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Happiness, generativity and social preferences in a developing country

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Abstract

Happiness, generativity and social preferences are pivotal factors for betterment and sustainability of societies. However, little is known about the relationship among happiness, generativity and social preferences along with sociodemographic factors within a single analytical framework. We hypothesize that generativity and social preferences are the determinants for happiness, and conduct a survey experiment collecting the data of five subjective happiness scales, generativity, social value orientation and sociodemographic variables in one urban area (Dhaka) and two rural areas (Bogra and Gaibandha), Bangladesh. With the data, we empirically characterize the determinants of subjective happiness with a focus on generativity and social value orientation, controlling for sociodemographic factors. The statistical analysis consistently shows positive association between subjective happiness and generativity, irrespective of the types of happiness scales, while social value orientation does not exhibit any significance. Rural residents have lower peer relative happiness than urban ones, and household income has positive relationship with general subjective happiness, leading each of these factors to be significant in overall subjective happiness. In summary, our results suggest that generativity and income are the main determinants, and economic growth with further urbanization, which is expected to occur in future, can negatively affect people's happiness if it brings a decrease in generativity.

Key Words: Happiness; generativity; social value orientation; sociodemographic factors; developing countries

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Nomenclature

AH	Absolute self-rated happiness
BDT	Bangladeshi Taka
GBC	Generativity behavioral checklis
GSH	General subjective happiness
GSU	General subjective unhappiness
OLS	Ordinary least squares
OSH	Overall subjective happiness
PRH	Peer relative happiness
SD	Standard deviation
SH	Subjective happiness
SHS	Subjective happiness scale
SVO	Social value orientation

1 Introduction

- Ancient philosophers and modern scholars, such as Aristotle and Bentham, claim that happiness
- is an ultimate goal of humans life (Lyubomirsky, 2001, Sato et al., 2015). Happiness is interpreted to
- be an outcome of "good life," which might be driven by social status and/or some sociodemographic

factors in contemporary societies (Diener et al., 1985, Frey, 2008, John Knight, 2009, Asadullah and Chaudhury, 2012). On the other hand, generativity and prosociality are claimed to be crucial factors for the betterment and sustainability of societies, because they are conceptualized as a concern and commitment for people in current and future generations, and prosocial people with high generativity tend to help, mentor and educate general others (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992, Timilsina et al., 2019). Therefore, happiness, generativity and prosociality shall be considered basic foundations of current and future societies, and this paper addresses the relationship among the three factors along with sociodemographic factors.

Social status and/or sociodemographic factors have been studied as possible determinants of 13 'good life," leading to an increase in individual happiness. Past literature has focused on examining the association of particular economic factors and urbanization with happiness. Income is generally reported to have positive relationship with happiness, while age, gender, education and religion have mixed outcomes (Tepperman and Laasen, 1990, Fujita et al., 1991, Lyubomirsky and Ross, 1997, 17 Kahneman et al., 1999, Easterlin, 2001, Helliwell, 2003, Easterlin, 2003, Blanchflower and Oswald, 2004, Biswas-Diener et al., 2004, Lyubomirsky et al., 2005, Kahneman et al., 2006, John Knight, 2009, Asadullah and Chaudhury, 2012, Jiang et al., 2012, Ngamaba and Soni, 2017, Asadullah et al., 2018). Requena (2015) and Kim (2018) compare people's happiness between rural and urban areas in both developed and developing countries. They illustrate that rural residents have lower happiness than urban ones in developing countries, while the opposite is true in developed countries. They argue that the result may be due to living standards and availability of public goods depending on the stages of economic development. 25

Research on happiness along with social behaviors and psychological factors has gained wide interest for the last few decades. The literature finds that charity or buying some gifts for friends has a positive association with happiness, demonstrating that such prosocial acts and individual happiness possess a positive feedback loop (Dunn et al., 2008, Konow and Earley, 2008, Konow, 2010, Dunn et al., 2010, Aknin et al., 2012, Dunn et al., 2014, Geenen et al., 2014, Bischoff and Krauskopf, 2015, Koch, 2015, Nelson et al., 2016). There are several researches in psychology that

examine the correlation between generativity and happiness. McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992),
de St. Aubin and McAdams (1995) and Keyes and Ryff (1998) establish the positive correlation
using student and adult subject pools in USA. Stewart et al. (2001) study a temporal change in
happiness with middle-aged women in USA, finding that happiness does not necessarily decline
in age and has positive association with generativity. Hofer et al. (2007), Huta and Zuroff (2008),
Hofer et al. (2014, 2016) and Au et al. (2019) address possible mediators between happiness, life
satisfaction and generativity with student subjects in Canada and adult ones in Cameroon, Costa
Rica, Germany, Czech Republic and Hong-Kong, respectively. They find some mediators such as
symbolic immortality and altruism to explain the relation among the factors.

