

Achieving successful farmer engagement on greenhouse gas emission mitigation

Burbi, S., Baines, R., Conway, J.

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1 **Achieving successful farmer engagement on greenhouse gas emission**
2 **mitigation**

3

4 Sara Burbi ^{a,b,1}, R.N. Baines ^a, J.S. Conway ^a

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6 ^a *School of Agriculture, Royal Agricultural University, Cirencester,*
7 *Gloucestershire, GL7 6JS, UK*

8 ^b *Centre for Agroecology, Water and Resilience, Coventry University, Ryton*
9 *Organic Gardens, Wolston Lane, Ryton-on-Dunsmore, Warwickshire, CV8 3LG,*

10 *UK*

¹ Corresponding author: S. Burbi. E-mail: sara.burbi@coventry.ac.uk ,
sara.burbi@gmail.com

11 **Abstract**

12

13 This paper explores the potential for farmers' engagement on the issues
14 related to greenhouse gas (GHG) emission mitigation in extensive low-
15 input livestock farming systems. The framework used was based on
16 Participatory Action Research (PAR). This involved integrating
17 quantitative evidence on GHG emission impacts at the farm level and
18 qualitative data on the obstacles to the adoption of innovation based on
19 farmers' perceptions and attitudes to climate change. The study aims at
20 building social capital among 14 farmers in the South West and West
21 Midlands regions in England, and it evaluates the potential for adoption
22 of emission mitigation strategies. The Rapid Farm Practices Appraisal
23 (RFPA) tool was created to assess farm practices based on their
24 mitigation potential. Practices were assessed twice over 6-9 months.
25 Semi-structured interviews were used to assess barriers and
26 opportunities to farmer engagement and on-farm innovation. Farmers
27 were invited to a focus group meeting to network with other farmers and
28 engage with researchers. All farmers participated in the 2 farm
29 assessments, but only half the farmers adopted changes in farm
30 management. All farmers appreciated the RFPA tool, the clearness of
31 the information provided and the focus of the tool on practices directly.
32 The main obstacles to innovation were limited financial capital, lack of
33 trust in government action and confusion over the effectiveness of farm
34 advice on mitigation. The lack of long-term flexibility of agricultural
35 policies and the source of information greatly influenced the acceptance
36 of advice. Results suggest the potential for the expansion of the RFPA
37 tool to include economic assessment of farm practices and the
38 engagement of a larger pool of farmers and farming systems. The tool
39 could be used to support the GHG Action Plan and future environmental
40 policies, and as an integrated self-assessment tool for farmers under
41 Environmental Stewardship Schemes.

42

43 **Keywords:** agricultural extension, participatory research, greenhouse
44 gas emissions, low-input farming, livestock, farmer engagement

45

46 **Introduction**

47

48 The latest report from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC)
49 estimated that is *“extremely likely that more than half of the observed increase*
50 *in global average surface temperature from 1951 to 2010 was caused by the*
51 *anthropogenic increase in greenhouse gas concentrations and other*
52 *anthropogenic forcings together”* (IPCC, 2013). Among human activities,
53 farming and the impact of livestock on the environment and farmers’ livelihood
54 has gained increasing visibility in the past two decades, in particular in terms of
55 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. GHG emissions from livestock systems
56 have been estimated to amount to 14.5% of global emissions (FAO, 2013).
57 Livestock are responsible for 37% of methane (CH₄) emissions, originating
58 predominantly from ruminant enteric fermentation processes and for 65% of
59 nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions originating from manures and fertilisers use (FAO,
60 2010). With an estimated 1.7 billion animals, livestock production represents an
61 important economic sector, generating 40% of the global agricultural domestic
62 product, employing around 1.3 billion people, occupying ¼ of the Earth land
63 surface area and utilising ⅓ of the total available arable land to produce animal
64 feed (ibid). It is thus reasonable to assume that any action that attempts to
65 tackle the issue of GHG emissions from livestock will have repercussions not
66 only on production and markets, but also on farmers’ livelihoods and income
67 generation.

68

69 In the UK, the Climate Change Act of 2008 aims at reducing GHG emissions by
70 80% from the 1990 baseline by 2050 (United Kingdom Parliament, 2008) and a
71 series of measures have been put into place by the UK Government in order to
72 improve agricultural practices, businesses’ competitiveness and promote
73 environmental conservation (DEFRA, 2007; Natural England, 2011). The
74 Greenhouse Gas Action Plan of 2009 addressed the issue of emissions from
75 the agricultural sector with an initial update on the gases’ inventories and a
76 review of the mitigation strategies available (NFU, 2011). Agriculture accounts
77 for about 9% of the total GHG emissions in the UK (DEFRA, 2012, p.3). The
78 breakdown of this figure referring to emissions in England attributes 32% to CH₄
79 from ruminant digestion processes and the production and use of manure and

80 slurry, and 61% to N₂O from the use the use of synthetic and organic fertilisers
81 used both in crop and livestock feed production (DEFRA, 2012, p.3)

82

83 In order to reduce emissions at the farm level, it is essential to consider farm
84 practices that are directly under farmers' control. However, it is also important to
85 consider the current challenges that farmers are facing and how farmers'
86 attitudes to climate change are affecting their decisions. The purpose of this
87 article is to present the results from the implementation of a multidisciplinary
88 methodology to establish effective knowledge transfer between an academic
89 institution and a group of extensive low-input livestock farmers based in the
90 South West and West Midlands regions in England.

