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5 **Title**

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7 Assessment of climate-sensitive infectious diseases in the Federated States of

8 Micronesia

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31 **Abstract**

32

33 **Background:** The health impacts of climate change are an issue of growing concern
34 in the Pacific region. Prior to 2010, no formal, structured, evidence-based approach
35 had been used to identify the most significant health risks posed by climate change in
36 Pacific island countries. During 2010 and 2011, the World Health Organization
37 supported the Federated States of Micronesia (FSM) in performing a climate change
38 and health vulnerability and adaptation assessment. This paper summarizes the
39 priority climate-sensitive health risks in FSM, with a focus on diarrhoeal disease, its
40 link with climatic variables and the implications of climate change.

41

42 **Methods:** The vulnerability and adaptation assessment process included a review of
43 the literature, extensive stakeholder consultations, ranking of climate-sensitive health
44 risks, and analysis of the available long-term data on climate and climate-sensitive
45 infectious diseases in FSM, which involved examination of health information data
46 from the four state hospitals in FSM between 2000 and 2010; along with each state's
47 rainfall, temperature and El Niño-Southern Oscillation data. Generalized linear
48 Poisson regression models were used to demonstrate associations between monthly
49 climate variables and cases of climate-sensitive diseases at differing temporal lags.

50

51 **Results:** Infectious diseases were among the highest priority climate-sensitive health
52 risks identified in FSM, particularly diarrheal diseases, vector-borne diseases and
53 leptospirosis. Correlation with climate data demonstrated significant associations
54 between monthly maximum temperature and monthly outpatient cases of diarrheal
55 disease in Pohnpei and Kosrae at a lag of one month and 0 to 3 months, respectively;

56 no such associations were observed in Chuuk or Yap. Significant correlations
57 between disease incidence and El Niño-Southern Oscillation cycles were
58 demonstrated in Kosrae state.

59

60 **Conclusions:** Analysis of the available data demonstrated some significant
61 associations between climate variables and climate-sensitive infectious diseases.
62 This information should prove useful in implementing health system and community
63 adaptation strategies to avoid the most serious impacts of climate change on health in
64 FSM.

65

66

67 **Keywords:** infectious diseases, climate, Federated States of Micronesia

68

69 **Introduction**

70

71 Pacific island countries (PICs) are among the most vulnerable in the world to the
72 effects of climate change, including the likely detrimental impacts on human health [1,
73 2]. These impacts are significant, measurable and far-reaching: it is estimated that
74 over the last decade, between 100 000 and 200 000 deaths annually worldwide were
75 attributable to the effects of climate change [3]. In the Pacific region, growing
76 concern about climate change and health led to the World Health Organization
77 (WHO) formulating a Regional Framework for Action to Protect Human Health from
78 Effects of Climate Change in the Asia-Pacific Region in 2008 [4] and prompted the
79 Pacific island Health Ministers to prioritize action on climate change and health at
80 their biennial meeting in 2009 [5]. These regional mandates provided the impetus for
81 an ambitious program of work, led by the WHO South Pacific office, with support
82 from the WHO Western Pacific Regional Office and funding from the governments of
83 the Republic of Korea and Japan, to assess the vulnerabilities of PICs to the impacts
84 of climate change on health and plan appropriate adaptation strategies to minimize
85 these risks.

86

87 The Federated States of Micronesia (FSM) was one of eleven countries involved in
88 this WHO-supported climate change and health project in the Pacific. FSM is a small
89 island developing state in the northern Pacific, comprised of four states – Yap, Chuuk,
90 Pohnpei and Kosrae (see Map 1).

