



Co-benefits Annex

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What do we know from the academic literature on co-benefits?

Mitigating and adapting to climate change carry numerous forms of co-benefits to society over and above the avoidance of the damaging impacts of climate change. However, the extent to which these benefits are realised depends on the solutions chosen, and the design of policies to achieve the transition. Here, we review the academic evidence that explores a range of co-benefits and reflect on literature highlighting how they may be better integrated into climate decision making.



Health & air pollution

It is well evidenced that climate policy measures across sectors can have significant positive impacts on people's health, increasing life expectancy, reducing inequalities in health impacts and reducing costs for healthcare provision. In buildings, there is evidence suggesting that the improved insulation of dwellings when combined with measures to improve ventilation can improve occupants' respiratory health as well as carrying significant mental health benefits (Jensen et al., 2013; Osman et al., 2010; Wilkinson et al., 2001). In the food sector, diets with lower calorific intake and shifts towards plant-based diets have the potential to reduce food related emissions whilst making diets healthier (Clark et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2017; Richi et al., 2015). In travel and mobility, shifts towards active travel away from motorised transport could support healthier lifestyles (Chapman et al., 2018; Jarrett et al., 2012; Laverty et al., 2013; Tainio et al., 2016; Woodcock et al., 2013) and reduce transport-related health burdens that disproportionately impact lower income areas (Fecht et al., 2015). Broadly, the health benefits of transitions have been found to disproportionately benefit lower income and disadvantaged communities (Wang et al., 2020).

A final key source of health benefits, and a key co-benefit of climate transitions, is the improvement in air pollution levels. A key source of air pollution mitigated by transitions to net-zero stem from the phasing out of internal combustion engine vehicles, with shifts to electrified private and public transport and active travel, in addition to air pollutants caused by waste sites, and fuel combustion within the home (Gouldson et al., 2018). The Government Office for Science, in a Foresight project examining the social change required to achieve net-zero emissions, found in a wide range of scenarios significant reductions in all air pollutants (Government Office for Science, 2023). In all scenarios air pollutants are at least halved by 2030 and reduced by ~90% by 2050. This level of reduction in particulate pollution has significant health implications. Globally, Shindell et al. (2018) found that decarbonisation could lead to 153 million fewer air pollution related premature deaths between 2020 and 2100. Greenstone et al. (2022) found that if the World Health Organisation's targets on particulate matter are met, 2.2 years could be added to the global average life expectancy.

These co-benefits are of the most common to be included within policy assessments and thus policy decision-making on pursuing climate policies. This is largely due to the existence of established methodologies to monetise the health and air pollution implications of policies and integrate them into cost-benefits analysis tools already used by policy makers to evaluate policy.

Nature and wider environmental benefits

Beyond air pollution, there are many co-benefits that can be yielded for the wider environment through climate action strategies and policies. We already know that mitigating climate change to limit temperature rises to minimum levels has significant benefits to other ecological indicators, such as biodiversity, ocean acidification and water availability, amongst other impacts (IPCC Working Group 2, 2022). But, beyond the benefits of limiting temperature increases, mitigation and adaptation strategies can also carry important benefits in and of themselves to nature and the environment.

When it comes to nature and the environment, the ways in which we use land differently, to both mitigate and adapt to the impacts of climate change, carry significant co-benefits for the environment. For example, reductions in the consumption of meat and reductions in food waste can help to reduce the eutrophication and erosion of soils, whilst also reducing a key source of methane (Clark et al., 2022; Garvey et al., 2021; Sakadevan & Nguyen, 2017). Similarly, land use policy, such as allocating a greater share of land to forestry, can increase carbon sinks, whilst also supporting adaptation and resilience to climate impacts by acting as a flood defence (Green et al., 2021).

Whilst land use and agriculture strategies carry significant opportunities to unlock nature and environment co-benefits, other strategies also have the potential to improve environmental outcomes. In cities, pedestrianisation and the reduction of car transportation, and increased green space and tree cover can help to a) reduce cities carbon footprint, b) increase the liveability of urban spaces as temperatures rise, and c) improve the biodiversity of urban areas. In industry, resource efficiency and waste reduction strategies that reduce the material throughput of societies will reduce the ecological strain placed on environments.



Prosperity and economy

The economic impacts of climate policies are often used as key arguments both in favour of mitigation options, and as possible costs to the transition. However, to contextualise the economic co-benefits for climate action fully, one must consider the costs of inaction on climate change to properly compare the benefits, something rarely done in assessments of climate policy. Benayad et al. (2025) found that given expected rates of warming with current policies (3°C by 2100), cumulative economic output by 2100 would be reduced by 15% to 34%, compared with a counterfactual of limiting warming to 2°C. Once adding in the economic costs of limiting temperature rises to below 2°C, (1-2% of GDP per year), the net-cost of inaction sits at 11% to 27% of cumulative GDP by 2100.

This work presents a clear economic case for climate action, and a high return on investments in mitigation and adaptation measures. However, in policy impact assessments seeking to understand the costs and benefits of proposed policies, it is rare for the ‘do-nothing scenario’ to incorporate the costs of inaction on climate change. Thus, the economic benefits of climate policies are understated, emphasising their financial cost rather than their benefit.

