



Title	Public acceptance model for siting a repository of radioactive contaminated waste
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Public acceptance model for siting a repository of radioactive contaminated waste

The disposal of designated radioactive contaminated waste resulting from the Fukushima nuclear accident is a primary issue in Japan. However, residents often strongly oppose siting a repository of designated waste; therefore, a possible site remains undecided. The NIMBY (Not In My Back Yard) aspect, whereby people refuse to build a repository in their hometown, has led to strong opposition. This study examined a public acceptance model for the siting investigation of a repository of designated waste. The model proposes that the antecedents of the three types of fairness, namely, procedural, distributive, and interpersonal fairness, determine public acceptance in addition to affecting evaluation of designated waste. The study investigated the differences of influences of the three types of fairness between residents in possible siting areas and in a non-siting area to compare the cognitive process toward the NIMBY issue. The respondents included 1016 residents in possible siting areas (Miyagi, Tochigi, Gunma, Ibaraki, and Chiba Prefectures), and 1006 residents in a non-siting area (the Tokyo metropolitan area). All respondents completed a web-based questionnaire. The results revealed that the influence of procedural fairness on public acceptance in the non-siting area was stronger than it was in the possible siting areas. Conversely, the influence of distributive fairness was stronger in the possible siting areas than it was in the non-siting area. Furthermore, affect evaluation through antecedents of fairness was more influential for public acceptance in the possible sites than it was in the non-siting area. Therefore, the findings suggest that the strong opposition due to the NIMBY aspect was caused by the differences between the process of fairness and the concept of fairness that people emphasize.

Keywords: Designated waste; Distributive fairness; Interpersonal fairness; Procedural fairness; Public acceptance

1. Introduction

Waste contaminated by radioactive particles, encountered by Japan after the Fukushima nuclear accident in 2011, is a risk. The emissions of radioactive materials in this incident discharged into the environment in neighboring areas and the decontamination of these areas resulted in contaminated of waste due to radioactive. While contaminated wastes with low radioactivity concentration can be processed safely and can be disposed of just as ordinary waste, the Ministry of Environment stipulates that radioactive wastes exceeding 8000 Bq/kg should be disposed of as designated waste. Currently, designated waste has been temporarily stored by garbage incineration, water purification, and sewage treatment facilities, as well as on farms. Because of the ever-present risk of designated waste leaking due to natural disasters such as typhoons and landslides, a repository of the safe disposal thereof is an urgent matter. The Ministry of Environment plans to collect designated waste and locate a repository to prevent leakage of radioactive waste in prefectures where the waste is generated in large amounts. In Miyagi, Tochigi, Gunma, Ibaraki, and Chiba Prefectures where repositories are required, siting procedures to select a suitable area within each prefecture have been conducted. However, possible sites have, as yet, not been decided because of the strong opposition from local residents. In fact, three municipalities in the Miyagi Prefecture that were proposed as possible sites by the Ministry of Environment have been requested to withdraw their plans (Yomiuri Shinbun 2015, December 15).

Two aspects prevent the acceptance of such a repository. First, people tend to have stronger aversive reactions to a repository of radioactive waste such as high-level radioactive waste when compared with other undesirable facilities such as prisons and nuclear power plants (Easterling 2001). Second, repositories are characterized by the NIMBY attitude (Not In My Back Yard; Burningham, Barnett, and Thrush 2006; Luloff,

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3 26 Albrecht, and Bourke 1998). Especially, siting a NIMBY facility concentrates the risk
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5 27 and cost on siting areas while diffusing the benefits outside of the siting areas. Thus, even
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7 28 if they agree that a repository to dispose of harmful waste is necessary, they refuse to
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9 29 build one in their hometown, that is, their backyard. In particular, NIMBY facilities often
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11 30 induce a conflict between siting and non-siting areas. While residents in siting areas suffer
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13 31 damage to their private interests, such as a devaluation of property, those in non-siting
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15 32 areas are able to experience public interests, such as safety, without their private interests
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17 33 being damaged. Consequently, residents in siting areas experience repulsion to inequity
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19 34 and are likely to oppose the facility strongly.
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24 35 Social psychology discusses the multidimensional aspect of the judgment of
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26 36 fairness to accept technology or risky facilities. Besley (2010, 2012) suggested that
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28 37 distributive, procedural, and interpersonal fairness play a role in perceptions of decision-
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30 38 making of public acceptance. First, distributive fairness is concerned with the fairness of
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32 39 outcomes, such as risk–benefit evaluation. Research on justice has revealed that a
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34 40 desirable, i.e., equitable, result plays an important role in the acceptance of a decision
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36 41 (Deutsch 1975). Second, procedural fairness involves fairness in a decision-making
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38 42 procedure, such as the opportunity of voice. Research on justice has shown that
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40 43 procedural fairness is more important than distributive fairness (Lind and Tyler 1988;
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42 44 Törnblom and Vermunt 1999). Third, interpersonal fairness occurs when people
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44 45 recognize that risk communicators are trustworthy and respectful of people's views and/or
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46 46 values. According to Bies (2005), interactional fairness represents a third component of
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48 47 fairness along with distributive and procedural justice. Previous studies have
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50 48 demonstrated internalized moral values as related to the judgment of fairness (Skitka
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52 49 2002; Skitka and Mullen 2002). In issues related to energy technology, protected value,
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54 50 which is not tradable against other values, has consistent effects on the acceptance of
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3 51 various energy technologies (Fiske and Tetlock 1997; Siegrist and Visschers 2013;
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5 52 Visschers and Siegrist 2014). In conjunction with the risk communication of the risks and
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7 53 benefits of technology, acceptance of technology may become difficult if the procedure
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9 54 is contrary to people's values.
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14 55 **2. Public acceptance model of repository of radioactive waste**

