

## Mixed feelings: a review and research agenda for emotions in sustainability transitions

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# Mixed feelings: A review and research agenda for emotions in sustainability transitions

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## Abstract

Low-carbon transitions across energy and transport systems have been widely researched in regards to how transitions are designed, what policies support them, which technologies they entail, and how fast, or slow, they take. Much of this research has focused on examining the agency and behaviour of actors and institutions, or examining processes and outcomes, but less weight has been given to human emotions. Based on an explorative systematic review of the sustainability transitions literature, we address a research gap by focusing on how emotions have been reported or examined in transitions concerning energy, buildings and transport. We show that the acceptability and adaptation of new technologies, systems, policies and practices requires people's willingness to change, which itself needs positive emotional commitment. We thus propose a new research agenda for low-carbon transitions that takes into consideration people's emotions as we address climate change and attempt to move to net zero societies.

## Keywords

Emotions; feelings; sustainability transitions; energy; transport; buildings

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## 38 1 Introduction

39

40 Sustainability transitions have amassed a large body of scholarly research as climate  
41 change and resource scarcity continue to require radical change in sociotechnical systems,  
42 in particular in the areas of energy, transport and buildings (Markard et al. 2012; Smith et al.  
43 2010; Köhler et al. 2019). This previous body of work has had a wide conceptual and  
44 interdisciplinary reach spanning in particular innovation studies, political science, social  
45 science and economics (see Section 2). Over ten years ago, Shove and Walker (2010:471)  
46 argued that research on “*sociotechnical transitions and their governance tends to*  
47 *concentrate on the introduction of new technologies and systems of supply*” and that more  
48 attention was needed to the ‘socio’ part of sociotechnical transitions. Köhler et al. (2019)  
49 agreed concluding that less attention has been given in this scholarship to the more  
50 ‘complex and messy’ human dimensions (see also Zolfagharian et al. 2019). In this paper, we  
51 therefore address a research gap and show, via a systematic and exploratory review of  
52 previous research, that *emotions* and emotional responses to the development and use of  
53 systems such as energy, transport and buildings (we focus on these three sectors given that  
54 they produce the main bulk of global greenhouse gas emissions) are a particularly under-  
55 researched area within sustainability transitions (see also Feola and Jaworska 2019).

56 Emotions are a key part of human existence, and they influence the way we think,  
57 understand the world around us and make decisions (Izard 2009; Volz and Hertwig 2016).  
58 Perlaviciute et al. (2018), for example, have shown that many low-carbon energy projects  
59 have been halted due to negative public emotions that were overlooked, and even ignored,  
60 by practitioners, industry and policy makers who did not know how to address them (see  
61 also Rohse et al. 2020). Some research in energy development has examined emotions,  
62 most in relation to emotions about place in regards to extractive developments, with  
63 research shown that “*energy and resource sectors have a damaging tendency to sideline*  
64 *and dismiss emotions*” (Rohse et al. 2020: 137). We show via our explorative and qualitative,  
65 yet systematic review that emotions, however, matter and that there is a need to take them  
66 into account as, for example decisions about developments like low-carbon energy systems,  
67 are not purely cognitive processes, but also include emotional responses across different  
68 stakeholders (Brosch et al. (2014; also Kals and Muller, 2012). This is particularly important  
69 in sustainability transitions which involve decision making over new, and often disruptive,

70 innovations (Kivimaa and Kern 2014), that can provoke strong emotions such as desire, fear  
71 or anger (e.g. Alborg 2018, Huijts 2018). Understanding people’s emotional responses to  
72 low-carbon transitions is therefore vital, given that the acceptability of new innovations  
73 requires positive emotional commitment. If emotions are not accounted for, it may  
74 artificially narrow the scope of research given that many people are likely to have strong  
75 emotional response to topics such as climate change, energy provision and transport, as  
76 such topics can be complex and may thus exceed people’s factual knowledge, meaning  
77 more reliance on emotional responses to process decisions about them (e.g. Schmidt et al.  
78 2017; Pánek and Bendiktsson 2017; Brown et al. (2019).

79         Here we make an attempt to examine whether, and how, emotions have *explicitly*  
80 been researched in previous sustainability transitions literature. In this paper, we therefore  
81 ask: *How have emotions been examined in sustainability transitions research?* We answer  
82 this question via a systematic review of peer-reviewed academic literature focusing  
83 explicitly on how emotions, whether positive and negative (or neutral), have been reported  
84 or examined in previous transitions research in the areas of buildings, energy and transport.  
85 We highlight a research gap and make a contribution towards developing a research agenda  
86 for the transitions research field by showing that only a limited amount of research has  
87 examined human emotions and that this is an area that warrants further academic enquiry.

88         Our paper is arranged as follows: Section 2 shows an existing research gap in relation  
89 to emotions in sustainability transitions. In Section 3 we outline what emotions are and  
90 introduce a typology of emotions from previous literature and how they may be relevant in  
91 sustainability transitions. Section 4 explains our systematic review method. Our results are  
92 presented in Section 5, divided into three parts: type of emotions, the technology or  
93 sociotechnical system they are connected with, and their temporality. Section 6 proposes a  
94 research agenda, while Section 7 concludes.

## 95 **2 The human dimensions of sustainability transitions**

96  
97         Sustainability transitions entail a shift from one sociotechnical system, usually a  
98 polluting one, to a to a more sustainable one, involving a shift in technologies, institutions,  
99 regulation, practices, routines and meanings etc. (e.g. Schot and Geels 2008). Examples of  
100 these include for example a shift from fossil fuels to renewable energy in electricity  
101 provision or the use of electricity instead of petrol to power cars. Sustainability transitions

102 have been roughly divided into three phases (Schot and Kanger 2018; Kanger et al. 2019).  
103 Emergence describes the birth of new sociotechnical systems and associated rules in several  
104 niches in parallel without much coordination. Acceleration is when niches grow rapidly, and  
105 scale up, overcoming hurdles of commercialization. Stabilization happens when new  
106 innovations begin to saturate markets, and achieve widespread dissemination and use.  
107 Similarly, Geels et al. (2017) discuss a conceptual framework for low-carbon transitions  
108 where an initial phase depicts radical innovations emerging on the fringe before they enter  
109 small markets that promote development and specialization; an intermediate phase depicts  
110 breaking through more widely and begin to compete with established infrastructures; and a  
111 final phase of becoming dominant and substituting for the incumbent technologies.

112 As mentioned in Section 1 Introduction, a large body of scholarship has examined  
113 sustainability transitions from different angles and across many dimensions (e.g. Köhler et  
114 al. 2019, Zolfagharian et al. 2019).

115 Historically, previous research has in particular focused on which technologies (e.g.  
116 Abas et al. 2015; Kittner et al. 2017) and institutions transitions entail (e.g. Moss et al.  
117 2015); and the processes by which they are designed and governed (e.g. Sovacool and  
118 Martiskainen, 2020) and whether entities such as ‘the state’ or concepts like ‘power’, or  
119 who has power, matter (Johnstone and Newell 2018). Work on policies, or mixes of policies,  
120 has paid particular attention on which measures and initiatives have supported or hindered  
121 them (e.g. Edmondson et al. 2019; Reichardt and Rogge 2016; Rogge et al. 2020). Research  
122 has also been interested in how transitions develop in different phases from start-up to  
123 acceleration and diffusion (e.g. Schot and Kanger 2018), and how fast, or slow, they have  
124 been (e.g. Sovacool 2016) and across which spatial scales (e.g. Bridge et al. 2013).

125 When it comes to examining people and their role within sustainability transitions,  
126 concepts such as user innovation (e.g. Schot et al. 2016, Halbinger 2018), intermediation  
127 (e.g. Kivimaa et al. 2019) and leadership (e.g. Martiskainen 2017) are well-established.  
128 Research has examined how people have developed, tinkered, adapted, adopted and  
129 promoted innovations (e.g. Meelen et al. 2019). Different types of users (Schot et al. 2016,  
130 Martiskainen et al. 2021) have been identified, from those developing disruptive, radical,  
131 innovations in niches (e.g. Hossain 2018), to those facilitating and maintaining incumbent  
132 regimes (Sovacool et al. 2020b). The agency and power of different actors with/in  
133 transitions has also had its own share of research (e.g. Stirling 2014). Work on

134 intermediaries in particular has shown them to range from neutral facilitators to powerful  
135 allies (e.g. Kivimaa et al. 2019; Mignon and Kanda, 2018; Martiskainen and Kivimaa 2018).

