

1 **Simplistic understandings of farmer motivations could undermine the environmental**  
2 **potential of the Common Agricultural Policy**

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41 **Acknowledgements**

42  
43 The authors thank Doris Marquardt for her assistance with this study, and Juliana Därnhart  
44 and Julia Wright for their contributions to study design and implementation. We are also  
45 grateful to Flore Jeanmart, Marie Vandewalle, Lynn Dicks and the EKLIPSE Project team for  
46 their assistance with the report on which this study builds, and to Bartosz Bartkowski and one  
47 anonymous reviewer for detailed and constructive reviews that substantially improved the  
48 manuscript.

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

**Abstract**

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

**Keywords**

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

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## 1. Introduction

103 In the 40 years since the European Union (EU) launched its legislative framework for  
104 environmental protection with the 1979 Birds Directive, levels of biodiversity have fallen  
105 sharply across the continent. By 2000, farmland species had lost a quarter of their 1970  
106 populations in western Europe (De Heer et al., 2005), with closely-monitored farmland birds  
107 declining by around 50% - twice as fast as woodland birds (DEFRA, 2018; Donald et al.,  
108 2006; European Environment Agency, 2010; Pan European Common Bird Monitoring  
109 Scheme, 2019). Roughly three-quarters of farmland species and habitats had ‘unfavourable’  
110 conservation status by 2010, meaning that they are at risk of extinction in the absence of  
111 management change (European Environment Agency, 2010). There is emerging evidence that  
112 insect biomass and abundance have declined rapidly in European agricultural land in the last  
113 few decades (Wagner, 2020). Alarming, biodiversity trends in the east of the continent have  
114 mirrored those in the west following the introduction of agricultural subsidies through the  
115 Common Agricultural Policy (CAP). For example, farmland bird species have declined by up  
116 to a third in the new EU member states (Reif and Vermouzek, 2019; Szép et al., 2014).

117 These declines have occurred despite an increasing proportion of the CAP’s approximately  
118 €60 billion annual budget being earmarked to improve environmental outcomes, with €66  
119 billion earmarked for this purpose during the current CAP period (2014-2020), in addition to  
120 other funds such as the estimated €5.8 billion spent each year on designating, protecting and  
121 managing Natura 2000 sites (European Commission, 2019a, 2016; European Court of  
122 Auditors, 2020). Agri-environmental schemes have been the main target of this funding, but  
123 the introduction of ‘greening’ measures in 2013 with a budget of approximately €12 billion  
124 per year (8% of the total EU budget) was intended to obligate all farmers to undertake  
125 environmentally-friendly farming activities on some of their land. However, the greening  
126 implementation required no management change whatsoever on 95% of EU farmland, and  
127 has consequently been described by the EU’s independent external auditor as an  
128 environmentally ineffective income-support scheme (European Court of Auditors., 2017) in  
129 which environmental expenditure and impact have not even been reliably tracked (European  
130 Court of Auditors, 2020). In fact, literature suggests that the CAP as a whole has not only  
131 failed to prevent environmental damage, but has actively caused it by maintaining  
132 mechanisms that favour agricultural intensification (Reif and Vermouzek, 2019).

133 The failure of EU agricultural subsidies to achieve their environmental objectives is not due  
134 to a lack of knowledge about the adverse impacts of agricultural practices or the changes  
135 necessary to redress these. Numerous scientific studies have identified systemic changes and  
136 specific management practices necessary to better maintain biodiversity and protect the  
137 environment. Several of these management practices are already eligible for support under  
138 the CAP’s greening programme (e.g. allowing land to lie fallow, incorporating some degree  
139 of agroforestry and maintaining field margins) (European Commission, 2017; Hart et al.,  
140 2017; Pe’er et al., 2017; Shackelford et al., 2017; Sutherland et al., 2018). However, their  
141 uptake has been limited, prompting considerable research into methods for improving rates of  
142 adoption (Brown et al., 2019; Díaz and Concepción, 2016; Navarro and López-Bao, 2018;  
143 Pe’er et al., 2019). A recent report by the European Environment Agency found that CAP  
144 interventions “have failed to deliver significant effects up to the scale and urgency of the  
145 challenges”, necessitating a “fundamental sustainability transition” in the European food  
146 system (European Environment Agency, 2019). More than 3,600 scientists signed a recent

147 open letter calling for an urgent revision of the CAP to take these and other suggestions into  
148 account (Pe'er et al., 2020).

149 Ultimately, if attempts to improve the environmental outcomes of the CAP are to be  
150 effective, there must be greater uptake of environmentally-beneficial management practices  
151 by Europe's farmers. The rationale of European agri-environmental subsidies is to  
152 compensate farmers for lost income and additional costs, as well as to overcome perceived  
153 unwillingness to pursue environmental objectives (Batáry et al., 2015; de Snoo et al., 2013).  
154 However, recent reviews and meta-analyses suggest that European farmer decision-making is  
155 far more nuanced and diverse than this policy rationale implies (Bartkowski and Bartke,  
156 2018; Brown et al., 2019; van Vliet et al., 2015). Failure to account for the array of farmer  
157 motivations may result in poorly-targeted incentives, reduced farmer uptake over time, and  
158 even distortions of those motivations if they encourage subsidy dependence over intrinsic  
159 determination (Herzon and Mikk, 2007; Kovacs, 2019).

