

Human health evidence in the global treaty to end plastics pollution: A survey of policy perspectives

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ABSTRACT

Background: Science shows mounting global health risks associated with plastics life cycle pollution. Leveraging evidence and streamlining research to inform policy is critical to safeguarding people and planet.

Methods: We conducted an electronic survey questionnaire, between 16th April-16th August 2024, amongst United Nations government delegates developing the Global Plastics Treaty. We explored (1) perceptions and prioritisation of human health evidence, (2) preferred plastics pollution mitigation strategies, (3) priorities for health research. Responses were collected in Qualtrics and analysed using summary statistics, the Fisher's Exact Test, and thematically mapped to the Policy Cycle Framework.

Results: We received 27 survey responses, balanced by gender and career-stage, including 23 countries and all World Bank country income classifications and regions, but greater representation from high-income and European countries. Human health was the highest-ranking concern related to plastics risks (Sum of rank scores (SRS)=54). Most delegates expressed strong conviction in evidence of risks associated with plastics chemicals, polymers, products, microplastics and broader life cycle emissions. Reducing plastics production (SRS=53) and eliminating chemicals, polymers and products of concern (SRS=53) were prioritised, even amongst those affiliated with waste management departments or less convinced of health risks. We found least regard for recycling as a strategy to protect health (SRS=4-5) and eliminating open burning was the most prioritised downstream measure (SRS=15). Generating quantitative, causal data on risks across plastics life cycles, identifying emerging health hazards, defining criteria, safe lists and substitutes for chemicals, polymers and products were government delegate priorities for research, alongside tools to track policy impacts on health and greater bilateral communication between scientists and delegations.

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45 **Interpretation:** Health risks of all forms of plastics pollution were a concern for most delegates
46 responding to our survey. We identified key priorities for policy-driven research to strengthen the
47 science-policy interface and support evidence-based plastics policy that protects human health.

48
49 **KEY WORDS:** Plastic pollution, Human health, Global Plastics Treaty, Life cycle, Science-policy
50 interface

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52
53

54 **IMPACT STATEMENT:**

55
56 Plastics pollution generated, emitted and released across the entire life cycle of plastics, including
57 chemicals present in plastics and nano and micro-sized plastic particles, is posing human health risks
58 to populations worldwide. The Global Plastics Treaty to end plastics pollution remains under
59 negotiation by more than 175 countries in 2025 and has the potential to shape safer and more
60 sustainable global systems that protect people and planet. Whilst previous surveys have sought to
61 understand public perceptions of plastics pollution and necessary global responses, very little
62 documented research has explored the views of United Nations (UN) government delegates
63 negotiating the Global Plastics Treaty. These delegates can play a crucial role in connecting science
64 and policy, fostering cooperation between governments, and advancing evidence-based policy. We
65 conducted a survey amongst UN government delegates to identify their most pressing needs for
66 scientific evidence on health to inform their work. We received responses from 27 UN government
67 delegates with diverse geographic representation (23 countries in six World Bank regions) revealing
68 key priorities for scientific research amongst this group. These priorities included (1) generating
69 quantitative, causal data on health risks across the plastics life cycle; (2) horizon scanning for
70 emerging health hazards; (3) establishing criteria, safe lists and identifying substitutes across plastics
71 chemicals, polymers and products; (4) providing tools to track policy impacts on health; and (5)
72 increasing bilateral communication with policymakers. Our study suggests many government
73 delegates are motivated to engage with scientists to advance their understanding and find safer
74 solutions. We urge independent scientists to respond actively to this opportunity by developing
75 interdisciplinary research agendas driven by these policy priorities, by advancing innovative data
76 systems and analyses that can inform policy within critical decision-making windows, and through
77 engaging with UN government delegations to strengthen the science-policy interface to end global
78 plastic pollution.

79 **1. INTRODUCTION**

80 Ending plastics pollution is an urgent planetary health imperative, integral to protecting global human
81 health and the wellbeing of future generations (UNGA, 2021). Existing policy, regulation, and
82 industry initiatives are limited (Lau *et al.*, 2020), and will be entirely insufficient if plastics production
83 and waste triples, as envisaged by 2060 (OECD, 2022). Leveraging evidence of the human health
84 implications of plastics, ensuring it is available, accessible and appropriate for policy uptake, could
85 drive more ambitious policy that safeguards people and planet.

86
87 Scientific evidence reveals mounting global health risks associated with plastics pollution and its life
88 cycle emissions (Landrigan *et al.*, 2023). More than 16,000 chemicals have been identified in plastics,
89 over 4,200 are hazardous because of their persistence, bioaccumulation, mobility, and/or toxicity
90 (Wagner *et al.*, 2024). These include endocrine disruptors, carcinogens and mutagens (Wagner *et al.*,
91 2024) associated with reproductive and developmental disorders, obesity, cancers and other chronic
92 diseases (Landrigan *et al.*, 2023; Symeonides *et al.*, 2024). Microplastics are pervasive in all
93 ecosystems, in many food sources and food systems (SAPEA, 2019), and have been found in various
94 human tissues with early evidence of cell damage (Winiarska *et al.*, 2024), changes to the microbiome
95 (Fournier *et al.*, 2023), inflammatory and immune responses (Landrigan *et al.*, 2023). Greenhouse
96 gases and air pollutants emitted from plastics industries contribute to climate change and respiratory
97 diseases (Deeney *et al.*, 2023; Landrigan *et al.*, 2023). Emissions begin with oil and gas extraction,
98 continue throughout polymer and product production processes, and along the entire plastics life
99 cycle, including from recycling, all forms of waste (mis)management, and the removal of legacy
100 plastics (Seewoo *et al.*, 2024). Plastics accumulation in the environment may exacerbate the risks of
101 flooding (Tearfund, 2023) and infectious disease transmission (Maquart *et al.*, 2022; Ormsby *et al.*,
102 2024), and can pose risks to food safety and security (FAO, 2021). All people are affected by plastics
103 pollution; but socio-demographic, geographic and even physiological disparities, including being
104 within critical stages of childhood development, result in a disproportionate global burden of disease,
105 poor health and wellbeing (Karasik *et al.*, 2023; Landrigan *et al.*, 2023; UNGA, 2021).

106
107 Despite growing evidence of plastics' health risks, environmental concerns appear to have been the
108 primary driver of policy initiatives to date (Global Plastics Policy Centre, 2022; Mederake and
109 Knoblauch, 2019; Nielsen *et al.*, 2023). Reviews of plastics policies and legislation, including more
110 than 100 national plans, product bans and taxes, producer responsibility schemes, and recycling
111 regulations identified only the Zimbabwean ban on polystyrene packaging (2012) (Global Plastics
112 Policy Centre, 2022), Palau's Plastic Bag Use Reduction Act (2017) and the Solomon Islands
113 National Implementation Plan for the Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants (2018)
114 (Farrelly *et al.*, 2020) as explicitly motivated by public health. Environmental concerns were raised
115 twice as often as health concerns in the European Union (EU) parliamentary debate for the adoption
116 of the EU Plastics Strategy and the Single-Use Plastics Directive (Mederake and Knoblauch, 2019).
117 Document analysis revealed these EU policies, and four others including plastic waste amendments to
118 the Basel Convention, were largely informed by scientific evidence (often including evidence
119 published during the year preceding the initiative), but primarily drew on marine litter monitoring
120 data, ecological risk assessment and environmental life cycle assessment (Nielsen *et al.*, 2023).

