

This is the author-created version of the following work:

**McCarthy, Breda, Eagle, Lynne, and Osmond, Amy (2018) *Electricity consumers in regional Australia: social acceptance of coal-fired power and renewable energy.* Social Business, 8 (3) pp. 253-275.**

Access to this file is available from:

<https://researchonline.jcu.edu.au/57002/>

Please refer to the original source for the final version of this work:

<https://doi.org/10.1362/204440818X15434305418605>



**Electricity consumers in regional Australia: social acceptance of coal-fired power and renewable energy**

Journal:	<i>Social Business</i>
Manuscript ID	Draft
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Renewable energy, Fossil fuels, Climate change, Social acceptance

SCHOLARONE™  
Manuscripts

Review Only

1  
2  
3 **Electricity consumers in regional Australia: social acceptance of coal-fired power and**  
4 **renewable energy**  
5  
6  
7

8  
9 **ABSTRACT**  
10  
11

12  
13 **Purpose**  
14

15 The purpose of this study is to explore the concept of social acceptance and examine public  
16 opinions on climate change, renewable energy and fossil fuels in regional Australia.  
17 Understanding public opinion is critical given the need for governments to transition energy  
18 production away from fossil fuels and towards renewable energy in order to meet obligations  
19 under the 2015 UN Paris Agreement on Climate Change.  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

28 **Design/methodology/approach**  
29

30 A survey was developed and respondents (n= 325) were recruited face-to-face in a regional  
31 city in Northern Australia. Data was then analysed using IBM SPSS 20 software. Frequency  
32 distributions, cross tabulations and non-parametric tests were performed.  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

41 **Findings**  
42

43 Respondent-completed questionnaires reveal positive attitudes towards renewable energy.  
44 Overall, respondents agree that climate change is occurring and that society has a  
45 responsibility to act to minimise its effects. Surprisingly, consumers who support coal-fired  
46 power show strong support for renewable energy, despite being undecided on the climate  
47 change issue and not perceiving a connection between electricity usage in the home and  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 climate change. Consumers who are opposed to coal-fired power show low support for all  
4 fossil fuels, despite the fact that they will continue to underpin the Australian energy system  
5 for some time to come. In addition, demographic variables, notably gender and education,  
6 along with political affiliation, are associated with varying levels of support for particular  
7 energy technologies.  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12

### 13 14 15 16 **Limitations**

17  
18  
19  
20 The findings are based on a convenience sample of mostly urban North Queensland residents  
21 and hence is not fully representative of Queensland's population. The study is descriptive in  
22 nature and there is a need for explanatory research to validate key findings on demographics.  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27

### 28 29 **Implications**

30  
31  
32  
33 The research has several policy implications. The cost competitiveness of both solar and wind  
34 technology over coal-fired generation needs to be emphasised. Furthermore, altruistic appeals  
35 such as benefiting future generations may also be effective. Commercial marketing  
36 techniques may be useful in boosting support for emerging renewable energy resources, such  
37 as geo-thermal and fuel cell technology, amongst females. It is recommended that  
38 misconceptions about coal-fired power be addressed, for instance through community-based  
39 programs, if Australia is to make a transition to a low-carbon electricity market.  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49

### 50 51 **Contribution**

52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 This article represents an attempt to examine the attitudes of regional Australians towards a  
4 wide range of energy resources and show, by drawing on the literature on social acceptance,  
5 the key factors that underpin support for renewable energy.  
6  
7  
8  
9

## 11 **Keywords**

12  
13 Renewable Energy, Fossil Fuels, Climate Change, Social Acceptance.  
14  
15

## 17 **INTRODUCTION**

18  
19  
20  
21  
22 The 2015 UN Paris Agreement on Climate Change has set challenging sustainable  
23 development targets (Burnes, 2017). One of objectives of the Paris Agreement is to hold the  
24 increase in global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels, and  
25 significantly reduce the risks and impacts of climate change (United Nations, 2015). If the  
26 UN's targets are to be achieved, then fossil fuels have to be substantially and rapidly reduced  
27 across the globe. The world's energy sector is, therefore, faced with a major problem: how to  
28 fulfil energy demand efficiently without harming the planet. Increasing concern is evident in  
29 the literature regarding the sustainability of current forms of energy generation: "*Scientists,*  
30 *politicians and macro-marketers alike have come to realise that most existing energy systems*  
31 *are unsustainable and that progress towards sustainability will require significant changes in*  
32 *the production and consumption of energy*" (Claudy, Peterson, & O'Driscoll, 2012, p. 324).  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46 In 2017, just 12.1% of global electricity came from clean sources, and since carbon  
47 dioxide levels continue to rise, this means that investment in renewables has a long way to go  
48 (Solheim, Espinosa & Stieglitz, 2018a). While investment in new renewables varies across  
49 countries, there were sharp increases in investment in Australia in 2017, an increase of 147  
50 per cent, to \$8.5 billion (Solheim, Espinosa & Stieglitz, 2018a). However, electricity is  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 predominantly generated from fossil fuels in Australia (Djerf-Pierre et al., 2016). Often  
4 described as a ‘quarry’ economy (Mercer & Marden, 2006), access to abundant fossil fuels  
5 offers Australia a significant comparative economic advantage which is likely to pose a threat  
6 to an energy transition. For instance, research finds that when concerns about climate change  
7 conflict with economic concerns, economic concerns prevail (Christoff, 1998). The barriers  
8 posed by the coal lobby to an energy transition in Australia are well documented in the  
9 literature (Biggs, 2016; Edenhofer & Flachsland, 2013; Hall & Taplin, 2008; Muenstermann,  
10 2012). Australia, therefore, faces a conundrum: while heavily investing in renewable energy  
11 could help it reduce carbon emissions, a transition away from coal is likely to have adverse  
12 implications for regional economies dependent on coal mining (Commonwealth of Australia,  
13 2017a), as well as for energy security and electricity pricing (Commonwealth of Australia,  
14 2017b). A recent report by the Australia Energy Market Regulator (AEMO) emphasises the  
15 need to retain existing coal-fired generation, as well as to plan for the closure of plants when  
16 they reach the end of their technical life. It is estimated that about 30 per cent of coal  
17 resources in Queensland will shut down over the next 20 years (AEMO, 2018).

18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Given the need for an energy transition, it is important to understand public support for coal-fired electricity vis-à-vis other supply sources. Such understanding is especially important in regional contexts where community expectations of the energy sector are changing. In Queensland, there has been a remarkable adoption of small-scale solar photovoltaic (PV) systems by households (Biggs, 2016; Sommerfeld et al., 2017a), with an estimated 30% of households having roof-top solar (Climate Council of Australia, 2017). Despite this signal of change, electricity generation is predominantly coal-fired in this state (Martin & Rice, 2012). Coal is the largest export industry in Queensland and there are plans to exploit significant coal resources in the West Queensland Galilee Basin, including the development of a large mine (by the Indian Adani conglomerate) at Carmichael (Caldecott,

1  
2  
3 Tilbury & Ma, 2013). There has been considerable opposition to the mining project, and prior  
4  
5 to the 2017 state elections, the Premier of the Labour government announced a withdrawal of  
6  
7 support for a loan to the Adani project (O'Brien, 2017). Public pressure can be an important  
8  
9 factor driving government policy and hence it is important to understand public opinion on  
10  
11 energy policy (Pietsch & McAllister, 2010).  
12

13  
14 A critical reading of previous literature relating to energy transitions reveals that only  
15  
16 partial attention is paid to social acceptance, even though widespread public support is  
17  
18 needed when developing large-scale energy infrastructures (Batel & Devine-Wright, 2015;  
19  
20 Friedl & Reichl, 2016; Moula et al., 2013). Biggs (2016, p. 204) notes that while significant  
21  
22 research has been done on the dominance of fossil energy and the challenge of driving  
23  
24 renewable energy development in Australia, *“much of the research (academic and industry)*  
25  
26 *is narrow and segmented, focussing singularly on technical, market or institutional*  
27  
28 *barriers”*. Scholarly focus tends to be on policy since it is seen as the ‘engine room’ for  
29  
30 renewable energy development (Martin & Rice, 2012). According to Moula et al., (2013, p.  
31  
32 90), *“despite the studies on public attitudes towards renewable energy technologies, genuine*  
33  
34 *understanding of the dynamics of public acceptance remains elusive”*. The aim of this article  
35  
36 is to report findings from a survey of regional Australians and examine attitudes towards a  
37  
38 range of energy technologies that may support, or undermine, sustainability. We develop the  
39  
40 literature on social acceptance further, by conducting comparative analysis on pro-coal and  
41  
42 anti-coal groups of respondents and by examining key factors that drive support for various  
43  
44 energy technologies. Very few Australian scholars assess consumers’ attitudes towards a  
45  
46 range of energy technologies in a single survey, which is a limitation in terms of  
47  
48 understanding support for renewable energy overall (Stoutenborough et al., 2015).  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## **LITERATURE REVIEW: RENEWABLE ENERGY TRANSITIONS AND SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE**

Renewable energy transitions, as a narrative, refer to a transition away from fossil fuels, such as coal, gas and oil, in order to mitigate the effects of climate change (Araújo, 2014). Numerous studies conclude that system-wide transformations are required to grapple with climate change and move to a low-carbon energy system (Geels, 2012; Jacobsson & Lauber, 2006). Given that Australia's electricity sector is one of the most carbon-intensive in the world due to its reliance on coal-fired electricity (Byrnes, Brown, Foster & Wagner, 2013), a transition to renewable energy needs to be at the centre of Australia's climate change mitigation effort (Kallies, 2016). Along with the development of renewable energy, there are other ways of reducing emissions from the energy sector, namely energy saving and efficiency, switching to natural gas and CO<sub>2</sub> recovery (van Ettinger, 1994). As the energy market transforms, there is a critical need to understand the ways that consumers may respond to future energy policies and to the various energy technologies designed to achieve positive environmental outcomes. The following section presents a summary of the literature on social acceptance.

