

The 2023 Report of The *Lancet* Countdown on Health and Climate Change

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[Insert institutional logos for inside cover]

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List of Abbreviations

A&RCC – Adaptation & Resilience to Climate Change
CDP – Carbon Disclosure Project
CFU – Climate Funds Update
CO₂ – Carbon Dioxide
CO_{2e} – Carbon Dioxide Equivalent
COP – Conference of the Parties
ECMWF – European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts
EE MRIO – Environmentally-Extended Multi-Region Input-Output
EH – Extreme Heat
EJ – Exajoule
EM-DAT – Emergency Events Database
ERA – European Research Area
ETS – Emissions Trading System
EU – European Union
FAO – Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
GBD – Global Burden of Disease
GDP – Gross Domestic Product
GHG – Greenhouse Gas
GNI – Gross National Income
GtCO₂ – Gigatons of Carbon Dioxide
GW – Gigawatt
GWP – Gross World Product
HAP – Household Air Pollution
HDI – Human Development Index
HHA – Heat-Health Alert
HNAP – Health National Adaptation Plan

IEA – International Energy Agency
IHR – International Health Regulations
IO – International Organisations
IPC – Infection Prevention and Control
IPCC - Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
IRENA - International Renewable Energy Agency
LPG – Liquefied Petroleum Gas
LT-LEDS – Long-term Low Emissions and Development Strategies
MODIS – Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
MRIO – Multi-Region Input-Output
Mt – Metric Megaton
MtCO_{2e} – Metric Megatons of Carbon Dioxide Equivalent
NAP – National Adaptation Plan
NASA – National Aeronautics and Space Administration (US)
NBS – Nature-based solutions
NCDs – Non-communicable diseases
NDCs - Nationally Determined Contributions
NDVI – Normalised Difference Vegetation Index
NHS – National Health Service
NO_x – Nitrogen Oxide
OECD – Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
O&G – Oil and Gas
PM_{2.5} – Fine Particulate Matter (less than 2.5 micrometres in diameter)
PV – Photovoltaic
SCA – South and Central America
SDG – Sustainable Development Goal
SDU – Sustainable Development Unit
SPEI – Standardised Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index
SSS – Sea Surface Salinity

SST – Sea Surface Temperature

tCO₂ – Metric tons of Carbon Dioxide

tCO₂/TJ – Total Carbon Dioxide per Terajoule

TJ – Terajoule

TPES – Total Primary Energy Supply

TWh – Terawatt Hours

UN – United Nations

UNEP – United Nations Environment Programme

UNFCCC – United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change

UNGA – United Nations General Assembly

UNGD – United Nations General Debate

US\$ – 2022 United States Dollars (unless clarified in the text)

WHO – World Health Organization

WMO – World Meteorological Organization

WNV – West Nile Virus

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1 Executive Summary

2 The *Lancet* Countdown is an international research collaboration independently monitoring the
3 evolving impacts of climate change on health, and the emerging health opportunities of climate
4 action. In its eighth iteration, this 2023 Report draws on the expertise of 114 scientists, and
5 practitioners from 52 research institutions and UN agencies around the world to provide its most
6 comprehensive assessment yet.

7 In 2022, the *Lancet* Countdown warned that people’s health is at the mercy of fossil fuels, and
8 stressed the transformative opportunity of jointly tackling the concurrent climate change,
9 energy, cost of living, and health crises for human health and wellbeing. This year’s report finds
10 few signs of such progress. At the current 1.14°C mean heating above pre-industrial levels,
11 climate change is increasingly impacting the health and survival of people worldwide, and
12 projections show these risks could worsen steeply with further inaction. However, with health
13 matters gaining prominence in climate change negotiations, this report highlights new
14 opportunities to deliver health-promoting climate change action, and deliver a safe, thriving
15 future for all.

16

17 The rising health toll of a changing climate

18 In 2023, the world saw the hottest global temperatures in over 100,000 years, and heat records
19 were broken in all continents through 2022. Adults over 65 years of age and infants under one
20 year old, to whom extreme heat can be particularly life-threatening, are now exposed to twice
21 as many heatwave days as they would have experienced in 1986-2005 (indicator 1.1.2).
22 Harnessing the rapidly advancing science of detection and attribution, new analysis shows that
23 over 60% of the days which reached health-threatening high temperatures in 2020 were made

24 more than twice as likely to occur due to anthropogenic climate change (indicator 1.1.5); and
25 heat-related deaths of people over 65 years increased by 85% compared to 1990-2000,
26 substantially above the 38% increase that would have been expected had temperatures not
27 changed (indicator 1.1.5).

28 Simultaneously, climate change is damaging the natural and human systems upon which people
29 rely for good health. The global land area affected by extreme drought increased from 18% in
30 1951-1960 to 47% in 2013-2022 (indicator 1.2.2), jeopardising water security, sanitation, and
31 food production. A higher frequency of heatwaves and droughts in 2021 was associated with 127
32 million more people experiencing moderate or severe food insecurity compared to 1981–2010
33 (indicator 1.4), putting millions at risk of malnutrition and potentially irreversible health effects.
34 The changing climatic conditions are also putting more populations at risk of life-threatening
35 infectious diseases such as dengue, malaria, vibriosis, and West Nile virus (indicator 1.3).

36 Compounding the direct health impacts, the associated economic losses increasingly harm
37 livelihoods, limit resilience, and restrict funds available to tackle climate change. Economic losses
38 from extreme-weather events increased by 23% between 2010-2014 and 2018-2022, amounting
39 to US\$264 billion in 2022 alone (indicator 4.1.1), while heat exposure led to global potential
40 income losses worth US\$863 billion (indicators 1.1.4 and 4.1.3). Labour capacity loss affected low
41 and medium Human Development Index (HDI) countries most, exacerbating global inequities,
42 with potential income losses equivalent to 6.1% and 3.8% of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP),
43 respectively (indicator 4.1.3).

44 The multiple and simultaneously rising risks of climate change are exacerbating global health
45 inequities and threatening the very foundations of human health. Health systems are increasingly
46 strained, and 27% of surveyed cities declared concerns over their health systems being
47 overwhelmed by the impacts of climate change (indicator 2.1.3). Often due to scarce financial
48 resources and limited technical and human capacity, the countries most vulnerable to climate

49 impacts also face the most challenges in achieving adaptation progress, reflecting the human
50 risks of an unjust transition. Only 44% and 54% of low and medium HDI countries, respectively,
51 reported high implementation of health emergency management capacities, compared to 85%
52 of very high HDI countries (indicator 2.2.5). Additionally, low and medium HDI countries had the
53 highest proportion of cities not intending to undertake a climate change risk assessment in 2021
54 (12%) (indicator 2.1.3). These inequalities are aggravated by the persistent failure of the
55 wealthiest countries to deliver the promised modest sum of 100 US\$ billion annually to support
56 poorer countries in climate action. Consequently, it is those countries that have historically
57 contributed the least to climate change that are bearing the brunt of its health impacts – both a
58 reflection and a direct consequence of the structural inequities that lie within the root causes of
59 climate change.

60

61 [The human costs of persistent inaction](#)

62 The growing threats experienced to date are early signs and symptoms of what a rapidly changing
63 climate could mean for the health of the world's populations. With 1,337 tonnes of CO₂ emitted
64 each second, each moment of delay worsens the risks to people's health and survival.

65 In this year's report, new projections reveal the dangers of further delay in action, with every
66 health dimension tracked worsening as the climate changes. If global mean temperature
67 continues to rise to just under 2°C, annual heat-related deaths are projected to increase by 370%
68 by mid-century, assuming no substantial progress on adaptation (indicator 1.1.5). Under such a
69 scenario, heat-related labour loss is projected to increase by 50% (indicator 1.1.4), and
70 heatwaves alone could lead to 524.9 million additional people experiencing moderate to severe
71 food insecurity by 2041-2060, aggravating the global risk of malnutrition. Life-threatening
72 infectious diseases are also projected to spread further, with the length of coastline suitable for

73 vibrio pathogens expanding by 17%-25%, and the transmission potential for dengue increasing
74 by 36%-37% by mid-century. As risks rise, so will the costs and challenges of adaptation. These
75 estimates provide some indication of what the future could hold. However, lack of accounting
76 for non-linear responses, tipping points, and cascading and synergistic interactions could render
77 these projections conservative, disproportionately increasing the threat to the health of
78 populations worldwide.

79

80 [A world accelerating in the wrong direction](#)

81 The health risks of a 2°C hotter world underscore the health imperative of accelerating climate
82 change action. With limits to adaptation drawing closer, ambitious mitigation is paramount to
83 keep the magnitude of health hazards within the limits of the capacity of health systems to adapt.
84 Yet, years of scientific warnings of the threat to people’s lives have been met with grossly
85 insufficient action, and policies to date put the world on track to almost 3°C of heating,.

86 The 2022 Lancet Countdown report highlighted the opportunity to accelerate the transition
87 away from health-harming fossil fuels in response to the global energy crisis. However, data this
88 year shows a world often moving in the wrong direction. Energy-related CO₂ emissions grew 0.9%
89 to a record 36.8 Gt in 2022 (indicator 3.1.1), and still only 9.5% of global electricity comes from
90 modern renewables (mainly solar and wind energy), despite their costs falling below that of fossil
91 fuels. Concerningly, driven partly by record profits, oil and gas companies are further reducing
92 their compliance with the Paris Agreement: the strategies of the world’s 20 largest oil and gas
93 companies as of early 2023 will result in emissions surpassing levels consistent with Paris
94 Agreement goals by 173% in 2040 – up by 61% from 2022 (indicator 4.2.6). Rather than pursuing
95 accelerated development of renewable energy, fossil fuel companies allocated only 4% of their
96 capital investment to renewables.

97 Meanwhile, global fossil fuel investment grew 10% in 2022, reaching over US\$ 1 trillion (indicator
98 4.2.1). The expansion of oil and gas extractive activities has been supported through both private
99 and public financial flows. Across 2017-2021, the 40 banks that lend most to the fossil fuel sector
100 invested collectively US\$489 billion annually in fossil fuels (annual average), with 52% increasing
101 their lending since 2010-2016. Simultaneously, in 2020, 78% of the countries assessed,
102 responsible for 93% of all global CO₂ emissions, still provided net direct fossil fuels subsidies
103 totalling US\$305 billion, further hindering fossil fuel phase out (indicator 4.2.4). Without a rapid
104 response to course-correct, the persistent use and expansion of fossil fuels will lock-in an
105 increasingly inequitable future that threatens the lives of billions alive today.

106

107 **The opportunity of a healthy future**

108 Despite the challenges, data exposes the transformative health benefits that could come from
109 the transition to a zero-carbon future, with health professionals playing a crucial role in ensuring
110 that these gains are maximised.

111 Globally, 775 million people still live without electricity, and close to one billion people are still
112 served by healthcare facilities that lack reliable energy. With structural global inequities in the
113 development, access, and use of clean energy, only 2.3% of electricity in low HDI countries comes
114 from modern renewables (against 11% in very high HDI countries), and 92% of low HDI country
115 households still rely on biomass fuels to meet their energy needs (against 7.5% in very high HDI
116 countries) (indicators 3.1.1 and 3.1.2). Against this backdrop, the transition to renewables can
117 enable access to decentralised clean energy and, coupled with interventions to increase energy
118 efficiency, can reduce energy poverty and power high quality health-supportive services. By
119 reducing the burning of dirty fuels (including fossil fuels and biomass), such interventions could
120 help avoid a large proportion of the over 1.8 million deaths occurring annually from dirty fuel-
121 derived outdoor air borne particulate matter pollution (PM_{2.5}) (indicator 3.2.1), as well as a large

122 proportion of the 78 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants associated with exposure to indoor air
123 pollution (indicator 3.2.2). Additionally, the just development of renewable energy markets can
124 generate net employment opportunities with safer, more locally-available jobs. Key to
125 maximising health gains is that ensuring countries, particularly those facing high levels of energy
126 poverty, are supported in the safe development, deployment and adoption of renewable energy,
127 thus preventing unjust extractive industrial practices that can harm the health and livelihoods of
128 local populations, and a widening of health inequities.

129 With fossil fuels accounting for 95% of road transport energy (indicator 3.1.3), interventions to
130 enable and promote safe active travel and zero-emission public transport can further deliver
131 emissions reduction, promote health through physical activity, and avert many of the 460,000
132 deaths caused annually by transport-derived PM_{2.5} pollution (indicator 3.2.1), and some of the
133 3.2 million annual deaths related to physical inactivity. People-centred, climate-resilient urban
134 redesign to improve building energy efficiency, increase green and blue spaces, and promote
135 sustainable cooling, can additionally prevent heat-related health harms, avoid air conditioning-
136 derived emissions (indicator 2.2.2), and provide direct physical and mental health benefits.

137 Turning to food systems, these are responsible for 30% of global greenhouse gas (GHG)
138 emissions, with 57% of agricultural emissions in 2020 derived from the production of red meat
139 and milk (indicator 3.3.1). Promoting and enabling equitable access to affordable, healthy, low-
140 carbon diets that meet local nutritional and cultural requirements can contribute to mitigation,
141 while preventing many of the 12.2 million deaths attributable to sub-optimal diets (indicator
142 3.3.2).

143 The health community could play a central role in securing these benefits, by delivering public
144 health interventions to reduce air pollution, enable and support active travel and healthier diets,
145 and promote improvements in the environmental conditions and commercial activities that
146 define health outcomes. Importantly, the health sector can lead by example and transition to

147 net-zero emission, sustainable, and resource-efficient health systems, thereby preventing its
148 4.6% contribution to global greenhouse gas emissions, with ripple effects to the broader
149 economy (indicator 3.4).

150 Some encouraging signs of progress offer a glimpse of the enormous human benefits that health-
151 centred action could render. Deaths attributable to fossil fuel-derived air pollution have
152 decreased by 16.7% since 2005, with 80% of this reduction the result of reduced coal-derived
153 pollution. Meanwhile the renewable energy sector grew to a historical-high of 12.7 million
154 employees in 2021 (indicator 4.2.2); and renewable energy accounted for 90% of the growth in
155 electricity capacity in 2022 (indicator 3.1.1). Supporting this, global clean energy investment grew
156 15% in 2022, to US\$1.6 trillion, exceeding fossil fuel investment by 61% (indicator 4.2.1); and
157 lending to the green energy sector rose to US\$498 billion in 2021, approaching fossil fuel lending
158 (indicator 4.2.7). Scientific understanding of the links between health and climate change is
159 rapidly growing, and, while coverage lags in some of the most affected regions, over 3000
160 scientific articles covered this topic in 2022 (indicators 5.3.1 and 5.3.2). Meanwhile, the health
161 dimensions of climate change are increasingly acknowledged in the public discourse, with a
162 record 28% of all climate change newspaper articles in 2022 referring to health (indicator 5.1).
163 Importantly, international organisations are increasingly engaging with the health co-benefits of
164 mitigation (indicator 5.4.2), and governments increasingly acknowledge this link, with 95% of
165 updated Nationally Determined Contributions under the Paris Agreement now referring to health
166 - up from 73% in 2020 (indicator 5.4.1). These trends signal what could be the start of a life-saving
167 transition.

168

169 **A people-centred transformation: putting health at the heart of climate action**

170 With the world currently heading towards 3°C of heating, any further delays in climate change
171 action will increasingly threaten the health and survival of billions alive today. If meaningful, the
172 prioritisation of health in upcoming international climate change negotiations could offer an
173 unprecedented opportunity to deliver health-promoting climate action, and pave the way to a
174 thriving future. However, delivering such ambition will require standing up to the economic
175 interests of the fossil fuel and other health-harming industries, and delivering science-
176 grounded, steadfast, meaningful, and sustained progress to shift away from fossil fuels,
177 accelerate mitigation, and deliver adaptation for health. Unless such progress materialises, the
178 growing emphasis on health within climate change negotiations risks being mere
179 healthwashing; increasing the acceptability of initiatives that minimally advance action, and
180 which ultimately undermine – rather than protect – the future of billions alive today, and of
181 generations to come.

182 Safeguarding people’s health in climate policies will require the leadership, integrity and
183 commitment of the health community. With its science-driven approach, that community is
184 uniquely positioned to ensure that decision makers are accountable, and foster human-centred
185 climate action that safeguards human health above all else. The ambitions of the Paris
186 Agreement are still achievable, and a prosperous and healthy future still lies within reach. But it
187 will take the concerted efforts and commitments of health professionals, policy makers,
188 corporations and financial institutions to ensure the promise of health-centred climate action
189 becomes a reality that delivers a thriving future for all.

190

191

192

193 Introduction

194 Due to human activity, global mean temperature reached 1.14°C above pre-industrial levels in
195 2022,¹ triggering global climate and environmental changes that pose an unequivocal,
196 immediate and worsening threat to the health and survival of people worldwide.² The past eight
197 years were the warmest ever registered,³ record-breaking extreme weather events occurred in
198 every continent in 2022, and July 2023 was the hottest month ever registered, with detection
199 and attribution studies showing the influence of climate change in making many of these more
200 severe or likely to occur.^{4–16} A record hot summer caused almost 62,000 deaths in Europe in
201 2022;¹⁷ extreme floods affected 33 million people in Pakistan and 3.2 million people in Nigeria;
202 ^{16,18,19} A record drought in the Greater Horn of Africa,²⁰ made more severe by climate change,
203 contributed to worsening local food insecurity, which now affects 46.3 million people;²¹ wildfires
204 scorched parts of Europe,^{22,23} South America,^{24,25} and China;^{4,26} while less noticeable but deeply
205 damaging slow-onset climate-related events are altering infectious disease distribution, affecting
206 food security, impacting essential infrastructure, and undermining the socioeconomic
207 determinants of health.^{2,27–31} As a result, the impacts of climate change on physical and mental
208 health are rapidly growing. While no region is unaffected, the most vulnerable and minoritised
209 populations, which often contributed least to climate change, are disproportionately affected –
210 a direct consequence of structural injustices, and harmful power dynamics both between and
211 within countries.^{2,32–34}

212 Although in the 2015 Paris Agreement countries committed to pursuing “efforts to limit the
213 temperature increase to 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels”, greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions
214 reached record levels in 2021, and again in 2022.^{35,36} Unless urgently rectified, current policies
215 will lead to potentially catastrophic 2.7°C [2.2°C – 3.4°C] of heating by 2100.³⁷ Last year, the 2022
216 report of the *Lancet* Countdown found that global health lies at the mercy of fossil fuels,³⁸ and

217 with the threat of climate change increasing, further delays put the world at risk of missing “a
218 rapidly closing window of opportunity to secure a liveable and sustainable future”.^{39,40}

219

220 **Putting health at the centre of climate change action**

221 Averting the worst impacts of climate change requires profound and immediate systemic
222 changes, many with the potential to improve the health profile of world populations.⁴¹ To enable
223 a healthy future, these changes must go beyond treatment of the health symptoms of climate
224 change, to put particular focus on primary prevention, rapidly accelerating mitigation efforts
225 across all sectors, to ensure that climate change impacts stay within the bounds of the adaptive
226 capacity of health and health-supporting systems (Panel 1).

227

228 **Panel 1: Eleven priorities to deliver a healthy, thriving future**

229 Data in this report underscore the health imperative for accelerated action to limit climate change and its health
230 impacts. Numerous previous efforts have laid out roadmaps and policy recommendations to meet the goals of the
231 Paris Agreement.^{39,40,42,43} Building on them, the recommendations below identify priorities to maximise the benefits
232 of climate change action to people’s health and wellbeing. As such, they are intended to shape the priorities of
233 international organisations, national or sub-national decision makers, business, financial institutions, and health
234 systems, as they implement the policies needed to meet their commitments under the Paris Agreement. In all cases,
235 regular monitoring and course-correcting is crucial to ensure benefits to health and wellbeing are achieved and that
236 social and health inequities are reduced through their implementation.

237

238 **Accelerate fossil fuel phase-out, prioritising energy-sector and food system interventions with health co-benefits**

239 1. **Promote a health-centred energy transition that maximises health gains.** Ban, and cease funding, all new
240 oil and gas projects. Prioritise actions that both accelerate the transition away from fossil fuels, and that
241 can deliver health co-benefits and reduce socioeconomic and health inequities. While context-dependent,
242 such interventions could include reducing or banning the burning of fossil fuels in urban centres and
243 banning flaring, therefore contributing to reducing air pollution; promoting and enabling shifts to safe
244 active travel modes including through urban redesign and the provision of safe, attractive and accessible
245 active travel alternatives; increasing availability and access to safe greenspaces; increasing energy
246 efficiency and improving building energy performance that can support healthy indoor temperatures; and
247 prioritising the deployment of sustainable cooling over energy-intensive cooling alternatives. In all cases,

248 put robust regulations in place to prevent renewable energy-related extractive processes from harming
249 the health of local populations and exacerbating health and socioeconomic inequities (indicators 2.2.2,
250 2.2.3, 3.1.1-3.2.2, 4.2.6).

251 2. **Reduce the health harms of energy poverty by supporting a just zero-carbon transition:** Empower
252 countries with high reliance on dirty fuels (fossil fuels, particularly coal, and biomass) and high levels of
253 energy poverty to locally develop, deploy, maintain and use modern renewable energy sources, and to
254 develop autonomous energy systems. In doing so, and through knowledge and technology transfer
255 programmes and financial support, support the development of local skills and promote local healthy
256 employment, including through knowledge and technology transfer programmes and financial support.
257 Prioritise interventions that deliver energy to energy-poor regions, focusing on electrifying homes and
258 healthcare facilities, and enabling access to quality health-supporting services (indicators 3.1.1, 3.1.2,
259 4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.7 and panel 5).

260 3. **Accelerate mitigation in food systems through support for, and promotion of, healthier low-carbon**
261 **diets.** Support investment in climate smart-horticulture, through, for example, and where locally relevant,
262 research and development, subsidies, improved extension services, and better market access. Support
263 consumers through policies that improve equitable access to affordable, culturally relevant, low carbon
264 plant-forward diets that meet nutritional needs, through, for example, integration into social programmes
265 including maternal and child health initiatives and safety nets; targeted subsidies; support to reduce food
266 waste; and improved public health messaging; in addition to regulating against the production, sale and
267 promotion of unhealthy foods (indicator 3.3.1 and 3.3.2).

268 **Promote the health sector's leadership by delivering health-promoting climate change action**

269 4. **Deliver public health programmes that simultaneously improve public health and reduce greenhouse**
270 **gas emissions,** considering the risks, needs, culture, and preferences of local communities. These could
271 include policies to tackle air pollution by rapidly phasing out polluting fuel burning especially near
272 vulnerable populations (e.g., around hospitals, schools and care facilities, and inside people's homes);
273 supporting, facilitating and enabling a transition to healthy, affordable, low-carbon diets; enhancing green
274 prescribing; supporting locally-tailored and sustainable heat-coping behaviours that protect health; and
275 promoting, enabling, and facilitating increased physical activity, including for travel (indicators 1.1.2,
276 1.1.5, 2.2.2, 2.2.3, 3.2 and panel 4).

277 5. **Lead by example, building sustainable, efficient, net-zero emission health systems** in alignment with the
278 ambitions of the COP26 Health Programme. Prioritise clean energy, energy efficiency, and resource
279 stewardship. Foster safe replacement of high-carbon resources by low-carbon alternatives (including
280 anaesthetics gases and inhalers). Promote transparency on climate change impacts, and decarbonisation
281 of suppliers (indicator 3.4).

282 **Accelerate climate change adaptation for health.**

283 6. **Accelerate the development of climate-resilient health systems,** in agreement with the COP26 health
284 programme. Scale up technical and financial support at the national and local level, particularly in low and
285 medium-HDI countries, to conduct thorough national and sub-national health and climate change risk and
286 vulnerability assessments and Health National Adaptation Plans (indicators 2.1.1-2.1.3 and 2.2.4).

287 7. **Increase the capacity of health systems to prepare for, and respond to, climate-related health risks,**
288 including through the implementation of climate-informed health surveillance and early warning and
289 response systems for key health risks threatening local populations. Ensure adequate technical and financial

290 support, and increased alignment between health and meteorological services, including by establishing
291 formal collaboration between these sectors⁴⁴ (indicators 2.2.1 and 2.2.5).

292

293 **Transform financial systems to support a healthy, sustainable future**

294 8. **Increase climate finance to promote a healthy, just transition**, including through the UNFCCC's financial
295 mechanisms and funding provided by multilateral development banks. Increase the allocation of funds to
296 support health-related adaptation, and equitable global access and deployment of renewable energy
297 technologies, particularly in low and medium HDI countries, prioritising local job generation, skills
298 development, and improved socioeconomic determinants of health (indicators 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 2.2.4, 4.2.1,
299 4.2.2).

300 9. **Rapidly phase-out all subsidies, lending to and investment in oil and gas**, including their exploration and
301 extraction. Redirect financial support towards developing, up-scaling and deploying healthy, zero-carbon
302 energy and energy efficiency, and to activities that simultaneously improve the health, wellbeing, and
303 livelihoods of all populations, particularly those communities most vulnerable to the withdrawal of
304 subsidies. Increase investment in zero-carbon energy and energy efficiency, and accelerate divestment
305 from fossil fuel funding (indicators 4.2.1, 4.2.3, 4.2.5 and 4.2.7).

306

307 **Increase resources and support to continue expanding the knowledge base, understanding, and engagement of**
308 **key actors in health and climate change**

309 10. **Strengthen global capacity for health and climate change research and knowledge generation**, focusing
310 on identifying and informing effective and cost-efficient public health and climate change adaptation and
311 mitigation interventions, and on monitoring these to reduce health burdens and inequities; as well as on
312 characterising the health impacts of the commercial activities of the fossil fuel and other carbon-intensive
313 industries, and of interventions to prevent them. In doing so, promote and facilitate active involvement of
314 young people and minoritised groups, to identify health and climate change solutions that minimize or
315 eliminate health inequities and foster learnings from those in the front line of climate change impacts,
316 putting particular focus on harnessing and capturing the knowledge of indigenous communities through
317 meaningful engagement (Indicator 5.3).

318 11. **Increase support to maintain and strengthen health and climate change monitoring** at global, regional,
319 and national levels. Monitor the health benefits and any unintended harms delivered through climate
320 action within the UNFCCC's Global Stocktake and Global Goal on Adaptation. Establish national
321 observatories on health and climate change, using standardized frameworks and indicators to evaluate
322 progress and inform decision-making (panel 2).
323

324 A zero-carbon transition will not only avoid the worst health impacts of climate change, but can
325 simultaneously deliver major health and socioeconomic co-benefits. Health-centred adaptation
326 efforts are equally necessary to minimise the impacts of now inevitable temperature rise on
327 human health and survival and, by strengthening health and health-supporting systems, would

328 have rippling benefits to public health. However, realising these health gains requires human
329 health and survival to be a central consideration in how international organisations,
330 governments, corporations, and individuals understand and address climate change.

331 COP28 will be the first COP to feature health as a core theme – a significant step forward
332 advancing health-centred climate change action (Panel 2). The renewed demand for health-
333 centred climate change action reflects years of engagement and continuous efforts of the
334 scientific and health community, and offers a unique opportunity to build a healthy future for all.
335 However, this opportunity will turn to hazard if short-term health promises are used as a screen
336 to divert attention from the imperative need to limit temperature rise to 1.5°C, transition away
337 from fossil fuels, and deliver transformational benefits to global health.

