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2 **Agency through comparison: Reference-point evaluations and rural environmental**
3 **participation after mining-induced resettlement**

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16 **This manuscript has been accepted by the *Journal of Rural Studies* and can be accessed**
17 **at the following link: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2026.104268>**

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22

23

Abstract

24 Large-scale resettlement linked to mining-induced subsidence has reshaped rural living
25 environments and community structures, raising the question of how to engage in
26 rural environmental participation within new communities—a central concern for rural
27 sustainability. Adapting the framework of agency to this context, we advance a
28 reference-point perspective that situates residents' subjective evaluations of present
29 conditions relative to past experiences, future expectations, and lateral benchmarks
30 as frames through which agency is organized. Drawing on a household survey of 610
31 resettled rural residents in Huainan, one of China's largest mining-based pillar cities,
32 this study provides initial evidence for this approach. Men ($p = .001$), married
33 respondents ($p = .036$), middle-aged adults ($p < .001$), and those with higher education
34 ($p_s < .030$) reported greater environmental participation willingness, indicating marked
35 demographic variation. Each reference point was positively associated with
36 participation willingness in models estimated separately (past-oriented: standardized
37 $\beta = 0.312$; future-oriented: $\beta = 0.190$; social comparison: $\beta = 0.236$; all $p < .001$); when
38 entered jointly with controls, only the past-oriented reference—using previous
39 environmental conditions to evaluate the current environment—retained a robust
40 association ($\beta = 0.289$, $p < .001$). This pattern suggests that comparative evaluations of

41 the present versus one's previous environment are a salient basis for how resettled
42 residents participate in community environmental affairs, providing actionable cues
43 for participation mobilization in new resettlement communities.

44

45 *Keywords:* rural environmental participation; agency; environmental reference points;
46 resettlement communities; mining-induced subsidence.

47

Introduction

48 Mining-induced subsidence and associated population resettlement constitute a
49 salient socio-environmental challenge across many resource-dependent regions
50 worldwide. Large-scale mineral development in settings such as India, parts of Africa,
51 and China has been linked with the displacement of thousands of residents (Owen &
52 Kemp, 2015; Terminski, 2012). Following resettlement, questions of ecological
53 management and the longer-term sustainability of new communities move to the
54 forefront. Once farmers leave familiar land and social networks, an immediate issue is
55 how resettled residents take part in environmental affairs in their new communities.
56 Rural environmental participation is often treated as an indicator of community agency
57 (World Bank, 2004). In practice, however, both willingness and capacity to participate
58 can be limited (Zhan & You, 2024).

59

60 Mining-Induced Displacement and Rural Environmental Participation

61 Rural environmental participation has emerged as a substantive field of inquiry
62 within environmental sociology and governance research. Prior work has documented
63 the importance of farmer involvement in environmental governance across rural
64 contexts, from household waste sorting to water conservation and soil remediation
65 (Ouyang et al., 2022; Y. Zhang & Guo, 2023). Literature, however, tends to treat
66 individuals as static carriers of attributes or values rather than as active interpreters of
67 their changing social and environmental circumstances (Piao & Managi, 2024).

68 Particularly in displaced communities, where the very context of environmental
69 experience has been radically altered, the relevance of pre-formed values and stable
70 sociodemographic profiles to current participation decisions is theoretically unclear.

71 Mining-induced displacement is a direct consequence of global resource
72 extraction pressures (Mirzania et al., 2023; Ofori et al., 2023). Research on energy
73 commodity markets underscores how resource extraction economies generate
74 profound socio-economic gains and losses across communities and regions (Flori, 2024;
75 Jin & Xu, 2025a, 2025b). Recent studies on mining-induced displacement further show
76 that resettlement disrupts livelihood assets, social capital, and place-based security,
77 even as affected residents mobilize local networks and adaptive capacities to rebuild
78 everyday livelihoods (Ahmer & Ostendorf, 2025; Gukurume & Tombindo, 2023). As
79 nations navigate energy transitions away from fossil fuels, the communities most
80 reliant on coal extraction face simultaneous ecological remediation burdens, livelihood
81 transformations, and uneven capacities to adapt to coal phase-out (Agrawal et al.,
82 2024; Mirzania et al., 2023). In this context, understanding how residents engage in
83 post-extractive environmental governance is central to whether sustainability
84 transitions achieve durable outcomes at the community level (Sutrisno et al., 2024;
85 Tladi et al., 2024). The transformative potential of sustainable practices in fostering
86 economic development and social welfare depends, in part, on the willingness of
87 displaced communities to co-manage restored environments (Jin & Xu, 2025c;
88 Svobodova et al., 2026).

89 When the role of residents is under-mobilized, the long-term maintenance of
90 remediated environments may be weakened (Vashishtha & Tiwari, 2025). In response,
91 national policy agendas increasingly emphasize co-construction, co-management, and
92 co-benefit models (Xiang et al., 2024). For example, rural solid-waste sorting programs
93 in several localities have experimented with recruiting villagers as volunteers for day-
94 to-day oversight and maintenance (Zhou et al., 2022). Yet involuntary resettlement is
95 often accompanied by a weaker sense of place attachment in the new environment
96 (Zhu et al., 2021), which may dampen motivation to participate (Chang et al., 2025). It
97 is therefore useful to identify, within migration contexts, which groups report a greater
98 willingness to engage in rural environmental participation and what evaluative frames
99 are associated with that inclination.

100 Although participation willingness is not equivalent to observed participation, it
101 remains theoretically and practically important in resettlement contexts. The
102 intention–behavior gap is well established: stated willingness does not automatically
103 translate into action because actual participation may be constrained by time,
104 resources, institutional channels, perceived efficacy, and social opportunity (Kollmuss
105 & Agyeman, 2002; Sheeran, 2002). Nevertheless, willingness is not merely an
106 attitudinal by-product. In the theory of planned behavior, behavioral intention is
107 treated as the most immediate motivational antecedent of action, and pro-
108 environmental behavior research likewise treats intention-related constructs as part
109 of the psychosocial pathway through which knowledge, attitudes, norms, and efficacy

110 are translated into action (Ajzen, 1991; Bamberg & Möser, 2007). For resettled rural
111 residents, willingness is therefore a meaningful indicator of motivational readiness to
112 engage in environmental affairs, even if actual participation additionally depends on
113 whether communities provide accessible and trusted opportunities for action.
114 Accordingly, this study focuses on rural public environmental participation willingness
115 as a proximal participation disposition rather than as direct evidence of observed
116 environmental behavior.

117

118 **Heterogeneity of Rural Environmental Participation**

119 Participation in public affairs varies significantly between individuals (Mansuri &
120 Rao, 2004). Prior studies have examined how age, gender, education, and subjective
121 social status relate to participation in rural environmental matters. On average, more
122 years of schooling coincide with greater environmental knowledge and skills and, in
123 turn, stronger reported willingness (Dolisca et al., 2006; Hines et al., 1987), while
124 higher perceived social status has been linked with attention to community reputation
125 and engagement in public affairs (Eom et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2025). Yet the evidence
126 is mixed and often context dependent. Adding to this heterogeneity, several studies
127 report that demographic indicators lose consistency once subjective evaluations—
128 such as satisfaction, perceived fairness, or efficacy—are considered (Piao & Managi,
129 2024). In a UK–US comparison, Skylark and Callan (2021) found that income and
130 education correlate with pro-environmental intention in bivariate models, yet no

131 single demographic attribute remains a stable predictor when subjective appraisals
132 enter the specification. Against this background, the additional objective of this study
133 is to characterize group-level variation in rural public environmental participation
134 among resettled residents, examining how age, gender, education, and subjective
135 household economic status relate to participation willingness in post-resettlement
136 communities.

137

138 **Agency and Reference Points**

139 A critical dimension in rural environmental participation is the role of subjective
140 comparative evaluations. While several recent studies have documented that
141 subjective well-being, satisfaction, and perceived social status are associated with
142 environmental behavior (Ouyang et al., 2022; Piao & Managi, 2024; Ruan et al., 2022),
143 these investigations typically treat subjective states as discrete predictors rather than
144 as structured through comparative reference frames.

145 Research in psychology and behavioral decision-making establishes that
146 individuals rarely appraise environmental or social states in absolute terms; they
147 evaluate the present against reference frames anchored in prior experience,
148 anticipated outcomes, or social peers (Boles & Messick, 1995; Hunter & Daw, 2021;
149 Tversky & Kahneman, 1974). In resettlement settings, where routines, places, and
150 networks shift, such frames can become especially salient for making sense of the
151 present and for considering whether to engage.

