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# Emotional response to images of wind turbines: An experimental psychophysiological study of their visual impact on the landscape

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## 1. Introduction

2

3 One of the headline targets of the "Europe 2020" strategy is to obtain 20% of all the  
4 required energy from renewable sources. Energy supply is one of the leading causes of  
5 greenhouse gas emission (Pachauri & Reisinger, 2007) and debates continue about the best  
6 strategies for the increased implementation of renewable energy sources. Wind turbines  
have a

7 low power production carbon footprint, and it has been suggested that by 2030, half of the  
8 worldwide power demand could theoretically be covered by wind energy (Jacobson &  
Archer,

9 2012). In this paper we focus on one challenge for wind turbine implementation - social  
10 acceptance. Social acceptance for wind turbines is variable, with most European countries  
11 lagging behind Denmark's 95% acceptance rate. For example in the UK, 63% are in  
favour of

12 wind turbines, 28% show balanced views, 5% oppose and 4% do not know (Kondili &  
Kaldellis,

13 2012). Thus, wind energy projects that are well thought-out technically may fail because  
of

14 residential opposition.

15 Environmental challenges have heightened the need for the integration of psychological  
16 data and their contribution to the science of climate change (Swim et al. 2009). Although  
17 perception, emotions and attitude have a strong impact on decision making, historically  
most

18 empirical studies on attitudes towards wind turbines have been conducted in a market  
research

19 manner (Devine-Wright, 2007). In 2005, an analysis of 34 studies on attitudes to energy  
20 technologies in the UK revealed that the majority of wind polls were commissioned by  
non21

governmental organizations, such as Greenpeace, and the industry, and that peer reviewed  
22 research had been scarce (McGowan & Sauter, 2005). Our understanding of the

determinants of attitudes wind turbines has developed 23 since then. For example, Jones and  
Eiser (2009; 2010)

24 show that even when a person's general attitude to wind turbines is progressive, her  
specific

25 attitude to proposed development nearer to homes is usually more negative. Because  
emotions  
26 are more likely to be involved in decision making in those latter situations, their findings  
27 demonstrates that psychological sciences and deeper understanding of psychological and  
28 physiological factors leading to wind turbine acceptance and opposition could be useful in  
29 planning implementation of wind turbine technology where this is considered technically  
30 appropriate. Similarly, while in 2011 only 11 peer-reviewed papers on the effect of wind  
turbines  
31 on human health were available, by 2014 the number grew to 60 (Knopper and Ollson,  
2011;  
32 Knopper et al., 2014). Knopper et al.'s review was also suggestive of the key role of  
33 psychological factors above and beyond objective impact of wind turbines's noise and  
34 operational effects.

35 Here we propose a novel method for assessing the visual impact of wind turbines on the  
36 landscape, a factor which plays a significant role in attitudes towards this technology  
(Wolsink,  
37 2000). A recent review of the effect of turbines on human health (Knopper et al., 2014)  
38 concluded that "when sited properly, wind turbines are not related to adverse health  
effects", but  
39 that subjective reports of detrimental health impact have more to do with "visual cues and  
40 attitudes". This conclusion is supported by the finding that visual aspects can influence the  
41 perception of noise from wind turbines (Maffei et al., 2013). Focusing on the visual impact  
is  
42 further justified by findings that when turbines are located „out of sight“ they are more  
acceptable  
43 (Jones & Eiser, 2010). Providing insight on the impact of wind turbines on viewer's  
perception  
44 of scenic beauty, De Vries, de Groot & Boers (2012) found that participants generally  
perceived  
45 wind turbines as negative man-made structures and that closeness to turbines and  
landscape  
3  
beauty influenced the perceived impact, and Pedersen 46 and Persson (2007) suggest a link  
between  
47 perception of turbines as „ugly“ and annoyance. This may be because turbines reduced the  
48 restorative attributes of landscape images (Chang et al., 2008). Indeed, wind turbines have  
been  
49 shown to have a significant impact on tranquillity as shown by the relatively low ratings  
given by  
50 jury members' evaluations of a 50m high installation (Watts and Pheasant, 2013). The  
current  
51 study extends this research by focusing on the emotional domain and analysing  
52 psychophysiological reactions to wind turbines using photo manipulated pictures.  
53 When it comes to judging the visual impact on the landscape, supporters and opponents  
54 pay attention to different details. While supporters focus on benefits, such as  
environmental  
55 values, opponents mostly see the negative effects, for example a "disharmony" with the  
56 landscape (Krohn & Damborg, 1999). According to Jasper (1998), the emotions of anger  
and

