

1 **Understanding Climate Attitudes in the Context of Environmental Justice**

2 Alex Segrè Cohen^{a*} & Catherine E. Slavik^{a, b}

3 ^a Center for Science Communication Research, School of Journalism and Communication,

4 University of Oregon, Eugene, OR, USA

5 ^b Impact Canada and Health Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

6 *Email: asegreco@uoregon.edu

7 **Abstract:** Despite growing public awareness, action to mitigate and adapt to climate impacts
8 remains urgent. Environmental hazards and climate change effects are disproportionately
9 placed on marginalized communities, exacerbating existing inequalities and creating a triple
10 threat for those facing environmental pollution, social vulnerability, and limited adaptive
11 capacity. Using the regulatory scope framework, construal level theory, and data from the
12 United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's Environmental Justice Index and
13 American National Election Survey, we examine how living in areas with high environmental
14 burden and social vulnerability influences beliefs about climate change and support for
15 greenhouse gas regulation. This research uses quantifiable measures of environmental injustice
16 at the census tract level and self-reported survey responses about climate attitudes through a
17 robust and representative sample of over 7,000 US residents. Our findings indicate Democrats
18 are less supportive of climate policies when they face environmental injustices. Republicans'
19 views on climate change remain unchanged based on their social and environmental
20 vulnerability. These results highlight the complexities of environmental and social factors in
21 shaping climate perceptions and underscore the need for multifaceted, place-based, and
22 bipartisan policy approaches to comprehensively address climate and environmental justice.

23 **Keywords:** environmental justice, climate change beliefs, political ideology, climate policy,
24 regulatory scope

25 **1. Introduction**

26 The increasing frequency of extreme weather events and the rise in global temperatures
27 make climate change perhaps the most pronounced issue of our time(1,2). Scientific consensus
28 attributes these changes to human activities like burning fossil fuels, pollution, and
29 deforestation(1). This urgent and ‘wicked’ problem poses far-reaching consequences for
30 ecosystems, economies, and human well-being(3,4). Luckily, knowledge about climate change
31 is only increasing; 7 in 10 Americans agree that climate change is currently happening and
32 personally important(5). While this increase in knowledge is positive, there is also a need to
33 push for immediate action to combat climate change and adapt to its impacts.

34 How individuals psychologically process and prioritize threats that vary in their
35 perceived immediacy and relevance to their personal lives constitutes a central aspect of this
36 challenge. Construal Level Theory (CLT) posits that individuals develop distinct mental
37 representations (i.e., construals) of objects and events based on their psychological distance
38 from these entities. Objects or events that are psychologically distant, whether in terms of
39 time, space, or social connection, are typically represented through abstract, high-level
40 construals that emphasize central, essential characteristics while neglecting specific
41 details(6,7) . Conversely, psychologically proximal objects or events are represented by
42 concrete, low-level construals that emphasize specific, detailed, and contextualized features
43 (6,7). As Ledgerwood and colleagues (6) explain, the same pair of sandals might be
44 represented abstractly as "footwear" when thinking about shoes needed for a distant trip, but
45 concretely as "blue rubber flip-flops with a scuff on the toe" when considering wearing them
46 right now. Climate change often manifests as a psychologically distant threat with abstract
47 construals removed from the self, here, and now along multiple dimensions (8–10). Its most
48 severe consequences may feel temporally distant, projected to occur decades or centuries into
49 the future. Spatially, major impacts might seem concentrated in distant regions or other

50 countries, far from one's immediate surroundings. Socially, the individuals most severely
51 affected may belong to different communities or future generations, feeling distant from one's
52 immediate social circle.

53 However, the impacts of environmental hazards and climate change are not
54 universally distant; environmental hazards and impacts of climate change are unevenly
55 distributed across the population, particularly by race and class(11,12). Environmental
56 injustice, or unequal exposure to these hazards, exacerbates existing inequalities and
57 disproportionately affects marginalized communities, including Indigenous peoples, people
58 of color, and low-income populations. Those experiencing environmental injustice often face
59 a "triple threat" from environmental pollution exposure, social vulnerability, and climate
60 change hazards (11). Vulnerable populations experiencing pollution may face worse
61 outcomes from climate hazards due to pre-existing social disadvantages, heightened
62 susceptibility *caused* by pollution exposure, or a lack of resources and infrastructure to
63 effectively mitigate the impacts of climate-related disasters. For example, many rural
64 populations in the United States (US) that depend on private wells for drinking water, which
65 are more susceptible to chemical contamination, are also more likely to face climate-sensitive
66 health outcomes due to vulnerability to coastal surges or riverine flooding(13,14). In addition,
67 pollution not only makes ecosystems less resilient to climate change, but it also makes people
68 less resilient by making them sicker, limiting their capacity to adapt(15). There is, for
69 example, strong evidence to suggest that exposure to certain air pollutants leads to
70 physiological changes that make people more sensitive to extreme temperatures(16). For
71 those directly experiencing environmental injustice, the threat is not merely abstract or
72 distant; it is immediate and tangible.

