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Abstract

Agri-environmental schemes (AES) aimed at promoting farmland biodiversity are a key agricultural policy instrument in Switzerland. While the share of farmland managed under AES has expanded, traditional orchard meadows, regarded as agrobiodiversity hotspots, are declining. It is not clear yet what role AES play in maintaining orchard meadows, considering the effects of different farm management. Thus, the objective of this study was to examine the effects of AES on farmers' decision-making regarding orchard meadows across a range of farm types. We developed an ecological-economic assessment model by integrating the results of the expert system SALCA-BD (Swiss Agricultural Life Cycle Assessment—Biodiversity) into the optimization-based bio-economic farm model (BEFM). We applied the model to five typical farm types (small dairy, large dairy, suckler, orchard, and small farms) identified in a rural region of northern Switzerland.

31 Modeling results show that the adoption of AES considerably varies among farm types according to the
32 compliance cost of participating in AES. Also, the current AES do not provide farmers with sufficient payments
33 to maintain any type of orchard meadows. Instead, converting orchard meadows into arable land would
34 generate higher incomes for farmers. This study recommends farm type specific payments to different farm
35 types and a regulatory framework that incentivizes farmers to preserve the existing area of orchard meadows.
36 **Keywords:** agri-environmental schemes; orchard meadows; farmland biodiversity; integrated ecological-
37 economic modeling; land-use decision; cost-effectiveness.

38 **Introduction**

39 Given the increasing awareness of biodiversity degradation in Switzerland (BAFU, 2017; OECD, 2017), Swiss
40 agricultural policies have developed agri-environmental schemes (AES) to promote biodiversity on farmland,
41 including orchards, vineyards, vegetables, etc. (Bundesrat, 2016). AES are voluntary programs that provide
42 financial incentives for farmers. In the case of Switzerland, AES are a part of direct payments. Considering
43 the high share of direct payments to the total farm income in Switzerland (around 50% on average in 2018-
44 20; OECD (2021)), land-use decisions can be assumed to be highly dependent on public payments. One of
45 the requirements for receiving direct payments is that at least 7% of a farm's production area needs to be
46 managed under AES. These areas are referred to as Ecological Focus Areas (EFA) (Mack et al., 2020), similar
47 to EFA in the European Union, but related to different conditions and focus on the provision of farmland
48 biodiversity.

49 The majority of EFA are implemented on grassland and conventional high-stem orchards (Herzog et al.,
50 2017). Particularly, orchard meadows are likely to play a key role in biodiversity promotion as agrobiodiversity
51 hotspots under AES (Kay et al., 2018; Van Der Meer et al., 2020). Due to their diverse structure, they supply
52 habitats for various species groups, including small mammals, reptiles and several insect groups (Bailey et al.,
53 2010). Along with biological diversity, orchard meadows provide socio-cultural features such as landscape
54 aesthetics, recreation and regional identity (Herzog, 1998; Schönhart, et al., 2011a). However, maintaining
55 orchard meadows has become increasingly challenging, due to higher production costs, mechanized farming,
56 increasing quality requirements and the infestation of invasive fruit flies (Baroffio et al., 2014; Eichhorn et al.,
57 2006). The decline in orchards may trigger the loss of not only the traditional characteristics of the regional

58 landscape but also the habitats for various species. Therefore, the recent decline in orchard meadows in
59 Switzerland (ALW, 2019; Sereke et al., 2015) is of great concern. It is vital to investigate to what extent AES
60 have an impact on the maintenance of orchards and farmland biodiversity given a certain level of AES'
61 payments. The cost of adopting AES is a critical factor in farmers' decisions of whether to participate (Huber
62 et al., 2021). Also, the diffiered effects of AES across specific farm types should be considered as varied
63 adoption costs are expected due to the differences in farm management.

64 There is accumulating evidence that farm types influence the effects of AES differently (Armsworth et
65 al., 2012; Hanley et al., 2012). Bamière et al. (2011) argued that a detailed representation of farm
66 management can provide us with valuable insights into designing agri-environmental policies and AES.
67 Indeed, Mack et al.(2020) revealed that the implementation of action-based AES was strongly influenced by
68 farm types. Therefore, simplified AES can lead to less ecologically beneficial effects, failing their conservation
69 potential (Wunder et al., 2018), although they may be readily implemented by farmers (Armsworth et al.,
70 2012). However, more research is needed about the direct relationship between heterogeneous farm types
71 and their effects on the cost-effectiveness of AES. Fewer than 15% of studies evaluate cost-effectiveness
72 when assessing AES (Ansell et al., 2016). Investigating the cost-effectiveness of payment programs can be a
73 key to providing relevant implications for optimizing AES and ensuring the sustainability of agricultural policy
74 (Wuepper & Huber, 2021). Also, unless such programs prove to be cost-effective, some legitimacy concerns
75 may arise: governmental bodies, taxpayers and users of ecosystem services may be reluctant to pay (Wunder
76 et al., 2020).

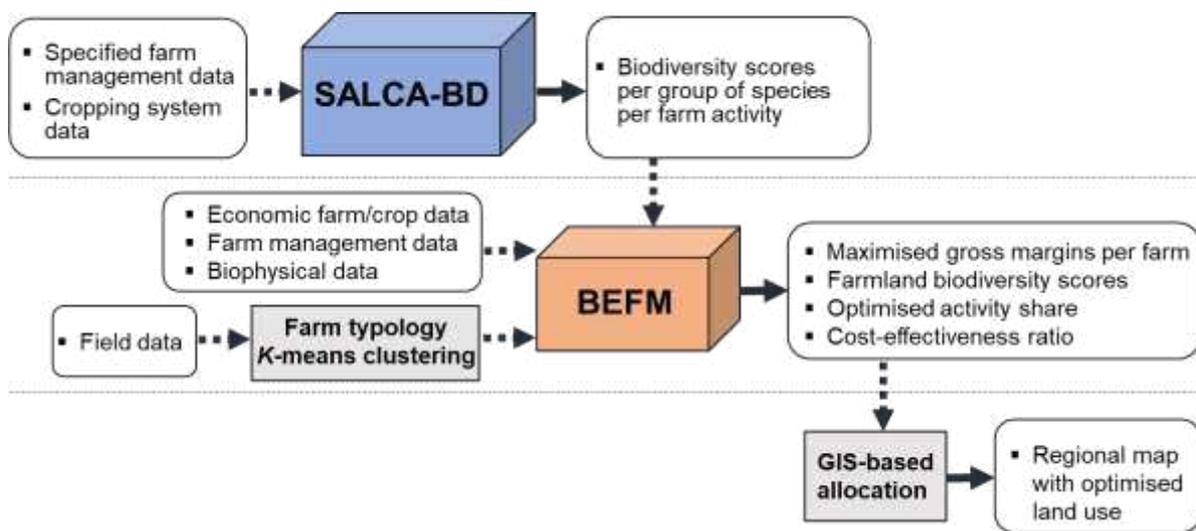
77 To address this science-policy gap, we developed an ecological-economic assessment model by
78 integrating the results of the expert system for farmland biodiversity assessment, SALCA-BD (Swiss
79 Agricultural Life Cycle Assessment—Biodiversity), into an optimization-based bio-economic farm model
80 (BEFM). The objective of this study is to provide policymakers with insight into the design of cost-effective
81 AES, taking into account different farm types, for maintaining orchard meadows and promoting farmland
82 biodiversity. To that end, we investigated the feedback mechanisms between AES and their subsequent
83 ecological and economic effects per farm type, via farmers' decisions on land-use. We addressed the
84 following research questions:

85 1. What role do AES play in land-use and sustaining orchard meadows?

- 86 2. Which type of farms are more likely to implement AES and which measure?
 87 3. How does the cost-effectiveness of AES differ from farm types?
 88 4. How would AES change the regional land use and affect the diversity of individual species?

89 **Method**

90 Fig. 1 illustrates our methodological approach for this study, in which we integrated the SALCA-BD and the
 91 BEFM, and describes the flow of model inputs and outputs. The following subsections explain each of these
 92 methodologies in depth.