136 On the role of people within low-carbon transitions, concepts and actions such as  
137 motivations (e.g. Busch and McCormick 2014; Hicks and Ison 2018; Joas et al. 2016);  
138 experimenting (e.g. Coenen et al. 2010, Rosenbloom et al. 2018, Torrens et al. 2018); how  
139 people learn or share learning (e.g. van Mierlo et al. 2020; Domènech et al. 2015; Van Poeck  
140 et al. 2020; Schot and Geels 2008), and social acceptance (e.g. Delicado et al. 2016;  
141 Komendantova and Battaglini 2016; Yazdanpanah et al. 2015) have been widely researched  
142 in relation to what encourages people to uptake for example new technology or practices  
143 and sustain them for the longer term.

144 Research has also been called to examine not only the success of transitions but  
145 whether they have aspects that are less successful (e.g. Antal et al. 2020) and the field has  
146 examined aspects such as fairness and justice, i.e. whether transitions are benefiting  
147 everyone equally (e.g. Della Bosca and Gillespie 2018; Healy and Barry 2017; McCauley et al.  
148 2019), and how transitions could improve human wellbeing (e.g. Köhler et al. 2019). Culture  
149 has been examined too (Sovacool and Griffiths 2020), as well as the role that art and design  
150 could have in influencing and enabling sustainability transitions (e.g. Pelzer and Versteeg  
151 2019).

152 However, despite the breadth of research within this field, and an increasing focus  
153 on the more human dimensions of sustainability transitions such as justice and wellbeing—  
154 as we later show via the systematic review—there has been a relatively limited study  
155 focusing specifically on emotions, and people’s emotional responses to specific innovations  
156 or technologies, policy processes, or wider sustainability transitions.

### 157 **3 Conceptualizing and typologizing emotions in relation to sustainability** 158 **transitions**

159 Emotions have been widely conceptualised in psychological and behavioural  
160 research, but less investigated in other domains of social science and humanities inquiry.  
161 Despite this lacuna, emotions are a critically important part of how people, especially  
162 consumers or potential adopters, choose lifestyles or new technologies. There is a strong  
163 link and complementarity between emotions and cognition (Brosch et al. 2014). Emotions  
164 are not peripheral to reason and decision-making, but they are instead “*as essential as*  
165

166 *logical reasoning*” and *“as likely to enhance rationality as to subvert it”* (Mair et al. 2019:  
167 48). Emotions can have different intensities and can be experienced as motivational and  
168 informational (Izard 2009), which in turn influence our thoughts, tendency to act, and  
169 actions (Izard 2009). There are also conscious events and causal events in relation to  
170 emotions (Feldman Barrett et al. 2007). For example, an angry person will be less likely to  
171 seek independent information or knowledge, and more likely to adopt a closed mind;  
172 conversely, an anxious person could provoke a deeper processing of information and a  
173 change in viewpoints (Mair et al. 2019). Emotions can thus reveal the *“hidden rationalities”*  
174 behind why people behave the way they do, and they can also act as critical *“contextual*  
175 *cues”* that modulate perception, focus attention, and determine what is remembered (or  
176 forgotten) (Clore 2011; Forgas 2014; Nesse et al. 2009; Pessoa 2013; Feldman Barrett 2017;  
177 Okon-Singer et al. 2018; Meshulam et al. 2012). As anyone who has ever laughed in a crowd  
178 already knows, emotions can also spread, they can be contagious, meaning positive or  
179 negative emotions can cascade outward from a single individual to *“infect”* or affect others  
180 (Cuppen et al. 2020).

181         When discussing emotions, we often think of strong feelings such as love, fear or  
182 anger. However, it is not easy to define exactly what an emotion is, as the concept has  
183 largely been left without a single definition (Izard 2009). Izard (2009) for example  
184 distinguishes emotions from ‘emotion feelings’, defining emotion feelings as a phase of  
185 neurobiological activity that form key motivational aspects of emotions, which in turn  
186 motivate human behaviour (Izard 2009). Put more simply, Feldman Barrett et al. (2007: 391)  
187 write that *“At its core, the experience of emotion can be described a contentful state of*  
188 *pleasure or displeasure.”* Initially emotions were linked to facial expressions, but these were  
189 later extended to also include emotions that are not encoded in facial expressions (Ekman  
190 1999, Izard 2009). The four basic emotions of fear, grief, love and rage identified as far back  
191 as the late 1880s (Izard 2009) have, over the years, been expanded by numerous scholars  
192 (Lazarus and Lazarus 1994). For example, Cowen and Keltner (2017) showed 2,185  
193 emotionally evocative short videos to 853 participants and found 27 distinct varieties of  
194 self-reported emotional experience. They then identified a total of 34 emotion categories.

195         Given our focus on examining emotions in low-carbon transitions, the aim of our  
196 paper is not a conceptual development of emotions. Instead, we follow conceptualisations  
197 established in previous social psychological research. Here, we build on Robinson (2008)

198 who developed a typology of emotions in terms of the types of emotions (related to object  
 199 properties, future appraisal, events, self-appraisal, social contexts, cathected emotion) and  
 200 whether they are positive or negative (see Table 1).

201  
 202

**Table 1: A typology of emotions for low-carbon sustainability transitions**

Kind of emotion	Positive emotions	Negative emotions
<b>Emotions related to object properties</b> (e.g., a new energy technology or innovation)	Interest, curiosity	Alarm, panic
	Attraction, desire, admiration	Aversion, disgust, revulsion
	Surprise, amusement	Indifference, familiarity, habituation
<b>Future appraisal emotions</b> (e.g., a new policy, scenario, vision or projection)	Hope	Fear
<b>Event related emotions</b> (e.g., a climate-related natural disaster, an oil embargo, a strike)	Gratitude, thankfulness	Anger, rage
	Joy, elation, triumph, jubilation	Sorrow, grief
	Relief	Frustration, disappointment
<b>Self-appraisal emotions</b> (e.g., learning about energy efficiency, changing lifestyles to be less carbon intensive)	Pride in self achievement, self-confidence, sociability	Embarrassment, shame, guilt, remorse
<b>Social emotions</b> (e.g., engaging in social networks, intermediating on behalf of others)	Generosity	Avarice, greed, miserliness, envy, jealousy
	Sympathy	Cruelty
<b>Cathected emotions</b> (e.g., connected to or invested with a particular government figure, a spokesperson, a family member)	Love	Hate

203 Source: Modified from Robinson (2008).

204

205 In terms of emotions and their relevance to sustainability transitions, literature from  
 206 other fields can guide us in this regard. For example, the field of sustainable consumption  
 207 has examined how people make purchasing decisions and what their emotional response is  
 208 to certain options (e.g. Rezvani et al. 2018). Despite sustainability policies usually aiming for  
 209 wider change and better environmental, economic and social outcomes for all, they have  
 210 often been framed through rather individualistic and largely voluntary sustainable  
 211 consumption decisions and practices (e.g. Lim 2017; Middlemiss 2014). Here issues like the  
 212 impact of marketing strategies on purchasing, or non-purchasing decisions, rely heavily on  
 213 people’s emotional responses (Lim 2017). The literature on the “sociology of expectations”  
 214 or “anticipation” can provide further insight on this as it mentions the feelings of hope,



215 exuberance, and excitement that can accompany new innovations (such as electric vehicles  
216 or hydrogen fuel cells) before they rapidly fade away as hype dissipates and more realistic  
217 assumptions set in (Bakker et al. 2011; Van Lente 2000; Van Lente 2012). This literature  
218 even proposes that once a technology’s expectations “peak”, realizations often fall through  
219 a “trough of disillusionment” where excitement wanes, a process shown in Figure 1.

