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Abstract

Indonesian forest and peat fires have become global concern. Not only the fires have caused regional environmental and humanitarian crises, they also have exacerbated global climate change. Radical and rapid land use change couple with irresponsible practice of clearing land through burning are key contributing factors. In response, the Indonesian government issued a strict ban on the practice. While this policy outcome continues to shortfall, it implicates traditional farmers whose subsistence depends on such a practice. This reality necessitates effort to develop a more nuanced and targeted intervention. Thus, this study examines individual's intention to clear land using fire. We surveyed 151 Indonesian traditional farmers based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the Norm Activation Model (NAM) and past behavior. We identified the TPB, which is augmented by the past behavior and awareness of consequences, as the optimal model for explaining variance in the intention. Implications for developing more effective educational campaigns are discussed.

Keywords Burning, Theory of Planned Behavior, Norm Activation Model, Forest Management, Forest and peat fires

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Data for: Toward A Nuanced and Targeted Fire Prevention Policy: Insight from Psychology

These supplementary materials consist of response data that were used in the study and dummy questionnaire that was revised after being piloted.

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4 Highlights:

- 5 • All variables of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, past burning behaviour,
6 and awareness of consequences explained a considerable proportion of
7 variance in burning intention.
8
- 9 • Attitudes and Subjective Norms mediated the relationship between
10 Awareness of Consequence and burning intention.
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- 12 • Awareness of Consequence and Responsibility Denial predicted Personal
13 Norms, but Personal Norms did not predict burning intention.
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Abstract

Indonesian forest and peat fires have become global concern. Not only the fires have caused regional environmental and humanitarian crises, they also have exacerbated global climate change. Radical and rapid land use change couple with irresponsible practice of clearing land through burning are key contributing factors. In response, the Indonesian government issued a strict ban on the practice. While this policy outcome continues to shortfall, it implicates traditional farmers whose subsistence depends on such a practice. This reality necessitates effort to develop a more nuanced and targeted intervention. Thus, this study examines individual's intention to clear land using fire. We surveyed 151 Indonesian traditional farmers based on the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the Norm Activation Model (NAM) and past behavior. We identified the TPB, which is augmented by the past behavior and awareness of consequences, as the optimal model for explaining variance in the intention. Implications for developing more effective educational campaigns are discussed.

Keywords: Burning, Theory of Planned Behavior, Norm Activation Model, Forest Management, Forest and peat fires

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Toward A Nuanced and Targeted Fire Prevention Policy: Insight from Psychology

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4 1. **Introduction**

5
6 2 Between September and October 2019, thick haze blanketed a large part of Indonesia
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8 3 and its neighboring countries (e.g., Malaysia and Singapore) (Reuters 2019). This haze is
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10 4 brought about by raging fires that smoldered in Indonesian forests and peat. Millions of
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12 5 people in Indonesia, Singapore, and Malaysia were a risk of severe respiratory infection as
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14 6 Air Quality Index (AQI) spanned from 150 to over 350 (Greenpeace Southeast Asia 2019).
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16 7 These figures fall within the AQI categories of ‘very unhealthy’ to ‘beyond hazardous’. Such
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18 8 a public health nightmare led to a temporary closure of thousands of schools in the
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20 9 respective countries (BBC News 2019; Jong 2019a).

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22 10 Noxious haze in 2019 also disrupted business and tourism activities in the three
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24 11 countries. A number of flights had to be cancelled, delayed, and diverted due to an extremely
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26 12 poor visibility (The Straits Times 2019). Revenue from tourism experienced a significant
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28 13 decrease as both local and foreign tourists were reluctant to visit haze affected areas (Chin
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30 14 2019).

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33 15 The 2019 fires also affected the global environment. In November 2019, it is estimated
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35 16 that burning Indonesian forests emitted ~700 million tons of CO₂ (Rusmana 2019). Not only
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37 17 does this figure exceed Canada’s annual carbon emissions, it is also 22% higher than the
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39 18 emissions from Amazonian fires during the same period (Rusmana 2019). With such a
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41 19 significant volume of emissions, the Indonesian fires could impede the realization of Paris
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43 20 agreement, to which Indonesia is a signatory (Jong 2019b).

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45 21 While the 2019 Indonesian fires are very concerning, they are nothing new. Indonesia
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47 22 has grappled with forest and peat fires since the 1990s (Dennis 1999). Research suggests that
48
49 23 the problem is rooted in the irresponsible practice of clearing land with fire (Tacconi 2016;
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51 24 Wijedasa et al. 2017). Multiple stakeholders, ranging from small-scale farmers to large

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59 25 agribusiness corporations, use fire to prepare cash crop plantations (e.g., palm oil) in
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61 26 fragmented and degraded forest (Cattau et al. 2016; Gaveau et al. 2017). As a result, fire often
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64 27 escapes the intended boundaries and spreads out uncontrollably.

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66 28 The Indonesian government has pursued a series of measures to prevent future fires
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68 29 (Jefferson et al. 2020). For example, in 2015, the government introduced a strict ban on any
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70 30 use of fire for land clearing (Thung 2018). In many cases, offenders receive fines or jail time.
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72 31 For traditional farmers, however, the banning of fire for land clearing may undermine their
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74 32 livelihood and food security.

