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5 **Understanding tactical responses to social problems through the lens of regulatory scope**

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Abstract

People might address societal problems by engaging in collective action to raise awareness of the issue or attempt to change underlying structural systems, or prosocial behaviors to help those impacted. In this Perspective, we draw on construal level theory and regulatory scope theory to understand why people might engage in various efforts to mitigate social problems. Specifically, we propose that people pursue solutions that alleviate the suffering of those affected by the problem (consequence-focused solutions) when they focus on lower-level or more psychologically proximal features and pursue solutions that address the underlying causes of the problem (cause-focused solutions) when they focus on higher-level or more psychologically distant features. Thus, people's preferences for different solutions might be explained by understanding how people view the underlying problem. This framework explains the different ways people seek to address perceived social problems, providing insights into when and why people devote their time and energy to pursuing different forms of social action.

41 [H1] Introduction

42 In the summer of 2020, sparked by the killing of George Floyd by Minneapolis police,
43 Black Lives Matter led one of the largest, most sustained social movements in recent United
44 States history¹. This movement focused on reducing racial injustice facing Black Americans¹ and
45 people from many different racial and ethnic backgrounds participated in a variety of ways, such
46 as attending protests, rallies, and reading clubs, donating to anti-racism organizations and
47 families affected by police violence, and organizing or participating in social media campaigns².
48 Police violence against Black Americans is an example of a social problem—an issue generally
49 perceived as an illegitimate, harmful social condition^{3,4}. Other examples include extreme poverty
50 throughout the world, women’s rights in Iran, and climate change.

51 To address social problems, people might engage in collective actions to raise awareness
52 of the issue (such as attending rallies and protests or signing petitions) and to change underlying
53 systems^{5,6} (such as restructuring local budgets) or people might engage in prosocial behaviors to
54 help those affected by social problems, such as donating money and volunteering^{7,8,9}. For
55 decades, psychologists, political scientists, and sociologists have studied people’s motivations to
56 engage in social actions. However, how people choose among the variety of potential social
57 actions remains elusive.

58 In this Perspective, we draw on regulatory scope theory¹⁰ and construal level theory^{11,12}
59 to explain when and why people pursue different solutions to address social problems. First, we
60 summarize research on drivers and types of social action. Next, we describe construal level
61 theory and regulatory scope theory. Finally, we bring these literatures together and consider how
62 different features of social problems might expand or contract scope, thereby influencing the
63 type of solutions people pursue. Although we focus on examples of issues facing marginalized

64 groups, such as Black Americans or lower-income individuals, the underlying processes are
65 likely generalizable to any issues perceived to be unjust.

66

67 **[H1] What motivates social action**

68 Social action occurs when people seek to remedy or alter a problematic situation or
69 issue¹³, such as poverty, social inequality, and the impacts of natural disasters. Research that
70 investigates why people engage in social action often focuses on understanding engagement in
71 collective action, defined as any action that individuals take in support of a group with the goal
72 of social change^{14,15,16,17}. Research in sociology and political science details how activists and
73 leaders of social movements spur engagement in collective action by framing social problems to
74 highlight who experiences injustice (that is, the victims), who proliferates the injustice (that is,
75 the culpable agents), and the causes of injustice^{13,18,19,20}. To garner support, leaders also
76 strategically emphasize the possibility of creating change through collective action (agency
77 frames) and define the ‘we’ of who can bring about change (identity frames)¹⁹. Thus, this
78 literature suggests that people make strategic choices to spur action using collective action
79 frames that highlight who is harmed and by whom, while emphasizing a common identity and
80 the efficacy of action (for reviews see^{13,21}).

81 Complementing these perspectives, social psychologists focus on the psychological
82 factors motivating social action. People engage in collective action when they identify with the
83 relevant group or moral cause^{22,14,23,24,19,25}, view the situation as illegitimate or unjust, have
84 emotional responses (such as anger and moral outrage directed at responsible agents)^{23,26,27}, and
85 believe in the group’s ability to effectively act (group-efficacy beliefs)^{22,24}.

86 However, collective action is only one route through which people might seek to address
87 social problems. Research on interpersonal helping and prosocial behavior identifies individual-
88 level responses to social problems, such as bias confrontation (speaking out against perceived
89 bias) and charitable giving^{28,29,30,31,32}. This work focuses on the role of individual characteristics
90 (such as empathy) and cost-benefit analyses in decisions to help and offer aid^{28,29,30,31,32}. For
91 example, having empathic concern for others³³ and identification with the aid recipient is
92 associated with prosocial donations^{34,35}.

