

Adopting LEDs changes attitudes towards climate change: Experimental evidence from China

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Abstract

The adoption of low carbon technologies needs to go hand in hand with an increased awareness of climate change and its consequences and solutions. Attitudes toward climate change are influenced by a variety of factors, most notably educational attainment and exposure to climatic events attributable to climate change. However, less is known about the effect of technology adoption on climate change beliefs and support for mitigating measures. Through a longitudinal, incentivized field experiment with Chinese households, we assess attitudes toward climate change before and after adopting efficient lighting technology. The results show differential patterns of attitudinal change: while belief in the reality of climate change and willingness to adopt energy-efficient appliances increase, support for energy taxes does not. We attribute the attitudinal change to the adoption of LED light bulbs. Further evidence suggests that experience with efficient technology, rather than knowledge acquisition, drives this change. These results highlight the importance of action-initiating behavioral intervention to complement educational programs aimed at improving knowledge.

Keywords: energy efficiency, environmental attitudes, field experiment

1 Addressing global warming requires wide-ranging behavioral changes by
2 individuals and households. The widespread adoption of new technologies
3 with lower energy and carbon content is needed, as is support for the mitiga-
4 tion of climate change [19, 21]. To sustain both pro-environmental behavior
5 and policy support, personal awareness of the importance and consequences
6 of climate change is essential [39].

7 Countries around the world have implemented policy interventions to
8 promote energy saving behavior and technologies, relying on both traditional
9 market-based instruments and insights from the behavioral sciences, such as
10 mass media campaigns, home audits, real-time information feedback, and
11 so on [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 17, 18, 19, 22, 24, 33, 34, 41, 42]. The
12 underlying assumption behind such information and educational programs
13 is that awareness and knowledge come before action. The expectation is
14 that if people’s awareness can be changed, their actions will follow. Existing
15 research provides mixed but overall positive evidence for the direct effect
16 of information and behavioral tools on behavioral change, at least in the
17 short-run.

18 Yet little is known about the influence of behavioral change on altering
19 attitudes and beliefs. Promoting personal awareness and knowledge of the
20 climate change problem is challenging. A series of studies conducted by the
21 Yale program of climate change communication, targeting mostly individuals
22 from the US, reported that knowledge gaps and misconceptions about cli-
23 mate change are common. For example, only seven in ten Americans believe
24 global warming is occurring, and only one in eight understand that almost
25 all climate scientists (more than 90%) agree that human-caused warming is
26 happening [30]. In this paper we aim to fill this gap by investigating whether
27 changing people’s behavior, for instance inducing the adoption of green tech-
28 nology, can increase their awareness of climate change, support for climate
29 policies, and willingness to engage in subsequent action.

30 Our study is closely related to the social psychology literature that applies
31 theories of persuasion to pro-environmental endeavors [9, 14]. According to

32 this literature, the basic mechanism behind the effectiveness of persuasion in
 33 changing people’s attitudes and beliefs lies in the individual’s preference for
 34 consistency (PFC). Individuals with a strong PFC value personal consistency
 35 and strive to respond to most situations in a manner consistent with prior
 36 behavior [15, 23]. As Cialdini and colleagues point out, providing information
 37 may have a limited effect on beliefs when the individual’s motivation or ability
 38 to think about the issue is low, which is common in practice. However,
 39 persuasion may still take place through a “peripheral route,” in which cues
 40 other than the central message create a more tangential influence on the issue
 41 at hand. Bem’s [11] self-perception theory, in which people observe their
 42 behavior and then infer internal reasons for it, suggests that the peripheral
 43 route can generate long-term effects once the individual begins to consider
 44 the advantages of the triggered pro-environmental behavior.

45 Alternative theoretical perspectives predict that behavioral change and
 46 attitudes have the opposite sign. For instance, moral licensing models argue
 47 that engaging in virtuous behavior will reduce feelings of moral obligation
 48 to further pursue similar actions and beliefs [36]. Across behaviors, studies
 49 offer evidence of both positive and negative spillover [13, 20, 26, 27, 38]. In
 50 the energy domain, patterns consistent with moral licensing, i.e. negative
 51 spillovers, have been observed between electricity and water consumption
 52 [37]. However, the evidence of spillover from behavioral change to policy
 53 support is limited. Werfel [40] finds that reporting energy saving actions
 54 lowers support for a carbon tax in Japan, a crowding-out effect which appears
 55 to be driven by the perception of sufficient progress [25, 28].