338 **A health stocktake for a thriving future**

339 Ensuring that health-promoting climate action is delivered at the necessary speed and scale
340 requires a regular exercise of stocktaking and monitoring. To fulfil this purpose, the *Lancet*
341 *Countdown: Tracking Progress on Health and Climate Change* was established as a
342 multidisciplinary, international collaboration that works to annually take stock of the evolving
343 links between health and climate change. Providing the most up-to-date assessment of the links
344 between health and climate change, its findings are published ahead of the United Nations
345 Climate Change Conference, focused on identifying the changing health impacts of climate
346 change, and keeping countries accountable for their progress. Building on eight years of iterative
347 improvement of the monitoring framework, this year’s findings inform recommendations for key
348 actions to enable a healthy, thriving future for all (Panel 1).

349

350 ***Panel 2: UN climate negotiations for a healthy future***

351 The 2015 Paris Agreement was ratified by 195 countries. Legally binding and science-driven, it
352 commits governments to pursue efforts to limit global mean temperature rise to 1.5°C, and
353 protect the human right to health; prevent harm; and promote the right to a clean, healthy, and
354 sustainable environment.^{45,46}

355 The Paris Agreement’s potential to deliver immediate health benefits and avoid the threat to
356 human survival posed by climate change prompted it to be labelled as potentially the most
357 important public health agreement of the 21st century.⁴⁷ Delivering such ambition requires
358 placing health protection and promotion at the heart of climate negotiations, with many of its
359 negotiation areas offering opportunities to achieve this, as laid out below.

360 **Mitigation**

361 Mitigation ambition and implementation must be urgently scaled up in this critical decade to
362 improve and protect global health and equity.⁴⁸ Acknowledging common but differentiated
363 global responsibilities, Nationally-Determined Contributions (NDCs) and Long-term Low
364 Emissions and Development Strategies (LT-LEDS) offer the possibility for countries to put forward
365 their climate plans, and could offer a platform to ensure these maximise health benefits while
366 minimising trade-offs. Ongoing UNFCCC negotiations on response measures also provide a
367 mechanism to encourage governments to quantify and maximise the health co-benefits from
368 climate change actions.⁴⁹

369 **Adaptation**

370 Placing public health at the centre of transformational adaptation targets can help ensure that
371 people’s health, and particularly that of the most vulnerable groups, is protected.⁵⁰ COP28 will
372 finalise the work programme on the Global Goal on Adaptation (GGA).⁵¹ Positioning health and
373 wellbeing as a core pillar of adaptation within the GGA could foster actions to protect the health
374 of world populations from rising climate change-related health risks.

375 **Loss and Damage**

376 The health impacts of climate change represent the human face of non-economic Loss and
377 Damage. COP27 established a new fund, expected to be operationalised by COP28, to help what
378 the UNFCCC refers to as “developing countries” respond to losses and damages caused by climate
379 change. This includes loss of life and damage to health and health systems.⁴⁶

380 **Economics and finance**

381 Negotiations to transform the global financial system are taking place in 2023.⁴⁶ COP28 offers an
382 opportunity to make finance flows “consistent with a pathway towards low GHG emissions and

383 climate-resilient development”.⁴⁵ This includes delivering on the 2009 Copenhagen Accord
384 commitment to mobilise US\$100 billion per year to support countries classified as “developing”
385 within the UNFCCC in their climate transition and to double adaptation finance.⁵² This offers an
386 opportunity to eliminate harmful finance flows, including as fossil fuel subsidies, and to support
387 a healthy future by redirecting funds to interventions that protect and promote equity, health,
388 and survival.

389 **Food and agriculture**

390 The role of the global food system in responding to climate change is organised under the Sharm
391 el-Sheikh joint work programme (2023 – 2026).⁴⁶ This mandates governments to strengthen the
392 role of food systems in nurturing human health and wellbeing, including through the
393 safeguarding of food security and ending hunger, improving nutrition security, and building
394 inclusive, sustainable and climate-resilient agricultural systems. Realising these ambitions could
395 provide major health benefits to global populations, particularly those suffering from food
396 insecurity and malnutrition.

397 **Stocktaking and monitoring**

398 The first Global Stocktake, concluding at COP28, will assess global progress against the delivery
399 of the goals of the Paris Agreement. Considering public health, wellbeing, and survival as primary
400 goals against which to monitor progress can ensure countries’ actions are tailored and refined to
401 maximise the health benefits of climate action as they work to deliver the ambitions of the Paris
402 Agreement.

403

404 The 2023 report of the *Lancet* Countdown represents the efforts, expertise and dedication of 113
405 researchers from 52 academic and UN institutions worldwide from all continents but Antarctica,
406 and guided by the *Lancet* Countdown’s Scientific Advisory Group and High-Level Advisory
407 Board.⁵³ Its data are the product of eight years of iterative improvements of 47 indicators (Panel
408 3), built on the priorities identified through a global consultation amongst experts and policy
409 makers.⁵⁴ Following strict criteria of quality, scientific rigour and relevance,⁵³ *Lancet* Countdown
410 indicators are periodically refined, with existing indicators improved and new indicators
411 introduced as the availability of data and methods evolves (Panel 4).⁵³ An independent quality
412 improvement process provides rigour and transparency to the collaboration’s data, incorporating

413 input from independent experts on all new or substantially improved indicators to complement
414 the *Lancet*'s peer-review.⁵³ While methodological constraints and limits in the availability of data
415 with adequate geographical and temporal coverage impedes the capacity to address persistent
416 gaps in the *Lancet* Countdown's indicator suite, the *Lancet* Countdown continues to work to
417 address these gaps, welcoming contributions from fellow researchers for indicator improvement
418 and development (for further details visit <https://www.lancetcountdown.org/our-science>).

419 In this year's report, the methodologies and temporal and/or geographical coverage of most
420 indicators has been substantially improved. New metrics now provide improved attribution of
421 impacts to climate change, project future risks, and better account for health co-benefits of
422 climate change action and a zero-carbon financial transition. Complementing this report, data
423 are presented in higher geographical and temporal detail in the *Lancet* Countdown's freely
424 available online [data visualisation platform \(https://www.lancetcountdown.org/data-platform/\)](https://www.lancetcountdown.org/data-platform/).
425 Methodological details and further findings are presented in the Appendix, alongside a
426 description of the caveats and limitations of each indicator – making the Appendix an essential
427 companion to fully interpret the findings in this report.

428

429

430

431 ***Panel 3: The indicators of the 2023 report of The Lancet Countdown***

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Section	Indicator	
1: Health Hazards, Exposures, and Impacts	1.1: Health and Heat	1.1.1: Exposure to Heating
		1.1.2: Exposure of Vulnerable Populations to Heatwaves
		1.1.3: Heat and Physical Activity
		1.1.4: Change in Labour Capacity
		1.1.5: Heat-Related Mortality
	1.2: Health and Extreme Weather-related Events	1.2.1: Wildfires
		1.2.2: Drought
		1.2.3: Extreme Weather and Sentiment
	1.3: Climate Suitability for Infectious Disease Transmission	
	1.4: Food Security and Undernutrition	
2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health	2.1: Assessment and Planning of Health Adaptation	2.1.1: National Assessments of Climate Change Impacts, Vulnerability and Adaptation for Health
		2.1.2: National Adaptation Plans for Health
		2.1.3: City-level Climate Change Risk Assessments
	2.2: Enabling Conditions, Adaptation Delivery, and Implementation	2.2.1: Climate Information for Health
		2.2.2: Air Conditioning: Benefits and Harms
		2.2.3: Urban Green Space
		2.2.4: Global Multilateral Funding for Health Adaptation Programs
		2.2.5: Detection, Preparedness, and Response to Health Emergencies
	2.3: Vulnerabilities, Health Risk, and Resilience to Climate Change	2.3.1: Vulnerability to Mosquito-borne Disease
		2.3.2: Lethality of Extreme Weather Events
		2.3.3: Migration, Displacement, and Rising Sea Levels
	3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-Benefits	3.1: Energy Use, Energy Generation and Health
3.1.2: Household Energy Use		
3.1.3: Sustainable and Healthy Road Transport		
3.2: Air Pollution and Health Co-benefits		3.2.1: Mortality from Ambient Air Pollution
		3.2.2: Household Air Pollution
3.3: Food, Agriculture, and Health Co-benefits		3.3.1: Emissions from Agricultural Production and Consumption
		3.3.2: Diet and Health Co-Benefits
3.4: Healthcare Sector Emissions		
4: Economics and Finance	4.1: The Economic Impact of Climate Change and its Mitigation	4.1.1: Economic Losses due to Weather-related Extreme Events
		4.1.2: Value of Losses Due to Heat-related Mortality
		4.1.3: Loss of Earnings from Heat-related Labour Capacity Reduction
		4.1.4: Costs of the Health Impacts of Air Pollution
	4.2: The Economics of the Transition to Zero-Carbon Economies	4.2.1: Clean Energy Investment
		4.2.2: Employment in Renewable Energy and Fossil Fuel Industries
		4.2.3: Funds Divested from Fossil Fuels
		4.2.4: Net Value of Fossil Fuel Subsidies and Carbon Prices

		4.2.5: Production-based and Consumption-based Attribution of CO ₂ and PM _{2.5} Emissions
		4.2.6: Compatibility of Fossil Fuel Company Strategies With the Paris Agreement
		4.2.7 Fossil Fuel and Green Bank Lending
5: Public and Political Engagement in Health and Climate Change	5.1: Media Engagement in Health and Climate Change	
	5.2: Individual Engagement in Health and Climate Change	
	5.3: Scientific Engagement in Health and Climate Change	5.3.1: Scientific Articles on Health and Climate Change 1990-2022
		5.3.2: Scientific Engagement on the Health Impacts of Climate Change
	5.4: Political Engagement in Health and Climate Change	5.4.1: Government Engagement
		5.4.2: Engagement by International Organisations
	5.5: Corporate Sector Engagement in Health and Climate Change	

432

433

434 **Panel 4: The *Lancet* Countdown’s evolving monitoring system**

435 The *Lancet* Countdown was established in 2016 to offer an independent, rigorous and
 436 comprehensive assessment of progress on health-promoting climate change action. The
 437 indicator domains covered in its monitoring system are the product of eight years of iterative
 438 improvements. In its initial phase, indicator domains were selected through a consultation
 439 amongst a variety of experts and policymakers, and subsequently refined by the *Lancet*
 440 Countdown’s academic working groups at a series of multidisciplinary workshops throughout
 441 2016.⁵⁴ With the publication of its inaugural report in 2016, the *Lancet* Countdown initiated an
 442 open consultation to further refine the indicator domains and metrics.⁵⁴ Yearly thereafter, its
 443 suite of indicators was iteratively improved through internal consultation within the academic
 444 working groups of the *Lancet* Countdown, and complemented by an ongoing and inclusive
 445 process of engagement with the broader scientific community. With that purpose, the *Lancet*
 446 Countdown maintains an open approach, and continues to invite direct input on the content,
 447 methods, and data of its indicators, as well as proposals for new indicators and indicator domains,
 448 through its website (<https://www.Lancetcountdown.org/our-science/>).⁵³

449 To ensure the relevance and quality of its metrics, all proposals for new indicators or indicator
 450 improvements (both those made by members of the *Lancet* Countdown as well as those
 451 proposed by other colleagues) are evaluated through an independent assessment process, in
 452 which external experts evaluate their quality and fit, providing rigour and transparency to the
 453 collaboration’s data.

454

455 Each indicator in the *Lancet* Countdown’s assessment must comply with the following criteria:

456

- 457 • Track an aspect of the relationship between health and climate change, well evidenced
- 458 in the literature and not adequately covered through other indicators in the report.
- 459 • Utilise data from a reliable source, available at adequate temporal and spatial scales to
- 460 enable trends to be observed at a global level.
- 461 • Be updatable periodically, ideally annually or more regularly.

462 The indicators must also be:

- 463 • **Meaningful:** Track an aspect of the relationship between health and climate change that
- 464 is well evidenced in the literature, and relevant at a global level
- 465 • **Relevant:** The area being tracked by the indicator must be of relevance to policy and
- 466 decision makers, and/or represent an important contribution to the field of science of
- 467 climate change and health
- 468 • **Scientifically sound and reproducible:** The indicator must use a well-established,
- 469 internationally accepted, and ideally previously published scientific methods
- 470 • **Temporally representative:** The indicator should provide annual data for the recent past
- 471 and to a year as recent as possible. It must be available across an adequate timescale to
- 472 allow for attribution to climate change, where relevant
- 473 • **Geographically representative:** The indicator should be ideally available at a country, or
- 474 higher level of resolution. Its geographical coverage should be enough for global trends
- 475 to be observed, covering at least 40 countries evenly distributed across the four World
- 476 Bank income contexts, the four Human Development Index Groups, and the five WHO
- 477 regions initially, with possibility of expansion to 150 countries at least. In the case of
- 478 indicators tracking aspects relevant to restricted locations, over 80% of relevant
- 479 countries must be covered by the indicator
- 480 • **Reliable and use updatable:** The indicator should use data from a reliable source, fit for
- 481 its purpose. Publicly available databases, and especially those developed by
- 482 international organisations, governmental bodies or academic institutions, are
- 483 preferred. Data sources must be regularly updated.

484

485 Abiding by these criteria enables a globally representative, annually updateable, and relevant
486 monitoring system. However, these criteria also pose restrictions, limiting the possibility of
487 capturing aspects for which comprehensive data coverage is not available globally, not regularly
488 updated, or not quantifiable. As a result, some important gaps still remain in the *Lancet*

489 Countdown’ monitoring system, including the mental health impacts of climate change, the links
490 between climate change, migration and health, the health benefits of shifts to active travel, the
491 economic losses associated to the health impacts of climate change, and other areas more
492 broadly neglected within data collection and research efforts. Importantly, the scarcity of data
493 disaggregated by gender, race, Indigeneity, socioeconomic position, religion, nationality, or other
494 minoritised characteristics restricts the capacity of the indicators to capture the inequities that
495 underpin climate change impacts and climate change action.

496 As it enters a new phase, the *Lancet* Countdown will revisit its indicator domains, and focus
497 efforts in guiding the collection of data that can support an increasingly relevant, comprehensive
498 and actionable monitoring system.

499

500 **Elevating regional perspectives**

501 Local contexts define the health impacts of climate change and the opportunities for climate
502 change action, and must be understood to ensure climate change actions protect health, reduce
503 inequities, and maximise associated health co-benefits. To this end, the *Lancet* Countdown has
504 established Regional Centres around the world, to generate regionally-led policy-relevant
505 evidence on the local links between health and climate change. The Centres in Asia (Tsinghua
506 University, China),⁵⁵ South America (Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia, Peru),⁵⁶ Europe
507 (Barcelona Supercomputing Center, Spain),⁵⁷ and Oceania (Macquarie University and the
508 University of Sydney, Australia)⁵⁸ have well-established networks of regional researchers
509 producing indicator reports for their respective regions or key countries within them. The
510 growing Small Island Developing States (SIDS) centre (University of the West Indies, Jamaica) will
511 publish their first report in 2024, while efforts are underway to launch develop a new African
512 centre.

513 Driven by the expertise of the Regional Centres, a new section in this report provides a global
514 comparison of the health impacts of climate change, and progress, opportunities and constraints
515 for climate change action across world regions (Section A). This section complements the more

516 detailed regionally-focused analysis in the *Lancet* Countdown’s regional indicator reports due to
517 be published in upcoming months, which will cover in more detail the regional, national and in
518 occasions sub-national progress on health and climate change.

519 **An ambitious new phase to match the urgency of action**

520 The path to a liveable future is becoming steeper with every moment of inaction. In 2024, the
521 *Lancet* Countdown will increase its ambition, with further resources to monitor and inform an
522 urgent and healthy transition. Efforts will focus on addressing persistent research gaps (including
523 links with mental health, migration, and the disproportionate impacts on minoritised
524 communities), and supporting decision-makers and international negotiations to enact policies
525 based on this evidence. Across these activities, the *Lancet* Countdown will deepen its strategic
526 efforts to increase representation, equity, and inclusion in global and regional efforts. In its new
527 phase, the *Lancet* Countdown will continue to welcome input from researchers worldwide to
528 develop increasingly refined and globally-representative metrics.⁵³ By doing so, it will continue
529 to foster a global and interdisciplinary collaboration working to produce timely and actionable
530 evidence to support health-promoting climate change action, and a thriving future for all.

531

532

533 Part A: Evolving Regional Progress and Inequities in Health and Climate 534 Change

535 Climate change impacts are experienced locally, and a comprehensive assessment of the links
536 between health and climate change requires local perspectives, experience, and knowledge.
537 Harnessing the expertise of the *Lancet* Countdown’s regional centres, this part of the report
538 draws on the findings of the indicators presented in Part B, to provide an assessment of the
539 climate change risks, responses, and opportunities across world regions. This section will be
540 complemented by upcoming reports of the *Lancet* Countdown’s regional centres, which will
541 explore in further detail the evolving health profile of climate change in each region, including
542 wherever possible highlighting in-country inequities, through local high-quality data. More
543 information on the *Lancet* Countdown’s regional groupings and indicator findings is provided in
544 the Appendix (pp 2-6).

545 The Unequal Health Impacts of Climate Change

546 Climate change is impacting people unequally around the world.⁵⁹ Annually in 2018-2022, people
547 in SIDS, Africa, South and Central America (SCA), and Asia experienced the highest number of
548 days of health-threatening temperatures attributable to climate change (103, 78, 72, and 47 days
549 per person respectively) (indicator 1.1.5). With more frequent health-threatening temperatures
550 and a growing over-65 population, Africa experienced the biggest increase in heat-related
551 mortality rate since 1992-2000. However, Europe had the highest rate of heat-related mortality
552 in recent years (indicator 1.1.5).

553 Heat exposure limits labour productivity, undermining livelihoods. In 2013-2022, it resulted in
554 189 potential labour hours lost annually per worker in Asia and 161 in Africa (indicator 1.1.4). As
555 a result, Africa also saw the highest relative potential income loss in 2022, equivalent to 4.1% of
556 its GDP, with 81% of potential income losses falling on the generally poorer and least protected

557 agricultural workers (indicator 4.1.3). In addition, Africa and the Western Pacific had higher
558 proportions of outdoor workers (32.1% and 29.8%, respectively), placing them at particularly
559 heightened risk from climate hazards (indicator 1.1.4).

560 Compounding rapidly rising temperatures, droughts increasingly affect global food security
561 (indicator 1.4), water security, sanitation, supply chains and energy generation.^{27,60,61} Africa was
562 region most affected by droughts too, with 64% of its land area affected by at least one month
563 of extreme drought per year on average in 2013-2022, up from 9% in 1951-1960. In the Horn of
564 Africa, some areas experienced a full 12 months of drought in 2022, pushing millions to the brink
565 of famine.^{21,23,62,63} Mostly reflecting Australia's record 2017-2020 drought, Oceania was the
566 second most affected region, with 55% of its land area experiencing extreme drought in 2013-
567 2022 (up from 14% in 1951-1960).^{64,65} In SCA, 53% of land area was affected in 2013-2022,
568 including year-round droughts in parts of central Brazil's Amazon rainforest, increasing risks of
569 forest die-back (indicator 1.2.2).⁶⁶ Rising sea surface temperatures also threaten marine food
570 yields.⁶⁷ European and North American coasts saw the largest increases in sea surface
571 temperature in 2022, compared to 1981-2010 (+0.83°C and +0.73°C, respectively) (indicator 1.4).
572 As a result, many fishing communities, including Arctic Indigenous communities in North
573 America, face rising food insecurity.⁶⁸⁻⁷²

574 In addition, heating seas and melting ice bodies increase sea level rise hazards.² Asia, SIDS, and
575 Europe have the largest proportions of population settled less than one metre above current sea
576 level (2.8%, 2.0%, and 1.5%), which translates to areas facing risks of coastal erosion, floods, and
577 salinized land and water resources (indicator 2.3.3). The hotter seas are also making coastal
578 brackish waters increasingly suitable for the transmission of some *Vibrio* pathogens: from 1982
579 to 2022, Europe experienced the biggest increase in the length of coastline suitable for *Vibrio* at
580 any one time in the year (+142km annually, reaching 17% its coastline). Meanwhile, an additional
581 83km of coastline became suitable for *Vibrio* annually in Asia, reaching 17% of its coastline in

582 2022, and leading to an estimated increase of 5,000 cases of vibriosis annually, reaching some
583 421,000 cases in 2022 (indicator 1.3).

584 The transmission potential for dengue is also increasing, contributing to its rapid global
585 expansion.⁷³ From 1951-1960 to 2013-2022, SIDS and Oceania had the biggest increases in its
586 transmission potential (R0), up by 1.65 and 0.84 (indicator 1.3). Meanwhile, the transmission
587 season for malaria is lengthening in many regions, with the biggest increase in African highlands
588 for *P. falciparum* (+0.61 months), and in South and Central America (SCA) highlands for *P. vivax*
589 (+0.8 months). The transmission season lengthened by at least a week in North American
590 lowlands and SCA highlands for both parasites, and in both highlands and lowlands in SIDS.

591 As climate change-related health risks increase, effective local adaptation, informed by an in-
592 depth understanding of local vulnerabilities and hazards, is essential to protect human health
593 and survival and reduce health inequities. However, measures to prepare and respond to health
594 emergencies are lagging in all world regions (indicator 2.2.5). Moreover, while health system
595 strengthening has reduced the vulnerability to severe outcomes from mosquito-borne diseases
596 in Africa, SCA, and SIDS since 1990, urbanisation is now increasing vulnerability worldwide
597 (indicator 2.3.1).

598 With 55% of the world population living in urban centres, city-level interventions hold enormous
599 potential and must be informed by in-depth understanding of local risks and vulnerabilities. In
600 2022, between 80 and 92% of surveyed cities in Oceania, Europe, and North America reported
601 that they had completed a climate risk and vulnerability assessment. However, the proportion
602 was considerably lower in Africa (62%; 43/69), SCA (56%; 149/268), and Asia (51%; 117/231)
603 (indicator 2.1.3), regions in which climate hazards are rapidly accelerating, and are most
604 unprotected.

605

606 [The Regional Health Inequities of an Unjust Transition](#)

607 Energy-related emissions are the biggest single contributor to climate change, but these
608 emissions vary greatly amongst world regions. In 2020, the regions with the highest average per-
609 person energy sector emissions were Oceania (13.4 tCO₂/person on average, mostly driven by
610 Australia), and North America (12.9 tCO₂/person), regions where low political engagement on
611 climate change resulted in insufficient, and often negligible, climate change action.⁷⁴ Per-person
612 emissions in Oceania were 14 times higher than in Africa (0.97 tCO₂/person), and 3.4 times higher
613 than in Asia (3.9 tCO₂/person; 7.4 tCO₂/person in China). However, with 61% of the world’s
614 population, Asia contributed 59% of all global energy-related CO₂ emissions in 2020 (17.7 GtCO₂,
615 57% of regional emissions from China) (indicator 3.1.1).

616 Although renewable energy generation is increasing in all regions, it has not substantially
617 replaced fossil fuels: North America reduced the carbon intensity of its energy sector by 15%
618 between 1992 and 2020 – a trend which the US Inflation Reduction Act of 2022 seeks to
619 accelerate.⁷⁵ However, at its 2011-2020 decarbonisation pace, it would take North America 82
620 years to fully decarbonise its energy sector. Similarly, the carbon intensity of Europe’s energy
621 system decreased 22% between 1992 and 2020, would take 80 years to fully decarbonise at the
622 current pace (indicator 3.1.1). As countries seek new energy sources amidst the current energy
623 crisis, the situation could worsen, including by the US’s approval of the oil drilling Willow Project
624 in Alaska and coal phase-out deceleration in European countries.^{76,77}

625 Renewable investment is also unequally distributed. Only 1% of renewable energy investments
626 in 2022 were in Africa.⁴² Despite plentiful renewable energy resources, clean renewables
627 accounted for just 1.0% and 0.4% of the energy supply in Africa and SIDS in 2020, respectively,
628 compared with 2.4% in North America, 2.7% in Asia and SCA, 3.0% in Europe, and 6.0% in Oceania

629 (indicator 3.1.1).⁷⁸ This situation perpetuates reliance on polluting fuels, particularly in energy-
630 poor regions. In 2020, biomass and waste burning still contributed to 84% of the household
631 energy consumption in Africa, 46% in SIDS, 33% in SCA, and 32% in Asia, against 5% to 11% in
632 North America, Oceania, and Europe. (indicator 3.1.2). The global energy and economic crisis
633 means investment and access to non-polluting household energy could decrease further.⁷⁹ The
634 highly unequal use, deployment of, and access to renewable energy across world regions
635 contrasts starkly with the availability of the natural resources that energy technologies require,
636 and results from – and perpetuate – harmful global power dynamics.⁸⁰

637 Air pollution from the energy sector continues to generate long-lasting health impacts in every
638 region, particularly in urban centres. Of all global deaths attributable to fuel-derived particulate
639 matter less than 2.5 micrometres diameter (PM_{2.5}), 77% occurred in Asia (1.3 million). With coal
640 still contributing 43% of its total energy, Asia had the highest mortality from coal-derived PM_{2.5}
641 amongst all regions, at 11 deaths per 100,000 (indicator 3.2.1). In Europe, air quality control
642 measures coupled with a 5.2 percentage point reduction in the share of coal-derived energy since
643 2005 contributed to a 36% decrease in ambient PM_{2.5}-related mortality, 44% of which was due
644 to reduced coal-related pollution. Despite this, Europe still had the highest death rate from
645 outdoor PM_{2.5} (69 deaths per 100,000), as well as from dirty fuel (fossil fuels and biomass)-
646 derived PM_{2.5} (38 deaths per 100,000), in 2020 (indicators 3.1.1 and 3.2.1). Moreover, through
647 imports, 33% of the PM_{2.5} emissions induced by European consumption contaminates the air in
648 other world regions (indicator 4.2.5).

649 Despite these health harms, governments continue to hamper the transition to clean, renewable
650 energies by subsidising fossil fuels.^{81,82} Of the 87 countries analysed (Appendix pp 189), which
651 contribute 93% of global GHG emissions, all countries in Africa (eight) and SCA (nine) still
652 provided net subsidies to fossil fuels, and had the lowest median net carbon prices of all regions
653 in 2020. In contrast, the highest median net carbon prices (lowest effective subsidies) were in
654 Europe (34 countries) and North America (two countries), with the latter the only world region

655 with net fossil fuel taxes, of 0.9 \$/t (indicator 4.2.4). While fossil fuel subsidies can improve
656 energy access, they are inefficient and often regressive.⁸³ Those funds could be redirected to
657 promoting access to clean renewable energy, or to improving health and wellbeing, delivering
658 net health benefits forging a liveable future.⁸⁴

659 Delayed mitigation in the food sector has also come at a high health cost. Oceania and North
660 America, with high levels of red meat consumption, and SCA, with carbon-intensive meat
661 production systems, had the largest per-person emissions from red meat consumption in 2020,
662 representing 86%, 70%, and 81% of their agricultural emissions, respectively. Emissions in these
663 regions were 4.2 (Oceania), 2.3 (North America), and 2.6 (SCA) times higher than per person
664 emissions in SIDS, the region with the lowest per-person emissions from red meat consumption
665 (indicator 3.3.1). Shifting towards more affordable and accessible plant-based diets can reduce
666 these emissions, simultaneously delivering substantial health benefits. This is particularly true for
667 populations in North America, Europe, and Oceania, which have the highest mortality from
668 excess consumption of red and processed meat, and from insufficient consumption of fruits,
669 vegetables, legumes, and whole grains (indicator 3.3.2).