### **Social acceptance and public attitudes towards electricity sources**

A social licence to operate – most simply described as community acceptance of a project – is increasingly recognised as necessary and beneficial to mining and other developments (Paragreen & Woodley, 2013; Prno, 2013; Walsh et al., 2017). Social licences can be granted by various stakeholder groups, and a licence from one group does not translate into approval from all stakeholder groups. For example, while a wide group of stakeholders, such as the



1  
2  
3 state government, may find a project acceptable, non-governmental groups, local business  
4 and community members, may be less accepting and withhold a social licence (Dare et al.,  
5 2014). The meaning, and application, of the social licence concept varies across energy  
6 industries (Hall et al., 2015). In studies of renewable energy, social acceptance appears to be  
7 the preferred term, and although this concept is yet to be adequately defined (Wüstenhagen,  
8 Wolsink & Bürer, 2007), it provides the conceptual background of this work.

9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
Scholars conclude that acceptance of controversial energy technologies (i.e., fossil fuels, hydro and nuclear) is shaped primarily by perceived benefit, followed by trust in regulatory institutions and risk perception (Bronfman et al., 2012). In relation to mining, the perceived benefits of mining (i.e., general wealth, infrastructure, and employment) are positively related to acceptance of mining, and perceived negative impacts of mining (i.e., living cost, other industries, and the environment) are negatively associated with acceptance of mining (Zhang & Moffett, 2015).

There are several studies of public responses to large-scale energy structures such as wind farms (Batel et al., 2013; Batel & Devine-Wright, 2015), nuclear power (Spence, Poortinga, Pidgeon & Lorenzoni, 2010). Scholars suggest that social acceptance of renewable energy (RE) is influenced by perceptions of cost, economic impact as well as climate change beliefs (Moula et al., 2013). Most studies take a sectoral approach, i.e., focusing on a single energy technology such as solar or wind, with a few exceptions (Bronfman et al., 2012; Sütterlin & Siegrist, 2017; Truelove, 2012). There is increasing interest in community energy and how communities become engaged in energy projects (Dibb & Roby, 2018). The literature shows that consumers are strongly supportive of renewable energy (Devine-Wright, 2007; Dockerty, Appleton & Lovett, 2012; Stoutenborough et al., 2015; Sütterlin & Siegrist, 2017; Truelove, 2012; Warren, Lumsden, O'Dowd & Birnie, 2005). This is not surprising given that the perceived risks – personal, social and environmental - are low (Bronfman et al., 2012).

1  
2  
3 However, Sütterlin & Siegrist (2017) find that when people integrate drawbacks into abstract  
4 and general evaluations of renewable energy, this diminishes acceptance. Rising electricity  
5 prices have been a feature of the Australian marketplace over the past decade (Orton &  
6 Nelson, 2015), and when Australians are presented with generation cost data, support for RE  
7 decreases (Ashworth et al., 2012). There is considerable discussion in the literature on  
8 sources of community opposition to citing decisions, such as the NIMBYISM ('Not In My  
9 Back Yard') concept (Dear, 1992; Hall et al., 2013; Pidgeon & Demski, 2012), and this  
10 stream of literature draws on strong traditions of qualitative enquiry. However, 'place  
11 attachment' (i.e., emotional bonds that form between people and their physical surroundings)  
12 is increasingly seen as a more significant explanation for resistance to local development  
13 (Devine-Wright, 2009; Vorkinn & Riese, 2001).

14  
15  
16 A variety of personal (e.g., age, gender), social-psychological (e.g., environmental and  
17 political beliefs, knowledge and direct experience) and contextual factors (e.g., size of  
18 development, community collaboration) combine to shape public acceptance (Devine-Wright,  
19 2007; 2008). For instance a study by Dowd et al., (2011) concludes that limited  
20 understanding of geothermal technology and various concerns (such as water usage and  
21 seismic activity instigated by drilling) affect social acceptance. Key factors are perceived  
22 environmental, economic and social impacts, as well as governance (i.e., the mechanisms for  
23 making permit decisions and the availability of transparent information) and demographic  
24 factors (Wang et al., 2016). A recent study shows that the level of social acceptance for wind  
25 power is contingent upon age, income, educational level and location of residence (Yuan,  
26 Zuo & Huisinsh, 2015). Likewise, Dimitropoulos & Kontoleon (2009) observe that  
27 educational level is significant for local acceptability of wind-farm investment. Moula et al.,  
28 (2013) conclude that there is a positive correlation between income and level of support for  
29 different RE technologies. However, there is no clear consensus with regard to how some  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 socio-demographic factors are related to acceptance of renewable energy. For instance, an  
4 Australian study notes that people who fall into the 'renewables oriented' segment are more  
5 likely to be on low to moderate household incomes, as well as female and employed (Carr-  
6 Cornish et al., 2011).  
7  
8  
9

10  
11 Acceptance of renewable energy technologies is associated with a high level of concern  
12 about climate change (Moula et al., 2013; Spence et al., 2010). Some scholars conclude that  
13 sections of the Australian public are sceptical about climate change (Fleming & Vanclay,  
14 2010; Morrison et al., 2013) and that voters' notional support for measures to address climate  
15 change does not extend as far as a willingness to pay higher energy bills (Bell & Hindmoor,  
16 2014). In contrast, other studies demonstrate that Australians clearly believe that climate  
17 change is happening and a large majority are in favour of adopting a plan to reduce emissions  
18 and are willing to pay for environmental protection (Carson et al., 2010; Pietsch &  
19 McAllister, 2010). It is acknowledged that people who do not view fossil fuels as harmful,  
20 and who identify as 'environmentally-sceptic', can be some of the biggest supporters of  
21 renewable energy due to local economic benefits (Jepson et al., 2012; Slattery et al., 2012).  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34

35 Political affiliation is seen as a consistent predictor of environmental concern (Jones &  
36 Dunlap, 1992; McCright et al., 2014; Van Liere & Dunlap, 1980) and scholars indicate that  
37 acceptance of renewable energy is associated with political affiliations (Karlström &  
38 Ryghaug, 2014). For instance, people who support the Green Party in Australia tend to be  
39 concerned with climate change and environmental issues (Tranter, 2011) and are more likely  
40 to have a smaller carbon footprint and to purchase green products (Kahn, 2007; Kahn &  
41 Morris, 2009).  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49

50 In summary, the topic of energy has generated a vast body of academic work, which is a  
51 reflection of its role in climate change and in the world economy. In contrast, studies on  
52 social acceptance have received much less attention. A review of the literature shows that  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 there are multiple factors that influence social acceptance of various energy technologies,  
4 including perceived impacts, political beliefs, concerns about climate change and  
5 environmental harm, a sense of economic opportunism and socio-demographics.  
6  
7  
8  
9

## 10 11 **METHODOLOGY**

12  
13  
14  
15  
16 This article uses a quantitative research method, notably a survey, since surveys are  
17 commonly used to measure attitudes of the general public in the energy policy literature (see  
18 Stoutenborough et al., 2015). The research questions are as follows:  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

- 24 (1) What attitudes do consumers hold in relation to climate change and energy resources and  
25 do attitudes vary according to support for coal-fired power?  
26  
27  
28 (2) Is support for renewable energy linked to political affiliation and demographic variables,  
29 such as age, gender, income and education?  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34

### 35 **Scales**

36  
37  
38  
39 A series of statements were developed to measure respondents' attitudes towards climate  
40 change and energy resources and the scales were informed by the literature. While several  
41 items measuring concern for sustainability were validated in earlier studies (Dunlap & Van  
42 Liere, 1978; Eagle, Hamann & Low, 2016; Eagle, Low, Case, & Vandommele, 2015), a few  
43 items were specifically developed to capture issues of relevance to Queensland. Attitudes  
44 were captured on a five-point Likert scale with anchor points 1 = strongly disagree to 5 =  
45 strongly agree. Socio-demographic measures included gender, age, income, home ownership,  
46 educational attainment, employment and industry employer. Respondents were asked to  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 indicate what political party they generally supported, with the three major Australian parties  
4 specified, as well as 'other' and 'prefer not to say' options. The 'left-right' schema is a  
5 traditional delineation in Australia politics and the major parties tend to follow this schema  
6  
7  
8  
9 (Fielding et al., 2012).  
10