73 While construal level theory explores how psychologically close or distant an object
74 or issue is from a person, it does not elucidate how other cognitive tools modulate the scope

75 of an issue. Building on CLT, the regulatory scope framework examines how individuals and
76 groups adjust their cognitive and behavioral regulation to pursue desired objectives that vary
77 in psychological proximity (6, 7). Effective human functioning requires the capacity to both
78 immerse oneself in the demands of the immediate "here and now" (requiring a contractive
79 regulatory scope) and to transcend current experiences in order to plan for the future, engage
80 with distant others, or consider hypothetical scenarios (requiring an expansive regulatory
81 scope)(7). In other words, regulatory scope is about what people focus on. In the context of
82 climate change and environmental burdens, examples of such focus could include an
83 incoming storm set to hit one's neighborhood within 48 hours (contractive scopes) versus the
84 impacts of the US no longer participating in the Paris Agreement (expansive scope).

85 Living in areas with high environmental burden and social vulnerability, characteristics
86 associated with facing significant, proximal demands, might intuitively be expected to increase
87 concern about environmental issues. Indeed, some research has found that experiencing the
88 impacts of climate change can shift people's perceptions of the issue, making it a more salient
89 and, therefore, important topic(17,18). For example, researchers surveyed Maryland residents
90 and found that socially vulnerable individuals perceived climate change as a risk to their
91 health(19). Other research found a similar trend with New York City residents(20). Some work
92 has also found that people of color generally have higher risk perceptions of climate change
93 and perceive it as a less polarizing topic(21,22). However, findings on the relationship between
94 vulnerability to climate change and perceptions have been mixed.

95 For example, exposure to environmental hazards like pollution, which makes people
96 more vulnerable to negative climate change impacts, may have little to no relationship to risk
97 perceptions or perceived importance of climate change(23,24). Because familiarity with a risk
98 may decrease risk perceptions if it does not have overt adverse consequences(17,25), people
99 may not believe climate change is personally meaningful, especially if living in a toxic

100 environment is part of everyday life(24). Research on spatial optimism bias provides another
101 possible explanation; while people generally think climate change is impacting communities
102 around them, they are less likely to think it is impacting them personally—even when they live
103 in areas where climate-related hazards like floods and droughts have happened(26,27).
104 Financial or economic dependence on extractive industries may impact interest in supporting
105 climate policies, even if individuals live closer to environmental hazards(28,29).

106 Action on climate change requires people to view it as an important and pressing issue,
107 something that impacts them, and is risky to them personally (23,30). Broadening public
108 participation in climate discourse and decision-making is an important long-term collective
109 goal, and it must include those on the front lines of these issues and those most likely at risk
110 from the related hazards (11,23). Importantly, policies to address climate crises require
111 bipartisan support.

112 Ideologies and values represent abstract evaluative principles that function as high-
113 level mental tools, particularly relevant when assessing distant issues (7). Climate change has
114 been well-documented as a politically polarizing topic, especially in recent decades(31,32).
115 Climate change is thought of as a liberal issue, which may prompt some conservative
116 Americans to disengage in conversations or be antagonistic toward the topic. However,
117 approximately 25% of conservatives believe climate change is happening and are alarmed or
118 concerned about its impacts(33). While political ideology plays a role in perceptions of
119 climate change and climate-related policy alternatives, other variables moderate this
120 relationship. Recent work found that support for climate policies becomes more polarized
121 when accounting for education and income(34,35). Republicans who are alarmed or
122 concerned about climate change are more likely to be moderates or people of color than other

123 Republicans(33). As we strive for more collective action on climate, people’s multiple
124 identities, worldviews, and place-based experiences of climate change need to be considered.

125 And, to combat these environmental injustices, we must understand them, map them,
126 and develop place-based decision-making processes and strategies(36). Fortunately, the US
127 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) developed an Environmental Justice
128 Index (EJI) tool, providing data on the cumulative impacts of exposure to environmental
129 injustices. The dataset elucidates how each US census tract compares to one another on
130 several environmental and social determinants of health(37). This can spotlight communities
131 experiencing higher burdens of environmental and social injustice. Since the data are
132 aggregated at the census tract level, they do not include individual-level attitudinal measures
133 and do not reveal whether individuals living in environmentally and socially vulnerable
134 communities are aware of the disproportionate environmental burdens they face, and/or if
135 they are more willing to support environmental policies. Understanding whether personal
136 experiences with environmental hazards impact individuals’ pro-environmental attitudes and
137 willingness to act on climate change is crucial for tailoring effective policies and
138 interventions that advance equity and make vulnerable communities more climate-
139 resilient(38).

140 More work is needed to address the range of issues that comprise social vulnerability
141 and experiences of environmental injustice, and how interwoven identities shape climate
142 change's perceived importance and climate policy preferences. Beyond examining
143 environmental justice within a regularly scope framework, this work also builds on risk
144 perception literature about place-based hazard exposure and perceptions of risk, and theories
145 about how identity plays a role in people's perceptions of environmental issues. And, because
146 critical environmental justice scholars argue that all levels of government are too embedded in

147 maintaining the inequities to be the ones to solve them, this work is motivated by critical
148 environmental justice scholars and their call for both policy and place-based solutions(39).

