



KOCHI UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

Social Design Engineering Series

SDES-2019-15

Human-induced or nature-induced climate change? Impact of the perception gap on the cooperation

Junichi Hirose
Kochi University

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

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

27th December, 2019

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

KUT-SDE working papers are preliminary research documents published by the School of Economics and Management jointly with the Research Center for Social Design Engineering at Kochi University of Technology. To facilitate prompt distribution, they have not been formally reviewed and edited. They are circulated in order to stimulate discussion and critical comment and may be revised. The views and interpretations expressed in these papers are those of the author(s). It is expected that most working papers will be published in some other form.

Human-induced or nature-induced climate change? Impact of the perception gap on the cooperation

Junichi Hirose^{*,†} Koji Kotani^{†,‡,§,¶,||} Yoshinori Nakagawa[†]

December 26, 2019

Abstract

Climate change is a serious problem that requires people's cooperation for its solution, while it is realized that there have been perception gaps about its causes. However, little is known about what causes people to perceive that climate change is human-induced or nature-induced as well as the linkage between the perception and cooperative attitude. We empirically analyze the determinants for the human-induced or nature-induced perception as well as the impact of the perception gap on cooperative attitudes toward climate change by conducting questionnaire surveys and a climate donation game with 400 Japanese subjects. First, the analysis finds an importance of people's scientific literacy to explain the perception gap in that those with high levels of scientific literacy tend to have the perception of human-induced climate change. Second, people are identified to be cooperative toward climate change as they have prosocial value orientation, high scientific literacy and the perception of human-induced climate change, demonstrating that scientific literacy plays two important roles as not only a direct determinant but also an indirect one through affecting people's perceptions for climate change cooperation. Overall, the results suggest that enhancement of scientific literacy and prosociality through some policies, such as educational programs, shall be key to induce people to cooperate for climate change via the perception of human-induced climate change.

Key Words: Human-induced or nature-induced climate change; scientific literacy; donation game; prosociality

*Multidisciplinary Science Cluster, Collaborative Community Studies Unit, Kochi University

†School of Economics and Management, Kochi University of Technology

‡Research Institute for Future Design, Kochi University of Technology

§Urban Institute, Kyusyu University

¶College of Business, Rikkyo University

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

Contents

1	Introduction	3
2	Materials and methods	5
3	Results	9
4	Discussion	17
5	Conclusion	19
6	References	22
	List of Figures	26
	List of Tables	31

1 Introduction

Climate change is a serious problem that requires people's cooperation for its solution (Pacheco et al., 2014, Bang et al., 2015). Unfortunately, people around the world seem to have failed in cooperating and coordinating their efforts each other on this issue, although human is known as an unusually cooperative species as compared with other species (Boyd and Richerson, 2009, Tattersall, 2011). There have been several researches to analyze how people become more cooperative for climate change. These studies establish that correct perception and/or knowledge toward climate change are positively associated with cooperative attitudes, whereas there have existed a wide variety of perception gaps (Rand et al., 2009, Tobler et al., 2011, Fischer and Charnley, 2012, Islam et al., 2016). Despite its importance, there have been few researches to examine how such perception gaps are related to knowledge as well as to other factors, and how the relation influences cooperative behaviors. Given this state of affairs, this research addresses people's perception gap with a focus on the cause of climate change, knowledge and cooperative attitudes within a single framework.

Past researches have examined people's perception on the cause of climate change (Bray, 2010, Cook et al., 2013, Carlton et al., 2015). By and large, there are two ideas about the cause of climate change. One is an idea of human-induced climate change in that climate change can be considered to be caused by human activities, such as burning fossil fuels, cutting down forests and farming livestock (Karl and Trenberth, 2003, Koneswaran and Nierenberg, 2008, Doran and Zimmerman, 2009, Solomon et al., 2009, Bechtel and Scheve, 2013, Höök and Tang, 2013). The other is an idea of nature-induced climate change in that climate change can be considered to have been a part of natural climate cycles and will continue to be so, being exemplified by many events in the earth's history such as the changes in solar output, the earth's orbit and volcano eruptions (Karl and Trenberth, 2003, Solomon et al., 2009, Council et al., 2011). A group of former studies show that scientists have largely accepted an idea that the cause of climate change is human-induced (Karl and Trenberth, 2003, Hegerl et al., 2007, Anderegg et al., 2010, Council et al., 2011, Lehtonen et al., 2019). Leiserowitz et al. (2010) report that only half of the American public believes in

28 human-induced climate change, while approximately 97 % of publications by climate scientists
29 advocate human-induced climate change (Doran and Zimmerman, 2009, Anderegg et al., 2010,
30 Carlton et al., 2015).

31 Shealy et al. (2016) and Shealy (2018) find that civil engineering students in America who do
32 not believe in human-induced climate change are less likely or never desire to take jobs associated
33 with addressing climate change in their careers. Saleh Safi et al. (2012) examine the relationship
34 among vulnerability, beliefs and risk perception on human-induced climate change in rural Nevada.
35 They report that climate change-specific beliefs, in particular, whether or not people believe in the
36 human-induced causes of climate change and/or whether they connect the locally observed impacts
37 to the climate change, are the most prominent determinants of risk perception. In summary, an idea
38 of human-induced climate change still remains a public controversy despite the consensus among
39 climate scientists (Bray, 2010, Cook et al., 2013, Tol, 2014, Carlton et al., 2015). Aside from this
40 controversy, it is likely that the actual perception and behaviors toward climate change shall be
41 affected by the extent to which people believe in human-induced climate change.

42 Researchers implement surveys on people's perception and their cooperative attitudes toward
43 climate problems by the willingness to pay (WTP) (Brechin and Bhandari, 2011, O'Connor et al.,
44 1999, Akter and Bennett, 2011, Islam et al., 2016). Brechin and Bhandari (2011) confirm that peo-
45 ple in some countries remain more concerned about general environmental problems than global
46 climate change through the comparative national studies on public perception on climate change
47 and its willingness to pay. O'Connor et al. (1999) examine the relationship between people's risk
48 perceptions and their willingness to pay toward climate problems, and report environmental beliefs
49 are strong predictors of behavioral intentions for voluntary actions. Akter and Bennett (2011) ex-
50 amine Australian households' perceptions on climate change and their preferences for mitigation
51 action and find that people's willingness to take actions against climate problems at national and
52 household levels is influenced by their level of mass-media exposure. Moreover, Islam et al. (2016)
53 examine the relationship between climatic perception and flood mitigation cooperation, suggesting
54 that accurate climatic perceptions is a key to increasing people's cooperations in managing climate

55 change.

56 These studies have demonstrated that people's perception influences their cooperative attitudes
57 toward climate change. However, few works have examined people's perception such as the cause
58 of climate change and their cooperative attitudes in a single frame work. Moreover, little is known
59 about what induce people to perceive that climate change is human-induced or nature-induced as
60 well as the linkage between their perception and cooperative attitudes. To examine these issues,
61 we empirically analyze people's human-induced or nature-induced perception and the relation to
62 their cooperative attitudes toward climate change by conducting questionnaire surveys as well as a
63 climate donation game with 400 Japanese subjects. In this survey, we measure and collect people's
64 scientific literacy, social preferences and actual cooperative attitudes to climate change by a climate
65 change donation game in addition to sociodemographic information. Social psychologists and
66 economists argue that scientific literacy and social preferences can be keys to influence people's
67 cooperative attitudes to natural disasters and other social events (Van Lange et al., 2007, Bogaert
68 et al., 2008, Nakagawa, 2016, Mischkowski and Glöckner, 2016, Shahrier et al., 2016, Timilsina
69 et al., 2019). With this data, our research addresses the following two open questions: (1) What are
70 determinants for the human-induced or nature-induced perception on the cause of climate change
71 and (2) How does the perception gap on the cause of climate change along with social preferences
72 and scientific literacy affect people's cooperative attitudes?