### 11 12 13 **Questionnaire development, sample, recruitment of respondents** 14 15

16  
17  
18 Ethical approval was granted by the Human Ethics Committee at James Cook University  
19 (H6601). The survey was distributed in a regional city, Townsville, since its economy has  
20 links with mining. An intercept survey was conducted in key locations in the city, such as the  
21 main waterfront reserve, popular markets and major shopping centres. An online  
22 questionnaire link was emailed to participants who wished to complete the survey in their  
23 own time. Traditional face-to-face distribution methods were used to overcome potential  
24 biases in sampling that may be introduced in pure online surveys, such as access to those that  
25 are more technologically aware, well-off or employed in certain jobs (Curry et al., 2005). An  
26 incentive (the chance to win an Apple iPad) was used to encourage completion of surveys. A  
27 total of 362 people replied to the survey, but after data cleaning, a total of 325 usable surveys  
28 were analysed.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

41  
42 Frequency distributions, cross tabulations and non-parametric tests were employed, using  
43 IBM SPSS 20 software. When data is skewed, then the most appropriate statistical tests are  
44 non-parametric tests and they are commonly used in studies of consumers' attitudes towards  
45 renewable energy (Coleby, Miller & Aspinall, 2009; Halder, Havu-Nuutinen, Pietarinen, &  
46 Pelkonen, 2011; Liarakou, Gavrilakis & Flouri, 2009; Zyadin, Puhakka, Ahponen, Cronberg  
47 & Pelkonen, 2012). The Mann Whitney test was used here for testing the homogeneity  
48 between two groups (Field, 2013), along with the Bonferroni correction (Armstrong, 2014).  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## **FINDINGS**

The next section of the paper summarises the key findings from the survey.

### **Summary statistics**

A profile of the sample is shown in Appendix A. The summary statistics are as follows: there are slightly more female (54.5%) than male respondents in the survey. Income levels are diverse. An estimated 13% have a total household income of less than \$30,000. 17% report a total income of \$30,000-\$64,000; 20.4% are in the \$65,000-\$99,000 bracket and 31.8% earn more than \$100,000. The remainder report 'nil' or 'do not know/prefer not to answer'. Data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS, 2016a) shows that the average disposable household income was \$51,896 in 2016 (after tax and Medicare levies), so our sample is reasonably diverse. There are more home-owners (55.2%) than renters (39.8%) in the sample. The sample is well-educated, with 26.8% reporting a Bachelor's degree as their highest level of educational attainment. This is higher than average. Statistics show that 17% of the Australia's population has a Bachelor degree (ABS, 2016b). Respondents come from all age groups, with most (67%) aged from 20 to 49 years. Half the sample (50.8%) are in full-time employment and respondents work in a variety of industries. With regard to political identification, respondents who support the main parties are captured in the sample, although there is a large number of non-responses.

### **Climate change and energy-related beliefs**

1  
2  
3 One objective of this research is to evaluate attitudes towards climate change and energy  
4 resources. Table 1 represents the results. The figures are mean values (where 1= strongly  
5 disagree and 5 = strongly agree). Another objective is to test whether attitudes differ  
6 according to the level of support for coal. There is a small segment that supports coal in the  
7 energy mix (n=66, approximately 21% of the sample). A relatively large number of  
8 respondents indicate that they are 'opposed/strongly opposed' to coal-fired power  
9 (approximately 44% of the sample). A significant number of respondents are undecided  
10 about coal, with 114 ticking the 'neither support nor oppose' category (approximately 35% of  
11 the sample).  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21

22 The pro-coal group rate the economic benefit of renewable energy lower than the anti-  
23 coal group, with the mean score above the neutral score. The anti-coal group score higher on  
24 items relating to the negative environmental impacts of coal, imprudent use of fossil fuels,  
25 belief in human-induced climate change, economic impact of RE and relative cheapness of  
26 solar photovoltaic power.  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32

33 Statistical tests show that there are significant differences in attitudes between the  
34 different coal groups. There is strong evidence ( $p < 0.001$ , adjusted using the Bonferroni  
35 correction) of a difference in attitudes between the pro-coal and anti-coal groups (using the  
36 Mann Whitney test). Statistically significant differences are evident with regard to item 1,  
37 relating to use of electricity and climate change; item 2, on human-induced climate change;  
38 item 3, on investment in RE stimulates economic growth; item 4 relating to the price of solar;  
39 item 5 covering non-avoidance of fossil fuels; item 6, on environmental impacts of coal; item  
40 7, on rapid use of fossil fuels; item 8, on responsibility to develop RE for future generations;  
41 item 9, on high levels of energy use impacting future generations; item 10, on Queensland  
42 being rich in RE and item 11, on fully exploiting Queensland's RE resource.  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

**Table 1**

Climate change and attitudes towards RE: comparison of pro-coal and anti-coal groups

<b>Attitudinal Scale Item</b>	Mean (n=323)	Neutral (n=114)	Pro- Coal (n=66)	Anti- Coal (n=143)	p (Mann Whitney)
1. There is no link between electricity used in the home and climate change	2.43	2.50	3.05	2.06	<b>.000</b>
2. Human-induced climate change is occurring at some level	4.19	3.96	3.76	4.57	<b>.009</b>
3. Investment in renewable energy is a means of stimulating economic growth	3.95	3.81	3.48	4.26	<b>.000</b>
4. Solar photovoltaic (PV) is the cheapest form of electricity	3.36	3.29	3.09	3.52	<b>.009</b>
5. Fossil fuels (i.e. coal, gas, oil) should <u>not</u> be avoided because they support the economy	2.74	2.96	3.48	2.24	<b>.000</b>
6. The environmental impacts associated with coal-fired power stations are often overstated	2.69	2.89	3.41	2.20	<b>.000</b>
7. We are using up supplies of fossil fuels (i.e. coal, oil, gas) too fast	3.89	3.74	3.56	4.15	<b>.000</b>
8. It is our responsibility to develop renewable energy for future generations	4.45	4.27	4.15	4.73	<b>.000</b>
9. High levels of energy use will impact future generations' standard of living	4.27	4.11	4.02	4.51	<b>.000</b>
10. Queensland is rich in renewable energy sources (e.g. solar, wind)	4.10	3.94	3.86	4.36	<b>.000</b>
11. Queensland's renewable energy sources (e.g. solar, wind) should be fully exploited	4.33	4.11	3.92	4.71	<b>.000</b>



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

For Review Only

### Level of support for the technologies used to generate electricity

Frequency analysis illustrates the level of support for the various technologies used to generate electricity. Table 2 shows the percentages of respondents who support a particular energy source. The figures are mean values (where 1= strongly oppose and 5 = strongly support). Overall, there is strong support for the mainstream renewable energy sources, in particular solar and wind; there is support for all other forms of low-carbon electricity, apart from nuclear energy, and there is low support for fossil fuels such as coal, gas and oil.

There are significant differences in attitudes between respondents who support coal-fired power and those who do not (based on the Mann Whitney test), using the conservative Bonferroni-corrected significance level. Statistically significant differences are evident with regard to seven (7) energy sources, such as coal ( $U=0.000$ ;  $z= -12.30$ ,  $p<.001$ ); natural gas ( $U=2,814.0$ ;  $z= -4.742$ ,  $p<.001$ ); oil ( $U=1,351$ ;  $z=-8.276$ ;  $p<.001$ ); solar ( $U=6,113$ ;  $z=4.737$ ,  $p<.001$ ); wind ( $U=6,125$ ;  $z=4.453$ ,  $p<.001$ ); marine ( $U=5.848$ ;  $z=3.399$ ,  $p=.001$ ) and nuclear ( $U=2,926$ ;  $z=-4.438$ ;  $p<.001$ ). The anti-coal respondents show strong support for some of the mainstream sources of renewable energy, with solar power getting the highest score (4.55) out of all fuel sources. In contrast to the anti-coal respondents, the pro-coal respondents show stronger support for some fossil fuels, such as natural gas (3.42) and oil (3.66). Nuclear receives the lowest score out of all fuel types and it is the least preferred source of electricity. No significant differences in attitudes are evident in relation to biomass, hydro-power, geothermal energy, fuel cell technology and battery storage.

