



**AIMS** | African Institute for  
Mathematical Sciences  
RWANDA

Funded by Wellcome

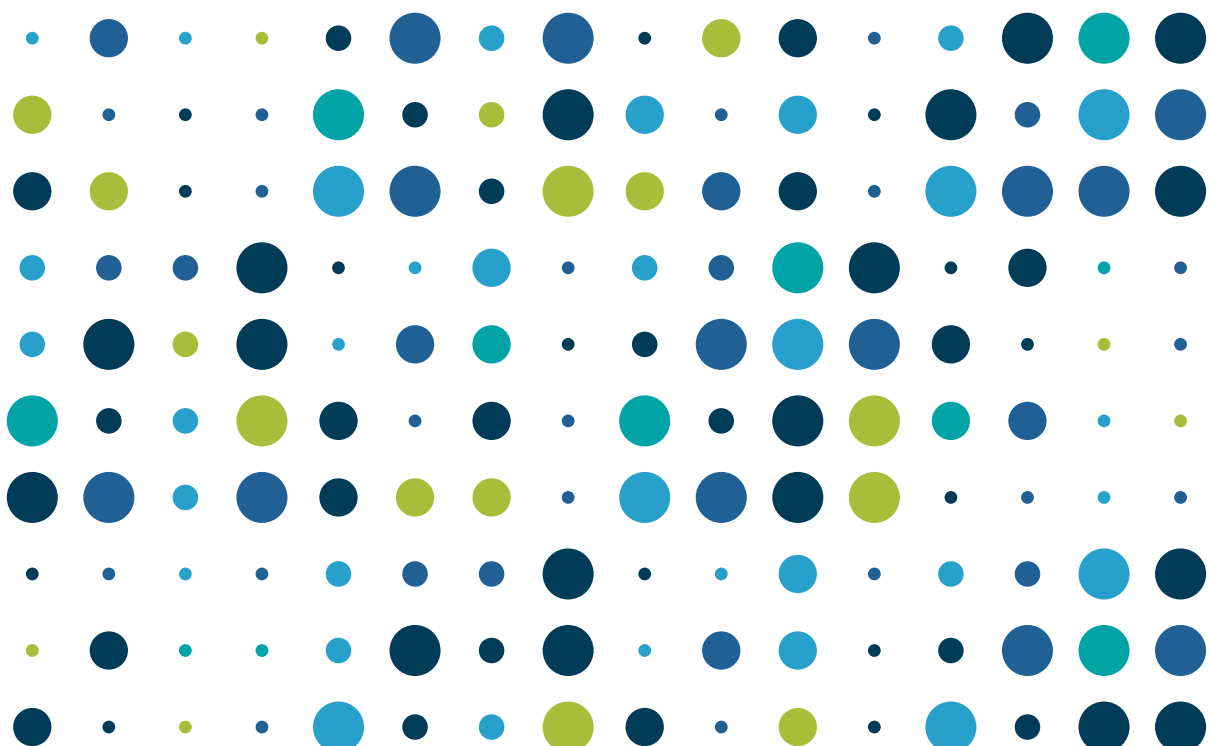
# Standards for Official statistics on Climate-Health interactions

## Malnutrition (stunting): introduction

Alpha Phase document

Publication date: 12 November 2024

We welcome users' views and expertise on the alpha version of the statistical framework to further develop our work. Please email us at [climate.health@ons.gov.uk](mailto:climate.health@ons.gov.uk).



# Contents

- Introduction to the SOSCHI project..... 2**
- Document information ..... 3**
- Abbreviations ..... 4**
- 1. Acknowledgments ..... 5**
- 2. Malnutrition and climate change ..... 5**
  - 2.1 Introduction ..... 5
  - 2.2 Definition and Scope..... 6
  - 2.3 Impact pathway..... 8
- 3. Health impacts..... 9**
- 4. Framework indicators..... 10**
  - 4.1 Headline outcome indicators ..... 10
  - 4.2 Supplementary outcome indicators..... 11
  - 4.3 Other relevant measures ..... 12
- 5. Proposed beta phase developments ..... 12**
- 6. Further reading..... 12**
- 7. References ..... 13**

## Introduction to the SOSCHI project

The impacts on health of rising temperatures, wildfires, extreme weather events and other direct and indirect effects of climate change are a major global concern. The most significant hazards and their impacts differ between countries and regions, as do the possibilities and priorities for climate change adaptation. National and local governments and other stakeholders need to have regular, reliable and comparable data to monitor climate impacts and inform adaptation strategies, based on a transparent and globally generalisable statistical framework. The SOSCHI project, led by the UK Office for National Statistics and funded by Wellcome, is developing a framework of indicators based on state-of-the-art statistical methods to measure climate-related health risks. To support global reporting and monitoring, we are also developing a knowledge-sharing platform, open-source tools, and R code. Our findings will also help highlight data gaps and help set the agenda for future improvement of data sources and methods.

