OVERVIEW
The Republic of Indonesia is a middle-income country comprising over 17,500 islands in Southeast Asia, and the fourth most populous country in the world [World Bank Country Overview, 2016]. The economy is growing and strong, though over 10% of the population continue to live under the poverty line [World Bank Country Overview, 2016].

The climate of Indonesia is tropical, with a monsoonal wet season, and a dry season. Topography is extremely varied, ranging from sea and coastal systems, to peat swamps and montane forests [World Bank Country Adaptation Profile, 2016].

Rapid industrialisation and a high population density render Indonesia vulnerable to the likely effects of climate change. Climate variability and climate change are already exacerbating many of the disaster risks that the country faces, including drought, flooding, landslides and sea level rise. Climate change is predicted to delay the monsoon season, with drier conditions overall which may exacerbate forest fires. As temperatures rise and water becomes increasingly contaminated, malaria, dengue and cholera are expected to increase. Air pollution will likely increase the incidence of respiratory diseases and infections, and skin and eye irritations.a

In 2009, Indonesia voluntarily vowed to reduce GHG emissions by 26% by 2020 – this target has now been increased to 29% below business as usual by 2030 [Indonesia INDC, 2015]. Adaptation activities for climate change and human health adopted by the Indonesian government draw on WHO guidelines and include health security and strengthening health system resilience.a

SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS
• In Indonesia, under a high emissions scenario, mean annual temperature is projected to rise by about 3.8°C on average from 1990 to 2100. If global emissions decrease rapidly, the temperature rise is limited to about 1.0°C (page 2).
• In Indonesia, under a high emissions scenario heat-related deaths in the elderly (65+ years) are projected to increase to about 8 deaths per 100,000 in 2080 compared to the estimated baseline of less than 1 death per 100,000 annually between 1961 and 1990. A rapid reduction in global emissions could limit heat-related deaths in the elderly to about 2,900 people (page 3).
• In Indonesia, under a high emissions scenario heat-related deaths of less than 1 death per 100,000 annually between 1961 and 1990. A rapid reduction in global emissions could limit heat-related deaths in the elderly to about 8 deaths per 100,000 in 2080 (page 4).

OPPORTUNITIES FOR ACTION
Indonesia has an approved national health adaptation strategy and is currently implementing projects on health adaptation to climate change. Additionally, Indonesia has conducted a national assessment of climate change impacts, vulnerability and adaptation for health and is implementing actions to build institutional and technical capacities to work on climate change.

Indonesia has planned allocations from domestic funds included in the National budgeting system. Activities in the budgeting system are: capacity building/orientation with certificated module and advocacy/socialization to the related stakeholders in all provinces. Country reported data (see section 6) indicate there remain opportunities for action in the following areas:

1) Adaptation
• Implement activities to increase climate resilience of health infrastructure.
2) Mitigation
• Implementing mitigation activities in health facilities for lowering carbon footprints in electricity use and waste management.
• Conduct a valuation of health co-benefits of climate change mitigation policies.
3) National Policy Implementation
• Develop a national strategy for climate change mitigation that includes consideration of the health implications of mitigation actions.

DEMOGRAPHIC ESTIMATES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population (2013)a</th>
<th>251.3 million</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population growth rate (2013)a</td>
<td>1.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population living in urban areas (2013)b</td>
<td>52.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population under five (2013)c</td>
<td>9.6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population aged 65 or over (2013)d</td>
<td>5.1 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ECONOMIC AND DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

| GDP per capita (current US$, 2013)g | 3624 USD |
| Total expenditure on health as % of GDP (2013)d | 3.1% |
| Percentage share of income for lowest 20% of population (2010)h | 7.6 |
| HDI (2013, +/- 0.01 change from 2005 is indicated with arrow)h | 0.684 ▲ |

HEALTH ESTIMATES

| Life expectancy at birth (2013)f | 71 years |
| Under-5 mortality per 1000 live births (2013)f | 29 |

c World Urbanization Prospects: The 2014 Revision, UNDESA (2014)
d World Development Indicators, World Bank [2016]
e Global Health Expenditure Database, WHO (2014)
f United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Reports [2014]
g Global Health Observatory, WHO [2014]
h Levels & Trends in Child Mortality Report 2015, UN Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation [2015]
CURRENT AND FUTURE CLIMATE HAZARDS

Due to climate change, many climate hazards and extreme weather events, such as heat waves, heavy rainfall and droughts, could become more frequent and more intense in many parts of the world.