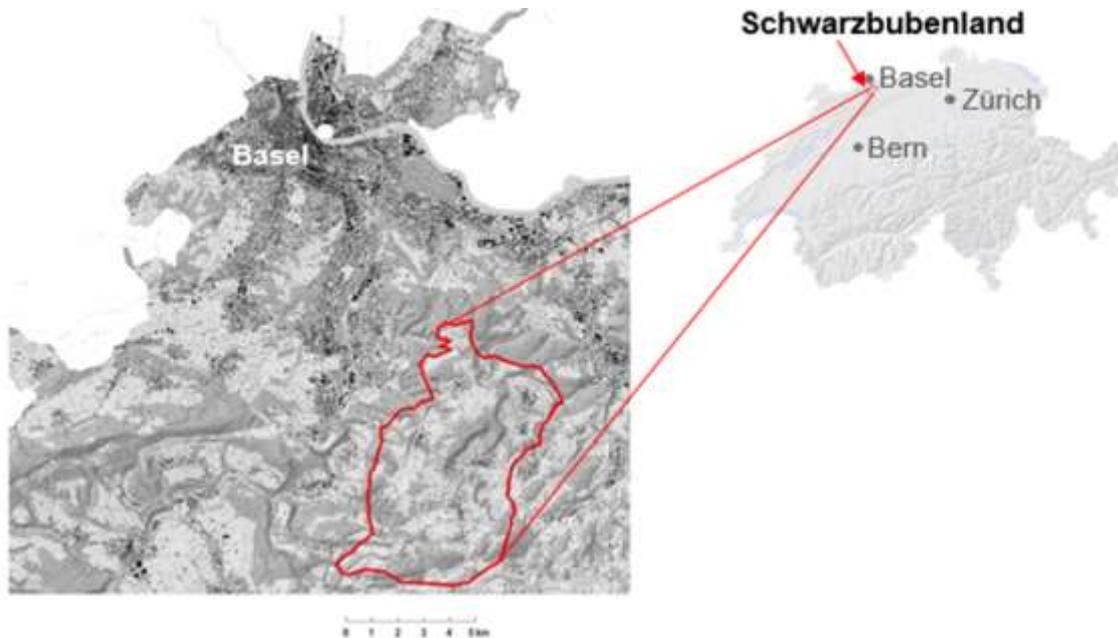
93
 94 **Fig. 1** Structure of the ecological-economic model with the flow of inputs and outputs, integrated the results of each activity
 95 from the expert system for farmland biodiversity assessment (SALCA-BD) into the optimization-based bio-economic farm
 96 model (BEFM)

97 **Case Sstudy Region and Data**

98 The study region, Schwarzbubenland, is located in Canton Solothurn, characterized by gently rolling hills
 99 (elevation 430 to 670m). The average temperature is between 7.7 °C and 9.1 °C with annual precipitation of
 100 800 to 1000mm. Forestry (44%) and farmland (43%) are the main land-uses. The area size is approximately
 101 50km², of which 1,783 hectare is used as farmland, consisting of 32% arable land, 20% grassland and 48%
 102 orchard meadows.

103 Canton Solothurn provided spatially-explicit 4,698 field data spots in 2020 on the type of livestock, crops,
 104 management, the number of trees, area size, and the average slope degree (ALW, 2020). Of the recoded 74
 105 farms, over half of the farming enterprises are mixed farms, with combinations of arable crops and animal

106 husbandry (mostly cattle for milk and meat production) and some fruit production. The average farm size is
107 (24.1ha), slightly larger than the average Swiss farm (21ha; FSO, 2020), with approximately 0.77 livestock
108 units per hectare.



109

110 **Fig. 2** The study region: Schwarzbubenland (Switzerland)

111 **SALCA-BD (Swiss Agricultural Life Cycle Assessment—Biodiversity)**

112 The expert system SALCA-BD (Jeanneret et al., 2014) evaluates the habitat suitability and favorable or
113 adverse effects of agricultural activities on terrestrial species diversity at a field scale (Lüscher et al., 2017).
114 Farmland biodiversity is represented by a set of indicator species groups (ISGs) that are sensitive to land use
115 and farm management: vascular plants, birds, mammals, amphibians, snails, spiders, carabids, butterflies,
116 wild bees, and grasshoppers. SALCA-BD assessed farm activities on both arable land and grassland as well as
117 EFA. Along with the assessment of habitats' suitability on each ISG, management options such as fertilizer
118 and plant protection use, soil tillage, sowing, irrigation, the number and timing of mowing, etc., were
119 explored. The SALCA-BD scores are calculated per ISG per farm activity and range between 0-50. The
120 evaluation is non-spatially explicit. Results from the model have been validated in Switzerland and
121 neighboring countries (Lüscher et al., 2017). Jeanneret et al. (2014) explain the method in more detail.
122 Appendix: **SALCA-BD result** presents the biodiversity scores of the farm activities at a field-level evaluated
123 with the model in this study.

124 For the aggregation of the habitats at a farm-level, we assumed a linear relationship between the
125 biodiversity score of each farm activity and its area. Hence, we calculated the farmland biodiversity (FBD)
126 score as follows:

$$127 \text{ FBD score per farm type} = \sum_i^n \sum_j^m \text{BD score}_{ij} * \text{Area}_{ij} / \text{total farm size}$$

128 where BD score is the biodiversity estimated with SALCA-BD, i a farm activity, j a management option. To
129 obtain the biodiversity score at the regional-level, the FBD scores of each farm type are aggregated by
130 applying the weight of aggregation.

131 **Farm Typology**

132 We used a centroid-based clustering analysis ,the k-means clustering, to identify typical farm types in the
133 study region. The number of clusters needs to be determined a priori. To determine the optimal number of
134 centroids, we used the elbow method (Bholowalia & Kumar, 2014), while observing the performance of the
135 cluster method at the same time. Online Resource 1 outlines the methods in detail. Based on the expert
136 knowledge and the collected field data, we selected the following six explanatory variables for the
137 identification of representative farms: the number of suckler cows and dairy cows (LSU), area of arable land,
138 grassland, and orchard (ha) and stock intensity (LSU/ha). We considered the intensity of livestock and the
139 area of extensive farmland habitats in the explanatory variables, as our typology of farms should reflect
140 environmental impacts (Andersen et al, 2007):.

141 **BEFM (the Bio-Economic Farm Model)**

142 **General Approach**

143 The BEFM we developed can determine the optimal production pattern and level of land-use by maximizing
144 the total gross margin (GM) given available resources and restrictions (Schuler et al., 2020; Uthes et al., 2011),
145 given the assumption that farm behaves as a profit maximizer. Thus, it follows the general form of a linear
146 programming model for n activities and m structural restrictions (Kaiser & Messer, 2011):

$$147 \text{ maximize } Z = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j x_j$$

$$148 \text{ subject to: } \sum_{j=1}^n a_j x_j \leq b_i$$

149 and $x_j \geq 0$

150 where $i = 1, 2, \dots, m; j = 1, 2, \dots, n$

151 where Z is the total GM at a farm level, x farm activities, c GM or costs per unit of activity, a technical
152 coefficients, and b resource availability or upper/lower limits of activities. We developed the BEFM for each
153 of the identified typical farm types with the same formula above. The add-in COIN-OR CBC linear solver
154 (OpenSolver 2.9.3) in Excel was used to find the optimal solution in the linear-programming model (Mason,
155 2012).

156 **Farm Activities**

157 The BEFM covers the main activities observed in the farm types that we identified: crop production (cash
158 and fodder production), grassland production (meadows and pasture), livestock production and AES. Some
159 of the activities belong to both fodder production and AES (e.g. less intensive meadows, extensive meadows
160 and orchard meadows). In reality, farmers can choose any EFA from the list of AES, but we selected the most
161 relevant measures in our model (Table 1). We also considered different management options for each
162 activity that distinguish the intensity level of inputs. Extensive management must be free of fungicides, plant
163 growth regulators, insecticides, or chemical-synthetic stimulators of natural resistance (Böcker et al., 2019).

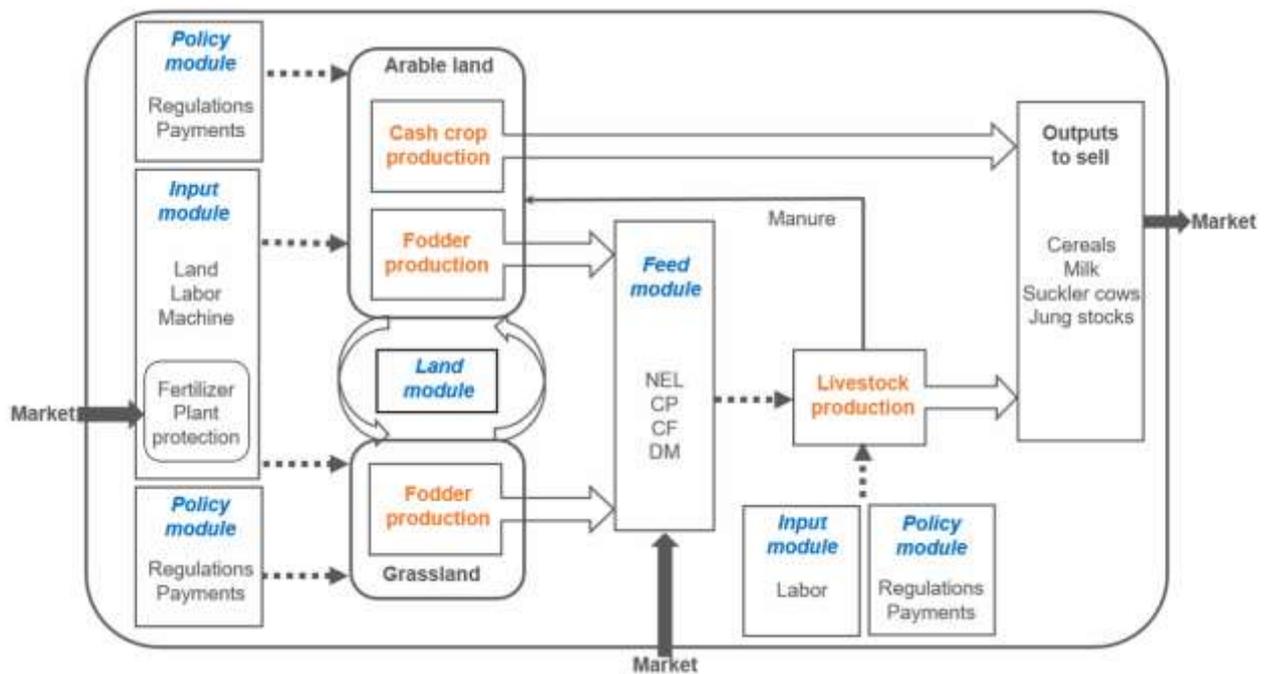
164 To obtain crop yields across intensity levels, we referred to the yearly, average regional yield data (2003-
165 2020) in Canton Solothurn (Erdin, 2021) and the gross margin report of AGRIDEA: "Deckungsbeiträge DBKAT"
166 (AGRIDEA, 2020). For grass yields, we referred to the formula in GRUD (Agroscope, 2017) and estimated the
167 yields of meadows and pastures at different intensities given the elevation in the study region. Online
168 Resource 2 (Table S.2 1&2) provides all activities modeled in this study, including their yields, variable costs,
169 GMs, etc.

