

The role of information in shaping the emerging agricultural soil carbon market

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Abstract

The agricultural soil carbon market that has emerged in recent years is widely regarded as a promising opportunity for farmers in the Global North and South, enabling them to generate carbon credits and derive a source of income from the adoption of alternative land management practices which contribute to climate change mitigation by increasing soil carbon sequestration and/or reducing soil-derived greenhouse gas emissions. This paper takes the UK as a case study region and explores farmers' willingness to engage with a dynamic and evolving market, based on their access to information; confidence in carbon developers' and investors' positive market sentiment; and expectations as regards the growth and development trajectory of the market. Data for this study was collected through key informant interviews with 24 farmers across England. Results suggest farmers are reluctant to engage with the market as discourse has become polarised, with the amplification of certain positions and perspectives making it difficult to decode and evaluate the messaging received. This paper generates important insights as regards incentivising farmers' market participation by highlighting how information is shaping the market; the extent to which a polarised discourse is undermining farmers' willingness to engage with the market; and how policymakers and practitioners could 'unlock' the potential of the market by enhancing the availability of, access to, and exchange of credible, context-appropriate market-related information. This will ensure farmers can make informed decisions as regards the market and reduce the likelihood that an avoidable information void stymies long-term market growth and development.

1 Introduction

2 Soils equate to the largest carbon pool and most persistent terrestrial sink for atmospheric carbon (Lal et
3 al., 2021; Scharlemann et al., 2014). Land use change and intensification of farming practices have resulted
4 in soils being severely depleted in carbon and created a large soil carbon debt of approximately 40–90 Pg
5 carbon (Smith, 2008). Carbon sequestration in agricultural soils, realised through a variety of land
6 management practices that increase soil carbon stocks and/or reduce direct soil greenhouse gas (GHG)
7 emissions, is widely regarded as a key natural climate solution (Bossio et al., 2020); a nature-based solution
8 to climate change (Seddon et al., 2021); a global-scale climate change mitigation strategy (Amelung et al.,
9 2020; Goglio et al., 2015) and a greenhouse gas removal technology (Smith et al., 2020; Sykes et al., 2020).

10 Global initiatives such as the ‘Soil carbon 4 per mille’ (Minasny et al., 2017) have underscored the
11 important contribution that carbon sequestration in agricultural soils can make to realising the goals of the
12 United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) Paris Agreement and driving a
13 transition at the level of the global economy towards Net Zero (Costa Jr. et al., 2022). These initiatives have
14 paved the way for the emergence of an agricultural soil carbon market (hereafter referred to as the carbon
15 market) in the Global North and South (Alexander et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2015).

16 There have been growing calls for policymakers and practitioners to improve the effectiveness of
17 communication and the credibility, salience and legitimacy of information available to farmers regarding
18 the role that soils can play as carbon sources or sinks, depending on the agricultural land management
19 practices adopted (Abbas et al., 2020; Lal et al., 2021). Currently, so-called ‘frontrunner’ farmers are
20 adopting practices to manage SOC stocks and, importantly, derive associated co-benefits, despite lacking
21 in-depth scientific knowledge about sustainable soil management (Mattila et al., 2022) and having only
22 limited knowledge regarding the long-term impact of these practices on productivity (e.g., increased risk of
23 yield decline) and production costs (e.g. higher input costs; potential for reduced input use and costs, due
24 to improved soil health), and, thus, profitability at a whole farm system level (Skaalsveen, Ingram and
25 Urquhart, 2020; Paustian et al., 2019; Dumbrell, et al., 2016). The scientific community has committed to
26 developing a global soil information system and decision support frameworks - drawing on published meta-
27 analysis data from long-term field experiments rather than process-based models - to provide insights into
28 the impact of different agricultural management practices on crop yields, SOC and nitrogen surpluses (i.e.,
29 the difference between nitrogen inputs into and outputs from a farming system) (Paustian et al., 2019; Jandl
30 et al., 2014). Moreover, it will shed light on the unexpected outcomes of practices and synergies and trade-
31 offs among sustainability indicators that are often analysed separately (Young, Ros and de Vries, 2020). It
32 is envisaged this soil information system will incentivise farmers’ adoption of practices that optimise carbon
33 storage by enhancing the level of information available regarding in-situ measurement, modelling, and
34 remote sensing-based approaches to evaluating the condition of a soil and monitoring changes in soil carbon
35 stocks and/or reductions in soil-derived GHG emissions (Costa Jr. et al., 2020; Smith et al., 2020; Minasny
36 et al., 2017).

37 Although scientific research is driven by the idea that findings as regards SOC dynamics should be
38 interpreted and translated into actionable information and advice that enables farmers to make informed
39 management decisions that positively impact the capacity of soil to sequester and store carbon (Paul et al.,
40 2023; Mattila et al., 2022; Lal, 2021; Stockmann et al., 2013), the scientific community has, to date, largely

41 failed to engage farmers as information co-creators (Mattila et al., 2022). In doing so, it has underestimated
42 the extent to which involving potential knowledge users and stakeholders from the ‘practice sector’ (e.g.,
43 policymakers, lawyers, agronomists, landowners, and farmers) in different stages of the research process
44 can increase the practical relevance and usability of the research outcomes’ (Thorsøe et al., 2023, p.14;
45 Stockmann et al., 2013). In ‘largely ignor[ing]’ farmers’ values, identities, views, knowledge, and capacity
46 to adopt alternative land management practices (Amin et al., 2020, p.6); information environments (Ingram
47 et al., 2016) and knowledge networks (Rust et al., 2022); and the fact that they may be ‘selectively engaging
48 with information that reinforces their pre-existing beliefs’ (Colvin et al., 2018), the scientific community
49 has missed an opportunity to ‘update’ farmers’ ‘skillset[s]’ for managing soil carbon (Mattila et al., 2022,
50 p.2). This is noteworthy given that, beyond the frontrunner farmers who are adopting practices and
51 experimenting with the use of carbon calculators and could be early entrants to the carbon market (Phelan,
52 Chapman and Ziv, 2023), it is imperative the scientific community engages and provides advice, support
53 and information to ‘harder to reach’ farmers. These latter farmers are currently ‘left out of the conversation
54 [regarding the growth and development of the market], including in research’ (Buck and Palumbo-
55 Compton, 2022, p. 60) and are, thus, also at ‘risk of being left behind’ by agri-environmental schemes and
56 ecosystem services markets that are instead being shaped by political and corporate interests (Hurley et al.,
57 2022, p.2).

58 The emergence of a global carbon market has been framed as a positive development (Schilling et al., 2023;
59 Bossio et al., 2020; Vermeulen et al., 2019). Yet, the scientific community is at risk of undermining its
60 commitment to ‘allow[ing] the hope rather than the calamity of Pandora’s box to prevail’ in discourse and
61 narratives related to practices that can be adopted to manage SOC stocks (Jungkunst et al., 2022). A paucity
62 of studies has documented farmers’ access to information regarding the costs and (co-)benefits associated
63 with adopting practices that promote soil carbon sequestration and/or reduce soil-derived GHG emissions
64 (Skaalsveen, Ingram and Urquhart, 2020; Mills et al., 2020). This research has contributed to inspiring,
65 justifying, and legitimising sustainable soil management (Krzywoszynska, 2019). Studies have not,
66 however, explored farmers’ ability to access information relating to (i) carbon calculators and
67 understanding of monitoring, reporting and verification (MRV) of carbon sequestered and/or GHG
68 emissions reduced; (ii) the rules of engagement in the market and the implications of carbon contracts as
69 regards additionality and permanence (i.e., stability) of carbon sequestered; and (iii) the risks associated
70 with participation in a dynamic, evolving market characterised by uncertainty. Moreover, studies have not
71 considered whether actual or perceived polarisation of the GHG emissions reduction discourse (Simmonds,
72 Maye, and Ingram, 2024) may be undermining the growth and development of the market, despite studies

73 suggesting that carbon market stakeholders are failing to carefully select communication frames; deliver
74 information through non-partisan, trusted messengers; and go beyond strategic messaging towards building
75 support for climate change policies (Badullovič, 2023; Colvin et al., 2018). Taking the UK as a case study
76 of a region where the carbon market is dynamic and evolving, this paper explores the hypothesis that
77 farmers' willingness to engage with the market is contingent on their access to market-related information
78 (i.e., information related to MRV, carbon contracts, and the risks associated with participation in carbon
79 projects) and their perception of the carbon market-related discourse as polarised; confidence in positive
80 sentiment regarding the market; and expectations as regards the growth and development trajectory of the
81 market.