152 Emirbayer and Mische (1998) conceptualize agency as a temporally embedded
153 process of social engagement, organized across three distinct but interrelated
154 dimensions: an *iterational element* drawing on past patterns and habits, a *projective*
155 *element* involving imagination of future possibilities, and a *practical-evaluative*
156 *element* enabling actors to make contextual judgments about how to act in the present.
157 In their account, all three dimensions operate simultaneously in human agency,
158 though any one of them may become more prominent in particular contexts. The
159 iterational element draws on the selective reactivation of past patterns of thought and
160 action as routinely incorporated in practical activity, serving to give stability and order
161 to social life. The projective element involves the imaginative generation of possible
162 future trajectories, allowing actors to distance themselves from habitual patterns and
163 envision new possibilities. The practical-evaluative element refers to the capacity to
164 make normative judgments among alternative trajectories in response to emerging
165 situational demands.

166 Scholars have already applied this triadic framework to studies of rural
167 environmental participation. Using the iterational–projective–practical-evaluative
168 schema, researchers explain how resettled and long-term residents evolve into
169 environmental stewards. This process involves reactivating past routines, imagining
170 desired futures, and making present-tense judgments about land management (Cooke
171 & Lane, 2015; Peçanha Enqvist et al., 2018). Furthermore, this approach helps analyze
172 how local actors reorganize their practices to join collective activities as opportunities

173 shift (Rogelja et al., 2023). Building on this work, we situate personal agency within
174 time and social space. We propose a *reference-point perspective* to explain rural
175 environmental participation. In this view, comparisons to the past, future, and social
176 peers serve as evaluative anchors. Residents use these anchors to interpret their new
177 communities and decide how to act. Consequently, their present experience is filtered
178 through remembered pasts, anticipated futures, and nearby examples.

179 A *past-oriented reference* aligns with the iterational dimension: attention and
180 resource mobilization selectively draw on prior schemes and practice scripts (Albert,
181 1977; Wood, 2017). For resettled rural households, recollections of pre-move
182 conditions—air quality, dust exposure, perceived safety from subsidence—coincide
183 with satisfaction judgments and reported participation (Zhu et al., 2021). Perceived
184 improvement relative to the past has been linked to greater support for existing
185 management arrangements (Jia & Lin, 2025), whereas perceived decline corresponds
186 to lower confidence and weaker participation (Van Ryzin, 2013; van Zomeren et al.,
187 2008). As Evers and Kneyber (2015) note, habits and memories condition present
188 tendencies to act, consistent with the idea that the iterational dimension can be
189 foregrounded when people navigate unfamiliar settings through familiar scripts.

190 A *future-oriented reference* corresponds to the projective dimension,
191 emphasizing imagination about possible trajectories and goal states (Hendriks, 2024).
192 In resettlement narratives, authorities often highlight better amenities and ecological
193 recovery, and residents themselves articulate hopes for improved conditions (Rogers

194 et al., 2020). When appraisals of the present fall short of personal expectations, some
195 residents report stronger willingness to contribute to environmental improvement—
196 an alignment with expectation-confirmation perspectives that treat (dis)confirmation
197 as an evaluative driver of responses (Bhattacharjee, 2001), and with work linking
198 discrepant goals to collective action intentions (Jiang et al., 2018; van Zomeren et al.,
199 2008; J. Zhang et al., 2022).

200 *A social-comparison reference* reflects the practical-evaluative dimension: actors
201 assemble present-tense information—including how neighboring communities fare—
202 and exercise judgment under local contingencies (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). Classic
203 theory holds that people assess relative standing through lateral comparison (Festinger,
204 1954). In rural contexts, residents commonly benchmark their community’s
205 environmental conditions against adjacent villages (Sirgy & Cornwell, 2002). Perceived
206 disadvantage can be translated into demands for redress or improvement (Gurr, 2015;
207 Van Rooij, 2010), and under certain conditions, relative deprivation aligns with
208 intentions for environmental or collective action (Skylark & Callan, 2021). Selection of
209 the comparison set, its proximity, and perceived fairness of procedures function as
210 boundary conditions for how strongly such evaluations register in participation
211 judgments.

212

213 **The Present Study**

214 The foregoing review identifies three intersecting gaps that motivate the present

215 study. First, although reference-point frameworks are well established in behavioral
216 decision research and agency theory independently, no study has synthesized them to
217 explain environmental participation in resettlement contexts; existing accounts treat
218 subjective states as discrete predictors rather than as organized through comparative
219 reference frames. Second, while demographic heterogeneity in rural environmental
220 participation is documented, evidence from involuntary mining-induced resettlement
221 populations, whose severed place histories and compressed evaluative timelines may
222 differ from those of voluntary migrants or long-term residents, remains sparse. Third,
223 the relative salience of past, future, and social reference dimensions has not been
224 tested simultaneously, leaving open the empirical question of which comparative
225 orientation most robustly predicts participation.

226 Building on this framework, the study pursues two objectives. The first is to
227 characterize group-level variation in rural public environmental participation intention
228 among resettled residents, examining how age, gender, marital status, education, and
229 subjective household economic status relate to participation intention in post-
230 resettlement communities (Meng & Si, 2022; Yang et al., 2025). The second is to test
231 whether past-oriented, future-oriented, and social-comparison reference-point
232 evaluations each predict participation intention, and to determine which reference
233 dimension retains an independent association when all three are modeled
234 simultaneously. The study makes three contributions. Theoretically, it extends
235 Emirbayer and Mische's (1998) chordal triad of agency by operationalizing its three

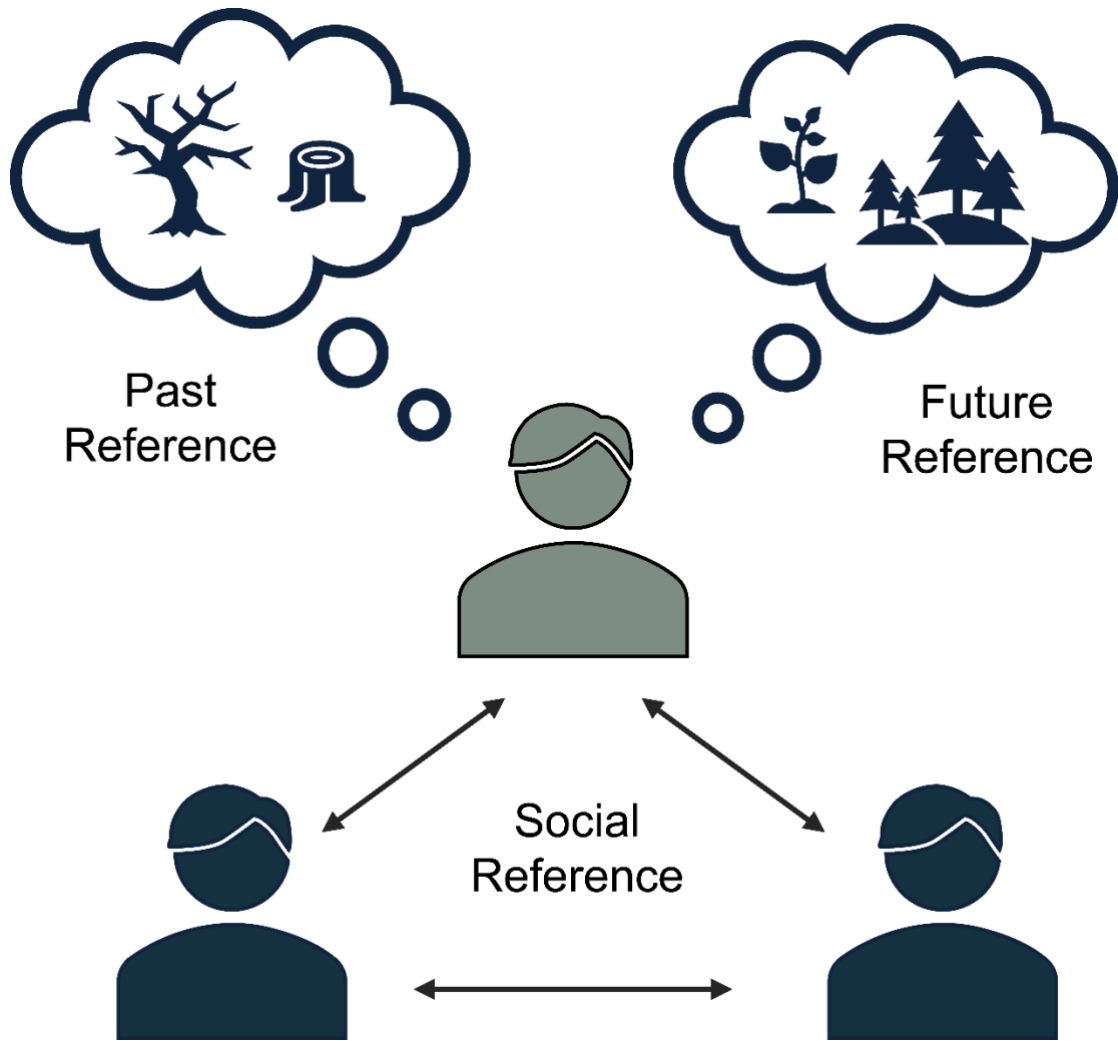
236 temporal dimensions as testable reference-point evaluations, bridging agency theory
237 and behavioral decision research. Empirically, the study provides the multi-reference
238 test in a mining-induced resettlement context to examine which reference dimension
239 retains explanatory force when all three compete jointly. Practically, the findings offer
240 actionable cues for participation mobilization: because different reference frames
241 carry unequal weight, practitioners can design communications and community audits
242 that align with the evaluative logic most salient to resettled residents.

