

1 This document is the Accepted Manuscript version of a Published Work that appeared in final form in:

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3 *Brown C.; Kovács E.; Herzon I.; Villamayor-Tomas S.; Albizua A.; Galanaki A.; Grammatikopoulou I.; McCracken D.;*
4 *Olsson J.A.; Zinngrebe Y.* 2021. **Simplistic understandings of farmer motivations could undermine the**
5 **environmental potential of the common agricultural policy.** LAND USE POLICY. 101. DOI
6 ([10.1016/j.landusepol.2020.105136](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2020.105136)).

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12 **Simplistic understandings of farmer motivations could undermine the environmental**
13 **potential of the Common Agricultural Policy**

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52 **Acknowledgements**

53

54 The authors thank Doris Marquardt for her assistance with this study, and Juliana Därnhart
55 and Julia Wright for their contributions to study design and implementation. We are also
56 grateful to Flore Jeanmart, Marie Vandewalle, Lynn Dicks and the EKLIPSE Project team for
57 their assistance with the report on which this study builds, and to Bartosz Bartkowski and one
58 anonymous reviewer for detailed and constructive reviews that substantially improved the
59 manuscript.

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62 **Simplistic understandings of farmer motivations could undermine the environmental**
63 **potential of the Common Agricultural Policy**

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73 **Abstract**

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75 The European Union Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) has failed to achieve its aim of
76 preserving European farmland biodiversity, despite massive investment in subsidies to
77 incentivise environmentally-beneficial farming practices. This failure calls into question the
78 design of the subsidy schemes, which are intended to either function as a safety net and make
79 farming profitable or compensate farmers for costs and loss of income while undertaking
80 environmental management. In this study, we assess whether the design of environmental
81 payments in the CAP reflects current knowledge about farmers' decision-making as found in
82 the research literature. We do so on the basis of a comprehensive literature review on farmers'
83 uptake of agri-environmental management practices over the past 10 years and interviews
84 specifically focused on Ecological Focus Areas with policy-makers, advisors and farmers in
85 seven European countries. We find that economic and structural factors are the most
86 commonly-identified determinants of farmers' adoption of environmental management
87 practices in the literature and in interviews. However, the literature suggests that these are
88 complemented by – and partially dependent on – a broad range of social, attitudinal and other
89 contextual factors that are not recognised in interview responses or, potentially, in policy
90 design. The relatively simplistic conceptualisation of farmer behaviour that underlies some
91 aspects of policy design may hamper the effectiveness of environmental payments in the CAP
92 by over-emphasising economic considerations, potentially corroding farmer attitudes to policy
93 and environmental objectives. We conclude that an urgent redesign of agricultural subsidies is
94 needed to better align them with the economic, social and environmental factors affecting
95 farmer decision-making in a complex production climate, and therefore to maximise potential
96 environmental benefits.

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99 **Keywords**

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101 Agri-environment; farmer decision-making; environmental payments; Ecological Focus Areas;
102 Greening; Common Agricultural Policy

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1. Introduction

114 In the 40 years since the European Union (EU) launched its legislative framework for
115 environmental protection with the 1979 Birds Directive, levels of biodiversity have fallen
116 sharply across the continent. By 2000, farmland species had lost a quarter of their 1970
117 populations in western Europe (De Heer et al., 2005), with closely-monitored farmland birds
118 declining by around 50% - twice as fast as woodland birds (DEFRA, 2018; Donald et al.,
119 2006; European Environment Agency, 2010; Pan European Common Bird Monitoring
120 Scheme, 2019). Roughly three-quarters of farmland species and habitats had ‘unfavourable’
121 conservation status by 2010, meaning that they are at risk of extinction in the absence of
122 management change (European Environment Agency, 2010). There is emerging evidence that
123 insect biomass and abundance have declined rapidly in European agricultural land in the last
124 few decades (Wagner, 2020). Alarmingly, biodiversity trends in the east of the continent have
125 mirrored those in the west following the introduction of agricultural subsidies through the
126 Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). For example, farmland bird species have declined by up
127 to a third in the new EU member states (Reif and Vermouzek, 2019; Szép et al., 2014).

128 These declines have occurred despite an increasing proportion of the CAP’s approximately
129 €60 billion annual budget being earmarked to improve environmental outcomes, with €66
130 billion earmarked for this purpose during the current CAP period (2014-2020), in addition to
131 other funds such as the estimated €5.8 billion spent each year on designating, protecting and
132 managing Natura 2000 sites (European Commission, 2019a, 2016; European Court of
133 Auditors, 2020). Agri-environmental schemes have been the main target of this funding, but
134 the introduction of ‘greening’ measures in 2013 with a budget of approximately €12 billion
135 per year (8% of the total EU budget) was intended to obligate all farmers to undertake
136 environmentally-friendly farming activities on some of their land. However, the greening
137 implementation required no management change whatsoever on 95% of EU farmland, and
138 has consequently been described by the EU’s independent external auditor as an
139 environmentally ineffective income-support scheme (European Court of Auditors., 2017) in
140 which environmental expenditure and impact have not even been reliably tracked (European
141 Court of Auditors, 2020). In fact, literature suggests that the CAP as a whole has not only
142 failed to prevent environmental damage, but has actively caused it by maintaining
143 mechanisms that favour agricultural intensification (Reif and Vermouzek, 2019).

144 The failure of EU agricultural subsidies to achieve their environmental objectives is not due
145 to a lack of knowledge about the adverse impacts of agricultural practices or the changes
146 necessary to redress these. Numerous scientific studies have identified systemic changes and

147 specific management practices necessary to better maintain biodiversity and protect the
148 environment. Several of these management practices are already eligible for support under
149 the CAP's greening programme (e.g. allowing land to lie fallow, incorporating some degree
150 of agroforestry and maintaining field margins) (European Commission, 2017; Hart et al.,
151 2017; Pe'er et al., 2017; Shackelford et al., 2017; Sutherland et al., 2018). However, their
152 uptake has been limited, prompting considerable research into methods for improving rates of
153 adoption (Brown et al., 2019; Díaz and Concepción, 2016; Navarro and López-Bao, 2018;
154 Pe'er et al., 2019). A recent report by the European Environment Agency found that CAP
155 interventions "have failed to deliver significant effects up to the scale and urgency of the
156 challenges", necessitating a "fundamental sustainability transition" in the European food
157 system (European Environment Agency, 2019). More than 3,600 scientists signed a recent
158 open letter calling for an urgent revision of the CAP to take these and other suggestions into
159 account (Pe'er et al., 2020).

160 Ultimately, if attempts to improve the environmental outcomes of the CAP are to be
161 effective, there must be greater uptake of environmentally-beneficial management practices
162 by Europe's farmers. The rationale of European agri-environmental subsidies is to
163 compensate farmers for lost income and additional costs, as well as to overcome perceived
164 unwillingness to pursue environmental objectives (Batáry et al., 2015; de Snoo et al., 2013).
165 However, recent reviews and meta-analyses suggest that European farmer decision-making is
166 far more nuanced and diverse than this policy rationale implies (Bartkowski and Bartke,
167 2018; Brown et al., 2019; van Vliet et al., 2015). Failure to account for the array of farmer
168 motivations may result in poorly-targeted incentives, reduced farmer uptake over time, and
169 even distortions of those motivations if they encourage subsidy dependence over intrinsic
170 determination (Herzon and Mikk, 2007; Kovacs, 2019).

