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1 **Perennial transitions from market gardening towards mixed fruit tree - vegetable systems**

2

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13 **ABSTRACT**

14 *CONTEXT*

15 Planting fruit trees in a market gardening system creates a mixed fruit tree – vegetable system with  
16 the potential to address certain environmental issues. However, it results in a complex system where  
17 labor has to be allocated between the two activities.

18

19 *OBJECTIVE*

20 Our objective is to simulate possible trajectories for a perennial transition from market gardening to  
21 mixed fruit tree – vegetable systems, in order to study the required trade-offs.

22

23 *METHODS*

24 We modeled the transition using viability theory, a framework with states, controls and constraints  
25 that guarantees sustainability along a transition trajectory. It was used in two iterations, the first step  
26 computing a target to be reached during the second step. Trajectory samples were computed from the  
27 sets of viable states at each time step.

28

29 *RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS*

30 In order to guarantee sustainability, at the end of the transition process the farm must not only respect  
 31 the constraints but belong to a subset of the domain they define. The study of viable trajectories shows  
 32 a trade-off between capital and working hours, and thus different suitable strategies for the timing of  
 33 orchard planting and the choice of crop rotations. Some strategies present bottlenecks where the  
 34 flexibility of the farm is greatly reduced.

35

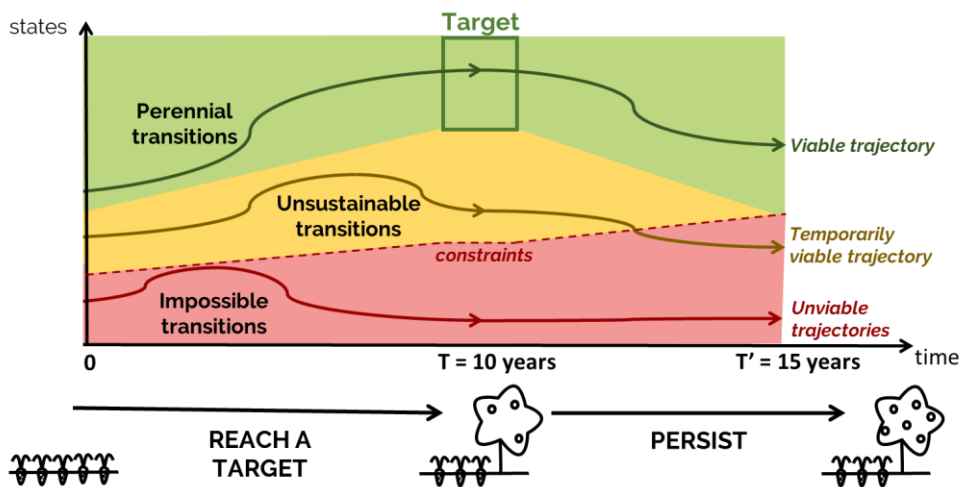
36 *SIGNIFICANCE*

37 The variety of resulting viable trajectories means that choosing between them can call upon criteria  
 38 that are not implemented in the model, such as personal preferences. The establishment of a target  
 39 through viability computation and the study of trajectory sets avoids the imposition of an *a priori*  
 40 normativity.

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43 **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**



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48 **Keywords:** viability theory; crop diversification; perennial transition; mixed horticultural farm;  
 49 agroforestry

50

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52 **Highlights:**

- 53 • The transition from market gardening to a mixed fruit tree – vegetable system increases both  
54 the functional diversity and the complexity of a farming system.
- 55 • Using viability theory, we modeled possible trajectories for a perennial transition from  
56 market gardening to mixed fruit tree – vegetable systems.
- 57 • We show a trade-off between capital and working hours.
- 58 • This trade-off is driven by the timing of fruit tree planting and the choice of crop rotations.
- 59 • The sets of viable trajectories give a wide range of possibilities that can be made compatible  
60 with individual values and priorities.

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64 **1. INTRODUCTION**

65 In order to meet current environmental and social concerns, new farming systems based on  
66 agroecological paradigms are becoming increasingly common in the agricultural landscape (Wezel et  
67 al., 2014). In particular, more diversified systems make it possible to improve adaptability and thus to  
68 face global changes (Dardonville et al., 2020; Darnhofer et al., 2010; Rigolot et al., 2019). Highly  
69 diversified Market Gardening (MG) systems are thus a growing trend in agriculture. They produce a  
70 wide range of vegetables (generally over 25 varieties) on small areas, mostly directed towards direct  
71 selling (Morel, 2016; Pépin et al., 2021). These farms are generally run by farmers with strong social  
72 and environmental aspirations, but who are confronted with pragmatic considerations (Morel and  
73 Léger, 2016).

74 One way to effect a change in these systems while remaining coherent with ecological aspirations is to  
75 plant fruit trees in addition to vegetable crops, in order to create a Mixed Fruit tree – Vegetable (MFV)  
76 system. Mixing these two types of production results in increased functional diversity. Given their size  
77 and their perennial development, trees present morphological characteristics and functional traits  
78 very different from annual vegetable crops. They can buffer the microclimate, possibly benefiting  
79 lower-growing crops, through a modification of light penetration, air temperature and humidity, soil  
80 temperature and moisture, and wind movement. They also provide a wide range of ecosystem  
81 services: carbon sequestration, soil structure enhancement, relocation of soil nutrients, erosion

82 control, food and habitat for pest predators and parasitoids, water quality enhancement and reduction  
83 in nutrient leaching, etc. (Beillouin et al., 2021; Chittapur and Patil, 2017; Sollen-Norrlin et al., 2020).  
84 The resulting system is also very well adapted to direct selling, providing complementary, high-added-  
85 value products. Fruit can be considered as an attractive product that will make the consumer more  
86 willing to come to the sales point (Léger et al., 2019). Their high efficiency on small areas makes these  
87 systems interesting in a context of competition for land use. However, despite all their potential  
88 advantages, such systems are also very complex to manage.

89 Indeed, fruit trees and vegetables have distinct physiological requirements and characteristics that  
90 must be considered in their management. They must be spatially arranged in order to minimize  
91 competition between crops. Their temporalities differ: most vegetables are annuals whereas fruit trees  
92 are perennial crops requiring several years to reach their full potential yield. Fruit tree planting can  
93 thus be considered as a long-term investment compared to annual vegetable cropping. When working  
94 hours are limited, prioritizing of tasks can favor one type of crop over another. The choices made can  
95 provide short-term benefits during the current year (*e.g.* harvesting vegetables) or be long-term  
96 investments with benefits over the next few years (*e.g.* pruning trees). Failing to make this investment,  
97 by neglecting fruit tree care during the first stages of development, can heavily impact their production  
98 for many years. It is therefore crucial for a farmer to pay particular attention to the initial stage of tree  
99 development when shifting from MG to MFV. Finding the right balance between long- and short-term  
100 objectives is particularly difficult as it requires the ability to project the consequences of short-term  
101 decisions onto the system's long-term dynamics.

102

103 In this study, we developed a dynamic model of an MFV farm to explore the long-term consequences  
104 of crop and workload allocation choices for the dynamics of a farming system during perennial  
105 transition from an MG farm to an MFV system. More specifically, we addressed two issues: the paths  
106 enabling transition to occur and the conditions under which the targeted MFV system can become  
107 perennial. In order to find the set of management options that would make it possible to perform the  
108 transition, we used the Viability Theory mathematical framework (Aubin, 1991).

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113           **2. METHODS**

114

115                   **2.1. Viability theory:**

116   Viability theory is a mathematical framework that applies to the dynamics of state-control systems. It  
117   seeks the set of situations and management options that make it possible to maintain the system  
118   within a set of constraints over time (Aubin et al., 2011).

119   A given trajectory is defined by a series of states adopted over time. Changes in state are determined  
120   by the choice of controls at each time step. A trajectory is considered as viable if it satisfies the  
121   constraints at any time. The set of all initial states from which at least one viable trajectory starts is  
122   called the viability kernel.

123   In the absence of any objective to be optimized, the main objects studied through viability theory are  
124   sets of states and sets of trajectories. Therefore, it is particularly well-adapted to studying sustainability  
125   issues, as it avoids the contentious issue of weighting different facets of sustainability (environmental,  
126   economic and social) in order to provide a single solution. It also avoids trade-offs between short- and  
127   long-term considerations through the choice of an intertemporal objective. However, this type of  
128   model has rarely been used in relation to agriculture, and where it has, this has mostly been in relation  
129   to herd- and grazing-management systems. Few viability studies deal with cropping (Oubraham and  
130   Zaccour, 2018).

131

132

133                   **2.2. Farm description:**

134   The model created is a discrete time (annual time step) dynamic model representing an MG or MFV  
135   farming system, enabling simulation of changes over time of the farm's financial capital and the  
136   condition of its orchard. It is based on Paut et al. (2021). It considers a one-hectare farm comprising  
137   four equivalent plots. On this farm, one or two plots can be planted with trees, either apple (Royal Gala  
138   variety) or peach (Big Top variety). Crop rotation can be modified each year. On each vegetable plot,  
139   two crops are grown each year (winter and summer crops). They are selected from one of six choices,  
140   three winter crops (lamb's lettuce *Valerianella locusta* var. *trophy*, cabbage *Brassica oleracea* var.  
141   *capitate* and squash *Cucurbita moschata* var. *musquée de Provence*) and three summer crops (pepper  
142   *Capsicum annuum* L., zucchini *Cucurbita pepo* var. *cylindrica* and bean *Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). These  
143   crops were selected for their contrasting annual gross margin, labor requirements, workload allocation

144 throughout the year and, for the fruit trees, growth dynamics. In order to guarantee rotation among  
145 the crops on each plot, the same crop cannot be planted on more than 50% of the farm area (Appendix  
146 A). Monocultures and their long-term consequences on soils and biodiversity are thus excluded from  
147 the model. Crops are considered to be cultivated on distinct plots; no interactions are therefore  
148 considered between crops (vegetables or trees).

149

150

### 151 **2.3. Transition description:**

152 The system begins as an MG farm, with no trees. The transition to an MFV system can happen any time  
153 between the first year and the time horizon ( $T = 10$  years).

