



Time preferences of food producers between fishermen and farmers: Do "cultivate and grow" matter?

Yayan Hernuryadin

*School of Economics and Management, Kochi University of Technology
Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries, Republic of Indonesia*

Koji Kotani

*School of Economics and Management, Kochi University of Technology
Research Institute for Future Design, Kochi University of Technology*

Tatsuyoshi Saijo

*Research Institute for Humanity and Nature
Research Institute for Future Design, Kochi University of Technology
School of Economics and Management, Kochi University of Technology
Urban Institute, Kyusyu University*

22nd December, 2017

School of Economics and Management
Research Center for Future Design
Kochi University of Technology

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Yayan Hernuryadin^{*,†} Koji Kotani^{*,‡,§,¶,||} Tatsuyoshi Saijo^{**,‡,*,§}

December 20, 2017

Abstract

Resource scarcity and food security are two important issues due to overexploitation of natural resources with increasing population, market demand and mass production, whereas fishermen and farmers have been two main occupations that produce food, utilizing natural resources. The production mode between fishermen and farmers is distinct in that fishermen (farmers) harvest (cultivate, grow and harvest), leading to different daily life style and culture. It is hypothesized that such differences in daily practices and production mode between fishermen and farmers characterize their time preferences or discounting behaviors. We have conducted a discounting elicitation experiment for fishermen and farmers in Indonesia. The statistical analysis shows that the average (median) discount factors of farmers are 0.48 (0.50), respectively, whereas those of fishermen are 0.30 (0.10). The betafit and median regressions demonstrate that the discount factors of farmers are 9.8 % and 26.8 % higher than those of fishermen, respectively, implying that fishermen are much more shortsighted than farmers. This result appears to reflect that farmers wait or “cultivate and grow” six months for their harvest because of which they save some portion of their income, while fishermen catch or “harvest” fish every day and typically use up their daily income. Although same policies have been uniformly implemented on these two occupations, the government may need some devices and education on fishermen to nurture a culture of “cultivate and grow” fish stock for promoting long-term conservation behaviors as well as sustaining fishery and their lives.

Key Words: Time preferences; field experiments; food security; resource sustainability; fishermen; farmers

*School of Economics and Management, Kochi University of Technology

†Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries, Republic of Indonesia

‡Research Institute for Future Design, Kochi University of Technology

§Urban Institute, Kyusyu University

¶College of Business, Rikkyo University

||Corresponding author, E-mail: kojikotani757@gmail.com

**Research Institute for Humanity and Nature

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1 Introduction

Resource scarcity and food security are becoming two important issues due to overexploitation of natural resources with increasing population, high market demand and mass production. For example, Indonesia is known to be the second largest marine capture producer, contributing to food security in the world (FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Department, 2016). However, some important fish stock in Indonesia is reported to have been severely depleted due to the overexploitation. One of the main reasons for the overexploitation is that fishermen tend to choose environmentally unfriendly fishing gears or advanced technologies to catch more fish for immediate profits without considering fish stock sustainability. For resource sustainability and food security, it is important to understand possible myopic behaviors or time preferences of food producers, and therefore, this paper seeks to address these issues by conducting field experiments.

Past literature empirically analyzes individual time preferences in relation to sociodemographic factors by questionnaire surveys or experiments. Reimers et al. (2009) establish the correlation between individual time preferences and age, income, education, demonstrating that younger people

15 with less income and education prefer smaller immediate rewards to larger-later ones. Similarly,
16 Tanaka et al. (2010) demonstrate that household sociodemographic characteristics influence indi-
17 vidual time preferences in Vietnam and, particularly, people in poor villages tend to be less patient.
18 Harrison et al. (2002) also show that sociodemographic characteristics affects people's discounting
19 behaviors in Denmark, reporting that age, income and education are highly correlated with indi-
20 vidual discount rates. Overall, these works suggest that sociodemographic factors are important
21 determinants for shaping individual time preferences and discounting behaviors, irrespective of the
22 countries and locations.

23 Another group of works focuses on estimating time preferences of food producers by conduct-
24 ing field surveys or experiments. Nguyen (2011) estimates and compares time preferences between
25 fishermen and other occupations in Vietnam, and concludes that fishermen are more patient than
26 other occupations especially because they participate in resource stock conservation programs.
27 Johnson and Saunders (2014) compare time preferences between fishermen and divers. They find
28 that divers are more farsighted than fishermen because divers are required to be patient for securing
29 healthy ecosystem service and environment for their jobs. Akpalu (2008) and Fehr and Leibbrandt
30 (2011) examine time preferences of fishermen in relation to fishing activities, and find that short-
31 sighted fishermen tend to use small mesh size and to violate fishing regulations for catching more
32 fish. Casse and Nielsen (2005) and Duquette et al. (2011) focus on time preferences of farmers,
33 illustrating that farmers who adopt best management practices in earlier stages or never do slash-
34 and-burn agriculture are more farsighted. These studies establish that time preferences of food
35 producers well correlate with daily production practices.

