

Climate Change

Position paper
August 2017

the future of rural health

National Rural Health Student Network

The National Rural Health Student Network (NRHSN) represents the future of rural health in Australia. It has more than 9,000 members who belong to 28 university Rural Health Clubs from all states and territories.

It is Australia's only multi-disciplinary student health network, bringing together people studying medicine, nursing and allied health, encouraging them to pursue rural health careers.

The NRHSN has two aims:

- ▶ to provide a voice for students who are interested in improving health outcomes for rural and remote Australians
- ▶ to promote rural health careers to students and encourage students who are interested in practising in rural health care.

The NRHSN and its Rural Health Clubs offer rural experience weekends, career information sessions and professional development activities as well as providing a social base for students at university and when on rural placement.

The student network leaders also advocate on behalf of health students of all disciplines - including opportunities for more rural placements and training support.

The NRHSN is managed by Rural Health Workforce Australia (RHWA) with funding from the Federal Department of Health.

Rural Health Workforce Australia

Rural Health Workforce Australia is the national peak body for the seven state and territory Rural Workforce Agencies. Our not-for-profit Network is dedicated to making primary health care more accessible by attracting, recruiting and supporting health professionals needed in rural and remote communities. RHWA is also committed to the future workforce through our support of the National Rural Health Student Network.

Contact us

National Rural Health Student Network
Suite 2, Level 5, 10 Queens Road
Melbourne VIC 3004
03 9860 4700
info@nrhsn.org.au
www.nrhsn.org.au

Rural Health Clubs



- 1 **ARMS** - Australian National University, ACT
- 2 **AURHA** - Adelaide University, SA
- 3 **BREAATHHE** - University of Newcastle, NSW
- 4 **BUSHFIRE** - Bond University, QLD
- 5 **CARAH** - Charles Darwin University, NT in assoc with Flinders University, SA
- 6 **CRANC** - University of Canberra, ACT
- 7 **FURHS** - Flinders University, SA
- 8 **HOPE4HEALTH** - Griffith University, QLD
- 9 **KRASH** - Notre Dame University, Broome, WA
- 10 **LARHC** - La Trobe University, Bendigo, VIC
- 11 **MARHS** - Charles Sturt University, Albury, NSW including La Trobe University Wodonga campus
- 12 **MIRAGE** - University of Sydney, NSW
- 13 **NERCHA** - University of New England, NSW
- 14 **NOMAD** - Deakin University, VIC
- 15 **OUTLOOK** - University of Melbourne, VIC
- 16 **RAHMS** - University of New South Wales, NSW
- 17 **RHINO** - James Cook University, QLD
- 18 **RHUUWS** - University of Western Sydney, NSW
- 19 **ROUNDS** - Notre Dame University, Sydney campus, NSW
- 20 **ROUSTAH** - University of South Australia, SA
- 21 **RUSTICA** - University of Tasmania, TAS
- 22 **SHARP** - University of Wollongong, NSW
- 23 **SPINRPHFX** - Combined Universities of Western Australia, WA
- 24 **SIARRH** - Charles Darwin University, NT including Flinders University, SA
- 25 **TROHPIQ** - University of Queensland, QLD
- 26 **WAALHIIBE** - Combined Universities of Western Australia, WA
- 27 **WARRIAHS** - Charles Sturt University, Wagga Wagga, NSW
- 28 **WILDFIRE** - Monash University, VIC

Background

The Impact of Climate Change on Health

Climate change poses a significant threat to global health and will impact all communities and individuals. The multiple health hazards posed by climate change can occur simultaneously compounding their impact upon health, leading not only to an increase in the frequency and severity of health conditions, but also creating unanticipated health problems where they had previously not occurred.¹ Climate change drivers include increasing temperatures, extreme weather events and sea level rise, all of which contribute to extreme heat, poor air quality, reduced food and water quality, changes in the distribution of infectious agents and population displacement. These drivers lead to poorer health outcomes, particularly amongst disadvantaged and vulnerable populations.