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16 56 The public acceptance model is a comprehensive model that includes the three
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18 57 aspects of fairness to examine the psychological process involved in the public acceptance
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20 58 of siting a repository of high-level radioactive waste (HLW; Ohtomo et al. 2014; Osawa
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22 59 et al. 2016, : see Figure 1). In relation to distributive fairness, the model assumes risk
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24 60 perception and social and personal benefit. According to Luloff, Albrecht, and Bourke
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26 61 (1998), the siting of a repository can introduce inequity of risk and benefit between the
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28 62 siting areas and other areas. Risk perception has been considered to be an important factor
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30 63 that has an impact on the advantages and disadvantages involved in siting a repository of
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32 64 radioactive waste (Slovic, Flynn, and Layman 1991). Furthermore, social benefit was
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34 65 found to have an effect on the acceptance of siting the facility in Japan (Ohtomo et al.
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36 66 2014) whereas, in France, personal benefit was found to have an effect on acceptance
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38 67 (Osawa et al. 2016). The effect of benefits may vary according to the cultural context
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40 68 involved in the issue of radioactive waste. Previous studies have noted that benefits have
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42 69 little effect on the acceptance of a repository of HLW built in the neighborhood (Flynn et
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44 70 al. 1992; Tanaka 2004).
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51 71 The public acceptance model postulates that procedural fairness affects the
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53 72 acceptance of siting a repository. Research on justice has revealed that people are more
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55 73 likely to accept decisions, even when the outcomes are undesirable, when they perceive
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57 74 the decision-making procedure to be fair (Lind and Tyler 1988; Nonami et al. 2015; van
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59 75 den Bos 1999). Besley (2010, 2012) found that the effect of procedural fairness was the
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3 76 strongest among various fairness judgment factors in the acceptance of nuclear plants.
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5 77 Furthermore, in a study of repositories for low- and-intermediate-level waste, the fairness
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7 78 of procedures, such as those pertaining to public involvement, were of major concern in
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9 79 the acceptance of decisions (Krütli et al. 2010).

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12 80 With reference to interpersonal fairness, the public acceptance model proposes
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14 81 trust, stigma, and intergenerational subjective norms. Previous studies have found trust to
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16 82 be an important determinant of the public acceptance of technology (Earle 2010;
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18 83 Poortinga and Pidgeon 2006; Slovic 1999). In a study on the renewal of a nuclear reactor,
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20 84 trust had a consistent effect on the perception of risks and benefits before and after the
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22 85 Fukushima nuclear power plant accident (Visschers and Siegrist 2013). A previous study
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24 86 on repositories for HLW indicated that trust affected risk perception and stigma (Flynn et
25
26 87 al. 1992). Issues regarding radioactive waste are often exposed to strong opposition from
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28 88 quarters espousing ethical views (Seidl, Krütli, et al. 2013). Furthermore, ethical
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30 89 acceptability such as unfairness among generations is discussed because the storage of
31
32 90 radioactive waste is long-term across future generations (Mackerron and Berkhout 2009;
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34 91 Taebi 2017). Therefore, the stigma of perceptions as a “town polluted by radioactivity”
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36 92 due to acceptance of the repository and intergenerational subjective norms that are
37
38 93 responsible for influences across generations are significant barriers to accept the facility.
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40 94 Previous studies of the public acceptance model have revealed that stigma and
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42 95 intergenerational subjective norms decreased people’s acceptance of a repository
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44 96 (Ohtomo et al. 2014; Osawa et al. 2016).

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47 97 Finally, affect is considered to be a factor that biases various cognitions.
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49 98 Loewenstein et al. (2001) noted that affect has an important role in risk decision-making.
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51 99 Previous studies have found affect evaluation to be related to the preference for a nuclear
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53 100 plant (Keller, Visschers, and Siegrist 2012; Siegrist, Keller, and Cousin 2006).