243 Figure 1 illustrates the reference-point model of agency, mapping each dimension
244 of the chordal triad to its corresponding reference frame. Guided by this framework,
245 we operationalize a reference-point perspective grounded in Emirbayer and Mische's
246 (1998) account of agency as co-constituted with environmental settings, where
247 sensory experiences shape participation dispositions (Clark et al., 2025). Guided by
248 this framework, we advance the following hypotheses, stated in associative terms:

249 **H1:** The subjective evaluation of current conditions relative to prior conditions
250 (past-oriented reference) is associated with rural public environmental participation.

251 **H2:** The subjective evaluation of current conditions relative to personal
252 expectations (future-oriented reference) is associated with rural public environmental
253 participation.

254 **H3:** The subjective evaluation of current conditions relative to neighboring
255 communities (social-comparison reference) is associated with rural public
256 environmental participation.



257

258 *Figure 1.*

259 Reference-Point Model of Agency in Rural Environmental Participation.

260

261 **Method**

262 **Study Site and Participants**

263 This study focuses on mining-induced resettlement residents living in coal-mining
264 subsidence resettlement communities in Huainan, China. Huainan has a coal mining
265 history of more than a century; while periods of extraction coincided with local
266 economic growth, prolonged high-intensity mining was also associated with extensive
267 land subsidence and ecological degradation (Quan et al., 2024). To address safety risks
268 and support ecological improvement, authorities have implemented large-scale
269 subsidence-area remediation and resettlement programs in recent years, relocating
270 tens of thousands of rural residents to planned resettlement communities (NDRC,
271 2022; Wang et al., 2022; World Bank, 2014).

272 We conducted a household survey in June 2022 across multiple resettlement
273 communities situated within the subsidence zone. Sampling combined stratification
274 and random selection. First, based on the spatial extent of mining-induced subsidence
275 (which does not map cleanly onto administrative boundaries), we delineated twelve
276 mining-area strata; this unit of stratification better reflects subsidence impact than
277 formal jurisdictions. Second, using the share of affected arable land within each
278 stratum, we allocated village-level quotas to cover areas with different levels of impact.
279 Third, within administrative villages located in each stratum, we randomly selected
280 resettled households for interview. Trained enumerators conducted face-to-face
281 interviews. A total of 660 questionnaires were distributed, and 610 valid responses

282 remained after excluding incomplete cases. The sample spans resettlement
283 communities across the affected zone, providing broad coverage of the variation in
284 local contexts. Before fieldwork, ethics approval for the household survey was
285 obtained from the relevant resettlement communities and the authors' institution.
286 Participation was voluntary, and respondents were informed that they could decline
287 to participate or withdraw at any time. Descriptive characteristics are summarized in
288 Table 1. Respondents were predominantly middle-aged; the gender split was roughly
289 even; most were married; and the modal education level was primary school or below
290 (44.3%), with middle school the next most common category (36.1%). Figure 2 displays
291 the geographic distribution of sampled communities. Compared with demographic
292 benchmarks from the National Population Census of Huainan (Table S1), the survey
293 sample was older than the general resident population and showed a somewhat lower
294 level of educational attainment than the citywide census profile. This pattern is
295 expected because the survey targeted adult household respondents in rural
296 resettlement communities, whereas the census covers the full resident population,
297 including children and urban residents. The Appendix provides the Chinese and English
298 translations of the questionnaire.
299

300 *Table 1.*

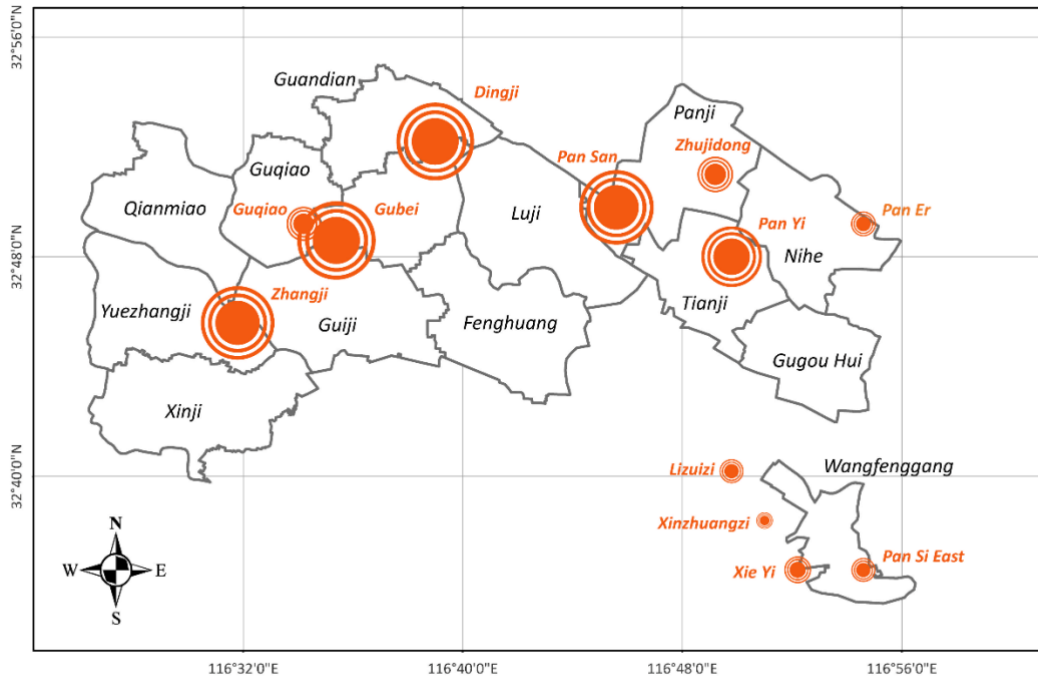
301 Demographic Distribution of the Survey Participants (N = 610)

Variable	Category	n	Percent
Age	18-30	38	6.20%
	30-40	111	18.20%
	40-50	110	18.00%
	50-60	160	26.20%
	60-70	97	15.90%
	70+	94	15.20%
Gender	Female	307	50.30%
	Male	303	49.70%
Marriage status	Single	44	7.20%
	Married	566	92.80%
Education	Primary or below	270	44.30%
	Middle school	220	36.10%
	High school	79	13.00%
	Junior college	32	5.20%
	Bachelor or above	9	1.50%

302

303 *Figure 2.*

304 Map of the study site.



305

306 *Note:* Circles denote the investigated mining areas, with circle size indicating the relative number

307 of samples collected. Mining area and town names are annotated in orange and black text,

308 respectively.

309

310 **Measurement**

311 *Rural public environmental participation.* The dependent variable was rural public
312 environmental participation willingness, measured using a five-item intention scale
313 developed for this study. Items asked: Would you be willing to regularly promote
314 environmental protection knowledge and concepts to others? If you witness
315 environmental damage, would you proactively report it to the relevant authorities?
316 Would you willingly cooperate with ecological and environmental policies? Would you
317 be willing to contribute ideas for improving your village's environmental conditions?
318 Would you be willing to contribute funds toward improving your village's
319 environmental conditions? Responses used a 5-point format (1 = "strongly
320 unwilling/strongly disagree," 5 = "strongly willing/strongly agree"), with higher scores
321 indicating stronger intention (Cronbach's $\alpha = .810$). Rural public environmental
322 participation willingness was computed as the mean score of five five-point items (M
323 = 3.95, SD = 0.67).

324 *Environmental reference points.* The main independent variables were three
325 reference-point indicators. Guided by the proposed framework, we created three
326 single-item indicators capturing subjective evaluations of present conditions against
327 different reference baselines. The past-oriented reference was measured by the item
328 "Compared to past environmental conditions, are you satisfied with the current
329 environment?" (M = 3.97, SD = 0.86); the future-oriented reference was measured by
330 "Compared to your own expectations for environmental conditions, are you satisfied

331 with the actual environment?" (M = 3.63, SD = 0.90); and the social-comparison
332 reference was measured by "Compared to environmental conditions in neighboring
333 areas, are you satisfied with the local environment?" (M = 3.75, SD = 0.83). Each item
334 used a five-point scale from 1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied; higher values
335 indicate more favorable evaluations of the current environment relative to the relevant
336 reference point.

337 To account for compositional differences, we recorded age, gender, marital status,
338 education, and subjective household economic status (1 = far below the village average,
339 5 = far above the village average). We also logged each respondent's pre-move
340 township of residence to adjust for clustering by place of origin.