### Project partners

African Institute for Mathematical Sciences, Kigali, Rwanda

Cochrane Planetary Health Thematic Group, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada

Office for National Statistics, Newport, United Kingdom

Regional Institute for Population Studies, University of Ghana, Accra, Ghana

UK Health Security Agency, London, United Kingdom

United Nations Global Platform, New York, United States of America

**The project is supported by Wellcome grant no. 224682/Z/21/Z**

## Document information

<b>Document title</b>	Standards for Official Statistics on Climate-Health Interactions (SOSCHI): Malnutrition (stunting): introduction
<b>Document location</b>	Zenodo: <a href="https://zenodo.org/communities/soschi">https://zenodo.org/communities/soschi</a>
<b>Date and version</b>	12 November 2024 - published version 1.0
<b>Authors</b>	Aaron Kobina Christian <sup>1</sup> , Desmond Klu <sup>2</sup> , Eric Afful-Dadzie <sup>1</sup> , Benjamin DK Dovie <sup>1</sup>  <sup>1</sup> Regional Institute for Population Studies, University of Ghana, Legon (RIPS-UG), <sup>2</sup> Centre for Malaria Research, University of Health and Allied Sciences, Ghana
<b>DOI</b>	10.5281/zenodo.14051846
<b>Preferred citation</b>	Christian AK, Klu D, Afful-Dadzie E, Dovie BD. Standards for Official Statistics on Climate-Health Interactions (SOSCHI): Malnutrition (stunting): introduction. Zenodo; 2024. doi: 10.5281/zenodo.14051846.
<b>Related topic documents</b>	Methods: in progress Metadata: in progress
<b>Contact</b>	Climate and Health Team, Health and International Division, Office for National Statistics, Newport NP10 8XG, United Kingdom <a href="mailto:Climate.health@ons.gov.uk">Climate.health@ons.gov.uk</a>  RIPS Team, Regional Institute for Population Studies, University of Ghana, Legon <a href="mailto:cchealth@rips-ug.edu.gh">cchealth@rips-ug.edu.gh</a>
<b>Copyright</b>	This is an open access document published under a UK <a href="#">Open Government Licence 3.0</a> which is compatible with the Creative Commons <a href="#">CC-BY-SA 4.0</a> licence. You are free to copy, publish, distribute and adapt the information, provided you acknowledge the source and link to this publication or the ONS <a href="#">SOSCHI project home page</a> .

Statistical data used in the preparation of this document may be confidential under UK or other national laws. Enquiries concerning the availability of data can be made to the project team at [climate.health@ons.gov.uk](mailto:climate.health@ons.gov.uk).

Institutional logos are the property of the relevant institutions.

### Important notes

This document has been published as part of the alpha version of the SOSCHI statistical framework. Therefore, this should be read as a draft document, which does not necessarily represent the final state of the framework. We welcome users' views and expertise to further develop our work.

Please email us at [climate.health@ons.gov.uk](mailto:climate.health@ons.gov.uk)

### Abbreviations

D	DEFRA	Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (UK)
L	LMICs	Low- and Middle-Income Countries
O	ONS	Office for National Statistics (UK)
R	RIPS	Regional Institute for Population Studies, University of Ghana, Legon
U	UK	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
U	UNGP	UNGP UN Global Platform

# 1. Acknowledgments

We would like to express our heartfelt appreciation to the individuals and organizations who supported the team in developing this topic introduction.

We extend our heartfelt gratitude to the members of our Expert Advisory Group, led by Professor Sir Andy Haines from the London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine. Their profound expertise in climate and health has been invaluable in shaping the decisions for this topic and the broader SOSCHI project.

Special thanks to Dr Simon Lloyd (Global Climate and Health Expert) whose expert insight into the topic area has been very helpful. To refine the scope of this topic, we intend to have further engagements with identified experts.

As part of upcoming beta phase developments, we are seeking expert feedback to support the development of this topic. Please contact [climate.health@ons.gov.uk](mailto:climate.health@ons.gov.uk) if you would like to contribute to this work.

