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33 **1. Introduction**

34 Agricultural landscapes are comprised of a mosaic of cultivated and developed land and
35 undeveloped land with native vegetation cover. Increases in agricultural production, which is
36 important for food, unemployment and tax revenue to many economies in the world, have come,
37 in many cases, through the conversion of these natural ecosystems to managed agricultural
38 systems. Wetlands are one example of a productive and diverse natural ecosystem (Keddy et al.
39 2009). They provide important ecosystem services that benefit society including the removal of
40 excess nutrients, sediment and pesticides from agricultural runoff, sequestration of atmospheric
41 carbon, water storage, release and recharge of aquifers, habitat for wildlife and biodiversity
42 (Davies et al. 2008; Badiou et al. 2011; Gleason et al. 2011; Pattison et al. 2011; De Groot et al.
43 2012; Dias and Belcher, 2015; Vymazal, 2017). Wetlands make up about 6.1% of the worlds
44 land surface, excluding Antarctica (Junk et al. 2013; Reis et al. 2017). Unfortunately, the future
45 health of wetlands is uncertain. After reviewing 189 reports on wetlands, Davidson (2014) has
46 shown that the long-term natural wetland loss have averaged about 64-67% since 1900 AD.
47 Moreover, actions to protect and conserve wetlands, which varies across the world regions, are
48 relatively uncommon (Davidson, 2014).

49 Land conversion is one of the main threats to wetland ecosystems in agricultural
50 landscapes (Davidson 2014). For example, 40 – 71% of wetland areas in the Prairie Pothole
51 Region (PPR) of North America have been lost since European settlement (Tiner, 1984;
52 Environment Canada, 1986; Kraus, 2019) with agricultural development a major driver (Badiou
53 et al. 2011; Watmough and Schmoll, 2007). Also, according to Watmough and Schmoll (2007)
54 about 202,342.8 ha of wetlands have been lost in Canada’s PPR, of which about 125,452.5 ha

55 (62%) have been converted to agricultural land. Economic theory shows that wetland drainage
56 on agricultural landscapes can be explained as a mismatch between private costs and public
57 benefits of wetland retention and conservation. Wetlands within areas of annually cultivated land
58 impose significant private costs in the form of foregone crop production, or opportunity costs,
59 and nuisance costs, motivating agricultural producers to convert these areas to annual crop
60 production (Cortus et al. 2011; De Laporte 2014). At the same time, the ecosystem services
61 wetlands provide are enjoyed by society at large rather than just the agricultural producers. These
62 relationships are exacerbated with increases in food demand and the associated increase in
63 agricultural commodity prices and intensified production systems resulting in the incentive to
64 convert wetlands on agricultural lands to increase, especially on those lands most productive for
65 annual crop commodities (Lawley, 2019).

66 The PPR is a physically and economically heterogeneous landscape where the majority of
67 wetlands are on private lands and farmer participation in wetland conservation programs is
68 usually voluntary (Bruneau, 2017). As a result, wetland conservation objectives can only be
69 reached if the policy measures are attractive to prospective landowners. In this context, it has
70 been proposed that the targeting of conservation policy could be an effective approach to meet
71 the conservation objectives with a lower budget or conserving wetlands with higher ecosystem
72 values to society (which could be at a higher cost to society). This study will help to develop an
73 approach to inform wetland conservation policy that targets those wetlands that are at higher risk
74 of drainage due to their economic context and/or importance of their ecosystem services to
75 society. Specifically, we design a spatially explicit wetland conservation cost model to estimate
76 the private net financial returns from wetland drainage in the Canadian Prairies. We apply this
77 model to a sub-basin in the Vermillion River Basin in Alberta, Canada as a case study. The main

78 results of this study are a) private wetland conservation cost is heterogeneous within the study
79 area, b) wetlands that have low conservation/retention costs (low opportunity cost) are more
80 likely to offer less environmental benefits; in this case, the choice of policy targeting tool (or a
81 mix of them) becomes important in achieving a conservation goals for a given conservation
82 budget.

83 This paper contributes to the limited body of research that has examined the cost of
84 wetland conservation or retention to agricultural producers. The majority of the previous
85 research has focused on the field or farm scale where these costs are relatively homogeneous
86 (Gelso, 2008; Cortus et al. 2011) or estimated for a uniform, average cost of wetlands across the
87 landscape (see, for instance, Lawley and Towe, 2012 and Lawley, 2019). We extend the
88 representative farm approach used by Cortus et al. (2011) and De Laporte (2014) to estimate a
89 supply curve for wetlands in the study watershed. The estimates of wetland cost heterogeneity
90 can help to inform wetland policy initiatives and policy targeting.