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76 33 For millennia, fire has been an integral part of subsistence farming within Indonesian
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78 34 traditional farmers (MacKinnon et al. 2013; Padoch et al. 2007). These farmers have used fire
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80 35 to clear small plots of farmland from felled vegetation, dangerous weeds, and pests (Henley
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82 36 2011). They have also used fire to generate natural fertilizer in the form of ashes and to
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84 37 reduce peat land's acidity (Fox 2000). Yet, this local reality is not incorporated into the
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86 38 national ban (Jefferson et al. 2020). As such, traditional farmers on mineral and peat soils are
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88 39 relevant to defining policy responses to peat and land fires, even when they are not the
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90 40 agents of the peat fires themselves. Distinguishing between stakeholders and their practices
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92 41 of fire use and management could help to inform more targeted and nuanced policy
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94 42 responses and avoid the harms created by prohibitive responses and blanket bans
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96 43 (Carmenta, Coudel, and Steward 2018; Cramb et al. 2009; Thung 2018)

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101 45 Distinguishing stakeholders is especially paramount given that the Indonesian
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103 46 government always ascribes responsibility to local communities (Meehan, Tacconi, and
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105 47 Budiningsih 2019). Fire tends to be associated with a lack of community knowledge and/or
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107 48 failure to react once it happens. Recently, a village-level incentive scheme, run by

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115 49 agribusinesses and pulp-paper companies tend to put an extra burden on subsistence
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117 50 farmers (Watts et al. 2019). While participating villages receive funding, local farmers are
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119 51 forced to cease their subsistence farming. Thus, the scheme is rather an extension of the fire
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121 52 ban. Together with local governments and law enforcement agencies, the scheme focuses
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123 53 on “the dissemination of information on the sanctions for non-compliance” (Watts et al.
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125 54 2019:10).

128 55 To understand the practice of clearing land through burning at local level, this study
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130 56 examines psychological mechanisms underlying individuals’ intention to perform the
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132 57 practice. We employ three theoretical psychological models to examine the factors that
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134 58 motivate the intention. These models are the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), Norm
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136 59 Activation Model (NAM), and a hybridized model of the two. For purposes of identification
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138 60 and differentiation, the intention to clear land using fire is hereafter referred to as ‘burning
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140 61 intention’ and the actual practice is referred to as ‘burning behavior’. We believe that
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142 62 studying the psychological factors underpinning burning intentions and burning behaviors
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144 63 among subsistence farmers will prove useful in helping to develop more nuanced and
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146 64 effective policies designed to prevent future forest and peat fires.

151 66 152 67 **1.1. Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)**

155 68 The TPB posits that a person’s intention to behave in a particular way is the most
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157 69 proximal determinant of a given behavior. Behavioral intention, in turn, is shaped by: (1)
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159 70 attitudes toward the behavior (ATB); (2) perceived subjective norms (SN); and (3) perceived
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161 71 behavioral control (PBC). Designed from a ‘rational choice’ perspective—where people act
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163 72 to maximize personal utility—ATB are theorized to stem from an assessment of whether

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171 73 personal outcomes from performing a behavior will be personally beneficial or detrimental.
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173 74 SN are typically operationalized as a combination of: (a) an individual's beliefs about
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175 75 whether significant others would like him/her to act in an attitude-consistent way; and (b)
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177 76 his/her motivations to comply with significant others' expectations. PBC is an individual's
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179 77 perception of his/her ability, opportunity, and motivation to engage in attitude-consistent
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181 78 behavior and to control the behavioral outcomes.

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184 79 Many studies have used the TPB as a framework for explaining various types of
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186 80 environmentally significant behavior, such as transport choice (e.g., cycling, walking) and
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188 81 consumption practices (e.g., recycling, purchasing sustainable apparel) (Ayob, Low, and Jalil
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190 82 2017; Chang and Watchravesringkan 2018; Mahmud and Osman 2010). Due to the
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192 83 environmental consequences associated with the practice, burning behavior can be
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194 84 categorized as environmentally significant behavior and thus the TPB should be a useful
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196 85 framework for understanding this behavior. Indeed, several studies have already utilized
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198 86 the TPB to model burning intentions. For example, Bright and Burtz (2006) suggest that
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200 87 subjective norms correlate significantly with burning intention. In another example, Bates,
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202 88 Quick and Kloss (2009) describe perceived behavioral control as having a significant impact
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204 89 on the intention.

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207 90 While revealing partial support for the TPB as a model of burning intention, the
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209 91 existing studies also raise questions about the sufficiency of the basic model in this
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211 92 behavioral context. Prior research indicates that adding predictors, such as past behavior,
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213 93 can improve the explanatory power of the TPB (Gifford and Nilsson 2014). This study,
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215 94 therefore, incorporates an individual's engagement with the practice of clearing land with
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217 95 fire in the past, hereafter referred to as 'past burning behavior' (PBB).

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227 96 In sum, the TPB, as a model of planned action, is an established framework for
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229 97 explaining the deliberative and self-serving motivations that may underpin a person's
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231 98 behavioral intentions. While evidence for the TPB's ability to explain burning intention
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233 99 remains inconclusive, it provides a sound theoretical lens for investigating peoples'
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235 100 intentions to engage in this practice in Indonesia.
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240 102 **1.2. Norm Activation Model (NAM)**

242 103 In the current study, we also investigate the NAM's sufficiency as a model of burning
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244 104 intention. According to the NAM, pro-social behavioral intentions tend to be primed when
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246 105 a person's moral or personal norms (PN) become active. PN are, in essence, personal
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248 106 commitments derived from internalized normative values and are experienced as feelings
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250 107 of moral obligation to act in a particular way (Schwartz 1977; Schwartz and Howard 1981).
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252 108 For PN to become active—and hence exert influence on behavior—two conditions must be
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254 109 met. An individual must be aware of the negative consequences of a given behavior for
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256 110 others and/or the environment (awareness of consequences; AC); and s/he must accept
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258 111 some personal responsibility for causing those negative consequences. In other words, the
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260 112 NAM asserts that it is an awareness of consequences (AC) combined with the absence of
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262 113 responsibility denial (RD) that activates PN, which in turn motivates people's intention to
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264 114 act in a morally consistent way.
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267 115 While originally developed as a theoretical framework for understanding altruism,
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269 116 the NAM has been used more widely to look at environmentally significant behaviors,
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271 117 including in relation to some forms of burning behavior. For example, Van Liere and Dunlap
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273 118 (1978) demonstrated that awareness of consequences and responsibility denial shaped
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275 119 people's intention to burn household waste in backyards. This finding served as evidence
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283 120 that personal norms were activated and influenced by the relationships between an
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285 121 individual's awareness of the consequences, sense of personal responsibility, and burning
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287 intention.
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290 123 In sum, the NAM is another theoretical model that is commonly utilized to
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292 124 understand environmentally significantly behavior, and one which has been used previously
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294 125 in relation to burning behavior. On these grounds we believe that the NAM could prove
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296 126 useful in modeling burning intentions among our intended target population.
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300 128 301 302 129 303 304 130 305 306 131 **1.3. The Hybridized Model**

