

Public Opinion Foundations of the Clean Energy Transition*

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September 18, 2024

Abstract

Public attitudes are central to the clean energy transition. There is, however, theoretical ambiguity about how mass publics influence policy and the sources of their policy preferences. This has consequences for understanding decarbonization trajectories and the conditions that enable political reforms. Our review uses the recent turn to green industrial policy to clarify the origins and influence of public opinion in the clean energy transition. The political logic of green industrial policy leverages policy benefits to create allies, a strategy that will hinge on whether the public recognizes these gains and rewards politicians. The conclusion identifies new avenues for public opinion research prompted by the shifting climate policy strategies.

Word count: 6,316 (excluding references)

Keywords: public opinion; climate politics; surveys; green industrial policy; Inflation Reduction Act

*The authors have no conflicts of interests to disclose. All authors contributed equally to all stages in this manuscript, including design, conceptualization and writing. Ethics approval and consent to participate: NA; Consent for publication: NA; Availability of materials: NA.

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1 Climate change solutions depend on ordinary people. Cutting emissions requires policy,
2 but voters must elect politicians who support mitigation and welcome green technologies
3 in their homes and communities. Debates about political barriers to the energy transition
4 acknowledge the public but often reduce its role to amorphous concepts such as “political
5 will.”¹ Some question how public opinion could matter when it runs up against organized
6 interest groups, while others view the public as a constraint on policymaking (e.g., Gilens
7 and Page 2014). This article aims to clarify the precise ways in which public opinion might
8 influence the clean energy transition.

9 The recent turn to green industrial policy in the United States and Europe offers an
10 opportunity to reconsider public opinion’s role in the clean energy transition and unpack
11 this ambiguous notion of “political will.” Our review focuses on the United States, with
12 insights that we expect to apply in other democratic countries pursuing industrial policies.
13 We examine the landmark 2022 Inflation Reduction Act to explain why the bill sidestepped
14 public opinion barriers that stymied previous reforms. This policymaking episode shows how
15 the public is neither irrelevant nor omniscient.

16 Public attitudes shape the incentives of policymakers, the types of leaders elected, and
17 the adoption and siting of clean technologies. Politicians anticipate how voters will respond
18 to climate policies, which could be to a leader’s benefit or loss. People are unsure about
19 how much a policy will harm or benefit them, which allows interest groups to frame how the
20 public and politicians think about the energy transition. Together, competing interests and
21 values structure public opinion, which conditions how ordinary people mobilize and shape
22 policy debates.

23 After explaining how public opinion affects policymaking, we focus on how climate policy
24 design and implementation influence public support. We highlight three interrelated factors:
25 visibility, individual prioritization of climate change, and beliefs about distributive effects.
26 Visibility refers to whether people can directly see a policy’s effects. Prioritization is how

¹PBS News (2022), for example, summarized a recent IPCC report by saying that the barrier to stopping climate change is the “lack of political will.”

27 much climate change ranks in importance to other issues. While beliefs about distributive
28 effects are the public’s expectations of a policy’s benefits and costs. Our goal is to provide
29 an accessible overview of research on responsiveness and policy attitudes while identifying
30 research needs that result from the industrial policy turn.

31 These concepts help explain the political implications of the turn to green industrial
32 policy in the United States. The IRA’s political logic is to hide costs while using economic
33 benefits to create allies in the green transition. The strategy further ties climate change
34 to other high-priority issues, such as reducing inflation and national security. The success
35 of this new approach may hinge on whether the public recognizes the IRA’s benefits and
36 rewards politicians.

37 Our review encourages greater conceptual clarity about climate change public opinion.
38 Scholars, policymakers, and popular commentators should replace amorphous appeals to the
39 public’s importance with clear statements about how voters shape the politics of transitioning
40 away from fossil fuels to clean energy.

41 The public’s role takes on new urgency as reformers hope to design policies that endure
42 changing administrations. Researchers have also invested considerable resources to model
43 pathways to decarbonize our economy. How the public influences these trajectories is com-
44 plex (Beckage, Moore, and Lacasse 2022; Peng et al. 2021). We contribute to these efforts
45 by communicating findings from a mature social science literature on public attitudes and
46 behavior. In turn, the article concludes with a research agenda about the public’s role in
47 the new industrial politics of climate change.