171 In this study, we assess whether the design of environmental measures in the CAP reflects
172 current knowledge about farmers' decision-making. We do so on the basis of a
173 comprehensive review of literature dedicated to farmers' uptake of environmental
174 management practices over the past 10 years and interviews with policy-makers, advisors and
175 farmers in seven EU countries, focusing specifically on the Ecological Focus Area (EFA)
176 scheme. EFA-related payments support farmers who adopt or maintain farming practices
177 intended to help meet environmental and climate goals on arable land. As one of the
178 mechanisms introduced under the CAP's Pillar 1 (direct payments; the other mechanisms
179 being crop diversification and maintenance of permanent grassland), it involves different
180 payment calculations and implementation rationale than agri-environment measures under the
181 CAP's Pillar 2 (rural development), but requires Member States to decide which EFAs to
182 make available to their farmers, and farmers themselves to choose among these. In the
183 following section, we outline the development of the relevant agricultural policy at EU and
184 national levels to elucidate the ways in which farmer choice is anticipated, and pre-empted, in
185 available policy options. We then specify our review and interview methods, and proceed by
186 analysing the motivations that have been found to govern farmers' decision-making in the
187 previous and current CAP iterations (2007–2020), in comparison to current policy-makers'
188 understandings of farmers' decision-making with respect to EFA options. We conclude with
189 a reflection on the political, policy and environmental consequences of misunderstandings of
190 farmer motivations for participation in environmental schemes, and their relevance for the
191 current revisions of the CAP for 2021–2027 (European Commission, 2019a).

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193 **2. Background: Delineation and choice of agricultural ‘greening’ policy options**
194 **between the Europe Union and Member States**

195 The Ecological Focus Area (EFA) scheme, which is adopted as one focus of this study, forms
196 part of the CAP’s Pillar 1, and is a mandatory scheme in which farmers receive payments for
197 selecting and implementing specified management options on arable land. EFAs are not the
198 only environmental measures supported by the CAP, and so their development occurs within
199 a broader framework of EU-funded agri-environment schemes (Batáry et al., 2015). Before
200 individual farmers are given the opportunity to choose management options for implementing
201 at farm level, these options are defined at European and national levels. The first step is a
202 negotiation between the European Commission, European Parliament and European Council,
203 which determines the full range of available options under the CAP. Member States then
204 select options offered to their farmers at national levels according to national priorities and
205 context. The nationally selected options must finally be approved by the Commission and
206 sometimes are negotiated further. This may result in national exemptions to the general rules.

207 During the negotiation of the most recent CAP reform (2013–2014), the European
208 Commission proposed to link 30% of the direct payments (to which all farmers with over 1
209 hectare of land are eligible) to management practices that contribute to climate change
210 mitigation and environmental protection, and to require the establishment of EFAs across 7%
211 of each farm’s area (European Commission, 2011a). This proposal was subsequently
212 modified by the European Parliament to add a “green by definition” allowance for organic
213 farms, to reduce the required EFA area to 3% of agricultural land (an area of 5% was
214 ultimately agreed), to introduce “light-green” EFA options with fewer proven environmental
215 benefits and to lower penalties for non-compliance. Finally, the European Council introduced
216 ‘catch and cover crops’ as a further EFA option, supported higher flexibility for Member
217 States regarding implementation and introduced further exemptions of farms from greening
218 obligations (Brown et al., 2019). The above modifications lowered the environmental
219 ambition of the greening, notwithstanding the existence of other forms of environmental
220 payment (e.g. for Agri-environment-climate Measures (AEEM), which can be
221 complementary to greening measures but not double-funded as such).

222 The process has been driven largely by agricultural and political interests. The European
223 Parliament’s Committee on Agriculture and Rural Development is a key negotiator in CAP
224 reforms, and nearly a third of its members during the negotiation phase were either
225 agricultural land-holders or members of farmer associations, suggesting substantial input
226 from farming interests (Knops and Swinnen, 2014; Roederer-Rynning, 2015). The anticipated
227 response of the farming community to the new legislation was also a key consideration for
228 policy-makers, with costs and inconvenience to farmers, reductions in food production and
229 threats to rural livelihoods among policy-makers’ stated concerns about stronger EFA
230 regulations (Hart and Baldock, 2011; Knops and Swinnen, 2014; Matthews, 2013). A
231 subsequent review by the European Court of Auditors found that Member States selected
232 EFA options to minimise burdens on farmers, even rejecting the evidence-based
233 recommendations for ensuring environmental benefits that they had commissioned in the first
234 place (European Court of Auditors, 2017).

235 In 13 Member States, six or fewer of the 18 possible EFA options were ultimately made
236 available to farmers, with the most commonly-offered options those with the fewest
237 environmental benefits (e.g. catch crops, nitrogen fixing crops and short rotation coppice)
238 (Brown et al., 2019; European Commission, 2015; Underwood and Tucker, 2016). This
239 generally resulted in ‘menus’ of options incapable of delivering meaningful environmental

240 benefits (European Commission, 2017; European Court of Auditors., 2017; Pe'er et al.,
241 2017), not least because they were poorly suited to the interests and needs of low-intensity
242 farming environments and methods (Sutcliffe et al., 2015). The curtailment of EFA options
243 also had the inevitable effect of limiting farmers' options for environmentally-beneficial land
244 management.

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248 **3. Methods**

249 We used two methods to gain insight into the factors that affect farmers' decision-making
250 about environmental payments. First, we undertook a review of scientific literature published
251 between 2007 and 2019 to identify the factors that influence such decision-making. Second,
252 we undertook interviews with national-level policy makers and advisors or farmers from
253 seven EU Member States (Czechia, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Spain and Sweden;
254 Table 1). We used the interviews to explain the selection of EFA management options that
255 were offered by national governments to farmers, and the perceptions of farmer decision-
256 making with respect to those options. We then compared the findings of these two steps to
257 assess overlaps and mismatches between the design of EFA policy options and farmers'
258 broad decision-making as portrayed in scientific literature.

259 In the interviews, we used EFA as a specific focus due to its recent implementation and the
260 fact that, because it falls under Pillar 1 (as opposed to agri-environmental payments), most
261 farmers had been exposed to it. This may limit the generality of interview results, and we
262 adopted a broader focus in the literature review in order to capture a representative range of
263 farmers' motivations and to explore how farmers deal overall with pro-environmental policy
264 interventions. We addressed the partial mismatch between the literature review focus and that
265 of the interviews by including questions to farmers and advisors also about broader agri-
266 environment options, working with the existing limited research on greening and EFA, and
267 considering the limitations in interpreting the results.

