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Intergenerational sustainability dilemma and a potential resolution: Future ahead and back mechanism

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Abstract

We examine whether the future ahead and back (FAB) mechanism improves intergenerational sustainability (IS) in competitive societies, conducting lab-in-the-field experiments of IS dilemma games. In baseline, each generation of three members in a lineup decides between maintaining IS (sustainable option) and prioritizing their payoff by imposing costs on subsequent generations (unsustainable option). In FAB, members in each generation first role-play those in the next generation, requesting what they want the current generation to choose. Second, they decide between two options as the current generation. Results demonstrate that FAB enhances IS, changing generations of proself people to choose sustainable options.

Key Words: Intergenerational sustainability dilemma; proself people; future ahead and back mechanism

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Nomenclature

- FAB Future ahead and back mechanism
- IFG Imaginary future generation
- IS Intergenerational sustainability
- ISD Intergenerational sustainability dilemma
- ISDG Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game
- LMIS Labor market information system
- SVO Social value orientation

1 Introduction

Intergenerational sustainability (IS) is pivotal for survival of human societies. People in the current and past generations have caused environmental problems and depletion of natural resources, compromising IS by incurring an irreversible cost for future generations (Krutilla, 1967, Fisher et al., 2004, Milinski et al., 2006, Ehrlich et al., 2012, Griggs et al., 2013, Kinzig et al., 2013, Costanza et al., 2014, Hauser et al., 2014, Steffen et al., 2015, Shahrier et al., 2016, Maxwell et al., 2016, Kamijo et al., 2017, Shahrier et al., 2017). Therefore, how to strike a balance between costs and benefits among generations is a key question (Ostrom, 1990, Milinski et al., 2006, Hauser et al., 2014). IS dilemma (ISD) is a situation of whether or not the current generation sacrifices her benefit by considering the needs of the future generations, being one of the greatest challenges for human societies (see, e.g., Shahan et al., 2021, Timilsina et al., 2022). It is due to the fact that the current generation unidirectionally affects future generations and tends to prioritize her benefit in ISD, endangering sustainability (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). Such a negative consequence in ISD is consistent with the prediction of economic theory, and IS shall not be maintained without introducing new mechanisms (Dawes, 1980, Hauser et al., 2014, Shahrier et al., 2017, Timilsina et al., 2021). This research addresses how people and generations behave in ISD and the effectiveness of a newly designed mechanism to improve IS in employing economic field experiments.

Several past studies examine people's decisions for IS employing experiments of common pool resources, externality game, intergenerational goods game and ISD game (ISDG). First, we note findings from the studies that use experiments other than the ISDG. Fisher et al. (2004) find that an intergenerational link does not restrain subjects from overexploiting common pool resources, while it creates an expectation about the peers that they would bear the intergenerational responsibility. Hauser et al. (2014) find that the existence of a few defectors causes overexploitation of intergenerational goods and, thus, median voting or democracy can maintain IS by resisting the defectors. However, they suggest that median voting works only when there are not many de-

28 factors. Sherstyuk et al. (2016) reveal that maintaining dynamic externalities is more difficult in
29 intergenerational settings than in settings with infinitely-lived decision makers. Overall, these stud-
30 ies indicate that sustaining IS is challenging as people are likely to maximize their own payoffs,
31 and some mechanism should be necessary to uphold it.

32 Kamijo et al. (2017) design and implement an ISDG lab experiment with one generation of
33 three subjects, asking each generation to decide between sustainable and unsustainable options
34 through 10-minute deliberation. They present that introducing an imaginary future person as a
35 representative for future generations (hereafter, IFG mechanism) in each generation's delibera-
36 tion improves IS. Shahen et al. (2021) demonstrate that taking the perspective of future genera-
37 tions motivates subjects to choose a sustainable option for IS in a lab experiment of a one-person
38 ISDG. Timilsina et al. (2021) demonstrate that urban society consists of a number of people with
39 stable preferences over maximizing their own generation's payoffs, influencing others to follow
40 them. Timilsina et al. (2022) explore that intragenerational deliberation does not lead to an opin-
41 ion change towards maintaining IS in urban societies. All in all, some mechanisms, such as IFG,
42 may be an effective way to improve IS. However, maintaining it in the urban areas seems to be
43 more challenging than in the rural areas.

44 Shahrier et al. (2017) conduct ISDG field experiments in rural and urban areas of Bangladesh,
45 demonstrating that rural people choose much more sustainable options than do urban people. Con-
46 trary to Kamijo et al. (2017), Shahrier et al. (2017) find that urban people fail to maintain IS
47 even under IFG mechanism. Approximately 60 % of student subjects at the ISDG laboratory ex-
48 periments in Kamijo et al. (2017) are prosocial, and generations with such prosocial subjects are
49 identified to choose sustainable options under IFG. On the other hand, only 20 % of urban subjects
50 are prosocial at the ISDG experiments in Shahrier et al. (2017), and generations with such proself
51 subjects are identified to choose unsustainable options even under IFG. It appears that when proself
52 people face ISD, they tend to be unsustainable even under median voting, deliberation or IFG.

53 The literature indicates that societies will be urbanized and the number of proself people will
54 increase in the future, especially in developing countries. They project that, by 2050, 66 % of the

55 global population will reside in urban cities, and the cities in developing countries of Africa and
56 Asia will account for the 75 % urbanities in the world (American Association for the Advance-
57 ment of Science, 2016, Wigginton et al., 2016, McDonnell and MacGregor-Fors, 2016). A number
58 of studies demonstrate that people become more proself with ongoing urbanization in develop-
59 ing countries (Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017, Timilsina et al., 2017, 2019, 2021, Shahen et al., 2019,
60 Jingchao et al., 2021). Considering the ongoing urbanization and the possible increase in the num-
61 ber of proself people in developing countries, a strong mechanism is necessary to maintain IS in
62 the urbanized societies. Specifically, the mechanism should be able to induce a majority of proself
63 people to change their opinions from choosing unsustainable options to sustainable options. The
64 majority of the past IS studies have been demonstrated in developed countries and/or in labora-
65 tories. To deepen and generalize our understanding about human behaviors and decisions for IS,
66 more studies of IS should be demonstrated in developing countries (Henrich et al., 2005, 2010a,b).

67 We design and institute a new mechanism, i.e., future ahead and back (FAB) mechanism, as a
68 resolution to induce proself people to be sustainable, examining its effectiveness through conduct-
69 ing field experiments of ISDG in an urban city, Dhaka, Bangladesh. In basic ISDG, a lineup of
70 generations, each consisting of three people, is organized, and each of them is asked to choose ei-
71 ther maintaining IS (sustainable option) or maximizing her own generation's payoff by irreversibly
72 imposing costs on subsequent generations (unsustainable option) through deliberation. With FAB,
73 each generation is first asked to discuss and make a request to the current generation's decision
74 as if she is in the position of the next generation. Second, she makes the actual decision from her
75 original position as the current generation. The results reveal that deliberation does not prevent
76 proself people from choosing unsustainable options in basic ISDG. In contrast, FAB is demon-
77 strated to enable such proself people to change their individual opinions from unsustainable to
78 sustainable options, thereby inducing a majority of generations to choose sustainable options. We
79 argue that memories and experiences of role play as the next generation in FAB trigger individual
80 other-regarding preferences for future generations, such as fellow feeling and indirect reciprocity,
81 enhancing IS.

