

1 **Changing Perceptions of Changing Risks:**
2 **Climate Change and the California Public**

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6 **REVIEW DRAFT: NOT FOR CITATION**

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11 **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

12
13 Climate change poses risks to California and to the rest of the world. California’s
14 policy makers have recognized these risks, and have become courageous first-movers in
15 addressing this global issue. But to reach the ambitious goals for emissions reductions set
16 by the state government, further policy action and public support for that action is
17 needed. Understanding public perceptions of climate change risks is a critical component
18 for motivating public support for future policy action, in California and elsewhere.

19
20 Despite significant levels of public awareness and expressed concern about
21 climate change, and high levels of risk perception expressed by climate experts, climate
22 change is often superseded by other issues perceived as more pressing, including other
23 environmental issues. This disparity can be attributed to a combination of the nature of
24 climate risks and the social context in which those risks are perceived. Public perception
25 of climate risks is attenuated by the characterization of climate impacts as remote (risks
26 affect distant people and places or future generations, but are not local or immediate), as
27 deniable (uncertainty regarding risks is so great, they can be ignored), and as manageable
28 (society will be able to adapt to climate changes and avoid risks). In other words, climate
29 risks are “discountable” in time and space (remote), in terms of personal consequence
30 (deniable), and in terms of adaptive capacity (manageable). A number of social and
31 cultural factors, such as the general treatment of climate change in the mass media, help
32 perpetuate the lack of urgency the public perceives regarding climate risks. Although
33 there is growing concern over the risks of climate change among scientists, the public
34 perception of these risks are changing much more slowly. While public perception lags,
35 climate change is not only creating new risks and hazards (such as sea level rise
36 threatening islands and coastal areas), it is also changing the risks from existing hazards
37 (such as more intense and/or frequent heat waves, hurricanes, and other extreme events).
38 These changing risks are only slowly and incompletely translating into enhanced risk
39 perception of climate change.

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1 Three different “framings” of climate risks are often used to motivate climate
2 policy action, in part by increasing the perceived risk from climate change. We label
3 these as ethics-based, personal welfare-based, and economics-based approaches. Ethics-
4 based approaches emphasize four issues: intergenerational equity, the imbalance between
5 industrialized and developing countries in terms of per capita emissions and vulnerability
6 to climate impacts, the imbalance in adaptive capacity between richer and poorer
7 socioeconomic groups within nations, and our moral responsibility to act as stewards of
8 the Earth and preserve its future well-being. They confront those risks perceived as
9 remote, deniable, and manageable by focusing on the equity and moral values that
10 transcend considerations of personal risk. Ethics-based approaches are more likely to
11 engender support for immediate mitigation activities, as it is difficult to justify delaying
12 emissions reductions on ethical grounds, as damages mount to other species, in other
13 parts of the world, and for vulnerable local populations and future generations.

14
15 Personal welfare-based approaches seek to motivate action by promoting the
16 perception of direct risks from climate change on a personal level, either to an individual,
17 family, or community. The personal welfare approach also focuses on emphasizing the
18 impact on individuals’ children and grandchildren, highlighting that reducing emissions
19 is an investment in our children’s future. They emphasize the physical impacts of climate
20 change that will affect quality of life, and seek to reframe the climate change risks that
21 the public often perceives as remote, deniable, and manageable by characterizing climate
22 impacts as personal, immediate, and significant. In California and more broadly in the
23 US, we are increasingly successful in insulating ourselves from daily weather changes.
24 Personal welfare-based approaches may reinforce support for this trend, providing
25 incentive not to prevent climate change but to adapt, continuing this trend of insulation.
26 That is, until impacts become too intense to ignore—there are certainly limits to
27 adaptation, and mitigation is necessary to prevent impacts beyond those limits.

28
29 Economics-based approaches focus on the financial risks and opportunities
30 created by climate change impacts and solutions. They emphasize the ancillary benefits
31 greenhouse gas reductions can create, through “no regrets” actions and through
32 opportunities for “first movers” who invest in new technologies or make voluntary
33 anticipatory cuts. They emphasize the economic implications of climate change impacts,
34 such as the potential for more damaging extreme weather events, which can also be
35 framed in terms of impacts on personal welfare. Like ethics-based approaches, they can
36 transcend perceptions of climate risks as remote, deniable, and manageable by focusing
37 on financial risks and opportunities that exist regardless of the level of perceived risk.
38 Economics-based approaches motivate both adaptation and mitigation. The financial risks
39 from more frequent and/or intense extreme events can motivate anticipatory adaptation,
40 which to a certain extent can reduce damages, but can also motivate early mitigation to
41 prevent these risks from growing. They can also motivate mitigation through arguments
42 for “no regrets” actions, anticipatory reductions prior to mandatory reductions, and “first
43 mover” investment advantages.

44
45 This analysis suggests that a blend of these approaches is needed to broadly
46 reframe the climate policy debate so as to generate increased public perception of the

1 risks of climate change and the need for action now, not just at some indefinite time in
2 the future, and to get the public to endorse—in fact, to demand—concrete actions from
3 their decision makers to lower the risks. These approaches respond to public
4 misperceptions of climate risks as deniable, remote, and manageable, and can lead to a
5 realization that risks can be immediate, unfair, irreversible, unmanageable and local, and
6 that solutions need not be expensive or inequitable. A better understanding of the relative
7 effectiveness of the approaches we describe for communicating climate risks to diverse
8 populations within California can strengthen efforts to motivating policy action.

9
10 We offer the following recommendations for motivating policy action in
11 California that emerge from this analysis:

- 12
- 13 • Recognize that personal welfare arguments may be more effective for motivating
14 adaptation than mitigation.
- 15
- 16 • Prioritize moral and economic arguments for motivating mitigation.
- 17
- 18 • Enhance demand for mitigation by integrating climate risks and adaptive measures
19 into everyday life.
- 20
- 21 • Highlight the limits to coping with climate risks today and adapting to climate risks in
22 the future.
- 23
- 24 • Consider all the meanings of “dangerous” climate change and their relevance to
25 different populations.
- 26
- 27

28 **1. INTRODUCTION**

29
30 Climate change poses risks to California and to the rest of the world. A growing
31 body of scientific research has identified potential climate impacts across many important
32 sectors and regions within the state.^{1,2} Although there may be some beneficial impacts
33 from climate change, such as warmer winter temperatures and longer growing seasons,
34 the adverse impacts are very likely to outweigh such benefits, particularly for warming of
35 more than a few degrees above current temperatures. Winter snowpack is projected to
36 decrease significantly, impairing the storage and supply of California’s water resources
37 and the winter recreation industry. The frequency and intensity of heat waves and
38 wildfires are projected to rise, increasing the risks of heat-related deaths and the physical
39 damage, air pollution, and suppression costs of large wildfires. Tropical diseases are
40 projected to spread as conditions become more favorable for their expansion. California’s
41 agricultural industry could face significant challenges with more frequent summer water
42 shortages and reduced quality and production of valuable goods such as wine grapes and
43 dairy products. These and other climate impacts have the potential to substantially affect
44 key economic sectors and the quality of life for vulnerable populations in the state.

