

1   **Anomalously warm temperatures are associated with increased injury deaths**

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21 Temperatures which deviate from long-term local norm affect human health, and are  
22 projected to become more frequent as the global climate changes.<sup>1</sup> There is limited data  
23 on how such anomalies affect deaths from injuries. Here, we used data on mortality and  
24 temperature over 38 years (1980-2017) in the contiguous USA and formulated a Bayesian  
25 spatio-temporal model to quantify how anomalous temperatures, defined as deviations of  
26 monthly temperature from the local average monthly temperature over the entire  
27 analysis period, affect deaths from unintentional (transport, falls and drownings) and  
28 intentional (assault and suicide) injuries, by age group and sex. We found that a 1.5°C  
29 anomalously warm year, as envisioned under the Paris Climate Agreement,<sup>2</sup> would be  
30 associated with an estimated 1,601 (95% credible interval 1,430-1,776) additional injury  
31 deaths. 84% of these additional deaths would occur in males, mostly in adolescent to  
32 middle ages. These deaths would comprise of increases in deaths from drownings,  
33 transport, assault and suicide, offset partly by a decline in deaths from falls in older ages.  
34 The findings demonstrate the need for targeted interventions against injuries during  
35 periods of anomalously high temperatures, especially as these episodes are likely to  
36 increase with global climate change.

37

38 Anomalously warm and cold weather events are an important public health concern in today's  
39 world, and one of the key drivers for seeking adaptation measures against anthropogenic  
40 climate change.<sup>3-5</sup> Current assessments of the health effects of weather and climate, and by  
41 extension of global climate change, largely focus on parasitic and infectious diseases and  
42 cardiorespiratory and other chronic diseases.<sup>3-8</sup> Less research has been conducted on injuries,<sup>9-</sup>  
43 <sup>12</sup> especially in a consistent way across injury types and demographic subgroups of the  
44 population. There are two reasons to investigate a potential role for temperature anomalies on  
45 injury mortality. First, death rates from injuries vary seasonally and the seasonality varies by

46 age group,<sup>13,14</sup> which motivates investigating whether temperature contributes to their  
47 pathogenesis. Second, there are plausible behavioural and physiological pathways for a  
48 relationship between temperature and injury – for example changes in alcohol drinking,<sup>15</sup>  
49 driving patterns and performance,<sup>12,16–24</sup> and levels of anger<sup>25–27</sup> – which motivates testing  
50 whether injury deaths are affected by temperature anomalies. Our aim was to evaluate how  
51 deaths from various injuries in the USA might be affected by anomalously warm and  
52 temperatures that occur today and are expected to become increasingly common as a result of  
53 global climate change.<sup>1</sup>

54

55 We used vital registration data on all injury deaths in the contiguous USA (i.e., excluding  
56 Alaska and Hawaii) from 1980 to 2017, with information on sex, age at death, underlying cause  
57 of death and county and state of residence. From 1980 to 2017, 4,145,963 boys and men and  
58 1,825,817 girls and women died from an injury in the contiguous USA, accounting for 9.3%  
59 and 4.2% of all male and female deaths respectively. 95.7% of male injury deaths and 94% of  
60 female injury deaths were in those aged 15 years and older, and over half (52.3%) of male  
61 injury deaths were in those aged 15–44 years (Figure 1). By contrast with males, there was less  
62 of an age gradient in females after 15 years of age.

63

64 Injuries from transport, falls, drownings, assault, and suicide accounted for 78.6% of injury  
65 deaths in males and 71.8% in females. The remainder were from a heterogeneous group of  
66 “other injuries” (Figure 1), within which the composition of injuries that led to death varied by  
67 sex and age group. Transport was the leading injury cause of death in women younger than 75  
68 years and in men younger than 35 years. Between 35 and 74 years of age, more men died of  
69 suicide than any other injury. Above 75 years of age, falls were the largest cause of injury-  
70 related death in both men and women.