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3 101 Furthermore, Besley (2012) suggested that the judgment of fairness in relation to the
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5 102 acceptance of a nuclear policy depends on affect evaluation. With regard to HLW, people
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7 103 who had negative emotions tended to be opposed to siting a repository, considering
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9 104 negative evaluations in various judgments or their perception of the process as being
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11 105 unfair (Slovic, Flynn, and Layman 1991). Thus, the public acceptance model postulates
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13 106 that affect evaluation influences the judgment of fairness as a bias factor.
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18 107 **3. The purpose of study**

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21 108 This study was aimed at examining the public acceptance model for siting a
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23 109 repository of designated waste that resulted from the Fukushima nuclear accident. In
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25 110 particular, the differences of the effect of fairness between the possible siting areas and
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27 111 non-siting areas, as well as the NIMBY aspect, in designated waste were revealed.
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30 112 When compared with nuclear power plants, repositories for radioactive waste
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32 113 have many disadvantages, such as radioactive contamination and stigma, and few benefits
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34 114 (Easterling 2001). Compensation is considered to be a means of solving such distributive
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36 115 unfairness. However, previous studies have shown that the introduction of monetary
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38 116 compensation tends to motivate personal benefit but does not encourage the acceptance
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40 117 of siting a repository (Frey, Oberholzer-Gee, and Eichenberger 1996; Seidl, Moser, et al.
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42 118 2013). Linnerooth-Bayer and Fitzgerald (1996) revealed that both general citizens and
43
44 119 residents in the possible host area did not support outright monetary compensation. Krütli
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46 120 et al. (2010) indicated that the safety and risk of radioactive waste repositories were of
47
48 121 great interest to residents in possible host areas. There may be a difference in risk
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50 122 perception although there is no difference in the evaluation of benefits between the siting
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52 123 and non-siting repository areas.
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57 124 In relation to the acceptance of technology, some studies have emphasized the
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59 125 importance of procedural fairness on public acceptance (Besley 2010, 2012; Krütli et al.

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3 126 2012b), whereas other studies have shown the limited impact of procedural fairness (Earle
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5 127 and Siegrist 2008; Visschers and Siegrist 2012). Skitka (2002) suggested that personal
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7 128 values such as moral mandates determine whether procedural fairness has an influence
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9 129 on acceptance. Procedural fairness postulates that people care more about the manner in
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11 130 which decisions are made than they do about the nature of decisions that are made
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14 131 (Törnblom and Vermunt 2016; Törnblom and Vermunt 1999). Consequently, procedural
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16 132 fairness plays a greater role when individuals place less value rather than greater value
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18 133 on issues. Similarly, when individuals are affected by possible repositories, the matter
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20 134 becomes one of high importance. Therefore, procedural fairness is likely to be stronger
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22 135 in areas that are unaffected by repositories.
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26 136 Furthermore, a strong affect reaction to the repository is more likely to arise in
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28 137 residents in siting areas rather than non-siting areas. Affect involves intuitive decision-
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30 138 making, such as that in the case of decisions entailing risks (Slovic 2007). In this study,
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32 139 it was assumed that affect biases the judgment of various fairness factors. Previous studies
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34 140 of risk decision-making have shown that affect evaluation influences antecedents of
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36 141 public acceptance (Dohle, Keller, and Siegrist 2012; Midden and Huijts 2009; Rodriguez-
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38 142 Sanchez et al. 2018). In particular, when affect experience was salient owing to risky
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40 143 events, such as natural disasters, affect evaluation was more likely to have an effect on
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42 144 risk judgment (Västfjäll, Peters, and Slovic 2008; Västfjäll, Peters, and Slovic 2014). In
43
44 145 this study, the influences of the affect evaluation of residents in possible siting areas,
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46 146 where affect evaluation is likely to be salient, and that of residents in non-siting area,
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48 147 where affect evaluation is less likely to be salient, were compared.
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148 **4. Methods**

149 *Participants*

150 A web-based questionnaire was distributed by INTAGE Inc., a web survey
151 company. Respondents were recruited among pooled samples in the company, who lived
152 in possible siting areas (Miyagi, Tochigi, Gunma, Ibaraki, and Chiba Prefectures), and in
153 a non-siting area (the Tokyo metropolitan area). About two hundred respondents were
154 recruited from each of the five possible siting areas, ensuring an equal number of men
155 and women. Also, about a thousand respondents were recruited from the Tokyo
156 metropolitan area, again with due attention to gender balance. The total sample consisted
157 of 1,016 respondents from the siting areas and 1,006 from non-siting areas. All the
158 respondents completed the web-based questionnaire. No significant differences were
159 found between respondents in the possible siting areas and in the non-siting area for age
160 (possible siting areas: $M = 45.98$, $SD = 11.85$ vs. non-siting area: $M = 46.12$, $SD = 11.70$;
161 $F(1, 2010) = .07$, $p = .795$) and gender (possible siting areas: male = 50%, female = 50%,
162 non-siting area: male = 50%, female = 50%; $\chi^2(1) = .002$, $p = .966$).

