

Evaluating the influence of nature connection and values on conservation attitudes at a tropical deforestation frontier.

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Keywords:	nature connection, values, conservation attitudes, farmers, Amazon, tropical forests, wildlife tolerance, motivations
Abstract:	<p>The inner-outer perspective emerging in sustainability science reasons that there are important relationships between features of the external world and inner qualities of individuals, such as values, emotions, and worldviews. Thus, personal motivations for pursuing sustainability may be critical levers for improving conservation outcomes. Most conservation research and policies, however, focus on external phenomena (e.g., ecological change, economic processes, or social structures). There is also a pervasive assumption that biospheric conservation motivations are rare in the Global South, but empirical data remain scarce. We conducted 241 quantitative surveys, complemented with qualitative insights, to assess the relative importance of external factors (socio-economic, socio-demographic, and environmental) and inner motivations in shaping 9 conservation attitudes towards forest and wildlife protection among colonist farmers around an Amazonian deforestation frontier. To account for the full spectrum of possible inner motivations, we employed measures of nature connection (indicating biospheric motivation), and personal values organized around the Traditionalism (traditionalist through to high openness-to-change) and Universalism dimensions (egoistic through to altruistic motivations). We found that the most consistent predictors of conservation attitudes were emotional nature connection and personal values, rather than external phenomena. Nonetheless, poorer farmers tended to prioritize development over nature protection. Inner motivations and attitudes were generally aligned with nature conservation goals, but qualitative data suggest that external phenomena, especially low income, can hinder forest conservation on farms. Our Amazonian findings reveal that pro-conservation attitudes are fostered by biospheric, traditionalistic, and altruistic motivations. Nonetheless, nurturing rural people's latent pro-conservation motivations is unlikely to improve conservation outcomes if material poverty remains unaddressed. These results have significant implications for understanding human-environmental relationships in other low-income contexts in the Global South. We conclude that integrating the inner-outer perspective into conservation thinking and practical interventions has the potential to foster environmental stewardship and increase human wellbeing.</p>

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29 wellbeing.

30

31 **Introduction**

32 The neglect of 'inner worlds' is argued to hamper efforts to conserve tropical forests
33 (Campos Tisovec-Dufner et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019), which are threatened by
34 deforestation, degradation, fragmentation and defaunation (Barlow et al., 2018). Emerging
35 scholarship proposes that external environmental outcomes, such as climate change,
36 ecological degradation and biodiversity loss, are intrinsically connected to internal
37 phenomena, including emotions, values, connections, and worldviews (Ives et al., 2020;
38 Wamsler et al., 2021; Woiwode et al., 2021). Yet, most conservation research remains
39 devoted to understanding, and intervening in, the 'outer world', constituted by the physical
40 environment, governance systems, and economic and social structures (Hoelle, 2018; Rueda
41 et al., 2019; Wamsler et al., 2021). In recent years, a number of theoretical frameworks have
42 been advanced to help conceptualize the relationship between inner and outer change for
43 environmental sustainability. Examples include the Three Spheres of Transformation
44 (O'Brien, 2018), which emphasizes the importance of subjective mindsets that influence

45 how problems and solutions are perceived, the Leverage Points framework (Abson et al.,
46 2017), which highlights the power of ‘deep’ interventions that target actors’ underlying
47 values, goals and worldviews, and the Inner-Outer Transformation Model (Wamsler et al.,
48 2021), which demonstrates the interconnectedness of consciousness, cultures, behaviors
49 and systems. Failure to consider ‘inner worlds’ across individual and collective scales can
50 limit the transformative potential of environmental policy and action.

51

52 This oversight of inner phenomena is evidenced in Amazonia, where research into
53 environmental change has mostly focused on the external factors, showing e.g., how a lack
54 of economic assets, misaligned policy incentives, or inadequate storage and supply chains
55 can trap farming households into low-income and environmentally degrading practices
56 (Garrett et al., 2017). Some notable exceptions focusing on inner phenomena include
57 survey-based studies highlighting the importance of psycho-social factors like intrinsic
58 motivations, attitudes and identities on Amazonian farmers’ forest preservation decisions
59 (Campos Tisovec-Dufner et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019), anthropological insights into
60 processes underpinning cultural embeddedness of cattle-raising and the association of
61 cultural values like wealth and progress with deforested areas (Hoelle, 2011, 2018), or
62 political-ecology research, showing how joint conservation and development projects based
63 on limited interpretations of farmers’ motivations often fail to achieve win-win outcomes
64 (Chambers et al., 2020). Nonetheless, understanding how a variety of inner world
65 phenomena – worldviews, values, and psychological attachments – may intersect with
66 external factors to shape conservation outcomes remains understudied, especially in the
67 Global South.

68

69 Here, we address this important research gap by focusing on the relative effects of inner
70 motivational drivers and external economic, socio-demographic, and environmental factors
71 on conservation attitudes of Amazonian farmers. Conservation attitudes refer to the subset
72 of environmental attitudes that concern biodiversity conservation. Attitudes matter because
73 they partially determine people’s decision-making and the level of support for policies
74 (Milfont et al., 2010). For example, a person holding a positive attitude to forest protection
75 is more likely to protect the forest on their land or support policies that foster forest
76 conservation (Mastrangelo et al., 2014). In psychological research, variation in
77 environmental attitudes between individuals is typically ascribed to differences in deeper
78 sources of psychological motivation (Milfont et al., 2010; Tam, 2013). Based on these
79 differences, environmental attitudes are often classified as egoistic i.e., motivated by
80 concern for self and close others, altruistic i.e., concerned with the wellbeing of other
81 people, or biospheric i.e., motivated by concern for the wellbeing of nature (de Groot &
82 Steg, 2009). In contrast, research in sociology, economics, and environmental sciences has
83 focused more on the link between environmental attitudes and external, contextual factors
84 like income, age, or ecosystem services (e.g., Beiser-McGrath & Huber, 2018; Campos
85 Tisovec-Dufner et al., 2019). However, few studies explore the influence of inner and outer
86 phenomena on attitudes simultaneously.