Previous studies establish that there is positive association between happiness and generativity using two-variable correlation analysis possibly with structural modeling, and prosocial acts tend to increase happiness. However, it is claimed that prosocial acts are at most spontaneous or temporal, and it is important to consider individual social preferences along with sociodemographic factors, because the preference is established to be stable or not to change in the long run (Varian, 1992, Aknin et al., 2012, Carlsson et al., 2014). Moreover, little is known about the relationship among happiness, generativity and social preferences along with sociodemographic factors within a single analytical framework, despite the importance of the three factors in understanding the betterment and sustainability of societies in future. We hypothesize that generativity and social preferences are the determinants for happiness, and conduct a survey experiment collecting the data of five subjective happiness scales, generativity, social value orientation and sociodemographic variables in one urban area (Dhaka) and two rural areas (Bogra and Gaibandha), Bangladesh. With the data, we empirically characterize the determinants of subjective happiness with a focus on generativity and social value orientation, controlling for sociodemographic factors.

5 2 Methods and materials

We conducted a questionnaire survey and experiment in three districts of Bangladesh: Dhaka, 56 Bogra and Gaibandha (figure 1). We consider them as one urban area of Dhaka and two rural areas of 57 Bogra and Gaibandha. We choose the regions because they possess the same culture, language and religious variation except sociodemographic factors and economic development where Bangladesh is culturally and ethnically a homogeneous country. Dhaka is the capital city representing an urban society and it is located between 23°55′ and 24°81′ north latitude, and between 90°18′ and 90°57′ 61 east longitude (Dewan and Corner, 2014). The population, population density and total area are 14.51 million, 10 484 km⁻² and 1371 km², respectively, which makes Dhaka the most populated city in the world. The rural areas consist of two districts: (i) Bogra and (ii) Gaibandha. Bogra consists of two 65 unions of the Shajahanpur subdistrict in the northern districts, Amrool and Chopinagar (figure 1). 66 The location of Shajhanpur subdistrict is between 24°41′ and 24°50′ north latitudes, and between 67 89°16′ and 89°29′ east longitudes. Shajhanpur's land area is 54 783 acres; Amrool's and Chopinagar's land areas are 6106 acres and 4048 acres, respectively (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2011). The population densities in Amrool and Chopinagar are 951 km⁻² and 1357 km⁻², respectively, whereas the country average is 1218 km⁻² (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Villages in 71 these two unions are agrarian societies, while agro-based and small-scale businesses are available in very limited areas. 73 Gaibandha comprises three unions of the Palashbari subdistrict, which are Harinathpur, Hossain-74 pur and Monoharpur. The location of the Palashbari is between 25°11′ and 25°19′ north latitude; and 75 between 89°16′ and 89°32′ east longitude. Land area, population density and total population in the Palashbari are 45 774 acre, 1321 km⁻² and 244 792, respectively (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Villages in the unions are also agrarian societies and they are considered the least developed in Bangladesh. All the dwellers engage in farming either as subsistence farmers or as cash-crop farmers. In what follows, we refer to these study areas as Bogra and Gaibandha, interchangeably mentioning them as rural areas.

We collected 105 subjects in Dhaka by an individual survey, basing our randomization on the 82 proportion of each occupation in the population (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2015). The number 83 of subjects needed in each occupation was determined, and we selected a number of organizations for each occupation. After that, we contacted these organizations and we randomly invited subjects 85 from these organizations based on their responses. The response rates for organizations and for 86 subjects were 50 % and 60 %, respectively. We collected 142 and 150 subjects in two rural areas of 87 Bogra and Gaibandha, respectively, by an individual survey with the following random sampling procedures. First, we obtained a list of the households that resides in Bogra and Gaibandha 89 from local city offices, and we randomly chose households that approximate the representatives for each area. Second, we sent a letter to invite one member (who earns income) from each household to participate in our survey and experiment, and the response rate was 75 \%. As of the measurement for the main variables in our analysis, the subjective happiness scale (SHS), generative behavioral checklist (GBC) and social value orientation (SVO) are employed to represent the subjects' happiness, generativity and social preferences, respectively (McAdams and de St. Aubin, 1992, Van Lange et al., 1997, McAdams et al., 1998, Lyubomirsky and Lepper, 1999, Van Lange et al., 2007). 97

[Figure 1 about here.]