170

171 **Table 1** List of the production activities modeled in the bio-economic farm model

Grassland (Fodder)		Arable land (Fodder)		Arable land (Cash crops)	
Intensive	Meadow	Intensive	Fodder wheat	Intensive	Spelt wheat
	Pasture		Triticale		Winter Wheat
Less intensive	Meadow ¹	Oats	Spring wheat		
Extensive	Meadow ¹	Extensive	Winter barley	Rye	
	Pasture ¹		Ley pasture	Spelt wheat	
	Orchard-meadow ¹	Fodder wheat	Winter Wheat	Spring wheat	
		Triticale	Oats	Rye	
		Winter barley	Winter barley	Flower strips ¹	
		Ley pasture	Ley pasture		
		White peas	White peas		
		Silo-green corn	Silo-green corn		

172 Less intensive meadow¹, extensive meadow/pasture¹, orchard meadow¹ and flower strips¹ are eligible to receive the payments
 173 from AES



174
 175 **Fig. 3** Activity flow inside the BEFM in the case of the dairy farm. NEL is net energy lactation, CP crude-protein, CF crude-fibre
 176 and DM dry matter

177 **Modules**

178 The BEFM was constructed in a modular way. It is recommended that BEFMs should be modular to enhance
 179 the use of evidence in policymaking processes (Janssen et al., 2010; Reidsma et al., 2018). There are four
 180 modules exogenously given in the model (Fig. 3). Each module is a subset of a larger section of the linear
 181 programming and comprises a set of constraints that serve to optimize the farm's gross margin.

182 **Land Module**

183 We assumed that farmers could convert grassland into arable land depending on the payment level of direct
184 payments as a result of maximizing the GM. Hence, this land module allows the model to convert the initial
185 area of grassland into crop production and determines the optimal ratio of land use (i.e., the share of
186 grassland, orchard and arable land). Under Swiss agri-environmental regulations, this conversion is possible
187 as long as erosion events can be avoided. Nonetheless, we assumed that permanent grassland would remain
188 on steep slopes (>24%) regardless of the payment level.

189 **Input Module**

190 This module explicitly specifies the required labor hours and the level of input usage of different fertilizers
191 and plant protection for each activity. For fertilizers, we considered N, P₂O₅, K₂O and Mg, and for plant
192 protection, herbicides, fungicides, insecticides, growth regulators and trichogramma. The cost of seeds and
193 machinery and other miscellaneous items were also included (AGRIDEA, 2020). Online Resource 2 (Table S.2
194 3) details all the categories of variable costs included in this module for each farm activity. Note that we
195 assumed manure to be used only within the farm without any exchanges with other farms.

196 **Feed Module**

197 This feed module balances the supply and demand of livestock for feed in a nutritional form. We selected
198 net energy lactation (NEL) in MJ/DM-kg (DM=dry matter), crude-protein in kg/DM-kg and crude-fibre in
199 kg/DM-kg. We referred to the database of feed nutrition developed in Switzerland (FEEDBASE) to identify
200 the nutritional values of the modeled crops and grasses. Supplement B describes these values per activity.
201 To estimate the demand for livestock nutrition, we assumed the specific weight and performance of an adult
202 milk cow: a 600 kg cow produces 8,000 liters of milk per year and young stocks (offspring of cows). We
203 referred to the feed requirement tables (DLG, 1997) and determined the minimal requirement of the
204 selected nutritional values as well as the maximum intake of dry matter per day per cow. For young stocks,
205 we aggregated the nutritional requirements over different developmental phases of heifers, calves and bulls.
206 Table 2 shows the results of the calculation for the nutritional constraints in the feed module.

207

208 **Table 2** Nutritional constraints in the feed module to balance the supply and demand of livestock for nutrition

	Dairy cow		Suckler cow	
	Adult cow	Youngstock	Adult cow	Youngstock
Maximum DM intake per day (kg)	16.8	12.5	14.0	7.8
Minimum NEL per day (MJ)	105.0	47.1	80.0	36.1
Minimum crude-protein per day (kg)	2.3	1.2	1.9	0.9
Minimum crude-fibre per day (kg)	3.4	2.4	2.8	1.4

209 Note that the unit kg is referred to the weight of dry matter (DM). NEL is net energy lactation

210 **Agricultural Policy Module**

211 This module captures the role of direct payments including the AES payments in farmers' land-use decisions
 212 by incorporating the obligatory measures and payments. We selected 14 different payment types (Bundesrat,
 213 2016). Online Resource 2 (Table S.2 4) details the total amount of direct payments that each activity receives
 214 and the breakdown of the sum. Table 3 lists all the restrictions that were implemented in the BEFM.

215 **Table 3** List of the modeling restrictions

Type of restrictions	Explanation
Restrictions to qualify for direct payments	Crop rotation cereals (without corn and oats < 66% of AL), crop rotation wheat, spelt and triticale (< 50% of AL), crop rotation oats (< 25% of AL), crop rotation corn (< 40% of AL), crop rotation white peas (<15% of AL), flower strips (<50% of AL), Biodiversity measure (>7% of total farmland), minimal livestock intensity, grassland-based milk and meat program ¹
Restrictions based on expert knowledge	Pasture limitation (less than 50% of grassland), nutritional balance (upper limit of DM intake, minimum NEL, crude-protein and crude-fibre), permanent GL (slope degree >= 24%), crop rotation limit cereals (<80% of AL)
Restrictions based on statistics	Total farm size, area of permanent GL, GL and AL, area of flexible land, labor hour, youngstock balance (share of offspring to adult cows), stable capacity

216 GL/AL are grassland and arable land. DM/NEL mean dry matter and net energy lactation. *The participation of the grassland-
 217 based milk and meat program was assumed to be subjected to only the large dairy farm and the suckler farm

218 Table 4 shows the current payment level for EFA. While quality measures (QI) is an action-based
 219 measure rewarding farmers for adopting designated EFA, quality measures (QII) is a result-based measure
 220 for fulfilling specific goals (Mack et al., 2020). For this study, we only considered the payment level of QI. This
 221 is because not all fields are eligible for QII as they require specific site and biophysical conditions. Yet, for
 222 high-stem fruit trees, we considered both payments of QI and QII. This is because the payments for trees are
 223 primarily determined by the age of a tree (QI for 0 to 10 years and QII after 11 years) and additional measures
 224 (nesting boxes for birds, extensive grasslands, etc.). Thus, the extra costs to qualify for QII can be assumed

225 to be negligible. Therefore, given an assumed tree's life of 60 years (Giannitsopoulos et al., 2020), we
 226 averaged the payments over 60 years per year and calculated the annual payment. In this study, we selected
 227 two types of orchard meadows, as explained in the next section.

