

Chapter 7: Health, Wellbeing, and the Changing Structure of Communities

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Executive Summary

Climate change affects health, wellbeing and changes in community structure through direct and indirect pathways and their interconnections (*very high confidence*). Major exposure pathways through which climatic influences are experienced include: direct impacts from extreme events, such as heat waves, floods, storms, droughts, and fires, and longer-term changes in temperature, precipitation, and sea levels; and indirect impacts through the consequent disruptions to water resources, food systems, ecological systems, healthcare structure, human habitations, pathogens survival and distribution, and chemical fate and transport (*high confidence*). {7.1}

Climate change is projected to increase the global burden of climate-sensitive health outcomes, with specific outcomes dependent on future development pathways (*high confidence*). At current global population growth rates, later this century an additional 1.6 to 2.6 billion people could be living in regions with high exposure to climate-sensitive water-borne, vector-borne, and other communicable diseases (*very high confidence*). {7.3}

Extreme weather and climate events (e.g., heat waves, storms, dust storms, and floods) can cause a wide range of non-communicable diseases, injuries, and risks for mental health, maternal and child health, and malnutrition (*high confidence*). Extreme events increase the risks of transmission of a variety of respiratory tract infections (*high confidence*). Extreme heat affects wellbeing, life satisfaction, interpersonal / intergroup aggression, cognitive performance (*high confidence*) and labour capacity (*very high confidence*). Heat events are associated with excess cardiovascular deaths in older individuals (*high confidence*). Children and pregnant women are very likely to experience disproportionate adverse health and nutrition impacts from extreme events, with potentially lifelong consequences (*very high confidence*). {7.2}

Increased malarial mosquito vectorial capacity in endemic areas of Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and South America should be expected (*high confidence*). Dengue risk will grow and its range will spread in Asia, Europe, and sub-Saharan Africa under RCPs 6 and 8.5, potentially putting another 2.25 billion people at risk (*high confidence*). Higher incidence rates of Lyme disease in the northern hemisphere (*high confidence*) and increased *Schistosoma mansoni* transmission in eastern Africa are likely (*high confidence*). Higher temperatures and more frequent heavy rainfall events are very likely to lead to increased rates of diarrheal diseases in many regions (*high confidence*). {7.3}

Climate change is projected to increase the burden of chronic diseases (*high confidence*). It is very likely that excess deaths will increase, especially among older individuals during extreme heat events, mostly cardiovascular in origin, and mortality rates will grow under higher levels of warming even with adaptation (*high confidence*). The burden of non-communicable respiratory disease associated with aeroallergens will rise substantially (*high confidence*), as will disease associated with ozone (*high confidence*). There will also be increased risks of food and water-related contamination by mycotoxins and marine toxins (*high confidence*) and additional releases of organic pollutants and metals such as methylmercury in certain environments (*medium confidence*). {7.3}

Extreme climate events have severe consequences for food security and malnutrition in low-income countries (*high confidence*). Between 2015 and 2019, an estimated 166 million people in 26 countries, primarily in Africa and Central America, required humanitarian assistance due to climate-related food emergencies. {7.2}

Climate change is projected to increase dietary risk factors and related non-communicable diseases globally, as well as undernutrition, stunting, and related childhood mortality, with greatest impacts in Africa and Asia (*high confidence*). Climate impacts on food availability have potential to increase food prices and increase the risk of hunger for people in low-income countries, slowing progress towards eradication of undernutrition (*high confidence*). A growing challenge by 2050 will be providing nutritious and affordable diets (*high confidence*). {7.4}

Climate change is projected to affect mental health through multiple pathways (*very high confidence*), including psychic trauma associated with exposure to extreme weather events and longer-term adverse impacts of rising temperatures. Vulnerability to mental health effects of climate change varies across

1 demographic and cultural groups, with some evidence that Indigenous communities, women, children and
2 adolescents, particularly girls, and members of minority groups will likely experience greater impacts
3 (*medium confidence*). Those with existing mental disorders and physical injuries, conditions and disabilities
4 are at higher risk of mental illness (*high confidence*). {7.2, 7.3}

5
6 **The COVID-19 pandemic and interventions implemented to reduce transmission had significant**
7 **detrimental impacts on the most vulnerable (*high confidence*).** Studies to date on possible associations
8 between weather/climate variability and COVID infection and transmission rates are inconsistent. Although
9 greenhouse gas emissions declined during the first wave of interventions, projections suggest limited
10 consequences for longer-term emission pathways (*high confidence*). {Cross-Chapter Box COVID}

11
12 **The COVID-19 pandemic demonstrated the value of coordinated planning, safety nets, and other**
13 **capacities in societies to cope with a range of shocks and stresses (*high confidence*).** The response to
14 COVID-19 has demonstrated some societies' ability to take rapid and extensive action in the face of
15 emerging risks. Investments for economic recovery from COVID-19 offer opportunities to promote climate-
16 resilient development (*high confidence*), but the financial costs and political will for managing the pandemic
17 could come at the expense of meeting climate ambitions (*high confidence*). {Cross-Chapter Box COVID}

18
19 **Targeted investments to strengthen health systems and enhance protection against specific climate-**
20 **sensitive exposures are effective for adapting to key risks in the short- to medium-term (*high***
21 ***confidence*).** Building climate resilient health systems will require concerted, collaborative, and cooperative
22 efforts at all levels of governance (*very high confidence*). Globally, health systems are poorly resourced to
23 respond to climate change (*very high confidence*). Financial support for health adaptation to climate change
24 is currently low, with only 0.5% of dispersed multilateral climate finance going to projects specifically
25 addressing health. {7.4}

26
27 **Collaboration between health and other sectors (e.g., water, food, energy, transport) will be needed to**
28 **address long-term climate change impacts on health, wellbeing, and health systems (*high confidence*).**
29 Absolute and relative burdens of climate-sensitive health outcomes are often reflections of wider socio-
30 economic inequities, with decisions made outside the health sector having impacts on underlying conditions
31 that make people vulnerable (*high confidence*). Many cross-sectoral solutions for health and well-being have
32 co-benefits and synergies, examples including improvements in air quality through transition to renewable
33 energy sources (*very high confidence*), active transport (e.g., walking and cycling) (*high confidence*), shifts
34 to more plant-based diets (*high confidence*), and nature-based solutions (*high confidence*). Heat Action Plans
35 have strong potential to prevent mortality from extreme heat events and elevated temperature (*high*
36 *confidence*). Risk sharing and transfer mechanisms such as insurance markets and index-based weather
37 insurance can increase resilience to extreme events (*high confidence*). {7.4; Cross-Chapter Box HEALTH}

38
39 **Adaptation to climate risks for nutrition is complex, and requires collaboration across systems (e.g.,**
40 **food, social protection, health, water and sanitation) (*high confidence*).** A wide range of proven
41 adaptation response options exist, including early warning systems (*high confidence*), social protection
42 services focused on nutrition (*very high confidence*), nutrition-sensitive sustainable food production (*high*
43 *confidence*), and improving access to healthy, affordable diverse diets (*very high confidence*), to sanitation
44 and safe water (*high confidence*), and to maternal and child health services (*high confidence*). Women who
45 are empowered and valued can improve household food security, their own health and well-being, and that
46 of their families and communities (*high confidence*). {7.4}

47
48 **Limiting GHG-intensive animal foods, promoting plant protein sources, and reducing food waste, can**
49 **have multiple co-benefits: healthy diets, reduced environmental footprints of food systems, and climate**
50 **change mitigation (*high confidence*).** Integrated agroecological food systems offer opportunities to improve
51 dietary diversity at the household level while building climate-related local resilience to food insecurity (*high*
52 *confidence*), especially when combined with gender equity and social justice. {7.4}

53
54 **Reducing the health sector's carbon footprint provides an opportunity to support national mitigation**
55 **efforts and reduce health burdens from air pollution and other adverse exposures (*high confidence*).**
56 Some systems have demonstrated the potential for rapid, substantial emissions reductions through broad and

1 sustained efforts and supply chain management. Efforts are more often successful when championed by
2 health practitioners. {7.4}

3
4 **Weather events can act as direct drivers of climate-related migration (e.g., destruction of homes by
5 tropical cyclones) and as indirect drivers (e.g., rural incomes affected by prolonged droughts) (*high
6 confidence*).** Since 2008, an average of 12.8 million people annually have been displaced by natural
7 disasters, largely weather-related, with storms and floods being the two largest drivers. Estimates of the
8 global population at risk of displacement due to sea level rise vary from tens of millions to hundreds of
9 millions of people depending on the sea level rise scenarios and elevation baselines used. Adaptive climate-
10 related migration is often closely related to wage-seeking labour migration (*medium confidence*). {7.4, 7.2}

11
12 **Future changes in climate-related migration are expected to vary by region and over time,** according to
13 region-specific changes in climatic drivers, changes in the future adaptive capacity of exposed populations,
14 regional patterns of population growth, and mediating factors such as international development and
15 migration policies (*high confidence*). {7.3}

16
17 **Migration following climate hazards is often observed when institutional adaptation responses are
18 weak (*high confidence*).** Broad-based institutional investments in building adaptive capacity in risk-exposed
19 areas coupled with wider, cross-sectoral efforts aimed at sustainable social and economic development are
20 part of climate-resilient pathways that can reduce future risks of involuntary migration and displacement
21 from climate hazards (*medium confidence*). {7.4}

22
23 **Policies aimed at facilitating safe and orderly migration increases the potential for migration to be a
24 positive adaptation to climate change (*high confidence*).** Climate migration outcomes display high
25 variability in terms of migrant success, with outcomes reflecting pre-existing socio-economic conditions,
26 household wealth, gender, social context, and power dynamics (*high confidence*). Involvement of
27 populations exposed to climatic hazards in planning for relocation increases the success of outcomes, with
28 immobile populations that are, for socio-economic and cultural reasons, unable or unwilling to move
29 warranting additional policy consideration (*medium confidence*). {7.4}

30
31 **Climate hazards can be a potential multiplier of conflict within states that are experiencing political
32 and/or socio-economic fragility (*high agreement, medium evidence*).** Climate hazards can influence the
33 nature, duration and characteristics of violent conflict within states, but there is no evidence of their being a
34 direct driver of intrastate conflict, and there is no evidence of climate hazards influencing interstate conflicts
35 (*medium confidence*). {7.2, 7.3}

36
37 **Solutions within the peacebuilding space present the opportunity for synergies with adaptation in
38 other sectors (*high confidence*).** High environmental quality underpins peaceful societies, and
39 peacebuilding efforts can leverage environmental action for social cohesion. Conflict-sensitive adaptation
40 focuses on institutional frameworks, conflict management, and governance mechanisms and could be
41 integrated into National Adaptation Plans (*high agreement, medium evidence*). Robust institutions to manage
42 conflicts over natural resources have benefits in other, non-climate related sectors, including gender equality.
43 Gender equality work supports more robust institutions in both peacebuilding and natural resource
44 management. {7.4}

7.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a synthesis and assessment of the literature on the impacts and projected risks of climate change for health, wellbeing, migration and conflict, taking into consideration determinants of vulnerability and the dynamic structure of communities. Particular attention is given to potential adaptation challenges and actions, as well as the potential of co-benefits for health associated with complementarity of adaptation and mitigation actions. AR5 presented strong evidence-based statements regarding the likely impacts of climate change on health, migration and conflict in two separate chapters on Human Health (chapter 11) and Human Security (Chapter 12). The present chapter covers all topics found in AR5 chapter 11 and sections 12.4, Migration and Mobility Dimensions of Human Security, 12.5 Climate Change and Armed Conflict, and 12.6 State Integrity and Geopolitical Rivalry, while expanding the range of literature and increasing the emphasis on mental health impacts, gender, and solutions.

Since AR5 there has been growth in the literature regarding detection and attribution of climate change impacts on health, wellbeing, and other areas. In the context of this chapter, detection and attribution relates to establishing whether impacts on, or observed changes in health, wellbeing, migration and conflict are attributable, partly or fully, to climate change and its influence on the probability of extreme hydro-meteorological or climatic events. While there has been growth in this area since AR5, there remains a dearth of studies on this topic, stemming from limited long observational records of cause-specific health outcomes, well-being status, migration and conflict; a limited ability to quantify the protective effects of adaptation activities; and the failure of climate models to reproduce some extreme events well. Notwithstanding such challenges, both expert judgement and a limited number of quantitative climate change-health attribution studies indicate climate change related alterations of temperature and precipitation patterns are adversely affecting human health.

7.1.1 Major Health-related Statements in AR5

The Fifth Assessment Report (AR5) stated with very high confidence that the health of human populations is sensitive to shifts in weather patterns and other aspects of climate change (Smith et al., 2014a). Existing diseases (e.g., foodborne infections) are extending their ranges into areas that are presently unaffected (*high confidence*), and local changes in temperature and rainfall have altered distribution of some water-borne illnesses and disease vectors (*medium confidence*). Major changes in human health will occur through: greater risk of injury, disease and death due to more intense heat waves and fires (*very high confidence*), increased risk of undernutrition in poor regions (*high confidence*), and increased risks of food- and water-borne diseases (*very high confidence*) and vector-borne diseases (*medium confidence*). The most effective measures to reduce vulnerability in the near term are programmes that implement and improve basic public health measures (*very high confidence*). There are opportunities to achieve co-benefits from mitigation actions, particularly reducing local emission of short lived climate pollutants from energy systems (*very high confidence*) and designing transport systems that promote active transport (*high confidence*).

7.1.2 Major Human Security-related Statements in AR5

The executive summary of Chapter 12 Human Security offered five key statements relevant to migration, mobility, conflict and geopolitics. With respect to migration and mobility, the report concluded that climate change will have significant impacts on forms of migration that compromise human security, and that mobility is a widely used strategy to maintain livelihoods in response to social and environmental changes. With respect to conflict, the report concluded that some of the factors that increase the risk of violent conflict within states are sensitive to climate change and that people living in places affected by violent conflict are particularly vulnerable to climate change. On the links between climate change and state integrity and geopolitics, the report argued that climate change will lead to new challenges to states and will increasingly shape both conditions of security and national security policies. Research since AR5 summarised in this chapter builds on these findings and adds further detail to their implications for successful adaptation to climate change.

7.1.3 Developments since AR5

7.1.3.1 *International agreements*

Since AR5, several new international agreements have come into effect that may have significant influences on policy and action with respect to climate impacts on health, wellbeing, migration, conflict and interactions across sectors. These include the Paris Agreement, the Sendai Framework on Disaster Risk Reduction, the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the New Urban Agenda, and the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. The Paris Agreement, which mentions health in three separate sections, established a working group to study the effects of climate change on population displacements and provided the Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC a detailed set of recommendations in December 2018. The seventeen SDGs for 2030, adopted in 2015, are all important for building adaptive capacity in general, with goals number 13 (“Climate Action”) and number 3 (“Good Health and Wellbeing”) being closely linked and highly relevant for this chapter. Target 10.7 of the SDGs calls for “well-managed migration policies” and Targets 8.3 (“Decent Work for All”) and 5.4 (“Promotion of Peaceful and Inclusive Societies”) are crucial for migration (Piper, 2017). The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction also put an important emphasis on health and wellbeing (Aitsi-Selmi and Murray, 2016). The New Urban Agenda aims to present sustainable approaches to our rapidly increasing rate of urbanization, with a view to healthy and liveable cities. The Global Compact for Migration, which is a voluntary initiative, explicitly recognizes the need to plan for climate-related migration and displacement (Warner 2018). With respect to conflict, since AR5 the UN system is reforming its Peace and Security agenda, as part of a larger series of reforms launched by UN Secretary-General in 2017, and the UN also launched its Climate Security Mechanism in 2018.

7.1.3.2 *IPCC special reports*

Since AR5, the IPCC has produced three special reports, each of which considered some of the research that is synthesized here in greater detail. The 2018 report on 1.5° C (SR1.5) included a review of climate change and health literature published since AR5, and called for further efforts for protecting health and wellbeing of the more vulnerable people and regions (Ebi et al., 2018). The report highlighted links between climate change impacts, poverty and food security, migration and conflict. The 2019 Special Report on Climate Change and Land (SRCCL) emphasized the impacts of climate change on food security. The SRCCL highlighted links between reduced resilience of dryland populations, land degradation migration, and conflict, highlighting the role of climate extremes as a stress multiplier. The 2019 Special Report on the Ocean and Cryosphere in a Changing Climate (SROCC) detailed how changes in the cryosphere and ocean systems this century have impacted people and ecosystem services, particularly food security, water resources, water quality, livelihoods, health and well-being, infrastructure, transportation, tourism and recreation, as well as culture of human societies, particularly for Indigenous peoples. It also noted the risks of future displacements due to rising sea levels and associated coastal hazards. This chapter builds upon and provides a more detailed synthesis of such findings.

7.1.4 *Connections Between Death, Wellbeing, Migration, Conflict, and Other Global Processes*

7.1.4.1 *Health-wellbeing linkages*

Assessing the links between human health, wellbeing, and climate change is a new task for AR6. Recent years have brought important shifts in perspectives and framing of wellbeing and health. The WHO defines health not just as the absence of disease but as “a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being” (World Health Organization, 2013, p.19; see also Kirmayer, Fletcher, & Watt 2009). A number of countries and groups are moving towards a greater acknowledgement of the importance of wellbeing, to counter the more typical measurement of progress using GDP, such as Bhutan’s Gross National Happiness and the Canadian Index of Wellbeing (Elliot et al, 2017; OECD, 2020; Vik & Carlquist, 2018). These moves reflect both an increasingly widespread prioritization of wellbeing and a broader recognition of its interaction with population health. Although the present chapter assesses physical health, mental health, and general wellbeing separately, they are interconnected, and any type of health problem can reduce overall wellbeing.

While there is no consensus definition of wellbeing, there is general agreement that wellbeing includes “the presence of positive emotions and moods (e.g. happiness), the absence of negative emotions (e.g. anxiety), and satisfaction with life, fulfilment and positive functioning”, with positive functioning incorporating the capacity for unimpaired cognitive functioning and economic productivity (Piekalkiewicz, 2017). A

1 capabilities approach (Sen, 2001) focuses on wellbeing as the opportunity for people to achieve their goals in
2 life (Vik & Carlquist, 2018) or the ability to take part in society in a meaningful way: the result of personal
3 freedoms, human agency, self-efficacy, an ability to self-actualize, dignity and relatedness to others (e.g.
4 Markussen et al, 2017). An indigenous perspective on wellbeing typically incorporates a healthy relationship
5 with the natural world (Sangha et al., 2018).

6
7 The terms happiness, life satisfaction, and subjective wellbeing (SWB) are often used interchangeably by
8 social scientists to describe the affective component of wellbeing. Diener and Tay (2015) defined SWB as
9 comprising life satisfaction and feelings (more positive, and fewer negative, feelings). Research has
10 established that SWB can be reliably measured and that it is consistently associated with a variety of
11 personal indicators such as income, economic productivity and physical health (Diener & Tay; Delhey &
12 Dragolov, 2016; De Neve et al, 2013) – noting, however, that improvements in income do not necessarily
13 lead to improvements in wellbeing. Although wellbeing is often linked to economic conditions, SWB is also
14 tied to environmental health, and to societal indicators such as social cohesion and equality. In a global
15 sample of over 1 million obtained between 2004-2008 via the Gallup World Poll, annual income and access
16 to food were strong predictors of SWB, and a healthy environment, particularly access to clean water, was
17 also a significant predictor even when controlling for household income (Diener & Tay, 2015). Access to
18 green spaces is also associated with wellbeing (high confidence; Yuan 2018). Among a European sample of
19 just under 35,000 surveyed mostly in 2011, social inequality was negatively related to SWB, but this was
20 fully mediated by social cohesion, which was reduced by inequality (Delhey & Dragolov, 2016). Cohesion
21 was a significant predictor of SWB in all countries, although it was a more strongly associated with SWB in
22 richer compared to poorer countries.

23
24 Wellbeing and health overlap, but health is commonly expressed in reference to specific diseases and with a
25 different set of metrics. Population health status varies across several spectra. Lower life expectancy and
26 poorer health outcomes are associated with poverty, lower social status, and limited access to goods,
27 services, power, and responsive governance (Marmot et al., 2008). These gradients are observed between
28 countries, within countries, and in smaller population units. Health care access is also a determinant of
29 health, but variation in health care access explains a relative small proportion of the variation in health status
30 in a given population (Pincus et al., 1998). While primary responsibility for population health is typically
31 assigned to the health sector, abundant research in the past two decades has identified the importance of
32 improving daily living conditions and reducing inequities in the distribution of power, wealth, and resources
33 in order to promote population health, necessitating that other sectors also prioritize health in decision
34 making, for example, through a health-in-all policies stance (Donkin et al., 2018).

35 36 *7.1.4.2 Links between migration and adaptation*

37
38 This chapter provides a more detailed assessment than previous ARs of the role played by migration (and
39 mobility more generally) within wider processes of adaptation to climate change. Key elements that are
40 examined include the degree to which people are able to choose whether or not to move when confronted
41 with climatic risks (a.k.a. migrant agency), key climate-related drivers of migration and displacement, the
42 duration and destination of climate-related movement, and the thresholds of vulnerability and adaptation
43 that, once reached, are reflected in changes in migration patterns. There is a significant human rights
44 dimension with respect to climate-related migration, for such migrants are vulnerable to exploitation,
45 especially in situations where they have involuntarily lost ties to their land and social networks (Bettini 2017,
46 Bettini and Gioli 2016, Parsons, 2018). Despite this, popular reporting and grey literature may raise fears that
47 climate change will generate large scale, refugee-like floods of migrants across international borders, fears
48 for which there is no empirical evidence (Baldwin 2017, McLeman 2019).

49 50 *7.1.4.3 Linkages between climate change, migration and health*

51
52 Climate change, migration and health are interconnected in multiple ways that are not fully understood. The
53 health outcomes of migrants generally, and of climate migrants in particular, vary according to geographical
54 context, country, and the particular circumstances of migration or immobility. Research from multiple
55 countries shows that healthy individuals are more likely to migrate internationally than people in poorer
56 health, and that migrants often have better health outcomes than people born in destination areas (a.k.a. the
57 ‘healthy migrant effect’) (Kennedy et al 2015). By contrast, people who move within their home countries

1 may display a range of positive and negative health outcomes compared to non-migrants (e.g. Dodd et al.
2 (2017) research in South India). Refugees and other involuntary migrants experience higher exposure to
3 disease and malnutrition, adverse indirect health effects of changes in diet or activity, and increased rates of
4 mental health concerns attributable to sense of loss or to fear (Schwerdtle et al 2018, Torres and Casey
5 2017). A study of Mexico-US migration suggests that the ‘healthy migrant effect’ holds during periods of
6 favourable climatic conditions, but that during droughts, rural outmigration rates from dryland areas increase
7 across all groups, regardless of individual health (Hunter and Simon 2017, Riosmena et al 2017). Linkages
8 between climate migration and the spread of infectious disease are bidirectional; migrants may be exposed to
9 diseases at the destination to which they have lower immunity than the host community; in other cases,
10 migrants could introduce diseases to the receiving community (McMichael 2015).

11 **7.1.5 Trends and Events Relevant for Assessment of Climate Change Impacts on Health**

12
13
14 The literature cut-off date for AR5 WGII report was early 2013. Several important trends and events have
15 emerged since, each of which has relevance for this chapter assessment of climate change and impacts on
16 health and wellbeing. First, there has been a steady increase in standardized, globally scoped, data-driven
17 health impact assessment, signified by the ongoing Global Burden of Disease (GBD) study (James et al.,
18 2018) and its linkages with other global priorities, including the SDGs (Fullman et al., 2017). The GBD now
19 includes scenario-based projections (Chang et al., 2019). Second, attention has turned from prioritization of
20 specific diseases like HIV/AIDS, malaria, and tuberculosis, to health system strengthening and universal
21 health coverage (Chang et al., 2019), accompanying an ongoing emphasis on the social determinants of
22 health. Third, climate change has recently gained additional attention in global health assessments: several
23 climate-sensitive health outcomes are now tracked in the annual Lancet Countdown reports (Watts et al.,
24 2018; Watts et al., 2019a), and the GBD is beginning to examine climate sensitive disease burdens,
25 incorporate temperature as a risk factor (Murray et al., 2020b), and project future cause-specific disease
26 burdens in a warming world (Burkart et al., submitted).

27
28 While the knowledge base regarding global health has increased, linkages between indicators of health,
29 wellbeing and environmental impacts from climate change remain patchy. Moreover, significant cracks in
30 the foundation of global health governance that affect preparedness and adaptive capacity for climate
31 change, among other threats, have been laid bare (Phelan et al., 2020). While attention to climate change and
32 health has increased (Watts et al., 2019b) and there is evidence of increasing adaptation activity in the health
33 sector (Watts et al., 2019a), there is also continued evidence of substantial adaptation gaps (UNEP, 2018)
34 that appear to be widening as adverse climate change impacts on health and wellbeing accrue.

35 **7.1.6 Continuing Evolution of Global Frameworks**

36
37
38 In recent years, the field of public health has expanded from its early focus on monitoring and prevention of
39 infectious disease to incorporate a wide range of other health issues and health determinants (Rosen 2015,
40 Marmot 2005). Ongoing efforts have been made to expand and systematize social science contributions to
41 the determinants of health, emphasizing the role of social structures, agency, equity and governance into the
42 study of health (Haslam et al 2018). At the same time, global health has developed new methods for
43 incorporating relevant exposure pathways and system dynamics into its study and practice.

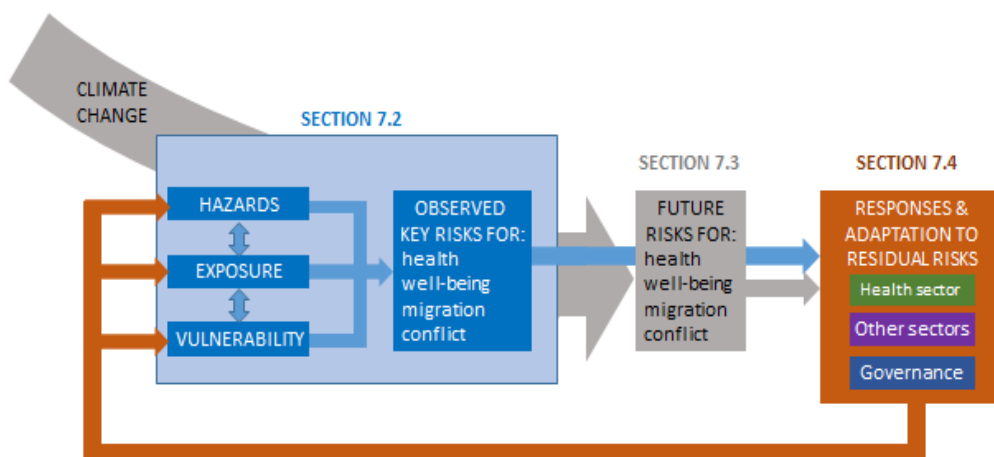
44
45 As the field works to include considerations at a global scale and to incorporate dynamics associated with the
46 long-time horizons associated with climatic and other global changes, more comprehensive frameworks for
47 framing and studying global health issues, including planetary health, ‘one health’, and eco-health, have
48 gained traction. These frameworks share an ecological perspective, emphasize the role of complex systems,
49 and highlight the need for interdisciplinary related to human health research and practice. While they have
50 much in common, each framework focuses on particular systems and dynamics. ‘One health’, for instance,
51 focuses on the interactions between humans, animals and plants, as well as implications for individual,
52 population, and ecosystem health, with a growing consideration of climate change (Lerner and Berg 2015,
53 Zinsstag et al., 2018). Planetary health focuses on global systems fundamental to human health and
54 highlights the importance of avoiding certain thresholds in those systems (e.g., stratospheric ozone depletion)
55 that could have major adverse health impacts if crossed (Whitmee et al 2015, Steffen et al 2015).

1 Large global health assessments are beginning to integrate these frameworks and perspectives. *The Lancet*
 2 *Countdown: Tracking Progress on Climate and Health* (Watts et al. 2018, Watts et al., 2019) is one example.
 3 In addition, the GBD for 2019 was updated to include non-optimal temperature as a risk factor (Murray et
 4 al., 2020; Vos et al., 2020), and an initial effort at estimating climate-sensitive disease burden in the GBD (Ji
 5 et al., submitted) and projections of cause-specific disease burdens associated with future warming using
 6 GBD (Burkart et al., submitted) have been developed. At the same time, work by sociologists continues to
 7 highlight the challenges climate change is very likely to pose, in particular via indirect pathways affecting
 8 resource availability, productivity, migration, and conflict (Burke et al. 2015; Carleton and Hsiang 2016;
 9 Hsiang et al. 2017), bringing multiple lines of inquiry together to highlight the associations between global
 10 environmental changes, socio-economic dynamics, and impacts on health and wellbeing.

11 **7.1.7 Visual Guide to this Chapter**

12
 13
 14 The pathways through which climate change may affect health, wellbeing, and migration are complex. The
 15 magnitude and nature of climate-related risks depend on climate change influences on: (a) the hazards, (b)
 16 the exposure of people, communities, and natural systems to those hazards, (c) the vulnerability of these
 17 communities and systems, and (d) the responses of people, communities, and health systems in preparing for
 18 and managing the increasing risks (Haines and Ebi, 2019). A recurrent theme in this chapter is that health
 19 and well-being in a changing climate cannot be considered separately from societal structure and dynamics,
 20 and that changes in health, wellbeing, migration, and conflict are often the product of climate change impacts
 21 experiences in other sectors reported in this report.

22
 23 Figure 7.1 provides a visual guide to how the assessment in this chapter has been structured. Section 7.2
 24 identifies observed impacts on health and wellbeing, migration and conflicts that have emerged from
 25 interactions of climate and weather-related hazards, exposure to such hazards, and vulnerability of
 26 communities and systems. Section 7.3 reviews peer-reviewed literature on projected risks climate change
 27 poses for health, wellbeing, migration and conflict through direct pathways (e.g. increased exposure to high
 28 ambient temperatures), and indirect pathways (e.g., through changes in patterns of non-communicable
 29 diseases). Section 7.4 assesses the range of available adaptation responses to climate risks, opportunities for
 30 transformative change, co-benefits, and how solutions for reducing climate impacts on health, wellbeing,
 31 migration, and conflicts contribute to climate resilient development pathways.



34 **Figure 7.1:** Framework used to guide the structure of this chapter. [PLACEHOLDER FOR FINAL DRAFT: artwork to
 35 be improved]

36
 37
 38
 39 **7.2. Observed Impacts of Climate Change on Health, Wellbeing, Migration and Conflict**

40
 41 **7.2.1 Observed Impacts on Health and Wellbeing**

42
 43 Eleven categories of diseases and health outcomes have been identified as being climate-sensitive through
 44 direct pathways – such as heat-related mortality and morbidity – and indirect pathways mediated through

1 natural systems and economic and social disruption, such as disease vectors, allergens, air and water
 2 pollution, and food production and mental illness (Foreman et al. 2018) (*high confidence*). A key challenge
 3 in quantifying the specific relationship between climate and health outcomes is distinguishing the extent to
 4 which observed changes in prevalence of a climate sensitive disease or condition are attributable directly or
 5 indirectly to climatic factors as opposed to other, non-climatic, causal factors. A subsequent challenge is then
 6 determining the extent to which those observed changes in health outcomes associated with climate are
 7 attributable to events or conditions associated with current climate variability versus persistent shifts in the
 8 mean and/or the variability characteristics of climate (i.e. climate change).
 9

10
 11 [START BOX 7.1 HERE]

12 **Box 7.1: Quantifying Climate Impacts on Health Outcomes**

13
 14
 15 Global statistics for death and loss of health are increasingly described in terms of burden, which describes
 16 gaps between a population's actual health status and what its status would be if its members lived free of
 17 disease and disability to their collective life expectancy. Burden is estimated by adding together the number
 18 of years of life a person loses as a consequence of early death (Years of Life Lost (YLL)) and the number of
 19 years a person lives with disability (Years of Life lived with Disability (YLD)). The resulting statistic, the
 20 Disability Adjusted Life Year (or DALY) represents the loss of one year of life lived in full health. The total
 21 global burden of disease (GBD), expressed in DALYs, is what the world's health systems must manage, and
 22 is reported annually in Global Burden of Disease Study (GBD 2019). The estimated current global burden of
 23 climate sensitive diseases and conditions described in this chapter, and the geographical regions most
 24 affected, are summarized in Table Box 7.1.1.
 25

26 The global magnitude of climate-sensitive diseases was estimated in 2019 to be 39,503,684 deaths (69.9 %
 27 of total annual deaths) and 1,530,630,442 Disability Adjusted Life Years (GBD 2019). Of these,
 28 cardiovascular diseases comprised the largest proportion of climate-sensitive diseases (32.8% of deaths,
 29 15.5% DALYs). The next largest category consists of respiratory diseases – with chronic respiratory disease
 30 contributing to 7% of deaths and 4.1% of DALYs and respiratory infection and tuberculosis contributing to
 31 6.5% of deaths and 6% of DALYs. The observed trend of climate-sensitive disease deaths since 1990 is
 32 marked by increasing cardiovascular mortality and decreasing mortality from respiratory infections, enteric
 33 diseases, and other infectious diseases (GBD 2019). Since AR5 there have been new estimates of the burden
 34 of causes of death attributable to the direct effects of exposure to heat and cold (Murray et al. 2020):
 35 Ischaemic heart disease, stroke, hypertensive heart disease, diabetes, chronic kidney disease, lower
 36 respiratory infection, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), homicide, suicide, mechanical injuries,
 37 transport-related injuries, and drowning, displayed a monotonic increase. These estimated 2.0 million
 38 temperature attributable deaths (95% uncertainty interval [UI] 1.7–2.3) and 37.8 million (32.2-47.6)
 39 temperature attributable DALYs occurred in 2019, which accounted for 3.4% (3.06-3.93) and 1.5% (1.3-1.9)
 40 of global deaths and DALYs, respectively. A larger burden is attributable to cold deaths (1.7 million; 1.4-
 41 1.9) and DALYs (24.8 million; 20.4-29.4) than heat deaths (323,000; 229,000-476,000) and heat DALYs
 42 (13.0 million; 8.2-37.5), but trends since 1990 suggest a decreased burden for low temperatures and
 43 increasing burden for high temperatures.
 44
 45

46 **Table Box 7.1.1:** Global burden of climate-sensitive health risks assessed in this chapter (in order of assessment) (GBD
 47 2019)

Disease/condition	Annual deaths	Regions most affected (deaths)	DALY*	Regions most affected (DALYs)
Malaria	643,381.00	Africa (92%)	46,437,811	Africa (93%)
Dengue	36,055	Asia (96%)	2,383,375	Asia (92%)

Diarrheal diseases	1,534,443	Asia (56%)	80,917,779	Africa (54%)
Salmonella	79,046	Africa (89%)	6,114,292	Africa (90%)
Respiratory tract infections	2,493,200	Asia (47%)	97,189,708	Africa (44%)
Non-communicable respiratory illness	3,741,705	Asia (74%)	95,983,342	Asia (69%)
Cardiovascular disease	18,562,510.00	Asia (58%)	393,107,482	Asia (62%)
Death from malignant melanoma	62,844	Europe (41%)	1,707,846	Europe (39%)
Diabetes	1,551,170	Asia (56%)	70,880,155	Asia (57%)
Environmental heat and cold exposure	47,461	Asia (46%)	2,551,878	Asia (44%)
Malnutrition	251,577	Africa (43%)	49,775,124	Asia (58%)

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[END BOX 7.1 HERE]

7.2.2 Observed Impacts on Communicable Diseases

7.2.2.1 Observed impacts on vector-borne diseases

Climate-sensitive vector-borne diseases include mosquito-borne diseases, rodent-borne diseases and tick-borne diseases. Many infectious agents, vectors, non-human reservoir hosts, and pathogen replication rates can be sensitive to ambient climatic conditions. Elevated proliferation and reproduction rates at higher temperatures, longer transmission season, changes in ecology, and climate-related migration of vectors, reservoir hosts, or human populations contribute to this climate sensitivity. Age-standardized disability-adjusted life year (DALY) rates for many VBDs have decreased over the last decade due to factors unrelated to climate. Vulnerability to VBD is strongly determined by sociodemographic factors (e.g. children, the elderly and pregnant women are at greater risk) with exposure to vectors being strongly influenced by various factors including housing quality, occupational setting, recreational activity, conflicts and displacement. Figure 7.2 illustrates how climatic and non-climatic drivers and responses interact to determine VBD outcomes.

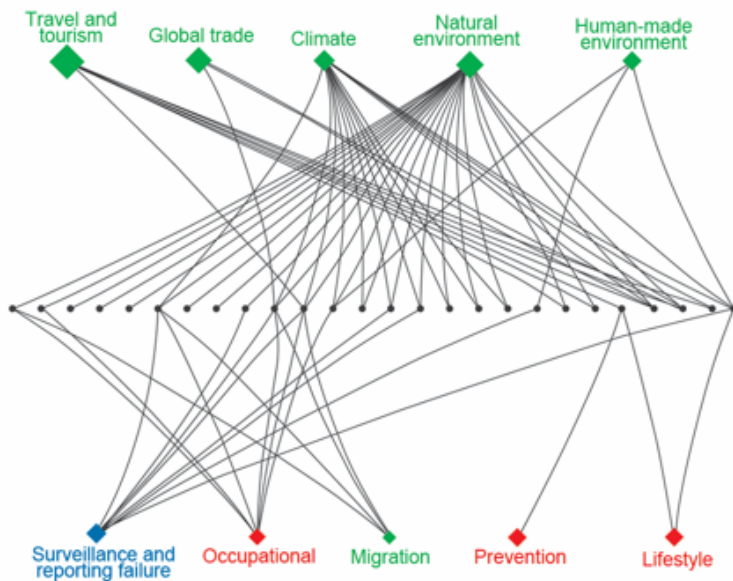


Figure 7.2: VBD threat events illustrated as horizontal dots in the middle with contributing drivers above and below, observed in Europe, 2008–2013. The 3 driver categories are represented by green (globalization and environment), red (sociodemographic), and blue (public health systems) symbols, the sizes of which are proportional to the overall frequency of the driver.

Evidence has increased since AR5 that the vectorial capacity has improved for dengue fever, malaria, and other mosquito borne diseases, and that higher global average temperatures are making wider geographic areas more suitable for transmission (very high confidence). Transmission rates of malaria are directly influenced by climatic and weather variables such as temperature, with non-climatic socio-economic factors and health system responses counteracting the climatic drivers (very high confidence). The burden of malaria is greatest in Africa, where more than 90% of all malaria-related deaths occur (M'Bra, 2018, Caminade, 2019). Between 2007 and 2017, DALY rates for malaria have decreased by 39% globally. Malaria is mainly caused by five distinct species of plasmodium parasite (*Plasmodium falciparum*, *Plasmodium vivax*, *Plasmodium malariae*, *Plasmodium ovale*, *Plasmodium knowlesi*), transmitted by Anopheline mosquitoes between individuals. Evidence suggests that in highland areas of Colombia and Ethiopia, malaria has shifted in warmer years toward higher altitudes, indicating that, without intervention, malaria will increase at higher elevations as the climate warms. Each year, local outbreaks of malaria occur in areas from which it was once eradicated, such as Europe, but the risk of re-establishment is considered low.

The transmission of dengue fever is linked to climatic and weather variables such as temperature, relative humidity, and rainfall (high confidence). The dengue virus is carried and spread by *Aedes* mosquitoes, primarily *Aedes aegypti*. Dengue has the second highest burden of VBDs, with the majority of deaths occurring in Asia (Bhatt et al 2013). Since 1950, global dengue burden has grown, attributable to a combination of climate-associated expansion in the geographic range of the vector species and non-climatic factors such as globalized air traffic, urbanization, and ineffective vector abatement measures. Temperature, relative humidity, and rainfall variables are significantly and positively associated with increased dengue case incidence and/or transmission rates globally, including in Vietnam (Phung et al., 2015; Xuan le et al., 2014), Thailand (Xu et al., 2019a), India (Mutheneni et al., 2017; Rao et al., 2018; Mala & Jat, 2019), Indonesia (Kesetyaningsih et al., 2018), the Philippines (Carvajal et al., 2018), the United States (Lopez et al., 2018; Pena-Garcia et al., 2017; Duarte et al., 2019; Rivas et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2016), Jordan (Obaidat and Roess, 2018), and Timor-Leste (Wangdi et al., 2018). Variation in winds, sea surface temperatures and rain over the tropical eastern Pacific Ocean (El Nino Southern Oscillation) have been linked to increased dengue incidence in Colombia (Quintero-Herrera et al., 2015, McGregor and Ebi 2018). The observed lag time between climate exposures and increased dengue incidence is approximately 1–2 months (Chuang et al., 2017; Lai, 2018; Chang et al., 2018).