670 These data reveal the deep global inequities that underpin delays in climate change mitigation,
671 and underline the health imperative for building just, equitable, and environmentally-sustainable
672 systems for extraction, access, and use of energy and natural resources,⁷⁸ that leaves no one
673 behind. To achieve this, the transition to a zero-carbon, healthy future must avoid reproducing
674 harmful extractive practices that disproportionately harm the health of minoritized groups,
675 including those living in lower HDI countries, rural communities, and Indigenous Peoples.^{34,80}

676

677 [Growing but Unequal Engagement on Health and Climate Change](#)

678 To maximise the benefits to human health and survival, climate change action must be informed
679 by evidence, understanding and engagement with the local interactions between health and
680 climate change, and harnessing the knowledge of Indigenous Peoples and other communities at
681 the frontline of climate change impacts. However, the generation of scientific evidence is uneven
682 across world regions. The region most studied in 2022 was Asia, with 1,095 peer-reviewed articles
683 exploring the links between climate and health. The majority of these (59%) focused on China
684 and India. North America and Europe followed, with 398 and 305 studies, respectively. With only
685 51 articles, SIDSs was the least studied region, emphasising the urgency to expand research on
686 health and climate change in these vulnerable states (indicator 5.3).

687 References to health in the first round of Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) were
688 common in the most vulnerable regions, with 84% to 100% of countries in SCA, Africa, Asia, and
689 SIDS referring to them, but substantially less so in North America, Oceania, and Europe (50%,
690 33%, and 14% of NDCs, respectively). This changed in the second round of NDCs, in which all SCA,
691 SIDS, and North American countries; 97% of African countries; and 92% of European NDCs
692 mentioned health. The trend was only reversed for Oceania, where no country mentioned health
693 (indicator 5.4.1). However, the average proportion of countries referencing the climate-health
694 nexus in the UN General Debate in 2018-2020 was the lowest in SCA (18.7%), Asia (22.8%), and
695 Africa (26.7%) – regions that bear much of the brunt of climate impacts.

696 Conclusion

697 Climate change is placing human health and survival at risk in every world region. However, these
698 threats vary widely: while climate hazards are determined by wide-ranging climates and
699 topographies, vulnerabilities depend on highly unequal local epidemiological and socioeconomic
700 characteristics. As a result, the most underserved countries and communities are currently
701 disproportionately affected. A just transition that minimises global inequities and avoids negative
702 impacts and that ensures no one is left behind, is essential to a healthy future.⁸⁵ However,

703 countries that have historically contributed the least to climate change often lack resources and
704 lag in the implementation of adaptive solutions, further amplifying health inequities. Inadequate
705 funding has been a major barrier to a just transition, aggravated by the undelivered Copenhagen
706 Accord commitment of mobilising US\$100 billion annually to support climate change action in
707 countries labelled as “developing” in the context of the UNFCCC.⁸⁶

708 Mitigation efforts have likewise been woefully inadequate and inequitable. Although the regions
709 with the highest per-person emissions (North America, Europe, and Oceania), are accelerating
710 decarbonisation efforts, the current pace falls far short of Paris Agreement ambitions.⁴⁰ Beyond
711 exacerbating climate risks, this inaction has come at substantial health costs for local populations,
712 with high mortality rates from fuel-derived air pollution. Meanwhile, countries in Africa, Asia,
713 SCA, and SIDS are being left behind in the transition to non-polluting energy, despite plentiful
714 natural renewable energy resources. The resulting high levels of dirty fuel use, household air
715 pollution, and limited energy access in these regions expose the health costs of unjust climate
716 change action – stressing the need to foster equity in the access and use non-polluting energy
717 technologies to support sustainable development, improve health, and reducing global
718 inequities.^{87,88}

719 To be effective, the transition to clean, zero-emission energy must be enabled through financial
720 mechanisms and importantly, equitable. As such, it must ensure that lower HDI countries are
721 empowered and enabled – including through financial and technical support – to develop and
722 deploy local renewable energy technologies by (amongst other means) implementing robust
723 policies and regulations that prevent the replication of harmful extractive industrial models that
724 widen health inequities and disproportionately affect the health of populations in resource-rich,
725 lower HDI countries.⁸⁹

726

727 Realising the transformative public health opportunities of just and urgent climate change action
728 requires a deep understanding of the links between climate and health at a local level. To support
729 this, the Lancet Countdown’s regional centres are working to produce locally-relevant scientific
730 evidence, led by local researchers. Upcoming regional reports will enhance the evidence provided
731 in this section, to support decision makers in a healthy transition to a net-zero future. The extent
732 to which scientific evidence is collectively acted upon will ultimately define the global health
733 profile for generations to come.

734

735

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736 Part B: Taking Stock of Progress on Health and Climate Change

737 The following sections present the eighth annual update of the *Lancet* Countdown’s indicators,
738 which monitor global progress on health and climate change. Indicators have been substantially
739 improved this year, providing an increasingly comprehensive and relevant global stocktake.
740 Indicators tracking health hazards, exposures, and impacts now better distinguish the influence
741 of changing climate from other drivers and, in a major shift, now also include projections
742 whenever possible, building on an effort commissioned and supported by the Climate Vulnerable
743 Forum for its third Climate Vulnerable Monitor.⁹⁰ Newly introduced indicators and sub-indicators
744 monitor high temperatures attributable to climate change, the environmental suitability for West
745 Nile virus transmission, household air pollution, bank lending for fossil fuel and clean renewable
746 energy industries, and the scientific assessment of extreme events’ health impacts, focusing on
747 detection and attribution studies. A full account of these changes, alongside more detailed
748 descriptions of findings, are provided in the Appendix.

749

750

751 Section 1: Health Hazards, Exposures, and Impacts

752 Climate change is already affecting the physical, environmental, and socioeconomic conditions
753 on which human health and survival depend.

754 Section 1 tracks the health hazards, exposures, and impacts of climate change globally. The first
755 group of indicators tracks the multidimensional effects of heat on health. The second group
756 tracks the health threats and impacts of extreme weather and weather-related events. The two
757 final indicators track slower onset events: the climate suitability for infectious disease
758 transmission, and the effects of the changing climate on food insecurity. Most indicators track
759 spatiotemporal changes in weather and climate, integrating demographic data to track health-
760 related outcomes in exposed populations.^{91,92} New data track the health-threatening hot days
761 attributable to climate change; the climate suitability for West Nile virus transmission; and the
762 number of outdoor workers who are most exposed to climate hazards. As a major addition this
763 year, this section builds on contributions to the third Climate Vulnerable Monitor,⁹³ now
764 including projections under a scenario in which action is taken to limit global mean surface
765 temperature rise to 2°C, stabilising at 1.8°C by 2100 (SSP1-2.6), and under one that assumes no
766 further mitigation, in which heating reaches 3.6°C above pre-industrial levels by 2100 (SSP3-
767 7.0).⁹⁴ These projections show the risks of climate inaction and stress the urgency for accelerating
768 mitigation efforts to limit global mean surface temperature rise to 1.5°C, and urgently increasing
769 adaptation to ensure a liveable future.

770 1.1 Heat and Health

771 Heat exposure can result in heat-related illness, exacerbate underlying health conditions, and
772 lead to mental ill-health and adverse pregnancy and birth outcomes.^{95–102} High temperatures also
773 affect people's capacity to work and willingness to undertake physical activity.^{103–105}

774

775 Indicator 1.1.1: Exposure to Heating

776 *Headline finding: from 1986-2005 to 2022, populations were exposed to an average increase in*
777 *summer temperature three times the global mean.*

778 Land areas, and particularly urban areas, are heating up faster than the global average.^{106,107} This
779 indicator tracks the population-weighted change in global summer temperatures and shows that
780 humans experienced triple the mean global temperature increase between 2022 and the 1986-
781 2005 baseline (0.9°C population weighted compared to 0.3°C).

782

783 Indicator 1.1.2: Exposure of Vulnerable Populations to Heatwaves

784 *Headline finding: in 2013-2022, infants and people over 65 experienced, on average, 108% more*
785 *days of heatwave per year than in 1986-2005.*

786 Infants and older adults are particularly vulnerable to adverse health effects from heat
787 exposure.^{99,108} This indicator monitors the exposure of these highly-vulnerable age groups (under
788 1 and over 65 years of age) to heatwaves days (defined as a period of 2 or more days where both
789 the minimum and maximum temperatures are above the 95th percentile of 1986–2005).^{109,110}

790 Compared to 1986-2005, the number of heatwave days during 2013-2022 increased 94%
791 globally. This increase resulted in each child under the age of one being exposed on average to
792 110% more days of heatwave, on average, in this time period (4.0 days in 1986-2005, increasing
793 to 8.4 days in 2013-2022), while each person over 65 years of age was exposed on average to
794 96% more days each (increasing from 5.0 to 9.8 days). Combined with demographic changes, the
795 total person-days of heatwave exposure increased 134% for under-1s, and 228% for over-65s.

796 Projections estimate a 1120% increase in heatwave exposure of people over 65 under by 2041-
797 2060 compared to 1995-2014 in a scenario compatible with limiting global temperature rise to
798 2°C, rising to a 2,510% increase by 2080-2100. Under a scenario of no further mitigation, the
799 projected increases are even higher, rising to 1670% by mid-century, and 6311% by 2080-2100.

800

801 Indicator 1.1.3: Heat and Physical Activity

802 *Headline finding: in 2013-2022, compared to 1991-2000, there were 241 additional hours*
803 *annually, during which ambient heat posed a moderate or higher risk of heat stress during light*
804 *outdoor physical activity.*

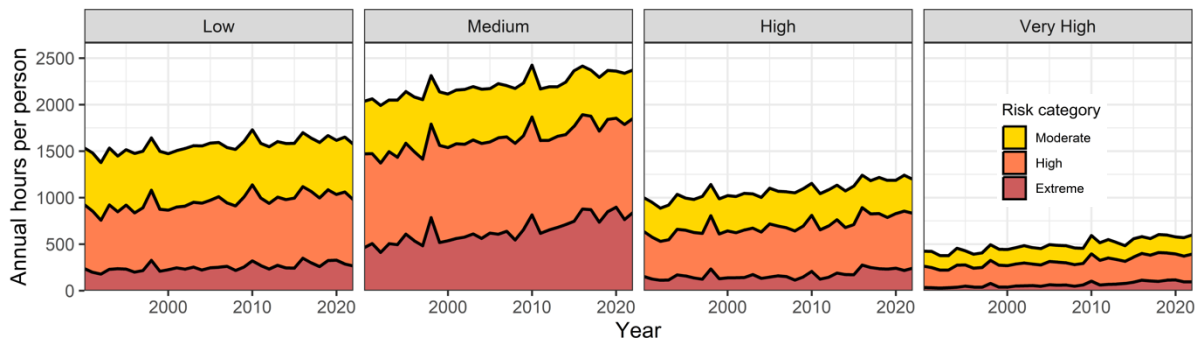
805 Regular physical activity provides health benefits throughout the lifecourse,^{111,112} and represents
806 an effective, low-cost, and low-emission intervention for reducing the risk of non-communicable
807 diseases and healthcare demand.^{113,114} However, heat be a motivational barrier to engage in
808 physical activity; and can increase heat illness risk for those who do.¹¹⁵

809 This indicator incorporates temperature, humidity, and solar radiation to estimate the hours
810 during which ambient conditions present a heightened heat stress risk if undertaking outdoor
811 exercise.

812 Compared to 1991–2000, the hours of at least moderate heat stress risk for light outdoor physical
813 activity (e.g., walking) increased by an average of 241 hours per person (20·1% increase) annually
814 during 2013–2022. For moderate intensity activity (e.g., jogging, cycling) there was an increase
815 of 253 hours (19·0% increase) (Figure 1).

816 Under a scenario compatible with limiting global temperature rise to 2°C, an additional 426 hours
817 per person would pose at least a moderate heat stress risk during light physical activity on
818 average annually by 2040-2060 compared to 1995-2014. This would rise to 596 hours per person

819 under a scenario with no further mitigation. By the end of the century (2080-2100), the annual
820 average number of hours per person that pose at least a moderate risk of heat stress would
821 increase slightly to 451 under a 2°C-compatible scenario; under a scenario with no further
822 mitigation these would increase sharply to 1,124 hours per person each year.



823
824 *Figure 1: Average annual hours per person that light physical activity entailed at least a moderate, high,*
825 *or extreme heat stress risk by HDI country grouping (Low, Medium, High, Very High), 1991–2022.*

826
827
828 **Indicator 1.1.4: Change in Labour Capacity**

829 *Headline finding: heat exposure led to the loss of 490 billion potential labour hours in 2022, a*
830 *nearly 42% increase from 1991–2000.*

831 Heat exposure reduces labour productivity and puts workers’ health at risk, particularly those
832 undertaking physically strenuous labour, working in not-cooled environments, or working
833 outdoors.¹⁰³ The resulting loss of labour capacity undermines livelihoods and the socioeconomic
834 determinants of health.¹¹⁶

835 This indicator monitors potential work hours lost as a result of heat exposure, by associating
836 temperature, humidity, and solar radiation (via Wet-Bulb Globe Temperature) with the typical
837 metabolic rate of workers in specific economic sectors.

838 In 2022, heat exposure resulted in a loss of 490 billion potential labour hours, 42% more than the
839 annual average in 1991–2000. On average, each worker in the world lost 143 potential hours of
840 labour capacity. Over 1.3 billion workers, 39% of the global workforce, experienced losses greater
841 than that, and 80% of these were from low or medium HDI countries. In contrast, 87% of workers
842 experiencing losses below the average lived in high or very high HDI countries. By 2041-2060 and
843 without further adaptation, a scenario compatible with limiting temperature rise to 2°C would
844 result in 62% more potential labour hours lost annually than in 2022. In a scenario with no further
845 mitigation, 88% more hours lost are projected. By the end of the century, losses relative to 2022
846 would increase to 68% and 328%, respectively.

847 New to 2023, the number and percentage of working-age, outdoor workers, the group most
848 affected by heat-related labour capacity loss and heat-related health risks, was estimated for 195
849 countries/areas, using UN estimates of occupational sunlight exposures and working-age
850 populations.^{117,118} Globally, in 2022, an estimated 1.6 billion paid workers – 26.4% of the working-
851 age population – worked outdoors. Males (38.4% of all males) and young or middle-age groups
852 (33.4% of people aged 25-54) are overrepresented, although un-paid labour, to which women
853 often dedicate more time than men, is not accounted for in these figures.¹¹⁹ Between 2000 and
854 2022, there were reductions in both the number of outdoor workers (-0.2 billion) and the
855 percentage of working-age people who worked outdoors (-15.3%).

856

857 Indicator 1.1.5: Heat-related Mortality

858 *Headline finding: in 2018-2022, people experienced on average 86 days of health-threatening*
859 *high temperatures annually. 60% of such temperatures were made more than twice as likely to*
860 *occur by human-caused climate change.*

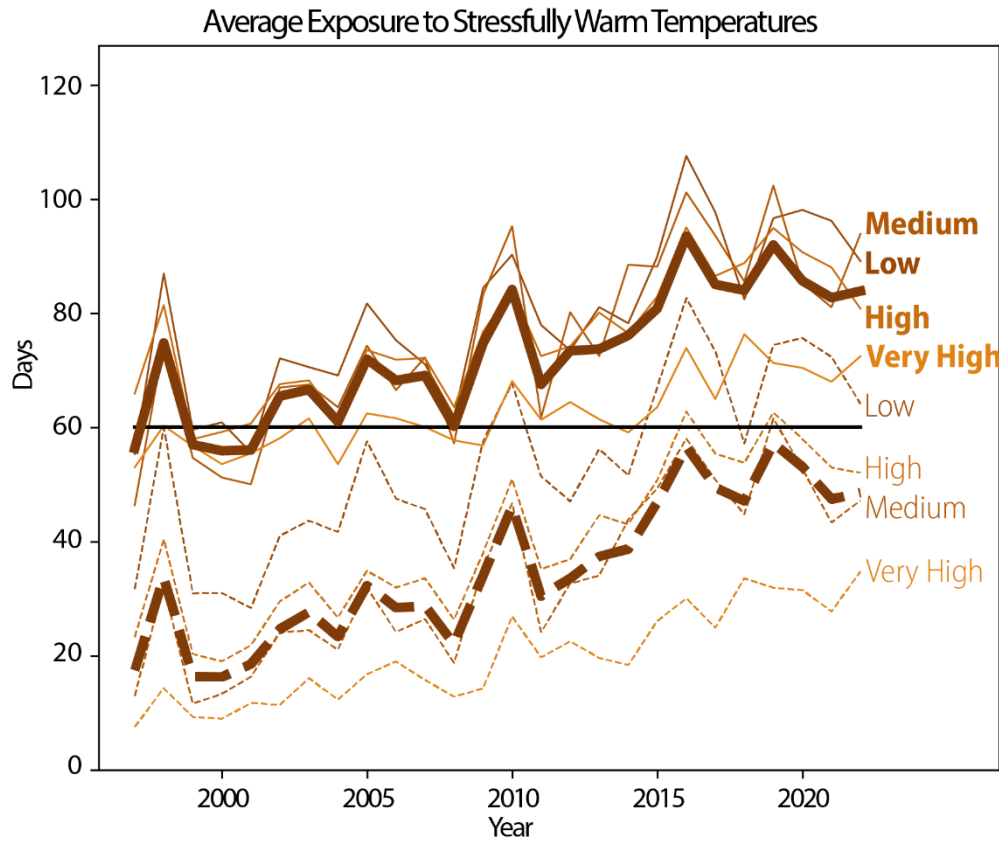
861 The aging population, increased NCD incidence, and urbanisation are increasing populations'
862 vulnerability to extreme heat. Compounding with rising temperatures, this is driving a rapid
863 increase in heat-related deaths globally, one-third of which are attributable to anthropogenic
864 climate change.¹²⁰

865 The first part of this indicator identifies days in which temperatures exceed a conservative
866 threshold over which heat-related deaths are likely to increase (above the 83.6th percentile of
867 temperatures in 1986-2005), and calculates the extent to which human-caused climate change
868 increased their likelihood. It finds that people were exposed, on average, to 86 days per
869 year of health-threatening high temperature in 2018-2022 (Figure 2), 60% of which were made
870 more than twice as likely due to anthropogenic climate change.

871 The second part of the indicator combines the exposure to temperatures above this threshold
872 with an exposure-response function to model the change in heat-related mortality in people
873 older than 65 years of age.¹²¹ In 2013-2022, compared to 1991-2000, the estimated average
874 annual heat-related mortality increased by 85%, driven by both warming and changing
875 demographics. A counterfactual simulation keeping temperatures unchanged from baseline
876 values shows that demographic changes alone would have resulted in just a 38% increase in
877 mortality in 2013-2022, compared with 1991-2000.¹²²

878 Annual heat-related mortality of people over 65 years of age is projected to increase by 370%
879 above 1995-2014 levels by 2041-2060 under a scenario compatible with limiting global
880 temperature rise to 2°C, and by 433% under scenario in which no further mitigation occurs,

881 assuming no further adaptation. By 2081-2100, these are projected to be 683% and 1537%,
882 respectively.



883

884 *Figure 2 Population-weighted exposure to temperatures above the 84th percentile for 1986-2005. In a*
885 *climate with no anthropogenic climate change, this value would be expected to be close to 60 days (black*
886 *line). The number of days HDI country groups are displayed as solid lines, and the heavy line is the global*
887 *average. The number of days of exposure to warm temperatures made at least twice as likely by climate*
888 *change are plotted as a dashed orange lines.*

889

890 1.2 Health and Extreme Weather-related Events

891 Climate change-driven increases in temperature and changes in rainfall patterns are increasing
892 the frequency, intensity, and duration of life-threatening extreme weather and weather-related
893 events.¹²³ These events pose direct and indirect risks to physical and mental health.^{50,98,100–102,124–}
894 ¹⁴¹ The indicators below track the changing incidence of key health-threatening extreme events.
895 Efforts are ongoing to better capture the changing risk of floods, a crucial gap which will be
896 addressed in upcoming reports.

897

898 Indicator 1.2.1: Wildfires

899 *Headline finding: The number of days in which people were exposed to very or extremely high fire*
900 *danger increased in 57% of countries between 2003–2007 and 2018–2022. However, exposure to*
901 *wildfires decreased in 56 countries and increased in only seven during this period.*

902 Rising temperatures and incidence of drought increase the risk of wildfires, which affect health
903 through thermal injuries, smoke exposure, loss of essential and health-supporting physical
904 infrastructure, and impacts on mental health.^{142–144}

905 Population data and a Fire Danger Index which captures meteorological fire risk,^{145,146} suggest
906 that, on average, people globally were exposed to six more days of very high or extremely high
907 wildfire danger in 2018-2022 compared with 2003-2007, with an increase observed in 57% of
908 countries and no change or a decrease in the rest. However, potentially due to wildfire
909 management and control, reduced availability of vegetation or other forms of fuel following
910 previous fires, land use change (including urban expansion), or rural-urban migration continuing
911 to concentrate populations in cities, 56 countries saw a statistically significant reduction in the
912 days each person was exposed to active wildfires annually in 2018-2022 compared to 2003-2007,

913 whereas only seven saw a statistically significant increase. During 2003-2022, global average
914 wildfire smoke concentrations, as estimated using the SILAM chemistry transport model and
915 active-fires satellite observations,^{147–150} did not change significantly. However, there was a
916 statistically significant increase in wildfire smoke concentrations in Eastern Siberia, Western US,
917 Canada, and India. In 2018-2022, low and medium HDI countries were affected by 1.6 times
918 higher wildfire smoke concentrations than high and very high HDI countries.

919 Compared to 1995-2014, the number of days of exposure to very high or higher wildfire risk is
920 projected to increase by approximately 9 extra days per person (11% increase) by the middle of
921 the century, both in a scenario compatible with limiting global temperature rise to 2°C, and in a
922 scenario in which no further mitigation occurs. Towards the end of the century, a scenario with
923 no further mitigation is projected to result in three times more days of exposure (27 more days
924 than in 1995-2014), than in a 2°C-compatible scenario (9.6 more days than in 1995-2014).
925 Likewise, the global mean fire-related PM_{2.5} concentration would be 5% higher in the no-further-
926 mitigation scenario than in a 2°C-compatible scenario by 2041-2060, but 50% higher by 2081-
927 2100 assuming no further adaptation.

928

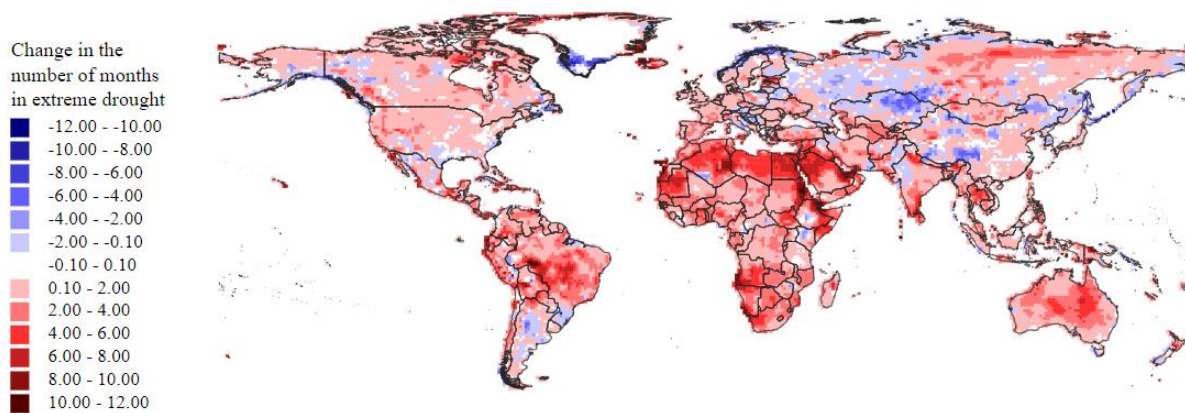
929 **Indicator 1.2.2: Drought**

930 *Headline finding: the global land area affected by extreme drought per year increased from 18%*
931 *in 1951-1960 to 47% in 2013-2022.*

932 In 2022, extreme drought affected every continent. Impacts on crop yields and loss of livestock
933 worsened food insecurity, and water shortages affected water security in vulnerable
934 areas.^{20,21,23,64} Low river flows hampered electricity generation and fluvial transportation,
935 affecting energy access and economic activity.^{23,25} Women and girls, who are those charged with
936 water collection and distribution in many water-insecure settings, are likely to be increasingly

937 exposed to gender violence and physical harms as they have to travel longer distances to collect
938 water, or as they are unable to fulfil these domestic tasks.¹⁵¹

939 Accounting for precipitation and heat-driven evapotranspiration,¹⁵² this indicator reports that
940 the global land area affected annually by at least one month of extreme drought increased from
941 18% in 1951–1960, to 47% in 2013–2022 (Figure 3). Year-round drought affected many
942 vulnerable areas in 2022, including the Horn of Africa, the Western Sahara, and the southern
943 Amazon region of Brazil.



944

945 *Figure 3: Change in the number of months per year in extreme drought from 1951-60 to 2013-22.*

946 Indicator 1.2.3: Extreme Weather and Sentiment

947 *Headline finding: extreme weather in 2022 was associated with a record 0.53 percentage point*
948 *reduction in online positive sentiment expression during heatwaves, and a 0.31 percentage point*
949 *reduction in positive sentiment expression during extreme precipitation days.*

950 Extreme weather events, including heatwaves and extreme precipitation, can affect people's
951 mental wellbeing.^{131,140,153} This indicator uses a multivariate fixed-effects panel regression to
952 monitor the effects of heatwaves and extreme precipitation on expressed online sentiments (as
953 the share of tweets reflecting positive or negative expressions), adjusting for date, location,

954 seasonality, and meteorological conditions.^{153–156} The lexical content of 8.2 billion tweets from
955 190 countries and ~44,000 localities was analysed. Of note, social media use is more common in
956 wealthier countries that also have greater ability to adapt to heat stress and other climate-related
957 factors, compared to poorer countries. Thus, these estimates likely underestimate the true global
958 impacts of environmental stressors on sentiment (see appendix pp 61).

959 Over the past eight years, the adverse impact of heatwaves on both negative sentiment and
960 positive sentiments increased in magnitude. Days with extreme precipitation had an increasingly
961 negative impact on online positive sentiment expression between 2015 and 2022, whereas there
962 was no noticeable trend for the impact on negative sentiment. Extreme weather in 2022 was
963 associated with a record 0.53 percentage point reduction in online positive sentiment expression
964 during heatwaves, and a 0.31 percentage point reduction in positive sentiment expression during
965 extreme precipitation days.

966

967 **Indicator 1.3: Climate Suitability for Infectious Disease Transmission**

968 *Headline finding: the annual average climatic suitability of West Nile Virus (WNV) transmission*
969 *increased by 4.4% from 1951-1960 to 2013-2022; the transmission potential for dengue by *Aedes**
970 **aegypti* and *albopictus* increased by 42.7% and 39.5%, respectively; and the coastline suitable for*
971 **Vibrio* transmission increased by 329 km annually since 1982.*

972 Changing climatic conditions are altering the transmission potential of many vector-, water-,
973 food-, and air-borne infectious diseases.^{157–159} This indicator monitors the changing climatic
974 suitability of West Nile virus (WNV), dengue, zika, chikungunya, malaria, and non-cholera *Vibrio*
975 pathogens.

976 WNV is a climate-sensitive mosquito-borne disease that circulates in birds and can spill over to
977 humans via *Culex (Cx.)* mosquitoes.¹⁶⁰⁻¹⁶³ It can cause rare but severe illness involving the central
978 nervous system.¹⁶⁴ Over the past two decades, it has emerged in the Americas and expanded in
979 Europe, where it is becoming a public health concern.^{165,166} This new sub-indicator leverages
980 experimentally-established vector-pathogen-temperature relationships to track temperature-
981 induced changes in the relative basic reproduction number (R0) for WNV (WNV-R0), in regions
982 where three relevant *Culex* vectors are present.^{160,167} The WNV-R0 was on average 4.4% higher
983 in 2013-2022 compared to 1951-1960, with an increase in the very high (+7.7%), high (+6.6%),
984 and medium (+4.1%) HDI country groups, and a slight decrease in the low HDI country group (-
985 0.7%).

