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The Climate Commons Dilemma: How Can Humanity Solve the Commons Dilemma for the Global Climate Commons?

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How Can Humanity Solve the Commons Dilemma for the Global Climate Commons?

Abstract

In the era when human activities can fundamentally alter the planetary climate system, a stable climate is a global commons. However, the need to develop the economy to sustain the growing human population poses the Climate Commons Dilemma. Although citizens may need to support policies that forgo their country's economic growth, they may instead be motivated to grow their economy while freeriding on others' efforts to mitigate the ongoing climate change. To examine how to resolve the Climate Commons Dilemma, we constructed a Climate Commons Game (CCG), an experimental analogue of the Climate Commons Dilemma that embeds a simple model of the effects of economic activities on global temperature rise and its eventual adverse effects on the economy. The game includes multiple economic units, and each participant is tasked to manage one economic unit while keeping global temperature rise to a sustainable level. In two experiments, we show that people can manage the climate system and their economies better when they regarded the goal of environmentally sustainable economic growth as a singular global goal that all economic units collectively pursue rather than a goal to be achieved by each unit individually. In addition, beliefs that everyone shares the knowledge about the climate system help the group coordinate their economic activities better to mitigate global warming in the CCG. However, we also found that the resolution of the Climate Commons Dilemma came at the cost of exacerbating inequality among the economic units in the current constraints of the CCG.

Key words: Climate change mitigation, commons dilemma, common knowledge, sustainable development

63 1. Introduction

64 Humanity now lives in the epoch that some call the Anthropocene, when human
65 activities can fundamentally alter the workings of the Earth’s biosphere (Crutzen, 2002). In
66 this context, a stable climate is a global public good (Kaul, Grunberg, & Stern, 1999;
67 Nordhaus, 1994), and its sustenance requires a resolution of a commons dilemma (e.g.,
68 Dawes, 1980; Hardin, 1968). We call this the *climate commons dilemma* (CCD). Every
69 country and every individual can enjoy a stable climate if it is sustained. However, as with
70 any commons dilemma, there is a risk of freeriding – enjoying this public good without
71 paying the cost for its provision. The catch is if all countries and citizens choose not to pay
72 the cost, climate change is likely to continue unabated (Milinski, Semmann, Krambeck, &
73 Marotzke, 2006; Milinski, Sommerfeld, Krambeck, Reed, & Marotzke, 2008) and the long-
74 term consequence is dire (IPCC, 2014a, 2018).

75 What complicates successful resolution of the CCD is the contemporary global
76 circumstance for humanity. Climate change is ongoing, dangerously altering the planetary
77 system (Rockström et al., 2009), while there is continuing global poverty – 783 million
78 people are living below the international poverty line of US\$1.90 a day according to the
79 United Nations (<https://www.un.org/en/sections/issues-depth/poverty/>) – against the
80 background of a growing human population (The_United_Nations, 2019). The twin goals of
81 sustaining the climate commons while eradicating poverty are highly resonant with the ideal
82 of sustainable development (i.e., to maintain economic development while ensuring the
83 environmental sustainability) (Brundtland, 1987) and the UN’s sustainable development
84 goals. Indeed, climate sustainable economic growth is fast becoming an imperative. This is
85 because climate change has long-term economic costs (e.g., IPCC, 2014a; Nordhaus, 2014;
86 Stern, 2007; Tol, 2018), which are more likely borne by less wealthy segments of humanity,
87 and this eventuality further exacerbates global inequality in wealth distribution (e.g.,

88 Hallegatte & Rozenberg, 2017; IPCC, 2014a; Rao, van Ruijven, Riahi, & Bosetti, 2017).
89 Provided that inequality can undermine the collective effort to act on climate (Tavoni,
90 Dannenberg, Kallis, & Loschel, 2011), rising global inequality can jeopardize sustainable
91 development.

92 Therefore, countries and their citizens need to balance potential short-term costs of
93 climate change policies and action against the long-term benefits of sustaining the planetary
94 environment *and* human economic wellbeing (Nordhaus, 1994, 2014) by containing global
95 warming to 1.5-2°C above the pre-industrial average (United Nations, 2015a). Not only
96 climate science, but also social science approaches are necessary to address this pressing
97 concern (IPCC, 2014b, 2018). The main objective of the present research is to investigate
98 under what circumstances ordinary citizens can resolve the CCD by using a newly developed
99 experimental paradigm, the *Climate Commons Game*, where economic growth is explicitly
100 tied to changes in climate.

101 **1.1 The Behavioural Science of the Climate Commons Dilemma**

102 Within a rapidly growing literature on the behavioural science of climate change (e.g.,
103 Clayton et al., 2015; Clayton et al., 2016), experimental approaches are often used to
104 investigate people's ability to resolve the CCD via behavioural- or preference-based proxies
105 for climate change action (Jacquet et al., 2013; Milinski et al., 2006; Milinski et al., 2008). In
106 their ground-breaking work, Milinski et al. (2006) asked German university students how
107 much they would contribute (€0, €1, or €2) to publish a newspaper advertisement about the
108 importance of climate change mitigation. On average, a staggering 94.4% made a
109 contribution when they were not anonymous and especially after reading an expert opinion
110 about the significance of climate change, suggesting a general willingness to bear a personal
111 cost to contribute to climate change action. Milinski et al. (2008) constructed another
112 experimental paradigm, in which climate change mitigation was characterized as giving

113 resources for a mitigation action to prevent the public “bad” of climate change. If the
114 mitigation action is more likely to enable the participants to avoid the adverse effects of
115 climate change, they are likely to contribute to mitigate climate change (for a review of
116 studies using these paradigms, see Jacquet, 2015).

