

1 **Agronomy rules: A case study on the mismatch between farm-scale**
2 **measures and policy instruments for drought adaptation in Seewinkel,**
3 **Austria**

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26

27 [Abstract](#)

28 Farms all around the world need to enter Climate Resilient Development Pathways (CRDPs) that
29 account for increasing pressure from rising temperatures and changing precipitation patterns because
30 of climate change, navigate structural change in the agricultural sector, and prepare for future drought
31 hazards. The semi-arid Seewinkel region in Eastern Austria faces a history of drought, flooding and
32 irrigation, a falling groundwater table, tightening water resource conflicts and cross-border
33 dependencies. Farmers in this region already adapt to drought risk, and will increasingly need to do so.
34 Consequently, policymakers initiated regulations and subsidy programmes in line with European
35 agricultural policy, and issued regional water management strategies. However, mismatch between
36 farmers' capacities and the current policy instruments fails to encourage CRDPs. Based on 20 semi-
37 structured interviews with farmers in the Seewinkel region, the present paper describes the personal,
38 social, policy, economic and agronomic factors why specific drought adaptation measures are
39 implemented at farm scale. Farmers state high risk awareness and self-efficacy. Social factors are
40 limited to informal peer learning on drought adaptation. Economically, farmers struggle to balance the
41 demands of a competitive market situation with the costs and effort of technical irrigation or the
42 cultivation of drought-adapted crops. Agronomic considerations such as production practices, timing
43 of management steps, pest control and fertilising, play a central role. Since they consider agronomic
44 flexibility as essential, farmers take out subsidies only if they are compatible with their production
45 strategy. For example, subsidies for greening measures are foregone due to restrictive requirements,
46 even though these measures are nevertheless implemented to some extent. Thus, current policy
47 instruments have only marginal effects on local drought adaptation; they provide add-on funding but
48 have hardly any incentivising effect. Revised policy instruments should include seasonal and regional
49 gradations, simplification and flexibilisation, as well as incentives for regional transformative
50 adaptation towards CRDPs.

51

52

53 1. Introduction

54 Climate change already is and will increasingly be affecting agriculture all over the world, through
55 increasing temperatures, changing precipitation patterns, and greater frequency of extreme events
56 (IPCC, 2019). According to climate models, central Europe will undergo widespread drying and bear
57 the risk for consecutive drought, especially in +2°C scenarios (Lehner et al., 2017). Higher
58 temperatures will influence phenology and plant growth, and higher transpiration and
59 evapotranspiration rates, changing precipitation patterns and the increasing risk for heavy precipitation
60 will lead to substantial restrictions of water supply and water balance in agriculture (Eitzinger, 2007;
61 Karner et al., 2019).

62 Temperature rise, changing precipitation patterns and an increase of extreme weather events are
63 expected to largely affect agriculture also in Austria, beyond the already occurring level (Chimani et
64 al., 2016; Eitzinger, 2007; Smit and Skinner, 2022). In the last years, besides high damages related to
65 hail, frost, heavy precipitation or flooding (€ 365 Mio. between 2018 and 2022), considerable
66 economic loss also occurred due to drought events (€ 565 Mio. between 2018 and 2022)
67 (Österreichische Hagelversicherung, 2024). Especially in the south-east of Austria, an increase in
68 summer days and heat days is already observed. At the same time, winter days and frost days are
69 decreasing (Chimani et al., 2016).

70 Interviews with farmers in Austria showed that farmers themselves recognize climate change as
71 temperature increase, disappearance of transition periods, warmer winters, hotter summers and heavy
72 rainfall events (Mitter et al., 2019). Besides negative effects, climate change can also open up new
73 opportunities in agriculture, such as better growing conditions for crops due to higher atmospheric
74 carbon concentration resulting in increased activity in photosynthesis and higher water efficacy
75 (Fischer et al., 2002; Howden et al., 2007).

76 These developments influence agronomic decisions on farm-level. Agronomy is understood as the
77 science of cultivation of land, crop production and soil management (Collins Dictionary, 2024). Also,
78 non-biological factors such as technical aspects of farm machinery or access to energy sources may
79 inform agronomic considerations. Mills et al. (2018) allocates aspects as soil conditions, weather, crop
80 rotation or pest control to agronomic motivation. Aspects of agronomy are mentioned in in the context
81 of barriers of practice (Fleming and Vanclay, 2009), ecological (IPCC, 2014) and dispositional factors
82 (Kreft et al., 2023). In the following, we use the terms agronomy and agronomic for the farmers'
83 holistic perspective on agricultural practices; referring for instance to biological factors as climate,
84 soil, physiology and phenology of crops, control of weeds and pests (American Society of Agronomy,
85 2024).

86 There are several possibilities for adaptation to drought and thus enhanced resilience, such as
87 landscape designing, crop rotation, land cover, efficient irrigation systems, drought-resistant cultivars
88 and increasing the water storage potential of soil (Adger et al., 2007; Eitzinger, 2007).

89 While being affected by climate change and challenged to adapt to changing conditions, agriculture is
90 also a relevant player regarding climate change mitigation (Alig et al., 2015; Anderl et al., 2024;
91 IPCC, 2022a). As integrated policy instruments may encourage the transformation towards
92 decarbonisation and climate change adaptation (Madsen et al., 2022), policy instruments for
93 agriculture may evoke change in procedures and functionality and thus help to achieve mitigation and
94 adaptation to climate change, using a set of possible activities: mandatory regulations, paid voluntary
95 agri-environmental programmes, or unpaid voluntary actions based on social approval. Farmers'
96 decision making regarding adaptation and mitigation highly depends on the practicality and financial
97 effort of measures, as they often do not have the capacities to adapt and are pressured by changing
98 markets (Hyland et al., 2015; Pröbstl-Haider et al., 2016). In general, measures are most likely to be
99 pursued if there is a beneficial impact on income (Mills et al., 2018; Mitter and Schmid, 2020). On the
100 other hand, there is also non-monetary motivation to pursue adaptation and mitigation, such as
101 environmental responsibility or longing to contribute (Gabel et al., 2018; Greiner, 2015). However, the
102 connection of climate change adaptation, disaster risk reduction and sustainable development in
103 agriculture is not yet explicitly implemented in Austria (Leitner et al., 2020).

104 In this study, we investigate the individual reactions of farmers on repeated drought, why they choose
105 specific adaptation measures and how these choices are influenced by existing policy instruments and
106 funding programmes. We analyse as a case study the Austrian Seewinkel region, which can be
107 regarded as an interesting example for other regions due to its specific circumstances, including a
108 history of drought and irrigation as well as flooding, a falling groundwater table, tightening restrictions
109 and regulations to reduce water consumption, resource conflicts as well as cross border dependencies
110 with the neighbouring state of Hungary.

111 Farmers in the Seewinkel region already adapt to drought risk, and will increasingly need to do so in
112 the light of climate change. The present paper illustrates the mismatch between current policy
113 instruments (that are, funding programmes and water management regulations) and the farmers'
114 considerations and capacities. We show that this mismatch is most pronounced regarding agronomic
115 factors. Consequently, current policy instruments have only marginal effects on local drought
116 adaptation. We conclude with suggestions how policy instruments could be revised.

117

118 2. Theoretical background

119 2.1 Factors for adaptation measures

120 *Climate resilient development pathways*

121 Climate resilient development pathways (CRDPs) are trajectories for integrating climate change
122 adaptation and mitigation in pursuing sustainable development, taking into account the complex
123 interactions between climate, social and ecological systems. Natural hazards events, such as drought,
124 might disrupt these pathways (IPCC, 2022b, 2014).

125

126 *Implemented adaptation measures on farm scale*

127 The IPCC defines resilience as the capacity of social, economic and ecological systems to cope with a
128 hazardous event or trend or disturbance, responding or reorganising in ways that maintain their
129 essential function, identity and structure as well as biodiversity in case of ecosystems while also
130 maintaining the capacity for adaptation, learning and transformation (IPCC, 2022c). According to
131 Lankford et al. (2022) resilience against drought can happen accordingly to four categories:
132 **absorptive capacity**, which are considered short-term responses to buffer the impact of the shock.
133 **adaptive capacity**, which includes learning, adjusting and adapting to the shocks happening;
134 **anticipative capacity**, which stands for the preparation and planning that is made against unexpected
135 changes in water supply; **transformative capacity**, which stands for fundamental changes to social
136 and economic processes which result in deep structural changes. These categories differ in importance
137 over space and time. Measures to increase the resilience against drought would contain farm planning
138 at an individual scale, improving the monitoring of water and land, support with advice during and
139 between droughts and include multi-sector stakeholders in decision making (Lankford et al., 2022). In
140 the remainder of the paper, we use these four dimensions to understand and classify the farmers'
141 individual reactions for implementing adaptation measures. In addition, we focus on possible
142 **maladaptation**, describing short-sighted measures, which may reduce damage in the short term but do
143 not lead to long-term sustainable adaptation, but lead higher vulnerability (IPCC, 2022c). Approaches
144 which comprise climate change **mitigation** (IPCC, 2022a) are also specifically highlighted.

