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Impact of Psychological Distance on public acceptance of waste-to-energy combustion projects

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¹Abstract:

Waste-to-energy (WTE) projects have attracted considerable attention due to their role in addressing waste management issues and promoting renewable energy production. However, while public acceptance of these projects remains controversial, psychological distance (PD) may be a key shaping factor in their construction. This study, grounded in the Construal Level Theory (CLT) and social

¹ WTE: Waste-to-energy; PD: Psychological distance; CLT: Construal Level Theory; NIMBY: Not in My Backyard.

distance theory of power, uses a behavioral investigation experiment to examine the role of PD in **WTE facilities**. The findings reveal that shorter PD is associated with higher public perception of risk and lower perception of economic benefits, fairness, and public acceptance. Additionally, a closer social distance of power tends to correspond with lower construal levels and a greater inclination to support the construction of **WTE facilities**, further supporting the CLT and social distance theory of power. The findings provide theoretical support and practical guidance for the sustainable development of **WTE facilities**, encouraging a sense of shared destiny and collaborative governance across society.

Keywords:

Waste-to-energy Combustion Project; Public Perception; Construal Level Theory; Social Distance; Power; NIMBY Syndrome

1 Introduction

2 Currently, waste-to-energy (WTE) projects are attracting considerable attention due to their role in
3 addressing waste management issues and promote renewable energy production (Xu et al., 2023), but
4 their public acceptance remains a complex and contentious issue (Zhou et al., 2022). WTE facilities,
5 as one of the fundamental infrastructures in national economic and social development, possess such
6 positive externalities as wealth creation and improvement of livelihoods (Xu & Lin, 2023), but also
7 harbor potential negative externalities, including environmental pollution and health hazards (Zu et
8 al., 2024). Due to the potential emission of toxic heavy metals, dioxins, and other pollutants during
9 the operation of WTE facilities (Liu et al., 2021), as well as property depreciation and a decline in
10 community image attributed to issues such as odors, noise, and increased traffic (Schively, 2007;
11 Zhang & Lin, 2023), nearby residents are likely to become increasingly concerned about their
12 physical and mental health, living environment, and economic well-being (Sun et al., 2023). Their
13 unequal distribution has led to collective opposition from residents neighboring WTE facilities,
14 thereby triggering group-based “Not in My Backyard” (NIMBY) conflicts, which has become a
15 significant barrier to the sustainable development of WTE facilities (Liu et al., 2018a). The
16 occurrence of numerous group-based NIMBY conflicts is severely impeding the long-term health and
17 stability of society, as well as effective government planning and management (Liu et al., 2021; Xu
18 et al., 2023). Therefore, understanding the factors influencing the public perception of WTE facilities
19 is valuable for policymakers, urban planners, and project developers.

20 Previous studies indicate that public perception of NIMBY projects is influenced by various
21 factors (Chung & Kim, 2009; Liu et al., 2021), of which distance to WTE facilities is considered the

22 most significant (Cong et al., 2021b). However, research findings on the impact of distance on public
23 perception of NIMBY projects are inconsistent, suggesting either a negative correlation (Cong et al.,
24 2021a; Xu et al., 2023), a positive correlation (Lima, 2004; Frantál et al., 2016), or a marginal zone
25 effect, characterized by fluctuations in risk perception, initially decreasing and then increasing (Xie
26 et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2022). The diversity of distance-related phenomena has spurred studies into
27 the underlying causes for the difference in physical distance laws, and analyzing social psychological
28 factors for possible explanations. Studies of the psychological distance (PD) of the public from
29 NIMBY facilities are gradually being initiated.

30 Currently, the prevailing approach in PD-related research relies on Construal Level Theory (CLT)
31 as proposed by Trope and Liberman (2010), which encompasses four well-established PDs – temporal,
32 spatial, social, and hypothetical distances – and has been extensively applied and validated (Tan et
33 al., 2020). Drawing upon the CLT, for instance, Geng et al. (2018), Tan et al. (2020), and Shah et al.
34 (2023) investigate the relationship and impact of public PD on perceived risks and attitudes towards
35 NIMBY facilities, shale gas development, and carbon capture and storage, respectively. However, the
36 current CLT lacks consideration of power elements. Of note, despite the lack of direct evidence
37 indicating that power is a component of the PD, some studies attempt to further enrich the CLT by
38 considering power as a novel dimension of PD (e.g., Zhong et al., 2013; Geng et al., 2018).

39 On the other hand, current studies of the distance differences of NIMBY facilities tend to focus
40 predominantly on the impact of physical proximity – i.e., physical, geographical, or spatial distance
41 differences – on public acceptance. However, while these yield fruitful outcomes, the study of the
42 effect of PD differences on public perceptions remains relatively underexplored (e.g., Cong et al.,
43 2021a; Zhou et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2023), especially towards NIMBY facilities. Meanwhile, existing

44 PD-related research in the NIMBY domain has primarily focused on explaining the possible reasons
45 for attitude and risk differences using social psychological factors, without explicitly proposing the
46 concept or conducting targeted, specialized research on PD (e.g., [Carlisle et al., 2015](#); [Zhou et al.,](#)
47 [2022](#)). Furthermore, public perception is the result of multiple coupling factors, and extant research
48 findings tend to focus predominantly on such perception-related studies as risk perception and public
49 acceptance (e.g., [Bian et al., 2021](#); [Sun et al., 2023](#)), while perceptions regarding economic benefits
50 and fairness receive relatively less attention.

51 Exploring how PD affects public awareness and acceptance of **WTE facilities** will provide an
52 important contribution to the literature and address the aforementioned gap. In response, therefore,
53 based on the CLT and the social distance theory of power, the present study conducts a behavioral
54 investigation experiment through campus recruitment, collecting data on public perception, construal
55 level, and behavioral intention toward **WTE facilities** from diverse demographic groups, followed by
56 a descriptive statistical analysis, factor analysis, and one-way ANOVA to examine the influence of
57 PD. By elucidating the underlying mechanisms involved, policymakers and project operators can
58 devise more targeted communication strategies and engagement approaches to attract greater
59 community support in advancing the implementation of sustainable WTE initiatives.

60 **2 Theoretical framework and research hypotheses**

61 **2.1 Public perception**

62 Public perception, whose origin can be traced back to the progressive relationship between
63 emotion, behavior, and cognition within the framework of attitude theory models, refers to the
64 subjective evaluation of specific events, issues, technologies, or policies ([Qu & Lu, 2016](#); [Schleich](#)

65 & Faure, 2017; Cong et al., 2021a; Shen et al., 2023). It involves the public's emotional processing
66 of cognitive information and its subsequent transformation into behavioral intentions (Qu & Lu,
67 2016), which are closely related to public attitudes toward participating in public affairs. The essence
68 of studying public perception of WTE facilities lies in exploring the societal acceptance of
69 infrastructure characterized by NIMBY effects, wherein communal benefits are widespread while
70 localized residents shoulder the burdens, ultimately aiming to promote urban sustainability (Schively,
71 2007).

72 In the field of NIMBY, the analytical framework of public acceptance towards nuclear energy
73 highlights that psychosocial factors and perceptions (e.g., public trust, perceived risk, perceived
74 benefits, and fairness) (e.g., Slovic, 1987; Visschers and Siegrist, 2012; Liu et al., 2021) are crucial
75 determinants of public acceptance of nuclear energy. Previous studies indicate that when the public
76 is confronted with unknown, uncontrollable, and potentially catastrophic risk factors, they often
77 exhibit significant fear, which may lead to negative attitudes and behaviors (Slovic et al., 1991; Ge
78 et al., 2020). Meanwhile, the economic and social benefits promised by the government and operators
79 are regarded as key factors influencing local residents' attitudes toward NIMBY facilities (Chung and
80 Kim, 2009; Wang et al., 2019), while the perceived potential economic benefits significantly affect
81 their acceptance of new technologies (Liu et al., 2019). Despite the diverse motivations behind
82 attitudes of support or opposition to specific NIMBY facilities, a key factor frequently highlighted in
83 existing research is social justice or fairness (Liu et al., 2021; Zhang & Lin, 2023). The imbalance
84 between the social benefits of WTE facilities and the personal losses experienced by local residents
85 can evoke feelings of unfairness and deprivation, subsequently triggering aversion (Li & Zou, 2021;
86 Huijts et al., 2022). Additionally, public acceptance, a crucial indicator for the success of NIMBY

87 facility siting and construction (Achillas et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2018a), refers to the degree to which
88 the public embraces new technologies or methods, and is widely applied in studies of public attitudes
89 and behaviors, including NIMBY siting, decision-making, and technological innovation (Liu et al.,
90 2021).

