

1   **The impact of federal and state conservation programs on farmer nitrogen**  
2   **management**

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13

14   **Abstract:** The U.S. federal government, as well as many state and local governments, operate a number  
15   of conservation programs aimed at ameliorating the environmental problems associated with  
16   agriculture. While motives and barriers to conservation program participation and adoption of  
17   conservation practices have been extensively studied, the direct impacts of programs on ongoing farm  
18   operations remains underexplored. To examine the effects of conservation programs on nitrogen  
19   management, an aspect of crop production with significant environmental impacts we conducted  
20   interviews with 154 corn producers in three Midwestern U.S. states with a range of program  
21   experiences. We found that programs shifted farmer N management behavior through three social  
22   processes: 1) engaging farmers in the conservation system by introducing them to the state and federal  
23   conservation agencies, 2) incentivizing trialing of specific N management practices, and 3) increasing

24 practice adoption through continued program engagement. Working lands programs were far more  
25 effective at shifting on-farm nutrient management practices than land retirement, certification, or  
26 outreach-based programs, though all programs had the indirect benefit of increasing farmer familiarity  
27 with conservation agencies and programs. Working lands programs directly motivated practice  
28 adoption; including soil testing regimes, implementing nutrient management plans, and splitting  
29 nitrogen applications to improving availability; by reducing producer risk and providing technical  
30 assistance, especially whole-farm planning. The additional benefits of all programs were moderated by  
31 participant selection bias, in particular that program participants were more predisposed to  
32 conservation efforts by existing stewardship and innovation attitudes.

33

34 **Keywords:** agriculture; agri-environmental programs; conservation practices; non-point source  
35 pollution; fertilizer

36 ***Introduction:***

37 Agricultural lands produce a wide range of positive ecosystem services (primarily food, fuel, and fiber  
38 production) while also resulting in negative (and primarily unintended) outcomes (Robertson and  
39 Swinton 2009). These negative outcomes include surface and groundwater pollution (Rabalais et al.  
40 2001; U.S. EPA 2009), degradation of wildlife habitat (Swinton et al. 2007), and contributions to climate  
41 change (Robertson and Vitousek 2009). Among the most critical and systemic environmental problems  
42 stemming from agriculture is excess nitrogen (N), primarily resulting from extensive fertilization of grain  
43 crops (Davidson et al. 2007; Millar and Robertson 2015). These environmental harms are among the  
44 most significant challenges to building a sustainable global agricultural sector (Robertson and Swinton  
45 2009; Davidson et al. 2015).

46

47 Globally, governments have promulgated a wide range of policies over the past century to address  
48 environmental problems stemming from agriculture (Claassen et al. 2001; Baylis et al. 2008; Moon and  
49 Cocklin 2011). In the United States (U.S.), both federal and state governments have largely eschewed  
50 direct regulation of agriculture, focusing instead on voluntary and incentives-based policy tools (Batie  
51 2009; Baylis et al. 2008). The U.S. federal government has invested significant financial resources into  
52 developing, promoting and incentivizing on-farm conservation practices (Dowd et al. 2009). The U.S.  
53 Department of Agriculture (USDA) operates numerous programs aimed at stimulating private  
54 conservation action, both by removing sensitive lands from production (land retirement) and  
55 encouraging adoption of conservation practices on active agricultural lands (working-lands programs).  
56 Despite decades of land retirement programs, environmental problems stemming from agriculture have  
57 persisted and in some areas intensified (Davidson et al. 2012). To address the ongoing environmental  
58 problems from agriculture, including excess N in the environment, the relative emphasis has shifted  
59 away from land retirement toward working-lands programs in the past two decades (Claassen 2014;

60 Dowd et al. 2009; Reimer 2015). Rather than addressing many of the underlying causes of  
61 environmental pollution, these policies have generally sought to incorporate new practices and  
62 technologies that reduce environmental harm from agriculture while maintaining the basic structure of  
63 the international agricultural sector (Reimer 2015).

64

65 As the policy emphasis at the federal level has shifted toward promoting conservation practice adoption  
66 on actively farmed land, especially through working lands programs that provide technical and financial  
67 incentives (Claassen 2014; Reimer 2015), there is a particular need to better understand how farmer  
68 participation in working lands programs affects on-farm practice use. Significant research effort has  
69 focused on understanding farmer conservation behavior, particularly the adoption of conservation or  
70 best management practices (Baumgart-Getz et al. 2015; Prokopy et al. 2008). While some research has  
71 explored farmer perceptions of and participation in conservation programs (Lambert et al. 2006;  
72 Lambert et al. 2007; McCann and Claassen 2014; Reimer and Prokopy 2014b), there remains a gap in  
73 understanding about how program participation influences on-going farm conservation efforts.

74

75 The research presented here explores how conservation programs influence farmer adoption of nutrient  
76 management practices through qualitative interviews with farmers in the U.S. Corn Belt (comprised of  
77 Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, and Wisconsin). Our focus is on federal conservation  
78 programs, which constitute the largest public investment in agri-environmental policy, though we do  
79 include some perspective on state and local policies, which also influence adoption. First, we provide an  
80 outline of U.S. agri-environmental policy, with an emphasis on recent shifts toward promoting  
81 sustainable farming practices in active production. We then present data from in-depth interviews with  
82 corn producers in the U.S. Midwest, a region of extensive corn production that relies heavily on external  
83 N fertilizer inputs. We present emergent themes from these interviews that highlight the influence of

84 conservation programs on agricultural N management, as well as factors that influence participation or  
85 non-participation in these programs.

86

87 *U.S. Agri-Environmental Program Portfolio*

88 Through the majority of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, U.S. agri-environmental programs focused on removing  
89 sensitive lands from production. Largely in response to the soil management crises of the 1930s Dust  
90 Bowl, the U.S. government created the Soil Conservation Service in 1933 as part of the USDA (Claassen  
91 2014). The Soil Conservation Service focused on providing incentives to farmers to remove the most  
92 sensitive lands from production especially on so-called highly erodible lands with higher slopes and soils  
93 prone to surface erosion (Dowd et al. 2009). The Soil Bank Program (SBP) was a land retirement program  
94 created in the 1950s to address the dual purposes of ongoing soil erosion and controlling supply  
95 surpluses resulting from new production techniques (Helms 1985). The SBP also incentivized the  
96 establishment of conservation cover through the Conservation Reserve Program (CRP) (Helms 1985). In  
97 the 1980s, Congress revised conservation programming, ending the SBP while establishing the CRP as  
98 the primary land retirement program. The CRP has remained the largest agricultural conservation  
99 program since the 1980s, even after the most recent reorganization of the US federal conservation  
100 portfolio in 2014, with over 23 million enrolled acres in 2016 (Claassen 2014; Lubben and Pease 2014;  
101 USDA 2016). The Corn Belt contains nearly 20% (4.6 million acres) of the U.S. total CRP acreage, much of  
102 it in the western portion of this region (USDA 2016).

