

“Processes of adpatation in farm decision-making
models. A review”

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16 ABSTRACT

17 Agricultural production systems are facing new challenges due to an ever changing global
18 environment that is a source of risk and uncertainty. To adapt to these environmental changes, farmers
19 must adjust their management strategies and remain competitive while also satisfying societal
20 preferences for sustainable food systems. Representing and modeling farmers' decision-making
21 processes by including adaptation, when representing farmers' practices ,is therefore an important
22 challenge for the agricultural research community.

23 Bio-economic and bio-decisional approaches have addressed adaptation at different planning horizons
24 in the literature. We reviewed approximately 40 articles using bio-economic and bio-decisional models
25 in which strategic and tactical decisions were considered dynamic adaptive and expectation-based
26 processes. The main results of this literature survey are as follows: i) adaptability, flexibility and
27 dynamic processes are common ways to characterize farmers' decision-making, ii) adaptation can be a
28 reactive or a proactive process depending on farmers' flexibility and expectation capabilities, and iii)
29 different modeling approaches are used to model decision stages in time and space, and some
30 approaches can be combined to represent a sequential decision-making process. Focusing attention on
31 short- and long-term adjustments in farming production plans, coupled with sequential and
32 anticipatory approaches should lead to promising improvements for assisting decision makers.

33

34 Keywords: farmers' decision-making, bio-economic model, bio-decisional model, uncertainty,
35 adaptation

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65 1. INTRODUCTION

66 Agricultural production systems are facing new challenges due to a constantly changing global
67 environment that is a source of risk and uncertainty, and in which past experience is not sufficient to
68 gauge the odds of a future negative event. Concerning risk, farmers are exposed to production risk
69 mostly due to climate and pest conditions, to market risk that impact input and output prices, and
70 institutional risk through agricultural, environmental and sanitary regulations (Hardaker 2004).
71 Farmers may also face uncertainty due to rare events affecting, e.g., labor, production capital stock,
72 and extreme climatic conditions , which add difficulties to producing agricultural goods and calls for
73 re-evaluating current production practices. To remain competitive, farmers have no choice but to adapt
74 and adjust their daily management practices (Hémidy et al. 1996; Hardaker 2004; Darnhofer et al.
75 2010; Dury 2011). In the early 1980s, Petit developed the theory of the “farmer’s adaptive behavior”
76 and claimed that farmers have a permanent capacity for adaptation (Petit 1978). Adaptation refers to
77 adjustments in agricultural systems in response to actual or expected stimuli through changes in
78 practices, processes and structures and their effects or impacts on moderating potential modifications
79 and benefiting from new opportunities (Grothmann and Patt 2003; Smit and Wandel 2006). Another
80 important concept in the scientific literature on adaptation is the concept of adaptive capacity or
81 capability (Darnhofer 2014). This refers to the capacity of the system to resist evolving hazards and
82 stresses (Ingrand et al. 2009; Dedieu and Ingrand 2010) and it is the degree to which the system can
83 adjust its practices, processes and structures to moderate or offset damages created by a given change
84 in its environment (Brooks and Adger 2005; Martin 2015). For authors in the early 1980s such as Petit
85 (1978) and Lev and Campbell (1987), adaptation is seen as the capacity to challenge a set of
86 systematic and permanent disturbances. Moreover, agents integrate long-term considerations when
87 dealing with short term changes in production. Both claims lead to the notion of a permanent need to
88 keep adaptation capability under uncertainty. Holling (2001) proposed a general framework to
89 represent the dynamics of a socio-ecological system based on both ideas above, in which dynamics are
90 represented as a sequence of “adaptive cycles”, each affected by disturbances. Depending on whether
91 the latter are moderate or not, farmers may have to reconfigure the system, but if such redesigning
92 fails, then the production system collapses.

93 Some of the most common dimensions in adaptation research on individual behavior refer to the
94 timing and the temporal and spatial scopes of adaptation (Smit et al. 1999; Grothmann and Patt 2003).
95 The first dimension distinguishes proactive *vs.* reactive adaptation. Proactive adaptation refers to
96 anticipated adjustment, which is the capacity to anticipate a shock (change that can disturb farmers’
97 decision-making processes); it is also called anticipatory or *ex-ante* adaptation. Reactive adaptation is
98 associated with adaptation performed after a shock; it is also called responsive or *ex-post* adaptation
99 (Attonaty et al. 1999; Brooks and Adger 2005; Smit and Wandel 2006). The temporal scope
100 distinguishes strategic adaptations from tactical adaptations, the former referring to the capacity to

101 adapt in the long term (years), while the latter are mainly instantaneous short-term adjustments
102 (seasonal to daily) (Risbey et al. 1999; Le Gal et al. 2011). The spatial scope of adaptation opposes
103 localized adaptation versus widespread adaptation. In a farm production context, localized adaptations
104 are often at the plot scale, while widespread adaptation concerns the entire farm. Temporal and spatial
105 scopes of adaptation are easily considered in farmers' decision-making processes; however,
106 incorporating the timing scope of farmers' adaptive behavior is a growing challenge when designing
107 farming systems.

108 System modeling and simulation are interesting approaches to designing farming systems which allow
109 limiting the time and cost constraints (Rossing et al. 1997; Romera et al. 2004; Bergez et al. 2010)
110 encountered in other approaches, such as diagnosis (Doré et al. 1997), systemic experimentation
111 (Mueller et al. 2002) and prototyping (Vereijken 1997). Modeling adaptation to uncertainty, when
112 representing farmers' practices and decision-making processes, has been addressed in bio-economic
113 and bio-decisional approaches (or management models) and addressed at different temporal and
114 spatial scales.

115 The aim of this paper is to review the way adaptive behavior in farming systems has been considered
116 (modeled) in bio-economic and bio-decisional approaches. This work reviews several modeling
117 formalisms that have been used in bio-economic and bio-decisional approaches, comparing their
118 features and selected relevant applications. We chose to focus on the formalisms rather than the tools
119 as they are the essence of the modeling approach.