149 *1.1 Research Questions*

150 1. How does living in areas facing proximal environmental injustices relate to *a)* believing
151 climate change is important and *b)* favoring GHG regulations?

152 2. Does political ideology moderate these relationships?

153 **2. Methods**

154 *2.1 Survey data.*

155 This research analyzed public support for climate change policies using the American
156 National Election Studies (ANES), which collects data on voting, political participation, and
157 public opinion in the US from every presidential election since 1948. The ANES Time Series
158 Studies follow a two-wave panel design with a pre- and post-election survey with the same
159 respondents. These data have been used widely in social science research(40,41). The pre-
160 election survey was conducted between August 18 and November 2, 2020, while the post-
161 election survey was conducted between November 8 and January 4, 2021. The ANES 2020
162 Study used a mixed-mode design administered by interviewers via telephone and
163 videoconference and self-administered using an online questionnaire(42). The overall survey
164 response rate in 2020 was 36.7%, and the post-election re-interview rate was 90.0%(43). The
165 post-election sample from which we drew our dependent variables (detailed below) included
166 7,453 respondents. All participants gave informed consent to take part in the surveys. Data
167 were released in July 2021 and accessed via the University of Michigan's Inter-university
168 Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR) in October 2023. The University of
169 Oregon's Internal Review Board deemed this study exempt from review.

170 2.2 Survey measures

171 This study's two dependent variables are support for greenhouse gas emission
172 regulation and perception of climate change importance. The first variable was scored using a
173 7-point scale using two items: "Do you favor, oppose, or neither favor nor oppose increased
174 government regulation on businesses that produce a great deal of greenhouse emissions linked
175 to climate change?" and "Do you [favor/oppose] that a great deal, a moderate amount, or a
176 little?" (from "Oppose a great deal" to "Favor a great deal")(43). The overall mean for this
177 variable was 5.11 (SE = 0.04). The second variable was scored using a 5-point scale using the
178 item: "How important is the issue of climate change to you personally?" (from "Not at all
179 important" to "Extremely important"). The overall mean for this variable was 3.29 (SE = 0.03).
180 The two dependent variables were positively correlated, $r = 0.62$ [0.60, 0.65]. We used a 3-
181 item composite measure from the ANES 2020 Study pre-survey to assess respondents' political
182 ideology, which was scored using a 7-point scale (from Strong Democrat to Strong
183 Republican). Responses to the following three questions were used to generate the political
184 ideology variable: "Generally speaking, do you usually think of yourself as a
185 [Democrat/Republican/Independent], or what?", "Would you call yourself a strong
186 [Democrat/Republican] or a not very strong [Democrat/Republican]?", and "Do you think of
187 yourself as closer to the Republican Party or to the Democratic Party?". The overall mean for
188 this variable was 3.92 (SE = 0.04).

189 2.3 Survey sample.

190 Demographic variables from the ANES 2020 Study included age, sex, income,
191 education, and race. The mean age was 47.35 (SE = 0.36). The sample was 51.56% male and
192 48.44% female (SE = 0.88% for both). Income averaged 13.34 (SE = 0.12), between \$70 and
193 \$ 74,999 and \$75 and \$ 79,999. Education had a mean value of 3.92 (SE = 0.04), which is

194 between the levels “some college but no degree” and “associate degree, in college –
195 occupational/vocational.” The racial identification breakdown was as follows: White, non-
196 Hispanic: 65.95% (0.84%); Black, non-Hispanic: 11.15% (0.59%); Hispanic: 13.25% (0.73%);
197 Asian or Native Hawaiian/other Pacific Islander, non-Hispanic: 3.77% (0.35%); Native
198 American/Alaska Native or other race, non-Hispanic: 1.99% (0.23%); Multiple races, non-
199 Hispanic: 3.90% (0.38%).

200 *2.4 Environmental injustice data.*

201 We used the US CDC’s Environmental Justice Index (EJI) tool to obtain measures for
202 the independent variables at the census tract-level: environmental burden, social vulnerability,
203 and environmental injustice. The EJI is a publicly available dataset containing information on
204 indicators related to environmental justice for the 48 US contiguous states. We downloaded the
205 dataset in May 2024.

206 The environmental burden variable represents the cumulative sum of various
207 environmental determinants of health, like air pollution, water pollution, and hazardous and
208 toxic sites in each census tract, as well as its transportation infrastructure (e.g., high-volume
209 roads) and built environment characteristics (e.g., houses built pre-1980)(44). The data for
210 these environmental indicators comes from various sources, including the US Environmental
211 Protection Agency, the US Census Bureau American Community Survey, and the Mine Data
212 Retrieval System, among others. Tract-level percentile ranks for each environmental indicator
213 are calculated and summed, producing an environmental burden score ranking between 0 and
214 1.

215 The social vulnerability variable is the cumulative sum of various social determinants
216 of health, considering a census tract’s minority status, socioeconomic status, household
217 characteristics, and housing stock(44). The data for these social indicators comes from the US

218 Census Bureau American Community Survey. Tract-level percentile ranks for each social
219 indicator are calculated and summed, producing a score ranking between 0 and 1.

