

Farmers' Mental Health in the Fourth Agricultural Revolution

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In Agriculture 4.0: Towards a New Agri-Food Ecosystem

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1 **Farmers' Mental Health in the Fourth Agricultural Revolution**

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4 Abstract: So-called “agriculture 4.0” (or “fourth agricultural revolution”) technologies, such as artificial
5 intelligence, drones, and robotics and automation, may have a key role to play in the future of farming.
6 There is a burgeoning literature in the social sciences that explores the distributional justice associated
7 with so-called agriculture 4.0, namely how benefits and costs may be unevenly distributed (de Boon
8 et al., 2023). Several themes have emerged from this work, including the potential impacts of
9 agriculture 4.0 on corporate control and power, data ownership, farmer autonomy, job satisfaction,
10 the farm workforce, and uneven rates of adoption. However, there has been relatively little work
11 directly linking technology and mental health of farmers. Understanding better the factors affecting
12 farmer mental health is important because global research consistently shows high rates of stress,
13 anxiety, depression, and suicidal ideation in some parts of the farming community. This chapter
14 reviews current work that either directly explores digital technology and farmer mental health, or that
15 may indirectly provide insights on the topic because the study considers the impact of technology on
16 a known factor that influences mental health. Although further research is needed to unpack this topic,
17 the clear message from the chapter concerns the “double-edged sword” nature of emergent
18 technologies and the fact that knowledge is situated. For some farmers, new technologies can enhance
19 mental health by improving the attractiveness of farming, job satisfaction, and lifestyles, and improve
20 succession rates. For others, particularly those unable to invest or adopt, or those who hold different
21 views on the attractiveness of farming and connection to land and animals, agriculture 4.0 may not
22 lead to more positive mental health. Further research is needed in this under-explored area.

23 **Keywords:** agriculture 4.0; landscapes of support; precision agriculture; mental health; wellbeing.

24 **Mental health of farmers: current global knowledge**

25 In many parts of the world, there is a growing evidence base surrounding the causes of, and solutions
26 to, poor farmer mental health. Whilst not a problem for all farmers, there are serious cases of poor
27 mental health amongst farming communities worldwide. For example, a survey of 15,000+ farmers in
28 England and Wales found that over 1/3 of farmers displayed signs of probable or possible depression
29 (Wheeler and Lobley, 2022). Though the majority of published studies appear to be from the
30 developed world (Daghagh Yazd *et al.*, 2019), similarly poor levels of farmer and worker mental health
31 have been noted in studies in many places, including, but not limited to - Australia (Hossain *et al.*, 2008
32 – many other studies), Canada (Hagen *et al.*, 2020); China (Liu *et al.*, 2018), Finland (Kallioniemi *et al.*,
33 2016), India (Das, 2011), Ireland (Russell *et al.*, 2023), Mexico (Carvajal *et al.*, 2014), New Zealand (Firth
34 *et al.*, 2007; Knook *et al.*, 2024), Nigeria (Olowogbon *et al.*, 2019), Norway (Logstein *et al.*, 2016),
35 Thailand (Hanklang *et al.*, 2016), and the USA (Rudolphi and Berg, 2023). Problems appear to be
36 sometimes more prevalent in farming than in comparable sector, although this has not been
37 universally found (Daghagh Yazd *et al.*, 2019). Demographics seem to play a role in mental health risk
38 factors and help-seeking, including age (Rose *et al.*, 2023; Rudolphi and Berg, 2023) and gender
39 (Hammersley *et al.*, 2023; Budge and Shortall, 2023).

40 Many research studies have explored the causes of poor mental health amongst some farmers, with
41 several different categorisations. One way of categorising pressures is to divide them into (see Rose *et al.*,
42 2022):

- 43 1. **Social factors:** may affect any human, but some may be exacerbated in agricultural settings,
44 such as struggles with isolation and loneliness, stigma, family conflict, illness, bereavement,
45 sexuality, rural crime etc.
- 46 2. **Business factors:** specific to farming, such as animal and crop disease, poor finances, lack of
47 time off the farm, succession challenges, tenancy issues, inspections etc.
- 48 3. **Policy and public challenges:** criticism from the public, policy change, bureaucracy.

49 Some studies have tried to compare stressors across countries, including Nyczaj Kyle *et al.* (2025) who
50 compared the UK and Canada.

