

1 Economic Valuation of Climate Regulation in the Mediterranean

2

3 Abstract

4 As the scope of the ecosystem services approach expands, research on marine
5 ecosystem services remains limited, mainly due to the lack of sufficient data and poor
6 understanding of the processes that underlie such ecosystems. This study presents a
7 spatiotemporal economic valuation of the climate regulation ecosystem service in the
8 Mediterranean, which accounts for permanent and temporary carbon sequestration.
9 Based on different carbon prices, the estimated value of climate regulation within the
10 Israeli EEZ ranges between 265.1 and 1270.9 € km⁻² year⁻¹, which is ~2.5 to 12 fold
11 higher than estimates by (Melaku Canu et al., 2015), for this area. Comparison with
12 other valuations of climate regulation, which equated oceanic primary productivity
13 (an ecosystem function) with climate regulation (an ecosystem service), points to a
14 recurring economic overestimation of this ecosystem service.

15 **Keywords:** ecosystem services valuation, climate regulation, ecosystem services
16 modelling

17 **JEL codes:** Q250, Q540

18

19 1. Introduction

20 During the past decade, the ecosystem services approach has gained increased
21 popularity among ecologists and economists as an ecosystem management
22 framework, linking between the physical state of ecosystems and socio-economic
23 welfare (Daily et al., 2009; Jordan et al., 2010). However, applying the ecosystem
24 services framework and Ecosystem-Based Management (EBM) to marine ecosystems
25 has been poorly addressed in the scientific literature (Böhnke-Henrichs et al., 2013),
26 mainly due to difficulties in data gathering and the existence of considerable
27 knowledge gaps. This is evident in the case of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean
28 Sea, which is characterized as an ultraoligotrophic (nutrient-poor) environment (Herut
29 et al., 2016; Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010), prone to high anthropogenic pressures and
30 constant environmental changes (Coll et al., 2010; Kress et al., 2016; Lejeusne et al.,
31 2010; UNEP/MAP, 2012), especially those related to climate change (Gertman et al.,
32 2013; Ozer et al., 2016). Coupled with the limited information on its biogeochemical
33 processes, ecosystem composition and functionality, compiling accurate and reliable
34 valuations for the ecosystem services' flows of the Eastern Mediterranean basin is
35 particularly challenging.

36 Among the various marine ecosystem services, climate regulation is considered a
37 valuable asset to human welfare. The benefit of this ecosystem service is the
38 moderation of adverse climate change phenomena, such as extreme weather events,
39 health risks or property damage, which are associated with high concentrations of

40 climate-influencing substances in the atmosphere. In the context of the oceanic
41 environment, climate regulation can be addressed as an ecosystem service rendered
42 by marine ecosystems through the absorption and deposition of atmospheric carbon
43 dioxide (CO₂) within deep oceanic layers by marine organisms, a process often
44 referred to as the "biological pump" (Chisholm, 2000). After its formation by primary
45 producers (such as algae or cyanobacteria) during photosynthesis, organic carbon is
46 exported below the euphotic layer (depths corresponding to 0.1-1% of sunlight
47 reaching the surface layer), where it is subjected to remineralization and solubilization
48 at various depths (Raven and Falkowski, 1999). The fraction of organic carbon that
49 remains within the ocean is dependent on various biogeochemical processes and its
50 residence time within deep oceanic layers dictates the duration of temporary
51 reduction of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations.

52 The aim of this paper is to assess the climate regulation ecosystem service through
53 quantification of carbon sequestered by marine autotrophic organisms, and to
54 estimate its economic value within Israel's Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) in the
55 eastern Mediterranean Sea. The assessment is based on the fate of absorbed
56 atmospheric CO₂ as an indicator of climate regulation and provides a quantitative
57 estimation for the current and future supply of this ecosystem service.