163 *Procedure*

164 The respondents were briefly explained using content from the Ministry of the
165 Environment's website,¹ regarding designated waste. Subsequently, affect evaluation of
166 designated waste, risk perception, and trust toward relevant organizations were assessed.
167 Thereafter, a hypothetical scenario in which the possibility of their city being chosen as
168 a possible siting area was described (Appendix). Stigma, intergenerational subjective
169 norms, procedural fairness, social benefits, personal benefits, and public acceptance of a
170 repository of designated waste were measured.

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3 171 ***Measurements***
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6 172 With the exception of affect evaluation, all items were rated on a 5-point Likert
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8 173 scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).
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10 174 Affect evaluation: Participants were asked to rate their feelings, using Semantic
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12 175 Differential adjectives, regarding designated waste of on a 5-point scale (good–bad,
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14 176 dislike–like, favorable–unfavorable, unpleasant–pleasant, necessary–unnecessary,
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16 177 dangerous–safe, harmless–harmful, unstable–stable, insecure–secure, problematic–
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18 178 unproblematic). A high score implied that the respondent had a positive feeling toward
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20 179 designated waste (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .91$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .91$).
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24 180 Risk perception: The respondents were required to assess the following items: If
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26 181 an accident or an unexpected situation comes to pass at a repository of designated waste,
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28 182 environmental damage would occur soon; Repository of designated waste is unfamiliar
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30 183 to me; I have enough knowledge regarding repositories of designated waste; Scientific
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32 184 understanding of repositories of designated waste is advancing; If radioactive materials
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34 185 leak from a repository of designated waste, many people would be harmed; If radioactive
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36 186 materials leak from a repository of designated waste, risk managers can minimize
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38 187 damage; Repositories of designated waste are dangerous to future generations, including
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40 188 children and grandchildren; and Repositories of designated waste are risky facilities.
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42 189 Higher scores indicated a higher risk perception (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .81$, non-siting
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44 190 area: $\alpha = .81$).
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49 191 Trust: The respondents were required to assess their trust toward three
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51 192 organizations by using the following items: The review committee has the ability to
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53 193 choose a proper area for the repository of designated waste; The review committee will
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55 194 make decisions that involve considering residents' safety; The government has the ability
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57 195 to handle the project of siting a repository of designated waste; The government will
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3 196 consider residents' safety when making decisions; The local government has the ability
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5 197 to judge the acceptance of a repository of designated waste; and The local government
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7 198 will consider residents' safety when making a decision. Higher scores implied greater
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9 199 trust (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .88$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .89$).

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12 200 Stigma: The respondents were required to assess the following two items: The
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14 201 city where I live and I will be avoided by people in other places; and Our city and I will
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16 202 be labeled negatively by other people. Higher scores implied stronger stigma (possible
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18 203 siting areas: $\alpha = .79$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .85$).

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21 204 Intergenerational subjective norms: The respondents were required to assess the
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23 205 following items: I will feel sorry for my ancestors if our city accepts a repository of
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25 206 designated waste; My ancestors would not expect me to accept a repository of designated
26
27 207 waste; I will feel sorry for my future children and grandchildren if our city accepts a
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29 208 repository of designated waste; My children and grandchildren would not expect me to
30
31 209 accept a repository of designated waste; My family would not expect me to accept a
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33 210 repository of designated waste; and Inhabitants in my city do not expect me to accept a
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35 211 repository of designated waste; Higher scores implied a stronger perception of normative
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37 212 pressure (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .90$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .90$).

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40 213 Procedural fairness: The following two items were assessed: The process of
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42 214 selecting a possible area for a repository of designated waste by the government was fair;
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44 215 The procedure that the government followed to select a possible area for a repository of
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46 216 designated waste was fair. Higher scores implied a fair procedure (possible siting areas:
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48 217 $\alpha = .86$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .86$).

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51 218 Benefit: Social benefit was measured by using two items: Accepting a repository
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53 219 will benefit the whole of our prefecture; and Accepting a repository will contribute to the
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55 220 whole of our prefecture (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .84$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .84$). Personal
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221 benefit was also measured by using two items: Accepting a repository will result in more
222 employment in our city; and Accepting a repository will result in financial benefits for
223 our city (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .76$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .77$).

224 Public acceptance: This was measured by using two items: I agree that this city
225 should accept a siting investigation for a possible repository area; and I can be convinced
226 our city should accept a siting investigation for a possible repository area. Higher scores
227 implied higher acceptance (possible siting areas: $\alpha = .90$, non-siting area: $\alpha = .88$).

228 5. Results

229 Descriptive statistics of the variables of the public acceptance model in the
230 possible siting areas and non-siting area are presented in Table 1. The mean values of
231 trust ($F(1, 2020) = 8.04, p = .005, \eta_p^2 = .004$); social benefit ($F(1, 2020) = 13.94, p < .001,$
232 $\eta_p^2 = .007$); and personal benefit ($F(1, 2020) = 22.09, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .011$) were statistically
233 higher in the non-siting area than they were in the possible siting areas.