73 **2 Materials and methods**

74 We conduct the survey with 400 subjects sourced from the registered participant pool of a
75 web-based survey company, Cross Marketing Inc. The subjects' mean age is 49.61 years with
76 the standard deviation = 17.32, ranging between 20 and 89 years. The area the survey covers is di-
77 vided into the urban and non-urban ones according to the population density of 500 people km⁻². If
78 the population density in the residence area where a subject lives is above or equal 500 people km⁻²,
79 it is urban, otherwise non-urban. This survey collects a sample of 200 subjects in each of urban and

80 non-urban areas with information about (i) sociodemographic factors, such as age, gender, marital
81 status, employment status, educational background, family characteristics and household income,
82 (ii) perceptions on the cause of climate change, (iii) scientific literacy, (iv) cooperation to climate
83 change and (v) social value orientation.

84 Subjects are asked about which perception they have with respect to the cause of climate
85 change: human-induced, nature-induced climate change or others. Subjects read the explana-
86 tory notes 1 and 2, each of which corresponds to the description of what it stands for by saying
87 “human-induced” and “nature-induced” climate change associated with figures 1(a) and 1(b), re-
88 spectively. After subjects understand these explanations, they are asked to choose one option that
89 is the closest to their current perception among the five options. (1) “I choose explanatory note
90 1 of human-induced climate change,” (2) “I choose explanatory note 2 of nature-induced climate
91 change,” (3) “Explanatory notes 1 and 2 are somewhat persuasive, but I cannot choose which one
92 to support,” (4) “None of explanatory notes 1 and 2 are persuasive,” (5) “I cannot judge it because
93 I do not or cannot understand the explanation.”

94 Explanatory note 1: Some researches on climate change suggest that greenhouse gases and carbon
95 dioxide released by human production activities are changing the patterns
96 and cycles of climate around the world as described in figure 1(a). Now,
97 challenges posed by climate change are well recognized. Greenhouse gases
98 and carbon dioxide released from various human activities have an adverse
99 effect on societies.

100 Explanatory note 2: Human impacts on climate change may neither be significant nor be relevant.
101 In the long term of thousands or tens of thousands of years, it is said that
102 climate, the pattern and cycles are changing naturally as demonstrated in fig-
103 ure 1(b). Some researches suggest that the cause of climate change cannot be
104 verified to be human-induced, claiming that human-induced climate change
105 is exaggerated too much. It is appropriate to understand that climate change
106 is a part of natural cycles in the long term dynamics of the earth.

[Figure 1 about here.]

107

108 Scientific literacy is measured by the NISTEP scientific literacy scale adopted from a national
109 questionnaire survey about people's attitudes on general science and technology (NISTEP, 2001).
110 The National Institute of Science and Technology Policy of Japan (NISTEP) has organized the
111 scale consisting of 15 questions regarding general scientific knowledge and literacy and it is em-
112 ployed in some recent researches (Nakagawa, 2016, Jingchao et al., 2018). A subject is asked to
113 answer "true," "false" or "no idea" in each question where either of "true" or "false" is usually set
114 to be a correct answer. When she chooses a correct answer in a question, she scores 1, otherwise
115 0. The answer "no idea" in each question is counted as 0. The scale is defined as the number of
116 questions for which a subject answers correctly, being ranging from 0 to 15.

117 Questions 1-13 pose scientific propositions such as (1) "the center of the Earth is very hot,"
118 (2) "all radioactivity is man-made," (3) "the oxygen we breathe comes from plants," (4) "it is the
119 father's gene that decides whether the baby is a boy or a girl" and so on, each of which shall be
120 answered by choosing "true," "false" or "no idea." Questions 14 and 15 are posed in a different
121 manner. Question 14 is posed as "which travels faster - light or sound?" Each respondent is asked
122 to choose one of the four alternatives: "light," "sound," "the speeds are nearly the same" and "I
123 have no idea." Question 15 comprises two subquestions where the first subquestion is "does the
124 Earth go around the sun or does the sun go around the Earth?" When a subject answers correctly in
125 the first subquestion, the next subquestion is posed as "if the Earth goes around the Sun, how long
126 does it take?" The NISTEP scientific scale is established as a reliable measurement to influence
127 people's behaviors and cooperative attitudes in disaster management and energy issues (Nakagawa,
128 2016, Jingchao et al., 2018).

129 We institute a climate donation game to approximate the degree of people's cooperation toward
130 climate change. This game is considered to be a variant of a dictator game in a two-player setting
131 where one person (the other person) is assigned to be a dictator (a receiver), and the dictator
132 can decide how to split a fixed amount of money between herself and the receiver (See, e.g.,
133 Bolton et al., 1998, Engel, 2011). In most cases, a dictator and a receiver play the game under an

134 anonymous setting so that each player never knows the identity of the other. The climate donation
135 game is distinct from a typical dictator game in two points. First, each subject becomes a dictator,
136 knowing who is a receiver. Second, the receiver is not a human but a well-known organization
137 called “The Green Climate Fund” (GCF) in Japan that runs a series of nonprofit activities to fight
138 against climate change.

139 In the climate donation game, each subject is given 1000 JPY as an initial endowment and asked
140 to distribute the money between herself and GCF as she wishes. If she takes everything (nothing)
141 for herself, the money donated to GCF is 0 JPY (1000 JPY). If she takes 400 JPY for herself, the
142 money donated to GCF is 600 JPY. When we instruct subjects about the climate donation game,
143 we are very careful to state “how to split between yourself and GCF is totally up to you, and
144 nobody can know how you split, because everything is recorded by an ID, not by your name.”
145 Economists use the amount of money the dictator gives to the receiver in dictator games as a good
146 proxy of altruism, i.e., how much one person cares about the general unknown other (Diekmann,
147 2004, Bekkers, 2007, List, 2007, Andreoni et al., 2017). In a similar fashion, we consider that the
148 amount of money the dictator gives to GCF is a good proxy for how much one person cares about
149 climate change, wanting to cooperate for its solution.

150 We use social value orientations (SVOs) in the triple-dominance game developed by Van Lange
151 et al. (1997, 2007) to characterize subjects’ social preferences. It is known to be reliable and to
152 reflect a stable personality trait of how people evaluate interdependent outcomes for themselves and
153 others in social environments (Van Lange et al., 1997). This method categorizes individual value
154 orientations into four types of the “competitive,” “individualistic,” “prosocial” and “unidentified,”
155 depending on their choices in nine questions. In one question, a subject chooses one option among
156 three options, option (1): you get 480 and other gets 80, option (2) you get 480 and other gets 480
157 and option (3) you get 540 and other gets 280. In this example, option (1) represents a competitive
158 orientation that maximizes the point gap between herself and the other ($480 - 80 = 400$); option
159 (2) is a prosocial orientation that maximizes the joint outcome ($480 + 480 = 960$). Option (3)
160 is an individualistic orientation that maximizes her own outcome of 540, being indifferent to the

161 outcome of the other. This SVO game contains nine questions, each of which consists of three
162 options for herself and the other. In each question, one option among the three corresponds to
163 one of the following orientations, i.e., the “competitive,” “individualistic” and “prosocial.” Each
164 subject is asked to choose one option as the most preferred in each item, finally generating nine
165 choices of options. Each subject is classified as the prosocial (the individualistic or competitive)
166 if she makes six or more choices of options with that orientation. Otherwise, she is categorized as
167 the “unidentified.”

168 Our survey experiments have been conducted with real monetary payments in the climate do-
169 nation and SVO games. This is made for motivating subjects to seriously participate in the games,
170 considering their opportunity costs of time as well as their true revelation of social preferences
171 and cooperative behaviors toward climate change. In the SVO games, subjects are informed that
172 we randomly match two subjects as a pair, and the more experimental points one subject gets, the
173 more real money she will earn with some exchange rate (20 points are converted to 1 JPY), which
174 is 226 JPY \approx 2.05 USD on the average. In the climate donation game, subjects are informed that
175 the amount of money they keep is theirs.