268 3.1.Literature review

269 Our literature review took the form of a Rapid Evidence Assessment (Dicks et al., 2017) of
270 academic titles to find all peer-reviewed articles dealing with farmer uptake of
271 environmentally-focused management practices on farmland within the EU plus Switzerland
272 and Norway. The latter countries were included in order to cover distinct regulative settings
273 within a similar biophysical and socio-cultural context, consistently with comparable reviews
274 such as Bartkowski & Bartke (2018). We limited the search to 2007–2019 to cover the previous
275 (2007–2013) and current (2014–2020) CAP periods. Prior to the review, we identified papers
276 of potential relevance to the topic based on our expertise in the field. This yielded a list of 22
277 papers published within the desired timeframe. We also used this initial list as a 'pilot' dataset
278 to identify classes of factors that could be relevant in the final review. We searched in Web of
279 Science Core Collection in March 2018 with the following terms: (*Agri-environmental OR*
280 *agrienvironment OR agrienvironmental OR Agri-climate-environment OR agri-environment*
281 *OR "ecological focus area*" OR "compulsory greening") AND (measure OR scheme OR*
282 *program OR programme) AND (behaviour OR behavior OR attitude OR participation OR*

283 *uptake OR compliance OR adoption OR choice OR decision* OR preference**). The search
284 returned 642 papers, including 17 of the 22 papers suggested by members of the group (77%
285 coverage of the suggested papers). The search was subsequently repeated in June 2019 to bring
286 the assessment up to date, returning an additional 121 papers (763 in total) (Fig. 1).

287 We assessed the resulting papers in three consecutive stages. In the first stage we trimmed the
288 papers using title and abstract, and in the second using their full text, on the basis of whether
289 they dealt directly with farmer uptake of environmentally-relevant practices within the study
290 region (EU-28 + 2 (Switzerland and Norway)). These exclusion steps were subject to random
291 cross-checking by different members of the author team, with at least 2 excluded papers from
292 each reviewer being independently checked. No disagreements were found. Following these
293 steps, we retained 241 papers (208 from the original review and 33 from the updated 2019
294 review) for further analysis. In the third step, these papers were distributed among 11 reviewers
295 who read and extracted information from their designated papers according to a review
296 spreadsheet designed to capture the factors identified from the original 22 suggested papers, as
297 well as a range of contextual information (coding categories are available in Appendix 1). For
298 each factor, we recorded the reported existence, direction and approximate strength of its effect
299 on uptake of environmental measures, on a (-2 to 2) scale (i.e. so that weak and strong effects,
300 both positive and negative, could be recorded as well as instances of ‘no effect’). Each reviewer
301 also cross-checked two randomly-selected papers first reviewed by other reviewers, finding no
302 substantive differences.

303 In presenting the results of the literature review below, we use few quantitative summaries
304 because of the difficulty of disentangling reported findings from research assumptions,
305 methods, or survey questions across the literature as a whole. This difficulty is apparent, for
306 instance, in the relative dominance of research on the economic aspects of farm management,
307 and the relative paucity of research on social aspects (similar to Dessart et al., 2019).
308 Furthermore, quantitative summaries of an earlier iteration of the literature review used here
309 are presented in Brown et al. (2019), and the results below build on and extend these summaries
310 where relevant. We also checked for biases in the evidence base from different interview
311 sample sizes, and from different methods and geographical foci in the literature, by analysing
312 sub-sets of the results. Nevertheless, the review remains non-exhaustive and complements
313 other recent reviews based on distinct but mutually intersecting samples (e.g. Bartkowski and
314 Bartke, 2018; Dessart et al., 2019). We therefore highlight any mismatches between our
315 findings and these other reviews below.

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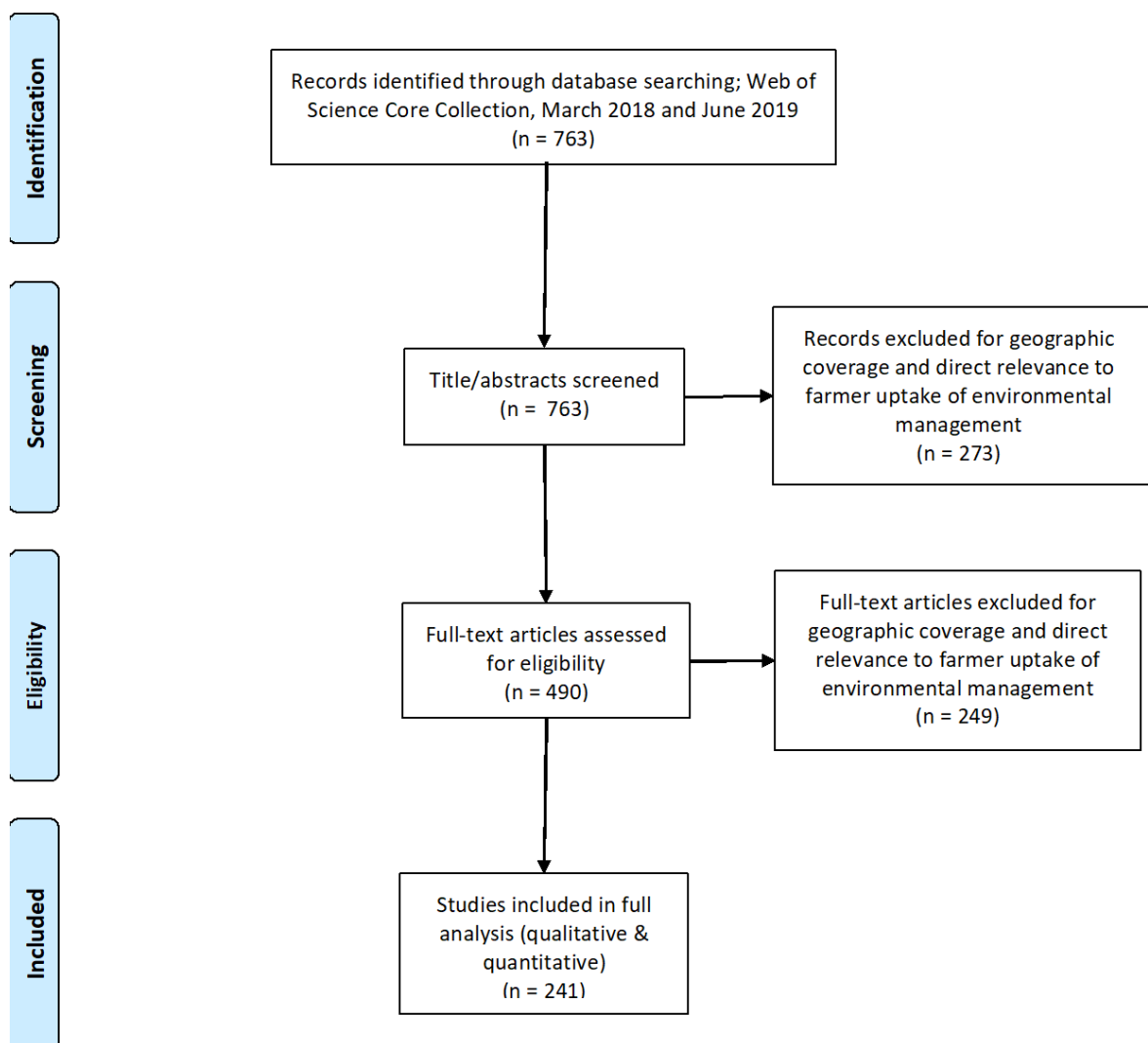
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330 **Figure 1:** Summary of Rapid Evidence Assessment literature review based on the standardised flow
331 chart of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)
332 guidelines (Moher et al., 2009)



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334 3.2. Interviews

335 We carried out semi-structured interviews with two groups of interviewees: national-level
336 decision-makers and advisors or farmers. National-level decision-makers worked with the

337 relevant agricultural Ministry in each country and were involved either in European-level
338 negotiations or national decision-making processes (Table 1). We asked them about the
339 decision-making process behind the national-level selection of EFA measures, the actor
340 composition of decision-making bodies, as well as the reasons why particularly effective
341 environmental measures were or were not included in the national EFA portfolio of their
342 country. We also asked about their perceptions of farmers' reasons for adopting or not
343 adopting particular EFA measures (see Appendix 2 for interview guidelines).