58 **1.1. Climate regulation assessments and valuation**

59 Few attempts have been made to evaluate marine climate regulation as an ecosystem
60 service. Mangos et al., (2010) performed an assessment of various marine ecosystem
61 services, including climate regulation, for Mediterranean countries. Their evaluation
62 of this ecosystem service, which was based on the work of (Huertas et al., 2009), relied
63 on carbon sequestration originating in the solubilization of atmospheric CO₂, a process
64 which is not related to ecosystems *per se*, and therefore does not fall into the common
65 definition of ecosystem services (de Groot et al., 2010). A recent estimation of climate
66 regulation in the Mediterranean, which employed a model of both non-biological and
67 biological components associated with this ecosystem service, resulted in a total value
68 of €281.4 and €2.7 million per year, for the entire Mediterranean and Israel's EEZ,
69 respectively (Melaku Canu et al., 2015). This estimation also revealed that, as a whole,
70 the Israeli EEZ acts as a source rather than sink to atmospheric CO₂, but in the context
71 of ecosystem services, the biological component within the oceanic carbon cycle acts
72 as a sink, which hypothetical absence would cause higher levels of CO₂ outgassing back
73 to the atmosphere. Other estimations, relying on the methodology set forth by
74 Beaumont et al., (2008), equated climate regulation with primary productivity, i.e.,
75 fixed CO₂ by phytoplankton was considered as sequestered carbon and served as the
76 primary metric for the economic valuation of this ecosystem service (Costanza et al.,
77 2014; de Groot et al., 2012; Mangi et al., 2011; Murillas-Maza et al., 2011), which may
78 ultimately led to overestimated values for this ecosystem service. Yet, in most cases,
79 the majority of the organic carbon generated through primary productivity is being
80 remineralized during respiration by marine organisms and outgassed as CO₂ back to
81 the atmosphere in a relatively short span of time, thus inhibiting long-term

82 sequestration, defined here as periods above 100 years (Murray and Kasibhatla,
83 2013). This study asserts that in order to properly assess climate regulation, the fate
84 of absorbed CO₂ must be taken into account, i.e. lowered concentrations of
85 atmospheric CO₂ due to its deposition for extended periods. In other words, when
86 assessing an ecosystem service, it is important to relate the benefit flow to human
87 context. Without accounting for the entire processes involved in the biological pump,
88 an overestimation of roughly two orders of magnitude of this ecosystem services, both
89 physically and economically, might occur.

90 Despite the fact that no regular market exists for the climate regulation ecosystem
91 service, its economic benefits can be estimated using indirect valuation techniques.
92 One of the most accepted valuation approaches is the Social Cost of Carbon (SCC),
93 which represents the marginal damages associated with additional increase of
94 greenhouse gasses in the atmosphere. It can also be defined as a Pigovian tax applied
95 to CO₂ emissions (Tol, 2008). SCC is often computed using Integrated Assessment
96 Models (IAM), which take into account various socio-economic and climate-related
97 geophysical parameters in order to assess climate change related policies. Among the
98 factors controlling the resulting values of SCC are risk aversion, social discount rate
99 and accompanied uncertainty. These factors are fed into the IAMs' analyses, each
100 employing different methodology, coupled with various assumptions regarding
101 expected changes in production, consumption and welfare. The numerous options
102 associated with these assumptions and parameters result in a wide range of SCC
103 values (van den Bergh and Botzen, 2015). One of the most prominent SCC estimations
104 was performed by the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases
105 (2016), taking into account the different IAMs and yielding a range of SCC values,
106 depending on the chosen discount rate. Given the fact that SCC valuations are often
107 subjected to general preferences and that no such estimation exist for Israeli context,
108 any such valuation will provide only an approximation of the SCC value suitable for the
109 case study in question. Nonetheless, unlike other valuation methods, SCC deals
110 directly with climate change damages and it can be argued that the values obtained
111 using this methodology represent more accurately the benefits of the climate
112 regulation ecosystem service.

113

114 **2. Materials and methods**

115 **2.1. Model outline**

116 The assessment of the climate regulation ecosystem service, indicated by organic
117 carbon fluxes to deep oceanic layers and their concomitant economic values, was
118 carried out for the Israeli Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) (ca. 27,700 km²). The
119 valuation extended between the years 1998-2015 in order to derive monthly and
120 annual averaged values and to identify interannual trends. In addition, the annual
121 average carbon sequestration was used to project future levels of the ecosystem