120 Approximately 40 scientific references on this topic were found in the agricultural economics and
121 agronomy literature. This paper reviews approaches used to model farmers' adaptive behavior when
122 they encounter uncertainty in specific stages of, or throughout, the decision-making process. There is a
123 vast literature on technology adoption in agriculture, which can be considered a form of adaptation,
124 but which we do not consider here, to focus on farmer decisions for a given production technology.
125 After presenting some background on modeling decisions in agricultural economics and agronomy and
126 the methodology used, we present formalisms describing proactive behavior and anticipation decision-
127 making processes and formalisms for representing reactive adaptation decision-making processes.
128 Then, we illustrate the use of such formalisms in papers on modeling farmers' decision-making
129 processes in farming systems. Finally, we discuss the need to include adaptation and anticipation to
130 uncertain events in modeling approaches of the decision-making process and discuss adaptive
131 processes in other domains.

132 2. BACKGROUND ON MODELING DECISIONS IN AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS AND 133 AGRONOMY

134 Two main fields dominate decision-making approaches in farm management: agricultural economics
135 (with bio-economic models) and agronomy (with bio-decisional models). Agricultural economists are
136 typically interested in the analysis of year-to-year strategical (sometimes tactical) decisions originating
137 from long-term strategies (e.g., investment and technical orientation). In contrast, agronomists focus
138 more on day-to-day farm management described in tactical decisions. The differences in temporal
139 scale are due to the specific objective of each approach. For economists, the objective is to efficiently
140 use scarce resources by optimizing the configuration and allocation of farm resources given farmers'
141 objectives and constraints in a certain production context. For agronomists, it is to organize farm
142 practices to ensure farm production from a bio-physical context (Martin et al. 2013). Agronomists
143 identify relevant activities for a given production objective, their interdependency, what preconditions
144 are needed to execute them and how they should be organized in time and space. Both bio-economic
145 and bio-decisional models represent farmers' adaptive behavior.

146

147 Bio-economic models integrate both biophysical and economic components (Knowler 2002; Flichman
148 2011). In this approach, equations describing a farmer's resource-management decisions are combined
149 with those representing inputs to and outputs from agricultural activities (Janssen and van Ittersum
150 2007). The main goal of farm-resource allocation in time and space is to improve economic
151 performance of farming systems, usually along with environmental performance. Bio-economic
152 models indicate the optimal management behavior to adopt by describing agricultural activities.
153 Agricultural activities are characterized by an enterprise and a production technology used to manage
154 the activity. Technical coefficients represent relations between inputs and outputs by stating the
155 amount of inputs needed to achieve a certain amount of outputs (e.g., matrix of input-output
156 coefficients, see Janssen and van Ittersum 2007). Many farm-management decisions can be formulated
157 as a multistage decision-making process in which farmer decision-making is characterized by a
158 sequence of decisions made to meet farmer objectives. The time periods that divide the decision-
159 making process are called stages and represent the moments when decisions must be made. Decision
160 making is thus represented as a dynamic and sustained process in time (Bellman 1954; Mjelde 1986;
161 Osman 2010). This means that at each stage, technical coefficients are updated to proceed to the next
162 round of optimization. Three major mathematical programming techniques are commonly used to
163 analyze and solve models of decision under uncertainty: recursive models, dynamic stochastic
164 programming, and dynamic programming (see Miranda and Fackler 2004). Agricultural economic
165 approaches usually assume an idealized situation for decision, in which the farmer has clearly
166 expressed goals from the beginning and knows all the relevant alternatives and their consequences.
167 Since the farmer's rationality is considered to be complete, it is feasible to use the paradigm of utility

168 maximization (Chavas et al. 2010). Simon (1950) criticized this assumption of full rationality and
169 claimed that decision-makers do not look for the best decision but for a satisfying one given the
170 amount of information available. This gave rise to the concept of bounded and adaptive rationality
171 (Simon 1950; Cyert and March 1963), in which the rationality of decision-makers is limited by the
172 information available, cognitive limitations of their minds and the finite timing of the decision. In
173 bounded rationality, farmers tend to seek satisfactory rather than utility maximization when making
174 relevant decisions (Kulik and Baker, 2008). From complete or bounded rationality, all bio-economic
175 approaches are characterized by the common feature of computing a certain utility value for available
176 options and then selecting the one with the best or satisfactory value. In applied agricultural
177 economics, stochastic production models are more and more commonly used to represent the
178 sequential production decisions by farmers, by specifying the production technology through a series
179 of operational steps involving production inputs. These inputs have often the dual purpose of
180 controlling crop yield or cattle output level on the one hand, and controlling production risk on the
181 other (Burt 1993; Maatman et al. 2002; Ritten et al. 2010). Furthermore, sequential production
182 decisions with risk and uncertainty can also be specified in a dynamic framework, to account for
183 intertemporal substitutability between inputs (Fafchamps 1993). Dynamic programming models have
184 been used as guidance tools in policy analysis and to help farmers identify irrigation strategies (Bryant
185 et al. 1993).

186 Biophysical models have been investigated since the 1970s, but the difficulty in transferring
187 simulation results to farmers and extension agents led researchers to investigate farmers' management
188 practices closely and develop decision models (Bergez et al. 2010). A decision model, also known as a
189 decision-making process model or farm-management model, comes from on-farm observations and
190 extensive studies of farmers' management practices. These studies, which show that farmers' technical
191 decisions are planned, led to the "model for action" concept (Matthews et al. 2002), in which decision-
192 making processes are represented as a sequence of technical acts. Rules that describe these technical
193 acts are organized in a decision schedule that considers sequential, iterative and adaptive processes of
194 decisions (Aubry et al. 1998). In the 1990s, combined approaches represented farming systems as bio-
195 decisional models that link the biophysical component to a decisional component based on a set of
196 decision rules (Aubry et al. 1998; Attonaty et al. 1999; Bergez et al. 2006; Bergez et al. 2010). Bio-
197 decisional models describe the appropriate farm-management practice to adopt as a set of decision
198 rules that drives the farmer's actions over time (e.g., a vector returning a value for each time step of
199 the simulation). Bio-decisional models are designed (proactive) adaptations to possible but anticipated
200 changes. By reviewing the decision rules, these models also describe the farmer's reactive behavior.

