



# Intergenerational sustainability dilemma and a potential solution: Future ahead and back mechanism

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## Abstract

Intergenerational sustainability is pivotal for the survival of human societies. However, current economic and political systems based on capitalism and democracy might not be effective at considering future generations' needs, thereby compromising intergenerational sustainability (Schwartz, 2007, Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017). We design a new mechanism to improve intergenerational sustainability called the future ahead and back mechanism (FAB) and examine its effectiveness through field experiments consisting of intergenerational sustainability dilemma games (ISDGs). In such games, a lineup of consecutive generations is organized, and each generation can either maintain intergenerational sustainability (sustainable option) or maximize its own generation's payoff by irreversibly imposing a cost on future generations (unsustainable option). In a basic ISDG, generations make the decision through deliberative democracy. In the ISDG with FAB, each generation is first asked to consider the decision of the current generation as if it is in the position of the next generation. Second, the generation makes the actual decision from its original position as the current generation. The results reveal that deliberative democracy does not prevent a majority of proself people from choosing unsustainable options, which is the mirror image of the results demonstrated in Hauser et al. (2014), thereby compromising intergenerational sustainability in the basic ISDG. By contrast, FAB is demonstrated to enable proself people to change their individual opinions from unsustainable to sustainable options, inducing more generations to choose sustainable options. We argue that the memories and experiences of what and how people request (or role-playing) as future generations in FAB trigger more logic-based reasoning than norm-based reasoning, thereby enhancing intergenerational sustainability.

**Key Words:** Intergenerational sustainability dilemma; capitalism and democracy; culture and evolution; future ahead and back mechanism

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## Nomenclature

FAB Future ahead and back mechanisms

IFG Imaginary future generation

ISDG Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game

ISDG with FAB Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game with future ahead and back mechanism

ISDG with IFG Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game with imaginary future generation

SVO Social value orientation

## 1 Introduction

Intergenerational sustainability is pivotal for the survival of human societies. However, maintaining intergenerational sustainability is one of the greatest challenges that we face because of its unidirectional nature in the sense that current generations affect future ones, but the opposite is not true (Ehrlich et al., 2012, Kinzig et al., 2013, Griggs et al., 2013, Costanza et al., 2014, Hauser et al., 2014, Steffen et al., 2015, Maxwell et al., 2016). We have witnessed how environmental problems and overexploitation of natural resources were caused by rapid urbanization and economic growth, threatening the needs

8 of subsequent generations (Milinski et al., 2006, Hauser et al., 2014, Steffen et al., 2015, Maxwell et al.,  
9 2016). Therefore, how to strike a balance between benefits and costs among different generations is a  
10 key question (Ostrom, 1990, Milinski et al., 2006, Hauser et al., 2014).

11 The current capitalist economic system is considered one of the best social regimes because it can  
12 efficiently allocate private goods, generating more innovative ideas and technologies through competi-  
13 tion. However, capitalistic economic systems fail to ensure an efficient allocation of resources such as  
14 public goods, natural resources, and environmental goods and the intergenerational provision of these  
15 goods (Krutilla, 1967, Milinski et al., 2006, Hauser et al., 2014). In particular, the exclusion of the needs  
16 of future generations from consideration in the economic system and maximization of individual pay-  
17 offs through competition seem to compromise intergenerational sustainability and incur an irreversible  
18 cost for future generations (Krutilla, 1967, Fisher et al., 2004, Ehrlich et al., 2012, Griggs et al., 2013,  
19 Kinzig et al., 2013, Costanza et al., 2014, Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017). Human history demonstrates that  
20 democracy fits best with capitalism, and thus, it has been established as the major collective decision-  
21 making process worldwide. However, as is in capitalism, the needs of future generations are not fully  
22 considered. Under democracy and capitalism, the current generation tends to choose actions that are  
23 to their benefit without considering future generations, which we call the “intergenerational sustain-  
24 ability dilemma.” This research designs and institutes a new mechanism to solve this intergenerational  
25 sustainability dilemma and examine the effectiveness of this mechanism through field experiments.

26 Past studies theorize that cultural agents bring about changes in human behaviors and affect the  
27 evolution of human societies (see, e.g., Boyd and Richerson, 1985, Henrich and Mcelreath, 2003, Hen-  
28 rich et al., 2005, Tomasello et al., 2005, Dawkins, 2006, Richerson and Boyd, 2008, Wilson et al.,  
29 2009, Moya et al., 2015). Accordingly, empirical studies demonstrate how the economic environment,  
30 as a part of the culture, brings about changes in human behaviors. Schwartz (2007) documents that  
31 individuals express stronger preferences for values such as power and achievement, conformity, self-  
32 assertiveness, and the mastery of nature in more competitive and market-driven societies. Shahrier  
33 et al. (2016) show that people become more competitive as societies become more capitalistic and  
34 urbanized, and highly capitalistic societies consist of a majority of proself people.<sup>1</sup> Given this state

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<sup>1</sup>We follow the definition of capitalism stated in Shahrier et al. (2016). They define the “ongoing modernization of competitive societies” as capitalism and address highly modernized and competitive societies capitalistic.

35 of affairs, new mechanisms or systems may be necessary to solve the intergenerational sustainability  
36 dilemma, especially as people become more proself in highly capitalistic and urban societies.

37 Several past studies examine people's preferences for and decisions regarding intergenerational  
38 sustainability. Sherstyuk et al. (2016) reveal that maintaining dynamic externalities is more difficult in  
39 intergenerational settings than in a setting with infinitely lived decision makers. Fisher et al. (2004) find  
40 that an intergenerational link motivates individuals to sustain intergenerational common pool resources.  
41 Conducting an online experiment with an intergenerational goods game, Hauser et al. (2014) reveal that  
42 the existence of a few defectors causes overexploitation of intergenerational goods and, thus, voting or  
43 democracy can maintain intergenerational sustainability by resisting the defectors. Kamijo et al. (2017)  
44 design and implement an intergenerational sustainability dilemma game (hereafter, ISDG) and show  
45 that introducing an imaginary future generation improves intergenerational sustainability. Shahrier  
46 et al. (2017) conduct ISDG field experiments in rural and urban areas of Bangladesh, demonstrating that  
47 rural people choose much more intergenerationally sustainable options than urban people. Furthermore,  
48 contrary to Kamijo et al. (2017), urban people fail to maintain intergenerational sustainability even in  
49 the treatment with imaginary future generations. This is because a majority of urban people are proself,  
50 and generations of such proself people consistently choose unsustainable options irrespective of the  
51 treatments and conditions.<sup>2</sup>