48 **Public Opinion’s Role in Climate Politics**

49 When pollsters ask Americans whether they believe global warming is real and worrisome,
50 a majority attests that climate change is happening and they’re concerned (Leiserowitz,
51 Maibach, Rosenthal, and Kotcher 2022; Krosnick and MacInnis 2020). Partisan gaps per-
52 sist in these attitudes as with many issues (Egan and Mullin 2017). These climate beliefs

53 correspond with stated policy preferences: 69 percent of registered voters support transi-
54 tioning the economy from fossil fuels to clean energy by 2050, the timeline needed to meet
55 international climate goals (Leiserowitz, Maibach, Rosenthal, Kotcher, et al. 2022). Despite
56 this national consensus, politicians have largely failed to respond to public opinion with
57 meaningful climate policy. What explains this apparent disconnect, at least before the IRA,
58 between measured climate policy attitudes and national climate policy?

59 One view is that citizens are largely irrelevant. From this perspective, public opinion
60 rarely influences the Congressional legislative agenda. Instead, elites and interest groups
61 dominate (Gilens and Page 2014; Bawn et al. 2012). To the extent that the public holds
62 coherent opinions, they follow rather than lead their elected officials (Lenz 2012). Alterna-
63 tively, public opinion may matter but only in a very generalized fashion, such as by signaling
64 a general mood that reorients politicians to do more or less on an issue, like turning a
65 thermostat up or down, but it is unlikely to shape specific policy designs (Wlezien 1995).²

66 Popular debates often collapse public opinion into the abstract concept of “public will.”
67 But the concept of public will typically remains undefined or defined tautologically as the
68 presence of conditions under which action is possible. While these debates highlight the pub-
69 lic’s importance, they leave unspecified the conditions and pathways through which public
70 opinion matters. There is a rich public opinion literature that explains not only how ordinary
71 people affect policymaking but also the origins of their policy attitudes.³ Our aim is not a
72 comprehensive review of this literature but to illustrate the primary ways that public opin-
73 ion could influence politicians’ decisions to adopt climate reforms and individual decisions
74 needed to achieve energy transition goals.

²Another possibility is that public support stems from poorly designed questions that don’t properly frame the costs of action.

³There is, for example, considerable scholarship on accountability, which is beyond our scope to review (e.g., Ashworth 2012).

75 **Policymaking Incentives**

76 The public’s attitudes about policies are, at a minimum, important inputs into policymakers’
77 incentives to act. V.O. Key, Jr. (1961), introduced the idea of latent opinion, which refers
78 to how the public may respond to decision-makers in the future, causing them political
79 damage. Lawmakers pay attention to what they think the public wants when crafting policy
80 and voting on legislation, with the aim of avoiding future electoral problems (Arnold 1990;
81 Mayhew 2004). Public opinion can shape policymaking through politician perceptions of
82 their constituents’ views.

83 One source of these perceptions is opinion polls. Politicians often conduct “message
84 tests” of policies to see whether they are popular. Quality surveys are expensive, especially
85 for measuring the attitudes of local constituencies. Organizations such as Gallup and Pew
86 also regularly ask the public what they think about today’s issues. There is evidence from
87 natural and actual experiments that politicians, when provided with public opinion data,
88 adjust their positions to be more in step with constituents (Hager and Hilbig 2020; Hertel-
89 Fernandez, Mildemberger, and Stokes 2019).

90 Interest groups recognize the importance of policymaker beliefs and invest considerable
91 sums to distort their perceptions of constituent views (Broockman and Skovron 2018). Leg-
92 islative staffers in Congress systematically mis-estimate constituent opinions on issues in-
93 cluding climate change (Hertel-Fernandez, Mildemberger, and Stokes 2019). These misper-
94 ceptions aren’t unique to the United States and can emerge when policymakers have unequal
95 contact with stakeholders (Pereira 2021; Walgrave et al. 2023). Environmental advocates
96 work to counterbalance business lobbying by providing information about the public’s atti-
97 tudes. It can be challenging, however, to intervene and shift policymakers’ views (Kalla and
98 Porter 2021).

99 Politicians’ perceptions of public attitudes are not only constructed by interest groups. A
100 simple fact of politics is that people are sensitive to sacrifice—and lawmakers know this. Vot-
101 ers don’t like paying higher prices for groceries, gasoline, and electricity. Whether distorted

102 or real, public opinion shapes political leaders' incentives when deciding to make long-term
103 investments to address climate change.

104 One study of state-level support for 39 policies across eight issues found that politicians
105 are highly responsive when citizens have policy-specific opinions on salient issues, though
106 policy may not always be congruent with these opinions due to institutions and interest
107 groups (Lax and Phillips 2012). Studies of climate policy in the American states and high-
108 income countries show signs of responsiveness (Bromley-Trujillo and Poe 2020; Schaffer,
109 Oehl, and Bernauer 2022).