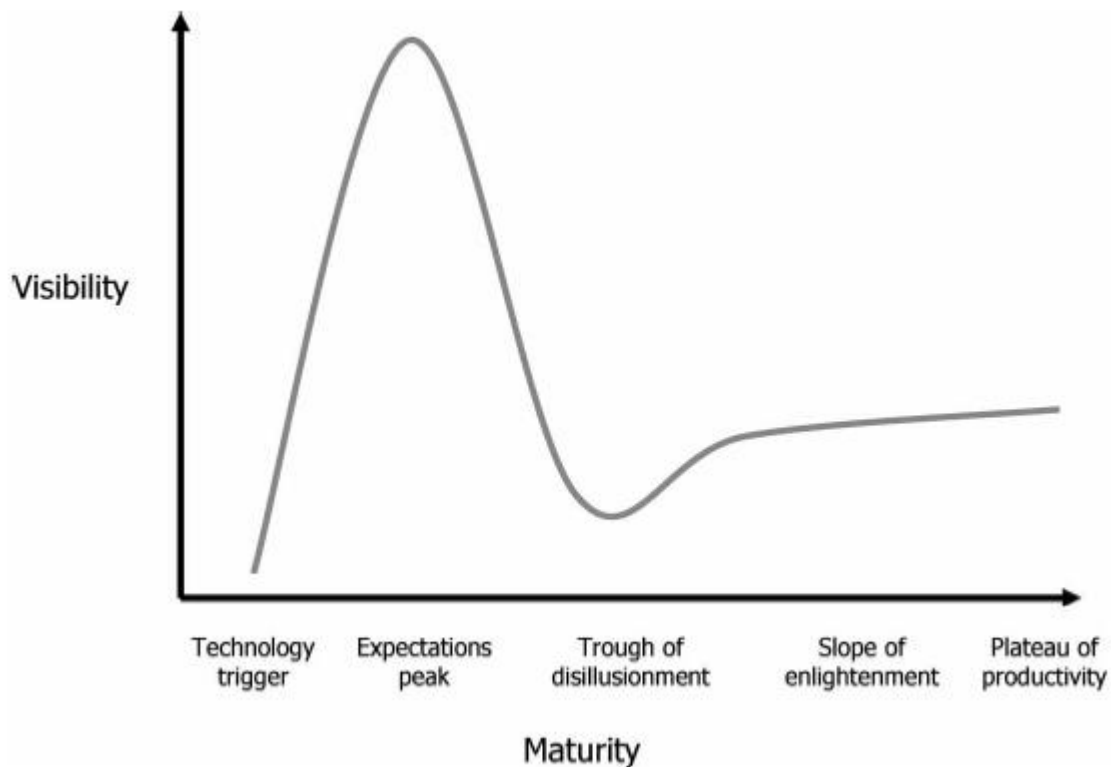
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**Figure 1: The temporality of expectations associated with new technologies**



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Source: Modified from Table 3 from Sovacool and Hess (2017), based on various studies in the sociology of expectations literature. See references there for more detail.

Conversely, other work on the history of technology suggests that feelings of fondness or nostalgia may come to associate with older, established technologies, notably things like hydropower dams, or coal fires and wood stoves, or candles or other old-fashioned lights, or classic cars. Hydropower dams and nuclear reactors have even been considered “technological sublime” throughout recent history in the United States (Nye 1994). Steam power, steamships, locomotives, and miniature steam generators were seen as “sublime” in their ability to solve social ills, lighten the toil of workers and housewives, provide faster and cleaner forms of transport, and revolutionize food production on the

236 farms. There could be a general trend with expectations about energy, and transport,  
237 systems that start with utopian exaggerations, and then move to normalization and  
238 eventual disillusionment, and then, after technologies are abandoned or evolve, nostalgia  
239 (Sovacool 2019). Emotions could thus be particularly relevant in regards to expectations,  
240 and subsequent acceptability, of specific low-carbon transitions (e.g. Hielscher and Sovacool  
241 2018).

## 242 **4 Research Methods**

243

244 To gain an in-depth insight in the state of the art of emotions and low-carbon  
245 transitions, we conducted a systematic review of previously published, peer-reviewed,  
246 academic literature. This is a widely used method across the social sciences (Petticrew &  
247 Roberts 2006), and has been identified as a suitable tool in energy research (Sorrell 2007;  
248 Sovacool et al. 2018), given that it avoids bias and enables the inclusion of otherwise  
249 overlooked material (Hook et al. 2020). It is a useful tool enabling an overview of literature  
250 on a specific subject matter.

251

### 252 **4.1 Search terms, timeline and database**

253 Our data collection had the following main four steps:

254 First, we identified a suitable timeline for our search. We decided to include articles  
255 published between 2000-2020 on sustainability transitions, which has become an  
256 established research field of its own in this time period. As Markard et al. (2012: 957) write:  
257 *“Socio-technical transitions, system innovations, and the emergence of sustainable*  
258 *technologies have received increasing attention in the social-sciences over the past 10–15*  
259 *years, and a number of conceptual frameworks have been developed for the study of these*  
260 *processes”*. We thus felt that starting from the year 2000 would enable us to map the state  
261 of the art in sustainability transitions studies and capture the timeline of research into low-  
262 carbon transitions specifically. However, we recognise that earlier research in the fields of  
263 sustainable development, environmental protection, and energy consumption behaviours  
264 for example are relevant for our study (and could be explored in future research (see also  
265 Section 6).

266 Second, we chose 14 main terms as keywords to use in our search (see Table 2).

267 These reflected the inclusion of emotions, low-carbon transitions, and different sectors of

268 energy, transport and buildings—we chose these sectors given their respective high  
 269 emissions and hence importance to low-carbon transitions. We appreciate that there are  
 270 other sectors also relevant for sustainability transitions, and we elaborate on this point  
 271 further in Section 4.3. The combination of these keywords resulted in a total of 128  
 272 searches.

273 Third, we undertook keyword searches in academic database Scopus. We chose  
 274 Scopus as it is the largest academic database in the world and has the widest coverage and  
 275 scope, including 75 million records from more than 23,500 peer-reviewed journals and  
 276 5,000 publishers (Scopus 2020). Scopus is also available to most universities, goes back to  
 277 1970 and is therefore both historically relevant and accessible. This was considered key in  
 278 case anyone wishes to repeat our study. We chose published papers to ensure focus on  
 279 research that has gone through a rigorous peer review process, and articles published in  
 280 English only, so as to make the study more replicable. Our searchers used four different  
 281 boolean search combinations of the 14 main keywords (see Table 2), resulting in a total of  
 282 128 searches. We used keywords to match searches in “Article title, abstract and keywords”  
 283 in all fields. Our initial search resulted in a total of 9,253 potentially relevant manuscripts.

284

285 **Table 2: Keywords and search combinations**

Keyword 1	[AND] Keyword 2	[AND] Keyword 3	[AND] Keyword 4
Emotion* [OR] Feeling* [OR] Sentiment* [OR] Sensation*	Low-carbon [OR] Low carbon [OR] Zero carbon [OR] Sustainab*	Energy [OR] Transport* [OR] Mobilit* [OR] Building* [OR] Housing	Transition*