## 2. Malnutrition and climate change

### 2.1 Introduction

Malnutrition refers to a condition resulting from an imbalance in dietary intake, where nutrients are either insufficiently consumed or overly consumed, leading to adverse health effects<sup>1</sup>. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), malnutrition consists of three key conditions: (1) undernutrition, which includes wasting, stunting, and underweight; (2) micronutrient-related malnutrition, characterized by either deficiencies or excesses of vital vitamins and minerals; and (3) overweight, obesity, and diet-related noncommunicable diseases<sup>2</sup>. Additionally, prolonged malnourishment, particularly among children can lead to several health and physical consequences, including delayed physical growth and motor development, lower intellectual abilities, increased behavioural issues, poor social skills, and a heightened vulnerability to diseases<sup>3,4</sup>. Additionally, malnutrition is linked to impaired immune systems, reduced adult work performance and productivity over the life course, and an increased chances of giving birth to undernourished babies<sup>5,6</sup>.

The 2024 State of “Food Security and Nutrition in the World” shows that global targets, particularly pertaining to Zero hunger remain very daunting<sup>7</sup>. Over the past three years, there has been no improvement in the global number of undernourished people. Around 20% of the population faces hunger, with approximately one in 11 people globally and one in five in Africa affected. While hunger continues to rise in Africa, it has stabilized in Asia, and progress has been made in Latin America and the Caribbean.

While the report and others identify conflict, climate change, the COVID-19 pandemic, and economic slowdown as major drivers of the current food security and nutrition situation, is it worth mentioning that climate change and its associated variability and extremes exacerbate all the other drivers. Rising temperatures and extreme weather events such as drought and dry spells adversely affect crop productivity and ultimately food and nutrition security<sup>8</sup>. Conversely, other climate sensitive environmental factors such as nature of land area and soil fertility as well as socio-economic conditions, including household poverty increased the risk of food security which increases the likelihood of malnutrition, particularly among vulnerable groups such as women and children under five years.

## 2.2 Definition and Scope

Malnutrition is determined by several anthropometric and biomedical measures. Table1 summarizes the various forms of malnutrition, highlighting their sources, how they are measured, their implications, and their sensitivity to climate change.

- **Wasting (Acute Malnutrition):** This condition is measured by a child's weight-for-height ratio, and it indicates severe, short-term malnutrition. Wasting leads to a higher risk of mortality, infections, and delayed physical development. It is highly sensitive to climate change, as extreme weather events like droughts or floods can lead to sudden food shortages.
- **Stunting (Chronic Malnutrition):** Stunting is assessed by height-for-age and reflects long-term malnutrition. It results in lasting consequences, such as impaired cognitive and physical development and reduced productivity in adulthood. Stunting is also highly sensitive to climate change, particularly through its effects on agriculture and food security over extended periods.
- **Underweight:** Measured by weight-for-age, underweight status can signal both acute and chronic malnutrition. It increases vulnerability to infections, reduces energy, and slows growth in children. Climate change moderately impacts this condition by reducing food availability, which affects body weight, especially in regions heavily reliant on agriculture.
- **Micronutrient Deficiencies:** These deficiencies (e.g., iron, vitamin A) are typically diagnosed through blood tests or clinical signs. They weaken the immune system, impair development, and elevate mortality rates. Climate change has a moderate effect here, as extreme weather can lead to a reduction in the diversity and nutritional value of food, making it harder to meet dietary micronutrient needs.
- **Overweight & Obesity:** These conditions are measured by body mass index (BMI) and indicate overnutrition, leading to a higher risk of non-communicable diseases (NCDs) such as heart disease, diabetes, and stroke. Although less directly influenced by climate change, changing food systems may lead to shifts in diet patterns, exacerbating overweight and obesity in populations.

- Protein-energy Malnutrition: This type of malnutrition results from inadequate intake of calories and protein and is measured through dietary assessments. It leads to muscle wasting, weakness, and increased susceptibility to infections. Climate change poses a high risk, as it can disrupt food supplies, particularly in regions already facing food insecurity, leading to a decline in protein-rich food availability.