36 Fishermen and farmers have been two main occupations that produce food through utilizing
37 natural resources, and it is crucial to understand their time preferences for food security and re-
38 source sustainability. The production mode between fishermen and farmers is distinct in that fish-
39 ermen (farmers) harvest (cultivate, grow and harvest), and such differences in production mode
40 between fishermen and farmers may characterize their time preferences or discounting behaviors,
41 leading to different daily life style and culture. In Indonesia, farmers need to wait or "cultivate

42 and grow” six months for their “harvest,” while fishermen catch or “harvest” fish every day and
43 typically use up their daily income. This implies that farmers may require more patience than fish-
44 ermen for survival. Thus, it could be hypothesized that farmers are more farsighted than fishermen
45 in a case of Indonesia. To test this hypothesis, a discounting elicitation experiment is conducted
46 for fishermen and farmers in the fields of Indonesia where the ethnicity, languages and sociodemo-
47 graphic factors are relatively homogeneous except the production mode.

48 **2 Methods and materials**

49 **2.1 Study areas**

50 The questionnaire surveys and field experiments were conducted in 3 rural fishing villages and
51 9 rural farming villages within Karawang district (figure 1). The district is located in the north part
52 of Jawa Barat Province between $107^{\circ}2'$ and $107^{\circ}40'$ east longitude, and $5^{\circ}56'$ and $6^{\circ}34'$ south lati-
53 tude. The total land area is 1753.27 km². Karawang has fertile soil for agriculture. The population
54 in 2015 is 2 273 579 with the density of 1094 km² (BPS Statistics of Karawang Regency, 2016), and
55 168 901 or 18.15 % of the inhabitants work in agriculture or fishery sectors (Karawang Regency
56 Government, 2015). Most fishermen in Karawang engage in day to day fishing in which they take
57 3 or 4 hours to reach fishing grounds, whereas most farmers cultivate paddy and the production
58 needs 6 months from soil preparation to harvest. These villages are selected as fields for our study
59 because the ethnicity, languages and sociodemographic factors are relatively homogeneous except
60 the production mode between fishermen and farmers.

61 [Figure 1 about here.]

62 **2.2 Discounting elicitation experiment**

63 Previous studies on individual time preferences employ a multiple-price list procedure (Coller
64 and Williams, 1999, Harrison et al., 2002, Tanaka et al., 2010). This research employs a different

65 experimental procedure to elicit individual time preferences in the fields. The multiple-price list
66 procedure usually requires subjects to have a checking (bank) account or to come back to an exper-
67 imental site at a different date and time for receiving experimental rewards.¹ However, the subjects
68 in our experiments are farmers and fishermen in Indonesia, and it is impossible for us to make such
69 binding arrangements due to their living conditions, daily life styles and cultures. We also confirm
70 that the multiple-price procedure in previous research cannot be well understood by subjects in
71 the pilot experiments, because education of most fishermen and farmers in Karawang district is
72 highly limited. Therefore, we institute a new procedure of experiments to elicit individual time
73 preferences from fishermen and farmers, called a discounting elicitation experiment.

74 A discounting elicitation experiment consists of an individual interview, asking farmers and
75 fishermen whether they want to receive money today or wait for more money in the future. Since
76 most subjects are not educated with limited literacy and cannot come back to experimental sites
77 in different time and dates, we design simple experiments in the way that our subjects can easily
78 follow and the monetary payments can be readily made on the spot. We start asking each subject a
79 simple question of whether he prefers options A or B consisting of

80 Option A : You receive 20000 Rp today.

81 Option B : You will receive $20000 + x$ Rp one month later.

82 Here, the value of x starts with $x_0 = 4000$. When the subject prefers option A to B , the question
83 is updated by increasing the value of x by 4000 for option B , i.e., $x = x_1 = x_0 + 1 \cdot 4000 =$
84 $4000 + 4000 = 8000$. Then, the updated question is again asked to the subject whether he prefers
85 option A to B . This process continues arbitrarily n times for x to be $x_n = 4000 + n \cdot 4000$ as far as
86 the subject prefers option A to B . When the subject prefers option B to A at an arbitrary n th trial,
87 we stop the procedure. Rather, we ask the subject a series of questions to identify the threshold
88 value \bar{x} between x_{n-1} and x_n that makes him indifferent from receiving 20 000 Rp today. To this
89 end, we keep asking the questions by gradually adjusting the value of x between x_{n-1} and x_n until
90 each interviewer successfully elicits the threshold value \bar{x} .