91

92 A summary of key population and health indicators for FSM is provided below in
93 Table 1.

94
95

Table 1. Key population and health indicators for FSM

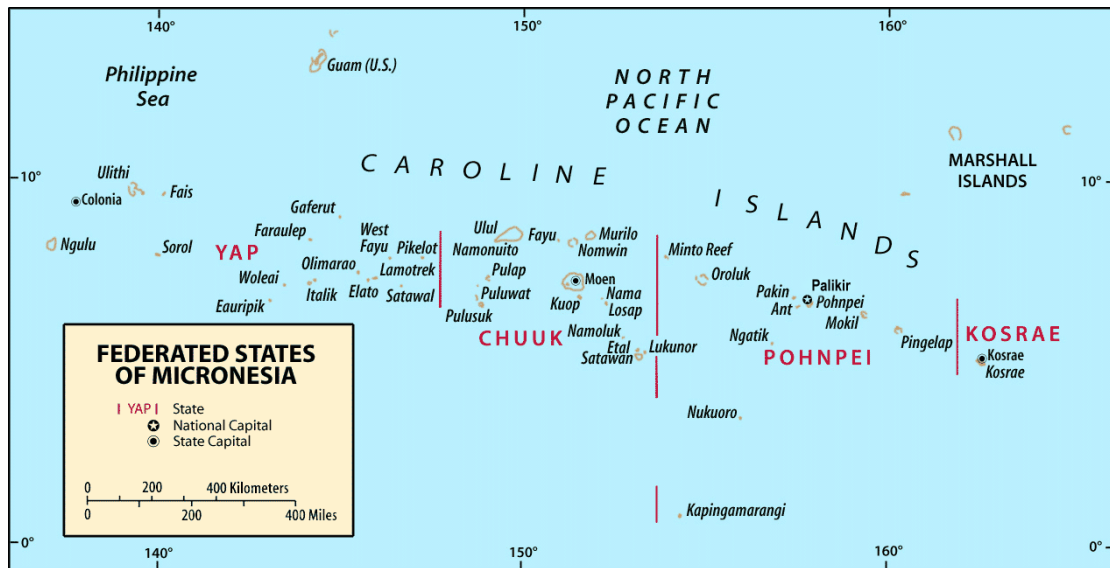
Indicator	Total
Land area ^a (square kilometres)	704.6 - Chuuk: 127 - Kosrae: 110 - Pohnpei: 345 - Yap: 118
Population – total and distribution ^b	102 624 - Chuuk: 49% - Kosrae: 8% - Pohnpei: 32% - Yap: 11%
Key health indicators ^b - life expectancy (at birth) - infant mortality rate - under 5 mortality rate	69 13.5/1000 live births 39/1000 live births
Leading causes of morbidity (inpatient) ^b	Hypertension Diarrhea/gastroenteritis Diabetes mellitus Skin disorders Urinary tract infection
Leading causes of mortality ^b	Myocardial infarction Diabetes mellitus Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease Cerebrovascular accident
Top three communicable disease categories (burden of disease, by incidence) ^b	Acute upper respiratory infections Influenza-like illness Diarrhea/gastroenteritis
Top three non-communicable diseases (burden of disease, by prevalence) ^b	Hypertension Diabetes mellitus Cardiovascular disease

Sources:

a) FSM Government website (<http://www.fsmgov.org/info/geog.html>)

b) WHO Country Health Information Profile for FSM (2011) (http://www.wpro.who.int/countries/fsm/17MICtab2011_finaldraft.pdf?ua=1)

96
97
98



99

100 **Map 1. Federated States of Micronesia (source: <http://www.fsmgov.org/info/maplg.gif>)**

101

102 The key climate change phenomena expected to occur in FSM include [6]:
 103 accelerating sea-level rise and ocean acidification; increasing air and sea-surface
 104 temperatures; more very hot days; altered rainfall patterns (with more extreme rainfall
 105 events and decreased drought frequency); and possibly more severe typhoons.

106

107 In FSM, prior to the commencement of the WHO project, climate change and health
 108 considerations had been included in several key high-level national policy
 109 frameworks, including the Nationwide Climate Change Policy (2009), the Second
 110 National Communication to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate
 111 Change (UNFCCC), and the National Strategic Development Plan for 2003-2023.

112 This previous work noted that climate variability and change, including sea-level rise,
 113 are important determinants of health and are of growing concern in FSM (as is the
 114 case in all Pacific Island countries), with the impacts expected to be mostly adverse.

115 However, these preceding efforts towards health vulnerability assessments lacked
 116 formal health sector and expert technical input.

117

118 Thus, the purpose of this project was to assess more formally the key climate-
119 sensitive health risks for FSM, based on a review of the relevant literature, in-country
120 consultations and analysis of available climate and health data, and to provide an
121 evidence-based framework for climate change and health adaptation, as the health
122 sector's contribution towards national adaptation planning (or HNAP).

123

124 This paper summarizes the methodology and results of this climate change and health
125 vulnerability assessment for FSM, with a focus on climate-sensitive infectious
126 diseases, which were ranked as the highest priority climate-sensitive health risks in
127 FSM as a result of this assessment process. The paper also provides an insight into
128 the scientific basis for implementation of adaptation strategies to reduce or avoid the
129 most serious impacts of climate change on the burden of these diseases in FSM.

130

131

132

133 **Methods**

134

135 The process for assessing FSM’s vulnerabilities and planning adaptation strategies
136 related to the health impacts of climate change broadly followed the guidelines set out
137 by WHO and others [7–11]. These steps are summarized in Box 1.

138 **Box 1. Steps in assessing vulnerability and adaptation (Source: Kovats *et al.*, 2003 [11]).**

139

1. Determine the scope of the assessment
2. Describe the current distribution and burden of climate-sensitive diseases
3. Identify and describe current strategies, policies and measures that reduce the burden of climate-sensitive diseases
4. Review the health implications of the potential impact of climate variability and change on other sectors
5. Estimate the future potential health impact using scenarios of future climate change, population growth and other factors and describe the uncertainty
6. Synthesise the results and draft a scientific assessment report
7. Identify additional adaptation policies and measures to reduce potential negative health effects, including procedures for evaluation after implementation

140

141 In FSM, this process incorporated both qualitative and quantitative elements. These
142 included stakeholder consultations, community surveys, expert consensus and
143 analysis of the available climate and health data to describe, in some detail, the
144 relationships between climate variables and climate-sensitive diseases in each country.

