

#### **UKR Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Sciences (UKRJAHSS)**

Homepage: https://ukrpublisher.com/ukrjahss/ Email: submit.ukrpublisher@gmail.com

ISSN: 3107-359X (Online)



Volume 1, Issue 9, 2025

# **Studying Global Climate Change and Its Economic Impacts on Human Societies**

Muaiyid Rasooli 1\*0, Prof. Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR 200

- <sup>1</sup>PhD Candidate, School of Law, Xi'an Jiaotong University, China
- <sup>2</sup> Dean of the Faculty of Law, International Science and Technology University, Warsaw, Poland

\*Corresponding Author: Muaiyid Rasooli DOI: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17616938

	Article History
(	Original Research Article
I	Received: 07-11-2025
I	Accepted: 13-11-2025
I	Published: 15-11-2025
to 4	Copyright © 2025 The Author(s): This is an open-access article distributed under the erms of the Creative Commons Attribution I.O. International License (CC BY-NC) which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium for non-commercial use provided the original author and source are credited.
N S	Citation: Muaiyid Rasooli, Prof. Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR. (2025). Studying Global Climate Change and Its Economic Impacts on Human Societies. UKR ournal of Arts, Humanities and Social

#### Abstract

development. The significance of climate in shaping socio-economic conditions has arguably never been more prominently discussed in macroeconomic and socio-environmental discourse than it is today. Nevertheless, many policymakers and decision-makers remain insufficiently cognizant of the profound influence of climatic factors on economic and social systems. Currently, scholars across political, economic, social, and environmental disciplines recognize climate change as one of the most complex and consequential challenges confronting humanity. It is anticipated that climate change will progressively generate multifaceted socio-economic and environmental ramifications, particularly affecting

economic dimensions. While the economic implications of climatic variability are not a novel phenomenon, the contemporary scale, intensity, and associated financial costs are

unprecedented, posing substantial burdens for certain regions and states.

Climate represents one of the most critical determinants influencing human life and societal

Climate change is expected to exert both direct and indirect effects across multiple sectors, including agriculture, tourism, energy, public health, labor productivity, employment, economic growth, poverty incidence, and migration, thereby producing significant economic repercussions. However, these impacts are not geographically uniform. From an economic standpoint, certain regions may perceive climate change as a potential opportunity, offering geoeconomic advantages within the global economic system. Conversely, for many developing nations, particularly those situated in arid and semi-arid zones, climate change constitutes a severe crisis with profound geopolitical and socio-economic consequences.

Given its critical importance, this study seeks to examine the economic ramifications of climate change through a descriptive-analytical methodology. This topic is particularly pertinent due to notable gaps in existing climate change literature, with Afghanistan exemplifying one of the region's most vulnerable to the intertwined climatic and economic challenges.

**Keywords:** Climate change, global economy, global warming, economic growth

#### **Introduction:**

The significance of climate as a fundamental determinant of human existence and societal development has arguably never been more prominent in macroeconomic and socioenvironmental discourse than it is today. Nevertheless, many policymakers and decision-makers, particularly in Afghanistan, remain insufficiently cognizant of the profound influence of climate on economic, social, and political systems.

Currently, scholars across political, economic, social, and environmental disciplines recognize climate change as one of the most complex and consequential challenges confronting humanity. It is widely anticipated that climate change will increasingly generate multidimensional impacts on human societies, encompassing economic, social, and environmental domains.

Climate can be considered a primary factor shaping human life and societal organization. On one hand, the Earth's environment serves as the cradle of human civilization and a central determinant of human activity. On the other hand, climatic conditions exert substantial influence over economic activity, settlement patterns, population distribution, culture, and social behavior. Historical-geographical evidence demonstrates that climate has played a critical role in the rise and collapse of civilizations; stable civilizations have often emerged in regions with favorable environmental and climatic conditions, while adverse climatic shifts have historically precipitated societal decline.

Thus, it can be asserted that the continuity and prosperity of human civilizations are inextricably linked to climatic conditions. Contemporary global climatic changes, which are increasingly severe and rapid, pose profound threats to biological, economic, social, and political systems. Regions that fail to prioritize the mitigation and adaptation of climate-related risks are likely to encounter severe economic and societal challenges, which may threaten long-term stability and development.

It is important to note, however, that climate is inherently dynamic and has always exhibited natural variability. Historical evidence of glacial and interglacial periods demonstrates the significant impacts of climate fluctuations on human societies, including large-scale migrations and adjustments in economic activities (Bradley & Weiss, 2001). In contrast to these natural variations, contemporary climate change is largely anthropogenic, resulting from human interference in the Earth's natural systems. This human-induced disruption is not readily reversible and is projected to generate widespread and profound consequences across environmental, economic, social, and political dimensions.

The immediate manifestations of contemporary climate change include rising global temperatures and increasing irregularity in precipitation patterns. These changes exacerbate the frequency and intensity of natural disasters, such as floods, storms, and droughts, thereby imposing substantial economic costs. For instance, in 2017, 93% of all recorded natural disasters were climate-related, resulting in an estimated economic loss exceeding \$330 billion, making it the costliest year on record for climate-related disasters (RE Munich, 2018). Projections indicate that the cumulative economic costs of climate change could reach approximately \$1 trillion by 2050 (Hallegatte et al., 2013).

Although some regions may experience short-term benefits from certain climatic shifts, the indirect and secondary effects of climate change are expected to have pervasive and detrimental impacts even in these areas. From an economic perspective, while the full extent of climaterelated damages is challenging to quantify, critical sectors such as agriculture, tourism, and energy—central to both national and global economies—are expected to face direct and severe impacts. Other economic variables may experience indirect or intangible consequences, further complicating mitigation and adaptation efforts.

Addressing the economic and societal implications of climate change, particularly in highly vulnerable regions such as developing countries in arid and semi-arid zones, requires nuanced economic planning, foresight, and policy interventions. Accordingly, this study aims to conceptually examine the economic consequences of climate change, with a particular focus on its negative impacts. This analysis is especially pertinent given the current gaps in Persian-language literature on climate change and the heightened economic vulnerability of regions such as Iran and Afghanistan.

#### **Research Background**

The issue of climate change and global warming has, in recent years, emerged as a central theme in international discourse, spanning environmental, political-security, economic, and social dimensions. This trend has been accompanied by extensive projections regarding the potential role of climate change in generating new challenges, structural transformations, and damages to human societies. These projections encompass environmental, socio-political, and economic disruptions, highlighting the multidimensional implications of climate change for global development.

The study of climate change has a long-standing historical trajectory. Its scientific investigation can be traced back to 1827, when the French mathematician Jean-Baptiste Fourier first proposed the fundamental mechanism of global warming. Since then, diverse scientific disciplines, particularly geography and its subfields, have undertaken numerous studies on climate variability and its potential consequences for human societies. Over time, a broad scientific consensus has emerged regarding the reality and significance of climate change.

At present, the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) serves as the primary international body responsible for synthesizing scientific findings on climate issues. The IPCC's mandate is to develop a comprehensive, objective, and transparent framework that integrates technical, scientific, and socio-political information to understand the risks of climate change, assess its potential impacts, and evaluate adaptation and mitigation strategies. While the IPCC does not conduct primary research or monitor climatic parameters directly, it produces authoritative assessments grounded in peer-reviewed scientific literature. Its first assessment report was published in 1990, with

subsequent reports released in 1995, 2001, 2007, 2013, and 2014, all consistently emphasizing the significance of global warming and its multifaceted consequences.

Given the global scale and potential severity of climate change, significant research on its economic and societal impacts has been conducted by international organizations such as the United Nations, the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), and by leading climate economists, including Nicholas Stern. These studies underscore the urgent need for coordinated global responses to mitigate the economic repercussions of climate change.

In Afghanistan, domestic research on climate change remains limited but is gradually expanding. Recent studies, such as Alijani et al. (2015) and Sarafroozeh et al. (2014), have explored climate-related issues within academic and governmental frameworks, including work by the Meteorological Organization. Notably, few studies have focused on the economic impacts of climate change, primarily within the agricultural sector. For instance, Jafari et al. (2014) conducted a meta-analysis entitled "Economic Impact Assessment of Climate Change in the Agricultural Sector", concluding that climate variability significantly affects agricultural productivity, food security, and farmers' income and profitability. Similarly, Moradi (2014), in "Investigation of the Impact of Climate Change on the Economic and Social Status of Watersheds", found that climate-induced labor withdrawal from agriculture and livestock activities has resulted in both temporary and permanent migration, reduced household incomes, and declining agricultural investment. Esmaeli and Vaseghi (2008), examining wheat cultivation in Iran, concluded that rising temperatures and decreased precipitation could reduce wheat yield efficiency by 41% over the next century, highlighting the nonlinear and significant economic consequences of climate change.