57 surprise, which may characterise the attitude of wind turbine opponents to their visual  
impact  
58 (Cass & Walker, 2009), are associated with bodily reactions. These reactions are mostly  
59 manifested as increased activation of the sympathetic nervous system; a system that  
60 predominantly responds to sudden changes in the environment, such as a threat or an  
injury, and  
61 prepares the body for a fight-or-flight reaction. Consequently a number of physiological  
changes  
62 are initiated, including changes in heart rate and increase in sweat secretion (Kandel,  
Schwartz,  
63 & Jessell, 2000). The conductance of the skin gradually increases with self- reported  
emotional  
64 arousal (Lang, Greenwald, Bradley, & Hamm, 1993).  
65 Current literature on wind turbine opposition is limited because it relies on data from  
66 questionnaires and interviews, which are often influenced by factors beyond the emotional  
67 response itself, such as beliefs about the efficiency of this technology (Krohn & Damborg,  
68 1999). Differences between reported and felt emotions could arise, on the one hand, when  
4  
questionnaires are answered by 69 individuals who are directly affected by an upcoming  
70 installation, where responses may be more goal-directed. On the other hand, Jones and  
Eiser's  
71 (2009, 2010) data on the difference between general attitudes and specific attitudes to  
wind  
72 farms closer to home suggest that attitudes reflected in questionnaires and interviews may  
73 change when people are confronted with a wind turbine environment. Skin conductance  
changes  
74 are not under voluntary control and therefore could provide an objective index of the  
emotional  
75 reaction (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). To date, no study has used a psychophysiological  
approach  
76 to quantify objectively the intensity of emotions associated with the visual impact of wind  
77 turbines; this was the goal of the current experiment.  
78 The current study investigated physiological responses to pictures of wind turbines  
79 against a range of rural scenes. Looking at pictures is very different from experiencing  
events,  
80 but their symbolic threat is sufficient to trigger an emotional arousal response and a  
concomitant  
81 sympathetic reaction, including skin conductance responses (SCRs) (Bradley, Codispoti,  
82 Cuthbert, & Lang, 2001; Chang et al., 2008; Lang et al., 1993). Chang et al. (2008), for  
instance,  
83 found an increase in alpha frequency and a decrease in blood pressure when participants  
viewed  
84 natural scenes judged to be „restorative“.  
85 Clearly, the full visual impact of rotating turbine blades will not be recreated using still  
86 images. Nevertheless such rotations may well be assumed by viewers such that any  
assessed  
87 impacts may provide a reasonable indication of operating turbines. Additionally, the  
88 aerodynamic noise produced by rotating turbines, which is not captured by picture stimuli,  
is

89 another important factor in wind turbine opposition as it is known to cause annoyance to  
90 residents (Knopper et al., 2014). However, this soundscape aspect has already been well  
5 researched (Fiumicelli, 2011) and it 91 has been found that visual aspects affect noise  
perception of  
92 wind turbines (Maffei et al., 2013).  
93 We hypothesised that landscapes with wind turbine will generate stronger SCRs than  
94 control sceneries with churches, but lower SCRs than aversive control pictures selected to  
evoke  
95 negative emotions (e.g. war scenes, bee sting). Churches were chosen because, like  
turbines, they  
96 are prominent, man-made environmental stimuli, but unlike turbines, they are familiar,  
usually  
97 not controversial, and have been shown to have little or no detrimental effect on the  
tranquillity  
98 of the countryside (Pheasant, Watts & Horoshenkov, 2009). As an additional control we  
also  
99 compared reactions to turbines to reactions to other familiar, man-made environmental  
stimuli  
100 associated with energy production. We distinguished between participants who were for  
and  
101 against wind turbines with a novel questionnaire, and further hypothesised that wind  
turbine  
102 opponents would exhibit stronger SCRs to wind turbines compared with control stimuli,  
and that  
103 this difference would be reduced for wind turbine supporters.  
104 To assess the intensity of subjectively felt emotions we also asked participants to rate the  
105 intensity of the emotional arousal they experienced when viewing scenes with wind  
turbines and  
106 the valence of these scenes for them. This is important because SCRs and arousal ratings  
do not  
107 reflect the degree of pleasure or displeasure associated with viewing pictures (Bradley,  
Cuthbert,  
108 & Lang, 1990). We hypothesized that turbines will be rated as more arousing and more  
negative  
109 than the more familiar industrial constructions in the landscape and that this effect will be  
110 reduced in wind turbine supporters.

111

6

## 112 **2. Methods**

### 113 **2.1 Participants**

114 60 University of Manchester undergraduate students (54 female, 6 male) aged 18 – 35  
115 (mean age  $M=20.67$ , standard deviation  $SD=2.92$ ) completed the online questionnaire for  
course  
116 credits. Respondents were ranked by their degree of wind turbine support. 30 participants  
with  
117 the higher and lower scores were classified as supporters or non-supporters and invited to  
118 participate in the subsequent laboratory study for course credits or reimbursement (£7).  
23 took

119 part and 21 completed the study, one was excluded because of a skin condition and one because  
120 of a fire alarm. The study was approved by the local Research Ethics Committee and  
121 participants  
122 gave written informed consent. All participants were fluent English speakers, had normal  
123 or  
124 corrected-to-normal vision and no history of mental illnesses or neurological problems.

## 124 **2.2 Materials**

125 *Wind attitude questionnaire.* A new questionnaire consisting of nine wind turbine related  
126 questions and six more general questions (asking about other energy sources, churches or  
127 pylons)

128 was constructed (see Table 1). Five questions directly assessed attitudes towards wind  
129 turbines.

130 Because there is evidence for a relationship between environmental protection priorities  
131 and

132 attitudes towards renewable energy (Poortinga, Pidgeon, & Lorenzoni, 2006; The  
133 Department of

134 Trade and Industry, 2003; but see London Renewables, 2003, as cited in Devine-Wright,  
135 2007)

136 two general questions about environmental concerns were included. One question asked  
137 about

138 their self-assessed knowledge about renewable energy, and another one about their  
139 familiarity

140 with wind turbines. Participants answered using a 5-point rating scale.

141 7

142 *Picture stimuli.* 143 10 images of wind turbines, churches, pylons and power plants and 10  
144 landscape pictures were obtained using Google image search. None of the images were  
145 copy136

146 righted. These landscape pictures varied along a continuum from managed to unmanaged land.  
147 Figure 1 depicts examples of the pictures used. Each object was inserted into each of the  
148 10

149 landscape pictures using Gimp 2 software, yielding 40 pictures. The stimuli were  
150 counterbalanced for size and position within the background by grouping them into 3  
151 different

152 size scales and 3 spatial positions. Size was defined by the proportion of picture height  
153 that was

154 occupied by the stimuli, whereby heights less than 30% represented small, between 30%  
155 and

156 40% medium and more than 40% large stimuli. Spatial position was classified as the left,  
157 middle

158 or right third of the picture. We also computed the percentage surface area occupied by  
159 the

160 object in relation to the whole picture. On average, churches occupied 4.9%, power plants  
161 3.6%,