51 Some farmers can find it difficult to seek or gain support for their mental health for reasons that include
52 poor accessibility of empathetic help in rural areas (Hull *et al.*, 2022; Malone *et al.*, 2025), worries over
53 confidentiality (Riethmuller *et al.*, 2025), and stigma associated with the subject (O'Connor *et al.*,
54 2024). There is still much to learn about how different stressors affect different farmers and how
55 support can be best targeted (Nye *et al.*, 2025).

56 A scoping review by Hernández García (2024) suggested that there was no literature (at that point)
57 that had looked into how precision technologies affect farmer stress, although this is an arguable point.
58 It is true to say, however, that studies have rarely directly looked at the role of emergent agricultural
59 technologies in improving or worsening farmer mental health, though some studies have begun to
60 draw a link (e.g. Carolan, 2023, 2024; Hansen *et al.*, 2020).

61 **Agriculture 4.0 technologies and mental health: an emerging area of interest**

62 It has always been the case in the evolution of technological change in farming that new ideas and
63 methods lead to improvements in some areas, but also regression in others. The same will likely be
64 true in the area of mental health, including effects on the specific factors affecting it outlined above.
65 Hereafter, I review some of the early social science research which has explored the possible social
66 impacts of emergent agricultural technology, with a focus on mental health. These existing studies
67 have either directly explored this issue by making an explicit link between technology and mental
68 health, or indirectly by evaluating how technology addresses one of the known factors influencing
69 mental health (e.g. succession, crime, finances etc.). Since the technologies, and hence related
70 research, are emergent, it is hard to make definitive statements on the directionality of impact
71 between technology and mental health in farming. It is important, though, to conduct on-farm post-
72 adoption research to build the empirical case for if and how technologies are changing life on the farm,
73 particularly in order to critically interrogate dominant narratives of a 'positive, game-changing'
74 revolution. Still to date, much research on farmer technology adoption stops at the point of self-
75 confessed uptake (de Oca Munguia *et al.*, 2021). This prevents us from knowing what happened next
76 on the farm – did the farmer continue to use the tool and did it have overall positive or negative
77 impacts? Did the farmer stop using the tool and why? How did life on the farm change and how do
78 farmers, workers, families, and advisors feel about it? These are all key questions for the next post-
79 adoption phase of social science work on the so-called fourth agricultural revolution.

80 In the following sections, the discussion involves different digital agricultural technologies, some of
81 which may not be typically associated with so-called agriculture 4.0. Though a clear definition of
82 agriculture 4.0 remains elusive (Klerkx and Rose, 2020), various emergent technologies such as
83 artificial intelligence, robotics, drones, the internet of things, gene editing, and alternative
84 technologies like hydroponics and cultured meat, are generally seen as in scope. Other digital
85 technologies, such as mobile phone apps, some older wearable technologies for livestock, autosteer,
86 or the internet in general, are generally considered to be 'older' technologies and are rarely described

87 as revolutionary. However, it is important to note that technology adoption in farming can be slow and
88 non-linear (Rose et al., 2022). In many rural areas of the world, user readiness for digital technologies
89 like smartphone apps or the internet can be low (McC Campbell et al., 2022). Furthermore, although
90 some agriculture 4.0 technologies like generative AI might appear to be very different to those that
91 have come before it, it is still likely that many of the benefits and costs of previous digital technologies
92 outlined in the social science literature will be applicable. Therefore, this chapter widens the scope of
93 what an 'agriculture 4.0' technology might be and focuses specifically on digital technologies, which
94 may or may not be emergent in specific parts of the world.

95 **The effects of automation on lifestyles: freed time or increased technostress?**

96 Some agriculture 4.0 technologies, particularly robotics and automation, promise to reduce drudgery
97 by taking over dull, dangerous, and time-consuming jobs on farm. In turn, this has the potential to free
98 up time for farmers to do other things, including spending more time with their family and spending
99 more time off the farm, for example on vacation. Research in agriculture illustrates a clear link between
100 time spent off the farm (on non-agricultural pursuits) and farmer mental health (Wheeler and Lobley,
101 2022). Those farmers who do not (or cannot) take holidays or days off are more likely to suffer from
102 mental health problems. Therefore, in principle, technologies that are designed to lighten the load and
103 reduce time-consuming jobs could be beneficial.