In contrast, foreign studies on the economic effects of climate change are more extensive, encompassing multiple dimensions of human life. Measuring these effects remains complex due to their often indirect, intangible, and long-term nature. Among the most influential studies is the 2007 *Stern Review: The Economics of Climate Change*, which demonstrates that while climate change entails significant economic costs, these costs remain manageable through timely and coordinated global action.

Similarly, IPCC reports (2007, 2014) and World Bank assessments (2010, 2018) have systematically examined the economic implications of climate change across sectors such as development, human health, and disaster management. The UN World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) has also addressed climate change impacts on tourism, emphasizing both positive and predominantly

negative economic effects. Moreover, the ILO (2018) highlighted the effects of climate change on employment, noting alterations in labor markets and economic activity patterns, with potentially short-term benefits for some regions.

While numerous global studies have investigated the economic ramifications of climate change, domestic research, particularly in Afghanistan, remains limited and largely sector-specific. Most existing studies adopt quantitative methodologies to measure economic impacts; in contrast, the present study employs a descriptive-analytical approach, synthesizing findings from previous research to examine the broader economic effects of climate change. Unlike prior studies, which often focus on a single sector or dimension, this research endeavors to provide a holistic assessment of climate change's economic consequences, highlighting both direct and indirect effects across multiple domains.

#### **Materials and Methods**

This study employs a descriptive-analytical methodology, relying primarily on secondary data obtained from extensive library research. Sources include economic studies and assessments published by international institutions such as the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the World Bank, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the International Labour Organization (ILO), and research conducted by leading scholars and experts in the field of climate studies.

The study aims to conceptually examine the economic effects of climate change across nine critical components of human economic activity. By synthesizing existing literature and international reports, this research provides a comprehensive understanding of the multidimensional economic impacts of climate change. The descriptive-analytical approach allows for the integration of quantitative findings from previous studies into a conceptual framework that highlights both direct and indirect economic consequences.

#### **Findings and Discussion**

# **Economic Effects of Climate Change in the Agricultural Sector**

Agriculture constitutes one of the most vital sectors of the global economy, given its central role in ensuring food security, generating economic surpluses, and providing employment opportunities, particularly in developing countries. Beyond its contribution to food provision, agriculture supports foreign exchange earnings through exports and underpins socio-political stability and strategic economic priorities, even in developed nations (Chamber Iran, 2018). Consequently, from a policy and strategic

planning perspective, agriculture is universally regarded as a priority sector.

Climate is a principal determinant of agricultural productivity. Variations in temperature, precipitation patterns, atmospheric CO2 concentrations, and sea-level rise—exacerbated by increasingly intense weather events—directly affect crop yields, growth cycles, and the timing of harvests. Recurrent droughts or excessive rainfall amplify damage to agricultural systems, disrupt production cycles, and elevate production costs.

Rising global temperatures directly increase evaporation rates, diminishing water availability for irrigation. Additionally, alterations in the timing and quantity of including reduced precipitation, winter snowfall, negatively impact water resources critical for the agricultural season. Sea-level rise poses further risks by inundating coastal farmland, increasing soil salinity, and accelerating soil erosion due to flooding and severe storms. These processes also threaten groundwater quality, heightening the vulnerability of agricultural ecosystems to climate-induced degradation. Furthermore, increased temperatures and prolonged drought periods elevate the risk of desertification and forest fires, further undermining agricultural sustainability (Reti, 2007).

According to the IPCC (2007), a 1-3°C increase in global temperatures may yield marginally positive effects on agriculture in upper- and mid-latitude regions, whereas a 1-2°C increase is projected to negatively impact agriculture in lower-latitude areas. Widespread changes in precipitation and temperature are anticipated to reduce agricultural productivity in most countries globally. Cline (2007) estimates that a warming of 4.5–5°C by the 2080s could result in substantial declines in agricultural output worldwide, with an approximate 16% reduction in productivity. Developing countries are expected to experience disproportionate impacts, with potential reductions in agricultural productivity of up to 21%, compared to 6% in developed countries. In certain regions, such as Africa, declines may reach 27.5%. When accounting for the potential fertilization effects of elevated CO2 levels, the negative impacts are partially mitigated; in developed countries, this may even lead to a modest 7.7% increase in productivity. Nonetheless, global agricultural output, particularly in developing countries, is projected to decline overall.

The IPCC's 2013 report also highlights the projected increase in food prices due to climate change. Even when considering the beneficial effects of CO2 on crop yields, agricultural prices may rise by up to 45–84% by 2050 (Porter et al., 2014). These price increases not only exacerbate food insecurity but also generate spillover effects in related sectors, contributing to broader economic

inflation. In developing countries, where food expenditures constitute a substantial portion of household consumption, inflationary pressures are particularly pronounced. For instance, in 2006, food prices contributed to 27% of global inflation, with higher proportions in Asia (37.7%) and lower contributions in developed countries (12.4%) (IMF, 2008). By 2007, ongoing crises in food production amplified the role of agricultural prices in economic inflation, highlighting the central influence of supply-side factors—particularly climate variability—over demand-driven effects (Başakya et al., 2008; Kibritcioglu, 2011).

In Iran, as in many countries, agriculture is among the most climate-sensitive economic sectors. Afghanistan, due to its arid and semi-arid climate and the strategic economic importance of agriculture, is similarly highly vulnerable to the negative economic impacts of climate change on agricultural productivity and food security.

### **Economic Impacts of Climate Change on the Tourism Sector**

Similar to the agricultural sector, tourism is highly sensitive to climatic conditions and climate variability. A substantial portion of tourism activities occurs outdoors, and the attractiveness and sustainability of tourism destinations depend heavily on favorable environmental conditions (UNWTO, 2007). Consequently, tourism infrastructure, destinations, and related economic activities are directly vulnerable to climate change.

In many regions, natural resources that are essential to the tourism industry—including winter snow cover, biodiversity, wildlife, and coastal ecosystems—are closely linked to local climatic conditions. Climate change affects these resources through alterations in temperature, precipitation, sea levels, and ecosystem dynamics. Moreover, increased risks of infectious diseases, forest fires, pest infestations, and other climate-induced hazards influence tourist behavior, investment decisions, and the overall viability of the tourism sector (UNWTO, 2008:28).

Tourism is not merely a source of leisure and improved quality of life; it also plays a pivotal role in economic development by redistributing wealth from affluent to less affluent regions, urban to rural areas, and developed to underdeveloped regions. Tourism revenues significantly contribute to the balance of payments in many countries, particularly island and developing nations. Notably, among the 50 least developed countries worldwide, 46 derive a substantial portion of their foreign exchange earnings from tourism. In this context, tourism is a critical instrument for job creation, poverty alleviation, and incentivizing environmental conservation (UNWTO, 2007:2).

Climate change is projected to disproportionately affect high-demand tourist regions, particularly those reliant on summer and winter tourism activities. Winter tourism is especially vulnerable to global warming, as rising temperatures reduce snowfall and shorten winter seasons, potentially shifting the viability of winter sports to higher latitudes (Özdemir, 2008:146; UNWTO, 2003:8). For instance, a warming of less than 2°C is expected to reduce snow cover in the Northern Alps to fewer than 40 days per winter season, potentially resulting in a 60% loss of winter tourism capacity in the Bavarian Alps (UNWTO, 2007).

Empirical evidence demonstrates that climate change impacts on tourism are already observable. Coastal tourism faces challenges such as shoreline erosion, increased algal blooms, sea water pollution, and the proliferation of invasive species such as jellyfish—all exacerbated by rising sea temperatures. Similarly, winter sports destinations have experienced declines in snow reliability, reducing the viability of ski resorts and related businesses. Intensified extreme weather events, including storms, floods, droughts, and wildfires, further threaten tourism infrastructure and the long-term sustainability of tourism-dependent economies (UNWTO, 2007:5).

The economic ramifications of climate change on tourism are multifaceted. A decline in tourism demand can lead to increased unemployment in tourism-dependent regions. Reduced tourism activity also diminishes investment in accommodation, infrastructure, transportation networks, and ancillary services, thereby weakening local and national economic cycles. For instance, agricultural and food industries that supply the tourism sector may experience decreased demand; in Turkey, the agricultural economy provides products to approximately 40 million foreign tourists, illustrating the interconnected economic effects of climate disruptions on both agriculture and tourism. Similarly, handicraft industries and small businesses tied to tourism are also negatively affected, with broader socio-economic implications.

Overall, climate change poses a substantial threat to the economic sustainability of tourism-dependent regions. In addition to increasing unemployment and reducing income generation, it compromises the contribution of tourism to national balance of payments and government revenues. For example, the Deputy Chairman of the Turkish Travel Agencies Association highlighted tourism as a strategic sector critical to mitigating Turkey's current account deficit (Ajansi Anadolu, 2018).

