

1 Article

2 Economic evaluation of hydrological ecosystem 3 services in Mediterranean river basins applied to a 4 case study in southern Italy

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15 **Abstract:** Land use affects the eco-hydrological processes with consequences on floods and
16 droughts. Changes in land use affect ecosystems and hydrological services. The objective of this
17 study is the analysis of hydrological services through the quantification of water resources,
18 pollutant loads, land retention capacity and soil erosion. On the basis of a quantitative evaluation,
19 the economic values of the ecosystem services are estimated. By assigning an economic value to the
20 natural resources and to the hydraulic system, the hydrological services can be computed at the
21 scale of catchment ecosystem. The proposed methodology has been applied to the basin "Bonis"
22 (Calabria Region, Italy). The study analyses four land use scenarios: (i) forest cover with good
23 vegetative status (baseline scenario); (ii) modification of the forest canopy; (iii) variation in forest
24 and cultivated surfaces; (iv) insertion of impermeable areas. The simulations prove that the
25 variations of the state of forest areas has considerable influence on the water balance, and then on
26 the provided economic value. Small economic changes derive from reducing the impermeable
27 areas. Increasing the agricultural area to 50% of the total, and reducing the forest surface, affects
28 soil erosion, reduces the storage capacity of the water, and consequently the water harvesting. The
29 suggested methodology can be considered a suitable tool for land planning.

30 **Keywords:** water harvesting; water runoff; soil erosion; land use planning; soil water balance

31 1. Introduction

32 The management of land and water resources are closely related [1, 2, 3] since the spatial
33 planning addresses the localization of activities and the land use. The latter one affects water
34 balance, water quality, hydraulic risk and soil loss [4, 3, 5]. Thus, land use and land management
35 practices affect the eco-hydrological processes in combination with other factors such as topography
36 of the basin, hydrological properties of agricultural land and characteristics of rainfalls [3, 6, 7, 8, 9].

37 In particular, land use affects soil erodibility and canopy cover. Both parameters are considered
38 in estimating the values of the universal soil loss relation [10]. The latter one is usually used for
39 estimating the soil amount removed by water runoff [11]. Soil use also influences the main terms of
40 the water balance, i.e. canopy interception, evapotranspiration, infiltration, soil water storage, and
41 surface outflow [12, 13, 14]. Moreover, the above parameters are also related to the characteristics of
42 vegetation (species, crop management, leaf area, root depth, crop height) and soil (organic matter
43 content, hydraulic conductivity, infiltration capacity, apparent density, porosity). An important
44 action on soil properties is carried out by cropping systems and root characteristics [15, 16]. For
45 example, the results of experimental observations show that forest soils are characterized by high

46 values of hydraulic conductivity and porosity, having positive effect on water infiltration and
47 retention capacity [17, 18, 19].

48 Several studies [20, 21, 22] demonstrate a complex and non-linear relationship between soil use
49 and hydrological cycle. This relationship is more evident in small basins having a catchment area
50 less than 40 km² [23, 24, 25]. In particular, the hydrological cycle depends on site-specific factors,
51 such as the slope and the distance from the hydrographic grid [26], as well as the changes in the land
52 use.

53 Furthermore, following [27, 28, 29, 6, 30, 22], soil surface sealing and intensive agricultural
54 management have significant negative impacts on the hydrological cycle, as they result in a notable
55 increase in the superficial flow rate and volume, while soil infiltration and water-table recharge are
56 reducing.

57 In a catchment, the forest surfaces, and their conservation and management, modulate the
58 whole water cycle by promoting evapotranspiration, reducing surface runoff, and regulating flood
59 wave [29, 31, 22]. As a consequence, the agro-forestry management contribute to the mitigation of
60 hydraulic risk, if it is planned by taking into account water resources and the hydraulic
61 infrastructures [32, 33, 34]. Furthermore, the "soil-plant" system influences the availability of water
62 resources by: (i) attenuating the kinetic energy of rainfall, (ii) increasing the soil water storage
63 capacity, (iii) reducing the water evaporation and (iv) the deep drainage [35, 36, 37].

64 An important role in regulating the hydrological cycle can therefore be attributed to the
65 ecosystems associated with land use and agro-forest management [38, 39, 40, 41]. The agro-forest
66 ecosystems provide a series of direct and indirect hydrological services: (1) water provisioning
67 (storage in water bodies and water harvesting), (2) flow regulating, (3) water purification [42] and (4)
68 soil protection [43, 44]. The water balance and the soil characteristics are consequently influenced by
69 the species in the agro-forest ecosystems and by the adopted cropping systems. Moreover, the crop
70 and forest management has significant impact on quality and quantity characteristics of surface
71 waters and groundwater.

72 Once the ecosystem service "water providing" is quantified, it is possible to estimate the water
73 resources carrying capacity (i.e. the population able to be supplied in a sustainable way), and
74 designing suitable water harvesting systems.

