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# Accountability as a resolution for intergenerational sustainability dilemma

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# Accountability as a resolution for intergenerational sustainability dilemma

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## Abstract

“Intergenerational sustainability dilemma (ISD)” is a situation where the current generation chooses actions to her benefit without considering future generations under current economic and political systems, compromising intergenerational sustainability (Kamijo et al., 2017, Shahrier et al., 2017). We institute a new mechanism to improve intergenerational sustainability called “intergenerational accountability (IA)” and examine its effectiveness through field experiments consisting of ISD games (ISDGs). In Baseline ISDG, a sequence of six generations, each composed of three members, is organized, and each generation is asked to choose whether to maintain intergenerational sustainability (sustainable option) or maximize their payoff by irreversibly imposing costs on future generations (unsustainable option) within a 10-minute deliberation. With IA, each generation is asked to provide the reasons of her decision as well as her advice to future generations that are passed to subsequent generations. Our results show that generations under IA choose a sustainable option much more often than under Baseline ISDG, giving positive reasons and advice for sustainable options to subsequent generations. Overall, one-way communication of reasons and advice in IA is identified to function as a social device to not only transfer a common image but also decrease social distance over generations for intergenerational sustainability.

**Key Words:** Intergenerational sustainability dilemma; intergenerational accountability; field experiments

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## Nomenclature

- IA Intergenerational accountability
- IFG Imaginary future generations
- ISD Intergenerational sustainability dilemma
- ISDG Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game
- NPR Nepalese rupees
- SVO Social value orientation
- USD US dollars

# 1 Introduction

Maintaining intergenerational sustainability has become one of the greatest challenges due to its unidirectional nature in the sense that the current generation affects the future ones, but the opposite is not true. In particular, the current generation chooses an action that is to her benefit, leaving more burdens on future generations and compromising intergenerational sustainability under current economic and political systems, which we call “intergenerational sustainability dilemma (ISD)” (Kamijo et al., 2017, Shahrier et al., 2017). Many important problems are considered to have occurred due to ISD, such as climate change and government debts, threatening sustainability of subsequent generations (Garri, 2010, Fischer et al., 2004, Hauser et al., 2014, Sherstyuk et al., 2016, Hansen and Imrohoroglu, 2016, Kamijo et al., 2017, Shahrier et al., 2017). Possible solutions to maintain intergenerational sustainability have been discussed in relation to responsibility, justice and equity. However, contemporary institutions such as capitalism and democracy are claimed not to be effective at maintaining intergenerational sustainability, because they fail to ensure an efficient allocation of resources such as natural resources, public and environmental goods as well as their intergenerational provisions (Krutilla, 1967, Barry, 1997, Wolf, 2007, 2008, Milinski et al., 2006, Hauser et al., 2014). This paper addresses ISD and the potential solution of how to maintain intergenerational sustainability.

Past studies examine people’s decisions for intergenerational sustainability, employing experimental approach. Sherstyuk et al. (2016) analyze the level of difficulties for maintaining dynamic externalities over multiple generations. They find that controlling dynamic externalities is challenging under intergenerational settings because individuals make selfish decisions, as compared with non-intergenerational settings. Fischer et al. (2004) demonstrate that an existence of “intergenerational links” motivates people to exploit fewer resources in an intergenerational common pool experiment, enhancing sustainability. Hauser et al. (2014) demonstrate that median voting as an institution promotes sustainability in an intergenerational goods game. Kamijo et al. (2017) design and implement ISD game (hereafter, ISDG) and show that introducing an agent for future generations named as an imaginary future generation (IFG) in a group decision process improves

28 intergenerational sustainability. Shahrier et al. (2017) conduct ISDG field experiments in rural and  
29 urban areas of Bangladesh, demonstrating that rural people choose sustainable options more often  
30 than do urban people. Overall, resource sustainability in an intergenerational setting is found to be  
31 affected by individual social preferences and institutions.

32 Schotter and Sopher (2003, 2006, 2007), Chaudhuri et al. (2006) and Chaudhuri et al. (2009)  
33 address the roles of advice & communication in ultimatum games, coordination in minimum effort  
34 games and voluntary contributions to public goods with an intergenerational context.<sup>1</sup> Schotter and  
35 Sopher (2003, 2006, 2007) show that wisdom and knowledge accumulate over generations by ad-  
36 vice & communications and promote creating social convention and/or norms, leading generations  
37 to learn reciprocity and fairness. Chaudhuri et al. (2006) find an importance of social learning pro-  
38 cesses created by the previous generation's advice to subsequent generations, demonstrating that  
39 such intergenerational social learning enhances norms of cooperation to address public goods prob-  
40 lems. Overall, the previous literature establishes that advice & communications can be effective to  
41 solve some classes of allocation and public goods problems in an intergenerational setting.

42 Schotter and Sopher (2003, 2006, 2007), Chaudhuri et al. (2006) and Chaudhuri et al. (2009)  
43 use the experimental games in which the current generation is incentivized to give advice to sub-  
44 sequent generations for their better plays, and the possibility of Pareto improvement mostly exists.  
45 More specifically, the current generation's payoff depends on subsequent generations' actions (or  
46 performances). In this type of experimental settings, Schotter and Sopher (2003, 2006, 2007),  
47 Chaudhuri et al. (2006) and Chaudhuri et al. (2009) focus on addressing the roles of social learn-  
48 ing through advice over generations. On the other hand, in ISD, the current generation affects  
49 subsequent generations, but the opposite is not true where there is no possibility of Pareto im-  
50 provement across generations. In other words, the current generation's payoff does not depend  
51 on subsequent generations' ones, but subsequent generations' payoffs depend on the current gen-  
52 eration's payoff in a unidirectional manner. This is a unique feature in ISD and different from

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<sup>1</sup>Hackett et al. (1994), Carpenter (2000), Fehr and Gächter (2000), Brosig et al. (2003) and Lopez and Villamayor-Tomas (2017) also demonstrate that advice and communications are effective to enhance cooperation in an intra-generational or intra-group setting.

