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Not Here, Not Now, Not Me: How Distant Are Climate Futures Represented in Journalistic Reporting across Four Countries?

ABSTRACT: Among the reasons why climate change is not a major cause for concern for some members of the public is its psychological distance. Since journalistic media are important sources of information about climate change, this article analyzed how distant climate futures are portrayed in journalistic media across four countries (Germany, India, South Africa, and the United States; n = 1,010). Findings show that there are only few differences across countries; representations of distance rather varied with the type of climate future scenario portrayed. The most frequent scenarios in journalistic reporting were distant—especially regarding the temporal, spatial, and social dimensions.

Keywords: Environmental communication, Risk communication, Science and media

Context and Objective

Although climate change is one of the defining topics of our time [Ki-moon in United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 2008], for many members of the public and policymakers alike, it is (still) not a major cause for concern [e.g., Bell et al., 2021; Carmichael et al., 2017]. Although global concern has grown since 2013, there are differences in levels of concern across countries. For instance, in Germany, 71% see climate change as a major threat but in the United States (US) and South Africa, this number sits at 59% [Fagan & Huang, 2019]. There are many reasons why climate change is not a top priority for some, and part of the reason identified by researchers is that climate change impacts [i.e., climate change-related future scenarios or *climate futures*; see Guenther et al., 2022a] are often perceived as *psychologically distant*. That means that they are not seen as personally affecting individuals, are spatially and temporarily abstract, and uncertain [e.g., Carvalho, 2010; Duan et al., 2017; Jones et al., 2017; O'Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009].

Climate futures can be defined as situations, which – from a point of reference – lie in the future, carry an evaluation, and are related to the impacts of climate change [e.g., Guenther et al., 2022a; Kosow & Gaßner 2008]. They can be based on scenarios that are often used in expert/scientific projections (e.g., most famously the

41 *Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (IPCC) reports), but also on political ideas
42 (e.g., the *Green New Deal*), or in some cases even science fiction. There is more to
43 them than just describing “threats of chaotic disruptions to ecological, political and
44 economic systems” [Iossifidis & Garforth, 2021, p. 248]; rather, climate futures project
45 possible, probable, and sometimes even desirable scenarios. However, no matter
46 whether climate futures are doomsday scenarios or desirable outlooks [e.g., Fløttum
47 et al., 2014; Kumpu, 2013], in line with *construal level theory* [Trope & Liberman, 2010],
48 their psychological distance may not motivate people to act on negative scenarios or
49 work towards desirable ones [e.g., Duan et al., 2017, 2021].

50 In this context, journalistic media are still the main sources of information about climate
51 change for many members of the public [e.g., Murali et al., 2021; Newman et al., 2021],
52 connecting this global issue to the lives of audiences [e.g., Nisbet et al., 2018]. Thus,
53 the way climate futures are represented in journalistic media affects how audiences
54 understand them [e.g., Carmichael et al., 2017; Ruiu, 2021; Schäfer & Painter, 2020],
55 including how psychologically distant they perceive them to be [e.g., Duan et al., 2017].
56 For instance, (visual) representations of climate change as a distant threat and out of
57 individual control can positively affect feelings of powerlessness [e.g., O'Neill &
58 Nicholson-Cole, 2009] and negatively affect topic engagement [e.g., Ruiu, 2021].
59 Based on a lack of research on the content-perspective of distance, this study
60 assesses how distant climate futures are represented in journalistic media, by taking
61 both Global North and Global South countries into account (i.e., Germany, India, South
62 Africa, and the US). This allows for a more complete picture of how (distant) journalistic
63 media in different countries portray a global topic: future scenarios of climate change.

64

65 **Climate Change and its Psychological Distance**

66 To study the psychological distance of climate change, *construal level theory* has often
67 been applied [e.g., Jones et al., 2017; Scannell & Gifford, 2013]. This theory proposes
68 that if an event (or object, person, place) is perceived as psychologically distant, then
69 individuals develop rather abstract and general mental representations, which lack
70 details, and are described as a higher level of construal [e.g., Trope & Liberman, 2010].
71 The more concrete an event is perceived to be, the lower the level of construal.
72 Psychological distance concerns the link between events and individuals' (direct)
73 experiences; usually categorized as a temporal, spatial, social, and hypothetical
74 dimension [e.g., Liberman et al., 2002; Trope & Liberman, 2003].

75 These four dimensions can be seen as a continuum between psychologically
76 proximate and distant. The *temporal dimension* relates to the distance between a
77 perceiver's now and the time of an event (e.g., a specific climate future). The *spatial*
78 *dimension* relates to the geographical location of a perceiver and the location where
79 an event will happen, which can be near or far away. The *social dimension* relates to
80 the extent to which the event is familiar to the perceiver [e.g., between the self and
81 individuals/social groups associated with the event; see also Duan et al., 2017]. The
82 *hypothetical dimension* concerns the probability of an event occurring, with uncertain
83 events seen as more distant.