82 **2 Methods and materials**

83 **2.1 Study area**

84 Our experiments were conducted in Dhaka, the capital city of Bangladesh. Figure 1 in the
85 appendix presents the location of the study area. Dhaka is a mega city, which is highly urbanized
86 with high level of competition for survival (Shahrier et al., 2016). Our study area covers the whole
87 Dhaka metropolitan. Dhaka is located in between $90^{\circ}18'$ and $90^{\circ}57'$ east longitude and $23^{\circ}55'$
88 and $24^{\circ}81'$ north latitude (Dewan and Corner, 2014). Total population, population density and
89 total land area of Dhaka city are 14.51 million, $10\,484\text{ km}^{-2}$ and 1371 km^2 , respectively. The
90 population density of Dhaka is the highest among all the cities in the world (Dewan and Corner,
91 2014). Businesses, industries and services in Bangladesh center around Dhaka, whereas farming
92 activities are almost absent. Therefore, dwellers' major occupations are business, service, factory
93 work and some other labor intensive occupations, such as rickshaw pulling.

94 **2.2 Experimental setup**

95 We administer three treatments, namely, basic ISDG, ISDG with imaginary future generations
96 (IFG) and ISDG with future ahead and back mechanism (FAB), individual interviews, social value
97 orientation (SVO) game and questionnaires surveys in the field.

98 **Intergenerational sustainability dilemma game (ISDG)**

99 We demonstrate a three-person ISDG and the basic structure is the same as the laboratory and
100 field experiments implemented in Kamijo et al. (2017) and Shahrier et al. (2017). In this game, a
101 lineup of group is organized which we call generations, each of the generations consists of three
102 members. In the game, each generation needs to make a decision between maximizing her own-
103 generation's payoff by choosing option A or maintaining IS by choosing option B . Compared to
104 choosing option A , a generation receives 300 less when she chooses option B . That is, the payoff
105 associated with option A is X and the payoff associated with option B is $X - 300$. After the

106 generation payoff is determined by deciding between options A and B , members in the generation
107 are obliged to split the generation payoff among themselves. A member's total payoff is the sum
108 of her initial endowment of 300 plus 1.5 times the share from the generation payoff. For instance,
109 a generation earns a payoff of 1200 ($X = 1200$) by choosing option A and a payoff of 900 ($X -$
110 $300 = 1200 - 300 = 900$) by choosing option B . If the members divide the generation payoff
111 equally, each member earns a payoff of 400 (300) as the share from the generation payoff, when
112 the generation's decision is option A (B). In this case, each member's total payoff is 900 ($300 +$
113 1.5 times 400) when the generation's decision is option A , and it is 750 ($300 + 1.5$ times 300) if
114 the generation's decision is option B . We convert the total payoff of each member in ISDG into
115 actual earning (cash in BDT) by applying an exchange rate of 2.5, i.e., every 2.5 payoffs received
116 by a member in the game deserves to be 1 BDT.

117 A sequence of ISDG comprises a lineup of 6 generations. A member is randomly assigned
118 to one of these 6 generations, and we do not let the members in the 6th generation know that
119 they are the members in the last generation in a sequence. When a generation chooses option
120 A , the subsequent generations' payoffs uniformly decline by 300. However, when a generation
121 chooses option B , the subsequent generations' payoffs do not decline. For example, suppose that
122 an ISDG starts with $X = 1200$, and the 1st generation chooses option A and receives 1200. In
123 this case, the 2nd generation will have a different game from the 1st generation did, in which the
124 2nd generation will receive 900 by choosing option A and 600 by choosing option B , respectively.
125 That is, when the 1st generation chooses option A , the 2nd generation suffers and her payoffs
126 associated with options A and B uniformly decline by 300. On the other hand, suppose that the
127 1st generation chooses option B and receives 900 ($= X - 300 = 1200 - 300 = 900$). In this
128 case, the 2nd generation will have the same game as the 1st generation did, in which the 2nd
129 generation can receive 1200 and 900 by choosing options A and B , respectively. That is, when
130 the 1st generation chooses option B , the 2nd generation does not suffer and her payoffs will not
131 decline. The game continues with the same rules for any pair of two neighboring generations
132 from 1st to 6th ones in a sequence of ISDG (See figure 1 for illustration of how ISDG proceeds

133 with the rules). This means that by choosing option *A*, generations maximize their own payoffs,
134 endangering IS, while by choosing option *B*, they can maintain IS. Hence, options *A* and *B* are
135 unsustainable and sustainable options, respectively.

136 [Figure 1 about here.]

137 The 1st generation in each sequence starts the game with $X = 1200$ in which options *A* and *B*
138 are associated with payoffs of 1200 and 900, respectively. Therefore, depending on the previous
139 generation's choices, 5th and 6th generations might receive a zero or negative payoff by choosing
140 option *A* or option *B*.¹ We conduct three treatments of ISDG to identify an effective mechanism
141 for maintaining IS.

- 142 • **Basic ISDG:** In basic ISDG, three members in each generation are asked to choose between
143 options *A* and *B* through 5-minute deliberation. By means of deliberation, members in a
144 generation must agree upon choosing either option *A* or option *B*. After the generation
145 payoff is fixed by deciding between option *A* and option *B*, members of the generation are
146 asked to decide how to split it among themselves through 5-minute deliberation. Thus, in
147 our experiments, basic ISDG is designed to examine whether deliberation can maintain IS.
- 148 • **ISDG with imaginary future generations (hereafter, IFG):** In IFG, each generation consists
149 of two general members and one special member called “minister of future.” One member
150 in each generation is randomly selected as the “minister of future,” and is asked to be the
151 representative of future generations by considering not only her generation but also future
152 generations in deliberations and decisions. However, she has neither obligations nor mon-
153 etary incentives for playing the role. IFG mechanism is designed to examine whether or
154 not priming people (or assigning a member as the representative) for future generations can
155 maintain IS. Other than the “minister of future,” the decision-making procedures in IFG are
156 the same as those in basic ISDG. Members in each generation are allowed to deliberate for

¹If one generation faces a game in which she receives negative payoffs, the members are asked to make the payoff zero by paying from their initial endowment of 300.

157 up to 5 minutes to choose between options *A* and *B*. After the generation payoff is fixed
158 by deciding between options *A* and *B*, members of the generation are asked to decide how
159 to split it among themselves through 5-minute deliberation. This mechanism is named as
160 *imaginary future generations* since “the minister of future” is asked to be the representative
161 of future generations by “imagining” their (future generations’) needs and desires.

- 162 • ISDG with future ahead and back mechanism (hereafter, FAB): In FAB, members in each
163 generation are first asked to imagine that they are the members in the next generation. As
164 if they are the members in the next generation, they are asked to request their previous
165 generation to choose either option *A* or option *B* by deliberating for up to 5 minutes as
166 the first step.² As the second step, they return to their original (or actual) position in the
167 generational lineup and choose between options *A* and *B* by deliberating for up to 5 minutes.
168 If the generation’s request to the previous generation in the first step and her choice in the
169 second step are the same, such as option *A* (*B*) in the first step and option *A* (*B*) in the
170 second, the choice of option *A* (*B*) becomes her final decision. However, if her request in
171 the first step is different from her choice in the second step, such as option *B* (*A*) in the
172 first step and option *A* (*B*) in the second step, three members are asked to make anonymous
173 votes for option *A* or option *B* to finalize her decision. Thus, majority voting is applied only
174 when the generation’s request in the first step is different from her choice in the second step.³
175 After the generation payoff is fixed by deciding between option *A* and option *B*, members
176 are asked to decide how to split it among themselves through 5-minute deliberation.