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

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## 182 **2. Background: Delineation and choice of agricultural 'greening' policy options** 183 **between the Europe Union and Member States**

184 The Ecological Focus Area (EFA) scheme, which is adopted as one focus of this study, forms  
185 part of the CAP's Pillar 1, and is a mandatory scheme in which farmers receive payments for  
186 selecting and implementing specified management options on arable land. EFAs are not the  
187 only environmental measures supported by the CAP, and so their development occurs within  
188 a broader framework of EU-funded agri-environment schemes (Batáry et al., 2015). Before  
189 individual farmers are given the opportunity to choose management options for implementing  
190 at farm level, these options are defined at European and national levels. The first step is a  
191 negotiation between the European Commission, European Parliament and European Council,  
192 which determines the full range of available options under the CAP. Member States then

193 select options offered to their farmers at national levels according to national priorities and  
194 context. The nationally selected options must finally be approved by the Commission and  
195 sometimes are negotiated further. This may result in national exemptions to the general rules.

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

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

224 In 13 Member States, six or fewer of the 18 possible EFA options were ultimately made  
225 available to farmers, with the most commonly-offered options those with the fewest  
226 environmental benefits (e.g. catch crops, nitrogen fixing crops and short rotation coppice)  
227 (Brown et al., 2019; European Commission, 2015; Underwood and Tucker, 2016). This  
228 generally resulted in ‘menus’ of options incapable of delivering meaningful environmental  
229 benefits (European Commission, 2017; European Court of Auditors., 2017; Pe’er et al.,  
230 2017), not least because they were poorly suited to the interests and needs of low-intensity  
231 farming environments and methods (Sutcliffe et al., 2015). The curtailment of EFA options  
232 also had the inevitable effect of limiting farmers’ options for environmentally-beneficial land  
233 management.

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### 3. Methods

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

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

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#### 3.1.Literature review

258 Our literature review took the form of a Rapid Evidence Assessment (Dicks et al., 2017) of  
259 academic titles to find all peer-reviewed articles dealing with farmer uptake of  
260 environmentally-focused management practices on farmland within the EU plus Switzerland  
261 and Norway. The latter countries were included in order to cover distinct regulative settings  
262 within a similar biophysical and socio-cultural context, consistently with comparable reviews  
263 such as Bartkowski & Bartke (2018). We limited the search to 2007–2019 to cover the previous  
264 (2007–2013) and current (2014–2020) CAP periods. Prior to the review, we identified papers  
265 of potential relevance to the topic based on our expertise in the field. This yielded a list of 22  
266 papers published within the desired timeframe. We also used this initial list as a 'pilot' dataset  
267 to identify classes of factors that could be relevant in the final review. We searched in Web of  
268 Science Core Collection in March 2018 with the following terms: (*Agri-environmental OR*  
269 *agrienvironment OR agrienvironmental OR Agri-climate-environment OR agri-environment*  
270 *OR "ecological focus area\*" OR "compulsory greening") AND (measure OR scheme OR*  
271 *program OR programme) AND (behaviour OR behavior OR attitude OR participation OR*  
272 *uptake OR compliance OR adoption OR choice OR decision\* OR preference\*)). The search  
273 returned 642 papers, including 17 of the 22 papers suggested by members of the group (77%  
274 coverage of the suggested papers). The search was subsequently repeated in June 2019 to bring  
275 the assessment up to date, returning an additional 121 papers (763 in total) (Fig. 1).*

276 We assessed the resulting papers in three consecutive stages. In the first stage we trimmed the  
277 papers using title and abstract, and in the second using their full text, on the basis of whether  
278 they dealt directly with farmer uptake of environmentally-relevant practices within the study  
279 region (EU-28 + 2 (Switzerland and Norway)). These exclusion steps were subject to random  
280 cross-checking by different members of the author team, with at least 2 excluded papers from  
281 each reviewer being independently checked. No disagreements were found. Following these  
282 steps, we retained 241 papers (208 from the original review and 33 from the updated 2019

283 review) for further analysis. In the third step, these papers were distributed among 11 reviewers  
284 who read and extracted information from their designated papers according to a review  
285 spreadsheet designed to capture the factors identified from the original 22 suggested papers, as  
286 well as a range of contextual information (coding categories are available in Appendix 1). For  
287 each factor, we recorded the reported existence, direction and approximate strength of its effect  
288 on uptake of environmental measures, on a (-2 to 2) scale (i.e. so that weak and strong effects,  
289 both positive and negative, could be recorded as well as instances of ‘no effect’). Each reviewer  
290 also cross-checked two randomly-selected papers first reviewed by other reviewers, finding no  
291 substantive differences.

