Accepted for publication in Environmental Conservation 18,04,19, copyright
 held by Cambridge University Press

Exploring the value-action gap through shared values, capabilities and deforestation behaviours in Guatemala

5 JANE ROBB¹, JEREMY HAGGAR¹, RICHARD LAMBOLL¹, EDWIN CASTELLANOS²

⁶ ¹Natural Resources Institute, University of Greenwich, Chatham, Kent, ME4 4TB, UK

⁷ ²Centre for Environment and Biodiversity Studies, Universidad del Valle de
 ⁸ Guatemala, Guatemala

9 Corresponding author: janeliz.robb@gmail.com

10 SUMMARY

Understanding drivers of deforestation is essential for developing any successful 11 12 intervention to reduce forest degradation or loss, yet there remains relatively little consensus or clarity on how drivers should be identified and classified. To capture the 13 full range of values and mediating factors that may contribute to land use behaviours, 14 an approach derived from a shared values perspective that includes a range of values 15 associated with whole landscapes and ecosystems is required. We developed a model 16 that combines behavioural theory with the Capability Approach as a conceptual 17 framework through which to investigate the value-action gap. We used exploratory 18 factor analysis of Likert scale responses to belief statements to identify land-users' 19 20 shared values in the Sarstun-Motagua region of Guatemala. We then gualify and guantify the role of capabilities in mediating between the shared values of different 21 22 cultural groups of land users (Q'eqchi Maya and Ladinos) by comparing their factor 23 scores with their self-reported forest cover change behaviours. Our results indicate

that Maya and Ladinos share a set of values, but hold different value orientations that 24 predict their behavioural intentions. We find that their different value orientations reflect 25 behavioural intentions, but an understanding of the capabilities available to different 26 groups is also necessary to fill the value-action gap. These findings have implications 27 for behavioural theory, providing empirical links between shared values, capabilities 28 and behavior and identification of the role of value orientations, as well as 29 30 demonstrating a useful approach for decision makers seeking to understand drivers of change at landscape and whole ecosystem levels. 31

32 INTRODUCTION

Understanding the role of values in informing behavioural outcomes has been a focus
in the forest conservation literature in recent years (Drescher et al., 2017; Eriksson et
al., 2015; Ramcilovic-Suominen et al., 2012; Sharaunga et al., 2015, 2013). However,
values alone do not lead directly to behaviours (Ramcilovic-Suominen et al., 2012;
Sharaunga et al., 2015; Vaske and Donnelly, 1999). Understanding what fills this
value-action gap (Blake, 1999) remains a challenge.

One of the earliest behavioural models is the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) 39 (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), which uses attitudes as a primary factor driving 40 behavioural intentions, alongside subjective norms and the relative importance (or 41 value) of both. In time, this model was adapted to take greater account of the other 42 factors that influence behavioural intentions, one of the most well-known of which is 43 Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (1991) that includes the concept of 44 'perceived behavioural control', which influences norms, behavioural intent and 45 behaviour. 46

Social-psychological behavioural theory stipulates that specific attitudes and norms 47 influence associated behaviours (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Attitudes are derived 48 from values, and are specific to individual behaviours and situations (Fulton et al., 49 1996; Li et al., 2010). In this field, attitudes and norms are themselves derived from, 50 and are predicted by, values (Fulton et al., 1996; Li et al., 2010; Schwartz, 2001). 51 Rokeach (1973) and Schwartz (2001, 1992) suggest that values are 'single, stable 52 53 beliefs that individuals use as standards for evaluating attitudes and behaviour' and 'values are beliefs, cognitive structures that are closely linked to affect', respectively. 54 55 The broad and stable nature of these values can provide an insight into a wide range of behaviours (Hofstede, 1980; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 2001). As deforestation and 56 forest degradation (DD) is often a result of a range of different behaviours, actions or 57 decisions, values could provide an effective starting point for a holistic exploration of 58 drivers of DD. However, although values can provide explanations for a range of 59 actions, Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) and Darnton (2008) provide extensive reviews 60 of a variety of models that account for the non-linear link between values and 61 actions/behaviours, termed the 'value-action gap' (Blake, 1999). 62

The Capability Approach is a concept initially developed by Sen (Sen, 2001; Sen and 63 McMurrin, 1979), and further built on by Nussbaum (2003), initially in response to 64 monetary indicators of wellbeing commonly found in development planning and 65 assessment. The 'wellbeing' considered in the Capability Approach is that of 66 'functionings' that people have a reason to value, such as being educated or having 67 self-respect. However, in line with the value-action gap concept in behavioural theory, 68 the act of achieving specific functionings is mediated by the 'freedom to achieve' these 69 functionings. In the Capability Approach, these freedoms are individually referred to 70 as capabilities, and collectively as a person's capability set (Sen, 2001). 71

Robeyns (2005) set out to clarify the steps between the means of achievement, the 72 creation of the capability and the final achieved functioning. In order to identify which 73 factors constitute capabilities, and how they can be enhanced, it is important to know 74 the means available to an individual, and subsequently the process of conversion that 75 occurs to transform these into capabilities (Sen, 2001). Robeyns (2005) categorised 76 these conversion factors into three groups: personal, social and environmental. 77 78 Personal conversion factors are specific to the individual (i.e. physical strength, sex, intelligence), social conversion factors are social practices and norms, and 79 80 environmental factors include geographic location, infrastructure and public goods. These factors interact to either create or destroy capabilities available to the individual. 81

Many of the factors mediating the value-action-gap identified by behavioural theorists (e.g. social norms, feelings/emotions or information) can be accounted for within these conversion factors. The conversion factors also relate practically to drivers of DD, providing an explicit categorisation system that is broad enough to account for both social-psychological and external factors.