84 Studies on this topic that relate to climate change communication are usually framing
85 effect studies, which manipulate the distance of climate change impacts [see also

86 Duan et al., 2017]; in turn, this is then linked to the concept of psychological distance.
87 The (visual) studies mentioned earlier [e.g., O'Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009] can also
88 be considered here. Although researchers assume that messages/visuals with
89 local/proximate content, and thus those that should trigger a low level of construal, are
90 more effective compared to those with rather distant content when it comes to concern
91 about climate change, (personal) relevance, or intentions to engage in actions – and
92 found some support for this [e.g., Jones et al., 2017; Song & Bruning, 2016; Wiest et
93 al., 2015] – overall, the evidence is mixed [e.g., Altinay, 2017; Shih & Lin, 2017; Spence
94 & Pidgeon, 2010; van Valkengoed et al., 2023], or may be dependent on certain frames
95 [e.g., Chu & Yang, 2020], or only be applicable to certain audience segments [e.g.,
96 Halperin & Walton, 2018]. A typical example in support of this assumption is Scannell
97 and Gifford [2013], who found that representing local climate change impacts,
98 compared to global ones, increases audience engagement with the issue.
99 Despite some effort made on this topic in (framing) effect studies, in line with the goal
100 of the present study, there are only a few content analytical approaches relying on (or
101 implying) a construal level perspective. Here, as is often stated, a lack of congruence
102 between content and effect studies is present [e.g., AUTHORS]. Furthermore, the
103 studies that focus on (aspects of) how distant¹ climate change and climate futures are
104 represented indicate mixed findings. Duan et al. [2017], with a focus on US newspaper
105 images, found that climate change is portrayed as relatively concrete and with a high
106 level of specificity. In contrast, O'Neill's [2013] study found an abstract, distancing
107 visual frame in journalistic images. This is also supported by the fact that often
108 politicians and thus elites are shown visually. Climate change has also often been
109 represented as a global issue [e.g., Rebich-Hespanha et al., 2015], which adds to the
110 perceived level of abstraction. Future expectations about climate change in journalistic
111 media are often undefined [e.g., Hellsten et al., 2014]. Some researchers find
112 apocalyptic, global doom scenarios [e.g., Fløttum et al., 2014; Kumpu, 2013],
113 sometimes also called *impact, consequences, or Pandora's Box* frames that paint
114 negative outlooks and lack reporting on subsequent actions [e.g., Feldman et al.,
115 2017]; hence, they are also seen as showing a distant reporting. In contrast, desirable,
116 sustainable future imaginations, sometimes referred to as *opportunity or sustainability*
117 frames [e.g., Pan et al., 2019], seem to be less distant because they paint more
118 concrete scenarios and ask people to act (including individual behavior).
119 As emphasized earlier, in this study, we specifically focus on climate futures. Such
120 futures usually include a path description and emphasize elements of a possible future,
121 which is in line with construal level theory as they commonly employ a time frame, have
122 a spatial scope, include (social) actors, and contain hypothetical/plausible elements
123 [see also Guenther et al., 2022a; Kosow & Gaßner 2008]. Since there are only a few
124 studies that apply the concept of (psychological) distance to journalistic content on
125 climate futures (or can be interpreted as such), since they predominately focus on
126 Western countries (especially the US), and since they show mixed findings, the first

¹ Since the concept of 'psychological distance' describes a subjective concept that is not suitable when describing media content, we rather refer to 'distance' in this context.

127 research question (RQ1) of this paper is: *How distant do journalistic media across four*
128 *countries (i.e., Germany, India, South Africa, and the US) report on climate futures?*
129 When answering this question, we propose comparing across countries and across
130 types of scenarios (e.g., ecological, economic), for several reasons.
131 First of all, taking a comparative perspective on countries in the Global North and
132 Global South is more inclusive, as it acknowledges that media systems and (national)
133 journalistic cultures differ, as do the resources available to dedicate coverage to
134 climate change-related issues [e.g., Comfort et al., 2020; Ngyuen & Tran, 2019;
135 Schäfer & Painter, 2021].² For instance, Hase et al. [2021] found that countries of the
136 Global South show a tendency to report less frequently on climate change than Global
137 North countries; at the same time, they focus more on societal dimensions of the issue,
138 such as challenges and implications for society. For Indian newspapers it was found
139 that climate change is often linked to national contexts and events [e.g., Billett, 2010].
140 Findings like these could mean that journalists in the Global South report less distantly
141 compared to countries of the Global North. Nevertheless, there are aspects of climate
142 change reporting that seem similar around the globe, such as when it comes to the
143 attention given to climate change or the events that trigger reporting [e.g., Conferences
144 of the Parties (COPs), IPCC reports; e.g., Painter & Schäfer, 2018]. Due to the
145 transnational nature of climate change and its research and policy, there could be
146 strong similarities in reporting on climate futures across countries [e.g., Guenther et
147 al., 2022a; Wessler et al., 2016]. However, although countries in the Global South are
148 supposed to be more vulnerable to climate change [e.g., Germanwatch, 2021], there
149 is a lack of research on them – especially in a comparative perspective [see also
150 Comfort et al., 2020, 327; Metag, 2016; Ngyuen & Tran, 2019; Schäfer & Painter, 2020;
151 Schäfer & Schlichting, 2014]. Thus, the second research question (RQ2) is: *Do media*
152 *across four countries (i.e., Germany, India, South Africa, and the US) differ regarding*
153 *how distantly they report on climate futures?*
154 Secondly, taking on a comparative perspective across types of scenarios accounts for
155 the fact that most research that focusses on representations of climate change only
156 takes changes in the ecosystem (e.g., rising temperatures, increase of extreme
157 weather events) into account. Climate futures are, however, not just rooted in science
158 (e.g., IPCC reports with their representative concentration and shared socioeconomic
159 pathways), but also in socio-political (e.g., social (in)equality, migration, or a nation's
160 political system), economic (e.g., strategies of companies/industry, or a nation's
161 economy), or even individual ideas (e.g., individual habits or lifestyles) [see also
162 Iossifidis & Garforth, 2021], especially since the Paris Agreement in 2015 which helped
163 broaden the topic [see also Guenther et al., 2022a]. Such scenarios could rely on
164 different bases of knowledge and provide different evaluations. Accounting for different
165 types of scenarios thus allows for a more thorough assessment of how distantly climate
166 futures are represented journalistically. Consequently, the third research question

² Besides media contexts, social contexts (e.g., political and economic systems, number of people denying climate change) need to also be considered in country comparisons.