82 **Methodology**

83 **2.1 Sampling strategy and study area**

84 Data for this study were collected through in-depth, semi-structured, key informant interviews with a total
85 of 24 farmers across England between May and July 2022. The majority of the farmers (21 individuals)
86 were recruited through a purposive and convenience sampling strategy. These farmers had previously
87 indicated their interest in participating in a follow-up interview while completing a self-administered online
88 questionnaire relating to their willingness and capacity to adopt practices that could increase soil carbon
89 stocks and/or reduce soil-derived GHG emissions and engage with the carbon market (Phelan et al, 2023).
90 Three additional farmers were recruited, towards the end of the data collection period, through a snowball
91 sampling approach; these individuals expressed an interest in participating after learning about the study
92 from those who had already participated in the interviews.

93 **2.2 Contents and structure of the key informant interviews**

94 The key informant interview protocol developed for this study consisted of 13 open-ended questions related
95 to farmers' ability to access information regarding (i) soil carbon sequestration and emissions reduction
96 practices; (ii) approaches to quantifying and verifying soil carbon capture and/or reduced GHG emissions;
97 and (iii) the emerging UK carbon market. Moreover, the questions explored (iv) farmers' engagement with
98 soil carbon-related knowledge exchange actors (e.g., academics, private sector stakeholders and
99 government agencies; (v) views of carbon sequestration-related concepts (e.g., such as permanence,
100 additionality, and leakage); (vi) preferences regarding carbon credit buyers; and (vii) perceptions of the
101 benefits derived from participation in the market.

102 **2.3 Data collection procedure**

103 The key informant interview protocol was pilot-tested with six farmers to ensure that it would facilitate the
104 collection of relevant data. Farmers were asked for feedback on the protocol, ranging from their opinion
105 regarding the contents of the protocol; the clarity of the wording of the questions; and the time required to
106 provide answers to each question. Data collected during the pilot-testing phase of the study was used to
107 improve the framing of questions but was omitted from the final sample. The interviews with farmers
108 recruited to participate in the study took between 40-90 minutes and were conducted by phone call, Zoom,
109 and Microsoft Team.

110 **2.4 Data management and analysis process**

111 The key informant interviews were audio recorded using a Dictaphone and the recordings were transcribed,
112 with the transcripts uploaded to the qualitative data analysis software package, NVivo, and content analysis
113 performed on the data. An inductive content analysis approach was taken to analyse the data, with open
114 codes determined and assigned to transcript excerpts. These codes were combined to form sub-concepts, -
115 categories and -themes and, subsequently, organised into overarching concepts, categories and themes that
116 facilitated insight into the topics discussed and underscored where there was consensus among farmers, as
117 well as where opinions diverged. Key quotes (ad verbatim) that illustrated farmers' convergent and
118 divergent opinions were also identified.

119 **3. Results**

120 **3.1 Demographic characteristics of farmers sampled**

121 The demographic characteristics of 21 of the 24 farmers who participated in the key informant interviews
122 are presented in Table 1. The demographic data indicate these respondents were predominantly male; aged
123 between 45-64 years; had more than 11 years of farming experience; and owned the land on which they
124 were engaging in agricultural production. Demographic data and data on land management practices were
125 not collected for the remaining three farmers who subsequently requested to be part of the study.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of farmers sampled (n=21)

		n	%
Gender	Male	16	76
	Female	5	24
Age	45-54 years	8	38
	55-64 years	6	29
	35-44 years	4	19
	65 years and over	3	14

Education	Bachelor's degree	7	33	
	Master's degree	5	23	
	Not completed any formal training	5	24	
	Engaged in ongoing technical/vocational training	2	10	
	Doctorate	2	10	
Farming experience	More than 30 years	11	52	
	21-30 years	4	19	
	11-20 years	4	19	
	6-10 years	2	10	
Source of income	Earning sole source of income from farming	10	48	
	Earning income from farming, but also off-farm activities	9	43	
	Earning income by managing a farm on behalf of a company	1	5	
	Not earning an income from farming	1	5	
Land tenancy situation	Own land	19	90	
	Land rented under a short-term agreement	3	14	
	Land rented under a long-term agreement	2	10	
	Share farm (arable) land	1	5	
Farm size (ha)	0-100	6	28	
	101-200	5	24	
	201-500	5	24	
	501-1000	4	19	
	More than 1000	1	5	
Type of farm	Arable production	11	52	
	Mixed crop-livestock production	5	24	
	Livestock production	Lowland grazing livestock production	3	14
		LFA grazing livestock production	2	10

126 **3.2 Farmers' access to information regarding the emerging carbon market**

127 Farmers obtained information regarding the carbon market from a wide range of sources, including
 128 traditional print media and/or online media (e.g., newsletters distributed via email; social media networks;
 129 and online webinars organised by carbon developers, non-governmental organisations, and farmer groups).
 130 Although several farmers felt that there was "almost too much information out there", the majority of

131 farmers did not believe they were in a position to make an informed decision about engaging with the
132 carbon market as there were “so many unknowns”. Farmers explained that identifying information that was
133 useful and tailored to their interests and needs was challenging, as was discerning the credibility of different
134 sources of information:

135 “It's quite difficult; distilling the really important stuff and the science from the noise and the
136 excitement is quite tricky at the moment.” (Farmer 1)

137 Farmers who were already participating in the carbon market (n=6) observed that the information landscape
138 was changing, with market-related information increasingly disseminated via social media. Noting that
139 there was “still a lot to be said for that magazine, that's just sat on the desk, that you flick through [to find
140 information]”, these farmers indicated that they regarded private and public sector and civil society actors’
141 approaches to disseminating information as somewhat ineffective. They explained that a large segment of
142 the UK farming population, namely, older farmers - 35% of principal farmers and holders were aged 65
143 years or older in 2023 (DEFRA, 2023) – were being left out of market-related discourse and at risk of left
144 behind in the transition towards Net Zero, due to their (in)ability to access online information and make
145 decisions regarding the merits of participating in the market and reliance on face-to-face interaction with
146 advisers and farmer peers who were risk-averse, sceptical of, and/or had limited knowledge regarding the
147 market. Online webinars held by academics, non-governmental organisations, and charities, such as the
148 Soil Association, and online platforms, such as Farmers Weekly Interactive, were identified as important
149 sources of information related to the market. However, although the topics of these webinars were regarded
150 as relevant and interesting, the information provided was described as being “way over the pay grade of
151 knowledge” of the average farmer in the UK (i.e., information provided was difficult to understand). In
152 failing to take “a layman's approach” to discussing the market and recognise the significance of “speaking
153 the same language” as their audience, carbon developers were “making it [the market] massively
154 complicated” and discouraging farmers’ participation in the market:

155 “I think when you sit down and talk to a farmer about additionality and everything else [...] you've
156 got some people who really get it, and other people who just don't [...] I mean, it's complex, but
157 it's not complicated. We've got to demystify all this terminology.” (Farmer 2)

