

1 **Learning from the Climate Change Debate to Avoid Polarisation on Negative Emissions**

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9 **Abstract**

10 This paper identifies critical lessons from the climate change experience to guide how
11 communications and engagement on negative emissions can be conducted to encourage
12 functional public and policy discourse. Negative emissions technologies present a significant
13 opportunity for limiting climate change, and are likely to be necessary to keep warming
14 below 2°C. While the concept of negative emissions is still in its infancy, there is evidence of
15 nascent polarisation, and a lack of nuance in discussion of individual technologies. We argue
16 that if negative emissions technologies are to be implemented effectively and sustainably, an
17 effective governance regime is needed; built on functional societal discourse and avoiding the
18 ideological baggage of the broader climate change debate or the controversies concerning
19 geoengineering. At its core, our argument is to avoid the *ideological bundling* of negative
20 emissions; this can be pursued directly and via careful selection of communication frames
21 and the use of non-partisan, trusted messengers. Whether these lessons are heeded may
22 determine if negative emissions are governed proactively, or are distorted politically, misused
23 and delayed.

24

25 **Climate change and negative emissions**

26 Scientific understanding and consensus on the causes and impacts of climate change is
27 growing; and the task of addressing global warming has become an urgent endeavour (IPCC,
28 2018). However, it remains highly politicised in many countries (Carmichael and Brulle,
29 2017, Hornsey et al., 2018). Where concerted global action is needed to slow the rate of
30 change to the climate, there is evidence instead of polarisation among some citizenries and
31 groups of policy-makers, for example in the United States, one of the largest absolute
32 contributors to climate change (Althor et al., 2016), the United Kingdom, Australia, and
33 Canada (Smith and Mayer, 2019).

34

35 The 2015 Paris Agreement on climate change has enshrined a goal to limit global warming to
36 well below 2°C, with an aspirational target of 1.5°C (United Nations Framework Convention
37 on Climate Change, 2015). However, current international commitments and policies to
38 reduce emissions indicate that global efforts are likely to fail to limit warming to ‘safe’ levels
39 (Fuss et al., 2014, Minx et al., 2018). As a result, there is increasing academic and policy
40 attention given to negative emissions technologies – approaches that can remove existing
41 greenhouse gases (GHG) from the atmosphere to compensate for historical emissions
42 (Hansen et al., 2016) or future failures in emissions reduction efforts (Field and Mach, 2017)
43 – as likely requirements for reaching net-zero emissions (Fuss et al., 2014, Rogelj et al.,
44 2015, Smith et al., 2016). As an emerging suite of technologies that has the potential to
45 become an important dimension of efforts to address climate change, negative emissions
46 options run the risk of following the path of the emissions reduction discourse into
47 polarisation and dysfunctional debate, fuelling poor policy choices. Now is the time to take
48 stock of the lessons from climate change – establishing the scientific evidence base and
49 informing the emissions reduction debate in particular, as well as other issues within climate

50 debates, including adaptation and geoengineering. By learning from this, we raise the
51 prospects of a functional discourse on negative emissions – that is, solutions focused,
52 constructive discourse where parties in conflict navigate challenges to secure a resolution
53 rather than polarising and endeavouring primarily to ‘defeat’ their opponents (Colvin et al.,
54 2015).

55

56 **The fuzzy taxonomy of negative emissions**

57 The term *negative emissions* describes both the act of removing GHG from the atmosphere
58 (Fuss et al., 2014), and the goal for GHG accounting to be net negative (i.e. more GHG
59 removed from the atmosphere than added) (Rogelj et al., 2015). *Negative emissions*
60 *technologies* are a range of approaches and technologies that can be deployed to meet the
61 goals of negative emissions. Key approaches include the use of bioenergy with carbon
62 capture and storage (BECCS), afforestation and reforestation, changed agricultural practices,
63 land management for soil carbon, biochar, enhanced rock weathering, direct air capture with
64 storage, and ocean fertilisation (Smith et al., 2016).