71  
72 There was a decline in age-standardised death rates of three out of five major injuries (transport,  
73 drownings and assault) from 1980 to 2017, although assault deaths have more recently (since  
74 2014) increased (Figure 2). By contrast, age-standardised death rates from falls increased over  
75 time while those from suicide initially decreased followed by an increase to surpass 1980  
76 levels. The largest overall decline over time was for transport deaths in both sexes and for  
77 deaths from drownings in men, which declined by more than 50% from 1980 to 2017. Age-  
78 standardised death rates for transport injuries and drownings peaked in summer months but  
79 deaths from other major injuries did not have clear seasonal patterns.

80  
81 We defined a measure of anomalous temperature for each county and month, which represents  
82 the deviation from the county's average temperature in that month over the entire analysis  
83 period (Extended Data Figure 1). County-level anomalies were aggregated to state level with  
84 use of population weights. This generated a number for each state and month that measured  
85 deviation from long-term average of the state in that month. Average size of anomaly over the  
86 study period (1980-2017), a measure of how variable temperatures are around their state-month  
87 long-term average, ranged from 0.4°C for Florida in September, to 3.4°C for North Dakota in  
88 February (Extended Data Figure 2). Taken across all states and months, the average size of  
89 anomaly had a median value of 1.2°C. Temperature anomalies were largest in January and  
90 December and smallest in August and September. Additionally, they were larger in northern  
91 and central states than in southern and coastal ones.

92  
93 We analysed the association of monthly injury death rates with anomalous temperature using  
94 a Bayesian spatio-temporal model, described in detail in Methods. We used the resultant risk  
95 estimates and the age-sex-specific death rates from each injury in 2017, to estimate additional

96 deaths if each month in each state were +1.5°C above its long-term average as envisioned under  
97 the Paris Climate Agreement.<sup>2</sup> We present additional results, based on a +2°C, which is the  
98 upper bound of the Paris Climate Agreement as Extended Data. Based on this analysis, there  
99 would be an estimated 1,601 (95% credible interval 1,430-1,776) excess injury deaths,  
100 equivalent to 0.75% of all injury deaths in 2017, in a year in which each month in each state  
101 was +1.5°C warmer than its long-term average (Figure 3). The number of excess injury deaths  
102 would increase to 2,135 (95% credible interval 1,906-2,368), equivalent to 1.0% of all injury  
103 deaths in 2017, in each year in which each month in each state was +2°C warmer than its long-  
104 term average (Extended Data Figure 3).

105

106 Deaths from drowning, transport, assault and suicide would increase, partly offset by a decline  
107 in deaths from falls in middle and older ages and in winter months (Figure 3). Most excess  
108 deaths would be from transport injuries (739; 650-814 in the +1.5°C warmer scenario) followed  
109 closely by suicide (540; 445-631). 84% of the excess deaths would occur in males and 16% in  
110 females. 92% of all male excess deaths would occur in those aged 15-64 years, who have higher  
111 rates of deaths from transport and suicide. In those aged 85 years and older, there would be an  
112 estimated decline in injury deaths, because deaths from falls are expected to decline in a  
113 warmer year.

114

115 Proportionally, deaths from drownings are estimated to increase more than those of other injury  
116 types, by as much 13.7% (12.5, 15.2) for a +1.5°C anomaly in men aged 15-24 years (Figure  
117 4). The smallest proportional increase was that of assault and suicide (less than 3% in all age  
118 and sex groups). There was a larger percent increase in transport deaths for males than for  
119 females, especially in young and middle-ages (e.g., 2.0% (1.6, 2.6) for 25-34 year old men

120 versus 0.5% (-0.3, 1.4) for women of the same age) (Figure 4). We present additional results,  
121 based on a +2°C, as Extended Data (Extended Data Figure 4).