167 (RQ3) is: *What is the connection between types of scenarios and distant reporting on*
168 *climate futures?*

169

170 **Method**

171 **Sample Selection and Description**

172 To answer the RQs, the present paper mainly relies on a quantitative content analysis.
173 To achieve an inclusive sample selection, for the Global North, we chose Germany
174 and the US, and for the Global South, we chose India and South Africa. These four
175 countries—representatives of four continents—differ in many aspects [e.g., developed
176 vs. developing countries; for climate risks vulnerability, see Germanwatch, 2021; for
177 concern about climate change, see Fagan & Huang, 2019], but they seem comparable
178 due to their democratic and media systems, global power, and high emissions [see
179 also Brüggemann & Engesser, 2017]. Germany and the US are two leading Western
180 countries; India and South Africa are part of the BRICS group and thus among the
181 world's fast-growing economies. For each country, due to their (combined) reach [e.g.,
182 Newman et al., 2021; see also Murali et al., 2021] and availability in databases, we
183 chose between eleven and fifteen media outlets per country: including print quality
184 newspapers, print regional newspapers, tabloid newspapers, weekly
185 newspapers/magazines, and online newspapers (see Table 1, for an overview). An
186 effort was made to select leading outlets [see also Hase et al., 2021] based on their
187 reach, including different ideological leanings [see also Duan et al., 2017] where
188 applicable. For the regional newspapers, geographic spread was considered (i.e., east,
189 north, west, and south regions of the respective countries). The German media
190 comprise German-language outlets (as this is the official language of the country), the
191 other countries comprise English-language outlets. It should be mentioned that in each
192 of the other countries, the English language and English-language media have a
193 prominent place, although there are media available in other languages [e.g., Spanish,
194 Hindi, Afrikaans, Zulu]. Most importantly this is the case for India and South Africa.
195 However, the general availability of English-language media was part of why these
196 countries were chosen in the first place.

197 To download relevant content, i.e., coverage on climate change, validated search
198 strings were used, which were based on literature reviews and search term mining [for
199 detailed information, see AUTHORS]: The search strings were “atleast2 climat* change
200 AND (climat* change OR global warm* OR greenhouse effect OR greenhouse gas*)”
201 (precision = .80; recall = .80; $F1 = .80$) for English and “Klimawandel* OR globale
202 Erwärmung OR Treibhauseffekt* OR Erderwärmung OR Klimakrise” (precision = .79;
203 recall = .97; $F1 = .87$) for German outlets. Since we worked with two languages, two
204 different search strings had to be used: a simple translation from one language into the
205 other did not yield appropriate values for precision and recall. Hence, the two search
206 strings are not equivalent, but the same method to generate and validate them was
207 applied [see AUTHORS].

208 Due to the large number of media outlets included in this study, we relied on several
209 databases (i.e., Factiva, LexisNexis, FAZ Bibliotheksportal, Sabinet SA Media, and the
210 Online Media Monitor) and considered January 2017–December 2020 (i.e., four years)
211 a relevant time frame in which climate change gained high visibility in the media (for

212 instance, due to the aftermath of the Paris Agreement and global climate protests).
213 After checking for duplicates, the sample contained 56,394 articles. The articles were
214 not spread equally across countries and media outlets (see Table 1). This finding was
215 to be expected, since tabloid newspapers or media in countries such as South Africa
216 report less often on climate change [see also Hase et al., 2021].
217 (Insert Table 1 about here)

218

219 **Content Analytical Approaches**

220 This article reports on research that was conducted as part of a larger project; here we
221 focus mainly on findings of our manual content analysis. A dictionary-derivation
222 approach was applied to identify articles that likely contained a climate change-related
223 future scenario [for more information, see AUTHORS]: we started with qualitative
224 coding and extraction of climate future text passages of a random sample of 700
225 articles (across countries). The most common words (1,000 for English and 2,000 for
226 German articles) were assessed and evaluated by two individuals involved in the
227 research project. Work of colleagues [e.g., on journalists' use of temporal references
228 or reporting on climate change; Baden & Stalpouskaya, 2015; Wozniak et al., 2021]
229 and translations of words between the two languages included were considered when
230 developing the dictionaries. The two dictionaries (191 English and 210 German
231 (combinations of) words) were tested, evaluated, validated, and normalized; they
232 assigned a relevance-score to each article, based on the matches regarding each
233 dictionary term (which were not weighted; each occurrence was counted once per
234 article; for more information, see AUTHORS). Hence, the dictionaries determined the
235 ranking of articles per country. With the goal to manually code 1,000 articles, at the
236 end, in total, $n = 1,010$ articles were coded.

237 The codebook used for the actual analysis contained formal (e.g., *type of article*, *broad*
238 *topic*) and content-related categories. The latter assessed climate future scenario(s)
239 presented in the articles: either climate/ecosystem (e.g., rising temperatures, increase
240 of extreme weather events), economic system (e.g., companies, industry (sectors),
241 economy of a nation (in general), socio-political system (e.g., social (in)equality,
242 migration, or political system of a nation in general), or individual scenarios (e.g.,
243 individual habits or lifestyles). For each identified scenario, evaluations (e.g., none,
244 negative, ambivalent, or positive) and categories with a reference to (psychological)
245 distance [see also Duan et al., 2017]³ were integrated:

- 246 • the *time frame* (i.e., unclear or on a continuum between near (this or next
247 year) and distant (50+ years), related to *temporal distance*),
- 248 • the *scope* (i.e., unclear or on a continuum between near (regional/local)
249 and distant (global), related to *spatial distance*),

³ In contrast to many of the categories in Duan et al. [2017], who focused on visuals, we did not just assess if information about these dimensions was given but also to what degree it can be assessed on a continuum between close or distant.

