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5 **Demand and supply of agricultural ecosystem services: towards**
6 **benefit-based policy**

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29 **Abstract**

30 In order to integrate ecosystem services (ES) in designing agri-environmental policy, we
31 investigated both the demand for, and supply of, ES from agricultural environments in Finland.
32 Using the discrete choice experiment method, we measured citizens' willingness to pay (WTP) for
33 four different ES and analysed farmers' compensation request (WTA) for producing these services.
34 Biodiversity and water quality gathered the highest WTA of farmers, but also highest WTP of
35 citizens. Overall, the average WTA exceeded the WTP for almost all attributes and levels, but 20–
36 27% of farmers were willing to produce the ES with the compensation lower than citizens' WTP.

37

38 **Keywords:** agriculture; benefit-based agri-environmental policy, ecosystem services, choice
39 experiment

40 **JEL classification:** Q18, Q51, Q57

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44 **1. Introduction**

45 Agricultural production faces versatile and often conflicting expectations. These include
46 considerations related to the production of various ecosystem services (ES), such as food,
47 pollination, landscape and climate services. Policy-makers should be able to integrate these
48 different expectations into acceptable and applicable agri-environmental policy. This task will
49 become increasingly difficult in the future, because in Finland, as in many other European
50 countries, the public sector suffers from a fiscal sustainability gap. This paper explores and provides
51 tools for integrating citizens' and farmers' preferences and values (related to agricultural
52 production) into the design of agri-environmental policies to obtain more environmental benefits
53 with lower costs for taxpayers. One solution to these challenges would be agri-environmental policy
54 based on citizens' and farmers' values and preferences (Burton and Schwarz, 2013; Hasund, 2013;
55 Schroeder et al., 2013)

56 In the framework of ecosystem services, the primary goal of agriculture is to produce
57 provisioning services, such as food. However, it is commonly recognised that agricultural
58 environments also deliver cultural (such as enjoyment from landscape and recreation), regulating
59 (such as control of climate and diseases), and supporting services (such as nutrient cycles) (de Groot
60 et al., 2002; Gobster et al., 2007; Power, 2010; van Zanten et al., 2014). Some of these services, and
61 possible dis-services, are unintended side effects of the production of provisioning services. The
62 purpose of agri-environmental policy is to develop incentives towards agricultural management that
63 supports a broader range of ecosystem services (Prager et al., 2012; Rey Benayas and Bullock,
64 2012). To support the efficient design of agri-environmental policies, knowledge of the value of the
65 services provided by agricultural ecosystems is required.

66 The current agri-environmental policy in the European Union (EU) is designed to encourage
67 farmers to participate in voluntary agri-environmental schemes and to compensate them for the
68 additional costs incurred by the implementation of agri-environmental measures as well as the
69 income foregone due to any loss of profit (for example, reduced production). The current schemes
70 do not demand or ascertain the production of public goods or ES, i.e. farmers are not paid for
71 achieving environmental outcomes but for implementing management practices. For example,
72 farmers are currently compensated for providing water protection zones instead of outcomes of
73 water protection, such as decrease in nutrient run-offs from their farm.

74 Instead of management oriented policies, new forms of policies in which farmers obtain income
75 from the production of public goods, i.e. environmental outcomes, have been suggested. In some
76 previous studies, these new policy initiatives have relied on environmental and other indicators of
77 scheme success and have been discussed under the term of result-oriented or result-based policy
78 (e.g. Burton and Schwarz, 2013; Herzon et al., 2018). Here, we stress that the design and
79 legitimisation of such policies also requires knowledge of how the various ES are valued by the
80 final beneficiaries, i.e. citizens (ENRD, 2010; van Tongeren, 2008). Emphasis on benefits entails
81 analysing how citizens weight the services and how they perceive their trade-offs, for example, how
82 valuable are possible improvements in landscape compared to improvements in water quality. To
83 underline the information on the values of beneficiaries as an important part of policy design, we
84 use the term of *benefit-based policy*. Benefit-based policy implies that, in policy design, the
85 environmental outcomes are in focus as in results-based policy, but it also emphasises the value of
86 outcome for citizens. Instead, in the traditional cost-based policies, the focus of policy design is in
87 compensations for farmers to cover the cost of environmental management practices. From the
88 farmers' point of view, the question concerning the feasibility of benefit-based policy is whether the
89 compensation corresponding to the production of benefits is enough to motivate them to supply new
90 types of services demanded by citizens.

91 Previous studies on policies focusing on ES have demonstrated the importance of demand and
92 supply information (Lima Santos et al., 2016). Few studies have empirically contributed to the
93 design of benefit-based policies from both demand and supply perspectives, although such
94 integrated analysis might provide a strong consultation basis in policy-making (e.g. Castro et al.,
95 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Nieto-Romero et al., 2014; Zasada, 2011). Although agricultural ES are
96 often supplied in multiple-service bundles, preferences are usually identified for a single
97 provisioning, regulating or cultural service. Most previous studies have only addressed demand,
98 neglecting the supply side, and have also concentrated on a single or occasionally on a few
99 ecosystem services (Chen et al., 2017). Our paper aims at responding to these limitations by
100 exploring both the supply of, and demand for, a bundle of ES from agriculture.

101 The overall preferences of citizens and farmers for agri-environmental policy objectives in the
102 form of ES are derived using the discrete choice experiment (CE) method. The CE method reveals
103 citizens' willingness to pay (WTP) for agricultural ES. The same method is used to evaluate the
104 willingness of farmers to provide ecosystem services. In this case, farmers consider the amount of

105 compensation needed, i.e. their willingness to accept (WTA), to produce the environmental
106 outcomes in terms of ES.

107 This study covers both the demand and supply sides of ecosystem services from agricultural
108 land. First, we measure citizens' WTP for four different ecosystem services from agricultural
109 environments. Second, we analyse farmers' WTA for producing the four services. In both, we apply
110 coordinated CEs in such a way that the results can be used for aggregation to reveal the policy
111 priorities for benefit-based future policies.

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113 **2. Previous studies on ecosystem service demand and supply from agri-environments**

114 Agro-ecosystems are human-managed ecosystems that play a crucial role as both a provider and
115 consumer of multiple ES (Swinton et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2007). They are socio-ecological
116 systems that are multifunctional, including functions for food and fibre provision, and greatly
117 interact with, and depend on, surrounding natural ecosystems (Huang et al., 2015). The provision of
118 goods and services is a direct result of ecosystems influenced by farming activities, where the latter
119 externally modify, improve or degrade the ES provision of agro-ecosystems (Dale and Polasky,
120 2007; Power, 2010; Zhang et al., 2007), but do not directly provide them.

121 Agro-ecosystems provide a range of provisioning, regulating and cultural services to human
122 society (Huang et al., 2015; Power, 2010; Swinton et al., 2007), while, due to their strong
123 dependence on natural, unmanaged ecosystems, these systems require other regulating and
124 supporting services to be productive. Given certain management practices, agro-ecosystems may
125 also generate dis-services, i.e. negative effects from farming activities, such as nitrogen leaching
126 and pesticide drift, the loss of habitat or sedimentation of waterways (Zhang et al., 2007).

127 Integrated approaches suggest that the supply of, and demand for, ES should be analysed
128 together in order to identify supply–demand mismatches that lead to the unsustainable and/or non-
129 efficient management of ecosystems. Several frameworks for the integrated assessment of ES
130 supply and demand are available in literature (Wei et al., 2017). In all these frameworks, supply is
131 measured in biophysical terms defined as "the components of a provided ecosystem based on
132 biophysical properties, ecological functions, and social properties in a particular area and over a
133 given period" (Wei et al., 2017: 16). These frameworks ignore the social and economic part of

134 supply, i.e. how physical supply is affected by the acts and practices of farmers and by policy or
135 market responses.