In Afghanistan, the consequences of climate change on tourism are exemplified by the degradation of Band-e Amir in Bamyan Province. Once a vibrant domestic and international tourist destination due to its turquoise lakes, hydrotherapy features, and migratory bird habitats, the area has experienced severe ecological and economic decline over the past two decades. The combined effects of climate

change and poor resource management have led to a loss of natural beauty, diminished tourism activity, and the subsequent socio-economic repercussions of local population migration and reduced livelihoods. This case underscores the broader vulnerability of tourism-dependent regions in arid and semi-arid climates to the economic impacts of climate change.

### **Economic Effects of Climate Change on the Energy Sector**

Climate change has significant implications for both the supply and demand of energy, mediated by rising air and water temperatures, alterations in precipitation patterns, reduced freshwater availability, and rising sea levels resulting from intensified storms and floods. These climatic changes not only influence energy consumption patterns but also directly impact energy resources, production facilities, and distribution infrastructure.

Hydropower generation is particularly vulnerable. Reductions in water resources due to changing precipitation patterns, combined with decreased cooling efficiency resulting from higher ambient and water temperatures, significantly impair hydroelectric output. For instance, Cayan et al. (2006) demonstrate that a 4°C increase in air temperature by the end of the century could reduce water availability in California by 28%, resulting in a 30% decline in hydroelectric energy production. Such reductions exacerbate energy deficits in countries dependent on external energy imports, adversely affecting trade balances and the broader economy.

Energy infrastructure in coastal areas is increasingly threatened by rising sea levels and extreme weather events, which endanger not only fossil fuel production, refining, and distribution facilities but also renewable energy systems, including bioenergy, solar, wind, and hydroelectric power (Vergara & Ebinger, 2011). In particular, solar energy output is negatively affected by increased cloud cover resulting from higher atmospheric water vapor concentrations, which reflect sunlight and reduce energy generation efficiency.

Even energy sources traditionally considered less climatesensitive, such as oil and gas, are indirectly affected. Extreme weather events can disrupt production, refining, and transportation, while global economic shifts toward renewable energy sources—driven by environmental policies and international climate agreements—pose additional economic challenges for fossil-fuel-dependent economies. Moreover, nuclear power generation relies heavily on water for cooling; thus, decreased freshwater availability and higher water temperatures threaten operational efficiency, as observed during the 2002 drought in Queensland, Australia, and the 2003 European heatwave affecting French nuclear plants (Griffiths et al., 2009; Stern, 2007:143).

Climate change also reshapes energy consumption patterns. Rising global temperatures reduce the demand for heating in higher-latitude countries but increase the demand for cooling in lower-latitude regions (Mendelsohn & Morrison, 2004:209). For example, an increase in ambient temperature of 1.3–2.9°C is projected to raise natural gas consumption in the UK by 7–10% by 2050, whereas a 0.8°C temperature rise in the American Midwest is expected to reduce fossil fuel demand by 7–16%. Overall, a 3°C increase could decrease winter energy demand by 20% but increase summer demand by 50% (Hanson et al., 2007:172–173).

Disruptions in energy production and distribution also affect market prices. The aftermath of Hurricane Katrina in the United States exemplifies how climate-induced disruptions can trigger price surges. Similarly, projected reductions in water availability due to declining winter and spring precipitation threaten the cost-effectiveness of electricity generation in water-scarce regions, imposing substantial economic burdens (Bhatt et al., 2008:78).

Afghanistan provides a recent example of these dynamics. During the summer of 2018, unprecedented heat led to critical increases in electricity consumption, causing widespread power outages and placing severe stress on the national electricity network (Tabnak News, 2018). This event underscores the vulnerability of energy systems to climate-induced temperature extremes and highlights the broader economic repercussions, including interruptions in industrial production, public services, and daily life.

In summary, climate change exerts multifaceted pressures on energy systems by altering demand patterns, threatening infrastructure, reducing resource availability, and increasing operational and economic risks. These effects have profound implications for national economies, energy security, and the resilience of human societies in the face of escalating climatic variability.

#### **Economic Effects of Climate Change on Human Health**

Climate is widely recognized as a fundamental determinant of human health, and human well-being is highly sensitive to fluctuations in climatic patterns. Consequently, climate change induces alterations in parameters that significantly influence the health status of human populations. Despite this, the issue is often underestimated, as many individuals attribute health outcomes primarily to personal behaviors, hereditary factors, and access to medical services.

Extensive research demonstrates that climate change has already contributed to the emergence and exacerbation of certain diseases at the global level. For instance, according to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2002), climate change was responsible for approximately 4.2% of global diarrheal diseases and 6% of malaria cases in specific countries in the year 2000. Although establishing causal links between climate change and particular health complex—owing to multifactorial outcomes determinants of disease—its anthropogenic impacts on human health are empirically significant and necessitate comprehensive socio-economic policy interventions. Climate change affects human health through both direct and indirect pathways. Direct impacts arise from altered weather patterns, including temperature extremes, changes in precipitation, rising sea levels, and the increased frequency of natural disasters. Indirect impacts are mediated through the degradation of critical determinants of health, such as access to clean drinking water, food security, air quality, and the distribution of vector-borne and infectious diseases. The cumulative effect of these factors imposes substantial economic costs on societies through increased disease burden, premature mortality, and associated healthcare expenditures (Martinez et al., 2015).

Despite the evident significance of these impacts, many studies focus predominantly on the biological or medical aspects of climate-related health risks, often neglecting the economic consequences of disease incidence, mortality, and morbidity (Hasegawa et al., 2016). Estimating the full economic cost of climate change on health is inherently challenging, as many effects—such as reduced quality of life, premature death, and mental health burdens—are not readily quantifiable. Additionally, indirect effects, including impacts on household income, labor productivity, and physical and psychological well-being, further complicate precise economic assessment (Hutton, 2011).

Existing literature largely addresses direct economic costs, including medical expenditures, loss of labor productivity, and mortality-related economic losses (Bosello et al., 2006; Ciscar et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2014; Tol, 2013; Watkiss & Hunt, 2012). These studies highlight that climate change exacerbates health risks through multiple channels, including malnutrition, increased incidence of infectious diseases, and heat- or cold-related morbidity and mortality. For example, reductions in agricultural productivity due to climate change elevate the risk of hunger and malnutrition, particularly in economically vulnerable regions, thereby increasing child morbidity and mortality (Nelson et al., 2014; Hasegawa et al., 2014; Ezzati et al., 2004). Child malnutrition, in particular, constitutes one of the most severe human health risks induced by climate change (Hasegawa, 2015).

The economic ramifications of climate-related health impacts are multifaceted. Bosello et al. (2006) demonstrate that negative health outcomes reduce both regional

economic investment and productivity, prompting economic displacement from affected regions. Hasegawa et al. (2016) further estimate that malnutrition alone could reduce global GDP by 0.0% to 0.4% by 2100, with region-specific variations. Additional costs include direct healthcare expenditures, workforce reductions, and lost labor efficiency. For example, dust storms—a phenomenon exacerbated by climate change—have been shown to increase respiratory diseases, allergies, and other health complications in regions such as Iran and the broader Middle East, resulting in significant economic costs due to lost labor productivity, increased medical spending, and temporary closures of public services.

Historical estimates further illustrate the magnitude of these costs. In the 1990s, a projected 2.5°C rise in global temperatures was associated with potential economic losses from climate-induced health impacts ranging from 1% to 3% of global GDP. In 1990, the economic valuation of deaths attributable to climate-related health impacts ranged from approximately \$6 billion to \$88 billion, accounting for 5.6% to 50% of total estimated economic losses (Hutton, 2011). More recent projections by the World Bank (2018) indicate that direct health-related damages from climate change—excluding indirect sectoral effects—could range between \$2 billion and \$4 billion annually by 2030, with additional costs from air-pollution-related illnesses estimated at \$1.7 trillion in OECD countries, \$1.4 trillion in China, and \$500 billion in India.

Beyond healthcare costs, climate change also undermines labor productivity and household economic stability. For instance, prolonged heatwaves and dust events can diminish physical and cognitive performance, while climate-induced malnutrition reduces workforce efficiency and increases vulnerability to disease. Adaptation measures—such as investment in health infrastructure, disease surveillance, and emergency response—also contribute to economic burdens. Hutton (2011) estimates annual global adaptation costs for the health sector to be between \$2 billion and \$5 billion, though these figures likely understate the total economic impact when indirect costs across sectors are considered.

In conclusion, human health represents one of the most sensitive and economically consequential dimensions of climate change. The combination of direct health impacts, indirect effects mediated through food, water, and environmental systems, and the associated adaptation costs underscores the critical need to integrate health considerations into climate change mitigation and adaptation strategies. Addressing the economic consequences of climate-induced health risks is essential for sustaining human capital, productivity, and societal well-being in an era of rapid climatic transformation.