986 Driven by climatic changes, urbanisation, and human movement, cases of dengue have doubled
987 every decade since 1990, and almost half of the world population is now at risk of this life-
988 threatening disease.^{73,168} Using a mechanistic model that accounts for changes in temperature
989 and precipitation, this sub-indicator shows that, relative to 1951-1960, in 2013-2022, the average
990 R0 for dengue transmission by *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* increased by 42.7% and
991 39.5%, respectively. Other arboviruses are showing similar trends: the R0 for the transmission of
992 chikungunya by *Ae albopictus* increased by 39.5%, and that for the transmission of Zika by *Ae*
993 *aegypti* increased by 43.5% during the same time period. The length of the transmission season
994 increased for these arboviruses by between 24.3 and 30.3%. The suitability for dengue
995 transmission is expected to increase under all future scenarios of planetary heating. By mid-
996 century, a scenario compatible with limiting global temperature rise to 2°C would see an increase
997 in R0 of 19% for *Ae aegypti*, and 21% for *Ae albopictus* from 1995-2014 levels, whereas a scenario
998 in which no further mitigation occurs would see increases of 27% and 30%, respectively. By the
999 end of the century, R0 for *Ae aegypti* would increase 20%, while *Ae albopictus* would increase
1000 22% under the 2°C-compatible scenario. Under the scenario with no further mitigation, *Ae*
1001 *aegypti* would increase 38% and *Ae albopictus* by 47%.

1002 Fluctuations in the length of the malaria transmission season is inferred using environmental and
1003 climatic requirements of the vector (*Anopheles* mosquitoes), and *Plasmodium* parasites.¹⁶⁹
1004 Overall, 9.85% of the land without suitable conditions for transmission of *P. falciparum* in 1951-
1005 1960 became suitable by 2013-2022, while 17.34% became suitable for *P. vivax*. Under a scenario
1006 compatible with limiting temperature rise to 2°C, 23% of areas not suitable for malaria
1007 transmission between 1995-2014 are projected to become suitable in 2041-2060. However,
1008 under a scenario in which no further mitigation occurs, this figure rises to 26% in 2041-2060.¹⁷⁰
1009 By the end of the century, although the amount of newly suitable areas would not expand further
1010 in the 2°C-compatible scenario, it would increase to 38% in a scenario with no further mitigation.

1011 *Vibrio* pathogens are ubiquitous in coastal brackish waters, and can cause severe and sometimes
1012 life-threatening wound, ear, and gastrointestinal infections in those who come into direct contact
1013 with them.¹⁷¹ This indicator uses a threshold-based model to monitor the suitability for the
1014 transmission of pathogenic *Vibrio* species (excluding *V. cholerae*) in global sea coastlines, this
1015 year better accounting for salinity. The total coastal area environmentally suitable for *Vibrio*
1016 transmission increased by 329 km annually since 1982. In 2022, the coastline suitable at any one
1017 point was 12.7% higher than in 1982-2010, reaching 9.9% of the global coastline (third highest
1018 level after 2018 and 2008). A record 81 countries showed suitable areas for *Vibrio* through 2022.
1019 The total population living within 100km of areas with *Vibrio* suitability, and therefore at risk of
1020 transmission, reached a record 1.4 billion people in 2022, 28% above the 1982-2010 average,
1021 leading to a record 609,900 estimated vibriosis cases. Under a scenario compatible with limiting
1022 temperature rise to 2°C, suitable coastal area is projected to increase by 17-25% and lead to 23-
1023 39% more cases by 2041-2060. Under a scenario with no further mitigation, the suitable coastline
1024 would be 30-34% higher and lead to 45-46% more cases than in baseline years. By 2081-2100,
1025 the suitable coastal area is projected to grow by 10-35% under a 2°C-compatible scenario and
1026 64-84% under a scenario with no further mitigation. Correspondingly, the number of cases would
1027 increase by 2-22% and 102-140%, respectively.

1028

1029 **Indicator 1.4: Food Security and Undernutrition**

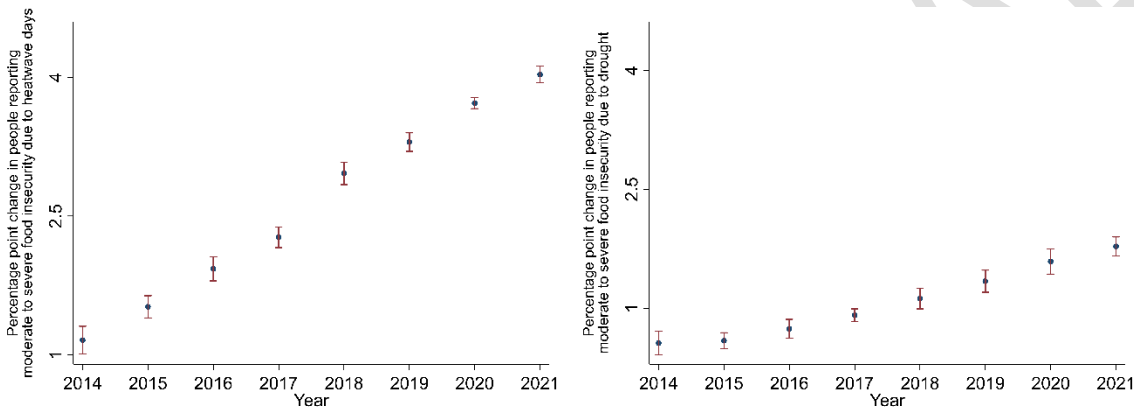
1030 *Headline finding: the higher frequency of heatwave days and drought months in 2021 compared*
1031 *to 1981–2010, is associated with 127 million more people experiencing moderate or severe food*
1032 *insecurity.*

1033 Globally, 735 million people faced hunger in 2022 and 3.1 billion people (42%) were unable to
1034 afford a healthy diet in 2021.¹⁷² Through multiple and interconnected pathways, climate change
1035 is exacerbating food insecurity: by undermining crop yields; affecting labour capacity of
1036 agricultural workers; threatening food security for populations dependent on marine resources,
1037 through coastal sea surface temperature elevation, reduced oxygenation, ocean acidification,
1038 and coral reef bleaching;^{173–175} disrupting supply chains; and reducing food access.^{176,177}
1039 Minoritised communities, including Indigenous Peoples and subsistence farmers, are particularly
1040 affected, as their access to primary and traditional food sources may be compromised, resulting
1041 in poorer health outcomes.^{178–180} Increased food insecurity can also contribute to malnutrition,
1042 which can have irreversible negative impacts on child health and development.

1043 The first part of this indicator combines data from the FAO Food Insecurity Experience Scale
1044 (FIES)¹⁸¹ from 122 countries (up from 103 in the 2022 Report of the Lancet Countdown) with the
1045 frequency of heatwave days and drought months (SPEI-12) during the growth seasons of maize,
1046 rice, sorghum, and wheat, using a time-varying panel regression. Compared to 1981–2010, a
1047 higher number of heatwave days was associated with 4.03 percentage-points higher moderate
1048 or severe food insecurity (as defined by FIES) in 2021, while increasing frequency of droughts
1049 resulted in food insecurity being 1.78 percentage-points higher, equivalent to approximately 127
1050 million more people experiencing food insecurity (Figure 4). Under a scenario compatible with
1051 limiting temperature rise to 2°C, and assuming no further adaptation, 524.9 million additional

1052 people are projected to experience food insecurity by 2041-2060 compared to the 1995-2014
 1053 baseline. The global health co-benefits of a 2°C-compatible scenario rather than a scenario in
 1054 which no further mitigation occurs are projected to include 530 million fewer people
 1055 experiencing food insecurity by 2041-2060, and 1.1 billion fewer food insecure people by 2081-
 1056 2100.

1057



1058

1059 *Figure 4: Change in the share of the population (percentage point change) reporting moderate or severe*
 1060 *food insecurity (as defined by FIES) due to heatwave days (left-panel) and frequency of drought months*
 1061 *(right-panel) occurring during four major crop (maize, rice, sorghum, and wheat) growing seasons.*

1062 Marine food yields are threatened by sea surface temperature elevation through reduced
 1063 oxygenation, ocean acidification, coral reef bleaching, and reduced primary productivity.¹⁸²⁻¹⁸⁴
 1064 An increase in sea surface temperature (SST) is threatening marine food productivity and the
 1065 livelihoods of many coastal populations.¹⁸⁵ The second part of this indicator monitors changes in
 1066 SST, this year with improved geographical and temporal coverage.¹⁸⁶ The SST in global coastal
 1067 areas increased by 0.51°C in 2020–2022 compared to 1981-2010. SST is projected to increase by
 1068 0.99°C by mid-century and by and 1.23°C by the end of the century in a scenario compatible with
 1069 limiting global mean atmospheric heating to 2°C. SSTs are projected to rise even further under a

1070 scenario in which no further mitigation occurs, reaching 1.15°C by mid-century and 2.64°C by the
1071 end of the century.¹⁸⁷

1072

1073 Conclusions

1074 Exposure to climate-related health risks and their impacts are increasing, including from
1075 extremes of heat (indicators 1.1.1-1.1.5), wildfire danger (indicator 1.2.1), environmental
1076 suitability for infectious diseases (indicator 1.3), and fewer safe hours to work or exercise
1077 outdoors (indicators 1.1.3-1.1.4). Populations are increasingly exposed to a multitude of greater
1078 climate risks that lead to worsening health outcomes. The inclusion of projections for the first
1079 time in this year's report makes clear the potential benefits of more rapid mitigation to limit
1080 temperature rise to 1.5°C, and the clear need for – and importance – of increasing adaptation
1081 efforts, underlining the health harms that can be avoided by meeting the goals of the Paris
1082 Agreement. Ongoing efforts are focused on improving climate change attribution of observed
1083 changes.

1084 Despite efforts to develop an increasingly comprehensive assessment of the evolving threats and
1085 impacts of climate change on human health, limitations in data availability and modelling mean
1086 that multiple gaps still remain. Previous Lancet Countdown reports covered the link between
1087 climate change and mental health within panels, but efforts are still ongoing to advance the
1088 development of an indicator to cover this critical aspect. In addition, the scarcity of data
1089 disaggregated by gender, ethnicity, race, Indigeneity, migrant status, and other characteristics
1090 limits the capacity to track the impact of climate change on vulnerable and minoritized groups;
1091 and, as a consequence the capacity to assess and address the growing health inequities. Given
1092 the current disproportionate impact of climate change on these groups,^{34,188} reflecting these
1093 inequities is a challenge that the *Lancet* Countdown will continue to pursue.

1094 Due to the complexity of systems modelling, the indicators in this section do not examine the
1095 potential negative impacts of interactions and synergies amongst impacts, or social and climate
1096 tipping points, which could considerably increase negative effects on human health. Avoiding
1097 these extreme risks requires urgent measures to tackle the health harms of climate change by
1098 rapidly accelerating both mitigation and adaptation, as non-exclusive and essential interventions.

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1102 Section 2: Adaptation, Planning, and Resilience for Health

1103 Section 1 shows that health is already impacted by climate change, and related hazards will
1104 worsen with further climate change. Protecting people against rising risks requires increasing
1105 adaptation of health and health-supporting systems, while simultaneously reducing GHG
1106 emissions to keep climate change within the limits of adaptive capacity.³⁹ To be effective,
1107 adaptation measures should be informed by climate change-health risk assessments, their
1108 implementation adequately funded, and their effectiveness in reducing climate change risks
1109 evaluated and iteratively improved. With the understanding, conceptualisation, and definition of
1110 a path to achieving the Paris Agreement’s Global Goal on Adaptation being set in 2023 as the
1111 two-year Glasgow-Sharm el-Sheikh work programme comes to a close,¹⁸⁹ prioritising health in
1112 these considerations will ensure people are protected in a heating world.

1113 The first group of indicators in this section monitors progress on assessment and planning of
1114 health adaptation; the second group assesses the enabling conditions for health adaptation; and
1115 the last set tracks vulnerabilities, risk, and resilience to climate change.¹⁹⁰

1116

1117 2.1: Assessment and Planning of Health Adaptation

1118 To be effective, adaptation plans must be informed by an in-depth understanding of the health
1119 risks of climate change across demographics and populations. Indicators in this section monitor
1120 how risks are being assessed, and health adaptation planned at national and city-levels.

1121 Indicator 2.1.1: National Assessments of Climate Change Impacts, Vulnerability, and Adaptation
1122 for Health

1123 *Headline finding: In 2022, 11 of the 64 countries that committed to building climate-resilient*
1124 *health systems through the COP26 Health Programme reported having completed a vulnerability*
1125 *and adaptation assessment.*

1126 The COP26 Health Programme was established in 2021, supporting countries in developing
1127 climate-resilient and/or low-carbon health systems. Within it, countries commit to conducting
1128 climate change and health vulnerability and adaptation assessments (V&As), using them to
1129 inform health national adaptation plan (HNAPs) and facilitate access to climate change funding
1130 for health.^{44,190} The Alliance for Transformative Action on Climate and Health (ATACH), led by the
1131 WHO, supports countries with their implementation. To date, 64 countries have committed to
1132 building climate-resilient health systems through this Programme. A baseline review indicates
1133 that 11 health V&As had been completed between January 2020 and December 2022. These
1134 assessments identify a range of key health risks, with infectious and respiratory diseases most
1135 common.

1136

1137 Indicator 2.1.2: National Adaptation Plans for Health

1138 *Headline finding: Between 2020 and 2022, 4 out of 64 countries that made COP26 commitments*
1139 *developed or updated Health National Adaptation Plans.*

1140 HNAPs are a key mechanism for health systems to prepare for the growing climate burden.
1141 Adaptation priorities outlined in HNAPs should be informed by V&As and integrated into National
1142 Adaptation Plans (NAPs). HNAPs aim to mainstream climate resilience across health governance,

1143 service delivery, health workforce, finance, health information systems, and essential medicines
1144 and technologies.

1145 Of the 64 countries making COP26 commitments, only 4 developed or updated HNAPs between
1146 2020 and 2022, with funding remaining a key limitation. In response, ATACH established a
1147 Financing Working Group to address this barrier. Progress on funding for the implementation of
1148 COP26 commitments will be tracked in future reports.

1149

1150 **Indicator 2.1.3: City-level Climate Change Risk Assessments**

1151 *Headline finding: in 2022, 94% of cities (848/898) reported they had completed or were*
1152 *undertaking a city-level climate change risk assessment, up from 713 in 2021.*

1153 Urban centres are home to 55% of the world's population.¹⁹¹ City-level interventions therefore
1154 hold much potential to prevent climate change-related health impacts. This indicator evaluates
1155 progress in assessing city-level climate change-related health risks using data reported to the
1156 CDP.¹⁹²

1157 The number of cities reporting that they have completed, are in the process of undertaking, or
1158 intend to undertake a climate change risk assessment within two years increased from 713 in
1159 2021 to 848 in 2022 (94% of 898). Of the 6% (50/898) that reported they were not undertaking a
1160 risk assessment, 22% (11/50) indicated that this was due to lack of financial capacity, 24% (12/50)
1161 due to lack of technical capacity, and 40% (20/50) due to both.

1162 Amongst respondents, 67% (351/525) declared concern over climate change impacting public
1163 health outcomes, and 27% (141/525) over their health systems being overwhelmed.

1164 The most frequently identified hazards were extreme heat (72%, 378/525), heavy precipitation
1165 (39%, 205/525), and urban flooding (38%, 200/525).

1166 Low and medium HDI countries had the highest proportion of cities not intending to undertake
1167 a climate change risk assessment (12%, 12/100), with financial constraints and/or lack of
1168 technical skills as key contributing factors.

1169

1170 2.2: Enabling Conditions, Adaptation Delivery, and Implementation

1171 Adaptation measures must protect populations most at risk, must be integrated across sectors,
1172 and must avoid unintended harms. The following indicators monitor health adaptation and
1173 adaptation-enabling conditions, highlighting areas of plausible improvements.

1174 Indicator 2.2.1: Climate Information for Health

1175 *Headline finding: in 2022, 81% (157/193) of WMO's 193 Members report working with the health*
1176 *sector. The most frequent type of service provided is data (74%; 143/193).*

1177 Climate services for health are essential to help the health sector conduct research and make-
1178 climate informed decisions for planning, preparedness, and response to climate-sensitive
1179 diseases and extreme weather (panel 5). This requires close cooperation between meteorological
1180 and health services, and also support for health services to be able to access, understand, and
1181 act upon health-relevant meteorological information.⁴⁴ In 2022, 81% (157/193) of WMO's 193
1182 Members report working with the health sector. Of those providing services, the most frequent
1183 types of service provided are data (74%; 143/193); climate monitoring (61%; 117/193); climate
1184 analysis (59%; 114/193), climate prediction (51%; 99/193), and tailored products (50%; 96/193).
1185 Relationship and capacity building between the health and climate sectors needs further
1186 investment and development.

1187

1188 ***Panel 5: Early-warning systems for heatwaves: protecting people’s health from a heating***
1189 ***climate***

1190 During the summer of 2022, England saw deadly, record-breaking heatwaves, with temperatures
1191 of 40.3°C prompting the first ever Level 4 Heat-Health Alert (HHA) and Red Extreme Heat (EH)
1192 weather warning. To understand and inform measures to reduce health impacts from heatwaves,
1193 the United Kingdom Health Security Agency (UKHSA) routinely assesses and reports all-cause
1194 excess mortality during episodes of heat.¹⁹³ In 2022, observed excess mortality was calculated
1195 accounting for COVID-19 deaths. In addition, a novel analysis was performed to model the
1196 mortality which would have been expected based on the relationship between temperature and
1197 mortality, and using multiple lines of evidence to assess seasonal impacts. While the confidence
1198 intervals of each estimate overlap, the observed excess mortality associated with 5 extreme heat
1199 episodes in 2022 (2,985) was 23% below the mortality modelled (3,889) based on observed
1200 temperatures across England. This difference increased further to 32% during the heat episode
1201 when the Level 4 HHA and Red EH weather warning were issued (1256 observed; 1852 modelled).

1202 The relationship between heat and mortality, and particularly assessing the impact of
1203 implemented interventions on reduced mortality is extremely complex, particularly considering
1204 uncertainty in estimates and other challenges regarding attribution. However, the UK
1205 Meteorological Office customer research suggests that 98% of the public took some level of
1206 action following the Level 4/Red EH warnings, and it is likely that warnings, clear heat messaging,
1207 public buy-in, and a joint meteorological and public health communication effort contributed to
1208 a lower observed mortality than that predicted through modelling. Heatwaves in the summer of
1209 2022 in England could have had a more disastrous effect, but hundreds of lives were potentially
1210 saved through interventions. Further work is needed to reduce heat-related mortality, as
1211 highlighted by the 2,985-excess heat-related deaths that occurred. During the late season heat

1212 episode, the observed excess mortality was higher than that expected . Factors that may have
1213 contributed to this include the fact that the alert level was not as high as in previous episodes
1214 (Level 3 HHA), which may have led to a lower perceived risk by the public and therefore a
1215 decrease in health-protective action.¹⁹³UKHSA’s next phase will move towards impact-based
1216 alerting, using maximum and minimum temperature thresholds to guide a dynamic risk
1217 assessment process. It is anticipated that this added level of detail and flexibility in the alerts
1218 themselves will provide additional information to make more informed decisions. Through
1219 additional assessments of humidity, cloud cover, wind, and access to cooling mechanisms there
1220 can be a more complex understanding of heatwave health impacts globally.

1221 As reported in indicator 2.2.1, many other countries are beginning to integrate meteorological
1222 efforts into health-based warning systems, with city-level actions tending to dominate. Within
1223 Central and South America, only Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay discuss implementing heat early
1224 warning systems in their NAPs. Of these three countries, only Argentina has additionally
1225 expanded out of non-urban contexts. Increasing the effectiveness of heatwave early warning
1226 systems requires interdisciplinary approaches, using meteorological services to provide
1227 advanced weather forecasts and public health communication along with mechanisms for
1228 monitoring and evaluation. In addition, tailoring definitions of heatwaves and their thresholds,
1229 specifically to each region can ensure that early warning systems are most effective in protecting
1230 people’s health during extremes of heat.

1231

1232

1233 Indicator 2.2.2: Air Conditioning: Benefits and Harms

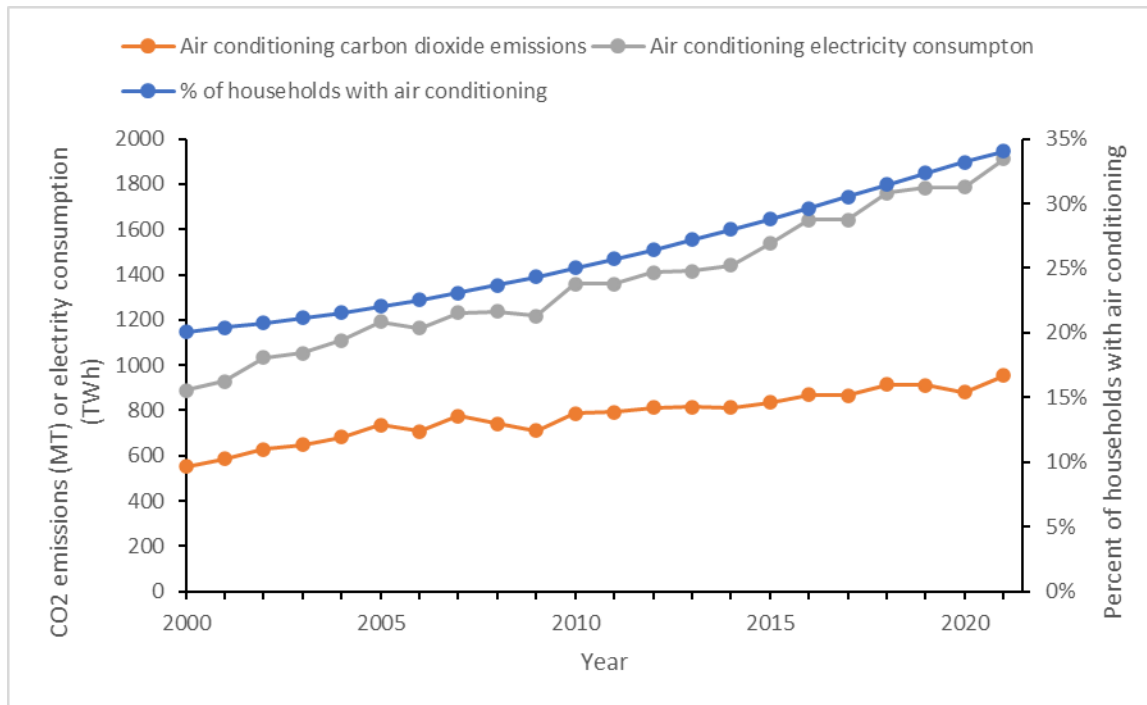
1234 *Headline finding: in 2021, air conditioning provided cooling in one-third of households but*
1235 *consumed about 1900 TWh of electricity – approximately the total electricity consumption of*
1236 *India and Brazil combined.*¹⁹⁴

1237 Air conditioning (AC) can prevent heat-related illnesses and death.¹⁹⁵ However, it is energy-
1238 intensive and can exacerbate climate change, air pollution, urban heat islands, energy poverty,
1239 and health inequities.^{196,197} According to International Energy Agency data, between 2000 and
1240 2021, the proportion of households with AC increased by 70%, reaching one-third of households.
1241 In 2021, AC consumed about 1900 TWh of electricity, over twice the consumption in 2000, and
1242 approximately the total electricity consumption of India and Brazil combined.¹⁹⁴ This energy
1243 demand strained power grids, caused associated CO₂ emissions to increase by 73% to almost one
1244 gigatonne in 2021, and led to about 23,000 deaths from exposure to associated PM_{2.5} emissions
1245 in 2020 (Figure 5). In many hot, low-income regions, AC remains largely inaccessible.¹⁹⁸ To deliver
1246 sustainable cooling for all, over 30 countries have completed or are developing National Cooling
1247 Action Plans.¹⁹⁹ The Cool Coalition recommends an integrated approach, including passive
1248 cooling; highly-efficient active cooling; climate-friendly refrigerants; and expanded access to
1249 cooling for all, but only where and when it is needed.²⁰⁰

1250

1251

1252



1253

1254 *Figure 5 Air conditioning: global household prevalence, electricity consumption, and carbon dioxide*
 1255 *emissions*

1256

1257 Indicator 2.2.3: Urban Green Space

1258 *Headline finding: the proportion of urban centres with moderate or higher levels of greenness*
 1259 *decreased from 18% in 2015 to 13% in 2022 in low HDI countries, with little variation across other*
 1260 *HDI groups.*

1261 Green spaces can reduce the intensity of heat at the neighbourhood scale in urban centres, while
 1262 positively affecting physical and mental health, providing local improvements in air quality, and
 1263 helping reduce the risk of urban floods by reducing water runoff.^{201–205} This indicator uses
 1264 satellite measurements of vegetation (measured by Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
 1265 (NDVI)) overlaid with population data to estimate greenspace exposure for 1,041 urban centres

1266 of over 500,000 inhabitants across 174 countries. Global urban greenness has remained low
1267 (mean NDVI = 0.34) since 2015. In very high HDI countries, 36% of urban centres had at least
1268 moderate levels of greenness, against 18% in high, 36% in medium, and 13% in low HDI countries.
1269 Concerningly, low HDI countries are the only HDI group to experience a reduction in exposure to
1270 moderate or higher levels of urban green space, with a drop from 18% in 2020 to 13% in 2022.

1271

1272 Indicator 2.2.4: Global Multilateral Funding for Health Adaptation Programs

1273 *Headline finding: US\$ 1.61 billion of Green Climate Fund (GCF) financing was dedicated to*
1274 *adaptation projects in 2022, with 17.66% (US\$ 199 million) going towards health-specific projects.*

1275 Financing is a key mechanism of country-level health adaptation; multilateral funding
1276 organizations can provide meaningful financing contributions to countries' health-related
1277 adaptation efforts.² This indicator reports on multilateral funding assigned by the Green Climate
1278 Fund (GCF), one of seven multilateral funding mechanisms under the UNFCCC,^{206,207} for health-
1279 related adaptation projects. In 2022, 20 projects on adaptation, or on both adaptation and
1280 mitigation, were approved, for a total of US\$1.61 billion. Of this, 17.66% (US\$199 million) went
1281 to health-specific projects, with 12 of the 15 health-specific projects focusing on improved water
1282 and food security. Considering only GCF, this indicator does not capture all climate funding, but
1283 does provide a representative sample of funding priorities.

1284

1285 Indicator 2.2.5: Detection, Preparedness, and Response to Health Emergencies

1286 *Headline finding: 126 of 180 countries reported high to very-high implementation status for*
1287 *health emergency management in 2022.*

1288 With the climate suitability for the transmission of multiple infectious diseases increasing in many
1289 locations (indicator 1.3), reducing the risk of outbreaks and epidemics requires robust health
1290 emergency preparedness and response systems. This indicator reports on the implementation of
1291 the legally-binding International Health Regulation (IHR)'s core capacities on health emergency
1292 management.

1293 In 2022, 126 of 180 (70%) countries reported high to very-high implementation (capacity score
1294 of 61–100) of health emergency management. However, while 85% of very high HDI countries
1295 reported high to very-high implementation, only 44% of low HDI and 54% of medium HDI did.

