

Cash cows? Configuring low-carbon agriculture through green finance

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Abstract

'Green' forms of finance are deemed increasingly important in mitigating climate change. Despite growing calls to make financial flows consistent with Paris Agreement goals, to date little is known about the impact of 'green finance'. Drawing on literature on assembling resources for investment this research shifts the focus from financial *flows* to financial *pools*. It does so through an examination of a green financial instrument, the Green Schuldschein, issued by a multinational dairy company. This paper argues that by analysing how low-carbon agriculture is assembled as a resource for investment, we can begin to understand why green finance pools in some places, but not in others, and the implications for climate change mitigation efforts. It demonstrates that flows of green finance in the agricultural sector are unlikely to pool in places where they can have the most significant climate impact, but rather in places where they remain distant from nature's unruly qualities. It highlights the importance of examining how sites and processes of landing are shaped by both the financial and the extraeconomic relations of the wider fields in which new 'green' financial instruments are situated. In doing so, the paper demonstrates how assemblage thinking can both provide nuanced critiques of the idea that we can 'green' finance, and diversify our understanding of how finance and agriculture intersect.

Keywords

Green finance; agriculture; agrifood systems; social studies of finance; climate governance; low-carbon investment

Introduction

The conjunction of environmental and financial crises has in recent years led to increased interest in how the two are intertwined or can be jointly resolved. From carbon markets to payments for ecosystem services, catastrophe bonds to biodiversity offsets, fossil fuel divestment and clean infrastructure investment; the entanglements between finance and environment are both increasingly diverse (Bridge *et al.*, 2019; Christophers, 2019) and entrenched (Ouma, Johnson and Bigger, 2018). While there are calls for a Keynesian Green New Deal to 'solve' the environmental crisis (Goldstein and Tyfield, 2018), much so-called 'green' finance to date has come from the private sector and this is expected to continue in future. The widening and deepening of financial interest in the environment is emblematic of the tremendous growth of the financial sector in recent decades, always seeking out new investment frontiers (Ouma, Johnson and Bigger, 2018).

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1 The emergence of new investment frontiers is increasingly evident in climate mitigation finance. In
2 line with the growing realisation that meeting Paris Agreement targets or achieving a net-zero
3 economy requires change beyond the energy sector, 'green' investment has started to flow towards
4 increasingly diverse corners of the economy. However, despite growing calls for private finance to
5 play a role in reducing the climate impact of economic activity, there remains a dearth of research
6 on how private finance is shaping climate action in the 'real economy' (the part of the economy that
7 produces goods and services).

8 I began this research with a broad, but seemingly fairly straightforward, question: What is the
9 potential for new green financial instruments to contribute to climate change mitigation targets? In
10 particular, I was interested in Green Bonds and Schuldscheine, two similar green financial
11 instruments, which are increasingly popular among investors. It is anticipated that \$200 billion worth
12 of Green Bonds will be issued in 2019, up from \$11 billion six years ago (Pham, 2016; Sonerud and
13 Adamini, 2017; Sharma, 2019). Their rising popularity has led some commentators to proclaim that
14 "green bonds can solve our climate crisis" (Tuerk, 2019), and the World Bank (2019) has gone so far
15 as to claim that "the green bond turned out to be a history-making event". At the same time, the
16 European Commission is considering giving special treatment to certified green investments, such as
17 lower capital requirements (Aschoff, 2019).

18 However, despite their green label, virtually nothing is known about the environmental impact of
19 green bonds and other green financial instruments (Bracking, 2015; Cort and Krosinsky, 2015). I
20 therefore set out to explore how these instruments are (re)shaping environmental (particularly,
21 climate) governance in the agricultural sector. In doing so, I was also responding to a growing
22 awareness of the deep linkages between food, environment and finance since 2008, driven by their
23 respective crises and intersections between them (Isakson, 2014; Le Billon and Sommerville, 2017;
24 Clapp and Isakson, 2018; Clapp, Newell and Brent, 2018). I sought to explore this process of
25 reconfiguration by analysing the issuance of a Green Schuldschein (an instrument halfway between a
26 loan and a bond) by a large dairy company to finance the reduction of its environmental footprint
27 (FrieslandCampina, 2016).

28 It soon became apparent during my research that the money raised through the Schuldschein was
29 not directed to the company's activities that generated the most significant climate impact: its dairy
30 farms. This was unexpected as these farms make up 70-80% of the company's emissions, and there
31 has been a proliferation of investment into farmland and the front end of agricultural production
32 systems (see for example Clapp and Isakson, 2018; Isakson, 2014; Ouma, 2014, 2016). That raised a
33 second question: Why was this flow of green finance not directed towards 'greening' these farms?

34 I answer this second question by drawing on recent work that considers how resources are
35 assembled or configured for investment (e.g. Li, 2014). I explore how new green forms of finance
36 intersect with already-existing sociomaterial configurations in the agricultural sector and
37 institutional practices in the financial sector to understand how the notion of low-carbon dairy is
38 assembled as an object of investment, and the implications for private finance's contribution in
39 addressing climate change. Through exploring how investments are made 'landable', this article
40 answers calls to (re)ground finance within the 'real economy' in order to examine how production
41 and financial networks become entangled (Hall, 2013; Coe, Lai and Wójcik, 2014), and the
42 environmental implications of this entanglement. Analysing where finance lands opens up new
43 insights into how 'green' finance both configures, and is configured by, the intersections between
44 international financial markets and local social, natural and political conditions. Such a perspective
45 can help expand understandings of how far investments are 'real' or 'performed' when
46 benchmarked against their real existence or scientific contribution to averting climate change

1 (Bracking, 2015: 2347). Furthermore, through adopting an assemblage lens I also highlight the
2 agency of those at the receiving end of financial flows, offering a perspective that diversifies our
3 understanding of the intersection between finance and agriculture.

4 [Assembling and governing green economies](#)

5 The last two decades have seen a substantial growth of new ‘green’ financial instruments – from
6 REDD+ schemes to low-carbon index funds to ‘green’ mortgages for home owners – widening the
7 sites and means through which environmental governance is enacted (Bracking, 2019). Despite their
8 diverse forms and aims, such instruments rely on the existence of a wider green economy to be put
9 to work. There are signs that such a green economy is emerging. While current levels of investment
10 in climate change mitigation activities are still relatively small (The Global Commission on the
11 Economy and Climate, 2016), they are growing rapidly (Campiglio, 2016; Buchner *et al.*, 2017).
12 Nonetheless, it is estimated that additional investment of hundreds of billions, if not several trillions,
13 in low-carbon activities is required each year to meet Paris Agreement goals (Bielenberg *et al.*, 2015;
14 McCollum *et al.*, 2018).