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We use the subjective happiness scale of a four-item measurement developed by Lyubomirsky 99 and Lepper (1999) where each item is a 7-point Likert scale. The first question in the scale reports 100 individual absolute self-rated happiness (AH) by stating "in general, I consider myself" and its anchors are "not a very happy person" and "a very happy person." The second item reports individual 102 relative happiness as compared with peers by stating "compared to my peers, I consider myself" 103 and its anchors are "less happy" or "more happy" and it is called peer relative happiness (PRH.) 104 Third and fourth items correspond to a general description of a happy and/or unhappy person where subjects make a choice to describe them most. In the items, "some people are generally very happy. 106 They enjoy life no matter what is going on, getting the most of everything. How much does this sentence describe you?" and "some people are generally not very happy. Although they are not

depressed, they never seem as happy as they might be. How much does this sentence describe you?"

The anchors are "not at all" and "a great deal.", which are called general subjective happiness and
unhappiness (i.e., GSH and GSU), respectively. To calculate the overall subjective happiness (OSH),
the average of the four items is calculated, while the fourth item is reversely coded.

The generative behavior checklist (GBC) developed by McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) is employed to measure the frequency of people's generative behaviors in the last two months. This measure contains a list of 50 activities, out of them, only 40 activities are considered indicators of "generativity." "Taught somebody a skill," "Gave a money to a charity," "Made a decision that influence many people" and "Served as a role model for a young person" are some examples of the generative activities. Subjects need to tick one of the three options for each activity. The "zero," "one" or "two" are the scores to indicate that subjects have not participated in each generative activity, participated in it once or participated in it more than once over the last one year, respectively. The score of the generativity for each subject is calculated as the sum of the scores in all the 40 items.

The social value orientation (SVO) developed by Van Lange et al. (1997) is employed to identify the social preference for each subject. This game consists of 9 items, each of which contains three choices. Subjects are asked to make one choice for each item for dividing an amount of money between himself and a stranger, for example, (A) you get 500 and the other gets 100, (B) you get 500 and the other gets 500 and (C) you get 560 and the other gets 330. Option (A) represents the competitive person as it maximizes the gap between self point and the other's point (500 - 100 = 400). Option (B) represents the prosocial person as it maximizes the joint benefit (500 + 500 = 1000), while option (C) is the individualistic person as it maximizes own benefits without considering the other (Van Lange et al., 2007). Four types of individual SVO are identified by this game, i.e., individualistic, competitive, prosocial and unidentified, based on their choices in the game. When the subject makes a consistent choice in 6 items for one orientation (i.e., individualistic, competitive or prosocial), then she is considered to be that orientation, otherwise "unidentified." We randomly matched two subjects as a pair to compute their final payoff based on their performances in the game. Subjects are paid on average 100 BDT for the SVO, while a fixed

participation fee of 150 BDT is paid to all the subject and the total payment on average is 250 BDT per subject.

This study hypothesizes that generativity and social preferences are the determinants for happiness. To test this hypothesis, parametric and nonparametric statistical analyses are employed by utilizing the data of SHS, GBC, SVO and sociodemographic factors collected in a questionnaire survey and experiment. The nonparametric Mann-Whitney tests are applied to check the difference in the distributions of subjective happiness (SH) between the urban and rural areas or between prosocial and proself orientations in SVO, while the Pearson correlation is applied to discover the nature of the relationship between SH and generativity and the key sociodemographic factors. We also employ regression analyses to quantitatively identify the determinants of SHS. The Poisson regression is applied for the four components of SHS as the scales are count variables (i.e., absolute self-rated happiness (AH), peer relative happiness (PRH), general subjective happiness (GSH) and general subjective unhappiness (GSU), while we apply ordinary least squares (OLS) for the aggregate SHS (i.e., overall subjective happiness) as it is a continuous variable. The following equation is estimated for Poisson regression and OLS ($k \in \{AH, PRH, GSH, GSU, OSH\}$):

$$Y^{k} = \beta_{0}^{k} + \beta_{1}^{k} X + \beta_{2}^{k} S + \beta_{3}^{k} Z + \epsilon^{k}$$
(1)

where Y^k is the explanatory variable (AH, PRH, GSH, GSU and OSH), X is the generativity score of subjects, S is a dummy variable representing SVO that takes unity for individualistic and competitive subjects (i.e., proself) and 0 otherwise, Z is a vector of sociodemographic variables that may affect SH and ϵ^k is the error term (See table 1 where the definitions of every variable used in the statistical analysis). The parameters β_i s for i=0,1,2 are the coefficients for intercept, X and X to be estimated, while X is a vector of coefficients for independent variables X related to sociodemographic factors.