103

104 Since the 1990s, policy efforts at the federal level have shifted to changing production practices on  
105 actively farmed lands (Claassen 2003; Stubbs 2010). The primary goal of this shift was to address  
106 environmental issues beyond farm boundaries. While soil conservation remains a focus of many federal  
107 conservation efforts, working-lands programs were developed to address a wide range of environmental

108 issues, including landscape-scale wildlife habitat, water pollution, and air quality. As part of this shift in  
109 emphasis, the Soil Conservation Service was renamed the Natural Resources Conservation Service  
110 (NRCS) in 1994, and in 2014 there was an increase in funding for the working lands programs relative to  
111 CRP and other land retirement programs (Claassen 2014; Reimer 2015). The NRCS is the primary USDA  
112 agency responsible for managing the portfolio of conservation programs and providing technical  
113 assistance to farmers and landowners on conservation issues. It is important to note that federal  
114 conservation programs are often administered locally with the assistance of state and/or local  
115 conservation staff, most frequently local soil and water conservation districts. The ability to promote  
116 and disseminate information about programs has been shown to vary widely from state to state and  
117 even within states based largely on state and local governance capacity (Reimer and Prokopy 2014a).

118

119 The Environmental Quality Incentives Program (EQIP), was established in 1996 (Schertz and Doering  
120 1999; Stubbs 2010), and is one of the two main working-lands programs administered by NRCS today.  
121 This program focused on providing cost-share and technical assistance to farmers to incentivize  
122 adoption of a wide range of conservation practices, including reduced tillage, in-field and edge-of-field  
123 structural practices (e.g. grassed waterways, drainage management structures), written nutrient  
124 management plans, and winter cover crops (Reimer and Prokopy 2014a). Because it is administered by  
125 the NRCS at the state level, EQIP allows for flexibility in which resource concerns and conservation  
126 practices will be the focus of the program. This flexible implementation results in a wide range of  
127 program outputs and outcomes from state to state. In some states, nutrient management is a significant  
128 focus of EQIP (Reimer and Prokopy 2014a).

129

130 In addition to EQIP, NRCS administers the Conservation Stewardship Program (CSP). This working-lands  
131 program focuses on holistic farm stewardship; rather than the adoption of single conservation practices

132 in exchange for cost-share and technical assistance farmers enroll farm acreage in CSP for a fixed-term  
133 (typically 5 year) contract. In exchange for an annual payment, participating farmers focus on a given  
134 resource concern, ranging from farmstead management to nutrient management, and install  
135 enhancements (including individual conservation practices such as written nutrient management plans  
136 and soil/plant tissue testing for nutrient management) that improve farm performance in that resource  
137 area. The CSP has grown quickly to become the third largest federal conservation program, after CRP  
138 and EQIP (Reimer 2015).

139

140 Some state and local governments have also been actively pursuing policies to reduce nutrient pollution  
141 related to agricultural practices in recent years. States vary widely in their efforts in this area, with large  
142 variation in how local soil and water conservation districts are organized and funded, as well as the  
143 funding and implementation of state-level programs. Similar to federal programs, most state-level  
144 programs use voluntary approaches, though some sub-federal programs often use other policy tools in  
145 addition to incentives. These include outreach and education efforts and certification programs (Dowd  
146 et al. 2009; Vollmer-Sanders et al. 2011). Several states in the U.S. Midwest have promulgated state  
147 nutrient reduction strategies as part of an effort to reduce nutrient (N and phosphorus) flows to the Gulf  
148 of Mexico (Rabotyagov et al. 2014). These state strategies use integrated watershed-based modeling to  
149 identify critical regions within a state that contribute to nutrient loading and target conservation efforts  
150 to those areas. For example, Iowa has recently expanded their state plan, the Iowa Nutrient Reduction  
151 Strategy, to reduce nutrient loading to waterways by 45% through the promotion of conservation  
152 practices (ISUEO 2014). Iowa state agencies work in conjunction with other public and private entities to  
153 target outreach and cost-share incentives to farmers in target watersheds throughout the state, with  
154 state funds directed through the Iowa Water Quality Initiative (IDALS 2015).

155

156 *Farmer Adoption of Sustainable Nutrient Management Practices*

157 Within the literature on farmer conservation behavior, determinants of conservation adoption have

158 been shown to be wide-ranging and context-specific, including farmer demographics, farmer attitudes

159 and values, farm financial and technical capacity, and characteristics of the practices in question

160 (Baumgart-Getz et al. 2015; Prokopy et al. 2008). Researchers have used a variety of approaches to

161 investigate farmer conservation behavior, including typologies that categorize farmers by shared values,

162 attitudes, or behaviors (Mayberry et al. 2005; Reimer et al. 2012), social-psychological explorations of

163 attitudinal antecedents of practice adoption (Kaiser et al. 2005; Greiner and Gregg 2011; McGuire et al.

164 2013; Lincoln and Ardoine 2016), and analyses of farm-level variables contributing to conservation

165 adoption and program participation (Lambert et al. 2006; Lambert et al. 2007; Shaible et al. 2015).

166 Recent meta-analyses of this literature have found few factors that consistently predict conservation

167 behavior across contexts (Baumgart-Getz et al. 2012; Prokopy et al. 2008). While farm- and farmer-level

168 characteristics can significantly predict conservation behavior in some contexts, social-psychological

169 factors (e.g. attitudes, values, and social networks) are often important as well, and can be difficult to

170 capture (Floress et al. 2018). One important thread in conservation adoption research has focused on

171 the adoption of practices over time, which has been shown to follow a general trajectory of innovation

172 adoption (Rogers 1983), in which conservation practices are initially adopted by a small cohort of early

173 adopters, who tend to be more innovative and willing to undertake the risk of trying new practices

174 (Coughenour 2003; Dunn et al. 2016). Other studies have focused on structural factors, such as national

175 and international markets and policies, that constrain or incentivize certain on-farm behaviors. This

176 literature has tended to identify contradictory incentives farmers face that can disincentivize

177 investments in conservation, as markets and policies prioritize commodity production and other

178 characteristics of food production (i.e. food safety) over sustainable land management (Stuart and Gillon

179 2013; Weis 2010). In certain commodity markets (e.g. seed corn), farmers are increasingly operating

180 under contracts with companies that constrain many of their choices, including in fertilizer management  
181 (Stuart and Houser 2018). Among the most complex decisions crop producers must make within their  
182 operation is nutrient management. Given the complexities of the decisions involved and the significant  
183 impact of N on both crop production and environmental quality, this study focuses primarily on N  
184 management.

185

186 In the context of N management, a number of conservation practices exist that have the potential to  
187 minimize loss of N from the cropping system to the environment (Robertson and Vitousek 2009). These  
188 practices are primarily focused on improving nutrient use efficiency (the amount of applied nutrients  
189 used directly by the crop). This can involve modifying fertilizer formulation, placement, timing, and more  
190 carefully assessing true crop need (Millar and Robertson 2015; Vollmer-Sanders et al. 2016). Commonly  
191 used practices include soil and plant tissue testing to assess current nutrient levels in soil or crops, use of  
192 additives designed to slow microbial degradation processes, applying N fertilizers post crop-emergence  
193 (when the crop has the greatest N demand) in a practice commonly known as sidedress application, and  
194 use of written nutrient management plans (Osborn et al. 2015; Robertson and Vitousek 2009).