158 Farmers who were participating in the carbon market cited online peer-to-peer knowledge exchange as
159 having positively impacted their ability “to make contact and discuss what we’re doing and help each other
160 out” in deciding, for example, which practices to adopt to sequester soil carbon and/or reduce GHG
161 emissions and, more broadly, ‘make sense’ of the opportunities associated with market participation.
162 However, they conceded that social media networks, such as X (formerly known as Twitter), could be “a

163 bit of a dangerous place to get your information” if a farmer did not have a means of ascertaining the quality
164 of information. Potential new entrants to the market, they explained, needed to recognise that although
165 important lessons could be drawn from “see[ing] someone else’s mistakes and [not] spend[ing] money
166 making your own”, information exchanged on social media networks was not always relevant to the UK
167 farming context. Farmers also observed a tendency among some peers who were active on social media to
168 “har[k] on about how awesome their system is”, boasting that they were “doing this amazing stuff [adopting
169 practices]” while failing to appreciate that their behaviour might lead to those who did not find it as easy to
170 engage with information regarding the market feeling “disheartened” and discouraged to participate:

171 “It’s about delivering messages [...] without preaching because it’s so easy [...] to put people off
172 if they feel they’re being sort of berated for not being good enough.” (Farmer 3)

173 Noting that the discourse as regards the carbon market was being shaped by those who were “very good at
174 speaking out” about their journeys towards achieving Net Zero status, farmers who were already
175 participating in the market asserted that online information exchange should be underpinned a willingness
176 among farmers to be “collaborative and [...] supportive and really hel[p] each other”. Committed to
177 ensuring that “the conversations going on between farmers are positive”, farmers observed that it was
178 imperative that those who were vocal on social media networks, but not necessarily providing relevant or
179 useful information, recognise that peer farmers were simply trying to learn from others’ experience.
180 Information exchange should, therefore, not lead to farmers feeling alienated and discouraged from
181 engaging with the market:

182 “Polarisation [of opinions in social media networks] [...] switches a lot of people off. It’s a real
183 shame that we have identity agriculture out there at the moment because it’s not helpful [...] there’s
184 a lot of farmers who think, this [engaging with the carbon market] is definitely not for me.”
185 (Farmer 2)

186 “I think people need to come together more [...] we need to inspire and stimulate people to get
187 them involved and to get them interested in it [the carbon market] and to use people like me to
188 show it can be done and we can, you know, be a more profitable business and we’re healing the
189 planet at the same time.” (Farmer 4)

190 Unlike the minority of farmers (n=6) who were participating in the carbon market, farmers who were not
191 yet doing so stated that they (n=18) were “too busy farming to attend meetings and workshops and spend a
192 great deal of time on social media”. Relying on online and face-to-face peer-to-peer knowledge exchange
193 and interaction with farm advisors and agronomists to make sense of the market, they were confused and
194 overwhelmed by the “absolute barrage of different perspectives” and found it difficult to navigate the
195 information landscape and distinguish between useful information, misinformation, and disinformation.

196 Many farmers described feeling as if they were “go[ing] down a rabbit hole” in trying to understand terms
197 used in market-related discourse, such as additionality, permanence, and leakage, and, more broadly, finding
198 answers to questions they had regarding the risks and opportunities and costs and benefits associated with
199 participation in the carbon market.

200 **3.3 Farmers’ perceptions of the carbon market as an opportunity or a risk**

201 Farmers described the term ‘carbon’ as “buzzing around”. They observed that discourse about the emerging
202 carbon market reflected the fact that, whereas “10 years ago there might have been quite a lot of opposition
203 [...] disagreement about climate change from the farming community”, this was no longer the case; instead,
204 it was widely accepted that farmers had a key role to play in mitigating climate change and achieving the
205 UK’s ambition of Net Zero by 2030. However, farmers noted, the trading and/or sale of carbon credits was
206 a topic of intense discussion among the farming community as the carbon market had quickly become a
207 “Wild West” - “a relatively new space [...] [that had] inevitably filled up with cowboys and pirates wanting
208 to make a quick buck”:

209 “Maybe it’s just a reflection of where the market is at the moment, but it does feel as if there’s, you
210 know [...] lots of investors from markets super excited, lots of cash, saying, I want to buy from you
211 guys [...] the market needs to settle down.” (Farmer 6)

212 “There’s a lot of salesmen out there who are trying to sell you something [carbon schemes]. They
213 sound bullish, confident, and assured and you’re inclined to believe them, aren’t you?”
214 (Farmer 5)

215 Critical of the “sales pitch” given by carbon developers that was “so strong that individuals are finding
216 themselves signing up to things that they don’t really understand [...] seeing it [market participation] as
217 easy money”, farmers observed that not only was there no regulation of the market, there was “zero
218 guidance [...] on soil carbon other than how to improve it”. Although a minority of farmers thought that
219 they could benefit from further information regarding “not very complicated, not very high tech” practices
220 that could sequester carbon in soils and/or reduce soil-derived GHG emissions and the interaction effects
221 between different practices, the majority of farmers did not think that they lacked information related to the
222 costs and benefits associated with practices. Having already adopted a range of practices (Table 2), they
223 were prepared to adopt additional practices.

224 Table 2: Practices adopted by farmers for whom demographic data was collected (n=21)

	n	%
Cover crops	17	81
Incorporation of organic amendments into soils	16	76
No/low/minimal/conservation tillage	15	71

Management of field margins	13	62
Introducing leys in crop rotations	12	57
Low intensity/rotational/mob grazing	9	43
Incorporation of a mix of legumes and herbs into grasslands	7	33
Agroforestry	4	19

225 Perceiving the UK farming community as being asked to bear more risk than investors from the public
226 and/or private sector, farmers who were not yet engaging with the carbon market asserted they were wary,
227 in the absence of ‘trustworthy’ market-related information, of signing up to carbon contracts that equated
228 to “a lot of hoodwinking” and might “cause problems down the line”, for example, if regulatory standards
229 for the market were developed:

230 “Farmers are taking the risk [...] the buyer doesn’t, the buyer is just making a commitment to buy
231 some carbon, and it’s up to the farmer to be able to deliver that consistently.” (Farmer 6)

232 “A 20 or 30-year agreement is effectively a generational agreement, at this stage something where
233 there is still so much in flux, it seems unwise...you wouldn’t do that with a mobile phone, so why
234 would you do it with something that’s so unmeasured as soil carbon sequestration.”
235 (Farmer 7)

236 As early adopters of practices, many farmers were unsure whether they would be eligible to participate in
237 carbon schemes. Furthermore, they were unsure whether they could benefit from participation in the market
238 as they did not know how to proceed as regards determining a soil carbon stocks baseline and did not feel
239 in a position to measure, report, and verify (MRV) subsequent changes in soil carbon stocks nor how far
240 their soils were from reaching carbon saturation:

241 “On average, I’ve got just under six per cent organic matter on average across all the farm and
242 without really knowing if I am pretty close to peak, or what the capacity of my soils is [...] it will
243 be hard for me to gain carbon credits because my understanding is carbon credits mostly come
244 through demonstrating change.” (Farmer 6)

245 Reflecting on carbon calculators that were available and could facilitate MRV of soil carbon stocks, farmers
246 asserted that calculators were only “as good as the data that goes into them”. Although they recognised the
247 accuracy of the results of using a given calculator hinged on “how many data points you get [...] across
248 your farm”, farmers expressed their frustration that the same data entered into different calculators failed
249 to produce identical results. The significant level of divergence in carbon assessments and the need to
250 harmonise carbon accounting tools used in the UK has been recognised by Defra, which commissioned a
251 report in 2022 that concluded, although ‘currently no consistent approach [is] taken to assessing carbon
252 removals or emissions from soils, vegetation and land use change by calculators [...] calculators are all able
253 to provide the farmer with a robust baseline understanding of emissions and can facilitate the start, and