228 **Table 4** The current payments of AES in Switzerland and the payment level calculated for the model of this study

Biodiversity measures (EFA)	Quality measure I	Quality measure II	Modeled payment
Extensive meadow (CHF/ha)	860	1840	860
Less intensive meadow (CHF/ha)	450	1,200	450
Extensive pasture (CHF/ha)	450	700	450
High-stem fruit trees (CHF/tree)	13,50	31,5	39.8
Orchard meadow Type A (CHF/ha)			1,642
Orchard meadow Type B (CHF/ha)			2,052
Flower strips (CHF/ha)	2,500	-	2,500

229 Only high-stem fruits trees consider both QI and QII payments. Orchard meadows receive payments for the corresponding
 230 meadow production as well as payments for trees (assumed 30 trees per hectare). Orchard meadow Type A and B are explained
 231 in the next subsection **Orchard Meadows**

232 **Orchard Meadows**

233 The orchards in the study region are mainly high-stem cherry trees (Kay et al., 2018). To model orchard
 234 meadows in the BEFM, we made several assumptions. First, we assumed two types of orchard meadows
 235 available in the model: orchard meadows with and without commercial cherry production. For orchard
 236 meadows with commercial cherry production (orchard meadow Type A), we assumed that they were
 237 managed on less intensive meadows. The gross margin of Type A is based on three price levels (low-medium-
 238 high). For orchard meadows without commercial cherry production (orchard meadow Type B), we assumed
 239 that farmers did not harvest cherries, but kept the trees only to receive subsidies. We also assume that
 240 orchard meadow Type B is managed on extensive meadows. Based on our available data, we assumed that
 241 30 trees were planted per hectare for both types of orchard meadows. In the mode, both types of orchard
 242 meadows are available for all farm types. Table 5 describes the detailed gross margin calculation for the
 243 modeled orchard meadows. Online Resource 2 (Table S.2 5) contains comprehensive gross margin
 244 calculations of orchard meadows with further disaggregated items.

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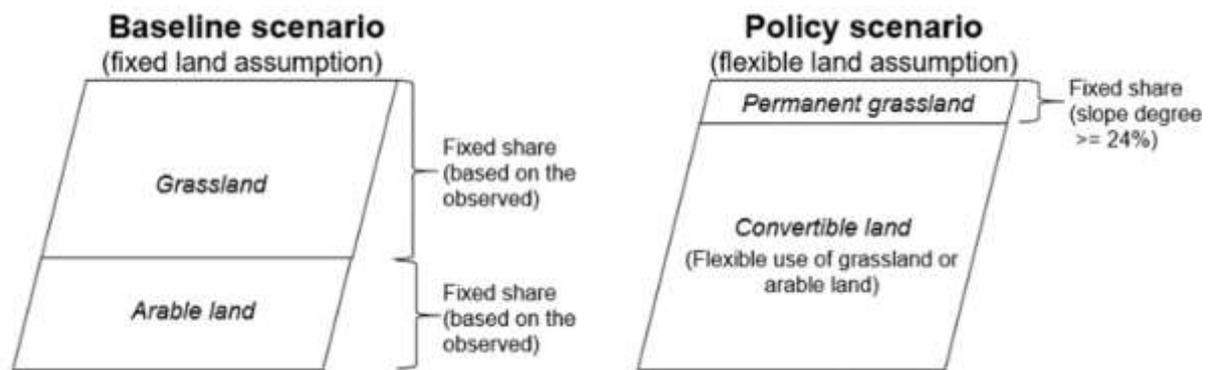
246 **Table 5** GM calculation for the modeled orchard meadows

	Orchard meadow Type A	Orchard meadow Type B	Source
Description	Commercial cherry production	Non commercial cherry production but maintaining trees for AES	Own source (based on the observation)
Trees	30 trees/ha	30 trees/ha	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Cherry yield	30 kg/tree	-	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Cherry price	1.5/1.2/0.73 CHF/kg	-	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Meadow management	Less intensive (2 cuts/year)	Extensive (1 cut/year, no fertilizer)	According to a local expert
Forage yield loss	-15% less (yield: 54 dt/ha)	-10% less (yield: 23 dt/ha)	Schönhart 2011a
Annual replanting	0.5 tree/ha	0.5 tree/ha	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Establishment cost	140 CHF/tree	140 CHF/tree	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Maintenance cost ¹	6,585 CHF/ha	630 CHF/ha	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Clearing cost ¹	60 CHF/tree	60 CHF/tree	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Labor	44 hour/ha	27 hour/ha	Giannitsopoulos 2020
Subsidy for trees	39.8 CHF/tree	39.8 CHF/tree	Bundesrat 2016
Total subsidy	2,393 CHF/ha	2,803 CHF/ha	Bundesrat 2016
Total revenues	3,743 (1.5 CHF/kg) 3,473 (1.2 CHF/kg)		
Total costs ¹	3,050 (0.73 CHF/kg) 6,837 CHF/ha	2,803 CHF 882 CHF/ha	
GM with subsidy	-3,094 CHF/ha (1.5 CHF/kg) -3,364 CHF/ha (1.2 CHF/kg) -3,787 CHF/ha (0.73 CHF/kg)	1,921 CHF/ha	

247 Establishing cost¹, clearing cost¹ and total costs¹ are converted into annual equivalent costs based on a discount rate of 4%
 248 (Giannitsopoulos et al., 2020) and the average inflation rate over the last 30 years in Switzerland (0.9%). Maintenance cost
 249 includes input use, harvesting and machinery for orchard meadow Type A and machinery and miscellaneous costs for orchard
 250 meadow Type B

251 Policy Scenarios

252 Fig. 4 illustrates how we ran the model with the baseline scenario and the policy scenarios. We first ran the
 253 model to retrieve the optimal baseline solution given the current payment level and the fixed land
 254 assumption. Next, we ran the model, while increasing the payment level from the current level to 200% by
 255 10% increments. For this policy scenario, we applied the flexible land assumption. Thus, the model can
 256 determine the optimal share of grassland and arable land at each level of payments of AES and corresponding
 257 cropping patterns.



258

259 **Fig. 4** Land-use determined under the land module with the baseline and policy scenarios. Note that both grassland and
 260 permanent grassland can be also used as orchard meadows in the model

261 **Evaluation of Cost-Effectiveness**

262 We measured the cost-effectiveness of AES using the following two indicators: the cost-effectiveness ratio
 263 (CER) (Schönhart, et al., 2011b) and the producer rent. The CER represents the maximum FBD (farmland
 264 biodiversity) score that each farm can obtain per 1,000 CHF of AES payments. To compare the CERs among
 265 farm types, the amount of payments paid out from AES is divided by EFA. Thus, the CER (unit: FBD
 266 score/1,000 CHF) is computed per hectare as follows:

267
$$\text{CER} = (\text{FBD score} / (\text{payout from AES} / \text{EFA})) * 1,000$$

268 The producer rent quantifies how much the implementation of AES forges the income of farms (Drechsler,
 269 2020). It indicates the opportunity costs associated with impending AES. The producer rent (unit: CHF/ha) is
 270 calculated as follows:

271
$$\text{producer rent} = (\text{GM with AES} - \text{GM without AES}) / \text{total farm size}$$

272 Both CER and the producer rent were calculated per farm type and were also aggregated for the regional
 273 scale with the weights.

274 **Map Regional Change of Orchard Meadows**

275 To map the farm-level modeling results to each of the fields, we first identified which farm type was located
 276 in which field. Then we assigned either of the land-use options in shares obtained with the model (grassland,
 277 orchard meadows or arable land) per farm type to each of the fields. Second, to determine which fields were
 278 most likely to belong to which land-use option, we assumed that fields with lower slope degrees would be
 279 covered by arable land for lower production costs, while on fields with higher slope degrees trees would be

280 planted on meadows to prevent erosion. This is consistent with a finding by Huber et al.(2021) that fields
281 with steeper slopes are more likely to enter the agglomeration scheme, which is a part of Swiss AES. The
282 remaining fields were assigned as grassland.

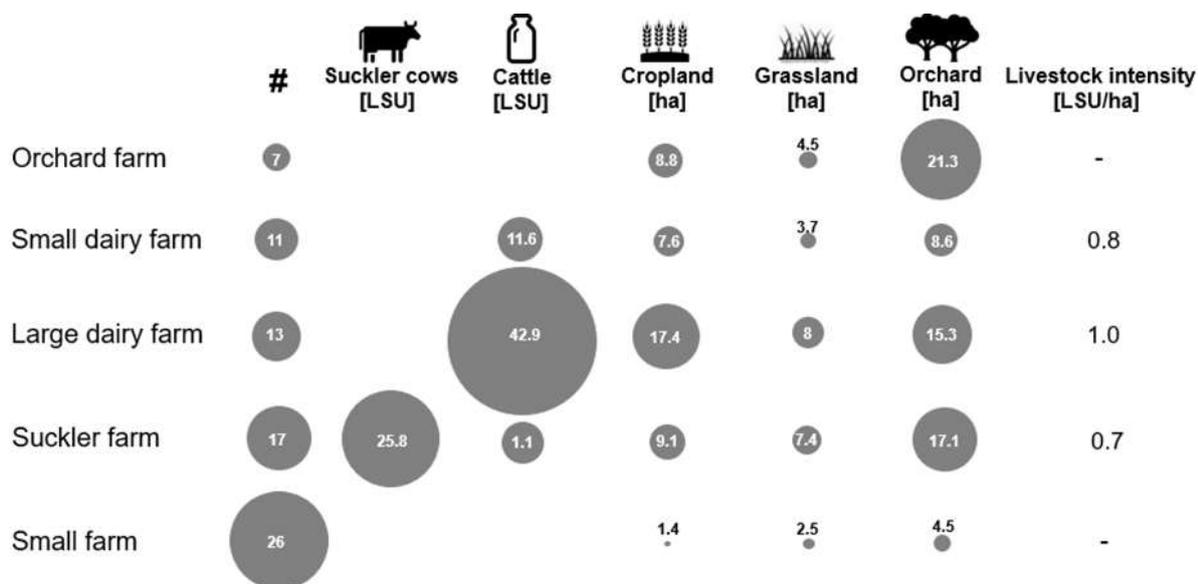
283 **Results**

284 **Farm Typology**

285 We identified the following five representative farm types in the study region with the k-means clustering
286 and the elbow method in R (Version 1.2.1335) (Fig. 5): 1. Orchard farm without livestock (high-value trees
287 and commercial cherry production, mainly cherries); 2. Small-scale dairy farm; 3. Large-scale dairy farm; 4.
288 Suckler farm and 5. Small-scale farms without livestock. Fig. 5 Identified representative farm types (left
289 column) with the k-means clustering in the study region and the average value of each explanatory variable.
290 LSU: Livestock units. # indicates the number of farms found in each farm type