15 However, such quantifications of green finance assume the existence of a green economy that can
16 be brought into being, if only the right quantity of investment was made available. Instead, cultural
17 approaches to economic and financial geography reminds us that enacting low-carbon economies is
18 not simply a question of quantities. It also requires sensitivity to the processes and practices through
19 which these new economies are put to work (see for example, Lovell and MacKenzie, 2011; Ouma *et al.*,
20 2018). By asking where green finance lands, I draw on these approaches to understand how new
21 green economies are configured, and to what effect. In doing so, I take as my starting point the
22 notion that the establishment of a green economy requires a new green ‘thing’ to be made visible,
23 defined, and allocated. This requires its green qualities to be made commensurate through new
24 technologies and regimes of measurement (MacKenzie, 2009; Corson, MacDonald and Neimark,
25 2013; Campiglio, 2016; Bracking, 2019).

26 In the case of green finance, however, there are two types of green ‘things’ that need to be
27 considered and aligned: a green resource or asset, the object of investment; and a green financial
28 instrument, which enables the flow of finance to the former. This requires, firstly, that the resource-
29 like qualities of the object of investment are made material (Bumpus, 2011; Li, 2014). Resourceness,
30 according to Li (2014) is not a fixed property, but “an assemblage of materialities, relations,
31 technologies and discourses that have to be pulled together and made to align” (p.589). Following Li
32 (2014) and Bracking (2019) I argue that an assemblage lens can help interpret how these different
33 dimensions (material and immaterial, human and nonhuman, social and technical) are brought
34 together through processes of enrolment, alignment and coordination in an attempt to create order;
35 and how the capacity to act emerges through these processes.

36 How such processes take shape is especially relevant for green finance, as ‘resourceness’ can be a
37 feature of both the underlying material object (e.g. land, electricity, food) and that object’s green
38 qualities. For green financial instruments to be put to work, the ‘green’ and other (material) qualities
39 of the object of investment thus need to be assembled, made to align which one another, and with
40 the new financial instrument, the latter having gone through a similar process of assembling and
41 alignment. This coming together is both a “necessary and prior condition” for green finance to flow
42 (Braun, 2008: 671 in Bracking, 2019).

43 Processes of assembling and alignment have been detailed in literature on the making of material
44 resources, such as land and agriculture (e.g. Le Billon and Sommerville, 2017; Li, 2014) and of ‘non-
45 existential commodities’, such as carbon (Bumpus 2011). The latter has shown in detail the

1 processes through which carbon – as a green object of investment - becomes ‘hemmed in’ and
2 functionally abstracted to create units of nature (e.g. credits that represent a specific quantity of
3 emissions reduction) that can be allocated and exchanged (Bumpus, 2011). Such processes of
4 abstraction are deemed necessary to continue their commodification and placement into wider
5 systems of exchange, i.e. carbon markets (Bumpus, 2011), but also distance carbon markets from
6 the material underpinnings of the climate problem (Lohmann, 2008). In this literature, the
7 assemblage of sociomaterial relations underpinning the virtual carbon offset is primarily discussed in
8 relation to their (un)cooperativeness in the process of abstracting carbon; the enactment of a
9 commodity with a non-existential nature (e.g. Bumpus, 2011).

10 This emphasis on processes of abstraction, however, risks obscuring the significance of place
11 (Lohmann, 2008). Instead, I seek to shift attention from how abstraction occurs to how investments
12 *land* in particular places, because – as Li reminds us – “land they must” (2014: 589). In doing so, I
13 analyse how objects of investment are assembled through the attachment of green qualities to a
14 (material) resource. Such an approach enables a subtle, but important, shift of frame. Whereas
15 much of the literature discussed above is focused on the *how* of carbon markets, I propose an
16 emphasis on the *where* and *why* of such markets. Where does low-carbon investment land, and why
17 there? In other words, it shifts the focus from the work required to enable flows of investment, to
18 both the motivations and conditions that enable the landing, or pooling, of investment in a particular
19 place. The next section will explore extant understandings of how this process of landing takes place
20 in the agricultural sector.

21 [Landing agricultural finance](#)

22 The question of ‘landing’ capital has been increasingly explored in relation to physical places,
23 especially (agricultural) land itself (Li, 2014; Knuth, 2015; Christophers, 2016), including in this
24 journal (e.g. Ouma, 2014, 2016; Fogelman and Bassett, 2017; Le Billon and Sommerville, 2017; Li,
25 2017; Pedersen and Buur, 2017). In the words of Isakson (2014: 771), “*there has been a rush to*
26 *analyse the land rush*”. This expanding agenda reflects renewed interest among investors in asset
27 classes that promise more stable returns, particularly asset classes that are ‘real things’, such as
28 land or agriculture (Ouma, 2014).

29 At face value, growing interest in agriculture as a new asset class appears to be easily explained:
30 limited availability of land, combined with a growing population, environmental degradation and
31 increased demand for bio-fuels are expected to shape future supply-demand dynamics and increase
32 land values (Ouma, 2014; Pedersen and Buur, 2017). The focus on increased flows of foreign
33 investment that are responding to anticipated (negative) environmental impacts, has at times
34 become self-explanatory. This singular focus, however, potentially skews understanding of the
35 diverse contemporary processes and dynamics of investments and their role in agricultural and
36 environmental governance (Ouma, 2016; Pedersen and Buur, 2017).

37 While initial research into the rush for land and agricultural investments imagined such processes
38 ‘from above’, more literature is emerging that seeks to develop a grounded understanding of how
39 agriculture is turned into an asset class (Ouma, 2014), highlighting the spatial and temporal
40 boundedness of new financial flows (Le Billon and Sommerville, 2017). This literature demonstrates
41 that integration of land into circuits of international financial investment requires the rearrangement
42 of processes that determine land’s material and symbolic qualities (Ouma, 2014; Le Billon and
43 Sommerville, 2017). It locates the ways finance is inscribed in agriculture in everyday actions and
44 sociotechnical practices that invoke materialities, intermediaries, and temporality; highlighting how

1 new circuits of finance are practical accomplishments rather than pre-given entities (Ouma, 2014,
2 2016; Le Billon and Sommerville, 2017).