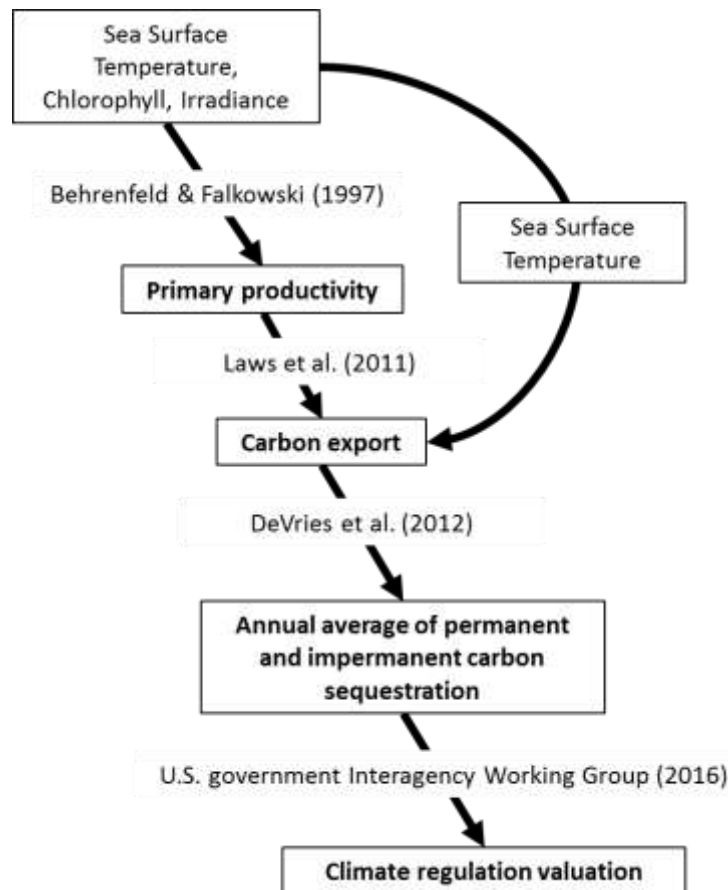
122 service until 2050, given future SCC values and physical changes of carbon
123 sequestration.

124 The focus of the assessment relied on underlying ecosystem functions that take place
125 in surface waters over short periods of time. Therefore, a simplified 1-D deterministic
126 model was used, obviating the need of taking into account spatial processes such as
127 lateral advection below the euphotic layer, which results in a spatial distribution of
128 organic carbon which differs from that of surface waters.

129 The methodology for evaluating the ecosystem service is detailed in Figure 1. First,
130 primary productivity for the years 1998-2015 was obtained for the Israeli
131 Mediterranean Sea in order to establish long-term average and observe any
132 interannual trends. Next, the flux of carbon exported from the euphotic zone was
133 computed. The spatial analysis was carried out only for bathymetric depths greater
134 than 100 meters in order to exclude coastal areas where vertical mixing may counter
135 long durations of carbon sequestration.

136 The flux was then partitioned into permanent sequestration (the amount of carbon
137 that remains in oceanic layers over 100 years) and impermanent sequestration (the
138 amount of carbon subjected to remineralization and leakage back to the atmosphere
139 over a period below 100 years). The annualized average of the permanent and
140 impermanent carbon flux served as a baseline for the valuation, using SCC values, of
141 the ecosystem service under current conditions and projected values until 2050. All
142 computations and processing were performed on 3.5 km² grid cells using ArcMap
143 10.3.1.

144



145

146 **Figure 1.** Outline of the methodology used to assess the climate regulation ecosystem service.

147 **2.2. Primary productivity and carbon export**

148 The supply metrics of the climate regulation ecosystem service (i.e. tons of carbon
 149 sequestered) are based primarily on the primary production which takes place in the
 150 euphotic zone. The Vertically Generalized Production Model (VGPM), a chlorophyll-*a*,
 151 temperature and irradiance-based primary production algorithm (Behrenfeld and
 152 Falkowski, 1997) was chosen due to its compatibility with local primary productivity
 153 estimates. Data layers for this parameter were taken from Ocean Productivity website
 154 (www.science.oregonstate.edu/ocean.productivity/index.php). Organic carbon flux
 155 from surface waters to depths below the euphotic layer, was determined by a ratio of
 156 exported to total primary productivity, denoted *ef*-ratio (Laws et al., 2000). The *ef*-
 157 ratio (*EF*) for the Israeli EEZ is dependent both on the seawater temperature and
 158 primary productivity rates and was calculated using equation 1 (Laws et al., 2011).