75 With reference to the surface and groundwater purification issues, vegetation and the microbial
76 soil community act on absorption and biochemical transformation of nutrients and contaminants
77 [45].

78 On the other hand, intensive farming systems, requiring high external inputs (fertilizers or
79 other agro-chemicals), may have negative effects on the quality of water resources which in some
80 cases might become unsuitable for drinking if the agro-chemicals are not adequately supplied and
81 scheduled.

82 From the analysis of the above reported literature it results that a territorial planning is required
83 to optimize the eco-hydrological cycle. Such planning activity should consider at the same time the
84 regulation, purification and provision of water resources [46] since on these services depend the
85 hydraulic security of the territory [47], as well as the water carrying capacity [48] and the
86 sustainability of water purification processes [49]. Nevertheless, with respect to the soil protection
87 service, vegetation affects the plant cover factor (C-factor) used to estimate soil loss [50]. Forests are
88 generally retained to protect soil from erosion more efficiently than cropping systems do. However,
89 recent agronomic studies on conservation agriculture show that the C-factor is influenced by crop
90 residues and soil tillage [51, 52, 53, 54]. Reducing soil tillage, combined with suitable management of
91 the crop residues, can contribute to control the soil erosion [55].

92 A possible approach for a sustainable planning starts from the definition of the physical
93 variables involved in the ecosystem services by mean of indicators which can be quantified by
94 giving an appropriate economic value. The general objective of this study was to quantify, in
95 physical and economic terms, the ecosystem services provided by the territory planning of
96 Mediterranean basins. To achieve this objective, the following issues have been addressed: (i) water
97 resources availability, (ii) rainfall effects on soil surface, (iii) water carrying capacity.

98 Specific objectives of this study were:

- 99 • to develop the conceptual method for quantifying the technical and economic value of the
 100 hydrological services provided by the ecosystems. In particular, four services have been
 101 considered: 1) water provisioning; 2) flow regulating; 3) water purification; 4) soil protection;
 102 • to apply the developed methodology to an emblematic case of a gauged watershed in southern
 103 Italy (the Bonis basin in Calabria), mainly covered by Mediterranean forest systems;
 104 • to analyze possible planning scenarios by using the proposed methodology.

105
 106 This methodology is conceived as a tool for identifying and implementing territorial plans at
 107 the meso-scale suitable for preventing floods and degradation (in quality and quantity) of water
 108 resources.

109 2. Materials and Methods

110 In order to assess the impact of basin ecosystems on hydrological cycle and water quality of a
 111 watershed, the proposed methodology is based on the use of both temporal and timeless indicators
 112 and it is applied to different scenarios of land use and soil management. Time indicators were
 113 evaluated at annual scale in accordance with [56].

114 2.1. Assessment of hydrological ecosystem services

115 2.1.1. Water provisioning (WS)

116 The service "water provisioning" from an eco-systemic point of view is defined as water storage
 117 in rivers, lakes and aquifers [57]. This service is correlated to inflows into the water bodies and to the
 118 water harvesting systems and infrastructures [58]. To quantify this service, the "water supply"
 119 indicator is used. It can be expressed in different ways by combining the following terms: (i) the
 120 runoff [59], (ii) the ratio between availability and demand for water resources [60], (iii) the total
 121 volume of uptake water [61] for different socio-economic purposes.

122 The approach proposed in this study is based on parameters which are generally available from
 123 meteorological and hydrological data-sets. So the water supply (WS in mm yr⁻¹) was estimated
 124 following the model developed by [62]:

$$125 \quad \text{WS} = S_{\text{PTC}} - \text{ET} - \text{EF} \quad (1)$$

126 where S_{PTC} is the precipitation water [mm yr⁻¹], ET is evapotranspiration [mm yr⁻¹] and EF is the
 127 water requirement for maintaining the aquatic ecosystems [mm yr⁻¹], which for the Italian territory is
 128 30% of the rains [63]. As for ET, the literature annual average values have been considered. They
 129 were calculated by using the water balance at the plot scale and then spatialized at the watershed
 130 level. The economic value of the "water provisioning" service was assessed in accordance with [49],
 131 using the unit average Italian water rate: 0.71 € m⁻³. This fixed economic value is established by the
 132 National Authority for Energy, Gas and the Water System. Alternatively, the water rate can be more
 133 accurately estimated, taking into account the relationship between availability and demand [60].

134 2.1.2. Flow regulating (WC)

135 Ecosystems offer the service "flow regulating" through the influence of soil-plant system on
 136 hydrological flows [57]. This service is directly related to the volume of water intercepted by
 137 vegetation and stored into the soil profile or in the aquifers [64]. These hydrological parameters
 138 depend on soil tillage and agro-forest management. For this reason, the "flow regulating" directly
 139 affects the processes of rainfall – runoff transformation and, consequently, the hydraulic hazard. For
 140 the quantification of flow regulating by "rainfall – runoff" process evaluation, several indicators
 141 have been proposed, such as: (i) soil - water storage capacity [65], (ii) soil infiltration capacity [61]
 142 and (iii) water conservation efficiency. These indicators refer to the water amount which is stored
 143 into the soil profile and withdrawn from the surface runoff [49, 66].

