

The economic and ecological benefits of saving ecosystems to protect services

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1 **The economic and ecological benefits of saving ecosystems to protect services**

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24

25

26 **Abstract**

27

28 The concept of Ecosystem Services (ES) defines the nature benefits in an anthropocentric way
29 for sustainable development goals. However, a conservation dilemma arises from the question
30 of how much the ES cost and which ES should be prioritized in effective landscape planning.
31 Thus, we test how the balance of economic and ecological values can be useful for improved
32 conservation outcomes. Under a comprehensive meta-analytical approach, we address the
33 monetary values of ES and incorporate habitat quality maps for setting national conservation
34 targets in mainland Portugal. As a practical pathway to achieve sustainability from local to
35 macro scales, we design an integrative approach showing that prioritization models focused
36 on ES can encompass economic and ecological values in balance with the landscape. We find
37 72 studies with 167 economic estimates based on biophysical, socio-cultural and
38 environmental features. Our results indicate that ES values in Portugal can represent about
39 12% of its total Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which in turn can ensure key conservation
40 sites for multiple ecosystems. Combining the trade-offs and synergies between ecological and
41 economic benefits of ES, we suggest an integrative strategy to save ecosystems and protect
42 services through cost-effective conservation models. Given the economic and ecological
43 interface of this approach, our findings can be helpful to bridge the gap between
44 environmental economics and conservation science, following three main components – most
45 economic benefits, best habitat quality and less land requirements. This would bring market
46 values on realistic scales, where stakeholders are expecting positive returns.

47

48 *Keywords:*

49 Habitat quality, environmental economics, meta-analysis, land cost-effective, conservation
50 planning, Portugal

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53

54 In a world where conservation action is often limited by land-use costs (Lawler and
55 White, 2008), the inclusion of economic factors is crucial to determine effective priorities for
56 applied conservation (Silvertown, 2015; Sutton et al., 2016; Buchmann-Duck and Beazley,
57 2020). In most cases, the relationships between environmental economics and conservation
58 science require practical policies to achieve sustainable development strategies (Frank and
59 Schlenker, 2016; Naeem et al., 2016; Seddon et al., 2016). In an attempt to justify
60 conservation attention, cost-effective strategies based on Ecosystem Services (ES) are
61 increasingly being implemented at different scales (Banks-Leite et al., 2014; Campos et al.,
62 2017; Yang et al., 2020).

63 From an anthropocentric view of the biodiversity benefits (Silvertown, 2015), the
64 monetization of ES has been associated in systematic conservation planning as a practical way
65 to connect environmental concerns to the policy agenda (Adams, 2014; Kallis et al., 2013;
66 McCauley, 2006). Systematic conservation planning is a high-benefit strategy in which social,
67 economic and political requirements can use scientific predictions at different landscapes
68 (Margules and Pressey, 2000). Every ecosystem provides key functions in primary production
69 and nutrient cycling, which support other ES and biodiversity interactions that contribute to
70 human well-being, such as the provisioning of clean water, fertile soils, timber and food
71 (Cardinale et al., 2006; Daily and Matson, 2008). Biodiversity can be defined as the sum of all
72 biotic variables together—from genes to ecosystems, as well as, all ecological and evolutionary
73 processes beyond the species distribution (Purvis and Hector, 2000).

74 Human-made changes on biodiversity emerge from the relationship between people
75 and nature, in which ecosystem functioning influences both public health and conservation
76 issues (Campos and Lourenço-de-Moraes, 2020). Ecosystem functions and services are

77 shaped by their biodiversity, which allows an intuitive perspective that should be linked to
78 human use of natural resources, from research to practice (Naeem et al., 2016). Effective
79 conservation strategies need time, space and money (Naeem et al., 2016), and a multifaceted
80 framework is crucial to ensure ES in balance with the landscape (Pollock et al., 2017).

81 Although ES assessments have been key to achieve sustainable development goals
82 (Griggs et al., 2013), there is still a research gap involving their economic potential to bridge
83 biophysical and socio-economic indicators (Olander et al., 2017). In landscape planning, cost-
84 effective conservation should consider the maximum economic benefits of nature to ensure
85 the effectiveness of different forms of land-use policies (Brooks et al., 2006; Lee and Jetz,
86 2008; Yang et al., 2020). This context suggests the need to develop conservation plans that
87 optimally balance economic and ecological goals (Petersen et al., 2016).

88 In this paper, we explore the trade-offs between economic and ecological benefits,
89 suggesting an innovative way to save ecosystems and protect services, following an
90 integrative modelling approach. The originality of this research aims to converge the
91 economic perspective of ES into an ecological interface, providing a practical pathway to
92 connect biodiversity concerns in land-use planning. Our assumption is that there is a spatial
93 mismatch between economic and ecological values of ES that should be integrated for
94 improved conservation outcomes.

95 To support an efficient landscape planning, we design an innovative approach that
96 combines monetary values of ES with habitat quality estimates, proposing three priority
97 models that balance economic and ecological values in mainland Portugal. The resulting
98 spatially-explicit maps allow us to thoroughly identify cost-effective priority areas and setting
99 national coverage targets for ES provision and biodiversity conservation. Furthermore, we
100 quantify to which extent the ES values can be represented in the national Gross Domestic
101 Product (GDP). Our findings contribute to achieve the Convention on Biological Diversity

102 (CBD) post-2020 targets and to monitor the United Nations Sustainable Develop Goals that
103 aims to protect, restore and promote sustainable use of ecosystems.

104

105 **2. Material and methods**

106

107 *2.1. Literature review*

108

109 We conduct a systematic literature review on the economic valuation of ES in
110 Portugal, using the scientific databases ISI Web of Science Core Collection, Scopus and
111 Wiley Online Library (Timespan: 1990–2018). We select peer-reviewed articles dedicated to
112 different ecosystems according to The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity
113 classification (TEEB, 2013). For the literature search, we use the topics "ES" AND "Portugal"
114 AND "Coastal Systems" OR "Coastal Wetlands" OR "Croplands" OR "Forest" OR "Fresh
115 Water" OR "Grasslands" OR "Inland Wetlands" OR "Woodlands" in title, abstract and
116 keywords. To filter relevant papers for depth review, we only consider studies with economic
117 values applied to Portugal or at a European level (Table S1).