291

292 **Table 6** outlines the characteristics of these five farm types and their management. Given the number of
 293 farms and their farm size, large dairy and suckler farms are found to be the most prevalent farm types in the
 294 region. However, their management is contrastingly different. Large dairy farms tend to adopt intensive
 295 farming as they own more arable land and less extensive grassland, whereas suckler farms utilize more
 296 extensive grassland. These results were confirmed with regional stakeholders.



297
 298 **Fig. 5** Identified representative farm types (left column) with the k-means clustering in the study region and the average value
 299 of each explanatory variable. LSU: Livestock units. # indicates the number of farms found in each farm type

300

301 **Table 6** Modeled farm types and their characteristics

	Orchard	Small dairy	Large dairy	Suckler farm	Small farm
Farm size (ha)	34.8	19.9	40.7	33.6	8.5
Weight for aggregation	14%	12%	30%	32%	12%
Initial grassland share	72%	60%	56%	70%	81%
Of which extensive grassland	41%	29%	19%	31%	46%
Permanent grassland	9.4%	10.5%	8.1%	5.9%	24.8%
Livestock	no	yes	yes	yes	No
Livestock intensity (LSU/ha)	-	0.6	1.1	0.8	-
Capacity of livestock (LSU)	-	12	43	26	-
Labor availability in AWU	0.5	1.34	1.9	1.34	0.2
Grassland-based milk and meat program ¹	-	no	yes	yes	-

302 AWU stands for the annual working unit (1 AWU = 1800 hours). We assumed that the orchard and small farms were part-time
 303 farms due to the small scale farming. Grassland-based milk and meat program¹ provides farmers with an extra subsidy if they
 304 keep more than 75% of the share of fodder produced from grassland and less than 10% of the share of concentration (in weight
 305 of dry matter)

306 Orchard Meadows with the Baseline Scenario

307 Under this baseline scenario, the EFA of all farm types exceeds the obligatory level (7% of the total farmland)
 308 (**Table 7**). All farm types except for the large dairy farm chose orchard meadows for more than 50% of the
 309 total farmland. In particular, farm types without livestock (orchard and small farms) resulted in a higher share
 310 of orchard meadows. This led to a higher share of subsidy to the GM, which was more than 100%. By contrast,
 311 the large dairy farm resulted in the lowest share of orchard meadows. Regarding the FBD scores, orchard
 312 and small farms obtained higher values than the other farm types because of a relatively large share of
 313 orchard meadows and a lower share of arable land. Accordingly, their CERs were relatively high.

314 **Table 7** Optimal baseline results per farm type with the current payments given the assumption that the area of grassland
 315 cannot be converted into arable land

	GM	Subsidy to GM	EFA (%)	Trees	FBD score	CER	Produce r-rent	Grass land	Orchard	Arable land
Orchard farm	73,322	113%	72%	755	12.2	6.0	541	0%	72%	28%
Small dairy farm	83,414	51%	52%	313	10.6	5.2	589	8%	52%	40%
Large dairy farm	236,446	31%	29%	350	9.4	4.6	256	28%	29%	44%
Suckler farm	101,440	77%	65%	659	11.8	5.8	702	5%	65%	30%
Small farm	17,048	122%	81%	206	13.2	6.4	605	0%	81%	19%

316 GM is gross margin and Subsidy to GM indicates the share of the total amount of subsidies to the GM. EFA/FBD/CER are,
 317 ecological focused areas, farmland biodiversity (score), and cost-effectiveness ratio

318 **Policy Scenario**

319 **Role of AES in Land-Use and Sustaining Orchard Meadows**

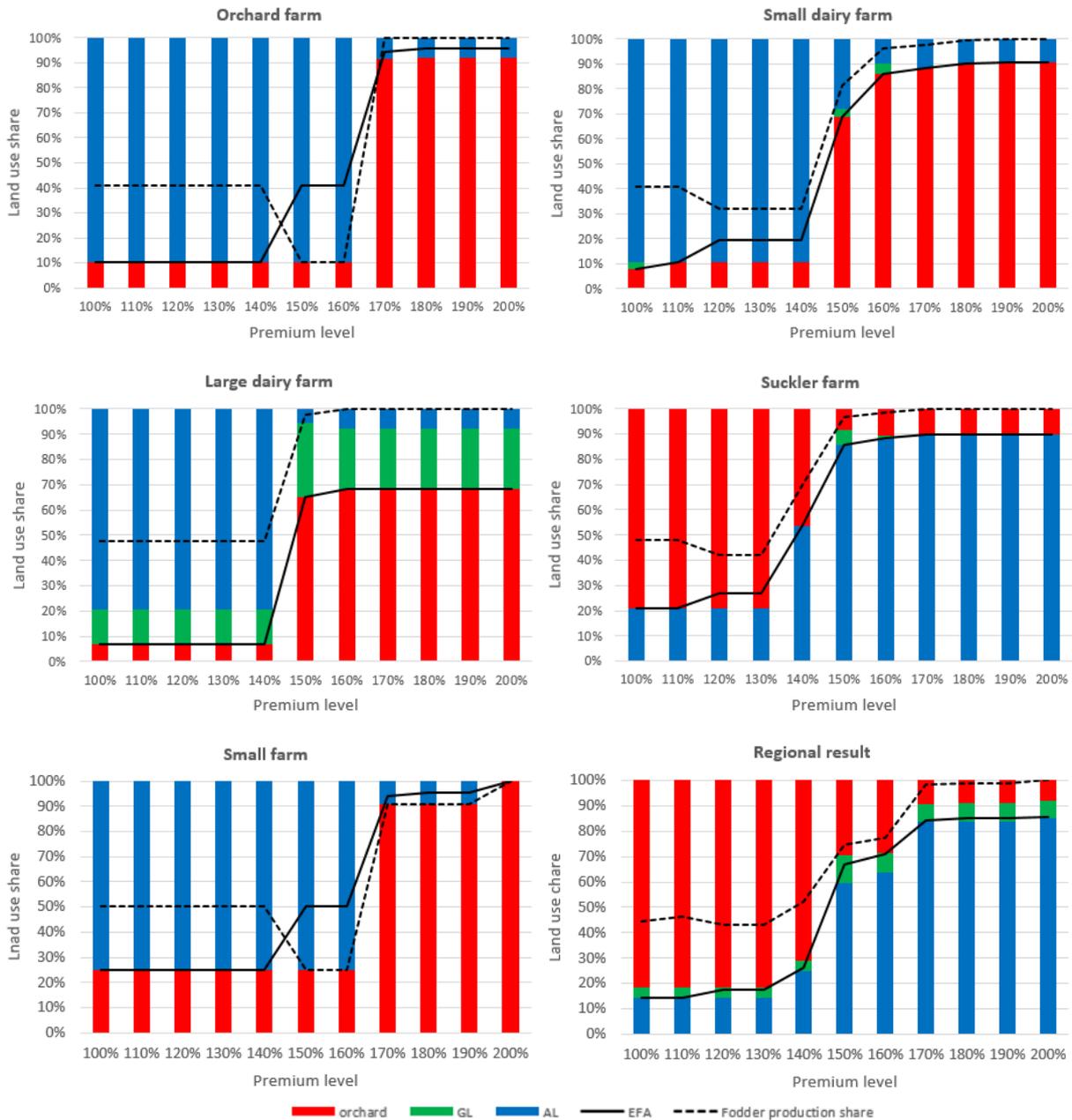
320 **Regional Land-Use Result**

321 The regional result revealed that the share of grassland and orchard meadows at the current payment level
322 was just under 20%, while arable land covered 80% of the land (Fig. 6). Given the flexible land assumption,
323 the arable land expanded considerably for all farm types at the current premium level compared to the
324 baseline result. As a result, the share of EFA dropped to 14%. However, as the payment level increased, the
325 share of arable land decreased to 20% at 150% of the current AES premium, while EFA increased. This
326 increase of EFA is mostly attributed to the expansion of the area of orchard meadow Type B.

