have reduced a small amount in the last couple of years due to displacement of coal by gas.83  The challenge of reducing CO2 emissions from the energy system, and achieve the resulting gains for global health, will require enormous political will and both supply and demand side policies. For example, even if all coal was removed from the power generation sector today and replaced with low carbon electricity, carbon intensity would reduce from approximately 57 to 41 tCO2/TJ, and emissions by about one-third. While reducing coal is key, the other sources of gas and oil in the system are critical to address.    Figure 32: Historical CO2 emissions from the energy sector, and distribution of emission levels in 2050 based on scenarios used in the SR1.5 report.80 |

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.1: Energy system and health |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 3.1.2: Coal phase-out |
| **Methods** | Two indicators are used here:   1. Total primary coal supply by region / country (in EJ units); and 2. Share of electricity generation from coal (% of total generation from coal). Indicator i) is complimented by scenario values for 2050 of coal use.   These indicators are important to enable tracking of changes in coal consumption at a regional and country level. Due to the level of coal used for power generation, a second indicator tracks the contribution to electricity generation from coal power plants in selected countries. As countries pursue climate mitigation goals, the use of coal is likely to reduce with resulting benefits for air pollution.  The indicator on primary energy coal supply is an aggregation of all coal types used across all sectors (from the IEA energy balances). The data are available for most countries of the world, for the period 1978-2017, with global data provided for 2018.  The indicator on the share of electricity generation from coal is estimated based on electricity generated from coal plant as a percentage of total electricity generated. Regional data are available from 1990-2016, with global share estimated for 2017; pre-1990 data are not used due to incomplete time series.  Countries or regions with large levels of coal use (as a share of generation, or in absolute terms), have been selected to show in the figures.  Future coal use and generation estimates for 2050 are taken from the IIASA hosted scenario database containing Integrated Assessment Model scenarios used in the IPCC SR1.5 report. |
| **Data** | This indicator is based on the extended energy balances from the International Energy Agency. The specific dataset is called World Extended Energy Balances, and is sourced via the UK data service84  Future coal use values based on scenarios are sourced from Huppmann et al. 2018.80 |
| **Caveats** | These indicators provide a proxy for air quality emissions associated with the combustion of coal. Further work is required to convert coal use by sector and type into emissions of different air quality pollutants. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | As per 3.1.1, this indicator will need to be updated to provide the data for the most recent years, which have seen important shifts in the use of coal. |
| **Additional information** | While the share of coal in primary energy continues to fall, the overall growth in global energy demand means coal has returned to a growth trajectory since 2016, and continues to be the second largest contributor to global primary energy (after oil) and the largest source of electricity generation (at 38%, compared to gas, the next highest at 23%. Most of this growth is in the Asian region, notably in China, India and South-East Asia (Figure 27).  Returning to the downward trend in coal demand and then accelerating will be critical to meeting the climate goals embodied in the Paris Agreement. As shown in Figure 28, to push towards the 1.5°C target, coal use levels need to be at 23 EJ (median level) by 2050, compared to 157 EJ in 2017, reducing at a year-on-year rate of 5.6%.  If coal is to be phased out, a key sector to tackle will be power generation, which accounted for an estimated 64% in 2017 of total coal use.82 Since 2016, coal generation has increased, while the share of generation remains at around 38%, as it has been since 2005 (Figure 27). Reductions in generation in other regions such as Europe and the USA have continued, but have been counterbalanced by increases in other regions. Using the scenarios that informed the IPCC SR1.5 report, rather than increasing, coal generation, a year-on-year reduction rate of 9% is required to achieve levels consistent with 1.5°C pathways (Figure 29). For a global fleet of just over 2000 GW, almost half of which is in China, this requires a net reduction per year of 60 GW. It is worth noting that the UK has seen 20% year on year reductions in coal generation since 2010, highlighting what can be achieved albeit for a specific country.85  If coal phase-out can be sustained, it is likely to have significant air pollution co-benefits (Indicator 3.3), which in turn help offset the policy costs of mitigation. Some positive signs are emerging. First, a slowdown in capacity expansion, with a recent analysis by the Carbon Brief estimating only a net 20 GW increase in 2018.86 Second, other generation options are becoming cheaper than coal, notably solar, particularly in countries such as India. Finally, the metrics monitoring plants in the planning pipeline are all in decline, while retirements continue at pace in specific regions e.g. USA, UK.87  As outlined in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report,1 some political momentum has gathered, in pledging coal phase out, such as the countries in the Powering Past Coal Alliance (PPCA).88 Crucial to the success of phasing coal out will be the policies in China and India, and the extent to which they will draw down on new investment, and start replacing existing capacity.    Figure 33: Share of electricity generation coal in selected countries and regions, and global coal generation. Regional shares of coal generation are shown by the trend lines (primary axis) and total coal generation by the bars (secondary axis). Data series are shown to at least 2016, and extended to 2018 for global coal generation.    Figure 34: Historical primary energy supply of coal, and distribution of coal levels in 2050 based on scenarios used in the SR1.5 report.80    Figure 35: Historical generation by coal, and distribution of coal generation levels in 2050 based on scenarios used in the SR1.5 report.80 |

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.1: Energy system and health |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 3.1.3: Zero-carbon emission electricity |
| **Methods** | Two indicators are used here, and presented in two ways:   1. Total low carbon electricity generation, in absolute terms (TWh) and as a % share of total electricity generated (to include nuclear, and all renewables); and 2. Total renewable generation (excluding hydro), in TWh, and as a % share of total electricity generated.   The increase in the use of low carbon and renewable energy for electricity generation will push other fossil fuels, such as coal, out of the mix over time, resulting in an improvement in air quality, with benefits to health.  The renewables (excluding hydro) indicator has been used to allow for the tracking of rapidly emergent renewable technologies. For both indicators, generation, rather than capacity, has been chosen as a metric as the electricity generated from these technologies is what actually displaces fossil-based generation. Countries with large levels of low carbon generation (as shares, or in absolute terms), or with higher fossil dependency, have been selected.  The data are again taken from the IEA extended energy balances.84 The absolute level indicators are total gross electricity generated aggregated from the relevant technology types. The share indicators are estimated as the low carbon or renewable generation as a % of total generation.  The data are available for most countries of the world, for the period 1971-2016. Only the period from 1990 has been used, due to data gaps for selected countries prior to 1990.  Future renewable generation estimates for 2050 are taken from the IIASA hosted scenario database containing Integrated Assessment Model scenarios used in the IPCC SR1.5 report.80 |
| **Data** | This indicator is based on the extended energy balances from the International Energy Agency. The specific dataset is called World Extended Energy Balances, and is sourced via the UK data service (<http://stats.ukdataservice.ac.uk/)>.84  Future coal use values based on scenarios are sourced from Huppmann et al. 2018.80 |
| **Caveats** | This indicator set does not provide information on the air pollutant emissions displaced due to the increasing share of RE generation. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | This set should be developed to include an indicator to assess the direct impact on air quality emissions from additional low carbon generation, one approach being to compare the emission intensity of the current system with a counterfactual case, which does not have the additional share of RE generation. |
| **Additional information** | With the power sector accounting for 38% of total energy-related CO2 emissions, the importance of renewables for displacing fossil fuels is crucial. In 2016, low carbon electricity globally accounted for 32% of total global electricity, with continued gains in China (see main report). As costs continue to fall, solar generation continues to grow at remarkable rates of around 30% but still only accounts for 2% of total generation.  The types of generation levels from renewables across 1.5°C compliant scenarios are shown in Figure 30. It highlights that generation from new renewables (solar, wind, geothermal, ocean) need to increase by 9.7% per annum, to a level in 2050 that is larger than the total global generation today. Since 1990, the annual growth rate for these renewables was over 14%. To maintain the momentum in renewable generation growth, there is a need to ensure that all new generation growth is provided for by non-fossil fuel sources, with strong supply side policies to prevent investment in coal and gas.    Figure 36: Proportion of zero emission energy consumption in the global residential sector    Figure 37: Historical generation by renewables (excl. hydro and bioenergy), and distribution of renewable generation levels in 2050 based on scenarios used in the SR1.5 report.80 |

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.2: Access and use of clean energy |
| **Methods** | The 2019 report presents a combination of data from both the Sustainable Development Goal 7, and fuel consumption in the residential sector produced by the International Energy Agency (IEA).  Access to energy is defined by the IEA (2019) as:  "a household having reliable and affordable access to both clean cooking facilities and to electricity, which is enough to supply a basic bundle of energy services initially, and then an increasing level of electricity over time to reach the regional average".89  Within SDG 7.1.2 (proportion of population with primary reliance on clean fuels and technology) “Clean” fuels are defined by emission rate targets and specific fuel recommendations included in the WHO guidelines for indoor air quality.90  This indicator is modelled with household survey data compiled by WHO. Estimates of primary cooking energy for the total, urban and rural population for a given year are obtained separately using a multilevel model91 done at the country level.  The use of energy in the residential sector is drawn from the IEA extended global residential modelling produced in the World Energy Outlook from the ‘World Extended Energy Balances’ 2018 edition,84 which covers all countries or major regions in the world. The values are measured in PJ and cover all fuels consumed within the residential sector final energy demand. Here, at point of final energy demand, clean energy includes electricity (independent of generation source), solar thermal and geothermal.  The data provided in the 2019 report focus on energy use, as compared to access, as a measure of action to achieving the intent of SDG 7.1.2. The data is summarized for a selection of countries and the globe. |
| **Data** | The SDG indicator is based on data from the UN SDG database.92  The additional energy usage and access is based on data from the IEA World Energy Balances 2018.84  The energy access data is from the IEA energy access database.93  The data on household fuel use for cooking was provided by the WHO |
| **Caveats** | The data from the IEA on residential energy flows and energy access provide an indication of both the access to electricity and the proportion of the different types of energy used within the residential sector. These provide an important picture on how access and use might be interacting. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | This indicator provides a better representation of the fuel mix used by households for different demands (heating, cooling, cooking, hot water, lighting and other plug loads) for the mix of income groupings at the country level. Future work will be done to disaggregate and look at access among vulnerable communities. |

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| **Working group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.3: Air pollution, energy and transport |
| **Sub Indicator** | 3.3.1. Exposure to air pollution in cities |
| **Methods** | This indicator quantifies contributions of individual source sectors to ambient PM2.5 exposure in cities worldwide. Coal has been highlighted as a fuel across all sectors.  Estimates of sectoral source contributions to annual mean exposure to ambient PM2.5 were calculated using the GAINS model,94 which combines bottom-up emission calculations with atmospheric chemistry and dispersion coefficients.  Energy statistics are taken from the IEA World Energy Outlook 2017,95 merged with GAINS information on application of emission control technologies and their emission factors.  Atmospheric transfer coefficients are based on full year simulations with the EMEP Chemistry Transport Model96 at 0.5°×0.5° resolution using meteorology of 2015 and include a downscaling to capture sub-grid urban concentration gradients for approximately 5000 cities over 100,000 inhabitants globally.  Calculated ambient PM2.5 concentrations have been validated against in-situ observations from the latest version of the WHO’s Urban Ambient Air Pollution Database (2016 update),97 and other sources where available (e.g. Chinese statistical yearbook). Also, numbers compare well with the SHUE dataset presented in Lancet Countdown 2018.1  For technical reasons, there are three deviations in the aggregation of countries versus the WHO regions:  Sudan is included in the ‘African Region’ here, but belongs to WHO Eastern Mediterranean Region.  Somalia is included in the‘African Region’ here, but belongs to WHO Eastern Mediterranean Region.  Algeria is included in the ‘Eastern Mediterranean’ here, but belongs to WHO African Region. |
| **Caveats** | The indicator relies on model calculations.  Validation is only possible for a limited set of cities where observations are available. These are scarce particularly in low- and middle-income countries. |
| **Future development of indicator** | An ideal indicator would provide a marker of benefits for air quality and/or health that are directly attributable to climate change mitigation action, which requires scenario analysis. Going beyond coal, a more explicit quantification of effects of fossil-fuel versus non-fossil fuel based activities could be undertaken. |
| **Additional Information** | Figure 23: Source contributions to ambient PM2.5 levels in urban areas, by WHO region, for the year 2016 |

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| **Working group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.3 Air pollution, energy, and transport |
| **Sub Indicator** | 3.3.2. Premature mortality from ambient air pollution by sector |
| **Methods** | This indicator quantifies contributions of individual source sectors to ambient PM2.5 exposure and its health impacts. Coal has been highlighted as a fuel across all sectors.  Estimates of sectoral source contributions to annual mean exposure to ambient PM2.5 were calculated using the GAINS model,94 which combines bottom-up emission calculations with atmospheric chemistry and dispersion coefficients.  Energy statistics are taken from the IEA World Energy Outlook 2017,95 merged with GAINS information on application of emission control technologies and their emission factors.  Atmospheric transfer coefficients are based on full year simulations with the EMEP Chemistry Transport Model96 at 0.5°×0.5° resolution using meteorology of 2015 and include a downscaling to capture sub-grid urban concentration gradients for approximately 5000 cities globally. Calculations for Europe are described in detail by Kiesewetter et al. (2015).98 Calculated ambient PM2.5 concentrations have been validated against in-situ observations from the latest version of the WHO’s Urban Ambient Air Pollution Database (2016 update),97 and other sources where available (e.g. Chinese statistical yearbook).  Premature deaths from total ambient PM2.5 for regions other than Europe are calculated using the methodology of the WHO (2016) assessment on the burden of disease from ambient air pollution,99 which relies on disease specific integrated exposure response relationships (IERs) developed within the Global Burden of Disease 2015 study.100 Disease and age specific baseline mortality rates are taken from the GBD Results database.101 For Europe, this indicator follows the WHO Europe methodology and apply dose-response relationships for all-cause mortality among population over 30 years of age as reported under the REVIHAAP assessment.102 (WHO, 2013). Details are described in Kiesewetter et al. (2015).98  Attribution of estimated premature deaths from AAP to polluting sectors was done proportional to the contributions of individual sectors to population-weighted mean PM2.5 in each country.  PM2.5 concentrations for 2008 and 2016 were applied to a fixed 2015 population to estimate the differences in PM2.5 attributable mortality due to emission changes only.  For technical reasons, there are three deviations in the aggregation of countries compared with the WHO regions, as described for indicator 3.3.1. |
| **Caveats** | The indicator relies on model calculations which are currently available for a limited set of regions (Europe, South Asia, East Asia).  Uncertainty in the shape of integrated exposure-response relationships (IERs) make the quantification of health burden inherently uncertain.  Different dose-response relationships are used for Europe (REVIHAAP, recommended by WHO-Europe) and Asia (WHO-Global).  The non-linearity of the IERs used for non-European countries complicates the translation between the mortality burden attributed to an individual source, which is calculated proportional to the source contribution to ambient PM2.5, and the effect of mitigating this source. While a reduction of emissions would lead to a (roughly) proportional reduction of ambient PM2.5, this would not necessarily result in a proportional reduction of the health burden. In highly polluted environments, the health benefits of a marginal reduction of emissions would be disproportionately smaller than the relative change in concentrations. |
| **Future development of indicator** | Other health indicators than premature deaths should be included for a more complete assessment of the health burden, particularly Years of Life Lost (YLLs) and Years Lived with Disability (YLDs).  An ideal indicator would provide a marker of benefits for air quality and/or health that are directly attributable to climate change mitigation action, which requires scenario analysis. Going beyond coal, a more explicit quantification of effects of fossil-fuel versus non-fossil fuel based activities could be undertaken. |

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.4: Sustainable and healthy transport |
| **Methods** | This indicator contains two components:   1. Clean fuel use for transport; and 2. Cycling as a modal share of transport.   Fuel use data (by fuel type) from the IEA datasets are divided by corresponding population statistics from the World Bank.  Data on travel mode shares from the TEMS tool (see below) was cross-referenced with cities that have signed up to the Charter of Brussels, an initiative to encourages cities to target a 15% bicycle modal share by 2020. The tool contains data on approximately 500 cities with more than 100,000 inhabitants, most of which are in Europe. |
| **Data** | Data on cycling mode shares obtained from The EPOMM Modal Split (TEMS) tool, developed by the European Platform on Mobility Management.103  Fuel use data is based on data from the IEA (2016), Global EB Outlook 2016: Beyond one million electric cars.104 |
| **Caveats** | The TEMS data are estimates for broad mode types (car, public transport, bike, walk) for a limited number of cities only.  The data record mode shares as trips rather than distances travelled.  The data represent annual averages for a relatively limited number of years (the number of years of data varies between cities). |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | An ideal fuel use indicator would capture the direct health impacts of the use of transport fuels, with country- and urban-level specificity within the global coverage. In turn, the co-benefits of transitioning to less-polluting fuels would be quantified directly in terms of reduced exposures to air pollution and their corresponding health impact.  To more fully capture sustainable uptake a future indicator could collate information on the proportion of total distance travelled by different modes of transport based on comprehensive local survey data. Other data on sustainable travel infrastructure, for instance the presence of cycle schemes, would also be useful. |
| **Additional information** | Figure 38: Cycling mode shares (%) over time for six European cities that have signed up to the Charter of Brussels. Data obtained from The EPOMM Modal Split (TEMS) tool. |

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.5: Food, agriculture, and health |
| **Methods** | The following livestock are included:  Table 12: Livestock included for CO2e emissions estimate   |  |  | | --- | --- | | Ruminant | Non Ruminant | | Cattle, dairy  (FAO Item Code 960) | Chicken, broilers  (FAO Item Code 1053) | | Cattle, non-dairy  (FAO Item Code 961) | Chicken, layers  (FAO Item Code 1052) | | Buffaloes  (FAO Item Code 946) | Ducks  (FAO Item Code 1068) | | Goats  (FAO Item Code 1016) | Turkeys  (FAO Item Code 1079) | | Sheep  (FAO Item Code 976) | Swine, market  (FAO Item Code 1049) | |  | Swine, breeding  (FAO Item Code 1079) |   Emissions from enteric fermentation, manure management and manure left on pasture are obtained from Herrero et al (2013).105 This information is presented in tonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent (CO2e) per tropical livestock unit (tlu), which is converted to livestock head using the table below.  Table 13: Tonnes of CO2 per tlu. Data sourced from106   |  |  | | --- | --- | |  | Head per tlu | | Bovine (Buffalo, Cattle (dairy), Cattle  (non-dairy) | 1.43 | | Small Ruminants (Goats, Sheep) | 10 | | Poultry (Chicken, Turkey, Ducks) | 100 | | Swine | 5 |   The emissions per head are divided into world regions (as in the GLOBIOM model) and, for ruminants, livestock system. To convert to country values, a weighted average of the livestock numbers in all regions is taken.  To obtain the emissions from cut and grazed grasslands, the fertilizer applied to grassland and forage use efficiency from Chang et al (2016) is used.107  For Crops:  The emissions from fertilizer, rice cultivation and cultivation from organic land for maize, rice, wheat, soybean and other crops for the year 2000 are obtained from Carlson et al. (2017),108 which use IPCC methodology and a non-linear N2O emission model.  Data from the FAO for emissions from fertilizer, rice cultivation and cultivation from organic land was obtained from 2000-2016.106 The rate of increase/decrease for the years 2001-2016 in relation to 2000 are calculated. This rate is then applied to the data derived from Carlson et al. (2017)108 to obtain values from 2000-2016. |
| **Caveats** | For livestock, data on stock numbers has been abstracted from FAO database, however, some data is missing for some years, most notably Somalia (missing data 2000-2011) for non-dairy cattle. Data on grazing emissions from small islands is also missing.  The emission factors differ from FAO numbers:   * For livestock, this is due to calculation of emissions of enteric fermentation, manure management and manure left on pasture at Globiom region (n=29) and livestock system (n=8) level whereas the FAO use subcontinental (n=9) and climatic level (n=3).106 * For crops, this is due to the FAO assuming slightly higher synthetic N application, greater manure N inputs, and a linear emissions factor of 1%, in contrast to a mean of 0.77% used by the non-linear model of Carlson et al. (2017).108 |
| **Additional information** | The overall emissions from livestock has increased by 14% from 2000 to 2016. Enteric fermentation (67%) has the highest contribution to total livestock emissions, followed by manure management (17-18%), manure left on pasture (14%) and grassland fertilizer (1%) (Figure 32). The majority of the temporal increase in emissions is attributed to manure left on pasture, enteric fermentation and manure management which have increased by 17%, 15% and 12% respectively from 2000 to 2016, whereas the emissions from grassland fertilizer has only increased by 2%.  As ruminants emit methane via enteric fermentation they have the highest emissions of all livestock (93% of total). This is split between non-dairy cattle (62-65%), followed by dairy cattle (10-12%), goats and sheep (10-11%) and buffalo (8%). Emissions from non-ruminants are divided between pigs (5%) and poultry (1-2%). The largest increase in emissions from 2000 to 2016 was poultry (55%), followed by non-dairy cattle (27%), small ruminant (23%), buffalo (22%), pigs (10%) and non-dairy (10%).  The overall emissions from crops have increased by 10% from 2000 to 2016. Fertilizer (21-25%) has the lowest contribution to total crop emissions, followed by cultivation of organic soils (27–29%) and rice cultivation (47-50%) (Figure 33). The majority of the temporal increase in emissions is attributed to emissions from fertilizer, which have increased by 30% from 2000 to 2016, whereas the emissions from rice and organic soil cultivation have only increased by 3% and 9%, respectively.  As rice produces methane in addition to fertilizer application, it has the highest emissions of all crops (52–55% of total), followed by wheat (6-7%), maize (5%) and soybean (1%). The largest increase in emissions from 2000 to 2016 is attributed to wheat (20%), followed by maize (19%) and soybean (12%) whereas emissions from rice have only increased by 5%. The majority of the increases are due to fertilizer emissions which have increased by between 25 and 40% while emissions from cultivation of organic soils have only increased by between 0 and 2% for the named crops.    Figure 39: GHG emissions from livestock. a) Sources of total ruminant emissions; b) Sources of total non ruminant emissions; c) Total livestock emissions.    Figure 40: GHG emissions from crops. a) Total emissions of crops by emissions source. b) Total emissions of crops by crop type. |