3 I find the notion of the ‘field’, and the role it plays in accomplishing new circuits of finance
4 particularly fruitful. By field I mean the existing relations and political economies in which new
5 investment objects and instruments are situated, and which condition what change can occur (see
6 also Bracking, 2015; Lohmann, 2015). Fields then, are dynamic, relational arenas featuring particular
7 logics, dynamic actor positions, and organisational forms (Wilshusen and MacDonald, 2017). Ouma
8 (2016), for example, argues this means being attentive to the larger social, legal and technical
9 architecture of the financial system, particularly the roles asset owners and managers play in
10 accomplishing new circuits of finance. However, an attentiveness to where finance lands means also
11 paying attention to architectures of the agricultural system. In other words, to understand how
12 environmental governance is enacted one also needs to ask how ‘extraeconomic forces’ in the
13 agricultural sector mediate agri-finance investments (Williams, 2014; Visser, Clapp and Isakson,
14 2015; Ouma, 2016).

15 A grounded understanding of agricultural investments thus requires us to take serious the complex,
16 animate and distributed agency that finance encounters in agriculture (see also Bracking 2019).
17 Investment in land has long been considered a risky proposition due to the “liveliness of agricultural
18 products” (Le Billon and Sommerville, 2017: 213). However, recent investments have often not been
19 driven by agriculture or land’s productive qualities (see e.g. Fairbairn, 2014). As a result, the ability of
20 agriculture to mould financial flows risks being neglected in analyses under the header of
21 financialisation. To remain attentive to the agency of agriculture, it is therefore helpful to view the
22 assembling and alignment of finance and resource as a two-way process. Le Billon and Sommerville
23 (2017) refer to this as the interactions between processes that make investments landable, and
24 those that make resources investable.

25 One way of understanding the ‘agricultural field’ is through broader agri-food system dynamics and
26 its interactions with finance. To date, such understandings are rather uneven, with the majority of
27 recent research focused on equity investment at the ‘front end’ of the agricultural supply chain, i.e.
28 investment in land (Fairbairn, 2014). There are two further, rather separate, bodies of work. The first
29 seeks to understand how finance is reshaping agricultural supply chains beyond the farm (Isakson,
30 2014; Clapp and Isakson, 2018; Clapp, Newell and Brent, 2018), while the second has analysed the
31 interplay between environmental and food system governance (Clapp and Scott, 2018).
32 Nonetheless, the intersection between the three dimensions of financial, agricultural and
33 environmental governance – especially beyond investment in land – remains poorly understood.

34 Here, I therefore seek to bring together and build on these different strands of thinking around the
35 landing of finance, and how the interaction between financial and agricultural fields shape this
36 process. I do so by exploring how the rather capacious quality of ‘greenness’ shapes the
37 accomplishment of new financial flows within the agricultural sector, where they land, and the
38 implications for climate governance through private finance more broadly. In doing so I speak to the
39 emergent literature on the landing of finance which has shown that the forms and impacts of
40 investments are diverse and situated. These forms and impacts are not shaped by a singular field:
41 they are given shape through the interaction between object (‘green agriculture’), subject (‘green’
42 financial instruments) and the broader *fields* through which each are assembled and made to align in
43 order to construct a new green economy.

44 By conceptualising the constitution of greenness and how this constitutive work contributes to the
45 configuration of new fields of environmental governance, I focus on how such governance is

1 embedded in, and enacted through narratives, materialities, institutions and concrete practices that
2 configure the field of governance and steer activities towards particular governance objectives
3 (Bulkeley, McGuirk and Dowling, 2016). I adopt what Li (2007) terms an ‘analytics of assemblage’
4 approach to ask how narratives, institutions, materialities and practices configure green governance
5 through the assembling of environmental subjects and objects, and make them commensurate with
6 the wider field in which they occur, and how this structures new fields in the process. In other
7 words, I question what is assembled, and what environmental actions and outcomes are opened or
8 foreclosed as a result. I do so through an exploration of the issuance of a green debt instrument by
9 FrieslandCampina, the fifth largest dairy company in the world and the first to issue labelled green
10 debt. After providing a brief explanation of the empirical context, I will trace how and where the
11 capital raised by the Schuldschein landed.

12 [Agricultural systems as emergent sites of climate governance](#)

13 Agriculture is increasingly a focus of efforts to mitigate climate change. For example, EU countries
14 have committed to an average 30% reduction of agricultural emissions by 2030 compared to 2005
15 levels (Doornewaard *et al.*, 2017). Much of these reductions are to be found in livestock production,
16 which accounts for approximately 14.5% of global anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG)
17 emissions (FAO, 2013). Just under one third of those emissions emerge from the dairy sector (FAO,
18 2010). As a result, livestock production has become subject to new forms of climate governance,
19 with major studies now advocating reduced consumption of animal proteins (EAT-Lancet
20 Commission, 2018).

21 Much societal and research attention to date has focused on the emergence of alternatives to
22 traditional forms of meat and dairy (e.g. Jönsson *et al.*, 2019; Mouat and Prince, 2018; Sexton, 2018)
23 However, little is known about how incumbents are responding to this challenge. The empirical
24 focus of this study - Dutch dairy company FrieslandCampina - therefore offers an interesting
25 opportunity to understand how a major incumbent responds to being drawn into the sphere of
26 climate governance, and how it utilises ‘green finance’ to shape this emergent field of agricultural
27 climate governance. FrieslandCampina is one of the world’s largest dairy companies, with \$12.4
28 billion in dairy sales in 2016 (Bellamy and van Battum, 2017), and also the first non-energy company
29 to issue a Green Schuldschein, a labelled green debt instrument.

30 Before diving deeper into the green debt issuance, it is worth highlighting the company’s governance
31 structures, which play an important role in configuring the company’s climate actions. In the
32 Netherlands dairy companies are deemed the most powerful companies in the supply chain
33 (interview, environmental campaigner). FrieslandCampina consists of two separate, but related
34 bodies. First, there is the Dairy Cooperative FrieslandCampina, consisting of 18,000+ member
35 farmers in the Netherlands, Germany and Belgium, most of whom own and manage family-farms.
36 Second, there is the company FrieslandCampina. Whereas literature on the finance-agriculture
37 nexus has highlighted the rise of shareholder capitalism in recent decades (e.g. Burch and Lawrence,
38 2009), this does not directly apply to FrieslandCampina, where the dairy cooperative is the sole
39 shareholder of the company. This means it has total control of the General Meeting of Shareholders,
40 and appoints nine out of thirteen members on its supervisory board. As a result of this structure, the
41 company’s supply chain is both dispersed and integrated, with FrieslandCampina encompassing both
42 the production stage (farms) and processing stage (processing raw milk into other ingredients
43 and/or end products) of the dairy chain.

