

# **Effects of Carbon Dioxide and Nitrogen Oxides on Climate Change in Afghanistan**

#### **Mairaj Kha[n](https://orcid.org/0009-0000-3371-2678)**

Faculty of Curative Medicine, Ahmad Shah Abdali Institute of Higher Education, Khost, Afghanistan †Corresponding author: Mairaj Khan; [mairajszu@gmail.com](mailto:mairajszu@gmail.com)

**Nat. Env. & Poll. Tech. Website: www.neptjournal.com**

*Received:* 18-01-2024 *Revised:* 26-02-2024 *Accepted:* 10-03-2024

**Key Words:**

Climate change Carbon dioxide Nitrogen oxides Greenhouse effect Afghanistan

# **ABSTRACT**

Climate change is a global threat to the environment and human health. Two of the main greenhouse gases that cause the greenhouse effect and raise global temperatures are carbon dioxide and nitrogen oxides. In this review paper, we investigated the effects of carbon dioxide and nitrogen oxides on climate change and the effects of climate change on Afghanistan. We found that high concentrations of carbon dioxide, which is now  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ levels, have increased by 50% than before the Industrial Revolution, contributing to a rise in global temperature and precipitation. At the same time, Nitrous oxide is an important greenhouse gas, with 310-fold higher potential for global warming than  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and leads to the depletion of stratospheric Ozone and other Nitrogen oxides, has a significant impact on plant health, including effects on chlorophyll levels, oxidative stress, and antioxidant responses. Afghanistan's climate change is predicted to increase the country's prevalence of illnesses linked to dust storms and poor air quality, especially in Kabul, the nation's capital. In addition, air pollution in Kabul is also likely to increase as a result of climate change. The alarming impacts of air pollution, with more than 3,000 deaths attributed to air pollution annually. Additionally, at least 700,000 individuals in Kabul have experienced various respiratory diseases. Due to climate change, Afghanistan's total glacier area has shrunk by 13.8%. In 2023, Afghanistan experienced early snow melt and below-average precipitation, causing second-season and irrigated crops to have less access to water. Reducing emissions and coping with the changing climate are essential steps towards tackling the complex issues these gases present and their wider effects on the environment and human health.

# **INTRODUCTION**

The change in temperature, rainfall, wind, and other elements with time is known as climate change (MacCracken 2019). Many gases pass the incoming sunlight through them and heat the land and oceans. This heat is released by the Earth in the Infrared region of radiation to space. These gases absorb the Infrared radiation and do not allow the infrared radiation to pass to space and radiate it back to the Earth, and the temperature of the Earth rises. This effect is called the Greenhouse effect (Doll et al. 2011). The Earth is heated by the greenhouse effect, which causes it to be warmer than it would be if sunlight were straight overhead. The proof for the greenhouse effect is the 33°C difference between the actual average temperature of 14°C and the effective temperature with sunlight, which is -19<sup>o</sup>C. The major gases that impart the Greenhouse effect are  $CO_2$ , N<sub>2</sub>O, CH<sub>4</sub>, Water vapors, and CFC. These gases have more than two atoms, joined together loosely, and can vibrate by absorbing the heat (Kweku et al. 2018). The Greenhouse Effect is shown in Fig. 1.

Earth's average temperature has increased by 1℃ since 1900. Since 1850, the previous four decades have

continuously been warmer than any other, despite trend variations, as shown in the instrumental record Fig. 2. Other evidence like reduction in Arctic sea content, elevation in ocean heat content, and evidence from the natural world show strong proof of the Earth's warming (National Academy of Sciences 2020).

Since about 1750, human activity has increased the concentration of greenhouse gases. Both the atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  and N<sub>2</sub>O concentrations in 2019 were higher than they had been in at least 2 million years and 800,000 years, respectively. Climate extremes such as heat waves, intense precipitation, droughts, and tropical cyclones are being impacted by climate change brought on by human activity. Human health is impacted by climate change in both direct and indirect ways. Direct effects include injury and even death from hurricanes and heat waves. In contrast, indirect effects include changes in temperature and precipitation that can disrupt the life cycles of insects that spread the West Nile virus and Lyme disease, resulting in a variety of new outbreaks. Climate change frequently coexists with additional health stressors such as poverty, social hardship, and linguistic impairment, causing heightened susceptibility



Fig. 1: The greenhouse effect. Fig. 1: The greenhouse effect.



Fig. 2: Annual global surface temperature (1850-2019). Fig. 2: Annual global surface temperature (1850-2019).

(McMichael & Woodruff 2005). The consequences of climate change on water resources have been well-documented, and it is expected that these resources will be seriously threatened in the future on a regional and worldwide scale. (Shokory et al. 2023).

The expected effects of climate change in Afghanistan are concerning. Raising temperatures are predicted to have a major effect on the country's ecosystems, agriculture, economy, biodiversity, and food security. Even with limited greenhouse gas emissions, Afghanistan will face significant challenges in adapting to these changes. However, if GHG rather the standard. (Savage e emissions are not curbed, the effects of global warming are probably going to be considerably more extreme and unpredictable, exacerbating the existing adaptation deficit in the country areas (Aich & Khoshbeen 2016). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), in Afghanistan, section for this purpose.

26% of total mortality is attributed to environmental risks on water resources have been well-documented, and and pollution (Masood et al. 2022). Based on the INFORM problem the concentration of greenhouse gases gases with the concentration of greenhouse gases. Both we concentrate 2019 Index, Afghanistan is ranked as the fifth most at-risk country globally, meaning it faces the highest levels of natural disaster hazards. (Climate Risk Country Profile 23). Afghanistan 2021). Climate models suggest that Afghanistan expected effects of climate change in Arguanistan<br>extra will experience an array of novel and amplified climaterelated risks. In Afghanistan, drought is the most likely negative effect of climate change. By 2030, drought will no longer be considered an isolated or cyclical occurrence but rather the standard. (Savage et al. 2009).

In this review paper, we investigated the effects of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ and nitrogen oxides on climate change and the effects of ctable, exacerbating the existing adaptation deficit climate change on Afghanistan. We reviewed most of the reports, research articles, authenticated web pages, and books section for this purpose.