117 The insights gained from these experiments have provided a valuable perspective on
118 understanding ordinary citizens’ climate change action outside the lab (e.g., Aitken,
119 Chapman, & McClure, 2011; Tam & Chan, 2018), underscoring the utility of lab-based
120 experimental approaches to understanding commons dilemmas (Falk & Heckman, 2009; van
121 Lange, Joireman, Parks, & van Dijk, 2013). However, existing experimental paradigms have
122 two characteristics, which may limit insights about climate change action. First, the existing
123 experimental paradigms concentrate on the CCD’s incentive structure, while largely
124 bracketing out climate knowledge that is required to solve the CCD (Newell, McDonald,
125 Brewer, & Hayes, 2014; Newell & Pitman, 2010). Participants only need to understand that
126 there is an action that, if taken, would successfully mitigate climate change. Details regarding
127 what the action is or how that action would work to address climate change need not be
128 considered. It follows that existing experimental tasks neglect the need for individuals (and
129 societies) to address the cognitively complex task of balancing greenhouse gas (GHG)
130 emissions and global warming against the costs and benefits of taking action on climate
131 change (Burke, Davis, & Diffenbaugh, 2018; Burke, Hsiang, & Miguel, 2015; Nordhaus,
132 2014).

133 Successfully stabilizing global climate requires taking action in a way that accounts
134 for delayed feedback loops relating economic activities to global temperature increase, which
135 in turn may adversely affect the economy itself (Nordhaus, 2014; see Fig. 1). Although
136 economic activities drive immediate changes in GHG emissions, their full effects on global
137 warming take time to emerge, because of atmospheric GHG accumulation dynamics.

138 Understanding such a human-climate system is evidently difficult. Even well-educated
139 individuals have difficulty determining the level of emissions necessary to stabilize GHG
140 concentration in the atmosphere (Moxnes & Sagsel, 2008; Sterman & Sweeney, 2007)
141 without additional cognitive support (Guy, Kashima, Walker, & O'Neill, 2013).

142 [Insert Fig. 1 about here]

143 **Fig. 1** A Schematic Causal Structure of the Economy and Global Warming. Economic activities
144 produce green gas emissions, which accumulate in the atmosphere. Over time, the accumulated
145 greenhouse gases produce global warming. Warming, in turn, has negative consequences for
146 economic growth (e.g., by provoking changes in the viability of certain industries or creating
147 instability). Because climate change mitigation entails reducing GHG emissions, within this
148 framework, effective mitigation requires limiting economic activity.

149

150 Sewell et al. (2017) constructed an experimental paradigm, which embeds a
151 simplified human-climate system. Although its system dynamics are highly simplified, the
152 task reflects the causal opacity of the nonlinear system dynamics with delayed effects (Fig.
153 1), which makes decision making difficult. They found that it takes both an accurate mental
154 model of the climate system and opportunity to learn about the feedback loop relating
155 economic activities and global warming (i.e., the negative long-term effect of global warming
156 on the economy) to sustainably manage economic activities.

157 Second, although existing paradigms highlight the importance of the CCD's incentive
158 structure, they simplify its decision structure (i.e., how a decision to cooperate or freeride is
159 *framed* within the game). In the existing paradigms (Milinski et al., 2006, 2008), participants
160 are required to decide *how much to give* for climate change mitigation, which is called a give-
161 some game, as opposed to a take-some game (Dawes, 1980). However, when climate change
162 is framed within the context of policy making and policy preferences, climate action is often
163 framed as *forgoing* the short-term benefit of economic growth and employment for the global
164 public good. It is not giving, but more akin to restraining oneself from taking more from the

165 common resource pool. Given that decision framing of give-some vs. take-some often affects
166 decision making (e.g., Brewer & Kramer, 1986; Rutte, Wilke, & Messick, 1987; van Dijk &
167 Wilke, 2000; van Dijk, Wilke, & Wit, 2003), insights from the existing CCD games may not
168 generalize when the CCD is framed differently as characterized in Fig.1.

169 **1.2 Climate Commons Game**

170 We extend Sewell et al. (2017) to construct our Climate Commons Game, an
171 interactive task that emulates causal relationships between human economic activities, GHG
172 emissions, and climate in a simplified way.