144 In this study the flow regulating was quantified by the timeless water conservation (WC, in m³)
 145 indicator, it takes into account potential water losses due to evapotranspiration and soil - water
 146 storage. This indicator has been calculated with reference to rainfall with a return time of 200 years.
 147 This time period is usually considered in assessing the territory protection from flood. Therefore, the
 148 volume of rainfall accumulated into the soil and removed from the runoff was calculated by
 149 subtracting the flowed volume in the different land uses to the rainfall amount, characterized by a
 150 return time of 200 years:

$$151 \quad \text{WC} = \text{Vol}_{\text{rain}} - \text{Vol}_{\text{runoff}} \quad (2)$$

152 where Vol_{rain} [m³] is the 200-year rainfall volume estimated on the basis of climatic possible curves
 153 and Vol_{runoff} is the runoff volume through the stream gauging station, estimated through the
 154 "rational formula" described in section 2.3 (assessment of surface runoff).

155 The economic value of the flow regulating service has been calculated with reference to the WC
 156 indicator on the basis of the costs for the construction of storm-water retention system with
 157 equivalent volume. Analysis of storm-water retention system project shows that the unit cost varies
 158 from 5 to 15 € m⁻³. This value does not take into account the management and maintenance costs. The
 159 chosen value has been assumed to be 5.16 € m⁻³ of detention basin [67] (Autorità di Bacino dei
 160 FiumiTrigno, Biferno e Minori, Saccione e Fortore). This evaluation is consistent with that proposed
 161 by [68]. So the presence of a forested area is economically equivalent to water retention system that
 162 can contain the same water quantity.

163 2.1.3. Water purification (COD)

164 The service "water purification" is defined as the attitude of ecosystems to remove pollutants by
 165 means of chemical, physical, micro-biological and mechanical processes [44]. The most used
 166 indicators for quantifying this service are the percentage of forest surface and the percentage of
 167 riparian forests along the river [68, 69].

168 In this study, for quantifying the "water purification" service, the water quality parameters
 169 influenced by land use have been used as indicator. The concentration of pollutants in surface water
 170 has been assessed on the basis of the forest surface and other land uses within the same basin [2]. In
 171 particular, it is possible to estimate the Chemical Oxygen Demand (COD in mg l⁻¹) parameter, which
 172 describes the surface water pollution, on the basis of the following formula:

$$173 \quad \ln(\text{COD}) = -0.08C - 5.47F - 2.93G + 0.29W + 0.7B + 1.69 \quad (3)$$

174 where C is the conventional cultivated area [%], F forest [%], G pasture [%], W water bodies [%] and
 175 B the impermeable surfaces [%] calculated respect to total basin surface. The coefficients used in the
 176 relation (3) were determined by [2] through data processing related to land use and water quality.
 177 By means of the ratio COD/TOC = 3, it is possible to estimate the Total Organic Carbon (TOC in mg
 178 l⁻¹) which represents an indirect measure of the organic matter in the waters. This parameter makes it
 179 possible to establish the economic suitability of water treatment for drinking use (TOC ≤ 4 mg l⁻¹)
 180 and for the next human consumption (TOC ≤ 2 mg l⁻¹) [70].

181 The economic evaluation of the "water purification" service can be carried out based on changes
 182 in TOC resulting from changes in soil use. In this paper, the cost of the active carbon needed to
 183 reduce the TOC to the most suitable values for drinking use has been calculated. In fact, through the
 184 reduction of TOC, it is possible to estimate the amount of powdered activated carbon (PAC in mg l⁻¹)
 185 needed for the purification of the water and the relative costs [71]:

$$186 \quad \text{PAC} = \frac{\text{TOC}_{\text{reduction}}}{0.063} \quad (4)$$

187 Analysis of water treatment plant project shows that the unit PAC cost varies from 1.6 (adopted
 188 value) to 1.9 € kg⁻¹.

189 2.1.4. Soil protection (β_e)

190 The “soil protection” service has been evaluated from the close interrelations between erosion,
 191 solid transport and water quality. Actually this ecosystem service is the most complex to define and
 192 quantify. The indicator here adopted for quantifying soil protection is the “ecosystem service
 193 mitigated impact on soil erosion” (β_e in $t\ ha^{-1}\ yr^{-1}$), it is the basin potentiality, provided by the
 194 presence of areas covered with vegetation [72, 73] as:

$$195 \quad \beta_e = \Gamma \times C_{factor} \quad (5)$$

196 where C_{factor} (dimensionless) is vegetation cover factor and Γ is the structural impact [74]. Γ is
 197 calculated as:

$$198 \quad \Gamma = R \times LS \times K \quad (6)$$

199 R is the rainfall erosivity ($MJ\ mm\ ha^{-1}\ h^{-1}\ yr^{-1}$), LS is the topographic factor (dimensionless), and K is
 200 the soil erodibility ($t\ h\ MJ^{-1}\ mm^{-1}$).

