

A comprehensive approach for agroecosystem services and disservices valuation

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ABSTRACT

The use of the ecosystem services approach for ecosystem management, including the valuation of ecosystem services, has grown in recent decades. Although a common framework is used, each ecosystem has its own characteristics. The agroecosystem, for example, is an anthropised ecosystem where ecosystem service flows are highly interrelated with the environment, positively or negatively. Therefore, agroecosystem services are usually accompanied by disservices. The valuation of agroecosystem services and disservices requires adaptation of existing ecosystem services paradigms to accommodate the innate agroecosystem idiosyncrasies. To this end, in this study, a comprehensive approach for valuation of agroecosystem services and disservices was proposed and validated in a semi-arid western Mediterranean agricultural area through stakeholder assessment, using a choice experiment. The results suggest that all categories of services (provisioning, regulating, and cultural) should be taken into account when valuing agroecosystem services and disservices. In particular, food provision (a provisioning service), water (a provisioning disservice), local climate regulation and biodiversity (regulating services), waste treatment and water purification (regulating disservices), and recreation and tourism (cultural services) are relevant for this purpose. Their relative importance in agroecosystems valuation reached 70% for agroecosystem services and 30% for disservices. Specifically, biodiversity (38%) emerged as the most relevant agroecosystem service to be valued, followed by recreation and tourism (20%), local climate regulation (7%), and food provision (5%). Among the agroecosystem disservices, water and waste treatment (15%), and water purification (15%) together contributed to 30% of the total importance. Agroecosystems should be valued considering their multifunctional character and the integration of agroecosystem services and disservices.

Keywords: Anthropised ecosystems; Choice experiment; Mediterranean agroecosystems; Stakeholder assessment; Human well-being.

34 1. INTRODUCTION

35 The ecosystem services approach highlights the importance of nature's contribution to human life
36 and well-being. The notion of ecosystem services reveals that human well-being closely depends
37 on the ecosystems in which humans exist. Ecosystem functioning impacts human well-being
38 through the ecosystem services provided. Ecosystems may supply food, fuel, or fibre
39 (provisioning services), contribute to the regulation of natural functions (regulating services), or
40 even provide an environment for leisure activities (cultural services). Thus, ecosystem services
41 represent ecosystem flows that are ultimately perceived as contributions to human well-being.

42 Over the past two decades, both development and extension of the ecosystem services approach
43 have been encouraged through growth of the related literature and international institutional
44 support. From "*the benefits people obtain from ecosystems*" (MEA, 2005) to "*the contributions
45 that ecosystems make to human wellbeing*" (Haines-Young and Potschin, 2018), the definition of
46 ecosystem services in the scientific literature has been adapted over time to incorporate the
47 advances achieved. Initiatives such as MEA (2005), TEEB (2010), FECS-CS (Landers and
48 Nahlik, 2013), IPBES (Pascual et al., 2017), and CICES (Haines-Young and Potschin, 2018)
49 reflect this development process. Most of these initiatives have served to establish a solid
50 theoretical basis for the definition and classification of ecosystem services and the impact of
51 ecosystems on human well-being (Costanza et al., 2017). However, despite their wide use and
52 extension, these definitions and classifications may not fit all types of ecosystems (Fisher et al.,
53 2009; Ojea et al., 2012). The different ecosystem services frameworks developed assume that
54 ecosystem service flows arise from natural processes and no human interactions are considered
55 within the ecosystem functions. However, many ecosystems have been deeply transformed by
56 humans, in such a way that their functioning has, in many cases, totally changed (Palomo et al.,
57 2016). As ecosystem functions are influenced by human activities, it ultimately affects the
58 provision of ecosystem services (Lele et al., 2013). Therefore, in anthropised ecosystems, such as
59 agroecosystems, the flow of services should be carefully considered (Barot et al., 2017).

60 Agroecosystems are created by humans to provide a specific provisioning service. This involves
61 such a degree of anthropisation that human activities, mainly through agricultural practices, affect
62 the innate functioning of these ecosystems. Therefore, agroecosystem services are not fully
63 produced by agroecosystem functioning, and their provision is determined by the level of human
64 activity within each agroecosystem (Mach et al., 2015). Agroecosystem services are, therefore,
65 co-produced by both the natural ecosystem and the human hand (Fischer and Eastwood, 2016).

¹ *Abbreviations and acronyms.* AES: Agroecosystem services; AEDS: Agroecosystem disservices; IIA: Independence of irrelevant alternatives.

66 In addition, this human interference may not always have the desired positive outcomes (Barot et
67 al., 2017). First, agricultural practices may impact the current state of agroecosystems, negatively
68 affecting their capacity to provide agroecosystem services (AES). Second, they can also lead to
69 the provision of agroecosystem disservices (AEDS), which are defined as the “generated
70 functions, processes and attributes that result in perceived or actual negative impacts on human
71 wellbeing” (Shackleton et al., 2016), revealing that agroecosystem contributions can also be
72 harmful. Furthermore, interrelationships between AES and AEDS are expected in
73 agroecosystems, providing many more trade-offs among them than win-win solutions. In turn,
74 these trade-offs are promoted by human practices, which add complexity to the assessment of
75 agroecosystems (Tancoigne et al., 2014).

76 The expression of the value of AES and AEDS serves to raise awareness of the overall importance
77 of agroecosystems to society and policy makers (De Groot et al., 2012). Both AES and AEDS are
78 valued as long as they provide benefits and costs, respectively, to socioeconomic systems.
79 Benefits and costs may be economic, environmental, or social, and are derived from the direct
80 and indirect use of AES and AEDS, from the option of using them in the future (option value) or
81 even from the mere knowledge of their existence (non-use value) (Pearce and Turner, 1990). In
82 addition, these values are context-dependent (Díaz et al., 2018). Time, spatial scale, cultural
83 background, and stakeholder involvement are key elements that determine the values of AES and
84 AEDS received by a socioeconomic system. It is well known that agroecosystems provide
85 benefits and costs to society, but there is no consensus in the literature regarding the main AES
86 and AEDS that should be valued. In fact, recent advances in AES valuation refer to specific AES
87 without a common agreement. Rodríguez-Entrena et al. (2014) and Granado-Díaz et al. (2020)
88 focused on the economic valuation of erosion control, carbon sequestration, and biodiversity in
89 olive agroecosystems in Andalusia (southern Spain); Divinsky et al. (2017) valued food provision,
90 pollination, and landscape on an experimental farm in Galilee (NE Israel); and Bernués et al.
91 (2019) assessed the social demand for quality food products, fire control, biodiversity, and
92 landscape in mountain agroecosystems in Huesca (NE Spain).

93 In this context, this study aimed to identify the AES and AEDS that should be valued, considering
94 the innate idiosyncrasies of agroecosystems. To this end, a comprehensive agroecosystem
95 assessment approach was proposed and validated using a stakeholder choice experiment. The
96 Region of Murcia (south-eastern Spain) was used as a case study because it is representative of
97 semi-arid western Mediterranean agroecosystems.

98 The novelty of this research lies in its integration of anthropisation, AES, and AEDS into a
99 common approach for agroecosystem valuation, while it also considers the overall complex
100 relationships between the biophysical and socioeconomic systems. Therefore, this study aids in
101 filling the knowledge gap regarding the integrated valuation of AES and AEDS, and its

102 implications are expected to be useful for research purposes and decision-making. First, the
103 proposed framework enables the adaptation of the main ecosystem services paradigms to the
104 specifics of agroecosystems. Second, the results of a stakeholder assessment elucidate the relative
105 relevance of the AES and AEDS valued in a semi-arid western Mediterranean context. Thus, this
106 study provides researchers with baseline information to value the overall contributions of
107 agroecosystems to human well-being. It also provides policy makers with background
108 information that should enable them to focus on the AES and AEDS that need to be better
109 managed.

110 In the following section of this paper, a comprehensive approach for agroecosystem assessment
111 is proposed. Sections 3 and 4 describe the validation of this approach through a stakeholder choice
112 experiment, including the methodology used and the results, respectively. In Section 5, the results
113 and their implications are discussed and Section 6 is the conclusion of the paper.