Changing climatic patterns are facilitating the spread of chikungunya virus (CHIKV) in Asia, Latin America, North America and Europe (high confidence) (Chadsuthi et al., 2016; Mascarenhas et al., 2018; Morens and

1 Fauci, 2014). Climate change may have facilitated the emergence of CHIKV as a significant public health
2 challenge in some Latin American and Caribbean countries (Yactayo et al., 2016, Pineda et al., 2016), and
3 contributed to a chikungunya outbreak in Italy in 2017 (Rocklov, et al.,). The Zika virus outbreak in South
4 America in 2016 followed a period of record high temperatures and severe drought conditions in 2015 (Paz
5 and Semenza, 2016; Tesla et al., 2018). Increased use of household water storage containers during the
6 drought is correlated with a range expansion of *Aedes aegypti* during this period, increasing household
7 exposure to the vector (Paz and Semenza, 2016). Changing climate also appears to be a risk factor for the
8 spread of Japanese encephalitis to higher altitudes in Nepal (Ghimire and Dhakal, 2015) and in southwest
9 China (Zhao et al., 2014). In Eastern Africa, climate change may be a risk factor in the spread of Rift Valley
10 Fever (Taylor et al., 2016).

11
12 Changes in temperature, precipitation, and relative humidity have been implicated as drivers of West Nile
13 fever in southeastern Europe (Semenza et al., 2016). The average temperature and precipitation prior to the
14 exceptional 2018 West Nile outbreak in Europe was above the 1981–2010 period average, which may have
15 contributed to an early upsurge of the vector population (Haussig et al., 2018, Copernicus Climate Change
16 Service 2018).

17
18 *Climate change has contributed to the spread of the Lyme disease vector Ixodes scapularis, and a*
19 *corresponding increase in cases of Lyme disease in North America (high confidence), and of the spread of*
20 *the Lyme disease and Tick-Borne Encephalitis vector Ixodes ricinus in Europe (medium confidence) .*

21 In Canada, there has been a geographic range expansion of the black-legged tick *I. scapularis*, the main
22 vector of *Borrelia burgdorferi*, and the agent of Lyme disease. Vector surveillance of *I. scapularis* has
23 identified strong correlation between temperatures and the emergence of tick populations, their range and
24 recent geographic spread, with recent climate warming coinciding with a rapid increase in human Lyme
25 disease cases (Clow et al 2017, Cheng et al, 2017, Gasmi et al. 2017; Ebi et al, 2017). *Ixodes ricinus*, the
26 primary vector in Europe for both Lyme borreliosis, and tick-borne encephalitis is sensitive to humidity and
27 temperature (Daniel et al, 2018, Estrada-Peña et al, 2020) (*high confidence*). There has been an observed
28 range expansion to higher latitudes in Sweden and to higher elevations in Austria and the Czech Republic.

29
30 *Rodent-borne disease outbreaks have been linked to weather and climate conditions in a small number of*
31 *studies published since AR5, but more research is needed in this area.* In Kenya, a positive association exists
32 between precipitation patterns and *Theileria*-infected rodents, but for *Anaplasma*, *Theileria* and *Hepatozoon*,
33 the association between rainfall and pathogen varies according to rural land-use types (Young et al 2017).
34 Weather variability plays a significant role in transmission rates of haemorrhagic fever with renal syndrome
35 (HFRS) (Hansen et al., 2015, Xiang et al., 2018b, Liang et al., 2018, Fei et al., 2015, Xiao et al., 2014,
36 Vratnica et al., 2017). In Chingqing, HFRS incidence has been positively associated with rodent density and
37 rainfall, Bai et al (2015).

38 39 7.2.2.2 Observed impacts on waterborne diseases

40
41 Important water-borne diseases (WBD) include diarrhoeal diseases (particularly cholera, shigella, and
42 typhoid), hepatitis A and E and poliomyelitis (Cissé, 2019, WHO, 2017). The number of cases of water-
43 borne diseases is considerable, and even in high-income countries water-borne illness continues to be a
44 concern (Cissé et al., 2018; Kirtman et al., 2014; Levy et al., 2018; Murphy et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the
45 global burden of WBD has decreased in line with poverty reduction and improved sanitation and hygiene.
46 Drinking water containing pathogenic microorganisms is the main driver of the burden of WBD (David et
47 al., 2014; Murphy et al., 2014). WBD outbreaks, particularly intestinal diseases, are attributable to a
48 combination of the presence of particular pathogens (bacteria, protozoa, viruses or parasites) and the
49 characteristics of drinking water systems in a given location (Bless et al., 2016; Ligon and Bartram, 2016).

50
51 [START BOX 7.2 HERE]

52 53 **Box 7.2: Cascading Risk Pathways Linking Waterborne Disease to Climate Hazards**

54
55 The causal linkages between climate variability and change and incidence of waterborne diseases follows
56 multiple direct and indirect pathways, often as part of a cascading series of risks. For example, extreme
57

1 precipitation can result in a cascading hazard or disease event with implications of greater magnitude than
 2 the initial hazard, especially if there are pre-existing vulnerabilities in critical infrastructure and human
 3 populations. Intense or prolonged precipitation can flush pathogens in the environment from pastures and
 4 fields to groundwater, rivers and lakes, consequently infiltrating water treatment and distribution systems
 5 (Howard et al., 2016; Khan et al., 2015; Sherpa et al., 2014, Cissé et al., 2016; Kostyla et al., 2015). Table
 6 Box 7.2.1 shows the variety and complexity of pathways between climate hazard and waterborne disease
 7 outcomes.

8 **Table Box 7.2.1:** Pathways between climate hazard and waterborne disease outcomes
 9

Cascading risk pathways from heavy rain and flooding
Storm runoff yields water turbidity which compromises water treatment efficiency Storm runoff mobilizes and transports pathogens Overwhelmed or damaged infrastructure compromises water treatment efficiency Floods overwhelm containment system and discharge untreated waste water Floods damage critical water supply and sanitation infrastructure Floods displace populations towards inadequate sanitation infrastructure
Cascading risk pathways from drought
Low water availability augments travel distance to alternate (contaminated) sources Intensified demand and sharing (e.g. with livestock) of limited water resources decreases water availability and quality Intermittent drinking water supply results in cross-connections with sewer lines and water contamination Uncovered household water containers are a source of vector breeding Poor hygiene due to decreased volume of source water and increased concentration of pathogens Exposure to accumulated human excrements and animal manure
Cascading risk pathways from increasing temperature
Extended transmission season for opportunistic pathogens Permissive temperature for the replication of marine bacteria Enhanced pathogen load in animal reservoirs (e.g. chicken) Pathogen survival and proliferation outside of host Wildfires during heat waves degrade water quality Exposure to contaminated water due to higher water consumption Behaviour change (e.g. barbeque) and food spoilage
Cascading risk pathways from sea-level rise
Population displacement due to powerful storm surges Disruption of drinking water supply and sanitation infrastructure due to inundation Decline in soil and water quality due to saline intrusion into coastal aquifers Seawater infiltration into drinking water distribution and sewage lines

10 Notes:

11 Examples are purposely not exhaustive and should be considered illustrative.

12
 13
 14 [END BOX 7.2 HERE]

15
 16
 17 Since AR5 there is a growing body of evidence that increases in temperature (very high confidence), heavy
 18 rainfall (high confidence), flooding (medium confidence) and drought (low confidence) are associated with
 19 an increase of diarrheal diseases. In the majority of studies there is a significant positive association observed
 20 between waterborne diseases and elevated temperatures, especially in areas where water, sanitation and
 21 hygiene deficiencies are significant (Levy et al., 2018; Carlton et al., 2016a, Levy et al., 2018; Sherpa et al.,
 22 2014, Guzman Herrador et al., 2015; Levy et al., 2016; Lo Iacono et al., 2017). In Ethiopia, South Africa and
 23 Senegal, increases in temperatures are associated with increases in diarrhea caused by bacteria and protozoa
 24 (Carlton et al., 2016b), while in Ethiopia, Senegal and Mozambique, increases in monthly rainfall are

1 associated with an increase in cases of childhood diarrhea (Azage et al., 2015, Thiam et al., 2017, Horn et al.,
2 2018). Similar associations between weather and diarrhea have been observed in Cambodia, China,
3 Bangladesh and the Philippines (McIver et al., 2016a; McIver et al., 2016b, Liu et al., 2018, Wu et al., 2014,
4 Matsushita et al., 2018). Heavy precipitation events have been consistently associated with outbreaks of
5 waterborne diseases in Europe, Scandinavia, USA, UK and Canada (Guzman Herrador et al., 2015; Levy et
6 al., 2016; Lo Iacono et al., 2017; Curriero et al., 2001; Guzman Herrador et al., 2016, Levy et al., 2018). In
7 Europe, impacts of floods can include outbreaks of waterborne diseases (Suk et al., 2019) with flood-affected
8 populations showing higher rates of risk than periods before and after floods, as well as in direct comparison
9 with populations unaffected by floods (Guzman Herrador et al., 2015; Levy et al., 2016; Lo Iacono et al.,
10 2017). During extreme precipitation events, parasites such as *Cryptosporidium* can infiltrate and overload
11 water treatment facilities and persist in water distribution systems. Such events disproportionately affect the
12 young, elderly and immunocompromised (Zhang et al 2019).

13
14 *Heavy rainfall and higher than normal temperatures are associated with increased cholera risk in affected*
15 *regions (very high confidence)* (see also SROCCC chap5 p510, Cross-Chapter Box ILLNESS in Chapter 2).
16 Cholera is an acute diarrheal disease typically caused by the bacterium *Vibrio cholerae* that results in severe
17 diarrheal disease and mortality. Linkages between climate and cholera have been observed in some recent
18 studies in Africa (Mpandeli, 2018, Amegah, 2016, Escobar, 2015)

19
20 *Heavy rainfall, warmer weather and drought are linked to increased risks for other gastro-intestinal (GI)*
21 *infections (high confidence)*. As temperature increases bacterial causes of GI infection appear to increase and
22 this association is variably influenced by humidity and rainfall (Ghazani et al., 2018; Levi et al. 2016). A
23 study in New York found that every 1°C increase in temperature was correlated with a 0.70-0.96% increase
24 in daily hospitalization for GI infections (Lin et al., 2016). In the Philippines, leptospirosis and typhoid fever
25 showed an increase in incidence following heavy rainfall and flooding events (Matsushita et al., 2018)

26 27 7.2.2.3 Observed impacts on food-borne diseases

28
29 Food-borne diseases (FBDs) refer to any illness resulting from ingesting food that is spoiled or contaminated
30 by pathogenic bacteria, viruses, parasites, toxins, pesticides and/or medicines (WHO, 2015). FBD risks are
31 present throughout the food chain, from production to consumption, and most often arise due to
32 contamination at source and from improper handling, preparation and/or food storage (Smith 2019). As with
33 waterborne disease, FBD outbreaks can follow multiple causal pathways as climatic risk factors interact with
34 food production and distribution systems, urbanization and population growth, resource and energy scarcity,
35 decreasing agricultural productivity, price volatility, modification of diet trends, new technologies and the
36 emergence of antimicrobial resistance (Lake, 2018, Park, 2018, Yeni, 2017).

37
38 *A strong association exists between increases in foodborne diseases and high air and water temperatures*
39 *and longer summer seasons (very high confidence)*. The risks occur through complex transmission pathways
40 throughout the food chain and the wide range of foodborne pathogens (Cissé, 2019; Hellberg and Chu, 2016;
41 Lake and Barker, 2018; Park et al., 2018a; Smith and Fazil, 2019). Food-borne pathogens of most concern
42 are those having low infective doses, a significant persistence in the environment and high stress tolerance to
43 temperature change (e.g. enteric viruses, *Campylobacter spp.*, *E. coli* STEC strains, *Mycobacterium avium*,
44 tuberculosis complexes, parasitic protozoa and *Salmonella*) (Lake, 2018; Lake, 2017; Lake and Barker,
45 2018; Smith and Fazil, 2019; EFSA, 2020). Priority risks include marine biotoxins, mycotoxins,
46 salmonellosis, vibriosis, transfer of contaminants due to extreme precipitation, floods, increased use of
47 chemicals (plant protection products, fertilizers, veterinary drugs) in the food chain, and potential residues in
48 food (EFSA 2020; FAO 2019; WHO 2018).

49
50 *There is a strong association observed between increase in Salmonella infections and increase in average*
51 *ambient temperature (high confidence)*. Most types of *Salmonella* infections lead to salmonellosis, while
52 some other types (*Salmonella* Typhi and *Salmonella* Paratyphi) can lead to typhoid fever or paratyphoid
53 fever. The transmission to humans of the non-typhoidal *Salmonella* infection, one of the most widespread
54 foodborne diseases, occurs usually through eating foods contaminated with animal feces. Studies conducted
55 in Australia (Milazzo et al., 2016), New Zealand (Lal et al., 2016), the UK (Lake, 2017), South Korea (Park
56 et al., 2018a; Park et al., 2018b, Park, Park and Bahk 2018), Singapore (Aik et al., 2018) and Hong Kong

1 (Wang et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2018b) have shown that *Salmonella* outbreaks are strongly associated with
2 temperature increases.

3
4 *Significant associations exist between food-borne diseases due to Campylobacter, precipitation and*
5 *temperature (medium confidence)*. The timing of heat-associated Campylobacteriosis events varies across
6 countries, whilst infection rates in the UK appear to decline immediately after periods of high rainfall
7 (Djennad et al., 2019, Lake et al., 2019, Rosenberg et al., 2018, Yun et al., 2016, Weisent et al., 2014). This
8 suggest the association with climate may be indirect and due to weather conditions that encourage outdoor
9 food preparation and recreational activities (Lake, 2017).

10
11 Outbreaks of human and animal *Cryptococcus*'s have been reported as being associated with a combination
12 of climatic factors, and shifts in host and vector populations (Chang and Chen, 2016; Rickerts, 2019)
13 Childhood cryptosporidiosis rates in the tropics and sub-tropics show seasonal and short-term associations
14 with rainfall (Lal, 2019). Studies from Ghana, Guinea Bissau, Tanzania, Kenya and Zambia show a higher
15 prevalence of *Cryptosporidium* during high rainfall seasons, with some peaks observed before, at the onset
16 or at the end of the rainy season (Squire, 2017).

17 7.2.2.4 *Observed impacts on other risks in food chain*

18 7.2.2.4.1 *Intoxications through marine and fresh water biotoxins*

19
20 Harmful Algal Blooms (HABs) are climate sensitive, and are projected to increase in the 21st century, thus
21 increasing the risk of seafood contamination with marine toxins, and associated diseases (high confidence)
22 (IPCC SROC, 2019). These diseases include amnesic shellfish poisoning, diarrhetic shellfish poisoning,
23 neurotoxic shellfish poisoning, azaspiracid shellfish poisoning, paralytic shellfish poisoning, ciguatera fish
24 poisoning, and cyanobacteria poisoning. Marine toxins may cause respiratory and digestive problems,
25 memory loss, seizures, skin irritation and some of them can be acutely lethal. Increased surface water
26 warming is changing the occurrence, intensity, species composition and toxicity of potentially toxic marine
27 and freshwater algae and bacteria, and some dinoflagellates are causing outbreaks in areas where they had
28 not been reported before (Botana et al. 2016). For example Ciguatera fish poisoning which was usually
29 reported in tropical areas in the Caribbean, has been reported in the Canary Islands and in Madeira (Botana
30 et al. 2016), and appears to be expanding in the Southern Hemisphere (Kohli et al. 2016). In fresh water
31 habitats, cyanobacteria blooms poses a health risk, primarily through the contamination of drinking water by
32 cyan toxins. Human communities in poorly monitored areas are among the most vulnerable to these
33 biological hazards (medium confidence) (IPCC SROCC, 2019).

34 7.2.2.4.2 *Mycotoxins*

35
36 Climatic factors affect the growth and geographical expansion of toxigenic fungi in crops and consequent
37 contamination with mycotoxins (medium confidence). A number of studies report that mycotoxins cause
38 adverse health outcomes such as cancer, immuno-suppression or acute toxicity and growth retardation in
39 children (Battilani et al 2016, EFSA2020). Higher temperatures and droughts exacerbate aflatoxin
40 contamination, which increase the risks of human exposure through contaminated food (Battilani et al 2016,
41 EFSA2020, Stepman, 2018).

42 7.2.2.5 *Respiratory Tract Infections*

43
44 *Climatic risk factors for respiratory tract infections (RTIs) due to multiple pathogens (bacteria, viruses,*
45 *fungi) include heat waves, dust storms, extreme precipitation events, and increased climate variability.*

46
47 *Higher temperatures are associated with higher risks for developing pneumonia and pneumonia-related*
48 *mortality (medium confidence)*. In Thailand, heat waves have been shown to positively and significantly
49 increase the risk for pneumonia-related mortality (RR 1.052 - 1.267) and may worsen pneumonia-related
50 mortality associated with air pollution (Huang et al. 2018). In Hong Kong, the effects of air pollution for
51 pneumonia cases living in warmer areas were significantly higher than among cases living in cooler
52 locations (Sun et al. 2019). Increased wintertime temperature variability may also increase the risk for
53 pneumonia infection; a study in China found the hazard ratio (HR) for developing pneumonia was 1.15 (95%
54 CI: 1.01–1.31) for every 1°C increase in wintertime temperature variability (Sun et al. 2018).

1 There is an inverse relationship between influenza incidence with certain weather variables (temperature,
2 absolute humidity, precipitation) (*medium confidence*), but influenza may have increased mortality when
3 associated with La Niña events (*medium confidence*) and extreme precipitation events (*medium confidence*).
4 In mice models, exposure to high ambient temperature (i.e., $\geq 36^{\circ}\text{C}$) has been shown to impair immune
5 responses to influenza (Moriyama and Ichinohe 2019). At the human population level, extreme precipitation
6 events have been positively and significantly associated with influenza-related emergency department visits
7 (Smith et al. 2017). Influenza pandemic dynamics have been associated with El Niño Southern Oscillation
8 (ENSO) (Oluwole 2017), with seasonal influenza shown to be more severe and frequent when coinciding
9 with La Niña events (Flahault et al. 2016). However, influenza incidence rates (Caini et al. 2018) and
10 influenza mortality (Geier et al. 2018) are inversely correlated with climate variables such as temperature,
11 absolute humidity, and precipitation. More research is needed on climate-influenza risk linkages.
12
13

14 [START CROSS-CHAPTER BOX COVID HERE]

15 **Cross-Chapter Box COVID: COVID-19**

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27
28
29

30 This Cross-Chapter Box outlines how the COVID-19 pandemic that emerged in 2019 affects climate change
31 impacts, vulnerability and adaptation. It highlights the overlapping and compound risks from COVID-19,
32 biodiversity loss and climate change impacts on the most vulnerable within countries, which require a
33 coordinated response and holistic risk management strategies
34

35 ***Introduction***

36
37 The severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), which causes Coronavirus Disease
38 2019 (COVID-19), emerged in late 2019 (Vanwambeke et al., 2020), halfway through the preparation of the
39 IPCC WGII Sixth Assessment. Individuals, countries, and international organizations have generally
40 responded in similar ways. Parallels have been drawn to the scale and urgency of response required to
41 effectively address climate change (Polyakova et al., 2020, Shrestha et al., 2020). The disease and the
42 response measures have enormous impacts on human health, but also on economic activity, food production
43 and availability, health services, poverty and social inequalities, supply chains, the maintenance of
44 infrastructure, and the environment interacting with many risks associated with global warming (IMF, 2020).
45

46 ***The role of climate in the origin and spread of COVID-19***

47
48 There is insufficient time to know whether there is a direct link between climate change and the origin or
49 spread of SARS-CoV-2 (Kroumpouzou et al., 2020, Monami et al., 2020) (Tosepu et al., 2020). However,
50 there may be climate-related seasonal dynamics in the long term (Merow and Urban 2020). Infectious
51 diseases may emerge through multiple climate-related avenues, including: direct effects of climatic
52 conditions on disease reproduction and transmission; effects of anthropogenic greenhouse gases and
53 particulate matter on human health and disease transmission; climate-related movements of both humans and
54 wild animals into new areas, thereby altering human-animal interactions; and climate-related agricultural
55 losses with subsequent food scarcity leading to an increase in the use of bush meat and wildlife trading,
56 thereby also increasing human-animal interactions (see Figure CCB COVID.1, Sections 2.4.2.1, 2.4.2.5,
57 5.2.2.3 and 7.2, Chapter 3, Cross-Chapter Boxes ILLNESS in Chapter 2 and MOVING SPECIES in Chapter

5). The spread of some emerging infectious diseases, including SARS-CoV-2, from wildlife into humans is associated with live animal-human markets, and increased human intrusion into wild animal habitats. Climate change has increased the risk of emerging infectious diseases by driving the movements of new species, including vectors and reservoirs of diseases, into novel human populations and vice-versa (high confidence) (2.4.2.5; 5.2.2.3; Cross-Chapter Box ILLNESS in Chapter 2; SRCCL; IPBES 2020). However, the vector for the COVID-19 pandemic is human to human transmission rather than climatic, animal or parasite factors (Xiong et al. 2020, PNAS).

Studies of the extent to which weather and climate variability are associated with COVID-19 infection and transmission rates are inconsistent, often because few confounding factors were taken into account; there also are differences in epidemiological metrics and methodologies used (*moderate evidence, low agreement*) (Iqbal et al, 2020, Lin Changqing et al, 2020, Pan et al, 2020, Shakil MH et al, 2020). Some results suggest higher COVID-19 infections and transmission rates in the coldest locations (Sajadi et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2020, Bashir et al., 2020), but this effect is weak and not always significant (Poirier et al, 2020) (Chakraborti S et al, in press). It is unclear whether colder temperatures could drive behavioural changes towards indoor, poorly ventilated spaces or alter the biology of the virus. There is generally more evidence for lowered transmission in high humidity, but not all studies support this, and the effect is consistently small and interacts with temperature (*limited evidence, moderate agreement*) (Schuit et al., 2020, Morris et al., 2020, Smither et al. 2020, Zhang et al, 2020).

In contrast, pollutants, many of which also affect the climate system (for example, carbon particulate matter), have been consistently positively correlated with higher transmission of, and mortality from, COVID-19 (Hendryx & Luo, 2020, Magazzino et al, 2020, Zhu et al, 2020, Pozzer et al. 2020, NAS, 2020). High levels of pollution may increase COVID-19 incidence by as much as 5–7%, particularly at higher temperatures (Zhang et al 2020). Evidence from studies of other airborne viruses suggests this is due both to the detrimental effect of air pollution directly on health and to viral transport *via* particulate matter facilitating airborne transmission (Comunian, 2020). Breathing dry air promotes epithelial damage and inhibits mucociliary clearance, thereby increasing mortality (Ma et al., 2020; Poole, 2020).

Impacts of COVID-19 and their relation to climate risks

The severe economic impacts and reduction in travel due to COVID-19 have had a measurable impact on global greenhouse gas emissions (Quéré et al., 2020). However, CO₂ concentrations are still increasing and climate hazard scenarios for the coming years and decades are not affected substantially by a temporary reduction in emissions, unless the current crisis leads to a more consistent change in emissions pathways, either due to long-term economic contraction or a drastic policy choice towards green recovery. The COVID-19 pandemic has already resulted in a cascade of negative and some positive impacts across sectors (*medium evidence, medium confidence*) (e.g. Pfister et al. 2020), with significant implications for the climate-related impacts and risks covered across the WGII Sixth Assessment Report. Beyond COVID-19-related mortality and morbidity, mortality from other diseases, as well as maternal and neonatal mortality, has increased as a result of disruption in health services (Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation 2020). Family violence has also increased (e.g., Usher et al., 2020). Over 100 countries have closed educational facilities at all levels, affecting over 900 million students (Nicola et al. 2020). It is estimated that close to 90 million additional people may fall into extreme poverty due to the COVID-19 crisis (IMF 2020). Every percentage point drop in global gross domestic product (GDP) means an additional 0.7 million stunted children (UNSG 2020). The effects of the pandemic will likely increase the number of people suffering from acute food insecurity from 135 million to 270 million people (WFP-FSIN, 2020) and exacerbate malnutrition and non-communicable diseases (NCDs) (FAO et al. 2020; Rippin et al. 2020). This overlaps with conflict conditions and displacement with vulnerable populations facing the triple risks of conflict, COVID-19 and climate impacts (WFP-FSIN, 2020).

At the same time, compound disasters have arisen because of extreme weather and climate events such as droughts, storms, floods, wildfires and heatwaves (*medium confidence*). Between March and September 2020, 92 extreme weather events coincided with the COVID-19 pandemic, affecting 51.6 million people (Walton and van Aalst 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic may hinder disaster response and safe evacuations, while physical distancing regulations may reduce the capacity of temporary shelters (UNDRR 2020). Additionally, 431.7 million people were exposed to extreme heat, and 2.3 million people were affected by

1 wildfires (Walton and van Aalst 2020). Extreme heat can drive people indoors for air conditioning, which
2 may influence the spread of COVID-19 (*limited evidence, moderate agreement*) (e.g. Correia et al. 2020;
3 Chirico et al. 2020).

4
5 Improved contingency and recovery planning, including COVID-19 mitigation measures, are crucial for the
6 aftermath of climate-related disasters (Guo et al. 2020; Ebrahim et al 2020; Baidya et al 2020; Shultz et al
7 2020; Mukherjee et al, 2020), as well as for preparedness measures (Alcayna et al. 2020; Tozier de la Poterie
8 et al., 2020). For instance, public health responses to the COVID-19 pandemic, and the associated
9 socioeconomic and environmental impacts of these measures, increased handwashing and crowd avoidance,
10 requiring more water and sanitation, evacuation and shelter infrastructures (Armitage & Nellums 2020),
11 wastewater management (Adelodun et al. 2020; Poch et al 2020), and water quality (Hallema et al 2020;
12 Yunus, Masago & Hijoka, 2020; Patel et al, 2020; Espejo et al 2020). The lack of basic water access in select
13 low- and middle-income countries (WHO, 2019) and among marginalised groups in high-income countries
14 (see section 4.4.3 and Box 4.3) exacerbates these challenges and increases the risks of COVID-19
15 transmission (Brauer et al. 2020), particularly in mega-cities, slums, rural areas, refugee camps, and among
16 minorities (Armitage and Nellum, 2020b) and in the Global South (Staddon et al 2020; Haddout et al 2020).

17 ***Societal responses to the COVID-19 pandemic and lessons for climate responses***

18
19
20 The pandemic underscores the interconnected and compound nature of risks and responses - and the uneven
21 distribution of impacts and responses - relating to public health, food and water security, non-communicable
22 diseases, the economy, democracy and justice, climate risk and resilience, and sustainable development
23 (Brosemer et al., 2020; Dodds et al., 2020; Gebreslassie, 2020; Hynes et al., 2020; Philips et al., 2020;
24 Schipper et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic is an opportunity to advance societal imperatives beyond
25 the pandemic; these could be applied to promoting adaptation and mitigation to increase resilience (high
26 confidence) (Sovacool et al 2020; Roosenbloom and Markard, 2020, Lambert et al 2020, Boyle et al 2020;
27 Bouman et al. 2020, UN 2020, Brosemer et al., 2020; Dodds et al., 2020; Hynes et al., 2020; Markard &
28 Rosenbloom 2020; Philips et al., 2020; Schipper et al., 2020; Willi et al., 2020).

29
30 Yet, windows of opportunity to enable transitions are only open for a limited period and need to be acted
31 upon to effect change (*high confidence*) (Weible et al 2020). Responses to previous crises (e.g. 2008-2011
32 financial crisis) demonstrate that despite high ambitions during the response phase, opportunities for reform
33 do not necessarily materialise (*high confidence*). Major crisis events act either as critical junctures to
34 fundamentally reconsider the political arena or reinforce the political status-quo (Bol et al 2020, Boin et al
35 2005). Lessons from previous crises demonstrate the importance of policy design and feedback,
36 institutionalized ambitions, and dedicated resources (*high agreement, medium evidence*) (Jordan and Matt,
37 2014), Klenert et al., 2020; Rickels & Peterson, 2020.

38
39 COVID-19 also highlights the role of scientific (including medical) expertise, and communication of that
40 knowledge. Many warnings about the risks of zoonotic transmission (“delay is costly”, “adapt early” and
41 “prevention pays”) did not result in sufficient attention, funding and preparation (*high confidence*). There
42 now appears to be increased awareness of risks and real or perceived trade-offs (e.g. economy vs. health;
43 impacts vs. adaptation). However, groups in society that are climate-sceptic also tend to be sceptical about
44 COVID-19 management (Brzezinski et al 2020). Shifting trust-relations might offer the possibility to
45 recalibrate the role of government in responding to crises, and society-government relations more generally
46 (Amat et al., 2020; Deslatte, 2020).

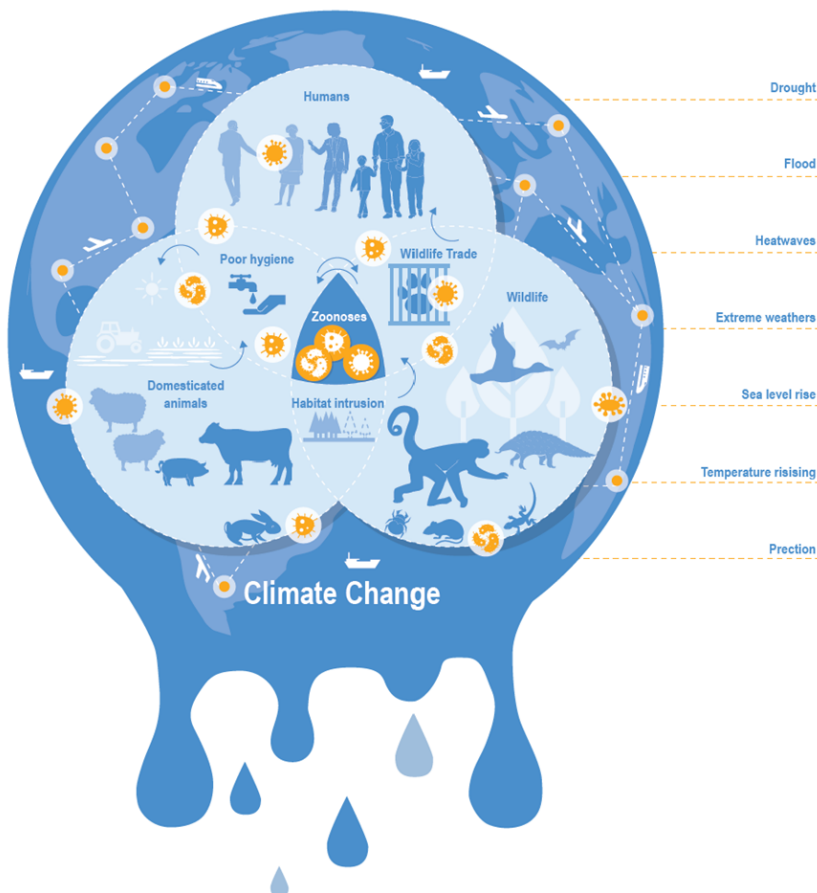
47 48 ***Pathways and synergies and trade-offs between pandemic responses and climate change responses***

49
50 COVID-19 recovery investments offer an opportunity to contribute to Climate-Resilient Development
51 Pathways through a green, resilient, healthy and inclusive recovery (high confidence) (Hepburn et al., 2020;
52 WHO, 2020; Bateman et al, 2020; Meige et al., 2020). Whilst the COVID-19 pandemic creates opportunities
53 for climate-resilient development, heightened societal and political attention to one crisis issue area often
54 comes at the cost of other policy priorities (*high confidence*) (Maor 2018; Tosun et al 2017). This has direct
55 impacts on climate-resilient development as societal and political attention, and financial and staff resources,
56 have been prioritized for COVID-19 responses. The economic consequences of the pandemic could also

1 result in lowered ambition and budget cuts of businesses towards climate and sustainability (e.g. dismantling
 2 sustainability offices).

3
 4 Table CCB COVID.1 identifies the pathways, synergies and trade-offs between pandemic responses (actions
 5 taken to manage emerging zoonotic disease including COVID-19) and climate responses. It illustrates that
 6 many responses to COVID-19 have implications for climate change risk management. For instance,
 7 strengthening health systems helps to deal with COVID-19, but also increases capacity to address future
 8 climate related health issues (Fuentes et al., 2020; Howarth et al., 2020; Newell & Dale, 2020). Similarly,
 9 social protection systems have supported pandemic responses, and can equally play a role in coping with
 10 rising climate risks.

11
 12 Many of these examples demonstrate how COVID-19 highlights three drivers of risk to development that
 13 have long been recognised but not sufficiently prioritised in national and international policy (Manzanedo
 14 and Manning 2020; Markard and Rosenbloom 2020, Lindskog et al 2020, Barnett 2019). First, action to
 15 manage climate change risk has often focused on reducing hazards and exposure rather than vulnerability.
 16 Social vulnerability in particular, can be reduced in the short term by investments in a social safety net and
 17 universal access to health care, and over the medium-term by investment in housing, water and sanitation,
 18 health care, skills training, and education. Second, climate change risk management has tended to ignore root
 19 causes of risk that are often grounded in decision-making capacities, rule of law, accountability and
 20 transparency in decision-making. Third, climate change risk management has tended to focus on single
 21 drivers of risk, while action on a wider set of components of compound risk and strengthening institutions
 22 can help reduce climate risk more effectively. By adopting such holistic risk management strategies,
 23 countries have an opportunity to both address the current pandemic and tackle rising climate risks at the
 24 same time.



27
 28 **Figure CCB COVID.1:** Climate change impact on humans, animals and ecosystems and how it affects the drivers of
 29 zoonosis

1 **Table CCB COVID.1:** Pathways, synergies and trade-offs between pandemic responses and climate responses

Interdependency	Pandemic responses including COVID-19 action	Climate change responses (implications for inclusive adaptation & mitigation)
Risk reduction		
Habitat fragmentation and increased interactions between humans and wildlife Volpato et al, 2020	Ban of some animal trades and consumption in markets and restaurants	Increase protected area networks, restore ecosystem functioning of degraded systems, decrease legal and illegal wildlife trade. These actions increase ecosystem services, including GHG mitigation, and reduce risk of emerging infectious diseases
Deforestation and forest incursion	Improved forest management	Reforestation and slower deforestation reduce flood and fire risk and contributes to climate mitigation.
Wildlife trade Zhu and Zhu, 2020	Better regulated trade in wildlife	Conservation of wildlife resources (via protection and restoration of natural habitats) supports sustainable rural economies and builds resilience amongst marginal populations.
Food systems Cohen et al, 2020 Ayanlade and Radeny, 2020 Oldekop et al, 2020	Preference for local food production to reduce food insecurity from interrupted supply chains	Local food production can increase local livelihoods and enhance the quality of food available for targeted vulnerable groups e.g., school children, hospital patients and so reduce vulnerability to health impacts of climate change risk, while also reducing the carbon footprint of food production.
Underlying individual human vulnerabilities Gupte and Mitlin, 2020 Wilkinson, 2020	Education and support for healthy living to reduce chronic poor health (e.g. diabetes, obesity) and social isolation.	Reduces individual vulnerability, especially amongst the elderly to heat and flood risk. Community cohesion enhances local adaptive capacity.
Underlying social vulnerabilities, including mental health Coker et al, 2020 Abrams and Szeffler, 2020 Gupte and Mitlin, 2020	Resolving high-density subserviced living conditions including access for all to clean water; education and trusted information for risk avoidance; good quality public transport; support for mental health impacts of COVID-19	Better housing and access to clean and sufficient water to reduce exposure and vulnerability to flooding, drought and temperature shocks. Educated populations and trusted broadcasters are better able to communicate climate change associated risks and promote adaptive actions. Improved public transport contributes to climate mitigation. Improved mental health resilience in the face of changing livelihoods, impacts, and adaptation and mitigation transitions.
Risk Early Warning, Monitoring and Containment		

Disease emergence	Improved community health surveillance	Improved knowledge base for health systems policy, including work at the interface of local health, environmental change and social status. Expanded medical training to include potential novel diseases Periodic re-evaluation of reportable disease to detect new diseases entering a country due to climate change induced range shifts
Disease tracking Huang et al., 2020	Better data on interconnections between trade flows and population movement.	Better understanding of tele connected climate risks and climate risk cascades across policy domains.
Containing spread of infection Botzen et al, 2020	Public willingness to undertake lifestyle changes to reduce risk	Case studies in behaviour change. COVID-19 changes may enable flexibility or resistance to additional changes.
Impact control		
Addressing economic impacts Gossling et al 2020	Financial support for exposed sectors including aviation and construction and hospitality.	Scope for enhancing mitigation and climate resilient development, including stimulus for new sectors and support during decline of other sectors.
Addressing social impacts Ahmed et al, 2020 De Paz et al 2020	Extending social welfare	Scope for addressing both short-term and long-term gender, racial, economic, and other inequalities driving vulnerability to climate change associated hazards.
Addressing environmental impacts	Observing impacts from accelerated construction and increased use of medical supplies e.g. PPE	Enhance insight into the creation of flood hazard through development activity Ishiwatari et al, 2020
Addressing secondary health impacts	Safe areas in medical facilities for non-COVID-19 treatments	Scope for developing surge capacity of standard care during seasonal or exceptional weather events
Activating emergency management	Essential life support services, disaster risk management, and infrastructure for WaSH, nutrition, and trauma support	Scope for ability to manage climate change associated impacts during hazard events, including providing clean water and WaSH infrastructure, safely housing and feeding displaced populations, and support for mental trauma and injury.
Geopolitical relationships Van Barneveld et al, 2020	Bifurcation between collaboration and fragmentation of international relations	Hardens international contexts for collaborative action on climate change mitigation and adaptation.

Cheval et al, 2020 Dodds et al, 2020		
International financial flows and trade Oldekop et al, 2020 Sirkeci, I. (2020).	Addressing supply chain and remittance disruptions.	Renewed emphasis on local production chains can contribute to climate mitigation. Prioritisation of renewed and reliable remittances can promote resilience of impoverished and vulnerable families.
Economic Renewal Hepburn et al, 2020 Leal Filho et al 2020	Large scale and concentrated investment of public funds in labour intensive sectors e.g. construction and agriculture. Fiscal macroeconomic policy to address long-term public debt.	Scope for stimulating a global transformation for climate mitigation and resilience.

1 Notes:

2 * Chapter and Cross-Chapter Box lines of sight are indicated for each interdependency.

3 The above table is based on expert judgement with limited peer review literature available. It seeks to illustrate the
4 depth of connection between the driving forces shaping risk, loss and recovery for COVID-19 and the drivers shaping
5 risk and resilience to climate change. Any recovery from COVID-19 or movement towards an inclusive and sustainable
6 climate adaptation will be interdependent.

7
8
9 [END CROSS-CHAPTER BOX COVID HERE]

10 11 12 **7.2.3 Observed Impacts on Non-communicable Diseases**

13 Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) impose the largest disease burden globally. NCDs constitute
14 approximately 80% of the burden of disease in high-income countries; the NCD burden is lower in low- and
15 middle-income countries but expected to rise (Bollyky et al., 2017). NCDs constitute a large group of
16 diseases driven principally by environmental, lifestyle, and other factors; those identified as being climate
17 sensitive include non-infectious respiratory disease, cardiovascular disease, cancer, and endocrine disease
18 including diabetes.

19 20 21 **7.2.3.1 Non-communicable respiratory diseases**

22 Lung diseases, including asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and lung cancer, comprise the
23 largest subsets of non-communicable pulmonary disease (Ferkol and Schraufnagel, 2014). Overall, the
24 global burden of non-communicable lung disease including all chronic lung disease and lung cancer is
25 substantial, responsible for 10.6% of deaths and 5.9% of DALYs globally in 2019 (Vos et al., 2020).

26
27
28 *Several non-communicable respiratory diseases are climate sensitive based on their exposure pathways*
29 *(very high confidence)*. Multiple exposure pathways contribute to non-communicable respiratory disease
30 (Deng et al 2020), some of which are climate-related, (Rice et al., 2014), including mobilization and
31 transport of dust (Schweitzer et al., 2018); changes in concentrations of air pollutants such as small
32 particulates (PM_{2.5}) and ozone formed by photochemical reactions sensitive to temperature (Hansel et al.,
33 2016), increased wildland fires and related smoke exposure (Johnston et al., 2002; Reid et al., 2016),
34 increased exposure to ambient heat driving reduced lung function and exacerbations of chronic lung disease
35 (Collaco et al., 2018) (Jehn et al., 2013; McCormack et al., 2016; Witt et al., 2015); and, modification of
36 aeroallergen production and duration of exposure (Ziska et al., 2019).