220 EJI provides a composite social-environmental score that combines the environmental
221 burden and social vulnerability of a census tract. We define the environmental injustice variable
222 as summing the environmental burden and social vulnerability scores and taking the percentile
223 rank, producing a value between 0 and 1.

224 *2.5 Analysis*

225 We merged the EJI dataset and the geocoded ANES dataset by census tract. After
226 screening out respondents with no responses to the ANES variables of interest and/or those
227 whose geocode could not be matched to a census tract from the EJI dataset, our sample was N
228 = 7,205 respondents, 97% of the total ANES post-survey sample. The EJI dataset only contains
229 indicators for census tracts located in the 48 contiguous US states; thus, ANES respondents
230 located outside of these states were screened out. After merging, we applied the ANES' full-
231 sample post-election survey weight to account for the ANES sampling design and accurately
232 represent the US 2020 electorate population (see (45) for information on weighting).

233 Our primary analyses consisted of linear regression models run separately for the two
234 dependent variables. We report the results of linear regression models in the main text, which
235 were checked against ordinal logistic regression models (see SI). The results were highly
236 consistent across the two methods. The models included political party leaning (z-scored),
237 environmental injustice score, social vulnerability score, or environmental burden score (each
238 z-score and their interaction). For inference, we rely on point estimates and 95% confidence
239 intervals, evaluating whether the 95% confidence intervals contain zero or not. Simple slopes
240 for the interactions were computed to examine the slopes of the environment injustice/social
241 vulnerability/environmental burden score among Democratic and Republican-leaning

242 respondents (i.e., +/- 1 SD from the mean on political leaning). We report point estimates and
243 95% confidence intervals in brackets to summarize results. Survey weighting and all regression
244 analyses were performed using the survey package(46) for R version 4.3.2(47). The emmeans
245 package(48) generated simple slopes for interactions and plotting data. Plotting was performed
246 using ggplot2(49).

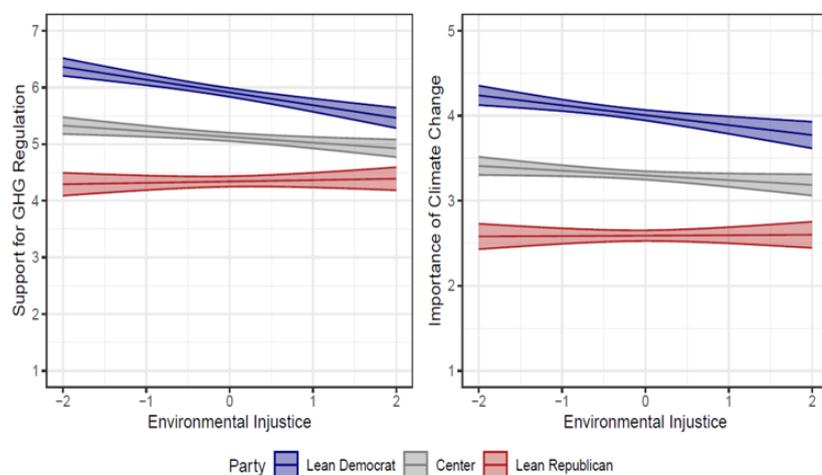
247 **3. Results**

248 *3.1 Environmental Injustice and Climate Change Policy Support.*

249 There was a weak but significant main effect of environmental injustice scores (z-
250 scored) on climate change importance, $b = -0.06$ [-0.11, -0.004]. There was a main effect of
251 political leaning (z-scored), such that Republican-leaning respondents perceived climate
252 change as less important than Democrat-leaning respondents, $b = -0.71$ [-0.75, -0.67]. The
253 interaction effect was significant (Figure 1), $b = 0.06$ [0.02, 0.10]. Simple slopes analyses
254 revealed a significant negative relationship between environmental injustice scores and climate
255 change importance among Democratic-leaning respondents (-1 SD from the mean on party
256 leaning), $b = -0.12$ [-0.18, -0.06], while there was no significant relationship for Republican-
257 leaning respondents (+1 SD from the mean on party leaning), $b = 0.005$ [-0.06, 0.07].

258 For the greenhouse gas emissions reduction measure, there was also a significant effect
259 of environmental injustice; higher injustice scores were associated with less support, $b = -0.10$
260 [-0.17, -0.03]. Party leaning was also associated with this dependent measure such that more
261 Republican-leaning participants reported lower support for emission reductions, $b = -0.79$ [-
262 0.83, -0.74]. There was statistical evidence of an interaction effect (Figure 1), $b = 0.12$ [0.08,
263 0.17]. Simple slopes analyses indicate that, among Democratic-leaning respondents, there was
264 a negative slope for the environmental injustice index on support for greenhouse gas emissions,
265 $b = -0.22$ [-0.30, -0.15]. Among Republican-leaning respondents, there was no significant

266 relationship between environmental injustice scores and support for greenhouse gas emissions
267 regulation, $b = 0.02$ [-0.07, 0.11].



