

Farmers' environmental perceptions and preferences regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation actions – towards a sustainable agricultural system.

Miguel Angel Orduño Torres^{a*}, Zein Kallas^b and Selene Ivette Ornelas Herrera^c

^a Instituto de Sostenibilidad (IS-UPC), Universidad Politécnica de Cataluña, 08034 Barcelona, España, mordunot8700@egresado.ipn.mx

^b Centro de Investigación en Economía y Desarrollo Agroalimentario (CREDA-UPC-IRTA) Universidad Politécnica de Cataluña, Instituto de Investigación y Tecnología Agroalimentaria, 08860 Castelldefels, España, zein.kallas@upc.edu

^c Facultad de Matemáticas y Estadística (FME-UPC), Universidad Politécnica de Cataluña, 08028 Barcelona, España, selene.ivette.ornelas@upc.edu

Abstract: Climate change compromises sustainable agricultural development. It has deep economic, environmental, and social impacts, particularly on vulnerable rural regions in developing countries where agriculture constitutes the backbone of the economy. This study analyzes farmers' preferences regarding the potential implementation of several mitigation and adaptation actions addressing climate change. Data were collected on 370 farmers in the “Valle del Carrizo” region of northwestern México. Using the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) methodology, the farmers' preferred mitigation and adaptation actions were identified and related to their stated attitudes regarding risks using the Multiple Price List (MPL) lotteries approach. Farmers' environmental beliefs and perceptions as key means of understanding concepts of sustainability were related to their preferences. The use of less polluting machinery and investment in improving irrigation infrastructure were identified as the most preferred actions. Environmental opinions reviewed using the New Ecological Paradigm (NEP) scale allowed for the identification of the participants' ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes, highlighting the commitment of most farmers to the sustainable use of natural resources. Agricultural policies should be developed according to farmers' preferences and behaviors. The design and implementation of measures and policy tools addressing climate change should be inclusive and developed at the micro-level considering farm and farmer typologies.

Keywords: climate change, adaptation, mitigation, sustainable agriculture, environmental factors, Analytical Hierarchy Process, New Ecological Paradigm scale.

1. Introduction and objectives

1.1 Climate change and agriculture

Climate change is one of the most significant challenges facing human society. The ways in which weather events are developing pose social, economic, and environmental risks and are raising more concern with the appearance of various unexpected phenomena such as floods, storms, droughts, and heat waves. Climate change refers to the variation of the earth's climate generated either by natural causes or human actions that affect the variability of climatic parameters such as temperature, rainfall, and drought [Gan et al., 2016].

Climate change compromises sustainable agricultural development, which is based on three converging levels of environmental, economic, and social impact. Climate change is not only an environmental phenomenon, but it has also deep economic and social consequences, especially for vulnerable developing countries, posing great challenges to their agricultural development and welfare [Teshahunegn, Mekonen, & Tekle, 2016]. The effects of climate change are closely related to

47 a decline in economic growth, complicating efforts to reduce poverty and to ensure the food security
48 of marginalized local agricultural communities [López & Hernández, 2016].

49 Agriculture is of great importance to the economic development of developing countries and
50 constitutes the backbone of their economies by providing their populations with food, raw materials,
51 and employment opportunities [Ogen, 2007]. Socially, agriculture forms the basis for achieving food
52 security, which basically depends on the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger [Von Braun,
53 Swaminathan & Rosegrant, 2004]. Agriculture is essential to community livelihoods in rural and
54 marginal areas. In this context, agricultural policies and public intervention in rural communities are
55 necessary tools that contribute to the reduction of poverty as part of an economic and social
56 development approach [Croppenstedt, Knowles, & Lowder, 2018].

57 Climatic patterns are the most significant input factor for agricultural production [Frutos et al.,
58 2018], and their variability is closely related to output productivity. At the same time, the agricultural
59 sector and animal farming in particular constitute an important source of greenhouse gas (GHG)
60 emissions, which are closely related to climate change [Rivera & DiPaola, 2013]. Agriculture in
61 regions of Africa and Latin America is most vulnerable to climate change due to its geographic
62 positioning and because local economies and populations rely heavily on agriculture activities for
63 subsistence purposes, especially in rural and marginal areas [Ortiz, 2012].

64 In the study region examined in the present work, climatic conditions are extreme and have in
65 recent years become even more atypical with high levels of precipitation occurring over short periods
66 and with lower temperatures than normal recorded [Lara et al., 2017]. Such patterns have affected
67 levels of agricultural production and crop quality and jeopardized food security within the region and
68 country. Additionally, climate change projections associated with global warming establish
69 temperature increases of 0.5°C to 1.0°C for 2020 and of 2°C to 4°C for 2080, variations in rainfall of
70 + 10% to -20% by 2050, and a decrease in rainfall of 5% to 30% by 2080 [Flores et al., 2012]. Such
71 patterns will increase vulnerability to flooding and other natural disasters and lead to changes in water
72 availability mainly affecting the agricultural and livestock sectors.

73 Climate change is also related to societal development. Relationships between society,
74 agriculture and economic development in rural areas are closely linked to the consequences of climate
75 change [Valladolid, 2017; Maia, Miyamoto, & Garcia, 2018]. Currently, the effects of climate change
76 in different regions are heterogeneous due to specific human activities and regional economic,
77 climatic, and social characteristics [Frutos et al., 2018]. Therefore, the implementation of strategies
78 to adapt production in agricultural systems or mitigate effects of climate change on outputs must be
79 implemented according to each region, farmers' characteristics and farming activities [Aguiar et al.,
80 2018; López et al., 2016].

81 *1.2 Adaptation and mitigation*

82 Climate change adaptation actions corresponds to initiatives and measures focused on reducing
83 the vulnerability of natural and human systems to effects of actual or expected climate change [IPCC,
84 2014] or on reducing the likelihood of an object, person or system suffering negative impacts. Not
85 considering the effects of climate change has negative implications for adaptation capacities, resulting
86 in a more vulnerable situation that does not contribute to environmentally sustainable agriculture
87 [Wheaton & Kulshreshtha, 2011]. Vulnerability is generally associated with levels of poverty within
88 a region. Adaptation is intended to limit damage caused by current and projected climate change as
89 much as possible [Aguiar et al., 2018]. With respect to climate change adaptation, no industry has
90 more at stake than the agricultural sector [Lee et al., 2014]. Traditional agricultural practices can be
91 considered adaptation tools when applying improved, drought-tolerant strategies while avoiding
92 monoculture production [Altieri et al., 2015; Galindo et al., 2014].

93 Mitigation actions, according to the FAO, are measures adopted to reduce greenhouse gas
94 emissions and/or encourage the elimination of carbon through sinks. Climate change mitigation can
95 be achieved by limiting or preventing the generation of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions and through
96 activities that reduce their concentrations in the atmosphere [IPCC, 2014]. To mitigate climate
97 change, it will be necessary to reduce demand for energy and ensure that energy consumption is based
98 on the use of low-carbon fuels. According to the two above described concepts of adaptation and
99 mitigation, it can be generalized that mitigation is responsible for addressing the causes of climate

100 change while adaptation focuses on reducing the effects of climate change. Since farmers depend
101 heavily on their crops, levels of production positively or negatively affect (their income) their
102 sustainability, reinforcing the need to implement adaptation strategies. Adaptation strategies are key
103 to improving the efficiency and productivity of the agricultural sector [Di Falco et al., 2011] by
104 reducing agricultural vulnerability to climate change.

105 Adaptation activities can range from testing and introducing new more resistant crop varieties to
106 building retaining walls and storm barriers to protect residents and property from flooding [O'Garra,
107 T., & Mourato, 2016]. According to Khanal et al. (2018), adaptation actions with the greatest impacts
108 on productivity are those related to soil and water management, which is followed by a change in the
109 sowing calendar and in crop variety selection [Khanal et al., 2018]. Specifically, a water management
110 adaptation involves investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure, which results in more
111 security in the availability of water for irrigation, in turn reducing dependence on rain cycles, allowing
112 for the reduction of evapotranspiration, and thereby achieving more productivity with less water
113 consumption. Similarly, the implementation of crop and variety changes or of changes in the sowing
114 calendar as adaptation strategies ensures a higher level of production [Khanal et al., 2019]. Climate
115 change mitigation actions are necessary to ensure that long-term agricultural productivity and food
116 security are not compromised, ensuring the sustainability of agricultural production [Acquah., 2011].
117 Through the implementation of mitigation strategies such as zero tillage methods, which allow for
118 soil conservation as erosion decreases, it is possible to generate gains in food productivity [Di Falco
119 et al., 2011].

120 *1.3 Sustainable agriculture*

121 Sustainable agriculture faces two main challenges: the total exploitation of natural resources and
122 environmental pollution [Hoang & Rao, 2010]. The development of sustainable agriculture can help
123 address the impacts of climate change. Sustainable agriculture is based on the implementation of
124 actions that help conserve environmental and economic resources such as water and land inputs
125 [Bertoni et al., 2018]. Sustainable agriculture involves the production of food and other inputs through
126 farmers' efforts and institutional participation in the use of new technologies while preserving the
127 environment and natural resources to meet current societal needs and guarantee a better quality of life
128 without compromising the resources of future generations [Mubiru et al., 2017].

129 Therefore, understanding farmers' views and perceptions regarding climate change and the
130 actions that they consider most effective against its impacts is critical. In particular, the analysis of
131 farmers' preferences for different mitigation and adaptation actions can lead to the development of
132 more sustainable agricultural systems. Such preferences are also related to farmers' views regarding
133 environmental issues and to their ecocentric or anthropocentric beliefs. Environmental and ecological
134 beliefs and opinions are key factors in understanding sustainability concept when related to
135 agricultural activities [Reyna et al., 2018].

136 *1.4 Objectives*

137 Within this context, this research has three objectives

138 Firstly, to identify the relative importance of several climate change adaptation and mitigation
139 actions related to agriculture activities in a marginal region in México in order to guide policy makers
140 through the prioritized solutions that contribute to the sustainability of agricultural systems.

141 Secondly, to identify the most relevant factors based on farmers' attitudes, opinions, and beliefs
142 toward the environment.