234 To examine the causal relationships among the variables and the differences
235 between the possible siting areas and non-siting area, multi-group analysis with latent
236 variables of the model was conducted. The correlations of the latent variables are
237 presented in Table 2. To determine the difference path coefficients for the possible siting
238 areas and non-siting area, chi-square difference tests from the fully constrained model to
239 the unconstrained model were conducted to determine whether the additional path release
240 resulted in a statistically better model fit (Table 3). Based on the results of the chi-square
241 difference tests and AIC (Akaike Information Criterion)², the model without the
242 constrained paths of procedural fairness \rightarrow public acceptance, risk perception \rightarrow public
243 acceptance, social benefit \rightarrow public acceptance, affect evaluation \rightarrow social benefit, risk
244 perception \rightarrow stigma, fit the data better (Figure 1).

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3 245 Although the model demonstrated that the effect of procedural fairness on public
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5 246 acceptance in the non-siting area was stronger than it was on the possible siting areas, the
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7 247 effects of risk perception and social benefit on acceptance in the non-siting area were
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9 248 weaker than they were in the possible siting areas. The effects of risk perception on stigma
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11 249 and affect evaluation on social benefit in the possible siting areas were stronger than they
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13 250 were in the non-siting area. However, the effect of personal benefit on public acceptance
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15 251 was not significant in either the possible siting areas or the non-siting area.

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19 252 Furthermore, the difference of the indirect effect of affect evaluation on public
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21 253 acceptance mediated by other variables such as affect evaluation → risk perception →
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23 254 public acceptance between the possible siting areas and non-siting area was examined.
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25 255 The 95% confidence intervals of the indirect effect were estimated with a bias-corrected
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27 256 bootstrap method based on 10,000 resamples. For the possible siting areas, the indirect
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29 257 effect of affect evaluation on public acceptance was $B = .40$ (95%LCL = .325, 95%UCL
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31 258 = .470, $p < .001$). For the non-siting area, the indirect effect was $B = .26$ (95%LCL = .201,
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33 259 95%UCL = .318, $p < .001$). Consequently, affect evaluation in the possible siting areas
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35 260 was more influential for public acceptance than it was in the non-siting area.
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41 261 **6. Discussion**