122  
123 That anomalously warm temperature influences deaths from drowning, although not previously  
124 quantified, is highly plausible because swimming is likely to be more common when  
125 temperature is higher. The higher relative and absolute impacts on men compared with women  
126 may reflect differences in their behaviours. For example, over half of swimming deaths for  
127 males occur in natural water, compared to about one quarter for females.<sup>28</sup> The former may  
128 rise more in warmer weather. Similarly, deaths from falls declined more in older ages because  
129 falls in the elderly are more likely to be due to slipping on ice than those in younger people.<sup>29–</sup>

130 <sup>31</sup>

131  
132 The pathways from anomalous temperature to transport injury are more varied. Firstly, driving  
133 performance deteriorates at higher temperatures.<sup>20–23</sup> Further, alcohol consumption increases  
134 in warm temperatures,<sup>15</sup> which also provides an explanation for why teenagers, who are more  
135 likely than other age groups to crash while intoxicated,<sup>32</sup> could experience a larger proportional  
136 rise in deaths from transport when temperatures are anomalously warm than older adults.  
137 Lastly, warmer temperatures generally increase road traffic in North America;<sup>12,16–19,24</sup> coupled  
138 with more people outdoors in warmer weather,<sup>33</sup> this increase could lead to more fatal  
139 collisions.

140  
141 Pathways linking anomalously high temperatures and deaths from assault and suicide are less  
142 established. One hypothesis is that, more time spent outdoors in anomalously warmer  
143 temperatures leads to an increased number of face-to-face interactions, and hence arguments,  
144 confrontations, and ultimately assaults.<sup>34,35</sup> These effects could be compounded by the greater

145 anger levels linked to higher temperatures.<sup>25–27</sup> However, further research on the association of  
146 temperature and assault, and the factors mediating it, is needed.<sup>36</sup> Regarding suicide, it has been  
147 hypothesised that higher temperature is associated with higher levels of distress in younger  
148 people.<sup>37</sup> Nonetheless, the mechanisms for the links between temperature and mental health  
149 requires further investigation, including whether the relationship varies by age and sex, as  
150 indicated by our results. Future research should also investigate the extent to which the  
151 increased risk of injury death as a result of anomalous temperature depends on community  
152 characteristics such as poverty and deprivation, social connectivity and cohesion, quality of  
153 roads and housing, public transportation options, emergency response, and social services.

154

155 The major strength of our study is that we have comprehensively modelled the association of  
156 temperature anomaly with injury by type of injury, month, age group and sex. Our measure of  
157 temperature anomaly internalises long-term historical experience of each state, and is closer to  
158 what climate change may bring about than solely examining daily episodes, or average  
159 temperature to which people have adapted. To utilise this metric, we integrated two large  
160 disparate national datasets on mortality (vital statistics) and meteorology (ERA5), and  
161 developed a bespoke Bayesian spatio-temporal model. A limitation of our study is that, like all  
162 observation studies, we cannot rule out confounding of results due to other factors. As  
163 described above, our statistical model by design adjusts for factors related to month, state and  
164 state-month that are either invariant over time or that change linearly. Rather, the confounding  
165 factors would be those with anomalies that are similar to those of monthly temperature in each  
166 state, such as air pollution. However, to our knowledge, there is currently no evidence of an  
167 association between air pollution and injury mortality. We analysed the associations between  
168 anomalous temperature and injury mortality at the state level because the small number of  
169 events and computational demands made county-level analyses unfeasible. Analyses at finer

170 spatial resolution, such as county or district,<sup>50</sup> would be ideal because the impacts of  
171 anomalously warm and cold temperature on deaths from injuries may depend on  
172 socioeconomic (e.g., poverty; social connectivity and cohesion; availability of guns),  
173 environmental (e.g., availability of swimming pools; distance to bodies of water), infrastructure  
174 (e.g., quality and safety of roads; public transportation options), and health and social services  
175 (e.g., counselling and mental health services; emergency response). We used categories of  
176 injuries that are relevant for public health purposes and for designing and implementing  
177 interventions. It may be possible to further split each category. For example, 92% of all  
178 transport injuries in males and 96% in females are from road traffic injuries, with the remainder  
179 being classified as other transport injuries (Extended Data Figure 5). Similarly, suicides can be  
180 classified based on the means of suicide. To the extent that these sub-categories are relevant  
181 for interventions, they should be separately analysed in future studies. Finally, as with any  
182 Bayesian model, choices of prior distributions and hyper-parameters are necessary. There are  
183 alternatives to the priors we used. For example, our weakly informative gamma priors could  
184 have been replaced with penalised complexity priors<sup>51</sup> or uniform priors on the standard  
185 deviation scale.<sup>52</sup> We tested a limited number of alternatives and found that our results were  
186 robust to such specifications.

