

# The rejection of commercial seeds and adoption of open-pollinated maize by groups of French farmers: a discussion around their motivations

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Received: date; Accepted: date; Published: date

## Abstract:

The reappropriation of open-pollinated maize in France began at the start of the 2000s at the instigation of Agrobio Perigord (a rural development association). Groups of farmers were rapidly formed into *Maisons de la Semence* (House of Seeds) groups to collectively manage this resource, by putting in place equipment, sharing the task of characterisation, conservation, multiplication, diffusion or the pooling of knowledge.

This article seeks to discuss the factors around the emergence of certain farmers choosing to work with open-pollinated maize in the 2000s, the origin of the concept of “*semences paysannes*” (farmers’ seed systems), then the evolution and the diversification of their motivations for cultivating *semences paysannes*.

**Keywords:** keyword 1 farm seed; keyword 2 open pollinated maize; keyword 3 farm autonomy; keyword 4 rural development

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9-Feb-21

AGRONOMY EUROPE

## The rejection of commercial seeds and adoption of open-pollinated maize by groups of French farmers: a discussion around their motivations

The reappropriation of open-pollinated maize in France began at the start of the 2000s at the instigation of Agrobio Perigord (a rural development association), through a vast collection of a number of long-lasting varieties in the country, the importation of foreign varieties (Spanish, Italian and Romanian), and inventory clearance from INRA. Groups of farmers were rapidly formed into *Maisons de la Semence* (House of Seeds) groups (in 2007 in Dordogne) to collectively manage this resource, by putting in place equipment, sharing the task of characterisation, conservation, multiplication, diffusion or the pooling of knowledge [1].

Today we know of around ten formalised collectives in France which share open-pollinated maize seeds and knowledge (ADAGE 35<sup>1</sup>, CIVAM 44, CBD

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<sup>1</sup> Numbers in brackets after proper nouns refer to the postcode of each French *département*

35 Poitou-Charentes (16 & 87), AgroBio Périgord (24), ALPAD (40), BLE & Arto Gorria (64),  
36 le collectif maïs population du Gers (32), ARDEAR Centre, ADDEAR 42, and Semeurs pour  
37 l’avenir (70)).

38 This article seeks to discuss the factors around the emergence of certain farmers choosing  
39 to work with open-pollinated maize in the 2000s, the origin of the concept of “*semences*  
40 *paysannes*” (farmers’ seed systems), then the evolution and the diversification of their  
41 motivations for cultivating *semences paysannes*.

42

## 43 I. Introduction

### 44 1. A seed offering inappropriate for organic farming

45 The arrival of hybrid varieties of corn in the 1930s is seen by many para-agricultural  
46 institutions (research, education, seed companies etc.) as a change in the approach towards  
47 variety selection and the beginning of the concept of “modern varieties” [2]. Produced in  
48 huge quantities by larger and larger companies [3], F1 hybrids allow lines to be developed  
49 which are marked by a homogeneity and a stability which correspond to the criteria defining  
50 “modern varieties”. However, Paull (2006) points out that these aspects contrast with the  
51 priorities of organic farming movements, such as local markets and farm autonomy [4].

52 Indeed, the International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements (IFOAM) defines  
53 four major principles for Organic Farming: (i) the principle of health (the improvement of  
54 soil health, plants, animals, humans, and the planet, (ii) the principle of ecology (agriculture  
55 based on living ecological systems and cycles), (iii) the principle of equity (integrity, mutual  
56 respect, justice, and good management of a shared world), and (iv) the principle of  
57 responsibility (the protection of nature and the transmission of resources to future  
58 generations) [5].

59 According to Chable *et al.* (2014), the emergence of the need for seeds which were  
60 adapted to organic agriculture emerged at the end of the last century, after a progressive  
61 breaking-down of the seed industry with the principles of organic farming, and became a  
62 reality due to the combined effect of several factors [3].