91

92 **Practical challenges**

93

94 ***Greenhouse gas emission mitigation***

95 Farmers face a number of challenges in considering how to reduce GHG
96 emissions: knowledge of mitigation, the level of support and advice available
97 and the attitudes of farmers per se. There is a large body of evidence on GHG
98 mitigation strategies for farms, of which the following gives an overview.

99

100 In spite of the residual uncertainty surrounding the validity of results from
101 carbon calculators available for the agricultural sector, a substantial scientific
102 literature provides useful options for farmers who want to reduce their carbon
103 footprint. Practices included increased concentrates and use of legumes as
104 forage help reducing nitrogen and CH₄ losses. A reduction of crude protein
105 content in the diet of ruminant and monogastric livestock effectively reduces
106 N₂O losses (Arriaga et al., 2010; Philippe et al., 2006). Improving feed
107 conversion efficiency is also a key factor in reducing emissions per animal or
108 per unit of output; e.g. meat, milk (Waghorn et al., 2006). The frequency of
109 manure removal from housing units, the type of litter, type of floor and its
110 regular flushing and cleaning reduce CH₄ and N₂O emissions from livestock
111 housing (Hamelin et al., 2010; Misselbrook et al., 2006). Treatment of solid and
112 liquid manures influences emission rates from manure storage: low
113 temperatures, aeration and composting reduce CH₄ emissions; straw addition,

114 the use of covers and the separate treatment of solid and liquid fractions reduce
115 N₂O losses (Chadwick et al., 2011; Sommer et al., 2009; Stenglein et al., 2011).
116 Conversely, CH₄ emissions from anaerobic digestion of manures have the
117 potential to be harnessed as a source of energy (Fangueiro et al., 2008). The
118 use of legumes in pastures, shorter rotational grazing patterns and attention to
119 soil management (i.e. avoiding waterlogging and compaction) reduce both N₂O
120 and CH₄ losses (Eckard et al., 2010). When manure is applied to soils, it is
121 important to consider timing and application rate, in order to avoid application of
122 excess nitrogen. Various application methods have also proven to be beneficial
123 in reducing emissions from soils (Snyder et al., 2009).

124

125 ***Integrated assessment of farm sustainability***

126 Although all European member states have adopted National Adaptation
127 Strategies to cope with the impacts of climate change, the implementation of
128 such strategies can provide mixed results. This is the case of the United
129 Kingdom which, like Denmark, has developed a National Adaptation Strategy
130 that addresses a variety of sectors, including agriculture, but still faces a
131 number of challenges linked to the uncertainty surrounding scientific knowledge
132 about the effectiveness and reliability of GHG mitigation strategies, the
133 involvement of multi-level actors (i.e. government agencies, local agencies,
134 private sector) and the development of a transparent knowledge network
135 infrastructure (Biesbroek et al., 2010). A further obstacle is the design and
136 implementation of an effective methodology to evaluate the impact of climate
137 change action on farming, because the fragmentation of climate change studies
138 and knowledge transfer (i.e. communication without using technical
139 terminology) remain major barriers to the formulation of a widely accepted
140 model to engage with the public on mitigation strategies (Hofmann et al., 2011).
141 Issues may also arise from the assessment of trade-offs, as a change in farm
142 practices may result in an improvement in GHG emission mitigation, but it may
143 also have a negative effect on other aspects of farming e.g. transportation,
144 socio-economic constraints (de Boer et al., 2011). Based on a thorough
145 analysis of the most recent GHG mitigation studies, de Boer et al. (2011, p.424)
146 suggest that *“the full potential of a mitigation option to achieve a net reduction*
147 *of GHGs or its trade-offs with other aspects of sustainability (e.g. animal*

148 *welfare) are not generally addressed in the literature.*” However, environmental
149 issues are difficult to assess in terms of socio-economic impact and cost-
150 effectiveness, with results that may vary greatly depending on the size and type
151 of farm, as well as on the current national economic situation i.e. cost of inputs
152 (Vellinga et al., 2011).

153

154 ***Influences on decision-making***

155 Farmers’ perceptions of mitigation strategies are key to understanding the
156 potential for adoption of new policies to incentivise emissions reduction. A
157 recent survey of experts and farmers evaluated a series of mitigation options in
158 terms of effectiveness according to experts and in terms of practicality
159 according to farmers (Jones et al., 2013). The results showed that the adoption
160 of mitigation strategies may vary significantly based on advice and support
161 given to farmers and that *“flexible policies are needed to enable farmers to*
162 *select the mitigation measures that are most suited to their own situation”*
163 (Jones et al., 2013, p. 54). Furthermore, government policies have multiple
164 influences on farmers’ attitudes and decision-making. Policies that incentivise
165 conservation actions and help in accessing financial support are considered
166 beneficial to improve farm practices (Deressa et al., 2009), whilst lack of both
167 information and social capital have a negative effect (Islam et al., 2013).