52 None of the past studies seeks to find a mechanism that can induce proself people to consider future  
53 generations or maintain intergenerational sustainability in highly capitalistic societies. The literature  
54 indicates that societies will be more urbanized and competitive in the future, projecting that, by 2050,  
55 66 % of the world's population will live in urban areas of developing countries. Specifically, cities  
56 in Asia and Africa will account for the 75 % urbanities in the world (American Association for the  
57 Advancement of Science, 2016, Wigginton et al., 2016, McDonnell and MacGregor-Fors, 2016). Con-  
58 sidering the ongoing modernization and urbanization of competitive societies and the possible increase  
59 in the number of proself people as demonstrated in Shahrier et al. (2016), democracy may not be able to

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<sup>2</sup>Approximately 60 % of student subjects in the ISDG laboratory experiments of Kamijo et al. (2017) are prosocial. The high proportion of prosocial students may be attributed to the location of Kochi University of Technology where Kamijo et al. (2017) conducted ISDG laboratory experiments. Kochi University of Technology is located in Kochi prefecture, which is not urban compared with Tokyo or Dhaka. By contrast, Shahrier et al. (2017) show that only 20 % of subjects are prosocial in the urban areas (Dhaka) of Bangladesh, leading to low intergenerational sustainability.

60 maintain intergenerational sustainability, and a new mechanism is necessary. Moreover, all past stud-  
61 ies of intergenerational sustainability have been conducted in laboratories and in developed countries.  
62 However, to better understand human preferences for and behaviors related to intergenerational sus-  
63 tainability and given the drastic growth of urbanized and modernized societies in the developing world,  
64 studies of intergenerational sustainability should be conducted in developing countries (Henrich et al.,  
65 2005, 2010a,b).

66 We design and institute a new mechanism to improve intergenerational sustainability called the  
67 “future ahead and back mechanism” (FAB) and examine its effectiveness using field experiments con-  
68 sisting of the ISDG in a competitive and urban community, Dhaka, Bangladesh. A lineup of consecu-  
69 tive generations is organized, and each generation can either maintain intergenerational sustainability  
70 (sustainable option) or maximize its own generation’s payoff by irreversibly imposing a cost on future  
71 generations (unsustainable option). In the basic ISDG, generations make the decision through delib-  
72 erative democracy. In the ISDG with FAB, each generation is first asked to consider the decision of  
73 the current generation as if it is in the position of the next generation. Second, it makes the actual  
74 decision based on the original position of the current generation. The results reveal that deliberative  
75 democracy does not prevent a majority of proself people from choosing unsustainable options, which  
76 is the mirror image of the results demonstrated in Hauser et al. (2014), compromising intergenerational  
77 sustainability in the basic ISDG. However, FAB is demonstrated to enable proself people to change  
78 their individual choices from unsustainable to sustainable options. Therefore, more generations are in-  
79 duced to choose sustainable options in FAB. We argue that the memories and experiences of what and  
80 how people behave (or role-playing) as future generations in FAB trigger more logic-based reasoning  
81 than norm-based reasoning, thereby enhancing intergenerational sustainability.

## 82 **2 Methods and materials**

### 83 **2.1 Study area**

84 Our experiments were conducted in Dhaka, the capital city of Bangladesh. Dhaka is a highly  
85 capitalistic mega city and one of the most competitive societies in the world (Dewan and Corner, 2014).

86 Dhaka City is located between  $23^{\circ}55'$  and  $24^{\circ}81'$  north latitude, and  $90^{\circ}18'$  and  $90^{\circ}57'$  east longitude  
87 (Dewan and Corner, 2014) and covers the whole Dhaka metropolitan area (figure 1). The total land area,  
88 population and population density are  $1371 \text{ km}^2$ , 14.51 million and  $10\,484 \text{ km}^{-2}$ , respectively (Dewan  
89 and Corner, 2014). The population density in this region is almost 9 times higher than the national  
90 average. Dhaka is the most populous city in the world and the center of industrialization, businesses and  
91 services in Bangladesh (Dewan and Corner, 2014). Business, services and labor-intensive occupations,  
92 such as industrial labor, are the major occupations in Dhaka.

93 [Figure 1 about here.]

## 94 **2.2 Experimental setup**

95 We administered ISDGs, social value orientation (SVO) games and questionnaires (or individual  
96 interviews) in the field.

### 97 **Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game**

98 We implement a three-person ISDG, following the basic procedures of ISDG laboratory experi-  
99 ments employed in Kamijo et al. (2017) and Shahrier et al. (2017). In this game, a group of three  
100 subjects is called a generation, and each generation needs to choose between options  $A$  and  $B$ . By  
101 choosing option  $A$ , the generation receives a payoff of  $X$ , whereas the payoff from choosing option  $B$   
102 is  $X - 300$ . After choosing between  $A$  and  $B$ , the generation is asked to split the payoff associated with  
103 the option that it choose among the generation's members. Each subject's payoff in the ISDG is the sum  
104 of her share of the generation's payoff plus the initial endowment of 300, and we apply an exchange rate  
105 to the experimental payoff in the ISDG to determine the real monetary payment. For instance, suppose  
106 that  $X = 1200$ . A generation earns 1200 ( $X = 1200$ ) in experimental money from choosing  $A$ , while  
107 the generation earns 900 ( $X - 300 = 1200 - 300 = 900$ ) from choosing  $B$ . Consequently, if members  
108 of this generation split the payoff equally among them, each individual earns 400 from choosing  $A$  and  
109 300 from choosing  $B$  as her share of the generation's payoff. Each generation is allowed to discuss the  
110 decision between  $A$  and  $B$  for up to 5 minutes. After the generation makes its decision, its members  
111 determine how to split the payoff.

112 Each experimental session consists of a sequence of 6 generations. Each subject is randomly as-  
113 signed to the 1st, 2nd, . . . and 6th generations, and members of the 6th generation never know that they  
114 are the last generation of the session. One generation’s decision affects the subsequent generations such  
115 that subsequent generations’ payoffs decline uniformly by 300 when a generation chooses option *A* and  
116 do not decline if *B* is chosen. Suppose that  $X = 1200$  and the 1st generation chooses *A*. Then, the 2nd  
117 generation will face a game in which it can obtain 900 and 600 from choosing *A* and *B*, respectively.  
118 However, if the 1st generation chooses *B*, the next generation has the same decision environment as the  
119 1st generation faced. When the 1st generation chooses *B*, the 2nd generation faces a game in which it  
120 can obtain 1200 and 900 by choosing *A* and *B*, respectively. Following the same rule, the game con-  
121 tinues for the rest of the subsequent generations in each session. Hence, option *B* can be considered an  
122 intergenerationally sustainable option, while option *A* is the choice that compromises intergenerational  
123 sustainability and is an unsustainable option.