# **Economic Effects of Climate Change on Labor Productivity and the Workforce**

Beyond the health impacts, climate change exerts profound effects on labor productivity and workforce efficiency. Heat stress, increased humidity, and other weather-related challenges—resulting from rising air temperatures—directly reduce worker effectiveness. The impact is especially severe in workplaces lacking adequate ventilation, a common condition in many low- and middle-income countries. Changes in precipitation patterns further exacerbate these effects, and periods of extreme cold or frost, arising from temperature anomalies, also impair work efficiency.

In many regions, particularly in middle and lower latitudes, the combination of rising temperatures, shorter winters, urbanization, shifts in cultural-social norms, and changes in socio-economic behaviors has altered the historical climatic memory of societies. For instance, in Afghanistan, many individuals have reduced tolerance to harsh winter conditions compared to a few decades ago, which affects both physical and psychological capacity for work. Severe cold or frost can even disrupt governmental operations and essential services, highlighting the tangible influence of climate on labor productivity.

Experts in climate economics emphasize the growing economic costs associated with reduced workforce efficiency. Rising temperatures hinder human concentration, increase the likelihood of errors, and make physical activity and work more challenging. Prolonged exposure to extreme heat—such as 35°C—poses direct health risks, including dehydration, heat exhaustion, impaired circulation, and even death. These health risks create substantial obstacles to labor productivity, both in indoor and outdoor work environments.

Scientific studies demonstrate that human physical performance is optimal at temperatures between 36°C and 39°C. Beyond 41°C, the risk of heat stroke and fatal health events rises sharply (Kjellström et al., 2009). Consequently, workers must allocate portions of their working time to rest and recovery to mitigate the effects of heat stress, an unavoidable cost that directly reduces labor output. Research also shows that heat stress disproportionately affects over 4 billion people living in tropical regions, significantly lowering workforce capacity and efficiency (Kjellström et al., 2016).

Economic projections indicate that, by 2030, climate-induced reductions in labor productivity could double in some societies, with economic losses exceeding \$450 billion in countries such as China and India. In tropical regions—the area's most vulnerable to climate change—GDP could decline by 5–6%, while in extreme scenarios,

30–40% of working hours could occur under temperatures exceeding human tolerances, potentially reducing global GDP by 20% by 2100 (Flouris et al., 2014; Kjellström et al., 2016).

Currently, the estimated economic cost of climate change-related reductions in labor productivity is nearly 0.5% of global GDP, equivalent to approximately \$300 billion annually. Countries including China, India, Malaysia, and Indonesia are particularly susceptible; reduced labor productivity in these nations leads to annual economic losses of around \$200 billion, constraining their economic development capacity. DARA (2012) projects that assuming a 0.6°C rise in temperatures by 2030, the economic cost of climate change impacts on labor could reach \$2.5 trillion—a substantial burden.

According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2013) and Costa et al. (2016), the long-term economic burden of reduced labor productivity due to climate change could translate to a 23% reduction in global GDP by the end of the 21st century. Workforce losses are compounded by fatalities, disabilities, and damage to infrastructure caused by climate-induced natural disasters, which diminish the productive capacity of multiple generations.

Historical data from the International Labour Organization (ILO) underscores this vulnerability. Between 2000 and 2015, 23 million years of labor—equivalent to 0.8% of annual global working time—were lost due to climate-related natural disasters (ILO, 2018a). For example, in 1995, 1.4% of total working hours (approximately 35 million jobs globally) were lost due to extreme heat events (ILO, 2018b). Looking forward, even under a moderate warming scenario of 1.5°C by the end of the century, total working hours lost to inefficiency are projected to rise by 2% by 2030, representing the equivalent of 72 million jobs (ILO, 2018a).

In summary, climate change poses a multifaceted threat to labor productivity and workforce capacity. Rising temperatures, heat stress, and climate anomalies not only compromise worker health but also impose significant economic costs by reducing labor efficiency, increasing operational errors, and necessitating adaptation measures. These effects are particularly pronounced in tropical and developing regions, where workforce vulnerability is greatest and the economic consequences are most severe.

#### **Economic Effects of Climate Change on Employment**

The effects of climate change extend beyond direct physical impacts to influence the employment sector both directly and indirectly. Climate change affects labor markets not only through alterations in weather patterns but also via shifts in consumer behaviors, government policies, and

adaptation mechanisms. The direct impacts of climate change on employment are largely manifested through extreme weather events and long-term climatic changes that reduce the operational capacity of businesses and economic activities. As a result, the demand for labor declines, particularly in sectors highly sensitive to climate change such as agriculture, tourism, and energy (Miranda & Larcombe, 2012).

Agriculture, the second-largest employer globally after the services sector, engages over one billion people worldwide—representing 26.8% of total global employment—with more than 70% of agricultural labor in Asia and about 20% in sub-Saharan Africa (ILO, 2008; World Bank, 2018). In dry and hot regions such as sub-Saharan Africa, the employment sector is especially vulnerable, making local labor forces highly susceptible to climate-induced disruptions. Communities in these regions are estimated to have the highest global vulnerability of employment to climate change (ILO, 2018).

Similarly, the tourism sector, a dynamic and vital economic activity, plays a significant role in both GDP contribution and employment creation. In 2017, tourism's direct and indirect contributions to global GDP were approximately 2.3% and 4.1%, respectively, with projections for 2018 reaching 6.3% and 7.11%. In terms of employment, the sector directly employed 118.5 million people and indirectly supported 313.3 million jobs in 2017, with projections for 2018 of 150 million and 413 million, respectively (World Tourism & Travel Council, 2018). Overall, tourism supports nearly 600 million jobs worldwide, illustrating its substantial labor demand. However, tourism, like agriculture, is highly sensitive to climate impacts such as sea-level rise, coastal erosion, warming, reduced snowfall, and dwindling water resources, all of which threaten employment in this sector (Olsen, 2009).

Government policies and adaptation measures also influence employment by affecting the supply and demand for goods and services. Carbon taxes or greenhouse gas emission trading systems, for instance, raise the costs of production, alter relative prices, and indirectly affect labor demand. Higher energy prices, for example, reduce demand for labor in high-pollution sectors, while increasing demand for green and environmentally sustainable goods and services (Chateau, 2011). Additionally, rising global awareness of climate change can influence consumer behavior independently of government regulation, further shaping labor market dynamics (Martinez-Fernandez et al., 2010).

Despite these negative impacts, climate change adaptation measures present opportunities for job creation. Investments in coastal protection, infrastructure reinforcement, water management, greenhouse gas reduction, renewable energy, and clean technologies can stimulate employment. In Europe, adaptation initiatives are projected to create approximately 500,000 jobs (0.2% of the workforce) by 2050 (Martinez-Fernandez et al., 2010). Investments in adaptive infrastructure also vary in employment impact by country: for every \$1 million invested, around 650 jobs may be generated in India, 200 in China, 160 in Brazil and Indonesia, and 120 in Russia. Water-related adaptation measures, including restoration and supply infrastructure, can also foster substantial employment opportunities. Skills development initiatives further enable workers displaced by climate change to transition into emerging sectors with higher economic dynamism (ILO, 2018).

Another challenge for employment arises from climate-induced migration. As workers relocate from areas affected by climate change, local labor markets may lose highly skilled and knowledgeable personnel. This migration, often triggered by adverse climatic conditions, exacerbates the negative economic effects of climate change by weakening human capital in affected regions (Hallegatte, 2012).

In summary, climate change presents a complex interplay of risks and opportunities for the employment sector. While it directly reduces labor demand in vulnerable industries and indirectly influences employment through consumer behavior and policy interventions, strategic adaptation measures can offset these losses by creating new jobs, fostering skills development, and enhancing labor market resilience. Nevertheless, the threat of workforce displacement and climate-induced migration remains a significant challenge, particularly in developing regions and climate-sensitive economic sectors.

# **Economic Effects of Climate Change on Economic Growth**

Economic growth is typically defined as the actual annual production of goods and services in a country. It depends on the quantity and quality of production factors, including physical capital, labor, human capital, natural capital, and social capital, as well as the productivity and efficiency of these factors. In standard production models—where output YYY is a function of capital (KKK), labor (LLL), human/social/natural capital (SSS and EEE), and total factor productivity (AAA)—an increase in any of these factors, combined with technological progress and effective organization, contributes to economic growth. Conversely, declines in these inputs or their efficiency reduce production and growth (World Bank, 2010).

Climate change directly threatens economic growth by impacting production factors and their productivity. Increased air temperatures, changes in precipitation

patterns, and extreme weather events—such as storms, floods, and droughts—can reduce the efficiency of physical, natural, and human capital, altering production trends and slowing economic expansion.