104 Robotic milking systems are one example of an automated technology that can act as a proxy for the
105 likely impacts of other emergent technologies on-farm. These devices automate the process of milking.
106 Instead of the farmer and workers having to herd cattle several times a day into the milking parlour
107 and spend hours (depending on herd size) manually connecting machines to teats, cleaning, and
108 monitoring individual animals, cows come to a robot on their own at a time of their choosing. The
109 robot recognises each individual, checks if they are ready to be milked, automatically connects the
110 milking device to teats, cleans, and lets the cow out afterwards. This process also collects data on
111 individual animals, which can be used to monitor production, health, and welfare parameters.

112 There is some evidence in the literature that automated milking systems (AMS) have improved the
113 lifestyles and mental health of some farmers, but not for all. In Norway, for example, Hansen *et al.*
114 have conducted a number of studies exploring the link between adoption of AMS and farmer job
115 satisfaction and wellbeing. In a 2020 study, they found that it had improved the lifestyles and mental
116 health of some farmers by freeing up time and reducing the need to manually milk at unsociable hours.
117 A positive outcome from AMS was particularly noted if farmers received training and good extension
118 advice and had a successor to the business.

119 However, not all farmers received a boost to their wellbeing as a result of AMS adoption. For some, it
120 did not reduce work, but rather changed it. Instead of spending time milking cows, farmers and
121 workers spent time interpreting data collected by the AMS and reacting to alerts. The potential for
122 data-driven farm technologies to increase technostress or cognitive burnout or overload, particularly
123 for people who do not always have advanced computer literacy skills, has been noted in several other
124 studies (e.g. Barrett and Rose, 2022; Carolan, 2023; King *et al.*, 2023). In addition, a review of how AMS
125 change the nature of farm work has noted that the dominant discourse of automated technologies
126 reducing work is oversimplistic (Martin *et al.* 2022). Rather, as Hansen *et al.* noted, it simply changes
127 the type of work on farm. Whilst this may be attractive to some people, it can create stress for others.
128 Interestingly, the Hansen *et al.* study (2020) indicated that the effects of new farm technology on
129 mental health can have a temporal element. Whilst there may be an initial increase in stress as a result
130 of having to learn a new technology, adjust work routines, and respond to 'teething issues', after this
131 transition period, there can be longer-term benefits if the technology performs as expected.

132 Other studies have explored how precision or automated technologies could change life on the farm
133 and influence farmer and worker identity, exploring the potential impacts of this on job satisfaction
134 and mental health. As stated above, new technologies could take over tasks that are dangerous to the
135 physical health of humans. For example, the Thorvald modular robot is now commercially available to
136 autonomously treat powdery mildew in strawberry crops instead of humans having to put on
137 protective clothing at night (when the mildew needs to be treated) and use dangerous pesticides (see
138 Rose and Bhattacharya, 2022).

139 The research shows a direct link between good physical health and good mental health (Ohrnberger
140 *et al.*, 2017); therefore, if emergent technologies can reduce or eliminate dull and dangerous farm
141 work, mental health could improve. Some studies have explored how autosteer technologies on
142 tractors may help to reduce stress and fatigue, allowing farmers to undertake other tasks at the same
143 time. For example, a study in Finland by Haapala *et al.* (2025) used heart rate monitors to compare the
144 wellbeing of operators using or not using autosteer technologies. The study found that using autosteer
145 technologies on tractors can reduce farmer stress. A similar finding was made in a study of automated
146 spraying in the USA, with a claim that automated steering reduced stress for the operator by 48%
147 (Burgers and Vanderwerff, 2022). Furthermore, if farmers are stressed by the inability to recruit labour,
148 which is a problem facing many sectors globally (see Rose and Bhattacharya, 2022), labour-saving
149 technologies represent an opportunity to address this stressor. Additionally, autonomous robots could
150 reduce input costs and lead to higher profitability, including for small farms (Lowenberg-DeBoer, 2024).
151 Since poor financial outcomes are a key stressor on farmer mental health, if agriculture 4.0
152 technologies are able to improve profitability, then a key stress factor will be mitigated against.
153 However, for emergent technologies associated with agriculture 4.0, some of which are still in
154 development or early scaling, it is too early to judge what impact they will have on profitability for
155 different types of farm. We are yet to see how ‘game-changing’ so-called agriculture 4.0 technologies
156 really are, and for whom (Klerkx and Rose, 2020).