254 ongoing development, of a decarbonisation process' (DEFRA, 2024a). Farmers were also critical of the fact
255 that, while calculators considered woody biomass carbon, they did not take into consideration carbon
256 sequestered in soils:

257 "We want to identify how much carbon we actually have on the farm and how much we're
258 sequestering [...] but there is confusion, you come up with different answers and different results
259 as to how much carbon you've got on the farm [...] there's masses of uncertainty as to which is the
260 best calculator to use." (Farmer 8)

261 "It's something that we're conscious of, that we're probably not showing the whole farm scenario
262 without the soil carbon bit in there. But then there's the whole argument about, when, how, and how
263 often do you sample? I think originally, they [carbon developers] thought, well, let's just not worry
264 with that because that opens up a whole new can of worms." (Farmer 9)

265 Despite recognising "somebody has to be first into these things", farmers – who were not yet engaging with
266 the carbon market – indicated they thought their peers had "unrealistic expectations" as regards their
267 potential to earn an additional source of income from the trade and/or direct sale of carbon credits. They
268 observed, "the cart has been put before the horse in many ways; if we're going for Net Zero agriculture by
269 2030, well, first of all, we're going to have to have a lot simpler way of measuring it". Moreover, they noted,
270 their peers "could be facing a bit of a wake-up call when they actually start doing some measurements" as
271 required by carbon contracts, due to their reliance on carbon calculators that might, in the future, be
272 "exposed as not being at all accurate". Asserting there was a need to instil greater confidence among the
273 UK farming community in the science underpinning the carbon calculators, farmers called for MRV
274 procedures to be standardised to reduce the level of risk that might be incurred in engaging with the market:

275 "I think the risk element will stop people engaging fully [with the market] right now. I'm going to
276 be the second mouse that gets the cheese here rather than being the innovator [...] I'm going to be
277 the laggard, I'm afraid and sort of follow and just see what happens." (Farmer 5)

278 Farmers who were already engaging with the carbon market recognised that their peers, who were not yet
279 doing so, had reasons to be concerned about MRV. Admitting they were "the forward-thinking ones [...]
280 the ones that have got their eyes open, are seeing the opportunities and are getting themselves ready or are
281 trying to [implement MRV]", they recognised the imperative to serve as positive role models and encourage
282 their peers to engage with the market. Cognisant of the fact that the growth and development trajectory of
283 the carbon market hinged on it being "farmer-led", farmers were aware that being "evangelical" (i.e., having
284 strong beliefs and trying to persuade others to have the same beliefs) about what they were doing and failing
285 to acknowledge the risks associated with MRV was likely to undermine their peers' confidence in the
286 market. Consequently, they did not hesitate to acknowledge that they were also trying to figure out the
287 market and investors' expectations:

288 “I think it's, it's all very much a learning curve for everybody, isn't it? We have just started, last
289 year we made the first tentative steps towards carbon accounting on the farm.” (Farmer 7)

290 “All we're trying to do now is understand what to measure, what to record and what to verify to
291 prove that carbon is carbon [...] [and ensure] not only just the carbon integrity up into the market
292 but also the social, environmental integrity of credits.” (Farmer 11)

293 Asked to consider why, beyond the obvious challenges of navigating the complex information landscape
294 and implementing MRV, their peers might not yet have engaged with the carbon market, farmers mused
295 that the discourse related to the market had been polarised by those who had rendered the discourse “carbon-
296 centric”. Motivated to adopt practices from a soil health rather than soil carbon perspective, several farmers
297 posited that their peers were tired of “seeing carbon tunnel vision”. They remarked that, if public and private
298 sector and civil society actors' objective was to encourage them to “build up [soil] carbon content through
299 certain actions”, it would make more sense to invoke soil health rather than soil carbon in discussions
300 related to the carbon market as this was a concept that likely to resonate to a greater extent with farmers:

301 “I think we need to be carbon-focused, but I think [we also] need to look at the big picture [...]
302 everybody can strive to do the best to reduce carbon emissions and to store more carbon on the
303 farm and I think every farm can probably do better.” (Farmer 8)

304 “The focus is always on soil carbon for markets, but actually, if you improve your soil carbon you
305 improve your productivity [...] we need to stack those multiple benefits together to see that it isn't
306 just about one output, it's about why you're doing this to make your business, long term, more
307 sustainable.” (Farmer 12)

308 Observing that “nobody quite knows what the future holds”, farmers indicated that they felt “pessimistic
309 [in the] short term, [and] optimistic [in the] long term” about the emerging carbon market. Albeit hopeful
310 that the science underpinning carbon calculators would be improved, and the integrity of carbon credits
311 would be enhanced in the long term, farmers took the view that the growth and development trajectory of
312 the market would not positively impact farmers in the short term; rather, there would be “a hell of a lot of
313 losers”. Farmers thought that the market “risk[ed] frustrating quite a lot of farmers” as carbon schemes
314 required historical soil management records and the establishment of baselines against which changes in
315 soil carbon stocks could be measured and were, therefore, more likely to reward “those who ha[d] been
316 [doing] the most damage to soils” than “those who ha[d] been running a different system and ha[d] been
317 providing natural capital benefits”. Farmers were concerned that the unregulated development of the carbon
318 market – as there was neither regulation of information nor regulation by information - would have “the net
319 effect of putting people off for good”. Convinced that there would be “some big casualties” and asserting
320 that many farmers would “feel hard done by” the development of the market, they questioned how the
321 market could be turned into a more level playing field so that it would benefit all farmers:

322 “What’s available to me when actually I’m already providing a service effectively through the
323 changes that I’ve made over the last 20 years [...] if others are going to get rewarded for change to
324 a degraded system, how can we make it fair?” (Farmer 6)

325 **3.4 Farmers’ perceptions of public and private sector and civil society actors’ leadership in shaping** 326 **the growth and development trajectory of the carbon market**

327 Alluding to the lack of guidance from public and private sector actors and civil society actors, farmers
328 indicated that they were disappointed that civil society actors who they expected and trusted to give advice
329 and advocate for them in discussions relating to the format of the market. In particular, farmers thought that
330 the National Farmers Union (NFU) did not appear to have formed a strong opinion on the market and how
331 it could be adapted to benefit the UK farming community. They were also frustrated by private sector actors
332 in the agri-food sector who were reliant on but not supportive of farmers taking action as regards
333 sequestering carbon in the soil and/or reducing soil-derived GHG emissions:

334 “We still have an [agri-food] industry that campaigns against change and is campaigning with the
335 language of ‘we’re going to fight this’ [transition towards Net Zero by 2030]. Rather than, ‘we’re
336 going to lead this and we’re going to help the industry get through it’.” (Farmer 12)

337 “[Farmers] feel quite isolated, we’re always the butt of a problem [...] we would be a lot more open
338 to taking some risks, which we’re not at the moment, and feeling a lot more secure [if we were
339 supported] [...] we all need to start having more dialogue, I think.” (Farmer 2)

340 In contrast, farm advisors and agronomists were perceived as guiding farmers in understanding the carbon
341 market, translating information available into actionable advice such as which practices to adopt to
342 sequester carbon and/or reduce soil-derived GHG emissions. A minority of farmers reported that they had
343 taken initial steps to establish a soil carbon stocks baseline in response to encouragement from farm advisors
344 and agronomists who they regarded as being knowledgeable about MRV, of increases in soil carbon stocks
345 and/or reductions in soil-derived GHG emissions. However, although they were advising farmers to ready
346 themselves for participation in the market in the future, farm advisors and agronomists were not yet
347 suggesting that farmers engage with carbon schemes and, in some cases, actively discouraging farmers
348 from doing so, as they did not consider the information available sufficient and/or appropriate to facilitate
349 farmers’ informed decision-making:

350 “I think if we can sort of get on the rung now [by adopting practices] we will be better placed when
351 things become mandatory if we started on the sort of voluntary basis. I’ve no interest at the moment
352 in trading carbon [...] the agent who helps us has very strongly advised us against getting onboard
353 with any sort of carbon trading at the moment.” (Farmer 7)

354 Although the minority of farmers who were already engaging with the carbon market observed that “one
355 doesn’t wait for the perfect system, you just have to crack on and do it”, the majority of farmers indicated

356 that they were unwilling to engage with the market until there was “a proper system [in place] [...] that
357 people can trust” to directly sell and/or trade carbon credits. Farmers were optimistic that, as it was “a very
358 new market”, carbon was “quite low priced” and there was “pent-up demand [for carbon credits] [...] [from]
359 various industries wanting to buy the carbon on offer”, the carbon price would rise. However, questioning
360 the extent to which this future price would be in line with their expectations, farmers asserted that they
361 wanted greater clarity from private sector actors regarding the likely growth and development trajectory of
362 the market. Several farmers were concerned that if information was provided by government agencies only,
363 it would reflect “political bias”; farmers were in favour of the development of the market being industry-
364 led as they expected it would be “more beneficial”. Noting that “each farmer is different, each farm is
365 different [...] each farmer is looking for something different in the library of information”, farmers stated
366 that they required answers from private sector actors to a range of questions:

367 “It's all very frustrating...no one knows who to turn to. Who are these people that want to bank
368 [roll] us? Who are these people that want to potentially pay us? Who is monitoring it? There are
369 so many questions we don't know the answer to yet.” (Farmer 13)

370 “We talk about selling carbon [...] and they may have a price, we may have a price. How on earth
371 do you get to a [common, agreed-upon] price?” (Farmer 14)

372 Regarding the carbon market as “having done farmers very few favours” and, simultaneously, being “of
373 great benefit to a few”, farmers attributed the limited benefits derived by farmers to the fact that the market
374 development was being driven by “certain people” who were not necessarily “well-intentioned” and/or
375 “represent the views and the best interests of farmers”. Highlighting the wealth of relevant context-specific
376 knowledge held by farmers, farm advisors and agronomists that could be leveraged in developing the
377 market, they observed:

378 “For the right schemes to be developed then farmers and the people who are working in the
379 countryside need to be listened to [...] these people have some excellent ideas and through practical
380 experience are able to say what needs to be done.” (Farmer 16)

381 In the absence of a policy framework, farmers noted, there was “a huge gap” between those impacted by
382 and those shaping the growth and development trajectory of the carbon market, with the market skewed in
383 favour of private sector actors. Observing that there was “a lot of interest and everybody now wants to be
384 able to demonstrate carbon credentials”, farmers indicated that they hoped that the UK government would
385 recognise the need to draw up regulations and standards to safeguard the integrity of carbon credits:

386 “There is a lot of uncertainty around carbon credits and whether it's an opportunity, it's been sold
387 by some as an opportunity, but it's a very, very risky thing to get involved with at this moment in
388 time because of the levels of uncertainty around it.” (Farmer 8)

389 “The whole thing [carbon market] is just riddled with controversy and I think the only way it’s ever
390 going to get sorted out is for the government to start helping us to define some standards, some
391 fixed points that everybody has to adhere to [...] then we can begin to move forward.”
392 (Farmer 15)

393 Farmers also voiced their concerns that the emergence of the carbon market was likely to adversely impact
394 the UK food system, by taking land out of production and reducing the extent to which farming was “a
395 viable vocational livelihood”. They asserted that the market was perceived by farmers as “contentious” as
396 it was paving the way for government-led farm support, agri-environmental support to be progressively
397 reduced and the private sector stepped in to provide financial support:

398 “I just feel like we're such an industry that's so used to handouts, that then we're just moving from
399 one type of handout to another type of handout.” (Farmer 2)

400 Moreover, they took the view that unless there was greater ambition and leadership in the agricultural sector
401 in the future, it would take too long to get to Net Zero as farmers would continue to be “dependent on
402 artificial fertiliser”. Rather than reduce the use of fertiliser – which was “the hard bit” – farmers explained,
403 some of their peers were likely to “fudge the results” generated by carbon calculators if it enabled them to
404 show that they were Net Zero. Observing that “to actually get there to see real change on farms [...] [would]
405 take a lot longer”, farmers noted that it would be particularly challenging to convince their peers to
406 participate in the market if they were “farming conventionally [...] [and were] net polluters themselves” or
407 were ideologically opposed to soil carbon being commodified by public and private sector actors:

408 “There’re a lot of farmers who are very sceptical about the whole thing [carbon market] [...] they
409 don't think it's right that people should carry on polluting as they are and then just pay it off
410 somewhere else [...] they have been very successful in their businesses and don't see any reason to
411 change.” (Farmer 17)

412 “We want full transparency [...] we're a little bit particular who we sell to, we wouldn't want to be
413 involved in greenwashing; it's got to be a company that's trying to improve itself and their practices
414 in as much as they can and then they can offset with us”. (Farmer 18)

415 **4. Discussion**

416 The following section discusses the results in line with the objective of this paper which was to explore
417 farmers’ willingness to engage with the emerging UK carbon market based on their access to information;
418 confidence in carbon developers’ and investors’ positive sentiment regarding the market; and expectations
419 as regards the growth and development trajectory of the market.

420 **4.1 Influence of access to information on farmers’ willingness to engage with the carbon market**

421 Access to information can be considered to play a key role in determining farmers' perceptions of and
422 willingness to engage with the carbon market. The results of this study suggest the information landscape
423 related to the carbon market is a dynamic, complex, and contested space that is continuously being redefined
424 by the 'drip feeding' of information by public and private sector and civil society actors who are directly
425 and indirectly supporting the growth and development of the market. This finding is in line with Blum
426 (2020) who argues that the carbon market is contested due to the role that private sector actors, in particular,
427 are playing in shaping the market and polarised due to the disconnect that has emerged between private
428 sector actors and public sector and civil society actors. The data underscore the fact that promoting the
429 growth and development of the market and avoiding the alternative scenario, whereby the market
430 'becom[es] obsolete or worse, a threat to effective climate change mitigation' (Kreibich and Hermwille,
431 2021, p. 953), hinges on private and public sector and civil society actors recognising and responding to the
432 tension between their different perspectives as stakeholders. There is an imperative for stakeholders to work
433 towards identifying common value positions and, by extension, compromise positions (Tholen, 2022;
434 Kreibich and Hermwille, 2021; Blum, 2020). In the absence of such compromise positions, polarisation
435 will continue to undermine the broad support base required for an effective and enduring soil carbon policy
436 that motivates farmers to adopt practices that contribute to soil carbon sequestration (Buck and Palumbo-
437 Compton, 2022). In a political environment where soil carbon sequestration continues to be characterised
438 as 'a risky investment, given the scientific knowledge base' (Buck and Palumbo-Compton, 2022, p. 60),
439 there is a role for all knowledge exchange actors 'with a voice in this emerging discourse to consider the
440 implications of how their research and viewpoints are communicated' (Colvin et al., 2018, p. 31).