173 Participants play the role of the policy director of one of multiple economic units
174 (analogous to a country's economy) in a dynamic environment in which economic activities
175 are non-linearly linked to the climate, which in turn affect economic productivity. Their job is
176 to set an economic growth target for each year to stimulate or restrict economic activities, so
177 as to pursue a *sustainable development goal* (United Nations, 2015b; i.e., achieving long-term
178 economic growth while keeping global warming at bay). For each economic unit, its
179 economic performance is indicated by a numerical value and the state of the global economy
180 is indicated by the sum of all units' economic performances. The state of the climate system
181 is indicated by the global temperature and the level of CO₂ concentration. In every round of
182 the game, each economic director receives updated information about the global economy,
183 the climate system, and their own economic unit. Each director sets their own yearly
184 economic target, chosen from a fixed range of positive and negative values (i.e., to accelerate
185 or restrict economic growth). Each director's decision determines their unit's economic
186 activities and GHG emissions; and all units' aggregated emissions determine the GHG
187 concentration, global temperature (including delayed effects), and climate-affected economic
188 outcomes (Fig.1). This process continues for a set number of rounds.

189 The commons dilemma is inherent in this game. Each local economy can make a
190 greater short-term gain by setting a higher growth target and rapidly growing their economy;
191 however, in so doing, the aggregate GHG emissions increase, which in turn raises the
192 atmospheric CO₂ concentration and therefore the global temperature. Higher temperatures
193 adversely affect every country's economic productivity and therefore hamper its economic
194 outlook in the long term. The decision structure for each economic director (i.e., participant)
195 is homologous to that of a grazier that keeps adding cattle to the commons in Hardin's (1968)
196 parable of the tragedy of the commons.

197 It may be argued that the director of an entire economic unit is an unrealistic
198 arrangement for a participant. To be sure, an ordinary citizen, or for that matter, even the
199 leader of a country, does not have this power. Nonetheless, in democratic processes, an
200 ordinary citizen is ideally meant to consider the merits and drawbacks of policies if they are
201 implemented, and vote for those who advocate the policy that he or she decides is most
202 suitable given the current circumstance. The game is designed to measure an individual's
203 policy preference in this sense. By asking participants to make an economic decision as if
204 they were the directors of the economic units, we can measure their preference for a level of
205 economic growth that they believe would be most suitable given the economic and climate
206 condition. Our question is therefore the following. When there is an incentive to grow the
207 economy, but there is a great deal of causal opacity about the effects of their economic
208 decisions on the climate system with delayed effects on their own economy, what
209 circumstances would shape ordinary citizens' economic policy preferences if multiple
210 economic units need to cooperate to keep the global temperature at a sustainable level? How
211 can the climate change issue be communicated to support their policy preferences to resolve
212 the CCD?

213 As noted by Pruitt and Kimmel (1977), to achieve cooperation, the multiple parties
214 involved in a commons dilemma need to have a goal to achieve mutual cooperation and a
215 mutual expectation that others will cooperate. What makes a commons dilemma difficult to
216 solve is the requirement of mutuality. That is, only one party holding both the goal and
217 expectation of mutual cooperation is insufficient; a majority, if not every party, needs to have
218 both. In the CCG, the requirement of a mutually shared goal and expectation of cooperation
219 is all the more difficult to meet because of the complex mental models required to balance
220 economic and climate sustainability. In the present research, we investigate under what
221 circumstances ordinary citizens have policy preferences that can resolve the CCD by
222 manipulating the extent to which the goal of mutual cooperation is emphasized among the
223 multiple economic units (Experiments 1 and 2) and also the extent to which the expectation
224 of mutual cooperation among the economic units is likely to be held (Experiment 2). We
225 discuss these factors in turn.

226

227 **1.2.1 Goal of Mutual Cooperation.**

228 Although there are a number of factors that can create a goal of mutual cooperation
229 among multiple parties (e.g., Pruitt, 1967; Van Lange, De Bruin, Otten, & Joireman, 1997),
230 goal-framing is the most obvious. That is, if the parties involved in a commons dilemma all
231 adopt a goal whose attainment requires or implies mutual cooperation, each party is likely to
232 hold the subgoal of mutual cooperation. Indeed, it has been postulated and shown that, when
233 multiple groups share a superordinate goal whose achievement requires mutual cooperation
234 among the groups, mutual cooperation is enhanced between groups while intergroup conflict
235 is reduced (e.g., Gaertner et al., 2000; Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961); more

236 generally, cooperation goals tend to enhance group achievement and productivity (e.g.,
237 Johnson, Maruyama, Johnson, Nelson, & Skon, 1981).

238 The Climate Commons Game has two overarching goals – growing the economy and
239 keeping global temperature at bay. We factorially manipulated these goals in Experiment 1.
240 In the climate goal condition, the global temperature goal was explicitly set in line with the
241 UN Paris Agreement, to keep the temperature rise within 2°C above the pre-industrial
242 average. In the no climate goal condition, this goal was not explicitly stated. We
243 hypothesized the climate goal condition will help people manage the CCD.

244

245 **H1:** There should be greater cooperation in the Climate Commons Game (i.e., lower CO₂
246 concentration, and lower global temperature) in the climate goal condition than in the no
247 climate goal condition.