176 **3 Results**

177 The description of all variables is presented in Table 1. Table 2 presents the summary statis-
178 tics of the major dependent and independent variables for the urban and non-urban areas. The
179 percentage of female’s subjects to the survey is similar in both urban areas (38 %) and non-urban
180 areas (36 %). Subjects in both of the urban and non-urban areas possess high school graduate as
181 the median. The median household income range in urban areas is 1 million JPY higher than in
182 non-urban areas in Table 2. With respect to occupations, only 2 % of the subjects in non-urban
183 areas are employed in Agriculture or Fishing. This implies that even in non-urban areas people
184 depend on industries other than Agriculture and Fishing in Japan. As predicted by our initial ex-
185 pectation, a high proportion (200 out of 200) of people in urban areas report that they are salaried

186 workers, such as company owners, office workers and civil servants. However, even in non-urban
187 areas, 173 people out of 200 subjects reports that they receive a regular salary. The statistics of the
188 sociodemographic information in Table 2 are in the accordance with our initial expectation, which
189 is that subjects from the urban area have higher values for education level and household income.
190 Therefor, these results indicate that nowadays, in Japan, there is little difference between urban
191 and non-urban areas.

192 Regarding the result of climate donation game, the average donation (JPY) in urban areas
193 (455.53) is higher than in non-urban areas (419.90). The average total of donation both areas is
194 437.71. With respect to perception of the cause of climate change, 30 % of subjects in urban areas
195 and 33 % of subjects in non-urban areas answer that climate change is caused by human-induced
196 factors. On the other hand, 12 % of subjects in urban areas and 14% in non-urban areas answer
197 that climate change is caused by nature-induced factors, respectively. Table 2 also shows subject's
198 SVOs to be a prosocial or proself between the urban and the non-urban. This exhibits that 56 %
199 of subjects in urban areas and 60 % of subjects in non-urban areas of subjects are categorized into
200 "prosocial". The number of prosocial subjects in non-urban areas is only 4 % higher than those in
201 urban areas. This implies the prosociality among people is not so different between the urban and
202 non-urban areas, now a day, in Japan.

203 Furthermore, Table 2 presents subject's scientific literacy. The Cronbach's alpha of this scale
204 is 0.76, showing that this scientific literacy scale has acceptable internal consistency. The median
205 scores of scientific literacy is 9.00 point in both urban and non-urban areas. The average scores of
206 scientific literacy is 8.53 point in urban areas and 8.24 point in non-urban areas. This implies that
207 subject's scientific literacy level among people is not so different between urban and non-urban
208 areas in this survey.

209 [Table 1 about here.]

210 [Table 2 about here.]

[Table 3 about here.]

211

212 Table 3 presents the summary of statistics of subject's perception on the cause of climate
213 change and donation (JPY) toward the prevention of climate change. An interesting feature can be
214 found in the donation by subjects who chose the nature-induced climate change between urban and
215 non-urban areas. With respect to human-induced climate change, the average donation is 590.25
216 in urban area, and 525.00 in non-urban area, respectively in Table 3. Regarding a perception of
217 nature-induced climate change, the average donation in urban area is 535.22 in Table 3 and, the
218 average donation in non-urban area is 272.50. The median of donation from subjects who have
219 the perception of human-induced climate change in urban area (500) is relatively higher than that
220 in non-urban area (100). Subjects who favoured the perception on nature-induced climate change
221 tends to pay less donation toward the prevention of climate change, and especially those subjects
222 in non-urban area donate less than that in the urban area. It implies that the perception of man-
223 induced climate change has something positive relationship with people's cooperation toward the
224 prevention of climate change.

225 Table 3 summarizes the statistics of the subject's Social Value Orientation (SVO) and donation
226 toward the prevention of climate change. The median donation by the prosocial is 500 in each area
227 of urban and non-urban. The average of total donation by the prosocial in both areas is 475.85, and
228 compared with proself of 386.83, the prosocial tends to pay more donation toward the prevention
229 of climate change. This trend is found both in urban and non-urban areas, but donation itself is
230 higher in urban area both prosocial and proself. The average donation by prosocial is 493.43 in
231 urban area and 459.58 in non-urban area. The Median donation of proself is 300 in urban area
232 and 200 in non-urban area. The average donation by the proself is 412.84 in urban area, 352.69 in
233 non-urban area. There seems to be some factors that the donation toward the prevention of climate
234 change increases in urban area.

235 Regarding a marital status, the average donation by the marriage experienced is 520.31, 476.34
236 in order of urban and non-urban areas. The average donation by the marriage non-experienced is
237 314.67, 312.73 in order of urban and non-urban areas. This implies that donation among people is

238 not so different between urban and non-urban areas in this survey. The average donation in urban
 239 area is 520.31 (median = 500), 314.67 (median = 200) in order of marital status experienced and
 240 marital status non-experienced. Furthermore, the average donation in non-urban area is 476.34
 241 (median = 500), 312.73 (median = 198) in order of marital status experienced and marital status
 242 non-experienced. According to these results, the marriage experienced have a tendency to make
 243 more donation to climate change than the marriage non-experienced. With respect to scientific
 244 literacy in Table 3, the average donation in urban area is 382.51, 462.40, 538.53 in order of low,
 245 medium and high. The average donation in non-urban area is 386.59, 509.48, 376.22 in order
 246 of low, medium and high. The average total donation both urban and non-urban areas is 384.72,
 247 487.69, 473.89 in order of low, medium and high. The Median donation of low scientific literacy
 248 (300 in urban areas and 200 in non-urban areas) is lower than that of high scientific literacy (500
 249 in urban areas and 500 in non-urban areas). Overall, from these results, the scientific literacy is
 250 likely to bring positive impacts on people’s attitudes toward climate change.

251 A regression analysis is conducted to verify open question (1): “What are determinants for the
 252 human-induced or nature-induced perception gap on the cause of climate change”. Table 4 reports
 253 the marginal effect of choosing “Human-induced climate change”(human-induced =1, nature-
 254 induced =0) calculated from the results of logistic regressions. The distribution function of logistic
 255 regression model is as follows:

$$Prob(y_i = 1) = \frac{\exp(X_i\beta)}{1 + \exp(X_i\beta)}. \quad (1)$$

256 enable us to compute the probability of determinants for human-induced climate change percep-
 257 tion.

258 Model1 in Table 4 contains scientific literacy. The result reveals this variable exhibit statistical
 259 significance of $p < 0.01$. We add age and gender dummy (female = 1, male = 0) in Model 2
 260 in Table 4. Then, we find that scientific literacy remains statistically significant with the same sign,
 261 and age, and gender dummy exhibit statistical significance of $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively.
 262 In addition, we add SVO (prosocial = 1, otherwise = 0) in Model 3 in Table 4. Then, we find that

263 scientific literacy, age, and gender dummy remains statistically significant with the same sign, and
264 prosociality exhibits statistical significance of $p < 0.10$.

265 To further characterize subject's perception of human-induced climate change, we add other
266 variables such as marital status, educational background, household income, area dummy (urban =
267 1, non-urban = 0), and family type (nuclear family = 1, extended family = 0) in Model 4 in Table 4.
268 We find that scientific literacy, gender dummy, and SVO remains statistically significant with the
269 same sign, and age exhibits statistical significance of $p < 0.05$. There are no significant associations
270 on marital status, educational background, household income, area dummy and family type in
271 Model 4 in Table 4. Overall, these findings demonstrate the factors affect human's perception on
272 the cause of climate change are scientific literacy level, age, gender dummy and prosociality. In
273 particular, our result suggests that enhancement of scientific literacy level is a key to favor the
274 perception of human-induced climate change in Figure 2.

275 [Figure 2 about here.]

276 [Table 4 about here.]

277 [Table 5 about here.]