286 Source: Authors

287

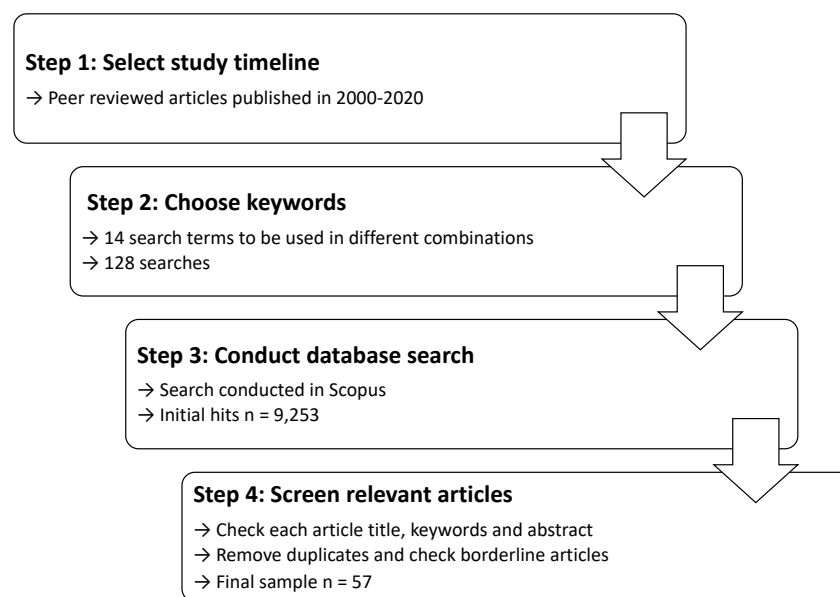
288 Fourth, we screened all 9,253 initial articles based on the following inclusion criteria:  
 289 We checked each study for its relevance to our aims and objectives and excluded any  
 290 articles that were not related to emotions, or to the three sectors, or to the field of  
 291 sustainability transitions. For example, our initial searches found many articles in the  
 292 medical sciences field such as neuroscience, nursing, or clinical medicine, which were  
 293 excluded. Or, studies may have utilized the word “feeling” or “sensation” but not to  
 294 describe an emotion. Or, studies were not about energy as a fuel or service but for dietary  
 295 needs (“nutritional energy”) or biology (“cellular energy”) or health (“joint mobility”) and so

296 on. This initial screening left 694 remaining articles and after reading each article title,  
297 keywords, and abstract closely, and removing duplicates, we were left with 57 articles.

298 For this final sample of 57 articles, we read each article in full and from this closer  
299 reading, it became apparent that some articles only mentioned the word emotion once or  
300 twice, without focusing on the topic in depth. We therefore decided that to be included in  
301 our final coding sample an article had to have the word 'emotion\*' at least three times in  
302 the main article text, and have more than a passing mention of emotions, so in other words,  
303 at least a partial focus on this topic. This left 28 articles that were then fully coded in our  
304 data analysis (see also Figure 2).

305  
306

307 **Figure 2: Systematic review process on emotions and sustainability transitions**



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309  
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Source: Authors

#### 311 **4.2 Data analysis**

312 We used content analysis to examine each article in-depth, and used NVivo software  
313 for categorising our coding. The content analysis included first more descriptive data of each  
314 article such as publisher, main research question, theoretical approach, types of methods  
315 used, location of research, low-carbon problem addressed and low-carbon solution  
316 proposed. Then, coding was conducted according to the type of emotions mentioned in the

317 article. This was based on the range of emotions outlined in the typology by Robinson  
318 (2008) (and shown in Table 1 earlier). Our main nodes were emotions related to object  
319 properties, future appraisal, events, self-appraisal, social contexts, and cathected emotion,  
320 and then each main node had sub-nodes for both positive and negative emotions. Each time  
321 any of these emotions was mentioned in an article, it was coded. This included coding all  
322 instances to get an overview and include all mentions of emotions (i.e. whether as part of  
323 an article's literature review, theoretical approach, methods, results, discussion and/or  
324 conclusions). As different positive and negative emotions could have been mentioned  
325 within the same sentence, we did not calculate how many times each emotion was  
326 mentioned to avoid double counting. We also coded emotions that did not clearly fit within  
327 the typology under 'other emotions'.

328         Once coding was completed, each coded text and node was double checked for  
329 accuracy by the research team. Based on our coding, we then analysed our results  
330 thematically in the following three main steps. First, we categorised the different emotions  
331 in our data set based on the main categories in the Robinson (2008) typology already  
332 mentioned above (see Section 5.1). Second, based on this previous categorisation, we  
333 aimed to see if a specific technology or transition (e.g. in energy, buildings and transport)  
334 was linked to any specific set of emotions (see Section 5.2). Third, we categorised these  
335 technologies according to their maturity and commercial readiness, to see if there was any  
336 indication of a temporal element and how emotions may change during a technological  
337 change or wider transition (see Section 5.3).

338

### 339 **4.3 Study limitations**

340         Our study notably has some limitations. First of all, we conducted our systematic  
341 literature review in the English language, and therefore any academic peer reviewed articles  
342 in other languages were not included in the search. We also used only one database,  
343 Scopus, albeit it being one of the largest academic databases in the world, with 75 million  
344 records from more than 23,500 peer-reviewed journals and 5,000 publishers (Scopus 2020).

345         Moreover, our review is explorative and meant as a starting point. It builds on the  
346 handful of papers which have taken a specific focus on emotions in the field of energy,  
347 buildings or transport related transitions (e.g. Brosch et al. 2018; Kershaw et al. 2018; Rohse  
348 et al. 2020; Wright 2018), yet our keywords were also limited to these three sectors (albeit

349 high emission producing ones). Our search and analysis were guided by the typology of  
350 Robinson (2008) and due to resource limitations, we did not use all of the 47 different  
351 emotions in Robinson’s typology as search terms, but instead used an ‘umbrella’ approach,  
352 and selected four main words, i.e. ‘emotion\*’, ‘feeling\*’, ‘sentiment\*’, and ‘sensation\*’ as  
353 main search terms, with a view that these could capture other emotion words. This however  
354 means that papers using other words (and not mentioning ‘emotion\*’, ‘feeling\*’,  
355 ‘sentiment\*’, and ‘sensation\*’), could have been left outside of our sample. The specific  
356 focus on three sectors and the way we used search terms means that our sample is small,  
357 and there can thus be interesting and relevant papers outside these sectors and search  
358 terms that could have been overlooked and deserve further examination.

359 In addition, our coding protocol was based on the typology of emotions by Robinson  
360 (2008), which we chose as it gives a broad overview of a range of different types of  
361 emotions. However, it is not exclusive and therefore there are likely to be other emotions  
362 outside this typology (see for example Cowen and Keltner 2017). We also did not examine  
363 the depth of these emotions or their inter-connections.

364 Nevertheless, we hope that this review acts as a catalyst for further studies in other  
365 areas and sectors relevant to sustainability transitions. This could include research in sectors  
366 that contribute to greenhouse gas emissions and have inherent emotional connections. For  
367 example, these could include food and diets, and the transition from meat eating to plant-  
368 based diets which has relevance for the agricultural, farming, fishing, land use and water  
369 sectors. Another key trend, sustainable consumption, ultimately has connections to product  
370 life-cycles and waste in particular. We elaborate on areas for further research in Section 6.  
371

## 372 **5 Results and Discussion: Emotions in sustainability transitions**

373

374 We next present our results in three main parts: an inventory of emotions, the  
375 technology or sociotechnical system they are connected with, and their temporality.

376

### 377 ***5.1 An inventory of emotions***

378 In our review, we found a vast array of emotions connected to sustainability transitions,  
379 far more than we believe have been identified in a single paper before. This creates a useful

380 inventory shown in Table 3, which also offers examples of frequency (how many times they  
 381 came up in the literature) and empirical examples.