56 In this paper, we contribute to the literature in three ways. First, we
 57 test the alternative predictions of the preference for consistency and moral
 58 licensing theories, and show how the former is consistent with our findings.
 59 Namely, we show that adopting low carbon technology leads to a positive
 60 change in attitudes toward climate change. Second, we acknowledge that at-
 61 titudes are multifaceted, as are the policies aimed at tackling climate change,
 62 which range from carbon pricing to renewables subsidies and energy effi-

ciency mandates, and show that attitudinal change does not occur equally across these different policy realms. Specifically, attitudes improve more significantly for policies related to technology adoption and change, which are more directly linked to the behavioral change our intervention focuses on. Third, we provide suggestive evidence that experience with green technology, rather than cognitive awareness of its benefits, leads to attitudinal change and subsequent action.

We use efficient lighting in China as a setting for an incentivized, longitudinal field experiment. We test whether receiving LED light bulbs changes household attitudes toward climate change and its policy solutions. China is the world’s largest CO_2 emitter. It has set new domestic energy and carbon intensity targets, including policies aimed at decreasing energy consumption and emissions from the booming residential building sector. Chinese people are generally aware of climate change, and more so if they have higher levels of education and exposure to climatic events attributable to global warming [16, 25, 28]. This paper reveals the extent to which Chinese households support CO_2 emission reduction policies and what can affect their support. Studying policy-driven attitudinal change can provide useful insights when evaluating long-term policy effects.

Climate attitudes and their evolution

We conducted two waves of an experiment and survey over the course of three months to evaluate changes in attitude toward climate change (see **Materials and Methods** for Sample and Procedure). Through an online survey platform, we recruited 1,268 participants at baseline, and managed to survey 585 of them again after three months. In addition, at that follow-up we recruited 261 new participants to capture any exogenous time trends in attitude due, for instance, to seasonal change, national awareness campaigns on climate change, etc. Compared to the national averages, highly educated and high-income individuals are over-represented in our sample. See *SI Section A* for summary statistics on the different samples and the corresponding

93 national averages. Our results demonstrate no differential attrition based
94 on attitudes toward climate change or other traits when comparing baseline
95 and follow-up samples, and no significant differences between follow-up and
96 newly recruited participants.

97 At baseline, each participant was given a small gratuity (of CNY 30,
98 approximately USD 4.5). We elicited each participant’s willingness to pay
99 (WTP) for an LED light bulb through incentivized pairwise choices between
100 LED and CFL light bulbs: we drew one of these choices at random for each
101 of the participants, and sent their selected light bulb to the address they
102 had provided, subtracting the corresponding price from their gratuity (see
103 *SI Section H* and *I* for further explanation of the payment scheme and the
104 exact wording of the questions). Of the 585 follow-up survey participants,
105 267 received an LED light bulb, 69 received a CFL light bulb, 11 reported
106 that they did not know what type of light bulb they had received, 130 did
107 not receive a light bulb due to giving an imprecise address, and 108 did not
108 provide their postal address.

109 During both waves, 585 participants completed a questionnaire contain-
110 ing a set of questions measuring their beliefs, attitudes, motivations, values,
111 policy preferences, and actions concerning climate change, including energy
112 efficiency and conservation behavior, consumer behavior, and political be-
113 havior. We drew these questions from a questionnaire developed by Yale
114 University’s Program on climate change communication [29]. To the best
115 of our knowledge this is the most comprehensive questionnaire on climate
116 change attitude, and has been used in the US, India, China, and other coun-
117 tries [12, 28, 31] (see *SI Section B* for the full text of the 31 questions). In
118 addition, we checked participants’ knowledge of the energy cost and environ-
119 mental benefits of LED light bulbs (see *SI Section F*).

120 We classify the 31 questions on climate change attitudes into 10 main
121 categories, indicating whether participants believe that climate change is
122 occurring (C1), think humans are responsible for climate change (C2), believe
123 that the impact of climate change is severe (C3), feel that mitigating action is

124 urgent and possible (C4), are likely to call for policy change (C5), are likely
125 to use green modes of transportation (C6), are likely to purchase energy-
126 efficient (EE) appliances (C7), support taxes on electricity and gasoline (C8),
127 support international cooperation against climate change (C9), and support
128 the introduction of renewable and efficiency standards (C10). The categories
129 thus refer to general beliefs about climate change (C1 to C4), actions that can
130 be taken to mitigate climate change (C5 to C7), and support for policies that
131 target climate change (C8 to C10). We create indicators for each category
132 by summing up participants' answers to the corresponding questions (see
133 *SI Section B*). Figure 1 shows how the answers in each category changed
134 between the baseline and the follow-up surveys (N=585).