With the regression analyses of equation (1), we intend to examine a conceptual framework for the relationship among subjective happiness (SH), generativity and SVO along with sociodemo-

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graphic factors in figure 2. In this framework, a coefficient on each key variable, β_i , i = 0, 1, 2, is considered to represent the marginal effect of that variable on SH, after the effects of other variables 148 are netted out. For example, β_1 is considered to represent the effect of generativity on SH, after the 149 effects of SVO and sociodemographic factors have been netted out, while some possible mediators 150 may play roles in characterizing subjective happiness through several independent variables. In this 151 research, our focus is on estimating β_1 , β_2 and β_3 in figure 2. The interpretation of these coefficients 152 in Poisson regression is derived as follows (Wooldridge, 2013); the marginal effect of a continuous 153 independent variable such as generativity should be calculated by the formula of $100 \times \beta_j$ to be a 154 percentage change in Y when the continuous variable increases by one unit. In the case of a dummy 155 independent variable such as SVO (proself = 1, otherwise 0), it is calculated by $\exp(\beta_j) - 1$ to be 156 interpreted as a percentage change in Y when the dummy variable increases from 0 to 1. 157

[Figure 2 about here.]

59 3 Results

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Table 1 summarizes basic statistics of generativity, social value orientation (SVO), sociodemo-160 graphic variables and subjective happiness (SH) for the urban subjects (Dhaka), the rural subjects 161 (Bogra and Gaibandha) and overall subjects in the sample. The mean score of subjects' generativity 162 in the urban area, the rural areas and overall sample are fairly similar at 28.57 points (SD = 12.3), 163 29.25 points (SD = 11.88) and 29.09 points (SD = 11.98), respectively. By contrast, SVO is 164 different among the urban area, the rural areas and the overall sample as the percentages of pro-165 self subjects are 84%, 64% and 70%, respectively. The result is consistent with past literature 166 in that sense that the percentage of proself people becomes higher in urban areas than in rural 167 areas (Shahrier et al., 2016, Timilsina et al., 2017, 2019). Another difference is on the average 168 year of education as urban subjects have 12.68 years (SD = 4.91), rural subjects have 8.97 years 169 (SD = 3.86) and overall subjects in the sample have 9.95 years (SD = 4.47) on an average.

The largest variation in the sample is found in average household income as it is 47.7 thousand BDT (SD = 49.02), 16.6 thousand BDT (SD = 21.41) and 24.81 thousand BDT (SD = 34.02) in the urban area, the rural areas and the overall sample, respectively. Regarding happiness, urban subjects have a higher SH in the four scales of subjective happiness scale than rural subjects and overall subjects in the sample, leading the overall subjective happiness (OSH) to be higher for urban subjects with an average of 5.12 points (SD = 0.99) than rural subjects with an average of 4.72 points (SD = 1.05) and overall subjects in the sample with an average of 4.83 points (SD = 1.69). These statistics suggest that urban subjects may generally have a higher level of SH than rural subjects, regardless of happiness scales, being in line with Requena (2015) and Kim (2018).

[Table 1 about here.]

Figure 2(a) is a histogram to present the distribution of OSH for overall subjects in the sample where the vertical axis denotes the frequencies and the horizontal axis denotes OSH. The highest spike is found between 4.5 and 5 points and the distribution appear to follow a normal distribution, but be slightly skewed at one side (almost a bell-shaped distribution). We run a Shapiro-Francia normality test with the null hypothesis that the OSH distribution is normal. The result shows that the null hypothesis is not rejected even with a 10% significance level, meaning that the OSH distribution follows a normal distribution. Therefore, we run a ordinary least squared (OLS) regression for OSH, while other happiness scales are analyzed by applying Poisson regressions. Figure 2(b) presents a scatter plot between OSH (vertical axis) and generativity (horizontal axis) where one dot represents an observation for each subject in our sample. This scatter plot appears to suggest that there is a positive association between the two, and we confirm that there is a positive association between OSH and generativity by Pearson correlation (r = 0.11, p < 0.03).