154 Transition from one system to another is always a long-term projection. The new system must remain  
155 viable after the time horizon  $T$  at which the transition is considered to be complete. Furthermore, we  
156 consider that farmers may be willing to put in a major effort for a few years in order to reach a more  
157 convenient situation that will be easier to sustain over the long term. We thus translated an easing of  
158 labor conditions after  $T$  by an increase in salaries and a decrease in working hours.

159 Management of such a farm requires the handling of several different tasks beside crop production,  
160 such as marketing and administration. Therefore, labor time devoted to crops is lower than the total  
161 working hours invested by the farmer. In the current situation and based on farmers' feedback, we  
162 consider crop-related labor to account for around 70% of the total. The farm being conceived as being  
163 managed by one full-time farmer, and according to what has been observed on highly diversified small  
164 farms (Joyeux, 2017), labor time available is around 50h/week. Labor time devoted to crops is thus  
165 limited to 140h/month (35h/week), for the first ten years. The farmer's wage is fixed at €1,500/month,  
166 which is slightly under the French minimum wage (€1645.58 in 2022). Fixed costs are set at €8,000/year  
167 (Declercq and Clerc, 2011). After  $T$ , salaries are raised to €2,000/month whereas working hours  
168 devoted to crops are reduced to 120h/month (30h/week), reflecting better working conditions after  
169 the transition phase.

170

171

### 172 **2.4. States and controls:**

173 Following the viability theory formalism, the model is characterized by states, controls, and  
174 constraints. States and controls have been chosen to assess common viability criteria for such farms

175 (Morel and Léger, 2016), while considering conflicts that can appear between orchard and vegetable  
176 management.

177 States are system features that change over time. In our model, the states considered are the farm's  
178 economic capital (continuous), three discrete variables describing orchards, once fruit trees have been  
179 planted, and one accounting for elapsed time (discrete):

- 180 •  $x_1$ : Farm's economic capital, in euros (€). Even though money-making is not always a priority  
181 for these farmers, we considered that most people have financial constraints, thus making it  
182 mandatory to use an economic indicator to assess viability.
- 183 •  $x_2$ : Tree age in years. A value equal to zero means that no trees are present.
- 184 •  $x_3$ : Fruit tree composition, *i.e.* fruit tree species already present on each orchard plot. The  
185 possibilities are apple once (meaning that only one plot is planted with apple trees), peach  
186 once, apple twice, peach twice and an apple-peach combination. In the absence of fruit trees,  
187 this state takes the value *none*.
- 188 •  $x_4$ : Potential fruit production coefficient, which gives the relative production potential of fruit  
189 trees given past management. It translates the effects of a lack of labor devoted to fruit trees  
190 which can decrease future yields.
- 191 •  $\tau$ : Time since the beginning of the computation, in years.

192

193 Controls correspond to the ways in which farmers can act on states between  $t$  and  $t+1$ . Here, choices  
194 can be made about:

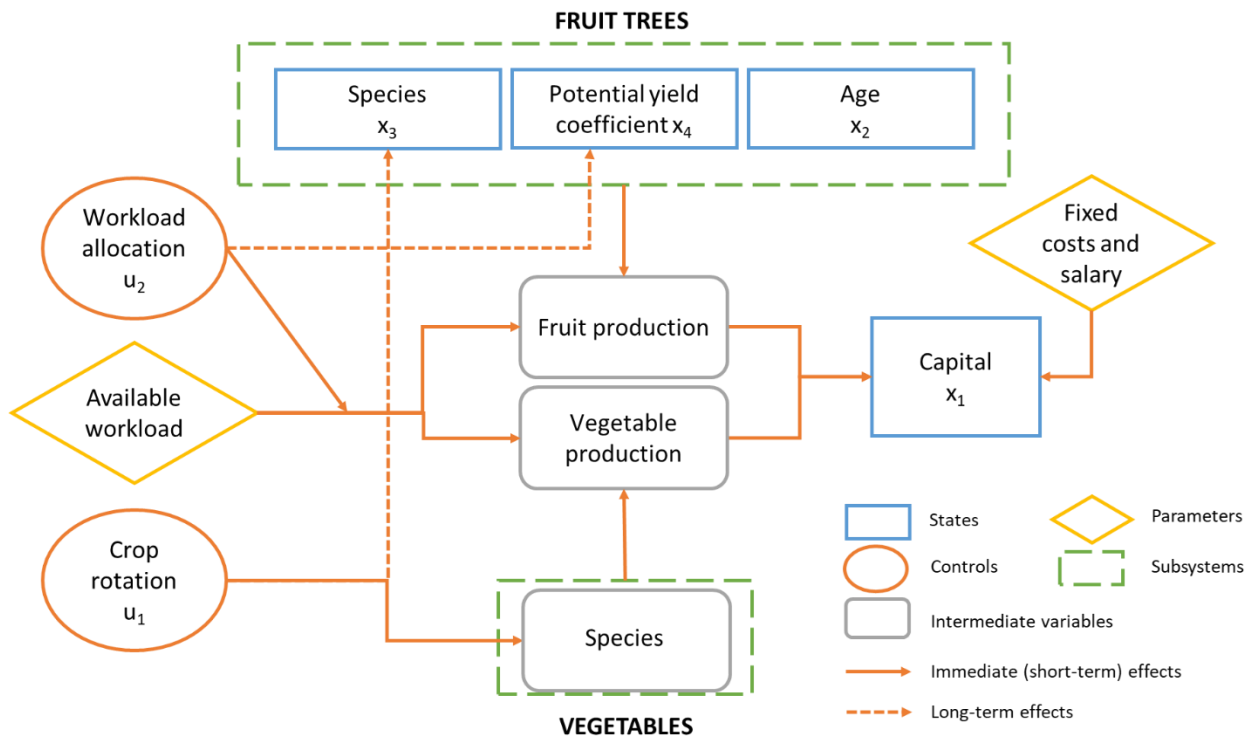
- 195 • crop rotation ( $u_1$ ), *i.e.* the list of four vegetables and trees grown during the current year on  
196 the four plots (Appendix A). This control makes it possible to simultaneously decide on the  
197 vegetable portfolio, fruit tree species, and the proportion of the farm devoted to each. In  
198 addition, the planting and/or removal of the orchard can be deduced from a comparison with  
199 the previous fruit tree composition, given by  $x_3$ .
- 200 • workload allocation ( $u_2$ ), which refers to the farmer's prioritization of labor between orchard  
201 and market gardening, when insufficient labor is available to meet the needs of both. It varies  
202 between 0 (maximum priority is given to vegetables) and 1 (maximum priority is given to fruit  
203 trees).

204

205



## 2.5. Dynamics:



207

208 *Figure 1: Conceptual representation of the model. Rectangular blue boxes represent states, ellipses are controls. Yellow*  
 209 *diamonds are parameters (fixed throughout the simulation). Rounded grey boxes are intermediate variables and dashed*  
 210 *green boxes are subsystems. Controls can have immediate effects (solid arrows) on dynamics or long-lasting effects (dashed*  
 211 *arrows) on states.*

212

213 **2.5.1 Overall dynamics:**

214 The overall model dynamics can be formally written as follows:

$$(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)(t + 1) = f((x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)(t), u_1(t), u_2(t), \tau)$$

$$\tau(t + 1) = \tau(t) + 1$$

with

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, u_1, u_2, \tau) := (f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3, u_1, u_2, \tau), f_2(x_2, x_3, u_1), f_3(u_1), f_4(x_2, x_4, u_1, u_2))$$

and

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f_1(x_1, x_2, x_3, u_1, u_2, \tau) = x_1 + GMv(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) + GMf(x_2, x_3, u_1, u_2, \tau) - S(\tau) - C \\ f_2(x_2, x_3, u_1) = \begin{cases} x_2 + 1 & \text{if } h(u_1) = x_3 \\ 0 & \text{if } h(u_1) = \text{none} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ f_3(u_1) = h(u_1) \\ f_4(x_2, x_4, u_1, u_2) = \begin{cases} x_4 - \delta(x_2, u_1, u_2) & \text{if } h(u_1) = x_3 \\ 1 & \text{if } h(u_1) = \text{none} \\ 1 - \delta(x_2, u_1, u_2) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{array} \right. \quad (1)$$

215

216 Indeed, yearly variation  $f_1$  in capital  $x_1$  increases with annual gross margin for vegetables  $GM_v$  and for  
217 fruit trees  $GM_f$ , whereas it decreases with farmer's salary  $S$  and fixed costs  $C$ . Costs  $C$  remain constant  
218 throughout the simulation, whereas the salary  $S$  is revised at  $T$ , time at which the transition is  
219 considered to be over. It therefore depends on time since the start of computation  $\tau$ .

220  $x_2$ ,  $x_3$  and  $x_4$  vary between  $t$  and  $t+1$  only if  $u_1(t)$  gives a tree present. Let  $h$  be the function extracting  
221 tree composition from rotation choice  $u_1$ . If  $h(u_1) = \text{none}$ , the variable  $x_2$  corresponding to tree age is  
222 set equal to 0. Otherwise, when  $h(u_1) = x_3$ , the planted trees remain and their age increases by one  
223 each year. Finally, when  $h(u_1) \neq x_3$ , all old trees are removed, new ones are planted and then all tree  
224 ages equal 1 (hence we only need a one-dimensional variable to describe tree age, which is crucial to  
225 minimize computation complexity).  $x_3$  takes the value corresponding to  $u_1$ 's tree composition ( $f_3$ ).  $x_4$   
226 decreases proportionally to the lack of care of fruit trees ( $f_4$ , with  $\delta$  a function controlling the change  
227 in potential yield coefficient). Its value is reset to 1 when trees are newly planted.