145

146 The climate change and health vulnerability and adaptation assessment process in
147 FSM commenced in 2010, with a project - led by the Department of Health and Social
148 Affairs and supported by WHO - aimed at improving the understanding of the

149 relationship between climate and disease in the four States of FSM and compiling a
150 National Climate Change and Health Action Plan (NCCHAP). This project involved
151 a WHO team assisting the Department of Health and Social Affairs over three distinct
152 phases of work between 2010 and 2011, with the participation of multiple in-country
153 partners including, *inter alia*, the Office for Environment and Emergency
154 Management (OEEM), the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and the Weather
155 Service Office (WSO).

156

157 The first phase of the project was a regional plenary meeting, conducted in Pohnpei in
158 early 2010, which included representatives from the neighbouring countries of Palau
159 and Republic of the Marshall Islands, who were similarly conducting WHO-supported
160 national vulnerability and adaptation assessment projects.

161

162 In the first and second phases of the project, review of health sector reports and data,
163 combined with extensive consultation with stakeholders in FSM and the guidance of
164 the WHO team of experts, revealed a list of priority climate-sensitive health risks of
165 concern in the country. These climate-sensitive health risks were then ranked
166 according to a “likelihood versus impact” matrix, which has proved useful in
167 environmental health impact assessments elsewhere, including in the context of
168 climate change and health [12, 13] – see Table 2 below.

169

170

171

172

173 **Table 2. Matrix used to assess climate-sensitive health risks in FSM, in terms of**
 174 **their likelihood and impact**

Likelihood	Impact (Considering consequence and coping capacity)				
	Insignificant	Minor	Moderate	Major	Catastrophic
Almost Certain	Medium	Medium	High	Extreme	Extreme
Likely	Low	Medium	High	High	Extreme
Possible	Low	Medium	Medium	High	High
Unlikely	Low	Low	Medium	Medium	Medium
Rare	Low	Low	Low	Low	Medium

175

176

177 The actors involved in the participatory action process of consensus-building

178 regarding the priority climate-sensitive health risks in FSM are listed in Table 3.

179

180

181

182 **Table 3. Actors involved in participatory decision-making process in FSM**

Actors	FSM
Coordination	Office for the Environment and Emergency Management Department of Health and Social Affairs WHO
Participation	Environmental Protection Agency Weather Service Office Department of Resources and Development Department of Agriculture State health and environment services Island Food Community*

183 *Non-governmental organization (NGO)

184

185

186 The process of prioritization of climate-sensitive health risks of concern in FSM

187 placed an emphasis on infectious diseases, which were thus the focus of the

188 quantitative analysis that followed.

189

190 The climate-sensitive disease data from the four State hospital records (inpatient and

191 outpatient) between 2003 and 2010 were collected from the Health Information

192 Department. Hospital records include sex, age and diagnosis coded by the

193 International Classification of Diseases, version 10 (ICD-10). These records

194 represent the most complete health datasets available on a routinely collected basis in

195 FSM, apart from a complementary, Pacific-wide syndromic surveillance system

196 (specific to for four categories of communicable disease) overseen by WHO. Thus it

197 is assumed that these represent close to all of the reported cases; the proportion of

198 unreported cases is unknown.

199

200 Weather data were collected from the WSO. The individual patient data were
201 collated into daily all-cause and cause-specific counts and combined with daily
202 weather data, with this study focusing on the aforementioned priority climate-
203 sensitive infectious diseases.

204

205 Time series distribution of monthly average of the daily number of inpatients and
206 outpatients in each state were plotted along with weather data. Monthly averages of
207 daily maximum temperatures were computed; these and total monthly rainfall were
208 used for the subsequent analyses. Time series analysis of the three climate-sensitive
209 infectious diseases deemed to be the highest risk were then performed [dengue fever
210 (ICD-10: A90-A91), diarrheal illness (ICD-10: A00-A09) and leptospirosis (ICD-10:
211 A27)].

212

213 The association with the El Niño-Southern Oscillation (ENSO), a source of inter-
214 annual climate variability, was also examined for each disease category. The strength
215 of the ENSO was measured by sea-surface temperature anomalies in the Niño 3
216 region (NINO3) in the Pacific Ocean, which were derived from NOAA Climate
217 Prediction Center data (<http://www.cpc.ncep.noaa.gov>).

218

219 Generalized linear Poisson regression models allowing for over-dispersion were used
220 to examine the relationship between weather variables (temperature and rainfall) and
221 NINO3 variability and the number of cause-specific patient presentations at different
222 monthly lags (0, 1, 2 and 3 months), with a focus on outpatients. This analytical
223 technique was selected based on historical and scientific precedent for its use in
224 comparable studies [14]. To identify the broad shape of any association, we fitted

225 natural cubic splines (3df) to the weather variables and NINO3. The temperature,
226 rainfall and NINO3 terms were separately incorporated into the model. As there was
227 no clear seasonal trends observed in disease incidence, seasonality was not controlled
228 in the model. Overall association for each disease-weather pattern was tested using
229 Wald test. Any missing data was treated as missing; no interpolation has been
230 conducted to fill the missing values. All statistical analyses were carried out using
231 Stata 10.0 (Stata Corporation, College Station, Texas).

232

233 The results of the vulnerability assessment were then used to compile a hierarchy of
234 adaptation strategies for the health sector, and all of this information was collated into
235 the FSM National Climate Change and Health Action Plan (NCCHAP), which was
236 presented at the inaugural FSM Climate Change and Health Symposium in Pohnpei in
237 December 2011.