Outlined here are country-specific projections up to the year 2100 for climate hazards under a ‘business as usual’ high emissions scenario compared to projections under a ‘two-degree’ scenario with rapidly decreasing global emissions. Most hazards caused by climate change will persist for many centuries.

COUNTRY-SPECIFIC CLIMATE HAZARD PROJECTIONS

The model projections below present climate hazards under a high emissions scenario, Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 [RCP8.5] (in orange) and a low emissions scenario, [RCP2.6] (in green). The text boxes describe the projected changes averaged across about 20 models (thick line). The figures also show each model individually as well as the 90% model range (shaded) as a measure of uncertainty and, where available, the annual and smoothed observed record (in blue).

MEAN ANNUAL TEMPERATURE

Under a high emissions scenario, mean annual temperature is projected to rise by about 3.8°C on average from 1990 to 2100. If emissions decrease rapidly, the temperature rise is limited to about 1.0°C.

DAYS OF WARM SPELL (‘HEAT WAVES’)

Under a high emissions scenario, the number of days of warm spell is projected to increase from about 10 days in 1990 to about 320 days on average in 2100. If emissions decrease rapidly, the days of warm spell are limited to about 130 on average.

DAYS WITH EXTREME RAINFALL (‘FLOOD RISK’)

Under a high emissions scenario, the number of days with very heavy precipitation (20 mm or more) could increase by about 6 days on average from 1990 to 2100, increasing the risk of floods. Some models indicate increases outside the range of historical variability, implying even greater risk. If emissions decrease rapidly, the risk is much reduced.

CONSECUTIVE DRY DAYS (‘DROUGHT’)

Under a high emissions scenario, the longest dry spell is indicated to increase, from about 20 days in 1990, by about 3 days on average, with continuing large year-to-year variability. If emissions decrease rapidly, the increase is limited to about 2 days on average.

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a Model projections are from CMIP5 for RCP8.5 (high emissions) and RCP2.6 (low emissions). Model anomalies are added to the historical mean and smoothed.
b Observed historical record of mean temperature is from CRU-TSv.3.22; observed historical records of extremes are from HadEX2.
c Analysis by the Climatic Research Unit and Tyndall Centre for Climate Change Research, University of East Anglia, 2015.
d A ‘warm spell’ day is a day when maximum temperature, together with that of at least the 6 consecutive previous days, exceeds the 90th percentile threshold for that time of the year.
Human health is profoundly affected by weather and climate. Climate change threatens to exacerbate today’s health problems – deaths from extreme weather events, cardiovascular and respiratory diseases, infectious diseases and malnutrition – whilst undermining water and food supplies, infrastructure, health systems and social protection systems.

Towards 2070, under both high and low emissions scenarios about 308 million people are projected to be affected by flooding due to sea level rise between 2070 and 2100. If global emissions decrease rapidly and there is a major scale up in protection (i.e. continued construction/raising of dikes) the annual affected population could be limited to about 2,900 people. Adaptation alone will not offer sufficient protection, as sea level rise is a long-term process, with high emissions scenarios bringing increasing impacts well beyond the end of the century.

Indonesia also faces inland river flood risk. It is projected, that by 2030, an additional 269,600 people may be at risk of river floods annually as a result of climate change and 201,700 due to socio-economic change above the estimated 635,500 annually affected population in 2010.

In addition of river floods, Indonesia also experiences the impact of sea level rise in many parts of its coastal areas (in local language this is known as rob). Flooding causes deaths from drowning and extensive indirect health effects, including impacts on food production, water provision, ecosystem disruption, infectious disease outbreak and vector distribution. Longer term effects of flooding may include post-traumatic stress and population displacement.

Some of the world’s most virulent infections are also highly sensitive to climate: temperature, precipitation and humidity have a strong influence on the life-cycles of the vectors and the infectious agents they carry, and influence the transmission of water and food-borne diseases.

Socioeconomic development and health interventions are driving down burdens of several infectious diseases, and these projections assume that this will continue. However, climate conditions are projected to become significantly more favourable for transmission, slowing progress in reducing burdens, and increasing the populations at risk if control measures are not maintained or strengthened.

The mean relative vectorial capacity for dengue fever transmission is projected to increase towards 2070 under both a high and low emissions scenario.