$$EF = 0.04756 \cdot \left(0.78 - \frac{0.43 \cdot SST}{30}\right) \cdot PP^{0.307} \quad (\text{eq. 1})$$

159

160 Where *SST* the sea surface temperature in ° C is, interpolated from *in-situ* and
 161 remotely sensed data by Copernicus Marine Environment Monitoring Service
 162 (<http://marine.copernicus.eu/>) and *PP* is the primary productivity rates (based on
 163 VGPM model data) in tons carbon/month. The exported fraction of organic carbon (in
 164 tons), denoted *E*, was calculated on a monthly time scale (*l*) between the years 1998-

165 2015, for each coordinate in the context area (x, y) according to equation 2. The
166 annual average for this time period (216 months) was then calculated (equation 3) in
167 order to establish the exported carbon baseline (E_0).

168

$$E_l = \int_l PP(x, y) \cdot EF(x, y) dl \quad (\text{eq. 2})$$

169

$$E_0 = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{216} E_l}{18} \quad (\text{eq. 3})$$

170

171 The Eastern Mediterranean Sea is experiencing rapid environmental changes which
172 are predicted to have profound implications on the future state of its ecosystem.
173 These changes, such as sea temperature and salinity increases, are expected to affect
174 primary productivity through the creation of a shallower mixed layer, thus limiting
175 nutrient supply to the surface (Berman-Frank and Rahav, 2012; Stambler, 2014). In
176 addition, the levels of nutrient fluxes into the basin originating from multiple sources,
177 essential to primary productivity, have also changed over the years (Krom et al., 2014;
178 Suari and Brenner, 2015). In light of the complexity of the ecosystem's biogeochemical
179 dynamics and limited data, prediction of the future levels of climate regulation
180 remains unclear. Historic measurements spanning 30 years have shown consistent
181 long-term increase in both temperature and salinity (Ozer et al., 2016). Our
182 assumption for predicting climate regulation levels in the future is that the ecosystem
183 service exhibits the same linear trend observed in these variables. Therefore, the
184 expected carbon flux in subsequent years (E_t) was established using a linear
185 regression analysis of the monthly exported carbon flux, which revealed a decreasing
186 trend, corresponding to an annual loss of 97 tons of carbon (denoted by L in equation
187 4).

$$E_t = E_0 - (t \cdot L) \quad (\text{eq. 4})$$

188

189 **2.3. Permanent and impermanent carbon sequestration**

190 Permanent carbon sequestration can be defined as the removal of carbon from the
191 atmosphere for a period over 100 years (Murray and Kasibhatla, 2013). This is
192 achieved in the marine environment via the sinking, deposition and burial of organic
193 carbon over this time period by the biological pump. However, a large fraction of the
194 total exported organic carbon is reemitted back to the atmosphere during the 100-
195 year period through remineralization and respiration of the organic carbon. DeVries
196 et al., (2012) define the biological pump's sequestration efficiency as "...the proportion
197 of nutrients regenerated from organic matter exported out of the euphotic zone... that
198 remain sequestered below the surface..."(page 1) for a specified period or longer.
199 Following this proposition, they demonstrated for different seas and time periods the

200 proportion of exported carbon that remains sequestered. Based on the findings of the
 201 model presented in DeVries et al., (2012), equation 5 shows, specifically for the
 202 Mediterranean Sea, the proportion of exported carbon stock, D , that remains
 203 sequestered beneath the euphotic zone for each year n ($n = 1 \dots 99$), after its initial
 204 formation and exportation.

$$D_n = -0.135 \cdot \ln n + 0.94 \quad (\text{eq. 5})$$

205

206 Equation 6 presents, for each year, t , the amount of sequestered carbon in tons
 207 (denoted as S), of both the permanent and impermanent fraction. M represents the
 208 fraction of exported carbon that remains beneath the euphotic zone for a period of
 209 over 100 years and is set at 0.3 for the Mediterranean Sea (DeVries et al., 2012).

$$S_t = E_t \cdot M + \sum_{n=1}^{n=99} [E_t \cdot (1 - M) \cdot (D_n - D_{n+1})] \quad (\text{eq. 6})$$

210

211 **2.4. Monetary valuation of the climate regulation ecosystem service**

212 In order to assess the present climate regulation value, SCC values provided by the
 213 Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases (2016) were used.
 214 These are based on the incorporation of the three most used IAMs (PAGE, FUND and
 215 DICE), thus representing an adequate valuation that takes into account the possible
 216 differences between them. Three SCC values and their future trajectories were
 217 chosen, differentiated by their discount rate (5.0%, 3.0% and 2.5%). Under this
 218 valuation, SCC values increase over time because future emissions are expected to
 219 produce larger incremental damages as physical and economic systems become more
 220 stressed in response to greater climatic change.