91 Accordingly, this study conceptualizes public perception concerning WTE facilities as the
92 subjective evaluation by the public, considering such factors as perceived risk, economic benefits,
93 fairness, and public acceptance, in the context of infrastructure typified by NIMBY effects and
94 practical operability (Chung & Kim, 2009; Liu et al., 2018a; Woo et al., 2021).

95 **2.2 Psychological distance and Construal Level Theory**

96 Trope and Liberman (1998) introduced the concept of PD based on the subjective perception
97 perspective into social psychology, linking it with Temporal Construal Theory. As investigations
98 progressed, the conceptualization of PD has transcended its initial focus on temporal aspects,
99 encompassing a spectrum of other dimensions of distance, which ultimately led to the formulation of
100 the current CLT (e.g., Liberman & Trope, 2008; 2014; Trope & Liberman, 2010; 2011). Accordingly,
101 from the perspective of CLT, PD refers to an individual's perception of the distance between
102 themselves and specific objects or events in terms of temporal, spatial, social, and hypothetical
103 dimensions, depending on different reference points (Liberman & Trope, 2008; Trope & Liberman,
104 2010). Social distance, in particular, pertains to the perceived distance or intimacy between oneself
105 and specific entities (e.g., self vs. others, friends vs. strangers, in-group vs. out-group), with the
106 remaining dimensions of PD sharing similar definitions (Liberman & Trope, 2014). The emergence
107 of CLT has further contributed to the maturation of PD.

108 As a cognition-centric theory, CLT delineates how individuals encode and retrieve information,
109 reflecting the abstract mental representations (Wiesenfeld et al., 2017). Depending on the level of
110 abstraction, construal level can be categorized into high-level construal (e.g., abstract, simplified,
111 superordinate, or goal-relevant mental representations) and low-level construal (e.g., concrete,
112 complex, subordinate, or goal-irrelevant mental representations) (Trope & Liberman, 2010; Lee,
113 2019; Wang et al., 2021). PD is a measure of distance within CLT, which posits that PD will
114 systematically influence individuals' mental representations of the surrounding world. When
115 individuals perceive greater PD from a specific object, its details and contextual features become
116 blurred and uncertain, while its primary and stable characteristics become more salient and significant,
117 leading individuals to adopt abstract mental representations within CLT (Trope & Liberman, 1998;
118 Soderberg et al., 2015). However, not only does PD influence construal level, but construal level also
119 affects individuals' perception of PD from specific objects; thus, forming a paired interactive
120 mechanism between distant PD and high-level construal and close PD and low-level construal (Huang
121 et al., 2015; Trope & Liberman, 2011).

122 **2.3 Social distance theory of power**

123 Power is a foundational concept in social science research, with the most widely used definition
124 in social psychology referring to asymmetric control over valuable resources (Magee, 2020).
125 Psychologists underwent a shift from viewing power as a structural variable grounded in social
126 realities to conceptualizing it as a personal psychological attribute (Overbeck & Park, 2001; Chen et
127 al., 2001), serving as both a structural variable and a cognitive construct based on psychological
128 attributes (Galinsky et al., 2003). This means the suggestion or recall of power-related experiences,

129 whether conscious or unconscious, can activate the concept of power and associated behavioral
130 tendencies, regardless of individuals' actual power or social positions, thereby broadening the
131 applicability of the power concept beyond social structures (Galinsky et al., 2003; Boait et al., 2006).

132 Magee and Smith (2013) integrate the effects of power and CLT, proposing the social distance
133 theory of power and summarizing its model, asserting that the asymmetric interdependence of
134 individuals results in asymmetric experiences of social distance, with high-power individuals
135 endowed with more resources, capable of operating autonomously, thereby perceiving greater social
136 distance compared to low-power individuals. The hierarchical structure of society forms a pyramid-
137 like configuration wherein individuals with power are psychologically distanced from the perceived
138 social distance (Lammers et al., 2012). Accordingly, by CLT, heightened social distance signifies a
139 more abstract construal level, indicating a propensity for high-power individuals to adopt abstract
140 mental representations (Trope & Liberman, 2000; Magee & Smith, 2013). Power can manipulate a
141 fundamental dimension of mental representations through construal level, potentially leading to
142 significant impacts on attitudes, behaviors, and cognition (Magee & Smith, 2013).

143 **2.4 Theoretical framework**

144 The current study endeavors to integrate the CLT and the social distance theory of power to research
145 the influence of distance on public perception of WTE facilities from a psychological perspective.

146 The role played by social distance is critical when examining NIMBY conflict issues as it reflects
147 individuals' cognitive proximity to specific phenomena and directly influences their attitudes,
148 behaviors, and perceptions. Specifically, the CLT suggests that greater social distance leads to more
149 abstract mental representations, whereas lesser social distance tends to result in concrete

150 representations. Meanwhile, considering the asymmetric power dynamics between the two core
 151 stakeholders—decision-makers and the public—decision-makers often resort to intentionally
 152 avoiding or suppressing public attitudes during the planning and decision-making processes for WTE
 153 facilities, a disparity that may significantly influence the successful implementation of such facilities
 154 (Liu et al., 2019; Zu et al., 2024). The social distance theory of power emphasizes the influence of
 155 varying power statuses on the perception of social distance. Furthermore, as a quintessential example
 156 of NIMBY facilities, public perceptions of risks, economic benefits, fairness, and acceptance of WTE
 157 facilities are often influenced by both social distance and power dynamics. Both theories emphasize
 158 the elements of construal level and involve behavioral intention, positing that psychological distance
 159 influences these elements. Additionally, the important research parameter in this study—public
 160 perception—is defined as the process through which the public emotionally processes cognitive
 161 information and subsequently transforms it into behavioral intentions. Accordingly, following the
 162 research concepts and theoretical underpinnings of these two theories and the literature review above,
 163 the theoretical framework of the study is established (see Fig. 1).

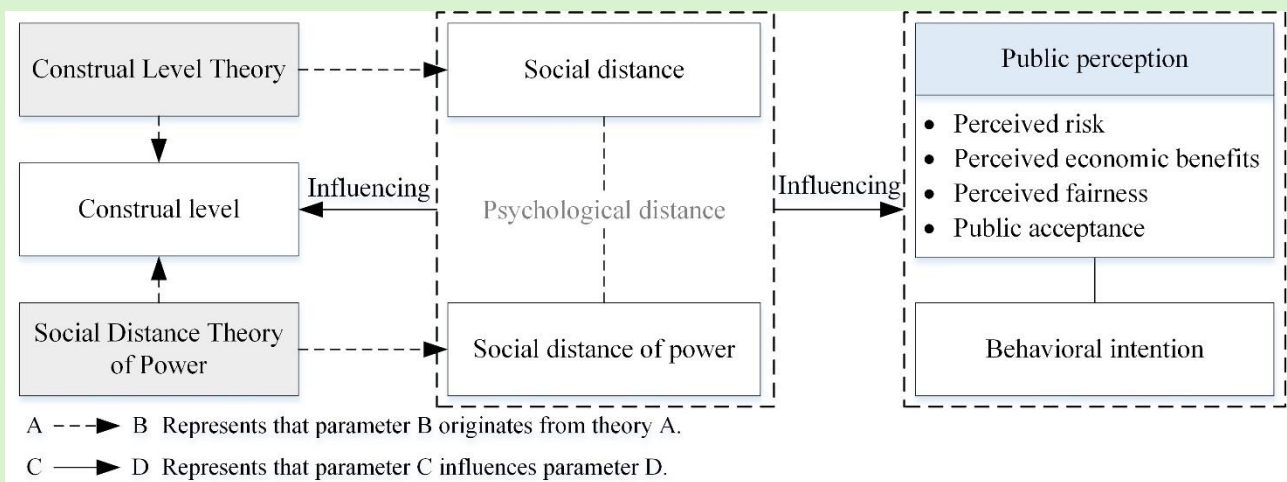


Fig. 1. Theoretical framework

166 **2.5 Research hypothesis**

167 **(1) Social distance, public perception, construal level, and behavioral intention**

168 Building upon studies on PD and risk perception related to potential risk energy facilities (e.g.,
169 [Frant  et al., 2016](#); [Geng et al., 2018](#); [Shah et al., 2023](#)) and integrating the concept of CLT within
170 the framework of research into **WTE facilities**, social distance can be used to depict the extent of
171 familiarity, relevance, or impact individuals or groups have on **WTE facilities**. More precisely, the
172 extent of involvement in the establishment and operation of **WTE facilities**, such as participation in
173 decision-making processes or employment arrangements (e.g. [Zheng et al., 2015](#); [Geng et al., 2018](#)),
174 along with the community and cultural ties of local residents residing or working near these facilities
175 (e.g. [Frant  et al., 2016](#); [Tsai et al., 2021](#)), as well as the connections between non-local residents
176 and the facilities such as familial bonds (e.g. [Sun et al., 2017](#); [Giordano et al., 2020](#)), serve as
177 relational links that diminish the social distance towards **WTE facilities**.