278 A regression analysis in Table 5 is conducted to test open question (2): "Which people's char-
279 acteristics is identified to be cooperative people toward climate change?". In this experiment, 106
280 out of 400 subjects donated 0 JPY, therefore we perform tobit regression to obtain more accurate
281 results. Model 1 in Table 5 contains people's perception of the human-induced climate change as
282 an independent variable. The distribution function of tobit regression model is as follows:

$$y_i^* = \beta_0 + \mathbf{P}_i\beta_1 + \mathbf{C}_i\beta_2 + \mathbf{S}_i\beta_3 + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

283 enable us to compute which characteristics to pay more donation against climate change.

284 Table 5 reports the marginal effect of the estimated coefficients with statistical significance in
285 the tobit regression of donation toward the prevention of climate change. The result reveals this
286 exhibit the marginal effect (235.016) and statistical significance of $p < 0.01$ in Model 1 in Table 5,
287 and is significantly associated with donation toward the prevention of climate change. Model 2
288 in Table 5 contains people's perception of the human-induced climate change and scientific literacy
289 as independent variables. The result reveals these variables exhibit statistical significance of $p <$
290 0.01 , $p < 0.01$, respectively, and are significantly associated with donation to climate change.
291 However, the magnitude of influence by scientific literacy ($T = 24.101$) is rather small compared
292 with that by the perception on the human-induced climate change ($T = 190.834$). Moreover, we
293 add SVO in Model 3 in Table 5. We find that the perception of human-induced climate change,
294 scientific literacy remains statistically significant with the same sign and magnitude, and SVO has
295 a statistically significant positive correlation with donation toward the prevention of climate change
296 ($T = 102.251$, $p < 0.05$).

297 To further characterize subject's donation toward the prevention of climate change, we add vari-
298 ables such as age, gender dummy, marital status (experienced = 1, non-experienced = 0), household
299 income, educational background and area dummy in Model 3 in Table 5. The result reveals that
300 the perception on human-induced climate change and age exhibit statistical significance of $p < 0.01$
301 and $p < 0.01$, respectively and are positively associated with donation toward the prevention of cli-
302 mate change. We find that SVO, scientific literacy and marital status have statistically significant
303 correlations of $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.10$, and $p < 0.10$, respectively. Other variables such as house-
304 hold income, educational background, and area dummy show no significant associations of them
305 in Model 4 in Table 5. Overall, these findings demonstrate the factors affect donation toward the
306 prevention of climate change are the perception, scientific literacy, prosociality, age and marital ex-
307 perience. In particular, our result suggests that people who have the perception of human-induced
308 climate change pay more donation toward the prevention of climate change in Figure 3.

309

[Figure 3 about here.]

310 There seems to be a strong relationship between scientific literacy and people’s perception of
311 the cause of climate change and donation for that’s countermeasures. Therefore we will introduce
312 the concept of mediation to confirm these three relationships. Mediation is a hypothesized causal
313 chain in which one variable affects a second variable that, in turn, affects a third variable (Newsom,
314 2018). The intervening variable, M, is the mediator. It “mediates” the relationship between a
315 predictor, X, and an outcome. Graphically, mediation can be depicted in the following way of
316 Figure 4(a). Paths a and b are called direct effects, respectively. The mediational effect, in which
317 X leads to Y through M, is called the indirect effect. The direct represents the portion of the
318 relationship between X and Y that is mediated by M. Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed a four
319 steps approach in which several regression analyses are conducted and significance of coefficient
320 is examined at each step. \hat{C} could also be called a direct effect in Figure 4(b).

321 [Figure 4 about here.]

322 To confirm about mediation, do the test with the following procedure.

1. Step1: Conduct a simple regression analysis with X predicting Y to test for path “ \hat{c} ” alone,

$$Y = B_0 + B_1X + e \quad (3)$$

2. Step2: Conduct a simple regression analysis with X predicting M to test for path “ a ”,

$$M = B_0 + B_1X + e \quad (4)$$

3. Step3: Conduct a simple regression analysis with M predicting Y to test the significance of path “ b ” alone:

$$Y = B_0 + B_1M + e \quad (5)$$

4. Step4: Conduct a multiple regression analysis with X and M predicting Y,

$$Y = B_0 + B_1X + B_2M + e \quad (6)$$

- 323 1. Step1: Conduct a simple regression analysis with scientific literacy predicting donation (Y)
324 to test for path “ c ” alone, . The path “ c ” is statistically significant, $P < 0.000$.
- 325 2. Step2: Conduct regression with scientific literacy predicting human-induced climate change
326 to test for path “ a ” alone. The path “ a ” is statistically significant, $P < 0.000$.
- 327 3. Step3: Conduct regression analysis with human-induced climate change predicting donation
328 to test the significance of path “ b ” alone. The path “ b ” is statistically significant, $P <$
329 0.000 .
- 330 4. Step4: Conduct a multiple regression analysis with scientific literacy and human-induced
331 climate change predicting donation. The path “ c ” is statistically significant, $P < 0.005$. The
332 path “ b ” is statistically significant, $P < 0.001$.

333 Considering this fact, the perception of human-induced climate change is the mediator. It
334 mediates the relationship between a scientific literacy and an donation action toward the prevention
335 of climate change. The mediational effect, in which scientific literacy leads to donation behavior
336 against climate change through perceptions, is the indirect effect. Moreover, this test shows that
337 scientific literacy gives a direct effect to donation actions toward the prevention of climate change.
338 Overall, there is strong relationship between scientific literacy, people’s perception of the cause of
339 climate change and donation behavior for that’s countermeasures.

340 Now, with these results, we can answer the two open questions posed at th end of introduction
341 section. (1) What are determinants for the human-induced or nature-induced perception on the
342 cause of climate change? Our answer to this question is that the enhancement of scientific literacy
343 level is a key to favor the perception of human-induced climate change, and (2) How does the
344 perception gap on the cause of climate change along with social preferences and scientific literacy

345 affect people's cooperative attitudes? Our answer to the question is that the perception of human-
346 induced climate change, scientific literacy, and prosociality affect cooperative behavior toward the
347 prevention of climate change. In summary, our results suggest there is strong relationship between
348 scientific literacy, people's perception of the cause of climate change and cooperative behavior for
349 climate change countermeasures.

350 **4 Discussion**

351 Climate change is a serious problem that requires people's cooperation for its solution. Un-
352 fortunately, people seem to have failed in cooperating and coordinating their efforts each other on
353 this issue. The prosocial will be good cooperators to fight against climate change. Some theoret-
354 ical and experimental researches have investigated the relationship between prosociality and the
355 prevention of climate change (e.g. Kline et al., 2018, Meyer and Liebe, 2010, Gatersleben et al.,
356 2014). In a practical manner, the prosocial tend to find in rural areas, contrary to this, more areas in
357 the world are urbanized. Increasing the people those who have prosociality become more difficult
358 in the future. In order to investigate the influence of prosociality on willingness to cooperate to
359 prevent climate change, we conduct a research using two games; an SVO game to measure proso-
360 ciality, and a climate donation game to measure willingness to make a monetary contribution to
361 prevent climate change. In the latter game, we also investigate the possible connection between a
362 person's character and the amount of donation they made. Using the amount of donation as a mea-
363 sure of willingness to cooperate, the results indicate that the prosocial are willing to cooperative
364 toward climate change countermeasures than the prosself. The efforts to enhance prosociality can
365 be expected to increase the people who contributes to climate change countermeasure, but that is
366 tough and mammoth task. Brosig-Koch et al. (2011) have analyzed solidarity gap between east-
367 ern and western Germany in 20 years after reunification, by demonstrating their solidarity game.
368 Their findings indicate that people's social preferences change more slowly than political values.
369 We need to find more better practical methods than the enhancement of people's prosociality to

370 cooperate against climate change problems .