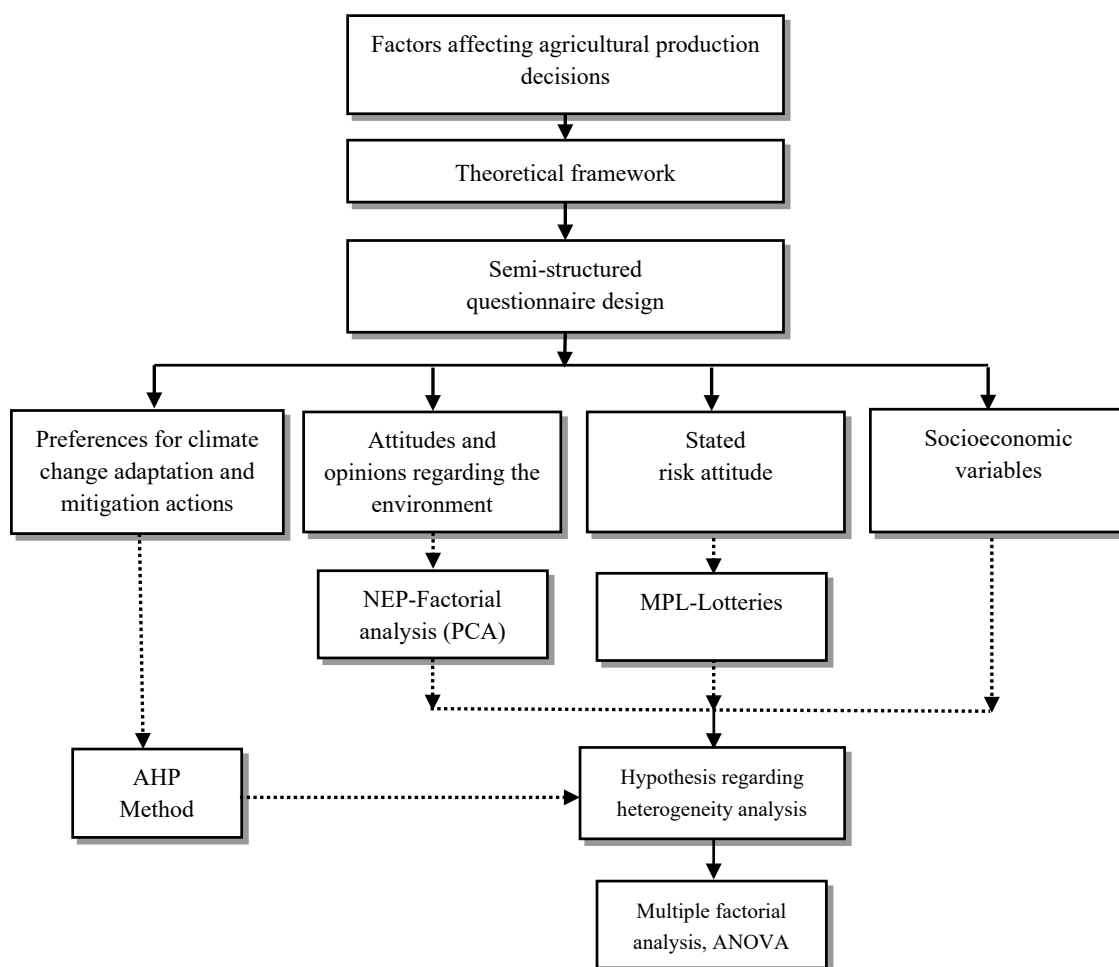
143 Thirdly, to explore how farmers' preferences are related to their environmental beliefs, risk
144 attitudes and socioeconomic characteristics.

145

146 2. Materials and Methods

147 To reach the abovementioned objectives, we conducted face-to-face surveys with a
 148 representative sample of 370 farmers living in northwestern Mexico in an agricultural area identified
 149 as irrigation district 076 (DR076). The Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) was used to identify
 150 farmers' preferences and to estimate the relative importance (i.e. priorities) of different mitigation
 151 and adaptation actions. We also used an adapted form of the New Ecological Paradigm (NEP) Scale
 152 that was validated via factorial analysis (PCA) to identify predominant latent environmental
 153 dimensions. Using the Multiple Price Lists (MPL) method or "lotteries," an alternative approach to
 154 expected utility risk elicitation, the farmers' stated risk attitudes were estimated. Finally, a
 155 heterogeneity analysis was carried out to relate farmers' preferences to actions against climate change
 156 effects based on their environmental and stated risk attitudes toward their farming activities.

157 Figure 1 summarizes the methodological approach applied in this study. In the following section,
 158 more information on our theoretical background and empirical application is given.



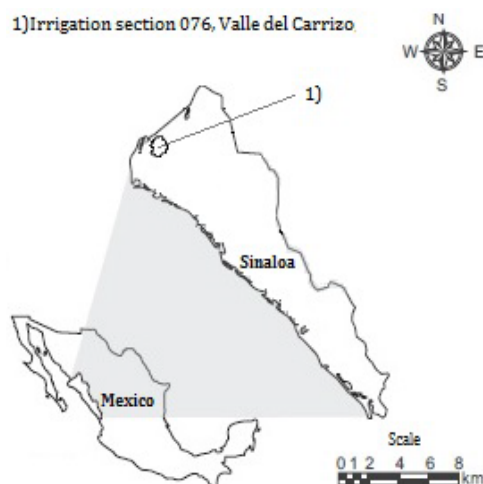
188 **Figure 1.** Methodological research approach.

189 2.1 The case study and sample of farmers

190 The data collected correspond to a representative sample of 370 agricultural producers from
 191 irrigation district 076 in northwestern Mexico (Figure 2). The sample size was determined based on
 192 the formula of finite populations with a confidence level of 95% and an error level of 4.99% [Rojas,
 193 2005]. Data collection was carried out in a stratified manner according to farm sizes (large and small),
 194 farmers' ages (young and old) and sex to represent both men and women within the sample using a
 195 quota sampling approach. The farmers completed semi-structured, face-to-face questionnaires from
 196 October to December 2017. The questionnaire included 108 questions and was divided into several
 197 blocks according to types of information collected. These were classified as 1) farmers' preferences

198 for climate change adaptation and mitigation actions, 2) environmental attitudes and opinions derived
 199 from the NEP scale, 3) stated risk attitudes derived from the MPL approach, and 4) farmers' socio-
 200 economic features [Kallas, et al., 2010] and farm characteristics [Kallas et al., 2012].

201 Each farmer took approximately 40 minutes to answer the interview questions, and interviews
 202 were carried out with the support of students from the Autonomous Intercultural University of Sinaloa
 203 who were trained to deliver the survey. Before the interviews, the survey was reviewed and approved
 204 by the ethics committee of the Autonomous Intercultural University of Sinaloa following the ethical
 205 principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and according to confidentiality rules and a privacy policy
 206 guaranteeing the security of the personal data of each participant. In addition to the above, each
 207 participant was informed of the survey's focus and of how he/she should respond to questions and
 208 was asked to sign a consent form to participate in the study.
 209



211 **Figure 2.** Location of the study area.

212 **2.2 Description of the AHP methodology**

213 The AHP method is a multicriteria analysis tool that was developed by Saaty at the end of the
 214 1970s [Saaty, 2001]. It allows for the improvement in decision-making processes, in turn generating
 215 added value in terms of knowledge [Moreno et al., 1998]. It is important to highlight that decision
 216 making should be understood as a methodical process by which a person or group of people choose(s)
 217 between two or more alternatives with different quantitative or qualitative attributes to achieve an
 218 individual or common good that complies with previously conceived expectations [Moody, 1992].
 219 The AHP technique has been widely used in agricultural research mainly in analyzing farmers to
 220 establish priorities in decision making, resolve agrarian and environmental problems and analyze
 221 marketing issues related to consumers' preferences [Kallas & Gil, 2012; Ndamani & Watanabe, 2017;
 222 Aslam et al., 2018].

223 The AHP method involves 3 main stages: 1) modeling, 2) assessment, and 3) prioritization and
 224 synthesis. These stages form the methodological structure described below.

225 **Stage 1. Modeling.**

226 The activities of this stage, which are described below, include 1) problem definition and 2)
 227 structuring a decision model in the form of a hierarchy.
 228

229 *1. Problem identification and definition.* We found that there was a lack of information on
 230 farmers' preferences in northern Mexico regarding climate change mitigation and adaptation as a
 231 normative framework in the establishment of public policies related to agricultural production to
 232 reduce effects of climate change. Accordingly, several alternative actions were evaluated from a
 233 literature review. Actions implemented to strengthen the resilience of food security systems to climate
 234 change at multiple levels were defined as measures of adaptation, and actions aimed at reducing

235 greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions from agriculture were defined as mitigation measures while taking
 236 into account limitations inherent to the analyzed region [Mussetta et al., 2017].

237 Identified adaptation and mitigation actions (criteria) representing the factors based on which the
 238 hierarchical analysis was carried out include:

239

240 **Adaptation Measures**

241 **A1. Investment in improving irrigation infrastructure.** A lack of basic irrigation infrastructure
 242 restricts agricultural adaptation to climate change. Irrigation infrastructure and to a lesser extent
 243 temperature control techniques (greenhouses) facilitate adaptation to climate change by reducing
 244 climate dependence [Castells et al., 2017].

245 **A2. Change in crops.** Niggol and Mendelson (2008) noted that in Latin America, farmers use
 246 crops change as a way to adapt to climate change, especially where temperature and precipitation
 247 affect the selection of crops, crop yields, and incomes [Niggol & Mendelson, 2008]. Changing
 248 cultivation methods is a good measure of adaptation, especially when it comes to reducing
 249 dependence on water resources, as is the case when less water-intensive crops are used, for instance
 250 [Moniruzzaman, 2015].

251 **A3. Introduce improved and resistant seeds.** Improved seeds can be used by farmers in different
 252 regions to adapt to climate change. Improved seeds, among their other characteristics, develop
 253 quickly; generate high yields; are drought, plague, and pest resistant; and are more resistant to
 254 flooding [Mohamed et al., 2018].

255 **A4. Sowing calendar adaptation.** As a measure of climate change adaptation, the adaptation of
 256 the sowing calendar to changes at the start of the rainy season guarantees optimal growth scenarios
 257 and lower risks of drought in significant periods of planting evolution. On the other hand, the use of
 258 rainwater has greater utility and increases crop yields [Waha et al., 2012].

259

260 **Mitigation Measures**

261 **M1. Organic agriculture.** According to Xiaohong et al. (2011), organic farming uses new
 262 varieties of efficient and sustainable ecological technology and has created new ways to mitigate
 263 agroecosystem emissions through, for example, the use of bio-digesters and those that reduce water
 264 consumption [Xiaohong et al., 2011]

265 **M2. Zero tillage management.** Zero tillage methods effectively mitigate climate change by
 266 enhancing and/or maintaining organic matter in the soil, which lowers greenhouse gas emissions
 267 [Mangalassery et al., 2015]

268 **M3. Renewable energy use.** The agricultural sector can actively mitigate climate change by using
 269 manure as an alternative to fertilizers and by converting agricultural crops and waste into energy to
 270 reduce reliance on non-renewable sources (e.g., through biomass production) [Liu et al., 2017].

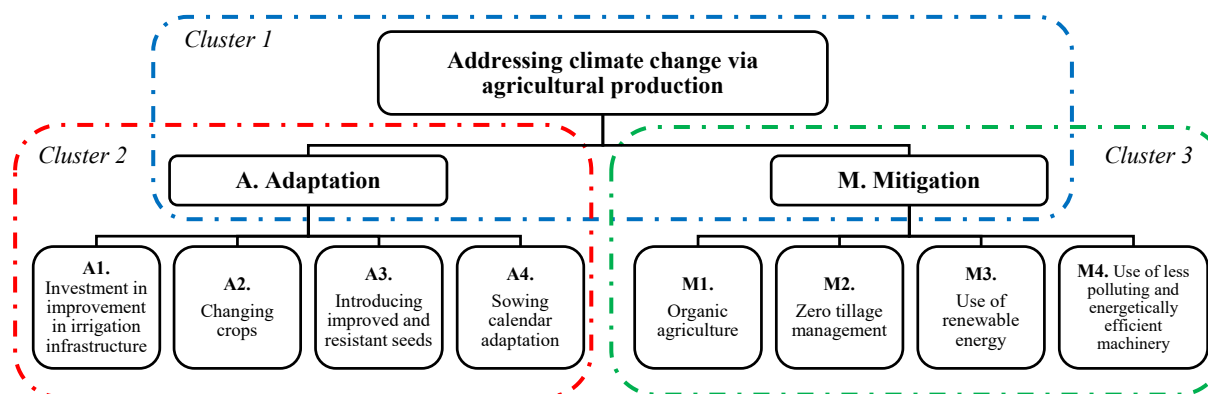
271 **M4. Use of less polluting and energy efficient machinery.** While greenhouse gas emissions are
 272 generally attributed to the energy sector due to the use of fossil fuels via agricultural machinery such
 273 as tractors, irrigation pumps, etc., the use of less polluting agricultural machinery can help mitigate
 274 impacts of climate change [Yue et al., 2017].