87

88 Our approach to the ‘inner world’ concept draws on methods from environmental
89 psychology. Specifically, we evaluate how two types of deep inner motivational drivers –
90 nature connection and personal values – influence conservation attitudes. Nature
91 connection refers to the extent to which a person believes themselves to be part of nature

92 (cognitive nature connection, or ‘connectedness’) and feels emotionally attached to nature
93 (emotional connection) (Perkins, 2010; Schultz, 2002). This connection is thought to
94 originate from meaningful nature experiences that expand a person’s concept of self to
95 include elements of nature (e.g., mountains, birds), which become cared-for objects
96 (Clayton et al., 2017; Schultz, 2002). Personal values, in turn, describe a set of universal,
97 relatively stable abstract goals and principles, like fairness or health, which serve to express
98 human needs and guide action across different situations (Schwartz, 1992). They are
99 organized along two principal dimensions: Traditionalism and Universalism. Universalism
100 captures values broadly corresponding to the spectrum from the egoistic (or ‘self-
101 enhancement’) to altruistic and biospheric (or ‘self-transcendent’) values (de Groot & Steg,
102 2009). Traditionalism, on the other hand, captures a spectrum from conservative values,
103 emphasizing restraint and control, to openness-to-change values, favoring stimulation and
104 self-direction (Schwartz, 1992). At the individual level, values and nature connection can
105 influence attitudes and behaviors (Milfont et al., 2010; Whitburn et al., 2020). At the
106 societal level, dominant values underlie the goals or ‘intent’ of the paradigms that govern
107 our planetary socio-ecological system (Abson et al., 2017). Set against the primacy of the
108 global economic growth paradigm (Díaz et al., 2019), reconnecting people to nature and
109 cultivating pro-environmental values are some of the deep-system levers necessary to
110 transition towards sustainable economy and halt biodiversity decline (Abson et al., 2017;
111 Chan et al., 2020; IPBES, 2022; Ives et al., 2018).

112
113 The relative importance of inner world and external world phenomena in shaping
114 conservation attitudes in real-world landscapes in the Global South remains unclear. Despite
115 the growing body of academic literature asserting that inner motivational drivers like values
116 and nature connection are important for promoting conservation (Abson et al., 2017; Ives et
117 al., 2018; Zylstra et al., 2014), there is scant empirical evidence comparing their effect on
118 conservation attitudes relative to the effects of external factors such as socio-economic
119 circumstances, socio-demographic characteristics, or local environmental conditions.
120 Likewise, a clear understanding of which inner motivation dimensions (e.g., biospheric,
121 egoistic, traditionalist) underpin people’s conservation attitudes is lacking. The recent
122 Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES)
123 values assessment report highlights that environmental policies often fail to accommodate
124 the plurality of values that societies hold for nature, typically treating nature only as a
125 material resource (IPBES, 2022). This failure has been linked to the hegemony of neoliberal
126 conservation agendas, which assume that people act egoistically, in pursuit of material self-
127 interest, and must be externally incentivized or legally obliged to behave in alignment with
128 conservation goals (Chambers et al., 2020; Fletcher, 2010). Accordingly, the standard
129 ‘conservation toolbox’ is based primarily on material incentives and sanctions (e.g.,
130 payments for ecosystem services or fines for environmental rule-breaking), overlooking
131 other potential motivations for nature protection (Chambers et al., 2020; Muradian &
132 Gómez-Baggethun, 2021).

133
134 A more nuanced version of the logic underpinning many common conservation approaches
135 proposes a positive correlation between the external, material conditions of life and
136 attitudes towards nature protection. This assumption intersects with ‘affluence-based’
137 theories in economy, politics and sociology (e.g., the Environmental Kuznets curve
138 [Magnani, 2000], or the postmaterialist value change theory, [Inglehart, 1997, 2018]), which

139 view nature as a ‘luxury good’ or a ‘postmaterialist’ concern that poor people cannot afford
140 to care about except in the context of pressing environmental issues and conflicts over
141 natural resources (for an overview, see e.g., Guha & Alier, 2013; Mayerl & Best, 2018;
142 Roberts & Mangold, 2021).

143

144 Accordingly, these concepts emphasize that biospheric motivations only influence people’s
145 attitudes towards the environment in wealthy societies and have little traction in
146 economically more deprived contexts. However, studies supporting the affluence-based
147 theories have tended to rely on large multi-country datasets with narrow definitions of
148 environmental concern (framed mostly around the trade-off between economic
149 development and nature protection preferences) and without explicit measures of
150 biospheric motivations (Brechtin, 1999; Dunlap & York, 2008). Typically, biospheric
151 motivations behind environmental concern in these studies can only be inferred indirectly
152 from correlations with other ‘postmaterialist’ values like freedom of speech and self-
153 expression, versus ‘materialist’ values like maintaining social order and economic stability
154 (e.g., Mayerl & Best, 2018, 2019).

155

156 We explore the importance of inner and outer phenomena by assessing the relative
157 influence of nature connection, personal values, and external factors on conservation
158 attitudes among non-indigenous colonist farmers living along the Transamazon Highway – a
159 major deforestation frontier. With 44–49% of the population earning half a Brazilian
160 minimal salary or less and the GINI inequality index of 0.45–0.68 (IBGE, 2010), the study
161 region is characterized by relatively high levels of poverty and income inequality.
162 Understanding the basis of concern about environment and nature protection at this
163 frontier – as a case study of a low-income, peopled and highly-biodiverse landscape in the
164 Global South – has important implications for policy design. If conservation attitudes were
165 mostly influenced by socio-economic circumstances, then it might be most effective to focus
166 on improving material circumstances and incentivize desired behaviors through the
167 conventional array of material rewards and sanctions. If, however, biospheric motivations
168 also shape attitudes among this population, then the conservation agenda may benefit from
169 efforts to recognize and potentially cultivate these motivations. In other words, perhaps
170 there is a need for a new inner-outer conservation paradigm in the Global South.