136 Farmers face the trade-off between production of provisioning services, i.e. food and fibre, and
137 the provision of regulating or cultural services to society (Gordon et al., 2010; MEA, 2003; Power,
138 2010; Rodríguez et al., 2006). Empirical studies that have quantified trade-offs are limited in
139 number (Baldi et al., 2015). In order to govern the trade-offs and to target sustainable practices, it is
140 imperative to better understand the interdependencies between various ES (Baldi et al., 2015) and to
141 account for the views of farmers on aggregated/bundled ES (de Groot et al., 2002; Raudsepp-
142 Hearne et al., 2010).

143 The demand or the benefit side can be addressed by using non-monetary indicators (e.g. people's
144 perceptions of the importance of ES) and/or by using economic indicators derived from real or
145 hypothetical markets (Martín-López et al., 2012; Turner et al., 2010). Usually, economic valuation
146 of demand aims at revealing the WTP of citizens or beneficiaries in general for certain ES. The
147 supply or cost side is related to farmers' willingness to adopt management practices and farming
148 procedures (e.g. organic farming or extensive management) that can promote ES, such as amenities,
149 as well as soil and water protection (Zasada, 2011). An extensive list of studies have referred to the
150 farmer uptake of voluntary agri-environmental measures and the factors that determine farmers'
151 willingness to implement such measures and consequently to supply ES (Grammatikopoulou, 2016;
152 Siebert et al., 2006). The willingness to supply ES can also be measured in terms of farmers'
153 willingness to accept (WTA) a certain level of payments to adopt specific management practices.
154 The outline of demand and supply will entail the identification (profile, preferences and valuation of
155 ES) of beneficiaries, as well as that of providers, to ensure the socially efficient management of ES,
156 solving the problems of under provision or mismatching of ES (Pagiola et al., 2005).

157 Stated preference studies including contingent valuation, conjoint analysis, CEs, and contingent
158 ranking (Huang et al., 2015) have been employed in assessing ESS from agro-ecosystems. For
159 agricultural ES, which are often examined in the framework of agri-environmental schemes, CEs
160 can account for the complex characteristics (Bennett and Blamey, 2001; Hanley et al., 2001) of the
161 service in the sense that multiple options and several attributes are considered.

162 Some studies have aimed at deriving a comprehensive picture of citizens' preferences for
163 agricultural ES. Novikova et al. (2017) applied a CE in Lithuania to explore the preference of
164 residents for the reduction of underground water pollution, preservation of biodiversity and

165 sustenance and improvement of agricultural landscapes at the national scale, which revealed
166 heterogeneity of preferences. A CE and latent class choice modelling were used to examine the
167 demand for a range of agri-environmental services in Thailand from multifunctional agriculture
168 (Sangkapitux et al., 2017). Dupras et al. (2018) applied contingent valuation and CE methods to
169 value the impact of farming practices on landscape aesthetics in Canada. WTP for landscape
170 aesthetics as well as water quality and fish diversity were found to be at a high level. The WTP for
171 enhanced biodiversity of small forest patches in agricultural landscapes was examined in a study by
172 Varela et al. (2018) through a CE.

173 On the supply side, studies have mainly focused on farmers' perceptions of ES rather than on
174 economic assessment of the compensation required to produce the ES. Bernués et al. (2016), Smith
175 et al. (2014) and Xun et al. (2017) explored farmers' knowledge of ES, interaction among them,
176 perceptions of value, and their relationships with certain practices. An interesting outcome of these
177 studies is that, although farmers place high value on ES, they perceive them to be only moderately
178 manageable. Several studies have employed CE applications in eliciting farmers' choices. Aslam et
179 al. (2017) and Espinosa-Goded et al. (2010) revealed that farmers prefer to remain in a 'business as
180 usual' state, showing a strong aversion to drastic changes in current activities. Some CE studies
181 have concluded that the level of compensation is related to and differentiated according to farmers'
182 current management practices as well as the attributes of the new scheme (e.g. Espinosa-Goded et
183 al., 2010; Vedel et al., 2015; Villanueva et al., 2017). Broch and Vedel (2012), Christensen et al.
184 (2011) and Ruto and Garrod (2009) have highlighted the relationship between the required
185 compensation level and the scheme's flexibility and administrative burdens. Previous literature has
186 also indicated challenges in using WTA measure due to WTP/WTA disparity (Tunçel and Hammitt,
187 2014). Villanueva et al. (2017) revealed considerable heterogeneity among farmers in their
188 preferences for agri-environmental schemes, which to a large extent could be explained by the
189 specifics of the agricultural system (the type of joint production), but also by farm/farmer
190 characteristics and farmer knowledge and perceptions. Broch et al. (2013) examined the relationship
191 between farmers' willingness to provide ES and the spatial heterogeneity associated with ES
192 demand. WTA deviates in accordance with the ES in question, as revealed by Broch and Vedel
193 (2012) who found that farmers accept a lower level of compensation when the aim is to protect
194 biodiversity and groundwater relative to recreation.

195 Latacz-Lohmann & Schreiner (2019) used integrated approach and examined consumers' WTP
196 and producers WTA for higher animal welfare standards by using similar CEs for both respondent

197 groups. However, related to ES, the literature still lacks studies that account for both demand and
198 supply and conclude with holistic suggestions for policy-making. One example comes from Finland
199 where both citizen and landowner preferences for one agricultural ecosystem service (landscape
200 improvements) have been examined using a voluntary scheme (Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013).
201 The study concluded with clear suggestions for a locally implemented landscape value trade
202 scheme. Target- or result-based schemes are structured based on the ES framework and on the
203 evidence that ES include values that are measurable and visible in a demand–supply market context.
204 This is one of the rare studies that empirically addresses both parts, i.e. demand and supply, to assist
205 in the design of benefit-based measures. National-level studies are either ongoing or lacking.

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207 **3. Methods and data**

208 **3.1. Identifying ecosystem services for valuation**

209 We began the selection of agricultural ES for valuation by applying the Common International
210 Classification of Ecosystem Services as a basis (CICES, 2016). CICES is a continuously developing
211 European-wide classification system that can also be used for valuing ES. To select relevant ES
212 provided by agricultural environments from the CICES classification, a literature review and the
213 expert judgement of agricultural economists and ecologists were used. The selected services
214 included food, agro-diversity, bioenergy, pollination, habitats for animal nursery and reproduction,
215 pest control, soil productivity, cultural heritage, the existence of species and ecosystems, the
216 recreation environment, landscape, water quality, and climate change mitigation.

217 In the valuation of agricultural ES with the CE method, it is not possible to include all of the
218 various services agricultural environments provide. To choose the attributes for the CE from the 13
219 ES mentioned above, the following steps were performed by the project group:

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- 221 1. Analysis of the importance of the ES for citizens based on previous survey data ($n = 800$) (Pouta
222 and Hauru, 2015);
- 223 2. Evaluation of the importance of agri-environmental ecosystem services by stakeholders from the
224 administration and NGOs ($n = 6$);
- 225 3. Stakeholder ($n = 7$) discussion of the relevant ES based on step 2;

- 226 4. A summary by researchers ($n = 9$) of steps 1 to 3 and analysis of market and non-market
227 services, as well as final and intermediate services;
228 5. Evaluation by valuation experts ($n = 10$) of the questionnaire and the CE;
229 6. Attribute selection for the pilot study;
230 7. Pilot study ($n = 202$);
231 8. A decision by researchers on the attributes in the valuation task of the final survey.