382  
 383

**Table 3: An inventory of emotions from our systematic review**

Emotions related to	Positive emotions (frequency)	Empirical example	Negative Emotions (frequency)	Empirical example
<b>Object properties</b>	Interest Desire Surprise (11 articles)	“An electrified home is among the things associated with modernity that many Tanzanians desire” (Ahlborg 2018: 269)	Alarm Panic Disgust Neglect Suspicion (6 articles)	“Those in the alarmed group (18% of Americans) are much more likely to report being convinced of the reality and danger of climate change and to feel sad, disgusted, angry, or afraid.” (Doherty and Clayton 2011: 269)
<b>Future appraisal</b>	Hope (10 articles)	“This [coal] fire had a larger symbolic significance for the mother, installed in the hope that it would encourage her teenage son, a heavy drinker, to stay in during the evenings” (Wright 2018: 446)	Fear (14 articles)	“Exposure to [electric vehicles] EVs can additionally assuage fears of range anxiety, a factor regarded a major hurdle to EV adoption.” (Kershaw et al. 2018: 684)
<b>Events</b>	Gratitude Joy Relief (12 articles)	“Our respondents declared that being able to see the impact they made by taking care of their surroundings created a feeling of gratification and contentment that small things made a big difference.” (Mälgand et al. 2014: 44)	Anger Rage Grief, Frustration Disappointment (14 articles)	“One woman recalled her disappointment at her microwave, frustrated with how it took up too much room in her kitchen” (Wright 2018: 445)
<b>Self appraisal</b>	Pride (10 articles)	“Pride, work ethic, salt of the earth, “getting hands dirty” is not a figure of speech, but a reality in a mining town.” (Della Bosca and Gillespie 2018: 734)	Embarrassment Shame Guilt (7 articles)	“While not stated explicitly by the participants in their climate stories, almost all participants expressed feelings of guilt and shame during the discussions on climate change.” (Henderson and Wamsler 2020: 352)
<b>Social</b>	Generosity Sympathy (10 articles)	“Empathy is, we argue, a critical but hitherto neglected variable in sustainability research because of	Greed (3 articles)	“Local citizens are being selfish and parochial, unwilling to face any personal costs from energy projects” (Perlaviciute et al. 2018: 3)

		its central role in human-environment relations. (Brown et al. 2019: 16)		
<b>Cathected</b>	Love (2 articles)	“Feelings, ranging from sentimental attachment to love and fear, drove energy choices and shaped energy flows within the home.” (Wright 2018: 443)	Hate (1 article)	“A perceiver who is driven by hatred organizes his perception differently from one who is driven by love.” (Frank 2014: 677)
<b>Other</b>	<p> Sense of security  Sense of wellbeing  Feeling connectedness  Feeling of belonging  Feeling of privacy  Cosiness  Solidarity  Trust  Serenity  Calmness  Coolness </p>	<p> “The miners themselves did not talk about intimacy at length, and more often obliquely through practical examples of co-operation and assertions of strong loyalty. Nevertheless the ‘camaraderie’ fostered underground was a recurring theme, also figuring in other participants’ accounts and often in our wider conversations in the village. It was clearly fundamental to community life. Indeed, it was explained, the strength of the community bonds could not be understood without understanding the solidarity and mutual dependence deeply rooted in this affectual crucible of the small underground spaces, where lives depended on co-operation.” Rohse et al. 2020:141). </p>	<p> Blame  Fatigue  Sense of isolation  Pain  Resistance </p>	<p> “Because of the shortage of active members, the emotional well-being of those members who are actively involved suffers: excessive demands, stress and a sense of frustration have a highly negative influence on people’s ability to fulfil their need for subsistence and protection, while active members additionally show signs of fatigue.” (Centgraf 2018:116). </p>

384 Source: Authors. See also Data in Brief file for more details on empirical evidence.

385

386



387 5.1.1 **Object properties emotions (desire / alarm)**

388 Positive emotions linked to object properties (11 articles) included *desire* for  
389 electrical appliances such as fridges when they first emerged in UK households in the 1950-  
390 60s (Rohse et al. 2020) or people dreaming of gas-fired appliances (Wright 2018). In later  
391 times, millions still lack access to energy services, and for example in Tanzania, access to  
392 electricity is desired as a way for a better life (Ahlborg 2018). Desire also featured in Nunez-  
393 Cacho et al. (2018) study on a family firm moving to a circular economy business model so  
394 as to preserve the company for future generations, while (Wells and Nieuwenhuis, 2018)  
395 examined consumers' desire for product longevity in the automobile industry. Negative  
396 feelings of *alarm* featured in 6 articles. Doherty and Clayton (2011) report a range of  
397 emotions in the US about climate change, including people feeling disgusted. Perlaviciute et  
398 al. (2018) found that developments such as wind energy and biomass plants could evoke  
399 negative emotions of resistance if their development was forced on local communities from  
400 top down. Often smaller scale community energy projects are developed to avoid such ill-  
401 feelings, though even in such projects Centgraf et al. (2018) found that the families of those  
402 very active in a German energy cooperative sometimes felt neglected due to the dedication  
403 given to the cooperative. At a more domestic scale, for those who have desired new  
404 electrical home appliances for example, the arrival and use of such items can cause  
405 suspicion and confusion (Rohse et al. 2020).

406

407 5.1.2 **Future appraisal emotions (hope / fear)**

408 The positive future appraisal feeling of *hope* was mentioned in 10 articles. Hope was  
409 central with people engaging with the 'story' of climate change (Hendersson and Wamsler  
410 2020) and protecting the environment (Rogers et al. 2012). Hope was also prominent in  
411 every day energy practices. Tanzanian villagers were hoping to ease poverty through energy  
412 access (Ahlborg 2018); members of a German energy co-operative dreamed of creating a  
413 considerate community (Centgraf 2018); and Danish Transition Town residents hoped to  
414 inspire others to embark on sustainable living (Mälgand et al. 2014). The negative future  
415 appraisal feeling of *fear* featured in the most number of articles (14 articles). Doherty and  
416 Clayton (2011) summarised a range of emotional concepts related to fear, all of which can  
417 negatively impact wellbeing, including "solastalgia", "environmental anxiety" and "eco-  
418 anxiety". Fear of the future was mentioned on one hand in relation to climate change, but

419 also on the other hand on the impacts that low-carbon energy transitions such as a move  
420 away from coal means to local communities (Della Bosca and Gillespie 2018). Fear also  
421 featured in much reported EV “range anxiety” (Kershaw et al. 2018), but also in relation to  
422 large energy developments such as nuclear, hydrogen, hydropower, wind (Perlaviciute et al.  
423 2018) and high voltage power lines (Lienert et al. 2015).

424

### 425 5.1.3 Event related emotions (joy / anger, grief)

426 Joy and gratitude featured in 12 articles. People felt joy in driving EVs (Kershaw et al.  
427 2018) and bikes (Yin et al. 2019), or living in eco-communities (Mälgand et al. 2014) or near  
428 greener energy projects (Perlaviciute et al. 2018). At home, people enjoy the warmth of  
429 electric blankets, the noise of gas boilers; and lit coal fires bringing family members together  
430 (Wright 2018). The joys of having a warm coal fire were also closely linked to negative event  
431 related feelings of *grief*, *loss* and *sadness* (14 articles), in particular with the move away  
432 from coal in Australian mining communities, many of which had a long mining history  
433 spanning decades (Della Bosca and Gillespie 2018). The sense of loss can be multi-fold,  
434 relating to the loss of: a job and livelihood; mining community; identity; and home and place  
435 if people are forced to leave to look for work elsewhere (also Doherty and Clayton, 2011;  
436 Rohse et al. 2020). This sense of loss is also felt in more tacit every-day encounters,  
437 including the loss in the sensory experience of living in a coal-fired home (Rohse et al. 2020)  
438 and the loss of home décor such as the coal fire mantelpiece used to show “sentimental”  
439 objects (Wright 2018). Nevertheless, the driver for this move away from coal, i.e. climate  
440 change, also raised a lot of negative emotions, especially anger (Doherty and Clayton 2011;  
441 Hendersson and Wamsler 2020).

442

### 443 5.1.4 Self-appraisal emotions

444 The positive self-appraisal feeling *pride* (10 articles) was mentioned by drivers who  
445 felt better about themselves by driving an EV (Kershaw et al. 2018, also Brosch et al. 2018)  
446 or those who took part in sustainable energy projects (Ahlborg 2018; Centgraf 2018). Pride  
447 was also felt in association to being a member of a certain community or industry, like an  
448 eco-villager (Mälgand et al. 2014) or a coal miner (Della Bosca and Gillespie 2018). While  
449 consuming green products like EVs can bring pride, consumption can also lead to negative  
450 emotions of *shame* and *guilt* (7 articles). At domestic household scale, people feel guilty

451 about using or wasting energy (Brosch et al. 2018; Wright 2018), or making climate change  
452 worse by unsustainable behaviours such as flying (Henderson and Wamsler 2020). Such  
453 consumerist values often cause other negative impact such as unhappiness, depression and  
454 anxiety (Rogers et al. 2012).