¹More than 70 % of our subjects do not have a bank account.

91 As of the payment for the discounting elicitation experiments, we paid the subject the reward on
92 the spot. For this, we prepare the lottery with the probability $\rho = \frac{20000}{20000+\bar{x}}$ of successfully obtaining
93 the value of $20000 + \bar{x}$ Rp and the probability $1 - \rho$ of getting nothing. This lottery is made of
94 yellow and red cards where the number of yellow cards is always 20 and the number of red cards is
95 adjusted to be $20 + \frac{\bar{x}}{1000}$. Since most subjects in our experiments are not familiar with the concept
96 of probabilities, we count the number of yellow and red cards in front of each subject, putting them
97 into a bag. After preparing the lottery of a bag, we ask each subject whether he wants to pick the
98 lottery for possibly getting $20000 + \bar{x}$ Rp or receive 20 000 Rp for sure. Those who decide to pick
99 the lottery get paid based on the outcome of the lottery on that spot, and those who decide not to
100 pick the lottery surely receive 20 000 Rp. In this way, we also implicitly elicit subjects' attitudes
101 over uncertainty, risk averse, risk neutral or risk lover.

102 **2.3 Experimental procedure**

103 We first contacted the village offices to get the consent for conducting our experiments. Among
104 the 13 fishermen villages and 296 farming villages in Karawang, 3 fishing and 9 farming village
105 authorities gave us the permission to conduct experiments in their villages, respectively. We got
106 the list of households and residents from the village offices and based on the population of each
107 village, we randomly selected the required number of households. Hereafter, we invited one earn-
108 ing member from each of the selected households to participate in our experiment by sending
109 them invitation letters. A total of 397 subjects participated in our experiment, among them 200
110 are fishermen and 197 are farmers. We conducted our experiments at village halls in each field.
111 To avoid possible biases from interactions among the participants, we confirmed that soon after
112 participation, each respondent leaved the experimental hall.

113 In each experimental session, we provided written experimental instructions of our discounting
114 elicitation experiment to the respondents in Indonesia language, Bahasa. Additionally, an experi-
115 menter made oral presentation about the instructions, and confirmed participants' understandings
116 about the experiment. Hereafter, we elicited respondents their individual discount factors and col-

117 lected their socioeconomic information through discounting elicitation experiments of individual
118 interviews. We implemented our experiments with monetary incentives to attract subjects to ex-
119 perimental sites and motivate them to attend the experiment seriously given the opportunity and
120 transportation costs. The payoff calculation is announced to be based on the decisions and out-
121 comes of the discounting elicitation experiment, which is included in the experimental instructions
122 and verbal presentations. After eliciting respondents' discount factor in the discounting elicitation
123 experiments and socioeconomic information, subjects were paid based on the outcome of the ex-
124 periments. The average experimental earning for the games including show-up fee was 65 Rp (\approx
125 5 USD), which is roughly equivalent to 1 day wage of a unskilled labor in Indonesia. Each session
126 in our experiment has 15 \sim 20 participants, taking 2 \sim 3 hours.

127 **2.4 Empirical method**

128 We apply betafit and median regressions to characterize the determinants of individual discount
129 factors. The two models employ the same set of independent variables and are specified as follows:

$$d_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \mathbf{x}_i + \beta_2 z_i + \epsilon_i \quad (1)$$

130 where subscript i represents each subject's ID, d_i is an individual discount factor estimated in the
131 discounting elicitation experiments, \mathbf{x}_i is a vector of independent variables of sociodemographic
132 information such as age, education, household income, children under 12, a number of household
133 members and family structure, z_i is a dummy variable of occupations that takes 1 when subject i is
134 a farmer, otherwise 0. The definitions of variables used in the regression analysis are summarized
135 in table 1.

136 The betafit regression developed by Ferrari and Cribari-Neto (2004) is employed for our anal-
137 ysis, since individual discount factors are bounded between 0 and 1. It assumes that individual

138 discount factors d_i s follow the beta distribution:

$$f(d_i; \mu, \phi) = \frac{\Gamma(\phi)}{\Gamma\mu\phi\Gamma((1-\mu)\phi)} d_i^{\mu\phi-1} (1-d_i)^{(1-\mu)\phi-1}, \quad d_i \in (0, 1)$$

139 where $\mathbb{E}(d_i) = \mu$, $\text{Var}(d_i) = \frac{\mu(1-\mu)}{1+\phi}$, ϕ is a precision parameter and $\phi - 1$ is a dispersion param-
140 eter. Different combinations of μ and ϕ can describe various types of beta densities including J
141 shapes, inverted J shapes and U shaped (Ferrari and Cribari-Neto, 2004). Since the distributions
142 of individual discount factors estimated in our experiments are U shaped, we decide to use this
143 betafit regression. The maximum likelihood methods are applied to identify unknown parameters
144 $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ with which the marginal effect of an independent variable on individual discount factors,
145 d_i , shall be derived and estimated.