63 Firstly, the varieties selected for conventional agriculture are poorly adapted to organic  
64 systems. Hybrid seeds, through their homogeneity, do not enhance the recognised effect of  
65 diversity on disease and pest control, abiotic stress, and the stability of production levels [6].  
66 Murphy *et al.* (2005) show that the performance of open-pollinated wheat seeds is lower  
67 when the selection environment is distanced from the production environment [7]. The  
68 dissociation of selection environment and production environment appears to be a factor  
69 which can explain the lower adaptation of hybrid systems for organic agriculture. This  
70 analysis was notably made in Mexico where hybrid seeds are used in lower proportions in the  
71 most marginal agricultural environments [8].

72 Secondly, the increased use of biotechnology in selection methods is seen as incompatible  
73 with the principles of organic agriculture. Lammerts Van Bueren et Struik (2004) define as  
74 “biotechnology” all techniques which affect species’ natural barriers and reproduction  
75 processes [9]. This is particularly the case with cytoplasmic male sterility (CMS), a technique  
76 which involves genetic modification and which modifies organisms at the cellular level.

77 Finally, European regulations make the use of certified seeds obligatory for a farm to be  
78 certified organic (EU regulation 1452/2003). However, this regulation reduces the spectrum  
79 of varietal choice, therefore is too restrictive for certain cultivated species and means that  
80 organic producers must justify their reasons for requesting an exemption for conventional  
81 seeds which are not treated after harvest. This new rule has led to widespread control over the  
82 origin of seeds by certification bodies. Among the farmers concerned, some cultivate and  
83 exchange seeds which are not registered in the catalogue. As long as these exchanges,  
84 commercial or not, are not legally recognised, tensions arise around certain inspections [1].

## 85 2. The emergence of the concept of *semences paysannes*

86 In 2003, the day before the adoption of European regulation 1452/2003, which aimed to  
87 only authorise certified organic seeds, the Auzeville conference was held by La  
88 Confédération Paysanne, Nature&Progrès, La Fédération Nationale d’Agriculture  
89 Biologique des Régions de France, Le Mouvement de Culture Bio-Dynamique,  
90 Bio d’Aquitaine, Le GDAB Midi-Pyrénées, Le Syndicat des Semences and  
91 Plants bios du Languedoc-Roussillon (Actes d’Auzeville 2003). The practice of the  
92 production of *semences paysannes* comes from anonymity, and the creation of the Réseau  
93 Semences Paysannes (RSP - Farmers’ Seed System network) confirmed the feelings of the  
94 groups present at the Auzeville conference on the importance of preserving access to “local”  
95 variety seeds, not registered in the catalogue, for small-scale, organic farming [1].

96 The concept of farmers’ seed systems emerged with the creation of the RSP network and  
97 presented numerous evolutions compared to the principles of “*semences fermieres*”  
98 championed by the CNDSF (Coordination Nationale pour la Défense des Semences de  
99 Ferme - the national coordination group for the protection of farm seeds). A first definition of  
100 these seeds was proposed by the RSP in the beginning of the 2000s and was subject to an  
101 updated definition in 2019 by its members.

102 (Before 2019) « *Semences paysannes* are selected and reproduced by producers in the  
103 farms and gardens practising small scale organic or biodynamic farming. As opposed to  
104 standardised industrial seeds, non-reproducible or GMO seeds, these are diversified and  
105 progressive populations, from natural selection and renewal methods, non-transgressive and  
106 easily accessed by farmers. Reproducible and non-appropriable by a title deed, they can be  
107 planted and replanted by the farmers and the gardeners who cultivate them, in accordance  
108 with the usage rights defined by the collectives who select and conserve them. Their  
109 characteristics make them essential to adapt to the diversity and variability of the land, the  
110 climate, the farmers’ practices and human needs. Thanks to their hardiness and their

111 adaptability, they allow reduced use of chemicals and help us respond to the challenge of  
112 providing healthy food while protecting the environment.” [10]

113 Above the simple production of seeds at farm level (*semences fermieres*), the term  
114 *semences paysannes* integrates the notions of rights (intellectual property), along with  
115 notions of genetics (appropriation of the principles of natural selection, domestication, the  
116 evocation of selection techniques), concerns about the preservation of the environment, and  
117 questions around the democratic management of communal resources (“usage rights defined  
118 by the collectives”)