The concept of a set of shared universal human values has been well developed, but 87 large scale empirical studies also show that preferences for, or orientations towards, 88 these values may differ across cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 89 90 1994; Schwartz et al., 2012). Studies specifically on forest values have similarly found that although people may have similar forest values, value orientations (e.g. ecological 91 vs production) often vary between different cultures and social groups (Eriksson et al., 92 2015; Vaske and Donnelly, 1999). The differences in these orientations or preferences 93 are often a result of how different cultures and social groups view themselves in 94 relation to other objects and people, so an understanding of these perspectives is 95 important for identifying social and cultural norms that populate the value-action gap 96

and help predict behaviours (Hills, 2002; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). Therefore,
to capture the full range of values and mediating factors that may contribute to land
use decisions, behaviours, and ultimately change, an approach derived from a shared
values perspective that includes a range of values associated with whole landscapes
and ecosystems is required.

The relationship between forest values and behaviour has been explored (Ní Dhubháin et al., 2007; Ramcilovic-Suominen et al., 2012; Sharaunga et al., 2015; Vaske and Donnelly, 1999), often with a focus on a specific type of value (e.g. forest values or individual values) or mediating factor (e.g. attitudes, norms). However, shared values have been increasingly noted as important to ecosystem services and landscape level approaches to decision making (Brunetta and Voghera, 2008; Fish et al., 2011; Kenter et al., 2015).

We propose a conceptual model based on social-psychological behavioural theory combined with the Capability Approach to identify and structure drivers of DD. The model is then applied, using a mixed methods approach, to explore the link between land users' shared values and forest cover change behaviour in the Sarstun Motagua region of Guatemala.

114 **METHODOLOGY**

115 The Sarstun Motagua Region

The Sarstun Motagua region lies in the north east of Guatemala, spanning from the city of Guatemala to the Caribbean coast. Two NGOs, Fundaeco and Fundacion Defensores de la Naturaleza (FDN) manage various categories of protected land in this region, together with the National Council for Protected Areas, CONAP. The FDN manages the Sierra de Las Minas Biosphere Reserve (RBSM). Fundaeco manages areas in the department of Izabal, including multiple use zones, municipal parks,
hydrological reserves, biotopes and special protected areas. The area to the north of
the RBSM is outside of NGO management.

Land access, ownership and management arrangements vary across the region, as do the livelihood activities of the residents. There is also a mix of Ladino (nonindigenous) and Mayan ethnicities throughout the region. The diversity of the land users and the presence of different nature reserves provides an excellent case study to explore the different factors that can mediate between shared values and behaviour.

129 Methods

The Behaviour-Capability-Drivers model (Figure 1) provided the conceptual 130 framework for this study. The model explains how beliefs derived from external 131 sources (social and situational capabilities) form values, which in turn inform attitudes, 132 and behavioural intentions. The final behaviours are influenced by both the intentions, 133 and the social and situational factors that constitute (or are absent from) a person's 134 capability set (which fills the value-action-gap). The behaviours, if maintained, 135 eventually integrate into people's beliefs which may lead to new (or revised) value 136 formation in the long-term, in a cyclical feedback model similar to that of Knott et al. 137 (2008). 138

139 [Figure 1 here]

In late 2014, researchers at Universidad del Valle de Guatemala (UVG) held workshops with key stakeholders involved in land use decision making in the Sarstun Motaguá region, including individuals from government, academia, community associations, cooperatives, private sector and NGOs. These actors' perceptions of drivers of deforestation were used as a source of stakeholder belief statements about land use. The statements were written with relevance to those who make directdecisions regarding land use.

A five-point Likert scale of 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' was chosen for the belief statements (Foddy, 1994), which were tested for their relevance and comprehension with 42 land use decision makers from community associations, cooperatives and NGOs across the Sarstun Motaguá region.

A questionnaire survey (Appendix S1) was conducted of 501 land users (including 151 152 land owners, renters and those with land use rights) (Table S1) from the Sarstun Motagua region of Guatemala. For practical reasons, sampling was limited to those 153 communities that were accessible by vehicle. Responses were gathered through face-154 155 to-face interviews of land users in mid 2015 by staff from FDN, Fundaeco and UVG. Respondents were self selected according to their willingness to participate, which 156 was probably influenced by their knowledge or experience with the organizations 157 applying the questionnaire. This may represent some self-selection bias. 158

To collect forest cover change data, respondents were asked how much land they owned, how much of the land was forested when they acquired it, and how much forested land they had currently. These were converted to percentages of land owned to ensure that large differences in land owned did not skew the results. Four hundred and two participants responded to all the forest change questions and were used for further statistical analyses.

165 Statistical Analysis

We first carried out exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using the responses to belief statements in SPSS v.22, to identify the common factors (or shared values) associated with land use. The belief statements within each factor provide insights into the situational capabilities associated with each value. Factor scores for different land user
 characteristics (age, gender, sector, location, ethnicity and number of children) were
 compared by analyses of variance (ANOVA).

Factor scores were regressed against forest cover change to identify which of the shared values had a significant effect on forest cover change. The land user characteristics were then used as proxies to identify some of the social and situational capabilities available (or not) to land users that may determine their behaviour. These different land user characteristic groups were compared using multiple Tukey posthoc tests, to identify which characteristics (and thus capabilities) are likely to influence forest cover change.