118

119 *2.2. Data collection*

120

121 We use the CORINE Land Cover (CLC) for the 2018 reference year, according to the
122 Copernicus Land Monitoring Service from the European Environmental Agency (EEA,
123 2018), with a minimum mapping unit of 25 ha and a spatial resolution of 100 m. We
124 reclassify 41 CLC classes into nine ecosystem categories from the TEEB database (i.e.,
125 Coastal Systems, Coastal Wetlands, Croplands, Forest, Fresh Water, Grasslands, Inland
126 Wetlands, Woodlands and Urban) (Fig. 1; Table S2). For the ES valuation processes, we

127 exclude the urban category and base all analyses on natural and rural landscapes. We do not
128 include urban areas to leaving out artificial surfaces and construction lands, which can have a
129 negative effect on the provisioning of ES by human pressures (Evans et al., 2014;
130 Mascarenhas et al., 2019). However, we keep the CLC types classified as green urban areas
131 considering them as Woodlands, according to the TEEB categories(TEEB, 2013), due to their
132 high potential capacity for ES supply in urban ecosystems (Randrup and Persson, 2009).

133

139 2.3. *Economic valuation*

140

141 The economic valuation of ES is key for applying conservation decisions based on
142 ecological importance and social significance in landscape planning (Daily et al., 2009; de
143 Groot et al., 2012). To estimate the ES' values for Portugal, we conduct a benefit transfer
144 approach, that relies on the estimates of past studies to obtain the monetary values for similar
145 ecosystems in new policy and geographic contexts (Rosenberger and Loomis, 2000; Johnston
146 and Rosenberger, 2010). Benefit transfer is a widely applied method in environmental
147 economics to estimate the value of non-market environmental goods and services (Richardson
148 et al., 2015), having crucial implications for land-use policy decisions (Liu et al., 2010;
149 Wilson and Hoehn, 2006). Benefit transfer is subject of a vast literature on economic
150 valuation and cost-benefit analysis, and despite its shortcomings, is widely used when time
151 and financial constraints prevent primary valuation studies (Eigenbrod et al., 2010; Johnston
152 and Rosenberger, 2010; Richardson et al., 2015). Under such limiting factors, benefit transfer
153 is considered a cost-effective approach to ES valuation (Baker and Ruting, 2014; Johnston et
154 al., 2018; Subroy et al., 2019), and therefore, we choose this method to estimate the ES'
155 values in Portugal.

156 From the several economic approaches identified by the literature review, we convert
157 all the monetary values into common metrics based on EUR per hectares/year, using 2018 as
158 the base year. The currency standardization and the total Gross Domestic Product (GDP)
159 values applied for Portugal in 2018 follows the official exchange rates from the EuroStat
160 database (<http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/>). As a complementary data resource, we use the
161 Ecosystem Service Valuation Database (ESVD) (de Groot et al., 2012), following the same
162 strategy adopted in the literature review for the reclassified ecosystems through a spatially
163 explicit transfer approach (Liu, 2018). After standardizing the monetary values, we apply an

164 average value transfer to estimate the economic value of each ES, following the TEEB
165 classification (TEEB, 2013). We also calculate the total value per hectare per year for each
166 ecosystem, according to the sum of means of values for the 17 ES considered: (i) Provisioning
167 (food, raw materials, water supply, and medical resources); (ii) Regulating (local climate and
168 air quality, carbon sequestration and storage, moderation of extreme events, waste-water
169 treatment, erosion prevention and soil fertility, pollination, and biological control); (iii)
170 Supporting (habitats for species, and maintenance of genetic diversity); (iv) Cultural
171 (recreation, tourism, aesthetics, and spiritual). We also build a pairwise matrix between the ES
172 and ecosystem types to identify the most and least economically valuable services for each
173 ecosystem, using the “lattice” package (Sarkar, 2017), in R software (R Core Team, 2020). To
174 obtain the values for the Portuguese ecosystems, we use the following formula adapted from
175 Frélichová et al. (2014):

176

$$177 \quad V_E = A_y \times V_{ES} \quad (1)$$

178

179 where V_E is the value of the ecosystem evaluated, A_y is the area of the ecosystem represented
180 in hectares, and V_{ES} is the correspondent value of the ecosystem per hectare.

181

182 *2.4. Meta-analysis*

183

184 We apply the log-transformed response ratio ($LnRR$) as an effect size measure for
185 assessing the role of benefit transfer in ES valuation in Portugal. In the meta-analysis, effect
186 sizes based on response ratios estimate the change in the means of treatment and control
187 groups (Hedges et al., 1999). Response ratio as standardized mean effect size is the most
188 published meta-analysis in ecology (Gurevitch et al., 2018; Koricheva and Gurevitch, 2014;

189 Nakagawa and Santos, 2012). Using this weighted meta-analytical approach to investigate the
 190 variance of benefits from the protection of ecosystems, we consider PAs (areas under
 191 protection) as the treatment group and non-PAs (areas under no protection) as the control
 192 group. We use the Natura 2000 network regarding the spatial distribution of PAs, provided by
 193 the Portuguese Institute for Nature Conservation and Forests (ICNF, 2020). Therefore, we
 194 calculate the effectiveness of a treatment (i.e. the intervention through the establishment of
 195 PAs) in relation to a control group (i.e. the absence of intervention, non-PAs) on the economic
 196 valuation of ES. Thus, the calculation of the log-transformed response ratio is the following:

197

$$198 \quad LnRR = Ln \frac{\bar{X}_T}{\bar{X}_C} \quad (2)$$

199

200 where \bar{X}_T represents mean values for the protected ecosystems (i.e. treatment group) and \bar{X}_C
 201 represents the mean values for the unprotected ecosystems (i.e. control group). The variance
 202 associated with the response ratio estimates is:

203

$$204 \quad Var(LnRR) = \frac{S_T^2}{N_{(T)}\bar{X}_T^2} + \frac{S_C^2}{N_{(C)}\bar{X}_C^2} \quad (3)$$

205

206 where S_T^2 and $N_{(T)}$ are the variance and the sample size estimated for the ecosystems inside
 207 the PAs and S_C^2 and $N_{(C)}$ are the variance and the sample size estimated for the ecosystems
 208 outside the PAs. To estimate the total amount of residual heterogeneity (Q_T) in the effect
 209 sizes, we use restricted maximum-likelihood to assess the covariance among responses
 210 (Viechtbauer, 2010), indicating the significance of the heterogeneity (Borenstein et al., 2010).
 211 Accounting for the normality of residual distribution under mixed and random-effects models
 212 through Quantile-Quantile (QQ) plots, we adopt a confidence interval of 95%. To conduct this

213 meta-analysis procedure, we use the R “metafor” package (Viechtbauer, 2010), in the R
214 software (R Core Team, 2020).