65

66 Negative emissions are positioned between mitigation – which involves reducing emissions
67 to limit effects on the climate system – and geoengineering – which is often described as
68 changing earth systems to limit effects of emissions, but without actually affecting the
69 emissions (Honegger and Reiner, 2017). While the broad mitigation agenda has focused on
70 reducing the amount of GHG emissions entering the atmosphere, negative emissions do not
71 focus on reducing emissions but instead on *removing* existing GHG from the atmospheric
72 stock (Heyward, 2013).

73

74 Geoengineering, broadly defined, is a deliberate human intervention in the climate system
75 intended to alleviate climate change (The Royal Society, 2009). In its more narrow
76 conception it is often conflated with *solar radiation management*, where techniques or
77 technologies are deployed to limit the amount of incoming radiation (Talberg et al., 2017).
78 Whether or not negative emissions technologies are considered forms of geoengineering can
79 depend on the technologies in question, as well as one’s perspective, ideology, and
80 motivations (Honegger and Reiner, 2017). However, geoengineering is often used as a ‘catch
81 all’ term that includes negative emissions and solar radiation management (Minx et al.,
82 2017), and they are often paired and interchanged in public dialogue. Here, we agree with the
83 view (Talberg et al., 2017, Heyward, 2013, Lenzi, 2018) that negative emissions and
84 geoengineering are most helpfully considered separate suites of approaches. Further, we
85 consider that discussion of negative emissions, too, can be most functional when each
86 negative emissions technology is considered independently. The technological, policy,
87 economic, environmental and public acceptance challenges and risks are likely to be unique
88 to each technology. The line of reasoning we follow is that the more we can emphasise
89 nuance and avoid broad brush categorisations, the better-equipped we will be for functional
90 and informed public discourse and effective governance.

91

92 **The state of negative emissions: accelerating research and risk-based governance**

93 Short of major advancements in global emissions reductions, the need for negative emissions
94 is likely to increase in urgency and extent. Despite this need and the growing body of
95 research on negative emissions (Minx et al., 2017, Minx et al., 2018), the potential impact of
96 negative emissions options on future climate change is uncertain (Minx et al., 2017). Most
97 major integrated assessment models (IAMs), such as those synthesised by the
98 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), include negative emissions in the form

99 of just two technologies – BECCS and afforestation/ reforestation (Smith et al., 2016). Other
100 negative emissions technologies by contrast have to date not been widely reflected in IAMs
101 and hence have received less attention.

102 Similarly, there are questions around the social and economic feasibility and risks of negative
103 emissions (Heck et al., 2018). Most risks, trade-offs, and opportunities are specific to
104 individual negative emissions technologies (Fuss et al., 2018), but there are broader concerns.
105 These include the potential for competition for land with conservation management and food
106 production, water availability, unintended adverse ecological consequences, and creating a
107 moral hazard by delaying urgent emissions reductions (Lenzi, 2018).

108 The nature of risks from negative emissions technologies are likely to be highly dependent on
109 the technologies themselves (Campbell-Arvai et al., 2017) in combination with the specifics
110 of how they are implemented and governed (Bellamy et al., 2019). For example, BECCS and
111 afforestation/ reforestation present substantial challenges for balancing potential large-scale
112 land use with achieving the UN sustainable development goals, in particular ensuring future
113 security of food, water and biodiversity protection (Fuss et al., 2018). Direct air capture with
114 storage, in contrast, is likely to generate fewer land use pressures, but carries complications in
115 the economics of research, development, energy use and deployment and management of
116 intellectual property (Nemet et al., 2018).

117

118 Systems to *govern* negative emissions similarly require substantial development. There are
119 indications of “governance by default” for negative emissions, where a patchwork of pre-
120 existing governance frameworks developed for issues other than negative emissions are
121 applied non-strategically and non-selectively to negative emissions endeavours as they arise
122 (Talberg et al., 2017) – a triumph of convenience over forethought. Specific to

123 geoengineering, some meaningful progress has been made, for example via proposed
124 principles (Rayner et al., 2013) or codes of conduct (Hubert et al., 2016) to guide research
125 and governance, especially concerning issues of procedural justice, transparency, and
126 inclusion.