114

115 **2. A COMPREHENSIVE AGROECOSYSTEM ASSESSMENT** 116 **APPROACH**

117 In an anthropised ecosystem, the integrated valuation of AES and AEDS requires a framework
118 that considers both positive and negative impacts on human well-being. To achieve this, the Barot
119 et al. (2017) framework for anthropised ecosystems has been applied. In addition, the main
120 paradigms for ecosystem services, such as MEA (2005), TEEB (2010), and CICES (Haines-
121 Young and Potschin, 2018), have been revised and readapted to the innate idiosyncrasies of the
122 agroecosystem. Barot et al. (2017) adapted the *Capacity, Flow, Demand, and Pressure* framework
123 developed by Villamagma et al. (2013) to include anthropisation and the presence of disservices
124 within a common framework. This framework assumes that agroecosystem functioning depends
125 on the state of health of the agroecosystem as well as on the biodiversity and the innate processes
126 and functions within the agroecosystem (Figure 1). Agroecosystem functioning comprises the
127 agroecosystem functions that form the basis of production of AES and AEDS flows. The joint
128 consideration of agroecosystem state, biodiversity, and functioning determines the potential of an
129 agroecosystem to provide AES and AEDS, namely, the agroecosystem capacity. Agroecosystem
130 functioning impacts human well-being by means of the AES and AEDS provided, which are
131 therefore considered the flows from the agroecosystem to the socioeconomic system. However,
132 within the socioeconomic system, AES and AEDS represent benefits and costs, respectively,
133 which could be translated into economic values by means of market and non-market valuation
134 methods.

135 At this point, it should be stated that the benefits and costs related to AES and AEDS are not fixed
136 over space and time but depend on the context in which they are framed (Díaz et al., 2018). The
137 demand for AES and AEDS, that is, the amount of services and disservices desired, is determined
138 by the entire society, and consequently by sociocultural preferences. Preferences, which are
139 assumed to be invariant in a specific context (Braga and Starmer, 2005), are ascertained by both
140 the concrete agroecosystem and the sociocultural frame within which they are evaluated (Bernués
141 et al., 2019; Alcon et al., 2020b). Consequently, stakeholders also play a key role in creating
142 demand within the socioeconomic system. Their actions may have an influence not only on the
143 value that AES and AEDS provide, but also, and mainly, on the way an agroecosystem is
144 managed. This management will in turn affect the functioning of the agroecosystem and thus its
145 capacity to generate AES and AEDS flows. Agricultural practices represent the main human
146 pressure on an agroecosystem.

147 The proposed approach seeks to capture the innate idiosyncrasies of agroecosystems. Trade-offs
148 between AES and AEDS are expected within an agroecosystem, and are influenced by pressures
149 (Barot et al., 2017). For instance, food provision, which is the core service provided by
150 agroecosystems, can be enhanced by agricultural practices (pressures), such as fertiliser
151 application, but this may imply the emission of contaminants to the atmosphere and water bodies,
152 thus providing AEDS. Consequently, not only the capacity of the agroecosystem could be
153 affected, but also its functioning, which ultimately affects the current AES and AEDS flows.
154 Furthermore, trade-offs and pressures reduce the capacity of an agroecosystem to provide the
155 maximum level of AES. Human demand also influences the capacity and functioning of an
156 agroecosystem through pressures; therefore, the provision of AES and AEDS is a consequence of
157 the relationship between humans and nature. A final point to note is that this approach focusses
158 only on the agroecosystem, without considering connections between it and surrounding
159 ecosystems beyond the AES and AEDS provided. Consequently, land use changes, which may
160 imply transition from or to other ecosystem types (e.g. from forest to agroecosystems) are not
161 considered.

162

163

Figure 1. About here.

164

165 Our approach encompasses two different but interrelated systems: the biophysical system, which
166 corresponds to the agroecosystem, and the socioeconomic system, centred on human well-being
167 (Figure 1). In the biophysical system, the proposed approach can also be translated to the existing
168 typologies of ecosystem services. In the socioeconomic system, AES and AEDS are treated as
169 benefits and costs, respectively, according to their impact on human well-being. Table 1

170 summarises how the most widely applied ecosystem services paradigms are connected as well as
171 how they were readapted to the specific case of the agroecosystem. For this purpose, a
172 chronological order was followed from MEA (2005) to CICES (Haines-Young and Potschin,
173 2018).

174 Regarding provisioning services, the main classifications agree on and recognise different types
175 of ecosystem services, not just food provision. However, when the agroecosystem is considered,
176 food provision could be assessed as one of the AES, and water as one of the AEDS. Of the AES,
177 food is the only one considered in the assessment of agroecosystems because the other ecosystem
178 services all translate into production outputs. In the case of water ecosystem services, however,
179 agroecosystems do not provide fresh water to other ecosystems, but instead utilise water from
180 them, consequently decreasing the availability of water in these other ecosystems (Strzepek and
181 Boehlert, 2010). Water demand for agricultural purposes has become a pressure for freshwater
182 ecosystems. Environmental flows (e-flows) might be therefore undermined by agroecosystem
183 functioning, which in turn could be translated into a depletion of water ecosystem services and
184 may compromise the sustainability and well-being of organisms that depend on these ecosystems
185 (Kuriqi et al., 2019, 2020; Zheng et al., 2020). For such reasons, agroecosystems provide water
186 AEDS rather than water AES.

187 Regulating services represent the widest category of agroecosystem services. Our approach also
188 includes some supporting services, in the case of MEA (2005), and habitat services, in the case
189 of TEEB (2010); specifically, only those services that would not imply double-accounting bias.
190 Regarding air quality regulation, all the classifications concur that ecosystems contribute
191 positively to improvements in air quality, diminishing the contaminants of human origin.
192 However, this is not the case for agriculture, which may be responsible for emitting contaminants
193 to the atmosphere, such as ammonia or nitrous oxide, derived mainly from fertiliser application
194 (Tubiello et al., 2015). Thus, the contribution of agroecosystems to air quality regulation is
195 expected to be negative and should be considered as one of the AEDS. Climate regulation is
196 broadly recognised as being among the AES in all classifications. The contribution of ecosystems
197 to climate regulation can be considered both globally and locally because ecosystem functioning
198 can impact the global carbon cycle dynamics as well as the thermodynamics and weather in the
199 locations where the ecosystems exist. Therefore, an agroecosystem could contribute to carbon
200 sequestration, both in the soil and by crop photosynthesis, which would form part of the
201 agroecosystem contribution to global climate regulation (González-Sánchez et al., 2012). In
202 addition, an agroecosystem could also contribute to temperature regulation, which is part of local
203 climate regulation (Albaladejo-García et al., 2020).

204 Although water regulation is included within the main ecosystem services paradigms, it cannot
205 be applied in the case of agroecosystems because the agroecosystem contribution to the regulation

206 of water cycle dynamics is relatively insignificant compared to that of other ecosystems. In
207 addition, water regulation, which includes evapotranspiration, infiltration, and runoff, is closely
208 related to agroecosystem functioning, water supply, and water purification, generating service
209 overlapping and double-counting biases when it is valued (Ojea et al., 2012). However,
210 agroecosystems may interfere with water purification and waste treatment. Agricultural soils
211 provide water purification, preventing the filtering of nutrients to aquatic ecosystems (Schröder
212 et al., 2020). This agroecosystem function could also be enhanced by agricultural practices, such
213 as cover crops (Skaalsveen et al., 2019) or the inclusion of buffer strips to delimit cropland
214 (Terrado et al., 2015), thereby providing AES. In addition, other agricultural practices, especially
215 fertiliser application, which have been considered as pressures in our approach, may be
216 responsible for water pollution. The runoff and leaching of water following excessive use of
217 nitrogen fertiliser generates diffuse pollution from agriculture, which contributes directly to the
218 salinisation of groundwater and may negatively affect other ecosystems (Jiménez-Martínez et al.,
219 2016), thereby providing AEDS.

220 Ecosystem functioning contributes to soil conservation and quality in different ways, including
221 erosion prevention, soil formation, and soil fertility. The state of the soil is crucial to
222 agroecosystem functioning, and agricultural practices may affect this. Therefore, the agricultural
223 contribution to soil maintenance may be positive or negative depending on the management
224 practices. Intensive tillage, quite common in traditional agriculture, may generate high erosion
225 rates and, therefore, AEDS (Montgomery, 2007). However, more environment-friendly practices
226 such as crop diversification or green manure use can boost soil organic matter, increase fertility,
227 and thus contribute to soil maintenance (Morugán-Coronado et al., 2020), implying the provision
228 of AES. Therefore, agroecosystems can contribute positively and negatively to soil, providing
229 both AES and AEDS, respectively.

230 Biological control of diseases and pests, and pollination are considered in most ecosystem
231 services classifications. However, the case of the agroecosystem is again quite different because
232 agroecosystems receive biocontrol agents and pollinators from other ecosystems. As Zhang et al.
233 (2007) and Power (2010) suggested that biological control and pollination are ecosystem services
234 provided to an agroecosystem by natural habitats. These external services allow agroecosystems
235 to maintain the provision of AES flows. Nevertheless, agricultural practices can also impact the
236 provision level of biological control and pollination ecosystem services. Conservation agriculture
237 and crop diversification are two examples of agricultural practices that have positive impacts on
238 biological control and pollinators (Aguilera et al., 2020). Conversely, agricultural intensification,
239 mainly through pesticide and fertiliser application, is responsible for the decrease in pollinators
240 worldwide (Potts et al., 2010; Main et al., 2020) as well as for the loss of soil and plant biodiversity
241 (Culman et al., 2010; Beeckman et al., 2018). Based on this, agriculture does affect the

242 maintenance of genetic diversity within an agroecosystem, and therefore agroecosystems
243 contribute to biodiversity (Paiola et al., 2020). Impacts on biodiversity could be both positive and
244 negative depending on the particular agricultural practices. Therefore, agriculture may promote
245 or reduce the biodiversity that develops within an agroecosystem (Martin et al., 2019), providing
246 both AES and AEDS.

