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Is it climate change? Coverage by online news sites of the 2019 European summer heatwaves in France, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK

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1 **Is it climate change? Coverage by online news sites of the 2019 European summer heatwaves in**
2 **France, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK**

3 **Abstract:** In 2019 several countries across Western Europe experienced record breaking temperatures
4 and heatwaves which, in some cases, reached temperatures of over 40°C for three to four consecutive
5 days during June and July. Extreme event attribution (EEA) studies show that anthropogenic climate
6 change increased the likelihood of these events by at least three to ten times (with different results for
7 different countries), and increased the temperature by 1.2°C to 3.0°C. The heatwaves resulted in more
8 than 2,500 deaths. Based on a content analysis of 267 articles taken from 20 of the most visited online
9 news websites in four of the countries most affected by the heatwaves (France, Germany, the Netherlands
10 and the UK), we find strong variations between countries and media outlets in how much attention
11 journalists pay to links between climate change and the heatwaves (the UK media the most, and
12 politically left-leaning titles more than right-leaning ones); many different types of statements depicting
13 the link but in general, the presence of accurate, science-based descriptions; a strong presence of EEA
14 studies in the coverage; and more quotes from climate scientists than politicians and NGOs, with a
15 minimal presence of climate change skeptics. These results contribute to our understanding of media
16 coverage around extreme weather events in different countries and media outlets, and how such events
17 might serve as opportunities for public engagement with climate change.

18 Key Words: Climate change; heatwave; France Germany Netherlands UK media; extreme weather
19 attribution; journalism

20 **1. Background**

21 Despite the proliferation of numerous sources of information on climate change, news media are still
22 central to how individuals, organizations, and societies understand, evaluate and act upon it
23 (Metag, Füchslin, & Schäfer, 2017). Online survey data from 40 countries, including the four countries in
24 this study, show that in 2020, news media were the most widely used sources of information on climate
25 change, and that online sites of major news organizations were the second most popular platform after
26 television (Amdi, 2020). For the news media, extreme weather events such as heatwaves, floods droughts
27 and storms present a particular case for journalists to report about: first, such stories are of national and
28 international relevance to warn the public of acute dangers and the impacts on infrastructure and society
29 at large, and second, because these events also raise the opportunity for journalists to link the extreme
30 weather events to the science of climate change, and in this case extreme event attribution (EEA)
31 studies.

32

33 However, media treatments of extreme weather events in European countries have rarely been studied
34 (Painter and Hassol, 2020), and cross-country studies of a single event are generally lacking. Indeed, in
35 general, there has been relatively little scholarship about the media coverage of specific extreme weather
36 events across the world. Surveys of the literature (Hopke, 2019; Painter and Hassol, 2020) show that the
37 research has tended to focus on volume of coverage, or issue attention. Several studies (e.g., Corder and
38 Schwartz 2019, Burgess et al., 2020, Weiner et al., 2021) have concluded that the links between extreme
39 weather events and climate change are underreported. This study fills this research gap by studying
40 the reporting of the 2019 heatwaves in Europe. Similar to previous heatwaves, these received

41 extensive coverage in European media, and particularly in the four countries where the heatwaves were
42 most acute: France, Germany, the Netherlands and the UK.

43
44 2019 was the warmest year on record in Europe.¹ During a series of heatwaves in June and July, a number
45 of record-breaking temperatures were set. In France an all-time high temperature of 46°C was reached,
46 parts of Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg and the Netherlands also registered new highs, and in the UK, a
47 new all-time high of 38.7°C was recorded in Cambridge in July (Vautard et al., 2020). In many parts of
48 the continent, the weather was 3°C to 4°C warmer than average, and the number of sunshine hours was
49 the highest on record (Copernicus, 2020). According to the Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of
50 Disasters, the European summer heatwave was the deadliest extreme event in 2019 anywhere in the world
51 with a total of approximately 2,500 deaths in France, Netherlands, the UK and Belgium (measured by
52 excess mortality) (Froment and Below, 2020). This figure represented more deaths than those resulting
53 from the floods in India and cyclone Idai affecting Mozambique and Zimbabwe that year (ibid.).²

54 EEA studies assess if, and by how much, specific extreme weather events have become more or less
55 likely, or more or less intense. Such studies about the 2019 European heatwaves established that they
56 became several times more likely and more intense due to anthropogenic climate change (van Oldenborgh
57 et al., 2019, Vautard et al., 2020, Ma et al., 2020). Two preliminary studies carried out by the
58 multinational umbrella science organization World Weather Attribution (WWA) were published in ‘near-
59 real-time’ (see Table 1 in Supplementary Material), which makes the 2019 summer heatwaves a fertile
60 case study to examine how the media reported the link at the time the events were taking place.

61 Although EEA can link specific extreme events to climate change to an unprecedented degree (Betts,
62 2021), there are many different ways of defining the event and describing its results, including an array of
63 different phrases and word choices. The choice of phrasing is important not just for scientific accuracy,
64 but also because recent focus group research has found that different approaches to communicating EEA,
65 including the use of different words and visualizations, can evoke distinct reactions among members of
66 the public (Ettinger et al., 2021).

67 This study offers a detailed focus on a three-month period of coverage of heatwaves in four countries
68 during which two EEA studies were published. In this way we add to our understanding of firstly, the
69 different ways journalists depicted the links between climate change and heatwaves, the EEA studies they
70 quote over time, and the sources they turn to, and secondly, the differences and similarities between
71 journalistic practices in different countries and different types of media outlet (public broadcasters, and
72 right-and left-leaning commercial outlets).

73 **2.1 EEA studies and the role of climate change in heatwaves**

74 The extent to which greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions have played a role in the occurrence of extreme
75 weather events is of growing interest to scientists, the media, politicians, environmental activists and
76 wider civil society. By early 2021, more than 350 peer-reviewed EEA studies had been published

¹ It was surpassed by 0.4°C in 2020. <https://climate.copernicus.eu/copernicus-2020-warmest-year-record-europe-globally-2020-ties-2016-warmest-year-recorded>

² If economic losses are included, Mozambique and Zimbabwe were the two countries most affected by extreme weather events in 2019 (Eckstein et al., 2021).

77 (Carbon Brief, 2021). This research has provided mounting evidence that human activity is raising the
78 risk of some types of extreme weather, especially those linked to heat.

