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Individual time preferences of married couples in a fisheries society

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Individual time preferences of married couples in a fisheries society

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Abstract

Overexploitation of marine resources in Indonesia is threatening their sustainability and is considered to be induced by shortsightedness of fishermen and/or of their wives at household level. Given this states of affairs, we address individual time preferences of married couples (fishermen and their wives) in fisheries. To this end, we conduct an individual discounting elicitation experiment with 200 married couples (200 fishermen and 200 fishermen's wives) in an Indonesian fisheries society, Karawang regency. We find that fishermen's discount factors are slightly higher than their wives' ones on an average with positive correlation between the two, and their incomes have idiosyncratic influences on individual time preferences of a couple. Fishermen's incomes weakly influence only wives' time preferences, while wives' incomes significantly and positively affect not only fishermen's but also wives' time preferences to be farsighted. The betafit regression demonstrates that a wife's (fisherman's) discount factor increases by 5.1 % (5.6 %) when a wife's income increases by 1 million Rp. This result suggests that economic empowerment of fishermen's wives is key for sustainability of marine resources and societies in Indonesia.

Key words: Time preferences; Income; Fishermen; Fishermen's wives; Fisheries society

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Nomenclature

BPS Badan Pusat Statistik

DKI Daerah Khusus Ibukota

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

MMAF Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries Republic of Indonesia

Rp Indonesia rupiahs

SD Standard deviation

1 Introduction

Overexploitation of marine resources in Indonesia and the rest of the world is threatening their sustainability. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Departement (2018) reports that 33.1 % of fish stock is caught at biologically unsustainable levels, and some important fish resources have declined due

5 to their overexploitation. Akpalu (2008) and Fehr and Leibbrandt (2011) show that fishermen's
6 time preferences are important for fish stock sustainability because shortsighted fishermen take
7 more fish by using non-selective gears, more advanced technologies and/or illegal methods without
8 considering sustainability. While fishing practices of fishermen are demonstrated to be linked
9 with their own time preferences, it can also be considered that fishermen's time preferences are
10 influenced by their wives & other factors, or vice versa, through their interactions and daily life at
11 household level. In other words, one of the main reasons for overexploitation of marine resources
12 is directly linked to shortsightedness of fishermen and their wives together with their relationship.
13 Therefore, this paper addresses individual time preferences of married couples (fishermen and their
14 wives) in fisheries, contributing to policy designs for conservation and sustainability of marine
15 resources.

16 Past studies show that household economic decisions and situations regarding risks, savings
17 and education are highly correlated with household members' time preferences (Tanaka et al.,
18 2010, Carlsson et al., 2012, Eckel et al., 2013, Yang and Carlsson, 2016). Tanaka et al. (2010)
19 examine household time preferences in Vietnam, showing that people who have more income
20 tend to be farsighted. Eckel et al. (2013) find that time preferences among poor households in
21 Canada are associated with educational investments, reporting that farsighted people tend to invest
22 more for household members' education. Carlsson et al. (2012) and Yang and Carlsson (2016)
23 investigate time preferences of married couples associated with household joint decisions in China.
24 They report that individual time preferences of husbands and wives do matter, but wives are less
25 influential than husbands in determining joint decisions.

26 Several works focus on examining fishermen's time preferences. Akpalu (2008) and Fehr and
27 Leibbrandt (2011) analyze the correlation between fishermen's time preferences and fishing prac-
28 tices, and they find that shortsighted fishermen are likely to infringe fishing regulations by using
29 non-selective gears and/or other illegal methods. On the contrary, Javaid et al. (2016) find that
30 shortsighted fishermen tend not to invest on fishing capabilities such as vessels, gears and tech-
31 nologies in Zanzibar so that such shortsighted fishermen are not successful in harvesting fish ef-

32 ficiently. Johnson and Saunders (2014) estimate and compare time preferences of fishermen and
33 divers, finding that fishermen are more shortsighted than divers since divers are accustomed to be
34 farsighted for preservation of a healthy ocean in sustaining their job. Nguyen (2011) compares
35 time preferences of fishermen and other occupations such as farmers, traders, businessmen and
36 government officers in Vietnam and shows that fishermen that participated in conservation pro-
37 grams for fish stock are more farsighted than people with other occupations. Teh et al. (2014)
38 examine fishermen's time preferences in relation to types of fishery management system in Fiji
39 and Malaysia, and demonstrate that fishermen in customary marine tenure management are more
40 shortsighted than those in open access management. In summary, these previous findings suggest
41 that working environments and experiences characterize fishermen's time preferences and fishing
42 practices.