247 Agroecosystems may contribute to the regulation of extreme events, such as floods, by improving
248 the resilience of ecosystems. Resilience, defined as the ability of systems (either ecosystems or
249 socioeconomic systems) to maintain their original functioning and capability after exposure to a
250 disruptive change (Holling, 1973), is key to ensuring the long-term sustainability of
251 agroecosystems themselves, but, above all, of their surrounding ecosystems and socioeconomic
252 systems. The capacity of agroecosystems to moderate extreme events, mainly through the
253 capability of crops and vegetation to retain and store water, may mitigate the consequences of
254 climate change, such as heavy rainfall, floods, and drought. Resilience, in this sense, should be
255 understood not only as the moderation of extreme events, but also as a positive contribution to
256 the human well-being derived from it (Qiu, 2019). The focus is on mitigating the negative effects
257 that disruptive changes would produce in the absence of agroecosystems. Therefore,
258 agroecosystems can mitigate the negative impacts of extreme events on surrounding ecosystems
259 and socioeconomic systems, and thereby enhance the resilience of these systems. This enhanced
260 resilience should also be considered as a service provided by agroecosystems (Peterson et al.,
261 2018).

262 Cultural AES should also be included in the assessment of agroecosystems in order to add the
263 non-material benefits that agroecosystems provide to society (Huber and Finger, 2019). These
264 benefits could be obtained through spiritual and cultural values, aesthetic values, opportunities
265 for recreation, tourism, and cognitive development. They fit completely with the main ecosystem
266 services classifications.

267

268

Table 1. About here.

269

270 The socioeconomic system of the proposed approach (Figure 1) focusses on how AES and AEDS
271 are perceived as benefits and costs, respectively. The interrelationships between the biophysical
272 and socioeconomic systems show how provisioning, regulating, and cultural AES and AEDS are
273 perceived as economic, environmental, and social benefits and costs, respectively, in the
274 socioeconomic system, having an economic value. The economic value is derived from their
275 direct and indirect use, the option of their use in the future, and even their mere existence (non-
276 use value) (Pearce and Turner, 1990).

277 Table 2 shows the links between the proposed AES and AEDS and their respective type of benefit
278 and cost, and their type of value (TEEB, 2010). Provisioning AES and AEDS are mostly related
279 to economic benefits and costs, while regulating and cultural AES and AEDS are linked to
280 environmental and social benefits and costs, respectively. However, these relationships are not
281 always so straightforward. For instance, provisioning AEDS may also provide environmental
282 costs, while cultural AES may generate economic benefits. Regarding value, provisioning AES
283 and AEDS tend to be valued in relation to their direct use, regulating AES and AEDS are more
284 related to indirect use and option values, and cultural AES and AEDS mostly refer to direct use,
285 option, and non-use values.

286

287

Table 2. About here.

288

289 **3. METHODOLOGY**

290 **3.1. Case study**

291 This case study was located in the Region of Murcia (south-eastern Spain), within the Segura
292 River Basin (Figure 2). This region is characterised by a semi-arid climate with low rainfall and
293 long periods of drought which generate agri-environmental challenges such as water scarcity,
294 groundwater overexploitation, salinisation, and biodiversity loss. Agriculture represents a
295 relevant socioeconomic activity which accounts for more than 5% of the regional GDP (INE,
296 2018) and nearly 12% of the regional employment (INE, 2019).

297 The agroecosystems within the case study area are based on a dual system, where irrigated and
298 rainfed agriculture coexist. The irrigated agroecosystems comprise 188,000 ha (CARM, 2019) of
299 high-productivity fruit and horticultural crops (Alcon et al., 2017), and these, in turn, are divided
300 into two agricultural subsystems: traditional and intensive. The Segura River valley hosts
301 traditional irrigation (Heider et al., 2018), while intensive irrigation occurs further away from the
302 river (Alcon et al., 2020a). The rainfed agroecosystem is distinguished by low profitability, with
303 almonds the main crop. It covers approximately 253,000 ha (CARM, 2019), distributed
304 throughout the case study area. It should be noted that some aquifers and a coastal ecosystem, the
305 Mar Menor lagoon, are influenced by agricultural flows in the region. The agri-environmental
306 and socioeconomic characteristics, as well as the blend of different and interdependent
307 agroecosystems, make the Region of Murcia a representative case study for the semi-arid western
308 Mediterranean area (Martínez-Paz et al., 2018).

309

310 **Figure 2. About here.**

311

312 **3.2. Choice experiment method**

313 The choice experiment is a stated preference method based on the multi-attribute utility theory
314 (Lancaster, 1966) and the random utility theory (McFadden, 1974). Accordingly, an
315 agroecosystem can be defined as a set of AES and AEDS, and individuals can choose the preferred
316 agroecosystem alternative according to their expected utility level. Choice experiment
317 applications in agri-environmental valuation tend to include a status quo (SQ) or opt-out
318 alternative that reflects the current situation, where no action is taken (Barreiro-Hurle et al., 2018).
319 In our case study, the SQ alternative was the rainfed agroecosystem, which is less human-
320 managed than the irrigated agroecosystem.

321 The choice experiment method is appropriate for selecting the most relevant AES and AEDS for
322 valuation, because it allows the modelling of individual discrete choices among different AES
323 and AEDS, and even among different agroecosystems. It is important to note that a wide range of
324 methods could be used to attain the research objective, including multi-criteria analysis and, more
325 specifically, the analytic hierarchy process. However, these methods only allow us to consider all
326 the AES and AEDS trade-offs through pairwise comparisons, and not in an integrated way,
327 despite providing similar results (Kallas et al., 2011). The choice experiment method has been
328 widely applied to AES valuation (Rodríguez-Entrena et al., 2014; Bernués et al., 2019), but has
329 been slightly used for stakeholder assessment (Villanueva et al., 2017).

330 Developing and implementing a choice experiment involves a five-step process (Hoyos, 2010):
331 (1) selection and definition of attributes and levels, (2) choice set design, (3) questionnaire
332 development, (4) sampling strategy and data collection, and (5) assessment of choices and
333 modelling of results. The first two steps are summarised in Section 3.2.1 (Experimental design).
334 Questionnaire development is covered in Section 3.2.2 (Sampling and data collection). Section
335 3.2.3 describes how the assessment of choices and modelling of results was accomplished in
336 relation to an econometric framework. Figure 3 shows a flowchart of the choice experiment
337 development and implementation process.

338

339 **Figure 3. About here.**

340

341 *3.2.1. Experimental design*

342 The attributes included in the choice experiment design are associated with the relevant AES and
343 AEDS identified in Section 2 (Table 3). The indicators for the attributes were selected following

344 those proposed by Maes et al. (2016) and the van Oudenhoven et al. (2018) criteria. The selection
345 of attribute levels was based on a review of available literature about the agroecosystems in the
346 case study area (e.g. Alcon et al., 2017; Perni and Martínez-Paz, 2017; Albaladejo-García et al.,
347 2020; Martin-Gorriz et al., 2020a), and focused on the specific indicators selected for the
348 attributes. These attribute levels were chosen to cover the range of AES and AEDS of the three
349 main agroecosystems included in the case study: rainfed, traditionally irrigated, and intensively
350 irrigated. Hence, each level of every attribute represented a different agroecosystem in the case
351 study. Levels were measured in physical or monetary units to improve the reliability of the
352 experiment.

353 The attributes for the provisioning AES and AEDS were associated with the value of crop
354 production (yield) and irrigation water use (water supply for irrigation). Economic yield was
355 selected as an indicator to replace food supply, thereby homogenising different crop yields. The
356 yield indicator levels were obtained from Alcon et al. (2017) and Lehtonen et al. (2020). Food
357 provision can be easily evaluated as an AES since food can be exchanged in a market. However,
358 the economic value of this AES goes beyond the market value of agricultural production because
359 it comprises the contribution of agriculture to food security (option value).