371 These results support the findings of similar research done in Nepal (Timilsina et al., 2019), in
372 which many people in rural areas were classified as being prosocial, and many of those in urban
373 areas were classified to as being proself. That research also proposes that one of the main factors for
374 higher prosociality in rural communities was the higher number of interactions between members
375 who live near each other. However, in the globalization world where urbanization and capitalism
376 expand, a decreasing of the prosocial is a negative factor for climate change. Climate change in
377 urban area is an important problem to be addressed (e.g. Siders, 2017). In this research, however,
378 proportion of the prosocial is 56 % ($n = 111$) in urban area and 60 % ($n = 120$) in non-urban area,
379 only 4 % more in non-urban area than in urban area. This is because, in advanced industrialized
380 countries, such like Japan, even in non-urban area, people are salary workers, and their daily life
381 is almost same as that in urban areas. More ingenuity is necessary to compare rural villages in
382 developing countries and rural villages, not non-urban areas in Japan.

383 Our research focused on the gap between people's perception of the causes of climate change,
384 and their willingness to cooperate to prevent climate change. Our results show that those who
385 favor the perception of man-induced climate change make more monetary contribution to prevent
386 climate change than those who favor the perception of nature-induced climate change in Figure 3.
387 By increasing people who favor the perception on the cause of climate change induce people to
388 cooperate toward mitigation or adaptation of climate change. Furthermore, high score of scientific
389 literacy, becoming senior citizen, marital experience also show a positive influence on people's
390 cooperative behaviour toward the prevention of climate change. Moreover, we need to clarify what
391 causes people to perceive that climate change is human-induced.

392 Our results also show that the four main factors that affected whether of not people favor
393 to human-induced climate change are scientific literacy scores, prosociality, age and gender. In
394 particular, scientific literacy indicates a significant effect to the perceptual formation of human-
395 induced climate change in Figure 2. The regressions of other variables confirm the robustness of
396 the results in Table 3 and Table 4. Interestingly, for those who favors to human-induced climate

397 change, scientific literacy score is positively associated with the perceptual formation, but a high-
398 level academic background has not strongly been affected. Although Sun and Han (2018) states
399 that more highly educated individuals have a higher probability of risk perception regarding climate
400 change, our results suggests that a general science education attainment bring more positive effects
401 on concern for climate change. The acquisition of scientific knowledge tends to make people think
402 that the cause of climate change is human-induced. Contrary to focussing the prosocials, increasing
403 the advocates of human-induced climate change by acquisition a general scientific knowledge is
404 better practical method. Overall, we suggest that by incorporating more education about general
405 science into adult education programs or government policies, the climate change concern would
406 increase.

407 **5 Conclusion**

408 This research analyzes 400 Japanese subjects' perception as to whether the causes of climate
409 change are primarily human-induced or nature-induced and additionally investigates the relation-
410 ship between this perception and the subjects' willingness to cooperative to mitigate the effects
411 climate change. The results suggest two main findings. First, subjects with high levels of scientific
412 literacy tend to have the perception that climate change is human-induced. Second, people iden-
413 tified as being more cooperative toward climate change show strong prosocial value orientation,
414 have high scientific literacy and perceive climate change as human-induced. From these findings,
415 it can be seen that scientific literacy plays important roles, not only as an indirect effect but also
416 a direct effect for willingness to cooperate to mitigate climate change. These findings represent
417 new contributions to the literature since few studies on perceptions of the causes of climate change
418 have included empirical data on subjects' scientific literacy, their perception of the cause of climate
419 change and their willingness to cooperative toward mitigating climate change, as measured by the
420 donations in a game.

421 The expanding speed of urbanization is remarkable, especially in developing countries. How-

422 ever, this urbanization is encroaching on rural life now-a-days. Furthermore, since there are more
423 prosocial people in rural areas than in urban areas, further urbanization will be a negative factor in
424 increasing the number of people who are willing to cooperate toward mitigating climate change. It
425 is a difficult task to increase the number of such cooperative and prosocial people, but the results
426 of our research suggest more feasible method for combating . We suggest a more feasible method
427 for combating climate change than simply increasing the number of prosocial people, namely,
428 enhancing people's scientific literacy increase people's willingness to cooperate toward climate
429 change countermeasures, in both urban areas and non-urban areas, was significantly depending on
430 their scientific literacy. Thus, climate and science education has a large potential to increase the
431 number of people who are willing to address climate problems (Lehtonen et al., 2019). Overall, the
432 results suggest that promoting scientific literacy through policies, such as educational programs, is
433 likely to be key to encourage more members of society to cooperate and so prevent climate change.

434 This research has produced useful results, but it also has limitations which suggest future av-
435 enues of this study. The results in this research were established from responses to a questionnaire
436 on scientific literacy and behavior observed, in a SVO game, and a climate donation game. These
437 results indicate that females believed, more than males, that climate change is human-induced
438 phenomena. However, they did not show a corresponding tendency to make monetary donations
439 toward mitigating climate change. Also, although marital status does not seem to affect the per-
440 ception that climate change is human-induced, we found that married people were willing to make
441 larger donations in order to mitigate climate change. Although other studies have also found that
442 married couples are willing to join cooperative action to mitigate climate change, possibly because
443 of their concern for family health of their future of their children, our result about women's will-
444 ingness to appears to differ from findings of other studies, which indicate that women are willing
445 make a donation, particularly a time donation for the prevention climate change (e.g. Addisu et al.,
446 2016, Van Aelst and Holvoet, 2016, Mandleni and Anim, 2011). Therefore, we can not exclude
447 the possibility that females prefer labor donations over money donations to combat climate change
448 issues. As a result, future studies should consider not only behavioral data but also qualitative

449 data, such as face to face interviews, for the purpose of detailing how and why females tend to
450 believe climate change is human-induced. Bearing in mind these caveats, it is our perception that
451 study is the important first step for the resolution of mechanism of perceptual impact on cooperative
452 behaviors toward climate change, hoping that further studies will ensure to suggest something new
453 to enhance people's cooperative attitude toward climate change.

6 References

- Addisu, S., Fissaha, G., Gediff, B., and Asmelash, Y. (2016). Perception and adaptation models of climate change by the rural people of lake Tana Sub-Basin, Ethiopia. *Environmental system research*, 5:7.
- Akter, S. and Bennett, J. (2011). Household perceptions of climate change and preferences for mitigation action: the case of the carbon pollution reduction scheme in Australia. *Climatic change*, 109:417–436.
- Anderegg, W. R. L., Prall, J. W., Harold, J., and Schneider, S. H. (2010). Expert credibility in climate change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 107:12107–12109.
- Andreoni, J., Rao, J. M., and Trachtman, H. (2017). Avoiding the ask: A field experiment on altruism, empathy, and charitable giving. *Journal of political economy*, 125:625–653.
- Bang, G., Underdal, A., et al. (2015). *The domestic politics of global climate change: Key actors in international climate cooperation*. Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Baron, R. M. and Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51:1173–1182.
- Bechtel, M. M. and Scheve, K. F. (2013). Mass support for global climate agreements depends on institutional design. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 110:13763–13768.
- Bekkers, R. (2007). Measuring altruistic behavior in surveys: The all-or-nothing dictator game. *Survey research methods*, 1:1–11.
- Bogaert, S., Boone, C., and Declerck, C. (2008). Social value orientation and cooperation in social dilemmas: A review and conceptual model. *British journal of social psychology*, 47:453–480.
- Bolton, G. E., Katok, E., and Zwick, R. (1998). Dictator game giving: Rules of fairness versus acts of kindness. *International journal of game theory*, 27:269–299.
- Boyd, R. and Richerson, P. J. (2009). Culture and the evolution of human cooperation. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 364:3281–3288.
- Bray, D. (2010). The scientific consensus of climate change revisited. *Environmental science & policy*, 13:340–350.
- Brechin, S. R. and Bhandari, M. (2011). Perceptions of climate change worldwide. *Wiley interdisciplinary review: Climate change*, 2:871–885.
- Brosig-Koch, J., Helbach, C., Ockenfels, A., and Weimann, J. (2011). Still different after all these years: Solidarity behavior in East and West Germany. *Journal of public economics*, 95:1373–1376.