201 3. METHOD

202 To achieve the above goal, a collection of articles was assembled through three steps. The first step
203 was a search on Google Scholar using the following combination of Keywords: Topic = ((decision-
204 making processes) or (decision model) or (knowledge-based model) or (object-oriented model) or
205 (operational model)) AND Topic = ((bio-economics or agricultural economics) or (agronomy or bio-
206 decisional)) AND Topic = ((adaptation) or (uncertainty) or (risk)). The first topic defines the tool of
207 interest: only work using decision-making modeling (as this is the focus of this paper). Given that
208 different authors use slightly different phrasings, the present paper incorporated the most-commonly
209 used alternative terms such as knowledge-based model, object-oriented model, and operational model.
210 The second topic restricts the search to be within the domains of bio-economics and agronomy. The
211 third topic reflects the major interest of this paper, which relates to farmer adaptations facing uncertain
212 events. This paper did not use “AND” to connect the parts within topics because this is too restrictive
213 and many relevant papers are filtered out.

214 The second step was a classification of formalisms referring to the timing scopes of the adaptation. We
215 retained the timing dimension as the main criteria for the results description in our paper. The timing
216 dimension is an interesting aspect of adaptation to consider when modeling adaptation in farmers’
217 decision-making processes. Proactive processes concern the ability to anticipate future and external
218 shocks affecting farming outcomes and to plan corresponding adjustments. In this case, adaptations
219 processes are time-invariant and formalisms describing static processes are the most appropriate since
220 they describe processes that do not depend explicitly on time. Reactive processes describe the farmer’s
221 capacity to react to a shock. In this case, adaptation concerns the ability to update the representation of
222 a shock and perform adaptations without any anticipation. In this case adaptation processes are time-
223 dependent and formalisms describing dynamic processes are the most appropriate since they describe
224 processes that depend explicitly on time (Figure 1). Section 4 will present the results of running this
225 step.

226 The third step was a classification of articles related to farm management in agricultural economics
227 and agronomy referring to the temporal and spatial scopes of the adaptation. This last step aimed at
228 illustrating the use of the different formalisms presented in the second step to model adaptation within
229 farmer decision-making processes. This section is not supposed to be exhaustive but to provide
230 examples of use in farming system literature. Section 5 will be presenting the results of running this
231 step.

232 4. FORMALISMS TO MANAGE ADAPTIVE DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES

233 This section aims at listing formalisms used to manage adaptive decision-making processes in both
234 bio-economic and bio-decision models. Various formalisms are available to describe adaptive
235 decision-making processes. Adaptation processes can be time-invariant when it is planned beforehand
236 with a decision tree, alternative and optional paths and relaxed constraints to decision processes.
237 Adaptation processes can be time-varying when it is reactive to a shock with dynamic internal changes
238 of the decision process via recursive decision, sequential decision or reviewed rules. We distinguish
239 proactive or anticipated processes to reactive processes. Six formalisms were included in this review.

240 4.1. Formalisms in proactive adaptation processes

241 In proactive or anticipated decision processes, adaptation consists in the iterative interpretation of a
242 flexible plan built beforehand. The flexibility of this anticipatory specification that allows for
243 adaptation is obtained by the ability to use alternative paths, optional paths or by relaxing constraints
244 that condition a decision.

245 4.1.1. Anticipated shocks in sequential decision-making processes

246 When decision-making process is assumed to be a succession of decisions to make, it follows that
247 farmers are able to integrate new information about the environment at each stage and adapt to
248 possible changes occurring between two stages. Farmers are able to anticipate all possible states of the
249 shock (change) to which they will have to react. In 1968, Cocks stated that discrete stochastic
250 programming (DSP) could provide solutions to sequential decision problems (Cocks 1968). DSP
251 processes sequential decision-making problems in discrete time within a finite time horizon in which
252 knowledge about random events changes over time (Rae 1971; Apland and Hauer 1993). During each
253 stage, decisions are made to address risks. One refers to “embedded risk” when decisions can be
254 divided between those initially made and those made at a later stage, once an uncertain event has
255 occurred (Trebeck and Hardaker 1972; Hardaker 2004). The sequential and stochastic framework of
256 the DSP can be represented as a decision tree in which nodes describe the decision stages and branches
257 describe anticipated shocks. Considering two stages of decision, the decision-maker makes an initial
258 decision (u_1) with uncertain knowledge of the future. After one of the states of nature of the uncertain
259 event occurs (k), the decision-maker will adjust by making another decision (u_{2k}) in the second stage,
260 which depends on the initial decision and the state of nature k of the event. Models can become
261 extremely large when numerous states of nature are considered; this “curse of dimensionality” is the
262 main limitation of these models (Trebeck and Hardaker 1972; Hardaker 2004).

263 4.1.2. Flexible plan with optional paths and interchangeable activities

264 In manufacturing, proactive scheduling is well-suited to build protection against uncertain events into
265 a baseline schedule (Herroelen and Leus 2004; Darnhofer and Bellon 2008). Alternative paths are
266 considered and choices are made at the operational level while executing the plan. This type of
267 structure has been used in agriculture as well, with flexible plans that enable decision-makers to
268 anticipate shocks. Considering possible shocks that may occur, substitutable components,
269 interchangeable partial plans, and optional executions are identified and introduced into the nominal
270 plan. Depending on the context, a decision is made to perform an optional activity or to select an
271 alternative activity or partial plan (Martin-Clouaire and Rellier 2009). Thus, two different sequences of
272 events would most likely lead to performing two different plans. Some activities may be cancelled in
273 one case but not in the other depending on whether they are optional or subject to a context-dependent
274 choice (Bralts et al. 1993; Castellazzi et al. 2008; Dury et al. 2010; Castellazzi et al. 2010).

275 4.1.3. Relaxed constraints on executing activities

276 Management operations on biophysical entities are characterized by a timing of actions depending on
277 their current states. The concept of bounded rationality, presented earlier, highlights the need to obtain
278 satisfactory results instead of optimal ones. Following the same idea, Kemp and Michalk (2007) point
279 out that “farmers can manage more successfully over a range than continually chasing optimum or
280 maximum values”. In practice, one can easily identify an ideal time window in which to execute an
281 activity that is preferable or desirable based on production objectives instead of setting a specific
282 execution date in advance (Shaffer and Brodahl 1998a; Aubry et al. 1998; Taillandier et al. 2012).
283 Timing flexibility helps in managing uncontrollable factors.