- 250
- the *actors* associated with this scenario (e.g., for all actors present: distant/elite actors such as scientists or political actors and close actors such as citizens/individuals, related to *social distance*),
 - and the *plausibility* (i.e., unclear or on a continuum between very unlikely to very likely, related to *hypothetical distance*).
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255 We allowed for more than one scenario to be present in an article; hence, all
256 evaluations and categories with a reference to (psychological) distance could be coded
257 several times in an article. The codebook used in this study is available online in
258 AUTHORS.

259 Three coders were thoroughly trained in ten training sessions over four months, to use
260 the codebook. During that time, the codebook was adjusted to increase understanding
261 and assure that all coders used it the same way. A number of articles were coded in
262 these sessions, first together, then independently, with exhaustive comparisons and
263 discussions. Intercoder reliability was assessed after 45 articles were coded in
264 additional sessions, with two random samples of 15 and 30 articles, respectively. Using
265 Krippendorff's Alpha (and Holsti, as a check), the coders reached satisfactory results,
266 with the average scores for the formal ($\alpha = .93$; CR = .97) and the content-related
267 categories (scenarios and categories: $\alpha = .85$; CR = .90; actors: $\alpha = .83$; CR = .93) in
268 an acceptable range. The authors are aware that they detached from the 10% criterion
269 for testing intercoder reliability; however, they still assured that the training was
270 complex, thorough, and successful. After intercoder reliability was established, there
271 were regular check-ins, to discuss progress and problems.

272

273 **Results**

274 Most of the articles in the sample were published in 2019 ($n = 329$; 33%), fewer were
275 published in 2018 ($n = 252$; 25%), 2017 ($n = 217$; 22%), and 2020 ($n = 212$; 21%). As
276 Table 1 indicates, the largest share of articles was from online newspapers ($n = 544$;
277 54%), with print quality newspapers ($n = 261$; 26%) and print regional newspapers (n
278 = 171; 17%) as second and third. Furthermore, most articles in the sample were coded
279 as an original journalistic article ($n = 891$; 88%), having consequences of climate
280 change ($n = 687$; 68%), mitigation ($n = 193$; 19%), or adaptation ($n = 80$; 8%) as a
281 broad topic. In total, in the 1,010 articles, 1,262 future scenarios were reported on.
282 Regarding RQ1 (see also Table 2), climate/ecosystem scenarios such as rising
283 temperatures, sea level rise, an increasing number of extreme weather events, or
284 habitat loss of plant and animal species were most dominant (in all countries), followed
285 by economic scenarios such as those referring to individual companies, industry
286 sectors [e.g., agriculture, tourism], or a nation's economy in general and socio-political
287 scenarios [e.g., social (in)equality, migration (climate refugees), supply of drinking
288 water and food]. There were only a few individual scenarios; hence, scenarios that
289 address individual habits or lifestyle. Most scenarios were negatively evaluated. When
290 it came to the time frame, it was usually unclear or far in the future (i.e., more than 50
291 years) – indicating a high level of distance. Regarding the geographic scope, this was
292 most commonly global or distant, again indicating a high level of distance. For social
293 distance, many frequent actors were rather distant (i.e., scientific or political actors)
294 while some were less distant (i.e., citizens/individuals). Lastly, the media in the sample

295 predominantly assessed climate futures' plausibility as (very) likely, showing the lowest
296 level of distance across the four dimensions.

297 Regarding RQ2, there was little variation across countries. In all countries,
298 climate/ecosystem scenarios were most common; economic and socio-political
299 scenarios were slightly more frequent in Indian and South African, compared to US
300 and German, media (for values and statistical tests, see Table 2). The tendency of
301 most scenarios to be negatively evaluated was less dominant in South African media.
302 The countries only slightly varied regarding the time frame, but there was a weak
303 tendency of German and US media to report with more temporal distance than those
304 in India and South Africa (for a visualization of categories related to distance, see
305 Figure 1). There was more variation regarding the geographic scope, which more so
306 in German media was most commonly global or distant. US media seemed to include
307 citizens/individuals more often than the other countries. At the same time, however,
308 US media – as with the other countries – also most frequently included the
309 perspectives of scientific actors, which are seen as rather socially distant. Hence,
310 Figure 1 shows that there are not many differences between countries overall.
311 Nonetheless, across all countries, media assessed climate futures' plausibility as
312 (very) likely, but slightly more so in Indian and South African media.

313 (Insert Table 2 about here)

314 (Insert Figure 1 about here)

315 With reference to RQ3, while there was little variation across countries, how
316 distant media reported on climate futures seemed to be slightly more dependent on
317 the type of scenario (see Table 3 and Figure 2 for the categories related to distance).
318 For the climate/ecosystem scenarios, which were mostly negative scenarios, the time
319 frame was often either unclear or far in the future (50+ years), the scope was often on
320 other parts of the world or was global, and the plausibility was most frequently likely
321 (i.e., use of the conjunctive). The main actors associated were scientists. In total,
322 climate/ecosystem scenarios were thus the most distant (and thus in Figure 2, they
323 represent the outer circle). The economic scenarios were not as distant: their
324 evaluation was more mixed, with negative ones most common but ambivalent and
325 positive evaluations were also present. The time frame was often unclear or concerned
326 the next 5–30 years, the scope was frequently local or national (while still most often
327 global), and the plausibility assessed as likely and, more often, very likely. Hence, all
328 these categories showed, at least to some degree, a slightly lower level of distance.
329 The most dominant actors associated with these scenarios were nevertheless distant:
330 local/national or international political actors, scientists, and economic actors.