53 the experimental games in previous literature, reflecting environmental and resource sustainability  
54 problems over generations. Our main focus is on addressing intergenerational sustainability and a  
55 possible mechanism to resolve ISD.

56 None of the past studies have addressed how communication of reasons and advice resolves  
57 ISD where the current generation unidirectionally affects future generations, but the opposite is not  
58 true. We design and institute a mechanism with accountability of reasons and advice as a one-way  
59 communication device from the current generation to the subsequent generations, possibly im-  
60 proving intergenerational sustainability, which we call the “intergenerational accountability” (IA)  
61 and examine its effectiveness using ISDG field experiments ISDG in Nepal. In Baseline ISDG, a  
62 sequence of six generations is organized and each generation can either maintain intergenerational  
63 sustainability (sustainable option) or maximize her own generation’s payoff by irreversibly costing  
64 future generations (unsustainable option) within a 10-minute deliberation. With IA, each gener-  
65 ation is asked to provide the underlying reasons of her decision as well as her advice to future  
66 generations that are passed to the subsequent generations. The results reveal that, in IA, gener-  
67 ations are more likely to choose sustainable option than under Baseline ISDG and IFG, giving  
68 positive reasons and advice for sustainable option to the subsequent generations. Overall, one-way  
69 communication of reasons and advice in IA is identified to work as a social device for not only  
70 transferring a common image but also decreasing social distance over generations for intergenera-  
71 tional sustainability.

## 72 **2 Materials and methods**

### 73 **2.1 Study areas**

74 We conduct experiments in the following regions of Nepal: Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur  
75 and Pokhara (figure 1). These regions are homogeneous in terms of culture, language, economy  
76 and religion. The residents are usually ranked high on the human development index (HDI) on  
77 the basis of UNDP (2014), and the population density is also high in the regions. For instance,

78 Kathmandu has a population density 4416 people per km<sup>2</sup> (Central Bureau of Statistics, 2011) and  
79 is the most crowded city, with 24.3 % of the total urban population of Nepal. Large cities such as  
80 Kathmandu, Lalitpur, Bhaktapur and Pokhara are the center for businesses and services.

81 [Figure 1 about here.]

## 82 **2.2 Experimental setup**

83 We conduct intergenerational sustainability dilemma game (ISDG), individual interviews, so-  
84 cial value orientation (SVO) game and questionnaire surveys to collect behavioral and sociodemo-  
85 graphic data.

### 86 **Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game (ISDG)**

87 We first explain Baseline ISDG, following Kamijo et al. (2017) and Shahrier et al. (2017). A  
88 group of three subjects are called a generation, and each generation chooses between options  $A$  and  
89  $B$ . The generation receives a payoff of  $X$  for choosing option  $A$  and a payoff  $X - 300$  for choosing  
90 option  $B$ . After making a choice between options  $A$  and  $B$ , the generation is asked to split the  
91 payoff associated with the option they choose among the generation members, which is considered  
92 “their generation’s individual share.” Each of the subject’s payoff is the sum of their generation’s  
93 individual share plus initial experimental endowment of 300. For example, the generation earns  
94 1200 experimental point ( $X = 1200$ ) by choosing option  $A$ , whereas the generation earns 900  
95 points ( $= X - 300 = 1200 - 300$ ) by choosing option  $B$ . Consequently, if members in this  
96 generation split the payoff equally among them, each member earns 400 by choosing option  $A$   
97 and 300 by choosing option  $B$  as their generation’s individual share. Therefore, the total payoff of  
98 each subject with the generation choice of option  $A$  is 700 ( $= 400 + 300$ ), whereas the payoff is  
99 600 ( $= 300 + 300$ ) when choosing option  $B$ .

100 Each generation is allowed to deliberate about choosing between options  $A$  and  $B$  and how to  
101 split the generation’s payoff within a 10-minute discussion. However, when the decisions cannot be



102 made within 10 minutes, the following rules are applied: (1) if the generation's payoff is positive,  
103 each member receives an initial endowment of 300 points only, (2) if the generation payoff is  
104 negative, say,  $-Z$ , each member equally splits  $-Z$  by three and receives the payment of  $-\frac{Z}{3}$   
105 plus initial endowment of 300 points. Each session consists of 18  $\sim$  24 subjects, organized into  
106 6  $\sim$  8 generations. Each generation is randomly assigned to the 1st, 2nd, . . . and 6th generations.  
107 When the number of subjects participating in a session are 21 or 24, we organize 7th and even  
108 8th generations; however, they are assigned as 1st and 2nd in another sequence of generations as  
109 shown in figure 2.

110 [Figure 2 about here.]

111 Current generation's decision affects the subsequent generations such that subsequent gener-  
112 ations' payoffs decline uniformly by 300 points when the current generation chooses option  $A$ .  
113 Suppose that  $X = 1200$  and the 1st generation chooses option  $A$ . Then, the 2nd generation will  
114 face the game in which they can get 900 and 600 by choosing options  $A$  and  $B$ , respectively.  
115 However, if the 1st generation chooses option  $B$ , the next generation can have the same decision  
116 environment as that of the 1st generation. When the 1st generation chooses option  $B$ , the 2nd  
117 generation plays a game in which they can get 1200 and 900 by choosing options  $A$  and  $B$ , respec-  
118 tively. Following the same rule, the game continues for the rest of the subsequent two generations  
119 (i.e., between  $i$ th and  $i + 1$ th generations). Hence, option  $B$  can be considered a "sustainable  
120 option," whereas option  $A$  is the choice that compromises intergenerational sustainability and can  
121 be considered as an "unsustainable option." In each session, the 1st generation starts ISDG with  
122  $X = 1200$ , implying that the 5th and 6th generations may face the game in which options  $A$  and  
123  $B$  are associated with payoffs of zero and or a negative payoff of  $-300$ , respectively, if all pre-  
124 vious generations keep choosing option  $A$ . In such a situation, generation members equally split  
125 their zero or a negative payoff that will makes the individual payoff to be 300 or at least zero by  
126 summing it with an initial endowment of 300 points.