1 California’s policy makers have recognized the risks posed by climate change,
2 and have become courageous first-movers in addressing this global issue, succeeding in
3 generating broad, bipartisan support for the actions already taken. California has sent a
4 strong message to the world that it is committed to reducing its own greenhouse gas
5 emissions and to becoming a world leader in addressing climate change. These actions
6 include the 2002 Pavley California Vehicle Climate Change Law, setting the first ever
7 limits on greenhouse gas emissions from passenger vehicles, the 2005 Schwarzenegger
8 Executive Order #S-3-05, establishing significant emissions reductions targets for the
9 next 50 years, and a variety of agency-level policies.

10
11 But much more work remains to meet the ambitious goals set by the state
12 government. Without widespread public understanding of the scope of the problem and
13 acceptance of the magnitude and urgency of needed changes, new policy action is likely
14 to be met with considerable public resistance. Human-induced climate change is a reality,
15 and its influence on the world can already be seen. Its impacts and associated risks will
16 only intensify the longer we continue to add to the greenhouse gas concentrations in the
17 atmosphere. A challenge in motivating climate action, given America’s highly politicized
18 environment, has been the communication of a convincing message that mainstream
19 climate science is credible and the risks of climate change all too real. Scientific
20 uncertainty, while an expected component of the study of any complex system, is
21 exaggerated by the general portrayal in the media of climate change as an issue fraught
22 with comparably credible, competing claims and lingering questions regarding human
23 and natural driving forces. This portrayal, and the broader social context within which
24 climate change is perceived by the American public, breeds confusion and pushes climate
25 change down the list of priorities for action. As a result, public perception of risk from
26 climate change and the future benefits of emissions reductions are often outweighed by
27 an array of near-term issues perceived to be more pressing.

28
29 Understanding public perceptions of climate change risks is a critical component
30 for motivating public support for future policy action, in California and elsewhere. We
31 outline a variety of social and psychological factors that can amplify or attenuate public
32 perceptions of risk from climate change. We argue that the characteristics of climate
33 change currently allow it to be misperceived as a “remote” risk, as a “deniable” risk, and
34 as a “manageable” risk. These factors contribute to reducing the perception of climate
35 risks relative to expert assessment of those risks. We argue that these widespread
36 misperceptions must be addressed in order to motivate widespread support for policy
37 action. We discuss three approaches to counter these attenuating factors and
38 communicate the risks of climate change: ethics-based, personal welfare-based, and
39 economics-based approaches, each of which either individually or in combination may
40 motivate different subsets of the population. Finally, we also discuss the different policy
41 responses (adaptation and mitigation) for which these approaches are likely to motivate
42 support, and the implications of our findings for motivating climate policy action in
43 California.

1 **2. WHAT IS RISK?**

2
3 **2.1 Technical Risk**

4
5 Risk is classically defined as so-called “technical” risk:

6
7 [the consequences of a hazard] X [the likelihood of that hazard]

8
9 What can happen, and what are the odds? An example of this definition of risk is the
10 damages caused by a 7.0 earthquake to property and lives multiplied by the likelihood of
11 a 7.0 earthquake occurring in California. This definition can further include scope and
12 intensity to characterize consequences,³ in this case the persistence and magnitude of
13 earthquake damages.

14
15 **2.2 Expert Assessment of Climate Risks**

16
17 Article 2 of the 1992 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change
18 (UNFCCC) states its ultimate objective as: “stabilization of greenhouse gas
19 concentrations in the atmosphere at a level that would prevent dangerous anthropogenic
20 interference with the climate system.” Although there may be some thresholds beyond
21 which there would be “dangerous” abrupt climate impacts (e.g., ice sheet collapse and
22 rapid sea level rise), there are other categories for which different points along a rising
23 continuum of impact intensity will be seen as “dangerous” by different people (e.g.,
24 gradual sea level rise threatening islands and coastal regions).

25
26 Scientific assessments of climate risks have often been framed in terms of
27 defining levels of global or regional temperature change associated with climate impact
28 thresholds likely to be widely perceived as “dangerous.” Examples include disintegration
29 of the West Antarctic Ice Sheet or the Greenland Ice Sheet (either of which could lead to
30 several feet of sea level rise) and rapid shutdown of the Atlantic Gulf Stream (which
31 currently creates a much milder climate in Europe than would otherwise exist). The
32 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, for the upcoming Fourth Assessment
33 Report, approaches this problem by assessing “key vulnerabilities” in the climate system
34 such as the processes above. Scientists estimate rough global average temperature
35 thresholds associated with triggering these impacts to range from 1-3.5°C (1.8-6.3°F)
36 above current temperatures, well within the range of temperature increase typically
37 projected within the next 50 to 100 years. Climate impacts that are already underway
38 have been identified in some studies as key vulnerabilities. Among these are loss of
39 mountain glaciers, adverse impacts on biodiversity, increases in severity of extreme
40 weather events, and loss of cultural amenities.

41
42 A recent survey of experts regarding “dangerous” climate change⁴ specifies two
43 key factors as determinants of the level of “danger” associated with climate impacts.
44 First, experts identify the rate of climate change. A more rapid rate of change further
45 deviates from “known” changes observed in the Earth’s past and increases the likelihood
46 of abrupt climate changes. Second, experts identify the geographical and societal context

1 of change. For example, the ability to adapt can decrease the risks from climate change.
2 Most respondents argued that “danger” means reaching a state that is irreversible and is
3 associated with impacts for which an adaptive response is impossible.⁴
4

5 **2.3 Perceived Risk is Different**

6

7 Comparisons of expert and lay assessments of technical risk often show great
8 discrepancies.⁵ For example, the public continues to build homes in floodplains and
9 earthquake zones, even when warned of the high-probability, high-consequence risks of
10 living in such areas.^{6,7} In addition, members of the public are often extremely concerned
11 about low-probability risks, such as radiation from nuclear power plants, while ignoring
12 higher-probability risks like radon exposure in the home.⁵
13