248

249 The goal of economic growth can emphasize mutual cooperation or competition
250 depending on how it is framed. On the one hand, economic growth is typically understood to
251 be an individual economic unit's job. Each country is to grow its economy to ensure its
252 citizens' wellbeing – well clad, well fed, and well sheltered and ensuring that they do not live
253 in poverty. However, economic growth need not be construed as a purely local goal, and can
254 be viewed as a collective goal – to ensure that all humanity's needs are met as the human
255 population increases. This is indeed reflected in the United Nation's Sustainable
256 Development Goal (United Nations, 2015b) . The Brundtland Report (Brundtland, 1987)
257 arguably frames the economic growth goal as a shared goal for all countries. We hypothesize
258 that even if the same level of economic growth is set as a goal, the shared goal framing,
259 relative to the individual goal framing, will help resolve the CCD.

260 **H2:** There should be greater cooperation in the Climate Commons Game in the shared goal
261 framing than in the individual goal framing.

262

263 1.2.2 Expectation of Mutual Cooperation

264 The expectation of mutual cooperation is also important for cooperation, because
265 most people are conditional co-operators (i.e., “I will cooperate if you cooperate”; e.g.,
266 Fischbacher, Gächter, & Fehr, 2001). Likewise in the CCD, expectations of others’
267 cooperation are likely to be important. That accurate information about how the human-
268 climate system works is *common knowledge* (Lewis, 1969) or in *common ground* (Clark,
269 1996; Clark & Brennan, 1991) should facilitate people to coordinate their decisions. Having
270 this information in common ground facilitates agreement on how to achieve sustainable
271 development.

272 To make a case, we first need to clarify what common knowledge or common ground
273 is. Lewis’s (1969) definition of common knowledge is a strict logical requirement, and it can
274 be paraphrased as follows. Information is common knowledge if everyone knows the
275 information and also that everyone knows that everyone knows the information (and so on *ad*
276 *infinitum*). Clark (1996; Clark & Brennan, 1991) made this requirement more psychologically
277 plausible and suggested that information is in the common ground if everyone has a ground
278 to believe that the information is true and also that everyone has a ground to believe that
279 everyone believes that the information is true, and so on, to a reasonable cognitive limit.

280 In the CCD, that the human-climate system information is in common ground is
281 particularly important. This is because one of the significant barriers to climate action may be
282 a false belief that many people in their society are climate change sceptics (i.e., many people
283 believe that climate change is not happening, or that even if it may be happening, it is not

284 human caused). Leviston, Walker, and Morwinski (2012) found that citizens wildly
285 overestimate the prevalence of climate change scepticism, and that those who (falsely)
286 overestimate the prevalence of climate change scepticism tended to hold an entrenched
287 climate change scepticism themselves. Given that climate change sceptics are less motivated
288 to engage in climate change mitigation (e.g., O'Brien et al., 2018), false beliefs about the
289 prevalence of climate change scepticism are likely to undermine people's beliefs about
290 climate change mitigation, and are likely to undermine the belief that the human-climate
291 system information is in common ground. We suggest that if participants do not believe that
292 the human-climate system information is in common ground, they are unlikely to expect that
293 others would be able to coordinate their economic activities with them.

294 A literature on commons dilemmas suggests the importance of common ground in
295 achieving mutual trust and cooperation (van Dijk, de Kwaadsteniet, & De Cremer, 2009).
296 Foddy, Platow, and Yamagishi (2009) showed that people trusted others in their ingroup only
297 if their shared group membership (i.e., that they and those others all belonged to the same
298 group) was in their common ground. Similarly, Thomas, DeScioli, Haque, and Pinker (2014)
299 found that sharing information about a commons dilemma situation in their common ground
300 facilitated coordination. Facilitative effects of common ground were also detected in games
301 where information about the game was passed on from one generation of players to the next
302 generation (Chaudhuri, Graziano, & Maitra, 2006; Chaudhuri, Schotter, & Sopher, 2009).
303 Field studies have also found that common pool resources can be cooperatively sustained if
304 their users have a shared culture in their common ground (e.g., Ostrom, 2015). Therefore, we
305 hypothesize:

306

307 **H3:** There should be greater cooperation in the Climate Commons Game when the
308 information about the human-climate system is in common ground than when it is not.

309

310 **1.3 Present Research**

311 We investigate how goal-framing and common ground affect cooperation in the
312 Climate Commons Game, the interactive decision-making task developed by Sewell et al.
313 (2017), which emulates a dynamic human-climate system. The parameters governing the
314 relationships between GHG emissions, atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and temperature are
315 based on the MAGICC intermediate earth complexity model (Meinshausen, Raper, &
316 Wigley, 2011), providing an accurate depiction of the relevant dynamics. See Sewell et al.
317 (2017) and Appendix C in the Electronic Supplementary for full details of the dynamics. The
318 task simplifies the human-climate system, but retains the essential features of the CCD and
319 the causal opacity of the nonlinear system dynamics. Most importantly, it enables us to study
320 the causal effects of goal framing and common ground on citizens' economic policy
321 preference.

322 In Experiment 1, we factorially manipulate the climate goal of keeping the
323 temperature rise below 2°C above the pre-industrial average (present vs. absent) and the
324 framing of the goal of doubling the economy (collective vs. individual) in a four-person
325 Climate Commons Game. In Experiment 2, we set the goal of keeping the temperature rise
326 below 2°C for everyone, but manipulate the framing of the economic goal (collective vs.
327 individual) in a ten-person Climate Commons Game. We also examine the effect of
328 expectation for mutual cooperation by manipulating whether the human-climate system
329 information is in common ground.