127 In this paper, a new mechanism called "intergenerational accountability" (IA) is instituted as a  
128 treatment to improve intergenerational sustainability in ISDG. The IA mechanism is explained as

129 follows:

- 130 • **ISDG with IA:** In IA treatment, generations are asked to choose between options *A* and *B*  
131 through deliberation up to 10 minutes as in Baseline ISDG, however, at the same time, they  
132 are also asked to be accountable for their decisions by writing the associated reasons and  
133 advice to their subsequent generations in a paper.<sup>2</sup> We ensure that each generation’s reasons  
134 and advice shall be passed to their subsequent generations within a sequence.

135 We hypothesize that IA treatment shall be effective at maintaining intergenerational sustainability  
136 in ISDG through one-way communication from the current to the subsequent generations by being  
137 accountable, and our idea is partly inspired by the previous literature, such as Schotter and Sopher  
138 (2003, 2006, 2007), Chaudhuri et al. (2006) and Chaudhuri et al. (2009).

139 For the purpose of comparison with previous literature such as Kamijo et al. (2017) and  
140 Shahrier et al. (2017), we include the imaginary future generations (IFG) as another treatment  
141 and evaluate which works better, IFG or IA.

- 142 • **ISDG with IFG:** In IFG treatment, generations are asked to choose between options *A* and  
143 *B* through deliberation up to 10 minutes as in Baseline ISDG, however, one member in  
144 a generation is randomly assigned to be a representative for future generations called an  
145 “imaginary future generation (IFG).” The IFG person is asked to discuss by considering not  
146 only the current generation but also the subsequent generations for deciding between options  
147 *A* and *B* without any coercive obligation. The rest of two members know that one member  
148 is asked to play such an IFG role.

149 Overall, we prepare three treatments of Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA, conducting field experi-  
150 ments with between-subject designs. A novelty in this research lies in instituting and implement-  
151 ing IA in the context of ISD and evaluating its effectiveness for intergenerational sustainability.  
152 In the ISDG experiment, subjects are paid 550 NPR ( $\approx$  5.00 USD) at maximum and 350 NPR ( $\approx$   
153 3.00 USD) on the average.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup>Mulgan (2000) defines accountability as a sense of being accountable for one’s own actions.

<sup>3</sup>The NPR stands for Nepalese rupees.

## 154 **2.3 Experimental procedures**

155 We hire local supporting staffs and research assistants (the first author is a chief administrator  
156 for our experiments). We conduct occupation-based randomization by selecting the desired num-  
157 ber of subjects from each occupation, such as banking, government, health, education, business,  
158 transportation, entertainment and students. The experiments are implemented at district health or-  
159 ganization training halls and public seminar halls that are located in the center of the cities and  
160 consist of many rooms. We send invitation letters to different offices requesting people to partic-  
161 ipate in our experiments. The letters are dispatched to the selected organizations one week prior  
162 to the experiment. We conduct experiments on the weekend and, due to the enough incentives, the  
163 participation rate is 80 %.

164 Upon arriving at the locations, subjects are gathered in one hall and they are given experi-  
165 mental instructions in their native language (Nepali). Once everybody is present in a room, an  
166 experimenter (the first author) provides the subjects a verbal explanation of the experimental rules.  
167 To maintain anonymity across generations, we first confirm that subjects fully understand the rules,  
168 and second, they are asked to proceed toward a door and pick a chip containing their generation  
169 ID and individual ID from a bag. Each subject goes to a specific room according to their IDs. The  
170 generations are separated into rooms based on their generation IDs. In this way, subjects do not  
171 know who belong to each generation (each subject only knows the members in her generation).  
172 The subjects know that they are assigned to one generation within a sequence; however, they are  
173 not informed of which generation is the last in the sequence.

174 The research assistants distribute questionnaires and again explain the experimental procedures  
175 to subjects. In the ISDG, the 1st generation deliberates to choose between options *A* and *B* up  
176 to 10 minutes. The deliberation is recorded, and their generation decision is confirmed. Once  
177 a generation makes the decision, the members are asked to move to a different room to ensure  
178 anonymity. After the 1st generation's decision, we proceed to the 2nd generation and continue the  
179 experiment with the same procedures. The same routine is applied to the remaining generations,  
180 i.e., from the 3rd to the 6th. The decisions of the previous generations are written on a white-board,

181 and each subject in a generation is asked to confirm which generation they belong to in a sequence  
182 and the payoffs associated with options *A* and *B* before deliberation. Therefore, each generation  
183 can see the payoff structure as well as how many times options *A* and *B* have been chosen by  
184 the previous generations. With this information, each generation deliberates and decide between  
185 options *A* and *B*. After the ISDG is complete, we conduct individual interviews, the SVO game  
186 and questionnaire surveys for their sociodemographic and psychological information.

### 187 **Individual interviews**

188 An individual interview has been conducted for each subject after her generation chooses be-  
189 tween options *A* and *B*. In this interview, we investigate the patterns of the shift in individual  
190 opinions to support *A*, *B* or to be ambivalent (to have no ideas) coded as *N* as “individual initial  
191 opinion” and “individual final opinion” before and after the deliberation, respectively. Each sub-  
192 ject is asked to recall and answer whether she has supported *A*, *B* or *N* and the associated reasons  
193 “before and after” deliberation. The interviewers ask questions such as (1) “your personal opinion  
194 might have been different from the generation decision. At the moment of the generation decision,  
195 what did you really want to support as your personal opinion?” for her “individual final opinion”  
196 and the corresponding reasons and (2) “Before the deliberation started, what did you really support  
197 as your personal opinion?” for her “individual initial opinion” and the corresponding reasons.