284 4.2. Formalisms in reactive adaptation processes

285 In reactive decision processes, adaptation consists in the ability to perform decisions without any
286 anticipation by integrating gradually new information. Reactivity is obtained by multi-stage and
287 sequential decision processes and the integration of new information or the set-up of unanticipated
288 path within forehand plan.

289 4.2.1. Gradual adaptation in a repeated process

290 The recursive method was originally developed by Day (1961) to describe gradual adaptation to
291 changes in exogenous parameters after observing an adjustment between a real situation and an
292 optimal situation obtained after optimization (Blanco-Fonseca et al. 2011). Recursive models
293 explicitly represent multiple decision stages and optimize each one; the outcome of stage n is used to
294 reinitialize the parameters of stage $n+1$. These models consist of a sequence of mathematical
295 programming problems in which each sub-problem depends on the results of the previous sub-

296 problems (Day 1961; Day 2005; Janssen and van Ittersum 2007; Blanco-Fonseca et al. 2011). In each
297 sub-problem, dynamic variables are re-initialized and take the optimal values obtained in the previous
298 sub-problem. Exogenous changes (e.g., rainfall, market prices) are updated at each optimization step.
299 For instance, the endogenous feedback mechanism for a resource (e.g., production input or natural
300 resource) between sub-periods is represented with a first-order linear difference equation: $R_t =$
301 $A_{t-1}GX_{t-1}^* + YR_{t-1} + C_t$, where the resource level of period t (R_t) depends on the optimal decisions
302 (X_{t-1}^*) and resource level at $t-1$ (R_{t-1}) and on exogenous variables (C_t). The Bayesian approach is the
303 most natural one for updating parameters in a dynamic system, given incoming period-dependent
304 information. Starting with an initial prior probability for the statistical distribution of model
305 parameters, sample information is used to update the latter in an efficient and fairly general way
306 (Stengel 1986). The Bayesian approach to learning in dynamic systems is a special but important case
307 of *closed-loop* models, in which a feedback loop regulates the system as follows: depending on the
308 (intermediate) observed state of the system, the control variable (the input) is automatically adjusted to
309 provide path correction as a function of model performance in the previous period.

310 4.2.2. Adaptation in sequential decision-making processes

311 In the 1950s, Bellman presented the theory of dynamic programming (DP) to emphasize the sequential
312 decision-making approach. Within a given stage, the decision-making process is characterized by a
313 specific status corresponding to the values of state variables. In general, this method aims to transform
314 a complex problem into a sequence of simpler problems whose solutions are optimal and lead to an
315 optimal solution of the initial complex model. It is based on the principle of optimality, in which “an
316 optimal policy has the property that whatever the initial state and decisions are, the remaining
317 decisions must constitute an optimal policy with regard to the state resulting from the first decisions”
318 (Bellman 1954). DP explicitly considers that a decision made in one stage may affect the state of the
319 decision-making process in all subsequent stages. State-transition equations are necessary to link the
320 current stage to its successive or previous stage, depending on whether one uses a forward or
321 backward DP approach, respectively. In the Bellman assumptions (backward DP), recursion occurs
322 from the future to the present, and the past is considered only for the initial condition. In forward DP,
323 stage numbering is consistent with real time. The optimization problem defined at each stage can
324 result in the application of a wide variety of techniques, such as linear programming (Yaron and Dinar
325 1982) and parametric linear programming (Stoecker et al. 1985). Stochastic DP is a direct extension of
326 the framework described above, and efficient numerical techniques are now available to solve such
327 models, even though the curse of dimensionality may remain an issue (Miranda and Fackler 2004).

328 4.2.3. Reactive plan with revised and new decision rules

329 An alternative to optimization is to represent decision-making processes as a sequence of technical
330 operated organized through a set of decision rules. This plan is reactive when rules are revised or
331 newly introduced after a shock. Revision is possible with simulation-based optimization, in which the
332 rule structure is known and the algorithm looks for optimal indicator values or thresholds. It generates
333 a new set of indicator thresholds to test at each new simulation loop (Nguyen et al. 2014). For small
334 discrete domains, the complete enumeration method can be used, whereas when the optimization
335 domain is very large and a complete enumeration search is no longer possible, heuristic search
336 methods are considered, such as local searching and branching methods. Search methods start from a
337 candidate solution and randomly move to a neighboring solution by applying local changes until a
338 solution considered as optimal is found or a time limit has passed. Metaheuristic searches using
339 genetic algorithms, Tabu searches and simulated annealing algorithms are commonly used. Control-
340 based optimization is used to add new rules to the plan. In this case, the rule structure is unknown, and
341 the algorithm optimizes the rule's structure and optimal indicator values or thresholds. Crop-
342 management decisions can be modeled as a Markov control problem when the distribution of variable
343 X_{i+1} depends only on the current state X_i and on decision D_i that was applied at stage i . The decision-
344 making process is divided into a sequence of N decision stages. It is defined by a set of possible states
345 s , a set of possible decisions d , probabilities describing the transitions between successive states and
346 an objective function (sum of expected returns) to be maximized. In a Markov control problem, a
347 trajectory is defined as the result of choosing an initial state s and applying a decision d for each
348 subsequent state. The DSP and DP methods provide optimal solutions for Markov control problems.
349 Control-based optimization and metaheuristic searches are used when the optimization domain is very
350 large and a complete enumeration search is no longer possible.

351 5. MODELING ADAPTIVE DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN FARMING SYSTEMS

352 This section aims at illustrating the use of formalisms to manage adaptive decision-making processes
353 in farming systems both in bio-economic and bio-decision models. Around 40 papers using the six
354 formalisms on adaptation have been found. We distinguish strategic adaptation at the farm level, tactic
355 adaptation at the farm and plot scale and strategic and tactic adaptation both at the farm and plot scale.

356 5.1. Adaptations and strategic decisions for the entire farm

357 Strategic decisions aim to build a long-term plan to achieve farmer production goals depending on
358 available resources and farm structure. For instance, this plan can be represented in a model by a
359 cropping plan that selects the crops grown on the entire farm, their surface area and their allocation
360 within the farmland. It also offers long-term production organization, such as considering equipment

361 acquisition and crop rotations. In the long-term, uncertain events such market price changes, climate
362 events and sudden resource restrictions are difficult to predict, and farmers must be reactive and adapt
363 their strategic plans.