179 In order to identify potential significant interactions between the values and the capabilities that may influence forest cover change behaviour, ANOVAs of the factors 180 and the land user characteristics that were found to significantly correlate with forest 181 cover change were conducted in an iterative process of elimination to find the 182 significant main effects and interactions. In order to explain the interactions, we 183 categorised open answer responses to the question 'why have you maintained this 184 amount of forest' and compared them with the factor scores and land user 185 characteristics in an ANOVA. 186

187 Focus Group Discussions

The statistical results indicated a clear difference in the actions between ethnic groups in their response to one of the factors from the exploratory factor analysis. Therefore, we also decided to run two further analyses on datasets consisting of Maya and Ladino respondents separately. We carried out a factor analysis and used these with the other statistical results in focus groups with Q'eqchi Maya (n=25) and Ladino (n=31) participants separately, to further explain and validate the results. Participants wereinvited from the communities in the buffer zone around the RBSM.

Focus groups were used to validate the EFA results for the Sarstún Motagua land user shared values and elaborate on associated social capabilities. Deliberative processes such as focus groups can allow the exchange of information and perspectives on values, beliefs and norms which is essential for bringing out these shared values (Kenter et al., 2011; Reed et al., 2013).

The Ladino focus group was carried out in Spanish. The Maya focus group was carried out entirely in the Q'eqchi language, with translation to Spanish carried out by FDN faciliators, who also recorded the outputs in written Spanish.

The structure of the focus groups was designed to validate or interprete the factor grouping from the statistical analyses through the following process.

205 1. Understanding different perspectives on the shared values: a) participants were asked to separate into five small groups, b) each group was given the list of belief 206 statements for one of the factors from the full, combined EFA analysis (or the list was 207 read out), c) the groups were asked to discuss the key ideas expressed in the 208 statements, and suggest a name for the factor (they were not told that these were 209 meant to represent shared values), d) the different suggestions and perspectives 210 across both the focus groups were integrated to help the researchers come up with 211 one final name for each factor. 212

213 2. Validation of the shared values: a) each group was given three versions of the 214 same factor: one from the combined analysis, one from the Mayan sub-analysis and 215 one from the Ladino sub-analysis, b) the groups were asked to choose which factor 216 version they preferred and why. 3. Validation of the interaction effect: a) participants were asked to indicate how strongly they related to the shared value with the significant interaction effect from the statistical analysis, b) participants were asked to volunteer why they related to the factor in this way.

In the case of the Ladino group, this resulted in further votes on how many people had
de/reforested and why, and how many had taken part in incentive schemes and why.
For the Mayan group, a follow up one-on-one interview with a community leader
provided deeper insights into some of the reasons why he reforested.

225 **RESULTS**

226 Shared values across land users in Sarstun Motagua

The exploratory factor analysis of the full combined dataset (Table S2) identified five factors (Table 1). The factors were named based on the results of the ANOVAs and focus group discussions.

230 [Table 1 here]

231 Factor 1

The Q'eqchi Maya interpreted this factor as 'respect our land and love our forest'. They explained that with no forest there is no life. The Ladino group interpreted this factor as 'management and sustainable use of natural and economic resources with wellbeing and social responsibility'. They disagreed with Qs 24, 32 and 35. They also mentioned how they needed to balance necessity with the need to care for the environment, and that improving wellbeing and encouraging social responsibility could be approaches to incentivising people to care for the environment. We named this factor 'valuing sustainable futures'. For Ladinos this future is linked to the use of natural and economic resources for the future of the community. Q'eqchi Mayans felt it was more about a symbiotic relationship with people and the forest, where the life of each one sustains the other.

243 Factor 2

The Q'eqchi interpreted this factor as 'to be conscious of the care of natural resources through the good use of soil' and explained that they believe organic practices are the best. The Ladino group interpreted this as 'the importance of natural resources'. They believed they should know who landowners are in order to regulate activities and engage in sustainable management practices to avoid deforestation and obtain better incomes. They also discussed how they needed more resources to help conserve the forests and that people do not understand the importance of the law.

We named this factor 'valuing good governance'. The Maya focused on aspects of 'stewardship': they considered themselves to be the ones who provide the care, while the Ladinos considered the law (or municipality) to be responsible for governance. The two perspectives indicate the importance of governance of good practices, but from different cultural perspectives.

256 Factor 3

The Q'eqchi identified this factor as 'to know, love and care for the forest is to know love for life'. They considered that if people do not care for the forest, they do not care for themselves or the future of their children. The Ladinos interpreted this factor as 'regulation of, and strengthening of institutions and environmental education for conservation of natural resources'. They believed that when people have no environmental conscience they use the land badly, and environmental education could help cultivate an environmental conscience. They also mentioned that they would like
offices in each department where they can report bad land uses, as currently it is a
complex process to do so.

We named this factor 'valuing environmental conscience'. Q'eqchi Mayans considered this factor to reflect an intrinsic, symbiotic relationship with the environment and people, highlighting that if people do not care for the forest, they do not care for themselves. The Ladinos considered environmental conscience to come from education, not necessarily an intrinsic value.

271 Factor 4

The Q'eqchi interpreted this factor as 'I engage in caring for the forest but also I need 272 more capacity to have a sustainable livelihood'. They said that people needed more 273 environmental education to be able to develop and reforest, that knowledge about the 274 environment equals care for the environment. The Ladinos interpreted this as 275 'formation and training through community extension work in good forest (and 276 agricultural) management practices and alternative production.' They discussed how 277 people need to know more about the environment, but they often do not have enough 278 information to engage in good practices. We named this factor 'valuing environmental 279 conservation'. 280

281 Factor 5

The Q'eqchi interpreted this factor as 'We respect our laws as we love our forests' and they explained that for development to occur in communities they need laws. The Ladino group interpreted this factor as 'regulation of sustainable farming'. As both groups mentioned some sort of respect for the law (whether formal or informal), we named this factor 'valuing the rule of law'.