232 The ES selected for the CE were landscape, the existence of species and ecosystems, water
233 quality due to agriculture, and climate change mitigation. In developing these selected ES into
234 measurable attributes and their levels, the project group of environmental economists, ecologists
235 and agri-environmental policy experts ($n = 12$) searched for concrete indicators that could be
236 affected by farming practices and consequently targeted with agri-environmental policy. It was
237 important to find reasonable attribute levels for both citizens and farmers separately, while making
238 them as compatible as possible. The selected attributes and their descriptions for both citizens and
239 farmers are presented in Appendix A. The different levels for the attributes are listed in Table 1
240 where level 0 represents the current state, i.e. the status quo option.

241 In the farmers' CE, some status quo (level 0 in Table 1) attribute levels were farm-specific. For
242 example, the status quo level for the area of traditional rural biotopes (TRB) was given as the
243 farmers' current TRB area, which had been enquired in a preceding part of the survey. In addition,
244 the reduction of nutrient runoff and current agri-environmental payment were case-specific.

245 Crop producers and those in animal husbandry had different landscape attributes in the CE. The
246 crop producers' landscape attribute was crop diversity and that of the animal husbandry farmers was
247 the length of the grazing season. The questionnaires were targeted at the groups of farmers based on
248 their main production line which was obtained from the national farmer register, along with the
249 contact information.

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255 **Table 1.** Attributes of agri-environmental policy programmes and their levels

Ecosystem service		Citizen survey	Farmer survey
Biodiversity	Level 0	Present area (TRB), 0 species protected	Present area of TRB
	Level 1	Area is increased by 30%, 100 species protected	Area increased by 5 ha
	Level 2	Area is increased by 60%, 200 species protected	Area increased by 10 ha
Landscape: Animals	Level 0A	Seldom seen	Cattle, sheep and horses graze for under 3 months
	Level 1A	Often seen during summer	Cattle, sheep and horses graze for over 3 months
	Level 2A	Often seen during summer and the unfrozen season	Cattle, sheep and horses graze for over 6 months
Landscape: Plants	Level 0P	3 species	3 species
	Level 1P	4 species	4 species
	Level 2P	5 species	5 species, of which one is a scenic plant (sunflower, corn etc.)
Climate change mitigation	Level 0	0% decrease in current emissions	At least 20% of the area under cultivation with perennial plants
	Level 1	10% decrease in current emissions	At least 40% of the area under cultivation with perennial plants
	Level 2	30% decrease in current emissions	At least 60% of the area under cultivation with perennial plants
Water quality effects	Level 0	60% of surface waters in good or excellent condition	The estate's current nutrient flow
	Level 1	70% of surface waters in good or excellent condition	70% of the current nutrient flow
	Level 2	80% of surface waters in good or excellent condition	40% of the current nutrient flow
Cost/Agri- environmental payment	Levels	€5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100, 110, 130, 160, 190, 300, 500 /taxpayer/year, during 2017–2026	€50,100, 200, 350, 550, 800* ha/year during 2021–2027

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258 **3.2. Surveys and choice experiments**

259 The citizen survey started with questions about personal relationship with agriculture and then
260 proceeded to questions concerning attitudes towards agri-environmental issues, importance of
261 different agricultural ecosystem services and how well Finnish agriculture has succeeded in
262 producing ecosystem services. Next, citizen survey introduced a new benefit-based agri-
263 environmental policy to the respondents by informing them that, in the hypothetical new
264 programme, farmers would be paid for producing environmental benefits. The survey explained that
265 the new agri-environmental programme would be financed with income tax. Depending on the
266 extent of the programme, the cost to taxpayers would vary, but all taxpayers would participate in
267 financing the programme. Respondents were informed that the current programme also causes
268 expenses to citizens, amounting to approximately 40 euros per individual per year. This cost was
269 based on expert judgement. Consequentiality was enforced by stating that the information from the
270 choice tasks would help decision-makers to revise the agri-environmental programme.

271 The farmer survey began with socio-demographic questions and background information on
272 the farm. These were followed by questions about current agri-environmental compensation and
273 attitudinal questions concerning agri-environmental schemes as well as current and potential
274 production of ecosystem services on the farm. The survey then suggested that the current agri-
275 environmental scheme, which compensates additional costs and income foregone resulting from
276 applying agri-environmental measures, would be replaced by a benefit-based agri-environmental
277 scheme. The proposed programme would replace all other environment-related compensation
278 currently paid to the farmers. Current agri-environmental scheme has been in place for 20 years and
279 90% of the farmers are included. There has been a strong public discussion of the in-efficiency of
280 current agri-environmental practices in producing environmental outcomes. Consequentiality,
281 important for incentive compatibility (Vossler et al., 2012), was enforced in the farmer survey by
282 informing about the need to renew the agri-environmental scheme for the next Rural Development
283 Programme period starting in the EU in 2021.

284 Both surveys informed the respondents about the suggested new agri-environmental scheme and
285 the attributes as well as their levels (Table 1). Following the introduction of the attributes and the
286 new benefit-based programme, the respondents in both citizen and farmer surveys were presented
287 with six choice tasks. Each choice task had three alternatives: the status quo alternative, described
288 as maintaining the current programme, and two alternatives with improvements in the state of ES.
289 The alternatives were described with four ES attributes. Attributes had three different levels: status

290 quo level as well as lower improvement and higher improvement. Status quo levels of different
291 attributes also appeared in non-status quo alternatives. There was also a monetary attribute (cost for
292 citizens and compensation for farmers) associated with each alternative. The status quo alternative
293 was identical across choice tasks. Examples of choice tasks for citizens and farmers are presented in
294 Appendix B.

295 To allocate the attribute levels to the choice tasks in the both citizen and farmer CE, we used
296 efficient experimental designs. Efficient designs are used to generate parameter estimates with
297 standard errors that are as low as possible and thus to obtain the maximum information from each
298 choice situation (see Rose and Bliemer, 2009). The generation of efficient designs requires the
299 specification of priors for the parameter estimates. In the design of the pilot surveys, we employed
300 zero priors. In the final studies, however, we employed a Bayesian D-efficient design using Ngene
301 (v. 1.0.2), taking 500 Halton draws for the prior parameter distributions, and parameter estimates
302 obtained from the pilot study were used as priors. Bayesian efficient designs take into account the
303 uncertainty related to the parameter priors. In the design of the CE for citizens, we used a Bayesian
304 prior only for the number of cultivated plant species in the landscape and fixed priors for the other
305 attributes. In the design of the farmer survey, we used Bayesian priors for all other attributes except
306 for the bid level.

307 In total, 36 choice tasks were generated and blocked in 6 subsets, which resulted in six choice
308 tasks per respondent. For the citizens' survey, four versions of the design were created using four
309 different cost scales (€5–300, €5–500, €40–300 and €40–500). The design of the four versions was
310 identical, aside from the varying cost scale. However, in this paper, the effect of differing cost
311 scales is not examined. In the farmer survey, the compensation scale was €50–800. The final
312 designs of the citizen and farmer CEs had D-errors of 0.08829 and 0.057962, respectively.