14 While the technical definition of risk may suggest some “objective,” scientific
15 value of risk from any hazard, different individuals in practice will have very different
16 perceptions of the risks from a given hazard. Researchers have identified a number of
17 social and psychological dimensions of risk that are often more salient for the lay public
18 than technical risk.^{5,8} Researchers using psychometric techniques identify two dominant
19 factors in public perceptions of risk across many different hazards: “dread” risk
20 (including the dimensions of perceived lack of control, dread, catastrophic potential, fatal
21 consequences, and the inequitable distribution of risks and benefits) and “unknown” risk
22 (including the dimensions of hazards judged to be unobservable, unknown, new, and
23 delayed in their manifestation of harm).^{5,8} Others have suggested “unnatural” or
24 “immoral” risk as an important additional dimension.⁹ Research has also examined the
25 broader cultural and political context of risk perception. Differences in risk perception are
26 central to divergent opinions between men and women¹⁰ and people from different
27 cultures.¹¹ Risk perception is also influenced by cultural factors such as trust, social
28 values and worldviews.^{12,13} Research has also demonstrated the crucial role of affect (the
29 specific quality of “goodness” or “badness” associated with a concept or process) and
30 emotion in risk perception and behavior.^{5,14} Humans naturally employ an “experiential”
31 mode of thinking¹⁵ to make decisions in the face of danger that is intuitive, automatic,
32 and fast, and represents risk as a “gut feeling.”¹⁶ It relies on images and associations,
33 linked by experience to emotions and affect.¹⁶ It indicates whether it is safe to walk alone
34 down a dark alley, or whether a bowl of soup is too hot to eat. This “risk as feeling”¹⁶
35 tends to assign too much significance to frightening consequences,¹⁷ and can occur at
36 both an individual and societal level.
37

38 This “perceived” risk depends on an individual’s personal context, their life
39 experiences, values, and culture, and the interaction of those factors with the character of
40 the hazard.¹⁸ Perceived risk, therefore, can be defined as:

41
42 [“technical” risk] + [nature of the hazard] + [the social context of the perceiver]

43
44 In our earthquake example, an individual who was traveling on the Bay Bridge during the
45 1989 Loma Prieta earthquake and witnessed a section collapsing, or who helped with
46 rescue efforts when the Nimitz freeway collapsed almost certainly would perceive a

1 higher level of earthquake risk than someone who felt only brief jolts in their undamaged
2 home.

3
4 **3. UNDERSTANDING PUBLIC PERCEPTION OF CLIMATE RISKS**

5
6 Climate experts generally express high levels of risk perception of climate change, citing
7 the uncertainty in scientific knowledge of the climate system and the future trajectory of
8 climate change not as reasons to delay action, but as reasons to invoke the precautionary
9 principle. In the words of Roger Revelle,⁵ one of the first scientists to recognize the
10 potential risks of climate change, “Human beings are now carrying out a large-scale
11 geophysical experiment of a kind that could not have happened in the past nor be
12 reproduced in the future.” In the words of one of us,¹⁹ this is “a planetary gamble we
13 can’t afford to lose.” Climate experts also accentuate the urgency of emissions
14 reductions, given the inertia of the climate system and the potential for “dangerous”
15 impacts. For example, James E. Hansen, director of the Goddard Institute for Space
16 Studies, states that action “is needed urgently, because we are on the precipice of climate
17 system tipping points beyond which there is no redemption.”²⁰ The public, however,
18 generally expresses lower levels of perception of climate risks and less urgency regarding
19 the need for significant action.

20
21 Research on public opinions of climate change in the US and Europe indicates
22 widespread and increasing public awareness and concern about climate change but
23 uncertainty regarding the need for an immediate policy response. A 2002-2003 national
24 survey found that 92% of Americans had heard of climate change, and 70% of Americans
25 were very (25%) or somewhat concerned about it.⁵ A new ABC News/Time/Stanford
26 national poll found that 82% of respondents felt that climate change was at least
27 somewhat important to them personally, with 50% of respondents calling it very or
28 extremely important.²¹ Also, there is widespread recognition that climate change is
29 already having an impact on the world. In a 2003 CBS News poll, a majority of
30 Americans (59%) viewed climate change as an environmental problem causing a serious
31 impact now.²² In California, the results are very similar. A 2005 Public Policy Institute of
32 California (PPIC) survey found that 75% of Californians see climate change as a very
33 serious or somewhat serious threat to the economy and quality of life for California’s
34 future.²³ 57% of Californians believe the effects of climate change have already begun.²³

35
36 But, despite significant levels of awareness and expressed concern, climate
37 change is often superseded by other issues perceived as more pressing. A 2003 British
38 study found that although 67% of respondents felt global warming was important or very
39 important to them, their main priorities lay with health, family, safety, and finances.^{4,24}
40 Two 2004 surveys in the UK found that while most respondents rated global warming as
41 the most important environmental issue for the world today, respondents saw terrorism
42 and domestic issues as having a higher priority.^{4,25} Among environmental issues, climate
43 change is generally ranked higher as a global issue than as a national or local issue. In the
44 2006 ABC News/Time/Stanford poll, climate change was cited most frequently as the
45 single biggest environmental problem facing the world today.²¹ But in a 2000 Gallup
46 Poll, climate change was not only ranked lower than national issues such as the economy,

1 education and health care, it was also ranked 12th out of 13 environmental issues facing
 2 the nation, below more regionally experienced issues such as clean air, clean water and
 3 urban sprawl.²⁶ When asked to identify the single most important environmental issue
 4 facing California today, climate change was not among the top five issues identified by
 5 Californians in the 2005 PPIC survey, and was mentioned by less than 5% of
 6 respondents.²³

7
 8 The disparity between public risk perception and expert risk assessment can be
 9 attributed to a combination of the nature of climate risks and the social context in which
 10 the risks are perceived. These factors contribute to making climate change a “hidden
 11 hazard.”²⁷ In this section, we discuss the characteristics of climate risks and key social
 12 processes that influence perceived risk from climate change.

13
 14 **3.1 The Nature of Climate Risks**

15
 16 Table 1 lists a set of hazard characteristics that affect how individuals perceive
 17 risks.^{18,28} This set is not intended to be comprehensive, but is intended to focus on factors
 18 identified in the literature that are specifically relevant to risk perception of climate
 19 change. Moving from left to right in each category, these factors amplify the perception
 20 of risk.