93 Some work has sought to integrate prosocial behavior and collective action to identify
94 the actions people might engage in when presented with social problems. Actions can be
95 classified as benevolence actions that provide tangible money, goods, or services (often deemed
96 prosocial behaviors), and activism actions that seek to challenge the existing system (such as
97 attending rallies and signing petitions (often deemed collective actions)^{8,9}. In a sample of people
98 on mailing lists for anti-poverty nonprofit organizations, feelings of sympathy towards the
99 disadvantaged group predicted engagement in benevolence action, whereas feelings of outrage
100 and attributions that emphasize the culpability of governments predicted engagement in activism
101 action⁹. Thus, different emotions and attributions of responsibility predicted engagement in
102 benevolence versus activism actions. Moreover, a content analysis of qualitative data from
103 people who self-identified as allies (members of advantaged groups committed to reducing a
104 social inequality that advantages their group⁵) suggests that social actions taken by advantaged
105 group members can be categorized as either reflecting affirmation action or informed action⁵ (see
106 also^{36,37,38,39,40,41}). Affirmation actions refer to behaviors meant to provide interpersonal support
107 and understanding, whereas informed actions involve behaviors that seek to dismantle privilege
108 and confront bias targeting the outgroup. Although little work has assessed what factors drive

109 these different types of action, one study found that those who recognize privilege and have
110 internal motivation to respond without prejudice are likely to engage in both affirmation and
111 informed actions⁵. Taken together, scholars have introduced different frameworks for
112 categorizing the actions people might take to address social problems. However, it remains
113 unclear how people choose among these varying actions.

114 Importantly, existing frameworks primarily focus on categorizing the actions themselves
115 rather than their underlying aims. For example, in response to police violence, people could
116 donate directly to the family of someone who was harmed⁴² or donate to organizations seeking to
117 restructure local and state police budgets⁴³. Although these examples involve taking the same
118 action—donating money—to address the same social problem, allocating donations toward
119 different funds might reflect different underlying aims. For example, donating to the family of
120 someone harmed might stem from an aim to help that individual family in the present moment.
121 By contrast, donating to organizations seeking to restructure police budgets might stem from an
122 aim to aid the broader group of Black Americans who might be impacted by police violence by
123 curbing opportunities for police violence to occur in future. Thus, the difference between these
124 two responses is not the action itself (donating) but the focus and aim of the action (that is, the
125 scope of concerns the action seeks to address).

126 We propose an alternative framework to understand people’s engagement in social action
127 that focuses on the aims of the action and therefore how people understand the problem that they
128 are attempting to solve. Focusing on understanding how people view the underlying problem
129 might clarify when and why people pursue disparate solutions to social problems. This
130 framework integrates the social action literature with the robust literature on construal level and
131 regulatory scope to understand the solutions people engage in to address social problems.

132

133

[H1] Construal level and regulatory scope

134

135 Construal level theory describes how people think about and orient to objects or events as

136 a function of psychological distance (how far something is from one's direct experience)^{11,12}.

137 Psychological distance could occur in terms of physical proximity (near to far), temporal

138 closeness (present to future), social closeness (close friend to stranger) or hypotheticality

139 (probable to unlikely). Psychologically close objects and events are thought about more

140 concretely, whereas psychologically distal objects and events are viewed more abstractly^{11,12}.

141 Seeing something as more concrete or abstract refers to the level of construal. At a higher-level,

142 people perceive objects and events as more abstract and think about the superordinate big picture

143 (seeing the forest). At a lower-level, people perceive objects and events more concretely, and

144 consider the subordinate, idiosyncratic details (seeing the trees). As psychological distance

145 increases, the more an object, event, or situation is mentally represented or construed at a higher-

146 level of abstraction, and conversely, the more abstractly something is construed, the more it is

147 perceived as psychologically distant^{12,44}.