Source: Rocklöv, J., Quam, M. et al., 2015.


Source: Rocklöv, J., Quam, M. et al. 2015.


Source: Country-level analysis, completed in 2015, was based on health models outlined in the Quantitative risk assessment of the effects of climate change on selected causes of death, 2030s and 2050s. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2014. The mean of impact estimates for three global climate models are presented. Models assume continued socioeconomic trends (SSP2 or comparable).
Climate change is expected to increase mean annual temperature and the intensity and frequency of heat waves resulting in a greater number of people at risk of heat-related medical conditions. The elderly, children, the chronically ill, the socially isolated and at-risk occupational groups are particularly vulnerable to heat-related conditions.

### KEY IMPLICATIONS FOR HEALTH

Under a high emissions scenario heat-related deaths in the elderly (65+ years) are projected to increase to about 53 deaths per 100,000 by 2080 compared to the estimated baseline of less than 1 death per 100,000 annually between 1961 and 1990. A rapid reduction in emissions could limit heat-related deaths in the elderly to about 8 deaths per 100,000 in 2080.

Source: Honda et al., 2015.\(^\text{a}\)

Labour productivity is projected to decline significantly under a high emissions scenario. If global mean temperature rises 4 degrees, about 23% of annual daily work hours is projected to be lost by workers carrying out heavy labour (e.g., agricultural, construction and some industrial workers).

Source: Kjellstrom, T. et al., 2015 http://www.climatechip.org/

### UNDERNUTRITION

Climate change, through higher temperatures, land and water scarcity, flooding, drought and displacement, negatively impacts agricultural production and causes breakdown in food systems. These disproportionately affect those most vulnerable people at risk to hunger and can lead to food insecurity. Vulnerable groups risk further deterioration into food and nutrition crises if exposed to extreme climate events.\(^\text{b}\)

Without considerable efforts made to improve climate resilience, it has been estimated that the global risk of hunger and malnutrition could increase by up to 20 percent by 2050.\(^\text{b}\)

In Indonesia, the prevalence of stunting in children under age 5 was 36.4% in 2013, the prevalence of underweight children and wasting in children under 5 was 19.9% and 13.5%, respectively, in 2013.\(^\text{c}\)

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\(\text{a} \) Country-level analysis, completed in 2015, was based on health models outlined in the Quantitative risk assessment of the effects of climate change on selected causes of death, 2030s and 2050s. Geneva: World Health Organization, 2014. The mean of impact estimates for three global climate models are presented. Models assume continued socioeconomic trends [SSP2 or comparable].

\(\text{b} \) World Food Project 2015 https://www.wfp.org/content/two-minutes-climate-change-and-hunger

\(\text{c} \) World Health Organization, Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition [2015 edition]. Please see source for definitions of child malnutrition measures.
CURRENT EXPOSURES AND HEALTH RISKS DUE TO AIR POLLUTION

Many of the drivers of climate change, such as inefficient and polluting forms of energy and transport systems, also contribute to air pollution. Air pollution is now one of the largest global health risks, causing approximately seven million deaths every year. There is an important opportunity to promote policies that both protect the climate at a global level, and also have large and immediate health benefits at a local level.

OUTDOOR AIR POLLUTION EXPOSURE

Outdoor air pollution in cities in Jakarta, Indonesia annual mean PM$_{2.5}$ (µg/m$^3$) 2010*

- WHO annual mean PM$_{2.5}$ guideline value [10 µg/m$^3$]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jakarta</th>
<th>Annual mean PM$_{2.5}$ (µg/m$^3$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WHO annual mean PM$_{2.5}$ guideline value</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 2010, Jakarta had an annual mean PM$_{2.5}$ level that was above the WHO guideline value of 10 µg/m$^3$.

Source: Ambient Air Pollution Database, WHO, May 2014.

* A standard conversion has been used, see source for further details.

HOUSEHOLD AIR POLLUTION

INDONESIA

Percentage of population primarily using solid fuels for cooking (%), 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RURAL AREAS</th>
<th>65</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>URBAN AREAS</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NATIONAL TOTAL</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Global Health Observatory, data repository, World Health Organization, 2013.*

Percent of total deaths from ischaemic heart disease, stroke, lung cancer, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (18 years +) and acute lower respiratory infections (under 5 years) attributable to household air pollution, 2012.