119 The new definition proposed in 2019, keeps most of these elements:

120 (2019) « *Semences paysannes* are a common part of coevolution between cultivated  
121 plants, communities and lands (...) they come from dynamic populations (...) reproduced by  
122 the cultivator, within a collective which has seed autonomy as its objective. They are and  
123 have always been selected and reproduced through non-transgressive methods, from the  
124 plant cell to the final product, in the fields, gardens and orchards involved in small-scale  
125 organic or biodynamic farming. These seeds are reproduced by successive multiplications in  
126 free pollination and/or by mass selection, without forced self-fertilisation over several  
127 generations. *Semences paysannes*, and the knowledge and know-how associated with them,  
128 are freely exchangeable in accordance with the usage rights defined by the collectives who  
129 sustain them.

130 This new definition, while very similar, presents several notable changes. Firstly we  
131 notice that all assertions and allegations from the first definition have been removed; the  
132 guarantees of “hardiness”, “reduced use of chemicals” and even “respond to the challenge of  
133 providing healthy food” are no longer mentioned, and the promise of “adaptability of  
134 varieties” is replaced by “coevolution of plants and humans”. We can also note the addition  
135 of two concepts: that of a “commonality” and that of sharing “knowledge and know-how”:  
136 *semences paysannes* are not only a natural asset but an ensemble of physical resources,  
137 cultural elements, and moral and democratic engagements. We can still note the rejection of  
138 GMOs: “non-transgressive methods”, not directly named this time, but also the rejection of  
139 hybrids: “without forced self-fertilisation over several generations”, apparently evoked in  
140 the first definition behind the term “standardised industrial seeds”. Thus, with these changes,  
141 the definition proposed by the members in 2019 focuses solely on the obligations of means  
142 (who does it, in what conditions, by what methods), and no longer focuses on the guarantee  
143 of results.

144 In practice however, those in the small-scale farming world who use the term “*semences*  
145 *paysannes*”, do not necessarily agree with this definition and on the limits it imposes [11]. In  
146 addition, there are many reasons which push farmers to produce *semences paysannes*, and  
147 these are not limited to a simple technical dimension. Nearly 20 years after the Auzeville  
148 conference, there are many users of *semences paysannes*, and the motivations which push  
149 them to this decision have changed and diversified. This article aims to analyse this aspect,

150 complementing the work undertaken by H el ene Proix (CIVAM BLE), Marion Charbonneau  
151 (UMR Passages, Universit e de Pau et des pays de l'Adour) and Romane Guillot (intern) in  
152 the context of PEI CUBIC<sup>2</sup>.

153 The following analyses come from four years of personal experience as a presenter and  
154 researcher within a group of farmers using open-pollinated maize, and from participation in  
155 various meetings, symposiums, presentations, training and debates, within the agricultural  
156 and para-agricultural industry. The conduct of an experiment on the quantitative evaluation  
157 of mass selection carried out as part of the CASDAR COVALIENCE project<sup>3</sup> (first results to  
158 be published in 2021) constitutes a large part of this professional activity.

159

## 160 II. Farmers' motivations and values in their choice of *semences paysannes*

161 The motivations which push farmers to work with *semences paysannes* are varied. Guillot  
162 (2019) researched several collectives in the South-West of France and through his study  
163 pulled out six key motivators: (i) the quest for autonomy and the political battle, then the  
164 techno-economic battles which we break down here into (ii) economic motivation, (iii)  
165 agronomic motivation and (iv) technological motivation, (v) the safeguarding of cultivated  
166 biodiversity, (vi) the improved recognition of the work of farmers, and (vii) the need for  
167 collective actions [12].

168 (i) The first concerns the quest for autonomy from the monopoly of industrial seed  
169 producers. This defiance towards seed institutions comes from a combination of factors.  
170 Apart from the fact that the varietal offer is unsuitable for certain agricultural models, a lack  
171 of trust arose in the 2000s after GMO contaminants were found in commercial maize seeds.  
172 A report by AFFSA (Agence Francaise de Securite Sanitaire des Aliments - the French  
173 Agency for Food Safety), confirmed in 2001 that in a series of inspections carried out in 2000  
174 and 2001, 41% of samples were contaminated [13].