146 *Factors for adaptation measures and transformation*

147 Multiple factors for adaptation measures and transformation are elaborated by former research (see
148 literature overview in Annex I). We identify five major categories, which we use in the remainder of
149 the paper to understand and classify the farmers' decisive factors behind their individual reaction:
150 personal factors, social factors, policy factors, economic factors, and agronomic factors. While the five
151 categories help to structure the data, they overlap to some degree, such as that financial issues are
152 sometimes included in other categories than economic, e.g. policy factors.

153 **Cognitive and personal factors** play an important role for adaptation measures and transformation.
154 Without knowledge about climate change causes and impacts, the individual risk appraisal of climate
155 change may differ (Fleming and Vanclay, 2009), while personal opinions influence risk perception
156 towards climate change (Adger et al., 2007). Reasons for implementing adaptation measures can be
157 the subjective perception of risks, knowledge as well as emotions. The stronger farmers are affected by
158 climate change, the more pressure they feel to implement certain adaptation measures. Which
159 measures are chosen, depends on the kind and amount of damage they have to deal with (Kropf and
160 Mitter, 2022a). Grothmann and Patt (2005) argue that decision making for private people associated
161 with climate change depends on risk perception and subjective ability to adapt. Thereby, risk

162 perception is a process of considering the probability of a risk, the risk experience in the past and the
163 severity of the risk in the future.

164 **Social factors** influence the probability of taking action. Positive impacts of peer relationships are
165 likely to influence each other, share information and talk about economic network effects, agricultural
166 training and mutual exchange of experiences improves the knowledge about measures and their
167 advantages and advice can help gathering information about technical issues (Schaub et al., 2023). For
168 our analysis we include also interactions between farmers such as cooperation, lack of cooperation,
169 and multiplier effects as social factors.

170 **Policy factors** imply the interaction between farmers and different governance levels, including
171 funding programmes, statutory regulations and water management plans. These factors are outside
172 farmer's control and go beyond mere economic aspects. Besides legislation, regulations and water
173 management plans, funding programmes are the most dominant expression of policy strategies (Kreft
174 et al., 2023). Policy factors include the trust in public policies, which also influences mitigation and
175 adaptation to climate change (Grothmann and Patt, 2005).

176 **Economic factors** include financial considerations in connection with or without reference to external
177 support or subsidies. Financial issues are sometimes included in other categories (e.g. policy factors),
178 sometimes aspects as cost and benefit are mentioned separately (Barghusen et al., 2021; Hamann et al.,
179 2016; Mills et al., 2018).

180 **Agronomic factors** address the question, how to grow crops efficiently and therefore comprise
181 considerations regarding timing of management steps, climate, soil, control of weed or pests. For the
182 purpose of this paper, we also include technical or structural barriers directly related to agricultural
183 production; economic factors are considered separately. Agronomic motivation in the context of
184 adaptation means, that farmers implement certain actions without explicitly thinking of mitigation or
185 climate change (Mills et al., 2018), depending also on the underlying farm structures and processes
186 (Kreft et al., 2023).

187

188 2.2 Strategies and instruments related to water management on national and regional scale

189 There are several strategies on national and regional scale displaying a direct or indirect effect on
190 water management on farm-level and subsequently on drought. At EU level, the Common Agricultural
191 Policy (CAP) shapes the agricultural sector. The CAP is currently based on the CAP 2023-27 legal
192 framework and the CAP Strategic Plans, designed to contribute to the ambitions of the European
193 Green Deal, including Farm to Fork Strategy and Biodiversity Strategy (European Commission,
194 2024). At national level, the CAP is translated into national operational programmes, which enable
195 national funding, taking into consideration national characteristics and needs. For Austria, the Austrian
196 agri-environmental programme ("ÖPUL") and the rural development programme ("Ländliche
197 Entwicklung") are the most important national instruments besides the conditionality and legal
198 framework.

Table 1: Overview of current main instruments on national and regional scale with direct or indirect effect on water management on farm level in the Seewinkel region (status in August 2024). Sources: (AMA, 2024a, 2024b, 2024c, 2023a, 2023b, 2022; Kropf et al., 2021; Republik Österreich, 1996b, 1955a; Sailer, 2022)

Instrument	Description of principal regulations and requirements
Legal framework and conditionality	
Subsidised drought insurance	Based on the Disaster Fund Law 1996 and the Law on Hail Insurance Subsidies, insurance premiums for drought insurances are subsidies with 55% by federal government (disaster fund) and states; basic financial hedging
GAEC 6: minimum soil cover	Conditionality within the CAP; requirement for minimum soil cover of at least 80% of arable land or 50% of permanent crops during winter (from 1 th November to 15 th February); minimum soil cover is fulfilled with a) catch crop b) leaving harvest residues or c) non-rotational tillage (e.g. using a cultivator or disc harrow); certain field vegetables are excluded
Funding programmes	
Austrian agri-environmental programme “ÖPUL”	
Intercropping for arable crops	Actively sown green cover between two main crops or for undersown crops in oilseed rape; 7 different greening options (different greening periods/requirements regarding number of mixture partners and of species); restriction of plant protection, fertilising and soil cultivation measures during greening period
Permanent greening for arable crops	At least 85% of the arable land must be greened with main or catch crops at all times of the year; restriction of plant protection, fertilising and soil cultivation measures during greening period with catch crops; requirements regarding due dates for sowing, minimal time periods for greening, maximal periods between main and catch crops
Groundwater protection arable crops	Combination with the funding option intercropping or permanent greening for arable crops is mandatory; restriction of plant protection, fertilising; obligation for training, soil analysis and documentation (partly mandatory due to legal framework)
Erosion protection for arable crops	Implementation of soil conservation systems for crops at risk of erosion (field beans, potatoes, pumpkins, maize, beetroot, soya beans, sunflowers, sorghum), e.g. mulch sowing, no-till or strip-till methods; for some crops undersowing (field beans, pumpkins, soya beans and sunflowers) or dams (potatoes) are eligible
Erosion protection for vineyards and orchards	Only year-round greening is eligible; disturbance of cover crops without soil cultivation allowed; sowing within 8 weeks mandatory after soil cultivation; seeding mixture must contain at least 3 perennials; possible top-up: use of pheromones
Rural development programme	
Funding for irrigation infrastructure	Funding for irrigation infrastructure; funding of power units, sprinkler systems, pipes; only new devices are eligible; no funding of fossil fuel powered pumps or units; funding rate: 40%; minimum eligible project costs: 15.000 €; retention period: 5 years
Regional water management strategies	
Ground water regional programme	Regionally defined regulations based on national strategy (Austrian National Water Management Plan); targeting water quality
Technical water strategy	Monitoring of ground water tables; consensus on groundwater withdrawal to avoid overuse of the regional groundwater body; definition of warning levels and corresponding restrictions (e.g. only drip irrigation allowed / irrigation bans regulations regarding the operation of the wells)

203 Regional strategies and instruments mainly address the ground water table and water quality. The
204 groundwater regional programme comprises guidelines and control systems to improve water quality,
205 e.g. by the restriction of the use of fertilizer and pesticides. The water management plan provides the
206 regulations for the monitoring of ground water tables at several measuring points and the definition of
207 restrictions when tables fall under certain levels. A slight revision of the strategy took place in 2023,
208 when the actual implementation of the restrictions was adjusted.

209 Since the beginning of the 20th century, external water supply has been an issue in the Seewinkel
210 region. The dotation of water from another region (e.g. surface water from Hungarian Danube
211 (Moson-Danube) is recently upcoming again. The current planning has the primary objective of
212 contributing to raising the groundwater level. Several studies investigated the different options for the
213 dotation, the impact on ecology and water quality. In any case, the implementation would require high
214 costs and effort and the coordination with Hungary.