327 **Land-Use Differences across Farm Types**

328 The EFA of the small and large dairy farms dropped just to the obligatory level, whereas the EFA of the suckler
329 and small farms remained relatively high. Nonetheless, for all farm types, the arable land expanded
330 considerably. Given the flexible land assumption, the difference in how much the arable land expands
331 depends on the share of the permanent grassland: at the current payment level, all farm types except for
332 large dairy farms expanded the arable land to the maximum possible area. Therefore, the share of land use
333 at the current level would not change even if the payment level was lowered from the current level.

334



335

336

337

338 **Fig. 6** Policy scenario results with the increments of the payments from the current level up to 200%. The X-axis indicates the
 339 payment level compared to the current level. The Y-axis indicates land-use share

340 **Change in Orchard Meadows**

341 The regional change in the number of trees is shown in Fig. 7. The number of trees at the baseline is shown
 342 by a dot at 100%. In the policy scenario, the number of trees fell to 7,627 from 29,847 at the current premium
 343 level. In the baseline scenario, where the conversion of land was not permitted, there was enough incentive
 344 to maintain orchards as shown in Table 7. However, if allowed, the arable land took over a large area of
 345 orchard meadows as they became less profitable. Increasing the payment level to 150%, however, restored
 346 the profitability of orchard meadows enough, allowing them to expand the area comparable to the baseline.

347 The payment for orchard meadows at this level is around 1,000 CHF/ha, higher than the current AES
 348 payments.



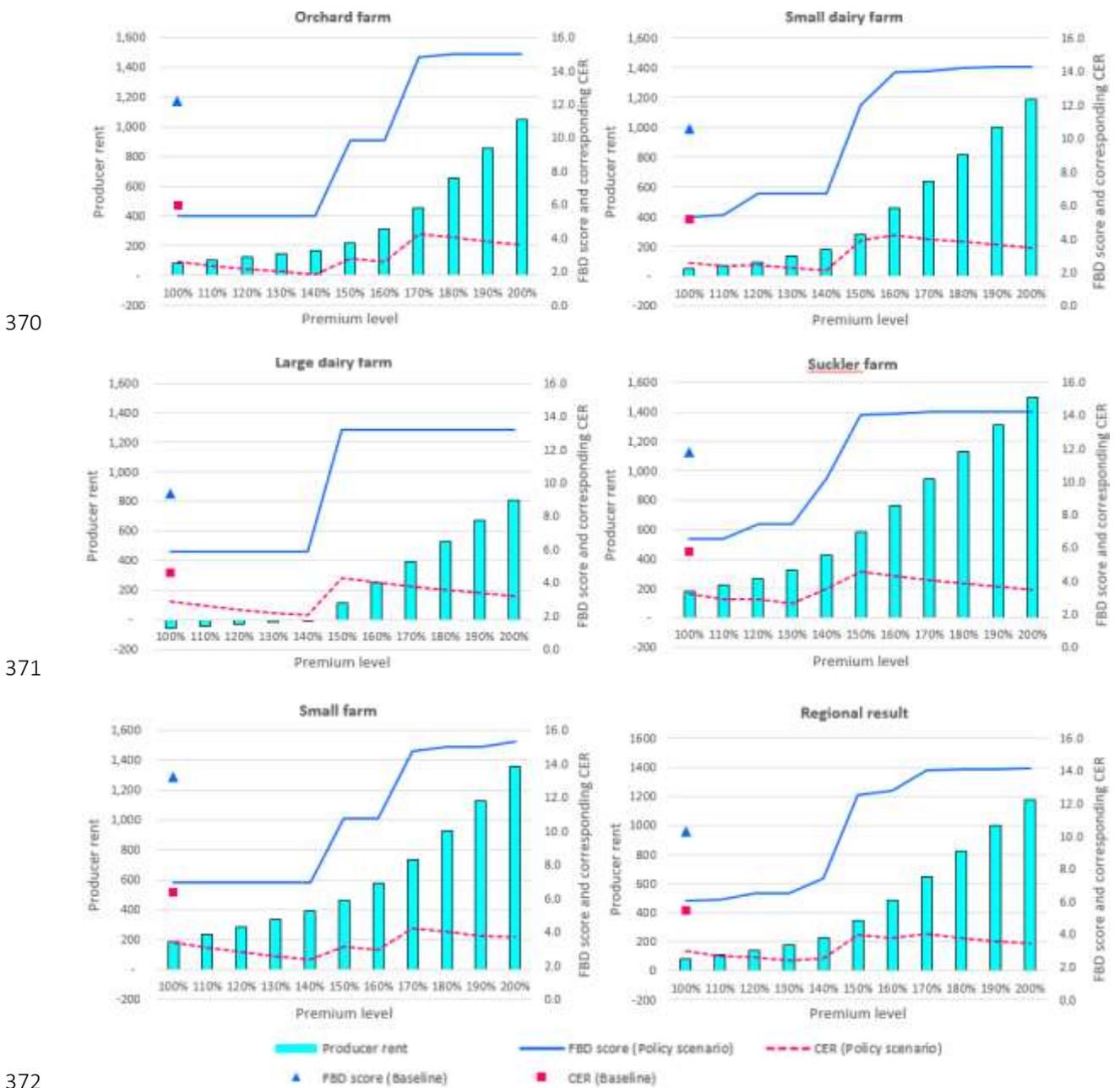
349
 350 **Fig. 7.** The regional change in the number of trees, regional farmland biodiversity score and the CER depending on the payment
 351 level (100% = the current level). FBD is farmland biodiversity

352 **Difference in the Adoption of AES and the CER among Farm Types**

353 The difference in the produce rents over farm types indicates the difference in the adoption costs of AES (Fig.
 354 8). The producer rent of large dairy farms stayed negative at lower payment levels, unlike other farm types.
 355 This reveals that for large dairy farms the current AES payments cannot compensate for the cost of the
 356 mandatory implementation of the AES. The opportunity cost of adopting AES is the highest among all farm
 357 types due to the larger number of profitable dairy cows. Contrary to this result, all the other farm types had
 358 a positive producer rent with the current payment level. Among these farm types, the producer rent of the
 359 suckler farms was highest: the opportunity cost of the suckler farm was the lowest. Nonetheless, the
 360 producer rents in the policy scenario are much less than the baseline producer rents.

361 All FBD scores at the initial level were approximately halved despite the same level of payment
 362 compared to the baseline scenario. The FBD scores of orchard, large dairy and small farms remained the
 363 same until 140 % of the current level. At a premium level of 150% premium, FBD scores increased sharply,
 364 as the area of orchard meadows tended to expand considerably.

365 The change of CER showed a similar trend. Up to a level of 140% premium, CERs tended to slightly
 366 decrease as the FBD score remained the same. But, due to the sharp increase of FBD scores above the 140%
 367 premium, CERs increased accordingly. For the regional level, it reached a maximum at 150% premium. Yet,
 368 they decreased eventually because there was little improvement of FBD scores at higher payment levels. The
 369 highest CER in the policy scenario was even lower than the baseline CER.



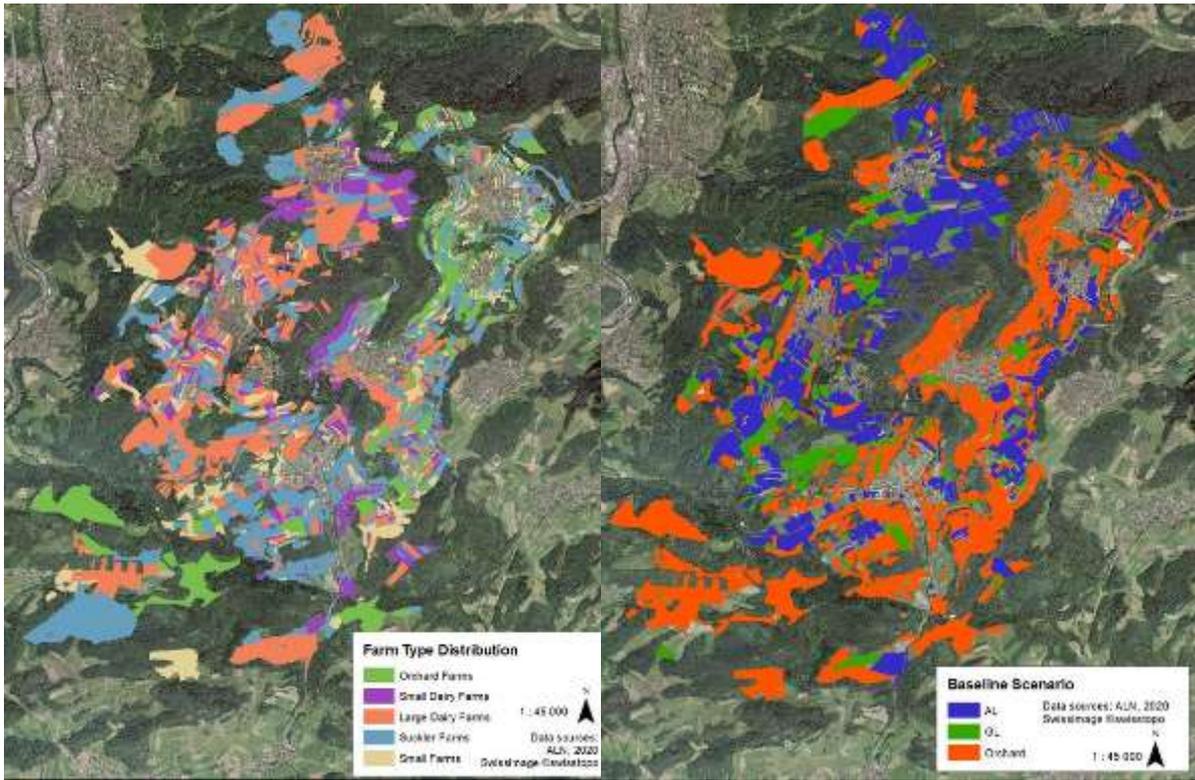
372
 373 **Fig. 8** Policy scenario results with the increments of the payments from the current level up to 200%. The X-axis indicates the
 374 payment level compared to the current level. The Y-axis indicates producer rent in CHF per hectare. The Z-axis indicates the
 375 FBD (farmland biodiversity) scores and the CER (cost-effectiveness ratio). The triangle symbol in the graph indicates the level
 376 of FBD scores at the baseline, while the square symbol indicates the corresponding CER at the baseline