**Table 2**

Support for technologies used to generate electricity: comparative analysis

<b>Energy</b>	Sample Mean (n=323)	Neutral (n=114)	Pro-Coal (n= 66)	Anti-Coal (n=143)	<b>p</b> (Mann Whitney)
Biomass	4.01	3.85	4.23	4.04	.251
Coal-fired power	2.63	Neutral (3)	Support (4.18)	Oppose (1.61)	<b>.000</b>
Natural Gas	2.98	3.26	3.42	2.54	<b>.000</b>
Hydroelectric Power	4.27	4.16	4.32	4.33	.525
Oil	2.72	3.02	3.66	2.05	<b>.000</b>
Solar	4.70	4.56	4.55	4.87	<b>.000</b>
Wind	4.62	4.60	4.30	4.78	<b>.000</b>
Marine Power	4.37	4.26	4.11	4.57	<b>.001</b>
Nuclear	2.55	2.70	3.11	2.18	<b>.000</b>
Geothermal	3.81	3.67	3.85	3.90	.419
Fuel cell technology	3.61	3.96	3.78	3.67	.477
Battery Storage	4.07	3.89	4.03	4.22	.093

**Factors associated with the acceptance of electricity sources**

Chi-square analysis is used to examine respondents' support for electricity sources and political affiliation. For this analysis, support for electricity sources (originally in a five-point scale) is collapsed into a three-point ordinal scale ('support', 'neutral' and 'oppose'). It must be noted that half of the sample ticked 'other' and 'prefer not to answer' when asked about

political affiliation, so the results have to be treated with caution. Table 3 shows the percentages of respondents who support a particular energy source.

**Table 3**

Support for energy technologies by political affiliation

Support for Electricity Sources	Political Affiliation				Chi-square
	Greens (n=33)	Labour (n=62)	Liberal National (n=54)	Other/Not Stated (n=171)	
Biomass	63.6	77.4	75.9	74.2	$\chi^2 = 7.133, p = .309$
Coal	6.1	16.1	40.7	18.0	$\chi^2 = 31.206, p = .000$
Natural Gas	12.1	38.7	53.7	33.8	$\chi^2 = 22.918, p = .001$
Hydro-electric power	87.9	87.1	94.3	83.4	$\chi^2 = 4.709, p = .582$
Oil	9.4	28.3	50	18.5	$\chi^2 = 44.545, p = .000$
Solar	100	93.5	98.1	97.5	$\chi^2 = 6.261, p = .395$
Wind	100	95.2	92.5	93.8	$\chi^2 = 7.001, p = .321$
Marine power	97	87.1	86.8	84.7	$\chi^2 = 16.174, p = .013$
Nuclear	21.2	22.6	46.3	22.9	$\chi^2 = 18.204, p = .006$
Geothermal	72.7	72.6	70.4	57.5	$\chi^2 = 15.376, p = .018$
Fuel cell technology	60.6	49.2	57.4	49.1	$\chi^2 = 3.993, p = .678$
Battery Storage	84.8	75.8	77.8	75.2	$\chi^2 = 8.845, p = .182$

There is a significant association between support for fossil fuels and political affiliation. In relation to coal; only 6.1% of Greens support coal whereas 40.7% of Liberal National Party (LNP) or conservatives, support coal ( $\chi^2 [6, 310] = 31.206, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .224$ ). Respondents who support natural gas tend to be drawn from Labour and the LNP ( $\chi^2 [6, 309] = 22.918, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .193$ ). Respondents who support oil tend to be drawn

from the LNP ( $\chi^2 [6, 301] = 44.545, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .272$ ). There is a significant association between support for nuclear power and political affiliation ( $\chi^2 [6, 306] = 18.204, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .172$ ) and support arises from the LNP.

In terms of support for the renewable energy sources, respondents do not differ significantly in their support based on political affiliation, with solar and wind power receiving very high scores. There are two exceptions, however, and they relate to non-mainstream or emerging RE sources. There is a significant association between political affiliation and support for marine power ( $\chi^2 [6, 305] = 16.174, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .163$  (weak correlation)) as well as support for geothermal energy ( $\chi^2 [6, 309] = 15.376, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .158$  (weak correlation)).

Cross tabulations are useful in exploring whether demographic variables are associated with support for various electricity sources. Age and income<sup>1</sup> are not significant. Education (see Table 4) is significant in relation to support for oil ( $\chi^2 [10, 306] = 19.910, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .180$ ) and fuel cell technology ( $\chi^2 [10, 312] = 21.127, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .184$ ).

**Table 4**

Support for electricity sources by educational level

Support	None	Year	Trade	Cert/Dip	Degree	Post- Graduate	Chi-square
		10/12					
Oil	83.3	28.3	18.2	23.1	26.2	15.9	$\chi^2 = 19.910, p = .030$
Fuel	83.3	31.5	50	56.8	50.6	59.4	$\chi^2 = 21.127, p = .020$

3 cells (16.7%) have expected counts less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.45.

6 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .40.

There is a significant relationship between gender and support for a range of energy technologies (see Table 5), notably coal ( $\chi^2 [2, 318] = 7.460, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .153$  (weak

correlation); nuclear ( $\chi^2 [2, 315] = 19.050, p < .001, \text{Cramer's } V = .246$ ); geothermal ( $\chi^2 [2, 318] = 14.566, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .214$ ), and fuel cell technology ( $\chi^2 [2, 315] = 11.502, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V = .191$ ). More males than females support controversial technologies such as nuclear and emerging sources of energy.

**Table 5**

Support for energy technologies by gender

Support for Electricity Sources	Gender		Chi-square
	Males ( <i>n</i> =145)	Females ( <i>n</i> =175)	
Coal	24.3	17.2	$\chi^2 = 7.460, p = .024$
Nuclear	37.5	16.4	$\chi^2 = 19.050, p = .000$
Geothermal	75.7	55.2	$\chi^2 = 14.566, p = .001$
Fuel cell technology	61.8	42.7	$\chi^2 = 11.502, p = .003$

## DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research is to investigate the relative support that regional Australians have for the various technologies used to generate electricity along with the factors that drive acceptance. Investigating the attitudes of citizens helps inform policy makers about the level of support that exists for electricity policies within their electorate. The development of renewable energy is a political issue, touching upon issues such as jobs, electricity pricing, climate change policy and environmental protection. Hence, policy formation is generally responsive to public pressure. To take a different perspective from the literature, this paper steps back from focusing on any single energy technology and instead asks – what level of

1  
2  
3 support exists for renewable energy and fossil fuels, how do demographic factors and  
4 political affiliation affect support, and finally how can policy makers use this information to  
5 influence public opinion?  
6  
7

8  
9 Overall, our study demonstrates strong support for renewable energy, including highly  
10 specialised technologies such as battery storage, which is predicted to be a game-changer for  
11 intermittent electricity sources such as solar and wind technologies (Lior. 2012), and our  
12 findings are in line with the literature (Agnew & Dargusch, 2017; Dockerty et al., 2012;  
13 Stoutenborough et al., 2015). This support appears to be influenced by a belief in human-  
14 induced climate change, awareness of the impacts of energy use for future generations and  
15 perceived need to exploit abundant natural resources in the region. The literature highlights  
16 indicators of acceptance such as climate change concern, economic benefit, political beliefs  
17 and demographic factors (Devine-Wright, 2008; Carr-Cornish et al., 2011; Moula et al.,  
18 2013) and this study lends support to these perspectives. For instance, most respondents are  
19 inclined to agree with statements such as “human-induced climate change is occurring at  
20 some level” and “investment in renewable energy is a means of stimulating economic  
21 growth”. This study shows that consumers discriminate between a range of energy  
22 technologies, with low support for nuclear, coal, gas and oil. These findings are not  
23 particularly surprising since these plants are complex chemical processing facilities that emit  
24 or produce toxic waste. In the case of nuclear power, the dread of a nuclear catastrophe is  
25 seen as an obstacle to wider public support (Ansolabehere & Konisky, 2009), and more so in  
26 the aftermath of the Fukushima nuclear disaster (Han, 2014; Kim et al., 2013). In addition,  
27 opposition to gas in regional Australia is linked to the rise of vocal pressure groups (Biggs,  
28 2016).  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51

52 This study focuses on two theoretically interesting sub-groups in the survey,  
53 respondents who supported coal-fired power and those who did not. The information gained  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 from this comparative analysis should be useful when considering ‘target’ markets for  
4 marketing communications. The findings show significant differences in attitudes between  
5 the pro-coal and anti-coal groups. For instance, the anti-coal group is more inclined to agree  
6 with the statement that “solar photovoltaic (PV) is the cheapest form of electricity.” A recent  
7 report published by the United Nations concludes that while the cost of renewable energy  
8 technologies varies a great deal between countries, and within countries, in an increasing  
9 number of markets, solar PV and wind are the cheapest of all (Solheim, Espinosa & Stieglitz,  
10 2018b). Likewise, analysis from Bloomberg New Energy Finance (2018) predicts that wind  
11 and solar will be cheaper than coal-fired generation in many countries by 2050. Hence, the  
12 cost competitiveness of the mainstream technologies should be emphasised if the sector is to  
13 maintain its social licence to operate.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25