275

276 **2. Structuring a decision model as a hierarchy.** Our hierarchical scheme (Figure 3) prioritizes
 277 main criteria (adaptation and mitigation) and sub-criteria (actions) based on what is most accepted
 278 according to farmers' preferences.

279

280



281 **Figure 3.** Decision hierarchy model and identification of clusters that form the decision hierarchy
282 model

283 **Stage 2. Assessment.**

284 This stage corresponds to the third phase in the empirical application of the AHP: 3) model
285 evaluation through paired comparisons of all elements of each cluster level (Figure 3) using the verbal
286 scale of paired comparisons proposed by Saaty (Table 1), from which the relative importance of
287 alternative actions is then estimated.

288 **Table 1.** Verbal scale used for paired comparisons. [Saaty, 1997]

Degree of importance	Scale definition
1	Both criteria are of the same importance. The two compared elements contribute equally to the fulfillment of the parent node.
3	The preferred criterion is slightly more important than the other.
5	The preferred criterion is moderately more important than the other.
7	The preferred criterion is much more important than the other.
9	The preferred criterion is significantly more important than the other.
2, 4, 6, 8	Judgments are made to define the relative importance of compared elements.

289 For the upper cluster level, only one pairwise comparison is applied [$n \times (n-1) / 2 = 2 \times (2-1) / 2 = 1$]
290 on adaptation and mitigation actions. For each of the lower level clusters according to dimension $n =$
291 4 (4 alternatives actions), 6 pairwise comparisons are used [$n \times (n-1) / 2 = 4 \times (4-1) / 2 = 6$], where each
292 alternative of the hierarchy is compared to the remaining alternatives within its cluster at the same
293 hierarchical level depending on the satisfaction it provides to the respondent (farmers). Pairwise
294 comparisons were collected using the scheme outlined below (Table 2):
295
296

Table 2. Paired comparisons included in the questionnaire

Comparison of measures (cluster 1)

A. Adaptation Measures									M. Mitigation Measures								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

A. Comparison of adaptation actions (cluster 2)

A1. Investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure									A2. Change in crops								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A1. Investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure									A3. Introduce improved and resistant seeds								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A1. Investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure									A4. Adaptation of the sowing calendar								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A2. Change in crops									A3. Introduce improved and resistant seeds								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A2. Change in crops									A4. Adaptation of the sowing calendar								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A3. Introduce improved and resistant seeds									A4. Adaptation of the sowing calendar								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

M. Comparison of mitigation actions (cluster 3)

M1. Organic agriculture									M2. Zero tillage management								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
M1. Organic agriculture									M3. Use of renewable energy								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
M1. Organic agriculture									M4. Use of less polluting and energetically efficient machinery								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
M2. Zero tillage management									M3. Use of renewable energy								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
M2. Zero tillage management									M4. Use of less polluting and energetically efficient machinery								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
M3. Use of renewable energy									M4. Use of less polluting and energetically efficient machinery								
9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Stage 3. Prioritization and synthesis.

This phase involves 4) synthesis to identify the best alternative and 5) the examination and verification of a decision that corresponds to the last two activities of the hierarchical analysis process from which priorities (i.e., the relative importance) are estimated.

4. Synthesis to identify the most preferred criteria. For this activity, the joint prioritization of all sub-criteria proposed in the model to select the one that addresses a given problem is carried out; to this point, all comparisons must be drawn between elements of each cluster for each farmer k , from which the corresponding Saaty matrices are obtained (\hat{A}_k), through which local weights of the identified elements are obtained \hat{w}_{ik} according to the preferences of each farmer using the Row Geometric Mean Method (RGMM) [Kallas and Gil, 2012].

314 The estimation of priorities (\hat{w}_{ik}) was carried out using Super Decisions software [Super
315 decision, 2018] designed for the implementation of the AHP methodology. An example of results of
316 pairwise comparison called judgments (\hat{a}_{ijk}) for farmer k in cluster 2 referring to adaptation measures
317 is shown in Table (3).

318 **Table 3.** Example of the calculation of weights based on paired comparisons corresponding
319 to cluster 2, adaptation (A) attributes for individual k = 1.

Functions	A1*	A2*	A1*	A3*	A1*	A4*	A2*	A3*	A2*	A4*	A3*	A4*
Judgment (\hat{a}_{ij})	9		9		9		2		2		2	
	$\hat{a}_{12}=9$	$\hat{a}_{21}=1/9$	$\hat{a}_{13}=9$	$\hat{a}_{31}=1/9$	$\hat{a}_{14}=9$	$\hat{a}_{41}=1/9$	$\hat{a}_{23}=2$	$\hat{a}_{32}=1/2$	$\hat{a}_{24}=2$	$\hat{a}_{42}=1/2$	$\hat{a}_{34}=1/2$	$\hat{a}_{43}=2$

320 A1*. Investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure

321 A2*. Change in crops

322 A3*. Introducing improved and resistant seeds

323 A4*. Adaptation of the sowing calendar

324

325 All judgments (\hat{a}_{ijk}) obtained from the pairwise comparison lead to the construction of a Saaty
326 matrix for farmer k (\hat{A}_k) with dimensions ($n \times n = 4 \times 4$) as follows:

$$\hat{A}_k = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1.1k} & a_{1.2k} & a_{1.3k} & a_{1.4k} \\ a_{2.1k} & a_{2.2k} & a_{2.3k} & a_{2.4k} \\ a_{3.1k} & a_{3.2k} & a_{3.3k} & a_{3.4k} \\ a_{4.1k} & a_{4.2k} & a_{4.3k} & a_{4.4k} \end{bmatrix}$$

327

328 For the example shown in Table 3, the Saaty matrix is:

$$\hat{A}_k = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 9 & 9 & 9 \\ 1/9 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1/9 & 1/2 & 1 & 1/2 \\ 1/9 & 1/2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

329

330 Based on the Saaty matrix, the relative importance (i.e., the weights or priorities) of different actions

331 $\hat{W}_{nk} = (\hat{w}_{1k}, \dots, \hat{w}_{jk}, \dots, \hat{w}_{nk})$ are estimated using the RGM:

$$\hat{W}_{ik} = \sqrt[n]{\prod_{i=1}^{i=n} \hat{a}_{ijk}} \quad (1)$$

332 The previously estimated weights are normalized to the unit.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \hat{w}_{ik} = 1 \quad (2)$$

333 *5. Examination and verification of the decision.* As part of the verification stage, it is important
334 to note that for each generated matrix, the Consistency Ratio (CR) of farmers' answers was calculated
335 according to corresponding mathematical expressions:

$$CR = CI/RI; \quad (3)$$

336 where CI is the Consistence Index obtained as:

$$CI = \frac{\lambda_{max} - n}{n - 1} \quad (4)$$

337 where n= is the number of alternatives and λ_{max} is the maximum value of components of the
338 eigenvector obtained as:

$$\lambda_{\max} = \sum_i \sum_j \hat{a}_{ijk} \hat{w}_{ik} \quad (5)$$

339 RI is the Random Index, which is obtained by multiple random extractions of the Saaty matrix
340 of size $n \times n$ (Table 4).

341 **Table 4.** Values of the random consistency index (RI) based on the size (n) of the matrix.
342 [Saaty, 1994]

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
RI	0.00	0.00	0.58	0.90	1.12	1.24	1.32	1.41	1.45	1.49

343 A value of CR lower than 10% indicates satisfactory consistency for the pairwise comparisons
344 [Siraj et al., 2015]. The AHP is also considered a valid technique for the analysis of group decisions
345 [Easley et al., 2000]. Thus, to obtain an averaged aggregated of different mitigation and adaptation
346 measures for the sample, corresponding individual weights (\hat{W}_{ik}) were aggregated across farmers to
347 obtain a synthesis of weights for each set of criteria (\hat{W}_i). The aggregation was carried out using the
348 Geometric Mean (GM) procedure, which is considered the most suitable method for aggregating
349 individual priorities in a social collective decision-making context [Forman & Peniwati, 1998]:
350

$$w_i = \sqrt[k]{\prod_{k=1}^{k=K} w_{ik}} \quad \forall i \quad (6)$$

351 **2.3 New Ecological Paradigm (NEP) Scale**

352 According to Hawcroft and Milfont, environmental attitudes can be observed through
353 psychological tendencies expressing positive or negative evaluations of the natural environment and
354 that cannot be observed directly and thus it must be inferred. Numerous tools allow one to measure
355 environmental attitudes, among which three psychometric tools are highlighted: The Ecology Scale,
356 The Scale of Environmental Concern and The New Ecological Paradigm. The first two scales refer
357 to very specific environmental issues, while the NEP scale, which is the most widely used, allows
358 one to measure general beliefs based on relationships between humans and their environments
359 [Hawcroft and Milfont, 2010].

360 According to some studies, farmers' beliefs regarding environmental issues can be measured
361 using the NEP scale. This scale analyzes relationships between subjects' beliefs about themselves and
362 nature. The scale reflects the ways in which humans conceptualize nature and interact with it
363 [Vozmediano & Guillen, 2005; Dunlap et al., 2000; Lezak & Thibodeau, 2016].

364 In this study, farmers' preferences regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation actions
365 were analyzed in relation to their environmental beliefs measured through the NEP scale.
366 Predominant latent environmental dimensions of farmers could then be identified. The NEP scale was
367 presented to farmers with an array of statements using a 9-point Likert type scale (Table 5).