168

169 Networks of influence play an important role in promoting innovation among
170 farmers (Oreszczyn et al., 2010). They foster farmer-to-farmer knowledge
171 sharing and complement scientific research carried out by academia,
172 independent research institutions or government agencies. Understanding the
173 value of farmers’ knowledge and their contribution to the successful application
174 of scientific research is essential to promote effective communication and
175 capacity building (Virji et al., 2012). However, there is a historical difference
176 between scientific knowledge and local knowledge (Raymond et al., 2010). The
177 latter is based on practical experience and anecdotal knowledge; therefore it is
178 usually not considered to have a real value in formal scientific research.

179 In the agricultural sector, social interactions, networks and behaviours are
180 influenced by individuals’ knowledge and experiences, and the gap in
181 communication between researchers and farmers can affect the successful

182 implementation of innovation strategies (Castellanos et al., 2013). Farmers tend
183 to rely more on peers' experiences and knowledge, rather than on advice given
184 by scientists, and influential individuals within farmers groups can have a
185 greater impact on group members than scientific advisors, as a result of shared
186 values and understandings characterising the group (McKenzie, 2011). To
187 counter this, successful farmer-driven innovation can be achieved through
188 activities that generate knowledge and network interactions between
189 researchers and farmer groups. This approach is essential to gain credibility
190 and trust from farmers and it will help researchers focus on practical problems,
191 rather than proposing solutions based on theoretical models (Klerkx et al.,
192 2012).

193

194 ***Agricultural extension services***

195 External influences on farmers' attitudes are represented by the media,
196 extension officers and 'experts'. The role of extension officers as experts and
197 coordinators is to provide in person technical knowledge to farmers (Takemura
198 et al., 2014). However, one of the greatest challenges is that over the past 30
199 years, government funding for extension and advisory work in the UK, as well
200 as in other European countries, has been significantly reduced. Extension
201 services now vary in efficiency and impact, relying mostly on privatised, and
202 therefore fragmented, action (Swanson and Rajalahti, 2010). Drawing from
203 experiences in the developing world, Islam et al. (2013) suggest that farmers'
204 reluctance to embrace change or adopt on-farm innovation could be dealt with
205 by using a long-term, broader approach to extension that includes formal and
206 non-formal education, rather than relying solely on narrower approaches based
207 on purely technical advice that does not take into consideration social
208 implications of change. In spite of the need for substantial government
209 investment, this strategy presents multiple advantages, as it generates
210 knowledge transfer activities, promotes advances and innovation in the
211 agricultural sector, ensuring transparency and knowledge sharing. Farmers
212 appreciate being presented with possible innovative solutions from both
213 technical or environmental and economic point of view that consider cost-
214 effectiveness and allow them to be co-researchers. These links enable
215 researchers and policy makers to reach a better understanding of the

216 underlying factors that influence farmers' decision-making. Promoting farmers,
217 researchers and government agencies has obvious benefits in terms of policy-
218 making and the implementation of future policies addressing natural resource
219 management and Good Agricultural Practices (GAP) such as the prevention of
220 soil erosion, the correct application of fertilisers, the management of soil organic
221 content, water resources, animal health and welfare (Kings and Ilbery, 2010).

222

223 Innovation needs to overcome the barriers created by scepticism over climate
224 change on the one hand and how the UK government is addressing the issue in
225 the agricultural sector, and on the other hand the dichotomy in goals and
226 objectives between farmers and researchers who do not carry out applied
227 research directly linked to farming practices (Islam et al., 2013).

228

229 **Materials and Methods**

230

231 ***Participatory Action Research (PAR)***

232 PAR is described as “*a reflective process of progressive problem-solving led by*
233 *individuals working with others to improve the way they address issues and*
234 *solve problems*”, where different actors engage at various levels, building social
235 and cultural capital in order to find collective solutions (German et al., 2012;
236 Pretty and Buck, 2002). Limitations of PAR can be briefly summarised with the
237 use of experts outside of the community, context-dependent results, possible
238 researchers' bias due to their thoughts and opinions, and power relationships
239 between researchers and other participants (Neef and Neubert, 2011). However,
240 this approach was chosen because it aims at empowering farmers and
241 promoting innovation, fostering communication between researchers and
242 farmers during the entire process. It then monitors change, reflects on
243 achievements and failures and proposes new action to drive change. Elsewhere
244 PAR has been successfully adopted to achieve stakeholder engagement
245 (Mapfumo et al., 2013; Oliver et al., 2012). Barriers to collaboration are primarily
246 the lack of communication among parties and the lack of long-term flexibility of
247 environmental schemes (Emery and Franks, 2012). The difficulties in
248 communication can be overcome by adopting a pragmatic approach to research
249 oriented toward practical problem-solving activities (Le Gal et al, 2011). The key

250 steps towards the establishment of successful collaboration between
251 researchers and farmers are: i) the understanding of farmers' knowledge and
252 perceptions of the problems related to on-farm GHG emissions; ii) the provision
253 of transparent knowledge transfer from scientists, in a language that is
254 understandable by farmers and iii) the fostering of farmer-to-farmer networks to
255 promote knowledge sharing and build cultural and social capital.