187

188

189 Our work highlights how deaths from injuries are currently susceptible to temperature  
190 anomalies and could also be modified by rising temperatures resulting from climate change,  
191 unless countered by social infrastructure and health system interventions that mitigate these  
192 impacts. Though absolute impacts on mortality are modest, some groups, especially men in  
193 young to middle-ages, experience larger impacts. Therefore, a combination of public health  
194 interventions that broadly target injuries in these groups – for example targeted messaging for

195 younger males on the risks of transport injury and drowning – and those that trigger in relation  
196 to forecasted high temperature periods – for example additional targeted blood alcohol level  
197 checks – should be a public health priority.

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293 **Methods**

294 *Data sources*

295 We used data on deaths by sex, age, underlying cause of death and state of residence in the  
296 contiguous USA from 1980 to 2017 through the National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS)  
297 ([https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nvss/dvs\\_data\\_release.htm](https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nvss/dvs_data_release.htm)) and on population from the NCHS  
298 bridged-race dataset for 1990 to 2017 ([https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/bridged\\_race.htm](https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/bridged_race.htm)) and  
299 from the US Census Bureau prior to 1990 ([https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-  
300 series/demo/popest/1980s-county.html](https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/popest/1980s-county.html)). We did not include Alaska and Hawaii, (which  
301 together made up 0.5% of the US population in 2017) because their climates and environment  
302 are distinct from other states due to their substantial physical distance. We calculated monthly  
303 population counts through linear interpolation, assigning each yearly count to July.

304

305 The underlying cause of death was coded according to the international classification of  
306 diseases (ICD) system (9<sup>th</sup> revision from 1980 to 1998 and 10<sup>th</sup> revision thereafter). The 6  
307 million injury deaths fell into six categories: transport, falls, drownings, assault, suicide and an  
308 aggregate set of other injuries (Extended Data Table 1). We report the results of all of these  
309 categories except other injuries (1,402,941 deaths or 23% of total injury deaths during 1980-  
310 2017), because the composition of this aggregate group varies by sex, age group, state and  
311 time.

312

313 We obtained data on temperature from ERA5, which uses data from global in-situ and satellite  
314 measurements to generate a worldwide meteorological dataset, with full space and time  
315 coverage over our analysis period.<sup>38</sup> We used gridded four-times-daily estimates at a resolution  
316 of 30 km to generate monthly temperatures by county.

317

318 *Anomalous temperature metric*

319 With few exceptions,<sup>9,39</sup> current climate change risk assessments extrapolate from associations  
320 of daily mortality with daily temperature.<sup>7,8,40-42</sup> Climate change, however, will fundamentally  
321 modify weather, including seasonal weather patterns, compared to long-term averages, and  
322 hence can disrupt existing forms of adaptation. To mimic the conditions that may arise with  
323 global climate change, we developed methodology to examine how deviations from long-term  
324 average temperature may impact injury death rates.

325

326 We first defined a measure of anomalous temperature for each county and month, which  
327 represents the deviation from the average temperature of the county in that month over the  
328 entire analysis period. To calculate the magnitude of temperature anomaly, we first calculated  
329 average temperatures for each month in each county over the entire 38 years of analysis. We  
330 subtracted these long-term average temperatures from respective monthly temperature values  
331 to generate a temperature anomaly time series for each month and year in each county  
332 (Extended Data Figure 1). The temperature anomaly metric measures the extent that  
333 temperature experienced in a specific month, year and county is warmer or cooler than the  
334 long-term average to which the population has acclimatised. These values can be different for  
335 different months in the same county, and different counties in the same month. Further, a  
336 county with higher, but more stable, temperature in a specific month has smaller anomalies  
337 than one with lower but more inter-annually variable temperature. County-level anomalies  
338 were aggregated to state level with use of population weights for analysing their associations  
339 with mortality.