331 Similarly, socio-political scenarios were not as distant as climate/ecosystem scenarios.
332 Although they had the highest frequency of negative evaluations and unclear time
333 frames, often a focus on other parts of the world or a global scope, and were assessed
334 as rather likely, these scenarios more often than before included citizens/individuals
335 as actors. However, the least distant, but at the same time least frequently reported
336 on, scenarios were the individual ones, which also showed mixed evaluations. They
337 represented many different time frames, often with a local or national scope, mostly
338 represented as very likely. These scenarios are the ones that most frequently linked to

339 citizens/individuals and are thus not seen as distant as the other three types of
340 scenarios.

341 (Insert Table 3 about here)

342 (Insert Figure 2 about here)

343

344 **Discussion**

345 Although this varies across the globe [e.g., Fagan & Huang, 2019], climate change is
346 (still) not a major cause for concern for many members of the public [e.g., Bell et al.,
347 2021; Carmichael et al., 2017]—with psychological distance among the potential
348 reasons for that. Since journalistic media are influential sources about the topic, this
349 article analyzed how distant media across four countries reported on climate futures.

350 This study found that across the Global North and Global South countries under
351 investigation in this study, there was only little variation in how distantly they reported
352 on the topic. Ecosystem scenarios dominated in all countries, but slightly more so in
353 the Global North countries Germany and the US. Indian and South African media,
354 hence those from the Global South, showed a slight tendency to more frequently cover
355 economic and socio-political scenarios – probably also the reason why, in total, these
356 two countries from the Global South had less distant reporting regarding time frames,
357 scopes, and plausibility. Altogether, Global South countries show at least a tendency
358 to exhibit less distant reporting on climate futures [see also Hase et al., 2021, for their
359 findings on societal dimensions in Global South reporting]; however, the lack of more
360 country-specific differences may also be related to the transnational character of
361 climate change and climate policy [e.g., Guenther et al., 2022a; Wessler et al., 2016].
362 At the same time, the lack of cross-country differences may also be related to the
363 codebook used in the present study, which may have used categories too broad to
364 detect country differences. In total, nevertheless, climate futures portrayed in
365 journalistic media seem to be presented rather distant, which could potentially
366 complicate linking them to daily life experiences of members of the audience.

367 Comparing the countries, it seemed that the type of climate future scenario was
368 connected to how distantly they were represented journalistically. Thus, not all climate
369 change-related future scenarios are equally distant. References to the
370 climate/ecosystem are the most distant. Due to their scientific base, they often refer to
371 the years 2050 or 2100; due to their high frequency, they add to the perception that
372 climate futures are removed from the daily life experiences of individuals [for similar
373 explanations, see Carvalho, 2010; Duan et al., 2017; O'Neill & Nicholson-Cole, 2009].
374 Such a reporting is possibly not beneficial for topic engagement [e.g., Ruiu, 2021], as
375 it probably leads to abstract and general mental representations in individuals [e.g.,
376 Trope & Liberman, 2003, 2010]; however, these scenarios seem to follow the logic of
377 scientific assessment most closely. Climate research rather draws scenarios for years
378 such as 2050 or 2100, but less so for the immediate future to come.

379 A more concrete reporting was identified for both economic (e.g., closer scope and
380 time frame) and socio-political (e.g., more certainty) climate futures; at the same time,
381 they are not as frequently reported on as the climate/ecosystem scenarios. Individual
382 scenarios are the least distant, but they are almost absent from coverage. Such
383 scenarios, also due to their focus on individuals, could probably motivate people to act

384 [e.g., Jones et al., 2017; Scannell & Gifford, 2013; Wiest et al., 2015] because they
385 more strongly relate to everyday life. Hence, if journalists wanted to contribute to
386 making climate change more of a priority to their audiences and make them act on
387 negative scenarios or work towards desirable ones, reporting on climate futures could
388 be altered along the temporal, spatial, and social dimensions of (psychological)
389 distance – independent of the type of scenario represented. The hypothetical
390 dimension is the only one that showed a low level of distance in this sample: climate
391 futures are represented as (rather) certain. Naturally, journalists are dependent on their
392 sources and information provided; nevertheless, they could hold those in powerful
393 positions accountable and ask them to state, comment, or judge on the immediate
394 climate future.

395 The findings of this study are to some degree in line with some earlier studies on
396 (visual) representations of climate change and climate futures [e.g., Fløttum et al.,
397 2014; Guenther et al., 2022a; Hellsten et al., 2014; Kumpu, 2013; O’Neill, 2013;
398 Rebich-Hespanha et al., 2015], but to some degree in contrast to a study applying
399 construal level theory to visuals in newspapers [e.g., Duan et al., 2017]. However, in
400 the study by Duan et al. [2017], many categories assessed if information was given; in
401 the present study, we assessed if this information can be seen as rather proximate or
402 distant, on a continuum. Thus, we believe that the present study can be seen as an
403 extension of the coding of textual content. We also added a comparison across
404 countries.

405 Nevertheless, the present study also has some notable limitations. An effort was made
406 to include several different media in countries of both the Global North and Global
407 South; however, selecting only four countries, two languages, and focusing on print
408 and online journalism is a limitation. Certainly, relying on human coders meant that
409 only a small number of articles from a bigger sample could be analyzed in detail.
410 Furthermore, including a variety of different journalistic media and using several
411 databases meant the study had to rely on a rather small time frame. Not all media
412 sources are represented equally (cf. Table 1) and certainly the low number of articles
413 in tabloid media and weekly outlets is a further limitation. In addition, some
414 operationalizations are still up for debate; for instance, who counts as a distant
415 compared to a close actor [e.g., local and national political actors].