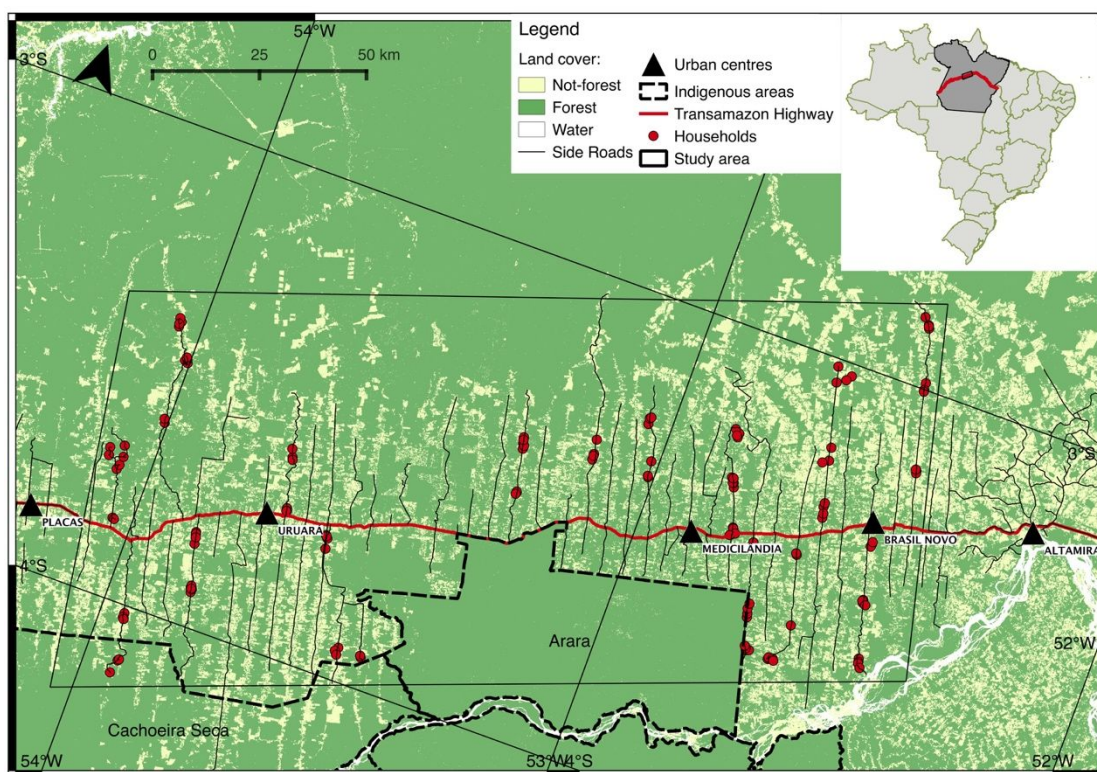
171

172 Specifically, we ask: 1) What are the levels of pro-conservation attitudes among Amazonian
173 farmers along the Transamazon Highway? 2) What are the associations of conservation
174 attitudes with inner motivations (cognitive and emotional nature connection and personal
175 values), compared to outer world dimensions (economic, socio-demographic, and
176 environmental factors)? 3) What are the differences and similarities in the way that
177 different dimensions of inner motivations (biospheric, altruistic, traditionalist) associate
178 with pro-conservation attitudes?

179 **Methods**

180 The study area was located in a deforestation frontier region along the Transamazon
181 Highway in Pará state, within the municipalities of Brasil Novo, Medicilândia, and Uruará
182 (Figure 1). This area is characterized by a human-modified mosaic of forests and farmland,
183 where balancing people’s wellbeing and livelihood opportunities with conservation and
184 environmental sustainability remains a constant challenge. The farm-forest landscapes are

185 dominated by low-capitalized, family-based agriculture, centered primarily around extensive
 186 cattle farming and cocoa production. The vast majority of the inhabitants are non-
 187 indigenous *colonos* (colonists), migrants who, following government incentives for
 188 colonization, settled there from 1972 onwards along with their locally-born descendants
 189 (Moran, 1981). High nature connection is quite prevalent among the colonist farmers in the
 190 study area (Mikołajczak et al., 2019), but the political influence of right-wing ruralist
 191 perspectives on agriculture and deforestation in Amazonia (de Area Leão Pereira et al.,
 192 2020) demonstrates the on-going power of a development paradigm centered on
 193 production gains (Moran, 1981). This paradigm favors economic factors in decision-making
 194 and exemplifies motivational conflicts and limits to biospheric motivations in promoting pro-
 195 conservation attitudes. The study area, therefore, provides a suitable context for exploring
 196 the role of diverse inner motivations in shaping conservation attitudes in low-income, rural
 197 contexts in the Global South.
 198



199 **Figure 1.** Study area around part of the Transamazon Highway and side-roads in Pará state.
 200 The bounding box of the study area covers ca. 17,838 km².
 201
 202

203 *Sampling*

204 Sampling was stratified across 45 points along 15 of the “fishbone” side-roads (i.e., 3 points
 205 per side-road) running perpendicular to the highway, incorporating gradients in forest cover
 206 and distance from the sub-regional urban center Altamira (details Mikołajczak et al. 2019).
 207 We aimed to interview the landowners and their spouses (or close family involved in
 208 running the farm) on the four properties closest to each sampling point. Hence the target
 209 sample was 12 properties per side-road, with a total target of 180 properties. When some
 210 landowners refused (n=23) or were unavailable (n unrecorded) we moved to the next
 211 closest farm property, not exceeding a 5 km radius from the sampling point. Six points were

212 abandoned due to inaccessibility to cars or an apparent lack of inhabitants. In total, we
 213 collected 241 individual responses.

214 *Dependent variables*

215 Using a structured questionnaire administered by an interviewer, we assessed nine diverse
 216 and locally-relevant conservation attitudes (Table 1). Four were general attitudes related to
 217 preferences between development and nature protection, extinction prevention, forest
 218 preservation, and the control of numbers of problematic wildlife on private properties. We
 219 use ‘problematic wildlife’ to refer to animals that can be dangerous or damaging, without
 220 specifying species (Table 1, item 4). We also measured five attitudes specific to landowner
 221 tolerance of different animal taxa: the lowland tapir (Portuguese ‘anta’, *Tapirus terrestris*),
 222 hyacinth macaw (‘arara azul’, *Anodorhynchus hyacinthinus*), jaguar (‘onça pintada’,
 223 *Panthera onca*), vipers (‘jararaca’, genus *Bothrops*), and vine snakes (‘cobra cipó’, genus
 224 *Chironius*). One of the indicators of tolerance is the size of the population of a species a
 225 person is willing to accept to coexist alongside (Marino et al., 2021). We measured species
 226 tolerance by asking about the desired changes in the population status of each animal on
 227 the farmer’s property over the next ten years (Table 1).

228
 229 We selected animal taxa which would be widely known to interviewees (verified during pre-
 230 study interviews in November 2015), and which would enable us to contrast the drivers of
 231 Amazonian farmers’ tolerance to species perceived as threatening versus benign, and to
 232 those generally considered as charismatic versus uncharismatic. We classified jaguar and
 233 vipers as threatening, since they injure and kill cattle and, sometimes, humans (Campos
 234 Neto et al., 2011; Feitosa et al., 2015). In contrast, we classified tapir, hyacinth macaw, and
 235 vine snakes as relatively benign. Although tapirs and macaws occasionally damage crops
 236 (mentioned anecdotally by several respondents), they are herbivores that pose little bodily
 237 threat to humans, while bites from vine snakes are rare and, unlike vipers, harmless to
 238 humans. Charisma, in turn, refers to the aesthetic and emotional appeal of a species to
 239 humans (Lorimer, 2007), and has been linked to characteristics such as large size and bright
 240 or striking coloration (Macdonald et al., 2015; Mesquita et al., 2015). Additionally, birds and
 241 mammals (especially large cats) are typically more emotionally appealing than taxa, like
 242 insects, spiders, or snakes (*ibid*). Based on these distinctions, the tapir, hyacinth macaw, and
 243 jaguar, being large-bodied birds and mammals, were classified as charismatic, while the
 244 snakes (vipers and vine snakes) were classified as uncharismatic.

245
 246 We also collected responses to open-ended questions regarding the perceptions of desired
 247 levels of forest cover on the respondents’ properties, how much forest should be protected
 248 by law, and respondents’ approval or disapproval for selective logging projects in forest
 249 reserves on farming properties. All questionnaire items used in this study are presented in
 250 the Appendix S3.