344

345

346 We also interviewed advisors and farmers to explore perceptions of farmer motivations in
347 choosing among the EFA options, as well as among other agri-environmental options. The
348 interviews consisted of three parts (Appendix 2). In the first, we asked open questions about
349 farmers' motivations for adopting environmental measures. In the second, we asked
350 structured questions about specific possible determinants of adoption or non-adoption, and in
351 the third we asked interviewees to assess the validity of several hypotheses derived from the
352 literature review.

353 In both interview groups, responses were transcribed before being categorised and coded for
354 themes and variation around set questions. Advisor and farmer interviews were designed to
355 ensure that factors identified in the literature review would be touched upon, but with
356 additional flexibility to allow questions to be tailored to each country's socio-economic,
357 biogeographic and administrative context. Interviewees were chosen for their experience in
358 the CAP system and knowledge of the agricultural sector within their country, and were
359 generally farm advisors or farmer extension service personnel. The numbers and backgrounds
360 of all interviewees are given in Table 1, and interview guidelines and questions are available
361 in Appendix 2. Interview numbers in each country depended upon availability of
362 interviewees and interviewers, and were not intended to identify 'representative' national
363 views but to illustrate particular viewpoints. Comparisons were made within and between
364 countries to avoid bias in the results due to different numbers of interviews (which varied
365 between 3 and 13).

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381 **Table 1:** Summary of the national-level and advisor and farmer-level interviewees. For complete
 382 details see Brown et al. (2019). Decision-maker interviews were not conducted in Spain due to time
 383 and resource constraints, while bias from the relatively large sample size in Finland was checked for
 384 in the analysis.

| Country | No. interviews with decision-makers | Decision-maker interviewee background(s) | No. interviews with advisors and farmers | Advisor and farmer interviewee background(s) |
|---------|-------------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Czechia | 1 | Ministry of Agriculture | 3 | Association of Private Farms and Association of Young Farmers |
| Finland | 1 | Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry | 13 | Metsähallitus (state owned, responsible for 1/3 of Finland's surface area); Centre for Economic Development, Transport and the Environment; active farmers; Rural advisory services |
| Germany | 1 | Ministry for Agriculture | 3 | Active farmers and local nature conservation agency |
| Greece | 1 | Ministry of Rural Development and Food | 3 | Farmers and agronomists (representatives of farmers' associations and of the public sector on EU-funded programmes) |
| Hungary | 1 | Hungarian Ministry for Agriculture and Rural Development | 3 | Farm administrators from the National Chamber for Agriculture (NAK) |
| Spain | 0 | | 6 | Regional chapter of farmer associations and cooperatives in Aragon and Navarre, and farm advisors |
| Sweden | 1 | Ministry for Agriculture | 4 | Regional and local chapter of farmer associations (Skåne and Östergötland) |

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4. Results

4.1. Overview

389 Our review incorporated a large body of literature, while our interview data are derived from a
 390 relatively small sample. The literature and the interviews were also unevenly and differently

391 distributed across countries, with the literature mainly dealing with western Europe (see Brown
 392 et al. (2019) and also the similar finding of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018)) and the interviews
 393 being restricted to just seven countries (Table 1). Comparisons between the two are therefore
 394 of limited rigour, and we consider their consistency with broader literature in the Discussion
 395 section. In addition, our interviews mainly focused on EFA measures while our review included
 396 broader agri-environment interventions to capture a full range of farmer motivations.
 397 Notwithstanding these caveats, we discovered a similarity of views held by national-level
 398 policy-makers and advisors and farmers across our investigated case study countries, and that
 399 these views did not accord well with the array of farmer motivations as investigated and
 400 demonstrated by the literature (Table 2). This is particularly striking given that advisors and
 401 farmers were actually prompted to consider these different factors, and actively dismissed
 402 several of those highlighted in the literature.

403 Differences between assumed and literature-based motivations were fewest and smallest for
 404 economic factors, and advisors and farmers were slightly better aligned with farmer decision-
 405 making than were national decision-makers, but many areas of significant misalignment
 406 remained. In particular, the spread and dependencies of factors influencing farmer decision-
 407 making in the literature were far greater than was recognised in either national decision-making
 408 or advisor and farmer interpretations. Instead, interviewees predominantly supplied a relatively
 409 simplistic and homogeneous image of governments and farmers selecting EFA management
 410 options that provided the greatest economic benefits (and smallest costs), consistent with
 411 economic ‘rational individualised self-interest’ assumptions that have a long history in
 412 agriculture (Lipion, 1968; Vanclay and Lawrence, 1994). The more comprehensive literature
 413 on farmer decision-making, in contrast, suggested that farmers were influenced by a range of
 414 economic, social and attitudinal factors, with highly context-dependent effects that involved
 415 trade-offs between different objectives. In the following, literature findings are explored with
 416 some comparison to interview material within broad emergent factor groups (Table 2).

| Factors | | Farmer behaviour (literature) | Advisor and farmer views (interviews) | National decision-maker (interviews) |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Economic | Benefits | | | |
| | Costs | | | |
| Socio-demographic | Experience | | | |
| | Education | | | |
| | Age | | | |
| Farm structure | Consistency with farm activities | | | |
| | Size | | | |
| | Tenure | | | |
| | Productivity | | | |
| Farmer beliefs & values | Productivist motivation | | | |
| | Environmentalist motivation | | | |
| | Societally oriented motivations | | | |
| | Social openness, trust & networks | | | |
| Policy design | Complexity | | | |
| | Flexibility | | | |
| | Coherence with other policies | | | |

| | | | | |
|---------------|----------------------|--|--|--|
| | Perceived legitimacy | | | |
| Environmental | Direct benefits | | | |
| | Indirect benefits | | | |

417 **Table 2:** The importance of different groups of factors to farmer decision-making as revealed in the literature, the
418 perceived importance of those factors among advisors and farmers, and the importance given to them in national-
419 level selection of management options to offer to farmers. The intensity of the shading indicates the importance
420 of these effects, with importance assigned according to the number of times each factor group was identified and
421 the strength attributed to it in interviews or literature (white = not mentioned or no importance, lightest shade =
422 mentioned in up to ca. 1/3rd of cases or predominantly given low importance, middle shade = mentioned in up to
423 ca. 2/3^{rds} of cases or predominantly given mid or mixed importance, darkest shade = mentioned in more than ca.
424 2/3^{rds} of cases or predominantly given high importance). We explore the specific meanings and realisations of the
425 factors in the text, and further details of these and more detailed sub-factors are provided in Brown et al. (2019).
426 The reviews of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018) and Dessart et al. (2019) also provide complementary results using
427 overlapping but distinct categories and sub-categories.