360 Water management is a crucial issue within the case study area, not only for farmers and policy
361 makers, but for the entire society due to competition for water among sectors (Perni and Martínez-
362 Paz, 2017; Zabala et al., 2019). The selected indicator was therefore the amount of water
363 employed directly for irrigation, and the levels were obtained from Alcon et al. (2017). This
364 means that when fresh water, which serves as a limiting resource in water-scarce regions, is
365 directly employed in agriculture, it is not available for alternative uses in other ecosystems. Thus,
366 the greater the use of irrigation water, the greater the AEDS provided by the agroecosystems.

367 The attributes related to the regulating AES and AEDS were carbon balance, temperature
368 regulation, groundwater pollution, erosion, bird richness, and resilience. Carbon balance is
369 defined as the net uptake of greenhouse gases by agroecosystems, and its indicator summarises
370 the difference between carbon sequestration by, and greenhouse gas emissions from the
371 agroecosystems. Therefore, carbon balance represents both the AES related to global climate
372 regulation and the AEDS related to the emission of contaminants into the atmosphere. Hence,
373 positive values of this indicator are associated with regulation of AES. The levels of this attribute
374 were obtained from carbon balance data for the main crops grown in the case study area, following
375 Martin-Gorriz et al. (2020a, 2020b).

376 Another of the AES, climate regulation, was considered because it is influenced by agricultural
377 practices (Almagro et al., 2016). Irrigated agriculture can reduce the local temperature
378 (Albaladejo-García et al., 2020), and is, therefore, expected to have a positive impact on human

379 well-being in semi-arid areas. Therefore, temperature regulation was included in the experimental
380 design as an indicator for the local climate regulation AES. Attribute levels of local climate
381 regulation were obtained from Albaladejo-García et al. (2020), who suggested that irrigated
382 agroecosystems may reduce the land surface temperature by up to 2 °C compared to rainfed
383 agroecosystems.

384 Groundwater pollution is a growing phenomenon in Mediterranean regions and is mainly caused
385 by diffuse pollution from agriculture (Alcolea et al., 2019). It reveals how agroecosystems may
386 negatively impact other ecosystems and represents the AEDS associated with water purification
387 and waste treatment. The indicator used to measure groundwater pollution was the nitrate
388 concentration in aquifers associated with each of the agroecosystems in the Region of Murcia
389 (CHS, 2017).

390 Conventional agricultural practices, such as regular tillage and herbicide treatments, tend to erode
391 soil (Montgomery, 2007). The negative contribution of agriculture to soil maintenance can,
392 therefore, be seen as a disservice originating from agroecosystems, and annual erosion rates could
393 be used as an indicator. However, given the great variety of erosion rates among agroecosystems,
394 and even within each of the agroecosystems (García-Ruiz et al., 2013) included in the case study,
395 this indicator was finally translated into a dummy variable which distinguished between high and
396 low levels.

397 Contributions of the case study agroecosystems to biodiversity were measured as bird richness.
398 Selection of this indicator was motivated by the fact that bird richness in the area had declined
399 prior to this study as a consequence of agricultural activity (Palacín and Alonso, 2018; Martínez-
400 López et al., 2019). In addition, bird richness is an easily understood indicator, as shown in several
401 agroecosystem valuations (Rodríguez-Entrena et al., 2014; Varela et al., 2018). Biodiversity
402 levels were defined as the share of the potential of bird richness that could be found in each of the
403 agroecosystems, following the Perni and Martínez-Paz (2017) procedure. Bird species richness is
404 known to be enhanced by crop diversity and heterogeneous landscapes (Stjernman et al., 2019),
405 even in woody crops (Rime et al., 2020). Therefore, low intensity agroecosystems together with
406 heterogeneous landscapes, such as the traditionally irrigated agroecosystem in the case study,
407 were expected to provide greater bird species richness. Similarly, it was expected that the
408 intensively irrigated agroecosystem, dominated by monoculture, would present a 60% bird
409 richness level with respect to the potential, whereas for the rainfed agroecosystem, with low
410 intensity agriculture and homogeneous landscapes, a value of 80% was expected. Although the
411 contribution of agroecosystems to biodiversity is not always linear according to agricultural
412 intensity (Beckmann et al., 2019), in this study it was assumed that the less intensive the
413 agriculture, the greater the biodiversity the agroecosystem would hold, hence, the more resilient
414 it would be (Augeraud-Véron et al., 2019). Consequently, rainfed and traditionally irrigated

415 agroecosystems were assumed to be more resilient than the intensively irrigated ones. The final
416 regulating attribute, resilience, was measured as the capacity of the agroecosystems to adapt to
417 climate change. Given the difficulty of summarising this concept in just one measurable indicator
418 (Cabell and Oelofse, 2012), it was included as a dummy variable based on whether the
419 agroecosystem could adapt to climate change or not.

420 The cultural contribution of agroecosystems to human well-being was included in the experiment
421 as four attributes. Agroecosystems contribute to the traditions and cultural identity of agricultural
422 areas as well as providing landscapes for visual enjoyment and environments for leisure and
423 recreational activities. The contribution to cognitive development and good living was included
424 as the generation of local employment (Lattera et al., 2019). The capacity of each agroecosystem
425 to generate employment was measured as the number of hours of labour needed to manage the
426 agroecosystem, obtained from Alcon et al. (2017) and Lehtonen et al. (2020).

427

428

Table 3. About here.

429

430 In the experimental design, the attribute levels were combined by applying an S-efficiency design,
431 using the Ngene 1.0.2 software package (Rose et al., 2010). The S-efficiency design was chosen
432 for this study to minimise the sample size requirements (Rose and Bliemer, 2013) because of the
433 small target population: the agroecosystem stakeholders in the Region of Murcia. The final design
434 comprised 18 choice sets grouped into three blocks, which were randomly assigned to the
435 stakeholders. Hence, each stakeholder was presented with six choice sets consisting of three
436 alternatives each, which represented the different agroecosystems included in the case study: one
437 alternative was the rainfed agroecosystem, used as the SQ alternative, and the other alternatives
438 represented the irrigated agroecosystems. An example of a choice set is provided in Appendix A
439 (Figure A.1).

440

441 *3.2.2. Sampling and data collection: Stakeholder assessment*

442 The AES and AEDS significant for agroecosystem valuation were assessed through face-to-face
443 interviews with agroecosystem stakeholders of the Region of Murcia region (the target
444 population). Agroecosystem stakeholders included farmers, agricultural technicians, irrigation
445 community managers, agricultural R&D managers in private companies, members of scientific
446 bodies such as universities and research institutes, public administrators, and local communities
447 involved in agriculture (Alcon et al., 2014). Therefore, the stakeholders comprised any group or
448 individual affecting or affected by the AES and AEDS (Hein et al., 2006). In accordance with this

449 definition, relevant institutions and individuals involved in agricultural decision-making were
450 identified and asked to participate. Thus, an initial selection of 10 stakeholders was identified and
451 contacted for interviewing. Once the interviews began, a snowball sampling method was followed
452 to select other relevant stakeholders (Biernacki and Waldorf, 1981; Reed et al., 2009). In total, 44
453 agroecosystem stakeholders² were successfully interviewed and classified into four key groups:

454 - Users (11): This group included farmers and technicians who worked directly in the
455 agroecosystems.

456 - Researchers (10): This group comprised agronomic engineers, scientists, and economists who
457 conducted research in the case study agroecosystems.

458 - Public managers (13): This group included managers from regional and national organisations
459 responsible for water use and agricultural land management.

460 - Civil society (10): This group comprised NGOs, labour unions, political parties, and other
461 associations.

462 The stakeholder interviews were conducted face-to-face, between July and September 2018,
463 based on a two-part questionnaire. The first part concerned stakeholder perceptions and attitudes
464 about the AES and AEDS provided by agroecosystems in the Region of Murcia, and the second
465 part comprised the choice experiment. The stakeholders were asked to choose the agricultural
466 system they would like to implement in the Region of Murcia.

467 Despite the extensive use of choice experiments in environmental economics, some limitations
468 continue to arise from the employment of this method, mainly related to its hypothetical nature
469 (Alemu and Olsen, 2018). The issue is whether the respondents' hypothetical choices would
470 correspond to their actual behaviour if they faced similar choice situations in real life (Carlsson,
471 2010). Furthermore, the application of such a stated preference method, including environmental
472 goods and services that are complex and unfamiliar to respondents, has been criticised on the
473 basis that respondents cannot give accurate responses as their preferences are not fully discovered
474 (Braga and Starmer, 2005). To mitigate these possible limitations, certain factors were taken into
475 consideration in relation to sampling and data collection. The group of agroecosystem
476 stakeholders interviewed comprised experts in their respective fields of agricultural work;
477 therefore, it helped to ensure they were familiar with the choice situations they faced. In addition,
478 two ex-ante strategies were applied to mitigate hypothetical bias (Loomis, 2014). First, prior to
479 participating in the choice experiment, the respondents were thoroughly informed about the AES
480 and AEDS used, the attributes and levels included, and the purpose of the study, using cheap talk

² The recommended number of experts interviewed for stakeholder assessment is 17 to 50 (Adler and Ziglio, 1996), in line with other studies performed in the case study area (Alcon et al., 2014) as well as other ecosystem services and disservices assessments (Wells et al., 2018; Jones et al., 2019). This number guarantees the minimum sample size requirement for the discrete choice experiment (De Bekker-Grob et al., 2015).