157 **Agriculture 4.0: improving attractiveness of farming?**

158 Generational renewal in farming continues to face mounting challenges around the world, including
159 within the European Union where just 11.9% of farm managers are under 40¹. Attracting young people
160 into the farming industry is, therefore, crucial and many reports on the subject see emergent
161 technologies as part of the solution to attract younger, skilled workers into the sector. In the mental
162 health literature, there is a clear link between job satisfaction and mental health. For some, adopting
163 the latest technologies may be attractive and younger farmers in particular may seek work on farms
164 that have the most cutting-edge equipment. However, for others, the way in which labour-saving
165 technologies change life on the farm may not be desirable. Taking an everyday approach to
166 understanding how technology changes life on the farm is important (Rose *et al.*, 2023). As stated
167 above, new technologies do change farm workflows. Precision livestock technologies, including
168 wearable sensors or artificial intelligence-enabled cameras, can monitor individual animals 24/7,
169 potentially reducing the time needed for humans to check each animal (sometimes in large herds) for
170 health and welfare issues. The effect of this could be that farmers spend less time with their animals,
171 as has been noted in assessments of how AMS change farm workflows (Bear and Holloway, 2019).
172 Automated crop technologies, such as robots or drones, could again reduce the amount of time spent

¹ [https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Farmers and the agricultural labour force - statistics#:~:text=Slightly%20more%20than%20two%20thirds,the%20age%20of%2040%20years.](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Farmers_and_the_agricultural_labour_force_-_statistics#:~:text=Slightly%20more%20than%20two%20thirds,the%20age%20of%2040%20years.)

173 on the land for a farmer, whilst the increasing move to digital recording and administration can lead a
174 farmer to spend more time indoors on the computer (Rose *et al.*, 2018).

175 A forward-looking video by John Deere produced in 2012² features a farmer called ‘Terry’. It imagines
176 a world in which automated technologies have arrived on the farm. Terry wakes up in a morning and
177 makes coffee, checking a computer projection on his wall for the latest weather forecast. He sits down
178 at his office table, placing the mug onto it, which reveals computer-generated images of his farm, as if
179 he were playing a computer game. From this console, he can control his farm, or allow a team of
180 advisers to control his farm. Only at the end of the day, as dark clouds gather and melancholic
181 background music plays, does Terry decide to go and look at his crops, using a phone app to make
182 diagnostics on his phone.

183 Here, it is important to acknowledge Carolan’s (2024, recalling Haraway) point that knowledge is
184 situated; in other words, views towards, and impacts of, agriculture 4.0 technologies on mental health
185 will differ depending on context – the circumstances surrounding the farm, farmers, workers, and
186 families. For some farmers, the John Deere video may be an attractive vision of the future farm.
187 Drawing on farmer interviews in Iowa and Minnesota, Carolan (2023) presents quotes from a farmer
188 called ‘Beth’. As Carolan (2023, 46) writes ‘digital agriculture came into the picture for Beth because of
189 its role as a vehicle to make dairy farming satisfying to her.’ Beth said to him (quote directly taken from
190 Carolan, 2023):

191 *“I faced a lot of pressure to take over the farm. But I also knew I wouldn't have been happy doing what*
192 *my parents did. Dairy farming's a 365 days-a-year, twice-a-day, job, for Christ's sake. I'm proud of what*
193 *we've built, a 21st-century operation that's probably more high-tech, data-oriented as what any of my*
194 *friends from my high school days are doing. [...] They're off working in cities like Chicago, but this is the*
195 *real deal; the type of Cloud-based, IT-savvy job people from my generation want”*.

196 Another farmer, Lynn, said *“Forget working harder. I'm all about working smarter, which, yes, in my*
197 *book means working less”* (from Carolan, 2023). For Beth and Lynn, therefore, new technology had
198 been a way of improving job satisfaction, reducing the drudgery of farm work, and improving mental
199 health. For some other younger farmers, agriculture 4.0 technologies could also be seen as improving
200 the attractiveness of the industry and securing their interest in making a succession to the family farm.
201 Since worries over lack of succession is a major source of anxiety and mental health problems (Rose *et*
202 *al.*, 2022), anything that attracts farmers’ children to take over the farm would likely improve mental
203 health within farming families.