Figure 2(c) is a box plot to demonstrate a difference in OSH distributions between prosocial and proself subjects. It presents that the OSH distribution in proself subjects is located slightly higher than that in prosocial subjects with respect to the medians and the supports. To statistically check the distributional difference, we run a Mann-Whitney test with the null hypothesis that the OSH distributions between proself and prosocial subjects are the same. The result finds

that there is no significant difference in the OSH distributions between prosocial and proself subjects (Z = -0.426, p = 0.67). We next look at the relation between OSH and some key 199 sociodemographic factors such as household income and residence areas. The Pearson correlations 200 demonstrate that OSH and household income (residence area) have positive (negative) association 20 with r = 0.18, p < 0.01 (r = -0.15, p < 0.01). Figure 2(d) is a boxplot to visualize a difference 202 in the OSH distributions between rural and urban subjects, showing that urban subjects tend to 203 have a higher OSH than rural ones. The Mann-Whitney test confirms that there is a significant 204 difference in OSH distributions (Z = 3.38, p < 0.01) between urban and rural subjects. Overall, 205 these statistical analyses suggest that generativity, income and residence area could be considered 206 possible candidates as determinants for subjective happiness, while SVO may not. 207

[Figure 3 about here.]

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We conduct regression analyses to quantitatively understand how SH is characterized by gen-209 erativity, SVO, household income and residence area, controlling for other sociodemographic 210 factors (See table 2). The first four columns in table 2 present the marginal effects of independent variables on the four components of subjective happiness scale, such as absolute self-rated happiness 212 (AH), peer relative happiness (PRH), general subjective happiness (GSH) and general subjective 213 unhappiness (GSU), using Poisson regressions, and the last column shows the marginal effect on 214 overall subjective happiness (OSH) using the OLS. The results reveal that generativity is statistically 215 significant (i.e., p < 0.05 except in AH regression p < 0.10 and in GSH regression p < 0.01) across the four different scales of SH and OSH. More specifically, the expected AH, PRH and GSH increase by 13.17%, 15.57% and 31.15%, respectively, and GSU declines by 19.17% with a 218 rise in subjects' generativity score by one standard deviation (SD). The relationship between OSH and subjects' generativity score is consistent with the four scales of SH as OSH increases by 0.11 points when subjects' generativity score goes up by one-SD. These results show that generativity is a consistent and robust determinant across all scales of SH and OSH, indicating that subjects'

¹We have tried different specifications of regression models to check the robustness of our results with possible interaction terms, confirming that the main results in table 2 remain the same.

generativity could be one of the most important factors on their happiness.

Table 2 shows that residence area and household income are only sociodemographic factors that come with statistical significance and associated with different subjective happiness scales. The PRH and OSH for rural subjects are 41 % and 0.25 points lower than these for urban subjects.² An increase in the household income by 10 BDT is associated with a rise in GSH and OSH by 5 % and 0.04 points, respectively. The results demonstrate that generativity, urban-rural difference and household income are main determinants of SH, which can be considered to be line with previous literature. de St. Aubin and McAdams (1995) find that generativity is positively correlated with SH, and Ball and Chernova (2007) demonstrate that there is a strong positive relationship between income and SH. In developing countries, Requena (2015) confirms that subjects in urban areas have a higher level of SH than subjects in rural area.

[Table 2 about here.]

Generativity is demonstrated to be a robust and consistent determinant for SH, while SVO is not. Past literature demonstrates that prosocial actions (NOT preferences) lead to an increase in happiness (Dunn et al., 2008, Konow, 2010, Dunn et al., 2014, Koch, 2015), while there is little research to examine people's happiness with different social value orientations or preferences. It is generally considered that proself and prosocial people may have their own way to be happy and tend to consistently make proself and prosocial choices, respectively, because the proselves (prosocials) become happier by being more proself (prosocial) than by being more prosocial (proself). However, we conjecture that the magnitude of a change in individual SH may not be characterized by SVO or be different between prosocial and proself people, based on the fact that the SVO variable is insignificant in our analyses. Rather, the magnitude of a change in individual SH may be more attributed to something more personal or person-specific factors such as self-esteem, self-positivity or self-efficacy along with SVO.

²As mentioned in section 2, the marginal effect of a dummy variable on PRH (OSH) is calculated by the following formula: $\exp(\beta_j) - 1$ where β_j is an estimated coefficient for the dummy variable. For instance, $\exp(0.347) - 1 \approx 0.41 = 41\%$.