21
 22 **Table 1. Hazard characteristics that Affect Perceived Risk**

Factors Attenuating Risk Perception:	Factors Amplifying Risk Perception:
Low-probability	High-probability
Low impact	Catastrophic
Familiar	Unknown
Affecting others	Affecting an individual personally
Not dreaded	Dreaded
Natural	Human-made
Evenly distributed	Unevenly distributed
Voluntary	Imposed
Under an individual’s control	Controlled by others or uncontrollable

23
 24 Climate change poses four distinct types of risks:

- 25
 26 • Gradual changes in climate conditions that, for example, are leading to loss of
 27 mountain glaciers and polar ice and changes in species behavior and distribution.
 28 These changes are projected, for example, to necessitate modifications to
 29 agricultural systems and to lead to loss of coastal lands from rising seas.
 30 • Global-scale abrupt changes such as the disintegration of the West Antarctic Ice
 31 Sheet, or the shutdown of the Gulf Stream. These low-probability, high-impact
 32 “imaginable surprises” have the potential to fundamentally change elements of the
 33 Earth system, and the complexity of the system may conceal other “unknown”
 34 mechanisms of abrupt change.

- 1 • Increasing risks from existing hazards due to climate change, such as increased
2 intensity and frequency of extreme events like hurricanes and heat waves. These
3 hazards are already perceived as posing risks, but climate change can already be
4 shown to be changing the technical risk associated with these hazards. For
5 example, research regarding the 2003 heat wave in Europe indicates that climate
6 is increasing the likelihood of such events.^{29,30}
- 7 • Indirect or secondary risks created by these direct risks, such as increasing
8 drought or coastal flooding in other parts of the world displacing populations and
9 leading to increased emigration and political instability that impact regions not
10 directly affected by the climate impacts.

11
12 Climate change is not only creating new risks and hazards, it is also changing the
13 nature of existing risks. For example, using the terminology of Table 1, human-induced
14 climate change is making intense heat waves more probable, more catastrophic, more
15 unknown, and more human-made. These processes should lead to heightened risk
16 perception, enhancing important elements such as those associated with “dread” risk
17 (catastrophic potential, fatal consequences, etc.) and “unknown” risk (new, delayed
18 manifestation of harm, etc.).⁸ However, these increasing risks are only slowly and
19 incompletely translating into enhanced risk perception of climate change.

20 21 **3.2 Attenuating Characteristics of Climate Risks**

22
23 There are a number of characteristics of these climate risks that can attenuate risk
24 perception.^{4,9} In table 2, we highlight three categories of these characteristics. A common
25 theme among these categories is that the risks from climate change are currently
26 “discountable” for many people. They are discountable in time and space (remote), in
27 terms of personal consequence (deniable), and in terms of adaptive capacity
28 (manageable). Socioeconomic factors may strongly influence the degree to which this
29 discounting occurs.

1 **Table 2. Attenuating Characteristics of Climate Risks**

Attenuating Factors	Illustrative Example
<p>Remote Risk to distant people and places or future generations, but not locally or immediately</p>	<p><i>Melting polar ice caps</i> Melting polar ice and permafrost is threatening the way of life of the Inuits, but those impacts have no direct effect outside of that area and take a long time to fully materialize.</p>
<p>Deniable Uncertainty regarding risks is so great, they can be ignored</p>	<p><i>Hurricanes</i> Hurricanes in the Atlantic Ocean seem to be getting stronger, but the linkage between climate change and hurricane intensity is so uncertain that the linkage can be ignored.</p>
<p>Manageable Society will be able to adapt to changes to avoid risks</p>	<p><i>Heat waves</i> More frequent and intense heat waves would be unpleasant, but we can rely on increased air conditioning to offset the increased temperatures.</p>

2
3 **3.2.1 A “Remote” Risk**
4

5 Although the signs of climate change are already apparent in California and
6 throughout the US, climate change is most often perceived as only affecting distant
7 communities or future generations, and thus it is not considered an imminent or high-
8 priority risk. In a 2002-2003 survey of the American public, 68% of respondents were
9 most concerned about the impacts of climate change on people around the world and non-
10 human nature.⁵ Only 13% were most concerned about impacts on their family and local
11 community.⁵ In the 2006 ABC News/Time/Stanford poll, 60% of respondents felt climate
12 change threatens the future generations “a great deal,” compared to 56% for “plant and
13 animal species,” 32% for “other Americans,” and only 25% on a personal level.²¹
14 National issues such as the economy and health care, and environmental issues such as
15 air and water pollution are more easily linked to local impacts, while many of the most
16 dramatic existing impacts of climate change are “remote” for most Americans. When
17 asked to provide the first thought or image that came to mind with the words “climate
18 change,” the most common response by participants in the 2002-2003 US poll was
19 associated with melting glaciers and polar ice.²⁶ The perception of climate risks as remote
20 is likely to be stronger for individuals from less affluent socioeconomic groups, who are
21 more likely to have concerns over essential needs that outweigh climate risks, even
22 though these groups may be more vulnerable to climate risks (see below).
23

24 **3.2.2 A “Deniable” Risk**

25 Future projections of climate change and climate impacts are inherently uncertain,
26 due both to uncertainty in the trajectory of future greenhouse gas emissions and to
27 uncertainty in the response of the climate system to those emissions. The current IPCC
28 projections for temperature increase by the year 2100 range from 1.4-5.8°C (2.5-10.4°F).

1 Uncertainty compounds when attempting to project regional and local climate impacts,
2 making it quite easy to “deny” risks on an individual or local level. For example, recent
3 projections show that under a relatively low global greenhouse gas emissions future,
4 California could lose 30-70% of the Sierra snowpack.¹ While on the one hand this
5 projection may be startling, the range is also so wide that some respond by concluding
6 that the science that led to this conclusion is still too uncertain. Although there is
7 widespread consensus among scientists about the basic science of global warming,³¹ a
8 number of groups work to accentuate these uncertainties, reinforcing the deniable
9 character of climate change. Indeed, recent US polls do not find high levels of belief that
10 there is a strong consensus among scientists regarding the existence of climate change. A
11 2004 report found only 43% of respondents believed that there is a strong consensus,²²
12 and the 2006 ABC News/Time/Stanford poll found only 35% of respondents believed
13 that most scientists agree that climate change is happening.²¹ The perception of climate
14 risks as deniable is likely to be stronger for individuals from less educated socioeconomic
15 groups, who are less likely to be knowledgeable about the complexity of climate change
16 and the reality of climate risks.