204 But, Beth was a younger, IT-savvy farmer who was keen to, and able to, embrace new technologies.
205 Based on another set of interviews of farmers across Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and
206 Wyoming, Carolan (2024) also explored the potential of digital technologies to increase inclusivity and
207 diversity of people in agriculture. He focused particularly on speaking to farmers with disabilities. He
208 quotes farmers who said that digital technologies had enabled them to keep working in agriculture
209 despite their disability. One farmer, for example, who was paralysed said that *“tractors, drones, e-*
210 *collars, robotic milkers are technologies that enable me to remain in farming”* (quote taken from
211 Carolan, 2024). This farmer recalled how his parents’ generation had toiled on the farm well past the
212 point of having severe physical ailments. Other farmers had other disabilities, but had found
213 technology a vital route towards continuation in the industry; for example, an autistic farmer recalled
214 finding calm in the routine-based, ordered world of vertical farming, whilst another with multiple
215 sclerosis could not have worked in the industry without technological aides. Reminiscent of the Hansen

² <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=t08nOEkrX-I&pp=0gcJCdgAo7VqN5tD>

216 *et al.* (2020) study on robotic milking, other farmers in Carolan’s (2024) study argued that technology
217 had freed up time for them to spend on non-farming activities; enabling them to follow more-than-
218 farmer identities – such as “mothers,” “fathers,” “husbands,” “mothers,” “partners,” etc.” Again, the
219 beneficial impacts of technology on physical health, to succession activities for some disabled
220 individuals, and the potential to free up time, is likely to have a positive knock-on impact on mental
221 health.

222 For others, the John Deere vision of the future may not be so attractive. Some farmers may want to
223 spend more time with their animals, on their land connected to nature, and to be free from new forms
224 of technostress (Barrett and Rose, 2022; Schillings *et al.*, 2021). As Carolan (2023) argues, there are
225 many farmers priced-out of adoption of new technologies, a trend noted by many social science papers
226 that find uneven distribution of agriculture 4.0 benefits (see e.g. Bronson, 2019). Some farmers may
227 feel that they are being left behind with the rise of agriculture 4.0. There are farmers concerned about
228 data ownership and privacy (Ruder and Wittman, 2025), digital divides (Mehrabi *et al.*, 2021; Rotz *et*
229 *al.*, 2019), the rise of “algorithmic rationality” (Gardezi and Stock, 2021; Miles, 2019), the reduction of
230 farmer autonomy (Brooks, 2021), and the rise of corporate power and land assetisation (Duncan *et al.*,
231 2022; Fairbairn *et al.*, 2025). There are farmers who are investing in new technology, but who may feel
232 that they do not get the most benefit out of in compared to larger companies on whom they are
233 becoming increasingly reliant for repairs and upgrades (Clapp and Ruder, 2020). There has been an
234 intense debate amongst scholars about the link between biotechnology and farmer suicides in India,
235 with critics claiming that seed monopolization has been a causative factor in the high rates of suicide
236 (Thomas and De Tavernier, 2017). Whilst Thomas and De Tavernier (2017) found the association
237 between seed monopolization and farmer suicides to be questionable, there may be a link between
238 those farmers who were economically disadvantaged as a result of the changes associated with
239 biotechnology adoption (or non-adoption) and poor mental health outcomes. Therefore, for those
240 farmers who cannot adopt due to digital divides, or do not want to adopt (but may be forced into doing
241 so through assurance schemes or retailer relationship), the march towards agriculture 4.0 may be a
242 source of stress and anxiety.