#### **EFFECTS OF CARBON DIOXIDE ON CLIMATE CHANGE**

Without  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ , the Earth's natural greenhouse effect would be insufficient to keep the global average temperature above freezing. As individuals release more  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  into the atmosphere, the global temperature rises (Lindsey 2023). For the previous 800,000 years up until the 20th century, the atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  content varied between 170 and 300 ppm (National Academy of Sciences 2020). According to the NOAA Monitoring Lab annual report, the global average  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  was 417.06 ppm in 2022, setting a new high record. Compared to before the Industrial Revolution, atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is currently 50% greater (Lindsey 2023).  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  is the largest contributor to global warming, emitted from various sources to the environment like, the combustion of fuels, transportation, and industrialization processes (Thiruvenkatachari et al. 2009). The major sources of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ have been given in Table 1 (Yoro & Daramola 2020).

To keep atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  levels in equilibrium, the Earth's natural mechanisms for absorbing and storing  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ are crucial. These procedures, including photosynthesis in plants and absorption by the ocean, have been a component of the carbon cycle for millions of years, which regulates  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  levels. However, human activities like Deforestation and the burning of fossil fuels have disrupted these processes, resulting in a persistent increase in atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration. This increase in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  has led to global warming and climate change (Nunes 2023). For the next 1000 years, climate change caused by a rise in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration is largely irreversible (Solomon et al. 2009).  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  acts like a blanket in the air, trapping the heat, warming up the Earth, and preventing the Earth from cooling (Ali et al. 2020). Even if global average temperatures stabilize at some point, rising  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations have a direct impact on the climate system and may have an ongoing impact on Earth (Harvey 2018). Destructive storms intensify and increase in frequency throughout various regions as temperatures rise. Due rise



in temperature, more water evaporates, which exacerbates heavy rainfall and flooding. By warming the ocean, the extent and frequency of the tropical storm are also affected. Warm water at the ocean's surface provides fuel to hurricanes, typhoons, and cyclones (UN n.d.). Many researchers have shown the inhibitory effects of different heat stresses in crop plants. It is an essential environmental pressure that restrains plant growth and development and disturbs its several metabolic and physiological activities, hence rendering yield production at the global level (Javadmohammadi et al. 2013). Due to human activities,  $30\%$  to  $40\%$  of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted into the atmosphere dissolves into the oceans (Millero 1995), where CO<sub>2</sub> reacts with seawater and has increased its acidity to 0.1 pH since the pre-industrial era. The terrestrial biosphere absorbs about 20% of the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions caused by human activity. Here, it combines with soil moisture to modify soil acidity, meaning that  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  can make the air, soil, and ocean more acidic (Mitchell et al. 2010). Numerous ocean species are already being impacted by ocean acidification, particularly those that combine calcium and carbonates from seawater to form hard shells and skeletons.

Ocean acidification reduces the amount of carbonate ions available for calcifying organisms to form their shells, skeletons, and other calcium carbonate structures by increasing the carbonate ions' link with excess hydrogen (NOAA 2020). The lower pH also affects the senses of reef fishes and reduces their survival, and might target most of the commercial fishes that produce seafood for humans (Branch et al. 2013). The start and end of growing seasons have changed due to warmer temperatures and shifting precipitation patterns. There is a high degree of confidence that this has decreased regional crop yield, freshwater availability, and biodiversity. There is a medium degree of confidence that the increase in atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  has contributed to the observed increase in plant development and woody plant cover in grasslands and savannahs (Shukla et al. 2019). However, studies have found that this accelerated



Adapted from Yoro & Daramola (2020)

growth under elevated  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  can lead to a dilution of essential nutrients in crops. When plants grow faster, they allocate more carbon to structural components like stems and leaves rather than to nutrients such as protein, vitamins, and minerals. As a result, the concentration of these vital nutrients in staple crops can decrease. For example, research has shown that elevated  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  levels can reduce the protein content of wheat and barley, making them less nutritious.

Similarly, increased  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  can lower the iron and zinc content in rice, which are important micronutrients for human health. Potatoes, another staple crop, may experience reduced vitamin C content when exposed to higher  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ concentrations (Ebi & Ziska 2018). Rising atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ levels, rising temperatures, and shifting precipitation patterns cause significant effects on agriculture and agricultural insect pests. Climate change has the potential to increase the risk of invasion by migratory pests, increase the incidence of insect-transmitted plant diseases, increase the number of generations, increase the geographic distribution, increase survival during overwintering, change plant-pest synchrony, and alter interspecific interaction. It can also decrease the efficacy of biological control of agricultural pests. As a result, there is a significant chance that the crop will suffer financial losses, which poses a threat to global food security for humans (Skendžić et al. 2021).  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  also causes acidic rain, which physically harms the trees and builds the environment (Ali et al. 2020).

Along the glacial to interglacial cycles when humans first appeared,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations in the atmosphere ranged between 135 and 280 ppm. Human blood's pH during this time narrowly varied between 7.35 and 7.45 for arterial and venous blood, respectively. Humans are now exposed to atmospheric  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations that have never before been experienced by mammals or humans due to the recent increase in  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration, which is currently over 400 ppm. Similar to the pH drop in the ocean that happened during the Industrial Revolution, this suggests a minor drop in blood pH below the 7.35-7.45 typical performance range for the human proteome. (Duarte et al. 2020). High  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ concentrations may have negative effects on human health that are more frequent and persistent due to higher indoor air concentrations and longer indoor exposure times (Jacobson et al. 2019). There were noticeable immediate physiological alterations in the circulatory and autonomic systems with exposure to  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  at concentrations between 500 and 5000 ppm. (Azuma et al. 2018). People's decreased lung gas transport in response to  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  retention is strongly suggested to be the cause of the decline in cognitive function. (Shriram et al. 2019). It is unclear if  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  by itself is a pollutant and whether it can be harmful to health at low concentrations

 $(\leq 5000 \text{ ppm})$ . However, according to current criteria,  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  levels can be used to measure the quality of indoor air; values below 1000 ppm are deemed good, while levels above 1500 ppm are deemed poor. High  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  levels can cause discomfort and reduced cognitive function and can also indicate poor ventilation and the accumulation of other pollutants. Therefore, it is important to monitor and control  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  levels to ensure healthy indoor environments (Lowther et al. 2021).

### **EFFECTS OF NITROGEN OXIDES ON CLIMATE CHANGE**

Nitrogen, a chemical element, can exist as a diatomic molecular  $(N_2)$  nitrogen gas, which is mostly inert and makes up 80% of the air we breathe. However, as a single atom, nitrogen can be reactive and have several valence states from  $+1$  to  $+5$ , resulting in the formation of multiple oxides of nitrogen ( $NO_x$ ), including  $N_2O$ ,  $NO$ ,  $N_2O_2$ ,  $N_2O_3$ ,  $NO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>$ , and  $N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>$  (Cox 1999). Climate, air quality, and atmospheric chemistry are all significantly influenced by Nitrogen oxides. Both human activities and natural processes emit them into the atmosphere. Naturally occurring wildfires, microbial activity in soil, and lightning are among the natural sources of Nitrogen oxide emissions. Fossil fuel combustion, home heating, cooking, industry, and the energy sector are the primary producers of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$ . (Lange et al. 2022). In the air, the most abundant nitrogen oxides are  $N_2O$ , NO, and  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  (Cox 1999).