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

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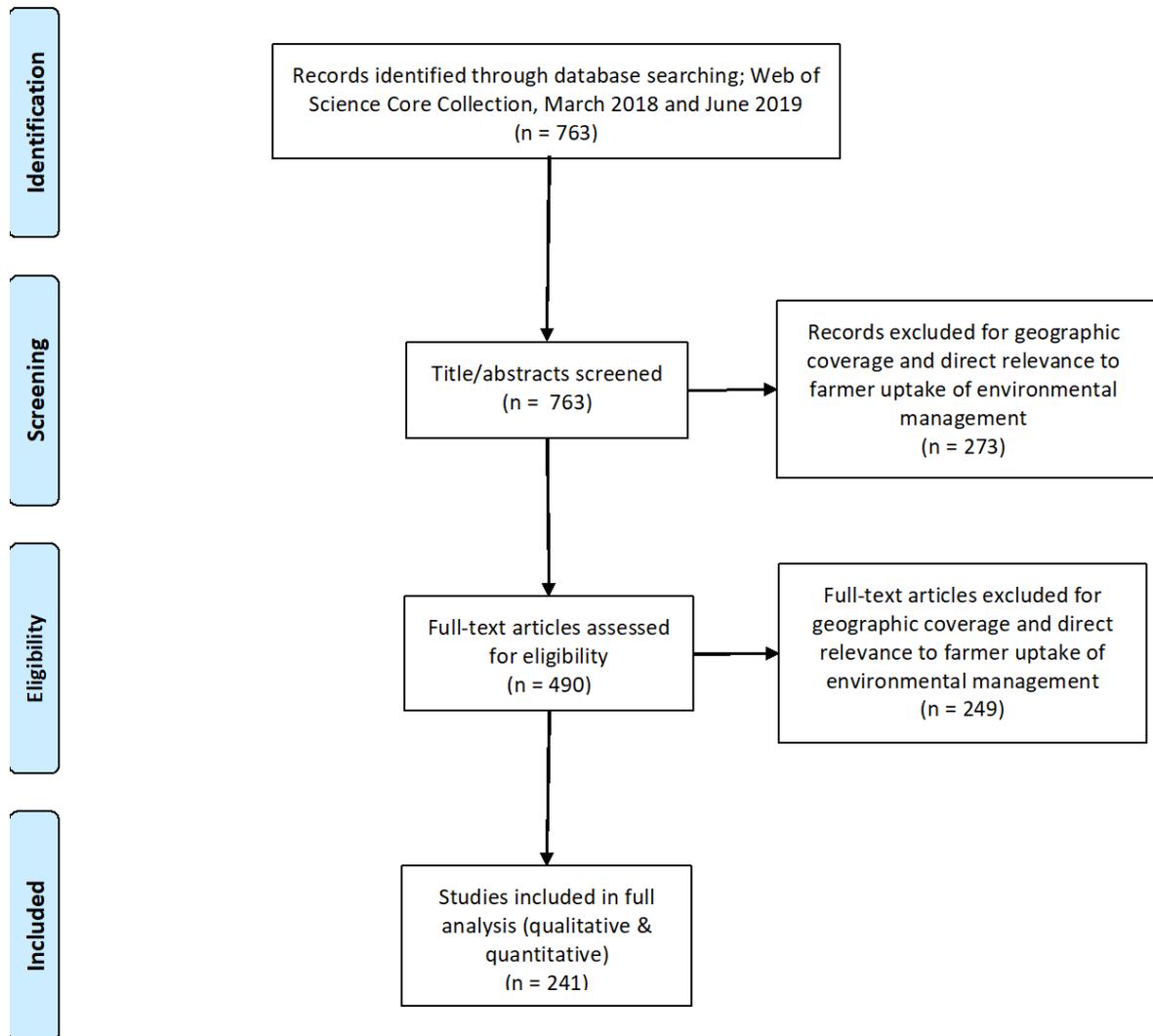
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319 **Figure 1:** Summary of Rapid Evidence Assessment literature review based on the standardised flow  
 320 chart of the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA)  
 321 guidelines (Moher et al., 2009)



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323 3.2.Interviews

324 We carried out semi-structured interviews with two groups of interviewees: national-level  
 325 decision-makers and advisors or farmers. National-level decision-makers worked with the  
 326 relevant agricultural Ministry in each country and were involved either in European-level  
 327 negotiations or national decision-making processes (Table 1). We asked them about the  
 328 decision-making process behind the national-level selection of EFA measures, the actor  
 329 composition of decision-making bodies, as well as the reasons why particularly effective  
 330 environmental measures were or were not included in the national EFA portfolio of their  
 331 country. We also asked about their perceptions of farmers' reasons for adopting or not  
 332 adopting particular EFA measures (see Appendix 2 for interview guidelines).

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

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

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370 **Table 1:** Summary of the national-level and advisor and farmer-level interviewees. For complete  
 371 details see Brown et al. (2019). Decision-maker interviews were not conducted in Spain due to time  
 372 and resource constraints, while bias from the relatively large sample size in Finland was checked for  
 373 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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## 375 **4. Results**

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### 377 4.1. Overview

378 Our review incorporated a large body of literature, while our interview data are derived from a  
 379 relatively small sample. The literature and the interviews were also unevenly and differently  
 380 distributed across countries, with the literature mainly dealing with western Europe (see Brown  
 381 et al. (2019) and also the similar finding of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018)) and the interviews  
 382 being restricted to just seven countries (Table 1). Comparisons between the two are therefore  
 383 of limited rigour, and we consider their consistency with broader literature in the Discussion  
 384 section. In addition, our interviews mainly focused on EFA measures while our review included  
 385 broader agri-environment interventions to capture a full range of farmer motivations.  
 386 Notwithstanding these caveats, we discovered a similarity of views held by national-level  
 387 policy-makers and advisors and farmers across our investigated case study countries, and that  
 388 these views did not accord well with the array of farmer motivations as investigated and  
 389 demonstrated by the literature (Table 2). This is particularly striking given that advisors and

390 farmers were actually prompted to consider these different factors, and actively dismissed  
 391 several of those highlighted in the literature.