1 Schuldscheine as a tool of climate governance

2 In 2016 FrieslandCampina NV (the company) issued a *Green Schuldschein* to raise €300 million of
3 ‘green’ finance to fund various sustainability initiatives. In recent years, Schuldscheine have become
4 a popular alternative form of corporate financing. The instrument is of particular interest to
5 companies seeking to widen their financing base and are also looking for stronger public
6 exposure (Nord/LB, 2016). As I will demonstrate later, this also played important roles in
7 the FrieslandCampina issuance. A (green) Schuldschein is in many ways similar to a (green) bond:
8 they are both privately placed debt instruments (Kidney, 2016). They can have a fixed or variable
9 interest rate, and investors almost always hold them to maturity (Kidney, 2016).² Like green bonds,
10 green Schuldscheine are often evaluated by external parties, following the Green Bond Principles:
11 “voluntary process guidelines that recommend transparency and disclosure and promote integrity in
12 the development of the Green Bond” (ICMA, 2018: 3).

13 While Schuldscheine have a long history, the first *green* Schuldschein was only issued in 2016, by
14 German renewable energy company Nordex (Kidney, 2016), with a further four green Schuldscheine
15 issued in the following twelve months (Sonerud and Adamini, 2017). The FrieslandCampina issuance
16 was the first time this ‘green’ debt instrument was issued by an agricultural company
17 (FrieslandCampina, 2016). Due to its substantial asset base, FrieslandCampina also has a significant
18 financing need. However, as it is an unrated company and does not have a public credit rating its
19 financing options are more limited. FrieslandCampina’s decision to issue a Green Schuldschein is
20 therefore part of a wider strategy to diversify the company’s funding (FrieslandCampina employee;
21 TreasuryToday, 2016).

22 The €300 million Schuldschein was oversubscribed and attracted German savings banks,
23 international institutional investors, as well as international banks. While a small part of the money
24 raised was intended to contribute to the company’s social sustainability aims – achieving a
25 sustainable living for its farmers and developing nutritious products – the majority of funds were
26 directed towards the company’s aim of achieving ‘climate neutral growth’ by 2020
27 (FrieslandCampina, 2018a). In practice, this means the money has been primarily used to (re)finance
28 energy efficiency measures and renewable energy generation capacity in its processing factories.

29 In the next section I will explore how the €300 million Schuldschein investment configured the
30 notion of low-carbon agriculture, and how this configuration shaped where this investment did, and
31 did not, land. In the discussion that follows I will discuss the broader implications for the
32 (re)configuration of climate governance through private finance.

33 To understand how the Green Schuldschein (re)configured FrieslandCampina’s climate mitigation
34 efforts I conducted an exploratory study, interviewing nine people either directly involved in the
35 Schuldschein issuance, or otherwise concerned with FrieslandCampina’s sustainability activities. The
36 first group includes FrieslandCampina employees, including those involved in structuring the
37 Schuldschein offering; the Head of Sustainable Markets at one of the banks involved in the issuance;
38 and analysts involved in evaluating the green credentials of the Schuldschein and other debt
39 instruments. The second group include farmers, staff at an industry-led sustainability initiative, and
40 staff at an environmental NGO. Most interviews were conducted in person, the remainder by

² However, unlike bonds, schuldscheine are not traded in a market nor listed on a stock exchange (Kidney, 2016). As they are not marked-to-market, they also avoid exposure to volatility in the bond market (Kidney, 2016; Linhardt, 2014).

1 telephone. Interviews lasted between 45 minutes 90 minutes and were recorded, and subsequently
2 transcribed, and coded.

3 Unfortunately, no *Schuldschein* investors were willing to participate in the research. Therefore, the
4 interviews were complemented by participant observation at various ‘green finance’ conferences
5 and workshops in the UK, France, and Sweden between 2017 and 2019. I also conducted additional
6 participant observation at a symposium organised by the dairy sector aimed at exploring the
7 environmental impact of dairy farming. The discussions observed at these events were used to
8 contextualise the interview data.

9

10 [Assembling \(green\) finance for \(low-carbon\) agriculture](#)

11 Here I explore how green agriculture was assembled as an object of investment in the case of
12 FrieslandCampina, and how this shaped where the money raised through the *Schuldschein* issuance
13 landed. Drawing on Le Billon and Sommerville (2017) and others who have looked at how resources
14 and green financial streams are brought into being (e.g. Bracking, 2019; Li, 2014) I focus on four
15 processes that contribute to the enactment of assembling green resources: (1) establishing the field
16 of intervention; (2) establishing the object of intervention; (3) establishing the instrument of
17 intervention; (4) legitimising the emergent assemblage.

18 [Establishing the field of intervention](#)

19 Before delving into the specifics of FrieslandCampina’s Green *Schuldschein*, it is important to
20 understand the wider field in which the object of intervention (low-carbon dairy) is situated. For
21 agriculture, this means recognising the growing awareness of the environmental impact of
22 agriculture, and of meat and dairy production in particular. The broad-ranging environmental
23 impacts of meat and dairy production – from emissions to biodiversity loss – are increasingly
24 recognised by consumers and policymakers. Indeed, while dairy consumption in most Western
25 European countries continues to be high, it is no longer growing (AAFC, 2018; corroborated by a
26 FrieslandCampina employee). Popular media channels are supporting a narrative that we’re falling
27 out of love with milk (Lewis, 2018), enabled by a substantial growth in plant-based alternatives
28 (Mintel, 2018; Stokel-Walker, 2018). These changing consumption patterns are fuelling concerns
29 among farmers and other dairy stakeholders that dairy consumption will decline in the near future:

30 *‘In Sweden they’re being told to drink less milk to reduce emissions. Let’s not do*
31 *that here!’.* (Farmer at Dutch dairy farming symposium, 2018).