**Table 1: Table of Malnutrition, Measurements, Implications, and Sensitivity to Climate Change**

Type of Malnutrition	Measurement	Implication	Sensitive to Climate Change
<b>Undernutrition (e.g., wasting, stunting)</b>	Weight-for-height (wasting), height-for-age (stunting)	Increased mortality, impaired cognitive development, and poor health	Highly sensitive (crop failure, food insecurity)
<b>Micronutrient Deficiencies (e.g., iron, vitamin A)</b>	Blood tests, clinical assessments	Anaemia, blindness, weakened immunity, developmental delays	Highly sensitive (reduced crop diversity, decreased food nutrient content)
<b>Overnutrition (e.g., obesity, overweight)</b>	Body Mass Index (BMI)	Increased risk of non-communicable diseases (diabetes, heart disease)	Moderately sensitive (climate-related shifts in food systems)
<b>Protein-Energy Malnutrition (PEM)</b>	Mid-Upper Arm Circumference (MUAC), Weight-for-Age	Muscle wasting, immune system suppression, high mortality risk	Highly sensitive (impacts on livestock, fisheries, and food production)
<b>Hidden Hunger (Subclinical deficiency)</b>	Dietary surveys, biochemical markers	Long-term health issues (reduced productivity, chronic diseases)	Moderately sensitive (climate impacts on food supply and diversity)



Overall Wasting and stunting are the most sensitive to climate change, primarily because extreme weather events (like droughts and floods) can severely disrupt food production and supply, leading to acute food shortages

In this work we settle on stunting as the indicator of choice based because is it known as the best overall indicator of children's well-being and provides an accurate marker of inequalities in human development<sup>9</sup>. Its effects are often irreversible and unfortunately affecting millions of children (reference). Stunting is currently among the six global nutrition targets for 2025 that the World Health Assembly adopted in 2012 (WHO 2012), and it has been proposed as a leading indicator for the post-2015 development agenda<sup>10</sup>. Increased international attention is the result of greater awareness of the significance of stunting as a major public health problem.

### 2.3 Impact pathway

The conceptual framework (Figure1) illustrates the intricate relationships between climate change childhood nutrition. Variations in precipitation and temperature can influence child undernutrition, specifically stunting through two alternate pathways. Firstly, through agricultural and secondly through the environment.

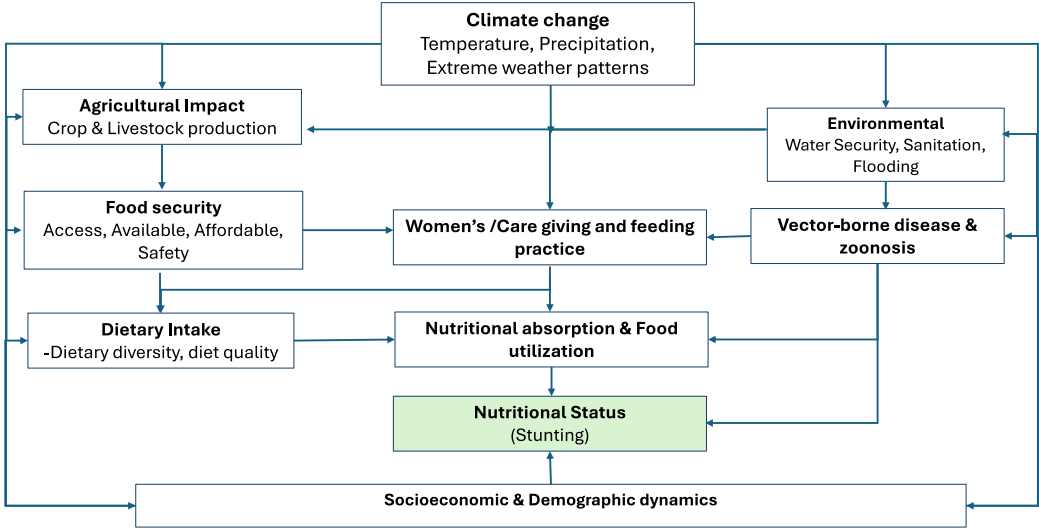


Figure 1: Conceptual Pathways between Climate Variables and Childhood Stunting

**Agriculture:** Both rainfall/precipitation and temperatures directly influence agricultural productivity by affecting crop yields and livestock production, which in turn affects food security <sup>8</sup>.

Agricultural production forms a major pillar for food security, particularly in sub-Saharan African countries where a significant proportion of the population is still reliant on local, small-scale and rain-fed agriculture as the primary source of food and

income<sup>11</sup>. Varied agricultural production can improve food security by improving 1) the availability and accessibility of diverse foods, and 2) increasing household incomes both of which are essential for a well-balanced diet. In other words, as food security diminishes, there is a reduction in dietary diversity and quality, leading to compromised dietary intake<sup>12</sup>. The above could lead to reduced nutrient absorption and food utilization, contributing to deteriorating nutritional status, with stunting being a key outcome.