198 The individual interviews identify whether or not each subject changes her individual opinion  
199 to support *A*, *B* or *N* through deliberation. For instance, some subject is recognized to have sup-  
200 ported *A* as her “individual initial opinion” before deliberation but to have ended up supporting  
201 *B* as her “individual final opinion” after deliberation. In this case, her opinion change is coded as  
202 *AB*, where the first letter represents her initial support for *A* before deliberation and the second  
203 letter does her final support for *B* after deliberation. In the same manner, we identify and code  
204 subjects’ opinion changes through individual interviews, and the possible combinations of opinion  
205 changes are *AA*, *AB*, *AN*, *BA*, *BB*, *BN*, *NA*, *NB* and *NN*. With this information about individ-  
206 ual opinion changes before and after deliberation, we can also identify whether each generation has

207 a unanimous opinion agreement to choose between options  $A$  and  $B$  before and after deliberation.<sup>4</sup>

## 208 Social value orientation (SVO) games

209 The SVO game with the “slider method” has been utilized to identify subjects as either proso-  
210 cial or prosel (Murphy et al., 2011). Figure 3 shows six items of the slider measure that gives  
211 numbers to represent outcomes for oneself and the other in a pair of persons where the other is  
212 unknown to the subject. Subjects are asked to make a choice among the nine options for each item.  
213 Each subject chooses her allocation by marking a line at the point that defines her most preferred  
214 distribution between oneself and the other. The mean allocation for oneself  $\bar{A}_s$  and the mean allo-  
215 cation for the other  $\bar{A}_o$  are computed from all six items (see Figure 3). Then, 50 is subtracted from  
216  $\bar{A}_s$ , and  $\bar{A}_o$  to shift the base of the resulting angle to the center of the circle (50, 50). The index  
217 of a subject’s SVO is given by  $SVO = \arctan \frac{(\bar{A}_o)-50}{(\bar{A}_s)-50}$ . Depending on the values generated from  
218 the test, social preferences are categorized as follows: 1. altruist:  $SVO > 57.15^\circ$ , 2. prosocial:  
219  $22.45^\circ < SVO < 57.15^\circ$ , 3. individualist:  $-12.04^\circ < SVO < 22.45^\circ$  and 4. competitive types:  
220  $SVO < -12.04^\circ$ .

221 [Figure 3 about here.]

222 The SVO framework assumes that people have different motivations and goals for evaluating  
223 resource allocations between oneself and others. Also, the SVOs are established to be stable for a  
224 long time (see, e.g., Van Lange et al., 2007, Brosig-Koch et al., 2011). Responses that are yielded  
225 from six primary items give complete categories of social preferences. A major reason for using  
226 six primary slider measures by Murphy et al. (2011) is due to its simplicity and easy to implement  
227 in the fields of Nepal. It is very intuitive for subjects to understand even with a limited level of

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<sup>4</sup>An alternative way to collect the same data of individual opinions is to incentivize or to ask each subject to reveal their opinions to support  $A$ ,  $B$  or  $N$  in a timely manner, i.e., each subject is asked to reveal an “individual initial opinion” before deliberation and again asked to reveal an “individual final opinion” after deliberation. However, this timely-manner procedure does not reflect the process of deliberative group decisions, and it is also reported to induce subjects to have strong priming and anchoring effects that unnecessarily influence group deliberation and decisions (Kahneman, 2011, Kotani et al., 2014). Qualitative behavioral research establishes that individual opinions and ideas are truthfully elicited by interviews after the incidences of interest (Brinkmann, 2014).

228 education. As it is done in psychology research, we further simplify the four categories of social  
229 preferences into two categories of prosocial and proself types; “altruist” and “prosocial” types are  
230 categorized as prosocial subjects, while “individualistic” and “competitive” types are categorized  
231 as “proself” subjects (see Murphy et al., 2011). Respondents are informed that the units in this  
232 game are points, meaning that the more points they get, the more real money they will earn.<sup>5</sup>

233 An exchange rate is applied to the points in the SVO game to determine the monetary reward,  
234 and subjects receives 150 NPR ( $\approx$  1.5 USD) at maximum and 100 NPR ( $\approx$  1.0 USD) on an average.  
235 The decisions for this SVO game are made with complete privacy as subjects are instructed not  
236 to communicate each other. To compute the payoffs of the subjects, we collect the answer sheets  
237 from all subjects in a session, and we randomly match one subject with another as a pair. The  
238 payoff for each subject in the SVO game is the summation of points from 6 selections by herself as  
239 “You” and 6 selection by the partner as “Other.” We explain the methods of random matching and  
240 payoff calculation with information of the exchange rate for the real money incentive to subjects  
241 before starting the SVO game. We then proceed to the questionnaire surveys after the SVO game,  
242 and subjects who finish the questionnaire receive all the payments from ISDG and SVO games,  
243 leaving the experimental rooms.

### 244 **3 Results**

245 A total of 154 generations participated in our experiments where 59 generations did Baseline  
246 ISDG, 47 generations did ISDG with imaginary future generation (IFG) treatment and 48 gener-  
247 ations did ISDG with intergenerational accountability (IA) treatment. First, we present summary  
248 statistics of generation decisions over Baseline ISD, IFG and IA treatments, respectively. Second,  
249 we analyze the effects of IFG and IA on generation choices in ISDG. Table 1 shows the frequen-  
250 cies and percentages of generation choices for sustainable option *B* and unsustainable option *A* in  
251 Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA. About 64.41 %, 70.22 % and 85.42 % of generations chose option *B*

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<sup>5</sup>For details, see the instructions in figure 3.

252 in Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA, respectively, suggesting that generations are more likely to choose  
253 sustainable option *B* in IA than in Baseline ISDG and IFG. To confirm whether the distributions  
254 of generation choices *A* and *B* are independent of the treatments, pair-wise chi-squared tests have  
255 been performed by taking the following pairs: Baseline ISDG versus IFG, Baseline ISDG versus  
256 IA and IFG versus IA. A null hypothesis is that the distributions of generation choices *A* and *B* are  
257 the same for a pair of treatments. Our results reject the null hypothesis for Baseline ISDG versus  
258 IA ( $\chi^2 = 6.05, p = 0.014$ ) and IFG versus IA ( $\chi^2 = 3.19, p = 0.07$ ) significantly at 5 % and 10 %  
259 level, however, fails to reject it for Baseline ISDG versus IFG. These results confirm that IA affects  
260 more generations to choose sustainable option *B* than any other treatment.