428

429 Our checks for differences across the literature related to methods or geographical foci
430 showed limited variation. Our inclusion of Norway and Switzerland alongside the EU
431 member states did not reveal large differences in decision-making in these different contexts:
432 only two papers dealt with Norway while the 11 papers dealing with Switzerland were
433 reasonably consistent with the broader literature. In them, slightly less importance was
434 attributed to structural and socio-demographic factors and slightly more to environmental and
435 farmer-values-related factors. Further work is required to assess whether these are meaningful
436 differences, along with the implications of the strong west-European bias in the literature. We
437 also removed 14 literature reviews from our sample (to check for any effect of double-
438 counting and possible bias) and found these to be very consistent with the overall results,
439 with only slightly less reporting of financial factors. However, we also found that studies
440 based on statistical analysis tended to highlight structural factors more than the rest of the
441 literature, and those based on modelling of empirical data tended to highlight economic
442 factors. Interestingly, five papers that surveyed experts on farmer decision-making produced
443 a similarly limited range of factors as our own interviews did, contrasting sharply with the
444 rest of the literature.

445

446 4.2. Economic Factors

447 Economic factors were the most commonly-referenced group in the literature as well as
448 interviews. In the literature, we found thirty papers that identified higher payments as being
449 central to farmer uptake, with direct positive relationships shown, for example, in Germany
450 (Bock et al., 2013), Italy (Borsotto et al., 2008), Ireland (Di Falco and van Rensburg, 2008)
451 and EU-wide (Ruto and Garrod, 2009). Extra ‘bonus’ payments for longer contracts or other
452 features were found to lead to higher uptake in Spain (Alló et al., 2015) and France (Kuhfuss
453 et al., 2016; Le Coent et al., 2017). A key feature of such payments was that they should go
454 beyond recompense for implementation or opportunity costs. Furthermore, Prager and
455 Posthumus (2011) reported that compensation for such costs should also account for the need
456 to learn new skills, and that payments may additionally need to overcome lower levels of
457 satisfaction and higher levels of uncertainty associated with less intensive land management.
458 For some farmers, implementation was perceived as increasing economic diversity and
459 resilience (Dörschner and Musshoff, 2013; Mouysset et al., 2013). Conversely, the fear of
460 sanctions for poor performance was identified as a barrier to uptake in some cases (Kovács,

461 2015; Prazan and Theesfeld, 2014; Zinngrebe et al., 2017). More generally, interaction between
462 economic and other factor considerations was repeatedly highlighted in the literature as
463 tempering ‘simple’ economic rationality. Social, structural or environmental characteristics
464 were identified as relevant (e.g. in the importance to farmers of maintaining traditional modes
465 of production), and capable of altering economic responses to policy options (Hammes et al.,
466 2016).

467
468 In national-level interviews, direct financial benefits to farmers were consistently highlighted
469 as crucial to the selection of EFA options (and were also seen as beneficial to the state through
470 increased electoral support, particularly in eastern European countries where rural voting
471 populations remain higher than in western Europe). This similarity occurred despite some of
472 the factors identified in the literature having limited relevance to a compulsory scheme such as
473 EFA. For example, our Hungarian interviewee stated that the government’s motivation was to
474 “make the most amount of money and options available to Hungarian farmers” and “to provide
475 farmers with the largest range of options possible, so that they could get the most out of the
476 direct payments of the CAP”. This sentiment was explicitly echoed by the interviewees from
477 Czechia and Greece, who suggested that a major consideration in the choice of EFAs was the
478 benefits that producers would receive. No relationships between economic and other types of
479 factor were cited. It is notable that none of our interviewees suggested that different motivations
480 were at play in broader agri-environment schemes, even, in the case of advisors and farmers,
481 when asked specifically about this.

482
483 Advisors and farmers also identified higher payment rates as being of primary, and
484 independent, motivational importance for farmer choices (Germany, Hungary, Finland,
485 Sweden, Czechia, Greece). Spanish and Hungarian interviewees suggested that policy-makers
486 did not fully appreciate the need for farmers to financially sustain their businesses. Associated
487 with this was the recognised need for farmers to overcome implementation and opportunity
488 costs involved in some environmental measures like the management of landscape elements
489 (e.g. hedges, trees or terraces). Several interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with current
490 payment rates for landscape elements, buffer strips and fallow land (Germany, Sweden,
491 Finland, Germany, Hungary), and with the ‘one-size-fits-all’ nature of these payments, which
492 fails to account for dependencies on local conditions such as soil quality (Czechia). These
493 inconsistencies with local practices or conditions were not mentioned by national government-
494 level interviewees as a consideration.

495
496

497 4.3. Socio-demographic factors

498
499 Socio-demographic factors were frequently identified in the literature as affecting farmers’
500 participation in environmental measures in general (though causative or explanatory linkages
501 between socio-demographic factors and behaviour were rarely investigated). The clearest
502 relationships in this category concerned the effects of knowledge or experience of particular
503 management options, and general education levels, both of which were strongly associated
504 with uptake (Lastra-Bravo et al., 2015; Micha et al., 2015; Siebert et al., 2010) and even with
505 ultimate environmental impact (McCracken et al., 2015). However, evidence about the effects
506 of farmer age was contradictory, even within the same countries. While younger farmers
507 were sometimes found to be more open, able or willing to experiment with new management
508 options, other studies reported that uptake was higher amongst older farmers (Arata and
509 Sckokai, 2016; Lastra-Bravo et al., 2015) (the effects of farmer age were found to be slightly
510 stronger in the review of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018)). Similarly, part-time farmers may be

511 the most likely to adopt measures (van Vliet et al., 2015; Vesterager and Lindegaard, 2012),
512 or the least likely (Mante and Gerowitt, 2009; Matzdorf and Lorenz, 2010). We also found
513 two studies that investigated differences in uptake between male and female farmers (in
514 Spain and Sweden), both of which concluded that adoption rates were lower among female
515 farmers (Franzén et al., 2016; Špur et al., 2018), though in one case a link to different
516 knowledge levels was posited (Špur et al., 2018) (the review of Bartkowski and Bartke, 2018
517 found eight additional studies with mixed results about different behaviour among male and
518 female farmers). In our interviews, in contrast, socio-demographic characteristics were not
519 raised by national-level interviewees, and advisors and farmers only identified previous
520 experience with conservation measures and knowledge of biodiversity as important to
521 farmers applying to participate in environmental schemes. In this case, the distinction
522 between the mandatory EFA and optional agri-environment schemes may provide an
523 explanation, albeit one that was again not raised by interviewees.

524

525

526

4.4. Farm structural factors

527 Various structural factors were highlighted in the literature. Preferences for implementing
528 environmental measures on marginal (including mountainous areas and islands), extensive,
529 organic or otherwise less productive land were frequently identified, and sometimes linked to
530 the lack of additional work required for implementation – in some cases undermining the
531 additionality of those measures relative to prior management (e.g. Borsotto et al., 2008; Van
532 Herzele et al., 2013; Zinngrebe et al., 2017). Effects of other factors were less clear-cut. For
533 instance, similar numbers of studies found that measures were more likely to be taken up by
534 small farms (Aslam et al., 2017; Pascucci et al., 2013; Walder and Kantelhardt, 2018) as by
535 large farms (Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013; Ruto and Garrod, 2009; Zimmermann and Britz,
536 2016), and by non-production-oriented or less profitable farms (Breustedt et al., 2013; Micha
537 et al., 2015; Ruto and Garrod, 2009) as by professional or full time farmers (Gatto et al.,
538 2019; Matzdorf and Lorenz, 2010; Pascucci et al., 2013).