79 However, the calculation of the influence of climate change on extreme weather events such as heatwaves
80 is complex and at times uncertain, as it is contingent on how climate scientists define the event according
81 to the interplay of natural fluctuations, and local and atmospheric conditions. In recent years the science
82 community has been making substantial advances in better understanding the links between climate
83 change and specific extreme weather events. Different approaches, or combinations of approaches, are
84 used by EEA scientists to establish the presence or absence of any link (Herring et al., 2016). They
85 usually rely on some combination of observational weather data and computer modelling simulations to
86 assess the difference in the likelihood or intensity of events with or without anthropogenic factors (ibid.).
87 An assessment is then made of various possibilities: i) the event was made more likely or severe as a
88 result of anthropogenic climate change; ii) the event was made less likely or severe; iii) there was no
89 discernible difference; or iv) there was insufficient data to make a judgement.

90 Often the results are expressed as a change in the ‘return period’ or ‘return time’ of an event, that is, how
91 often the event of this type might be expected to occur. For example in our case study, researchers found
92 that the heatwaves in the UK and Germany would have had a return time of a few tens to a few hundreds
93 of years without climate change, but climate change caused this event to now have a return period of
94 around 10-30 years. So the likelihood of such an event was made about 10 times higher (and at least 3
95 times in France and the Netherlands) due to climate change (Vautard et al., 2019).

96 Research published in early 2021 (Carbon Brief, 2021) found that of the 132 attribution studies that have
97 looked at extreme heat events, 92% concluded that climate change made the event or trend more likely or
98 more severe. This compares, for example, with rainfall or flooding events, where a smaller portion (58%)
99 found human activity had made the event more likely or more severe. No studies have found that a
100 heatwave had been made less severe by climate change, while two studies (2%) identified no influence
101 and a further eight (6%) were inconclusive. A similar survey of 36 studies of 32 heatwaves starting in
102 2015 showed that anthropogenic influence increased the likelihood or strength of each event (Watts et al,
103 2021).

104 According to the World Weather Attribution (WWA) initiative, every heatwave analyzed in Europe in
105 recent years has been found to be made much more likely and more intense due to anthropogenic climate
106 change. The Stott et al. (2004) study of the 2003 heatwave in several European countries paved the way.
107 The authors calculated that it was very likely that human influence had at least doubled the risk of the
108 heatwave, which resulted in an estimated 70,000 excess deaths that summer. Since then, attribution
109 studies have been applied to heatwaves in different regions of Europe in 2010 (Otto et al., 2012), 2015
110 (Sippel et al., 2016), 2017 (Kew et al., 2018), and 2018 (Leach et al., 2020). The studies show variations
111 across time in how much the specific heatwaves were made more intense and/or more likely as a result of
112 climate change, which depended strongly on how the event was defined in terms of location, season,
113 intensity and duration.

114

115 **2.2 The 2019 European heatwaves**

116 The two main 2019 heatwaves in Europe took place in June and July, and varied in time span,
117 geographies and intensity. The June event lasted longer, whereas the July one was shorter and more
118 intense, with about four days of very high temperatures, and was accompanied by severe drought
119 conditions in some areas, particularly in parts of France (Vautard et al, 2020). The immediate cause of the
120 heatwaves was similar – a ridge of high pressure across Western Europe combined with a low-pressure
121 system off the Iberian Peninsula. This weather pattern forced an intense transfer of hot air from
122 Northwestern Africa across Spain to France, and then Germany and the Benelux countries (ibid.).

123 Details of the impacts of the heatwaves and the government responses to them are broken down by
124 country and summarized in the Supplementary Material. France suffered the highest official death toll due
125 to the heatwaves (1,435), followed by the UK (900), and the Netherlands (400). The effects of extreme
126 temperatures were far-reaching: ‘from delayed trains and sleepless nights, to deaths from drowning and
127 an increased mortality risk for the elderly, babies and vulnerable populations’.³

128 Table 1 (in the Supplementary Material) summarizes the four event attribution studies of the summer
129 heatwaves which were published between July 2019 and August 2020. The two WWA studies were
130 published in ‘near-real-time’ (namely 2 July and 2 August 2019), and received widespread media
131 coverage (see section 5.3 below).

132 The WWA researchers emphasized that although they had high confidence in the increased likelihood of
133 the heatwaves, there were a number of uncertainties and limitations. For example, in the case of the
134 WWA study of France of 2 July 2019, the researchers said it was difficult to assign a specific number to
135 the size of the increased likelihood due to the differences between the representation of the heatwaves in
136 the observational data and the climate models. Also, the temperature data record used in the analysis was
137 relatively short, running from 1947 to 2019, which meant it was more likely to contain some uncertainties
138 (Carbon Brief, 2019).

139 In other studies of the media coverage of extreme weather events (e.g., a heatwave and extreme rainfall
140 event in India in 2015 - Painter et al., 2020; or the Californian drought – Osaka et al., 2020), EEA studies
141 had produced different results about the role of climate change. However, in the case of the European
142 heatwave, all the studies showed that anthropogenic climate change made it more likely or more intense.
143

144 **3.1 Country differences in media coverage**

145 Comparative media research has long identified, and debated, the key characteristics of different media
146 systems in Western Europe. In their classic study, Hallin and Mancini (2004) saw evidence for Germany
147 and the Netherlands belonging to the ‘democratic-corporatist’ model, whereas France approximated more
148 to the ‘polarized pluralist’ model, and the UK to the North American or ‘liberal’ model. In all four
149 countries, public and commercial broadcasters continue to fare reasonably well in terms of audience reach
150 (Newman et al., 2020), but there are important differences in the extent to which they have prioritized
151 their online news offers with the BBC faring better than their counterparts in France, Germany and other
152 European countries (Sehl et al., 2016). Likewise, newspaper companies across Europe struggle to attract

³ <https://www.ox.ac.uk/news/2019-08-02-european-heatwave-made-100-times-more-likely-due-climate-change>

153 readerships for their print offer (Nicholls et al., 2018), but some (like the Guardian) have adapted much
154 better to the digital landscape than others by prioritizing their online content (Küng, 2016).

155 A variety of factors at different levels, such as macro trends in media business models, meso-level
156 developments within media organizations, and at the micro level changing attitudes of individual
157 journalists, continues to shape the way climate change is covered by different media organizations
158 (Schäfer and Painter, 2021). Major differences continue to persist between countries, including the
159 volume of coverage, the amount of attention given to skeptics, and the emphasis on different themes or
160 frames (Painter and Schäfer, 2019). Some of these differences are found between ‘Anglosphere’ countries
161 like the UK, and continental European countries. For example, studies have shown that in Europe the UK
162 tends to cover climate change the most (partly due to its contestation in the public sphere), followed by
163 relatively high coverage in France, and less in Germany and the Netherlands (Schmidt et al., 2013). The
164 ‘exceptionalism’ of the UK compared to other European countries has been supported by other studies,
165 particularly in the higher proportion of editorial space given to climate skeptics and scientific uncertainty
166 (Brossard et al., 2004; Dirikx and Gelders, 2009; Engels et al., 2013; Painter and Gavin, 2015).