1 *Burdens of allergic disease, particularly allergic rhinitis and allergic asthma, may be changing in response*
2 *to climate change (medium confidence)* (D'Amato et al., 2020; Eguiluz-Gracia et al., 2020, Deng et al 2020).
3 This is supported by evidence showing an increase in the length of the North American pollen season
4 attributable to climate change (Ziska et al., 2019), an association between timing of spring onset and higher
5 asthma hospitalizations presumed to be due to higher pollen exposure (Sapkota et al., 2020), and other
6 evidence linking aeroallergen exposure with a worsening burden of allergic disease (Demain, 2018; Poole et
7 al., 2019).

8 9 7.2.3.2 Cardiovascular diseases

10 Cardiovascular diseases (CVD) are a group of disorders of the heart and blood vessels that include coronary
11 heart disease, cerebrovascular disease, peripheral arterial disease, peripheral arterial disease, rheumatic heart
12 disease, congenital heart disease, deep vein thrombosis and pulmonary embolism. CVDs are the leading
13 cause of death globally and over three quarters of the world's CVD deaths now occur in low- and middle-
14 income countries (WHO 2017). AR5 described the thermoregulatory mechanisms and responses, including
15 acclimatization, linking climate and CVD, and these have been further confirmed by recent studies and
16 reviews (e.g. Giorgini et al., 2017; Ikaheimo, 2018; McGregor and Vanos, 2018; Stewart et al., 2017;
17 Schuster, 2017; Zhang et al., 2018a).

18
19
20 *Excess deaths during extreme heat events occur predominantly in older individuals and are overwhelmingly*
21 *cardiovascular in origin (very high confidence)*. A higher occurrence of CVD mortality in association with
22 prolonged period of low temperatures has been well documented globally (Giorgini et al., 2017; Stewart et
23 al., 2017); however, there is growing evidence that heat events are more directly linked to cardiovascular
24 death than cold spells (Chen et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2015; Bunker et al., 2016). There is a clear impact of heat
25 on mortality, although the evidence for morbidity remains mixed (Song et al., 2017), with some CVD
26 morbidity sub-groups such as myocardial infarction and stroke hospitalization displaying temperature
27 sensitivity, while others do not (Bao et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2018b; Wang et al., 2016). Whilst there is strong
28 association between ambient temperature and cardiovascular events globally, there are complex interactions
29 and modulators of individual response (Wang et al., 2017a; Wang et al., 2017b). Although older adults have
30 inherent sensitivities to temperature-related health impacts (Bunker et al., 2016; Phung et al., 2016),
31 cardiovascular capacity/health is a critical determinant of individual health outcomes (Schuster et al., 2017).
32 Medications used to treat CVD diseases, such as diuretics and beta-blockers, may impair resilience to heat
33 stress (Stewart et al., 2017); other mediating factors in the causal pathway range from alcohol consumption
34 to pre-existing conditions such as diabetes and hyperlipidaemia, and urban characteristics (Chen et al. 2019,
35 Sera et al., 2019).

36
37 *In addition to changes in temperature, climate change has the potential to increase the risk of CVD through*
38 *other mechanisms (medium confidence), though the degree to which risks may increase remains unclear*. For
39 example, exposure to air pollutants including particulate matter, ozone (via its precursors), black carbon,
40 oxides of nitrogen, oxides of sulphur, hydrocarbons and metals can invoke pro-inflammatory and
41 prothrombotic states, endothelial dysfunction and hypertensive responses (Giorgini et al., 2017; Stewart et
42 al., 2017). Winter peaks in CVD events, associated with greater concentrations of air pollutants, have been
43 reported in a range of countries and climates (Claeys et al., 2017; Stewart et al., 2017); however, the
44 association between air pollution, weather and CVD events is complex and seems to differ in cold *versus*
45 warm months, particularly for gaseous pollutants such as ozone (Shi et al., 2020).

46
47 Although climate change is projected to increase the number and severity of naturally occurring wildfires
48 (Liu et al., 2015b; Youssouf et al., 2014) the evidence for wildfire smoke-related CVD morbidity remains
49 inconclusive or negative (Reid et al., 2016), although significant increases in certain cardiovascular
50 outcomes (e.g., cardiac arrests) may occur (Dennekamp et al., 2015). Other climate related mechanisms that
51 may increase CVD risk (Frumkin and Haines, 2019) include hot weather related reduction in physical
52 activity (Obradovich and Fowler, 2017, sleep disturbance (Obradovich et al., 2017) and sea level rise related
53 saline intrusion of groundwater (Taylor et al., 2012) which may increase the salt intake of affected
54 populations, a risk factor for hypertension, (Talukder et al., 2017).

55 56 7.2.3.3 Cancer

1 *Climate change is likely to increase the risk of several malignancies (high confidence), though the degree to*
2 *which risks may increase remains unclear.* Cancers, also known as malignant neoplasms, include a
3 heterogeneous collection of diseases with various causal pathways, many with environmental influences.
4 Malignant neoplasms impose a substantial burden of disease globally, responsible for slightly over 10
5 million deaths and 251 million DALYs globally in 2019 (Vos et al., 2020). Climatic hazards affect exposure
6 pathways for several different chemical hazards associated with carcinogenesis (Portier et al., 2010). Most
7 relevant literature has focused on elaborating potential pathways and producing qualitative or quantitative
8 estimates of effect, though there is limited literature on current and projected impacts.

9
10 The vast majority of elaborated pathways point to increased risk; for example, there is concern that climate
11 change may alter fate and transport of carcinogenic polyaromatic hydrocarbons (Domínguez-Morueco et al.
12 2019) and increase mobilization of carcinogens such as bromide (Regli et al. 2015), persistent organic
13 pollutants including polychlorinated-biphenyls (Miner et al. 2018), and radioactive material (Evangelidou et
14 al. 2014). Other harmful pathways include migration of and increased exposure to liver flukes, which cause
15 hepatobiliary cancer (Prueksapanich et al. 2018). Increased exposure to carcinogenic toxins via multiple
16 pathways is also a concern. Aflatoxin exposure, for example, is expected to increase in Europe (Moretti et al.
17 2019), India (Shekhar et al. 2018), Africa (Gnonlonfin et al. 2013; Bandyopadhyay et al. 2016), and North
18 America (Wu et al. 2011). Other carcinogenic toxins originate from cyanobacteria blooms (Lee et al. 2017),
19 which are projected to increase in frequency and extent with climate change (Wells et al. 2015; Paerl et al.
20 2016; Chapra et al. 2017).

21 22 7.2.3.4 *Diabetes*

23
24 *Individuals suffering from diabetes are at higher risk for heat-related illness and death (medium confidence).*
25 Evidence suggests that the local heat loss response of skin blood flow (SkBF) is affected by diabetes-related
26 impairments, resulting in lower elevations in SkBF in response to a heat or pharmacological stimulus.
27 Thermoregulatory sweating may also be diminished by type 2 diabetes, impairing the body's ability to
28 transfer heat from its core to the environment. A number of epidemiological studies have found that high
29 temperatures are associated with increased mortality, whilst a few detected the effects of cold temperatures.
30 Xu et al. (2017) also observed higher rates of doctor consultations by patients with type-2 diabetes and
31 diabetics with cardiovascular comorbidities are at increased demands of medical consultation during hot
32 days, but there was no heightened risk with renal failure or neuropathy comorbidities.

33
34 *Chronically ill people are at particular risk during and after extreme weather events due to treatment*
35 *interruptions and lack of access to medication (medium confidence).* The impacts of extreme weather events
36 on the health of chronically ill people are due to a range of factors including disruption of transport,
37 weakened health systems including drug supply chains, loss of power, and evacuations of populations (Ryan
38 et al., 2015). Evacuations also pose health risks to older adults (especially those who are frail, medically
39 incapacitated, or residing in nursing or assisted living facilities) and may be complicated by the need for
40 concurrent transfer of medical records, medications and medical equipment (Becquart et al., 2018; Quast and
41 Feng, 2019; USGCRP, 2016). Emergency room visits after Hurricane Sandy rose among individuals with
42 type-2 diabetes (Velez-Valle et al. 2016)

43 44 7.2.4 *Observed Impacts on Other Climate-sensitive Health Outcomes*

45 46 7.2.4.1 *Injuries arising from heat, cold, and extreme weather events*

47
48 Injuries comprise a substantial portion of the global burden of disease. In 2019, injuries comprised 9.82% of
49 total global DALYs and 7.61% of deaths (Vos et al., 2020). The causal pathways for many injuries,
50 particularly those from heat and extreme weather events, flooding, and fires, exhibit clear climate sensitivity
51 (Roberts and Arnold, 2007; Roberts and Hillman, 2005), as do some injuries occurring in occupational
52 settings (Marinaccio et al., 2019; Sheng et al., 2018), but a comprehensive assessment of climate sensitivity
53 in injury causal pathways has not been done. Certain groups, including indigenous populations (Thomson)
54 and children and elders (Ahmed et al., 2020) are at greater risk for a wide range of injuries. Extreme events
55 impose substantial disease burden directly as a result of traumatic injuries, drowning, and burns and large
56 mental health burdens associated with displacement (Fullilove, 1996), depression, and post-traumatic stress
57 disorder, but the overall injury burden associated with extreme weather is not known. It is known that the

1 Asia-Pacific region experienced the highest relative burden of injuries from extreme weather in recent
2 decades (Hashim and Hashim, 2016).

3
4 Extreme weather imposes a substantial morbidity and mortality burden that is quite variable by location and
5 hazard. The proportion of this burden related to injuries specifically is not established. From 1998-2017 there
6 were 526,000 deaths from 11,500 extreme weather events, and the average annual attributable all-cause
7 mortality incidence in the ten most affected countries was 3.5 per 100,000 population (Eckstein et al., 2017).
8 Rates can be much higher, however: mortality incidence in Puerto Rico and Dominica from extreme weather
9 were 90.2 and 43.7 per 100,000 population in 2017, respectively (Eckstein et al., 2017). Not all of these
10 deaths are from injuries, and the proportion of mortality and morbidity associated with injuries varies by
11 location and hazard. One review found that one-year post-event prevalence rates for injuries associated with
12 extreme events (floods, droughts, heatwaves, and storms) in developing countries ranged from 1.4% to
13 37.9% (Rataj et al., 2016). Other literature has documented an increase in risk of motor vehicle crashes in
14 association with extreme precipitation (Liu et al., 2017; Stevens et al., 2019) and in association with
15 sandstorms (Islam et al., 2019), and an increased risk of traumatic occupational injuries associated with
16 temperature extremes, particularly extreme heat, likely from fatigue and decreased psychomotor
17 performance (Varghese et al., 2019).

18
19 Extreme heat events and extreme temperature have well documented, observed impacts on health, mortality
20 (*very high confidence*) and morbidity (*high confidence*). Large death tolls and hospitalizations were directly
21 attributable to heat events in Europe (2003), Russia (2015), India (2015) and Japan (2018) (McGregor et al.,
22 2017, Hayashida et al., 2019). There are multiple pathways through which ambient temperatures interact
23 with heat-sensitive physiological mechanisms to affect health, which can in worst cases lead to organ failure
24 and death (Mora et al., 2017). All-cause mortality attributable to heat and cold varies across a range of
25 countries between 3.37 and 11.0 percent (Gasparrini et al., 2015) (Zhang et al., 2019), but heat as a health
26 risk factor has largely been overlooked in low and middle income countries, (Campbell et al., 2018) (Green
27 et al., 2019). For countries where data availability permits, there is evidence that extreme heat (and extreme
28 cold) lead to higher rates of early deaths (Armstrong et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2018; Costa et al., 2017).
29 Rapid changes and variability in temperatures are observed to increase heat-related health and mortality
30 risks, the outcomes varying across temperate and tropical regions (Guo et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2019; Kim
31 et al., 2019; Tian et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019)

32
33 Under extreme heat conditions, there are observed increases in hospitalizations for fluid disorders, renal
34 failure, urinary tract infections, septicemia, general heat stroke, as well as unintentional injuries (Borg et al.,
35 2017; Phung et al., 2017; Goggins and Chan, 2017; Hayashida et al., 2019; Hopp et al., 2018; Ito et al., 2018;
36 Kampe et al., 2016; McTavish et al., 2018; Ponjoan et al., 2017; van Loenhout et al., 2018). However, such
37 outcomes vary by locale (Phung et al., 2016), suggesting outcomes are highly moderated by socio-economic
38 and other non-climatic determinants of individual health and socio-economic vulnerability (McGregor et al.,
39 2017; Schuster et al, 2017, Benmarhnia et al., 2015; Gifford et al., 2019). Access to air conditioning is an
40 important determinant (Guirguis et al., 2018).

41
42 Significant effects of heat exposure on work-related injuries have been observed in Australia, China, Italy,
43 Spain, and Canada. In a study in of work-related injury insurance claims in Guangzhou, China, Ma et al.
44 (2019) found that 4.8% of work-related injuries and 4.1% of work-related injury insurance payouts were
45 attributed to heat exposure, with male workers, those working in small enterprises and workers with low
46 educational attainment being especially exposed.

47
48 *There is a need for more research regarding the specific detection and attribution of heat and cold-related*
49 *mortality/morbidity to observed climate change.* Although there has been an observed increase in winter
50 season temperatures for a number of regions, to date there is little evidence for a consequential reduction in
51 winter mortality due to milder winters (e.g. Astrom et al., 2014; Diaz et al., 2019; Hajat, 2017; Lee et al.,
52 2018)). The few quantitative attempts to attribute observed changes in heat-related mortality suggest a
53 significant association with climate change. For example, for London and Paris, anthropogenic climate
54 change increased the risk of heat-related mortality by approximately 70% and 20% respectively during the
55 2003 European heat wave (Mitchell et al., 2016). For the severe heat event across Egypt in 2015, the impact
56 on human discomfort was 69% ($\pm 17\%$) more likely due to anthropogenic climate change (Mitchell, 2016).

1 There is clear evidence of climate sensitivity for multiple injuries from floods, fires, and storms, but limited
2 evidence regarding current injury burden attributable to climate change. *It is as likely as not that climate*
3 *change has increased the current burden of disease from injuries related to extreme weather, particularly in*
4 *low income settings (low confidence)*. Approximately 120 million people are exposed to coastal flooding
5 annually (Nicholls et al., 2007), causing an estimated 12,000 deaths (Shultz et al., 2005), and there is
6 significant concern for worsening associated with climate change (Shultz et al., 2018a; Shultz et al., 2018b;
7 Woodward and Samet, 2018) but very limited quantification of attributable burden. As for projected
8 exposures, there is sufficient evidence to assess risks related to flooding only, though there is very limited
9 literature highlighting increased morbidity and mortality an increase in fires in sub-zero temperatures that are
10 thought to be highly attributed to climate change (Metallinou and Log 2017).

11 7.2.4.2 *Observed impacts on maternal, fetal, and neonatal health*

12 Maternal and neonatal disorders accounted for 3.67% of total global deaths and 7.83% of global DALYs in
13 2019 (Vos et al., 2020). Children and pregnant females have potentially higher rates of vulnerability and/or
14 exposure to climatic hazards, extreme weather events, and undernutrition (Garcia and Sheehan, 2016,
15 Sorensen et al., 2018, Chersich et al., 2018). Available evidence suggests that heat is associated with higher
16 rates of preterm birth (Wang et al., 2020), low birthweight, stillbirth, and neonatal stress (Cil and Cameron,
17 2017; Kuehn and McCormick, 2017) and with adverse child health (Kuehn and McCormick, 2017). Extreme
18 weather events are associated with reduced access to prenatal care and unattended deliveries (Abdullah et al.,
19 2019) and decreased paediatric health care access (Haque et al., 2019).

20 7.2.4.3 *Observed impacts on malnutrition*

21 *Climatic variability and change, including changes in temperatures and precipitation patterns, and greater*
22 *frequency of extreme events, increases food insecurity and poor access to healthy food in many regions (high*
23 *confidence)*. All dimensions of food security, including food production and availability, stability of food
24 supplies, access to food, and food utilization, are affected (Mbow et al., 2019). Food insecurity and poor
25 access to healthy food contribute not only to undernutrition, but also to obesity, and susceptibility to non-
26 communicable diseases in low- and middle-income countries (FAO, 2018; Swinburn et al., 2019). Between
27 2015 and 2019, an estimated 166 million people in 26 countries, primarily in East Africa, Southern Africa
28 and Central America, required urgent humanitarian assistance due to climate-related food emergencies
29 (Nkunzimana et al., 2016, FSIN 2017, 2018, 2019; FSIN & GNAFC, 2020; FAO et al., 2018). The pathways
30 through which climate change affects malnutrition include impacts on household food security and access,
31 dietary diversity and nutrient quality; impacts experienced through changes in water quality, food safety and
32 consequent disease outbreaks; and impacts on access maternal, reproductive and child health and care
33 (Tirado et al., 2017; FAO, 2018). Climatic influences on nutrition are strongly mediated by socio-economic
34 factors that determine food security and nutrition, such as livelihoods, assets, income, access to health, to
35 education, to food aid, institutions, inequities, human rights, infrastructure, resources and political structures
36 (Hallegatte and Rozenberg, 2017; Tirado et al. 2017; FAO 2018). Climate and food system linkages and
37 outcomes are further developed in Chapter 4 of this report. Extreme events may lead to exposed populations
38 consuming inadequate or insufficient food, leading to malnutrition and increasing the risk of disease
39 (Rodriguez-Llanes et al. 2016; Gari et al., 2017; Kumar et al., 2016; Lazzaroni and Wagner, 2016).

40 [START BOX 7.3 HERE]

41 **Box 7.3: Malnutrition: Definitions and Current Global Baselines**

42 Malnutrition is a broad term that refers to all forms of poor nutrition, and includes conditions that range from
43 undernutrition to obesity. Malnutrition is caused by a complex array of factors, including dietary inadequacy
44 (deficiencies, excesses, or imbalances in energy, protein, and micronutrients), infections, and sociocultural
45 factors (GNR, 2018). Undernutrition exists when a combination of insufficient food intake, health, and care
46 conditions results in one or more of the following: being underweight for age, short for age (stunted), thin for
47 height (wasted), or functionally deficient in vitamins and/or minerals (micronutrient malnutrition). Since
48 AR5, analyses of the links between climate change and food insecurity have expanded beyond undernutrition

1 to include the impacts of climate change on a wider set of diet and weight-related risk factors and their
2 impacts on NCDs, as well as the role of dietary choices for GHG emissions (SROC 2019).
3

4 Globally, more than 690 million people are undernourished, 144 million children are stunted, 47 million
5 children are wasted, and more than 2 billion people are micronutrient deficient (FAO, 2020). More than 135
6 million people across 55 countries experienced acute hunger requiring urgent food, nutrition and livelihoods
7 assistance in 2019 (FSIN and GNAFC, 2020). Nearly half of all deaths in children under 5 are attributable to
8 undernutrition, which puts children at greater risk of dying from common infections (GRN, 2018; UNICEF,
9 WHO, WB, 2019). Undernutrition in the first 1,000 days of a child's life can lead to stunted growth, which
10 results in impaired cognitive ability and reduced school and work performance in the future (UNICEF,
11 WHO, WB, 2019). The associated costs of stunting in terms of lost economic growth can be of the order of
12 10% of GDP per year in Africa (Wagstaff, 2016).
13

14 At the same time, diseases associated with high-calorie, unhealthy diets are increasing globally, with 38.3
15 million of under five children overweight (GNR, 2018), 2.1 billion adults overweight or obese and the global
16 prevalence of diabetes almost doubling in the past 30 years (Swinburn et al., 2019). Imbalanced diets, such
17 as diets low in fruits and vegetables and high in red and processed meat, are, and have been for years, the
18 number one risk factor for mortality globally and in most regions (GBD 2017 Risk Factor Collaborators;
19 GBD 2017 Diet Collaborators).
20

21 [END BOX 7.3 HERE]
22
23

24 7.2.4.4 *Observed impacts on exposure to chemical contaminants*

25

26 Changing climate in northern regions is causing permafrost to thaw, creating potential for mercury (Hg) to
27 enter the food chain (medium agreement, low evidence). Methyl Hg is highly neurotoxic and nephrotoxic
28 and bio accumulates and biomagnifies throughout the food chain via dietary uptake of fish, seafood, and
29 mammals (Fort et al., 2015). Mercury methylation processes in aquatic environments are expected to be
30 exacerbated by ocean warming, coupled with more acidic and anoxic sediments (FAO, 2020). Consumption
31 of mercury-contaminated fish is linked to neurological disorders due to methyl mercury poisoning (i.e.,
32 Minamata disease). In addition, climate change-contaminant interactions may also alter the bioaccumulation
33 and bio magnification of toxic and fat-soluble persistent organic pollutants, such as polychlorinated
34 biphenyls (Alava et al., 2017) in seafood and marine mammals (medium confidence). Indigenous
35 communities have a higher exposure to such risks because of the potential accumulation of such toxins in
36 traditional foods (Tirado et al., 2015; Alava et al., 2017). Contamination of food with PCBs and dioxins that
37 have a range of adverse health impacts are associated with increased frequency of inland floods (Lake et al.
38 2015).
39

40 7.2.5 *Observed Impacts on Mental Health and Wellbeing*

41

42 7.2.5.1 *Observed impacts on mental health*

43

44 A wide range of climatic events and conditions have observed, detrimental impacts on mental health (very
45 high confidence). The pathways through which climatic events affect mental health are varied, complex and
46 interconnected with other non-climatic influences that create vulnerability. The climatic exposure may be
47 direct, such as experiencing an extreme weather event or prolonged high temperatures, or indirect, such as
48 mental health consequences of undernutrition or even anxiety about climate change. Non-climatic
49 moderating influences range from an individual's personality and pre-existing conditions, to social support,
50 to structural inequities (Garipey et al., 2016; Hrabak et al., 2020; Nagy et al., 2018; Silva, Loureiro, &
51 Cardoso, 2016).. Similar climatic events may result in a range of potential mental health outcomes, including
52 anxiety, depression, acute traumatic stress, post-traumatic stress disorder, substance abuse, and sleep
53 problems, with conditions ranging from being mild in nature to those that require hospitalization (Berry et al
54 2010; Ciancono et al., 2020; Clayton et al., 2017; Ruszkiewicz et al. 2019, Bromet et al., 2017; Lowe et al
55 2019).
56

1 *There is an observable association between high temperatures and mental health decrements (high*
2 *confidence), with an additional possible influence of increased precipitation (Baylis et al., 2018;*
3 *Obradovich, Migliorini, Paulus, et al., 2018) (medium agreement, medium evidence).* Heat-associated mental
4 health outcomes include suicide (Williams, Hill, and Spicer 2015; Carleton 2017; Burke et al. 2018; Kim et
5 al., 2019; Parks et al. 2020, Thompson et al 2018), increased psychiatric hospital admissions (Hansen et al.
6 2008; Wang et al. 2014; Chan et al. 2018; Mullins and White 2019), greater experiences of anxiety,
7 depression, and acute stress (Obradovich et al. 2018; Mullins and White 2019), and fluctuations in mood and
8 sentiments (Noelke et al. 2016; Baylis et al. 2018; Moore et al. 2019; Wang, Obradovich, & Zheng, 2020). In
9 Canada, Wang et al. (2014) found an association between greater hospital admissions for mood and
10 behavioural disorders (including schizophrenia, mood and neurotic disorders) and mean heat exposure of
11 28°C within 0 to 4 days of exposure. A US study found mental health problems increased by 0.5% when
12 average temperatures exceeded 30°C, compared to averages between 25–30°C; a 1°C warming over 5 years
13 was associated with a 2% increase in mental health problems (Obradovich et al. 2018). Another study found
14 a 1°C rise in monthly average temperatures over several decades was associated with a 2.1% rise in suicide
15 rates in Mexico and a 0.7% rise in suicide rates in the US (Burke et al. 2018). In a systematic review of
16 published research using a variety of methodologies from 19 countries, Thompson et al. (2018) found
17 increased risk of suicide associated with 1°C rise.

18
19 *Discrete climate hazards including storms (Kessler et al. 2008; Boscarino et al. 2013, 2017; Obradovich et*
20 *al. 2018), floods (Baryshnikova and Pham 2019), heatwaves, wildfires, and drought (Hanigan et al. 2012;*
21 *Carleton 2017; Zhong et al., 2018) have significant negative consequences for mental health (very high*
22 *confidence).* Much existing research has been done in the U.S. and the UK, although a growing number of
23 studies also find evidence for similar impacts on mental health in other countries, including Spain (Foudi et
24 al., 2016), Brazil (Alpino, Sena, & Freitas, 2016), Chile (Navarro et al. 2016), and Vietnam (Pollack et al.
25 2016). Approximately 20–30% of those who live through a hurricane develop depression and/or post-
26 traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) within the first few months following the event (Obradovich et al. 2018,
27 Schwartz et al. 2015, Whaley, 2009), with similar rates for people who have experienced flooding (Waite et
28 al., 2017, Fernandez et al., 2015). Studies conducted in South America and Asia indicate an increase in post-
29 traumatic stress disorders and depressive disorders after extreme weather events (Rataj et al., 2016).
30 Evidence is lacking for African countries (Serdeczny et al., 2017). Children and adolescents are particularly
31 vulnerable to post-traumatic stress after extreme weather events (Brown et al 2017), and increased
32 susceptibility to mental health problems may linger into adulthood (Maclean et al. 2016). *Wildfires have*
33 *observed negative impacts on mental health (high confidence)* (Dodd et al. 2018; Brown et al. 2019; Psarros
34 et al., 2017), due to the trauma of the immediate experience and/or subsequent displacement and evacuation.
35 Subclinical outcomes, such as increases in anxiety, sleeplessness, or substance abuse are reported in response
36 to wildfires and extreme weather events, with impacts being pronounced among those who experience
37 greater losses or are more directly exposed to the event; this may include first responders.

38
39 *Mental health impacts can emerge as result of climate impacts on economic, social and food systems (high*
40 *confidence)* For example, malnutrition among children has been associated with a variety of mental health
41 problems (Adhvaryu et al 2019; Hock et al., 2018; Yan et al., 2018), as has food insecurity among adults
42 (Lund et al., 2018). The economic impacts of droughts have been associated with increases in suicide,
43 particularly among farmers (Carleton, 2017; Edwards, et al 2015, Vins et al. 2015). Residents of low and
44 middle-income countries may be more severely impacted due to lesser access to mental health services and
45 lower financial resources to help cope with impacts (Abramson et al. 2015).

46
47 *Anxiety about the potential risks of climate change (Steentjes et al. 2017), and awareness of climate change*
48 *itself can affect mental health (low confidence).* (Clayton & Karazsia, 2020; Cunsolo & Ellis 2018; Helm et
49 al 2018). There is not yet solid evidence about the prevalence or severity of climate change-related anxiety,
50 but national surveys in the U.S., Europe, and Australia show high levels of concern and perceived harm
51 (Leiserowitz et al., 2017; Reser et al., 2012; Steentjes et al. 2017). Studies conducted in the Solomon Islands
52 and in Tuvalu found qualitative and quantitative evidence of experiences of climate change and worry about
53 the future, with negative impacts on respondents' wellbeing (Asugeni et al. 2015, Gibson, Barnett, Haslam,
54 & Kaplan, 2020). In a U.S. sample, perceived ecological stress, defined as personal stress associated with
55 environmental problems, predicted depressive symptoms (Helm et al 2018). However, other studies have
56 found no correlation between climate change worry and mental health issues (Berry & Peel 2015). Because
57 these perceived threats are based on subjective perceptions of risk and coping ability as well as experiences

1 and knowledge (Bradley et al 2014), even people who have not been directly affected may be stressed by a
2 perception of looming danger (Clayton & Karazsia, 2020). Not surprisingly, those who have directly
3 experienced some of the effects of climate change may be more likely to show such responses. Indigenous
4 communities, whose culture and wellbeing tend to be strongly linked to local environments, may be
5 particularly likely to experience mental health effects associated with changes in environmental risks; studies
6 suggest connections to an increase in depression, substance abuse, or suicide in some indigenous
7 communities (Canu et al., 2027; Cunsolo Willox et al., 2013; Middleton, et al 2020; Jaakkola, et al 2018).

8 9 *7.2.5.2 Observed impacts on wellbeing*

10
11 *Overall, research suggests that climate change has already had a negative effect on subjective wellbeing*
12 *(medium confidence)*. Impacts of climate change on wellbeing can result from a number of mechanisms,
13 including loss of access to green and blue spaces, due to damage from such things as storms, coastal erosion,
14 drought, or wildfires; heat; decreased air quality; and disruptions to one's normal pattern of behaviour,
15 residence, or social interactions. For example, substantial evidence shows a negative correlation between air
16 pollution and SWB or happiness (Apergis, 2018; Cunado & de Gracia, 2013; Luechinger, 2010; Menz &
17 Welsch, 2010; Orru et al., 2016; Yuan et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017); in the reverse direction, there is
18 evidence not only that time in nature but more specifically a feeling of connectedness to nature are both
19 associated with wellbeing (Martin et al., 2020). Negative emotions are associated with the degradation of
20 local or valued landscapes (Eisenmann et al., 2015; Ellis & Albrecht, 2017; Polain et al. 2011), which may
21 threaten cultural rituals, especially among Indigenous communities (Cunsolo & Ellis, 2018; Cunsolo et al.,
22 2020).

23
24 Heat is one of the best-studied factors associated with climate change that can affect wellbeing (Carleton &
25 Hsiang, 2016; Miles-Novelo & Anderson, 2019). Higher summer temperatures have been associated with
26 decreased happiness and ratings of wellbeing in the U.S. (Connolly, 2013). In a study of 1.9 million
27 Americans, Noelke et al. (2016) found that exposure to one day averaging 21–27 °C was associated with
28 reduced wellbeing by 1.6% of a standard deviation, and days above 32°C were associated with reduced
29 wellbeing by 4.4% relative to a reference interval of 10–16 °C. A similar relationship between heat and
30 mood has been observed in China (Wang et al 2020). The causal mechanism is unclear, but could be due to
31 impacts on health, economic costs, social interactions (Belkin & Kouchaki 2017; Osberghaus & Kühling,
32 2016), or reduced quality or quantity of sleep (Fujii et al. 2015; Obradovich et al. 2017; Obradovich and
33 Migliorini 2018). Heat has also been associated with interpersonal and intergroup aggression, and increases
34 in violent crime (Mapou et al. 2017). For the most part, studies have measured daily response to average
35 daily temperatures and are unable to predict whether the effect is cumulative in response to a sequence of
36 unusually warm days. However, there is no evidence of adaptation, whereby people cease to be affected by
37 the warm temperatures (Moore et al, 2019).

38
39 Climate change also threatens wellbeing defined in terms of capabilities, or the capacity to fulfil one's
40 potential and fully participate in society. Heat can limit labour capacity, one study estimating that 45 billion
41 hours of labour productivity were lost in 2018 due to high temperatures (Watts et al., 2018). Both heat and
42 air pollution also impair human capabilities through a negative effect on cognitive performance, and even
43 impair skills acquisition, affecting marginalized groups more strongly (Park et al 2020). Systematic reviews
44 have found an association between higher ambient levels of fine airborne particles and cognitive impairment
45 in the elderly, or behavioural problems (related to impulsivity and attention problems) in children (Power et
46 al. 2016; Yorifuji et al. 2017; Younan et al. 2018; Zhao et al. 2018). Malnutrition has also been associated
47 with long-term decrements in cognitive function (Kim et al. 2017; Talhaoui et al. 2019).

48 49 *7.2.6 Observed Impacts on Migration*

50
51 *Weather events and climate conditions can act as a direct driver of migration and displacement (e.g.*
52 *destruction of homes by tropical cyclones) and as an indirect driver (e.g. rural income losses and/or food*
53 *insecurity due to heat- or drought-related crop failures) (high confidence)*. Extreme sudden-onset events
54 such as storms and floods are strongly associated with high levels of short- and long-term displacement,
55 while cumulative, slower-onset conditions such as droughts, extreme heat and precipitation anomalies are
56 more likely to be associated with longer term changes in migration patterns (Kaczan & Orgill-Meyer 2019,
57 Hoffmann et al 2020). Annual statistics since 2008 on global displacements due to weather-related hazards

1 recorded by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre suggest an average of 12.8 million people are
2 displaced each year, though there is considerable interannual variability (IDMC2020). Displacement is most
3 often associated with extreme storms and floods, and is disproportionately concentrated in low- and middle-
4 income countries of Asia and Africa where household and institutional adaptive capacity are economically
5 constrained. However, climate-related population movements are experienced in all regions, and since AR5
6 there have been multiple examples of population displacements in the United States, Australia, and other
7 high-income countries due to extreme sudden-onset events, such as cyclones, floods and wildfires (IDMC
8 2020).

9
10 *Climate-related migration outcomes are diverse (high confidence), and may be manifest as decreases or*
11 *increases in migration flows, changes in the timing or duration of migration, and changes in migration*
12 *source locations and destinations (see Cross-Chapter Box MIGRATE). Multi-country studies of climatic*
13 *impacts on migration in Africa have found that migration rates exhibit weak, inconsistent associations with*
14 *variations in precipitation, and that migration respond quite differently between countries, and between rural*
15 *and urban areas (Gray and Wise 2016, Mueller et al 2020). Multidirectional findings such as these are*
16 *common in published studies from multiple regions (Call et al 2017, Nawrotzki et al 2017, Cattaneo et al*
17 *2019, Kaczan & Orgill-Meyer 2019).*

18
19
20 [START CROSS-CHAPTER BOX MIGRATE HERE]

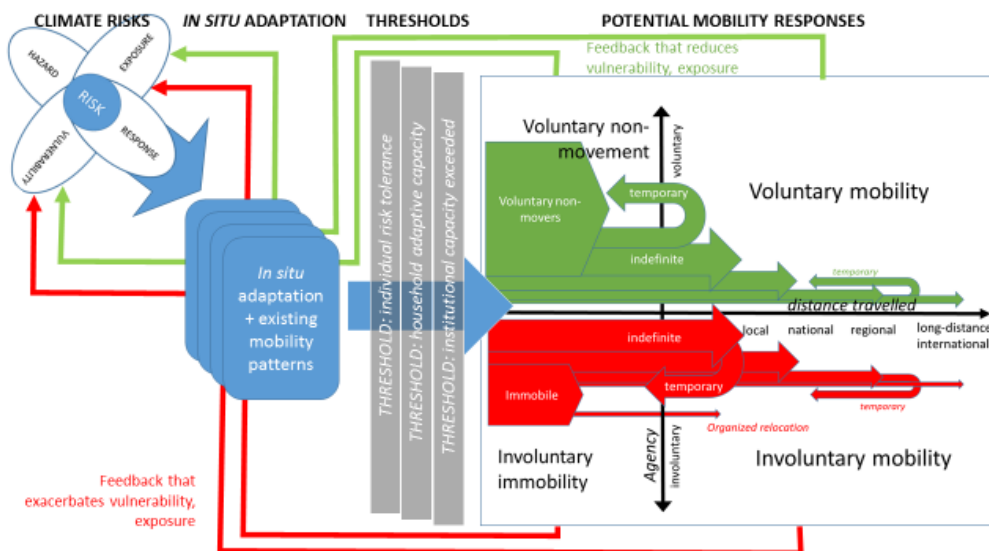
21 22 **Cross-Chapter Box MIGRATE: Climate-related Migration**

23
24 Authors: David Wrathall (Ch.8), Robert McLeman (Ch.07), Helen Adams (Ch.7), Elisabeth Gilmore
25 (Ch.14), Ben Orlove (Ch.17), Nathalie Hilmi (Ch.18), Ritwika Basu (Ch.18), Halvard Buhaug (Ch.16),
26 Edwin Castellanos (Ch.12), David Dodman (Ch.6), Francois Gemenne (Ch.8), Felix Kalaba (Ch.9), Rupa
27 Mukerji (Ch.18), Norma Patricia Muñoz Sevilla, Vishnu Pandi, Karishma Patel (Ch.1), Chandni Singh
28 (Ch.10), Philip Thornton, Christopher Trisos (Ch.9), Olivia Warrick (Ch.15), Sumaya Zakieldeen (Ch.9)

29
30 Migration is a universal strategy for pursuing wellbeing and livelihoods, as well as managing household risks
31 to economic uncertainty, political instability and environmental change and can, in some instances, occur as
32 a response to or in preparation for climate change impacts (*high agreement, robust evidence*). The IPCC
33 glossary adopts the International Organization for Migration’s (2018) definition of migration as being:

34
35 The movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is
36 a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition
37 and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for
38 other purposes, including family reunification.

39
40 Climatic events and conditions interact with economic, social, political and demographic processes to shape
41 migration flows within and between countries, with climate change always one of many influences although
42 the strength of that influence varies (Black et al. 2011). Confidence statements about migration in the AR5
43 included observations that “mobility is a widely used strategy to maintain livelihoods in response to social
44 and environmental changes (*high agreement, medium evidence*).” This conclusion supports the view of
45 migration as an adaptive strategy that enhances people’s capacity to adjust to increasing climate risk. At the
46 same time, the AR5 recognized that “climate change will have impacts on forms of migration that
47 compromise human wellbeing (*high agreement, medium evidence*),” suggesting there are limits to adaptation
48 measures that can be taken in situ, and at such limits, climate hazards can force migration decisions that
49 people may not otherwise take (WGII AR5 Chapter 12). Due to the combination of underlying drivers,
50 climate-related migration outcomes are context specific: that is, in one situation, a given climate risk may
51 lead to increased rates of migration, and in another, it may lower them (Cattaneo et al. 2019; Nawrotzki &
52 DeWaard 2018). The long-term development context in which adaptation interventions occur – and the
53 resulting adaptation options available to households and communities exposed to climatic risks – have
54 determining effects on migration resulting from climate change impacts in both sending and receiving
55 communities (Benveniste et al. 2020; Wrathall et al. 2019).



1
2 **Figure CCB MIGRATE.1:** Migration and (im)mobility responses to climatic risks. From McLeman et al 2020
3 submitted)

4
5
6 Figure CCB MIGRATE.1 depicts the range of migration and (im) mobility responses to climate risk (see
7 supporting evidence in Table CCB MIGRATE.1). Migration and mobility-based adaptations begin to emerge
8 once a context-specific threshold is reached where *in situ* adaptation is inadequate which might include such
9 circumstances as the exhaustion of a household's assets or ability to access sufficient food, where assistance
10 from governments or higher level actors is wanting, or where individuals perceive the risks as being no
11 longer bearable (McLeman 2018). This is consistent with a large body of peer-reviewed scholarship that
12 indicates that significant changes to migration participation and patterns typically emerge only after less
13 disruptive forms of adaptation have proven inadequate (Adger et al. 2018). Migration outcomes may then be
14 described in terms of two axes: 1) the agency or voluntariness of the act of migration, and 2) the distance of the
15 destination and the duration.

16
17 The diversity of forms of migration is represented by the arrows that emerge in the mobility adaptation space
18 on the right side of the diagram (see Table CCB MIGRATE.1), with red shadings suggesting involuntary or
19 low-agency decisions (such as displacements due to housing damage caused by extreme storms) and green
20 arrows reflecting decisions where the migrant has greater agency over the timing, duration and/or destination
21 of migration. Where arrows bend back, this represents indefinite migration of a temporary nature that is
22 followed by a return to the community of origin. It is also possible to suggest the relative volume of the
23 likely migration from any given place of origin using the thickness of the arrows, reflecting evidence that
24 most people experiencing climatic impacts are unable or prefer not to move, with the greatest number of
25 movers being those that travel relatively short distances (usually within their local region, and home country)
26 and with short durations in mind (Gentle & Thwaites 2016; Liechti & Biber 2016). Conversely, long-
27 distance international migration for indefinite periods typically represents the smallest proportion of
28 migration outcomes in most observed climate-related migration events (Nawrotzki et al 2015).

29
30 Migration decisions and outcomes have a feedback effect on the conditions of exposure and vulnerability in
31 the sending communities, and may amplify or moderate the risks associated with specific hazards; these are
32 represented by green and red arrows that run back to the risk propeller.