Climate change influences infectious and vector borne diseases

The incidence, prevalence and severity of infectious diseases, particularly vector-borne diseases, has been dramatically influenced by climate change. Climate patterns affect the seasonality and distribution of vector-borne disease, especially in high and low temperature and precipitation extremes.^{2,3} Climate variability affects the distribution and density of mosquito species and the replication, breeding, abundance and survival of viruses such as Ross River Virus and Barmah Forest Virus.^{4,5} In tropical northern Australia, rising temperatures, precipitation, cyclonic events and sea level rise are expected to lead to increases in the incidence of diseases such as melioidosis, which can manifest as fulminant pneumonia. Clusters of severe cases often emerge after extreme weather events.⁶ Changing weather patterns also hinders efforts to predict the emergence of infectious diseases.⁷

Climate change influences the spread of Water-Related Illness

Temperature, precipitation, and extreme weather events affect the growth, spread and virulence of water-borne illness. Runoff from extreme precipitation in recreational water and sources of drinking water increases the risk of exposure to agents of water-related illness.^{8,9} The infrastructure for drinking water is also affected by natural disasters, leading to increased exposure to pathogens, chemicals and toxins where treatment barriers fail.¹⁰

Climate change increases the risk of temperature related death and illness

Increasing levels of atmospheric carbon dioxide and other gases, has led to an increase in both average and extreme temperatures. Since 1910, Australia's climate has warmed by approximately 1°C, with most warming occurring after 1950.¹¹ According to the CSIRO and Bureau of Meteorology,¹¹ the number of days with maximum temperatures greater than 35°C has increased within the last 50 years. These extreme temperatures expose communities to heat-related illnesses such as heat stroke and hyperthermia and leads to an increase in hospital admission and mortality, particularly amongst the elderly and those with pre-existing chronic illness.¹² A 10°C increase in maximum average daily temperature is associated with at least a 6-fold increase in heat-related ED presentations,¹² an increase in daily ambulance call-outs and an increase in mental health related hospital admissions.^{12,13} The 2009 and 2014 Victorian heatwaves contributed to 374 and 167 excess deaths, respectively.¹⁴ The Climate and Health Alliance¹⁵ warn that the

“increased incidence and severity of heatwaves from global warming could contribute to several thousand additional deaths nationwide by 2050.”

Climate change impacts the air quality and increases the level of air pollutants

Changing weather patterns associated with climate change has significantly influenced air quality. The location and levels of air pollutants such as ground-level ozone and fine particulate matter have been influenced by varying weather patterns, including extreme weather events affecting the severity of bushfires and storms.^{16,17} Over two hundred thousand deaths worldwide can be attributed to air pollution from coal fired electricity generation,¹⁸ and the effects of coal-fired power generation on health is estimated to cost Australia AUD \$2.6 billion annually.¹⁹ Increasing CO₂ levels also promotes the growth of plants that release airborne allergens.¹⁷ Higher concentrations of pollen and longer pollen seasons also increase allergic sensitisation and trigger asthma and related allergic disorders.²⁰ This, in turn, leads to premature deaths, larger hospital admission rates and lost education/work days. The 2016 thunderstorm asthma event in Victoria caused a 3,000% increase in asthma-related admissions to intensive care, with nine deaths thought to have been attributable to the event.²¹

Climate change influences individuals Mental Health and Wellbeing

In Australia, mental illness is the largest single cause of disability, accounting for 24% of the burden of non-fatal disease.²² The consequences of climate change can lead to depression, anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder and suicidality, due to acute and subacute weather events where individuals are directly exposed to danger, significant injury and death. More frequent exposure to chronic stress due to long periods of extremes of heat can also lead to elevated rates of violence and aggression.²³ The indirect effects of these events include more frequent or severe damage to homes and community infrastructure, as well as damage to livelihoods and disruption of social networks, all exposing individuals to elevated rates of chronic mood disorders and suicidal ideation and attempts.²³ Exposure to climate-related disasters put patients at risk of psychological trauma and the economic and social stress induced by extreme weather such as droughts may lead to depression and suicidality, particularly those in more rural areas.²⁴

Climate change disrupts Food Safety, Nutrition and Distribution

Rising temperatures and weather extremes increase the exposure of food to certain pathogens, contaminants and toxins.^{25,26} Food contamination with polychlorinated biphenyls, persistent organic pollutants, dioxins, pesticides, and heavy metals can occur after extreme weather events such as flooding.²⁷⁻²⁹ Rising sea surface temperatures has also led to a greater accumulation of mercury in seafood,^{30,31} a staple food source in many parts of the world. Rising carbon dioxide levels also alters the distribution of plant pests³² leading to an increase in the use of pesticides.^{33,34} Rising CO₂ levels have also been shown to decrease the concentrations of protein^{35,36} and essential minerals³⁷ in most plant species. Damage to infrastructure during extreme weather events can also lead to disruptions in the packaging, transport and storage of food, and may lead to spoilage and contamination, limiting access to safe foods.³⁸ Events such as droughts and floods also reduce agricultural production outputs leading in severe food shortages on a more global scale, with resulting malnutrition in affected populations, particularly those in developing nations.³⁹