127

128 Some distinct negative emissions technologies are currently explicitly governed in some
129 jurisdictions, such as afforestation, but governance of negative emissions as a cross-
130 technology endeavour is lacking. Where negative emissions technologies are included in
131 governance frameworks (variously as negative emissions or geoengineering) they are usually
132 framed as a risk to be managed (Galaz, 2012, Virgoe, 2009, Redgwell, 2011).

133 Nonetheless, the negative emissions agenda is young, in terms of both its science and
134 governance. There is an opportunity to encourage functional discourse that enables solutions-
135 focused debates and effective governance; but is the negative emissions discourse heading in
136 this functional direction?

137

138 **Tracking towards polarisation: negative emissions is very different from solar radiation**
139 **management**

140 Public awareness of negative emissions – both as a broad agenda and as a distinct set of
141 approaches – is low (Pidgeon et al., 2013, Wright et al., 2014, Bellamy et al., 2017, Braun et
142 al., 2018), but already there are signs of nascent polarisation in some fora (Lawford-Smith
143 and Currie, 2017).

144

145 Important debates concern the potential for negative emissions to be a ‘moral hazard’; that is,
146 a justification for continuing with business as usual or slowing mitigation efforts (Corner and

147 Pidgeon, 2014). For instance, the negative emissions agenda may reinforce the lock-in of
148 carbon-intensive energy systems through undermining the need for urgent decarbonisation.
149 Similarly, there is a concern that negative emissions may ‘crowd out’ resources necessary for
150 effective mitigation. This reflects similar concerns about climate change adaptation in the
151 early 1990s (Burton, 1994), where investment in adaptation was seen to diminish effort on
152 emissions reductions.

153

154 Variations on the ‘moral hazard’ framing are evident in the discourse on negative emissions
155 in the media (Nogrady, 2017) and popular science (Klein, 2015), and it is often used as a
156 justification to argue for a moratorium on geoengineering and/or negative emissions research
157 altogether. Although the moral hazard argument deserves consideration (Anderson and
158 Peters, 2016, Lenzi, 2018), its empirical basis is weak (Merk et al., 2018). A case in point,
159 today, climate change adaptation is typically seen as a necessary complement to mitigation
160 rather than a threat. Some recent studies focusing on solar radiation management suggest that
161 increased awareness of these novel technologies may support a greater appreciation of
162 technological risks and complexity (Merk et al., 2018) and therefore spur increased emissions
163 reduction efforts (Millard-Ball, 2012), or could simply result in no detrimental effect
164 (Fairbrother, 2016).

165

166 However, are we guilty here of ascribing to negative emissions findings from research on
167 social responses regarding solar radiation management? Discussion ostensibly on the whole
168 range of geoengineering and negative emissions approaches often ends up predicated on solar
169 radiation management (Lenzi et al., 2018) as the “paradigm example of geoengineering”
170 (Gardiner, 2013, Porter, 2017, ETC Group and Heinrich Böll Foundation, 2017). Does such
171 analogical reasoning hold? In such instances, the nature and extent of risks specific to solar

172 radiation management shape perceptions that inform attitudes toward negative emissions
173 technologies. Complexity and nuance are undermined, and instead an extreme (and false)
174 view of geoengineering and negative emissions as solar radiation management-like
175 endeavours might prevail. The tendency for this is especially problematic as research has
176 shown that, when prompted, members of the public can and do differentiate between different
177 types of technologies, with non-solar radiation management generally seen as more desirable
178 (Pidgeon et al., 2013, Braun et al., 2018, Lawford-Smith and Currie, 2017, Campbell-Arvai et
179 al., 2017).