33
34 Table CCB MIGRATE.1 presents evidence supporting the typology of migration and mobility shown in
35 Figure CCB MIGRATE.1. Most migration, including climate-related migration, is internal (i.e. occurs within
36 countries) and is short-distance (*high agreement, robust evidence*). When international, it is greatest between
37 contiguous states and between states that have labour-migration agreements and/or longstanding cultural ties
38 (Abel and Sander 2014). The political, legal, cultural and socioeconomic conditions under which migration
39 occurs are important determinants of success, as measured by the economic, social and cultural benefits
40 gained by the migrant, the destination community and the sending community. The more agency migrants
41 have that is, the degree of freedom an individual or household has when deciding whether to migrate (or

not), where to migrate, and the timing and duration of migration the more likely the outcomes will be successful (*high agreement, robust evidence*). Generally, migrants acting with higher agency have greater potential to return benefits such as remittances and other social and economic assets to make the sending community more resilient (Karanja Ng'ang'a et al. 2016). Conversely, involuntary or low-agency migration such as that of refugees and displaced persons, is associated with poor outcomes in terms of health, wellbeing and socio-economic security for migrants, and returns fewer benefits to sending or receiving communities (*high agreement, robust evidence*) (Antwi-Agyei et al. 2018; Jacobson 2019). Involuntary immobility may amplify exposure to climatic risks, and such extremely vulnerable people want or need to move out of especially hazardous locales as they experience accumulating losses, but are increasingly unable to do so (Adams & Kay 2019). Migrant agency is limited by such factors as financial resources available to the migrant, individual characteristics, such as education and skills that may enable them to absorb costs and leverage benefits of migration, as well as social networks, labour markets, and government regulations on mobility and movement.

Together the diagram (Figure CCB MIGRATE.1) and its accompanying typology (Table CCB MIGRATE.1) provide a basis for unifying the terminology and models of the IPCC around risk with important concepts related to environmental migration. Additionally, this diagram is useful for examining scenarios for communities passing through many iterations of climate impact and migration. Regular patterns may emerge. For example, for high risk communities (in red), the proportion of the population that is involuntarily immobile may increase through several iterations. Policy measures, such as community relocation, may be necessary to arrest such feedbacks. Likewise, cycles of adaptive migration (green) may work to establish translocal social networks, and build community resilience (Sakdapolrak et al. 2016).

Table CCB MIGRATE.1: Typology of climate-related migration and examples in AR6

Type of climate-related mobility	Characteristics	Recent/current examples	Climate-related examples in literature	References in the AR6 (Chapter, Page, Line)
Temporary and/or seasonal migration	Frequently used as a risk-reduction strategy by rural households in less-developed regions with highly seasonal precipitation. Includes transhumance	Pastoralists in sub-Saharan Africa; seasonal farm workers in South Asia; rural-urban labour migration in Central America	Afifi et al 2016, Call et al 2017; Piguet et al 2018; Borderon et al 2019; Cattaneo et al 2019; Hoffmann et al 2020; de Leeuw et al. 2019; López-i-Gelats 2015	Chapter 5.5.1.1, Section 5.5.3.5 Chapter 8.2.1.3
Indefinite or permanent migration	Less common than temporary or seasonal migration, particularly when the whole household permanently relocates.	Examples in all regions	See reviews listed in cell above	Chapter 8.2.1.3
Internal migration (i.e. within state borders)	Most common form of climate-related migration, most often rural-urban in direction	Numerous examples in all regions	Kibet et al. 2016; Bruyere et al. 2018	Chapter 5.5.4, 5.10.1.1; Chapter 9, Section 9.7.2; 9.11-Box 9.9
International migration	Less common than internal migration; most often occurs between contiguous countries within the same region; often undertaken for purpose of earning wages to remit home	Pacific Island states to Australia, New Zealand or USA; Central America to the USA	Veronis et al 2018; McLeman 2019; Falco et al. 2019	Chapter 5.12.2
Rural-urban or rural-rural (typically internal, less	The most common directions of climate-related migration; may be	Drought migration in Mexico, East Africa;	Adger et al 2015; Gautier et al 2016; Nawrotzki	Chapter 5.13.3 Chapter 6 Chapter 8.2.1.3

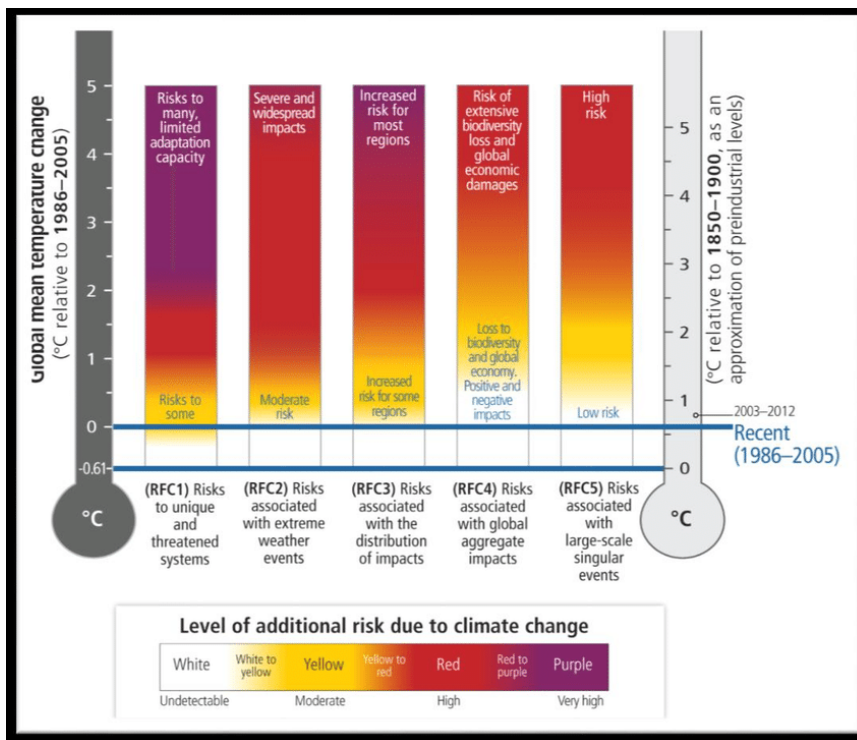
frequently between contiguous states)	for temporary or indefinite periods; migrant may be an individual household members or the entire household; may be followed by remittances		et al 2017; Wiederkehr et al 2018; Robalino et al. 2015; Paprocki 2018	Chapter 14
Involuntary displacement	Households are forced to leave homes for temporary or indefinite period; typically occurs as a result of extreme events and starts with seemingly temporary evacuation	Hurricane Katrina, Louisiana, USA; Hurricane Maria, Puerto Rico; Cyclone Aila, Bay of Bengal; Yangtze River floods, China	Marino & Lazrus 2015; Islam and Shamsuddoha 2017; see IDMC (2020) for annual global statistics	Chapter 7; Chapter 9, Section 9.7.2; Section 10.3; Chapter 14
Planned/organized resettlement	Initiated in areas where settlements become permanently uninhabitable; requires assistance from governments/institutions. Government-sponsored sedentarisation of pastoral populations	Shishmarref, Kivalina, Alaska, USA; Carteret Islands, Papua New Guinea; coastal settlements, Fiji	Hino et al 2017; McNamara et al 2018; McMichael & Katonivualiku 2020; Vermeulen et al. 2018	Chapter 5.14; Chapter 14
Immobility	Adverse weather or climatic conditions warrant moving, but households are unable to relocate because of lack of resources, or choose to remain because of strong social, economic or cultural attachments to place		Adams 2016; Zickgraf 2018; Nawrotzki & DeWaard 2018; Farbotko et al 2020	Chapter 8. Box 8.1

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Future climate risk and migration: Reasons for Concern and potential migration outcomes

Predicting future migration outcomes around climate hazards is vexed by the multiple contextual drivers of migration (Black et al. 2011), including the policies that influence outcomes (Wrathall et al. 2019). However the Reasons for Concern (RFC) are a useful organising framework for aggregating the key risks of climate change into five broad categories according to future rates of warming (O’Neil, 2017) (Figure CCB MIGRATE.2 below). Future flows of migration within and between countries are likely to respond strongly to particular combinations of climatic hazards, and may present challenges for future adaptation policies and programs at national and global scales. In fragile, unique and sensitive ecosystems (RFC 1) in many low- and middle income countries, migration is already a commonly observed form of livelihood adaptation, especially among rural, resource-dependent, and Indigenous populations (e.g. Robson et al 2018, Ahmed et al 2019). Future disruptions to such environments due to climate change, such as increased desertification, damage to coral reefs, coastal erosion, and biodiversity loss, can be expected to disrupt livelihood practices, stimulate higher rates of outmigration to urban centres, and in some instances necessitate planned or organized relocations of exposed settlements (McNamara et al. 2015; Arnall 2019). Likewise Indigenous communities in the Arctic who have persisted for generations on areas at risk due to permafrost melt and sea-level rise represent a uniquely threatened group (Marino & Lazrus 2015).

Extreme weather events (RFC2) are the most identifiable climatic drivers of migration; in 2019, an estimated 24.9 million people were displaced globally by weather related disasters. Responses to extreme weather events can range from short-term evacuation and displacement, to organized resettlement within the original community, to indefinite displacement and long-term migration. The outcomes in such cases depend on the severity and rate of onset of the weather event and the extent of damages caused to housing, livelihood assets, and built infrastructure. Future displacement due to extreme weather is expected to increase with changes in the frequency and severity of such events, and is amplified by growing population densities in highly exposed areas. The problem of displacement is treated in depth in Chapter 7 of this report.



1
2 **Figure CCB MIGRATE.2: Reasons for Concern**
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4

5 The distribution of the adverse impacts of climate change (RFC 3) is expected to be unequal within and
6 between countries, with groups that have been historically socio-economically marginalized expected to
7 have greater exposure and less capacity to adapt to climatic risks. The intersection of poverty, migration and
8 climate risk is treated in depth in Chapter 8 of this report (Chapter 8.2.1.3). The relationship between climate
9 change, livelihoods of the poor and migration is a key risk identified in the literature. In circumstances of
10 prolonged drought, for example, acute pressure from temperature extremes and chronic pressure from
11 increasingly variable rainfall can result in successive years of agricultural losses, requiring households to
12 find alternative livelihood strategies, including migration (Chen & Mueller 2018; Bohra-Mishra et al. 2014).
13 However, such groups often also have limited agency in terms of destination choices and mobility, or may be
14 entirely immobile (Nawrotzki & DeWard 2018).
15

16 Global aggregate impacts (RFC 4), especially sea-level change and desertification, have the potential to
17 magnify existing climatic and non-climatic migration drivers. Estimates of the number of people living in
18 settlements exposed to sea-level rise range from 88 million to 1.4 billion depending on the elevation criteria
19 and SLR scenario used (Hauer et al, 2019), whilst an estimated 1.3 billion people currently live in areas
20 experiencing land degradation (IPCC SROCC Land 2019). Climate change-driven changes in SLR and
21 desertification present direct threats to the viability of highly exposed settlements and, on an indirect basis, to
22 household well-being through disruptions to food systems, and are likely to stimulate increased rates of low-
23 agency migration and need for planned relocations under high RCP scenarios.

24 Large scale singular events (RFC 5), such as rapid loss of Antarctic and/or Greenland ice sheets that trigger a
25 rapid increase in mean sea level, would have high probability of generating large scale low-agency migration
26 and/or involuntary displacement at sub-national, national and regional scales. There are few recent analogous
27 examples to draw upon; the closest example referred to in AR6 is the 1930s “Dust Bowl” on the North
28 American Great Plains, when multi-year droughts coincided with the Great Depression and triggered the
29 migration of hundreds of thousands of people in a short period (see North America chapter this report.).
30 Examples of possible future risks of this type other than sea level rise could include rapid warming of the
31 Arctic that would necessitate relocation of large numbers of settlements and infrastructure (Chapter link);
32 and rises in average temperatures in tropical and sub-tropical regions that lead to widespread, repeated
33 extreme heat events beyond humans’ physical tolerance (Xu et al 2020).
34

35 *Policy implications*

1 There is widespread concern among policymakers and researchers that low-agency migration rates will rise
2 in coming decades due to the impacts of climate change, particularly increases in the frequency and/or
3 severity of floods, tropical cyclones, droughts and other extreme events, with sea level rise presenting
4 additional risks for settlements in low-elevation coastal zones and on small islands. Global and regional
5 projections of future climate-related migration rates and flows are currently limited in number and scope, and
6 contain wide variations that reflect uncertainties regarding future trends in GHG emissions, underlying
7 problems with availability of reliable migration data and definitional uncertainty in distinguishing climate-
8 related migration from other forms of migration. An ancillary concern is the potential growth of *immobile*
9 populations in locations highly exposed to climate hazards – people who are entirely unable to migrate or
10 reluctant to do so for reasons of socio-economic ties or cultural attachment (Adams 2016, Nawrotzki &
11 DeWaard 2018).

12
13 Research is increasingly focused on the determining role of governance and policy interventions in
14 expanding agency of both migrants and their host communities now and in the future (Wrathall et al, 2019).
15 When migration is managed to allow regularized and safe movement within and between countries, it
16 contributes positively to the economic and social wellbeing of sending and receiving communities and of
17 migrants' households. Since AR5, the basic framework and instruments have been established to guide
18 future international policymaking for orderly and migration in a changing climate in a changing climate.
19 Migration and mobility are strongly embedded in the Sustainable Development Goals, as is the ambition to
20 build greater adaptive capacity to meet the risks associated with climate change. Under the Paris Agreement,
21 a task force began work to find ways that signatories might “to avert, minimize and address displacement
22 related to the adverse impacts of climate change”. The UN Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular
23 Migration a voluntary agreement launched in 2018 contains among its objectives recommendations for
24 managing migration and displacement caused by climate change. Progress remains to be made in terms of
25 the successful implementation and achievement of the stated goals of these agreements.

26
27 As climate change hazards manifest with increasing severity and/or frequency, multiple, simultaneous forms
28 of climate-related migration should be expected to occur with greater frequency. At incipient stages of RFCs
29 shown above, early migration flows may include those most mobile and able to benefit from migration, such
30 as young, skilled workers; as RFCs intensify, temporary migration may become increasingly permanent or
31 migration of individual household members supplanted by relocations of entire households. Populations
32 remaining in highly exposed locations would increasingly consist of immobile, vulnerable people that
33 require institutional assistance to relocate. To accommodate immobile populations, governments may need to
34 invest resources building protective infrastructure for densely populated coastal settlements and financing the
35 relocation of others that must be abandoned. Such worst-case scenarios are likely to manifest in futures
36 where the international community takes no action to control GHG emissions, fails to achieve the SDGs, and
37 imposes further constraints on safe and orderly migration. However, with adequate policy support, migration
38 in the context of climate change can result in synergies for both adaptation and development.

39
40 [END CROSS-CHAPTER BOX MIGRATE HERE]

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42
43 *The diversity of potential migration responses to climate risks reflects the varying impacts of particular*
44 *climatic drivers and the wide range of social, economic, cultural and political contexts in which migration*
45 *and adaptation decisions are made (high confidence). The diversity in drivers, contexts and outcomes make*
46 *it difficult to offer simple generalizations about the relationship between climate change and migration. The*
47 *characteristics of climatic drivers vary in terms of their rate of onset, intensity, duration, spatial extent, and*
48 *severity of damage caused to due housing, infrastructure, and livelihoods, and potential migration responses*
49 *to these are mediated by cultural, demographic, economic, political, social, and other non-climatic factors*
50 *operating across multiple scales (Neumann et al 2015, McLeman 2017, Barnett and McMichael 2018,*
51 *Cattaneo et al 2019).*

52
53 *Climate-related migration outcomes display high variability in terms of migrant success, often reflecting*
54 *pre-existing socio-economic conditions and household wealth (high confidence). The decision to migrate or*
55 *remain in place when confronted by climatic hazards is strongly influenced by range and accessibility of*
56 *alternative, in situ (i.e. non-migration) adaptation options that may be less costly or disruptive (Cattaneo et al*
57 *2019). Migration decisions (whether climate-related or not) are typically made at the individual or household*

1 level, and are influenced by a household's perceptions of risk, social networks, wealth, age structure, health,
2 and livelihood choices (Koubi et al 2016a, Gemenne and Blocher 2017). Households with greater financial
3 resources and higher levels of educational attainment have greater capacity to adapt *in situ* (Cattaneo and
4 Massetti 2019, Ocello et al 2015) but, if required or desirable, are also better able to migrate, and with
5 greater agency (Kubik & Maurel 2016, Koubi et al 2016a, Riosmena et al 2018; Adams & Kay, 2019). By
6 contrast, poor households with limited physical, social and financial resources have less capacity to adapt *in*
7 *situ*, and are limited in their migration options by insufficient financial and social capital (Nawrotzki and
8 DeWaard 2018, Suckall et al 2017, Zickgraf et al 2016). Thus, when poorer households do migrate, it is
9 often in reaction to lost income or livelihood due to an extreme climate event (Mallick et al 2017), takes the
10 form of distress migration (Bhatta et al, 2016) and perpetuates conditions of precarity (Natarajan et al 2019).
11 For example, a study conducted in poorer neighbourhoods in Dhaka found that migrants who moved there
12 following extreme events in their home community were poorer, and remained poorer and more vulnerable,
13 than migrants who came for other reasons (Adri and Simon 2018). Perceptions of residents of recipient
14 communities are important for determining the success of migrant integration, with research from Kenya and
15 Vietnam suggesting urbanites generally perceive climate hazards as being legitimate reasons for migration
16 (Spilker et al 2020).

17
18 *Climate-related migration most often originates in rural areas in low- and middle-income countries, with*
19 *migrant destinations most usually being other rural areas or to urban centres within their home countries*
20 *(i.e. internal migration) (medium confidence)*. Rural livelihoods and incomes, because they tend to be based
21 on farming, keeping of livestock and/or natural resource collection, are sensitive to climate variability and
22 change, creating greater potential for migration as an adaptive response (Bohra-Mishra et al 2017,
23 Viswanathan and Kumar 2015). In recent decades, droughts have generated higher rates of rural to urban
24 migration within Mexico (Chort and de la Rupelle 2016, Leyk et al 2017, Nawrotzki et al 2017) and within
25 Senegal (Nawrotzki and Bakhtsiyarava 2017). Extreme temperatures are associated with higher rates of
26 temporary rural out-migration in South Africa and in Bangladesh (Mastrorillo et al 2016, Call et al 2017). In
27 rural Tanzania, weather-related shocks to crop production increase the likelihood of migration, but typically
28 only for households in the middle of the community wealth distribution (Kubik and Maurel 2016). Weather-
29 related losses in rice production are associated with small-percentage increases in internal migration in India
30 (Viswanathan and Kumar 2015) and the Philippines (Bohra-Mishra et al 2017). In East Africa, temporary
31 rural-urban labour migration does not show a strong response to climatic drivers (Mueller et al 2020). There
32 is a growing literature on mobility as adaptation to climate change in urban populations, with a focus on
33 resettlement of flood-prone informal settlements within cities (Kita, 2017; Tadgell et al, 2017).

34
35 *Most documented examples of international climate-related migration are intra-regional movements of*
36 *people between countries that share a border (high agreement, medium evidence)*. Systematic reviews find
37 few documented examples of long-distance, inter-regional migration driven by climate events (Veronis et al
38 2018, Kaczan and Orgill-Meyer 2019, Hoffmann et al 2020). One macro-economic analysis suggests a
39 strong correlation between migrant flows from low- to high-income countries and adverse climatic events in
40 the source country (Coniglio and Pesce 2015), but contrary evidence is found in India, where long-distance
41 international migration increases during favourable weather conditions and declines in response to adverse
42 weather conditions (Sedova and Kalkuhl 2020). Small-sample studies of migrants to Canada from
43 Bangladesh, Haiti, and sub-Saharan Africa suggest environmental factors in the source country can be a
44 primary or secondary motivation for some migrants within larger flows of economic and family-reunification
45 migrants (Veronis and McLeman 2014, Mezdoor et al 2015, McLeman et al 2017). A recent study
46 suggesting that asylum applications in Europe increase during climate fluctuations, due to interactions with
47 conflict (Missirian and Schlenker, 2017) is contested by multiple other authors. Despite media reports in
48 recent years that climate change has driven large numbers of migrants to the US from Central America and
49 to Europe from the Middle East and Africa, there is no evidence in the assessable literature to substantiate
50 this.

51 52 7.2.6.1 *Relative importance of specific climatic drivers of migration*

53
54 *Reliable global estimates of climate-related migration are unavailable due to the complexity of relationship*
55 *between climate and migration, the multidimensional drivers of migration outcomes, and low capacity of*
56 *many countries to measure internal population movements*. Data collected annually since 2008 on internal
57 displacements attributed to extreme weather events by the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (IDMC)

1 provide a partial view of climate-related population movements and indicate that extreme storms and floods
2 are the two most significant weather-related drivers of population displacements globally. On a year-to-year
3 basis, weather-related displacements vary considerably. In 2019 (the most recent year at time of writing), the
4 most significant global weather-related drivers of displacement were extreme storms (13 million people),
5 floods (10 million people), wildfires (528,500 people), and droughts (276,700 people) (IDMC 2020). The
6 data indicate weather-related displacement events occur primarily in East, Southeast, and South Asia; sub-
7 Saharan Africa; the US; and the Caribbean region. These data are only loosely indicative of actual global
8 flows of climate-related migration, given that they likely underestimate the actual number of people
9 displaced by climate events more generally, do not take into account slower onset climate events, and do not
10 measure migration between countries or non-displacement climate-related migration within countries.

11
12 *Tropical cyclones and extreme storms are a particularly significant displacement risk in East and Southeast*
13 *Asia, the Caribbean region, the Bay of Bengal region, and southeast Africa (IDMC 2020) (high confidence).*
14 The scale of displacement from any given storm and potential for subsequent migration depend heavily on
15 the extent of damage to housing and livelihood assets, and the responsive capacity of governments and
16 humanitarian relief agencies (Saha 2016, Islam et al 2018, Mahajan and Yang 2020, Spencer et al 2018). In
17 Bangladesh, the rural poor are most often displaced, with initial increases in short-term, labour-seeking
18 migration followed by more permanent migration by some groups (Saha 2016, Islam and Hasan 2016, Islam
19 and Shamsuddoha 2017). Past hurricanes in the Caribbean basin have generated internal and interstate
20 migration within the region, typically along pre-existing social networks, and to the US (Loebach 2016,
21 Chort and de la Rupelle 2016). Hurricane Maria was followed by the migration of tens of thousands of
22 Puerto Ricans to Florida and New York (Echenique and Melgar 2018). In the United States, coastal counties
23 experience increased out-migration after hurricanes, flowing along social networks to predictable
24 destinations (Hauer, 2017), with post-disaster reconstruction employment opportunities potentially attracting
25 new labour migrants to disaster areas (Ouattara and Strobl 2014, Curtis et al 2015, DeWaard et al 2016,
26 Fussell 2018).

27
28 *Flood displacement can lead to increases or decreases in temporary or short-distance migration flows,*
29 *depending on the local context (Robalino et al 2015, Ocello et al 2015, Afifi et al 2016, Koubi et al 2016a)*
30 *(medium confidence).* Floods are a particularly important driver of displacement in river valleys and deltas in
31 Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, although large flood-related displacements have been recorded by IDMC in all
32 regions. In areas where flooding is especially frequent, *in situ* adaptations may be more common, and out-
33 migration may temporarily decline after a flood (Afifi et al 2016, Chen et al 2017, Call et al 2017). Rates of
34 indefinite or permanent migration tend not to change following riverine floods unless damage to homes and
35 livelihood assets is especially severe and widespread, with household perceptions of short- and longer term
36 risks playing an important role (Koubi et al 2016b).

37
38 *Migration and displacements due to droughts, extreme heat, and associated impacts on food and water*
39 *security are most frequent in East Africa and, to a lesser extent, South Asia, and West and Southern Africa*
40 *(IDMC 2020).* Because droughts unfold progressively and typically do not cause permanent damage to
41 housing or livelihood assets, there is greater opportunity for government and NGO interventions, and greater
42 use of *in situ* adaptation options (Cattaneo et al 2019). Drought-related migration is most common in dryland
43 rural areas of low-income countries, where changes in migration occur only after a threshold is crossed and
44 *in situ* adaptation options are exhausted (Gautier et al 2016, Wiederkehr et al 2018, McLeman 2017). For
45 example, multi-level modelling shows that in Mexico, above-average temperatures do not have an influence
46 on migration until a threshold of ~34 heat months is surpassed, after which rural-urban migration ensues and
47 accelerates with each passing month (Nawrotzki et al 2017). The most common migration response is an
48 increase in short-distance, rural-urban migration, with examples being documented in Bangladesh, Pakistan,
49 sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and Brazil (Neumann et al 2015, Gautier et al 2016, Mastrorillo et al
50 2016, Baez et al 2017, Call et al 2017, Nawrotzki et al 2017, Jessoe et al 2018, Carrico and Donato 2019).
51 During recent droughts in northern Ethiopia, an estimated 40% of rural households adapted through
52 migration (Hermans and Garbe 2019).

53 54 7.2.6.2 *Immobility and resettlement in the context of climatic risk*

55
56 *Immobility as an adaptive strategy under increasing climate risk, can reflect both vulnerability and lack of*
57 *agency, and a deliberate choice made by place-attached people living in exposed locations (high agreement,*

1 *medium evidence*). Research on immobility under climate change has expanded since AR5 and shows that
2 immobility is not only associated with financial barriers to migration (Nawrotzki & DeWaard 2018), but can
3 also reflect a voluntary decision to stay, when people exposed to climate hazard prioritize their attachments
4 to place, culture and people (Adams, 2016, Farbotko & McMichael, 2019, Zickgraf 2019, Neef 2018). These
5 choices are reflected on a continuum from those who are physically or financially unable to leave to those
6 who elect to stay despite experiencing loss or harm (Suckall et al 2017, Ayeb-Karlsson et al, 2018, Zickgraf
7 2018; Mallick & Schanze 2020). Involuntary immobility is associated with individuals and households with
8 low adaptive capacity and high exposure to hazard and can therefore exacerbate inequality and future
9 vulnerability to climate change (Fussel, 2015; Sheller, 2018), including through impacts on health
10 (Schwerdtle et al, 2018). Voluntary mobility represents an assertion of the importance of culture, livelihood
11 and people to well-being, which can intersect with political marginalization in indigenous groups (Suliman et
12 al 2019).

13
14 *Planned relocation of communities exposed to climatic risks are contentious, expensive, and can undermine*
15 *the well-being of those involved*. Ajibade et al (2020) outline the ways in which managed retreat differs from
16 climate-related migration, highlighting the more direct causal mechanism, different rights regimes and
17 funding source and different consequences for land, among other discursive differences. Ajibade et al (2020)
18 crucially highlight that managed retreat involves the movement of people, infrastructure, assets as well as
19 ecosystems. There is (*high agreement, medium evidence*) that successful climate-related resettlement
20 requires agency and engagement of the affected populations prior to movement and measures that improve
21 livelihoods (Tadgell et al 2017; Piggott-McKellar et al 2019; Miller, 2020). The literature on resettlement
22 and planned relocation since AR5 draws predominantly on examples of planned or implemented resettlement
23 from coastal areas in the context of increased coastal hazards related to increased storminess and sea level
24 rise, including in particular, island nations such as Fiji or the Maldives (e.g. Azfa et al 2020), and low lying
25 coastal cities (e.g. such as See & Wilmsen 2020). A large evidence base coming from relocations of coastal
26 villages in Fiji suggests that relocated people can experience significant financial and emotional distress as
27 cultural and spiritual bonds to place and livelihoods are disrupted and that adaptation preferences have to
28 embedded in local social institutions (Keef et al 2018; McMichael and Katonivualiku 2020, Farbotko et al
29 2018, Piggott-McKellar et al 2019, Bertana 2020). There is a growing body of evidence on the
30 environmental justice concerns on relocation of populations within urban areas, from hazard-exposed
31 informal settlements.

32
33
34 [START BOX 7.4 HERE]

35 36 **Box 7.4: Gender Dimensions of Climate-related Migration**

37
38 Migration decision-making and outcomes – in both general terms and in response to climatic risks – are
39 strongly mediated by gender, social context, power dynamics, and human capital (Bhagat 2017, Singh &
40 Basu 2019, Rao et al 2019b, Ravera et al 2016). Women suffer disproportionately from the negative impacts
41 of climate events for reasons ranging from caregiving responsibilities to lack of control over household
42 resources to cultural norms for attire (i.e. saris in South Asia) (Belay et al 2017, Jost et al 2016). In many
43 cultures, migrants are most often able-bodied, young men, (Call et al 2017, Heaney and Winter 2016).
44 Women wait longer to migrate because of higher social costs and risks (Evertsen & van der Geest 2019) and
45 barriers such as social structures, cultural practices, lack of education, and reproductive roles (Belay et al
46 2017, Afriyie et al 2018, Evertsen & van der Geest 2019).

47 Various authors have critiqued the tendency to portray women as victims, rather than recognizing differences
48 between women and the potential for women to use their agency and informal networks to negotiate their
49 situations (Eriksen et al 2015, Guyo 2017, Ngigi et al 2017, Pollard et al 2015, Rao 2019, Ravera et al 2016).
50 Migration changes household composition and structure, which in turn affect the adaptive capacity and
51 choices of the households (Rao et al 2019a, Rao et al 2019b, Singh 2019a). Migration of male household
52 members generates female headed households (Goodrich et al 2019a, Rao et al 2019b, Rigg and Salamanca
53 2015), leading to increased workload and greater vulnerability for those left behind (Arora et al 2017, Bhagat
54 2017, Flatø et al 2017, Lawson et al 2019, Singh 2019b). It can, however, also increase women's economic
55 freedom and decision capacity and enhance their agency (Djouidi et al 2016, Rao 2019) and alter the gendered
56 division of paid work and care and intra-household relations (Rigg et al 2018, Singh and Basu 2019).

1 [END BOX 7.4 HERE]
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5 **7.2.7 Observed Impacts of Climate on Conflict**

6
7 Conflict was addressed in AR5 in Chapter 12 on Human Security, which concluded that violent conflict
8 increases the vulnerability of regions to climate change by undermining adaptive capacity and increasing
9 vulnerability, and that climate change will worsen poverty and structural conditions that magnify the
10 potential for violent conflict, as well as changing the geopolitical landscape. The chapter distinguished
11 between armed conflict (Section 12.5) and state integrity and geopolitical rivalry (Section 12.6). Armed
12 conflicts are defined as conflicts involving greater than 25 battle-related deaths in a year, which is consistent
13 with the Uppsala Conflict Data Program's (UCDP) threshold for inclusion in their database, a core resource
14 in this field. The chapter covered conflicts, intrastate conflicts that involve governments, non-state conflicts
15 in which governments are not directly involved, and one-sided conflicts involving organized violence against
16 civilians. Similar to AR5, this chapter separates violent conflict from non-violent conflict and geopolitical
17 tension, but consider different forms of armed conflict together. Consistent with AR5 findings, there
18 continues to be little observed evidence that climatic variability or change cause inter-state conflicts (Koubi
19 et al, 2019). Most post-AR5 literature focuses on the role of climate change as a 'risk multiplier' in conflict
20 settings – that is, one of many factors that interact to raise tensions – and on understanding the causal
21 mechanisms (Mach et al 2019, Ide et al, 2020).
22

23 *Climate variability is associated with changes in the nature, duration and characteristics of violent conflict,*
24 *rather than with its onset (high confidence).* Experts in the field conclude that climatic conditions have
25 affected organized armed conflict within countries, but its influence is small compared to low socioeconomic
26 development and low state capacity (Mach et al 2019). Causal mechanisms are generally based on the greed
27 or grievance model of conflict, which argues that inter-group inequality, and consequent relative deprivation
28 leads to conflict, and climate change leads to a falling opportunity cost of conflict. Ethnic diversity and
29 income inequality have been used as proxies (e.g. ethnic fractionalisation; Schleussner et al, 2016) with other
30 work observing links between relative deprivation and conflict, political exclusion, ethnic grievances, and
31 the means by which an individual's reduction in quality of life translates to group mobilization (Theisen,
32 2017; Buhaug et al, 2020). A global study by Ide et al (2020) estimates that a third of conflict onsets were
33 preceded by a disaster that provided opportunity for armed groups to mobilize and seize assets.
34

35 *The relationship between climate variability and change and conflict varies due to diversity in the*
36 *characteristics of the climate impact; the conflict and the actors within that conflict; as well as the socio-*
37 *economic, political and cultural context (high agreement, medium evidence).* Potential causal pathways can
38 include climatic influences can include direct physiological impacts of heat/resource scarcity, and indirect
39 links through impacts on economic output, agricultural incomes, raising food prices, increasing migration
40 flows, and unintended effects of climate mitigation and adaptation policies (Koubi 2019, Busby 2018, Sawas
41 et al (2018). Most research relies on relative deprivation theory and the falling opportunity cost of violence
42 as being the underlying mechanism that pushes groups down such pathways (Buhaug et al 2020; Vestby
43 2019).
44

45 *Increases in food price due to reduced agricultural production are associated with conflict risk and*
46 *represent a key causal mechanism linking climate variability and conflict (medium agreement, limited*
47 *evidence).* Rises in food prices are associated with civil in urban areas among populations unable to afford or
48 produce their own food, and in rural populations due to changes in availability of agricultural jobs related to
49 shifting commodity prices (Martin-Shields & Stojetz 2019). Under such conditions, locally-specific
50 grievances, hunger, and social inequalities can initiate or exacerbate conflicts. Food price volatility in
51 general is not associated with violence, but sudden food price hikes have been linked to social unrest in some
52 circumstances (Bellemare 2015, McGuirk & Burke, 2017; Winne and Peersman, 2019). In Indonesia, Caruso
53 et al (2016) found an association between rises in minimum temperature, reduced rice yields and violence.
54

55 *Temperature variability, particularly large deviations from expected norms, has been associated with*
56 *collective violence in certain settings (medium agreement, low evidence).* Existing evidence includes studies
57 that consider how heat may be associated with a violent loss of individual self-control (Van Lange et al,

2017) and studies that examine the role of temperature versus political and social predictors of violence (e.g. Owain and Maslin, 2018). However, most of this research has been done in a small number of conflict-prone areas, and is thus sensitive to potential bias and streetlight effect (Adams et al 2018).

Variation in availability of water has also been associated with international non-violent conflict and intra-national collective violence (low agreement, medium evidence). Reductions in precipitation causing drought conditions have been associated with violence due to impacts on income and food security, with studies focusing predominantly on sub-Saharan Africa and the Middle East (Ide & Frohlich, 2015; De Juan 2015; von Uexkull et al, 2016; Waha et al 2017, Abbott et al, 2017; D’Odorico et al 2018) [See also Chapter 5 this report]. A small set of published studies has argued inconclusively over the role of drought in causing the Syrian civil war (Gleick, 2014; Kelley et al., 2015; Selby et al., 2017) (see box 16.x). However, research stresses the underlying economic, social and political drivers of conflict. For example, research on conflict in the Lake Chad region has demonstrated that the factors leading to conflict are multiple and the lake drying was only one of many issues (Okpara et al 2016; Nagarajan et al, 2018; Tayimlong, 2020). Rather, research shows that insecure land tenure and conflicting land uses interacting with market-driven pressures and existing ethnic divisions produce conflict over land resources, rather than scarcity of natural resources caused by drought (high agreement, medium evidence) (Theisen 2017; Selby & Hoffman 2014, Balestri and Maggioni 2017, Kuusaanaa & Bukari 2015).

Climate-related migration is associated with experience of violence by migrants and the prolongation of conflicts in host areas (medium agreement, low evidence). Research points to the potential for conflict to serve as an intervening factor between climate and migration. Displaced people and migrants may be associated with heightened social tensions through mechanisms such as ecological degradation, reduced access to services, and a disturbed demographic balance in the host area (Rüegger & Bohnet 2020). Ghimire et al (2015) argue that an influx of flood-displaced people prolonged conflict by causing a lack of access to services by some of the host population and feelings of grievance. Climate-related migrants have reported higher levels of perception, and experience, of violence in their destination (Linke et al 2018; Koubi et al 2018) and higher levels of internal migration have been associated with higher levels of riots depending on the political alignment of the host state with the capital (Bhavnani & Lacina 2015). Migration from drought-stricken areas has been used to suggest a climate trigger for the Syrian conflict, however, this link has been strongly contested by research that contextualizes the drought in wider in political economic approaches and existing migration patterns (DeChatel 2014; Frölich 2016; Selby 2019).[See Box, Chapter 16 on climate change and the Syrian conflict]. However, evidence of international migration creating a national security threat is limited, and associations between migration and security threats are often predicated on unjust racial logics (Frölich 2016; Telford, 2018).

7.2.7.1 Observed impacts on non-violent conflict and geopolitics

Climate adaptation projects implemented without accounting for competing interests and power struggles have the potential to cause conflict (high agreement, medium evidence). Reforestation or forest management programs driven by REDD+, land zoning and managed retreat due to sea level rise have been identified as having the potential to cause friction and conflict within and between groups and communities (de la Vega-Leinert et al, 2017; Froese & Schilling, 2019). Land-based solutions to climate change associated with biofuels and protecting forests for the carbon stored within them tend to be imposed by higher levels of government upon communities, with land acquisitions involuntarily displacing people and/or undermining local livelihoods of people living in those areas, without taking procedural and distributional justice into account (Hunsberger et al 2017). Conflict may arise when there is resistance to a proposed project or where interventions favour one group over another (e.g. Taenzler et al, 2010; Nightingale, 2017; Sovacool, 2015 2018).

There is high agreement, medium evidence that economic and social changes in the Arctic will be managed as part of existing governance structures The opening-up of the Arctic and associated geopolitical maneuvering for access to shipping routes and sub-sea hydrocarbons is often highlighted as a potential source of climate conflict (e.g. Koivurova, 2009; Åtland 2013; Tamnes & Offerdal, 2014). Research leading up to AR5 focused the potential for resource wars, Arctic land grabs. Research since AR5 has moved to a less sensationalist approach to Arctic security, focusing instead on the to the practicalities of polycentric Arctic governance under climate change, the economic impacts and protecting the human security of Arctic

1 populations whose autonomy is at risk (Heininen, & Exner-Pirot, 2020), how different regions (e.g. EU) are
2 positioning themselves more prominently in the Arctic space (Raspotnik & Østhagen, 2009), and Arctic
3 indigenous groups understanding of security (Hossain, 2016) [see also the North America regional chapter,
4 this report].