195

196 Use of these nutrient management practices by many Midwestern farmers remains low: nearly one third  
197 of farmers in the Midwest apply the majority or all of their N fertilizer in the autumn (Ribaudo et al.,  
198 2011), creating significant potential for loss to the environment before crop demand peaks in June-July  
199 (Millar and Robertson, 2015). Weber and McCann (2015) analyzed USDA data on nutrient management  
200 and found that less than one quarter of farmers nationally conducted N soil tests, only 10% use inhibitor  
201 additives with N fertilizers, and only 7% use variable rate N application. Christianson et al. (2015) found  
202 farmers have positive perceptions of N management practices, including modifications to rates and  
203 timing, though these positive perceptions were not necessarily associated with practice adoption.

204 Rather, these practices were seen as the most compatible with the current farming system compared  
205 with more intensive water quality improvements, such as winter cover crop use and restoration of  
206 wetlands. Osmond et al. (2015) found that even when farmers do adopt N management practices,  
207 including written management plans and soil tests, they do not necessarily follow them. Ulrich-Schad et  
208 al. (2018) found high adoption rates of soil testing but low adoption of variable rate application,  
209 optimized application timing, and nutrient management plans, with few consistently predictive factors  
210 for adoption of these practices, though sources of information appeared to play a role for several of  
211 these practices.

212

213 Conservation programs can influence farmer behavior in multiple ways. The effectiveness of cost-share  
214 driven programs in part depends on their ability to incentivize behaviors that farmers would not  
215 otherwise undertake, a concept called *additionality* (Claassen et al., 2013). Conservation programs have  
216 varying levels of additionality, depending on the specific practices in question. Federal conservation  
217 programs generally appear to have higher levels of additionality for structural practices, which tend to  
218 be more expensive (both in direct costs and opportunity costs) and provide less direct on-farm benefits.  
219 Management practices, which often confer a financial or on-farm environmental benefit (e.g.  
220 conservation tillage provides cost savings in fuel and direct benefits to soil conservation), are less likely  
221 to be additionally motivated by payment programs (Claassen et al., 2013; Mezzatest et al., 2013). Low  
222 levels of additionality reflect program inefficiency, in the sense that participating farmers likely would  
223 have adopted the practice to some extent in the absence of cost-share assistance. In the case of nutrient  
224 management, Claassen et al. (2015) find mixed evidence for program effectiveness in terms of  
225 additionality. The USDA data these authors rely upon do not include many common management  
226 practices, but do find that conservation programs have high additionality for written management plans  
227 but little effect on limiting fertilizer applications or increasing the use of sidedress application.

228

229 Public policies, in the form of federal and state conservation programs, have the potential to impact  
230 farmer N fertilization practices both directly, through cost-share and technical assistance, and indirectly,  
231 through promotion and education of efficiency practices. While programs incentivize and promote a  
232 wide range of nutrient management practices, it remains unclear what impact these programs are  
233 having on farmer adoption of these practices. More in-depth information from crop producers and  
234 program participants is needed to better understand the ways in which conservation programs influence  
235 farmer nutrient management. To this end, we explored the following overarching research question:  
236 how does participation in conservation programs impact farmer N management behaviors, including  
237 adoption and continued use of N efficiency practices? Within this broad question, we examined two  
238 specific questions: 1) how do conservation programs influence nutrient management, in particular the  
239 additionality of program participation; 2) what motivates farmers to pursue nutrient management  
240 through conservation programs?

241

242 **Methods:**

243 As part of a larger study on N management in the U.S. Corn Belt, we collected comprehensive data on  
244 nutrient management from corn growers in three states: Indiana, Iowa, and Michigan. Michigan was  
245 chosen due to the research team's location in Michigan and increasing water quality concerns within the  
246 state. Iowa was selected due to its status as the top corn producing state and Indiana, also a leader in  
247 corn production, was selected due to concerns surrounding pollution in the Mississippi Basin and Lake  
248 Erie. In addition, these states were selected because they reflect a range of biophysical, agronomic, and  
249 social conditions found in the Corn Belt. We focused on three states which allowed for a more in-depth  
250 and comprehensive understanding of each state, rather than dispersing our limited resources across the  
251 entire Corn Belt region. Because our research questions pertain to *how* and *why* nutrient management

252 decisions are made and the effects of conservation programs, we collected qualitative data to  
253 understand the range of influences, motivations, and barriers.

254

255 Multiple researchers conducted 154 semi-structured interviews with corn producers in three U.S.  
256 Midwestern states: 53 interviews in Iowa (IA), 51 in Indiana (IN) and 50 in Michigan (MI). Our sample  
257 selection criteria were non-organic, commercial corn producers who grew at least 100 acres of corn in  
258 2014. Participant recruitment varied by state. In IA, participants were identified through the Iowa State  
259 University Extension (23% of the sample), county Soil and Water Conservation District offices (23%),  
260 Practical Farmers of Iowa (a farmer-led organization focused on promoting on-farm research and  
261 information sharing) (6%) at events, such as field days (4%), and through snowball sampling (45%). In  
262 Indiana, Purdue University Extension was the primary source of the contacts (59%), followed by those  
263 obtained through snowball sampling (33%) and via other relevant organizations (8%). In Michigan, most  
264 of the contacts were made through Michigan State University Extension (64%). We used snowball  
265 sampling to identify the majority of the remaining contacts (24%), with some additional contacts made  
266 through lists of Michigan Agriculture Environmental Assurance Program (MAEAP, a state-level farm  
267 stewardship certification program) participants (12%).

268

269 It should be noted that based on these methods of recruitment participants may be more likely to have  
270 been exposed to conservation programs and practices. This sample is ideal to better understand what  
271 conservation program factors most encourage or discourage farmers from adopting nutrient  
272 management practices. Due to our selection process, our quantitative data regarding the percent of  
273 participants enrolled in specific programs is likely higher than a random sample; however, these  
274 descriptive statistics are still important to report to understand the extent that this particular interview  
275 sample was involved in conservation programs.

276

277 It is also important to note that our sample selection process resulted in a sample that is 100% white  
278 and male, with ages ranging from approximately 20-70. These demographics are largely representative  
279 of the farming population in these states; farm operators in the study states are overwhelmingly white  
280 (99% in IA and IN, 97.5% in MI) and male (about 70% in each state) (USDA-NASS 2016). As an exploratory  
281 study of Midwest corn growers' nitrogen management practices and perceptions of conservation  
282 programs, "farmer" in our study included anyone growing conventional (non-organic), commercial-  
283 grade corn who produced at least 100 acres of corn in 2014. Based on our specific research questions,  
284 we did not make explicit efforts to broaden participation in our study through specifically targeting non-  
285 white and female farmers. Future research could seek to expand definitions of who is a farmer and  
286 capture broader perspectives, particularly from demographic groups not traditionally represented in  
287 agricultural research.