441 The results of this study suggest academics are not currently perceived by farmers as playing a central role
442 in shaping the information environment beyond hosting and/or participating in online webinars. Given that
443 'science underlies both policy and corporate interest' (Buck and Palumbo-Compton, 2022), it is important
444 that academics – from soil scientists to social scientists - 'repositio[n] themselves to access resources and
445 audiences' (Buck and Palumbo-Compton, 2022) and more proactively guide the discourse on agricultural
446 soil carbon sequestration. By taking a more visible position in debates and knowledge exchange activities,
447 avoiding the use of complex jargon, and authoring a plain-language 'Farmers' Guide to the Carbon Market',
448 academics could enhance the effectiveness of policy messages aimed at farmers and contribute to ensuring
449 that policymakers and other knowledge exchange actors engage in two-way communication and
450 relationship-building with the farming community (Badullovich, 2023; Rose et al., 2019). Moreover, they
451 can address a concern - voiced more than two decades ago by Bouma (2001, p. 874) - namely, that 'the
452 poor use of soil science expertise in society's dealings with modern environmental and land-use issues

453 articulated by nonspecialists who relentlessly advance their own, often politically motivated, ideas, leav[es]
454 little room for specialists, such as soil scientists, who would be quite capable of raising both the level and
455 the yield of such discussions'. Currently, there are questions about whether farmers who were early adopters
456 of practices should receive retrospective compensation based on historic carbon sequestration; their
457 demonstrated commitment to maintaining higher-than-peer-average soil carbon stocks; or carbon stocks
458 that are high relative to a favourable reference state and compensate for future climate change-driven SOC
459 losses, taking into account soil type, climatic conditions, and land use (Ziv, Orman and Reed, 2023; Phelan,
460 Chapman and Ziv, 2023; Riggers et al., 2021). There are also questions about whether farmers should be
461 allowed to bundle and stack soil carbon with other co-benefits (e.g., improved wildlife habitat, enhanced
462 water quality, reduced flood risk) and whether blending and stacking of funding from other public or private
463 sector sources (e.g., government farming subsidies) should be permitted in ecosystem service markets
464 (Black et al., 2022; Thompson et al., 2022). Related to stacking, there are questions about how additionality
465 should be conceptualised and operationalised by carbon market stakeholders; unlike temporal stacking,
466 contemporaneous stacking (i.e., stacking that occurs during the same period) renders it difficult to determine
467 whether a funding stream is additional or non-additional and constitutes a source of revenue that enables a
468 farmer to justify incurring the costs associated with establishing a carbon project (Brammer and Bennett,
469 2022; Vegh and Murray, 2020).

470 The data from this study indicate farmers are not currently interested in engaging with the market schemes
471 – despite recognising its development could potentially benefit them in the long term – as they regard the
472 information landscape as being shaped by carbon developers who have a not-very-hidden agenda of
473 wanting to incentivise their participation in specific carbon schemes. These carbon developers, according
474 to farmers, are benefitting from perpetuating rather than addressing information and power asymmetries
475 characterising the carbon market. The extent to which information and power asymmetries in the carbon
476 market risk undermining farmers' ability to negotiate carbon scheme contracts has been documented by
477 DeFries et al. (2022) and Lee (2017). Increasing farmers' access to information serves to reduce farmers'
478 exposure to adverse selection and moral hazard (Paul et al., 2023; Alexander et al. 2015) and the likelihood
479 that they will be perversely incentivised to take advantage of the market and derive benefits from lowering
480 their soil carbon stock baselines, for example, by tilling, which would enable the sequestration of a greater
481 amount of 'additional' carbon relative to peers over the duration of a carbon contract (Strong and Barbato,
482 2023; Oldfield et al., 2022b). The findings of this study do not support the views of Rust et al. (2022),
483 namely, that farmers have 'had enough of 'traditional experts'' (e.g., farm advisors and agronomists) in the
484 context of decision-making related to sustainable soil management. On the contrary, these actors are

485 increasingly serving as ‘sense makers’ in an information landscape where offline peer-to-peer knowledge
486 exchange is limited and online information exchange is viewed as polarised, co-opted and shaped by
487 farmers who have stronger views than others in favour of, or against, engagement with the carbon market.
488 As Ingram and Maye (2020) note, the ongoing digital transformation of agricultural knowledge has brought
489 ‘new demands, relations and tensions to agricultural decision-making’ and a ‘reliance on technical experts
490 and [...] technology’; it has forced farmers to move ‘beyond individual experiential knowledge’ towards
491 data-driven decision-making. In an era of data-driven smart farming, farm advisors and agronomists are
492 playing an important role as knowledge brokers shaping farmers’ decision-making processes; their
493 synthesis of knowledge related to land management practices, calculators and the carbon market is
494 perceived as context-specific, credible, and legitimate (Thomas et al., 2020; Eastwood et al., 2019).

495 As the carbon market is evolving rapidly, there is an imperative to ensure farm advisors and agronomists
496 have access to formal training about the carbon market and are in a position to answer farmers’ questions
497 and assess and allay their fears regarding the risks associated with participation in carbon schemes. The
498 results of this study suggest farmers’ willingness hinges on these stakeholders creating an enabling
499 environment that allows farmers to fact-check the validity of statements about the benefits derived from
500 participation in carbon schemes and access balanced information, for example, regarding the implications
501 of signing carbon contracts that have intergenerational implications as regards approaches to land
502 management. Currently, there is no independent, codified, and validated knowledge base providing
503 impartial and relevant evidence to inform farmers’ decision-making; instead, farm advisors and agronomists
504 act within a framework shaped by the economic objectives of supply chain actors and, moreover, provide
505 ‘a very heterogenous range of advice, the quality of which is practically impossible to control’ (Dhiab,
506 Labarthe and Laurent, 2020, p. 9). The results of this study suggest there is a need to improve information
507 flow and address the level of misinformation that farmers face, as well as their misinterpretation of
508 information, for example, regarding the risk of being ‘locked-in’ to carbon contracts; the accuracy of soil
509 carbon calculators; and the use of buffers that provide insurance in cases of force majeure (e.g., extreme
510 weather events). Farmers would benefit from the integration of information regarding the carbon market
511 into existing agricultural training programs (Cammarata et al., 2020). Moreover, they would benefit from
512 information, tailored to their needs and context, provided by advisers and intermediaries who are qualified
513 to provide advice related to soil carbon management, soil sampling and analysis, and the carbon market
514 based on their completion of accredited courses grounded in agreed upon syllabuses (Knierim and Ingram,
515 2024; Reijneveld et al., 2023). These courses could be similar in format to the existing BASIS courses,
516 focused on pesticides and fertiliser management, and be ‘monitored, discussed, updated and modified by

517 committees that comprise representatives from farmer organisations (e.g. NFU), authorities (DEFRA),
518 [independent agronomist] advisor organisations (AICC)' (Knierim and Ingram, 2024). There is an
519 imperative to improve the quality of advisory services available to farmers in the complex and highly
520 fragmented agricultural advisory landscape in the UK (Knierim and Ingram, 2024; Pappa and Koutsouris,
521 2024; Dhiab, Labarthe and Laurent, 2020).

522 **4.2 The type of information that could enhance farmers' willingness to participate in carbon schemes** 523 **and the challenge that policymakers and practitioners face in disseminating information**

524 Enhancing farmers' access to information regarding alternative land management practices is often
525 regarded as key to incentivising farmers' participation in carbon schemes (Ingram et al., 2014; Kragt et al.,
526 2014). Although farmers may face challenges in accessing relevant, credible information regarding the
527 benefits, co-benefits, costs and impacts on production and yields of practices (Strong and Barbato, 2023;
528 Niles and Han, 2022; Kragt, Dumbrell, and Blackmore, 2017), the results of this study suggest information
529 dissemination strategies which focus on enhancing farmers' access to information regarding practices that
530 sequester soil carbon may be ineffective as regards incentivising participation in carbon schemes. Access
531 to information about practices did not appear to constitute a barrier to farmers' adoption of practices in this
532 study; indeed, the majority of farmers had adopted a range of practices and were willing to adopt additional
533 practices. However, they were hesitant and/or not interested in participating in carbon schemes and
534 engaging with the carbon market due to the perceived challenges faced in accessing information related to
535 MRV, carbon contracts, and the risks associated with the market. The data support the findings of Buck
536 and Palumbo-Compton (2022), namely, farmers' scepticism regarding the carbon market cannot simply be
537 addressed by increasing their access to information. Incentivising farmers' engagement with the market
538 necessitates tailoring information to farmers' needs (e.g., traditional media as well as social media) and
539 interests (e.g., clarification as regards market demands for additionality and permanence of carbon
540 sequestered; carbon calculators and MRV protocols, and carbon prices and policies). There is an imperative
541 for stakeholders to reduce the extent to which uncertainty gives rise to speculation and leads to risk-averse
542 behaviour; for example, farmers are currently unsure about the carbon sequestration potential and income
543 generation opportunities associated with practices adopted. Empirical data generated through long-term
544 experiments and space-for-time substitution sites are key to testing and benchmarking models used to
545 interpolate and infer how different combinations of land use, climate, soil type and management practice
546 interact to impact carbon stocks (Jordan et al., 2022; Smith et al., 2019) and enhancing farmers'
547 understanding of how SOC dynamics are affected over time by alternative land management practices, such

548 as cover crops, ley-arable rotations and hedgerow establishment (Biffi et al, 2022; Drexler, Gensior and
549 Don, 2021; McClelland et al., 2020).