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308 132 In addition to individual applications of the TPB and the NAM, there are attempts
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310 to develop and test hybridized models that draw simultaneously upon the constructs of
311 133 both models (see Abrahamse and Steg 2009; Cordano, Welcomer, Scherer, Pradenas, and
312 134 Parada 2011; Zhang et al. 2018, for further review). Such a hybridization of rational choice
315 135 and pro-social models is perhaps logical as environmentally significant behaviors are
316 136 arguably derived from a mixture of self-interest and pro-social motives (see Bamberg and
317 137 Möser 2007, for a review). Furthermore, research shows that the incorporation of pro-social
321 138 constructs (e.g., moral norms) into the TPB can increase its explanatory power for certain
322 139 environmentally significant behaviors by up to 10% (Harland, Staats, and Wilke 1999).
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327 141 We argue that a hybridized model might be superior in explaining burning intention,
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329 142 relative to either the TPB or the NAM. This is because subsistence farmers are likely
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331 143 contending with dual pressures: the need to meet their personal interests (e.g., maintaining
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339 144 their livelihood), and to abide the top-down, environmentally-grounded public policy. A
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341 145 core focus of the current study is, thus, to generate and test a hybrid model of burning
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343 146 intention, that combines the core principles of the TPB and the NAM alongside past burning
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345 147 behavior (PBB).
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356 152 **2. Method**

358 153 **2.1. Participants and recruitment**

360 154 While multiple groups of actors are guilty of using burning behavior in Indonesia
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362 155 (including oil palm concessionaires and agribusiness), we focus on small-scale peat- and
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364 156 mineral-soil¹ subsistence farmers residing in four villages in Central Kalimantan and Riau
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366 157 provinces, Indonesia. These provinces are selected as they have experienced extensive forest
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368 158 and peat fires in recent years (Harris et al. 2015; Sloan et al. 2017). We employed a purposive
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370 159 sampling technique and snowball sampling to target prospective participants. We
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372 160 approached participants and asked whether they have engaged in burning behavior. If so,
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374 161 we then asked whether they would be willing to participate in the study and to identify
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376 162 other potential participants.
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379 163 A total of 151 questionnaires were completed following visits to 180 homes (84%
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381 164 response rate). The final cohort of participants consisted of 124 Males (82.1%) and 27
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386 ¹ Although most of the escape fires were born from peat soil farming, we did not find any direct influence of
387 different soil types on burning intention.
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395 165 Females (17.9%), whose ages range from 18 to 75 years ($M = 38.39$, $SD = 14.00$). Regarding
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397 166 education level, 3% of the sample had never been to primary school, 37% had completed
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399 167 primary education, 23% had completed junior high school, 31% had graduated from senior
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401 168 high school, and 6% had a college degree. Ethical approval was obtained from Psychology
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403 169 Department, Lancaster University, UK, and Center for International Forestry Research
404
405 170 (CIFOR), Indonesia.
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410 172 **2.2. Procedure**

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412 173 We approached prospective participants at their homes and gave them an
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414 174 information sheet containing an explanation about the nature of this study, their role in the
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416 175 study, and the contact details of the lead author (Note: all information is provided in
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418 176 Indonesian). We informed them that the study is designed to understand their experiences
419
420 177 of, and reasons for, engaging in burning behavior. To participate, we required participants
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422 178 to be at least 18 years old. After consenting to participate in this study, participants were
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424 179 presented with a paper-based questionnaire written in Indonesian. The questionnaire
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426 180 comprised the key components of the TPB and the NAM, and past burning behavior. We
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428 181 also included basic demographic questions, such as sex, age, and educational attainment.
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430 182 After completing the survey, participants were fully debriefed and given a small monetary
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432 183 payment (Rp 100,000 or equivalent to ~£ 5) as a gesture of thanks for their time.
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435 184 **2.3. Measures**

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437 185 All measures outlined below utilized a five-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1
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439 186 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), unless otherwise stated. Items relating to the core
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441 187 explanatory variables were created by adapting those from cognate studies. The measures
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443 188 were piloted on an opportunity sample of 72 undergraduate students (studying at a
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451 189 university in Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia) before use with our target
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453 190 population. Pilot participants completed the measures and provided qualitative feedback to
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455 191 the research team. The measures were then modified, as appropriate, based on feedback
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457 192 from this piloting activity.
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461 462 194 **2.3.1. Awareness of consequences (AC)**

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464 195 Eight-items (adapted after De Groot and Steg 2009; Hine, Marks, Nachreiner,
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466 196 Gifford, and Heights 2007; Onwezen et al. 2013; Steg and de Groot 2010) registered
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468 197 respondents' awareness of the negative implications of burning behavior (e.g., "Smoke from
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470 198 the burning land poses threat to young children in my neighborhood", and "Burning the
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472 199 land can effectively clean the land from destructive weeds and insects" (reverse coded)).
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474 200 Responses from these 8 items were averaged to generate a composite index of awareness of
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476 201 consequence ($\alpha = .83$).
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478 479 202 **2.3.2. Responsibility Denial (RD)**