364 Barbier and Bergeron (1999) used the recursive process to address price uncertainty in crop and
365 animal production systems; the selling strategy for the herd and cropping pattern were adapted each
366 year to deal with price uncertainty and policy intervention over 20 years. Similarly, Heidhues (1966)
367 used a recursive approach to study the adaptation of investment and sales decisions to changes in crop
368 prices due to policy measures. Domptail and Nuppenau (2010) adjusted, in a recursive process, herd
369 size and the purchase of supplemental fodder once a year, depending on the available biomass that
370 depended directly on rainfall. In a study of a dairy-beef-sheep farm in Northern Ireland, Wallace and
371 Moss (2002) examined the effect of possible breakdowns due to bovine spongiform encephalopathy
372 on animal-sale and machinery-investment decisions over a seven-year period with linear programming
373 and a recursive process.

374 Thus, in the operation research literature, adaptation of a strategic decision is considered a dynamic
375 process that should be modeled via a formalism describing a reactive adaptation processes (Table 1).

376 5.2. Adaptation and tactic decisions

377 5.2.1. Adaptation for the agricultural season and the farm

378 At the seasonal scale, adaptations can include reviewing and adapting the farm's selling and buying
379 strategy, changing management techniques, reviewing the crop varieties grown to adapt the cropping
380 system and deciding the best response to changes and new information obtained about the production
381 context at the strategic level, such as climate (Table 1).

382 DSP was used to describe farmers' anticipation and planning of sequential decision stages to adapt to
383 an embedded risk such as rainfall. In a cattle farm decision-making model, Trebeck and Hardaker
384 (1972) represented adjustment in feed, herd size and selling strategy in response to rainfall that
385 impacted pasture production according to a discrete distribution with "good", "medium", or "poor"
386 outcomes. After deciding about land allocation, rotation sequence, livestock structure and feed source,
387 Kingwell et al. (1993) considered that wheat-sheep farmers in western Australia have two stages of
388 adjustment to rainfall in spring and summer: reorganizing grazing practices and adjusting animal feed
389 rations. In a two-stage model, Jacquet and Pluvinaige (1997) adjusted the fodder or grazing of the herd
390 and quantities of products sold in the summer depending on the rainfall observed in the spring; they
391 also considered reviewing crop purposes and the use of crops as grain to satisfy animal-feed
392 requirements. Ritten et al. (2010) used a dynamic stochastic programming approach to analyze optimal
393 stocking rates facing climate uncertainty for a stocker operation in central Wyoming. The focus was
394 on profit maximization decisions on stocking rate based on an extended approach of predator-prey
395 relationship under climate change scenarios. The results suggested that producers can improve

396 financial returns by adapting their stocking decisions with updated expectations on standing forage
397 and precipitation. Burt (1993) used dynamic stochastic programming to derive sequential decisions on
398 feed rations in function of animal weight and accommodate seasonal price variation; he also
399 considered decision on selling animals by reviewing the critical weight at which to sell a batch of
400 animals. In the model developed by Adesina (1991), initial cropping patterns are chosen to maximize
401 farmer profit. After observing low or adequate rainfall, farmers can make adjustment decisions about
402 whether to continue crops planted in the first stage, to plant more crops, or to apply fertilizer. After
403 harvesting, farmers follow risk-management strategies to manage crop yields to fulfill household
404 consumption and income objectives. They may purchase grain or sell livestock to obtain more income
405 and cover household needs. To minimize deficits in various nutrients in an African household,
406 Maatman et al. (2002) built a model in which decisions about late sowing and weeding intensity are
407 decided after observing a second rainfall in the cropping season.

408 Adaptation of the cropping system was also described using flexible plans for crop rotations. Crops
409 were identified to enable farmers to adapt to certain conditions. Multiple mathematical approaches
410 were used to model flexible crop rotations: Detlefsen and Jensen (2007) used a network flow,
411 Castellazzi et al. (2008) regarded a rotation as a Markov chain represented by a stochastic matrix, and
412 Dury (2011) used a weighted constraint-satisfaction-problem formalism to combine both spatial and
413 temporal aspects of crop allocation.

414 5.2.2. Adaptation of daily activities at the plot scale

415 Daily adaptations concern crop operations that depend on resource availability, rainfall events and task
416 priority. An operation can be cancelled, delayed, replaced by another or added depending on the
417 farming circumstances (Table 1).

418 Flexible plans with optional paths and interchangeable activities are commonly used to describe the
419 proactive behavior farmers employ to manage adaptation at a daily scale. This flexibility strategy was
420 used to model the adaptive management of intercropping in vineyards (Ripoche et al. 2011);
421 grassland-based beef systems (Martin et al. 2011a); and whole-farm modeling of a dairy, pig and crop
422 farm (Chardon et al. 2012). For instance, in a grassland-based beef system, the beef production level
423 that was initially considered in the farm management objectives might be reviewed in case of drought,
424 and decided a voluntary underfeeding of the cattle (Martin et al. 2011a). McKinion et al. (1989)
425 applied optimization techniques to analyze previous runs and hypothesize potentially superior
426 schedules for irrigation decision on cotton crop. Rodriguez et al. (2011) defined plasticity in farm
427 management as the results of flexible and opportunistic management rules operating in a highly
428 variable environment. The model examines all paths and selects the highest ranking path.

429 Daily adaptations were also represented with timing flexibility to help manage uncontrollable factors.
430 For instance, the cutting operation in the haymaking process is monitored by a time window, and
431 opening predicates such as minimum harvestable yield and a specific physiological stage ensure a

432 balance between harvest quality and quantity (Martin et al. 2011b). The beginning of grazing activity
433 depends on a time range and activation rules that ensure a certain level of biomass availability (Cros et
434 al. 1999). Shaffer and Brodahl (1998) structured planting and pesticide application event time
435 windows as the outer-most constraint for this event for corn and wheat. Crespo et al. (2011) used time-
436 window to insert some flexibility to the sowing of southern African maize.