251
 252 **Table 1.** Attitude names and statements. Items 1 and 4 were phrased as negative, anti-
 253 conservation attitudes in the questionnaire. When responses to those items are reversed-
 254 scored, they are presumed to express the opposite sentiments.

Attitude name	Statement	Response scale
<i>General conservation attitudes</i>		

- | | | |
|-----------------------------|--|--|
| 1. Prioritize nature | Original: The development of our region is much more important than the protection of nature. Reverse-scored: expresses support for prioritizing nature protection over development in the region. | 1 – Completely disagree
2 – Somewhat disagree
3 – Neither agree nor disagree
4 – Somewhat agree
5 – Completely agree |
| 2. Prevent extinctions | If some animal in the area begins to decline, people should act to not let that animal disappear. | |
| 3. Protect forests | All the forests that still remain in the region should be protected. | |
| 4. Control problem wildlife | Original: Animals that are dangerous or damage crops need to be controlled on private properties, even if they are rare. Reverse scored: Expresses objection to the need for controlling wild animals on private properties, even if they are dangerous or damage crops. | |

Species tolerance attitudes

- | | | |
|-------------------|---|--------------------------|
| 5. Tapir | In the next 10 years, how would you prefer the population of [animal] to change on your property? | 0 – Disappear completely |
| 6. Hyacinth macaw | | 1 – Decrease a lot |
| 7. Jaguar | | 2 – Decrease a little |
| 8. Vine snakes | | 3 – No change |
| 9. Vipers | | 4 – Increase a little |
| | | 5 – Increase a lot |

255

256 ***Explanatory variables***

257 To assess cognitive nature connection, we used a graphical, single-item, 7-point scale called
 258 “Inclusion of Nature in Self “ (INS) (Schultz, 2002), selected for its brevity and simplicity. For
 259 emotional nature connection, we used a bespoke 5-point Likert scale (from 1= ‘Completely
 260 disagree’ to 5 = ‘Completely agree) called ‘Love and Care for Nature – Rural’ (LCNR),
 261 consisting of 7 simply-worded items intended to capture feelings such as love, beauty, joy
 262 and psychological wellbeing derived from nature (Mikołajczak et al., 2019) (Appendix S3).

263

264 Values were measured using the Portrait Value Questionnaire 21 (PVQ–21), translated and
 265 validated for use in Brazil (Sambiase et al., 2014). Raw value scores on the PVQ-21 measure
 266 were transformed to the Universalism and Traditionalism dimensions using fixed equations
 267 derived through exploratory factor analysis (Strack & Dobewall, 2012) (Appendix S1).

268 According to Schwartz’s Theory of Basic Human Values (Schwartz, 1992), personal values
 269 have a near-universal structure organized along the two main axes of Universalism and
 270 Traditionalism. The Traditionalism dimension comprises the spectrum from conservative
 271 values (like conformity, security, and tradition) to openness-to-change values (like freedom,
 272 self-direction, and pleasurable experiences) and has rarely been linked to pro-
 273 environmental attitudes. The Universalism dimension comprises the spectrum from Self-
 274 Enhancement and Self-Transcendence values. Self-enhancement values are egoistic,
 275 concerned with the wellbeing of self and close others (like power and achievement). ‘Self-

276 transcendence', includes altruistic values, concerned with the wellbeing of other people
 277 (like helping others) and biospheric values, concerned with the wellbeing of nature (like
 278 living in harmony with nature). However, in the PVQ-21 measure, out of the twenty-one
 279 items (of which six capture Self-Transcendence), only one item indicates a biospheric
 280 orientation. Thus, we consider the PVQ-21 to capture the egoistic-altruistic spectrum, and
 281 consider nature connection measures as indicators of biospheric motivation.

282

283 Socio-economic factors included monetary income, material insecurity experienced in
 284 childhood, years of formal education, and household remoteness from Altamira – the
 285 largest local urban center affording better access to healthcare, markets, and services.
 286 Income was assessed at the household level and its potential effect was analyzed either as a
 287 linear predictor or as a binary measure of relative poverty. Households in the lowest
 288 monetary income quartile (<R\$1650 per month, equivalent to US\$511 in 2016) were
 289 classified as income-poor, others as not-poor. Wealth measured as household income did
 290 not show any significant associations and was excluded from further analysis in favor of the
 291 binary poor-non poor measure. Material, or 'existential', insecurity experienced in
 292 childhood was assessed with a statement: '*When you were a child, did you ever have*
 293 *difficulty in acquiring food and/or medicine?*'. Responses 'never', and 'sometimes' were
 294 grouped into 'Not much'; responses 'often' and 'everyday' were grouped into 'A lot'. This
 295 measure was included to account for the assertion in the postmaterialist theory that
 296 utilitarian attitudes towards nature are shaped by scarcity and a sense of existential
 297 insecurity experienced during formative childhood years rather than in the adult life
 298 (Inglehart, 1997, 2018).

299

300 Socio-demographic factors included interviewee age and gender; environmental factors
 301 included forest cover, as a proxy for the "amount" of nature remaining in the household's
 302 neighborhood. Forest cover was calculated using Global Forest Change maps (Hansen et al.
 303 2013) (details in Appendix S1), and measured at 4 different distances: 500 m, 1000 m, 1500
 304 m, and 2000 m buffer around the household. For each attitude, only the distance with the
 305 least AICc in single-predictor models was included in the subsequent model averaging
 306 approach (Table S.2.)

307

308 *Attitude modelling*

309 Quantitative data were analyzed in R v.3.3.3 (R Core Team, 2018). Each attitude was
 310 modelled separately using generalized linear models with a beta-binomial distribution.
 311 Explanatory variables are summarized in Table 2, with further details on analysis found in
 312 Appendix S1. For each attitude, we collected complimentary qualitative data from
 313 comments relating to questionnaire statements, and from opportunistic semi-structured
 314 interviews, analyzed thematically in Microsoft Excel. The research was approved by the
 315 Lancaster University Research Ethics Committee (RS2015/68).

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317

318 **Table 2.** Descriptive statistics for the explanatory variables.