261 [Table 1 about here.]

262 Table 2 summarizes subjects' sociodemographic variables in Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA,  
263 demonstrating that the basic characteristics, such as years of schooling, age and gender do not  
264 differ among treatments as shown by means and standard deviations. In table 2, it is confirmed  
265 that the number of prosocial members per generation across the treatments is not so different one  
266 another. Table 3 demonstrates the proportions of generation choice *B* with respect to the number of  
267 prosocial members per generation in each treatment, presenting that the percentages of generation  
268 choice *B* tend to increase in the number of prosocial members per generations in each treatment.  
269 This result is consistent with literature in that prosocial people play an important role in coopera-  
270 tion to sustain common pool resources and/or public goods (Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017, Timilsina  
271 et al., 2017).

272 [Table 2 about here.]

273 [Table 3 about here.]

274 Table 3 shows that 37.50 %, 66.66 % and 60.00 % of generations choose option *B* in Baseline  
275 ISDG, IFG and IA, respectively, when three members in a generation consist of only proself sub-  
276 jects (or zero prosocials). When there are one prosocial and two proself members in a generation,

277 50.00 %, 72.00 % and 88.88 % of generations choose option *B* in Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA, re-  
278 spectively. These findings imply that a generation usually chooses option *A* in Basic ISDG, when  
279 a majority of members are proself. However, in IFG and IA, a generation is likely to choose option  
280 *B* even in the same situation, suggesting that IFG and IA may be effective to induce generations to  
281 choose option *B*. When a generation contains two or three prosocial members, most generations  
282 choose option *B*, irrespective of treatments.

283 Tables 1 to 3 suggest that the number of prosocial members per generation and IFG & IA  
284 might be strong determinants for generation choices between options *A* and *B*. Hence, to statis-  
285 tically characterize this, we run three models of logistic regression by taking a dummy variable  
286 of generation choice *B* as a dependent variable and other variables as independent ones. Model  
287 1 uses the data in Baseline ISDG taking that the number of prosocial members per generation is  
288 an independent variable. Model 2 uses the data in Baseline ISDG and IFG taking the number of  
289 prosocial members and IFG treatment dummy as independent variables. Finally, model 3 uses the  
290 data in Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA taking that the number of prosocial members per generation,  
291 IFG and IA treatment dummies as independent variables.<sup>6</sup> The detailed definition of each variable  
292 used in the logistic regression is explained in table 4.

293 [Table 4 about here.]

294 [Table 5 about here.]

295 Table 5 reports the marginal effects of independent variables on generation choice *B* in logistic  
296 regressions. Models 1, 2 and 3 consistently show that the number of prosocial members per gen-  
297 eration and IA dummy are economically and statistically significant, affecting the likelihood for  
298 generations to choose option *B*. On the other hand, IFG dummy in models 2 and 3 are identified  
299 to be insignificant. Models 1, 2 and 3 in table 5 show that if the number of prosocial members per

---

<sup>6</sup>Models 1, 2 and 3 have been estimated including other sociodemographic variables at group level, such as gender, years of schooling and so on, showing that they are neither statistically nor economically significant. In other words, the results remain the same as the main ones that will be presented in this paper. Therefore, we have excluded such insignificant sociodemographic variables in regression.



300 generation increases by one, a generation is more likely to choose option *B* by 8.70 %. Model 3 in  
301 table 5 reveals a significant IA treatment effect on the probability for generations to choose option  
302 *B*, suggesting that generations in IA are 22.30 % more likely to choose option *B* as compared with  
303 those in Baseline ISDG. Overall, the results in logistic regression show that the number of proso-  
304 cial members per generation and IA dummy are key determinants at maintaining intergenerational  
305 sustainability. In particular, IA is identified to be effective for inducing people to choose option *B*  
306 much more frequently than any other treatment.

307 [Table 6 about here.]

308 To qualitatively identify the further treatment effects of Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA, we uti-  
309 lize the data of individual interviews that were conducted after generation choices are made. As  
310 mentioned earlier, the interviews enable to trace a change in each subject’s “individual initial opin-  
311 ion” and “individual final opinion” to have supported *A*, *B* and/or to be *N* ambivalent (to have no  
312 ideas) before and after deliberation, respectively. When there are no changes between “ individual  
313 initial opinion” and “individual final opinion,” such situations are coded as *AA*, *BB* or *NN* where  
314 the first (second) letter represents her initial (final) opinion to have supported *A*, *B* or *N* before  
315 (after) deliberation. The other combinations of the two letters represent situations where a subject  
316 changes individual opinions over a course of deliberation. For instance, *AB* describes a situation  
317 where a subject initially had her initial opinion to support *A* before deliberation, but changed her  
318 final opinion to support *B* after deliberation.

319 Table 6 shows that the proportions of subjects with *BB* (*AA*) are 55.93 % (16.95 %), 56.02 %  
320 (21.28 %) and 72.22 % (11.11 %) in Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA, respectively, suggesting that in-  
321 dividual opinion *BB* (*AA*) is more (less) dominant in IA than in any other treatment. Furthermore,  
322 there is a higher (lower) proportion of subjects with *AB* (*BA*) in IA than in any other treatment,  
323 implying that only deliberation does not favorably affect individual opinion changes to support  
324 option *B* in Basic ISDG and IFG, as compared with IA. The results confirm that a majority of  
325 subjects in IA tend to have consistent individual initial and final opinions with *BB*, while approx-  
326 imately half of the subjects in Baseline ISDG and IFG exhibit a wide variation in their opinions

327 other than *BB*. To statistically confirm the variation in individual initial and final opinions, we  
328 apply the coefficient of “unlikeability” as a concept of variability for an unordered categorical  
329 variable (Gordon, 1986, Kader and Perry, 2007, Frankfort-Nachmias and Leon-Guerrero, 2017).<sup>7</sup>  
330 We have identified that the coefficients of “unlikeability” in individual initial (final) opinions are  
331 0.46 (0.52), 0.43 (0.51) and 0.32 (0.32) for Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA, respectively, confirming  
332 that subjects with IA have less variation in individual initial and final opinions, leading subjects to  
333 support option *B* at individual level. The analysis suggests that IA appear to trigger members in a  
334 generation to think about their subsequent generations before and after deliberation by noting an  
335 existence of providing reasons and advice, inducing themselves to consistently support sustainable  
336 option *B* as an individual opinion. It is in line with past literature claiming that asking people  
337 reasoning in their action makes themselves more logically consistent (Elster and Rendall, 2008).