110 **Electoral Selection**

111 We have strong theoretical reasons to believe that the public's climate policy preferences
112 can affect their voting behavior. Over time, election outcomes could shape the types and
113 priorities of politicians. With a few exceptions, much of this research comes from other issue
114 areas, so we need more research focused on climate change. But we expect the logic to apply
115 and it's useful for understanding how the public could affect climate reforms.

116 We know from American politics research that lawmakers who cast votes out of step with
117 their constituents often lose re-election (Canes-Wrone, Brady, and Cogan 2002). A recent
118 study, for example, linked congressional roll-call votes on 44 bills from 2006 to 2018 to survey
119 data on constituent perceptions and found across various research designs that constituents
120 held their representatives accountable, meaning that they were more likely to vote for a
121 politician with greater perceived issue agreement (Ansolabehere and Kuriwaki 2022).

122 For many voters, elections aren't about a particular policy, but climate policy can matter
123 for some issue publics. Issue publics refer to groups who are affected by a policy and,
124 therefore, are often well-informed and well-organized (Converse 1964). Young people, for
125 example, appear to increasingly care about climate change and prioritize it when deciding
126 how to vote.

127 Several conditions must be met for policy preferences to affect vote choice. People must

128 be informed about whether current policies align with their preferences; the candidates on
129 the ballot must differ in where they stand on climate policy; and climate change must take
130 priority over other issues.

131 In the United States, there is a clear national partisan divide on climate change, where the
132 Democratic Party has stronger issue ownership of the environment (Egan 2013; Karol 2019).
133 This partisan cleavage could facilitate climate-oriented voting in national elections, though
134 it may become more challenging for the public to identify differences between candidates in
135 more local elections where politician positions can diverge from the national platform.

136 Most research on climate policy and vote choice highlights electoral risks. Wind farm
137 construction caused incumbent politicians in Canada to lose votes (Stokes 2016). Coal's de-
138 cline bolstered support for Republican presidential candidates in areas where voters couldn't
139 see market forces at work (Gazmararian 2024b). Heightened energy prices for Dutch renters
140 increased support for far-right parties opposed to climate policy (Voeten 2024). American
141 autoworkers who build internal combustion engines have begun to turn toward the Republi-
142 can Party as the electric vehicle transition accelerates (Gazmararian and Krashinsky 2023).
143 Owners of polluting cars in Milan supported right-wing populist parties after the city banned
144 their vehicles (Colantone et al. 2024). Groups that face concentrated climate policy costs
145 have incentives to vote for politicians and parties that oppose the clean energy transition.

146 But we also have evidence that as climate change grows in salience, people directly
147 harmed will vote on it. Californians who suffered wildfires turned out in greater numbers
148 on environmental ballot referenda (Hazlett and Mildemberger 2020). Exposure to extreme
149 weather increased climate concern and Green Party support across Europe (Hoffmann et
150 al. 2022). The relationship between climate-related experiences and opinion is complex and
151 emerging (Howe et al. 2019), but it illustrates one way that global warming can become
152 more salient and affect how people vote.

153 Primary elections also provide an avenue for public opinion to influence policymaking
154 priorities (Bergquist and Warshaw 2020). In the 2020 Democratic primary election, Gov-

155 ernor Jay Inslee ran a single-issue climate campaign that pushed the other candidates to
156 incorporate more ambitious climate policies into their platforms. Joe Biden, the eventual
157 Democratic nominee, ended up adopting many of Inslee’s proposals in his platform.

158 We don’t want to leave the impression that environmental issues predominate in elections.
159 They don’t. American voters care most about the economy. But through issue publics and
160 primary elections, climate change can emerge on the agenda and could, over time, influence
161 the types of politicians elevated into office. These dynamics can advance or halt the energy
162 transition, depending on voter preferences.

163 **Technology Adoption and Energy Development**

164 The energy transition, spurred by climate policies, requires that people adopt new tech-
165 nologies and that communities accept energy projects. First, people will need to make
166 consumption choices aligned with decarbonization goals. These include transitioning from
167 gas furnaces to heat pumps, and gasoline to electric vehicles. Policies can ban products and
168 leave consumers with no choice, but many try to encourage people to make these decisions
169 via nudges and financial incentives.