135 We observe a generalized increase in scores in the follow-up survey across
136 all ten categories. The differences over time are statistically significant for the
137 belief that climate change is happening, the belief that its impact is severe,
138 the likelihood of making green transport choices, the willingness to purchase
139 EE appliances, and support for new efficiency standards (Wilcoxon signed
140 rank tests, $p = 0.0001, 0.0019, 0.0457, 0.0003, \text{ and } 0.0093$, respectively).¹
141 These results indicate that the choice of light bulb intervention increased
142 concerns related to the adoption of pro-environmental technology and the
143 willingness to support efficiency standards, but not the willingness to support
144 energy taxes. Our results are not consistent with recent evidence of crowding-
145 out between reporting energy saving actions and support for a carbon tax in
146 Japan [40]. Attitudes unrelated to climate or energy, such as opinions on the
147 role of government, peace, and inequality, did not change between baseline
148 and follow-up (Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p=0.1739$).

¹To control for multiple-hypothesis testing and false positives, we implement Bonferroni correction. All changes in attributes remain significant except for the likelihood of making green transport choices.

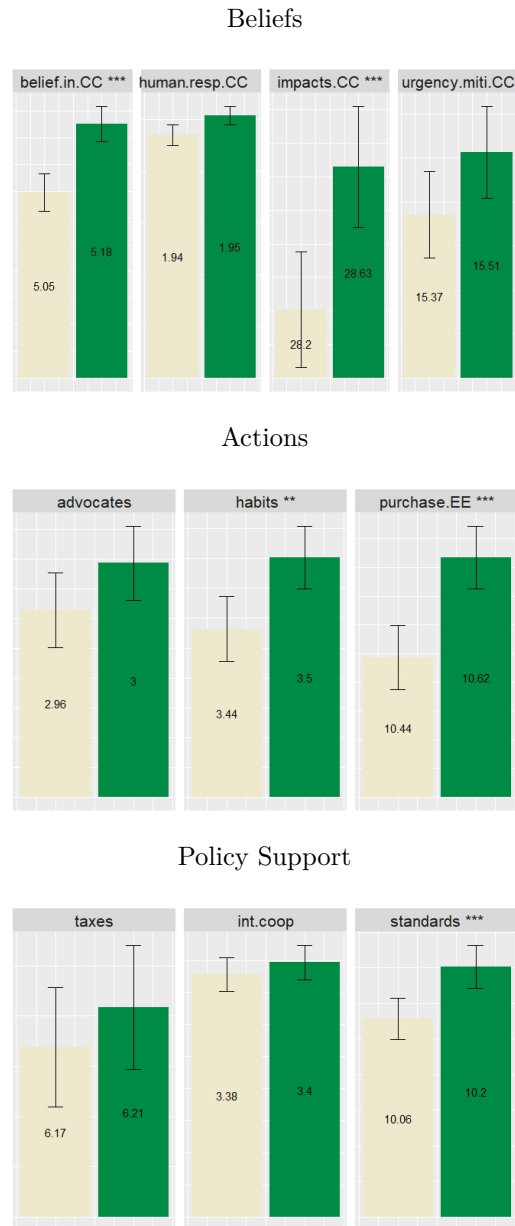


Figure 1: Climate change attitudes over time. The bars show baseline means (yellow/light) and follow up means (green/dark). Error bars show standard errors. Significance of Wilcoxon signed rank test: < 0.01 ***; < 0.05 **; < 0.1 *.

149 Sources of change

150 During the study, participants received an LED or CFL light bulb, de-
 151 pending on their WTP, except for those who did not leave a valid postal
 152 address. We now examine whether the changes in attitude between baseline
 153 and follow-up can be attributed to receiving an LED light bulb. We generate
 154 a dummy variable equal to one if the participant reported receiving an LED
 155 at follow-up, which was true for 267 participants. We consider these subjects
 156 as treated. We then consider all participants who did not receive an LED as
 157 the untreated subjects (N=318 in total), including those who received a CFL
 158 (N=69), those who could not remember the type of light bulb they received
 159 (N=11), those who did not receive a light bulb due to leaving an imprecise
 160 address (N=130), and those who did not leave their postal address (N=108).