121
122 Since these policies were implemented, much has evolved in science, society and global governance
123 that places greater emphasis on the health implications of plastics. An explosion of research, and the
124 convergence of previously disparate health disciplines, is providing new clarity and syntheses of
125 plastics' manifold health risks (Landrigan *et al.*, 2023). Growing use of One Health (FAO, 2022) and
126 Planetary Health (UNEP, 2024a) approaches explicitly recognises the interdependencies between the
127 environment and human health. Public concern is increasing pressure on policy; a 2024 survey of
128 19,000+ people in 19 countries found that between 77%-85% were concerned about the impacts of
129 plastics on their own health, that of their children and loved ones (Greenpeace, 2024). In global
130 governance spheres, plastics' adverse health effects have been recognised as a human rights issue by
131 the United Nations (UN) Special Rapporteur on toxics and human rights (UNGA, 2021). In 2022, the

132 UN adopted the resolution on the human right to a clean, healthy and sustainable environment
133 (UNGA Human Rights Council, 2022), complementing the human right to health (UNGA, 1948).
134 These evolutions may pave the way for health evidence as a more powerful catalyst for change and a
135 core consideration in the next generation of plastics policy.

136
137 In March 2022, the UN Environment Assembly (UNEA-5.2) adopted an historic resolution to develop
138 an international, legally binding instrument to end plastics pollution (UNEP, 2022a). The
139 Intergovernmental Negotiating Committee (INC), comprising representatives from 175 national
140 governments, was tasked with developing the framework (UNEP, 2022a). Human health has become
141 a central theme in the ongoing negotiations (Deeney *et al.*, 2022; TESS, 2024), but in order to
142 streamline evidence for policy uptake, a clearer vision of how health evidence is being perceived and
143 used by governments, and their priorities for research to inform policy is needed. Whilst the official
144 standpoint of governments in the INC is relatively well-documented through submissions to the INC
145 web-platforms and observer analysis of live negotiations (IISD, 2024), these statements do not
146 necessarily reveal government views and valuation of health evidence. Engaging with government
147 delegates at the individual as well as the organisational level could provide greater insight into
148 priorities for science. These individuals are at the forefront of developing the treaty and they can play
149 a crucial role in connecting science and policy, fostering cooperation between national governments,
150 and advancing evidence-based action within their own governments. As yet, there is no official
151 science-policy interface for the treaty (Syberg *et al.*, 2024), though many stakeholder groups attend
152 the INC as observers and engage with policy informally, including scientists, civil society groups and
153 industry representatives. Scientists must find ways to focus their efforts on maximising government
154 delegates understanding of available evidence, identifying and correcting mis- and disinformation,
155 responding to government imperatives, utilising the most effective mechanisms for evidence uptake,
156 and documenting approaches where possible (Syberg *et al.*, 2024).

157
158 To contribute to strengthening the science-policy interface on plastics and to guide effective research
159 agendas for informing policy, our study aimed to (1) understand perceptions and prioritisation of
160 plastics' human health risks amongst government delegates negotiating the Global Plastics Treaty, (2)
161 examine how their views and valuation of health evidence may influence their preferred strategies to
162 reduce plastics pollution and, (3) identify policy-driven priorities for scientific research and
163 communication on human health throughout plastics policy cycles.

164

165 2. METHODS

166 We conducted an electronic survey questionnaire amongst government delegates of the INC tasked
167 with developing the Global Plastics Treaty. Ethical approval for this study was obtained on 11th April
168 2024 from the Observational Research Ethics Committee of the London School of Hygiene &
169 Tropical Medicine (LSHTM Ethics Ref: 29939).

170

171 The questionnaire was developed and piloted by the Study Management Team at LSHTM. Ten
172 questions were designed to assess different aspects of delegate perspectives on health evidence
173 **(Supplementary Material)**. We drew on existing surveys of citizen perspectives of plastics pollution
174 (Barbir *et al.*, 2021; Davison *et al.*, 2021; Greenpeace, 2024) and the Policy Cycle Framework,
175 adapted in a report of recommendations for a science-policy interface on plastics (GRID-Arendal,
176 2023b). Respondents were asked to rank items (1-3 or 1-5) according to priority concerns about
177 plastics, preferred information sources and forms of evidence communication, the policy strategies
178 they perceived as most promising for protecting human health and their recommendations for research
179 agendas. Using Likert scales, respondents indicated their level of concern, conviction and satisfaction
180 regarding available evidence and estimates of specific health risks across the plastics life cycle
181 **(Supplementary Material)**. Delegates provided further recommendations via free text. We collected
182 information on government delegates' gender, country affiliation, their employment position and the
183 thematic focus area of their government ministry, department, or agency (e.g. "Environment",

184 “Human Health”, “Waste Management”), for which multiple options could be selected and including
185 “Other” with free text to provide details.

186

187 The questionnaire was hosted as an interactive webform in Qualtrics. Questions were available in
188 English only, but responses were invited in any preferred language. We envisaged the questionnaire
189 should take no longer than 15 minutes; the median response time was 12 minutes.

190

191 **2.1. Participant recruitment**

192 The UNEP directory of National Focal Points defined the primary target population of our study
193 (UNEP, 2024b). This public repository includes names, employment, and contact details of the
194 government delegates designated as the lead “National Focal Point” for each of the INC government
195 delegations negotiating the treaty (UNEP, 2024b).

196

197 Recruitment was conducted between 16th April – 12th August 2024. We contacted all 255 National
198 Focal Points via email and invited government delegates during science-policy interactions at the
199 INC-4. Four invitations were emailed to all National Focal Points, one additional French translated
200 email was sent to all National Focal Points of francophone countries, and personalised emails to
201 government delegates where appropriate. All received the *Survey Recruitment Email* with a link to the
202 online questionnaire, where the *Survey Respondent Information and Consent* was detailed and
203 obtained (**Supplementary Material**). The questionnaire was available for government delegates to
204 respond to between 16th April - 16th August 2024.

205

206 **2.2. Data protection and confidentiality**

207 Respondent confidentiality was protected in accordance with the Data Protection Act. Access to the
208 questionnaire was via anonymous weblink, which prevented multiple submissions but did not record
209 IP addresses, locations or contact information. All identifying data were anonymised, including
210 assigning country affiliations to the respective World Bank Country Income Classification and region,
211 and coding specific employment positions according to early-, mid- or senior-level policy or
212 diplomatic career stages for the purpose of analysis and reporting.

213

214 **2.3. Statistics and Data Analysis**

215 Data were analysed using summary statistics and simple frequency distributions for Likert scales.
216 Ranked responses were assigned weighted numeric values (i.e. 1st choice=3, 2nd choice=2, 3rd
217 choice=1) to calculate the sum of weighted rank scores for each rank position (pRS) and overall for
218 each response category (SRS). The Fisher’s Exact Test (FET) was used to assess associations between
219 respondents’ affiliated country income classification, region, gender and career-stage (subsequently
220 referred to collectively as ‘respondent characteristics’ unless individually specified), particular
221 thematic focus areas of their ministry, department or agency and between categories of responses. We
222 conducted thematic analysis of free text responses, translating those provided in languages other than
223 English with review by multiple study authors, to identify common themes in government delegate
224 priorities for research, using the Policy Cycle Framework (GRID-Arendal, 2023b) to synthesise
225 recommendations. Data presented is available in the **Supplementary Material**.