17 18 **3.2.3 A “Manageable” Risk**

19
20 Finally, there is an expectation that, even if local impacts occur due to climate
21 change, we will be able to adapt to those impacts. For example, some individuals are not
22 threatened by projected rising temperatures and associated loss of snowpack, claiming
23 that California can adapt to the changes by building new dams or relying on
24 desalinization plants for water supply. This confidence in the capacity to “manage”
25 climate impacts at an individual and societal level further reduces the perception of
26 climate risks. However, there are costs and limitations to managing continued climate
27 changes that are often not well understood by the general public. Furthermore, different
28 socioeconomic groups will have differing capacity to truly “manage” these impacts. In
29 many cases less affluent socioeconomic groups are more likely to be vulnerable to the
30 climate risks outlined above, because they are less likely to have the capacity to adapt to
31 a changing climate. It is also important to note that the effects of policy responses to
32 climate change, such as higher energy rates to fund the transition to renewable energy,
33 may impact less affluent groups more significantly and further decrease manageability.
34

35 **3.3 Social Context of Climate Risk Perception**

36
37 Risk perceptions are determined only partially by the nature of the hazard and the
38 expected harm. Social, institutional and cultural factors create signals that are also
39 important in influencing risk perception of hazards.³² A “risk signal” can be any message
40 about a hazard event that influences perceptions about the severity of that hazard.³² For
41 example, risk perception of the 2001 anthrax attacks was amplified by the emotional state
42 of the nation following September 11 and the considerable media coverage of the attacks.
43 These factors contributed to a widespread sense of “dread” that something horrible could
44 happen to “me,” despite the fact that the anthrax attacks only led to a handful of deaths.
45 Risk perception can also be amplified by other signals, such as the stigmatization of
46 places or products.³² For example, the few but well-publicized poisoning cases in the

1 early 1980s due to Tylenol tampering generated a widespread perception that Tylenol
 2 was unsafe and great financial losses for the manufacturer, Johnson & Johnson, even
 3 though the company acted quickly to remedy the situation.

4
 5 Some signals have enormous “ripple effects,”³² and a terrorist attack is a prime
 6 example. Terrorism has been called “a new species of trouble,”¹⁶ a term originally coined
 7 to describe hazards related to chemicals and radiation.³³ These hazards do not have a
 8 fixed duration like floods or earthquakes; instead, they persist, causing considerable
 9 dread. Despite the real harm of September 11, the actual loss of life from those events is
 10 duplicated in the US about every three months from gunshot wounds, about every three
 11 weeks from automobile accidents, and about every three days from cigarette smoking.
 12 Clearly, the perceived risk versus technical risk for this hazard is orders of magnitude
 13 higher.

14
 15 Climate change is creating or enhancing a variety of persisting hazards, and thus
 16 has the potential to fall into this “new species of trouble.” However, the complexity and
 17 “creeping” character³⁴ of climate change make the impacts difficult to detect, and allow
 18 the attenuating characteristics described above to dominate. Without distinct experience
 19 of risk signals from climate impacts, the public is left to respond primarily to scientific
 20 assessments of current risks and projections of future risks, which are then amplified or
 21 attenuated by social and political processes. Table 3 summarizes the amplifying and
 22 attenuating processes we discuss here associated with climate change.

23
 24 **Table 3. Social Context of Risk Perception³⁵**

25

<i>Risks are attenuated when:</i>	<i>Risks are amplified when:</i>
Media reporting on the hazard is limited and not sustained; discussion within immediate social network is limited.	Media reporting on the hazard is widespread and frequent; discussion within immediate social network occurs often.
Trusted managers provide information on risks and demonstrate control of hazards.	Managers try to conceal risks and lose public trust when concealment is revealed; managers are not perceived to be in control of hazards.
Benefits of the hazard are necessary.	Benefits of the hazard are not critical or are replaceable.

26
 27 Signals that can amplify perception of climate risks include media-worthy events
 28 that are perceived as related to climate change. Examples include the 1988 heat waves in
 29 the US, which motivated the first widespread national concern over climate change, the
 30 European heat wave of 2003, and the hurricane seasons of 2004 and 2005. But, forces of
 31 denial work to emphasize in organized and well-financed media campaigns the
 32 uncertainties in the underlying science, attempting to distance the public from any tipping
 33 point toward action catalyzed by a media-worthy event.³⁶ This is exacerbated by the
 34 typical media doctrine of “balance”: give equal time or space to all views, regardless of
 35 the fact that in science decades of assessment differentiate the relative credibility of
 36 various “sides.” This differential credibility is rarely reported and the public simply is

1 confused by the impression given by the media of “dueling scientists” (e.g., see results
2 regarding perception of scientific consensus cited in 3.2.2).³⁷
3

4 In addition, the limited imagery and direct signals of climate risks have likely
5 contributed to the decline in media coverage since reporting on climate change began. A
6 2001 study found that television coverage of climate change had declined by 50% and
7 newspaper coverage had declined by 25% from 1990 levels.^{5,38} Furthermore, nearly 70%
8 of respondents reported that climate change is rarely discussed among their families and
9 friends.⁵ Research indicates that concern over risk can be driven more by interpersonal
10 communication than by communication through the mass media.³⁹ These factors
11 contribute to a view of climate change as an issue that can be set aside to address issues
12 with more immediate impacts on everyday life.
13

14 Public confusion is further enhanced through sensationalization or downplaying
15 of climate risks. The 2004 blockbuster *The Day After Tomorrow* enhanced moviegoers’
16 concern over the threats of climate change⁴⁰ through an exaggerated representation of the
17 risks, tapping into personal dread and utilizing catastrophic imagery. A few months later,
18 Michael Crichton’s book, *State of Fear*, characterized global warming as a hoax created
19 and reinforced by scientists. The book’s journalistic style and copious footnotes mislead
20 the reader into thinking that the novel is fact rather than fiction. The novel contributes to
21 attenuating climate risk perceptions by conveying a message that climate scientists lack
22 credibility.
23

24 The public response to multiple risk signals is importantly influenced by the level
25 of trust they have in the information source and those responsible for managing the risk.³²
26 When managers are believed to be concealing risks, they often lose public trust and the
27 perception of “concealed” risks and uncontrolled hazards may be amplified. When the
28 British health minister announced evidence of a causal linkage between BSE and CJD in
29 1996, beef consumption drastically and immediately dropped.⁴¹ This response is believed
30 to have been triggered by a lack of trust in those responsible for regulating the risks
31 associated with BSE, and the perception that risks were concealed to promote vested
32 interests.⁴¹ The important role of trust in risk perception suggests that signals of climate
33 risks may be amplified by the increasing exposure of the Bush administration’s
34 censorship of climate science. For example, the recent “gag order” on NASA’s top
35 climatologist, James E. Hansen, following his call for swift action to reduce US
36 greenhouse gas emissions mentioned above, has drawn much media attention across the
37 country and may be decreasing the public’s trust of the federal government as managers
38 of climate risks.
39

40 Finally, risk perception can be attenuated by the tangible benefits associated with
41 the behaviors that create a given risk.⁴² A risk signal could be a government official
42 warning that cutting greenhouse gas emissions would have devastating effects on the US
43 economy. Such a message implies that the activities that contribute to climate change are
44 necessary, and that no economically feasible alternatives exist. This perception is
45 amplified by popular American culture, which encourages fossil fuel-intensive lifestyle
46 choices, such as driving SUVs.