167 Several studies suggest ideological differences between media organizations are a significant driver of
168 different treatments of climate change (see Painter, 2016 for overview). In the UK, left-leaning papers
169 such as the Guardian are strongly supportive of mainstream climate science in their news articles, whereas
170 right-leaning newspapers such as the Mail and the Express have been strongly dismissive of them. In their
171 study of the Dutch and French press, Dirikx and Gelders (2010) found that in the Netherlands newspaper
172 ideology was not related to climate change coverage, but in France it was related to the tone of the
173 coverage and the need to take action. The difference, they said, was that in France (and the UK) climate
174 change was subject to political division in a highly competitive media landscape, where ideologies are
175 used as a form of ‘product differentiation’. Research has also found notable differences between left-
176 leaning and right-leaning media outlets as regards the volume of coverage of climate change (Kristiansen
177 et al., 2020), and the coverage of adaptation to heatwaves (Jiménez-Gómez and Martín-Sosa-Rodríguez,
178 2021).

179

180 **3.2 Extreme weather in the media**

181 As mentioned in Section 1, research has shown that the links between climate change and extreme
182 weather events have generally not been reported sufficiently or accurately. However, Hopke (2019) found
183 that there are clear exceptions to this general finding for some English-language media titles like the
184 Guardian, the New York Times, the Washington Post and the BBC. She argues that this was in part due to
185 these media organizations’ investment in environmental journalism by having dedicated environmental
186 and/or climate reporters and editors. Indeed, the Guardian prides itself on its detailed, science-based
187 climate coverage based on its well-resourced environment section. It offers frequent self-reflection on its
188 coverage, often publishing statements about its editorial policy on the issue, and even initiated a campaign
189 in 2015 focused on getting two charitable organizations to withdraw investments from fossil fuel
190 companies (Painter, 2011; Kristiansen et al., 2020; Schäfer and Painter, 2021).

191 Most of the studies have not examined the different ways the link between climate change and specific
192 weather events are described, or the role that EEA studies have played in the coverage. The exceptions

193 include Painter et al. (2020), who found that in India, politicians and NGOs often ‘blamed’ climate
194 change without reference to the science, and that EEA studies were rarely mentioned in the media. In
195 contrast, Osaka et al. (2020) concluded that local and national media in the USA did cover the link
196 between climate change and the Californian droughts in 2014-2015, but that the different EEA studies
197 available led to the presence of a frame of scientific uncertainty or disagreement in the coverage.

198 Very few studies have focused solely on an extreme weather event in Europe, with one exception being
199 the wildfires in Greece in 2007 (Hovardas, 2014). Jiménez-Gómez and Martín-Sosa-Rodríguez (2021)
200 looked at the coverage of European cities’ adaptation to heatwaves over a two-year period from 2017-19
201 in several newspapers in five countries. They concluded that the country where the article was published
202 was the most decisive variable in the rigor and depth of the journalistic coverage, followed by ideological
203 orientation. The authors found that the media in France, regardless of type or editorial line, had the most
204 comprehensive approach, and that French authorities and institutions regularly linked the heatwaves to
205 climate change.

206 A different research question was addressed in work by Pianta and Sisco (2020), who looked at online
207 news coverage of hot temperatures in the (then) 28 countries of European Union from 2014 to 2019.
208 They focused on the drivers of volume coverage and a possible correlation between positive deviations
209 from short-term average temperatures as distinct to baseline periods used by climatologists. Based on a
210 time-series analysis of 1.7 million articles, the authors argued that temperatures warmer with respect to
211 recent years increase the attention that the media devote to climate change coverage, which may be due to
212 this being interpreted as evidence of climate change. However, other possible drivers of fluctuations of
213 volume (e.g., UN summits, science reports) are not included in their analysis.

214

215 **3.3 Criticism of media coverage**

216 Mainstream media have often been criticized for their coverage of extreme weather events. This has
217 centered on journalists being slow to make the link between climate change and the event (Painter and
218 Hassol, 2020) or in some countries not making it at all (Hopke, 2019); not fully explaining scientific
219 disagreement or uncertainty over EEA studies (Osaka et al., 2020); presenting news and weather reports
220 that portray (in text and images) long, hot, dry spells as overwhelmingly positive (e.g., O’Neill, 2019); or
221 quoting NGOs and politicians on the link without sufficient scrutiny of their accuracy (Painter et al.,
222 2020).

223

224 In similar ways to this general criticism, some NGOs and experts in the UK pointed to the relative
225 absence of climate change in the reporting of the 2019 summer heatwaves, the insufficient mention of the
226 negative impacts of heatwaves, and the generally positive tone of the coverage, both in the text and
227 visually.⁴ In the Netherlands, some commentators criticized reporters for paying more attention to

⁴ <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2019/aug/27/holiday-heat-headlines-not-focusing-enough-on-climate-crisis-reality-experts>; <https://www.carbonbrief.org/daily-brief/europe-heatwave-paris-forecast-to-set-all-time-high-temperature-record>

228 whether the heatwave would break records, rather than its link to climate change.⁵ In contrast in France,
229 some commentators questioned whether the media were paying too much attention to the heatwave and
230 creating an almost automatic link to climate change, and thereby more anxiety amongst the population.⁶

231 In the UK, the Met Office and the BBC were also subject to some criticism for not being proactive
232 enough in making the link between the weather and climate change. One academic argued it was
233 important that weather forecasters gave overviews of temperature trends to help viewers ‘to make sense
234 of their own experiences and allow them to think about how risks will change’.⁷ The same expert has
235 advocated that heatwaves are becoming so deadly (and far more people in the UK have died from recent
236 heatwaves than from storms) that they should be given names, like storms, so that the public takes them
237 more seriously.⁸ Another academic pointed out that text or headlines highlighting the downsides of 2019
238 heatwaves were often accompanied by positive images of holiday makers enjoying a good time on the
239 beach, or people playing in fountains, before, during and after the record-breaking August Bank Holiday
240 (O’Neill, 2019).