201 Finally, this service can be quantified, on an annual basis ($t\ ha^{-1}\ yr^{-1}$), through the difference
 202 between water erosion in different types of land use with respect to bare soil conditions. Values of β_e
 203 [$t\ ha^{-1}\ yr^{-1}$] allow determining the positive or negative impact of land use on the amount of average
 204 annual soil loss per surface unit.

205 The capacity of ecosystems to protect the soil is expressed by means of the parameter e_s
 206 [adimensional], according the definition by [72]:

$$207 \quad E_s = 1 - C_{factor} \quad (7)$$

208 In literature there are different C_{factor} values in relation to soil use [12], plant species and
 209 agricultural practices [55]. Only soil related values have been used in this work due to the lack of
 210 site-specific knowledge on soil tillage, pruning and green (or crop) residues management.

211 By the above definitions, the unit economic value of the soil for replacement varies between 44.6
 212 e 255.1 $\text{€}\ t^{-1}$, including transport and filling costs [75]. A value of 45 $\text{€}\ t^{-1}$ was assumed in this study
 213 and it represents the Italian situation. This value is consistent with the prices for backfilling
 214 operations in public works.

215 2.1.5. Assessment of the economic values

216 For the economic evaluation of ecosystem services, it is worth noting that there is no overlaps
 217 between the range of asset cost values: water 0.71 $\text{€}\ m^{-3}$; powdered activated carbon 1.6 ÷ 1.9 $\text{€}\ kg^{-1}$;
 218 storm-water retention system 5 ÷ 15 $\text{€}\ m^{-3}$; soil replacement 44.6 ÷ 255.1 $\text{€}\ t^{-1}$ (soil and hydraulic
 219 works). Furthermore, since all indicators are linearly related to specific costs, the variation of that are
 220 linearly reported in the final values of the indicators in object.

221 Other ecosystem services not strictly related to the water cycle have not considered in this
 222 study.

223 2.2. Assessment of water carrying capacity

224 The water resources carrying capacity (WRCC in inhabitants) is a key indicator for the study of
 225 available water resources and their sustainable management [76]. It allows to compare the
 226 availability and the requirement of water resources. The WRCC can be estimated on the basis of
 227 socio-economic and ecological parameters [48, 76, 77]. Considering that the carrying capacity is the
 228 number of individuals that the environment can support [78], the largest population supported with
 229 water resources produced by ecosystems in a specific river basin can be defined as:

$$230 \quad WRCC = \frac{WS}{WD \times \alpha} \quad (8)$$

231 where WS is available water [$m^3\ yr^{-1}$], WD is the water supply equal to 92 $m^3\ inh^{-1}$ [79] (National
 232 Regulatory Plan for Aqueducts, 1963), and α is the use coefficient, assumed equal to 0.8, which is the
 233 value commonly used for designing city sewers.

234 2.3. Assessment of surface runoff

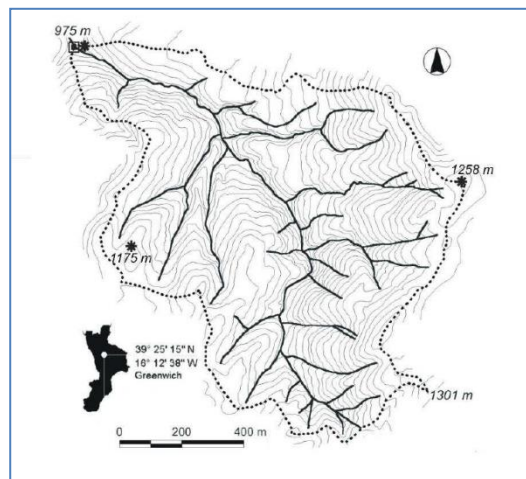
235 The peak flow during flood events is an important parameter for dimensioning hydraulic
 236 infrastructures and for defining the floodplain areas (Flood Directive 2007/60/CE) [80]. In order to
 237 realistically estimate the runoff value, advanced methodologies for rainfall – runoff transformation
 238 are available [81]. The most commonly used method is the "rational formula" for its simplicity and
 239 the reduced amount of input data required [82]. In order to estimate peak flow (Q_P) this formula is
 240 particularly used in small basins:

$$241 \quad Q_P = C \times \frac{i_{tr}}{3.6} \times A \quad (9)$$

242 where C [adimensional] is runoff coefficient, i_{tr} [mm h^{-1}] is the rainfall intensity for assigned return
 243 time, A [km^2] is the watershed surface. Specific experimental data are available concerning the
 244 runoff coefficient in the analyzed basin [83]. Assuming a return time of 200 years, the rainfall
 245 intensity for the study area is 18.2 mm h^{-1} . This value was calculated on the basis of pluviometric
 246 probabilistic curves for the studied area [84].