340

#### 341 *Statistical methods*

342 We analysed the association of monthly injury death rates with anomalous temperature using  
343 a Bayesian spatio-temporal model, which leveraged variations over space and time to infer

344 associations. We modelled the number of deaths in each month in each year as following a  
345 Poisson distribution:

346  $deaths_{state-time} \sim Poisson(death\ rate_{state-time} \cdot population_{state-time})$

347 with log-transformed death rates modelled as a sum of components that depend on location  
348 (state) of death, month of year, overall time (in months) and temperature anomaly:

349  $\log(death\ rate_{state-time}) =$   
350  $\alpha_0 + \beta_0 \cdot time +$   
351  $\alpha_{state} + \beta_{state} \cdot time +$   
352  $\alpha_{month} + \beta_{month} \cdot time +$   
353  $\zeta_{state-month} +$   
354  $\psi_{state-month} \cdot time +$   
355  $\nu_{time} +$   
356  $\gamma_{month} \cdot Anomaly_{state-time} +$   
357  $\varepsilon_{state-time}$

359 The model contained terms that represent the national level and trend in mortality, with  $\alpha_0$  as  
360 the common intercept and  $\beta_0$  the common slope with overall time. Death rates also vary by  
361 month, which may be partly related to temperature and partly due to other monthly factors;  
362 monthly variations tend to be smooth across adjacent months.<sup>13</sup> Therefore, we allowed each  
363 month of the year to systematically have a different mortality level and trend, with  $\alpha_{month}$  the  
364 month-specific intercept and  $\beta_{month}$  the month-specific slope with overall time. We used a  
365 first-order random walk prior for the monthly random intercepts and slopes, widely used to  
366 characterise smoothly varying trends.<sup>43</sup> The random walk had a cyclic structure, so that  
367 December was adjacent to January.

368

369 We also included state random intercepts and slopes for death rates, with  $\alpha_{state}$  as the state-  
370 specific intercept and  $\beta_{state}$  the state-specific slope with overall time. These terms measure  
371 deviations of each state from national values, and allow variation in level and trend in mortality  
372 by state. We modelled the state-level random intercepts and slopes using the Besag, York, and  
373 Mollie (BYM) spatial model,<sup>44</sup> which includes both spatially-structured random effects with

374 an intrinsic Conditional Autoregressive (ICAR) prior and spatially-unstructured independent  
375 and identically distributed (IID) Gaussian random effects. The extent to which information is  
376 shared between neighbouring states depends on the uncertainty of death rates in a state and the  
377 empirical similarity of death rates in neighbouring states. We also included state-month  
378 interactions for intercepts and slopes ( $\zeta_{state-month}$  and  $\psi_{state-month}$ ), to allow variation in  
379 mortality levels and trends in a particular state for different months and vice-versa. These state-  
380 month interactions were modelled as IID and therefore were of Type I space-time  
381 interactions.<sup>45</sup> Non-linear change over overall time (in months) was captured by a first-order  
382 random walk,  $v_{time}$ .<sup>43</sup> In order to ensure identifiability each set of random walk terms or state  
383 random effects was constrained to sum to zero.