162 pylons 2.4%, and turbines 0.75%. The difference between the objects was not statistically  
163 significant ( $F(3,36)=1.8, p>0.15$ ) although the smaller surface area of turbines, which are

164 narrower than other constructions, should be born in mind. Ten aversive control pictures  
165 were

148 obtained from the same source or the International Affective Picture System (IAPS,  
Lang,  
149 Bradley, & Cuthbert, 2008) and depicted disturbing scenes of varying intensities: an  
empty  
150 wallet, a slug, a broken mobile phone, a nail scratching a blackboard, a bee sting, a  
person  
151 slipping on ice, people holding guns, a man pointing a gun to a child, a woman in distress  
and an  
152 injured baby in hospital. All images are available upon request.  
153 *Rating-scales*. Valence and arousal were rated on a 9-point scale using the Self-  
154 Assessment Manikin (SAM) scale (Bradley & Lang, 1994), a widely used rating scale  
that uses  
155 figures to allow participants to indicate how they feel on these dimensions; for example,  
valence  
156 is rated using figures with an upturned mouth (happy), a straight mouth (neutral), to a  
8  
downturned mouth (unhappy, Figure 2). R 157 atings of tranquillity on a 0 to 10 scale (Watts  
&  
158 Pheasant, 2013) were also obtained and will be reported separately (Watts, Maehr &  
Talmi, in  
159 preparation). Mood was measured using three 9-point Likert scales which covered the  
160 dimensions happiness (ranging from happy to unhappy), anxiety (ranging from anxious to  
calm)  
161 and despondency (ranging from despondent to cheerful). Mood ratings were introduced  
to ensure  
162 participants were not unduly distressed by the aversive pictures, and data from them was  
not  
163 analysed further.

#### 164 165 **Apparatus.**

166 Skin conductance response measurements were recorded using a constant voltage system  
167 (0.5Volts) and Ag/AgCl cup electrodes with a 10mm diameter, both manufactured in-  
house.  
168 Measurements were recorded with a 1401 plus data acquisition system (Cambridge  
Electronic  
169 Designs, Cambridge, UK) and digitized using Spike2 software (Cambridge Electronic  
Designs,  
170 Cambridge, UK). Temperature and humidity in the laboratory were recorded and ranged  
between  
171 21 and 24 degrees Celsius and 28% and 40%, respectively.

#### 172 173 **2.3 Procedure**

174 Participants in the initial Questionnaire study signed up for the study using the  
175 University's sign-up system and completed the questions online. Laboratory study  
participants  
176 were tested individually in a quiet room by an experimenter (the first author) who did not  
know  
177 them personally and was blind to their attitude towards wind turbines. After giving  
written

178 consent, the electrodes were filled with a water-based gel and affixed to the ventral  
portion,  
9  
middle phalanx of digits 2 and 4 of 179 the left hand of each participant. Participants were  
asked to  
180 place their arm on an arm rest and to keep it still throughout the experiment. They were  
then  
181 given instructions on how to rate valence, arousal and tranquillity, and practiced rating  
five  
182 practice pictures. To minimize movement artefact in the SCR measurement participants  
gave  
183 their rating by pointing to the relevant location on a printed copy of the scales, located  
next to  
184 their right hand; these responses were recorded by the experimenter who sat next to the  
185 participant for the duration of the experiment. The light was then switched off and the 50  
186 pictures were presented in a pseudorandomized order, with no more than 2 pictures from  
the  
187 same condition appearing consecutively. Participants were instructed to look at the  
picture the  
188 entire time it was displayed. Figure 2 describes schematically what a single step of  
picture  
189 viewing and ratings looked like. To prevent fatigue a break of self-determined duration  
was  
190 given in the middle of the sequence. Participants filled out the mood rating before and  
after the  
191 experiment; no participant reported a marked change in mood.

192

### 193 **3. Results**

#### 194 **3.1 Questionnaire study**

195 The 9 items in the questionnaire were originally generated to assess attitudes to wind  
196 farms and wind power along with one question each on knowledge of renewable energy  
and  
197 concern about the environment (see Table 1). Responses on the questionnaire were  
translated  
198 into numbers, whereby high numbers stand for high wind turbine support. Table 2  
provides  
199 descriptive statistics for these items. Exploratory factor analysis was initially carried out  
on the  
200 responses to these original items. Inspection of the scree plot and eigenvalues in the  
exploratory  
10  
factor analysis (Figure 3) indicated that a three factor solution was appropriate.  
Confirmatory  
202 factor analysis (a principle component analysis with direct oblimin rotation; the same  
results  
203 were obtained with varimax rotation) was then carried out. Inspection of the items  
loading on  
204 each factor showed that only one of the three factors was interpretable. This factor had  
three

205 items with loadings above 0.70. These items were “I find the appearance of wind farms within a  
206 landscape acceptable”, “I would be concerned if a wind turbine would be built in my  
207 neighbourhood [reverse coded]” and “wind turbines spoil the views in many rural areas  
[reverse  
208 coded]”. This factor was therefore considered to measure attitudes to wind farms in the  
209 landscape with good face validity. Split half reliability was acceptable for this small  
sample size  
210 with Cronbach’s alpha of .68. The remaining two factors were not interpretable as the  
items  
211 loading on these factors did not appear to relate to identifiable underlying concept/latent  
variable.  
212 The average of the wind attitude score ( $M=3.35$ ,  $SD=1.05$ ) indicated a slightly favourable  
213 attitude towards wind turbines in our sample.  
214 Table 2 depicts the correlation between questionnaire items. Interestingly, the wind  
215 attitude score correlated positively with score on the question „Protecting the  
environment is one  
216 of my biggest concerns“ ( $r=.39$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and with the statement „I consider myself to be  
217 knowledgeable about renewable energy“ ( $r=.32$ ,  $p<.01$ ), which were themselves  
positively  
218 correlated ( $r=.58$ ,  $p<.001$ ).  
219 Participants above the median wind attitude score (Median=3.33) were deemed  
220 „supporters“ and those below this score were deemed „non-supporters“. The wind  
attitude scores  
221 of 11 supporters ( $M=4.42$ ,  $SD=.12$ ) and 10 non-supporters ( $M=2.5$ ,  $SD=.19$ ) who  
participated in  
222 the laboratory study differed significantly from each other as evident in a significant  
student t  
223 test,  $t(17) = 8.43$ , where the probability that the null hypothesis is true ( $p$ -value, or simply  $p$ )  
was  
11  
smaller than .001. The effect size ( $d$ ) of this comparison equalled 224 3.87, a large effect  
according to  
225 Cohen’s classification scheme (Cohen, 1988).  
226