221 The SCC value of each year t was calculated using equation 7, where r is the annual
 222 growth rate of the SCC value, which is determined by the discount rate i and the
 223 corresponding decade. SCC values and annual growth rates (Table 1) were taken from
 224 the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse Gases (2016). Baseline
 225 SCC values for the year 2016 ($t = 0$) were set at 34.22€, 121.33€ and 183.55€ per ton
 226 of carbon, corresponding to 5.0%, 3.0% and 2.5% discount rates, respectively.

$$SCC_{i,t} = SCC_{i,t-1} \cdot (1 + r_{i,t}) \quad (\text{eq. 7})$$

227

228 **Table 1.** Annual SCC growth rate according to the Interagency Working Group on Social Cost of Greenhouse
 229 Gases (2016)

Years	5% ($i = 1$)	3% ($i = 2$)	2.5% ($i = 3$)
2010-2020	1.2%	3.2%	2.4%
2020-2030	3.4%	2.1%	1.7%
2030-2040	3.0%	1.9%	1.5%

2040-2050

2.6%

1.6%

1.3%

230

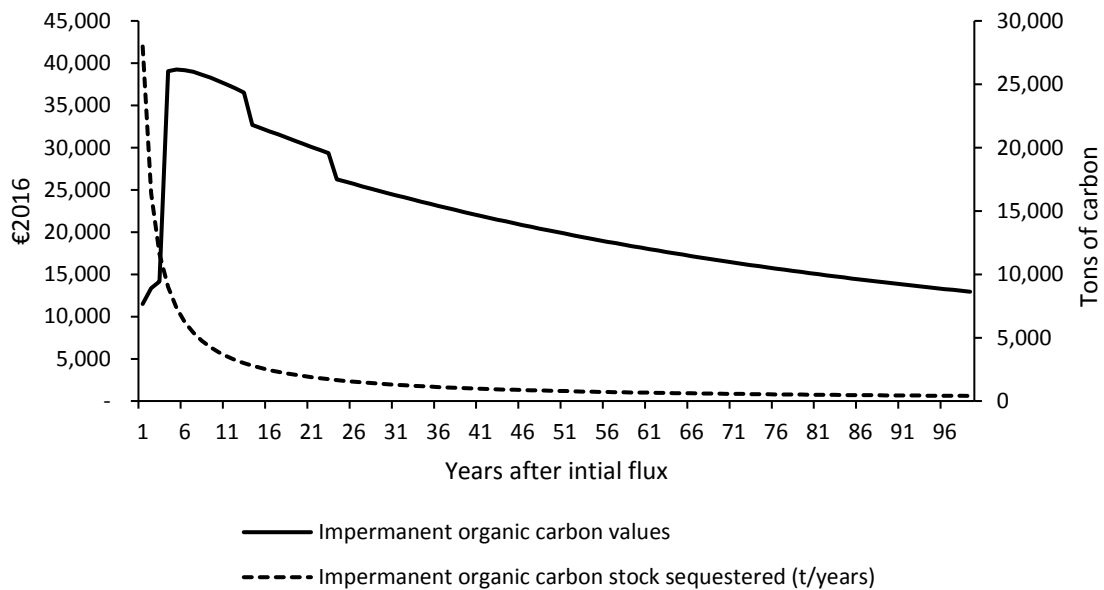
231 Based on equation 6, equation 8 represents the valuation of the permanent and
 232 impermanent organic carbon stocks for each year and selected discount rate ($V_{i,t}$),
 233 starting with the year 2016 ($t = 0$).

$$V_{i,t} = E_t \cdot M \cdot SCC_{i,t} + \sum_{n=1}^{n=99} \left\{ E_t \cdot (1 - M) \cdot (D_n - D_{n+1}) \cdot \left[SCC_{i,t} - SCC_{i,t} \cdot (1 + r_{i,t+n})^{-n} \right] \right\} \quad (\text{eq. 8})$$

234

235 Figure 2 shows demonstrates the total value of the impermanent organic carbon
 236 fraction for the year 2017. For each year (starting in 2018 until 2116), the
 237 impermanent carbon fraction decreases while SCC values rise gradually, thus yielding
 238 initially a maximum value initially (when the amount of temporary sequestered
 239 carbon is relatively high) followed by a decrease as the residual amount of carbon
 240 decreases.