247 2.4. The study area

248 The "Bonis" hydrographic basin ($39^\circ 25' 15'' \text{N}$ e $16^\circ 12' 38'' \text{E}$) is located in the province of
 249 Cosenza in the Calabrian Region (Figure 1). From the hydrological point of view, an annual average
 250 rainfall of 1200 mm and average losses for evapotranspiration of 300 mm are reported [85].



251

252

Figure 1 - Bonis River Basin [84]

253 Table 1 - Morphometric parameters of the Bonis basin

Basin area	1.387	km^2
Basin perimeter	5.7	km
Length of river	2.2	km
Average height of basin	1'131	m
Maximum height of the basin	1'301	m
Height of runoff measurement station	975	m
Average slope of the basin	43.4	%
Slope of river	12.5	%
Average slope of the drainage network	24.5	%
Altitude difference of the main river	275	m
Altitude difference between basin's closing section and watershed	326	m
Drainage density	7.43	km km^{-2}
Gravelius coefficient	1.37	

254

Table 2 - Land use in the Bonis basin

surface

	ha	%
Populations of autochthonous larch pine	17.6	12.7
Larch pine reforestation	42.9	30.9
Chestnut reforestation	7.9	5.7
Larch pine and chestnut reforestation	13.4	9.7
Degraded afforested land	25.6	18.5
Spare larch pines and natural vegetation	11.2	8.1
Poplar and alder	1.6	1.2
Glades and clearings	2.8	2.0
Burnt areas	2.3	1.6
Riverbeds colonized by alder	11.3	8.2
Arable fields	2.0	1.4
TOTAL	138.7	100

255 The basin has been the object of numerous experimental studies and it is characterized in detail
 256 by the hydro-geomorphologic and territorial points of view (Tables 1 and 2). Soil use determines a
 257 flow coefficient between 0.18, in the case of forests having good vegetative status, and 0.35 as a result
 258 of the cuttings for maintenance and fire-fighting actions [83].

259 2.5. Scenarios

260 Since the proposed methodology allows either the evaluation of hydrological services provided
 261 by the ecosystems, or the determination of the carrying capacity, or the effects on the soil of the rainy
 262 events, different scenarios of land use and canopy management were analyzed to evaluate the
 263 effects on hydrological eco-services. Specifically, the following scenarios were considered: 1) forest
 264 cover with good vegetative status (baseline scenario); 2) forest with low vegetation vigor (e.g. after
 265 cutting or fire-fighting actions); 3) agricultural conversion on 50% of the basin surface; 4) soil sealing
 266 on 1.5% of the basin surface (e.g., roads, tourist resorts). Scenarios 1 and 2 are related to the current
 267 land use (Table 2) but with two different levels of forest vegetation vigor. Scenarios 3 and 4 are
 268 related to a change in land use compared to that described in Table 2 with the insertion of
 269 agricultural or impervious areas and relative reduction of the forest area.

270 3. Results

271 The application of the proposed methodology allows the quantitative and economic evaluation
 272 of the hydrological services provided by the ecosystems in the Bonis basin. The four above defined
 273 indicators have been calculated for four land use scenarios and they are reported as following:
 274 Table 3 "water provisioning" (WS), Table 4 "water flow regulation" (WC), Table 5 "water
 275 purification" (COD) and Table 6 "soil protection" (β_e). In the Table 4, in addition to the
 276 quantification of the "water regulation" service, the 2-century peak flow (Equation 9) was also
 277 reported, indicative of the effects of meteoric events at the soil surface.

278 WS has highest values (Table 3), both in terms of water provisioning and economic value when
 279 the forest cover is characterized by low plants' vigor, while the lowest value is estimated in the case
 280 of forest having high values of leaf area. This information can be successfully used to improve
 281 decisions planning, with particular attention to (i) agro-forestry, (ii) water management, (iii) plan of
 282 hydraulic infrastructures to meet the water demand from the various socio-economic sectors. From
 283 the economic point of view, the value of the water provisioning service depends mainly on
 284 climatological aspects (rainfall and evapotranspiration) that cannot be significantly controlled by
 285 anthropic action on the basin. Actually the choice of dry farming systems or of species
 286 drought-tolerant, or having a reduced leaf area, can increase the amount of water provision (and, as
 287 a consequence, the economic benefit from this ecosystem service).