177 Without any mechanism, each generation is predicted to choose option *A* in ISDG based on
178 economic theory, prioritizing her benefit and consequently endangering IS. To maintain IS, we need
179 new mechanisms that can trigger individual other-regarding preferences for future generations.

²Note that members in a generation do not request the previous generation directly by written or verbal forms in the first step. This is simply one step in the two-step processes for a generation to finalize her decision between options *A* and *B*.

³IFG is different from FAB as follows. In IFG, one member in each generation is randomly chosen to play a representative role for future generations from the standpoint of the current generation. In FAB, all the members in a generation are considered to role-play as the next generation before making a choice from their original position in the generational lineup.

180 FAB is built upon (i) fellow feeling, (ii) indirect reciprocity, and (iii) cognitive dissonance, the
181 three channels that could trigger other-regarding preferences for future generations (Smith, 1976,
182 Nowak and Sigmund, 1998, Nowak and Roch, 2007, Mujcic and Leibbrandt, 2018, Harmon-Jones,
183 2019, Shahen et al., 2021). Adam Smith in his book, *The Theory of Moral Sentiments*, explains
184 the concept of “fellow feeling” as the basis of sociality (Smith, 1976). A person’s affective state
185 is influenced by her perception about that of others through fellow feelings, and she becomes
186 sympathetic about others.

187 In FAB, role-playing as the next generation is considered to connect the affective states of the
188 members in the current generation with those in the next generations, which may trigger other-
189 regarding preferences of fellow feeling for future generations. Studies demonstrate that indirect
190 reciprocity is one of the main reasons for human cooperation and prosociality. The role-playing as
191 the next generation in the first step of FAB is a member’s imaginary future self. In the second step,
192 when she decides between options *A* and *B* as a member in the current generation, the memory
193 of role-playing may activate reciprocity with her imaginary future self, which could trigger other-
194 regarding preferences for the actual next generations. Studies show that the experience of two
195 or more different cognitions in decision-making affects human decisions through cognitive disso-
196 nance. In FAB, members play roles of future and current generations, where the two generations’
197 interests contradict. This dissonance can create psychological discomfort and motivate members
198 to enhance IS to reconcile divergent interests. Overall, irrespective of the channels, members are
199 likely to show prosocial behaviors for IS once they role-play as the next generation.

200 We also add a new element built upon the previous ISDG experiments but do so only in FAB.
201 We conduct individual interviews with each member after she completes the generational decision-
202 making task. The objective of the individual interviews is to elicit members’ individual opinions
203 before and after the deliberative discussion in FAB and to know whether proself members are
204 successfully induced to change their individual opinions.⁴ Obtaining this information on ex-ante

⁴As our past experiments find that a majority of proself members in highly competitive urban societies endanger IS under basic ISDG and IFG, we recognize the necessity of a new mechanism that can motivate proself members to change their opinions from choosing option *A* to option *B*. To examine whether FAB can induce proself members to change their initial opinion of choosing option *A* into choosing option *B*, we decide to conduct individual interviews

205 and ex-post individual opinions enables us to identify the effect of FAB on individual opinion
206 changes and generations' decisions.

207 **Social value orientation game**

208 We demonstrate a social value orientation (SVO) game developed by Van Lange et al. (1997,
209 2007) to identify individual social preference. This game is called “triple dominance method SVO
210 game,” characterizing a subject as either prosocial, individualistic, competitive or unidentified. In
211 the game, a subject is randomly paired with another subject and asked to make a choice among
212 three pairs of options where the other subject of the pair is unknown to the subject. The two
213 numbers in each option represent the outcomes for oneself and the other subject in the pair. An
214 example of this game is given as a selection problem among the following three options: (i) you
215 receive 500, and the other receives 100; (ii) you receive 500, and the other receives 500; and (iii)
216 you receive 560, and the other receives 330. In this example, option (i) represents a competitive
217 subject, who maximizes the gap between her and the other subject's payoff ($500 - 100 = 400$);
218 subjects who choose option (ii) maximize joint outcome ($500 + 500 = 1000$) and are considered
219 prosocial; and option (iii) represents a individualistic subject who prefers to maximize her own
220 payoff and does not care about the other subject's payoff.

221 The game comprises 9 questions, each question contains three options of competitive, prosocial
222 and individualistic orientations. Subjects select one option in each question. When a subject make
223 at least 6 selections that consistently match with one orientation among the competitive, proso-
224 cial and individualistic, she is classified as a subject with that orientation. However, if a subject
225 makes less than the 6 selections that consistently match with any orientation, she is considered
226 “unidentified.” A subject's total payoff is the sum of her payoffs from the 9 selections she made
227 for herself and the payoffs she receives from the 9 selections the other subject in the pair made
228 for “the other.”⁵ Finally, we converted the total payoff of each subject into actual earning (cash

to elicit how individual opinions change before and after experiencing the deliberation under it.

⁵One possible payment method in SVO games is a strategy method, which may change subjects' incentives in experimental decision making, as suggested by Azrieli et al. (2018). However, we confirm that the payment procedure we use in SVO game is a standard practice for experimental research to characterize individual social preferences in

229 in BDT) by applying an exchange rate of 38.04, i.e., every 38.04 payoffs received by a subject
230 deserves to be 1 BDT.

231 **2.3 Experimental procedures**

232 We were interested in including subjects from all types and socioeconomic classes of people in
233 the Dhaka metropolitan area. However, we could not implement household-based randomization
234 since obtaining a list of subjects and the data of household numbers from city offices in Dhaka
235 was not feasible. We also conjectured that the response rate would be very low because of the lack
236 of credibility about the experiments and experimenters if we invite subjects by sending invitation
237 letters. Besides, it was impossible to include subjects from less-income occupations (elementary
238 occupations) who reside in slums, through household-based randomization. Therefore, we imple-
239 mented a stratified random sampling based on occupational categories. First, following the number
240 of people with different occupations, we divided the entire population of Dhaka metropolitan into
241 several occupation based strata (occupational strata henceforth). Hereafter, we proportionally de-
242 termined a necessary number of subjects from each of the occupational strata to be included in our
243 experiments.

244 From the labor market information system (LMIS), 2015 data (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics,
245 2015), we obtained the percentage of people by occupations in the urban areas of Bangladesh.
246 However, from these statistics, we could not get the exact occupational statistics of the Dhaka
247 metropolitan area. Therefore, the percentage of subjects from different occupational strata in our
248 experiments does not exactly match these statistics. We oversampled and undersampled from
249 several occupational strata, given the real scenario of different occupations in Dhaka city. For
250 instance, the LMIS statistics show that in the urban areas of Bangladesh, 11.50 % of the people are
251 skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers. However, in reality, no agricultural, forestry or
252 fishery workers were found in the Dhaka metropolitan. Therefore, we did not include any subject

psychology and economics (Van Lange et al., 1997, 2007, Park, 2000, Kanagaretnam et al., 2009, Brizi et al., 2015, Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017).

253 from this stratum. We undersampled from the stratum of elementary occupation, since including
254 subjects from this stratum was challenging due to the floating nature of these types of occupations.
255 We oversampled from several occupational strata such as managers, professionals, technicians
256 and associate professionals, given the actual scenario of a high percentage of people with these
257 occupations in Dhaka city. A list of occupational strata, the percentage of people by occupational
258 strata in the urban areas (LMIS statistics) and the percentage of subjects from each occupational
259 stratum in our experiments are presented in table 1 in the appendix.