### 227 3.2 Laboratory study

228 SCR was defined as the difference between the lowest and highest conductance value  
229 (measured in microsiemens) within a 1 to 5 second time frame after picture presentation.  
Arousal  
230 and valence ratings were highly reliable (both Chronbach alphas .94). The rating of  
valence and  
231 arousal and the SCR for the 10 pictures in each condition were averaged for each  
participant.  
232 Turbine pictures were rated as significantly positive compared to the indifference point of  
5 on  
233 the 1-to-9 SAM scale ( $M=6.41$ ,  $SD=.90$ ,  $t(20)=7.30$ ,  $p<.001$ ); turbine average valence  
score was  
234 positive for all but one participant. They were also rated as not particularly arousing  
( $M=3.33$ ,

235  $SD=1.33$ ) on a 1-to-9 SAM scale.

236 For ease of understanding, we describe the key results before we provide the detailed  
237 statistical analyses that supported them. Compared to other landscape pictures turbine  
pictures

238 were rated as significantly more pleasant (having a more positive valence rating) than  
pylons,

239 more pleasant and less arousing than power plants, and equally as pleasant and arousing  
as

240 churches. Turbines were associated with higher SCRs than churches but there was no  
difference

241 between SCRs to turbines, pylons and power plants. Compared to the landscape pictures,  
242 aversive pictures were rated as significantly more unpleasant as well as more arousing  
and they

243 produced a higher SCR. Differences between turbine supporters and non-supporters were  
minor,

244 although as expected, supporters rated turbine pictures as more pleasant than non-  
supporters.

12

Figure 4 depicts the ratings and Figure 5 245 depicts the differences between supporters and  
non246

supporters.

247 The picture averages were submitted to three separate 5 (picture type: turbine, church,  
248 pylon, power plant, aversive) by 2 (attitude: supporters, non-supporters) mixed Analyses  
of

Variance (ANOVAs, with the statistic  $F$ ; the measure of effect size for these tests is  $\eta^2$  249 ,  
read  $\eta^2$

250 square). The main effect of picture type was significant for all of these analyses (valence:  
 $F(4,76)=94.29, p<0.001$ , partial  $\eta^2=.83$  arousal:  $F(4,76)=62.42, p<0.001$ , partial  $\eta^2$ 251 =.77,  
SCR:

$F(4,76)=9.17, p<0.01$ , partial  $\eta^2$ 252 =.37), but did not interact with attitude in any of them  
(valence:

$F(4,76)=1.83, p>0.1$ , partial  $\eta^2$ 253 =.09 arousal:  $F<1$ , SCR:  $F<1$ ). Planned contrasts revealed  
that

254 turbines were rated more positively than pylons ( $F(1,19)=11.14, p<.01$ ), power plants  
255 ( $F(1,19)=37.19$ ), and the aversive pictures ( $F(1,19)=183.38, p<.001$ ) and as positively as  
256 churches ( $F<1$ ). Turbines were rated as less arousing than power plants ( $F(1,19)=11.96$ ,  
 $p<.01$ )

257 and the aversive pictures ( $F(1,17)=84.76, p<.001$ ), and equivalent in arousal to churches  
258 ( $F(1,19)=3.26, p>.05$ ) and pylons ( $F<1$ ). Turbines were associated with elevated SCR  
compared

259 to churches, ( $F(1,19)=6.17, p<.05$ ), equivalent SCR compared to pylons ( $F<1$ ) and power  
plants

260 ( $F<1$ ), but lower SCR compared to the aversive pictures ( $F(1,17)=8.21, p=.01$ ).

Supporters and

261 non-supporters did not differ significantly in valence ( $F(1,19)=3.64, p>.05$ ) arousal ( $F<1$ )  
or

262 SCR ( $F<1$ ). The interaction between picture type and attitude was not significant in any  
of these

263 ANOVAs. Still, because this comparison was of a-priori interest, we contrasted the valence and  
264 arousal ratings and SCR measurements taken from supporters and non-supporters. The only  
265 significant difference between the two groups was that supporters rated turbines more positively  
266 than non-supporters ( $t(17)=3.16, p=.005$ ).

13

We evaluated the relationship between a 267 arousal ratings and physiological arousal with a  
268 regression model, with the predictors participant, picture type, and the average arousal ratings for

269 each picture type. Average SCR for each picture type served as the dependent measure. The

270 model was significant overall ( $F(3,104)=7.00, p<.001$ ). Only participant ( $t=-3.48, p=.001$ ) and

271 picture type ( $t=2.57, p<.05$ ) significantly predicted average SCRs. Visual inspection suggested

272 that this may have been due to the presence of the aversive control pictures. A second model

273 therefore included only the landscape pictures. In this second model, which was again significant

274 overall ( $F(3,104)=7.00, p<.001$ ), only participant ( $t=-4.77, p<.001$ ) significantly predicted

275 average SCRs. The effect of participant means that certain participants produced stronger SCRs

276 across all picture types, as is well known. While aversive pictures were consistently associated

277 with higher SCR and arousal ratings compared to landscape pictures, these two measures of

278 arousal were not closely linked for landscape pictures.