228

229

### 230 **2.5.2 Work allocation:**

231 With limited workload available, workload requirements for fruit trees and vegetables can conflict. In  
232 this case, management decisions are taken monthly using the workload allocation control  $u_2$ . If  $u_2 = 1$ ,  
233 working time is first allocated to trees and the remaining time is allocated to vegetables. If  $u_2 = 0$ ,  
234 working time is first allocated to vegetables and the remaining time is allocated to trees. If  $0 < u_2 < 1$ ,  
235 working time allocation to both crops is proportional to  $u_2$ . Formally,

$$\begin{aligned} W_{v\_month}(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) &= \min\left((1 - u_2)W(\tau) + \max(u_2 * W(\tau) - W_{n\_f}(x_2, u_1), 0), W_{n\_v}(u_1)\right) \\ W_{f\_month}(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) &= \min\left(u_2 * W(\tau) + \max((1 - u_2)W(\tau) - W_{n\_v}(u_1), 0), W_{n\_f}(x_2, u_1)\right) \quad (2) \end{aligned}$$

236 with  $W_{v\_month}(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau)$  monthly working hours devoted to vegetables,  $W_{f\_month}(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau)$   
237 monthly working hours devoted to fruit trees,  $W(\tau)$  available working hours per month when the time  
238 since the beginning of computation is  $\tau$ ,  $W_{n\_f}(x_2, u_1)$  and  $W_{n\_v}(u_1)$  monthly working hours required  
239 for an optimal harvest of fruit and vegetables respectively.

240 The result is then summed over the year and compared to cumulative work requirements, to create  
241 relative working hours devoted to vegetables ( $W_v$ ) and to fruit trees ( $W_f$ ):

$$\begin{aligned}
W_v(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) &= \frac{\sum_{month} W_{v\_month}(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau)}{\sum_{month} W_{n\_v}(u_1)} \\
W_f(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) &= \frac{\sum_{month} W_{f\_month}(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau)}{\sum_{month} W_{n\_f}(x_2, u_1)}
\end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

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### 2.5.3 Change in potential fruit production coefficient:

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In accordance with Paut et al. (2021), based on a collective experts' knowledge-sharing workshop, we developed the hypothesis that a lack of work on trees during their growth phase has long-term effects, decreasing future yields, whereas once maturity is reached, this same negligence has only short-term effects. Moreover, we noted that production from both of the chosen tree species (apple and peach) is null if they are completely neglected. In this model we thus used a potential fruit production coefficient ( $x_4$ ) which can take values between 0 (no production) and 1 (ideal production). The coefficient value is highest when the tree is planted, and it can only decrease, as a consequence of a lack of work on growing fruit trees. We translated these dynamics with the function  $\delta$  controlling changes in the potential fruit production coefficient  $x_4$  (Eq. (1)) using the equation:

$$\delta: (x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) \mapsto \begin{cases} \frac{1 - W_f(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau)}{g_{tree}(h(u_1))} & \text{if } x_2 \in [1, g_{tree}(h(u_1))] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

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### 2.5.4 Potential yield coefficient:

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Actual fruit yield is a function of potential yield and working hours devoted to fruit trees. Potential yield can be deducted from the age of the trees ( $x_2$ ) and previous workload investment ( $x_4$ ). According to Paut et al. (2021), potential yield trajectories of apple and peach trees as a function of their age ( $x_2$ ) would follow a sigmoidal dynamic, with fixed parameters  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  for the tree species. The asymptote's value of the sigmoid is governed by  $x_4$ , and constant neglect throughout the growth period would lead to zero production. It can therefore be written as:

$$\alpha_{a \text{ or } p}(x_2, x_4) = \frac{x_4}{1 + e^{-k_{1a \text{ or } p}(x_2 - k_{2a \text{ or } p})}} \quad (5)$$

267

268 The parameter values were taken from Paut et al. (2021).

269

270

### 271 **2.5.5 Gross margins:**

272 For vegetables, gross margin  $GM_v$  depends on the choice of crops in a given year (with no memory)  
273 and on the workload  $W_v$  devoted to them (Eq.(3)):

$$GM_v(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) = VGM(u_1) \cdot W_v(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) \quad (6)$$

274 where  $VGM$  is a function which associates the crop rotation choice  $u_1$  with the theoretical gross margin  
275 of vegetables.

276

277 For fruit trees, gross margin  $GM_f$  also depends on the current state of the orchard, reflected by the  
278 potential yield coefficient  $\alpha$  (Eq. (5)):

$$GM_f(x_2, x_3, x_4, u_1, u_2, \tau) = [FGM_a(u_1) \cdot \alpha_a(x_2, x_4) + FGM_p(u_1) \cdot \alpha_p(x_2, x_4)] \cdot Wf(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) - \mathbb{1}_{\{h(u_1) \neq x_3 \ \& \ x_2 \geq 1\}}(x) \cdot rmv \quad (7)$$

279 where  $FGM_a(u_1)$  and  $FGM_p(u_1)$  are the theoretical gross margin for apple and peach trees respectively.  
280  $rmv$  defines the cost of removing previously planted trees, if need be:  $\mathbb{1}_{\{h(u_1) \neq x_3 \ \& \ x_2 \geq 1\}}$  is the indicator  
281 function that takes the value 1 if an orchard has to be removed, 0 otherwise.

282

283

### 284 **2.6. Constraints:**

285 We define a set of constraints to reflect the farmer's set of objectives. They relate to a minimal capital  
286 to be maintained through time and temporal objectives related to tree planting.

287 For the farm to be able to perform even in the case of unpredicted events, a minimum amount of  
288 money must be kept available. In our viability model, this is translated by a threshold applied to  $x_1$ , set  
289 at  $x_{1min} = \text{€}10,000$  (Eq. (8)).

290 In order to model a transition from an MG to an MFV system, at least one plot must be planted with  
 291 trees from the end of the ten-year transition period. This feature can be represented by  $x_2$  (age of fruit  
 292 trees), a value of 0 for this state meaning an absence of fruit trees (Eq. (8)).

293 Furthermore, at any given time, it is not possible to own trees planted before the beginning of the  
 294 simulation. In other words, tree age  $x_2$  cannot exceed the time elapsed since the beginning of  
 295 computation  $\tau$  (Eq. (8)).

296 Trajectories (combinations of states and controls) respecting all these constraints at any time are called  
 297 viable trajectories. The subset of state space respecting these constraints is denoted  $K$  and can be  
 298 written as:

$$K := \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \tau) \mid \begin{array}{l} x_1 \geq x_{1\min} \\ x_2 \geq 1 \text{ when } \tau \geq T \\ x_2 \leq \tau \end{array}\} \quad (8)$$

299

300

301

## 302 **2.7. Two-step viability algorithm:**

303 The viability kernel is the set of states acting as the start of at least one trajectory that respects the  
 304 constraints over time. Let  $V$  be the viability kernel of dynamics (Eq. (1)) facing constraints (Eq. (8)).

305 Denoting as  $Q(X)$  the set of all trajectories governed by the controlled dynamic system and starting  
 306 from  $X := (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \tau)$ , the viability kernel is defined by the equation:

$$V := \{X \in K \mid \exists x(\cdot) \in Q(X), \forall t \geq 0, x(t) \in K\} \quad (10)$$

307

308 To compute  $V$ , we take advantage of the particular dynamics of state  $\tau$ . We use an algorithm (De Lara  
 309 and Doyen, 2008) which employs a backward method to compute  $V_{\tau^*}$  from  $V_{\tau^*+1}$  where  $V_{\tau^*}$  is the  
 310 section of  $V$ :

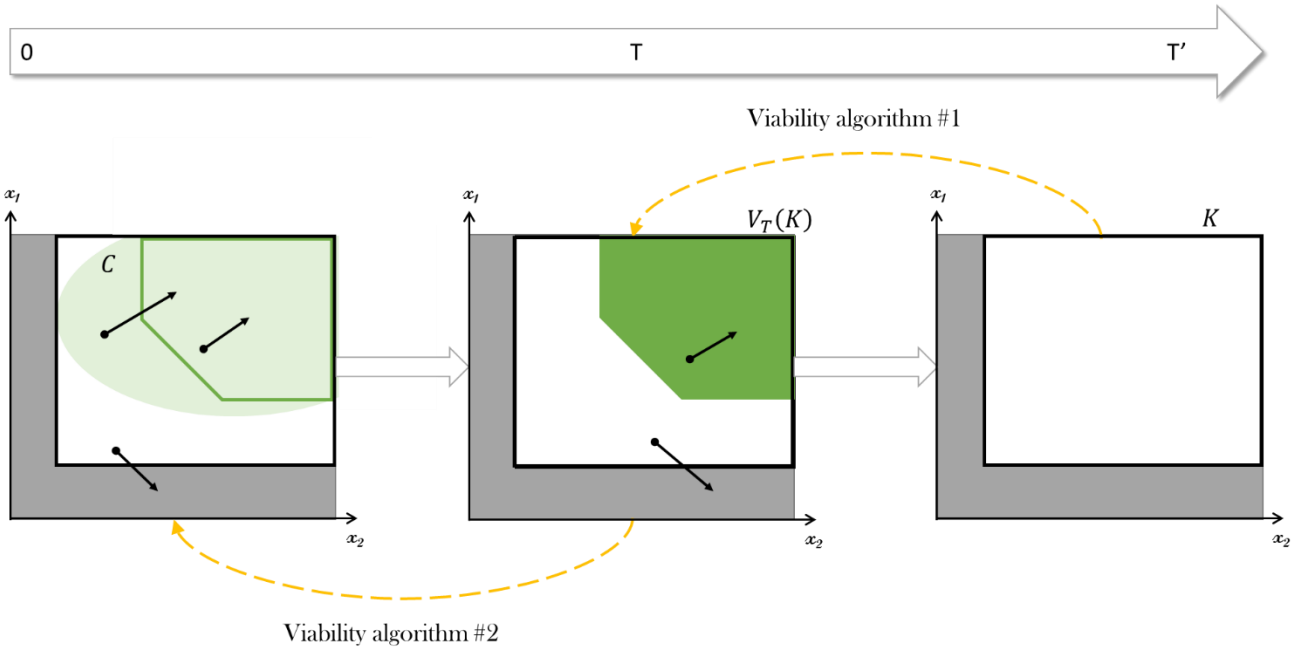
$$V_{\tau^*} := \{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \tau) \mid (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \tau) \in V \ \& \ \tau = \tau^*\} \quad (11)$$

311

312 In our particular case,  $K$  is not upper bounded in the  $\tau$  direction which makes the initialization of the  
 313 algorithm impossible. However, as constraints and dynamics do not change after time  $T$ , being  
 314 permanently viable at any time after  $T$  requires the same conditions as at  $T$ :  $V_{\tau^*} = V_T$  for  $\tau^* \geq T$ .