455

#### 456 5.1.5 Social emotions

457 The positive social feelings of *generosity* and *empathy* were prominent in 10 articles.  
458 Brown et al. (2019) for example argue that sustainability research ought to pay more  
459 attention to empathy, given its central role in creating cultural meaning and embedding pro-  
460 environmental behaviour (see also Sleenhoff and Ossewijer 2016; Mälgaard et al. 2014).  
461 Thoughts for future generations encountered in how people felt about solidarity for others  
462 in the face of climate change (Brown et al. 2019), but also in cases where communities such  
463 as coal mining towns were facing demise (Della Bosca and Gillespie 2018). Negative social  
464 emotion *greed* featured in 3 articles, with people for example bragging about wasteful use  
465 of energy at home (Wright 2018). Wasteful behaviours were also linked to people's feelings  
466 about large scale technologies such as carbon capture and storage (CCS) which would  
467 ultimately allow people to continue their fossil fuel use (Perlaviciute et al. 2018), and further  
468 increase the gap between 'haves' and have-nots' which Doherty and Clayton (2011)  
469 indicated as one consequence of also climate change.

470

#### 471 5.1.6 Cathected emotions (love / hate)

472 One of the less often mentioned or discussed emotions were cathected emotions  
473 (that is, those that become attached to a particular entity, a person, object, or idea) of *love*  
474 and *hate*. Love was explicitly mentioned in two articles (Wright 2018, Frank 2014), whereas  
475 hate in only one (Frank 2014). When love was discussed, it nevertheless was shown to have  
476 a strong resonance to energy practices and appliances. Wright (2018) for example described  
477 a woman who loved her 30 year-old electric cooker despite it needing regular repairs and  
478 being the joke of the family.

479

#### 480 5.1.7 Other emotions

481 Lastly, our review unveiled a host of other emotions that did not neatly fit the  
482 categories in the Robinson typology. These included both positive and negative emotions.

483 For example, studies mentioned a positive *sense of wellbeing* related to technologies such  
484 as smart lighting which can provide comfortable indoor spaces (Lumpkin et al. 2020; Wang  
485 et al. 2018), but also *positive emotional attachment* to technologies or practices such as  
486 sitting around coal fires or heaths (Wright, 2018). Different forms of energy production  
487 enabled people to *feel connected* to places and communities, examples of which included  
488 an attachment to coal mining towns (Rohse et al. 2020) as well as positive emotions  
489 associated with running community renewable energy projects (Feola and Jaworska 2019;  
490 Malgand et al. 2014). However, these could also have negative emotions, such as people  
491 feeling *resistance* towards new energy projects in their locality that then affected their  
492 wellbeing, or— in the case of community renewable energy projects— feeling *fatigue* due  
493 to excessive commitments required for successful projects (Centgraf, 2018). This category of  
494 “other emotions” reveals that in many cases, emotions may also be mixed and context  
495 dependent by location, type of technology, or type of community or individual.

496

## 497 **5.2 Emotions connected to specific low-carbon sustainability transitions**

498

499 The emotions associated with low-carbon transitions can be categorized not only by  
500 their type, but also the technology or sociotechnical system they are connected with. This  
501 essentially reveals which emotions are associated with which technologies as well as their  
502 corresponding energy services or functions.

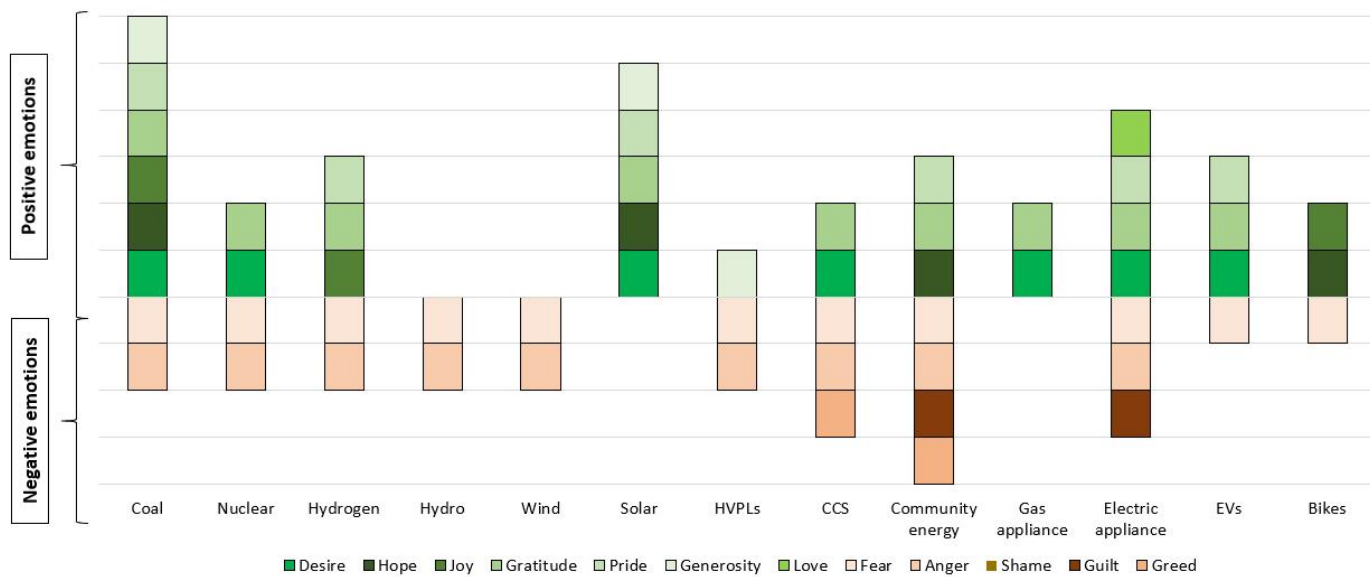
503

504 Indeed, as Figure 3 reveals, 13 different technologies were mentioned explicitly  
505 alongside some emotion, including some sources of energy supply (nuclear, hydro, coal),  
506 some end use devices (appliances, vehicles), and sources of delivery such as high voltage  
507 power lines. Across these technologies, seven positive emotions recur: desire, hope, joy,  
508 gratitude, pride, generosity, and love. Five negative emotions recur: fear, anger, shame,  
509 guilt, and greed. Interestingly, within our sample, some technologies have only positive  
510 emotions reported from the literature, e.g. gas appliances and solar energy. Some,  
511 surprisingly, have only negative, e.g. hydropower and wind power. Many more have mixed  
512 emotions, some as many as a bundle of seven combined positive and negative emotions  
513 (see Figure 3). In terms of decarbonization, our analysis shows that both low-carbon  
514 innovations and fossil fuels have positive emotions; but both also have a suite of negative  
emotions.

515

516 **Figure 3: The positive and negative emotions associated low-carbon transitions in the literature**

517



518

519 Note: Positive emotions plotted in the upper axis, negative in the lower axis. Colours are arranged in  
520 the order they appear in the legend, that is greed at the bottom row, guilt the second bottom, and  
521 so on. Desire is the first row for positive emotions, followed by hope, joy, and so on. See methods  
522 for more details on inclusion and exclusion criteria for reviewed literature. Note HVPLs = high  
523 voltage power lines, CCS = carbon capture and storage, EVs = electric vehicles.

524

525

526

As our findings in Section 5.1 already indicated, a range of emotions are related to  
527 energy and transport systems. We see emotions range from the desire to energy access  
528 (Ahlborg 2018) or EVs (e.g. Kershaw et al. 2018) to the impact of long-term energy  
529 transitions such as the death of the coal industry (e.g. Rohse et al. 2020; Della Bosco and  
530 Gillespie 2018; Wright 2018). Within larger-scale energy transitions, related for example to  
531 the transition away from coal, initial self-appraisal feelings of *pride* about being part of the  
532 coal industry can change to negative event related feelings of *loss* and *sadness*. Energy  
533 delivery infrastructure in particular is prone to raising emotions, as Lienert et al. (2015;  
534 2017) outlined in their study of high voltage power lines, concluding that public opposition  
535 can emerge if people’s emotional bonds with their place are disrupted (see also Brown et al.  
536 2019).