288

289 The majority of the interviews were conducted in-person, with a small number of telephone interviews,  
290 between May and December 2014. Interviews were audio recorded with the permission of the  
291 participant and transcribed verbatim (two participants were not comfortable with recording so  
292 researchers kept extensive notes of these interviews). The interviewers used a semi-structured  
293 interview guide, with general questions and prompts for select questions to ensure that topics of  
294 interest were covered in the interview. The interview guide included questions on a range of topics  
295 related to N management in the farmer's operation, including: operational characteristics (farm size,  
296 rotation, etc.), N application practices (formulation, timing, rate, placement); sources of information  
297 about nutrient practices; influence of policies, programs, and markets on fertilizer decisions; and  
298 perceptions of environmental and climate impacts related to fertilizer management.

299

300 Interview data were analyzed using two stages of coding. Data were initially coded into broad categories  
301 based on the interview guide structure (*a priori* specific coding). Following this stage, sections of the  
302 interviews that were policy-relevant were selected (especially questions pertaining to participation in  
303 conservation programs and use of N management practices) and analyzed using a hierarchical axial  
304 coding approach. This involved an open coding step, wherein the data were read and broad themes  
305 generated from the data, followed by axial coding, where the themes were refined and connections  
306 between the themes were established (Corbin and Strauss, 1990). To enhance reliability of the analysis,  
307 initial coding was independently conducted by multiple researchers, with subsequent axial coding  
308 modified based on discussion (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In the Results section, we present a description  
309 of our sample, followed by the major emergent themes from our interviews which highlight the three  
310 primary processes through which conservation programs influence N management behaviors. In the  
311 Discussion section, we describe how these processes intersect with the existing motivations farmers  
312 have for undertaking conservation actions, along with some concluding thoughts about the implications  
313 for policy design.

314

315 **Results:**

316 *Sample Description*

317 Most of the farmers we interviewed grew corn in rotation with other crops (especially soybeans, and  
318 wheat in Michigan). Fourteen farmers also had livestock operations (3 hog operations, 1 dairy, and 10  
319 with beef cattle). Interviewees ranged in operation size from a few hundred acres of cropland to over  
320 9,000 acres (mean = 1700 acres). The majority of farmers interviewed for this study had participated in a  
321 conservation program at some point in their careers. Out of 151 farmers, 74 (49%) of the total sample  
322 had participated in or were currently participating in CRP, while 61 (40%) had or were currently  
323 participating in EQIP, and 48 (32%) had or were currently participating in CSP. A number of interviewees

324 participated in multiple programs. Fifteen farmers (10% of our sample) participated in all three major  
325 conservation programs, while 40 others (26%) were participating in two programs. Only 33 producers  
326 (22%) had never participated in a federal conservation program. We included the responses of non-  
327 participants in our analysis, especially to elucidate deterrents to program participation and compare N  
328 management behaviors of participants and non-participants.

329

330 **Table 1. Commonly used practices by sampled farmers participating in CRP, EQIP, and CSP (Note:**  
331 **numbers do not sum to total participants in each program due to multiple practices being covered by**  
332 **the same program)**

| CRP (N=74)                         | EQIP (N=61)   | CSP (N=48)   |
|------------------------------------|---|--|
| Filter strips/field borders (N=42) | Cover crops (N=14)  | Nutrient management (stalk nitrate testing, equipment upgrades, inhibitor use, variable rate application) (N=34) |
| Grassed waterways (N=7)            | Terraces/in-field erosion control structures (N=15)   | Cover crops (N=8)  |
| Wildlife habitat (N=2)             | Nutrient management (written management plans, soil testing, plant/tissue testing, application equipment upgrades) (N=14) | Pest management (N=5)  |
|                                    | Livestock/pasture management (N=12)   |  |
|                                    | Manure management (N=6)   |  |

333

334 Program participants were engaging in a variety of practices through conservation programs (table 1).  
335 Filter strips were overwhelmingly the most common practice adopted by CRP participants, with a few

336 participants installing in-field structures, such as grassed waterways. A few participants noted that their  
337 practices were primarily designed for providing wildlife habitat, including specific plantings in field  
338 borders or filter strips designed to promote upland game bird (quail) habitat. The range of practices  
339 farmers were adopting through the EQIP and CSP programs was much wider. A number of farmers we  
340 interviewed had used EQIP cost-share funds for livestock-related practices, including upgrades to  
341 livestock and manure-management facilities, pasture fencing, and rotational grazing. Several farmers  
342 had adopted winter cover crops on at least part of their operation with EQIP funds. Others had engaged  
343 in nutrient management practices through EQIP, including composing written nutrient management  
344 plans, implementation of soil or plant tissue sampling procedures, soil mapping, and upgrades to  
345 application equipment (e.g. new sprayer nozzles). The majority of farmers who were participating in CSP  
346 were adopting similar nutrient management practices to EQIP participants. In addition to nutrient  
347 management, CSP participants were also using winter cover crops and pest management practices,  
348 while a few were engaged in livestock management practices.

349

350 Operation size did not seem correlated with conservation participation among our sample; non-  
351 participants had an average of about 1,500 acres under cultivation, while current and past program  
352 participants averaged 1,750 acres. There was significant variation in operation size between the two  
353 groups as well, with some non-participants having some of the largest operations in our sample. There  
354 was also significant variation in adoption of conservation practices and N management practices  
355 between the program participants and non-participants. Some respondents without a history of  
356 program participation were no-till farmers and at least two of the 33 non-participants had experimented  
357 with cover crops recently, while some active program participants used conventional tillage (e.g. deep  
358 disking).

359

360 *Program impact on nitrogen management*

361 We found that programs had mixed impacts on farmer N management, depending on program goals  
362 and structure as well as farmer perspectives. We found that programs shifted farmer N management  
363 behavior through three social processes: 1) engaging farmers in the conservation system by introducing  
364 them to the state and federal conservation agencies, 2) incentivizing trialing of specific N management  
365 practices, and 3) increasing practice adoption through continued program engagement. In the following  
366 subsections, we will elaborate upon how these processes function to influence nutrient management  
367 and in particular the additionality of these various program approaches (the first research question  
368 guiding this analysis).

369

370 *Farmer Engagement*

371 While many farmers in our sample had participated in at least one conservation program, the level of  
372 engagement and practices conducted through these programs varied considerably. Land retirement  
373 programs, especially CRP, and state programs with low barriers to participation appear to serve a crucial  
374 role in putting farmers in contact with conservation agencies and increasing awareness of other  
375 programs. While these programs had limited direct impacts on N management practices, they have  
376 indirect impacts on farmer conservation efforts overall. Below we detail the indirect impacts each of  
377 these program types have on farmer engagement in conservation programs.