124 In each session, the 1st generation starts the ISDG game with  $X = 1200$ , implying that the 5th and  
125 6th generations may face a game in which options *A* and *B* are associated with payoffs of zero and  
126  $-300$ , respectively.<sup>3</sup> We conducted three types of ISDG in the field to identify an effective mechanism  
127 for maintaining intergenerational sustainability.

- 128 • **Basic ISDG:** In the basic ISDG, three members of each generation are asked to choose between  
129 *A* and *B* in a deliberative democratic environment and to determine how to split the genera-  
130 tion’s payoff. Each member possesses an equal right to participate in the discussion and decision  
131 making.
- 132 • **ISDG with imaginary future generations (hereafter, ISDG with IFG):** In the ISDG with IFG,  
133 we randomly assign one member of each generation to be a representative of or an agent for  
134 subsequent generations as a “ministry of the future.” The subject playing the role of the “ministry  
135 of the future” is asked to consider not only her own generation but also subsequent generations in  
136 the discussion about and decision between options *A* and *B*. We introduce this treatment because

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<sup>3</sup>When the 5th and 6th generations face the game in which options *A* and *B* are associated with a zero or a negative payoff of  $-300$ , the generation’s members can equally divide their initial endowment of 300 to make the individual payoff be at least zero.



137 we are interested in how priming people to consider future generations can affect a generation's  
138 decision.

139 • ISDG with future ahead and back mechanism (hereafter, ISDG with FAB): In the ISDG with  
140 FAB, members of each generation are first asked to imagine that they are the members of the  
141 next generation. As if they are members of the next generation, they are asked to make a request  
142 of their previous generation regarding which option they want the previous generation to choose,  
143 *A* or *B*. In the second step, they return to their original position and make a decision between  
144 *A* and *B* from their original (or actual) position in the generational lineup. If the generation's  
145 request to the previous generation in the first step and their actual choice in the second step are  
146 the same such as *A* in the first step and *A* in the second, the choice becomes their final decision.  
147 However, if the generation's choices in the first and second steps are different, members of the  
148 generation are asked to make anonymous votes for *A* or *B* to finalize their generation's decision.

149 We also added a new element built upon the previous ISDG experiments but did so only to the ISDG  
150 with FAB treatment. We conducted individual interviews with each subject after he or she completed  
151 the generational decision-making task. The objective of the individual interviews was to elicit subjects'  
152 individual opinions before and after the deliberative discussion in FAB and to know whether proself  
153 people were successfully induced to change their individual opinions.<sup>4</sup> Obtaining this information on  
154 ex ante and ex post individual opinions enables us to identify the effect of deliberative democracy or  
155 FAB on individual opinion changes and generations' decisions.

## 156 **Social value orientation games**

157 We used the triple dominance method social value orientation (SVO) game developed by Van Lange  
158 et al. (1997, 2007) to characterize subjects' social preferences. This method categorizes individual  
159 value orientations into competitive, individualistic, prosocial and unidentified types depending on their  
160 choices in the SVO game. In this game, subjects are randomly paired and asked to make a choice among

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<sup>4</sup>Given a failure to maintain intergenerational sustainability in the basic ISDG and ISDG with IFG, we recognized the necessity of new mechanisms to enable proself people to change their opinions. To determine whether we were successful with the new FAB mechanism, we decided to conduct individual interviews to elicit how individual opinions change before and after experiencing FAB.

161 three pairs of options where one is unknown to the subject. The two numbers in each option represent  
162 the outcomes for oneself and the other in the pair. Following Van Lange et al. (2007), one example  
163 of a triple dominance decomposed game is given as a selection problem among the following three  
164 options: (i) you receive 500, and the other receives 100; (ii) you receive 500, and the other receives  
165 500; and (iii) you receive 560, and the other receives 330. In this example, option (i) represents a  
166 person with a competitive orientation who maximizes the gap between his own and the other's  
167 points ( $500 - 100 = 400$ ); option (ii) is a person with a prosocial orientation who maximizes the  
168 joint outcome ( $500 + 500 = 1000$ ). Finally, option (iii) characterizes an individualistic person who  
169 maximizes his own outcome 560 and is indifferent to the outcome of the other.

170 The triple dominance method of this SVO game contains 9 selection problems, each of which  
171 consists of three options introduced above with different numbers and orders. Subjects are asked to  
172 select one of the three options for each of the selections. If at least 6 of the 9 selections made by one  
173 subject are consistent with one of the orientations (competitive, prosocial and individualistic), he/she  
174 is categorized as a person with that orientation. Otherwise, the subject is considered "unidentified."  
175 We implemented our experiment with real monetary incentives. Subjects were informed that the units  
176 represented in this game are counted as points, and the more points that one subject gets, the more real  
177 money he/she will earn from this SVO game with some experimental exchange rate. To compute the  
178 payoff of the respondents from this game, we randomly match a respondent with another respondent as  
179 a pair. The experimental earnings in this SVO game are the summation of the points from 9 selections  
180 she made and 9 selections by her partner for her. We also explained the random matching of pairs and  
181 calculation of the payoff for the real monetary incentive to the subjects.

## 182 **2.3 Experimental procedure**

183 Random sampling was implemented based on the proportion of each occupation in the total pop-  
184 ulation (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2013). After determining the required number of subjects  
185 for each type of occupation, we randomly selected a number of organizations. Next, we contacted the  
186 organizations, and based on their compliance, we randomly selected and invited individuals from these  
187 organizations. For low-income occupations and occupations that require frequent movement within

188 a city, we arbitrarily selected subjects from the slums and invited them to participate in the experi-  
189 ments. We conducted the experiments at the Institute of Information Technology at Dhaka University.  
190 In total, we conducted 22 sessions, and 396 subjects participated in our experiment. Therefore, the  
191 396 respondents were grouped into 132 generations. Of the 22 sessions, 7, 7 and 8 were assigned to  
192 the basic ISDG, ISDG with IFG and ISDG with FAB, respectively. Each session of the ISDG exper-  
193 iment takes approximately 3 hours. The maximum and average payment to each of the respondents  
194 was 800 BDT ( $\approx 10$  USD) and 670 BDT ( $\approx 8.53$  USD), respectively, including a fixed show-up fee of  
195 350 BDT ( $\approx 4.46$  USD). In the ISDG game, subjects were paid 250 BDT ( $\approx 3.18$  USD) at maximum  
196 and 180 BDT ( $\approx 2.29$  USD) on average. Whereas the payment for SVO was 200 BDT ( $\approx 2.55$  USD)  
197 at maximum and 140 BDT ( $\approx 1.78$  USD) on average.