26 This study finds support for coal-fired power amongst one fifth of the sample. This is  
27 surprising given that coal is a much-maligned industry. There is a substantial literature on the  
28 social, environmental and health impacts associated with coal mining on local communities  
29 (Lockie et al., 2008; Morrice & Colagiuri, 2013; Petkova et al., 2009; Zhang & Moffat,  
30 2015). Coal is particularly rich in carbon, and the burning of black coal can produce more  
31 than twice its weight in carbon dioxide (Hong & Slatick, 1994). The environmental costs of  
32 electricity generation (especially for coal) are externalised, resulting in lower private, but  
33 higher social costs for fossil fuels, compared to renewable energy (Byrnes et al., 2013). The  
34 pro-coal respondents are not climate change sceptics but they appear unsure or unconvinced  
35 about the sustainability impacts of mining, manifested by the mean score of 3.41 (neutral) for  
36 the statement, “the environmental impacts associated with coal-fired power stations are often  
37 overstated”. Hence, misconceptions about coal need to be addressed if Australia is to make a  
38 transition to a low-carbon electricity sector. Furthermore, pro-coal respondents are less likely  
39 to agree that the use of electricity is a contributor to climate change, which supports previous  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 research on the ‘disengaged’ segment (Carr-Cornish et al., 2011). Hence, educational  
4 campaigns aimed at improving energy literacy may be warranted. Scholars are  
5 recommending community-based programs as a way of stimulating communities to think  
6 about energy transitions and develop local solutions to global problems (Krumdieck et al.,  
7 2012). Whether awareness of the links between electricity use and climate change boosts  
8 acceptance of renewable energy amongst certain sections of the population remains to be  
9 seen. A study on community commitment to renewable energy revealed that people are more  
10 sensitive to local economic benefit rather than to global sustainability discourses (i.e. climate  
11 change) (Islar & Busch, 2016).

12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22 The pro-coal respondents support the development of renewable energy on selected  
23 sustainability criteria (despite being somewhat undecided on the climate change issue). They  
24 agree with several of the positive (and altruistic) aspects related to renewable energy  
25 development, in particular, responsibility to future generations; exploiting abundant  
26 renewable resources and dealing with the scarcity of fossil fuels. In addition, they are inclined  
27 to agree (with a mean score above neutral) that investment in renewable energy is a means of  
28 stimulating economic growth. As noted previously, this generalised support for renewables is  
29 in line with the literature (Stoutenborough et al., 2015; Dockerty et al., 2012) and scholars  
30 suggest that support for fossil fuels can co-exist with support for renewables due to economic  
31 gains (Jepson et al., 2012; Slattery et al., 2012). Hence, amplifying positive sentiment  
32 towards renewable energy should help build legitimacy for an energy transition in regional  
33 Australia.

34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60  
Almost half of the sample (44%) identify as ‘anti-coal’ and furthermore, they are  
opposed to all fossil fuels, not just coal. This may be due to sustainability concerns. These  
respondents are more inclined than the pro-coal group to agree with the statement “we are  
using up supplies of fossil fuels (i.e. coal, oil, gas) too fast”, suggesting that concerns about

1  
2  
3 resource scarcity could drive acceptance of an energy transition. Studies highlight that social  
4 acceptance is contingent on people's perceptions of demand for electricity and need to  
5 counter domestic resource scarcity (Yuan et al., 2017). Opposition to fossil fuels, in particular  
6 gas, warrants further investigation given that these resources are extensively utilised in  
7 Australia and diversity of supply is seen as crucial to energy security (Australian  
8 Government, 2015).

9  
10  
11 Our study examines the influence of political affiliation on social acceptance.  
12  
13 Analysis shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between political affiliation  
14 and support for fossil fuels and nuclear energy. Studies show that acceptance of nuclear  
15 power (which is a low-carbon technology) is correlated with political beliefs (Devine-Wright,  
16 2008; Tranter, 2011). Surprisingly, political affiliation is not associated with support for  
17 renewable energy, apart from marine power and geo-thermal energy. The cross-political  
18 support for nearly all forms of renewable energy conflicts to some degree with studies that  
19 associate political party membership with support for renewable energy (Cacciatore et al.,  
20 2012; Karlstrøm & Ryghaug, 2014). This study suggests that acceptance of mainstream  
21 renewable energy sources is now the norm and is no longer tied to 'left/right wing' voting  
22 patterns in Australia.

23  
24  
25 Despite the expanding literature on renewable energy, evidence of the impact of  
26 demographics on social acceptance is far from being consistent and conclusive to date.  
27 Hence, this study contributes to the literature. It shows that there is a significant association  
28 of gender with support for the more controversial and emerging energies technologies (i.e.,  
29 coal, nuclear, fuel cell technology and geothermal), with females showing less support than  
30 males for these sources. A large-scale European study also reveals gender effects, with  
31 women being more in favour of coal, oil, wind than men, and less favourable towards gas,  
32 nuclear, hydroelectric, biomass and ocean energy (Balta-Ozkan & Le Gallo, 2017). Another

1  
2  
3 study suggests that women are less supportive of geothermal than men (Polyzou et al., 2010),  
4 since women show more concern with the risks associated with new technologies than men  
5 (Siegrist, 2000) and environmental concerns exist in relation to geo-thermal energy (Dowd et  
6 al., 2011). Furthermore, a low level of acceptance for an energy technology tends to be  
7 linked to low levels of public awareness (Yuan, Zuo & Ma 2011), which may explain this  
8 study's finding in relation to geo-thermal energy. Given that Australia has considerable hot  
9 rock/geothermal energy potential (Bahadori et al., 2013), a possible gender divide needs to be  
10 addressed. Hence, there is potential to use commercial approaches to achieve higher  
11 acceptance of new, energy-related initiatives. This study suggests a positive correlation  
12 between education level and support for fuel cell technology, which is not surprising, since  
13 education is commonly associated with better knowledge of technology (Sommerfeld et al,  
14 2017b).

15  
16 This study has its limitations. The sample, although diverse, is a convenience sample  
17 of mostly urban North Queensland residents and hence is not fully representative of  
18 Queensland's population. This study is descriptive in nature and there is a need for  
19 explanatory research to validate key findings, particularly in relation to the link between  
20 political affiliation, gender, education and support for various energy technologies.  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

## 41 **CONCLUSION**

42  
43  
44  
45  
46 The Paris Agreement envisages a world where global electricity is no longer skewed towards  
47 fossil fuels. A rapid transition towards renewable energy is required to keep the increase in  
48 global average temperature to well below 2°C above pre-industrial levels. This paper argues  
49 that since fossil fuels underpin the energy system in Australia, we need to understand public  
50 attitudes towards non-renewable energy sources as well as towards renewable energy. If  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 support for fossil fuels is strong, and linked to climate-scepticism, then this could threaten the  
4 planet's sustainability. Underpinned by the academic concept of social acceptance, this  
5 empirical study examines people's beliefs and attitudes towards climate change, fossil fuels  
6 and renewable energy. The findings are promising. There is strong support for a range of  
7 renewable energy sources, in particular wind and solar; this support appears to be influenced  
8 by climate change beliefs and economic imperatives, and is no longer tied to 'left/right wing'  
9 voting patterns in Australia. However, there are significant differences in attitudes between  
10 consumers who are in favour of coal-fired power and those who are not. The study found that  
11 misconceptions about coal-fired power exist, where respondents downplay its environmental  
12 impacts and fail to see a link between electricity usage in the home (predominantly coal-  
13 fired) and climate change. Education or community-based programs could help address  
14 misconceptions about coal-fired power and promote renewable energy, which is essential if  
15 Australia is to make a transition to a low-carbon electricity market.  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

**REFERENCES**

- AEMO (2018) *Integrated System Plan. July 2018*. Retrieved from:  
[https://www.aemo.com.au//media/Files/Electricity/NEM/Planning\\_and\\_Forecasting/ISP/2018/Integrated-System-Plan-2018\\_final.pdf](https://www.aemo.com.au//media/Files/Electricity/NEM/Planning_and_Forecasting/ISP/2018/Integrated-System-Plan-2018_final.pdf)
- Agnew, S., & Dargusch, P. (2017). Consumer preferences for household-level battery energy storage. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 75, 609-617.
- Ansolabehere, S., & Konisky, D. M. (2009). Public attitudes toward construction of new power plants. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 73(3), 566-577.
- Araújo, K. (2014). The emerging field of energy transitions: progress, challenges, and opportunities. *Energy Research & Social Science*, 1, 112-121.
- Armstrong, R. A. (2014). When to use the Bonferroni correction. *Ophthalmic and Physiological Optics*, 34(5), 502-508.
- Ashworth, P., Hobman, E., & Shaw, H. (2011). The Australian Public's Preference for Energy Sources and Related Technologies. Retrieved from:  
<https://publications.csiro.au/rpr/pub?list=BRO&pid=csiro:EP123524&sb=RECENT&n=30&rpp=50&page=47&tr=4064&dr=all&dc4.browseYear=2012>
- Australian Government. (2015). *Energy White Paper*. Retrieved from:  
<http://ewp.industry.gov.au/>
- Bahadori, A., Zendehboudi, S., & Zahedi, G. (2013). A review of geothermal energy resources in Australia: current status and prospects. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 21(0), 29-34.
- Balta-Ozkan, N., & Le Gallo, J. (2017). Spatial variation in energy attitudes and perceptions: Evidence from Europe. *Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 81 (2), 2160-2180.