170 Second, the energy transition will require the widespread deployment of new clean energy
171 infrastructure ranging from transmission lines to solar panels (Larson et al. 2021). Many
172 local governments exercise discretion over the approval of new infrastructure projects such
173 as wind turbines. When making these siting decisions, local policymakers consider the com-
174 munity’s views because they could face electoral risks if they approved unpopular projects.
175 If community members are uncertain about a project’s benefits, that could slow the energy
176 transition (Carley et al. 2020; Wüstenhagen, Wolsink, and Bürer 2007). People can have
177 a positive view about renewable energy and climate policy in general but oppose specific
178 projects in their communities (Bell, Gray, and Haggett 2005).

179 By this point, it should be clear how public opinion influences policymakers and mat-
180 ters for the energy transition. But how do climate reforms such as the IRA arise despite

181 opposition from incumbent interest groups?

182 **What Public Opinion Research Says about Green In-** 183 **dustrial Policy**

184 The turn to green industrial policy, as with the IRA, sidesteps several features of public
185 opinion that frustrated earlier climate policymaking efforts: visible costs, low prioritization,
186 and limited direct benefits.

187 Before the IRA, when climate reforms in the United States succeeded, they were often
188 low-salience efforts with minimal efforts by opponents to politicize incremental actions (e.g.,
189 Rabe 2004).

190 At the federal level, climate policy focuses on the economist’s recommendation of car-
191 bon pricing, with limited consideration of politics. American climate policymaking from
192 around 2001 through 2012 fixated on putting a price on carbon pollution. Scholars followed
193 policymakers, and much of our public opinion research examines carbon prices rather than
194 today’s industrial policy approach (Fairbrother 2022). Climate policy opponents, and at
195 times proponents, framed policies as involving sacrifices. As we review, policies seen to in-
196 crease costs are often a losing political proposition, even when coupled with well-intentioned
197 designs to mask those costs. Learning from the pitfalls of attempts like the Waxman-Markey
198 cap-and-trade bill, the IRA focused on creating visible benefits, which likely contributed to
199 its success.⁴

200 **Cost Sensitivity and Policy Support**

201 An accumulation of evidence shows how support falls when people focus on the costs of
202 climate policies (Drews and van den Bergh 2016; Bergquist, Konisky, and Kotcher 2020).⁵
203 Bechtel and Scheve (2013), for example, conducted large-scale survey experiments in France,

⁴Proposals like cap and trade are not impossible, as the 1990 CAA Amendments and regional efforts demon-
strate. These successes, however, relied on particular political conditions.

⁵Perceived fairness and effectiveness also affect public support (Bergquist et al. 2022).

204 Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States that randomly varied information
205 about how much a global climate agreement would cost households each month. They found
206 that an increase in costs from one to two percent of GDP reduced support for climate action
207 by 20 percentage points.⁶ Surveys estimating the willingness of citizens to pay for reductions
208 in GHG emissions find that households would spend around \$80 annually (Kotchen, Boyle,
209 and Leiserowitz 2013). These estimates, though old, imply that carbon prices are politically
210 constrained to as low as \$2 to \$8 per ton of CO₂ (Jenkins 2014), a far reach from recent
211 estimates that put the social cost of carbon at \$185 per ton (Rennert et al. 2022). Likewise,
212 Beiser-McGrath and Bernauer (2023) show how support falls when people learn about a
213 carbon tax’s costs. These public opinion findings correspond with political behavior such as
214 Washington State’s failed carbon pricing referendum and the “Yellow Vests” movement in
215 France (Douenne and Fabre 2022; Anderson, Marinescu, and Shor 2023). The public will
216 incur some costs, but support drops as costs rise.

217 Climate policy inaction also entails costs from future climate damage. These costs,
218 however, are distant, often outside the political time horizons of voters and politicians.⁷
219 As discussed above, experience with climatic extremes could raise support for climate policy
220 (Howe et al. 2019; Borick and Rabe 2014; Borick and Rabe 2010). These effects, however, are
221 often ephemeral (Egan and Mullin 2012, 2017), or are mediated by partisan politics (Hazlett
222 and Mildenberger 2020). As climate change’s costs manifest, the salience of inaction’s costs
223 has not yet been overtaken.

224 People don’t like costs, but they want clean energy, which the IRA seeks to expand.
225 Ansolabehere and Konisky (2014) amass a wealth of public opinion data on what energy
226 people want to use and why. They show that the attributes of energy, namely its price and
227 environmental harms, are the most important determinants of support, more so than parti-
228 sanship and social values. People want their electricity to be cheap and clean, which reflects

⁶Borick and Rabe (2010) find that Canadians have a greater willingness to pay costs.

⁷See Jacobs (2016) on time horizons and political reform, and Gazmararian (2024c) for causal evidence of the influence of individual time horizons.