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481 203 Three-items (adapted after Onwezen et al., 2013; Van Liere & Dunlap, 1978) assessed
482
483 204 respondents' denial of responsibility for causing the negative consequences of burning
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485 205 behavior (e.g., "I do not directly feel responsible for the impact of using fire for land
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487 206 clearance" and "I must take responsibility for the impact of using fire for land clearance"
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489 207 (reverse coded)). Responses from these items were averaged to generate a composite index
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491 208 of responsibility denial ($\alpha = .52$). This index was rather an improved one. We calculated
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493 209 Cronbach's alphas using the 'scale if item deleted' option and removed two items that did
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495 210 not improve the scale (i.e., "The Government must take responsibility for the impact of using
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497 211 fire for land clearance because they do not provide me with other alternative" and "Using fire
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507 212 for land clearance should be allowed because there is no other way to clear land from
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509 213 destructive weeds, insects and to generate nutrient for the soil”).

511 214 512 513 514 215 515 516 216 **2.3.3. Personal norms (PN)**

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518 217 Three-items (adapted after Harland, Staats & Wilke, 1999; Onwezen et al., 2013)
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520 218 assessed respondents' sense of normative moral pressure to cease burning behavior (i.e., “I
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522 219 feel a moral obligation to protect the forest”, “I do not feel morally obliged to stop clearing
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524 220 land with fire” (reverse coded) and “I feel guilty when I clear land using fire”). Responses to
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526 221 the questions were averaged to create a composite index of personal norms ($\alpha = .45$). We
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528 222 tried to increase this index value by removing one or two items from the PN scale only
529
530 223 resulted in even lower alpha value. In addition, excluding two items from the measure will
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532 224 result in a single-item measure. Using a single-item measure is a risky decision in most
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534
535 225 empirical settings (Diamantopoulos et al. 2012).

536 537 226 **2.3.4. Attitudes toward burning behavior (ATB)**

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539 227 Five-items (adapted after Harland, Staats & Wilke, 1999) assessed respondents'
540
541 228 overall positive or negative beliefs about toward burning behavior (e.g., “In general using
542
543 229 fire to clear land is good” and “In general using fire to clear land is bad” (reversed coded)).
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545 230 The responses were averaged to form a composite index of attitudes toward burning
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547
548 231 behavior ($\alpha = .74$).

549 550 232 **2.3.5. Subjective norms (SN)**

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552 233 Four-items (adapted after Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) assessed participants' perceptions
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554 234 of social support (or opposition) for engaging in burning behavior (e.g., “My family supports
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556 235 my decision to clear land using fire” and “My fellow farmers do not support my decision to
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236 clear land using fire” (reversed coded)). The responses were averaged to yield in a composite
237 index of subjective norms ($\alpha = .86$).

2.3.6. Perceived behavioral control (PBC)

239 Five-items (adapted after Clement et al., 2014; Ajzen & Madden, 1986) assessed
240 respondents’ confidence in their abilities to engage in burning behavior (e.g., “If I want, I
241 can clear the land with fire when the cropping season is about to come” and “For me,
242 clearing land with fire is not easy” (reverse coded)). Answers to the questions were then
243 averaged to form a composite index of perceived behavioral control ($\alpha = .66$). Similar to the
244 case of RD, the index is an enhanced one. We calculated Cronbach’s alphas using the ‘scale
245 if item deleted’ option and took out two items that did not improve the scaleb (i.e., “I have
246 the freedom to stop burning the land” and “For me, stop burning the land is easy”) to increase
247 the scale reliability of the measure of perceived behavioral control.

2.3.7. Burning intention (BI)

249 Respondents’ intentions to engage in burning behavior were assessed using two
250 items (adapted after Ajzen & Madden, 1986) (i.e., “I intend to use fire for clearing land” and
251 “I do not intend to use fire for clearing land” (reverse coded)). The averaged responses led
252 to a composite index of burning intentions ($\alpha = .72$).

2.3.8. Past burning behavior (PBB)

254 A single item (adapted after Harland, Staats & Wilke, 1999) assessed respondents’
255 past burning behavior (i.e., “Over the past three years, how frequently have you used fire
256 for clearing land?”). Response options to this question range from 1 (never) to 5 (always).

3. Results

In general, our hierarchical regression indicates the potentials of hybridized model for explaining burning behavior within our sample. In particular, awareness or consequences, attitudes toward burning behavior, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, and past burning behavior were found to be the underlying factors of burning intention. Our findings are summarized in the table 1. We also examined correlations of the TPB, the NAM, and the Demographic variables along with burning intention and past burning behavior (see table 2).

Table 1. Summary of hierarchical regression analysis for variables predicting burning intentions (N = 151)

Variables	TPB		TPB & PBB		NAM		Hybrid Model	
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ATB	.34**	.34**	-	.32**	
	4.26	4.28		3.51	
PBC	.21**	.20**	-	.17*	2.28
	2.79	2.67			
SN	.22**	.18*	-	.22**	
	2.66	2.28		2.75	
PBB	-	.17**	-	.19**	
		2.63		2.92	
AC	-	-	-.33**	-.01	-
			-4.09	.11	
RD	-	-	-.13	-	
			-1.05		
PN	-	-	-.08	-	
			-.96		
Age	-	-	-	.16*	2.44
Adjusted	.38	.40	.11	.42	
R^2					
F	31.19**	26.06**	7.01	18.85**	

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ATB= Attitudes Toward Burning Behavior, PBC= Perceived Behavioral Control; SN= Subjective Norms; PBB= Past Burning Behavior; AC= Awareness of Consequence; RD= Responsibility Denial; PN= Personal Norms