180

181 We argue, based on these observations, that there is a risk that the negative emissions
182 discourse will become polarised, and that this is especially likely to occur through the
183 conflation of negative emissions with solar radiation management approaches. Solar radiation
184 management is already polarising (Ott, 2018). This matters, because polarisation can
185 undermine the capacity for developing a functional discourse and result in debate that is
186 focused on digging into entrenched positions at the expense of seeking solutions (Colvin et
187 al., 2015).

188

189 The direction the discourse on negative emissions takes as it gains greater public awareness
190 could be critical to shaping its future governance regime. This is both through the direct
191 influence of shaping the perception of governance actors and elites, and indirectly by public
192 opinion guiding the agenda of which technologies are to be governed and which will be
193 banned or left unregulated (Nemet et al., 2018, Beiser-McGrath and Bernauer, 2019). If
194 negative emissions are unavoidable realities of a future in which the worst impacts of climate
195 change are avoided, then maximising the benefits of negative emissions and minimising the
196 risks require an effective governance regime built on functional public discussion.

197

198 **Lessons from climate change for negative emissions**

199 Learning from the past may determine whether the negative emissions discourse follows a
200 path toward functional governance that opens opportunities for climate solutions and
201 sustainable development, or falls into the familiar trap of polarisation (Bolsen and Shapiro,
202 2017) that locks in poor outcomes. Here, we present a synthesis of three key, interrelated,
203 insights from the scholarship of climate change – spanning applied psychology,
204 communications, and governance – to guide how we can take an informed approach to
205 developing the negative emissions discourse in a functional way.

206

207 At its core, our argument is to avoid *ideological bundling*; this can be pursued directly and
208 via careful selection of communication frames and consideration of who delivers the
209 message. In this article, we look to the climate change experience broadly, though with a
210 focus on emissions reductions and public acceptance of climate science. By reflecting on
211 what led the climate change debate toward polarisation, we may be able to avoid the same
212 fate for negative emissions.

213

214 ***Avoid ideological bundling***

215 In some societies, climate change has become or is perceived to be, a domain of the political
216 ‘left’¹, where the commitment to action on resolving climate change is often bundled with
217 other progressive agendas (Bolsen and Shapiro, 2017). This is especially the case in the
218 Anglophone countries of the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia (Smith
219 and Mayer, 2019). This *ideological bundling* means that attitudes toward other, unrelated

¹ In this article we use the short hand terms ‘left’ and ‘right’ to reflect common discourse on political ideology, while recognising that these terms are inherently oversimplified and limited: ‘left’ approximates progressive political thought and ‘right’ approximates conservative political thought.

220 issues, will colour attitudes toward climate change. This bundling can then become a
221 heuristic for developing attitudes on climate change, rather than a deep engagement with
222 evidence and arguments.

223

224 Climate change entering the political arena means political candidates are likely to make
225 commitments around climate change in efforts to secure electoral success, and climate
226 change then can become a point of differentiation between political parties. This can inhibit
227 effective climate action (Kemp, 2017, Bailey et al., 2012). Such political positioning can
228 drive polarisation as the climate change agenda becomes part of a political ideology
229 informing voting preferences and policy-making (Unsworth and Fielding, 2014), or even a
230 social identity informing day-to-day beliefs, attitudes, and practices (Colvin et al., 2015).
231 This was the conclusion of a recent review of polling data in the US, which showed that since
232 the late 1990s, opinion on global warming has divided across partisan and ideological lines
233 (Egan and Mullin, 2017).

234

235 Once a topic becomes politically polarised, citizens' attitudes are likely to be influenced not
236 by the substantive detail of the topic, but instead by whether their political ideology is seen to
237 be 'pro' or 'anti' (Fielding and Hornsey, 2016). From here, research suggests that many
238 citizens do update their knowledge when presented with new information (Wood and Porter,
239 2019). However, those citizens and elites who are most active, engaged and vocal often
240 practice selective engagement with information that reinforces pre-existing beliefs (Guess
241 and Coppock, 2018). They do so by seeking perceived credible sources that may differ from
242 authoritative, scientific knowledge (Druckman and McGrath, 2019). As a result, individuals
243 interpret the 'reality' of an issue to fit a pre-existing ideology, rather than adapting beliefs in
244 light of evidence (Druckman et al., 2012, Bolsen and Shapiro, 2017). As a consequence,

245 support for research, programs, policy and other action can become unreliable, limiting
246 progress.