Climate change leads to extreme environmental events that can impact social determinants

The frequency of severe climate events has increased since the mid-20th century, and is projected to continue increasing.⁴⁰ For example, very warm monthly maximum temperatures (two standard deviations above the mean) that once occurred around 2% of the time during the period of 1951-1980 increased to 11% of the time during the period of 2001-2015.¹¹ Much of Australia now also experiences more days with maximum temperatures over 35, with on average, almost 12 more days per year over 35 compared to 1957.¹¹ This has also led to an increase in extreme fire weather, and longer fire seasons in many parts of Australia, particularly in Southern and Eastern Australia, since the 1970s.¹¹ The direct health effects from severe climate events, such as injury and death, are often significant and place a large burden on local health services. Damage to property, destruction of assets and loss of infrastructure such as power, water, transportation and communication systems also place communities at risk. Furthermore, a lack of available public services such as healthcare and emergency response, social and economic impacts and environmental degradation all lead to poorer health outcomes.⁴¹ Populations such as those with disabilities or other functional needs, older adults and those of lower socioeconomic status are often the most affected.⁴² In addition to poorer health outcomes, the aftermath often places a significant economic burden on the local and wider community. For example, the estimated health and social costs of the Black Saturday bushfires in Victoria in 2009 and the 2011 Queensland floods totaled AUD \$3.9 and \$7.4 billion respectively.⁴³

Climate Change and Rural Health

Climate change impacts will be felt earliest by vulnerable communities worldwide including those located in rural and remote communities throughout Australia. Extreme weather events can have a huge impact on rural health stemming from altered temperatures, extremes of precipitation, air pollution and infectious diseases.⁴⁴ These extreme weather events have been directly linked to global warming, with a rise in frequency over the last five decades of floods, droughts, cyclones and heatwaves.^{45,46}

Increase in mosquito-borne diseases such as Dengue and Barmah Forest Virus poses particular threat to rural community health, especially those located in Northern Australia experiencing a spread in habitable regions for mosquitos.⁴⁷ Mosquito-borne diseases affect rural and regional populations at a disproportionately higher rate than their metropolitan counterparts⁴⁸ and as such, this consequence from an increase in temperature and precipitation will have a more marked effect on rural Australians.

The severity of bushfires is increased if they occur during extreme heat events. Not only are these an immediate threat to human life and livelihoods, the particulates can be a major exacerbating factor in respiratory conditions as well as cardiovascular and ophthalmic complications.⁴⁹

The secondary effects of climate change on rural health are equally concerning. Communities affected by drought have higher rates of stress and hopelessness, which may in turn lead to mental illness in these rural areas.⁵⁰⁻⁵² With the frequency of chronic adverse weather events such as drought expected to increase over the coming decades, the mental health of our farming communities are likely to suffer. Rates of anxiety and depression do not vary significantly

between rural, regional, and metropolitan areas of Australia, however rates of suicide in non-metropolitan regions are up to 1.6 times higher.⁵⁴ This discrepancy may feasibly be due to an inaccessibility of mental health resources within our rural and remote communities, or the under utilisation of these facilities by rural populations.⁵⁵

These health issues are exacerbated due to the inequity of healthcare amongst the regional, rural and remote populations of Australia. Action on climate change and rural health must be two-pronged; minimising climate change through preventative measures, and improving rural health facilities and support in preparation for the foreseeable adverse changes to come.