238

239 The key findings and recommendations from the FSM NCCHAP and the companion
240 documents for the other ten PICs included in the WHO-led project have subsequently
241 been synthesized into a forthcoming WHO report on climate change and health in the
242 Pacific region, which will be launched in late 2014.

243

244 **Results**

245

246 Review of the relevant data and extensive consultation with stakeholders, primarily
247 from government departments, in FSM between 2010 and 2011, in combination with
248 a review of the literature (the specific methodology and results of which are not
249 shown here) and the expert opinions of the WHO consultant team, yielded the
250 following table of climate-sensitive health vulnerabilities (Table 4), ranked according
251 to their risk (in terms of likelihood versus impact – see Table 2 above).

252

253 **Table 4. List of climate change and health vulnerabilities in FSM**

Climate-sensitive disease	Risk (likelihood versus impact)
Diarrheal diseases (water- and food-borne)	High
Vector-borne diseases (principally arboviruses such as dengue fever)*	High
Zoonoses (primarily leptospirosis)	High
Malnutrition	High
Non-communicable diseases	Medium
Mental health	Medium
Respiratory diseases	Medium
Skin disease	Medium
Poverty and socio-economic disadvantage	Medium
Traumatic injuries and deaths	Low
Ciguatera**	Low

254

255 *Lymphatic filariasis and malaria were also considered under the heading of vector-borne diseases, but
256 were deemed to represent significantly lower risks than arboviruses in the context of climate change in
257 FSM (see below).

258 **Ciguatera is a toxidrome caused by a dinoflagellate organism which bio-accumulates in the marine
259 food chain. Humans typically contract ciguatera through consumption of contaminated reef fish.

260

261 While allowing for the fact that the list in Table 4 is based on a combination of health
262 information review, consultation and expert consensus, this nevertheless indicates that
263 the predominant climate-sensitive health risks of concern in FSM are likely to be
264 infective in nature. The process of quantitative analysis therefore focused on three
265 categories of climate-sensitive infectious diseases: diarrheal illness, vector-borne
266 diseases and leptospirosis. This analysis was attempted despite the paucity of relevant
267 health data, as this was the express mandate of the climate change and health
268 vulnerability assessment project, as well as being the preferred methodological
269 approach of WHO and the project partners in FSM.

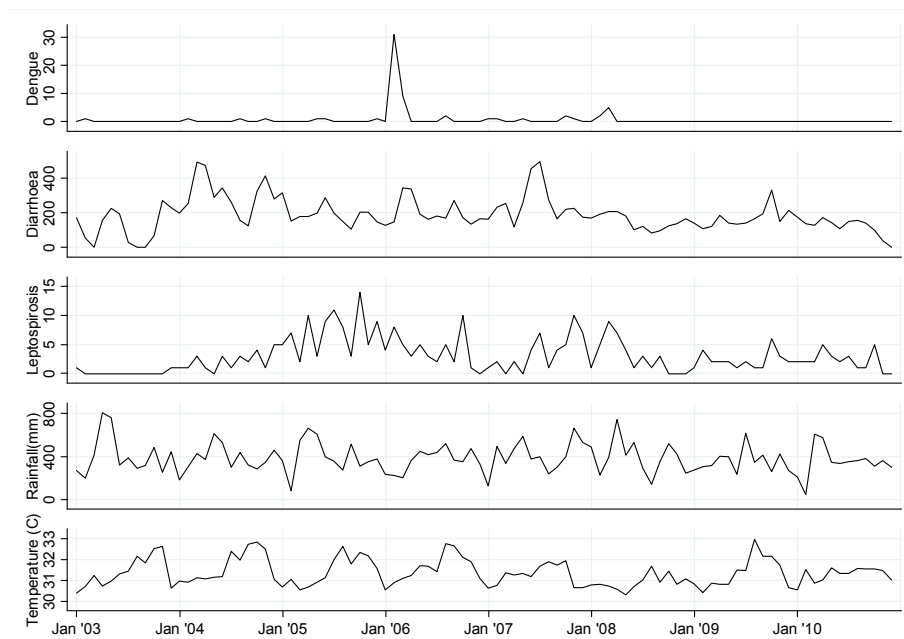
270

271 Time series of monthly average of daily dengue, diarrhea and leptospirosis inpatients
272 showed no obvious trend nor seasonality (the results for Pohnpei state are shown in
273 Figure 1).

274

275

276 **Figure 1. Number of dengue, diarrhea and leptospirosis outpatients per month and**
 277 **weather variables (total rainfall and average temperature) in Pohnpei**
 278



279
 280

281

282 As can be seen from Figure 1, there were substantial gaps in the data for all three
 283 disease categories, as was the case for the other three states. The reasons for this
 284 apparently reflect intermittent lapses in health information capacity within the
 285 Department of Health and Social Affairs in each of the states over this period.