241



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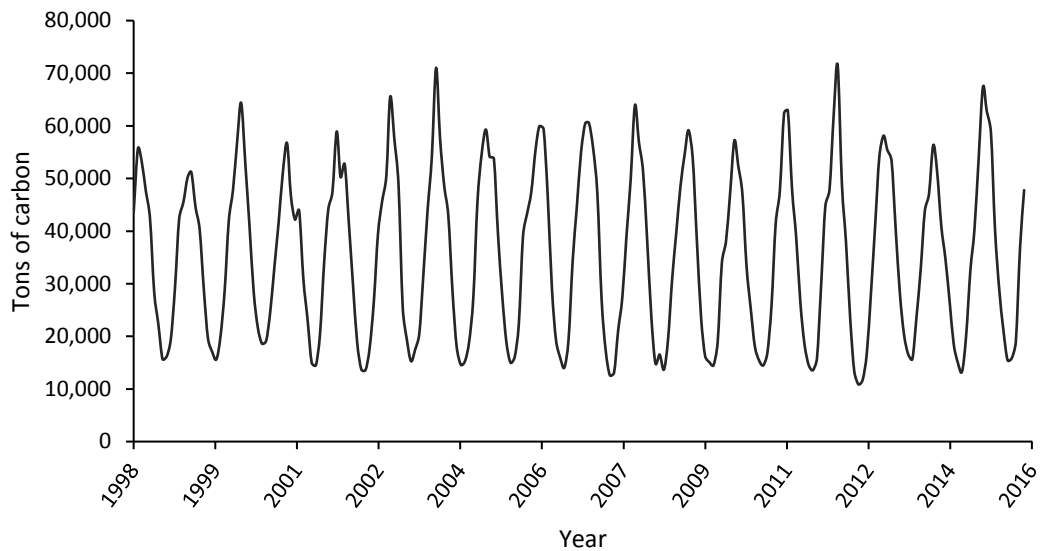
243 **Figure 2.** Impermanent carbon sequestration levels and values for exported organic carbon in the year 2017.

244

245 3. Results

246 The results of the climate regulation model, presented in figure Figure 3, demonstrate
 247 a clear seasonal trend, with high carbon flux values during the winter and spring and
 248 low values during summer and autumn. An interannual decline in the supply of climate

249 regulation was detected for the observed time period and the average annual organic
250 carbon flux out of the euphotic layer in the observed area was estimated at ~427,228
251 tons of carbon. This amount corresponds to an average of 17.49 g C m⁻² year⁻¹, similar
252 to observed carbon fluxes in the Eastern Mediterranean, e.g. Gogou et al., (2014),
253 which reported a flux of 15.67 g C m⁻² year⁻¹.