229 an openness to the clean energy transition but also reiterates the public’s cost sensitivity.

230 Reformers recognize the influence of costs and have sought strategies to reduce the visibil-
231 ity or offset the magnitude of these costs. Carbon pricing proposals often propose to rebate
232 revenue to citizens (Carattini, Kallbekken, and Orlov 2019). Survey experiments show that
233 rebates increase public support for carbon pricing both in the United States and globally
234 (Beiser-McGrath and Bernauer 2019; Jagers et al. 2021). But there is little evidence that
235 these rebates—as implemented in Canada and Switzerland—have reshaped climate policy
236 support in the face of coordinated interest group opposition (Mildenberger et al. 2022). Even
237 simple partisan frames can erase the positive effect of rebates on policy support (Fremstad
238 et al. 2022). There is a gap between objective and subjective policy costs. It matters not
239 only if benefits are flowing to the public but whether politically active constituents perceive
240 these benefits. Opponents often work to distort these perceptions to align the public with
241 their interest group’s preferences.

242 The IRA took a different approach to sidestep the cost-sensitivity challenge. Instead of
243 imposing costs on fossil energy consumers or producers, the law focused on creating benefits.
244 The law makes massive investments to lower clean energy costs and encourage vehicle and
245 building electrification. These investments must be paid for, which could burden the public.
246 But the political reformers behind the IRA raised funds partly by closing tax loopholes. The
247 law could also reduce deficits, so voters are less likely to be saddled with debt that creates
248 pressure for reversal (Gazmararian and Tingley 2023; CBO 2022).

249 **Local Economic Benefits**

250 The IRA also generates local economic benefits such as jobs to construct renewable energy,
251 build batteries, and install energy-efficient products.⁸ Many of these new economic oppor-
252 tunities are being created in Republican states, traditional opponents of climate policy. The
253 geography of investment could have implications for the coalitions that support the energy

⁸Energy transmission infrastructure is also crucial for decarbonization, and here local benefits are also important (Bergquist et al. 2020).

254 transition in the future (Egan and Mullin 2023). What does the public opinion literature
255 say about how these local economic benefits will influence the reception of the IRA?

256 Framing the clean energy transition in terms of job creation or cost savings can increase
257 support, even among Republicans who are otherwise more skeptical of the clean energy
258 transition (Stokes and Warshaw 2017; Gustafson et al. 2022; Bayulgen and Benegal 2019).
259 One survey experiment finds that highlighting local jobs from electric vehicles can lock
260 in support for the energy transition (Gazmararian and Tingley 2023). In a study of 24
261 countries, Bain et al. (2016) find that emphasizing the economic and scientific benefits of
262 the clean energy transition can motivate support for actions to combat global warming, even
263 among climate skeptics.⁹ In a review of studies on public acceptance of energy projects,
264 positive perceptions of benefits consistently correlate with support (Carley et al. 2020).

265 These benefits, however, must materialize and appear credible to people on the ground.
266 Gazmararian and Tingley (2023) present evidence from national, regional, and targeted
267 surveys that reveal public concerns about the local benefits of green industries, such as
268 the share of jobs that go to local workers. They also show how policy solutions such as
269 transparency around investment could lessen these worries. In practice, there will also be
270 counter-arguments that try to neutralize arguments emphasizing local economic benefits, so
271 local economic benefits may not automatically translate into greater climate policy support
272 (Bernauer and McGrath 2016).

273 **Prioritization and Policy Bundling**

274 Although many Americans think climate change should be a top priority for Washington,
275 the public consistently ranks global warming on the bottom of the list of priorities for
276 policymakers to address, whereas top priorities include the economy, budget deficit, and
277 tax reform (Egan and Mullin 2017). One aspect of the IRA that may have helped overcome
278 the low weight placed on environmental issues was how the reform contained higher priority

⁹Other benefits from mitigation policy like public health improvement from air pollution reduction can increase support (Myers et al. 2012).

279 policies, such as those to tackle the high cost of living, hence “inflation reduction” in the
280 name.

281 This type of policy bundling increases public support. One study used a “conjoint”
282 survey experiment that independently varied the attributes of a climate policy, such as
283 whether it is bundled with social and economic reforms like affordable housing. The study
284 found that bundling climate policy with broader social reforms can build support for climate
285 action, especially among people of color and Democrats, but not Republicans (Bergquist,
286 Mildenerger, and Stokes 2020). These partisan reactions to policy bundling reflect the
287 political coalitions that formed around the IRA, with party-line support from Democrats
288 and opposition from Republicans.