241 Bearing in mind the above discussion, we can see that although the media play a central role in giving the
242 public information about extreme weather events, few studies have concentrated on the way they present
243 the science behind the link with climate change, and on the differences in coverage between countries and
244 media outlets with contrasting political leanings. As a result, our principal and secondary research
245 questions were formulated as follows:

246 1. How often was a link between the 2019 heatwave and anthropogenic climate change included in the
247 coverage?

248 2. What were the different ways that journalists describe the link, and what was their relative presence?

249 3. What was the volume of coverage over time where a mention of attribution studies was included?

250 4. Which sectors (scientists, politicians, NGOs) were quoted in the coverage about the link between the
251 weather events and climate change, and were they supportive of the link, or questioned it?

252 5. What were the main differences between countries in the content of the coverage?

253 6. Was there a marked difference between left-leaning and right-leaning publications?

254 Secondary:

255 7. Was scientific uncertainty represented, and if so, how?

256 8. How often was there mention of any possible solution(s) or policy options, i.e. anything relating to
257 either individual or collective actions to avoid or reduce the chances/impacts of such scenarios
258 (heatwaves) in the future?

⁵ <https://www.bd.nl/uden-veghel-e-o/reuring-rond-het-hitterecord-maar-in-volkel-en-gilze-en-rijen-reageren-ze-koeltjes~adb3f87e/>

⁶ <https://information.tv5monde.com/info/canicule-en-france-les-medias-s-echauffent-ils-308006>

⁷ <https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2019/aug/27/holiday-heat-headlines-not-focusing-enough-on-climate-crisis-reality-experts>

⁸ <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2019/07/23/heatwaves-deadly-should-named-like-storms-say-experts-britain/>

259 4. Methods and material

260 Based on the research showing that online news websites are a very popular way of receiving information
261 about climate change (Amdi, 2020), we chose to analyze the coverage of the heatwave by five of the most
262 visited websites in each of four European countries most affected. We selected twenty news online sites
263 to test these research questions. These were 20 minutes, France Info, Le Monde, Le Figaro, and Ouest
264 France (France); Spiegel, Bild, Focus, Welt and N-tv (Germany); NU.nl, Algemeen Dagblad, NOS News
265 Online, De Telegraaf, and De Volkskrant (the Netherlands); and BBC online, the Guardian, Mail Online,
266 Sky News online and the Telegraph (UK) (see Table 2). The criteria for selection are laid out in detail in
267 the Supplementary Material, which also provides brief portraits of each media outlet. The articles were
268 selected according to the search term ‘heatwave’ and its equivalent in other languages in the period 1 June
269 to 30 September 2019, and then culled in two rounds to include only articles that mentioned the link
270 between the heatwaves and climate change. This resulted in a total of 267 articles to be coded, which are
271 distributed as laid out in Table 2 Column 5. A codebook was drawn up using deductive and inductive
272 methods, and tested iteratively amongst the five coders. Scores of between 0.75 and 0.85 using Fleiss’
273 Kappa, Cohen's Kappa pairwise and Krippendorff's Alpha for the key variables were achieved, which
274 were regarded as acceptable levels of coder reliability. Again, more details can be found in the
275 Supplementary Material.

276 5 Results

277 5.1 Volume of Coverage

278 Table 2 shows a considerable amount of coverage of the heatwaves across all four countries and 20
279 outlets, amounting to 2,447 articles after an initial round of culling irrelevant or repeated articles (see
280 Column 4). Many aspects of the story were widely covered, including the latest weather developments,
281 the record-breaking nature of the heatwaves, the potential dangers, transport and health impacts on
282 ordinary people, impacts on economic sectors such as agriculture, and government attempts or policies to
283 respond to the heatwaves in the short or long-term. Some outlets paid considerable attention to giving
284 practical advice, and the activities of celebrities in the heatwaves. A wide range of photos, most of them
285 showing positive images of enjoyment, accompanied the text.

286 The differing volume of coverage between media outlets in Column 4 may not simply represent the
287 different editorial priority given to reporting the heatwave. Larger volumes of coverage may be an
288 indication of the business models of different online sites, or the geographical spread of the readership.
289 For example, some French titles (except Le Monde, which does more original, in-house journalism)
290 publish large numbers of online news articles in general, many based on AFP, as part of their drive for
291 more visibility on social media platforms; Ouest France is a regional newspaper dedicating considerable
292 coverage to local (weather) events across a wider geographical area, where impacts were varied; and the
293 Mail Online’s business model is based on volume of advertising around large numbers of articles.

294 More important are the results found in Columns 5 and 6. Column 5 shows the number of articles which
295 mentioned some link between the heatwaves and climate change, which we then present as a percentage
296 of the total number of articles covering the heatwave (Column 6). In total, 267 articles, equivalent to 11%
297 of the articles about the heatwave across the four countries, mentioned climate change. Of these 267

298 articles, only 10 articles (4%) were opinion pieces or editorials, of which the vast majority (8) was found
299 in the UK sample.

300 *5.2. The description of the link between the weather event(s) and man-made climate change*

301

302 As can be seen from Table 3 (in Supplementary Material), we found a wide variety of phrases, quotes, or
303 statements that described the link between climate change and either the specific 2019 heatwave or
304 heatwaves in general. These varied between generic trend statements, likelihood and intensity statements
305 about the 2019 heatwave, and other types of links. Several types of statements could be present in the
306 same article.

307

308 Generic statements were those such as ‘this is the sort of extreme event which scientists say could become
309 more frequent and/or intense in the future’. Causation statements were those which explicitly or implicitly
310 suggested that climate change (partly) caused the 2019 heatwave such as phrases as ‘climate change was
311 to blame for the 2019 heatwave’, or ‘climate change (partly) caused the 2019 heatwave as part of a
312 warming trend’. The ‘other’ section included a wide range of types of link descriptions, not captured in
313 other variables, including phrases such as the 2019 heatwave being proof of/evidence for/indicator
314 of/consistent with climate change or ‘climate change is playing a role in the heatwave’. The likelihood
315 and intensity/severity statements included both generic and specific events, and phrases such as ‘the
316 chances’, ‘the probability’, ‘the risk’, ‘the odds’, ‘more frequent’ or ‘more often’ (in addition to ‘likely’)
317 and ‘magnitude’ or ‘strength’ (in addition to ‘intense’ or ‘severe’).

318

319 Figure 1 shows the relative presence of the different types of statements. Generic statements were the
320 most frequently present (227) in 85% of our sample. The second most frequently present type of
321 statements were likelihood statements (in 186 articles – 70% of sample), followed by ‘other’ and
322 intensity/severity statements (both with 105 articles – 39%), and causation (13 – 5%). The significance of
323 the results, and the ones that follow, will be discussed in Section 6.