148 Regulatory scope theory¹⁰ expands on construal level theory and describes how people

149 act and make decisions to achieve different goals by changing the breadth or scope of their

150 considerations. Optimal regulatory functioning requires that people can both immerse themselves

151 in a narrow set of immediate concerns relevant to the proximal here-and-now (contract their

152 scope) and move beyond their current experiences to consider a broader set of concerns relevant

153 to more distant times, places, people, and possibilities (expand their scope). Expanded scope

154 promotes pursuit of a general solution to a problem that can span time, space, and hypotheticals,

155 whereas contracted scope promotes pursuit of a specific solution relevant to the immediate

155 moment. Importantly, whereas psychological distance refers to the distance between a person
156 and a mental object, scope refers to the span and breadth of possibilities that one considers.
157 Construal level (seeing something as more concrete or abstract) is the most well-studied ‘tool’
158 for modulating scope: Directing people to the abstract expands scope, whereas directing people
159 to the concrete contracts scope¹⁰. Thus, one way to expand (vs. contract) scope is to focus on
160 concerns that are psychologically distant (vs. near).

161 Another way to expand or contract scope is to direct attention toward higher- or lower-
162 level features of the situation¹⁰. When people focus on the lower-level features of a situation or if
163 the features of a situation orient people toward lower-level concerns, they contract their scope or
164 narrow their range of concern. When scope is contracted, people focus on the immediate context,
165 and pursue solutions that account for the details of a given problem¹⁰. By contrast, when people
166 focus on higher-level features or if the features of a situation facilitate higher-level thinking, they
167 expand their scope or orient to a broader range of possibilities. When scope is expanded, people
168 pursue more generalized solutions that could satisfy a variety of contingencies for a given
169 problem¹⁰.

170 Research on construal level and regulatory scope has sought to understand why people
171 pursue different solutions for individual-level problems such as diet, stress, and where to seek
172 social support. This research^{45,46} finds that people prefer to engage in actions that address the
173 consequences (that is, byproducts or issues resulting from an underlying problem) when focusing
174 on psychologically near concerns and scope is contracted. People prefer to engage in actions that
175 address the causes (that is, the issues underlying a given problem) when focusing on
176 psychologically distant concerns and scope is expanded. Causes are higher-level features of an
177 event because they reflect the overarching central problem; consequences are lower-level

178 features of an event because they reflect downstream issues that are dependent on the causes.
179 Thus, features that facilitate higher-level thinking or expanded scope should lead people toward
180 addressing causes of a problem, whereas features that facilitate lower-level thinking or
181 contracted scope should facilitate action to mitigate its consequences.

182 For example, drawing people's attention to the future (rather than the present) led people
183 to prefer to reduce the cause of their stress (such as decreasing their workload when feeling
184 stressed at work)⁴⁵ because considering the future expands scope, which leads to a focus on more
185 central, higher-level features of an event, including causes. By contrast, drawing people's
186 attention to the present (rather than the future) led them to prefer to address a byproduct of their
187 stress (such as changing their diet to combat overeating), because considering the present
188 contracts scope, which leads to an emphasis on peripheral, lower-level features of an event,
189 including consequences⁴⁵. Thus, changing people's focus from the present to the future shifted
190 people's preferences from consequence-focused to cause-focused actions. Importantly, this
191 relationship is bidirectional. Consequence-focused actions operate at a lower-level and therefore
192 promote a focus on the present, whereas cause-focused actions operate at a higher-level and
193 therefore promote a focus on the future⁴⁵.

194 Another study found that going to close friends for social support leads people to address
195 a consequence of the problem (feeling exhausted), whereas going to a new acquaintance for
196 social support leads people to address the cause of a problem (feeling overwhelmed at work
197 which leads to exhaustion)⁴⁶. This finding suggests that thinking about soliciting support from
198 close others contracts scope, leading people to consider a narrower set of possibilities to solve
199 immediate concerns. By contrast, thinking about soliciting support from distal others expands
200 scope, directing people to consider a broader set of possibilities and concerns to solve the

201 overarching issue. This relationship also works bidirectionally—people seek out close others for
202 support when they want to address the consequences of a problem, and seek support from more
203 distant others when they want to address the root causes of a problem⁴⁶.

204

205 **[H1] Solving social problems**

206 The regulatory scope and construal level literatures have examined how people address
207 individual-level problems (such as stress) through consequence-focused and cause-focused
208 action. We propose that a similar process might unfold when considering social problems:

209 People might pursue solutions that alleviate the downstream consequences (consequence-focused
210 solutions) or address the underlying causes (cause-focused solutions) of a perceived social
211 problem. Further, engaging in different solutions might reciprocally influence scope and thereby
212 conceptualization of the problem.