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| **Working Group** | 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits |
| **Indicator** | 3.6: Healthcare sector emissions |
| **Methods** | This indicator is in the form of healthcare-associated GHG emissions per capita per year.  Results are calculated by assigning aggregate national health expenditures from WHO to final demand for ‘Health and Social Work’ in the WIOD or EXIOBASE MRIO models. Satellite environmental accounts are appended to each MRIO model, and GHG emissions are calculated using the standard Leontief inverse technique.  This method provides an aggregate GHG emissions result for all types of health care expenditures. It is possible to produce a disaggregated estimate that differentiates among expenditure categories, such as hospitals, research, public health, and so on, as has been done for other national-level studies and a recent international comparison.109-112 One method to do this would be to use expenditure accounts that are themselves already disaggregated. The OECD provides disaggregated health expenditures, but this data set is limited in its geographic coverage. In order to maintain a global scope, WHO expenditure data was preferred, with the trade-off of reduced sector resolution. A second method to create disaggregated results would be to use the supply-use data embedded in the MRIO models themselves to determine expenditures of each national ‘Health and Social work’ sector to all other sectors in the model, rather than relying on data that are independently reported to the WHO. This method has the advantage of high resolution but the disadvantage that Social Work expenditures would also be included, adding uncertainty to the results. A second disadvantage is that the WIOD and EXIOBASE only have full supply-use models for ~40 countries, which would again limit the geographic scope of the results. Other MRIO models such as EORA have higher granularity and covers 190 countries, but its environmental accounts only cover carbon dioxide and not the other GHGs.  Results for years after the MRIO model year are achieved through deflation of expenditure data. WIOD tables are in US dollars. For model years after 2011, WHO expenditure data in current US dollars is deflated to $2011 using the US consumer price index from the World Bank. EXIOBASE tables are in euro. For model years after 2007, WHO expenditure data in current US dollars is converted to current national currencies using current market exchange rates, deflated in national currencies to 2007 using consumer price indices from the World Bank, and converted to 2007€ using 2007 market exchange rates. |
| **Data** | Environmentally extended multi-region input-output tables:   * WIOD 2013 release with environmental accounts, latest model year 2011, latest emissions account year 2009, air emissions include CO2, CH4, N2O, NOx, SOx, CO, NMVOC, and NH3; * EXIOBASE version 2.2, latest model and emissions account year 2007, GHG emissions include CO2, CH4, N2O. This is not the most recent version of EXIOBASE, but was chosen as EXIOBASE 3.4 produced health care sector GHG emissions intensity results for the U.S. in 2011 that were less than half of those of the national USEEIO model developed by the USEPA, a discrepancy that could not be reconciled.   Per capita health expenditure data and health expenditure as % of national GDP is from the World Health Organization’s Global Health Expenditure Database.113 Population data is also from the WHO.114  Market exchange rates are from UN Statistics Division.115  Consumer price indices are from the World Bank.116 |
| **Caveats** | As only total health expenditure data are available from WHO, all expenditures are assigned to Final Demand, with no separation for investment.  MRIO models are retrospective and do not intrinsically account for changes in economic structure or emissions intensities (e.g., for electricity) that have occurred in the intervening period.  Results will not reflect individual health care systems’ power purchase agreements for renewable energy; nor are emissions of waste anaesthetic gases, as these are not currently reported consistently to national governments and are not considered in environmental accounts. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | This indicator could be updated with improved EE-MRIO models in future years. For example, the addition of non-CO2 GHGs to the EORA full model would enable global coverage with additional resolution of expenditures within the health care sector. |
| **Additional information** | This is the first year that results are being presented for this indicator.  Healthcare GHG emissions can be differentiated between those that occur domestically and those that occur in other countries. In the indictor results, countries also show wide variation in the location of healthcare GHG emissions, with the Russian Federation showing the highest proportion of emissions occurring domestically (88%) and Luxembourg showing the least (12%) (Figure 34).  Figure 41: Proportion of healthcare sector emissions of domestic origin. |

# Section 4: Economics and Finance

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and Finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.1: Economic Losses due to Climate-Related Events |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix.1 Munch Re NatCatSERVICE provided the data for this indicator.117 The NatCatSERVICE is a global database of natural catastrophe data. This has developed into one of the world’s most comprehensive databases for information on natural catastrophe loss events. Data suitable for systematic and analytical evaluation on a worldwide scale are available from 1980 onwards. For this paper, data from 1990 are presented in order to align with the base year against which GHG emission reduction targets are commonly set.  NatCatSERVICE collect a range of information for around 1,200 events each year. For this paper only data on direct economic loss (physical/tangible losses), insured losses (all paid-out insured physical/tangible losses) are used. Please refer to the online NatCatSERVICE Methodology document, which may be found online.118  The Table below illustrates the ‘peril classification’ provided by NatCatSERVICE. Perils classified as Meteorological, Hydrological and Climatological have been included in the analysis. Geophysical perils are excluded, due to their general independence from climate change.  Table 14: Peril classification as classified by NatCatSERVICE.118   |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | | **Family** | **Main Event** | **Sub-Peril** | | **Geophysical** | Earthquake  Volcanic Eruption  Mass Movement (Dry) | Earthquake (ground shaking)  Fire Following  Tsunami  Volcanic Eruption  Ash Cloud  Subsidence  Rockfall  Landslide (Dry) | | **Meteorological** | Tropical Storm  Extra-Tropical Storm  Convective Storm  Local Windstorm | Winter Storm (extra-tropical cyclone)  Hail Storm  Lightning  Tornado  Local Windstorm  Sand/dust storm  Blizzard/Snowstorm  Storm Surge | | **Hydrological** | Flood  Mass Movement (Wet) | General Flood  Flash Flood  Glacial Lake Outburst  Subsidence  Avalanche  Landslide (Wet) | | **Climatological** | Extreme Temperature  Drought  Wildfire | Heat Wave  Cold Wave/Frost  Extreme Winter Conditions  Wildfire  Drought |   Each natural catastrophe event recorded is assigned a direct economic loss, and where applicable, an insured loss. Where these are available, data is taken from official institutions, but where not, estimates are calculated. The process for estimation depends on what data is available. For example, if loss estimates from insurance market data is available, this data may be combined with data on insurance penetration and other event-specific information to estimate total economic losses. If only low-quality information is available, such as a description of the number of homes damaged or destroyed, assumptions on value and costs are made.  Loss values are presented in US$, or if initially expressed in local currency, converted to US$ using the market exchange rates at the end of the month when the event occurred. Once data was received from the NatCatSERVICE economic losses (insured and uninsured) were divided by annual GDP values for each income grouping, sourced from the World Bank Database.  Loss values for 1990-2016 were provided by MunichRe in US$2016 terms. GDP data taken from the World Bank Database were inflated to US$2016 terms to carry out the losses/$1000 GDP calculation. For 2017 onwards, data for both economic losses and GDP are sourced in current terms. For this paper, updated GDP values for 2016, 2017 and 2018 have been used. |
| **Data** | Table 15: Insured and uninsured losses from climate-related extreme events by WBG income group and year.   |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  |  | Number of Events | Insured Losses/$1000 GDP | Uninsured Losses/$1000 GDP | | 1990 | Low Income | 20 | $0.00 | $1.36 | | Lower-Middle | 90 | $0.00 | $2.51 | | Upper-Middle | 85 | $0.03 | $1.92 | | High Income | 217 | $0.72 | $0.96 | | 1991 | Low Income | 12 | $0.00 | $0.26 | | Lower-Middle | 75 | $0.26 | $7.37 | | Upper-Middle | 89 | $0.21 | $4.14 | | High Income | 158 | $0.65 | $0.74 | | 1992 | Low Income | 8 | $0.00 | $3.78 | | Lower-Middle | 86 | $0.00 | $4.63 | | Upper-Middle | 109 | $0.01 | $3.26 | | High Income | 187 | $1.34 | $1.28 | | 1993 | Low Income | 24 | $0.00 | $5.11 | | Lower-Middle | 118 | $0.00 | $14.71 | | Upper-Middle | 151 | $0.03 | $4.30 | | High Income | 203 | $0.52 | $1.49 | | 1994 | Low Income | 24 | $0.00 | $2.01 | | Lower-Middle | 106 | $0.00 | $2.96 | | Upper-Middle | 125 | $0.04 | $4.52 | | High Income | 203 | $0.31 | $0.81 | | 1995 | Low Income | 17 | $0.00 | $190.71 | | Lower-Middle | 104 | $0.06 | $2.92 | | Upper-Middle | 136 | $0.14 | $3.42 | | High Income | 209 | $0.53 | $0.60 | | 1996 | Low Income | 27 | $0.00 | $27.29 | | Lower-Middle | 99 | $0.04 | $4.52 | | Upper-Middle | 141 | $0.11 | $4.16 | | High Income | 202 | $0.47 | $0.78 | | 1997 | Low Income | 29 | $0.00 | $2.69 | | Lower-Middle | 83 | $0.01 | $2.82 | | Upper-Middle | 121 | $0.09 | $2.51 | | High Income | 186 | $0.21 | $0.77 | | 1998 | Low Income | 38 | $0.00 | $3.73 | | Lower-Middle | 111 | $0.66 | $18.36 | | Upper-Middle | 125 | $0.21 | $7.28 | | High Income | 227 | $0.69 | $1.11 | | 1999 | Low Income | 37 | $0.02 | $3.68 | | Lower-Middle | 109 | $0.13 | $3.68 | | Upper-Middle | 133 | $0.14 | $4.56 | | High Income | 212 | $0.99 | $0.92 | | 2000 | Low Income | 57 | $0.01 | $6.59 | | Lower-Middle | 122 | $0.03 | $4.89 | | Upper-Middle | 136 | $0.01 | $1.21 | | High Income | 204 | $0.37 | $0.76 | | 2001 | Low Income | 40 | $0.00 | $2.51 | | Lower-Middle | 116 | $0.00 | $1.41 | | Upper-Middle | 126 | $0.08 | $1.16 | | High Income | 182 | $0.42 | $0.39 | | 2002 | Low Income | 30 | $0.00 | $2.58 | | Lower-Middle | 111 | $0.29 | $2.19 | | Upper-Middle | 130 | $0.10 | $2.90 | | High Income | 180 | $0.61 | $1.42 | | 2003 | Low Income | 42 | $0.00 | $2.09 | | Lower-Middle | 107 | $0.00 | $0.76 | | Upper-Middle | 118 | $0.01 | $3.43 | | High Income | 182 | $0.56 | $0.89 | | 2004 | Low Income | 21 | $0.00 | $6.28 | | Lower-Middle | 84 | $0.00 | $3.68 | | Upper-Middle | 122 | $0.08 | $3.59 | | High Income | 197 | $1.20 | $1.18 | | 2005 | Low Income | 38 | $0.00 | $5.11 | | Lower-Middle | 117 | $0.47 | $4.05 | | Upper-Middle | 155 | $0.26 | $2.93 | | High Income | 197 | $2.51 | $2.47 | | 2006 | Low Income | 53 | $0.00 | $2.45 | | Lower-Middle | 149 | $0.20 | $4.69 | | Upper-Middle | 139 | $0.04 | $1.48 | | High Income | 265 | $0.39 | $0.43 | | 2007 | Low Income | 72 | $0.00 | $4.06 | | Lower-Middle | 182 | $0.19 | $4.55 | | Upper-Middle | 199 | $0.19 | $2.02 | | High Income | 234 | $0.50 | $0.49 | | 2008 | Low Income | 52 | $0.00 | $2.27 | | Lower-Middle | 131 | $0.00 | $2.50 | | Upper-Middle | 146 | $0.14 | $2.91 | | High Income | 195 | $0.88 | $0.84 | | 2009 | Low Income | 55 | $0.02 | $2.64 | | Lower-Middle | 169 | $0.13 | $2.46 | | Upper-Middle | 146 | $0.03 | $0.87 | | High Income | 218 | $0.48 | $0.48 | | 2010 | Low Income | 65 | $0.00 | $1.57 | | Lower-Middle | 177 | $0.04 | $3.38 | | Upper-Middle | 149 | $0.09 | $2.42 | | High Income | 234 | $0.59 | $0.50 | | 2011 | Low Income | 60 | $0.00 | $2.96 | | Lower-Middle | 147 | $0.01 | $1.59 | | Upper-Middle | 141 | $0.75 | $2.03 | | High Income | 220 | $1.04 | $0.77 | | 2012 | Low Income | 85 | $0.00 | $3.10 | | Lower-Middle | 184 | $0.11 | $1.13 | | Upper-Middle | 198 | $0.05 | $1.11 | | High Income | 252 | $1.23 | $1.26 | | 2013 | Low Income | 54 | $0.00 | $0.53 | | Lower-Middle | 159 | $0.31 | $3.03 | | Upper-Middle | 188 | $0.13 | $1.83 | | High Income | 234 | $0.61 | $0.62 | | 2014 | Low Income | 70 | $0.03 | $0.76 | | Lower-Middle | 176 | $0.13 | $2.37 | | Upper-Middle | 205 | $0.07 | $1.33 | | High Income | 275 | $0.56 | $0.41 | | 2015 | Low Income | 80 | $0.02 | $3.67 | | Lower-Middle | 244 | $0.28 | $2.29 | | Upper-Middle | 219 | $0.05 | $1.27 | | High Income | 288 | $0.61 | $0.47 | | 2016 | Low Income | 84 | $0.05 | $4.33 | | Lower-Middle | 221 | $0.06 | $1.19 | | Upper-Middle | 227 | $0.13 | $2.34 | | High Income | 265 | $0.75 | $0.66 | | 2017 | Low Income | 52 | $0.03 | $3.27 | | Lower-Middle | 197 | $0.02 | $1.21 | | Upper-Middle | 190 | $0.12 | $1.23 | | High Income | 273 | $2.54 | $3.03 | | 2018 | Low Income | 74 | $0.00 | $1.10 | | Lower-Middle | 281 | $0.07 | $2.02 | | Upper-Middle | 221 | $0.07 | $0.79 | | High Income | 255 | $1.39 | $1.02 | |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | An ideal form of this indicator would allow attribution of fatalities and economic losses to events induced by climate change. However, such attribution is unlikely to be feasible over the course of the Lancet Countdown. As such, it is not envisaged that this indicator will significantly alter. |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and Finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.2: Economic costs of air pollution |
| **Methods** | This indicator is based on estimates of total Years of Life Lost (YOLL) in each member state of the European Union, resulting from PM2.5 exposure from emissions anthropogenic sources, assuming consistent levels of emissions and subsequent population exposure to 2115, integrated across the lifetime of the population present in 2015.  The calculations are performed by the GAINS integrated assessment model (see Kiesewetter et al (2015) for a full description of the model and how YOLLs are estimated .98   * YOLLs are calculated based on the loss of life expectancy from all-cause mortality from ambient PM2.5 exposure resulting from anthropogenic sources, using dose-response relationships following the WHO Europe methodology,102 with population cohort exposure kept constant across lifetimes * Calculations are based on the population structure present in 2010, using data extracted from UN life tables. However, 2015 population numbers are used to calculate total YOLLs from the calculated reduction in life expectancies. * Increased health risk from PM2.5 exposure occurs once population cohorts reach 30 years old with younger cohorts only included once they reach this age, (maximum age = 100). Consequences for new additions to the population are not considered. * Energy production and consumption statistics are taken from the IEA Energy statistics are taken from the IEA World Energy Outlook 2017,95 merged with GAINS information on application of emission control technologies and their emission factors.   Total YLLs in each country and year are then multiplied by an estimated ‘Value of a Life Year’ (VLY), which is taken to be €50,000 for all countries, for all population cohorts, following the lower bound estimate suggested by Part III of the 2009 European Union Impact Assessment Guidelines.119 Average annual values are then calculated by dividing the product of this calculation by 100. |
| **Data** | Figure : Economic value of annual average Years of Life Lost due to PM2.5 exposure  Table 16: Total economic losses due to years of life lost from PM2.5 ambient air pollution by European country for 2015 and 2016.   |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | |  | **2015** | **2016** | | Austria | €1.88 billion | €1.84 billion | | Belgium | €3.49 billion | €3.35 billion | | Bulgaria | €2.06 billion | €2.03 billion | | Croatia | €1.38 billion | €1.33 billion | | Cyprus | €0.25 billion | €0.25 billion | | Czech Republic | €3.15 billion | €3.08 billion | | Denmark | €1.07 billion | €1.00 billion | | Estonia | €0.20 billion | €0.20 billion | | Finland | €0.75 billion | €0.74 billion | | France | €14.70 billion | €14.21 billion | | Germany | €19.68 billion | €19.04 billion | | Greece | €3.67 billion | €3.34 billion | | Hungary | €3.59 billion | €3.51 billion | | Ireland | €0.52 billion | €0.49 billion | | Italy | €21.18 billion | €20.20 billion | | Latvia | €0.42 billion | €0.41 billion | | Lithuania | €0.76 billion | €0.75 billion | | Luxembourg | €0.14 billion | €0.14 billion | | Malta | €0.08 billion | €0.07 billion | | Netherlands | €4.25 billion | €3.98 billion | | Poland | €15.66 billion | €15.47 billion | | Portugal | €2.01 billion | €1.91 billion | | Romania | €7.68 billion | €7.50 billion | | Slovakia | €1.48 billion | €1.44 billion | | Slovenia | €0.62 billion | €0.61 billion | | Spain | €10.55 billion | €10.05 billion | | Sweden | €1.05 billion | €1.00 billion | | United Kingdom | €11.52 billion | €10.63 billion | | **Total** | €133.76 billion | €128.55 billion | |
| **Caveats** | See Indicator 3.3.2, for caveats related to the calculation of reduced life expectancy.  There is relatively little literature attempting to estimate a VOLY, and with such literature that does exist largely focussing on European countries. The value employed by this indicator (€50,000) is the lower bound estimate suggested for use by the 2009 European Union Impact Assessment Guidelines, with the upper value set at €100,000. As such, it is possible that the values presented by this indicator are conservative, however given the relative lack of evidence and complexity in producing estimates for VOLYs, it is difficult to make such a conclusion with confidence. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | In future, this indicator will be developed to reflect the actual economic value of health consequences of annual changes in PM2.5 exposure, rather than of reduced life expectancy from assumed constancy of exposure across lifetimes. The indicator may also be expanded to cover areas outside the European Union. |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and Finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.3: Investing in a low-carbon economy |
| **Sub Indicator** | 4.3.1: Investment in new coal capacity |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix,1 however the IEA definition of investment has changed, as described below. The data on investment in new coal-fired electricity generation capacity is sourced from the annual IEA *World Energy Investment* publication.120  The revised approach from IEA considers ‘ongoing’ capital spending, with investment in a new plant spread evenly from the year new construction begins, to the year it becomes operational. Previously, data were presented as ‘overnight’ investment, in which all capital spending on a new plant is assigned to the year in which the plant became operational. |
| **Data** | Table 17: Annual investment in coal-fired capacity from 2006 to 2018 (an index score of 100 corresponds to 2006 levels).   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Year** | **Index (100 = 2006)** | | 2006 | 100 | | 2007 | 108 | | 2008 | 114 | | 2009 | 122 | | 2010 | 128 | | 2011 | 130 | | 2012 | 123 | | 2013 | 111 | | 2014 | 103 | | 2015 | 96 | | 2016 | 87 | | 2017 | 81 | | 2018 | 79 |   Due to updated methodology, values presented here differ from those presented in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report.1 A comparison of investment in new coal-fired electricity generation capacity using the new methodology compared with the old methodology is presented in Figure 33 of the report. |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and Finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.3: Investing in a low-carbon economy |
| **Sub indicator** | 4.3.2 Investments in zero-carbon energy and energy efficiency |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix,1 however the IEA definition of investment has changed, as described below. The data for this indicator is sourced from the annual IEA *World Energy Investment* publication.120 Four categories of investment are defined:   * **Renewables & Nuclear** – investment in all renewable and nuclear electricity generation, and renewable transport and heating (including biofuels and solar thermal heating) * **Energy Efficiency** – See below * **Electricity Networks** – investment in electricity transmission and distribution infrastructure, and battery storage * **Fossil Fuels** – including oil, gas and coal, upstream mining, drilling and pipeline infrastructure, and coal, gas and oil power and other fossil fuel-based energy generation capacity.   For most sectors, ‘investment’ is defined as ongoing capital spending on assets. For some sectors, such as power generation, this investment is spread out evenly from the year in which a new plant or upgrade of an existing one begins its construction to the year in which it becomes operational. For other sources, such as upstream oil and gas and liquefied natural gas (LNG) projects, investment reflects the capital spending incurred over time as production from a new source ramps up or to maintain output from an existing asset. This definition applies to (updated) 2017 and 2018 data, and differs from the definition previously employed by the IEA, in which investment was defined as overnight capital expenditure.  For energy efficiency, ‘investment’ is defined as incremental spending by companies, governments and individuals to acquire equipment that consumes less energy than that which they would otherwise have bought. This definition remains unchanged.  Other areas of expenditure, including operation and maintenance, research and development, financing costs, mergers and acquisitions or public markets transactions, are not included. Investment estimates are derived from IEA data for energy demand, supply and trade, and estimates of unit capacity costs, For more information, see IEA (2019).120 |
| **Data** | Values presented below are in US$2018, billion. 2017 values have been updated from those reported in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report,1 due to improved data.  Table 18: Annual energy investments in US$2018 billions.   |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | **2015** | **2016** | **2017** | **2018** | | Renewables & Nuclear | 367 | 381 | 380 | 377 | | Energy Efficiency | 232 | 233 | 239 | 240 | | Electricity Networks | 276 | 306 | 298 | 297 | | Fossil Fuels | 1,022 | 956 | 930 | 934 | | **Total** | **1,897** | **1,875** | **1,846** | **1,847** | |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Finance and Economics |
| **Indicator** | 4.3: Investing in a low-carbon economy |
| **Sub Indicator** | 4.3.3. Employment in renewable and fossil fuel energy industries |
| **Methods** | The data for this indicator is sourced from IRENA121 (renewables) and IBISWorld122,123 (fossil fuel extraction). Renewable industries included are:   * Large hydropower; * Solar heating/cooling; * Solar photovoltaic; * Wind energy; * Bioenergy; * Other technologies.   Bioenergy includes liquid biofuels, soil biomass and biogas. ‘Other technologies’ includes geothermal energy, ground-based heat pumps, concentrated solar power, municipal and industrial waste, and ocean energy. Fossil fuel extraction values include direct employment, whereas renewable energy jobs include direct and indirect employment (e.g. equipment manufacturing), except for large hydropower (direct employment only).  Due to an improvement in data collection and estimation methodology, employment values reported for fossil fuel extraction are in some years substantially higher than those reported in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report.1 Similarly, an improvement to the methodology for estimating hydropower has altered historic values for Hydropower (previously called ‘large’ hydropower), and Other Technologies (which previously included small hydropower). For the 2018 data, ‘Other Technologies’ now also includes employment related to ground-based heat pumps. |
| **Data** | Table 19: Employment in Renewable Energy and Fossil Fuel Extraction.   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | **Million Jobs** | | | | | | | |  | **2012** | **2013** | **2014** | **2015** | **2016** | **2017** | **2018** | | Hydropower | 1.66 | 2.21 | 2.04 | 2.16 | 2.06 | 1.99 | 2.05 | | Other Technologies | 0.22 | .023 | 0.19 | 0.2 | 0.24 | 0.16 | 0.18 | | Solar Heating/Cooling | 0.89 | 0.5 | 0.76 | 0.94 | 0.83 | 0.81 | 0.8 | | Wind Energy | 0.75 | 0.83 | 1.03 | 1.08 | 1.16 | 1.15 | 1.16 | | Bioenergy | 2.4 | 2.5 | 2.99 | 2.88 | 2.74 | 3.06 | 3.18 | | Solar Photovoltaic | 1.36 | 2.27 | 2.49 | 2.77 | 3.09 | 3.37 | 3.61 | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | Fossil Fuel Extraction | 12.13 | 12.45 | 12.71 | 12.6 | 12.57 | 12.61 | 12.87 | |
| **Caveats** | Fossil fuel extraction values include direct employment, whereas renewable energy jobs include direct and indirect employment (e.g. equipment manufacturing). |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.3: Investing in a low-carbon economy |
| **Sub Indicator** | 4.3.4: Funds divested from fossil fuels |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix.1 The data for this indicator are collected and provided by 350.org.124 They represent the total assets (or assets under management, AUM) for institutions that have publicly committed to divest in 2017 (for which data is available), with non-US$ values converted using the market exchange rate when the commitment was made, and thus do not directly represent the actual sums divested from fossil fuel companies. A company is committed to ‘divestment’ if it falls into any of the following five categories:   * **‘Fossil Free’ -** An institution or corporation that does not have any investments (direct ownership, shares, commingled mutual funds containing shares, corporate bonds) in fossil fuel companies (coal, oil, natural gas) and committed to avoid any fossil fuel investments in the future; * **‘Full’ - A**n institution or corporation that made a binding commitment to divest (direct ownership, shares, commingled mutual funds containing shares, corporate bonds) from any fossil fuel company (coal, oil, natural gas); * **‘Partial’ -** An institution or corporation that made a binding commitment to divest across asset classes from some fossil fuel companies (coal, oil, natural gas), or to divest from all fossil fuel companies (coal, oil, natural gas), but only in specific asset classes (e.g. direct investments, domestic equity); * **‘Coal and Tar Sands’ -** An institution or corporation that made a binding commitment to divest (direct ownership, shares, commingled mutual funds containing shares, corporate bonds) from any coal and tar sands companies; * **‘Coal only’ -** An institution or corporation that made a binding commitment to divest (direct ownership, shares, commingled mutual funds containing shares, corporate bonds) from any coal companies.   Seven organisations that were originally recorded as non-healthcare institutions have been considered as such for the purpose of this indicator (London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, The Royal College of General Practitioners, New Zealand Nurses Organisation, HESTA, HCF, Berliner Ärzteversorgung and Doctors for the Environment Australia). In addition, the Health Alliance on Climate Change has been removed from the data (as no explicit divestment commitment has been made). Divestment commitments by the American Medical Association, which divested in 2018, was not included in the data provided by 350.org, and was added separately. |
| **Data** | Due to confidentiality issues, the full dataset is not available for publication. However, interested readers may visit the 350.org website for further information. |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.4: Pricing greenhouse gas emissions from fossil fuels |
| **Indicator** | 4.4.1: Fossil fuel subsidies |
| **Methods** | The data for this indicator is taken from the IEA,125 and is calculated using the price-gap approach, for 42 mostly non-OECD countries (see data below). The ‘price-gap’ approach is the most commonly applied methodology for quantifying consumption subsidies. It compares average end-user prices paid by consumers with reference prices that correspond to the full cost of supply. The price gap is the amount by which an end-use price falls short of the reference price and its existence indicates the presence of a subsidy. Prices are presented in US$2018. Please refer to IEA (2019)125 for the original data and a further description of the calculation methodology.  Data for historic years have altered compared to the 2018 Lancet Countdown report1 due to improved information (including availability of data for 2008 and 2017). |