268
269 Figure 1. The interaction between environmental injustice and political party leaning on support for greenhouse
270 gas (GHG) regulation and the importance of climate change. Shaded bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

271 *3.2 Environmental Burden, Social Vulnerability, and Climate Change Policy Support.*

272 Next, we examined the effects of environmental burden and social vulnerability EJI
273 sub-scales separately, as other research has found that physical vulnerability variables (e.g.,
274 pollution exposure) are weaker in their exploratory power compared to socioeconomic
275 variables(50). Table 1 summarizes the models' main coefficients side-by-side. We also
276 examined models in which socio-demographic variables (age, gender, income, education, and
277 race) were entered as covariates (without interaction terms) alongside our focal model terms.
278 These models attempt to control for the effects of individual demographics (measured via the
279 socio-demographic indicators) while estimating the interaction between the EJI measure(s) and
280 the outcomes. The key parameters (i.e., the regression coefficients for the main effects and
281 interaction) were substantively similar to those reported in the main text when including these
282 covariates, albeit reduced in magnitude compared to those offered in the main text. These
283 covariate models are provided in the supplementary materials for interested readers (SI 13).

284 Table 1. *Regression Coefficients (b) and 95% Confidence Intervals for Models of Environmental Injustice Sub-*
285 *scales. Bold cells indicate significant findings.*

		Climate Change Importance	Support for GHG Regulation
Environmental Burden	Intercept	3.29 [3.24, 3.34]	5.11 [5.04, 5.18]
	Environmental Burden (z)	-0.01 [-0.06, 0.03]	-0.01 [-0.06, 0.05]
	Party Leaning (z)	-0.70 [-0.74, -0.67]	-0.78 [-0.82, -0.73]
	Interaction Term	0.03 [-0.01, 0.06]	0.01 [-0.04, 0.06]
Social Vulnerability	Intercept	3.30 [3.24, 3.35]	5.12 [5.05, 5.20]
	Social Vulnerability (z)	-0.06 [-0.11, -0.01]	-0.12 [-0.18, -0.05]
	Party Leaning (z)	-0.71 [-0.74, -0.67]	-0.78 [-0.83, -0.74]
	Interaction Term	0.07 [0.02, 0.12]	0.18 [0.12, 0.23]

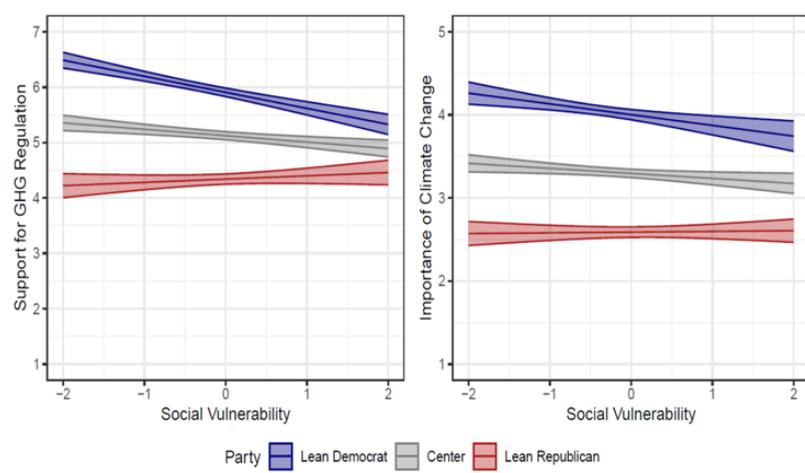
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287 For climate change importance, there was a significant negative slope for the social
 288 vulnerability sub-scale but not for environmental burden. This negative slope indicates that
 289 higher levels of social vulnerability were associated with the perception of personal climate
 290 change importance. A similar pattern of results emerged for the greenhouse gas emission
 291 regulation. In all models, there was a strong effect of political leaning such that Republican-
 292 leaning respondents reported lower support for emissions regulation and climate change
 293 importance than Democrat-leaning respondents.

294 The main effects in the models were qualified by significant interaction effects for the
 295 social vulnerability sub-scale but not the environmental burden sub-scale. Table 2 summarizes
 296 the simple slopes for Democrat and Republican-leaning respondents in each model. For the
 297 models with significant interactions, the patterns were consistent. For Democrats, there was a
 298 negative relationship between social vulnerability scores and support for greenhouse gas
 299 emissions regulation and climate change importance. The simple slopes for Republican-leaning
 300 respondents were non-significant. Figure 2 plots the interaction effects for both models.

301 Table 2. *Simple Slopes Coefficients for Models in Table 1. Bold cells indicate significant findings.*

	Party Leaning	Climate Change Importance	Support for GHG Regulation
Environmental Burden	Democrat	-0.04 [-0.09, 0.01]	-0.02 [-0.09, 0.04]
	Republican	0.01 [-0.05, 0.08]	0.01 [-0.07, 0.09]
Social Vulnerability	Democrat	-0.13 [-0.20, -0.06]	-0.29 [-0.36, -0.22]
	Republican	0.01 [-0.06, 0.07]	0.06 [-0.04, 0.16]



302

303 Figure 2. The interaction between social vulnerability and political party leaning on the importance of climate
304 change and support for greenhouse gas (GHG) regulation. Results are derived from two separate weighted linear
305 regression models. Both social vulnerability and political party leaning were z-scored for the analysis, and the
306 effects of party leaning are plotted at +/- 1 standard deviation from the mean. Shaded bars represent 95%
307 confidence intervals.