481 script (Champ et al., 2009). Second, they were advised that the survey results would be employed
482 to inform agricultural policy makers and, therefore, they would have an influence on future
483 agricultural policies in the Region of Murcia.

484

485 3.2.3. Econometric framework

486 According to the random utility theory (McFadden, 1974), the utility U_{ij} for an individual i
487 provided by an agroecosystem alternative j can be decomposed into a deterministic (V_{ij}) and a
488 stochastic part (ε_{ij}), considered additively:

$$489 \quad U_{ij} = V_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^K \beta_k X_{ikj} + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad k = 1, \dots, K \quad (1)$$

490 where V_{ij} represents the observed elements of the utility determined by the k attribute levels
491 (X_{ikj}), and ε_{ij} is a random error with an independent and identically distributed extreme-value
492 distribution (Train, 2009). Assuming a linear relationship among the attribute levels, β_k is the
493 individual marginal utility obtained from each k attribute, reflecting how the utility level changes
494 if the provision of AES and AEDS increases.

495 The agroecosystem alternatives chosen by the respondents allow us to explore the probability of
496 choosing an alternative j and to estimate the marginal utilities, β_{ik} , which maximise it. The
497 conditional logit (CL) model (Train, 2009) is widely used to estimate the probabilities of such
498 choices. Nevertheless, the CL model implies some restrictive assumptions (no random taste
499 variation, restrictive substitution patterns, and no correlation of unobserved factors), the most
500 relevant being the independence of irrelevant alternatives (IIA), which assumes that the
501 probability of choosing an alternative is not influenced by the existence of any other alternatives.
502 The IIA principle can be contrasted by the Hausman test (Hausman and McFadden, 1984). If the
503 null hypothesis of the Hausman test is not rejected, the CL model is a suitable to estimate the
504 stakeholders' utility function. However, if it is rejected, another specification model, such as the
505 mixed logit model, should be employed instead.

506 A linear specification was employed to estimate the utility function. All attributes were assumed
507 to be continuous variables, except *CHERIT*, *RECRE*, *LAND*, and *RESL*, which were assumed to
508 be categorical. Preference heterogeneity was examined using the interactions between some
509 attributes and the stakeholders' type. A positive sign for coefficients related to AES and a negative
510 sign for those referring to AEDS were expected, but it was rather difficult to hypothesise which
511 AES and AEDS would have a significant role in the explanation of the stakeholders' choices.

512 The results from the CL model were also used to calculate the relative importance or weight of
513 each attribute. Adapting the Danner et al. (2017) procedure for continuous attributes, the relative
514 importance of attribute k (RI_k) was calculated as follows:

515
$$RI_k = \frac{|\beta_k \bar{X}_k|}{\sum_{k=1}^K |\beta_k \bar{X}_k|} \quad (2)$$

516 where \bar{X}_k represents the average of the attribute k , and RI_k represents, therefore, the relative
 517 contribution of the attribute k to the total utility, evaluated for the average value of each attribute.

518

519 **4. RESULTS**

520 The stakeholders' preferences were analysed using two CL models (Table 4). The CL model
 521 specification was appropriate since the Hausman test results (HT) validated the existence of IIA
 522 (HT = 10.03; $\chi^2_{0.05;11} = 19.675$). Both Model 1 and Model 2 were based on the main-effects CL
 523 model, and Model 2 included stakeholder-group interactions. Significant differences between
 524 Model 1 and Model 2 were found with the log-likelihood ratio (LR) test (LR test = 31.234; $\chi^2_{0.05;3}$
 525 = 7.815). Moreover, the accuracy of the choice models, which refers to the ability of both models
 526 to explain stakeholders' preferences in a precise manner, was evaluated through the pseudo-R²
 527 and the percent correctly predicted (PCC). Again, Model 2 performed better than Model 1 in terms
 528 of the pseudo-R², PCC, AIC, and BIC criteria; thus, it was used as the basis for further discussion
 529 of the results.

530 The Model 2 results showed a significant negative coefficient for the rainfed agroecosystem (SQ)
 531 alternative ($p < 0.01$), reflecting the disutility provided by this agroecosystem in terms of the AES
 532 and AEDS provided. The interaction terms between the SQ alternative and the stakeholder groups
 533 were significant, showing the heterogeneity of preferences among the stakeholder groups
 534 regarding the rainfed agroecosystem: the farmers perceived the highest disutility from the rainfed
 535 agroecosystem, followed by the researchers, public managers, and civil society.

536

537 **Table 4. About here.**

538

539 Analysis of the significance of the Model 2 coefficients to determine the AES and AEDS, which
 540 really explain the stakeholders' utility function, showed that the valuation of 6 out of 12 AES and
 541 AEDS was relevant. Of the provisioning services, the yield from agricultural activities (FOOD)
 542 ($p < 0.05$) and water supply for irrigation (WATER) ($p < 0.1$) explained the stakeholders' choices
 543 in terms of AES and AEDS, respectively. The positive sign of the FOOD coefficient indicated
 544 that higher farm yield levels were preferred by the stakeholders. The negative sign of the WATER
 545 coefficient confirmed the disutility of this attribute, indicating its relevance among the AEDS.

546 Regarding the regulation of AES and AEDS, significant coefficients were found for the attributes:
547 temperature regulation (TEMP) and groundwater pollution (POLL) ($p < 0.01$) as well as for the
548 agroecosystem contribution to biodiversity maintenance (BIOD) ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, local
549 climate regulation is seen as an AES that can mitigate high temperatures in semi-arid areas. The
550 negative sign of the POLL coefficient reflected the stakeholders' concerns about the
551 environmental impact of agriculture in terms of pollution externalities, confirming the
552 consideration of POLL as one of the AEDS. Bird richness is assumed to be a good indicator of
553 biodiversity and should therefore be relevant among the AES provided by agroecosystems. The
554 positive BIOD coefficient reflected the utility perceived by stakeholders for the enhancement of
555 biodiversity within agricultural landscapes. The non-significant coefficients obtained for erosion
556 (ERO) and carbon balance (CARBON) indicated their irrelevance to the stakeholders.

557 Despite the fact that in the literature there are many references to the impacts of cultural AES on
558 human well-being, in agroecosystems, only recreation and leisure (RECREO) showed a
559 significant effect ($p < 0.05$) on the stakeholders' utility function. Although the agricultural
560 contribution to direct employment was expected to be significant due to the socioeconomic
561 idiosyncrasy of the case study agroecosystems, the EMPGE attribute coefficient was not
562 significant.

563 Therefore, according to the stakeholder preferences, two provisioning, three regulating, and one
564 cultural AES and AEDS were identified as worthy of valuation, due to their notable impact on
565 human well-being. Moreover, the coefficient sign reflected the positive or negative contribution
566 to social welfare and verified our previous consideration of the attributes as either AES or AEDS.
567 The coefficient signs for WATER and POLL were negative, corroborating their definition as
568 AEDS, thus reflecting the disutility associated with higher attribute levels. The remaining
569 significant agroecosystem services (FOOD, TEMPE, RECRE, and BIOD) had positive
570 coefficient signs, showing that they were considered as AES by the stakeholders.

571 The results also enabled calculation of the relative importance of each of the significant AES and
572 AEDS in the agroecosystem valuation (Figure 4). The stakeholders' choices revealed biodiversity
573 (38%) as the most important of the AES to be valued, followed by recreation (20%), temperature
574 regulation (7%), and food provision (5%). Among the AEDS, water supply for irrigation and
575 groundwater pollution were considered of equal weight (at 15% each).

576

577

Figure 4. About here.

578

579 **5. DISCUSSION**

580 The analysis of stakeholders' preferences for AES and AEDS has been used to validate a
581 comprehensive approach for the valuation of the AES and AEDS provided by semi-arid western
582 Mediterranean agroecosystems. This approach is based on the framework for anthropised
583 ecosystems developed by Barot et al. (2017), and it adapted the main accepted ecosystem services
584 paradigms: MEA (2005), TEEB (2010), and CICES (Haines-Young and Potschin, 2018) to the
585 particular case of agroecosystems. The stakeholder assessment enabled us to determine which
586 AES and AEDS should be relevant for an agroecosystem valuation. Using choice experiments in
587 the context of stakeholder assessment and AES and AEDS valuation, we considered the perceived
588 trade-offs between AES and AEDS in an integrated way. The approach included at least one of
589 the AES or AEDS from every category (provisioning, regulating, and cultural), in line with the
590 multifunctional character of agricultural activity (Huang et al., 2015).