32 While there are various reasons why consumers are switching, a mix of environmental concerns,
33 especially climate impact and ethical/animal welfare concerns, are thought to be the driving forces
34 behind the increasing popularity of plant-based meat and dairy alternatives (Mouat and Prince,
35 2018; Stokel-Walker, 2018; Jönsson, Linné and McCrow-Young, 2019). Meanwhile, start-ups
36 operating in the area have been attracting the attention of investors, especially venture capital
37 (Mouat and Prince, 2018; Fields, 2019). While some dairy companies have responded by
38 strengthening non-dairy operations (Fields, 2019), FrieslandCampina, a dairy company owned
39 entirely by dairy farmers, has instead sought to demonstrate its green credentials in a different way.
40 It has felt the need to do so, partly to respond to consumer concerns, but also in response to
41 growing political awareness of the dairy industry’s environmental impacts. While there is no long-
42 term emission reduction target for the dairy industry, stakeholders anticipate that national emission
43 reduction targets will soon be translated into stricter regulations for the dairy industry.

1 Changing consumer habits and anticipated regulatory changes mean there is an emerging need for
2 incumbent actors to reposition themselves as ‘green’ actors, whose activities contribute to a healthy
3 environment. One way that the dairy sector is trying to position itself in a green light, and thus
4 shape the field of intervention, is through industry-led initiatives. For example, the Dutch dairy
5 sector set itself ‘an ambition’ to reduce its own CO₂e emissions by 25% by 2030 (compared to 1990
6 levels), primarily through tackling carbon and methane emission (Rabobank, 2019). It has also
7 initiated the ‘Duurzame Zuivelketen’ (Sustainable Dairy Chain), a collaboration of actors within the
8 dairy sector seeking to improve environmental performance. In a similar vein, the international
9 industry-led Dairy Sustainability Framework seeks to provide a ‘holistic approach’ to sustainability,
10 encompassing seven different environmental criteria (DSF, 2019). Through these industry-led efforts,
11 the sector seeks to enable a narrative that positions the dairy industry as part of the solution.

12 For FrieslandCampina, the issuance of a *Schuldschein* was a key narrative tool to signal the
13 company’s green credentials. One stakeholder explained that FrieslandCampina’s choice for a Green
14 *Schuldschein* to finance its activities, was not related to financial need. Rather it was chosen
15 explicitly to communicate its environmental credentials to the outside world. And according to an
16 employee, the company reckoned that a ‘green’ financial instrument might signal to outside
17 stakeholders that FrieslandCampina’s environmental policies must be strong. Issuing a Green
18 *Schuldschein* was thus attractive to FrieslandCampina (as it is for other green bond issuers) because
19 it gives the issuer a ‘green badge’ (Climate Bond Initiative Conference 2018). An employee of the
20 company argues that such a badge could play a potential role in pre-empting the introduction of
21 stricter regulation.

22 The role of green finance as a communication tool to extend a sector’s social license to operate was
23 also visible in the financial sector. When I attended a major climate finance conference in 2018, a
24 significant number of speakers mentioned the power of green finance to rehabilitate the financial
25 sector’s reputation. At another conference, a speaker from a major British bank explained how his
26 employers viewed green finance:

27 *‘Let’s face it, we’re not very well-liked. For us, this [green finance] presents an*
28 *opportunity to restore some of the trust that people have lost in us’.* (Climate
29 finance conference, March 2018).

30 The presentations and conversations at climate finance conferences therefore indicate that a major
31 attraction of green forms of finance is their presumed ability to restore the reputation of the
32 financial sector, among policy makers and public. This echoes findings elsewhere that some
33 organisations consider climate change and sustainability to be primarily a reputational risk (and
34 opportunity) rather than a physical one (Folger-Laronde and Weber, 2018; Harvard-Williams, 2019).

35 What is thus evident is the emergence of two complementary ‘fields’ in the agricultural and financial
36 sector, which are beginning to converge around their desire to be ‘seen to be green’. In both cases
37 the notion of greenness is seen as a powerful narrative tool, to enhance public (and political)
38 confidence, potentially pre-empting stricter regulation. As the next section shows in more detail,
39 the emerging shape of these fields and how they position green financial instruments as primarily a
40 communication tool, play an important role in how green financial flows come to be assembled and
41 where they land.

42 [Establishing the object of intervention: the cow in the room](#)

43 I have established that there is an interest for incumbent actors in both the agricultural and the
44 finance sector to display and communicate their green credentials to external stakeholders. But this

1 is insufficient for explaining how the broad notion of ‘greenness’ was translated into the types of
2 projects – technological measures focused on improving energy efficiency and use of renewable
3 energy in processing factories – that were funded through FrieslandCampina’s Schuldschein. As I will
4 demonstrate, one part of the explanation of how ‘greenness’ was translated can be found in the
5 source of emissions (and their unruliness) and the structure of the dairy supply chain.

6 For the Schuldschein money to be directed towards a narrow set of technological interventions,
7 FrieslandCampina first narrowed the idea of ‘green’ to ‘climate’, and subsequently to ‘CO2’. As I
8 described in the previous section, dairy’s multiple environmental impacts are recognised among
9 stakeholders. These stakeholders, including politicians, NGOs and farmers, also recognise that a
10 range of solutions is required to address them. As one interviewee from an environmental NGO
11 explained:

12 *‘The climate impact of food could probably be solved through technological measures alone,*
13 *but might make no difference, or even have a negative impact on other environmental*
14 *dimensions, such as biodiversity. [...] We need to go back to the start: how can we have*
15 *healthy, sufficient food, with a limited impact on the environment? We need to start again*
16 *from scratch, and we need long-term solutions for farmers, not short-term*
17 *fixes.’ (Interviewee, NGO).*

18 These words were echoed by a dairy farmer in response to a debate on what the dairy sector can, or
19 should, do to tackle climate change:

20 *‘Technological gimmicks alone won’t be enough.’ (Farmer, Dairy symposium)*

21 Indeed, FrieslandCampina’s Corporate Social Responsibility strategy seeks to tackle a mix of
22 concerns, including animal welfare, biodiversity and climate concerns. What is therefore interesting,
23 is that the Green Schuldschein was primarily used to address the company’s carbon emissions, silo-
24 ing the climate impact of dairy from its other environmental dimensions.