215

216 2.5. *Habitat quality assessment*

217

218 To evaluate the conservation status of the ecosystems, we use the InVEST Habitat
219 Quality (HQ) model (Sharp et al., 2014) as an ecological proxy for the biodiversity responses
220 to human-induced landscape changes, also defined as habitat suitability. In our case, the
221 suitability values are affected by three main threat factors: (i) the relative sensitivity of each
222 land cover class to each threat (i.e. mainly built-up areas and artificial surfaces); (ii) the
223 relative impact of each threat for the ecosystems; (iii) the relative distance between
224 ecosystems and threats across the landscape, according to a distance-decay rate over the
225 spatial scale under investigation (Sharp et al., 2014). The equation of the HQ model is as
226 follows:

227

$$228 \quad Q_{xj} = H_j \left(1 - \left(\frac{D_{xj}^z}{D_{xj}^z + K^z} \right) \right) \quad (4)$$

229

230 where Q_{xj} is the score of habitat quality computed for a raster dataset (x) in the land cover (j),
231 D_{xj} is the total threat level of (x) in (j), H_j is equal to the habitat suitability, (K) is half of the
232 maximum value of (D_{xj}), and (z) is a scaling parameter (by default $z = 2.5$). The HQ outputs
233 range from 0 (not suitable) to 1 (suitable), where 1 indicates the highest habitat suitability
234 values (Leh et al., 2013). Data parameters used to run the HQ model is described in the
235 Supplementary data (Tables S3–S4).

236

237 2.6. *Cost-effective conservation models*

238

239 Considering both the spatial distribution of ES economic value (EUR/ha/yr) and the
240 habitat quality estimates, we create three priority models for balancing economic and
241 ecological trade-offs in Portugal. To illustrate the trade-offs between Economic Benefits (EB)
242 and Habitat Quality (HQ), we provide three priority models with complementary levels of
243 conservation scenarios:

244

$$245 \quad \text{Model 1}_{(70-100\%)} = \left\{ \left[EB \geq \left(\frac{0.7 (\sum_{i=1}^n EB)}{N_{EB}} \right) \right] + \left[HQ \geq \left(\frac{0.7 (\sum_{i=1}^n HQ)}{N_{HQ}} \right) \right] \right\} - PAs \quad (5)$$

246

$$247 \quad \text{Model 2}_{(40-70\%)} = \left\{ \left[EB \geq \left(\frac{0.4 (\sum_{i=1}^n EB)}{N_{EB}} \right) - EB \leq \left(\frac{0.7 (\sum_{i=1}^n EB)}{EB} \right) \right] + \left[HQ \geq \left(\frac{0.4 (\sum_{i=1}^n HQ)}{N_{HQ}} \right) - \right. \right. \\ 248 \quad \left. \left. HQ \leq \left(\frac{0.7 (\sum_{i=1}^n HQ)}{N_{HQ}} \right) \right] \right\} - PAs \quad (6)$$

249

$$250 \quad \text{Model 3}_{(10-40\%)} = \left\{ \left[EB \geq \left(\frac{0.1 (\sum_{i=1}^n EB)}{N_{EB}} \right) - EB \leq \left(\frac{0.4 (\sum_{i=1}^n EB)}{N_{EB}} \right) \right] + \left[HQ \geq \left(\frac{0.1 (\sum_{i=1}^n HQ)}{N_{HQ}} \right) - \right. \right. \\ 251 \quad \left. \left. HQ \leq \left(\frac{0.4 (\sum_{i=1}^n HQ)}{N_{HQ}} \right) \right] \right\} - PAs \quad (7)$$

252

253 where the Model 1 refers to a high priority scenario, with EB and HQ values between 70–
254 100% of the total observed (N); Model 2 refers to a medium priority scenario, with EB and
255 HQ values between 40–70% of the total observed; and Model 3 refers to a low priority
256 scenario, with EB and HQ values between 10–40% of the total observed. We do not consider
257 areas with values of EB and HQ lower than 10% of the total observed, which we assume
258 as least concern for environmental management. We also exclude all the PAs available to
259 evaluate only non-PAs, considering that the current PAs do not need additional priority for
260 conservation efforts.