43 None of the previous studies have addressed time preferences of fishermen and their wives in
44 fisheries, despite an importance of its impact and the relation for sustainability of marine resources.
45 Given this state of affairs, we empirically and experimentally characterize individual time prefer-
46 ences of married couples (fishermen and their wives) and seek to identify what factors shall induce
47 them to be farsighted for ensuring sustainability of marine resources. To this end, we conduct an
48 individual discounting elicitation experiment with 200 married couples (200 fishermen and 200
49 fishermen's wives) in an Indonesian fisheries society, Karawang regency (see figure 1). We find
50 that fishermen's discount factors are slightly higher than their wives' ones on an average with pos-
51 itive correlation between the two, and their incomes have idiosyncratic influences on individual
52 time preferences of a couple. While fishermen's incomes weakly influence only wives' time pref-
53 erences, wives' incomes significantly and positively affect not only fishermen's and but also wives'
54 time preferences to be farsighted. The betafit regression demonstrates that a wife's (fisherman's)
55 discount factor increases by 5.1 % (5.6 %) when a wife's income increases by 1 million Rp. This
56 result suggests that economic empowerment of fishermen's wives is important for sustainability of
57 marine resources and societies in Indonesia.

2 Overview of fisheries in Indonesia

Indonesia is the world's largest archipelagic and the second longest of a coastline country with 17 504 islands and 99 093 km of coastline. The total area of Indonesia water is 6 315 222 km² and the potency of fish resource is 12.5 million ton per year (Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries, 2015a). This big potency places Indonesia on the second largest seafood producer in the world. However, it is reported that such a big potency does not necessarily lead Indonesian fishermen to be more prosperous. The number of Indonesia fishermen in 2015 is 2 275 139 with an average income 1 032 080 Rp per month which is below the regional minimum income (1 997 819 Rp). About 25 % of total poor people in Indonesia are from fisheries societies (BPS-Statistics Indonesia, 2017). Our study field is Karawang regency in the north part of Jawa Barat Province, Indonesia (see figure 1). This regency is located between 107°2' and 107°40' east longitude, and 5°56' and 6°34' south latitude. The population in 2016 was 2.3 million people with the density of 1309 people per km² (BPS-Statistics of Karawang Regency, 2017), and 168 901 people are working in agriculture and fishery sectors (Karawang Regency Government, 2015). Fishermen in Karawang are categorized to be in small scale fisheries since they operate fishing vessels less than 10 gross tonnage and catch fish on a daily basis (Government of Indonesia, 2016).

Most fishermen are habituated to use up their daily salary because they believe that they will earn money by fishing the next day, and do not have a strong motivation to save their income for future (Muflikhati et al., 2010, Yasin, 2013, National Development Planning Agency Republic of Indonesia, 014b). It is also reported that fishermen tend to buy luxury goods in a harvest high season, while they sell the luxury goods for survival when they face or continue to have a bad season (Nugroho, 2004). In the worst case scenario, such fishermen get a loan shark when they have nothing in their home. Such harvest seasonality and fishermen's shortsightedness in fisheries induces themselves to be poorer and to harvest more marine resources without considering sustainability, representing a typical life cycle or pattern in Indonesian fisheries.

[Figure 1 about here.]

84 It is established that a role of fishermen's wives is crucial since they take care of their children
85 and support their husbands in fisheries (Zhao et al., 2012, Harper et al., 2013, Febri et al., 2017).
86 In most cases, they are also in charge of managing household financial matters, and they are more
87 knowledgeable and sensitive to household financial situations than their husbands. Depending
88 on financial situations, fishermen's wives are motivated to contribute to households by generating
89 additional incomes (Febri et al., 2017). Table 1 summarizes the information regarding occupation
90 types of fishermen's wives in our study field, Karawang. Out of 200 wives, 142 are housewives (not
91 working), whereas the rest of 58 wives are working as traders, fish processors, entrepreneurs, net
92 makers, trap fishers and other occupations. In general, fishermen's wives in Karawang usually face
93 difficult economic situations to control and allocate money for daily needs, children's education
94 and household appliances under tight budget limitations.

95 [Table 1 about here.]

96 **3 Experimental design and procedure**

97 **3.1 A discounting elicitation experiment**

98 We employ an experimental procedure to elicit individual time preferences, called a discount-
99 ing elicitation experiment. This procedure is different from a multiple-price list procedure as done
100 by Coller and Williams (1999), Harrison et al. (2002) and Tanaka et al. (2010). The multiple-price
101 list procedure normally asks participants to have a bank account or to have an additional meeting
102 at a different date and time to receive experimental rewards. In an Indonesian fisheries society, it is
103 difficult to apply the multiple-price list procedure due to the working schedule and daily lifestyle
104 fishermen follow (For instance, only 30 % of fishermen households have bank accounts). Subjects
105 claim that they could neither understand nor follow the multiple-price list procedure in the trial
106 experiment, since the experimental procedures did not match their life schedule, and fishermen's

107 and wives' educations are limited.¹ Therefore, we design and institute a discounting elicitation
108 experiment to estimate individual time preferences.