25 The company’s focus on emission reductions can be traced to 2015, when it identified climate
26 change - and regulatory efforts to tackle it - as one potential barrier to growth. In response, it
27 formulated the goal of climate neutral growth, which mirrors a regulatory goal of climate neutral
28 growth for the entire Dutch dairy sector. ‘Climate neutral growth’ means (for both company and
29 country) that there should be no net increase in emissions by 2020 compared to 2011 levels, and a
30 20% reduction in emissions compared to 1990 levels (Doornewaard et al., 2017; interviewee,
31 FrieslandCampina). In theory, this allows for increased production levels without associated increase
32 in emissions, although early evidence shows that emissions in the dairy sector have continued to
33 rise (Doornewaard et al., 2017).

34 Most of the Schuldschein money was directed to this idea of climate neutral growth. However,
35 although approximately 70-80% of emissions from dairy are farm-based emissions (Hill, 2017 –
36 corroborated by interviewees), the money raised through the Schuldschein would not be used to
37 tackle these emissions. Instead the company would target the 10-15% of emissions emitted by
38 FrieslandCampina’s processing factories, which among other things, turn raw milk into milk powder
39 for international markets. It became evident during my fieldwork that the operationalisation of
40 ‘greenness’ as ‘climate’ was subsequently further narrowed to ‘CO2 reduction’, to be addressed by
41 new technological measures focused on enhancing energy efficiency and renewable energy
42 generating capacity. The organisational and technical challenges of operationalising the green
43 qualities of farm-based emissions offer an insight into why this happened.

1 First, the structure of FrieslandCampina's supply chain is such that there is a high level of vertical
2 upstream integration. The 18,000+ Dutch, Belgian and German dairy farmers who are members
3 of FrieslandCampina have to sell their entire production to the company, while the company is
4 obliged to buy all the raw milk produced by them (De La Mano et al., 2009). This supply chain
5 structure – with 18,000 farmers selling their product to one company – means the asset-base of the
6 production (i.e. farming) stage of the supply chain is highly fragmented. This is not unusual. Despite
7 horizontal and vertical integration within agricultural supply chains, the riskiness of agricultural
8 production and the challenges of appropriating surplus value have ensured that fragmented family
9 farms continue to predominate agricultural production (Isakson, 2014). This fragmentation makes it
10 not very amenable to large-scale investment (CBI conference 2018). While individual farmers may be
11 able to access loans or other forms of finance to implement environmental initiatives on their own
12 farms, it would be difficult to coordinate this among all farmers. Only a company with a significant
13 asset-base (such as FrieslandCampina) can issue a Green Schuldschein that will attract significant
14 inward investment.

15 Second, while FrieslandCampina is partly a cooperative, where its farmers are also its members, this
16 does not guarantee that farm-based emission reduction initiatives are welcomed or necessarily
17 taken up by its members. Farmers roles in combatting climate change is slowly being accepted by
18 farmers, but resistance remains, with some farmers arguing the sector is disproportionately targeted
19 by politicians and climate activists (Dairy symposium 2018).

20 Finally, most farm-based emissions are methane (CH₄), a form of carbon that is much more unruly
21 than the CO₂ emitted in the company's factories. Methane emissions are highly variable, depending
22 on a cow's diet and breed, and methane's Global Warming Potential value has been updated several
23 times over the years, meaning that conversion of CH₄ into the widely used CO₂e measurement is
24 rather unstable (Trottier, 2015). In addition to the unruliness of carbon-in-methane, monitoring of
25 environmental outcomes on farms is still in the early stages. While data access is somewhat
26 simplified due to the integrated nature of FrieslandCampina, monitoring on-farm emissions
27 accurately remains challenging, making it difficult to implement funding based on emission
28 reductions. As such, the processing factories offer a more straightforward means of operationalising
29 carbon reductions, and – importantly – communicating this to external stakeholders.

30 To summarise, while dairy production has multiple 'green' dimensions, the Schuldschein
31 operationalised 'greenness' in a manner that was much narrower – targeting CO₂ emissions from
32 production factories through technological changes. The 'unruly' nature of CH₄ and farms/farmers
33 means that the impact from farms remained out of scope. The decision not to target farm-based
34 emissions was further enabled through the lack of institutionalisation of greenness in the financial
35 sector – as the next section will explore.

36 Establishing the instrument of intervention: what is 'green'?

37 Company finance generally occurs through a combination of financial mechanisms. Fixed-income
38 mechanisms such as bonds, loans and Schuldscheine are distinctly different from (equity) shares, as
39 they do not enable the financier to obtain ownership rights nor the ability to influence corporate
40 decisions and operations. Instead, they simply provide the financier with a fixed part of the revenue
41 from a project or firm (Arjalies et al., 2017; Galaz et al., 2018).

42 One might expect that green bonds and Schuldscheine offer investors the opportunity to make
43 investment decision to invest based on the sustainability rating of the project funded (Arjalies et al.,
44 2017). However, my interviews confirmed the findings of Arjalies et al. (2017): many, if not most,
45 asset managers apply existing evaluation practices to green bonds. In doing so, they transpose a

1 market technology based on ‘traditional’ financial considerations such as yield curves and company
2 credit ratings to a new market. In practice, this means that financial returns of green bonds remain
3 largely disconnected from the anticipated or achieved environmental impact of the projects funded,
4 or of the green credentials of the issuing company. Instead, as the Head of Sustainable Markets at a
5 bank involved in the FrieslandCampina issuance explained, the issuer’s financial risk profile is a
6 determining factor for investors:

7 *“Schuldschein investors will always consider the creditworthiness of the issuer*
8 *first. That creditworthiness is determined at the level of the issuer, not the bond.”*

9 As a result, the green qualities of a bond or its issuer tends to not feature heavily in the decision-
10 making process. This is facilitated by ongoing lack of agreement on how to institutionalise the
11 ‘greenness’ of green financial instruments. Without specific regulation, the Green Bond Principles
12 (ICMA, 2018) serve as a general guide on what can be considered a ‘green project’. While these
13 principles guide what counts as ‘green’, it contains no stipulation of additionality to differentiate
14 emissions produced by a green bond project from the baseline emissions if the project did not take
15 place. As a result, it is not uncommon for money raised through green bonds or Schuldscheine to
16 either go towards a company’s general budget or to finance initiatives that have already been
17 implemented or would be implemented anyway (CDC Climat Research, 2012; Clapp, 2018). Indeed,
18 in the case of FrieslandCampina, one company employee emphasised,

19 *“It is not the case that we are taking extra measures [as a result of the*
20 *Schuldschein]. Some think we have €300 million for additional sustainability*
21 *projects, but that is not the case.”*

22 Instead, the majority of Schuldschein funds were used to re-finance efficiency projects that had
23 already been implemented or were in the process of being implemented.