539 These nuances were not reflected in our interview findings, to some extent reflecting the
540 specific nature of EFAs, which are by definition only applicable only to arable land. In
541 national-level interviews, the consistency of subsidised management options with existing
542 practices, landscape features or policies was the most frequently identified factor of any
543 category (notably, the review of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018) also found this as being
544 strongly important from their literature sample, with farm size slightly less so). Interviewees
545 from Hungary, Czechia, Germany and Sweden identified this as important; in Hungary
546 payments for stone walls were not offered as these were not typical features of Hungarian
547 landscapes, and in Czechia hedges, field margins and buffer strips were additionally excluded
548 as being atypical and ‘untraditional’. Other measures such as agroforestry were considered
549 irrelevant in a number of countries (Sweden, Hungary, Finland, Czechia). Farmer
550 representatives also emphasised the importance of existing practices in determining the
551 selection of management options, but went beyond this to identify farm size, land
552 productivity and tenure as extra factors. Tendencies were identified for greater uptake among
553 farmers with large farms or marginal land, both of which minimise the scale of change and
554 risk involved in implementation. Conversely, tenure insecurity was thought to reduce the
555 likelihood of uptake, a finding of great relevance amongst trends of increasing levels of
556 tenancy throughout Europe. Advisors and farmers also argued that payments should be
557 reserved for professional or full-time farmers, who rely on their farming income and therefore
558 may be less likely to adopt measures with unknown impacts.

559 4.5. Farmer beliefs and values

560 In the literature, a wide range of beliefs and values are shown to play a role in determining
561 farmer engagement. In particular, strong positive correlations exist between pro-
562 environmental attitudes and participation in biodiversity schemes, and negative correlations
563 between productivist (or traditionalist) attitudes and participation (Breustedt et al., 2013;
564 Espinosa-Goded et al., 2013; Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013; Kvakkestad et al., 2015; Micha
565 et al., 2015). Beyond these, specific characteristics increasing farmers' openness and societal-
566 identity (i.e. farmers perceiving their role in wider society as important) were found to
567 correlate positively with participation (de Krom, 2017; Gabel et al., 2018). This link may also
568 contribute to the tendency for farmers with strong social networks and vertical capital, social
569 trust or neighbourly relations, to participate (Alló et al., 2015). In fact, such social
570 connectedness may also lead to changes in farmers' attitudes or values, and therefore their
571 willingness to adopt particular management practices, highlighting the dynamic social nature
572 of this group of factors (Rose et al., 2018; Siebert et al., 2006).

573 In contrast to the literature, our national interviewees only referred to farmers' beliefs and
574 values in terms of supposed 'productivism', by which they meant that farmers select schemes
575 that allow them to maximise income and productivity. This was used by a number of
576 interviewees to explain the widespread selection of nitrogen-fixing crops, cover crops and
577 fallows, in particular. This productivist narrative was also apparent among advisors and
578 farmers: "farmers see themselves as producers, not as stewards of nature" (Spain). This group
579 also recognised the existence of other perspectives, however, suggesting that some farmers
580 held pro-environment values and felt responsible for "environmental stewardship", future
581 generations and sustainability, all of which increased the likelihood of biodiversity measure
582 uptake. A number of interviewees expressly lamented the absence of "a broader discussion on
583 the role of agriculture and food production in society" (Sweden), and the benefits of certain
584 management practices in particular societal contexts (Germany, Spain).

585

586 4.6. Policy design

587
588 Issues of legitimacy were particularly apparent in the literature concerning policy design. In
589 Hungary, farmers perceived political bias in the state's monitoring and auditing requirements
590 (e.g. Kovács, 2015), and in Greece prior negative experiences with state actors, or
591 perceptions of corruption, made farmers unwilling to engage with policy schemes, especially
592 where external oversight of farm affairs was necessary (Micha et al., 2015). Policy
593 complexity, inflexibility and administrative burdens were identified in the literature as
594 barriers to uptake across Europe (Zinngrebe et al., 2017, Ruto and Garrod, 2009). Specific
595 factors included excessive time and labour requirements (EU-wide; Lastra-Bravo et al., 2015)
596 and the inability of farmers to pay for consultants (in Hungary; Kovács, 2015). These
597 problems were seen as surmountable, however, through appropriate design of the
598 implementation process. In Austria, the greatest conservation efforts and ecological benefits
599 were achieved via compromise-oriented implementation methods in which trade-offs
600 between farmer preferences were formalised and accepted (Geitzenauer et al., 2016).

601 The complexity of EFA policy design was also a major factor identified by national-level
602 interviews as affecting the capacity of government institutions as well as individual farmers.
603 In this case, of course, participation is compulsory and so farmers do not have the option of

604 entirely avoiding the administrative burden. Nevertheless, measure selection was said to be
605 determined by the ease of any monitoring required by state agencies to ensure compliance.
606 Further specific examples included the prohibitively high costs of mapping watercourses in
607 Finland, and a lack of institutional access to maps and poor communication channels between
608 Hungarian water authorities and agricultural offices. Greek and Finnish interviewees further
609 suggested that there was a determining role in the need to keep administrative costs low for
610 both state agencies and farmers. Similarly, the extent of flexibility in policy design was
611 viewed as important, as it allowed requirements to be adjusted to institutional and local
612 contexts. Even in the absence of flexibility, complementarity with other policies (national
613 policies beyond the CAP) influenced political decisions at the national level (Sweden,
614 Finland, Greece, Czechia).

615
616 Advisors and farmers likewise regarded complexity as negatively influencing uptake, but
617 suggested that specific measures such as improved training, registration and technical
618 assistance (e.g. with high precision mapping) could help to offset this effect (Germany,
619 Hungary, Finland, Sweden, Czechia, Greece). Empowering farmers in this way could reduce
620 barriers to uptake (Greece), but could also reduce the control of government agencies and
621 consultants, making outcomes “less dependent on the attitude of the auditor” (Hungary). As a
622 Spanish interviewee said, “the fact that the implementation of the measures is very complex
623 needs to be reviewed to make them more ‘friendly’ to the producers”, especially in terms of
624 reducing bureaucracy so that farmers can be “near their land rather than filling in papers”.
625 Again, flexibility was identified as a key component to improving uptake, for instance
626 through potential adjustments to local contexts (Czechia, Spain). Administrative burdens,
627 monitoring and the threat of sanctions were seen as undesirable (Greece, Sweden, Germany),
628 and voluntary measures or those consistent with other policies were generally seen as
629 preferable. However, a counterpoint was provided by some advisors and farmers who
630 identified a tendency to accept greater regulation where it is associated with greater political
631 legitimacy. For example, interviewees alluded to farmer preferences for “regulation and
632 higher resulting prices instead of receiving subsidies”, and suggested “farmers are sick of
633 having to sell their products at low costs and then be implicitly compensated with ‘green’
634 payments. They would rather have their products better paid in the market, even if under
635 stricter environmental requirements” (Spain). The tendency for the largest and most intensive
636 farms to receive the greatest subsidies was identified as one perceived indication of policy
637 illegitimacy.