368 Individuals' views of the environment can be revealed from their perceptions and attitudes.
369 Using the NEP scale, an exploratory factorial analysis (Principal Component Analysis, PCA) was
370 performed to identify the dimensionality that characterizes farmers by associating the scale's items
371 with several independent dimensions. The identified dimensions allowed us to define latent factors
372 that are present in the participants' environmental attitudes [Gomera et al., 2013]. An exploratory
373 factor analysis (PCA) was carried out with Varimax rotation and using the Statistical Package for the
374 Social Sciences (SPSS, version 23.0). Before carrying out the factorial analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-
375 Olkin sample adaptation measure (KMOS) was applied.
376

377

Table 5. Statements of the New Ecological Paradigm Scale

Fully disagree	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree	Fully agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. The global ecological crisis has been exaggerated								
2. The balance of nature supports the impacts of industrialized countries								
3. Humans may be able to control nature								
4. Human ingenuity will ensure that the earth will not become uninhabitable								
5. Humans were created to dominate nature								
6. Humans have the right to modify the environment and adapt it to their needs								
7. Human interference in nature will have disastrous consequences								
8. Plants and animals have the same rights to exist as human beings								
9. Humans have seriously damaged the environment								
10. The balance of nature is delicate and easily alterable								
11. If things continue as they have, we will soon experience a significant ecological catastrophe								
12. We are approaching the earth's limit in terms of sustaining the global human population								
13. The earth has limited resources								
14. Despite our special abilities, human beings are still subject to the laws of nature								
15. The land has abundant resources, and we just need to learn to exploit them								
16. Sustainable development must apply a balanced approach that controls industrial growth								

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

388

389

390

Theoretically, according to Gomera et al. (2013) and Vozmediano and Guillen (2005), the application of factorial analysis should reveal five dimensions 1) a component related to anthropocentrism, 2) an ecocentric component, 3) limited consciousness, 4) a component related to human confidence in nature and 5) a last component related to perceptions of infinite natural resources.

The first identified component is referred to as anthropocentrism and was measured with affirmations focused on the supremacy of humans over nature. The second component, the ecocentric dimension, was measured with statements focused on the unbalanced state humans have created in nature. The third component reflects consciousness regarding the existence of a limit on nature related to resources of the biosphere. The fourth component measures confidence in human to manage natural resources correctly. The last component reflects perceptions of infinite natural resources and thus humans' indifference to their consumption given the presence of abundant natural resources.

391

2.4 Stated risk attitude: The lotteries approach

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

The stated risk attitude level is related to human behavior, which is specific to each individual decision maker. Individuals prefer options that ensure more utility based on their risk preferences [Mejía, 2015; Brick et al., 2011; Galarza, 2009]. Several methodological approaches have been developed to measure individuals' stated risk attitudes and their relations to actions under a certain degree of uncertainty.

The Multiple Price List (MPL) or "lotteries" have recently been used in agriculture based on the theory of the expected utility $u(x)$ and strength of risk preferences $v(x)$ with the "True Equivalent" used to measure attitudes toward risk [Pennings & Garcia, 2001; Jianjun et al., 2015; Orduño et al. 2018]. The MPL method allows one to identify levels of risk tolerance or aversion through a set of questions posed to decision makers and in our case to farmers. The method examines 8 scenarios with different lottery pairs where one lottery option (option A or option B) is chosen [Drichoutis & Lusk, 2012; Brick et al., 2011].

The level of risk aversion is based on the number of safe answers (option A) the interviewed farmer selects. A farmer who is risk tolerant selects a risky option (option B) for the first scenario. A farmer who is risk neutral selects option A for the first 3 scenarios and selects option B for the remaining scenarios from (4-8 scenarios) while an extremely risk averse farmer selects option A for all 8 scenarios [March et al., 2014]. In the model, the safe option (option A) corresponds to a 100%

409 probability of succeeding, and the risky option (option B) corresponds to a 50% probability of
410 obtaining \$100 and a 50% probability of obtaining \$0 (based on a coin toss) in all scenarios. Amounts
411 provided by option A are progressively decreased across all 8 scenarios to the following amounts:
412 \$00, \$75, \$60, \$ 50, \$40, \$30, \$20, and \$10. The experimental design structure of the risk elicitation
413 question is illustrated in the questionnaire available in the supplementary file Q_1v2 (Question 35).

414 ***2.5 Hypotheses analyzed***

415 Based on the above literature, the below hypotheses are tested:

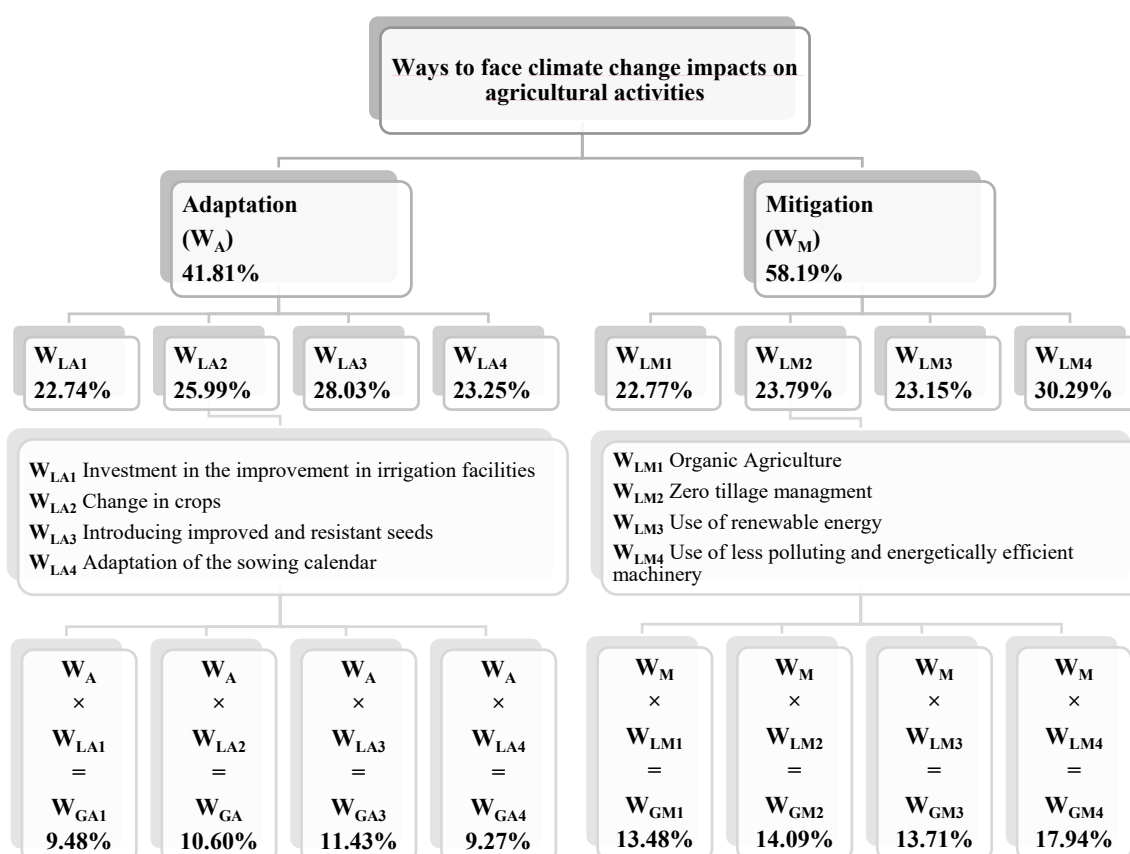
- 416 1. H1: Farmers' estimated preferences regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation
417 (AHP) are related to their attitudes and opinions regarding the environment (NEP scale).
- 418 2. H2: Farmers' preferences regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation (AHP) are
419 related to their stated risk attitudes (MPL lotteries).
- 420 3. H3: Farmers' preferences regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation (AHP) are
421 related to socioeconomic and farm characteristics.

422
423 All the above hypotheses were tested through an analysis of variance using the ANOVA method.
424 Preferences regarding climate change adaptation and mitigation were related to the two main latent
425 factors (ecocentric and anthropocentric) defined from the NEP via factorial analysis (PCA).

426
427

428 **3. Results**429 **3.1 Farmers' preferences for adaptation and mitigation actions**

430 The estimated average weighting of adaptation and mitigation actions based on the AHP is
 431 presented in Figure 4. The results reflect farmers' prioritization of different ways to face the impacts
 432 of climate change on their activities. Weights (i.e., relative importance) were estimated at the local
 433 (i.e., for each cluster from local weights) and global levels (i.e., for the hierarchy level from global
 434 weights).



435 **Figure 4.** Average relative relevance weights determined by AHP analysis according to farmers'
 436 opinions (WA: local weight of adaptation measures group, WM: local weight of mitigation measures
 437 group, WLA: local weight of a specific (n) adaptation measure, WLM: local weight of a specific (n)
 438 mitigation measure, WGA: global weight of a specific (n) adaptation measure and WGM: global
 439 weight of a specific (n) mitigation measure).
 440

441 The estimated average weights show that mitigation actions were deemed the most important
 442 options with a higher relative relevance of 58.18%. For each farmer we then estimated actions deemed
 443 the most preferred (Figure 5).

444 According to the farmers' preferences, which were identified from the global weight of each
 445 individual farmer, the use of less polluting machinery was the most preferred action. The second most
 446 preferred action was investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure (17.57%). The
 447 changing of crops was deemed the third most preferred action, accounting for (17.30%) of the
 448 farmers' answers. Zero tillage management was the fourth most preferred action (16.22%).

449 The use of renewable energy was the least preferred option and was selected by 5.95% of the
 450 farmers.

Farmers' preferences for adaptation and mitigation actions

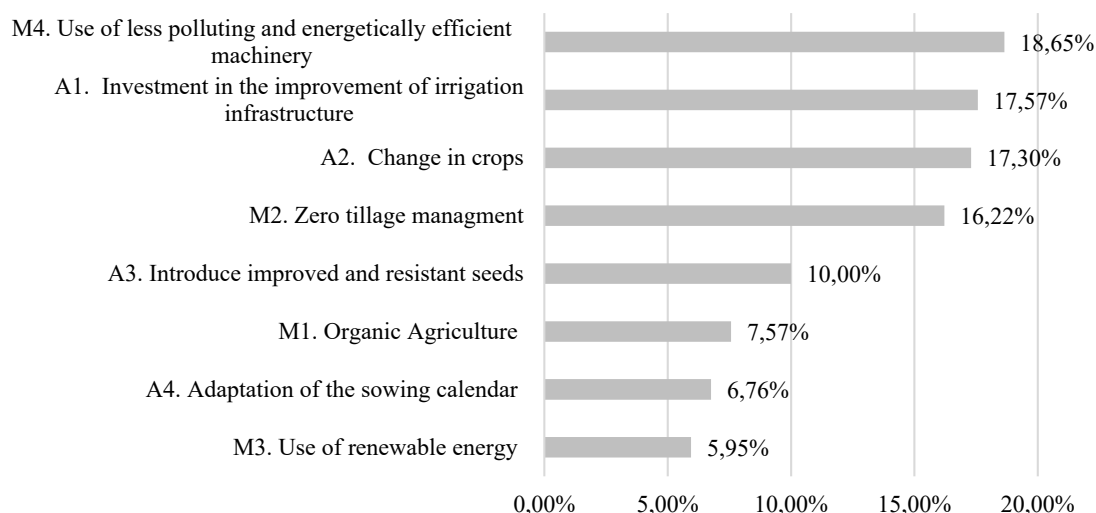


Figure 5. Farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and mitigation actions.