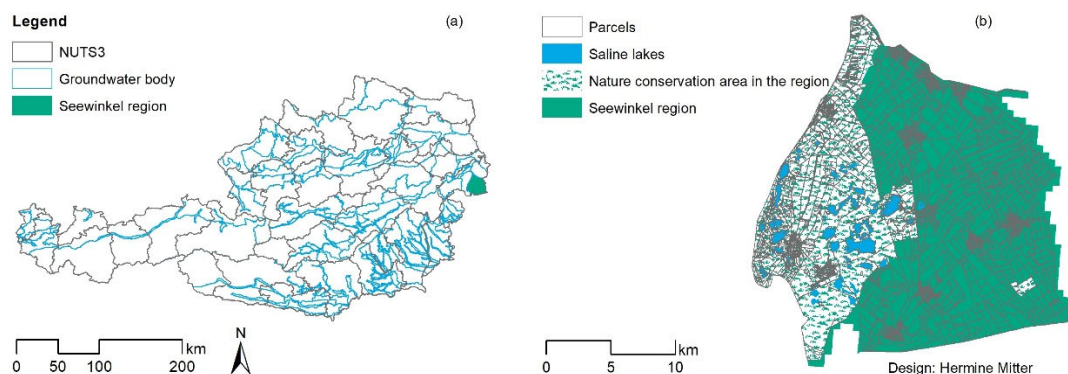
215

216 2.3 Case study region Seewinkel

217 The Seewinkel region in the east of Austria covers about 450 km² and is characterized by its semi-arid
218 pannonian climate with annual average precipitation of just 500-600 mm (Kropf et al., 2021). Due to
219 almost 300 sun days per year and frequent winds the transpiration rate is relatively high (Blaschke and
220 Gschöpf, 2011). A special natural phenomenon are the shallow saline lakes that emerge through
221 rainwater. Due to the high salt concentration of the water, these wetlands provide a special habitat for
222 flora and fauna (Blaschke and Gschöpf, 2011). After the Second World War, wetlands were drained to
223 create more agricultural land. Since then, the groundwater table fluctuates with the current
224 precipitation level (Blaschke and Gschöpf, 2011). The water balance of Lake Neusiedl, the main
225 surface water body to the west of the Seewinkel region, depends on precipitation and evaporation and
226 is therefore highly sensitive to climate change. The lake already dried up more than 10 times (Soja et
227 al., 2012). Due to climate change the annual and seasonal patterns of precipitation and drought in the
228 Seewinkel region hugely vary and are expected to increasingly do so in the future (Karner et al.,
229 2019). The groundwater body “Seewinkel”, which delimits the case study area, is located in the
230 following municipalities: Andau, Apetlon, Frauenkirchen, Gols, Halbturn, Illmitz, Mönchhof,
231 Neusiedl am See, Pamhagen, Podersdorf am See, St. Andrä am Zicksee, Tadtten, Wallern im Bgld,
232 Weiden am See.

233 Agriculture is an important economic sector in the region: 56% of the total area is used for arable
234 farming, 10% for viticulture and 6% for permanent grassland. About 1.000 farms cultivate an area of
235 ca. 33.000 ha (GeDaBa – BAB, 2024; Karner et al., 2019). The most frequent drought adaptation
236 measures are drought-tolerant crops and cultivars, soil conserving tillage practices, irrigation, changes
237 in irrigation strategies (irrigation during night to reduce evaporation) and technique (drip irrigation),
238 and drought insurance (Kropf et al., 2022). Irrigation for agriculture in the Seewinkel region relies on
239 groundwater (Valencia Cotera et al., 2023). Irrigation pumps are mainly fossil fuel powered, but some

240 farmers consider switching to renewable energy due to rising fuel prices (Kropf et al., 2022). Further
 241 approaches discussed are improved waste water treatment (percolation, backwatering) and flexible
 242 groundwater pricing. The latter would lead to an increase in costs for agricultural production, but
 243 would incentivise reduced groundwater use (Mitter and Schmid, 2020).
 244 Main policy actors at the regional level are the water authorities of the federal state of Burgenland, the
 245 Chamber of Agriculture Burgenland, and the authorities of the national park at Lake Neusiedl. On the
 246 local level, co-operatives manage irrigation and access of individual farms to groundwater wells. The
 247 co-operatives are supervised and regulated by the district authority, i.e. the Water Management
 248 Department which is also responsible for the technical water strategy. Kropf et al. (2021) suggest that
 249 a cross-sectoral institution could help in aligning the different stakeholder interests in land and water
 250 use. Some formats for actor cooperation are already established: The national park and the federal
 251 government of Burgenland (especially the water department) cooperate for the successful
 252 implementation of projects. Furthermore, the regional government of Burgenland has recently
 253 appointed a ‘task force’ for the Seewinkel region in order to mediate between different interests and
 254 ensure the preservation of Lake Neusiedl in the long-term. Cross-border panels, such as the Austrian-
 255 Hungarian Cross-border Water Commission, also affect policy instruments.
 256 The Seewinkel region is an interesting case study for the purpose of the present paper, because water
 257 shortages from a mix of changing precipitation patterns, higher average temperatures, land use and
 258 water management put increasing pressure on farms’ revenues and viability, but the combination of
 259 predominant land use (e.g. cultivation of water-demanding crops) and currently implemented drought
 260 adaptation measures (especially irrigation) seems insufficient to enter a long-term climate resilient
 261 development pathway.
 262



264 *Figure 1: Location of the Seewinkel region in Austria (a) and overview of the Seewinkel region (b). Note: The Lake Neusiedl*
 265 *National Park is part of the nature reserve. Figure: Hermine Mitter, in (Kropf et al., 2021), based on (Amt der*
 266 *Burgenländischen Landesregierung, 2021; BMLFUW, 2017; Nationalpark Neusiedler See-Seewinkel, 2021; Statistik Austria,*
 267 *2019).*

268

269 3. Methods

270 Based on a framework literature study, twenty semi-structured interviews (for interview guideline see
271 Annex II) were conducted with farmers as affected individuals, to understand their perception of as
272 well as their reactions to drought as climate change induced hazard. With this number of interviews,
273 the point of theoretical saturation could be reached (Mayring, 2022). The interviews were conducted
274 with the farmer, sometimes together with the spouse or other family members. However, data on
275 individual views of several people engaged is too fragmentary to allow for intra-farm comparisons.
276 Interviewees were instructed to refer to the most recent drought event when describing impacts and
277 reactions. Since the statements of the interviewees were from their point of view and thus possibly
278 biased, statements of different persons on the same topic were contrasted and factual information was
279 verified based on the document analysis.

280 Farmers were purposefully selected to cover a broad scope of typical agricultural activities of the
281 region (arable crops, vegetables, viticulture and fruit production), to gain a comprehensive picture (see
282 Annex III). Farms with livestock were excluded to focus the research question and avoid dissipation
283 regarding adaptation measures and funding programmes. Unfortunately, some farm types could not be
284 covered, for example farms with viticulture and high irrigation intensity due to high reluctance to
285 participate in interviews. 13 of the farms are run organically, which is not specified in Annex III due to
286 data protection reasons. 17 of the interviewed farmers use irrigation systems, while 3 do not use
287 irrigation.

288 To approach potential interviewees, farmers were contacted by advocacy, advisory representatives and
289 colleagues from another institution involved in the underlying research project. Interviewed farmers
290 were asked to recommend further affected farmsteads they knew in the region. The face-to-face
291 interviews were conducted between January and March 2023 and lasted 60-90 minutes each. Interview
292 audio recordings were transcribed for analysis. We employed qualitative content analysis (Döring and
293 Bortz, 2016; Mayring, 2022), using MAXQDA software for coding the interview transcripts.

294 Responses were structured in a category system, carried out deductively from the main interview
295 topics. The paper uses translations from verbatim German interview quotes for explicit examples.

296 To analyse the farmer's individual reactions we investigate for the decisive factors behind the
297 individual reaction, connected to the existing policy instruments, classifying them by the five
298 categories drawn from the literature.

299

300 4. Results

301 The results are structured as follows: 4.1 und 4.2. present general views on the current climatic and
302 policy situation in the entire Seewinkel region. Subsection 4.3 focuses on implemented measures and
303 experiences on farm level. Finally, subsection 4.4 analyses the factors underlying adaptation measures
304 according to section 2.1.

305

306 4.1 Farmer perspectives on climatic situation

307 In principle, dry conditions are mentioned as normal for the region (*“We were never a wetland in that*
308 *sense in the area anyway.”*) and the deterioration due to climate change is considered by several
309 farmers as foreseeable (*“...it's all connected and it was foreseeable for a long time.”*). Farmers
310 describe an increasing water deficit and falling groundwater tables caused by lack of precipitation
311 (especially missing winter precipitation) and rising evapotranspiration rate due to higher temperature.
312 As a consequence, the discrepancy between water supply and water consumption increases,
313 groundwater buffer is depleting and falling levels in groundwater wells are observed. For the last
314 decade, the years 2013, 2021, 2022 and 2023 are repeatedly mentioned as especially dry and hot years
315 with corresponding damages. On the other hand, years with high precipitation and flooding are
316 mentioned (e.g. in 2004 and 2014). Weather extremes are perceived as cumulating and not only
317 drought, but also heavy rainfalls and a shift of precipitation pattern as aggravating the situation.
318 Furthermore, precipitation differs on a very low spatial resolution and the evolvement/history of the
319 drying-up of the Lake Neusiedl and the brines (e.g. “Zicksee”, “Lange Lacke”) is described. Some
320 farmers presume a linkage between microclimate and precipitation in the region and the water level of
321 the Lake Neusiedl.