198 In each experimental session, we provided printed experimental instructions to all subjects in their  
199 native language, Bengali. In addition, we verbally explained the rules of the game and double-checked  
200 respondents' understanding of the game. Thereafter, we randomly assigned subjects to generations by  
201 asking each subject to pick a card with an ID number from a bag. Subjects were not allowed to look  
202 at the ID number on the cards. To maintain anonymity across generations, we placed the 6 generations  
203 in 6 separate rooms by asking each subject to sit in a specific room according to their ID. Hence, each  
204 subject could communicate only with the members of his/her own generation. Thereafter, we elicited  
205 each generation's choice between  $A$  and  $B$  in an ascending order from the 1st generation to the 6th  
206 generation. We informed participants of which generation they belonged to and the payoffs associated  
207 with options  $A$  and  $B$ . Therefore, each generation was able to calculate how many times  $A$  and  $B$  were  
208 chosen by the previous generations since the subjects knew which generation they belonged to and the  
209 initial game that the 1st generation faced. Individual interviews were performed after each generation's  
210 decision in ISDG with FAB. In the interviews, each subject in the generation was asked about her  
211 personal opinions regarding her support for  $A$  or  $B$  "before and after" the generation's discussion and  
212 decision in ISDG with FAB. Following the ISDG games, we started the SVO game and ensured the  
213 subjects' understanding using printed instructions and a verbal presentation. Subsequently, we elicited  
214 respondents' SVO choices and socio-economic information through questionnaires.

### 215 3 Results

216 Table 1 presents the frequencies and percentages of generations' choices for the unsustainable op-  
217 tion *A* and the intergenerationally sustainable option *B* in basic ISDG, ISDG with IFG and ISDG with  
218 FAB. Approximately 30.95 %, 29.57 % and 85.42 % of the generations chose the sustainable option  
219 *B* in basic ISDG, ISDG with IFG and ISDG with FAB, respectively.<sup>5</sup> These results suggest that, in  
220 both basic ISDG and ISDG with IFG, a majority of the generations chose the unsustainable option *A*.  
221 However, in ISDG with FAB, a majority of the generations chose the sustainable option *B*, and only  
222 14.58 % of the generations chose *A*. To examine whether the distributions of *A* and *B* are independent  
223 of the treatments, we performed pairwise chi-squared tests. The null hypothesis is that the frequency  
224 distributions of options *A* and *B* are the same for any pair of treatments (Basic vs. IFG, Basic vs. FAB  
225 and IFG vs. FAB). Our examination fails to reject this hypothesis for Basic and IFG; however, it rejects  
226 the hypothesis for Basic vs. FAB and IFG vs. FAB at the 1 % significance level. This implies that FAB  
227 induces more generations to choose option *B* than any other treatment.

228 [Table 1 about here.]

229 The results in table 1 can be interpreted as indicating that people choose to maximize their own  
230 generation's payoff even when the collective decision is made in a deliberative democratic environment  
231 on the basis of the results from the basic ISDG. Moreover, introducing imaginary future generations  
232 (IFG) into the game fails to maintain intergenerational sustainability since the frequency of choosing  
233 *A* in ISDG with IFG becomes even higher than that in the basic ISDG. The results appear to suggest  
234 the necessity of a stronger institution to maintain intergenerational sustainability in highly capitalistic  
235 societies. Fortunately, however, FAB appears to be successful in maintaining intergenerational sustain-  
236 ability even in one such highly capitalistic society, Dhaka. Approximately 85.42 % of the generations  
237 chose the option to maintain intergenerational sustainability *B* in ISDG with FAB (table 1).

238 We characterize the determinants of generations' choices for intergenerational sustainability and  
239 how FAB affects individual members' and generations' decisions. Past studies show that an individ-  
240 ual social preference is one of the important determinants of intergenerational sustainability and the

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<sup>5</sup>Some data we have analyzed in this paper partially overlap with those in Shahrier et al. (2017).

241 sustainability of common pool resources (Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017, Timilsina et al., 2017). Specifi-  
242 cally, these studies show that an increase in the number of prosocial people in a generation or group is  
243 associated with higher probabilities of maintaining intergenerational sustainability and common pool  
244 resources. These studies also demonstrate that highly capitalistic societies might have greater tenden-  
245 cies to compromise intergenerational sustainability and common pool resources, as a majority of people  
246 are proself members (competitors and individualists).

247 [Table 2 about here.]

248 The distributions of generations with respect to the number of prosocial members categorized by  
249 SVO games per generation for each treatment are summarized in table 2. From table 2, we see that  
250 of the 132 total generations, 51.79 %, 30.03 %, 15.15 % and 3.03 % consist of zero prosocial (or three  
251 proself), one prosocial, two prosocial and three prosocial people per generation, respectively (see the  
252 “overall” column in table 2). It appears that a majority of the generations consist of only competitors  
253 and individualists (proself people) in a capitalistic city, Dhaka, which is in line with our past work  
254 (Shahrier et al., 2016). Table 3 presents the percentage of generations choosing  $B$  with respect to  
255 the number of prosocial members per generation (see the “overall” column in 3). It shows that when  
256 generations consist of only proself people, 23.53 % of the generations chose  $B$  (see the cell of “overall”  
257 column and “0” row). However, as the number of prosocial members in a generation increases, the  
258 percentage choosing  $B$  rises (see the “overall” column). For example, 60 %, 100 %, 100 % of the  
259 generations chose  $B$  when the generation consisted of one prosocial, two prosocial and three prosocial  
260 members, respectively.

261 [Table 3 about here.]