5
6 *Structural inequalities play out at an individual level to create gendered experiences of violence (high*
7 *confidence, medium evidence).* Violent conflict is experienced differently by men and women because of
8 gender norms that already exist in society and shape vulnerabilities. For example, conflict deepens gendered
9 vulnerabilities to climate change related to unequal access to land and livelihood opportunities (Chandra et al
10 2017). Research has found a positive correlation between crop failures and suicides by male farmers who
11 could not adapt their livelihoods to rising temperatures (Bryant & Garnham 2015; Kennedy & King 2014;
12 Carleton 2017). There is *(high agreement and medium evidence)* that adverse climatic conditions are
13 associated with increases in violence against girls and women. During drought and flood, studies have found
14 an increase in domestic violence, as a result of men's use of negative coping mechanisms, such as
15 alcoholism, when unable to meet norms of providing for the household (Anwar et al, 2019; Stork et al,
16 2015). Further, scarcity of water in the Sahel forces women and girls to walk longer distances to fetch water
17 and fuel, increasing their exposure and risk of harassment and sexual assault (Le Masson, 2019). Changing
18 gender norms as men migrate to find work in post-disaster settings can lead to violent backlash or heightened
19 tensions (Stork et al, 2015). Some researchers have found increased risk of harassment, sexual violence and
20 trafficking risk to women, girls and the LGBTQI (Le Masson et al 2019, Myrntinen et al 2015, Chindarkar
21 2012). Motivations for intergroup violence may be influenced by constructions of masculinity, for example
22 the responsibility to secure their family's survival, or pay dowries (Myrntinen et al, 2017), and gendered roles
23 may incentivize young men to protest or to join non-state armed groups during periods of adverse climate
24 (Myrntinen et al 2015, 2017, Anwar et al 2019, Hendrix & Haggard 2015, Koren and Baggozi 2017).
25
26

27 **7.3 Projected Future Risks Under Climate Change**

28 **7.3.1 Projected Future Risks for Health and Wellbeing**

29 **7.3.1.1 Global impacts**

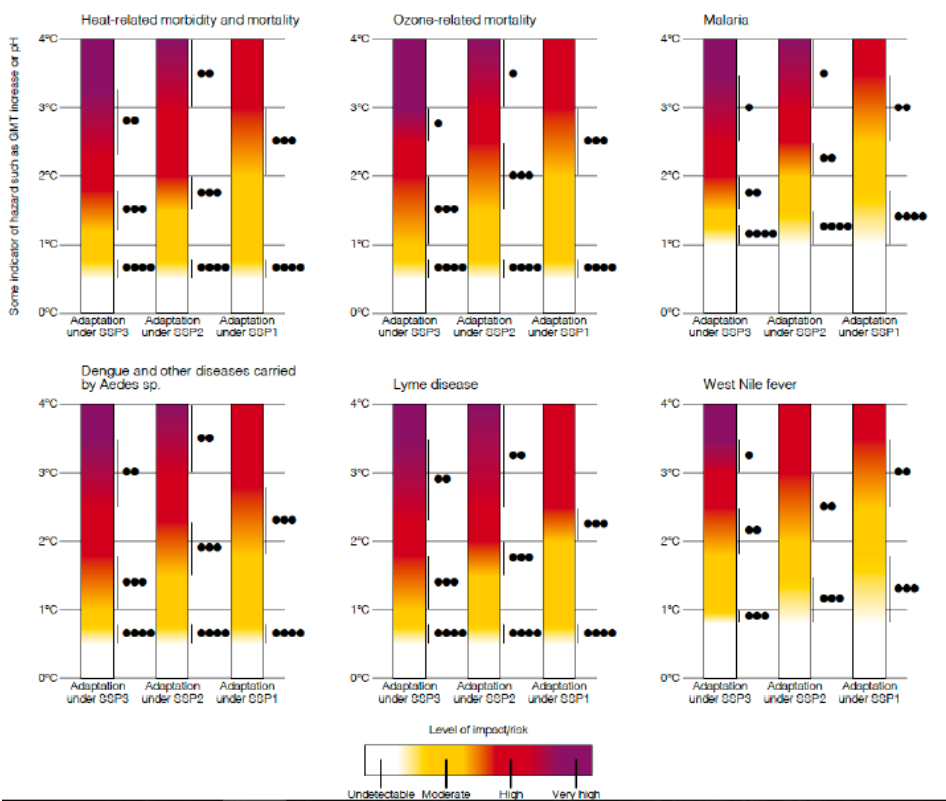
30
31 *Climate change is expected to increase significantly the health risks resulting from a range of climate-*
32 *sensitive diseases and conditions, with the scale of impacts depending on emissions and adaptation pathways*
33 *pursued in coming decades (very high confidence).* Adaptation pathways and options for managing risks are
34 detailed in section 7.4. Sub-sections 7.3.1.2 to 7.3.1.11 assesses available studies on future projections for
35 risks associated with specific climate sensitive diseases and conditions previously described in Section 7.2.1.
36 In the case of diabetes, cancer, injuries, mosquito-borne diseases other than dengue and malaria, and rodent
37 borne diseases, insufficient literature was found to allow for assessment.
38
39

40
41 *Even in the absence of further warming beyond current levels, the proportion of the overall global deaths*
42 *caused by climate sensitive diseases and conditions would increase marginally by mid-century (high*
43 *confidence).* Global Burden of Disease statistics for climate-sensitive diseases presented in Box 1 have been
44 projected forward to the year 2050 accounting for changes in demographics, fertility, educational attainment,
45 and economics development using standardized methods, but not accounting for any changes in climate
46 forcing (Ji et al. submitted). These projections show that the proportion of climate-sensitive deaths in 2050
47 increases marginally, with higher rates of cardiovascular and respiratory diseases driving much of the
48 increased burden.

49 *Studies that incorporate climate forcing project an additional 250,000 deaths per year by mid-century due to*
50 *climate-sensitive diseases and conditions and, under high-emissions scenarios over 9 million additional*
51 *deaths per year by 2100 (high confidence).* Two global projections of climate change health impacts have
52 been conducted since AR5. The first focused on cause-specific mortality for eight different exposures for
53 2030 and 2050 for a mid-range emissions scenario (A1b) and three different scenarios of economic growth
54 (World Health Organization 2014). The study estimated that by 2050 there would be an excess of
55 approximately 250,000 deaths per year attributable to climate change, dominated by increases in deaths due
56 to heat (94,000), undernutrition (85,000), malaria (33,000), and diarrheal disease (33,000). The second study,

1 which focused on all-cause mortality associated with warming under a high emissions scenario (RCP 8.5)
 2 and accounted for population growth, economic development, and adaptation, projected an increase of
 3 approximately 85 excess deaths per 100,000 population per year by the end of the century (Carleton et al.
 4 2020), for a total annual excess of 9,250,000 per year based on United Nations population projections
 5 (United Nations and Social Affairs 2019). The authors estimate that removing adaptation and projected
 6 economic growth increased the estimate by a factor of 2.6.

7
 8 *Temperatures above pre-industrial levels at which risks levels increase for six key climate-sensitive health*
 9 *outcomes highlight the criticality of building adaptive capacity in health systems and in other sectors that*
 10 *influence health and well-being (high confidence). Recently reported research illustrates the temperature*
 11 *thresholds at which the following health risks change under three SSP-based adaptation scenarios: heat-*
 12 *related morbidity and mortality; ozone-related mortality; malaria incidence rates; incidence rates of Dengue*
 13 *and other diseases spread by Aedes sp. mosquitos; Lyme disease; and West Nile fever (Ebi et al submitted).*
 14 As shown in Figure 7.3, adaptation under all SSPs significantly alters the warming thresholds at which risks
 15 accelerate, with an SSP1 adaptation scenario – which emphasizes international cooperation toward achieving
 16 sustainable development having the greatest potential to avoid significant increases in risks under all but the
 17 highest warming scenarios.



21 **Figure 7.3:** Change in risks for six climate-sensitive health outcomes by increases in temperature above pre-
 22 industrial levels, under adaptation scenarios

25 7.3.1.2 Changes in mortality due to heat and cold

26
 27 Higher average temperatures and extreme heat events associated with climate change are expected to lead to
 28 increased rates of mortality from a variety of temperature-sensitive diseases and injuries (high confidence).
 29 global and regional levels of heat-related mortality will increase under climate change (Ahmadalipour and
 30 Moradkhani, 2018, Kendrovski et al., 2017, Limaye et al., 2018, Morefield et al., 2018) even with adaptation
 31 (Anderson et al., 2018, Gosling et al., 2017, Guo et al., 2018, Wang et al., 2018). The number of heat-
 32 attributable deaths by end of century as compared with 2020 baselines have been projected to increase by
 33 400% under RCP4.5 and by 800% under RCP 8.5, totaling 1.1 million and 2.3 million deaths respectively
 34 (Burkart et al. submitted). Many of the most common heat-related causes of death captured in these studies

1 are assessed individually in later sections of this chapter. It is almost certain the impacts for a 2°C increase in
2 global temperatures will be significantly greater than those for the 1.5°C target of the Paris Agreement
3 (Dosio et al., 2018, Ebi et al., 2018, King and Karoly, 2017, Vicedo-Cabrera et al., 2018a), with most
4 increases in heat-related excess mortality expected in tropical and subtropical countries/regions (Guo et al.,
5 2018, Burkart et al submitted). Heat risks are expected to be greater in urban areas due to ‘heat island’ effects
6 (Heaviside et al., 2016) with local scale variations attributable to land cover contrasts (Macintyre et al., 2018,
7 Schinasi et al., 2018).

8
9 *The extent to which projected increases in average winter temperatures will reduce cold/winter related*
10 *health impacts is uncertain.* Most studies project that future increases in heat-related deaths will outweigh
11 those related to cold (Aboukari et al., 2020; Huber et al., 2020; Martinez et al., 2018; Mills et al., 2015;
12 Rodrigues et al., 2020; Vardoulakis et al., 2014; Weinberger et al., 2017; 2018; Weitensfelder and
13 Moshhammer, 2020) with recent research by Burkart et al (submitted) finding no change in cold-related
14 deaths under RCPs 4.5 or 8.5. Assumptions and methodologies used in model projections of temperature-
15 related excess mortality could conceivably underestimate future levels of cold/winter-related mortality under
16 climate change (Arbuthnott et al., 2018; Ebi, 2015; Kinney, 2018; Liddell et al., 2016; Huber et al., 2017). If
17 winter mortality rates do not decline appreciably under climate change, then the total temperature-related
18 health burden could be higher than expected. More research on this specific topic is warranted.

19 20 7.3.1.3 Projected impacts on vector-borne diseases

21
22 *There is a high likelihood that climate change will contribute to increased distributional range and vectorial*
23 *capacity of malaria vectors in parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and South America (high confidence)*(See
24 *Figure 7.3.*) In Nigeria, the range and abundance of *Anopheles* mosquitoes are projected to increase under
25 higher emissions scenarios (RCP 8.5) due to longer tropical rainfall seasons and rapid land use changes
26 (Akpan et al., 2019). Similarly, vegetation acclimation due to elevated atmospheric CO₂ under climate
27 change will likely increase the abundance of *Anopheles* vectors in Kenya (Le et al 2019). In other areas of
28 East Africa and the highlands, the distribution and intensity of transmission is expected to decrease in areas
29 where temperatures are predicted to exceed the optimal thermal range of the vector (Nkumama et al., 2017;
30 Ryan et al., 2015; Zaitchik, 2019), (Leedale et al., 2016; Murdock, Sternberg, & Thomas, 2016; Yamana,
31 Bomblies, & Eltahir, 2016). Distribution of *Anopheles* may decrease in parts of India and Southeast Asia, but
32 there is an expected increase in vectorial capacity in China and Taiwan (Khormi & Kumar, 2016). In South
33 America, climate change is projected to expand the distributions of malaria vectors to 35-46% of the
34 continent by 2070, particularly component species of the *Albitarsis* Complex (Laporta et al 2015).

35
36 *Malaria infections of the types Plasmodium vivax and Plasmodium falciparum have significant potential to*
37 *increase in parts of Sub-Saharan Africa and Asia, with risk varying according to the warming scenario*
38 *(medium confidence).* In Africa, due to the likely expansion of vector distribution and increase in biting rates,
39 climate change is likely to increase the overall transmission of malaria (Bouma et al, 2016; M'Bra et al.,
40 2018; Nkumama, O'Meara, & Osier, 2017; Ryan et al., 2015; Tompkins & Caporaso, 2016). In Sub-Saharan
41 Africa, malaria case incidence associated with dams in malaria-endemic regions will likely be exacerbated
42 by climate change, with significantly higher rates predicted under RCP 8.5 in comparison to lower-emission
43 scenarios (Kibret et al 2016). Incidence of malaria in Madagascar is projected to increase under RCPs 4.5
44 through 8.5 (Rakotoarison et al., 2018). Distribution of *P. vivax* and *P. falciparum* malaria in China is likely
45 to increase under RCPs higher than 2.6, especially RCP8.5 (Hundessa et al 2018). In India, projected
46 scenarios for the 2030s under RCP 4.5 indicate changes in the spatial distribution of malaria, with new foci
47 and potential outbreaks in the Himalayan region, southern and eastern states, and an overall increase in
48 months suitable for transmission overall, with some other areas experiencing a reduction in transmission
49 months (Sarkar et al 2019).

50 *Rising temperatures are likely to cause polewards shifts and overall expansion in the distribution of*
51 *mosquitos Aedes aegypti and Ae. albopictus, the principal vectors of dengue (Figure 7.3), yellow fever,*
52 *chikungunya and zika (high confidence).* Globally, the population exposed to disease transmission by one or
53 other of these vectors is expected to increase significantly due to the combination of climate change and non-
54 climatic processes including urbanization and socio-economic interconnectivity, with exposure rates rising
55 under higher warming scenarios (Kamal et al, 2018, Kraemer et al, 2019). For examples, approximately 50%
56 of the global population is projected to be exposed to these vectors by 2050 under RCP6.0 (Kraemer et al,
57 2019). The effect of climate change alone is projected to increase the population exposed to *Ae. aegypti* by 8-

1 12% by 2061–2080 (Monaghan et al, 2018), and its abundance is projected to increase by 20% under
2 RCP2.6 and 30% under RCP8.5 by the end of the century (Liu-Helmersson et al, 2019). Exposure to
3 transmission by *Ae. albopictus* specifically would be highest at intermediate climate change scenarios and
4 would decrease in the warmest scenarios (Ryan et al 2019). Under scenarios other than RCP2.6, most of
5 Europe would experience significant increases in exposure to viruses transmitted by both vectors (Liu-
6 Helmersson et al., 2019).

7
8 *Climate change is expected to increase dengue risk and facilitate its global spread, with the risk being*
9 *greatest under high emissions scenarios (high Confidence).* Future exposure to risk will be influenced by the
10 combined effects of climate change and non-climatic factors such as population density and economic
11 development (Akter et al, 2017). Overall risk levels expected to rise on all continents (Akter et al., 2015;
12 Messina et al., 2015; Rogers, 2015), with projections varying for Europe (Liu-Helmersson et al., 2016;
13 Messina et al., 2019). Compared to 2015, an additional 1 billion people are projected to be at risk of Dengue
14 exposure by 2080 under an RCP4.5/SSP1 scenario, 2.25 billion under RCP6.0/SSP2, and 5 billion under
15 RCP8.5/SSP3 (Messina et al., 2019). In North America, risk is projected to expand in north-central Mexico
16 and to US southern states to mid-western regions, with annual dengue incidence in Mexico increasing by up
17 to 40% by 2080 (Proestos et al, 2015; Colon-Gonzalez et al, 2013). In China, an RCP 8.5 scenario would
18 increase dengue exposure from 168 million people in 142 counties to 490 million people in 456 counties by
19 the late 2100s under RCP8.5 (Fan et al 2018). In Nepal, dengue fever is expected to expand throughout the
20 2050s and 2070s under all RCPs (Acharya et al., 2018). In Tanzania, there is a projected shift in distribution
21 towards central and north-eastern areas and risk intensification in nearly all parts of the country by 2050
22 (Mweya et al, 2016). Dengue vectorial capacity is projected to increase in Korea under higher RCP scenarios
23 (Lee et al. 2018).

24
25 *There are insufficient studies for assessment of projected effects of climate change on other arboviral*
26 *diseases, such as chikungunya and zika. Zika virus transmits under different temperature optimums than*
27 *does Dengue, suggesting environmental suitability for zika transmission could expand with future warming*
28 *(Tesla et al., 2018) (low confidence).*

29
30 *Climate change has already contributed to the geographical spread of the Lyme disease vector Ixodes*
31 *scapularis (high confidence) and the spread of tick-borne encephalitis and Lyme disease vector Ixodes ricinus*
32 *in Europe (medium confidence), trends that can be expected to continue under future warming.* In Canada,
33 vector surveillance of the black-legged tick *I. scapularis* has identified strong temperature effects on the
34 limits of their occurrence, on recent geographic spread, temporal coincidence in emergence of tick
35 populations, and acceleration of the speed of spread (Clow et al 2017, Cheng et al, 2017)). In Europe,
36 increasing temperatures over the period 1950-2018 have significantly accelerated the life cycle of *Ixodes*
37 *Ricinus* and contributed to its spread (Estrada-Peña et al, 2020). Under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios, a
38 northward and eastward shift of the distribution of *I. persulcatus* and *I. ricinus*, vector of Lyme disease and
39 tick-borne encephalitis in Northern Europe and Russia, with an overall large increase in distribution in the
40 second half of the current Century (Popov and Yasjukevich 2014; Yasjukevich et al 2018), and increases in
41 intensity of tick-borne encephalitis transmission in central Europe (Nah et al, 2020).

42
43 *Climate change is expected to increase the incidence rate of Lyme disease and tick-borne encephalitis in the*
44 *Northern Hemisphere (high Confidence) (see also Figure 7.3).* The climate-related geographic spread of
45 vectors in North America and Europe has already been reflected in an increase in human Lyme disease cases
46 and tick-borne encephalitis (Gasmi et al. 2017; Ebi et al, 2017, Daniel et al, 2018). The basic reproduction
47 number (R0) of *I. scapularis* in at least some regions of Canada is projected to increase under all RCP
48 scenarios (McPherson et al., 2017). In the United States, a 2°C warming could increase the number of Lyme
49 disease cases by over 20% over the coming decades, and lead to an earlier onset and longer length of the
50 annual Lyme disease season (Dumic & Severnini, 2018, Monaghan et al., 2015).

51
52 *Climate change is expected to change the distribution of schistosomiasis in Africa and Asia (high*
53 *confidence), with a possible increase in global land area suitable for transmission (medium confidence).* A
54 global increase in land area suitable for transmission by the three main species of *Schistosoma* is possible in
55 the periods an RCP4.5 scenario (Yang and Bergquist, 2018) but regional outcomes are expected to vary. In
56 Africa, shifting temperature regimes associated with climate change are expected to lead to reduced snail
57 populations in areas with already high temperatures, and higher populations in areas with currently low

1 winter temperatures (Kalinda et al, 2017; McCreesh et al, 2014). Infection risk with *Schistosoma mansoni*
2 may increase by up to 20% over most of eastern Africa over the next 20-50 years, but decrease by more than
3 50% in parts of north and east Kenya, southern South Sudan and eastern PDRC (McCreesh, Nikulin, &
4 Booth, 2015), with a possible overall net contraction (Stensgaard et al, 2013). In China, currently endemic
5 areas in Sichuan Province may become unsuitable for snail habitats, but currently non-endemic areas in
6 Sichuan and Hunan/Hubei provinces may see new emergence (Yang and Bergquist, 2018).

7 8 7.3.1.4 Projected impacts on water-borne diseases

9
10 *Climate change will contribute to additional deaths and mortality due to diarrheal diseases in the absence of*
11 *adaptation (medium confidence) (see Figure 7.3).* Risk factors for future excess deaths due to diarrheal
12 diseases are highly mediated by future levels of socio-economic development and adaptation. An additional
13 1°C increase in mean average temperature is expected to result in a 7% (95% CI, 3%-10%) increase in all-
14 cause diarrhea (Carlton et al., 2016), an 8% (95% CI, 5%-11%) increase in the incidence of diarrheic *E. coli*
15 (Philipsborn et al 2016), and a 3% to 11% increase in deaths attributable to diarrhea (WHO 2014). WHO
16 Quantitative Risk Assessments for the effects of climate change on selected causes of death for the 2030s
17 and 2050s (World Health Organization, 2014) projects that overall deaths from diarrhea should fall due to
18 socioeconomic development, but that the effect of climate change under higher emission scenarios would be
19 cause an additional 48,000 deaths in children aged under 15 years in 2030 and 33,000 deaths for 2050,
20 particularly in Africa and parts of Asia. In Ecuador, projected increases in rainfall variability and heavy
21 rainfall events may increase diarrhea burden in urban regions (Deshpande, 2020). A limit in the assessable
22 literature is a lack of studies in highest risk areas (Liang & Gong, 2017; UNEP, 2018).

23
24 *Climate change is expected to increase future health risks associated with a range of other waterborne*
25 *diseases and parasites, with effects varying by region (medium confidence).* Waterborne diseases attributable
26 to protozoan parasites including *Cryptosporidium* spp and *Giardia duodenalis (intestinalis)* are expected to
27 increase in Africa due to increasing temperatures and drought (Ahmed et al 2018; Efstratiou et al 2017).
28 Recent data suggest a poleward expansion of *Vibrios* to areas with no previous incidence, particularly in
29 mid- to high- latitude regions in areas where rapid warming is taking place (Baker-Austin et al 2017). The
30 number of *Vibrio*-induced diarrhea cases per year has increased in past decades in the Baltic Sea region, and
31 the projected risk of vibriosis will increase in northern areas, where waters are expected to become warmer
32 and more saline due to reduced precipitation and have higher chlorophyll concentrations (Escobar et al.,
33 2015; Semenza et al., 2017).

34
35 *The risk of Campylobacteriosis and other enteric pathogens could rise in regions where heavy precipitation*
36 *events or flooding are projected to increase (medium confidence).* In Europe, the risk of Campylobacteriosis
37 and other enteric pathogens could also rise in regions where precipitation or extreme flooding are projected
38 to increase (European Environment Agency, 2017), although incidence rates may be further mediated by
39 seasonal social activities (Rushton et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2015). Accelerated releases of dissolved
40 organic matter to inland and coastal waters through increases in precipitation are expected to reduce the
41 potential for solar UV inactivation of pathogens and increase risks for associated waterborne diseases
42 (Williamson et al., 2017). A study in British Columbia, estimated that the combined relative risk for
43 waterborne campylobacteriosis, Verotoxin-producing *Escherichia coli* and salmonellosis was 1.1 for every
44 1°C in mean annual temperature (Brubacher, 2020). Another study from British Columbia found that under
45 RCP8.5 annual rates of cryptosporidiosis and giardiasis could rise by approximately 16% by the 2080s due
46 to more severe precipitation events (Chhetri, 2019).

47 48 7.3.1.5 Projected impacts on food-borne diseases

49
50 The prevalence of Salmonella is expected to rise as higher temperatures enable more rapid replication
51 (medium confidence). Research from Canada finds a very strong association of salmonellosis and other
52 food-borne diseases with higher temperatures, suggesting that climate change will increase food safety risks
53 ranging from increased public health burden to emergent risks not currently seen in the food chain (Smith &
54 Fazil, 2019). In Europe, the average annual number of temperature-related cases of salmonellosis under high
55 emissions scenarios by 2100 could increase by up to 50% more than would be expected on the basis of on
56 population change alone (Lake 2017) (European Environment Agency, 2017). Warming trends in the
57 southern US may lead to increased rates of Salmonella infections (Akil, Ahmad, & Reddy, 2014).

7.3.1.6 Respiratory diseases

Climate change will substantially increase the burden of non-communicable respiratory disease related to PM_{2.5} (*high confidence*) and moderately increase the burden related to ozone (*high confidence*) (See figure 7.3). A systematic review of studies published between 2012 and 2017, along with additional studies since completed, indicate that climate change will increase non-communicable respiratory disease risks, principally through increased PM_{2.5} exposure (Orru et al., 2017). Subsequent studies have estimated that an additional 215,000 (95% CI-76,100–595,000) deaths from PM_{2.5} and 43,600 (95% CI -195,000–237,000) additional deaths from ozone could be expected globally by 2100 (Silva et al. 2017), and that in India, premature mortality due to PM_{2.5} would increase by 2.4–4% in 2031-2040 and 28.5–38.8% for 2091–2100 under RCP8.5 relative to additional burden that would be expected under RCP4.5 (Chowdhury et al. 2018). Hong et al. (2020) estimate that under RCP 4.5 China could expect by 2050 an additional 12,100 annual deaths from PM_{2.5} and 8,900 deaths from ozone. A study by Silva et al. (2016) considered the mediating effects of demographic change later this century, and projected substantial increases in deaths due to ozone exposure globally, but net decreases in deaths attributable to PM_{2.5} late in the present century (Hong et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2016). PM_{2.5} exposure is also a well-established risk factor for lung cancer, and Park et al. (2020) project increased lung cancer burden in all regions of the world except sub-Saharan Africa for the end of the century under RCP 8.5 (Park et al., 2020).

The burden of disease associated with aeroallergens is expected to grow due to climate change (*high confidence*). The incidence of pollen allergy and associated allergic disease increases with pollen exposure, and pollen concentrations are rising, and expected to continue to rise as a result of climate change (Ziska et al., 2019, Ziska 2020, De Sario et al., 2019). The overall length of pollen season and total seasonal pollen counts/concentrations for allergenic species such as birch (*Betula*) and ragweed (*Ambrosia*) are expected to grow as a result of CO₂ fertilization and warming, leading to greater sensitization (Hamaoui-Laguel et al., 2015, Lake et al., 2017, Zhang et al., 2013). Changes in pollen levels for several species of trees and grasses are expected to increase emergency department visits in the US by 2090 by between 8% for RCP4.5 and 14% for RCP8.5 (Neumann et al., 2019).

7.3.1.7 Cardio-vascular diseases

Climate change is expected to increase heat-related cardio-vascular disease (CVD) mortality by the end of the 21st century, particularly under higher emission scenarios (*high confidence*). Most modelling studies conducted since AR5 project higher rates of heat-related CVD mortality throughout the remainder of this century (Chen et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2015; Li et al., 2018; Limaye et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). CVD mortality could increase by an average percentage of 18.4%, 47.8%, and 69.0% in the 2020s, 2050s, and 2080s under RCP 4.5, respectively, and by 16.6%, 73.8% and 134% in different decades respectively, under RCP 8.5 compared to the 1980s (Li et al., 2015). Projections carried out for Beijing in the 2080s predict increased levels of temperature-related mortality from CVD, with figures varying with RCP and population assumptions (Zhang et al 2018). In particular, deaths from ischemic strokes would increase significantly as a result of warming, but mortality associated with acute ischemic heart disease and hemorrhagic stroke would remain stable over time. Li et al., 2018). Projections for Ningo, China, suggest heat-related years of lost life will increase significantly in the month of August, by between 3 and 11.5 times greater over current baselines by the 2070s, even with adaptation (Huang et al 2018). The future burden of temperature-related myocardial infarctions (MI) in Germany is expected to rise under high emissions scenarios (Chen et al., 2019), while in the eastern United States Limaye et al. (2018) project by mid-century and additional 11,562 annual deaths (95% CI: 2,641–20,095) due to cardiovascular stress in the population aged 65 years and above.

It is important to note that the assessed studies typically take an observed epidemiological relationship, and apply future temperature projections (often derived from regional climate projections), to this relationship. Because the relationship between CVD death is influenced by both climatic and non-climatic factors (such as population size and aging), future projections are highly sensitive to assumptions about interactions between climate, population characteristics and adaptation pathways. Changes in air quality are an additional important factor. For example, an assessment of future annual and seasonal excess mortality from short-term

1 exposure to higher levels of ambient ozone in Chinese cities under RCP 8.5 projected approximately 1,500
2 excess annual CVD deaths in 2050 (Chen et al., 2018).

3 4 *7.3.1.8 Maternal, fetal, and neonatal health*

5
6 *Additional research is needed on future impacts of climate change on maternal, fetal and neonatal health.*
7 Maternal heat exposure is a risk factor for several adverse maternal, fetal, and neonatal outcomes (Kuehn and
8 McCormick, 2017), including fetal growth (Sun et al., 2019) and congenital heart disease (CHD) (Auger et
9 al., 2017). There is a lack of assessable studies directly or indirectly related to this subject, an exception
10 being a study by Zhang et al. (2020) that projected an up to 34% increase in CHD risk in the United States
11 for the period between 2025 and 2035 based on increased maternal extreme heat exposure.

12 13 *7.3.1.9 Malnutrition*

14
15 *Climate change will adversely affect food security and nutrition, leading to higher levels of childhood*
16 *undernutrition and stunting, related mortality, and disability-adjusted life years lost in Africa and Asia (high*
17 *confidence).* The number of children affected by undernutrition, stunting and related mortality is expected to
18 rise in Asia and Africa, with rates of childhood stunting projected at up to 7.5 million by 2030 and 10.1
19 million by 2050 respectively (WHO, 2014). Lloyd et al (2018) projected moderate and severe stunting in
20 children aged under five to be between 570,000 and one million children by 2030 across 44 countries, with
21 the greatest rates in rural areas.

22
23 *Climate change will make it increasingly difficult to ensure all people have access to healthy diets (high*
24 *confidence).* Climate change impacts on agricultural production and regional food availability will affect the
25 composition of diets, which can have major consequences for health. Springmann et al (2016a) project that
26 by 2050, climate change will lead to per-person reductions of 3.2% in global food availability, 4.0% in fruit
27 and vegetable consumption, and 0.7% in red meat consumption. Such changes could be associated with
28 529 000 climate-related deaths worldwide, most projected to occur in South and East Asia. Adaptation and
29 cross-sectoral cooperation in food systems strongly mediate future projections, however, and could reduce
30 the number of future climate-related deaths by 29–71%, depending on their stringency (Springmann et al.
31 2016a). Future dietary composition will also reflect availability, affordability and diversity of nutrient-dense
32 foods including fruits and vegetables (Nelson et al 2018). Using SSPs 1, 2, and 3, global crop and economic
33 models by Hasegawa et al (2018) project higher cereal prices of up to 29% by 2050 under RCP 6.0, with up
34 to 183 million additional people in low-income households at risk of hunger as a result (Hasegawa et al.
35 2018).

36
37 *The nutritional content of important food crops, including protein content and micronutrients, is affected*
38 *negatively by higher CO₂ concentrations, creating potential risks for future food utilization (high*
39 *confidence).* (SRCCCL 2019; Smith and Myers, 2018; see AR6 Chapter 5). Under elevated levels of CO₂, the
40 protein content of rice, wheat and barley are expected to decrease by 7.6%, 7.8%, 14.1%, and 6.4%,
41 respectively by 2050, creating a risk of protein deficiency for up to 148.4 million people (Medek et al. 2017).
42 Increased CO₂ levels corresponding to RCP6 in the 2080s are projected to reduce the protein, micronutrient
43 and B vitamin content of widely grown rice cultivars in Southeast Asia, creating nutrition-related health risks
44 for 600 million people (Zhu et al., 2018). An additional 175 million people could become zinc deficient and
45 an additional 122 million protein deficient globally as a consequence (Smith and Myers, 2018).
46 Approximately 1.4 billion women of reproductive age and children under 5 live in countries with greater
47 than 20% anemia prevalence, and could lose more than 4% of their dietary iron, with the highest risk
48 occurring in South and Southeast Asia, Africa, and the Middle East (Smith and Myers, 2018). The combined
49 effects of increases in atmospheric CO₂ in terms of plant nutrients, CO₂ fertilization, and production losses
50 due to climate change will offset gains in food production that might otherwise be realized through
51 technological innovations and economic growth; one study estimates these lost production gains by 2050 in
52 nutrient terms as being 19.5% for protein, 14.4% for iron, and 14.6% for zinc (Beach et al. 2019).

53 54 *7.3.1.10 Projected impacts on harmful algal blooms, mycotoxins, aflatoxins and chemical contaminants*

55
56 *Harmful algal blooms are projected to increase globally, thus increasing the risk of seafood contamination*
57 *with marine toxins (high confidence)* (EFSA, 2017; Gobler et al., 2017; Barange and Cochrane, 2018;

1 Bindoff et al., 2019; Wells et al., 2020). *Climate change impacts on oceans could generate increased risks of*
2 *ciguatera poisoning in some regions (high confidence)*. Studies have suggested that rising sea surface
3 temperatures could lead to increased rates of ciguatera poisoning in Spain (Botana 2016), other parts of
4 Europe (EFSA 2020) and in the Caribbean, with Gingold et al (2014) projections a 200-400% increased
5 incidence rate in the latter region under 2.5–3.5°C increases in sea surface temperatures.

6
7 *Mycotoxins and aflatoxins may also become more prevalent due to climate change (medium confidence)*.
8 Models of aflatoxin occurrence in maize under climate change scenarios of +2 °C and +5 °C in Europe over
9 the next 100 years project that aflatoxin B1 may become a major food safety issue in maize, especially in
10 Eastern Europe, the Balkan Peninsula and the Mediterranean regions (Battilani et al., 2016).
11 The occurrence of toxin-producing fungal phytopathogens has the potential to increase and expand from
12 tropical and subtropical into regions where such contamination does not currently occur (Battilani et al.,
13 2016).

14
15 *Climate change may alter regional and local exposures to anthropogenic chemical contaminants (medium*
16 *agreement, low evidence)*. Changes in future occurrences of wildfires could lead to a 14 percent increase in
17 global emissions of mercury by 2050, depending on scenarios used (Kumar et al 2018). Mercury exposure
18 via consumption of fish may be affected by warming waters, as suggested by a study by Schartup et al.
19 (2019) that suggests warming trends in the Gulf of Maine could increase the MeHg levels in resident tuna by
20 30 percent between 2015 and 2030. In that study, an observed annual 3.5 percent increase in mercury levels
21 was attributed to fish having higher metabolisms in warmer waters, leading them to consume more prey. The
22 combined impacts of climate change and the presence of arsenic in paddy fields are projected to potentially
23 double the toxic heavy metal content of rice in some regions, potentially leading to a 39 percent reduction in
24 overall production by 2100 under some models (Muehe et al., 2019, Neumann et al., 2017).

25 26 7.3.1.11 *Mental health and wellbeing*

27
28 *Climate change is expected to have adverse impacts on wellbeing, some of which will become serious*
29 *enough to threaten mental health (very high confidence)*. Changes in extreme events due to climate change,
30 including floods (Baryshnikova and Pham 2019), droughts (Carleton 2017) and hurricanes (Kessler et al.
31 2008; Boscarino et al. 2013, 2017; Obradovich et al. 2018) directly worsen mental health and wellbeing, and
32 increase anxiety (high confidence). Projections suggest that sub-Saharan African children and adolescents,
33 particularly girls, are extremely vulnerable to negative direct and indirect impacts on their mental health and
34 well-being (Atkinson and Bruce, 2015; Owen et al., 2016). The direct risks are greatest for people with
35 existing mental disorders, physical injuries, impacts on respiratory, cardiovascular and reproductive systems,
36 with indirect impacts potentially arising from displacement, migration, famine and malnutrition, degradation
37 or destruction of health and social care systems, conflict, and climate-related economic and social losses
38 (high to very high confidence) (Burke et al., 2018; Curtis et al., 2017; Hayes et al., 2018; Serdeczny et al.,
39 2017; Watts et al., 2018). Based on evidence assessed in Section 7.2 of this chapter, future direct impacts of
40 increased heat risks and associated illnesses can be expected to have implications for mental health and
41 wellbeing, with outcomes being highly mediated by adaptation, but there are no assessable studies that
42 quantify such risks.

43
44 *Human behaviors and systems will be disrupted by climate change in a myriad of ways (Duffy et al. 2019),*
45 *and the potential consequences for mental health and wellbeing are correspondingly large in number and*
46 *complex in mechanism (high confidence)*. For example, climate change may alter human physical activity
47 and mobility patterns, in turn producing alterations in the mental health statuses promoted by regular
48 physical activity (Obradovich and Fowler 2017; Obradovich and Rahwan 2019). Climate change may affect
49 labour capacity, because heat can compromise the ability to engage in manual labor as well as cognitive
50 functioning, with impacts on the economic status of individual households as well as societies (Kjellstrom et
51 al., 2016; Liu, 2020). Migrations and displacement caused by climate change may worsen the wellbeing of
52 those affected (Vins et al. 2015; Missirian and Schlenker 2017). Broad societal outcomes such as economic
53 unrest, political conflict, or governmental dysfunction assessed in sections 7.3.5 may undermine mental
54 health of populations in the future (*medium confidence*). Food insecurity presents its own risks for mental
55 health (Jones, 2017).

7.3.2 Migration in a Changing Climate

Future changes in climate-related migration and displacement are expected to vary by region and over time, according to: (1) region-specific changes in climatic drivers, (2) changes in the future adaptive capacity of exposed populations, (3) population growth in regions most exposed to climatic risks, and (4) future developments in mediating factors such as international development and migration policies (Gemenne and Blocher 2017, Cattaneo et al 2019, McLeman 2019)(High agreement, medium evidence). Climatic drivers in this context include future changes in the frequency and/or severity of storms, floods, droughts, extreme heat, wildfires and other events already observed in section 7.2 as affecting migration and displacement patterns, and the future impacts on coastal settlements of climate change-related sea level rise and associated hazards.

7.3.2.1 Region-specific changes in climatic risks

As outlined in 7.2, the most common drivers of observed climate-related migration and displacement are extreme storms, floods, extreme heat, droughts, and wildfires (high confidence). The future frequency and/or severity of such events due to anthropogenic climate change are expected to vary by region according to future GHG emission pathways, with there being an increased potential for compound effects of successive or multiple hazards (e.g. tropical storms accompanied by extreme heat events, Matthews et al 2019). Table 7.1 summarizes anticipated changes in future climate-related migration and displacement risks by region (and by sub-regions for Africa and Asia, where climatic risks vary considerably within the region).

Table 7.1: Projected impacts of climate change on future migration and displacement, by region

1. Region	2. Main directions of current migration flows (from Abel & Sander 2014)	3. Current climatic drivers of migration & displacement (based on IDMC statistics, except where noted)	4. Expected changes in drivers	5. References for column 4 in addition to IPCC 2018, 2019; Pörtner et al. 2019 (add WGI report when ready)	6. Notes (additional call outs to other WGII Chapters will be made in 3rd order draft)
East and Southeast Asia	Within countries and between countries within same region	Floods, extreme storms	Return rate and severity of floods, intensity of extreme storm events are projected to increase under all RCPs except RCP 2.6	Wang et al. 2017; Bacmeister et al. 2018; Gettelman et al. 2018; Wang and Wu 2018; Mure-Ravaud et al. 2019	Changes in geographical distribution of typhoon tracks would affect number/ location of people at risk; see also Chapter 10, box 10.3
South and Central Asia	Within countries and between countries within same region; from South Asia to Middle East, North America, Europe	Floods, extreme storms; extreme heat (see note)	Return rate and severity of floods in South Asia projected to increase under all RCPs except RCP2.6; frequency & severity of extreme storms not expected to change greatly in RCPs other than RCP 8.5; significant increases in extreme heat events under 1.5°C and 2°C warming	Bacmeister et al., 2018; Kettner et al., 2018; Alfieri et al., 2017; Maharjan et al. 2020; Pradhan et al. 2020; Sedova et al. 2020; Singh & Basu 2020; Kaczan & Orgill-Meyer 2020	Extreme heat is associated with increased migration (not involuntary) displacement in Bangladesh, India, Pakistan (see also Chapter 10, box 10.3)

West Asia, North Africa	Within countries and between countries within the same region; to Europe	Floods	Precipitation expected to become scarcer under most RCPs, shortfalls being greatest under RCPs 6 and 8.5; SLR and coastal flooding expected to increase in the Nile Delta, effects being greatest under RCP 8.5	Alfieri et al., 2017; Greve et al, 2018; Lehner et al., 2017; Naumann et al., 2018; Wartenburger et al., 2017; Abadie et al., 2020; Kulp and Strauss 2019	Droughts and extreme heat are not currently major drivers of displacement/migration in region, but attention should be paid to these given projections of future extreme heat, drought risks for region. See also Chapter 9
Eastern sub-Saharan Africa	Within countries and between countries within the same region; to Europe and Middle East	Floods, droughts/ extreme heat	Precipitation is expected to increase in most areas under most RCPs; significant increases in extreme heat events under 1.5°C and 2°C warming	Dosio et al 2018; Greve et al., 2018; Lehner et al., 2017; Naumann et al., 2018; Wartenburger et al., 2017; Kumari Rigaud et al., 2018	Effects of greater precipitation and increasing extreme heat events may reduce drought-displacement risks but increase flood-displacement risks; more data is needed. See also chapter 9
Western & southern sub-Saharan Africa	Within countries and between countries in same region; to Europe	Floods, droughts/ extreme heat	Precipitation is expected to become scarcer under most RCPs, shortfalls being greatest under RCPs 6 and 8.5; significant increases in extreme heat events in West Africa, especially under 2°C warming	Dosio et al 2018; Alfieri et al., 2017; Greve et al, 2018; Lehner et al., 2017; Naumann et al., 2018; Wartenburger et al., 2017	Effects of reduced precipitation may lead to drought & extreme heat outpacing floods as main migration & displacement risk. See also chapter 9
Europe	Within countries and between countries in same region	Floods	Increased risk of river & coastal flooding in northern coastal areas under most scenarios	Bevacqua et al 2019, Blöschl et al 2019; Forzieri et al 2016	Risk of compound flooding expected to increase in coastal areas of northern Europe; multiple hazards of drought, heat and wildfires to increase in southern Europe

North America	Within countries and between countries in same region	Floods; extreme storms (US Atlantic & Caribbean coast); tornadoes; wildfires	Increased flood risk in most watersheds under RCPs 4.5-8.6; frequency & severity of extreme storms projected to grow significantly in RCP 8.5	Wobus et al 2017; Hauer et al 2016, 2019	
Central and South America;	Within countries and between countries in same region; to North America, Europe	Floods (CA & SA), extreme storms (CA)	Variations in rainfall patterns within region, with decreased precipitation in NE Brazil, increases precipitation in SE South America; frequency & severity of Caribbean storms projected to grow significantly in RCP 8.5	Bacmeister et al., 2018; Burgess et al., 2018;	
Australasia	Displacement within countries	Wildfires (Australia)	Greater heat events, fire risks in eastern Australia	Di Virgilio et al 2019, Dowdy et al 2019	
Small island states	Within and between countries in same region (e.g. Pacific Islands to Australia & New Zealand; Caribbean islands to USA)	Extreme storms	Increased frequency, severity of storms, especially in RCPs 6, 8,5	Thomas et al 2020; Burgess et al, 2018;	Planned relocations already underway in Fiji, Carterets

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In low-lying coastal areas of most regions, future increases in mean sea levels will amplify the effects of coastal hazards, including erosion, inland penetration of storm surges and groundwater contamination by salt water, and eventually lead to inundation of very low-lying coastal settlements (Diaz 2016, Hauer et al 2016, B. Neumann et al 2015, Rahman et al 2019, SROCC 2019) (high confidence). Projections of the number of people at risk of future displacement by sea level rise range from millions to hundreds of millions by the end of this century, depending on (1) the RCP selected, (2) projections of future population growth in exposed areas and (3) the criteria used for identifying exposure. These latter measures can include the existence of settlements situated within 10m of mean sea level, settlements in 1-in-100 year floodplains, or settlements in areas likely to be entirely inundated under specific RCPs (B. Neumann et al 2015, Hauer et al 2016, Merkens et al 2018).