322 Referring to the whole region, the quantification of damages (yield/quality) vary widely from total to
323 marginal losses; the valuation is mainly depending on year, cultivated crops and extent of irrigation.
324 The interviewed farmers mention many colleagues who rely on irrigation alone and that it will be fatal
325 for them if irrigation were restricted. The need of every crop – also of extensive crops – for a certain
326 amount of water in critical phenological stages to ensure yield and/or quality is emphasised once.
327 As a consequence of the prevailing situation, farmers see the economic viability of agricultural
328 production in the Seewinkel region jeopardised.

329 *“How can you manage to keep any farm going despite a lack of water and, above all, the crops*
330 *that are irrigated, are actually the crops that keep a farm going and that generate the greatest*
331 *turnover and the greatest profit. Without these crops it would be very difficult to maintain a farm*
332 *business.”*

333 However, also positive effects of drought and higher temperatures are observed: less problems with
334 some diseases or weeds (good conditions for organic farming), higher wine quality (especially for red
335 wine) or the possibility to cultivate new crops. Saflor, sweet potato, sorghum, peanuts, spices and
336 herbs were mentioned as crops with potential in the region.

337

338 4.2 Farmer perspective on drought risk and policy instruments

339 Besides the given climatic conditions and their changes due to climate change, mistakes in the past
340 and self-inflicted sources for regional drought risk are considered as relevant. The main reasons given
341 are the drainage of the “Hanság” wetlands, the outflow of surface water via channels (e.g. via
342 “Einserkanal”) and the discharge of wastewater via the sewerage system. The historical drainage to

343 gain arable land are partly viewed critically today; the designation of building land and construction of
344 buildings in flood zones is coincidentally identified as a conflict of interest. Some farmers think, it
345 would be better to have recurrent floods, devastating some fields but gaining groundwater reserves for
346 future years. Additionally, there is a dependence on Hungary due to the cross-border connection of the
347 canals and the corresponding impact of decisions on water management (e.g. damming of the
348 “Einserkanal”, opening of the floodgates).

349 Further factors that increase regional drought risk are the encouragement and increased cultivation of
350 crops with high water demand (e.g. vegetables, potatoes, maize for seed production), ignorance of the
351 necessary changes and the lack of windbreaks.

352 *“And then we have the many self-inflicted things in the region, such as drainage, wrong crops. No*
353 *windbreaks and so on. So there are many reasons why this is so dramatic in our region.”*

354 With regard to the policy instruments, mainly the funding programmes and the statutory regulations
355 (including the water management plan) are known; there is less awareness of overarching strategies at
356 province, national or EU-level. However, a strongly top-down influence of these strategies is recognised,
357 which do not take into account the situation of small-scale agriculture and the differences between
358 growing regions with divergent conditions.

359 *“They always claim to help and support small businesses, but actually, with every new CAP*
360 *program everything becomes a little more difficult.”*

361 The importance of the national park for the development of the region is repeatedly emphasised.
362 Several strategies trigger controversial opinions and are mentioned either as helpful or unhelpful. The
363 water management plan is mentioned as instrument to define the framework or avoid extreme
364 activities; in contrast, lack of coordination or missing regional perspective is presumed. The opinions
365 on the irrigation ban during day within the regional water management plan range from “reasonable
366 regulation” (reduces vaporisation of water, manageable restriction, was done like this before) over
367 “irrelevant” regarding evaporation to “counterproductive”. The restriction of the time period is
368 mentioned to collide with frost irrigation and consequently endangers the protection of fruit crops
369 against spring frost. On a mid-term perspective, farmers expect that the irrigation ban will lead to the
370 elimination of certain crops and consequently to economic problems and abandonment of agriculture /
371 farms.

372 Funding of irrigation infrastructure is generally seen as helpful for regional agriculture, but there are
373 farmers expressing the opinion, that irrigation should not be funded any more, if water is scarce.
374 Especially the funding and promotion of drip irrigation is discussed controversial: most of the
375 interviewees consider it to be unsustainable and not suitable for arable crops and that water
376 consumption will not be reduced. Others see it as a water saving method; but mainly for viticulture or
377 fruit production.

378 Several aspects of funding requirements within the rural development programme are considered to be
379 hindering factors for regional drought adaptation. Firstly, internal labour is not funded. Secondly, used

380 machinery and some machinery components are not eligible. Thirdly, the upper limits of funding are
381 mentioned: for investments in water-saving and thus more expensive infrastructure, capping has a
382 proportionally greater impact.

383 The current national agri-environmental programme is perceived as providing little support for
384 adaptation to drought as no specific measures are subsidised. The funding of greening measures (as
385 “Erosion protection for vineyards and orchards”) or the conditionality on greening in winter (GAEC 6)
386 were mentioned as neutral, unhelpful or detrimental to agronomic practice. Some greening measures
387 which are funded are even considered to have a detrimental effect on drought (e.g. undersown crops)
388 or negative effects on other agricultural sectors (bees). Requirements regarding the planting or later
389 removal of trees are cited as an obstacle to the planting of trees. Missing funding opportunities for
390 windbreaks or agroforestry systems is mentioned as gap. However, some statements show that current
391 funding requirements have not yet been recognised.

392 The drought insurance is considered as a useful option for financial hedging, on the other hand the
393 system of drought index is regarded as unfair with regard to the relationship between weather data,
394 spatial differentiation and loss estimates.

395 The recently (again) upcoming strategy of external dotation of water is provoking diverging opinions,
396 reflections range from “only possibility for the region”, “helpful and simple strategy” or “opportunity
397 to replenish the groundwater reservoir” to “threat to the ecosystems in the lake”. However, most
398 farmers do not have the confidence to assess the external dotation from other water bodies because
399 they lack the knowledge to do so.

400 The farmers’ predominant narratives refer to missing (regional) strategies or coordination and lacking
401 trust in (political) actors, although the extent and the allocation to specific stakeholders or decision
402 makers varies. Main aspects mentioned in this context are the lack of technical background and the
403 missing consideration of divergent conditions in different regions – a dry region needs other
404 regulations or funding requirements than a wet region. Regarding the regional water management, the
405 drainage and outflow of surface water instead of water logging in the region is being criticised.

406 Damming on local level are occasionally mentioned as best practice. The procedure of the
407 groundwater level monitoring is questioned in terms of the placement of measuring points; the
408 assessment of ground water levels appears too small-scale.

409 Institutions such as the Chamber of Agriculture or public authorities are closely linked to policy
410 instruments due to their role. The interviewees perceive the focus of these actors to be primarily on
411 optimisation of irrigation, technical measures or water procurement. Consequently, the expansion of
412 more efficient irrigation is more strongly propagated than, for example, the cultivation of water-saving
413 crops or integrated strategies. The local irrigation co-operatives are mentioned with their central role in
414 the implementation of the water management plan, but the intensity of internal communication on
415 changing regulations or critical situations diverges. In this context, the control of irrigation bans and the
416 legal situation with regard to liability and penalties is considered problematic. Several further actors –

417 mediating or catalysing policy instruments – are mentioned as relevant, such as hail insurance, food
418 retailer, companies or press. The dominant role of food retailers and companies regarding prices and
419 market opportunities is emphasised repeatedly. Another narrative is the blaming of farmers for the
420 depletion of the groundwater body.

421

422 4.3 Implemented adaptation measures on farm scale

423 The interviewed farmers usually implement multiple measures, no complete inaction can be observed.
424 Main measures are irrigation, cultivation of drought adapted crops and cultivars as well as adapted soil
425 cultivation and greening. Reported measures on farms (Annex III) are grouped in the following
426 according the categories proposed by (Lankford et al., 2022).

427 **Absorptive capacity**, mainly manifests in functional adaptation: irrigation and its optimisation in
428 terms of timing or infrastructure (e.g. irrigation by night, drip irrigation) which is not necessarily
429 combined with other measures. Further investments in irrigation infrastructure are often not envisaged,
430 due to planning insecurity or financial reasons. Another response which can be allocated to absorptive
431 capacity is contracting a drought insurance to reduce the financial impact.

432 Regarding **adaptive capacity**, measures to reduce water losses as limited adjustments to soil
433 cultivation or adjustments of production technique such as modifications in timing, plant protection or
434 fertilisation can be mentioned. However, these adjustments are mainly motivated by other factors than
435 drought. For soil cultivation a wide range of approaches, varying intensity and different reasons are
436 reported.