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| **Data** | Table 20: Global fossil fuel consumption subsidies 2008-2018.   |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **Year** | **Oil** | **Gas** | **Coal** | **Electricity** | **Total** | | 2008 | 342,193 | 137,311 | 2,124 | 173,892 | 655,521 | | 2009 | 156,187 | 98,364 | 2,491 | 130,521 | 387,563 | | 2010 | 189,297 | 104,919 | 2,726 | 140,919 | 437,862 | | 2011 | 248,485 | 95,964 | 3,689 | 144,301 | 492,439 | | 2012 | 283,478 | 121,938 | 3,347 | 144,512 | 553,274 | | 2013 | 279,148 | 109,455 | 1,808 | 128,354 | 518,764 | | 2014 | 248,175 | 95,739 | 1,200 | 120,316 | 465,430 | | 2015 | 136,807 | 74,998 | 1,577 | 104,074 | 317,456 | | 2016 | 102,455 | 49,576 | 2,263 | 122,061 | 276,356 | | 2017 | 142,849 | 56,983 | 2,944 | 115,974 | 318,751 | | 2018 | 181,654 | 98,543 | 3,382 | 145,102 | 428,681 |   Table 21: Fossil fuel consumption subsidies by country 2014-2015.   |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **Country** | **Product** | **2014** | **2015** | **2016** | | Algeria | Oil | 4,129.9 | 5,310.7 | 9,564.2 | | Electricity | 1,875.3 | 2,566.1 | 3,560.4 | | Gas | 1,588.5 | 2,132.0 | 3,956.0 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **7,593.7** | **10,008.8** | **17,080.5** | | Angola | Oil | 2.6 | 6.3 | 1,382.4 | | Electricity | 527.5 | 216.3 | 517.1 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **530.1** | **222.6** | **1,899.6** | | Argentina | Oil | 2,104.7 | 2,462.4 | 3,864.0 | | Electricity | 1,773.5 | 2,510.8 | 517.1 | | Gas | 502.3 | 491.1 | 1,716.4 | | Coal | 0.9 | 0.9 | 1.0 | | **Total** | **4,381.4** | **5,465.1** | **6,436.4** | | Azerbaijan | Oil | 269.2 | 731.9 | 786.1 | | Electricity | 688.5 | 748.3 | 913.8 | | Gas | 542.5 | 574.2 | 915.8 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,500.1** | **2,054.4** | **2,615.7** | | Bahrain | Oil | 172.6 | 273.6 | 324.3 | | Electricity | 1,070.0 | 1,149.4 | 107.0 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,242.6** | **1,423.1** | **431.3** | | Bangladesh | Oil | 4.5 | 7.4 | 21.5 | | Electricity | 403.2 | 594.2 | 1,119.9 | | Gas | 683.0 | 802.1 | 1,685.0 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,090.7** | **1,403.7** | **2,826.4** | | Bolivia | Oil | 628.7 | 816.4 | 1,263.3 | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | 49.6 | 64.7 | 155.4 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **678.3** | **881.1** | **1,418.8** | | Brunei | Oil | 104.3 | 181.0 | 217.0 | | Electricity | - | - | 23.5 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **104.3** | **181.0** | **240.4** | | China | Oil | 15,538.3 | 17,423.9 | 17,971.1 | | Electricity | 28,195.9 | 22,623.6 | 24,857.3 | | Gas | - | - | 1,611.6 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **43,734.3** | **40,047.5** | **44,440.0** | | Chinese Taipei | Oil | 116.6 | 139.3 | 9.5 | | Electricity | - | - | 328.2 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | 238.8 | 38.7 | | **Total** | **116.6** | **378.1** | **376.4** | | Colombia | Oil | 802.1 | 671.0 | 832.5 | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **802.1** | **671.0** | **832.5** | | Ecuador | Oil | 1,464.5 | 2,371.6 | 3,434.7 | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | - | - | 0.5 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,464.5** | **2,371.6** | **3,435.2** | | Egypt | Oil | 4,349.7 | 10,732.8 | 12,222.4 | | Electricity | 3,443.0 | 8,131.4 | 12,137.4 | | Gas | 129.4 | 560.7 | 2,310.6 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **7,922.1** | **19,424.8** | **26,670.4** | | El Salvador | Oil | 12.9 | 21.5 | 25.7 | | Electricity | 245.0 | 345.3 | 412.5 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **257.9** | **366.8** | **438.3** | | Gabon | Oil | 141.2 | 129.9 | 121.3 | | Electricity | - | - | 0.9 | | Gas | 0.6 | 0.7 | 0.8 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **141.9** | **130.5** | **123.0** | | Ghana | Oil | 28.6 | 109.8 | 164.4 | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | 0.8 | 5.1 | 6.7 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **29.4** | **114.9** | **171.1** | | India | Oil | 11,118.0 | 13,002.7 | 17,339.2 | | Electricity | 2,613.7 | - | 4,351.2 | | Gas | 1,307.6 | 1,489.8 | 3,679.3 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **15,039.4** | **14,492.5** | **25,369.6** | | Indonesia | Oil | 6,728.6 | 13,449.5 | 24,014.5 | | Electricity | 11,549.4 | 5,386.9 | 7,329.9 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **18,278.0** | **18,836.4** | **31,344.4** | | Iraq | Oil | 3,246.6 | 5,144.2 | 6,432.6 | | Electricity | 2,114.2 | 1,988.3 | 2,060.1 | | Gas | 326.0 | 548.0 | 702.5 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **5,686.9** | **7,680.5** | **9,195.3** | | Iran | Oil | 10,735.6 | 16,347.6 | 26,575.6 | | Electricity | 4,963.0 | 14,418.9 | 16,587.0 | | Gas | 15,480.6 | 17,895.0 | 26,044.4 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **31,179.2** | **48,661.6** | **69,207.1** | | Kazakhstan | Oil | 1,843.6 | 1,921.3 | 3,187.6 | | Electricity | 722.3 | 791.8 | 1,429.5 | | Gas | 302.6 | 331.2 | 597.7 | | Coal | 1,994.6 | 2,389.7 | 2,891.1 | | **Total** | **4,863.1** | **5,434.0** | **8,106.0** | | Korea | Oil | - | - | - | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | 163.1 | 127.6 | 82.8 | | **Total** | **163.1** | **127.6** | **82.8** | | Kuwait | Oil | 1,286.1 | 1,398.2 | 1,743.4 | | Electricity | 4,325.0 | 4,113.2 | 3,739.8 | | Gas | 1,280.8 | 1,382.6 | 1,976.7 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **6,891.9** | **6,894.0** | **7,459.9** | | Libya | Oil | 3,340.8 | 3,959.3 | 4,079.8 | | Electricity | 421.6 | 484.8 | 601.3 | | Gas | 6.8 | 10.9 | 16.8 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **3,769.3** | **4,454.9** | **4,697.9** | | Malaysia | Oil | 1,553.3 | 2,085.0 | 1,911.4 | | Electricity | - | - | 384.9 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,553.3** | **2,085.0** | **2,296.3** | | Mexico | Oil | 738.9 | 63.4 | 60.2 | | Electricity | 10,093.4 | 11,685.2 | 13,502.1 | | Gas | - | - | 42.8 | | Coal | - | - | 51.6 | | **Total** | **10,832.3** | **11,748.7** | **13,656.7** | | Nigeria | Oil | 54.5 | 885.1 | 2,467.5 | | Electricity | - | 76.7 | 411.5 | | Gas | - | - | 20.0 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **54.5** | **961.9** | **2,899.0** | | Oman | Oil | 118.2 | 128.1 | 122.3 | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **118.2** | **128.1** | **122.3** | | Pakistan | Oil | 94.9 | 109.4 | 128.5 | | Electricity | 288.2 | 1,824.3 | - | | Gas | 1,324.1 | 1,537.2 | 3,263.2 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,707.3** | **3,470.9** | **3,391.7** | | Qatar | Oil | 308.3 | 439.5 | 325.8 | | Electricity | 677.4 | 670.7 | 973.0 | | Gas | 340.7 | 540.0 | 881.8 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,326.4** | **1,650.2** | **2,180.6** | | Russia | Oil | - | - | - | | Electricity | 21,641.1 | 9,441.8 | 14,333.7 | | Gas | 11,727.4 | 11,807.9 | 22,897.1 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **33,368.5** | **21,249.7** | **37,230.8** | | Saudi Arabia | Oil | 24,164.6 | 29,052.0 | 25,755.8 | | Electricity | 10,700.9 | 10,975.0 | 12,793.0 | | Gas | 4,081.1 | 4,577.6 | 6,175.3 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **38,946.6** | **44,604.6** | **44,724.1** | | South Africa | Oil | - | - | - | | Electricity | 6,014.2 | 5,324.3 | 4,157.9 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **6,014.2** | **5,324.3** | **4,157.9** | | Sri Lanka | Oil | 74.6 | 189.7 | 205.6 | | Electricity | - | 5.2 | 166.4 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **74.6** | **194.9** | **372.1** | | Thailand | Oil | 550.8 | 863.9 | 977.5 | | Electricity | - | - | - | | Gas | - | - | 294.3 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **550.8** | **863.9** | **1,271.8** | | Trinidad and Tobago | Oil | 406.2 | 453.0 | 516.0 | | Electricity | 203.6 | 210.0 | 334.4 | | Gas | - | - | - | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **609.8** | **663.0** | **850.4** | | Turkmenistan | Oil | 1,038.9 | 1,519.4 | 1,320.2 | | Electricity | 898.5 | 306.6 | 351.0 | | Gas | 1,924.6 | 2,272.2 | 3,058.6 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **3,862.0** | **4,098.2** | **4,729.8** | | Ukraine | Oil | - | - | - | | Electricity | 2,460.4 | 2,130.9 | 3,201.7 | | Gas | - | - | 1,020.7 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **2,460.4** | **2,130.9** | **4,222.4** | | UAE | Oil | 414.2 | 500.6 | 196.1 | | Electricity | 1,791.0 | 1,582.4 | 2,788.7 | | Gas | 5,962.9 | 6,338.6 | 8,688.4 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **8,168.1** | **8,421.6** | **11,673.3** | | Uzbekistan | Oil | 19.8 | 109.8 | 443.8 | | Electricity | 274.3 | 1,005.2 | 1,942.9 | | Gas | 1,374.1 | 2,383.3 | 4,529.5 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **1,668.2** | **3,498.4** | **6,916.3** | | Venezuela | Oil | 4,744.8 | 9,554.0 | 11,682.2 | | Electricity | 2,086.7 | 4,666.8 | 6,512.3 | | Gas | 640.5 | 1,238.3 | 2,258.7 | | Coal | - | - | - | | **Total** | **7,472.1** | **15,459.1** | **20,453.1** | | Vietnam | Oil | 2.7 | 283.4 | 0.4 | | Electricity | - | - | 259.2 | | Gas | - | - | 36.2 | | Coal | 104.8 | 187.3 | 316.5 | | **Total** | **107.5** | **470.7** | **612.3** | |
| **Caveats** | Fossil fuel production subsidies and consumption subsidies for most OECD countries are not included, due to the lack of consistent data. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | An ideal future form of this indicator would have two key elements. The first element would be the consistent inclusion of production and consumption subsidies for all countries, available on an annual basis. The second element would be the use of this data, along with that of carbon pricing data (see Indicator 4.4.2), to create a ‘net carbon price’ indicator. The future practicality of this indicator will depend on the availability of data at the appropriate level of granularity. |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.4: Pricing greenhouse gas emissions from fossil fuels |
| **Sub Indicator** | 4.4.2: Coverage and strength of carbon pricing |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix.1 The World Bank provides the data for this indicator, through the interactive Carbon Pricing Dashboard.126 Prices are those as of 1st August 2016, 1st December 2017, and 1st April 2018, and 1st April 2019, respectively. For 2019, the indicator includes only instruments that had been introduced by 1st April 2019. Baseline-and-credit systems are excluded from the analysis. GHG coverage data is presented as a proportion of 2012 global anthropogenic GHG emissions (53, 937 MTCO2e) as calculated by EDGAR (Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research).127 Monetary values are presented in US$, in current prices. Here data is presented for 2018 and 2019. See the 2018 Lancet Countdown report for 2017 data.1 |

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| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Data** | Table 22: Emissions covered and percentage of global emissions covered by carbon pricing mechanisms in 2018 and 2019.   |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | **2018** | | | **2019** | | | | **Instrument** | **Emissions Covered (MtCO2e)** | **% Global Emissions Covered** | **US$ Price (1st April 2018)** | **Emissions Covered (MtCO2e)** | **% Global Emissions Covered** | **US$ Price (1st April 2019)** | | Alberta SGER | 119.66 | 0.22% | 23.25 | 124.80 | 0.22% | 22.49 | | Alberta carbon tax | 109.20 | 0.20% | 23.25 | 109.20 | 0.20% | 22.49 | | Argentina carbon tax | - | - | - | 79.25 | 0.15% | 6.24 | | BC carbon tax | 42.07 | 0.08% | 27.13 | 42.70 | 0.08% | 26.24 | | Beijing pilot ETS | 84.65 | 0.16% | 9.44 | 84.65 | 0.16% | 11.19 | | California CaT | 377.69 | 0.69% | 15.1 | 377.69 | 0.69% | 15.77 | | Canada federal fuel charge | - | - | - | 179.73 |  | 15.00 | | Chile carbon tax | 46.67 | 0.09% | 5 | 46.67 | 0.09% | 5.00 | | Chongqing pilot ETS | 97.24 | 0.18% | 3.82 | 97.24 | 0.18% | 0.55 | | Colombia carbon tax | 41.62 | 0.08% | 5.67 | 41.62 | 0.08% | 5.17 | | Denmark carbon tax | 21.59 | 0.04% | 28.82 | 21.59 | 0.04% | 26.39 | | EU ETS | 2131.84 | 3.92% | 16.37 | 2131.84 | 3.92% | 24.54 | | Estonia carbon tax | 0.76 | 0.00% | 2.48 | 0.76 | 0.00% | 2.25 | | Finland carbon tax | 25.09 | 0.05% | 76.87 | 25.09 | 0.05% | 69.66 | | France carbon tax | 175.63 | 0.32% | 55.3 | 175.63 | 0.32% | 50.11 | | Fujian pilot ETS | 200.00 | 0.37% | 3.18 | 200.00 | 0.37% | 1.52 | | Guangdong pilot ETS | 366.30 | 0.67% | 2.32 | 366.30 | 0.67% | 2.92 | | Hubei pilot ETS | 162.09 | 0.30% | 2.32 | 162.09 | 0.30% | 4.13 | | Iceland carbon tax | 1.59 | 0.00% | 35.71 | 1.59 | 0.00% | 31.34 | | Ireland carbon tax | 30.79 | 0.06% | 24.8 | 30.79 | 0.06% | 22.47 | | Japan carbon tax | 999.43 | 1.84% | 2.74 | 999.43 | 1.84% | 2.60 | | Korea ETS | 452.91 | 0.83% | 20.52 | 468.29 | 0.86% | 22.45 | | Latvia carbon tax | 2.06 | 0.00% | 5.58 | 2.06 | 0.00% | 5.06 | | Liechtenstein carbon tax | 0.06 | 0.00% | 100.9 | 0.06 | 0.00% | 96.46 | | Mexico carbon tax | 307.33 | 0.56% | 3.01 | 307.33 | 0.56% | 2.99 | | New Zealand ETS | 39.85 | 0.07% | 15.22 | 39.85 | 0.07% | 17.06 | | Norway carbon tax | 39.56 | 0.07% | 64.29 | 39.56 | 0.07% | 59.22 | | Ontario CaT | 136.86 | 0.25% | 15.1 | - | - | - | | Poland carbon tax | 15.54 | 0.03% | 0.09 | 15.54 | 0.03% | 0.08 | | Portugal carbon tax | 20.80 | 0.04% | 8.49 | 20.80 | 0.04% | 14.31 | | Quebec CaT | 66.56 | 0.12% | 15.1 | 68.85 | 0.12% | 15.77 | | RGGI | 83.96 | 0.15% | 4.3 | 80.28 | 0.15% | 4.89 | | Saitama ETS | 7.03 | 0.01% | 5.69 | 7.91 | 0.01% | 5.85 | | Shanghai pilot ETS | 169.69 | 0.31% | 6.21 | 169.69 | 0.31% | 4.48 | | Shenzhen pilot ETS | 61.20 | 0.11% | 6.73 | 61.20 | 0.11% | 0.55 | | Singapore carbon tax | - | - | - | 42.02 | 0.08% | 3.69 | | Slovenia carbon tax | 4.96 | 0.01% | 21.45 | 4.96 | 0.01% | 19.44 | | Spain carbon tax | 9.02 | 0.02% | 24.8 | 9.02 | 0.02% | 16.85 | | Sweden carbon tax | 26.14 | 0.05% | 139.11 | 26.14 | 0.05% | 126.78 | | Switzerland ETS | 5.95 | 0.01% | 7.88 | 17.98 | 0.03% | 96.46 | | Switzerland carbon tax | 17.98 | 0.03% | 100.9 | 5.95 | 0.01% | 5.17 | | Tianjin pilot ETS | 118.25 | 0.22% | 1.35 | 118.25 | 0.22% | 2.08 | | Tokyo CaT | 13.92 | 0.03% | 5.69 | 13.92 | 0.03% | 5.85 | | UK carbon price floor | 136.45 | 0.25% | 25.46 | 136.45 | 0.25% | 23.59 | | Ukraine carbon tax | 287.01 | 0.53% | 0.02 | 287.01 | 0.53% | 0.37 | |
| **Caveats** | Instrument coverage of GHG emissions, in both absolute and proportional term, are based on total anthropogenic GHG emissions in 2012 – the last year in which consistent data was available. ‘Baseline and Credit’ instruments are not included due to a lack of price data. Some instruments experience an overlap in coverage. For example, the UK Carbon Price Floor applies to the power sector in the UK, which is also subject to carbon pricing under the EU ETS. Other instruments experience partial overlap. As such, total emissions coverage is likely to be overestimated (*ceteris paribus*), although this effect is likely to be minor (<2.5% total coverage). The price used to calculate the weighted average prices are the prevailing prices on a single day. The prices for many instruments (particularly ETS instruments) are likely to alter over the course of a year, however the effect on the final summary values is likely to be minor. Prices are presented in current values. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | As with Indicator 4.4.1, an ideal future form of this indicator would have two key elements. The first element would be the consistent inclusion of production and consumption subsidies for all countries, available on an annual basis. The second element would be the use of this data, along with that of carbon pricing data (see Indicator 4.4.2), to create a ‘net carbon price’ indicator. The future practicality of this indicator will depend on the availability of data at the appropriate level of granularity. |