437 5.3. Sequential adaptation of strategic and tactical decisions

438 Some authors combined strategic and tactical decisions to consider the entire decision-making process
439 and adaptation of farmers (Table 1). DP is a dynamic model that allows this combination of temporal
440 decision scales within the formalism itself: strategic decisions are adapted according to adaptations
441 made to tactical decisions. DP has been used to address strategic investment decisions. Addressing
442 climate uncertainty, Reynaud (2009) used DP to adapt yearly decisions about investment in irrigation
443 equipment and selection of the cropping system to maximize farmers' profit. The DP model
444 considered several tactical irrigation strategies, in which 12 intra-year decision points represented the
445 possible water supply. To maximize annual farm profits in the face of uncertainty in groundwater
446 supply in Texas, Stoecker et al. (1985) used results of a parametric linear programming approach as
447 input to a backward DP to adapt decisions about investment in irrigation systems. Duffy and Taylor
448 (1993) ran DP over 20 years (with 20 decision stages) to decide which options for farm program
449 participation should be chosen each year to address fluctuations in soybean and maize prices and select
450 soybean and corn areas each season while also maximizing profit.

451 DP was also used to address tactic decisions about cropping systems. Weather uncertainty may also
452 disturb decisions about specific crop operations, such as fertilization after selecting the cropping
453 system. Hyytiäinen et al. (2011) used DP to define fertilizer application over seven stages in a
454 production season to maximize the value of the land parcel. Bontems and Thomas (2000) considered a
455 farmer facing a sequential decision problem of fertilizer application under three sources of uncertainty:
456 nitrogen leaching, crop yield and output prices. They used DP to maximize the farmer's profit per
457 acre. Fertilization strategy was also evaluated in Thomas (2003), in which DP was used to evaluate the
458 decision about applying nitrogen under uncertain fertilizer prices to maximize the expected value of
459 the farmer's profit. Uncertainty may also come from specific products used in farm operations, such as
460 herbicides, for which DP helped define the dose to be applied at each application (Pandey and Medd
461 1991). Facing uncertainty in water availability, Yaron and Dinar (1982) used DP to maximize farm
462 income from cotton production on an Israeli farm during the irrigation season (80 days, divided into
463 eight stages of ten days each), when soil moisture and irrigation water were uncertain. The results of a
464 linear programming model to maximize profit at one stage served as input for optimization in the
465 multi-period DP model with a backward process. Thus, irrigation strategy and the cotton area irrigated
466 were selected at the beginning of each stage to optimize farm profit over the season. Bryant et al.
467 (1993) used a dynamic programming model to allocate irrigations among competing crops, while

468 allowing for stochastic weather patterns and temporary or permanent abandonment of one crop in dry
469 periods is presented. They considered 15 intra-seasonal irrigation decisions on water allocation
470 between corn and sorghum fields on the southern Texas High Plains. Facing external shocks on weed
471 and pest invasions and uncertain rainfalls, Fafchamps (1993) used DP to consider three intra-year
472 decision points on labor decisions of small farmers in Burkina Faso, West Africa for labor resource
473 management at planting pr replanting, weeding and harvest time.

474 Concerning animal production, decisions about herd management and feed rations were the main
475 decisions identified in the literature to optimize farm objectives when herd composition and the
476 quantity of biomass, stocks and yields changed between stages. Facing uncertain rainfall and
477 consequently uncertain grass production, some authors used DP to decide how to manage the herd.
478 Toft and O’Hanlon (1979) predicted the number of cows that needed to be sold every month over an
479 18-month period. Other authors combined reactive formalisms and static approaches to describe the
480 sequential decision-making process from strategic decisions and adaptations to tactical decisions and
481 adaptations. Strategic adaptations were considered reactive due to the difficulty in anticipating shocks
482 and were represented with a recursive approach, while tactical adaptations made over a season were
483 anticipated and described with static DSP. Mosnier et al. (2009) used DSP to adjust winter feed,
484 cropping patterns and animal sales each month as a function of anticipated rainfall, beef prices and
485 agricultural policy and then used a recursive process to study long-term effects (five years) of these
486 events on the cropping system and on farm income. Belhouchette et al. (2004) divided the cropping
487 year into two stages: in the first, a recursive process determined the cropping patterns and area
488 allocated to each crop each year. The second stage used DSP to decide upon the final use of the cereal
489 crop (grain or straw), the types of fodder consumed by the animals, the summer cropping pattern and
490 the allocation of cropping area according to fall and winter climatic scenarios. Lescot et al. (2011)
491 studied sequential decisions of a vineyard for investing in precision farming and plant-protection
492 practices. By considering three stochastic parameters – infection pressure, farm cash balance and
493 equipment performance – investment in precision farming equipment was decided upon in an initial
494 stage with a recursive process. Once investments were made and stochastic parameters were observed,
495 the DSP defined the plant-protection strategy to maximize income.

496 6. DISCUSSION

497 6.1. Adaptation: reactive or proactive process?

498 In the studies identified by this review, adaptation processes were modeled to address uncertainty in
499 rainfall, market prices, and water supply, but also to address shocks such as disease. In the long term,
500 uncertain events are difficult to anticipate due to the lack of knowledge about the environment. A
501 general trend can be predicted based on past events, but no author in our survey provided quantitative

502 expectations for future events. The best way to address uncertainty in long-term decisions is to
503 consider that farmers have reactive behavior due to insufficient information about the environment to
504 predict a shock. Adaptation of long-term decisions concerned the selling strategy, the cropping system
505 and investments. Thus, in the research literature on farming system in agricultural economics and
506 agronomy approaches, adaptation of strategic decisions is considered a dynamic process. In the
507 medium and short terms, the temporal scale is short enough that farmers' expectations of shocks are
508 much more realistic. Farmers observed new information about the environment, which provided more
509 self-confidence in the event of a shock and helped them to anticipate changes. Two types of tactical
510 adaptations were identified in the review: 1) medium-term adaptations that review decisions made for
511 a season at the strategic level, such as revising the farm's selling or technical management strategies,
512 and changing the cropping system or crop varieties; and 2) short-term adaptations (i.e., operational
513 level) that adapt the crop operations at a daily scale, such as the cancellation, delay, substitution and
514 addition of crop operations. Thus, in the research literature, adaptations of tactical decisions are mainly
515 considered a static process.