Indicated latent construct	Measured variable	n	mean	SD	median	range
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Biospheric motivation	Cognitive nature connection (INS scale)	240	5.15	1.48	5	1 – 7
	Affective nature connection (LCNR scale)	241	4.5	0.62	4.71	2.12 – 5
Altruistic over egoistic motivation	Universalism (PVQ-21)	238	0.68	0.9	0.6	-1.56 – 3.12
Traditionalist over openness-to-change motivation	Traditionalism (PVQ-21)	238	0.5	0.79	0.49	-1.77 – 2.62
Socio-economic status	Household monthly income (R\$)	241	4095	3646	2846	286 – 43450
	Travel distance to urban center Altamira (km)	236	141	72	111	42 – 262
	Education (years)	241	4.95	3.84	4.00	0 – 19
Environment: Amount of nature	Forest cover % (500 m radius)	238	51	18	51	14 – 93
	Forest cover % (1000 m radius)	238	54	16	53	25 – 87
	Forest cover % (1500 m radius)	238	57	16	57	58 – 89
	Forest cover % (2000 m radius)	238	59	14	59	59 – 90
Demographic characteristics	Age (years)	241	46.91	13.27	48.00	18 – 75
	Gender	241	Female = 42%, Male = 58 %			
Socio-economic status	Childhood material insecurity	239	'A lot' = 26%, 'Not much' = 74%			

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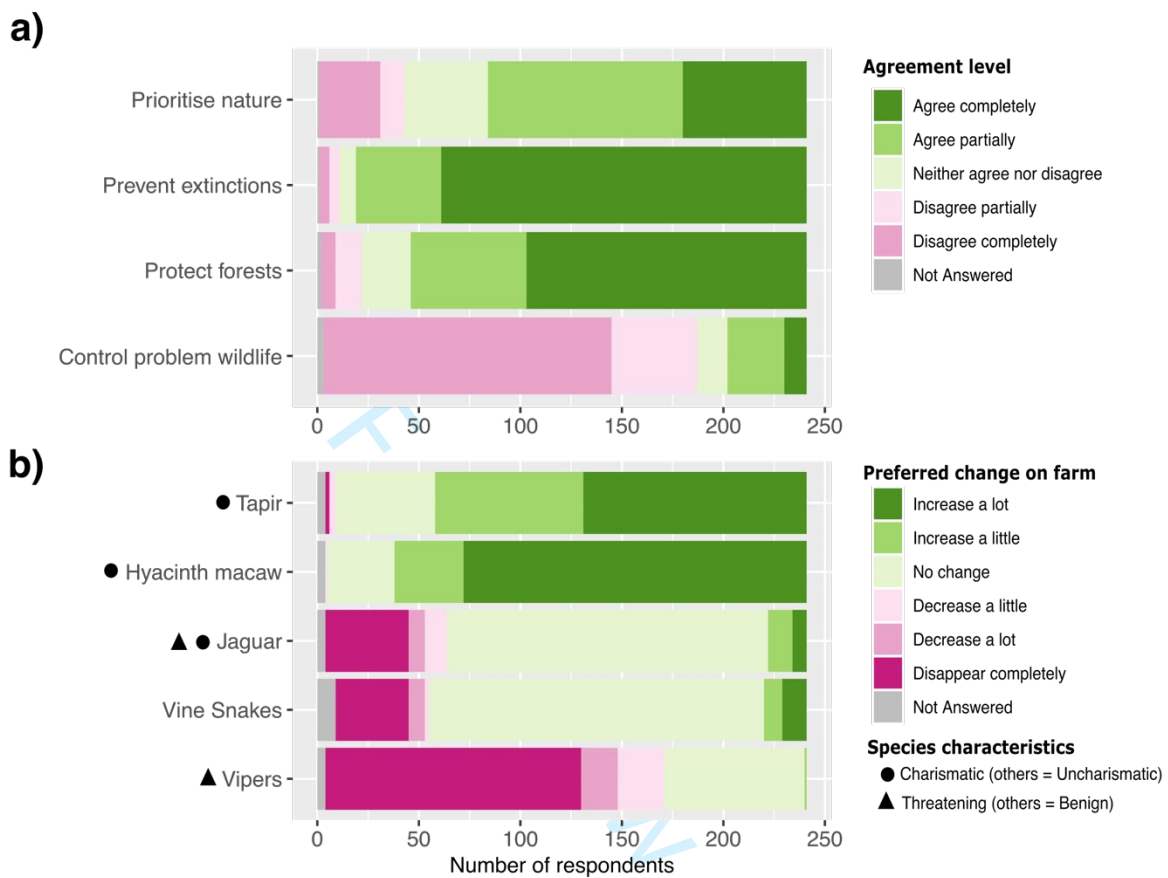
320 Results

321 Most respondents were male (58%). Respondents' age ranged from 18 to 75 years (mean
 322 47), with little formal education (mean 5.0 years, median 4.0) (Table 2). Mean household
 323 monthly income was R\$4095 whereas median income was R\$2846. Twenty-six percent of
 324 respondents had experienced significant material insecurity in childhood. On average,
 325 households were located 140 km of travel from the city of Altamira (range 42-262 km).
 326 Forest cover around households ranged from 14-93%, with mean cover increasing from 51%
 327 within a 500m radius to 59% cover within a 2000m radius.

328

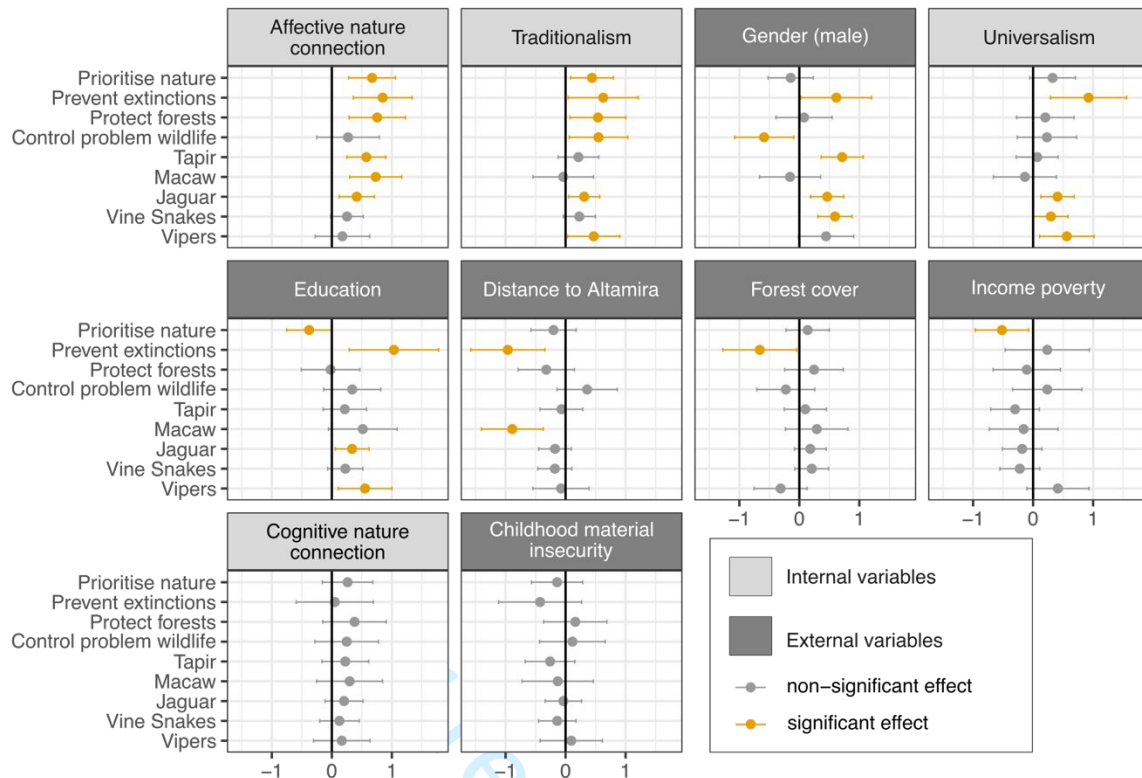
329 General attitudes were largely pro-conservation, except for preferences to control
 330 populations of problematic wildlife (Figure 2a). Sixty-five percent of respondents wanted to
 331 prioritize nature over development, at least to some degree, 92% at least partially agreed
 332 with the need for local action to prevent extinctions, and 80% agreed partially or fully with
 333 the need to protect all remaining local forests. Only 16% agreed that problematic wildlife
 334 did *not* need control on farms. Charismatic and benign species were more widely tolerated
 335 than those considered uncharismatic or threatening (Figure 2b). Virtually everyone wanted
 336 the populations of relatively benign species to stay the same or increase, but a sizable
 337 proportion of interviewees (29%) did not want to see population reductions even of