437 **Anticipative capacity** is expressed for example by adaption of crops, crop rotation, cultivars or
438 rootstocks. Measures to retain water on different scales (soil, site, and region) are occasionally
439 reported.

440 Measures as intensive greening or mulching strategies, substantial changes in soil cultivation,
441 establishment of windbreaks as well as the implementation of agroforestry can be considered as
442 **transformative capacity**, as production systems or agricultural landscape undergo substantial
443 changes. For greening strategies, different degrees of implementation and varying assessment is
444 reported; consequently, in some cases it can rather be considered as adaptive capacity. With focus on
445 short term effects, greening is usually assessed to have a detrimental effect on water balance, compete
446 for water or increase weed occurrence and are implemented with restraint. On the other hand, farmers
447 with longstanding experience report positive effects of reduced/shallow soil cultivation and fostering
448 of humus accumulation by greening strategies or organic fertilizers. Especially if the implementation
449 has been going on for many years, farmers are convinced of the positive effects on water holding
450 capacity and soil quality, regardless of the crops cultivated. The use of drought resistant greening
451 plants, local seed or spontaneous greening is emphasised. Mulching with foil (conventional /
452 biodegradable) or straw is seen as an effective method to reduce water consumption; aspects as the
453 deposition of (micro)plastic or high effort are hindering aspects, respectively. Occasionally,

454 transformative approaches are expressed by purposeful inaction: no irrigation to force vine roots to
455 expand in deeper soil layers and accepting the consequences regarding yield level.
456 It is extremely important for farmers to see the positive effect on their fields, especially when it comes
457 to the implementation of new measures.

458 *“But practice has confirmed what the younger generation may have been thinking. And it has*
459 *already become clear that a rethink is definitely necessary.”*

460 In few cases, measures that are more likely to be considered as **maladaptation** are reported; i.e.
461 cultivation of crops with higher water consumption, intensified irrigation (combined with high
462 consumption of fossil fuel) or frequent soil cultivation. However, such behaviour is often reported at a
463 regional level, beyond the interviewed farmers. Climate change **mitigation** aspects are particularly
464 evident with regard to the conversion of the power unit of irrigation infrastructure. Several farmers
465 already changed to electricity or intend to switch from fossil fuel to electricity/photovoltaics.

466

467 4.4 Factors for adaptation measures and transformation

468 4.4.1 Personal factors

469 Referring to their own properties, farmers show high awareness regarding climate change, yet there is
470 a wide range between a very high and a rather low risk perception (“all is getting worse” vs. “changing
471 weather conditions are normal”). Farmers make their assessment based on scientific as well as
472 historical data, but also – to a large extent – based on their own experience. Mostly, drought events
473 were anticipated and their adaptation process is already ongoing for a longer time span. The distinction
474 of actions mainly driven by recent drought events versus measures which were already in place or
475 driven by other reasons is not clear-cut. Some measures are recently being intensified or
476 complemented with further measures (e.g. more greening).

477 A high degree of self-efficacy is present. Most farmers assess their implemented measures as sufficient
478 and as the best they can do, expressing little worries about their estate. At the same time, they expect
479 the future of whole sector to be very challenging, especially for those farms without sufficient
480 measures in place. Some farmers downplay the future risk of drought, as fluctuations have repeatedly
481 occurred. Statements and media reports on evaporation during irrigation or drying out of the Lake
482 Neusiedl are occasionally considered as exaggerated.

483 Drought is perceived as uncontrollable natural phenomenon, which belongs to the region and is
484 subjected to self-regulation and coincidence. Farmers express fatalism and feel powerless; however,
485 this does not imply inaction, but effectiveness of measures is considered limited. Inconsistency
486 between high degree of self-efficacy and response efficacy and the reported feeling of helplessness
487 against (changing) climate is reported (being powerless, nature cannot be controlled).

488 In addition to social and economic goals (see following sections), personal goals comprise ecological
489 aims and considerations such as avoiding unsustainable/inefficient irrigation regarding ecological

490 footprint; switch to renewable energy sources; causing only low input of resources; saving water;
491 focus on healthy soil, biodiversity and nature conservation; avoid (micro)plastic input.
492 In this context, trade-offs between economic and ecologic aspects are mentioned, as well as the
493 importance of local food production instead of imports.

494

495 4.4.2 Social factors

496 Social aims mentioned are related to the own person (such as leading a good, meaningful life, mirrored
497 by sustainable farming) but are also seen in a larger context; sometimes failing due to the lack of
498 capacity (e.g. manpower). Sustainable farming is regarded as contributing to a more sustainable
499 society and leading by good example. Furthermore, the responsibility for employees and the wish of
500 being a good employer are stated.

501 Farmers report a comprehensive exchange in the sector and mutual learning. This exchange with peers
502 is of great importance and often enfolds an inspiring effect. Indeed, many farmers see themselves as
503 being the frontrunners and examples for others; decisions are taken primarily on their own assessment
504 and experience. The role of important actors is emphasised several times. However, farmers often refer
505 to individual persons or experts, less to the respective institution.

506 Beyond the exchange of information, there are various forms of cooperation between farmers, such as
507 land swap either to reduce water losses and optimise irrigation infrastructure or to optimise crop
508 rotation by the collaboration of different farm types. The cooperation is not only driven by drought,
509 but also by production-related reasons.

510 Several conflicts of interests are reported: between affected individuals or groups (e.g. arable crops vs.
511 viticulture) or different interests (agriculture vs. nature preservation). One area of conflicting interests
512 relates to the flooding of cellars of private households which would intensify, if backwatering is
513 implemented. Farmers perceive repeated negative portrayal or blaming of agriculture – partly
514 supported by the press and political representatives. This is presumed to shape the public opinion and
515 reported to burden or annoy farmers:

516 *“All the psychological stress. You have to justify yourself.”*

517

518 4.4.3 Policy factors

519 Policy instruments at different levels have an effect on farmers' behaviour. The stated effects are
520 grouped following the structure in section 2.2.

521

522 **Legal framework and conditionality**

523 Farmers cultivating arable crops often refer to the greening conditionality GAEC 6 as affecting their
524 production processes; not always directly related to drought, but as a general limitation. Depending on
525 cultivated crops and the previous farming strategies, farmers consider it as easy to integrate, notice
526 problems for following crops or perceive it as not compatible with their production (see section 4.4.5).

527 **Funding programmes**

528 In the following, the statements of the interviewees are structured in four categories according to the
529 triggered effects: non-effect, where funding is not taken up; add-on effect, where funding provides a
530 windfall benefit to already planned reactions; steering effect, where funding influences the design of
531 already planned reactions and trigger effect, where funding directly causes the realisation of reactions
532 that would not have been considered otherwise.

533 A **non-effect** can be repeatedly taken from the statements. Farmers report to implement measures
534 primary regardless of funding opportunities or to choose only funding options, which correspond to
535 their initial plans and to ignore other options. Funding is mainly foregone due to restrictive funding
536 requirements, sometimes even though the subsidised measures are implemented on the farm.

537 *“You'd rather do without and be more flexible and independent than have to stick a timing that*
538 *doesn't suit you.”*

539 For certain funding options, the reasons for the non-effect are explicitly named: For “Groundwater
540 protection for arable crops“ more non-uptake or opt out reactions are reported for new funding period,
541 due to reduced funding amount, more bureaucracy and restrictions of production , e.g. for plant
542 protection. “Erosion protection for vineyards and orchards” is less uptaken in the new funding period
543 due to the new requirement of year-round greening. For “Strip till” the higher weed pressure and
544 limited possibilities to manage weed in some crops are mentioned as reasons for reluctance to
545 implementation.

546 Some **add-on effects** are reported, especially for investments in irrigation infrastructure. The funding
547 of irrigation infrastructure is mainly considered as helpful, though not as decisive for the
548 implementation itself. Regarding the components of irrigation infrastructure as drip irrigation tubes –
549 that are used for only one year – for some farmers the guidelines seems unclear, for others it is clear
550 (and problematic), that there is no funding (as the retention period of 5 years cannot be fulfilled). In
551 the light of the ban of certain irrigation systems, some farmers express their wish for subsidies for new
552 irrigation systems. The fact, that only electric power units are eligible in the new rural development
553 program unfolds little steering effect, as structural and technical barriers prevail (see section 3.4.5).

554 A **steering effect** is rarely mentioned, and mainly in connection with an add-on effect. Examples are
555 slight adjustments to fulfil funding requirements as the choice of cultivars, small modifications of
556 already planned or implemented greening strategies or a more extensive implementation of
557 investments than originally planned. Considered over a longer period of time, the subsidies for
558 greening are cited as the decisive factor for its current implementation in practice.