Sea level rise is not presently a significant driver of migration in most coastal areas, but has been attributed as being one of several factors necessitating the near-term resettlement of small coastal settlements in Alaska, Louisiana, Fiji, Tuvalu, and the Carteret Islands of Papua New Guinea (Marino and Lazrus 2015, Connell 2016, Nichols 2019). In coastal Louisiana, communities tend to resist leaving exposed settlements until approximately 50% of available land has been lost (Hauer et al 2019). Movements away from highly exposed areas may have longer-term demographic implications for inland settlements (Hauer, 2017), but this requires further study. At present, there is minimal evidence regarding the risks of sea level rise as being a motivation for international migration originating in small island states in the Indian and Pacific Oceans, with economic considerations and family reunification currently being the main migration drivers (McCubbin et al 2015, Stojanov et al 2016, Heslin 2019, Kelman et al 2019). However, climatic

1 drivers are expected to take on greater significance in coming decades (Thomas et al 2020), and may discourage return
2 migration to small island states (van der Geest et al 2020).

3
4 *Country-level studies assessed in section 7.2 suggest an association between extreme heat and changes rural-to-urban*
5 *migration flows in parts of South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa (medium confidence).* A small number of recent studies
6 have suggested that future increases in average temperatures could have adverse impacts on the habitability of
7 settlements in the tropics and sub-tropics and stimulate out-migration to cooler locations (Zander et al 2019, Xu et al
8 2020), and potentially lead to decreased fertility rates among rural populations (Casey et al 2019). Dosio et al (2018)
9 project that at 1.5°C warming, between 9% and 18% of the global population will be regularly exposed to extreme heat
10 events at least once in 5 years, with the exposure rate nearly tripling with 2°C warming. The small number of available
11 studies does not allow for confidence statements regarding extreme heat and future migration/population patterns at
12 large spatial scales, and is consequently noted as a subject requiring further research.

14 7.3.2.2 *Interactions with non-climatic determinants and projections of future migration flows*

15
16 *Only a very small number of studies have attempted making systematic projections of future regional or*
17 *global migration numbers under climate change.* A World Bank report by Rigaud et al (2018) offered wide-
18 ranging projections of potential internal population displacements in South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa and
19 Latin America by 2050 using multiple climate and development scenarios. Key methodological limitations
20 for making such projections include the availability of reliable data on migration within and between
21 countries and definitional ambiguity in distinguishing climate-related migration from migration undertaken
22 for other reasons. Rigaud et al (2018) show that the potential for future migration and displacement will be
23 strongly mediated by socio-economic development pathways in low- and middle-income countries.
24 Hoffmann et al (2020) used meta-regression based analyses to suggest that future environmental influences
25 on migration are likely to be greatest in low- and middle income countries in Latin America and the
26 Caribbean, Sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and most of continental Asia.

27
28 *Research reviewed in AR4, AR5 and section 7.2 observed that at higher rates of socio-economic*
29 *development, the in situ adaptive capacity of households and institutions is greater, and climatic influences*
30 *on migration correspondingly decline, with recent evidence adding further support for such conclusions (Jha*
31 *et al 2018, Mallick 2019, Gray et al 2020)(high confidence).* Future demographic trends will also influence
32 climate-related migration at regional scales. Population growth rates are currently highest in low-income
33 countries (UN DESA 2019) that have high rates of exposure to climatic hazards described in the preceding
34 section, further emphasizing the importance of socio-economic development and adaptive capacity building.
35 Although country-specific scenarios for socio-economic development and population are embedded in SSPs,
36 existing projections of future migration flows under climate change have not made great use of these. One of
37 the few studies to do so found that safe and orderly international migration tends to increase wealth at
38 regional and global scales in all SSP narratives and reduces income inequality between countries (Benveniste
39 et al 2020a). International barriers to safe and orderly migration have considerable potential to reduce
40 international development objectives and increase exposure to climatic hazards in low- and middle income
41 countries (McLeman 2019, Benveniste et al 2020b).

43 7.3.3 *Climate Change and Future Risks of Conflict*

44
45 *Higher temperatures and extreme events associated with climate change have the potential to become ‘threat*
46 *multipliers’ for future conflicts (high agreement, medium evidence), but their effects will be highly mediated*
47 *by non-climatic factors.* Projections of future effects of climate change in conflict genesis are typically based
48 on statistical models of associations drawn from limited datasets and make coarse assumptions about future
49 socio-economic and demographic pathways. This has generated an ongoing debate among researchers about
50 their reliability and replicability of results, with researchers suggesting they are reliable only for specific
51 local or regional contexts and limited time periods (Buhaug et al, 2014; van Weezel, 2019, Abel et al 2019).
52 The most commonly held climate-conflict association concerns the effect of heat (see section 7.2). In a meta-
53 analysis of existing studies, Hsiang et al (2015) concluded that with each one standard deviation increase in
54 temperature, interpersonal conflict increases by 2.4% and intergroup conflict by 11.3%. Witmer et al (2017)
55 forecast sub-national violent conflict for the period 2015-2065 using temperature and precipitation
56 anomalies, finding significant relationships between levels of violent conflict and political rights, population
57 size, and rising temperatures, but no association between conflict and precipitation.

1 Although regularly used in the study of future impacts of climate change, the SSPs are less well suited for
2 climate-conflict projections given that they do not take into account disruptions to economic growth, which
3 are often crucial in onset of conflicts (Buhaug and Vestby, 2019). Further, definitions of climate anomalies
4 will also shift over time as societies adapt (Roche et al, 2020). Thus, projections are more likely to be able to
5 predict the countries in which conflict is likely to emerge over the long term, based on known causal factors
6 that increase susceptibility to conflict, rather than be able to project when a conflict will emerge and where,
7 or to predict the changes in conflict-related deaths to be expected with a particular change in climate
8 parameters (Mach et al, 2020).

9
10 Key research needs include investigating linkages between specific climatic drivers and outcomes (Seter,
11 2016; Ide, 2017), especially beyond current conflict zones in Africa and the Middle East (Hendrix 2017,
12 Adams et al 2018, Busby 2018) and on the effectiveness of interventions (Mach et al 2020). There is a
13 significant gap in research on climate-conflict linkages in Asia, where there are large numbers of people
14 living in locations highly exposed to hazards expected to increase in frequency and severity under climate
15 change (Busby et al, 2018, Vinke et al, 2017). Climate impacts in politically unstable and/or conflict-affected
16 areas of Central Asia warrant additional research (Reyer et al, 2017, Nordqvist and Kampe, 2018), including
17 on the resilience of transboundary water agreements (Atef et al, 2019) and potential for water use conflicts
18 between hydropower and irrigation (Shokhrukh-Mirzo et al, 2019, see Box 7.5).

19
20 *Conflict is multi-causal, therefore the identification of potential future climate-related tipping points,*
21 *thresholds and triggers is difficult.* Tipping points commonly associated with civil unrest are weather and
22 market-related economic shocks that lead to increases in domestic food prices (Weinberg et al, 2014; Raleigh
23 et al, 2015), but such linkages are less clear for armed conflicts (Koren, 2019). A potential tipping point due
24 to future climate impacts may concern water sharing agreements, as changing geopolitical dynamics and the
25 impacts of climate change could stretch the ability of such agreements to maintain cooperation (de Stefano,
26 2017; Williams, 2018). Other tipping points exist within social processes, reflecting the point at which
27 individual losses (which could in turn be climate-related) become group grievances (Buhaug et al, 2020) or
28 the point at which social conflict becomes armed conflict. There is also a need for research that identifies
29 positive tipping points that lead to rapid changes in the wider social system that decrease the likelihood of
30 conflict (e.g. Tabara et al, 2018), and to prevent conflict itself from becoming a tipping point in the wider
31 social-ecological system (Kopp et al, 2015). Further, there is a need to avoid conflict itself representing a
32 social tipping point in the wider social-ecological system (e.g. Kopp et al, 2015) since there is no evidence
33 that climate change will lead to mass conflict or that conflict will in turn lead to mass migration.

34
35
36 [START BOX 7.5 HERE]

37 38 **Box 7.5: Potential for Climate Change to Cause Conflict in Asia**

39
40 Research on conflict-climate linkages in Asia is needed given the high population density in areas of south,
41 southeast and east Asia exposed to extreme heat, monsoon variability, flooding, tropical cyclones and sea-
42 level rise (Busby et al 2018, Vinke et al, 2017). Central Asia is projected to experience altered precipitation
43 regimes, more frequent heat extremes, increasing aridity, greater seasonality of river runoff, and consequent
44 water and food security challenges (Reyer et al, 2017). Climate stressors have potentially contributed, at least
45 in part, to local level conflicts in Bangladesh and Nepal (Sultana et al 2018) but there is no evidence to
46 suggest that larger-scale political instability and conflicts in Asia in recent decades have been directly caused
47 by climatic drivers (Roth et al 2018). Research is lacking on the question of whether climate risks have
48 played a role in prolonging larger civil conflicts, unlike sub-Saharan Africa which has been subject to much
49 greater study (Nordqvist and Kampe, 2018).

50
51 In terms of future potential for conflict in south and southeast Asia, non-peer-reviewed security studies
52 envisage greater military involvement in humanitarian response to cyclones, flooding, and to other impacts
53 of climate change that might contribute to increased instability (Pai 2013; Busby and Krishnan, 2015). A
54 small number of peer-reviewed studies have considered future potential impacts of climate change on food
55 security (Caruso et al, 2016; Raghavan et al, 2019) while others have analyzed how climate change might
56 test the effectiveness of transboundary water agreements by raising regional geopolitical tensions (Atef et al,
57 2019, Scott et al, 2019) or create water use conflicts between hydropower and irrigation within countries

(Shokhrukh-Mirzo et al, 2019). Current research suggests existing transboundary water governance institutions will be able to address future changes in water availability (Bernauer & Siegfried, 2012; Siegfried et al 2012).

[END BOX 7.5 HERE]

7.4 Responses, Adaptation to Risks, and Climate Resilient Development Pathways

A point of emphasis in the AR6 WGII report is the “solutions space”, in which chapter author teams have been encouraged to identify and assess adaptation opportunities, challenges, and pathways to climate resilient development. Climate change risks described in other chapters of this report are often ultimately manifested as impacts on the health and wellbeing of communities, households and individuals that have been described in sections 7.2 and 7.3 of this chapter. These include exacerbations of pre-existing risks, such as malaria, diabetes, and civil unrest, and the emergence of new risks, such as release of toxins and displacements caused by rising sea levels. With effective adaptation, many observed and projected risks for human health and wellbeing, health systems, migration, and conflict can be reduced or potentially avoided.

Achieving effective adaptation requires cooperation across regions, sections, and scales of governance. It also requires financial resources and commitments to public health and to adaptation needs specific to health systems that are currently inadequate in most jurisdictions, including many high-income settings. Investing in adaptation for health and community wellbeing has the potential to generate considerable co-benefits in terms of reducing impacts of non-climate health challenges, making additional progress toward the Sustainable Development Goals. Similarly, investments in mitigating greenhouse gas emissions will not only reduce risks associated with dangerous climate change, but will increase population health and wellbeing through a number of salutary pathways. Migration can contribute to or work against adaptation goals and progress, depending on the circumstances under which it occurs. Policies that support safe and orderly movements of people, protect migrant rights, and facilitate flows of financial and other resources between sending and receiving communities are consistent with adaptive capacity building and building sustainability, and are part of climate resilient development pathways. These pathways are in turn a potential way to reduce the risks that climate change will interact with the drivers of conflict. The remainder of this chapter identifies and assesses specific elements in adapting to risks identified in 7.2 and 7.3 and opportunities for fostering sustainability and pursuing climate resilient development pathways:

7.4.1 Adaptation for Health and Wellbeing: Systems Approaches and Transformational Change

The solutions space for health and wellbeing, and the necessity of engaging a broad range of underlying support systems to advance sustainable development, has expanded since AR5. There is increased understanding of exposure and vulnerabilities to climate variability and change, of the effectiveness of adaptation (including a growing number of lessons learned and best practices), and of the co-benefits of mitigation policies and technologies (high confidence). To date, focus in the health sector has been on filling the adaptation gap by implementing incremental changes to policies and measures that strengthen health systems, some of which have led to sustained public health gains over the past three decades, and scattered protective interventions more specific to climate variability and change like early warning systems (Ebi et al 2017). In many cases, steady improvements in public health systems have obscured the influence of climate change on climate-sensitive disease burdens, but the influence of climate change is becoming more apparent in many cases, for example, with infectious disease (Hess et al. 2020). As climate change progresses and the likelihood of dangerous risks to human health continue to increase (Ebi et al., submitted), there may emerge greater pressure for more transformational changes to health systems. Such considerations emerged as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has revealed many capacity and governance constraints in health systems and in other sectors that strongly influence population health (Murray et al. 2020). Ultimately, insights from a wide range of ongoing global health assessments have highlighted the need for explicitly and urgently addressing the interactions between environmental change, socioeconomic development, and human wellbeing (WHO, 2019).

Effectively preparing for and managing the health risks of climate change requires a systems based approach (high confidence) to incorporate the magnitude and pattern of future climate impacts as well as

1 *potential changes in factors that determine vulnerability and exposure to climate hazards, such as*
2 *determinants of health care access, demographic shifts, urbanization patterns, and changes in ecosystems*
3 *(high confidence). Given the wide range of causal pathways through which climate change affects*
4 *environmental and social systems to result in health impacts, a systems-based approach to identifying,*
5 *implementing, and evaluating solutions provides an opportunity to inform policies and programs in health-*
6 *determining sectors (e.g. water and food safety and security), support population health and health systems in*
7 *the short and longer-term, and inform health system policies to reduce adverse and unexpected consequences*
8 *in other systems (WHO, 2015; (Ebi and Otmani Del Barrio, 2017)) (high agreement, medium evidence). This*
9 *involves devising operational frameworks that build climate resilience into the health sector by anticipating*
10 *impacts, identifying vulnerable populations, and assessing public health intervention options, and as part of*
11 *this identify needs in terms of health workforce, information systems, facilities and delivery mechanisms*
12 *(Marinucci et al, 2014; WHO, 2015; US CDC, 2019, WHO, 2015). The potential gains to be made by such*
13 *an approach would be mediated by the extent of coordination with adaptation processes in other sectors that*
14 *influence health and wellbeing.*

15
16 *Multisectoral collaborations aimed at strengthening the health sector can also generate multiple co-benefits*
17 *across other sectors (high agreement, medium evidence) (WHO, 2015; Bowen, 2014a; Machalaba, 2015;*
18 *Confalonieri, 2015; Bowen, 2014b). Solutions for health and wellbeing risks described in 7.2 and 7.3 often*
19 *have their origins in sectors that include water, sanitation, food systems, social protection systems, and key*
20 *components of urban systems such as housing and employment. Climate resilient development pursued in*
21 *these other sectors, and in cooperation with the health sector, simultaneously increases the potential for*
22 *adaptation and climate resilience in terms of health and wellbeing (high confidence) (Ahmad, 2017, Watts,*
23 *2018, Levy, 2015, World Health Organization, 2018, Chiabai, 2018, Dudley, 2015, Zinsstag, 2018, Sherpa,*
24 *2014). Figure 7.4 illustrates the context within which risks to health and health systems emerge as a result of*
25 *climate change. Part (a) of the figure presents the emergence of risk from interactions between specific types*
26 *of climatic hazards, exposure and vulnerability to those hazards, and the responses taken within the health*
27 *sector; examples given are drawn from those discussed in this chapter. Part (b) of the figure illustrates how*
28 *health risks are situated within larger interactions between the health system and other sectors and systems,*
29 *with underlying enabling conditions making adaptation and transformation possible. Within this context,*
30 *response options can decrease the impacts of climate change impacts on human health, wellbeing and health*
31 *systems by 1) reducing exposure to climate-related hazards; 2) reducing vulnerability to such hazards; and 3)*
32 *strengthening health system responses to future risks. In the health sector, such approaches are described as*
33 *“Lateral Public Health” and emphasize the importance of involving community members and stakeholders in*
34 *the planning and coordination of activities.*

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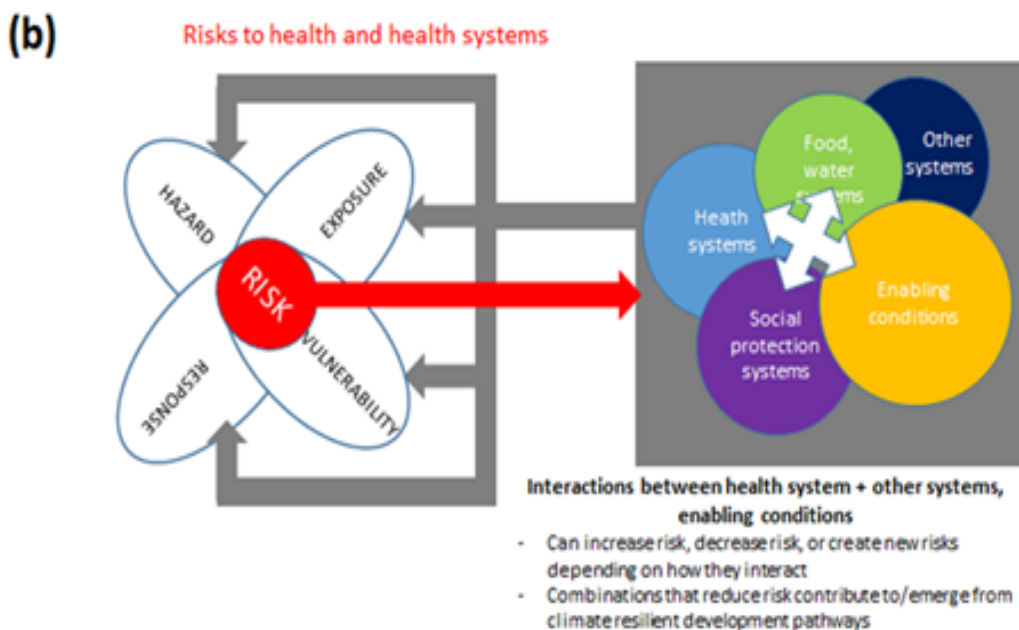
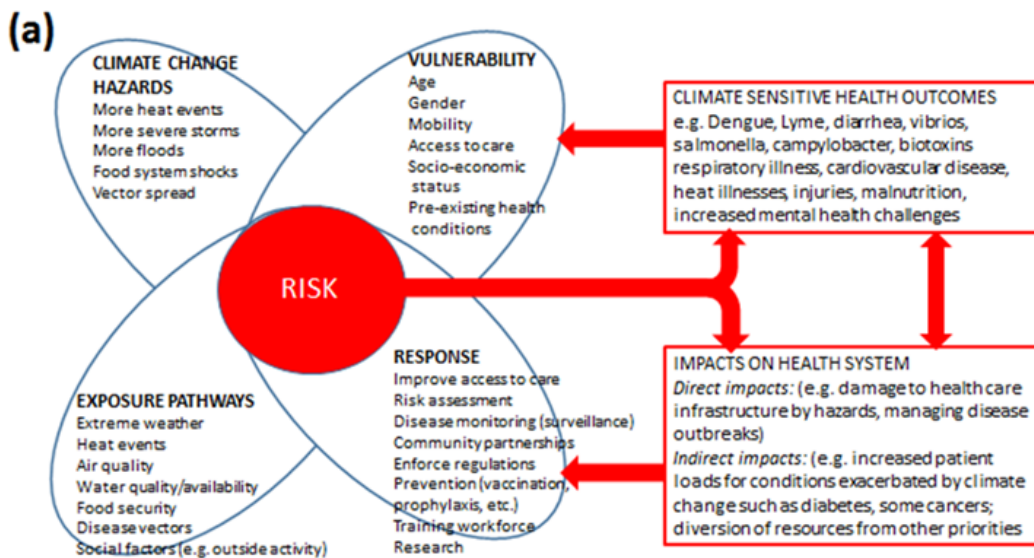


Figure 7.4: Context within which climatic risks to health emerge and responses are formed. Figure (a) is nested within Figure (b).

7.4.2 Adaptation to Climate Change Risks in the Health Sector

Health policies have historically not been designed or implemented with the risks of climate change taken into consideration, and as currently structured may not be capable of managing changing health burdens in coming decades (*high confidence*). The magnitude and pattern of future health burdens attributable to climate change, at least until mid-century, will be determined primarily by adaptation. Continued investment in strengthening general health systems, along with targeted investment in systems to enhance protection against specific climate-sensitive exposures (e.g. malaria net initiatives, hazard early warning systems), is an effective strategy for adapting to key risks (*high confidence*). Investments in proven strategies to reduce inequalities through investments in social determinants of health (Thornton et al., 2016), many of which are driven by decisions outside the health sector, will also have significant impacts on underlying vulnerability (Wallace et al., 2015) (*high confidence*). Adaptation options with high potential for reducing risk for several key health risks identified in section 7.3 are summarized in Table 7.2, with additional details on adaptation options for a selected sample of these provided below.

1 **Table 7.2:** Key health risks, hazards, exposures, vulnerabilities and adaptation options with highest potential for
 2 reducing risks. See more detailed version in Chapter 16.

Key risk	Geographic region	Consequence that would be considered severe, and to whom	Hazard conditions that would contribute to this risk being severe	Exposure conditions that would contribute to this risk being severe	Vulnerability conditions that would contribute to this risk being severe	Adaptation options with high potential for reducing risk
Heat-related mortality and morbidity	Global but mainly low to mid-latitude regions	Substantial increase in heat-related mortality and morbidity rates, especially in urban centers and for outside workers, and people suffering from obesity, weak cardiovascular capacity /physical fitness. Increased risk of Respiratory Diseases and cardiovascular disease (CVD) mortality.	Substantial increase in frequency and duration of extreme heat events, especially in cities where heat will be exacerbated by urban heat island effects	Poor access to health facilities. Large increases in exposure, particularly in urban areas, driven by population growth and urbanization. Exposure will increase in agricultural areas where there are large numbers of people working outside	Increases in the number of very young and elderly, and of those with other health conditions such as diabetes and associated comorbidities, lack of capacity to implement adaptation measures,	Improved building and urban design, passive cooling systems acknowledging that not all will have access to air conditioning. Broader understanding of heat hazard and better access to public health systems for the most vulnerable. Application where possible of renewable energy sources. Communication around drinking, availability of clean water, simple water purification systems in low income settings, and water spray cooling.

Vector-borne disease incidence	Africa, Asia and Latin America	Increase in the incidence of some vector-borne diseases such as malaria, dengue, and other mosquito-borne diseases, in endemic areas and in new risk areas (e.g. cities, mountains, northern hemisphere)	Substantial increase in average temperature, precipitation, and/or humidity	Large increases in human exposure to mosquito vectors driven by growth in human and mosquito populations, globalization, population mobility and urbanization	Lack of effective vaccine, ineffective personal and household protection, poverty, poor hygiene conditions, insecticide resistance, behavioural factors.	Improved housing, better sanitation conditions and self-protection awareness. Insecticide treated bednets and indoor spraying of insecticide. Broader access to public health system for the most vulnerable. The establishment of early-warning system of vector-borne diseases. Cross-border joint control of outbreaks. Sound usage of insecticides. Targeted efforts to develop vaccines.
Occurrence and intensity of some waterborne diseases	Mostly developing countries (Africa and Asia); global for Vibrios	Increase in the occurrence and intensity of waterborne diseases such as vibrios (particularly <i>V.cholerae</i>), diarrheal diseases, other water-borne gastro-intestinal illnesses	Substantial changes in temperature and precipitation patterns, increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather events (e.g. droughts, storms, floods), ocean warming and acidification among others.	Large increases in exposure, particularly in areas with poor sanitation, flood-prone areas and favorable ecological environment for waterborne disease pathogens	Poor hygiene conditions, lack of clean drinking water and safe food, flood and drought prone areas, vulnerabilities of water and sanitation systems	Improved water, sanitation and hygiene conditions and better surveillance system. Improved personal drinking and eating habits, behavior change.

<i>Occurrence and intensity of some foodborne diseases</i>	Global	Increase in the occurrence and intensity of some foodborne diseases such as <i>Salmonella</i> and <i>Campylobacter</i> , including in high-income countries,	Substantial changes in temperature and precipitation patterns, increased frequency and intensity of extreme weather events (e.g. droughts, storms, floods), ocean warming and acidification among others.	Large increases in exposure, particularly in areas with poor sanitation, flood-prone areas and favourable ecological environment for foodborne disease pathogens.	Poor hygiene conditions, lack of clean drinking water and safe food, flood and drought prone areas, Vulnerabilities of water and sanitation systems, food storage systems, food processes, food preservation and cold chain/storage.	Improved water, sanitation and hygiene conditions and better surveillance system. Improved personal drinking and eating habits, behavior change. Improved food storage, food processing, food preservation, cold chain/storage.
<i>Heat-related mental illness</i>	Global, but more likely in areas experiencing high temperatures	Substantial increase in mental illness compared to base rate	Increased number of days with high temperatures	Large increase in exposure	Lack of air conditioning. The elderly may be more susceptible	Emergency shelters for people to escape the heat; enhanced building design to protect inhabitants; mental health support.

<p><i>Mental health impacts in response to floods, storms and fires</i></p>	<p>Global; some areas at greater risk for storms, flooding, or wildfires</p>	<p>Substantial increase in mental illness compared to base rate</p>	<p>Increased frequency of major storms, weather-related flooding, or wildfires</p>	<p>Low-lying areas, dry areas, urban areas</p>	<p>Physical infrastructure that is vulnerable to extreme weather, inadequate emergency response and mental health services, social inequality</p>	<p>Improved urban infrastructure, warning systems, and post-disaster social support, improving funding and access to mental health care; improved surveillance and monitoring of mental health impacts of extreme weather events; climate change resilience planning in the mental health system (including at a community level); and mental health first aid training for care providers and first responders</p>
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Malnutrition due to decline in food availability and increased cost of healthy food	Global, with greater risks in Africa, South Asia, Southeast Asia, Latin America, Caribbean, Oceania	Substantial number of additional people at risk of hunger, stunting and diet-related morbidity and mortality. Micro- and macronutrient deficiencies. Severe impacts on low-income populations from Low Income and Medium Income countries (LIMICs). Risks especially high to groups that suffer greater inequality & marginalization (see vulnerability column),	Climate changes leading to reductions in crop, livestock, or fisheries yield, including temperature and precipitation changes and extremes, drought, and ocean warming and acidification.	Large numbers of people in areas and markets particularly affected by climate impacts on food security and nutrition	High levels of inequality (including gender inequality), substantial numbers of people subject to poverty or violent conflict, in marginalized groups, or with low education levels. Slow economic development; ineffective social protection systems, nutrition services and health services.	Multi-sectoral approach to nutrition-sensitive adaptation and disaster risk reduction / management, including food, health and social protection systems. Inclusive governance involving marginalized groups. Improved education for girls & women, maternal and child health, water and sanitation, gender equality, climate services, social protection mechanisms.
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7.4.2.1 Example adaptation strategies and actions for key health risks

Successful adaptation strategies typically involve implicit or explicit vulnerability and capacity assessments (VCAs) that include identification of past, current and projected climate change risks (McIver et al., 2016) and aim to design both short- and long-term responses. Adaptation responses for climate change in the health sector need to be included (or “mainstreamed”) in larger health policies, programs, strategies, measures and actions to be successfully implemented (Ebi, 2018). A review of public health systems in 34 countries found that only slightly more than half considered climate change impacts and adaptation needs (Berry et al., 2018), suggesting an ongoing need for such processes at a large scale. The following subsections identify adaptation options that have been assessed for multiple key risks and found promising.

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7.4.2.1.1 Adaptation options for vector-borne, food-borne and water-borne diseases

Climate change will create conditions that facilitate the geographic spread and suitability of conditions for transmission of many vector-borne diseases (VBD) described in 7.2 and 7.3 (high confidence). The future effects of climate change on VBD can be offset through enhanced commitment to integrated vector control management approaches that are already in existence (Cissé et al., 2018; Confalonieri et al., 2017). Important components of these are disease surveillance and early warning systems that can identify potential outbreaks at time scales from sub-seasonal to decadal and vaccine development and implementation of systems to ensure availability (Rocklöv and Dubrow, 2020; Semenza and Zeller, 2014). In many cases, the exposure dynamics of VBD are strongly influenced by socio-economic dynamics, and these require consideration as part of the adaptation process (UNEP, 2018). This is especially the case for VBDs in low-income countries. For example, access to sanitation and presence of standing water are important determinants of *A. aegypti* populations in urban and peri-urban areas, and also affect the presence of viscera leishmaniasis. As a result, strategies that address underlying conditions of uneven development and lack of adequate housing and access to water and sanitation systems in areas endemic to mosquito-borne diseases can be expected to have health cobenefits.

28

29

1 *Adaptation options for future climate risks associated with water-borne and food-borne diseases are*
2 *strongly tied to wider, multi-sectoral initiatives to improve sustainable development and improve the well-*
3 *being of low-income communities (high confidence).* Important measures include improving access to
4 potable water and reducing exposure of water and sanitation systems to flooding and extreme weather events
5 (Brubacher et al., 2020; Cissé, 2019). This also requires a focus on farm-level interventions that limit the
6 spread of pathogens into adjacent waterways, preventing the ongoing contamination of water and sanitation
7 systems and the promotion of food-safe human behaviors (Levy, Smith, & Carlton, 2018; Nichols, Lake, &
8 Heaviside, 2018). It is also important to implement well-targeted and integrated WASH interventions,
9 including at school levels and ensuring proper disposal of excreta and wastewater. Cities can integrate
10 regional climate projections into their engineering models, to produce lower-risk source waters, to increase
11 the resilience of water and sanitation technologies and management systems under a number of climate
12 scenarios. Technologies can help to abstract source water from cooler depths, introduce or increase
13 secondary booster disinfection, design or modify system to reduce residence times within pipes, and/or coat
14 exposed pipes (Levy et al., 2018). Examples of efficient interventions include source water protection,
15 promoting water filtration and improvement of hygiene at all levels. Needed actions also include early
16 warning systems, strengthening the resilience of communities and health systems, and promoting water
17 safety plans and sanitation safety plans (Brubacher et al., 2020; Cissé, 2019; Ford & Hamner, 2018; Lake &
18 Barker, 2018; Levy et al., 2018; Nichols et al., 2018; World Health Organization, 2009; 2016; 2018).

19 20 7.4.2.1.2 *Adaptation options for heat*

21 Heat action plans (HAP) link weather forecasts with alert systems and response activities, such as public
22 cooling centres, enhanced heat-related disease surveillance and a range of individual actions designed to
23 mitigate the health effects of extreme heat such as seeking shade and altering the pattern of work (McGregor
24 et al. 2015; WHO, 2011). Evaluations of established HAPs provide strong evidence that HAPs prevent
25 mortality from extreme heat events and elevated temperature (high confidence) (McGregor et al., 2015,
26 Benmarhnia et al., 2016; Heo et al., 2019b; Martinez-Solanas and Basagana, 2019; Martinez-Solanas et al.,
27 2019; De'Donato et al., 2018; Hess et al., 2018). Evaluations of specific of HAP components for their
28 respective contributions to health benefits are lacking, meaning that further research is needed to increase
29 their effectiveness (Boeckmann and Rohn, 2014; Chiabai et al., 2018) (Boeckmann et al., 2014; Chiabai et
30 al., 2018; Diaz et al., 2019). For example, evaluations of heatwave early warning systems as a component
31 within HAP show inconsistent results in term of their impact on mortality rates (Nitschke et al., 2016;
32 (Benmarhnia et al., 2016; Heo et al., 2019a, b); Ragettli and Roosli, 2019; Martinez-Solanas et al., 2019; de
33 Donato et al 2018; Hess et al., 2018; Weinberger et al., 2018). To support HAP, identification and mapping
34 of heat vulnerability 'hot spots' within urban areas has been proposed by researchers, which would allow for
35 more effective targeting of resources to higher risk populations (Janicke et al., 2019; Krstic et al., 2017;
36 Nayak et al., 2018; Wolf et al., 2014). However, the uptake by policy makers has been lacking (Chen et al.,
37 2019; Hatvani-Kovacs et al., 2018; Keramitsoglou et al., 2017; Wolf et al., 2015).

38
39 A multi-sectoral approach is beneficial to responding to extreme heat risks, through measures such as urban
40 design that mitigates urban heat island effects (high confidence) (Alexander et al., 2016; Fritz, 2017; Levy,
41 2016; Masson et al., 2018; McEvoy, 2019; Pisello et al., 2018) and localized solutions such as awnings,
42 louvers, directional reflective materials, mist sprays, evaporative materials and green roofs (Takebayashi,
43 2018). Nature-based initiatives to reduce heat that offer co-benefits for ecological systems include green and
44 blue infrastructure (e.g. urban greening/forestry and the creation of water bodies) (Koc et al., 2018; Lai et al.,
45 2019; Shooshtarian et al., 2018; Ulpiani, 2019; Zuvella-Aloise et al., 2016, Hobbie and Grimm, 2020) (see
46 section 7.6.6). The implementation of climate sensitive design and planning can be constrained by
47 governance issues (Alexandra, 2017; Jim et al., 2018) and the benefits are not always evenly distributed
48 among residents. Implementation of these does, however, need to be carried out within the context of wider
49 public health planning, as water bodies and moist vegetated surfaces provide suitable habitats for a range of
50 disease vectors (Hansford et al., 2017; Heylen et al., 2019; Nasir et al., 2017; Tian et al., 2016; Trewin et al.,
51 2020).

52
53 The aforementioned adaptation options have been developed largely in high- and middle income countries,
54 and typically require significant financial resources for their planning and implementation. The assessment
55 for this section did not encounter assessable studies of the benefits of Indigenous or non-Western approaches
56 to managing and adapting to extreme heat risk. Further documentation of these is encouraged.

7.4.2.1.3 Adaptation for nutrition

The protection and promotion of nutrition in a changing climate requires a multi-sectoral, integrated adaptation approach that involves food systems, social protection and health systems, and water and sanitation services, among others (High agreement, medium evidence) (SRCCL 2019; Swinburn 2019; UNICEF, 2020). Adaptation responses include a combination of healthy food systems and diets, social protection schemes and safety nets, access to health services, nutrition-sensitive risk reduction, community-based development, women empowerment, nutrition-smart investments, increased policy coherence, and institutional and cross-sectoral collaboration (High agreement, medium evidence) (FAO, 2018; SRCCL 2019, Mbow et al., 2019). Food systems resilience can be fostered through governance, policies, markets and institutions at all scales scale throughout food systems (Braumoh 2020; Paloviita and Järvelä 2019; Nagoda and Nightingale 2017)(see also chapter on Food Systems, this report).

Integrated agroecological systems where food is considered to be a public good and human right (Vivero-Pol et al., 2019) offer opportunities to increase dietary diversity at household levels while building local resilience to climate-related food insecurity (high confidence) (FAO 2018; HLPE 2019) especially when gender equity and social justice are integrated (Bezner Kerr et al. 2019a; Debray et al. 2019; HLPE 2019; Pandey et al., 2017; Rogé et al. 2014; Schipanski et al., 2016). A beneficial component of such systems is participatory community-based adaptation planning (Nalau et al. 2018, Tschakert et al. 2014). Complementing these are adaptive social protection programs and mechanisms that support food insecure households and individuals through cash transfers or public work programs, land reforms and extension of credit and insurance services which have been shown in studies to reduce food insecurity and malnutrition during times of environmental stress (Carter and Janzen, 2018, Johnson et al., 2013, World Bank 2018, 2019; Alderman, 2016). For example, children from families participating in Ethiopia’s Productive Safety Net Program have shown improved nutritional outcomes, partly due to better household food consumption patterns and reduced child labor (Porter and Goyal, 2016). School feeding programs have shown to improve nutritional outcomes, especially among girls, by promoting education, reducing child pregnancy and fertility rates (Drake et al., 2017). Adaptive social protection is most effective when it combines climate risk assessment with disaster risk reduction and wider socioeconomic development objectives (Davies et al., 2013; Steinbach et al., 2016).

Transformative approaches towards more healthy, sustainable, plant-based dietary patterns require integrated strategies, policies and measures including economic incentives for the production and consumption of more fruits, vegetables and pulses, inclusion of sustainability criteria in dietary guidelines, labelling, public education programs and promoting collaboration, good governance and policy coherence (Glover and Poole, 2019). Food systems resilience can be fostered through governance, policies, markets and institutions at all scales scale throughout food systems (Braumoh 2020; Paloviita and Järvelä 2019; Nagoda and Nightingale 2017, see also chapter on Food Systems, this report). The protection and promotion of nutrition under climate change requires a multi-sectoral combination of adaptation practices including healthy and sustainable diets, nutrition sensitive and agroecological food production, climate-adapted social protection schemes and safety nets, universal access to healthy and healthy environments (including safe water) and nutrition-sensitive risk reduction (including weather-related insurance). Additionally, women and girls' empowerment, enhanced education (either formal education for all and targeted extension services), policy coherence between humanitarian, developmental and peace domains and rights-based approaches and cross-sectoral collaboration are also relevant enablers for nutrition-sensitive adaptation measures (as well as other adaptive measures, since co-benefits of food-security related enablers are paramount).

[START BOX 7.6 HERE]

Box 7.6: Feasibility and Effectiveness Assessment of Multisectoral Adaptation for Food Security and Nutrition

A feasibility and effectiveness assessment was conducted of six adaptation strategies often used and recommended by the UN to respond to malnutrition risks (UNSCN 2010; Tirado et al 2013). Methods adapted from de Coninck et al. (2018) and Singh et al (2020) were used, and combined literature assessment and expert judgment. Six dimensions of feasibility (economic, technical, social, institutional, environmental and geophysical) were considered using nineteen indicators, and the expected longevity of each option and

the lead time to initiate it were also examined. Feasibility was defined as how significant the barriers reported in the literature are to implementing a particular adaptation option. Highly feasible options are those where no or very few barriers are reported (and had an average score >2.5 on the scoring criteria. Moderately feasible are those where barriers exist but do not have a strong negative effect on the adaptation option (or evidence is mixed). Low feasibility options have multiple barriers reported that can block the adaptation option, and score below 1.5 on the criteria used. Effectiveness ratings were based on expert consultation and reflect the potential capability of the adaptation option to reduce risk. The final effectiveness and feasibility scores are categorized as high, medium or low, and reflect the combined results of all studies for a given adaptation option (Table Box 7.6.1). The list of studies assessed and their categorizations are shown in Table Box 7.6.2.

Table Box 7.6.1: Preliminary feasibility and effectiveness assessments of multisectoral adaptation for food security and nutrition. From Tirado et al. (in press).

Climate change impacts on food security and nutrition	Adaptation option	Evidence	Agreement	Feasibility Dimensions						Effectiveness	Enablers			
				Eco	Tec	Inst	Soc	Env	Geo		Women empowerment	Education	HDP Nexus	Rights-based approach & good governance
KEY RISK: Malnutrition in all its forms linked to decline in food availability and increased cost of healthy food	Climate-resilient, nutrition-sensitive and agroecological food production	Robust	High	M	M	H	L	H	H	Moderate	HR	HR	HR	HR
	Sustainable and healthy diets (local, equitable, diverse)	Robust	High	H	H	H	M	H	L	High	HR	HR	LR	LR
	Access to health, nutrition services and healthy environments (Water and sanitation)	Medium	High	M	M	M	H	M	L	Moderate	HR	HR	MR	HR
	Early warning systems to prevent adverse effects on nutrition	Robust	Medium	H	M	M	H	H	L	High	LR	HR	HR	LR
	Nutrition-sensitive social protection	Robust	High	H	H	L	L	H	H	High	HR	HR	MR	HR
	Nutrition-sensitive risk reduction, risk sharing and insurance	Medium	Low	L	H	L	H	H	NA	Low	MR	MR	LR	MR

Notes:

Abbreviations used: Ec: Economic; Tec: Technical; Inst: Institutional; Soc: Socio-cultural; Env: Environmental; Geo: Geophysical. HR: high relevance, MR: medium relevance, LR: low relevance. NA = Non-applicable/insufficient evidence to make assessment

Table Box 7.6.2: Studies assessed.