247

248 The public awareness-raising work of ex US Democrat vice-president Al Gore via the 2006
249 film *An Inconvenient Truth* may have helped drive politicisation of climate change in the US
250 from 2007 (Bolsen and Shapiro, 2017). This, in effect, bundled climate change with other
251 causes of the Democratic Party, situating the agenda for action on climate change as the
252 ground of the political ‘left’. As pushback against the ‘left’ climate agenda (Hoffarth and
253 Hodson, 2016), the insertion of climate change denialism into the agenda of the political
254 ‘right’ has important material and ideological dimensions. Specifically, while global warming
255 denialism is an ideological factor, much of the extensive material work of denialism (e.g.
256 report writing, lobbying, media appearance) has been underwritten by businesses and
257 individuals whose interests would be harmed by emissions reduction (Brulle, 2018, Downie,
258 2017).

259

260 A complexity for implementing negative emissions arises in the fact that there are existing
261 perceptions that proponents of geoengineering (including from the scientific community), and
262 by affiliation negative emissions, may be seen as both ‘techno-optimists’ and ideologically
263 aligned with the ‘right’ (Kintisch, 2010). Perceptions of, characterisations about, and
264 responses to this perceived ‘geoclique’ (a specific term coined by Kintisch (2010)) suggest
265 that there is a strong potential for negative emissions projects, via affiliation with ideas about
266 geoengineering, to become ideologically bundled with ‘right’ aligned ideologies. This could
267 result in ideologically-motivated pushback and resistance from ‘left’ aligned ideologies,
268 suggesting that if negative emissions become politically polarised, it could be the mirror

269 image of the emissions reductions debate, with advocates on the ‘right’ and opponents on the
270 ‘left’.

271

272 Environmental non-governmental organisations – as key political actors and ideological
273 signposts – do not have a consensus view on whether to support negative emissions as
274 climate change solutions, or oppose them as threats to biodiversity or a ‘moral hazard’
275 (Talberg et al., 2017). There is also a possibility that material interests may be either
276 threatened by negative emissions, for example where fisheries interests conflict with those of
277 ocean fertilisation, or enriched by them, for example where miners may pursue new
278 opportunities to produce the materials required for enhanced weathering (Buck, 2018).
279 Whether these groups decide to support or oppose negative emissions technologies may
280 fundamentally shape the way the agenda is positioned ideologically and may have significant
281 impacts on the ensuing discourse. So far, such positioning has not happened at scale across
282 broad ideologies and interests.

283

284 To avoid ideological bundling of negative emissions, it might be helpful to consider the broad
285 array of ideologies and interests and how these may accord with or oppose negative
286 emissions. Negative emissions offer a new social endeavour that does not have to be limited
287 by the ideological baggage of climate change, or for that matter, geoengineering.

288 Foregrounding opportunities such as the development of new industries and revitalisation of
289 old industries may open negative emissions to the ‘right’ aligned ideologies that have been
290 closed to climate change action. It may be instrumental to identify early the interests likely
291 harmed or aided by negative emissions, and to consider the impacts of any costs to those
292 interests as part of negative emissions measures (Rayner et al., 2013).

293

294 Meanwhile, the benefits from halting climate change for human and non-human wellbeing
295 and future generations may engender openness from ‘left’ aligned ideologies that are
296 otherwise resistant due to pre-existing views on the perceived ‘geoclique’ and
297 geoengineering. Negative emissions can be analysed across, and argued for, in terms of the
298 benefits that speak to a range of ideologies (e.g. Bain et al., 2016). This can challenge a
299 potentially dominant narrative that would position negative emissions as solely the domain of
300 a particular ideology, political party or social identity.