161 Receiving an LED is not purely random, but is affected by the endoge-
 162 nous WTP and possibly other unobservable characteristics of the participant.
 163 For this reason, any comparison between subjects receiving or not receiving
 164 an LED could be affected by selection bias. We thus use propensity score
 165 matching (PSM)[35] to build a sample of treated and untreated subjects sim-
 166 ilar on all observable characteristics to reduce potential sources of bias. We
 167 match each LED recipient to a non-recipient according to baseline WTP,
 168 baseline knowledge of the energy cost and environmental benefits of LED
 169 light bulbs, LED light bulb ownership, and demographic characteristics (in-
 170 come, age, university degree, an indicator for having children, and gender).
 171 This procedure generates a matched sample of 410 of the 585 participants,
 172 with 205 LED recipients in the treated group and 205 non-recipients in the
 173 control group. After matching, receiving an LED is no longer correlated with
 174 WTP and individual traits. Thus, we can consider LED receipt as exogenous
 175 and evaluate its impact on attitudes toward climate change (see *SI Section*
 176 *C* for details of the PSM).²

²We conduct sensitivity checks on the effects of potential unobservables. We also test the robustness of our results to two alternative matching calipers, each with 1000 iterations

177 It is reasonable to believe that the four sub-groups in the untreated group
178 are not equally comparable to the treatment group. More specifically, as-
179 suming that the incentive-compatible WTP elicitation method reveals a true
180 preference with each decision, and that subjects are equally satisfied with
181 each choice they made, the first sub-group is then considered as a valid
182 control group.³ However, the participants in sub-group three who left an
183 imprecise postal address and thus did not receive the light bulb may be dis-
184 appointed, and have different attitudes toward climate change as a result
185 of this disappointment. Similarly, sub-group four participants who did not
186 leave us their postal address may care more about their privacy, which may
187 also be related to their climate change attitude. The third sub-group differs
188 from the first in that they did not receive any light bulb. If not receiving
189 the light bulb they asked for affects their climate change attitude, we should
190 observe a difference in attitudinal change between sub-groups one and three.
191 Similarly, if trust in the experimenters is related to climate change attitude,
192 we should observe differences in the baseline climate change attitude between
193 sub-group four and the participants who left an address. We use Friedman
194 tests to establish whether these three sub-groups show the same attitudinal
195 change in all attributes, and detect no difference in any of them ($p > 0.1$ for all
196 attributes).⁴ Further, regarding participants who have stronger privacy con-

(see **Materials and Methods** for the analysis and *SI Section C* and *E*).

³It is required that given a level of WTP, receiving one type of light bulb rather than another is not associated with systematic differences in satisfaction, welfare, attitudes toward the researchers, or other variables that might also affect our outcomes of interest. Asking for subjects' satisfaction with the received light bulb in the follow-up surveys would only partially solve this issue: in fact, it is possible that subjects who received a CFL would report lower satisfaction not due to a direct effect of the bundled delivered to them, but as a result of experiencing the CFL and not liking it. If subjects receiving a CFL were systematically less satisfied with the quality of the product, not ex-ante, but after having experienced its lower quality relative to an LED, this would introduce a bias in our results.

⁴Except for the attribute "habits" where $p = 0.0658$. "Habits" was elicited by asking "how are you willing to bike, ride public transit or walk one more day per week?" Post-hoc comparisons reveal that the mean change of the three sub-groups are 0.0682, -0.0111, and

Table 1: Climate attitudes impacts of receiving a LED

	Change in 'Belief in CC'	Change in 'Purchase EE'
Received LED	0.1805** [0.0847]	0.3122*** [0.1186]

The table reports average treatment effects of receiving a LED. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significance of Wilcoxon signed rank test: < 0.01 ***; < 0.05 **; < 0.1 *.

cerns, we test if they differ in baseline attitudes from the combined treated group and the others in the untreated group. Wilcoxon tests confirm that they do not differ significantly ($p > 0.1$ for all attributes).⁵ In the following analysis we pool the participants in the four sub-groups together.

Wilcoxon signed rank tests on the matched sample reveal that the changes in some climate attitude categories can be explained by receiving an LED. Specifically, receiving an LED increases both the belief that climate change is occurring and the likelihood of purchasing EE appliances, the two dimensions of attitudes that increased most between baseline and follow-up. The self-reported likelihood of buying EE appliances is not just cheap talk: we find it strongly correlated with an incentivized WTP for LED at follow-up (Pearson Correlation, $\rho = 0.16$, $p = 0.0000$). Other attitudes are not significantly affected by receiving an LED.