286

287 There were also generally low rates of dengue fever and leptospirosis in all four states,
 288 with less than 0.5 cases occurring on average per day (i.e. approximately <15 cases
 289 per month) in each state. It should be noted that, while diarrheal disease and
 290 leptospirosis are considered endemic in FSM, dengue fever typically occurs in
 291 infrequent but severe epidemics [15, 16]. Given these very small numerators, and the
 292 infeasibility of aggregating all states' cases for correlation with climate variables
 293 given the significantly asynchronous meteorological patterns between states, no

294 further environmental epidemiological analysis of dengue fever and leptospirosis was
295 undertaken in this study.

296

297 One may discern an apparent threshold effect for increased cases of diarrheal illness
298 in Pohnpei at a lag of one month following monthly maximum temperatures of ≥ 32 -
299 33°C (see Figure 2b).

300

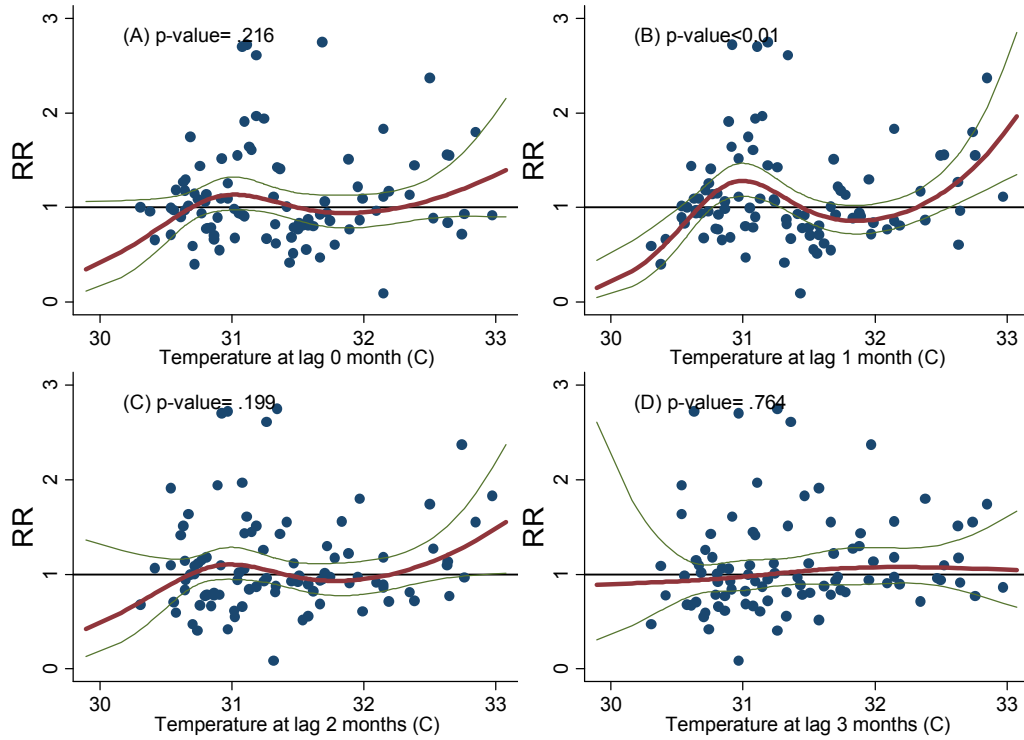
301 The corresponding analysis for Kosrae state showed a similar effect of high
302 temperature ($>32^{\circ}\text{C}$) at lags of 0 and 1 month, although the relationship was weaker
303 than that observed for Pohnpei. In addition, a negative relationship between
304 temperature and diarrhea cases was observed in Kosrae below 31°C – see Figure 3. It
305 is possible that different pathogens contribute to the two curves or slopes of this
306 apparently U-shaped relationship.

307

308 The analysis was repeated for rainfall, but no significant relationship was found in
309 any of the four states (results not shown).