288 **Table 3** - Ecosystem service "water provisioning" of the Bonis basin: variations at annual scale time of
 289 physical and economic values in four land use scenarios of quantitative (WS) and economic values

Land use scenarios	Water supply (WS)	Economic Value
	[m ³ yr ⁻¹]	[€ of 2017]
Forest with good vegetative status	607'200	431'112
Forest with low vigor	883'200	627'072
50% forest; 50% cropped areas	710'700	504'597
Soil sealing 1.45%	614'100	436'011

290

291 Regulating water flow is an eco-systemic service (WC, Table 4) closely related to meteoric
 292 events, and specifically to runoff. From the values reported in table 4 it is evident that the amount of
 293 water flow does not change at a yearly scale in the different scenarios. However WC affects the peak
 294 flow and, consequently, the hydraulic hazard of the basin. Peak flow is closely related to soil use and
 295 vegetation management. Moreover, when the area is covered by forest, the lamination effect on
 296 water flows is better distributed than in other scenarios. This relation is linked to the runoff
 297 coefficient, experimentally determined for the Bonis basin by [83] Veltri et al. (2013) before and after
 298 the vegetation cutting. In the scenarios "forest" and "forest with low vigor" the runoff coefficients
 299 were experimentally determined, while in agricultural conversion scenarios, and under soil sealing
 300 conditions, the outflow coefficients were obtained from table values commonly used for
 301 hydrological models. Furthermore, the economic value of the water flow regulating ecosystem
 302 service (Table 4) has been closely related to vegetation, whose characteristics significantly affect
 303 interception, evapotranspiration and infiltration processes.

304 Crops with high leaf area and developed root system subtract further meteoric water from the
 305 runoff component of the hydrological balance, having positive effects on the economic value of the
 306 eco-systemic service "water flow regulating". And the results show that the reduction of leaf area,
 307 due to forest cutting, results in a reduction in the economic value of the water regulation service of
 308 approximately 12'000 €.

309 The water purification service has been quantified by estimating the TOC and COD quality
 310 parameters (Table 5). Values reported in Table 5 do not indicate any difference among different
 311 forest managements. Moreover, the results show that the agricultural conversion of forestland
 312 causes an increase in the organic and inorganic compounds present in the waters. However, in all
 313 scenarios, the COD and TOC values are suitable for the human consumption. In fact, the estimated
 314 concentrations are lower than the quality thresholds established by national and international
 315 drinking water regulations (Legislative Decree 31/2001) [86]. The economic value of the ecosystem
 316 service can not be estimated in absolute terms as it is related to the variations in quality caused by
 317 land use changes. For this reason, relatively to the total water volume produced annually from the
 318 basin, the active charcoal (PAC) was estimated as the amount needed to reduce the TOC from
 319 agriculture scenario to the TOC values calculated in the forest scenario. The required activated
 320 charcoal costs € 1'871.

321 **Table 4** - Ecosystem service "water flow regulation" of the Bonis basin: variations of physical (WC)
 322 and economic values in four land use scenarios. Peak flow and runoff (2-century return time) are also
 323 reported.

Land use scenarios	Peak flow [m ³ s ⁻¹]	Runoff [m ³]	Water conservation (WC)[m ³]	Economic value [€ of 2017]
Forest with good vegetative status	1.26	2'464	108'901	561'929
Forest with low vigor	2.46	4'812	106'553	549'811
50% forest, 50% cropped areas	3.49	6'524	104'541	539'436
Soil sealing 1.45%	1.34	2'617	108'828	561'553

324 **Table 5** - Ecosystem service "water purification" of the Bonis basin: variations of physical and
 325 economic values in four land use scenarios. COD is Chemical Oxygen Demand; TOC is Total Organic
 326 Carbon; PAC is powdered activated carbon.

Land use scenarios	COD [mg l ⁻¹]	TOC [mg l ⁻¹]	PAC [mg l ⁻¹]	Water purification cost [€ of 2017]	
				per liter	basin scale
Forest with good vegetative status	0.029	0.010	-		
Forest with low vigor	0.029	0.010	-		
50% forest; 50% cropped areas	0.340	0.113	1.65	2.63 × 10 ⁻⁶	1'871
Soil sealing 1.45%	0.032	0.011	0.02	2.53 × 10 ⁻⁸	15

327 The "soil protection" service (Table 6) was evaluated in all scenarios. The results show a marked
 328 increase in soil loss due to the variation of the C_{factor} from 0.02 (forest areas) to 0.20 (cultivated areas)
 329 in half the area of the basin.

330 **Table 6** - Eco-systemic service "soil protection" of the Bonis basin (mitigated impact on soil erosion):
 331 variations of quantitative and economic values in four land use scenarios. Water erosion prevention:
 332 avoided soil losses for basin surface (t year⁻¹) respect to the "bare soil" conditions.

Land use scenarios	Ecosystem service "soil protection" [t yr ⁻¹]	Value of the avoided erosion [€ of 2017]
Forest with good vegetative status	2376.9	106'961
Forest with low vigor	2189.3	98'516
50% forest; 50% cropped areas	1813.9	81'628
Soil sealing 1.45%	2377.8	107'001

333 As for the water purification, the service can not be estimated in absolute terms, but only by
 334 comparing the current situation with the "bare soil" conditions. It follows that the soil necessary to
 335 restore the amount lost in the agricultural conversion (563 t yr⁻¹) in one year is 25'335 € yr⁻¹.