550 With regard to the polarisation of the discourse relating to the carbon market, policymakers and practitioners
551 face a major challenge in incentivising farmers' engagement with the market as perceptions regarding the
552 shortcomings of the market and risks associated with carbon schemes may already be entrenched. This is
553 in line with Colvin et al. (2020, p. 27) who observe 'once a topic becomes politically polarized [...] attitudes
554 are likely to be influenced not by the substantive detail of the top, but instead by where their political
555 ideology is seen to be "pro" or "anti"'. The data from this study suggest there is a continuum from pro- to
556 anti-carbon market along which farmers are positioning themselves as regards their interest in participating
557 in carbon schemes; the majority of farmers support the growth and development of the market and recognise
558 the direct sale and/or trade of carbon credits could constitute an additional source of income in the future.
559 However, the findings of this study underscore the extent to which farmers' engagement with peers via
560 online social media – in particular, X (formerly Twitter) – should not be disregarded by policymakers and
561 practitioners seeking to enhance farmers' willingness to engage with the market. Farmers' willingness to
562 engage with the market may be indicative of the fact that, in navigating the information landscape related
563 to the market, they are knowingly and, in some cases, unknowingly, 'selectively engag[ing] with
564 information that reinforces [their] pre-existing beliefs' (Colvin et al., 2020, p. 27). As Rust et al. (2022)
565 note, farmers' knowledge networks and 'social media farmer influencers' could also play an important role
566 in enhancing access to information and opening up new communication channels that appeal to and reach
567 'the modern farmer', as well as challenging misinformation regarding the carbon market. So-called
568 'frontrunner farmers' could also play an important role in enhancing peers' confidence and ability to
569 participate effectively in carbon schemes and, by extension, the market, by sharing experiential knowledge
570 (Cammarata et al., 2024; Phelan, Chapman and Ziv, 2023). The findings of this study suggest there is an
571 imperative for public and private sector and civil society actors to amplify the voices of farmers who are
572 cognisant of the fact that a broader population of farmers conceptualise participation in carbon schemes as
573 exposing them to unknown and unforeseeable risks and facilitating greenwashing by public and/or private
574 sector investors. By sharing insights into the learning curve associated with participation in the market –
575 positive experiences, but equally, their negative experiences - these frontrunner farmers can contribute to
576 challenging entrenched positions in debates and peer-to-peer knowledge exchange via social media that are
577 detrimental to inspiring confidence in the market and supporting its growth and development. However,
578 this necessitates creating integrated farmers' knowledge networks that incorporate 'social media farmer
579 influencers' who may provide 'tangible evidence of the benefits of new management practices and

580 technologies’ and, therefore, be ‘perceived as more credible and trustworthy’ than traditional farm advisory
581 service providers (Rust et al., 2022, p. 38) and frontrunner farmers into the broader agricultural knowledge
582 and information system in the UK (Knierim and Ingram, 2024). As social media is playing an increasingly
583 important role in stimulating individual and collective learning through knowledge exchange and
584 production (Prost, Gross, and Prost, 2022; Phillips, McEntee, and Klerkx, 2021), farmers who are not yet
585 literate in using social media could potentially benefit from training. Conversely, farmer influencers
586 communicating ‘symbols of good farming’ and presenting a ‘nuanced picture of the everyday activities of
587 farming’ (Riley and Robertson, 2021, p.445) could benefit from training on responsible social media use.
588 This would increase the likelihood of the online discourse being balanced and not dominated by the views
589 of a minority either in favour or against carbon sequestration and engagement with the carbon market.
590 Moreover, it would shift the discourse from a polarising focus on ‘good’ and ‘bad’ practices’ to addressing
591 ‘cultural resistance to changes associated with rethinking farm practices’ (Riley and Robertson, 2021,
592 p.438), with farmers already engaging with the market in a position to challenge misinformed discourse
593 and, thereby, support a transition towards more sustainable modes of agricultural production. Currently,
594 ‘few agricultural knowledge and services networks have sustainable soil management as their primary
595 concern’ (Krzywoszynska et al., 2023, p. 8), however, peer-to-peer exchange of relevant knowledge could
596 also be facilitated by the establishment of “living laboratories” premised on a ‘new knowledge culture [...]’
597 [that] engage[s] farmers to become their own researchers, observers and decision-makers [...] rather than
598 expecting them to follow the standard, linear technology transfer model, which invariably is top-down’
599 (Rust et al., 2022, p. 41). These living laboratories could, through adequate, long-term institutional support,
600 be supported to evolve into “lighthouses” to promote joint learning between farmers, government agencies,
601 academics, private sector (e.g., carbon developers, agri-food industry, and investors) and civil society actors
602 regarding the contributions that sustainable soil management can make to ecosystem services as envisaged
603 by the EU Soil Mission (Bouma, 2022; Rust et al., 2022).

604 **4.3 Farmers’ confidence in carbon developers’ and investors’ positive sentiment regarding the** 605 **emerging carbon market**

606 The results of this study suggest farmers are currently only cautiously optimistic and are somewhat sceptical
607 about the emergence of the carbon market. They regard carbon developers as overconfident, relative to farm
608 advisors and agronomists, in their assessment of the income generation potential opportunities associated
609 with carbon schemes and question private investors’ motivation for supporting the emergence of the carbon
610 market. Although investment by public and private sector actors in soil carbon credits is still limited due to
611 questions over the additionality and permanence of carbon sequestered and/or GHG emissions reduced; and

612 the equivalency of carbon credits generated (Oldfield et al., 2022b; Costa Jr. et al., 2020; Vermeulen et al.,
613 2019), carbon trading and offsetting have long been framed in terms of ‘rogue traders [...] trying to make
614 a quick buck’ (Böhm and Dabhi, 2009, p. 14), with ‘gold rush, Wild West, and cowboy metaphors’ used to
615 describe the level of risk inherent to any carbon market (Asplund, 2011, p. 2). Farmers are concerned that
616 they are being encouraged to engage with a carbon market equating to a ‘Wild West’. Although McLaren
617 et al. (2023) and Henderson et al. (2022) have documented general scepticism around the carbon market,
618 farmers’ scepticism and the reasons for their scepticism - alluded to by Brockett et al. (2019) and Fleming
619 et al. (2019) - have to date been somewhat lost in the broader discourse relating to this market; its emergence
620 has been framed as a largely positive development by public and private sector and civil society actors. The
621 findings of this study support Strong and Barbato's (2023) view that farmers do not want to engage with
622 the carbon market against a backdrop of price and policy uncertainty and a lack of rules and regulations
623 governing the functioning of the market. In this context, the development of a minimum standard for soil
624 carbon schemes, such as that proposed by the ‘UK Farm Soil Carbon Code’ (UKFSCC) project (Phelan,
625 Chapman and Ziv, 2024; Black et al., 2022), and broader standards for ecosystem markets being developed
626 by the British Standards Institute (BSI), such as the ‘BSI Flex 701’ which outlines overarching principles
627 and requirements for the design and operation of high-integrity nature schemes (BSI, 2024), can be expected
628 to enhance farmers’ confidence in and ability to compare different MRV approaches and reduce their
629 exposure to unnecessary financial risks by safeguarding the integrity of carbon credits generated. The
630 European Council and Parliament have agreed upon a voluntary Carbon Removal Certification Framework
631 (CRCF) to regulate permanent carbon removals, carbon farming and carbon storage in products (European
632 Council, 2024a; European Council, 2024b; European Council, 2022). This framework has been modelled
633 on a low carbon standard and labelling scheme existing in France, known as ‘Label Bas Carbone’ (Bamière
634 et al., 2021) and, as it explicitly refers to soil emission reductions, goes beyond regulations previously
635 proposed by the European Commission (European Council, 2024a). However, farmers currently still lack
636 clarity and information about the regulatory framework and, specifically, how the minimum certification
637 criteria ‘QU.A.L.I.TY’ (i.e., Quantification, Additionality and baselines, Long-term storage, and
638 Sustainability) should be interpreted in the context of ensuring high-quality removals from climate-friendly
639 soil management (Cammarata et al., 2024; McDonald et al., 2023).