175 "*Before open-pollinated maize, we made our own hybrids, we crossed two hybrids, we*  
176 *detasseled one and left another. So we still depended on seed producers, which annoyed us a*  
177 *little, that's also why we started with open-pollinated maize. It's not necessarily financial,*  
178 *it's more political in terms of GMOs, it's those things which led us to wanting to bypass the*  
179 *seed producers who don't give a damn about us, who are just there to do business"* (livestock  
180 farmer from Loire-Atlantique (44), heard during a meeting of a collective in Dordogne (24) -  
181 September 2020).

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<sup>2</sup> Le PEI CUBIC is a research and development project which aims to develop collective dynamics of participative selection of farm varieties, with an agroecological approach. It brings together 13 partners from the Nouvelle Aquitaine region. Supported by the Nouvelle Aquitaine region and the European Union. 2019-2020.

<sup>3</sup> Co-design selection management tools on allogams for local adaptation and agroecosystem resilience - in the case of maize - participative selection on open-pollinated maize. A French project led by ITAB (Fr ed eric Rey) and INRA (Laurent Hazard). Supported by the French Ministry of Agriculture (CASDAR). 2018-2021.

182        *“The basic objective was to protect ourselves from the GMO seeds which were found in*  
183 *commercialised hybrids, and therefore to become independent in terms of seed production”*  
184 (grain farmer from Dordogne (24), surveyed in August 2017).

185        *“The development of GMO plants seemed to him to be a new and final attempt on the*  
186 *autonomy of farmers”* (extract from a portrait of a goat farmer in Vienne (86)) [14].

187        These three accounts show that hybrids and GMOs are often associated, in terms of  
188 representation, in the reports, although these two selection methods are very different. They  
189 confirm that the arrival of GMOs was a trigger which brought about a more general question  
190 around “non-farm varieties” and of the seed model. In these three statements, we note that  
191 becoming a seed producer was not an end in itself, but a way of protecting oneself from  
192 GMOs.

193        Moreover, a number of legal changes have been felt by certain farmers and agricultural  
194 organisations as the extortion of plant breeders, against the fundamental right of the people to  
195 retain control of their food resources.

196        *“What’s at stake today is that the political decision-makers are becoming aware that*  
197 *seeds are the basis for guaranteeing food sovereignty for future generations”* (grain farmer  
198 from Dordogne (24), speaking in 2011) [14].

199        In this respect, we can cite the prohibition of the triage profession on 4th July 1989, the  
200 rejection of the request by UPOV (Union Nationale pour la Protection des Obtentions  
201 Végétales - The National Union for the Protection of Plant Varieties) in 1991 to ban farm  
202 seed which resulted in the establishment of an “optional dispensation” (where farm seed is  
203 authorised as long as the breeder is remunerated) [15], or indeed the implementation of the  
204 Official Catalogue system which structurally excludes genetically diverse varieties due to the  
205 establishment of a marketing authorisation on the basis of DHS studies (Distinction,  
206 Homogénéité, Stabilité - differentiation, homogeneity, stability), which are supposed to  
207 guarantee “to the user that the variety he has chosen is perfectly identifiable and therefore  
208 distinct from all other varieties already registered in the Official Catalogue”, and from VATE  
209 studies (valeur agronomique, technologique et environnementale - agronomic, technological  
210 and environmental value) in the case of agricultural species, which should guarantee that “the  
211 variety has a cultural value and sufficient usage” [16]. It is therefore forbidden, to any  
212 economic player, to commercialise seeds which are not registered in the Catalogue.

213        *“The industry has gone through this and uniformity has colonised the fields, making this*  
214 *immense collective wealth disappear, due to a vertical and pyramidal structure. Farmers’*  
215 *creativity has therefore given way to a military discipline of rules, machines, and chemical*  
216 *weapons”* (extract from an editorial by Patrick de Kockko, former coordinator at the RSP,  
217 now an artisan baker) [17].