537

538

539

540

But even smaller and more decentralized energy infrastructures have strong  
emotions linked to them. For example, distributed resources like solar power usually evoke  
positive emotions (Perlaviciute et al. 2018). Solar as technology is often installed in  
community energy projects and small-scale co-operatives, members of which have reported

541 feeling joy and pride in being involved in such projects (Centgraf 2018; Mälgaard et al. 2014).  
 542 However, feelings of neglect have been reported by some family members of those who  
 543 have dedicated a lot of time for such projects (Centgraf 2018). Household appliances cause  
 544 a range of emotions as well, from that of love for age-old cookers to frustration over how  
 545 much space appliances take or the noise they make (Wright 2018).

546

### 547 **5.3 The temporality of expectations and emotional reactions**

548

549 In addition to the type of emotions and which specific technologies they relate to,  
 550 we also categorised emotions based on temporality. By this it can be shown how emotions  
 551 are attached to technologies at very different levels of maturity, readiness,  
 552 commercialization, and so on. Based on the classification of different transition phases in  
 553 Section 3, we identified three classes of energy and climate systems in our dataset:

- 554 • Those that are newly emerging and not yet fully commercialized, e.g. hydrogen fuel  
 555 cells and CCS;
- 556 • Those that are accelerating and starting to compete with dominant regimes, e.g.  
 557 community energy, solar, wind, EVs;
- 558 • Those that are fully established or even in decline, e.g. nuclear, hydropower, coal,  
 559 appliances, bikes, and HVPLs.

560 Based on this clustering, we can reconceptualize emotions by technologies at very  
 561 different phases of their lifecycle, an overview for which is offered in Table 4.

562

563 **Table 4: The emotions of low-carbon innovations across the temporal phases of emergence,**  
 564 **acceleration and stabilization**

565

	Emerging (hydrogen, CCS)	Accelerating (community energy, solar, wind, EVs)	Stabilized (nuclear, hydropower, coal, appliances, bikes, and HVPLs)
<b>Positive emotions</b>			
<i>Desire</i>	+	+++	++++
<i>Hope</i>		++	++
<i>Joy</i>	+		+
<i>Gratitude</i>	++	+++	+++++
<i>Pride</i>	+	+++	++
<i>Generosity</i>		+	++
<i>Love</i>			+

Negative emotions			
<i>Fear</i>	++	+++	++++++
<i>Anger</i>	++	++	+++++
<i>Shame</i>		+	
<i>Guilt</i>		+	+
<i>Greed</i>	+	+	

566 Note: HVPLs = high voltage power lines, CCS = carbon capture and storage, EVs = electric vehicles.  
567 The number of + correspond to the number of times a particular technology was affiliated with the  
568 emotion.

569  
570

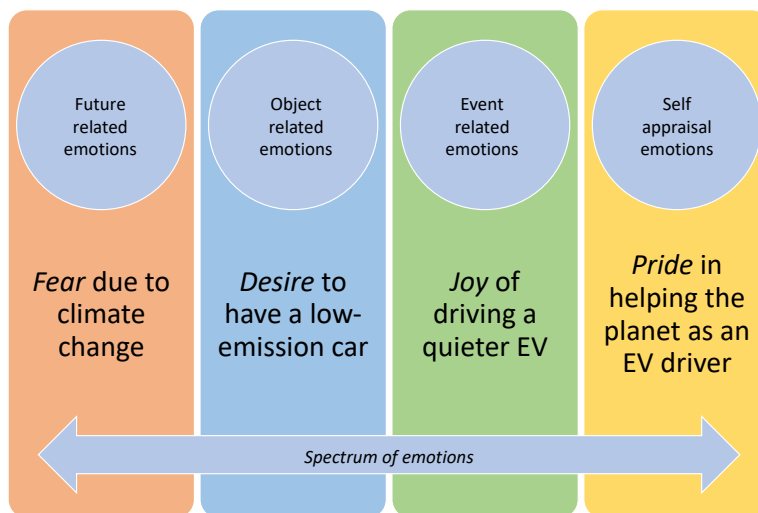
571 As Table 4 qualitatively indicates, there are no clear trends in terms of emotions and  
572 different phases of low-carbon transitions, which could partly be due to fact that only a  
573 limited number of studies have actually focused on examining emotional responses in  
574 different transition phases. What is clear, however, is that there is a range of both positive  
575 and negative emotions across all phases. Negative emotions feature more than positive  
576 ones, but positive feelings like desire remain even for stabilized technologies such as  
577 hydropower or coal, or well adopted items such as electrical appliances and bicycles. Also,  
578 people still fear and are afraid of these established technologies. That said, some  
579 peculiarities do emerge. Shame and guilt do seem to only emerge with the more dominant  
580 or becoming domain technologies. Love only occurs with fully established technologies. The  
581 intensity of emotions tends to increase as one moves towards stabilization, which could be  
582 because more technologies in our sample were stabilized, and therefore likely to have been  
583 better known and more the subject to research.

584 For example, in the case of energy access in Tanzania (Ahlborg 2018), developing  
585 better energy infrastructure was driven by the *desire* for a better quality of life, but when  
586 the energy development did not materialize quite as expected, event related negative  
587 feelings of *frustration*, and negative self-appraisal feelings of *shame* emerged. Similarly,  
588 Wright (2018) wrote about people in the UK changing from coal-fired homes to gas and  
589 electric homes, giving an example of a woman born in the 1940s who experienced miners'  
590 strikes and fuel shortages in the 1970s and had severe guilt over wasting electricity (or other  
591 waste) to the point that she developed an eating disorder. Kershaw et al. (2018) too showed  
592 with car drivers trialling EVs that their emotions changed over time on one hand, some felt  
593 dissatisfaction as the EV did not operate as expected, but on the other hand others were

594 disappointed having to go back to an ordinary car after the trial. These examples show how  
595 emotions are particularly relevant in regards to expectations on specific low-carbon  
596 transitions. An example of an emotional spectrum for one individual low-carbon innovation,  
597 an EV, is illustrated in Figure 4.

598  
599

**Figure 4: An illustrative spectrum of changing emotions related to driving an EV**



600  
601  
602

Source: Authors. Note that this includes only one emotion per category for illustrative purposes and does not exclude other emotions.

## 603 **6 Future research: Towards a research agenda for emotions in** 604 **sustainability transitions** 605

606 Our analysis recognises that emotions have an integral and important part in the  
607 success of sustainability transitions. Given the potential importance of emotions in the low-  
608 carbon sustainability transitions we examined here (across energy, transport and mobility,  
609 and buildings and housing), our analysis also points the way towards future and potentially  
610 fruitful research. This agenda has six concurrent and interconnected branches.

611 First, we urge the sustainability transitions community to undertake new, empirical  
612 research on this topic, by examining different emotions (that go also beyond the Robinson  
613 (2008) typology) at different scales, and across a number of relevant actors and  
614 stakeholders in sustainability transitions (e.g. innovators, users, policymakers, industry,  
615 researchers). This would help complement and triangulate our synthesis of the literature  
616 with new, timely, and original data. Often, such exercises challenge the literature and can  
617 confirm that many hypotheses held in academic studies are no longer valid when tested



618 with empirical data from consumers or the public, which Sovacool et al. (2012) found to be  
619 the case when comparing energy security suppositions in the academic literature with the  
620 preferences of citizens.