#### **Physical Capital and Investment**

Physical capital, including buildings, machinery, and infrastructure, has a defined useful life under normal environmental conditions. Climate change accelerates capital depreciation through disasters such as severe storms, floods, and heat extremes, causing infrastructure and equipment to become unusable earlier than expected (Valente & Bretschger, 2011). The recurring nature of these impacts also influences investment decisions, as economic agents may reconsider committing resources to vulnerable assets (Tol & Fankhauser, 2005).

In developed countries, where annual investment in fixed assets can reach 20% of GDP, these impacts may result in significant economic losses (Stern, 2007). If the saving rate remains constant, climate-induced declines in production reduce overall investment, which in turn decreases the capital stock over time, leading to lower GDP and per capita consumption. A reduced level of investment also slows technological progress, labor productivity, and human capital accumulation, further compounding the negative effect on economic growth (Tol & Fankhauser, 2005).

#### **Natural Capital and Environmental Resources**

Natural capital, including soil, water, fisheries, and ecosystem services, constitutes a critical input for production. Climate change diminishes these resources through rising sea levels, flooding, soil erosion, and the destruction of fisheries and other environmental services (Tol & Darwin, 2001). For example, the destruction of coastal lands in the United States due to storms has been estimated to reduce economic growth by up to 0.8% (Hallegatte, 2012). While natural capital losses can sometimes be offset by increased physical capital investment, this requires additional resources, either through higher savings or taxation, which may reduce overall production and social welfare.

#### **Human Capital and Labor Productivity**

Climate change also affects economic growth by reducing human capital. Increased prevalence of infectious diseases, malnutrition, water scarcity, and premature mortality can diminish labor productivity and limit the accumulation of new human capital (Shazili & Lecocq, 2007). A reduction in human capital not only decreases immediate production output but also restricts long-term growth potential. Furthermore, poor economic performance driven by climate impacts reduces government revenues, which may in turn limit public investments in health, education, and

social services that are vital for human capital development (Koubi, 2012).

#### **Institutional and Social Implications**

Climate change can affect growth indirectly through institutional and social channels. Additional costs for adaptation—such as protecting infrastructure from sealevel rise—may generate social and political tensions, especially if sections of society perceive these investments as less urgent than other economic priorities (Hallegatte, 2012). Weak institutional structures may amplify the negative effects of climate change, reducing social stability and further weakening economic efficiency (Rodrik, 1998).

# Adaptation, Environmental Protection, and Growth Opportunities

Despite these challenges, strategies to combat climate change can generate economic benefits. Enhancing environmental quality—through air, water, and soil protection—strengthens natural capital, improves worker health, reduces physical capital depreciation, and increases productivity in production activities (Tol, 2009; Hallegatte et al., 2011). Investment in renewable energy, infrastructure resilience, and sustainable resource management can also support economic growth while mitigating climate risks.

In this context, climate policies can serve as incentive mechanisms: they reduce production costs over the long term, enhance resource-use efficiency, and increase competitiveness. By correcting market failures and internalizing the costs of environmental degradation, such policies can simultaneously support economic growth, improve social welfare, and enhance resilience to climate-related shocks.

# **Economic Effects of Climate Change on Increasing Poverty**

Poverty is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, challenging to define and measure. Economically, it is often understood in terms of access to resources necessary for meeting basic needs. Poverty can be categorized into **absolute poverty**, defined by the lack of essential resources for survival, and **relative poverty**, which measures social inequality in access to income and resources. Relative poverty varies across countries depending on social structures and cultural realities.

Poverty emerges not only from socio-political structures but also from environmental vulnerabilities. Climate change amplifies these vulnerabilities, making it an important factor in exacerbating poverty. From an economic perspective, poverty can be analyzed in two key dimensions:

- 1. The costs and damages poverty imposes on society, including reduced labor participation and the loss of productive human resources.
- 2. The impact of poverty on economic growth, as impoverished populations often cannot contribute fully to national economic cycles.

Human resources are a central component of economic growth. When poverty forces individuals to migrate or withdraw from economic participation, it represents a significant loss to the economy. Despite global progress in reducing poverty—from 1.9 billion people in 1990 to an estimated 836 million in 2015 (Development Initiatives, 2015)—climate change poses a major challenge to continuing this progress. Without adequate interventions, climate change could push an additional 720 million people into poverty between 2030 and 2050 (ODI, 2015). By 2030, another 100 million people could be added to the poor population if development and climate adaptation policies are insufficient (World Bank, 2016).

#### **Vulnerability of Poor Communities**

The impacts of climate change disproportionately affect developing countries and economically disadvantaged populations. Poor communities often have limited access to resources, live in highly exposed areas, and rely on climate-sensitive livelihoods such as agriculture. Their limited adaptive capacity increases their vulnerability to climate shocks, creating a cycle of persistent poverty (DFID, 2004; Beecher, 2016).

Agriculture, a cornerstone of livelihoods in developing countries, is particularly sensitive to climate change. Declines in agricultural productivity are projected to increase food prices by more than 12% in sub-Saharan Africa by 2030, placing significant pressure on poor households that spend up to 60% of their income on food. Malnutrition from these effects could lead to severe stunting in up to 23% of affected populations (GFDRR, 2015).

Climate-related stocks such as droughts, floods, and increased prevalence of tropical diseases further undermine livelihoods. Of the 897 million people living in extreme poverty, nearly half reside in climate-vulnerable countries, where low adaptive capacity magnifies economic losses and social hardship. These effects not only deepen poverty but also impose significant economic costs on society, including increased public expenditure to combat persistent poverty cycles.

#### **Adaptation and Financial Support**

Short-term adaptation is essential to prevent the worst impacts of climate shocks. Strengthening the resilience of vulnerable communities and individuals can mitigate some of the economic and social consequences of climate change. However, adaptation finance often fails to prioritize the countries and populations most in need. For instance, in 2014, countries with moderate vulnerability received the largest share of financial support, while 14 of the poorest and most climate-vulnerable countries received only \$56 million each, compared to \$73 million per country for 67 countries with lower poverty rates (Beecher, 2016).

Developed countries also bear significant responsibility in supporting climate adaptation in poor nations. While developing countries produce 61% of global greenhouse gases, developed countries contribute 39% and have the capacity to support mitigation and adaptation efforts. Effective financial and technological cooperation is vital to help vulnerable populations adapt, secure livelihoods, and reduce poverty exacerbated by climate change.

# **Implications for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction**

Overall, climate change negatively impacts economic growth by reducing agricultural productivity, threatening food security, increasing inequality, and creating new pockets of poverty. In developing countries, these effects can slow the process of poverty eradication, widen socioeconomic gaps, and generate new urban and rural poverty clusters. Without proactive adaptation and support measures, the economic and social costs of climate-induced poverty will continue to rise, undermining development and stability (IPCC, 2014).

# **Economic Effects of Climate Change on Increased Migration**

Climate change is a significant driver of human migration. In discussions of climate-related population movements, two terms are commonly used: climate migrants and climate refugees. These terms differ in the nature and speed of the climatic events prompting migration. Climate migrants move due to gradual, long-term climate changes, whereas climate refugees are forced to leave their homes due to sudden and extreme environmental events (Keane, 2004). In both cases, migration is motivated by the search for more favorable environmental and climatic conditions.

#### **Economic Motivations for Climate Migration**

A key factor stimulating climate-induced migration is income. When climate change negatively affects livelihoods or reduces living standards, individuals are more likely to migrate (Borjas, 2014). This is particularly relevant in developing countries, where a large share of the population depends on agriculture—a sector highly sensitive to climate change. Reduced agricultural productivity translates directly into lower individual

incomes and weakened economic stability in these societies (Waldinger, 2015).

For instance, studies in India show that excessive heat reduces agricultural incomes and increases rural mortality by 0.75% annually (Burgess et al., 2014). Similarly, in Mexico, each day of extreme heat is associated with a 0.15% increase in mortality (Compean, 2013). Climate-induced reductions in labor productivity also reduce incomes in both the short and long term, impacting physical and cognitive abilities, food consumption, and skills development, particularly for vulnerable populations such as children (Park & Heal, 2014; Aguilar et al., 2011).

Drought is another climate factor affecting livelihoods. It decreases agricultural productivity, increases dust exposure, and threatens human health, productivity, and living standards. For example, severe droughts in southwestern and northern Afghanistan have contributed significantly to internal migration (Munshi, 2003).

#### **Sea-Level Rise and Global Climate Migration**

Rising sea levels pose an even larger threat. According to Norman Myers, more than 200 million people could be at risk of displacement due to sea-level rise (Myers, 2001; Halden, 2015). Globally, a rise of 1–5 meters could endanger the livelihoods of approximately 600 million people living in coastal areas (Smith-Oliver, 2009).