638 639 4.7. Environmental factors 640

641 In the literature, direct and indirect environmental benefits were identified by a minority of
642 papers. In general, positive environmental attitudes were found to be correlated with uptake
643 in general (see above), as were specific perceptions of environmental degradation or a need
644 for environmental protection (Barreiro-Hurlé et al., 2010; Emery and Franks, 2012). In some
645 cases, perceived benefits included safeguarding particular species or habitats (Dutton et al.,
646 2008; Saxby et al., 2018). Further effects are hinted at by correlations between
647 environmentally valuable areas, grasslands or diverse landscapes and increased uptake of
648 environmental management options among farmers (e.g. Espinosa-Goded et al., 2010;
649 Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013; Hammes et al., 2016; Hynes et al., 2008; Mante and
650 Gerowitt, 2009; Matzdorf and Lorenz, 2010). Indirect benefits were also identified; for
651 example in Poland a majority of surveyed farmers expected productivity gains from the
652 application of environmental measures (Świtek and Sawinska, 2017).

653 At national decision-making levels, ecological factors were not identified as playing a direct
654 role (with the exception of a German interviewee's claim that measures were selected "in the
655 interest of sustainable agriculture"). Specific indirect benefits were identified in Finland and
656 Sweden, where nitrogen-fixing crops were seen as reducing the need for mineral fertilisers
657 and energy for their production, and imported protein crops and the associated deforestation
658 in South America. Advisors and farmers also made few references to ecological factors, but
659 did imply some environmental motivations amongst farmers by suggesting that the
660 environmental benefits of management options should be better demonstrated and rewarded
661 to encourage uptake (Germany, Greece, Spain).

662 5. Discussion

663 Our literature review of a decade's worth of academic research on farmer motivations in
664 adopting environmental subsidies or payments revealed a wide range of context- and inter-
665 dependent factors. The results from our small number of interviews with policy-makers and
666 advisors and farmers from across the EU were to some extent consistent with the literature,
667 but also suggested interesting mismatches between research and interviewee's perceptions.
668 This mismatch may partly stem from the sample size differences and the interviews' focus on
669 EFAs. However, the consistency of responses within and across different states, and their
670 resemblance to previous findings (discussed below) suggest the existence of notable
671 misconceptions about farmer decision-making among actors involved in policy-making. That
672 these consistencies emerge despite the policy-maker and advisor and farmer interviews
673 having somewhat different designs also adds weight to their interpretation as meaningful.
674 That said, we first deal with limitations of our study before going on to a broader discussion
675 of our findings.

676 Limitations

677 Our literature review was not fully systematic and missed some papers known by the authors
678 to be relevant. Other recent reviews (e.g. Bartkowski and Bartke, 2018; Burton, 2014; Dessart
679 et al., 2019) provide overviews of different sets of literature (each having similar but non-
680 identical samples), although they make very similar findings with the few exceptions
681 highlighted above. Our earlier review (Brown et al. 2019) along with those of Dessart et al.
682 (2019) and Bartkowski and Bartke (2018) therefore provide important complementary
683 findings, some of which are more specific and include alternative categorisations. Meanwhile
684 Burton (2014) (not captured by our literature search) goes into substantially more detail about
685 farmer demographic characteristics and their influence on environmental behaviour (e.g. with
686 respect to farmer gender, which is a minor factor in the literature we reviewed).

687 The literature is not entirely clear-cut about some points. For instance, structural factors such
688 as farm size are reported to have positive, negative or neutral associations with environmental
689 management. Other research suggests that this is because these are not reliably associated
690 with motivational factors that determine uptake (Wuepper et al., 2020). Even strong and
691 apparently reliable effects can obscure considerable variation. For example, tenure
692 arrangements can vary greatly between countries, altering the importance of tenure for farmer
693 decision-making: Leonhardt et al. (2019) show that relatively secure tenure in Austria means
694 that farm ownership has strictly limited effects. In addition, factors such as these that play
695 some role in voluntary uptake of environmental management are unlikely to play the same
696 role in compulsory engagement with EFA options.

697 We also find that research methodologies can influence findings, and noted during our review
698 that incomplete descriptions of these methodologies hamper interpretation. For instance,

699 aggregated results hide the fact that studies of farmer decision-making are designed to find
700 effects of economic factors far more often than ecological or social factors, and that
701 ‘negative’ findings (i.e. that particular factors have no effects) are not often reported (but see
702 Bartkowski and Bartke, 2018; Brown et al., 2019). Such biases can be further formalised by
703 modelling approaches common in the literature that treat farmer decision-making as a
704 predictable response to economic stimuli (Brown et al., 2017; Nilsson et al., 2019). We do
705 not attempt to fully assess these potential biases here, but note that qualitative distortion of
706 findings because of methodological biases appears to be unlikely, on the basis of our own and
707 others’ reviews.

708 Interviews introduce further uncertainties. For example, the existence of fallow land was seen
709 by our interviewees as according with a productivist perspective, while the literature
710 suggested that farmers can perceive it as contrary to productivist practices (Tarjuelo et al.,
711 2020). We also had one interviewee who was associated with an environmental organisation,
712 potentially introducing a different perspective that is impossible to distinguish within such a
713 small sample. Most importantly, our interviews primarily focused on EFA measures (only
714 advisors and farmers were asked about agri-environment measures more broadly; Appendix
715 2). While this provided a common ground to compare the interview findings across the
716 countries (a mandatory scheme that is nevertheless implemented in different forms across the
717 countries), it also limited the scope for comparisons between interviews and literature
718 findings. Both our interviews and results from literature (especially that based on expert
719 interviews) suggest that such comparison is nonetheless valid, with no distinctions drawn
720 between motivations underlying the two policy types. While EFAs are mandatory, specific
721 measures are selected at national level with some consideration of farmer motivations,
722 following which farmers themselves choose between those measures. This gives some
723 relevance to evidence about choices among fully voluntary measures, if not their initial
724 uptake. Nevertheless, there remains clear scope for different motivations to affect responses
725 to different types of policy in ways that are not captured by our interviews or the literature we
726 reviewed, and for the literature evidence relating to non-arable agricultural land to be
727 inapplicable to EFAs. In the following discussion we remain alert to the fact that interviews
728 focused on a more specific policy tool while most of the literature addresses environmental
729 interventions on farmland more broadly.

730 Findings

731 At a general level, interviewed policy-makers and advisors and farmers held relatively
732 homogenous and simplistic perceptions of the factors affecting farmer decisions as being
733 predominantly based on rational, economic cost-benefit considerations. These perceptions are
734 consistent with the findings of previous studies that identify a disproportionate emphasis on
735 economic factors (e.g. Burton and Paragahawewa, 2011; Dessart et al., 2019; de Snoo et al.,
736 2013; Zinngrebe et al., 2017). This emphasis has strongly influenced national-level policy
737 discussions about which measures to make available to farmers, alongside concerns raised in
738 our interviews about landscape relevance and administrative burdens. The preclusion of EFA
739 options thought to be too burdensome, costly or unpopular continues a long-standing
740 tendency for the CAP to be tailored to the perceived ‘convenience’ of productivist farmers
741 (Hart, 2015; Nilsson et al., 2019; Pe’er et al., 2017; Poláková et al., 2011). The Commission’s
742 own 2011 Impact Assessment and other reports warned against such “watering down”
743 because it inevitably favours options compatible with intensive agriculture and fails to
744 significantly benefit farmland biodiversity (European Commission, 2017, 2011b; European
745 Court of Auditors., 2017; Pe’er et al., 2017; Sutcliffe et al., 2015). While it is possible that

746 interviewees did not mention environmental factors while discussing EFAs due to the
747 mandatory nature of that scheme, it is notable that they almost universally mentioned purely
748 productivist attitudes and even explicitly rejected environmentalist attitudes in some cases,
749 and did not identify either as purely policy-related characteristics.