591 The approach presented here integrated AES and AEDS into a common valuation framework.
592 The results from the stakeholder assessment revealed that the valuation of agroecosystems needs
593 to deal with both positive and negative outcomes. Hence, negative contributions to human well-
594 being should be included when the aim is to value the overall impact of agriculture on well-being.
595 Indeed, Figure 4 shows that the relative importance that stakeholders attached to AEDS is 30%
596 of the total. These results reinforce the claims of Schaubroeck (2017) and Blanco et al. (2019),
597 who suggested an equal consideration of services and disservices, not only in economic valuation
598 but also in research and policy agendas. Ignoring the values of AEDS when assessing
599 agroecosystem contributions to human well-being could lead to overestimation of the benefits
600 provided and thus to incorrect policy decisions, due to the undervaluation of costs. The holistic
601 valuation of AES and AEDS could enable more efficient allocation of economic resources
602 because it could be more cost-effective to mitigate disservices than to increase services
603 (Shackleton et al., 2016). Consequently, these results could be used as a guide to improve our
604 knowledge about the relative values that societies place on AES and AEDS.

605 The proposed approach also endorses the integration of provisioning and non-provisioning
606 services, which traditionally have been considered separately in economic valuation
607 (distinguished as marketed and non-marketed services). The economic valuation of
608 agroecosystems could be developed either according to their capacity to provide services and
609 disservices (supply-side valuation), or considering the social demand for the services and
610 disservices provided by the agroecosystems (demand-side valuation). Supply-side valuation
611 involves cost-based and production-based methods, which usually integrate all the types of
612 services and disservices provided (Martín-López et al., 2014), whereas demand-side valuation
613 involves preference-based approaches and, consequently, focuses on non-marketed services and
614 disservices (Niedermayr et al., 2018). Thus, our results revealed that, although non-provisioning

615 services were dominant (Figure 4), agroecosystem valuation needs to consider both services and
616 disservices, consistent with the ongoing discussion in the literature (Bernués et al., 2019).

617 Considering all the AES and AEDS, it is not surprising that both provisioning services and
618 disservices have been shown to be valuation relevant. Agroecosystems are ecosystems created by
619 humans to provide food, therefore, the significance of provisioning services must be valued.
620 However, in the present study, the relative importance of provisioning services in relation to the
621 overall AES and AEDS to be valued was not as high as expected. Provisioning services
622 represented approximately 20% of the total importance (Figure 4), in line with the findings of
623 Bernués et al. (2019) for the Mediterranean region. This evidence indicates that the value of an
624 agroecosystem goes beyond the direct use that the socioeconomic system obtains from it.

625 Regulating AES and AEDS are essential for agroecosystem assessment due to the relevance of
626 their contribution to well-being, as they generate environmental benefits and costs, respectively.
627 The findings of this study indicated that the relevance of both regulating AES and AEDS was
628 broadly recognised by the stakeholders who stated that the indirect use value of regulating AES
629 and AEDS is key to human well-being and valued their relative importance in the case study
630 agroecosystems at approximately 60% (Figure 4). These results are consistent with Bernués et al.
631 (2019), who found that the indirect use value in a Mediterranean agroecosystem contributed
632 53.2% of the total value estimated. Of the regulating AES, climate regulation and maintenance of
633 lifecycles and genetic diversity were relevant to the valuation. Temperature regulation, an
634 indicator of local climate regulation, was rated as important by stakeholders in our study as it has
635 a great influence on well-being; however, no significant effect was found for the indicator of
636 global climate regulation. These findings may be related to the warm weather in the study area
637 which is more easily perceived by stakeholders than climate change effects. This explanation is
638 supported by Olander et al. (2017), who stated that people tend to value benefits that provide more
639 direct and closer effects. Biodiversity was by far the most important of the regulating AES valued
640 (Figure 4) in our study. The value of biodiversity comes from a great variety of sources (Paul et
641 al., 2020), beyond its indirect use or option values. In addition, benefits can be obtained from
642 biodiversity due to the positive effects it may have on human health (Sandifer et al., 2015), mainly
643 through the emotional and psychological aspects of human well-being (Fuller et al., 2007;
644 Dallimer et al., 2012). Regarding soil erosion, even though this regulating factor is important in
645 certain agroecosystems, such as rainfed Mediterranean (Almagro et al., 2016) or diversified
646 (Alcon et al., 2020b) agroecosystems, it was not considered relevant by the stakeholders who
647 participated in the present study. Many of the consulted stakeholders, particularly in the *Users*
648 and *Civil society* groups, did not consider soil erosion a major concern in the case study
649 agroecosystems. This finding is supported by Cerdá et al. (2018), who determined that a number
650 of citrus farmers did not consider soil erosion a problem in southeast Spain. However, the

651 perceived lack of importance of soil erosion may be related to a lack of environmental education
652 and awareness regarding soil erosion and conservation issues (Oñate and Peco, 2005; Sastre et
653 al., 2017). A similar statement could be made about resilience. Despite its noticeable importance
654 in guaranteeing agricultural sustainability under natural hazards and climate change (Peterson et
655 al., 2018), stakeholder awareness of the negative impacts of climate change appears to be lacking
656 (Esteve et al., 2018).

657 The cultural services provided by agroecosystems have social benefits generally associated with
658 the use and enjoyment of these environments. Our results showed that, among the cultural AES
659 valued, leisure and recreation were perceived to have significant influences on well-being
660 greater than those of the landscape, cultural heritage, and cognitive development. In fact, leisure
661 and recreation is considered the broadest service and can partially encompass other cultural AES
662 (García-Llorente et al., 2012). In this case study, to a certain extent, attributes such as the
663 landscape and cultural heritage linked to the agroecosystems and their relative importance
664 approached 20%, contrasting with Bernués et al. (2019) who found that cultural services
665 represented 8% of the overall demand for AES. However, Martínez-Paz et al. (2019) determined
666 that cultural services accounted for 42% of the relative importance of the AES provided by the
667 Huerta of the Region of Murcia, a specific agroecosystem located within the traditionally irrigated
668 agroecosystem in the case study area. These differences in relative importance of cultural services
669 again show the importance of contextual background for understanding the results obtained from
670 the valuation of AES and AEDS.

671 Water management is crucial for semi-arid Mediterranean farming. The Mediterranean area in
672 general, and the case study area in particular, are characterised by a semi-arid climate, which
673 makes dealing with water scarcity one of the main challenges in these agroecosystems. This fact
674 was reflected in the stakeholder utility function as the only two significant AEDS in the
675 explanation of the stakeholder choices were related to water management. Supplying water for
676 irrigation is perceived to cause a reduction in available water resources, which are indeed limited.
677 This could imply, in turn, an opportunity cost, because alternative uses of water show higher
678 water-productivity values. The rivalry associated with competing uses of water resources and the
679 social dilemma of supplying reclaimed water to competing ecosystems, is highlighted by Zabala
680 et al. (2019) in their Region of Murcia case study. Moreover, these concerns refer not only to
681 water employed as an input to agroecosystems, but also to water flows supplied by
682 agroecosystems. Either frequent or excessive nitrogen fertilisation could have negative
683 consequences for the agroecosystem and surrounding ecosystems. Aquifers are particularly
684 affected by agroecosystem nitrate leaching and runoff. Therefore, the recognition by stakeholders
685 that agroecosystems contribute negatively to water purification and waste treatment evidences the
686 negative externality supplied by agricultural activity, which would be mitigated only if

687 wastewater coming from agricultural systems could be properly treated (Sepehri and Sarrafzadeh,
688 2018; Sepehri et al., 2020). This implies not only evident environmental costs, but also economic
689 and social costs, especially when nitrate runoff reaches high-value ecosystems, as occurs in the
690 case study area where the Mar Menor coastal lagoon is impacted (Velasco et al., 2018). Hence,
691 the joint consideration of AES and AEDS for water management seems to be a key element in
692 semi-arid Mediterranean agroecosystem valuation.

693 The implications of the findings of this case study could be applied to improve agricultural policy
694 design. Policy makers need to boost the provision of the most relevant AES, while mitigating
695 AEDS, in accordance with case-specific agroecosystems and their surrounding areas. Increasing
696 human well-being in semi-arid western Mediterranean agroecosystems implies the enhancement
697 of food provision, local climate regulation, biodiversity, and recreational activities within the
698 agroecosystems. In addition, this should be supported with measures or strategies focused on
699 reducing the water supply for irrigation, such as regulated deficit irrigation, and mitigation of
700 diffuse pollution from agricultural systems (Alcon et al., 2020a). We note that the findings of the
701 present study could not be used as a tool to publicly support the transition from other land uses to
702 agroecosystems (e.g. to support forest conversion) because land use changes, which may imply
703 the transition from or to other ecosystem types, were not considered in our agroecosystem
704 assessment approach. The integration of land use changes and ecosystem services and disservices,
705 where agroecosystems might play a key role, should be considered in future research.