146 For robustness check, we employ the quantile regression approach developed by Koenker and
147 Basset (1978) and Koenker and Hallock (2001), following the specification of equation (1). The
148 quantile regression estimate one parameter vector for each quantile under a weak assumption that
149 each quantile of error terms is zero, i.e., $\text{Quant}_\theta(\epsilon_i) = 0$ for $\theta \in (0, 1)$ where θ represents a
150 quantile level. The quantile regression is based on the least absolute distance, and therefore, it
151 can efficiently estimate a set of the unknown parameters $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ even under non-normal and
152 skewed distributions with outliers. Since the distributions of individual discount factors in our
153 experiments are identified to be non-normal and bi-modal around 0 and 1 (see figure 2), the quantile
154 regression can be considered appropriate. We decide to run the median regression of $\theta = 0.5$ for
155 the comparison with the result in the betafit regression.

156 [Table 1 about here.]

157 All of the variables in table 1 are expected to be determinants of individual discount factors.
158 In particular, our main focus is on occupation dummy to capture how individual discount factors
159 are different between fishermen and farmers. Our hypothesis is proven to be true when the dummy
160 variable consistently exhibits statistical and economic significance to affect individual discount
161 factors. We have tried many different specifications of the models in addition to the models we

162 present in this paper by including the interaction terms of two independent variables and different
163 sets of independent variables. However, our results do not differ significantly, and the results we
164 will present in what follows remain consistent.

165 **3 Results**

166 Table 2 presents the summary statistics of major independent variables and individual discount
167 factors for fishermen, farmers and the total sample. The overall average age is 45 years old (see
168 the “overall” column in table 2), however, once we look at the ages of fishermen and farmers,
169 we find a clear difference between them such that farmers are 8 years older than fishermen on
170 an average. Definitely, fishing is more labor intensive than farming, and thus fishermen tend to
171 retire earlier than farmers. Regarding education, farmers are more educated than fishermen since
172 farmers usually get the junior high school degree, whereas fishermen usually have only the primary
173 education. On the other hand, when we look at the median of education, we do not find any
174 difference between fishermen and farmers. The difference in mean and median education can be
175 explained by the standard deviation (hereafter SD) of education. The SD of farmers’ education is
176 1.13 which is twice as much as the SD of fishermen’s education. This finding implies that some
177 farmers are highly educated, for instance, the university degree (see the “max” row under education
178 in table 2). The gap in education is relatively low in fishing societies and the fishermen who are
179 the most educated are senior high school graduates.

180 [Table 2 about here.]

181 Farmers earn more than the fishermen in that farmers’ average monthly income is approxi-
182 mately 1 million rupiahs higher than fishermen. The income gap among the farmers is higher than
183 that of the fishermen since the SD of farmers’ monthly income is almost twice as much as the SD
184 of fishermen’s income. This finding indicates that some farmers’ earning is significantly higher
185 than that of the majority, whereas fishermen experience less disparity in their income and standard
186 of living. In case of the number of children under 12 years of age per household, the number

187 of household members and family structure, farming society and fishing society are not different
188 from one another. In summary, farmers are relatively old and highly educated compared with the
189 fishermen, and in addition, farmers' income is higher and comes with a relatively larger income
190 gap than fishermen's one.

191 [Figure 2 about here.]

192 The median (mean) discount factors of farmers and fishermen are 0.500 (0.482) and 0.100
193 (0.302), respectively. This states a significant difference of estimated individual time preferences
194 between farmers and fishermen, implying that fishermen discount their future more heavily than
195 farmers. Figure 2 shows the frequency distributions of individual discount factors between fisher-
196 men and farmers. The vertical axis denotes the percentage of frequencies and the horizontal axis
197 denotes the discount factors. The highest spike in the frequency distribution for farmers occurs at
198 discount factors close to 1, while it does at 0 for fishermen. The finding in figure 2 is in line with the
199 summary statistics. On the basis of the summary statistics and figure 2, we run a Mann-Whitney
200 test to examine whether the distribution of discount factors are the same between fishermen and
201 farmers or not. The null hypothesis is that the distributions of discount factors are independent
202 of individual occupations between farming and fishing. Our test rejects the null hypothesis at 1 %
203 significance level. This result suggests that the distributions of farmers' and fishermen's discount
204 factors differ from one another.