256

257

258 **Sample selection**

259 The study did not aim at representing the whole of the British livestock farming
260 sector. It was set up to pilot a methodology for farmer engagement that can be
261 adopted on wider scales at a later stage on a representative sample.

262 During spring 2011, a total of 60 farmers were contacted at farming
263 conferences in the South West and by telephone or email, using business
264 directories. Farmers were asked the type of production adopted and invited to
265 participate in the study. Fourteen (14) farmers accepted the invitation: 11
266 certified organic farms and 3 conventional farms following organic principles,
267 identified as uncertified organic.

268 The criteria for the selection of farmers for this study were:-

- 269 - Location: South West and West Midlands regions, as they represent
270 strongholds of livestock farming:
- 271 - Sector: livestock i.e. dairy, beef, pig, poultry, mixed livestock-arable (i.e.
272 fodder);
- 273 - Type of production: low-input extensive farming systems. For the
274 purpose of this study farms were identified as small to medium-scale and
275 practicing low-input extensive methods, in order to be able to investigate
276 GHG emission mitigation in farms managing grassland and pasture with
277 low-mechanisation and limited use of labour and fertilisers.

278

279 The following framework combines a science-based farm management options
280 assessment with qualitative farmers' behaviour research in order to provide
281 practical advice on reducing farm emissions, in depth knowledge of the current
282 problems livestock farmers face when dealing with GHG mitigation, and the
283 drivers and obstacles to innovation at the farm level. This approach initially

284 involved an assessment of farm practices against GHG mitigation strategies. It
285 then continued with the analysis of farmers' knowledge of climate change and
286 GHG mitigation, their interest in it or lack thereof, and the main obstacles to
287 GHG mitigation at the farm level. The framework can be divided in 3 main
288 activities; the development of the Rapid Farm Practices Appraisal (RFPA) tool,
289 farm visits and farmers group meetings (Figure 1).

290

291 ***Design of the Rapid Farm Practices Appraisal tool***

292 The Rapid Farm Practices Appraisal (RFPA) tool consists of decision trees,
293 scoring tables and a booklet containing recommendations for farmers in order
294 to reduce CH₄ and N₂O emissions. The initial phase involved the review of the
295 scientific literature citing *in vivo* studies that quantify emission mitigation. The
296 review identified key areas for interventions. Livestock farm practices were
297 divided into 5 areas: dietary management, livestock housing, manure storage
298 and treatment, grazing and pasture management, and manure application to
299 field. Each section was analysed using:-

300

301 ***Scoring tables:*** each practice was assigned a Farm Management Score (FMS)
302 (i.e. (+) the practice was adopted; (-) the practice was not adopted; (0) the
303 practice was not compliant with farm profile) and a Mitigation Potential Score
304 (MPS) (i.e. 1: <10% reduction; 2: 10-30% reduction; 3: >30% reduction).

305

306 ***Decision trees:*** the implementation of the practices in each section was
307 assessed using a simple Yes / No questionnaire. Each decision tree provided a
308 reference that was linked to the guidelines booklet.

309

310 ***Guidelines booklet:*** the review of scientific literature was used as a foundation
311 to provide targeted recommendations to the farmer, based on farm-specific
312 contexts. Each recommendation included the practice, the expected outcome
313 (i.e. estimated GHG emissions reduction) and a brief explanation avoiding
314 technical, scientific jargon whenever a simpler vocabulary could be used.

315

316 The decision trees and the guidelines booklet provided a straightforward
317 analysis of farm practices management by linking each practice to

318 recommendations specifically tailored for the farm. This approach intended to
319 show to farmers the validity of the recommendations given, which did not rely
320 on general farm profiles with varying degrees of similarities with the actual farm
321 being assessed. The scoring tables gave an overview of the specific potential
322 impact of the agri-business in terms of emissions. The scoring system was
323 based on a review of scientific literature on GHG emission mitigation and it
324 allowed the monitoring of the farm impact in terms of GHG emissions, over time
325 in the case of a change in farm practices management. It could also be used to
326 forecast possible variations in such impact based on changes in farm practices.
327

328 ***Farm visits***

329 The second phase consisted of inviting a pilot set of farmers to participate in the
330 study. Each farm was visited twice and semi-structured interviews were used on
331 both occasions. During the first visit, farmers were interviewed on the current
332 farm management. The RFPA tool was used to generate a detailed, tailored
333 report presented to the farmer, promoting discussion on the topics touched.

334 A second visit was organised after 6-9 months to monitor changes in farm
335 management using the RFPA tool. Farmers were also interviewed on how they
336 take decisions on farm. The second assessment was done using a PEST
337 analysis model (Byars, 1991) used to analyse factors influencing business
338 management, including environmental factors. A total of 17 factors were
339 considered relevant for the study, type of farm and production system (Table 1)
340 and farmers were asked whether they take any into account or not. It was
341 integrated by farmers' narrative responses, which were coded using a simple
342 taxonomy system in order to group similar answers, providing greater insight on
343 the motivations behind each answer, as different motivations could be given for
344 the same answer. The purpose of the second visit was two-fold: it assessed
345 changes in farm management and farmers' acceptance of recommendations
346 based on scientific knowledge of GHG mitigation from a practical point of view;
347 whilst the second interview assessed farmers' perceptions of mitigation and
348 their relationships with factors internal and external to their farming system.