378

379 *Land retirement programs:* More farmers in our sample had participated in the CRP and other land  
380 retirement programs than working lands programs. Respondents most commonly used funds to install  
381 physical structures, such as field buffers and filter strips along waterways and agricultural ditches. When  
382 asked how these practices impacted on-farm N management, nearly all farmers indicated it had no  
383 direct impact on how they made N decisions, though a few noted that these practices could keep

384 nutrients from entering waterways. A Michigan farmer noted: "*I know filter strips, the water structures,*  
385 *the cover crops are all... maintaining my fertilizer here on the farm rather than losing it.*"

386

387 Among the farmers we interviewed land retirement programs appeared to have weak indirect impacts,  
388 mainly by giving farmers confidence in edge-of-field control of surface loss of nutrients. However, land  
389 retirement programs, especially CRP, served as an entry point for some farmers into the conservation  
390 program system by putting them in contact with federal and local conservation agencies. A Michigan  
391 farmer said: "*They [conservation agencies] constantly keep working with you. They don't badger you but*  
392 *they follow up all the time and make you aware of these practices that you continue or can they help you*  
393 *with any suggestions to improve it.*"

394

395 For many program participants, CRP served as a first experience that provided familiarity with  
396 conservation agents, program terminology, and exposure to other programs. Over half of EQIP  
397 participants (31/61) and CSP participants (25/48) we interviewed had participated in CRP. For CSP  
398 participants, EQIP served a similar role, with 20 of the 48 participants having EQIP experience. A few CSP  
399 participants specifically mentioned their EQIP experience leading them to CSP. Previous research has  
400 shown that awareness of programs among farmers is generally low and the terminology and  
401 administrative requirements associated with programs can serve as barriers to participation for many  
402 farmers (Reimer and Prokopy 2014). Farmers must become aware of program benefits, learn program  
403 requirements and agency jargon, and develop relationships with conservation staff before they will  
404 apply for programs. By providing experience with conservation agencies, our interviewees indicate CRP  
405 can ease the transition into programs with more complex administrative structures, such as EQIP and  
406 CSP.

407

408 Previous research has demonstrated the importance of social connections and access to relevant  
409 information on practice adoption. Farmers are more likely to adopt practices if they have strong social  
410 connections with other adopters and more frequent contacts with conservation agencies (Manson et al.  
411 2016; Ulrich-Schad et al. 2018). In the N management context, the sources from which farmers seek  
412 information has been shown to be important for practice adoption, with private sector advisors  
413 increasingly playing an active role in N management (Stuart et al. 2018; Ulrich-Schad et al. 2018). Farmer  
414 engagement in the governmental conservation system is an important aspect of the portfolio approach  
415 to conservation systems, particularly given low levels of information about programs among farmers  
416 (Reimer and Prokopy 2014). Land retirement programs, which have limited direct effects on N  
417 management practice adoption, still serve a function of promoting farmer engagement.

418

419 *State programs:* While federal conservation programs were the primary focus of our interview  
420 questions, state level programs also serve an important role in developing connections between farmers  
421 and agencies. State programs often utilize different policy mechanisms than federal programs and offer  
422 an informative example of how programs can engage farmers with the conservation policy system. In  
423 contrast to the cost-share based federal conservation programs, the Iowa Nutrient Reduction Strategy  
424 (NRS) is a state-level effort based on identifying sources and causes of nutrient pollution, providing  
425 technical assistance and promotion of conservation practices aimed at reducing this pollution. To  
426 encourage voluntary action by farmers and landowners, this program is based on partnerships between  
427 state agencies, local conservation districts, universities, producer groups, and community watershed  
428 groups (ISUEO 2014). The NRS served as a source of information for several farmers in Iowa about  
429 nutrient management practices, as well as opportunities for cost-share through federal and state  
430 conservation programs. One Iowa farmer put it this way: *“Its Iowa’s nutrient reduction strategy that*  
431 *focuses on educating people in certain watersheds. It sure seems like it. Maybe I’m just imaging that, but*

432 *it sure seems like we've got a lot of information about it.*" Seven Iowa farmers described the watershed-  
433 based approach of the program, where certain high-priority watersheds were identified and targeted for  
434 outreach and limited cost-share for practice adoption. While not all farmers fell within these target  
435 watersheds, the program in general raised awareness of the focus on nutrient pollution reduction. As  
436 one Iowa farmer described it: *"The nutrient reduction strategy that is coming out will make payments to*  
437 *do things, that's tended to more what you haven't done already, so I think you'll see that, it's coming*  
438 *because the voluntary approach to reduce nutrients will be important."*

439

440 Seven out of 50 Michigan farmers we interviewed had participated in the Michigan Agriculture  
441 Environmental Assurance Program (MAEAP), which sets standards for environmental performance on a  
442 wide range of farm operations, including crop production, livestock operations, and farmyards (physical  
443 infrastructure). The program offers technical assistance to farmers for implementing a range of best  
444 management practices. In addition, the program puts farmers in contact with local, state, and federal  
445 conservation agencies, increasing their opportunities to learn about other conservation programs. In  
446 exchange for meeting certification requirements, farmers receive signage they can display indicating  
447 that they are MAEAP certified (Vollmer-Sanders et al. 2011). Research on farm certification programs,  
448 including MAEAP, have demonstrated mixed impact on environmental performance. A review of  
449 certification (including ecolabeling) and supply chain programs in a wide range of agricultural contexts  
450 found their effects to be limited and often unrealistic (Waldman and Kerr 2014). Some research on  
451 MAEAP in particular found some positive environmental impacts among livestock producers who  
452 participated in the program (Vollmer-Sanders et al. 2011), while the impact on crop producers' nutrient  
453 management efforts in particular was found to be minimal (Stuart et al. 2014b).

454

455 Most MAEAP participants we interviewed did not need to significantly change practices to become  
456 certified, indicating low additionality of this program, in line with previous research on the program  
457 (Stuart et al. 2014b). For example, one respondent shared: *"When I came and signed up for CSP I literally  
458 didn't have to do anything; I didn't have to change anything in our operation. We already were doing all  
459 the things USDA thinks that they want farmers to do. I mean, it's kind of like when I went for my MAEAP  
460 verification, literally the only thing I was lacking was the tube on the mailbox."* Other farmers indicated  
461 that the MAEAP was an easy program to participate in, as they did not have to change many practices to  
462 participate. One participant indicated that he was already doing certain practices and MAEAP offered a  
463 way to "get credit" for these practices: *"I was already [doing] the filter strips . . . so I said well, might as  
464 well be certified, and get recognized as the MAEAP program."* MAEAP participants were more likely to  
465 reference knowing local conservation staff than non-participants, indicating the potential importance of  
466 the program as a mechanism for generating contacts between farmers and agencies. MAEAP  
467 certification is a one-time process, so this program likely represents a more shallow level of engagement  
468 than a program that takes place over a multi-year contract (i.e. EQIP).

469

470 *Trialing Nitrogen Management Practices*

471 Working lands programs primarily influenced nutrient management through incentivizing farmer  
472 experimentation and trialing of new practices. These programs were seen as a valuable source of cost-  
473 share funds that allowed farmers to try practices with some risk protection provided by cost-share.  
474 Farmers participating in EQIP and CSP had implemented nutrient management practices with cost-share  
475 and technical assistance. Of the 61 farmers with current or past experience in EQIP, 14 had  
476 implemented nutrient management practices including written nutrient management plans, soil testing,  
477 and upgraded application equipment (e.g. more precise spray nozzles) or facilities (e.g. fertilizer  
478 storage). Others had implemented manure management practices through EQIP (6) or cover crops (14).