338 venomous snakes. Nonetheless, 52% of respondents wished to eradicate vipers from their
 339 farms completely – in line with the wish to control problematic wildlife but somewhat
 340 contradicting the stated widespread desire to prevent local extinctions.



341 **Figure 2.** Distributions of attitude responses. All responses were scaled such that higher
 342 agreement indicates stronger pro-environmental attitude. **a)** Respondent's level of
 343 agreement with general pro-conservation attitudes; **b)** Respondents' stated preferences for
 344 population trends on their own properties over the next 10 years for five locally-occurring
 345 species with different characteristics.
 346

347
 348



349
 350 **Figure 3.** Associations between predictor variables (relating to internal and external
 351 phenomena) and conservation attitudes based on averaged models. Each panel corresponds
 352 to a single predictor. Attitudes are listed on the y-axis; the first four refer to general pro-
 353 conservation attitudes; the lowest five refer to tolerance of different animal species on
 354 one’s property based on stated preferences for population trends. Solid dots represent
 355 estimated Beta coefficients. Error bars represent the 95% CI.

356
 357 Positive associations between emotional nature connection and pro-conservation attitudes
 358 were identified. We found no evidence that cognitive nature connection affects
 359 environmental attitudes. Emotional nature connection and values in the Traditionalism
 360 dimension were both positively associated with six out of nine attitudes, more than any
 361 other predictors (Figure 3). Nature connection related positively to all attitudes except
 362 tolerance of snakes and opposition to controlling problematic wildlife on farms.
 363 Traditionalism was associated positively with all attitudes except tolerance of benign
 364 species. Values in the Universalism dimension explained variation in four attitudes,
 365 positively associating with tolerance of threatening or uncharismatic animals, support for
 366 preventing extinctions, and disapproval of prioritizing development over nature protection.
 367 Gender was also important: men were generally more tolerant of tapirs, jaguars, and vine
 368 snakes, and more supportive of preventing local extinctions, but less opposed than women
 369 towards controlling problematic wildlife populations on farms.

370
 371 Formal education enhanced tolerance of threatening animals and support for preventing
 372 extinctions but was also associated with prioritizing development over nature. Economic
 373 factors and geographic covariates explained relatively little attitudinal variation. However,
 374 people living in income poverty were more likely to put development before nature; this
 375 association persisted when observations with imputed income data were excluded from the

376 analysis. Farmers living farther from the urban center Altamira were less tolerant of macaws
377 and less supportive of preventing local extinctions. Farmers in high forest-cover
378 environments were also less supportive of preventing local extinctions. The remaining
379 variables, including cognitive nature connection, were not significantly related to
380 conservation attitudes. Summarizing, we found that diverse conservation attitudes were
381 more related to inner motivational drivers (emotional nature connection, values) than to
382 external factors (socio-economic, socio-demographic, environmental). Nonetheless, some
383 external factors did associate with specific attitudes.

384
385 Qualitative insights revealed important barriers to farmers taking actions to protect forests
386 or wildlife (S2). The most common was the perceived lack of viable economic alternatives to
387 deforestation. Farmers frequently expressed a personal tension in feeling unable to
388 simultaneously meet their families' subsistence needs and preserve as much forest as they
389 would like: "the desire is to protect, but one has to deforest some, too [to survive]". This
390 was often compounded by the perception that without government assistance, "there is no
391 way" to protect more. Several women highlighted their perceived lack of agency to protect
392 forests as a source of emotional distress: "If it depended on me, I wouldn't burn the forest,
393 it's the greatest sorrow for me". Another barrier was the perceived unfairness of rule
394 enforcement. Some respondents did not feel responsible or obliged to follow legal
395 restrictions on deforestation because they were not seen as fairly applied to all actors;
396 "fazendeiros" [large-scale cattle ranchers] were often perceived to "do what they want" and
397 go unpunished despite causing much greater *per capita* damage to forests than medium-
398 and small-holders. Importantly, even farmers who expressed biospheric motivations to
399 conserve nature often had opposing beliefs and attitudes about forest management
400 practices, such as commercial selective logging. For example, some believed that even
401 selective logging "ends up destroying lots" and is unacceptable, while others approved of it,
402 believing that "logging doesn't harm the forest at all. If you remove one tree, thousands of
403 new ones are born in its place".

404 Discussion

405 Our study at an Amazonian deforestation frontier examined the relative influence of deep
406 inner world phenomena (nature connection and personal values) and outer world, external
407 factors (socio-economic, socio-demographic, environmental) on the conservation attitudes
408 of colonist farmers. We found that a diverse set of nine conservation attitudes (related to
409 forest and wildlife conservation) was most consistently explained by inner motivational
410 drivers: emotional nature connection and personal values summarized along the axes of
411 Universalism and Traditionalism. In contrast, the external factors – relative household
412 poverty, material and health insecurity experienced in childhood, household remoteness,
413 local forest cover, formal education, and gender – associated only with specific attitudes.

414
415 The use of psychological measures of nature connection and values is a novel approach to
416 exploring conservation motivations in the Global South, and contributes much-needed
417 empirical evidence to substantiate emerging conceptual research on the role of inner
418 motivations in conservation and sustainability (Raymond et al., 2019; Wamsler et al., 2021).
419 Firstly, the results provide support for the importance of inner motivations in understanding
420 attitudinal antecedents of pro-conservation behavior. Secondly, they suggest that
421 biospheric motivations to protect nature can be common in low-income tropical areas and

422 are not exclusively associated with wealthy and economically developed societies (although
423 poverty may still constrain the willingness to protect nature in the face of perceived
424 tradeoffs with development). Thirdly, we show that the Transamazon colonist farmers' inner
425 motivations and attitudes generally support nature protection, and point towards
426 economic, governance and knowledge barriers as primary factors restricting nature
427 conservation in Amazonian farm-forest landscapes.