213 For example, people might volunteer at local food kitchens⁴⁷, which addresses a
214 consequence of poverty—insufficient access to food. Volunteering at food kitchens
215 (consequence-focused solution) provides immediate, potentially life-saving aid to individuals
216 experiencing poverty, but the underlying problem (economic insecurity) remains. Alternatively,
217 people might volunteer with organizations that seek to implement policies to help build a floor of
218 economic security, such as by lobbying for childcare tax credits⁴⁸ (cause-focused solution). This
219 distinction between consequence-focused and cause-focused solutions might also be useful for
220 understanding larger scale efforts such as international aid. For example, nations might provide
221 funding to help food insecure communities in other nations (consequence-focused solution) or
222 might provide funding to another nation’s leaders to address economic insecurity (cause-focused
223 solution; see ref^{49,50}).

224 However, no single solution is a panacea. For example, volunteering for an organization
225 that seeks to implement policies that address the cause of poverty might eventually help a greater
226 number of people affected by poverty in the long run, but not those who are currently
227 experiencing poverty in the short term. Moreover, the likelihood of successfully reducing
228 poverty via policy initiatives is more uncertain than the likelihood of successfully feeding a
229 hungry family. Thus, it is understandable that people vary in the social actions they take across
230 contexts or at different times⁵¹.

231 We propose that highlighting features that are lower-level or more psychologically
232 proximal should direct people to pursue solutions aimed at helping those in immediate need in a
233 specific situation (consequence-focused solutions), whereas highlighting features that are higher-
234 level or more psychologically distal should direct people towards actions aimed at addressing the
235 broader overarching issue (cause-focused solutions). These features include: individual versus
236 group suffering, present versus future considerations, short-term versus long-term rewards,
237 feasibility versus desirability of creating change, and emotions directed toward the individual
238 situation versus the system. In this section, we integrate the literatures on social change,
239 construal level, and regulatory scope to explain why each of these features might impact whether
240 people pursue cause-focused or consequence-focused solutions. Although this list of features is
241 not exhaustive and additional features certainly influence the pursuit of solutions (for example,
242 the diversity of groups affected by the issue or social familiarity), we focus on these five as
243 initial illustrations.

244 **[H2] Individual versus group suffering**

245 At a lower-level of construal people focus on distinct individuals, which contracts scope,
246 and at a higher-level of construal people focus on groups, which expands scope^{52,53,54,55,56,57,58}.

247 Specifically, concrete, lower-level construal induces contrastive processing which differentiates
248 and individuates targets⁵³. At a more abstract, higher-level of construal, people place greater
249 weight on aggregated information and have more of a group-orientation⁵⁵. Thus, considering
250 who is impacted by injustice—whether a specific individual or a group—should contract or
251 expand scope, respectively, and direct pursuit of consequence-focused or cause-focused solutions
252 to social problems.

253 Research on prosocial behavior shows that people often help those directly affected by
254 social problems (consequence-focused solutions) owing to a feeling of personal obligation to a
255 particular person⁵⁹ or because they recognize that a specific individual needs assistance^{60,61}. For
256 instance, people are more likely to donate to help pay bills for a sick child’s family (which
257 addresses a consequence of a larger issue, such as lack of access to adequate health insurance) if
258 the face of an individual, identifiable victim is highlighted, rather than a group of eight sick
259 children⁶² (see also^{63,64,65,32}). Furthermore, people donate more when they are shown an
260 identified child affected by food insecurity versus statistics indicating that millions of children
261 are affected by food insecurity⁶⁵. Although these studies typically do not include cause-focused
262 measures (such as donations to efforts to improve health insurance coverage), this work suggests
263 that focusing on individual victims leads people to engage in actions that address the downstream
264 consequences (for example, the financial burden for a single family) of a larger social problem
265 (for example, lack of adequate health insurance).

266 Research on collective action supports the notion that focusing on group-level suffering
267 promotes engagement in cause-focused action. Collective actions that seek to address causes of
268 issues (such as protesting to advocate for alleviating poverty) stem from identification with
269 larger social groups (such as the social groups affected by poverty)^{15,66,67,23,68,14}. For example,

270 one study found that people rated unequal distributions of resources as more unfair and exhibited
271 more support for redistributive policies (such as wealth and inheritance taxes) if economic
272 inequality was presented as impacting groups compared to individuals⁶⁹. Because redistributive
273 policies attempt to reduce economic inequality by tackling an underlying cause (for example,
274 wealth taxes target excessive wealth), this finding suggests that the perception that larger social
275 groups are harmed might lead to the pursuit of cause-focused solutions.