349

350 ***Farmers' focus group meeting***

351 The last phase of the study included a farmers' focus group meeting. All
352 participants were invited to present their views on the study and its
353 methodology, and to discuss opportunities for action at the community level and
354 for further research and partnerships between academia and farmers. The
355 event was open to farmers that did not participate in the study, in order to
356 engage on a wider scale. Farmers presented their experiences of the study and
357 participants were then split into groups, each group discussing issues related to
358 a topic of concern; e.g. livestock feeding, grassland and pasture management,
359 manure storage and treatment. Participants were encouraged to voice their
360 concerns over issues related to GHG emissions and to propose actions to
361 tackle them. The meeting served as an opportunity to network with other
362 farmers, share experiences and possible solutions.

363

364 **Data analysis**

365 Results obtained from the study were quantitative data regarding the
366 implementation of practices that mitigate GHG emissions and qualitative data
367 on farmers' attitudes to climate change, in particular the barriers and
368 opportunities for the adoption of GHG emission mitigation options.

369 Quantitative data obtained using the RFPA tool were reported as number of
370 changes in farm practices over the total number of possible changes.
371 Percentages of estimated GHG emission mitigation were provided for each farm
372 following the farm practices scoring system described.

373 Qualitative data were obtained using semi-structured interviews. Percentages
374 were provided for positive, negative and neutral responses over the total
375 number of farmers interviewed. Analysis of individual case studies was used to
376 highlight circumstances that were considered to have a possible influence on
377 specific farmers' responses. Narrative responses were analysed by coding
378 concepts such as trust, knowledge, risk, experience, following the methodology
379 described by Gläser and Laudel (2013).

380

381 **Results**

382 All 14 farms were visited twice and farmers participated in the farm
383 management practices assessments and responded to the interview on factors

384 influencing decision-making on farm. The methodological approach and the use
385 of the RFP tool received positive feedback from farmers (Figure 2).

386 Eight out of 14 farmers expressed scepticism over carbon footprinting tools for
387 agri-businesses. However, half of the farmers implemented changes within the
388 6-9 months. Changes in practices related to grazing and pasture management,
389 manure application to field, manure storage and treatment and dietary
390 management were observed in 2 farms per each section. One farm improved
391 practices related to livestock housing and 2 farms implemented changes in
392 more than one sector.

393 Nine out of 14 farmers expressed confusion and mistrust regarding the support
394 provided by the government and 4 farmers stated a lack of time and interest in
395 government initiatives. Twelve farms were under Environmental Stewardship
396 (ES) schemes, with 8 farms under Higher Level Stewardship (HLS) agreement
397 and 4 farms under Organic Entry Level Stewardship (OELS) agreement. Nine
398 farmers stated that information provided by DEFRA did not seem to match with
399 their farm profile and they were often sceptical over the validity of the
400 recommendations provided. The relationship farmers had with ES and
401 regulations showed great diversity. Only one farmer stated that he is prepared
402 to follow the guidelines to apply for grants, provided the proposed solution is
403 viable. In most cases, these farmers believed that grants were not worth the
404 amount of work one has to go through.

405 Five farmers acknowledged that agricultural consultants provide valuable
406 information and support and farmers were ready to pay for the service.
407 However, 6 farmers remained cynical about possible ulterior motives behind
408 scientific farm advice. Thirteen out of 14 farmers stated that the trust in the
409 individual (i.e. researcher, adviser) was a positive influence on their decisions
410 because they appreciate personal contact with the adviser, especially if the
411 person has no obvious marketing agenda. Ten out of 14 farmers stated that the
412 source of scientific knowledge was key to their acceptance of the information.

413 Two farmers did not show interest in participating in the farmers' focus group,
414 while the other 12 farmers were actively involved in the discussions, in some
415 cases acting as delegates for their local farmer groups, so as to report back to a
416 wider number of farmers on the benefits from meeting with the researchers
417 involved in the study.

418

419 Discussion

420

421 The farmers interviewed considered the RFPA tool to be more useful in
422 providing practical alternatives, rather than a series of figures to represent the
423 sources of emissions. Farmers considered the latter as a limitation of carbon
424 footprint calculators. The methodology was well accepted by farmers, mostly
425 because of its practical approach to GHG emission mitigation and the clearness
426 of the information provided, which is in line with what was found by Islam et al.
427 (2013) and Llewellyn (2007) regarding farmers' uptake of advice.

428

429 Farmers showed interest in practices that required limited or no direct financial
430 input, resulting in a perceived low economic risk with benefits in term of
431 productivity and emission mitigation. Limited financial capital and labour force
432 availability were main reasons given for lack of change in farm management.
433 Practices that showed multiple benefits including mitigation were more easily
434 adopted within 1 year from the first assessment.