109 An individual interview was conducted in the discounting elicitation experiment. We explained
110 that subjects would receive 20000 Rp (\approx 1.50 USD) on an average in the beginning of the experi-
111 ment and instructed subjects that it is the best strategy to seriously and honestly answer a series of
112 questions and tasks based on their daily money senses and life. Subjects are asked to prefer or to
113 make a choice between options A and B:

114 Option A: You receive 20000 Rp today.

115 Option B: You receive $20000 + z$ Rp in one month.

116 Here, the initial value of z , denoted by z_0 , starts with 4000. When a subject prefers option A to
117 option B with $z = z_0 = 4000$, we proceed to the next question where the value of z in option B is
118 increased by 4000, i.e., $z_1 = z_0 + 1 \cdot 4000 = 4000 + 4000 = 8000$, and the subject is again asked
119 to answer the question with the updated value of $z_1 = 8000$. This process of asking the subject a
120 series of questions by updating the value of $z = z_k = z_0 + k \cdot 4000$ continues for arbitrary k times,
121 as far as she keeps choosing option A up to the k th questions. We shall stop the process when the
122 subject chooses option B for the first time at the $k + 1$ th question where the value of x in option B
123 is updated with $z_{k+1} = z_0 + (k + 1) \cdot 4000$. In this case, we can consider that her preference over
124 options A and B is reversed between k th and $k + 1$ th questions, and there should exist a threshold
125 future value of \bar{z} between z_k and z_{k+1} that makes the subject to be indifferent between receiving
126 20 000 Rp today and $20000 + \bar{z}$ Rp one month later. Therefore, as a final process, we interview the
127 subject and ask her some final questions by gradually adjusting the value of z between z_k and z_{k+1}
128 up until each interviewer identifies the threshold value of \bar{z} .

129 The subject will receive her experimental reward from the discounting elicitation experiment
130 in the following way. We set up a lottery where it has a probability $\rho = \frac{20000}{20000 + \bar{z}}$ of successfully

¹In reality, most subjects do not believe that they will actually get paid later periods as the experimental instructions of the multiple-price list procedures indicate, because they often experience that the payments that must be made on a specific date and time in the future period as a binding agreement are not fulfilled as planned in their daily life. This is another reason that we could not implement the multiple-price list procedure.

131 getting the value of $20000 + \bar{z}$ Rp by picking a yellow card in the bag and a probability $1 - \rho$ of
132 receiving no reward by picking a red card with the expected payoff of 20 000 Rp. For this, we
133 prepare 20 yellow cards and $\frac{\bar{z}}{1000}$ red cards in the lottery depending on the individual threshold
134 value of \bar{z} . Because most subjects are not familiar with the concept of probabilities, we show and
135 calculate the number of yellow and red cards in front of each subject before putting those cards
136 into a bag, and explain the lottery's rule to her. Then, we proceed by asking each subject whether
137 she prefers receiving 20 000 Rp for sure or to possibly get $20000 + \bar{z}$ Rp by choosing a lottery. A
138 subject who does not pick the lottery receives 20 000 Rp, while a subject who picks the lottery will
139 receive the reward based on the outcome of the lottery. At the same time, we also observe whether
140 the subject is a risk taker or not.

141 **3.2 Experimental procedure**

142 To conduct a field experiment in an Indonesian fisheries society, we first visited the fishing
143 village offices to get consent. Among the 13 fishing villages in Karawang, 3 fishing villages
144 offices gave us an approval and provided a list of fishermen households. We randomly picked
145 a required number of households based on the population of each village. We invited a married
146 couple from each household to take part in our experiment by delivering letters. In total, 200
147 married couples (200 fishermen and 200 fishermen's wives) participated in our field experiment.²
148 The field experiments were held at the fishing village halls in each place. We first conducted a
149 discounting elicitation experiment and second a field survey to get sociodemographic information
150 in a session. After completing the experiment, we asked each subject to leave the experimental
151 hall soon for avoiding interactions among subjects.

152 A printed instruction of the discounting elicitation experiment was provided to subjects in the
153 Indonesian language (Bahasa). The instruction was explained by a verbal presentation of the first
154 author in this research, and we also confirmed each subject's understanding by giving a series of

²Due to our budget limitation, we employed only 200 couples. Some couples showed up in the experimental site, but could not participate in the experiment due to our budget issue. In such a case, we gave them a show-up fee and asked them to go home.