1 **4. FROM PERCEPTION TO ACTION**
2

3 The section above describes amplifying and attenuating social and psychological
4 factors influencing individuals’ perceived risk of climate change. In this section, we
5 identify three approaches of communicating climate risks to motivate climate policy
6 action, which we label ethics-based, personal welfare-based, and economics-based
7 approaches. Each of these approaches makes the underlying assumption that individuals
8 make decisions about supporting policy responses to climate change by assessing the
9 “costs” and “benefits” associated with different options. Each approach targets different
10 values and metrics on which such a decision can be based. This decision-making process
11 involves a weighing of the perceived risks and benefits both from climate change and
12 from climate policy actions, and the factors outlined in the previous section are critical to
13 this process. An important barrier that must be overcome is that the implications of
14 responding to climate change are generally perceived as far less remote, deniable, or
15 manageable than the risks associated with climate change. Although alternative
16 behaviors, products, and policies (e.g. hybrids, renewable energy) can still provide the
17 benefits associated with activities currently contributing to climate change while reducing
18 or phasing out that contribution, the necessary transition is neither remote nor deniable.
19 Also, the response to climate change is not manageable on an individual level, as
20 meaningful response can only occur through collective action.
21

22 The three approaches presented here each employ a different “framing” of climate
23 risks in order to shift the risk-benefit assessment individuals make regarding climate
24 change towards support for climate policy action. “Framing” is defined in psychological
25 literature as “the process by which a communication source constructs and defines a
26 social or political issue for its audience.”⁴³ How an issue is framed can elicit significantly
27 different response behavior, particularly with respect to risk perception.⁴⁴ Each approach
28 emphasizes different risks and motivates different response strategies. We provide
29 illustrative examples of organizations or specific initiatives that have employed these
30 approaches to motivate climate policy action nationally and in California. There are also,
31 of course, a number of organizations that attempt to attenuate risk perception of climate
32 change based on different framings of climate risks and that reinforce perceptions of
33 climate change as remote, deniable, and manageable.*
34

35 **4.1 Ethics-Based Approaches**
36

37 In 1998, a coalition of academics and religious and political leaders signed the
38 “Moral Call on Global Warming and Future Generations,” and presented it to members of
39 the US Senate. This letter was one of the first few major attempts in the US to address the
40 moral responsibility of today’s decision makers to reduce greenhouse gases for the sake
41 of future generations. Since then, the movement to motivate action to slow global
42 warming on moral or ethical grounds has grown, particularly within faith-based
43 organizations. A number of faith-based groups have emerged that focus exclusively on

* We do not discuss these “skeptics organizations” in detail here, though there are many, for example, that downplay the personal and economic impacts of climate change and emphasize scientific uncertainty and the economic costs of climate policy.

1 motivating climate action, such as Interfaith Power and Light, the Interfaith Climate
2 Change Network, and the Evangelical Environmental Network, which have produced
3 campaigns such as, “What Would Jesus Drive?” In February 2006, 86 evangelical
4 leaders, led by Rev. Jim Ball, launched the Evangelical Climate Initiative, calling
5 emissions reductions the “basic task for all of the world's inhabitants” and spreading its
6 message through ads, meetings with key legislators, and educational events at churches
7 and Christian colleges around the US. Of course, not all faith-based organizations support
8 action on climate change. The National Association of Evangelicals was preparing to
9 endorse the Evangelical Climate Initiative before a small group of influential leaders
10 convinced the nation’s largest evangelical group to abstain.

11
12 Equity arguments raised by ethics-based approaches emphasize four issues:
13 intergenerational equity, the imbalance between industrialized and developing countries
14 in terms of per capita emissions and vulnerability to climate impacts, and the imbalance
15 in adaptive capacity between richer and poorer socioeconomic groups within nations.
16 While industrialized countries are responsible for and have enjoyed the majority of
17 benefits from greenhouse gas emissions to date, they are expected to bear less of the
18 detrimental impacts of climate change, and generally are seen to possess greater adaptive
19 capacity to insulate themselves from future changes. The recognition that greenhouse gas
20 emissions in one nation increase the risk from climate change for future generations, for
21 other nations, and for vulnerable populations within that nation leads to a perception of
22 moral responsibility toward affected persons,⁴⁵ and can be a powerful motivation to
23 promote action to reduce emissions.

24
25 Ethics-based approaches also focus on the moral implications of “tampering with
26 nature.”⁹ As scientists identify thresholds of abrupt and irreversible climate impacts,
27 ethics-based approaches may become increasingly important for motivating policy action,
28 because these rising threats, while remote, are likely unmanageable and increasingly
29 undeniable. A number of faith-based and environmental groups emphasize our
30 responsibility to act as stewards of the Earth and preserve its future well-being, and draw
31 on moral arguments to engage constituents in concern over the increasing threats to
32 critical species or cultures. An example is the Natural Resources Defense Council
33 (NRDC) “Polar Bear on Thin Ice” campaign, which seeks to list polar bears as
34 endangered species. In the international climate negotiations (the Conferences of the
35 Parties—COPs), the Alliance of Small Island States is often labeled the “conscience of
36 the COPs,” and advocates significant emissions reductions based on the danger to their
37 nations and traditional cultures from climate change-induced sea level rise. These
38 approaches tap into the “unnatural” or “immoral” characteristics of risk that can amplify
39 risk perception.⁹

40
41 The effectiveness of ethics-based approaches to motivating climate action is that
42 they can confront those risks perceived as remote, deniable and manageable by focusing
43 on the equity and moral values that transcend considerations of personal risk and invoke
44 beliefs more widespread across the political spectrum. Unfortunately, however, not all of
45 the population is motivated by moral values alone, particularly equity and stewardship.

1 An increasing number of groups seeking to motivate climate action are thus turning
2 toward documenting the threats to personal welfare from climate change.