218        *“The aim of my conversion to organic was to break with these agricultural suppliers, and*  
219 *therefore to stop the chemistry, but also to no longer depend on the seed producers”*  
220 (livestock farmer in Dordogne (24), speaking in 2010) [14].

221 “I think that as a farmer, it’s in our interest to be able to grow what we want, what we  
222 choose” (vegetable farmer in Dordogne (24), filmed in 2020) [18].

223 Thus, certain farmers began cultivating *semences paysannes* after a reappraisal of the  
224 seed-production model, provoked by the introduction of GM maize in Europe. They  
225 therefore sought autonomy regarding the seed monopoly, often defending a so-called  
226 “peasant” agricultural model, or even a societal organisation rejecting certain principles of  
227 capitalism, such as the intensification of production, ultra-specialisation, the race for  
228 productivity, private property or the accumulation of wealth.

229 (ii) The second motivation is economic. Numerous growers mention the elevated cost of  
230 commercial seed and reveal that this cost does not justify the differences in yield between  
231 commercial varieties and *semences paysannes*. These statements should be put into  
232 perspective depending on the agricultural systems: real estate pressure, the level of  
233 intensification, pedoclimatic conditions, production needs for other areas of the farm,  
234 production valuation systems, pest pressure (birds and big game), and the frequency of  
235 heatwaves are all factors which make generalisation impossible and economic models not  
236 very robust.

237 “*Semences paysannes lets you produce animal or human food products at a lower cost*”  
238 (livestock farmer from Landes (40), filmed in 2020) [18].

239 “*The job we chose to do, we don’t see any sense in it anymore, we feel crushed by this*  
240 *huge machine and the only economic alternative available to us, besides the social and*  
241 *environmental aspects, is through the reappropriation of semences paysannes*” (grain farmer  
242 from Landes (40), filmed in 2020) [18].

243 “*Growing hybrid maize nowadays, when we don’t irrigate and with the droughts we’ve*  
244 *experienced, that becomes stupid, while if we manage to produce open-pollinated maize and*  
245 *make it profitable through our breeding, that is for me the guarantee of farmer autonomy*”  
246 (livestock farmer from Landes (40), filmed in 2020) [18].

247 Let us note however that *semences paysannes* are far from being profitable in all  
248 agricultural systems. Apart from the differences in genetic performance, the production of  
249 seeds on the farm requires specific equipment, knowledge and know-how which are not  
250 always mastered. A bad quality farm-produced seed often leads to a loss of vigour and poor  
251 emergence. Though techniques may vary, all farmers in Garçon's (2021) study are  
252 unanimous on the importance of conservation, which seems to be the most crucial aspect  
253 [19].

254 “*We didn’t know how to produce maize for grain, we have learnt everything and we’re*  
255 *still experimenting and developing today*” (statement from a duck farmer in Dordogne (24),  
256 heard during a collective meeting, cultivating open-pollinated maize for 10 years).

257 (iii) The third motivation identified by Guillot (2019) and Charbonneau *et al.* (2020) is of  
258 an agronomic nature. Certain collectives study the agronomic qualities of *semences*

259 *paysannes*, and in particular their capacity to adapt to different soils, but also to the practices  
260 and wishes of the farmers. This dimension appears to be a key consideration for collectives  
261 [11], [12].

262 It is interesting to see that in publications by the RSP from 2003-2004, the argument in  
263 favour of *semences paysannes* stipulated that the diversity of farmer-cultivated varieties  
264 allowed them to find varieties which were adapted to their practices and the local  
265 pedoclimatic conditions [20]. This affirmation seems in part to be validated by the results in  
266 the literature. Indeed, interactions of cultivar x environment in several publications show this  
267 “adapted” character of certain varieties, notably in systems using fewer inputs [7], [21]–[24]  
268 but rarely in mechanical routes (ploughing / without ploughing) [25]–[27].