301

302 *Choose communication frames carefully*

303 The terms that are selected to communicate an issue, such as climate change or negative
304 emissions, invariably influence the way the issue is perceived. Framing is the process of
305 deploying groups of terms that build a desired narrative (Druckman et al., 2012). In this
306 process, a ‘frame’ is placed around some, but not all, aspects of an issue, emphasising them at
307 the expense of others. In the case of climate change and more specifically the dominant
308 discourse on emissions reductions, a number of frames have been used to shape perceptions,
309 ranging from the level of scientific consensus, to consequences for environment, national
310 security and public health, to morality and the politics of action (Nisbet, 2009, Bolsen and
311 Shapiro, 2017). A prevalent framing of climate change is that of *environment versus economy*
312 (Bolsen and Shapiro, 2017). In such a frame, action on climate change is posed as being
313 antithetical to economic prosperity (Klein, 2014), creating a dichotomy that causes fear and
314 reluctance to act (Bain et al., 2016). This contributes to the ideological bundling, whether
315 justified or not, of climate change with ‘left’ ideologies and against ‘right’ ideologies.

316

317 Adopting frames for climate change that emphasise patriotism or waste reduction engage
318 people with a ‘right’ aligned ideology whereas the framing of ‘climate justice’ polarises and

319 alienates them (Whitmarsh and Corner, 2017). Framing the future under climate change and
320 various action scenarios in terms of gains, rather than losses, is more likely to generate
321 support for climate policy (Spence and Pidgeon, 2010, Gifford and Comeau, 2011). Evidence
322 is mixed on the impact of emotion in climate change framing (Chapman et al., 2017), with
323 some studies indicating fear inhibits personal action on climate change (O'Neill and
324 Nicholson-Cole, 2009) and others finding the same for messages around policy efficacy
325 (Hornsey and Fielding, 2016).

326

327 In this context, what emerges is framing contests where rival groups of actors compete to
328 strategically frame debates to set agendas and draw attention to their concerns. In other
329 words, they engage in rounds of framing and counter-framing as they try to replace an
330 existing frame with their preferred frame (Sell and Prakash, 2004). A climate change related
331 example of this is the recent rise of the *co-benefits* frame for emissions reduction as a reaction
332 to the *environment versus economy* frame (e.g. The New Climate Economy, 2018). A salient
333 example is provided in the efforts by the US government under President Obama to link the
334 positive consequences of mitigation, such as reduced air pollution, with health benefits
335 (Bailey, 2018). Achieving the dominant frame is vital because of its capacity to shape the
336 discourse and in turn influence policy outcomes. Doing so is likely to be easier in the agenda-
337 setting phase when the public first encounters an issue because shaping initial perceptions is
338 easier than attempting to change perceptions later (Ecker et al., 2011).

339

340 We can take stock of these lessons from framing climate change during the prevailing efforts
341 for emissions reduction and take an informed approach to engaging with the emerging
342 negative emissions discourse and governance regime. The experience with promoting
343 emissions reduction tells us that we should employ language around negative emissions

344 carefully, considering the impacts of potentially loaded terms, such as ‘geoengineering’,
345 which we already know can create public resistance or polarisation (Pidgeon et al., 2013,
346 Braun et al., 2018, Lawford-Smith and Currie, 2017, Heyward, 2013). The power of framing
347 is highlighted by Corner and Pidgeon (2015) who found that framing geoengineering projects
348 as akin to natural processes increases public support for geoengineering. Research on
349 effective framing for negative emissions that is proactive rather than reactionary could steer
350 the discussion toward functional discourse by identifying and avoiding frames that cause
351 polarisation.