392 Differences between assumed and literature-based motivations were fewest and smallest for  
 393 economic factors, and advisors and farmers were slightly better aligned with farmer decision-  
 394 making than were national decision-makers, but many areas of significant misalignment  
 395 remained. In particular, the spread and dependencies of factors influencing farmer decision-  
 396 making in the literature were far greater than was recognised in either national decision-making  
 397 or advisor and farmer interpretations. Instead, interviewees predominantly supplied a relatively  
 398 simplistic and homogeneous image of governments and farmers selecting EFA management  
 399 options that provided the greatest economic benefits (and smallest costs), consistent with  
 400 economic ‘rational individualised self-interest’ assumptions that have a long history in  
 401 agriculture (Lipion, 1968; Vanclay and Lawrence, 1994). The more comprehensive literature  
 402 on farmer decision-making, in contrast, suggested that farmers were influenced by a range of  
 403 economic, social and attitudinal factors, with highly context-dependent effects that involved  
 404 trade-offs between different objectives. In the following, literature findings are explored with  
 405 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	darkest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
	Costs	darkest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
Socio-demographic	Experience	darkest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
	Education	darkest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
	Age	lightest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
Farm structure	Consistency with farm activities	lightest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
	Size	lightest shade	darkest shade	lightest shade
	Tenure	lightest shade	darkest shade	lightest shade
	Productivity	darkest shade	darkest shade	lightest shade
Farmer beliefs & values	Productivist motivation	darkest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
	Environmental motivation	darkest shade	darkest shade	lightest shade
	Societally oriented motivations	darkest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
	Social openness, trust & networks	darkest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
Policy design	Complexity	darkest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
	Flexibility	darkest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
	Coherence with other policies	lightest shade	darkest shade	darkest shade
	Perceived legitimacy	lightest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
Environmental	Direct benefits	darkest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade
	Indirect benefits	darkest shade	lightest shade	lightest shade

406 **Table 2:** The importance of different groups of factors to farmer decision-making as revealed in the literature, the  
 407 perceived importance of those factors among advisors and farmers, and the importance given to them in national-  
 408 level selection of management options to offer to farmers. The intensity of the shading indicates the importance  
 409 of these effects, with importance assigned according to the number of times each factor group was identified and  
 410 the strength attributed to it in interviews or literature (white = not mentioned or no importance, lightest shade =  
 411 mentioned in up to ca. 1/3<sup>rd</sup> of cases or predominantly given low importance, middle shade = mentioned in up to  
 412 ca. 2/3<sup>rd</sup>s of cases or predominantly given mid or mixed importance, darkest shade = mentioned in more than ca.

413 2/3<sup>rd</sup>s of cases or predominantly given high importance). We explore the specific meanings and realisations of the  
414 factors in the text, and further details of these and more detailed sub-factors are provided in Brown et al. (2019).  
415 The reviews of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018) and Dessart et al. (2019) also provide complementary results using  
416 overlapping but distinct categories and sub-categories.

417

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

434

#### 435 4.2. Economic Factors

436 Economic factors were the most commonly-referenced group in the literature as well as  
437 interviews. In the literature, we found thirty papers that identified higher payments as being  
438 central to farmer uptake, with direct positive relationships shown, for example, in Germany  
439 (Bock et al., 2013), Italy (Borsotto et al., 2008), Ireland (Di Falco and van Rensburg, 2008)  
440 and EU-wide (Ruto and Garrod, 2009). Extra ‘bonus’ payments for longer contracts or other  
441 features were found to lead to higher uptake in Spain (Alló et al., 2015) and France (Kuhfuss  
442 et al., 2016; Le Coent et al., 2017). A key feature of such payments was that they should go  
443 beyond recompense for implementation or opportunity costs. Furthermore, Prager and  
444 Posthumus (2011) reported that compensation for such costs should also account for the need  
445 to learn new skills, and that payments may additionally need to overcome lower levels of  
446 satisfaction and higher levels of uncertainty associated with less intensive land management.  
447 For some farmers, implementation was perceived as increasing economic diversity and  
448 resilience (Dörschner and Musshoff, 2013; Mouysset et al., 2013). Conversely, the fear of  
449 sanctions for poor performance was identified as a barrier to uptake in some cases (Kovács,  
450 2015; Prazan and Theesfeld, 2014; Zinngrebe et al., 2017). More generally, interaction between  
451 economic and other factor considerations was repeatedly highlighted in the literature as  
452 tempering ‘simple’ economic rationality. Social, structural or environmental characteristics  
453 were identified as relevant (e.g. in the importance to farmers of maintaining traditional modes  
454 of production), and capable of altering economic responses to policy options (Hammes et al.,  
455 2016).

456

457 In national-level interviews, direct financial benefits to farmers were consistently highlighted  
458 as crucial to the selection of EFA options (and were also seen as beneficial to the state through  
459 increased electoral support, particularly in eastern European countries where rural voting

460 populations remain higher than in western Europe). This similarity occurred despite some of  
461 the factors identified in the literature having limited relevance to a compulsory scheme such as  
462 EFA. For example, our Hungarian interviewee stated that the government's motivation was to  
463 "make the most amount of money and options available to Hungarian farmers" and "to provide  
464 farmers with the largest range of options possible, so that they could get the most out of the  
465 direct payments of the CAP". This sentiment was explicitly echoed by the interviewees from  
466 Czechia and Greece, who suggested that a major consideration in the choice of EFAs was the  
467 benefits that producers would receive. No relationships between economic and other types of  
468 factor were cited. It is notable that none of our interviewees suggested that different motivations  
469 were at play in broader agri-environment schemes, even, in the case of advisors and farmers,  
470 when asked specifically about this.