435 The RFPA tool helped identify the practices sections in which improvements in
436 emission mitigation were registered over time (Figure 3). Results analysed by
437 section vary because of the relative importance of each practice within a
438 farming system. Each farm was assessed individually. As an example, in the
439 case of farms adopting a pasture-based system all year long, sections of dietary
440 management and livestock housing were not included in the farm assessment.
441 Therefore, the total percentage of practices that were changed during the study
442 has relative importance due to the specificity of each farming system analysed.

443

444 *Obstacles and barriers to change*

445 While it is not unreasonable to expect that farms may have financial difficulties
446 throughout the years, the farmers' semi-structured interviews revealed that
447 more than half of the farmers considered 3 of the 5 financial factors assessed
448 not to have any influence on their decisions. These factors were either
449 considered as "*part of the game*" (i.e. agricultural consultants) or the farmers
450 had relevant experience. Farmers cited problems related to the lack of support
451 from banks and the need to take risks. The year 2012 was very tough on

452 farmers due to weather events that affected production (DEFRA, 2013).
453 However, even though the need to prioritise yearly actions was cited among the
454 negative effects of having to produce efficiently and sustainably on limited
455 budgets, 1 farmer attributed a positive influence to financial limitations and
456 adopted a rolling programme year on year of small investments to avoid
457 borrowing money. These results highlight the importance of in-depth studies of
458 farmers' attitudes and perceptions to on-farm innovation, as one condition can
459 be seen as a hindrance by some or an opportunity for improvement by others
460 (Mills et al., 2013).

461 Difficulties in implementing on-farm innovation can be linked to financial
462 pressure, as supported by the work of Barnes et al. (2010) on the motivations to
463 GHG mitigation in a wide range of agri-businesses (i.e. arable, dairy, beef)
464 which suggests that the main driver for change is economic, followed by
465 improving management practices and market pressure. This is in line with the
466 results of the study.

467 In this study, farms were almost exclusively organic pasture-based systems,
468 with only very short overwintering based on climatic conditions, and 8 farms
469 were family-run businesses. The choice of pasture-based systems could be
470 linked to reduced running costs (i.e. labour, housing, inputs), but it could be
471 ascribed to lifestyle choices. The organic livestock farmers interviewed saw
472 financial limitations as obvious barriers to improvement in farm management
473 practices; however, organic farmers tend to rely on government subsidies for
474 their business to remain sustainable but are often critical of government action
475 (Kings and Ilbery, 2010).

476

477 Although interested in improving farm practices in order to reduce emissions,
478 they did not find that advice given under ES schemes always matched with
479 practices that are recommended to mitigate emissions. Ten farmers stated that
480 the issue of integrating ES and GHG emission mitigation is not taken seriously
481 by the Government, and believed that the Government gives conflicting advice
482 on farm practices, in particular regarding waste management.

483 As an example, increasing the amount of legumes (e.g. clover) in ruminant diets
484 is an effective strategy to mitigate emissions from enteric fermentation.
485 However, farmers under HLS agreement may encounter difficulties in

486 increasing the percentage of legumes in their livestock diets based on HLS
487 prescriptions i.e. seed mixes allowed on HF10 permanent grassland usually
488 include just around 20% clover. One farmer stated that he was not interested in
489 signing the HLS agreement because he would have to take too much land off
490 production and he didn't want to alter the balance he took some time and effort
491 to reach on farm.

492

493 Although these results cannot be representative of the entire livestock farming
494 sector, as differences in farmers' attitudes and behaviour could be present
495 based on farms size, type of production, whether following conventional and
496 organic principles, they could provide valuable insight on farmers' perceptions
497 of government policies in relation to GHG emission mitigation. They seem to
498 highlight the importance of transparent and effective extension advisory
499 services, with an emphasis on consistency of face-to-face interaction and
500 knowledge exchange between farmers and government agencies, as found by
501 Rydberg et al. (2008). Similar issues were found by Hernández-Jover et al.
502 (2012) among small-scale pig farmers in Australia, where the lack of trust in
503 state agencies was linked to the lack of extension services and to previous
504 negative experiences.

505

506 Farmers interviewed were not against on-farm innovation and scientific studies
507 that can benefit the environment, livestock and more in general, agri-
508 businesses. They were open to interactions and they voiced repeatedly the
509 desire to have their say on government policies regarding GHG emission
510 mitigation. However, results showed that their proactive attitude seems to be
511 hindered by confusion and lack of confidence in governmental strategies to
512 disseminate scientific knowledge.

513 Eight farmers cited that they do not trust the scientific basis of GHG mitigation.
514 The reasons given were related to the source and funding of certain studies. It
515 is reasonable to hypothesise that the farmers who responded to the interview
516 citing a lack of trust in the government were also less likely to trust scientific
517 studies cited in official documents, manuals and handbooks provided by the
518 government. However, only 3 out of 14 farmers cited both factors as negative
519 influences on their decisions. Two farmers stated that they do trust science, but

520 they made a clear distinction between lab-driven science and evidence-based
521 science. They preferred to look for scientific information from research facilities
522 like Animal & Grassland Research and Innovation Centre, Teagasc, Moorepark,
523 Fermoy, Co. Cork, Ireland or Rothamsted Research, North Wyke in
524 Okehampton, Devon, which they consider as centres that carry out research
525 with an outlook on its practical application, rather than adopting a science-for-
526 scientists approach.