Climate change also directly affects food security, a major driver of migration. The Barilla Foundation and MacroGeo (2017) reported that between 2010 and 2015, 4.5 million people migrated to Central Europe and another 4.5 million to the Mediterranean due to hunger linked to climate change. In Africa, climate impacts over the past 30–40 years have strongly influenced both internal and external migration patterns. Despite possessing 0.9% of the world's freshwater resources, in 2015, 319 million people in sub-Saharan Africa lacked access to freshwater, highlighting the continent's vulnerability. With Africa's population projected to double to 2.4 billion by 2050, pressures on food, water, employment, and stability are expected to intensify, further driving climate migration.

# **Economic Consequences for Sending and Receiving Societies**

Climate-induced migration has profound economic implications for both migrant-sending and receiving regions. For sending societies, the departure of skilled and productive labor reduces economic capacity, lowers growth potential, and imposes long-term costs. Conversely, receiving societies bear socio-economic costs associated with integrating migrants, although they may benefit from an influx of skilled labor.

Moreover, climate migration is linked to broader socioeconomic and environmental pressures, including destruction of infrastructure, reduced labor productivity, diminished agricultural output, decreased water resources, and increased social conflict. All these factors not only motivate migration but also carry significant economic costs for both origin and destination regions.

In summary, climate change acts as a repellent economic mechanism, negatively affecting livelihoods, income, and living standards, thereby stimulating migration. The scale of climate migration is expected to rise in the coming decades, with direct and indirect economic consequences for both migrant-sending and migrant-receiving societies. While the migration of skilled labor can offer opportunities for receiving regions, the overall economic and social costs—particularly for origin regions—are substantial and often irreversible.

#### **Conclusion:**

In general, the economic impact of climate change manifests in multiple dimensions of human life. Considering the vital role of climate in shaping economic activities, the economic effects of climate change must be seen as an integral aspect of the broader climate challenge.

However, these effects are not uniform globally. For some regions, climate change may create economic opportunities, particularly in the context of global economic relations. In contrast, for many developing countries and regions in arid and hot climates, climate change represents a severe crisis, with potentially devastating economic and geopolitical consequences. This disparity arises because adaptation and mitigation measures are often costly, complex, and difficult to implement, especially in regions with challenging geographic, economic, and socio-cultural conditions.

Historically, humans have experienced climate fluctuations, such as extreme heat, cold, drought, floods, and storms, all of which carry financial and economic costs. However, today's climate change is unprecedented in scale and complexity, posing a global threat with far-reaching consequences for economic stability and human livelihoods. The financial costs of climate change will be substantial, affecting sectors such as agriculture, tourism, energy, human health, labor productivity, employment, economic growth, poverty, and migration. While some economies may benefit marginally from certain climate shifts, the overall impact is expected to be largely negative.

From the perspective of economic impacts on the socioeconomic life of human societies, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 1. **Agriculture**: As the foundation of food security and a key contributor to exports, employment, and market stability, agriculture is strategically important. Climate change threatens productivity, food supply, and the economic stability of many countries.
- Tourism: Tourism drives economic activity in both advanced and emerging economies. It facilitates capital flow, creates jobs, reduces spatial inequalities, and improves livelihoods. Climate impacts, such as reduced snowfall, rising sea levels, and extreme weather, jeopardize this sector.
- 3. **Energy**: Adequate and timely energy supply is fundamental to industrial activity and economic growth. Climate-induced disruptions can severely impact production and overall economic development.
- 4. **Human Health**: Health underpins all aspects of socio-economic life. Climate-related health issues—heat stress, malnutrition, disease—directly affect productivity, labor supply, and social welfare.
- Labor Productivity: Productivity determines the vitality and efficiency of the workforce. Reduced productivity leads to stagnation, while increased productivity drives economic growth and development.
- Employment: Employment reflects the health of an economy. Job losses caused by climate shocks hinder economic activity and disrupt social stability, whereas job creation sustains livelihoods and economic vitality.
- 7. **Economic Growth**: Economic growth is the engine of socio-economic development. Declines in growth signal weakening economic activity and can lead to stagnation or socio-economic decline.
- 8. **Poverty**: Poverty is a critical socio-economic issue, often described as a "cancer" of the economy. Climate change exacerbates poverty, undermining human capital, reducing economic participation, and increasing inequality.
- Migration: Migration often becomes a coping mechanism in response to climate-induced economic and environmental challenges. While migration can be a survival strategy, it also imposes costs on both origin and destination regions.

Given the vital and strategic importance of these economic components, addressing the economic impacts of climate

change is a top priority. Failure to do so will result in significant, often irreparable, economic and socio-political costs. Collective action, careful planning, and adaptation strategies are essential to mitigate these risks and safeguard the socio-economic well-being of human societies.

#### References

- 1. Alijani, B., Mahmoudi, P., (2015), "Statistical analysis of climatic histories of desertification in Iran", Journal of Geographical Spase, 15 (51): 19-32. ]In Persian[.
- **2.** Anadolu, A., (2018), "2019 target for tourism is 42 billion dollars", [on line]: https:// www.aa. com. tr/tr/ekonomi/turizmde-2019-hedefi-42-milyar-dolar/1335223.[In Turkish].
- **3.** Başkaya, Y. S., Tuğrul, G., Fethi, Ö., (2008), "Global warming, globalization and food crisis-an empirical study on processed food prices in Turkey", Central Bank Review, 2: 1-32.
- **4.** BCFN, M., (2017), "Food and migration: Understanding the geopolitical nexus in the Euro-Mediterranean", A report from Barilla Center for Food and Nutration Foundation & MacroGeo.
- 5. Bhatt, V., Ekmann, J., Horak, W. C., Wilbanks, T. J., (2008), "Possible indirect effects of climate change on energy production and use in the United States", In: Thomas Wilbanks, Vatsal Bhatt, Daniel Bilello, Stanley Bull, James Ekmann, William Horak, Y. Joe Huang,
- 6. Mark D. Levine, Michael J. Sale, David Schmalzer, and Michael J. Scott, "Effects of Climate Change on Energy Production and Use in the United States (U.S. Climate Change Science Program Synthesis and Assessment Product 4.5)" (pp 49-58), US Department of Energy Publications.
- **7.** Boran, Ş., Sevilmiş, G., (2012), "Global food crisis scares", Izmir Chamber of Commerce R & D Bulletin, (pp 27-31), [In Turkish].
- **8.** Borjas, G., (2014), "Immigration economics", New York: Harvard University Press.
- **9.** Bosello, F., Roson, R., Tol, Richard S. J., (2005), "Economy-wide estimates of the implications of climate change: Human health", Nota di Lavoro, 97: 579-591
- **10.** Bretschger, L., Valente, S., (2011), "Climate change and uneven development", The Scandinavian Journal of Economics, 113: 825-845.

- 11. Burgess, R., Deschenes, O., Donaldson, D., Greenstone, M., (2014), "The unequal effects of weather and climate change: Evidence from mortality in India", [online]: http://econ.lse.ac.uk/staff/rburgess/wp/WD\_master\_140516\_v3.
- **12.** Cayan, D., Luers, A. L., Hanemann, M., Franco, G., Croes, B., (2006), "Scenarios of climate change in California: An overview" (CEC-500-2005-186-SF), A report from California climate change center.
- 13. Chateau, J., Saint-Martin, A., Manfredi, T., (2011), "Employment impacts of climate change mitigation policies in OECD: A general-equilibrium perspective" (OECD Environment Working Papers No. 32), Paris: OECD Publishing.
- 14. Ciscar, J. C., Iglesias, A., Feyen, L., Szabo, L., Van Regemorter, D., Amelung, B., Nicholls, R., Watkiss, P., Christensen, OB., Dankers, R., Garrote, L., Goodess, CM., Hunt, A., Moreno, A., Richards, J., Soria, A., (2011), "Physical and economic consequences of climate change in Europe", Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 108: 2678-2683.
- **15.** Cline, W. R., (2007), "Global warming and agriculture: Impact estimates by country", Peterson Institute: Washington D.C.
- **16.** Costa, H., Floater, G., Hooyberghs, H., Verbeke, S., De Ridder, K., (2016), "Limate change, heat stress and labour productivity: A cost methodology for city economies" (Centre for Climate Change Economics and Policy Working Paper No. 278, Grantham Research
- **17.** Institute on Climate Change and the Environment Working Paper No. 248), London: University of Leesd Press.
- **18.** DARA., (2013), "Climate vulnerability monitor: A guide to the cold calculus of a hot planet", Madrid: DARA International Publication.
- **19.** Darwin, R. F., Tol, S. J., (2001), "Estimates of the economic effects of sea level rise", Environmental and Resource Economics, 19: 113-129.
- **20.** Dellal, İ., (2008), "Agriculture and food sector in climate change and energy squeeze", İGEME'den Bakış, 35: 103-111.
- **21.** Development Initiatives, (2015), "Investments to end poverty", [on line]: http://devinit.org/#!/post/.
- **22.** Beecher, J., (2016), "Climate finance and poverty: Exploring the linkages between climate change and poverty evident in the provision and distribution of