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| **Working Group** | 4: Economics and finance |
| **Indicator** | 4.4: Pricing greenhouse gas emissions from fossil fuels |
| **Sub Indicator** | 4.4.3: Use of carbon pricing revenues |
| **Methods** | The methodology for this indicator remains the same as described in the 2018 Lancet Countdown report appendix.1 Data on revenue generated is provided by the World Bank’s interactive ‘Carbon Pricing Dashboard’.126  The method of revenue expenditure classification is adapted from Carl and Fedor (2016).128 Definitions and assumptions regarding the categories as applied in this paper are as follows:   * **Climate Change Mitigation** – revenues are explicitly allocated to activities or infrastructure that seeks to reduce, or enable the reduction, of greenhouse gas emissions, from any source, within or outside of the sectors or jurisdiction in which the carbon price is applied; * **Climate Change Adaptation** – as above, but for adaptation activities or infrastructure; * **Revenue Recycling** – revenues are explicitly returned to some broad portion of the population through individual or business tax rate cuts, tax eliminations, or rebates in order to achieve broad revenue neutrality. Revenue returned to directly compensate for the cost of GHG emissions (through free permit allocation or targeted assistance for energy-intensive, trade-exposed firms) are not included); * **General Funds** – revenues are explicitly used for purposes other than those described above, or the use of revenues is unspecified or information is unavailable.   Only revenue that may be considered government income is included. For example, revenue generated by sale of permits issued to utilities under the Californian cap and trade instrument, which much then be used to finance discounts on household energy bills through ‘carbon credits’, are not considered, as this revenue does not pass through the State government. Instruments for which price data is not available, either due to the type of instrument or simply lack of data, are not included.  Other assumptions as applied to individual instruments are noted in the table below. |
| **Data** | |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  |  |  | **Revenue Allocation (US$2018 million)** | | | |  | |  | **Revenue (US$2018 million)** |  | **Mitigation** | **Adaptation** | **Revenue Recycling** | **General Funds** | **Note** | | Alberta SGER | 340 | % | 41.3% | 0.0% | 57.3% | 1.5% | (3) | | $ | $140.6 | $0.0 | $195.0 | $5.0 | | Alberta Carbon Tax | 1,013 | % | 49.1% | 0.0% | 43.0% | 7.9% | (13) | | $ | $497.4 | $0.0 | $435.6 | $80.0 | | Argentina Carbon Tax | 200 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $200.2 | | BC Carbon Tax | 1,056 | % | 0% | 0% | 100% | 0% | (4) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $1,056.3 | $0.0 | | California ETS | 3,020 | % | 96.4% | 3.6% | 0.0% | 0.0% | (5) | | $ | $2,910.0 | $110.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | | Chile Carbon Tax | 165 | % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 100% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $165.5 | | Colombia Carbon Tax | 93 | % | 0.0% | 100.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | (6) | | $ | $0.0 | $92.6 | $0.0 | $0.0 | | Denmark Carbon Tax | 543 | % | 0% | 0% | 50% | 50% | (2) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $271.7 | $271.7 | | Estonia Carbon Tax | 3 | % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 100% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $2.8 | | EU ETS | 15,948 | % | 85.4% | 0.3% | 0.0% | 14.2% | (7) | | $ | $13,625.2 | $55.8 | $0.0 | $2,267.2 | | Finland Carbon Tax | 1,459 | % | 0% | 0% | 50% | 50% | (2) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $729.3 | $729.3 | | France Carbon Tax | 8,142 | % | 38.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 62.0% | (2) | | $ | $3,094 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $5,048.1 | | Iceland Carbon Tax | 44 | % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 100% | (2) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $44.0 | | Ireland Carbon Tax | 489 | % | 13.7% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 86.3% | (2) | | $ | $66.7 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $422.0 | | Japan Carbon Tax | 2,361 | % | 100% | 0% | 0% | 0% | (2) | | $ | $2,361.4 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | | Korea ETS | 92 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (14) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $92.3 | | Latvia Carbon Tax | 9 | % | 0% | 0% | 0% | 100% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $9.1 | | Lichtenstein Carbon Tax | 4 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $4.0 | | Mexico Carbon Tax | 306 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (12) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $306.0 | | New Zealand | 0 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.4 | | Norway Carbon Tax | 1,644 | % | 30.0% | 0.0% | 30.0% | 40.0% | (2) | | $ | $493.1 | $0.0 | $493.1 | $657.5 | | $ | $1,491.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | | Poland Carbon Tax | 1 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $1.2 | | Portugal Carbon Tax | 155 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | 0.0% | (8) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $154.9 | $0.0 | | Quebec ETS | 642 | % | 96.5% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 3.5% | (9) | | $ | $619.5 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $22.5 | | RGGI | 239 | % | 83.6% | 0.0% | 11.0% | 5.4% | (10) | | $ | $200.1 | $0.0 | $26.3 | $12.9 | | Shanghai Pilot ETS | 2 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $1.9 | | Slovenia Carbon Tax | 83 | % | 33.3% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 66.7% | (2) | | $ | $27.7 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $55.4 | | Spain Carbon Tax | 124 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $123.6 | | Sweden Carbon Tax | 2,572 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 50.0% | 50.0% | (2) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $1,286.2 | $1,286.2 | | Switzerland Carbon Tax | 1,178 | % | 27.6% | 0.0% | 72.4% | 0.0% | (2) | | $ | $325.0 | $0.0 | $852.7 | $0.0 | | Switzerland ETS | **4** | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (15) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $4.4 | | UK Carbon Price Floor | 1,091 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (11) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $1,091.0 | | Ukraine Carbon Tax | 4 | % | 0.0% | 0.0% | 0.0% | 100.0% | (1) | | $ | $0.0 | $0.0 | $0.0 | $4.0 |  1. No data available. 2. Carl and Fedor (2016).128 Assumed no change. 3. From Jan 2017, a small business tax cut was introduced to help business adjust to the levy, estimated at $195 million in 2018/19 (and assumed the same for 2017). All other revenue allocated in 2016/17 went to mitigation, except for CAN$6 million operating costs (US$5 million).129,130 4. See 2017 Lancet Countdown Report.131 Assumed no change. 5. Data soured from Table ES-1 in CCI (2019).132 6. ‘Revenue raised is earmarked for the Colombia in Peace Fund to support ecosystem protection and coastal erosion management’.133 7. Based on Figure 5 in Velten et al (2016)134 (assume proportions of spending remain the same). Assume 'cross-cutting action', 'Other' and 'non-specified' are 50% mitigation, 50% adaptation. All 'non-climate' spending is assumed to go to general funds. 8. Pereira *et al* (2015).135 9. All programs funded thus far are mitigation-related.136 CAN$29 million (US$22.5 million) operating costs. No new values for 2018, so assumed these values remained constant 10. Assumed same as distribution in 2016.137 11. Hirst, D. (2018)*.*138 12. Narassimham *et al* (2017).139 13. Graney & French (2019).140 14. Specific rules on use of revenues are yet to be decided.141 15. Revenues from auctioning allowances are fed into the federal government budget.142 |

# Section 5: Public and Political Engagement

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| **Working Group** | 5: Public and Political Engagement |
| **Indicator** | 5.1: Media engagement in health and climate change |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 5.1.1: Trends in global media coverage of health and climate change |
| **Methods** | Intersecting trends in coverage of climate change and health were identified in 62 selected newspaper sources from January 2007 through December 2018. The 62 sources are located 36 countries spanning six World Health Organization (WHO) regions around the world: African Region, Region of the Americas, South-East Asia Region, European Region, Eastern Mediterranean Region, and Western Pacific Region. These sources were monitored through Nexis Uni, Proquest and Factiva databases accessed via the University of Colorado libraries. The searches were conducted with the following key words in English, Spanish, Portuguese and German respectively:   * ENGLISH: malaria or diarrhoea or infection or disease or sars or measles or pneumonia or epidemic or pandemic or public health or healthcare or epidemiology or health care or health or mortality or morbidity or nutrition or illness or infectious or NCD or non-communicable disease or communicable disease or air pollution or nutrition or malnutrition or mental disorder or stunting AND climate change or global warming or green house or extreme weather or global environmental change or climate variability or greenhouse or low carbon or ghge or renewable energy or carbon emissions or co2 emissions or climate pollutants * SPANISH: malaria or diarrea or infección or enfermedad or sars or sarampión or neumonía or epidemia or pandemia or salud pública or epidemiología or salud or mortalidad or morbilidad or nutrición or enfermedad or enfermedad infecciosa or NCD or no transmisible or enfermedad contagiosa or transmisible or contaminación del aire or nutrición or desnutrición or trastorno mental or retraso del crecimiento AND cambio climático or calentamiento global or clima extremo or cambio ambiental global or variabilidad climática or invernadero or bajo carbono or ghge or energía renovable or emisiones de carbono or emisiones de CO2 or contaminantes climáticos * PORTUGUESE: malária or diarréia or infecção or doença or sars or sarampo or pneumonia or epidemia or pandemia or saúde pública or saúde or epidemiologia or mortalidade or morbidade or nutrição or doença or doença infecciosa or NCD or doença não transmissível or doença contagiosa ou transmissível or poluição do ar or nutrição or desnutrição or transtorno mental or retardo de crescimento AND mudanças climáticas or aquecimento global or clima extremo or mudança ambiental global or variabilidade climática or estufa or baixo carbono or GEE or energia renovável or emissões de carbono or emissões de CO2 or poluentes climáticos * GERMAN: malaria or durchfallerkrankung or infektion or erkrankung or SARS or masern or lungenentzündung or epidemisch or pandemisch or gesundheitswesen or gesundheitsvorsorge or epidemiologie or gesundheit or sterblichkeit or krankhaftigkeit or ernährung or krankheit or infektiös or nicht-übertragbare krankheit or übertragbare krankheit or luftverschmutzung or ernährung or mangelernährung or mentale störung or kleinwuchs AND klimawandel or globale erwärmung or treibhaus or extremwetter or globale umweltveränderungen or klimavariabilität or wenig kohlenstoff or erneuerbare energie or kohlenstoffemissionen or CO2 emissionen or klimaschadstoffe   Updated verification checks were performed to improve the search signal, by analysing whether the search string should be modified (without significantly jeopardizing internal validity) in order to reduce ‘false positives’ (it was noted that in the 2017 and 2018 Lancet Countdown reports,1,131 returns were found to not centrally address climate change and health together). After considerable deliberation and discussion, for the 2019 report the full search set was recoded for 2017-2018, removing the search term ‘temperature’. This improvement was made because it was through comparative analyses that this term often generated an additional hit, but articles were addressing a fever related to some illness, rather than climate change or global warming. Additional false positives were also identified through verification checks, comparing search functions across the databases. It was found that different databases ran the same search string differently. Therefore, search string grammar was revised such that all databases would use the same criteria with which to perform the search and return articles. This eliminated a significant portion of articles which did not address or mention health and climate change together.  Additional verification checks were also performed to generate adjustment factors and to attempt to gain some insight into the rates and types of false positives remaining in the data. Due to the size and scope of the dataset, a full manual search is not possible. Therefore, these checks were performed by taking a systematic random sample of articles from each year, from a selection of newspapers within each region. The adjustment factors were generated to take into account the rates of complete mis-identification of articles based on the sample analysed; for example, a common mis-hit is where an article discusses growing plants in a ‘greenhouse’ and also discusses plant ‘diseases.’ The adjustments factors were then applied at the WHO regional level. Analysis found different rates of these types of mis-hits for each region as follows: Africa 19%, Americas 31%, Southeast Asia 28%, Europe 39%, Eastern Mediterranean 14%, Western Pacific 43%. These rates are preliminary and future work will include continuing to revise and refine these adjustment factors.  Due to the use of these adjustment factors and the revised search methods, the 2019 Lancet Countdown report provides a more robust assessment of climate change/global warming and public health indicators. |
| **Data** | findings from 62 sources in 36 countries around the world over 12 years, from January 2007 through December 2018 |
| **Caveats** | As noted above, the MeCCO team improved the search and generated adjustment factors in order to reduce noise in search returns. This has reduced the chances of incorrectly identifying conjoint references to health and climate change in newspaper articles. This has confronted caveats articulated in previous reports1,131 and has strengthened this monitoring validity in the 2019 Lancet Countdown report.  Nonetheless, by continuing to monitor newspapers around the world (rather than, for example, television or radio) the explanatory power across all ‘media coverage’ remains limited.  There also remain concerns with the degree to which the databases return hits of duplicate articles which are not warranted (i.e. are not actually the same article reproduced elsewhere but rather are simply two entries in the database for a single article) and with the degree to which the articles are engaging with health and climate change as integrated issues of concern. The analysis examining false positives revealed high variability in the occurrence of duplicate articles across time and newspapers and as such was not included in the adjustment factors.  The analysis also indicated that a significant portion of articles, anywhere between 40-60% across regions, may mention both climate change and health but do not deeply engage with them as integrated issues. However, tracking this coverage remains informative because it gives an idea of how comparable the issues are on the public agenda and in public awareness; as such, and due to the very high variability across newspapers, it is not included in the adjustment factors. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Possible further expansion into television and radio, pending data availability. The precision of this indicator will continue to be improved. |
| **Additional information** | Coverage of climate change and public health tracks relatively consistently with several trends in media coverage of climate change or global warming more generally, where political, scientific, cultural, ecological and meteorological themes provide news hooks for stories over time (Figure 35).  Coverage of total articles has gone up 39% overall across all regions from 2015-2018 compared to 2011-2014. With some monthly upticks associated with the particularly high-profile United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) Conferences of Parties (COPs), climate change negotiations in 2009 and 2015, this data indicate a gradual trend toward more sustained attention to climate change and public health in the public arena over time.  \\hscifs6\usershomedir$\hmg501\Desktop\Lancet 2019 report\Max\revised docs for 2919\MeCCO-Lancet fig 2019 comparison.jpg  Figure 42: Newspaper reporting on health and climate change (applying adjustment factors that account for rates at which the search terms mis-identify articles), and climate change more generally (for 62 newspapers) in 2007-18. |

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| **Working Group** | 5: Public and Political Engagement |
| **Indicator** | 5.1: Media engagement in health and climate change |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 5.1.2: Media coverage of health and climate change for *People’s Daily* in China |
| **Methods** | Six steps to filter the articles, as shown below:   1. Key words for the topics of (a) Health, and (b) Climate Change were identified as shown in Table 23.   Table 23: Key words list of the topic of Health and Climate Change.   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | 中文 Chinese | | 英文 English | | | 健康相关词汇  Key words for “Health” | 气候相关词汇  Key words for “Climate Change” | Key words for “Health” | Key words for “Climate Change” | | 发育迟缓 | 气候变化 | stunting | climate change | | 疟疾 | 全球变暖 | malaria | global warming | | 腹泻 | 温室 | diarrhea | green house | | 感染 | 极端天气 | infection | extreme weather | | 疾病 | 全球环境变化 | disease, illness | global environmental change | | 肺炎 | 低碳 | pneumonia | low carbon | | 流行病 | 可再生能源 | epidemic, pandemic | renewable energy | | 公共卫生 | 碳排放 | public health | carbon emission, CO2 emission | | 流行病学 | 气候污染 | epidemiology | climate pollutant | | 卫生保健 | 气候 | health care | climate （climate variability included） | | 卫生 | 全球升温 | health | global temperature rise | | 死亡率 | 再生能源 | mortality | renewable energy | | 发病率 | CO2排放 | morbidity | CO2 emission | | 营养 | 污染 | nutrition | pollution (including climate pollutant) | | 非传染性疾病 |  | ncd, non-communicable disease |  | | 传染性疾病 |  | communicable disease |  | | 传染病 |  | infectious |  | | 空气污染 |  | air pollution |  | | 精神障碍 |  | mental disorder |  | | 传染 |  | infectious |  | | 疾患 |  | illness |  | | 瘟疫 |  | plague |  | | 流感 |  | flu |  | | 流行感冒 |  | flu |  | | 治疗 |  | cure |  | | 保健 |  | health care |  | | 健康 |  | healthy |  | | 死亡 |  | death |  | |  |  |  |  |  1. The articles in the Database of *People’s Daily* (<http://data.people.com.cn/>) were searched from January, 2008 to December, 2018, which contained any of the key words in the column of “Climate Change” in Table 23. The distribution of articles with the key words in different years is shown in Figure 36.   图1  Figure 43: Number of articles identified from People’s Daily database by inputting key words from topic Climate Change.  ***People’s Daily***   1. The selected articles were processed from step 2 for the filtration in step 4. This step is based on a natural language processing (NLP) method to transform the articles into the format that is ready to input into the model. The two main NLP methods used in this step is Word Segmentation and Removing stop words. In this step, it regulated the format of Chinese words to reduce recognition ambiguity resulting from this format. 2. Filtration was performed to identify the real topic of each article preprocessed in step 3. The real topic was represented by the proportion of each topic in the individual article. Technically, a classic algorithm in NLP, called Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) was used in this process. LDA is an algorithm to extract the topic of articles. In the LDA algorithm, the number of topics that extracted can be set by the operator.143 Each topic is composed by the key words, such as, the key words in Table 23 for the topic of “Climate Change”. The number of topics was set as 15, including “Climate Change”, “Health”, and “other” (13). The other 13 were extracted from the articles from the model as the result of the highest frequency topics. The number of articles identified as containing the real topic “Climate Change” is shown as blue line in Figure 36. Since the composition of each article is represented by the probability of the corresponding topics, a probability threshold was set. If the topic, which is Climate Change or Health, in an article is larger than the threshold, the article was classified as containing the topic. After the filtration, the articles classified as containing both topics became the articles that contain both “Health” and “Climate Change,” individually at a probability greater than 0.5% .Therefore, this step filtered out the non-relevant or low-relevance articles with respect to “Climate Change” and both “Health” and “Climate Change”. The number of articles focusing on climate change after step 4 between 2008 and 2018 is shown as the dotted blue line in Figure 37. 3. The articles were further filtered based on their relevance of both “Climate change” and “Health”, since containing “Climate Change” and “Health” separately is different to covering the topic “Health and Climate Change”. To start the filtration, the key words in the articles were labelled with number “1”to represent the “Climate Change” key words and number “2” to represent the “Health” key words. For every word labelled “1”, the nearest key word labelled “2” was found. Then, the distance between labelled words was counted. If the distance between the word labelled “1” and the nearest word labelled “2” was less than or equal to threshold 50, it was marked as focusing on Health and Climate Change in this step. In Chinese sentences, the distance of 50 is about 3 to 4 sentences. So, if the gap between two topic words is more that 3-4 sentences, the two topic words were considered as non-related. The number of articles focusing on both Health and Climate Change between 2008 and 2018 is shown as the black line in Figure 36.   图2  Figure 44: Number of articles reporting of climate change (dotted blue line) and number of articles reporting of both health and climate change after the relevance check in People’s Daily (black line).   1. ***People’s Daily***The filtered articles were manually screened. If the manual screening confirmed that the topic was “Health and Climate Change”, it was retained. The red line in Figure 38 shows the selected articles after the manual screening.   ***People’s Daily***  C:\Users\ruiya\AppData\Local\Microsoft\Windows\INetCache\Content.Word\图3.jpgThe criteria used in the manual screen are described below.  Figure 45: Number of articles reporting of climate change (blue line) and health and climate change (red line) in the People’s Daily in 2008-18. Number of articles reporting of only climate change coverage are represented by blue lines. Also shown is the number for the combined topic “Health and Climate Change” coverage after manual screen. |
| **Data** | All the articles from 2008 to the present published on *People’s Daily* (from the official website of *People’s Daily*).144 |
| **Additional information** | Across the period 2008-18, 74 articles in total were identified as “Health and Climate Change” related, which was one-third of the articles filtered. This manual screening stage removed mainly four types of articles identified through the first five steps:   1. The key word from the topic of “Health” might refer to the health of animals and the health of the environment; for example, the topic of the article is climate change and ecosystem health rather than climate change and human health. 23 articles were excluded for this reason. 2. The article lists some facts, such as a recent increase in the prevalence of a certain disease. But the reason why is uncertain, climate change/environmental change is one of the conjectures. 16 articles were excluded for this reason. 3. The key word “Climate Change” refers to short-term weather or temperature variation, but not the long-term trends of global climate change. 23 articles were excluded for this reason. 4. The article has mentioned human health change and climate change in one or two sentences, but the topic of the article is of low relevance to the combined topic of “Health and Climate Change”. 46 articles were excluded for this reason 5. The article includes the key words and meets the other selection criteria, but the combined topic of health and climate is not addressed. 12 articles were excluded for this reason   Note: Figure 35 in the 2019 Lancet Countdown report includes categories 2-4. This is for reasons of comparability with other analyses where there was a less extensive process of manual screening.  It was also noted in Figure 38 that the number of articles on Climate Change was highest in 2010 and also comparatively higher in 2016, both having a time lag behind the important COPs in 2009 and 2015. This time lag is attributed to the tendency in the *People’s Daily* to report climate change and to discuss the conference outcomes after the important COPs were held (which are usually held in December).  Table 24: The titles of 74 selected articles after the above-mentioned six steps.   |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | | 年份Year | 文章名字 Chinese Title | English Title | | 2008 | 全球变暖也会有寒冬 | Global warm also has cold winter | | 极端天气的警示 | The warning of extreme weather | | 温暖融化冰雪 | Snow melts in the warm | | 适应气候变化是现实的选择 | Adapt to climate change is the choice of reality | | 煤火自燃每年“烧”掉1亿美元 | Coal spontaneous combustion “burns” one hundred billion US dollars | | 2009 | 流行病蔓延与全球变暖 | Epidemic disease spread and global warming | | 以人为本 保护大气 | Take human as the core, protect our atmosphere | | 研究报告预示减排政策转变？ | Research predict that emission reducing policy will change? | | 人畜共患病缘何频发 | Zoonosis why spreading? | | 我国内地确诊165例甲型H1N1流感病例 | 165 Influenza A (H1N1) inflection patients has confirmed | | 全球约有13.5万人感染甲感 | 135 thousand people has confirmed to have H1N1 inflection | | 非洲多国遭遇粮荒 | Lack of food threatening many African countries | | 秋冬季节性流感可能被甲感取代 | August seasonal influenza is potentially replaced by H1N1 | | 北极熊颅骨缩小的警示 | The warning of the shrinking of polar bear skull | | “流泪”的冰川 | “Crying” glacier | | 2010 | 生态平衡也需动态控制 | Ecological balance also need dynamic control | | 遥望赤道雪峰 | Look at the equator snowy peak | | 先中碳　再低碳（热点研究） | First mid-carbon, then low carbon | | 北方高温将持续到月末 | The high temperature in the North will keep until the end of month | | 蒙古国开征空气污染费 | Mongolia start to impose air pollution fee | | 并非危言耸听 | Not alarmism | | 2011 | “减氮”也重要 | “reduce nitrogen” also important | | 身陷洪水不离家 | Staying in the flood not leaving home | | 2012 | 分清雾与霾，防范别大意 | Be aware to the haze, distinguish frog and the haze | | 极端气候事件导致的经济损失将增加 | Financial lost caused by extreme climate event will increase | | “火炉”城市越来越多 | “hot” cities keep growing | | 2013 | 雾霾天，口罩怎么选？ | How to choose mask in haze day | | 新型城镇化 重点在质量 | The key point of new urbanization is the quality | | 近年降水为何“北多南少” | Why recent precipitation is “more in north less in south” | | 澳大利亚 优先发展自行车道路网 | Australia first develop the web of bicycles | | 陕西“杀人蜂”为何肆虐 | Why Shanxi killer bees prosperous | | 让“骑行”成为“流行” | Make bicycling become fashion | | 澳大利亚热议环境治理困境 | Australia heated debate the difficulties of environmental governance | | 东三省遭遇“霾汰”天 | The three provinces in the northeast of China has dirty haze day | | 雾霾对生殖能力影响不大 | Haze day will not influence fertility | | 雾霾来袭，咱们一起突围 | Haze surrounding, we rush out together | | 2014 | 中国代表团出席第六十七届世界卫生大会 | Chinese delegation attends the 67th Word Health Assembly | | 美国要求电厂减排30% | US government requires power plant to reduce emission 30% | | 知识窗 | Wisdom window | | 气候变暖将严重挤压南亚经济 | Climate change will seriously squeeze the Southeast Asia | | 冰川在哭泣 | Glacier is crying | | 遏制全球变暖 行动刻不容缓 | Limit global warming, action needed | | 气候灾变问题很遥远吗 | Is climate disaster far away from us? | | 减霾需要“拆风机”？ | Reduce haze need “wind reduction machine”? | | 2015 | 中国正成为全球发展领域的领导者 | China is becoming the global development leader | | “厄尔尼诺”所致干旱重创非洲多国 | “el nino” causes dry land, and damage many countries in Africa | | 气候变化可能威胁社会发展和全球健康成果 | Climate change can endanger the social development and global health | | 减贫也要应对气候变化 | Poverty reduction also need to face climate change | | 2016 | 广西长寿之乡为何多 | The reason why there are many longevity villages in Guangxi | | 城市绿化不能只顾“好看” | City Afforestation of city cannot only concentrate on “good looking” | | 绿水青山就是金山银山 | The greens and clear water is the wealth | | 携手迈向清洁和可持续的未来 | Step to clean and sustainable future together | | 非洲空气污染呈加重态势 | Air pollution in Africa shows a rising trend | | 大数据的“孤岛困境” | Big data’s “island difficulty” | | “气质”达标 任重道远 | air quality improvement still need effort | | 用绿色建筑还城市蓝天 | Return to city blue sky by green buildings | | 2017 | 管住贪婪的嘴巴 | Keep greedy mouth close | | 中国环境治理经验值得借鉴 | The experience of environmental governance of China is a good example | | 将绿色转型进行到底 | Carry out the Green Transition to the end | | “没有海洋健康，就没有人类繁荣” | “No healthy ocean, no human prosperity” | | 英国寻求向电动汽车时代转型 | England is looking for the transition to electricity car | | 今夏为啥这么热 | Why this summer is so hot? | | 让清洁美丽世界为文明添彩 | Make the beauty of clean world a pearl on the civilization | | 山火肆虐，加州进入紧急状态 | California is in emergency as wildfires rage | | 2018 | 气候变化影响人类健康 | Climate change affect human health | | 极端天气持续肆虐欧洲 | Extreme weather overwhelm Europe | | 地球南北，何以冰火两重天 | Why the north and south of Earth are cold and warm? | | 非洲萨赫勒地区粮食危机加剧 | The food crisis in the Sahel region of Africa exacerbate | | 世界气象组织：近期全球持续极端天气与气候变化相关 | World Meteorological Organization: Recent persistent global extreme weather is associated with climate change | | 干旱和高温加剧北半球野火灾情 | Drought and high temperatures exacerbate wildfires in the Northern Hemisphere | | 极端高温“烤”验北半球 | Extreme high temperature is burning the Northern Hemisphere | | 欧洲多国遭西尼罗河病毒侵袭 | West Nile virus infects many countries in Europe | | 警惕地球“发热多汗” | Keep alert on Earth’s fever and sweating | | 全球粮食安全形势不容乐观 | Global food security situation is sobering | |