377 **Change in the Regional Land-Use and Individual Species Suitability with AES**

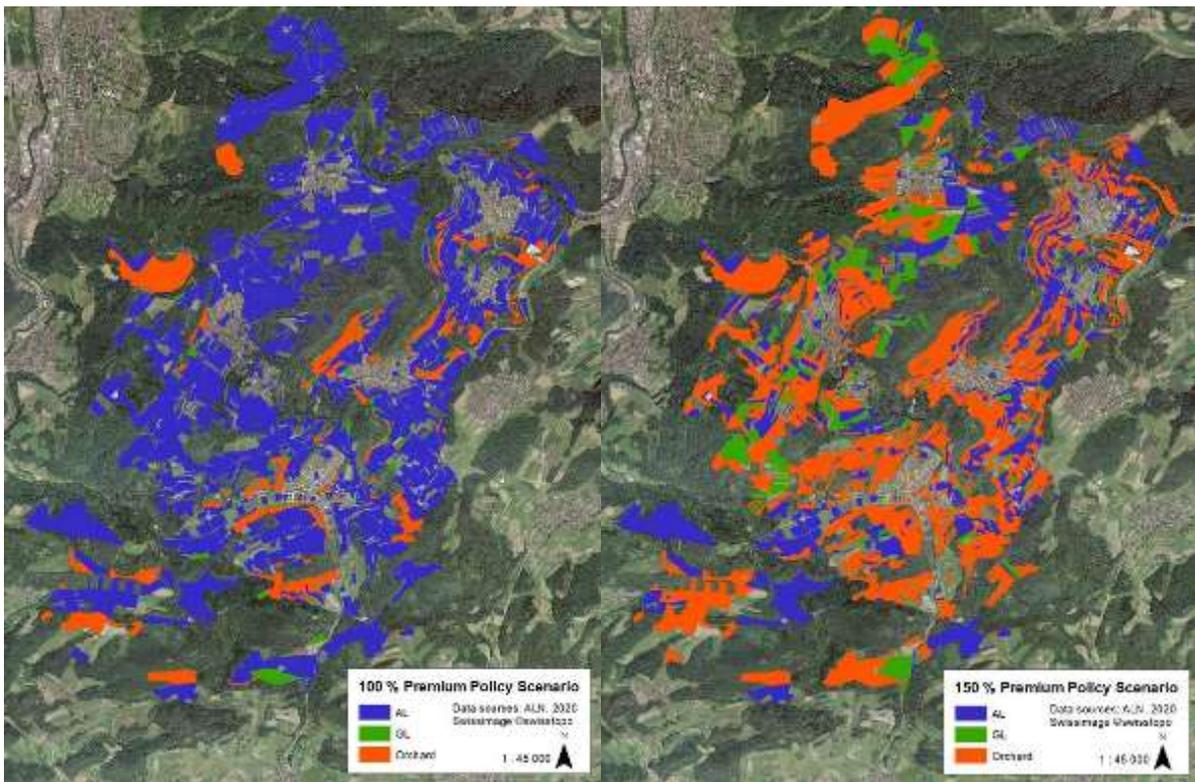
378 On the map (Fig. 9) with the baseline result, orchard meadows appeared more in the east and south, where
379 the suckler, orchard and small farms tend to be located. On the other hand, more arable land and grassland
380 appear in the north and east, where the small and large dairy farms are more prevalent. The grassland
381 mapped here is mostly with intensive pasture. The fields in the north and east area are relatively large and
382 the slopes are flatter than the other areas. Thus, these fields are more suited to crop production and
383 intensive grass production.

384 In the policy scenario at 100% premium (current level), most of the fields covered by orchard meadows
385 disappeared, as Fig. 7 shows that the number of trees is about one-quarter of the baseline number. When
386 the premium was increased to 150%, the fields with orchard meadows appeared almost evenly on the map.
387 However, 150% of the premium level is insufficient to sustain orchard meadows for orchard and small farms.
388 Therefore, the fields belonging to these farm types remained as arable land despite the increase of the
389 payments. Fig. 10 presents the variations in species suitability as a result of these regional-level results. Birds,
390 butterflies, wild bees and grasshoppers are projected to be most harmed by the expansion of arable land. All
391 of these species groups are strongly linked to extensive grasslands.

392



393



394 **Fig. 9** The map of farm type distribution (above-left) and the regional land-use under the baseline scenario (above-right) and
395 policy scenarios -100% and 150% of the current premium level (below)

	Flora of crops	Flora of grasslands	Birds	Small mammals	Amphibia	Molluscs
Baseline	4.2	9.1	17.3	12.5	5.0	4.9
100%	10.5	3.0	10.6	6.4	2.6	3.0
150%	5.3	9.0	18.5	13.5	5.1	5.1
	Spiders	Carabids	Butterflies	Wild bees	Grasshoppers	
Baseline	16.0	15.1	13.3	16.2	13.6	
100%	9.2	10.5	4.3	8.1	4.4	
150%	17.5	16.5	14.6	17.4	14.4	

396

397 **Fig. 10** Biodiversity scores of each species indicator group in the regional level with the baseline scenario and the policy scenario
398 (100% and 150% premium levels)

399 Discussion

400 Orchard Meadows and Land-Use Change

401 We discovered that all farm types benefit from existing AES (Böcker et al., 2019) and orchard meadows were
402 well maintained in the baseline. Particularly, orchard and small farms favored orchard meadows to a large
403 extent, because the total gross margin for orchard meadows of Type B, including tree payments, was higher
404 than the gross margins of pure meadows, due to the expected low selling price of hay (6 CHF/dt) (Schweizer
405 Bauernverband). Therefore, orchard and small farms rely on AES for a higher share of their income than the
406 other farm types. This is also the case for suckler farms, which require less intensive meadows or pastures
407 compared to dairy (Mack et al., 2020). Having dairy cows with high livestock intensity brings farms relatively
408 high profits. Thus, the share of orchard meadows on large dairy farms was the lowest of all farm types, as
409 orchard meadows cannot provide the protein-rich fodder needed for dairy production.

410 In comparison, orchard meadow Type A was not chosen with any payment level. The sensitivity analysis
411 with increasing cherry prices showed that it became only economically viable when the price of cherries
412 exceeds 7 CHF/kg. The high production costs of cherries are mostly due to the high labor cost for harvesting.
413 In reality, however, some orchard farms continue to produce cherries for profits. The discrepancy between
414 our model's predictions and reality can be explained by traditional, family labor-based cherry production in
415 the region: opportunity costs of labor may be low and local marketing of homemade products can be
416 attractive. Nonetheless, the ecological benefits of trees justify public financial support.

417 A validity check of the modeling results with reality shows that the model tends towards orchard
418 meadows where in reality we find intensive meadows for dairy. As our model is a static comparative, it
419 includes investments such as a dairy herd and its related infrastructure or planting of trees only as an annual
420 average gross margin. Switching the production system between trees and cows is almost a once-in-a-
421 lifetime decision, which does not depend on actual gross margins – as in our model. So, farmers, in general,
422 have high resistance against such changes and can overcome smaller periods of lower gross margins in part
423 of their production systems by compensating with income from other parts. Only if it becomes obvious that
424 in the long run the system has low or even negative returns, farmers would change their production system.
425 Often this decision goes along with a generational change of ownership of the farm. Also, the timing of
426 orchard-related labor peaks may play a role. Tree pruning can be done in winter, when labor pressure is low
427 and the cherry harvest is in early summer, mostly after the labor peak of first hay-making and before the
428 start of crop harvesting. Nevertheless, our model shows this tendency under current circumstances. Should
429 the performance relations between orchard meadows and dairy production remain the same for a longer
430 period, we expect to see production shifts as projected in our model runs.