155 quizzes about our experimental rules and procedures after the presentation. To encourage sub-
 156 jects to attend and seriously participate in the experiment, we announced that subjects would earn
 157 35 000 Rp (\approx 3 USD) as an experimental reward including show-up fees of 15 000 Rp on an aver-
 158 age, the reward would vary depending on their decisions and the best way to earn the experimental
 159 reward would be to seriously and honestly answer or decide on a series of tasks and questions posed
 160 in our experiment on the basis of their daily money senses and practices. Each session consists of
 161 7 \sim 10 married couples as participants and took 2 \sim 3 hours.

162 4 Empirical methods

163 Betafit regression established by Ferrari and Cribari-Neto (2004) is applied to characterize the
 164 determinants of fishermen’s and their wives’ discount factors, since our dependent variables of
 165 individual discount factors are bounded between 0 and 1 and the regression can take account of
 166 various non-normal distributions. The specifications are as follows:

$$m_{ik} = \beta_{0k} + \beta_{1k}\mathbf{x}_i + \epsilon_{ik}, \quad (1)$$

167 where subscript i represents an ID of each subject and subscript k ($= \{f, w\}$) is an index to
 168 represent fishermen’s discount factors by $k = f$ or wives’ discount factors by $k = w$. The m_{ik} s
 169 represent fishermen’s and their wives’ discount factors elicited from the experiment denoted by
 170 m_{if} and m_{iw} , respectively. A dependent variable of individual discount factors, $m_{ik}, k = \{f, w\}$,
 171 is assumed to follow a beta distribution:

$$f(m_{ik}; \mu_k, \phi_k) = \frac{\Gamma(\phi_k)}{\Gamma(\mu_k\phi_k)\Gamma((1-\mu_k)\phi_k)} m_{ik}^{\mu_k\phi_k-1} (1-m_{ik})^{(1-\mu_k)\phi_k-1}, \quad m_{ik} \in (0, 1),$$

172 where $\mathbb{E}(m_{ik}) = \mu_k$, $\text{Var}(m_{ik}) = \frac{\mu_k(1-\mu_k)}{1+\phi_k}$, ϕ_k represents a precision parameter and $\phi_k - 1$ repre-
 173 sents a dispersion parameter. A various combinations of μ_k and ϕ_k can accommodate nonnormal
 174 J shaped, inverted J shaped and U shaped distributions for fishermen’s and their wives’ discount

175 factors.

176 The \mathbf{x}_i is a set of independent variables of fishermen's and their wives' sociodemographic infor-
177 mation such as age, education, income and a number of household members (Table 2 summaries
178 the definitions of all the variables applied in the statistical analysis), while we do not include a
179 wife's (fisherman's) discount factor as an independent variable in the regression to characterize
180 a fisherman's (wife's) discount factor due to an issue of simultaneity in endogenous problems as
181 noted in Wooldridge (2010). The betafit regressions are considered to be appropriate with our
182 data set, because the distributions of our individual discount factors are observed to be inverted
183 *J* shaped (see figure 2). The maximum likelihood method is applied to identify the unknown pa-
184 rameters β_{0k} and β_{1k} in betafit regressions for $k = \{f, w\}$, generating the marginal effect of an
185 independent variable on the individual discount factors of fishermen or of their wives, m_{ik} .

186

[Table 2 about here.]

187 The independent variables in table 2 are hypothesized to influence fishermen's and/or their
188 wives' discount factors, following Harrison et al. (2002), Reimers et al. (2009), Tanaka et al. (2010)
189 and Nguyen (2011). In this experiment, a fisherman's (a wife's) discount factor is represented as
190 a percentage rate of discounting the future monetary value that will surely be received one month
191 later in such a way that the discounted future value equals the value of receiving 20 000 Rp today,
192 as explained in section 3.1. We are interested in how fishermen's and/or their wives' discount
193 factors are characterized by sociodemographic variables of fishermen, their wives and households
194 within a single analytical framework. Therefore, we keep the same set of independent variables for
195 both regressions of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors. Doing so enables us to quantify
196 how a change in one factor within a household or a married couple affects fishermen's and their
197 wives' time preferences.