178 As a critical construct within PD, social distance can impact public perception of potential risk
179 events or facilities. Prior studies have indicated that social distance plays a role in diminishing public
180 perception of health and environmental risks (e.g., [Carmi & Kimhi, 2015](#); [Aslam & Rana, 2022](#)). For
181 example, [Kasperson et al. \(1988\)](#) suggest that the psychological states of the public in different
182 regions may have a “ripple effect,” whereby there is a negative correlation between PD (e.g., social
183 distance) and risk perception; [Lewonstein \(2005\)](#) posits that individuals are inclined to perceive
184 environmental threats as more severe when they possess personal familiarity with the extent of harm
185 associated with them; [Carmi and Kimhi \(2015\)](#) highlighted that individual experiences contribute to
186 a reduced risk assessment of the potentially severe consequences of global warming; additionally,

187 studies such as [Soni \(2018\)](#) and [Huang et al. \(2018\)](#) have observed that greater social distance
188 diminishes people's perception of the significant health risks associated with nuclear power.
189 Perceptions of economic benefit and fairness are similarly closely associated with social distance.
190 [Shang \(2018\)](#) posits that the public acceptance of disaster risks is primarily influenced by interests
191 and social distance, with greater perceived social distance associated with higher acceptability of
192 disaster risks, highlighting social distance as an important determinant in this dynamic. Using a
193 dictator game, [Wu et al. \(2011\)](#) use an experimental research approach to explore how individuals
194 responded to equitable or inequitable allocations from either acquaintances or unfamiliar individuals
195 and find that the social proximity between the distributor and the recipient notably shaped recipients'
196 perceptions of fairness. [Yang and McAllister \(2020\)](#) indicate that, when the perceived distance
197 between risk events and the public diminishes, individuals subjectively amplify the risks associated
198 with the facilities. While such facilities as nuclear power plants, substations, and **WTE facilities**
199 generate such positive externalities as wealth creation and improved livelihoods, they also entail
200 negative consequences, including the uneven distribution of costs and benefits for local residents and
201 potential environmental pollution, which encourages public opposition ([Liu et al., 2021](#); [Zhou et al.,](#)
202 [2022](#)).

203 Meanwhile, local residents are more prone to experiencing a sense of deprivation and unfairness
204 compared to non-local residents, thereby triggering NIMBY conflicts ([Edelstein, 2004](#)).
205 Consequently, when the public perceives a closer relationship with the facility, it may evoke feelings
206 of unfairness and deprivation, influencing their perceptions of fairness and economic interest. [Boudet](#)
207 [et al. \(2014\)](#) indicate that the public, particularly those more familiar with energy facilities, are less
208 inclined to accept such facilities. Simultaneously, reducing social distance also facilitates individuals'

209 awareness of belonging to the same group as others, thereby enhancing trust in others (Glaeser et al.,
210 2000). Cui et al. (2020) stress that social distance and communication significantly influence
211 consumer trust, consequently impacting behavioral intentions. Liu et al. (2022) show that the public
212 perception of risk prompts a psychological response geared towards risk mitigation, consequently
213 shaping behavioral intention based on subjective assessments. Furthermore, consistent with the
214 principles of CLT, individuals tend to use abstract cognitive representations when they perceive a
215 greater social distance from specific objects (Liberman & Trope, 1998; 2008).

216 Therefore, based on the arguments above, the following hypotheses are proposed:

217 **H1:** Social distance negatively affects perceived risk (*H1a*) and positively affects perceived
218 economic benefits (*H1b*), fairness (*H1c*), and public acceptance (*H1d*).

219 **H2:** The farther the social distance, the more inclined individuals are toward high-level construal.

220 **H3:** The farther the social distance, the more inclined individuals are toward positive behavioral
221 intention.

222 **(2) Social distance of power, public perception, construal level, and behavioral** 223 **intention**

224 Social distance theory of power stresses that individuals with higher authority tend to perceive
225 a greater social distance than those with lower authority (Magee & Smith, 2013). A fundamental
226 principle of this theory is that an increase in power results in the widening of social distance,
227 prompting individuals to rely on higher-order and more abstract psychological representations (i.e.,
228 high-level construal) when interpreting situations relevant to their goals (Magee & Smith, 2013).
229 According to Yao et al. (2020) and Li et al. (2020), power empathy improves empathetic accuracy,

230 with individuals perceiving higher power demonstrating a greater propensity for pro-social behaviors
231 and considerations for others' well-being, which is particularly evident in contexts prioritizing social
232 welfare goals. Conversely, those with lower power tend to focus more on specific concerns such as
233 potential health/environmental risks, economic losses, and feelings of unfairness. [Geng et al. \(2018\)](#)
234 revealed that, compared to groups with higher social distance of power, those with lower social
235 distance of power are more inclined to oppose nuclear power construction and maintain negative
236 attitudes. In previous studies, it has been demonstrated that higher power individuals or groups tend
237 to have a preference for positive information related to specific objects and are optimistic concerning
238 risks ([Mourali & Nagpal, 2013](#); [Li et al., 2020](#)).

239 Consequently, these individuals or groups are more inclined to adopt positive coping strategies.
240 In other words, in light of their heightened sense of responsibility, individuals or groups with a strong
241 sense of power are more inclined to make decisions based on collective interests rather than the
242 feelings and needs of individual others ([Lammers et al., 2008](#); [Magee & Smith, 2013](#)). Building upon
243 the literature concerning PD, a reasonable conjecture can be proposed that the social distance of power,
244 considered a unique PD, parallels other dimensions of PD in CLT.

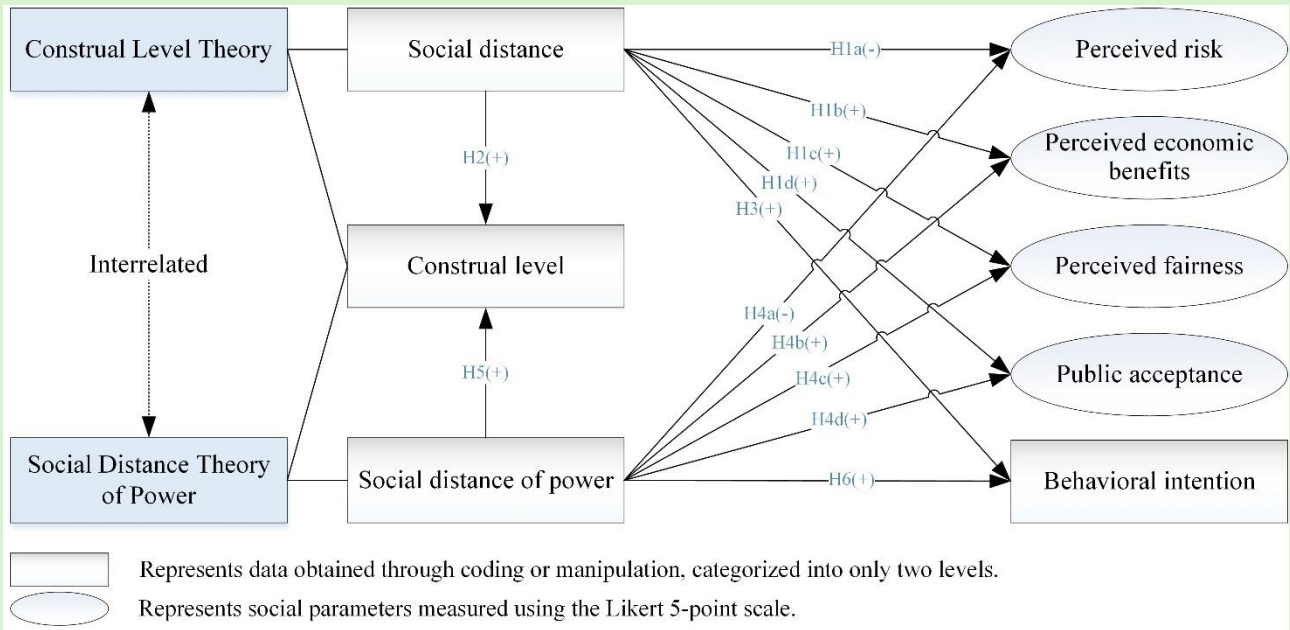
245 Therefore, based on the arguments above, the following additional hypotheses are proposed:

246 **H4:** Social distance of power negatively affects perceived risk (*H4a*) and positively affects
247 perceived economic benefits (*H4b*), fairness (*H4c*), and public acceptance (*H4d*).

248 **H5:** The farther the social distance of power, the more inclined individuals are toward high-level
249 construal.

250 **H6:** The farther the social distance of power, the more inclined individuals are toward positive
251 behavioral intention.

252 Based on the aforementioned discussion and theoretical framework, the theoretical foundation
 253 of the research hypotheses is outlined in Fig. 2.

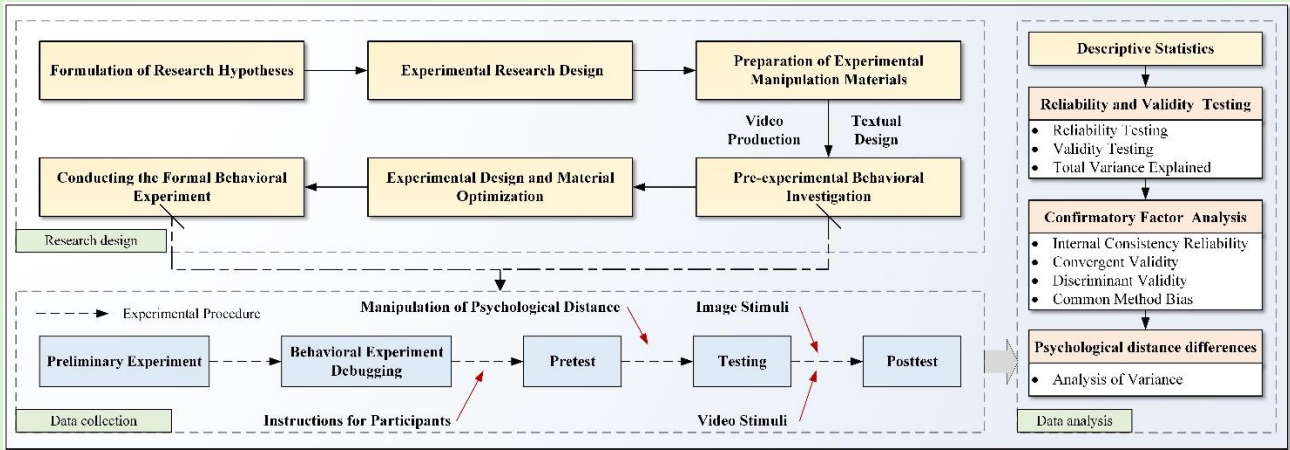


254
 255 **Fig. 2. Theoretical foundation of the research hypothesis**

256 **3 Research design**

257 Traditional hypothesis testing is adopted here to empirically demonstrate the impact of PD on
 258 public perception of WTE **combustion** projects utilizing a combination of literature analysis,
 259 behavioral investigation experiment, and one-way ANOVA. The overall research framework,
 260 outlined in Fig. 3, consists of six primary steps. First, building upon theories of CLT and social
 261 distance theory of power, hypotheses are formulated regarding the associations between PD and
 262 public perception, construal level, and behavioral intention. Second, experimental protocols are
 263 established. Third, experimental materials are developed, encompassing both textual content and
 264 video production. Then, the efficacy of experimental manipulation materials is validated through
 265 preliminary testing. Subsequently, further refinement of the experimental design and optimization of

266 the manipulation material was carried out. Finally, a behavioral investigation experiment was
 267 conducted and recruited through campus channels to assess public perceptions of WTE **combustion**
 268 projects.



269
270 **Fig. 3. Overall research framework**

271 **3.1 Materials**

272 A between-subjects design was used to conduct a behavioral investigation experiment. **The**
 273 **explanatory variable “distance” includes both social distance and social distance of power, while the**
 274 **response variables encompass construal level, behavioral intention, and public perception of the WTE**
 275 **facility.** In line with the social distance theory of power that individuals with higher power tend to
 276 have greater social distance from those with lower power, and considering the significance of both
 277 government officials and the general public as key stakeholders in environmental governance (Chen
 278 et al., 2019), the experimental groups are classified into a high-power group (“government official”)
 279 and a low-power group (“ordinary citizen”). Additionally, considering the varying social distances
 280 between participants and the **WTE facility**, the group of “ordinary citizens” was subdivided into two
 281 experimental groups: the ‘general public’ and the ‘local public.’

282 The specific meaning of the assumed roles in the experimental group: 1) the “local public” group
283 is instructed to imagine themselves as an ordinary citizen residing long-term in the Qiantang District
284 of Hangzhou, with their current residence located within 3 kilometers of the proposed WTE facility;
285 2) the “general public” group are instructed to imagine themselves as an ordinary citizen residing
286 long-term in the West Lake District of Hangzhou; 3) the “government officials” group are instructed
287 to imagine themselves as a government official responsible for the site selection decision and
288 construction of the large-scale WTE combustion project.

289 During the research process, participants engage with textual materials (including images) and
290 relevant video demonstrations to enhance their understanding of **WTE facilities**. The textual materials
291 depict the current state of waste management in China, emphasizing the challenges posed by the
292 increasing volume of waste and elaborating on the purposes, advantages, and potential risks of **WTE**
293 **combustion**. The image materials depict the process flow of WTE facilities through vivid illustrative
294 **diagrams**. Additionally, video demonstrations complement the textual materials, objectively
295 presenting the process, current status, development, and pros and cons of **WTE combustion, which**
296 **includes descriptions of two typical facilities: Hangzhou Tianziling Solid Waste Landfill and Phase**
297 **II of the Shanghai Laogang Renewable Energy Utilization Center**. Through visual imagery and
298 accompanying narration, participants should gain a deeper insight into the process of **waste**
299 **combustion** for energy generation. The research team collected all experimental manipulation
300 materials, including text, images, and videos, through the academic literature, online resources, and
301 news reports, and were subsequently utilized for drafting, designing, and production.

302 Public perception of **WTE facilities** was assessed using a scale designed following a
303 comprehensive literature review (Thibaut et al., 1975; Colquitt et al., 2001; Chung et al., 2009; Ross

304 et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2018a; Liu et al., 2020), which comprised a 21-item self-administered
305 questionnaire (see Supplementary Materials A). Specifically, the questionnaire examined four
306 constructs, namely: (1) participants' perceived risk, (2) participants' perceived economic benefits, (3)
307 participants' perceived fairness, and (4) participants' acceptance of the construction and operation of
308 the WTE combustion projects. The measurement scales for the public perception were constructed
309 using a 5-point Likert scale, prompting participants to express their degree of agreement with
310 statements, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Additionally, following the
311 operational paradigm of PD and CLT, and drawing upon the operational methodologies proposed by
312 Magee and Smith (2013) and Geng et al. (2018), behavioral intentions are operationalized by
313 categorizing them into reasons for approval and disapproval.

314 **3.2 Experimental procedure**

315 Identical experimental procedures and materials are used to control for the influence of
316 experimental variables. Participants are randomly assigned to three experimental groups. Drawing
317 from the experimental operation regarding decision-maker roles (Geng et al., 2018), each group
318 receive identical textual materials, differing only in the textual descriptions representing the roles.
319 The participants are inserted at specific locations. This aims to evaluate the impact of social distance
320 and social distance of power on experimental results through role portrayal. **Fig. 3** illustrates the
321 experimental procedure.