- international public climate finance", A report from Development Initiatives.
- **23.** DFID, (2004), "The impact of climate change on the vulnerability of the poor", A report from Department for International Development.
- **24.** Ebinger, J., Vergara, W., (2011), "Climate impacts on energy systems: Key issues for energy sector adaption", Washington D. C: World Bank Publications.
- **25.** Eboli, F., Parrado, R., Roson, R., (2010), "Climate change feedback on economic growth: Explorations with a dynamic general equilibrium model", Environment and Development Economics, 15: 515-533.
- **26.** Ezzati, M., Lopez, A., Rodgers, A., Murray, C., (2004), "Comparative quantification of health risks: global and regional burden of disease due to selected major risk factors", Geneva: WHO.
- **27.** Fankhauser, S., Tol, S. J., (2005), "On climate change and economic growth", Resource and Energy Economics, 27: 1-17.
- **28.** FAO, (2013), "Food outlook: Biannual report on global food markets", A report fromFAO.
- 29. Flouris, A. D., Dinas, P. C., Ioannou, L. G., Nybo, L., Havenith, G., Kenny, G. P., Kjellstrom, T., (2018), "Workers' health and productivity under occupational heat strain: a systematic review and meta-analysis", Planetary Health, 2: 521-531.
- **30.** GFDRR, (2015), "Managing the impacts of climate change on poverty", [online]: https://www.gfdrr.org/feature-story/managing-impacts-climate-change-poverty.
- **31.** Griffiths, J., Zabey, E., Boffi, A. L., (2009), "Water, energy and climate change: A contribution from the business community", A report from World Business Council for Sustainable Development.
- **32.** Halden. P., (2015), "Geopolitics of climate change: Challenges to the international system", Translated by Ali Valigholizadeh. Maragheh: Maragheh University Press.
- **33.** Hallegatte, S., (2012), "A Fframework to investigate the economic growth impact of sea level rise", Environmental Research Letters, 7: 1-7.
- **34.** Hallegatte, S., Geoffrey, H., Marianne, F, David, T., (2011), "From growth to green growth: A framework", World Bank Policy Research Working Paper, 5872: 1-37.

- **35.** Hallegatte, S., Green, C., Nicholls, R. J., Corfee-Morlot, J., (2013), "Future flood losses in major coastal cities", Nature Climate Change, 9: 802-806.
- 36. Hanson, C. E., Palutikof, J. P., Livermore, T. J., Barring, L., Bindi, M., Corte-Real, J., Durao, R., Giannakopoulos, C., Good, P., Holt, T., Kundzewicz, Z., Leckebusch, G. C., Moriondo, M., Radziejewski, M., Santos, J., Schlyter, P., Schwarb, M., Stjernquist, I., Ulbrich, U., (2007), "Modelling the impact of climate extremes: An overview of the MICE
- **37.** project", Climatic Change, 81: 163-177.
- **38.** Hasegawa, T., (2015), "Economic implications of climate change on human health through undernourishment", The 21st AIM international workshop.

  [Online]:http://wwwiam.nies.go.jp/aim/aim\_workshop/aimws\_21/presentation/s08\_01\_hasegawa.
- **39.** Hasegawa, T., Fujimori, S., Shin, Y., Takahashi, K., Masui, T., Tanaka, A., (2014), "Climate change impact and adaptation assessment on food consumption utilizing a new scenario framework", Environ Sci Technol, 48: 438-445.
- **40.** Hasegawa, T., Fujimori, Sh., Takahashi, K., Yokohata, T., Masui, T., (2016), "Economic implications of climate change impacts on human health through undernourishment", Climatic Change, 136: 189-202.
- **41.** Heal, G.M., Park, J., (2014), "Feeling the heat: temperature, physiology and the wealth of nations" (NBER Working Paper No. 19725), Cambridge: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- **42.** Hutton, G., (2011), "The economics of health and climate change: key evidence for decision making", Globalization and Health, 18: 1-7.
- **43.** ILO (International Labour Organization), (2008), "Promotion of rural employment for poverty reduction", Geneva: ILO.
- **44.** ILO (International Labour Organization), (2018), "World employment and social outlook", [on line]: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/dgreports/dcomm/-publ/documents/publication/wcms\_615594.
- **45.** ILO (International Labour Organization), (2018a), "The employment impact of climate change adaptation Input Document for the G20 Climate Sustainability Working Group", Geneva: International Labour Office.

- **46.** ILO (International Labour Organization), (2018b), "World employment and social outlook 2018: Greening with jobs", Geneva: International Labour Office.
- **47.** IMF, (2008), "World economic outlook April 2008: Housing and the business cycle", Washington, D. C., IMF.
- **48.** IPCC, (2007), "Climate change 2007: Impacts, adaptation and vulnerability"(Contribution of working group II to the fourth assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- **49.** IPCC, (2013), "Climate change 2013: The physical science basis", Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.
- **50.** IPCC, (2014), "Climate change 2014 synthesis report, contribution of working groups I, II and III to the fifth assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change", Geneva: IPCC.
- **51.** Iran chamber of commerce, industries, mines and agriculture, (2018), "Agricultural sector and the necessity of sustainable development in Iran", [on line]:
- **52.** http://tccim.ir/images/Docs/TCCIMirBizReport\_44 4. [In Persian].
- **53.** IRIB News Agency., (2018), "200 MW increase in power consumption in Tehran for each air temperature", [on line]: http://www.iribnews.ir/fa/news/2166347. [
- **54.** Keane, D., (2004), "Environmental causes and consequences of migration: A search for the meaning of environmental refugees", Georgetown International Environmental Law Review,
- **55.** 16: 209-224.
- **56.** Keskin, T., (2011), "Climate change and energy sector", Mühendis ve Makine, 617: 64-69.
- 57. Kibritçioğlu, A., (2011), "Components and complexity of the 2006-2011 global economic crisis", Munich Personal RePEc Archive. [on line]: http:// mpra.ub. unimuenchen. de/ 33515/MPRA \_paper\_33515.
- **58.** Kjellström, T., Briggs, D., Freyberg, C., Lemke, B., Otto, M., Hyatt, O., (2016), "Heat, human performance, and occupational health: A key issue for the assessment of global cimate change impacts", Annual Review of Public Health, 37: 97-112.

- **59.** Kjellström, T., Holmer, I., Lemke, B., (2009), "Workplace heat stress, health and productivity-an increasing challenge for low and middle-income countries during climate change", Global Health Action, 2: 46-50.
- **60.** Kjellström, T., Lemke, B., Otto, M., Hyatt, O., Dear, K., (2014), "Occupational heat stress: contribution to WHO project on Global assessment of the health impacts of climatechange", (Technical Report 2014: 4), Mapua: Health and Environment International Trust.
- **61.** Koubi, V., Bernauer, T., Kalbhenn, A., Spilker, G., (2012), "Climate change, economic growth, and conflict", Journal of Peace Research, 49: 113-127.
- **62.** Lecocq, F., Shazili, Z., (2007), "How might climate change affect economic growth in developing countries? A review of the growth literature with a climate lens" (Policy Research Working Paper No. 4315). Washington, DC: World Bank.
- **63.** Martinez, G. S., Williams, E., Sin Yu, Sh., (2015), "The economics of health damage and adaptation to climate change in Europe: A review of the conventional and grey literature", Climate, 3: 522-541.
- **64.** Miranda, G., Larcombe, G., (2012), "Enabling local green growth: Addressing climate change effects on employment and local development" (LEED Working Papers Series), OECD Publishing.
- 65. Morrison, W. N., Mendelsohn, R., (2004), "The impact of global warming on US energy expenditure", In: R. Mendelsohn, J. E. Neumann, "The Impacts of Climate Change on the United States Economy", (pp 209-236), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- **66.** Munich Re., (2018), "Topics geo natural catastrophes 2017 analyses, assessments, positions", Report by the Munich Re Group, München: Munich Re.
- **67.** Myers, N., (2001), "Environmental refugees: a growing phenomenon of the 21st century", London: R.Soc.
- **68.** ODI., (2015), "Zero poverty, zero emissions: Eradicating extreme poverty in the climate crisis". Jon line]: https://www.odi.org/publications/9690-zero-povertyzero-emissionseradicatingextreme-poverty-climate-crisis.
- **69.** Oecd/Martinez-Fernandez, C., Hinojosa, C., Miranda, G., (2010), "Gren jobs and skills: The local labour market implications of addressing