It is considered that  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  is an indirect greenhouse gas, while  $N_2O$  is a direct greenhouse gas (Lasek & Lajnert 2022). Nitrous oxide is a significant greenhouse gas with a global warming potential 310 times larger than  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  (Aryal et al. 2022). The use of nitrogen fertilizers and manures in agricultural soils has raised the concentration of  $N_2O$  over the past century, and these activities are the primary human sources of N<sub>2</sub>O (Skiba & Rees 2014). Over time, the amount of  $N<sub>2</sub>O$  in the atmosphere keeps rising. Furthermore, it has increased annually during the past decade, averaging 1.1 ppb.yr<sup>-1</sup>. The N<sub>2</sub>O values for 2020, 2021, and 2022 represent some of the fastest annual rises yet noted. Between 1990 and now,  $N<sub>2</sub>O$  has increased radiative forcing by 0.086 to 0.81 Watts.m<sup>-2</sup>, or almost 7.5% (NOAA 2022). In the troposphere,  $N<sub>2</sub>O$  is an inert gas with no substantial sinks near the Earth's surface. However,  $N_2O$  is carried into the stratosphere where it is primarily broken down by short-wavelength photolysis to produce atomic Oxygen (O) and molecular Nitrogen  $(N_2)$ . The primary source of nitrogen oxides in the stratosphere is the dissociation of  $N_2O$  to a lesser extent into nitric oxide (NO), yet the proportion is less than 10%. (Müller 2021). In the stratosphere, NO reacts with Ozone  $(O_3)$  and forms



Fig. 3: Chemistry of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  in the troposphere (Richter 2009).

nitrogen dioxide  $(NO_2)$  and  $(O_2)$ .  $NO_2$  is photolyzed and which were previously the dominant contributor to decree  $NO_2$  and  $(NO_2)$ .  $NO_2$  is decreed to decline when nitrogen deposition levels respectively. forms NO and an oxygen atom (O) again (Lange et al. 2022). A greater concentration of  $N<sub>2</sub>O$  leads to an increased  $2022$ ). A greater concentration of N<sub>2</sub>O leads to an increased modificantled countries. A simplified picture of the concentration of NO<sub>x</sub>, which destroys the stratospheric ozone of NO<sub>x</sub> in the troposphere is shown in F layer. Due to this ozone depletion, UV radiation enhances  $\frac{1}{20}$  Prant species diversity often begins to decline and photolyzed more N<sub>2</sub>O (Ehhalt & Prather 2001). The nitrogen deposition levels rise over 5-10 kgN. Ozone layer acts as a natural filter, collecting UV radiation from the Sun and keeping it from reaching the surface of **expected** adapted to nitrogen deprivation in olig the Earth. However, alterations to the ozone layer have led to a rise in the percentage of UV-B radiation that reaches  $\theta$  effects, such as soil enrichment, eutrophication the surface. This increase can have negative effects on biological life and processes, as well as on non-living things like building materials made of polymers. (Umar & Tasduq 2022). Additionally, the release of nitrogen oxides into the atmosphere leads to a rise in tropospheric Ozone  $(O_3)$ and Particulate Matter (PM). The emissions of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  play a significant influence in the generation of  $(O_3)$ , one of the most important air pollutants impacting human health. Since 1900 the increase in  $O_3$  is 60% due to an increase emission of NO<sub>x</sub> production of Particulate Matter (PM) aerosols and production of Particulate Matter (PM) aerosols and production of Particulate Matter (PM) aerosols and pr (de Vries 2021). PM precursors include  $NO_x$ ,  $NH_3$ , and  $SO_2$ pollutants that have a direct impact on human health and are  $\frac{1}{\text{pre}}$  recursor to the generation of Ozone in the trops partially converted into pollutant particles in the atmosphere by photochemical processes (Lovarelli et al. 2020). by photosynthesis, and lower agricultural output. In

Nitric acid  $(HNO<sub>3</sub>)$  is produced when  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  combines with hydroxyl ions (OH); aerosols and droplets can readily production of (PM) aerosols. Ammonium nitrate absorb this compound.  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  is a strong acid and can readily dissociate in water to release  $H^+$  ions, contributing be more concentrated when NO<sub>x</sub> is present in the pro to the acidity of aerosols and cloud droplets. Through this pathway, these acidic particles are deposited on land or water due to the usage of nitrogenous fertilizers. By r surfaces. They can disrupt the pH balance and harm sensitive ecosystems through the formation of acid rain. The reduction the quantity of photosynthetically active radia in  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions has led to a decrease in sulfate aerosols,

which were previously the dominant contributor to acid rain, so the relative importance of  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  has increased in most industrialized countries. A simplified picture of the chemistry of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  in the troposphere is shown in Fig. 3.

Plant species diversity often begins to decline when nitrogen deposition levels rise over  $5\text{-}10 \text{ kgN.ha}^{-1}\text{.}yr^{-1}$ . The dominance of nitrophilic species, which outcompete species adapted to nitrogen deprivation in oligotrophic settings, is blamed for this decline. Indirect soil-mediated effects, such as soil enrichment, eutrophication, and acidification, primarily cause the loss of plant species ical life and processes, as well as on non-living things diversity due to increased nitrogen inputs. These effects can alter soil microbial communities and nutrient cycling Additionally, the release of nitrogen oxides into processes (Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) 2018). There are many ways in which nitrogen oxides  $(NO<sub>x</sub>)$  can articulate Matter (PM). The emissions of  $NQ_x$  play a affect plant health, both directly and indirectly. NO and  $\chi$  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  are phytotoxins that can cause direct damage to plant growth and yield reduction. Indirectly, NOx may aid in the production of Particulate Matter (PM) aerosols and Ozone  $(O_3)$ , both of which may be harmful to crops. NO<sub>x</sub> is a crucial precursor to the generation of Ozone in the troposphere. Elevated quantities of  $O_3$  can harm plant tissues, hinder photosynthesis, and lower agricultural output. In addition,  $N_{Ox}$  can take part in atmospheric reactions that result in the production of (PM) aerosols. Ammonium nitrate aerosols  $(NH_4NO_3)$  and ammonium sulfate aerosol  $[(NH_4)_2SO_4]$  can be more concentrated when  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  is present in the presence of ammonia, which is frequently found in agricultural regions due to the usage of nitrogenous fertilizers. By reflecting and dispersing incoming sunlight, these aerosols can lower the quantity of photosynthetically active radiation that reaches crops, thus hindering photosynthesis (Lobell et