- 1  
2  
3 Batel, S., & Devine-Wright, P. (2015). A critical and empirical analysis of the national-local  
4 'gap' in public responses to large-scale energy infrastructures. *Journal of*  
5 *Environmental Planning and Management* 58(6), 1076-1095.  
6  
7  
8  
9 Batel, S., Devine-Wright, P., & Tangeland, T. (2013). Social acceptance of low carbon  
10 energy and associated infrastructures: A critical discussion. *Energy Policy* 58, 1-5.  
11  
12  
13 Bell, S. & Hindmoor, A. (2014). The Structural Power of Business and the Power of Ideas:  
14 The Strange Case of the Australian Mining Tax. *New Political Economy* 19 (3), 470-  
15 486.  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20 Biggs, C. (2016). A resource-based view of opportunities to transform Australia's electricity  
21 sector. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 123, 203-217.  
22  
23  
24 Bloomberg New Energy Finance (2018). *New Energy Outlook 2018*. Retrieved from  
25 <https://about.bnef.com/new-energy-outlook/>  
26  
27  
28  
29 Bronfman, N. C., Jiménez, R. B., Arévalo, P. C., & Cifuentes, L. A. (2012). Understanding  
30 social acceptance of electricity generation sources. *Energy Policy*, 46, 246-252.  
31  
32  
33 Byrnes, L., Brown, C., Foster, J., & Wagner, L. D. (2013). Australian renewable energy  
34 policy: Barriers and challenges. *Renewable Energy*, 60, 711-721.  
35  
36  
37 Burnes, B. (2017). After Paris: Changing corporate behaviour to achieve  
38 sustainability. *Social Business*, 7(3-4), 333-357.  
39  
40  
41  
42 Byrnes, L., Brown, C., Foster, J., & Wagner, L. D. (2013). Australian renewable energy  
43 policy: Barriers and challenges. *Renewable Energy*, 60, 711-721.  
44  
45  
46 Cacciatore, M. A., Scheufele, D. A., & Shaw, B. R. (2012). Labeling renewable energies:  
47 How the language surrounding biofuels can influence its public acceptance. *Energy*  
48 *Policy*, 51, 673-682.  
49  
50  
51  
52 Caldecott, B., Tilbury, J., & Ma, Y. (2013). *Stranded Down Under? Environment-related*  
53 *Factors Changing China's Demand for Coal and What this Means for Australian*  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 *Coal Assets*. Smith School of Enterprise and the Environment, University of Oxford.  
4  
5 Retrieved from <http://apo.org.au/node/37143>  
6  
7 Carr-Cornish, S., Ashworth, P., Gardner, J., & Fraser, S. (2011). Exploring the orientations  
8  
9 which characterise the likely public acceptance of low emission energy  
10  
11 technologies. *Clim. Chang.* 107, 549–565.  
12  
13 Carson, R. T., Louviere, J. J., & Wei, E. (2010). Alternative Australian climate change plans:  
14  
15 The public's views. *Energy Policy*, 38(2), 902-911.  
16  
17 Christoff, P. (1998). From global citizen to renegade state: Australia at Kyoto. *Arena Journal*,  
18  
19 (10), 113.  
20  
21 Claudy, M. C., Peterson, M., & O'Driscoll, A. (2012). "I like it, but I won't buy it":  
22  
23 *Exploring the Attitude-Behaviour Gap for Renewable Energy Adoption*. Paper  
24  
25 presented at the 37th Macromarketing Conference.  
26  
27  
28  
29 Climate Council of Australia (2017). *State of Solar 2016: Globally and in Australia*.  
30  
31 Retrieved from  
32  
33 <https://www.climatecouncil.org.au/uploads/4127a8c364c1f9fa8ab096b04cd93f78.pdf>  
34  
35 Coleby, A. M., Miller, D. R., & Aspinall, P. A. (2009). Public attitudes and participation in  
36  
37 wind turbine development. *Journal of environmental assessment policy and*  
38  
39 *management*, 11(01), 69-95.  
40  
41  
42 Commonwealth of Australia. (2017a). *Retirement of coal fired power stations*. Canberra:  
43  
44 Parliament of Australia. Retrieved from  
45  
46 [http://www.aph.gov.au/Parliamentary\\_Business/Committees/Senate/Environment\\_and](http://www.aph.gov.au/Parliamentary_Business/Committees/Senate/Environment_and)  
47  
48 [\\_Communications/Coal\\_fired\\_power\\_stations/Final\\_Report](http://www.aph.gov.au/Parliamentary_Business/Committees/Senate/Environment_and_Communications/Coal_fired_power_stations/Final_Report)  
49  
50  
51 Commonwealth of Australia. (2017b). *The Independent Review into the Future Security of*  
52  
53 *the National Electricity Market: Blueprint for the Future*. Canberra: Department of  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 the Environment and Energy. Retrieved from  
4  
5 <http://www.environment.gov.au/energy/national-electricity-market-review>  
6
- 7 Curry, T. E., Reiner, D. M., de Figueiredo, M. A., & Herzog, H. J. (2005). *A survey of public*  
8  
9 *attitudes towards energy & environment in Great Britain*. Cambridge, MA,  
10  
11 Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- 12  
13 Dare, M., Schirmer, J., & Vanclay, F. (2014). Community engagement and social licence to  
14  
15 operate. *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal*, 32(3), 188-197.
- 16  
17 Dear, M. (1992). Understanding and overcoming the NIMBY syndrome. *Journal of the*  
18  
19 *American Planning Association*, 58(3), 288-300.
- 20  
21  
22 Devine-Wright, P. (2007). Reconsidering public attitudes and public acceptance of renewable  
23  
24 energy technologies: a critical review. *Beyond Nimbyism: a multidisciplinary*  
25  
26 *investigation of public engagement with renewable energy technologies*, 15.  
27  
28 Manchester: School of Environment and Development, University of Manchester.  
29  
30 Available at: [http://www.sed.manchester.ac.uk/research/beyond\\_nimbyism](http://www.sed.manchester.ac.uk/research/beyond_nimbyism)  
31  
32
- 33 Devine-Wright, P. (2008). Reconsidering public acceptance of renewable energy  
34  
35 technologies: a critical review. In T. Jamasb, M. Grubb, M. Pollitt (Eds.), *Delivering a*  
36  
37 *Low Carbon Electricity System: Technologies, Economics and Policy*, Department of  
38  
39 Applied Economics Occasional Papers (No. 68) July 2008, Cambridge University  
40  
41 Press.  
42  
43
- 44 Devine-Wright, P. (2009). Rethinking NIMBYism: The role of place attachment and place  
45  
46 identity in explaining place-protective action. *Journal of community & applied social*  
47  
48 *psychology*, 19(6), 426-441.  
49
- 50 Dibb, S., & Roby, H. (2018). Powering community energy through more effective  
51  
52 segmentation practice. *Social Business*, 8(1), 3-12.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



- 1  
2  
3 Dimitropoulos, A.; Kontoleon, A. (2009). Assessing the determinants of local acceptability of  
4 wind-farm investment: A choice experiment in the Greek Aegean Islands. *Energy*  
5 *Policy*, 37, 1842–1854.  
6  
7  
8  
9 Djerf-Pierre, M., Cokley, J., & Kuchel, L. J. (2016). Framing renewable energy: A  
10 comparative study of newspapers in Australia and Sweden. *Environmental*  
11 *Communication*, 10(5), 634-655.  
12  
13  
14  
15 Dockerty, T., Appleton, K., & Lovett, A. (2012). Public opinion on energy crops in the  
16 landscape: considerations for the expansion of renewable energy from biomass.  
17 *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 55(9), 1134-1158.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22 Dowd, A. M., Boughen, N., Ashworth, P., & Carr-Cornish, S. (2011). Geothermal technology  
23 in Australia: Investigating social acceptance. *Energy policy*, 39(10), 6301-6307.  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
- Eagle, L., Hamann, M., & Low, D. (2016). The role of social marketing, marine turtles and  
sustainable tourism in reducing plastic pollution. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 107 (1).  
324-332
- Eagle, L., Low, D., Case, P., & Vandommele, L. (2015). Attitudes of undergraduate business  
students toward sustainability issues. *International Journal of Sustainability in Higher*  
*Education*, 16(5), 650-668.
- Edenhofer, O., & Flachsland, C. (2013). Transforming the Global Energy System: Pathways  
Towards a Sustainable Energy Supply. *Global Trends*.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics*. Sage Publications,  
London.