205 [Table 3 about here.]

206 The summary statistics, frequency distributions and the Mann-Whitney test suggest that in-
207 dividual discount factors are different between farmers and fishermen. To further characterize
208 the relationship, we run betafit and median regressions. Columns 2 and 3 of table 3 present the
209 marginal effects of the independent variables on individual discount factors in betafit and median
210 regressions, respectively. The results show that age, education, household income and occupation
211 dummy are the significant predictors of discount factors in betafit regression, while occupation

212 dummy is the only significant determinant in the median regression. Although we have tried many
213 different specifications of betafit and median regressions, we have obtained a consistent result that
214 the occupation dummy of fishermen or farmers is the statistically and economically significant
215 predictor for individual discount factors.

216 The betafit regression shows that an additional year increase in age is associated with a 0.3 %
217 rise in discount factors. Although this effect might be considered rather small, the discount factor
218 is estimated to increase by 4 % for one standard deviation rise (≈ 12 years) in age. The result
219 reveals that young people tend to discount future more heavily than old people, which is consistent
220 with the previous studies (Green et al., 1994, Harrison et al., 2002, Reimers et al., 2009). It is
221 claimed that as people become old, the level of self-control is known to increase and also, people
222 become more generative and think more about the future generations up until the age of 60 years
223 (Green et al., 1994, McAdams et al., 1993).

224 The effect of education demonstrates that getting more education induces people to care more
225 about future since betafit regression estimates a 3 % rise in discount factor in relation to an increase
226 in education category. Harrison et al. (2002) and Reimers et al. (2009) show that more educated
227 people tend to be future-oriented or farsighted, and our result is in line with this finding. Similar to
228 the effect of age, education should enhance self-control mechanisms and cognitive abilities (Bauer
229 and Chytilova, 2010). Moreover, education is known to train people to logically think, simulate
230 and organize the future, helping make a balance between present and future events.

231 Finally, we look at the effect of occupations on discount factors, more precisely, how farmers
232 or fishermen have different time preferences, controlling for other socioeconomic factors fixed.
233 The occupation dummy is identified to be the important predictor of individual discount factors in
234 both betafit and median regressions with 1 % statistical and economic significance. Betafit regres-
235 sion estimation tells that farmers' discount factors are 9.5 % higher than fishermen, while median
236 regression estimates a 26.8 % higher discount factors for farmers than those of the fishermen. Con-
237 sistent with our summary statistics, both the regression estimations confirm that fishermen tend to

238 discount their future more heavily than farmers.²

239 Several past studies demonstrate that the occupations and the associated life practices are im-
240 portant determinants to characterize individual behaviors and preferences such as social prefer-
241 ences and competitiveness (Hoekstra, 1985, Casse and Nielsen, 2005, Henrich et al., 2005, Ak-
242 palu, 2008, Duquette et al., 2011, Fehr and Leibbrandt, 2011, Nguyen, 2011, Leibbrandt et al.,
243 2013, Johnson and Saunders, 2014). Given the literature, our study could be considered an ad-
244 ditional evidence with respect to the effect of occupations on “time preferences” for the specific
245 case of the food producers, fishermen and farmers, in Indonesia. Now, a key question is why occu-
246 pations of farmers and fishermen significantly affect their time preferences to be different? Here,
247 we argue that the difference comes from their daily life practices and production mode, that are
248 distinct between farmers and fishermen. In other words, farmers “cultivate, grow and harvest” the
249 crops, while fishermen only “harvest” fish in their food production. The differences characterize
250 their discounting behaviors.

251 Fishermen in Karawang typically fish every day and can receive daily income by selling the
252 fishes in their local auction markets. They easily expect that they can go for fishing tomorrow or
253 the day after tomorrow, earning money for their living whenever their money is short. Because of
254 such income generating practices of daily fishing, they are neither accustomed to, nor motivated
255 for saving. In our experiments, we have confirmed that fishermen almost use up their total daily
256 earning on the same day. Therefore, their saving is identified to be very low from our data and indi-
257 vidual questionnaires (the median of saving in fishermen sample is zero). In addition, in our survey,
258 we asked the fishermen whether they believe that fish stocks are exhaustible or not. Surprisingly,
259 80.5 % of the fishermen respond that the “God” always provides fish in the sea, and therefore, fish
260 stock is inexhaustible.³ In summary, the daily fishing of “earn and burn practices” and the belief

²This finding looks inconsistent with Nguyen (2011) since they show that, in Vietnam, fishermen are more patient than people with other occupations. However, one key difference between our study and Nguyen (2011) is that the fishermen in Vietnam participated in resource conservation programs, such as permanent area closures to recover fishery, while Indonesian fishermen in our study do not experience any conservation or training program for resource sustainability. We argue that the conservation program induces Vietnamese fishermen to become more patient than others.