471  
472 Advisors and farmers also identified higher payment rates as being of primary, and  
473 independent, motivational importance for farmer choices (Germany, Hungary, Finland,  
474 Sweden, Czechia, Greece). Spanish and Hungarian interviewees suggested that policy-makers  
475 did not fully appreciate the need for farmers to financially sustain their businesses. Associated  
476 with this was the recognised need for farmers to overcome implementation and opportunity  
477 costs involved in some environmental measures like the management of landscape elements  
478 (e.g. hedges, trees or terraces). Several interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with current  
479 payment rates for landscape elements, buffer strips and fallow land (Germany, Sweden,  
480 Finland, Germany, Hungary), and with the 'one-size-fits-all' nature of these payments, which  
481 fails to account for dependencies on local conditions such as soil quality (Czechia). These  
482 inconsistencies with local practices or conditions were not mentioned by national government-  
483 level interviewees as a consideration.

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485

#### 486 4.3. Socio-demographic factors

487  
488 Socio-demographic factors were frequently identified in the literature as affecting farmers'  
489 participation in environmental measures in general (though causative or explanatory linkages  
490 between socio-demographic factors and behaviour were rarely investigated). The clearest  
491 relationships in this category concerned the effects of knowledge or experience of particular  
492 management options, and general education levels, both of which were strongly associated  
493 with uptake (Lastra-Bravo et al., 2015; Micha et al., 2015; Siebert et al., 2010) and even with  
494 ultimate environmental impact (McCracken et al., 2015). However, evidence about the effects  
495 of farmer age was contradictory, even within the same countries. While younger farmers  
496 were sometimes found to be more open, able or willing to experiment with new management  
497 options, other studies reported that uptake was higher amongst older farmers (Arata and  
498 Sckokai, 2016; Lastra-Bravo et al., 2015) (the effects of farmer age were found to be slightly  
499 stronger in the review of Bartkowski & Bartke (2018)). Similarly, part-time farmers may be  
500 the most likely to adopt measures (van Vliet et al., 2015; Vesterager and Lindegaard, 2012),  
501 or the least likely (Mante and Gerowitt, 2009; Matzdorf and Lorenz, 2010). We also found  
502 two studies that investigated differences in uptake between male and female farmers (in  
503 Spain and Sweden), both of which concluded that adoption rates were lower among female  
504 farmers (Franzén et al., 2016; Špur et al., 2018), though in one case a link to different  
505 knowledge levels was posited (Špur et al., 2018) (the review of Bartkowski and Bartke, 2018  
506 found eight additional studies with mixed results about different behaviour among male and  
507 female farmers). In our interviews, in contrast, socio-demographic characteristics were not  
508 raised by national-level interviewees, and advisors and farmers only identified previous  
509 experience with conservation measures and knowledge of biodiversity as important to

510 farmers applying to participate in environmental schemes. In this case, the distinction  
511 between the mandatory EFA and optional agri-environment schemes may provide an  
512 explanation, albeit one that was again not raised by interviewees.

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#### 4.4. Farm structural factors

516 Various structural factors were highlighted in the literature. Preferences for implementing  
517 environmental measures on marginal (including mountainous areas and islands), extensive,  
518 organic or otherwise less productive land were frequently identified, and sometimes linked to  
519 the lack of additional work required for implementation – in some cases undermining the  
520 additionality of those measures relative to prior management (e.g. Borsotto et al., 2008; Van  
521 Herzele et al., 2013; Zinngrebe et al., 2017). Effects of other factors were less clear-cut. For  
522 instance, similar numbers of studies found that measures were more likely to be taken up by  
523 small farms (Aslam et al., 2017; Pascucci et al., 2013; Walder and Kantelhardt, 2018) as by  
524 large farms (Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013; Ruto and Garrod, 2009; Zimmermann and Britz,  
525 2016), and by non-production-oriented or less profitable farms (Breustedt et al., 2013; Micha  
526 et al., 2015; Ruto and Garrod, 2009) as by professional or full time farmers (Gatto et al.,  
527 2019; Matzdorf and Lorenz, 2010; Pascucci et al., 2013).

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

#### 4.5. Farmer beliefs and values

549 In the literature, a wide range of beliefs and values are shown to play a role in determining  
550 farmer engagement. In particular, strong positive correlations exist between pro-  
551 environmental attitudes and participation in biodiversity schemes, and negative correlations  
552 between productivist (or traditionalist) attitudes and participation (Breustedt et al., 2013;  
553 Espinosa-Goded et al., 2013; Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013; Kvakkestad et al., 2015; Micha  
554 et al., 2015). Beyond these, specific characteristics increasing farmers’ openness and societal-  
555 identity (i.e. farmers perceiving their role in wider society as important) were found to  
556 correlate positively with participation (de Krom, 2017; Gabel et al., 2018). This link may also

557 contribute to the tendency for farmers with strong social networks and vertical capital, social  
558 trust or neighbourly relations, to participate (Alló et al., 2015). In fact, such social  
559 connectedness may also lead to changes in farmers' attitudes or values, and therefore their  
560 willingness to adopt particular management practices, highlighting the dynamic social nature  
561 of this group of factors (Rose et al., 2018; Siebert et al., 2006).