al. 2022). Exposure to nitrogen dioxide  $(NO<sub>2</sub>)$  can indeed have significant impacts on plant health, including effects on chlorophyll levels, oxidative stress, and antioxidant responses.  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  exposure can also induce oxidative stress in plants, leading to lipid peroxidation and protein dissolution. In response to  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ -induced oxidative stress, plants often increase the activity of enzymes such as peroxidase (POD), which helps to detoxify reactive oxygen species. Despite the negative impacts of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  exposure, plants can recover and resume normal growth after the removal of the pollutant. This recovery process can involve the repair of damaged cellular components and the restoration of normal physiological functions (Sheng & Zhu 2019).

The 1-Hour Standard and the Annual Standard are the two main standards for Nitrogen oxides. The 2010 establishment of the 1-Hour Standard established a limit of 100 parts per billion (ppb). Its foundation is the 98th percentile of the daily maximum 1-hour  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations' annual distribution. To determine compliance with this requirement, the maximum per day's 1-hour  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  values are taken as an average over three years. The Annual Standard was first established in 1971 and is now maintained at 53 parts per billion. It is based on the average annual concentrations of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . Compliance with this standard is determined by calculating the average NO<sub>2</sub> concentration over a full year (Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) 2018). The majority of the public's exposure to nitrogen oxides comes from breathing in air. Individuals who live close to sources of combustion, such as power plants powered by coal, or in places with a lot of traffic may be more exposed to nitrogen oxides. Within homes where wood is burned extensively or kerosene heaters and gas stoves are used, nitrogen oxide levels tend to be higher compared to homes without these appliances.

Additionally, tobacco smoke contains nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide. Thus, individuals who smoke or come into contact with secondhand smoke could potentially be exposed to nitrogen oxides (ATSD 2014). Depending on the concentration and length of exposure, nitrogen dioxide  $(NO<sub>2</sub>)$  exposure can have both short-term and long-term health impacts. Prolonged exposure to low  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentrations can aggravate respiratory disorders, including asthma and chronic obstructive lung disease, and cause respiratory problems like sneezing, coughing, and shortness of breath  $(COPD)$ . Severe exposure to elevated  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  levels, which is rare but can occur during industrial events or in heavily polluted areas, can cause severe damage to the respiratory system, leading to respiratory distress, lung inflammation, and even respiratory failure. Even individuals without preexisting conditions can experience respiratory symptoms and decreased lung efficiency in the presence of elevated  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ levels. Even at low doses, those with respiratory disorders are more susceptible to the effects of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ . It is important to reduce  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions and limit exposure to protect public health, especially for those with respiratory conditions. This can be achieved through regulations, emission control technologies, and sustainable practices in transportation and industry (Javadmohammadi et al. 2013).

#### **Effects of Climate Change on Afghanistan**

Afghanistan is a mountainous nation that lies in the subtropical zone and stretches from 29°21′ to 38°30′N latitude and from 60°31′ to 75°E longitude. Its climate is primarily dry and semi-arid, with traits of steppe, highlands, and deserts with regard to precipitation and temperature patterns (Shokory et al. 2023). With a population of over 4.6 million people, Kabul stands as the most populous city in Afghanistan. The city has experienced rapid urbanization, making it the fifth fastest-growing city globally. At present, its population is growing at a pace of 2.71% annually, and by 2035, it is expected to surpass 6.7 million (Masood et al. 2022). While conflict-related deaths in Afghanistan have significantly decreased in 2022, the country still faces challenges due to climate and environmental stressors. These stressors not only hinder development but also have a negative impact on community resilience and worsen social divisions (Jiayi & Seyuba 2023).

![](_page_5_Picture_420.jpeg)

Table 2: Afghanistan's  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions from 2015 to 2019.

Note: Adapted from Climate Watch Historical GHG Emissions (2022).

![](_page_5_Picture_11.jpeg)

In Afghanistan and other countries, the fundamental cause of climate change is the release of greenhouse gases, especially  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ . Table 2 presents the yearly  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions in Afghanistan and the associated sectors from 2015 to 2019.

Table 2 gives the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions in a million tons in Afghanistan from 2015 to 2019, attributing these emissions to sectors such as agriculture, energy, waste, industrial processes, changing land uses, and forestry. In 2019, Afghanistan's emissions totaled 28.79 million tons of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ equivalent, representing only 0.06% of global emissions and ranking the country as the 116th largest producer of greenhouse gases worldwide (Zaki & Lederer 2023). In Afghanistan, climate change is primarily characterized by increasing temperatures. The country has observed a significant temperature rise, surpassing the global average, with an increase of 1.8℃ between 1951 and 2010. This upward trend in temperatures is expected to continue from 2006 to 2050, with a projected rise of 1.7- 2.3℃. Subsequently, temperatures are anticipated to increase further, ranging from 2.7-6.4 until 2099 across the entire country (Přívara & Přívarová 2019). Afghanistan's water supplies have been impacted by climate change, especially in the Kabul River watershed. Due to the changing climate, there has been a noticeable impact on the glaciers and snowmelt that feed the river, increasing their melting trend. Additionally, this trend has been further supported by a change in the seasonal monsoons in the river basin (Qutbudin et al. 2019). In the twenty-five years between 1990 and 2015, Afghanistan's total glacier area shrank by 13.8%, and the country's projected ice reserves shrank by 14.4%. Moreover, there have been 3.1% fewer glaciers in the 25 years between 1990 and 2015 and 1.7% fewer between 1990 and 2010. Most likely, the consequences of climate change are to blame for this decrease in glacier area and ice storage. The reduction and retreat of glaciers, which act as vital freshwater reservoirs, will negatively affect the future availability of freshwater downstream and the coordinated management of water resources (Maharjan et al. 2021). The majority of models indicate a notable reduction in precipitation in the spring, which is essential for agricultural production that depends on rainfall. These anticipated precipitation declines are between around -30% and almost -40% in the relevant East, North, and Central Highlands regions relative to historical levels. This decrease in precipitation poses a significant challenge for agricultural activities in these areas (Aich & Khoshbeen 2016). Over twothirds of Afghanistan's provinces were directly impacted by the country's catastrophic drought in 2018, which affected about 10.5 million people. 2018's drought emphasizes how urgently the nation must solve issues related to food security, climate change, and development that is sustainable (FAO