260 Once we decided on the necessary number of subjects from each of the occupational strata,
261 we randomly picked several organizations associated with these occupations. For inviting subjects
262 from those organizations, we distributed written invitation letters and flyers with our contact infor-
263 mation among the employees, upon the consent of the organizations. The experimenter (the first
264 author) and the research assistants carried out invitation letters. Besides, we also invited subjects
265 through Facebook by creating an event. Hereafter, based on the proportion of people with dif-
266 ferent occupational strata, we arbitrarily chose and invited subjects from those who contacted us
267 and expressed their interest to participate in the experiments. To include subjects from elementary
268 occupational stratum with the nature of frequent movement within the city, we used human con-
269 nections. Through human connections, we randomly picked and invited them from several slums.
270 The show-up rate among those invited was approximately 80 %.

271 We administered 22 sequences of ISDG and in total 396 subjects took part in the experiments.
272 Hence, 132 generations were arranged with 396 subjects. Out of the 22 sequences, 7, 7 and 8
273 were assigned to basic ISDG, IFG and FAB, respectively. Each session of the basic ISDG and IFG
274 experiments took approximately 2.5 hours, while a session of FAB took approximately 3 hours.
275 The maximum and average payments to the subjects were 810 BDT (≈ 10.13 USD) and 630 BDT
276 (≈ 7.88 USD), respectively, including a fixed show-up fee of 200 BDT (≈ 2.50 USD). In the ISDG
277 game, subjects were paid 360 BDT (≈ 4.50 USD) at maximum and 280 BDT (≈ 3.13 USD) on av-
278 erage. Whereas, the payment for SVO was 250 BDT (≈ 1.88 USD) at maximum and 150 BDT
279 (≈ 1.88 USD) on average. We conducted the experiments at the Institute of Information Technol-

280 ogy, University of Dhaka. The basic ISDG and IFG (FAB) experiments were conducted between
281 January 2015 and March 2015 (June 2016 and September 2016).⁶ In 2016, average household
282 income per month of Bangladesh was 15 988 BDT (\approx 200 USD), and thus, it was 532.93 BDT
283 (\approx 6.66 USD) per day (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2019). The average payment in our ex-
284 periments was 1.18 times of the average household income per day in 2016.

285 In one session of the experiments, we gathered 18 \sim 27 subjects (called members in ISDG) in a
286 hall and their native language Bengali was used for instruction and presentation. In the first part of a
287 session, we administered SVO game, and the instructions were provided to the subjects in addition
288 to the verbal presentation made by the experimenter (the 1st author). After confirming subjects’
289 understanding of the game through utilizing quizzes, we elicited their choices in the game. In the
290 second part of a session, we conducted ISDG. Experimental instructions for ISDG were provided to
291 the members, and the experimenter demonstrated a verbal presentation and confirmed members’
292 understanding of the ISDG rules through utilizing the quizzes. Each of the 18 \sim 27 members
293 was randomly assigned to one of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, . . . , 6th, 7th, . . . generations under sequences
294 1 and 2 in ISDG as denoted by M1, M2, M3, . . . , M6, N1, N2, . . . (see figure 2 in the appendix).
295 Sequence 2 further continued in another session until a lineup of 6 generations played the game.
296 For randomly assigning members to one of the generations, we asked them to select a card with an
297 ID from a bag.⁷ We prepared 6 \sim 9 separate rooms for the 6 \sim 9 generations. According to the
298 IDs picked by the members, we asked them to go and sit in a specific room. Therefore, the members
299 in a generation would only be in touch with their generation members. They were informed that the
300 game would continue and no information was provided regarding how many generations there were
301 in a sequence. Moreover, since we organized more than 6 generations in a session, the members
302 in the 6th generation in a sequence would not figure out that they were the members in the last
303 generation in a sequence. To maintain anonymity within and across generations, we confirmed the
304 proportional representation of members from each of the occupational strata in each sequence of

⁶The data of the basic ISDG and IFG were used in Shahrier et al. (2017).

⁷We did not use the word “generation.” Instead, “generations” were mentioned as “groups” in the instruction and verbal presentation.

305 ISDG.

306 Hereafter, we elicited each generation's decision between options *A* and *B* and how the mem-
307 bers split generation payoff among themselves, one by one from 1st generation to 6th generation
308 in an ascending order. We let the members in a generation know their generation number and the
309 payoffs corresponding to options *A* and *B* for their generation. Hence, they would work out the
310 number of options *A* and *B* chosen by the previous generations since the experimental instructions
311 included the information regarding payoffs associated with options *A* and *B* for the 1st generation.⁸
312 We instructed the members not to start the deliberation before we ask them to do so. Members in
313 a generation started the deliberation once we presented them the payoffs associated with options
314 *A* and *B* for their generation and asked them to start the deliberation. Individual interviews were
315 performed after each generation's decisions in FAB were being made. In the interviews, each
316 member in a generation was asked about her personal opinions regarding the support for option
317 *A* or option *B* "before and after" the generation's deliberations and decisions in FAB. Hereafter,
318 we collected sociodemographic information from the subjects by questionnaires survey. Finally,
319 subjects returned to the hall to receive the payment (cash in BDT) from the ISDG and SVO game
320 including the show-up fee.

321 **3 Results**

322 Table 1 presents the frequency and percentage of generations' choices of unsustainable option,
323 *A* and sustainable option *B* in basic ISDG, IFG and FAB. It appears that approximately 30.95%,
324 28.57% and 81.25% of the generations choose sustainable option *B* in basic ISDG, IFG and FAB,
325 respectively. These results suggest that, both in basic ISDG and IFG, a majority of the generations
326 choose unsustainable option *A*. However, in FAB, a majority of the generations choose sustainable
327 option *B*, and only 18.75% of the generations choose option *A*. To examine whether distributions
328 of the proportion of generations that choose option *B* per sequence are independent of the treat-

⁸In FAB, information regarding a generation's request in the first step and her choice in the second step was not provided to the previous and next generations.

329 ments, we perform Mann-Whitney tests for the observations in each pair of two treatments. We
330 consider the proportion of generations that choose option B per sequence as the unit of comparison
331 since subsequent generations' decisions are not independent of previous generations' decisions in
332 a sequence. The null hypothesis is that the distribution of the proportion of generations that choose
333 option B per sequence is the same for any pair of treatments (basic vs. IFG, basic vs. FAB and
334 IFG vs. FAB). Our examination fails to reject this hypothesis for basic vs. IFG at 5 % significance
335 level; however, it rejects the hypothesis for basic vs. FAB and IFG vs. FAB at 1 % significance
336 level. The results in the Mann-Whitney tests are: (i) basic ISDG vs IFG ($Z = 0.07, p = 1.00$),
337 (ii) basic ISDG vs FAB ($Z = -3.10, p = 0.00$) and (iii) IFG vs FAB ($Z = -3.29, p = 0.00$).
338 The results in the tests and the frequency of generations' choices of options A and B under each
339 treatment in table 1 suggest that FAB induces more generations to choose option B than any other
340 treatment.

341 [Table 1 about here.]

342 The results in table 1 can be interpreted as indicating that members choose to maximize their
343 own generation's payoff when the collective decisions are made through deliberation in the ba-
344 sic ISDG. Moreover, introducing imaginary future generations (IFG) into the deliberation fails to
345 maintain IS since the frequency of choosing option A in IFG becomes even higher than that in
346 the basic ISDG. The results appear to suggest the necessity of a stronger mechanism to maintain
347 IS in highly competitive urban societies. Fortunately, however, FAB appears to be successful in
348 maintaining IS even in one such highly competitive urban society, Dhaka. Approximately 81.25 %
349 of the generations choose option B to maintain IS in FAB.⁹

350 We characterize the determinants of generations' choices for IS and how FAB affects individual
351 members' opinions and generations' decisions. Past studies show that an individual social prefer-
352 ence or social value orientation (categorized by SVO games) is one of the important determinants
353 of IS and the sustainability of common pool resources (Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017, Timilsina et al.,

⁹We do not present any statistics for the divisions of the generation payoffs, since all the generations split them equally among the members in every treatment.