Climate change and Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islanders Health

Literature suggests the health impacts of climate change will occur faster and of greater magnitude in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander populations, and may result in loss of homeland, livelihoods and culture in these communities.⁵⁵

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders have almost twice the rates of hospitalisation and chronic disease compared with non-Indigenous Australians.⁵⁵ Existing health problems in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities are now being further exacerbated by climate change. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander populations have been identified as a highly vulnerable group to the effects of climate change, due to both disproportionate morbidity and mortality in these groups, and their habituation in rapidly changing regions.⁵⁶ Increased ambient temperatures and humidity are associated with deteriorations in physical health and exacerbations of existing health problems like ischemic heart disease, particularly in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders.⁵⁷

The scope for climate change to affect health is broader than just altering incidence and prevalence of disease; it has the potential to impact socio cultural well-being.⁵⁷ It is known that the strength of people's connection to "country" has been identified as a protective factor for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples' well-being. The alterations to ecosystems that result from climate change will diminish the relevance of traditional culture, and threaten both social and emotional well-being.⁵⁸

There is a need to educate these populations in preventative measures and risk avoidance in light of a changing climate.⁵⁵ The social and economic disadvantages faced by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders such as access to education, clean water and housing, increase sensitivity of these populations to climate-related health outcomes.⁵⁵ Such living conditions can increase the risk of non-communicable diseases, waterborne diseases and other infections; all of which could have outcomes affected by projected warmer temperatures and increased precipitation.⁵⁸ Sustainability of the land and its food sources is also under threat, resulting in a possible increase in the use of processed foods and further exacerbating health problems.⁵⁹

It should be also considered that Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders have always adapted to continual climate and ecosystem change. These adaptations have been underpinned by their knowledge of the land and its resources, in conjunction with their strong sense of cultural identity.⁵⁸ Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders are less likely to benefit

from state-level adaptation, but instead will be pressured to adapt at a personal, household and community level. They may, however, move away from “country” in order to do this. Adaptation programs and policies, if planned carefully in conjunction with mitigation, have the potential to improve health status.⁵⁹

Positions

1. The NRHSN recognises and acknowledges the scientific consensus that the climate is warming from human activity.
2. Climate change is one of the greatest threats to global health.
3. Climate change will adversely affect Australia’s most vulnerable populations, rural, remote, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islanders, first.

Recommendations

Education and Awareness

The NRHSN calls for:

- a. universities to establish a national framework for university curriculums, which educates future health professionals on the basics of climate change and the expected impact on health outcomes
- b. health services to ensure that health professionals are able to recognize and respond to health impacts of climate change
- c. the government to create a national public awareness program on the importance of the environment and the effects of climate change on health, and how to self-manage the symptoms of climate-associated illness
- d. the government to increase surveillance on emerging diseases attributed to climate change including outbreaks of infectious diseases to accurately quantify the burden of disease caused by climate change.

Health Services

The NRHSN calls for:

- a. universities and rural health clubs to support programs which encourage active and public forms of transport to reduce emission levels
- b. health services to minimise waste and reduce emissions
- c. the government to create targeted health programs designed to address multiple and varying exposures, for example, air pollution in those suffering from respiratory conditions such as asthma
- d. the government to ensure health services have the resources for, and are prepared to, handle a surge in climate-related illness due to both acute extreme events and long-term consequences of climate change.
- e. the government to improve access to healthcare for populations likely to be highly vulnerable to climate-associated illness

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander health

The NRHSN calls for the government to recognize the importance of the connection of land to the health and wellbeing of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people

Improved Rural Health Care

The NRHSN calls for the government to improve equality in rural and remote Australian health so communities are better equipped to deal with adverse health outcomes due to climate change. This may include:

- a. Improving security of food and water access to communities during times of extreme weather events
- b. Investing in infrastructure to better cope with acute weather events

Mental Health Services

The NRHSN calls for the government and health services to improve access to mental health services which can be vital during times of drought and extreme weather conditions.

Support clean and efficient energy

The NRHSN supports:

- a. the Australian Government's Renewable Energy Target to ensure almost a quarter of Australia's electricity comes from renewable sources by 2020
- b. The NRHSN supports the Carbon Neutral Program to support businesses in going carbon neutral.

The NRHSN calls for:

- c. the government to support programs that will decrease emissions per capita by half in Australia by 2030.
- d. the government, health services and universities to invest in renewable energy, energy efficiency and low emissions technologies.

Support Local Initiatives and Reduce Waste

- a. The NRHSN encourages students, associates and Rural Health Clubs to support local businesses where possible.
- b. Rural Health Clubs should evaluate or cease the use of high waste merchandise to avoid unnecessary waste and devise the use of environmental/carbon neutral merchandise/promotion options.
- c. Rural Health Clubs should promote to their universities to also implement purchasing from local businesses and cease the purchasing of high waste merchandise in favour of no merchandise or environmental/carbon neutral options.