2020). In 2022, Afghanistan's agricultural sector, which contributes around 36 percent to the GDP, experienced a contraction of 6.6 percent. This decline was primarily caused by widespread drought conditions and below-average precipitation, leading to a significant reduction in the wheat crop. Moreover, certain regions of the country faced inadequate rainfall, negatively impacting the livelihoods of pastoralists who were already struggling due to limited pasture availability in the previous years (Muhammad et al. 2023). In 2023, Afghanistan experienced early snow melt and below-average precipitation, which means that there is now less water available for irrigated and second-season crops. As a consequence, the prospects for the secondseason harvest are expected to be below normal. Rice and maize are particularly major second-season crops in the country's northern and eastern areas. Additionally, fruits like melons and oilseed crops are also cultivated during this season, primarily in the Northern provinces. Many farmers extensively rely on deep boreholes to obtain water for farming crops like rice, sesame, and maize in order to deal with the restricted supply of water. The recurrent drought in Kabul Province is causing a severe impact on surface water sources and groundwater levels. This is evidenced by the fact that almost half of the boreholes assessed in the province are dry, and the remaining ones are operating at significantly reduced efficiency (OCHA 2023). It is anticipated that the lower yields from the 2022 crops and the shortages in 2023 will significantly affect food security in 2024. As of 2023, an estimated four million individuals who are considered vulnerable are suffering from acute malnutrition. This comprises about 2.3 million children with moderate acute malnutrition (MAM), 840,000 pregnant and lactating women (PLW) with acute malnutrition, and about 875,000 children with severe acute malnutrition (SAM) (UNICEF 2023). Afghanistan, a nation plagued by prolonged conflict, is also susceptible to natural calamities. Earthquakes, droughts, floods, and heavy snowfall have a significant influence on many Afghans' lives. In 2005 and 2006, severe flooding left thousands homeless and destroyed agricultural land, livestock, and infrastructure (Hagen 2009). In Afghanistan, there are two primary types of floods: those resulting from intense rainfall over a brief period, leading to river overflow and heavy surface runoff in surrounding areas, as well as those brought on by the swift melting of snow and ice in highland regions in the spring, which overflows downstream rivers and stream. Afghanistan saw severe flash flooding in its central, eastern, and southern regions in August 2022. Approximately 15,875 people were affected by the floods, which destroyed or damaged over 5,600 homes in provinces including Kunar, Laghman, Logar, Maidan Wardak, Nangarhar, Nuristan, Paktiya, Kandahar, Zabul, Uruzgan, and Parwan (UNICEF 2022). Heavy rains continued in July 2023, resulting in flash flooding that harmed around 6,193 people across eight provinces in Afghanistan, including Kabul, Kunar, Laghaman, Maidan Wardak, Nangarhar, Nuristan, Parwan, and Zabul. This event tragically led to the loss of 40 lives, with 30 others sustaining injuries. Furthermore, the flooding caused damage to 551 houses and the destruction of 121 others (UNICEF 2023).

Afghanistan's impoverished population is especially susceptible to the effects of climate change. It is anticipated that climate change will make the problems with food security worse and have a big effect on people who depend on agriculture for their livelihoods. The adverse effects are likely to disproportionately affect women, children, and individuals engaged in subsistence agriculture or pastoralism. Changes in the climate have the potential to drive a sizable fraction of the Afghan people into poverty, as a sizable portion currently lives barely over the poverty line (Savage et al. 2009). Poverty and food insecurity are widespread issues in Afghanistan, particularly in rural areas. Events like the 2011 drought, which caused over 100,000 children to go malnourished, and the 2018 and 2019 drought, which forced over 400,000 people to relocate, demonstrate the dangers that climate change poses. These risks also have a big impact on the economy. For example, the 2018 drought reduced wheat production by more than 60%, necessitating a deficit of \$550 million to feed the country's livestock. The drought crisis in Afghanistan in 2019 was aggravated by severe floods, exacerbating the humanitarian situation. The flooding resulted in the displacement of 42,000 people and tragically led to at least 63 deaths. There is growing evidence to suggest that human-induced climate change has made natural hazards, such as droughts and floods, more likely and more intense in Afghanistan (Climate Risk Country Profile Afghanistan 2021). The complex humanitarian crisis in Afghanistan is becoming more severe due to a combination of factors, including the contraction of the economy, environmental pressures, and climate change. Nearly three-quarters of the predicted total population, or around 28.3 million people, are expected to need direct humanitarian aid in 2023. According to a May 2022 food security assessment, by the end of 2022, 47% of the population will be experiencing emergency or crisis shortages of food (Jiayi & Seyuba 2023).

Evidence from various regions globally indicates that climate change and global warming are having negative impacts on essential elements of life, including water, air, food, and human habitats, leading to health security risks. Malnutrition, diarrhea, and malaria are particularly sensitive to climate change and are currently significant contributors to the global burden of disease. Estimates suggest that

malnutrition causes 3.5 million deaths annually, while diarrhea and malaria cause 1.8 million and 0.9 million deaths, respectively (World Health Organization 2008). In developing nations, the issue is exacerbated by rapid population growth, unregulated urban expansion, and the growth of industrialization. This results in inadequate air quality, particularly in countries with social inequality and a lack of information regarding long-term environmental management. People who depend on inexpensive fuels like wood or solid fuel for domestic needs due to financial constraints are at risk of breathing in tainted indoor air. It's important to note that almost three billion people worldwide depend on these sources of energy to meet their everyday heating and cooking needs (Manisalidis et al. 2020). Conditions brought on by climate change, such as more frequent droughts, intense rainfall, floods, and elevated temperatures, are influencing the environment and aiding in the development of vector-borne and water-borne illnesses. Children in Afghanistan are particularly vulnerable to the health risks associated with diarrheal disease; according to UNICEF estimates, in 2016, 7,300 deaths in this age range occurred in Afghanistan due to diarrheal disease, which makes up around 9% of all disease deaths in this group. The incidence of diseases linked to dust storms and air quality in Afghanistan is predicted to increase due to climate change. During an extended drought in the early 2000s, dusty storms were especially common around Lake Hamun on the Iran-Afghanistan border, and they were associated with a rise in hospital admissions for asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease in that region. Usually, when the lake beds dry out, these dust storms happen. Consequently, because of the anticipated rise in the frequency of droughts in Afghanistan, climate change may make dusty storms more likely in this western border region in the ensuing decades. Moreover, the situation could worsen in the long run if the predicted decline in glacier mass in the Hindu Kush limits the amount of snowmelt that replenishes Lake Hamun (Climate Risk Country Profile Afghanistan 2021). In the near to medium future, there will be a heightened risk of malaria and dengue fever due to the anticipated rise in temperature and precipitation brought on by climate change. This will include an extended transmission season and the expansion of mosquito habitats into highland areas. Furthermore, temperature fluctuations due to climate change may increase the prevalence of neglected tropical diseases like Leishmaniasis. Eastern Afghanistan bears the highest burden of Malaria cases, but roughly 76% of the country's population is exposed to Malaria-causing mosquitoes. The increase in temperature resulting from climate change may lead to higher transmission of Malaria due to faster vector development (Aditi et al. 2021). The study discovered that