ADAPTATION MEASURES	REFERENCES
Climate-resilient, nutrition-sensitive and agroecological food production	(Calderón et al. 2018; Boedecker et al. 2019; D'Annolfo et al. 2017; HPLE 2019; Heckelman et al. 2018; Bezner Kerr et al. 2019a; Makate et al. 2016; Rogé et al. 2014).
Sustainable and healthy diets	(Tilman and Clark 2014; Springmann 2018b; Willett et al. 2019).
Access to Health, Nutrition Services and Healthy Environments (water and sanitation)	(Tirado et al. 2013; FAO, 2018; Mbow et al., 2019; Hamm et al. 2019; Sanson et al., 2019)
Nutrition-sensitive social protection	(Johnson et al., 2013; Alderman, 2016 ; del Ninno et al., 2016; Asfaw et al., 2017; Asfaw and Davis, 2018; Gilligan, 2019; Ulrichs et al. 2019).
Early warning- Early Action systems to prevent adverse effects on nutrition	(Choularton and Krishnamurthy, 2019; Cools et al., 2016; Funk et al., 2019; Funk et al., 2018; Ewbank et al., 2019; Ruth et al. 2017)
Nutrition-sensitive risk reduction, risk sharing and insurance	(Wilkinson et al., 2018; Atela et al., 2018 ; Peterson and Osgood, 2016; 2018; Aryal et al., 2019 ; Jensen and Barrett, 2017; Greatrex et al., 2015; Fisher et al., 2019)
Women and girls' empowerment	(Bezner Kerr et al. 2016; Alston 2014; Ruel et al. 2018; Nyantakyi-Frimpong, 2017 ; Cáceres-Arteaga et al. 2020).
Education	(Tambo, 2016; Alam et al., 2017; Fadina and Barjolle, 2018; Ali and Erenstein, 2017; Mulwa and Visser, 2020).
Rights-based approach and good governance	(Tirado et al. 2013; FAO 2018; Bizikova et al., 2016; Bailey and Buck 2016; Jacobi et al. 2018; Raheem, 2018; Ensor et al. 2015; Duyck et al., 2018).
Humanitarian Development Peace Nexus	(FSIN-GNAFC, 2020; Weishaupt, 2020; Vivekananda et al., 2014; WFP, 2018; OECD, 2019; Fanning and Fullwood-Thomas, 2019; Howe, 2019; Horne and Boland, 2020; Agensky, 2019)

[END BOX 7.6 HERE]

7.4.2.1.4 *Adaptation for mental health*

There is a range of adaptation options for reducing mental health risks associated with extreme weather that includes both preventative and post-event responses (*high confidence*) (Brown et al., 2017; Cohen et al., 2019, James et al. 2020). Responses include improving funding and access to mental health care, surveillance and monitoring of psychosocial impacts of extreme weather events, community-level planning for mental health as part of climate resilience planning (Clayton et al., 2017); and mental health first aid training for care providers and first responders (Hayes et al., 2018). Advance planning for disasters has been shown to reduce post-event mental health challenges, one example coming from China, where pre-planning of temporary shelters found that displaced people who accessed them had significantly lower rates of anxiety, depression, and PTSD in the aftermath of flooding (Zhong et al. 2020). Key elements of successful initiatives include coordinated planning and action between key regional agencies and governments, with a focus on improving accountability and removing barriers to implementation and subsequent access to programs, is important (Ali et al. 2020). As an example, following the 2019 Australian bushfires, the federal government allocated funds to support mental health through free counselling for those affected, increased access to tele-health, extended hours for mental health services and programs designed specifically for youth (Newnham, Titov, & McEvoy, 2020).

Given that mental health is fundamentally intertwined with social and economic wellbeing, adaptation for climate-related mental health risks benefits from wider multi-sectoral initiatives to enhance wellbeing, with there being potential for cobenefits to emerge (*high confidence*). Improvements in education, quality of housing, safety, and social protections support and connections enhance general wellbeing and make individuals more resilient to climate risks (Lund et al., 2018, Hayes et al 2019). As an example, a study of domestic rainwater harvesting initiatives to promote household water security were also found to improve mental health in participating households (Mercer & Hanrahan, 2017). Adaptive urban design that provides access to healthy natural spaces – described earlier in this section as an option for reducing risks associated with heat stress – has also shown to promote social cohesion and mitigate mental health challenges (*high confidence*) (Buckley et al., 2019; Clayton et al., 2017; Mygind et al., 2019).

7.4.2.1.5 *Non-heat early warning systems*

Early warning systems are skilled at forecasting risk and are a potentially valuable tool in adapting to climate-related risks associated with infectious diseases (*high confidence*). Through advanced seasonal weather forecasting that draws upon established associations between climate and infection/transmission conditions, conditions conducive to disease outbreaks can be identified to months in advance, providing time to implement effective population health responses (Morin et al. 2018). Most existing examples are focused on malaria and dengue, but there are examples for other diseases, such as an early warning system also developed for *Vibriosis* monitoring in the Baltic Sea (Semenza et al. 2017). An early warning system for dengue outbreaks in Colombia based on temperature, precipitation, and humidity successfully detected 75% of all outbreaks between one and five months in advance, detected 12.5% in the same month, and missed only 12.5% (Lee et al. 2017). Dengue warning systems in Brazil, Malaysia, and Mexico have also generated satisfactory results (Hussain-Alkhateeb et al. 2018). An early warning system for malaria implemented in recent years for the Amhara region of Ethiopia has also proven adept (Merkord et al. 2017).

Early warning systems are effective at detecting and potentially reducing food security and nutrition risks (*high confidence*). Examples of proven systems include the USAID Famine Early Warning System, FAO's Global Information and Early Warning System, and WFP's Corporate Alert System. Such systems are fundamental for anticipating when a crisis might occur and setting priorities for interventions (Funk et al., 2019). Financial investments are needed to develop early warning systems (Choularton and Krishnamurthy, 2019), but experience has proven they are both cost-effective and reduce human suffering (*high confidence*). For instance, during the 2017 drought-induced food crisis in Kenya, 500,000 fewer people required humanitarian assistance than would have been expected based on past experiences, and this was largely due to timely and effective interventions triggered by early warning (Funk et al., 2018).

7.4.2.2 *Challenges and complexities in adaptation in the health sector*

7.4.2.2.1 *Costs and benefits*

There are substantial health costs associated with health impacts of climate change (Ebi, 2008; Hutton, 2011), which increase with the severity of climate change (Martinez et al., 2015) (high confidence). The financial costs associated with extreme weather and climate events have been heavily studied and provide useful insights into the additional costs to be expected as a result of health risks associated with climate change. For example, a study of ten climate-sensitive events in the US in 2012 calculated the health-related costs as amounting to \$10 billion, and estimated that the economic burden of extreme weather events is 26% higher than given national estimates when health-related costs are taken into consideration (Limaye et al., 2019). In Sri Lanka, current direct health care costs associated with floods and drought are estimated at \$19 million per year (De Alwis and Noy, 2019). Dramatic increases in health and economic burdens of weather-related extreme events are expected as global temperatures rise (Schmitt et al., 2016). There are fewer assessable studies relating to the economic cost of climate-related diseases. In one of the few examples, Stephen (2017, Stephen and Barnett, 2017) estimated that under climate change the costs of salmonellosis in 2036 would increase to AUD\$319 million (95% CI: AUD308 million, AUD330 million) compared to 2016.

Extreme heat events generate significant economic costs to the health system and to the wider economy (high confidence). Human health and well-being is one of five pathways through which extreme heat generates negative economic impacts, particularly in countries with hot climates (Acevedo et al., 2020). Under climate change, heat extremes will have the greatest economic impact in terms of GDP exposure on Asia, followed by North America, Europe, Africa, South America and Oceania, with GDP exposure in Africa predicted to rapidly increase in the future (Chen et al., 2020, San et al., 2017). The morbidity and mortality costs associated with extreme temperature and air pollution under climate scenarios RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 were estimated by San José et al (2017) for locales within three cities in Europe on an average dollar cost per spatial unit basis; under RCP 8.5, significant costs were identified in Madrid (5.35K\$/m²), Milan (1.65K\$/m²) and London (0.99K\$/m²). Extreme heat increases costs associated with emergency department visits (Toloo et al., 2015), hospitalization, and ambulance services (Wondmagegn et al., 2019). Analysis of the economic costs of heatwaves in Europe in 2003, 2010, and 2015 estimated losses to agriculture of USD\$59–90 per worker, and losses in the construction sector of USD\$41–\$72 per worker (Orlov et al., 2019).

Controlling air pollution as part of climate mitigation efforts generates significant cobenefits (high confidence). The net benefits of such initiatives could potentially reach trillions of dollars annually depending on the air quality policies adopted globally (Markandya et al., 2018; Scovronick et al., 2019). Air pollution reductions that would result from meeting Paris Agreement targets are estimated as providing a health cobenefits-to-mitigation ratio of between 1.4 and 2.45, with additional economic benefits likely to be realized in India and China for pursuing mitigation goals associated with 1.5°C warming (Markandya et al., 2018). In Asia, the benefit of air pollution reduction through climate mitigation measures was found to be three times their cost, with life value savings estimated at USD 2.8 trillion versus mitigation costs of USD 840 billion, equating to 6% and 1.8% of GDP respectively (Xie et al., 2018). Similarly, achieving ambitious mitigation targets in South Korea (i.e. limiting radiative forcing to 3.4 W/m²) would lead to a USD 23.52 billion cost reduction from the combined benefits of avoided premature mortality, health expenditures and lost work hours (Kim et al., 2020). In the US, reductions in O₃ and PM_{2.5} result in significant savings associated with reduced all cause deaths, cardiovascular and respiratory hospital admissions, and lost work days from 2046 to 2055 (Yang et al., 2019). Similarly, the health co-benefits related to physical exercise and reduced air pollution largely offset the costs of implementing low CO₂ emitting urban mobility strategies in three Austrian cities (Wolkingner et al., 2018). However, cost-benefit analyses for climate mitigation in urban settings do not account for health, and may thereby underestimate the potential cost savings and benefits (Markandya et al., 2019).

Mitigation responses initiated in other sectors, including energy generation, transportation, food and agriculture, household, and industry, are often health-promoting and lead to beneficial, cost-effective, outcomes in the health sector (high confidence)(Gao et al., 2018). As one example, a study in New Zealand of dietary change from animal-based foods to plant-based foods could result in up to 44% reduction of diet-related GHG emissions in New Zealand while generating NZ\$13.9 to 20.2 billion in health system savings and health gains of between 1.02 and 1.46 million quality-adjusted life years (Drew et al., 2020).

1 *There is a need for greater research focusing on cost-effectiveness and cost-benefits of adaptation and*
2 *mitigation, as well as costs of delayed action and inaction (high confidence).* There are numerous challenges
3 associated with developing cost-benefit analyses to support climate adaptation decision-making within and
4 for the health sector. Examples include insufficient evidence, lack of comparability of results across studies,
5 partial scope and short-term focus of the analyses, technical challenge with quantifying economic costs and
6 benefits of health outcomes, and inherent uncertainty regarding climate risks and underlying processes
7 (Limaye et al., 2019; Martinez et al., 2015; Remais et al., 2014; Workman et al., 2018). As a result, (Hutton,
8 2011; Limaye et al., 2019; Menne et al., 2015; Schmitt et al., 2016; Wondmagegn et al., 2019).

9
10 *Comprehensive cost-benefit assessment of health co-benefits requires an interdisciplinary process and is*
11 *best carried out with in collaboration with policy makers* (Remais et al., 2014; Wolking et al., 2018, Hess
12 et al 2020). This is particularly important to support decision-making processes as co-benefits and related
13 cost reductions are often not taken into consideration (Wolking et al., 2018; Workman et al., 2018). For
14 example, public health, climate change and economic costs/benefits are three important axes for decision-
15 making for urban sanitation, but incomplete public health evidence and cost-benefit analyses, combined with
16 the lack of perceived immediacy of climate change risks pose significant barriers to their consideration
17 (Mills et al., 2020). Asia and Africa are priority regions for further research given their high levels of
18 population and GDP exposure to climate risks (Chen et al., 2020).

20 7.4.2.2.2 *Financial constraints*

21 *Financial constraints are the most commonly referenced barrier to adaptation (Wheeler and Watts, 2018)*
22 *and so scaling up financial investments remains a key international priority (high confidence) (UNFCCC,*
23 *2017a).* AR5 estimated the costs of adaptation in developing countries at between US\$70 billion and
24 US\$100 billion annually in the year 2050, but these are likely to be a significant underestimate, particularly
25 in the years 2030 and beyond (UNEP, 2014). National surveys from the World Health Organization make it
26 clear that a major barrier to the implementation of health adaptation priorities is finance (Watts et al., 2020).
27 Novel research drawing on global financial transaction data suggests an evolving picture. In 2019, global
28 spending within the healthcare sector on climate adaptation reached US\$18.4 billion, representing some
29 5.3% of total global spending on adaptation (Watts et al 2020). While this represents a small proportion of
30 the overall total, positive health outcomes can be achieved through investment outside of the formal
31 healthcare sector, so the net benefits are greater. Growth in health adaptation spending from 2018 to 2019
32 outpaced growth in overall spending; however, most of this has been driven by spending in by high- and
33 upper-middle income countries, with investment in Africa, South-East Asia, and the Eastern Mediterranean
34 being more or less stagnant in recent years (Watts et al., 2020).

35
36 *There has been limited participation of the health sector in international climate financing mechanisms*
37 *(Martinez and Berry, 2018).* Of 149 projects listed in the Adaptation Fund (adaptation-fund.org) database in
38 October 2020, a large number are broad based initiatives that may have considerable indirect benefits for
39 health systems, such as enhanced disaster preparedness and food security, but none were explicitly aimed at
40 strengthening health systems or channeled funds through state ministries of health. A recent survey of
41 national public health organization representatives from a mix of low-, middle- and high-income countries
42 found that a lack of political commitment, insufficient coordination across sectors, and inadequate funding
43 for public health-specific adaptation initiatives as being common barriers to building climate resilience
44 (Marcus and Hanna 2020). Under-investment in climate-specific initiatives in health systems coincides with
45 persistent under-investment in health care more generally relative to other government spending, especially
46 in low and middle income countries (Schäferhoff et al 2019).

47
48 *Adaptation financing often does not reach places where the climate-sensitivity of the health sector is greatest*
49 *(Weiler, 2019).* Financial constraints are reported in African contexts as one of the key reasons for slow
50 implementation of adaptation measures for health (Nhamo & Muchuru, 2019). Strengthening health systems
51 in vulnerable countries has the potential to reduce current and future economic costs related to environmental
52 health risks, thus enabling reinvestment in the health system and sustainable development (WHO, 2020).
53 Robust and comprehensive climate and health financing builds first on core health sector investments (World
54 Health Organization, 2015). Other potential opportunities for resource mobilization include health-specific
55 funding mechanisms, climate change funding streams, and investments from multi-sectoral action and action
56 in health-determining sectors (World Health Organization, 2015). Incorporating climate change and health
57 considerations into disaster reduction and management strategies could potentially improve funding

1 opportunities and increase potential funding streams (Aitsi-Selmi et al., 2015). Reinforcing cross-sectoral
2 governance mechanisms maximizes health co-benefits and economic savings, by allowing for multisectoral
3 costs and benefits to be comprehensively considered in decision-making (Belesova et al., 2016; WHO,
4 2020). An additional financial need concerns health research, the existing funding for which does not match
5 what is needed to support the implementation of the combined objectives of the UN 2030 Agenda for
6 Sustainable Development, the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction; and the Paris Agreement (Ebi
7 et al., 2016).

8 9 *7.4.2.2.3 Governance, collaboration and coordination*

10 *Effective governance institutions, arrangements, funding and mandates is a key element in adaptation for*
11 *climate-related health risks (high confidence).* Without integration and collaboration across sectors, health
12 adaptation has the potential to become siloed, leading to less effective adaptation or even maladaptation
13 (Magnan et al., 2016, Fox et al., 2019). Integration and collaboration includes working laterally across
14 national government departments and agencies, as well as vertically, from national agencies to local
15 governments, and with the private sector, academia, NGOs and civil society. In this context, top-down policy
16 design and implementation is complemented by bottom-up approaches that engage community actors in
17 program design, and draw upon their local practices, perspectives, opinions and experiences. Opportunities
18 exist to better integrate public health into climate change discourse and policymaking processes and
19 strengthen public health partnerships and collaborative opportunities (Awuor et al., 2020). Creating
20 networks, integration across organizations and jointly developed policies are some ways cross-sectoral
21 collaboration can be carried out (Bowen & Ebi, 2017).

22 23 *7.4.2.3 Incorporating Disaster Risk Reduction into adaptation responses*

24
25 *Integrating health into national disaster risk management plans has wider benefits for resilience and*
26 *adaptation to climate change risks (high confidence).* (UNFCCC, 2017a, Watts et al., 2019). Disaster risk
27 reduction (DRR), including disaster preparedness and response, is widely recognized as important for
28 reducing health consequences of climate-related hazards and extreme weather events (Few, 2007; Keim,
29 2008; Keim, 2011; Paterson et al., 2014; Phalkey and Louis, 2016). Global events, including climate-related
30 extreme events and public health emergencies of international concern (for example, Ebola, MERS and
31 COVID-19) have influenced the development of national public health preparedness and response systems
32 and attracted significant investment over the last two decades (Khan et al., 2015; Murthy et al., 2017;
33 Watson et al., 2017). The Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction and the International Health
34 Regulations establish important global and regional goals for increasing health system resilience, and
35 reducing health impacts from biological hazards and extreme climate events (Aitsi-Selmi et al., 2015; Maini
36 et al., 2017; UNFCCC, 2017b; UNISDR, 2015; Wright et al., 2020). There are explicit links between the
37 health aspect of the Sendai Framework and UN Sustainable Development Goals 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 11, 13, 14,
38 15 and 17 (Wright et al., 2020). More specifically, reducing the number of disaster-related deaths, illnesses
39 and injuries, as well as damage to health facilities are key indicators for achieving the goals set out in the
40 Sendai Framework (UNFCCC, 2017b).

41
42 The intersection of health and multisectoral DRM, recognized as Health Emergency and Disaster Risk
43 Management (Health-EDRM), encompasses approaches from multisectoral DRM, epidemic preparedness
44 and response including the capacities for implementing the International Health Regulations (IHR, 2005),
45 health systems strengthening and health systems resilience (Lo et al., 2017; World Health Organization,
46 2019; Wright et al., 2020). Health-EDRM costs are affordable for most governments and are notably lower
47 than the cost of inaction (Peters et al., 2019). Additional per capita costs in low-income countries range from
48 4.33 USD (capital) and 4.16 USD (annual recurrent costs), to additional 1.35 USD (capital) and 1.41 USD
49 (annual recurrent costs) in upper middle-income countries (Peters et al., 2019). Adopting a Health-EDRM
50 approach supports the systematic integration of health and multisectoral DRM to ensure a holistic approach
51 to health risks and assists alignment of action in health security, climate change and sustainable development
52 (Chan and Shi, 2017; Dar et al., 2014; World Health Organization, 2019; Wright et al., 2020).

53
54 *Climate-informed Health-EDRM is crucial for the climate resilience of health systems (World Health*
55 *Organization, 2015), particularly to account for additional risks and uncertainties associated with climate*
56 *change and allow for well-planned, effective and appropriate DRM and adaptation (Watts et al., 2018a;*
57 *World Health Organization, 2013; World Health Organization, 2015).* Potential coherent approaches to

1 addressing climate change and disaster risks to health include: strengthening health systems, vulnerability
2 and risk assessment which incorporate disaster and climate change risk, building resilience of health systems
3 and health infrastructure, and climate-informed EWSs (Banwell et al., 2016; Phalkey and Louis, 2016).
4 However, a review of DRR projects including climate change in South Asia found that the health sector was
5 the least represented with only 2% of 371 projects relating to health (Mall et al., 2019) indicating a need to
6 strengthen the incorporation of climate change in Health-EDRM. Current tracking under the Sendai
7 Framework of Disaster Risk Reduction 2015-2030 shows that most countries (particularly low-income
8 countries and lower-middle income countries) still lack robust systems of integrated risk monitoring and
9 early warning (UNEP 2018).

10 11 7.4.2.4 *Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning*

12
13 *Monitoring, evaluation and learning (MEL) is a process that is important for ensuring the long term success*
14 *of climate adaptation planning in the health sector.* MEL describes a process that includes baseline
15 assessment, selection of priority actions and activities, identification of important indicators to track, ongoing
16 collection of data on these indicators, and periodic consideration of new information, as well as ongoing
17 progress relative to stipulated goals (Kruk et al 2015). One of the challenges for MEL in the context of
18 adaptation is that climate risks vary as a function of time, location, socioeconomic development,
19 demographics, and activities in other sectors (Ebi et al., 2018). MEL indicators in the health sector need to
20 account for factors related to governance, implementation, and learning as well as for important exposures,
21 impacts, and programmatic activities, all of which are context dependent and are often outside the health
22 sector (Ebi et al., 2018; Fox et al., 2019). A survey of national ministries of health from 101 countries over
23 2017/2018 found approximately 50% had developed national health and climate strategies, over 2/3 of these
24 within the preceding 5 years, and 48/101 had conducted a vulnerability and adaptation assessment for health
25 (Watts et al 2019). However, the majority of countries reported only moderate or low levels of
26 implementation with financing being cited as the most common barrier (24 out of 43 respondents),
27 specifically due to a lack of information on opportunities, a lack of connection by health actors to climate
28 change processes and a lack of capacity to prepare country proposals.

29
30 *There is as yet no universal standardized approach to monitoring or evaluating adaptation activities in the*
31 *health sector (high confidence).* Considerable work has been done to identify candidate indicators of climate
32 change health impacts and adaptation activity, typically at the national level (Bowen and Ebi, 2017; Cheng
33 and Berry, 2013; English et al., 2009; Environmental Protection, 2010; Kenney et al., 2016; Navi et al.,
34 2017; World Health, 2015). Recent work suggests that indicators are best grouped by category of activity,
35 i.e. indicators of vulnerability, risk, and exposure; indicators of impacts; and indicators of adaptation and
36 resilience (Ebi et al., 2018). As health adaptation expands, enhanced monitoring will be needed to ensure that
37 scientific advances are translated into policy and practice. An initiative that has emerged since AR5 that
38 shows considerable value is the *Lancet Countdown*, which represents a global effort at tracking various
39 indicators of exposures, impacts, adaptation activities, finance, and media activity related to climate change
40 and health (Watts et al., 2018b).

41
42 *Community-based monitoring of adaptation responses to health impacts, especially in Indigenous*
43 *communities, has not been widely undertaken, despite it being a promising strategy to improve monitoring*
44 *of, and local adaptation to, environmental change* (Kipp et al., 2018). The health sector has been particularly
45 weak at recognizing climate impacts on and adaptation needs of Indigenous communities and in engaging
46 Indigenous communities in monitoring progress (Ford et al., 2018, David-Chavez et al., 2018; Galloway-
47 McLean, 2017). Successful adaptation to the health impacts of climate change in Indigenous communities
48 requires recognition of their rights to self-determination, focusing on Indigenous conceptualizations of
49 wellbeing, prioritize Indigenous knowledge, and be grounded in a broader agenda of decolonization, health
50 and human rights (*high confidence*) (Ford et al., 2015; Green and Minchin, 2014; Hoy et al., 2014; Jones,
51 2019; Jones et al., 2014; Mugambiwa, 2018; Nursey-Bray and Palmer, 2018).

52
53 *Attribution to climate change as a risk factor, which can be difficult to parse* (Ebi et al., 2017) *is rarely*
54 *addressed for most adaptation outcomes* (Ebi et al., 2018). Indicators should capture measures of process
55 that drive adaptation readiness, including measures that facilitate progress such as leadership, institutional
56 learning, and intersectoral collaboration (Ford and King, 2015), as well as outcome measures such as
57 presence of programming known to reduce risk (Ebi et al., 2018). Additionally, indicators related to scaling

1 up of interventions known to be effective, relying on implementation science frameworks (Damschroder et
2 al., 2009; Theobald et al., 2018), would be a helpful addition in this category but have not yet been fully
3 elaborated (Ebi et al., 2018; Fox et al., 2019). The issue of specificity, and the extent to which monitoring,
4 evaluation and learning of adaptation in the health sector should focus on programming related to and
5 impacts attributable to climate change remains unresolved. This can most likely be addressed with a
6 combination of indicators related to overall health system performance and population vulnerability, with
7 indicators more specifically related to climate change and related vulnerability, risks, impacts, and adaptation
8 activities (Ebi et al., 2018).

9 10 7.4.2.5 *Perceptions of climate change risks and links to adaptation*

11 *Adaptation decisions and responses to climate change can be influenced by perceptions of risks, which are a*
12 *function of individuals' characteristics, knowledge and experience (medium agreement, medium evidence).*

13 Institutional and governmental responses are critical for adapting to climate-related risks in health and other
14 sectors, but individual responses are also relevant. Individual responses are in turn strongly affected by
15 perceptions that climate change is real and requires a response (Ogunbude et al., 2019). Perceptions of
16 climate risks are formed by such things as including experiencing changes in local weather and observing
17 environmental changes (Hornsey et al., 2016), experiences of extreme weather events (van der Linden,
18 2015), knowledge about climate change impacts (van der Linden, 2015), and individual characteristics such
19 as values and worldviews (Poortinga et al. 2019) (*high agreement, medium evidence*). In addition to
20 perceptions of risk, the likelihood that an individual will implement behavioural adaptations, or support
21 relevant public policy, is a function of subjective assessments of the response options. Research examining
22 individual variation in adaptation responses includes studies of disaster preparation (Bamberg et al. 2017;
23 van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019) and examining measures taken to protect oneself from high temperatures
24 (Akompab et al. 2013). Personal experiences with climate hazards tend to have only a small impact on
25 disaster preparations (Bamberg et al., 2017, Valkengoed & Steg, 2019). There is mixed evidence from
26 research regarding the extent to which beliefs in the reality of climate change, perceived risks of climate
27 change, and accepting personal responsibility predict probability of implementing response options in the
28 form of personal disaster preparations (Hornsey et al., 2016; van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019, Brenkert-Smith
29 et al 2015). Risk perceptions include both logical assessments about the likelihood and severity of climate
30 change impacts, and affective feelings about those impacts. On average, affective measures of risk
31 perception are more strongly associated with disaster preparation than cognitive measures (Bamberg et al.,
32 2017; van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019). Place attachment, having a strong emotional connection to a particular
33 location, is weakly associated with disaster preparation (Brügger et al 2015). In some cases place attachment
34 may inhibit adaptive responses, either by reducing perceptions of risk, or by making people reluctant to leave
35 an area that is threatened (de Dominicis et al., 2015; van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019).

36
37
38 *Efficacy beliefs, social norms, and subjective resilience, have implications for communication about the need*
39 *for climate adaptation.* Efficacy beliefs represent the belief in one's ability to carry out particular action and
40 the belief that the action will have the desired outcome. Belief that one is personally able to complete a
41 behavior is moderately associated with engaging disaster preparations (van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019) and
42 with adaptation intentions in a study of Chinese farmers (Burnham & Ma, 2017). *Collective efficacy*, the
43 belief that a group of people working together are able to achieve a desired outcome, is important for
44 participating in community adaptation behaviors (Bandura, 1982; Chen, 2015; Thaker et al 2015). Related to
45 this is *response efficacy*, a belief that a behavior will achieve its desired outcome, which is also moderately
46 associated with engaging in disaster preparations (van Valkengoed & Steg, 2019). Collective efficacy can
47 potentially be developed by strengthening communication networks and social ties within a community.
48 Examples in which groups of similar others have engaged in a desired response can increase motivation to
49 comply with the norm illustrated and convey collective efficacy, which can also translate into stronger
50 perceptions of personal efficacy (Jugert et al., 2016).

51
52 Distinct from efficacy beliefs, subjective resilience is a more general optimism or belief about one's ability
53 (Jones, 2019; Khanian et al 2019). Subjective resilience (Clare et al 2017), can influence preferred responses
54 to climate change via assessment of one's ability to engage in specific response options. Identities can
55 influence assessment of subjective resilience. For example, one study found that those with greater
56 attachment to a region were more likely to perceive that they had the capacity to adapt to drought conditions,

1 which led them to decide to stay and cope with these conditions rather than migrate (Khanian et al., 2019;
2 see also Jones, 2019).

3 4 *7.4.2.6 Transformative actions in the health sector*

5
6 Chapter 1 of this report places emphasis on the need for transformative change across sectors to respond to
7 the risks of climate change. Context determines when adaptation limits have been reached, and how
8 profound a transformational change is needed; context specificity is thus one of the most complex challenges
9 in making generalized prescriptions for transformational change (IPCC, 2017), and complicates decisions of
10 how to prioritize strategies and actions to implement them once these are identified. A simple example from
11 the field of climate and health human heat tolerance illustrates. Core body temperatures can reach lethal
12 levels under sustained periods of ambient temperatures of 35°C or more (or at lower temperatures if there is
13 significant exertion (Wheeler, 2018)), such as will become more common in many regions (IPCC, 2018).
14 The adaptation response to this challenge depends heavily on the socio-economic context. For example, in
15 high-income countries, common adaptation measures include the use of air conditioning, visits to swimming
16 pools and so forth (Willett and Sherwood, 2012). Such options are often not readily available to many people
17 in low-income countries, and so transformational development trajectories are needed to expand access to
18 these and other options.

19
20 In literature pertinent to climate risk responses in the health sector and multispectral responses for health,
21 three types of transformational change that are encountered are:

- 22
23 - Universal Health Coverage, which leads to a substantial reduction in vulnerability by increasing health care
24 access; informative examples come from a range of countries including Iran (Ahmadnezhad et al, 2019) and
25 Turkey (Caner et al 2018; Stokes et al, 2015; Tigril et al 2018)
- 26
27 - coordinated adaptation strategies across health, food, energy and transport sectors that reduce vulnerability
28 (see section 7.4.2.1.3; also Ranabhat et al. 2018; Charlesworth & Jamieson, 2018), and
- 29
30 - cobenefits in reducing emissions and thereby reducing exposure to future a range of heat and respiratory
31 risks.

32
33 With regard to emissions reductions, the health sector has considerable opportunity to reduce its own carbon
34 footprint, and by doing so would contribute to mitigation efforts, and help reduce health burdens associated
35 with air quality (Vidal et al, 2014; Duane et al, 2019; Charlesworth & Jamieson, 2019; Charlesworth et al
36 2018; Guetter et al, 2018; Bharara et al, 2018; Frumkin, 2018). Health systems are large carbon polluters
37 have the potential to look beyond traditional 'green' initiatives towards more fundamental, longer-term
38 redesign of current service models, with health practitioners participating actively in this process
39 (Charlesworth & Jamieson, 2018). As one small the type of food served in hospitals influence its carbon
40 footprint of a hospital, which can in turn be lowered depending on the type of food being served (Vidal et al,
41 2014). Other options include investing in energy efficient lighting (which is also a cost-saving measure),
42 rainwater harvesting systems, solar water heating systems, and replacing fossil fuel use in the power used for
43 heating and laundry systems (Bharara et al, 2018). Examples of recent and ongoing initiatives include those
44 undertaken by the Kaiser Permanente and the Gundersen Clinics in the US; the UK National Health Service;
45 Canada's Health Care without Harm Programme in Canada; and the Green Hospital Initiative in New Delhi
46 (Frumkin, 2018; Bharara et al, 2018).

47 48 *7.4.2.7 Reproductive health care access as transformative change*

49
50 Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 3.7 commits the international community to ensuring universal access
51 to reproductive health-care services, including for family planning, information and education, and the
52 integration of reproductive health into national strategies and programs (UNGA, 2015). Its achievement
53 would represent a transformative change that greatly enhances families' resilience and reduces vulnerability
54 to a range of climate-related and non-climatic risks. Female education is an essential component of adaptive
55 capacity to climate change (Lutz et al. 2014; Sorensen et al. 2018). Adolescent pregnancy has negative
56 effects on education outcomes at both secondary and tertiary level, with especially negative effects at earlier
57 ages (Berthelon et al. 2017; Timaeus and Moultrie, 2015). Emergencies resulting from climate-related

1 extreme events have a range of impacts on physical, mental and reproductive health, including increased risk
2 of maternal and infant mortality and morbidity, increased risk of sexual and other forms of gender-based
3 violence, disruption in access to family planning, and disruption of prevention of mother to child
4 transmission regimens for HIV positive pregnant women (Global Facility for Disaster Reduction and
5 Recovery 2014; Dar 2014). Post-disaster needs assessments for varying climate-related hazards, including
6 cyclones in the Pacific and extended drought in Angola, have identified significant sexual and reproductive
7 health and gender-based violence needs as part of response and recovery (Government of Vanuatu 2015;
8 Government of Angola, 2017). Integrating the planning and delivery of Reproductive Health (RH), for
9 instance through strengthening the linkages between HIV and other services, optimizes resources and
10 opportunities for improving universal access to SRH in communities, including during disaster response.

11
12 Increased access to reproductive health services and family planning can result in multiple health and well-
13 being benefits for women and their children, including increased education, empowerment and economic
14 status. Collectively, these benefits help reduce human vulnerability to climate change impacts (Onarheim et
15 al. 2016; Starbird et al. 2016). Meeting the unmet need for reproductive health services in areas that have
16 high fertility and high vulnerability to climate change can improve human health and build climate resilience
17 in low- and middle-income settings (Hardee et al. 2018; Lopez-Carr and Ervin 2017; Bongaarts and O’Neill
18 2018; Sinaga et al. 2015; Robson 2017)(*high confidence*).

19 20 **7.4.3 Migration and Adaptation in the Context of Climate Change**

21 22 *7.4.3.1 Linkages between migration, adaptation, household resilience*

23
24 AR5 Chapter 17 (Human Security) concluded that migration is often, though not in all situations, a potential
25 form of adaptation initiated by households, and subsequent peer reviewed research provides further support
26 for that conclusion. *The “solutions space” for climate-related migration is shaped by the circumstances*
27 *under which migration occurs, and the degree of agency under which household migration decisions are*
28 *made; these determine if the outcomes are successful in terms of advancing the wellbeing of the household*
29 *and providing benefits to sending and receiving communities (high confidence)* (Adger et al 2015, Cattaneo
30 et al 2019; Cross-Chapter Box MIGRATE). Evidence from refugee studies and general migration research
31 indicate that higher agency migration, in which migrants have mobility options, are allowed opportunities for
32 integrating into labour markets at the destination, and are able to easily remit money home, has the greatest
33 potential for generating benefits for migrant households and for sending and receiving communities
34 (International Organization for Migration 2019). Bilateral agreements that facilitate this have been identified
35 as being especially urgently needed for Pacific small island states (Weber 2017).

36
37 *Adaptive migration and the implied assumption that people can or should simply move out of harm’s way is*
38 *not a substitute for underinvestment in adaptive capacity building (high confidence)* (Bettini and Gioli 2016).
39 Climate-related migration most often occurs only after *in situ* adaptation options have been exhausted and
40 where government actions are inadequate (Adger et al 2015, Ocello 2015). The threshold at which household
41 adaptation transitions from *in situ* measures to migration is highly context specific and reflects the degree of
42 exposure to specific climate risks, mobility options and the socio-economic circumstances of the household
43 and the local community (McLeman 2017, Adams and Kay 2019). A consistent theme in the research
44 literature is that proactive investments in health, social, and physical infrastructure including those not aimed
45 specifically at climate risks build societal adaptive capacity and household resilience, thereby expanding the
46 range of adaptation options available to households and increasing the likelihood that, when migration does
47 occur, it does so under conditions of high agency that lead to greater chances of success. Identifying
48 appropriate solutions that create climate-resilient communities benefits from understanding exposed
49 populations’ social and economic needs (Adams & Kay, 2019).

50 51 *7.4.3.2 Climate, migration and linkages to labour markets and social networks*

52
53 *Adaptive climate-related migration is often closely related to wage-seeking labour migration (medium*
54 *confidence)*. Because of the circumstances under which they move, climate-related migrants’ destination and
55 labour market choices, and the returns from migration, may be more heavily constrained than are those of
56 other labour migrants (Jessoe et al 2018, Wrathall and Suckall 2016). Within low- and middle-income
57 countries, rural-urban migrant networks (often referred to as ‘trans-local’ networks) are important channels

1 for remittances that help build socio-economic resilience to climate hazards (Porst and Sakdapolrak 2020),
2 with higher levels of wage-seeking labour participation having been observed in climate-sensitive locales in
3 South Asia (Maharjan et al 2020). Social networks are a key asset in helping climate migrants overcome
4 financial and structural impediments to their mobility, but these have their limits, particularly with respect to
5 international migration. Since AR5, greater restrictions have emerged on movement between low- and high-
6 income countries, suggesting future climate migrants may be constrained in their destination options
7 (McLeman 2019). Transnational diasporic connections are a potential asset for building resilience in sending
8 communities highly exposed to climatic risks, with migrants' remittances potentially providing resources for
9 long term resilience building, recovery from extreme events, and reducing income inequality (Bragg et al,
10 2018, Mosuela and Matias 2015, Obokata and Veronis 2018, Shayegh 2017). Safe and orderly labour
11 migration is consequently a potentially beneficial component of wider cross sectoral approaches to building
12 adaptive capacity and supporting sustainable development in regions highly exposed to climate risks
13 (McLeman 2019)

14 7.4.3.3 *Attitudes toward climate migration*

15 *An important determinant of the success of climate-related migration as an adaptive response relates to how*
16 *migrants are perceived and how policy discussions are framed.* The possibility that climate change may
17 enlarge international migrant flows has in some policy discussions been interpreted as a potential threat to
18 the security of destination countries (Sow et al, 2016, Telford 2018), but there is little evidence of such in the
19 literature assessed for this chapter. There is also an inconsistency between framing in some policy
20 discussions of undocumented migration (climate-related and other forms) as being “illegal” and the
21 objectives of the Global Compact on Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration adopted by UN member states in
22 2018 (McLeman 2019). Although AR4 and AR5 explicitly rejected the framing of climate-related migrants
23 as being ‘environmental refugees’, the term continues to persist in popular media and policy discussions
24 (Høeg and Tulloch 2018, Wiegel et al 2019). The framing of migration policy discussions is relevant, for
25 example, in discussing climate adaptation options for Pacific small island states, where there is considerable
26 disagreement over policy discussions that range from a ‘migration-with dignity’ approach that would
27 liberalize labour migration in the Pacific region, to those that see migration as a last resort option to be
28 avoided as much as possible (McNamara 2015, Farbotko and McMichael 2019, Oakes 2019, Remling 2020).
29 A more beneficial policy framing in terms of ensuring that future migration contributes to climate resilience
30 and sustainable development has been established since AR5 within the framework of the Global Compact
31 for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration (see 7.4.3.5).
32
33

34 *Attitudes with respect to climate-related migration that occurs within countries are relevant to adaptation*
35 *polycymaking.* Research from Kenya and Vietnam shows that residents of receiving communities view
36 environmental drivers as being legitimate reasons for people to move and are unlikely to stigmatize such
37 migrants (Spilker et al 2020). Case studies from India suggesting that a lack of recognition by local
38 authorities of climatic factors as being legitimate drivers of rural-urban migration may lead to discrimination
39 against migrants in terms of access to housing and other social protections, thereby undermining household
40 resilience (Chu and Michael 2018).
41

42 7.4.3.4 *Planned relocation and managed retreats*

43 *There is high agreement among existing studies that immobile populations often have greater vulnerability*
44 *and/or higher long term exposure to climate hazards than other populations, and that non-climatic political*
45 *and social factors within countries may strongly constrain mobility* (Zickgraf 2019, Ayeb-Karlsson et al
46 2020). Section 7.2 of this chapter highlighted the particular vulnerability of immobile populations that are
47 unable or unwilling to relocate in the face of growing risks. However, research suggests governments should
48 be slow to label such populations as being ‘trapped’ or to actively promote relocations in the absence of local
49 agreement that *in situ* adaptation options have been exhausted (Adams 2016, Farbotko and McMichael
50 2019). Considerable health implications can potentially emerge within populations that are relocated as part
51 of planned retreat, and represent an important consideration for planners (Dannenberg et al 2019).
52
53

54 *Where in situ adaptation options are exhausted, disruptive and expensive abandonments and organized*
55 *relocations of coastal settlements may become increasingly necessary in coming decades, especially in*
56 *coastal locations exposed to extreme storms, floods and sea level rise (high confidence)* (Hauer 2017, Hino
57

1 et al 2017). The financial costs of managed retreat are high, ranging from US\$10,000 per person in examples
2 from Fiji, to US\$100,000 per person in Louisiana, USA (Hino et al 2017). Managed retreat is politically and
3 emotionally charged, will not necessarily be undertaken autonomously by exposed populations, and is most
4 successful when approached proactive and strategically requires a strategic approach to avoid increasing the
5 socio-economic vulnerability of those who are relocated (Bronen & Chapin 2013, Kousky 2014, Wilmsen
6 and Webber 2015, Chapin et al, 2016, Hauer et al 2019). Key considerations for protecting the rights and
7 wellbeing of people who might need to be resettled include proactive communication with and participation
8 of the affected communities, availability of compensation, livelihood protection, and ensuring there is
9 permanence and security of tenure at the relocation destination (Tadgell et al 2018). Availability of funds for
10 resettlement, how to manage relocation from communally owned lands, how to value privately owned land
11 to be abandoned, and the potential for loss and damage claims are just some of the many additional
12 complications involved (Marino, 2018; McNamara et al 2018).