354 2017, 2019, 2021). Specifically, these studies show that an increase in the number of prosocial
355 members in a generation is associated with high probabilities of maintaining IS and common pool
356 resources. These studies also demonstrate that highly urbanized societies might have greater ten-
357 dencies to compromise IS, as a majority of members are proself (competitors and individualists)
358 in such societies.

359

[Table 2 about here.]

360 Distributions of generations in relation to the number of prosocial members (categorized by
361 SVO games) per generation for each treatment are summarized in table 2. From table 2, we see
362 that out of the 132 total generations, 51.79 %, 30.03 %, 15.15 % and 3.03 % consist of zero proso-
363 cial (or three proself members), one prosocial, two prosocial and three prosocial members per
364 generation, respectively (see the “overall” column in table 2). It appears that a majority of the
365 generations consist of only competitors and individualists (proself members) in the highly com-
366 petitive urban society, Dhaka, which is in line with our past studies (Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017).
367 In total, the percentage of proself subjects in our experiments is identified to be approximately
368 76.8 %. Table 3 presents the percentage of generations that choose option *B* with respect to the
369 number of prosocial members per generation (see the “overall” column in table 3). It shows that
370 when generations consist of only proself members, 23.53 % of the generations chose option *B* (see
371 the cell of “overall” column and “0” row in table 3). However, as the number of prosocial members
372 per generation increases, the percentage of choosing option *B* rises (see the “overall” column in
373 table 3). For example, 60 %, 100 %, 100 % of the generations chose option *B* when the generation
374 consist of one prosocial, two prosocial and three prosocial members, respectively. This result is
375 consistent with our past studies, indicating that individual social preferences might be one of the
376 strongest determinants of generations’ decisions regarding IS (Shahrier et al., 2017).

377

[Table 3 about here.]

378 Table 3 also presents the percentage of generations that choose option *B* with respect to the
379 number of prosocial members per generation under each treatment. In basic ISDG and IFG, only

380 11.54 % (14.29 %) and 3.70 % (50.00 %) of the generations respectively choose option *B* when the
381 generations consist of zero prosocial (one prosocial) member (see the “basic ISDG” and “IFG”
382 columns of table 3). The findings from basic ISDG and IFG suggest that a new mechanism must
383 be developed to induce proself members to change generations’ choices from option *A* to option
384 *B*, especially when a majority of generations consist of proself members in a society. It appears
385 that FAB can be one such mechanism in that 80.00 % and 76.00 % of the generations chose option
386 *B* under it even when the generations consisted of zero and one prosocial member, respectively
387 (see the “FAB” columns of table 3). To examine whether the distributions of generations that
388 choose option *B* with respect to the number of prosocial members per generation are the same
389 for any pair of treatments, we run chi-squared tests. The null hypothesis is that the percentages
390 of generations’ choices for option *B* over the number of prosocial members per generation are
391 independent between two treatments. Tests fail to reject the null hypothesis for basic ISDG vs
392 IFG, but reject it for basic ISDG vs FAB and IFG vs FAB at 1 % significance level (see the results
393 of chi-squared tests at the bottom of table 3). The results of the chi-squared tests demonstrate that
394 possibly FAB is effective at maintaining IS by affecting proself members’ decisions in ISDG.

395 To characterize the findings in table 4, we estimate three models of probit regressions by taking
396 a generation’s choice of option *B* as the dummy dependent variable (When a generation chooses
397 option *B*, it is unity. Otherwise, zero). Clustered standard errors on sequences have been com-
398 puted in all models since a generation’s decision for IS might not be independent of previous
399 generations’ choices of options *A* and *B* within a sequence. The three regression models are es-
400 timated for checking some possibility of a posttreatment bias. The posttreatment bias exists if in
401 a regression, we include treatments and other independent variables that are affected by the treat-
402 ments (Montgomery et al., 2018, Hernuryadin et al., 2020). Recall that in a sequence of ISDG,
403 members in some generations participated in SVO game after playing the ISDG for time manage-
404 ment. The outcomes in SVO game may be influenced by the treatments in ISDG. The existence
405 of a posttreatment bias may be claimed when we include the number of prosocial members per
406 generation and IFG and FAB mechanisms as independent variables in one regression. Therefore,

407 in model 1, we only include the number of prosocial members per generation as the independent
408 variable. In model 2, only the IFG and FAB dummies are incorporated as the two independent
409 variables. Finally, model 3 comprises all the independent variables, i.e., the number of prosocial
410 members per generation, the proportion of previous generations that chose option *A* in a sequence,
411 dummy variables for IFG and FAB, the interaction terms between the number of prosocial mem-
412 bers per generation and IFG as well as between the number of prosocial members per generation
413 and FAB. The detailed definition of each variable is given in Table 4's table notes.¹⁰

414 Table 4 reports the coefficients and marginal effects of the independent variables on the likeli-
415 hood for a generation to choose option *B*, being calculated from the probit regressions. Overall,
416 we see that the number of prosocial members per generation in models 1 and 3, the FAB dummy
417 in models 2 and 3 and the interaction term of the FAB times the number of prosocial members
418 per generation in model 3 appear to be economically and statistically significant in affecting the
419 likelihood for a generation to choose option *B* in ISDG. However, the IFG dummy in models 2 and
420 3, and the proportion of previous generations that chose option *A* in a sequence and the interaction
421 term of the IFG times the number of prosocial members per generation in model 3 are insignificant
422 in affecting the probability of a generation choosing option *B*. The overall results from the probit
423 regressions are quite consistent with the chi-squared tests and summary statistics in tables 2 and 3.

424

[Table 4 about here.]

425 Model 1 of table 4 indicates that an increase in the number of prosocial members per generation
426 is associated with a 33.7 percentage point higher probability of choosing option *B*. This suggests
427 that the likelihood of maintaining IS rises with an increase in the number prosocial members per
428 generation. Model 2 presents the effect of IFG and FAB mechanisms on the probability of choosing
429 sustainable option *B*. The FAB dummy is identified to be economically and statistically significant.
430 The generations in the FAB mechanism are 44.1 percentage point more likely to choose option *B*

¹⁰Past studies confirm that people's SVOs are stable over time and they do not change in the short run (Van Lange et al., 1997, 2007, Bruhin et al., 2019). Therefore, a posttreatment bias is unlikely to exist even when we include the number of prosocial members per generation and IFG and FAB dummies as independent variables in a regression. Even if some researchers claim that SVO is a posttreatment variable, we resolve the concern about the presence of a posttreatment bias by estimating three different regression models.