- climate change", Working Document, CFE/LEED, OECD. [Online]: www.oecd.org/dataoecd/54/43/44683169.pdf?cont e ntId=
- **70.** 44683170.
- **71.** Olsen, L., (2009), "The employment effects of climate change and climate change responses: A role for international labour standards"?, International Labor Office Discussion Paper, 12: 1-28.
- **72.** Özdemir, E., (2008), "A measure against the effects of global warming", Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences of Gazi University, 10: 141-162.
- 73. Porter, J. R., Xie, L., Challinor, A. J., Cochrane, K., Howden, S. M., Iqbal, M. M., Lobell, D. B., Travasso, M. I., (2014), "Food security and food production systems", In: IPCC, "Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part A: Global and Sectoral Aspects", (pp 485-533), Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.
- **74.** Reti, M. J., PECL., (2007), "An assessment of the impact of climate change on agriculture and food security in the pacific: A case study in Vanuatu", A report prepared forFAO SAPA. Apia: Samoa.
- **75.** Rodrick, D., (1998), "Where did all the growth go? External shocks, social conflict, and growth collapse", Journal of Economic Growth, 4: 385-407.
- **76.** Sarafroozeh, F., Jalali, M., Jalali, T., Jamali, A., (2014), Assesment of climet change impacts on water use of wheat crop in Tabriz, Journal of Geographical Spase, 12 (37): 81-96.
- 77. Smith, K. R., Woodward, A., Campbell-Lendrum, D., Chadee, D. D. Honda, Y., Liu, Q., Olwoch, J. M., Revich, B., Sauerborn, R., (2014), "Human health: impacts, adaptation, and co-benefits", In: IPCC, "Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability. Part
- **78.** A: Global and Sectoral Aspects", (pp. 709-754), Cambridge and New York: Cambridge University Press.
- **79.** Stern, N., (2007), "The Economics of Climate Change: The Stern Review", Cambridge:Cambridge University Pres.
- **80.** Tabnak news site., (2018), "Power consumption record", [on line]: https:// www. tabnak. ir/fa/news/813551.

- **81.** The World Bank., (2016), "Shock waves: Managing the impacts of climate change on poverty". [On line]: https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/1098 6/22787.
- **82.** Tol, R. J., (2009), "The economic effects of climate change", Journal of Economic Perspectives, 23: 29-51.
- **83.** Tol, R. J., (2013), "The economic impact of climate change in the 20th and 21st centuries", Clim Chang, 117: 795-808.
- **84.** U.S. Department of Energy., (2013), "U.S. energy sector vulnerabilities to climate change and extreme weather", New York: US Department of Energy's Office of Policy and International Affairs.
- **85.** UNWTO., (2003), "Climate change and tourim", 1st international conference on climate change and tourism, Tunisia. [Online]: http:// sdt. unwto. org/sites/all/files/pdf/tunisia\_finrep\_en.
- **86.** UNWTO., (2007), "Tourism and climate change confronting the common challenges", [Online]: http://sdt.unwto.org/sites/all/files/docpdf/docuconf rontinge.
- **87.** UNWTO., (2008), "Climate change and tourism responding to global challenges", Madrid: World Tourism Organization.
- **88.** Waldinger, M., (2015), "The effects of climate change on internal and international migration: Implications for developing countries", London: School of Economics and Political Science.
- **89.** Watkiss, P., Hunt, A., (2012), "Projection of economic impacts of climate change in sectors of Europe based on bottom up analysis: human health", Clim Chang, 112: 101-126.
- **90.** Weiss, H., Bradley, R., (2001), "What drives societal collapse?", Science, 291: 609-610.
- **91.** World Bank., (2010), "World development report 2010: Development and climate Change", Washington D.C: World Bank Publications.
- **92.** World Bank., (2018), "Employment in agriculture". [on line]: https://data. worldbank. org/indicator/SL.AGR.EMPL.ZS.
- **93.** World Bank., (2018a), "Climate change and health". [on line]: https:// www. worldbank.org/en/topic/climatechangeandhealth.
- **94.** World Travel & Tourism Council., (2018), "Travel and tourism economic impact 2018".[on line]: https://www.wttc.org/-

- /media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2018/world2018
- 95. Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR, Dr. Ramazan Ahmadi, Muaiyid Rasooli PhD, & Lec. Abdul Jamil Sharify. (2025). Examining Diplomacy for Environmental Sustainability in Interaction with Artificial Intelligence. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 8, ss. 88-92). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1690294
- 96. Yawar, M. E., & Sadat, S. A. (2025). Problems of Using Artificial Intelligence as a Judge in Legal Proceedings. Akademik Tarih ve Düşünce Dergisi, 12(1), 403-420. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15627539
- 97. Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR, Dr. Ramazan Ahmadi, Muaiyid Rasooli PhD, & Lec. Abdul Jamil Sharify. (2025). In the National and International Policy-Making System: The Place of Environmental Protection. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 8, ss. 93-100). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1690296
- 98. Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD, & Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR. (2025). Examining the Position and Role of Biotechnology in the Development of International Environmental Law. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 1, ss. 26-36). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688640
- 99. Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD, & Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR. (2025). Systematic Literature Review Talent Management, Succession Planning and Organizational Sustainability. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 1, ss. 1-7). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688651
- 100. Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD, & Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR. (2025). International Law and Nuclear Right. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 1, ss. 8-12). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688638 6
- **101.** Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD, & Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR. (2025). The Status and

- Provisional Implementation of International Treaties in International Organizations. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 1, ss. 18-25). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.16886404
- 102. Ekram Yawar, M., Abdul Sharify, J., & Abdullah Sadat, S. (2025). Artificial Intelligence and International Peace and Security. Acta Globalis Humanitatis Et Linguarum, 2(2), 49-61. https://doi.org/10.69760/aghel.02500205
- **103.** Ekram Yawar, M. (2025). Long-Term Change in International Relations. *Porta Universorum*, *1*(2), 13-22. https://doi.org/10.69760/portuni.010202
- 104. Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR, & Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD. (2025). A Review of International Relations and (Civilizational Theorizing). Içinde GRS Journal of Arts and Educational Sciences (C. 1, Sayı 2, ss. 44-52). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688597
- 105. Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR, & Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD. (2025). In the Theories of International Relations and Geopolitics: The Study of Location (The Concept of Conflict). Içinde GRS Journal of Arts and Educational Sciences (C. 1, Sayı 2, ss. 53-60). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688599
- 106. Prof, Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR, & Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD,. (2025). In the International Foreign Policy of Countries: Soft War of Satellite Networks in Fluidity. Içinde GRS Journal of Arts and Educational Sciences (C. 1, Sayı 2, ss. 61-68). GRS
  Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688600
- 107. Mohammad, E. Y. (2025). The Place of Culture in International Relations Theories. *EuroGlobal Journal of Linguistics and Language Education*, 2(2), 105-123. https://doi.org/10.69760/egjlle.2500191
- 108. Dr. Mehmet Uçkaç, PhD, & Dr. Mohammad Ekram YAWAR. (2025). Examining the Position and Role of Biotechnology in the Development of International Environmental Law. Içinde GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies (C. 2, Sayı 1, ss. 26-36). GRS Publisher. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1688640

- **109.** Ekram Yawar, M. (2025). An Overview of Refugee Rights In International Documents. *Global Spectrum of Research and Humanities*, 2(1), 76-86. https://doi.org/10.69760/gsrh.01012025010
- 110. Mohammad. M. Moradi & Dr. Mohammad. E. YAWAR, Environmental Study: Green Facade and Its Impact on Human Life, and Its Role in Sustainable Architecture (2025) GRS Journal of Arts and Educational Sciences, Vol-1(Iss-3).18-24 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17141580
- 111. Prof. Dr. Mohammad E.YAWAR & Mohammad M. Moradi, International Law and Ecocide (2025) GRS Journal of Arts and Educational Sciences, Vol-1(Iss-3).25-
  - 33 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17141602
- **112.** Mohammad. M. Moradi & Dr. Mohammad. E. YAWAR, Investigating the provision of a suitable model for the development of Internet of Things technologies in the field of environmental and

- energy issues in order to progress and achieve long-term development goals (2025) GRS Journal of Arts and Educational Sciences, Vol-1(Iss-3).34-46 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17160358
- 113. Prof. Dr. Mohammad E. YAWAR, Dr. Ramazan. A., Dr. N. Morad, Mohammad. M. Moradi, Mohammad. K. Amini , A Review of the Continuation of Global Citizenship and the Move towards Universal Rights, with Emphasis on Solidarity (2025) GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies, Vol-2(Iss-9).106-114 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17142174
- **114.** Prof. Dr. M. Ekram YAWAR & Mohammad. M. Moradi, Human Health Impacts of Global Climate Change and Its Effects (2025) GRS Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Studies, Vol-2(Iss-9).101-
  - 105 https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17141532