416 Future research could link the findings of this study back to audiences and test if real
417 journalistic content coded as distant (as compared to manipulated stimuli) is indeed
418 leading members of the audience to assess climate change as an abstract topic on
419 which they show limited intentions to act, as well as if representing information as less
420 distant can counter this effect. A recent review [van Valkengoed et al., 2023] shows
421 that distance may not be the key variable to explain climate (in)action; nevertheless,
422 journalistic media still portray climate futures as *not here, not now, not me*, although
423 extreme weather events such as draughts and heat waves already regularly affect
424 people around the globe.

425

426

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428

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443 [work/#:~:text=In%20Pew%20Research%20Center%20surveys,great%20](https://www.pewresearch.org/global/2021/09/14/in-response-to-climate-change-citizens-in-advanced-economies-are-willing-to-alter-how-they-live-and-work/#:~:text=In%20Pew%20Research%20Center%20surveys,great%20deal%20or%20some%20amount.)
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610 **Table 1.** Sample and study sample description

Media	Full sample (<i>N</i> = 56 394)		Study sample (<i>n</i> = 1 010)	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Germany	32 642	58	243	24
<i>Print quality newspapers</i>				
Süddeutsche Zeitung	5 618	17	20	8
Welt	2 241	7	3	1
taz	2 964	9	15	6
Frankfurter Allgemeine Zeitung	3 049	9	37	15
<i>Print regional newspapers</i>				
Leipziger Volkszeitung	1 514	5	17	7
Hamburger Abendblatt	1 897	6	24	10
Allgemeine Zeitung	2 156	7	9	4
Stuttgarter Zeitung	3 221	10	7	3
<i>Tabloid newspapers</i>				
Bild	201	1	1	.4
<i>Weekly newspapers/magazines</i>				
Spiegel	696	2	5	2
Zeit	1 151	4	/	/
<i>Online newspapers</i>				
spiegel.de	2 223	7	39	16
bild.de	831	3	13	5
sueddeutsche.de	1 361	4	14	6
welt.de	3 519	11	39	16
India	7 416	13	267	26
<i>Print quality newspapers</i>				

Hindustan Times	968	13	27	10
Times of India	1 151	16	46	17
Hindu	774	10	36	14
<i>Print regional newspapers</i>				
Pioneer	588	8	4	2
Deccan Herald	176	2	11	4
Telegraph	316	4	12	5
<i>Tabloid newspapers</i>				
Mumbai Mirror	50	1	1	.4
<i>Weekly newspapers/magazines</i>				
Sunday Standard	50	1	1	.4
India Today	43	1	1	.4
<i>Online newspapers</i>				
hindustantimes.com	1 117	15	54	20
indianexpress.com	1 975	27	69	26
thehindu.com	208	3	5	2
South Africa	2 568	5	232	23
<i>Print quality newspapers</i>				
Star	349	14	36	16
Sowetan	20	1	1	.4
<i>Print regional newspapers</i>				
Cape Times	383	15	43	19
Herald	55	3	3	1
Pretoria News	204	2	6	3
Daily Dispatch	68	8	5	2
<i>Tabloid newspapers</i>				
Daily Sun	4	.2	1	.4

<i>Weekly newspapers/magazines</i>				
Sunday Times	76	3	5	2
<i>Online newspapers</i>				
mg.co.za	163	6	4	2
news24.com	669	26	86	37
iol.co.za	577	22	42	18
United States	13 768	24	268	27
<i>Print quality newspapers</i>				
New York Times	2 253	16	18	7
Wall Street Journal	509	4	6	2
Washington Post	1 424	10	16	6
<i>Print regional newspapers</i>				
Boston Globe	1 002	7	19	7
Star Tribune	230	2	3	1
Austin American Statesman	85	1	2	1
Salt Lake Tribune	294	2	6	2
<i>Tabloid newspapers</i>				
USA Today	219	2	20	8
<i>Weekly newspapers/magazines</i>				
New Yorker	153	1	/	/
Newsweek	39	.3	/	/
<i>Online newspapers</i>				
nytimes.com	4 008	29	54	20
huffpost.com	2 792	20	81	30
usatoday.com	760	6	43	16