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| **Working Group** | 5: Public and Political Engagement |
| **Indicator** | 5.1: Media engagement in health and climate change |
| **Sub-Indicator** | 5.1.3: Content of coverage in US and Indian newspapers |
| **Methods** | This new indicator extends the capacity to track media engagement by focusing on the *content* of media coverage of health and climate change, enabling further understanding about what is being reported, as well as the levels of coverage.  **Media sources and timeframe**  This indicator focuses on the elite media in two countries, representing very different contexts. Two newspapers from India and two from the US were selected; *Hindustan Times* (HT), *Times of India* (TOI), *Washington Post* (WP), and *New York Times* (NYT).  The focus of analysis was narrowed for articles to two time periods during 2018. First, the time period July to September (inclusive) for both the Indian and US sources was considered. This time period was used as it covers a period of extreme weather events in both regions; wildfires in the US and monsoon flooding in India. This enabled consideration of media reporting in light of these events, and the ways in which links may be made through them to climate change and health. Second, reporting during November to December 2018 was considered. This time period covers the lead up to and hosting of the COPs. In addition, this covers the time period during which findings from the Lancet Countdown report itself have been reported in the media.  **Search terms**  Media articles were obtained in conjunction with Indicator 5.1.1 (trends in media coverage). Search terms developed by this team of researchers, designed to return articles at the intersection of health and climate change were used. For identification of articles in the Indian media (HT and TOI), theFactiva database was used. For identification of articles in the US media (WP and NYT), the Nexis database was used.  Articles in which appeared a minimum of one key search term from both (a) health, and (b) climate change were identified **Error! Reference source not found.**.  Table 25: Search terms for Health and Climate Change   |  |  | | --- | --- | | Health terms | Climate change terms | | * malaria * diarrhoea * infection * disease * sars * measles * pneumonia * epidemic * pandemic * public health * health care * epidemiology * healthcare * health * mortality * morbidity * nutrition * illness * infectious * ncd * non-communicable disease * noncommunicable disease * communicable disease * air pollution * nutrition * malnutrition * mental disorder * stunting | * climate change * global warming * green house * extreme weather * global environmental change * climate variability * greenhouse * low carbon * ghge * renewable energy * carbon emission * co2 emission * climate pollutant |   **Pre-screening of articles**  The articles across the five months and four media sources were pre-screened in order to ensure that only those making meaningful connections between health and climate change were retained for further analysis.  The procedure used to select articles was as follows:   1. An article must make a meaningful connection between health and climate change. This can be made explicitly, or implied through the narrative used, but health topics and climate change aspects must be clearly linked to be included. 2. Articles were retained when any reference is made to health and climate change that meets criterion (a). This may include long articles where only passing reference is made to the link, as well as articles where the focus is more substantial. 3. Where reference to air pollution is made, it was not deemed to meet the criterion (a) unless an explicit or implicit link was made to health. For example, an article that covers the need for coal-fired plants to close in order to meet climate change targets and reduce air pollution, was not retained unless a link was also made to the health impacts of either air pollution or climate change. It was not enough simply to reference air pollution in the context of climate change for this to be deemed reference to ‘health’. Some articles coded (c) have been included as borderline cases.   In order to carry out pre-screening in a systematic manner, the following approach was adopted:   * Coder 1 (Paul Haggar) read all articles within the target months, that were returned by the search string. Where an article was deemed to be a definite false positive (no meaningful link between health and climate change), this was noted. Where an article was questionable/borderline, this was separately noted, with brief comment provided as to why this was the case. * Coder 2 (Stuart Capstick) subsequently reviewed the article content of all false positive articles coded as such by Coder 1, to ensure no articles had been incorrectly coded. Coder 2 also read through all questionable/borderline articles coded by Coder 1, to give a second opinion as to whether these should be included. * Duplicate articles were identified and excluded by both coders, in order to avoid double-counting of media reporting.   Having pre-screened the articles, a dataset of 248 articles was retained across the four media sources.  **Development of coding framework**  In order to identify recurrent and discrete themes within media reporting, a version of ‘template analysis’145 was used,which allows for both deductive coding (*a priori* themes of interest to be specified in advance) and inductive coding (themes are incorporated based on prevalent or recurrent topics detected in the data).  So as to align the thematic coding to the wider Lancet Countdown report, *a priori* codes were derived from pre-existing indicators. Themes from Working Group 1 and Working Group 2 were particularly drawn upon. An iterative process was used to refine the coding framework, whereby samples of articles were test-coded, with the suitability of thematic categories repeatedly revisited until both coders were satisfied that these provided a fair representation of the themes evident across the media articles.  Both coders independently coded all articles, allowing for multiple codes to be assigned where appropriate (for example, where an article referred both to health impacts and co-benefits). Instances where discrepancies arose were reconciled through agreement between the two coders.  The final framework incorporated the following codes/themes:   * Health impacts of climate change; specifically: * Generic/ non-specific health impacts * Heatwaves and temperature increase * Precipitation extremes * Wildfires * Disease * Food security/ malnutrition * Population displacement * Mental health * Other impacts * Co-benefits and co-hazards; specifically: * Generic/ non-specific co-benefits * Air pollution (transport) * Air pollution (energy) * Air pollution (non-specific or generic) * Food/ diet * Other co-benefits and co-hazards * Adaptation; specifically: * Generic adaptation * Longer-term planning * Emergency responses * Other adaptation * Miscellaneous |
| **Data** | Newspaper articles in *Hindustan Times*, *Times of India*, *New York Times*, *Washington Post*. Articles analysed during time period July to September, and November to December. The data used is the full text of media articles. This cannot be made publicly available due to copyright restrictions, however the full search strings applied and databases used are detailed above. |
| **Caveats** | The content analysis is able to provide a broad picture of how health and climate change are being reported in the target news sources and time points. The selected newspapers cannot be taken to be representative of reporting across the two countries (US and India) or the WHO regions in which they are located, given that different media sources are known to have widely diverging positions on climate change.  The coding framework used is intended to identify themes in reporting at the intersection of health and climate change; it is not intended to provide insights into the more general ways in which climate change and/or health is reported in news media.  Because the content analysis used search terms provided by the global media tracker developed by the MeCCO team for its analysis of trends in newspaper coverage, the articles returned are necessarily those in which there was found to be a conjunction of a pre-selected health term and climate change term. The exact search terms used are likely to have influenced the types of articles obtained. For example, the bank of returned articles available to the content analysis was already set up in such a way that an air pollution and climate change co-occurrence was present in many places. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | Analyses of the content of coverage will form part of the Working Group’s future programme of work. The analysis for the 2019 Lancet Countdown report will therefore enable the indicator to be refined (e.g. its thematic structure) and extended (e.g. to other countries and newspapers) for future Lancet Countdown reports. |
| **Additional Information** | **Illustrative Extracts from the Data**  The following extracts from articles give an impression of the themes identified through analysis; they are sub-headed by theme.  **Health impacts of climate change**  *“A major scientific report … presents the starkest warnings to date of the consequences of climate change for the United States… More people will die as heat waves become more common, … and a hotter climate will also lead to more outbreaks of disease… Other parts of the country… will endure worsening droughts… Those droughts can lead to fires… as the most destructive wildfire in state history killed dozens of people… Climate change is taking the United States into uncharted territory, the report concludes.* [The New York Times, 24 November 2018; “US Climate Study Has Grim Warning of Economic Risks”, Coral Davenport and Kendra Pierre-Louis]  *“As large wildfires become more common – spurred by dryness linked to climate change – health risks will almost surely rise … a person's short-term exposure to wildfire can spur a lifetime of asthma, allergy and constricted breathing”*  [The New York Times, 17 November 2018; “New Casualty As Fires Rage: California's Air”, Julie Turkewitz and Matt Richtel]  Title: *“[F]or decades, global hunger was on the decline. Now it's getting worse again - and climate change is to blame”.*  [The Washington Post, 11 September 2018, title of article, Rick Noack]  *“A new invasive tick species capable of transmitting several severe diseases is spreading in the United States, posing an emerging threat to human health… Warming temperatures and climate change make the environment more hospitable to ticks or mosquitoes that spread pathogens…”*  [The Washington Post, 29 November 2018, “New tick species capable of transmitting deadly disease is spreading in the US”, Lena H. Sun]  *“[C]limate change [is] making mosquitoes bolder and the germs they transmit stronger, leading to a spurt in mosquito-borne diseases, particularly Chikungunya”*  [The Times of India, 9 August 2018; “Global warming, climate change adding sting to mosquito bites, spurt in vector-borne diseases”, Syed Akbar]  *“… It’s become commonplace to hear about the steady exodus from India’s big cities due to unhealthy levels of pollution… British environmentalist Norman Myers said millions of people had already begun being displaced by “shoreline erosion, coastal flooding and severe drought” and calculated as many as 250 million people would be forced to move by the middle of the 21st century…”*  [The Times of India, 24 August 2018; “The Climate Change Exodus”, Vivek Menezes]  *“With temperature soaring over 42 degrees Celsius, the 2014 Australian Open offered one of the most sweltering experiences ever …Global warming is real as is the ordeal professional sportspersons go through day in and day out… In extreme cases, heatstroke occurs when the body can no longer cool itself and starts to overheat. If left untreated, organ failure and brain damage can also take place.”*  [Hindustan Times, 18 September 2018; “Hot, hotter and hottest: An uncomfortable truth”, Abhishek Paul]  “*A less recognised, but inextricably linked, challenge [to health] is climate change. The physiological impacts of rising temperatures causing heat stress, heat exhaustion and stroke are particularly harmful… dehydration can also occur during heatwaves… climatic conditions affect disease trends for dengue and malaria, …increasing the burden on the health sector. Drought situations … can have deleterious consequences on the nutritional status of affected populations... The mental health impacts of climate change including stress in post-climatic events and increased suicides by farmers in post-drought situations have also been documented in several regions*.” [Hindustan Times, 28 December 2018; “Urgent solutions needed to mitigate the impact of climate change on health”, Poornima Prabhakaran]  **Co-benefits and co-hazards**  *“[C]lean power, clean cars, clean manufacturing and efficient buildings… can lower our health care costs, cut heating bills for the poor, drive 21st-century innovation, foster decent jobs, [and] mitigate climate change”.*  [The New York Times, 15 August 2018; “If Mother Nature Gets a Vote in 2020”, Thomas L. Friedman]  “*Air pollution is shaving months -- and in some cases more than a year -- off your life expectancy, depending on where you live… Worldwide, outdoor air pollution reduces the average life expectancy at birth by one year. …The sources of PM 2.5 pollution and greenhouse gas emissions are often ''tightly linked,''… meaning that moving to cleaner sources of energy can also deliver quick dividends for public health."*  [The New York Times, 23 August 2018; “In the Air Everywhere You Go, And Taking Weeks Off Your Life”, Somini Sengupta]  *“The Environmental Protection Agency revealed… a sorry new climate-change plan, seemingly designed to weaken as much as legally possible the federal government's response to the greatest long-term threat the world faces…the administration's plan would result in up to 1,400 American deaths every year by 2030... In addition to planet-warming greenhouse gases, coal plants spew fine particulate matter that enters people's lungs and bloodstreams, contributing to heart and breathing problems, from asthma and bronchitis to premature death. … The country, and the world, are losing precious time, even as extreme weather, wildfires and other major disasters offer Americans a taste of what is in store.”*  [The Washington Post, 25 August 2018, “A dirty plan that would kill Americans”, Editorial Board]  *“For a short time on Thursday night, a small but fiercely determined group of marchers took over a busy D.C. street to demand better safety for pedestrians and bicyclists… The District has reported 31 traffic deaths so far this year, up from 29 in all 2017…. Yet lives could be spared … even if it means taking the space from curbside parking. [An activist] said, "This is a public health crisis. This is a climate change crisis."”*  [The Washington Post, 16 November 2018, “Marchers commemorate pedestrians killed in D.C. and demand stricter safety measures”, Fredrick Kunkle]  *“[P]ractising breastfeeding protects the environment by reducing carbon footprint caused due to milk formula sales and additionally provides short and long-term health benefits to children”.*  [The Times of India, 15 December 2018; “Rising use of infant formula harming environment: Study”, Rupali Mukherjee]  *“… plant-based meat and dairy products are on the rise in the west… some researchers and startups claimed it tastes similar to meat, is healthier as it avoids use of antibiotics and would reduce carbon footprint…”*  [The Times of India, 26 August 2018; “Experts debate pros and cons of plant meat”, U Sudhakar Reddy]  “…*To protect our future, new infrastructure must be low-carbon, sustainable and resilient… In 2030, this kind of climate action could also prevent over 700,000 premature deaths from air pollution annually. … If cities are built in more compact, connected and coordinated ways, they can improve residents' access to jobs, services and amenities while increasing carbon efficiency.”*  [Hindustan Times, 5 December 2018; “To protect our future, new infrastructure must be low-carbon, sustainable”, Nanina Lal Kidwai]  “*It is estimated that household air pollution (HAP) related to cooking causes 1.3 million premature deaths in India … Owing to these problems and to realise India's voluntary commitment as part of the 2015 Paris climate agreement, the government introduced… aims at provisioning cleaner liquefied petroleum gas cylinders to poor households. So far, over 50 million households have benefitted from the scheme*.”  [Hindustan Times, 7 December 2018; “We need better reporting of household air pollution”, Martand Shardul]  **Adaptation**  *“…Extreme heat, already the deadliest natural disaster in an average year, will become even deadlier… A growing body of research finds … the broad benefits of cooling down cities. … Fortunately, some South Asian cities… are recognising the importance of cool and green roofs to combat high urban temperatures and are implementing programmes to encourage their use…* [Hindustan Times, 18 September 2018; “India can, and must, tackle the problem of hot cities”, Kurt Shickman]  *“Climate change is hitting home. India saw an increase of 40 million in the number of people exposed to heatwaves from 2012 to 2016 … Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation (AMC) has adopted a heat action plan which necessitates measures such as building heat shelters, ensuring availability of water and removing neonatal ICU from the top floor of hospitals. It has helped bring down the impact of heatwave of vulnerable population.”*  [The Times of India, 29 November 2018; “40 million more Indians hit by heatwaves in 5 years: Report”, no by-line]  *“[A]daptation… may offer value for a community whether or not the climate changes. For instance, a city might invest in green spaces to reduce flooding - resulting in more parks, lower urban temperatures, and other human health benefits”.*  [The Washington Post, 16 November 2018, “How did climate change initiatives do in the midterms? Some lost - but some won”, Megan Mullin]  **Graphical Information**  Basic quantitative information about instances of codes/themes is presented graphically in the following figures. **Error! Reference source not found.**provides a breakdown of the proportions of newspaper articles in which principal themes were identified.  Figure 46: Proportion of newspaper articles where themes were identified. HT = Hindustan Times, TOI = Times of India, NYT = New York Times, WP = Washington Post.  **Error! Reference source not found.** provides a similar breakdown of the proportions of articles in newspapers from each country in which principal themes were identified.  Figure 47: Proportion of newspaper articles where themes were identified, by country. HT = Hindustan Times, TOI = Times of India, NYT = New York Times, WP = Washington Post.  **Error! Reference source not found.**shows the proportion of codes identified within the first theme according to the sub-theme identified.  Figure 48: Proportion of sub-themes of ‘Impacts’ in newspaper articles. HT = Hindustan Times, TOI = Times of India, NYT = New York Times, WP = Washington Post.  **Error! Reference source not found.** shows the proportion of codes identified within the second theme according to the sub-theme identified.  Figure 49: Proportion of sub-themes of ‘Cobenefits/cohazards’ in newspaper articles.HT = Hindustan Times, TOI = Times of India, NYT = New York Times, WP = Washington Post.  **Error! Reference source not found.**shows the proportion of codes identified within the third theme according to the sub-theme identified.  Figure 50: Proportion of sub-themes of ‘Adaptation’ in newspaper articles.HT = Hindustan Times, TOI = Times of India, NYT = New York Times, WP = Washington Post. |