527

528 ***Opportunities and drivers for change***

529 During the focus group meeting, farmers voiced their wish to have access to
530 unbiased scientific knowledge as in this context, scepticism can be considered
531 a double-edged sword, which may discourage some to engage with the wider
532 community, but it may also motivate others to look for other sources of
533 knowledge that could be perceived as more valuable.

534 The role of social networks in natural resources management has been the
535 focus of extensive research in recent years. The current challenges facing
536 researchers of complex socio-ecological systems are highlighted in studies
537 undertaking context-dependant research in both the developed and the
538 developing world (e.g. Bodin and Tengö, 2010; Cornell et al., 2013). The
539 understanding of complex socio-environmental dynamics ensures a more
540 effective management of environmental resources and fosters cohesive,
541 productive and sustainable rural communities (Feola and Binder, 2010).

542 The study addressed the dynamics within the three types of social capital
543 (Table 2). The 14 farmers interviewed tend to rely on local or regional farmers'
544 groups (i.e. Pasture-Fed Livestock Association, Tamar Valley Organic Group,
545 Conservative Rural Affairs Group) to find information, advice and support.
546 Therefore, although the farmers were not selected based on their membership
547 of such associations, it is reasonable to suggest that their proactive attitude to
548 knowledge sharing within the study could have been influenced by pre-existing
549 similar activities. However, farmers' knowledge of the topic addressed by the
550 study was relatively limited.

551 Farmers showed openness to interact with advisers with earned credibility,
552 highlighting the need for agricultural advisers to be highly competent in their
553 field (Solano et al., 2006). Farmers appreciated not only the support given but

554 also the fact that their own knowledge and experience were valued during the
555 study. This result confirms that participatory approaches allow researchers to
556 positively interact with farmers in a transparent and effective way and highlights
557 the importance of the way science is communicated and advisers present
558 themselves to farmers (Schöll and Binder, 2009).

559 Building up from a strong pre-existing *bonding social capital*, which refers to the
560 links between like-minded people or with homogeneous characteristics
561 (Schuller et al., 2000), farmers in the study showed competent use of
562 information technologies. As an example of farmer-to-farmer interaction, all
563 farmers used e-mails and 8 out of 14 farmers participated in discussions on
564 on-line forums. On-line communication was considered economical and fast, an
565 effective way to raise a voice and possibly make connection with more farmers
566 across the country. Such context could be considered favourable to promote
567 *linking social capital* between farmers, researchers and policy makers (Keeley,
568 B., 2007).

569 Farmers' attitudes and perceptions of climate change are influenced by a
570 complex web of factors, ranging from economic pressure, to environmental
571 conservation, to the social implication in terms of long-term sustainability of rural
572 livelihood (Mills et al., 2013). The peculiarity of the sector lies in the fact that
573 each agri-business is unique in its impact on the environment and the
574 community as a whole. Research aiming at improving livestock farms practices
575 to reduce the impact of GHG emissions needs to take into account the multi-
576 faceted characteristics of rural livelihood and acknowledge that the one-model-
577 fits-all approach cannot apply (Fischer and Glenk, 2011). It is also important to
578 remember that "*knowledge integration, the blending of concepts from two or*
579 *more disciplines to create innovative new worldviews, is a key process in*
580 *attempts to increase the sustainability of human activities on Earth*" (Newell et
581 al., 2005, p. 299). Recent research suggests that when addressing current
582 environmental problems, embracing multidisciplinary is an effective way to
583 establish collaborative action between farmers, researchers, the private sector
584 and government, in order to address practical issues facing the agricultural
585 sector (Feola and Binder, 2010).

586

587 Understanding farmers' knowledge and perceptions is the first necessary step
588 towards the integration of local and scientific knowledge, therefore ensuring
589 successful environmental management (Oenema et al., 2011). This critical step
590 represents the strength and the weakness of any engagement methodology.
591 Integrating farmers' knowledge with scientific research is needed to improve
592 existing situations and adopt the best agricultural practices based on specific
593 environmental, social and economic contexts.

594

595 Farmers' drivers to innovation and engagement with the research community
596 are not only financial (Cocklin et al., 2007). The results of this study show that
597 the factors with the greatest positive influence are the trust in the advisor and
598 the interest in environmental matters; while the factors most negatively affecting
599 farmers are represented by financial limitations and the lack of trust in
600 government action (Figure 4). Farmers are more inclined to accept knowledge
601 shared within farmer-to-farmer groups or within other interests groups where
602 knowledge is drawn not only from scientific research, but more importantly from
603 experience. Unlike in the industry sector, where the process of categorisation
604 and standardisation of best practices is easier to implement, in the agricultural
605 sector the impact of innovation has greater inconsistency due to the variability
606 in the size, type and geographic context of agri-businesses (Raymond et al.,
607 2010). Categorisation and standardisation have obvious limitations, which
608 reflect in the disconnection between science-driven agricultural research and its
609 practical application at farm level. Therefore, researchers need to gain
610 credibility to farmers in order to overcome this social divide and achieve
611 successful participatory research (Oreszczyn et al., 2010). Extension agents
612 need to engage with individuals within the farmers' groups which might have
613 greater influence on other members, ensuring that advice is context-dependant
614 and establishing a consistent and transparent communication channel with
615 farmers (Matouš et al., 2010). The process requires time and resources that
616 research institutions may not have. Greater investments from the government in
617 supporting public-funded extension services would ensure consistency in
618 advisory outcomes. This would also address the barrier to engagement
619 represented by farmers' frustration and lack of trust over unclear government
620 agency.