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

574

#### 575 4.6. Policy design

576

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

590 The complexity of EFA policy design was also a major factor identified by national-level  
591 interviews as affecting the capacity of government institutions as well as individual farmers.  
592 In this case, of course, participation is compulsory and so farmers do not have the option of  
593 entirely avoiding the administrative burden. Nevertheless, measure selection was said to be  
594 determined by the ease of any monitoring required by state agencies to ensure compliance.  
595 Further specific examples included the prohibitively high costs of mapping watercourses in  
596 Finland, and a lack of institutional access to maps and poor communication channels between  
597 Hungarian water authorities and agricultural offices. Greek and Finnish interviewees further  
598 suggested that there was a determining role in the need to keep administrative costs low for  
599 both state agencies and farmers. Similarly, the extent of flexibility in policy design was  
600 viewed as important, as it allowed requirements to be adjusted to institutional and local  
601 contexts. Even in the absence of flexibility, complementarity with other policies (national

602 policies beyond the CAP) influenced political decisions at the national level (Sweden,  
603 Finland, Greece, Czechia).

604  
605 Advisors and farmers likewise regarded complexity as negatively influencing uptake, but  
606 suggested that specific measures such as improved training, registration and technical  
607 assistance (e.g. with high precision mapping) could help to offset this effect (Germany,  
608 Hungary, Finland, Sweden, Czechia, Greece). Empowering farmers in this way could reduce  
609 barriers to uptake (Greece), but could also reduce the control of government agencies and  
610 consultants, making outcomes “less dependent on the attitude of the auditor” (Hungary). As a  
611 Spanish interviewee said, “the fact that the implementation of the measures is very complex  
612 needs to be reviewed to make them more ‘friendly’ to the producers”, especially in terms of  
613 reducing bureaucracy so that farmers can be “near their land rather than filling in papers”.  
614 Again, flexibility was identified as a key component to improving uptake, for instance  
615 through potential adjustments to local contexts (Czechia, Spain). Administrative burdens,  
616 monitoring and the threat of sanctions were seen as undesirable (Greece, Sweden, Germany),  
617 and voluntary measures or those consistent with other policies were generally seen as  
618 preferable. However, a counterpoint was provided by some advisors and farmers who  
619 identified a tendency to accept greater regulation where it is associated with greater political  
620 legitimacy. For example, interviewees alluded to farmer preferences for “regulation and  
621 higher resulting prices instead of receiving subsidies”, and suggested “farmers are sick of  
622 having to sell their products at low costs and then be implicitly compensated with ‘green’  
623 payments. They would rather have their products better paid in the market, even if under  
624 stricter environmental requirements” (Spain). The tendency for the largest and most intensive  
625 farms to receive the greatest subsidies was identified as one perceived indication of policy  
626 illegitimacy.

#### 627 628 4.7. Environmental factors

629  
630 In the literature, direct and indirect environmental benefits were identified by a minority of  
631 papers. In general, positive environmental attitudes were found to be correlated with uptake  
632 in general (see above), as were specific perceptions of environmental degradation or a need  
633 for environmental protection (Barreiro-Hurlé et al., 2010; Emery and Franks, 2012). In some  
634 cases, perceived benefits included safeguarding particular species or habitats (Dutton et al.,  
635 2008; Saxby et al., 2018). Further effects are hinted at by correlations between  
636 environmentally valuable areas, grasslands or diverse landscapes and increased uptake of  
637 environmental management options among farmers (e.g. Espinosa-Goded et al., 2010;  
638 Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013; Hammes et al., 2016; Hynes et al., 2008; Mante and  
639 Gerowitt, 2009; Matzdorf and Lorenz, 2010). Indirect benefits were also identified; for  
640 example in Poland a majority of surveyed farmers expected productivity gains from the  
641 application of environmental measures (Świtek and Sawinska, 2017).

642 At national decision-making levels, ecological factors were not identified as playing a direct  
643 role (with the exception of a German interviewee’s claim that measures were selected “in the  
644 interest of sustainable agriculture”). Specific indirect benefits were identified in Finland and  
645 Sweden, where nitrogen-fixing crops were seen as reducing the need for mineral fertilisers  
646 and energy for their production, and imported protein crops and the associated deforestation  
647 in South America. Advisors and farmers also made few references to ecological factors, but  
648 did imply some environmental motivations amongst farmers by suggesting that the  
649 environmental benefits of management options should be better demonstrated and rewarded  
650 to encourage uptake (Germany, Greece, Spain).

## 651 5. Discussion

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

### 665 Limitations

666 Our literature review was not fully systematic and missed some papers known by the authors  
667 to be relevant. Other recent reviews (e.g. Bartkowski and Bartke, 2018; Burton, 2014; Dessart  
668 et al., 2019) provide overviews of different sets of literature (each having similar but non-  
669 identical samples), although they make very similar findings with the few exceptions  
670 highlighted above. Our earlier review (Brown et al. 2019) along with those of Dessart et al.  
671 (2019) and Bartkowski and Bartke (2018) therefore provide important complementary  
672 findings, some of which are more specific and include alternative categorisations. Meanwhile  
673 Burton (2014) (not captured by our literature search) goes into substantially more detail about  
674 farmer demographic characteristics and their influence on environmental behaviour (e.g. with  
675 respect to farmer gender, which is a minor factor in the literature we reviewed).