341

342 **Statistical Analyses**

343 To address group differences in participation, we applied methods aligned with
344 variable types. For binary indicators such as gender and marital status, we used
345 independent-samples t tests. For multi-category variables such as education, we used
346 one-way ANOVA with false-discovery-rate (FDR) adjustment for post-hoc comparisons.
347 For continuous predictors (age and subjective economic status), we estimated
348 restricted cubic spline (RCS) regressions to probe possible nonlinearity (Marrie et al.,
349 2009). To complement these analyses with an interpretable segmentation of profiles,
350 we fitted a classification tree (CART) using participation as the outcome and
351 demographic variables as predictors. Splits minimized within-node variance; we used

352 10-fold cross-validation to select the complexity parameter and applied pruning.
353 Default stopping rules and key hyperparameters were: $cp = 0.0005$, $minsplit = 30$,
354 $minbucket = 15$, $maxdepth = 30$.

355 To examine H1–H3, we estimated mixed-effects models (Brown, 2021; Laird &
356 Ware, 1982). Rural public environmental participation is the dependent variable in all
357 models. The three reference-point indicators—past-oriented, future-oriented, and
358 social-comparison—serve as the primary independent variables of theoretical interest.
359 The model is:

$$360 \quad y_{ij} = X_{ij}\beta + Z_{ij}u_j + \varepsilon_{ij}, u_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \tau^2), \varepsilon_{ij} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$$

361 where $X_{ij}\beta$ captures universal relationships (fixed effects), $Z_{ij}u_j$ captures
362 group-specific deviations (random effects), u_j has mean zero and variance τ^2 , and
363 ε_{ij} has mean zero and variance σ^2 . We proceeded stepwise: Model 1 (baseline)
364 included demographic controls only; Models 2–4 added, respectively, the future-, past-,
365 and social-reference indicators to the baseline; Model 5 included all three reference
366 indicators jointly with controls. We assessed multicollinearity (all VIF < 5). Analyses
367 used R packages *lme4*, *ggstatsplot*, and *rpart* (Bates et al., 2015; Patil, 2021; Therneau
368 & Atkinson, 2025).

369 To evaluate the robustness of the reference-point pattern, several sensitivity
370 analyses were conducted. First, the main specifications were re-estimated as linear
371 models without adding a random intercept for pre-move township, thereby assessing
372 whether the pattern depended on the multilevel specification. Second, a leave-one-

373 town-out procedure was applied: the joint model was repeatedly re-estimated after
374 excluding each township in turn, which allowed an assessment of whether the focal
375 associations were driven by any single township. Third, the five participation-intention
376 items were modeled separately to examine whether the composite-scale findings
377 were concentrated in a particular behavioral domain. Finally, nonparametric bootstrap
378 resampling was used to obtain percentile-based confidence intervals for the reference-
379 point coefficients in the joint model.

380

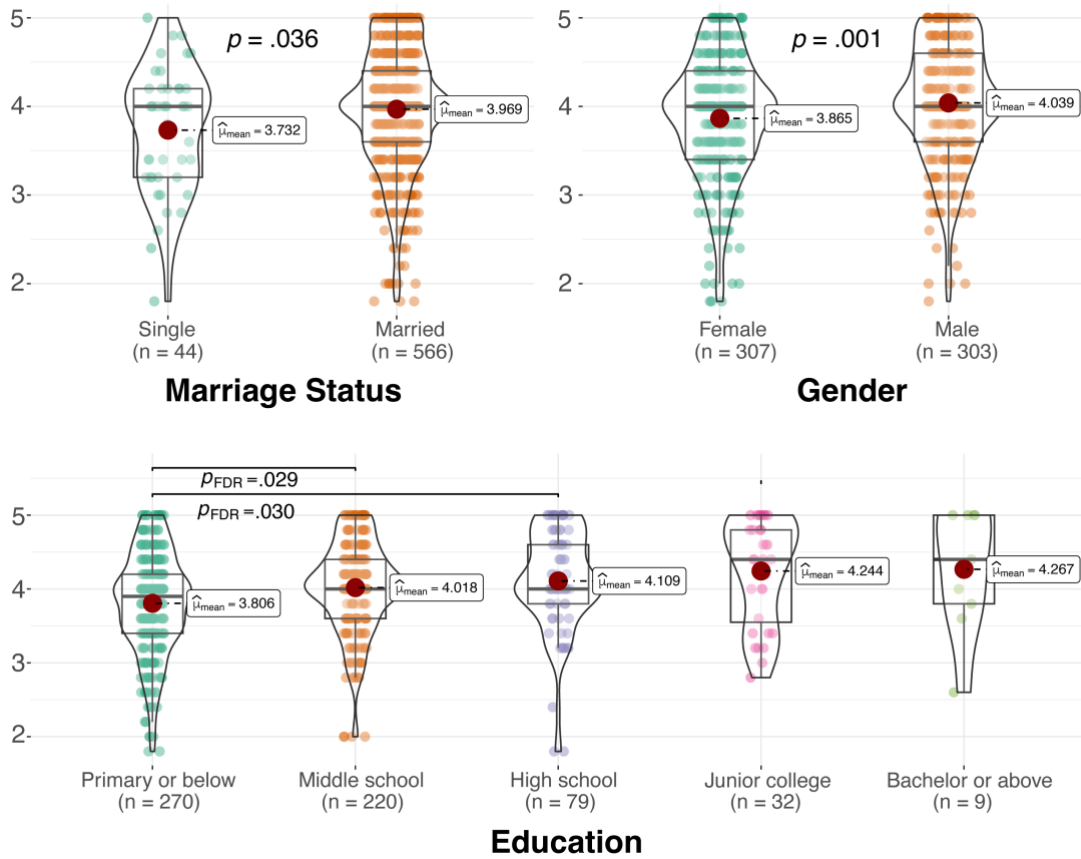
Results

381 Figure 3 contrasts participation across gender, marital status, and education, and
382 Figure 4 plots RCS functions for age and subjective economic status. Among resettled
383 residents, men reported higher participation than women ($p < .001$, Cohen's $d = 0.27$);
384 married respondents scored higher than single respondents ($p = .037$, Cohen's $d =$
385 0.34); and those with middle school or lower education reported lower participation
386 than peers with higher schooling (FDR-adjusted $p < .05$). Age exhibited an inverted-U
387 association: participation increased up to roughly the early 50s and then declined.
388 Subjective economic status showed a potential U-shaped pattern: respondents placing
389 themselves in the lower-middle range reported the lowest participation, whereas mid-
390 and higher-status groups reported higher levels. A supplementary CART analysis
391 (Figure S1) indicated that being middle-aged, combined with higher education, most
392 strongly characterized the higher-participation segments.