measles appeared in late spring, pneumonia occurred in the winter, and diarrhea and typhoid fever peaked in the summer. Acute viral hepatitis and meningitis, however, did not exhibit any discernible seasonal trends. While rates of pneumonia and diarrhea remained consistent over the years, the incidence of Typhoid fever, acute viral hepatitis, and meningitis declined. (Wagner et al. 2017). The results show that Afghanistan's incidence of diarrhea is positively correlated with both mean daily temperature and aridity. Specifically, the risk of diarrhea increased by 0.70% and 4.79% for every 1°C increase in the mean daily temperature and 0.01 units in the aridity index, respectively. In contrast, there was a negative correlation found for the average annual temperature, with a 3.7% reduction in risk for each degree Celsius that the average annual temperature increased. It was also observed that, except for the eastern region, where variations in climatic patterns and population density may be linked to high rates of diarrhea all year round, most districts showed comparable seasonal tendencies, with the frequency of diarrhea peaking in the summer. These findings highlight the important influence of climate on Afghanistan's diarrheal patterns (Anwar et al. 2019). Kabul's polluted air condition has certainly deteriorated dramatically over time. In autumn and winter, the World Health Organization's (WHO) recommended levels of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), Nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), and Particulate Matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>) are frequently exceeded. The average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in Kabul was measured at  $92.2 \mu g.m^{-3}$  over 24 h, exceeding the World Health Organization's (WHO) recommended limit of 25 μg.m-3 for the same duration. Additionally, the average  $PM_{10}$  concentration in Kabul was recorded at 120.6 μg.m-3 over 24 h, surpassing the WHO's recommended limit of 50 μg.m<sup>-3</sup> for the same duration. The average  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration in Kabul was recorded at 305.4 μg.m-3, which indeed exceeds the World Health Organization's (WHO) recommended limit of 200  $\mu$ g.m<sup>-3</sup> for a 1-hour measurement. The average  $SO_2$  concentration in Kabul was measured at  $63.7 \mu g.m^{-3}$  over a 24-hour period, which is indeed higher than the World Health Organization's (WHO) recommended limit of  $20 \mu g/m^3$  for the same duration (Mehrad 2020). One major concern in Afghanistan is the effect of air pollution on public health, especially in Kabul, the country's main city. The Ministry of Public Health's spokesperson claims that the effects of air pollution are alarming, with more than 3,000 deaths attributed to air pollution annually. Additionally, at least 700,000 individuals in Kabul have experienced various respiratory diseases, with this figure reflecting only those who sought treatment at government hospitals. It's important to note that many others may have sought treatment at other medical facilities, indicating that the actual number of people affected by respiratory issues due to air pollution could be even higher (Jahed & Fang 2023).

# **CONCLUSION**

In conclusion, the impact of carbon dioxide and nitrogen oxides on climate change is undeniable, with these gases contributing to rising global temperatures through the greenhouse effect. This has led to a range of consequences, including the melting of glaciers, rising sea levels, shifts in precipitation patterns, and disruptions to plant yields. Furthermore, the resulting air pollution from these gases has had detrimental effects on human health, potentially leading to various diseases. Afghanistan has experienced severe repercussions from climate change, including alterations in precipitation patterns, drought, food insecurity, floods, and a rise in serious human health issues. In Afghanistan and elsewhere, it is essential to address the underlying causes of these environmental issues and put policies in place to lessen the effects of climate change. In order to address the complex issues these gases present and their wider ramifications for the environment and human well-being, efforts must be made to reduce emissions and adapt to the changing climate.

### **REFERENCES**

- Aditi, K., Tilly, A. and Tesse de Boer, K. G. 2021. Climate change impacts on health and livelihoods: Afghanistan Assessment. Climate Center, Afghanistan.
- Aich, V. and Khoshbeen, A. J. 2016. Afghanistan: Climate Change Science Perspectives. National Environmental Protection Agency and UN Environment, Kabul. Available at [https://www.acbar.org/](https://www.acbar.org/upload/1493192115761.pdf) [upload/1493192115761.pdf](https://www.acbar.org/upload/1493192115761.pdf)
- Ali, K. A., Ahmad, M. I. and Yusup, Y. 2020. Issues, impacts, and mitigations of carbon dioxide emissions in the building sector. Sustainability (Switzerland), 12(18): 10412. https://doi.org/10.3390/ SU12187427
- Anwar, M. Y., Warren, J. L. and Pitzer, V. E. 2019. Diarrhea patterns and climate: A spatiotemporal Bayesian hierarchical analysis of diarrheal disease in Afghanistan. Am. J. Trop. Med. Hyg., 101(3): 525-533. https://doi.org/10.4269/ajtmh.18-0735
- Aryal, B., Gurung, R., Camargo, A.F., Fongaro, G., Treichel, H., Mainali, B., Angove, M. J., Ngo, H. H., Guo, W. and Puadel, S. R. 2022. Nitrous oxide emission in altered nitrogen cycle and implications for climate change. Environ. Polluti., 314: 120272. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. envpol.2022.120272
- Azuma, K., Kagi, N., Yanagi, U. and Osawa, H. 2018. Effects of low-level inhalation exposure to carbon dioxide in indoor environments: A short review on human health and psychomotor performance. Environ. Int., 121: 51-56. Elsevier Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2018.08.059
- Branch, T. A., DeJoseph, B. M., Ray, L. J. and Wagner, C. A. 2013. Impacts of ocean acidification on marine seafood. Trends Ecol. Evol., 28(3): 178-186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2012.10.001
- Climate Risk Country Profile Afghanistan. 2021. Asian Development Bank, Tokyo. Available at https://www.adb.org/sites/default/files/ publication/660566/climate-risk-country-profile-afghanistan.pdf
- Climate Watch Historical GHG Emissions, 2022. World Resources Institute. Washington, DC. Available at https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ ghg-emissions
- Cox, L. 1999. Nitrogen oxides (NOx) why and how they are controlled. Diane Publishing.
- de Vries, W. 2021. Impacts of nitrogen emissions on ecosystems and human

health: A mini-review. Curr. Opin. Environ. Sci. Health, 21: 100249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coesh.2021.100249