- 1  
2  
3 Fielding, K. S., Head, B. W., Laffan, W., Western, M., & Hoegh-Guldberg, O. (2012).  
4 Australian politicians' beliefs about climate change: political partisanship and  
5 political ideology. *Environmental Politics*, 21(5), 712-733.  
6  
7  
8  
9 Fleming, A., & Vanclay, F. (2011). Farmer responses to climate change and sustainable  
10 agriculture. In *Sustainable Agriculture Volume 2* (pp. 283-293). Springer  
11 Netherlands.  
12  
13  
14  
15 Friedl, C., & Reichl, J. (2016). Realizing energy infrastructure projects—A qualitative  
16 empirical analysis of local practices to address social acceptance. *Energy Policy*, 89,  
17 184-193.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22 Geels, F.W. (2012). A socio-technical analysis of low-carbon transitions: Introducing the  
23 multi-level perspective into transport studies. *Journal of Transport Geography*, 24,  
24 471–482.  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29 Hall, N., Ashworth, P., & Devine-Wright, P. (2013). Societal acceptance of wind farms:  
30 Analysis of four common themes across Australian case studies. *Energy Policy*, 58,  
31 200-208.  
32  
33  
34  
35 Hall, N., Lacey, J., Carr-Cornish, S., & Dowd, A. M. (2015). Social licence to operate:  
36 understanding how a concept has been translated into practice in energy  
37 industries. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 86, 301-310.  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42 Hall, N. L., & Taplin, R. (2008). Room for climate advocates in a coal-focused economy?  
43 NGO influence on Australian climate policy. *Australian Journal of Social*  
44 *Issues*, 43(3), 359-379.  
45  
46  
47  
48 Halder, P., Havu-Nuutinen, S., Pietarinen, J., & Pelkonen, P. (2011). Bio-energy and youth:  
49 Analyzing the role of school, home, and media from the future policy  
50 perspectives. *Applied Energy*, 88(4), 1233-1240.  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Han, C. C. (2014). Demarketing fear: Bring the nuclear issue back to rational  
4  
5 discourse. *Energy Policy*, 64, 183-192.  
6  
7 Hicks, J., & Ison, N. (2011). Community-owned renewable energy (CRE): opportunities for  
8  
9 rural Australia. *Rural Society*, 20(3), 244-255.  
10  
11 Hong, B.D., & Slatick, E.R. (1994). Carbon Dioxide Emissions Factors for Coal. Washington  
12  
13 DC: US Energy Information Agency (EIA). Retrieved from  
14  
15 [http://www.eia.gov/coal/production/quarterly/co2\\_article/co2.html](http://www.eia.gov/coal/production/quarterly/co2_article/co2.html)  
16  
17  
18 Islar, M., & Busch, H. (2016). “We are not in this to save the polar bears!”—the link between  
19  
20 community renewable energy development and ecological citizenship. *Innovation:  
21  
22 The European Journal of Social Science Research*, 29(3), 303-319.  
23  
24 Jacobsson, S., & Lauber, V. (2006). The politics and policy of energy system  
25  
26 transformation—explaining the German diffusion of renewable energy  
27  
28 technology. *Energy policy*, 34(3), 256-276.  
29  
30  
31 Jepson, W., Brannstrom, C & Persons, N. (2012). “We don’t take the pledge”:  
32  
33 environmentality and environmental skepticism at the epicentre of US wind energy  
34  
35 development. *Geoforum* 43(4), 851-863.  
36  
37  
38 Jones, R. E., & Dunlap, R. E. (1992). The social bases of environmental concern: Have they  
39  
40 changed over time? 1. *Rural sociology* 57(1), 28-47.  
41  
42  
43 Kahn, M. E. (2007). Do greens drive hummers or hybrids? Environmental ideology as a  
44  
45 determinant of consumer choice. *Journal of Environmental Economics and  
46  
47 Management* 54(2), 129-145.  
48  
49  
50 Kahn, M.E. and Morris, E. (2009). Walking the Walk: The Association Between  
51  
52 Environmentalism and Green Transit Behavior. *Journal of the American Planning  
53  
54 Association* 75(4) 389-405.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Kallies, A. (2016). A barrier for Australia's climate commitments: Law, the electricity market  
4 and transitioning the stationary electricity sector. *UNSWLJ*, 39, 1547.  
5  
6  
7 Karlstrøm, H., & Ryghaug, M. (2014). Public attitudes towards renewable energy  
8 technologies in Norway. The role of party preferences. *Energy policy*, 67, 656-663.  
9  
10  
11 Kim, Y., Kim, M., & Kim, W. (2013). Effect of the Fukushima nuclear disaster on global  
12 public acceptance of nuclear energy. *Energy Policy*, 61, 822-828.  
13  
14  
15 Krumdieck, S., Dale, M., & Page, S. (2012). Design and implementation of a community  
16 based sustainable development action research method. *Social Business*, 2(4), 291-  
17 337.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22 Liarakou, G., Gavrilakis, C., & Flouri, E. (2009). Secondary school teachers' knowledge and  
23 attitudes towards renewable energy sources. *Journal of Science Education and*  
24 *Technology*, 18(2), 120-129.  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29 Lior, N. (2012). Sustainable energy development (May 2011) with some game-  
30 changers. *Energy*, 40(1), 3-18.  
31  
32  
33 Lockie, S., Franetovich, M., Sharma, S., & Rolfe, J. (2008). Democratisation versus  
34 engagement? Social and economic impact assessment and community participation in  
35 the coal mining industry of the Bowen Basin, Australia. *Impact Assessment and*  
36 *Project Appraisal* 26(3), 177-187.  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41 McCright, A., Xiao, C. & Dunlap, R. (2014). Political polarization on support for government  
42 spending on environmental protection in the USA. *Soc. Sci. Res.* 48, 251–260.  
43  
44  
45  
46 Martin, N. J., & Rice, J. L. (2012). Developing renewable energy supply in Queensland,  
47 Australia: A study of the barriers, targets, policies and actions. *Renewable Energy*, 44,  
48 119-127.  
49  
50  
51  
52 Mercer, D., & Marden, P. (2006). Ecologically sustainable development in a 'quarry'  
53 economy: one step forward, two steps back. *Geographical Research*, 44(2), 183-203.  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Morrice, E., & Colagiuri, R. (2013). Coal mining, social injustice and health: A universal  
4  
5 conflict of power and priorities. *Health & Place* 19, 74-79  
6
- 7 Morrison, M., Duncan, R., & Parton, K. A. (2013). Targeting segments in the Australian  
8  
9 community to increase support for climate change policy. *Australasian Marketing*  
10  
11 *Journal* 21(4), 212-217.  
12
- 13 Moula, M. M. E., Maula, J., Hamdy, M., Fang, T., Jung, N., & Lahdelma, R. (2013).  
14  
15 Researching social acceptability of renewable energy technologies in Finland.  
16  
17 *International Journal of Sustainable Built Environment* 2(1), 89-98.  
18
- 19 Muenstermann, I. (2012). Australia's climate change, wind farming, coal industry and the  
20  
21 'big carbon plan': Mine coal, sell coal, repeat until rich. *Rural Society* 21 (3) 231-249.  
22
- 23 O' Brien, C. (2017, Nov 4). Adani: Premier Anastacia Palaszczuk withdraws Government  
24  
25 involvement in mine funding. *ABC News*. Retrieved from  
26  
27 [http://www.abc.net.au/news/2017-11-03/premier-annastacia-palaszczuk-veto-qld-](http://www.abc.net.au/news/2017-11-03/premier-annastacia-palaszczuk-veto-qld-government-adani-brisbane/9117594)  
28  
29 [government-adani-brisbane/9117594](http://www.abc.net.au/news/2017-11-03/premier-annastacia-palaszczuk-veto-qld-government-adani-brisbane/9117594)  
30  
31
- 32 Orton, F., & Nelson, T. (2015). Relief in sight: Why residential electricity costs in Eastern  
33  
34 Australia may fall between 2015 and 2020. *Economic Analysis and Policy* 48, 57-70.  
35
- 36 Paragreen, N., Woodley, A. (2013). Social licence to operate and the coal seam gas industry:  
37  
38 what can be learnt from already established mining operations? *Rural Soc.* 23 (1), 46–  
39  
40 59.  
41  
42
- 43 Petkova, V., Lockie, S., Rofle, J., Ivanova, G. (2009). Mining developments and social  
44  
45 impacts on communities: Bowen Basin case studies. *Rural Soc.* 19 (3), 211–228.  
46  
47
- 48 Pidgeon, N., & Demski, C. C. (2012). From nuclear to renewable: Energy system  
49  
50 transformation and public attitudes. *Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists* 68(4), 41-51.  
51
- 52 Pietsch, J. & McAllister, I. (2010) 'A diabolical challenge': public opinion and climate  
53  
54 change policy in Australia, *Environmental Politics*, 19:2, 217-236  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Polyizou, O.; Stamataki, S. Geothermal energy and local societies—A NIMBY syndrome  
4 contradiction? Proceedings of World Geothermal Congress, Bali, Indonesia, 25–29  
5 April 2010; pp. 1–10  
6  
7  
8  
9 Prno, J. (2013). An analysis of factors leading to the establishment of a social licence to  
10 operate in the mining industry. *Resour. Policy* 38 (4), 577–590.  
11  
12 Siegrist, M. (2000). The influence of trust and perceptions of risks and benefits on the  
13 acceptance of gene technology. *Risk Anal.* 20, 195–203.  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18 Slattery, M.C., Johnson, B.L., Swofford, J.A. & Pasqualetti, M.J. (2012). The predominance  
19 of economic development in the support for large-scale wind farms in the U.S. great  
20 plains. *Renew. Sustain. Energy Rev.* 16 (6), 3690–3701.  
21  
22  
23  
24 Solheim, E., Espinosa, P. & Stieglitz, N. (2018a). *Clean Energy Transition Needs to*  
25 *Accelerate*. Retrieved from [https://unfccc.int/news/clean-energy-transition-needs-to-](https://unfccc.int/news/clean-energy-transition-needs-to-accelerate)  
26 [accelerate](https://unfccc.int/news/clean-energy-transition-needs-to-accelerate)  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31 Solheim, E., Espinosa, P. & Stieglitz, N. (2018b). *Global Trends in Renewable Energy*  
32 *Investment*. Retrieved from [https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SmhAI-](https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SmhAI-WAcEMqR8R9oL5Fxn0cZ0kfY8Z/view)  
33 [WAcEMqR8R9oL5Fxn0cZ0kfY8Z/view](https://drive.google.com/file/d/1SmhAI-WAcEMqR8R9oL5Fxn0cZ0kfY8Z/view)  
34  
35  
36  
37 Sommerfeld, J., Buys, L., & Vine, D. (2017a). Residential consumers' experiences in the  
38 adoption and use of solar PV. *Energy Policy*, 105, 10-16.  
39  
40  
41  
42 Sommerfeld, J., Buys, L., Mengersen, K., & Vine, D. (2017b). Influence of demographic  
43 variables on uptake of domestic solar photovoltaic technology. *Renewable and*  
44 *Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 67, 315-323.  
45  
46  
47  
48 Spence, A., Poortinga, W., Pidgeon, N., & Lorenzoni, I. (2010). Public perceptions of energy  
49 choices: The influence of beliefs about climate change and the environment.  
50 *Environment and Energy* 21 (5), 384–407.  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Stoutenborough, J. W., Shi, L., & Vedlitz, A. (2015). Probing public perceptions on energy:  
4  
5 Support for a comparative, deep-probing survey design for complex issue domains.  
6  
7 *Energy* 81, 406-415.  
8
- 9 Sütterlin, B., & Siegrist, M. (2017). Public acceptance of renewable energy technologies from  
10  
11 an abstract versus concrete perspective and the positive imagery of solar  
12  
13 power. *Energy Policy*, 106, 356-366.  
14
- 15 Tranter, B. (2011). Political divisions over climate change and environmental issues in  
16  
17 Australia. *Environmental Politics*, 20(1), 78-96.  
18
- 19 Truelove, H. B. (2012). Energy source perceptions and policy support: Image associations,  
20  
21 emotional evaluations, and cognitive beliefs. *Energy Policy*, 45, 478-489.  
22  
23
- 24 United Nations (2015). Paris Agreement. New York, NY: United Nations. Retrieved from  
25  
26 <https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement/the-paris-agreement>  
27  
28
- 29 Van Ettinger, J.(1994). Sustainable Use of Energy: A Normative Energy Scenario: 1990-  
30  
31 2050. *Energy Policy*, 22, 111-118.  
32
- 33 Van Liere, K. D. V., & Dunlap, R. E. (1980). The social bases of environmental concern: A  
34  
35 review of hypotheses, explanations and empirical evidence. *Public opinion*  
36  
37 *quarterly*, 44(2), 181-197.  
38
- 39 Vorkinn, M., & Riese, H. (2001). Environmental concern in a local context: the significance  
40  
41 of place attachment. *Environment and Behaviour*, 33 (2), 249-263/  
42  
43
- 44 Walsh, B., van der Plank, S., & Behrens, P. (2017). The effect of community consultation on  
45  
46 perceptions of a proposed mine: A case study from southeast Australia. *Resources*  
47  
48 *Policy*, 51, 163-171.  
49
- 50 Wang, L., Awuah-Offei, K., Que, S., & Yang, W. (2016). Eliciting Drivers of Community  
51  
52 Perceptions of Mining Projects through Effective Community  
53  
54 Engagement. *Sustainability*, 8(7), 658.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Warren, C. R., Lumsden, C., O'Dowd, S., & Birnie, R. V. (2005). 'Green on green': Public  
4 perceptions of wind power in Scotland and Ireland. *Journal of Environmental*  
5 *Planning and Management*, 48(6), 853-875. doi: 10.1080/09640560500294376  
6  
7  
8  
9 Wüstenhagen, R., Wolsink, M., & Bürer, M. J. (2007). Social acceptance of renewable  
10 energy innovation: An introduction to the concept. *Energy Policy*, 35(5), 2683-2691.  
11  
12  
13 Yuan, X., Zuo, J., & Ma, C. (2011). Social acceptance of solar energy technologies in  
14 China—End users' perspective. *Energy policy*, 39(3), 1031-1036.  
15  
16  
17  
18 Yuan, X., Zuo, J., & Huisingh, D. (2015). Social acceptance of wind power: a case study of  
19 Shandong Province, China. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 92, 168-178.  
20  
21  
22  
23 Yuan, X., Zuo, J., Ma, R., & Wang, Y. (2017). How would social acceptance affect nuclear  
24 power development? A study from China. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 163, 179-  
25 186.  
26  
27  
28  
29 Zhang, A., & Moffat, K. (2015). A balancing act: The role of benefits, impacts and  
30 confidence in governance in predicting acceptance of mining in Australia. *Resources*  
31 *Policy*, 44, 25-34.  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36 Zyadin, A., Puhakka, A., Ahponen, P., Cronberg, T., & Pelkonen, P. (2012). School students'  
37 knowledge, perceptions, and attitudes toward renewable energy in Jordan. *Renewable*  
38 *energy*, 45, 78-85.  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 **Appendix A**  
4  
5  
6