330

331 **2. Experiment 1**

332 **2.1 Materials and Methods**

333 **2.1.1 Participants and Procedure**

334 A total of 600 US residents (150 groups of four, 55% male) were recruited from
335 Amazon Mechanical Turk. Numbers of participants and groups in each condition are reported
336 in Table 1. Those who agreed to participate were redirected to the online platform and read
337 the plain language statement and consent form. Participants then completed the task, and
338 were debriefed and paid for their participation (US\$3).

339 [Insert Table 1 about here]

340

341 **2.1.2 Climate Commons Game**

342 In the Climate Commons Game, participants were grouped to play the role of policy
343 directors of different economies in a dynamic environment that is sensitive to the climate.
344 The policy director's job was to set an economic growth target for each year to stimulate or
345 restrain the economy, so as to achieve a long-term economic growth target while keeping
346 global warming at bay. Following classic commons dilemma experiments (e.g., Fehr &
347 Gächter, 2000; Hasson et al., 2010), group size was set to 4.

348 The human-climate relationship (Fig. 1) was verbally described as follows:

349 "Economic productivity affects CO₂ concentration, which in turn affects Temperature.

350 Temperature increases make it increasingly difficult to achieve economic growth. Due to

351 time lags in the climate system, the effects of CO₂ on economic growth will only be felt after

352 a considerable delay, after which they will be difficult to reverse. Hence, it is advisable to

353 keep CO₂ concentration from escalating too high”. The setup was identical to Sewell et al.
354 (2017; Appendix C).

355 Once participants read the instructions and correctly answered comprehension
356 questions, they were assigned to a 4-person group and started the game. At the start of each
357 round, each participant received numerical values representing the state of the game: Own
358 Economic Index, the Global Economic Index (sum of all the Own Economic Index values),
359 CO₂ concentration and the global average temperature. Everyone started with their individual
360 economic index of 25, and the initial Global Economic Index of 100 (i.e., 25 × 4). The initial
361 CO₂ concentration was 108 ppm, and the average global temperature of 0.6°C above pre-
362 industrial levels. Participants did not know the other participants’ individual economic
363 indices.

364 Each director was to set their own yearly economic target using a slider bar that
365 varied between -1 and +1. A round ended when all participants made their decisions. The
366 economic indices (each participant and global total), CO₂ concentration, and average global
367 temperature were updated, and then a new round began. The game lasted for 70 rounds,
368 which was explicitly mentioned in the instructions. However, because the current round count
369 was not presented on screen, we assume that it would be hard to keep track of the round
370 count. As a result, the end-game-effect (Andreoni, 1988), where people become more likely
371 to defect towards the end of the game session, is not a large concern in our experiment. At the
372 end of the experiment, participants answered questions about their demographic information.
373 The entire experiment took around 1-1.5 hours to complete. See Appendix E for instructions,
374 game interface, and a flow-chart illustrating game flow.

375 **2.1.3 Design**

376 In a two-way factorial design, groups were instructed to achieve a different
377 combination of climate and economic goals. One factor was the climate goal of limiting
378 global warming to 2°C. Half of the groups were given the climate goal, whereas the other
379 half were not. The other factor concerned the framing of the economic goal. In the shared
380 goal condition, groups were told to double the Global Economic Index, (i.e., to increase the
381 Global Economic Index to 200 and sustain it); in the individual goal condition, groups were
382 instructed to double their Own Economic Index (i.e., to increase the Own Economic Index to
383 50 and sustain it). Note that the individual goal condition was economically equivalent to the
384 shared goal condition (i.e., doubling the total economy) if every economy achieved its own
385 goal. This constituted a 2 (shared vs. individual economic goal) by 2 (climate goal present vs.
386 absent) between-sample design.

387 **2.2 Results and Discussion**

388 We examined the effects of the climate goal and the framing of economic goal using
389 repeated measures general linear mixed models (GLMMs), where group was treated as a
390 random effect and an R-side auto-regressive correlation structure was considered. Fig.2
391 describes trajectories of average individual participant responses (Fig.2a), Global Economic
392 Index (Fig.2b), excess CO₂ concentration (Fig.2c), and global warming (Fig.2d). Table 2
393 shows the details of GLMM analysis. Further details are in the Electronic Supplementary
394 (Tables A.1- A.8).

395 [Insert Fig. 2 about here]

396 **Fig. 2** Average (a) participant response, (b) Global Economic Index, (c) excess CO₂
397 concentration, and (d) warming in Experiment 1
398

399 [Insert Table 2 about here]

400 Participants initially increased their economic growth targets, but eventually lowered
401 them as shown by the positive linear and negative quadratic components, presumably to boost
402 their economic indices early, while attempting to offset the temperature rise later.
403 Corroborating this observation, the Global Economic Index, CO₂ concentration, and the
404 global temperature all show the same pattern of initial rapid increase followed by lower rates
405 of increase. Of interest is the pattern of the Global Economic Index – it peaked around the
406 30th round, and declined thereafter, in almost all conditions (Fig. 2b) – suggesting that the
407 economic declines due to increasing temperature, restricting economic growth.