279

### 280 **3.3 Relationship between the laboratory study and the questionnaire**

281 As predicted, more positive wind attitude scores correlated with more positive valence  
282 rating of turbine pictures (Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient  $r=.54, p<.05$ ).

283 Interestingly, wind turbine attitude and arousal associated with wind turbine pictures were not

284 significantly correlated with each other for either participants' ratings ( $r=-0.25, p>.2$ ) or SCRs

285 ( $r=-0.09, p>.7$ ). Because our arousal measurements do not distinguish between responses that

286 stem from positive and negative feeling, this null effect could potentially be a consequence of

287 both strong supporters and strong non-supporters exhibiting strong arousal. However, the finding

288 of a negative correlation between valence and SCR ( $r= -.50, p<.05$ ) and a negative, albeit non14

significant, correlation between valence 289 and arousal ratings ( $r= -.18, p>.4$ ) contradicts this

290 potential interpretation: participants who rated turbines more positively reported numerically

291 *lower* arousal and exhibited significantly *lower* SCRs.

292

#### 293 **4. Discussion**

294 The method of assessment of emotional response has proved successful with the self-295 assessment manikin scales (SAM) being particularly easy to use, evident in highly reliable 296 ratings as reported by Bradley and Lang (1994). The ratings of emotional intensity and valence

297 showed that wind turbines were not judged particularly poorly compared with more familiar

298 industrial constructions such as pylons and power plants. In fact this sample of respondents

299 judged power plants and pylons as less pleasant than turbines, and power plants as also more

300 arousing than turbines. Physiological arousal measurements did not differentiate between these

301 constructions. Compared to churches turbines were rated as similarly pleasant but they were

302 associated with stronger physiological arousal. As expected, the aversive control stimuli 303 produced much more negative reactions both in terms of self-report and SCRs.

304 The physiological measurements supported the measure of self-assessed emotions of 305 arousal and valence in that landscape pictures differed from aversive pictures on all of these

306 measurements. Converging evidence is particularly important in emotion research, where the

307 variables of key interest are not observable; this is even more true in situations where having two

308 measures, one of which is outside volitional control, can help overcome report bias in politically

309 motivated groups of stakeholders. Notably, although the results were similar across measures,

310 there were differences as well, and arousal scores did not predict SCRs across participants,

15

suggesting 311 that collecting both kinds of measures could add to our understanding of participants' 312

312 emotional response to wind turbines.

313 This is the first study that demonstrated that SCRs differentiate between landscape 314 images of importance to landscape and urban planners. Together with Chang et al. (2008), these

315 results underline the potential impact that psychophysiology could have for this area. Thus,

316 although the current sample size was small and the sample was not representative of the UK

317 population, our results could help motivate future studies with a larger, more representative

318 sample.

319 There are currently no established instruments to assess attitudes towards wind turbines.

320 Our questionnaire represents work in progress, and yielded some items that measured this  
321 variable with acceptable reliability and validity. There were small differences between  
supporters  
322 and non-supporters in the expected direction: supporters had more positive feelings  
towards  
323 turbines than non-supporters. However, this held true for all the scene types. It is possible  
that  
324 non-supporters are more sensitive to man-made additions to the landscape than  
supporters,  
325 perhaps reflecting a more general disposition towards preserving natural beauty in the  
326 countryside. Alternatively, their opposition to turbines may have influenced their mood  
overall,  
327 explaining why they also rated the aversive pictures as more aversive than supporters.  
Clearly,  
328 another avenue for extending this research is to include more opinionated participants,  
such as  
329 those who live in affected rural areas. It would be interesting to check whether the  
reliability of  
330 the self-reported emotions is reduced when such participants are included in the sample.  
331 We have already discussed how the small, unrepresentative sample, which consisted  
332 mainly of individuals who were not personally affected by wind turbine technology.  
Moreover,  
16  
supporters and non-supporters may 333 not have had similar exposure to wind turbines in the  
real  
334 world thus limiting their ability to provide informed judgements and potentially  
compromising  
335 any comparison of results between these two groups. Future research should collect data  
on  
336 exposure and personal involvement. Another caveat has to do with the materials used.  
Using still  
337 pictures rather than video clips means that the full visual impact of the turbines cannot be  
338 represented. It can be argued that most participants will have assumed rotating blades  
when  
339 making assessments. Future research should therefore compare stills and video materials  
and  
340 evaluate whether the choice of materials changes the conclusions that can be drawn from  
still  
341 images, which are easier to use.  
342 Using film clips could also help determine whether wind turbine noise would modulate  
343 the ranking of each of the industrial constructions relative to each other. The aerodynamic  
noise  
344 produced by rotating turbine blades is known to cause annoyance. This has been well  
researched  
345 to the point where dose-response relationships have been established for community  
response  
346 though it is concluded that these are “not particularly strong” and predicting individual  
responses