559 **Trigger effects** are reported only occasionally for some specific measures: planting or rebuilding of
560 windbreaks, the establishment of biodiversity areas, the switch to electric irrigation drive and the
561 damming on local level.

562 The farm advisory services are used as sources of information and are sometimes perceived as
563 supportive, e.g. for funding applications. However, there is little perceptible effect on the individual
564 reactions.

565

566 **Regional water management strategies**

567 Some of the interviewees were directly affected by the irrigation bans recently put into practice in
568 2022 and 2023; for others, their irrigation periods, irrigation technique or fields were outside the scope
569 of the bans. Via the restrictions of irrigation, the water management plan shows a direct effect on
570 farmers' decisions and strategy driven reactions as changes in irrigation technique (drip irrigation),
571 selection of crops or timing of irrigation (only at night).

572

573 4.4.4 Economic factors

574 For personal economic goals, the main topic is financial stability and economic independence. An
575 important factor for profitability is the cultivation of irrigation-intensive cultures, as market prices are
576 high. Moreover, funding is considered as a relevant part of income and a certain dependency of
577 subsidies is stated. This is occasionally also entitled as “keeping artificial things alive” and cost-
578 covering selling prices would be favoured. Nevertheless, financial consideration besides funding
579 programs are dominant. Higher effort regarding workload and costs for certain measures is mentioned
580 repeatedly and farmers seek to reduce costs and effort, e.g. by avoiding too much irrigation technique
581 (especially drip irrigation). Expansion goals cannot be realised due to limitations in budget and staff
582 (not enough labourers, too expensive). Economic considerations as specifications from the buyers,
583 market situation and market price play a major role for the selection of crops and cultivars. For
584 example, certain crops (e.g. sorghum) or batches from mixed cropping are not marketable or the
585 cultivars are specified by the buyer (e.g. the seed company). As the cultivation of crops without
586 market perspective is not feasible, adaptation options are limited and the call for the cultivation of
587 alternative, drought resistant crops is thwarted.

588 *“There are a lot of restrictions in the downstream industry, which have a very inhibiting effect on*
589 *agriculture.”*

590 Furthermore, uncertainty about expected revenues, pricing pressure and market power of the buyers
591 are mentioned. The conversion to organic farming was partly related to financial considerations, as for
592 some crops higher market prices can be achieved with the same effort. In some cases, the conversion
593 was driven by drought, but also further motivations – often personal reasons – were reported.

594

595 4.4.5 Agronomic factors

596 Flexibility regarding their agronomic production is crucial for farmers. For short- and medium-term
597 decisions in production and timing of management the (actual/expected) weather and soil conditions in
598 general play a major role. Organic farming also requires a different timing. Similarly, for

599 modifications of plant protection, drought is a subordinate motivation, but farmers report less
600 infestations of some pests due to drought. There is little awareness regarding the linkage of drought
601 and fertilisation and consequently, only few of the interviewees modify their fertilising strategies due
602 to drought. All farmers implementing greening measures state – regardless of the crops – that their
603 main motivation is the positive effect on the soil.

604 For mid- and long-term decisions, further aspects are considered. For example, the motivations for the
605 selection of crops and cultivars are multifaceted: besides drought resistance, factors as resistance
606 against pests, quality characteristics, and economic aspects play an important role.

607 Furthermore, the existing infrastructure (such as irrigation devices or machinery), the cultivated crops,
608 occurrence of weed and the general availability of machinery and technical solutions are important
609 factors. For the timing and choice of irrigation measures, farmers consider aspects as wind, effects on
610 plant health, and capacity of irrigation infrastructure.

611 Technical and structural limitations are mentioned repeatedly, e.g. regarding irrigation with electric
612 power units: mostly, the fields do not have a power connection and development is disproportionately
613 expensive. For solutions with photovoltaics, batteries would be needed, as otherwise irrigation is only
614 possible at daytime (which might be banned). In addition, the performance of electric power units is
615 limited to certain irrigation techniques or applications. With regard to the limitation of irrigation to the
616 night, the narrower time window for irrigation is mentioned. This might lead to irrigation under windy
617 conditions or problems with technical capacity; consequently, farmers might be forced to invest in
618 more irrigation infrastructure.

619 Partly, farmers do not see – for various reasons – any possibilities regarding further reductions of
620 water consumption or adoption of water saving irrigation technique. On the contrary, the need for
621 earlier and more frequent irrigation is reported and no water saving effect is expected by changed
622 irrigation technique. Some farmers mention advantages of drip irrigation as low water consumption as
623 well as targeted application, lower labour input for operating and higher technical clout.

624 Possible or already observed subsequent negative effects of different measures play a crucial role for
625 farmer's decisions. Especially drip irrigation for arable crops is considered to be not practicable and
626 causes numerous concerns: high amount of plastic waste, deposition of (micro)plastic in the
627 environment, damages by animals (mice, martens, wireworms, crows), salinisation, high costs
628 (material, labour) and negative phytosanitary effects.

629 *“No, not for anything in the world. Because I've already watched them cursing as they knelt in the*
630 *mud in the wet field. Because the drip irrigation isn't technically mature yet.”*

631 For arable crops and measures as reduced soil cultivation, mulching, longer greening periods or
632 biodiversity stripes, farmers mention increased emergence of weeds or invasive neophytes such as
633 thorn apple or ragweed. Furthermore, seed beds resulting from reduced soil cultivation are not suitable
634 for some crops. These problems are assessed differently depending on the crop and production
635 method. For example in organic farming or for vegetable production, the implementation is mostly

636 reported to be more challenging. In viticulture and fruit production, the permanent greening of
637 vineyards is mostly seen critical due to the reducing effect on vigour and substantial competition for
638 water and nitrogen.

639 Climate change affects the agronomic production in various further aspects, i.e. weed is not freezing
640 off, heat waves coincide with drought phases, damages due to sunburn on some crops (apple,
641 grapevine) and the occurrence of spring frost.

642

643 5. Discussion and Conclusions

644 In the light of climate change and diminishing water availability, business-as-usual of overusing water
645 resources for water-demanding forms of agriculture cannot continue in the Seewinkel region.

646 However, introducing stricter water management (including possible irrigation bans) to preserve
647 groundwater implies a strong trade-off as farmers would face losses in quality and yield of profitable
648 but water-demanding crops which would make the future economic viability of their farms uncertain.

649 The interviewed farmers voice strong discontent with the current strategies and criticise the lack of an
650 overarching strategy and of differentiated regional approaches that would allow them to develop a
651 mid-term planning perspective. Missing trust in institutions and actors is found as crucial shortcoming.
652 Furthermore, we observed a distinct discrepancy between the call for a top-down solution versus the
653 desire for less intervention of policy instruments or actors and more individual responsibility and
654 autonomy of farmers.

655 In the following, we summarise our three main findings as a basis for the further development of
656 policy instruments in order to foster Climate Resilient Development Pathways (CRDPs).

657

658 5.1 Agronomic and economic factors predominant

659 All interviewed farmers do implement drought adaptation measures, typically rather as a bundle of
660 interlocking activities than as stand-alone measures. Adaptation reactions are often already built up
661 over a longer time span in order to prepare for drought phases. Farms with a high degree of
662 diversification, adapted crops and favourable soil conditions cope better with dry phases as they are
663 less dependent on the climatic needs of a specific crop. Farmers cope better if they are willing to
664 experiment with alternative approaches, build experiential knowledge and upscale these approaches if
665 they prove effective and feasible. However, while some measures are clearly motivated by drought
666 concerns (e.g. irrigation, soil cultivation for higher water holding capacity), other are mainly taken for
667 economic or agronomic reasons with drought adaptation as a side benefit (e.g. selection of crops or
668 cultivars, timing of management).

669 Structuring in personal, social, policy, economic and agronomic factors shows a subordinate role of
670 personal and social factors: Farmers show high self-efficacy and entrepreneurship. Our finding of high
671 self-efficacy combined with low trust in policy actors corresponds to the results of literature
672 (Grothmann and Patt, 2005).

673 Regarding policy factors, the uptake of funding critically depends on the compatibility of funding
674 requirements with the prevailing production technique and timing. When deciding whether to apply
675 for specific funding programmes, farmers prefer leeway in implementing certain production
676 techniques over the funding amount. For several funding options, in particular intensive greening
677 measures and rigid time constraints, a distinct mismatch between current policy instruments and the
678 farmers' considerations and capacities is found. Consequently, most funding programmes achieve only
679 add-on effects and hardly incentivise new or extended adaptation measures.

680 Economic factors play an important role as adaptation options are limited by the need to generate
681 enough farm income. Drought-adapted crops or cultivars tend to provide less revenue on the
682 agricultural market than water-intensive cash crops. Drought-adapted land use (lower shares of water
683 demanding crops; adapted crop rotations; take some sites out of production) often implies less
684 production output.