451
452

3.2 H1: Relations between environmental attitudes and farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and mitigation actions

453
454

455 According to the results of our first PCA applied to items of the NEP scale, with a KMOS of
456 0.747 indicating that the reduction in dimensionality is relevant, the variability explained by the model
457 with 5 components is 67.11%. For this PCA, the first component included items 10, 11, 12, 13, 14
458 and 16 on ecocentric attitudes. The second component grouped items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8 related to an
459 anthropocentric attitude, among which item 8 is negatively related. The last three components
460 correspond to one or no significant item with relatively low percentages of explained variance.
461 Furthermore, items 1 and 7 do not contribute significantly to any component. Another PCA was then
462 carried out on the 12 items related to the anthropocentric and ecocentric dimensions. In this case, the
463 KMOS test generated a result of 0.754 and the variability explained by the factorial analysis of the
464 two 2 components was measured as 52.98%. This reduction in the NEP scale allowed for a better
465 definition of components by clearly differentiating the regrouping of item 8 with attitudes related to
466 an ecocentric attitude.

467

468 **Table 6.** Grouped reduced NEP scale according to each item's contribution to the new
469 components

New ecological paradigm scale items	Factor 1 Ecocentric	Factor 2 Anthropo- Centric
11. If things continue as they have, we will soon experience a significant ecological catastrophe	0.81	-0.08
10. The balance of nature is delicate and easily alterable	0.78	0.06
14. Despite our special abilities, human beings are still subject to the laws of nature	0.69	0.16
12. We are approaching the earth's limit in terms of sustaining the human population	0.63	0.13
16. Sustainable development must apply a balanced approach that controls industrial growth	0.63	0.26
8. Plants and animals have the same rights to exist as human beings	0.59	-0.18
13. The earth has limited resources	0.52	0.46
3. Humans may be able to control nature	0.00	0.80
4. Human ingenuity will ensure that the earth will not become uninhabitable	0.06	0.77
5. Humans were created to dominate nature	0.04	0.75
6. Humans have the right to modify the environment to adapt it to their needs	0.04	0.71
2. The balance of nature supports the impact of industrialized countries	0.16	0.70
Extraction method: PCA. Rotation method: Varimax standardization with Kaiser.		
Total explained variance		52.98%

470 Ecocentric and anthropocentric environmental attitudes

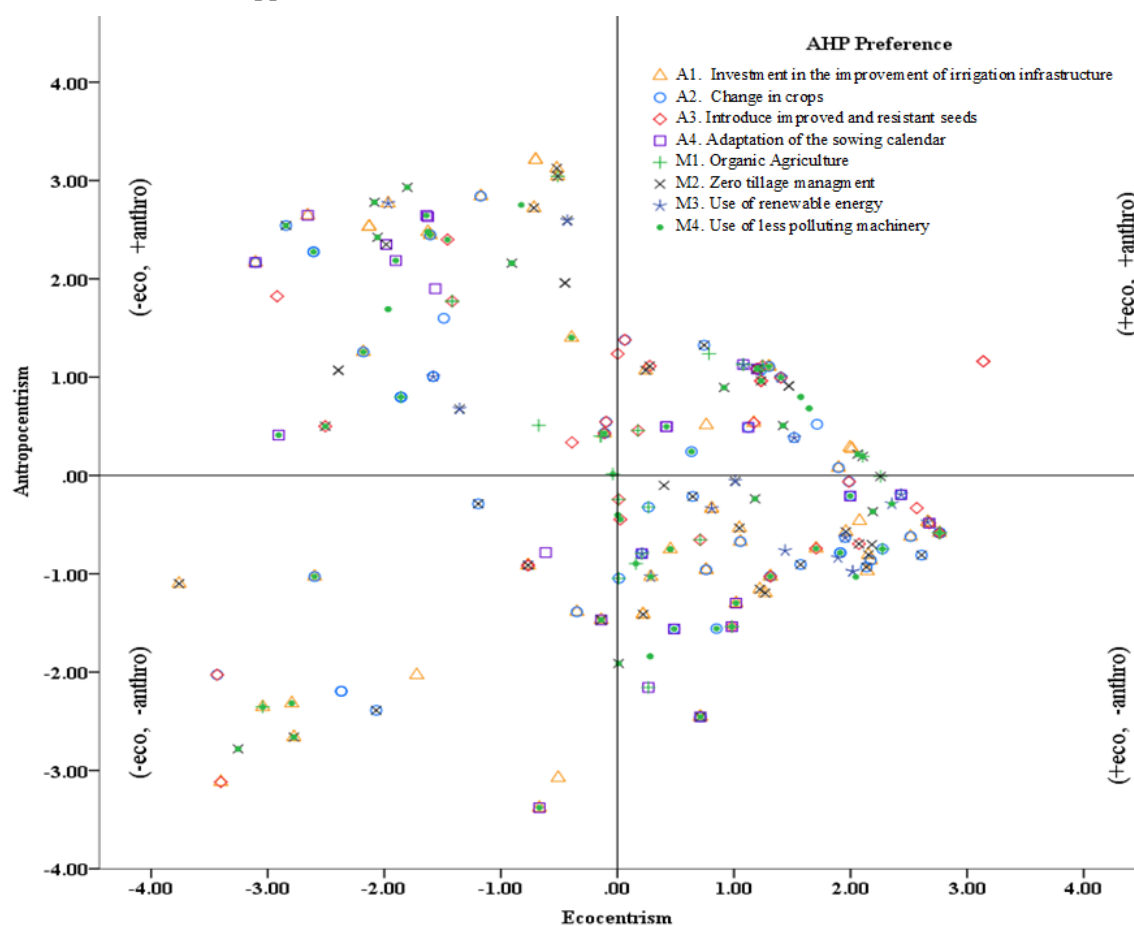
471 The farmers' distribution according to the reduced NEP scale can be observed in Figure 6. Two
 472 main relevant behaviors are identified: ecocentric and anthropocentric environmental attitudes.
 473 Accordingly, each farmer is positioned within two principal axes representing the main factors.

474 Four potential positions are specified in four quadrants: quadrant (+eco, +anthro) corresponds
 475 to farmers agreeing with both attitudes in favor of nature and in favor of humans' priorities in using
 476 natural resources. This space may represent inconsistencies between farmers regarding their attitudes
 477 towards the environment.

478 For this same context, quadrant (-eco, -anthro) may also reflect farmers' inconsistencies
 479 regarding their stated opinions towards the environment, highlighting their disagreement with views
 480 that place nature above humans and with those that place humans above nature.

481 Quadrant (-eco, +anthro) refers to farmers who agreed with anthropocentric attitudes but
 482 disagreed with ecocentric views, thus representing farmers who believe that humans are above nature
 483 and that there is therefore no limit to the use of natural resources. The protection of nature in this case
 484 should only be aim at enhancing the quality of human life.

485 Finally, quadrant (+eco, -anthro) groups farmers who agreed with ecocentric attitudes and
 486 showed disagreement with anthropocentric behaviors. These farmers believe that nature should be
 487 protected because it is vulnerable to the actions of humans and that humans must limit its use and
 488 perform actions that support nature.



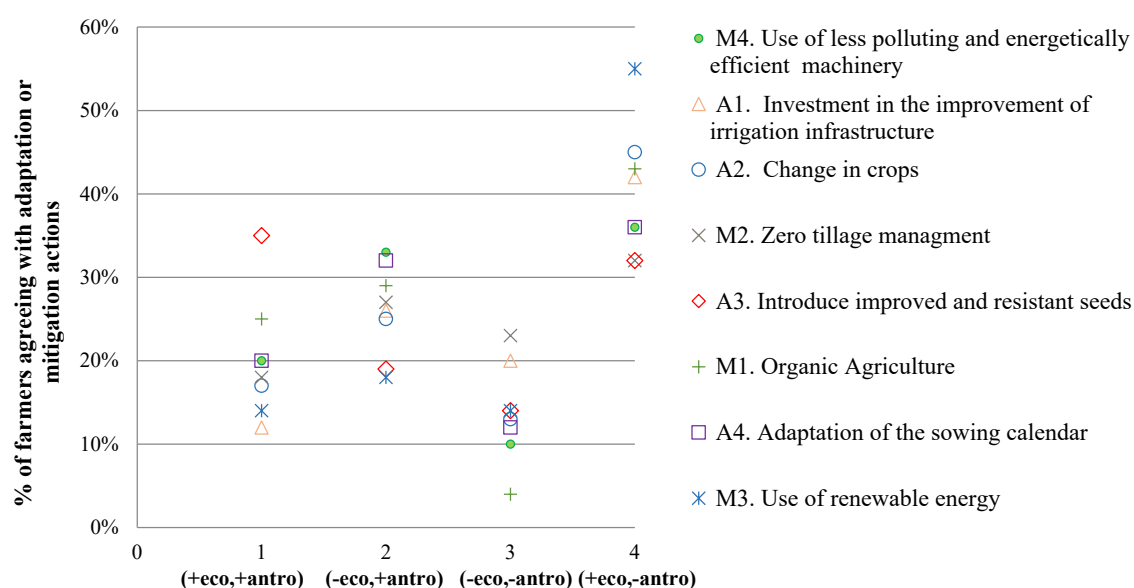
490 **Figure 6.** Farmers' distributions on the reduced NEP scale, ecocentric and anthropocentric dimensions,
 491 and relations to farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and mitigation actions. +eco denotes
 492 that farmers agree with ecocentric attitudes, -eco denotes that farmers disagree with ecocentric attitudes,
 493 +anthro denotes that farmers agree with anthropocentric attitudes, and -anthro denotes that farmers
 494 disagree with anthropocentric attitudes.

495 The farmers' distribution on the abovementioned four quadrants shows that the majority (39%)
 496 exhibited a clearly positive ecocentric attitude (+ eco, - anthro), highlighting positive views of the
 497 environment in the studied region. However, 27% of the farmers exhibited a clear anthropocentric
 498 attitude (- eco, + anthro) and an interest in protecting nature only if for a clear economic benefit. The
 499 remaining farmers exhibited less clearly defined opinions regarding the environment where 15%
 500 exhibited negative views toward ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes (- eco, - anthro) while 19%
 501 exhibited positive views toward ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes (+ eco, + anthro).

502 The two abovementioned factors are related to farmers' preferences towards mitigation and
 503 adaptation actions obtained from the AHP. The results (Figure 7) show that the ecocentric and
 504 anthropocentric dimensions are closely related to the farmer's preferences. The mitigation and
 505 adaptation actions presented in Figure 7 are ordered according to their relative importance as
 506 discussed in Figure 6. An interpretation of the results shown in Figure 7 must be carried out
 507 horizontally by comparing the relative importance (%) of each action across the four quadrants.

508 The most preferred climate change adaptation and mitigation action (the *use of less polluting and energetically efficient machinery*, M4) was principally selected by farmers who exhibited a positive view of the environment (+eco, -anthro). The remaining mitigation and adaptation actions were also more important for farmers exhibiting more ecocentric views of the environment (+eco, -anthro). As an exception, one action (*to introduce improved and resistant seeds*, A3) was preferred more by farmers that do not exhibit a clear attitude toward the environment (+eco, +anthro).

514 The results listed vertically in Figure 7 show that farmers with the most ecocentric attitudes (+
 515 eco, -anthro) exhibited the strongest preferences for *the use of renewable energy* (M3).



516

517 **Figure 7.** Farmers' distribution by preferences according to a combination of their positive or
 518 negative views of ecocentric and anthropocentric attitudes (4 quadrants).