308

309 4. Discussion

310 The impacts of environmental exposures and climate change are unevenly distributed
311 across populations, particularly affecting marginalized groups. Measures and indicators of
312 environmental justice can help expose these disparities(51), and exploring distributive justice
313 at the community level can be especially helpful in comparing relative levels of impact across
314 different locales and between different populations. This research aimed to address social and
315 environmental injustices and understand how interwoven identities shape views on climate
316 change and policy preferences.

317 First, we explored how levels of perceived climate change importance varied between
318 people living in areas with different levels of environmental injustice. Survey respondents
319 generally perceived climate change as personally important (mean 3.29 on a 5-point scale).
320 These results are consistent across other nationally representative samples (5), indicating that
321 climate change is increasingly pressing for Americans. However, living in a more
322 environmentally polluted area had no significant main effect on perceptions of climate change's
323 importance. The environmental burden variable considers the cumulative impacts of multiple

324 factors contributing to environmental degradation—some may not be obviously or directly
325 linked to climate change (e.g., the proportion of polluted waterways, neighborhood walkability,
326 etc.). Thus, people may not attribute their personal experiences with broader environmental
327 issues to climate change. This matters because when people do link environmental problems
328 to climate change, they seem to recognize its threat(38). However, not everyone experiences
329 obvious climate-related events like sea level rise or hurricanes, and consequently, public
330 education may be needed to explain how broader environmental contexts shape vulnerability
331 to climate change.

332 Our results align with other work that too found environmental factors to have weaker
333 effects on climate change perceptions compared to socioeconomic variables(52). When the
334 social vulnerability variable was examined independently, it appeared to have a significant
335 negative relationship with climate change's importance. Specifically, people living in more
336 socially vulnerable locations, on average, perceived climate change as less important. This
337 negative relationship lends credence to prior work on spatial optimism bias(26) and studies
338 arguing that experiencing environmental hazards might make one familiar with their risks but
339 not necessarily prioritize them over other matters of personal importance(24,51). Indeed,
340 researchers have hypothesized that individuals of higher social status might perceive climate
341 change as more important because they have more to lose because of climate change (i.e.,
342 property) and, thus, are more concerned about its impacts(51).

343 Next, we explored whether support for greenhouse gas emission reduction regulation
344 varies between people experiencing different levels of environmental injustice. Overall,
345 Participants considered greenhouse gas emission reduction relatively important (mean 5.16 on
346 a 7-point scale), consistent with prior work(53). Higher environmental injustice scores were
347 associated with a lower level of support for greenhouse gas emissions reduction policies, which
348 appeared to be driven by community-level social vulnerability rather than the environmental

349 burden. While support for GHG emission reduction policies and perceived climate change
350 importance were correlated ($r=0.62$), support for policies was higher overall and had a stronger
351 (and negative) relationship to social vulnerability.

352 There are several potential reasons why participants with higher environmental justice
353 scores were less supportive of GHG emission reduction policies. First, our data appears to show
354 that experiencing high degrees of environmental burdens may increase one's contractive
355 regulatory scope, where individuals are more likely to focus on immediate and proximal
356 concerns. This concrete focus is unaligned with high-level construals and the expansive scope
357 required to prioritize abstract policies related to GHG regulation. However, those living farther
358 away from environmental and climate injustices may perceive these issues in a more expansive
359 scope, and therefore, may be primed to prioritize abstract solutions to these problems. This may
360 be especially true if climate change is perceived as a distant threat (8–10). Some research has
361 found evidence of this; those who view climate change (and its associated policies) as distant
362 were more motivated to act (8). It could also be that those experiencing environmental burdens
363 are not associating them with climate change or policy solutions to address climate change
364 (10). Greenhouse gas regulations may have economic impacts, which could evoke stronger
365 responses than climate change as an abstract concept. Indeed, living near gas production sites
366 is associated with less support for energy policies(28), as those living near extractive industries
367 are regularly employed by them(29). It is imperative, then, that researchers and policymakers
368 consider individuals' multiple identities and how best to communicate across ideological and
369 place-based differences.

370 Therefore, we examined how political ideology may moderate the relationship between
371 climate change attitudes for those living in areas with different levels of environmental
372 injustice. Republicans generally scored lower across both climate change importance and
373 support for GHG emission reduction climate policy—experiencing environmental injustice or

374 being socially vulnerable did not change this result. Democrats experiencing environmental
375 injustices, on average, supported climate change policies less and perceived climate change as
376 less personally important compared to other Democrats. We also examined these differences
377 across income. Higher income was associated with greater climate change importance and
378 support for greenhouse gas emissions reductions, and there was a significant interaction such
379 that Democrat-leaning respondents exhibited this positive relationship between income and the
380 outcomes while Republican-leaning respondents showed no relationship (see SI for income
381 analyses). Our results echo other research that found increased political polarization on climate
382 change beliefs among more educated and higher-income adults(34). This variance may be
383 especially driven by differences among Democrats(31) (analyses in SI).