198 5 Results

199 Table 3 provides summary statistics of the sampled couples in a fisheries society, Karawang,
200 Indonesia. Fishermen's and their wives' average monthly incomes are 2.495 million Rp and 0.367
201 million Rp, respectively. This indicates that fishermen earn much more money than their wives,
202 being consistent with the fact that fishermen's income is usually a main source of their household
203 incomes. We see in table 3 that fishermen's and their wives' median monthly incomes are 1.900
204 million Rp and 0.000 million Rp, respectively, implying that more than half of wives do not earn
205 money. The average (median) discount factors of fishermen and their wives are 0.302 (0.100) and
206 0.252 (0.100), respectively. These results demonstrate that married couples in the fisheries society
207 are generally shortsighted, and fishermen's discount factors are slightly higher than their wives'
208 ones on an average. The average (median) ages of fishermen and their wives are 41 (40) and 38
209 (37) years, respectively. Table 3 also presents that fishermen have only primary education on an
210 average, because most fishermen usually think that a high level of education is not necessary in an
211 Indonesian fisheries society (In our sample, fishermen's and their wives' education levels happen
212 to be identical).³ The average and median number of household members are 4.5 and 4 people,
213 respectively, confirming that household members typically consist of a fisherman, his wife and
214 children.

215 [Table 3 about here.]

216 [Figure 2 about here.]

217 Figure 2 shows frequency distributions of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors elicited
218 in our discounting elicitation experiment. The vertical axis denotes the frequency percentage and
219 the horizontal axis denotes the discount factors. Figure 2 reveals that the distributions of fisher-
220 men's and their wives' discount factors do not follow normality and are not significantly different
221 from each other. Both distributions of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors have the same

³We do not include wives' education in the summary statistics, because it is identical to fisherman's education.

222 degree of skewness with two modes at the boundaries of 0 and 1. The highest spike in both distri-
223 butions is found around 0, while the spike in the fishermen's distribution is slightly lower than that
224 in their wives' one. It implies that fishermen's discount factors are comparatively higher than their
225 wives' ones, consistent with the means and medians presented in table 3. Overall, the distributions
226 of fishermen's and their wives's discount factors almost share the same features, such as the shape,
227 location of the highest spikes and skewness, while fishermen's discount factors are slightly higher
228 than their wives' ones.

229 On the basis of the summary statistics in table 3 and figure 2, we statistically examine whether
230 the distributions of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors are the same by running a non-
231 parametric Mann-Whitney test (Conover, 1999). The null hypothesis is that the distributions are
232 independent of (or identical between) fishermen and their wives. The test does not reject the null
233 hypothesis, implying that the distributions of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors do not
234 differ from one another. Figure 3 shows a scatter plot between fishermen's and their wives' dis-
235 count factors, demonstrating that there is no clear linear relationship between fishermen's and their
236 wives' discount factors. This is due to the fact that most observations of discount factors concen-
237 trate around the origin or corners of 1.00 in either axis. However, we confirm that there is a posi-
238 tive correlation around 0.2 between fishermen's and their wives' discount factors by implementing
239 several different correlation analyses that accommodate the concentrations of observations at the
240 corners and/or boundaries.

241 [Figure 3 about here.]

242 To characterize individual time preferences of fishermen and their wives in relation to sociode-
243 mographic factors, we run the betafit regressions. Models 1 and 2 of table 4 present the marginal
244 effects of the independent variables on fishermen's and their wives' discount factors, respectively.
245 Model 1 demonstrates that wives' incomes and a number of household members are significant in
246 characterizing fishermen's discount factors. Model 2 in table 4 shows that fishermen's and wives'
247 incomes are significant predictors of wives' time preferences. The estimated coefficients on wives'
248 incomes could be interpreted as follows: an increase in wives' incomes by 1 million Rp positively

249 affects fishermen and their wives' discount factors by 5.6 % and 5.1 % as demonstrated in models
250 1 and 2, respectively. On the other hand, fishermen's incomes weakly influence only wives' time
251 preferences. That is, an increase in fishermen's incomes by 1 million Rp is associated with a 0.9 %
252 rise in wives' discount factors as illustrated in model 1, which is considered to be practically in-
253 significant. As a robustness check, several other regression specifications have been tested, and
254 we confirm that our main results in models 1 and 2 in table 4 remain consistent and robust with
255 respect to the role of incomes in characterizing individual time preferences of fishermen and their
256 wives. These results corroborate that incomes are important factors to determine individual time
257 preferences, which is consistent with previous studies, such as Harrison et al. (2002), Reimers et al.
258 (2009) and Tanaka et al. (2010). That is, having higher incomes generally leads couples to be more
259 farsighted. However, our original finding is that their incomes possess idiosyncratic influences on
260 fishermen's and their wives' time preferences.

261 [Table 4 about here.]