Through which channel does an LED light bulb work to change attitude toward climate change and conservation behavior? One possible explanation is experience with the LED light bulb. We test this conjecture by asking participants whether they installed the light bulb they received. Among

-0.2121, respectively. However, any of the two sub-groups are not significantly different from each other (Wilcoxon unpaired test, $p > 0.1$ for all)

⁵Except for the attribute “habits” where $p = 0.0082$. Participants who have left an address reported higher willingness to “bike, ride public transit or walk one more day per week” than those who did not.

214 the 205 participants in the matched sample who received an LED, 194 re-
 215 ported installing it, 75 of whom also reported that most of the light bulbs
 216 in their home were LEDs; 119 said they owned mostly CFL, incandescent,
 217 or unknown light bulbs. We test whether the 119 “late adopters” of LED
 218 light bulbs were influenced more by the received LED light bulb than the 75
 219 “early adopters”. As expected, late adopters have lower scores for willing-
 220 ness to purchase EE appliances in the baseline survey compared to the early
 221 adopters (Wilcoxon rank sum test, $p=0.0022$). However, in the follow-up
 222 survey after adopting the LED, the two groups are no longer distinguishable
 223 ($p=0.1973$). Thus, “late adopters” show a greater change in willingness to
 224 purchase EE appliances as a result of LED adoption than “early adopters”
 225 (Wilcoxon rank sum test, $p=0.0249$). We find no difference in the belief in
 226 climate change (Wilcoxon rank sum test, $p=0.9463$). This evidence suggests
 227 that a new experience with LEDs may influence attitudes.

228 Another possible mechanism that could drive the observed attitudinal
 229 change is a change in knowledge of LED benefits resulting from LED own-
 230 ership. It is possible that those who received LED light bulbs also acquired
 231 more knowledge. We measure knowledge both in terms of energy savings and
 232 environmental impact using two multiple choice questions (see *SI Section*
 233 *F*). Receiving an LED increases knowledge of the energy savings from using
 234 LED light bulbs, but not of the corresponding impact on the environment
 235 (Figure 2). The results are robust to different PSM calipers. These results
 236 are consistent with the information subjects obtain from the LED package,
 237 which reports energy savings with respect to CFL and incandescent light
 238 bulbs (see *SI Section G*). However, we find no correlation between knowl-
 239 edge (either of cost or environmental impact) and changes in “Belief in CC”
 240 (Pearson Correlation, $\rho=-0.01$ and -0.03 , $p=0.8067$ and 0.5834 , respectively),
 241 or in “Purchase EE” (Pearson Correlation, $\rho=0.06$ and 0.06 , $p=0.1895$ and
 242 0.2218 , respectively).

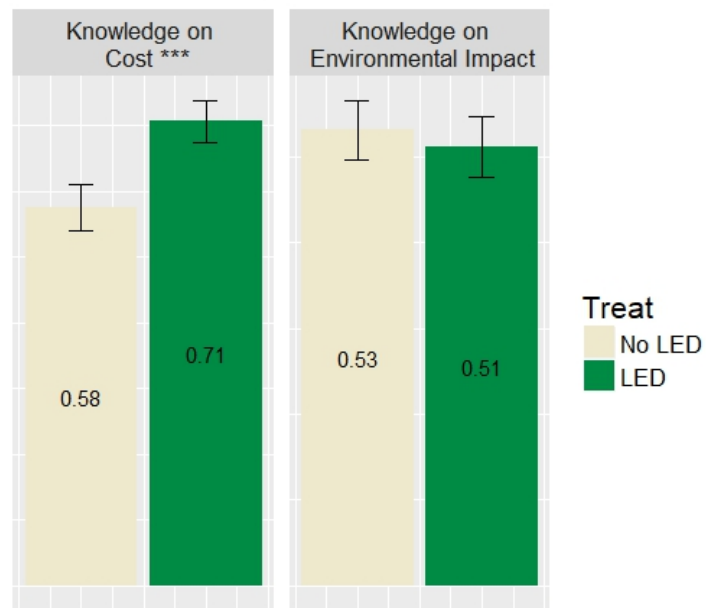


Figure 2: Knowledge on benefits of LEDs. The bars show the proportion of correct answers on LED costs (left panel) and environmental benefits (right panel), for subjects who didn't receive the LED (yellow/light) and those who did (green/dark). Error bars show standard errors. Significance: < 0.01 ***; < 0.05 **; < 0.1 *.