1296 The Strategic Partnership for Health Security and Emergency Preparedness Portal tracks progress
1297 and gaps in IHR implementation through independent external evaluations, simulations, after-
1298 review exercises, and the development of national action plans for health security and resource
1299 mapping.²⁰⁸ Since 2020, 25 country-level After-Action Reviews have been conducted, of which 8
1300 covered epidemics and pandemics, 8 covered human-induced events, and 9 covered extreme
1301 natural events.

1302 Following the COVID-19 pandemic, a review of the IHRs identified over 300 possible amendments
1303 to strengthen country capacity and compliance. A final proposal on IHR amendments will be
1304 presented at the 2024 World Health Assembly.^{208,209}

1305

1306 2.3: Vulnerabilities, Health Risk, and Resilience to Climate Change

1307 While mitigation can reduce climate change hazards, adaptation measures seek to equitably
1308 manage climate risks. The following three indicators monitor the changing vulnerabilities to
1309 climate hazards and health adaptation progress and gaps.

1310

1311 Indicator 2.3.1: Vulnerability to Mosquito-borne Disease

1312 *Headline finding: low HDI countries experienced a 37% decrease in vulnerability to Aedes-borne*
1313 *disease between 1990 and 2021, partly due to improvements in access to healthcare.*

1314 The spread of *Aedes*-borne diseases is rapidly increasing, fuelled by climatic changes (indicator
1315 1.3), people movement and urbanisation.²¹⁰ Reducing the vulnerabilities to their most adverse
1316 health outcomes is essential to minimise health risks. This indicator captures the relative
1317 vulnerability to severe *Aedes*-borne disease outcomes, by combining increased susceptibility
1318 from urbanisation,^{210,211} and coping capacity from improved healthcare access and quality.

1319 The vulnerability to severe disease outcomes increased by 6.6% in very high HDI countries from
1320 1990 to 2021, primarily driven by a 9% increase in urbanisation. In low HDI countries, healthcare
1321 access and quality improved by 48% over this time period, driving a 37% reduction in *Aedes*-
1322 borne disease vulnerability. City-level dengue transmission risk assessments, improving waste
1323 and territorial management, and operationalizing early warning systems are increasingly
1324 necessary to reduce the disease burden of *Aedes*-borne diseases.

1325

1326 Indicator 2.3.2: Lethality of Extreme Weather Events

1327 *Headline finding: the lethality of floods and storms decreased significantly in high and very high*
1328 *HDI countries between 1990-1999 and 2013-2022.*

1329 The frequency, intensity and duration of extreme weather events is increasing worldwide as a
1330 result of anthropogenic climate change.^{39,59} Well-implemented adaptive measures can however
1331 avoid a proportional increase in deaths.²¹² Using the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of
1332 Disasters' database (EM-DAT),²¹³ this indicator tracks the changing risk of death from climate-

1333 related extreme events (defined as the proportion of people affected that died in the event), and
1334 the proportion of events that were deadly.

1335 The risk of death from floods or storms did not change significantly since 1990 across any world
1336 region or HDI group. However, their lethality declined on average from 86 to 16 deaths per event
1337 in high HDI countries ($p=0.007$) and from 11 to 8 deaths in very high HDI countries ($p=0.02$)
1338 between 1990-1999 and 2013-2022, while remaining statistically unchanged in other groups.

1339

1340 **Indicator 2.3.3: Migration, Displacement, and Rising Sea Levels**

1341 *Headline finding: in 2022, 153.8 million people were living less than 1 metre above current sea*
1342 *levels*

1343 Global mean sea level increased 4.68 mm per year between 2013 and 2022, and is projected to
1344 reach 0.29–1.10m by 2100 (relative to 1986–2005), depending on emission scenarios and
1345 environmental responses.^{214–216} Sea level rise can affect human health through episodic flooding,
1346 permanent inundation, erosion, soil and drinking water contamination, vector- and water-borne
1347 disease, and mental health impacts.^{217–220} Using land elevation and population data, this indicator
1348 estimates that 153.8 million people were living less than 1m above sea level in 2022, up by 7.9%
1349 from 2010.

1350 In many cases, populations are able to adapt in situ to climate hazards such as those of sea level
1351 rise. However, diverse (including environmental) factors can push people to relocate (forced or
1352 otherwise) or render them immobile. Different forms of human (im)mobility (which includes
1353 planned relocation, circular labour mobility or seasonal migration, temporary and permanent
1354 migration, short-term evacuation or trapped and immobile people) are influenced by a complex
1355 interplay of sociocultural, political, psychological, economic, demographic, and environmental

1356 factors.²²¹ Migration can bring varied benefits and difficulties for migrants and other populations
1357 in sites of origin, migration routes, and destinations. As of December 2022, 52 policies connecting
1358 climate change and migration were identified across 40 countries. No policy mentioned
1359 immobility,²²² and they tended to refer to health issues, even if peripherally, without explicitly
1360 connecting health to climate change and migration—or else explaining why links might not exist.
1361 Little engagement with or basis on science is evident across the policies.

1362 Conclusion

1363 Indicators in this section show that health adaptation, essential to minimise the impacts of
1364 climate change, continues to be insufficient. Low and middle HDI countries are often lagging, with
1365 scarce funding continuing to be a barrier (indicators 2.1.1-2.1.3, 2.2.4, and 2.2.5).

1366 Scarce planned action has also resulted in maladaptation. The use of electricity for air
1367 conditioning increased 70% from 2000 to 2021, pushing associated emissions up by 73% and
1368 contributing 23,000 deaths from PM_{2.5} in 2020 alone (indicator 2.2.2). Meanwhile, urban
1369 greenness remains low globally, exposing the unleveraged potential for sustainable cooling with
1370 multiple health co-benefits (indicator 2.2.3). As climate change impacts increase, the cost and
1371 challenges of adaptation will continue to rise steeply, leaving reduced scope for averting rapidly
1372 accelerating health harms.

1373 However, there are some signs of progress. Countries are increasingly committing to deliver
1374 resilient, sustainable health systems (indicators 2.1.1 – 2.1.2), more cities identify and assess
1375 health risks yearly (indicator 2.1.3), and health system strengthening reduced the vulnerability to
1376 mosquito-borne diseases, particularly in the most exposed countries (indicators 2.3.1 and 2.3.3).

1377 With further climate change now unavoidable, adaptation needs will keep increasing, and
1378 adaptation efforts must urgently ramp up to protect the health of all populations. Key to success
1379 will be fostering global knowledge exchange between different actors, particularly focusing on

1380 learnings from lower HDI countries, and especially harnessing the wealth of knowledge of
1381 Indigenous Peoples.²²³ As the challenges to adaptation increase, monitoring progress will
1382 become increasingly important. Despite refinement of indicators over the past seven years, the
1383 challenge of capturing effective adaptation still remains, and many indicators rely on self-
1384 reported data which is inherently biased. In addition, adaptation efforts led by grassroots
1385 organisations, communities or civil society are still not being recorded in a standardised manner,
1386 limiting the capacity to monitor progress at a global level. Future efforts will focus on assessing
1387 the effectiveness of adaptation, and capturing their impact on different communities – although
1388 a lack of reported data is likely to limit the capacity to effectively monitor this.

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1391 **Section 3: Mitigation Actions and Health Co-benefits**

1392 In recognition of the urgent need to accelerate action in this critical decade, the Mitigation Work
1393 Programme was established at COP27 to urgently scale up mitigation ambition and
1394 implementation. These actions hold the potential to avoid the most catastrophic human impacts
1395 of climate change, as well as improving the environmental and socioeconomic conditions that
1396 good health requires.

1397 This section documents progress on climate change mitigation and its health implications. It
1398 explores the health impacts of the existing energy system and its current level of transition. It
1399 then explores the impacts of changes in outdoor and indoor air pollution exposures, with an
1400 improved indicator this year monitoring the health impacts of dirty household fuels. It highlights
1401 the health burden and emissions associated with existing diets and with the healthcare sector.

1402

1403 3.1: Energy Use, Energy Generation and Health

1404 The energy system is the world’s biggest single contributor to greenhouse gas emissions. The
1405 global energy crisis and an increase in people without access to electricity highlights the urgent
1406 need to transition away from fossil fuels and towards more equitable and decentralised
1407 renewable energy.⁷⁹ This section monitors progress in energy sector mitigation, and its potential
1408 health co-benefits.

1409 Indicator 3.1.1: Energy Systems and Health

1410 *Headline finding: CO₂ emissions from the global energy system increased by 0.9% in 2022 due to*
1411 *reopening economies following the lift of COVID-19-related restrictions.*

1412 Despite renewable energies becoming increasingly cost-competitive,²²⁴ fossil fuels still
1413 contributed 80% of global total energy supply (TES) in 2022, with little change in this proportion
1414 since 1990.²²⁵

1415 The CO₂ emissions intensity of the global energy system has fallen by only 0.87% between 2015
1416 and 2020, though experienced a 1.9% reduction to 54.2 tCO₂/TJ in 2020, driven by transport
1417 restrictions during the COVID-19 pandemic (Figure 6). However, this was reversed following a
1418 lifting of restrictions worldwide, with global energy-related carbon emissions rising by 0.9% in
1419 2022.²²⁶

1420 HDI groupings reflect global inequities in the transition to healthy, clean fuels. The very high HDI
1421 country group, with better access to renewable energy technologies, has been making steady
1422 progress, with a decadal reduction in the carbon intensity of their energy systems of 2.9 tCO₂/TJ.
1423 Meanwhile, with rapid industrialisation, the carbon intensity in medium HDI countries has
1424 increased at a rate of 4.7 tCO₂/TJ per decade. Low HDI countries, with little industrial

1425 development and overreliance on biomass burning, have the lowest carbon intensity of all (21
1426 tCO₂/TJ in 2020), rising by 2.5 tCO₂/TJ per decade.

1427 Global use of coal in the energy system, a major contributor to air pollution and GHG emissions,
1428 has remained above 150 EJ since 2010, accounting for 26.7% of TES in 2020. Despite
1429 commitments at COP27 to “[accelerate] efforts towards the phasedown of unabated coal
1430 power”,¹⁸⁹ coal-fired power stations grew in 2022, comprising 59% of newly commissioned
1431 capacity in China.^{227,228} With coal burning responsible for 560,000 deaths related to PM_{2.5}
1432 exposure in 2020 (indicator 3.2.1), the resulting long-term health impacts will be claiming lives
1433 for decades, unless urgently reversed.

1434 The share of modern renewables in electricity generation (mainly wind and solar energy) reached
1435 9.5% in 2020, an increase of 360% over the last decade. Modern renewables accounted for 90%
1436 of the new electricity capacity in 2022.²²⁶ However, according limiting temperature increase to
1437 1.5°C would require an annual growth rate for renewables 13 times what it is now, and
1438 renewables must make up 77% of the world's primary energy supply by 2050.⁴² Crucially, while
1439 modern renewables make up 11% of all electricity generated in very high HDI countries, they only
1440 account for 2.3% in low HDI ones. The shock in global fossil fuel prices in early 2022 and the lower
1441 price of renewable energy may bolster the shift to healthy, more secure, and sustainable
1442 sources.²²⁹ Nonetheless, the economic crisis and high costs of capital are making renewable
1443 technologies increasingly unaffordable in lower-income countries, threatening to increase
1444 inequities in the adoption of these clean technologies.²³⁰

1445 Accelerating efforts to phase out fossil fuels in favour of energy efficiency and decentralised
1446 modern renewable energy can help to expand electricity access in remote and low-resourced
1447 areas, reducing energy poverty and enabling universal access to quality healthcare (Panel 6). In
1448 pursuing these efforts, particular care is needed to avoid perpetuating harmful extractive

1449 industrial practices that disproportionately affect the health of minoritized communities, and act
1450 to amplify – rather than reduce – global health inequities.

1451

1452 ***Panel 6: Powering healthcare delivery through renewable energy***

1453 Reliable electricity in healthcare facilities is essential for quality healthcare provision: It is needed
1454 ensure basic amenities, such as lighting and clean water; it powers critical devices in healthcare
1455 settings, including vaccine and medication refrigeration, oxygen concentrators, and certain
1456 diagnostic and surgical equipment; it can also allow for use of key tools for maternal and child
1457 health, including ultrasounds, foetal heart monitors, and baby warmers.²³¹ Health centres
1458 without electricity perform fewer deliveries and have fewer patients.²³² Yet, close to one billion
1459 people are still served by healthcare facilities without reliable electricity. At least 25,000
1460 healthcare facilities in Sub-Saharan Africa have no electricity access, and at least 68,000
1461 healthcare facilities have unreliable electricity.²³³

1462 Clean renewable energy presents an opportunity to provide electricity to remote or energy-poor
1463 settings, with the potential of saving lives and improving health of the most vulnerable
1464 populations. While extending national grids can be expensive and slow, options like solar
1465 photovoltaics (PV) are cost-effective, and offer non-polluting energy without the need for grid
1466 connection or fuel input.

1467 Because it is shown to improve vaccination rates, emergency capabilities, and quality of
1468 maternity care, electrification could be a key tool in limiting gender and health disparities.²³⁴ With
1469 widely unequal access to electricity across rural and urban settings, it can also help reduce within-
1470 country health inequities. Moreover, access to decentralised renewable energy dramatically
1471 increases climate resilience of healthcare facilities, making them independent from volatile
1472 energy markets.²³¹

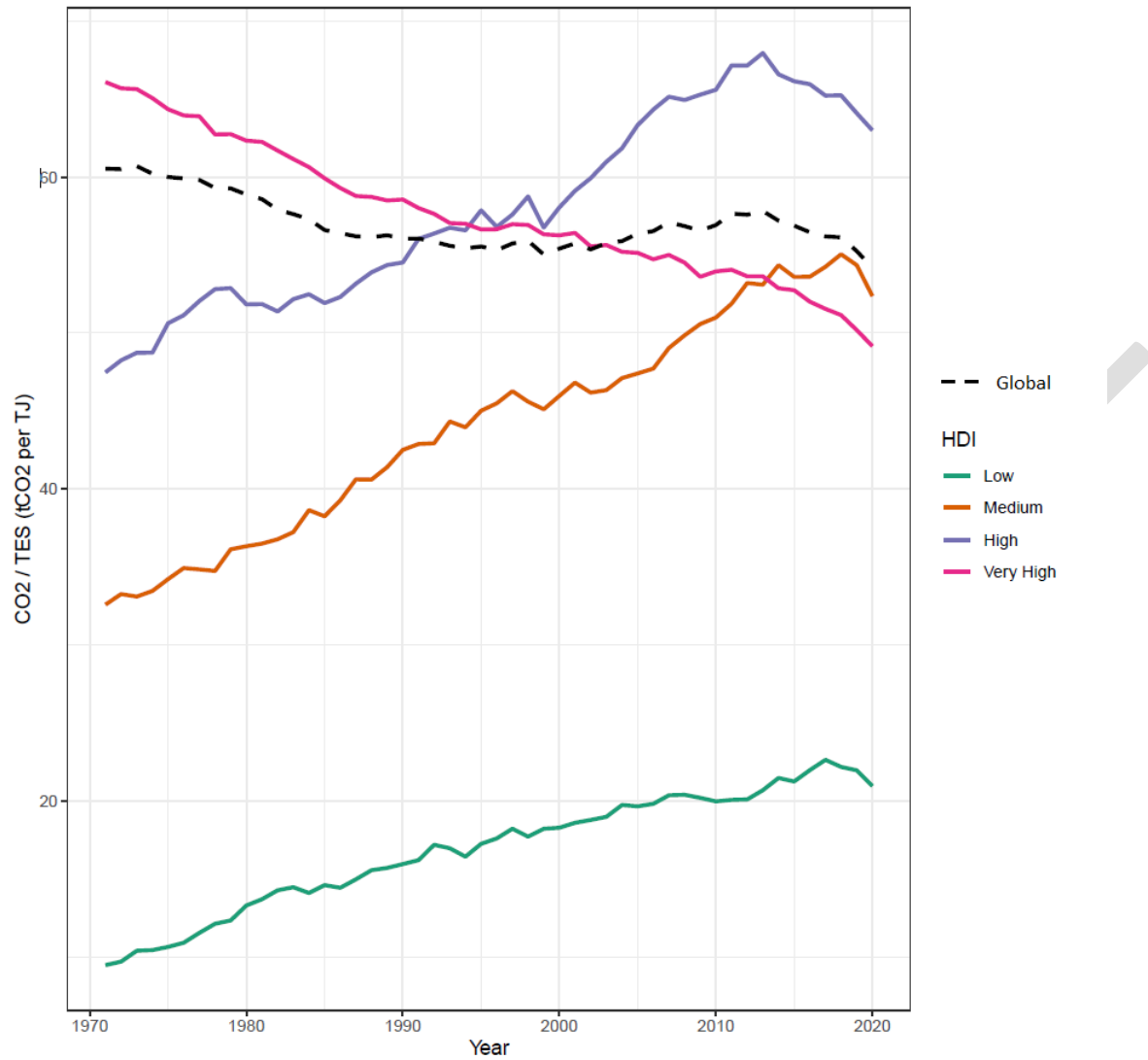
1473 Some laudable case studies exemplify the power of renewable energy in improving access to life-
1474 saving energy. An onsite solar array provides energy for Kalungi Hospital (over 100 kilometres
1475 from Kampala, Uganda),²³⁵ allowing it to stay open later, to refrigerate vaccines and supplies, to
1476 increase the surgery patient load, and to power diagnostic tools and the sterilisation of medical
1477 instruments, all while lowering annual fuel costs and increasing clean water access and security
1478 through using electricity to also pump water at a well site.²³⁵

1479 The SELCO Foundation has worked with hundreds of healthcare facilities in India on establishing
1480 decentralised energy systems. The installation and use of solar systems in facilities in the state of
1481 Manipur has led to 80-95% of facilities reporting less waste of vaccine dosages, extension of their
1482 clinic hours, and overall ease of operations.²³¹ After a rural electrification program in Gujarat,
1483 there were increases in the presence of functional operating and delivery tables and higher
1484 immunisation rates.²³⁶

1485 In a joint report, the World Health Organization, World Bank, International Renewable Energy
1486 Agency, and Sustainable Energy for All provide a comprehensive update on the status of
1487 healthcare facility electrification, identify technical and economic solutions, estimate the amount
1488 of investment needed, and analyse the enabling policy frameworks to accelerate electrification
1489 of healthcare facilities.²³¹ It stresses that there is urgent need for US\$4.9 billion to bring facilities
1490 up to a minimal or intermediate standard of electrification, ensuring the long-term functionality
1491 of decentralized energy systems, supporting local skills and renewable energy markets, providing
1492 access to medical devices and training, and increasing cooperation between energy and health
1493 sectors and various institutions. Efforts must be focused on leveraging synergies, maximizing
1494 impact, and unlocking resources to improve healthcare access in these countries.

1495

1496



1497

1498 *Figure 6: Carbon intensity of the energy system by HDI country group (tCO₂/TJ)*

1499

1500 Indicator 3.1.2 Household Energy Use

1501 *Headline finding: globally, only 32% of the domestic energy used per person is non-polluting at*
1502 *point of use, while 92% of the energy used in low HDI houses comes from polluting biofuels.*

1503 Access to stable, non-polluting energy is crucial for advancing health and wellbeing.^{237–239} The
1504 number of people without access to electricity worldwide is set to increase in 2022 to 775
1505 million,²³⁰ most of whom are in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. This indicator draws on data
1506 from the IEA to monitor the sources of energy used in people’s homes. Globally, only 32% of the
1507 domestic energy used per person is non-polluting at point of usage (electricity, district or
1508 geothermal heat, or solar thermal), while 31% is solid biomass (wood and dung), and 35% fossil
1509 fuels. However, big global inequities exist. Biomass burning is highly polluting, and accounts for
1510 92% of the household energy in low HDI countries against 7.5% in very high HDI countries.
1511 Meanwhile, non-polluting energy use has been growing rapidly in high (353% higher in 2020 than
1512 in 1990) and very high (49% higher) HDI countries. The overall use of energy also reflects global
1513 inequities, with people in very high HDI countries using, on average, 152%, 322%, and 106% more
1514 energy in their homes than people in high, medium, and low HDI countries, respectively.

1515

1516 Indicator 3.1.3: Sustainable and Healthy Road Transport

1517 *Headline finding: despite record growth in electric vehicle sales, fossil fuels still account for 95%*
1518 *of all road transport energy.*

1519 Global transport emissions grew by 8% in 2021, following easing of COVID-19 restrictions, and
1520 transport-derived PM_{2.5} is responsible for up to 460,000 deaths annually (indicator 3.2.1).²⁴⁰ The
1521 IEA has estimated electric vehicle sales exceeding 10 million in 2022 (14% of all new cars sold, an
1522 increase of 9% from 2021).²⁴¹ Yet maximal health benefits will be attained by encouraging urban
1523 morphologies which support increased walking and cycling, and by reducing particulate air
1524 pollution emitted by vehicle brakes and tyre wear.²⁴⁰ Meanwhile, interventions to expand safe
1525 public transport could reduce the estimated 1.3 million annual deaths occurring annually
1526 worldwide from passenger vehicle accidents, while increasing active travel could contribute

1527 towards avoiding some of the 3.2 million annual deaths attributable to insufficient physical
1528 activity.^{242,243}

1529 Drawing on data from the IEA data²⁴⁴ this indicator reports that, , despite a temporary reduction
1530 in road transport energy use as a result of COVID-19 lockdowns in 2020, the global use of
1531 electricity for road transport per capita grew by 97% between 2015 and 2020, but its proportion
1532 of total per capita road transport energy grew at a rate of only 0.04 percentage points each year.
1533 Fossil fuels still account for around 95% of all road transport energy, and total energy use in the
1534 transport sector increased since 1990.

1535

1536 3.2: Air Pollution and Health Co-benefits

1537 Exposure to air pollution increases the risk of respiratory and cardiovascular disease, cancer,
1538 diabetes, neurological disorders, and adverse pregnancy outcomes.²⁴⁵ Many of the major sources
1539 of GHG emissions also contribute substantially to air pollution. These indicators track the burden
1540 of energy sector air pollution and the potential health co-benefits of mitigation efforts that
1541 prioritise improved air quality.

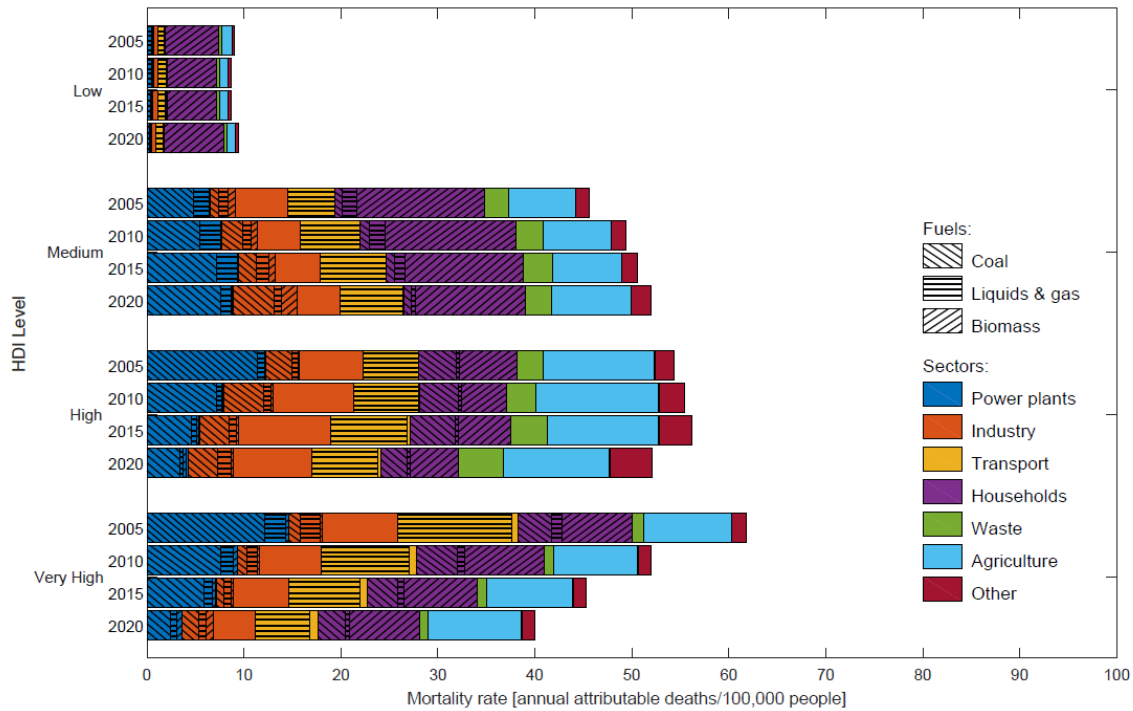
1542 Indicator 3.2.1: Mortality from Ambient Air Pollution by Sector

1543 *Headline finding: global deaths attributable to fossil fuel-derived PM_{2.5} decreased from 1.4 million*
1544 *in 2005 to 1.2 million in 2020. Reduced coal pollution contributed to about 80% of the decrease.*

1545 With extended temporal coverage this year, this indicator estimates the mortality attributable to
1546 ambient PM_{2.5}, using the GAINS atmospheric model.²⁴⁶

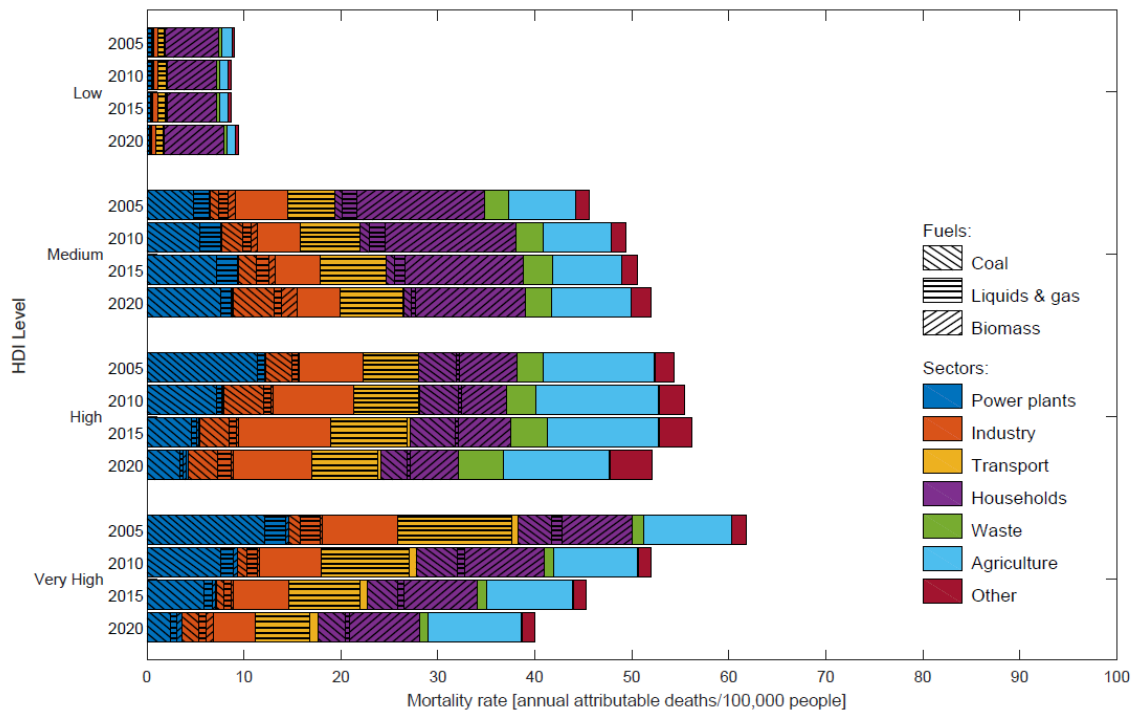
1547 In 2020, anthropogenic PM_{2.5} was responsible for 3.3 million deaths globally. Deaths attributable
1548 to fossil fuel-derived PM_{2.5} decreased from 1.4 million in 2005 to 1.2 million in 2020 (16.7%). Of

1549 this reduction, 80% was due to reduced coal-derived air pollution (



1550

1551 Figure 7). However, coal still contributed to 53% (560,000) of all deaths attributable to fossil fuel-
 1552 derived PM_{2.5} in 2020. Meanwhile, biomass burning contributed to 653,000 deaths. In the high
 1553 and very high HDI groups, exposure to PM_{2.5} decreased from 2005, thanks to emission controls
 1554 and fuel switching. However, deaths have increased in medium HDI countries, where access to
 1555 non-polluting energy and air quality control measures are lagging.