479 Among the 48 CSP farmers, 34 had implemented nutrient management practices (two farmers had  
480 implemented cover crops in addition), with another six adopting cover crops through the program.

481

482 The financial support available through cost-share programs allows farmers the ability to trial practices,  
483 an especially important consideration for potentially risky practices. For cost-share programs, NRCS  
484 revises cost-share and program payments annually. Within EQIP, these cost-share rates take into  
485 account the cost of materials and labor as well as the opportunity costs of practice adoption (i.e. land  
486 conversion). These rates differ from state-to-state to account for varying practice costs (Stubbs 2010).

487 Many conservation practices also require financial investments, and technical expertise and knowledge  
488 of how to implement the practice within the existing farm management system. Nitrogen management  
489 practices in particular often require substantial trialing and experimentation. Farmers indicated that  
490 working lands programs provided valuable experience with practices. A Michigan farmer put it this way:

491 *"It kind of helps offset some of the costs of learning those type of things. Well, in some respects if you're  
492 making money through the CSP program, well then you can afford to make a mistake or two and you  
493 say, well, it's still worthwhile, I'm learning how to do this."* Cover crops, a practice with potential N  
494 management impacts through improved soil structure and tightened nutrient cycling, has been noted as  
495 a perceived high-risk practice (Arbuckle and Roesch-McNally 2015). Cost-share incentives through  
496 conservation programs appear to be particularly important for risky practices, including cover crops.

497 One Indiana farmer described his experience with EQIP and cover crops:

498 *"EQIP, they're kind of promoting some funds for cover crops stuff. That takes a lot of risk, the  
499 sting, out of it. This year we had a really hard winter, and it hurt the cover crops some. They  
500 didn't do quite as well. But we had a little bit of cost sharing going. My cost was a little lower  
501 than normal, which took some of the sting out of it. I think they did a nice job with some of these*

502        *new concepts to try to get people to participate. . . . They're helping you try them . . . you can try*  
503        *stuff and learn about stuff. I like that. It's a good thing. That's what the government is for."*

504

505        As described above, conservation cost-share programs offered an opportunity for farmers to try  
506        practices they were curious about or may otherwise have trialed on their farms. A Michigan farmer said  
507        this about his experience with CSP: "*It does make me change a few things that I was doing, or at least*  
508        *make me consider and try a different way that I wouldn't maybe normally... You know, I wouldn't even*  
509        *consider it. It wouldn't even be brought to my attention, but through the CSP programs it's like 'yeah, all*  
510        *right, oh, all right I'll try it."*" For other farmers, working lands programs were an opportunity to receive  
511        cost-share on practices they were already using. For example, one Michigan farmer said: "*We've always*  
512        *had CSP . . . I can't remember what all things we were signed up for, but it seemed like all the split*  
513        *applications of nitrogen and the soil sampling and those sorts of things, but most of the time those were*  
514        *things that we were doing anyway, and we just kind of added them to our program, but it didn't help... I*  
515        *mean, it kind of just reinforced what we were already doing.*" For farmers with this perspective, the  
516        program does not provide substantial additionality, instead simply promoting practice adoption among  
517        those farmers who had already adopted practices, or were already likely to do so without program  
518        support.

519

520        In contrast to land retirement and most state-level programs, EQIP and CSP target specific ongoing  
521        agricultural management through practice cost-share and technical assistance. Despite their designed  
522        potential to influence nutrient management, their impact on the farmers we interviewed was limited by  
523        lack of participation. Among our interview participants, fewer than half had participated in a working  
524        lands program, and some participants had practices that do not directly affect nutrient management  
525        (e.g. farmstead or livestock facilities practices outside of manure management). The farmers who had

526 participated in EQIP or CSP to implement nutrient management practices used the two programs in  
527 different ways, reflecting the divergent design and purpose of those programs. EQIP provides cost-share  
528 and technical assistance to farmers for individual practices for a relatively short time period. Many of  
529 the EQIP participating farmers we interviewed reflected that the program cost-share payments allowed  
530 them to trial practices and develop valuable knowledge and skills with reduced personal risk. Trialing  
531 with cost support (and technical assistance) from conservation agencies allows a farmer to develop  
532 critical knowledge and skills as it pertains to the practice, or as one farmer put it: "*you can afford to  
533 make a mistake or two.*" For some farmers, the availability of EQIP funds was an important motive in  
534 adoption, while others indicated that they likely would have adopted the practice anyway (though the  
535 financial support was appreciated). Six farmers indicated that EQIP funds were critical factor in getting  
536 farmers to try cover crops, a practice with significant cost and perceived risk (Reimer et al. 2012;  
537 Arbuckle and Roesch-McNally 2015). EQIP may have higher additionality for practices with significant  
538 perceived risks but lower additionality for practices with high apparent on-farm benefits (such as  
539 farmstead improvements or soil testing).

540

541 *Increasing Conservation Efforts through the Conservation Stewardship Program*  
542 While programs, especially working lands programs, promote changes in individual practice, the  
543 portfolio approach to programs serves an important role in ratcheting up farmer conservation efforts  
544 over time. Participants saw CSP in particular as an important program for enhancing current practices,  
545 including changing multiple aspects of nutrient management. Whereas EQIP participants were generally  
546 using a small number of practices, and adopting them one or two at a time, CSP participants were  
547 making more substantial changes; 34 of 48 farmers in CSP were directly engaged in nutrient  
548 management enhancements and nearly all of these farmers were implementing multiple practices  
549 under this enhancement (especially soil and plant tissue testing, written management plans, and rate

550 limitations). CSP participants were generally very positive about the program, and many were on a  
551 second or third contract cycle. These farmers were continuing to add new practices with each new  
552 contract, as well as maintaining the practices they had previously adopted. As one Michigan farmer put  
553 it: *“It’s kind of like when I came in for my renewal on my CSP, what thing I’m going to add and it’s kind of*  
554 *like well, I’ve already got everything on your list when we started out; we’re doing the cover crops, we’re*  
555 *doing the no-till, we’re doing the conservation, we’re doing the filter strips.”*

556

557 In addition to providing cost-share for various practices, CSP also sets nutrient management standards  
558 for farmers to adhere to while under contract for nutrient management enhancements. These standards  
559 constrained farmer behaviors, including setting limits on N application rates or prohibiting fall  
560 application of N. When asked if anything constrained his N management, one Iowa farmer who was  
561 currently enrolled in the CSP said: *“My nutrient management plan, I was assisted in that by the soybean*  
562 *association here in Iowa. Taking into consideration what our plan is and what our limits are, because*  
563 *there are upper limits, we cannot go above so many units of N, P and K to stay within our management*  
564 *plan.”* While these were limits imposed by programs, the farmer chose which practices and  
565 enhancements to pursue, making them voluntary for the set length of the contract.