269 This link between the arguments of diversity and adaptation seems to have evolved  
270 rapidly and we can read in publications several years later that the genetic biodiversity of  
271 open-pollinated varieties guarantees a capacity to adapt to local conditions [14], [17]. Despite  
272 a broad appropriation of this argument by collectives and farmers, we believe it is debatable.  
273 The capacity of farmer-cultivated varieties to adapt to the land rests on principles of natural  
274 selection [28], and would need scientific validation to discuss this claim on a farm timescale  
275 (10 years). However, the diversification of strains of open-pollinated varieties under the  
276 effect of farmer selection was observed on several occasions and over short time periods (1 to  
277 3 years) [29], but the agronomic improvement of these varieties, in accordance with the  
278 farmers’ objectives, remains to be seen [30]. The idea of “adaptation to soils” returns  
279 therefore to a process where the multiplication and selection of seeds, from the same initial  
280 variety, in geographically close yet different environments would lead to effects from the  
281 interaction strain x farm, such that strain B selected on farm 1 would, on farm 1, be better  
282 than strain A selected on farm 2; and strain A, observed on farm 2, would be better than strain  
283 B, this taking place over short time periods (10 years of selection “in situ”). To our  
284 knowledge, no experimental protocol of this type has been described in the literature.

285 (iv) Despite everything, certain technological and organoleptic characteristics, specific to  
286 certain developments, only seem to be found nowadays in open-pollinated varieties. Farmer  
287 collectives have, therefore, identified within certain varieties of open-pollinated maize,  
288 highly-appreciated flavours, colours and textures of polenta, or interesting rheological  
289 behaviours during certain food-producing stages (such as the example of a semolina pudding  
290 in Dordogne).

291 “When I ground this maize in a mill to make flour and to make taloas with it (a Basque  
292 corn pancake), I found them better than usual. That’s where I got the idea to try and develop  
293 this maize for human consumption” (statement from a Basque grain-producer on the  
294 development of the local brand Arto Gorria) [31].

295 “Nowadays we have clients who are fans of this particular product, who come to the farm  
296 especially to buy their corn meal. It’s a pleasure to share this discovery and to know people  
297 are open to this food culture” (livestock farmer from Vienne (86)) [31].



298 Breeders of ducks for *foie gras* state for example that feeding ducks with open-pollinated  
299 maize, compared to hybrid maize, gives the ducks a more muscled profile without losing  
300 mass on the liver (no experimental validation can confirm this testimony, as far as we are  
301 aware). Moreover, the often “original” colours of the maize cobs (red, blue, white, green,  
302 orange) allows for a better identification of the product, which allows the farmers to add  
303 value in local food networks.

304 (v) The safeguarding of biodiversity is an aspect causing differing levels of concern  
305 among collectives producing open-pollinated varieties. This desire for protection only rarely  
306 takes the form of patrimonial protection, but more in the form of conservation and an  
307 increase of collectives’ capacities to find and adapt the varieties which best suit the specific  
308 ecosystems; a “reservoir” of solutions. The erosion of cultivated biodiversity linked to the  
309 modernisation of agriculture has been identified since the beginning of the 20th century [32],  
310 despite the diversification of the seed producers’ varietal offer, which seems directly  
311 correlated with the loss of genetic diversity in agricultural systems (such as the example of  
312 wheat in France) [33].

313 Among certain farmers, the concern over the conservation of genetic diversity within the  
314 plant population sometimes comes into conflict with the priorities of mass selection such as  
315 agronomic improvement. We have been able to observe several times mass selection  
316 practices consisting of keeping “extreme” phenotypes in a maize population (e.g. very late,  
317 giant, dwarf, small ears), and opposing the objective of improvement in the name of  
318 conserving biodiversity or in the fear of genetic degeneration. These practices often end in a  
319 stagnation of the phenotypic characteristics of varieties.

320 “*If the stems are green, that means it’s not ripe, you don’t take it. I personally take some*  
321 *for heterogeneity*” (extract of advice given to seasonal workers working for a grain farmer in  
322 Dordogne at the time of his selection of open-pollinated varieties in 2017).