226

227 **3. RESULTS**

228 **3.1 Respondent characteristics**

229 We contacted all 255 National Focal Points and additional government delegates corresponding to a
230 total 153 governments and four multi-state groups. We received 44 survey initiations, 27 delegates
231 (affiliated with 23 different countries) submitted responses to most questions. The response rate
232 equates to 10% of National Focal Points, though other government delegates may have been included,
233 and 15% of countries contacted. None withdrew consent during the study.

234

235 All World Bank regions and country income classifications were represented to some extent.
236 Affiliations with countries in Europe and Central Asia were most frequent (n=10 respondents from ten
237 different countries), followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (n=6 respondents from five countries) and Latin
238 America and the Caribbean (n=5 respondents from four countries), with just six respondents
239 associated with four countries across East Asia and Pacific, South Asia, and the Middle East and
240 North Africa. Across all regions, low-income countries were underrepresented (n=2 respondents from
241 two countries) (**Figure 1**).

242
243 [Insert Figure 1]
244

245 Respondent gender was balanced (Figure 1). Employment information provided suggested
246 respondents held early-career policy roles (n=5), mid-level (n=8) and senior diplomatic and policy
247 roles (n=5). Others provided educational status, particular appointments (non-specific to career stage)
248 or no information (n=9). Most indicated the thematic focus area of their ministry, department or
249 agency related to the environment (n=16), or waste management and pollution control (n=12).
250 Climate change was a common theme across organisations with more than one thematic focus (n=8),
251 and others included sustainable development (n=5), marine and ocean (n=4), energy and natural
252 resources (n=4), international affairs (n=4), technology and innovation (n=1), agriculture and food
253 (n=1) and water and sanitation (n=1). Only three indicated a human health focus of their role or
254 organisation.
255

256 3.2 Perceptions and prioritisation of the human health implications of plastics

257 Human health was the leading concern related to risks associated with plastics systems, products,
258 polymers, and chemicals, based on the sum of weighted rank scores of respondents' top three concerns
259 (SRS=54) (**Figure 2**). This was followed by ecosystems and biodiversity (SRS=42) then climate
260 change and air pollution (SRS=34). Five respondents were primarily concerned for food systems and
261 safety (pRS=15), just one ranked human rights as their foremost concern (pRS=3), and economic and
262 employment risks were among the top three for four delegates (SRS=5).

263
264 Unsurprisingly, respondents with an organisational focus on health ranked human health as their
265 primary concern. For others prioritising health, there was no discernible pattern by country income
266 classification (FET: p=1), region (FET: p=0.57), gender (FET: p=0.85) or career-stage (FET: p=0.67).
267 Only two delegates did not rank human health within their top three concerns, focusing instead on (1)
268 ecosystems and biodiversity, (2) climate change and air pollution, and (3) economy and employment,
269 and (1) human rights, (2) climate change and air pollution, and (3) food security and food safety.

270
271 [Insert Figure 2]
272

273 Despite differing priorities, on average, respondents expressed strong concern for plastics' health risks
274 when prompted in the questionnaire (**Figure 3A**). Most were 'very concerned' about the risks of
275 products and polymers (n=18), chemicals (n=19) and emissions associated with plastics life cycles
276 (n=19). One respondent was 'neither concerned nor unconcerned' about products and polymers, but
277 was 'very concerned' about life cycle emissions. Conversely, another was 'neither concerned nor
278 unconcerned' about life cycle emissions but was 'somewhat concerned' about products, polymers and
279 chemicals. None expressed lack of concern in any category. We found no evidence of an association
280 between being 'very concerned' about all items and any respondent characteristics including country
281 income classification, region, gender and career-stage (FET: p=0.65-1.00).

282
283 Similarly, all delegates reported strong conviction in available evidence of at least some of the
284 specific health risks associated with plastics (**Figure 3B**). In particular, 88% were 'very convinced'
285 that macroplastics pollution poses risks for food security and biodiversity, and 81% of respondents
286 were 'very convinced' that plastics pollute across their life cycle. There was strong conviction (96%)
287 in microplastics identification in human tissues and associated health risks and no respondent
288 expressed doubt in the presence of chemicals of concern in plastics. We found greater variation and

289 lower overall confidence in statements on the health risks of recycling and reuse. One delegate was
290 'somewhat unconvinced' of plastics production worker health risks and the energy intensiveness and
291 toxic emissions of chemical recycling.

292
293
294

[Insert Figure 3]

295 Human health effects expressed as the number of lives lost was perceived as the most impactful
296 evidence framing overall (SRS=60), followed by morbidity and mortality, which refers more broadly
297 to the years of healthy life lost in a population as a result of premature death and living with disease or
298 disability (SRS=49), with economic terms scoring lowest as the sum of weighted rank scores
299 (SRS=47) (**Figure 4A**). However, seven respondents (26%) ranked morbidity and mortality as most
300 impactful, and another seven (26%) ranked economic terms first, indicating some difference of
301 opinion. Whilst those with a preference for the economic framing were all from high or upper-middle
302 income countries, we found no statistical association with country income classification (FET:
303 $p=0.69$), or other respondent characteristics (FET: $p=0.30-0.88$). Scientific journal publications
304 (SRS=47), discussions with scientists (SRS=45), and policy briefs (SRS=36) were reported to have
305 been the most useful sources of information overall (**Figure 4B**). Industry reports (SRS=7) and social
306 media (SRS=5) scored lowest and were the first choice for none.

307
308

[Insert Figure 4]

309 **3.3 Preferred strategies to reduce plastics pollution and protect human health**

310 Overall, plastics production reduction (SRS=53) and elimination of chemicals, polymers and products
311 of concern (SRS=53) were perceived as the most promising strategies for protecting human health in
312 the context of reducing plastics pollution (**Figure 5**). Even amongst 11 respondents from ministries,
313 departments or agencies with a focus on waste management and pollution control, seven (64%)
314 selected production reduction as their first order priority, and all but one included it in their top three.
315 Material substitutes (e.g. glass, metal and paper) were ranked amongst the top three strategies by half
316 of respondents (SRS=23). Bio-based alternatives (SRS=12) scored lower overall than material
317 substitutes, but six respondents ranked this strategy amongst their top three choices, and two saw this
318 as the most promising approach, which did not appear to be associated with respondent characteristics
319 (FET: $p=0.25-0.41$) or their priority concerns. Although delegates expressed lower overall confidence
320 in the evidence for the health risks of mechanical and chemical recycling, neither did they prioritise
321 these strategies highly for protecting human health (RS=5 and RS=4 respectively).

322

323 We found no evidence of an association between participant characteristics and the prioritisation of
324 upstream measures, including (1) production reduction, (2) elimination of chemicals, polymers and
325 products of concern, and (3) polymer and chemical simplification (FET: $p=0.23-1.00$). Upstream
326 measures were prioritised even by participants who were 'neither concerned nor unconcerned' about
327 products, polymers, or life cycle emissions, and 'somewhat unconvinced' about risks to production
328 workers and from chemical recycling, and amongst the top three strategies for the respondent who
329 was 'not at all convinced' by risks of reusing and recycling plastics. For those whose primary concern
330 was human health, 78% prioritised upstream measures, but a third saw eliminating open burning as
331 equally, or in one case, more promising (though production reduction still ranked second). Prioritising
332 elimination of open burning within the top three strategies did not appear to be associated with
333 country income classification (FET: $p=0.46$) or region (FET: $p=0.38$).