313 Our survey design aimed at defining meaningful attribute levels and changes that were
314 reasonable for both respondent groups. We also aimed to avoid vague qualitative descriptions of
315 attribute levels. Although correspondence between samples was sought, the selected levels might
316 have led to differences in the amount of change between citizens and farmers. For most of the
317 attributes, we can conclude that the level of research information available is not comprehensive
318 enough to guarantee the information bases to define the measures on farm level that would lead
319 with certainty to particular environmental outcomes.

320 The correspondence of attribute levels was also analysed by ex-post expert judgement. The
321 levels for landscape were found to correspond with each other rather well. However, it was
322 impossible to reliably compare the water quality effects based on existing knowledge, because one
323 cannot directly deduce the ecological condition of waters from a reduction in agricultural nutrient
324 runoff. The ecological status of surface waters is primarily defined based on biological quality
325 factors (phytoplankton, other aquatic plants, fish, and benthos). In addition to biological quality
326 factors, nutrients, water quality and hydromorphological factors are also considered. There was also
327 some uncertainty in the climate change attribute concerning the correspondence of citizens' and
328 farmers' attribute levels. According to the expert knowledge, we can assume that the lower level of
329 climate attribute in the farmer survey corresponded quite well with the citizen survey, but there is
330 considerable uncertainty in the correspondence of the higher level of climate attribute. The
331 uncertainty relates especially to peatland fields, where the carbon balance is very sensitive to
332 different management practices. Another source of uncertainty is the end use of biomass from
333 perennial plants. In the biodiversity attribute, the levels in the citizen survey could have been
334 obtained if those farmers who are currently managing traditional rural biotopes increased their
335 activity. Farmers producing traditional rural biotopes in areas that have not been managed by
336 traditional methods in the past would not automatically lead to significant increases in biodiversity
337 as the natural conditions may not be suitable for creating these ecosystems. Furthermore, there is
338 also uncertainty in the knowledge on how establishing a traditional biotope in a typical field area
339 would enhance the protection of endangered species.

340

341 **3.3. Data**

342 3.3.1. Citizen data

343 The survey data of citizens (aged between 18 and 74) were collected using an Internet survey in the
344 spring of 2016. The sample was drawn from the Internet panel of an independent market research
345 company, Taloustutkimus, comprising over 30,000 respondents who have been recruited to the
346 panel using random sampling to represent the population (Taloustutkimus, 2017). A pilot survey (n
347 = 202) was used to test the questionnaire, especially the attributes and levels in the CE. For the final
348 study, a random sample of 8,391 respondents was selected, of whom 2,066 completed the survey,
349 resulting in a response rate of 25%. Comparison of the socio-demographics of the sample with the
350 population indicates that the proportion of females was lower, the respondents were slightly older

351 and more highly educated and the proportion of people with children was a little higher compared
352 with the population based on one-sample z-test (Table 2). However, most of these differences were
353 small.

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355 **Table 2.** Descriptive statistics ($n = 2,066$)

	Sample	Population* (age 18-74)	z-test p-value
Proportion of females, %	44	50	0.000
Mean age, years	53	48	0.000
Proportion of people with a higher educational level, %	37	24	0.000
Proportion of people with children (<18 years) in the family, %	26	24	0.000
Proportion of people living in Southern Finland, %	52	52	0.928

*Statistics Finland (2015)

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357 3.3.2. Farmer data

358 The quantitative farmer data were collected in January 2017 using an Internet survey. The sample
359 was drawn from the farm business register of the Agency for Rural Affairs. An e-mail invitation
360 was sent to 5000 farmers. The sample consisted of 3,449 farms with crop production as the main
361 production line and 1,551 farms focused on animal husbandry. After two reminders, we received
362 591 usable responses. The response rates of the crop producers and animal husbandry farmers were
363 13% and 11%, respectively. The questionnaire was tested before the main study in a pilot survey (n
364 = 98, response rate 10%) and in several expert interviews.

365 Descriptive statistics of the farmer sample are compared with the whole population, i.e. all
366 farmers in Finland, in Table 3. Most of the statistics for the sample are close or equal to the
367 population, and the representativeness of the sample was thus satisfactory.

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371 **Table 3.** Descriptive statistics of the farmer sample ($n = 591$) and the whole farmer population of
 372 Finland ($N = 49,982$)

	Sample	Population*
Mean age, years	52	51
Mean acreage of agricultural land, ha	31	54
Organic farming	9%	9%**
Participating in an agri-environmental scheme	89%	88%
Crop production	45%	35%
Other plant production	13%	27%
Greenhouse production	0%	2%
Outdoor production	1%	3%
Milk production	12%	15%
Beef production	4%	6%
Other cattle husbandry	1%	1%
Pig production	3%	1%
Poultry production	1%	1%
Other grazing livestock	5%	5%
Mixed production	9%	4%

373 * Natural Resources Institute Finland

374 **Finnish Food Safety Authority, Evira / Finnish Organic Food Association Pro Luomu

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376 **3.4. Statistical models**

377 A mixed logit model (MXL) takes into account respondent heterogeneity by allowing parameter
 378 values to vary across the respondents according to a pre-specified distribution. MXL is a highly
 379 flexible model and enables efficient estimation when there are repeated choices by the same
 380 respondents (Revelt and Train, 1998). The MXL model also resolves the problem of the
 381 independence of irrelevant alternatives (IIA) as it does not require this assumption.

382 In the modelling of both the demand for, and supply of, ecosystem services, monetary variables
 383 were treated as continuous variables and the other attributes were coded as dummy variables. We
 384 also included alternative specific constant for the status quo (ASC SQ), having value 1 when

385 respondent chose the status quo alternative and 0 otherwise. In the estimation, the distributions
386 must be imposed for each of the random parameters. All programme attributes and the alternative
387 specific constant for the status quo were treated as random variables with normal distributions. The
388 cost and compensation parameters were specified as fixed. Specifying cost as a random parameter
389 can cause problems in the estimation of WTP, as WTP is the ratio of the attribute's coefficient to
390 the price coefficient (Hensher, Rose and Greene, 2015). When both coefficients are allowed to vary,
391 the distribution of WTP is quite complex as it is no longer just the scaled distribution of the
392 attribute's coefficient (Train, 2003). Selecting the distribution for the price coefficient is not straight
393 forward and can lead to WTP distributions that do not have defined moments or they can be heavily
394 skewed (Hole and Kolstad, 2012), implying extremely high WTP. This is why we used fixed
395 parameters for cost and compensation, even though assuming that there is no heterogeneity among
396 the respondents in relation to price is somewhat unrealistic.

397

398

399 **4. Results**

400 The results of MXL models for both citizens and farmers are presented in Table 4. In the citizen
401 model, most of the ecosystem service parameters were statistically significant and of the expected
402 sign, excluding number of cultivated plant species in the landscape. There were no clear tendencies
403 in the choice of policy alternatives, as the alternative specific constant for the status quo (ASC SQ),
404 i.e. the current programme, was not significant. The cost was significant and negative, meaning that
405 an increase in the cost decreases the utility. Level 2, i.e. greater improvement, was preferred for
406 animals in the landscape, climate regulation and water conditions. However, for biodiversity, level
407 1 was preferred. Biodiversity (level 1) and water conditions (level 2) had the greatest effects on
408 utility.