315 Moreover, the same target could be computed in finite time, provided that this time would be long

316 enough:  $V_T = V_{T'}^t$  where  $V'$  is the viability kernel of the same dynamics as Eq. (1) except for  $\tau$  dynamics:  
 317  $\tau(t + 1) = \tau(t) + 1$  if  $\tau < T'$ ,  $\tau(t + 1) = T'$  otherwise; and facing the bounded constraint set:  $K'$   
 318  $:= K \cap \{\tau \leq T'\}$  for a value of  $T'$  that is large enough.  $K'$  is upper bounded in the  $\tau$  direction so we can  
 319 use the backward algorithm to compute  $V'$  with the initialization  $V_{T'}^t =$   
 320  $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \tau) \mid (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, \tau) \in K' \ \& \ \tau = T'\}$ .



321  
 322 *Figure 2: Two-step method to determine viable transition trajectories. Non-viable states are in grey, viable states are within*  
 323 *the black frame. The dark green area corresponds to the target: viable states at  $T$  from which it is possible to remain viable*  
 324 *after the change of parameters. The light green area is the capture basin, i.e. states at  $t=0$  from which it is possible to reach*  
 325  *$V_T(K)$  at  $T$ . Black arrows correspond to instances of trajectories with different starting points.*

326  
 327 The computation of the viability kernel can be divided into two distinct steps, before and after horizon  
 328  $T$  ( $\tau \leq T$  and  $\tau \geq T$ ) (Figure 2).

329 The first step of the computation was to apply the viability algorithm between  $T$  and  $T'$ , to compute  
 330  $V_{T'}^t$ . As  $T'$  increases,  $V_{T'}^t$  decreases and then remains constant. Therefore,  $T'$  was taken as the minimal  
 331 value from which there are no more modifications to  $V_{T'}^t$ . Consequently, any time horizon above  $T'$   
 332 would result in the same section of the viability kernel at  $T$  meaning that  $V_T^t = V_{T'}^t$ . This situation was  
 333 reached in 5 years, meaning that  $T' = 15$  years is suitable.

334 In the second step, the computed  $V_T$  was then used as the target to reach during transition. The  
 335 viability algorithm was thus applied for a second time between 0 and  $T$ , to compute viable trajectories  
 336 reaching this target at  $T$ . We thus looked for the capture basin of the horizon viability kernel  $V_T$ . The

337 capture basin is the set of all initial states from which at least one trajectory ending in the target starts.

338 It can be formally defined as:

$$C(K, V_T) = \{X \in K \mid \exists x(\cdot) \in Q(X), \exists t^* \geq 0, x(t^*) \in V_T \text{ \& \forall } t \in [0, t^*], x(t) \in K\} \quad (12)$$

339

340 In order to compute viability algorithms, each state and control was discretized on a regular grid. As

341 fruit tree gross margins remain essentially unchanged once maturity is reached, a mature tree category

342 was considered for all trees over 11 years. So  $x_2$  ranges from 0 to 12 with a step of 1. Similarly, the

343 linearity of the dynamics enabled us to ascertain that if a state is viable with  $x_1 = x_1^*$ , it remains viable

344 with any greater value. We find that  $x_1$  ranging from €8,000 to €50,000 is satisfactory with a step of

345 €2,000.  $x_4$  ranges from 0 to 1 with a step of 0.1.  $u_1$  belongs to a finite set available in Appendix A.  $u_2$

346 ranges from 0 to 1 with a step of 0.2.

347

348

## 349 **2.8. Trajectory computation:**

350 As a preliminary step, a static comparison of the potential of the different crop portfolios was realized

351 for the different values of orchard age ( $x_2$ ) with a maximal production coefficient ( $x_4 = 1$ ). Dynamics

352 were computed and analyzed in terms of annual workload ( $W_v(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau) + W_f(x_2, u_1, u_2, \tau)$ ) and

353 capital variation between two successive years ( $x_1(t+1) - x_1(t)$ ). To compute capital, the value of

354 the workload allocation control ( $u_2$ ) used was that giving the highest capital value. Salaries and fixed

355 costs have been included in the computation.

356 In a second step, we conducted a dynamic analysis of the system within the Viability framework. Two

357 scenarios were considered: one without any specific constraint about the age of orchards at  $T$  (they

358 must simply exist:  $x_2(T) \geq 1$ ) and one imposing an age of 8 ( $x_2(T) = 8$ ). Once viability kernels were found,

359 a random sample of 10,000 viable forward-looking trajectories was computed from each kernel. All

360 trajectories start with the lowest viable capital value, *i.e.*  $x_1(0) = x_{1min} = €10,000$ . Controls were drawn

361 randomly at each time step from among the viable ones. These trajectories (*i.e.* viable temporal

362 successions of crop portfolios) were then compared in terms of workload, capital and crop rotations

363 used.

364

365

## 366 **2.9. Computation:**

367 All viability kernels and trajectory computations used Python 3.9.7 ([www.python.org/](http://www.python.org/)). Statistical  
368 analyses used R software 4.1.2 (<https://cran.r-project.org>). Economic data were obtained from the  
369 Provence-Alpes-Côte d'Azur Regional Chamber of Agriculture (Roblin and Bouvard, 2017).

370

371

372

### 373 **3. RESULTS**

374

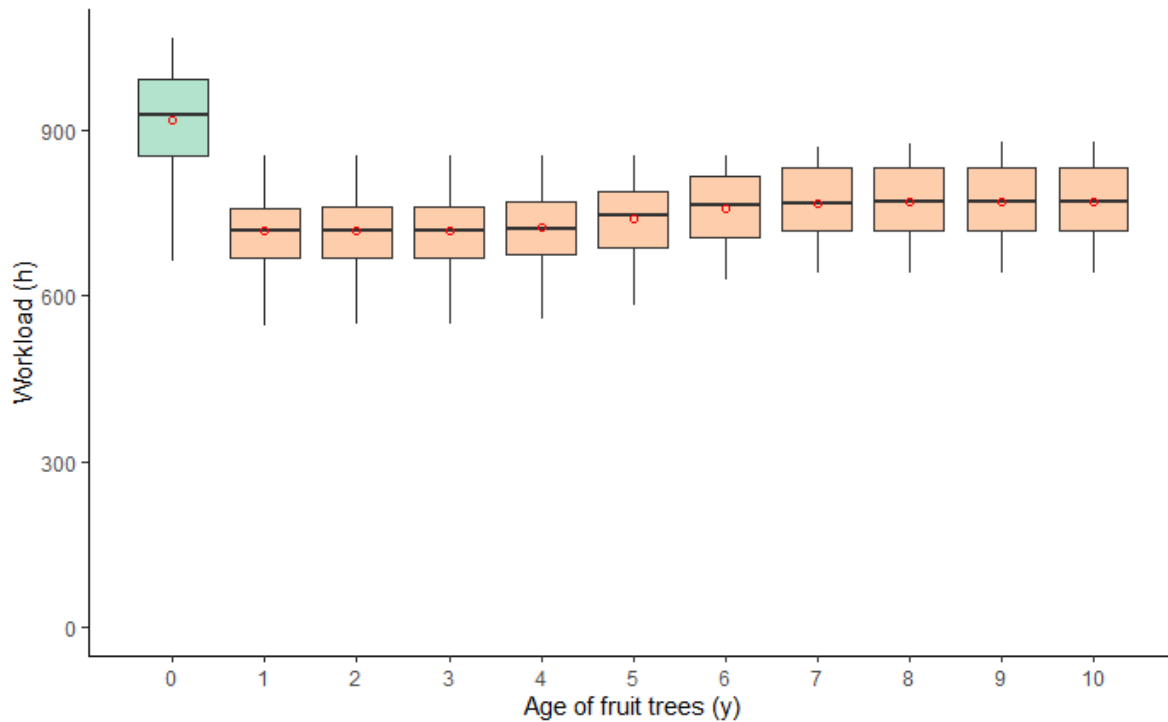
#### 375 **3.1. Working hours:**

376 Working hours are mainly occupied by vegetables. This is consistent with previous studies: tree care  
377 activity does not demand much time in most months (Boury-Esnault et al., 2018; Léger et al., 2019).  
378 Tree-related activity is likely to compete with vegetables only during pruning and harvesting periods,  
379 when farmers may have to make a choice over workload allocation.

380 A static analysis of the workload associated with the different portfolios shows that working hours for  
381 portfolios with vegetables only are significantly higher than working hours for portfolios including an  
382 orchard, no matter its age (Welch's two sample t-test,  $p = 4.6e^{-12}$ ; Figure 3). Workload marginally  
383 increases with tree age but remains much lower than workload with vegetables only.