334

335

[Insert Figure 5]

336

337 **3.4 Policy priorities for scientific research and evidence communication on the human health** 338 **risks of plastics**

339 Most respondents agreed that there was sufficient evidence of plastics' health *risks* to inform policy
340 decisions (89%) though four disagreed. In relation to plastics' *benefits*, there was greater divergence

341 in opinions. A third of respondents did not agree that this evidence was sufficient to inform policy
 342 decisions, four of which expressed strong disagreement. We found no evidence of an association
 343 between perceptions of evidence of risks or benefits and respondent characteristics (FET: $p=0.35-$
 344 1.00) or their preferred sources of information (FET: $p=0.19-0.20$).

345
 346 To help guide research agendas, delegates were asked to rank categories based on the Policy Cycle
 347 Framework according to where they felt evidence was most needed to inform policy: (1) filling
 348 existing data gaps, (2) horizon scanning, (3) policy formulation, (4) policy implementation, and (5)
 349 monitoring and evaluation (GRID-Arendal, 2023b). Half of respondents provided further qualitative
 350 recommendations for health scientists ($n=14$). We analysed qualitative responses thematically,
 351 mapping them to the same Policy Cycle Framework categories.

352
 353 Overall, research aligning with early stages of the Policy Cycle Framework was prioritised by
 354 respondents, as assessed by the sum of weighted rank scores. This included (1) filling existing data
 355 gaps (SRS=102) and (2) horizon scanning for evidence of emerging health risks (SRS=85).
 356 Respondents raised the importance of generating *quantitative* evidence of health impacts, including
 357 *cause-and-effect* relationships, and greater consideration of people who are most vulnerable and
 358 disadvantaged. Evaluating health risks of all forms of plastics pollution and throughout plastics life
 359 cycles was suggested, including providing a greater understanding of the health risks of plastics
 360 recycling and reuse, and developing tools to capture these risks in life cycle assessment (LCA).

361
 362 *“Human health scientists should, in my opinion, focus on [...] the effects of all kinds of plastics*
 363 *pollution.”* Respondent, Sub-Saharan Africa region, male.

364
 365 *“Detailed research and scientific evidence-based proof of health risk throughout the life cycle of*
 366 *plastic needs to be done.”* Respondent, South Asia region, male.

367
 368 *“It is imperative to develop instruments that can inform LCA analysis on all risks connected to plastic*
 369 *production, use, reuse and recycling”* Respondent, Europe and Central Asia region, prefer not to say.

370
 371 Evidence to inform the third Policy Cycle Framework category of policy formulation, which we
 372 suggested could include scientific criteria for health hazards, pollution control measures and policy
 373 trade-off analyses, also scored highly overall (SRS=88). Respondents recommended developing
 374 *criteria* for polymers and chemicals, and three requested more information on available plastics and
 375 chemical substitutes. Two delegates suggested “positive lists” for chemicals and polymers would be
 376 particularly important.

377
 378 *“Scientists should provide classification criteria for primary plastic polymers and chemicals for the*
 379 *INC to inform the adoption of provisions that will facilitate the elimination of plastics pollution”*
 380 Respondent, Sub-Saharan Africa region, male.

381
 382 *“...information related to the substitution of plastic or chemical products in essential plastics, such as*
 383 *those in the health sector.”* Respondent, Latin America and the Caribbean region, female.

384
 385 *“Chemicals of concern discussion is filled with uncertain information from different sources, so*
 386 *comprehensive study (positive list creation, for example - which chemical is safe to use?) is*
 387 *appreciated.”* Respondent, East Asia and Pacific region, female.

388
 389 *“Positive list of safe polymers and additives would be most helpful”* Respondent, Europe and Central
 390 Asia region, male.

391
 392 Delegates highlighted the need for more information on specific strategies for reducing pollution that
 393 could be adopted in national and international regulation, and recommended producing estimates of
 394 the cost of inaction – *“linking that cost to (the absence of) specific measures”* (Respondent, Europe
 395 and Central Asia region, female). We received calls for *stronger* and more balanced inclusion of

396 health in the Global Plastics Treaty text and building on synergies with climate and tobacco control
397 policies. The final stages of the Policy Cycle Framework - (4) implementation and (5) monitoring and
398 evaluation - were lower order priorities overall (SRS=28 and SRS=17 respectively), though one
399 respondent recommended developing tools that could be easily applied to track policy impacts on
400 human health.

401
402 Other recommendations reflected aspects of a broader supportive policy environment, including the
403 need for capacity building, in particular relating to technology transfer, and increasing policy
404 engagement by health scientists. One suggested that policy makers are not sufficiently aware of
405 plastics health hazards and recommended using “*as vivid examples as possible, [...] numbers are very*
406 *powerful - both, related to diseases and to costs*” (Respondent, Europe and Central Asia, female).
407 Two respondents mentioned engaging bilaterally and regionally with delegations, one specifically
408 raised the importance of multilingual scientific communication of health risks (Respondent, Europe
409 and Central Asia, female).

410

411 4. DISCUSSION

412 We explored government delegate perspectives and priorities for evidence of plastics’ human health
413 implications in the context of the development of the Global Plastics Treaty. Our survey respondents
414 included a balance of genders and career-stages, though certain regions and lower-income countries
415 were underrepresented. Human health was the highest-ranking concern related to the risks of plastics,
416 over environmental and economic issues. All delegates were concerned about the health risks of
417 plastics chemicals, most were convinced by health risks associated with microplastics and those
418 resulting from plastics life cycle contributions to climate change, air pollution and chemical toxicity.
419 Reducing plastics production and eliminating chemicals, polymers and products of concern were
420 highly prioritised strategies to protect human health, even amongst delegates affiliated with waste
421 management and pollution control ministries, agencies or departments, and those less convinced or
422 concerned by evidence for plastics’ health risks. We found more diverse perceptions of the health
423 risks of plastics recycling and reuse, and lowest regard for recycling as a strategy to protect human
424 health. More delegates ranked material substitutes within their top three strategies than plastics
425 alternatives (i.e. bio-based plastics). Eliminating open burning was the most prioritised downstream
426 measure, particularly amongst those concerned primarily by human health, though increasing existing
427 waste management capacity, reducing waste trade, and pollution remediation also featured. Whilst
428 delegates largely found evidence of health risks sufficient to inform policy decisions, many identified
429 filling existing evidence gaps and horizon scanning for emerging health hazards as research priorities.