In the focus group discussion, the Q'eqchi Maya and Ladinos unanimously agreed 287 with the combined factor 1, although Ladinos also discussed how they disagreed 288 (sometimes strongly) with several statements in factor 1. Therefore, it appears that 289 although the Ladinos disagreed with the belief statements in the factor, their 290 interpretation of the factor ('management and sustainable use of natural resources 291 with wellbeing and social responsibility', a clearly 'positive' idea) reflects the value they 292 293 wished to achieve. This would suggest that the belief statements outline capabilities that enable or inhibit achievement of their values. Furthermore, the agreement with 294 295 these statements (or capabilities) reflects the extent to which these issues are relevant to participants' lives: the Ladino focus group did not consider most of the statements 296 in the combined factor 1 to be relevant to their lives, while the Mayans did. 297

298 Shared values when analysed by ethnic group

The separate Ladino and Mayan exploratory factor analyses produced differing factor structures (Tables S3 and S4). The Mayan factor 1 and Ladino factor 2 (Table 2), together contained all the statements in the combined analysis factor 1. These three factors were chosen for comparison in the focus groups.

303 [Table 2 here]

When the focus groups were asked to choose which of these factors they associated with most, the majority of the Q'eqchi Maya chose the Maya factor 1. They mentioned how having a big family (Q32) negatively impacts the forest. Taking into account that the average number of children per family is eight, their response suggests that they are choosing this factor due to its relevance to their lives: they see first hand how large families negatively affect the environment.

The majority of Ladinos chose the combined factor 1, their reason being their 310 perceived importance of protected areas for the environment. According to one of the 311 FDN facilitators, to this group 'protected areas' meant forest plantations, not 312 necessarily reserves such as the RBSM. Approximately half of the Ladinos in the focus 313 group owned land that they had reforested, although not as part of an incentive 314 scheme, again suggesting that they are identifying with the idea of 'protected areas' 315 316 due to its relevance to their lives. The other Ladinos chose the Ladino factor 1. Similarly, they discussed how the statements in the factor made them think about all 317 318 the ways in which they need to avoid deforestation in their communities (e.g. Q28).

None of the Ladinos identified with the Mayan factor 1, and only a few Mayans identified with the Ladino factor 1, suggesting that there is a significant difference in the separate values across the two groups. However, several Mayan and Ladino focus groups chose the combined factor 1, supporting the idea that the combined analysis is likely to represent some form of shared value structure.

324 Shared Values, Land user Characteristics and Forest Cover Change

All land user characteristics, except number of children, varied significantly with at least one of the combined factors (shared values). Factors 1 (p < 0.001; $R^2 = 0.034$) and 5 (p = 0.005; $R^2 = 0.02$), and ethnicity (p = 0.036), location (p < 0.001) and number of children (p = 0.021; $R^2 = 0.015$) all significantly correlated with forest cover change. Factors 1 and 5, and ethnicity and location were taken forward for exploring interactions, as they all varied significantly with each other and with forest change.

Ethnicity alone had a significant effect on forest cover change (Ladino = -17.46% vs Mayan = -2.71%, p=0.01); Ladinos tended to report more negative forest cover change than Mayans. Ethnicity significantly interacted with the combined factor 1 score in its influence on forest cover change (p <0.001), with Mayan forest cover change
 negatively associated with disagreement with Factor Score 1 (Figure 2a) and Ladino
 forest change positively associated with disagreement with Factor Score 1 (Figure 2b).

337 [Figure 2 here]

We found that the reasons provided for keeping forest for Ladinos tended to either be related to conservation of/for the environment (n = 24) or necessity (n = 31). While, for Mayans, it was conservation of/for the environment (n = 169) or access to incentive schemes (n = 20).

Among the Mayans, there was no significant difference between those who stated 342 their motivation as conservation or incentive schemes. However, when the Mayans 343 who also spoke Spanish alongside their indigenous Maya language were removed (n 344 = 62 total, of whom 20 responded to the 'maintaining forest cover' open question), 345 there was a significant interaction with factor 1 (p=0.004). Mayans who agreed with 346 the combined factor 1 tended towards increased forest cover, the opposite of the 347 Ladinos (Fig 20). The Mayans who tended to agree with the combined factor 1 had 348 accessed forestry incentive schemes, suggesting that when they experience necessity 349 they use forest plantations to generate income, instead of deforesting. 350

We found a significant difference between Ladinos who cited necessity, versus conservation as their motivation. Ladinos who agreed more with the combined factor 1 tended towards forest cover loss (p=0.001), suggesting that Ladinos that experience necessity engage in DD activities. Conversely, Ladinos that do not experience necessity may not rely on the forest for survival, and engage in activities that increase forest cover.

In a one-on-one interview, a community leader from the Q'eqchi Maya group told us 357 how that in order to afford to feed his children and find a way to support them growing 358 up, he had used a government forestry incentive scheme available to private 359 landowners. His children were now in various professions (e.g. teachers, police 360 officers). However, he preferred that they did not leave the community to find work, 361 but acknowledged the difficulty in surviving solely from the farm. His story lends to our 362 363 interpretation that access to incentive schemes provided Mayans with an opportunity to make money to survive, while maintaining their preferred lifestyle closely associated 364 365 with the land and forest.