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44 262 Our results revealed that with the exception of trust, as well as personal and social
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46 263 benefits, there were no significant differences among the variables in the public
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48 264 acceptance model for siting a repository of designated waste between residents in the
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50 265 possible siting areas and non-siting area. For trust and personal and social benefits,
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52 266 individuals in the non-siting area gave slightly higher rating than those in the possible
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54 267 siting areas on trust and on personal and social benefit. Thus, we can conclude that the
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56 268 residents in the non-siting area had somewhat greater trust in the organizations authorized
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58 269 to site a repository. Furthermore, they perceived greater personal and social benefits.
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3 270 Seidl, Moser, et al. (2013) found that people in a non-affected community of a deep
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5 271 geological repository had a more positive reaction than did those in the affected
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7 272 community.
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10 273 Furthermore, we identified significant differences in the process of public
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12 274 acceptance for the siting investigation of a repository between the residents of the possible
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14 275 siting areas and non-siting area. First, procedural fairness in the non-siting area had a
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16 276 stronger effect on public acceptance than it did in the possible siting areas. When an issue
17
18 277 is highly important to people, they tend to rely on distributive fairness and disregard
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20 278 procedural fairness when making a judgment (Earle and Siegrist 2008; Skitka 2002).
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23 279 When compared with the residents in the non-siting area, those in the possible siting areas
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25 280 had placed greater importance accorded to siting a repository of designated waste,
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27 281 consequently weakening the effect of procedural fairness on their acceptance.
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30 282 Second, the process of distributive fairness, risk perception, and social benefit in
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32 283 the possible siting areas had a more influential effect on acceptance than it did in the non-
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34 284 siting area. The influences of risk–benefit evaluation had a greater effect on acceptance.
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36 285 Furthermore, risk perception in the possible siting areas had a greater influence on stigma
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38 286 than it did in the non-siting area. In a study by Visschers and Siegrist (2013), the effects
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40 287 of risk perception before and after the Fukushima nuclear accident were compared, and
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42 288 the results showed that the influence of risk perception became stronger after the accident.
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44 289 If people, such as residents in the possible siting areas are concerned about the issue, risk
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46 290 perception may be a more influential factor. However, the effect of personal benefit on
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48 291 acceptance did not vary between residents in the possible siting areas and those in the
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50 292 non-siting area. After moral considerations, monetary compensation reduced the public’s
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52 293 willingness to accept a repository (Frey, Oberholzer-Gee, and Eichenberger 1996).
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54 294 According to Linnerooth-Bayer and Fitzgerald (1996), outright compensation is a
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3 295 distraction from the motivation to accept a repository as a social duty or responsibility
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5 296 and can undermine public acceptance. Previous studies have found that benefits related
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7 297 to personal interests were not an important determinant of the acceptance of a repository
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9 298 in the neighborhood (Flynn et al. 1992; Tanaka 2004). Thus, social benefits such as a
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11 299 desire to contribute to the community may be more important than personal benefits for
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13 300 people affected by the repository.
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17 301 Third, no significant differences in the process of interpersonal fairness between
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19 302 residents in the possible siting areas and non-siting area were found. A study on the public
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21 303 acceptance model of HLW by Ohtomo et al. (2014) revealed that the influences of stigma
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23 304 and intergenerational subjective norms were stable before and after the Fukushima
24
25 305 nuclear accident. Aspects of interpersonal fairness are perhaps not affected by changes in
26
27 306 social concerns in respect of nuclear accidents or the differences between the possible
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29 307 siting areas and the non-siting area in relation to NIMBY because the aspects are mainly
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31 308 concerned with people. However, these aspects were not important factors in the
32
33 309 acceptance of a repository of HLW in France (Osawa et al. 2016). The results, however,
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35 310 are perhaps linked to the characteristics of Japanese cultural contexts. The influences of
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37 311 fairness may differ according to cultural contexts such as collectivism vs. individualism.
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39 312 In this regard, further research is needed.
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44 313 Therefore, in accepting a repository of designated waste, this study showed that
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46 314 the residents in the possible siting areas who suffered potential damage to their private
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48 315 interests were likely to rely on distributive fairness, whereas residents in the non-siting
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50 316 area were likely to rely on procedural fairness. Furthermore, the influence of interpersonal
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52 317 fairness was not likely to vary among the residents in both the areas. The NIMBY issue
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54 318 in the acceptance of a repository of designated waste may be evoked by the different
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56 319 perceptions of fairness between residents in the possible siting areas and the non-siting
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3 320 area. As noted previously, residents in the non-siting area were able to accept decisions
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5 321 because of procedural fairness, while those in possible siting areas based their viewpoint
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7 322 on distributive fairness. However, procedural fairness was one of the most important
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9 323 determinants of public acceptance for residents in both areas. This finding differs from
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11 324 those of studies that revealed that procedural fairness had little influence on public
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13 325 acceptance (Earle and Siegrist 2006; Visschers and Siegrist 2012). On the contrary, the
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15 326 findings of the present study are consistent with studies that found procedural fairness to
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17 327 be a main determinant of public acceptance (Besley 2010, 2012). However, without
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19 328 procedural fairness, it would be impossible to legitimize the acceptance of the risk of a
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21 329 repository of harmful waste. Some studies have assumed that procedural fairness is a
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23 330 prerequisite for acceptance (Krütli et al. 2012a; Törnblom and Vermunt 2016). Our results
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25 331 revealed that personal benefits had no effect on acceptance. It is difficult to compensate
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27 332 for stigma and intergenerational subjective norms, which result from siting a repository
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29 333 of designated waste. Consequently, procedural fairness perhaps plays an important role
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31 334 in accepting an undesirable decision.
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37 335 Furthermore, affect evaluation was relatively negative in the residents of both
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39 336 areas. Previous studies have demonstrated that affect evaluation influenced the risk
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41 337 decision involved in nuclear power (Keller, Visschers, and Siegrist 2012; Siegrist, Keller,
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43 338 and Cousin 2006). In particular, the more salient the affect experience the greater the
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45 339 impact of affect evaluation on the risk decision (Västfjäll, Peters, and Slovic 2008;
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47 340 Västfjäll, Peters, and Slovic 2014). Consistent with the typical NIMBY pattern, in
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49 341 contrast to the residents in the non-siting area, siting a repository was an important issue
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51 342 for residents in the possible siting areas. Consequently, affect evaluation was more likely
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53 343 to be salient. Previous studies have demonstrated that affect evaluation influenced the risk
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55 344 acceptance indirectly through risk perception and benefit evaluation (Dohle, Keller, and
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3 345 Siegrist 2012; Midden and Huijts 2009; Rodriguez-Sanchez et al. 2018). The findings of
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5 346 this study suggest that the affect evaluation of residents in the possible siting areas became
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7 347 salient as a real risk issue and that the affect evaluation influenced public acceptance
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10 348 through antecedents such as social benefits. Because residents in the possible siting areas
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12 349 reacted emotionally to a repository of designated waste, they were relatively influenced
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14 350 by the process of distributive fairness (i.e., risk perception and social benefit), which is
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17 351 an obstacle to the public acceptance of siting a repository.