1556

1557 *Figure 7 Mortality rate attributable to PM2.5 concentration by fuel, sector, year, and HDI country level*

1558

1559 Indicator 3.2.2 Household Air Pollution

1560 *Headline finding: the use of polluting fuels resulted in 140 deaths per 100,000 associated with*
 1561 *household air pollution in 2020 in 62 countries reviewed, 56% of which was due to the use of solid*
 1562 *fuels.*

1563 Globally, 2.4 billion people still use polluting and inefficient fuels and technologies for cooking,
 1564 and 733 million live without electricity.⁸⁰ The use of dirty fuels in the household sector results in
 1565 exposure to toxic concentrations of air pollution inside people’s homes, and is responsible for
 1566 55% of anthropogenic ambient PM_{2.5} air pollution in low HDI countries, virtually all of which (97%)

1567 comes from biomass burning (indicator 3.2.1). The surge in energy prices and economic pressures
1568 from the energy and economic crises may mean that 100 million more people revert to burning
1569 biomass. With women and girls often tasked with household energy-related activities, the burden
1570 of disease associated with the air pollution from dirty fuels in the domestic sector falls
1571 disproportionately on them.^{247,248} In addition, women and girls are often those tasked with
1572 searching for biomass, which exposes them to violence and injuries, and due to the time allocated
1573 to these activities limits their capacity to access education, economic independence, and
1574 personal growth activities.^{247,248} Paucity in the adoption of clean fuels in the domestic sector is
1575 therefore underpinned by, and exacerbates, gender health inequities and injustices.

1576 This indicator estimates exposure to household air pollution (HAP)-derived PM_{2.5} in 62 countries.
1577 It uses a Bayesian hierarchical model developed with sample data on indoor air quality from 282
1578 peer-reviewed studies and accounts for socio-demographic and epidemiological
1579 characteristics,^{249–251} and estimates attributable mortality through a comparative risk
1580 assessment.

1581 In the 62 countries analysed, HAP led to 140 deaths per 100,000 in 2020. About half of their
1582 population used dirty fuels (biomass, charcoal, coal) as the primary source of energy for cooking
1583 and heating in 2020, representing most of the world population reliant on dirty fuels. This
1584 resulted in 151 µg/m³ of PM_{2.5}[95% CI 133-169] on average inside their homes. Within this
1585 population, rural households had 171 µg/m³ of PM_{2.5} [95% CI 153-189] on average, and urban
1586 households 92 µg/m³ [95% CI 77-106]. This HAP is estimated to have contributed to an average
1587 of 78 deaths per 100,000 [95% CI 69-87], with a rural average of 82 [95% CI 73-90] and an urban
1588 average of 66 [95% CI 57-75] deaths per 100,000.

1589 Shifting to less-polluting fuels like biogas, natural gas, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), and alcohol
1590 fuel (as well as solar and electric energy), can help reduce this health burden. However,
1591 combustion of these fuels still resulted in the population primarily reliant on them (about 50.1%

1592 of the total population the 62 countries analysed) being exposed on average to 69 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ [95%
1593 CI 62-76] of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, with a rural average of 76 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ [95% CI 69-83] and an urban average of 49
1594 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ [95% CI 46-53]. The associated mortality is estimated at 62 deaths per 100,000 [95% CI 54-
1595 70], with a rural average of 66 [95% CI 58-74] and an urban average of 52 [95% CI 47-57] deaths
1596 per 100,000. These data reflect the health impacts of so-called ‘transition’ fuels (natural gas, LPG)
1597 and biogas, and underline the untapped potential offered by expanding access to non-polluting,
1598 renewable energy to improve health, reduce health inequities, and minimise energy poverty.

1599

1600 3.3: Food, Agriculture, and Health Co-benefits

1601 Food systems contribute around 30% of global GHG emissions, remaining incompatible with
1602 mitigation targets.^{252,253} This section monitors the potential for mitigation and health co-benefits
1603 in the agriculture and food sector.²⁵⁴

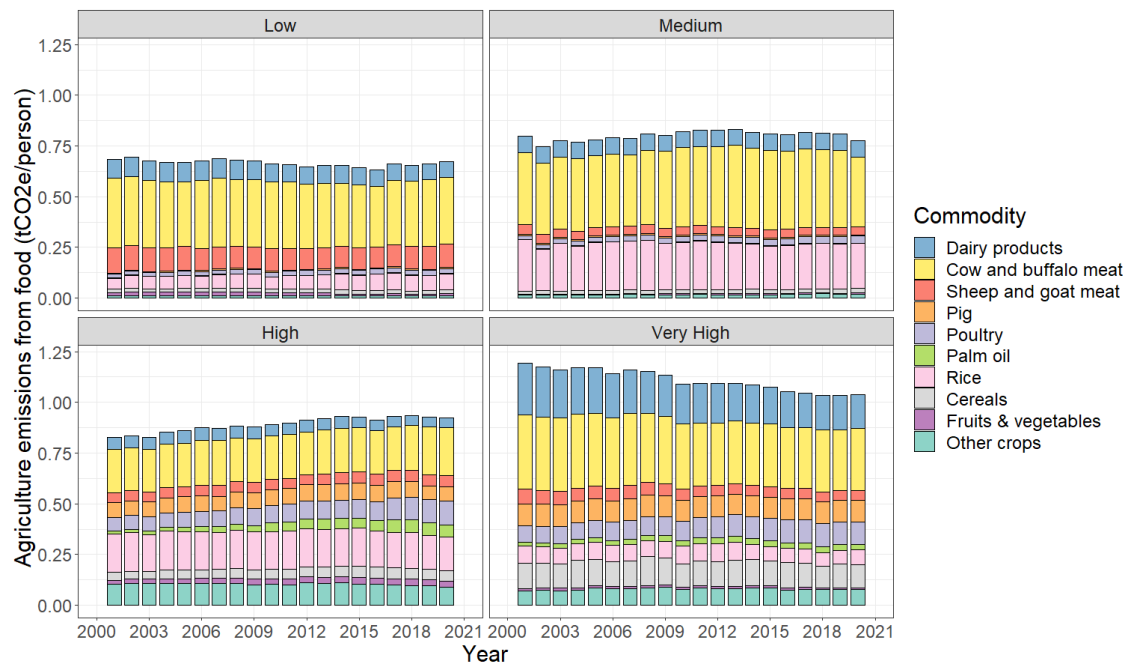
1604 Indicator 3.3.1: Emissions from Agricultural Production and Consumption

1605 *Headline finding: global agricultural emissions increased by 22% from 2000 to 2020, with red*
1606 *meat and dairy responsible for 57% of them in 2020.*

1607 This indicator shows that, while agricultural emissions per person remained stable at
1608 approximately 0.9 tCO_2e , the growing population pushed emissions up by 22% from 2000 to
1609 2020. In 2020, around 57% of agricultural emissions came from red meat and dairy.

1610 Per-person consumption-based emissions in 2020 were 43% higher in the very high HDI country
1611 group than in the low HDI group, revealing inequities in the global food system. However,
1612 agricultural practices and environmental pressures in low-HDI countries, notably Africa, lead to
1613 low productivity in animal rearing and result in relatively high emissions per unit of consumption
1614 (Figure 8).^{256,257} As food systems become increasingly strained by environmental changes,

1615 supporting healthy, low-carbon diets will require shifts towards less polluting, more inclusive and
 1616 resource-efficient foods and food production systems, with sustainable management practices
 1617 and reduced reliance on fossil fuels.^{258,259} This will require robust regulation of the agricultural
 1618 and food industries, protecting smallholder farmers and Indigenous food systems, and promoting
 1619 equitable and inclusive access to agricultural technology that aligns with local cultures and
 1620 beliefs.²⁵⁹ Harnessing and integrating the knowledge and technologies of traditional farmers and
 1621 Indigenous Peoples in the sustainable management of natural agricultural resources can offer
 1622 particular benefits in the transition to low-carbon, sustainable, efficient food systems.²⁶⁰



1623
 1624 *Figure 8: Emissions of greenhouse gases on farms associated with the consumption of agricultural products*
 1625 *(production and net imports) per person by HDI level.*

1626

1627 Indicator 3.3.2: Diet and Health Co-benefits

1628 *Headline finding: in 2020, 7.8 million deaths were associated with insufficient consumption of*
1629 *nutritious plant-based foods, and 1.9 million to excessive consumption of dairy, red and processed*
1630 *meat.*

1631 Suboptimal diets are a leading risk factor for NCDs globally.²⁵⁴ Promoting shifts to healthier, more
1632 plant-based diets, can substantially reduce GHG emissions, whilst also delivering major benefits
1633 for public health.²⁶¹

1634 This indicator combines relative risk factors from a regularly updated meta-analysis, with
1635 population and mortality data to estimate the annual deaths attributable to dietary risk factors
1636 (appendix pp 160). It estimates that 12.2 million deaths in 2020 were attributable to dietary risks
1637 that could be reduced through balanced, low-emission diets, up by 282,000 deaths from 2019.
1638 Of the total, 7.8 million were associated with insufficient consumption of fruits, vegetables,
1639 legumes, wholegrains, nuts and seeds while excess consumption of dairy, red and processed
1640 meat, which contributed to 57% of agricultural emissions (indicator 3.3.1), was responsible for
1641 16% of all diet-related deaths (1.9 million). Very high HDI countries experienced the highest diet-
1642 related death rate (deaths per 100,000), 2.4 times higher than that in low HDI countries. The very
1643 high HDI group also had the highest death rate related to excess dairy, red and processed meat
1644 consumption, 6.7 times higher than the average mortality for countries in other HDI groups
1645 (Figure 9).

1646

1647

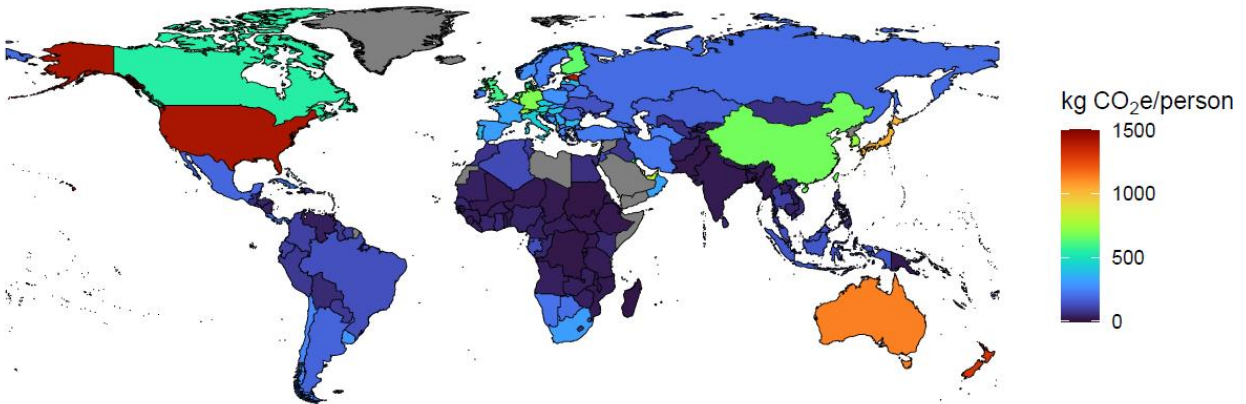
1648 *Figure 9: Deaths per 100,000 inhabitants attributable to dietary risk factors by HDI country group. A)*
1649 *deaths attributable to all dietary risk factors. B) deaths attributable to excess consumption of red and*
1650 *processed meat*

1651 Indicator 3.4: Healthcare Sector Emissions and Harms

1652 *Headline finding: increases in COVID-related healthcare spending in 2020 counterbalanced*
1653 *decreases in the carbon intensity of electricity, with global healthcare emissions remaining at*
1654 *4.6% of total GHG emissions. Healthcare-associated PM_{2.5} and ozone were responsible for*
1655 *approximately 4 million Disability-Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) annually.*

1656 The COVID-19 pandemic response pushed global health expenditures in 2020 to US\$9 trillion,
1657 11% of gross world product.²⁶² Quality healthcare requires the use of energy, goods, services,
1658 and infrastructure, which currently contribute to global GHG emissions. This indicator models
1659 emissions from the global healthcare sector using environmentally-extended multi-region input-
1660 output (EE-MRIO) models combined with national healthcare expenditure data. New this year, it
1661 also estimates healthcare-related emissions of PM_{2.5} and ozone precursors, and their health
1662 damages.

1663 The global healthcare sector still contributed around 4.6% of global GHG emissions in 2020, even
1664 while absolute emissions decreased by 3.7% from 2019. Globally, air pollution associated with
1665 healthcare delivery and supply chains contributed to an estimated 4 million DALYs in 2020. More
1666 than half of these estimated health harms were due to healthcare sector activities in China, while
1667 12% are attributed to the United States.



1668

1669 *Figure 10: National per-capita GHG emissions from the healthcare sector in 2020. Data are not available*
1670 *for the countries in grey.*

1671

1672 Conclusion

1673 To reach net-zero by 2050, anthropogenic CO₂ emissions must decrease by about 45 percent
1674 from 2010 levels by 2030.¹²³ Fossil fuels must be urgently phased-out to reach this goal, tackle
1675 climate change, and reduce its risk to human health and survival. Yet, they still provide 80% of
1676 global energy, 26% of which comes from coal, while 68% of household energy still comes from
1677 polluting fuels (indicator 3.1.2). Due to the global energy and economic crises, 100 million people
1678 risk returning to biomass, and many countries turn to coal.²²⁹ Agricultural sector emissions add
1679 to the problem and increased by 22% from 2000 to 2020 (indicator 3.3.1). While the use of
1680 renewable energies is increasing, the pace has so far not been sufficient to curb increasing
1681 emissions from growing fossil fuel use (indicator 3.1.1). In addition, the global patterns of access
1682 and deployment of renewable energy technologies, with low HDI countries left behind in the
1683 transition, contrasts sharply with the availability of natural renewable energy resources.

1684 Urgent mitigation can still keep temperatures within adaptability thresholds, simultaneously
1685 delivering health co-benefits in the immediate-term. Increasing access to zero-carbon energy
1686 can, if delivered with health as a key priority, not only reduce energy poverty, but also improve
1687 air quality, saving millions of deaths each year (Indicators 3.2.1 and 3.2.2). Transitioning to
1688 healthier, low-carbon diets could prevent up to 12.2 million deaths annually (indicator 3.3.2),
1689 while shifting to accessible active, public, and electric travel could avoid 460,000 deaths annually
1690 from travel-related PM_{2.5} emissions and encourage increased physical activity (indicator 3.1.3).
1691 Additionally, these gains can reduce healthcare demand, helping minimise related emissions and
1692 their associated health impacts (indicator 3.4).

1693 Realising this ambition requires concerted efforts. Those concerned with protecting health need
1694 to actively engage with energy, finance, civil society actors, Indigenous Peoples and minoritised
1695 communities to capture interdisciplinary and traditional knowledge and ensure the health and
1696 equity benefits of the zero-carbon transformation are maximised. To ensure a just transition, this
1697 must include preventing harmful extractive and exploitative industrial practices which
1698 disproportionately affect minoritized communities and further amplify global health inequities,
1699 focusing efforts in ensuring universal access to clean, healthy, zero-emission energy for all, and
1700 harnessing indigenous knowledge and technologies.^{260,263}

1701 Monitoring progress towards delivering mitigation ambitions is critical, particularly in this narrow
1702 window of opportunity left available to keep the goals of the Paris Agreement within reach. The
1703 Lancet Countdown will continue strengthening its indicators to support countries being held
1704 accountable on their mitigation progress, and to identify opportunities for increased health co-
1705 benefits of climate change actions. This will include quantifying progress towards delivering
1706 further co-benefits, including that of enhancing active travel, energy efficiency, or the health
1707 gains from nature-based solutions, as well as that of reducing adverse health impacts of CO₂
1708 emission-related extractive industries. Importantly, future efforts will also be focused on
1709 identifying potential unintended harms stemming from the transition to net zero emissions, and

1710 in capturing the knowledge of minoritised peoples. These challenges will require contributions
1711 from the broader scientific community, which the Lancet Countdown will continue to welcome
1712 and foster.

1713

1714

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1715 Section 4: Economics and Finance

1716 The delays in climate change action have meant its health impacts continue to increase (Section
1717 1), as do the associated economic health-related losses and damages. Limiting global mean
1718 temperature rise to 1.5°C requires rapid decarbonisation in all economic sectors. While the
1719 required up-front investment is substantial, the immediate economic and health co-benefits,
1720 alongside the loss and damage avoided, would vastly outweigh these costs.^{43,264,265} With the right
1721 incentives, market conditions and governance, the necessary funds are available. However, the
1722 transition will only deliver these health gains if it is just, breaks entrenched harmful global power
1723 dynamics, and builds global health equity.

1724 In 2022, COP27 saw a breakthrough agreement on the need for Loss and Damage funding for
1725 most affected countries, and calls for a transformation of financial systems to support the zero-
1726 carbon transition.²⁶⁶ The details of the agreement are still to be determined,²⁶⁷ and negotiations
1727 will take place amidst a global energy crisis which is increasing inflation and interest rates
1728 globally, saddling governments with debt, and restricting capital available for new investment
1729 while simultaneously stimulating the search for new sources of energy. On an individual level,
1730 the energy crisis is further increasing vulnerabilities and climate change impacts by driving a cost-
1731 of-living crisis, deepening energy poverty, and exposing the human costs of a fossil fuel-
1732 dependent global energy system.

1733 Indicators in this section explore the economic costs of climate change, and monitor progress –
1734 or lack thereof – in the transition to a low-carbon, healthy, and just global economy,
1735 understanding that the transition to a net zero economic system is an essential component of
1736 the transition to a healthy, thriving future.

1737

1738

1739 4.1 The Economic Impact of Climate Change and its Mitigation

1740 The health impacts of climate change are causing additional economic losses and damages,
1741 including through increased healthcare demands and loss of labour capacity. This, in turn,
1742 undermines lives and livelihoods, increases the cost of adapting to climate change, and further
1743 restricts the resources available to finance accelerated climate change action. Indicators in this
1744 section track the economic costs associated with the health impacts of climate change.

1745

1746 Indicator 4.1.1: Economic Losses due to Weather-related Extreme Events

1747 *Headline finding: global economic losses due to weather-related extreme events were US\$264*
1748 *billion in 2022. While 57.1% of losses in very high HDI countries were insured, 92.8% of losses in*
1749 *other countries were uninsured.*

1750 The loss of infrastructure and resulting economic losses due to extreme events can exacerbate
1751 health impacts through disruption of essential services and impacts on the socioeconomic
1752 determinants of health. This indicator tracks the economic losses from weather-related extreme
1753 events, using data provided by Swiss Re.²⁶⁸

1754 From 2010-2014 to 2018-2022, total measurable annual mean economic losses induced by
1755 climate-related extreme events increased by 23% in real terms. The percentage of global losses
1756 that were uninsured, however, fell from 67% to 55%. In 2022 alone, weather-related extreme
1757 events induced losses of US\$264 billion, 78% of these in very high HDI countries. These losses
1758 were equivalent to 0.32% of GDP in the very high HDI country group compared to 0.16% for other
1759 countries, though lower losses in other countries may reflect the lower monetary value of the
1760 property damaged rather than the disruption and hardship caused. While 42.9% of losses in very
1761 high HDI countries were insured, 99.6%, 96.2% and 88.8% of losses in low, medium, and high HDI

1762 countries, respectively, were uninsured. These high levels of uninsured losses exacerbate the
1763 economic burden of climate change in lower HDI countries, with losses either unreplaced, or
1764 replacement costs falling directly on individuals and institutions.

1765

1766 Indicator 4.1.2: Value of Losses due to Heat-related Mortality

1767 *Headline finding: at US\$164 billion, the average annual monetised global losses due to heat-*
1768 *related mortality for 2018-2022 were 146% higher than the 2000-2004 average.*

1769 This indicator estimates the economic value of heat-related mortality losses by combining the
1770 years of life lost (YLL) from indicator 1.1.5 and the value of a statistical life-year (VSLY). In 2018-
1771 2022, the average annual monetised heat-related mortality losses were US\$164 billion, about
1772 0.17% of the average gross world product (GWP). This was the highest loss in the past two
1773 decades, 146% higher than the 2000-2004 average, and equivalent to the loss of 12.8 million
1774 average incomes (expressed as per-capita GDP). The growth in the value of average heat-related
1775 mortality losses from 2000-2004 to 2018-2022, in terms of average incomes, was the highest in
1776 low HDI countries (131%), with growth of 84% in medium, 110% in high, and 61% in very high HDI
1777 countries.

1778

1779 Indicator 4.1.3: Loss of Earnings from Heat-related Labour Capacity Reduction

1780 *Headline finding: the global potential income loss from labour capacity reduction due to extreme*
1781 *heat was US\$863 billion in 2022. The agricultural sector was the most severely affected, incurring*
1782 *82% and 68% of the average losses in low and medium HDI countries, respectively.*

1783 Heat exposure endangers the health of workers, reduces labour productivity, and generates
1784 income and economic losses which cascade through the economies of the nations they live in.

1785 This indicator quantifies the loss of earnings that could result from heat-related labour capacity
1786 loss, combining data from indicator 1.1.4 with hourly wage data from the International Labour
1787 Organization (ILO).

1788

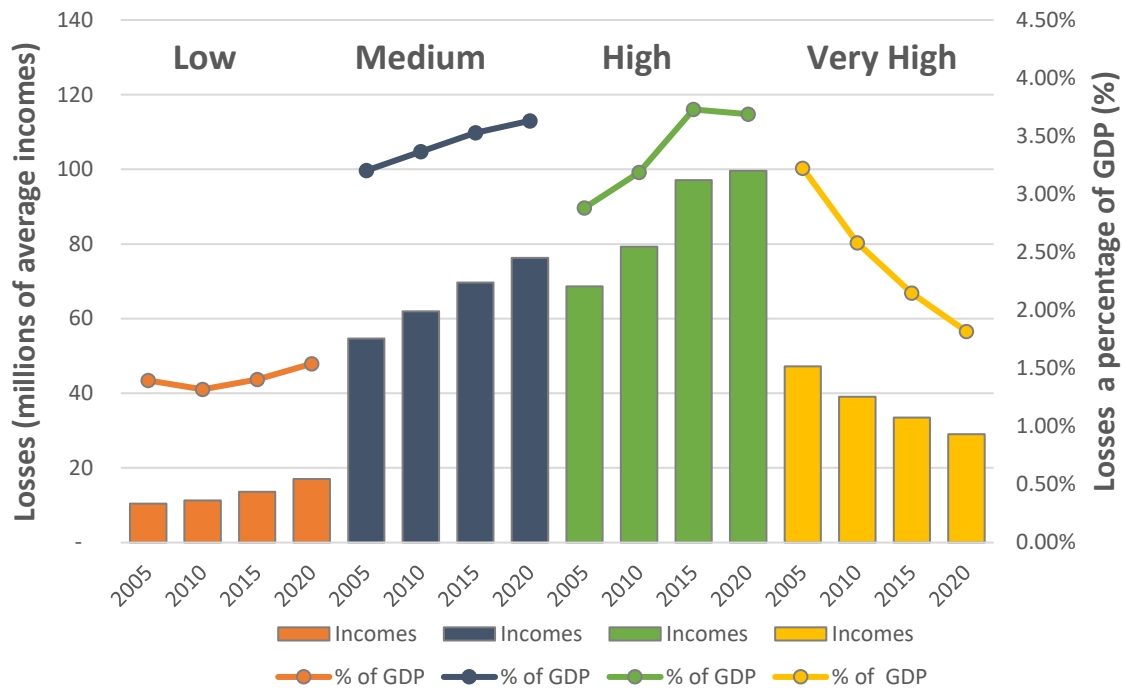
1789 The global potential loss of earnings was US\$863 billion in 2022, equivalent to 0.87% of GWP.
1790 Low and medium HDI countries experienced the highest average income losses, equivalent to
1791 6.1% and 3.8% of their GDP, respectively. Of all global losses, 40% occurred in the agricultural
1792 sector, with 31% in construction. Agricultural labourers of low and medium HDI countries, often
1793 amongst the world's poorest,^{269–271} endured on average 82% and 68% of the losses in those
1794 countries, respectively.

1795 Indicator 4.1.4: Costs of the Health Impacts of Air Pollution

1796 *Headline finding: in 2020, the monetised costs of premature mortality due to air pollution*
1797 *amounted to US\$2.2 trillion, the equivalent of 2.4% of gross world product.*

1798 Much of the 3.3 million annual deaths from exposure to anthropogenic PM_{2.5} air pollution, could
1799 be avoided through ambitious mitigation (indicator 3.2.1). This indicator places an economic
1800 value on the years of lost life (YLLs) from exposure to anthropogenic ambient PM_{2.5}. While global
1801 costs relative to GDP and to average incomes (expressed as per-capita GDP) decreased slightly
1802 between 2005 and 2020, in 2020 the total costs amounted to US\$2.2 trillion, or the equivalent
1803 of 2.4% of GWP. The high HDI country group had the greatest costs relative to per capita income,
1804 equivalent to the annual average income of 99.6 million people in 2020 (Figure 11). This group
1805 also had the greatest costs relative to the size of its countries' collective economies in 2020,

1806 equivalent to 3.69% of its GDP, closely followed by the medium HDI group (3.63% of GDP).
 1807 Although the total cost is the highest in very high HDI countries, this fell significantly between
 1808 2005 and 2020. Moreover, their cost relative to GDP and in terms of average income is lower
 1809 because of their high GDP and average incomes.



1810
 1811 *Figure 11: Monetised losses from premature mortality due to air pollution according to HDI group. Columns*
 1812 *represent losses as numbers of average incomes, lines as losses expressed as a percentage of GDP.*

1813 4.2 The Economics of the Transition to Net Zero-carbon Economies

1814 Protecting health from a changing climate, and realising the health co-benefits of climate action,
 1815 requires a zero-carbon and just transition of the whole global economy, involving a rapid decline
 1816 in the production and use of health-harming fossil fuels. If delivered while keeping people and
 1817 their health as a core priority, this transition can also result in major health benefits from reduced
 1818 inequities and improved socioeconomic determinants of health. The following indicators monitor

1819 this shift, tracking jobs and investment in zero-carbon energy, fossil fuel divestment, net carbon
1820 pricing and subsidising instruments, the effect of global trade on emissions, and the compliance
1821 of oil and gas firms with the 1.5°C climate target. Estimates suggest that 70% of the required
1822 green energy investment is likely to come from private sources, and an increasing amount will be
1823 mobilized as debt.²⁷² A new indicator on bank financing compares the amount of fossil fuel and
1824 green lending, and changes to lending to the fossil fuel sector since the Paris Agreement. Panel 7
1825 explores the impacts of the current geopolitical turmoil on the financing and energy transition to
1826 a zero-carbon future.