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412

413 **Table 4.** Demand for, and supply of, agricultural ecosystem services. Mixed logit models in the
 414 preference space for citizen and farmer data

		Citizens		Farmers	
		Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
ASC(SQ)		0.239 (0.00)		0.776** (0.380)	
Cost/Agri-environmental payment		-0.009*** (0.147)		0.005*** (0.000)	
Biodiversity	Level 1	0.707*** (0.066)	1.171*** (0.080)	-1.572*** (0.208)	1.757*** (0.221)
	Level 2	0.368*** (0.086)	2.227*** (0.102)	-2.068*** (0.243)	1.903*** (0.270)
Landscape: Animals	Level 1	0.411*** (0.071)	0.977*** 0.096	0.025 (0.208)	1.822*** (0.212)
	Level 2	0.587*** (0.076)	1.331*** 0.083	-0.798*** (0.232)	2.446*** (0.276)
Landscape: Plants	Level 1	0.082 (0.063)	0.928*** (0.094)	-	-
	Level 2	0.068 (0.064)	1.161*** (0.084)	-	-
Climate change mitigation	Level 1	0.297*** (0.076)	1.421*** (0.081)	-0.421** (0.191)	1.239*** (0.211)
	Level 2	0.417*** (0.079)	1.689*** (0.094)	-1.141*** (0.222)	1.752*** (0.232)
Water quality effects	Level 1	0.434*** (0.072)	1.517*** (0.081)	-1.346*** (0.237)	1.769*** (0.211)
	Level 2	0.719*** (0.071)	0.877*** (0.103)	-1.370*** (0.250)	2.137*** (0.261)
N		2,066		456	
Log likelihood		-11473.417		-2119.340	
LR $\chi^2(10)^a(8)^b$		1,723.67		496.25	
Prob<chi		0.000		0.000	

415 ^a Degrees of freedom in the citizen model

416 ^b Degrees of freedom in the farmer model

417
418
419

420 In the farmer model (Table 4), the ASC for the status quo was significant and positive, indicating
 421 that the respondents preferred the status quo, not the alternatives with increased ecosystem service
 422 production together with a certain amount of compensation. The share of serial non-respondents
 423 (i.e. respondents always choosing status quo option) was 22 percent of the farmer respondents. On
 424 the other hand, the share of those respondents who did not choose the status quo option in any

425 choice set was 20 percent. Level 1 of the landscape attribute was not statistically significant, but
426 level 2 was. In all other attributes, the lower levels were also statistically significant and the signs of
427 the attributes were negative, as expected. In the biodiversity improvement and climate change
428 mitigation attributes, level 1 was preferred to level 2. This result is in accordance with the
429 expectation that larger changes require higher compensation. In the nutrient flow attribute, the
430 coefficients of the levels 1 and 2 were very close to each other, indicating that the respondents did
431 not react to the differences in the required reduction in nutrient run-off.

432 The standard deviations for all random parameters were statistically significant in both the
433 citizen and farmer models. This implies that there is heterogeneity between the respondents over the
434 mean parameter estimates (Hensher et al., 2015). For citizens, level 2 of the biodiversity attribute
435 had the largest standard deviation, indicating that preferences for greater improvement of this
436 attribute varied the most among the respondents. However, the standard deviation was lowest for
437 the greater improvement in water quality, whereas this was the attribute that had the highest level of
438 heterogeneity among farmers. Overall, the standard deviations were slightly lower in the citizen
439 model.

440 The CE for citizens included two landscape attributes, grazing animals in the landscape and
441 diversity of cultivated plants, whereas farmers had either of these two attributes based on their main
442 production line. The farmer model presented in Table 4 is a joint model for crop producers and
443 animal husbandry farmers¹, and the coefficient of the landscape attribute can thus be interpreted as
444 an average of lengthening the grazing season and increasing the number of plant species in
445 cultivation. Crop producers comprised 69% of the respondents, which corresponds well with their
446 share of all Finnish farmers, and thus increasing plant diversity dominates the result.

447 The citizens' WTP and farmers' WTA for different attributes and their levels were calculated
448 based on the MXL models. The results are presented in Table 5. WTP ranged between 31 and 76
449 euros per taxpayer per year. WTP was highest for a greater improvement in water quality effects
450 and animals in the landscape, as well as for a lower improvement in biodiversity. Farmers' WTA
451 figures ranged between 81 and 397 euros/hectare/year. The WTA was lowest for the lower

¹ Separate models were estimated for crop and animal husbandry farmers to test if there was a difference in the response to the landscape attribute. The results were very similar: the smaller change (Level1) in attribute level was insignificant, but the larger change (Level 2) had a negative, significant coefficient. We will analyse the heterogeneity of farmers' responses in the CE in detail in the forthcoming paper.

452 improvement in GHG mitigation, i.e. increasing the area cultivated with perennial plants, and
 453 highest for a greater improvement in biodiversity, with a 10-hectare increase in the TRB area.

454

455 **Table 5.** Willingness-to-pay (€/year) and willingness-to-accept (€/ha/year) estimates from MXL
 456 models (95% confidence intervals*)

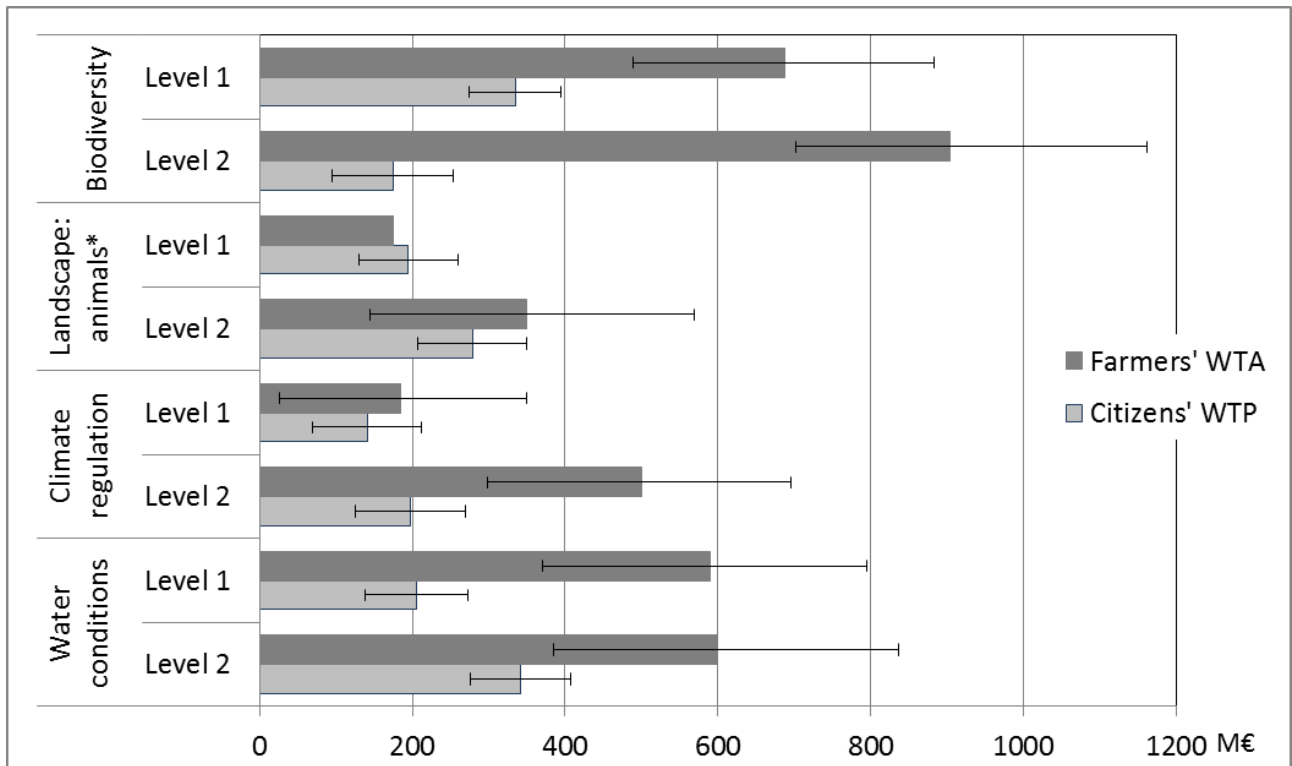
Ecosystem service		Citizens' WTP (€/year)	Farmers' WTA (€/ha/year)
Biodiversity	Level 1	75.71 (61.07–89.55)	302.24 (214.96–387.71)
	Level 2	39.38 (21.28–55.45)	396.93 (307.88–510.04)
Landscape: Animals	Level 1	44.04 (28.90–58.30)	-
	Level 2	62.87 (49.00–78.76)	153.46 (63.97–249.68)
Landscape: Plants	Level 1	-	-
	Level 2	-	-
Climate change mitigation	Level 1	31.81 (15.38–47.66)	80.88 (11.35–153.37)
	Level 2	44.66 (28.75–60.47)	219.43 (130.99–305.24)
Water quality effects	Level 1	46.43 (31.60–61.68)	258.74 (162.99–348.91)
	Level 2	76.98 (62.53–91.29)	263.42 (168.57–367.01)