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

686 We also find that research methodologies can influence findings, and noted during our review  
687 that incomplete descriptions of these methodologies hamper interpretation. For instance,  
688 aggregated results hide the fact that studies of farmer decision-making are designed to find  
689 effects of economic factors far more often than ecological or social factors, and that  
690 'negative' findings (i.e. that particular factors have no effects) are not often reported (but see  
691 Bartkowski and Bartke, 2018; Brown et al., 2019). Such biases can be further formalised by  
692 modelling approaches common in the literature that treat farmer decision-making as a  
693 predictable response to economic stimuli (Brown et al., 2017; Nilsson et al., 2019). We do  
694 not attempt to fully assess these potential biases here, but note that qualitative distortion of  
695 findings because of methodological biases appears to be unlikely, on the basis of our own and  
696 others' reviews.

697 Interviews introduce further uncertainties. For example, the existence of fallow land was seen  
698 by our interviewees as according with a productivist perspective, while the literature  
699 suggested that farmers can perceive it as contrary to productivist practices (Tarjuelo et al.,  
700 2020). We also had one interviewee who was associated with an environmental organisation,  
701 potentially introducing a different perspective that is impossible to distinguish within such a  
702 small sample. Most importantly, our interviews primarily focused on EFA measures (only  
703 advisors and farmers were asked about agri-environment measures more broadly; Appendix  
704 2). While this provided a common ground to compare the interview findings across the  
705 countries (a mandatory scheme that is nevertheless implemented in different forms across the  
706 countries), it also limited the scope for comparisons between interviews and literature  
707 findings. Both our interviews and results from literature (especially that based on expert  
708 interviews) suggest that such comparison is nonetheless valid, with no distinctions drawn  
709 between motivations underlying the two policy types. While EFAs are mandatory, specific  
710 measures are selected at national level with some consideration of farmer motivations,  
711 following which farmers themselves choose between those measures. This gives some  
712 relevance to evidence about choices among fully voluntary measures, if not their initial  
713 uptake. Nevertheless, there remains clear scope for different motivations to affect responses  
714 to different types of policy in ways that are not captured by our interviews or the literature we  
715 reviewed, and for the literature evidence relating to non-arable agricultural land to be  
716 inapplicable to EFAs. In the following discussion we remain alert to the fact that interviews  
717 focused on a more specific policy tool while most of the literature addresses environmental  
718 interventions on farmland more broadly.

## 719 Findings

720 At a general level, interviewed policy-makers and advisors and farmers held relatively  
721 homogenous and simplistic perceptions of the factors affecting farmer decisions as being  
722 predominantly based on rational, economic cost-benefit considerations. These perceptions are  
723 consistent with the findings of previous studies that identify a disproportionate emphasis on  
724 economic factors (e.g. Burton and Paragahawewa, 2011; Dessart et al., 2019; de Snoo et al.,  
725 2013; Zinngrebe et al., 2017). This emphasis has strongly influenced national-level policy  
726 discussions about which measures to make available to farmers, alongside concerns raised in  
727 our interviews about landscape relevance and administrative burdens. The preclusion of EFA  
728 options thought to be too burdensome, costly or unpopular continues a long-standing  
729 tendency for the CAP to be tailored to the perceived ‘convenience’ of productivist farmers  
730 (Hart, 2015; Nilsson et al., 2019; Pe’er et al., 2017; Poláková et al., 2011). The Commission’s  
731 own 2011 Impact Assessment and other reports warned against such “watering down”  
732 because it inevitably favours options compatible with intensive agriculture and fails to  
733 significantly benefit farmland biodiversity (European Commission, 2017, 2011b; European  
734 Court of Auditors., 2017; Pe’er et al., 2017; Sutcliffe et al., 2015). While it is possible that  
735 interviewees did not mention environmental factors while discussing EFAs due to the  
736 mandatory nature of that scheme, it is notable that they almost universally mentioned purely  
737 productivist attitudes and even explicitly rejected environmentalist attitudes in some cases,  
738 and did not identify either as purely policy-related characteristics.

739 It is true that many farmers focus on agricultural production and are unable or unwilling to  
740 forego part of their income in order to implement environmental measures (Wilson, 2001).  
741 However, even the most profit-oriented farmers are willing to lose some income in order to  
742 implement measures that allow diversification, utilise marginal land or otherwise reduce risk;  
743 all of which actually constitute economically rational choices (Lienhoop and Brouwer, 2015).

744 The literature also suggests that many farmers have supra-economic motivations that can  
745 prompt choices to improve environmental conditions even at financial cost (Hammes et al.,  
746 2016). The excessive simplicity of profit maximisation as a guide to behaviour is well-  
747 recognised in agricultural economics, suggesting that our interviewees' responses are based  
748 not on economic perspectives per se but on very limited interpretation of economic rationality  
749 (Weersink and Fulton, 2020). This lack of nuance goes unrecognised among policy-makers,  
750 suggesting that opportunities to develop measures that target different agricultural, social,  
751 cultural and ecological contexts could be missed. This may go some way to explaining why  
752 current efforts to decentralise competencies into EU member states have contributed to  
753 unintended homogenisation and intensification, as different countries have tended to select  
754 the same EFA options that maximise revenue and production (Pe'er et al., 2020, 2017).  
755