289 Gaikwad, Genovese, and Tingley (2022) find similarly that the public prefers a bundle
290 of spending across multiple programs. Starting with the presumption that the government
291 had raised money through a price on carbon, the study considered how people allocate
292 spending across adaptation, transition assistance for harmed fossil fuel workers, renewable
293 energy infrastructure, and taxpayers dividends. In geographically targeted polls, allocations
294 reflected priorities that varied with how climate change and the energy transition would
295 affect the respondent’s region. This may explain why the IRA also included tax credits
296 targeted at “energy communities,” also located in states of key senators like Joe Manchin of
297 West Virginia.¹⁰

298 **Priorities for Public Opinion Research**

299 **Durability and Policy Feedback**

300 Even when climate policy passes, its long-term durability is never guaranteed. Policy losers
301 mobilize to repeal or retrench even modest climate policy efforts (Patashnik 2023). Ontario,
302 Canada, refused to impose its own emissions pricing program in 2018, while Australia axed

¹⁰Gazmararian (2024a) shows how just transition policies increase public support for the energy transition in coal country.

303 its carbon tax in 2014. Many fossil-fuel-aligned politicians in the United States have already
304 begun laying the groundwork for the IRA’s repeal, with plans to expand fossil fuel production.
305 Whereas IRA proponents have tried to design the law to encourage ”feedback effects” that
306 build self-sustaining public and business constituencies (Campbell 2012; Pierson 1993).

307 **What affects the public’s beliefs about green industrial policy’s durability?**

308 Whether the public perceives the benefits of the IRA, such as new jobs and local tax revenue,
309 as durable will matter for the law’s success. The possibility that a new government will
310 reverse the IRA or that economic circumstances might change and hinder investment is
311 not theoretical. Gazmararian and Tingley (2023) show how these credibility challenges are
312 salient in the public’s mind: 71 percent of the national public is uncertain that the federal
313 government would keep its promises to invest in their communities. Their polling of local
314 officials across the country reveals even more acute reversibility concerns. If the public does
315 not view the law’s benefits as durable, communities might be less willing to embrace battery
316 assembly plants, transmission lines, and wind energy. Local opposition has already emerged
317 to large solar projects in places such as Williamsport, Ohio (Gearino 2022).

318 There is initial evidence that the national public believes the benefits from the IRA may
319 stick, but we need more research. One opinion poll fielded the month after the IRA passed
320 shows that the public thinks that most companies and politicians are unlikely to try to
321 reverse the law. The one exception is fossil fuel companies and Republicans. Half of the
322 public think they would be likely to try to reverse the IRA. Republican respondents are less
323 likely to think that their party would reverse the law (Gazmararian and Tingley 2023).

324 This mixed picture suggests that the public is hopeful about the longevity of the law
325 but is not yet convinced that the benefits will last. Other national surveys show that few
326 think the IRA will accomplish its goals. Only 34 percent of the public think the law will
327 reduce global warming or the cost of electricity (Leiserowitz, Maibach, Rosenthal, Kotcher,
328 et al. 2022). This pessimism may reflect concern about the durability of benefits, potentially
329 because interest groups might try to water down the law’s implementation (Stokes 2020).

330 **How to build broad support for partisan reforms?**

331 The IRA passed along partisan lines. No Republican voted for it. A partisan climate law
332 may be better than no law at all, but there's evidence that the public perceives partisan
333 laws as less durable (Gazmararian and Tingley 2023). Voters generally prefer bipartisan
334 policies, which also reflects an aversion to extremism (Bergquist, Mildemberger, and Stokes
335 2020; Westwood 2022).¹¹ We need more research on whether and how other features of the
336 law's design could counterbalance concerns about the law's partisan passage.

337 **Who gets credit for green industrial policy's benefits, and to what effect?**

338 The IRA's survival may hinge on whether the public recognizes the law's benefits and rewards
339 politicians. There's a well-documented challenge in American politics where the public does
340 not always recognize government benefits. Mettler (2011) calls this the "submerged state"
341 problem. The classic example is the Medicaid recipient who votes for small government. The
342 lack of traceability can lead people to oppose policies of which they are beneficiaries.

343 For the IRA, politicians have incentives to try to claim credit. Credit allocation, however,
344 is difficult in a federal system where the implementation involves local, state, and federal
345 actors (Arceneaux 2006; Konisky 2011). Democrats who ushered through the law will want
346 to take credit for the local benefits. But they might need to share the credit with Republican
347 governors, for example, to encourage them to accelerate the clean energy transition in their
348 state. Some politicians may even deny the IRA's role despite benefiting because of fear
349 of electoral consequences. Who the public ultimately rewards will shape the incentives of
350 political elites to advance or forestall decarbonization.