324

325 *5.3 The frequency and timing of quotes from the WWA reports*

326

327 Table 4 (in Supplementary Material) shows the number of articles which mention the two WWA reports
328 released on 2 July 2019 (France) and 2 August 2019 (several countries) in the 20 media outlets. As can be
329 seen:

- 330 • Nearly a fifth (19% - 50 articles) of the coverage across all four countries mentioning climate
331 change included a mention of either the first or second WWA report, or both.
- 332 • The first WWA report (France) was mentioned 24 times, compared to the slightly higher figure of
333 26 times for the second WWA report (Europe).
- 334 • There are not large differences between the countries, as the country with the highest percentage
335 (the UK – 22%) does not vary greatly from the country with the lowest percentage (France -
336 15%).
- 337 • Four media titles did not mention either WWA report (Bild, N-tv, Algermeen Dagblad and De
338 Telegraaf), all of which are either right-leaning or centrist/non-aligned.
- 339 • The titles which mentioned the WWA reports the most were the Guardian, the BBC and Le
340 Figaro (5 mentions each).

341

342 Figure 2 shows the volume of coverage of the WWA reports over time. As can be seen, the bulk of the
343 coverage occurred around the release dates of the reports, but in both cases, mention of the reports
344 continued in the days after their release.

345

346 *5.4 The identification of sources being quoted on the possible link*

347

348 Our results show that well over half the articles we coded (156 - 58%) included one or more direct quotes
349 about the possible link between climate change and the 2019 heatwave. A total of 219 direct quotes were
350 identified across the whole sample, although the total could have been higher as we coded only the first
351 three quotes in each article (See Table 5 in Supplementary Material for what was included in each
352 category of source). The categorizations were decided by the main affiliation of the source, as described
353 in the text of the article.

354

- 355 • Nearly one in four (52 - 24%) of the quotes came from representatives of the National
356 Meteorological Offices (or the Met Offices as institutions) in the four countries.
- 357 • A similar figure (50 – 23%) was represented by climate scientists whose main affiliation was to a
358 university.
- 359 • The largest percentage (56 – 26%) came from (representatives of) science-based organizations or
360 institutes, of whom the most prevalent were the WWA (20 – 9%) and Copernicus (14 – 6%).
- 361 • In total, nearly three-quarters of all the quotes (72%) came from experts related to the specific
362 science of climate change and weather events. Politicians, political parties and political
363 movements were quoted only 21 times (10%), and NGOs (including unions and farmers) even
364 lower (11 – 5%).

365

366 Only two of the 219 (coded) quotes were of a type which categorically denied or seriously questioned any
367 link between climate change and the heatwave. Both were found in the German sample, one from a
368 politician and one from a climate scientist. The first was from Klaus Gagel, a politician from the right-
369 wing AfD, quoted in a Bild article on 29 August about the high temperatures in Frankfurt. Describing
370 himself as a qualified meteorologist, Gagel said that the rising temperatures were ‘mainly due to the
371 increasing solar radiation due to decreasing cloud cover - and the lack of large volcanic eruptions [...].
372 Cosmic rays also play a role in particles and clouds. None of this is taken into account in the climate
373 models.’⁹

374

375 A more nuanced quote came from the climate scientist, Gabriele Hegerl, a Professor of Climate System
376 Science at the University of Edinburgh in the UK. She was quoted on Focus.de as saying that ‘Studies
377 that looked at the latter question for heatwaves - for example, the 2003 heatwave - mostly find that such
378 high temperatures are now more likely. The more difficult question is whether the weather conditions
379 themselves have changed. Weather conditions are very variable and I am not convinced that we are seeing
380 any change at the moment.’¹⁰ Her quote formed part of a selection of quotes in the article from four

⁹ <https://www.bild.de/regional/frankfurt/frankfurt-aktuell/besonders-frankfurts-45-000-strassenbaeume-leiden-duerre-am-main-64282984.bild.html>

¹⁰ https://www.focus.de/wissen/klima/wetter-ist-das-schon-der-klimawandel-vier-forscher-erklaeren-die-rekord-hitze_id_10866120.html

381 climate scientists, including Christian Franzke, a researcher at the University of Hamburg, who said that
382 ‘There have always been heatwaves. Therefore, the upcoming heat episode cannot be attributed to climate
383 change. Heatwaves are a natural weather phenomenon’.¹¹

384

385 *5.5 Differences between countries*

386

387 France had the most coverage (93), followed by the UK (90), then Germany (42) and the Netherlands (42)
388 (see Table 2). There were notable differences between the UK and the other countries in the percentage of
389 coverage in which the climate change link was mentioned. The UK was the highest (27%) followed by
390 the Netherlands (12%), Germany (10%) and France (7%). Using a chi-square test, we found the
391 difference between those four countries to be statistically highly significant, $X^2(3, N = 2,447) = 80.61, p$
392 $< .001$. In particular, the difference between the UK and the other three countries was found to be very
393 marked (for the fuller results, see the Supplementary Material). The Netherlands also stood out by several
394 metrics: the lower percentage of articles containing at least one direct quote about the link – only 38%
395 compared to the other countries ranging between 58% (UK) and 67% (Germany), with France in between
396 (65%); the lowest percentage of articles mentioning scientific uncertainty (see 5.7); and the lack of range
397 of sources, where over half of the quotes came from the Koninklijk Nederlands Meteorologisch Instituut
398 (KNMI – Dutch Met Office) (See Table 5). The UK sample included a large number of quotes from the
399 Met Office (17) and climate scientists at universities (31); France included the most quotes from scientific
400 or research institutes (26), and Germany only quoted its Met Office (DWD) three times.

401

402 It is also interesting to note that the Dutch (0) and German (2) coverage included no or very few
403 politicians’ voices, whereas the French (11 quotes) and the UK (8) samples included many more.
404 Germany was the only country with three examples of quotes from sources denying or strongly
405 questioning the link, as described in 5.4 above.

406

407 However, by other criteria, country differences did not stand out, namely the presence of different types
408 of statements about the link (see Figure 1), the mention of WWA reports, and the percentage of articles
409 discussing solutions (see 6.7 below).