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| **Working Group** | 5: Public and Political Engagement |
| **Indicator** | 5.2: Individual engagement in health and climate change |
| **Methods** | This new indicator provides an individual-level indicator of public engagement. It tracks engagement with climate change and health through people’s usage of the online encyclopaedia, Wikipedia. Over the years, Wikipedia has grown to be a major and trusted source of information that has outpaced traditional encyclopaedias in terms of reach, coverage, and comprehensiveness.146 It is regularly listed among the ten most-visited websites worldwide.147 The English edition covers more than five million articles and over 130,000 active editors. People around the world use it to engage in topics they are interested in. Fortunately, the traffic that goes to Wikipedia – and even that which goes to individual articles of the encyclopaedia – can be analysed over time because the Wikimedia foundation makes these statistics available to everyone for free. This makes it a global indicator of what people pay attention to on a daily basis.  **The indicator**  To investigate to what extent people do not only pay attention to climate change and human health in isolation, but also to the connection between both, we draw on *clickstream* *statistics* from the English Wikipedia.  *Clickstream* refers to a dataset provided by the Wikimedia foundation.148 It reports “streams of clicks”, or in other words, how people get to a Wikipedia article, and what links they click on. This is reported on a monthly basis and in pairs of resources, the first being where the visit came from, the second which page was visited. For instance, in the data for 2018, people who visited the page on *Global warming* followed the link to the article on *Climate change* 17,791 times. This gives an indicator of monthly-level global attention towards one issue (if both articles are representative of the same issue) or two issues (if articles come from different domains, such as climate change and health). By looking at climate change – health articles pairs, an indicator of attention towards climate change consequences for human health over time is generated.  **Measurement strategy**  The approach to using clickstream data as an indicator of public engagement in climate change and health is based on the following premises: (1) The Wikipedia platform is a globally used source for information on a multitude of topics;149 (2) Citizens use the platform to inform themselves about topics they are interested in; (3) By tracking engagement with Wikipedia, articles that are related to climate change as wells as with articles on health, it is possible to identify public engagement with the relationship between both topics.  The following behavioural patterns are relevant for the validity of the measure as a proxy for public engagement with climate change and health:   1. A person is generally interested in the nexus between climate change and public health and informs her/himself about the topic online by, e.g., reading the Wikipedia article on *Effects of global warming on human health*.150 2. A person is interested in climate change and the consumption of information about the topic then sparks interest in its consequences for human health. For instance, the person reads the article on *Global warming*151 and then turns to the article on *Malnutrition*.152) 3. A person is interested in a certain aspect of human health or consequences of climate change with an immediate impact on human health, and then turns its attention to climate change issues. For instance, the person reads the article on *Malaria*153 () and then turns to the article on *Global warming*.151  **Indicator construction** In order to use the Wikipedia viewership statistics as a proxy for public engagement with climate change and health, it is key to select articles that are representative of these topics. To generate the populations of articles related to climate change on the one hand and health on the other, a semi-automated approach was implemented. Based on an initial set of keywords,[[1]](#footnote-1) related articles were searched for, using the internal Wikipedia search.  For each search using one of the keywords, the first 100 results that led to an article with a minimum word count of 300 were then extracted and identified, ensuring that the articles that were chosen as seed articles had been given a certain degree of attention by Wikipedia editors, therefore being more likely to link to other relevant articles.  Next, the articles collected were screened via the Wikipedia search for categories, which were used on the Wikipedia to categorize pages in a meaningful way (e.g., using categories such as *Climate change* or *Effects of global warming*). Those categories were then themselves screened for relevant articles. All additional articles were once more filtered such that those with a title matching one of the initial keywords were chosen. For the health-related articles, several articles that turned out to be irrelevant for purposes of the indicator were excluded manually. Health topics are covered extensively on the Wikipedia, articles and topics that, in principle, could be related to climate change were prioritised. In addition, the variety of links to further health-related articles on the effects of global warming Wikipedia page150 were exploited. This list can be viewed as a curated list of relevant health articles. All in all, 237 articles related to climate change and 825 articles related to health were identified as being representative for either of the issues. The complete list of articles is listed below.  For the clickstream analysis, the set of articles was extended by also taking “second-level pages” into account, that is pages that are linked to in the set of 237 climate change or 825 health articles and that are also somewhat related to climate change or health. Sometimes, people might not directly jump from one of the major articles on climate change to another one on health, but travel through an intermediary page (e.g., a possible individual stream of clicks could be: *Climate change* 🡪 *Human impact on the environment* 🡪 *Respiratory disease*). The clickstream data only allowed identification of click volume for pairs of articles, but by extending the network, clickstreams involving relevant pages that are linked in the original set of articles could also be captured. After taking these additional articles into account, 1040 articles related to climate change and 2865 articles related to health were identified. |
| **Data** | This indicator draws on publicly available data from the Wikimedia foundation. Data from all platforms, i.e. accesses to the Wikipedia via desktop machines, mobile browsers, and mobile apps was considered.  The clickstream data were downloaded from the Wikimedia Dumps.154 Spider traffic (i.e. traffic generated by automated bots crawling the platform) was excluded. Referer-resource pairs (i.e. the pairs of the article of origin and the target article) that had less than 10 clicks were removed in the original dataset, the actual clickstream traffic is likely to be underreported. However, this is not expected to add any systematic bias, in particular since the focus of the indicator is mainly in changes of engagement over time.  Clickstream data is available from November 2017 onwards. This indicator exclusively focuses on data from 2018 in the 2019 Lancet Countdown report. The analyses are limited to the English Wikipedia.  The benefits of the Wikipedia usage metadata for the purpose of tracking public engagement in climate change and health are that this data: (a) is globally available, (b) covers the time period of interest, (c) is collectible at virtually no cost, and, most importantly, (d) has high face validity to measure engagement in this very specific topic. Reading articles on Wikipedia is motivated by attention towards a particular issue. Individuals invest time to inform themselves about a topic, which is one manifestation of engagement. Aggregate reading behaviour can therefore be seen as an *a priori* valid approximation of public issue engagement. |
| **Caveats** | All clickstream information is only available at the aggregate level. It is not possible to link the data to information about individuals who visited the platform. Also, the data is not geo-referenced, so it is not possible to infer where page visits came from. Although the English Wikipedia is predominantly used in English-speaking countries (according to the Wikimedia Traffic Analysis Report,155 about 40% of the traffic on the English Wikipedia comes from the US), it is a globally popular resource. It makes up for 50% of the global traffic to all Wikipedia language editions. Therefore, it can be seen as a global indicator of public attention that is somewhat biased towards attention from countries such as the United States, United Kingdom, India, Canada, and Australia. Extending the analyses to other language editions will help to remedy this bias and uncover potential geographic engagement heterogeneity in the future.  More generally, the measure represents an online proxy for an offline phenomenon. In addition, it is sensitive towards the selection of articles used to capture engagement. The global popularity of the platform, which consistently ranks among the ten most visited websites worldwide, speaks in favour of its usefulness for this application. However, more direct indicators of public engagement, such as survey-based measures, might provide a useful supplement and source for validation in the future.  While the data is available for free, access to future data depends on the Wikimedia API. There is no indication of Wikimedia restricting access in the future. Instead, Wikimedia has invested in data quality and making access more robust and convenient. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | In future reports, this indicator will have increased precision, scope, and value.  First, the number of articles used will be increased. With an ever-growing Wikipedia, more relevant articles might become available This requires a joint automated and human classification effort to ensure that the coverage of relevant articles (true positives) is as large as possible and the number of irrelevant articles (false positives) in the sample minimal.  We have various steps in mind that will help increase the precision, scope, and value of this indicator for next year’s report.  Second, the data collection and analysis efforts will be extended to other language editions (both for the pageviews and the clickstream data). This would make it possible to track more fine-grained trends at the regional level. It is likely that there is heterogeneity in public engagement in climate change and health, as different regions of the world are currently affected by health consequences of climate change to varying degrees. Studying engagement in different language versions of the Wikipedia could at least partly pick up this heterogeneity.  Third, the analyses with related event data will be enriched. It is plausible to assume and could already be partly shown that public engagement is sensitive towards events, such as extreme weather events or epidemics, but also political and scientific activity such as the COPs or the publication of IPCC reports and protests such as the School Strikes for Climate.  Fourth, complementary data to track and validate public attention, such as survey, experimental, and other online data will be explored.  Beyond the 2019 Lancet Countdown report, analyses of individual-level engagement will be undertaken, using pageview data from Wikimedia. In time, this indicator may draw on both clickstream and pageview data. |
| **Additional information** | *List of English Wikipedia articles used to track public engagement in climate change*  1998 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2001 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2002 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2003 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2004 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2005 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2006 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2007 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2008 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2009 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2010 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2011 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2012 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2013 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2014 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2015 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2016 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2017 United Nations Climate Change Conference, 2018 United Nations Climate Change Conference, Abrupt climate change, Academy of Climate Change Education and Research, Adaptation to climate change in Jordan, Adaptation to global warming in Australia, Advisory Group on Greenhouse Gases, Alice, the Zeta Cat and Climate Change, Amundsen-Nobile Climate Change Tower, Attribution of recent climate change, Australian Greenhouse Office, Aviation and climate change, Avoiding Dangerous Climate Change (2005 conference), Bølling-Allerød warming, Book:Global warming, Book:Global warming denial, Business action on climate change, Campaign against Climate Change, CCS and climate change mitigation, Centre for Climate Change Economics and Policy, Civil Society Coalition on Climate Change, Climate change, Climate Change (Scotland) Act 2009, Climate Change Accountability Act (Bill C-224), Climate change acronyms, Climate Change Act 2008, Climate change adaptation, Climate change adaptation in Bangladesh, Climate change adaptation in Greenland, Climate change adaptation strategies on the German coast, Climate change and agriculture, Climate change and ecosystems, Climate Change and Emissions Management Amendment Act, Climate change and gender, Climate change and indigenous persons, Climate change and invasive species, Climate change and potatoes, Climate change and poverty, Climate Change and Sustainable Energy Act 2006, Climate Change Authority, Climate change denial, Climate Change Denial Disorder, Climate Change Denial: Heads in the Sand, Climate change education (CCE), Climate change feedback, Climate change in Africa, Climate change in Argentina, Climate change in Australia, Climate change in Bangladesh, Climate change in Europe, Climate change in France, Climate change in Germany, Climate change in Grenada, Climate change in Guatemala, Climate change in Honduras, Climate change in India, Climate change in Indonesia, Climate change in Pakistan, Climate change in the Arctic, Climate change in the Caribbean, Climate change in the United Kingdom, Climate change in Turkey, Climate change in Tuvalu, Climate change in Vietnam, Climate change mitigation, Climate change mitigation scenarios, Climate change opinion by country, Climate Change Performance Index, Climate change policy of California, Climate change policy of the George W. Bush administration, Climate change policy of the United States, Climate Change Response Act 2002, Climate change scenario, Climate Change TV, Climate change, industry and society, Climate Change: Global Risks, Challenges and Decisions, Cloud formation and climate change, Co-benefits of climate change mitigation, Committee on Climate Change, Committee on Climate Change Science and Technology Integration, Conservatory (greenhouse), Cool It: The Skeptical Environmentalist's Guide to Global Warming, Criticism of the IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, Debate over China's economic responsibilities for climate change mitigation, Deforestation and climate change, Delta 3 greenhouse, Description of the Medieval Warm Period and Little Ice Age in IPCC reports, Durban Industry Climate Change Partnership Project, Economic impacts of climate change, Economics of climate change mitigation, Economics of global warming, Economists' Statement on Climate Change, Effects of climate change on island nations, Effects of climate change on plant biodiversity, Effects of climate change on terrestrial animals, Effects of climate change on wine production, Effects of global warming, Effects of global warming on Australia, Effects of global warming on human health, Effects of global warming on humans, Effects of global warming on marine mammals, Effects of global warming on oceans, Effects of global warming on South Asia, Effects of global warming on Sri Lanka, Euro-Mediterranean Center on Climate Change, European Climate Change Programme, Extinction risk from global warming, ExxonMobil climate change controversy, Fisheries and climate change, G8 Climate Change Roundtable, Garnaut Climate Change Review, Global Roundtable on Climate Change, Global warming, Global warming conspiracy theory, Global warming controversy, Global warming game, Global warming hiatus, Global warming in Antarctica, Global warming in popular culture, Global Warming Policy Foundation, Global Warming Pollution Reduction Act of 2007, Global warming potential, Global Warming Solutions Act of 2006, Global Warming: The Signs and The Science, Glossary of climate change, Grantham Institute – Climate Change and Environment, Greenhouse, Greenhouse and icehouse Earth, Greenhouse debt, Greenhouse Development Rights, Greenhouse effect, Greenhouse gas, Greenhouse gas accounting, Greenhouse gas emissions accounting, Greenhouse gas emissions by Australia, Greenhouse gas emissions by the United Kingdom, Greenhouse gas emissions by the United States, Greenhouse gas emissions by Turkey, Greenhouse gas footprint, Greenhouse gas inventory, Greenhouse gas monitoring, Greenhouse gas removal, Greenhouse Gases Observing Satellite, Greenhouse Mafia, Historical impacts of climate change, History of climate change science, How Global Warming Works, Human Rights and Climate Change, Index of climate change articles, Indian Network on Climate Change Assessment, Indigenous Peoples Climate Change Assessment Initiative, Individual action on climate change, Individual and political action on climate change, Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, International Climate Change Partnership, International Conference on Climate Change, International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control, IPCC Fifth Assessment Report, IPCC First Assessment Report, IPCC Fourth Assessment Report, IPCC list of greenhouse gases, IPCC Second Assessment Report, IPCC Summary for Policymakers, IPCC supplementary report, 1992, IPCC Third Assessment Report, Life-cycle greenhouse-gas emissions of energy sources, List of authors of Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis, List of climate change books, List of climate change initiatives, List of countries by greenhouse gas emissions, List of countries by greenhouse gas emissions per capita, List of ministers of climate change, List of scientists who disagree with the scientific consensus on global warming, Long-term effects of global warming, Major Economies Forum on Energy and Climate Change, Media coverage of global warming, Midwestern Greenhouse Gas Reduction Accord, Mitigation of global warming in Australia, Muslim Seven Year Action Plan on Climate Change, New South Wales Greenhouse Gas Abatement Scheme, Oeschger Centre for Climate Change Research, Ozone depletion and climate change, Physical impacts of climate change, Physical properties of greenhouse gases, Political economy of climate change, Politics of global warming, Portal:Global warming, Post–Kyoto Protocol negotiations on greenhouse gas emissions, Premier's Climate Change Council, Program on Energy Efficiency in Artisanal Brick Kilns in Latin America to Mitigate Climate Change, Public opinion on global warming, Rapid Climate Change-Meridional Overturning Circulation and Heatflux Array, Regional climate change initiatives in the United States, Regional effects of global warming, Regional Greenhouse Gas Initiative, Regulation of greenhouse gases under the Clean Air Act, Renewable Energy Sources and Climate Change Mitigation, Ringed seals and climate change, Royal Greenhouses of Laeken, Runaway greenhouse effect, Scientific opinion on climate change, Scorcher: The Dirty Politics of Climate Change, Seawater greenhouse, Special Report on Global Warming of 1.5 °C, Surveys of scientists' views on climate change, Template:United Nations climate change conferences, The Great Global Warming Swindle, The Greenhouse Conspiracy, Total equivalent warming impact, Tropical cyclones and climate change, United Kingdom Climate Change Programme, United Nations Climate Change conference, United Nations Special Envoy on Climate Change, United States federal register of greenhouse gas emissions, United States House Select Committee on Energy Independence and Global Warming, Valleyfield greenhouse, White House Office of Energy and Climate Change Policy, World Climate Change Conference, Moscow, World People's Conference on Climate Change, World Wide Views on Global Warming  *List of English Wikipedia articles used to track public engagement in health*  1793 Philadelphia yellow fever epidemic, 1863–1875 cholera pandemic, 1889–90 flu pandemic, 1974 smallpox epidemic in India, 2009 Bolivian dengue fever epidemic, 2013 Swansea measles epidemic, 2015–16 Zika virus epidemic, Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, Acute eosinophilic pneumonia, Adult-onset Still's disease, Advances in Nutrition, Affordable Medicines Facility-malaria, Africa Fighting Malaria, Africa/Harvard School of Public Health Partnership for Cohort Research and Training, African Malaria Network Trust, African Nutrition Leadership Programme, Against Malaria Foundation, Aging-associated diseases, Air pollution, Air pollution and traffic congestion in Tehran, Air pollution forecasting, Air pollution in Hong Kong, Air pollution in Macau, Air pollution on vegetation, Air pollution sensor, Airborne disease, Airport malaria, Alan Howard (nutritionist), Alexander disease, Alveolar hydatid disease, Alzheimer Disease and Associated Disorders, Alzheimer's disease, Alzheimer's disease biomarkers, Alzheimer's Disease Cooperative Study, Alzheimer's disease in the media, Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative, Amazon Malaria Initiative, America's Health Care Crisis Solved, American Association of Public Health Dentistry, American Association of Public Health Physicians, American College of Epidemiology, American Journal of Epidemiology, American Public Health Association, American Society for Nutrition, American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition, Anaerobic infection, Andersen healthcare utilization model, Animal nutrition, Animal nutritionist, Annals of Epidemiology, Annual Review of Nutrition, Anthroponotic disease, Anti-IgLON5 disease, Antidiarrhoeal, Antimalarial medication, Apparent infection rate, Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism, Asia Pacific Leaders Malaria Alliance, Asia Pacific Malaria Elimination Network, Aspiration pneumonia, Aspirin exacerbated respiratory disease, Association for Nutrition, Association of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Disease Canada, Association of Public Health Laboratories, Atypical pneumonia, Australian Measles Control Campaign, Autoimmune disease, Autoimmune disease in women, Autoimmune inner ear disease, Autosomal dominant polycystic kidney disease, Autosomal recessive polycystic kidney disease, Bachelor of Science in Public Health, Bacterial pneumonia, Balwadi Nutrition Programme, Bangladesh National Nutrition Council, Batten disease, Baumol's cost disease, Behavior change (public health), Behçet's disease, Belgian Health Care Knowledge Centre, BENTA disease, Bills of mortality, Binswanger's disease, Biochemistry of Alzheimer's disease, Biologically based mental illness, Biomarker epidemiology, Biphasic disease, Blackheart (plant disease), Blood-borne disease, Blount's disease, Bluetongue disease, British Journal of Nutrition, Caerphilly Heart Disease Study, Calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate crystal deposition disease, California Center for Public Health Advocacy, Camurati–Engelmann disease, Canadian Public Health Association, Canadian Society for Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Canavan disease, Cancer Epidemiology (journal), Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention, Canine vector-borne disease, Capitation (healthcare), Cardiovascular disease, Caribbean Public Health Agency, Caroli disease, Carrion's disease, Castleman's disease, Cat-scratch disease, Catheter-associated urinary tract infection, Causes of mental disorders, Cavitary pneumonia, Center for Infectious Disease Research, Center for Infectious Disease Research and Policy, Centre for History in Public Health, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, Chagas disease, Chelates in animal nutrition, Child Health and Nutrition Research Initiative, Child mortality, Childhood chronic illness, Children's right to adequate nutrition in New Zealand, Chinese Classification of Mental Disorders, Chlamydia infection, Chlamydophila pneumoniae, Cholera outbreaks and pandemics, Chronic diseases, Chronic illness, Chronic Lyme disease, Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, Cinematography in healthcare, Classification of mental disorders, Classification of pneumonia, Clinical epidemiology, Clinical Epidemiology (journal), Clinical nutrition, Clinton health care plan of 1993, Clostridioides difficile infection, CNS demyelinating autoimmune diseases, Coalition for Epidemic Preparedness Innovations, Coeliac disease, Cognitive epidemiology, Coinfection, Cold agglutinin disease, Collider (epidemiology), Colorado Department of Health Care Policy and Financing, Commission on the Accreditation of Healthcare Management Education, Common disease-common variant, Communicable diseases, Community Dentistry and Oral Epidemiology, Community-acquired pneumonia, Comorbidity, Comparison of the healthcare systems in Canada and the United States, Compartmental models in epidemiology, Compression of morbidity, Computational epidemiology, Conflict epidemiology, Congenital cytomegalovirus infection, Congenital malaria, Contagious bovine pleuropneumonia, Contagious disease, Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution, Corn stunt disease, Coronary artery disease, Council on Education for Public Health, Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease, Critical illness insurance, Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition, Crohn's disease, Cryptic infection, Cryptogenic organizing pneumonia, Degenerative disc disease, Degenerative disease, Dental public health, Department of Epidemiology, Columbia University, Depression of Alzheimer disease, Desquamative interstitial pneumonia, Developmental disorder, Diagnosis of malaria, Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Diarrheal diseases, Disease, Disease burden, Disease cluster, Disease Control Priorities Project, Disease diffusion mapping, Disease in fiction, Disease Isolation, Disease management (health), Disease resistance, Disease surveillance, Disease X, Diseases, Diseases and epidemics of the 19th century, Diseases of abnormal polymerization, Diseases of affluence, Diseases of poverty, Doctor of Public Health, Dole Nutrition Institute, Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative, Dukes' disease, Dust pneumonia, E-epidemiology, Ear infection, Early-onset Alzheimer's disease, Ebola virus disease, Economic epidemiology, Ehrlichiosis ewingii infection, EMBRACE Healthcare Reform Plan, Emerging infectious disease, Emerging Themes in Epidemiology, Endemic (epidemiology), Endogenous infection, Environmental disease, Environmental epidemiology, Eosinophilic pneumonia, Ephialtes (illness), Epidemic, Epidemic Intelligence Service, Epidemic models on lattices, Epidemic polyarthritis, Epidemic typhus, Epidemiology, Epidemiology (journal), Epidemiology and Infection, Epidemiology and Psychiatric Sciences, Epidemiology data for low-linear energy transfer radiation, Epidemiology in Country Practice, Epidemiology of asthma, Epidemiology of attention deficit hyperactive disorder, Epidemiology of autism, Epidemiology of bed bugs, Epidemiology of binge drinking, Epidemiology of breast cancer, Epidemiology of cancer, Epidemiology of chikungunya, Epidemiology of child psychiatric disorders, Epidemiology of childhood obesity, Epidemiology of depression, Epidemiology of diabetes mellitus, Epidemiology of domestic violence, Epidemiology of HIV/AIDS, Epidemiology of malnutrition, Epidemiology of measles, Epidemiology of metabolic syndrome, Epidemiology of plague, Epidemiology of pneumonia, Epidemiology of schizophrenia, Epidemiology of suicide, Epidemiology of syphilis, Epstein-Barr virus-associated lymphoproliferative diseases, Eradication of infectious diseases, Escape Fire: The Fight to Rescue American Healthcare, Essence (Electronic Surveillance System for the Early Notification of Community-based Epidemics), European Centre for Disease Prevention and Control, European Journal of Clinical Nutrition, European Journal of Epidemiology, European Journal of Nutrition, European Parliament Committee on the Environment, Public Health and Food Safety, European Programme for Intervention Epidemiology Training, European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition, European Public Health Alliance, European Public Health Association, European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism, European Society for Paediatric Infectious Diseases, European Society of Clinical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases, European Working Group for Legionella Infections, Evolution of Infectious Disease, Evolutionary epidemiology, Experimental epidemiology, Fair Share Health Care Act, Familial renal disease in animals, Fazio–Londe disease, Febrile infection-related epilepsy syndrome, Federation of European Nutrition Societies, Feline infectious anemia, Feline infectious peritonitis, Feline lower urinary tract disease, Field Epidemiology Training Program, Fifth disease, Fire breather's pneumonia, First Nations nutrition experiments, Focal infection theory, Focus of infection, Food & Nutrition Research, Food and Nutrition Bulletin, Food pyramid (nutrition), Foodborne illness, Foot-and-mouth disease, Free-market healthcare, Fungal pneumonia, Gastrointestinal disease, Genetic epidemiology, Genetic Epidemiology (journal), Geospatial Measurements of Air Pollution, Germ theory of disease, GIS and public health, Global Acute Malnutrition, Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition, Global Burden of Disease Study, Global Coalition Against Pneumonia, Global Infectious Disease Epidemiology Network, Global Malaria Action Plan, Global Network for Neglected Tropical Diseases, Global Public Health Intelligence Network, Global Research Collaboration for Infectious Disease Preparedness, Globalization and disease, Gram-negative bacterial infection, Graves' disease, Groningen epidemic, Group B streptococcal infection, Health care access among Dalits in India, Health Care Card, Health Care Compact, Health care efficiency measures, Health care finance in the United States, Health Care for Women International, Health care fraud, Health care in Argentina, Health care in Australia, Health Care in Canada Survey, Health care in Colombia, Health care in Cyprus, Health care in France, Health care in Karachi, Health care in Mozambique, Health care in New Zealand, Health care in Poland, Health care in Saudi Arabia, Health care in Spain, Health care in Sweden, Health care in the Philippines, Health care in the United Kingdom, Health care in the United States, Health care in Turkey, Health care in Venezuela, Health care prices in the United States, Health care ratings, Health care rationing, Health care reforms proposed during the Obama administration, Health care sharing ministry, Health care system in Japan, Health care system of the elderly in Germany, Health care time and motion study, Healthcare availability for undocumented immigrants in the United States, Healthcare in Albania, Healthcare in Austria, Healthcare in Azerbaijan, Healthcare in Bahrain, Healthcare in Belgium, Healthcare in Brazil, Healthcare in Canada, Healthcare in China, Healthcare in Croatia, Healthcare in Cuba, Healthcare in Denmark, Healthcare in Egypt, Healthcare in England, Healthcare in Estonia, Healthcare in Ethiopia, Healthcare in Finland, Healthcare in Georgia (country), Healthcare in Germany, Healthcare in Greece, Healthcare in Hungary, Healthcare in Iceland, Healthcare in India, Healthcare in Indonesia, Healthcare in Iran, Healthcare in Iraq, Healthcare in Israel, Healthcare in Italy, Healthcare in Kenya, Healthcare in Kuwait, Healthcare in Luxembourg, Healthcare in Madagascar, Healthcare in Malawi, Healthcare in Malaysia, Healthcare in Malta, Healthcare in Mexico, Healthcare in Moldova, Healthcare in Nicaragua, Healthcare in Nigeria, Healthcare in Norway, Healthcare in Pakistan, Healthcare in Panama, Healthcare in Peru, Healthcare in Portugal, Healthcare in Qatar, Healthcare in Romania, Healthcare in Russia, Healthcare in Rwanda, Healthcare in Saint Helena, Healthcare in San Marino, Healthcare in Scotland, Healthcare in Senegal, Healthcare in Serbia, Healthcare in Sierra Leone, Healthcare in Singapore, Healthcare in Slovakia, Healthcare in Slovenia, Healthcare in South Africa, Healthcare in South Korea, Healthcare in Switzerland, Healthcare in Taiwan, Healthcare in Tanzania, Healthcare in Thailand, Healthcare in the Czech Republic, Healthcare in the Isle of Man, Healthcare in the Netherlands, Healthcare in the Palestinian territories, Healthcare in the Republic of Ireland, Healthcare in the United Arab Emirates, Healthcare in Tristan da Cunha, Healthcare in Uganda, Healthcare in Ukraine, Healthcare in Wales, Healthcare in Zambia, Healthcare rationing in the United States, Healthcare real estate, Healthcare reform debate in the United States, Healthcare reform in China, Healthcare reform in the United States, Healthcare shortage area, Healthcare Spending Account, Healthcare transport, Healthcare UK, HealthCare Volunteer, HealthCare.gov, History of emerging infectious diseases, History of health care reform in the United States, History of malaria, History of mental disorders, History of Tay–Sachs disease, History of USDA nutrition guides, Holozoic nutrition, Home health care software, Homosexuality as a disease, Hookworm infection, Hospital-acquired infection, Hospital-acquired pneumonia, How to Have Sex in an Epidemic, Human genetic resistance to malaria, Human papillomavirus infection, Hypertensive disease of pregnancy, ICAN: Infant, Child, & Adolescent Nutrition, Idiopathic disease, Idiopathic interstitial pneumonia, Idiopathic multicentric Castleman disease, Idiopathic orbital inflammatory disease, Idiopathic pneumonia syndrome, IgG4-related disease, IgG4-related ophthalmic disease, IgG4-related skin disease, Illness, Imagine No Malaria, Immigrant health care in the United States, Indiana University School of Public Health-Bloomington, Indoor air pollution in developing nations, Inequality in disease, Infant mortality, Infant nutrition, Infection, Infection control, Infection Control Society of Pakistan, Infection rate, Infections associated with diseases, Infectious causes of cancer, Infectious coryza in chickens, Infectious disease (athletes), Infectious disease (medical specialty), Infectious Disease (Notification) Act 1889, Infectious Disease Pharmacokinetics Laboratory, Infectious Disease Research Institute, Infectious diseases, Infectious Diseases Institute, Infectious Diseases Society of America, Inflammatory bowel disease, Inflammatory demyelinating diseases of the central nervous system, Integrated disease surveillance program, Integrated Management of Childhood Illness, International Association of National Public Health Institutes, International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, International Journal of Epidemiology, International Journal of Sport Nutrition and Exercise Metabolism, International Lyme and Associated Diseases Society, International Society for Environmental Epidemiology, International Society for Infectious Diseases in Obstetrics and Gynaecology, International Society for Pharmacoepidemiology, International Statistical Classification of Diseases and Related Health Problems, International Union of Air Pollution Prevention and Environmental Protection Associations, Intestinal infectious diseases, Iron Triangle of Health Care, Jembrana disease, Jennifer McMahon (nutritionist), Journal of Alzheimer's Disease, Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, Journal of Epidemiology, Journal of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, Journal of Exposure Science and Environmental Epidemiology, Journal of Human Nutrition and Dietetics, Journal of Nutrition, Journal of Nutritional Biochemistry, Journal of Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition, Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, Jurosomatic illness, Kashin–Beck disease, Kawasaki disease, Krabbe disease, Kuru (disease), Kyasanur Forest disease, Landscape epidemiology, Leveraging Agriculture for Improving Nutrition and Health, Lipid pneumonia, List of autoimmune diseases, List of diseases eliminated from the United States, List of epidemics, List of feline diseases, List of foodborne illness outbreaks, List of foodborne illness outbreaks by death toll, List of ICD-9 codes 290–319: mental disorders, List of infections of the central nervous system, List of infectious diseases, List of infectious diseases causing flu-like syndrome, List of Legionnaires' disease outbreaks, List of mental disorders, List of national public health agencies, List of pneumonia deaths, List of types of malnutrition, Liverpool Neurological Infectious Diseases Course, Lobar pneumonia, Localized disease, London Declaration on Neglected Tropical Diseases, Lower respiratory tract infection, Lung disease, Lyme disease, Lyme disease microbiology, Lymphocytic interstitial pneumonia, Lysosomal storage disease, Madras motor neuron disease, Malaria, Malaria and the Caribbean, Malaria antigen detection tests, Malaria Atlas Project, Malaria Consortium, Malaria Control Project, Malaria culture, Malaria Day in the Americas, Malaria Eradication Scientific Alliance, Malaria Journal, Malaria No More, Malaria No More UK, Malaria Policy Advisory Committee, Malaria prophylaxis, Malaria vaccine, Malarial nephropathy, MalariaWorld, Malaysian Journal of Nutrition, Malnutrition, Malnutrition in children, Malnutrition in India, Malnutrition in Kerala, Malnutrition in Peru, Malnutrition in South Africa, Malnutrition in Zimbabwe, Management of Crohn's disease, Managerial epidemiology, Marburg virus disease, Mass psychogenic illness, Massachusetts smallpox epidemic, Maternal healthcare in Texas, Maternal mortality, Maternal mortality ratio, Mayaro virus disease, Measles, Measles & Rubella Initiative, Measles hemagglutinin, Measles morbillivirus, Measles resurgence in the United States, Measles vaccine, Medical students' disease, Medicines for Malaria Venture, Mekong Basin Disease Surveillance, Melanie's Marvelous Measles, Meningococcal disease, Mental disorder, Mental disorders and gender, Mental illness, Michael Colgan (nutritionist), Micronutrient malnutrition, Mitochondrial disease, Mixed connective tissue disease, Mobile source air pollution, Modern Healthcare, Molecular epidemiology, Molecular Nutrition & Food Research, Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, Mosquito-borne disease, Mosquito-malaria theory, Motor neuron disease, Motor Neurone Disease Association, Muesli belt malnutrition, Multiple complex developmental disorder, Multisystem developmental disorder, Music therapy for Alzheimer's disease, Mycobacterium avium-intracellulare infection, Mycoplasma hominis infection, Mycoplasma pneumonia, National Air Pollution Symposium, National Association for Public Health Policy, National Center for Disease Control and Public Health (Georgia), National Comorbidity Survey, National Emerging Infectious Diseases Laboratories, National Foundation for Infectious Diseases, National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, National Institute for Communicable Diseases, National Institute of Malaria Research, National Malaria Eradication Program, National Perinatal Epidemiology Unit, National School of Public Health (Spain), Neglected tropical disease research and development, Neglected tropical diseases, Neonatal infection, Nephropathia epidemica, Neuro-Behçet's disease, Neurodevelopmental disorder, Neuroepidemiology (journal), NINCDS-ADRDA Alzheimer's Criteria, Noma (disease), Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, Non-communicable disease, Non-communicable diseases, Non-specific interstitial pneumonia, Norwegian Institute of Public Health, Notifiable disease, Notifiable diseases in Sweden, Nutrition, Nutrition (journal), Nutrition and Cancer, Nutrition and Education International, Nutrition and Health, Nutrition Foundation of the Philippines, Nutrition in Clinical Practice, Nutrition Journal, Nutrition Reviews, Nutrition transition, Nutritional Neuroscience (journal), NutritionDay, Nutritionist, Occult pneumonia, Occupational exposure to Lyme disease, Opportunistic infection, Organic mental disorder, Outline of air pollution dispersion, Overnutrition, Overwhelming post-splenectomy infection, Oxford Brookes Centre for Nutrition and Health, Paediatric and Perinatal Epidemiology, Paget's disease of bone, Pandemic, Pandemic severity index, Papaya Bunchy Top Disease, Parasitic disease, Parasitic pneumonia, Parkinson's disease, Pay for performance (healthcare), Pelvic inflammatory disease, Pervasive developmental disorder, Pervasive developmental disorder not otherwise specified, Peyronie's disease, Pick's disease, Pinta (disease), Plague (disease), Plant nutrition, Plum Island Animal Disease Center, Pneumococcal infection, Pneumococcal pneumonia, Pneumocystis pneumonia, Pneumonia, Pneumonia (non-human), Pneumonia jacket, Pneumonia severity index, Pogosta disease, Portal:Malaria, Portal:Pervasive developmental disorders, Postorgasmic illness syndrome, Pott disease, Prebiotic (nutrition), Pregnancy-associated malaria, President's Malaria Initiative, Prevalence of mental disorders, Prevention of Tay–Sachs disease, Private healthcare, Progressive disease, Protein–energy malnutrition, Psychiatric epidemiology, Psychogenic disease, Public health, Public Health Agency of Canada, Public Health Agency of Sweden, Public Health Emergency of International Concern, Public health genomics, Public health informatics, Public health insurance option, Public health intervention, Public health laboratory, Public health law, Public health nursing, Public Health Nutrition, Public health observatory, Public health problems in the Aral Sea region, Public Health Research Institute, Public health surveillance, Public health system in India, Public Health Wales, Publicly funded health care, Quantum suicide and immortality, Rare disease, RBM Partnership To End Malaria, Reactive airway disease, Real-time outbreak and disease surveillance, Refugee health care in Canada, Reproductive health care for incarcerated women in the United States, Reproductive system disease, Respiratory disease, Respiratory diseases, Respiratory tract infection, Rheumatoid disease of the spine, Ron Rivera (public health), Royal Commission on the Future of Health Care in Canada, Rural health care in Australia, School health and nutrition services, Serratia infection, Services for mental disorders, Shona Holmes health care incident, Sickle cell disease, Single-payer healthcare, Skin and skin structure infection, Skin infection, Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology, Sociality and disease transmission, Societal and cultural aspects of Tay–Sachs disease, South African Malaria Initiative, South Texas Center for Emerging Infectious Diseases, Southern tick-associated rash illness, Spatial and Spatio-temporal Epidemiology, Specific replant disease, Stateville Penitentiary Malaria Study, Strengthening the reporting of observational studies in epidemiology, Streptococcus pneumoniae, Subclinical infection, Suicide epidemic, Superinfection, Surgical Infections, Susceptibility and severity of infections in pregnancy, Sweating sickness epidemics, Swedish Healthcare, Systemic disease, Target Malaria, Tay–Sachs disease, Template:Acari-borne diseases, Template:Eradication of infectious disease, Template:Gram-positive actinobacteria diseases, Template:Infectious disease, Template:Infectious-disease-stub, Template:Pervasive developmental disorders, Template:Plant nutrition, Template:Vertically transmitted infection, The Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, The Journal of Nutrition, Health and Aging, Theiler's disease, Tick-borne disease, Tick-Borne Disease Alliance, Timeline of Alzheimer's disease, Timeline of healthcare in China, Timeline of healthcare in Cuba, Timeline of healthcare in Egypt, Timeline of healthcare in Ethiopia, Timeline of healthcare in France, Timeline of healthcare in Germany, Timeline of healthcare in India, Timeline of healthcare in Italy, Timeline of healthcare in Japan, Timeline of healthcare in Kenya, Timeline of healthcare in Nigeria, Timeline of healthcare in Russia, Timeline of healthcare in South Africa, Timeline of healthcare in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Timeline of healthcare in the United Kingdom, Timeline of malaria, Timeline of measles, Timeline of peptic ulcer disease and Helicobacter pylori, Top dying disease, Traditional Healthcare, Tropical disease, Two-tier healthcare, Tyzzer's disease, UCSC Malaria Genome Browser, Undernutrition, Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and Malnutrition, Ureaplasma urealyticum infection, Usual interstitial pneumonia, Vaccine-preventable diseases, Vapours (disease), Vector (epidemiology), Venereal Disease Research Laboratory test, Ventilator-associated pneumonia, Vermont health care reform, Vertically transmitted infection, Very early onset inflammatory bowel disease, Veterinary public health, Viral pneumonia, Virgin soil epidemic, Vogt–Koyanagi–Harada disease, Waterborne diseases, Weather and climate effects on Lyme disease exposure, Whipple's disease, WHO disease staging system for HIV infection and disease, WHO Disease Staging System for HIV Infection and Disease in Adults and Adolescents, WHO Disease Staging System for HIV Infection and Disease in Children, Wildlife trafficking and emerging zoonotic diseases, Wilson's disease, Wilt disease, World Malaria Day, World Pneumonia Day  **Additional analyses**  Complementing the analysis presented in the 2019 Lancet Countdown report, the Figures below provide the standalone network plots for the climate change and the health-related articles, respectively.    Figure 51: Connectivity graph of Wikipedia articles on climate change. Popularity of articles displayed by node size. Edges represent co-visits in the 2018 clickstream data.    Figure 52: Connectivity graph of Wikipedia articles on health. Popularity of articles displayed by node size. Edges represent co-visits in the 2018 clickstream data.    Figure 37: Aggregate monthly co-clicks on articles in Wikipedia related to human health and climate change in 2018 |