- Carlton, J. S., Perry-Hill, R., Huber, M., and Prokopy, L. S. (2015). The climate change consensus extends beyond climate scientists. *Environmental research letters*, 10:094025.
- Cook, J., Nuccitelli, D., Green, S. A., Richardson, M., Winkler, B., Painting, R., Way, R., Jacobs, P., and Skuce, A. (2013). Quantifying the consensus on anthropogenic global warming in the scientific literature. *Environmental research letters*, 8:024024.
- Council, N. R. et al. (2011). *America's climate choices*. National Academies Press.
- Diekmann, A. (2004). The power of reciprocity: Fairness, reciprocity, and stakes in variants of the dictator game. *Journal of conflict resolution*, 48:487–505.
- Doran, P. T. and Zimmerman, M. K. (2009). Examining the scientific consensus on climate change. *Eos, transaction american geophysical union*, 90:22–23.
- Engel, C. (2011). Dictator games: A meta study. *Experimental economics*, 14:583–610.
- Fischer, A. P. and Charnley, S. (2012). Risk and cooperation: managing hazardous fuel in mixed ownership landscapes. *Environmental management*, 49:1192–1207.
- Gatersleben, B., Murtagh, N., and Abrahamse, W. (2014). Values, identity and pro-environmental behaviour. *Contemporary social science*, 9:374–392.
- Hegerl, G. C., Zwiers, F. W., Braconnot, P., Gillett, N. P., Luo, Y., Marengo Orsini, J., Nicholls, N., Penner, J. E., and Stott, P. A. (2007). *Understanding and attributing climate change*. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University Press.
- Höök, M. and Tang, X. (2013). Depletion of fossil fuels and anthropogenic climate change—A review. *Energy policy*, 52:797–809.
- Islam, M., Kotani, K., and Managi, S. (2016). Climate perception and flood mitigation cooperation: A Bangladesh case study. *Economic analysis and policy*, 49:117–133.
- Jingchao, Z., Kotani, K., and Saijo, T. (2018). Public acceptance of environmentally friendly heating in Beijing: A case of a low temperature air source heat pump. *Energy policy*, 117:75–85.
- Karl, T. R. and Trenberth, K. E. (2003). Modern global climate change. *Science*, 302:1719–1723.
- Kline, R., Seltzer, N., Lukinova, E., and Bynum, A. (2018). Differentiated responsibilities and prosocial behavior in climate change mitigation: Behavioral evidence from the United States and China. *Nature human behaviour*, 2:653–661.
- Koneswaran, G. and Nierenberg, D. (2008). Global farm animal production and global warming: Impacting and mitigating climate change. *Environmental health perspectives*, 116:578–582.
- Lehtonen, A., Salonen, A. O., and Cantell, H. (2019). Climate change education: A new approach for a world of wicked problems. In Cook, J. W., editor, *Sustainability, human well-being, and the future of education*, pages 339–374. Springer.

- Leiserowitz, A., Maibach, E., Roser-Renouf, C., and Smith, N. (2010). Climate change in the American mind: Americans' global warming beliefs and attitudes in January 2010. Technical report, Yale project on climate change.
- List, J. A. (2007). On the interpretation of giving in dictator games. *Journal of political economy*, 115(3):482–493.
- Mandleni, B. and Anim, F. D. K. (2011). Climate change awareness and decision on adaptation measures by livestock farmers in South Africa. *Journal of agricultural science*, 3:258–268.
- Meyer, R. and Liebe, U. (2010). Are the affluent prepared to pay for the planet?: Explaining willingness to pay for public and quasi-private environmental goods in Switzerland. *Population and environment*, 32:42–65.
- Mischkowski, D. and Glöckner, A. (2016). Spontaneous cooperation for prosocials, but not for pro-selfs: Social value orientation moderates spontaneous cooperation behavior. *Scientific reports*, 6:21555.
- Nakagawa, Y. (2016). Effect of critical thinking disposition on household earthquake preparedness. *Natural hazards*, 81:807–828.
- Newsom, J. T. (2018). Testing mediation with regression analysis. Technical report, Portland State University.
- NISTEP (2001). Survey on attitudes towards science and technology. Technical report, National Institute of Science and Technology of Japan.
- O'Connor, R. E., Bard, R. J., and Fisher, A. (1999). Risk perceptions, general environmental beliefs, and willingness to address climate change. *Risk analysis*, 19:461–471.
- Pacheco, J. M., Vasconcelos, V. V., and Santos, F. C. (2014). Climate change governance, cooperation and self-organization. *Physics of life reviews*, 11:573–586.
- Rand, D. G., Dreber, A., Ellingsen, T., Fudenberg, D., and Nowak, M. A. (2009). Positive interactions promote public cooperation. *Science*, 325:1272–1275.
- Saleh Safi, A., James Smith Jr, W., and Liu, Z. (2012). Rural Nevada and climate change: Vulnerability, beliefs, and risk perception. *Risk analysis*, 32:1041–1059.
- Shahrier, S., Kotani, K., and Kakinaka, M. (2016). Social value orientation and capitalism in societies. *PLoS ONE*, 11:e0165067.
- Shealy, T. (2018). Measuring misconceptions about climate change between freshmen and senior civil engineering students. In *ASSE Annual Conference and Exposition. Conference proceedings, June 2018*.
- Shealy, T., Valdes-Vasquez, R., Klotz, L., Potvin, G., Godwin, A., Cribbs, J., and Hazari, Z. (2016). Half of students interested in civil engineering do not believe in anthropogenic climate change. *Journal of professional issues in engineering education and practice*, 143:D4016003.

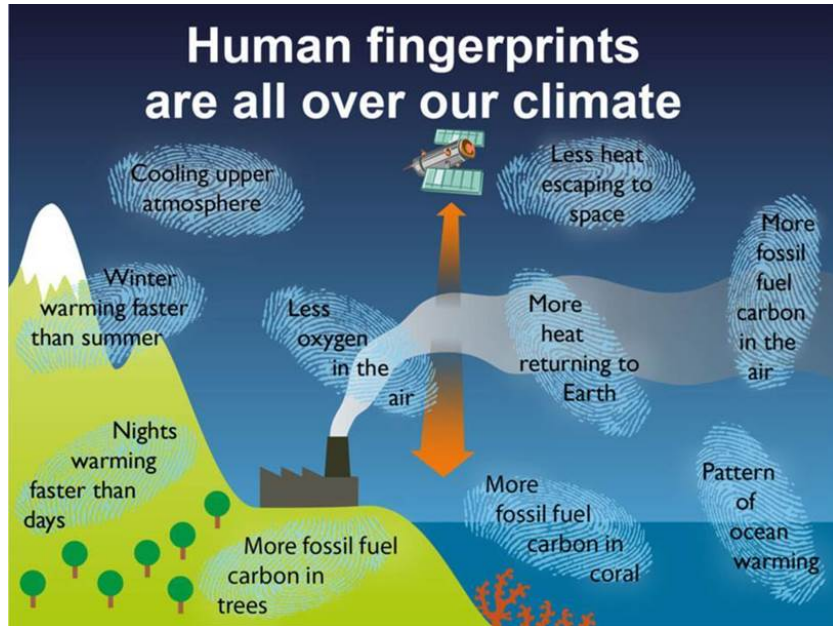
- Siders, A. R. (2017). A role for strategies in urban climate change adaptation planning: Lessons from London. *Regional environmental change*, 17:1801–1810.
- Solomon, S., Plattner, G.-K., Knutti, R., and Friedlingstein, P. (2009). Irreversible climate change due to carbon dioxide emissions. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 106:1704–1709.
- Sun, Y. and Han, Z. (2018). Climate change risk perception in Taiwan: Correlation with individual and societal factors. *International journal of environmental research and public health*, 15:91.
- Tattersall, I. (2011). Cooperation, altruism, and human evolution: Introduction part i. In Sussman, R. W. and Cloninger, C. R., editors, *Origins of altruism and cooperation*, pages 11–18. Springer.
- Timilsina, R. R., Kotani, K., and Kamijo, Y. (2019). Generativity and social value orientation between rural and urban societies in a developing country. *Futures*, 105:124–132.
- Tobler, C., Visschers, V. H. M., and Siegrist, M. (2011). Eating green: Consumers' willingness to adopt ecological food consumption behaviors. *Appetite*, 57:674–682.
- Tol, R. S. J. (2014). Quantifying the consensus on anthropogenic global warming in the literature: A re-analysis. *Energy policy*, 73:701–705.
- Van Aelst, K. and Holvoet, N. (2016). Intersections of gender and marital status in accessing climate change adaptation: Evidence from rural Tanzania. *World development*, 79:40–50.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., De Bruin, E., Otten, W., and Joireman, J. A. (1997). Development of prosocial, individualistic, and competitive orientations: Theory and preliminary evidence. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 73:733–746.
- Van Lange, P. A. M., De Cremer, D., Van Dijk, E., and Van Vugt, M. (2007). Self-interest and beyond: Basic principles of social interaction. In Kruglanski, A. W. and Higgins, E. T., editors, *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles*, pages 540–561. Guilford press, 2 edition.