347 is impractical (Fiumicelli, 2011). However, noise annoyance was found to be strongly  
348 correlated  
349 with a negative attitude to the visual impact of wind turbines on the landscape (Pedersen  
350 et al.,  
351 2009). The combined nuisance arising from visual and acoustic aspects was considered  
352 by  
353 participants the results may change the results, because churches and pylons do not  
354 produce  
355 significant noise nuisance when compared with wind turbines.  
356 The current results are important because they help establish a methodology which can,  
357 in future, yield more accurate measurements of what the UK public feels about wind  
358 turbines  
359 compared to current survey tools. The visual impact on the landscape is considered at the  
360 planning stage for new wind turbine applications, and it is known to be of real importance  
361 to  
362 stakeholders (Knopper et al., 2014; Jones & Eiser, 2010). Currently, stakeholders are  
363 required to  
364 imagine what the visual impact on the landscape would be, and report their attitudes  
365 using  
366 surveys known to be affected by proximity to proposed sites (Jones & Eiser, 2010). The  
367 current  
368 methodology depends less on participants' imagination, and may be less affected by bias,  
369 and  
370 therefore holds promise in informing that decision making process. The method of  
371 assessment of  
372 the emotional response could with some adaptation be used to gather useful information  
373 concerning likely impact of any particular wind farm. Suggested steps that would need to  
374 be  
375 followed are as follows:  
376 1. Collect images of the proposed turbines  
377 2. Using appropriate software add these images to pictures of the landscape viewed from  
378 a  
379 variety of locations chosen to represent particularly sensitive locations e.g. residential  
380 homes,  
381 public footpaths, public buildings etc. The size of the images and disposition of turbines  
382 should  
383 fairly reflect the proposed layout  
384 3. Using the results from the previous step, prepare pairs of pictures with and without the  
385 wind  
386 turbine present ("before and after")  
387 4. Include at least 10 mildly-to-intensely aversive images (or up to 20% of the images, as  
388 in the  
389 current study). Such images can be drawn from the International Affective Picture  
390 System  
391 (IAPS, Lang, Bradley, & Cuthbert, 2008). Responses to such images could help planners  
392 gain  
393 insight into the meaning of the emotional ratings responders provide.

375 5. For each picture add two sets of self-assessment manikins labelled “pleasantness”  
(valence)

376 and “Calmness” (reversed arousal scale)

18

6. Print out pictures, shuffle and add a top sheet requesting age and gender and bottom sheet

378 requesting an indication of their support or opposition to the proposed wind farm and estimated

379 distance to the nearest proposed turbine (if possible)

380 7. If possible obtain the views of all residents (using the electoral role) within 2 km  
(Bakker et

381 al., 2012) of the centre of the proposed wind farm who are willing to complete the questionnaire

382 and instruct them on recording their assessments.

383 8. Collect and analyse results overall. Compare before and after mean values of pleasantness and

384 calmness to assess visual impact. Other analyses could also be completed depending on resource

385 e.g. comparisons by distance from wind farm, age group and gender

386 It is considered that this structured and unbiased method of collecting data on the response to the

387 visual impact of a proposed wind farm based on the protocol developed within this paper would

388 lead to improved decision making and better outcomes. This needs to be tested of course and

389 could form a further phase of the study.

390

## 391 **5. Conclusions**

392 To date, no study has used a psychophysiological approach to quantify objectively the  
393 intensity of emotions associated with the visual impact of wind turbines. It was shown that

394 landscape pictures elicited measureable skin conductance response. Pooling the results of all

395 participants it was shown that the visual impact of wind turbines does not differ very much in

396 pleasantness from other man-made constructions. However, compared to wind turbines, pylons

397 and power plants were rated as significantly less pleasant; power plants were also rated as more

19

arousing; and churches were associated with reduced 398 physiological arousal. Putting the visual

399 impact of these pictures in perspective, truly aversive pictures, such as a war scene or a bee sting,

400 elicited a significantly stronger physiological arousal and were rated as less pleasant and more

401 arousing. These pictures were associated with valence, arousal and SCR responses that were

402 twice the intensity of the response to wind turbines.

403 There were only small differences in the responses of supporters and non-supporters of  
404 wind turbines and only the difference in valence ratings reached significance. The small  
sample  
405 size cautions against drawing firm conclusions from these null effects; instead, this study  
should  
406 be seen as a feasibility study helping establish a new methodology that could be used to  
assess  
407 the feelings of the general public about wind turbines.  
408 Based on the successful methodology adopted in this study it is proposed that the  
409 approach could, with some adjustments, be used to assess the visual impact of wind  
turbines at  
410 the consultation stage of a new planning application. This would involve the comparison  
of  
411 suitably modified photographs of the proposed wind turbines before and after installation.  
The  
412 self-assessment manikin rating scales could then be used to gather assessments of visual  
impact  
413 from the population likely to be most affected by the turbines. Ratings of pleasantness  
and  
414 calmness under the two conditions would then be used to assess the visual impact of  
proposed  
415 wind turbines. It is considered this has advantages over current methods which rely on an  
416 imagined scene without an easy-to-use rating scale.

417

20

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418

**Table 1.** Complete questionnaire with coding and factor loading.

	Question	Factor
Q4	How acceptable do you find the appearance of wind farms within a landscape? <sup>^</sup>	1
Q8	I would be concerned if a wind turbine would be built in my neighbourhood.	1
Q13	Wind turbines spoil the views in many rural areas.	1
Q1	I consider myself to be knowledgeable about renewable energy.	2
Q7	More wind energy should be used on a worldwide scale. <sup>^</sup>	2
Q12	I am familiar with seeing wind turbines in my immediate environment. <sup>^</sup>	2
Q14	Protecting the environment is one of my biggest concerns. <sup>^</sup>	2
Q3	I believe the concerns about climate change are exaggerated.	3
Q11	To which extent are you in favour of or opposed to the use of wind powers in the UK?	3
Q2	I believe that nuclear energy is the energy source of the future.	Distractor
Q5	Electricity pylons spoil the view in many rural areas.	Distractor
Q6	Electromagnetic radiation has a bad influence on human health.	Distractor
Q9	I am used to seeing nuclear power plants in the environment.	Distractor
Q10	We should use more solar energy.	Distractor
Q15	Churches spoil the views in many rural areas.	Distractor

422 Note. Questions 2, 5, 6, 10, 11, and 15 were distractor items. Three factors were identified but only  
 423 factor one had good face validity where all questions (questions 4, 8 and 13) appeared to be measuring  
 424 the same underlying latent variable. <sup>^</sup>These questions were reverse scored.