611

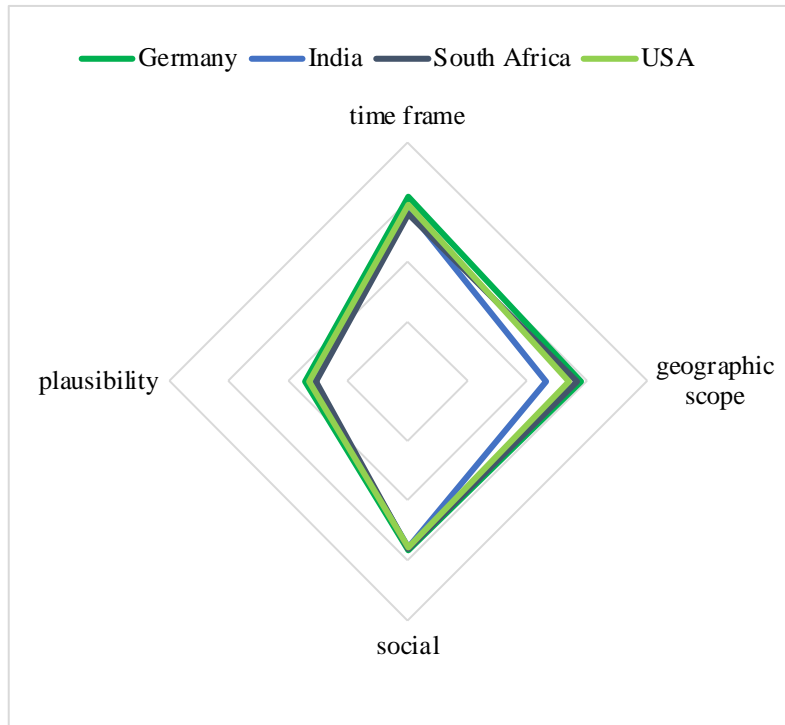
612

Table 2. Type of future scenarios and categories of distance across the sample

	Sample		Germany		India		South Africa		United States	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
<i>Type of future scenario^a ($\chi^2 = 21.066$; $df = 12$; $p < .05$)^b</i>										
ecosystem	754	59.7	196	68.3	202	56.3	153	53.7	203	61.3
economic	271	21.5	57	19.9	77	21.4	71	24.9	66	19.9
socio-political	215	17.0	30	10.5	72	20.1	55	19.3	58	17.5
individual	17	1.3	3	1.0	7	1.9	4	1.4	3	.9
<i>Evaluation ($\chi^2 = 17.331$; $df = 9$; $p < .05$)</i>										
none	107	8.5	26	9.1	36	10.0	27	9.5	18	5.4
negative	983	77.9	229	79.8	280	78.0	203	71.2	271	81.9
ambivalent/mixed	76	6.0	14	4.9	17	4.7	24	8.4	21	6.3
positive	96	7.6	18	6.3	26	7.2	31	10.9	21	6.3
<i>Time frame ($\chi^2 = 30.426$; $df = 15$; $p < .05$)</i>										
unclear	564	44.7	128	44.6	168	46.8	124	43.5	144	43.5
within the current or next year (nearest future)	45	3.6	6	2.1	12	3.3	10	3.5	17	5.1
up to the next five years (near future)	22	1.7	5	1.7	6	1.7	7	2.5	4	1.2
more than 5, up to 30 years (within one generation)	202	16.0	45	15.7	54	15.0	52	18.2	51	15.4
more than 30, up to 50 years (distant future)	147	11.6	22	7.7	56	15.6	39	13.7	30	9.1
more than 50 years (most distant future)	282	22.3	81	28.2	63	17.5	53	18.6	85	25.7
<i>Geographic scope ($\chi^2 = 96.877$; $df = 15$; $p < .001$)</i>										
unclear / indistinguishable	44	3.5	10	3.5	4	1.1	9	3.2	21	6.3
local (< nation = the whole respective country) (nearest)	169	13.4	30	10.5	66	18.4	24	8.4	49	14.8
national (near)	227	18.0	31	10.8	100	27.9	40	14.0	56	16.9
own part of the world (continent)	104	8.2	33	11.5	31	8.6	30	10.5	10	3.0
other part of the world (distant)	233	18.5	57	19.9	39	10.9	68	23.9	69	20.8

global	485	38.4	126	43.9	119	33.1	114	40.0	126	38.1
<i>Distant actors</i>										
scientific actors ($\chi^2 = 17.563$; $df = 3$; $p < .001$)	903	71.6	222	77.4	245	68.2	184	64.6	252	76.1
local/nat. political actors ($\chi^2 = 11.289$; $df = 3$; $p < .05$)	643	51.0	125	43.6	183	51.0	165	57.9	170	51.4
internat. political actors ($\chi^2 = 3.044$; $df = 3$; $p = n.s.$)	199	15.8	47	16.4	52	14.5	54	18.9	46	13.9
economic actors ($\chi^2 = 2.670$; $df = 3$; $p = n.s.$)	187	14.8	41	14.3	55	15.3	49	17.2	42	12.7
(journalistic) media actors ($\chi^2 = 2.064$; $df = 3$; $p = n.s.$)	31	2.5	8	2.8	6	1.7	6	2.1	11	3.3
<i>Close actors</i>										
NGOs/activists ($\chi^2 = 2.611$; $df = 3$; $p = n.s.$)	89	7.1	23	8.0	21	5.8	25	8.8	20	6.0
civil society ($\chi^2 = 2.309$; $df = 3$; $p = n.s.$)	24	1.9	5	1.7	4	1.1	8	2.8	7	2.1
citizens/individuals ($\chi^2 = 15.836$; $df = 3$; $p < .01$)	510	40.4	97	33.8	137	38.2	113	39.6	163	49.2
<i>Plausibility ($\chi^2 = 31.280$; $df = 12$; $p < .001$)</i>										
unclear / indistinguishable	7	0.6	/	/	2	.6	4	1.4	1	.3
very unlikely / will (probably) not occur	6	0.5	1	.3	1	.3	2	.7	2	.6
somewhat/rather unlikely	31	2.5	9	3.1	5	21.4	9	3.2	8	2.4
likely, will probably occur	706	55.9	187	65.2	201	56.0	129	45.3	189	57.1
very likely, certain	512	40.6	90	31.4	150	41.8	141	49.5	131	39.6

614 Note. ^aThere were five more scenarios coded as “other”; due to their low frequency, findings for them will not be reported. ^bValues
615 concern country comparisons; due to low frequencies, in all cases, Fisher’s exact was used in R with the *simulate.p.value* function.



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618 **Figure 1.** Distance across countries