³Fishermen in Karawang have a festival called “Nadran Laut.” This festival is an acculturation tradition of Islamic and Hindu that has been inherited over hundreds years generations by generations. The objective of this festival is to

261 of “inexhaustible” fish stock remain the part of their culture in fishing villages, inducing fishermen
262 to be shortsighted.

263 Farmers in Karawang need to cultivate and grow paddy or wait six months for harvesting,
264 because of which they are motivated to save, invest and accumulate for their survival. In our study
265 areas, farmers cultivate arable land for their livelihood which is basically their own property, and
266 they maintain or even accumulate their capital and wealth through saving gold as a preparation for
267 uncertain future. Natural disasters and calamities are main concerns of uncertainty for farmers,
268 because they destroy whole agricultural productions in the regions. However, fishermen can still
269 go fishing within a few days even after natural disasters. This is one example that come from
270 differences in the production mode between fishermen and farmers that affect the motivations of
271 how to prepare for future. The data also shows that farmers’ saving is much higher than fishermen’s
272 one, which is consistent with the result of individual time preferences. We conjecture that farmers’
273 daily practices and the mode of production for cultivating, growing and harvesting crops require
274 farmers to wait, save and invest for future, nurturing them to be farsighted as part of cultures.

275 The motivations of maintaining and transferring capital and wealth to the next generations
276 could be different between farmers and fishermen due to their production mode. In farming vil-
277 lages, maintaining and transferring capital and wealth, such as land and irrigation, from one gen-
278 eration to the subsequent generations is very important as a common practice for their survival,
279 because these two factors are crucial in cultivating and growing crops. On the other hand, in
280 fishing villages, fishermen do not have specific capital and wealth to maintain and transfer to the
281 subsequent generations except their hands-on experiences and skills for harvesting as part of hu-
282 man capital, because fishing is mainly labor intensive.⁴ Therefore, the differences in motivations
283 to maintain and transfer their capital and wealth to the future generations may be attributed to the
284 production mode, explaining why farmers are more farsighted than fishermen.

285 Past studies demonstrates that daily practices, history and environment as part of culture affect

express gratitude to God for providing fish in the last year, praying to catch more fish in the current and future with safety in the sea. In this festival, fishermen slaughter a buffalo and they go to sea together with bringing the buffalo’s head, and then throw it to the sea as gratitude to God.

⁴Fishing vessels and gears belong to the owners, not to individual fishermen in Indonesia.

286 human behaviors and preferences (Boyd and Richerson, 1985, Schultz et al., 1997, Henrich et al.,
287 2005, Tomasello et al., 2005, Dawkins, 2006, Gilbert and Wilson, 2007, Richerson and Boyd, 2008,
288 Wilson et al., 2009, O'Brien et al., 2010, Moya et al., 2015, Gerlach et al., 2014, Szpunara et al.,
289 2014, Shahrier et al., 2016, Timilsina et al., 2017, Shahrier et al., 2017). We demonstrate that daily
290 life practices and production modes related to the occupation of farmers and fishermen characterize
291 their individual time preferences. At the same time, this research brings some new questions and
292 hopes for people's behaviors over the future. Some effective policies or new education systems
293 such as training/conservation programs or institutions to change people's cultures to be patient
294 shall be essential. For this, "cultivate and grow" shall matter based on our findings. In fishery, it
295 is necessary for fishermen to be farsighted toward sustainable fishery. To this end, nurturing a new
296 culture of fishermen in Indonesia for "cultivating and growing fish" through some public education
297 or programs shall be an important first step.

298 **4 Conclusion**

299 The past studies show how daily practices, history and environment as part of culture influence
300 human behaviors and preferences. Fishermen and farmers as main food producers play important
301 roles for food security and resource sustainability. The production mode between fishermen and
302 farmers is distinct in that fishermen (farmers) harvest (cultivate, grow and harvest), leading to
303 different daily life style and culture. It is hypothesized that such differences in daily practices and
304 production mode between fishermen and farmers characterize their time preferences or discounting
305 behaviors. To examine this hypothesis, we have conducted a discounting elicitation experiment for
306 fishermen and farmers in the fields of Indonesia.