When the Ladinos were asked how many had ever engaged in reforestation activities 366 on their own land, 16 out of the 31 said they had. When asked how many had ever 367 had to deforest due to necessity, only five people said "yes". Only four Ladinos said 368 they had ever accessed any type of financial incentive scheme for reforestation 369 activities. When asked why some of them had chosen to reforest even though they 370 were not receiving financial payments, they responded that they do it purely for the 371 environmental benefits related to conservation of water sources, animals and plants. 372 They also said that they did not trust the government enough to engage in incentive 373 schemes, partly because they considered the government to lack the capacity to run 374 the incentive programmes, and partly because they were afraid to lose their land once 375 the incentive scheme was over (they would be required to continue to pay rent on the 376 forested land which they may not be able to afford without incentive payments). 377

The discussion supports our interpretation that Ladinos that had not experienced necessity tended to engage in reforestation activities, in a converse relationship to Mayan decision making.

381 **DISCUSSION**

Our study provides evidence that shared values were present across land users in the 382 Sarstun Motagua region of Guatemala. These shared values could be attributable to 383 their shared identity as *campesinos* (smallholder farmers; Orlove, 2002), although 384 campesino identities were not discussed with land users nor was it a concept that they 385 386 used in discussing their attitudes. Other studies have similarly found that diverse stakeholders may have similar values, but were separated by their orientations within 387 that value (e.g. Eriksson et al., 2015; Vaske and Donnelly, 1999). The different 388 perspectives associated with the shared values suggest the presence of common 389 themes, but different orientations within these themes that is separated by culture. 390 Therefore, the Q'eqchi Mayan value orientation on the combined factor 1 (Valuing 391 Sustainable Futures) represents an intrinsic relationship for them ('forest as life') while 392 Ladinos considered the 'forest as opportunity'. 393

394 The study has several limitations which often come with research conducted into behaviour or social issues. These include the potential bias associated with self-395 reported data, the influence of interviewers on participant responses to interviews or 396 focus groups and the question of whether 'measuring' values or behaviour is possible. 397 EFA results are dependent on the quality of the study design, only able to identify 398 399 common factors that are described by the inputted variables and therefore factors rarely cumulatively account for 100% of variance in the sample. Reliability tests were 400 conducted on the data including split data and Cronbach's alpha. The data presented 401 appear robust and have been validated through follow up focus groups. 402

Language differences are another consideration, most of the questionnaires (58%) were delivered by an interviewer in a Mayan language, and for each of these they

were translated by a member of the community who could speak both Spanish and 405 the local Mayan language. The Mayan focus groups were carried out fully in the Mayan 406 language, and we were provided with a translation into Spanish. This still meant that 407 there is likely to be some loss of richness and information in this translation process, 408 but the participants were able to speak and discuss freely in their own language. 409 Although, this also meant we had limited 'control' over the avenues of discussion which 410 411 the focus group developed it did evolve more naturally from the participants potentially providing a truer overall picture. 412

Overall, the results still provide a useful insight into the shared values of land users in 413 Guatemala, and how this approach could be used to further understand forest change 414 behaviours. Several studies have found that biocentric (but not anthropocentric) value 415 orientations predicted positive attitudes and behavioural intentions towards wildland 416 preservation (e.g. Fulton et al., 1996; Milfont and Duckitt, 2004; Milfont and Gouveia, 417 418 2006). In our study, people with both the forest as life (biocentric) and forest as opportunity (anthropocentric) engaged in practices that increased forest cover. In the 419 case of the Q'egchi, when they experienced necessity, their preference was to find 420 ways to meet their basic needs while maintaining forest cover (e.g. accessing incentive 421 schemes). If they could not access incentive schemes (due to negative capabilities 422 outlined in the belief statements associated with the shared value), then it is likely they 423 would be forced to deforest. 424

Conversely, when Ladinos could not meet their more anthropocentric view of a sustainable future value (e.g. with no access to off-farm income opportunities, a negative capability) they used the forest to generate income first, only once they had met their basic needs would they consider conservation practices. Knowing the different capabilities available to different social and cultural groups is important for effectively targeting intervention design. Additionally, if DD interventions are designed without taking into account cultural perspectives, this could exacerbate current land use problems and cultural divides by playing off of existing cultural misunderstandings (already particularly prevalent in Guatemalan societal history (Hale, 2002)), having further negative effects on the environment (creating a negative social capability) (Figure 3).

436 [Figure 3 here]

In socio-psychological theories, value orientations are considered to more tangibly link
to attitudes and behavioural intentions, are an expression of basic values (our shared
values) and can provide consistency and organisation among the broad spectrum of
beliefs, values, attitudes etc. (Fulton et al., 1996; Li et al., 2010; Manfredo et al., 2003;
Vaske and Donnelly, 1999). Therefore, our results align with broader theory where
value orientations would sit between shared values and behavioural intentions.

There has been some other work exploring the value differences between ethnic and 443 cultural groups, including between the Maya and Ladinos of Guatemala. In the Petén 444 region of Guatemala, land use practices between Q'eqchi Maya and Ladinos can be 445 similar, as Lopez-Carr (2004) found that location, not ethnicity, was the driving factor. 446 His identification of locational aspects (e.g. lack of market access and rural 447 underdevelopment) fit well with our identification of negative situational capabilities, 448 but he claims that the same intervention approaches (e.g. limiting access to forest land 449 and promoting alternative livelihoods) can be used across both cultures to effectively 450 reduce forest cover change. 451

Our results clearly indicated that the Maya and Ladino groups had different capabilities 452 available to them. The contrast of the Lopez-Carr (2004) results with ours may be due 453 to the immigrant nature of the Q'egchi in the Peten region, while Alta Verapaz (in the 454 Sarstun Motagua region) is their homeland. The bond between human and 455 environment appears to be severed when Q'egchi move to another region. Lopez-Carr 456 (2004) may account for the significant relationships observed between the combined 457 458 factor 1, forest cover change and location in our study, indicating 'place' can be important, but in our case study ethnicity was of greater importance. 459