336 Considering the resulting value from all ecosystem services associated to each scenario (Table
 337 7), the most convenient one, if compared to the baseline scenario, results to be the forest with a low
 338 vigor. Here the runoff increases to the advantage of the water provisioning but to the slight
 339 disadvantage of the water retention capacity. In order to evaluate the ecosystem service, for
 340 scenarios 3 and 4, the cost for water purification are negative because represent a degradation of
 341 water quality.

342 **Table 7**– Hydrological eco-systemic service value of the Bonis basin and comparison with baseline
 343 scenario

Land use scenarios	Ecosystem service value	Relative ecosystem service value
	[€ of 2017]	[€ of 2017]
Forest with good vegetative status	1'100'002	/
Forest with low vigor	1'275'399	175'397
50% forest; 50% cropped areas	1'123'790	23'788
Soil sealing 1.45%	1'104'550	4'548

344 Regarding the capacity of water resources produced in the Bonis basin, the WRCC indicator
 345 was equal to 8'500 people in the forest cover scenario. The reduction of leaf coverage by means of
 346 cutting, or agricultural conversion, results in an increase in carrying capacity as the greater
 347

348 production of water allows to meet the needs of a larger number of inhabitants (about 10'000
349 people).

350 Given the close dependence of WRCC on WC indicator, which depends on rainfall, particular
351 attention must be paid to future climate scenarios.

352 In addition, in order to align water availability to requirements, it can be advisable to introduce
353 unconventional water (reclaimed water) for alternative uses (industry, irrigation) and alleviating the
354 pressure on resources for the direct human consumption (drinking water).

355 In planning a Mediterranean agro-forest area, the reduction of the evapotranspiration levels
356 should be suitable, and, in case of irrigated farming systems, species growing with both
357 conventional and non-conventional water resources should be preferred. However, this issue needs
358 to be properly harmonized with the aim of protecting the territory from the adverse effects of floods
359 [87].

360 Results of this study show that the intensity of these phenomena is closely related to the soil use
361 and management. Specifically, the amount of runoff and its hydrodynamic characteristic depend
362 significantly on the type of canopy and its vegetative state. With regard to the Bonis basin (Table 4),
363 the available data allowed to estimate the peak flow QP for rainy events with a return time of 200
364 years. In conditions of good vegetative status, the estimated QP200 was $1.26 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$. This value
365 increases to $2.46 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$ in the immediate post-cutting period. The increase in the flow rate caused by
366 the forest system management is thus 100%, with significant effects on the intensity of alluvial
367 phenomena. The magnitude of the negative impact on runoff increases further in the case of
368 agricultural conversion of 50% of the basin, resulting in a peak flow of $3.49 \text{ m}^3\text{s}^{-1}$.

369

370 4. Discussion

371 Interventions on the eco-systems and on the territory described above mainly affect soil loss,
372 water provisioning and its purification. Once quantified the available water, the water harvesting
373 systems can be planned at a basin scale. In fact, water losses associated with vegetation transpiration
374 have a positive impact on the water flow regulating service and potentially negative for the supply
375 of water resources. At the same time, forest vegetation results in a strong protective action against
376 the soil removal caused by erosion. However these aspects needs to be properly analyzed since the
377 presence of vegetation also determines the space-time distribution of water resources by reducing
378 runoff velocity and the potential for increasing groundwater storage and infiltration [88, 83, 56]. The
379 different dynamics of these hydrological processes affect the hydraulic residence time in the basin
380 and the reduction of the seasonal variation of the seasonal fluctuations [89]. It has been shown that
381 the increase in the forest area reduces irregularities in the runoff and increases the water retention
382 time within the catchment area [88]. A significant negative correlation between forest area and water
383 pollution has been also identified [2]. The amount of water with qualitative characteristics suitable
384 for anthropic uses is a key element for determining the environmental carry capacity. This capacity
385 is in fact defined as the maximum consumption of natural resources that can be supported in an
386 area, without compromising the state of quality and quantity of water in an ecosystem [90, 91, 92].

387 Modelling studies of the water balance and evapotranspiration can improve the estimation of
388 the hydrological quantities with positive effects on the evaluation of ecosystem services.

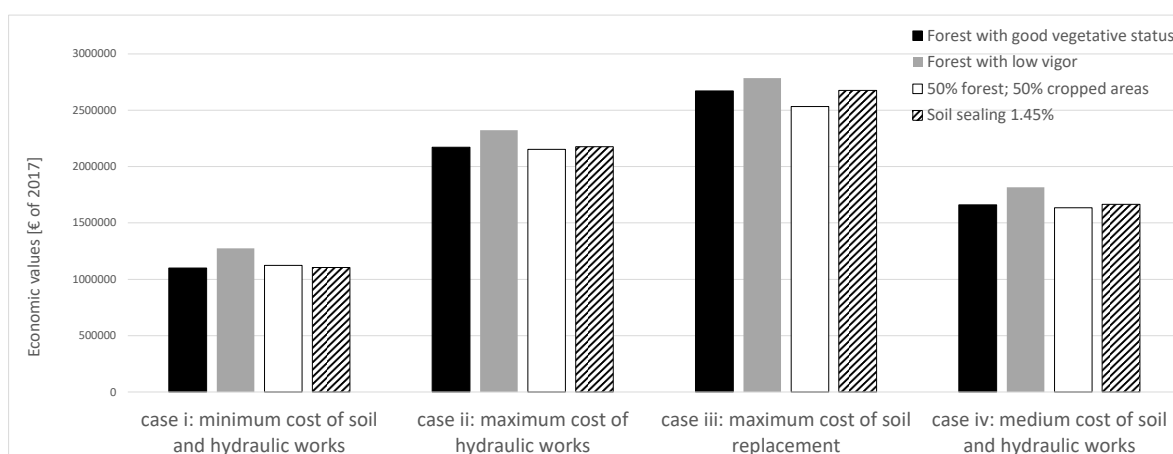
389 In perspective, the potential of this methodology, developed for territorial planning at
390 micro-scales, can increase if the empirical functions used in this exercise will be replaced by
391 mathematical models.