4 **4.2 Personal Welfare-Based Approaches**

6 Personal welfare-based approaches seek to motivate action by promoting the
7 perception of direct risks from climate change on a personal level, either to an individual,
8 family, or community. They emphasize the physical impacts of climate change that will
9 affect quality of life, such as the spread of infectious diseases and increases in the
10 frequency and intensity of heat waves, droughts, floods, and other extreme events.
11 Whereas ethics-based approaches may highlight global climate impacts such as polar
12 deglaciation or shutdown of the Gulf Stream as intrinsically undesirable changes to the
13 Earth system, whether or not they directly affect those being addressed, personal welfare-
14 based approaches focus on the local impacts of such global changes, such as sea level rise
15 from glacial melting and local coastal flooding.

17 Organizations such as the Union of Concerned Scientists (UCS), Environmental
18 Defense (ED), and NRDC have emphasized personal welfare considerations through a
19 series of local climate impact reports that seek to characterize what is at stake for our
20 children and grandchildren. For example, UCS produced two reports documenting the
21 expected impacts on quality of life for California. The first assessment, produced in
22 December 1999, “Confronting Climate Change in California,” sought to characterize
23 what projected climate changes are expected to mean for quality of life in California for
24 our children and grandchildren. The second UCS impact report (2004) painted a
25 consistent picture of the expected climate impacts in California over the next 100 years,
26 and sought to highlight the costs in health and quality of life for our children if climate
27 action is not taken. In March 2006, ED and the Ad Council launched a TV and radio
28 campaign, “Fight Global Warming,” which focuses on the danger to our children from
29 failing to address climate change now. This approach blends personal welfare and moral
30 elements described above, seeking an emotional response to engage the public.

32 The personal welfare-based approach seeks to reframe the climate change risks
33 that the public often perceives as remote, deniable, and manageable by characterizing
34 climate impacts as personal, immediate, and significant. Shifting perceptions with this
35 approach involves framing impacts and climate hazards so that perceptions move from
36 the characterizations in column A to column B in Table 1. However, these efforts do not
37 effectively account for how individuals discount the future. For example, the projections
38 of large-scale loss of Sierra snowpack may be perceived as a significant risk to
39 California, but the fact that this risk will not manifest for several decades blunts its
40 effectiveness as a message to provoke immediate action. Furthermore, most efforts to
41 motivate action through the personal welfare approach do not directly address the
42 opportunities and constraints surrounding adaptation. Because most environmental
43 groups are concerned that a discussion around adaptation will divert attention away from
44 much-needed mitigation strategies, adaptation is seldom raised as a strategy when
45 generating support for climate policy action. This may be counterproductive, as
46 advocating for adaptation policies that highlight the need for managing the climate

1 changes already underway could help to reinforce climate change as a problem of today
2 rather than a remote threat of tomorrow.

4 4.3 Economics-Based Approaches

5
6 Many organizations are focusing on making the case that climate policy action is
7 good for business. Groups such as Ceres and the Investor Network on Climate Risk
8 highlight the economic opportunities of emissions reductions and clean energy
9 investments. By focusing on the risks and opportunities created by climate change
10 impacts and by policy responses to climate change, economics-based approaches
11 emphasize the risks of ignoring future greenhouse gas regulations in business planning,
12 and the “first mover” investment opportunities available for those who develop new
13 technologies or who make voluntary cuts in anticipation of mandatory cuts in the future.

14
15 Other groups, such as the International Council for Local Environmental
16 Initiatives (ICLEI) and the Climate Group emphasize the ancillary benefits greenhouse
17 gas reductions can create, through energy efficiency cost-savings or other “no regrets”
18 actions.⁴⁶ ICLEI works worldwide with small business and local governments to reduce
19 greenhouse gas emissions, while the Climate Group focuses on sharing the stories of how
20 big business and national and state efforts have reduced emissions and saved money.

21
22 Prominent members of the insurance industry, especially the re-insurance
23 industry, emphasize the economic implications of climate change impacts, such as the
24 potential for increased damages from more frequent and/or intense natural hazards due to
25 climate change. As climate change is increasingly linked directly to what were once
26 characterized as “natural” hazards, (hurricanes, droughts, heat waves, etc.) insurance
27 groups have become deeply concerned. Preliminary studies indicate that the climate
28 change already underway has made an event such as the 2003 European heat wave twice
29 as likely,²⁹ and analyses of hurricane destructiveness show that the intensity of storms is
30 increasing.⁴⁷ Notable examples such as the 2003 heat wave and Hurricane Katrina
31 provide indications that future climate change may not be “manageable.”

32
33 Like ethics-based approaches, economics-based approaches can transcend
34 perceptions of climate risks as remote, deniable, and manageable by focusing on financial
35 risks and opportunities that exist regardless of the level of perceived risk. Financial risk,
36 similar to technical risk, must often be quantified and assessed as part of a larger business
37 plan. Companies reliant on fossil fuels are exposed to the risk that greenhouse gas
38 emissions will be regulated, forcing costly changes to business processes. Companies
39 who do not anticipate such regulations risk losing out to other more innovative
40 companies who take advantage of new market opportunities. These risks must be
41 weighed against the financial risk associated with investment in clean technologies
42 should those technologies fail to be viable in the future.

43
44 The limitations of the economics-based approach are that the full range of climate
45 action needed cannot be easily justified by simple economics. While individual
46 companies can show net economic benefits for reductions in emissions of 50% or more,

1 the large-scale institutional and lifestyle changes needed to fully address climate change
2 may be more difficult to motivate from an economic basis alone, even though the
3 projected costs of atmospheric greenhouse gas stabilization are dwarfed by the projected
4 growth in global GDP over the time necessary to make such a transition.⁴⁸

5
6 **5. POLICY ACTIONS: MITIGATION, ADAPTATION, AND DANGEROUS CLIMATE CHANGE**
7

8 Climate policy has often been presented as a choice between mitigation and
9 adaptation.⁴⁹ Mitigation refers to reducing the rate of greenhouse gas accumulation in the
10 atmosphere through emissions reductions, and adaptation refers to adjusting to the
11 impacts of a warming world. This “tradeoff” between mitigation and adaptation evolved,
12 in part, out of a perception of climate change as primarily a problem of the future, with
13 impacts resulting from gradual and uncertain processes. This dichotomy underlies the
14 cost-benefit approach to climate policy that is widely used in the US and broader research
15 and policy communities. However, it is increasingly understood that adaptation and
16 mitigation must be complementary responses to climate change, not tradeoffs.⁵⁰ Because
17 of the lag in the climate system, some impacts of continued climate change are
18 unavoidable, due to the emissions already released into the atmosphere. For example,
19 even if global emissions are reduced, snowpack in California is expected to decline by as
20 much as 25% by the 2040s. This would put increasing pressure on the state’s water
21 supply, of which melting snowpack is a significant component during the dry spring and
22 summer months.¹ Adaptive actions must be taken to prepare for these changes. Far
23 greater loss of snowpack, which may outstrip the state’s ability to cope, is expected if
24 emissions are not reduced, and can only be avoided through mitigation.
25