323 We have often come across defiant reactions in training sessions, when we explain that  
324 mass selection within a population aims to reduce genetic diversity. But we have learned to  
325 explain that, even if this seems paradoxical, farmer selection is responsible for maintaining  
326 the increase in genetic diversity of cultivated plants [32], [34], because it is the diversity of  
327 farmer selections, the objectives, the affinities and the atomicity of situations where seeds are  
328 multiplied which produces cultivated biodiversity. To this end, Fenzi (2014) explains in his  
329 thesis the evolution of approaches relating to the conservation of genetic resources,  
330 concluding notably that “in situ” selection (in the farmers’ fields), is more sustainable and  
331 democratic than “ex situ” selection (in banks of genetic resources) and the only guarantee of  
332 food sovereignty [35].

333 The following testimony clearly illustrates this possible differentiated genetic orientation  
334 of a farmer strain under the effect of mass selection, which has been partly guided by the  
335 personal sensitivity of the breeder.

336 “Sometimes, you have a beautiful, light, round grain, which just stands out... the cob  
337 speaks to you, no but it’s true, it speaks to you... you, you don’t meet the criteria, but you  
338 want to live! That one, you feel something, and you think, OK, I’ll keep it!” (words taken  
339 during an exchange between farmers in the Basque country on the criteria for selection for a  
340 collective maize variety) [31].

341 (vi) The sixth motivation identified can be described as “the re-valuing of the role of a  
342 farmer” [12]. The farmers concerned often claim a great amount of pride and pleasure in  
343 working with *semences paysannes*.

344 “It means allowing the farmer to ensure his main function, which is also as a guardian of  
345 life and who doesn’t just have a mission of productivity; you have to see it through otherwise  
346 you lose the sense of life. Preserving your seeds, means to push life even further” (vegetable  
347 farmer from Limousin, filmed in 2020) [18].

348 “Cultivating *semences paysannes* is also a pleasure; the seeds are beautiful, the cobs are  
349 beautiful, the crops are nice to look at... these plants are so beautiful and so varied, we feel  
350 something much stronger than cultivating F1 hybrids or lines for wheat. And more than the  
351 technical or economic side, there is a reappropriation of seeds and of selection for a farmer;  
352 that’s what’s the most valuable to me today” (livestock farmer from Vienne (86)) [18].

353 Autoproduction of seeds and farmer selection allow them to better master the cycle of  
354 production and the rejection of the system of privatised seeds sometimes comes along with it,  
355 in conversations with farmers, through the values of sharing and passing on of varieties as  
356 well as knowledge.

357 “*Semences paysannes* means seeds that we have claimed ownership of, that we can  
358 replant, pass to a friend, without aiming to make money” (livestock farmer from Landes (40),  
359 filmed in 2020) [18].

360 “*Semences paysannes* are multiplied and selected by farmers and passed on to future  
361 generations, exchanged, passed to colleagues, neighbours, to perpetuate a local tradition”  
362 (livestock farmer from Vienne (86)) [18].

363 “It’s the passing on of a variety, a culture, an agriculture, to the next generation” (another  
364 livestock farmer from Landes (40), filmed in 2020) [18].

365 Moreover, products from these seeds are often transformed or even sold on the farm. The  
366 reappropriation of knowledge associated with this often technical autoproduction, seems to  
367 revalue the knowledge and capabilities of farmers, in their eyes as well as those of their  
368 consumers.

369 “What restaurant owners like is the political project behind it, that of the reappropriation  
370 of *semences paysannes*, which makes them want to showcase the product” (testimony from a  
371 producer of semolina from open-pollinated maize, selling his products to restaurants in Paris)  
372 [31].

373 (vii) The final motivation, probably one of the most important, reveals the importance of  
374 collective actions. The usage, diffusion, and selection of farmer varieties is for many a way to  
375 create a social link and farmer solidarity.

376 “There’s a really strong social, human side; it’s just a little seed but we’ve been able to  
377 meet farmers from the other side of France” (livestock farmer from Loire-Atlantique (44),  
378 overheard during a collective day in Dordogne (24) in September 2020).

379 “Above the economic aspect, what’s important to say for them, is that the open-pollinated  
380 seeds have no sense without a group and without sharing between producers. The interest is  
381 to get by financially but also to find a real motivation and find value in our work again”  
382 (remarks from a trainer in Vienne describing a couple of sheep farmers) [1].