408 Consistent with our H1 and H2, there are significant negative Round × Climate Goal
409 and Round × Economic Goal interactions, showing that the framing of economic goal and
410 climate goal dampen economic growth, thus lowering CO₂ concentration and curtailing
411 global warming. There was no significant three-way interaction, suggesting that the effects of
412 the climate goal and group goal framing were additive.

413 An interaction effect of the quadratic component of Round and Economic Goal
414 (Round² × Economic Goal) was consistently found for all dependent variables. This suggests
415 that the pattern of initial increase and eventual decrease was stronger in the individual goal
416 condition than in the shared goal condition. Those pursuing the individual goal presumably
417 realized the negative environmental impact of their high economic investment at the early
418 stages and tried to reduce their negative impact by rapidly reducing economic growth.
419 However, by the end of their 70 rounds, although the economic index was brought back to a
420 similar level across all conditions, negative climate impacts remained in the individual goal
421 condition. An analogous pattern was found for the climate goal manipulation although the
422 trend was weaker.

423

424 **3. Experiment 2**

425

426 **3.1 Materials and Methods**

427 Experiment 1 showed that the goal of mutual cooperation can be facilitated by setting
428 a climate goal and framing the economic growth goal as a collective global target as in the
429 UN Sustainable Development Goals. In Experiment 2, we kept the climate goal for all, but
430 examined the effect of a shared vs. individual economic goal (H2) as well as that of
431 expectation of mutual cooperation by manipulating whether information about the human-
432 climate system is in a group's common ground (H3). The Climate Commons Game was again
433 used as an experimental paradigm. However, the group size was increased to 10 to see
434 whether these effects generalize to somewhat larger groups, because cooperation in social
435 dilemmas may also be affected by group size (e.g., Shank, Kashima, Saber, Gale, & Kirley,
436 2015). We surmised that larger groups may exacerbate the feeling of powerlessness often
437 reported in social dilemmas (e.g., Kerr, 1989) and are particularly acute in the climate action
438 (e.g., I am just one among many, and my response won't make any difference; Aitken et al.
439 2011).

440 We also explored how the participants managed the twin goals of a stable climate and
441 economic growth because they can be achieved in two different ways. One is for every
442 individual to curtail their own economic growth equally; the other is for some individuals to
443 curtail their own economic growth more than others who grew their economies more than
444 they optimally should have. In the former case, there should not be much economic inequality
445 among the economic units. However, if some players curtail more than others to compensate
446 for those that grow their economy, economic inequality may increase. We explored levels of
447 inequality among participants using the GINI coefficient (Gini, 1921) – a well-accepted index

448 of inequality among multiple agents. Its values vary between 0 and 1; the greater, the more
449 unequal. For details, see Appendix D in the Electronic Supplementary and Farris (2010).

450

451 **3.1.1 Participants and Procedure**

452 A total of 741 participants (83 groups, 57.08% male, 21 did not report gender, mean
453 age was 35.52) was recruited from Amazon Mechanical Turk. Numbers of participants and
454 groups in each condition are reported in Table 1.

455 Participants were asked to play the role of a policy director of one of the 10 economic
456 units. All participants started with their Own Economic Index of 10, which set the Global
457 Economic Index at 100. Each director set their own yearly economic target between -0.5 and
458 +0.5.

459 As in Experiment 1, all participants were told about the human-climate relationship.
460 However, expectation of mutual cooperation was manipulated. In the common ground
461 condition, participants were told that this information was identical for all participants; in the
462 no common ground condition, they were told that the other players in the game “may or may
463 not receive the same instruction”, and “you may know some of the things that others don’t
464 know, but similarly, you may not know some of the things that others know”. Thus, in the
465 common ground condition, all participants knew the nature of the task, but also knew that
466 everyone had this knowledge, whereas in the no common ground condition, participants were
467 left uncertain about the others’ knowledge about the nature of the task, as a result they would
468 have difficulty in predicting the others’ decisions, thus reducing the expectation that the
469 others may cooperate to pursue the global climate goal.

470 Goal framing was also manipulated. In all conditions, participants were told to
471 achieve the climate goal of limiting global warming to 2°C. In the shared goal condition, they

472 were told to double the Global Economy, whereas in the individual goal condition, they were
473 told to double their Own Economy. A bonus payment of \$1 was promised if participants
474 achieved both the climate and the economic goals. In addition, a bonus payment of 10¢ was
475 promised for each point of individual economic growth they achieved.

476 Once participants read the instructions and correctly answered all comprehension
477 questions, they were assigned into a 10-person group and started the game. The game lasted
478 for 70 rounds. At the end of the experiment, participants answered questions about the
479 experiment and demographics. Each participant received the sum of three parts of payments:
480 a base payment of \$3.5, a bonus of \$1 if the goals were achieved, and an extra payment for
481 the economic growth they achieved.