Generativity is calculated by the scores of how many activities from the generativity behavioral checklist (GBC) people have taken in the last two months. The GBC contains certain activities both prosocial and proself people are likely to take in their daily life. Some activities in GBC such as "learned a new skill," "produced a plan for an organization or group outside my family" and "was elected or promoted to a leadership position" may be likely to be taken by proself people. On the other hand, the activities in GBC such as "gave money to a charity," "taught somebody a skill" and "made something for somebody and then gave it to them" may be likely to be taken by prosocial people. Simply, it appears that there are mainly two channels of motivations to be more generative for future generations: (i) proself and (ii) prosocial channels, implying that the basic motives behind the generative actions could be different. Proself people may be driven by "legacy motives," whereas prosocial people may be driven by "motives of helping hands" for future generations (Bang et al., 2017, Wade-Benzoni, 2019, Timilsina et al., 2019). Therefore, it is our conjecture that generative actions may be able to uniformly contribute to individual SH, irrespective of prosocial and proself motives behind the actions, and therefore, generativity is a consistent and robust determinant for SH in the analysis.

Our results also show that PRH and OSH vary by residence areas, and urban people have higher PRH and OSH than rural people. Life in a rural society is known to be homogeneous in terms of choice sets, social status and sources of happiness.³ For instance, a main and common entertainment among rural people in Bangladesh is attending a social gathering, "mela," in which all people in the village can come and gather at the same time and place. In that gathering, people enjoy all the social and communal activities together by sharing a feeling of "commonality." On the other hand, urban areas are heterogeneous in terms of choice sets, social status and sources of happiness as there are more possibilities in many aspects. For instance, entertainment in urban areas includes wider varieties with more accessibility, giving people more freedom of choices. In this type of urban environment, people can express different preferences and value judgments over what to do and

³A PRH question in GBC uses 7-point Likert scales, and its anchors are "less happy" and "more happy." It means that the middle point of the scale (e.g., 4 points) describes the subject who is "as happy as her peers." An average PRH for rural subjects is closer to 4 points than that for urban subjects, implying that rural ones might feel closer to be "as happy as their peers" than urban ones.

how to spend, inducing themselves to see a "difference" of how each of people is distinct from one another. Therefore, urban people may be able to consider themselves as happy in their own way, because they are considered to choose being so, leading urban people to feel happier as compared with their peers than rural people.

Cities are predicted to expand and grow with further urbanization over the next 50 years, 276 and $65\,\%$ - $75\,\%$ of the earth population will reside at the cities in Asia and Africa (American 277 Association for the Advancement of Science, 2016, Wigginton et al., 2016). Economic theory 278 establishes that urbanization brings about an increase in people's income, potentially implying that 279 economic growth with urbanization is positive on happiness along with our result as well as the past 280 literature (Wheaton and Lewis, 2002, Bloom et al., 2008, Zhang, 2011, Requena, 2015). However, 281 behavioral sciences and social psychology report that urbanization is changing human societies in 282 the way that people's generativity declines, so-called, "generativity crisis" (see, e.g., Sasaki, 2004, 283 Timilsina et al., 2019). Sasaki (2004) claims that the rapid economic growth, urbanization and social 284 changes in Japan have led to a decline in people's generativity. Some other scholars also argue that 285 degrowth of economies is inevitable to ensure wellbeing for future generations (Schneider et al., 286 2010, Alexander, 2012, Andreoni and Galmarini, 2014, Buchs and Koch, 2019). Given the two 287 possible paths of growth and degrowth, a natural question arises "which is better, economic growth 288 with urbanization or degrowth for the current and future generations' wellbeing?" Our results in this research clearly suggest that the answer depends on whether and how economic growth with urbanization (and/or degrowth) affects generativity, which should be addressed and established in further researches.

293 4 Conclusion

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This paper has analyzed the relationship among subjective happiness (SH), generativity and social value orientation (SVO) within a single analytical framework, hypothesizing that generativity and SVO are the determinants for happiness. We conduct a survey experiment collecting the data

of five subjective happiness scales, generativity, SVO and sociodemographic variables in an urban city (Dhaka) and rural areas (Bogra and Gaibandha), Bangladesh. With the data, we empirically characterize the determinants of SH with a specific focus on generativity and SVO, controlling for other factors. The statistical analysis shows a positive association between SH and generativity, irrespective of the types of happiness scales, while SVO does not exhibit any significant effect. Rural people have lower peer relative happiness than urban ones, and household income has a positive relationship with general subjective happiness, leading each of these factors to be significant in overall subjective happiness.