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19 352 This study has several limitations. Although we tested a causal model, our analysis
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21 353 was based on a cross-sectional dataset. Therefore, we cannot fully generalize conclusions
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23 354 about causal relationships. Further systematic studies such as experiments are
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25 355 recommended for the purpose of validating more evidence in relation to how affect
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27 356 evaluation and variables of fairness influence public acceptance. Furthermore, the study
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29 357 implemented a survey with a hypothetical scenario because the possible siting areas for a
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31 358 repository have yet to be chosen. In the domain of justice research, the validity of studies
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33 359 with hypothetical scenarios has been confirmed (Nonami et al. 2015; van den Bos 1999).
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35 360 Our sample in the possible siting areas was recruited from all areas within the prefectures.
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37 361 However, it is possible that our sample may differ from that constituted by residents of
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39 362 an area chosen to be a site for a repository in the future. When the siting area is actually
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41 363 chosen, a survey study targeting the area will be needed to generalize our conclusions to
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43 364 the reality. Although it is not at a serious level, trust, in relation to radioactive wastes,
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45 365 toward governments and organizations showed a drop after the Fukushima nuclear
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47 366 accidents. Recovering trust is also an important issue in the promotion of siting a
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49 367 repository. Moreover, interpersonal fairness represents a third component of fairness.
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51 368 However, the component is highly related to such issues, and we suggested that the issue
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3 369 of radioactive wastes was a concern regarding stigma and future generations as an
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5 370 interpersonal fairness. Further research is needed to examine these concepts.
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8 371 Despite these limitations, this study may promote public acceptance of a
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10 372 repository of designated waste. Procedural fairness, distributive fairness, and
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12 373 interpersonal fairness were employed to determine the public acceptance of a siting
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14 374 investigation for a repository. Procedural fairness was the main determinant of acceptance
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16 375 for residents in the non-siting area. On the contrary, distributive fairness was the main
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18 376 determinant of acceptance for those in possible siting areas and for individuals with
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20 377 greater likelihood of affect evaluation being salient. Our study suggests the importance
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22 378 of changing approaches to promote acceptance according to the fairness that people
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24 379 emphasize.
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Note:

1. The web site was retrieved from http://shiteihaiki.e.nv.go.jp/initiatives_other/.
2. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to select between competing models. A lower AIC value indicates better fitting model (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, and Müller 2003).

Appendix

Hypothetical scenario

In A prefecture in which you live, all the municipal chiefs' meetings discussed how to choose a repository site for designated waste. The government explained that they would review the possible site based on safety and security in the process of site-selection and announce the result.

The procedure of deciding on a municipality to have a repository is as follows:

1. The government should explain to all city and town mayors the necessity of siting a repository in the prefecture.
2. Regarding the site-selection of a repository, the government should incorporate the requests and opinions of the city and town mayors.
3. Regarding the criteria and procedure for site-selection, the government should refer to the opinions of council experts.
4. According to the request from city and town mayors, the government should select a possible site by scientific and technical standards that are based on safety and security, and council experts should review the result.

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3 5. The government should present the possible sites adjudged as appropriate area to city and town
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5 mayors.

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7 6. The city and town mayors of possible sites should decide whether to accept a siting
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9 investigation for a repository.
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14 | Because of site-selection, the city where you live was chosen as one of the possible sites.
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Table 1. Means and standard deviations in the possible siting areas and non-siting area

	Affect evaluation	Risk perception	Trust	Personal benefit	Social benefit	Stigma	Intergeneration al subjective norm	Procedual fairness	Acceptance
Possible siting areas(n=1016)	1.97 (.73)	1.97 (.63)	2.56 (1.23)	3.84 (.95)	2.56 (.93)	3.46 (.92)	3.05 (.88)	2.77 (.86)	2.75 (1.02)
Non-siting area(n=1006)	2.01 (.74)	2.01 (.63)	2.66 (1.26)	3.99 (.88)	2.71 (.91)	3.43 (.91)	3.04 (.83)	2.81 (.83)	2.82 (.92)
F(1, 2020)	1.10	.18	8.04**	22.09**	13.94**	.55	.09	1.11	2.85
η_p^2	.001	.000	.004	.01	.01	.000	.000	.001	.001

** $p < .01$.

Table 2. Correlations among latent variables in the possible siting areas and non-siting area

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Affect evaluation	-	-.78 **	.49 **	.30 **	.50 **	-.42 **	-.35 **	.29 **	.46 **
2 Risk perception	-.74 **	-	-.57 **	-.36 **	-.61 **	.57 **	.52 **	-.32 **	-.56 **
3 Trust	.37 **	-.49 **	-	.38 **	.56 **	-.36 **	-.26 **	.66 **	.55 **
4 Personal benefit	.17 **	-.25 **	.39 **	-	.80 **	-.18 **	-.26 **	.32 **	.50 **
5 Social benefit	.42 **	-.53 **	.55 **	.73 **	-	-.43 **	-.47 **	.43 **	.70 **
6 Stigma	-.39 **	.50 **	-.23 **	.01	-.23 **	-	.61 **	-.25 **	-.43 **
7 Intergenerational subjective norm	-.31 **	.44 **	-.23 **	-.09 *	-.29 **	.54 **	-	-.27 **	-.55 **
8 Procedural fairness	.26 **	-.40 **	.68 **	.43 **	.51 **	-.19 **	-.17 **	-	.52 **
9 Acceptance	.39 **	-.52 **	.58 **	.42 **	.64 **	-.36 **	-.43 **	.68 **	-

Note * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Correlations in the possible siting areas are above the diagonal and correlations in the non-siting area are below the diagonal.