431 than those in basic ISDG, implying that FAB mechanism successfully improves IS. On the other
432 hand, the IFG mechanism appears to be ineffective at achieving IS since the IFG dummy is not
433 significant even at 10 % level. In summary, findings in models 1 and 2 imply that an increase in
434 the number of prosocial members per generation and the FAB improves IS, while the IFG fails in
435 motivating generations to maintain IS.¹¹

436 Model 3 in table 4 reveals the effects of the IFG and FAB mechanisms and the number of proso-
437 cial members per generation on the probability of choosing sustainable option *B* and examines the
438 robustness of the findings in models 1 and 2. In this model, an increase in the number of prosocial
439 members per generation is associated with a 18.8 percentage point greater probability of choosing
440 option *B*, holding all other factors fixed. IFG mechanism is identified not to improve IS in that
441 the IFG dummy and the interaction term between IFG and the number of prosocial members per
442 generation remain insignificant even at 10 % level. Finally, the FAB dummy is identified to be eco-
443 nomically and statistically significant, demonstrating that the generations in the FAB mechanism
444 are 41.0 percentage point more likely to choose option *B* than those in basic ISDG. The coefficient
445 on the interaction term of FAB dummy times the number of prosocial members per generation is
446 estimated to be -0.957 at 5 % level and the marginal effect of the number of prosocial members
447 per generation is 18.8 percentage point in model 3 (it is 33.7 percentage point in model 1). The
448 estimation in model 3 demonstrates that the likelihood for a generation to choose option *B* be-
449 comes less dependent on the number of prosocial members per generation in FAB than in basic
450 ISDG. Therefore, FAB may be effective at maintaining IS without relying on prosocial members
451 per generation by possibly enabling each of them to support sustainable option *B*.

452 With the results in table 4, it can now be hypothesized that FAB affects prosocial members' opin-
453 ions and generation decisions between options *A* and *B* to maintain IS. To examine this hypothesis,
454 we interviewed each member about whether she personally supported option *A* or option *B* be-

¹¹As part of the robustness check, we estimated three models of panel probit regression with the same set of dependent and independent variables used in the three probit regression models in table 4. They exhibited the same qualitative findings reported in table 4. We do not present the outcomes of panel probit regressions as our main results since a generation in a sequence of ISDG does not provide multiple observations over dependent and independent variables.

455 fore and after the deliberation under FAB. The interviews in FAB clarify how individual opinions
456 change due to the deliberation under it in relation to individual social value orientations. There are
457 four possible pairs of individual opinion changes before and after FAB mechanism: (i) a member
458 initially supported option *B* and still supports option *B* after the FAB mechanism (hereafter, *BB*);
459 (ii) a member initially supported option *A* and still supports option *A* after the FAB mechanism
460 (hereafter, *AA*), (iii) a member initially supported option *A* but supports option *B* after the FAB
461 mechanism (hereafter, *AB*), and (iv) a member initially supported option *B* but supports option *A*
462 after the FAB mechanism (hereafter, *BA*). Among these four possible pairs, *BB* and *AA* represent
463 no change in individual opinions, while *AB* and *BA* represent changes in individual opinions.

464

[Table 5 about here.]

465 Table 5 presents the percentages of these four types of individual opinion changes for each of
466 the value orientations in FAB. Approximately 82.93 % of prosocial members follow *BB*, whereas
467 0.00 %, 5.36 % and 7.14 % of the competitors, individualists and the unidentified members follow
468 *BB*, respectively. In contrast, *AA* is the lowest for prosocial members (4.88 %), followed by in-
469 dividualists (23.21 %) and by competitors (45.45 %). No member in any value orientation follows
470 *BA*. Finally, 71.43 %, 57.14 %, 54.55 % and 12.20 % of the individualistic, unidentified, competi-
471 tor and prosocial members follow *AB*, respectively. It appears that a considerable portion of the
472 individualists, the competitors and the unidentified change their individual opinions from option
473 *A* to option *B* after the deliberation under FAB. We perform chi-squared tests to examine whether
474 the opinion changes (*AB*) and no opinion changes (*BB* and *AA*) are statistically independent of
475 the value orientations. As none of the members change their opinions from option *B* to option
476 *A*, we consider that *AB* corresponds to opinion changes, while *BB* and *AA* represent no opinion
477 changes. The null hypothesis is that the distributions of opinion changes (*AB*) are the same be-
478 tween two types of value orientations. The examination rejects the null hypothesis at the 1 % level
479 for all pairs of value orientations except for competitive vs. unidentified and individualistic vs.
480 unidentified (see the results for the chi-squared tests at the bottom of table 5). This examination
481 confirms that opinion changes are dependent on value orientations.

482 To empirically characterize this finding, we regress an opinion changes from option *A* to op-
483 tion *B* as a dependent variable on value orientations and individual socioeconomic variables as
484 independent variables, using a probit regression. We define the dependent variable of opinion
485 changes as follows: the variable takes value 1 for *AB* (when a member changes her opinion from
486 option *A* to option *B* through FAB), 0 otherwise. A set of independent variables includes SVO
487 dummies (Base group = Prosocial) and socioeconomic variables such as income, education and
488 family structure. The detailed definitions of variables included in the regression are given in ta-
489 ble 6's table notes. Since no opinion changes of the sequence *BA* are found, this regression is
490 simplified to analyze the probability of the opinion changes from option *A* to option *B* (or *AB*)
491 relative to the probability of no opinion changes (*AA* or *BB*) under FAB.

492 Table 6 shows the marginal effects of the independent variables on the probability of opinion
493 changes from option *A* to option *B*. The marginal effects of SVO dummies exactly follow the
494 summary statistics of the opinion changes for each value orientation in table 5. This reveals that
495 individualists, unidentified and competitors are respectively 53.8, 45.8 and 38.1 percentage point
496 more likely to change their opinions from option *A* to option *B* compared to prosocial members,
497 holding all other factors fixed. This regression result confirms that FAB can induce a large number
498 of the individualistic, unidentified and competitive members to change individual opinions from
499 option *A* to option *B*. Therefore, it can be argued that more generations of proself members are
500 induced to choose sustainable option *B* under FAB.

501 [Table 6 about here.]

502 Recall that in FAB, members in a generation need to finalize their decision by majority voting
503 for option *A* or option *B* if they do not have the same request and choice in the first and second
504 steps. Out of the 48 generations in FAB, 9 made their final decision by such anonymous votes (ma-
505 jority voting). Among these 9 generations, 7 voted for option *A*. Thus, voting does not appear to
506 have been effective in achieving IS in our field experiments. Moreover, from the data of individual
507 opinion changes under the FAB mechanism, we find that 106 members out of the total 144 initially
508 supported option *A* before deliberation, implying that such members are likely to choose option

509 *A* if they make the decision through a simple deliberation or majority voting. In summary, along
510 with the results from the basic ISDG, the outcomes of voting and opinion changes observed in FAB
511 mechanism provide evidence that simple deliberation or voting may fail to maintain IS when soci-
512 eties consist of a majority of proself members. Overall, the main results in this research reveal that
513 deliberation does not prevent proself people from choosing unsustainable options in basic ISDG
514 and IFG is not effective enough. In contrast, FAB is demonstrated to enable such proself people
515 to change their individual opinions from unsustainable to sustainable options, thereby inducing a
516 majority of generations to choose sustainable options.

517 FAB is built upon three possible channels that trigger other-regarding preferences for future
518 generations: fellow feeling, indirect reciprocity and cognitive dissonance. Based on the members’
519 deliberation/discussion in our experiments, we believe that fellow feeling is the primary channel
520 that induces them to choose sustainable options. When the members discuss their choice between
521 sustainable and unsustainable options in the second step after role-playing as the next generation in
522 the first step under FAB, they frequently use the terms related to “sympathy for future generations.”
523 We conjecture that such discussions indicate certain operations of fellow feeling in their decision-
524 making processes. In addition, a large number of them mention that they feel some obligation or
525 responsibility to choose the same option they requested in the first step. It indicates the possibility
526 of the activation of indirect reciprocity and/or cognitive dissonance in decision-making.¹² Overall,
527 we believe that role-playing or perspective-taking of future generations in FAB triggers prosociality
528 or other-regarding preferences for future generations mainly through fellow feelings. However,
529 indirect reciprocity and cognitive dissonance may also influence their decisions.