References

1. Crimmins, A., J. Balbus, J.L. Gamble, C.B. Beard, J.E. Bell, D. Dodgen et al. The Impacts of Climate Change on Human Health in the United States: A Scientific Assessment. Washington, DC: U.S. Global Change Research Program; 2016.
2. Altizer S, Ostfeld RS, Johnson PTJ, Kutz S, Harvell CD. Climate change and infectious diseases: from evidence to a predictive framework. *Science*. 2013 Aug 2;341(6145):514–9.
3. Wu X, Lu Y, Zhou S, Chen L, Xu B. Impact of climate change on human infectious diseases: Empirical evidence and human adaptation. *Environ Int*. 2016 Jan;86:14–23.
4. Naish S, Hu W, Nicholls N, Mackenzie JS, McMichael AJ, Dale P, et al. Weather Variability, Tides, and Barmah Forest Virus Disease in the Gladstone Region, Australia. *Environmental Health Perspectives*. 2006;114(5):678–83.
5. Naish S, Hu W, Nicholls N, Mackenzie JS, Dale P, McMichael AJ, et al. Socio-environmental predictors of Barmah forest virus transmission in coastal areas, Queensland, Australia. *Trop Med Int Health*. 2009 Feb;14(2):247–56..
6. Cheng AC, Jacups SP, Gal D, Mayo M, Currie BJ. Extreme weather events and environmental contamination are associated with case-clusters of melioidosis in the Northern Territory of Australia. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2006 Apr;35(2):323–9.
7. Mills JN, Gage KL, Khan AS. Potential influence of climate change on vector-borne and zoonotic diseases: a review and proposed research plan. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2010 Nov;118(11):1507–14.
8. Semenza JC, Menne B. Climate change and infectious diseases in Europe. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2009 Jun;9(6):365–75.
9. 15. Hunter PR. Climate change and waterborne and vector-borne disease. *J Appl Microbiol*. 2003;94 Suppl:37S–46S.
10. Semenza JC, Nichols G. Cryptosporidiosis surveillance and water-borne outbreaks in Europe. *Euro Surveill*. 2007 May 1;12(5):E13-14.
11. CSIRO and BoM (2016) State of the Climate 2016. CSIRO and Bureau of Meteorology, Melbourne, 22 pp.

12. Williams S, Nitschke M, Sullivan T, Tucker GR, Weinstein P, Pisaniello DL, et al. Heat and health in Adelaide, South Australia: Assessment of heat thresholds and temperature relationships. *Science of The Total Environment*. 2012 Jan 1;414:126–33.
13. Hondula DM, Barnett AG. Heat-related morbidity in Brisbane, Australia: spatial variation and area-level predictors. *Environ Health Perspect*. 2014 Aug;122(8):831–6.
14. State Government of Victoria. January 2009 heatwave in Victoria: An assessment of health impacts. Melbourne, Victoria: Department of Health and Human Services; 2009.
15. of Health and Human Services Victoria, Melbourne. Climate and Health Alliance. *Framework for a National Strategy on Climate, Health and Well-being for Australia*. Clifton Hill, Australia: Climate and Health Alliance; 2017.
16. Spickett JT, Brown HL, Rumchev K. Climate change and air quality: the potential impact on health. *Asia Pac J Public Health*. 2011 Mar;23(2 Suppl):37S–45.
17. Beggs PJ. Impacts of climate change on aeroallergens: past and future. *Clin Exp Allergy*. 2004 Oct;34(10):1507–13.
18. Burt E, Orris P, Buchanan S. Scientific Evidence of Health Effects from Coal Use in Energy Generation. Chicago, USA: The University of Illinois at Chicago School of Public Health; 2013. Available at: http://usclimateandhealthalliance.org/post_resource/scientific-evidence-of-health-effects-from-coal-use-in-energy-generation/
19. Biegler, T. The Hidden Costs of Electricity: Externalities of Power Generation in Australia. Parkville, Victoria: ATSE; 2009 Mar.
20. D'Amato G, Holgate ST, Pawankar R, Ledford DK, Cecchi L, Al-Ahmad M, et al. Meteorological conditions, climate change, new emerging factors, and asthma and related allergic disorders. A statement of the World Allergy Organization. *World Allergy Organ J*. 2015;8(1):25.
21. State of Victoria. The November 2016 Victorian epidemic thunderstorm asthma event: an assessment of the health impacts: The Chief Health Officer's Report, 27 April 2017. Melbourne, Victoria: Department of Health and Human Services; 2017.