13 7.4.3.5 *International policy frameworks for migration that lead to climate-resilient development*

14 *Changes in the geographical characteristics of the human niche in coming decades due to anthropogenic*
15 *warming (Xu et al 2020) will coincide with a growing demographic gap between agings, slow-growing*
16 *populations in high-income countries and rapidly growing, youthful populations in low-income countries*
17 *(UN DESA 2019). Given this confluence, coordinated national and international strategies that integrate*
18 *migration considerations with wider adaptation and sustainable development policies may present the most*
19 *climate-resilient development pathways. Since AR5, the international community has established*
20 *policy-making frameworks consistent with scholarly literature on how to make climate-related migration a*
21 *positive contribution toward adaptive capacity building and sustainable development more broadly (Warner*
22 *2018).*

23 *An important policy framework for responding to climate-related migration has emerged since AR5, the*
24 *2018 Global Compact on Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Among its 23 objectives, the Compact*
25 *explicitly encourages the international community to implement migration policies to facilitate voluntary*
26 *migration and manage more frequent involuntary displacements due to climate change, especially in low-*
27 *and middle-income countries. The Compact's objectives include reducing barriers to legal and safe*
28 *migration, facilitating the freer flow of remittances between sending and receiving communities, and in*
29 *doing so increase the potential for migration to make positive contributions to sustainable development and*
30 *to adaptive capacity-building. There are particular provisions from climate- and disaster-related migration*
31 *and displacement. Objective 2 of the Compact aims at reducing drivers of involuntary or low-agency*
32 *migration, and recommends that states establish systems for sharing information on environmental*
33 *migration, develop climate adaptation and resilience strategies harmonized at subregional and regional*
34 *levels; and cooperate on disaster risk prevention and response. Other objectives in the Compact relevant to*
35 *climate-related migration include Objective 5 (increasing pathways for regular migration) and Objective 19*
36 *(facilitating migrants' ability to contribute to sustainable development). Objective 18, which links migration*
37 *and skills development, is consistent with the 'migration with dignity' proposal advanced by the government*
38 *of Kiribati described above.*

39 Pursuant to the Paris Agreement, a task force was struck by the Warsaw International Mechanism to make
40 recommendations to the Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC on how to reduce the risks of climate-
41 related displacement. Its 2018 report recommended that parties work toward development of national
42 legislation, cooperate on research, strengthen preparedness, integrate mobility into wider adaptation plans,
43 work toward safe and orderly migration, and provide assistance to people internally displaced for climate-
44 related reasons. Such recommendations dovetail strongly with the objectives of the Compact on Migration
45 and with the Sendai Framework for Disaster Risk Reduction and the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals.
46 The SDGs, which include multiple goals and targets in which migration plays an explicit role in fostering
47 development (Nurse 2019), may be seen as completing the international policy arrangements necessary for
48 addressing future climate-related migration and displacement.

49 7.4.4 *Adaptation Solutions for Reducing Conflict Risks*

50 *Policy responses and strategies that localize development and expand the adaptation and mobility options of*
51 *populations exposed to climatic risks are also likely to generate co-benefits in terms of reducing risks of*

1 *climate-related conflict and political instability (high agreement, medium evidence)*. AR5 concluded that
2 climate change affects underlying drivers of conflict such as poverty and inequality, and that the impacts of
3 conflict, and being conflict-affected reduces adaptive capacity. *Recent research is consistent with AR5*
4 *conclusions that conflict will have a negative impact on adaptive capacity (high agreement, medium*
5 *evidence)* (Crawford et al, 2015). Sections 7.2 and 7.3 highlighted how climate variability is associated with
6 changes in the nature of violent conflict, rather than its onset, and that the presence of contradictory findings
7 on climate-conflict linkages reflect high levels of context specificity and methodological issues. Solutions for
8 climate and conflict are emerging from research on the potential implication for peacebuilding, and reflect
9 differing approaches taken by researchers and by practitioners within the security and military communities
10 (Jayaram, 2020; Diez et al, 2016). While the practitioner community requires information on monitoring,
11 evaluation and how to assess the efficacy of interventions to prevent climate conflict (Gilmore, 2018), the
12 academic community has focused instead on understanding causal pathways between conflict and
13 environmental variables (Barnett, 2018). There has been increased activity within the international
14 community on climate-conflict linkages since AR5, with high level actions including the UN Climate
15 Security Mechanism, launched in 2018, tasked with providing integrated climate risk assessments to the UN
16 Security Council and other UN bodies, in partnership with UN and external actors (UNDPPA, 2019). G7
17 governments have initiated an integrated agenda for resilience (Ruttinger et al. 2015) and the Berlin Call for
18 Action in 2019 sought foreign policy as a platform to address climate security concerns. Non-peer-reviewed
19 ‘grey literature’ regarding policy and research about climate-related conflict is disproportionately generated
20 by a small number of consultancies working for particular governments, and needs to be interpreted
21 accordingly

22
23 *The environment can form the basis for active peace building and a sustainable natural environment is*
24 *important for ongoing peace (high agreement, medium evidence)*. Environmental peacebuilding (EP)
25 involves preserving the natural environment such that changes do not contribute to violence; protecting
26 natural resources during conflict and using natural resources as core factor in post-conflict economic
27 recovery (Kron, 2019). Ide (2020) maps out five sets of key EP practices three of which directly relate to
28 climate change: i) ‘climate-security’ activities, including efforts to reduce grievances and incentives for
29 violence by adapting to climate change and building resilient livelihoods; ii) Disaster risk reduction (DRR)
30 and post disaster reconstruction, that aim to address existing conflict dynamics or to promote social cohesion
31 through environmental work; and, iii) shared environmental challenges as incentives for joint problem-
32 solving, which can facilitate better intergroup relations. There is emergent evidence for the success of these
33 pathways, for example a resource sharing agreement on the Kenya-Uganda border brokered by Mercycorps
34 (see Abrahams, 2020); but their long-term impacts on sustaining peace are yet to be monitored and evaluated
35 (Ide and Tubi, 2019).

36
37 The United Nations Environment Programme, the European Union and Adelphi have developed a toolkit for
38 addressing climate fragility risks in peacebuilding, adaptation and livelihoods support (UNEP, EU, Adelphi,
39 2019). Crawford et al (2015) provide concrete suggestions in line with the UN Secretary-General’s five
40 peacebuilding dimensions, including integrating ex-combatants through the construction of climate resilient
41 infrastructure, using climate impacts as a platform to engage previously conflicting groups, developing
42 national disaster risk reduction and management strategies, in addition to climate-proofing economic
43 development activities. The United States Agency for International Development, in a report prepared for the
44 Adaptation Thought Leadership and Assessments (ATLAS) program (Adelphi & Chemonics 2020) builds on
45 the work of the community of practice as well as lessons learned from resilience and peacebuilding programs
46 in the Horn of Africa, recommend two critical conditions to ensure work addresses compound climate
47 fragility risks. Firstly, conducting local analyses of the links between climate, conflict, and fragility to
48 identify specific risks to target; and secondly, ensuring long term commitment with a focus on participation
49 and flexibility.

50
51 *There is high agreement within and between the grey and academic literature on a need for conflict-sensitive*
52 *adaptation that focuses on institutional frameworks, conflict management, and governance mechanisms*
53 (Scheffen et al, 2012, Matthew, 2018, Marana et al, 2018). Moreover, such adaptation should be actively
54 utilized for a long-term approach to complex interacting risks and emergencies (Okpara et al. 2018).
55 However, most adaptation activities continue to be planned and implemented under development or climate
56 finance funds without systematic integration of conflict sensitivity. National Adaptation Strategies tend to
57 address conflict and fragility risks implicitly, if they do at all (Tänzler et al, 2019) and there exists no

1 specific guidance for adaptation programming in fragile and conflict-affected contexts. Practitioners and
2 policy researchers have attempted to address this gap by developing guidance and delivering training (e.g.
3 Tänzler et al, 2019; Bob and Bronkhurst, 2014). Crawford and Church (2020) highlight the synergies
4 between adaptation planning under the UNFCCC’s National Adaptation Plan process and conflict reduction.
5 Discussing development more broadly, Abrahams (2020) suggests three barriers to development that
6 incorporate conflict-climate risks: geographically disconnected impacts and outcomes, the threat multiplier
7 discourse, and teleconnected risks across occurring at different scales.

8
9 *Disasters and disaster recovery have the potential to act as windows of opportunity to bring about peace*
10 *(medium evidence, medium agreement)*. There is the potential for extreme weather events and disasters to
11 cause political instability (Donovan, 2016) and governments to use the window of opportunity post-disaster
12 to intensify state repression (Wood and Wright, 2016), to alter insurgent groups’ behaviour (Walch, 2018)
13 and to illuminate the priorities and weaknesses of state actors. Research highlights how different
14 stakeholders use disasters to establish new narratives and alter public opinion (Venugopal and Yasir, 2017).
15 However, some research has demonstrated how the disaster space has had positive impacts in terms of the
16 state-social contract, and strengthening citizenship of marginalized communities, through state action on
17 social protection mechanisms (Siddiqi, 2018; 2019). Thus, there is more scope to investigate the potential for
18 the post-disaster space to offer windows of opportunity for transformative political change (e.g. Pelling and
19 Dill, 2010). A body of literature interrogates the potential for disaster diplomacy; the ability of disaster-risk
20 related activities to reduce conflict and promote cooperation with findings showing that the potential for
21 disasters to bring about peace is limited (e.g. Kelman et al, 2018). Others speak to the risks and opportunities
22 associated with ‘securitizing’ disasters through state and multi-lateral actors, such as the UNSC (Peters,
23 2018).

24
25 *Formal institutional arrangements for natural resource management can contribute to wider cooperation*
26 *and peacebuilding (high agreement, high evidence)* (See also chapter on Water, this report). Evidence from
27 the field of from transboundary water agreements shows that tools employed to adapt to climate change
28 require robust institutions, which are built through agreements and river basin organizations (De Stefano et
29 al. 2012; Milman et al. 2013, Dinar et al. 2015). States are motivated to become involved in environmental
30 cooperation even where there is tension, creating a vehicle for peace (Barquest et al. 2014). Securing
31 cooperation over shared waters often involves negotiations over other associated topics, including foreign
32 policy, and such approaches have long been practiced, as in the case of the Colorado-Rio Grande
33 (Dombrowsky 2010). As such, cooperation over natural resources can be leveraged for wider gains, such as
34 economic development and security, as in the case between China and Kazakhstan (Ho 2017). Conflicts
35 arising from water-related hazards have the potential to devise new measures to address vulnerability (Kallis
36 and Zografos 2014). However, the links between water and its impacts from climate change, conflict and
37 security are highly complex.

38 39 **7.4.5 Climate Resilient Development Pathways**

40
41 Climate-resilient development pathways (CRDP) are development trajectories that combine adaptation and
42 mitigation to realize the goal of sustainable development, with health, well-being, and equity being core
43 elements (see Chapter 18). The integration of adaptation and mitigation in sustainable development can bring
44 co-benefits for health, wellbeing, and equity, and this recognition is starting to inform adaptation and risk
45 management decision-making (Chapter 17). The remainder of the present chapter considers the roles played
46 by health, health systems and wider community well-being in creating CRDP.

47 48 *7.4.5.1 Health and wellbeing co-benefits of climate resilient development pathways*

49
50 Substantial health benefits associated with climate adaptation and mitigation derive from changes in air
51 quality from policies that span several economic sectors (Chang et al. 2017). In economic terms, the
52 incremental health co-benefits of tackling many of the most common air pollutants outweigh the incremental
53 mitigation cost of a 2°C target (Peng, et al 2017; Woodward et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2018). In Europe, Scasny
54 et al (2015) estimated that a mitigation scenario compatible with RCP 2.6 would reduce total pollution costs,
55 mostly from PM2.5, by 84%, with human health benefits equal to more than 1 € trillion over five years. In
56 the EU, ambitious climate mitigation policies could reduce years of lost life due to fine particulate matter

1 from over 4.6 million in 2005 to 1 million in 2050, reduce ozone-related premature deaths from 48,000 to
2 7000, and generate health benefits of 62 billion €/year in 2050 (Schucht et al., 2015)

3
4 Given the overlap in sources of GHGs and co-pollutants in energy systems, energy strategies that pursue
5 GHG emission reductions and improvements in energy efficiency hold significant potential health co-
6 benefits through air pollution emission reductions (high confidence)(Gao et al., 2018). Within these broad
7 categories, however, and under a life cycle assessment lens, there may be significant trade-offs with other
8 environmental impacts (Dong et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2018). Further, in some scenarios, mitigation policies
9 consistent with the NDCs may slow down poverty reduction efforts (Campagnolo & Davide, 2019) with
10 implications for health. A framework of “co-impacts” that assumes neither a general beneficial nature of all
11 implications from mitigation policy nor a hierarchy between climate and other types benefits, may be more
12 adequate (Ürge-Vorsatz et al 2014, Cohen et al 2017). Transitioning to renewable energy sources also
13 presents opportunities for substantial health co-benefits (Gibon et al. 2017; Lacey et al. 2017; Peng et al.
14 2018; Vandyck et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2018). Adherence to planned emission reductions from the Paris
15 Agreement related to renewables would subsequently improve air quality could and prevent 71,000-99,000
16 premature deaths annually by 2030 (Vandyck et al. 2018). This effect increases with a 2° mitigation
17 pathway, with 0.7–1.5 million premature deaths avoided annually by 2050 (Vandyck et al. 2018). Co-
18 benefits are also observed at national and regional levels. For instance, China would expect 55,000–69,000
19 averted deaths in 2030 if it transitioned to a half-decarbonized power supply for its residential and vehicle
20 sectors (Peng et al. 2018).

21
22 Assessment of the whole range of available opportunities for cross-sectoral cooperation and investment that
23 would generate mitigation and adaptation benefits for health and wellbeing is beyond the capacity of this
24 chapter. A closer assessment of several proven areas of opportunity is given in the Cross-Chapter Box
25 HEALTH, with beneficial outcomes for health summarized in the table therein.

26 27 *7.4.5.2 Creating climate-resilient food systems and diets*

28
29 The current food system accounts for up to 30% of total GHG emissions (IPCC ROCC, 2019). Transforming
30 the food system by limiting the demand for GHG-intensive animal foods, and limiting food waste at the
31 consumption level can have significant co-benefits to health and need to be a critical component in climate
32 policies (Hedenus et al. 2014; Ripple et al. 2014; Tirado et al 2017; Springmann et al. 2018; IPCC RS1.5,
33 2018). (High Confidence). Reducing food over-consumption, changing dietary preferences towards less
34 meat, more plant-based protein, and avoiding food waste can contribute significantly to provide healthy diets
35 for all, reduce the food system’s environmental footprint and mitigate climate change (SROC 2019). Healthy
36 diets high in vegetables, fruits, whole grains, pulses, nuts, and seeds, with modest amounts of meat and dairy,
37 promote health and well-being (Nelson et al. 2016; Willet et al. 2019) while also helping to reduce GHG
38 emissions (*high confidence*) (Tilman and Clark 2014; Green et al. 2015; Springmann et al. 2016b; Milner et
39 al. 2017; Springmann 2018b; Willett et al. 2019). A number of studies have shown that reduction of red meat
40 helps reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease and the risk colorectal cancer; and the consumption of more
41 fruits and vegetables can reduce the risk of cardiovascular disease, type II diabetes, cancer, and all causes of
42 mortality (WHO, 2015; Tilman and Clarke 2014; Sabate et. al 2014; Willett et al. 2019).

43
44 Since AR5, a number of studies at national level have estimated health and environmental benefits from
45 dietary shifts to reduce GHG emissions and diet-related non-communicable diseases, while still conforming
46 to WHO dietary recommendations (Green et al. 2015, Milner et al. 2015, Milner et al. 2017, Farchi et al.
47 2017, Song et al. 2017). In China, changing diets in could also mitigate health issues caused by PM2.5 air
48 pollution (Zhao et al. 2017). Studies in the US suggest adoption of healthier diets reduces relative risk of
49 coronary heart disease, colorectal cancer, and type 2 diabetes by 20–45%, reduces health care costs by USD
50 77–93 billion per year (Hallström et al. 2017). Globally, it is estimated that transitioning to more plant-based
51 diets, in line with WHO recommendations on healthy eating could reduce global mortality by 6–10% and
52 food-related greenhouse gas emissions by 29–70% by 2050 (Springmann et al. 2016b). A transformation to
53 healthy diets by 2050 will require substantial dietary shifts (which differ regionally), including a greater than
54 50% reduction in global consumption of foods, such as red meat and sugar, and a greater than 100% increase
55 in consumption of healthy foods, such as nuts, fruits, vegetables, and legumes (Willett et al. 2019). This
56 could prevent up to 11.1 million deaths per year in 2030, a 19.9% reduction of all premature mortality due to
57 prevention of cardiovascular disease, diabetes, and cancer, among others (Willett et al. 2019).

1
2 The Eat Lancet Commission outlines five implementable strategies for achieving a Food System
3 Transformation towards healthy diets: i) international and national commitment to shift towards healthy diets
4 ii) re-orienting agricultural priorities from producing high quantities of food to producing healthy food; iii)
5 sustainably intensify food production to increase high-quality output; iv) strong and coordinated governance
6 of land and oceans; and v) halve food losses and waste, in line with global sustainable development goals,
7 across the food supply chain, from production to consumption (Willet et al. 2019). Options for achieving
8 these include economic incentives for the production and consumption of more fruits, vegetables and pulses;
9 taxing and eliminating subsidies of unhealthy foods; inclusion of sustainability criteria in dietary guidelines;
10 conducting public education campaigns; promoting traditional food cultural heritage and gastronomy;
11 labelling; establishing healthy and sustainable institutional food procurement; and promoting collaboration
12 and shared agreements among others (Garnett, 2015; FAO/FCRN 2016; Springmann et al. 2017; 2018b,
13 Tirado 2017; 2019; Nordic Council Food Policy Lab, 2018; Willet et al. 2019; Swinburn 2019). Ensuring
14 access to healthy, sustainable food for all requires reducing the volatility of food prices, such as by removing
15 market barriers across local regions or markets, ensuring access to price information and early warning
16 systems, implementing strict regulations against speculation, international management of food stocks,
17 revisions of biofuel subsidies and tariffs to avoid diversion of food to energy use (Chapter 5), and
18 establishing social protection schemes, insurance programs, and other safety nets (Torero et al 2016).

19
20
21 [START CROSS-CHAPTER BOX HEALTH HERE]

22 23 **Cross-Chapter Box HEALTH: Co-benefits of Climate Solutions for Human Health and Wellbeing**

24
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33 34 ***Measuring co-benefits of climate action***

35
36 Achieving the Paris Agreement and SDGs requires urgent actions into low-carbon, healthy, resilient and
37 equitable societies with high-wellbeing for all (Alfredsson et al. 2018, O'Neill et al. 2018, Sections 1.5 and
38 7.4, WGIII AR6 Chapter 5). Climate change adaptation and mitigation can have net-positive impacts on
39 health, wellbeing and equity (Westet al. 2013; Chang et al. 2017; Markandya et al. 2018). Measures to adapt
40 to adverse health impacts of climate change can substantially offset mitigation costs at the societal level
41 (Chang et al. 2017; Scasny et al., 2015; Schucht et al., 2015). Estimates of health co-benefits show that
42 pursuit of a 1.5°C of warming would result in 152 ± 43 million fewer premature deaths worldwide between
43 in 2100 (compared to a business-as-usual scenario), particularly due to reductions in exposure to PM2.5
44 (Shindell et al. 2018). Some of the most substantial health, wellbeing and equity benefits associated with
45 climate action derive from investing in basic infrastructure for all: sanitation, clean drinking water, clean
46 energy, affordable healthy diets, clean public transport and improved air quality from transformative
47 solutions across economic sectors including agriculture, energy, transport and buildings (Chang et al. 2017).
48 Many of such measures have strong adaptation potential to reduce the impacts and increase adaptive
49 capacity. This Cross-Chapter Box provides a comprehensive assessment of the co-benefits of climate
50 solutions to health and wellbeing as well as their synergies and trade-offs (Examples of HL Key Messages
51 below and in the Table).

52 53 ***Key messages:***

54
55 ***Access to affordable renewable energy for all.***

1 **Transitioning to affordable renewable energy sources for all, presents opportunities for substantial**
2 **wellbeing, health and equity co-benefits (*High Confidence*)** (Gibon et al. 2017; Lacey et al. 2017; Peng et
3 al. 2018; Vandyck et al. 2018; Williams et al. 2018, Section 7.4, Chapter 18). The largest share (85%) of
4 human-made air pollution derives from fuel combustion related to energy production and use (IEA, 2016).
5 Adherence to planned emission reductions from the Paris Agreement related to renewables would subsequently
6 improve air quality and prevent 71,000-99,000 premature deaths annually by 2030 (Vandyck et al. 2018).
7 (Section 7.4). This effect increases with a 2°C-mitigation pathway, with 0.7-1.5 M premature deaths avoided
8 annually by 2050 (Vandyck et al. 2018). Due to the overlap in sources of GHGs and co-pollutants in energy
9 systems, strategies to reduce GHG emission and improvement in energy efficiency hold significant potential
10 health co-benefits through air pollution emission reductions (Gao et al., 2018, Chapter 18). In some scenarios,
11 mitigation policies consistent with the National Determined Contributions could slow down poverty reduction
12 efforts (Campagnolo & Davide, 2019, Section 7.4, WGIII AR6 Section 6.3). Residential solid fuel use affects
13 health and degraded indoor air quality for up to 3.1 billion people in low and middle-income countries (WHO,
14 2016, Wang et al., 2017).

15 *Urban transformation: healthy, green and inclusive cities*

16 **Investing in basic infrastructure for all - sanitation, clean drinking water, drainage, electricity and**
17 **land-rights, can transform development opportunities, increase adaptive capacity and reduce climate**
18 **risk (*high agreement, high evidence*)** (Sections 6.1 and 6.3). Transformative approaches that deliver
19 enhanced social inclusion and development opportunity for the urban poor as well as reducing climate risk
20 are most likely where local government act in partnership with local communities and other civil society
21 actors (high confidence) (Sections 6.1, 6.3 and 6.4).

22 **Stimulate active transport (walking and bicycling) can bring physical and mental health benefits (*high***
23 ***confidence*)** (7.4) (6.) (8.2 WG III) (Rojas et al. 2016; Avila-Palencia et al. 2018; Gascon et. al 2019). Urban
24 planning that provides high accessibility for active modes, thus shifting car users to cycling and shared
25 pooled mobility, are strategies that combine low-carbon solutions with equitable and healthy societies and
26 high-wellbeing for all (6.4, 13.7.3, 5.3 WGIII). Health benefits from use of public transportation and lower-
27 emission vehicles accrue through improvements in air quality and decreased traffic-related injuries (Gao et
28 al. 2018, Kwan et al. 2017; Sarigiannis et al. 2017; Tainio et al. 2017). The health gains from active transport
29 outweigh traffic-related injuries, due to a decreased incidence of chronic diseases (Ahmad et al. 2017;
30 Maizlish et al. 2017; Tainio et al. 2017; Woodcock et al. 2018).

31 **Urban green spaces contribute to climate change adaptation, mitigation and bringing benefits to**
32 **physical and mental health and wellbeing (*high confidence*)** (Hansen 2017; EC, 2018; WHO, 2018;
33 Rojas-Rueda et al. 2019). (7.4, 13.7.3, 6.) (8.4 WGIII). Urban green infrastructure can bring benefits to
34 mental health and wellbeing and reduce the health impacts of heatwaves by decreasing temperatures
35 (Murague et al. 2020), thus reducing inequities in exposure to heat stress for low income, marginalized
36 groups (Hoffman et al. 2020) (14.4.10.3, 7.4) (6.) (13.7).

37 *Green buildings*

38 **Climate solutions in the building sector offer multiple wellbeing and health co-benefits (*High***
39 ***Confidence*)** Diaz Mendez et al. 2018; MacNaughton et al. 2018) (7.4, 13.6.2,) 9.8 WGIII). These measure
40 can increase health benefits through better indoor air quality, energy/fuel poverty alleviation, better ambient
41 air quality, and elimination of the heat island effect (MacNaughton et al. 2018; Levy et al. 2016; Balaban and
42 Puppim de Oliveira 2017; Tonn et al. 2018; Thema et al. 2017; Payne et al. 2015; Liddell and Guiney 2015)
43 (7.4, 9.8 WGIII). Moreover, such actions are shown to help improve social well-being through energy
44 poverty alleviation, increased productive time, creation of new jobs, increased income, more thermal comfort
45 and lighting indoors, reduced noise impact, etc. (Smith et al. 2016; Payne et al. 2015; Tonn et al. 2018;
46 Berrueta et al. 2017; Galán-Marín et al. 2015; Mehetre et al. 2017; Rosenthal et al. 2018; Burney et al. 2017;
47 McCollum et al. 2018; Thema et al. 2017; Mirasgedis et al. 2014; Alawneh et al. 2019) (7.4, 9.8 WGIII). The
48 value of these multiple co-benefits associated with climate actions in buildings is equal or greater than the
49 costs of energy savings (Ürge-Vorsatz et al. 2016; Payne et al. 2015) (9.8 WGIII). (14.4.5.3, 7.4).

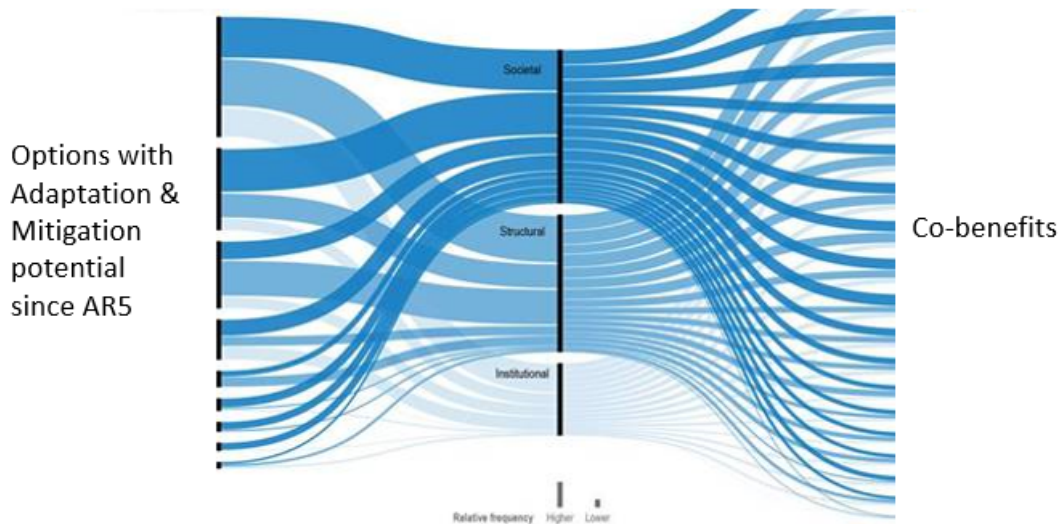
50 *Plant-rich diets and land use reduction*

1
 2 **Limiting the demand for GHG-intensive animal protein and shifting into healthier plant-rich diets can**
 3 **significantly reduce of GHG emissions, and reduce land-use bringing adaptation and health co-**
 4 **benefits especially in regions where ill health related to over-consumption of animal-based products is**
 5 **prevalent (*High Confidence*)(5.WGII) (7.4, 13.5,) (5.WGIII) (7.3 WGIII) (Hedenus et al. 2014; Ripple et**
 6 **al. 2014; Springmann et al. 2018; SRCCL 2019; Clark and Tilman 2017; Poore and Nemecek 2018) Hayek**
 7 **et al. (2020). Transitioning to plant-rich diets, in line with WHO recommendations on healthy eating could**
 8 **reduce global mortality by 6–10% and food-related GHG emissions by 29–70% by 2050 (Springmann et al.**
 9 **2016b; Tilman and Clarke 2014; Sabate et. al 2014; Green et al. 2015, Milner et al. 2015; 2017; Farchi et al.**
 10 **2017, Song et al. 2017). (7.4) (5.4) (6.3 WGIII). Agroecological approaches, including agroforestry, can**
 11 **provide substantial mitigation and adaptation and bring benefits to health and equity (Rosenstock et al. 2019)**
 12 **(5.) (13.5, 14.4.4). Ensuring access to and affordability of healthy diets from sustainable food systems for all**
 13 **requires reducing volatility of food prices, at the regional or local level. (7.4) (14.4.4.3)**

14
 15 ***Transformation toward healthier, equitable, high wellbeing and low-carbon demand societies:***

16
 17 High wellbeing requires decent standards of living for all (5.2. WGIII) (18.). These require 20-50GJ/cap
 18 energy supply for everyone, requiring additional energy for the lower income quintiles in poorer countries
 19 (Rao et al 2019). (5.1 WGIII). Avoiding and shifting energy of high-emitters includes strategies that combine
 20 the low-carbon solutions, highlighted above, with equitable and healthy societies and high-wellbeing for all,
 21 and this replaces a material consumption-based economy with a low-carbon, energy-services, and wellbeing
 22 and equity-oriented economy (O’Neill et al. 2018; Alfredsson et al. 2018) (14.4.7.3) (7.4) (5. WGIII). Civil
 23 society, shaping new social norms, social identity and ensuing collective action, such as forwarded by the
 24 youth Fridays For the Future, are important initiators of a corresponding transition (Bamberg et al. 2015;
 25 Nyborg et al. 2016, 18 WGIII) These need to translate into policy action that reshape infrastructures and
 26 incentives to enable broad buy-in by all societal actors (Creutzig et al. 2016) (14.7).

27
 28
 29
 30 **Co-benefits of adaptation and mitigation to health and wellbeing**



31 **Figure CCB HEALTH.1:** [PLACEHOLDER FOR FINAL DRAFT: Figure 13.11 (shown) will be updated to show a
 32 range of adaptation and mitigation options to reduce climate risks and the health co-benefits this creates. The figure will
 33 collect input from the the various sections of the WGII report].

34 **Table CCB HEALTH.1:** Co-benefits of climate adaptation and mitigation for health and wellbeing

Climate actions Global/National	Adaptation/Mitigation Potential	Co-benefits Health & wellbeing	Co-benefits Economic/Equity	References
Renewables- Global Adherence to planned emission reductions from the Paris Agreement increasing Renewables under different technological pathways	Affordable Clean Energy for all, improved air quality	Reductions in premature mortality amount to 12–19%, and 27–32% in the medium (2030) and long term (2050), depending on the scenario.	Health co-benefits outweigh mitigation costs in every scenario (benefit to cost ratios from 1.45 to 2.19). Reduced inequalities (low income groups are more exposed to air pollution, more likely to benefit). Reduction of energy poverty	Sampedro et al. (2020) Vanduyck et al. 2018, Paavola et al. 2017
Globally Transitioning to more Plant-based diets in line with WHO recommendations on healthy eating	adoption of healthy and sustainable diets, along with food waste reduction contribute to adaptation through reduction in additional land area needed for food production	Adopting diets in line with global dietary guidelines could avoid 5.1M deaths per year by 2050. Adopting vegetarian diets (avoiding 7.3 M deaths) and vegan diets (avoiding 8.1 M deaths) by 2050	Savings of US \$700-\$1,000 billion/year on healthcare, unpaid care and lost working days. Reduced risk of dying could be as high as 9-13% of global GDP or US \$20-\$30 trillion.	Springmann et al. 2016 b CCB AGROECO IPCC SRCCL, 2019 Nelson et al. 2017
Active Transport Cycling/Walking 9 countries	Improved air quality Reduction of Heat Island effect	As a result of the improved active travel participation rates, the total of avoided (*) deaths in country Improved mental health	\$ per additional kilometer cycled \$ per additional Km walked	Sharma et. Al, 2020* -Lancet DfT, Active Travel Toolkit 2019/20
LEED-certified buildings 6 countries	better indoor air quality, energy poverty alleviation, better ambient air quality, reduction of heat island effect	Due to averted co-pollutants as PM2.5, NO _x , S - In the US avoided: 172-405 premature deaths, 11,000 asthma, 54,000 respiratory symptoms,	saved \$7.5B in energy costs \$5.8B (lower limit = \$2.3B, upper limit = \$9.1B) in climate and health co-benefits from 2000 to 2016 in 6 countries	MacNaughton, P. et al. 2017
Clean Cookstoves 20 year phase-out of emissions in countries where > 5% of the pop use solid fuel for cooking	Improved indoor air quality Contribution to food & water safety	Result in 22.5 M fewer premature deaths this century particularly in China, India, Bangladesh Wellbeing - Gender responsive	Contribution to Poverty reduction and Energy Equity Reduced Inequalities	Lacey et al. 2017

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26 [END CROSS-CHAPTER BOX HEALTH HERE]
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Frequently Asked Questions

FAQ 7.1: How will climate change affect physical and mental health and wellbeing?

Climate change will affect human health and wellbeing in a variety of direct and indirect ways. Changes in the magnitude, frequency and intensity of extreme climate events (e.g. storms, floods, wildfires, heatwaves and dust storms) will expose people to increased risks of climate-sensitive illnesses and injuries, and, in worst cases, higher mortality rates. Higher temperatures and changing geographical and seasonal precipitation patterns will facilitate the spread of mosquito- and tick-borne diseases, such as Lyme disease and dengue fever, and water- and food-borne diseases. An increase in the frequency of extreme heat events will exacerbate health risks associated with cardiovascular disease. Access to fresh water will be affected in multiple regions, impairing agricultural productivity, increasing food insecurity, undernutrition, and poverty in low-income areas. Increased risks for mental health and wellbeing are associated with changes caused by direct and indirect impacts of climate change on climate-sensitive health outcomes. Vulnerability to climate change-related health risks is heterogeneous and varies within societies, influenced by social, economic, and geographic factors, as well as by individual differences in pre-existing conditions and developmental stage. Children, pregnant people, elderly people and people with pre-existing health conditions will be particularly vulnerable.

FAQ 7.2: What solutions can effectively protect and improve health and well-being in a changing climate?

There are many options for reducing health risks associated with climate change. A key starting point is strengthening public health systems so that they become more climate resilient, which also requires cooperation with other sectors (water, food, sanitation, transportation, etc) to ensure appropriate funding and progress on sustainable development goals. Building climate resilience into the health sector requires anticipating potential impacts, identifying vulnerable populations, and assessing public health intervention options and needs in terms of health workforce, information systems, and facilities. Interventions to enhance protection against specific climate-sensitive health could reduce morbidity and mortality and prevent many losses and damages. These range from malaria net initiatives, vector control programs, health hazard (syndromic) surveillance and early warning systems, improving access to water, sanitation and hygiene, heat action plans, behavioral changes and integration with disaster risk reduction and response strategies. Reducing socio-economic inequalities and managing the social, environmental and economic determinants of climate-related health risks, will reduce underlying general population and specific community or group vulnerability.

FAQ 7.3: Will climate change lead to wide-scale forced migration and involuntary displacement?

Climate change will have impacts on future migration patterns that will vary by region and over time, depending on the types of climate risks people are exposed to, their vulnerability to those risks, and their capacity – and the capacity of their governments – to adapt and respond. Depending on the range of adaptation options available, households may use migration as a strategy to adapt to climate risks, often through labour migration. The most common drivers of involuntary climate-related displacement are extreme weather events, floods, and droughts, especially when these events cause severe damage to homes, livelihoods and food systems. The specific outcomes differ from one event to another, but most climate related migration takes place within countries, or between immediate neighbouring ones; long-distance international migration occurs, but is less common. Rising sea levels will present a new risk for communities situated in low-lying coastal areas and small island states. Planned relocations of highly exposed communities will increasingly become necessary; these are financially very expensive, and require careful planning and engagement with affected residents to ensure their rights and future wellbeing is not undermined. The greater the scale of future warming and extreme events, the greater the likely scale of future, involuntary climate-related migration; progress toward the sustainable development goals has the opposite effect. Migrant agency (i.e. the degree of freedom people have in deciding whether to migrate and where to go) is an important consideration for making policies for climate migration, with the Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration providing a useful roadmap.

1
2
3 **FAQ7.4: Will climate change increase the potential for violent conflict?**
4

5 Adverse impacts of climate change threaten to increase poverty and inequality, undermine progress in
6 meetings sustainable development goals, and place strain on civil institutions – all of which are factors that
7 contribute to the emergence or worsening of civil unrest and conflict. Climate change impacts on crop
8 productivity and water availability can function as a ‘risk multiplier’ for conflict in areas that are already
9 politically and/or socially fragile and depending on circumstances, could increase the length or the nature of
10 an existing conflict. There is no evidence to suggest that climate change in itself directly triggers violent
11 conflict. Institutional initiatives within or between states to protect the environment and manage natural
12 resources can serve simultaneously as mechanisms for engaging rival groups and adversaries to cooperate in
13 policymaking and peacebuilding.
14

15
16 **FAQ7.5: What role can climate-resilient development pathways (CRDP) play in reducing climate**
17 **change risks to health, well-being, forced migration and conflict?**
18

19 CRDP can lead to improvement in overall health and well-being and reduce underlying causes of
20 vulnerability, and provides a framework for prioritizing mitigation and adaptation options that support
21 sustainable development. Transformative changes in key sectors including water, food, energy,
22 transportation and built environments offer significant co-benefits for health. Ensuring health and well-being
23 are considered in policymaking across sectors, and at all levels from national to local levels, is important for
24 creating CRDP and for understanding, managing and reducing potential trade-offs. There are often close
25 interconnections between health, migration and conflict, and interventions that address climate risks in one
26 area often have synergistic benefits in others. For example, conflicts often result in large numbers of people
27 being involuntarily displaced and facilitate the spread of climate-sensitive diseases; tackling the underlying
28 causes of vulnerability and exposure that generate conflict reduces risks across all areas.
29

30
31 **FAQ 7.6: What are some specific examples of actions taken in other sectors that reduce climate change**
32 **risks in the health sector?**
33

34 Many of the greatest risks of climate change in other sectors lead to adverse impacts on health and
35 wellbeing. Adaptive urban design that provides greater access to green and natural spaces simultaneously
36 enhances biodiversity, improves air quality, and moderates the hydrological cycle; it also helps reduce health
37 risks associated with heat stress and respiratory illnesses, and mitigates mental health challenges associated
38 with congested urban living. Transitioning away from internal-combustion vehicles and fossil fuel-powered
39 generating stations to renewable energy mitigates GHG emissions, improves air quality and lowers risks of
40 respiratory illnesses. Policies and designs that facilitate active urban transport (walking and bicycling)
41 increase efficiency in that sector, reduce emissions, improve air quality, and generate physical and mental
42 health benefits for residents. Improved building and urban design that foster energy efficiency improve
43 indoor air quality reduce risks of heat stress and respiratory illness. Food systems that emphasize healthy,
44 plant-centered diets reduce emissions in the agricultural sector while helping in the fight against
45 malnutrition. The financial benefits of these and other mitigation actions become especially compelling when
46 health system cost savings and avoided years of life lost are included in cost-benefit analyses.
47

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