1827

1828 [Indicator 4.2.1: Clean Energy Investment](#)

1829 *Headline finding: Global clean energy investment grew 15% in 2022, to US\$1.6 trillion, and*
1830 *exceeded fossil fuel investment by 61%.*

1831 Investing in zero-carbon energy and energy efficiency is essential for both mitigating climate
1832 change and for reducing air pollution. Reaching net-zero emissions can lead to economic growth,
1833 which can, in turn, lead to further investment in clean energy.²⁶⁵ Drawing on data from the IEA,
1834 this indicator monitors trends in global investment in energy supply and energy efficiency.²⁷³

1835 Clean energy investment exceeded fossil fuel investment by 61% in 2022. Global clean energy
1836 investment in 2022 was 15% higher than in 2021 and 51% higher than in 2015, reaching US\$1.6
1837 trillion. Meanwhile, fossil fuel investment in 2022 was 10% higher than in 2021, but 24% lower
1838 than in 2015, at US\$1.0 trillion. Energy efficiency accounted for 15% of all energy investment in
1839 2022 – the same as in 2021. To be on track for net-zero emissions by 2050, clean energy
1840 investment must nearly triple by 2030, while fossil fuel investment must reduce to less than half
1841 its current value.^{273,274}

1842

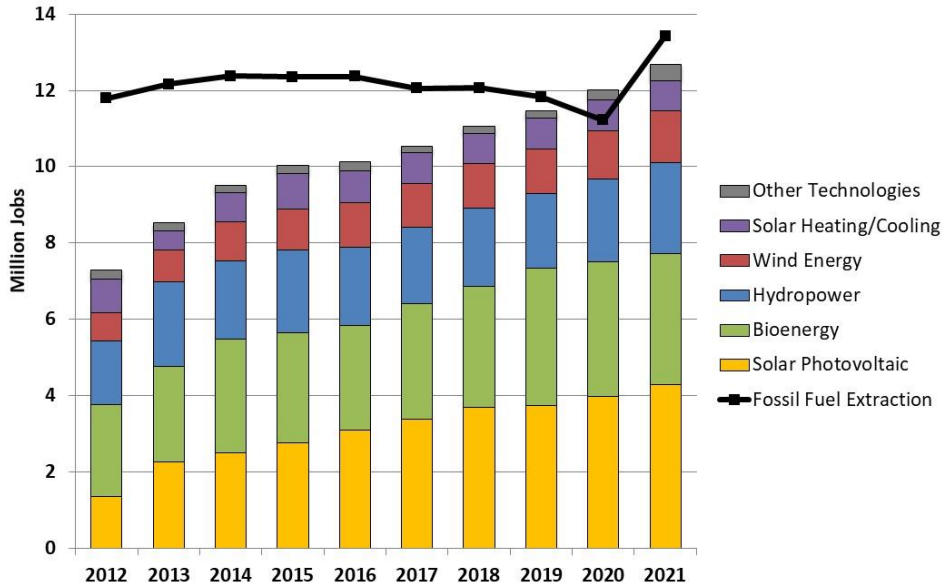
1843 Indicator 4.2.2: Employment in the Renewable Energy and Fossil Fuel Industries

1844 *Headline finding: direct and indirect employment in renewable energy grew 5.6% in 2021 to a*
1845 *record-high of nearly 12.7 million employees, while direct employment in fossil fuel extraction*
1846 *increased by nearly 20%.*

1847 The transition away from fossil fuels and to renewable energy can lead to net employment
1848 generation.⁴³ Employees in fossil fuel extraction industries, particularly coal mining, have greater
1849 risk of non-communicable disease than the general population.²⁷⁵ Conversely, increasing
1850 employment in the renewable energy industry can improve both public health outcomes and
1851 livelihoods. This indicator uses data from IRENA and IBISWorld to compare employment in
1852 renewable energy and fossil fuel extraction.^{276–278}

1853 In 2021, nearly 12.7 million people were employed directly or indirectly by the renewable energy
1854 industry (Figure 12). This marks the largest ever workforce in renewables, and represents an
1855 increase of 5.6% from 2020, and 74.3% from 2012. Employment in renewables also exceeded
1856 direct employment in fossil fuel extraction for the first time in 2020. However, as the global
1857 economy recovered from COVID-19, direct employment in fossil fuel extraction rebounded by
1858 19.6% in 2021, to a record 13.4 million. Nonetheless, over the medium-term, employment is
1859 growing faster in the renewable energy sector.

1860



1861

1862 *Figure 12: Direct and indirect employment in the renewable energy sector and direct employment in fossil*
 1863 *fuel extraction*

1864 Indicator 4.2.3: Funds Divested from Fossil Fuels

1865 *Headline finding: between 2008 and the end of 2022, the global value of funds committed to fossil*
 1866 *fuel divestment was US\$40.51 trillion, with healthcare institutions accounting for US\$54 billion.*

1867 By divesting holdings in fossil fuel companies, organisations can remove their financial support
 1868 and reduce their social licence to operate. They also reduce their risk of losses due to stranded
 1869 assets in a decarbonising world.^{279,280} Healthcare institutions can take a lead in divesting from
 1870 holdings in fossil fuel companies, thereby advancing their mission to protect health. This indicator
 1871 tracks the value of funds divested from fossil fuels using data provided by stand.earth.²⁸¹

1872 From 1 January 2008 to 31 December 2022, 1,558 organisations committed to divestment, with
 1873 assets worth at least US\$40.51 trillion. Only 27 of these were healthcare institutions, with assets
 1874 totalling US\$54 billion. In 2022, 49 additional organisations with a value of US\$58.7 billion
 1875 committed to divestment. Of these, none were healthcare institutions.

1876

1877 Indicator 4.2.4: Net Value of Fossil Fuel Subsidies and Carbon Prices

1878 *Headline finding: 78% of the 87 countries reviewed had a net-negative carbon price in 2020,*
1879 *generating a net subsidy to fossil fuels of US\$305 billion. The value of the resulting net subsidies*
1880 *exceeded 10% of national health budgets in nearly 30% of these countries.*

1881 Carbon prices can help economies transition away from high-carbon fuels, while fossil fuels
1882 subsidies provide incentives for health-harming emissions and slow the low-carbon
1883 transition.^{81,82} This indicator compares carbon prices and monetary fossil fuel subsidies to
1884 calculate net economy-wide average carbon prices and revenues, covering 87 countries that emit
1885 93% of global CO₂ emissions.

1886 In 2020, despite 45 countries having a carbon pricing mechanism in place, simultaneous subsidies
1887 meant only 18 produced a net-positive carbon price – all but one of which were very high HDI
1888 countries. Out of 87 countries reviewed, 68 (78%) had net-negative carbon prices (i.e., provided
1889 a net subsidy to fossil fuels), for a net total of US\$305 billion in 2020 alone. The median subsidy
1890 value in these 68 countries was US\$1.3 billion, with eight countries each exceeding US\$10 billion.
1891 Net subsidies exceeded 10% of national health spending in 30% (26) of countries, and 50% in ten
1892 countries. COVID-19 restrictions in the highly-subsidised transport sector meant total net subsidy
1893 spend was 47% lower in 2020 than in 2019. However, the spike in energy costs that followed is
1894 expected to have substantially increased net subsidies in 2021-2022.

1895 Redirecting government support from subsidising fossil fuels to incentivising the expansion and
1896 affordability of low-carbon power, health protection, public health promotion and healthcare,
1897 and for providing other means of support to those who might be worst affected by potential
1898 increases in energy prices, would deliver net benefits to health and wellbeing and support a just
1899 transition.^{282,283} International financing mechanisms are needed to support low-income countries

1900 vulnerable to energy costs in their transition to sustainable energy sources, particularly in the
1901 light of the ongoing energy crisis, and to safeguard all dimensions of human health.²⁸³

1902

1903 ***Panel 7: Strengthening climate finance in a time of geopolitical turmoil***

1904 Last year, the *Lancet* Countdown reported that the world faced multiple compounding crises. As
1905 countries devised responses to the converging energy, cost-of-living and climate crises, it
1906 identified the opportunity for an aligned response to enable a thriving, healthy future. Finance
1907 plays a key role in enabling such action, and is a primary focus in climate negotiations (Panel 2).
1908 The 2022 UN Production Gap Report outlined six approaches for financial sector reform,
1909 comprising: making financial markets more efficient; introducing carbon pricing; nudging
1910 financial behaviour through government interventions; creating markets for low-carbon
1911 technology; mobilising central banks; and creating local climate clubs of cooperating countries.²⁸⁴

1912

1913 Against this backdrop, economic sanctions and oil and gas (O&G) supply disruptions linked to the
1914 2022-23 war in Ukraine, alongside the demands of post-COVID-19 economic rebound, and
1915 extreme weather events affecting energy production has led to a sharp increase in energy prices
1916 and a rapid pursuit of new energy sources.²⁸⁵ In some places, this caused a reversion to dirty
1917 fossil fuels including coal, and renewed O&G exploration.⁷⁶ High energy prices and associated
1918 inflation pushed governments to borrow heavily to subsidise energy bills. High energy prices led
1919 to soaring profits for global O&G firms of US\$4 trillion in 2022, around 270% higher than an
1920 average of US\$1.5 trillion of recent years, with the bulk of these profits going to major O&G
1921 exporting states.^{286,287} Profits of six oil majors reached a record of over US\$200 billion in 2022.²⁸⁸⁻
1922 ²⁹³ Only limited taxes, if any, were applied to these windfall profits. Over half of O&G company
1923 outflows went to shareholder returns and debt repayments in 2022, the highest level in over 15
1924 years; the US\$1.5 trillion returned to shareholders in 2020-2022 could have fully covered the
1925 clean fuel investments required between 2023 and 2030 in the IEA's NZE Scenario. Although

1926 clean energy spending by O&G companies quadrupled between 2020 and 2022 to around US\$20
1927 billion, this only represented around 4% of their overall capital investment.²⁷³ In fact, given this
1928 current situation of hyper-profitability, a number of O&G companies have backtracked on clean
1929 renewable energy activities and increased O&G production plans.^{294–298}

1930
1931 However, expensive fossil fuel imports and an increased desire for energy security are also driving
1932 uptake in renewables, and the uptick in coal appears to be temporary.^{299,300} The 2022 US Inflation
1933 Reduction Act (IRA) included US\$369 billion for improving energy security and accelerating the
1934 zero-carbon energy transition, and is expected to increase the reduction in US GHG emissions
1935 from 26% to 40% of 2005 levels by 2030.⁷⁵ The subsidising of renewable energy under the IRA
1936 has sparked a subsidy race,³⁰¹ causing the EU, in response, to launch the Green Deal Industrial
1937 Plan in 2023 to seek to keep green projects in Europe.^{302,303}
1938 The urgent need to accelerate the net zero transition means fossil fuel firms must be pressed to
1939 abandon a near-term focus on returns and redirect profits to fund the green transition.³⁰⁴

1940

1941
1942 Indicator 4.2.5: Production-based and Consumption-based Attribution of CO₂ and PM_{2.5} Emissions

1943 *Headline finding: in 2021, 4.2% and 5.2% of global CO₂ and PM_{2.5} emissions occurred in low,*
1944 *medium or high HDI countries due to the net import of goods and services consumed in very high*
1945 *HDI countries.*

1946 Consumption-based emission accounting allocates emissions to countries according to their
1947 consumption of goods and services, even when the physical emissions occurred abroad. This
1948 indicator uses an environmentally-extended multi-region input-output model^{246,305,306} to

1949 quantify countries' consumption-based and production-based contribution to CO₂ and PM_{2.5}
1950 emissions.

1951 In 2021, 18.9% and 18.8% of global CO₂ and PM_{2.5} emissions, respectively, were emitted to
1952 produce goods and services traded between different HDI country groups. The very high HDI
1953 group is the largest CO₂ emitter in both production-based (44.7% of total global CO₂ emissions)
1954 and consumption-based accounting (48.9%), followed by the high HDI group (43.7% and 39.5%,
1955 respectively). Furthermore, the net imports of goods and services into very high HDI countries
1956 resulted in CO₂ and PM_{2.5} emissions in countries with lower HDI, accounting for 4.2% and 5.2%
1957 of global emissions, respectively. Very high HDI countries were the only ones with higher
1958 consumption-based than production-based emissions for both pollutants, resulting in pollution
1959 in countries with lower HDI levels.

1960 Compared to 2020, in 2021, the global share of CO₂ from both production-based and
1961 consumption-based emissions increased in all HDI groups except the high HDI country group.

1962

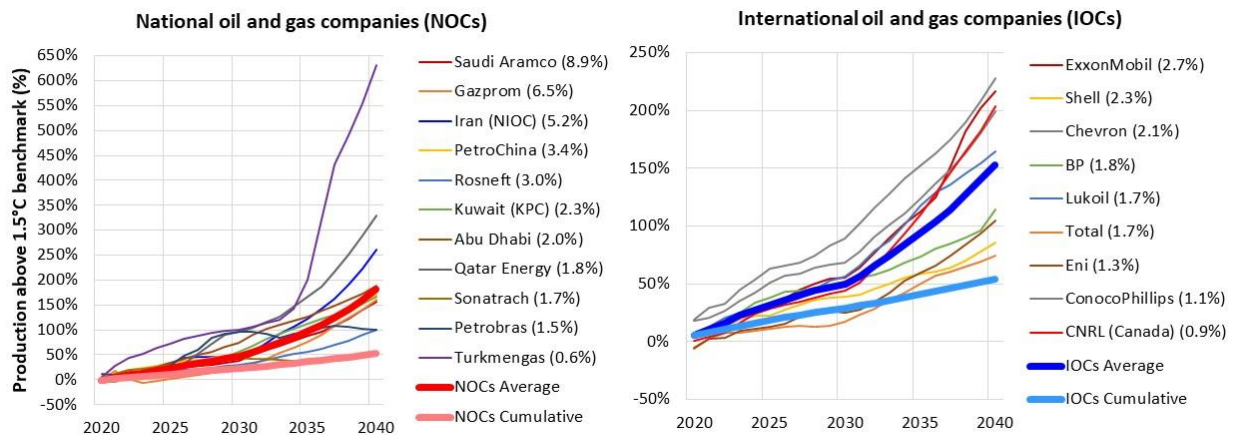
1963 **Indicator 4.2.6: Compatibility of Fossil Fuel Company Strategies with the Paris Agreement**

1964 *Headline finding: the strategies of the 20 largest oil and gas companies as of February 2023 would*
1965 *lead to production exceeding levels consistent with 1.5°C of heating by 173% in 2040, an increase*
1966 *from 112% expected as from February 2022.*

1967 Emissions from oil and gas need to be reduced dramatically to keep global mean temperature
1968 rise below 1.5°C, and enable a healthy future.^{85,308} This indicator assesses the alignment of
1969 current oil and gas company (O&G) production strategies with Paris Agreement goals, using data
1970 on actual commercial activities from the Rystad Energy database, based on actual commercial
1971 activities for the 20 largest O&G companies by projected 2040 production.³⁰⁹ These include 11

1972 state-owned national O&G companies (NOCs) and 9 publicly-listed international O&G companies
 1973 (IOCs) responsible for 37% and 15.5% of total global production, respectively, in 2022 (52.5%
 1974 overall). Projected emissions under current strategies are compared to the IEA’s Net Zero
 1975 Emissions (NZE) pathway compliant with 1.5°C,³¹⁰ assuming constant market shares at the 2015-
 1976 2020 average.

1977 Data indicate that, regardless of their claims and commitments, the compatibility of the plans of
 1978 these O&G companies with international climate commitments has decreased further from 2021
 1979 to 2022. Their production strategies as of February 2023 would generate GHG emissions in 2030
 1980 which exceed their annual share compatible with 1.5°C of heating by an average of 48% (47% for
 1981 NOCs and 50% for IOCs), rising to 173% in 2040 (181% for NOCs and 153% for IOCs) (Figure 13).
 1982 These represent sizeable increases from their February 2022 strategies, which would have
 1983 resulted in combined emissions excesses of 43% in 2030 and 112% in 2040. Although some of
 1984 this is due to a slight tightening of the post-2030 NZE pathway, this still represents a substantial
 1985 increase in the extent to which O&G production ambitions in company strategies are inconsistent
 1986 with the goals of the Paris Agreement.



1987

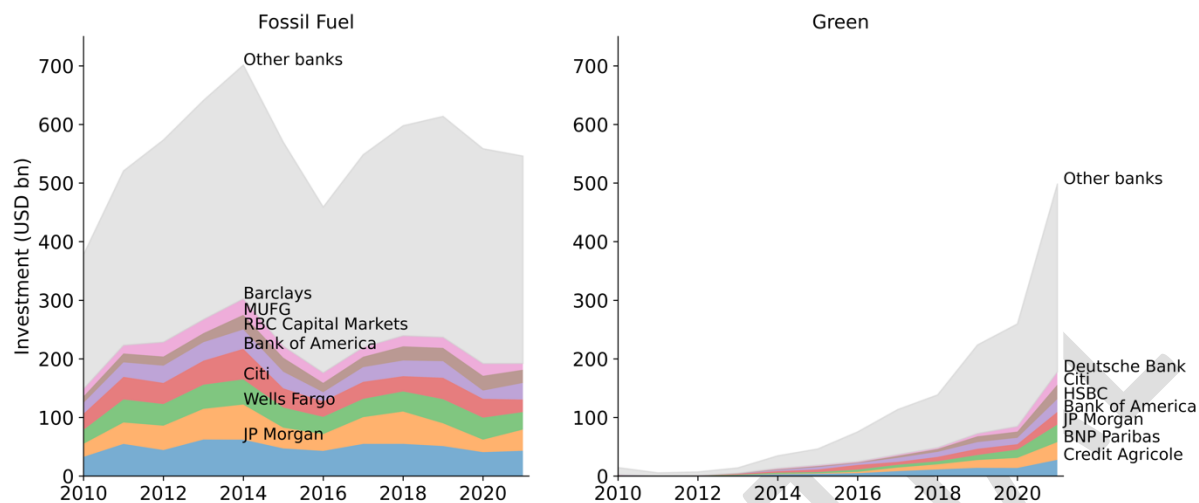
1988 *Figure 13: Compatibility of twenty large oil and gas company production strategies with Paris 1.5°C climate*
 1989 *target. Percentages in brackets in the legend represent average 2015-2020 global market share.*

1990

1991 Indicator 4.2.7: Fossil Fuel and Green Bank Lending

1992 *Headline finding: green sector lending has risen sharply since 2016, to US\$498 billion in 2021, and*
1993 *is approaching fossil fuel lending. However, 22 of the top 40 private banks have increased their*
1994 *fossil fuel lending.*

1995 Redirecting finance away from fossil fuels and towards clean renewables, energy efficiency, and
1996 carbon sinks is essential for a healthy, just transition to net-zero emissions. The Net-Zero Banking
1997 Alliance (NZBA), currently representing 40% of global banking assets, was convened by United
1998 Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) in 2021 to promote this goal.³¹¹ Estimates suggest that
1999 70% of the required green energy investment will come from private sources (i.e. non-
2000 government), and an increasing amount will be mobilised as debt.²⁷² New to this year's report,
2001 this indicator draws on data from Bloomberg to monitor private banks lending to the fossil fuel
2002 and to the green sector (comprising renewable energy and energy efficiency, carbon sinks, and
2003 other energy sustainability, Appendix pp 204). Average annual lending to the fossil fuel sector in
2004 the six years before the Paris Agreement entered into force (2010-2016), was US\$549 billion, and
2005 increased slightly in the following six years (2017-2021), to US\$572 billion (Figure 14). The top
2006 seven lending banks, dominated by US institutions, account for 40% of total fossil fuel lending
2007 over the last decade.



2008

2009 *Figure 14: Total lending to the fossil fuel (left) and green sectors (right) between 2010 and 2021. The*
 2010 *contributions of the 7 top banks (ranked by cumulative investment) are also shown.*

2011

2012 In 2017-2021, the 40 banks that lent the most to the fossil fuel sector in the last decade invested
 2013 on average US\$489 billion yearly in O&G – 87% of total global bank lending to the fossil fuel
 2014 sector. Of these banks, 22 (55%) had increased their average annual fossil fuel lending from 2010-
 2015 2016. Despite being NZBA members, three Japanese banks (Sumitomo Mitsui, MUFG and Mizuho
 2016 Financial) dominated this cohort in terms of absolute spend and relative increase. On the
 2017 contrary, five European banks led fossil fuel finance reductions (Nordea, UBS, DNB ASA, Deutsche
 2018 Bank and Credit Suisse), having reduced by over 25% their fossil fuel lending in 2017-2021
 2019 compared to 2010-2016.

2020 The biggest fossil fuel lenders, Citi, Wells Fargo, and JP Morgan, who together provide 25%
 2021 (US\$616 billion) of the total fossil fuel lending provided by the top 40 banks in 2017-2021, have
 2022 made negligible progress on reducing fossil fuel lending, even though they are NZBA members.

2023 Green lending by the banking sector globally, on the other hand, has increased substantially, from
2024 US\$75 billion in 2016 to US\$498 billion in 2021, when it approached lending to the fossil fuel
2025 sector. Of the top seven institutions who together provided 34% of total finance in the last
2026 decade, four were European banks. Year-on-year growth rose from 16% in 2020 to 92% in 2021,
2027 reflecting the increased cost-competitiveness of renewables following the COVID-19 pandemic.

2028

2029 Conclusion

2030 International loss and damage negotiations have put economics and finance at the centre of
2031 climate change discussions. This section exposes some of the extensive economic losses and
2032 damages from the health impacts of climate change currently affecting people around the world
2033 (indicators 4.1.1-4.1.4), which in turn further undermine the socioeconomic determinants of
2034 health, and further limit the scarce resources available to foster the transition to a healthy future.

2035 Despite these impacts, substantial and sustained investment today can still deliver needed
2036 economic transformation to avert the most catastrophic health impacts, and to forge a fairer,
2037 prosperous future. However, governments continue to incentivise a carbon-intensive health-
2038 harming economy, allocating amounts often equivalent to substantial proportions of their health
2039 budgets to subsidising fossil fuels (indicator 4.2.4). Meanwhile, O&G companies are increasing
2040 their non-compliance with the Paris 1.5°C target as high energy prices have incentivised oil and
2041 gas investments (indicator 4.2.6); and leading banks have maintained high levels of lending to
2042 fossil fuel companies despite their commitments to the Net-Zero Banking Alliance (indicator
2043 4.2.7).

2044 Yet, some indicators show promising trends. Investments and employment in renewable energy
2045 continue to increase (indicators 4.2.1-4.2.2). Green lending has accelerated in recent years and
2046 is approaching fossil fuel lending (indicator 4.2.7). Increased investment in clean renewable

2047 sources of energy can help countries respond to the energy crisis, improve energy security, and
2048 reduce air pollution, thereby helping to achieve a net-zero-emission, healthy, and equitable
2049 future.

2050 A financial transformation will be essential to achieve these goals. This will require
2051 comprehensive cost-benefit analyses which consider the economic costs of the health impacts of
2052 climate change, including those on the health system and the broader economy, as well as the
2053 potential savings from avoiding them. The current capacity to capture such effective costs is
2054 limited by the scarcity of data on health spend and economic performance, and is a gap that the
2055 *Lancet* Countdown will continue to seek to address. A further gap relates to a limited capacity to
2056 monitor the potential local economic benefits and harms of the transition away from fossil fuels
2057 and towards renewable energies, particularly for communities at sites of extraction – a gap that
2058 will be critical to address in the future to monitor and support a just transition.

2059

2060

2061 Section 5: Public and Political Engagement in Health and Climate Change

2062 Previous sections made clear that climate change is an increasing threat to health, driven by high-
2063 emitting countries but impacting most on communities least protected from its adverse
2064 effects.^{312–314} Action to date has failed to reverse the upward trends in energy-related carbon
2065 emissions,³¹⁵ global temperatures,³¹⁶ and associated health-damaging exposures and impacts.
2066 Putting people at the centre of the climate conversation can help to expose the human impacts
2067 of inaction, and the benefits of an accelerated response to meet the ambitions of the Paris
2068 Agreement.

2069 This section focuses on societal actors with a key role to play in accelerating action. It tracks
2070 engagement by the media, individuals, scientists, governments, international organisations (IOs)
2071 and the corporate sector. Where possible, indicators examine engagement with the health
2072 benefits of climate change action. For all indicators, methods, data sources and further analyses
2073 are provided in the Appendix.

2074

2075 Indicator 5.1: Media Engagement in Health and Climate Change

2076 *Headline finding: in 2022, global newspaper coverage of health and climate change continued its*
2077 *upward trend, reaching a record 28% of all climate change articles mentioning health.*

2078 Traditional media outlets (newspaper, radio, or television) are major platforms for public
2079 engagement, and continue to play an important agenda-setting role within today's multi-media
2080 landscape.^{317–322} This indicator tracks coverage of health and climate change in 66 newspapers
2081 (print and online formats) from 36 countries, including the *People's Daily (Renmin Ribao)*, the
2082 media outlet that best represents mainstream politics in China.^{323–325} There is limited sample
2083 coverage in low-income countries, particularly sub-Saharan Africa, thus under-representing
2084 reporting in these highly vulnerable countries.

2085 Media engagement continued its upward trend in the global set of newspapers. In 2022, 28% of
2086 climate change articles referred to health, the highest proportion to date. The number of articles
2087 engaging with health and climate change also increased, by 12% between 2021 and 2022, and by
2088 over 200% since 2017. However, there is little mention of health co-benefits: in English-language
2089 newspapers, less than 1% of articles in 2022 relating to health and climate change refer to health
2090 co-benefits. In the *People's Daily*, coverage of climate change in 2022 reached its highest
2091 recorded level. The increase was related to China's carbon neutrality goal, pledged at the end of
2092 2020. However, only a small proportion (<1%) of climate change articles referred to health.

2093

2094 [Indicator 5.2: Individual Engagement in Health and Climate Change](#)

2095 *Headline finding: individual engagement with health and climate change remained low in 2022.*
2096 *Of all clickviews that led to health-related articles, only 0.03% came from climate change-related*
2097 *articles; and only 0.36% of clickviews that led to climate change-related articles came from*
2098 *health-related articles.*

2099 This indicator tracks individual engagement with health and climate change by monitoring
2100 searches on Wikipedia, the online information source with a wider population reach than
2101 traditional encyclopaedias.³²⁶⁻³³⁰ With its content created and edited by users, it also influences
2102 the agenda of other media sources.³²² The analysis is based on the English-language Wikipedia
2103 that represents around 50% of global traffic to all Wikipedia language editions.^{331,332}

2104 The indicator measures 'clickstream' activity, where an individual clicks between an article on
2105 health and one on climate change (or vice versa). As in previous years, individuals seldom move
2106 between health and climate change; instead, co-click activity is predominantly within the set of
2107 articles on health or climate change. Among all clickviews that led to a health-related article, only
2108 0.03% came from a climate change-related article; among all clickviews that led to a climate
2109 change-related article, only 0.36% came from a health-related article. Across the 2018-2022

2110 period, there was no consistent trend in engagement between health and climate change as
2111 reflected in clickstream activity; the increase noted in 2021, which was driven by COVID-19
2112 related searches, did not continue in 2022.

2113

2114 5.3: Scientific Engagement in Health and Climate Change

2115 Peer-reviewed journals are the primary source of scientific evidence for the media, national
2116 governments and the public.³³³ The following indicators track engagement on health and climate
2117 change in the scientific literature.