262 To check whether the distributions of generations choosing  $B$  are independent of the number of  
263 prosocial members per generation, we perform pairwise chi-squared tests. The null hypothesis is that  
264 the distributions of generations choosing  $B$  are the same for any pair of generations in terms of the  
265 number of prosocial members per generation (Prosocials = 0 vs. Prosocials = 1, Prosocials = 0 vs.  
266 Prosocials = 2, Prosocials = 0 vs. Prosocials = 3, Prosocials = 1 vs. Prosocials = 2, Prosocials = 1

267 vs. Prosocials = 3, Prosocials = 2 vs. Prosocials = 3). The test rejects the null hypothesis for any  
268 pair at the 1 % significance level, except for the pair Prosocials = 2 vs. Prosocials = 3. Overall, these  
269 results suggest that generations' choices between *A* and *B* are dependent on the number of prosocial  
270 members per generation or individual social preferences.

271 This result is in line with our past studies, indicating that individual social preferences might be  
272 one of the strongest determinants of generations' decisions regarding intergenerational sustainability  
273 (Shahrier et al., 2017). It appears that when generations consist of only proself people in the basic ISDG  
274 and ISDG with IFG, a majority of them choose the unsustainable option *A* (see the "Basic" and "IFG"  
275 columns of table 3). When the number of prosocial members per generation increases, the sustainable  
276 option *B* is more likely to be chosen. The findings from the basic ISDG and ISDG with IFG suggest  
277 that a new mechanism must be developed to induce proself people to change generations' choices from  
278 *A* to *B*, especially when a majority of people in a generation consist of proself people in capitalistic  
279 societies, such as Dhaka. Table 3 also provides the percentage of generations choosing *B* in FAB when  
280 generations consist of zero prosocial, one prosocial, two prosocial and three prosocial members. In  
281 FAB, 80.00 % and 60.00 % of the generations chose *B* even when the generations consisted of zero  
282 and one prosocial member, respectively. This is in sharp contrast with the results in the basic ISDG  
283 and ISDG with IFG, possibly demonstrating that FAB is effective at maintaining intergenerational  
284 sustainability by affecting proself people in ISDG.

285 To characterize the findings in table 3, we estimate three probit regression models by taking a  
286 generation's choice of *B* as a dependent variable. In the first model, we include only the data from  
287 the basic ISDG and use the number of prosocial members in each generation as the only independent  
288 variable. The second model uses the data from the basic ISDG and ISDG with IFG along with the  
289 number of prosocial members, and we include the IFG treatment as another independent dummy vari-  
290 able. Finally, the third model uses the complete data set from the basic ISDG, ISDG with IFG and  
291 FAB. In the third model, we also include dummy variables for IFG and FAB, the interaction term for  
292 the number of prosocial members per generation times IFG and the number of prosocial members per  
293 generation times FAB as independent variables. We estimate three regression models in this way to  
294 illustrate the robustness of our regression results. We do not include any sociodemographic variables

295 in the regression because they are not found to to be significant or practically influential. Finally, the  
296 detailed definition of each variable is given in table 4.

297 [Table 4 about here.]

298 Table 5 reports the marginal effects of the independent variables on the likelihood of a generation  
299 choosing *B* calculated from the probit regressions. Overall, we see that the number of prosocial mem-  
300 bers per generation in models 1 and 2, the FAB dummy and the interaction term of the FAB dummy  
301 and the number of prosocial members in model 3 appear to be economically and statistically significant  
302 in affecting the likelihood of a generation choosing *B* to achieve intergenerational sustainability. How-  
303 ever, the IFG dummy in models 2 and 3 and the interaction term of the IFG dummy and the number of  
304 prosocial members per generation are insignificant. The overall results from the probit regressions are  
305 quite consistent with the chi-squared tests and summary statistics.

306 [Table 5 about here.]

307 Model 1 in table 5 indicates that an increase in the number of prosocial members per generation  
308 increases the probability of choosing *B* by 42.9% relative to the probability of choosing *A*. In model  
309 2, the number of prosocial members remains a strong predictor of a generation's choice between *A*  
310 and *B*. An increase in the number of prosocial individuals per generation is associated with a 49.2%  
311 increase in the probability of choosing *B* relative to the probability of choosing *A*. However, the IFG  
312 mechanism appears to be ineffective at achieving intergenerational sustainability since the IFG dummy  
313 is not significant, even at the 10% level, in model 2. Instead, the inclusion of the IFG dummy in the  
314 model makes the effect of the number of prosocial members stronger than that in model 1. In other  
315 words, the addition of the IFG dummy brings about a 6.3% ( $= 0.492 - 0.429$ ) increase in the positive  
316 association between the number of prosocial members per generation and the likelihood of choosing  
317 the sustainable option *B*, implying that IFG play no role in determining generations' decisions. In  
318 summary, the IFG mechanism fails to motivate generations to choose the sustainable option *B*, while  
319 individual social preferences remain the strongest determinant in both models 1 and 2.

320 Model 3 in table 5 reveals the effects of the IFG and FAB treatments and of the number of prosocial  
321 people on the probability of choosing the sustainable option *B*. In this model, an increase in the number

322 of prosocial members per generation is associated with a 50.4 % greater probability of choosing *B* than  
323 choosing *A*, holding all other factors fixed. The IFG dummy and the interaction term of IFG and the  
324 number of prosocial members remain insignificant, even at the 10 % level, implying that the IFG treat-  
325 ment is unable to maintain intergenerational sustainability. Finally, the FAB dummy is economically  
326 and statistically significant, showing that the generations in the FAB treatment are 80.6 % more likely  
327 to choose *B* than *A* compared with those under the basic ISDG. In addition, the interaction term of FAB  
328 times the number of prosocial individuals is economically and statistically significant, with a coefficient  
329 of  $-0.377$ , such that an increase in the number of prosocial people per generation in the FAB treatment  
330 induces generations to choose the sustainable option *B* but only by 12.7 % ( $= 50.4 \% - 37.7 \%$ ). This  
331 12.7 % increase under FAB is less than the 50.4 % obtained under the basic ISDG. This result can be  
332 interpreted as indicating that the FAB mechanism enables a generation of proself people to support the  
333 sustainable option *B* without relying on prosocial people.