640 Farmers are particularly sceptical about the science underpinning carbon calculators, recognising their
641 ability to meet carbon contract conditions hinges on the existence of a standardised MRV protocol that
642 ensures the accuracy of measurements and safeguards the credibility and integrity of carbon credits. MRV
643 currently constitutes a challenge for farmers due to the costs involved and the uncertainties resulting from

644 the different approaches to estimating and measuring SOC (Oldfield et al., 2022a; Keenor et al., 2021). The
645 data in this study support the views of Black et al. (2022) and Mercer and Burke (2023) who argue the
646 development of an accurate and well-designed MRV protocol is key to not just inspiring confidence among
647 public and private sector actors in the market but, also, the broader farming community. To date, calls for a
648 standardised approach to MRV have stemmed from recognition that private sector investment in the
649 voluntary carbon market hinges on carbon offsets being generated by farmers' adoption of practices
650 resulting in 'genuine climate abatement' by 'correspond[ing] to a real increase in SOC sequestration for the
651 nominated 'permanence' period and represents a fungible unit (t CO₂-e) for offset markets' (Henry et al.,
652 2023, p. 10). The results of this study also support the findings of Costa Jr. et al. (2020) who posit the design
653 of a standardised, low-cost, fit-for-purpose approach to MRV is, equally, key to incentivising farmers'
654 engagement with the market. In the absence of an accurate and well-designed MRV protocol, farmers'
655 participation in carbon projects will continue to be undermined by a lack of confidence in 'the expected
656 relationship between practice change and soil carbon stocks in various climates and soil types' (Henry et
657 al., 2023, p. 29). In this context, the development of minimum standards regulating methods and protocols
658 according to which changes in soil carbon are measured will ensure the generation of robust scientific
659 evidence that farmers' investments in soil carbon sequestration practices deliver the intended public goods
660 benefits and do not have unwanted effects, while also reassuring private investors about the integrity of
661 carbon credits generated (Reed et al., 2022).

662 **4.4 Farmers' expectations as regards the growth and development trajectory of the market**

663 The results of the study indicate farmers recognise the voluntary carbon market will become mature and
664 stabilise over time; indeed, the data suggest they are accepting of the fact that the market currently
665 constitutes 'a necessary sandbox for innovation [...] a mechanism to bridge the divide between current
666 challenges and a GHG conscious economy of the future [...] [that] should be reimagined [...] rather than
667 [an] instrument[t] to be overly-disparaged, or abandoned' (Miltenberger et al., 2021, p. 2).

668 As Michaelowa et al. (2019) observe, enhancing the transparency of additionality determination, baseline
669 setting, third-party validation and verification procedures facilitates scrutiny and improvement of carbon
670 market mechanisms. The results of this study suggest farmers expect the market to become transparent over
671 time and, consequently, also more effective and efficient, as new information emerges regarding carbon
672 calculators and carbon contracts, as regards additionality and permanence expectations, and a standardised
673 MRV protocol is developed and implemented by all market participants. Given interaction between farmers,
674 carbon developers and public and private sector investors is currently defined by a lack of trust, the data
675 generated by this study support the view that enhancing access to information and promoting information

676 exchange relating to MRV - for example, through the development of minimum standards for soil carbon
677 schemes and ecosystem markets (Phelan, Chapman and Ziv, 2024; Black et al., 2022; Reed et al., 2022) -
678 will be key to reducing price dispersion and the transaction costs currently associated with participation in
679 the market (Fabregas et al., 2019; Michaelowa et al., 2019). The digitalisation of agriculture and increased
680 reliance on technologies such as blockchain may, in the future, play a key role in further reducing
681 information asymmetry in the carbon market (Ehlers et al., 2021) and enhancing the traceability of
682 information and the reliability of information flow in carbon emission trading and/or direct sale (Pan et al.,
683 2019). The data underscore the imperative for public sector actors and civil society actors to fulfil their
684 socio-moral obligation to regulate the market (Shamir, 2008) but, equally importantly, reduce information
685 asymmetry and enhance trust by encouraging private sector investors to voluntarily disclose information
686 related to their carbon performance (Borghei, 2021; Velte et al., 2020).

687 **5. Conclusion**

688 This paper, which takes the emerging UK carbon market as a case study, generates important insights for
689 policymakers and practitioners globally by underscoring farmers are currently reluctant to engage with the
690 market as they find it difficult to decode and evaluate the quality, objectivity, utility, and integrity of
691 messaging received regarding the market and the risks associated with participation in carbon schemes due
692 to the polarisation of offline- and online market-related discourse. In the UK, an information void has led
693 to the positions and perspectives of carbon developers and a minority of farmers – who are risk-taking or
694 risk-neutral and in favour of and/or already engaging with the carbon market – being amplified; it has also
695 resulted in the majority of farmers, who are risk-averse, feeling alienated by market-related discourse and
696 private sector actors' information dissemination strategies and sceptical about the benefits derived from
697 participation in carbon schemes and, by extension, engagement with the market. This paper underscores the
698 urgent imperative for policymakers and practitioners globally to regulate the market and enhance the
699 availability of, access to, and exchange of credible, context-appropriate market-related information through
700 traditional media and social media; farm advisory services; as well as peer-to-peer knowledge exchange
701 networks (e.g., living laboratory and lighthouse farms). By providing information and supporting
702 knowledge exchange related, in particular, to ongoing efforts to develop a standardised MRV protocol, as
703 well as minimum standards for soil carbon schemes and ecosystem markets that will safeguard the integrity
704 of carbon credits, policymakers and practitioners can ensure farmers are in a position to make informed
705 decisions as regards engaging with the market. In addition to enhancing farmers' confidence in carbon
706 developers' and investors' positive sentiment regarding the market, this information provision and

707 knowledge exchange will also ensure the information void which currently exists does not stymie the long-
708 term growth and development trajectory of the market.

709 **Acknowledgements**

710 We would like to thank all of the farmers who participated in this study. This work was supported by the
711 ‘UK Farm Soil Carbon Code’ (UKFSCC) project financed by the Environmental Agency Natural
712 Environment Investment Readiness Fund (NEIRF) and the Natural Environment Research Council (NERC)
713 Yorkshire Integrated Catchment Solutions Programme (iCASP) [grant number NE/P011160/1]. LP was
714 partially supported by the Resilient Dairy Landscape project [grant number BB/R005664/1], the
715 ClieNFarms project [grant number EU/101036822] and the NOVASOIL project [grant number
716 EU/101091268].

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