The results demonstrate that generativity and income are the main determinants, and further urbanization, which is expected to occur in future, will positively affect people's happiness if it can bring an increase in generativity and income. However, some authors claim that the economic growth along with urbanization and social changes is likely to decrease people's generativity (Sasaki, 2004, Timilsina et al., 2019). If this is the case, we may need to think about the way how we can develop our societies to not only achieve economic growth but also raise or maintain people's generativity for wellbeing. If it is considered impossible, we may need to pursue the degrowth scenario as suggested by some past literature (Schneider et al., 2010, Alexander, 2012, Andreoni and Galmarini, 2014, Buchs and Koch, 2019). Which way, economic growth with urbanization or degrowth, is better for wellbeing of the current and future generations? This is an important question, and our answer is "it depends on whether and how economic growth with urbanization (and/or degrowth) would affects people's generativity."

We note some limitations to our study and future avenues of research. This paper studies happiness, generativity and SVO in only one country (i.e., Bangladesh) which is considered a culturally and ethnically homogeneous society. We believe that further studies with the same analytical framework in other countries will widen our understanding on generativity and some missing factors in relation to SH. In addition, we do not study the detailed mechanism of how and why generativity and happiness are positively associated. Therefore, future studies should be able to focus on addressing how each of generative behaviors more directly influences happiness than

the others by collecting finer individual behavioral data. Along with it, the most importantly, future researches should focus on clarifying whether and how economic growth affect the generativity and happiness within a single framework. To this end, some lab & field experiments and/or neuroscience research can be conducted to see how people perceive or the brains react when people take & observe generative actions. These caveats notwithstanding, it is our belief that this research is an important 1st step in understanding people's happiness, generativity and social preferences in developing countries for the betterment and sustainability of societies.

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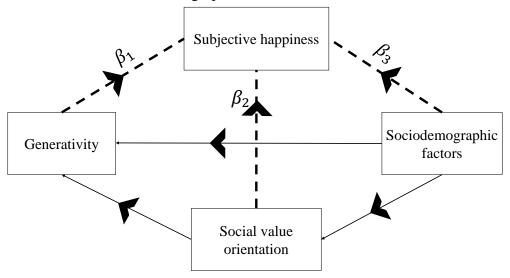
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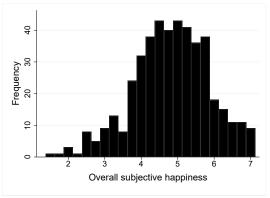
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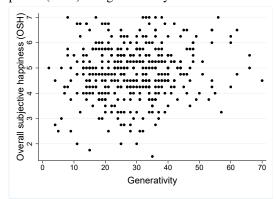
Figure 2: A conceptual framework for the relationship among subjective happiness, generativity, social value orientation and sociodemographic factors



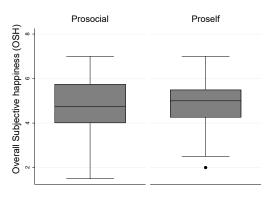
(a) Frequency distribution of overall subjective happiness (OSH)



(b) A scatter plot between overall subjective happiness (OSH) and generativity



(c) A box plot between overall subjective happiness (OSH) and social value orientation (SVO)



(d) A box plot between overall subjective happiness (OSH) and residence areas

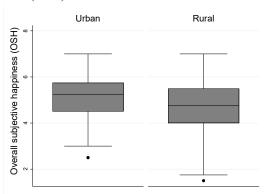


Figure 3: An overview of happiness with respect to generativity, social value orientation and urban-rural differences