Table 3. Model fit indexes of unconstrained and constrained models

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	Δp	AIC	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
Unconstrained model	972.65	214	<.01	-	-	-	1156.65	.95	.96	.04
Full constrained model	1011.66	228	<.01	39.02	14.00	<.01	1167.66	.94	.96	.04
Free of PF to Acc path constraint	1005.47	227	<.01	6.19	1.00	<.05	1163.47	.94	.96	.04
plus Free of Risk to Acc path constraint	998.58	226	<.01	6.89	1.00	<.01	1158.58	.94	.96	.04
plus Free of SB to Acc path constraint	991.36	225	<.01	7.22	1.00	<.01	1153.36	.95	.96	.04
plus Free of Aff to SB path constraint	987.17	224	<.01	4.18	1.00	<.05	1151.17	.95	.96	.04
plus Free of Risk to Stigma constraint	982.64	223	<.02	4.53	1.00	<.05	1148.64	.95	.96	.04

Note: PF = procedural fairness, Acc = acceptance, Risk = risk perception, SB = social benefit, Aff = Affect evaluation

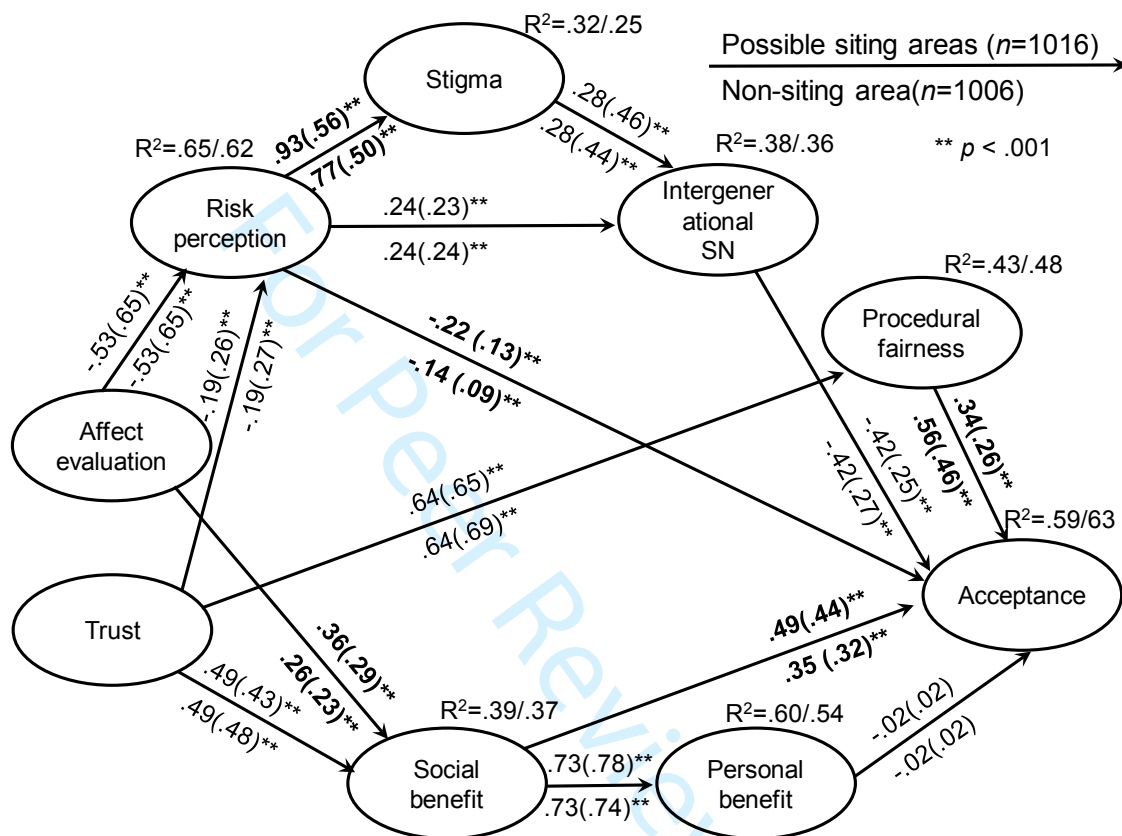


Figure 1. Multi-group model in the possible siting areas and the non-siting area

Note: Path coefficients outside the parentheses indicate an un-standardized solution.

Path coefficients in parentheses indicate a standardized solution.