Table 2. Correlations among variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 AC											
2 ATB	-.60**										
3 RD	-.11	.12									
4 PBC	-.19*	.46**	.17*								
5 Education	-.02	.14	-.02	.1							
6 Sex	.04	.1	-.08	.09	.13						
7 Age	.15	-.02	.03	.07	-.06	.07					
8 PBB	-.24**	.18*	-.15	.18*	.14	.15	-.16*				

9	BI	-.33**	.55**	-.05	.45**	.1	.17*	.09	.31**		
10	SN	-.35**	.54**	.17*	.42**	.07	.07	-.18*	.26**	.49**	
11	PN	.25**	-.26**	-.43**	-.21**	-.05	.1	.19*	-.06	-.11	-.34**

Note. N= 151. *p < .05; **p < .01

3.1. Demographic variables

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine whether burning intentions are significantly predicted by three demographic (control) variables (i.e., age, sex and educational level). Controlling for all predictors in TPB, NAM and PBB, the results showed that age predicts burning intentions, $\beta = .16$, $t(140) = 2.38$, $p < .05$, whereas sex, $\beta = .06$, $t(140) = 1.00$, $p = .32$, educational level, $\beta = .00$, $t(140) = .06$, $p = .95$, do not. This might relate to the fact that burning behavior is more ingrained within older farmers and that their children are less invested in the behavior.

3.2. TPB and PBB

A hierarchical-multiple regression analysis with a stepwise selection was performed to examine whether all variables of TPB and PBB predict burning intention. In step 1, ATB, PBC, and SN were entered into the equation as independent variables. The results showed that all predictors in TPB explain a significant proportion of variance in burning intention (39%), adjusted $R^2 = .38$, $F(3, 147) = 31.19$, $p < .01$. Specifically, ATB, $\beta = .34$, $t(147) = 4.26$, $p < .01$, PBC, $\beta = .21$, $t(147) = 2.79$, $p < .01$, and SN, $\beta = .22$, $t(147) = 2.66$, $p < .01$. PBB was then included in step 2. The proportion of variance in burning intention increased to 42%, adjusted $R^2 = .40$, $F(4, 146) = 26.06$, $p < .01$, and the increase was significant, $F(1, 146) = 6.91$, $p < .01$. PBB was found to be a positive predictor of burning intention, $\beta = .17$, $t(146) = 2.63$, $p < .01$. These findings support the application of TPB to explain burning intention in the current research context.

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787 313 **3.3. NAM**
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789 314 Results from a multiple regression showed that AC, $\beta = .21$, $t(148) = 2.84$, $p < .01$, and
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791 RD, $\beta = -.40$, $t(148) = -5.53$, $p < .01$, predict PN. Another multiple regression analysis showed
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793 that these variables explain a significant proportion of variance in burning intention (13%),
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795 adjusted $R^2 = .11$, $F(3, 147) = 7.01$, $p < .01$. AC negatively predicts burning intention when
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797 RD and PN are controlled for, $\beta = -.33$, $t(147) = -4.09$, $p < .01$. However, RD does not predict
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799 burning intention when AC and PN are controlled for, $\beta = -.13$, $t(147) = -1.50$, $p = .14$. PN
800 319
801 does not predict burning intention when AC and RD are controlled for, $\beta = -.08$, $t(147) = -$
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803 $.96$, $p = .342$. This finding indicated that PN is not a significant mediator of the relationship
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805 between AC, RD and burning intention.
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813 325 **3.4. Hybrid model**
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815 326 Since prior analyses confirmed AC and all constructs in TPB (plus PBB) significantly
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817 327 predict burning intentions, we then entered these variables, into a single model as
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819 328 independent variables. Age was included as a control variable in the model because it was
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821 329 found to be a significant predictor of burning intention in the demographic regression
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823 330 analysis. The regression model explained 44% of the variance in burning intention, adjusted
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825 $R^2 = .42$, $F(6, 144) = 18.85$, $p < .01$. ATB, $\beta = .32$, $t(144) = 3.51$, $p < .01$, PBC, $\beta = .17$, $t(144) = 2.28$,
826 331
827 $p < .05$, SN, $\beta = .22$, $t(144) = 2.75$, $p < .01$, and PBB, $\beta = .19$, $t(144) = 2.92$, $p < .01$, predict burning
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835 ² When the relationship between each PN item and burning intention was analyzed separately, results were similar
836 (all $ps > .05$).
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intention. AC was not retained as a significant predictor of burning intention in the model, $\beta = -.01$, $t(144) = -.11$, $p = .91$.

We then ran a mediation analysis to determine which TPB variable(s) might have mediated the impact of AC on burning intention. We employed PROCESS model number 4, with 5000 bootstrap (see Preacher and Hayes 2008 for a review), to analyze the indirect effect of AC on burning intention via ATB, SN and PBC (controlling for age, PN, RD and PBB). There was a significant indirect effect of AC on burning intentions via ATB, boot indirect effect = $-.22$, $SE = .07$, $95\% CI = -.3701, -.1018$ and SN, boot indirect effect = $-.07$, $SE = .03$, $95\% CI = -.1609, -.0213$. However, there was no significant indirect effect of AC on burning intentions via PBC, boot indirect effect = $-.03$, $SE = .03$, $95\% CI = -.1214, .0106$ (see Figure 1).