243 **Digital technologies as part of the ‘landscape of support’**

244 The literature on farmer mental health is exploring how ‘landscapes of support’ (Shortland *et al.*, 2023)
245 could be improved. Depending on context, support landscapes typically include a mix of formal
246 providers, such as professional healthcare, mental health charities, and faith groups, and informal help
247 provided by family, friends, peers, rural communities, and advisors who regularly see farmers.
248 Increasingly, digital technologies are becoming part of the landscape of support for farmer mental
249 health. To overcome challenges of isolation and poor accessibility of mental healthcare in rural areas
250 (see Shortland *et al.*, 2023), online counselling support for farmers may hold promise. Through various
251 schemes, such as “Make the Moove” in Ireland (Macra Na Feirme, see Hammersley *et al.*, 2025), or
252 studies investigating the potential of, and demand for, online support in Scotland (Lamont *et al.*, 2023)
253 and Australia (Gunn *et al.*, 2021), it has been found that support provided through digital technology
254 can support farmers with their mental health. For example, the potential benefits of online forums for
255 farmer wellbeing have been explored by Carlisle *et al.* (2024), whilst Gunn *et al.* have explored both
256 what farmers want from online wellbeing interventions (Gunn *et al.*, 2021) and have conducted initial
257 evaluations of online resources that have been provided (Gunn *et al.*, 2023). Online education delivery
258 around mental health to agricultural students has also been considered by Knook *et al.* (2025). These
259 studies have generally concluded that online interventions to support farmer mental health can be
260 effective; the Gunn *et al.* (2023, 378) study found that the ‘ifarmwell’ initiative was “likely to help
261 farmers reduce their levels of distress and improve their mental wellbeing, by improving their

262 psychological flexibility, ability to focus on the present and accept things beyond their control, as well
263 as by reducing the extent to which they believe unhelpful thoughts". However, the risks of online
264 forums are also currently being explored (Howse et al., in review). There may be perils in directing
265 farmers to the wrong type of online forum or social media, as we know that such spaces can be sources
266 of conflict and public criticism of farming, which is a key mental health stressor (Rose *et al.*, 2022).

267 Other nascent initiatives are starting to explore the potential for virtual reality to deliver psychological
268 therapies to farmers (e.g. Rural Minds project in the UK³) or how digital technologies can be used to
269 monitor the impacts of support interventions for farmers (Stynes et al., 2025). Some existing digital
270 tools can also help to address isolation and social connectivity, which play a key role in mental health.
271 GPS trackers and other digital systems can monitor the location and performance of farmers and
272 workers on the farm. This can contribute to positive health and safety, particularly if there is an
273 accident on the farm and emergency services/first responders can pinpoint the location of the patient
274 more easily across vast and isolated agricultural landscapes⁴. Again, if physical health is better looked
275 after on-farm, there should be a link with improved mental health.

276 **Digital farm technologies: the promises and perils of surveillance**

277 However, research has also indicated the mental stress and anxiety that greater digital surveillance of
278 the farm workforce can have. Whilst research has widely pointed out the potential displacement of
279 labour from automated technologies (e.g. Rotz *et al.*, 2019), there have been less studies on how digital
280 technologies could affect the current workforce on-farm. Drones may be used to monitor the
281 performance of workers doing tasks in fields or the picking rate of fruit pickers can be evaluated 24/7
282 (Prause, 2024). Using a case study of the fruit industry in South Africa, Prause (2024) finds that digital
283 systems track worker progress, how quickly they are picking, and how well they are performing tasks.
284 These data can be used to set targets, often unrealistic targets, and can be used as a way of disciplining
285 workers, firing workers, or rewarding the most successful workers. There is a real mental health risk of
286 unchecked forms of surveillance capitalism in which workers constantly feel watched and under
287 pressure to perform (Ruder, 2024). I have too witnessed technology being used in this way to monitor
288 workers on a fruit farm in the UK, apparently to support the workforce, but clearly also to reward and
289 disincentivise failure.

290 **Shiny, new technologies: a magnet for, or a deterrent to, rural crime?**

291 Rural crime is a major cause of poor farmer mental health (Smith, 2020). With increasingly more
292 sophisticated and expensive technologies, the proceeds of criminal activity also have the potential to
293 rise. Theft of expensive technologies is on the rise. For example, statistics cited in the UK Parliament
294 in 2025, stated that GPS theft had surged by 137%. Thefts of quad bikes and all-terrain vehicles rose to
295 over £3 million. Drones, autonomous robots, and other technologies associated with agriculture 4.0
296 are expensive. There is the potential for significant mental health challenges if a farmer suffers loss of
297 a new, expensive technology to rural crime. Despite this potential, there are also ways in which new
298 and existing digital and other farm technologies can also deter crime (e.g. digital trackers, tracking
299 paint, an engineered farm environment to deter theft, and low-tech methods [though uptake of
300 technology-based measures may be low) (Smith, 2025).