428
429 These findings are consistent with suggestions that intrinsic motivation to protect nature
430 promotes greater forest preservation by farmers in Latin America (Chambers et al., 2020;
431 Rueda et al., 2019), and with agricultural-economic research showing the inter-related
432 persistence of poverty and environmentally degrading land-uses in Amazonia (Garrett et al.,
433 2017). We propose that integrating inner motivations with economically-oriented policies in
434 conservation and development interventions could simultaneously help to cultivate
435 biospheric attitudes and to reduce poverty. Specifically, alongside poverty-alleviation
436 measures, policies should seek to enable latent sustainability-aligned motivations to be
437 voiced and "unleashed" (Chan et al., 2020). For example, through public deliberation and
438 citizen engagement, as outlined in the IPBES values assessment report (IPBES, 2022). This
439 inner-outer conservation approach would also speak to development agendas that foster
440 environmental justice, human rights, and dignity.

441 *Internal and external drivers help shape conservation attitudes*

442 Consistent with environmental-psychological theory, the results suggest that although
443 external, outer-world drivers often associate with specific attitudes, inner motivational
444 drivers (values, psychological connections) provide the underlying coherence to a person's
445 stance on diverse environmental attitudes (de Groot & Steg, 2009; Zylstra et al., 2014). High
446 levels of emotional nature connection, Traditionalism and Universalism values all
447 contributed positively towards a wide range of pro-conservation attitudes (4 – 6 each).
448 Cognitive nature connection did not associate with any attitudes; this may be true or an
449 artifact of the INS scale used to measure it (chosen for its simplicity), which has previously
450 shown somewhat lower correlations with attitudes and behaviors than other measures of
451 nature connection (Tam, 2013). Remarkably, Traditionalism (indicating priority for tradition
452 and conformity over socially liberal values) appeared to positively influence a wider
453 spectrum of attitudes than Universalism (indicating priority for altruistic over egoistic
454 values). This finding is important, given that in Western societies, Traditionalism shows little
455 association with pro-environmental views and studies on pro-environmental attitudes and
456 behaviors often focus only on values in the Universalism dimension, usually categorised as
457 biospheric, altruistic, and egoistic (de Groot & Steg, 2009).

458
459 Differences in the way that emotional nature connection, Traditionalism, and Universalism
460 associated with different attitudes related mainly to wildlife tolerance. Tolerance of jaguar –
461 a threatening but charismatic mammal (Campos Neto et al., 2011; Macdonald et al., 2015) –
462 was positively associated with emotional nature connection, Traditionalism, and
463 Universalism. However, only emotional nature connection promoted tolerance of the
464 charismatic and benign tapirs and macaws, and only Traditionalism and Universalism
465 promoted tolerance of the uncharismatic vine snakes (benign) and vipers (threatening).
466 Although people have evolved to fear snakes (Barrett & Broesch, 2012), in Hungary, where
467 wild snakes present minimal risks to lay people (Malina et al., 2008), stronger nature

468 connection has been associated with lower fear of snakes and spiders (Zsido et al., 2022).
469 However, for rural Amazonians, the fear of snakes is easily reinforced through experience,
470 due to a high incidence of snakebites, which may be fatal or cause life-changing injuries
471 (Feitosa et al., 2015). Thus, it is possible that a sense of connection with nature may not
472 easily encompass taxa perceived as uncharismatic and experienced as threatening.
473 Moreover, the discord between the seemingly widespread support for preventing local
474 extinction and the simultaneous desire to control problematic wildlife and eradicate vipers
475 from private properties suggests that phenomena such as “not-in-my-backyard” claims
476 (whereby stakeholders approve of something in principle but not directly in their vicinity)
477 may also be at play in shaping attitudes to more problematic fauna (von Essen & Allen,
478 2020). These results show that nature connection is not always associated with biophilic
479 attitudes, hence the dominant framing of nature as benevolent within research from
480 Western nations is overly simplistic and may not always be generalizable to other contexts
481 (Zylstra et al., 2014).

482
483 The influence of external factors on attitudes was less consistent, nonetheless, some
484 interesting patterns were apparent. For instance, people living in more forested areas, or
485 more remotely from the urban center Altamira, were less supportive than average of
486 preventing local extinctions, and had less desire to increase macaw populations. Given that
487 remote areas and those with high forest cover are generally more abundant in wildlife
488 (Parry & Peres, 2015), their inhabitants might perceive less need for wildlife conservation.

489
490 Other external effects also highlight that people’s inner worlds interact with outer
491 phenomena, like social processes and structures (O’Brien, 2018; Wamsler et al., 2021). For
492 instance, we found gendered differences in conservation attitudes, where men were more
493 tolerant of certain species and supportive of preventing extinctions, yet more willing than
494 women to control problematic wildlife on farms. According to the concept of ecological
495 habitus, our thoughts, feelings, perceptions, and actions towards the environment are
496 influenced by the social world we inhabit (Kasper, 2009). In rural Amazonia, socialization
497 into a gendered division of livelihood-related tasks begins in childhood (Menegaldo et al.,
498 2013). For example, boys may go fishing or hunting with their fathers, developing
499 knowledge of local fauna, whereas girls are generally expected to perform more domestic
500 tasks, assisting their mothers. The gendered lives of adult men and women embody the
501 socially-constructed differentiation in attitudes, responsibilities, knowledge and abilities in
502 interacting with the local environment (e.g., farming, hunting, preparing food, etc.) (*ibid*).
503 This illustrates how outer phenomena like social structures and gender may interact to
504 affect inner phenomena, like individuals’ environmental attitudes or group-level norms and
505 practices (which, in turn, reproduce social structures). This constant interplay between inner
506 and outer worlds calls for an integrated perspective on conservation challenges, which
507 accounts for inner and outer dimensions across the individual, social, and institutional
508 scales (O’Brien, 2018; Wamsler et al., 2021).

509

510 ***Poverty, development, and the endorsement of biospheric motivations for***
511 ***nature protection in the Global South***

512 Following the emergence of environmental economics (and associated logics of narrow self-
513 interest and infinite rationality) in the 1990s, many present-day conservation interventions
514 rely on the assumption that people in economically developing societies can only be
515 motivated to protect nature for materialistic reasons i.e., for material gain or avoidance of
516 sanctions. This view goes back to the argument that biospheric motivations and valuing
517 nature as a good in itself are a 'postmaterialist' concern, which promotes pro-environmental
518 views only in societies that have reached a threshold of affluence and stability that allows
519 their young people to grow up without a constant fear for their physical and economic
520 security (Inglehart, 1997; Mayerl & Best, 2018).