In the UK, supplementary guidance to the HM Treasury’s ‘Green Book’ on policy appraisal was published in 2024, aiming to integrate climate impacts into policy appraisal processes (HM Treasury, 2024a). This approach aims to include the potential impacts of climate change on both baseline scenarios and the policy scenarios included within the appraisal processes. This is a positive step to contextualise economic co-benefits of acting against a baseline that includes climate impacts.

However, as noted by Benayad et al. (2025), there exists a temporal mismatch of costs and benefits in acting to mitigate climate change, where the bulk of the costs are required in the next 10-25 years but yield delayed benefits in the second half of the century, given that future benefits are often heavily discounted. This problem is exacerbated by the prioritisation of short-term goals, such as elections or profits, which are less likely to be impacted by differences in climate impacts between scenarios of mitigation.

Beyond changes to the total level of economic output implied by climate (in)action, there are other opportunities to realise economic co-benefits from climate policy, pertaining more closely to their design. For example, to achieve a fair transition that facilitates high levels of wellbeing for all, the need to use climate policy to help to reduce levels of inequality in society is argued to be central to a just transition (Betts-Davies et al., 2024; Millward-Hopkins & Johnson, 2023; Owen & Barrett, 2020). Climate policies that target energy uses that are strongly correlated with income, and are currently very unequal, such as frequent flier levies, are likely to be inherently progressive (Büchs & Mattioli, 2022). Similarly, if access to highly efficient technologies is improved, it could have a disproportionately beneficial impact on poorer households, due to being far more likely to be living in lower efficiency housing, whilst spending a disproportionately high percentage of their income on energy bills (Middlemiss & Gillard, 2015; Millward-Hopkins & Johnson, 2023). Importantly, many factors around the design (Millward-Hopkins & Johnson, 2023) and funding of (Owen & Barrett, 2020) climate policy will determine the ability to unlock these positive co-benefits.



Social and wellbeing

Whilst the evidence of the impact of climate policy on physical co-benefits (air pollution, health, physical exercise etc) is well documented in the academic literature, there is less evidence exploring the implications for social dimensions of wellbeing, such as social cohesion, personal security or political stability (Creutzig et al., 2022). Despite this, there are some key measures that are likely to have significant socio-cultural impacts. Gendered aspects to energy poverty, such as lower average incomes, greater share of single adult households with or without children, and a greater responsibility for domestic energy service use (Clancy et al., 2017; Kooijman et al., 2023; Schubert et al., 2025), are all aspects that can be addressed through climate mitigation policy that seeks to increase the affordability of domestic energy service access or improve the thermal efficiency of domestic dwellings. Social cohesion could be improved through the design of compact cities and urban systems that seeks to integrate important services into communities, requiring them to travel less and thus use less energy (Creutzig et al., 2022; Raman, 2010). Finally, teleworking may have positive social co-benefits by freeing up leisure time, but carries risk of social isolation if face-to-face contact with others is omitted (Creutzig et al., 2022; Golden et al., 2008).

Crucially, these socio-cultural co-benefits are contingent not only of the specific climate policy direction chosen, but also their design to account for and target the unlocking of these benefits. Assessing these benefits, to make a case for them in policy assessments is a challenging task, given they do not neatly fit into the monetised cost-benefit analyses that are able to better capture some of the physical co-benefits discussed above. As such, more qualitative decision-making tools, such as that described in case study 2 (Braunholtz-Speight, 2024; Gilbertson, 2021), have been developed to consider these important social aspects in policy design.

Aligning policy areas with climate benefits: co-benefits can work both ways

There is also evidence in the literature that climate benefits, be those through reducing emissions to mitigate climate change or adapting to the impacts of climate change, can result from policies with the primary intention of achieving other policy objectives. Karlsson et al. (2020) categorise these as one of three taxonomic types of co-benefits: those that occur because of climate policy (type 1); climate co-benefits occurring because of policy in other areas (type 2); and ‘benefit synergies’ resulting from policy with multiple objectives (type 3). While this analysis has primarily focused on type 1 co-benefits, it is equally important to consider how policies aimed at other objectives may generate benefits or trade-offs that impact the climate agenda.

Examples of type 2 co-benefits could be, for example, the reduction in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions generated by a speed reduction policy primarily designed to increase public safety and reduce traffic (Perez-Prada & Monzon, 2017). Similarly, ensuring these reverse co-benefits are assessed is crucial when developing energy security policy (Chaturvedi, 2016). There are various ways in which energy security could be achieved, both through increasing domestic renewable production and reducing energy demand or through increasing domestic fossil fuel production (Jewell et al., 2016). Thus, integrating and aligning policy areas by understanding and designing policies to maximise the positive interactions between those areas is important in achieving multiple objectives.

Further literature can be accessed through the co-benefits and trade-offs tool developed by the University of Leeds and the Met Office. It can be accessed here: <https://priestleycentre.shinyapps.io/climatecobenefitsportal/>

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