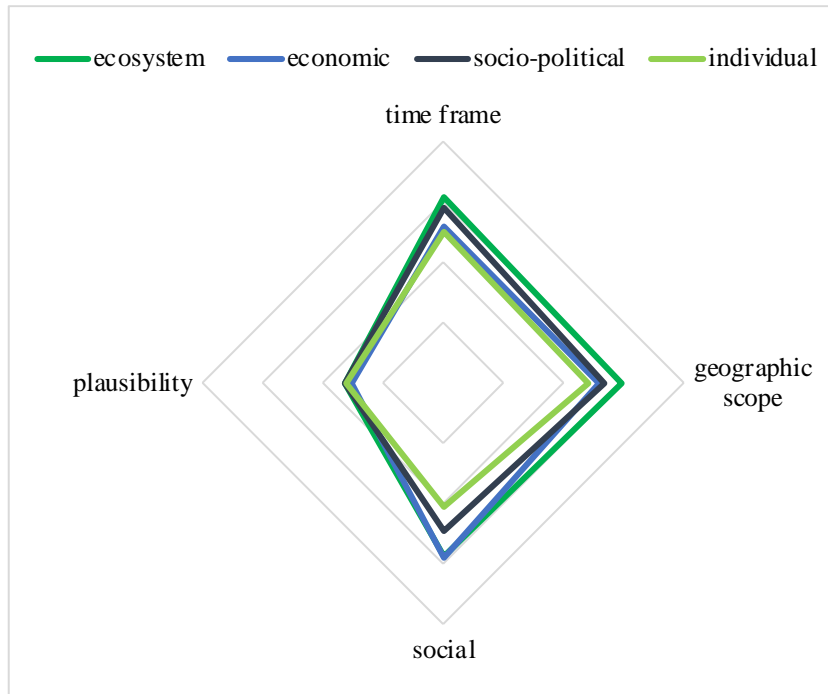
619 *Notes.* The outer the layer, the more distance is present. Categories recoded into 4-points (excluding “unclear” coding; time frame:
 620 current–5 years, more than 5–30 years, more than 30–50 years, more than 50 years; geographic scope: local/national, continental,
 621 other part of the world, global; social: number of social distant actors (e.g., scientists, politicians) minus number of social close actors
 622 (e.g., citizens) – and recoded; plausibility: very unlikely, somewhat/rather unlikely, likely, very likely/certain).

Table 3. Categories of distance across types of future scenarios

	Ecosystem scenarios		Economic scenarios		Socio-political scenarios		Individual scenarios	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
<i>Evaluation ($\chi^2 = 187.750$; $df = 12$; $p < .001$)^a</i>								
none	59	7.8	39	14.4	7	3.3	2	11.8
negative	637	84.5	137	50.6	193	89.8	11	64.7
ambivalent/mixed	36	4.8	33	12.2	6	2.8	1	5.9
positive	22	2.9	62	22.9	9	4.2	3	17.6
<i>Time frame ($\chi^2 = 152.330$; $df = 20$; $p < .001$)</i>								
unclear	334	44.3	94	34.7	126	58.6	7	41.2
within the current or next year (nearest future)	41	5.4	2	.7	1	.5	/	/
up to the next five years (near future)	13	1.7	7	2.6	2	.9	1	5.9
more than 5, up to 30 years (within one generation)	78	10.3	85	31.4	33	15.3	5	29.4
more than 30, up to 50 years (distant future)	69	9.2	53	19.6	23	10.7	2	11.8
more than 50 years (most distant future)	219	29.0	30	11.1	30	14.0	2	11.8
<i>Geographic scope ($\chi^2 = 55.307$; $df = 20$; $p < .001$)</i>								
unclear / indistinguishable	23	3.1	13	4.8	5	2.3	2	11.8
local (< nation = the whole respective country) (nearest)	124	16.4	22	8.1	21	9.8	2	11.8
national (near)	102	13.5	74	27.3	46	21.4	5	29.4
own part of the world (continent)	67	8.9	15	5.5	21	9.8	/	/
other part of the world (distant)	143	19.0	49	18.1	37	17.2	3	17.6
global	295	39.1	98	36.2	85	39.5	5	29.4
<i>Distant actors</i>								
scientific actors ($\chi^2 = 146.890$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$)	627	83.2	134	49.4	132	61.4	7	41.2
local/nat. political actors ($\chi^2 = 19.849$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$)	364	48.3	168	62.0	105	48.8	5	29.4
internat. political actors ($\chi^2 = 10.186$; $df = 4$; $p < .05$)	99	13.1	56	20.7	40	18.6	3	17.6
economic actors ($\chi^2 = 93.785$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$)	68	9.0	90	33.2	25	11.6	3	17.6

(journalistic) media actors ($\chi^2 = .827$; $df = 4$; $p = n.s.$)	18	2.4	8	3.0	5	2.3	/	/
<i>Close actors</i>								
NGOs/activists ($\chi^2 = 1.928$; $df = 4$; $p = n.s.$)	48	6.4	23	8.5	17	7.9	1	5.9
civil society ($\chi^2 = 2.767$; $df = 4$; $p = n.s.$)	12	1.6	5	1.8	6	2.8	1	5.9
citizens/individuals ($\chi^2 = 147.970$; $df = 4$; $p < .001$)	251	33.3	82	30.3	160	74.4	14	82.4
<hr/>								
<i>Plausibility</i> ($\chi^2 = 52.547$; $df = 16$; $p < .001$)								
unclear / indistinguishable	2	.3	3	1.1	1	.5	1	5.9
very unlikely / will (probably) not occur	3	.4	2	.7	/	/	1	5.9
somewhat/rather unlikely	18	2.4	11	4.1	1	.5	1	5.9
likely, will probably occur	447	59.3	118	43.5	133	61.9	5	29.4
very likely, certain	284	37.7	137	50.6	80	37.2	9	52.9

624 Notes. ^aValues concern comparisons across types of scenarios; due to low frequencies, in all cases, Fisher's exact was used in R with
625 the *simulate.p.value* function.



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628 Figure 2. Distance across types of scenarios

629 Notes. The outer the layer, the more distance is present. Categories recoded into 4-points (excluding “unclear” coding; time frame:
630 current–5 years, more than 5–30 years, more than 30–50 years, more than 50 years; geographic scope: local/national, continental,
631 other part of the world, global; social: number of social distant actors (e.g., scientists, politicians) minus number of social close actors
632 (e.g., citizens) – and recoded; plausibility: very unlikely, somewhat/rather unlikely, likely, very likely/certain).