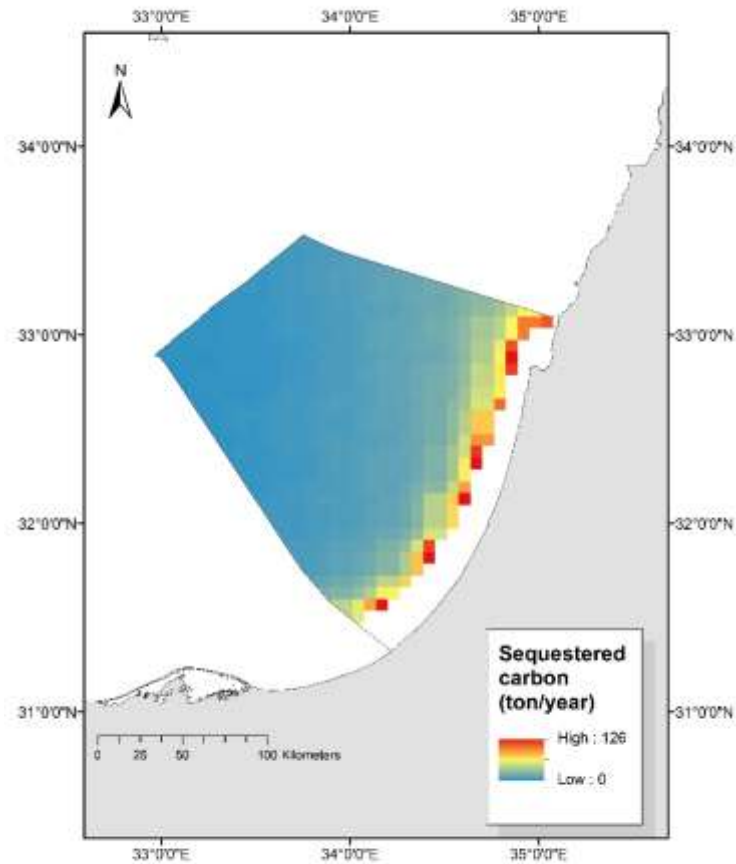


254
255 **Figure 3.** Monthly organic carbon flux from the euphotic layer of the Israeli EEZ (in tons of carbon), for depths
256 below 100 meters, between January 1998 and December 2015.

257 Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution of average annual carbon sequestration for the
258 years 1998-2015. As expected, the levels of this ecosystem service are high near the
259 continental shelf, due to higher nutrients availability (some from anthropogenic
260 sources) and phytoplankton concentrations. The results of the economic valuation are
261 presented in Table 2.

262

263



264
265 **Figure 4.** Spatial distribution of sequestered carbon (1998-2015). Each pixel with an area of ~3.5 km².

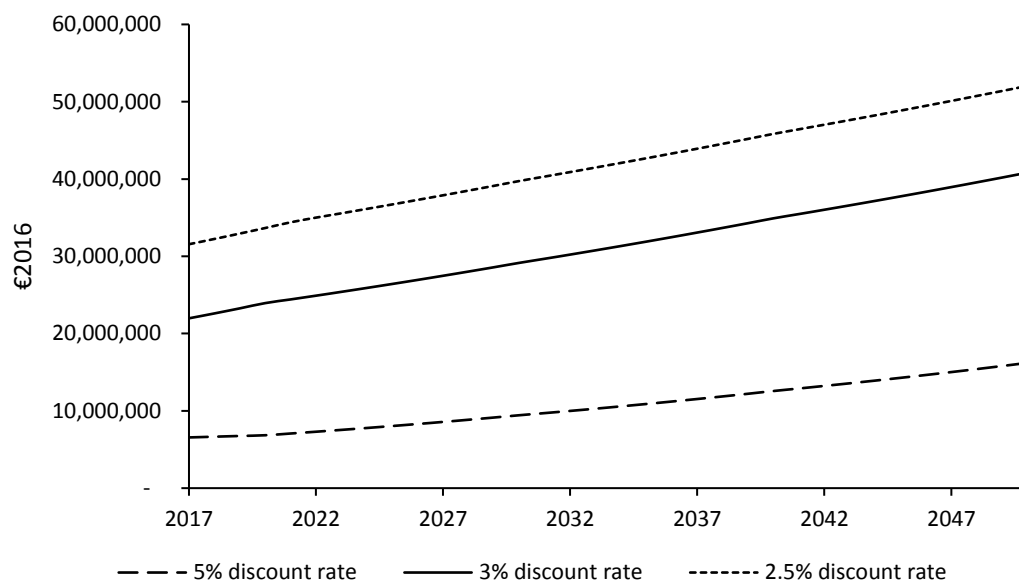
266

267 **Table 2.** Annual economic values of the climate regulation ecosystem service.

Discount rate	Value (€/tonC)	Climate regulation value (Mill. €)
5.0%	34	6.48
3.0%	121	21.39
2.5%	184	31.05

268

269 Projected climate regulation values are displayed in Figure 5. Although a projected
270 annual loss of 97 tons of sequestered carbon, rising SCC values render this ecosystem
271 service more valuable in the future.



272

273 **Figure 5.** Projected climate regulation values until 2050 using different social discount rates.