**Environment:** Climatic factors such as precipitation and temperatures may impact on environmental conditions, leading to compromised water quality and sanitation, which have direct consequences on public health <sup>13</sup>. Rising temperatures and altered precipitation patterns can lead to water scarcity and contamination, compromising sanitation infrastructure. This environment fosters the proliferation of disease vectors like mosquitoes, increasing the incidence of diseases such as malaria and dengue<sup>14,15</sup>. Climate change alters the patterns of vector-borne diseases and zoonotic infections, exacerbating health and nutritional challenges. These health challenges disproportionately affect children, who are more vulnerable to infections and malnutrition. Poor health and frequent illness can hinder a child's ability to absorb nutrients, exacerbating malnutrition and stunting growth<sup>16</sup>.

While the framework recognizes the role of women in caregiving and feeding practices, which are impacted by changes in food security and health conditions, it also acknowledges the significant part sociodemographic and economic factors play in this climate and malnutrition nexus.

Agricultural productivity and environmental factors are all closely linked with various socioeconomic determinants that collectively influence health outcomes such as stunting. Besides food availability, higher agricultural yields and favourable environmental conditions can lead to greater financial stability, thereby improving access to healthcare and nutrition. Conversely, families with lower socioeconomic status may be disproportionately affected by adverse environmental conditions and lower agricultural productivity, exacerbating health disparities<sup>17</sup>.

### 3. Health impacts

The health outcome of interest is childhood stunting. The selection of stunting as the outcome of interest is due to the following 1) Stunting reflects chronic malnutrition and provides insights into the cumulative effects of climate change on food security and living conditions<sup>18</sup>; 2) it has significant implications for cognitive and physical development, affecting educational outcomes and economic productivity <sup>19</sup>; 3) stunting is also particularly sensitive to climate and environmental changes, including food availability and disease prevalence <sup>20</sup>, addressing stunting can have a ripple effect on other health outcomes and finally there is often comprehensive data available of

stunting in most nutrition and health surveys comparable to a nutritional indicator such as anaemia. It is widely agreed that the definition of stunting is reliable and universally applicable as an indicator of human growth. Furthermore, there's consensus on a crucial period—from conception to the first two years of life—where linear growth is highly sensitive to environmental factors like nutrition, infections, and psychosocial care<sup>9</sup>

## 4. Framework indicators

### 4.1 Headline outcome indicators

Main dependent and explanatory/independent variables: Our dependent variable or nutritional outcome of interest is the height-for-age Z-scores (HAZ) of children aged one to five years. HAZ is a standard measure widely utilized to evaluate child stunting and acts as an indicator of chronic malnutrition in children.

The topic focuses on the impact of climate change and variability on nutritional outcomes. Our framework includes the following indicators:

- **C1:** The incidence of stunting attributable to extreme precipitation or rainfall<sup>i</sup>
- **C2:** The incidence of stunting linked to extreme temperature
- **C3:** The incidence of stunting associated with drought

The climatic variables of interest are temperature (mean, minimum and maximum temperatures) and precipitation (precipitation and rainfall).

**Other control variables:** Variables controlled for included both demographic, economic and biological determinants of malnutrition such as child's age and sex, household determinants such as wealth status, household size, and access to improved sanitation and drinking water<sup>21</sup>.

Extant scholarship highlights several factors that contribute to childhood stunting. Boys are generally more prone to stunting than girls, potentially due to biological factors like higher susceptibility to infections and illnesses that can impede growth<sup>22,23</sup>. The child's age is also critical, with the first 1,000 days of life—from conception to age two—being particularly crucial for growth and development<sup>24</sup>; inadequate nutrition during this period can lead to irreversible stunting, and the prevalence of stunting tends to

---

<sup>i</sup> Temporary indicator numbers have been assigned for reference during the development of the SOSCHI framework and will change in the final version.

increase as children age in early childhood. Household size is another influential factor; larger households often face resource constraints, leading to less food and attention per child, which can result in poorer nutritional outcomes<sup>25</sup>. Household wealth plays a significant role as well; children from poorer households are more likely to be stunted due to limited access to nutritious food, healthcare, and sanitation facilities, whereas wealthier households can afford better nutrition and healthcare, reducing the risk of stunting<sup>26,27</sup>. Additionally, poor water, sanitation, and hygiene (WASH) practices are major contributors to stunting, as contaminated water and inadequate sanitation can cause repeated infections and diarrheal diseases, impairing nutrient absorption<sup>28,29</sup>. Improved WASH practices, on the other hand, are associated with lower stunting rates. Finally, a child's dietary intake is crucial in preventing stunting. Diets lacking in essential nutrients, such as proteins, vitamins, and minerals, increase the risk of stunting, while a diverse diet rich in necessary nutrients, including specific food groups like dairy and eggs, significantly reduces this risk. Other child characteristics considered were episodes of diarrhoea and fever within a specified period. Additionally, children's Dietary diversity was evaluated based on the number of food groups a child ate in the past 24 hours<sup>30</sup>.