351 Scholars should look to see what lessons climate politics can draw from the established
352 policy feedback literature in other issue areas, such as social security. A useful theoretical
353 exercise for researchers would be to find similarities and differences across these issue spaces.
354 The long-term nature of climate change and the magnitude of climate policy's distributive

¹¹But see Harbridge, Malhotra, and Harrison (2014) who show that partisans may have a preference for policies supported by their party.

355 effects may create unique incentives for leaders and the public.

356 We also need more research on how the politics of credit-claiming affect whether policy
357 feedbacks take root. Do attempts to make the IRA’s investments more visible spark backlash
358 by polarizing energy projects locally? If so, what messages can communicate the federal
359 government’s role in these investments that do not risk deepening polarization. Scholars
360 should also take seriously, and evaluate systematically, the trade-off between making policy
361 more durable by claiming credit and the benefit of local community acceptance of energy
362 projects.

363 **Urgent need for high-resolution panel data**

364 A rigorous approach to understanding change in policy preferences due to policy feedbacks
365 would be to establish a survey panel—repeated surveys of the same individual—that could
366 track changes over time at the individual level. Scholars could pair this panel data with high-
367 resolution spatial data on the distribution of benefits from the IRA to study in real-time
368 how the benefits of the law shape public opinion or not.

369 **Consumer Demand for New Technologies**

370 Implementing the IRA and successfully driving a society-wide energy transition will require
371 more than climate-friendly politicians and decision-makers. The public will also be critical
372 since there must be rapid consumer uptake of clean energy technologies in households. The
373 IRA subsidizes many of these technologies through grant programs and uncapped tax credit
374 provisions. The speed of consumer technology adoption will determine the overall size and
375 impact of the legislation.

376 **What are the public’s attitudes about new clean energy technologies?**

377 Some research has been done on consumer sentiment towards solar projects and electric
378 vehicles. Boudet (2019) provides a helpful review of common theoretical frameworks and
379 models for understanding public perceptions of and responses to new technologies. Factors
380 that affect these perceptions include perceptions of costs and benefits, values, interaction with

381 existing landscapes, and processes around adoption. A consistent finding is that the public
382 often knows little about energy technologies. Perceptions abound. People, for instance, don't
383 fully understand facts about the range and capacity of electric vehicles.

384 With a fast-evolving set of electrification technologies promoted by the IRA, we need more
385 descriptive and theoretical work about public attitudes. We know little systematically about
386 technologies such as heat pumps, induction stoves, and household energy storage (Gromet,
387 Kunreuther, and Larrick 2013; Lesic et al. 2019; van Rijnsouwer and Farla 2014). In general,
388 we require a more nuanced understanding of how price, comfort, and health considerations
389 shape consumer sentiment.

390 **What are best practices to counter barriers to clean technology adoption?**

391 What are the optimal ways to engage the public in the clean energy transition and combat
392 misinformation about new technologies that incumbent fossil fuel interests are disseminat-
393 ing? We also need to understand how consumer sentiment toward household electrification
394 will interact with partisan politics. To date, clean energy uptake has often been bipartisan,
395 structured by costs and not ideology (Mildenberger et al. 2022). The dynamics of IRA imple-
396 mentation will depend on whether this trend continues or whether ideological considerations
397 dominate, as we may be seeing with gas stove politics.

398 **Environmental Justice**

399 **How do environmental justice provisions affect climate policy support?**

400 The IRA has provisions that begin to address decades of environmental pollution that have
401 disproportionately fallen on Black, Brown, and Indigenous communities.¹² There exists
402 little systematic work on public opinion and environmental justice. Existing polling finds
403 nominal support from most Americans to increase funding for low-income communities and
404 communities of color that are disproportionately harmed by pollution (Carman et al. 2022).
405 We suspect that, as with support for climate mitigation policy, actual support for climate

¹²See Carley and Konisky (2020) on the justice and equity implications of the clean energy transition.

406 justice policies might be lower if survey-takers had to consider the costs of these initiatives.
407 Indeed, one study shows that Americans do not know much about environmental inequalities
408 and only exhibit marginal support for policy tools that could begin to address environmental
409 racism (Bugden 2022).