310

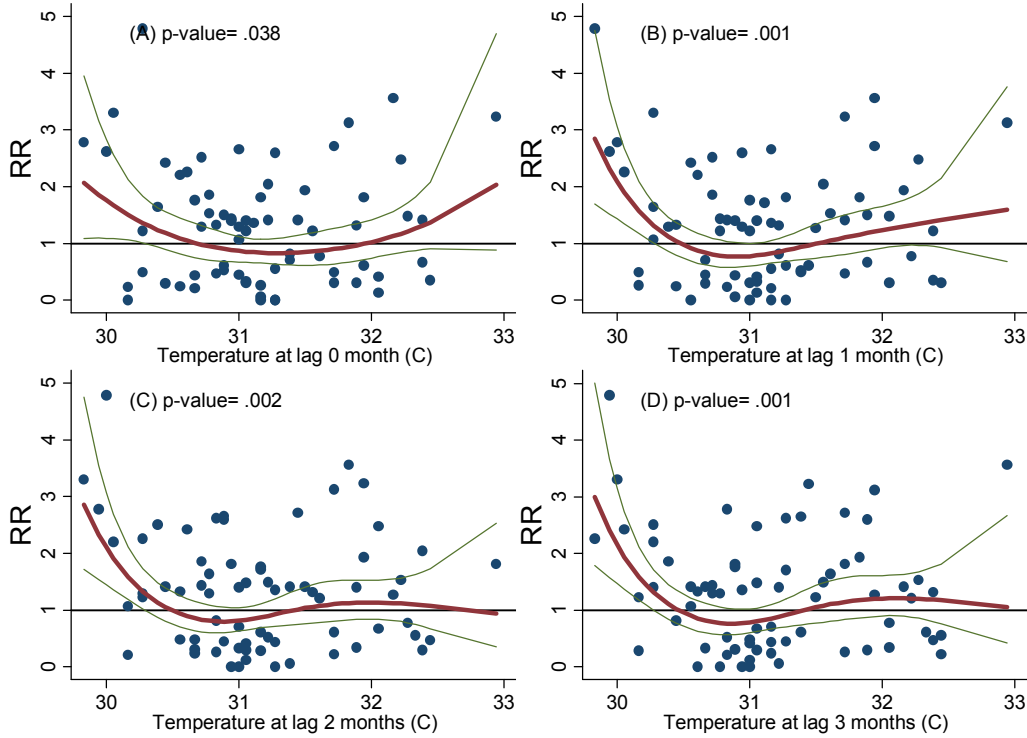
311 **Figure 2. Relationship between relative risk (RR) of diarrhea scaled to the mean**
 312 **monthly number of outpatients in Ponhpei and maximum temperature (shown as a 3 d.f.**
 313 **natural cubic spline) at lags of 0, 1, 2 and 3 months. The center line in each graph shows**
 314 **the estimated spline curve, and the upper and lower lines represent the 95% confidence**
 315 **limits. P-values represent the level of significance of the association between diarrhea**
 316 **and temperature.**



317

318

319 **Figure 3. Relationship between relative risk (RR) of diarrhea scaled to the mean**
320 **monthly number of outpatients in Kosrae and maximum temperature (shown as a 3 d.f.**
321 **natural cubic spline) at lags of 0, 1, 2 and 3 months. The center line in each graph shows**
322 **the estimated spline curve, and the upper and lower lines represent the 95% confidence**
323 **limits. P-values represent the level of significance of the association between diarrhea**
324 **and temperature.**



325

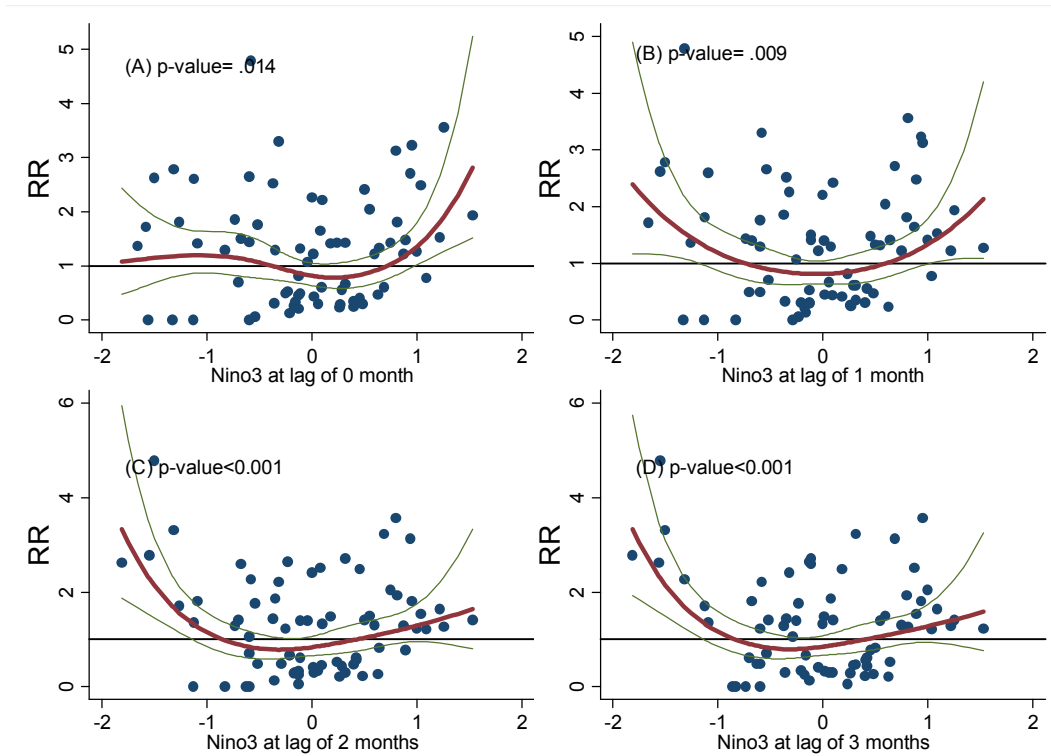
326

327 Diarrheal illness was also correlated with NINO3 at different monthly lags, with an
328 apparently statistically significant, roughly U-shaped relationship demonstrated for
329 Kosrae (Figure 4), but no such statistically significant results found for the other three
330 states.