Total Deaths: 566,600

- Attributable to household air pollution (29%)

Source: Global Health Observatory, data repository, World Health Organization, 2012.

a These estimates may differ from national estimates. For national level estimates please see the Indonesia Health Profile [Riskesdas] 2013.


KEY IMPLICATIONS FOR HEALTH

Outdoor air pollution can have direct and sometimes severe consequences for health.

Fine particles which penetrate deep into the respiratory tract subsequently increase mortality from respiratory infections, lung cancer and cardiovascular disease.

KEY IMPLICATIONS FOR HEALTH

Air pollution in and around the home is largely a result of the burning of solid fuels [biomass or coal] for cooking.

Women and children are at a greater risk for disease from household air pollution. Consequently, household air pollution is responsible for a larger proportion of the of total number of deaths from ischaemic heart disease, stroke, lung cancer and COPD in women compared to men.

In Indonesia, about 45% percent of an estimated 25,300 child deaths due to acute lower respiratory infections is attributable to household air pollution [WHO, 2012].
## Transport

Transport injuries lead to 1.2 million deaths every year, and land use and transport planning contribute to the 2–3 million deaths from physical inactivity. The transport sector is also responsible for some 14% (7.0 GtCO₂e) of global carbon emissions. The IPCC has noted significant opportunities to reduce energy demand in the sector, potentially resulting in a 15%–40% reduction in CO₂ emissions, and bringing substantial opportunities for health: A modal shift towards walking and cycling could see reductions in illnesses related to physical inactivity and reduced outdoor air pollution and noise exposure; increased use of public transport is likely to result in reduced GHG emissions; compact urban planning fosters walkable residential neighborhoods, improves accessibility to jobs, schools and services and can encourage physical activity and improve health equity by making urban services more accessible to the elderly and poor.

## Household Heating, Cooking and Lighting

Household air pollution causes over 4.3 million premature deaths annually, predominantly due to stroke, ischaemic heart disease, chronic respiratory disease, and childhood pneumonia. A range of interventions can both improve public health and reduce household emissions: a transition from the inefficient use of solid fuels like wood and charcoal, towards cleaner energy sources like liquefied petroleum gas (LPG), biogas, and electricity could save lives by reducing indoor levels of black carbon and other fine particulate matter; where intermediate steps are necessary, lower emission transition fuels and technologies should be prioritized to obtain respiratory and heart health benefits; women and children are disproportionately affected by household air pollution, meaning that actions to address household air pollution will yield important gains in health equity; replacing kerosene lamps with cleaner energy sources (e.g. electricity, solar) will reduce black carbon emissions and the risk of burns and poisoning.

## Electricity Generation

Reliable electricity generation is essential for economic growth, with 1.4 billion people living without access to electricity. However, current patterns of electricity generation in many parts of the world, particularly the reliance on coal combustion in highly polluting power plants contributes heavily to poor local air quality, causing cancer, cardiovascular and respiratory disease. Outdoor air pollution is responsible for 3.7 million premature deaths annually, 88% of these deaths occur in low and middle income countries. The health benefits of transitioning from fuels such as coal to lower carbon sources, including ultimately to renewable energy, are clear. Reduced rates of cardiovascular and respiratory disease such as stroke, lung cancer, coronary artery disease, and COPD; cost-savings for health systems; improved economic productivity from a healthier and more productive workforce.

## Healthcare Systems

Health care activities are an important source of greenhouse gas emissions. In the US and in EU countries, for example, health care activities account for between 3–8% of greenhouse gas [CO₂-eq] emissions. Major sources include procurement and inefficient energy consumption. Modern, on-site, low-carbon energy solutions (e.g. solar, wind, or hybrid solutions) and the development of combined heat and power generation capacity in larger facilities offer significant potential to lower the health sector’s carbon footprint, particularly when coupled with building and equipment energy efficiency measures. Where electricity access is limited and heavily reliant upon diesel generators, or in the case of emergencies when local energy grids are damaged or not operational, such solutions can also improve the quality and reliability of energy services. In this way, low carbon energy for health care could not only mitigate climate change, it could enhance access to essential health services and ensure resilience. For healthcare waste management in Indonesia, non-incineration methods have been deemed as a necessity to be introduced to minimize the emission from incineration.

In Indonesia, by 2030, an estimated 89,000 annual premature deaths due to outdoor air pollution may be avoided and near-term climate change mitigated by implementing 14 short lived climate pollutant reduction measures.