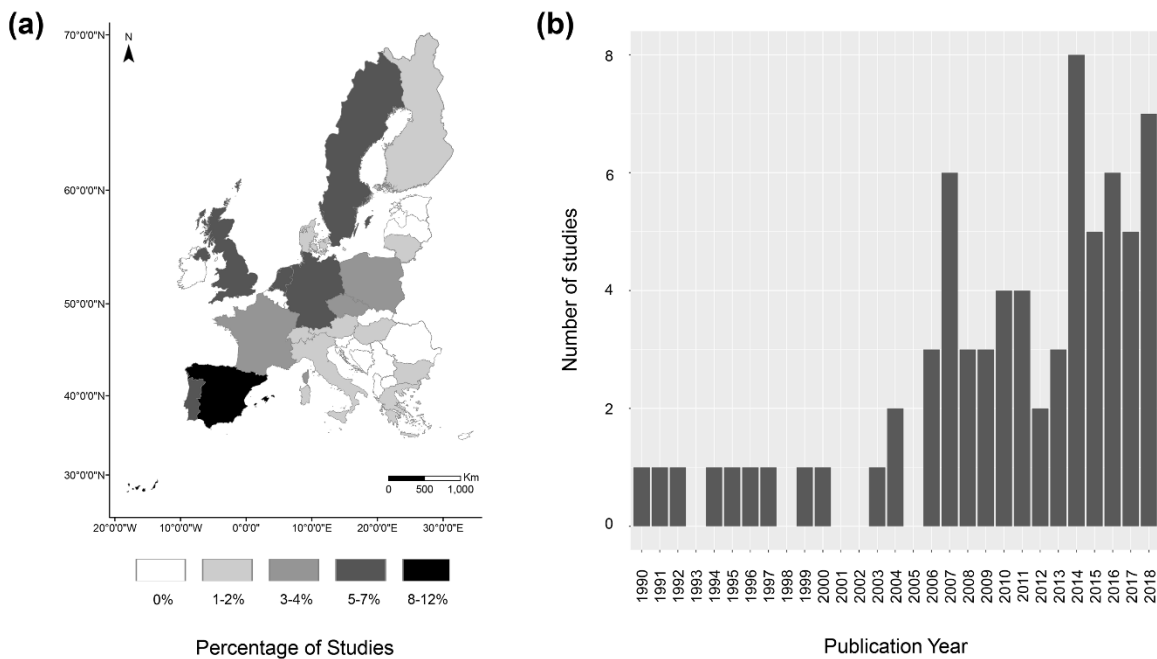
261

262 3. Results

263

264 We find 72 research papers on the economic valuation of ES at the European level
265 once duplicates were removed (Table S1). After fully reviewing the relevance of each paper,
266 we obtain a total of 167 monetary values estimated for biophysical, socio-cultural and
267 ecological features, using an area-based approach for the ecosystem categories accessed in
268 Portugal (i.e. EUR/ha/yr). Our literature review shows that most of the studies are based on
269 national scales from 19 countries (65%), with the remaining focused on the whole European
270 continent (35%). Considering the period of 29 years evaluated (1990–2018), 2014 has the
271 highest number of studies published, whereas the years of 1993, 1998, 2001, 2002 and 2005
272 have no publications (Fig. 2).

273



274

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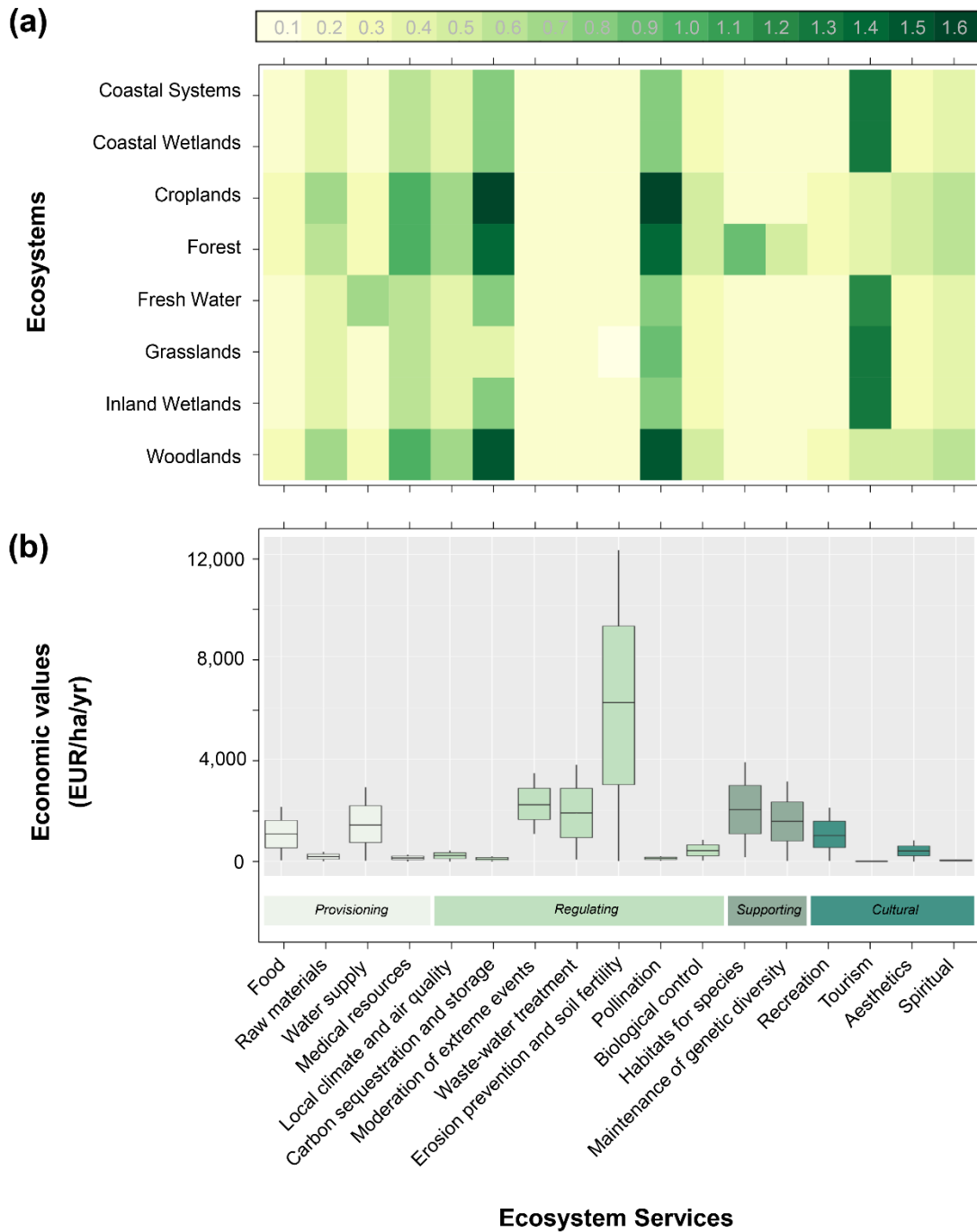
276 **Fig. 2.** Geographic distribution of 72 studies on the economic valuation of ES at European
277 level (a). Barplot indicates the number of studies published between 1990 and 2018 (b).

278

279 Focusing on mainland Portugal, we show a different intensity level of the spatial
280 relationship between the ES and the ecosystems (Fig. 3a). The pairwise percentage scores
281 indicate that Croplands, Forest and Woodlands have the highest levels of carbon sequestration
282 and storage, and pollination. Almost all agriculture and forest-related ecosystems contribute to
283 all ES, with generally lower levels for cultural services (i.e. recreation, tourism, aesthetics and
284 spiritual). It is also possible to observe that Coastal Systems, Coastal Wetlands, Fresh Water,
285 Grasslands and Inland Wetlands are the most representative ecosystems for tourism ES.

286 Considering the mean economic values for the multiple ES distributed at the country
287 level, we find the highest values for regulating services (12,165.44 EUR/ha/yr; SD =
288 2,509.51), and the lowest values for cultural services (8.58 EUR/ha/yr; SD = 655.34) (Fig.
289 3b). Using these monetary values from the benefit transfer approach, we show a proportional
290 relation between the values obtained in the present study and the five highly cited papers on
291 ES valuation in Europe (Fig. 4).