331

332

333 **Figure 4. Relationship between relative risk (RR) of diarrhea scaled to the mean**
334 **monthly number of outpatients in Kosrae and Nino3 (shown as a 3 d.f. natural cubic**
335 **spline) at lags of 0, 1, 2 and 3 months. The center line in each graph shows the estimated**
336 **spline curve, and the upper and lower lines represent the 95% confidence limits. P-**
337 **values represent the level of significance of the association between diarrhea and Nino3.**
338



339

340

341

342 **Discussion**

343

344 This study found that the principal health risks posed by climate change in FSM
345 include a number of climate-sensitive infectious diseases. Of these, diarrheal disease
346 has been shown to be associated with climatic factors such as temperature and the
347 ENSO index in at least two of the states of FSM.

348

349 The focus of the following discussion is therefore on climate-sensitive infectious
350 diseases, particularly diarrheal disease, given the high level of priority given to these
351 issues in the climate change and health vulnerability assessment for FSM.

352

353 Some important notes on the abovementioned categories of “climate-sensitive health
354 risks” are as follows: with respect to vector-borne diseases, the only long-term data
355 available for analysis was for dengue fever, which has been known to exist in FSM
356 since at least the early 1990s [15], despite the fact that, at least in recent years, FSM
357 has been plagued by other arboviruses, including Zika virus [17] and chikungunya.
358 FSM has also long been considered endemic for lymphatic filariasis, although the
359 burden of this disease is decreasing, as elsewhere in the Pacific, due to mass drug
360 administration and vector control programs [18]. FSM is not currently one of the
361 PICs considered endemic for malaria; while there is the potential for climate change
362 to affect the geographic range of the malaria vector, causing intrusion into non-
363 endemic countries, this is currently considered to be a relatively low risk for FSM.

364

365 Secondly, “diarrheal illness” is a broad category of disease which obviously is not
366 limited to infectious pathogens; nor are the infectious aetiologies limited to those

367 transmitted via food and water (i.e. the modes of transmission considered most likely
368 to be sensitive to environmental perturbations). Nevertheless, given the significant
369 burden of disease due to diarrheal illness in FSM, particularly in children under five
370 [19] and the strong evidence linking diarrheal illness to climatic factors such as
371 temperature, rainfall, ENSO cycles and hydrometeorological disasters in the Pacific
372 region and elsewhere in the world [20–25], it was considered justifiable to aggregate
373 diarrheal illnesses for the purposes of this analysis.

374

375 As a final note, the category of “respiratory disease” was not included in this focused
376 study on climate-sensitive infectious diseases due to the fact that, while it may be
377 assumed that this category includes respiratory infections (both acute in nature, such
378 as influenza and pneumonia, and chronic infections such as tuberculosis), it also
379 includes non-infectious illnesses such as asthma and chronic obstructive airways
380 disease. The latter constitute a significant causes of morbidity and mortality in FSM,
381 particularly in adults [19], and while obstructive airways diseases, including asthma,
382 may certainly be considered sensitive to changes in climate [26–28], as a non-
383 communicable disease (NCD) it has not been included in this infectious disease-
384 focused paper. The same principle applies to skin diseases – it was not deemed
385 feasible or useful to attempt to differentiate infectious and non-infectious skin
386 disorders for the purposes of this paper.

387

388 The outcomes of the climate change and health vulnerability assessment in FSM are
389 broadly consistent with those of other PICs [12, 29, 30], with relatively high priorities
390 given to climate-sensitive infectious diseases, but concern also raised for the prospect
391 of climate change-induced impacts on NCDs, malnutrition, ciguatera, mental health,

392 the health consequences of extreme weather events and disruptions to health and
393 social services.

394

395 A summary of the overall climate change and health vulnerability and adaptation
396 assessment process and key findings for FSM and thirteen other PICs can be found in
397 a forthcoming WHO report entitled “Human Health and Climate Change in Pacific
398 Small Island States”, to be launched in late 2014.

399

400 With respect to climate-sensitive infectious diseases and their relationship with
401 climate in the context of FSM, the paucity of relevant disease data limited the
402 opportunities for the analysis described above to demonstrate statistically significant
403 associations between climate variables and the burden of the pre-eminent diseases of
404 concern in FSM (diarrheal illness, vector-borne diseases and leptospirosis).

405

406 Nevertheless, there is abundant evidence from elsewhere in the region and around the
407 world supporting the “climate-sensitivity” of these diseases and vindicating their
408 inclusion among the highest priority climate-sensitive health risks in FSM, despite the
409 fact that dengue fever and leptospirosis currently represent relatively small burdens of
410 disease in the country at present.

411

412 Vector-borne diseases in general, and dengue fever in particular, have been shown to
413 be exquisitely sensitive to hydrometeorological phenomena, including temperature,
414 rainfall, humidity and ENSO [31–37], including in the Pacific region [38, 39], where
415 recent attention has shifted towards the potential for climate-based early warning
416 systems to minimize the impact of dengue fever epidemics [40].

417

418 In the case of leptospirosis, the links with ecological and meteorological factors are
419 also relatively well-established [41–43], the burden of disease in FSM is becoming
420 more clear [44], and the potential for early warning systems is beginning to be
421 considered in the Pacific.