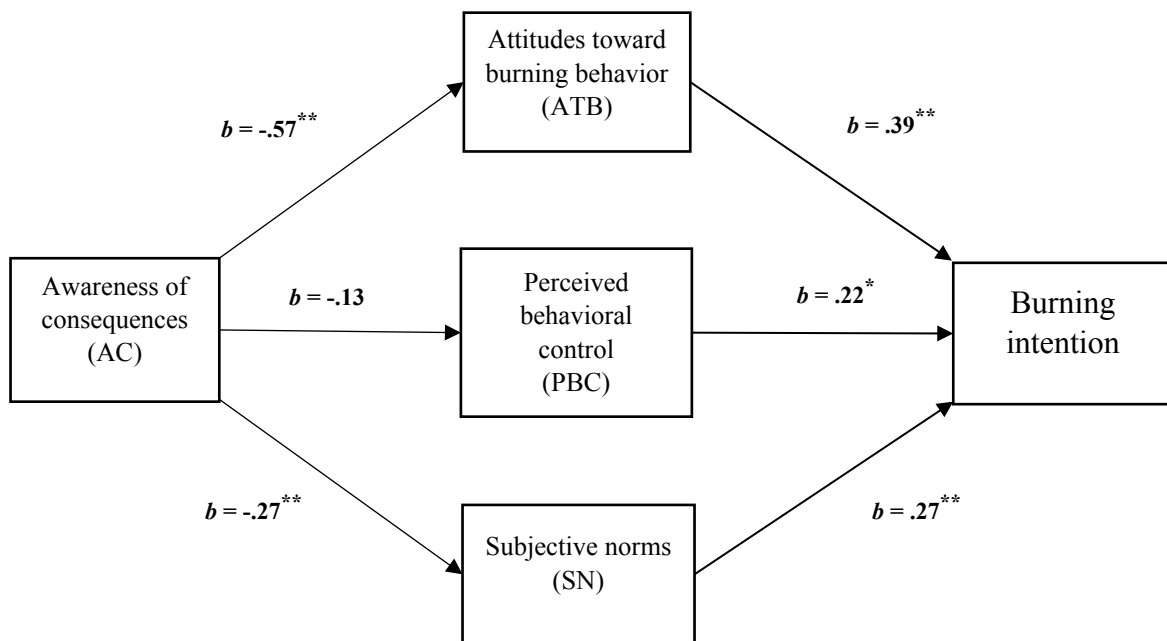
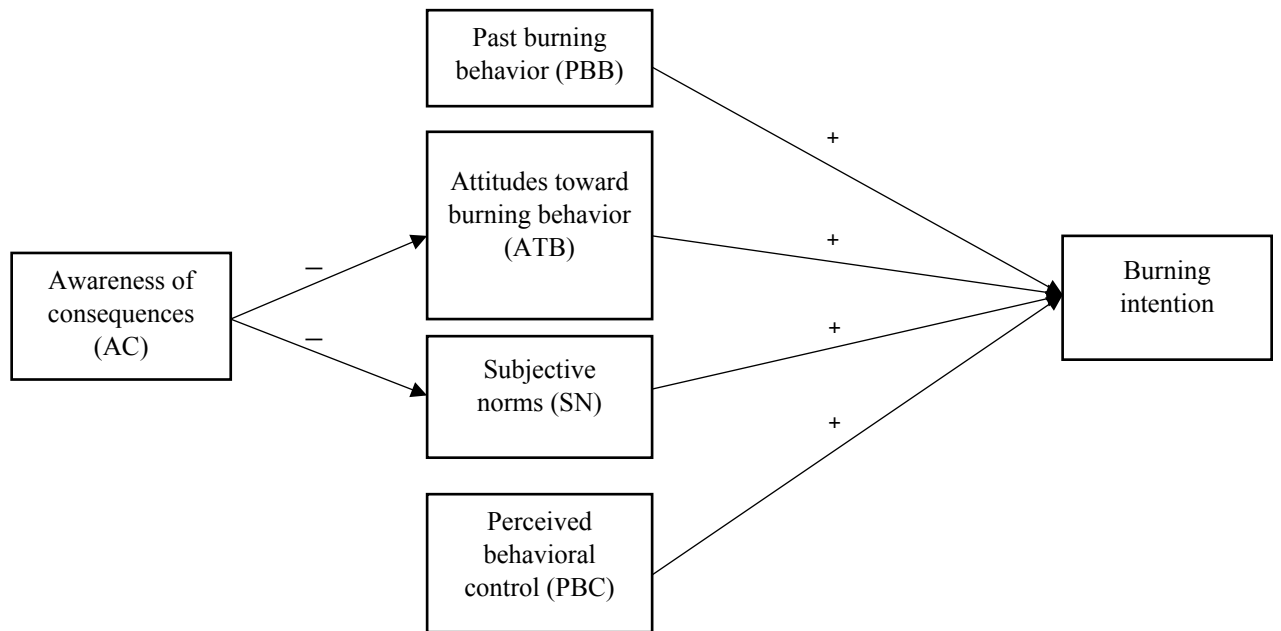


Figure 1. The relationship between AC and burning intention via ATB, PBC, and SN

4. Discussion

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 898
 899 347 This study applies the TPB (Ajzen, 1991), incorporating a measure of past burning
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 901 348 behavior, the NAM (Schwartz, 1977), and a hybridization of both theories, to investigate
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 903 349 psychological factors underlying burning intention within a sample of small-scale farmers
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 905 350 in Riau and Central Kalimantan provinces, Indonesia. Figure 2 depicts the optimal (hybrid)
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 907 351 theoretical model of burning intention derived from the current study.
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930 353
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 932 354 **Figure 2.** A hybrid theoretical model of burning intention among small-scale farmers in
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 935 355 Indonesia.
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 939 357 Contrasting the strengths of TPB and NAM, our findings favor a hybridized model.
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 941 358 This hybridized model combines the core components of the TPB, with past burning
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 943 359 behavior (PBB) and awareness of consequences (AC) from the NAM. All of the key
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 945 360 constructs of the TPB significantly predict burning intention, and thus this theory provides
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 947 361 the basis for our hybridized model. The model explained (44%), which is broadly consistent
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362 with findings of other studies using the TPB to understand environmentally significant
363 behavior (see Staats, 2003). In contrast, we identify only partial support for the NAM.
364 Although awareness of consequences and responsibility denial activate personal norms, the
365 norms do not predict burning intention.