338 [Table 7 about here.]

339 Figure 4 summarizes occurrence frequencies of reasons and advice provided by each generation  
340 to subsequent generations in IA based on the seven concepts suggested by Nakagawa et al. (2016)  
341 and Timilsina et al. (2018) (See table 7 for the details of the concepts and categorization of reasons  
342 and advice).<sup>8</sup> First, “maximization of the sum of all generations’ benefits” has been identified as  
343 the most frequent concept that appears as reasons and advice in IA, which could be considered  
344 more relevant to justifying or advising option *B*. Likewise, the 2nd, 3rd and 4th frequent concepts  
345 that appear as reasons and advice in IA are “hope to avoid future generations’ disadvantages,” “ex-  
346 pectation that goodwill will succeed with choosing option *B*” and “willingness to terminate the  
347 chain of badwill,” respectively, which could also be considered more relevant to advising option *B*  
348 to subsequent generations. On the other hand, we observe the only two concepts relevant to jus-  
349 tifying and advising option *A* in IA, which are “maximization of the current generation’s benefits

---

<sup>7</sup>The coefficient of “unlikeability” measures how often observations differ from one another within the same treatment group, and it is measured on a scale from 0 to 1. The higher the value is, the less alike the observations in a variable are.

<sup>8</sup>Each generation is provided with a sheet of paper to write reasons and advice. After providing reasons and advice, generations are asked to choose one concept from the list of seven concepts that can be considered the closest to their reasons and advice. The frequency histogram is shown in table 7.

350 by choosing option *A*” and “non-negligible costs of considering future generations by choosing  
351 option *A*,” and the total occurrence frequency of these two concepts in IA is just six. Therefore,  
352 figure 4 demonstrates that IA induces the current generations to argue reasons and advice in their  
353 decisions that support choosing option *B* to subsequent generations within the same sequence.

354 Overall, the results in tables 1 to 3, 5 and 7 and figure 4 show that IA is the most effective and  
355 can be considered a social environment or an institution to enhance or maintain sustainability in an  
356 intergenerational setting. Literature in brain science, social psychology and anthropology has es-  
357 tablished that communications can enhance sympathy and/or decrease social distance for out-group  
358 members (Epley and Caruso, 2004, Laland, 2004, Gilbert and Wilson, 2007, Behrens et al., 2008,  
359 Heyes, 2012, Hein et al., 2016). In this sense, IA is considered to function as a social device to raise  
360 sympathy and solidarity beyond self-interest motives across generations through a one-way com-  
361 munication channel from the current generation to subsequent ones in ISD, leading generations’  
362 decisions towards a social norm or common image for intergenerational sustainability (Bohnet and  
363 Frey, 1999, Haidt, 2004, Elster and Rendall, 2008). This result is in line with past studies of “con-  
364 ditional cooperators” in public goods games (Fischbacher et al., 2001, Schotter and Sopher, 2003,  
365 2006, 2007, Chaudhuri et al., 2006, Hauser et al., 2014), because IA is reinterpreted as a one-way  
366 channel through which each generation is induced to be a conditional cooperator through observ-  
367 ing not only previous generations’ choices but also their associated reasons & advice, or to be a  
368 “cooperation” initiator that affects subsequent generations to be conditional cooperators.

369 [Figure 4 about here.]

## 370 **4 Conclusion**

371 This research has addressed ISD and examined the potential solution of how to maintain in-  
372 tergenerational sustainability by conducting field experiments of ISD games (ISDG) in Nepal.  
373 The three treatments of Baseline ISDG, imaginary future generation (IFG) and intergenerational

374 accountability (IA) are prepared and implemented to see whether IFG and IA work for intergen-  
375 erational sustainability. Our results demonstrate that generations under IA choose a sustainable  
376 option much more often than under Baseline ISDG and IFG, giving positive reasons and advice  
377 for sustainable options to subsequent generations. Brain scientists, social psychologists and an-  
378 thropologists establish that communications enhance sympathy and/or decrease social distance for  
379 out-group members (Epley and Caruso, 2004, Laland, 2004, Gilbert and Wilson, 2007, Behrens  
380 et al., 2008, Heyes, 2012, Hein et al., 2016). Being consistent with the literature, a one-way  
381 communication of reasons and advice with subsequent generations (out-group members) in IA is  
382 identified to function as a social device to not only transfer a common image but also decrease  
383 social distance over generations for intergenerational sustainability.

384 Our results are relevant to past experimental studies of “conditional cooperators” in public  
385 goods games (Fischbacher et al., 2001, Schotter and Sopher, 2003, 2006, 2007, Chaudhuri et al.,  
386 2006, Hauser et al., 2014). That is, people are more likely to be cooperators once they observe that  
387 others cooperate. IA can be interpreted as a social device of creating a one-way channel through  
388 which each generation is induced to be a conditional cooperator through observing not only pre-  
389 vious generations’ choices but also their associated reasons & advice, or to be a “cooperation”  
390 initiator that affects subsequent generations to be conditional cooperators through sending her rea-  
391 sons and advice. Finally, we note some limitations and future avenues of research. The results  
392 in this research are established mainly from observed behavioral data. However, the qualitative  
393 data of transcribed documents from interviews and generation discussions can be further utilized  
394 to confirm our results, following qualitative deliberative analysis (see, e.g., Krippendorff, 2003,  
395 Vaismoradi et al., 2013, Brinkmann, 2014, Corbin and Strauss, 2014, Cason and Mui, 2015, for  
396 qualitative deliberative analysis). Therefore, future studies should be able to analyze not only be-  
397 havioral data but also qualitative data for purpose of detailing how and why IA is effective. These  
398 caveats notwithstanding, it is our belief that this study is an important first step for the resolu-  
399 tion of ISD problems, hoping that further studies will ensue to suggest something new to enhance  
400 intergenerational sustainability.