393 *Figure 3.*

394 Group Differences in Environmental Participation by Gender, Marital Status, and

395 Education.



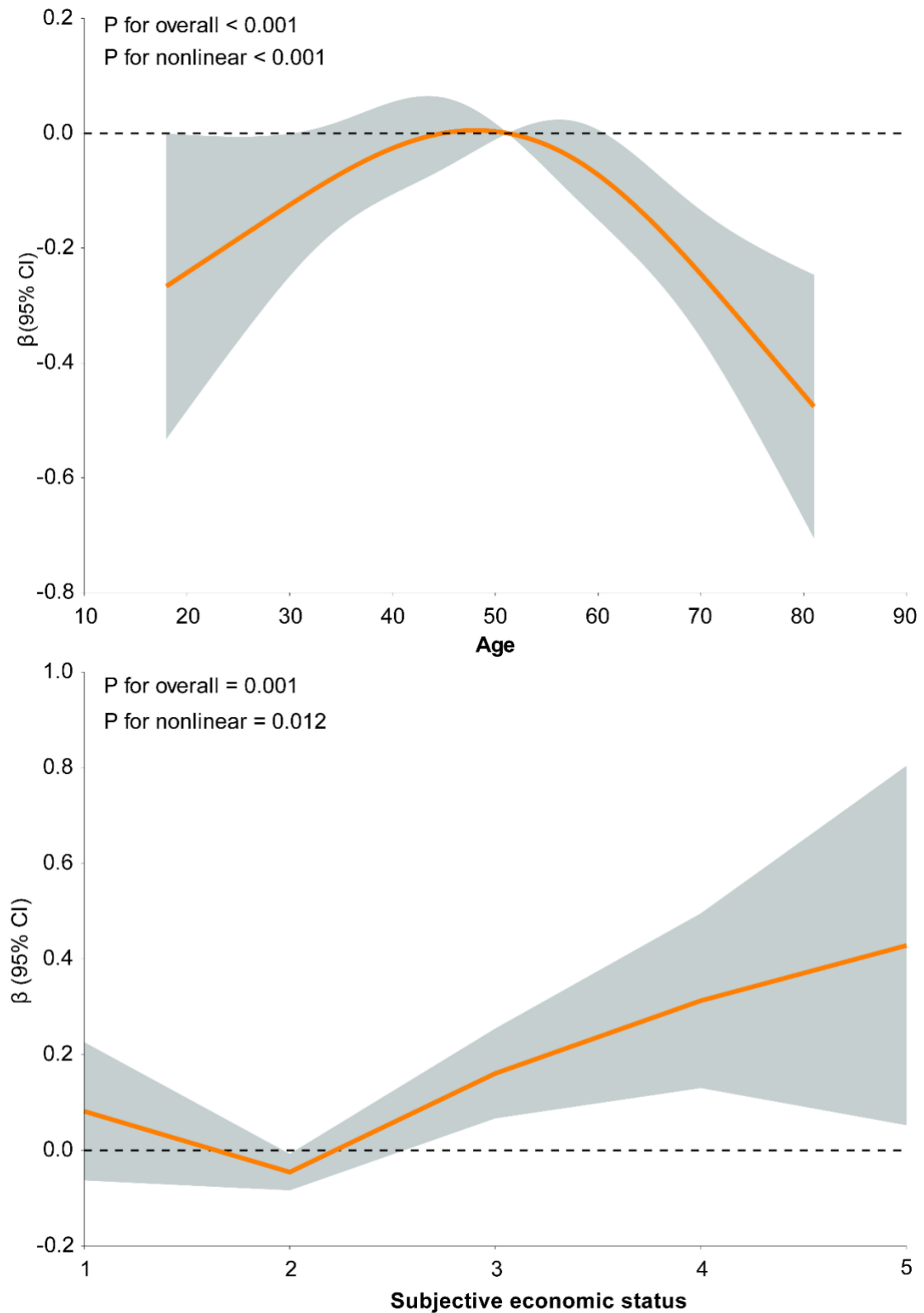
396

397

398 *Figure 4.*

399 Nonlinear Associations Between Age and Subjective Economic Status and

400 Environmental Participation.



401

402 For H1–H3, Figure S2 displays bivariate Pearson correlations between the three
403 reference-point indicators (past-oriented, future-oriented, and social-comparison) and
404 environmental participation willingness. Pearson correlation was selected because all
405 five variables are measured on symmetric 5-point Likert scales and show
406 approximately symmetric distributions in the sample. All three pairwise correlations
407 were positive and statistically significant (p s < .001). This pattern provides initial
408 descriptive evidence that residents who evaluate the current environment more
409 favorably relative to the past, their expectations, or neighboring areas tend to report
410 stronger willingness to participate in environmental affairs. However, because these
411 bivariate associations do not account for overlap among the three reference frames or
412 for demographic differences, we further evaluated the three reference points as
413 predictors of participation using mixed-effects models (Table 2).

414 When entered separately (Models 2–4), all three indicators were positively
415 associated with participation: future-oriented reference ($\beta = 0.190$, $p < .001$), past-
416 oriented reference ($\beta = 0.312$, $p < .001$), and social-comparison reference ($\beta = 0.236$, p
417 < .001). These single-reference models indicate that each comparative frame is
418 relevant when considered on its own. In the full specification (Model 5), including all
419 three simultaneously, the past-oriented reference remained statistically robust ($\beta =$
420 0.289 , $p < .001$), whereas the future-oriented ($\beta = -0.042$) and social-comparison ($\beta =$
421 0.073) indicators were attenuated and not statistically distinguishable from zero. This
422 attenuation suggests that the associations of future-oriented and social-comparison

423 references with participation largely overlap with the broader comparative appraisal
424 captured by the reference-point indicators, whereas the past-oriented reference
425 contributes unique explanatory information. The results indicate that participation
426 willingness among resettled residents is most strongly anchored in concrete before–
427 after evaluations of environmental change rather than in more abstract future
428 expectations or lateral comparisons with neighboring areas.

429 Sensitivity analyses supported the same substantive pattern. First, when the
430 models were re-estimated as ordinary linear models without adding a random
431 intercept for pre-move township, the separate-reference models again showed
432 positive associations for the future-oriented, past-oriented, and social-comparison
433 references. In the joint specification, however, only the past-oriented reference
434 remained statistically robust ($\beta = 0.294$, $p < .001$), whereas the future-oriented
435 reference ($\beta = -0.035$) and social-comparison reference ($\beta = 0.076$) were not
436 statistically distinguishable from zero (Table S2). Second, leave-one-town-out analyses
437 indicated that this result was not attributable to any single township: the past-oriented
438 coefficient remained positive and statistically significant in every re-estimated model
439 (β range = 0.241–0.312, all $p < .001$; Figure S3), while the future-oriented and social-
440 comparison coefficients remained non-significant across exclusions. Third, analyses
441 using the five participation items as separate outcomes showed that the past-oriented
442 reference was positively associated with each item-level outcome, including reporting
443 environmental damage, promoting environmental protection, cooperating with

444 environmental policies, suggesting improvements, and contributing funds (β range =
445 0.173–0.304; Table S3). By contrast, the future-oriented reference was not statistically
446 significant for any item, and the social-comparison reference was significant only for
447 reporting environmental damage and promoting environmental protection. Finally,
448 nonparametric bootstrap confidence intervals for the joint model yielded the same
449 conclusion: the 95% confidence interval for the past-oriented reference excluded zero
450 [0.186, 0.404], whereas the intervals for the future-oriented reference [–0.154, 0.079]
451 and social-comparison reference [–0.050, 0.193] included zero. Together, these checks
452 indicate that the central finding—the distinctive robustness of the past-oriented
453 reference—was stable across model specification, township exclusion, outcome
454 operationalization, and resampling-based uncertainty estimation.
455

456 *Table 2.*

457 Predictors of Public Environmental Participation.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	-0.551** (0.172)	-0.578*** (0.163)	-0.549*** (0.154)	-0.557*** (0.160)	-0.545*** (0.154)
Age	-0.057 (0.045)	-0.076 (0.044)	-0.080 (0.042)	-0.075 (0.043)	-0.080 (0.043)
Income	0.031 (0.041)	0.020 (0.041)	0.017 (0.039)	0.034 (0.040)	0.021 (0.039)
Gender (Ref Female)	0.276*** (0.081)	0.265*** (0.079)	0.253*** (0.077)	0.286*** (0.079)	0.260*** (0.077)
Marriage (Ref Single)	0.479** (0.154)	0.511*** (0.152)	0.472** (0.146)	0.467** (0.150)	0.462** (0.147)
Education	0.168*** (0.044)	0.146*** (0.044)	0.135** (0.042)	0.146*** (0.043)	0.135** (0.043)
Future Reference		0.190*** (0.040)			-0.042 (0.059)
Past Reference			0.312*** (0.038)		0.289*** (0.053)
Social Reference				0.236*** (0.039)	0.073 (0.062)
Marginal R^2	0.073	0.106	0.164	0.124	0.166
Conditional R^2	0.113	0.128	0.177	0.142	0.178
AIC	1715.447	1700.153	1659.814	1687.591	1670.335
BIC	1750.754	1739.874	1699.535	1727.312	1718.883
Num. obs.	610	610	610	610	610
Num. groups: Town	14	14	14	14	14

458 *Note.* Standardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.459 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

460

461

Discussion

462 This study examined how environmental reference points are associated with
463 rural environmental participation willingness among resettled residents in
464 communities affected by mining-induced subsidence. Using survey data from Huainan,
465 China, we observed notable between-group differences in reported willingness after
466 relocation and consistent links between participation and three reference frames—
467 past-oriented, future-oriented, and social-comparison evaluations of the current
468 environment. When the three references were entered jointly, only the past-oriented
469 reference retained a robust independent association, with sensitivity analyses further
470 supporting this pattern, suggesting that residents' comparative judgments of present
471 conditions vis-à-vis their own prior environments are especially salient in this context.

472 In terms of group patterns, men, married respondents, and those with more
473 schooling reported higher participation. This pattern aligns with research indicating
474 that gendered roles and decision authority in rural affairs can coincide with greater
475 engagement among men (Agarwal, 2001; Burns et al., 2009; Westermann et al., 2005),
476 that marital ties may anchor attention to community living conditions (Y.-I. Kim & Dew,
477 2016; J. Wilson, 2000), and that education is often linked with environmental
478 knowledge, skills, and perceived efficacy (Bamberg & Möser, 2007; Wei et al., 2025).
479 Age exhibited an inverted-U association, with participation peaking around the early-
480 to-mid fifties and tapering thereafter; this pattern is consistent with accounts that link
481 midlife experience and community responsibility to engagement, alongside later-life

482 declines in physical capacity or public involvement (Han et al., 2022; Morawski et al.,
483 2022). Subjective economic standing showed a potential U-shaped trend: respondents
484 in the lower-middle range reported the lowest willingness, whereas both lower and
485 higher ends reported relatively higher levels. One interpretation, consistent with prior
486 work, is that those facing economic strain may depend more on public services and
487 thus remain sensitive to environmental quality (Mohai et al., 2009), while better-off
488 households may mobilize social capital and reputational concerns in support of
489 community affairs (Verba et al., 1995); at the same time, perceptions of relative
490 deprivation can coincide with disengagement among those who see themselves just
491 below the middle (Hargaden & Duquette, 2024; Korndörfer et al., 2015). We treat
492 these non-linear patterns as descriptive regularities in need of further corroboration.