22. AIHW. Australian Burden of Disease Study: impact and causes of illness and death in Australia 2011. Australian Burden of Disease Study series no. 3. Cat. no. BOD 4. Canberra: AIHW; 2016.
23. Berry HL, Bowen K, Kjellstrom T. Climate change and mental health: a causal pathways framework. *Int J Public Health*. 2010 Apr;55(2):123–32.
24. Bourque F, Willox AC. Climate change: the next challenge for public mental health? *Int Rev Psychiatry*. 2014 Aug;26(4):415–22.
25. Boxall A, Hardy A, Beulke S, Boucard T, Burgin L, Falloon P, et al. Impacts of climate change on indirect human exposure to pathogens and chemicals from agriculture. *Cien Saude Colet*. 2010 May;15(3):743–56.
26. Strawn LK, Fortes ED, Bihn EA, Nightingale KK, Gröhn YT, Worobo RW, et al. Landscape and meteorological factors affecting prevalence of three foodborne pathogens in fruit and vegetable farms. *Appl Environ Microbiol*. 2013 Jan;79(2):588–600.
27. Foulds SA, Brewer PA, Macklin MG, Haresign W, Betson RE, Rassner SME. Flood-related contamination in catchments affected by historical metal mining: an unexpected and emerging hazard of climate change. *Sci Total Environ*. 2014 Apr 1;476–477:165–80.
28. Umlauf G, Bidoglio G, Christoph EH, Kampheus J, Krüger F, Landmann D, et al. The Situation of PCDD/Fs and Dioxin-like PCBs after the Flooding of River Elbe and Mulde in 2002. *Acta hydrochim hydrobiol*. 2005 Dec 1;33(5):543–54.
29. Rotkin-Ellman M, Solomon G, Gonzales CR, Agwaramgbo L, Mielke HW. Arsenic contamination in New Orleans soil: temporal changes associated with flooding. *Environ Res*. 2010 Jan;110(1):19–25.
30. Carrie J, Wang F, Sanei H, Macdonald RW, Outridge PM, Stern GA. Increasing contaminant burdens in an arctic fish, Burbot (*Lota lota*), in a warming climate. *Environ Sci Technol*. 2010 Jan 1;44(1):316–22.
31. Pack EC, Lee SH, Kim CH, Lim CH, Sung DG, Kim MH, et al. Effects of environmental temperature change on mercury absorption in aquatic organisms with respect to climate warming. *J Toxicol Environ Health Part A*. 2014;77(22–24):1477–90.

32. Zavala JA, Casteel CL, Delucia EH, Berenbaum MR. Anthropogenic increase in carbon dioxide compromises plant defense against invasive insects. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2008 Apr 1;105(13):5129–33.
33. Chen C-C, McCarl BA. An Investigation of the Relationship between Pesticide Usage and Climate Change. *Climatic Change*. 2001 Sep 1;50(4):475–87.
34. Ziska LH. Increasing minimum daily temperatures are associated with enhanced pesticide use in cultivated soybean along a latitudinal gradient in the mid-western United States. *PLoS ONE*. 2014;9(2):e98516.
35. Taub DR, Miller B, Allen H. Effects of elevated CO₂ on the protein concentration of food crops: a meta-analysis. *Global Change Biology*. 2008 Mar 1;14(3):565–75.
36. Myers SS, Zanobetti A, Kloog I, Huybers P, Leakey ADB, Bloom AJ, et al. Increasing CO₂ threatens human nutrition. *Nature*. 2014 Jun 5;510(7503):139–42.
37. Loladze I. Hidden shift of the ionome of plants exposed to elevated CO₂ depletes minerals at the base of human nutrition. *Elife*. 2014 May 7;3:e02245.
38. Miraglia M, Marvin HJP, Kleter GA, Battilani P, Brera C, Coni E, et al. Climate change and food safety: An emerging issue with special focus on Europe. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*. 2009 May 1;47(5):1009–21.
39. Haile M. Weather patterns, food security and humanitarian response in sub-Saharan Africa. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond, B, Biol Sci*. 2005 Nov 29;360(1463):2169–82.
40. T. Stocker, D. Qin, G.K. Plattner, et al. (Eds.), *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK and New York, NY; 2013.
41. Jones J. Mother nature's disasters and their health effects: a literature review. *Nurs Forum*. 2006 Jun;41(2):78–87.
42. Bethel JW, Foreman AN, Burke SC. Disaster preparedness among medically vulnerable populations. *Am J Prev Med*. 2011 Feb;40(2):139–43.