334 It can now be hypothesized that FAB affects proself individuals' opinions of and decisions between  
335 options *A* and *B* in a way that maintains intergenerational sustainability. To examine this hypothesis,  
336 we interviewed each subject about whether he/she personally supported *A* or *B* before and after the  
337 FAB treatment. The interviews in FAB clarify how individual opinions change in the FAB treatment  
338 in relation to individual social value orientations. There are four possible pairs of individual opinion  
339 changes before and after FAB treatment: (i) a subject initially supported *B* and still supports *B* after the  
340 FAB treatment (hereafter, *BB*); (ii) a subject initially supported *A* and still supports *A* after the FAB  
341 treatment (hereafter, *AA*), (iii) a subject initially supported *A* but supports *B* after the FAB treatment  
342 (hereafter, *AB*), and (iv) a subject initially supported *B* but supports *A* after the FAB treatment (here-  
343 after, *BA*). Among these four possible pairs, *BB* and *AA* represent no change in individual opinions,  
344 while *AB* and *BA* represent changes in individual opinions.

345 [Table 6 about here.]

346 Table 6 presents the percentage of these four types of individual opinion changes for each of the  
347 value orientations in the FAB treatment. Approximately 82.93 % of prosocial subjects follow *BB*,  
348 whereas 0.00 %, 5.36 % and 7.14 % of the competitors, individualists and the unidentified individual



349 follow *BB*, respectively. In contrast, *AA* is the lowest for prosocial individuals (4.88 %), followed  
350 by individualists (23.21 %) and by competitors (45.45 %). No subject in any value orientation follows  
351 *BA*. Finally, 71.43 %, 57.14 %, 54.55 % and 12.20 % of the individualistic, unidentified, competitor  
352 and prosocial subjects follow *AB*, respectively. It appears that a considerable portion of the individu-  
353 alists, the competitors and the unidentified change their individual opinions from *A* to *B* after the FAB  
354 treatment. To statistically establish this, we perform pairwise chi-squared tests to examine whether the  
355 three types of opinion changes are statistically independent of the value orientations. The null hypothe-  
356 sis is that the distributions of opinion changes are the same for any two types of value orientations. The  
357 examination rejects the null hypothesis at the 1 % level for all pairs of value orientations, confirming  
358 that the three types of opinion changes are dependent on value orientations.

359 [Table 7 about here.]

360 To empirically characterize this finding, we regress an opinion change from *A* to *B* as a dependent  
361 variable on value orientations and individual socioeconomic variables as independent variables, using  
362 a probit regression. We define the dependent variable of opinion changes as follows: The variable  
363 takes value 1 for *AB* (when a subject changes her opinion from *A* to *B* through FAB), 0 otherwise. A  
364 set of independent variables includes the SVO dummies (Base group = Prosocial) and socioeconomic  
365 variables such as income, education, and family structure. Table 7 summarizes the detailed definitions  
366 of variables included in the regression. Since no opinion changes of the sequence *BA* were found,  
367 this regression is simplified to analyze the probability of the opinion change from *A* to *B* (or *AB*)  
368 relative to the probability of no opinion change (*AA* or *BB*) under FAB. Table 8 shows the marginal  
369 effects of the independent variables on the probability of opinion changes from *A* to *B*. The marginal  
370 effects of the SVO dummies exactly follow the summary statistics of the opinion changes for each  
371 value orientation. This reveals that individualists, unidentified and competitors are 53.8 %, 45.8 % and  
372 38.1 % more likely to change their opinions from *A* to *B* compared with prosocial persons, holding  
373 all other factors fixed. This regression result confirms that FAB can clearly induce a large number of  
374 the individualistic, unidentified and competitive subjects to change individual opinions from *A* to *B*.  
375 Consequently, more generations are induced to choose the sustainable option *B* under FAB.

[Table 8 about here.]

376

377 Recall that members of a generation need to finalize their decision by anonymously voting for *A* or  
378 *B* if they do not have the same request and decision in the first and second steps. Of the 48 generations  
379 in ISDG with FAB, 9 made their final decision by such anonymous votes. Among these 9 generations,  
380 7 voted for *A*. Thus, voting does not appear to have been effective in achieving intergenerational  
381 sustainability in our field experiments. Moreover, from the data of individual opinion changes under  
382 the FAB treatment, we find that 106 subjects out of 144 initially supported *A* before group discussions,  
383 implying that such people are likely to choose option *A* if they are in a simple deliberative democratic  
384 environment. In summary, along with the results from the basic ISDG, the outcomes of voting and  
385 opinion changes observed in the FAB treatment provide additional evidence that deliberative democracy  
386 fails to maintain intergenerational sustainability when societies consist of a majority of proself people.

387 The findings in this section can be interpreted as a mirror image of the results demonstrated in  
388 Hauser et al. (2014). They show that voting or democracy is effective at maintaining the intergenerational  
389 provision of goods when a majority of people are not “selfish.” In their experiments of inter-  
390 generational goods games, overharvesting by a few defectors is what endangers the sustainability of  
391 intergenerational goods. Therefore, determining the harvests by median votes improves sustainability  
392 since voting or democracy enables a large number of cooperators to prevent a minority of defectors  
393 from depleting intergenerational goods. However, in our experiments, a majority of subjects are pro-  
394 self and prioritize their own payoffs. Thus, generations consisting of a majority of proself members  
395 can easily compromise intergenerational sustainability when they make the decisions in a deliberative  
396 democratic process such as in basic ISDG.

397 In this research, we propose two mechanisms, IFG and FAB, that could enhance intergenerational  
398 sustainability, and FAB is shown to be effective even when a majority of people are proself. Along  
399 with our current study, past works such as Shahrier et al. (2016), Shahrier et al. (2017) and Timilsina  
400 et al. (2017) show that with the maturation of capitalism and the further modernization of societies,  
401 people become more competitive or proself. In the future, highly capitalistic societies will be com-  
402 posed of a majority of proself people. In such a situation, choosing competitive or self-maximizing  
403 outcomes, including prioritizing one’s own generation’s payoff by irreversibly costing future genera-

404 tions, may emerge as a norm (as demonstrated in this research) and be deeply ingrained in individual  
405 belief systems. Therefore, in the basic ISDG and ISDG with IFG, proself people choose to maximize  
406 their own generation's payoff (following the norm), thereby compromising intergenerational sustain-  
407 ability in highly capitalistic societies such as the present one (Evans, 2008, Evans and Stanovich, 2013,  
408 Howarth et al., 2016, Shahrier et al., 2016).