493 To interpret the role of reference points, we drew on Emirbayer and Mische's
494 (1998) temporally embedded account of agency. All three references—comparisons to
495 the past, to personal expectations for the future, and to neighboring places—were
496 positively associated with willingness when modeled separately. This pattern is
497 consistent with a view in which iterational, projective, and practical-evaluative
498 orientations each provide motivational structure for action. In the joint model,
499 however, only the past-oriented reference remained statistically robust. In
500 resettlement settings characterized by discontinuities in place, livelihood, and routine,
501 comparative judgments against one's own past appear to be especially influential for
502 how residents appraise the present and consider participation (Lewicka, 2005, 2008).

503 Future expectations and lateral comparisons may still matter, yet their associations
504 could be partially channeled through, or intertwined with, the salience of experience—
505 consistent with the idea that the three *tones* of agency sound together but not always
506 with equal prominence in particular contexts (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998). This reading
507 also nuances findings from general-population studies in which future time
508 perspective has been emphasized (Milfont et al., 2012), by highlighting a relocation
509 context where the iterational orientation is comparatively foregrounded. Our results,
510 therefore, align with a reference-point perspective in which residents' appraisals of the
511 present, relative to lived histories, coincide with higher or lower participation.

512 The dominance of the past-oriented reference in joint specifications is
513 theoretically coherent across several intersecting frameworks in cognitive and
514 motivational psychology. Prospect theory establishes that individuals evaluate
515 outcomes not in absolute terms but relative to a reference point, with losses weighted
516 more heavily than equivalent gains (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Tversky & Kahneman,
517 1992). In a resettlement context, the prior living environment constitutes the most
518 cognitively accessible and motivationally potent reference: it is autobiographically
519 anchored, repeatedly rehearsed in community discourse, and carries the affective
520 weight of an involuntary loss. Research on autobiographical memory confirms that
521 disruptive collective experiences, particularly those with negative emotional valence,
522 are encoded with heightened fidelity and remain persistently accessible over time,
523 because emotional intensity amplifies memory consolidation (Conway & Pleydell-

524 Pearce, 2000; Rouhani et al., 2023). When residents perceive the present environment
525 as an improvement over a degraded past, this comparative gain may activate what
526 regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) characterizes as a prevention-focused
527 motivational orientation: rather than aspiring toward a still-better future, residents are
528 motivated to protect a valued status quo against regression, a state that may translate
529 into participation-related intentions directed at maintaining and safeguarding
530 environmental improvements. Empirical studies confirm that loss-framed
531 environmental comparisons reliably elicit stronger conservation decisions than gain-
532 framed projections (Belle et al., 2025), and that individual-level loss aversion is robust
533 across different choice contexts and demographic groups (Gächter et al., 2022).

534 The dominance of the past-oriented reference warrants deeper mechanistic
535 interpretation. Solastalgia—the distress caused by environmental change in one's
536 home environment—has been documented among displaced mining communities in
537 Germany, Australia, and Ghana, where forced relocation disrupts the emotional bond
538 between residents and their original landscape (Krüger et al., 2022; Mackey et al.,
539 2023). In the Huainan context, residents who experienced subsidence-induced
540 displacement may carry not only concrete memories of pre-move environmental
541 conditions but also a deeper psycho-emotional orientation rooted in loss and longing.
542 This suggests that the past-oriented reference may operate through multiple pathways:
543 a purely cognitive benchmark (the current environment is better/worse than before),
544 an emotional valence component (nostalgia or solastalgia), and a motivational impulse

545 (desire to restore or protect what was lost). The emotional geography and place-
546 attachment literature on coal and energy-transition communities suggests that
547 attachment, loss, anxiety, and uncertainty often coexist in places historically organized
548 around coal, and that these emotional framings can shape whether communities
549 support transition policies, resist environmental interventions, or withdraw from
550 governance processes (Devine-Wright, 2009; Egan et al., 2024; Rohse et al., 2020).
551 Future work could profitably map these emotional trajectories in Huainan to illuminate
552 the affective architecture underlying the statistical associations observed here.

553 A question that warrants explicit attention concerns the uniqueness of these
554 findings to the Huainan context versus their potential generalizability. Several findings
555 appear to be relatively context specific. The dominance of the past-oriented reference
556 over future and social comparisons in joint models aligns with features particular to
557 coal-mining subsidence displacement: the pre-move environment was objectively
558 degraded and well-documented, making before-after comparisons especially salient
559 and easily anchored; the displacement was involuntary and state-managed, meaning
560 residents did not self-select into resettlement and thus retain vivid memories of prior
561 conditions; and the new communities are standardized, limiting variation in current
562 environmental conditions that might otherwise amplify social comparison effects.
563 Cross-regional evidence suggests that other resettlement settings organize agency
564 through different interpretive frames: in Ghana and Sierra Leone, compensation,
565 livelihood restoration, and the distribution of social and natural capital are especially

566 prominent; in Zimbabwe and Odisha, agency is often expressed through livelihood
567 resilience, rebuilding of social networks, identity claims, or resistance; in Latin
568 American mining frontiers, territorial movements and contestation over extractive
569 governance shape mobilization; and in climate- or dam-related relocation, livelihood
570 security, long-term adaptation, and the remaking of home and belonging tend to
571 structure residents' evaluations (Arhin et al., 2022; Bebbington et al., 2008; Feng &
572 Zhu, 2022; Gukurume & Tombindo, 2023; Ofori et al., 2023; Piggott-McKellar et al.,
573 2020; Samal, 2025; S. A. Wilson, 2019). The inverted-U age pattern and U-shaped
574 economic status pattern, however, are consistent with findings from diverse national
575 contexts and may reflect more universal life-course and socioeconomic dynamics in
576 civic participation (Hargaden & Duquette, 2024; Morawski et al., 2022). The practical
577 primacy of the past reference, and its actionable implications for mobilization design,
578 should thus be treated as a context-sensitive finding in need of careful replication
579 before it is extended to other resource-dependent resettlement settings.

580

581 **Theoretical and Practical Implications**

582 Theoretically, the study extends dialogue between rural environmental
583 participation and agency theory by introducing a reference-point lens. Much work on
584 environmental action in rural contexts has emphasized instrumental reasoning or
585 value–norm pathways (e.g., the theory of planned behavior; value–belief–norm
586 models) (Ajzen, 1991; Stern et al., 1999), while comparatively fewer accounts have

587 centered on the temporal and comparative frames through which residents evaluate
588 their situations. By adapting the notion of reference points from behavioral decision
589 research to the setting of resettlement communities (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974), the
590 analysis foregrounds how people draw on remembered pasts, anticipated futures, and
591 horizontal comparisons to organize participation. The findings also speak to the
592 literature on environmental migration and resettlement, which often spotlights
593 vulnerability, policy performance, and livelihood recovery (Gong et al., 2021; Heming
594 & Rees, 2000; Tashi & Foggin, 2012; Xun & Bao, 2008). Our results suggest that
595 resettled residents are not merely passive recipients of institutional designs; rather,
596 they actively interpret new settings through comparative frames that help re-locate
597 the self in relation to place and public affairs. Even within institution-led processes,
598 agency can be articulated through the reframing of experience and evaluation, which
599 may support or dampen participation.

600 This study advances the literature on rural environmental participation in three
601 respects that, to our knowledge, have not been jointly established elsewhere. First,
602 while prior research has examined satisfaction, expectations, and social comparison as
603 separate correlates of environmental behavior (Ouyang et al., 2022; Piao & Managi,
604 2024; Ruan et al., 2022), the present study provides the first empirical test of their
605 joint explanatory weight. We found only the past-oriented reference retain a robust
606 association, indicating that the three frames are not interchangeable, and that
607 retrospective comparison carries disproportionate motivational weight. Second,

608 existing mining-displacement scholarship has primarily addressed livelihood
609 restoration, compensation, and social capital (Ahmer & Ostendorf, 2025; Arhin et al.,
610 2022; Gukurume & Tombindo, 2023); our findings introduce a complementary
611 cognitive-motivational pathway, showing that retrospective gain perception anchors
612 residents' willingness to engage in post-extractive environmental governance. Third,
613 whereas prior rural participation studies have emphasized sociodemographic and
614 economic determinants (Meng & Si, 2022; Yang et al., 2025), our results show that
615 comparative reference-point evaluations retain significant explanatory force net of
616 these controls, elevating subjective interpretive frames as a central rather than
617 peripheral component of post-resettlement participation models.

