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Protect the vulnerable from extreme heat during the COVID-19 pandemic

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There is a considerable body of research studying how viruses, including some coronaviruses and influenza, are affected by weather, in which evidence suggests that their transmission may decline with higher humidity or temperatures. The spread of COVID-19 is changing rapidly and there are still many unknown factors that still need to be understood on how the virus is evolving, the dominant way of spreading and how these may differ by geographical area or context. The evidence that has surfaced thus far on SARS-COV-2 has not conclusively determined whether the weather conditions will be a key modulating factor influencing the transmission of the virus (Bukhari & Jameel, 2020; Chen et al., 2020; Gunthe, Swain, Patra, & Amte, 2020; Gupta, Raghuvanshi, & Chanda, 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Luo et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2020; Şahin, 2020; Shi et al., 2020; Tobías & Molina, 2020; Tosepu et al., 2020; J. Wang, Tang, Feng, & Lv, 2020; M. Wang et al., 2020; Yao et al., 2020; Jüni et al., 2020).

However, as we approach the warm season in the Northern hemisphere still under a pandemic situation, there is reason for strong concern about a related cascade of impacts, namely how the pandemic may aggravate the health impacts of heat waves by hindering prevention efforts. Several health authorities at federal, national, subnational and local levels run prevention plans to respond to and reduce health impacts of heat. These plans, generically known as Heat-health Action Plans (WHO, 2008), typically comprise a series of interventions, including heat warning systems, advice and information on keeping safe from heat, specific outreach and care for vulnerable population groups, surveillance of heat-related mortality and illnesses, and local interventions to reduce heat exposure through cooling centers and cool recreational areas.

The physical distancing measures and common space use restrictions set in place by most countries in response to the COVID-19 pandemic may hamper the implementation of those core heat-health prevention activities and aggravate the population's vulnerability to extreme temperatures this summer. We will explore some possible unintended effects of such restrictions, using as a framework typical national/federal level Heat-Health Action Plans in Europe.

For example, the effectiveness and outreach of heat warnings and health protective advice could be diminished in a context of widespread health warnings and information related to COVID-19. Far from an academic digression, for vulnerable groups this is a life-or-death issue: thermal extremes (both heat and cold) are by far the deadliest climate exposure in Europe, well above storms and flooding for example (CRED, 2020). Extreme heat causes significant mortality in the region every summer, with periodical peaks; the summer heatwaves of 2003 killed over 70,000 (Fouillet et al., 2008) and the combination of heat and wildfire smoke killed over 55,000 in Russia in 2010 (Barriopedro, Fischer, Luterbacher, Trigo, & Garcia-Herrera, 2011). Yet the health risks of heat are systematically underestimated by the general public and even by those most vulnerable to them (Abrahamson et al., 2009; Akompab et al., 2013; Cuesta, van Loenhout, Colaço, & Guha-Sapir, 2017; Howe, Marlon, Wang, & Leiserowitz, 2019; Van Loenhout & Guha-Sapir, 2016; Bittner & Stößel, 2012). Adequate public health communication and media coverage should be ensured, and the language of heat-health warnings should thus reflect the seriousness of the risks posed by extreme heat, even in the current context of a pandemic. Warnings should integrate concomitant risk factors amidst the epidemic and heat, and ensure information on response measures and adaptation is clear even under lockdown or social distancing phases.