530 FAB can be used in two ways to resolve IS problems. First, it can be introduced as part of an
531 alternative democratic institution when taking collective decisions that come with an intertemporal
532 nature over generations. For instance, to determine the upper limit of greenhouse gas emission,

¹²It is challenging to distinguish between the impacts of indirect reciprocity and cognitive dissonance since they are not mutually exclusive. Members may choose sustainability for the actual future generation as the members of the current generation due to reciprocating with the imaginary future self (in the first step role-playing) through indirect reciprocity. However, the dissonance, i.e., the contradictory interests of current and future generations, and associated psychological discomfort may influence the cognitive state of the activation of indirect reciprocity in decision-making.

533 FAB can be introduced. First, the stakeholders should be assumed to be the members in future
534 generations. They should discuss, determine and write their requests about the allowable amount
535 of greenhouse gas emission to the current generation as if they are the members in the future gener-
536 ation. In the second step, they will return to their actual position of the current generation, discuss
537 and choose the amount of greenhouse gas emission, considering what they request in the first step.
538 Second, FAB can be applied in youth education and training programs to change individual be-
539 haviors toward being future-oriented. Role-playing has been emerging as one of the prominent
540 techniques for youth education and training in national and international contexts (Comer, 2005,
541 Craciun, 2010, McConville et al., 2017, Moreno-Guerrero et al., 2020). For instance, there are
542 several youth training programs, such as “Model UN” by the United Nations Association of the
543 USA, the parliament role-play educational programs in Australia and Canada as well as the United
544 Nations Children’s Parliament through role-playing of future generations to understand and prac-
545 tice some decision-making process through democratic participation. The role-playing in FAB as
546 the member in future generations shall be considered one new approach in education and youth
547 training programs as mentioned above to trigger future-oriented behaviors that lead to sustainabil-
548 ity. Past studies demonstrate that a change in culture and institutions affects human behaviors and
549 decisions (Henrich et al., 2005, Richerson and Boyd, 2008, Wilson et al., 2009).

550 We end our discussion by comparing our results regarding democracy/voting and IFG treatment
551 with two important previous works of Hauser et al. (2014) and Kamijo et al. (2017), respectively.
552 Our study finds that deliberation is not effective at maintaining IS, and the result appears to be con-
553 tradictory with Hauser et al. (2014). They claim that median voting Pareto improves and ensures
554 sustainability, especially when a majority of the subjects are not “proself.”¹³ However, it should
555 be noted that our study differs from theirs. In our experiments, members deliberate and choose
556 between sustainable and unsustainable options in ISD where every allocation is Pareto efficient. In
557 their experiments, the median “take” among five members is the basis for the group “take” where
558 an allocation of Pareto improvement over generations exists. Due to the difference, subjects in their

¹³We elicit an SVO for each subject with monetary incentives, while Hauser et al. (2014) do not elicit it as data.

559 experiments are likely to identify and choose actions towards Pareto improvement and sustainabil-
560 ity through the voting, as compared to those in our experiments facing “IS dilemma.” However,
561 the result in Hauser et al. (2014) is interpreted to be consistent with ours in that determining the
562 harvests by median votes shall compromise sustainability when a majority of the subjects are “pro-
563 self” as in the case of our study. Regarding the outcome of IFG between ours and Kamijo et al.
564 (2017), we need to note about subject pools. Kamijo et al. (2017) use a subject pool of university
565 students and a majority of the subjects are prosocial (more than 60 %) by SVOs, while we use a
566 subject pool of general people in Bangladesh and a majority of the subjects are proself (more than
567 70 %). Since prosocials are likely to approve and choose sustainable options in ISDG by nature,
568 the priming effect of IFG is considered to easily become effective among such prosocial subjects
569 as in the case of Kamijo et al. (2017). IFG is considered not to work in our study, because it does
570 not become convincing or strong enough to induce a majority of proself people to approve and
571 choose sustainable options.

572 **4 Conclusion**

573 Intergenerational sustainability (IS) is pivotal for survival of human societies. However, IS
574 gets compromised because societies are rapidly urbanized especially in developing countries and
575 people’s orientations become proself with such urbanization (Berenguer et al., 2005, Schwartz,
576 2007, Huddart-Kennedy et al., 2009, Shahrier et al., 2016, 2017, Jingchao et al., 2021, Timilsina
577 et al., 2021). When proself people face IS dilemma (ISD) of whether to choose being sustainable
578 by sacrificing themselves for future generations or unsustainable by prioritizing their benefits, they
579 tend to choose being unsustainable (Hauser et al., 2014, Sherstyuk et al., 2016, Shahrier et al.,
580 2017, Shahan et al., 2021, Timilsina et al., 2022). We design and institute a new mechanism, i.e.,
581 future ahead and back (FAB) mechanism, as a resolution to induce proself people to be sustainable,
582 examining its effectiveness through conducting ISD game (ISDG) field experiments in an urban
583 city, Dhaka, Bangladesh. In basic ISDG, a lineup of generations, each consisting of three members,

584 is organized, and each of them is asked to choose either maintaining IS (sustainable option) or
585 maximizing her own generation's payoff by irreversibly imposing costs on subsequent generations
586 (unsustainable option) through deliberation. With FAB, each generation is first asked to discuss and
587 make a request to the current generation's decision as if she is in the position of the next generation.
588 Second, she makes the actual decision from her original position as the current generation. The
589 results reveal that deliberation does not prevent proself members from choosing unsustainable
590 options in basic ISDG. In contrast, FAB is demonstrated to enable such proself members to change
591 their individual opinions from unsustainable to sustainable options, thereby inducing a majority of
592 generations to choose sustainable options. We argue that memories and experiences of role play as
593 the next generation in FAB trigger individual other-regarding preferences for future generations,
594 such as fellow feeling and indirect reciprocity, enhancing IS.

595 Finally, we note some limitations and future avenues of research. First, we do not examine
596 the details regarding the pathways that determine how and why "proself" people change their
597 opinions on IS. Further researches, such as deliberative analyses of the transcribed deliberations,
598 neuroimaging and/or a different type of experiments with new designs, may be able to clarify such
599 pathways. Second, our research is oriented towards how people's decisions and behaviors can
600 be affected to be sustainable by FAB in experimental settings. And thus, it is not sufficient to
601 answer how often people need to practice FAB in their daily life for a persistent behavioral change
602 towards acting prosocially to future generations. To answer this question, randomized control
603 trials and social experiments with FAB should be implemented. Third, this research does not
604 investigate how discussions under FAB concretely affect individual opinion changes. To this end,
605 future research should be able to design new FAB experiments that enable us to observe the opinion
606 changes under various settings, such as anonymous, online and face-to-face ones. These caveats
607 notwithstanding, we believe that this study is the first step toward identifying a new mechanism as
608 a potential resolution to ISD in highly competitive societies, especially when a majority of people
609 are proself.

610 **Ethical review**

611 The ethics committee (institutional review board) of Kochi University of Technology approved
612 the study (protocol code: 38-C2; approval date: 03.10.2016). We demonstrated the study following
613 the guidelines of the Declaration of Helsinki.