621 Second, our analysis centred mostly on those emotions or feelings arising from low-  
622 carbon transitions, but not sustainability transitions as a whole. Future work could indeed  
623 explore the context and extent of such emotions in other empirical areas such as:

- 624 • Agriculture and food, including food sharing but also emerging options such as meat  
625 substitutes or more sustainable genetically modified crops, or livestock rearing;
- 626 • Fishing and aquaculture, including techniques for ocean protection or marine  
627 protected areas, or new innovations such as deep sea mining or ocean fertilization;
- 628 • The decarbonization of industry and options such as 3D printing, automation, and  
629 carbon capture utilization and storage, all which may impinge upon emotions  
630 connected to sense of place, geography and new industry;
- 631 • Telecommunications, digitization, automation and the Internet of Things including  
632 5G networks, already producing strong emotions (e.g., fear) for perceived  
633 connections (rightly or wrongly) to cancer or even the Covid-19 pandemic;
- 634 • Other climate protection pathways such as greenhouse gas removal, negative  
635 emissions, solar geoengineering and solar radiation management which may require  
636 entirely new sociotechnical configurations;
- 637 • Transitions in urbanization and urban resilience, including how cities and other sub-  
638 national actors (such as transport planners, see Panek and, Benediktsson (2017),  
639 e.g. respond to natural disasters or emergencies.

640 All of these topics—and indeed myriad ones not mentioned here—would be fruitful to  
641 examine alongside the ones covered in our study.

642 Third, emotions may warrant new empirical material, new topical directions, as well  
643 as new methods of collecting that data. There is a case to be made for focusing on the  
644 phenomenology of emotions (Landweer and Szanto 2020; Sovacool et al. 2020a), that is,  
645 approaches centred on phenomenology or the direct lived experiences of particular  
646 communities facing sustainability transitions. Such an approach would likely benefit from  
647 being grounded in applied anthropology (Smith and High 2017) or ethnography (Hughes et  
648 al. 2020), while also considering issues such as the role of values (e.g. Perlaviciute et al.

649 2018). Similarly, research designs could focus on how emotions change via experimental or  
650 quasi-experimental designs based on different acts of priming (Carnelley and Row 2010) or  
651 framing (Hazboun et al. 2019; Sanderink 2020; Bayulgen and Benegal 2019) certain  
652 questions or experiences. These research designs could help determine which emotions  
653 have strong resonance (Williams et al. 2019) or resilience (Foster et al. 2014), or require  
654 adjustment (Valsaraj et al. 2017), and which do not. Other promising methodological  
655 avenues include the use of big data, machine learning, and sentiment analysis, where  
656 researchers could look at population level data to determine the prevalence of particular  
657 emotions based on keyword searches of social media such as Facebook or Twitter (Müller-  
658 Hansen et al. 2020; Sovacool et al. 2020c). Or collecting data from other sources, such as  
659 household diaries, oral histories, or even Living Laboratories that can monitor people's  
660 emotions (associated with different technologies) in real-time, real-world situations  
661 (Sahakian et al. 2021).

662 Fourth, emotions also challenge many existing conceptual frameworks within the  
663 field of sustainability transitions. They may for example cut across the niche, regime, and  
664 landscape features of the Multi-Level Perspective, or permeate all of the "functions" of the  
665 technological innovation systems (TIS) approach. Such frameworks, and others, may need  
666 extended, modified, tweaked, enhanced or even reformed to accommodate the potential  
667 salience of emotions.

668 Fifth, work on organizational, group or community emotions can complement  
669 research on individual emotions. For example, emotions experienced in, or by, groups may  
670 be very much different than those experienced by an individual (Coissard et al. 2017) and  
671 further research could for example examine the relation between individual and collective  
672 level emotions. Our framework may also apply to emotions within organizations and  
673 institutions, as well as communal and shared emotions related to low-carbon transitions,  
674 e.g. from neighbourhoods and communities (e.g. coal mining, community energy) to whole  
675 countries (e.g. energy saving and energy transitions, climate change). Decision about low-  
676 carbon sustainability transitions involving energy, transport and buildings are inherently  
677 shaped by historical, shared, emotions, which ultimately also influence the acceptance,  
678 uptake and success of such transitions. In this light, non-individualistic accounts of emotion  
679 (such as practice theory) may become all the more relevant (see e.g. Sahakian and Berthob

680 2018; Hampton and Adams 2018; Weenink and Spaargaren 2016; Wetherell 2014) in  
681 sustainability transitions research.

682 Sixth and finally, the topic of our research has treated two units of analysis—  
683 sustainability transitions, and emotions—as distinct. But in practice, both may coevolve and  
684 interrelate with each other. Emotions can change over time but so can technologies (via  
685 innovation, improvements in performance, etc.). This may create a sort of “double  
686 temporality” to the emotions of transitions, as well as interesting feedback loops that we  
687 deserve to be more closely examined. These feedback loops may be similar to the notion of  
688 “promise-requirement” cycles in the sociology of expectations (Van Lente 2012), or they  
689 may take on entirely new and differentiated dynamics. We would therefore welcome future  
690 research on questions such as which emotions could stimulate or constrain acceleration  
691 and/or stabilisation, how and under which conditions.

## 692 **7 Conclusion**

693 We set out to examine, via systematic review of previous literature, whether and  
694 how emotions have been explicitly studied in low-carbon sustainability transitions. Our  
695 study, although systematic, exploratory and qualitative in nature, highlights that low-carbon  
696 sustainability transitions raise a spectrum of emotions and these are not static, but can  
697 change over time, from fear and shame to pride and nostalgia. Emotions relating to energy  
698 systems for example, can change over a person’s lifetime, as well as across different types  
699 of energy technology and across different temporal phases of where that technology sits  
700 within the sociotechnical regime, though some emotions persist. Nostalgia plays a part,  
701 especially in terms of behaviours learnt in childhood (e.g. Wright 2018) and how people  
702 cope with changing circumstances such as the death of an industry like coal (Della Bosco  
703 and Gillespie 2018; Rohse et al. 2020). For example, the transition from solid fuels like coal  
704 to gas and electric heating in the UK provoked strong emotions such as desire and loss (see  
705 Wright 2018).

707 Specific appliances, such as gas cookers, electric blankets, and coal fires (e.g. Wright  
708 2018) have emotional resonance that go beyond their initial functionality. Emotions,  
709 however, are not only confined to a person but there are communal and shared emotions  
710 related to low-carbon transitions, e.g. from neighbourhoods and communities (e.g. coal

711 mining, community energy) to whole countries (e.g. energy saving and energy transitions,  
712 climate change).

713         If one accepts this finding, then the implications of it become potentially profound.  
714 First, learning to acknowledge, understand, and integrate emotions related to low-carbon  
715 transitions, rather than trying to ignore or suppress them could be a central feature of  
716 training for those who design, develop and decide on energy and transport systems (e.g.  
717 Rohse et al. 2020; Tejedor and Segalas 2018; Wamsler et al. 2018), be it policymakers,  
718 industry, regulators or end-users. Greater emotional literacy from policymakers could in the  
719 first place improve collective decision-making and collaboration in government, given the  
720 importance of social intelligence communicated via emotions and the importance of  
721 creating a safe psychological space for good collaboration (Mair et al. 2019). It could  
722 potentially improve the ability of organizations in government to learn, given that if people  
723 do not like each other, they are less likely to learn from each other (Mair et al. 2019). It will  
724 also be crucial for industry developing new products and services, or large-scale projects.  
725 Skills to develop attention management and a more proactive way of dealing with negative  
726 emotions can enhance engagement, motivation and productivity both at individual and  
727 group levels.

728         Second, understanding and unearthing emotions related to low-carbon transitions  
729 are also vital for those successfully adapting new technologies and services. This is  
730 particularly key in realizing that new technology may not work like old one and can turn out  
731 to be different from what was expected, raising different emotional responses. For example,  
732 heat pumps may make different noises from gas boilers, EVs will have a different driving  
733 experience to classis cars, and moving to a flexible renewable energy tariff may require  
734 using electric appliances at different times.

735         As we transition to a net zero society and require systemic changes in our homes,  
736 transport and mobility options, and relevant behaviours, we need to consider emotional  
737 responses to such changes – be it from policy makers, industry representatives or  
738 householders. Our study is a first step towards developing a research agenda for emotions in  
739 sustainability transitions - and recognising that emotions are an inherent part in the success,  
740 or unsuccess, of sustainability transitions. We believe this to be a critical topic that deserves  
741 far more future attention from both research and policy.

742

## 743 8 References

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