685 Agronomic factors are predominant and regulations or funding requirements are perceived as
686 detrimental to agronomic considerations. Also expected subsequent negative effects and technical or
687 structural limitations are crucial. Similar to Mills et al. (2018), we find a combination of extrinsic and
688 intrinsic factors, with a more sustainable effect of intrinsic motivation. However, contrasting to Mills
689 et al. (2018), agronomic motivation was predominant, regardless of whether the measure was
690 subsidised or unsubsidised.

691

692 5.2 Suggestions to revise policy instruments

693 If the observed mismatch between farmers' capacities and the current policy instruments was reduced,
694 public budgets could be deployed more effectively to reach policy goals. To achieve this, the design of
695 policy instruments should take better account of the perspective, the different prerequisites and the
696 approaches of the farms. Our finding corresponds to the results of Pröbstl-Haider et al. (2016), which
697 state that policy strategies need to be adapted regionally and to the different strategies applied by
698 different farmer segments. In the following section, we present concrete suggestions to revise policy
699 instruments to better target and differentiate between farmers and subsequently foster absorptive,
700 adaptive, anticipative and transformative capacity.

701 Absorptive capacity, describing short-term responses to buffer the impact of the shock, is widely
702 implemented by irrigation. To support this capacity, subsidies for investments in irrigation
703 infrastructure should be aligned with regional conditions (e.g. water availability) and should offer
704 higher subsidy rates if technologies are water-saving or powered with renewable energy sources.
705 However, several structural and technical challenges were found to impede the transition to renewable
706 energy sources: Electric irrigation pumps must fit to the structural conditions of the farms (e.g.
707 required pumping power, electrical grid access in the open field) and irrigation at night is not possible
708 with photovoltaics. In addition, for green electricity high costs arise and the defined lower and upper
709 thresholds for funding limit the access to funding. Lower minimum eligible project costs would

710 consider small farm structures better and funding caps should account for the higher investment costs
711 of sustainable technologies that are not (yet) established mainstream products.

712 Adaptive capacity comprises limited adjustments to soil cultivation or adjustments of production
713 technique. We conclude from our interviews, that adaptive measures may eventually lead to
714 transformative capacity and hence to deep structural changes. If positive effects on production are
715 recognisable, farmers may intensify measures due to agronomic motivation. A prototypical situation is
716 observed for greening measures: here, the distinction between adaptive and transformative capacity is
717 ambiguous, as there is a large variation in the degree of implementation. Funding requirements should
718 be more flexible to cater to the different environmental conditions in Austria and to support the shift
719 from adaptive to transformative. Concrete approaches can be firstly to differentiate subsidies by time
720 or region by adapted requirements for greening conditionality, greening measures or specific support
721 for dry areas with low productivity. Secondly, target values could be revised and flexible timeframes
722 implemented. To select and design equitable result-orientated target values, it must be taken into
723 account that farms are subjected to different conditions (e.g. location, soil characteristics) and
724 therefore may have different potential of achieving a target value (e.g. humus content). Our results
725 show, that flexible greening timeframes which include a compensation for longer timespans instead of
726 penalties for deviations from due dates or funding limited to year-round greening would eliminate the
727 main hindering reasons for the uptake of funding. The already existing tools for digital monitoring and
728 reporting with the use of satellite data and an app solution can be used for simplification of reporting
729 obligations. Disentangling funding options where unrelated aspects are funded within the same
730 instrument would also support simplification; for instance, “use of pheromones” (instead of
731 insecticides) is funded only as top-up for “erosion protection for vineyards and orchards”. If farmers
732 do not apply for the greening instrument, they also cannot receive subsidies for the use of pheromones,
733 which undermines the policy goal to reduce insecticide use. Thirdly, to tackle the practical obstacles
734 mentioned in the interviews, farm advisory services on seed mixtures and suitable techniques should
735 be expanded and funding programmes should cover the high costs of intensive greening measures.

736 Adapted crop selection as a measure to enhance anticipative capacity and thus preparation and
737 planning for future droughts is reported to fail due to economic limitations: drought adapted crops or
738 mixed crops often lack marketability. Regional approaches (see section below) can be supportive here.

739 Our results show, that the actual policy instruments obviously fail to set clear accents or promote
740 substantial changes, leading to transformative capacity. Clear incentives for comprehensive climate
741 change adaptation and mitigation would be set with simplification of the legal framework and
742 subsidies for new production systems, e.g. agroforestry systems, hedges, windbreaks and planting of
743 trees. The focus should also be placed on regional approaches and intersections with other policy
744 domains, such as tackling of biodiversity crisis, as emphasised by IPCC (2022b).

745 Several of the adjustments of the agri-environmental programme announced in 2024
746 (Bundesministerium Land- und Forstwirtschaft, Regionen und Wasserwirtschaft, 2024) are in line

747 with some of the above-mentioned considerations. However, the specific design will be decisive for
748 the meaningfulness and impact of these changes.

749

750 5.3 Potential of regional approaches

751 Farmers repeatedly call for measures to optimise local water management and to retain water in the
752 region. However, these aspects lie beyond the scope of individual decisions or measures on farm scale
753 and require regionally coordinated actions.

754 Expanding regional electrical grids and water pipe networks to better connect agricultural land would
755 support absorptive capacity and reduce carbon emissions. In this context, already existing cooperation
756 between affected farmers such as land swap to optimise irrigation can be mentioned as best practice
757 example.

758 To enhance acceptance of irrigation restrictions within the technical water strategy and allow coping
759 with other threats of climate change, exceptions for frost irrigation should be made.

760 Some water cooperatives have already installed facilities or reactivated former floodgates in order to
761 retain or discharge water as needed. Large-scale backwatering instead of drainage, as repeatedly
762 proposed in the interviews, could complement absorptive capacity and contribute to anticipative
763 capacity. A regional implementation would require comprehensive cooperation across different
764 institutions and stakeholders; possibly also with Hungarian authorities. Increased backwatering would
765 imply negative side effects such as flooded area or cellars of private households. To avoid conflicts,
766 compensation for flooded areas could be considered.

767 Promoting inter-company cooperation along the food value chain could foster anticipative capacity
768 and reductions in carbon emissions from the agricultural sector. Enabling dialogue and new business
769 models between farmers and downstream companies for processing, marketing and retail could
770 provide market opportunities for drought-tolerant crops, could bypass intermediaries through direct
771 marketing and thereby generate more farm income, and could reduce food waste through better
772 coordination in harvest timing, produce transport and storage.

773 To achieve substantial transformative capacity, regional approaches seem essential. The joint
774 implementation of hedges, windbreaks, landscape elements, fallows and biodiversity areas or stepping
775 stone biotopes would need regional concepts and specific support for farmers and other land owners or
776 actors (e.g. municipalities).

777

778 The need for a coherent long-term strategy supported by all actors is even more pressing when
779 considering that the ongoing structural change is being accelerated by climate change and that the
780 pressure on the economic situation of farms is increasing. Hence, we would like to emphasise that
781 policy instruments as irrigation restrictions require subsequent strategies to maintain farms and
782 agriculture in the Seewinkel region and to support the implementation of substantial and
783 comprehensive adaptation measures.

784 5.4 Methodological limitations

785 Our small sample is not statistically representative for the entire agricultural sector of the Seewinkel
786 region, but we are confident that our qualitative sampling process captured the main facets of drought
787 adaptation. However, as large, irrigation-intensive farm types are underrepresented in our sample due
788 to reluctance to participation, we would presume that among all farms in the Seewinkel region,
789 economic factors play a stronger role and willingness to implement new drought adaptation
790 approaches is lower than reported here. Even though the interviewees were asked to elaborate on their
791 broader outlook, our cross-sectional study can only provide a momentary snapshot on a dynamic
792 situation that shifts according to seasonal and yearly climatic conditions. Instead, longitudinal studies
793 could track over a longer period how strategies and adaptation measures are developed, tried out,
794 revised and eventually maintained or discarded. Finally, it remains a topic for future research whether
795 the mismatch between agronomic considerations and policy instruments observed for the Seewinkel
796 case similarly applies to other drought-affected regions that also operate under the umbrella of the
797 European Common Agricultural Policy.