276 Furthermore, at the intergroup-level a focus on one individual group might contract scope
277 and lead to pursuit of consequence-focused solutions, whereas a focus on the many groups
278 affected by social problems might expand scope and lead to pursuit of cause-focused solutions.
279 For example, asking heterosexual Asian Americans to focus on how multiple groups are
280 similarly affected by an issue (such as discrimination) leads to support for policies that might
281 address the causes of disadvantages facing another marginalized group (gay Americans)⁷⁰ (see
282 also^{71,72}). However, these studies did not test expanded scope as a mechanism. Thus, perceiving
283 that many groups experience a social problem might lead to more cause-focused action, although
284 this proposition awaits empirical testing.

285 Overall, focusing on the individual or individuals affected by a social issue might
286 contract scope leading to the pursuit of consequence-focused solutions, whereas focusing on
287 broader social groups affected by a social issue might expand scope leading to the pursuit of
288 cause-focused solutions.

289 **[H2] Present versus future considerations**

290 Research on construal level shows that imagining an event that occurs in the near future
291 (for example, tomorrow) or distant future (for example, next year) directs people toward the
292 idiosyncratic (lower-level) or abstract (higher-level) features of an event^{52,73,74,75,76}. Thus, a focus

293 on the present promotes lower-level construal, which should contract scope, whereas a future
294 focus promotes higher-level construal, which should expand scope. In the context of social
295 problems, focusing on either present or more distal future considerations should therefore guide
296 pursuit of consequence-focused or cause-focused solutions, respectively.

297 Research on health and coping shows how present (vs. future) considerations influences
298 attention towards consequences or causes as well as subsequent behavioral outcomes^{77,78}. One
299 study found that as a stressor (for example, the Bar Exam) drew closer in time, people were more
300 likely to engage in emotion-focused coping to alleviate the negative emotions derived from the
301 stressor (for example, seeking social support or using alcohol and/or drugs) compared to
302 problem-focused coping that addresses the source of a stressor (for example, active planning)⁷⁹.
303 Thus, as temporal distance from the stressful event decreased, people engaged in strategies that
304 alleviate the consequences of an underlying issue more than strategies that could address the
305 underlying cause. In another study, a focus on the future (vs. the here-and-now) led people to
306 prefer to address the cause of a given problem (stress) rather than the consequences of the
307 problem (low energy and low productivity)⁴⁵. Work on environmental activism also supports the
308 notion that present versus future thinking influences social action. People who are more likely to
309 think about future outcomes (vs. immediate outcomes) generally are more likely to endorse pro-
310 environmental attitudes and engage in behaviors that seek to address the causes of environmental
311 issues^{80,81} (see also⁸²).

312 Thus, a future focus is associated with engaging in cause-focused solutions to individual-
313 level stressors and environmental problems. Similar processes might occur for other social
314 problems, such as poverty. For example, focusing on what people experiencing poverty need in
315 the present moment should promote volunteering at a food kitchen, whereas focusing on what

316 people experiencing poverty need in the future should promote volunteering for organizations
317 lobbying for policies to address economic insecurity. Future studies are needed to test this
318 proposition empirically.

319 **[H2] Short-term versus long-term rewards**

320 People often balance pursuit of short-term rewards (immediate pleasures) and long-term
321 rewards (long-term self and community-enhancement)^{83,84,85,86,87}. Construal level can help
322 explain when people engage in self-control to prioritize delayed, long-term rewards rather than
323 short-term rewards^{88,89,90,91}. Specifically, priming lower-level construal promotes gratifying
324 immediate-here-and-now temptations, whereas priming higher-level construal promotes pursuit
325 of long-term goals and self-control. For example, female undergraduate students were more
326 likely to ignore the hedonic allure of chocolate and choose a healthier apple (consistent with
327 long-term health goals) when they were induced into states of higher-level construal versus
328 lower-level construal⁹¹ by answering prompts to generate superordinate category labels or
329 exemplars, respectively. Thus, higher-level construal led to a preference for delayed rewards
330 over immediate rewards. Higher-level construal might promote a preference for long-term
331 rewards (and facilitate self-control) because it allows people to weigh higher-level concerns over
332 lower-level concerns (temptations)⁸³. Thus, focusing on receiving short-term versus long-term
333 rewards should contract or expand scope and thereby guide pursuit of consequence-focused or
334 cause-focused solutions to social problems, respectively.