7 Profile of sample  
8

Item	Percentage
<b>Gender (n=321)</b>	
Male	45.2
Female	54.5
Other/prefer not to say	0.3
<b>Age (n=321)</b>	
Under 20 years	5.3
20-29 years	22.1
30-39 years	22.7
40-49 years	22.1
50-59 years	15.3
60 years or over	12.5
<b>Work situation (n=319)</b>	
Full-time	50.8
Part-time	9.1
Seeking work	3.4
Retired	6.3
Home Duties	4.1
Student	19.7
Other	6.6
<b>Industry</b>	
Retailing and wholesaling	6.5
Electricity, gas, water or waste	0.3
Education	19.2
Mining	1.7
Agriculture	4.5

		Manufacturing	2.1
		House construction	4.1
		Health Services	10.3
		Arts, sports or recreation	2.7
		Not applicable	28.5
		Other	19.9
<b>Educational</b>	<b>qualifications</b>	No qualification	1.9
<b>(n=317)</b>		Year 10 or 12 certificate	18
		Trade Certificate/apprenticeship	6.9
		Certificate or Diploma	25.9
		Bachelor Degree	26.8
		Post-graduate degree	20.5
<b>Total household income (n=314)</b>		Nil	5.7
		Less than \$30,000	13.1
		\$30,000-\$64,000	17.2
		\$65,000-\$99,999	20.4
		\$100,000-\$149,999	17.2
		\$150,000-\$199,999	11.1
		\$200,000-\$249,000	2.9
		\$250,000-\$299,999	0.6
		Do not know/prefer not to say	11.8
<b>Housing ownership (n= 322)</b>		Owned (by you) outright	25.8
		Owned (by you) with a mortgage	26.4
		Being rented/shared	39.8

---

	Defence Housing Australia	1.9
	Housing Services	1.6
	Other	4.7
<b>Political affiliation (n=310)</b>	Australian Greens	10.6
	Australian Labour Party	20

---



---

<sup>i</sup> The chi-square test indicated that there was a significant association between support for solar power and income ( $\chi^2 [16, 311] = 38.295, p < .05, \text{Cramer's } V=.248$ ) but the test was not valid given that 70% of the cells had an expected frequency of less than five. The result, however, could be treated as a preliminary insight into social acceptance.

For Review Only