384

385 Finally, we included a term that relates log-transformed death rate to the above-defined state-  
386 month temperature anomaly,  $\gamma_{month} \cdot Anomaly_{state-time}$ . The coefficients of  $\gamma_{month}$  represent  
387 the logarithm of the monthly death rate ratio per 1°C increase in anomaly. There was a separate  
388 coefficient for each month which means that an anomaly of the same magnitude could have  
389 different associations with injury mortality in different months. As with the month-specific  
390 intercepts and trends, we used a cyclic first-order random walk to smooth the coefficient of the  
391 temperature anomaly across months. An over-dispersion term ( $\varepsilon_{state-time}$ ) captured the  
392 variation unaccounted for by other terms in the model, modelled as  $N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$ . We used weakly  
393 informative priors so that parameter estimation was driven by the data. As in previous  
394 analyses,<sup>46,47</sup> hyper-priors were defined on the logarithm of the precisions of the random  
395 effects, in other words on  $\log(1/\sigma^2)$ . These were modelled as  $\text{logGamma}(\theta, \delta)$  distributions  
396 with shape  $\theta = 1$  and rate  $\delta = 0.001$ . The same hyper-priors were used for all precision  
397 parameters of the random effects in the model. For the common slope, we used  $N(0, 1000)$  and  
398 for the common intercept a flat prior.

399

400 In addition to representing the spatial (across states) and temporal (across months and years)  
401 patterns of mortality, the intercept terms ( $\alpha_{month}$ ,  $\alpha_{state}$ ,  $\zeta_{state-month}$ ) in our statistical model  
402 implicitly adjust for unobserved factors that influence mortality at the state, month and state-  
403 month level; the slope terms ( $\beta_{month}$ ,  $\beta_{state}$ ,  $\psi_{state-month}$ ) do so for changes in these factors  
404 over time.<sup>46</sup> This means that the only confounding factors would be those that have the same  
405 state-month anomaly as temperature.

406

407 We fitted the models using integrated nested Laplace approximation (INLA), using the R-  
408 INLA software, which is computationally more efficient than traditional MCMC for Bayesian  
409 inference<sup>48</sup> The uncertainty in our results were obtained from 5000 draws from the posterior  
410 marginal of each month's excess relative risk. The reported 95% credible intervals are the 2.5<sup>th</sup>  
411 to 97.5<sup>th</sup> percentiles of the sampled values.

412

413 Analyses were done separately by injury type, because different injuries can have differing  
414 associations with anomalously warm and cold temperature. Analyses were also done separately  
415 by sex and age group (0-4 years, 10-year age groups from 5 to 84 years, and 85+ years) because  
416 injury death rates vary by age group and sex (Figure 1 and Extended Data Table 2), as might  
417 their associations with temperature. We used the resultant risk estimates and the age-sex-  
418 specific death rates from each injury in 2017, to calculate additional deaths if each month in  
419 each state were +1.5°C above its long-term average, not only realistic in our lifetimes under  
420 current projections of global climate change but an agreed upper bound chosen under the Paris  
421 Climate Agreement.<sup>2,49</sup> +1.5°C is also within the range of anomaly size experienced by some  
422 states (Extended Data Figure 2). We did similar calculations for +2°C, which is the upper  
423 bound of the Paris Climate Agreement, and present these as Extended Data. For these

424 calculations, we multiplied the actual death counts for each month, sex, state and age group in  
425 2017 by the corresponding excess relative risk, which was calculated as the exponential of the  
426 coefficient of the temperature anomaly term from the above analysis.

427

428 *Sensitivity analyses*

429 We conducted sensitivity analyses to assess how much our results might depend on the  
430 temperature metric used to generate anomalous temperature. First, instead of building our  
431 monthly temperature anomalies based on daily mean temperatures, we used daily maxima and  
432 minima. These measures were strongly correlated to those generated from daily means  
433 (Extended Data Table 3), and therefore we did not run models using these alternatives.

434

435 Second, together with temperature anomaly based on daily mean temperatures, we also  
436 included a second measure of anomaly in the model. We tested three different measures for  
437 this sensitivity analysis: (i) temperature anomaly calculated based on 90<sup>th</sup> percentile (°C) of  
438 daily mean temperatures within a month, compared to the average of 90<sup>th</sup> percentiles for each  
439 state and month; (ii) number of days in a month above the long-term 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of average  
440 temperature for each state and month (adjusted for length of month); and (iii) number of 3+  
441 day episodes above the long-term 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of average temperature for each state and  
442 month (adjusted for length of month). These additional measures were related to more extreme  
443 anomalous situations which may be relevant if the impacts on injuries are related to more  
444 extreme temperatures and how frequent they are in each month.