410

411 *5.6 Differences between media outlets*

412

413 There were some notable differences in the coverage by media outlets of different political orientation:

414

- 415 • In the UK and the Netherlands, left-leaning or ‘non-aligned’ media outlets had a much higher
416 percentage presence of statements mentioning the link than right-leaning ones (see Table 2). In
417 these two countries, using a chi-square test, these differences between media outlets were
418 particularly significant (see Supplementary Material).
- 419 • For example in the UK, the left-wing Guardian had a 62% presence compared to the Mail (19%)
420 and the Telegraph (14%). In the Netherlands, the centre-left De Volkskrant (12%) compared
421 sharply with the right-wing De Telegraaf (1%), which contained just one article mentioning the

¹¹ This was not included in the coding as only the first three sources quoted were coded in each article, and this quote was the fourth.

422 link out of the paper’s total of 92 articles covering the heatwave and only then a relatively weak
423 link.¹²

- 424 • In France, the picture is more complex. Although the left-leaning Le Monde had a higher
425 percentage (12%) than the right-wing Le Figaro (5%) and Ouest France (4%), the centre-right 20
426 minutes had the same percentage (12%).
- 427 • In Germany, the left-leaning Spiegel had the highest number of articles mentioning the link,
428 although in percentage terms, it came behind the more centrist Welt. The right-leaning Bild had
429 the least, equal to N-tv.
- 430 • Of the online news sites of broadcasters, the BBC and Sky News in the UK had the highest
431 percentage of coverage of the link (42% and 19%, respectively). NOS in the Netherlands came
432 next with 17%, followed by France-Info with 11%. N-tv only had 5%, but the articles there are
433 very short and often linked to videos.
- 434 • The only quote from a climate science denier came in the right-wing German publication, *Bild*.

435

436 *5.7 Scientific uncertainty and solutions*

437

438 Each article was coded to assess the presence of different types of scientific uncertainty. These included
439 differing opinions from scientists or experts as to the role of climate change, the quoting of skeptics who
440 disagree with the scientific consensus, differing results from separate studies, or uncertainty about the
441 results of EEA studies (such as inconclusive results, insufficient data, statistical/measurement
442 uncertainties, or complexity).

443

444 By far the most common form of uncertainty found was that of complexity, found in phrases such as
445 ‘However, it’s difficult to say for certain that a particular extreme event – like the summer heatwave – is
446 attributable to anthropogenic climate change’, or ‘Linking a single event to climate change is
447 complicated’.¹³ Statements like these appeared in a quarter of our entire coded sample (25%). The UK
448 had the highest percentage (39%), Netherlands the lowest (14%).

449

450 Each article was coded for the inclusion of any possible solution(s) or policy options, i.e. anything
451 relating to either individual or collective actions to avoid or reduce the chances/impacts of such scenarios
452 (heatwaves) in the future. This could include mitigation and/or adaptation. Specific policy plans to deal
453 with heatwaves (such as heat plans) where climate change was not mentioned were not included. Overall,
454 nearly a third (30% - 79 articles) included a mention of possible solutions. The differences between
455 countries were not marked as the range fell between France (34% - 32 articles) and the UK (24% - 22
456 articles).

457

458 **6. Discussion**

459 *6.1 Mentioning the links to climate change*

¹² <https://www.telegraaf.nl/nieuws/400259408/gilze-en-rijen-gaat-hittewimpel-toch-halen>

¹³ In one case, a French weather forecaster used the stronger phrase that it was ‘impossible to link the heatwave (in Lille) to global warming’, which was almost a form of denialism, but the context was more one of doubt. 20 minutes, 26 July 2019.

460 The finding that nearly 90% of the articles covering the heatwave across all four countries did not
461 mention any link with climate change could be down to several reasons: journalists and editors may not
462 see the necessity of making readers aware of the role of climate change in heatwave occurrence; a lack of
463 space; or the lack of information about attribution studies. In this context, it is worth pointing out that
464 some of the articles, particularly on n-tv.de, are very short and focus on visual content. Moreover, the
465 Telegraph published several articles on what to wear during the heatwave, or survive it, as did the Mail,
466 which also dedicated a lot of coverage to reporting on how celebrities were coping with the heatwave, and
467 in particular how they were dressed. One could argue that the choice of angle to the story made a mention
468 of the link to climate change less appropriate or likely.

469 The fact that opinion pieces about the heatwaves were scarce in our sample stands out in sharp contrast to
470 other studies about climate change articles which suggests that the ratio between opinion pieces/editorials
471 and news articles can reach over 50% (e.g., when assessing the presence of climate skeptics voices, see
472 Painter and Gavin, 2016). The relative absence of opinion pieces in our sample might attest to the relative
473 lack of contestation or controversy over the link between climate change and the heatwave.

474 The UK sample showed considerable variation between left-leaning and right-leaning media outlets in the
475 percentage of coverage mentioning the link. More than three in five articles in the Guardian mentioned
476 some link to climate change, the most of any media outlet in our survey. It is noteworthy that even before
477 the publication of the WWA reports, Guardian articles were making the link with climate change. The
478 phrase ‘Scientists have said Europe’s 2019 heatwave, like last year’s, was closely linked to the climate
479 emergency and that such extreme weather events will be many times more likely over the coming
480 decades’ was repeated verbatim in two articles, as was another phrase quoting the Met Office.¹⁴ Our
481 results support the thesis put forward by Hopke (2019) that for the UK at least, investment over time in
482 specialist climate reporters may have improved the quality and the quantity of the coverage (for the BBC
483 and the Guardian), although more research would be needed for the other three countries. The results also
484 show how the Guardian stands out for its consistent, science-based coverage which seemed to follow an
485 editorial policy of frequently making the link to climate change. A wide variety of environment
486 correspondents and also reporters in different countries mentioned the link.

487 In the Netherlands, the low percentage of articles mentioning the link could be due in part to journalists at
488 times thinking the link was too obvious to mention, when reporting for example, about different solutions
489 (e.g., sustainable cooling systems or planting more trees). The Dutch media also seemed to concentrate
490 often on the record-breaking nature of the heatwave, perhaps because heatwaves in general were not
491 perceived as that unusual anymore.¹⁵ In Germany, where the number of articles mentioning the link was
492 also comparatively low, one explanatory factor could be that 2019 registered a lower average summer
493 temperature than the two hottest years of 2018 and 2003. Furthermore, the overall increase of consecutive
494 hot summers throughout the 2010s could have diminished the uniqueness of the heatwave in 2019, and
495 thus the urgency to report on the possible role of climate change. In France, the low percentages are partly

¹⁴ <https://www.theguardian.com/weather/2019/jun/26/europe-heatwave-cities-prepare-to-limit-effects-of-record-temperatures>; <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2019/jun/27/hundreds-of-firefighters-tackle-blaze-in-north-east-spain>; Another repeated phrase was ‘Experts at the Met Office say the current weather pattern is driving hot air from the south, but there is "no doubt" the climate crisis is playing a role in driving what could be unprecedented temperature highs.’