335 Short-term rewards might be palliative, such as feeling good after helping someone in
336 need, and long-term rewards might include achieving long-lasting equity. This notion is
337 supported by research on charitable giving and bystander helping, which suggest that people
338 engage in actions to address consequences of social problems (such as donating towards natural

339 disaster relief efforts) to obtain short-term rewards^{28,92}. For example, people report a ‘warm
340 glow’ or inner sense of satisfaction^{93,94,30}, a sense of ‘feeling good’⁹⁵, and show neural activity
341 suggesting that affective rewards are activated^{96,97} when they donate towards individuals
342 impacted by disasters (an action that mitigates the consequences of an event). Additionally,
343 people are more likely to help individuals if someone smiled (versus did not smile) at them⁹⁸,
344 and researchers theorize that people help as a means to reduce guilt and discomfort⁹⁹. According
345 to the negative-state-reduction theory of helping^{100,101}, interpersonal helping reduces personal
346 negative affect and therefore people engage in intergroup helping to satisfy selfish and hedonic
347 desires (however, according to empathy-altruism theory helping is better characterized as
348 selfless^{102,103,104}). Regardless of motive, this work suggests that people pursue actions that
349 address the consequences of social problems to obtain short-term rewards.

350 Alternatively, to create long-term social change (that is, pursue a long-term reward)
351 people often seek to revolutionize social systems (what might be considered cause-focused
352 solutions, see^{105,7,106}). Because cause-focused solutions might involve changing fundamental
353 elements of society, focusing on gaining long-term rewards (such as long-lasting social equity)
354 should direct pursuit of cause-focused solutions. Similarly, addressing the cause of a problem
355 might help people gain sought-after long-term rewards.

356 Classic research on self-regulation finds that people are drawn to immediate rewards and
357 short-term outcomes over long-term interests^{107,108}, which might explain the greater prevalence
358 of people participating in actions that aim to address consequences than actions that aim to
359 address causes⁸. For example, about 90 percent of sampled members of World Vision Australia
360 and the Global Poverty Project (anti-poverty NGOs) reported participating in actions such as
361 donating and purchasing fair trade products to help those affected by poverty; only 10 percent

362 reported participating in actions such as signing petitions to try to address the causes of poverty⁸.
363 These data are consistent with the idea that a focus on short-term rewards vs. long-term rewards
364 might influence the solutions pursued to address social problems.

365 **[H2] Feasibility versus desirability**

366 Feasibility (the ease or difficulty in achieving an end state) and desirability (the extent to
367 which an end state is valued) are not necessarily oppositional but they are often contrasted in the
368 construal and goal literatures when distinguishing between means and ends (see^{109,110,111}). These
369 literatures posit that desirability reflects the superordinate ‘why’ of an action, whereas feasibility
370 reflects the subordinate ‘how’ of an action. Thus, feasibility represents concrete, lower-level
371 construal, whereas desirability reflects abstract higher-level construal^{112,73,113,114}. Research on
372 persuasion supports this distinction: people are more persuaded by arguments that highlight
373 desirability (versus feasibility) if the arguments focus on the distant (versus near) future¹¹².
374 Furthermore, if people are told that they can buy a product this week, their product evaluations
375 focus on how easy the product is to use (feasibility) and therefore the lower-level concerns of
376 ‘how’. However, if people are told that they can buy the product three months from now, their
377 evaluations focus on how environmentally-friendly the product is (desirability), and therefore the
378 higher-level concerns of ‘why’. Thus, psychological distance (now versus future) influences
379 whether one considers the ‘how’ or ‘why’ of a decision.

380 In the context of social problems, the consideration of feasibility and desirability should
381 contract and expand scope, respectively, and thereby influence pursuit of consequence-focused
382 or cause-focused solutions. For example, although reducing police violence toward Black
383 Americans might be a highly desirable end-state, it could be perceived as unlikely that an
384 individual actor could have a meaningful impact. By contrast, actions like giving money directly

385 to a victim's family might be viewed as more feasible to engage in and have a direct impact.
386 Thus, people might prefer actions that aim to reduce the cause of the issue if they are prioritizing
387 desirability (see^{115,116}), and prefer actions that aim to help identifiable victims and the
388 consequences of the issue if they are prioritizing feasibility.