457 *Calculated with the Krinsky and Robb method

458

459 As the WTP and WTA estimates were not directly comparable (WTP was for taxpayer per year
 460 but WTA was for farmer per hectare), we aggregated the total WTP and WTA estimates (Figure 1).
 461 For the aggregation of citizens' WTP, we used the Finnish population over 18 years (4,431,392 in
 462 2016). The aggregated WTP for different ecosystem services ranged from 141 million euros to 341
 463 million euros. For the aggregation of farmers' WTA, the total area enrolled in the current agri-
 464 environmental scheme (2,278,500 hectares) was used. The marginal, per hectare WTA figures were
 465 multiplied by this number to produce the aggregated WTA per year for certain attributes. Total area
 466 enrolled in current scheme was used for aggregation, as it was the best and most justified estimate.
 467 However, it is possible that by using benefit-based policy, the environmental benefits could be

468 obtained from a smaller area and therefore at lower cost as the measures would be undertaken
 469 where they actually are beneficial.



470
 471 * In the survey of citizens, the landscape was divided into two attributes, whereas in the farmer study, livestock producers had an
 472 attribute concerning the grazing period and crop producers concerning the number of different plants cultivated in one season.
 473

474 **Figure 1.** Aggregated WTP and WTA and 95% confidence intervals for different attributes.

475

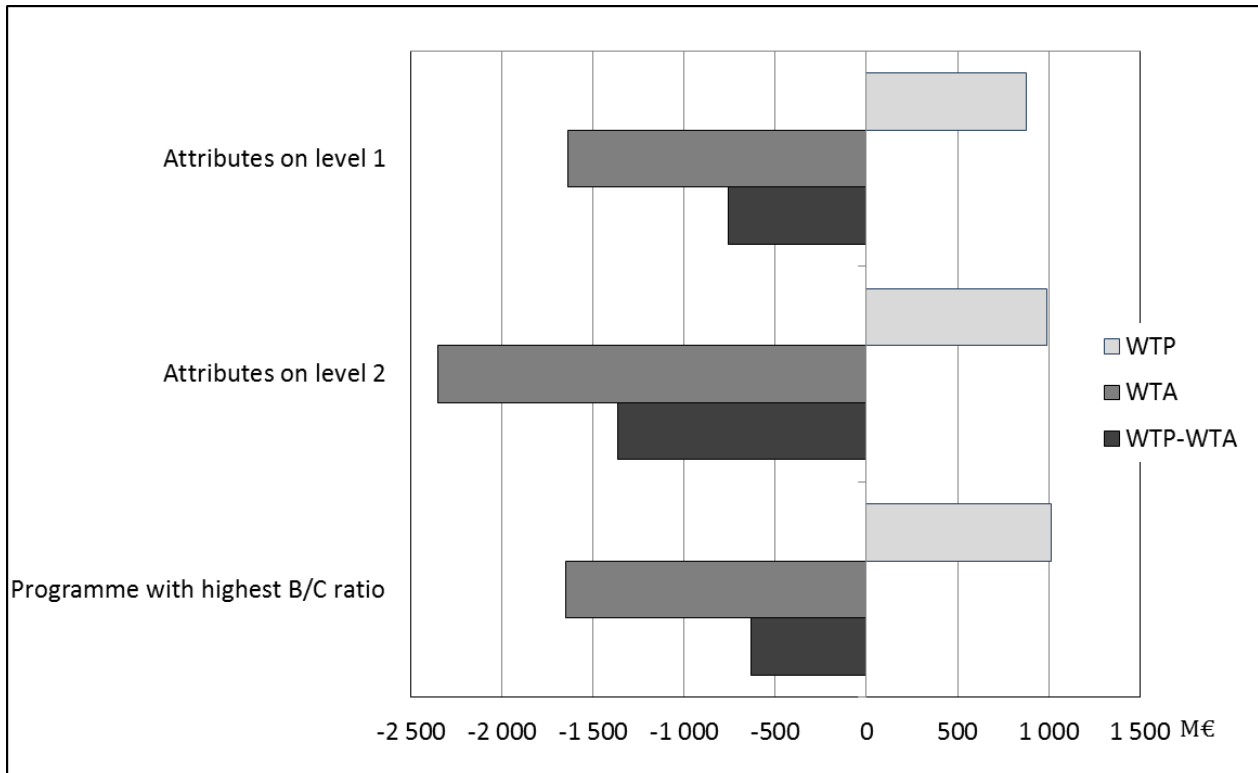
476 Figure 1 presents the aggregated WTP and WTA for each attribute and level. The high demand
 477 for biodiversity, in particular on the lower level, faces a high demand for compensation from the
 478 farmers' side. Citizens' WTP for biodiversity does not follow the monotonicity assumption, as the
 479 WTP for level 1 is higher than for level 2. This could be due to the fact that some of the respondents
 480 may have considered 60% increase in TRB area as too large and been concerned about the area left
 481 for food production. However, as the current area of TRB is only 1% of the total area of agricultural
 482 lands, the area would remain low even with the higher increase.

483 The compensation request for water quality benefits is about two or three times as much as the
 484 citizens' willingness to pay. WTPs and WTAs for climate regulation on a lower level, as well as
 485 landscape benefits from grazing animals, approach each other. In the landscape attribute, the
 486 citizens' aggregated WTP for a lower level even exceeds the farmers' compensation demand. It

487 should be noted, however, that the farmers' WTA for the lower level landscape attribute was
 488 linearly interpolated from the larger level change as the lower level landscape attribute was not
 489 statistically significant in the farmer model. In this case, we perceive that this method produces an
 490 acceptable, conservative estimate for WTA for a lower landscape change.

491 Figure 2 presents the aggregated WTP and WTA for three scenarios. The first scenario sets all
 492 the attributes on their lower level. It reveals that the aggregated compensation request of farmers is
 493 about twice as high as the aggregated WTP of citizens. The WTP of citizens increases only slightly
 494 for the scenario that raises all the attributes to their highest level. Instead, farmers perceive the
 495 burden of increased service provision, showing an approximately 50% higher demand for
 496 compensation than in the lower level scenario. The scenario with the highest net benefits was
 497 formulated by selecting those attribute levels in which the difference between the aggregated WTA
 498 and WTP was as low as possible. This means the lowest level for other attributes except water
 499 conservation. For this scenario, the costs also exceeded the benefits. The comparison of aggregated
 500 WTP and WTA suggests that none of the scenarios should be implemented as such.