516 6.2. Decision-making processes: multiple stages and sequential decisions

517 In Simon (1976), the concept of the decision-making process changed, and the idea of a dynamic
518 decision-making process sustained over time through a continuous sequence of interrelated decisions
519 (Cerf and Sebillotte 1988; Papy et al. 1988; Osman 2010) was more widely used and recognized.
520 However, 70% of the articles reviewed focused on only one stage of the decision: adaptation at the
521 strategic level for the entire farm or at the tactical level for the farm or plot. Some authors used
522 formalisms such as DP and DSP to describe sequential decision-making processes. In these cases,
523 several stages were identified when farmers have to make a decision and adapt a previous strategy to
524 new information. Sequential representation is particularly interesting and appropriate when the author
525 attempts to model the entire decision-making processes from strategic to tactical and operational
526 decisions; i.e., the complete temporal and spatial dimensions of the decision and adaptation processes
527 (see section 5.3). For these authors, strategic adaptations and decisions influence tactical adaptations
528 and decisions and vice-versa. Decisions made at one of these levels may disrupt the initial
529 organization of resource availability and competition among activities over the short term (e.g., labor
530 availability, machinery organization, irrigation distribution) but also lead to reconsideration of long-
531 term decisions when the cropping system requires adaptation (e.g., change in crops within the rotation,
532 effect of the previous crop). In the current agricultural literature, these consequences on long- and
533 short-term organization are rarely considered, even though they appear an important driver of farmers'
534 decision-making (Daydé et al. 2014). Combining several formalisms within an integrated model in
535 which strategic and tactical adaptations and decisions influence each other is a good starting point for
536 modeling adaptive behavior within farmers' decision-making processes.

537 6.3. What about social sciences?

538 Adaptation within decision-making processes had been studied in many other domains than
539 agricultural economics and agronomy. Different researches of various domains (sociology, social
540 psychology, cultural studies) on farmer behavior and decision-making have contributed to identify
541 factors that may influence farmers' decision processes including economic, agronomic and social
542 factors (Below et al. 2012; Wood et al. 2014; Jain et al. 2015).

543 We will give an example of another domain in social sciences that also uses these formalisms to
544 describe adaptation. Computer simulation is a recent approach in the social sciences compared to
545 natural sciences and engineering (Axelrod 1997). Simulation allows the analysis of rational as well as
546 adaptive agents. The main type of simulation in social sciences is agent-based modeling. According to
547 Farmer and Foley (2009) "An agent-based model is a computerized simulation of a number of
548 decision-makers (agents) and institutions, which interact through prescribed rules." In agent-based
549 models, farms are interpreted as individual agents that interact and exchange information, in a
550 cooperative or conflicting way, within an agent-based systems (Balmann 1997). Adaptation in this
551 regard is examined mostly as a collective effort involving such interactions between producers as
552 economic agents, and not so much as an individual process. However, once the decision making
553 process of a farmer has been analyzed for a particular cropping system, system-specific agent-based
554 systems can be calibrated to accommodate for multiple farmer types in a given region (Happe et al.
555 2008). In agent-based models, agents are interacting with a dynamic environment made of other agents
556 and social institution. Agents have the capacity to learn and adapt to changes in their environment (An
557 2012). Several approaches are used in agent-based model to model decision-making including
558 microeconomic models and empirical or heuristic rules. Adaptation in these approaches can come
559 from two sources (Le et al. 2012): 1) the different formalisms presented earlier can be used directly to
560 describe the adaptive behavior of an agent, 2) the process of feedback loop to assimilate new situation
561 due to change in the environment. In social sciences, farmers' decision-making processes are looked at
562 a larger scale (territory, watershed) than articles reviewed here. Example of uses on land use, land
563 cover change and ecology are given in the reviews of Matthews et al. (2007 and An (2012).

564 6.4. Uncertainty and dynamic properties

565 The dynamic features of decision-making concern: 1) uncertain and dynamic events in the
566 environment, 2) anticipative and reactive decision-making processes, 3) dynamic internal changes of
567 the decision process. In this paper we mainly talked about the first two features such as being in a
568 decision-making context in which the properties change due to environmental, technological and
569 regulatory risks brings the decision-maker to be reactive in the sense that he will adapt his decision to
570 the changing environment (with proactive or reactive adaptation processes). Learning aspects are also
571 a major point in adaptation processes. Learning processes allow updating and integrating knowledge

572 from observation made on the environment. Feedback loops are usually used in agricultural economics
573 and agronomy (Stengel 2003) and social sciences (Le et al. 2012). In such situations, learning can be
574 represented by Bayes' theorem and the associated updating of probabilities. Two concerns have been
575 highlighted on this approach: 1) evaluation of rare events, 2) limitation of human cognition (Chavas
576 2012). The state contingent approach presented by Chambers and Quiggin (2000; 2002) can provide a
577 framework to investigate economic behavior under uncertainty without probability assessments.
578 According to this framework, agricultural production under uncertainty can be represented by
579 differentiating outputs according to the corresponding state of nature. This yields a more general
580 framework than conventional approaches of production under uncertainty, while providing more
581 realistic and tractable representations of production problems (Chambers and Quiggin 2002). These
582 authors use state-contingent representations of production technologies to provide theoretical
583 properties of producer decisions under uncertainty, although empirical applications still remain
584 difficult to implement (see O'Donnell and Griffiths 2006 for a discussion on empirical aspects of the
585 state-contingent approach). Other learning process approaches are used in artificial intelligence such as
586 reinforcement learning and neuro-DP (Bertsekas and Tsitsiklis 1995; Pack Kaelbling et al. 1996).

587 7. CONCLUSION

588 A farm decision-making problem should be modeled within an integrative modeling framework that
589 includes sequential aspects of the decision-making process and the adaptive capability and reactivity
590 of farmers to address changes in their environment. Rethinking farm planning as a decision-making
591 process, in which decisions are made continuously and sequentially over time to react to new available
592 information, and in which the farmer is able to build a flexible plan to anticipate certain changes in the
593 environment, is important to more closely simulate reality. Coupling optimization formalisms and
594 planning appears to be an interesting approach to represent the combination of several temporal and
595 spatial scales in models.