409 Studies in brain science suggest that an experience or a memory of projecting future events can  
410 affect brain function and, potentially, current decisions (Schultz et al., 1997, Gilbert and Wilson, 2007,  
411 Gerlach et al., 2014, Szpunara et al., 2014). We conjecture that due to the experience of role-playing as  
412 a future generation in the ISDG with FAB, members of a generation feel the pain of being negatively  
413 affected by previous generations prior to making their actual decision from their original position.  
414 Moreover, in the actual decision, they are naturally induced to synchronize or link their request as a  
415 future generation with the actual decision as the current generation through their own logic, as human  
416 decisions are known to be made primarily through two channels: logic-based reasoning and norm-based  
417 reasoning (Evans, 2008, Evans and Stanovich, 2013, Howarth et al., 2016). The effect of projecting  
418 oneself into the future and the requirement of such synchronization in FAB between future and current  
419 generations seem to influence individuals to choose intergenerationally sustainable options through  
420 logic-based reasoning in the ISDG with FAB rather than through norm-based reasoning (Evans, 2008,  
421 Evans and Stanovich, 2013, Howarth et al., 2016).<sup>6</sup>

422 Past studies depict the rapid growth of urbanization, especially in Asia and Africa; they project  
423 that by 2050, 66 % of the global population will reside in cities and 75 % of the major cities will be  
424 in Africa and Asia (American Association for the Advancement of Science, 2016, Wigginton et al.,  
425 2016, McDonnell and MacGregor-Fors, 2016). The results of this and our past studies demonstrate that  
426 democracy fails to maintain intergenerational sustainability in highly capitalistic societies in which a  
427 majority of people are proself. Consistent with this result, we observed several failures by the global  
428 community to solve intergenerational problems, such as controlling carbon emissions and global warm-  
429 ing even under democratic institutions (Barrett, 2008, Falkner, 2016). Given the literature and empirical

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<sup>6</sup>Since a majority of subjects in Dhaka, Bangladesh are proself, these subjects tend to choose or support option *B* based on norm-based reasoning. For such proself subjects, the norm in both SVO and the basic ISDG is to behave selfishly or to prioritize their own payoffs.

430 findings that people become more proself in capitalistic societies (Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017, Timilsina  
431 et al., 2017), the development and implementation of new mechanisms in place of democracy seem to  
432 be necessary to maintain intergenerational sustainability.

433 We design and institute a new mechanism, namely, the future ahead and back mechanism (FAB),  
434 by conducting field experiments in a highly capitalistic environment in a developing country. The ex-  
435 amination shows that FAB can maintain intergenerational sustainability in field experiments and can be  
436 a potential solution for intergenerational problems. To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first  
437 to demonstrate that voting or democracy is not effective at achieving intergenerational sustainability  
438 when a majority of people are proself. Furthermore, it is the first to suggest an effective mechanism for  
439 maintaining intergenerational sustainability through field experiments in a highly competitive society  
440 in a developing country, Dhaka, Bangladesh. We believe that FAB can be used in two ways to solve  
441 intergenerational sustainability problems. First, FAB can be applied as an alternative democratic insti-  
442 tution in collective decision-making processes addressing questions of intergenerational sustainability.  
443 Second, FAB could be applied at an individual level rather than the collective level as part of education  
444 or training to change individual ways of thinking toward being future-oriented (Wilson et al., 2014).

## 445 **4 Conclusion**

446 Maintaining intergenerational sustainability is a necessary condition for the continued existence  
447 of humankind on earth. However, our current economic and political systems under capitalism and  
448 democracy are not particularly well designed to consider the needs of future generations. Consequently,  
449 we have seen how faster economic growth under democratic political systems and capitalism causes  
450 the overexploitation of natural resources and environmental problems, compromising intergenerational  
451 sustainability. Past studies show that the economic environment, as part of culture, affects human  
452 preferences and behaviors such that, with the maturation of capitalism and further modernization in  
453 societies, people become more proself (Shahrier et al., 2016, Timilsina et al., 2017). Building upon  
454 such past literature, this research demonstrates that democracy might fail to maintain intergenerational  
455 sustainability in capitalistic societies in which a majority of people are proself, suggesting the need for

456 new mechanisms.

457 We design and institute a new mechanism to improve intergenerational sustainability called the  
458 future ahead and back (FAB) mechanism. We compare the outcome under FAB with that under de-  
459 liberative democratic settings by implementing field experiments of the intergenerational sustainability  
460 dilemma game (ISDG) in Dhaka, Bangladesh. The results reveal that generations compromise inter-  
461 generational sustainability in the basic ISDG since a majority of proself people tend to prioritize their  
462 own generation's payoff. By contrast, the FAB mechanism successfully maintains intergenerational  
463 sustainability in that a large number of proself individuals are induced to support the sustainable op-  
464 tion *B* despite that such proself subjects initially supported the unsustainable option *A*. We argue that  
465 FAB instills the effect of projecting future events into current generations' decisions and induces more  
466 logic-based reasoning in individual brains.

467 Finally, we cite some limitations of this research and suggest potential future research. Our study  
468 does not analyze the detailed pathways of how and why FAB affects individual motivations, deci-  
469 sions and group behaviors on questions of intergenerational sustainability in relation to subjects' social  
470 network, social capital and brain images. With an additional experimental design or further field exper-  
471 iments, future studies should be able to identify how these factors are interrelated and affect individual  
472 opinions and the decision-making process. In particular, we should examine such details regarding the  
473 pathways that determine how and why "proself" people might change their opinions on intergenera-  
474 tional sustainability. Unfortunately, in this project, we could not conduct this type of research due to  
475 time and budget constraints, leaving such matters to future study. These caveats notwithstanding, it is  
476 our belief that this study is the first step toward identifying a new FAB mechanism to solve the inter-  
477 generational sustainability dilemma in highly capitalistic societies in which a majority of people are  
478 proself and deliberative democracy fails. As mentioned above, we conjecture that FAB can be used in  
479 two ways to solve intergenerational sustainability problems. First, FAB can be applied as an alternative  
480 democratic institution in collective decision-making processes on matters of intergenerational sustain-  
481 ability. Second, FAB could be applied at the individual level rather than the collective level as part of  
482 education or training to change individual ways of thinking toward being future-oriented (Wilson et al.,  
483 2014).

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Figure 1: The study area: Dhaka

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Table 1: Frequency and percentage of generations' choices of options *A* and *B* in basic ISDG, ISDG with IFG and ISDG with FAB

	A	B	Overall
Basic ISDG	29 (69.05 %)	13 (30.95 %)	42 (100 %)
ISDG with IFG	30 (71.43 %)	12 (29.57 %)	42 (100 %)
ISDG with FAB	7 (14.58 %)	41 (85.42 %)	48 (100 %)

Table 2: Distribution of generations with respect to the number of prosocial members per generation for each treatment: Basic, IFG and FAB.