292 Assessing how effective are the ES valuation for the Portuguese ecosystems, we
293 highlighted research trends and mismatches of the investigative efforts based on the concept
294 of benefit-transfer values. The response ratio for the economic values provided by each
295 ecosystem evaluated indicates that Forest (20.08%), Croplands (18.66%) and Fresh Water
296 (17.03%) have the greatest effects on the ES values. The lowest effects are provided by
297 Coastal Wetlands (4.19%) and Coastal Systems (6.69%). According to the reviewed studies,
298 the meta-analysis results show high predicted levels of correlation among the variables related
299 to the ecosystems under mixed and random-effects models. Positive effect sizes indicate a
300 conservation improvement as a result of the benefits from the protected area interventions for
301 ES valuation (Fig. 5).

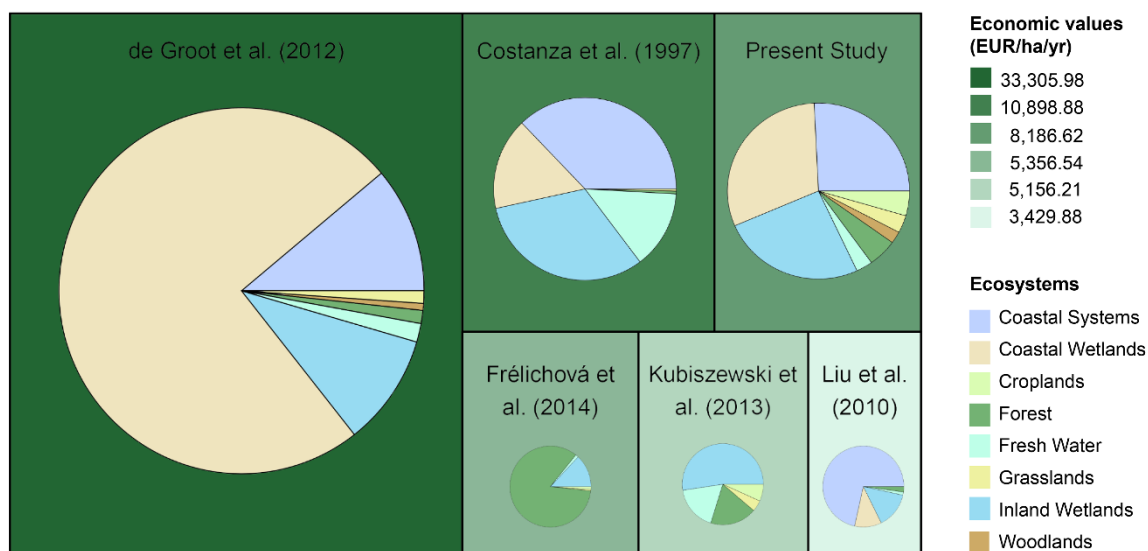


302

303 **Fig. 3.** ES distribution by ecosystems and economic values. Level-plot of the relationship
 304 between ES and ecosystems according to their percentage score ranking (a). Boxplots of the
 305 mean economic values (EUR/ha/yr) for multiple ES (b).

306

307

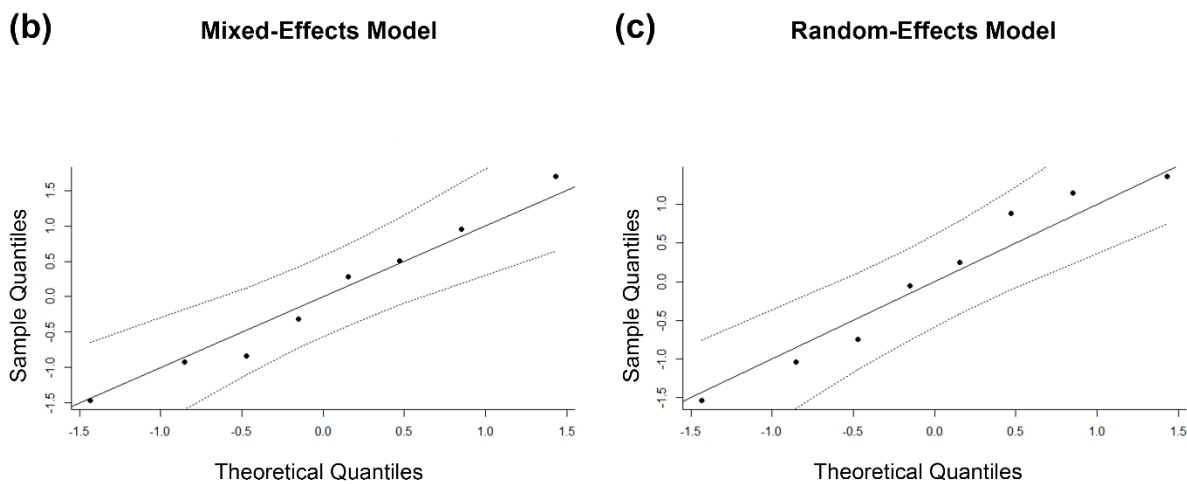
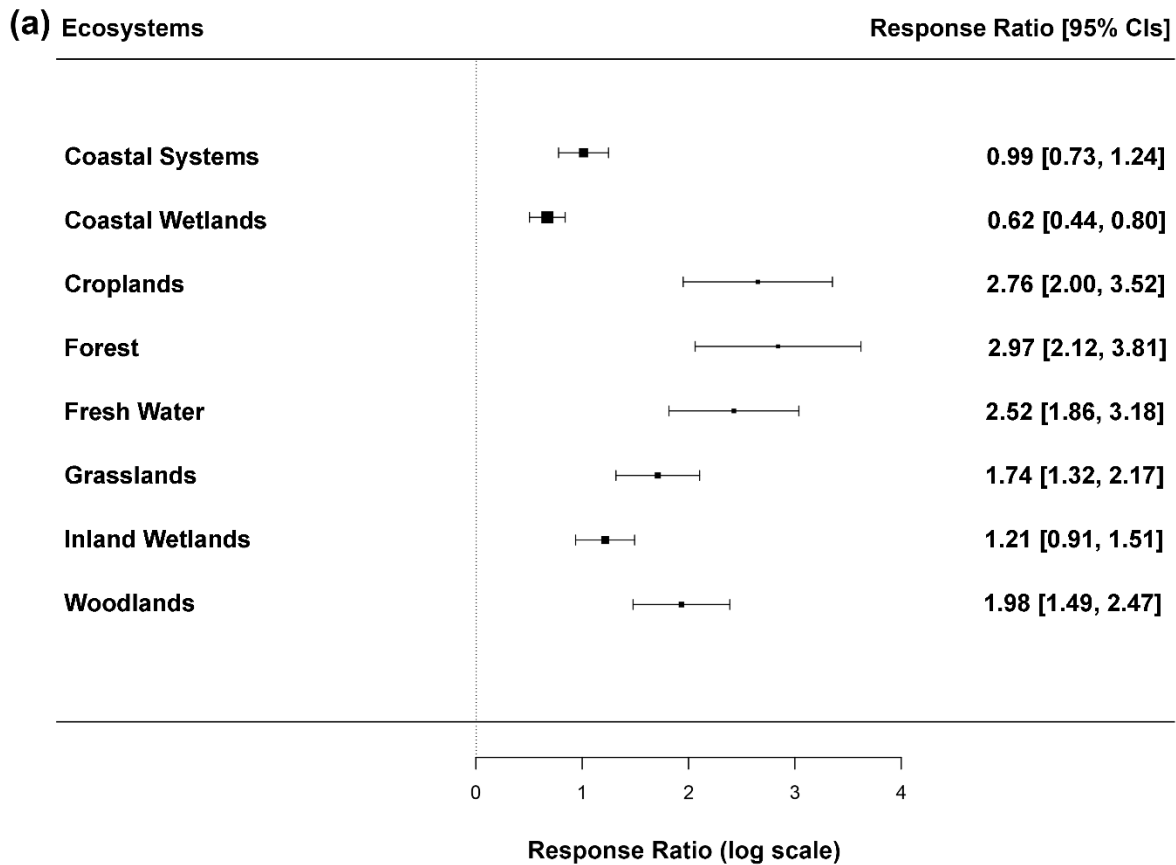