307 The result of this study reveals that fishermen are much more shortsighted than farmers. The
308 results of betafit and median regressions illustrate that the discount factors of farmers are 9.8 %
309 (26.8 %) higher than that of the fishermen, controlling for other sociodemographic factors. We
310 argue that this difference comes from daily life practices and production mode associated with

311 their occupations of farmers and fishermen. The results well reflect the fact that farmers cultivate
312 and grow paddy or wait six months for their harvest and they tend to save some portion of the
313 income for the future, while fishermen catch fish every day and use up their daily income. Although
314 same policies have been uniformly implemented on these two occupations, the government may
315 need some new devices and education on fishermen to nurture a culture of “cultivate and grow”
316 fish stock and to be more farsighted for promoting long-term conservation behaviors in sustaining
317 fishery and their lives.

318 We note some limitations of our research and the direction of future research. This research
319 was conducted in small-scale fisheries under open access and top-down management system in
320 Indonesia. Fishermen in the experiments have never participated or gotten involved in any type of
321 resource conservation programs or management so that they only catch fish every day with their
322 belief that the stocks are inexhaustible. However, in reality, fishermen in other countries experi-
323 ence participating in such programs or engage in different types of fishing such as more large-scale
324 fisheries or industrialized one, potentially having different ways of thinking, behaviors and prefer-
325 ences. Therefore, our results should be understood with some caution. Future research should be
326 able to focus more on other types of fishery societies or the effects of resource conservation and
327 training programs of “cultivate and grow” on individual time preferences of fishermen as well as
328 people with other occupations, considering various production modes.

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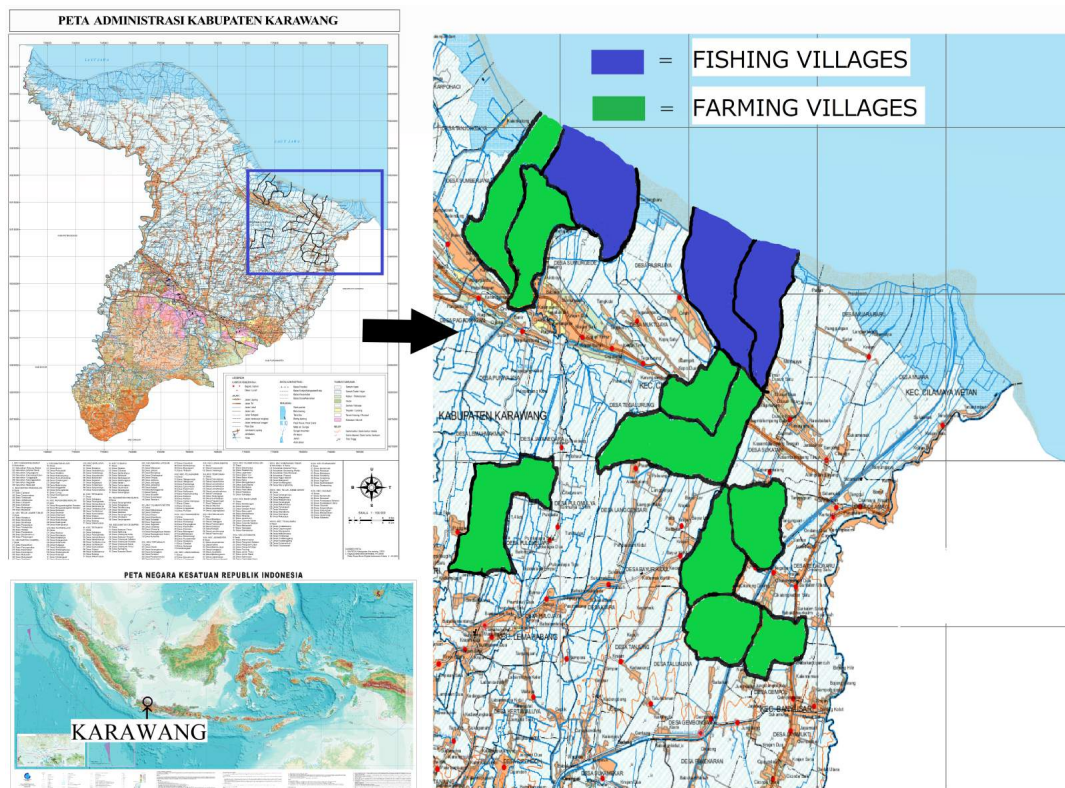