389 People are often more concerned with what is practical and feasible compared with what
390 is ideal and desirable^{73,111} (also see^{117,118}). This preference for feasibility might explain why more
391 people participate in actions that address consequences (charity donations towards individual
392 beneficiaries) than actions that address causes (lobbying governments to change systems)⁸.
393 Although logically sensible, this notion needs to be empirically tested to fully understand how
394 feasibility and desirability influence responses to social problems.

395 Notably, the collective action literature finds that perceived group efficacy might lead to
396 engagement in actions that aim to address the causes of social problems^{119,120,22} although this
397 relationship is not always robust (see²³ for discussion of inconsistent results). Group efficacy
398 reflects perceptions of whether collective action will achieve its goals and is measured with items
399 such as "I think that together we can change [the social problem]" and "to what extent do you
400 think that this [collective action] will increase the chances of the government changing their
401 plans?". These measures of group efficacy might tap into both perceptions that the action will
402 lead to a desirable end-state (desirability) and perceptions of how easy it is to enact social change
403 (feasibility). Similarly, hope reflects the cognitive appraisal that a desirable goal is possible to
404 achieve in the future¹²¹, which involves both desirability and feasibility (that is, that what is
405 desired is possible). High hope and high efficacy predict intentions to engage in collective
406 action¹²² (also see^{123,124}). Thus, the combination of desirability and feasibility might lead to

407 pursuit of cause-focused solutions, whereas considering only feasibility might lead to pursuit of
408 consequence-focused solutions.

409 Little work has directly tested both desirability and feasibility in the context of social
410 problems. Future research should directly test how focusing on desirability, feasibility, or both
411 predicts pursuit of consequence- and cause-focused solutions.

412 **[H2] Emotion toward individual situations or the system**

413 Collective action and prosocial behavior are often driven by emotional reactions such as
414 anger²² and sympathy^{8,26}. When presented with social problems, people might direct these
415 emotions at the individuals affected or at larger social systems^{23,9,125,126,127}. The theory of
416 regulatory scope suggests that focusing on a specific event contracts scope, whereas focusing on
417 broader events (for example, systemic issues) expands scope¹⁰. Thus, directing emotions towards
418 an individual situation might contract scope, promoting consequence-focused solutions; directing
419 emotions at the larger social system might expand scope, promoting cause-focused solutions.

420 For example, when seeking to address poverty, focusing on feelings of sympathy for
421 affected individuals should contract scope and promote actions that address a consequence of
422 this issue (for example, volunteering at a local food kitchen). By contrast, focusing on feelings of
423 anger towards the system that allows poverty to persist should expand scope and promote actions
424 that address a cause of the problem (for example, volunteering for organizations creating policies
425 to support economic security). Because the link between regulatory scope and where emotions
426 are directed has not been empirically tested, this is a novel prediction derived from our
427 framework.

428 In contrast to limited research on the relationship between emotions and regulatory scope,
429 many studies and models of social action consider the role of emotion^{22,23,26,68,105,119,128,129,130,131}.

430 For example, feelings of sympathy towards those affected by poverty predict more engagement
431 in actions such as donations to people in poverty^{9,23,132}. In these studies, the emotion (sympathy)
432 is directed at individuals affected by the underlying problem and sympathy uniquely predicted
433 actions to help those affected (a consequence-focused solution). People also engage in prosocial
434 donations to help affected individuals (a consequence-focused action) when emotions are
435 directed towards someone treated unfairly (empathic anger¹⁰⁴)^{133,134}.

436 By contrast, people pursue actions to address the cause of a problem when emotions are
437 directed at authorities, powerholders, and perpetrating group members (that is, the broader
438 system maintaining injustice). For example, feelings of moral outrage (anger at a third party or
439 system of injustice) lead to engagement in activism (which typically seeks to address the cause
440 of social problems)^{135,136,137}. Emotions like moral outrage are enacted when the broader system is
441 held responsible for perpetuating injustice¹³⁵, which might facilitate a focus on the underlying
442 cause. Consistent with this notion, directing anger at a system that maintains injustice might lead
443 to more engagement in activism that challenges the existing system¹³⁵ (that is, a cause-focused
444 action; see also^{138,139}).

445 These prior findings might be explained by a regulatory scope mechanism: emotions
446 directed at those affected by a social problem might contract scope and promote pursuit of
447 consequence-focused actions to directly help those affected, whereas emotions directed at the
448 social system might expand scope and promote pursuit of cause-focused action to interrupt the
449 broader system. Thus, our framework disambiguates how different targets of emotion influence
450 preferences for solutions to address social problems, but this needs to be tested empirically.