- Doll, J. E. and Barański, M. 2011. Greenhouse Gas basics. Michigan State University, US, pp. 6-7.
- Duarte, C. M., Jaremko, L. and Jaremko, M. 2020. Hypothesis: Potentially systemic impacts of elevated CO2 on the human proteome and health. Front. Public Health, 8(11): 1-9. https://doi.org/10.3389/ fpubh.2020.543322
- Ebi, K. L. and Ziska, L. H. 2018. Increases in atmospheric carbon dioxide: Anticipated negative effects on food quality. PLoS Med., 15(7): 2-4. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1002600
- Ehhalt, D. and Prather, M. 2001. Atmospheric Chemistry and Greenhouse Gases. IPCC, US
- Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). 2018. Review of the primary national ambient air quality standards for oxides of nitrogen. EPA, Washington DC
- FAO 2020. Afghanistan Drought Risk Management Strategy 2019-2030. Available at http://www.fao.org/fileadmin/user\_upload/emergencies/ docs/Afghanistan\_Drought-Risk-Managment\_Strategy9Feb2020.pdf
- Hagen, E. 2009. Flooding in Afghanistan: A Crisis. Springer, Cham, pp. 179-180. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-2344-5\_19
- Harvey, C. 2018. CO<sub>2</sub> Can directly impact extreme weather, research suggests. Sci. Am., 15: 25-36.
- Jacobson, T. A., Kler, J. S., Hernke, M. T., Braun, R. K., Meyer, K. C. and Funk, W. E. 2019. Direct human health risks of increased atmospheric carbon dioxide. Nat. Sustain., 2(8): 691-701. https://doi.org/10.1038/ s41893-019-0323-1
- Jahed, J. and Fang, P. 2023. Impact of air pollution on human health in Kabul City. Int. J. Sci. Res. Publ., 13(7): 264-278. https://doi.org/10.29322/ ijsrp.13.07.2023.p13929
- Javadmohammadi, M., Neisi, A. K., Saki, H., Babaei, A. A. and Rad, H. D. 2013. Estimation of health effects attributed to NO<sub>2</sub> exposure from the use of AirQ model in Ahvaz. Apadana J. Clin. Res., 1: 5-12.
- Jiayi, Z. and Seyuba, K. T. 2023. Climate, Peace, and Security Fact Sheet Afghanistan. Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, Afghanistan.
- Kweku, D., Bismark, O., Maxwell, A., Desmond, K., Danso, K., Oti-Mensah, E., Quachie, A. and Adormaa, B. 2018. Greenhouse effect: Greenhouse gases and their impact on global warming. J. Sci. Res. Rep. 17(6): 1-9. https://doi.org/10.9734/jsrr/2017/39630
- Lange, K., Richter, A. and Burrows, J.P. 2022. Variability of nitrogen oxide emission fluxes and lifetimes estimated from Sentinel-5P TROPOMI observations. Atmos. Chem. Phys., 22(4): 2745-2767. https://doi. org/10.5194/acp-22-2745-2022
- Lasek, J. A. and Lajnert, R. 2022. On the issues of  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  as greenhouse gases: An ongoing discussion. Appl. Sci., 12(20): 429. https://doi. org/10.3390/app122010429
- Lindsey, R. 2023, May 12. Climate Change: Atmospheric Carbon Dioxide. NOAA Climate, US Commerce Department, US.
- Lobell, D. B., Tommaso, S. D. and Burney, J. A. 2022. Globally ubiquitous negative effects of nitrogen dioxide on crop growth. Sci. Adv., 8(22): 1-10. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abm9909
- Lovarelli, D., Conti, C., Finzi, A., Bacenetti, J. and Guarino, M. 2020. Describing the trend of ammonia, particulate matter and nitrogen oxides: The role of livestock activities in northern Italy during Covid-19 quarantine. Environ. Res., 191: 110048. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. envres.2020.110048
- Lowther, S. D., Dimitroulopoulou, S., Foxall, K., Shrubsole, C., Cheek, E., Gadeberg, B. and Sepai, O. 2021. Low level carbon dioxide indoors-a pollution indicator or a pollutant? A health-based perspective. Environment, 8(11): 10125. . https://doi.org/10.3390/ environments8110125
- Maccracken, M. C. 2019. What is climate change? Biodiversity and Climate

Change: Transforming the Biosphere, 12-22. Available at www.un.org/ sites/un2.un.org/files/fastfacts-what-is-climate-change.pdf