262 The most important finding in our statistical analyses is that wives' incomes have stronger
263 influences on couples' time preferences to be farsighted than fishermen's (or husbands') ones. In
264 Indonesia, a majority of fishermen are known or reported to use up their daily income or splurge
265 on drinking, gambling and prostitution, sometimes bringing little money to their home (Muflikhati
266 et al., 2010, Yasin, 2013, National Development Planning Agency Republic of Indonesia, 014b).⁴
267 In other words, fishermen's incomes shall not contribute to household incomes or wealth in a
268 practical manner in the sense that what their wives can receive at home is only the partial of what
269 fishermen earn on a daily basis. As mentioned earlier, fishermen's wives are in charge of managing
270 household financial matters. However, it is common that they do not have enough money to control
271 and to allocate for households' daily needs as well as for the betterment of their future due to the
272 aforementioned reasons. In this type of situations, fishermen and their wives usually share the
273 same opinion and recognition about their household financial problems in a large picture. However,

⁴We tried to elicit how much of daily income fishermen bring to home in the pilot questionnaire. However, most fishermen rejected answering the questions. Thus, we quit asking this type of questions because it is too private and sensitive.

274 wives, as a manager of household financial matters, appear to be more knowledgeable and sensitive
275 to how much money their households need on the basis of our survey, reflecting that fishermen's
276 discount factors are slightly higher than their wives' discount factors.

277 When wives earn additional incomes, the wives' incomes practically contribute to households
278 under their 100 % control. As an evidence from our survey, we identify that wives who generate
279 additional incomes have more gold of 3.41 gram as part of their saving than do wives who do
280 not generate incomes. When wives work and generate additional incomes, fishermen (husbands)
281 also know that their wives' incomes practically contribute to their households, the part of which
282 is saved as gold.⁵ Therefore, fishermen shall be secured and induced to be farsighted by their
283 wives' incomes, while they know how their daily incomes by fishing have been spent without
284 being saved. While wives' incomes are usually considered supplementary in fisheries, it might
285 be surprising that an increase in wives' incomes shall more practically and strongly contribute to
286 fishermen couples' time preferences. This is qualitatively consistent with other findings of previous
287 works, such as Thomas (1990), Browning et al. (1994), Lundberg et al. (1997), Phipps and Burton
288 (1998), Duflo (2003), Namoro and Roushdy (2009), Carlsson et al. (2012) and Yang and Carlsson
289 (2016), reporting that people that handle and manage incomes and/or revenues in an organization
290 or a household can influence other members' behaviors and preferences.

291 Fishermen in many countries have the same tendency as Indonesian fishermen to spend a con-
292 siderable portion of their income or splurge on drinking, gambling and prostitution as reported
293 in Entz et al. (2000), Samsuddin et al. (2011) and Duy (2015). Therefore, the result established
294 in this research may apply to other countries' fisheries as a possible guidance for policies toward
295 sustainability of marine resources. Nowadays, many researches in various different fields of social
296 science suggest that women's empowerment is important as a process in which women elaborate
297 and recreate what they can be, do and accomplish in a given circumstance (see, e.g., Duflo, 2012,
298 Ashraf et al., 2010). In this context, our research can be considered an important evidence of how
299 "economic empowerment for wives in fisheries" has a practical significance on couples' time pref-

⁵In an Indonesian fishery society, as mentioned earlier, 70 % of fishermen households do not have bank accounts. Therefore, gold is usually saved in the various forms of ornaments such as rings, bracelets and so on.

300 erences. For example, Indonesia government provides and promotes vocational training programs
301 and policies for women's economic empowerment in fisheries villages, such as food processing,
302 financial skills and so on (Soero et al., 2014, Ministry of Marine Affairs and Fisheries, 2015b,
303 National Development Planning Agency Republic of Indonesia, 014a). Based on our results in
304 this research, such training programs and policies should be continued and further promoted to
305 enhance wives' skills and abilities for income generating activities. More importantly, this shall be
306 one of the most practical steps toward sustainability of local fisheries as well as their societies.

307 **6 Conclusion**

308 We have conducted an individual discounting elicitation experiment with 200 fishermen and
309 200 fishermen's wives in an Indonesian fisheries society. We find that fishermen's discount factors
310 are slightly higher than their wives' ones on an average, and their incomes have idiosyncratic
311 influences on individual time preferences of couples. While fishermen's incomes weakly influence
312 only wives' time preferences, wives' incomes have strong influences on fishermen's and wives'
313 time preferences. The betafit regression reveals that a wife's (fisherman's) discount factor increases
314 by 5.1 % (5.6 %) when a wife's income rises by 1 million Rp. This result can be considered an
315 important evidence of how "economic empowerment for wives in the fisheries" has a practical
316 significance on couples' time preferences in fisheries of emerging and developing countries. For
317 example, Indonesia government provides and promotes vocational training programs and policies
318 for women's empowerment in fisheries villages for food processing, financial skills and so on.
319 Based on our results in this research, such training programs and policies targeting fishermen's
320 wives should be further promoted to enhance wives' skills and abilities for generating more of
321 their income. These policies will induce both fishermen and their wives to be farsighted, practically
322 contributing to sustainability of local fisheries as well as their societies.