Figure 1: The study area: Karawang

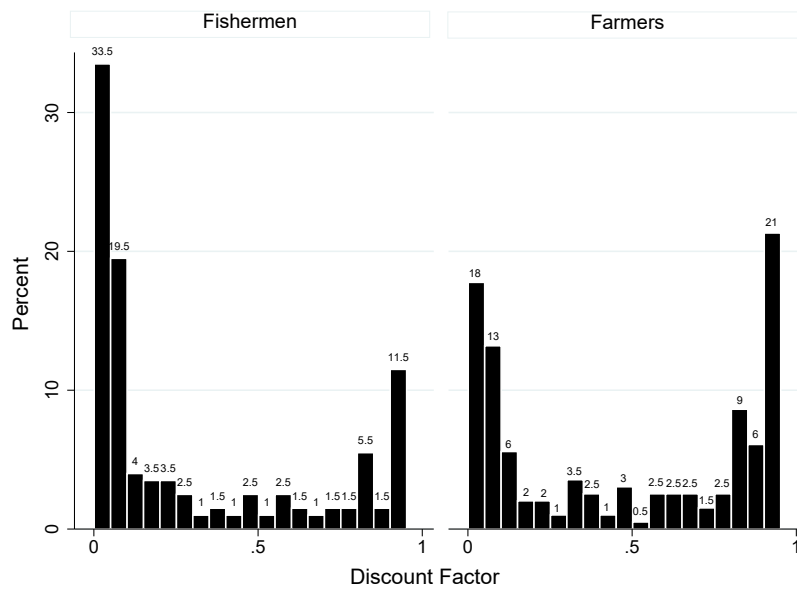


Figure 2: Frequency distributions of discount factors between fishermen and farmers

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Table 1: Description of socioeconomic characteristics

Variables	Description
Discount Factor	Discounting value, the amount of money today divided by the amount of money 1 month later (20,000 rupiahs)
Occupation Dummy	Farmers (1) and Fishermen (0)
Age	Years
Education	Categorical variable (Illiterate (0), Elementary Level (1), Junior High School Level (2), Senior High School Level (3) College Degree (4), University Degree (5).
Household Income	Household income per month in 1 million rupiahs
Children under 12	Number of children under 12 years of age in the household
Member of Household	Number of household member
Family structure	Single family structure are coded as 1, otherwise (joint family) as 0

Table 2: Summary statistics of field experiment and socioeconomic characteristic between fishermen and farmer, 397 observations (fishermen 200 observations, farmers 197 observations)

	Work setting		Overall
	Fishermen	Farmers	
Age			
Average (Median) ¹	40.955 (40.000)	48.741 (47.000)	44.818 (45.000)
SD ²	12.099	10.871	12.135
Min	18.000	23.000	18.000
Max	72.000	80.000	80.000
Education			
Average (Median)	1.025 (1.000)	1.584 (1.000)	1.302 (1.000)
SD	0.535	1.133	0.926
Min	0.000	0.000	0.000
Max	3.000	5.000	5.000
Household income			
Average (Median)	2.852 (2.000)	3.953 (3.000)	3.398 (2.600)
SD	2.434	4.164	3.444
Min	0.500	0.700	0.500
Max	20.000	30.000	30.000
Children under 12			
Average (Median)	1.055 (1.00)	0.659 (1.00)	0.873 (1.00)
SD	1.152	0.827	1.062
Min	0.000	0.000	0.000
Max	7.000	5.000	7.000
Number of household members			
Average (Median)	4.535 (4.00)	4.264 (4.00)	4.418 (4.00)
SD	1.954	1.933	2.060
Min	1.000	1.000	1.000
Max	12.000	18.000	18.000
Family structure			
Average (Median)	0.609 (1.00)	0.698 (1.00)	0.654 (1.00)
SD	0.489	0.459	0.475
Min	0.000	0.000	0.000
Max	1.000	1.000	1.000
Discount factor			
Average (Median)	0.302 (0.100)	0.482 (0.500)	0.391 (0.206)
SD	0.344	0.374	0.370
Min	0.001	0.003	0.001
Max	0.952	0.952	0.952

¹ Median in parentheses.

² SD stands for standard deviation.

Table 3: Marginal effects of betafit regression and median regression for Discount Factor between fishermen and farmers

Variable	Betafit regression	Median regression
Age	0.003** (0.001)	0.004 (0.004)
Education	0.032* (0.019)	0.022 (0.047)
Household income	-0.007* (0.004)	-0.006 (0.011)
Children under 12	-0.010 (0.015)	-0.008 (0.038)
Number of household members	-0.009 (0.008)	-0.011 (0.019)
Family structure (base group=joint family)	-0.017 (0.031)	-0.029 (0.078)
Occupation dummy (base group=fishermen)	0.098*** (0.034)	0.268*** (0.085)

***significant at the 1 percent level, **significant at the 5 percent level and *significant at the 10 percent level