301 **Farm extension and communication in an AI-world: opportunity or risk?**

³ https://www.farminguk.com/news/immersive-vr-training-to-help-understand-mental-health-in-farming_67421.html

⁴ <https://digital-strategy.ec.europa.eu/en/library/video-how-digital-tools-can-support-wellbeing-and-safety-farmers>

302 Generative AI, specifically through the use of Large Language Models (LLMs), is being increasingly used
303 in farm extension activities. Programmes such as ChatGPT can analyse large volumes of data and
304 condense instructions to farmers or advisors into simple, accessible outputs. There are several farmer
305 chatbots available or in development (e.g. Farmer.Chat by Digital Green), which offer the opportunity
306 to provide extension advice quickly to isolated farmers, who may not always be able to access human
307 advisers, including ones who are able to communicate in their native language (Tzachor *et al.*, 2023).
308 Since this is an emergent area of scholarship, with social scientists beginning to explore opportunities
309 and risks of LLMs in farm extension, there has, as yet, been no explicit consideration of how it could
310 impact farmers' mental health. This short section, therefore, is somewhat speculative, attempting to
311 map the early scholarship on LLMs against its impact on known stressors of farmer mental health.

312 There are both opportunities and risks of Large Language Models (de Clercq *et al.*, 2024; Marinoudi *et al.*,
313 2024; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2024; Silva *et al.*, 2023; Tzachor *et al.*, 2023). As stated, they offer the potential
314 to give quick advice to farmers, utilising large datasets and other sources of information, potentially
315 overcoming the data-action gap on-farm (Palczynski *et al.*, in review). They could help to give extension
316 advice to those who cannot access advice. However, there are worries over data ownership, digital
317 divides, and misinformation, which could lead to bad advice being given to a farmer. It may also be
318 worth exploring the unintended consequences of digital extension, including through the use of LLMs.
319 Research on farmer mental health indicates that those humans who go up the farm track to see
320 farmers, such as agronomists, accountants, land agents, and more, can play an 'accidental counselling'
321 role (Shortland *et al.*, 2023). Since farmers can be isolated from sources of professional support, those
322 individuals who do encounter farmers personally on farm visits could play a key role in spotting signs
323 of distress and signposting towards support. Whilst connections can be made digitally, if extension
324 were to become increasingly virtual, there may be consequences from the loss of personal visits.

325 It is too early to judge how the increasing use of LLMs in agricultural extension will affect farmers'
326 mental health, but the stakes associated with giving advice are high. If farm management decisions
327 and finances improve or suffer as a result of good or bad advice, it follows that mental health may
328 improve or worse. It also remains to be seen how the rise of generativeAI affects the farmer-adviser
329 relationship, which can be a valued and trusted relationship from both perspectives.

330 **Concluding remarks**

331 Digital technologies, including emergent ones associated with agriculture 4.0, are not a panacea for
332 sustainability. The question of how existing digital, or emergent technologies, affect life on the farm is
333 dependent not only on what they can do, but also on how policy instruments (such as grants,
334 regulations, training, infrastructure etc.) influence the nature of scaling and use, and the ways in which
335 this interacts with farmers' beliefs and worldviews. The impact of technology on mental health will be
336 situated; in other words, depending on farmer circumstances, belief systems, and ability to adapt, it
337 may improve or worsen lifestyles and conditions on the farm, which will have an impact on mental
338 health. The individuality of impacts is worth reiterating; what one farmer considers an improved
339 lifestyle is a view that may not be shared by others. It has always been the case in the evolution of
340 technological change in farming that new ideas and methods lead to improvements in some areas, but
341 also regression in others. This chapter in some ways was difficult to write because of the lack of explicit
342 scholarship on the impacts of emergency agricultural technologies on mental health. A clear message,
343 therefore, is to promote the need to carry out such studies, rooted in farmers' everyday perspectives,
344 from a variety of different demographic and sector viewpoints, and exploring farmers' post-adoption
345 experiences. Such scholarship needs to explicitly examine the link between digital technologies and
346 mental health, including examining the effect of specific technology types across farm and farmer
347 types and geographical contexts, sharing learnings between teams of researchers around the world.

348 These studies will need to embrace mixed methodologies, including utilising digital technologies
349 themselves in the evaluation of farmer mental health (see e.g. Stynes et al., 2025), and, where
350 possible, offer everyday, post-adoption, longitudinal perspectives into how technology changes life on
351 the farm (for the good or bad).

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