384





385

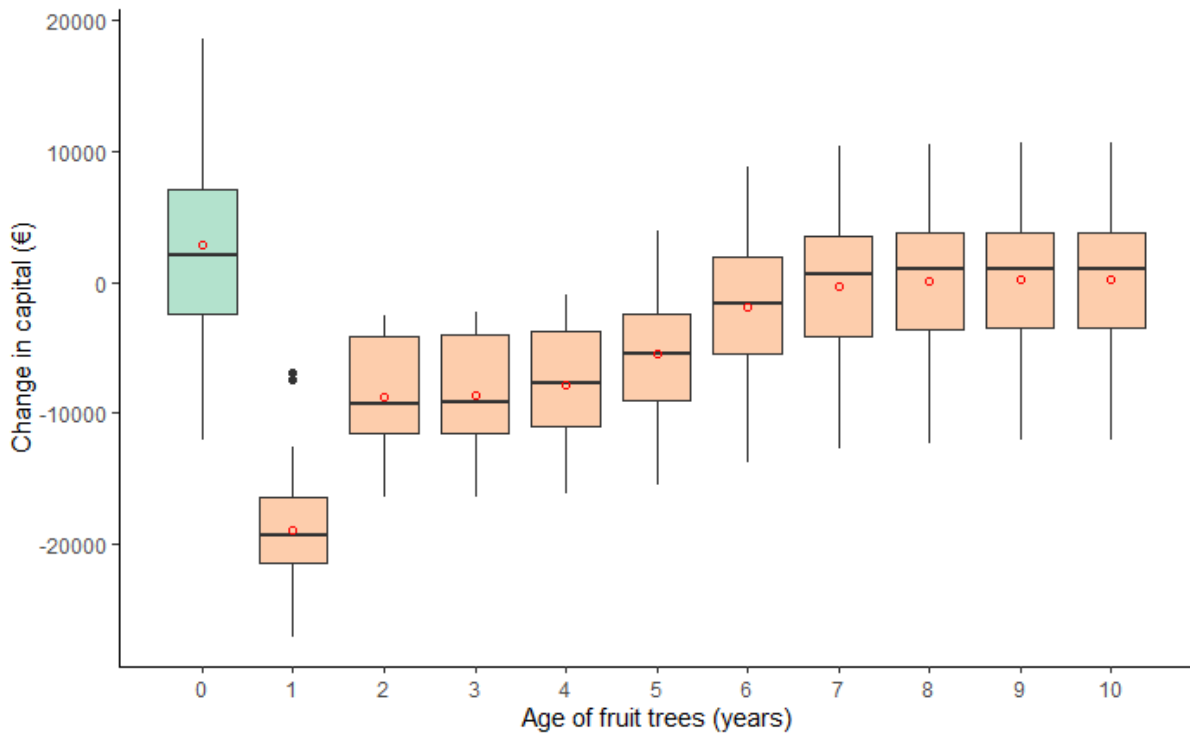
386 *Figure 3: Potential annual working hours for crop portfolios for various ages of fruit trees. The green box ( $x = 0$ ) corresponds*  
 387 *to the set of portfolios with vegetables only. Orange boxes ( $x > 0$ ) correspond to portfolios with at least one fruit tree species,*  
 388 *for different age values of this orchard. For each box, lower and upper limits correspond to the first and third quartiles.*  
 389 *Whiskers extend to at most 1.5 times the interquartile range. Red circles correspond to the mean of each dataset.*

390

391

### 392 **3.2. Capital:**

393 Static analysis of changes in capital associated with each portfolio shows that high values of income  
 394 can be reached with vegetables only, in particular when using certain portfolios with high-value crops  
 395 such as pepper and lamb's lettuce. Tree planting (year 1) is costly and has a strong impact on capital.  
 396 During the first years of tree growth, trees do not produce anything but occupy land and therefore the  
 397 farm loses money. Tree planting can thus be viable only if previous capital is high enough to absorb  
 398 this loss. Revenues exceed costs only after five or six years, with a reduced difference in income  
 399 compared to portfolios with vegetables only (Welch's two-sample t-test,  $p = 0.11$ ; Figure 4).



400

401 *Figure 4: Potential change in capital associated with crop portfolios, for different ages of fruit trees. The green box ( $x = 0$ )*  
 402 *corresponds to the set of portfolios with vegetables only. Orange boxes ( $x > 0$ ) correspond to portfolios with at least one fruit*  
 403 *tree species, for different age values of this orchard. The best-case scenario was adopted for each point, i.e. the value of*  
 404 *workload allocation enabling the highest growth in capital. For each box, lower and upper limits correspond to the first and*  
 405 *third quartiles. Whiskers extend to at most 1.5 times interquartile range, outliers are represented as black dots. Red circles*  
 406 *correspond to the mean of each dataset.*

407

408

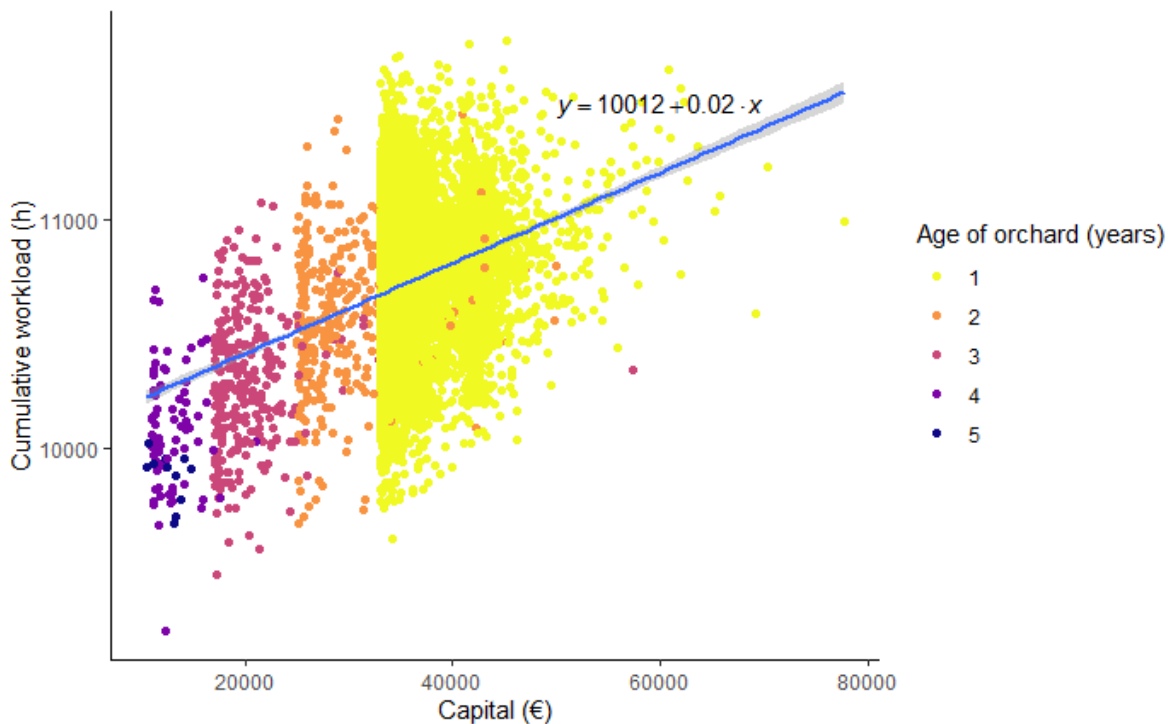
409

### 410 **3.3. Trade-off between capital and working hours:**

411 Since planting fruit trees makes it possible to reduce working hours but affects capital by decreasing  
 412 income for a few years, different strategies can emerge depending on the way fruit tree plantations  
 413 are managed. These strategies were examined by studying a sample of random viable trajectories over  
 414 the 10-year transition period, starting at  $x_1(0) = x_{1min}$ .

415 The sum of working hours during the period is positively correlated with final capital (linear regression,  
 416 correlation coefficient = 0.02,  $p < e^{-16}$ ; Figure 5). In other words, it is hard to improve both capital and  
 417 labor conditions at the same time, leading to the search for a trade-off between these two variables.

418



419

420 *Figure 5: Sum of working hours throughout the simulation depending on final capital, for a sample composed of 10,000*  
 421 *random viable trajectories. Each point is the result of a 10-year trajectory. The blue line corresponds to a linear regression of*  
 422 *the whole sample.*

423

424 In the great majority (93%) of these trajectories, the decision is made to plant trees at  $t = 9$  years,  
 425 resulting in one-year-old trees at  $T$ . Indeed, even if there are almost the same number of rotations  
 426 with and without trees, the cost of planting fruit trees makes the latter much less frequently viable.  
 427 Consequently, in most cases, this event happens only when it becomes mandatory. In this case,  $x_1(t)$   
 428 must be superior to €36,000 to remain viable, which explains the sharp left-side limit of the yellow  
 429 cloud in Figure 5. Trajectories resulting in older trees can remain viable with a lower capital value.

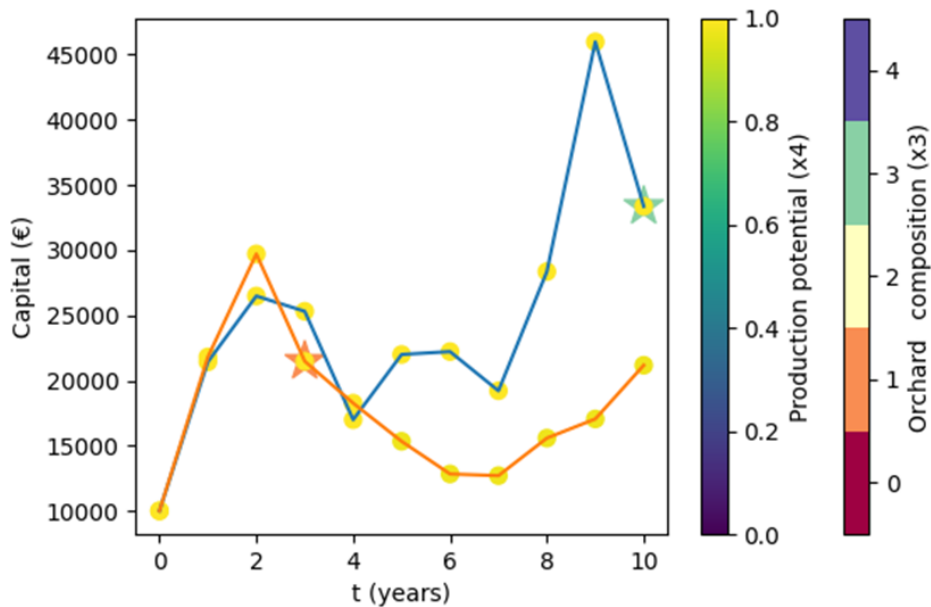
430 In this sample, final capital values are very tightly grouped around the mean and median (respectively  
 431 €39,930 and €39,174), with a standard deviation of  $\sigma = €4,918$  (12%). However, the range of values it  
 432 can take is much wider and can go as high as €72,379. Mean cumulative working hours is 10,744h  
 433 (median: 10,752h), which gives an annual mean of 1,070h/year (Figure 8).