460 **CONCLUSIONS**

Land users in the Sarstun Motagua area have a set of shared values and a number of 461 462 different capabilities associated with the achievement (or not) of actions related to forest cover change. However, we found a significant difference in the way in which 463 the two predominantly different cultures (Ladino and Maya) relate to these shared 464 values, and how these relationships influence their behaviour. Our results support the 465 theory behind the Behaviour-Capabilities-Drivers model, where social and situational 466 capabilities mediate between shared values and behaviour. Additionally, we found that 467 value orientations appear to determine behavioural intentions, and that an 468 understanding of both value orientations and capabilities is necessary to fill the value-469 action gap. 470

Other studies on pro-environmental values and behaviours tended to focus on particular actions, values or mediating factors, which may be expensive and time consuming to carry out or review individually for the range of possible actions and factors that may contribute to land use change. The approach could be useful for decision makers working at a landscape/whole ecosystem level to identify factors that 476 may enable or inhibit pro-environmental behaviours. For environmental policy making, 477 either hyper-localised approaches or a 'one size fits all' approach to policies are often 478 the only options. The shared value approach used here identified a wide range of 479 values and subsequent capabilities that were not limited to a specific type of 480 action/behaviour, but could be explored in depth to elicit capabilities relevant to 481 specific cultural groups.

482 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project received funding from the University of Greenwich Vice Chancellor 483 Scholarship, with in-country assistance from the Climate, Nature and Communities 484 Guatemala project in collaboration with the Rainforest Alliance, Fundación Defensores 485 486 de la Naturaleza (FDN), Universidad del Valle de Guatemala (UVG) and Fundaeco, funded by the USAID. We thank Dan Bray for his advice and feedback on the statistical 487 analyses; Alma Quilo and Danai Fernandez from Universidad del Valle de Guatemala 488 and Javier Marguez, Cesar Tot and Carlos Cifuentes from Fundación Defensores de 489 la Naturaleza for their project support in country; and Gaby Fuentes, Gaby Alfaro, 490 Jacky Brinker and Erick Lopez for their support during the fieldwork. This project 491 received ethical approval from the University of Greenwich in June 2015 prior to initial 492 fieldwork. 493

494 **Supplementary material**

495 For supplementary material accompanying this paper, visit 496 http://www.journals.cambridge.org/ENC

497 **References**

Ajzen, I., 1991. The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 50: 179-211 doi:10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T.

500 Blake, J., 1999. Overcoming the 'value-action gap' in environmental policy: Tensions 501 between national policy and local experience. *Local Environment* 3: 257-278.

Brunetta, G., Voghera, A., 2008. Evaluating Landscape for Shared Values: Tools,
Principles, and Methods. *Landscape Research* 33: 71-87
doi:10.1080/01426390701773839.

505 Darnton, A., 2008. Reference Report: An Overview of behaviour change models and 506 their uses. *GSR Behaviour Change Knowledge Review*, Government Social 507 Research, UK, 83pp. https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/.

508 Drescher, M., Warriner, G.K., Farmer, J.R., Larson, B.M.H., 2017. Private landowners 509 and environmental conservation: a case study of social-psychological determinants of 510 conservation program participation in Ontario. *Ecology* & *Society* 22: 44, 511 doi:10.5751/ES-09118-220144.

Eriksson, L., Nordlund, A., Schenk, T., Westin, K., 2015. A study of forest values and
management attitudes in the general public in Germany and Sweden: does context
matter? *Journal of Environment Planning and Management*. 58, 1412–1431.
doi:10.1080/09640568.2014.930344.

Fish, R., Burgess, J., Church, A., Turner, K., 2011. Shared Values for the Contributions
Ecosystem Services Make to Human Well-Being. pp. 1183–1194 in: UK National *Ecosystem Assessment: Technical Report.*

Fishbein, M., Ajzen, I., 1975. *Belief, Attitude, Intention and Behaviour: An introduction*to theory and research. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Foddy, W., 1994. Constructing questions for interviews and questionnaires: theory and
practice in social research. UK: Cambridge University Press.

Fulton, D.C., Manfredo, M.J., Lipscomb, J., 1996. Wildlife value orientations: A
conceptual and measurement approach. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife* 1: 24–47.
doi:10.1080/10871209609359060.

Hale, C.R., 2002. Does Multiculturalism Menace? Governance, Cultural Rights and
the Politics of Identity in Guatemala. *Journal of Latin American Studies* 34: 485–524.
doi:10.1017/S0022216X02006521.

Hills, M.D., 2002. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's Values Orientation Theory. *Online Readings in Psychology and. Culture* 4: 1–14. doi:10.9707/2307-0919.1040.

Hofstede, G., 1980. *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work- Related Values* London UK, SAGE Publications.

- Kenter, J.O., O'Brien, L., Hockley, N., Ravenscroft, N., Fazey, I., Irvine, K.N., Reed, 533 M.S., Christie, M., Brady, E., Bryce, R., Church, A., Cooper, N., Davies, A., Evely, A., 534 Everard, M., Fish, R., Fisher, J.A., Jobstvoqt, N., Molloy, C., Orchard-Webb, J., 535 Ranger, S., Ryan, M., Watson, V., Williams, S., 2015. What are shared and social 536 values of ecosystems? Ecological Economics 111: 86–99. 537 doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2015.01.006. 538
- Kenter, J.O., Hyde, T., Christie, M., Fazey, I., 2011. The importance of deliberation in
 valuing ecosystem services in developing countries—Evidence from the Solomon
 Islands. *Global Environmental Change* 21: 505–521.
 doi:10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2011.01.001.
- Kluckhohn, F.R., Strodtbeck, F.L., 1961. *Variations in value orientations*. Oxford, UK,
 Row, Peterson.