422

423 There is a similarly strong case to be made for the climate-sensitivity of diarrheal
424 illness, as pointed out above. Although the pathways by which factors such as
425 temperature, rainfall, ENSO and extreme events may affect the multiple pathogens
426 causing infectious diarrhea create a complex aetiological picture [20, 24, 45–49], as
427 can be seen in the results above, a significant association can be observed between
428 climatic factors such as temperature and the incidence of diarrheal disease, at least in
429 Pohnpei and Kosrae states. This is relevant in FSM, and neighbouring Micronesian
430 countries where both food- and water-borne pathogens have been known to cause
431 large outbreaks of diarrheal illness in recent years [50, 51].

432

433 The lack of robust, long-term data on these three categories of climate-sensitive
434 infectious diseases limited the extent to which detailed “exposure-response” models
435 could be constructed for each of the four states. Additionally, the heterogeneity of the
436 climate-disease relationships precluded, at least in part, the potential for aggregation
437 and/or averaging at the national level. Nevertheless, it was still deemed useful to
438 consider, at least in a general, qualitative sense, the current and likely increased future
439 climate change-attributable burden of these climate-sensitive infectious diseases in
440 FSM, with respect to the opportunity for implementation of various adaptation
441 strategies at the local, state and national levels.

442

443 The recommendations for health sector adaptation in relation to these three high-
444 priority climate-sensitive infectious diseases in FSM include:

- 445 • community education and health promotion campaigns (e.g. on preventive
446 behaviours such as protection against mosquito bites or contact with
447 contaminated water and soil, including the risk inherent in cultural practices
448 such as communal consumption of *sakau* [kava]);
- 449 • distribution of household equipment such as mosquito nets, safe water storage
450 containers and water testing and treatment kits;
- 451 • increased recruitment and training of public and environmental health officers
452 in the areas of water and food safety, animal health, vector surveillance and
453 outbreak response;
- 454 • expansion of public and environmental health surveillance and control
455 activities to outer islands (currently neglected due to lack of sufficient
456 resources);
- 457 • policy, legislative and regulatory measures targeting water and food safety,
458 mosquito control (particularly habitat eradication) and improved hygiene and
459 management of domestic livestock (particularly pigs);
- 460 • scale-up of diagnostic capacity, including improved microbiological
461 capabilities, and increased use of rapid test kits for dengue fever and
462 leptospirosis;
- 463 • health professional capacity-building in the fields of diagnosis, management
464 and prevention of these climate-sensitive infectious diseases, as well as in
465 applied environmental epidemiological techniques and the use of
466 environmental health indicators in relation to climate and health [52];

- 467 • increased research on the epidemiology, burden of disease and climate-
468 sensitivity of infectious diseases in FSM and elsewhere in Micronesia and the
469 wider Pacific region; and
- 470 • consideration of the use of climate-based early warning systems for infectious
471 diseases in FSM.

472

473 The latter recommendation regarding climate-based early warning systems (CBEWS)
474 is common in the literature on climate change and health adaptation [53–57]. In FSM,
475 this process is clearly impeded by the abovementioned data and model constraints,
476 however, even with the limited data and models available for infectious diseases in
477 FSM, it may be possible to construct a CBEWS for diarrheal disease based on the
478 analysis and results described in this paper.

479

480 With reference to Figure 4, for example, it can be seen that the relative risk (RR) of
481 diarrheal incidence in Pohnpei appears to increase beyond a temperature threshold of
482 approximately 32.5 degrees Celsius in the previous month. It thus could prove
483 feasible for a collaboration between the WSO and Pohnpei Department of Health
484 Services to establish a mechanism for the issuing of alerts when the average
485 maximum temperature in a given month, or four week sliding window, reaches 32.5
486 degrees, which triggers a “surge” response of public and environmental health
487 interventions targeting, for example, water and food safety and community health
488 promotion. The efficacy of such interventions could then be analyzed
489 epidemiologically, and the exposure-response models updated as the time-series of
490 climate and disease data is extended over time.

491

492 Apropos of the latter recommendation, it should also be pointed out that all of the
493 analysis and models discussed above could and should be updated over time, and the
494 NCCHAP – including the theory and assumptions contained within it – should
495 undergo similar reiterations to incorporate contemporary data and improved
496 knowledge of the associations and implications of climate change and these high-
497 priority climate-sensitive infectious diseases in FSM.

498

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500

501 **Conclusions**

502

503 Infectious diseases were identified as among the highest priority climate-sensitive
504 health risks of concern in FSM as part of the national climate change and health
505 vulnerability assessment and adaptation planning process. Specifically, diarrheal
506 disease, dengue fever (and other vector-borne diseases) and leptospirosis were
507 considered to represent high risks with respect to future climate change-attributable
508 burdens of disease in FSM.

509

510 Analysis of the available data on historical climate and cases of infectious diseases
511 was limited, but yielded some potentially useful associations between climate
512 variables and diarrheal disease in particular, which may have application in the
513 context of a climate-based early warning system and the potential for public and
514 environmental health interventions to limit the impact of near-term epidemics.

515

516 Adaptation strategies recommended in the FSM National Climate Change and Health
517 Action Plan similarly prioritize climate-sensitive infectious diseases; successful
518 implementation of any number of these measures may reduce or avoid the most
519 severe detrimental effects of climate change on these and other infectious diseases on
520 the health of communities in FSM and the wider Micronesia and Pacific regions.

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527

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531

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533

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