308

309 **Fig. 4.** Treemap representation for comparing the ES valuation between five highly cited
 310 papers and the present study.

311

312 Analysing the habitat quality estimates for the ecosystems assessed, we observe the
 313 uniqueness and irreplaceability of each ecosystem in providing suitable conditions to deliver
 314 ES in the landscape. These estimates show that Croplands, Forest and Woodlands are
 315 responsible for about 90% of the habitat quality values and their economic benefits distributed
 316 at the national level. Considering all economic benefits together, the monetary estimates of ES
 317 values can represent about 12% of the total GDP of Portugal, using 2018 as the base year
 318 (Table 1). On the other hand, when we compare the average of monetary values per area per
 319 year (EUR/ha/yr), we find that the most economically valued ES are delivered by water-
 320 related ecosystems (i.e., Coastal Systems, Coastal Wetlands and Inland Wetlands). The
 321 remaining ecosystems cover larger areas, and their representativeness on the habitat quality
 322 and economic benefits are proportional to their spatial distribution across the country.



323

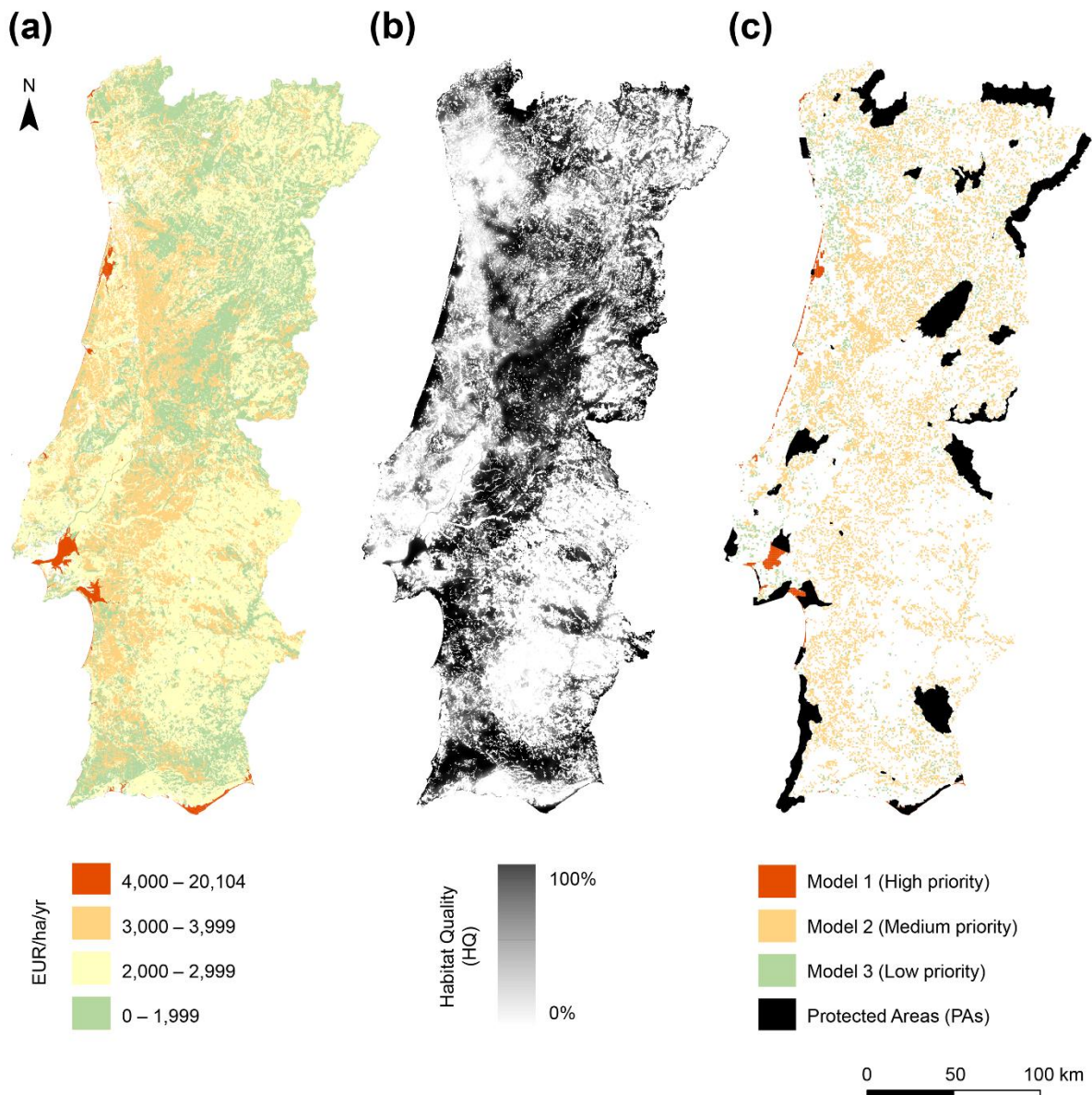
324

325 **Fig. 5.** Meta-analysis on the effects of ES valuation. Forest plot indicate the Response Ratio
 326 estimates using Confidence Intervals (CIs) of 95% (a). Quantile–quantile plots indicate the
 327 normality of residual distribution under mixed (b) and random-effects models (c).