- Knott, D., Muers, S., Aldridge, S., 2008. *Achieving culture change: a policy framework*.
 Strategy Unit, Cabinet Office, UK.
- Kollmuss, A., Agyeman, J., 2002. Mind the gap: why do people act environmentally
 and what are the barriers to pro-environmental behavior? *Environmental Education Research* 8: 239-260.
- Li, C., Wang, C.P., Liu, S.T., Weng, L.H., 2010. Forest value orientations and importance of forest recreation services. *Journal of Environmental Management* 91: 2342–2348. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2010.06.020.
- Lopez-Carr, D., 2004. Ladino and Q'eqchi Maya Land Use and LAnd Clearing in the
 Sierra de Lacandon National Park, Peten, Guatemala. *Agriculture and Human Values*21: 171–179.
- 556 Manfredo, M.J., Teel, T.L., Bright, A.D., Bosworth, R., Shroufe, D., Kruckenberg, L.,
- Loker, C., Romberg, B., Casper, J., Gray, T., Sikorowski, L., Smeltzer, J., Beucler, M.,
- 558 Harmoning, A., Gigliotti, L., 2003. Why Are Public Values Toward Wildlife Changing?
- 559 Human Dimensions of Wildlife 8: 287–306. doi:10.1080/10871200390240634.
- Milfont, T.L., Duckitt, J., 2004. The structure of environmental attitudes: A first- and
 second-order confirmatory factor analysis. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 24:
 289–303. doi:10.1016/j.jenvp.2004.09.001.
- 563 Milfont, T.L., Gouveia, V. V., 2006. Time perspective and values: An exploratory study
- of their relations to environmental attitudes. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 26:
- 565 72–82. doi:10.1016/j.jenvp.2006.03.001.
- 566 Ní Dhubháin, Á., Cobanova, R., Karppinen, H., Mizaraite, D., Ritter, E., Slee, B., Wall,
- 567 S., 2007. The Values and Objectives of Private Forest Owners and Their Influence on

Forestry Behaviour: The Implications for Entrepreneurship. *Small-scale Forestry* 6:
347–357. doi:10.1007/s11842-007-9030-2.

- Nussbaum, M., 2003. Capabilities As Fundamental Entitlements: Sen and Social
 Justice. *Feminist Economics* 9: 33–59, doi:10.1080/1354570022000077926.
- 572 Orlove, B.S., 2002. *Lines in the water : nature and culture at Lake Titicaca*. University 573 of California Press.
- Ramcilovic-Suominen, S., Matero, J., Shannon, M.A., 2012. Do Forest Values
 Influence Compliance with Forestry Legislation? The Case of Farmers in the Fringes
 of Forest Reserves in Ghana. *Small-scale Forestry* 12: 235-265.
- Reed, M., Hubacek, K., Bonn, A., 2013. Anticipating and managing future trade-offs
 and complementarities between ecosystem services. *Ecology and Society* 18: 5
 http://dx.doi.org/10.5751/ES-04924-180105.
- Robeyns, I., 2005. The Capability Approach: a theoretical survey. *Journal of Human*

581 Development 6: 93–117. doi:10.1080/146498805200034266.

- 582 Rokeach, M., 1973. The nature of human values. New York, US, Free Press.
- Schwartz, S., 1994. Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human
 values? *Journal of Social Issues* 50:19-46.
- 585 Schwartz, S.H., 2001. A Proposal for Measuring Value Orientations across Nations.
- 586 Ch 7, p 259-319 in: European Social Survey Core Questionnaire Development,
- 587 https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/methodology.
- 588 Schwartz, S.H., 1992. Universals in the Content and Structure of Values: Theoretical
- 589 Advances and Empirical Tests in 20 Countries. Advances in Experimental Social
- 590 *Psychology* 25: 1-65, doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60281-6.

- Schwartz, S.H., Cieciuch, J., Vecchione, M., Davidov, E., Fischer, R., Beierlein, C.,
 Ramos, A., Verkasalo, M., Lönnqvist, J.-E., Demirutku, K., Dirilen-Gumus, O., Konty,
 M., 2012. Refining the theory of basic individual values. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 103: 663–688. doi:10.1037/a0029393.
- 595 Sen, 2001. *Development as freedom*. Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press.
- Sen, A., McMurrin, S., 1979. Equality of What? *Tanner Lecture on Human Values*.
 Stanford University, US.
- 598 Sharaunga, S., Mudhara, M., Wale, E., 2013. Values rural households in KwaZulu-599 Natal hold towards forests and their participation in community-based forest 600 management. *Agrekon* 52: 113–147. doi:10.1080/03031853.2013.847039.
- Sharaunga, S., Mudhara, M., Wale, E.Z., 2015. Factors influencing forest value
 orientations among rural households in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Agroforestry Systems* 89: 943–962. doi:10.1007/s10457-015-9827-5.
- Vaske, J., Donnelly, M., 1999. Articles A Value Attitude Behavior Model Predicting
 Wildland Preservation Voting Intentions. *Society and Natural Resources* 12 523-537.
 doi:10.1080/089419299279425.