434

435 However, these trajectories do not reflect the whole range of possibilities. Therefore, we computed a  
 436 subset of the viability kernels by modifying the target, requiring 8-year-old orchards to be present at  
 437  $T$ . Another sample of 10,000 random viable trajectories was drawn out using this kernel (Figure 7). It  
 438 was compared with the trajectories from the first sample presenting a one-year-old orchard at  $T$ . To

439 illustrate what happens in each sample, one trajectory has been randomly drawn from both of them.  
440 They are presented on Figure 6.

441



442 *Figure 6: Illustration of trajectories from each of the two samples: random sample in blue and sample aiming at 8-year-old*  
443 *orchards in orange. Stars correspond to fruit tree planting, with a color depending on the type of fruit tree chosen ( $x_3$ ). Colors*  
444 *of circle dots correspond to the value of the potential production coefficient ( $x_4$ ).*

445

446 The cost of tree planting (Figure 4) can be seen on these trajectories. The one with the earliest  
447 transition (orange curve) has the opportunity to make profits again five years after planting. This cost  
448 has to be anticipated by more or less intense capital accumulation depending on the time provided  
449 before tree planting and the amount of money necessary to remain viable with the resulting trees.

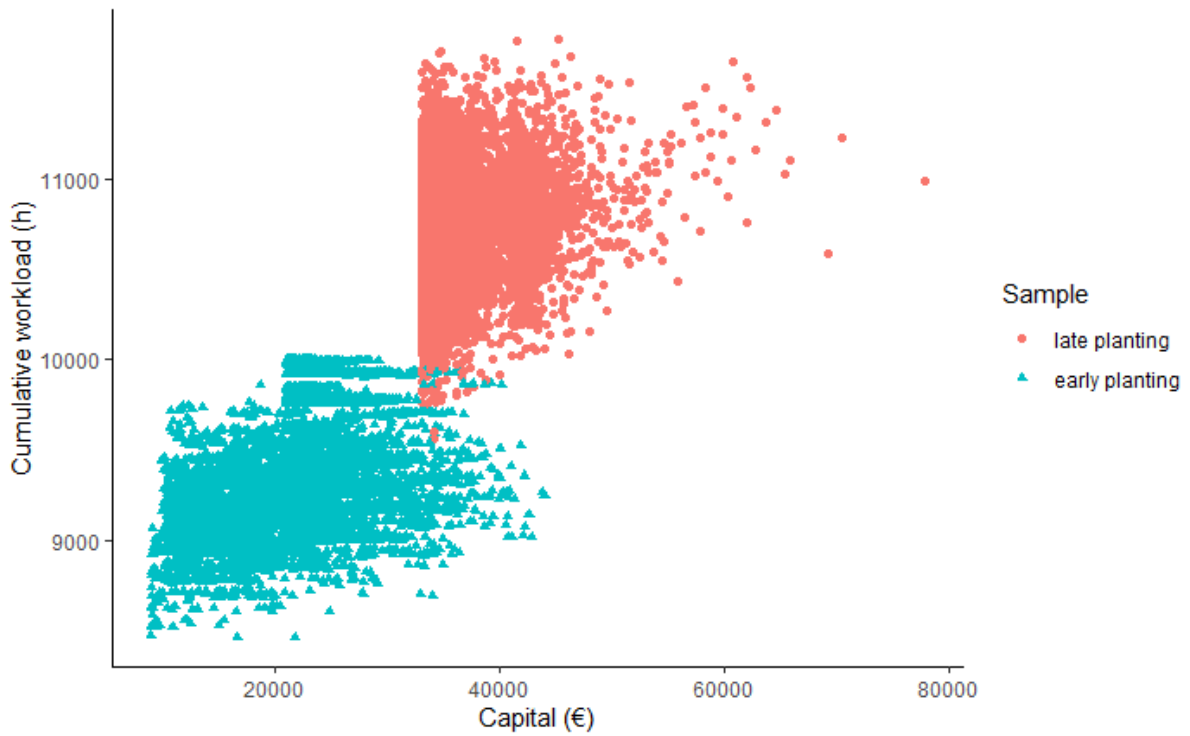
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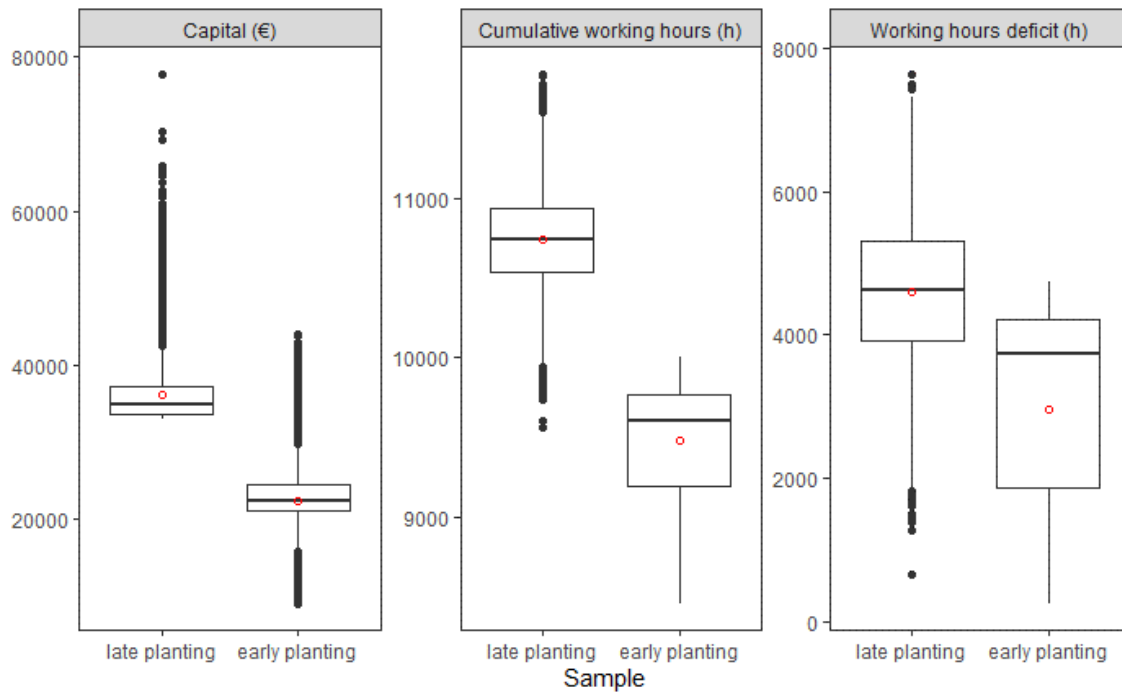
### 3.4. Comparison of two strategies:



454

455 *Figure 7: Sum of working hours throughout the simulation depending on final capital, for two samples of random viable*  
 456 *trajectories: one requiring 1-year-old orchards (red circles) and the other requiring 8-year-old orchards (blue triangles). Each*  
 457 *point is the result of a 10-year trajectory.*

458



459

460 *Figure 8: Distribution of capital, cumulative working hours and working hours deficit among the trajectories for the two*  
 461 *samples: targeting 1-year-old orchards (late planting) and targeting 8-year-old orchards (early planting). Each sample is*  
 462 *composed of 10,000 random trajectories. Red circles correspond to the means of each dataset.*