621

622 The framework presented here could be used by researchers and extension
623 practitioners and be scaled up to embrace larger farms and networks, with
624 farms differing in size and type of production (i.e. organic vs conventional,
625 small-scale vs large-scale) or market links (i.e. local producers vs producers for
626 big retailers), and could provide valuable information to integrate with studies on
627 the influence of consumers' demands for climate-friendly products.

628 The success of the RFPA tool with farmers in this study suggest the possibility
629 for it to be used without the help of an agricultural advisor or researcher, and
630 potentially be integrated in the current self-assessment procedure under
631 Environmental Stewardships Schemes. Further testing of the tool is needed on
632 a wider scale, including different farming groups, in order to evaluate its
633 potential for collaborative research and its use to highlight the key issues that
634 need to be addressed in future environmental policies (NFU, 2012), benefiting
635 both policy-makers and farmers, ensuring the continuity and effectiveness of
636 agricultural policy in England.

637

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639

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642

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853

854 Figure 1. Methodology timeline.

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856

857 Note: RFPA: Rapid Farm Practices Appraisal

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861 Figure 2. Farm assessment report feedback survey. Farmers were asked to
862 give a score to each survey question, ranging from “not at all satisfied” to
863 “extremely satisfied” (n = 11).

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867 Figure 3. Comparison of RFPA tool results between the first and second farm
868 assessment.

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Figure 4. Impact of factors influencing farmer decision-making (n = 17). Note: refer to Table 1 for factors description.

Table 1. Factors influencing decision-making at the farm level, grouped according to PESTE analysis models.

Type of factor	Reference	Description
Political	P1	Trust in official reports i.e. government (DEFRA, Environment Agency)
	P2	Trust in source of recommendations (institution) i.e. research centres, universities, associations
	P3	Support in integrating Environmental Stewardship schemes (i.e. ELS, OELS, HLS) and GHG emissions reduction
	P4	The level of bureaucracy linked to obtaining grants
Economic	E1	Financial constraint, i.e. limited budget
	E2	Current management is profitable already
	E3	External support for budget and farm management matters
	E4	Cost of agricultural consultants
	E5	Labour force availability
Social	S1	Trust in source of recommendations (individual) i.e. the person conducting the study
	S2	Community support
	S3	Previous bad experiences i.e. consultants, community actions, interest groups
Technological	T1	Trust in scientific basis of GHG emissions reduction strategies
	T2	Trust in assessment tools currently available i.e. carbon accounting tools
	T3	User-friendliness of assessment tools
Environmental	En1	Interest in conservation and environmental matters
	En2	Renewable energy more important greenhouse gas emissions reduction

Table 2. Outline of social capital dimensions and their inclusion in the study.

Social Capital	Characteristics	Actors	Engagement activities	Observations	Opportunities
Bonding	Homogeneous	Extensive low-input livestock farmers (ELILF)	- Knowledge sharing and knowledge transfer: farmer-to-farmer	- Strong bonds within groups - Sub-groups: e.g. interest groups (PFLA), geographic (TVOG), political (CRAG)	- Very open to dialogue with farmers from other groups - Knowledge sharing
Bridging	Heterogeneous	ELILF – interest groups	- Knowledge sharing: farmers network expansion - Capacity building: fostering social capital	- Self-selective - Self-promoting - “Virtual”, Online networks	- Online communication preferred: economical, fast and easy way to have a voice, make connections, attract other SSLF out of the main networks
Linking	Heterogeneous	ELILF – Researchers (academia)	- Knowledge sharing: farmer-to-researcher - Knowledge transfer: researcher-to-farmer	- Lack of trust - Researchers seen as distant from reality	- Importance of knowledge transfer - SSLF request for more interaction (translational research)
		ELILF – Government	Beyond the scope of the study	- Lack of trust in policies - Confusion - Fear of hidden agendas - Top-down approach	- Will to influence policy making - Will to have a voice (ELILF) - Understanding that researchers and farmers need one another to influence policy making
		Government – Researchers (academia)	Beyond the scope of the study	- Difficulty in obtaining funding for certain types of projects	- Promote importance of social capital in environmental assessment to support policy making
		Government – National Agencies and larger groups (e.g. large producers)	Beyond the scope of the study	- Commercial interests - Stats to support policy making	- ELILF do not feel they can identify with types of farms used in studies to support policy making - Reports don't represent all types of realities

Keys: ELILF: Extensive low-input livestock farmers, PFLA: Pasture-Fed Livestock Association, TVOG: Tamar Valley Organic Group, CRAG: Conservative Rural Affairs Group.