26 The approaches for communicating climate risks outlined above motivate support
27 for different policy actions. In California and more broadly in the US, we are increasingly
28 successful in insulating ourselves from daily weather changes. Personal welfare-based
29 approaches may reinforce support for this trend, providing incentive not to prevent
30 climate change through mitigation but to devote resources to continue this trend of
31 insulation through adaptation. That is, until impacts become too intense to ignore—there
32 are certainly limits to adaptation, and mitigation is necessary to prevent impacts beyond
33 those limits
34

35 Ethics-based approaches are more likely to engender support for immediate
36 mitigation activities. It is difficult to justify on ethical grounds delaying emissions
37 reductions, as damages mount to other species, in other parts of the world, and for
38 vulnerable local populations and future generations, while focusing only on adapting to
39 climate changes on a regional or local level. It is also difficult to justify increasing the
40 risk of abrupt large-scale climate changes by delaying reductions. Ethics-based
41 approaches do, however, encourage helping vulnerable nations and populations adapt to
42 the climate change already under way.
43

44 Economics-based approaches motivate both adaptation and mitigation. The
45 financial risks from more frequent and/or intense extreme events can motivate
46 anticipatory adaptation, which to a certain extent can reduce damages, but can also

1 motivate early mitigation to prevent these risks from growing. Economics-based
2 approaches can also motivate mitigation through arguments for “no regrets” actions,
3 anticipatory reductions prior to mandatory reductions, and “first mover” investment
4 advantages, as discussed above.

5
6 The ultimate goal of a response strategy can be seen as the prevention of
7 “dangerous” climate change. At an international level, this is the goal to which the US
8 and over 180 other nations are bound by international law as signatories to the UNFCCC
9 (see section 2.2). At a regional and local level, policy makers are likely to be most
10 concerned about what is dangerous to their constituents, and this may not be the same for
11 all constituents (e.g., see section 3.2.3). In addition to motivating support for different
12 policy actions, the approaches above also lend different meanings to “dangerous” climate
13 change. The personal-welfare approach suggests a definition of “dangerous” as impacts
14 which outstrip the ability of individuals or local communities to cope. The ethics-based
15 approach suggests that “dangerous” climate change is already occurring in some parts of
16 the world (e.g., Arctic regions, US Gulf Coast), and these conditions will spread the
17 longer action is delayed. Finally, the economics-based approach suggests that
18 “dangerous” climate change be defined in terms of direct monetary damages from climate
19 impacts and monetized assessments of non-market impacts (e.g., ecosystem services).

20
21 Policy makers concerned with preventing dangerous climate change are faced
22 with a situation where the determination of what constitutes “dangerous” varies across
23 regions and stakeholders, and this diversity must be considered when crafting a policy
24 response. It is clear that a blend of adaptation and mitigation is necessary for a robust
25 prevention strategy, and motivating support for such action will require a combination of
26 the approaches we outline here.

27 28 **6. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

29
30 Climate risks are widely misperceived as remote (risks affect distant people and
31 places or future generations, but are not local or immediate), as deniable (uncertainty
32 regarding risks is so great, they can be ignored), and as manageable (society will be able
33 to adapt to climate changes and avoid risks). We argue that these misperceptions must be
34 addressed in order to motivate widespread support for policy action. Managing climate
35 change requires both mitigation and adaptation, and effectively motivating both of these
36 complimentary strategies requires a combination of ethically based, economically
37 based, and personally relevant messages. These messages respond to the misperceptions
38 of climate risks as remote, deniable, and manageable, and can lead to a realization that
39 risks can be immediate, unfair, irreversible, unmanageable and local, and that solutions
40 need not be expensive or inequitable. A blend of these approaches is needed to broadly
41 reframe the debate so as to generate increased public perceptions of the actual risks of
42 climate change and the need for action now, not just at some indefinite time in the future,
43 and to get the public to endorse—in fact, to demand—concrete actions from their
44 decision makers to lower the risks. In conclusion, we offer the following
45 recommendations for motivating policy action in California that emerge from this
46 analysis:

- 1
2 • **Recognize that personal welfare arguments may be more effective for motivating**
3 **adaptation than mitigation.** Due to the lag in the climate system, the benefits of
4 avoided climate impacts from reducing greenhouse gas emissions will not be realized
5 for several decades. As a result, personal risks from climate change cannot be
6 addressed by mitigation over the near-term.
7
8 • **Prioritize moral and economic arguments for motivating mitigation.** Because the
9 impacts over the next few decades are likely to be similar regardless of mitigation
10 choices, ethics and economics-based approaches may be more effective than personal
11 welfare-based approaches for motivating near-term mitigation.
12
13 • **Enhance demand for mitigation by integrating climate risks and adaptive**
14 **measures into everyday life.** Some impacts of continued climate change are
15 unavoidable, due to the emissions already released into the atmosphere. As a result,
16 while adaptation is not the solution, it is an essential component of addressing climate
17 change. Implementing adaptive strategies that highlight the increasing risks of climate
18 change can minimize the impacts in the near term while shifting the mindset of the
19 public that climate change is not merely a threat of tomorrow but a problem today.
20 This shift in public perception is critical for creating demand for mitigation.
21
22 • **Highlight the limits to coping with climate risks today and adapting to climate**
23 **risks in the future.** The American public does not fully understand the urgency of
24 emissions reductions. Presenting the constraints to coping with climate-related risks
25 today (such as wildfires, hurricanes, droughts, and floods) can highlight existing
26 vulnerabilities that are likely to be exacerbated by climate change. Focusing on these
27 increasing vulnerabilities can illustrate the limits to adapting to future climate change
28 and the need for mitigation.
29
30 • **Consider all the meanings of “dangerous” climate change and their relevance to**
31 **different populations.** Ethics-based, personal welfare-based, and economics-based
32 approaches suggest different criteria for assessing danger from climate risks that will
33 vary in importance for different populations. A clearer understanding of the salience
34 of these different definitions for different populations can provide a powerful tool for
35 motivating policy action.
36

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