618 Beyond the immediate setting of rural community management, these findings
619 also speak to broader debates on resource governance and post-extractive
620 sustainability transitions. Residents' willingness to participate in environmental affairs
621 can be understood as part of the social infrastructure through which post-mining
622 regions pursue durable remediation, fairer resource allocation, and more inclusive
623 transition pathways. The present study complements this literature by shifting
624 attention from macro-level resource and market dynamics to the community-level
625 agency through which sustainability transitions are experienced, interpreted, and
626 potentially supported by affected residents. Local participation constitutes a bridge
627 between ecological restoration targets and everyday legitimacy: when residents
628 recognize improvements relative to the degraded environments from which they were

629 relocated, they may be more willing to help maintain, monitor, and co-produce the
630 restored environment.

631 Practically, the patterns offer direction for program design in resettlement
632 communities. Differentiated engagement strategies seem warranted: men, married
633 respondents, middle-aged adults, and those with higher education reported higher
634 participation and may be positioned as early organizers or peer facilitators, while
635 parallel efforts can lower barriers for other groups. The prominence of the past-
636 oriented reference suggests that governments and communities can adopt a past-
637 oriented mobilization strategy. First, local governments and community managers
638 could organize participatory environmental audits that explicitly compare before-and-
639 after ecological conditions, using photographic or monitoring data from the
640 subsidence period alongside current assessments. Second, community narrative
641 workshops could invite residents to co-produce accounts of how their environmental
642 conditions have evolved since displacement, converting private memories into
643 collective records that recognize both losses and gains. Third, communication
644 campaigns that frame participation as protecting what we have rebuilt may better align
645 with the comparative logic that appears to drive resident agency.

646

647 **Limitations**

648 Several limitations qualify these interpretations. The cross-sectional design is the
649 most consequential. Theory motivates the expectation that comparative reference

650 frames precede and shape participation dispositions. Emirbayer and Mische's (1998)
651 framework treats agency as temporally constituted, with iterational orientations,
652 rooted in prior schemes and habits, logically preceding practical-evaluative responses
653 to current situations. Moreover, psychological research on memory and comparative
654 appraisal suggests that retrospective evaluations of prior conditions are cognitively
655 more stable than real-time participation decisions (Conner & Norman, 2022; Kuwabara
656 & Pillemer, 2010). Similarly, unmeasured community-level factors, such as local
657 leadership quality and access to participation channels, may jointly influence both
658 reference-point evaluations and participation willingness, creating omitted variable
659 bias. The second limitation is the operationalization of the dependent variable. The
660 study measures participation willingness rather than observed behavior. The intention-
661 behavior gap is well documented in environmental psychology (M.-S. Kim & Hunter,
662 1993; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Accordingly, the findings should be interpreted as
663 evidence about participation willingness rather than observed environmental
664 participation. Future work combining willingness measures with behavioral records
665 would clarify the predictive scope of the reference-point framework. Finally, the
666 findings are specific to coal-mining subsidence resettlement in Huainan, a context
667 shaped by China's distinctive institutional arrangements. While the theoretical
668 framework is generalizable, context-specific replication is needed before applying
669 these conclusions to resource-dependent communities in Africa, India, or South
670 America.

671

Conclusion

672 This study introduces a reference-point perspective to rural environmental
673 participation in resettlement communities. Past-oriented appraisals of present
674 conditions displayed the most consistent association with participation when modeled
675 alongside future- and social-comparison references. Placing residents' subjective
676 frames at the center of analysis underscores the role of agency in shaping engagement
677 and suggests that interventions may benefit from aligning with how people evaluate
678 the present through the lens of lived histories, anticipated futures, and nearby
679 examples.

680

681

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1054

Appendix

1055 Table S1

1056 Comparison between the survey sample and population census benchmarks for

1057 Huainan

1058

Indicator	Survey sample	Census benchmark
Gender	Male 49.7%, Female 50.3%	Huainan: Male 51.01%, Female 48.99%
Age	18–59: about 68.6%; 60+: about 31.1%	Huainan: 15–59 = 59.34%; 60+ = 20.98%; among people aged 15+, 60+ is about 26.1%
Education	Primary or below 44.3%; middle school 36.1%; high school 13.0%; junior college or above 6.7%	Huainan per 100,000: college+ 11,491; high school 12,454; middle school 36,616; primary school 27,540; the remaining population includes below-primary/no-schooling groups

1059

1060

1061 Table S2.

1062 Sensitivity Analysis Without Pre-Move Township Random Intercepts.

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
(Intercept)	-0.556*** (0.157)	-0.601*** (0.153)	-0.560*** (0.148)	-0.577*** (0.152)	-0.559*** (0.148)
Age	-0.034 (0.044)	-0.065 (0.044)	-0.074 (0.042)	-0.068 (0.043)	-0.076 (0.042)
Income	0.033 (0.042)	0.018 (0.041)	0.016 (0.039)	0.034 (0.040)	0.020 (0.040)
Gender (Ref Female)	0.226** (0.081)	0.235** (0.079)	0.233** (0.076)	0.261*** (0.078)	0.241** (0.077)
Marriage (Ref Single)	0.479** (0.155)	0.522*** (0.151)	0.479** (0.146)	0.482** (0.150)	0.473** (0.147)
Education	0.182*** (0.045)	0.153*** (0.044)	0.140*** (0.042)	0.152*** (0.043)	0.140** (0.043)
Future Reference		0.210*** (0.039)			-0.035 (0.059)
Past Reference			0.324*** (0.037)		0.294*** (0.053)
Social Reference				0.251*** (0.038)	0.076 (0.062)
R^2	0.069	0.112	0.172	0.131	0.174
Adj R^2	0.062	0.103	0.164	0.122	0.163
Num. obs.	610	610	610	610	610

1063 Note. Standardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.

1064 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

1065

1066 Table S3.

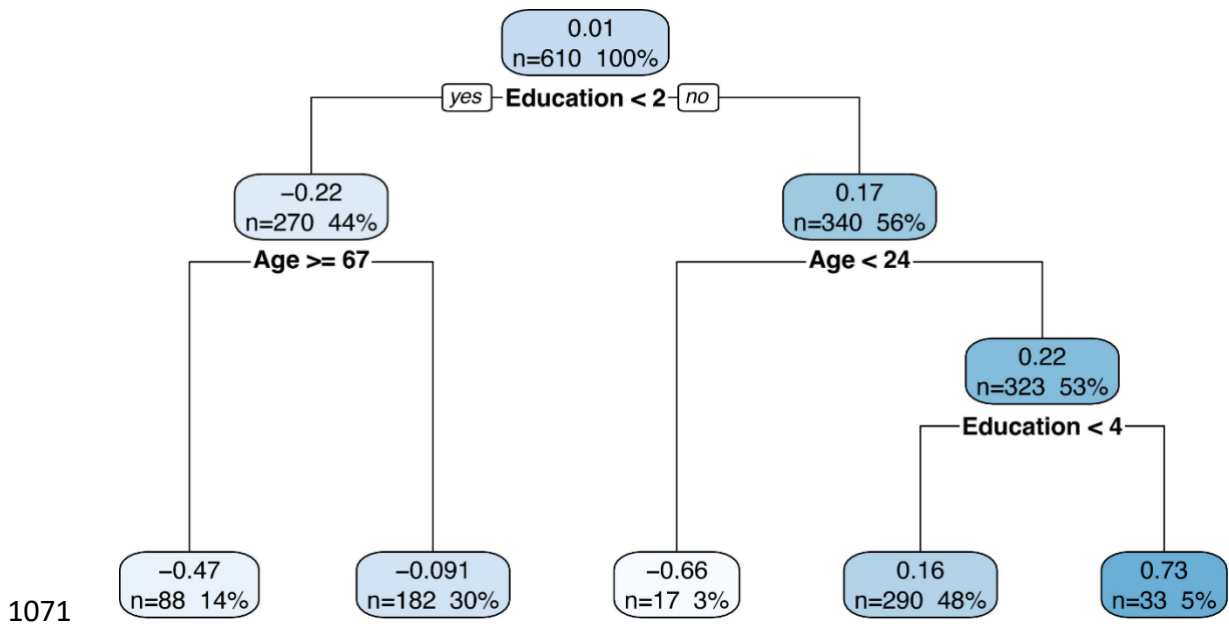
1067 Reference-Point Predictors of Single-Item Environmental Participation Outcomes.