322 *Pre-test part.* Before commencing testing, participants are required to complete an informed
323 consent form indicating their voluntary participation in the experiment and are informed of any
324 relevant non-experimental procedures and guidelines (e.g., **anonymity, confidentiality, and strictly**

325 **academic purposes**). During this phase, all voluntary behavioral investigation experiment participants
326 have to complete the Public Perception Scale. This scale comprises only introductory instructions and
327 measurement items. It is primarily used to assess the effectiveness of the experimental stimuli and
328 the impact of other subjective factors on the outcomes. The completion time is 2-5 minutes.

329 *Post-test part.* After completing the pre-test and returning the measurement scale, participants
330 receive the formal testing materials from the assistant examiner. They are required to carefully read
331 the instructions for the formal test and provide their socio-demographic characteristics. The **post-test**
332 is divided into four main steps: free association task, behavioral intention survey, experimental
333 stimulus, and public perception evaluation. Specifically, participants are initially instructed to engage
334 in a free association task, dedicating 5 minutes to reflect on the ongoing construction of **WTE facilities**
335 in China and the associated latent risks to humans, guided by provided instructions and materials.
336 Second, participants are asked to contemplate the potential advantages and disadvantages of
337 constructing a large-scale WTE combustion project in the Qiantang District of Hangzhou within 3
338 minutes and write down three favorable/opposed opinions or any combination thereof (e.g., two
339 favorable, one opposed; one favorable, two opposed). Subsequently, participants are required to
340 conduct two brief assessments: 1) they are tasked with evaluating the ease of opinion retrieval from
341 the preceding section, ranging from 1 (strongly difficult) to 5 (strongly easy); and 2) they are to assess
342 the difficulty of further extracting additional favorable or opposing opinions from their minds, also
343 ranging from 1 to 5. Finally, following the video and image presentation (a flowchart of the **WTE**
344 **combustion process**) stimuli, participants have to complete a questionnaire assessing public
345 perception.

346 A preliminary experiment was carried out in a pilot survey of 45 volunteers from Zhejiang Sci-
 347 Tech University to test the effectiveness of the textual and video manipulation materials used.
 348 Following the established experimental protocol, participants were given textual and video materials
 349 provided by the researchers and asked to answer relevant questions, with the majority expressing
 350 satisfaction with the substance of the materials provided and demonstrating apt comprehension and
 351 application thereof. The results of the one-way ANOVA, presented in **Table 1**, indicate that, while
 352 essentially no significant differences in public perceptions of different experimental groups were
 353 found during the **pre-test**, significant differences emerge after administration of the experimental
 354 stimuli, highlighting the effectiveness of the textual and video materials used.

355 **Table 1** Distance difference analysis of dimensions in the preliminary experiment

Construct	Group	N	Mean		Std. dev		F		sig		Multiple comparisons	
			pre	post	pre	post	pre	post	pre	post	pre	post
Perceived Risk	1	18	2.963	2.787	0.760	0.553						
	2	15	2.833	2.022	0.639	0.483	0.649	8.053	0.527	0.001	/	1>3, 2>3
	3	17	3.098	2.726	0.543	0.553						
Perceived Economic Benefits	1	18	3.911	3.944	0.537	0.650						
	2	15	3.453	3.400	0.568	0.586	2.296	3.250	0.112	0.048	/	1<2, 2>3
	3	17	3.741	3.624	0.720	0.612						
Perceived Fairness	1	18	3.944	4.103	0.665	0.663						
	2	15	3.714	3.857	0.532	0.616	3.664	3.659	0.033	0.033	1<2	1<2
	3	17	3.311	3.462	0.846	0.814						
Public Acceptance	1	18	3.056	3.370	0.794	0.969						
	2	15	2.978	4.178	0.695	0.641	0.534	4.707	0.590	0.014	/	1<3, 2<3
	3	17	2.804	3.510	0.698	0.698						

356 Note: in multiple comparisons: 1, 2 and 3 represent local public group, general public group, and government official
 357 group, respectively; “>” indicates that when the confidence interval is 95%, the difference between the data on both sides
 358 of the symbol is statistically significant – the value on the left is significantly greater than the right; “<” indicates that
 359 when the confidence interval is 95%, the difference between the data on both sides of the symbol is statistically significant
 360 – the value on the right is significantly greater than the left.

361 **3.3 Data collection**

362 A total of 124 volunteers, 63 of whom were men, were recruited from Zhejiang Sci-Tech
 363 University through an advertisement, with requirements including demonstrating a serious and
 364 responsible attitude, possessing good concentration, having rich associative and imaginative abilities,
 365 and not having participated in similar behavioral investigation experiments recently. Participants
 366 were instructed to abstain from consuming caffeine and alcohol for at least 24 hours before the
 367 experiment, with an average age of 22.85 years (SD=1.852). Each participant received a
 368 compensation of CNY 40 (1 USD =7.23 CNY in April 2024) after completing the experiment with
 369 both quality and quantity. **Table 2** shows the results of the analysis of socio-demographic differences
 370 of all participants. More specifically, 84.67% of the participants were from Science, Technology,
 371 Engineering, and Mathematics disciplines; 20.16% were aware of **WTE facilities**; 96.77% of the
 372 participants lacked long-term exposure to **WTE facilities**, and familial relationships influenced none.
 373 The one-way ANOVA analysis results indicate no significant differences in the demographic
 374 characteristics of the experimental groups. Hence, individual factors can be ruled out as impacting
 375 the experimental outcomes.

376 **Table 2** Participants' socio-demographic differences

Profile	Group	N	Mean	Std. dev	F	sig
Age	1	40	23.13	1.884	2.373	0.098
	2	44	22.36	1.806		
	3	40	23.10	1.809		
Gender	1	40	1.50	0.506	0.033	0.967
	2	44	1.50	0.506		
	3	40	1.48	0.506		
Academic Discipline	1	40	1.85	0.362	0.009	0.991
	2	44	1.84	0.370		
	3	40	1.85	0.362		

Have you heard of WTE facilities ?	1	40	1.27	0.452	0.996	0.372
	2	44	1.16	0.370		
	3	40	1.18	0.385		
Is there a WTE facility located in or near the area where you or your family currently reside or have resided in the past?	1	40	2.00	0.000	0.983	0.377
	2	44	1.95	0.211		
	3	40	1.95	0.221		
Have any of your family members or relatives worked at a WTE facility ?	1	40	2.00	0.000	/	/
	2	44	2.00	0.000		
	3	40	2.00	0.000		

377

378 Additionally, two experts conducted independent coding of the free association materials.
379 Abstract, vague, and indefinite descriptions were designated high construal levels, whereas specific
380 and detailed descriptions were classified as low construal levels, in line with CLT. The inter-rater
381 reliability between the two experts was 90.32%.

382 **3.4 Data analysis**

383 The data analysis process was divided into four steps. First, a descriptive statistical analysis
384 method was used to quantitatively evaluate the participants' perceptions of **WTE power plants**.
385 Subsequently, utilizing SPSS 26.0, the statistical data of the sample was subjected to reliability and
386 validity tests using Cronbach's Alpha and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), respectively, to
387 ascertain the sufficient internal consistency and structural validity of the measurement scale. Then,
388 utilizing AMOS 26.0, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted on the acquired scale
389 data from the experiment to assess whether the correspondence between the latent factors and the
390 observed items aligns with the study's predictions. Finally, a one-way ANOVA was used to compare
391 public perceptions, including perceived risk, perceived economic benefits, perceived fairness, public
392 acceptance, as well as construal level and behavioral intention within the different PDs.

393 4 Results

394 4.1 Descriptive statistics

395 **Table 3** shows the descriptive statistical results for all the variables. Perceived fairness had the
396 highest overall mean (3.51-3.9), followed by perceived economic benefits (3.47-3.92), public
397 acceptance (3.20-4.08), and perceived risk (2.26-2.90), indicating a positive inclination towards **WTE**
398 **power plants**. Additionally, techniques, e.g., factor analysis and structural equation modeling,
399 necessitate that the data follows a normal distribution, a characteristic that can be assessed using
400 skewness and kurtosis coefficients (Phakiti, 2018). As depicted in **Table 3**, all variables have absolute
401 skewness and kurtosis coefficients less than 1, indicating that the data collected in this experiment
402 conforms to multivariate normality.