352

353 A potential challenge for early framing around negative emissions is the moral hazard frame.
354 There is evidence to suggest that the moral hazard argument about geoengineering is
355 appealing to the (UK) public: the public agrees that geoengineering presents a moral hazard
356 (Corner and Pidgeon, 2014). While the moral hazard argument is significant in varying
357 dimensions across geoengineering and negative emissions, and is deserving of judicious
358 examination, framing negative emissions first and foremost as a moral hazard potentially
359 constructs a false dichotomy where negative emissions technologies are viewed as an
360 alternative to emissions reduction. Instead, negative emissions could be framed as a
361 complement to meaningful mitigation actions, as many climate scientists argue that this is
362 what is required to limit future climate change (Hansen et al., 2016).

363

364 *Use non-partisan, trusted messengers*

365 It is not just the nature of the message (how it is framed, the information it delivers), but
366 likely also perceptions about the messenger that influence how the message is received.
367 Perceptions about the messenger’s ideology, identity, similarity to oneself, and the potential
368 for hidden agendas all can affect the efficacy of how a message is delivered and received

369 (Rabinovich et al., 2012, Hoffarth and Hodson, 2016, Fielding and Hornsey, 2016, Moser,
370 2010, Nisbet, 2018), and whether that message emerges bundled with an existing ideological
371 standpoint. For instance, perceptions among ‘right’ aligned people that some
372 environmentalists use climate change to covertly encourage more government control (i.e. a
373 ‘left’ agenda) drives ‘right’ aligned opposition to climate change policies. This is not
374 necessarily due to the substantive content of the policy. It is likely because the ideological
375 motives of those actors that advocate for these policies are mistrusted (Hoffarth and Hodson,
376 2016).

377

378 Public opinion on climate change has historically been swayed by political mobilization by
379 elites and advocacy groups rather than information-based science advocacy, especially
380 through the news media (Carmichael and Brulle, 2017). The platform through which
381 messages are shared, too, can affect the perception of the message. The ‘left’ or ‘right’
382 ideological orientation of news sources tends to predispose the nature of reporting to frame
383 climate change in terms that adhere with the publication’s ideology (Carvalho, 2007, Schmid-
384 Petri, 2017). Distrust in media sources due to perceptions of bias is a known barrier to the
385 public’s engagement with climate change (Lorenzoni et al., 2007), while the use of ‘right’
386 ideologically aligned news sources has been shown to decrease trust in scientists’
387 understanding of climate change (Hmielowski et al., 2013).

388

389 The quantity of media coverage on climate change has a direct effect on the aggregate trends
390 in public opinion about climate change. More media coverage means more concern among
391 the public regardless of whether the coverage is ‘positive’ or ‘negative’ (Carmichael and
392 Brulle, 2017). Meanwhile, for individuals with a strong interest and engagement in politics,
393 there is evidence that selection of media sources is increasingly becoming ideologically

394 driven (Davis and Dunaway, 2016) (though this is not the case for non-politically engaged
395 citizens (Garrett and Stroud, 2014, Guess et al., 2018)); online discussions about climate
396 change commonly occur in fora with little diversity of opinion (Williams et al., 2015). These
397 phenomena are linked, as after an issue has been exposed via the media, discussion in social
398 media increases (King et al., 2017). In both cases – seeking ideologically aligned media and
399 participating in online homogeneous discussions – the most engaged and vocal members of
400 the citizenry appear to seek messengers who reflect their own views. The more a member of
401 the citizenry gains an interest in an issue, the more likely they are to perceive balanced media
402 reporting as biased against their interests (Hansen and Kim, 2011) and the more likely they
403 are to seek news sources that reflect and support their position. The implication is that the
404 longer an issue has been in the public discourse via the media, the more likely it is to become
405 polarised.

406
407 As public awareness of, and engagement with, negative emissions grows, we can learn from
408 these lessons from climate change and work toward a functional discourse. When engaging
409 with stakeholders and the public, as is essential to developing a governance regime for
410 negative emissions (Bellamy, 2018, Rayner et al., 2013), it is helpful to consider what signals
411 the messenger will send to the audience. If the messenger is a known political figure, the
412 message will be affiliated with their identity group or ideology. A mix of messengers can
413 help avoid ideological bundling, especially when those messengers are not strongly
414 ideologically aligned or identified. Developing strategic alliances with individuals and
415 organisations across the ideological spectrum may counteract some of these trends toward
416 polarisation. Perceiving oneself to have shared interests and identity- and ideological-
417 coherence with a messenger affords more credibility to the messenger, and therefore the
418 message being delivered (Bolsen and Shapiro, 2017, Oldmeadow et al., 2003).