482

483 **3.2 Results and Discussion**

484 **3.2.1 Economic Growth, CO₂ Concentration, and Global Warming**

485 We evaluated the effects of goal framing and common ground using repeated
486 GLMMs (Table 3). As in Experiment 1, the pattern of economic growth and climate
487 degradation showed a non-linear increase – initial rapid increase followed by a slowdown in
488 the rate of increase – as indicated by the significant positive linear and negative quadratic
489 effects of Round. Again, rapid economic growth was achieved at the cost of environmental
490 damages (Table 3, also see Fig.B.1 in the Electronic Supplementary). For further details, see
491 supplementary materials (Tables B.1- B.14).

492 Nonetheless, the effect of goal framing was similar to Experiment 1: the shared
493 economic goal slowed down economic growth, but also climate degradation – both CO₂
494 concentration and temperature increased more slowly in the shared goal condition than in the

495 individual goal condition. In other words, more sustainable development was achieved when
496 the economic goal was framed as shared, rather than individuals’.

497

498 [Insert Table 3 about here]

499

500 However, common ground moderated the effect of goal framing and showed
501 somewhat different moderation effects across the economic and climate indices. For the
502 Global Economic Index, a Round \times Goal \times Common Ground interaction was positive and
503 significant, suggesting that the effect of common ground on the growth of the Global
504 Economy differed between the shared and individual goal conditions. A follow up GLMM
505 analysis for each goal condition showed that sharing common ground facilitates the global
506 economic growth more when the goal was framed as shared, rather than individually pursued
507 (Table 4). In other words, when the goal of growing the global economy was framed as
508 shared by all, sharing common ground helped the global economy grow faster. On the other
509 hand, common ground exacerbated the increase of CO₂ concentration and global temperature
510 in the individual goal condition, but not as much in the shared goal condition. Further
511 analyses showed that common ground exacerbated global warming only in the Individual
512 goal condition (Table 4).

513

514 [Insert Table 4 about here]

515

516 These findings imply an ironic effect of having the information about the human-
517 climate system in common ground. Common ground helps groups sustainably develop when

518 they share the goal of global economic growth, presumably because they can coordinate their
519 economic activities better. However, when each economic unit is pursuing its own growth
520 individually, common ground in fact *worsens* climate change without yielding much
521 economic gain, presumably exacerbating competition among the economies.

522

523 **3.2.2 Inequality**

524 We computed the GINI coefficient to index the level of inequality within each group.
525 First, the GINI levels increased over time, suggesting that some players grew their economies
526 faster than others. Further, a significant Round \times Economic Goal interaction (Table 3)
527 suggests the rate of increase was greater in the shared than in the individual goal condition.
528 This implies that the sustainable development achieved when the goal was shared was
529 attained at the expense of increasing inequality. This occurred because some players curtailed
530 their economic growth more than others, suggesting a degree of self-sacrifice and altruism by
531 these players. Finally, common ground blunted the increase in inequality in general, but even
532 more so in the shared goal condition than in the individual goal condition. We speculate that
533 this was achieved because the players adjusted their economic growths to coordinate their
534 own economic activities with the overall global economic activities. Note that the players had
535 access to the Global Economic Index as well as their Own Economic Index; Adjusting one's
536 economic growth to make it proportionate to that of the Global Economic Index would be
537 relatively straightforward.

538

539 **4. General Discussion**

540 Successful resolution of the global climate commons dilemma involves a complex
541 balancing act. Not only do we need to balance a stable climate against the need for economic

542 growth, but we also need to ensure that such balance does not come at the cost of widening
543 economic inequality. Achieving all these goals presents a challenge, at least within the
544 confines of the Climate Commons Game. Experiments 1 and 2 both showed that, as
545 participants attempt to grow the economy, the CO₂ concentration goes up, and the earth
546 warms up as well. Furthermore, inequality among economic units tends to increase over time
547 (Experiment 2). Although this latter finding needs to be replicated, it suggests that
548 simultaneous maximization of environmental sustainability, economic prosperity, and
549 economic equality may be a difficult goal to achieve.

550 Nonetheless, climate change mitigation is not a lost cause. There are some conditions
551 in which the climate-economy balance is sustained to a degree, and the participants' decisions
552 suggest that they are willing to support weaker economic growth for their economy to contain
553 global warming. First, having a clear and shared climate goal appears to militate against
554 pursuing unmitigated economic growth. In Experiment 1, consistent with H1, the presence of
555 a climate goal reduced economic growth. Here, the information about the human-climate
556 system was in the group's common ground.

557 Second, having a shared global economic goal helps people attain more sustainable
558 development, achieving reasonable economic growth while refraining from over-exploitation
559 of the environment. H2 was supported in both experiments. However, sustainable
560 development was achieved in Experiment 2 at the cost of increased inequality through
561 voluntary self-sacrifice of individual economies. In the shared goal condition, where the
562 economic goal was framed as a collective and global effort, the relatively lower levels of
563 economic growth were accompanied by increased levels of inequality across players.