403 **Table 3** Statistical results of the descriptive variables

Construct	Indicator	Std. Load	Factor	Kurtosis	Skewness	Mean	Std. dev
Perceived Risk ($\alpha=0.890$)	Q1	0.829		-0.973	0.045	2.90	1.100
	Q2	0.826		-0.445	0.322	2.62	1.033
	Q3	0.671		-0.679	-0.194	2.85	0.969
	Q4	0.712		0.342	0.618	2.26	0.901
	Q5	0.754		-0.589	0.215	2.70	1.067
	Q6	0.745		0.130	0.560	2.29	0.961
Perceived Economic Benefit ($\alpha=0.833$)	Q7	0.660		0.319	-0.366	3.82	0.687
	Q8	0.762		0.024	-0.209	3.69	0.667
	Q9	0.718		0.216	-0.271	3.81	0.667
	Q10	0.688		-0.174	0.251	3.47	0.715
	Q11	0.709		0.369	-0.367	3.92	0.682
Perceived Fairness ($\alpha=0.883$)	Q12	0.622		0.256	-0.467	4.04	0.715
	Q13	0.547		-0.247	0.165	3.51	0.727
	Q14	0.799		-0.196	-0.208	3.94	0.702
	Q15	0.724		-0.572	-0.142	4.15	0.638
	Q16	0.778		-0.586	-0.184	4.31	0.587
	Q17	0.787		-0.624	0.029	3.79	0.757
	Q18	0.772		-0.470	-0.155	3.94	0.730

Public	Q19	0.769	0.959	-0.680	4.08	0.771
Acceptance	Q20	0.921	-0.054	-0.376	3.70	0.865
($\alpha= 0.863$)	Q21	0.790	0.372	-0.290	3.20	0.928

404

405 4.2 Reliability and validity

406 Based on the experimental data, a reliability analysis was carried out using Cronbach's Alpha, and a
407 validity test was conducted using EFA. The results, shown in **Tables 3** and **4**, indicate that the
408 Cronbach's Alpha coefficient exceeded 0.8 for each dimension, the KMO value fell within the range
409 of 0.8 to 0.9, and the significance level of Bartlett's test of sphericity was less than 0.05, with the total
410 variance explained being 65.082%. Therefore, the designed scale has good reliability and a well-
411 qualified structural validity.

412

Table 4 Validities of the scales

Index	Latent variable			
	1	2	3	4
Total Variance Explained	33.680	49.605	60.001	65.082
KMO			0.868	
Bartlett's test of sphericity	χ^2		1414.396	
	df		210	
	Sig.		0.000	

413

414 4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

415 *Internal consistency reliability and convergent validity.* All latent variables demonstrate satisfactory
416 convergent validity and internal consistency reliability (see **Tables 3** and **5**), as indicated by their
417 average variance extracted (AVE) measurements exceeding 0.5, composite reliability (CR)
418 measurements surpassing 0.8, and standardized factor loadings greater than 0.5, by guidelines

419 provided by [Hair et al. \(2020\)](#) and [Lin and Cheung \(2022\)](#).

420 **Table 5** Convergent and discriminant validity

Construct	Mean	Std. dev	CR	AVE	Perceived Risk	Perceived Economic Benefits	Perceived Fairness	Public Acceptance
Perceived Risk	2.60	0.809	0.890	0.575	0.758			
Perceived Economic Benefits	3.74	0.529	0.834	0.502	-0.294**	0.708		
Perceived Fairness	3.95	0.531	0.884	0.524	-0.241*	0.469***	0.724	
Public Acceptance	3.66	0.758	0.868	0.688	-0.694***	0.455***	0.420***	0.829

421 Note: The diagonal entries represent the square root of AVE, while others represent the correlation coefficients between
 422 latent variables; ***indicates $p < 0.001$, ** indicates $p < 0.01$, and * indicates $p < 0.05$.

423

424 *Discriminant validity.* Discriminant validity is confirmed when latent traits represented by one
 425 construct show minimal correlation or significant divergence from those represented by other
 426 constructs, typically assessed by comparing the square root of AVE with correlation coefficients, with
 427 a higher AVE square root indicating satisfactory discriminant validity ([Hair, 2009](#)). As shown in **Table**
 428 **5**, the correlation coefficients between any two latent variables are lower than the square root of the
 429 AVE for each latent variable, indicating that the internal correlations among the latent variables are
 430 higher than the external correlations. Thus, discriminant validity is established for each latent variable.

431 *Model fit and common method bias (CMB).* **Table 6** shows data on the approximate fit indices
 432 of the CFA model, suggesting that the hypothesized model fits well with the experimental data.
 433 Specifically, the GFI value (0.837) is slightly below the ideal threshold of 0.90. In contrast, the
 434 RMSEA and SRMR values of 0.055 and 0.060, respectively, slightly exceed the ideal thresholds of
 435 0.05, yet they remain within acceptable levels. All other indices fall within the recognized ideal range.
 436 CMB arises when both independent and correlated variables are measured using the same response

437 method, potentially compromising the validity of empirical findings and leading to erroneous
 438 conclusions (Kock et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021). Accordingly, Harman’s single-factor test and single-
 439 factor model CFA were used to check the CMB in the scale. The results, as shown in **Tables 4** and **6**,
 440 respectively, indicated that: 1) the variance explained by the first common factor extracted through
 441 principal component analysis was only 33.680%, falling below 40%; and 2) the one-factor model
 442 have poor fit, whereas the CFA model demonstrated better fit. Consequently, there is no serious CMB.

443 **Table 6** Model fit indices of the model (N=124)

Indices	Accepted range		CFA model	One-factor model
	Satisfactory	Ideal		
Chi-square			251.311	837.396
d.f.			183	190
Chi-square/d.f.	≤ 5.0	≤ 3.0	1.373	4.407
GFI	≥ 0.80	≥ 0.90	0.837	0.481
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	≤ 0.05	0.055	0.166
RMR	≤ 0.08	≤ 0.05	0.039	0.126
IFI	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	0.949	0.510
CFI	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	0.947	0.502
TLI	≥ 0.90	≥ 0.90	0.940	0.450
SRMR	≤ 0.08	≤ 0.05	0.060	0.166

444 Note: The model fit indices of the structural equation model comply with the criteria outlined by Xiong et al. (2015)
 445 and Han et al. (2020).

446

447 **4.4 Psychological distance differences**

448 **Table 7** shows the results of the one-way ANOVA, indicating that the differences in public perception
 449 of the four constructs, as well as construal level and behavioral intention, at different PDs are
 450 significant. Additionally, SPSS post-hoc multiple comparisons of public perception show that 1) the
 451 perceived risk of the local public is significantly higher than that of the general public and government
 452 officials. Additionally, the general public’s perceived risk is higher than that of the government

453 officials, while this difference is not significant. Hence, *H1a* and *H4a* were validated. 2) The
 454 perceived economic benefits of the general public and government officials is significantly higher
 455 than that of the local public. Meanwhile, the perceived economic benefits of the government official
 456 are higher than that of the general public, while this difference is also not significant. Hence, *H1b* and
 457 *H4b* were validated. 3) The perceived fairness of the government official is significantly higher than
 458 the general public and the local public. The perceived fairness of the general public is also higher
 459 than that of the local public, while this difference is not statistically significant. Hence, *H4c* is
 460 validated. 4) Public acceptance has a significant increase from the local public to the general public
 461 and further to government officials. Hence, *H1d* and *H4d* are validated.