501



502

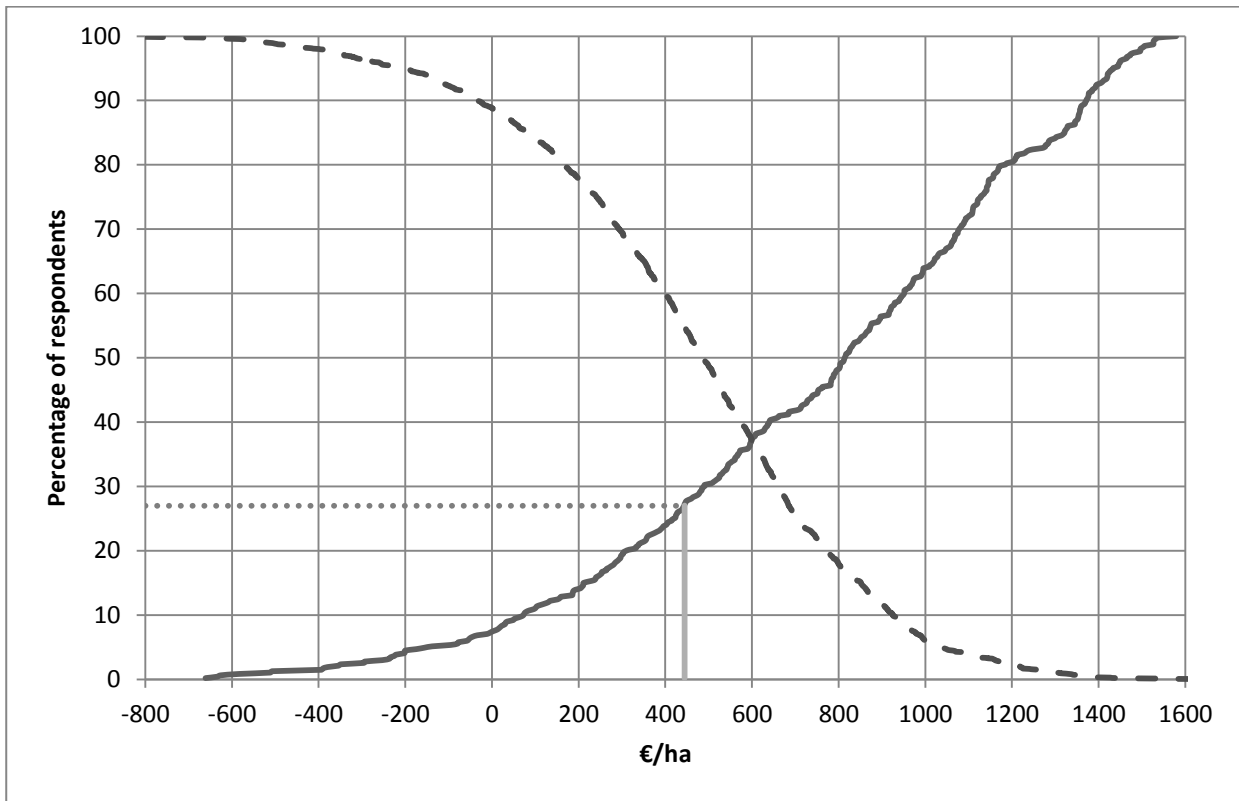
503 **Figure 2.** Scenario comparisons based on annual aggregated WTP and WTA estimates.

504

505 To analyse if a share of the farmers would be willing to provide the services with the
506 compensation level corresponding to the citizen aggregated WTP, Figure 3 presents farmers'
507 individual-level WTA estimates for the highest net benefit scenario. The estimates were calculated
508 with individual-level coefficients. The figure also presents the aggregated WTP of citizens divided
509 by the number of hectares in the agri-environmental scheme to make them comparable with the
510 WTA per hectare in monetary terms. The aggregated WTP per hectare for the scenario with the
511 highest net benefits was 444.6 euros. About 27% of the farmers were willing to produce ecosystem
512 services for this compensation per hectare. In policy planning, it would be important to focus on
513 these farmers who would be willing to produce the requested services with the lowest compensation
514 demand.

515 Figure 3 also shows individual-level WTP estimates for citizens by presenting the share of
516 respondents willing to accept a certain payment level. Instead of presenting traditional demand and
517 supply curves and market balance, it explores how well farmers' WTA and citizens' WTP for a
518 policy programme match. The WTA and WTP measures are equal (600€/ha) for a 37% share of
519 citizens and farmers. However, even though a larger share of farmers would be willing to supply
520 ecosystem services for this amount of compensation, it would not be legitimate from the citizens'
521 point of view, as the scheme would be paid with taxes and less than half of the citizens are willing
522 to pay this much.

523



524

525 **Figure 3.** Distributions of the farmers' individual-level WTA measures (black curve), citizens'
 526 individual-level WTP measures (dashed curve), citizens' mean aggregated WTP (grey line) and the
 527 percentage of farmers with a lower WTA than this mean WTP (dotted line).

528

529 **5. Discussion and conclusion**

530 This study examined the demand for, and supply of, agricultural ecosystem services on a national
 531 level in Finland. We used MXL models to analyse citizens' WTP for four agricultural ecosystem
 532 services and farmers' requested compensation (WTA) for producing them. The study revealed that
 533 there is a clear demand for higher levels of ecosystem services produced by agriculture. The
 534 demand was highest for better water quality and a more diverse landscape. On the supply side,
 535 farmers preferred the status quo, i.e. the current programme. This was reflected in high WTA
 536 values, indicating that farmers require greater amounts of compensation in order to improve the
 537 production of ecosystem services. However, it is promising that the ecosystem services with the
 538 highest requested compensation were also those with highest citizens' WTP. Overall, the
 539 comparison between annual aggregated WTP and WTA estimates revealed that the costs of the
 540 programme exceeded the benefits in all scenarios. However, a proportion of farmers, i.e. 20–27%,

541 depending on the details of the programme, were willing to produce the ecosystem services for the
542 compensation that the citizens were willing to pay.

543 The results presented here are the first national results on the supply of, and demand for, key
544 ecosystem services from agri-environment. If we reflect them with a local case study from Finland
545 concerning landscape attributes in agricultural environments (Grammatikopoulou et al., 2013), we
546 observe considerable differences. In Grammatikopoulou et al. (2013) citizens' WTP for landscape
547 attributes exceeded the actual costs caused by the provision of landscape attributes, but we did not
548 observe the same tendency here when WTP was compared with the compensation demand i.e.
549 WTA. This implies that there is a need to evaluate the farmers' WTA in relation to the actual costs
550 of providing the services. However, we obtained similar results in that farmers were most willing to
551 provide other services than those that were most demanded by citizens.

552 There is also a possibility that farmer takes into account his or her own benefit from the public
553 good while making choices. From our survey attributes, a farmer would be most likely to derive
554 utility from the changes in landscape and traditional rural biotopes, i.e. the attributes that have very
555 local effects. Instead, water quality and climate effects spreading to wide spatial area, are more
556 complex and are also related to choices of the other farmers in the area as well as other agents
557 further away. Our focus group discussions with farmers showed that their own interest was mainly
558 in improving the growth potential of soil. Due to high WTA values obtained, it is rather unlikely
559 that farmers would have deducted their own utility from the WTA. However, the farmers own
560 utility from different ecosystem services on their own lands is an interesting future research topic.