2118 Indicator 5.3.1: Scientific Articles on Health and Climate Change

2119 *Headline finding: after rapid growth in 2020 and 2021, the number of scientific papers*
2120 *investigating the links between health and climate change in 2022 fell by 2% compared to 2021,*
2121 *but remained three times higher than in 2012.*

2122 This indicator uses a machine-learning methodology to monitor the number of peer-reviewed
2123 scientific articles on health and climate and reports a growing body of scientific literature on
2124 climate and health, 80% of which has been published since 2012. In 2022, a total of 3,149 papers
2125 were published, 3.7 times more than in 2012. This represents a reduction of 2% between 2021
2126 and 2022; it remains to be seen whether this heralds a slowdown, or a return to previous trends
2127 after exceptionally high years in 2020 and 2021. Climate and health research continues to be
2128 dominated by studies on weather-related impacts, with little research on the links between
2129 health and mitigation and adaptation policies.

2130

2131 Indicator 5.3.2: Scientific Engagement on the Health Impacts of Climate Change

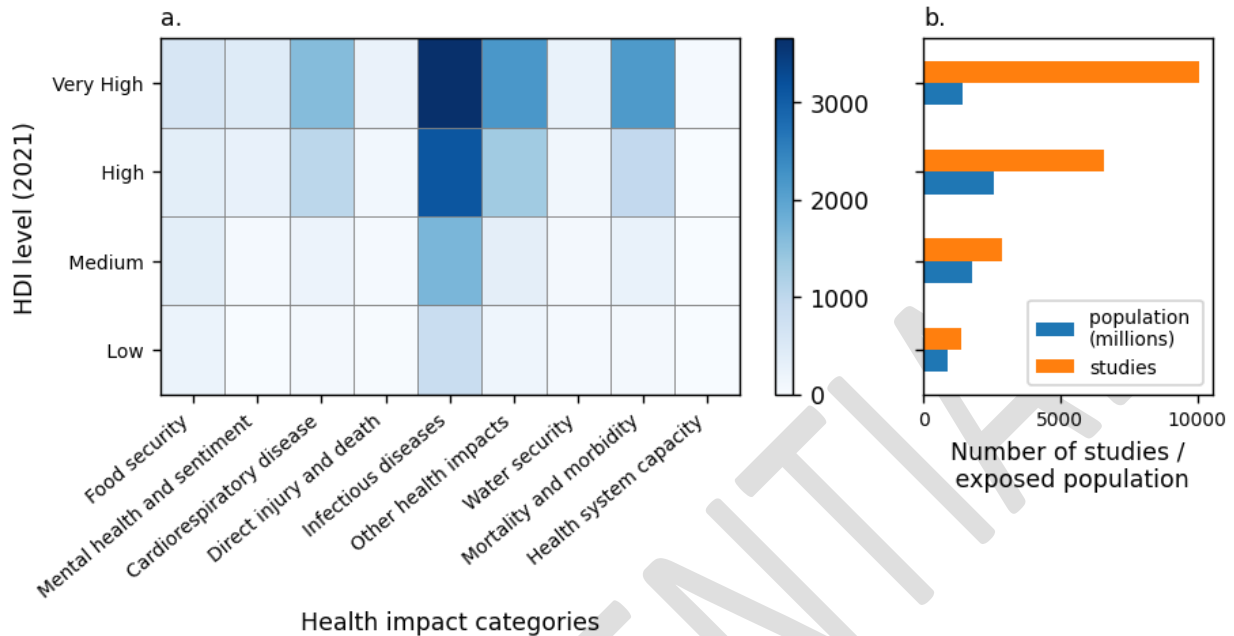
2132 *Headline finding: there are global inequalities in the location of studies referring to the health*
2133 *impacts of human-influenced climate drivers: 6.89 studies per million people in very high HDI*

2134 *countries, and 1.61 and 1.51, respectively, for medium and low HDI countries. Of 37 extreme*
2135 *events analysed for detection and attribution between 2022 and 2023, 31 (84%) were more likely*
2136 *and/or more severe because of climate change.*

2137 New to this year's report is a set of sub-indicators capturing health impacts that can be tentatively
2138 attributed to climate change, using different methods to estimate these climate-related health
2139 impacts.

2140 Building on indicator 5.3.1, the first sub-indicator maps the volume of studies published between
2141 January 1985 and December 2022 referring to health impacts related to climate variables, where
2142 changes in the climate driver can be attributed to human influence. Across this period, 16,000
2143 studies refer to health impacts from events that can be attributed to anthropogenic climate
2144 change, the majority of which (78%) related to infectious diseases.

2145 However, there is a marked geographical inequality in the location of these studies (Figure 15).
2146 In very high HDI countries, there is a ratio of 6.89 studies per million people exposed to human-
2147 influenced climate drivers; in high HDI countries, the ratio stands at 2.53 studies per million. In
2148 contrast, for countries with medium and low HDI, the ratios stand at 1.61 and 1.51 respectively.



2149

2150 *Figure 15: (a) Studies linking health impacts to attributable climate changes by topic area, grouped by level*
 2151 *of HDI (b) Number of studies linking health impacts to attributable climate changes and millions of people*
 2152 *exposed to attributable climate changes, in countries grouped by level of HDI.*

2153

2154 Detection and attribution studies evaluate the causal role of climate change in weather-related
 2155 events.³³⁴ In this indicator, a literature review monitors published detection and attribution
 2156 studies, combining them with associated morbidity and mortality reported by the Centre for
 2157 Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters’ database (EM-DAT).²¹³.

2158 From January 2022 to March 2023, 40 attribution studies analysed 37 events across six regions.
 2159 Of these events, 31 (84%) were found to have been made more likely and/or severe because of
 2160 climate change. Extreme heat and flooding were the deadliest of the events analysed, causing
 2161 7,991 and 3,460 fatalities, respectively.²¹³ However, these figures are likely underestimates, as
 2162 they do not include delayed or indirect deaths that can be substantial in prolonged events.³³⁵

2163 Seven studies (18%) pertained to events that occurred in countries with low and medium HDI, an
2164 increase from four studies (6%) in 2021, and three (12%) in 2020.³⁸ Additionally, 17 (43%) made
2165 direct reference to health impacts, consistent with an overall increase in “impact attribution”
2166 research linking attribution science directly with environmental and socioeconomic outcomes,
2167 including health.

2168

2169 5.4: Political Engagement in Health and Climate Change

2170 Engagement by political leaders is central to climate interventions that protect human health.
2171 The following indicators monitor political engagement through national leaders’ statements at
2172 the UN General Debate (UNGD), the cornerstone of the annual UNGA,^{336,337} and Nationally
2173 Determined Contributions (NDCs), the key policy instrument to protect people and the planet
2174 from climate change.³³⁸ In addition, a new indicator tracks engagement by International
2175 Organisations (IOs) with the intersection of health and climate change.

2176 Indicator 5.4.1: Government Engagement

2177 *Headline finding: 50% of countries mentioned the intersection of health and climate change at*
2178 *the UN General Debate in 2022, a 10% decrease from 2021. 95% of updated NDC documents*
2179 *make reference to health, up from 73% in the first submission.*

2180 The UNGA is the policy-making body of the UN,^{336,339} and through the annual UN General Debate
2181 (UNGD) provides the major global platform for national governments to highlight challenges
2182 requiring action by the international community. In 2022, engagement in health and climate
2183 change declined compared to 2021, when 60% of government leaders discussed health and
2184 climate change, many in the context of COVID-19. Nonetheless, 50% of national leaders discussed
2185 the health-climate change nexus; SIDS represented 64% of those, continuing to lead engagement.

2186 The speeches made by countries least responsible but most affected by climate change continued
2187 to highlight the human and environmental devastation of climate change. For example, the
2188 Pakistan address focused on the floods the country experienced in 2022, stating “In that ground-
2189 zero of climate change, 33 million people, including women and children, are now at high risk
2190 from health hazards, with 650,000 women giving birth underneath makeshift tarpaulins...in peril
2191 from disease and malnutrition.” While most of the references focused on the impacts of climate
2192 change on health, there were also references to the health co-benefits of mitigation. For
2193 example, Fiji’s address stated “We legislated a net-zero commitment by 2050...which will make
2194 us more energy secure, protect us from energy price shocks beyond our control and provide us
2195 with cleaner air, better health and better jobs.”

2196 The second part of this indicator measures engagement with health and climate change in NDCs.
2197 In compliance with the Paris Agreement, countries must periodically report increasingly
2198 ambitious contributions towards international climate commitments.⁴⁵ UN member states’
2199 second NDCs (as of February 2023) point to increasing engagement in health compared to their
2200 first NDCs. Engagement in the first NDCs was led by countries most affected by climate change
2201 and all countries in the low HDI group referred to health. In subsequent NDCs, engagement
2202 increased sharply in the high (from 86% to 100% of countries) and very high (from 33% to 87%)
2203 HDI country groups. Of all updated NDCs, 95% now make reference to health – up from 73% in
2204 the first round. However, across all three rounds of NDCs, the very high HDI group was least likely
2205 to refer to health.

2206 As a further indicator of government engagement, Panel 8 presents evidence on how national
2207 laws can serve as instruments of climate change action, by mandating mitigation and adaptation
2208 actions with health co-benefits.

2209

2210 ***Panel 8: Protecting health through climate legislation and litigation***

2211 The law is an important arena for action on health and climate change.^{340,341} Across different
2212 countries, climate-related legislation has been passed at national and subnational levels, and
2213 citizens have turned to litigation to force governments to strengthen mitigation and adaptation
2214 actions. These legal instruments have incorporated health in various ways.

2215 **Health Impact and Adaptation:** A growing number of countries have enacted laws establishing
2216 national emissions reduction targets and strengthening climate governance.^{342,343} Many of these
2217 laws include direct references to the health impacts of climate change – both in terms of justifying
2218 the legislation and including adaptation provisions focusing on citizens’ health. For example,
2219 Portugal’s 2021 Framework Climate Law includes an article on public health that stipulates that
2220 the government must support the “assessment of global and national risks and the preparation
2221 of action, prevention and contingency plans in the face of extreme climatic phenomena, the
2222 emergence of new diseases or the worsening of the incidence of diseases as a result of climate
2223 change”.³⁴⁴ Climate laws that include health adaptation provisions have been introduced in
2224 places such as Ecuador,³⁴⁵ Nauru,³⁴⁶ and the EU.³⁴⁷

2225 **Mitigation and Health Co-Benefits:** Other countries have introduced laws targeting emissions
2226 reductions and environmental protections that explicitly refer to health co-benefits. For example,
2227 North Macedonia’s Law on Ambient Air Quality.³⁴⁸ The emphasis on health can also be seen in
2228 laws that may not primarily target climate change. For example, the US’s 2022 Inflation Reduction
2229 Act (IRA) aims to curb inflation by, among others, investing in domestic energy production, and
2230 promoting healthy, zero-emission energy.³⁴⁹ Through various health and climate-related
2231 provisions, the IRA could play a crucial role in protecting health from the adverse impacts of
2232 climate change.³⁵⁰

2233 **Litigation:** Evidence relating to the health impacts of climate change has also been used in
2234 litigation cases, such as civil legal proceedings against governments to accelerate climate change
2235 action.³⁵¹ In a landmark court case in Germany in 2020, a group of young people filed a legal

2236 challenge to Germany’s Federal Climate Protection Act (KSG) on the basis that the target of
2237 reducing greenhouse gas emissions by 55% between 1990 and 2030 was insufficient for the
2238 country to meet its Paris Agreement targets, which therefore violated their human rights as
2239 protected in Germany’s constitution.³⁵² A key component of the claimants’ case was evidence of
2240 the health impacts of climate change, which they argued violated their right to life and physical
2241 integrity.³⁵³ The court ruled in their favour, leading to the German Government revising their
2242 mitigation targets.³⁵² An emphasis on the health impacts of climate change can also be observed
2243 in other recent and ongoing litigation cases at the international level. For example, the UN Human
2244 Rights Committee ruling in favour of Indigenous Torres Strait Islanders – who had lodged a
2245 complaint against the Australian Government for failing to adequately cut emissions or
2246 implement necessary adaptation measures – referred to the health impacts of climate change
2247 for Indigenous people on the low-lying islands.³⁵⁴ A focus on the health dimensions of climate
2248 change is also likely to be central to climate-related litigation pursued by Small Island
2249 Development States (SIDS). In December 2022, The Commission of Small Island States on Climate
2250 Change and International Law (COSIS) made an unprecedented formal request for an Advisory
2251 Opinion to the International Tribunal for the Law of the Sea.³⁵⁵ The case documents include a
2252 strong focus on the health impacts of climate change, particularly in relation to undermining the
2253 right to health, and the right to a clean, healthy and sustainable environment for citizens of
2254 SIDS.³⁵⁶

2255 As well as being effective instruments of action on health and climate change, legislation and
2256 litigation can increase engagement in other key societal domains, including by the media, the
2257 public and the corporate sector.^{340,357}

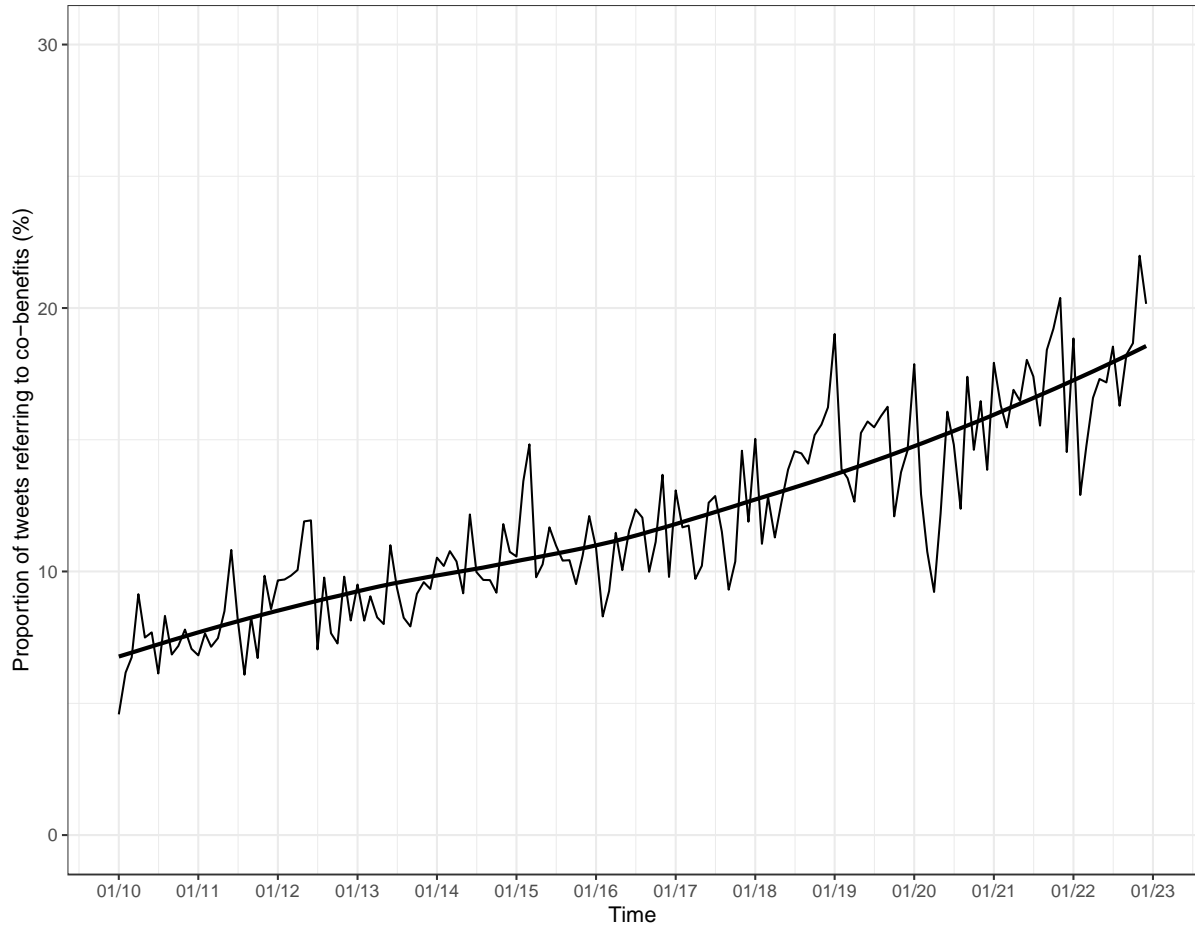
2258

2259 Indicator 5.4.2: Engagement by International Organisations

2260 *Headline finding: tweets mentioning the health co-benefits of climate change action reached a*
2261 *record of 22% of all monthly tweets from International Organisations in November 2022, in a*
2262 *continuously upward trend.*

2263 IOs – for example, international and regional development agencies, supra-national bodies like
2264 the EU, African Union and UN agencies – are playing an increasingly important role in climate
2265 change action.^{358–360} This new indicator tracks engagement in the health co-benefits of climate
2266 mitigation in IOs’ official Twitter accounts, a key mode of communication with journalists and the
2267 public.³⁶¹

2268 The indicator focuses on 41 IOs within an operational focus on climate mitigation and/or
2269 adaptation across a broad range of sectors (e.g. development and disaster risk management,
2270 trade and finance, energy policy, food and agriculture). The dataset consisted of 1,392,892
2271 tweets between 2010 and 2022, of which 1,354,924 were English language tweets, analysed to
2272 identify those engaging with health co-benefits of mitigation. Engagement in these co-benefits
2273 (as a proportion of the total number of tweets by that IO) increased across this period: by
2274 November 2022, a record of 22% of tweets mentioned co-benefits, up from an average of 7% in
2275 2010 (Figure 16). There were clear sectoral differences, with the greatest co-benefits
2276 engagement by IOs from the Energy, Environment, Food and Agriculture, and Global
2277 Development Banking sectors.



2278

2279 *Figure 16: Engagement with health co-benefits of mitigation in Twitter posts of 41 International*
2280 *Organisations, 2010-2022. The smooth line represents a local regression using locally estimated*
2281 *scatterplot smoothing; the thinner line represents the actual number of tweets over time. The 95%*
2282 *confidence interval is indicated by the shaded area around the trend line.*

2283

2284

2285

2286 [Indicator 5.5: Corporate Sector Engagement in Health and Climate Change](#)

2287 *Headline finding: corporate sector engagement with health and climate change reached its*
2288 *highest recorded level in 2022, with 38% of companies referring to the health dimensions of*
2289 *climate change.*

2290 The UN Global Compact (UNGC) is the largest global corporate sustainability framework,³⁶² and
2291 one associated with improved environmental and social responsibility among participating
2292 companies.^{363,364} This indicator monitors engagement on health and climate change from the
2293 over 20,000 companies from 162 countries who signed up to the UNGC by tracking mentions of
2294 health and climate change in their annual Global Compact Communication of Progress (GCCOP)
2295 reports.

2296 Engagement in 2022 reached its highest recorded level, with 38% (2337/6089) of companies
2297 referring to the health dimensions of climate change. However, a higher proportion of companies
2298 continue to engage with either health (88% in 2022) or climate change (75%) alone.

2299 [Conclusion](#)

2300 Public and political engagement in health and climate change continued its upward trend across
2301 2022, reaching the highest recorded level in global newspapers and among government leaders
2302 and companies signed up to the UN sustainability charter. There is also evidence of increasing
2303 engagement in the health co-benefits of climate mitigation, for example among IOs. The Lancet
2304 Countdown will continue to track key sites of engagement. It will address gaps in coverage, by
2305 extending the global reach of existing indicators and by introducing new indicators that directly
2306 capture people's perceptions of health and climate change within and between countries.

2307 Engagement in the climate change-health nexus is growing. But as this section demonstrates,
2308 there is greater engagement with health and climate change as separate issues, as evidenced in
2309 the digital footprint of Wikipedia users and by government leaders at the UNGD and companies
2310 in the UNGC. In addition, profound inequities in engagement persist. Scientific research is

2311 concentrated in countries and regions more protected from the adverse consequences of climate
2312 change, with much less focus on climate-vulnerable communities in Africa, Asia and South and
2313 Central America. At the same time, government engagement has been led by countries bearing
2314 the brunt of a climate crisis to which they contributed little. These stark contrasts point to the
2315 negative inequality impacts of climate change and the importance of tracking the distributional
2316 effects of climate change action across and within countries.^{314,365,366}

2317

2318 Conclusion: the 2023 report of the *Lancet* Countdown

2319 The 2022 report of the *Lancet* Countdown warned that global health is at the mercy of fossil fuels,
2320 and noted a unique opportunity, as countries responded to the energy crisis, to deliver
2321 transformative climate change action for a thriving future.²⁵¹ This year's report finds few, if any,
2322 signs of the urgently needed progress, in a world still bound to fossil fuel ambitions.

2323 With extreme weather records breached in all continents through 2022, risks to human health
2324 and survival are increasing across all dimensions monitored. Around the world people face
2325 increased heat-related illness and extreme weather-related risks, infectious disease spread, and
2326 worsened food insecurity (Section 1). The associated economic losses add to the health burden,
2327 eroding the socioeconomic building blocks of health (indicators 1.1.4, 4.1.1, and 4.1.3). Despite
2328 the rising risks, adaptation efforts fall short of the necessary action to protect people's health,
2329 particularly in lower Human Development Index (HDI) countries where structural inequities limit
2330 access to funding and technical capacity (Section 2). This scarcity is aggravated by the rising
2331 economic losses from climate change impacts, and the persistent failure of wealthier countries
2332 reach the promised sum of U\$S 100 billion annually to support countries most affected by climate
2333 change.³⁶⁷ As a result, the most vulnerable and minoritised communities are left the least
2334 protected, and the deep within and between-country health inequities are further exacerbated.

2335 The impacts observed at the current average global 1.14°C of heating offer an early glimpse into
2336 a future that increasingly threatens people’s health. New to this year’s report, projections reveal
2337 the potential human cost of further delayed action, with every health hazard assessed projected
2338 to increase even under a scenario compatible with a 2°C mean temperature rise (section 1).
2339 Accelerating adaptation remains essential to minimise the associated health impacts. However,
2340 with various limits to adaptation being rapidly reached,² these data underline the critical health
2341 imperative to strengthen mitigation efforts urgently to restrict global mean temperature rise to
2342 1.5°C.

2343 However, the pace and scale of mitigation efforts continue to fall very far short of those required
2344 to safeguard people’s safety. Current policies put the world on track for a potentially catastrophic
2345 2.7°C of heating by 2100, and energy-related emissions reached a new record high in 2022
2346 (indicator 3.1.1). Meanwhile, high energy prices yielded US\$4 trillion in profits for oil and gas
2347 (O&G) companies (panel 7), incentivising fossil fuel expansion. Indeed, O&G companies allocated
2348 only around 4% of their capital investment to renewables, and further reduced the compliance
2349 of their strategies with international climate change goals (panel 7 and indicator 4.2.6).²⁷³ The
2350 finance sector is also contributing to growing health threats, as 55% of the private banks that
2351 provide the most finance to fossil fuels are increasing their lending (indicator 4.2.7).^{76,294–298}
2352 Rather than discouraging health-harming fossil fuel burning, most governments keep
2353 incentivising it through subsidies, often for sums equivalent to substantial proportions of their
2354 health budgets (indicator 4.2.4). Meanwhile, agricultural emissions continue to increase as well,
2355 alongside a global food system that supports unhealthy, carbon-intensive diets (indicators 3.3.1
2356 and 3.3.2).

2357 Despite a rapidly growing use of clean renewable energy, they still account for only 9.5% of the
2358 world’s electricity (indicator 3.1.1). The share is even less in low HDI countries where, often in
2359 spite of vast availability of natural renewable energy resources, clean renewables account for just
2360 2.3% of electricity generation, and 92% of domestic energy still comes from polluting fuels

2361 (indicators 3.1.1 and 3.1.2). This resulted in 1.8 million deaths from ambient fossil fuel-derived
2362 air pollution globally in 2020, and the use of dirty fuels inside homes caused, on average, 140
2363 deaths per 100,000 inhabitants across 62 countries assessed (indicators 3.1.2, 3.2.1 and 3.2.2).
2364 Populations in low HDI countries are exposed not only to dirty fuels, but also to persistent energy
2365 poverty (indicator 3.1.2 and 3.2.2). In addition, those communities living in the proximity of
2366 extraction sites of fossil fuels and renewable industries often also see their health affected by the
2367 harms of poorly-regulated local industrial activity.^{34,78} This inequitable energy transition is leaving
2368 the most underserved populations behind, exacerbating health inequities, and perpetuating
2369 harmful extractive practices that undermine human health, wellbeing, and the social, economic,
2370 and environmental conditions on which they depend (Part A).

2371 Notwithstanding the insufficient progress identified, this report reveals the path to a healthy
2372 future. Redirecting subsidies, lending, investment, and other financial flows away from fossil fuels
2373 is critical to support a healthy future. Funds are available to support a just clean energy transition,
2374 health-promoting activities and reduced inequities (indicators 4.2 and panel 7). Empowering
2375 countries and local communities in the safe development, deployment and adoption of clean
2376 energies, can reduce energy poverty by supporting access to de-centralised energy. In turn, this
2377 can promote access to quality health-supporting services and promote local skills, generate jobs
2378 and support local economies, strengthening the socioeconomic determinants of health (indicator
2379 4.2.2 and panel 6).^{78,80,368,369} Health-centred urban redesign can promote safe active travel,
2380 reduce building and transport-based air pollution and GHG emissions, and increase resilience to
2381 climate hazards (indicators 3.1.3 and 3.2.1). Increasing urban green spaces can additionally offer
2382 local cooling, increase carbon sequestration, and provide direct benefits to physical and mental
2383 health (indicators 2.2.2 and 2.2.3). Providing further support for climate and health risk
2384 assessments and adaptation planning can support increased resilience to unavoidable climate
2385 change, delivering stronger health systems for all (indicators 2.1.1-2.1.3, 2.3.1 and 2.3.2). The

2386 health benefits of climate action could be transformative, protecting lives and livelihoods and
2387 paving the way to a thriving future.

2388 Achieving these ambitions requires guidance and leadership on health-promoting climate
2389 policies, and steadfast, sustained commitments to deliver a just transition. Driven by the
2390 mandate to protect people’s health, wellbeing, an survival above all else, health professionals
2391 are uniquely positioned to guide actions to safeguard the human right to health and a healthy
2392 environment.

2393 Encouragingly, following decades of the health sector raising the alarm,³⁷⁰ engagement with
2394 health and climate change is increasing among key actors and decision makers (indicators 5.1,
2395 5.4, and 5.5). The renewed focus on health within forthcoming UNFCCC negotiations offers an
2396 unprecedented opportunity to foster climate action (panel 2).³⁷¹ Harnessing this opportunity will
2397 require coordinated efforts grounded in science to keep decision makers accountable, and
2398 counteract the growing lobbying and influence of the fossil fuel sector and other health-harming
2399 industries. To truly protect health, climate negotiations must drive a rapid and sustained shift
2400 away from fossil fuels, accelerate mitigation, and increase support for health adaptation.
2401 Anything less would amount to healthwashing – increasing the acceptability of initiatives that
2402 minimally advance climate change action, to the detriment of billions alive today.

2403 With climate change claiming millions of lives annually and its threats rapidly growing, seizing the
2404 opportunity to secure a healthier future has never been more vital. It will take the coordinated
2405 action of health professionals, policy makers, corporations and financial institutions to ensure a
2406 thriving future remains within reach.

2407

2408 **Contributors**

2409 The *Lancet* Countdown and the work for this report were conducted by five working groups,
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2450 **Editorial note:** The Lancet Group takes a neutral position with respect to territorial claims in
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