462 **Table 7** Distance difference analysis of dimensions in the formal experiment

Construct	PD from the facilities	the WTE	Mean	Std. dev	F	Sig	Multiple comparisons
Perceived risk	1		3.10	0.757	13.216	0.000	1>2, 1>3
	2		2.42	0.669			
	3		2.32	0.792			
Perceived economic benefits	1		3.49	0.542	7.675	0.001	1<2, 1<3
	2		3.80	0.548			
	3		3.92	0.399			
Perceived fairness	1		3.81	0.606	4.620	0.012	1<2, 2<3
	2		3.91	0.506			
	3		4.15	0.419			
Public acceptance	1		3.13	0.731	22.471	0.000	1<2<3
	2		3.74	0.693			
	3		4.10	0.507			
Construal level	1		1.30	0.436	6.557	0.002	1<3, 2<3
	2		1.43	0.477			
	3		1.66	0.444			
Behavioral intention	1		1.45	0.355	10.695	0.000	1<3, 2<3
	2		1.55	0.299			
	3		1.75	0.236			

463 Note: as Table 1 note.

464 Similarly, SPSS post-hoc multiple comparisons show that both construal level and behavioral
465 intention have a consistent pattern, with government officials demonstrating significantly higher
466 levels than the general public and local residents, i.e., high social distance of power is congruent with
467 high construal level and behavioral intentions. Moreover, the general public's construal
468 level/behavioral intention is also higher than that of the local public, while this difference is not
469 statistically significant. Hence, *H5* and *H6* are validated. Furthermore, inspired by [Geng et al. \(2018\)](#),
470 an assessment is included to address potential challenges in opinion extraction. After completing three
471 opinion statement tasks, participants evaluated the difficulty of extracting opinions and the ease of
472 continuing the process. ANOVA results showed no significant differences of participant groups
473 regarding the difficulty of extracting supportive or opposing opinions ($P=0.558$) and continuing the
474 extraction process ($P=0.585$). Therefore, opinion extraction difficulty did not impact the experimental
475 outcomes.

476 **5 Discussion**

477 Based on the data analysis above, this study provides empirical support for exploring the relationship
478 between PD and cognition, demonstrating that varying PD significantly impact public perception.
479 The findings indicate that, when examining differences in social distance – except perceived risk,
480 perceived economic benefits, and public acceptance, which are all in line with expectations – the
481 analysis of perceived fairness shows no significant difference (further t-test results: $t=-0.783$, $P=0.436$)
482 between the “general public” ($M=3.91$) and “local public” ($M=3.81$), which differs from related
483 physical distance research (e.g., [Ren et al., 2016](#); [Xu et al., 2023](#)). To explore this deeper, the distance
484 division standards proposed by [Ren et al. \(2016\)](#), [Liu et al. \(2018\)](#), and [Xu et al. \(2023\)](#) were used,

485 conducting a t-test on perceived fairness data from the spatial distance study immediately preceding
486 the present study. The results demonstrate a significant difference in perceived fairness between local
487 residents (within 3000 m) and the general public (beyond 3000 m) when using spatial distance as the
488 benchmark (further t-test results: $t=-12.990$, $P=0.000$). One may speculate that the siting of **WTE**
489 **facilities** in local communities, coupled with bearing the waste burden from other areas, directly
490 amplifies the environmental burden in the locality, leading to unequal resource distribution among
491 communities, encouraging a sense of relative deprivation and influencing the social equity awareness
492 of residents (Besley, 2010; Liu et al., 2021). However, during the initiation of PD measurements,
493 participants lacked factual experience and relevant knowledge, with 96.77% having no firsthand
494 experience and 79.84% not even being aware of the facilities before the experiment, potentially
495 contributing to the absence of significant differences in perceived fairness. On the other hand, as all
496 participants were students, this demographic cohort has a notably optimistic attitude regarding trust
497 in governmental institutions when juxtaposed with other demographic groups (Chen et al., 2015;
498 Huang and Liu, 2018). Consequently, they are more inclined to believe that the government or
499 decision-makers will genuinely present project-related information, as well as the scientific and
500 practical feasibility of site selection, which provides another possible explanation for the absence of
501 significant differences in perceived fairness assessments.

502 However, the findings regarding differences in the social distance of power are not entirely
503 consistent with those of social distance. The results of the data analysis of perceived risk, economic
504 benefits, fairness, and public acceptance are in line with experimental expectations; it is particularly
505 noteworthy that the significant differences in perceived fairness, which were not validated in terms
506 of social distance, were confirmed when the social distance of power was examined. The significant

507 differences observed after conferring power may be due to the perception or stereotype of power in
508 the public mind. Power, typically viewed as a central determinant affecting resource allocation,
509 decision making, and social status (Wang et al., 2014; Prechel, 2021), can thereby impact individuals'
510 psychological states due to resulting disparities (Magee & Smith, 2013). Previous studies indicated
511 that individuals with lower power may perceive unfairness more intensely due to their lower societal
512 and organizational status, which, coupled with limited access to resources and opportunities, renders
513 them more susceptible to unfair treatment (Magee & Smith, 2013; Power et al., 2020).

514 Meanwhile, these individuals may lack effective means to combat unfairness, making them more
515 sensitive to its perception (Lois & Riedl, 2022). On the other hand, according to the approach-
516 inhibition theory, individuals tend to have an “approach” tendency upon acquiring power, often
517 feeling more capable and influential, leading to increased confidence and optimism regarding their
518 circumstances and environment (Wang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2020). Conversely, those without or with
519 less power may lean towards “inhibition” characteristics, anticipating threats and lacking rewards in
520 their surroundings (Guinote, 2017; Li et al., 2020); thus, more prone to experience pronounced
521 feelings of unfairness.

522 Similarly, the intensified influence and reinforced correlation between **WTE facilities** and the
523 “local public,” attributed to the narrowed social distance of power, have notably heightened their
524 perception of potential environmental/health risks, aligning logically with findings on both physical
525 distance (e.g., Cong et al., 2021b; Zhou et al., 2022) and social distance. It is worth noting that, despite
526 the power disparity between the “general public” and “government officials,” the “general public” is
527 not directly affected by the negative externalities of **WTE facilities**. Accordingly, as indirect
528 beneficiaries of facility construction and operation, the “general public” also can be regarded as the

529 category of vested interests, which may be another reasonable speculation for this outcome. Therefore,
530 the “not-my-concern” attitude towards losses and the “closely related” perception concerning gains
531 prompt the “general public” to perceive significantly lower risk and higher economic benefits than
532 the “local public,” and even comparable to those of the “government officials.”

533 Particularly noteworthy, the findings unexpectedly reveal that, although there is a certain
534 positive correlation trend between social distance and construal level as well as behavioral intention,
535 the differences therein lack statistical significance. Conversely, a significant positive correlation is
536 observed between social distance of power and construal level as well as behavioral intention, which
537 aligns with the conclusions from [Magee and Smith \(2013\)](#) and [Geng et al. \(2018\)](#). One possible
538 explanation for these differences may derive from the specificity of the study sample, that is,
539 individuals acting as the “general/local public” lack the related experience and knowledge before the
540 experimental stimulus was applied, potentially resulting in less tangible perceptions of siting of **WTE**
541 **facilities**, thereby potentially obscuring construal level and behavioral intention. Inherent sample size
542 limitations may be another possible explanation during data collection. [Galinsky et al. \(2003\)](#) have
543 pointed out that power can be activated as a concept in individuals’ minds, and previous studies have
544 shown that individuals with higher power status tend to hold more positive and optimistic attitudes
545 towards the development of energy conversion facilities ([Geng et al., 2018](#)), thereby providing
546 evidential support for the differential results on social distance of power. Drawing upon CLT ([Trope](#)
547 [& Liberman, 2010](#)), this may be due to the increased association and perceived impact of the WTE
548 facilities with the self; that is, the experimental stimuli heightened participants’ awareness of the
549 potential risks associated with the facility, leading to a closer PD and a shift towards a more concrete
550 construal (low-level construal) of the facility, focusing on tangible risks such as odor, noise, flames,

551 and smoke. [Lima \(2004\)](#) highlighted that such sensory stimuli as odors and noise are among the
552 primary factors the public perceives as danger.