366 The superior explanatory power of the TPB constructs is, perhaps, to be expected due
367 to the motivations behind burning behavior within our sample. Burning behavior can aid
368 the success of subsistence agriculture (Conklin 1957; Dove 1983; Ellen 2012). Kleinman,
369 Pimentel and Bryant (1995) suggest that burning can enhance soil fertility, while Henley
370 (2011) emphasizes the importance of frequent and repeated burning of farmland to prevent
371 the succession of destructive vegetation. Moreover, burning behavior has a long history
372 within small-scale farming communities in Indonesia (Dove 1983; Padoch et al. 2007). Thus,
373 burning behavior is commonly practiced among this population (Trihadmojo 2016), and is
374 something that is under the control of famers and likely to yield personal benefits (e.g.
375 increased crop yields). These are all factors that are congruent with rational choice models
376 of behavior, like the TPB.

377 Our findings on the effect of attitudes toward burning behavior, perceived behavioral
378 control, subjective norms on burning intention are corroborated by previous research that
379 use TPB to understand farmer-nature relations. For example, Mastrangelo et al. (2014:107)
380 demonstrate that the TPB have “the highest degree of fit and parsimony”, which can explain
381 farmers’ intention to conserve remnants forest. Relatedly, Adnan, Nordin, and bin Abu
382 Bakar (2017) show that the TPB explains a significant variance in paddy farmers’ intention
383 to engage with sustainable agricultural practices. In another example, Ward, Holmes, and
384 Stringer (2018) suggest that the TPB can reveal factors underlying individuals’ decision to
385 participate in a forest conservation strategy.

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1010
1011 386 Research also suggests that attitudes and intentions have a rather direct
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1013 387 relationship. For example, Poppenborg and Koellner (2013:428) show that farmers' decision
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1015 388 "to plant perennial crops are significantly influenced by high attitudes toward ecosystem
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1017 services". Similarly, Deng et al. (2016) suggest that farmers' attitudes toward ecological
1018 389 conservation defines their intention to engage in a conservation intervention. In another
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1020 390 example, Sood and Mitchell (2004) note that attitudes toward agroforestry as an important
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1022 391 socio-psychological factor for farmers' decision to participate in agroforestry practices.
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1026 393 Taken together, we argue that farmers' immediate interests in securing their
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1028 394 livelihoods and wellbeing take precedence over more diffuse—regional, national or global—
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1030 395 considerations of environmental preservation. In essence, farmers' burning intention is
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1032 396 largely self-interested, aligning it nicely with the core principles of the TPB. This is a good
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1034 397 model of behavior in situations where people are seeking to maximize their personal utility
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1036 398 (e.g., Abrahamse et al., 2009; Bamberg, Fujii, Friman, & Gärling, 2011). By contrast, the
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1038 399 NAM—and related models like Value-Belief-Norm (e.g., Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano, &
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1040 400 Kalof, 1999)—are arguably superior in explaining behaviors where personal utility is as less
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1042 401 prominent consideration (e.g., Steg & Vlek, 2009). That said, the optimal model of burning
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1044 402 intention generated within our study (Figure 2), was firmly based on the incorporation of
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1046 403 the awareness of consequences into the TPB.

1049 404 The incorporation of awareness of consequences is consistent with previous research
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1051 405 suggesting that a knowledge of the consequences of one's actions can influence attitudes
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1053 406 toward environmentally significant behaviors (Flamm 2009; Kaiser, Wölfling, and Fuhrer
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1055 407 1999) and perceived social norms (Bamberg and Möser 2007). Importantly, the negative
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1057 408 relationships between awareness of consequences and respondents' attitudes toward
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1059 409 burning behavior and subjective norms identifies key routes through which pro-burning

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1067 410 attitudes, norms, and intentions can be modified. For example, this finding highlights the
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1069 411 potential for informational interventions (e.g., educational campaigns) to raise people's
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1071 412 awareness of the wider consequences of burning behavior as a means of addressing this
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1073
1074 413 problem behavior within our study context (Steg and Vlek 2009).

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1076 414 An equally important finding in this study is the positive relationship between past
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1078 415 burning behavior and future burning intention. We argue that this can perhaps be partially
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1080 416 explained by the *feedback effect* (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975); i.e. where previous experiences
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1082 417 of engaging in a behavior shape a person's behavioral, normative, and control beliefs relating
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1084 418 to that behavior. Perhaps farmers who have engaged in burning behavior may consider the
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1086 419 behavior normal (Reid 2016). This is plausible as we measured reported burning behavior
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1088 420 that has happened. The fact that burning behavior is rather common within our sample may
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1090 421 also contribute to the feedback effect (Harland et al. 1999).

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1093 422 As Ajzen (1991) notes, subjective norm is the perceived social expectation or pressure
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1095 423 to exhibit certain behavior. The norm reflects how individuals' belief on whether relevant
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1097 424 others expect them to perform certain behavior in any given time. In this view, perceived
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1099 425 normative pressure affect one's intention to perform a behavior. For example, Borges et al.
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1101 426 (2014) note farmers' perceptions about social expectation to use improved natural grassland
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1103 427 was correlated with their intention to use the grassland. Following this logic, it is possible
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1105 428 that the positive impact of the subjective norm on burning behavior was caused by our
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1107 429 respondents' perception that clearing land through burning during planting system is
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1109 430 socially desirable.