328 **Table 1.** Representativeness of the efficiency of ecosystems, according to their estimates of
 329 area, habitat quality, economic benefits, monetary values and percentage of the total Gross
 330 Domestic Product (GDP) of Portugal in 2018.

Ecosystem	Area (ha)	Habitat Quality (%)	Economic Benefits (%)	Monetary Values (EUR/ha/yr)	GDP (%)
Coastal Systems	62,884.12	1.06	4.39%	16,874.73	0.52
Coastal Wetlands	27,948.60	0.51	2.32%	20,104.72	0.28
Croplands	4,081,475.08	61.07	50.27%	2,977.53	5.95
Forest	2,012,806.33	23.63	28.13%	3,378.57	3.33
Fresh Water	79,475.71	0.25	0.63%	1,919.33	0.07
Grasslands	176,630.27	3.12	1.54%	2,109.47	0.18
Inland Wetlands	1,653.31	0.01	0.11%	16,698.25	0.01
Woodlands	2,130,166.34	10.34	12.60%	1,430.42	1.49

331
 332 Through mapping and calculating the spatial distribution of habitat quality and
 333 economic benefits nationally, we show high values in the west-central region, the north-
 334 western coast, and in the extremely south-eastern portion of the country (Fig. 6a–b). Our three
 335 prioritization models illustrate complementary scenarios for ES assessments (i.e., Model 1 =
 336 High Priority: 70–100%; Model 2 = Medium Priority: 40–70%; and Model 3 = Low Priority:
 337 10–40%) of ecological (i.e., Habitat Quality) and monetary attributes (i.e., EUR/ha/yr) (Fig.
 338 6c). Although our results are area-dependent (ha), we show co-benefits and trade-offs
 339 between the monetary values and the overall land surface covered by each model. Applying
 340 these models in the ES landscape context of Portugal, we suggest that the Model 1 has the
 341 greater capability to safeguard economic and ecological benefits from the minimum effective
 342 land coverage to the maximum potential for ES supply (Table 2).



344

345 **Fig. 6.** Integrative modelling approach for Portugal. Spatial distribution of the economic
 346 benefits of ES (a). Habitat Quality (HQ) estimates (b). Prioritization models for balancing
 347 economic and ecological values (c). Priority ranking is based on areas with values (EUR/ha/yr
 348 and HQ) between 70–100% – Model 1 (High priority), 40–70% – Model 2 (Medium priority),
 349 and 10–40% – Model 3 (Low priority).

350

351 **Table 2.** Economic benefits of the ecosystems covered by the three priority models for
 352 balancing economic and ecological values in Portugal. Priority ranking is based on areas with
 353 values (EUR/ha/yr and HQ) between 70–100% – Model 1 (High priority), 40–70% – Model 2
 354 (Medium priority), and 10–40% – Model 3 (Low priority).

Ecosystem	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	ha (%)	EUR/ha/yr	ha (%)	EUR/ha/yr	ha (%)	EUR/ha/yr
Coastal Systems	68.94	11,633.71	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Coastal Wetlands	10.29	2,069.77	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Croplands	6.30	187.71	91.58	2,726.78	75.03	2,234.12
Forest	10.12	341.96	5.35	180.60	1.97	66.42
Fresh Water	0.06	1.11	0.06	1.14	0.07	1.26
Grasslands	0.46	9.76	2.22	46.89	17.10	360.79
Inland Wetlands	0.06	9.66	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Woodlands	3.76	53.78	0.79	11.36	5.83	83.43
Total	100	14,307.45	100	2,966.76	100	2,746.02

355

356 **4. Discussion**

357

358 Our results show that integration between economic and ecological values can be a
 359 helpful strategy for a sustainable planning in mainland Portugal, with key implications for
 360 conservation decisions. There is an increasing demand for information on ES values to inform
 361 decision-making (Naeem et al., 2016). Monetary dimensions of ES assessments that consider
 362 the diversity of values of nature and its contribution to people’s well-being are critical to
 363 achieve sustainable development goals (Griggs et al., 2013; Bennet et al., 2015). Multiple ES
 364 assessments have been applied at different landscape scales, showing that economic valuation

365 can indeed inform public-sector decision making (Nelson et al., 2009; Schaefer et al., 2015),
366 and be integrated into ecosystem-based management (Bateman et al., 2011; Hanley and
367 Barbier, 2009). There are several approaches for integrating values to inform decision-
368 making, such as multi-criteria analysis, deliberative or integrated modelling approaches
369 (Pascual et al., 2017). However, the challenge lies in how to integrate the different value
370 dimensions in a coherent and transparent way (Martín-López et al., 2014).

371 Despite the great effort of economists and ecologists in advancing valuation methods
372 to translate the contribution of ES to human welfare into monetary values, their research has
373 not kept pace with the increasing demand for this information (Bateman et al., 2011; Parks
374 and Gowdy, 2013; Paul et al., 2020). Additionally, interdisciplinary research often needed for
375 primary ES valuation studies is not feasible due to budget and time constraints (O'Bryan et
376 al., 2020). This shortfall has led to the widespread use of secondary data for ES valuation
377 (Richardson et al., 2015). As such, benefit transfer applications are increasingly being used to
378 inform policymaking since it allows us to estimate ES values more quickly and at a lower cost
379 (Frélichová et al., 2014; Iovanna and Griffiths, 2006; Mandle et al., 2020). Our meta-analysis
380 results account for differences in explanatory variables of the primary studies valuing a
381 particular ES to estimate a value function for multiple ES. Evidence of the higher accuracy of
382 the economic benefits of ES using meta-analysis over other approaches is well-documented
383 studies in the literature (e.g., Frélichová et al., 2014; Johnston and Bauer, 2020; Quintas-
384 Soriano et al., 2016).