*Why indicators from the Demographic and Health Survey:* The use of indicators in the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) is crucial for several academic reasons. Indicators provide standardized measures that allow for meaningful comparisons across different populations and time periods, facilitating the identification of trends, disparities, and progress in health and demographic outcomes. They simplify complex data into concise, manageable metrics, making large-scale data collection more accessible for analysis and interpretation. Moreover, indicators are often aligned with global health and development goals, such as the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), making DHS data highly relevant to policymakers. The consistency with international standards ensures that DHS data can be integrated into global datasets, contributing to a broader body of knowledge. Furthermore, indicators serve as common reference points across various disciplines, enhancing the utility of DHS data for multidisciplinary research. Finally, they allow for the assessment of health interventions and programs over time, helping researchers evaluate the effectiveness of policies and identify areas where further efforts are needed.

## **4.2 Supplementary outcome indicators**

Besides stunting being our outcome variable, other nutrition indicators that maybe explored include wasting, and underweight (Table 1).

### **4.3 Other relevant measures**

Other measures which could be considered as part of future analysis within this topic in household food security. From the conceptual framework (figure 1), We see that as climate change alters weather patterns, it may lead to extreme weather events like droughts, floods, and heatwaves, which disrupt agricultural production and food supply chains. This disruption can result in reduced food availability and increased food prices, making it difficult for households to access sufficient and nutritious food. Thus, households may experience food insecurity, which negatively impacts their health due to inadequate nutrition.

This measure is currently not explored given its unavailability in Ghana's Demographic Health Survey (our primary source of data).

## **5. Proposed beta phase developments**

At the beta phase additional work will be done to merge data sources from other sub-Saharan African countries to explore the effect of climatic variables on the outcome of interest (stunting). Methods will be developed using robust statistical techniques including sensitivity analysis to validate the linkages explored.

Other data sources that could provide a country level food security measure will also be explored.

*Expected outcomes at the beta phase:*

- Merge Data Sources: Integrate data from other sub-Saharan African countries to examine the impact of climatic variables on stunting.
- Develop Robust Statistical Techniques: Create and publish advanced statistical methods, including sensitivity analysis, to validate the linkages between climatic variables and stunting.
- Explore Additional Data Sources: Identify and incorporate other data sources that can offer a country-level measure of food security.
- Comparison of proposed indicators to existing frameworks

## **6. Further reading**

- Patz JA, Campbell-Lendrum D, Holloway T, Foley JA. Impact of regional climate change on human health. Vol. 438, Nature. 2005.
- Mekonnen TW, Gerrano AS, Mbuma NW, Labuschagne MT. Breeding of Vegetable Cowpea for Nutrition and Climate Resilience in Sub-Saharan Africa: Progress, Opportunities, and Challenges. Vol. 11, Plants. 2022.

- Sorgho R, Franke J, Simboro S, Phalkey R, Saeurborn R. NUTRItion and CLIMate (NUTRICLIM): Investigating the relationship between climate variables and childhood malnutrition through agriculture, an exploratory study in Burkina Faso. Vol. 37, Public Health Reviews. 2016.
- Dhimal M, Bhandari D, Dhimal ML, Kafle N, Pyakurel P, Mahotra N, et al. Impact of Climate Change on Health and Well-Being of People in Hindu Kush Himalayan Region: A Narrative Review. Vol. 12, Frontiers in Physiology. 2021.
- Lieber M, Chin-hong P, Kelly K, Dandu M, Weiser SD, Lieber M, et al. A systematic review and meta-analysis assessing the impact of droughts , flooding , and climate variability on malnutrition droughts , fl ooding , and climate variability on malnutrition. Glob Public Health. 2020;0(0).
- Chaudhary D, Maharjan K. Climate Change Variability and its Impacts in Nepal. Journey for Sustainable Development and Peace Journal. 2023;1(02).
- Molotoks A, Smith P, Dawson TP. Impacts of land use, population, and climate change on global food security. Food Energy Secur. 2021;10(1).
- Mahapatra B, Walia M, Rao CAR, Raju BMK, Saggurti N. Vulnerability of agriculture to climate change increases the risk of child malnutrition: Evidence from a large-scale observational study in India. PLoS One. 2021;16(6 June).
- Lieber M, Chin-Hong P, Kelly K, Dandu M, Weiser SD. A systematic review and meta-analysis assessing the impact of droughts, flooding, and climate variability on malnutrition. Vol. 17, Global Public Health. 2022.