List of Figures

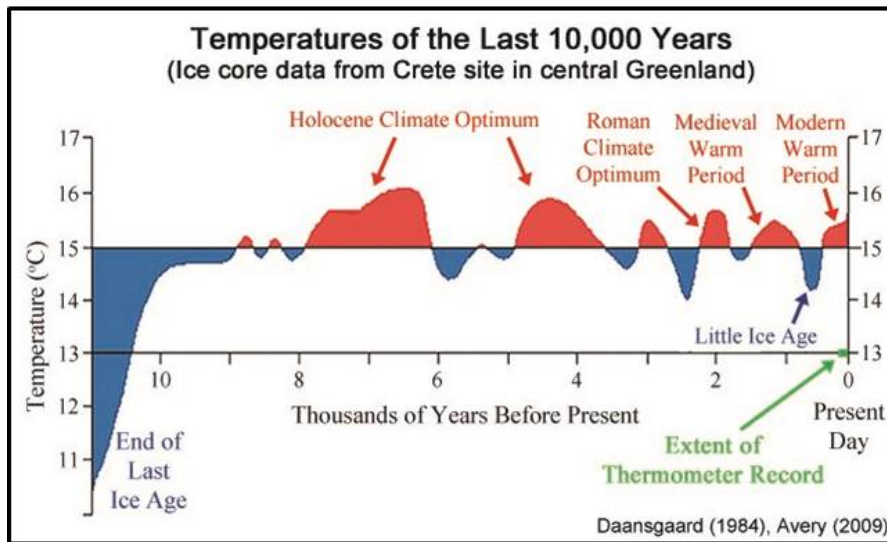
1	People's perceptions of the cause of climate change	27
2	Scientific literacy and perception	28
3	Donation and perception on the cause of climate change	29
4	Mediation	30

Figure 1: People's perceptions of the cause of climate change

(a) Human-induced climate change



(b) Nature-induced climate change



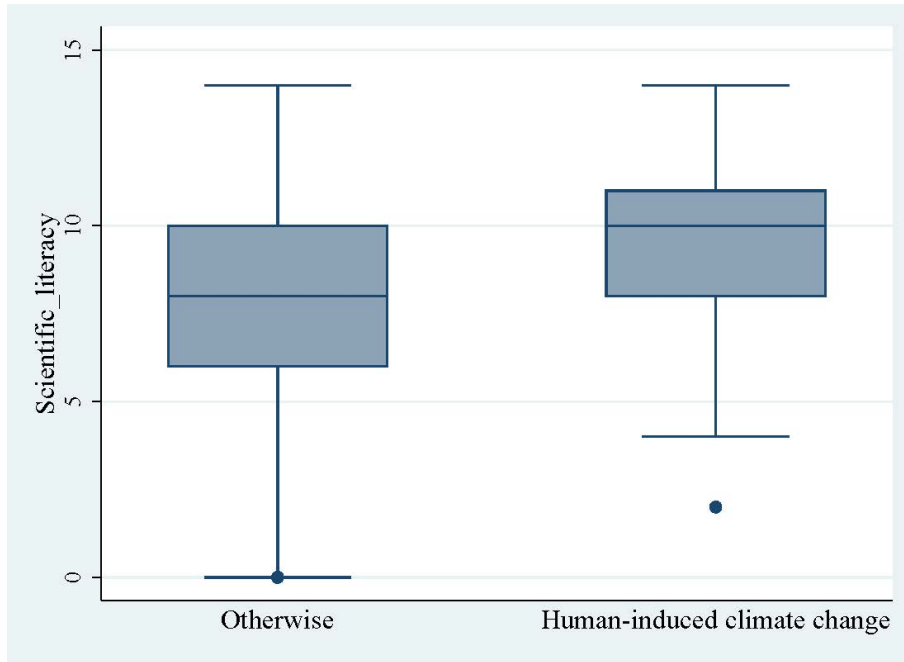


Figure 2: Scientific literacy and perception

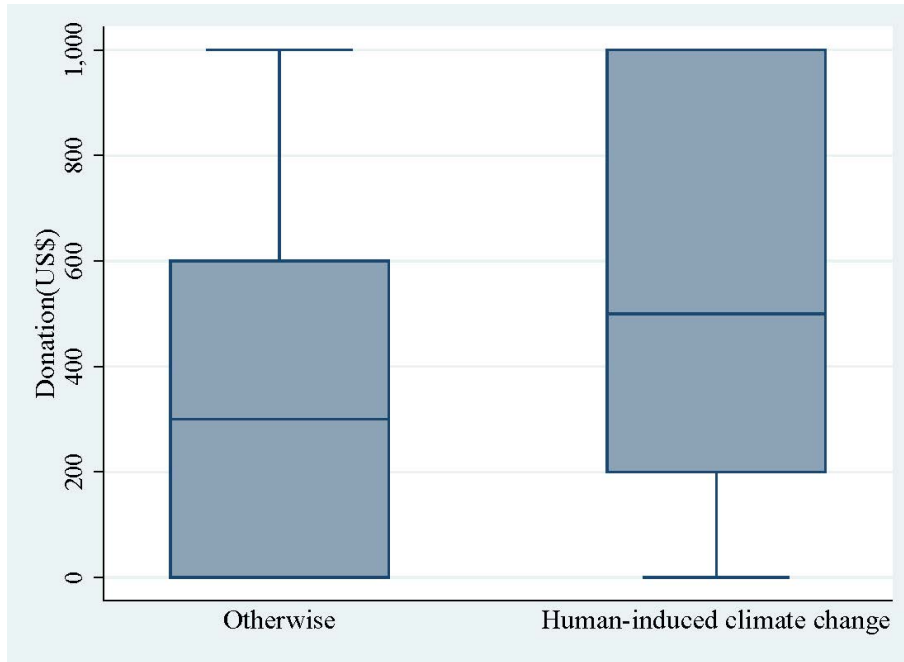
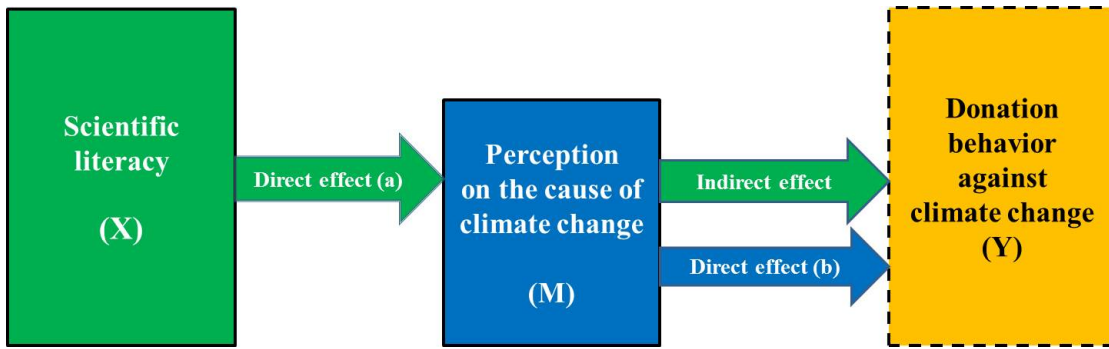