430

431 Government delegates expressed views broadly aligned with scientific consensus on plastics’ human
432 health implications and mirroring high levels of risk awareness reported amongst members of the
433 public in Europe and Australia (n=15,179) (Davison *et al.*, 2021). In the case of plastics chemicals,
434 strong and growing evidence reveals links to reproductive and developmental disorders,
435 neurotoxicological effects, obesity, cancers and other chronic diseases, even at low levels (Lambré *et*
436 *al.*, 2023; Landrigan *et al.*, 2023; Maffini *et al.*, 2021). Several recent scientific publications (Geueke
437 *et al.*, 2024; Symeonides *et al.*, 2024; Trasande *et al.*, 2024; Wagner *et al.*, 2024) have provided
438 policy-relevant, robust data on the *quantities* of chemicals of concern in plastics or *quantitative*
439 associations with particular disease outcomes, using simple and definitive messaging and conveying
440 complexity, all of which are considered important for influencing policy (Oliver and Cairney, 2019).
441 This is particularly pertinent given delegates reported preference for scientific publications as a source
442 of information in our survey. Mainstream media is potentially more influential amongst the public
443 (Barbir *et al.*, 2021) and can be an important proponent of raising awareness. For the nascent field of
444 research on human health implications of microplastics, which is receiving significant media
445 attention, caution is needed to communicate that the biological effects are not yet fully understood
446 (Thompson *et al.*, 2024). Building relationships between scientists and journalists can ensure accurate
447 and timely science reporting to amplify public knowledge and motivation for change.

448

449 In addition to direct health concerns, statements reflecting plastics' contribution to the triple planetary
450 crisis (i.e. pollution, climate change and biodiversity) received strong agreement in our survey. This
451 could be connected to repeat messaging from reputable sources including scientific publications
452 (Carney Almroth *et al.*, 2022; Persson *et al.*, 2022), NGO reports (GRID-Arendal, 2023a), policy
453 briefs (Scientists' Coalition for an Effective Plastics Treaty, 2024a) and UNEP communications
454 (UNEP, 2022b, 2023), which have emphasised plastics' planetary health impacts, potentially
455 leveraging different facets of delegate concerns (Oliver and Cairney, 2019). These concerns could also
456 be related to delegates' existing expertise (Oliver *et al.*, 2014; Oliver and Cairney, 2019), given their
457 affiliations with organisations focusing predominantly on the environment and climate change. We
458 found diverse preferences for evidence communication in our sample and one delegate suggested that
459 it "depend[s] on who you are talking to". Evidence uptake will likely be accelerated if scientists can
460 generate, situate and translate evidence for different concerns, addressing the existing knowledge of
461 policymakers (Oliver and Cairney, 2019).

462
463 Support for reducing plastics production and eliminating chemicals, polymers and products of concern
464 may be partly due to a highly motivated, self-selected sample of delegates in our survey, but this also
465 reflects broader support for upstream measures to address plastics pollution, expressed firmly by
466 scientists (*Scientists' Declaration*, 2024) and by many governments (Centre for Science and
467 Environment, 2024). The support from delegates with a focus on waste management and pollution
468 control, and those expressing lower levels of concern or conviction in plastics' health risks may
469 indicate motivations other than human health for reducing plastics production, possibly including
470 reducing burdens on waste management processes and other environmental, social or economic
471 impacts of plastics pollution.

472
473 What may remain less clear to delegates, is how to ensure the *responses* to plastics pollution, such as
474 reducing or replacing plastics, protect and promote health. Both in our survey and through the INC
475 intersessional technical working groups, delegates have requested scientific criteria and 'positive lists'
476 for plastics chemicals, polymers and/or products, and more information on safe substitutes (TESS,
477 2024). In an analysis of international regulation of other chemical pollutants, the availability of viable
478 alternatives was found to determine support for strict regulation, more so than evidence of harms to
479 the environment or humans (Aanesen *et al.*, 2024). It is important however, that strategies higher in
480 the waste hierarchy (including redesign, reduction and reuse), aligning with the prevention principle
481 (UNGA, 2021), take precedence over the search for safer and more sustainable alternatives, though
482 the latter is a critical area of active research. The Essential-Use Concept can guide the systematic
483 phase-out of hazardous and unsustainable plastics chemicals, polymers and products by prioritising
484 the removal of unnecessary applications whilst ensuring any essential functions for health, safety and
485 society are maintained through safer, more sustainable alternatives. Or, where no alternative is
486 available or feasible, with careful regulation, time-bound exemptions accompanied by risk
487 minimisation, planning and resourcing for their timely phase-out (Scientists' Coalition for an
488 Effective Plastics Treaty, 2024b).

489
490 Science-policy collaborations will be essential to exploring and selecting appropriate, evidence-based
491 policy responses (Oliver and Cairney, 2019). Recycling, reuse, material substitutes and alternatives
492 (i.e. bio-based plastics) require particular focus. These categories of approaches include a range of
493 complex materials, technologies and systems that require specialist knowledge and comprehensive
494 evaluation to mitigate burden-shifting. Delegates may be exposed to mixed messaging on these topics,
495 creating confusion or uncertainty, particularly in the context of rapid technological innovation and
496 emerging scientific evidence, and due to deliberate industry misinformation campaigns, for example
497 around the benefits of plastics recycling (UNGA Human Rights Council, 2021). At the INC-4, fossil
498 fuel and chemical industry representatives outnumbered registrations from 87 of the smallest
499 government delegations combined (CIEL, 2024). Ensuring access to independent science, free of
500 conflict-of-interest, is critical for policy decisions that are based on robust evidence and the
501 Precautionary Principle where evidence is emerging to protect human health (UNGA Human Rights
502 Council, 2021). This is supported by a growing number of statements from governments at the INC
503 on the need for 'best available science' (IISD, 2024), which in turn corroborates calls for a formal

504 science-policy interface, with strict mechanisms for declaring and managing any conflicts-of-interest,
505 that can support the implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the Global Plastics Treaty (Syberg
506 *et al.*, 2024).
507

508 **4.1 Strengths and Limitations**

509 Our questionnaire was informed by existing surveys and used the theoretical framing of the Policy
510 Cycle Framework to structure the questions and analyse responses. We designed the survey as a form
511 of evidence dissemination and collaborative research agenda setting (Oliver and Boaz, 2019). Whilst
512 we cannot formally assess impact, survey recruitment facilitated informal science-policy engagement
513 and stimulated further information requests from government delegates.
514

515 Our findings may not be representative of government delegate perspectives because of the relatively
516 small number of respondents that likely reflects individuals particularly motivated by health concerns
517 and science-policy exchange. We had limited statistical power to detect trends by categories of
518 respondent characteristics, which in themselves generalise the complexity of influences on individual
519 perceptions and values. The underrepresentation of low-income countries, and certain geographic
520 regions, is an important limitation. Our findings could have differed substantially if we had received
521 more responses from government delegates affiliated with countries for which open burning is a
522 particular issue for example, major importers of plastic, or countries where plastics pollution has more
523 immediate and/or acute impacts on food security, typically associated with lower-income economies
524 (Knoblauch *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, analysis by World Bank country income classifications and
525 regions obscures highly heterogeneous and unique national challenges. We did not receive sufficient
526 responses to create more disaggregated classifications, for example for Small Island Developing
527 States, whose experiences are poorly reflected by World Bank country classifications, and require
528 particular focus and consideration. Overcoming barriers to participation, including delegate time,
529 funding, other resource constraints and linguistic barriers, within all forms of science-policy
530 engagement is critical to understanding diverse challenges and perspectives to guide effective
531 research and policy (Oliver *et al.*, 2014).
532