519 3.3 H2: Stated risk attitudes and farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and 520 mitigation actions

521 The MPL results regarding stated risk attitudes show that 51.35% of the farmers are risk averse,
 522 7.57% are neutral, and 41.08% are risk tolerant. The heterogeneity analysis shows that the stated risk
 523 attitudes and farmers' preferences for adaptation and mitigation actions are not clearly related.
 524 Through the analysis conducted, no significant relationship was found between preferences for
 525 adaptation and mitigation actions and the stated risk level, though it is clearly related to other
 526 socioeconomic and management variables for farmers.
 527

528 **3.4 H3: Farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and mitigation actions and their**
 529 **socioeconomic characteristics**

530 Regarding the socioeconomic characteristics of the sample, most of the farmers surveyed were
 531 between 41 and 60 years of age (52%), followed by farmers over 60 years of age (28.38%) and those
 532 under 41 years of age. Only 11% of the agricultural producers were women, and the average number
 533 of family members was recorded as 3.78.

534 Our analysis of socioeconomic characteristics also shows that 76% of the participants' incomes
 535 are generated from agricultural activities. Approximately, 68% of the producers had received a
 536 subsidy mainly used (60%) to cover operating costs while 12.3% of farmers had applied it to invest
 537 in agricultural equipment and technology. Most of the farmers (63%) do not usually use any type of
 538 agricultural insurance. Most of the participants owned their agricultural land (79%), and the main
 539 products grown included wheat (29%), alfalfa (24%) and soybeans (9.73%).

540 Socioeconomic characteristics measured related to preferred mitigation and adaptation actions
 541 included the following: adopting contracted agricultural insurance, having credit for a farming land
 542 tenure regime, belonging to an agricultural association, selection of crops, and farmer's age and sex.

543 The results for these variables show that farmers without crop insurance prefer the "change in
 544 crops" measure, while those with insurance prefer "the use of less polluting and energetically efficient
 545 machinery" to reduce the impacts of climate change. On the other hand, farmers with crop insurance
 546 have less concerns regarding the impacts of climate change and thus exhibit a preference towards
 547 other actions that principally reduce negative effects on the environment.

548 Farmers with credit for farming activities and agricultural insurance and belonging to an
 549 agricultural association prefer "the use of less polluting and energetically efficient machinery" and
 550 grow onions, chili peppers, corn, soybeans, sorghum, and triticale. Furthermore, farmers without
 551 credit for farming activity and with private property under a land tenure regime who grow sweet
 552 potatoes prefer to increase investment in the improvement in irrigation infrastructure.

553 Mitigation action "zero tillage management" was preferred by farmers without credit for farming
 554 activity, who do not belong to an agricultural association and principally grow watermelon and
 555 cartamo.

556 Finally, farmers under 40 years of age prefer "investment in the improvement in irrigation
 557 infrastructure," farmers 40 to 60 years of age prefer the "change in crop" approach, and farmers over
 558 60 years of age prefer "zero tillage management."

559 **4. Discussion**

560 **4.1 Farmers' preferences for adaptation and mitigation actions**

561 Overall, the above results show that farmers in the study region prefer to implement mitigation
 562 actions to address climate change. These results are in agreement with those obtained by Bragado
 563 (2016), who found that mitigation actions are prioritized within the agricultural sector in addressing
 564 climate change effects.

565 The most preferred action among the studied farmers involves the "use of less polluting
 566 machinery," which indicates that public policy decisions should focus on promoting the use of less
 567 polluting and highly efficient agricultural machinery. This outcome was also proposed by Xu and
 568 Lin, who recommend that local governments encourage the use of energy efficient, less polluting
 569 agricultural machinery to support environmentally friendly production [Xu & Lin, 2017].

570 Due to water scarcity, which it is becoming more frequent in the studied region, water
 571 management agencies have been forced to frequently restrict volumes and periods of water use for
 572 irrigation, subjecting crops to water stress [Ojeda et al., 2012] and causing farmers to prefer
 573 investment in improving irrigation infrastructure. Investment in irrigation infrastructure increases
 574 water use efficiency [Nelson, 2009] and may lead to a high degree of water loss. It is worth mentioning
 575 that in the presence of poor irrigation infrastructure, more than 55% of water used is wasted [Sifuentes
 576 et al., 2015].

577 Crop change (polyculture) methods exhibit more stability with less loss of productivity during
 578 drought seasons because they allow crops to reach acceptable levels of productivity even under
 579 unusual climatic conditions and environmental stress. Crop change can ensure a certain level of

580 productivity in the midst of climate change. The approach can also address future social and economic
 581 needs as Altieri and Nicholls indicate [Altieri & Nicholls, 2009], corroborating our finding that
 582 farmers favor such actions third in terms of their preferences.

583 Alternative zero tillage management was identified as the fourth most preferred mitigation
 584 strategy among farmers in the study region. Lau, Jarvis and Ramírez (2011) and Nichols and Altieri
 585 (2013) have also advocated for zero tillage as a feasible mitigation action [Lau et al., 2011; Altieri &
 586 Nicholls, 2013].

587 All the above actions are closely related to economic benefits at the farm level. The adoption of
 588 less polluting and efficient machinery reduces fuel oil consumption and thus reduces production costs.
 589 Investment in irrigation infrastructure increases the productivity and quality of crops, optimizes the
 590 use of water, and decreases water waste [Nelson, 2009 and Khanal et al., 2019]. Crop changes increase
 591 productivity and decreases costs due to a lesser use of fertilizers and agrochemicals, which positively
 592 affects farm productivity [Moniruzzaman, 2015 and Khanal et al., 2018]. The adoption of zero tillage
 593 management reduces production costs, as it lowers tilling labor costs and may reduce the use of
 594 chemicals and phytosanitary methods. Zero tillage methods are usually related to organic agriculture,
 595 which may also increase the price of products [Kallas et al., 2010]. The use of renewable energy was
 596 preferred least by the farmers corroborating studies showing the need for strong investment to
 597 encourage the use of renewable energy facilities that may mitigate climate change [Kung & McCarl,
 598 2018]. In general terms, farmers prefer options that minimize the impacts of climate change while at
 599 the same time providing them a perceived benefit in the short run at the farm level.

600 ***4.2 H1: Relations between environmental attitudes and farmers' preferences for climate change*** 601 ***adaptation and mitigation actions***

602 Regarding farmers' environmental attitudes, which are described by Gomera et al. (2013) and
 603 Reyna et al. (2018) as ecocentric and anthropocentric environmental attitudes, and regarding farmers'
 604 preferences to mitigate or adapt to climate change, the most preferred action, "the use of less polluting
 605 and energetically efficient machinery," was selected by farmers with positive attitudes toward the
 606 environment.

607 As Hajjar and Kozak (2015) argue, ecocentrics might be interested in using more
 608 environmentally sustainable technologies, while farmers without clear views on the environment
 609 prefer "introducing improved and resistant seeds." For this adaptation measure, farmers may seek to
 610 enhance their economic benefits through the implementation of a simple mitigation or adaptation
 611 action without considering positive or negative effects on the environment. Ecocentric farmers
 612 believing that nature should be protected showed the strongest preference for the use of renewable
 613 energy and mitigation actions to face climate change. This group clearly exhibited the strongest
 614 concerns regarding the environment and a clear tendency toward using more environmentally friendly
 615 technology [Hajjar and Kozak, 2015].

616 ***4.3 H2: Stated risk attitudes and farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and*** 617 ***mitigation actions***

618 Our risk level results show that most of the studied farmers were risk averse. This is at first
 619 unexpected, as most of the studied farmers do not use agricultural insurance. However, our findings
 620 are in line with those of Jianjun et al. (2015), who used MPL and found an unclear relation between
 621 risk attitudes and preferences for climate change adaptation and mitigation [Jianjun et al., 2015].

622 According to Palm (1998), most risk-averse individuals tend to take preventive and protective
 623 actions against potential damages [Lopez & De Paz, 2007]. Farmers in our study region were found
 624 to be mostly risk averse, which would imply that they have a strong willingness to carry out actions
 625 in favor of reducing the effects of climate change through adaptation or mitigation actions.

626 The non-significant relationship found between preferences for adaptation and mitigation actions
 627 and the stated risk level could be explained by the fact that all actions were identified by farmers as
 628 protective measures against potentially negative impacts of climate change. Preferences for
 629 adaptation and mitigation measures among farmers in the study region are also related to other
 630 variables concerning farmers' and farm characteristics and farmers' decisions made in relation to their
 631 activities [Orduño et al., 2018].

632 **4.4 H3: Farmers' preferences for climate change adaptation and mitigation actions and their**
 633 **socioeconomic characteristics**

634 Our results show that farmers without crop insurance preferred the “change in crops” adaptation
 635 strategy, while those with insurance preferred “the use of less polluting and energetically efficient
 636 machinery.” This result may be attributed to the fact that a change in crops increases productivity and
 637 thus insures farmers' incomes against impacts of climate change. This preference affords farmers
 638 confidence in terms of having enough income to support their planting commitments [Altieri &
 639 Nicholls, 2009].

640 Our findings show that farmers who do not need credit for their agricultural activities and who
 641 grow potatoes prefer “investment in improving irrigation infrastructure,” which may be related to the
 642 fact that potato crops are very sensitive to a lack of water [FAO, 2008]. These preference patterns
 643 show that farmers are more concerned with using water solution technologies to reduce the impacts
 644 of climate change in the region. This same outcome was found for farmers under 40 years of age,
 645 showing that young individuals are more sensitive to water use and waste [Rodríguez & Jiménez,
 646 2014]. Farmers aged 40 to 60 years instead prefer the “change in crop” approach, which may be linked
 647 to an interest in ensuring economic benefits. Finally, farmers over 60 years of age prefer “zero tillage
 648 management,” which could be associated with farmers' experience. The “zero tillage management”
 649 approach is also preferred by farmers who grow watermelon and cartamo and who do not have credit
 650 for their farming activities. This outcome could be related to the fact that watermelon and cartamo do
 651 not require an extensive land preparation, thus rendering zero tillage methods a viable mitigation
 652 option [Moreno et al., 2013; Valdez et al., 2012].

653 **5. Conclusions**

654 This study contributes to the literature by furthering available knowledge that can inform policy
 655 makers regarding support and subsidies related to agricultural production that better meet farmers'
 656 needs and preferences. This may enhance the effectiveness of policy measures by stimulating
 657 preferred actions that improve farmers' social and economic welfare. It may also guide current public
 658 support to prioritize measures that promote the development of more sustainable agriculture activities
 659 at regional and national levels. At the methodological level, this paper contributes to the few studies
 660 jointly using the AHP in relation to farmers' preferences with the NEP scale and MPL risk approach,
 661 particularly in reference to México.

662 To effectively face the impacts of climate change on agriculture implies the implementation of
 663 mitigation and adaptation actions according to farmers' interests and preferences. In general terms,
 664 farmers tend to prefer adaptation actions or mitigation actions because the former are perceived to
 665 offer benefits sooner when adopted. Farmers with ecocentric attitudes exhibited a greater willingness
 666 to adopt measures against climate change, while those with anthropocentric views principally
 667 exhibited stronger preferences for activities related to improvements in their productivity.