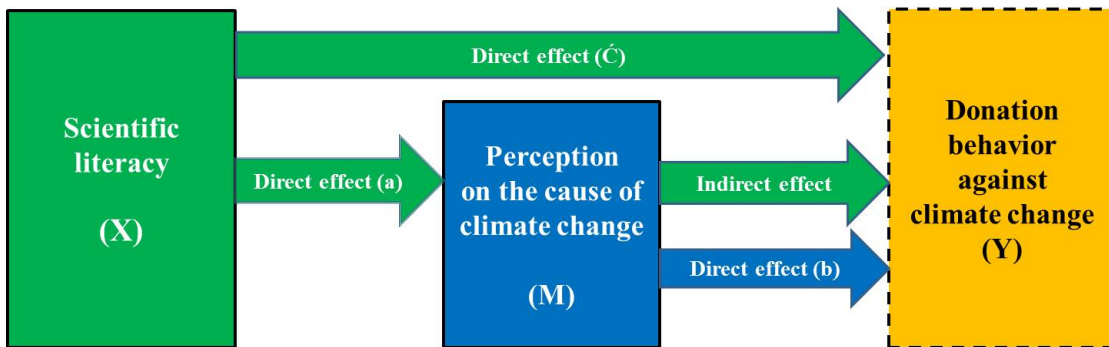
Figure 3: Donation and perception on the cause of climate change

Figure 4: Mediation

(a) Indirect effect from X to Y



(b) Direct effect from X to Y



List of Tables

1	the definition of the variables	32
2	Summary statistics of subject's sociodemographic information, donation, perception of the cause of climate change, SVO and scientific literacy	33
3	Donation to climate change across regions and variables such as perceptions of climate change, SVO, marital status and scientific literacy	34
4	Marginal effects after logit regression adaptation model	35
5	Marginal effects of tobit regression adaptation model	36

Table 1: the definition of the variables

Variables	Descriptions
Age	Age is defined as years of age.
Gender	Gender is a dummy variable that takes 1 when the subject is female, otherwise 0.
Education	Education is categorical variables of 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4 where educational background, No scholastic, Junior high school, high school, undergraduate, graduate and otherwise are coded as 0, 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively.
Household income	Household income per year in JPY. Categorical variable of 0 to 12 with an interval of 1 M, however where 11 presents as earning 10 M < 15 M, and 12 represents as earning more than 15 M per year.
Marital status	Marital status is a dummy variable that categorical variable of 0 and 1 where marital status experienced ,marital status non-experienced are coded as 0 and 1, respectively.
Family type	Family type is that categorical variable of 0 and 1 where family type ,nuclear family, extended family are coded as 0 and 1 respectively.
Donation	Donation is defined as a donation payment (Range is between from 1000JPY)
Perception of the cause of climate change	Perception of the cause of climate change represents a dummy variable taking 1 when the subject chooses Human-induced and otherwise (Nature-induced, Can not say, and No idea) 0.
SVO	The “SVO” represents a dummy valuable taking 1 when the subject is prosocial. and otherwise 0, based on SVO games.
Scientific literacy	This scale is defined as the number of questions for which respondents provided correct answers. The theoretical range is from 0 to 15.

Table 2: Summary statistics of subject's sociodemographic information, donation, perception of the cause of climate change, SVO and scientific literacy

	Urban areas					Non-urban areas				
	Mean	Median	SD ¹	Min	Max	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max
Age	49.4	47	17.72	20	89	49.82	49	16.96	21	86
Gender	0.38	0	0.49	0	1	0.36	0	0.48	0	1
Education	2.71	3	0.7	0	4	2.54	3	0.67	1	4
Household income	6.21	6	3.1	0	12	5.52	5	2.97	0	12
Marital status	0.69	1	0.47	0	1	0.66	1	0.48	0	1
Family type	0.1	0	0.3	0	1	0.12	0	0.33	0	2
Occupation (Agriculture & Fisher)	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0.00	0.12	0	1
Donation	455.53	500	403.88	0	1000	419.9	400	381.09	0	1000
Perception of Climate change	0.3	0	0.46	0.0	1	0.33	0	0.47	0	1
SVO	0.56	1	0.5	0	1	0.6	1	0.49	0	1
Scientific literacy	8.53	9	3.36	0	14	8.24	9	2.95	0	14
Subjects(Total $n = 400$)	$n = 200$					$n = 200$				

¹ SD stands for standard deviation.

Table 3: Donation to climate change across regions and variables such as perceptions of climate change, SVO, marital status and scientific literacy

	Urban areas						Non-urban areas					
	<i>n</i>	Mean	Median	SD ¹	Min	Max	<i>n</i>	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max
Perception of climate change												
Human-induced	60	590.25	500	386.23	0	1000	66	525	500	365.88	0	1000
Nature-induced	23	535.22	500	444.23	0	1000	28	272.50	100	326.7	0	1000
Otherwise	117	370.78	300	385.55	0	1000	106	393.39	300	389.2	0	1000
SVO												
Prosocial	111	493.43	500	394.41	0	1000	120	459.58	500	379.70	0	1000
Proself ²	63	412.84	300	411.48	0	1000	48	352.69	200	389.20	0	1000
Unknown	26	397	400	423.76	0	1000	32	371.88	250	365.65	0	1000
Marital status												
Marital status non-experienced	63	314.67	200	388.56	0	1000	69	312.73	198	367.72	0	1000
Marital status experienced	137	520.31	500	403.11	0	1000	131	476.34	500	377.19	0	1000
Scientific literacy												
Low	82	382.51	300	406.65	0	1000	97	386.59	200	394.66	0	1000
Middle	50	462.40	500	385.97	0	1000	58	509.48	500	363.88	0	1000
High	68	583.53	500	402.59	0	1000	45	376.22	500	361.23	0	1000
Subjects(Total <i>n</i> = 400)												<i>n</i> = 200
												<i>n</i> = 200

¹ SD stands for standard deviation.

² Proself includes individualists and competitors.

Table 4: Marginal effects after logit regression adaptation model

Variable	Marginal effect			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Scientific literacy	0.044*** (0.007)	0.039*** (0.008)	0.039*** (0.008)	0.040*** (0.008)
Age		0.004*** (0.001)	0.004*** (0.001)	0.003*** (0.001)
Gender dummy (Female = 1, Male = 0)		0.096** (0.045)	0.100** (0.045)	0.083** (0.046)
SVO (Prosocial = 1, Otherwise = 0)			0.069* (0.049)	0.066* (0.045)
Marital status (Experienced = 1, Non-experienced = 0)				0.069 (0.059)
Education				-0.040 (0.045)
Household income				0.007 (0.008)
Area dummy (Urban = 1, Non-urban = 0)				-0.045 (0.234)
Family type (Nuclear family = 1, Extended family = 0)				-0.004 (0.070)

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

Table 5: Marginal effects of tobit regression adaptation model

Variable	Marginal effect			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Perception (Human-induced = 1, Otherwise = 0)	235.016*** (54.566)	190.834*** (56.004)	183.948*** (55.835)	136.400*** (55.317)
Scientific literacy		24.101*** (8.490)	22.996*** (8.477)	13.506* (8.881)
SVO (Prosocial = 1, Otherwise = 0)			102.251** (51.441)	104.477** (50.191)
Age			4.935*** (1.696)	67.191 (64.313)
Gender dummy (Female = 1, Male = 0)				93.457* (64.313)
Marital status (Experienced = 1, Non-experienced = 0)				6.037 (8.611)
Household income				-27.055 (3.912)
Education				49.880 (49.651)
Area dummy (Urban = 1, Non-urban = 0)				

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