384 Various factors could explain the elite polarization of climate change impacts. First,
385 those who benefit more from current social structures may be more aware of party platforms
386 and issues, generally agreeing with elite cues that communicate these interests(34,54,55).
387 Individuals who feel more socially tied to their identity as a Democrat may adhere more
388 strongly to Democratic party issues and in-group social norms, like support policies for
389 greenhouse gas emissions(56). In our data, however, there was a small positive correlation (r
390 = 0.07 [95% CI = 0.03, 0.10]) between political party importance and living in an
391 environmentally unjust area. The more critical one finds one's political party affiliation, the
392 more likely one is, on average, to live in a location that experiences environmental injustice
393 (analyses in SI). More research is needed to understand if the strength of social identity could
394 account for the differences in climate change importance among Democrats.

395 Second, Democrats are not a homogenous group and care about different issues ranging
396 from climate change to income inequality and/or access to free health care. Because the
397 economic impact of climate change will be massive(56), it could be the case that those with
398 more to lose from the climate crisis may consider it more important(51). For example, those

399 who own homes are less socially vulnerable but will experience substantial financial losses if
400 climate change-related events damage their properties. The variable we used to measure social
401 vulnerability included estimates of home ownership and the age of homes at the census tract
402 level, which may partially account for the differences in perceptions among Democrats.
403 Similarly, if all basic needs are met, there may be more capacity to focus on climate change
404 and to advocate for policies to address it. Because climate and environmental justice are
405 interwoven with all struggles for justice (e.g., disability justice, housing justice, queer
406 liberation), there is a need to recognize the interconnected nature of these challenges and
407 advocate for comprehensive, multifaceted solutions(57).

408 *4.1 Limitations*

409 We relied on composite indicators from the EJI dataset, calculated using a
410 comprehensive list of social and environmental factors; however, this list is not exhaustive. For
411 example, the CDC acknowledges that some relevant environmental exposures, such as
412 pesticide use, are omitted from the indicators because these data are currently unavailable by
413 census tract. Additionally, many indicators involve some uncertainty, which are not factored
414 into the calculations. These uncertainties can stem from various sources, including the
415 estimation methods used to generate the indicators, which may impact the accuracy of the
416 indicators used to generate the EJI. Since the CDC's indicators are aggregated by census tract,
417 they are an overview of community-level social and environmental injustice rather than a
418 measurement of individual exposure. There is a risk of ecological fallacy where conclusions
419 drawn about individuals based on aggregate data may not accurately reflect the diversity of
420 individual circumstances in each census tract. And, because conceptualizations of
421 environmental justice are broad and not all directly related to variables that EJI captures, there
422 are aspects of EJ that EJI as a tool cannot measure.

423 Still, these data provide a robust foundation for identifying social and environmental
424 injustices across US communities. Another major strength of this study is using ANES survey
425 data to examine climate change policy attitudes. ANES provided access to high-quality data
426 with broad geographic coverage representing the US population. The comprehensiveness of
427 the dataset resulted in a large and diverse sample size. Future research could replicate this study
428 with ANES data and other environmental justice tools to assess how other quantifiable
429 measures of environmental and climate justice are associated with climate change beliefs.

430 **5. Conclusion**

431 Communication tools and strategies vary on their level of abstraction; communicating
432 about polarizing issues must take the audience's construal level and regulatory scope into
433 account. These communication techniques, while varied, operate under the same goal of
434 promoting a more just world. Environmentally-just policies necessitate meaningful
435 involvement from all individuals, regardless of their identity(58). Meaningful involvement
436 requires that:

437 1. People have an opportunity to participate in decisions about activities that
438 may affect their environment and/or health; 2. The public's contribution can
439 influence the regulatory agency's decision; 3. Community concerns will be
440 considered in the decision-making process; and 4. Decision makers will seek
441 out and facilitate the involvement of those potentially affected(59).

442 Yet, the triple threat of environmental injustice via pollution exposure, structural
443 marginalization, and limited community climate change resilience(11) creates barriers to
444 involvement in policies and democratic decision-making that specifically address these issues
445 (40).

446 Luckily, tools like the CDC’s Environmental Justice Index include key indicators
447 matching current environmental justice frameworks, namely demographics, environment, and
448 health measures, which showcase the relative impacts of the social and environmental
449 determinants of health(57). However, environmental justice extends beyond health impacts
450 alone. Theoretical frameworks also emphasize distributional justice, or fair access to
451 environmental benefits, and recognitional justice, or the acknowledgment of cultural contexts
452 and concerns(60).