410 **Do environmental justice communities perceive the benefits from targeted IRA**
411 **provisions?**

412 When it comes to the IRA, an obvious starting point is to understand whether individuals
413 whom the IRA hopes to help perceive the law’s provisions as having a positive impact over
414 time. Do they see more opportunities for employment in new green sectors? Do they notice
415 improvements in environmental quality in their community? How do objective measures of
416 changes in environmental quality map onto self-reports of daily conditions? What are the
417 next steps that members of environmental justice communities think should be taken?

418 The IRA also contains provisions that will encourage the expansion of “hydrogen hubs.”
419 These are large-scale industrial facilities that could come into tension with environmental
420 justice goals. We are only beginning to understand how the public perceives hydrogen
421 technologies, a topic that the public knows little about (Gordon, Balta-Ozkan, and Nabavi
422 2022). The environmental impacts of hydrogen depend on the way it’s made, with much
423 of it today coming from natural gas. Scholars could explore how communities, where these
424 hydrogen hubs are located, view these new projects.

425 **What approaches can build public support for addressing environmental injus-**
426 **tices in the absence of state and federal policies?**

427 Another line of inquiry departs from the IRA and asks about additional approaches to at-
428 tempt to solve inequities highlighted by environmental justice scholarship. For example,
429 Gazmararian and Tingley (2024) explore how to overcome historical racial and wealth in-
430 equities in rooftop solar adoption with a program that leverages ground-up net-metering
431 proceeds. Further research could explain other types of community initiatives that could

432 complement state-led policies.

433 **Globalization and Green Industrial Policy**

434 Policy designs to win public support for the energy transition at home will also have in-
435 ternational ramifications that could spill over to affect public opinion in unforeseen ways.
436 Provisions in the IRA, such as “Buy America” incentives that are popular at home, run up
437 against long-standing commitments abroad to global free trade. Many of the United States’
438 trading partners have pursued similar industrial policies.

439 **How do people weigh trade-offs between free trade and green industrial policy?**

440 We need more research to understand how the public weighs the benefits from the clean
441 energy transition versus the gains from free trade. There is initial evidence for EV subsidies
442 that the public does not support restricts on automaker eligibility for these credits (Lim
443 et al. 2022), which suggests that economic nationalism may not be as effective a messaging
444 strategy as some thought.

445 There is also a growing move by nations that have taken ambitious actions on climate
446 change to level the playing field at home for domestic businesses. These countries are impos-
447 ing so-called “carbon border adjustments” and related tools to make foreign businesses pay
448 an equivalent price for the carbon dioxide emissions embedded in their goods. Otherwise,
449 there is a fear that domestic businesses will shift to locations where they would not have to
450 comply with more stringent climate protections. We know relatively little about how the
451 public will respond to these trade policies. They could be supportive because these policies
452 level the playing field for domestic firms. But these policies would increase costs for domestic
453 consumers. These are consequential trade-offs to understand. The large literature on public
454 opinion and trade policy will serve as a helpful launching point.

455 Conclusion

456 Public opinion influences the policies that politicians adopt, the types of leaders and their
457 priorities, and the clean energy decisions of consumers and communities. Our review reflects
458 on how scholarship about climate change and public opinion illuminates the turn to green
459 industrial policy. Notably, these efforts, such as the IRA, heeded the public’s sensitivity
460 to the costs of policies, focused primarily on creating local benefits, and bundled climate
461 reforms with higher priority policies.

462 Scholars should be attentive to the ways in which the nascent energy transition itself
463 further transforms climate politics. As people witness the IRA’s economic benefits, will
464 support grow for more ambitious climate policy? The law’s political strategy is to concentrate
465 clean energy benefits in electorally consequential states, many red and purple.

466 We focus on the United States, but countries worldwide have turned to green industrial
467 policies. The European Union and its individual countries are pursuing green energy subsi-
468 dies that mirror aspects of the IRA. Our arguments about public opinion have the greatest
469 applicability in these democratic countries, unlike in more authoritarian contexts such as
470 China, which is also pursuing green industrial policies. The questions we identify for further
471 study in the United States also apply worldwide.

472 The longevity and success of green industrial policies will depend on whether the public
473 and interest groups embrace their benefits. This may not be automatic in the case of efforts
474 like the IRA due to the bill’s partisan nature, credibility challenges faced by all political
475 reforms, and the dynamics of credit claiming. Yet, much remains to be studied, including
476 the law’s environmental justice provisions, and the public’s preferences when it comes to the
477 tension between green industrial policy and the international trade regime. These mecha-
478 nisms and conditions offer a more clear statement of the importance of public opinion than
479 amorphous appeals to “political will.”

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