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Table 1: Summary statistics

		ם ח	Urban (Dhaka)				Rural (Bogra ar	Rural (Bogra and Gaibandha)	dha)				Overall		
	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max	Mean	Median	SD	Min	Max
Generativity ¹	28.57	28	12.30	9	99	29.25	29	11.88	2	70	29.07	29	11.98	2	70
Proself ²	0.84	,	0.37	0	1	0.64	,	0.48	0	-	0.70	,	0.46	0	-
Age^3	0.39	0	0.69	0	Э	0.97	-	1.25	0	5	0.82	0	1.16	0	5
Years of education	12.68	16	4.91	0	20	8.97	10	3.86	0	17	9.95	10	4.47	0	20
Household income in thousand	47.73	30	49.02	7	300	16.56	12	21.41	0.50	250	24.81	15	34.02	0.50	300
Gender ⁴	0.16		0.37	0	1	0.04	,	0.21	0	-	0.07	,	0.26	0	-
Religion ⁵	0.07		0.26	0	1	0.01		0.00	0	-	0.02		0.15	0	-
No. of siblings ⁶	4.05	4	2.14	1	11	4.54	4	2.34	1	14	4.41	4	2.30	-	14
Family structure ⁷	0.30	0	0.46	0	1	0.38	0	0.49	0	-	0.36	0	0.48	0	-
Rural (Bogra and Gaibandha) ⁸	,	,	,			,	ı	,			0.74	1	0.44	0	-
Subjective happiness scales (SHS)															
Absolute self-rated happiness(AH)	4.91	2	1.36	1	7	4.79	2	1.44	1	7	4.82	2	1.42	1	7
Peer relative happiness(PRH)	5.08	5	1.42	1	7	4.66	5	1.51	1	7	4.77	2	1.50	1	7
General subjective happiness(GSH)	5.22	5	1.47	1	7	4.82	5	1.38	1	7	4.93	2	1.42	_	7
General subjective unhappiness (GSU)	2.72	7	1.68	1	7	3.38	3	1.66	1	7	3.21	3	1.69	1	7
Overall subjective happiness(OSH)	5.12	5.25	0.99	2.50	7	4.72	4.75	1.05	1.50	7	4.83	4.75	1.05	1.50	7
Observations	105					292					337				

¹ Generativity is defined as a count variable that takes values from 0 to 70 based on how many activities subjects have done in the last year from a generativity behavior checklist.

² Proself is a dummy variable for SVO and it takes the value of 1 if subject is characterized to be individualistic or competitive and 0 otherwise.

³ Age variable is defined as an ordered categorical variable of 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 where 0 is under 20 and 5 is above 60 and the rest is with an interval of 10 years.

⁴ Gender variable is a dummy variable that takes 1 when the subject is male and 0 otherwise.
5 Religion is a dummy variable that takes 1 when the subject is non-Muslim and 0 otherwise.
6 No. of siblings is a count variable for the number of siblings.
7 Family structure is a dummy variable that takes 1 when it is a joint family and 0 otherwise.
8 Rural is a dummy variable that takes 1 when a subject is living in Bogra and Gaibandha and 0 otherwise.

	Marg	ginal effects o	Marginal effects of Poisson regression	ression	OLS
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Variables	Absolute	Peer	General	General	Overall
	self-rated	relative	subjective	subjective	subjective
	happiness	happiness	happiness	unhappiness	happiness
	(AH)	(PRH)	(GSH)	(GSU)	(OSH)
Generativity	0.011*	0.013**	0.026***	-0.016**	**600.0
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.008)	0.004)
Proself	0.233	-0.008	-0.086	0.109	0.062
	(0.164)	(0.169)	(0.164)	(0.192)	(0.126)
Rural (Bogra and Gaibandha)	-0.054	-0.347*	-0.251	-0.367	-0.257**
	(0.203)	(0.184)	(0.190)	(0.244)	(0.126)
Age	0.146	0.001	0.0863	0.093	0.08
	(0.179)	(0.183)	(0.161)	(0.207)	(0.125)
Age Square	-0.019	0.036	-0.013	-0.009	-0.001
	(0.047)	(0.044)	(0.042)	(0.052)	(0.031)
Years of education	-0.012	0.0135	-0.001	0.021	0.005
	(0.019)	(0.020)	(0.020)	(0.022)	(0.014)
Household income in thousand	0.003	0.002	0.005	0.004	0.004**
	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.002)
Gender	0.436	0.152	0.223	0.07	0.229
	(0.306)	(0.354)	(0.359)	(0.339)	(0.250)
Religion	-0.016	-0.102	-0.342	0.521	0.031
	(0.425)	(0.563)	(0.526)	(0.494)	(0.403)
No. of siblings	0.001	-0.029	-0.061	-0.021	-0.027
	(0.035)	(0.036)	(0.037)	(0.038)	(0.024)
Family structure	0.168	0.024	0.049	-0.259	-0.006
	(0.153)	(0.150)	(0.147)	(0.185)	(0.107)
Observations	397	397	397	397	397
Wald χ^2	11.73	19.25*	44.55***	26.07***	29.30***
Desirds P2	90000	0.0052	00100	0000	

*** P < 0.01, ** P < 0.05, * P < 0.10Numbers in parentheses are standard errors.