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1112 431 The positive effect of perceived behavioral control on burning intention stems from
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1114 432 famers' confidence to control the outcomes of clearing land through burning. In their study
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1116 433 on the use of improved natural grassland, Borges et al. (2014:22) describe "sufficient

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1123 434 knowledge, sufficient skills, and availability of qualified technical assistance” as the drivers
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1125 435 of perceived behavioral control, that have positive effect on farmers’ intention to use the
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1127 436 grassland. It, therefore, is reasonable to suggest that our respondents’ knowledge and skills
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1129 437 pertaining to their subsistence farming may explain the effect of perceived behavioral
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1131 438 control on burning behavior. Also, our respondents live in close-knit community in the rural
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1133 439 Indonesian forest. During planting season, land preparation and crop planting are carried
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1135 440 out collectively (MacKinnon et al. 2013; Mertz et al. 2009). Every household shares the burden
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1137 441 of clearing land and contributes to each other’s planting.

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1139 442 While one must not assume that the presence and/or persistence of burning behavior
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1141 443 stems solely from a position of ignorance about its wider consequences (e.g., Sturgis &
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1143 444 Allum, 2004), concerted efforts to work with small-scale farmers and their families to raise
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1145 445 their awareness of these consequences—and how to mitigate them—could offer a promising
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1147 446 pathway toward more sustainable fire management. However, such efforts would need to
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1149 447 be complemented by support systems to access alternative farming practices or means of
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1151 448 production and livelihood (Watts et al. 2019). We argue that a useful next step in this
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1153 449 research would be to conduct a more detailed appraisal of farmers’ attitudes and norms in
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1155 450 order to investigate: (a) the extent to which farmers are aware of the diverse negative
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1157 451 consequences of burning behavior; and (b) how such awareness might be augmented (e.g.,
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1159 452 through education programs) to change attitudes, norms and intentions.

1160 453 **5. Limitations and Directions for Future Research**

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1162 454 While this study offers fresh insight into the psychological factors behind
1163
1164 455 burning intention in Indonesia, there are several limitations to the study design. These
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1166 456 limitations present avenues for future research. This research was restricted in scope due to
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1168 457 the available time and resource, which limits us to a one-off, cross-sectional survey design.

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1179 458 A cross-sectional design provides only a snapshot of burning intention at one time-point,
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1181 459 whereas a longitudinal design could identify the dynamics associated with a given
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1183 460 phenomenon over time (see Levin, 2006). Future research could usefully employ a
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1185 461 longitudinal design to investigate the relative (in-)stability of perceptions of burning
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1187 462 behavior within a farming community across a given farming season(s). In doing so, one
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1189 463 would have the opportunity to investigate how external influences (e.g., seasonal forest and
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1191 464 land fires, implementation of legislation, etc.) affect the internal character of farmers (e.g.,
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1193 465 their beliefs, attitudes, norms and intentions) as well as to observe actual behaviors within
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1195 466 the population over time.

1198 467 A second limitation is that we assessed behavioral intention as opposed to an actual
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1200 468 behavior. Although the TPB and the hybrid model may indicate correlation between burning
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1202 469 intention and the actual burning behavior, the intention-behavior gap remain an commonly
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1204 470 reported phenomenon in psychological research (see Sheeran, 2002). This phenomenon
1205
1206 471 points to inconsistencies in people's stated intentions and their actual behaviors (see
1207
1208 472 Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002).

1211 473 Another limitation in this study is that we did not fully conform to the Target, Action,
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1213 474 Context, and Time (TACT) criteria when operationalizing the items relating to the TPB
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1215 475 constructs (Ajzen 2002). In particular, our items were not timebound. For example, we did
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1217 476 not specify a timescale for future burning intention (e.g. burning intention in the next year,
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1219 477 or five years, or ten years, etc.). Thus, future research needs to be mindful of Ajzen's (2002)
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1221 478 TACT criteria when creating TPB-based surveys to assess burning behavior, including being
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1223 479 specific about the timescales over which the behavior is to be considered.

1226 480 A final limitation of this study concerns on the use of self-report methodology. While
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1228 481 questionnaire-based surveys are commonplace, this method is particularly problematic in

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1235 482 relation to controversial topics, such as burning behavior. Social desirability bias might
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1237 483 possibly influenced participants' responses (Crowne and Marlowe 1964), especially where
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1239 484 the survey is distributed and collected in person (e.g., Robson & Kieran, 2016)— affecting
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1241 survey scores (Huang, Liao, and Chang 1998). Therefore, we suggest that future research
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1243 assess the extent to which people wish to present themselves in socially desirable manner
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1245 (e.g., Ray, 1984), so this bias can be controlled for in the analysis and higher rate of reliability
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1247 and validity can be established.
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1250 489 1251 1252 490 **6. Conclusion** 1253

1254 491 This study explains psychological factors behind intention to engage in burning
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1256 492 behavior within small-scale farmers in Indonesia. The findings identify that an augmented
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1258 493 version of the TPB, as opposed to the NAM, was a good model to explain burning intention.
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1260 494 These findings reflect the primacy of self-interested motivations (e.g., food provision) over
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1262 495 wider pro-environmental concern in driving this behavior. That said, the retention of
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1264 496 awareness of consequences in our model (as an indirect antecedent of behavioral intention)
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1266 497 hints that efforts to increase farmers' awareness of the negative consequences of burning
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1268 498 behavior could be a means of intervening on this problem behavior. On this basis, we argue
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1270 499 that targeted education alongside structural strategies for changing behavior (e.g., the
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1272 500 provision of finance and/or alternative means of land clearing) could present an effective
1273
1274 501 means of modifying burning behavior and reducing the risk of forest and peat fires.
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1276 502

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1319 519

1320 1321 520 **9. Conflict of Interest**

1322
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1327 523 **10. Reference**

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Bambang Trihadmojo: Conceptualization, Methodology, Data collection, Preparing original draft. **Christopher Jones:** Writing, Reviewing, and Editing. **Bramesada Prasastyoga:** Data analyses and Editing. **Chris Walton:** Supervision. **Ahmad Sulaiman:** Reviewing and Editing.