**Table 2.** Correlations between questionnaire items that assessed wind turbine attitudes and the overall wind attitude score.

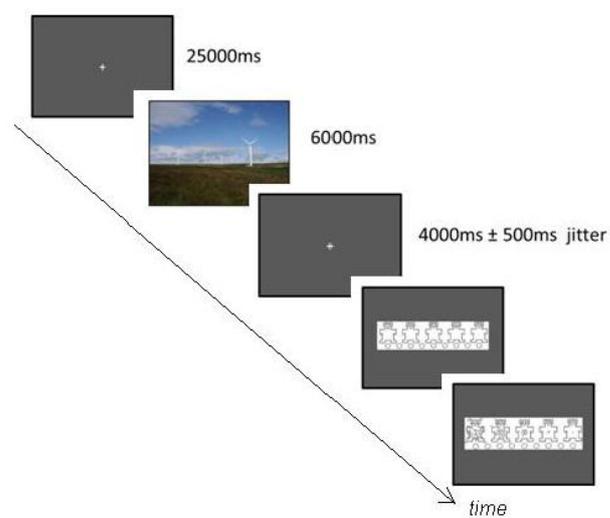
Question number	mean	SD	Q1	Q3	Q4	Q7	Q8	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Wind attitude
Q1	2.52	0.87	1.00	0.12	.38**	.36**	.39**	0.24	0.20	0.21	.58**	.39**
Q3	4.10	0.77		1.00	0.11	0.15	-0.10	0.14	-0.14	0.14	0.24	0.06
Q4	3.28	0.88			1.00	0.24	.53**	0.10	-0.04	.39**	.28*	.74**
Q7	4.18	0.87				1.00	0.08	.30*	0.17	0.07	.40**	0.15
Q8	3.67	1.11					1.00	0.12	0.11	.55**	.284*	.85**
Q11	3.93	0.82						1.00	-0.13	0.20	0.22	0.18
Q12	2.22	1.32							1.00	-0.15	.36**	-0.04
Q13	3.32	1.24								1.00	0.23	.83**
Q14	2.87	0.98									1.00	.320*
Wind attit	3.35	10.50										1.00

Note. Questionnaire data averaging across 60 participants. Participants answered the questions on a 5-point rating scale and the relevant items were reverse-scored (see Table 1). \* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

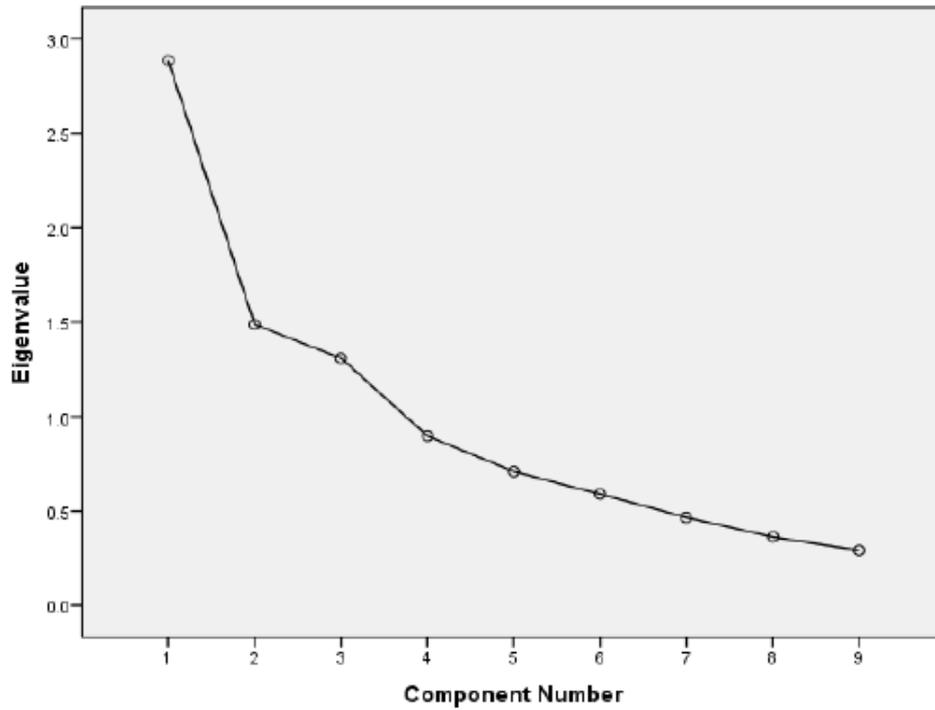
Figure 1: Examples of the pictures used in the laboratory experiment. Three examples each of the turbine, pylon, power plant and churches pictures are presented.



Fig 2: A schematic drawing of one step in the laboratory experiment, showing the sequence of picture presentation and their timing as well as the emotional valence and emotional arousal SAM rating scales. Ratings were self-paced. The tranquillity ratings are not presented.



**Figure 3:** Eigenvalues indicated that there were three possible factors. The scree plot was interpreted as also indicating three factors as there are three points before the point at which it begins to flatten.



**Figure 4:** Ratings and skin conductance response (SCR) associated with five picture types: sceneries with turbines, churches, power plants and pylons, and aversive control pictures (starred differences are statistically significant  $p < 0.05$ ).