323 Finally, we note some limitations of our research and directions for future research. This re-
324 search was conducted in small-scale fisheries of Indonesia. To generalize the findings, we should

325 conduct further experiments in other countries and/or in a different type of fisheries, such as large-
326 scale or industrialized fisheries in developing countries that suffer from overexploitation of marine
327 resources and related problems. At the same time, we expect that the qualitatively same results
328 established in this research shall be obtained as far as the basic natures and behaviors of fishermen
329 do not differ from those in Indonesia. Although we admit that there may be some other limitations
330 of this research and future avenues of further research with respect to time preferences of fisher-
331 men and their household members, it is our strong belief that our result shall remain important.
332 This is because small-scale fisheries still occupy approximately 50 % of global fish production in
333 developing countries and will remain so over the next 20 to 30 years (Franz and Stamoulis, 2015).

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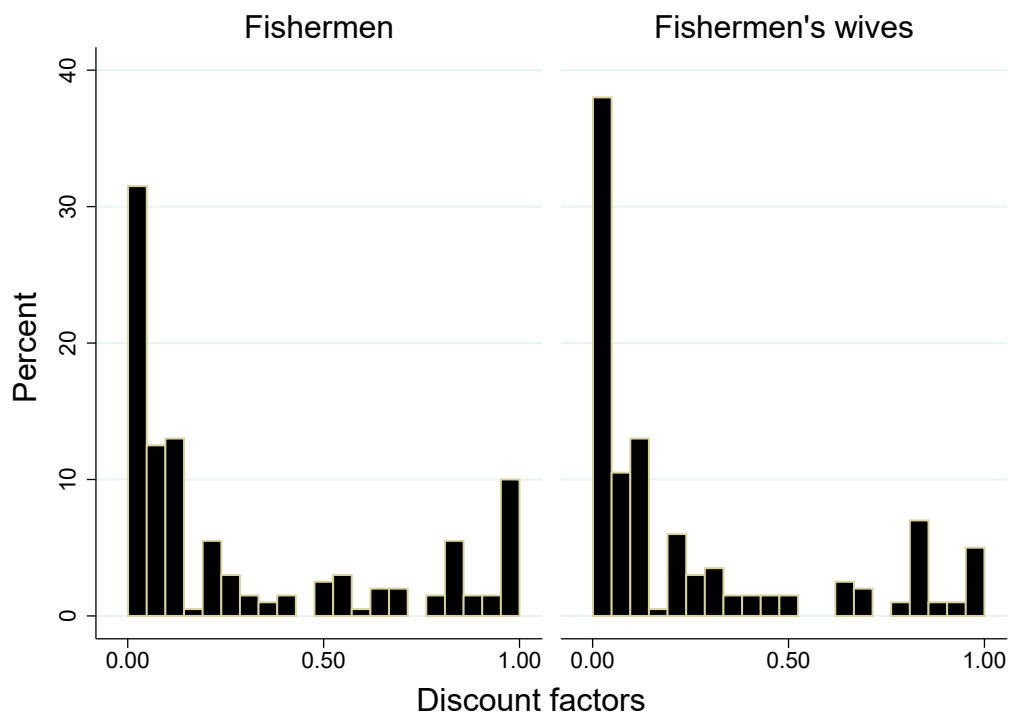
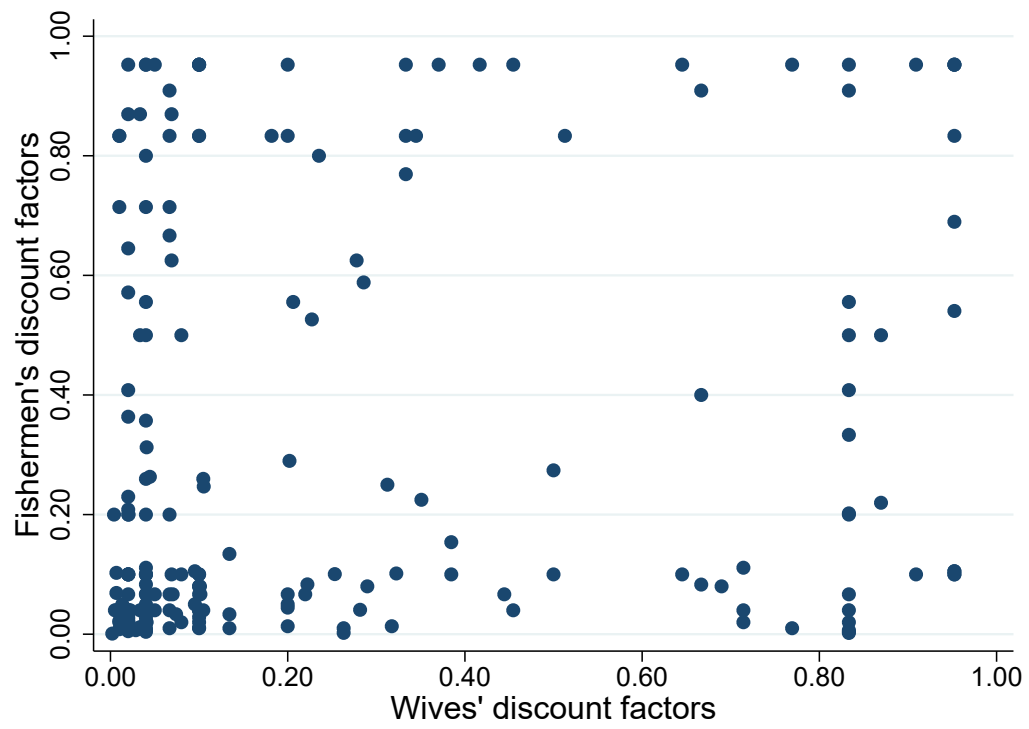