24 This limited additionality of green bonds seems a point of discussion, but not of concern, among
25 finance professions. While some argued that additionality is important to maintain market integrity,
26 others argued there is potential to improve the ‘greenness’ of bonds as the market grows, but that
27 “we need to start somewhere” (author’s notes, climate finance conference, March 2018).

28 The current lack of agreement on whether and how to measure ‘greenness’ within the Green
29 Bond/Schuldschein sector has important implications. It means that the previously identified
30 challenges, such as challenges of measuring and addressing emissions on farms, may not be as
31 important as I had initially anticipated. From an investment-perspective it generally does not matter
32 how green a green bond is. Indeed, the Green Bond Principles specifically state that their purpose is
33 “not to take a position on which green technologies, standards, claims and declarations are optimal
34 for environmentally sustainable benefits” (ICMA, 2018: 3). While such an approach allows for a level
35 of geographical and sectoral flexibility, it also de-incentivises issuers to consider more challenging or
36 risky projects with greater potential for decarbonisation.

37 What matters, then, is making *perceived* greenness visible and making (financial) risk commensurate
38 rather than making quantities of carbon visible and actionable. To do so, and to legitimise the
39 emergent flow of green investment, the role of external verification bodies is integral.

40 [Legitimising the emergent assemblage: the role of verification](#)

41 The previous three sections analysed how the notion of ‘green’ dairy was translated into a fairly
42 technocratic vision, directing funds towards (often refinancing) measures to reduce carbon
43 emissions in the dairy company’s processing factories. I explained that a form of ‘greenness’ that

1 neither targets the most carbon-intensive practices of a company nor necessarily provides any
2 additional carbon savings to be become investable, can be understood by the transfer of existing
3 financial evaluation practices to the emergent field of green finance. Here, I explore how a fourth
4 process – legitimising – helps explain how this notion of greenness came to be accepted and
5 reproduced, enabling the stabilisation of the emergent assemblage.

6 To legitimise FrieslandCampina’s approach to ‘green dairy’, the company brought in an external
7 verification body to provide a ‘Second Party Opinion’ of the Green Schuldschein issuance. It is
8 increasingly common for the issuers of green bonds and Schuldscheine to bring in an external party
9 to review an issuance. In 2018, 89% of all issues bonds received at least one external review, a 50%
10 increase compared to 2014 when only 60% of green bonds had undergone independent review (CBI,
11 2015, 2019). Such reviews can take various forms, such as certification under the Climate Bonds
12 Standard or green bond ratings, but more than half of issuers chose the more flexible Second Party
13 Opinion in 2018 (CBI, 2019).

14 The importance of external review has been attributed to investors’ own lack of expertise in
15 evaluating more-than-financial criteria. Therefore, external reviewers are considered an important
16 part of the process, primarily to protect investors against claims of greenwashing. However,
17 responsible investment analysis is a new field, supported by little academic expertise and training
18 (Arjalies *et al.*, 2017). Practices of evaluation still continue to evolve and emerge.

19 As it stands, evaluation practices tend to focus primarily on the allocation of funds and how the
20 process of allocation is governed, rather than on the outcomes achieved. An interviewee from the
21 Second Party Opinion provider, explained how their process works:

22 *“We assess various anticipated climate impacts, but do not quantify greenhouse*
23 *gas emissions reductions. Instead we might evaluate the resources allocated by*
24 *the issuer to manage greenhouse gas emissions for example: are they*
25 *appropriate, are there specific people in charge, are they competent, and is there*
26 *specific monitoring in place?”*

27 While they assessed several environmental criteria, the Second Party Opinion provider did not seek
28 to quantify or benchmark intended outcomes of the issuance. This is not uncommon. A look at other
29 Schuldschein reports and frameworks also sees promises that issuers “may report” on achieved
30 environmental impacts (e.g. Encevo, 2018: 14). This language echoes the Green Bond Principles
31 which also only requires environmental benefits to be quantified “where feasible” (ICMA, 2018: 3).
32 Instead, the assessment focused primarily on whether the resources allocated by the issuer to
33 manage its emissions are appropriate. As such, the legitimacy provided by external assessment is
34 rooted in the governance arrangements through which the funding is allocated and the carbon-
35 reduction measures are to be implemented, rather than the specific decarbonisation potential of
36 FrieslandCampina’s suggested measures..

37 This means that to obtain a positive Second Party Opinion, it is beneficial for FrieslandCampina to
38 focus on a part of its activities it can more easily control, and where it has existing monitoring and
39 reporting procedures, rather than where the most significant carbon reductions can be made. In
40 doing so, the legitimising function of Second Party Opinion providers and other verification bodies
41 thus serves to legitimise an emergent assemblage where greenness is used as a communication tool,
42 and where the desire to be ‘seen to be green’ trumps the maximisation of environmental outcomes.

1 Concluding discussion

2 By analysing the use of a novel financial instrument – a Green Schuldschein – I have explored where
3 new forms of ‘green’ finance pool, opening up analyses of the intersection between finance,
4 environmental change and agriculture. I have loosely drawn on assemblage thinking as an analytical
5 concept, seeking to understand how narratives, company structures, (un)ruly forms of carbon, and
6 institutional practices combine into a configuration that shapes how green forms of finance are
7 enacted, and their environmental implications. Furthermore, by asking where finance lands and
8 why, I build on the argument by Le Billon and Sommerville (2017) that assemblage thinking enables
9 focus on the specific mechanisms or devices that enable finance to flow to new asset classes, as well
10 as on context and alternative possibilities. In doing so, I have demonstrated the importance of
11 paying attention to where new forms of finance land – and do not land - and the how ‘green’
12 agricultural resources are assembled through these financial flows.