385 In this study, our integrative modelling approach provides a macroecological ES
386 assessment that also includes their economic benefits. Model 1 best represents the highest-
387 priority regions for ES conservation in the national landscape context. Those regions are
388 mostly located along the coastland and they represent only a minor area considering mainland
389 Portugal, but their ecological economic benefits worth three times more than Model 2 and 3

390 together. A big portion of those areas are found nearby some of the protected areas,
391 evidencing a spatial relationship between effective based conservation clusters. Preserving
392 these emphasize regions bear an efficient high cost-benefit guaranteed. Model 2 and 3 have
393 similar outcomes in terms of the total economic valuation provided by each Model. However,
394 Model 2 has a much larger area when compared to model 1 and 3, which while protecting
395 more ecosystems, needs a higher investment. Finally, Model 3 has a scattered spatial pattern
396 essentially aggregated in the North of the country and close to intensive agricultural regions.
397 Its low priority areas stand neighbouring artificial surfaces with lower conservation concerns.
398 Coastal Systems, Coastal Wetlands and Forest are the main ecosystems contributing for the
399 economic valuation in the highest-priority areas (i.e., model 1). Forest is still an important
400 ecosystem to consider for Model 2 and 3, but the same is not valid for Coastal Systems, which
401 have no impact on the medium and low priority models. Croplands and Grasslands are the
402 other two most relevant ecosystems providing economic benefits, yet both differ in terms of
403 spatial dimension. If Croplands by itself yield a majority presence on both Model 2 (~90%)
404 and Model 3 (~75%), Grasslands only account to about 2% and 17% respectively. The
405 absence of a priority strategy may jeopardize the full economic and ecological potential of
406 natural ecosystems and their services. Hence, our modelling approach reveals geographically
407 ranked areas in where conservation efforts should be addressed according to a priority status.

408 On the implications of our cost-effective conservation models for sustainability
409 improvement, we show a new strategy of how to use this modelling approach in landscape
410 planning. However, is useful to note some important caveats that do need careful
411 consideration when interpreting our results. Our priority models consider both economic and
412 ecological values together, so all the assumptions underlying the InVEST HQ model and the
413 economic valuation methodology may influence our findings. The application of HQ outputs
414 has a spatial limitation related to the small number of land cover classes converted into

415 ecosystems, which is mainly dependent on the scale of the study (i.e., national). The HQ input
416 data resolution could also tend to oversimplify the habitat complexity at a macroscale due to
417 the lack of field-observed data (e.g., Schulp et al., 2014; Sallustio et al., 2017). Regarding the
418 economic valuation of ES, we assume that the value of an ES can be uniform for a particular
419 land cover (i.e., regardless of its condition, composition and management history). We know
420 however that these characteristics are very unlikely the same across all the geographical
421 contexts. Thus, the ES provided by croplands will not be constant within croplands, resulting
422 in uniformity errors (Eigenbrod et al., 2010). Moreover, we have not adjusted our estimates
423 according to potential differences between the characteristics of our study site (Portuguese
424 mainland ES) and the original study sites, such as socio-economic and demographic
425 characteristics or market differences. This can introduce some practical limitations in ES
426 values mapping and thus undermine the identification of priority areas for conservation
427 (Eigenbrod et al., 2010). Benefit transfer is far from perfect and is subject of an ongoing
428 academic debate over its validity (Wilson and Hoehn, 2006). On the other hand, due to a lack
429 of primary data, we assume that estimating ES values through this method is very useful to
430 show the potential benefits of ES for land-use policies at national levels (Johnston and Bauer,
431 2020; Mandle et al., 2020).

432 In practice, sustainable land-use policies can be achieved only if best ES practices are
433 applied across the public, scientific and private sectors. Integrated approaches such as the
434 Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services – IPBES
435 (<http://www.ipbes.net>) can advance multiple pathways for improving the effectiveness of the
436 science-policy interface on decision-making processes (Ruckelshaus et al., 2020). There is a
437 constant political debate on whether ES should be viewed as economic assets (Barbier, 2013),
438 but avoided costs of ES loss are frequently underestimated or even neglected by politicians
439 (Challender et al., 2015). Spatial prioritization models for ES conservation priorities can be

440 used as a comprehensive framework to link economic and ecological values for incorporating
441 research evidence into policy decisions (Dinerstein et al., 2020). A growing number of
442 evidence-based approaches on the economic benefits of ES around the world have shown
443 many opportunities for investments at different spatial scales (Liu, 2018; Mandle et al., 2020;
444 Ouyang et al., 2016; Salzman et al., 2018). Following these many opportunities of
445 investments, our findings introduce potential conservation parameters that set new priorities
446 for the ES supply in mainland Portugal. We argue for the use of Model 1 (i.e., high priority)
447 as an indicator of key conservation areas for ES values with cost-effective implications for a
448 sustainable economy. This integrative modelling approach in balance with the landscape may
449 be used to assess how human activities can be spatially managed to reduce land-use impacts
450 on ES supply by cost-effective conservation actions.

451

452 **5. Conclusions**

453

454 Time and space are running out for natural ecosystems, and one of the most effective
455 options for conservation planning is to incorporate economic benefits into decision making
456 (O'Bryan et al., 2020). The ES scientific community has a consensus that integrating ecology
457 and economy is a key argument to safeguard biodiversity at national, regional and global
458 scales (Paul et al., 2020; Strassburg et al., 2020). However, the people needs in economics,
459 environment and sustainable development are growing faster than new species are being
460 discovered, leaving out their relationships with the ecosystems and human welfare (Chaplin-
461 Kramer et al., 2019). At the same time, evidence on how new investments in nature
462 benefitting people can enhance sustainable development practices in the face of people needs
463 around the world (Polasky et al., 2019). The urgent need for an ambitious global conservation
464 agenda arises from the question of how much it costs and which are the targets that should be

465 selected for a cost-effective landscape planning (Hannah et al., 2020; Tallis et al., 2018).
466 Therefore, the response to conservation must be quick. Connecting economic and ecological
467 benefits of ES, our results suggest a strategy to value, and at the same time, conserve all
468 biodiversity components quickly and effectively, because our targets are ecosystems. The
469 example given for Portugal can be expanded to other regions of the world, including
470 biodiversity-rich areas in the Tropics aimed to protect multiple ES with limited resources. Our
471 study highlights the call for comprehensive approaches to uncertainty in ecological-economic
472 research to improve the future economic valuation of biodiversity.

473

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475

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482

483 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

484

485 Supplementary data to this article can be found online.

486

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