453 Another critical dimension in the conceptualization of environmental justice is
454 procedural justice, which argues for the inclusion of impacted communities in decision-making
455 processes of environmental outcomes(61). While the ANES survey does not specifically
456 capture environmental justice perceptions, it gathers data on public perceptions of climate
457 change importance and related policies. These perceptions can inform procedural justice by
458 highlighting the extent to which different groups support climate policies. Understanding these
459 public views can help policymakers ensure that climate actions and policies are developed
460 through more inclusive processes where diverse voices and concerns are considered in
461 decision-making(36,62).

462 **Acknowledgements:** We thank the University of Michigan’s Inter-university Consortium for
463 Political and Social Research for assisting us in securing the ANES data, Dan Chapman for his
464 invaluable guidance in the analyses, and Benjamin McKenzie at the CDC for consulting with
465 us about the EJI database.

466

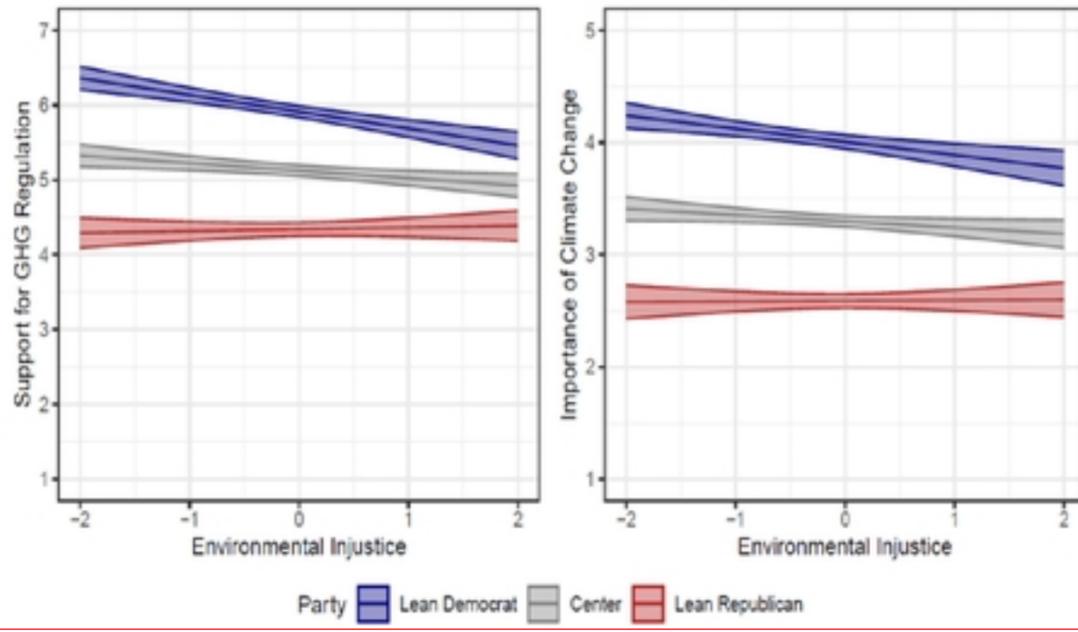
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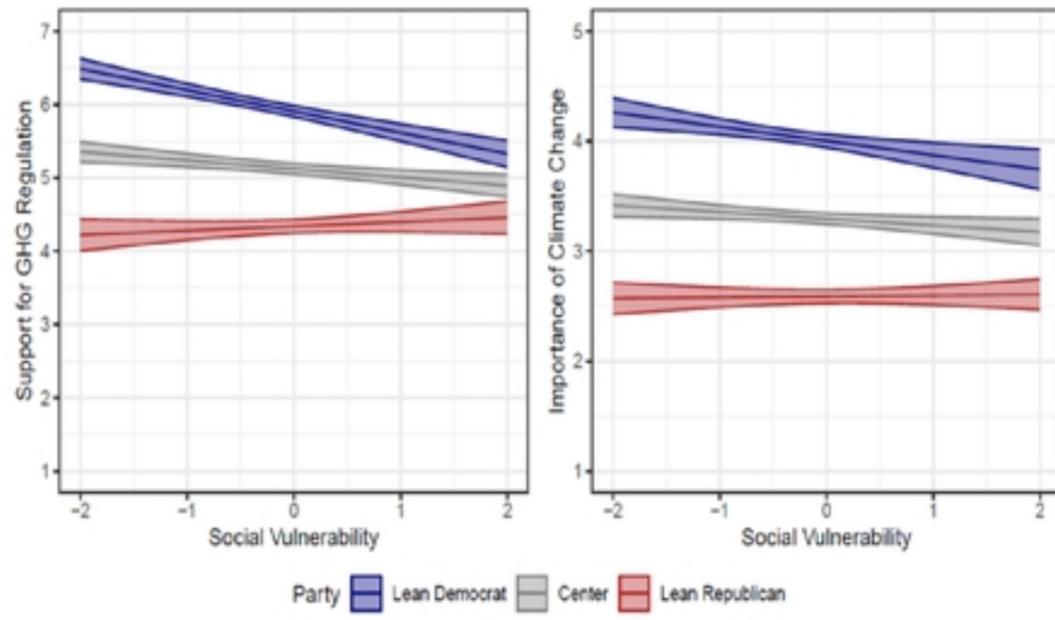
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Figure 1



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Figure 2