13 Through focusing on the question where new flows of finance do and do not land, I have first of all
14 demonstrated that green financial instruments are not necessarily directed towards those economic
15 activities where greatest carbon reductions can be achieved. Indeed, it continues to be common for
16 green bonds to be used to refinance projects, with little or no expectation of additionality. This is
17 reinforced by the means through which ‘greenness’ has been (and continues to be) institutionalised,
18 in particular through the Green Bond Principles. Despite critiques of the lack of additionality
19 requirements in the green bonds sector, there is little sign that emerging regulatory frameworks to
20 govern green bonds will change this. Indeed, the European Union’s Green Bond Standard Working
21 Group argues that concerns around additionality result from a “misunderstanding of the structural
22 refinancing role of bonds” (TEG, 2019: 19). In other words the practices and conventions of the
23 (financial) field actively shape how green financial instruments and the processes through which
24 their green qualities are established. This raises questions around whether green bonds and
25 Schuldscheine can realise the “huge potential” to “tackle climate change” that has been attributed
26 to them (Pal, 2018; UNFCCC, 2018; Blanding, 2019). Furthermore, it brings into question claims that
27 certain quantities of (green) investment are required to meet Paris Agreement goals, or other
28 nationally-determined climate targets. As I have demonstrated here, and as others have argued
29 elsewhere (e.g. Bracking, 2015) green finance does not smoothly flow from A to B, but depends on a
30 green economy to be brought into being. If, however, such an economy and the financial practices
31 that underpin it are not targeting the most climate-intensive activities, then such quantifications
32 may be a moot point. To understand the potential of finance to contribute to the Paris Agreement it
33 therefore remains essential to be attuned to the question: where does the money land?

34 Second, and following on from the previous point, beyond empirical investigation into the
35 substantive contribution that new green financial instruments can play in tackling environmental
36 crises, this article also offers conceptual insights into how new forms of finance shape environmental
37 governance. Through exploration of a counter-intuitive case this account ‘destabilises’ (see also
38 Ouma, 2016) dominant understandings of the financialisation of agriculture, and of nature more
39 broadly. By focussing on processes of landing in low-carbon finance I shift the focus from financial
40 *flows* to financial *pools*. This means I do not take the sites where finance lands for granted, but
41 rather, I have considered the ‘where’ of financial pools as an open question, with multiple possible
42 answers. Analysing where finance lands opens up new insights into how ‘green’ forms of finance
43 both reconfigure, and are reconfigured by, the multiple fields through which they are assembled. I
44 have demonstrated that these intersections between international financial markets and local social,
45 natural and political conditions, give shape to climate governance through private finance.

1 Doing so highlights the need to understand the plural ways finance and environmental governance
2 interact (see also Bridge *et al.*, 2019). While – justifiably – a ‘financialisation’ lens has been highly
3 prevalent in recent research on the intersection between finance and agricultural and/or
4 environmental governance, as Kay (2018: 172) reminds us, the environment is not a flat terrain over
5 which financial investment can be unproblematically stretched (see also Ouma *et al.*, 2018). New
6 financial flows are not something ‘done to’ agriculture, but actively shaped and mediated by the
7 ‘agricultural field’: the extraeconomic relations that shape and govern the agricultural sector. My
8 example here has demonstrated that it is worth considering and examining this agency of the object
9 of investment. My focus on FrieslandCampina - a powerful incumbent actor - enabled me to
10 highlight the agency of agricultural actors, and their interactions with these extraeconomic relations
11 in the wider agricultural field. It demonstrates that actors and relations in the agricultural field are
12 not necessarily being ‘subjected’ to international finance. Rather, they can, and do, play an active
13 role in assembling the qualities that turn agricultural products into a low-carbon resource. In doing
14 so, they shape where finance is directed in a way that suits their interests, as much as that of
15 investors.

16 Agriculture *is* reworked as a result of financial flows, but this is not a passive one-way process.
17 Instead, the field is constantly re-worked through introduction of new legislation, technologies,
18 consumer pressures, and so on, which mediate these emergent financial relations in a multitude of
19 ways. In this case, the encounters between finance and environment are not simply an attempt at
20 financialisation resisted by socionatural conditions on the ground. Rather, what this exploration has
21 demonstrated is that local social, political and ecological conditions actively shape – from the
22 beginning – what is deemed possible, and where financial flows are *invited* to land.

23 This case demonstrates green finance does not necessarily enact a ‘hostile takeover’ (Kay, 2018) of
24 nature, but rather a mutually agreed circumvention of nature. While the notion of ‘greenness’ was
25 essential to bringing actants together and making finance flow, its role in shaping where finance
26 lands was minimal – except for its absence. By this I mean that the notion of a new ‘green’ resource
27 was essential for making this particular form of financial flow possible, enabling FrieslandCampina to
28 attract a new kind of investor and diversify their investors base, a goal that specifically came to the
29 fore through the interviews. Similarly, the ‘green’ adjective was important for FrieslandCampina
30 from the perspective of an incumbent seeking to negotiate a changing field, where environmental
31 concerns around agricultural production have come increasingly to the fore among both consumers
32 and policy makers.

33 While the notion of greenness was thus important to enable the company to communicate its new
34 vision for low-carbon dairy and for it to attract new investors, this focus on ‘greenness’ only played a
35 minimal role in shaping *where* these new financial flows landed. By framing ‘greenness’ through a
36 lens of technological efficiency and innovation in production factories, rather than through tackling
37 nature’s more unruly qualities (such as methane emissions), the emergent financial flows of the
38 Green Schuldscheine sought to avoid tackling nature’s liveliness, rather than seeking to overcome, or
39 subsume, it. What was at stake here was not the maximisation of value to be extracted through
40 financialisation of farmland, but the maximisation of value through ensuring the longevity of a major
41 agricultural incumbent’s social license to operate.

42 Of course, these findings are – at least to some extent – specific to the case described here. The
43 nature of bonds and Schuldscheine, with their fixed rate of return, is very different to the dynamics
44 of equity investment, enabling different ways to assemble and govern greenness. Furthermore,
45 questions remain as to how the desire to push green bonds to tackle climate change bounds the
46 consideration of climate change into financial decision making to a small subset of the financial

1 system. At the same time this research offers an exploration of the intersection between finance and
2 environment beyond the ‘pristine’ natures of forests or wetlands, instead considering the
3 industrialised natures of the agricultural sector. As there are signs that – for now at least – green
4 bonds continue to expand into a diverse array of sectors and issued by a diverse array of actors, it
5 will offer fruitful opportunities for researchers to consider the multitude of ways in which
6 environmental cf. climate change, and their governance are – or not – reshaped through new
7 financial flows.

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