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### Reference

For a complete list of references used in the health co-benefits text please see the Climate and Health Country Profile Reference Document, [http://www.who.int/globalchange/en/](http://www.who.int/globalchange/en/)
Global carbon emissions increased by 80% from 1970 to 2010, and continue to rise. Collective action is necessary, but the need and opportunity to reduce greenhouse gas emissions varies between countries. Information on the contribution of different sectors, such as energy, manufacturing, transport and agriculture, can help decision-makers to identify the largest opportunities to work across sectors to protect health, and address climate change.

A 2°C upper limit of temperature increase relative to pre-industrial levels has been internationally agreed in order to prevent severe and potentially catastrophic impacts from climate change. Reductions are necessary across countries and sectors. In order to stay below the 2°C upper limit it is estimated that global annual CO2-energy emissions, currently at 5.2 tons per capita, need to be reduced to 1.6 tons per capita.\textsuperscript{c}

Global carbon emissions increased by 80% from 1970 to 2010, and continue to rise.\textsuperscript{a,b} Collective action is necessary, but the need and opportunity to reduce greenhouse gas emissions varies between countries. Information on the contribution of different sectors, such as energy, manufacturing, transport and agriculture, can help decision-makers to identify the largest opportunities to work across sectors to protect health, and address climate change.

The most recent greenhouse gas emissions data for Indonesia is from the year 2000. At that time, carbon emissions were increasing across most sectors, with the largest contributions from the waste, energy industries and ‘other’ sectors. Through intersectoral collaboration, the health community can help to identify the best policy options not only to eventually stabilize greenhouse gas emissions, but also to provide the largest direct benefits to health.

\* See source for definition of ‘other’ sector.

The graph illustrates the annual greenhouse gas emissions in Indonesia from 1990 to 2000, highlighting the contributions from different sectors such as energy industries, manufacturing and construction, transport, agriculture, waste, other, and total excl. LULUCF/LUCF. The data shows a significant increase in emissions across most sectors during this period.

Source: UNFCCC Greenhouse Gas Data Inventory, UNFCCC [2015].

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**NATIONAL RESPONSE\textsuperscript{d}**

**1994**

**INDONESIA SIGNS THE UNFCCC**

**2004**

**INDONESIA RATIFIES THE KYOTO PROTOCOL**

**2007**

**ACTION PLAN TO RESPOND TO CLIMATE CHANGE**

**2008**

**CREATION OF NATIONAL COUNCIL ON CLIMATE CHANGE**

**2010**

**LAUNCH OF CLIMATE CHANGE SECTORAL ROADMAP**

**2013**

**NATIONAL ACTION PLAN ON CLIMATE CHANGE ADAPTATION, 2013**

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\textsuperscript{c} Pathways to deep decarbonization, Sustainable development Solutions Network, 2014 report.

### NATIONAL POLICY RESPONSE

The following table outlines the status of development or implementation of climate resilient measures, plans or strategies for health adaptation and mitigation of climate change (reported by countries).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GOVERNANCE AND POLICY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country has identified a national focal point for climate change in the Ministry of Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country has a national health adaptation strategy approved by relevant government body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The National Communication submitted to UNFCCC includes health implications of climate change mitigation policies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEALTH ADAPTATION IMPLEMENTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country is currently implementing projects or programmes on health adaptation to climate change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country has implemented actions to build institutional and technical capacities to work on climate change and health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country has conducted a national assessment of climate change impacts, vulnerability and adaptation for health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country has climate information included in Integrated Disease Surveillance and Response (IDSR) system, including development of early warning and response systems for climate-sensitive health risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country has implemented activities to increase climate resilience of health infrastructure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FINANCING AND COSTING MECHANISMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimated costs to implement health resilience to climate change included in planned allocations from domestic funds in the last financial biennium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated costs to implement health resilience to climate change included in planned allocations from international funds in the last financial biennium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HEALTH BENEFITS FROM CLIMATE CHANGE MITIGATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The national strategy for climate change mitigation includes consideration of the health implications [health risks or co-benefits] of climate change mitigation actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country has conducted valuation of co-benefits of health implications of climate mitigation policies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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a Supporting monitoring efforts on health adaptation and mitigation of climate change: a systematic approach for tracking progress at the global level. WHD survey, 2015.