¹⁵ <https://www.ad.nl/utrecht/we-zijn-al-zo-gewend-aan-deze-temperaturen-dat-we-ons-als-zuid-europeanen-gedragen~a137d408/>

496 explained by the sheer volume of coverage of the heatwave (see Column 4, Table 2), perhaps because it
497 lasted longer and had more local impacts.

498 Our results suggest that in addition to the differences in climate coverage between left-leaning and right-
499 leaning outlets described in section 3.1, there are also sharp distinctions in some aspects of their coverage
500 of extreme weather events. The UK and the Netherlands showed statistically significant differences
501 between right and left-wing outlets in the percentage of articles mentioning the link to climate change. In
502 Germany, ideological differences were the least significant of all four countries. In France, the differences
503 were present (e.g. Le Monde compared to Le Figaro and Ouest France) but less marked and the range of
504 percentages (4-12%) is less wide, which may suggest a more common journalistic ‘culture’ of climate
505 change in the French media, where ideology is not as important a driver compared to the UK and the
506 Netherlands. *Prima facie*, this seems to show a difference with the findings of Dirikx and Gelders (2010),
507 mentioned above. However, they found a distinction between outlets as regards the urgency of taking
508 action, whereas our focus is on an aspect of the science of climate change which we suggest has exhibited
509 more consensus across the French media in recent years. Finally, the websites of broadcasters in France,
510 Netherlands and the UK tended to show a higher percentage coverage of the link than right-leaning
511 publications, but not as much as left-leaning publications, which is probably to be expected given their
512 aim to be non-partisan and reach a general audience.

513 *6.2 Describing the links to climate change*

514 One of our important findings that both of the WWA attribution studies received strong coverage on the
515 day of their publication and continued to be mentioned in articles in subsequent weeks across all four
516 countries is notable for the contrast with previous studies mentioned in section 3.2 above, which
517 suggested that the link between climate change and specific heatwaves had been underreported.

518 The two most common types of statements describing the link found in our sample were generic
519 statements and likelihood statements. As summarized in the literature (e.g., Painter and Hassol, 2020),
520 these types fit well with the two main ways to describe the link which are consonant with climate science.
521 The first type (generic) is based on an understanding of the physics of how a warmer climate would be
522 expected to affect such events, as well as observed and/or projected trends, lending confidence that some
523 of these trends are attributable to anthropogenic warming. Such statements (particularly made before EEA
524 studies of an event have been carried out) reflect accurately what scientists expect to happen due to
525 human-driven climate change, and avoid the pitfall of repeating what used to be a common phrase ‘no
526 single event can be attributed to human-caused climate change’. Indeed, statements of this last type were
527 largely absent from our sample.

528 The second major type involves extreme weather event attribution studies which, as described above,
529 analyze actual, individual extreme weather events, using data and models to estimate how much more/less
530 likely or more/less severe a specific weather event became as a result of anthropogenic climate change.
531 With this in mind, it is clear that the journalists were very often (accurately) using phrases rooted in the
532 science to describe the link, particularly when we bear in mind that the fourth most common phrase used
533 (intensity statements), also reflects the science. This finding is closely related to the fact that WWA
534 reports and climate scientists were frequently quoted (see Sections 5.3 and 5.4).

535 However, it is important to point out that journalists were not simple adherents to the language of the
536 reports, as the phrases in English ‘return time’ or ‘return period’ commonly used by scientists (and found
537 in the EEA studies) to describe the average number of years between the recurrence of similar events
538 were only present in 2 out of the 90 articles in the UK sample (although the concept was sometimes
539 explained without using the phrase).

540 It was also noteworthy that statements explicitly or implicitly using the concept of causation (that climate
541 change caused the heatwaves in a deterministic sense), were the least present (at just 5%) and when they
542 were used, it was often in the context of climate change causing the warming trend rather than the actual
543 event.¹⁶ In this context, it is important to remember that several prominent climate scientists have pointed
544 out that framing the question as whether climate change caused this specific event as unhelpful or
545 misguided, and that the better question is whether it is making them more extreme or frequent.¹⁷

546 The same article often included a range of phrases or quotes from scientists to describe the link (other
547 than generic/likelihood/intensity/causation statements), which partly explains the wide variety of other
548 types of statements captured in the ‘other’ category, examples of which can be found in Table 3. In
549 addition to the ones described there (the heatwave(s) being proof of/evidence for/indicator of/consistent
550 with climate change or ‘climate change is playing a role in the heatwave’), other phrases appeared, such
551 as ‘climate change is moving the goal posts’ or ‘you can see the fingerprint of climate change in this
552 heatwave’. This study did not analyze the relative presence of such phrases, but a more detailed mapping
553 of the different, scientifically robust, phrases both used by the media and available to communicators
554 would aid our understanding of how these phrases affect public understanding, engagement, and action
555 differently.

556 One of the reasons why the classification of the different phrases is important is that recent focus group
557 research has noted that specific phrases and visuals used to express EEA findings can play a considerable
558 role in shaping how the public engages with this material (Ettinger et al., 2021). For example, participants
559 preferred relatively simple phrases wherever possible when communicating EEA results, and overcoming
560 numeracy difficulties was an additional challenge when confronted with likelihood and intensity
561 statements.

562 *6.3 Quoting sources*

563
564 Other studies have shown a much higher presence of politicians and NGOs being quoted about the link
565 (44% in e.g., Painter et al., 2020, compared to 15% here). The presence of mainstream climate ‘expertise’
566 (in around three-quarters of all articles) is a stand-out result when we bear in mind the evidence in the
567 past from other studies of quoted sources about climate change in the media, where climate scientists
568 have been much less prominent compared to politicians and NGOs, even when talking about climate
569 science (Eide and Kunelius, 2010, Painter 2011). This contrasts to the coverage of climate-related ‘policy
570 events’ such as the UN’s annual Conference of Parties (COPs), where NGOs and journalists have been

¹⁶ We included such causation statements in the coding, as we wanted to get a sense of how much the concept of causation or phrases with ‘cause’ in them was used.

¹⁷ E.g., Professor Michael Mann in <https://www.theguardian.com/environment/2018/jul/27/extreme-global-weather-climate-change-michael-mann>.