1 Similarly, the ability to reach out to and care for vulnerable people (e.g. living alone, chronically ill and
2 the elderly) may be severely impaired in the current context of overwhelmed health and social care
3 systems at every level. Adequate engagement of local governments and NGOs in heat-health action
4 plans – still uncommon throughout the region- can help in protecting the most vulnerable against heat,
5 by ensuring they are checked upon and can receive adequate care and support. This additional support
6 may prove critical for residents and workers of institutions like nursing homes, which have been hit
7 particularly hard by the pandemic. Access to necessary healthcare both at primary and specialized
8 levels will continue to be restricted. In addition, fear of contracting COVID-19 may prevent some
9 patients from seeking care even when experiencing heat-related symptoms, for example related to
10 pre-existing conditions or interactions with medications.
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13 Recent studies have shown that among COVID-19 patients the most prevalent comorbidities are
14 hypertension, cardiovascular diseases, diabetes mellitus, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease
15 (COPD), malignancy, and chronic kidney disease and cases with these comorbidities are more severe
16 (Emami, Javanmardi, Pirbonyeh, & Akbari, 2020; Hu et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2020). These same chronic
17 diseases are risk factors during heatwaves (Benmarhnia, Deguen, Kaufman, & Smargiassi, 2015).
18 Further studies have shown higher COVID-19 mortality rates among the elderly and subjects with
19 multi-chronic conditions (Shahid et al., 2020), thus making the European elderly population at an even
20 greater risk this summer.
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23 Rapid surveillance systems are a core component of heat plans and have been introduced throughout
24 Europe in recent years not only to monitor the health impacts of heatwaves but are considered a
25 strategic tool for an effective public health response (Martinez et al., 2019; WHO, 2008). Data from
26 surveillance systems, especially mortality data, has also been called upon in the context of COVID-19
27 monitoring as they provide unbiased estimates not affected by case classification and can be useful to
28 monitor containment and re-opening strategies (Leon et al., 2020). With the coming of high summer
29 temperatures, it is vital that these systems are not entirely devoted to COVID-19 activity and still have
30 the bandwidth to detect health impacts related to heat waves in order to ensure an adequate and
31 timely response. Furthermore, when evaluating increases in mortality the potential role of both
32 factors (heat and covid-19) on how one may affect the other or vice versa need to be studied in detail.
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36 The use of publicly available air-conditioned spaces as cooling centers may not be compatible with the
37 current directives mandating to maintain physical distance and avoid gathering indoors. In addition to
38 the closure of public facilities like air-conditioned libraries, swimming pools and others, typical cool
39 spaces like shopping malls and cafes may also be closed or restricted to various extents, even during
40 the re-opening phases. Restrictions on publicly accessible cooled spaces will hit hardest those who can
41 least afford air conditioning. Even for some households who may have been able to pay for the
42 equipment and installation, running costs of AC are sometimes unaffordable. Lacking the options to
43 access cooled spaces, residents without effective protection against heat may flock to cooler outdoor
44 recreational areas including parks and water bodies. If not adequately managed, increased attendance
45 in these spots could undermine the effectiveness of measures towards physical distancing and non-
46 gathering.
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51 If the decision of opening cooling centres is taken, users and staff will have to abide by a clear set of
52 rules supported by an adequate physical setup (separation marks, printed instructions, banisters, etc.),
53 supplies (hand disinfectant dispensers, face masks, etc.) and protocols (enhanced cleaning and
54 disinfection, one-way walking, etc.). Since public transport may be restricted, ensuring the accessibility
55 of cooled shelters will require complex logistics. Moreover, since some of the people who are at
56 highest risk of severe outcomes from COVID-19 (for example, the elderly and the chronically ill) are
57 also the most vulnerable to health risks from heat, gathering them in air conditioned spaces is
58 potentially risky and should be done only if adequate space and facility setup can be guaranteed. One
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1 clear example of potentially risky gathering of vulnerable individuals in common air conditioned rooms
2 are nursing homes and elderly residences. If no cooling protection through air conditioning can be
3 provided to highly vulnerable patients, authorities may consider dispensing personal cooling devices,
4 although their effectiveness has been thus far tested mainly on occupational settings, laboratory or
5 healthy subjects (Rawal et al., 2020).
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7 Additional common cooling solutions that should be reviewed for safety include mist sprayers (until
8 more is known about the aerosol potential for transmission), public drinking water fountains that
9 require manual operation (due to risk of surface contamination), and home visits by volunteer
10 networks (in which asymptomatic infected volunteers may inadvertently put at risk vulnerable
11 individuals). In some countries through various stages of lockdown, time slots for outdoor activity are
12 being allocated by age groups and may not be correlated with vulnerability to heat. In general, both
13 general procedures within Heat Health Action Plans and specific solutions for cooling should be
14 reviewed and modified if necessary under the current situation.
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17 Any decisions will inevitably will have to be made with limited information and plagued by uncertainty.
18 In some instances, air conditioning may aid droplet transmission of the virus (Lu et al., 2020; Correia,
19 Rodrigues, Gameiro da Silva, & Gonçalves, 2020) thus casting doubt on its safe use for groups. Seasonal
20 patterns of mortality may change significantly, since there is reason to believe that COVID-19 related
21 mortality will have decimated a proportion of the most vulnerable to heat before the summer season
22 starts. Research has observed that high respiratory, cardiovascular and influenza mortality in winter
23 leads to lower temperature effects in the following summer (Rocklöv, Forsberg, & Meister, 2009).
24 Though several climate-influenced exposures (e.g. air pollution, allergenic pollen, heat) tend to occur
25 concurrently (Linares, Martinez, Kendrovski, & Diaz, 2020), the current situation will further hinder
26 the integration of prevention efforts, thus affecting their effectiveness and reach.
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31 Finding and implementing solutions to these conundrums is urgent. In 2019, the annual temperature
32 for Europe was the highest on record, and 11 of the 12 hottest years on record have all occurred since
33 the year 2000 (ECMWF, 2020a). Some forecasts predict that 2020 may also be one of the hottest, if
34 not the hottest, year on record (ECMWF, 2020b; NOAA National Centers for Environmental
35 Information, 2020). This discussion will inevitably lead to hard choices with far-reaching consequences.
36 The WHO has warned that failing to adapt the COVID-19 response to the prevention and management
37 of Non-Communicable Disease risks (among which is heat) will mean failing many people precisely at
38 a time when their vulnerability is heightened (Kluge et al., 2020). Thus, it is paramount that we plan
39 ahead and make such choices with enough lead time, based on the available evidence, with equity
40 and respect to fundamental rights, and according to agreed upon ethical principles. Importantly, there
41 is still enough time to issue national-level guidance to be trickled down to local authorities, so that
42 implementation is homogeneous and controlled. Leaving decisions on heat-health protection to
43 municipalities and responders in the field without guidance can create heterogeneity in
44 implementation, confusion in the public and ultimately additional harm.
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