706

707 **6. CONCLUSIONS**

708 Determination of the most relevant AES and AEDS for valuation was the main motivation of this
709 study. To accomplish this, it was necessary to adapt the existing ecosystem services paradigms to
710 the particular case of the agroecosystem. Therefore, a comprehensive approach for AES and
711 AEDS was proposed and validated by stakeholder assessment. Determining the stakeholder
712 preferences enabled us to establish the AES and AEDS that semi-arid western Mediterranean
713 agroecosystem valuation should include: food provision and fresh water (as provisioning
714 services), local climate regulation and wastewater treatment (as regulating services), the
715 contribution to recreation and tourism (as cultural services), and biodiversity.

716 Regarding management implications, the results indicated that an increase in human well-being
717 comes from the following: promotion of agricultural and natural resources, policies that maximise
718 the agricultural contribution to food provision, reduction of the water supply for irrigation,
719 lowering of the local temperature, minimising groundwater pollution, creation of an environment
720 that supports recreational and leisure activities, and encouraging biodiversity conservation.
721 Therefore, this comprehensive approach serves to raise awareness of the need to consider AES

722 and AEDS holistically in agri-environmental policy design. This approach will be a key tool for
723 forthcoming agroecosystem economic valuations, which will translate the social demand for AES
724 and AEDS into monetary terms, and will ensure efficiency in the design of socially acceptable
725 agri-environmental schemes.

726

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732

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1 TABLES

2 **Table 1.** Main ecosystem service classifications and proposal for agroecosystems

	MEA (2005)	TEEB (2010)	CICES (2018) (Division Group)	Agroecosystem proposal (AES/AEDS)
Provisioning services	Food	Food	Biomass Cultivated terrestrial plants for nutrition, materials or energy production	Food (AES)
	Fibre	Raw materials, ornamental resources		
	Biochemicals	Medicinal resources		
	Genetic resources	Genetic resources		
	Fresh water	Water		
Regulating services	Air quality regulation	Air quality regulation	Transformation of biochemical or physical inputs to ecosystems Mediation of nuisances of anthropogenic origin	Emissions of contaminants to the atmosphere (AEDS)
	Global climate regulation	Climate regulation	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Atmospheric composition and conditions	Global climate regulation (AES)
	Local climate regulation	Climate regulation	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Atmospheric composition and conditions	Local climate regulation (AES)
	Water regulation	Regulation of water flows	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Water conditions	(Not included – <i>service overlapping</i>)
	Water purification and waste treatment	Waste treatment	Transformation of biochemical or physical inputs to ecosystems Mediation of wastes or toxic substances of anthropogenic origin by living processes	Water purification and waste treatment (AES/AEDS)
	Erosion regulation	Erosion prevention	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Regulation of baseline flows and extreme events	Soil maintenance (AES/AEDS)
	Soil formation (supporting)	Maintenance of soil fertility	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Regulation of soil quality	
	Disease regulation	Biological control	Regulation of physical, chemical, biological conditions Pest and disease control	Biodiversity (AES/AEDS)
	Pest regulation		Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Lifecycle maintenance, habitat and gene pool protection	
	Pollination	Pollination	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Lifecycle maintenance, habitat and gene pool protection	
-	Maintenance of lifecycles of migratory species, maintenance of genetic diversity	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Lifecycle maintenance, habitat and gene pool protection		
Natural hazard regulation	Moderation of extreme events	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological conditions Regulation of baseline flows and extreme events	Resilience (AES)	
Cultural services	Spiritual and religious values	Inspiration for culture, art and design, spiritual experience	Indirect, remote, often-indoor interactions with living systems that do not require a presence in the environmental setting Spiritual, symbolic and other interactions with the natural environment	Culture, art and design (AES)
	Aesthetic values	Aesthetic information	Direct, <i>in-situ</i> and outdoor interactions with living systems that depend on a presence in the environmental setting Intellectual and representative interactions with the natural environment	Aesthetic values (AES)
	Recreation and ecotourism	Opportunities for recreation and tourism	Direct, <i>in-situ</i> and outdoor interactions with living systems that depend on a presence in the environmental setting Physical and experiential interactions with the natural environment	Opportunities for recreation and tourism (AES)
		Information for cognitive development	Direct, <i>in-situ</i> and outdoor interactions with living systems that depend on a presence in the environmental setting Intellectual and representative interactions with the natural environment	Cognitive development and good living (AES)

3 **Table 2.** AES and AEDS, typology of benefits/costs and values

	Agroecosystem (AES/AEDS)	Type of benefit/cost				Type of value				
		Benefit	Cost	Economic	Environmental	Social	Direct use	Indirect use	Option	Non- use
Provisioning services	Food (AES)	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		
	Irrigation water (AEDS)		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	
Regulating services	Emissions of contaminants to the atmosphere (AEDS)		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Global climate regulation (AES)	<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Local climate regulation (AES)	<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Water purification and waste treatment (AES/AEDS)		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Soil maintenance (AES/AEDS)	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Biodiversity (AES/AEDS)	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>
	Resilience (AES)	<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>			<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
Cultural services	Culture, art and design (AES)	<i>x</i>				<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Aesthetic values (AES)	<i>x</i>				<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>	
	Opportunities for recreation and tourism (AES)	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		
	Cognitive development and good living (AES)	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	<i>x</i>		<i>x</i>	

4

5 **Table 3.** Attributes and levels in the choice experiment

	Agroecosystem (AES/AEDS)	Attribute (CODE)	Definition (Indicator)	Units	Levels
Provisioning services	Food (AES)	Yield (FOOD)	Annual incomes received by farmers	€/ha/year	< 5,000* 5,000 - 15,000 > 15,000
	Irrigation water (AEDS)	Water supply for irrigation (WATER)	Irrigation water supplied to crop system	m ³ /ha/year	< 3,000* 3,000-5,000 > 5,000
Regulating services	Emissions of contaminants to the atmosphere (AEDS)	Carbon balance (CARBON)	Net balance between CO _{2eq} sequestration and emission	tonnes CO _{2eq} /ha/year	< 15* 15-30 > 30
	Global climate regulation (AES)				
	Local climate regulation (AES)	Temperature regulation (TEMPE)	Temperature changes on the land surface	°C	0* -1 °C -2 °C
	Water purification and waste treatment (AEDS)	Groundwater pollution (POLL)	Nitrate concentration in aquifers	mg NO ₃ ⁻ /L	< 50* 50-200 > 200
	Soil maintenance (AES/AEDS)	Erosion (EROS)	Loss of soil due to wind or precipitation	-	High* Low
	Biodiversity (AES/AEDS)	Bird species richness (BIOD)	Bird species richness with respect to potential	%	100 % 80 %* 60 %
	Resilience (AES)	Resilience (RESL)	Agroecosystem's climate change adaptation	-	High* Low
Cultural services	Culture, art and design (AES)	Cultural heritage (CHERIT)	Presence of cultural elements linked to agriculture	-	No* Yes
	Aesthetic values (AES)	Landscape (LAND)	Scenic landscape beauty	-	Rainfed agroecosystem* Traditional irrigated agroecosystem Highly-intensive irrigated agroecosystem
	Opportunities for recreation and tourism (AES)	Recreation and tourism (RECRE)	Chance of enjoying activities in agroecosystems	-	No* Yes
	Cognitive development and good living (AES)	Employment generation (EMPGE)	Labour related to agroecosystems management	hours/ha/year	< 100* 100-500 > 500