243 Conclusion

244 We report results from an experiment showing attitudinal change toward
245 climate change over the course of three months, which we attribute to having
246 received efficient LED light bulbs. Participants in the experiment became
247 generally more concerned about climate change. However, significant at-
248 titudinal change occurred only along specific dimensions, emphasizing the
249 multidimensional nature of perceptions about climate change and policies
250 aimed at solving it. The driving factor appears to be the adoption and ex-
251 perience of new green technology rather than the acquisition of knowledge.
252 Preference for consistency provides a theoretical framework consistent with
253 our results. The crowding-in of experimental evidence suggests that encour-
254 aging small adopting actions by the government or other organizations can
255 lead to subsequent behavioral change. This creates opportunities for design-
256 ing policy tools that are complementary to educational programs aimed at
257 improving knowledge.

258 Materials and Methods

259 **Sample** Two waves of surveys (baseline and follow-up) were administered
260 using “www.Sojump.com,” an online platform providing a nationwide sample
261 of 2.6 million individuals in China for computer-based surveys. Respondents
262 opted into the study by clicking the survey link on the survey list. The
263 follow-up survey was conducted three months after the baseline: we invited
264 all participants who had completed the baseline survey for within-subject
265 comparisons and respondents who had not participated in the baseline for
266 between-subject comparisons. All participants were Chinese non-students
267 from 30 provinces/autonomous regions/direct-administrative municipalities
268 (except for Tibet, Hong Kong, Macau, and Taiwan). Our sample differs from
269 the representative Chinese population (see *SI Section A*) because online sur-

veys cannot reach poorer demographic groups.⁶ The baseline was conducted in August, September, and October 2016 (n=1268), while the follow-up took place in November and December 2016 and January 2017 (n=585 returning participants and n=261 newly-recruited participants).

Procedures At baseline, we elicited the willingness-to-pay (WTP) for an LED light bulb from all participants in an incentive-compatible way. Participants were given a CNY 30 gratuity and asked to spend it on the purchase of a light bulb. They were requested to choose between an LED and a CFL light bulb in a series of binary decisions in which we varied the price of the LED light bulb for each decision. For each participant, one of these binary decisions was randomly selected for implementation, and the participants thus received the type of light bulb they had selected in that decision, paid the corresponding price, and received the remaining amount (CNY 30–price) in their Sojump account. Participants with higher WTP were more likely to receive an LED than a CFL light bulb (for elicitation details see *SI Section H*). At the end of the survey we elicited the participants’ attitudes toward climate change through 12 questions (31 sub-questions), together with their knowledge about the benefits of LED light bulbs, their current light bulb ownership, and demographic details (see *SI Section B*). In a few places we modified the questions on climate change attitude to fit the Chinese context; these changes are explained in *SI Section B*. In the follow-up survey, we elicited their WTP for an LED, knowledge of the benefits of LEDs, whether they installed the light bulb received, and climate change attitudes again.

At baseline, each participant received either a piece of information on the energy saving of adopting a LED or a control, and one of three pieces of information about the benefits of adopting LEDs: i.e., mitigating climate change, reducing air pollution, or unrelated information as a control. The exact wording is provided in *SI Section D*. At the end of the survey at

⁶In 2016, about 53.2% of the population had internet access. Source: National Bureau of Statistics of PRC

baseline and at follow-up, we tested participants' knowledge on the benefits of adopting LEDs (*SI Section D and F*).

Analysis Our evaluation of the impact of receiving an LED on attitudinal change suffers from an endogeneity issue, as the likelihood of receiving an LED increased with the subject's baseline WTP for LEDs. In addition, there may be differences between subjects who did and did not leave a valid postal address, whether due to privacy concerns or other reasons: indeed, those who left a valid address had a higher baseline WTP. We address such identification issues and assess the causal effect of receiving an LED on attitudinal change using propensity score matching (PSM), which matches each subject who received an LED to a subject who did not, based on the following characteristics: baseline WTP, baseline knowledge of the monetary and environmental benefits of LEDs, light bulb ownership, and demographic characteristics (income, age, university degree, an indicator for having children, and gender). Matching produces a control group that is similar to our treated group, i.e. those who received an LED (see *SI Section C*). We use a central value for the caliper of $\beta=0.25$ standard deviations, in line with the literature [32], but provide sensitivity to both the choice of caliper and the bootstrapping results of 1000 simulations (see *SI Section E*).

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