43. Australian National University. Implications of climate change for Australia's world heritage properties: a preliminary assessment [Internet]. Canberra, A.C.T. : Dept of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts; 2009 Sep [cited 2017 Jul 21]. Available from: <http://trove.nla.gov.au/version/47711035>
44. Bi P, Parton KA. Effect of climate change on Australian rural and remote regions: What do we know and what do we need to know? *Aust J Rural Health*. 2008;16(1):2-4. doi:10.1111/j.1440-1584.2007.00945.x.
45. Mann ME, Rahmstorf S, Kornhuber K, Steinman BA, Miller SK, Coumou D. Influence of Anthropogenic Climate Change on Planetary Wave Resonance and Extreme Weather Events. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7(January):45242. doi:10.1038/srep45242.
46. Fischer EM, Knutti R. Anthropogenic contribution to global occurrence of heavy-precipitation and high-temperature extremes. *Nat Clim Chang*. 2015;5(6):560-564. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nclimate2617>.
47. Hughes L, Rickards L, Steffen W, Stock P, Rice M. *ON THE FRONTLINE: CLIMATE CHANGE & RURAL COMMUNITIES*; 2016.
48. Doggett S. Population health aspects of mosquito-borne disease in New South Wales. *N S W Public Health Bull*. 2004;15(11-12):193-199.
49. Finlay SE, Moffat A, Gazzard R, Baker D, Murray V. Health Impacts of Wildfires. *PLoS Curr*. 2012;4:e4f959951cce2c. doi:10.1371/4f959951cce2c.
50. Dean JG, Stain HJ. Mental health impact for adolescents living with prolonged drought. *Aust J Rural Health*. 2010;18(1):32-37. doi:10.1111/j.1440-1584.2009.01107.x.
51. Berry HL, Hogan A, Owen J, Rickwood D, Fragar L. Climate Change and Farmers' Mental Health: Risks and Responses. *Asia-Pacific J Public Heal*. 2011;23(2 Suppl):119S-132S. doi:10.1177/1010539510392556.
52. Sartore GM, Kelly B, Stain H, Albrecht G, Higginbotham N. Control, uncertainty, and expectations for the future: a qualitative study of the impact of drought on a rural Australian community. *Rural Remote Health*. 2008;8(3):950. doi:10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004.

53. Kolves K. Suicide in rural & remote areas of

Australia. In Mt Gravatt, Qld: Australian Institute for Suicide Research and Prevention; 2012. p. 97.

[54.](#) Caldwell TM, Jorm AF, Dear KBG. Suicide and mental health in rural, remote and metropolitan areas in Australia. *Med J Aust.* 2004;181(7 SUPPL.):10-14.

[55.](#) Ford, J. (2012). Indigenous Health and Climate Change. *American Journal Of Public Health*, 102(7), 1260-1266.

[56.](#) Jorm, A., Bouchier, S., Cvetkovski, S., & Stewart, G. (2012). Mental health of Indigenous Australians: a review of findings from community surveys. *The Medical Journal Of Australia*, 196(2), 118-121.

[57.](#) Campbell D, Stafford Smith M, Davies J, Kuipers P, Wakeman J, McGregor M. (2008). Responding to health impacts of climate change in the Australian Desert. *Rural Remote Health* 2008, 8:1008–1016.

[58.](#) Green, D., & Minchin, L. (2014). Living on Climate-Changed Country: Indigenous Health, Well-Being and Climate Change in Remote Australian Communities. *Ecohealth*, 11(2), 263-272.

[59.](#) Bowles, D. (2015). Climate Change and Health Adaptation: Consequences for Indigenous Physical and Mental Health. *Annals Of Global Health*, 81(3), 427-431