571 found to form ‘networks of coproduction’, creating common interpretation of the COPs in the media
572 (Lück et al., 2015).

573

574 These heatwave events were clearly an opportunity for scientists to show their expertise, and can be seen
575 almost as a ‘science event’. The WWA had the support of an NGO in the promotion of its studies to
576 journalists in some countries. In addition, journalists in the UK were provided with regular quotes from
577 scientists about the heatwave from the London-based Science Media Centre¹⁸, some of which were
578 transferred verbatim into the text of the articles, in the same way the Centre supplies quotes on ‘policy
579 events’ like IPCC reports.

580

581 As mentioned above, the French and UK samples included more quotes from politicians than the Dutch
582 and German samples. Seven out of the eleven quotes in the French sample were government ministers,
583 and in the UK sample, five were French politicians, and none were UK politicians (the one ‘political’
584 quote was from a representative of Extinction Rebellion).

585

586 We did not assess the accuracy of each of the quotes from French politicians, but it is worth pointing out
587 that President Macron seemed to have been scientifically accurate when for example, he was quoted as
588 saying that ‘such extreme weather is likely to become more frequent as a result of global warming’.¹⁹
589 Politicians in different countries have often been guilty of making inaccurate statements about extreme
590 weather events, where comments blaming climate change for certain events has been described as
591 ‘science by assertion, not evidence’ (Painter and Hassol, 2020). But in this instance, the French political
592 class seemed more vocal and more accurate about the link to climate change, a broadly similar conclusion
593 to that found in other studies (Jiménez-Gómez and Martín-Sosa-Rodríguez, 2021).

594

595 It is also worth stressing the unusual statistic that there were only two coded quotes in the whole sample
596 where the link was either denied or strongly questioned, and both came in the German sample. Forms of
597 skepticism are not new to right-leaning newspapers in Germany (Schmidt-Petri, 2017), and support for
598 right-wing populist parties (such as the AfD) is strongly correlated with climate skepticism on the science
599 and policy options (Han et al., 2021). However, the lack of contestation about the links between climate
600 change and the heatwaves in the UK sample is more noteworthy as the country is known for the high
601 historical presence of different types of climate skeptics in the media compared to other European
602 countries (Painter and Ashe, 2012), and particularly in opinion pieces in the right-wing Mail and the
603 Telegraph (Painter and Gavin, 2016; Brüggemann and Engesser, 2017), which formed part of our sample.
604 In the past climate skeptic commentators have explicitly doubted the link between heatwaves and climate
605 change.²⁰

606

607 7. Conclusions

¹⁸ See for example, <https://www.sciencemediacentre.org/expert-reaction-to-uk-heatwave/> and <https://www.sciencemediacentre.org/expert-reaction-to-an-analysis-of-the-human-contribution-to-the-july-2019-european-heatwave-as-produced-by-the-world-weather-attribution-and-the-university-of-oxfords-environmental-change-in/>

¹⁹ <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2019/jun/28/france-on-red-alert-as-heatwave-forecast-to-reach-record-45c>

²⁰ Booker C. (2018), ‘Yes, it’s scorching, but claims that the heatwave is down to climate change are just hot air’. Daily Mail. 25 July 2018.

608 Our detailed content analysis offers robust answers to the research questions outlined at the end of section
609 3. To summarize, we found strong variations between countries and media outlets in how much
610 journalists pay attention to links between climate change and the heatwaves. The UK media mentioned
611 the links more than twice as much as other countries, and in general left-wing online sites included it
612 more than right-wing sites. Journalists find many different ways to describe the link, but in the majority of
613 cases they use accurate, science-based descriptions. In our case study, where two EEA studies were
614 published in ‘near, real-time’, these studies received widespread and often sustained coverage in all four
615 countries, although four of the twenty outlets did not mention them at all. Unlike the findings from other
616 studies (e.g., Painter et al., 2020) climate scientists working for universities, Met Offices and research
617 institutions were quoted frequently and far more than politicians and NGOs.

618 There are important limitations to our results. Some of the coverage of the 2019 summer heatwaves, as
619 well as an attribution study about them, fell outside the four-month period we examined; we did not
620 evaluate the salience or dominance of mentions of the link with climate change, but only their presence
621 (see Painter, 2013, pp. 57ff for the difference)²¹. For this study, we did not interview the journalists from
622 the 20 media outlets writing about the heatwave to better understand their personal approach or the
623 editorial policy of their media organizations towards the coverage of extreme weather events. However,
624 this aspect forms the basis for a follow-up study (Strauß et al., 2021). We did not analyze the visuals
625 accompanying the text, when the advantages of following a multimodal approach (i.e. including images)
626 to content analysis have been rightly stressed (Wozniak et al., 2015), but this aspect will also be analyzed
627 in a supplementary study. Finally, this study only looked at heatwaves in four northern European
628 countries and did not include southern Mediterranean countries, which are particularly vulnerable to the
629 impacts of heatwaves such as forest fires such as those seen in 2021.

630 The importance of understanding links between extreme weather and climate change is likely to increase
631 as such events become more common place and intense around the world (IPCC, 2018, 2021). Modelling
632 suggests that in Europe, extreme heat events will become more frequent with return periods of 1.8 to 7.2
633 years under different scenarios (Ma et al., 2020).

634 Finally, an examination of the extent to which the media link extreme events to climate change and the
635 ways they describe it has implications beyond a better understanding of journalism practice – such events
636 could provide important opportunities to engage the public on the risks of climate change. By helping to
637 make climate change visible, some researchers suggest that extreme events may serve as ‘teachable
638 moments’ that can increase climate change risk perceptions and support for climate action among the
639 public (Ettinger et al., 2021). Continued investigation of media trends around the coverage of extreme
640 weather events and other climate-related phenomena remains of paramount relevance for public
641 understanding, engagement, and sustainable behavior change.

642

²¹ For example, we did not examine in detail the positioning of phrases about the link in each article, but it was notable that in some UK outlets (e.g., the Guardian and the BBC), a mention of the link came near the top of the article, whereas in others (e.g., the Mail), the link was often mentioned towards the end.

643

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651 original draft, Writing - review & editing; JE: Data curation, Methodology, Writing – original draft,
652 Review & Editing; MD: Data curation, Methodology, Writing - review & Editing; NS: Data curation,
653 Methodology, Writing - Review and Editing; AW: Data curation, Methodology, Writing - Review &
654 Editing; PW: Supervision - Review & Editing.

655

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