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Figure 2: Structure of experiment and data collection procedures

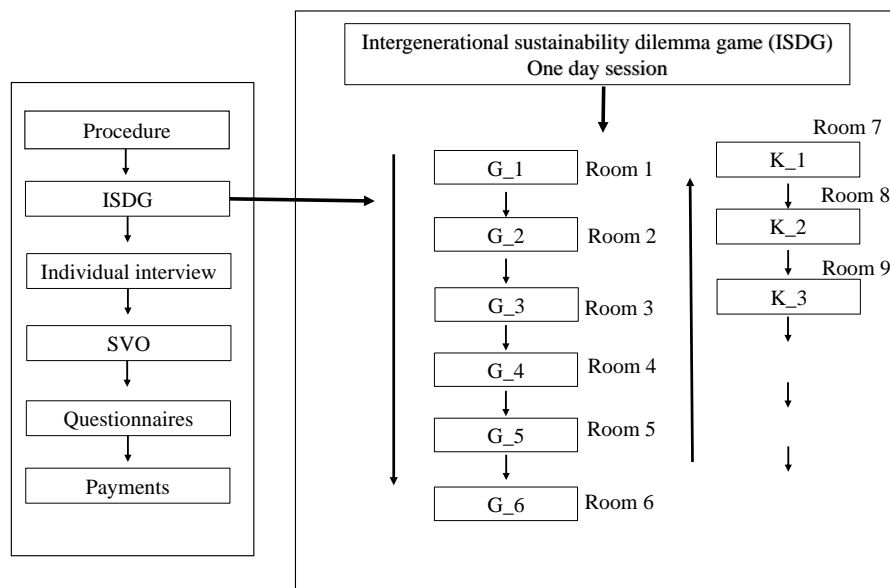


Figure 3: Instructions of the “slider method” for measuring social value orientation (Murphy et al., 2011)

**Instructions**

In this task you have been randomly paired with another person, whom we will refer to as the **other**. This other person is someone you do not know and will remain mutually anonymous. All of your choices are completely confidential. You will be making a series of decisions about allocating resources between you and this other person. For each of the following questions, please indicate the distribution you prefer most by **marking the respective position along the midline**. You can only make one mark for each question.

Your decisions will yield money for both yourself and the other person. In the example below, a person has chosen to distribute money so that he/she receives 50 dollars, while the anonymous other person receives 40 dollars.

There are no right or wrong answers, this is all about personal preferences. After you have made your decision, **write the resulting distribution of money on the spaces on the right**. As you can see, your choices will influence both the amount of money you receive as well as the amount of money the other receives.

Example:

You receive	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You <u>50</u>
Other receives	80	70	60	50	40	30	20	10	0	Other <u>40</u>

1

You receive	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	85	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You _____
Other receives	85	76	68	59	50	41	33	24	15	Other _____

2

You receive	85	87	89	91	93	94	96	98	100	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You _____
Other receives	15	19	24	28	33	37	41	46	50	Other _____

3

You receive	50	54	59	63	68	72	76	81	85	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You _____
Other receives	100	98	96	94	93	91	89	87	85	Other _____

4

You receive	50	54	59	63	68	72	76	81	85	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You _____
Other receives	100	89	79	68	58	47	36	26	15	Other _____

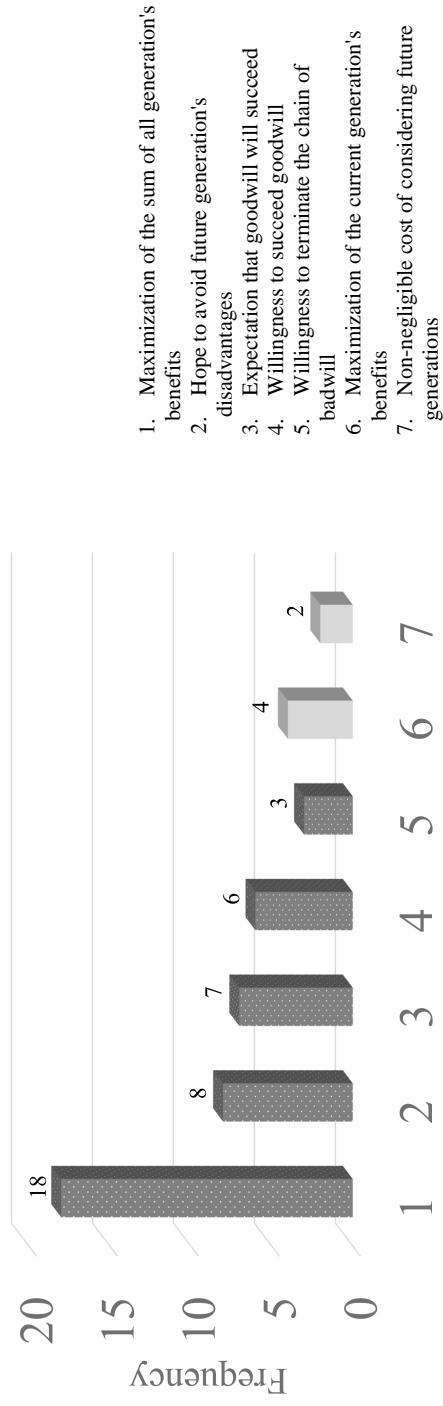
5

You receive	100	94	88	81	75	69	63	56	50	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You _____
Other receives	50	56	63	69	75	81	88	94	100	Other _____

6

You receive	100	98	96	94	93	91	89	87	85	
	----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- ----- -----									You _____
Other receives	50	54	59	63	68	72	76	81	85	Other _____

Figure 4: Frequency distribution of reasons and advice given by each generation for choosing sustainable option *B* and unsustainable option *A* in IA treatments