- Maharjan, S. B., Joya, E., Rahimi, M. M., Azizi, F., Muzafari, K. A., Bariz, M., Bromand, M. T., Shrestha, F., Shokory, A. G., A., A., Sherpa, T.C. and Bajracharya, S. R. 2021. Glaciers in Afghanistan: Status and changes from 1990 to 2015. International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD): Patan, Nepal. Available at https:// lib.icimod.org/record/35341
- Manisalidis, I., Stavropoulou, E., Stavropoulos, A. and Bezirtzoglou, E. 2020. Environmental and Health Impacts of Air Pollution: A Review. Front. Public Health, 8(2): 1-13. https://doi.org/10.3389/ fpubh.2020.00014
- Masood, W., Aquil, S., Ullah, H., Nadeem, A., Mehmood, H., Islam, Z., Essar, M. Y. and Ahmad, S. 2022. Impact of climate change on health in Afghanistan amidst a humanitarian crisis. J. Clim. Change Health, 6: 100139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joclim.2022.100139
- McMichael, A. J. and Woodruff, R. E. 2005. Climate change and human health. Encycl. Earth Sci. Ser., 22: 209-213. https://doi.org/10.1007/1- 4020-3266-8\_41
- Mehrad, A. T. 2020. Causes of air pollution in Kabul and its effects on health. Indian J. Ecol., 47(4): 997-1002.
- Millero, F. J. 1995. Thermodynamics of the carbon dioxide system in the oceans. Science, 59(4): 661-677.
- Mitchell, M. J., Jensen, O. E., Cliffe, K. A. and Maroto-Valer, M. M. 2010. A model of carbon dioxide dissolution and mineral carbonation kinetics. Phys. Eng. Sci., 466(2117): 1265-1290. https://doi.org/10.1098/ rspa.2009.0349
- Muhammad, W., Silvia, R., Wasim, S. and Shahid Malik, A. S. 2023. Afghanistan Development Update: Uncertainty After Fleeting Stability. World Bank, Washington DC
- Müller, R. 2021. The impact of the rise in atmospheric nitrous oxide on stratospheric ozone: This article belongs to Ambio's 50th Anniversary Collection. Ambio, 50(1): 35-39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-020- 01428-3
- National Academy of Sciences 2020. Climate Change: Evidence and Causes: Update 2020. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press. [https://](https://doi.org/10.17226/25733) [doi.org/10.17226/25733.](https://doi.org/10.17226/25733)
- NOAA 2020. Ocean acidification. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Accessed on September 19, 2023, available at https:// www.noaa.gov/education/resource-collections/ocean-coasts/oceanacidification
- NOAA 2022. The NOAA annual greenhouse gas index (AGGI). Available at https://gml.noaa.gov/aggi/aggi.html
- Nunes, L. J. R. 2023. The rising threat of atmospheric  $CO_2$ : A review on the causes, impacts, and mitigation strategies. Environment, 10(4): 4006. https://doi.org/10.3390/environments10040066
- OCHA 2023. Afghanistan: The alarming effects of climate change. Avialable at https://www.unocha.org/news/afghanistan-alarmingeffects-climate-change
- Přívara, A. and Přívarová, M. 2019. Nexus between climate change, displacement and conflict: Afghanistan case. Sustainability (Switzerland), 11(20): 5586. https://doi.org/10.3390/su11205586
- Qutbudin, I., Shiru, M. S., Sharafati, A., Ahmed, K., Al-Ansari, N., Yaseen, Z. M., Shahid, S. and Wang, X. 2019. Seasonal drought pattern changes due to climate variability: Case study in Afghanistan. Water (Switzerland), 11(5): 1096. https://doi.org/10.3390/w11051096
- Richter, A. 2009. Nitrogen oxides in the troposphere- What have we learned from satellite measurements? EPJ Web Conf., 1: 149-156. https://doi. org/10.1140/epjconf/e2009-00916-9
- Savage, M., Dougherty, B., Hamza, M., Butterfield, R. and Bharwani, S. 2009. Socio-economic impacts of climate change in Afghanistan. Stockholm Environment Institute: Oxford, UK.
- Sheng, Q. and Zhu, Z. 2019. Effects of nitrogen dioxide on biochemical responses in 41 garden plants. Plants, 8(2): 45. https://doi.org/10.3390/

![](_page_9_Picture_43.jpeg)

plants8020045

- Shokory, J. A. N., Schaefli, B. and Lane, S. N. 2023. Water resources of Afghanistan and related hazards under rapid climate warming: a review. Hydrol. Sci. J., 68(3): 507-525. https://doi.org/10.1080/0262 6667.2022.2159411
- Shriram, S., Ramamurthy, K. and Ramakrishnan, S. 2019. Effect of occupant-induced indoor CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and bioeffluents on human physiology using a spirometric test. Build. Environ., 149: 58-67. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.buildenv.2018.12.015
- Shukla, J., Skea, E., Calvo Buendia, V. and Masson-Delmotte, S. 2019. Framing and Context. Springer, Cham.
- Skendžić, S., Zovko, M., Živković, I. P., Lešić, V. and Lemić, D. 2021. The impact of climate change on agricultural insect pests. Insects, 12(5): 440. https://doi.org/10.3390/insects12050440
- Skiba, U. M. and Rees, R. M., 2014. Nitrous oxide, climate change and agriculture. CABI Reviews, pp.1-7. https://doi.org/10.1079/ PAVSNNR20149010
- Solomon, S., Plattner, G. K., Knutti, R. and Friedlingstein, P. 2009. Irreversible climate change due to carbon dioxide emissions. Science, 106(6): 1704-1709. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0812721106
- Thiruvenkatachari, R., Su, S., An, H. and Yu, X. X. 2009. Post combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture by carbon fibre monolithic adsorbents. Prog. Energy Combust. Sci. 35(5): 438-455. https://doi.org/10.1016/J. PECS.2009.05.003
- Umar, S. A. and Tasduq, S. A. 2022. Ozone Layer Depletion and Emerging Public Health Concerns - An Update on Epidemiological Perspective of the Ambivalent Effects of Ultraviolet Radiation Exposure. Front. Oncol. 12. https://doi.org/10.3389/FONC.2022.866733
- UN n.d. Causes and Effects of Climate Change. United Nations. Accessed on September 18, 2023. Available at https://www.un.org/en/

climatechange/science/causes-effects-climate-change

- UNICEF 2022. Afghanistan Humanitarian Situation Report (August). Available at https://www.unicef.org/afghanistan/documents/ afghanistan-humanitarian-situation-report-1-31-august-2022
- UNICEF. 2023. Afghanistan Humanitarian Situation Report 1 31 July 2023 Report (July). Avialable at https://www.unicef.org/afghanistan/ documents/unicef-afghanistan-humanitarian-situation-report-1-31 july-2023
- Wagner, A. L., Mubarak, M. Y., Johnson, L. E., Porth, J. M., Yousif, J. E. and Boulton, M. L. 2017. Trends of vaccine-preventable diseases in Afghanistan from the disease early warning system. PLoS ONE, 12(6): e0178677. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0178677
- World Health Organization 2008. Technical discussion on Climate change and health security (No. EM/RC55/Tech. Disc. 1). Avialable at https:// applications.emro.who.int/docs/EM\_RC55\_tech\_disc\_1\_en.pdf
- Yoro, K. O. and Daramola, M. O. 2020. CO<sub>2</sub> emission sources, greenhouse gases, and the global warming effect. In: Advances in Carbon Capture: Methods, Technologies and Applications. Elsevier Inc., Netherlands, p. 3. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-819657-1.00001-3
- Zaki, N. and Lederer, M. 2023. An Overview of Climate Change in Afghanistan: Causes, Consequences, Challenges and Policies (January). Available at https://www.politikwissenschaft.tu-darmstadt. de/media/politikwissenschaft/ifp\_dokumente/arbeitsbereiche\_ dokumente/ib/Zaki\_13.02.2023\_An\_overview\_of\_climate\_change\_ in\_Afghanistan-2.pdf

#### **ORCID DETAILS OF THE AUTHORS**

Mairaj Khan: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3067-6231