	Report violations	Advocate environmental protection	Cooperate with policy	Suggest improvements	Contribute financially
(Intercept)	-0.444** (0.155)	-0.491** (0.153)	-0.262 (0.164)	-0.359* (0.166)	-0.507** (0.158)
Age	-0.043 (0.044)	-0.074 (0.043)	-0.041 (0.044)	-0.032 (0.045)	-0.100* (0.044)
Income	-0.028 (0.041)	-0.022 (0.040)	0.030 (0.041)	-0.023 (0.041)	0.096* (0.041)
Gender (Ref Female)	0.337*** (0.080)	0.296*** (0.078)	0.134 (0.080)	0.060 (0.081)	0.185* (0.080)
Marriage (Ref Single)	0.299* (0.152)	0.373* (0.150)	0.215 (0.153)	0.355* (0.155)	0.471** (0.152)
Education	0.105* (0.044)	0.096* (0.043)	0.048 (0.044)	0.142** (0.045)	0.116** (0.044)
Past Reference	0.173** (0.055)	0.236*** (0.054)	0.296*** (0.055)	0.223*** (0.056)	0.186*** (0.055)
Future Reference	-0.045 (0.061)	-0.047 (0.060)	0.019 (0.061)	-0.012 (0.062)	-0.062 (0.061)
Social Reference	0.131* (0.064)	0.138* (0.063)	-0.050 (0.064)	-0.004 (0.065)	0.075 (0.064)
Marginal R^2	0.109	0.142	0.093	0.077	0.114
Conditional R^2	0.111	0.145	0.115	0.099	0.124
AIC	1716.578	1692.841	1719.551	1730.551	1711.034
BIC	1765.126	1741.389	1768.099	1779.099	1759.582
Num. obs.	610	610	610	610	610
Num. groups: Town	14	14	14	14	14

1068 *Note.* Standardized regression coefficients are displayed, with standard errors in parentheses.

1069 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

1070



1071

1072 *Figure S1.*

1073 CART Classification Tree Predicting Participation from Demographic Characteristics.

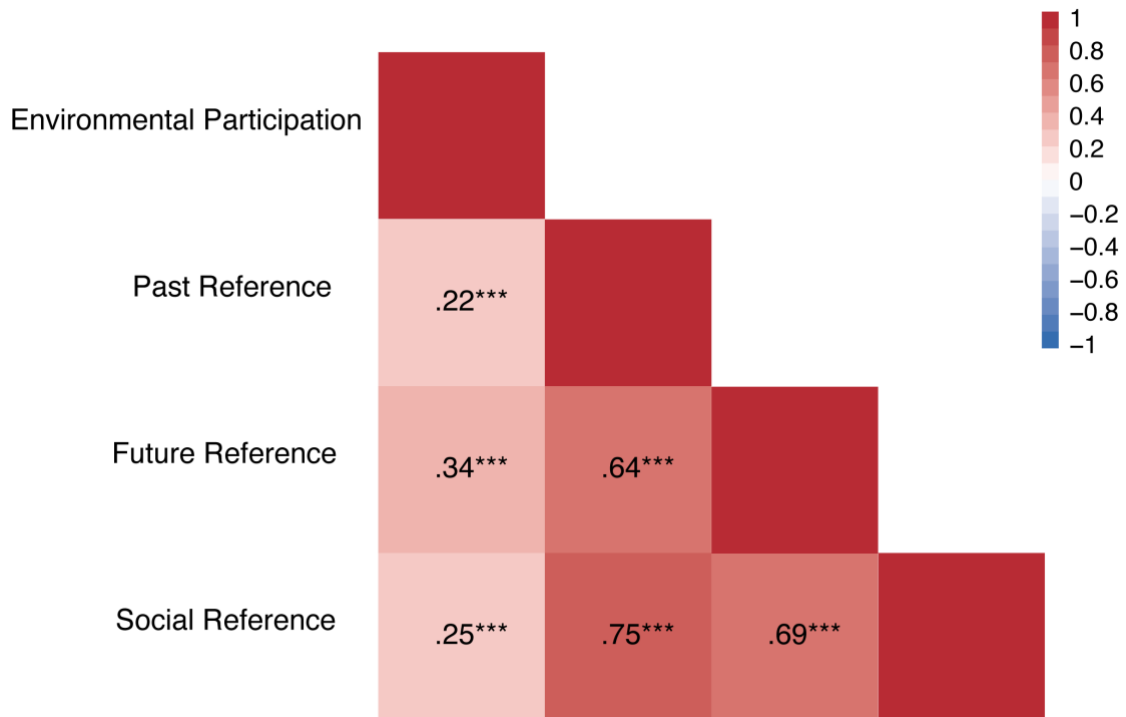
1074

1075

1076 *Note:* For education, 1 = Primary or below, 2 = Middle school, 3 = High school, 4 =

1077 Junior college, 5 = Bachelor or above.

1078



1079

1080 *Figure S2.*

1081 Bivariate Associations Between Reference-Point Indicators and Environmental
 1082 Participation Willingness.

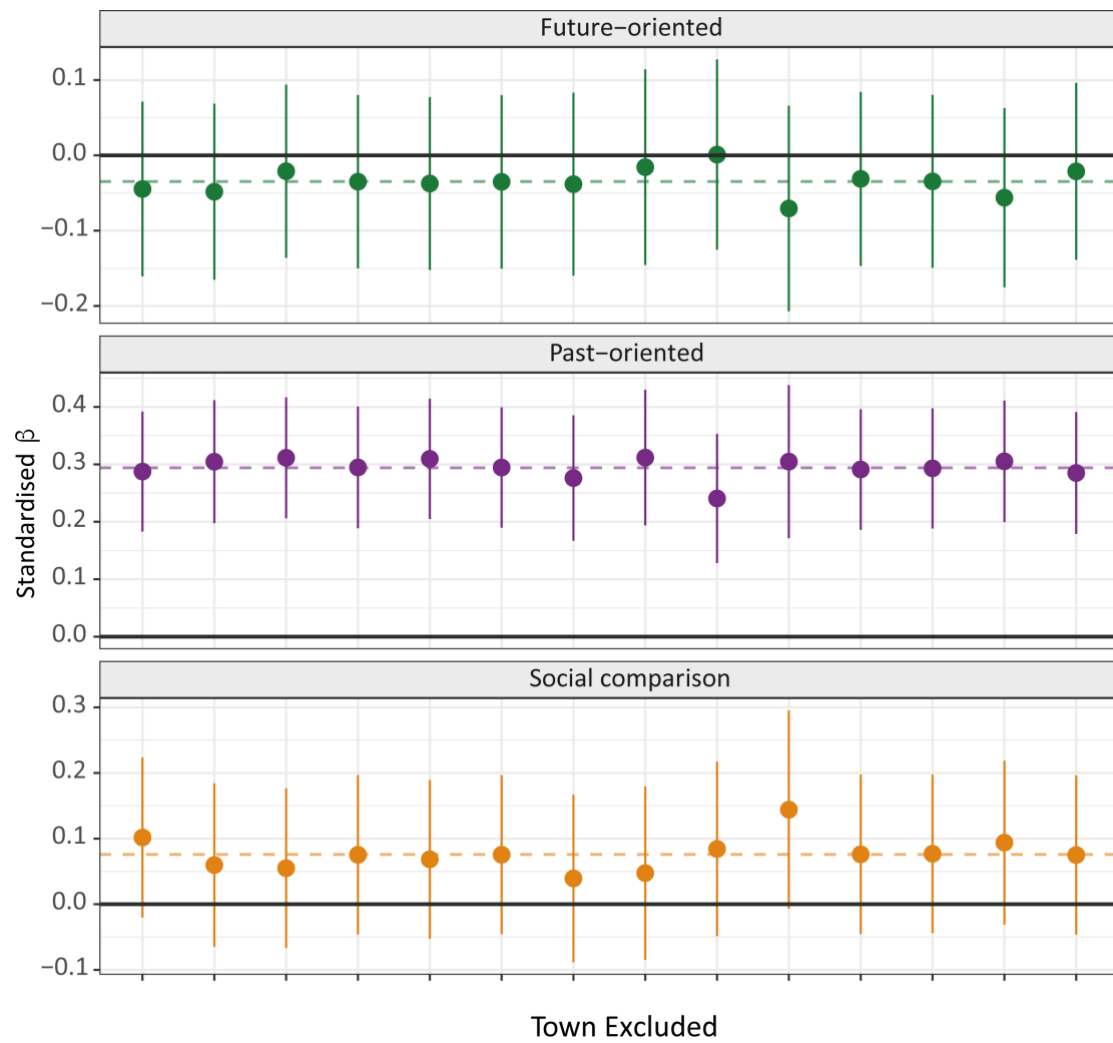
1083

1084 Note: Pearson correlation coefficients were used for the main correlation matrix
 1085 because the variables were coded on symmetric five-point response scales. To avoid
 1086 applying Pearson correlations indiscriminately to ordinal response items, we
 1087 additionally estimated Spearman rank-order correlations as a sensitivity check. The
 1088 Spearman results were substantively consistent with the Pearson results in direction
 1089 and statistical significance.

1090

1091 Figure S3.

1092 Leave-One-Town-Out Estimates for Reference-Point Predictors.



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