274

275 **4. Discussion**

276 This study estimated the physical levels of the climate regulation ecosystem service
 277 and its economic value for the Israeli EEZ by spatially modelling organic carbon
 278 sequestration below the euphotic layer. The results hint to a relatively limited supply
 279 of this service, mainly due to the oligotrophic nature of the eastern basin of the
 280 Mediterranean (Kress et al., 2014; Rahav et al., 2013). This valuation is lower than
 281 that of Mangos et al., (2010), which estimated the annual value of this ecosystem
 282 service for Israel at €72 million (based on emissions trading schemes with an average
 283 price of €20.5 per ton of carbon, at 2005 prices). This is mainly due to the fact that
 284 their valuation was largely based on the solubility of atmospheric CO₂. However, our
 285 results are higher than a recent study by Melaku Canu et al., (2015), which estimated
 286 this ecosystem service at €2.7 million (using SCC of €19/t CO₂), translated to 38,720
 287 tons of sequestered carbon. When comparing this analysis with previous estimations
 288 of the climate regulation ecosystem service (Section 1.1), a clear difference arises.
 289 Indeed, primary productivity removes CO₂ from the atmosphere, but in the temporal
 290 context of societal benefits, much of the carbon is rapidly released back into the
 291 atmosphere. We argue that in the case of climate regulation, the cumulative ecological
 292 processes involved in generating the social benefit (removal of atmospheric CO₂ for
 293 extended periods of time) must be considered while taking into account both
 294 permanent and impermanent fractions of sequestered carbon. Assessing climate
 295 regulation based on the initial process involved (i.e., primary productivity), eventually
 296 leads to erroneous and overestimated valuations. Using these methodologies (with an
 297 average value of €6,521/tonC km⁻² year⁻¹ compared with €265-1271/tonC km⁻² year⁻¹
 298 in this study) would have given an overestimated value ranging between €129-630
 299 million, annually. Indeed, the Israeli EEZ acts as a source of atmospheric CO₂ when

300 accounting for the solubility pump but its biological sequestration component,
301 although limited by the oligotrophic nature of the ecosystem, has a valuable
302 contribution to mitigating climate change implications.

303 Given these results, some remarks are in order:

304 1. The economic value of this ecosystem service is dependent on the chosen SCC value,
305 discount rate and the physical model used to estimate primary productivity, and
306 therefore exhibits a wide range of values accordingly. Although the former is subject
307 to further enhancement and validation, social and economic preferences, determined
308 by policy makers, have a considerable effect on resulting ecosystem values. In the
309 context of the Israeli Mediterranean, the Israeli Ministry of Environmental Protection
310 recommends using a 3.0% discount rate, yielding an annual value of €21.39 million for
311 climate protection.

312 2. The marine ecosystem is comprised of multiple components featuring intricate
313 bonds and mechanisms. Assessing the economic implications of management policies
314 or external environmental pressures in the form of marginal values becomes much
315 more complex under uncertain conditions and lack of data. Without clear knowledge
316 on the mechanisms of the Israeli Mediterranean ecosystem, attempting to force
317 marginal changes in order to derive economic insights might lead to unsubstantiated
318 results. Future data on the inner workings of this marine ecosystem will help better
319 evaluate hypothetical scenarios and their implications for ecosystem services' values.

320 3. The partition of exported carbon between permanent and impermanent as well as
321 the rate of outgassing of the impermanent fraction of organic carbon back to the
322 atmosphere are based on a general model, presented by DeVries et al., (2012). Future
323 *in-situ* data acquisition for Levantine waters will undoubtedly contribute to honing the
324 valuation results.

325 4. The trends that were calculated based on observed data are linear in nature.
326 However, the response of the biological functions and organisms involved in the
327 future supply of the climate regulation ecosystem service, under varying conditions,
328 will not likely follow the same path, as a new equilibrium will be established over time.
329 The future levels of the climate regulation will inevitably be associated with the
330 biological components of the ecosystem, such as phytoplankton functional types
331 (Stambler, 2014). Any future investigation of this ecosystem service will have to take
332 into account such aspects.

333 Correct and accurate understanding of the magnitudes and trends of different
334 ecosystem services is crucial for the application of Ecosystem Based Management
335 (EBM) policies. Therefore, the need to review the different components and processes
336 involved in the creation of ecosystem services' values must be stressed in order to
337 avoid inaccurate future valuations. Although performed at a local level, the insights
338 from this study apply to other magnitudes and ecosystem services.

339

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348

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