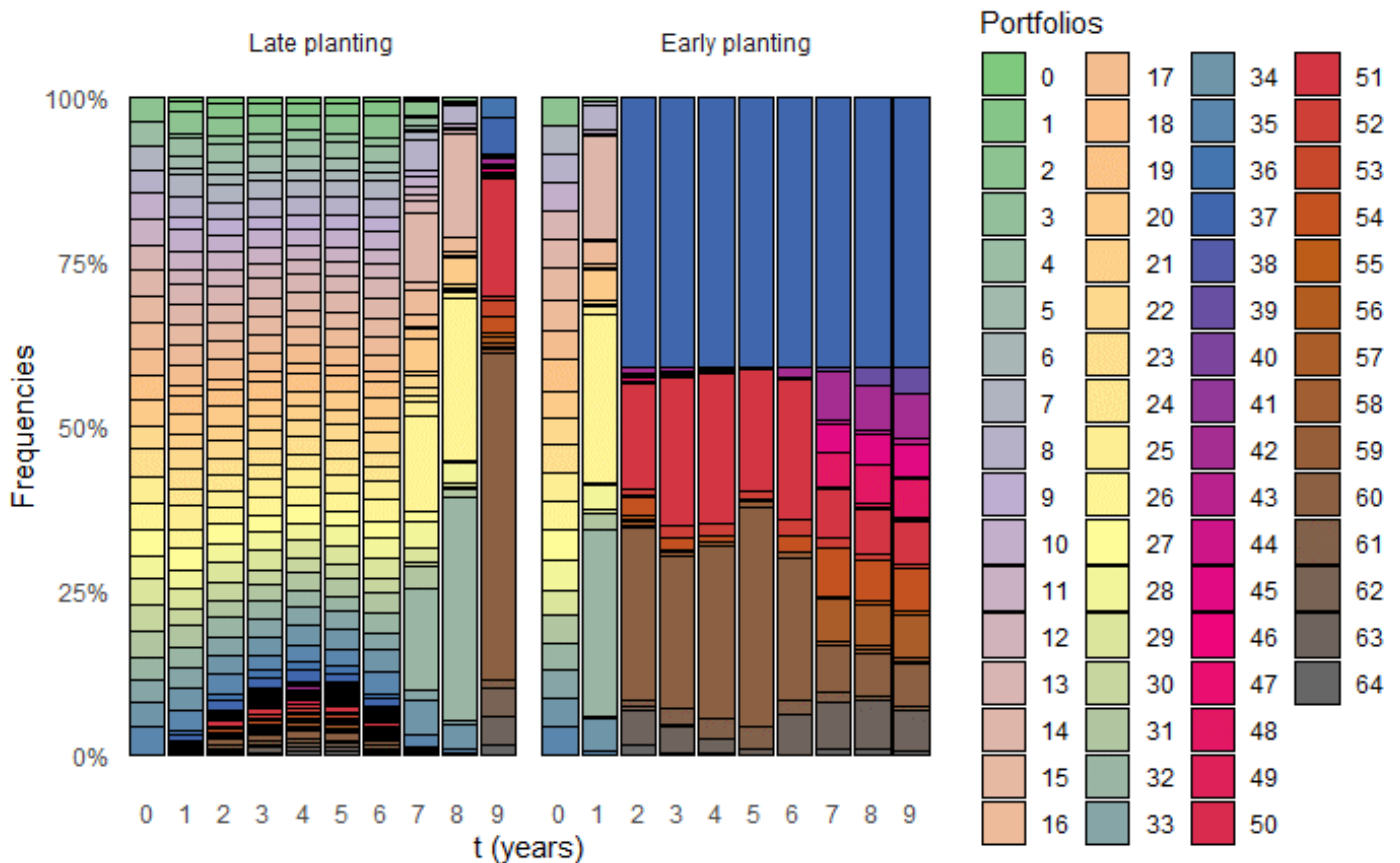
463

464

465 Aiming at 8-year-old trees results in both lower capital values and lower working hours. It corresponds  
466 to a long-term investment made as early as possible. However, there is a limited number of vegetable  
467 rotations in the first years that make it possible to accumulate enough money for such an investment  
468 (Figure 9). In almost half of the cases (41%), a single plot of peach trees is planted. This choice is a way  
469 to cope with less money being available at the time of tree planting, but it is not the most efficient in  
470 the long-term. When starting with  $x_i(0) = x_{1min}$ , no crop rotation is lucrative enough to enable tree  
471 planting after less than two years of market gardening.

472

473



474 *Figure 9: Frequency of use of the different crop rotations through time, for the two samples: aiming at 1-year-old trees (late*  
475 *planting) and aiming at 8-year-old trees (early planting). Portfolios up to 35 are entirely composed of vegetables. Portfolios*  
476 *36 and 37 include one orchard plot. Portfolios 38 and over include two orchard plots. See Appendix A for the composition of*  
477 *each crop portfolio.*

478

479

480

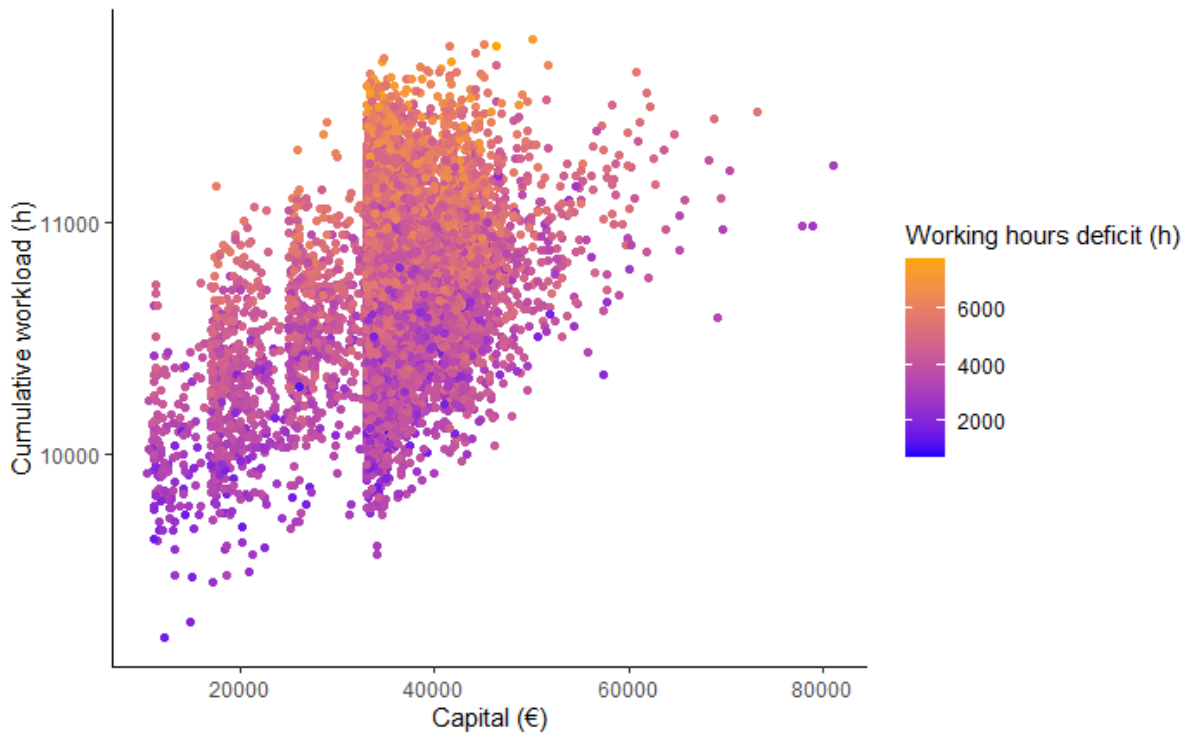
### 3.5. Working hours deficit:

481 Problematic situations relating to workload appear when not enough working hours are available to  
482 meet either vegetable or fruit production requirements. To study these situations, we defined working  
483 hours deficit as the accumulated difference between effective workload and required working hours.

484 Among the random sample, trajectories with a lower working hours deficit seem more interesting in  
485 terms of the trade-off between capital and labor (Figure 10). Thus, choosing crops with workload  
486 requirements corresponding to available workload can be a means of avoiding the less efficient  
487 trajectories.

488 Furthermore, working hours deficit is significantly lower when trees have been planted early (Figure  
489 8). In other words, crop rotations with fruit trees tend to present work requirements closer to available  
490 working hours.

491



492

493 *Figure 10: Sum of working hours depending on capital, for a sample of 10,000 random viable trajectories. Colors correspond*  
494 *to working hours deficit values.*

495

496

497

498

499

## 500 4. DISCUSSION

501

### 502 4.1. Multiplicity of farmers' decision-making criteria

503 In this study we focused on the re-design of farming systems to explore the scope for sustainable  
504 transitions from MG to MFV farms. Our findings showed that fruit tree planting makes it possible to  
505 reach satisfactory income levels while limiting workload, but establishment is costly during the first  
506 few years. Therefore, a choice has to be made between different strategies to sustain this cost. We  
507 computed a set of viable trajectories based on aspects that can be quantitatively modeled, leaving  
508 room for qualitative discussions about the relevance of the different trajectories.

509 Even though they are all viable, computed trajectories are not all equivalent. Some trajectories seem  
510 riskier than others, as they present a reduction in possible choices at certain steps. Being in the viability  
511 kernel means that at least one set of controls makes it possible to stay within bounds defined by the  
512 constraints and to reach the target, but the number of possible paths can vary a lot. For instance, even  
513 though aiming for particularly young or old trees at the time horizon makes it possible to reach higher  
514 capital or lower workload values (respectively), it requires a limited set of vegetable rotations to be  
515 chosen at some key moments (Figure 9). Risk aversion being an important factor in decisions to change  
516 (Menapace et al., 2013; Norton, 1976), an alternative strategy could be to stay far from boundary  
517 states in order to maintain a wider range of possibilities at each time step even though that trajectory  
518 may be sub-optimal. Indeed, maintaining flexibility in management requires that not all resources be  
519 used efficiently at any one point in time, providing trade-offs between efficiency criteria and  
520 redundancy in the different resources (Darnhofer et al., 2010; Sabatier and Mouysset, 2018). This is an  
521 insurance against uncertainty and surprise and allows for reorganization and renewal.

522 Market gardening and orchard cultivation are both knowledge-intensive activities, and the choice of a  
523 strategy may also depend on knowledge and skills already possessed by the farmer. An effect of  
524 diversification is to increase the number of interacting elements and the variety of tasks necessary to  
525 manage them (Paut, 2020) and therefore the complexity of the system management. The model shows  
526 that various timings of tree planting are viable, making it possible to choose among them according to  
527 individual knowledge and learning skills. Delaying fruit tree planting and focusing on well-understood  
528 vegetable growing can be a strategy enabling the farmer to devote some time to acquiring knowledge  
529 about fruit tree management.

530 In addition to personal criteria such as risk aversion and learning, farmer's choices are constrained by  
531 external structures such as social norms, technologies and the natural environment (Darnhofer et al.,



532 2010), that are particularly difficult to include in such a model. For instance, some tree species can be  
533 more or less well-adapted to a given soil and climate, or possess specific cultural significance. Some of  
534 these decision-making parameters can be included in models, e.g. land heterogeneity in Dogliotti et al.  
535 (2005). However, choices have to be made about what to include or not in each model in order to  
536 achieve a balance between accurate representation of reality and genericity. Here, a detailed land  
537 description would have been inconsistent with the level of abstraction of the model dynamics.

538 Moreover, such alternative farming systems are often conceived by their author as life projects, and  
539 priority is not systematically given to economic performance. Strategies adopted can also address  
540 other concerns such as workload, risk (peaches' sensitivity to cold makes them liable to high variations  
541 in yield), commercialization (apples are easier than peaches to store and sell), integration into local  
542 communities, etc. These considerations can hardly be included in a digital model, as they can refer to  
543 values such as beauty, intellectual interest or ecological concerns (Morel and Léger, 2016). They are  
544 usually ignored in the modeling process, actors being considered as rational individuals making  
545 decisions based on economic criteria.