750 It is true that many farmers focus on agricultural production and are unable or unwilling to
751 forego part of their income in order to implement environmental measures (Wilson, 2001).
752 However, even the most profit-oriented farmers are willing to lose some income in order to
753 implement measures that allow diversification, utilise marginal land or otherwise reduce risk;
754 all of which actually constitute economically rational choices (Lienhoop and Brouwer, 2015).
755 The literature also suggests that many farmers have supra-economic motivations that can
756 prompt choices to improve environmental conditions even at financial cost (Hammes et al.,
757 2016). The excessive simplicity of profit maximisation as a guide to behaviour is well-
758 recognised in agricultural economics, suggesting that our interviewees' responses are based
759 not on economic perspectives per se but on very limited interpretation of economic rationality
760 (Weersink and Fulton, 2020). This lack of nuance goes unrecognised among policy-makers,
761 suggesting that opportunities to develop measures that target different agricultural, social,
762 cultural and ecological contexts could be missed. This may go some way to explaining why
763 current efforts to decentralise competencies into EU member states have contributed to
764 unintended homogenisation and intensification, as different countries have tended to select
765 the same EFA options that maximise revenue and production (Pe'er et al., 2020, 2017).

766
767 There is also evidence that skewed political perspectives cause damage not only of omission
768 but of commission. Subsidies, and the narratives that underpin them, can alter farmers' own
769 perceptions and work practices over time (Kovacs, 2019); an example of 'adaptive
770 preferences' that shape themselves to – and positively reinforce – available options (Elster,
771 1983; Sen, 2001). In this way, a productivist ethos has to some extent been imposed on
772 farmers by decades of production-oriented payments (Burton, 2004a; Erjavec and Erjavec,
773 2015; Wilson, 2001). Not only can this reduce the strength of farmers' intrinsic
774 environmental values (Silvasti, 2003), but the remaining tension between imposed and
775 intrinsic motivations can engender cynicism and resistance, with the consequence that some
776 farmers regard agri-environment schemes as illegitimate (Walder and Kantelhardt, 2018).
777 Similar views are held by farmers concerned about political corruption or the ineffectiveness
778 of environmental payments (Micha et al., 2015; Nilsson et al., 2019). For these farmers,
779 transparent and fair support for measurable environmental benefits is crucial, and would even
780 justify trade-offs with other objectives (Broch and Vedel, 2012; Velten et al., 2018).

781
782 The scope for change in decision factors and motivations can also be positive, and need not
783 result solely from policy pressures. The literature shows that considerable influence is exerted
784 by the social networks in which farmers are embedded, in particular neighbours and other
785 trusted sources of information that farmers often rely on more than governmental or
786 'independent' sources (Brown et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018). Increasing the understanding,
787 appreciation and support for environmentally-beneficial management practices in these social
788 networks could be far more effective than policy interventions alone (Burton and
789 Paragahawewa, 2011; de Snoo et al., 2013). In particular, socially-embedded change has been
790 shown to reduce the perceived risks of new management practices (Oreszczyn et al., 2010),
791 support collaborative 'landscape-scale' schemes (Emery and Franks, 2012) and legitimise
792 results-based payments (Herzon et al., 2018). Such an approach can also account for
793 contextual relations and levels of trust in formal or state institutions. Broader social change
794 can also affect the agricultural practices associated with particular regions, cultures or

795 traditions, but may be inhibited by the exclusion of options at national level for their
796 inconsistency with traditional land uses (Jones, 1991; Markuszewska, 2019; Solymosi, 2011).
797 This may imply a role for ‘centralised flexibility’ that enables decentralisation while also
798 guaranteeing scope for adaptations at local scales – or, as Pe’er et al. (2020) suggest, local
799 experimentation within a rigorous EU-wide monitoring and payment framework.

800
801 Utilising the diversity of farmer motivations for positive environmental change requires a
802 high level of knowledge transfer between farmers, extension services, social scientists and
803 policy-makers (Broch and Vedel, 2012; Burton, 2004b; Feola et al., 2015; Knierim et al.,
804 2017). Existing examples of successful agri-environment scheme design and implementation
805 can provide useful guidance. In fact, reviews have found that many nuances can be distilled
806 into a few key design principles: having highly targeted, specific aims; participatory policy
807 design with local stakeholders; and simple implementation supported by trusted advice
808 (Blumentrath et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2015; Toderi et al., 2017). Our review and interviews
809 find limited further evidence of these principles being used in the development of EFA and
810 broader CAP agri-environment schemes. It is therefore crucial that policy is designed to
811 account for the effects of factors such as ecological motivations, farm size, farmer age, or
812 domestic and landscape-level diversity and governance arrangements on farmer decision-
813 making, as individual characteristics and as interacting elements of decision contexts. The
814 mandatory, constrained nature of EFAs (or potential ‘eco-schemes’ in the post-2020 CAP)
815 and the apparent lack of consideration of a realistic range of farmer characteristics
816 compromises the potential of the scheme to capitalise on the diversity of farmers and
817 environments that exist in Europe.

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819
820

821 **6. Conclusion**

822
823 Reforms of the Common Agricultural Policy have not effectively utilised extensive scientific
824 knowledge about socio-ecological interactions at farm level, and have failed to produce
825 environmental benefits. As the European Environment Agency recently concluded, there is a
826 need for “urgent systemic solutions” involving “a rapid and fundamental shift in the character
827 and ambition of Europe’s responses” to biodiversity losses (European Environment Agency,
828 2019). This paper examined, through a wide-ranging literature review, the factors that
829 influence farmers’ willingness and motivation to participate in measures known to be
830 beneficial for biodiversity, and the perceptions of these factors among national-level policy-
831 makers and farmer representatives from around Europe. We found that the most commonly-
832 researched and recognised factors (relating to economic and structural characteristics)
833 influence farmers in varied, context-specific ways. These nuances in factor effects were not
834 reflected in our interview responses, adding weight to other findings that policy is often made
835 on the basis of a simplistic conceptualisation of farmer behaviour that unduly emphasises the
836 importance and independence of crude economic considerations. Clear demonstration of
837 environmental benefits could have substantial benefits, capitalising on farmers’ motivations
838 to improve environmental outcomes and counteracting a lack of trust in policy purposes and
839 efficacies. Similarly, appropriate opportunities for training, education and participation in
840 policy design, and a communication framework based on social networks rather than
841 government agencies would further redress the counterproductive simplicity of current
842 policy. These changes are not simple, but they have widespread support in farming, scientific
843 and political communities (Pe’er et al., 2020) and would replace a notably unpopular status

844 quo (Velten et al., 2018). In the absence of such reform, ever-decreasing levels of European
845 farmland biodiversity have ever-smaller chances of recovery.

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848 **Competing interests**

849 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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