533 Our results may be influenced by social desirability bias and the unobscured focus of the survey on
534 human health, made clear in the research objectives. We did not randomise response options,
535 potentially biasing responses towards those appearing first. The survey was available in English only,
536 which may have limited participation and broadening multilingual engagement emerged as a delegate
537 priority within our survey. Concern and prioritisation of human health in itself should not be
538 interpreted as a proxy or determinant of policy decisions. Government delegates are subject to broad
539 geo-political decision-making hierarchies, in which scientific evidence is amongst a range of complex
540 and dynamic influences on decisions, not least the economy and the brevity of most political cycles
541 (Oliver *et al.*, 2014). The Policy Cycle Framework is useful for framing evidence required at different
542 stages within policy cycles, but a simplified depiction of a much more complex, non-sequential
543 process (Oliver and Cairney, 2019). Despite these limitations, our results show that many delegates
544 are willing to engage with health science outside of their existing pressures and obligations and to be
545 active partners in developing research agendas for advancing understanding and preventing human
546 health harms from plastics (Oliver and Boaz, 2019).
547

548 **4.2 Conclusion**

549 Our study revealed high levels of concern and conviction in scientific evidence of the health risks
550 associated with all forms of plastics pollution and emissions amongst most government delegates
551 responding to our survey. Science appeared to play an important role as the preferred source of
552 information that informs knowledge amongst these government delegates, which may in turn
553 contribute to their support for upstream measures to reduce plastics pollution and protect human
554 health. Government delegates indicated several priorities to streamline research agendas to better
555 inform policy and to encourage collaboration at the science-policy interface. These priorities included
556 (1) generating quantitative, causal data on health impacts across the plastics life cycle; (2) horizon

557 scanning for emerging health risks; (3) establishing criteria, safe lists and identifying substitutes
 558 across plastics chemicals, polymers and products; (4) providing tools to track policy impacts on
 559 health; and (5) greater bilateral and multi-lingual engagement and communication with policymakers.
 560 Increasingly, scientists are required to be agile knowledge generators, communicators and translators
 561 within the multi-stakeholder, interdisciplinary, dynamic and often polemic nexus of plastics and
 562 health. Establishing a formal science-policy interface under the new plastics treaty, that addresses
 563 barriers to participation and mitigates conflict-of-interest, would provide an important bidirectional,
 564 transparent, communication platform that streamlines evidence-based policy formulation,
 565 implementation and monitoring and evaluation, guiding both research and policy that ultimately
 566 protects and promotes global human health.

567
568

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572

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582

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584

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588

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 591 been made available for reasons of confidentiality and in accordance with the ethical approval of this
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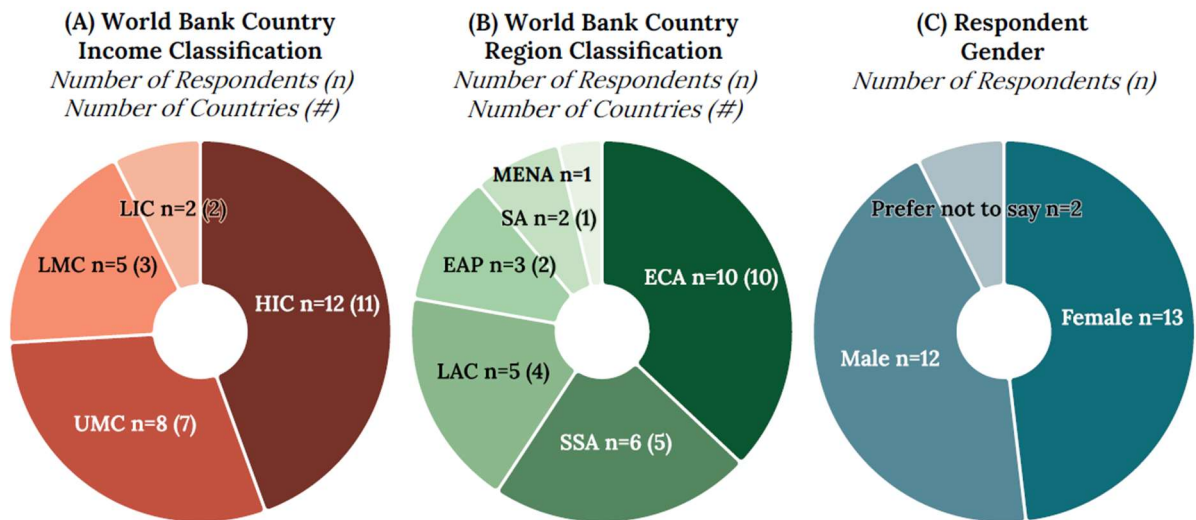
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801 **Figure captions:**

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803 **Figure 1. Respondent Characteristics.** Government delegate survey respondents characterised by
 804 (A) World Bank country income classification and (B) World Bank country region classification of
 805 respondents' country affiliations, and (C) gender as reported by respondents. Abbreviations: High-
 806 income countries (HIC), Upper-middle-income countries (UMC), Lower-middle-income countries
 807 (LMC), Low-income countries (LIC), Middle East and North Africa (MENA), South Asia (SA), East
 808 Asia and Pacific (EAP), Europe and Central Asia (ECA), Latin America & the Caribbean (LAC),
 809 South Asia (SA), Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