798

799 Declaration of interest statement

800 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

801

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808

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Reference	Factors	Description/Details
Grothmann and Patt, 2005	Risk perception	Interplay between the probability to be affected by a risk and the existence of other difficulties; probability of a risk, the risk experience in the past and the severity of the risk in the future.
	Subjective ability to adapt	Perceived ability to adapt themselves, trust in policymakers
Adger et al., 2007	Cognitive	Personal opinions influence risk perception
	Technical	Technical development addressing climate change
	Financial	Financial investment often needed for adaptation measures
	Cultural/social	How groups experience climate change
	Physical/ecological	Some systems may not be able to change as quickly as climate change does
Fleming and Vanclay, 2009	Cognitive	Understanding the meaning of climate change
	Barrier of practice	Dependencies of available resources, like time and money
	Barrier of information	Lack of information and communication about climate change or the difficulty to find the right information
IPCC, 2014	Socio-economic	Economic constraints can impede especially mitigation
	Institutional	Adequate institutions are important, particularly for small-scale farmers
	Ecological	Include site-specific mitigation potential and limited land and water resources
	Technological	Difficulties to develop and apply relevant technologies; challenges in monitoring or reporting
Hamann et al., 2016	Personal norms	Problem-awareness, perceived responsibility and self-efficiency
	Cost and benefit	Decision making considers benefit, social and monetary effort
	Social norms	Address the unspoken rules and standards shared by most people
Mills et al., 2018	Agronomic motivation	Actions without explicitly thinking of mitigation or climate change
	Financial motivation	Whether measures are subsidized or unsubsidized affects implementation
	Environmental motivation	Farmers' intrinsic motivation. A personal interest in maintaining the wildlife and environment
	Outside farmers control	Regulations, legal requirements
Dessart et al., 2019	Dispositional	Personality, resistance to change, risk tolerance, moral concern, farming objectives
	Social	Descriptive norms, injunctive norms, signalling motives
	Cognitive	Knowledge, perceived control, perceived costs and efforts, perceives risks
Barghusen et al., 2021	Personal norms	Problem awareness, perceived responsibility and group efficacy
	Cost and benefit	Direct monetary rewards, indirect rewards and cost savings
	Social norms	Injunctive norms and descriptive norms
Kropf and Mitter, 2022b	Cognitive	Climate change beliefs, risk perception, adaptation efficiency, costs, self-efficiency, denial, wishful thinking, religious faith, fatalism
	Social	Descriptive and injunctive social norms, trust in advise and media
	Dispositional	General risk attitude, place attachment, personal responsibility, value systems
Kreft et al., 2023	Cognitive	Farmers might perceive the implementation of measures as risky or are simply resistant to change
	Social	The uptake decision is influenced by the farmers' social network and the adoption patterns of their peers
	Dispositional	The implementation of measures on the farm also depends on the underlying farm structures and processes
	Policy measures	Level of payment and how it changes the relation of costs and profits

Topic	Principal questions
Farm structure	Personal information /Background / Details on farm
Perceived impacts of drought on farm	What impact has the repeated drought on your farm?
	What damage has been caused by drought on your farm in the last five years?
	How do you estimate the future risk of drought damage for your business?
	On what is your risk assessment based?
	How confident are you that your farm can cope with these damaging events?
Implemented measures	What measures have you implemented on your farm due to the drought?
	In your opinion, how effective are the measures implemented at your farm?
	What do the implemented measures cost you in terms of investment and labour?
	Which of the measures you have implemented are subsidised by public funds?
	Which (other) funding measures for agriculture does the farm participate in?
	<i>If measures are funded:</i> How important was the funding for the implementation of the measure(s)?
	Has the consulting service or the example of other companies supported you in the selection of measures and their concrete implementation?
	What role do laws or regulations play in the selection or implementation of the measure(s)?
	<i>For farms with arable crops, fruit production or grassland:</i> How important is the possibility of insuring against damage caused by drought for your farm?
	Have any measures been implemented on your farm in recent years that you consider less sensible from today's perspective?
<i>If no measures have been implemented:</i> For what reasons have you not yet adapted cultivation to the drought?	
Planned measures	What measures against drought are you planning for the future?
	Are there any measures against drought that you would like to implement but are unable to do so on your farm?
	What other measures against drought and funding opportunities do you know of?
	How would you rate the overall support offered to your farm in terms of adapting to the drought?
External water dotation and irrigation	How do you irrigate which crops on your farm?
	<i>If irrigation is available:</i> What adjustments do you plan to make to the irrigation on your farm?
	<i>If no irrigation is implemented so far:</i> Are you planning to install an irrigation system on your farm?
	In summer 2022, an irrigation ban was introduced for the first time in four sub-regions and a warning phase is in place in some sub-regions. How was your farm affected?
	<i>If the farm is member of an irrigation co-operative:</i> What is your experience of dealing with water shortages in the irrigation co-operative?
	The supply of external water is a much-discussed strategy for channeling water into the region. The water will also be used for agricultural irrigation. What do you think about the planned external water supply?
Opinion on agricultural policy	What is your opinion on the discussion about the development of agriculture in the Seewinkel region?

	In your opinion, what characterises the political discussion in the Seewinkel region?
Closure	Is there anything else you would like to add that we have not discussed?
	Can you recommend any other interviewees?

Nr	Main Crop(s)*	Farm size (range)**	Characterisation of irrigation	Predominant measures (based on (Kropf and Mitter, 2022b))		
				Soil cultivation, mulching, covering; production technique	Adaption of crops and cultivars	Drought insurance
1	Vineyards	Small	No irrigation / discarded	Greening and soil management measures, canopy management	No changes	None / not applicable
2	Arable crops	Small	10-20% of cultivated area irrigated; large area sprinkler; fossil fuel	Reduced soil cultivation, greening	Crops and cultivars	Yes
3	Orchards, vineyards	Small	100% of cultivated area irrigated; above crown sprinkling, drip irrigation; fossil fuel	Greening	Rootstocks	None
4	Arable crops	Middle	30% of cultivated area irrigated, small and large area sprinkler	Reduced soil cultivation, greening	Crops	None / planned
5	Vineyards	Small	100% of cultivated area irrigated; drip irrigation; fossil fuel	Greening, soil cultivation in case of drought	Cultivars	None / not applicable
6	Arable crops, vegetables	Middle	Ca. 50% of cultivated area irrigated, large area sprinkler, above crown sprinkling, drip irrigation, fossil fuel	Reduced soil cultivation, greening, mulching	Marginal changes	None
7	Arable crops	Large	Longer time period without irrigation, planned	Soil cultivation mainly adjusted to soil conditions, varying intensity	Diversification, cultivars	None / planned
8	Arable crops, vineyards	Middle	40-50% of cultivated area irrigated; large area sprinkler, drip irrigation (vineyards); fossil fuel	Adapted soil cultivation, greening	Marginal changes	None / discarded
9	Arable crops, vegetables	Small	100% of cultivated area irrigated	Reduced soil cultivation	Crops and cultivars	None / partly not applicable
10	Arable crops, vegetables	Middle	95% of cultivated area irrigated	Soil coverage, intensified soil cultivation / reduced soil cultivation (depending on crops), greening	Crops and cultivars	None
11	Arable crops	Large	No irrigation	Reduced soil cultivation, greening	Crops and cultivars	Yes

12	Arables crops	Middle	30-40% of cultivated area irrigated, large area sprinkler	Reduced soil cultivation (intensity, depth), greening	Crops and cultivars	None / discarded
13	Arable crops, orchards, vegetables	Middle	30-40% of cultivated area irrigated, small and large area sprinkler, drip irrigation, above crown sprinkling	Soil coverage, mulching, greening, few changes in soil cultivation	Crops	None
14	Arable crops, vegetables	Small	20% of cultivated area irrigated, drip irrigation	Reduced soil cultivation (depth), soil coverage	Crops	None
15	Arable crops, orchards, vineyards	Small	30% of cultivated area irrigated, above crown sprinkling, drip irrigation	Soil coverage, greening, reduced soil cultivation (depth)	Cultivars	Arable crops covered
16	Arable crops	Middle	30% of cultivated area irrigated, fossil fuel / electricity	Soil coverage, greening, reduced soil cultivation (partly implemented)	Crops and cultivars	None / considered
17	Arable crops, vegetables	Large	60% of cultivated area irrigated, small and large area sprinkler, drip irrigation planned	Reduced soil cultivation	Crops and cultivars	None
18	Arable crops, vegetables	Large	90% of cultivated area irrigated, fossil fuel	No specific measures, existing measures not intensified, standard procedures	No changes	Yes
19	Arable crops, vegetables	Middle	50% of cultivated area irrigated; small and large area sprinkler, drip irrigation; fossil fuel / electricity	Greening, reduced soil cultivation and soil coverage planned	Crops and cultivars	Yes
20	Vineyards	Middle	50% of cultivated area irrigated, drip irrigation, fossil fuel /electricity	Yield reduction, canopy management, greening, less soil cultivation	Rootstocks and cultivars	None / not applicable

979 *rarely cultivated crops or subordinated crops and fallows were omitted, due to data protection

980 **farm sizes are indicated in ranges due to data protection