- (a): Self-reported arousal and skin conductance responses
- (b) Valence ratings (pleasantness)

**Figure 4 (a)**

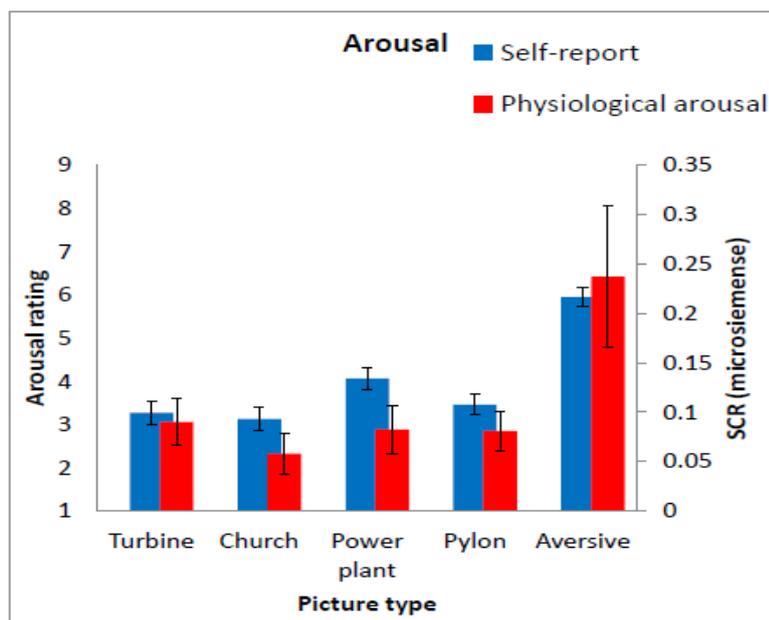


Figure 4(b)

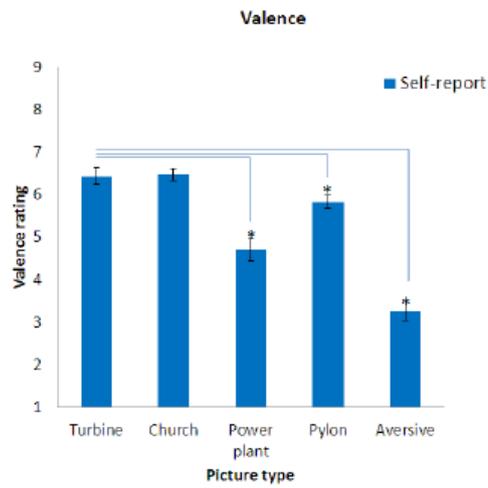


Figure 5: Self-reported valence and arousal ratings and skin conductance responses associated with five picture types: sceneries with turbines, churches, power plants and pylons, and aversive control pictures. Data depicted as a function of wind turbine attitude as established during the questionnaire study (starred differences are statistically significant  $p < 0.05$ ).

- (a) Valence ratings
- (b) Arousal ratings
- (c) Skin conductance responses

Figure 5(a)

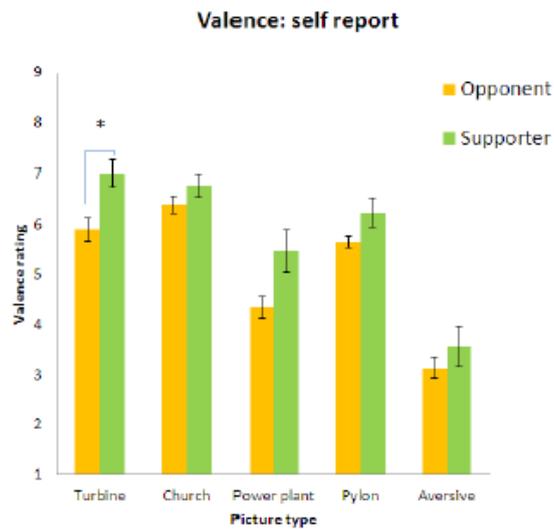


Figure 5(b)

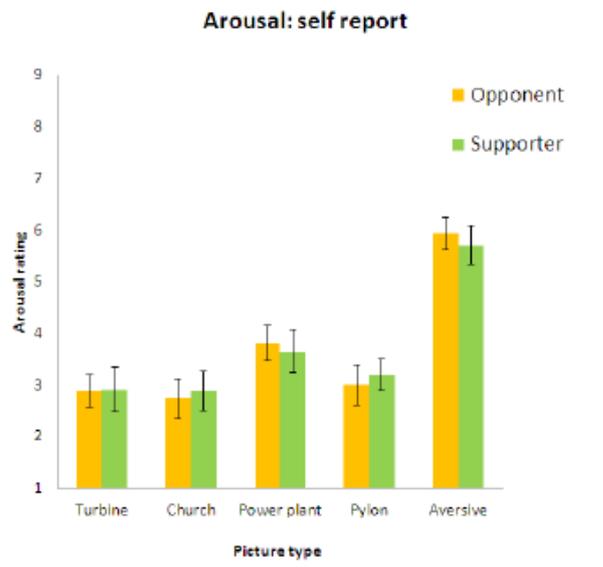
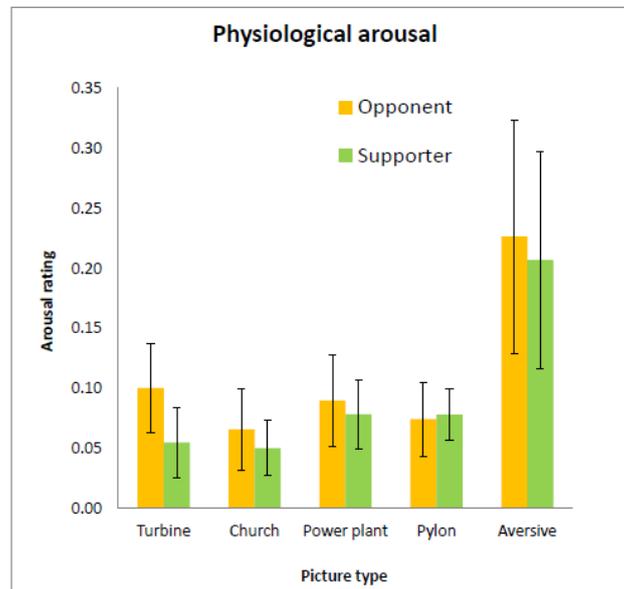


Figure 5 (c)



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