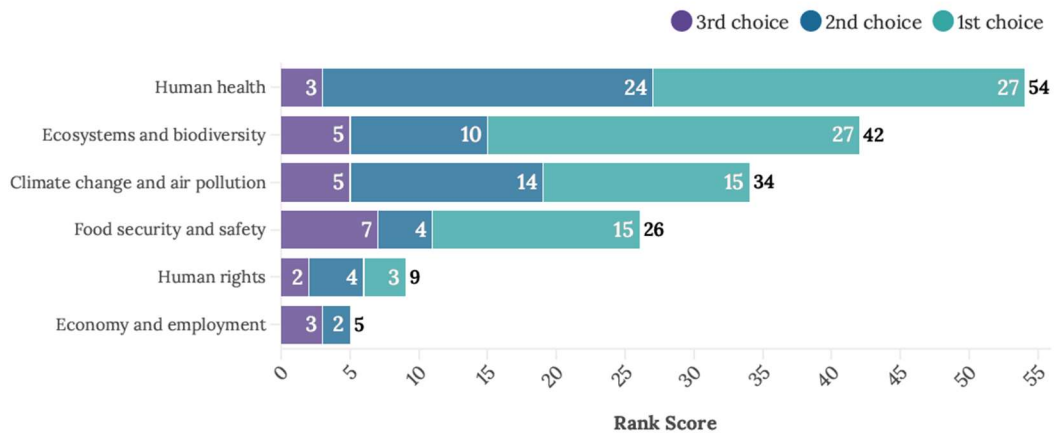


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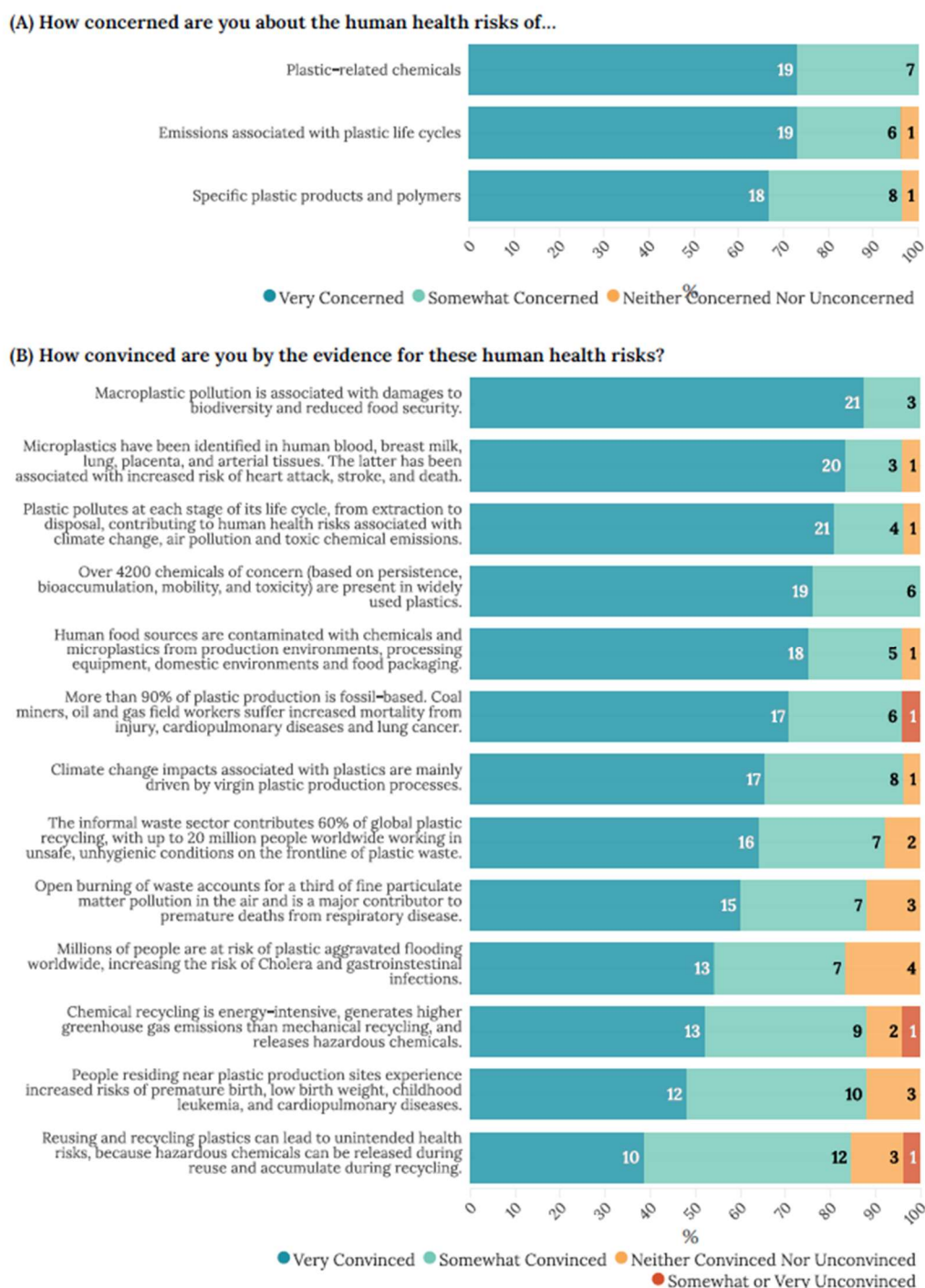
812 **Figure 2. Primary areas of concern in terms of the risks associated with plastics systems,**
 813 **products, polymers, and associated chemicals.** Respondents were asked to rank their top three areas
 814 of concern from the list of provided categories indicated in the bar chart including an option for
 815 ‘other’ with free text (Total respondents=26, n=4 respondents selected more than three areas of
 816 concern, no respondent selected ‘other’). Ranked responses were assigned weighted numeric values
 817 (1st choice=3, 2nd choice=2, 3rd choice=1) to calculate the sum of weighted rank scores for each rank
 818 position (values within bars) and overall for each response category (SRS). The SRS represents the
 819 total score for each area of concern based on respondents’ 1st, 2nd and 3rd choices (indicated to the
 820 right of each bar). For example, human health was selected as 3rd choice by 3 participants (multiplied
 821 by 1 = 3), 2nd choice by 12 respondents (multiplied by 2 = 24) and 1st choice by 9 respondents
 822 (multiplied by 3 = 27), generating an overall SRS of 54.

What are your current primary areas of concern in terms of risks associated with plastic systems, products, polymers, and associated chemicals?



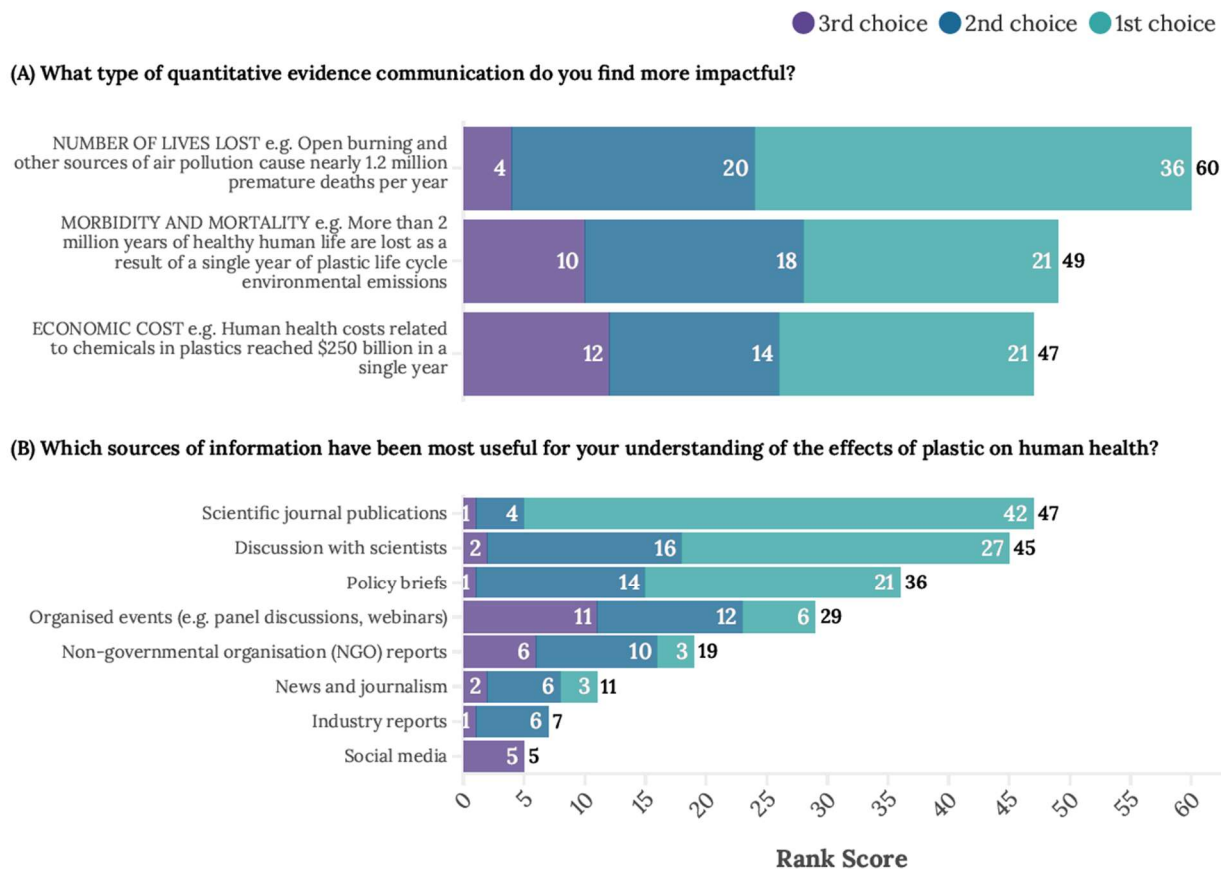
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825 **Figure 3. Levels of concern and conviction in evidence for the human health risks associated**
 826 **with plastics.** (A) Reported levels of concern about the human health risks of specific plastics
 827 products and polymers, plastics-related chemicals, and emissions associated with plastics life cycles
 828 indicated by selection of one option from a five-point Likert scale: ‘Very concerned’, ‘Somewhat
 829 concerned’, ‘Neither concerned nor unconcerned’, ‘Somewhat unconcerned’, ‘Not at all concerned’
 830 (Total respondents=26-27 for different items). (B) Reported levels of conviction in the evidence for
 831 each sub-item listed in the bar chart, as indicated by selecting one option from a five-point Likert
 832 scale: ‘Very convinced’, ‘Somewhat convinced’, ‘Neither convinced nor unconvinced’, ‘Somewhat
 833 unconvinced’, ‘Not at all convinced’ (Total respondents=24-26 for different items). Number of
 834 participants selecting each option are indicated within bars and scaled to represent 100% of
 835 respondents for each question sub-item.