## 7. References

1. Serón-Arbeloa C, Labarta-Monzón L, Puzo-Foncillas J, Mallor-Bonet T, Lafita-López A, Bueno-Vidales N, et al. Malnutrition Screening and Assessment. Nutrients. 2022;14(12).
2. WHO. WHO - Malnutrition. Www.Who.Int. 2018.
3. Pizzol D, Tudor F, Racalbutto V, Bertoldo A, Veronese N, Smith L. Systematic review and meta-analysis found that malnutrition was associated with poor cognitive development. Vol. 110, Acta Paediatrica, International Journal of Paediatrics. 2021.
4. Hernández Eslava V, Fernand JK, Vollmer TR. Pediatric feeding problems: A field of application in behavior analysis. Revista Mexicana de Trastornos Alimentarios. 2016;7(2).
5. Osei RD, Lambon-Quayefio MP. Effects of Long-Term Malnutrition on Education Outcomes in Ghana: Evidence from a Panel Study. The European Journal of Development Research 2021 34:1 [Internet]. 2021 Jan 12 [cited

- 2024 Sep 3];34(1):1–21. Available from:  
<https://link.springer.com/article/10.1057/s41287-020-00350-4>
6. Nugent R, Levin C, Hale J, Hutchinson B. Economic effects of the double burden of malnutrition. *The Lancet* [Internet]. 2020 Jan 11 [cited 2024 Sep 3];395(10218):156–64. Available from:  
<http://www.thelancet.com/article/S0140673619324730/fulltext>
  7. The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2023. *The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2023*. 2023.
  8. Schmidhuber J, Tubiello FN. Global food security under climate change. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2007 Dec 11;104(50):19703–8.
  9. de Onis M, Branca F. Childhood stunting: A global perspective. Vol. 12, *Maternal and Child Nutrition*. 2016.
  10. World Health Organization. Sixty-fifth World Health Assembly Geneva, 21–26 May 2012. Resolutions and decisions, annexes. World Health Organization. 2012.
  11. Bakhtsiyarava M, Grace K. Agricultural production diversity and child nutrition in Ethiopia. *Food Secur*. 2021;13(6).
  12. Balanyá J, Oller JM, Huey RB, Gilchrist GW, Serra ; 36 L, Lavergne . S, et al. Climate change impacts on global food security. *science.org* T Wheeler, J Von Braun Science, 2013•*science.org* [Internet]. 2006 [cited 2024 Sep 3];313(6145):285–8. Available from:  
<https://www.science.org/doi/abs/10.1126/science.1239402>
  13. Watts N, Adger W, Agnolucci P, Blackstock J, lancet PBT, 2015 undefined. Health and climate change: policy responses to protect public health. *thelancet.com* N Watts, WN Adger, P Agnolucci, J Blackstock, P Byass, W Cai, S Chaytor, T Colbourn The lancet, 2015•*thelancet.com* [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2024 Sep 3]; Available from:  
[https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736\(15\)60854-6/fulltext?referrer=justicewire](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lancet/article/PIIS0140-6736(15)60854-6/fulltext?referrer=justicewire)
  14. Obame-Nkoghe J, Agossou AE, Mboowa G, Kamgang B, Caminade C, Duke DC, et al. Climate-influenced vector-borne diseases in Africa: a call to empower the next generation of African researchers for sustainable solutions. *Infect Dis Poverty*. 2024;13(1).
  15. Mordecai EA. Tackling climate change and deforestation to protect against vector-borne diseases. Vol. 8, *Nature Microbiology*. 2023.