392 To transform the quantitative results in economic value achievable from the eco-system
393 services, the unit costs are taken into account. In the paragraph 2.1.5 the ranges of these costs are
394 reported for each considered service. In the exercise here reported for the Bonis watershed case
395 study, the effective costs usually used in Italy have been considered. These values generally
396 correspond to the minimum economic values of the indicated ranges, mainly for two costs items:
397 storm – water retention and soil replacement.

398 In order to validate the robustness of the proposed methodology, the results of a sensitivity test
 399 are analyzed. It consists in using different unitary costs for estimating the values of an ecosystem
 400 service and then to compare the results. Therefore, the ecosystem economic value has been
 401 recalculated for the following hypotheses: case i) unit costs (see paragraph 2.1.5) referred to the
 402 minimum values of ranges; case ii) maximum unit cost for storm - water retention systems and
 403 invariance of other economic parameters; case iii) maximum unit cost for soil replacement and
 404 invariance of the other economic parameters; case iv) average unit costs for storm - water retention
 405 systems and for soil replacement, invariance of other economic parameters.

406 Figure 2 shows an economic sensitivity analysis which allows to validate the robustness of the
 407 proposed approach. The maximum increase (respect to case i) in the total value of ecosystem
 408 services is obtained (130%) in the case iii). As for the case ii) the increment is 92% and it corresponds
 409 to about 50% in the case iv).

410 If the unit cost attributed to the ecosystem services varies within the above-reported ranges
 411 (paragraph 2.1.5), the trends do not change with the land use scenario. The only exception is
 412 observed for the third land use scenario: where the 50% of lands is used by cropping systems to the
 413 detriment of the forest territory: here the economic value of the hydrological eco-services is
 414 systematically the lowest. The sensitivity analysis suggests that any increase in the cost of soil
 415 replacement (as for the cases iii and iv) entails the economic significance of the forest surfaces in a
 416 watershed, in terms of their extend, care and sound management.
 417



418

419 **Figure 2** – Sensitivity analysis: variations of the economic values of the hydrological eco-services
 420 according four cost cases in four land use scenarios

421 5. Conclusions

422 The research has shown that, under typical Mediterranean conditions, changes in land use and
 423 vegetation management have a significant impact on eco-hydrological processes occurring at the
 424 watershed scale. For this reason, the analysis of the effects of territorial planning on the hydrological
 425 cycle and on the quality is a prerequisite in order to protect the state of water resources and
 426 hydrogeological equilibria at the same time. As an example, water provisioning (WS) could be
 427 improved by 17 % when the forest surface is halved, however the peak flow increases (by 176%) as
 428 well the soil erosion (563 t y⁻¹). These figures change when the forest is adequately managed (low
 429 vigor due to the cutting): respect to the forest not properly managed (Forest with good vegetative
 430 status) WS improves by 45% and the peak flow increases by 95% (about the half of the previous
 431 scenario when the cropped areas occupy the 50 % of the watershed) and the soil erosion is of the
 432 same extent: 188 t y⁻¹ more.

433 The proposed methodology is an useful tool for designing appropriate water harvesting
 434 systems. Moreover the methodology allows to quantitatively analyze the effects of planning land
 435 use on actual or future water resources availability, water quality and the intensity of flood
 436 phenomena. It also provides a rigorous economic quantification of ecosystem services, in order to be

437 able to tailor more precise and suitable policies measures for forest areas or for managing the land
438 use in a watershed.

439 The sensitivity analysis confirms that the proposed approach provides effective results also in
440 estimating economic values of the ecosystem services, even if unit cost (mainly for the soil
441 replacement or the storm - water retention systems) considerably changes.

442 In perspective, the economic estimation of the ecosystem services allows to consider incentives,
443 or tax policy, as a tool for the river basin planning, by supporting the land use variations which
444 might improve the state of water resources. These measures are also foreseen in the Water
445 Management Plans (2000/60 / CE) and the Floods (Dir. 2007/60 / EC) to improve water status and
446 water retention.

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