383 The evolution of the career of a farmer since the 1960s has provoked, for multiple reasons,  
384 a loosening of working relationships between farmers and an individualisation of the ways of  
385 exercising their profession, often increasing their social and economic vulnerability [36].

386 Farmers who are organised around *semences paysannes* often carry this notion of the  
387 “collective” as a strong value and even sometimes as a finality, the objective of “seeds”  
388 simply becoming a pretext to meet.

389 “The fact that it’s open-pollinated seeds, that social side, means that there’s a pleasure to  
390 cultivating them, even a necessity, so we maintain it over and above its implementation on the  
391 farm compared to other possible sources of energy” (livestock farmer from Loire-Atlantique  
392 (44), heard during a collective day in Dordogne (24) - September 2020).

393 In certain *Maisons de la Semence*, the participation in collective actions is sometimes even  
394 an obligation in return for the seeds.

395 “We don’t want farmers to take them as if it was a cooperative. If they don’t have the  
396 collective side, for sure, they won’t manage to cultivate farmer varieties and they will quickly  
397 give up” (words from another livestock farmer from Loire-Atlantique (44) in 2020).

398 The terms “collective” and “collective action” regularly attached to the idea of *semences*  
399 *paysannes* often come into conflict with the term “autonomy”, used in the sense of  
400 individualism. Certain farmers choose to cultivate *semences paysannes* to reduce their  
401 dependence on seed producers and do not necessarily wish to establish new forms of  
402 dependence, even to a local collective. Discussions around the management of *semences*  
403 *paysannes* in a particular area is sometimes the scene of a confrontation of values; between  
404 autonomy in the sense of self-sufficiency and individualism where certain farmers fear the  
405 loss of a specific variety under a local monopoly, and autonomy in the sense of a collective  
406 construction of freely agreed-to norms and rules to defend common interests.

### 407 III. Conclusion

408 Thus, firstly for political, economic or agronomic reasons, then for technical,  
409 philosophical and/or social reasons, certain farmers choose to resort to *semences paysannes*

410 from open-pollinated maize; non-commercial, free from copyright, reproducible, diversified  
411 and evolving.

412 This approach of reappropriating *semences paysannes* accompanies the challenges and  
413 concerns which have been felt across the French agricultural world for the last 20 years:  
414 ultra-specialisation, the loss of economic, technical or decisional autonomy, the need for  
415 resilience, the recurrence of climatic risks, environmental concerns, etc. The need to discover  
416 or rediscover the sense of the role of the farmer above the function of production is strong  
417 among farmers; to link their job to a land, a history, a philosophy of life, notably by the  
418 development of united networks to share seeds, knowledge, work and values, but also by  
419 local development and marketing and by the reappropriation by farmers of the added value of  
420 products. Thus, the motivations of farmers to adopt *semences paysannes* from  
421 open-pollinated maize evolve and diversify with time. We think that this choice of cultivation  
422 is a symptom of the changes taking place in certain areas, where the industrial agricultural  
423 model no longer allows farmers to live with dignity in their profession.

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425 **Acknowledgments:** In July 2020, Jean-Pierre Berlan (retired research unit director, INRA Montpellier)  
426 contacted our association AgroBio Perigord (France) to ask us to share our field experience about  
427 accompanying of farmers groups using open pollinated maize in their crop system and working on  
428 participatory plant breeding programs. The original ideas of this paper was to bring an opening of Jean-Pierre  
429 Berlan's thesis (*The genealogy of modern breeding: the isolation/cloning method*) with an illustration of alternatives of  
430 the use of commercial hybrid maize on farming systems. After some twists and turns, we orientated the  
431 redaction on the subject of the farmer's motivations leading to reject commercial seeds and work with  
432 open-pollinated maize (and not about participatory plan breeding programs). I received the very generous help  
433 from Marion Charbonneau (University of Pau) for the global structure of the article and from Stephanie Warner  
434 for the translation. This paper is far from being a traditional scientific paper but a sharing of field experience  
435 and should be taken just as it.

436 **Conflicts of Interest:** "The author declares no conflict of interest."

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