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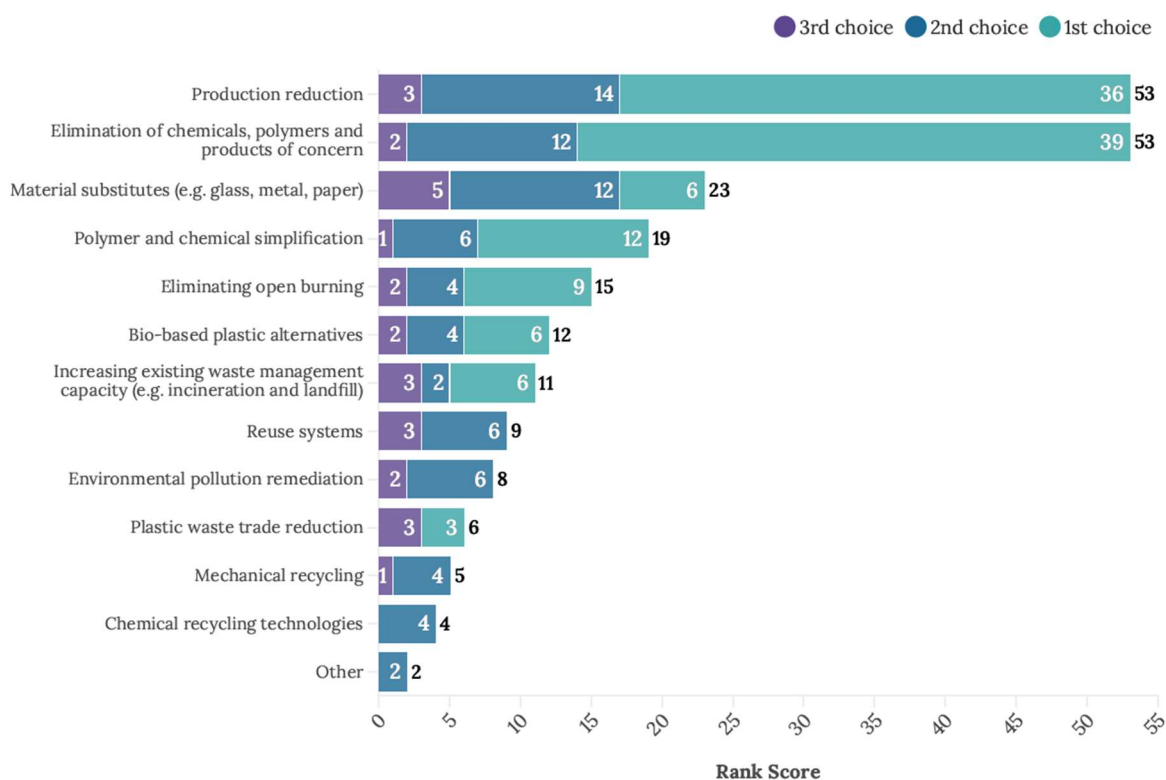
837 **Figure 4. Perceptions of evidence communication terminologies and reported usefulness of**
 838 **different sources of evidence for informing government delegates' understanding of the effects**
 839 **of plastics on human health. (A)** Types of quantitative evidence communication ranked according to
 840 how impactful government delegates perceived these terms to be. Respondents were asked to rank the
 841 three types of evidence communication provided from 1st choice = most impactful to 3rd choice =
 842 least impactful (Total respondents = 26). Notes: The number of lives lost is the simple count of lives
 843 lost in a population, whereas morbidity and mortality refer more broadly to the years of healthy life
 844 lost in a population as a result of premature death and living with disease or disability. **(B)** Sources of
 845 information ranked according to reported usefulness for informing current understanding amongst
 846 government delegates. Respondents were asked to rank their top three sources of information
 847 according to which have been most useful in informing their understanding (Total respondents=27,
 848 n=7 respondents ranked more than three categories, and one provided only their first choice). Ranked
 849 responses were assigned weighted numeric values (1st choice=3, 2nd choice=2, 3rd choice=1) to
 850 calculate the sum of weighted rank scores for each rank position (values within bars) and overall for
 851 each response category (SRS). The SRS represents the total score for each option based on
 852 respondents' 1st, 2nd and 3rd choices (indicated to the right of each bar). For example, 'number of
 853 lives lost' was selected as 3rd choice by n=4 participants (multiplied by 1 = 4), 2nd choice by n=10
 854 respondents (multiplied by 2 =, 20) and 1st choice by n=12 respondents (multiplied by 3 = 36),
 855 generating an overall SRS of 60.



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858 **Figure 5. Strategies perceived as the most promising for reducing plastics pollution and**
 859 **protecting human health.** Respondents were asked to rank the top three strategies, out of the list
 860 provided, which in their opinion would be most promising for protecting human health: 1st choice =
 861 most promising, 2nd choice = second most promising, 3rd choice = third most promising (Total
 862 respondents = 26, n=6 respondents ranked more than three strategies). Ranked responses were
 863 assigned weighted numeric values (1st choice=3, 2nd choice=2, 3rd choice=1) to calculate the sum of
 864 weighted rank scores for each rank position (values within bars) and overall for each response
 865 category (SRS). The SRS represents the total score for each strategy based on respondents' 1st, 2nd
 866 and 3rd choices (indicated to the right of each bar). For example, 'Production reduction' was selected
 867 as 3rd choice by n=3 participants (multiplied by 1 = 3), 2nd choice by n=7 respondents (multiplied by
 868 2 = 14) and 1st choice by n=12 respondents (multiplied by 3 = 36), generating an overall SRS of 53.

In your opinion, which strategies seem the most promising for protecting human health in the context of reducing plastic pollution?



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