668 Through the Analytical Hierarchy Process, farmers were found to prioritize actions that
 669 implicitly provide economic benefits over the short run. The use of efficient, less polluting machinery
 670 was identified as one of the best alternative options not only due to its positive impacts on the
 671 environment but also due to its economic benefits in terms of reducing energy costs at the farm level.

672 Our results show that farmers' preferences for mitigation and adaptation actions are closely
 673 related to the types of crops cultivated. Investment in improving irrigation infrastructure as an
 674 adaptation activity was widely accepted by farmers with water availability issues who grow sweet
 675 potatoes. This adaptation action helps farmers optimize their water use and address water availability
 676 issues in the region by increasing their productivity and limiting the water waste. Adopting a change
 677 in crops grown as an adaptation action was also preferred by farmers who grow sorghum. Also, a
 678 preference for the zero tillage mitigation approach was found to be related to watermelon and cartamo
 679 cultures.

680 Agricultural public policy decisions must consider farmers' preferences towards mitigation and
 681 adaptation actions when designing and implementing measures that ensure sustainable agriculture.
 682 Policy tools and interventions must be inclusive and developed at the micro-level based on farm
 683 typologies, and crop diversity must be encouraged.

684

685 **Author Contributions:** M.A.O.T conceived and designed the study, conducted analyses, collected data, and
 686 wrote the manuscript; Z.K. conceived and designed the research study, reviewed and edited the manuscript and
 687 supervised all procedures; S.I.O.H conducted the analysis and helped write the manuscript.

688 **Funding:** This research received no external funding.

689 **Acknowledgments:** The National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT) is acknowledged for
 690 supporting this research.

691 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

692 References

- 693 1. Acquah, H. D., 2011. Farmers perception and adaptation to climate change: A willingness to pay analysis. *Journal*
 694 *of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 13(5), 150-161.
- 695 2. Aguiar, W. P. & Cruz, Y. R., 2018. Gestión integrada de la formación, investigación y extensión universitaria
 696 para la adaptación al cambio climático/Management of the Formation, Investigation and University Extension
 697 for Adapting to Climatic Change. *Estudios del Desarrollo Social: Cuba y América Latina*. 6(3), 83-96.
- 698 3. Altieri, M. A. & Nicholls, C. I., 2009. Cambio climático y agricultura campesina: impactos y respuestas
 699 adaptativas. *LEISA revista de agroecología*. 14, 5-8.
- 700 4. Altieri, M. A. & Nicholls, C. I., 2008. Los impactos del cambio climático sobre comunidades campesinas y de
 701 agricultores tradicionales y sus respuestas adaptativas. *Agroecología*. 3, 7-28.
- 702 5. Altieri, M. A.; Nicholls, C. I. & Henao, A., 2015. Agroecology and the design of climate change-resilient farming
 703 systems. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 35, 869–890. [https://doi.org/ 10.1007/s13593-015-0285-2](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-015-0285-2)
- 704 6. Altieri, M. A. & Nicholls, C. I., 2013. Agroecología y resiliencia al cambio climático: Principios y
 705 consideraciones metodológicas. *Agroecología*. 8 (1): 7-20.
- 706 7. Aslam, A. Q.; Ahmad, I.; Ahmad, S. R.; Hussain, Y.; Hussain, M. S.; Shamshad, J. & Zaidi, S. J. A., 2018.
 707 Integrated climate change risk assessment and evaluation of adaptation perspective in southern Punjab, Pakistan.
 708 *Science of the Total Environment*. 628, 1422-1436. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.02.129>
- 709 8. Bertoni, D.; Cavicchioli, D.; Donzelli, F.; Ferrazzi, G.; Frisio, D.G.; Pretolani, R.; Ricci, E.C. & Ventura, V.,
 710 2018. Recent Contributions of Agricultural Economics Research in the Field of Sustainable Development.
 711 *Agriculture*. 8, 200. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture8120200>
- 712 9. Bragado M. A., 2016. El Régimen Internacional del Cambio Climático y los Retos para México. El Colegio de
 713 San Luis A.C. San Luis Potosí.
- 714 10. Brick, K.; Visser, M. & Burns, J., 2012. Risk Aversion: Experimental Evidence from South African Fishing
 715 Communities. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*. 94(July), pp.133–152.
- 716 11. Castells, D.; Lopez, M. & McDermott, T., 2018. Adaptation to climate change: A review through a development
 717 economics lens. *World Development*. 104, 183–196. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2017.11.016>
 718 https://www.ipcc.ch/site/assets/uploads/2018/03/WGIII_TAR_full_report.pdf (accessed on 15 January 2019).
- 719 12. Croppenstedt, A.; Knowles, M. & Lowder, S., 2018. Social protection and agriculture: Introduction to the special
 720 issue. *Global Food Security*. 16, 65–68. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2017.09.006>
- 721 13. Di Falco, S.; Veronesi, M. & Yesuf, M., 2011. Does adaptation to climate change provide food security? A micro-
 722 perspective from Ethiopia. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*, 93(3), 829-846.
- 723 14. Drichoutis, A. & Lusk, J., 2012. What Can Multiple Price Lists Really Tell Us about Risk Preferences? Munich
 724 Personal RePEc Archive. MPRA Paper. Available online:
 725 <http://www2.aueb.gr/conferences/Crete2013/papers/Drichoutis.pdf> (accessed on 10 August 2018).
- 726 15. Dunlap, R.; Liere, K. V.; Mertig, A. & Jones, R. E., 2000. Measuring Endorsement of the New Ecological
 727 Paradigm: A Revised NEP Scale. *Journal of Social Issues*. 56(3), 425-442. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00176>
- 728 16. Easley, R.; Valacich, J. & Venkataramanan, M.A., 2000. Capturing group preferences in a multicriteria decision.
 729 *European Journal of Operational Research*. 125, 73-83.
- 730 17. Flores, L.; Arzola, J.; Ramírez, M.; Osorio, A., 2012. Global Climate Change Impacts in the Sinaloa State,
 731 México. *Cuad. Geogr. Rev. Colomb. Geogr.* 21, 115–129. <https://doi.org/10.15446/rcdg.v21n1.25562>.
- 732 18. Forman, E. & Peniwati, K., 1998. Aggregating individual judgments and priorities with the Analytic Hierarchy
 733 Process. *European Journal of Operational Research*. 108, 165-169.
- 734

- 735
736
737
738
739
740
741
742
743
744
745
746
747
748
749
750
751
752
753
754
755
756
757
758
759
760
761
762
763
764
765
766
767
768
769
770
771
772
773
774
775
776
777
778
779
780
781
782
783
784
785
786
787
19. Frutos, J.; Gobin, A. & Buysse, J., 2018. Farm-level adaptation to climate change: The case of the Loam region in Belgium. *Agricultural Systems*. 165, 164–176. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agsy.2018.06.007>
 20. Galarza, F., 2009. *Choices under Risk in Rural Peru*; University of Wisconsin: Madison, WI, USA.
 21. Galindo, L.; Samaniego, L.; Alatorre, J.; Ferrer, J. & Reyes, O., 2014. Cambio climático, agricultura y pobreza en América Latina: Una aproximación empírica. *Estudios del cambio climático en américa latina*.
 22. Gomera, A.; Villamandos, F. & Vaquero, M., 2013. Construction of indicators of environmental beliefs from the NEP scale. *Acción psicológica*. 10, 147-160. ISSN: 1578-908X 149
 23. Hajjar, R. & Kozak, R. A., 2015. Exploring public perceptions of forest adaptation strategies in Western Canada: Implications for policy-makers. *Forest Policy and Economics*, 61, 59-69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.forpol.2015.08.004>
 24. Hawcroft, L. & Milfont, T.L., 2010. The use (and abuse) of the new environmental paradigm scale over the last 30 years: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 30, 143–158.
 25. Hoang, V. N. & Rao, D. P., 2010. Measuring and decomposing sustainable efficiency in agricultural production: A cumulative exergy balance approach. *Ecological economics*. 69(9), 1765-1776.
 26. <https://www.superdecisions.com/> (accessed on 3 July 2018).
 27. IPCC., 2014. Cambio climático 2014: Informe de síntesis. Contribución de los Grupos de trabajo I, II y III al Quinto Informe de Evaluación del Grupo Intergubernamental de Expertos sobre el Cambio Climático [Equipo principal de redacción, R.K. Pachauri y L.A. Meyer (eds.)]. IPCC, Ginebra, Suiza. 157 págs.
 28. Jianjun, J.; Yiwei, G.; Xiaomin, W. & Khanh Nam, P., 2015. Farmers' risk preferences and their climate change adaptation strategies in the Yongqiao District, China. *Land Use Policy*. 47, 365–372. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2015.04.028>
 29. Kallas, Z. & Gil, J., 2012. Combining contingent valuation with the analytical hierarchy process to decompose the value of rabbit meat. *Food Quality and Preference*. 24, 251–259. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2011.11.006>
 30. Kallas, Z.; Escobar, C. & Gil, J., 2012. Assessing the impact of a Christmas advertisement campaign on Catalan wine preference using Choice Experiments. *Appetite*. 58, 285–298. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2011.09.017>
 31. Kallas, Z.; Serra, T. & Gil, J., 2010. Farmers' objectives as determinants of organic farming adoption: the case of Catalanian vineyard production. *Agricultural Economics*. 41(5): 409–423.
 32. Khanal, U.; Wilson, C.; Lee, B. L. & Hoang, V. N., 2018. Climate change adaptation strategies and food productivity in Nepal: a counterfactual analysis. *Climatic change*, 148(4), 575-590.
 33. Khanal, U.; Wilson, C.; Lee, B. L.; Hoang, V. N. & Managi, S., 2019. Influence of payment modes on farmers' contribution to climate change adaptation: understanding differences using a choice experiment in Nepal. *Sustainability Science*, 14(4), 1027-1040.
 34. Kung, C.C. & McCarl B.A., 2018. Sustainable Energy Development under Climate Change. *Sustainability*. 10(9), 3269. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10093269>
 35. Lara, P.E.; Valdez, V.J.; Medina, T.S. & Martínez, R.R., 2017. Situación de la agricultura de Mayos y Mestizos del norte del Sinaloa, México. *Agric. Soc. Desarrollo* 14, 577–597.
 36. Lau, C.; Jarvis, A. & Ramírez, J., 2011. *Agricultura colombiana: Adaptación al cambio climático*. CIAT Políticas en Síntesis no. 1. Centro Internacional de Agricultura Tropical (CIAT), Cali, Colombia. 4 p.
 37. Lee, D.; Edmeades, S.; De Nys, E.; McDonald, A. & Janssen, W., 2014. Developing local adaptation strategies for climate change in agriculture: A priority-setting approach with application to Latin America. *Global Environmental Change*. 29, 78–91. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2014.08.002>
 38. Lezak, S. B. & Thibodeau, P. H., 2016. Systems thinking and environmental concern. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*. 46, 143-153.
 39. Liu, X.; Zhang, S. & Bae, J., 2017. The impact of renewable energy and agriculture on carbon dioxide emissions: Investigating the environmental Kuznets curve in four. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 164, 1239-1247. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.07.086>
 40. López, A. & Hernández, D., 2016. Cambio climático y agricultura: Una revisión de la literatura con énfasis en América Latina. *Trimest. Econ*. 83, 459–496.
 41. López, F., 2000. Impactos regionales del cambio climático. Valoración de la vulnerabilidad. *Papeles de Geografía*. 32, 77-95.
 42. López, J. & De Paz, S., 2007. El sector asegurador ante el cambio climático: riesgos y oportunidades. *Cuadernos de la fundación*. 114. Fundación Mapfre.