431 The policy scenario demonstrated that at the current payment level, regional biodiversity was
432 considerably degraded as grassland and in particular, orchard meadows were often replaced by crop
433 production. This implies that crop production in Switzerland is highly financially attractive if subsidies are
434 considered (Giannitsopoulos et al., 2020). Farmers receive a guaranteed payment of 1,400 CHF/ha for crop
435 production as well as 120 CHF/ha as price support for supplying cereals (Bundesrat, 2013), while a
436 guaranteed premium for cultivating grassland is 1,000 CHF/ha in the hilly regions (Bundesrat, 2016).

437 **Cost-Effectiveness and Its Difference over Farm Types**

438 While the baseline maintains the current ratio of grassland and arable land, the policy scenarios allow flexible
439 use of more than 75% of the land. With the current payment levels, this leads to lower biodiversity scores
440 and also lower cost-effectiveness. However, with increasing payments, the policy scenarios lead to high
441 biodiversity impacts (see Fig. 7). This is only possible as farmers are allowed to convert arable land into
442 grassland and goes along with decreasing cost-effectiveness. This trade-off occurs as a result of higher
443 payments, which reduce the cost-effectiveness of AES.

444 Also, our results indicated that the producer rents over different farm types largely varied due to the
445 different compliance costs of AES. Among the livestock farms, livestock intensity and type determine the
446 producer rent. Large dairy farms still need to keep sufficient high-yield grassland to sustain high livestock
447 intensity and fulfil the condition of the grassland-based milk and meat program, which resulted in lower
448 implementation rates from AES. In contrast, suckler farms gained relatively high implementation rates of AES.
449 Mack et al. (2020) verified these findings: the adoption of action-based EFA, which this study examined, is
450 substantially influenced by farm type. Dairy farms are negatively and suckler farms are positively correlated
451 to the adoption rate. Our study demonstrated that farms with a higher implementation rate of AES tended
452 to gain higher CER.

453 **Methodological Limitations**

454 We assumed that farmers would maintain or abandon orchard meadows depending on the economic profits
455 in relation to the profitability of the other activities. However, we did not consider their non-market benefits,
456 i.e., externalities such as reduced soil erosion risk, carbon sequestration or regional identity in the calculation
457 of the economic profit. Although capturing the real value of orchard meadows is a core challenge in the
458 economic assessment (Schönhart, et al., 2011a), accounting for such non-market benefits of orchard
459 meadows in the decision process will improve the validity of results and help to determine a more
460 appropriate level of financial support (Bethwell et al., 2021; Giannitsopoulos et al., 2020).

461 Another possible limitation of this study is that the evaluation of farmland biodiversity was neither
462 contingent on the complexity of landscapes such as the spatial configuration of semi-natural habitats (Wrbka
463 et al., 2004) nor connectivity at different scales (Wang et al., 2020). AES can be ineffective unless the
464 ecological effects are observable at the landscape scale (Kuhfuss et al., 2019; Manning et al., 2018; Uthes &
465 Matzdorf, 2012). Spatial planning of biodiversity measures can enhance their benefits and reduce the
466 opportunity cost for food production (Fastré et al., 2021). Understanding species dynamics and their
467 relationships to landscape complexity, using a broader spatial scale and landscape indicators could help
468 improve biodiversity conservation in agricultural landscapes (Chopin et al., 2019; Schönhart, et al., 2011).

469 **Policy Implications**

470 Under the current situation, where it is possible to convert grassland into arable land, expanding arable land
471 will increase the profitability of farms, especially for competitive farms such as larger-scale dairy farms. The
472 fact that these farms have a negative product rent at the present premium level implies that they will lose
473 income and have no incentive to adopt AES beyond the obligatory level (Mennig & Sauer, 2020). In contrast,
474 extensively managed farms such as suckler farms are likely to profit from AES due to the lower compliance
475 costs. They have more incentives to adopt biodiversity measures (Overmars et al., 2013). When the adoption
476 rate of AES is high, the cost-effectiveness tends to be higher. It can be more cost-efficient to provide farm
477 type specific payments rather than providing all farm types with the same payment level. This way of
478 payments is in line with the claim of Armsworth et al. (2012) that the inefficiency of the simplification of AES
479 derives from their inability to address variation within and between farms in terms of private costs associated
480 with providing biodiversity. Also, our study recommends a regulatory framework that incentivizes farmers to
481 preserve the existing area of grassland. Under the current direct payments, crop production is far more
482 financially attractive.

483 **Conclusions**

484 The purpose of this study was to provide policymakers with insight into the design of cost-effective AES for
485 maintaining orchard meadows and promoting farmland biodiversity considering different farm types. Our
486 findings are threefold: 1. Higher AES payments increase orchard meadows and biodiversity scores. However,
487 excessive payments would impede the improvement and lower the cost-effectiveness; 2. Farmers would
488 maintain orchard meadows only with higher payments as compared to the current level, under the
489 assumption that they can convert any grassland to arable land for maximizing their profit. However, if the
490 conversion from grassland into arable land was not allowed, all farm types would maintain current orchard
491 meadows; 3. Compliance costs and adoption of AES vary considerably among farm types. Suckler farms and
492 farms without livestock largely economically benefit from AES, while large-dairy farms lose income under the
493 flexible land-use assumption.

494 These findings can carry the following policy implications. First, AES can be more cost-effective in
495 targeting specific farm types and offer them the payments reflecting the compliance costs rather than paying
496 all farm types the same payments. Second, whether the current AES contribute to the maintenance of
497 orchard meadows is contingent on how far the conversion of land can be prevented. Under the current direct
498 payments, crop production is far more profitable, which may encourage farmers to expand arable land.
499 Therefore, this study recommends establishing a regulatory framework that incentivizes farmers to preserve
500 existing grassland.

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506 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

507 **Conflict of interest** The authors declare no competing interests.

508 **Informed consent** Informed consent to participate in the study was obtained for all participants in this study.

509 **Author Contributions**

510 All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis
511 were performed by Sonja Kay, Johannes Schuler and Takamasa Nishizawa. The first draft of the manuscript was
512 written by Takamasa Nishizawa and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors
513 read and approved the final manuscript.

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677

678 Appendix: SALCA-BD result

Farm activities	Total score	Flora of crops	Flora of grasslands	Birds	Small mammals	Amphibia
Intensive meadows	7.8	0.0	8.4	13.6	11.9	4.0
Intensive pasture	9.6	0.0	12.6	17.4	11.5	6.9
Less intensive meadows*	8.8	0.0	12.2	14.4	12.4	8.1
Extensive meadows*	10.3	0.0	13.9	18.2	13.0	6.8
Extensive pasture*	9.9	0.0	13.9	17.4	11.5	6.5
Orchard meadows Type A*	10.5	0.0	12.2	18.7	16.3	8.4
Orchard meadows Type B*	12.1	0.0	13.4	22.7	17.8	6.7
Intensive crops	4.7	14.3	0.5	7.9	4.1	1.8
Extensive crops	5.1	14.4	0.5	9.2	4.0	1.9
Flower strips*	17.6	30.0	0.0	40.0	12.0	6.0

Farm activities	Molluscs	Spiders	Carabids	Butterflies	Wild bees	Grasshoppers
Intensive meadows	5.3	11.1	12.7	14.9	16.3	14.8
Intensive pasture	4.9	12.3	10.8	17.4	18.6	17.2
Less intensive meadows*	8.2	13.0	14.6	15.9	17.6	16.5
Extensive meadows*	6.6	15.4	17.8	21.2	19.8	21.2
Extensive pasture*	4.7	11.9	10.8	17.4	18.6	17.2
Orchard meadows Type A*	5.1	19.0	16.8	16.1	20.1	16.8
Orchard meadows Type B*	6.8	22.7	19.7	20.0	22.4	20.4
Intensive crops	2.3	6.4	8.6	0.6	5.1	0.6
Extensive crops	2.4	7.5	9.6	0.5	5.4	0.5
Flower strips*	8.0	36.0	27.0	25.0	33.0	15.0

679

680 **Fig. 11** Biodiversity scores (0-50) of modeled farm activities per hectare estimated with SALCA-BD. The total score is the average
 681 of the scores of each ISG. *indicates the biodiversity measures under AES (ecological focused areas). Orchard meadow Type A
 682 corresponds to orchard meadows with commercial cherry production on less intensively managed meadows, while orchard
 683 meadows Type B orchard meadows without commercial cherry production on extensively managed meadows. The scores of
 684 intensive and extensive crops are aggregated over individual crops with the same weight. Online Resource 2(Table S.2.6)
 685 provides the biodiversity scores of all of the modeled farm activities

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

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