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Table 1: Frequencies and percentages of generation choices of option *A* and *B* in Baseline ISDG, IFG and IA

	A	B	Overall
Baseline ISDG	21 (35.59 %)	38 (64.41 %)	59 (100 %)
IFG	14 (29.78 %)	33 (70.22 %)	47 (100 %)
IA	7 (14.58 %)	41 (85.42 %)	48 (100 %)

Table 2: Summary statistics of socioeconomic characteristics: 154 generations with 462 observations

	Baseline ISDG	ISDG with IFG	ISDG with IA	Overall
<b>Age</b>				
Mean (Median) <sup>1</sup>	33.75 (34.67)	28.66 (28.00)	28.66 (27.00)	30.58 (30.00)
SD <sup>2</sup>	8.60	6.34	10.44	8.94
Min	21.00	18.00	17.67	17.67
Max	52.00	42.67	56.33	56.33
<b>Education</b>				
Mean (Median)	15.20 (16.00)	14.63 (16.00)	14.92 (15.33)	14.94 (16.00)
SD	2.54	2.85	2.32	2.57
Min	8.67	7.00	8.00	7.00
Max	18.00	18.00	20.00	20.00
<b>Number of male members</b>				
Mean (Median)	2.00 (2.00)	1.55 (2.00)	1.58 (2.00)	1.74(2.00)
SD	0.87	0.65	0.74	0.79
Min	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Max	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
<b>Number of prosocial members</b>				
Mean (Median)	1.42 (2.00)	1.47 (1.00)	1.56 (2.00)	1.48 (1.00)
SD	0.77	0.80	0.87	0.81
Min	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Max	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00

<sup>1</sup> Median in parentheses.

<sup>2</sup> SD stands for standard deviation.



Table 3: Distributions of generation choice  $B$  with respect to the number of prosocial members per generation in each treatment

# of prosocial members in one generation	Percentage of choice $B$			Overall
	Baseline	IFG	IA	
0	37.50 % ( $\approx \frac{3}{8}$ )	66.66 % ( $\approx \frac{2}{3}$ )	60.00 % ( $= \frac{3}{5}$ )	50.00 % ( $= \frac{8}{16}$ )
1	50.00 % ( $= \frac{10}{20}$ )	72.00 % ( $= \frac{18}{25}$ )	88.88 % ( $\approx \frac{16}{18}$ )	69.84 % ( $\approx \frac{44}{63}$ )
2	79.31 % ( $\approx \frac{23}{29}$ )	61.54 % ( $\approx \frac{8}{13}$ )	88.88 % ( $\approx \frac{16}{18}$ )	78.33 % ( $\approx \frac{47}{60}$ )
3	50.00 % ( $= \frac{1}{2}$ )	83.33 % ( $\approx \frac{5}{6}$ )	85.71 % ( $\approx \frac{6}{7}$ )	80.00 % ( $= \frac{12}{15}$ )
Subtotal	30.95 % ( $\approx \frac{37}{59}$ )	29.57 % ( $\approx \frac{34}{47}$ )	85.42 % ( $\approx \frac{41}{48}$ )	72.72 % ( $\approx \frac{112}{154}$ )

Table 4: Descriptions of variables included in regressions

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

Table 5: Marginal effects of Logistic regressions for generation choice *B*

Variable	Marginal effect		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
# of prosocial members	0.087** (0.044)	0.087** (0.044)	0.087** (0.044)
IFG dummy		0.061 (0.807)	0.061 (0.080)
IA dummy			0.223*** (0.083)

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

Table 6: Frequencies and percentages of change in individual opinions for supporting option “A” “B,” or “N” ambivalent/no ideas before and after the deliberation (percentage in parenthesis)

Individual opinion change	Treatments		
	Baseline	IFG	IA
<i>AA</i>	30 (16.95 %)	30 (21.28 %)	16 (11.11 %)
<i>AB</i>	12 (6.78 %)	5 (3.54 %)	12 (8.33 %)
<i>AN</i>	9 (5.08 %)	3 (2.13 %)	0 (0.00 %)
<i>BB</i>	99 (55.93 %)	79 (56.02 %)	104 (72.22 %)
<i>BA</i>	11 (6.21 %)	16 (11.35 %)	6 (4.17 %)
<i>BN</i>	9 (5.08 %)	4 (2.84 %)	5 (3.47 %)
<i>NN</i>	2 (1.13 %)	0 (0.00 %)	0 (0.00 %)
<i>NA</i>	3 (1.69 %)	1 (0.71 %)	0 (0.00 %)
<i>NB</i>	2 (1.13 %)	3 (2.13 %)	1 (0.70 %)
<b>Total</b>	<b>177 (100.00 %)</b>	<b>141 (100.00 %)</b>	<b>144 (100.00 %)</b>

Table 7: List of reasons and advice provided by each generation to subsequent generations in IA

Category	No.	Reasons	Example
Reasons for choosing <i>B</i> (Sustainable option)	1	Maximization of the sum of all generations' benefits	It is social justice and the sum of benefits will be larger if every groups choose <i>B</i> .
	2	Hope to avoid future generations' disadvantages	Nobody is happy when there is injustice and justice gives happiness to everybody, we feel that we should avoid any disadvantage to the next groups.
	3	Expectation that goodwill will succeed	We are social beings and we should think about next group and we choose option <i>B</i> because, we expect that future groups will do the same.
	4	Willingness to succeed goodwill	We should not become selfish and short sighted, if we do future group might copy us, therefore, we choose option <i>B</i> .
	5	Willingness to terminate the chain of badwill	We decided to choose <i>B</i> because it is fair for another group as it will not make any reduction on their initial choices and we would like to change a bad chain of choosing option <i>A</i> .
Reasons for choosing <i>A</i> (Unsustainable option)	6	Maximization of the current generations' benefits	All other earlier groups have kindly considered about next groups and if we choose <i>A</i> it will not make situation very bad.
	7	Non-negligible cost of considering future generations	We have chosen <i>A</i> because if we consider about next groups, we will lose benefit and they will lose incentive to work hard and to find alternative solution for their survival