561 High WTA values for farmers are partly driven by the difficulties in providing biodiversity
562 services. In this study, the focus of biodiversity services was on traditional rural biotopes, which are
563 hotspots of biological diversity and threatened species. The high compensation request related to
564 these highlights the importance of finding new and more easily manageable solutions for providing
565 biodiversity on agricultural land. The WTA estimates could be slightly increased by non-
566 participation in the policy due to protest behaviour. The possible protest respondents were not
567 excluded from the analysis because of the difficulty in ensuring the protest status of any respondent
568 group, despite the typical attitude questions included in the survey. The serial participation and non-
569 participation may also imply problematic behaviour from the modelling point of view if these
570 respondents have decided to choose the status quo or one of the proposed policy alternatives despite
571 the actual attribute levels. However, the shares of serial non-participation and serial participation

572 were almost equal and are assumed to cancel out most of each other's impact on the WTA
573 estimates.

574 Due to the study questions and design, we used both WTP and WTA measures, although an
575 empirical divergence is often observed between WTA and WTP while measuring the same
576 environmental change and the WTA approach is possibly problematic due to incentive
577 compatibility issues (Lloyd-Smith and Adamowicz, 2018). WTA estimates have typically been
578 higher in cases with less familiarity of the environmental good (Tunçel and Hammitt, 2014). In our
579 case, farmers were also unfamiliar with the new type of benefit-based measures. In farmer decision-
580 making, there was considerable uncertainty about the methods that would produce the given
581 attribute levels. This probably caused farmers to support the status quo alternative in many choice
582 sets and consequently led to high WTA estimates. It is also possible that in this application of a PES
583 scheme, in which farmers are asked to give up production possibilities, i.e. private good, there exists
584 strategic behaviour and some respondents have overstated their WTA (Lloyd-Smith and
585 Adamowicz, 2018). Earlier choice experiment studies on landowners' WTA for ecosystem services
586 have concluded that strategic behaviour is possible (Vedel et al., 2015). Nevertheless, we consider
587 that the general recommendation to use WTA in cases where it is institutionally feasible (Johnston
588 et al., 2016) is applicable here, although we cannot rule out strategic behaviour and fully guarantee
589 incentive compatibility. We recommend future research looking for solutions for this issue in the
590 case of CE.

591 If agri-environmental policies are moving towards benefit-based direction, there is a need to find
592 policies that balance the demand for, and supply of, different ecosystem services. As our results
593 demonstrated that citizens' WTP does not cover the compensation need of farmers if WTP and
594 WTA are examined on average level, the results do not encourage the policy towards large scale
595 provision of ecosystem services as such. However, the public support for the supply of ecosystem
596 services could be targeted for the quarter of farmers that are willing to supply these services for
597 compensation that is equal to or lower than citizens' WTP. Targeting the policy to these farmers
598 might decrease the total area under AES scheme, but could still compete with the current policy or
599 even outperform it with regards to environmental outcomes if farmers with good prerequisites for
600 ecosystem service production are found. However, significant uncertainties related to a benefit-
601 based policy and the information requirements of farmers related to choosing methods that produce
602 particular environmental outcomes need to be resolved before changing the policy regime.

603 The results of this study could also be useful in developing the current policy scheme based on
604 compensating the costs, by focusing on the ecosystem services having the greatest demand.
605 Compensation based on the additional costs and income losses resulting from agri-environmental
606 measures, however, may not lead to the most efficient outcome in terms of the overall supply of the
607 desired ecosystem services. In this sense, payments based on observed and measured environmental
608 benefits are more likely to lead to improved cost-effectiveness and efficiency. However, the
609 implementation of a benefit-based policy scheme would require a fundamental shift in policy
610 structures.

611

612

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- 775

776 **Appendix A.**

777 **Attributes of agri-environmental policy programmes in choice experiment**

778 Table summarises how different attributes were described to the two different respondent groups
 779 (citizens and farmers) in the survey.

Ecosystem service	Attribute for citizens Attribute description	Attribute for farmers Attribute description
Biodiversity	<p>Traditional rural biotopes and endangered species</p> <p>Mowed or grazed semi-natural grasslands (meadows, leas, pastures) can provide a habitat for several endangered species.</p>	<p>Traditional rural biotopes (TRB)</p> <p>TRBs are biotopes shaped by traditional land use (e.g. meadows and pastures). Mowed or grazed TRBs can provide a habitat for several endangered species.</p>
Landscape	<p>Typical agricultural landscape</p> <p>Grazing animals and crops grown in open fields affect the diversity of the landscape.</p>	<p>Diverse agricultural landscape</p> <p>Crop producers: Diversity of crops increases the recreational value of the agricultural landscape.</p> <p>Animal husbandry farmers: A higher number of grazing animals increases the recreational value of the agricultural landscape.</p>
Climate change mitigation	<p>Climate effects</p> <p>A decrease from current emissions.</p> <p>Agricultural greenhouse gas emissions contribute to climate change. The greenhouse gas emissions can be reduced by various cultivation practices and capturing greenhouse gases.</p>	<p>Climate change mitigation</p> <p>Agricultural greenhouse gas emissions contribute to climate change. Greenhouse gas emissions can be reduced by increasing the acreage of perennial plants.</p>
Water quality due to agriculture	<p>Water quality effects</p> <p>Proportion of surface waters in a good or excellent state.</p> <p>About half of the nutrient runoff to waters comes from fields. This is affected by the amount of fertilizers used, cultivation practices, and annual weather conditions.</p>	<p>Nutrient flow</p> <p>The amount of nutrient runoff depends, for instance, on the fertilizers used. Nutrient runoff can be monitored from ditches with an indicator that would be installed without cost for farmers.</p>

780

781 **Appendix B.**

782 **Example of the choice set for citizens**

	Current programme	Alternative X	Alternative Y
Traditional rural biotopes and endangered species	Present area, 0 species protected	Area is increased by 60%, 200 species protected	Area is increased by 30%, 100 species protected
Typical agricultural landscape	Seldom seen	Often seen during summer	Often seen during summer
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grazing animals • Plants in cultivation 	3 species	5 species	4 species
Climate effects			
Decrease from current emissions	0%	0%	30%
Water quality effects			
Proportion of surface waters in good or excellent condition	60%	80%	60%
Cost/taxpayer/year, during 2017–2026	€40	€70	€130
My choice	○	○	○

783

784

785 **Example of the choice set for animal husbandry farmers**

	Current programme	Alternative X	Alternative Y
Grazing season	Cattle, sheep and horses graze for under 3 months	Cattle, sheep and horses graze for over 3 months	Cattle, sheep and horses graze for over 6 months
Climate effects Share of the perennial plants from the arable area.	At least 20% of the area under cultivation with perennial plants	At least 40% of the area under cultivation with perennial plants	At least 60% of the area under cultivation with perennial plants
Water quality effects Reducing the amount of nutrient runoff with the measures chosen by the farmer. Measurement from the main drain.	Your farm's current nutrient flow	Nutrient flow decreased to 70%	Your farm's current nutrient flow
Traditional rural biotopes	Current area	Area is increased by 10 hectares	Area is increased by 5 hectares
Agri-environmental payment, €/ha/year, during 2021–2027	Your current agri-environmental payment per ha	€100	€350
My choice	○	○	○

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