Figure 2: Frequency distributions of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors

Figure 3: Scatter plot of fishermen's and their wives' discount factors



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Table 1: Occupation types of fishermen's wives

Occupation types	Number of wives	Percentage
Entrepreneurs	4	2.00
Fish processors	12	6.00
Mending nets	3	1.50
Traders	36	18.00
Trap fishers	1	0.50
Other occupations	2	1.00
Housewives (not working)	142	71.00
Total	200	100.00

Table 2: Definitions of variables used in statistical analysis

Variable	Description
Discount factor	Percentage rate of discounting the future monetary value that will surely be received one month later in such a way that the discounted future value equals the value of receiving 20 000 Rp today.
Fisherman's discount factor	Percentage rate of discounting the future monetary value of a fisherman that will surely be received one month later in such a way that the discounted future value equals the value of receiving 20 000 Rp today.
Wife's discount factor	Percentage rate of discounting the future monetary value of a fisherman's wife that will surely be received one month later in such a way that the discounted future value equals the value of receiving 20 000 Rp today.
Wife's income	Fishermen's wives' income in 1 million Rp.
Fisherman's age	Years.
Wife's age	Years.
Fisherman's (wife's) education	Categorical variable (Illiterate (0), Elementary Level (1), Junior High School Level (2), Senior High School Level (3) College Degree (4) and University Degree (5)).
Household members	Number of household members.

Table 3: Summary statistics of the variables with 400 observations

	Average (Median) ¹	SD ²	Min	Max
Dependent variables				
Fisherman's discount factor	0.302 (0.100)	0.344	0.001	0.952
Wife's discount factor	0.252 (0.100)	0.310	0.002	0.952
Independent variables				
Fisherman's income	2.495 (1.900)	2.247	0.500	20.000
Wife's income	0.367 (0.000)	0.714	0.000	4.000
Fisherman's age	40.955 (40.000)	12.100	18.000	72.000
Wife's age	38.395 (36.500)	11.363	17.000	70.000
Fisherman's education ³	1.025 (1.000)	0.535	0.000	3.000
Number of household members	4.535 (4.000)	1.954	1.000	12.000

¹ Median in parentheses.

² SD stands for standard deviation.

³ Regarding education, we identify that fishermen's education is identical to their wives' one. Therefore, we only report fishermen's education in this table.

Table 4: Marginal effects of the betafit regression for fishermen's and their wives' discount factors

Independent variable	Model 1 (Fishermen)	Model 2 (Fishermen's wives)
Fisherman's income	0.006 (0.007)	0.009* (0.005)
Wife's income	0.056** (0.028)	0.051** (0.024)
Fisherman's age	0.003 (0.002)	-0.003 (0.002)
Wife's age	-0.001 (0.002)	0.010 (0.002)
Fisherman's education	0.058 (0.040)	-0.008 (0.030)
Number of household members	-0.015* (0.008)	-0.007 (0.006)

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