Number of prosocial members in one generation	Number of generations (percentage)			Overall
	Basic	IFG	FAB	
0	26 (61.90 %)	27 (64.29 %)	15 (31.25)	68 (51.79 %)
1	7 (16.67 %)	8 (19.05 %)	25 (52.08)	40 (30.03 %)
2	7 (16.67 %)	5 (11.90 %)	8 (16.67)	20 (15.15 %)
3	2 (4.76 %)	2 (4.76 %)	0 (0.00)	4 (3.03 %)
<b>Subtotal</b>	<b>42 (100 %)</b>	<b>42 (100 %)</b>	<b>48 (100 %)</b>	<b>132 (100 %)</b>

Table 3: Percentage of generations choosing  $B$  with respect to the number of prosocial members per generation under each treatment: Basic, IFG and FAB.

# of prosocial members in one generation	Percentage of choice $B$			Overall
	Basic	IFG	FAB	
0	11.54 % ( $\approx \frac{3}{26}$ )	3.85 % ( $\approx \frac{1}{27}$ )	80.00 % ( $= \frac{12}{15}$ )	23.53 % ( $\approx \frac{16}{68}$ )
1	14.29 % ( $\approx \frac{1}{7}$ )	50.00 % ( $= \frac{4}{8}$ )	76.00 % ( $= \frac{19}{25}$ )	60.00 % ( $= \frac{24}{40}$ )
2	100.00 % ( $= \frac{7}{7}$ )	100.00 % ( $= \frac{5}{5}$ )	100.00 % ( $= \frac{8}{8}$ )	100.00 % ( $= \frac{20}{20}$ )
3	100.00 % ( $= \frac{2}{2}$ )	100.00 % ( $= \frac{2}{2}$ )	-	100.00 % ( $= \frac{4}{4}$ )
<b>Subtotal</b>	30.95 % ( $\approx \frac{13}{42}$ )	29.57 % ( $\approx \frac{12}{42}$ )	85.42 % ( $\approx \frac{41}{48}$ )	50.00 % ( $= \frac{66}{132}$ )

Table 4: Descriptions of variables included in regressions

Variables	Descriptions
Generation choice $B$	A dummy variable that takes value 1 if the generation chooses option $B$ , 0 otherwise.
# of prosocials	The number of prosocial members in each generation.
IFG	A dummy variable that takes value 1 when the IFG treatment is administered to one session consisting of 6 generations, 0 otherwise.
FAB	A dummy variable that takes value 1 when the FAB treatment is administered to one session consisting of 6 generations, 0 otherwise.
IFG $\times$ # of prosocials	An interaction term of IFG times the number of prosocial members in each generation.
FAB $\times$ # of prosocials	An interaction term of FAB times the number of prosocial members in each generation.

Table 5: Marginal effects of probit regressions for a generation's choice of  $B$

Variable	Marginal effect		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
# of prosocial members	0.429*** (0.133)	0.492*** (0.113)	0.504*** (0.134)
IFG dummy		-0.016 (0.127)	-0.178 (0.219)
FAB dummy			0.806*** (0.184)
IFG $\times$ # of prosocials			0.267 (0.249)
FAB $\times$ # of prosocials			-0.377** (0.189)

\*\*\*significant at the 1 percent level, \*\*significant at the 5 percent level



Table 6: Social value orientations and changes in individual opinion by percentage in ISDG with FAB

Social value orientation	Individual opinion change				Subtotal
	<i>BB</i>	<i>AA</i>	<i>AB</i>	<i>BA</i>	
Competitive	0.00 % ( $\approx \frac{0}{33}$ )	45.45 % ( $\approx \frac{15}{33}$ )	54.55 % ( $\approx \frac{18}{33}$ )	-	100.00 % ( $\approx \frac{33}{33}$ )
Prosocial	82.93 % ( $\approx \frac{34}{41}$ )	4.88 % ( $\approx \frac{2}{41}$ )	12.20 % ( $\approx \frac{5}{41}$ )	-	100.00 % ( $\approx \frac{41}{41}$ )
Individualistic	5.36 % ( $\approx \frac{3}{56}$ )	23.21 % ( $\approx \frac{13}{56}$ )	71.43 % ( $\approx \frac{40}{56}$ )	-	100.00 % ( $\approx \frac{56}{56}$ )
Unidentified	7.14 % ( $\approx \frac{1}{14}$ )	35.71 % ( $\approx \frac{5}{14}$ )	57.14 % ( $\approx \frac{8}{14}$ )	-	100.00 % ( $\approx \frac{14}{14}$ )
Overall	26.39 % ( $\approx \frac{38}{144}$ )	24.31 % ( $\approx \frac{35}{144}$ )	49.31 % ( $\approx \frac{71}{144}$ )	-	100.00 % ( $\approx \frac{144}{144}$ )

Table 7: Descriptions of variables included in regressions for individual opinion change

Variables	Descriptions
Opinion change	A dummy variable that takes value 1 if a respondent's opinion changes from <i>A</i> to <i>B</i> , 0 otherwise.
Household income	Household income per month in 1000 BDT.
Gender	A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a respondent is a female, 0 otherwise.
Age	Categorical variable that takes value {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5} when ages are between 20 and 29, 30 and 39, 40 and 49, 50 and 59, 60 and 69, and 70 or more, respectively.
Education	Years of schooling.
Family structure	Joint family structures are coded as 1, 0 (single family) otherwise.
SVO dummy variables (Base group = Prosocial)	
Competitive	A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a respondent's value orientation is competitive, 0 otherwise.
Individualistic	A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a respondent's value orientation is individualistic, 0 otherwise.
Unidentified	A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a respondent's value orientation is unidentified, 0 otherwise.

Table 8: Marginal effects of probit regressions for opinion changes from *A* to *B* or *AB* under FAB

Variable	Marginal effect
Household income (in 1000 BDT)	-0.001 (0.001)
Gender	0.177 (0.150)
Age	0.032 (0.044)
Education	0.001 (0.009)
Family structure	-0.009 (0.087)
SVO dummy (base group = Prosocial)	
Competitive	0.381*** (0.093)
Individualistic	0.538*** (0.064)
Unidentified	0.458*** (0.119)

\*\*\*significant at the 1 percent level, \*\*significant at the 5 percent level