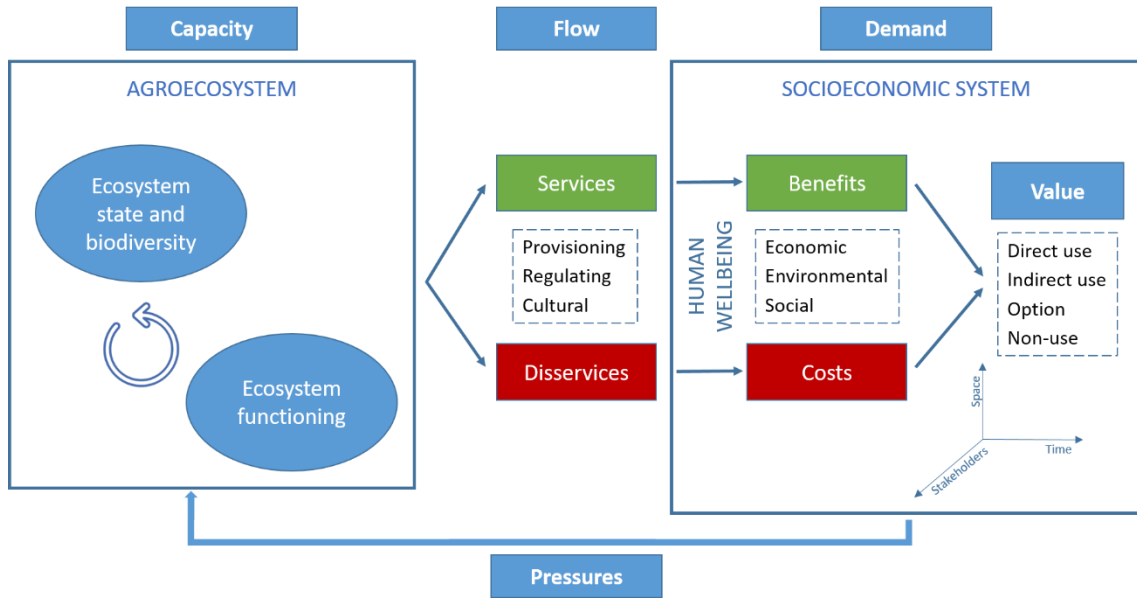
6 *Attribute levels which comprise the SQ alternative (rainfed agroecosystem)

7 **Table 4.** Stakeholders' utility function. Estimated CL models.

	Model 1		Model 2	
	CL model		CL model and stakeholder heterogeneity	
	Coef.	Std. Err.	Coef.	Std. Err.
SQ	-0.874	0.812	-2.889 ***	0.987
FOOD	$3.32 \cdot 10^{-5}$ **	$1.58 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$3.21 \cdot 10^{-5}$ **	$1.61 \cdot 10^{-5}$
WATER	$-2.23 \cdot 10^{-4}$ *	$1.28 \cdot 10^{-5}$	$-2.33 \cdot 10^{-4}$ *	$1.32 \cdot 10^{-4}$
CARBON	0.017	0.011	0.016	0.011
TEMPE	0.406 ***	0.150	0.423 ***	0.155
POLL	-0.009 ***	0.001	-0.009 ***	0.002
EROS	-0.250	0.260	-0.182	0.267
BIOD	0.018 **	0.009	0.018 **	0.009
RESIL	0.120	0.285	0.04	0.290
CHERIT	-0.083	0.254	-0.101	0.263
LAND	0.349	0.257	0.349	0.264
RECRE	0.835 ***	0.254	0.763 ***	0.260
EMPGE	$2.46 \cdot 10^{-5}$	0.001	$-1.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	0.001
RESEARCHER*SQ			1.721 ***	0.617
PUBLIC MANAGER*SQ			2.161 ***	0.577
SOCIETY*SQ			2.696 ***	0.597
Number of observations		792		792
Log likelihood		-243.456		-227.839
Pseudo R ²		0.161		0.214
PCC (%)		70.960		74.490
AIC		512.911		487.677
BIC		573.681		562.470

8 Statistically significant at a level of *0.1, **0.05 and ***0.01.

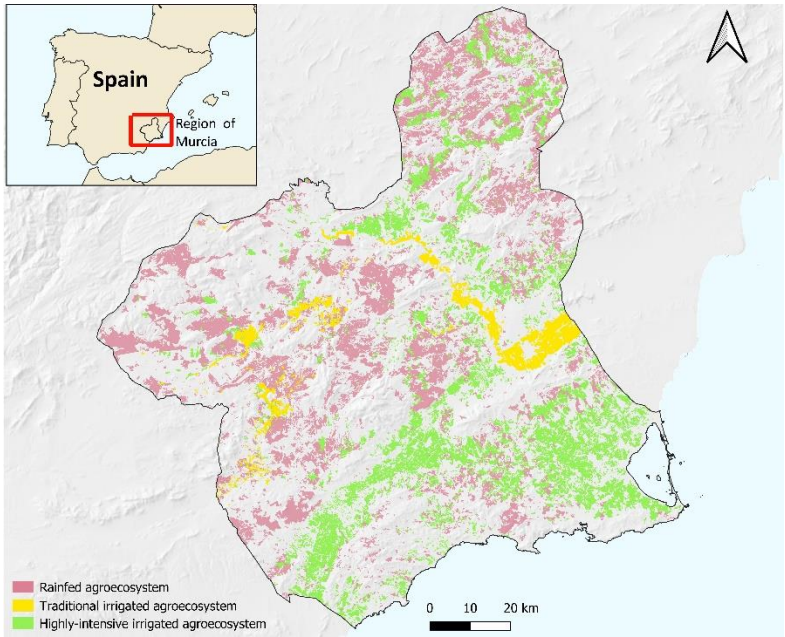
1 **FIGURES**



2
 3 **Figure 1.** Conceptual approach linking agroecosystem functioning, services and disservices, value and agricultural
 4 practices. It is based on the “Capacity, Flow, Demand and Pressure” framework (Villamagna et al., 2013) and the
 5 TEEB valuation framework.

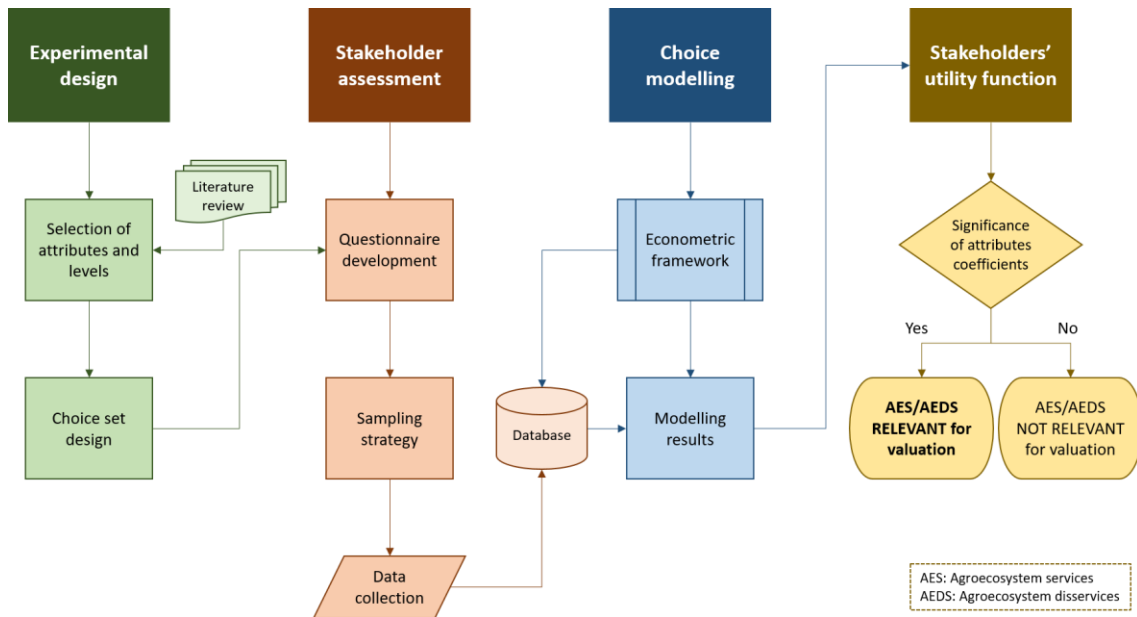
6 Source: Own elaboration, adapted from Barot et al. (2017) and TEEB (2010).

7



8
9 **Figure 2.** Case study. Region of Murcia (south-eastern Spain)

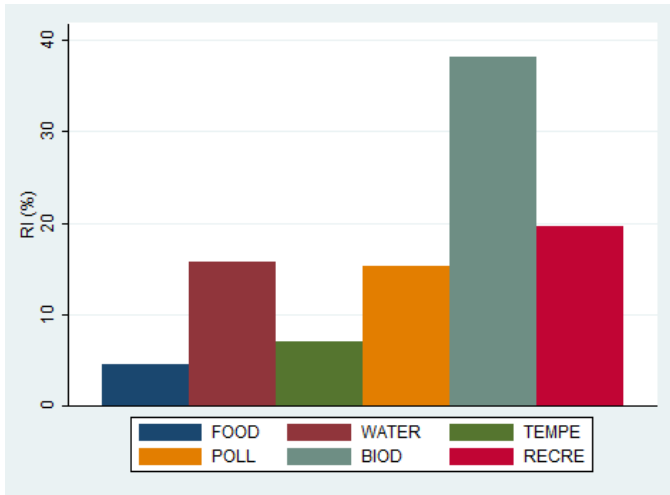
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11

12 **Figure 3.** Process followed to implement the choice experiment method.

13



14

15 **Figure 4.** Relative importance (RI) of the AES/AEDS for valuation.