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874 Table 1: Modeling adaptive decision-making processes in farming systems; typology of the literature
 875 according to adaptation dimensions (temporal scope, spatial scope and timing scope) (DSP: discrete
 876 stochastic programming; DP: dynamic programming)

Adaptation dimensions			Authors	Year	Formalism type	Formalism
Temporal Scope	Spatial Scope	Timing dimension				
Strategic decisions (years)	Farm	Reactive	Barbier and Bergeron	1999	Dynamic	Recursive
	Farm	Reactive	Heidhues	1966	Dynamic	Recursive
	Farm	Reactive	Domptail and Nuppenau	2010	Dynamic	Recursive
	Farm	Reactive	Wallace and Moss	2002	Dynamic	Recursive
Tactical decision (season)	Farm	Proactive	Trebeck and Hardaker	1972	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Kingwell et al.	1993	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Jacquet and Pluvinage	1997	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Adesina and Sanders	1991	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Burt	1993	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Maatman and Schweigman	2002	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Ritten et al.	2010	Static	DSP
	Farm	Proactive	Detlefsen and Jensen	2007	Static	Flexible crop-sequence
	Farm	Proactive	Castellazzi et al.	2008	Static	Flexible crop-sequence
	Farm	Proactive	Dury	2011	Static	Flexible crop-sequence
Tactical decision (daily)	Plot	Proactive	Ripoche et al.	2011	Static	Optional execution
	Plot	Proactive	Martin et al.	2011	Static	Optional execution
	Plot	Proactive	Chardon et al.	2012	Static	Optional execution
	Plot	Proactive	Martin et al.	2011	Static	Optional execution
	Plot	Proactive	McKinion et al.	1989	Static	Proactive adjustments
	Plot	Proactive	Ripoche et al.	2011	Static	Proactive adjustments
	Plot	Proactive	Martin et al.	2011	Static	Proactive adjustments
	Plot	Proactive	Chardon et al.	2012	Static	Proactive adjustments
	Plot	Proactive	Rodriguez et al.	2011	Static	Proactive adjustments
	Plot	Proactive	Shaffer and Brodahl	1998	Static	Time windows
	Plot	Proactive	Cros et al.	1999	Static	Time windows
	Plot	Proactive	Crespo et al.	2011	Static	Time windows
	Plot	Proactive	Martin et al.	2011	Static	Time windows
Strategic & tactical decision (years & season)	Farm & Plot	Reactive	Reynaud	2009	Dynamic	DP
	Farm & Plot	Reactive	Stoecker et al.	1985	Dynamic	DP
	Farm & Plot	Reactive	Bryant et al.	1993	Dynamic	DP
	Farm & Plot	Reactive	Duffy and Taylor	1993	Dynamic	DP

Plot					
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Fafchamps	1993	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Hyytiäinen et al.	2011	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Bontems and Thomas	2000	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Thomas	2003	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Pandey and Medd	1991	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Yaron and Dinar	1982	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive	Toft and O'Hanlon	1979	Dynamic	DP
Farm & Plot	Reactive & Proactive	Mosnier et al.	2009	Dynamic & Static	Recursive & DSP
Farm & Plot	Reactive & Proactive	Belhouchette et al.	2004	Dynamic & Static	Recursive & DSP
Farm & Plot	Reactive & Proactive	Lescot et al.	2011	Dynamic & Static	Recursive & DSP

878 FIGURE CAPTION

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880 1: Typology of models to manage adaptive decision-making processes according to model type,
881 approach, and formalism.



Drought

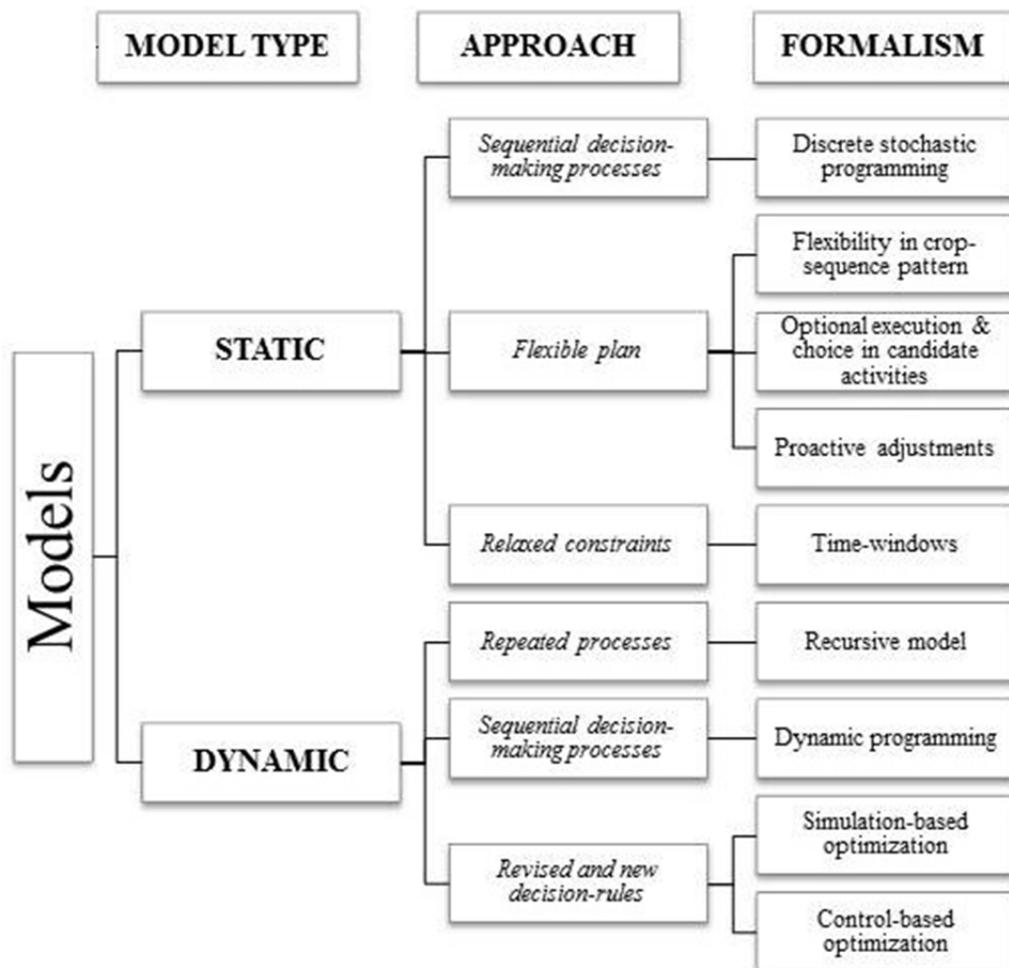


Adaptation



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885 Figure 1