- 788 43. Maia, A. G.; Miyamoto, B. C. B. & García, J. R., 2018. Climate Change and Agriculture: Do Environmental
789 Preservation and Ecosystem Services Matter? *Ecological Economics*. 152, 27-39.
- 790 44. Mangalassery, S.; Mooney, S.; Sparkes, D.; Fraser, W. & Sjogersten, S., 2015. Impacts of zero tillage on soil
791 enzyme activities, microbial characteristics and organic matter functional chemistry in temperate soils. *European*
792 *Journal of Soil Biology*. 68, 9-17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejsobi.2015.03.001>
- 793 45. March, C.; Ziegelmeyer, A.; Greiner, B. & Cyranek, R., 2014. Monetary Incentives in Large-Scale Experiments:
794 A Case Study of Risk Aversion; Technische Munchen University: Munich, Germany.
- 795 46. Mejía, J., 2015. Tolerancia y Aversión al Riesgo. Available online:
796 [https://www.21tradingcoach.com/es/formaci%C3%B3n-gratuita/an%C3%A1lisis-cuantitativo/128-tolerancia-](https://www.21tradingcoach.com/es/formaci%C3%B3n-gratuita/an%C3%A1lisis-cuantitativo/128-tolerancia-y-aversi%C3%B3n-al-riesgo)
797 [y-aversi%C3%B3n-al-riesgo](https://www.21tradingcoach.com/es/formaci%C3%B3n-gratuita/an%C3%A1lisis-cuantitativo/128-tolerancia-y-aversi%C3%B3n-al-riesgo) (accessed on 7 September 2018).
- 798 47. Mohamed, H.; Krauss S. & Samsuddin S., 2018. A systematic review on Asian's farmers' adaptation practices
799 towards climate change. *Science of the Total Environment*. 644, 683–695.
800 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.06.349>
- 801 48. Moniruzzaman, S., 2015. Crop choice as climate change adaptation: Evidence from Bangladesh. *Ecological*
802 *Economics*. 118, 90-98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2015.07.012>
- 803 49. Moody, P., 1992. Toma de decisiones gerenciales. Editorial McGraw Hill Latinoamericana, S.A. México. p. 122.
- 804 50. Moreno, A.; Di Giano, S.; Giancola, S.; Schelleman, L. & Alonso, I., 2013. Causas que afectan la adopción de
805 tecnología en medianos productores de sandía y zapallo anco en Juan José Castelli, provincia de Chaco. *Enfoque*
806 *cuantitativo. Serie Estudios socioeconómicos de la adopción de tecnología*. (3).
- 807 51. Moreno, J., 1998. Validez, robustez y estabilidad en decisiones multicriterio. Análisis de sensibilidad en el
808 proceso analítico. *Revista Real Academia de Ciencias Exactas, Físicas y Naturales*. 92(4), pp.387–397. Available
809 at: <http://www.farn.org.ar/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/informe2013-1.268-291.pdf>.
- 810 52. Mubiru, D. N.; Namakula J.; Lwasa J.; Otim, G.A.; Kashagama, J.; Nakafeero, M.; Nanyeenya, W. & Coyne
811 M.S., 2017. Conservation Farming and Changing Climate: More Beneficial than Conventional Methods for
812 Degraded Ugandan Soils. *Sustainability*. 9, 180-193.
- 813 53. Mussetta, P.; Barrientos, M.; Acevedo, E.; Turbay, S. & Ocampo, O., 2017. Vulnerability to climate change:
814 Difficulties in using indicators in two basins of Argentina and Colombia. *Revista de Metodología de Ciencias*
815 *Sociales*. 36, 119-147. <https://doi.org/empiria.36.2017.17862>
- 816 54. Ndamani, F. & Watanabe, T., 2017. Developing indicators for adaptation decision-making under climate
817 change in agriculture: A proposed evaluation model. *Ecological Indicators*. 76, 366–375.
818 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolind.2016.12.012>
- 819 55. Nelson, E.; Mendoza, G.; Regetz, J.; Polasky, S.; Tallis, H.; Cameron, R.; Chan, K.; Daily, G.; Goldstein, J.;
820 Kareiva, P.; Lonsdorf, E.; Naidoo, R.; Ricketts, T. & Shaw, M., 2009. Modeling multiple ecosystem services,
821 biodiversity conservation, commodity production, and tradeoffs at landscape scales. *Front Ecol. Environ*. 7, 4–
822 11. <https://doi.org/10.1890/080023>
- 823 56. Nelson, G. C., 2009. Cambio Climático, El impacto en la agricultura y los costos de adaptación. 33708 (566).
824 IFPRI. <https://doi.org/10.2499/0896295370>
- 825 57. Niggol, S. & Mendelsohn, R., 2008. “A Ricardian Analysis of the Impact of Climate Change on South American
826 Farms.” *Chilean Journal of Agricultural Research*. 68 (1): 69–79.
- 827 58. Ogen, O., 2007. The Agricultural Sector and Nigeria's Development: Comparative Perspectives from the
828 Brazilian Agro-Industrial Economy. 1960-1995. *Nebula*.
- 829 59. O'Garra, T. & Mourato, S., 2016. Are we willing to give what it takes? Willingness to pay for climate change
830 adaptation in developing countries. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Policy*, 5(3), 249-264.
- 831 60. Ojeda, B.; Sifuentes I.; Rojano, A. & Iñiguez, C., 2012. Adaptación de la agricultura de riego ante el cambio
832 climático. *Efectos del cambio climático en los recursos hídricos en México*. 4, 71-119.
- 833 61. Orduño, T.; Kallas, Z. & Ornelas, S.I., 2019. Analysis of Farmers' Stated Risk Using Lotteries and Their
834 Perceptions of Climate Change in the Northwest of Mexico. *Agronomy*., 9, 4.
835 <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy9010004>
- 836 62. Ortiz, R., 2012. El cambio climático y la producción agrícola. *Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo*.
- 837 63. Pennings, J. & Garcia, P., 2001. Measuring producers' risk preferences: A global risk-attitude construct.
838 *American Journal of Agricultural Economics*. 83(4), pp.993–1009.
- 839 64. Reyna, C.; Bressán, E.; Mola, D. & Belaus, A., 2018. Validating the Structure of the New Ecological Paradigm
840 Scale among Argentine Citizens through Different Approaches. *Pensamiento Psicológico*. 16, 107-118.
841 <https://doi.org/10.11144/Javerianacali.PPSI16-1.vsne>

- 842
843
844
845
846
847
848
849
850
851
852
853
854
855
856
857
858
859
860
861
862
863
864
865
866
867
868
869
870
871
872
873
874
875
876
877
878
879
880
881
882
883
884
885
886
65. Rivera, I. & Di Paola, M., 2013. Cambio Climático: Impacto e incidencias de las políticas públicas en el sector agropecuario. Available online: URL <http://www.farn.org.ar/wp-content/uploads/2014/07/informe2013-1.268-291.pdf> (accessed on: 06-07-2018).
 66. Rodríguez, E. M. & Jiménez, M. A. F., 2014. La cultura del agua en la agricultura española. *Ecological economics and green economies Les économies écologiques et les économies vertes La economía ecológica y las economías verdes*. 88.
 67. Rojas, R., 2015. *Guía para Realizar Investigaciones Sociales*, 40th ed.; Plaza y Valdez S.A.: México City, México. p. 237.
 68. Saaty, T.L., 1997. *Toma de Decisiones para Líderes*. RWS Publications.
 69. Saaty, T.L., 2001. Fundamentals of the analytic hierarchy process. *The Analytic Hierarchy Process in natural resource and environmental decision making*.
 70. Saaty, T.L., 1994. "How to make a decision: the analytic hierarchy process." *Interfaces* 24.6. 19-43.
 71. Sifuentes, I. E.; Macías C. J.; Ruelas I. J. D. R.; Preciado R. P.; Ojeda B. W.; Inzunza I. M. A. & Samaniego G. J. A., 2015. Mejoramiento del grado de uso del nitrógeno en maíz mediante técnicas parcelarias de riego por superficie. *Revista mexicana de ciencias agrícolas*. 6(8), 1903-1914.
 72. Siraj, S.; Mikhailov, L. & Keane, J., 2015. Decision Support Contribution of individual judgments toward inconsistency in pairwise comparisons. *European Journal of Operational Research*. 242, 557–567. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejor.2014.10.024>
 73. Gan, T.Y.; Mari Ito, S.; Hülsmann, X.; Qin X.X.; Lu, S.Y.; Liong, P.; Rutschman, M.; Disse & H. Koivusalo., 2016. Possible climate change/variability and human impacts, vulnerability of drought-prone regions, water resources and capacity building for Africa. *Hydrological Sciences Journal*. 61:7, 1209-1226. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626667.2015.1057143>
 74. Tesfahunegn, G.; Mekonen, K. & Tekle, A., 2016. Farmers' perception on causes, indicators and determinants of climate change in northern Ethiopia: Implication for developing adaptation strategies. *Applied Geography*. 73, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apgeog.2016.05.009>
 75. Valladolid, F., 2017. El impacto de la agricultura en el ecosistema y su efecto en la población rural. *Machala*.
 76. Von Braun, J.; Swaminathan, M. S. & Rosegrant, M. W., 2005. *Agriculture, food security, nutrition and the Millennium Development Goals*. International Food Policy Research Institute.
 77. Vozmediano, L. & San Juan, C., 2005. Escala Nuevo Paradigma Ecológico: propiedades psicométricas con una muestra española obtenida a través de Internet. *Medio Ambiente y Comportamiento Humano*. 6, 37-49.
 78. Waha, K.; Muller, C.; Bondeau, A.; Dietrich, J.; Kurukulasuriya, P.; Heinke, J. & Lotze-Campen, H., 2013. Adaptation to climate change through the choice of cropping system and sowing date in sub-Saharan Africa. *Global Environmental Change*. 23, 130–143. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2012.11.001>
 79. Wheaton E. & Kulshreshtha S., 2017. Environmental Sustainability of Agriculture Stressed by Changing Extremes of Drought and Excess Moisture: A Conceptual Review. *Sustainability*. 9, 970. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su9060970>
 80. Xiaohong, Z.; Jia, H. & Junxin, C., 2011. Study on Mitigation Strategies of Methane Emission from Rice Paddies in the Implementation of Ecological Agriculture. *Energy Procedia*. 5, 2474–2480. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egypro.2011.03.425>
 81. Xu, B. & Lin, B., 2017. Factors affecting CO2 emissions in China's agriculture sector: Evidence from geographically weighted regression model. *Energy Policy*. 104, 404–414. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.enpol.2017.02.011>
 82. Yue, Q.; Xu, X.; Hillier, J.; Cheng, K. & Pan, G., 2017. Mitigating greenhouse gas emissions in agriculture: From farm production to food consumption. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 149, 1011-1019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.02.172>