553 Consequently, individuals in the “general/local public” role are more prone to developing a
554 heightened perception of environmental and health threats; thus, increasing the likelihood of opposing
555 the construction of **WTE facilities** in their vicinity. Furthermore, unlike situations involving
556 compensations for demolished houses, the construction of **WTE facilities**, given their environmental
557 positioning and image, is less likely to carry out relocation compensations for the majority of local
558 residents ([Liu et al., 2021](#); [Zhou et al., 2022](#)). Even in the presence of potential economic
559 compensation schemes, their attachment to the community ([Kaltenborn et al., 2023](#)), property
560 devaluation ([Liu et al., 2018](#)), and negative anticipations of the facilities’ impact on their lives ([Wen
561 et al., 2022](#)) may trigger perceptions of loss of benefits. Simultaneously, the notion that economic
562 compensation cannot fully offset potential losses may encourage strong aversive emotions, leading
563 to a heightened likelihood of negative perceptions and stronger NIMBY sentiments ([Wen et al., 2022](#)).
564 For example, [Chung and Kim \(2009\)](#) and [Liu et al. \(2021\)](#) found that higher perceptions of risk and
565 lower perceptions of economic benefits lead to decreased public acceptance of **WTE facilities**.
566 Therefore, this will further promote intentions to oppose the construction of **WTE facilities**.

567 Additionally, several studies indicate that individuals with high power have a heightened focus
568 on goal-relevant information, possess the capacity to forgo short-term gains for long-term benefits,
569 and engage in behaviors aligned with their objectives (e.g., [Joshi & Fast, 2013](#)). Therefore, it is further
570 speculated that, in addressing the challenge of ‘waste besieging the city,’ the decision to construct
571 **WTE facilities** is more closely aligned with the objective, leading individuals or groups with higher
572 power to show a preference for construction. Furthermore, the approach-inhibition theory suggests

573 that individuals with different power levels have varying information processing abilities during
574 decision making, influenced by their inherent cognitive styles and behavioral pattern (Li et al., 2020).
575 Hence, starting from the cognitive styles and behavioral patterns of government officials, the social
576 distance of power associated with the “government officials” group tends to be greater, making it
577 easier to adopt a higher-level construal that aligns with overarching goals such as societal well-being,
578 urban environmental improvement, and enhanced efficiency in municipal solid waste management
579 through the construction of **WTE facilities**. Consequently, individuals within this experimental group
580 have higher perceived economic benefits, fairness, and public acceptance, thereby being more prone
581 to generating favorable opinions and intentions conducive to social development and positive
582 perceptions (Yao et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020), aligning with behavioral logic.

583 **6 Conclusions, implications, and limitations**

584 **6.1 Conclusions**

585 In studies related to the distance differences of NIMBY infrastructure, they have tended to emphasize
586 the impact of physical distance differences on public perception, with less attention given to the
587 influence of PD differences. However, the result of the current study provided an interesting insight
588 into the effect of PD on public perception of **WTE facilities**, enriching the understanding of “distance”
589 in public perception distance differences research, as well as not limiting itself to a particular public
590 perception, but further exploring the differences in public perceptions from multiple dimensions.

591 The findings indicate that PD, encompassing social distance and social distance of power, plays
592 a significant role in shaping public perception of **WTE facilities**. Specifically, they provide further
593 support for the “ripple effect,” demonstrating that closer PD is associated with higher public risk

594 perception and lower perceived economic benefits, fairness, and public acceptance. When individuals
595 or groups perceive closer social distance of power, they tend to adopt concrete and goal-relevant
596 mental representations, indicating a lower construal level, and are more inclined to support the
597 construction of **WTE facilities**. Taken together, the present study further corroborated the CLT
598 proposed by [Trope and Liberman \(2000\)](#) and the social distance theory of power posited by [Magee](#)
599 [and Smith \(2013\)](#).

600 **6.2 Implications**

601 Given the substantial influence resulting from power differentials between **decision-makers** and the
602 public regarding the public perception of **WTE facilities**, one may predict that whether the gap in
603 public perception between these two entities can be narrowed is an important challenge for future
604 global **WTE combustion** development. One primary advantage of this study is its potential to facilitate
605 risk communication among the government, operators, and the public regarding **WTE facilities**. Risk
606 communication, a bidirectional form of information exchanges whose effectiveness relies on mutual
607 information sharing between both parties ([Geng et al., 2018](#)), often encounters inequality in the siting
608 of **WTE facilities**. The public typically assumes the role of recipient and seeker of information.
609 Meanwhile, the government and operating companies play the role of decision-makers and
610 information providers for the public in the siting and construction of **WTE facilities**, and having a
611 vested interest in the construction and operation of such facilities, creating a risk of binding interests
612 ([Bian et al., 2021](#)), leading to public distrust, increased risk aversion, and the subsequent development
613 of negative attitudes and oppositional intentions. With the increasing awareness of environmental
614 protection, the traditional “top-down” governance approach, characterized by “officialdom” and

615 “autocracy,” has shown its limitations when making decisions regarding the siting of WTE facilities
616 (Ren et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2021). Therefore, transitioning towards a “bottom-up” governance
617 concept characterized by negotiated governance is advocated. Specifically, in decision-making
618 processes, governments need to prioritize the public’s right to expression and information, ensure the
619 pivotal role of the public, and facilitate their organized participation in supervision, thereby
620 minimizing the power gap.

621 Consequently, this necessitates the establishment of standardized and comprehensive
622 mechanisms for information disclosure (Cong et al., 2021b), enhancing transparent communication
623 between government officials and the public regarding WTE facilities (Geng et al., 2018). In detail,
624 official platforms and channels should be established to scientific introduce various waste treatment
625 technologies and the actual situation of the operation. Through specific cases and data, multiple
626 measures such as WTE combustion, landfill gas-to-energy, and spontaneous combustion of landfilled
627 waste should be compared by providing accurate disclosures of hazardous substance emissions and
628 highlighting the advantages of each treatment method (e.g., space requirements, hazardous chemicals,
629 and bacterial disposal). Additionally, proactive promotion of those information, including official
630 platforms and scientific information, should be undertaken. Utilizing diverse forms of communication,
631 particularly in the current era of new media, can subtly help the public understand and recognize
632 relevant treatment technologies. Providing scientific data can counteract stereotypes and alleviate the
633 fear of the unknown that contributes to NIMBY sentiments and public opposition, thereby ensuring
634 that the public has accessible channels to query and understand the relevant information. Moreover,
635 it is important to establish sincere face-to-face communication channels with the public, addressing
636 and promptly responding to reasonable demands from local residents. Accordingly, enhancing the

637 roles of social organizations, media, and experts as coordinators is critical in establishing effective
638 communication bridges between the government and the public, thereby encouraging a collaborative
639 governance framework throughout society (Bian et al., 2021) and progressively advancing whole
640 process public engagement.

641 On the other hand, considering the variations in public perceptions between local and general
642 populations revealed by the findings of this study, it is recommended to establish a diversified
643 compensation mechanism. Local governments should implement personalized compensation
644 measures based on different public perceptions and loss of interests of residents in different
645 geographical areas, thereby preventing or mitigating sentiments of unfairness, deprivation, and
646 neglect by residents, ultimately promoting a cohesive community and shared interests (e.g., Besley,
647 2010; Liu et al., 2018b; Xu et al., 2023). Furthermore, addressing the issue at its root by guiding
648 enterprises to assume their primary stakeholder responsibilities is needed. Involving the establishment
649 of mandatory legal constraints, and reward and penalty systems, broadening channels for public
650 oversight and grievances, and underlining the indispensable role of public scrutiny in the routine
651 functioning of enterprises (Cong et al., 2021b; Zhou et al., 2022), these measures are geared towards
652 bolstering corporate self-discipline.

653 **6.3 Limitations**

654 Although the study empirically explored the influence of PD on public perception through the lens of
655 social distance and social distance of power, it is limited by only dividing PD into high and low,
656 lacking any discussion of intermediate or more other levels of PD, which could benefit from further
657 inclusion of more detailed division and analysis of the potential relevance or distance law of PD as

658 well. **Meanwhile**, using a direct manipulation approach to manipulate PD, the study relied on survey
659 experimental methods for sample data collection. This resulted in a lack of real-time participant
660 responses to experimental text and video materials, thereby limiting the depth of understanding
661 regarding public perception. Future research could benefit from integrating technologies such as eye-
662 tracking and electroencephalogram measurements into behavioral investigation experiments to obtain
663 real-time data. **Additionally, no specific hazardous substance emissions data comparison between**
664 **WTE facilities and landfills was conducted of the experimental materials, which is a limitation of this**
665 **study. Future research could benefit from considering the effect of scientific information on**
666 **shortening the PD and reducing to prevalent NIMBY opposition to badly needed infrastructure**
667 **projects.**

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