564 Third, the effect of common ground is not straightforward. When a group has a shared
565 economic goal, common ground helps to achieve sustainable development by gaining a

566 greater economic benefit at a relatively smaller cost to the climate, and it reduces inequality
567 within the group. The reduction of inequality, however, is not so large as to make the levels
568 of inequality in the shared economic goal condition comparable to those in the individual
569 goal condition. In contrast, when economic growth is individually pursued, common ground
570 appears to increase the levels of competition among the players without producing much
571 economic gain. It exacerbates CO₂ concentration and global temperature rise, without helping
572 the global economy grow appreciably, although it tends to blunt the rise of inequality to some
573 extent.

574 In total, a combination of the climate goal, the shared collective goal of global
575 economic growth, and common grounding of the information about the human-climate
576 system may provide the best chance for garnering the public support for sustainable
577 development while containing inequality to a reasonable level. Some may be sceptical about
578 the possibility that all countries, or even a majority of the countries, share a global economic
579 goal; however, this scenario may not be entirely unrealistic. As globalization deepens, the
580 global interdependence in economic activities across national borders has become obvious as
581 in the case of the Global Financial Crisis of 2007-2009, and the current COVID-19 induced
582 global economic downturn attests. As the reality of economic interdependence becomes clear
583 to everyone, a shared global economic goal may also become a geopolitical reality. There
584 may then be a window of opportunity through which we can achieve satisfactory levels of
585 economic prosperity and equality while containing the global climate within the safe and just
586 operating space (Raworth, 2012).

587 Nonetheless, even in this best case scenario, rising inequality can present a serious
588 problem for the global community. In the present experiment, some players appear to have
589 voluntarily refrained from growing their economy, and this seems to have increased
590 economic inequality. However, in the contemporary world, there are pre-existing inequalities

591 between countries, and some economies cannot grow as much or as fast, while others may
592 enjoy high economic growth. Such pre-existing inequalities arise out of historical
593 circumstances of unequal distribution of wealth around the world. Rich countries may be able
594 to grow their economies, but poorer economies may not be able to do so, thereby shouldering
595 a more than fair share of the economic burden to manage the global climate commons.
596 Inequalities among countries can undermine the willingness to cooperate in the Climate
597 Commons Game (Tavoni et al., 2011) especially in these circumstances. Addressing such
598 inequality is therefore vital for marshalling global efforts to combat climate change. There
599 are, however, difficult challenges to overcome. At the individual country level, pre-existing
600 inequality, GDP, and carbon intensity interact in a complex way to affect CO₂ emissions
601 (Agusdinata, Aggarwal, & Ding, 2020). At the global level, there are complex feedback
602 effects of pre-existing inequality on CO₂ emission control and future economic inequality.
603 Institutional arrangements to manage inequality may be critically important at both national
604 and international levels.

605 The present research has several limitations. Although the Climate Commons Game
606 does capture some of its key components, the real human-climate system is far more
607 complex. First, the scenarios used in the experiments may be further explored. For example,
608 each participant played the role of a sole economic director who can control their entire
609 economy's growth target over many decades. This was done to provide us with a behavioural
610 measure of people's willingness to support different economic policies within their country.
611 Nonetheless, this needs to be further investigated with other methods and potentially different
612 experimental paradigms. We have set a relatively easy climate target, in particular, to contain
613 the temperature rise to 2°C, rather than 1.5°C, with the benchmark of the preindustrial level
614 for Study 1, but the initial state of the game for Study 2. The initial individual economic
615 status was set to be equal across participants so as to best capture the effects of experimental

616 manipulations on people's choices. For practical reasons, we were limited to groups of 10
617 agents in the game. However, the real-world climate dilemma involves many more agents
618 whose status are not necessarily equal. The effect of inequality should be further examined in
619 future studies. The current game includes only nation-states as main actors, but other non-
620 state actors such as multinational corporations can play a major role in climate politics. The
621 role of non-state actors may also be incorporated into an experimental paradigm.

622 Second, some aspects of the human-climate model can be improved. For example,
623 economic target and global temperature have a nonlinear, but deterministic relationship with
624 the growth of the economy; CO₂ emissions have a nonlinear deterministic relationship with
625 the global temperature rise. Also, our model assumed global climate change hampers
626 economic growth equally across economies, whereas real-world economic impacts of climate
627 change will vary across nations and will depend on factors specific to those nations and their
628 key industries (e.g., Lemoine & Kapnick, 2016). A more realistic model of the human-
629 climate system would incorporate uncertainty into these relationships, albeit at the cost of
630 considerable complexity.

631 Another significant limitation is that the experimental task has only one single track
632 of economy, accelerating or decelerating the economic growth. However, it is possible to
633 pursue policies of ecological modernization (e.g., Mol, 1996; Spaargaren & Mol, 1992),
634 where both traditional and ecologically sustainable economic activities (e.g., renewable
635 energy sources) are supported. Regarding economic inequality, our task did not include an
636 institutional mechanism that can allow participants to reduce inequality by redistributing the
637 economic outcomes in some form.

638 Despite these limitations, the Climate Commons Game has provided some useful
639 insights into the collective dynamics surrounding the global attempt to manage the global

640 climate commons. Of particular importance is the role of common ground in sustainable
641 development and a potential downside to economic inequality associated with the collective
642 management of the global climate commons. Future research should address the critical
643 questions of how institutional and decisional structures can help us manage the Climate
644 Commons Dilemma and inequality.

645

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647

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