445

446 The correlations among these variables and anomaly based on mean were between 0.60 and  
447 0.89 (Extended Data Table 4). The estimated rate ratios of temperature anomaly based on daily  
448 means (i.e., the anomaly measure used in the main analysis) were robust to the addition of

449 alternative measures of anomaly, while the coefficients of the additional measures were  
450 generally not significant and with large credible intervals. Therefore, we did not include the  
451 alternative additional measures of extreme anomalous temperature in the main analysis.

452

453 *Comparison with previous studies*

454 While there are no previous studies of how deviations of monthly temperature from long-term  
455 average are associated with injury mortality, our results are broadly in agreement with those  
456 that have analysed associations with absolute temperature and for specific injury types. A study  
457 of suicide in US counties over 37 years (1968-2004) estimated that 1°C higher monthly  
458 temperature would lead to a 0.7% rise in suicides,<sup>9</sup> compared to our findings of 0.7-1.5% in  
459 males and 0.5-2.9% in females in different ages for a +1.5°C anomaly. A cross-sectional  
460 analysis in 100 US counties found that a 1°C higher temperature would lead to a 1.3% increase  
461 in death rates from road traffic injuries,<sup>24</sup> compared to our finding of 0.6-3.1% in males and  
462 0.5-2.0% in females for a +1.5°C anomaly. In a study of six French heatwaves during 1971-  
463 2003, mortality from unintentional injuries rose by up to 4% during a heatwave period  
464 compared to a non-heatwave baseline.<sup>10</sup> A study of daily mortality from all injuries from  
465 Estonia found a 1.24% increase in mortality when daily maximum temperature went from the  
466 75<sup>th</sup> to 99<sup>th</sup> percentile of long-term distribution.<sup>11</sup>

467

468

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505    **Data availability**

506    ERA5              temperature              data              are              downloadable              from  
507    <https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5>. Vital statistics files with  
508    geographical information can be requested through submission of a proposal to NCHS  
509    (<https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nvss/nvss-restricted-data.htm>).

510

511    **Code availability**

512    The computer code for the Bayesian model used in this work is available at  
513    [www.globalenvhealth.org/code-data-download](http://www.globalenvhealth.org/code-data-download).

514

515

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527

528    **Author contributions**

529 All authors contributed to study concept and interpretation of results. RP, GD and ME collated  
530 and organised temperature and mortality files. RP, JEB, VK and ME developed statistical  
531 model, which was implemented by RP, JEB and VK. RP performed the analysis, with input  
532 from other authors. RP and ME wrote the first draft of the paper; other authors contributed to  
533 revising and finalizing the paper.

534

535 **Competing interests statement**

536 ME reports a charitable grant from AstraZeneca Young Health Programme, and personal fees  
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538 declare no competing interests.

539   **Figure 1.** Number of injury deaths, by type of unintentional (transport, falls, drownings, and  
540   other) and intentional (assault and suicide) injury, by sex and age group in the contiguous USA  
541   for 1980-2017.

542 **Figure 2.** National age-standardised death rates from 1980 to 2017, by type of injury, sex and  
543 month.

544 **Figure 3.** Additional annual injury deaths for the 2017 US population in year in which each  
545 month was +1.5°C warmer compared with 1980-2017 average temperatures. The top row  
546 shows breakdown by type of injury, sex and age group. The bottom row shows the break down  
547 by type of injury, sex and month. Black dots represent net changes in deaths for each set of  
548 bars. See Extended Data Figure 3 for results for scenario of 2°C warmer.

549 **Figure 4.** Percent change in death rates in year in which each month was +1.5°C compared  
550 with 1980-2017 average temperatures by type of injury, sex and (A) age group or (B) month.

551 Coloured dots show the posterior means and error bars represent 95% credible intervals, both  
552 obtained at the posterior draw level. See Extended Data Figure 4 for scenario of 2°C warmer.