566

567 For some farmers, their experiences with nutrient management practices through programs changed  
568 their long-term management. One Michigan farmer described how CSP promoted his use of stalk nitrate  
569 testing.

570 *“One of the questions they [NRCS] asked ‘would you continue to do this [stalk nitrate testing] as*  
571 *a practice?’ And I said I’m fairly confident where we are at this point in time, but I wouldn’t*  
572 *hesitate to use it again if something changed; if a new variety of corn came out that was*  
573 *somehow different, that we had to feed it differently, well that would be one of the resources I’d*

574           *go to and say okay, let's start doing some stalk nitrate testing and see what we've got out*  
575           *there."*

576   For this farmer, his experience with the practice adopted through CSP left a positive attitude toward the  
577   practice and confidence in his ability to use it in the future. Another Iowa farmer expressed a similar  
578   sentiment, explicitly saying he would continue to use practices despite lack of program funds: "*I think*  
579   *there probably won't be any payments from the USDA for them. But we'll keep doing what we're doing,*  
580   *because we're incorporating that into our operation anyway. What we're doing is taking the fall stalk*  
581   *nitrate tests and using that to make recommendations, for our decisions on nitrogen.*" For many working  
582   lands program participants, the program technical assistance was just as important as the cost-share  
583   assistance, as it allowed farmers to generate critical skills and experience to incorporate new practices  
584   into their operation, not just through the covered practice but through related aspects of management.

585

586   Cost-share programs sometimes incentivize farmers to either continue practices they had already tried  
587   or would have tried on their own, limiting their additionality. While many participants were already  
588   engaged in conservation practices on their farm, CSP appeared to have higher levels of additionality  
589   than EQIP, with most participants indicating that the program had had a substantial influence on their  
590   long-term nutrient management strategy. An Iowa farmer indicated that CSP was different from other  
591   programs in this respect: "*So it's kinda an interesting program [CSP], they try to get you to do more than*  
592   *what you've done instead of paying you for what you're already doing. Because in the past, that's the*  
593   *way most government programs are, they pay you for doing something if you haven't done already, so*  
594   *they reward the people who have done the worst job in the past, so the guy who has already put up*  
595   *terraces and no till and all that, then we don't get any.*" CSP encourages participation among those  
596   farmers who were already implementing some conservation practices, while also pushing them to go  
597   further. While additionality is considered a measure of program effectiveness, a program that awards

598 farmers already using conservation practices can also encourage them to adopt additional conservation  
599 practices in the future. Additionality is an important factor to consider in program design, but also  
600 remains difficult to assess and understand in the long-term (Claassen et al. 2013).

601

602 ***Discussion and Conclusions***

603 We approached this analysis with two specific questions: 1) how do federal and state conservation  
604 programs influence farmer N management; and 2) what motivates farmers to pursue nutrient  
605 management practices through conservation programs? Based on our interviews with Midwestern corn  
606 growers, working land programs have more direct impacts on N management practice adoption than  
607 land retirement, certification, or outreach-based programs. While land retirement and outreach  
608 programs have small indirect benefits associated with building farmer familiarity with conservation  
609 agencies and programs, working lands programs are more effective at incentivizing practice change over  
610 time. Working lands programs, particularly the CSP, encourage farmers to adopt nutrient management  
611 practices through financially supporting farmers to trial practices and make mistakes as they learn how  
612 to use them successfully. While the additionality of these programs appears to be low for some N  
613 management practices, as a set of policies, these programs serve as an important motivator to  
614 experiment with practices and engage in more holistic conservation, including nutrient management.  
615 While program structure and approach are important factors influencing participation decisions, farmers  
616 have other motives that may influence their decisions as well. In our interviews, program participants  
617 and non-participants spoke to two key motives: stewardship attitudes and avoidance of regulation.

618

619 *Stewardship attitudes:* Conservation programs often tap into existing stewardship attitudes held by a  
620 subset of producers. Strong stewardship attitudes were an important motivator among program  
621 participants and programs appeared to activate these stewardship attitudes. These stewardship

622 attitudes were often complex and mixed with other motives for participation. One farmer in Michigan  
623 expressed both stewardship and self-interest motivations: "*I'm a conservationist, and I want to do as*  
624 *much as I can to do things correctly, and I don't like to be the one that puts nitrates or phosphates into*  
625 *the river and goes to Lake Erie. So it's just... No, I want to keep all my stuff. If I pay for it I want it; I don't*  
626 *want to lose it.*" This attitude reflects the dual nature of conservation activities, which are especially  
627 evident with nutrient management practices. Efficient management of nutrients can generate both on-  
628 farm benefits through input cost savings and off-farm benefits through environmental protection. These  
629 dual motivations have been demonstrated in other agricultural contexts, with farmers often engaging in  
630 practices to achieve multiple goals simultaneously, including on-farm soil conservation, agronomic  
631 benefits, and natural resource protection (Sheeder and Lynne 2011; Reimer et al 2012).

632

633 Previous research on farmer conservation behavior has highlighted the wide diversity in farmer values  
634 and attitudes towards stewardship (Maybery et al. 2005; Greiner and Gregg 2011; Reimer et al. 2012).  
635 Strong stewardship attitudes do appear to play a role in farmer decisions to participate in programs  
636 (Reimer and Prokopy 2014b; Thompson et al. 2015), though these are not the only motivations at play.  
637 Farmers' attitudes toward conservation programs are complex and can be viewed as a complex  
638 assemblage comprised of interacting social, environmental, political and temporal systems (O'Connell  
639 and Osmond 2018). Our findings indicate that decisions to participate in conservation programs are  
640 highly individualistic and depend on context. Some producers seemed highly motivated to participate  
641 based on their stewardship attitudes, while others emphasized more direct or tangible benefits to their  
642 operation. Some program non-participants were engaged in highly sophisticated and intensive N  
643 management and expressed strong stewardship motivations for their adoption of practices. For  
644 programs such as CSP, which has been a smaller and more targeted program, participants seem more

645 likely to be motivated by underlying stewardship interests, as well as being more oriented toward  
646 experimenting with new practices and approaches.

647

648 *Avoiding regulations:* More than a quarter of the farmers we interviewed, spread across our study  
649 states, discussed the possibility of future regulation of farm activities generally or related to nutrient  
650 management specifically to protect environmental quality. These producers saw voluntary actions to  
651 reduce the environmental impacts of agriculture as the best way to avoid government regulation, which  
652 they generally regarded as harmful or burdensome. One Michigan farmer expressed this sentiment by  
653 saying: *“And that’s why it’s important [conservation practices], because we can do it voluntarily our way,*  
654 *or we cannot do anything and wait for the government to tell us how to do it, and we’re not going to like*  
655 *how the government tells us to do it, because the government doesn’t know what they’re doing.”*