521
522 We contribute to this debate by showing that biospheric motivations for nature protection –
523 as indicated by emotional nature connection – associate consistently positively with various
524 pro-conservation attitudes among Transamazonian farmers. Hence, biospheric motivations
525 may play a significant role in promoting local support for conservation in Amazonia and,
526 potentially, in other income-poor areas in the Global South.

527
528 We also found that, independent of nature connection and personal values, poor farmers
529 were more likely than their wealthier peers to reject the proposition of putting nature
530 before development. Hence, where trade-offs exist between environmental protection and
531 socio-economic outcomes, unmet material needs and precarity of the rural poor may
532 constrain their willingness and capacity to translate nature connection into conservation
533 actions. Related, several studies report a positive association between relative income and
534 the willingness to prioritize nature over development or to pay for environmental protection
535 (although this association gets suppressed by income inequality) (e.g., Mayerl & Best 2018;
536 Roberts & Mangold 2021). However, relative poverty was not related to any of the other
537 conservation attitudes in our study, highlighting the importance of using a range of diverse
538 attitudes when examining the association between socio-economic drivers and
539 environmentalism (Brechtin, 1999; Dunlap & York, 2008). Thus, our results support the claim
540 that poverty constrains willingness to protect nature where trade-offs between
541 conservation and development are perceived, but, following Dunlap & York (2008), we
542 challenge the assertion that poor people lack biospheric concern for nature. Consequently,
543 conservation efforts in the tropics may benefit from complementing current externally-
544 oriented interventions with others that aim to understand, and possibly foster biospheric
545 motivations (IPBES, 2022).

546

547 ***Strengthening conservation policy through the inner-outer perspective***

548 Recent developments in climate policy, in particular during COP26, have unlocked
549 unprecedented levels of interest and finance for the protection and restoration of forested
550 landscapes (*The Global Forest Finance Pledge*, 2021). We present results suggesting that
551 biospheric motivations and pro-conservation attitudes are common among Transamazonian
552 farmers, which could provide a rich foundation of support for conservation action.
553 Nonetheless, Amazonian deforestation continues, and our qualitative results point to

554 external rather than internal factors – most of all to the lack of viable economic alternatives
555 to deforestation – as the main constraints on effective forest conservation on private farms
556 in our study region. Many respondents were torn because they felt that without
557 governmental assistance, they were unable to support their families without continued
558 deforestation on their properties. This suggests that the apparent discord between farmers’
559 internal motivations and economic needs has costs to their emotional wellbeing (Riechers &
560 Duse 2021). In line with the IPBES Values Assessment report (IPBES, 2022), these tensions
561 indicate that current policies fail to ensure conditions that would permit people to fully
562 realize their “existing, but-latent” pro-conservation values.

563

564 The inner-outer sustainability perspective posits that the adoption of sustainable practices is
565 most likely when people’s inner worlds and outer conditions are aligned and conducive to
566 this goal (Hoelle, 2018; Wamsler et al., 2021). In behavioral terms, people must feel capable
567 and motivated for change, and have the means to do so (Maller, 2021; Michie et al., 2011).
568 Drawing on multidisciplinary insights, we propose that conservation policy should integrate
569 both dimensions by combining classical outer-oriented interventions, such as monetary
570 mechanisms, regulations, monitoring and rule enforcement, with inner-oriented
571 interventions, aimed to cultivate caring and stewardship of more-than-human nature.

572

573 Investment is undoubtedly necessary to overcome external barriers to sustainability, but
574 comes with challenges. In the Amazon, support is urgently required for colonist farmers to
575 adopt more sustainable agricultural practices (e.g., rotational grazing), and improve access
576 to certification and foreign markets for high-end-value products (Garrett et al., 2017;
577 Metzger et al., 2019). In addition to better ecological outcomes and higher returns for
578 farmers, support for adopting more sustainable practices could also have emotional
579 benefits, empowering biospherically-motivated farmers to conserve more without
580 sacrificing their material circumstances. It is also crucial to increase compliance with
581 environmental regulations and, as highlighted by our qualitative insights, these regulations
582 must be more fairly applied. However, outer-oriented interventions alone, especially based
583 on monetary mechanisms, can replace, or ‘crowd-out’, biospheric and altruistic motivations
584 to protect nature with egoistic ones e.g., increasing profits, making long-term protection
585 more conditional on continual funding (Cinner et al., 2021; García-Amado et al., 2013).
586 Moreover, in the absence of biospheric motivations, interventions to increase farm profits
587 can facilitate more deforestation, as farmers gain capital necessary for further expansion
588 (Chambers et al., 2020). Outer-oriented interventions also rarely succeed in instilling
589 biospheric motivations where they are not already embraced (*ibid*). Approaches fostering
590 nature stewardship may help mitigate these challenges (García-Amado et al., 2013).

591

592 West et al. (2018) frame stewardship as the intersection of knowledge, agency and care,
593 arguing that an ethic of care emerges from embedded, complex social-ecological
594 relationships. In practice, establishing cultures of care and stewardship could involve
595 multiple approaches e.g., deliberation and co-visioning exercises (Horcea-Milcu et al., 2019),
596 communication strategies (Bicchieri, 2017), or engaging people in social pro-environmental
597 activities such as community forest management (Agrawal, 2005; Maller, 2021). Combined,
598 outer- and inner-oriented interventions could help create enabling socio-ecological
599 environments necessary to cultivate pro-conservation motivations, incentivize sustainable
600 practices, and foment a mutually-reinforcing culture of meanings, norms and identities

601 aligned with conservation goals (Maller, 2021; Walton & Wilson, 2018). These cultural levers
602 can exercise strong external pressure to conform to conservation practices and, over time,
603 potentially even internalize the underlying pro-environmental motivations (Agrawal, 2005;
604 Bicchieri, 2017; Maller, 2021; Walton & Wilson, 2018). Thus, the integrated inner-outer
605 approach to conservation interventions holds the promise of enhanced ecological and
606 wellbeing benefits, supported by positive socio-ecological relationships.

607
608 Although the importance of intrinsic motivations for nature protection is increasingly
609 recognized in theory, empirical measurement of nature connection, personal values and
610 environmental attitudes remains scarce in the Global South. We characterized the personal
611 values and nature connection among colonist farmers in an Amazonian deforestation
612 frontier, finding that biospheric motivations shape pro-conservation attitudes. We suggest
613 these linkages should be leveraged for change towards greater sustainability. The integrated
614 inner-outer approach to conservation policy has the potential to simultaneously advance
615 conservationist and wellbeing objectives in farm-forest landscapes in Amazonia and
616 elsewhere, offering an exciting new direction for transformative conservation research and
617 practice.

618 **Supporting Information**

619 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of the article at the
620 publisher's website
621

622 **Literature Cited**

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