614 **Informed Consent**

615 We obtained the informed consent from each experimental subject in written form.

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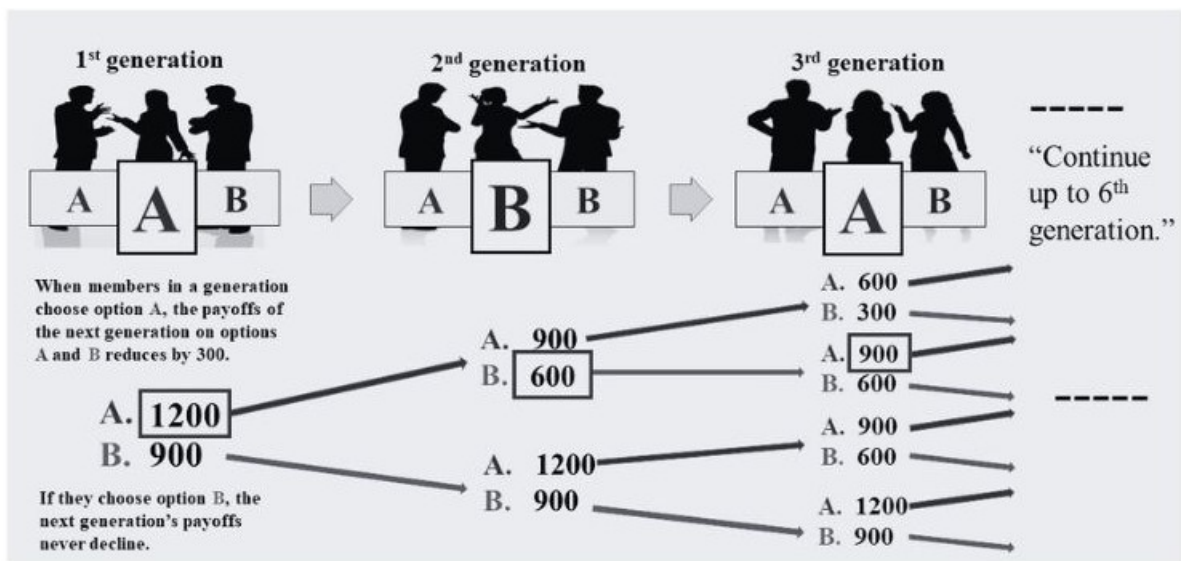


Figure 1: The intergenerational sustainability dilemma game (ISDG) for illustration of how one generation's decision affects the subsequent generations' payoffs

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

	A	B	Overall
Basic ISDG	29 (69.05 %)	13 (30.95 %)	42 (100 %)
IFG	30 (71.43 %)	12 (28.57 %)	42 (100 %)
FAB	9 (18.75 %)	39 (81.25 %)	48 (100 %)

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

Number of prosocial members per generation	Number of generations (percentage)			Overall
	Basic ISDG	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 %)
Total	42 (100 %)	42 (100 %)	48 (100 %)	132 (100 %)

Table 3: Percentages of generations that choose option B with respect to the number of prosocial members per generation under Basic ISDG, IFG and FAB.

# of prosocial members per generation	Percentage of choice B			Overall
	Basic ISDG	IFG	FAB	
0	11.54 % ($\approx \frac{3}{26}$)	3.70 % ($\approx \frac{1}{27}$)	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 % ($= \frac{4}{4}$)
Total	30.95 % ($\approx \frac{13}{42}$)	28.57 % ($\approx \frac{12}{42}$)	81.25 % ($\approx \frac{39}{48}$)	50.00 % ($= \frac{66}{132}$)

We have run chi-squared tests with the null hypothesis that the percentages of generations' choices for option B over the number of prosocial members per generation are independent between two treatments. The results are (i) basic ISDG vs IFG ($\chi^2(3) = 3.10, p = 0.38$), (ii) basic ISDG vs FAB ($\chi^2(3) = 14.22, p = 0.00$) and (iii) IFG vs FAB ($\chi^2(3) = 10.40, p = 0.01$).

Table 4: Models 1, 2 and 3: Coefficients and marginal effects of independent variables on the likelihood of a generation choosing option B in probit regressions

Choice of option B^1	Model 1 ($N = 132$)		Model 2 ($N = 132$)		Model 3 ($N = 132$)	
	Coefficient	Marginal effect	Coefficient	Marginal effect	Coefficient	Marginal effect
# of prosocial members ²	1.216*** (0.196)	0.337*** (0.022)			1.278*** (0.357)	0.188*** (0.022)
Proportion of A^3					-0.164 (0.304)	-0.033 (0.060)
IFG dummy ⁴			-0.069 (0.266)	-0.022 (0.085)	-0.438 (0.579)	-0.003 (0.060)
FAB dummy ⁵			1.384*** (0.276)	0.441*** (0.062)	1.971*** (0.515)	0.410*** (0.098)
IFG \times # of prosocials ⁶					0.647 (0.632)	-
FAB \times # of prosocials ⁷					-0.957** (0.398)	-
Constant	-0.784*** (0.234)		-0.497*** (0.181)		-1.313*** (0.479)	
Wald χ^2	38.480***		33.060***		56.580***	

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

Clustered standard errors on sequences in parenthesis.

¹ A dummy variable that takes value 1 if the generation chooses option B , 0 otherwise.

² The number of prosocial members per generation.

³ The proportion of previous generations that chose option A in a sequence.

⁴ A dummy variable that takes value 1 when the IFG mechanism is administered to one sequence consisting of 6 generations, 0 otherwise.

⁵ A dummy variable that takes value 1 when the FAB mechanism is administered to one sequence consisting of 6 generations, 0 otherwise.

⁶ An interaction term of IFG times the number of prosocial members per generation.

⁷ An interaction term of FAB times the number of prosocial members per generation.

Table 5: Social value orientations and changes in individual opinion by percentage in FAB

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

We have run chi-squared tests with the null hypothesis that the percentage distributions of opinion changes (*AB*) is the same for any two types of value orientations. The results are (i) Competitive vs Prosocial ($\chi^2(1) = 15.31, p = 0.00$), (ii) Competitive vs Individualistic ($\chi^2(1) = 2.61, p = 0.10$), (iii) Competitive vs Unidentified ($\chi^2(1) = 0.03, p = 0.87$), (iv) Prosocial vs Individualistic ($\chi^2(1) = 33.39, p = 0.00$), (v) Prosocial vs Unidentified ($\chi^2(1) = 11.68, p = 0.00$), (vi) Individualistic vs Unidentified ($\chi^2(1) = 1.06, p = 0.30$)

Table 6: Marginal effects of probit regressions for opinion changes from option *A* to option *B* or *AB* under FAB ($N = 144$)

Opinion Change ¹	Marginal effect
Household income (in 1000 BDT) ²	-0.001 (0.001)
Gender ³	0.177 (0.150)
Age ⁴	0.032 (0.044)
Education ⁵	0.001 (0.009)
Family structure ⁶	-0.009 (0.087)
SVO dummy (base group = Prosocial)	
Competitive ⁷	0.381*** (0.093)
Individualistic ⁸	0.538*** (0.064)
Unidentified ⁹	0.458*** (0.119)
Log Likelihood	-79.308

***significant at the 1 percent level

¹ A dummy variable that takes value 1 if a member's opinion changes from option *A* to option *B*, 0 otherwise.

² Household income per month in 1000 BDT

³ A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a member is a female, 0 otherwise.

⁴ 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.

⁵ Years of schooling.

⁶ Joint family structures are coded as 1, 0 (single family) otherwise.

⁷ A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a member's value orientation is competitive, 0 otherwise.

⁸ A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a member's value orientation is individualistic, 0 otherwise.

⁹ A dummy variable that takes value 1 when a member's value orientation is unidentified, 0 otherwise.