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| **Working Group** | 5. Public and Political Engagement |
| **Indicator** | 5.3 Engagement in health and climate change in the United Nations General Assembly |
| **Methods** | In order to produce the measure of high level political engagement with climate change and health in the UN General Assembly, a new dataset of UN General Debate (UNGD) statements is used, which is discussed below. The approach to using UNGD statements to produce the indicators is based on the application of natural language processing to the corpus of UNGD statements. References to key search terms linked to (a) health, and (b) climate change are identified.  Table 26: Search terms for Health and Climate Change.   |  |  | | --- | --- | | Health terms | Climate change terms | | * malaria * diarrhoea * infection * disease * sars * measles * pneumonia * epidemic * pandemic * public health * health care * epidemiology * healthcare * health * mortality * morbidity * nutrition * illness * infectious * ncd * non-communicable disease * noncommunicable disease * communicable disease * air pollution * nutrition * malnutrition * mental disorder * stunting | * climate change * global warming * green house * temperature * extreme weather * global environmental change * climate variability * greenhouse * low carbon * ghge * renewable energy * carbon emission * co2 emission * climate pollutant |   In order to produce an indicator of engagement with the intersection of climate change and health, this indicator focused on whether any of the climate change related terms appeared immediately before or after any health terms in the GD statements. This was based on a search of the 25 words before and after a reference to a climate change related term. The choice of 25-word window context corresponds to approximately half a paragraph of text. Given that UNGD statements are highly structured and methodically developed by governments over prolonged periods of time, it was assumed that half a paragraph of text around public health terms captures a sufficiently narrow context. The number of climate change term references in these contexts were then searched and counted to produce the measure of engagement with the link between health and climate change. A robustness analysis was then conducted by varying the size of the context (5, 10, and 50 words). This substantively produced the same trends over time. A sample of the references produced by the search were then also further examined to ensure that the references identified reflect engagement with the health impacts of climate change. |
| **Data** | This indicator draws on a new and updated dataset of GD statements: *the United Nations General Debate corpus*, in which the annual GD statements have been pre-processed and prepared for the application of natural language processing to the official English versions of the statements.156 The dataset contains all of the country speeches made in the UN General Debate between 1970 and 2018. Table 27 presents summary of the data by year.  Table 27: Summary information for UN General Debate Corpus.   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | | **Year** | **Total speeches** | **Total sentences** | **Total words** | | **1970** | 70 | 11841 | 304290 | | **1971** | 116 | 19892 | 508823 | | **1972** | 125 | 21208 | 541279 | | **1973** | 120 | 21452 | 536685 | | **1974** | 129 | 22051 | 569216 | | **1975** | 126 | 21379 | 534621 | | **1976** | 134 | 23827 | 600415 | | **1977** | 140 | 24822 | 606142 | | **1978** | 141 | 25267 | 625725 | | **1979** | 144 | 26501 | 652551 | | **1980** | 149 | 27223 | 657862 | | **1981** | 145 | 26097 | 633723 | | **1982** | 147 | 23438 | 638526 | | **1983** | 149 | 26780 | 641172 | | **1984** | 150 | 27982 | 660963 | | **1985** | 137 | 19265 | 592782 | | **1986** | 149 | 19041 | 577652 | | **1987** | 152 | 18346 | 563107 | | **1988** | 154 | 18604 | 569545 | | **1989** | 153 | 19444 | 574455 | | **1990** | 156 | 17893 | 522230 | | **1991** | 162 | 18553 | 538391 | | **1992** | 167 | 18594 | 543162 | | **1993** | 175 | 20165 | 587786 | | **1994** | 178 | 19946 | 580989 | | **1995** | 172 | 17872 | 537258 | | **1996** | 181 | 18058 | 523208 | | **1997** | 176 | 17709 | 515090 | | **1998** | 181 | 18888 | 515338 | | **1999** | 181 | 18541 | 531704 | | **2000** | 178 | 16262 | 464742 | | **2001** | 189 | 14753 | 415053 | | **2002** | 188 | 13985 | 380817 | | **2003** | 189 | 14737 | 399773 | | **2004** | 192 | 14904 | 405687 | | **2005** | 185 | 13016 | 353420 | | **2006** | 193 | 14647 | 390874 | | **2007** | 191 | 14585 | 388214 | | **2008** | 192 | 14298 | 385176 | | **2009** | 193 | 16038 | 423681 | | **2010** | 189 | 14438 | 392266 | | **2011** | 194 | 16295 | 430321 | | **2012** | 195 | 16842 | 444763 | | **2013** | 193 | 16398 | 441245 | | **2014** | 194 | 15865 | 422284 | | **2015** | 193 | 16134 | 436593 | | **2016** | 194 | 16001 | 420489 | | **2017** | 196 | 16814 | 439993 | | **2018** | 196 | 16987 | 455558 | | **Total** | **8,093** | **923,678** | **24,875,639** |   The data was pre-processed for analysis by removing punctuation, symbols, numbers, and URLs. Any tokens smaller than three characters were also removed to reduce typos and mistakes from the document digitisation process. In addition, all tokens were normalised (lowercased). All pre-processing and analysis was carried out in R using “quanteda” package.157 |
| **Caveats** | The search for climate change terms in the context of public health references is a proxy for the semantic linkage between the two sets of terms in GD statements. This approach produces a scalable and reproducible measure with a high degree of reliability that does not involve human judgement or subjective biases. However, there may be examples of governments referring to climate change and health but not the direct linkages between the two, which are included in the count; and there may be examples of governments discussing the health impacts of climate change in their UNGD statements, which are not included in our measure because the distance between the mention of the climate change term and the health term exceeds 25 words. Based on an analysing a sample of the speeches and references, such cases are relatively rare and do not have a significant bearing on the indicator or the trends uncovered.  It is also worth noting that the analysis here is based on a narrow range of search terms, which excludes reference to many of indirect links between climate change and health. A number of GD statements in this time period refer to such indirect connections, such as the effects of climate change on water and agriculture – however, these are not included here. Therefore, the results present a somewhat conservative estimate of high level political engagement with the intersection of climate change and health. Future work in this area will consider engagement with these indirect links. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | In the future, this indicator will look more closely at the references to indirect links between climate change and health. For example, what are the main ways in which governments view climate change impacting on health? This indicator will consider whether this changes over time, based on awareness of the multiple ways in which climate change and health are connected. Some of the references to the indirect links between climate change and health made in UNGD statements have been highlighted in the main 2019 Lancet Countdown report. |
| **Additional Information** | Some additional findings and breakdowns are presented here. Figure 46 below presents the proportion of countries that engage with the intersection of climate change and health by WHO region. It is worth noting that the relatively higher level of political engagement by countries in the Western Pacific is especially driven by the small island development states (SIDS) in this region. It also worth noting that North America WHO region contains only two countries, USA and Canada. As neither of these countries refer to the health impacts of climate change (the US statement made no reference to climate change), the North America region has zero proportion of countries engaged with the climate change-health links.    Figure 53: Proportion of countries referring to intersection of health and climate change by region, 1970-2018.  Figure 47 below presents the total number of references to the health impacts of climate change in GD statements between 1970 and 2018. The figure demonstrates a very similar trend to when the proportion of countries is considered; with spikes seen in 2009-10 and 2014 in both approaches.    Figure 54: Total number of references to intersection, 1970-2018.  Figure 48, below, presents the total number of references to the climate change-health link between 1970 and 2018 by WHO region. The figure shows that the most references tend to be made by countries in the Western Pacific. Countries in Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Europe are the most engaged after the Western Pacific countries. In general, the figure suggests that there is lower engagement among countries in the Eastern Mediterranean, North America, and South-East Asia.    Figure 55: Total number of references to intersection by region, 1970-2018  In addition to grouping countries by WHO region, different types of countries are also considered in terms of their potential importance and role in addressing issues related to climate change. This is provided in Figure 49. As noted in previous Lancet Countdown reports,1,131 the SIDS have driven much of the engagement with the health impacts of climate change, as well as climate change more generally, in the UN General Assembly. As such, a SIDS grouping is included. Arguably the three most important countries/unions in addressing climate change are USA, China, and the EU. This is both in terms of their carbon dioxide emissions and their power within the international system. This group is referred to as Tier 1 countries in Figure 49. Finally, an additional grouping of countries that are also important in terms of their CO2 emissions, their influence in international politics, and their potential impact on addressing climate change are considered. This grouping, which, in this indicator, is referred to as Tier 2 countries includes: Poland, Australia, South Africa, Brazil, India, France, Germany, and Indonesia.  Figure 49 shows the proportion of countries that engage with the intersection of climate change and health based on these country groupings. Figure 50 shows the total number of references to the climate change-health intersection according to these groupings. Both figures demonstrate the higher level of engagement with the climate change-health linkages by SIDS than by Tier 1 or Tier 2 countries.    Figure 56: Proportion of countries referring to intersection of health and climate change by country grouping, 1970-2018.    Figure 57: Total number of references to intersection by country grouping, 1970-2018.  Figure 51 below shows the level of political engagement with climate change and health separately, rather than engagement with the intersection of climate change and health. This is measured by the references to the key search terms associated with climate change and health in General Debate speeches. Figure 52 shows the proportion of countries that refer to public health in their GD statements between 1970 and 2017, while Figure 53 shows the proportion of countries that make a reference to climate change during this period. The figures show that in general there is higher levels of engagement with climate change than health. Figures 17 and 19 also show a sharp increase in engagement with climate change in the General Debate around 2006, followed by a decline in 2009 after the COP15 in Copenhagen that year. However, there has been an increase in engagement with climate change in recent years around the Paris Agreement. Engagement with health has in comparison been lower. However, there has broadly been increasing engagement with public health during this time period, and a sharp increase in 2000 with the launch of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). There is also an increase in the salience of global health from 2012 onwards, which coincides with the transition from the MDGs to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).    Figure 58: Total number of references to public health and climate change, 1970-2018.    Figure 59: Proportion of countries referring to public health, 1970-2018.    Figure 60: Proportion of countries referring to climate change, 1970-2017.  Figure 54 below presents a world map, which shows the countries that refer to the intersection of climate change and health in their 2018 GD statements, and the number of individual references they make. The map shows the relatively low level of engagement with the health impacts of climate change around the world in 2018. However, due to their size the SIDS do not show up on the map. As noted, the SIDS tend to be highly represented among nations engaging with the health-climate change links.  Figure 55 and Figure 56 present world maps, which show the countries that refer to public health and climate change respectively in their 2018 GD statements, as well as indicating the number of references made by each country. The figures demonstrate that while there is relatively low engagement with the intersection of health and climate change, there is considerable engagement with the issues of climate change and health separately. Figures Q and R show that as well as a much larger share of countries around the world discussing climate change and health in their GD statements compared to those discussing the intersection, there is also much deeper engagement with these two areas individually, in that countries tend to make a number of references to climate change and health in their GD statements.    Figure 61: World map showing references to intersection of climate change and health, 2018.    Figure 62: World map showing references to public health, 2018.    Figure 63: World map showing references to climate change, 2018.  The figures below show engagement with climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health over 1970-2018 for selected countries. |