756 There is also evidence that skewed political perspectives cause damage not only of omission  
757 but of commission. Subsidies, and the narratives that underpin them, can alter farmers' own  
758 perceptions and work practices over time (Kovacs, 2019); an example of 'adaptive  
759 preferences' that shape themselves to – and positively reinforce – available options (Elster,  
760 1983; Sen, 2001). In this way, a productivist ethos has to some extent been imposed on  
761 farmers by decades of production-oriented payments (Burton, 2004a; Erjavec and Erjavec,  
762 2015; Wilson, 2001). Not only can this reduce the strength of farmers' intrinsic  
763 environmental values (Silvasti, 2003), but the remaining tension between imposed and  
764 intrinsic motivations can engender cynicism and resistance, with the consequence that some  
765 farmers regard agri-environment schemes as illegitimate (Walder and Kantelhardt, 2018).  
766 Similar views are held by farmers concerned about political corruption or the ineffectiveness  
767 of environmental payments (Micha et al., 2015; Nilsson et al., 2019). For these farmers,  
768 transparent and fair support for measurable environmental benefits is crucial, and would even  
769 justify trade-offs with other objectives (Broch and Vedel, 2012; Velten et al., 2018).  
770

771 The scope for change in decision factors and motivations can also be positive, and need not  
772 result solely from policy pressures. The literature shows that considerable influence is exerted  
773 by the social networks in which farmers are embedded, in particular neighbours and other  
774 trusted sources of information that farmers often rely on more than governmental or  
775 'independent' sources (Brown et al., 2018; Rose et al., 2018). Increasing the understanding,  
776 appreciation and support for environmentally-beneficial management practices in these social  
777 networks could be far more effective than policy interventions alone (Burton and  
778 Paragahawewa, 2011; de Snoo et al., 2013). In particular, socially-embedded change has been  
779 shown to reduce the perceived risks of new management practices (Oreszczyn et al., 2010),  
780 support collaborative 'landscape-scale' schemes (Emery and Franks, 2012) and legitimise  
781 results-based payments (Herzon et al., 2018). Such an approach can also account for  
782 contextual relations and levels of trust in formal or state institutions. Broader social change  
783 can also affect the agricultural practices associated with particular regions, cultures or  
784 traditions, but may be inhibited by the exclusion of options at national level for their  
785 inconsistency with traditional land uses (Jones, 1991; Markuszewska, 2019; Solymosi, 2011).  
786 This may imply a role for 'centralised flexibility' that enables decentralisation while also  
787 guaranteeing scope for adaptations at local scales – or, as Pe'er et al. (2020) suggest, local  
788 experimentation within a rigorous EU-wide monitoring and payment framework.  
789

790 Utilising the diversity of farmer motivations for positive environmental change requires a  
791 high level of knowledge transfer between farmers, extension services, social scientists and  
792 policy-makers (Broch and Vedel, 2012; Burton, 2004b; Feola et al., 2015; Knierim et al.,  
793 2017). Existing examples of successful agri-environment scheme design and implementation

794 can provide useful guidance. In fact, reviews have found that many nuances can be distilled  
795 into a few key design principles: having highly targeted, specific aims; participatory policy  
796 design with local stakeholders; and simple implementation supported by trusted advice  
797 (Blumentrath et al., 2014; Meyer et al., 2015; Toderi et al., 2017). Our review and interviews  
798 find limited further evidence of these principles being used in the development of EFA and  
799 broader CAP agri-environment schemes. It is therefore crucial that policy is designed to  
800 account for the effects of factors such as ecological motivations, farm size, farmer age, or  
801 domestic and landscape-level diversity and governance arrangements on farmer decision-  
802 making, as individual characteristics and as interacting elements of decision contexts. The  
803 mandatory, constrained nature of EFAs (or potential ‘eco-schemes’ in the post-2020 CAP)  
804 and the apparent lack of consideration of a realistic range of farmer characteristics  
805 compromises the potential of the scheme to capitalise on the diversity of farmers and  
806 environments that exist in Europe.

807

808

809

## 810 **6. Conclusion**

811

812 Reforms of the Common Agricultural Policy have not effectively utilised extensive scientific  
813 knowledge about socio-ecological interactions at farm level, and have failed to produce  
814 environmental benefits. As the European Environment Agency recently concluded, there is a  
815 need for “urgent systemic solutions” involving “a rapid and fundamental shift in the character  
816 and ambition of Europe’s responses” to biodiversity losses (European Environment Agency,  
817 2019). This paper examined, through a wide-ranging literature review, the factors that  
818 influence farmers’ willingness and motivation to participate in measures known to be  
819 beneficial for biodiversity, and the perceptions of these factors among national-level policy-  
820 makers and farmer representatives from around Europe. We found that the most commonly-  
821 researched and recognised factors (relating to economic and structural characteristics)  
822 influence farmers in varied, context-specific ways. These nuances in factor effects were not  
823 reflected in our interview responses, adding weight to other findings that policy is often made  
824 on the basis of a simplistic conceptualisation of farmer behaviour that unduly emphasises the  
825 importance and independence of crude economic considerations. Clear demonstration of  
826 environmental benefits could have substantial benefits, capitalising on farmers’ motivations  
827 to improve environmental outcomes and counteracting a lack of trust in policy purposes and  
828 efficacies. Similarly, appropriate opportunities for training, education and participation in  
829 policy design, and a communication framework based on social networks rather than  
830 government agencies would further redress the counterproductive simplicity of current  
831 policy. These changes are not simple, but they have widespread support in farming, scientific  
832 and political communities (Pe’er et al., 2020) and would replace a notably unpopular status  
833 quo (Velten et al., 2018). In the absence of such reform, ever-decreasing levels of European  
834 farmland biodiversity have ever-smaller chances of recovery.

835

836

## 837 **Competing interests**

838 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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842 **References**

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