16. Wheeler N, Watts N. Global Climate Change and Human Health : From Science to Practice. *Curr Environ Health Rep.* 2018;2018.
17. Black RE, Victora CG, Walker SP, Bhutta ZA, Christian P, De Onis M, et al. Maternal and child undernutrition and overweight in low-income and middle-income countries. Vol. 382, *The Lancet.* 2013.
18. Lloyd S, Bangalore M, Chalabi Z, ... RKTLP, 2019 undefined. Potential impacts of climate change on child stunting via income and food price in 2030: a global-level model. *thelancet.com* S Lloyd, M Bangalore, Z Chalabi, RS Kovats, S Hallegatte, J Ronberg, H Valin *The Lancet Planetary Health,* 2019 • *thelancet.com* [Internet]. [cited 2024 Sep 3]; Available from: [https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanplh/article/PIIS2542-5196\(19\)30144-5/fulltext](https://www.thelancet.com/journals/lanplh/article/PIIS2542-5196(19)30144-5/fulltext)
19. Perspectives CSEH, 2019 undefined. The future of stunting: potential scenarios under climate change. *ehp.niehs.nih.gov* [Internet]. 2019 Apr 1 [cited 2024 Sep 3];127(4):044002-1-044002–2. Available from: <https://ehp.niehs.nih.gov/doi/full/10.1289/EHP5049>
20. Phalkey RK, Aranda-Jan C, Marx S, Höfle B, Sauerborn R. Systematic review of current efforts to quantify the impacts of climate change on undernutrition. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A.* 2015 Aug 18;112(33):E4522–9.
21. Dangour AD, Watson L, Cumming O, Boisson S, Che Y, Velleman Y, et al. Interventions to improve water quality and supply, sanitation and hygiene practices, and their effects on the nutritional status of children. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews.* 2013 Aug 1;2013(8).
22. Hanieh S, Braat S, Simpson JA, Thi T, Ha T, Tran TD, et al. The Stunting Tool for Early Prevention: Development and external validation of a novel tool to predict risk of stunting in children at 3 years of age. *gh.bmj.com* [Internet]. 2019 [cited 2024 Sep 3];4:1801. Available from: <https://gh.bmj.com/content/4/6/e001801.abstract>
23. Orr J, Freer J, Morris J, Hancock C, Walton R. 1099 An analysis of stunting in England using national data from the national child measurement programme. 2021 [cited 2024 Sep 3]; Available from: [https://adc.bmj.com/content/106/Suppl\\_1/A227.2.abstract](https://adc.bmj.com/content/106/Suppl_1/A227.2.abstract)
24. Robertson RC, Manges AR, Finlay BB, Prendergast AJ. The Human Microbiome and Child Growth – First 1000 Days and Beyond. Vol. 27, *Trends in Microbiology.* 2019.
25. Yaya S, Oladimeji O, Odusina EK, Bishwajit G. Household structure, maternal characteristics and children’s stunting in sub-Saharan Africa: evidence from 35



- countries. *academic.oup.com* S Yaya, O Oladimeji, EK Odusina, G Bishwajit *International Health*, 2022 • *academic.oup.com* [Internet]. [cited 2024 Sep 3];202(9). Available from: <https://academic.oup.com/inthealth/article-abstract/14/4/381/5700809>
26. Mutisya M, Kandala N, Ngware M, health CKB public, 2015 undefined. Household food (in) security and nutritional status of urban poor children aged 6 to 23 months in Kenya. Springer M Mutisya, N Kandala, MW Ngware, CW Kabiru *BMC public health*, 2015 • Springer [Internet]. 2015 Oct 13 [cited 2024 Sep 3];15(1). Available from: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s12889-015-2403-0>
  27. Hong R, Banta J, health JBI journal for equity in, 2006 undefined. Relationship between household wealth inequality and chronic childhood under-nutrition in Bangladesh. Springer R Hong, JE Banta, JA Betancourt *International journal for equity in health*, 2006 • Springer [Internet]. 2006 Dec 5 [cited 2024 Sep 3];5:15. Available from: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/1475-9276-5-15>
  28. Gizaw Z, pediatrics AWI journal of, 2019 undefined. Effects of single and combined water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) interventions on nutritional status of children: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Springer [Internet]. 2019 Jul 4 [cited 2024 Sep 3];45(1). Available from: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1186/s13052-019-0666-2>
  29. Chandrasekhar S, Víctor |, Aguayo M, Krishna V, Nair R. Relationships between dietary diversity and early childhood developmental outcomes in rural China. *Wiley Online Library* [Internet]. 2017 Oct 1 [cited 2024 Sep 3];13. Available from: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/mcn.13073>
  30. Jones AD, Ickes SB, Smith LE, Mbuya MNN, Chasekwa B, Heidkamp RA, et al. World Health Organization (WHO) infant and young child feeding indicators: Associations with growth measures in 14 low-income countries. *Matern Child Nutr* [Internet]. 2012 Jul [cited 2024 Sep 3];8(3):354–70. Available from: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/mcn.12070>