656

657 A few farmers (less than 10% of those interviewed) discussed direct forms of regulation and government  
658 action already impacting their decision making, including taxes on fertilizers and limits on nutrient  
659 application near urban areas or wellhead areas. Most farmers however did not perceive of any direct  
660 government regulations or programs limiting their current application behaviors. Rather, it was the  
661 avoidance of unspecified future regulation that motivated many farmers to adopt conservation practices  
662 in general and to participate in conservation programs specifically. This was especially true of many  
663 state conservation programs. Several farmers in Iowa discussed their state’s NRS as a voluntary  
664 approach specifically designed to avoid direct regulation. An Iowa farmer put it this way: *“I think that’s a*  
665 *very important approach this reduction strategy to try and be proactive for growers, because otherwise*  
666 *they’re gonna get regulated.”* Many farmers who participated in these programs acknowledged the  
667 larger role conservation programs, and their own actions by adopting practices through these programs,  
668 played in improving the environmental performance of cropping systems in the Midwest. The MAEAP

669 program in Michigan, with the emphasis on public promotion of environmental certification, was also  
670 seen as a voluntary hedge against potential regulation. Previous research on MAEAP found that  
671 avoidance of regulation was a strong motivation for livestock producers to participate in the program  
672 (Chantorn 2013; Vollmer-Sanders et al. 2011). These programs then serve a larger role in signaling  
673 stewardship and responsibility to society in general. While not the primary motive for most farmers, this  
674 industry-level benefit served an important role for some participants.

675

676 *Conservation program design:* Conservation programs are structured to meet a wide range of  
677 environmental goals and appeal to farmers for different reasons, including the opportunity to trial  
678 practices and pursue stewardship goals within their operations. Yet farmers, both program participants  
679 and non-participants, also perceive conservation programs to be an important mechanism for  
680 promoting voluntary action and avoiding more onerous government regulation. While not all farmers  
681 were positive about government programs (dislike or distrust of government was a critical barrier for  
682 some farmers), the majority of those we interviewed were generally positive about the goals of  
683 conservation programs. Throughout the interviews, most producers spoke about the complexity and  
684 importance of managing nutrients appropriately and viewed nutrient stewardship as an important part  
685 of farming. Working lands programs in particular were viewed as an important policy through which  
686 government can support farmers in their nutrient stewardship, both directly through financial and  
687 technical support and indirectly through promoting whole-farm conservation planning and social  
688 support for voluntary stewardship. Conservation programs also serve an important role in signaling  
689 responsible stewardship for the agricultural industry as a whole, helping farmers to avoid potential  
690 direct regulation in the future.

691

692 Farmer motivations intersect with program design by allowing different types of farmers to pursue their  
693 goals through multiple avenues. For example, the CSP appeared to target a different type of farmer than  
694 EQIP: the early adopter or conservation-oriented farmer. A majority of the CSP participating farmers we  
695 interviewed across our study states said the program was valuable primarily in that it provided a source  
696 of program payments to reward conservation-oriented farmers. Participant self-selection moderates the  
697 additionality of the program to some extent by primarily drawing on farmers actively engaged in  
698 conservation in their operations, though many participating farmers also indicated that the participation  
699 in the program had also spurred them to make additional changes to their operations. Unlike EQIP,  
700 which funds a wide range of practices (including many with little direct impact on nutrient  
701 management), many farmers participating in CSP were focused primarily on improving their N practices.  
702 In addition, CSP emphasizes whole farm resource planning and management; many CSP participants we  
703 interviewed reflected that they were taking a systems approach to their N management, rather than  
704 focusing on individual practices. The holistic planning structure of CSP may lead to more efficient use of  
705 nutrients overall (as opposed to individual practices), as nutrient management is complex and use  
706 efficiency affected by multiple factors interacting together (Johnston and Bruulsema 2014). CSP is the  
707 only current program that incentivizes the most conservation-oriented farmers to go further in their  
708 conservation.

709  
710 The ultimate outcomes of federal and state conservation programs on N management are complex;  
711 while programs do appear to have some tangible impact on the adoption of nutrient best management  
712 practices, for some farmers these programs do not appear to significantly shift overall management  
713 toward more sustainable practice. Other farmers have not chosen to participate in programs but have  
714 adopted nutrient management practices, including variable rate application and grid sampling, on their  
715 own. The complexities of conservation decisions make evaluating the additionality of individual

716 programs and the conservation system as a whole difficult. While our research focused on N  
717 management, this aspect of farm management is particularly difficult to track and assess. On-farm N  
718 management is dynamic and highly variable, both temporally and spatially. There is a need for greater  
719 monitoring and assessment of N management, both through conservation programs and at the cropping  
720 system level. The findings presented here add to this complex picture by identifying specific mechanisms  
721 through which programs influence ongoing management with potentially significant environmental  
722 impacts. Further research is needed to more broadly quantify the impacts of these programs on the  
723 efficiency of N management over time. In addition, future research is needed to evaluate the indirect  
724 impacts of programs, including the social influence of various program approaches on community norms  
725 and attitudes, a theme that farmers addressed in our interviews.

726

727 Our findings emphasize the need for a diverse range of approaches to conservation. Programs have  
728 different goals and use different incentives to achieve those goals. Due to the diversity in stewardship  
729 attitudes, views of government, and capacities among farmers, a portfolio approach to conservation is  
730 best suited to achieving the overall aim of improving the environmental performance of agriculture.  
731 Conservation programming should also emphasize the social benefits of stewardship for agriculture as  
732 an industry to promote programs among producers with lower internal motivation to engage in  
733 stewardship practices.

734

735 The largest current limitation to farmer conservation through government programs appears to be the  
736 low levels of awareness of programs and the agencies that administer them. Federal conservation policy  
737 should use a robust portfolio approach to appeal to the diversity of farmer motives and account for the  
738 social learning necessary to engage farmers in continued improvement through different programs. This  
739 portfolio would include programs with low barriers to entry, such as basic environmental performance

740 certification and targeted small-scale land retirement (e.g. field buffer programs). These programs  
741 would serve a conservation purpose but would also build awareness of the conservation system and  
742 develop farmer familiarity with conservation agencies. As our findings demonstrate, these types of  
743 programs are important in building relationships between farmers and agencies and play a role in  
744 encouraging future program participation. Practice-focused cost share programs such as EQIP serve an  
745 important function in encouraging practice trialing and experimentation. At the top is the CSP program,  
746 which focuses on whole-farm natural resources planning and sustained improvement over time. More  
747 emphasis should be put on trying to move farmers up the “ladder” of programs by building farmer  
748 familiarity with conservation agencies and programs, and particularly with the CSP program.

749

750 Modern agricultural systems face many challenges to not only environmental sustainability, but also  
751 social and economic sustainability (Swinton et al. 2007). Addressing these challenges will require  
752 substantial changes to crop and livestock production systems. Nutrient management provides a key  
753 example of the complexities associated with on-farm decisions and their impact on production and  
754 environmental outcomes. Cost share programs are an important mechanism by which society shares in  
755 the risks associated with changing agricultural practices. As our research findings demonstrate, these  
756 programs also serve an important role in building farmer technical knowledge and experience, as well as  
757 confidence in being able to incorporate changes to their production systems. Conservation policy should  
758 continue to not only provide financial support to defray some of the risks to individual farmers, but also  
759 provide a robust system of technical and social support that encourages improvements in farm  
760 sustainability.

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767

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