546

547

#### 548 **4.2. Looking for satisfactory solutions**

549 Dynamic models make it possible to study long-term dynamics such as those at stake in transitions,  
550 and to explore a wide range of trajectories with uncertain outcomes, whereas proceeding by trial and  
551 error with real systems is a time-consuming and risky process (e.g. Corbeels et al., 2014; Delbridge and  
552 King, 2016; Lescot et al., 2011; Žibert et al., 2022). Thanks to a high enough number of simulated  
553 variables and interactions, and to calibration with empirical data, these models can be precise and  
554 reliable enough to predict *ex ante* trajectories; for example crop performance in places or climates  
555 where the crop of interest has never been grown. In order to discriminate among possible decisions,  
556 the best one is generally selected based on a single criterion or a combination thereof, in order to get  
557 as close as possible to a predefined target (Bergez et al., 2010). *Ad hoc* modeling tools are used to  
558 assess farmers' interest (or lack thereof) in engaging in transition, and thus to explain factors  
559 determining the adoption of agroecological practices. In addition to achieving a better understanding  
560 of the mechanisms and processes at stake, these models can therefore also be used to provide farming  
561 advice. Farmers can thus use the model's optimal trajectory as a benchmark against which to compare  
562 their own farm and practices (e.g. Rodriguez et al., 2014; Ryschawy et al., 2014). However, with these  
563 models, farmers are generally assumed to be rational profit-maximisers with perfect knowledge of the  
564 production outputs. This is a crude approximation of farmers' behavior and optimization tools are

565 limited in their ability to include farmers' complex decision-making processes (McCown, 2001; Robert  
566 et al., 2016; Sempore et al., 2015).

567 One main interest of viability theory is to give a set of viable solutions instead of a single 'optimal'  
568 solution. The model we developed required very few hypotheses about farmer's behavior and avoided  
569 the delicate step of defining decision rules to simulate crop management. It is a means of  
570 acknowledging diversity in farmers' motivations, abilities (including knowledge and learning skills) and  
571 strategies, as well as the existence of multiple pathways enabling sustainable transitions (Rosenbloom,  
572 2017). It avoids imposing the researcher's normativity, thus increasing the model's legitimacy, defined  
573 as the production of fair and unbiased information respecting stakeholders' values and beliefs (Cash  
574 et al., 2003; Chang and Morel, 2018). Moreover, decision-making processes can be considered at both  
575 strategic (long term) and tactical (short term) scales: the realization of strategic objectives (the  
576 transition) depends on yearly choices of crop rotations and workload allocation (Robert et al., 2016).  
577 Depending on farmer's individual priorities, one viable trajectory or another can be adopted, offering  
578 flexibility in the search for sustainable solutions. When several controls are viable, the choice made for  
579 one control or another can correspond to various strategies. Farmers with different objectives can find  
580 various ways to create their own viable farm. For instance, an early decision to plant trees can be a  
581 way to invest for future income and labor conditions, whereas planting vegetables to increase capital  
582 can be another way to face forthcoming adversity. An alternative to computation of every possibility  
583 could be to develop several alternative scenarios with farmers, in a participatory modeling approach  
584 (Le Gal et al., 2022; Pisonnier et al., 2019).

585 The framework based upon the satisfaction of certain constraints rather than looking for optimal  
586 solutions is also more in accordance with farmers' management. Real-life systems are complex and  
587 limited information is available, so farmers often have only a vague idea of the probability distribution  
588 of outcomes associated with various control strategies. Therefore, what is sought is the satisfaction of  
589 some objectives and operational constraints, rather than the maximization of some utility function  
590 (Norton, 1976). The system can then be pushed towards these objectives through a range of available  
591 controls, without closely monitoring every dynamic and interaction.

592 The model does not capture all the complexity of these systems, but the number of computed  
593 trajectories makes it possible to select them in hindsight, depending on individual concerns. The  
594 predictive power of the model is not necessarily a priority for farmers, who may prefer qualitative  
595 discussions (Chang and Morel, 2018). Nevertheless, the accuracy of this model could be increased by  
596 including competitive and cooperative interactions between crops. Management of these interactions  
597 is often considered to be the main issue of these systems (Wezel et al., 2014), but data is lacking about

598 the exact degree of their effects (Léger et al., 2019; Paut et al., 2020). Another improvement could be  
599 to increase the number of available crops to increase the range of possibilities at each time step. This  
600 would require computation time limitations to be dealt with. Finally, it could be interesting to include  
601 uncertainties, such as climatic events or market instability. This could be achieved by applying  
602 stochasticity to yields (see *e.g.* Baumgärtner and Quaas, 2009; Oubraham et al., 2020; Sabatier et al.,  
603 2015) and assessing the resilience-related properties of the system (Sabatier et al., 2018). Resilience  
604 can also be assessed without assumptions about the probabilities of such catastrophic events, as the  
605 inverse of the minimal cost associated with the effort to restore and preserve some properties of the  
606 system following disturbances (Martin, 2019). Furthermore, this model could be adapted to the case  
607 of a different farm size, or a collective installation on the same farm, by simply changing the  
608 parameters. Indeed, collective installation is often a lever for diversification. The combination of each  
609 person's specialized skills and knowledge creates a diversified whole-farm system and overcomes the  
610 knowledge acquisition issue.

611

612

#### 613 **4.3. From a deterministic to an open-ended perspective of transition**

614 Agroecological transition is a wide notion covering a whole range of conceptual frameworks, focusing  
615 on different objects at various organizational levels, over medium- to long-term time spans (Duru et  
616 al., 2015; Ollivier et al., 2018; Prost et al., 2023). The process of change can be conceived as the  
617 transformation of an initial state into a targeted final state, or as a continuous process of successive  
618 adjustments between means and goals (Lamine et al., 2021). The transition represented here is farm-  
619 centered and quite deterministic: a goal is set from the beginning about what the farm must look like  
620 at a given time horizon. This goal is rooted in the way the model has been implemented: the possibility  
621 of planting trees is part of the dynamics and determines one of the constraints.

622 However, even though the objective of obtaining a perennial MFV farm is set from the beginning, the  
623 precise target required to meet this goal is not. It is computed through a complementary viability  
624 analysis, so every solution consistent with this goal is considered, with as few assumptions as possible.  
625 In July (2015), viability at final state is defined differently than for other steps, as there are no controls  
626 enabling the assessment of usual viability constraints. Therefore, viability at final state was considered  
627 as subsequent growth reaching stationary state. This phenomenon was in turn translated into  
628 constraints. In our model, fewer hypotheses are required, as conditions at the time horizon for future  
629 sustainability are not established at the outset.

630

631 The large number of trajectories computed, and the consistency of the approach compared to farmers'  
632 management, could make this model relevant for discussions with stakeholders at participatory  
633 workshops. The use would be different depending on participants' position relative to transition. If  
634 they are already engaged in a transition process, it could provide a framework to guide the initial farm  
635 diagnosis at the beginning of the support process, by comparing their position in the range of possible  
636 to viable trajectories or in the viability kernel (Sabatier et al., 2017). Otherwise, it can help with *ex-ante*  
637 assessments of the viability of a range of alternatives (Briot et al., 2011; Chang and Morel, 2018;  
638 Sempore et al., 2015). An objective could be, for instance, to compare the feasibility of transition with  
639 different amounts of time available (corresponding to their objectives or their possibilities), by  
640 comparing viability kernels with imposed orchard planting at the corresponding time point. Given the  
641 multiplicity of possible trajectories computed by the model, its use would be closer to that of a heuristic  
642 tool, crystallizing reflections during discussions between farmers and mediators, than a prescriptive  
643 norm to be respected. It could be coupled with other types of model, such as empirical modeling of  
644 social–ecological systems, in order to better understand the values and norms behind management  
645 decisions (Crane, 2010; Klapwijk et al., 2014). By redefining the target while the trajectory is ongoing  
646 and considering elements that are not explored in the model, it would leave an opportunity for  
647 creativity to be expressed in order to find innovative solutions adapted to a very complex and  
648 unpredictable reality (Lamine et al., 2021).

649

650

## 651 **5. CONCLUSION**

652 In this study, we computed a range of viable trajectories leading to a transition towards a more  
653 diversified agronomic system. In order to do this, we made an original use of the viability kernel  
654 approach by separating our model into two successive parts, using the kernel of the first as an objective  
655 for the second. We found that in order for the transition to be long-lasting, the final state must not  
656 only be viable, but also belong to a given subset of the constraint domain.

657 As the installation of an orchard decreases workload but is costly during the early years, computed  
658 viable trajectories reflect different trade-offs in the balance between workload and capital. They result  
659 from choices about the time of orchard planting and the fruit and vegetable species grown each year.  
660 These choices can result from considerations that can be quantified by the model, such as flexibility or  
661 working hours deficit, but also qualitative factors outside the scope of this model, such as farmers'

662 values. The range of viable trajectories acknowledges the importance of considering the variety of  
663 possible means to achieve the same goal in a complex world. Because the conceptual framework is  
664 relatively close to the way farmers manage their farms and the plurality of the outputs avoids the  
665 imposition of an exclusive solution, it could become a good tool for starting a discussion with  
666 stakeholders.

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673

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48	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Beans greenhouse_Pongo			Apple_Royal Gala	Apple_Royal Gala
49	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Beans greenhouse_Pongo			Peach_Big Top	Peach_Big Top
50	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Beans greenhouse_Pongo			Apple_Royal Gala	Peach_Big Top
51	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Apple_Royal Gala	Apple_Royal Gala
52	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Peach_Big Top	Peach_Big Top
53	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Apple_Royal Gala	Peach_Big Top
54	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Beans greenhouse_Pongo	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Apple_Royal Gala	Apple_Royal Gala
55	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Beans greenhouse_Pongo	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Peach_Big Top	Peach_Big Top
56	Cabbage_Impala	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Beans greenhouse_Pongo	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Apple_Royal Gala	Peach_Big Top
57	Squash_Musquee de Provence	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Beans greenhouse_Pongo			Apple_Royal Gala	Apple_Royal Gala
58	Squash_Musquee de Provence	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Beans greenhouse_Pongo			Peach_Big Top	Peach_Big Top
59	Squash_Musquee de Provence	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Zucchini_Zelia	Beans greenhouse_Pongo			Apple_Royal Gala	Peach_Big Top
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63	Squash_Musquee de Provence	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Beans greenhouse_Pongo	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Apple_Royal Gala	Apple_Royal Gala
64	Squash_Musquee de Provence	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Beans greenhouse_Pongo	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Peach_Big Top	Peach_Big Top
65	Squash_Musquee de Provence	Lamb's lettuce greenhouse_Trophy	Beans greenhouse_Pongo	Pepper greenhouse_Almuden			Apple_Royal Gala	Peach_Big Top

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834 Appendix B. Source code.