419

420 Avoiding recognisably partisan spokespersons is critical to counteract the forces acting to
421 polarise discourse (McDonald, 2016). Engaging with a range of news media sources across
422 ideologies (Carvalho, 2007) and partnering with key political and media elites who cross
423 traditional ideological divides (such as the Green Tea Coalition, which originated out of the
424 Atlanta Tea Party and the Sierra Club to advocate for renewable energy (Downie, 2019)) can
425 assist with challenging the perception that climate change is an issue of the political 'left'.

426

427 The same strategy could also steer the negative emissions discourse away from polarisation
428 (Lenzi et al., 2018). Such trans-partisan alliances can also open opportunities for employing
429 framing that leads to meaningful engagement from across the political spectrum. Genuine
430 broad alliances can facilitate development of shared understanding, which will allow for new
431 ways of engaging with negative emissions, rather than following the polarised path laid by
432 the climate change debate.

433

434 *Looking toward implementation*

435 In this article we have focused on lessons for the high-level public and policy discourse on
436 negative emissions, however as negative emissions projects near implementation we further
437 point to the rich and insightful literature on climate and energy transitions to guide
438 practicalities of just and effective deployment. For example, through attentiveness to the
439 social licence to operate (Bice and Moffat, 2014), procedural fairness (Lacey et al., 2017),
440 public participation (Colvin et al., 2016), justice (Sovacool and Dworkin, 2015), and the
441 economics of regional industry change (Burke et al., 2019). If negative emissions
442 technologies are deployed, this avenue is yet another point for learning from the past to
443 position for a functional future.

444 **Concluding remarks**

445 Based on our reflections on the climate change experience, we propose three key lessons for
446 negative emissions. Critically, ideological bundling should be avoided as negative emissions
447 enter the public discourse, and this can be supported through choosing communication frames
448 carefully and using non-partisan, trusted messengers.

449

450 We encourage researchers to continue to pursue rigorous and robust research into the
451 technical and social feasibility of negative emissions, and to consider as a priority the social
452 acceptability of negative emissions, and to be cognisant of the possibility that some
453 technological approaches may be outside of what is considered socially acceptable (following
454 Lacey et al., 2015). At the same time, we urge all with a voice in this emerging discourse to
455 consider the implications of how their research and viewpoints are communicated. For
456 instance, if the risks of a negative emissions technology are shown to outweigh the potential
457 benefits in a particular context or emissions trajectory, it is important that the scientific and
458 governance communities understand and publicly share this information. Therefore it is all
459 the more important that one brush is not used to paint all negative emissions technologies,
460 and the potential risks and benefits of each proposed technology are considered with
461 specificity and in context. This can help achieve open and functional discourse across the
462 disparate approaches.

463

464 These insights and arguments are predicated on an assumed willingness across constituencies
465 to engage constructively with the challenges and opportunities presented by negative
466 emissions. Deliberate efforts to seed misinformation by powerful interests may make
467 functional discourse and action on negative emissions beyond reach of the three lessons
468 outlined here (Nisbet, 2009, McDonald, 2016). Policy development will need to include

469 strategies that avoid the creation of lobbies comprised of those whose ideological or material
470 interests will be harmed by negative emissions. Nevertheless, the need for negative emissions
471 presents opportunities for economic innovation and growth. As a result, there is the potential
472 for the negative emissions agenda to engage across the ideological spectrum. Developing the
473 discourse and the emerging negative emissions governance regime in a functional and
474 inclusive way, not polarised, will be critical in mobilising the required resources if the
475 promise of negative emissions advocated by some scholars should prove true and necessary
476 to avoid the worst impacts of climate change.

477

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