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| **Working Group** | 5. Public and Political Engagement |
| **Indicator** | 5.4 Corporate engagement with health and climate change in the healthcare sector |
| **Methods** | In order to produce the measure of engagement with climate change and health in healthcare companies’ UN Global Compact Communication of Progress (COP) reports, publicly available COP reports were used. The approach to using the COP reports to produce the indicators is based on identifying references to key search terms linked to (a) health, and (b) climate change.  Table 28: Search terms for Health and Climate Change.   |  |  | | --- | --- | | Health terms | Climate change terms | | * malaria * diarrhoea * infection * disease * sars * measles * pneumonia * epidemic * pandemic * public health * health care * epidemiology * healthcare * health * mortality * morbidity * nutrition * illness * infectious * ncd * non-communicable disease * noncommunicable disease * communicable disease * air pollution * nutrition * malnutrition * mental disorder * stunting | * climate change * global warming * green house * temperature * extreme weather * global environmental change * climate variability * greenhouse * low carbon * ghge * renewable energy * carbon emission * co2 emission * climate pollutant |   In order to produce an indicator of engagement with the intersection of climate change and health, this indicator focused on whether any of the climate change related terms appeared immediately before or after any public health terms in the COP reports. This was based on a search of the 25 words before and after a reference to a public health related term. Table 29 presents total number of references identified in COP reports per year, where the column “Intersection” is the count of climate change terms appearing in the context (25 words before and after) of health terms.  Table 29: total number of references identified in COP reports per year.   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | **Health** | **Climate** | **Intersection** | | **2011** | 15362 | 9338 | 473 | | **2012** | 20097 | 11171 | 475 | | **2013** | 25542 | 12041 | 643 | | **2014** | 29963 | 13231 | 712 | | **2015** | 28277 | 13399 | 735 | | **2016** | 30326 | 15048 | 918 | | **2017** | 32493 | 16378 | 1068 | | **2018** | 34223 | 17447 | 1098 | |
| **Data** | This indicator draws on the publicly available UN Global Compact COP reports. A total of 37,102 reports were downloaded from COP from 138 countries across 43 industries. The total number of reports per year for 2011-2018 in are presented in Table 30 (prior to 2011 there were total of 11 reports).  Table 30: Total COP reports by year, 2011-2018.   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Year** | **Number of reports** | | 2018 | 5490 | | 2017 | 5602 | | 2016 | 5299 | | 2015 | 5182 | | 2014 | 4582 | | 2013 | 4561 | | 2012 | 3811 | | 2011 | 2564 |     COP reports are submitted in 31 different languages. For the development of this indicator only reports available in English (17,896 or 48.23%), were included. A number of the English language files were corrupt or could not be converted into plain text format for analysis. The distribution of available English-language reports over time is presented in Table 31.  Table 31: English -language COP reports by year.   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Year** | **Number of reports** | | 2018 | 2670 | | 2017 | 2662 | | 2016 | 2653 | | 2015 | 2452 | | 2014 | 2261 | | 2013 | 2141 | | 2012 | 1774 | | 2011 | 1276 |   These English language reports come from companies representing 132 countries, with the top 10 being Denmark (1,360 reports), USA (1,226), France (1,057), UK (1,031), Sweden (890), Germany (815), Japan (746), India (615), Australia (460), Netherlands (452), and Switzerland (427).  There are only single COP report submissions before 2011, the sample of COP reports was limited to the period 2011-2018. These documents were pre-processed and prepared for the application of natural language processing by converting the reports to plain text format; removing punctuation and numbers; removing stopwords; regularising (lowercasing); and stemming. All of the pre-processing was conducted using the Python NLTK toolkit. |
| **Caveats** | As noted above, only COP reports that were submitted in English were considered. This includes just under half of all available UN General Compact COP reports.  This analysis here is based on a narrow range of search terms, which excludes reference to many of indirect links between climate change and health. Reports may also discuss indirect connections, such as the effect of climate change on agriculture, however, these are not included here. Therefore, the results present a somewhat conservative estimate of high corporate engagement with the intersection of climate change and health. Future work in this area will consider engagement with these indirect links, as well as providing additional forms of analysis. |
| **Future Form of Indicator** | In the future, this indicator will increase the number of reports analysed by translating our key search terms into several other key languages, and incorporating reports submitted in languages other than English into this sample. Translation of key terms into Spanish, Portuguese, and German has already been implemented in WG5. These translations will be used in next year’s report. |
| **Additional Information** | Figure 39 presents the proportion of healthcare equipment and services companies referring to climate change, health, and the intersection in CP reports from 2011 to 2018, with only 12% of companies making reference to both in 2018.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/3207B6E9.tmp  Figure 39: Proportion of healthcare sector companies referring to climate change, health, and the intersection of health and climate change in CP reports, 2011-2018  Some additional findings and breakdowns are presented in this section. Figure 57 presents the total number of references to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health across all of the COP reports (and all sectors). As noted in the main report, there are low and fairly constant levels of engagement with the climate change-health linkages.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/BC9C5253.tmp  Figure 64: Total references to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health across all COP reports, 2011-2018.  Figure 58 presents the total references with the intersection of climate change and health to better show any trends occurring in engagement. The figure shows that there while total references may still be quite low, there has been an increase in engagement with the climate change-health linkages, particularly since 2015.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/7DA9534F.tmp  Figure 65: Total references to the intersection of climate change and health across all COP reports, 2011-2018.  Figure 59 shows that the total proportion of COP reports that refer to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health. The report shows that engagement with climate change and health are generally much higher than with the intersection. Around 60% of all COP reports refer to climate change in 2018, while approximately 45% of all reports refer to health in 2018. In contrast only 15% of reports refer to the intersection of climate change and health in 2018. The figure shows that there has been a very slight increase in the level of engagement across all three issues, however, the increase in engagement with the climate change-health intersection is far less pronounced than when we consider total references.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/E506460B.tmp  Figure 66: Proportion of COP reports referring to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health, 2011-2018.  Engagement with climate change and health in the UN Global Compact COP reports by WHO region was also considered. Figure 60 shows the total number of references to the climate change-health intersection based on which of the WHO regions a company is based on, and Figure 61 shows the proportion of companies based in the different WHO regions that refer to the health impacts of climate change in their annual COP report.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/2119C935.tmp  Figure 67: Total references with the intersection of climate change and health by WHO region, 2011-2018.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/C1D19751.tmp  Figure 68: Proportion of companies referring to intersection of health and climate change by WHO region, 2011-2018.  Figure 61 shows that the highest proportion of COP reports engaging with the climate change-health intersection in recent years has come from corporations based in North America, followed by the Western Pacific region. The lowest engagement comes from corporations based in the Eastern Mediterranean region.  Engagement across different sectors was also considered. Table 32shows the total number of references to climate change, health, and the intersection across the different sectors, while Table 33 shows the proportion of corporations in each sector that engage with climate change, health, and the climate change-health intersection. Figure 62 and Figure 63 present this information in the form of bar graphs.  Table 32: Total number of references to the intersection of climate change and health by sector.   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | **health** | **climate** | **intersection** | | **Aerospace & Defense** | 2127 | 1014 | 63 | | **Alternative Energy** | 1260 | 1607 | 89 | | **Automobiles & Parts** | 6223 | 2970 | 209 | | **Banks** | 3683 | 2869 | 72 | | **Beverages** | 5210 | 2671 | 199 | | **Chemicals** | 14438 | 5967 | 619 | | **Construction & Materials** | 12564 | 6398 | 364 | | **Diversified** | 1648 | 751 | 33 | | **Electricity** | 4095 | 4393 | 179 | | **Electronic & Electrical Equ...** | 4923 | 2452 | 98 | | **Equity Investment Instruments** | 811 | 121 | 8 | | **Financial Services** | 10971 | 10995 | 350 | | **Fixed Line Telecommunications** | 3062 | 1307 | 68 | | **Food & Drug Retailers** | 777 | 390 | 14 | | **Food Producers** | 12953 | 4447 | 372 | | **Forestry & Paper** | 2448 | 1951 | 60 | | **Gas, Water & Multiutilities** | 2665 | 2893 | 101 | | **General Industrials** | 14241 | 6847 | 471 | | **General Retailers** | 5608 | 3208 | 111 | | **Health Care Equipment & Ser...** | 6843 | 677 | 108 | | **Household Goods & Home Cons...** | 2361 | 1295 | 61 | | **Industrial Engineering** | 4903 | 2140 | 165 | | **Industrial Goods & Services** | 0 | 0 | 0 | | **Industrial Metals & Mining** | 7461 | 2493 | 150 | | **Industrial Transportation** | 4370 | 2279 | 108 | | **Leisure Goods** | 428 | 295 | 8 | | **Life Insurance** | 1048 | 239 | 4 | | **Media** | 3135 | 1531 | 38 | | **Mining** | 5057 | 1496 | 100 | | **Mobile Telecommunications** | 5202 | 2628 | 170 | | **Nonequity Investment Instru...** | 153 | 49 | 3 | | **Nonlife Insurance** | 1145 | 229 | 4 | | **Not Applicable** | 1475 | 711 | 60 | | **Oil & Gas Producers** | 10073 | 7035 | 392 | | **Oil Equipment, Services & D...** | 1926 | 761 | 54 | | **Personal Goods** | 3697 | 1481 | 89 | | **Pharmaceuticals & Biotechno...** | 14516 | 1512 | 274 | | **Real Estate Investment & Se...** | 3364 | 1690 | 58 | | **Real Estate Investment Trusts** | 1584 | 775 | 96 | | **Software & Computer Services** | 4219 | 2307 | 110 | | **Support Services** | 9759 | 4775 | 223 | | **Technology Hardware & Equip...** | 9786 | 5883 | 279 | | **Tobacco** | 41 | 19 | 0 | | **Travel & Leisure** | 4414 | 2813 | 98 |   Table 33: Total proportion of corporations in each sector engaging with the intersection of climate change and health.   |  |  |  |  | | --- | --- | --- | --- | |  | **health** | **climate** | **intersection** | | **Aerospace & Defense** | 60.773481 | 45.856354 | 9.392265 | | **Alternative Energy** | 62.711864 | 61.864407 | 26.271186 | | **Automobiles & Parts** | 60.135135 | 36.261261 | 15.090090 | | **Banks** | 60.154242 | 52.185090 | 10.282776 | | **Beverages** | 61.994609 | 52.021563 | 17.250674 | | **Chemicals** | 66.140351 | 55.964912 | 29.473684 | | **Construction & Materials** | 55.576560 | 44.801512 | 14.933837 | | **Diversified** | 62.666667 | 52.000000 | 18.666667 | | **Electricity** | 68.000000 | 64.727273 | 25.818182 | | **Electronic & Electrical Equ...** | 44.395280 | 29.793510 | 7.079646 | | **Equity Investment Instruments** | 40.476190 | 23.809524 | 5.952381 | | **Financial Services** | 55.065739 | 52.822892 | 11.446249 | | **Fixed Line Telecommunications** | 64.210526 | 52.105263 | 15.263158 | | **Food & Drug Retailers** | 50.000000 | 52.500000 | 17.500000 | | **Food Producers** | 65.507246 | 47.826087 | 17.246377 | | **Forestry & Paper** | 60.165975 | 52.282158 | 15.352697 | | **Gas, Water & Multiutilities** | 52.061856 | 49.484536 | 14.948454 | | **General Industrials** | 50.107373 | 38.081603 | 11.238368 | | **General Retailers** | 51.052632 | 37.543860 | 10.701754 | | **Health Care Equipment & Ser...** | 64.768683 | 29.537367 | 10.676157 | | **Household Goods & Home Cons...** | 57.203390 | 36.864407 | 11.016949 | | **Industrial Engineering** | 52.848723 | 40.275049 | 12.966601 | | **Industrial Goods & Services** | 0.000000 | 0.000000 | 0.000000 | | **Industrial Metals & Mining** | 64.453961 | 47.751606 | 16.059957 | | **Industrial Transportation** | 54.311927 | 40.550459 | 8.623853 | | **Leisure Goods** | 55.223881 | 37.313433 | 8.955224 | | **Life Insurance** | 47.619048 | 49.206349 | 4.761905 | | **Media** | 54.158607 | 38.491296 | 4.255319 | | **Mining** | 60.264901 | 45.033113 | 23.841060 | | **Mobile Telecommunications** | 73.898305 | 60.677966 | 25.762712 | | **Nonequity Investment Instru...** | 93.333333 | 80.000000 | 20.000000 | | **Nonlife Insurance** | 52.000000 | 38.000000 | 2.000000 | | **Not Applicable** | 56.250000 | 31.944444 | 11.805556 | | **Oil & Gas Producers** | 70.852018 | 61.434978 | 31.614350 | | **Oil Equipment, Services & D...** | 63.687151 | 40.223464 | 16.759777 | | **Personal Goods** | 59.533898 | 37.500000 | 7.627119 | | **Pharmaceuticals & Biotechno...** | 70.224719 | 43.258427 | 20.786517 | | **Real Estate Investment & Se...** | 51.219512 | 46.341463 | 10.670732 | | **Real Estate Investment Trusts** | 72.000000 | 64.000000 | 44.000000 | | **Software & Computer Services** | 55.873926 | 33.237822 | 6.733524 | | **Support Services** | 51.705115 | 34.904714 | 6.569709 | | **Technology Hardware & Equip...** | 58.620690 | 46.551724 | 16.379310 | | **Tobacco** | 50.000000 | 25.000000 | 0.000000 | | **Travel & Leisure** | 60.925926 | 47.407407 | 10.185185 |   /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/A68F6687.tmp  Figure 69: Total references to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health by sector.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/C24992D.tmp  Figure 70: Proportion of corporations referring to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health by sector.  As discussed in the main report, the highest level of engagement with the intersection of climate change and health can be seen in the alternative energy, chemicals, electricity, mobile telecommunications, oil and gas producers, and real estate investment sectors. In contrast, there were much lower levels of engagement in the healthcare sector.  Additional information is presented here on engagement with the climate change-health intersection in the healthcare sector, which is the focus in the main report. In addition to the total number of references to, and total proportion of reports that refer to, the climate change and health, Figure 64 shows the average number of references to climate change, health, and the intersection in COP reports from healthcare corporations. The figure again demonstrates the low level of engagement with the health impacts of climate change in healthcare sector COP reports.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/FC4FE3.tmp  Figure 71: Average references to climate change, health, and the intersection of climate change and health in the healthcare sector COP reports, 2011-2018.  Figure 65 shows the proportion of healthcare sector corporations that engage with the climate change-health intersection by WHO region. As discussed in the main report, the figure shows that healthcare sector corporations based in Europe tend to engage much more with the climate change-health links than healthcare corporations based in other regions.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/B826A645.tmp  Figure 72: Proportion of corporations in the healthcare sector engaging with the climate change-health intersection by WHO region, 2011-2018.    Table 34Table 33and Table 35 display the total number of references to each of the keywords related to climate change (Table 34) and health (Table 35) in the COP reports of corporations in the health care sector.  Table 34: Total references to climate change-related keywords in healthcare sector COP reports.   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Keyword** | **Number of mentions** | | greenhouse | 303 | | climate\_change | 191 | | renewable\_energy | 63 | | temperature | 50 | | low\_carbon | 39 | | global\_warming | 14 | | carbon\_emission | 8 | | extreme\_weather | 5 | | green\_house | 4 |   Table 35: Total references to public health-related keywords in healthcare sector COP reports.   |  |  | | --- | --- | | **Keyword** | **Number of mentions** | | health | 3407 | | healthcare | 1991 | | health\_care | 440 | | disease | 280 | | infection | 133 | | malaria | 117 | | infectious | 104 | | public\_health | 90 | | illness | 83 | | nutrition | 72 | | mortality | 52 | | pandemic | 18 | | air\_pollution | 16 | | malnutrition | 10 | | morbidity | 10 | | communicable\_disease | 4 | | measles | 4 | | stunting | 4 | | epidemic | 4 | | sars | 2 | | pneumonia | 1 | | epidemiology | 1 |   Figure 66 displays a network graph of the co-occurrence of these key terms in COP reports in the healthcare sector. The figure shows that much of the emphasis is on the link between ‘climate change’ and ‘health’, as well as on ‘healthcare’.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/BE78462C.tmp  Figure 73: Network graph of co-occurrence of key words in healthcare sector COP reports.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/6BF4812B.tmp  Figure 74: Total references to the climate change-health intersection in the healthcare sector by SIDS, Tier 1 countries, and Tier 2 countries, 2011-2018.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/41561F71.tmp  Figure 75: Average number of references to the climate change-health intersection in the healthcare sector by SIDS, Tier 1 countries, and Tier 2 countries, 2011-2018.  /var/folders/6s/nnhvb5tn2qs1ht1rf8kd577r0000gn/T/com.microsoft.Word/Content.MSO/1CF8C3A7.tmp  Figure 76: Proportion of corporations in the healthcare sector referring to the climate change-health intersection in the healthcare sector by SIDS, Tier 1 countries, and Tier 2 countries, 2011-2018. |

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1. For climate change articles, the keywords were *climate change, warming, ipcc*, and green house, and *greenhouse*. For health articles, the seed keywords were *epidemy, disease, malaria, diarrhoea, infection, sars, measles, pneumonia, epidemic, pandemic, public health, health care, healthcare, epidemiology, mortality, morbidity, nutrition, illness, infectious, ncd, non-communicable disease, noncommunicable disease, communicable disease, air pollution, nutrition, malnutrition, mental disorder,* and *stunting*. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)