607

608

Table 1 EFA rotated factor matrix for the full combined dataset showing grouping of belief statements into five factors (shared values)

Factor	Belief Statements
1	Q35 People should be able to use land that is not theirs
	Q32 Having a big family is important
	Q24 It is more important to make money today than think about the
	future of the forest
	Q34 Protected areas are not necessary for forest conservation
	Q11 I need to cut down the forest for sustenance
	Q28 We need more employment opportunities although this causes
	more loss of forest
2	Q27 We should know who is the owner and who can use the land
	Q31 People who live in the forest make little money
	Q8 I should avoid cutting down forest but I don't know why
3	Q1 It is important to manage forest resources sustainably regardless of
	time or cost
	Q2 If I owned land I would care for it more
	Q30 I am against cutting down the forest
	Q21 There are no places nearby where we can make complaints about
	bad land use practices
4	Q33 I want to do something good for the forest
	Q36 I need more capacity to engage in good agricultural practices
5	Q15 There should be more rules about how people can use the forest
5	Q29 The state makes laws that are important for the environment

614

613

Table 2. Maya factor 1 and Ladino factor 2 belief statements from EFA analyses by

616 ethnic group

Factor	Belief Statements
	Mayan
1	Q35 People should be able to use land that is not theirs
	Q32 Having a big family is important
	Q24 Making money today is more important than thinking about the future of the forest
	Q11 I need to cut down the forest for sustenance
	Ladino
2	Q11 I need to cut down the forest for sustenance
	Q38 If there were more opportunities to sell my products I would need to cut down more forest
	Q30 I am not against cutting down the forest
	Q28 We need more employment opportunities although this causes more loss of forest

619

617

Figure 1: The Behaviour-Capabilities-Drivers model with numbered annotations explaining the methods used to elicit each aspect of

621 the model.

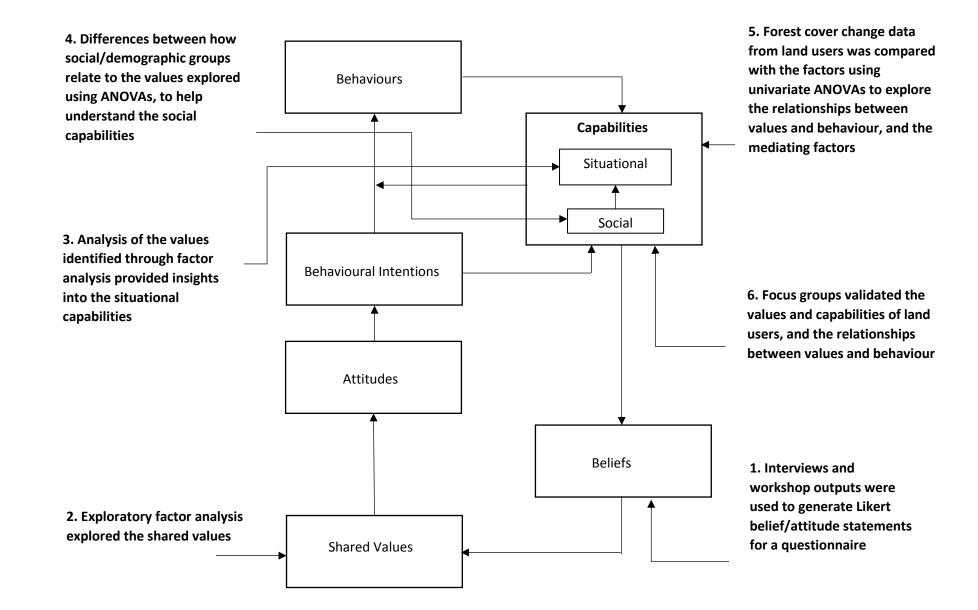


Figure 2: Plot of % change in forest cover (y) against level of agreement with Factor 1 Score (x) for a) Mayan and b) Ladino respondents (Factor score of 1 = strongly agree, Factor score of 5 = strongly disagree). Linear regressions are plotted for each ethnic group (Mayan, y=24.52 + (-9.27x), R² =0.053; Ladino, y=-40.4 + 7.81x, R² = 0.022).

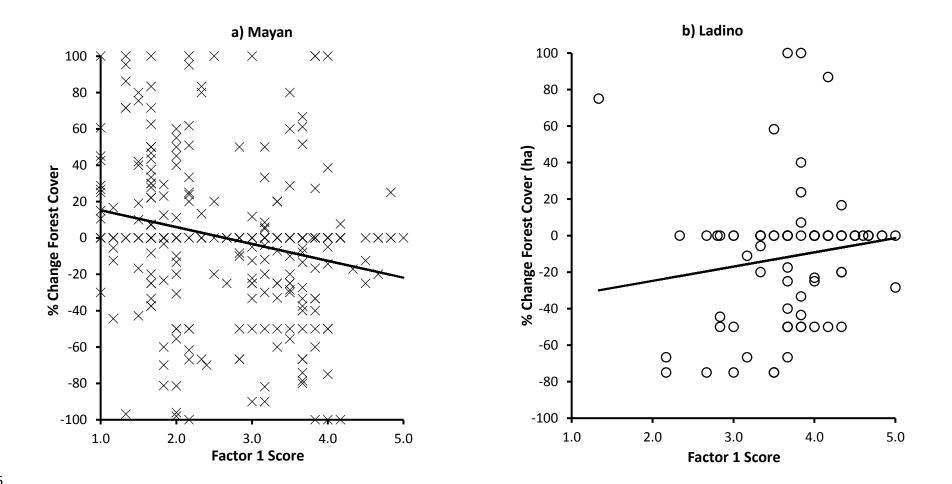


Figure 3: The results of the study applied to the Behaviour-Capabilities-Drivers model, showing land user shared values, value orientations, (negative) capabilities and links to behaviours.