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452

[H1] Conclusions

453 We propose that focusing on different features contracts or expands scope, which directs
454 pursuit of solutions to address either the consequences or causes of a problem (Figure 1). This
455 framework introduces novel testable predictions of how regulatory scope might guide pursuit of
456 different actions to address perceived social problems.

457 Although prior research provides support for some of the predictions outlined here, future
458 research is needed to empirically test the full proposed model. For example, some paths have
459 been examined in contexts unrelated to social change (such as dieting or stress management),
460 whereas other paths that could be useful for understanding responses to individual-level
461 problems (for example, whether emotions are directed at an individual situation or system) have
462 not been tested. Testing predictions for how each of the proposed features influences pursuit of
463 potential solutions (both individual and social problems) will help answer key questions about
464 when and why people pursue different actions to address many different issues.

465 Most of the research on addressing individual-level problems posits a bidirectional
466 relationship between features that influence scope and preferred solutions, such that features
467 might influence desired solutions and engaging in solutions might also influence activated
468 features. This suggests that engaging in cause-focused (vs. consequence-focused) action might
469 expand (vs. contract) scope and shift attention to different features. For example, engaging in
470 cause-focused (vs. consequence-focused) solutions might lead people to consider plans that
471 require more time (vs. less time), to work in diverse coalitions (vs. work exclusively with their
472 own social group), and to address injustices in another country (vs. locally). Thus, pursuit of
473 cause-focused (vs. consequence-focused) solutions should direct attention toward a wider variety
474 of considerations and higher-level aspects of a problem, potentially leading to greater breadth in
475 the types of action pursued in response. A greater breadth of actions pursued when scope is

476 expanded might explain why a diverse variety of actions—such as collective protests, voting
477 behavior, and signing social media petitions²²—are typically included under the umbrella of
478 collective action, whereas studies on prosocial behavior mainly include a narrower set of two
479 behaviors (donating to those affected and engaging in prosocial helping). Future research can test
480 this proposition and assess how engaging in different solutions influences scope.

481 The framework presented here has important implications for understanding efforts to
482 reduce social injustice and inequality¹⁴⁰. First, understanding how people construe a social
483 problem might explain why many problems continue to persist. If people primarily pursue
484 actions that address the consequences of a problem because of the greater draw of feasibility
485 over desirability or short-term over long-term rewards, the root cause of the problem will likely
486 remain and continue to affect others. Conversely, if people primarily pursue actions that address
487 the causes of a problem, people currently suffering from the consequences will continue to do so,
488 and there are no guarantees that a cause-focused solution will be successful. Indeed, because
489 social problems by their very nature are socially constructed, people often disagree about what
490 the actual underlying problem is, which might impede action^{13,141}. Given the tradeoffs between
491 helping individuals and attempting to enact broader change, it might be useful for people to
492 engage in both types of solutions.

493 Importantly, although regulatory scope is a useful lens for understanding the solutions
494 people pursue to reduce social problems, this is just one possible mechanism and engagement in
495 social actions is not exclusively guided by scope. People might be driven by other motivations or
496 identity-based concerns, which also shape how people approach social action^{15,17,106,142,143,144,145}.
497 For example, advantaged group members might engage in certain consequence-focused actions,

498 (such as dependency-oriented help^{49,50}) if they are motivated to maintain the status of their own
499 group.

500 Linking regulatory scope to cause-focused and consequence-focused solutions provides a
501 generative framework to understand the actions people pursue to address perceived social
502 problems that could be applied to many issues, such as efforts to address poverty, police
503 violence, or climate change. Furthermore, this framework can contribute to research in political
504 science and sociology on how leaders frame social movements to inform interventions to
505 persuade people to engage in specific actions.

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888 **Figure captions**

889 **Figure 1. Features that influence regulatory scope and the solutions pursued.** Features (for
890 example, present vs. future considerations) expand or contract scope, which directs engagement
891 toward solutions that aim to reduce either the consequences or causes of a problem. Reciprocally,
892 the type of solution pursued influences perceived features.
893

894 ToC Blurb

895 People address societal problems by engaging in collective action to attempt to change
896 underlying structural systems or prosocial behaviors to help those impacted. In this Perspective,
897 Brown and Craig draw on construal level and regulatory scope theory to understand why people
898 engage in different forms of social action.

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