91 This paper is comprised of five sections. Section two provides background information
92 on wetlands, including wetland conservation programs and wetland drainage on agricultural
93 lands, in the Prairie Pothole region of North America. Next, the methods used to explicitly
94 estimate the spatial heterogeneity in wetland conservation costs in the study area are discussed in
95 section three. The results of the study are presented and discussed in the context of the literature
96 on wetland conservation costs, in section four. Finally, the conclusion of the study, limitations of
97 the study and suggestions for future research are provided in section five.

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2. Background information on Wetlands in the PPR

The Prairie Pothole Region (PPR) of North America covers an area of 770,000 km² (Doherty et al. 2016) through three Canadian provinces (Alberta, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan) and four U.S states (North Dakota, South Dakota, Iowa, and Minnesota) (Brunet and Westbrook, 2011). Historically, wetlands, which are mostly characterized by depressional areas that receive water by local snowmelt or rain (Doherty et al. 2016), represented about 23% of the area in the PPR landscape (Euliss et al. 2006). According to Brunet and Westbrook (2011), wetlands in PPR are usually not greater than 15 ha, often less than 1.5m deep, and have a density of 5-90 per km². It should also be noted that wetlands are often not isolated basins with many being hydrologically connected through a process called fill and spill, in extremely wet periods (Spence, 2006).

Several studies have reported significant wetland loss across all three prairie provinces in Canada since European settlement (e.g. Kraus, 2019). For example, Euliss et al. (2006) estimated an annual wetland loss in Alberta of 0.5 percent. The policy context for this wetland loss includes, at the federal level, the government being responsible for wetland management only on federal lands, representing approximately 29% of wetlands in Canada (Rubec and Hanson, 2009). In Canada, the primary responsibility to manage wetlands lies with the provinces themselves (Rubec and Hanson, 2009). Wetland policies developed in each of the prairie provinces have distinctly different priorities with the Alberta Wetland Policy focusing on “no net loss” of wetland function and area by providing guidelines and directions on wetland management to sustain the benefits wetlands provide to the environment, society and the economy (Rubec and Hanson, 2009). In contrast, the Saskatchewan Water Management

124 Framework aims to manage wetland areas and their ecosystem functions by providing wetland
125 drainage licenses to farmers who follow provisions of the Saskatchewan Watershed Authority
126 Act (Rubec & Hanson, 2009). The Manitoba Water Right Regulation was amended in 2019 to
127 require a license to drain lower risk wetlands that includes a requirement to mitigate and
128 compensate for the loss of less permanent wetlands and prohibition of drainage of more
129 permanent wetlands (Government of Manitoba, not dated).

130 Where wetlands are located on private lands, participation in wetland management
131 programs is mostly voluntary which challenges the effectiveness of government policies to meet
132 wetland conservation objectives (Farnese and Belcher, 2006). Policy instruments that provide
133 monetary compensation to landowners are often viewed as a promising approach (Lawley and
134 Towe, 2012). Claassen et al. (2001) argued that compensation programs could also allow for
135 greater flexibility in wetland conservation than regulatory policies. For example, conservation
136 easement programs provide compensation to landowners who agree to retain habitats (such as
137 wetlands) and are present in several provinces in Canada through various conservation agencies,
138 such as Ducks Unlimited Canada (Bruneau, 2017; Lawley, 2019). Other payment-based
139 programs that have been implemented or proposed to conserve wetlands on private lands include
140 land trusts, enhanced forage conversion and land purchases (Lawley, 2019).

141 **2.1. Economics of Wetland Conservation Cost**

142 Surface and subsurface drainage are the two main water management approaches by
143 which the surface water contained in wetlands on agricultural landscapes are drained in the PPR
144 of North America (Cortus et al, 2011). Wetland drainage is mainly aimed at moving surface
145 water from potentially productive agricultural land. From the perspective of landowners who
146 have wetlands on their private lands, to motivate them to conserve wetlands a necessary level of

147 compensation would be approximately equal to the opportunity cost of the land in commodity
148 production minus drainage cost. For instance, according to Heimlich (1994), enrollment in the
149 Wetland Reserve Program (U.S wetland conservation program) required conservation easement
150 payments at least equal to the capitalized net-returns from agricultural production in perpetuity,
151 plus additional compensation for administrative cost and/or disruption to normal farming
152 operations. Heimlich's (1994) analysis supports the assumption that the forgone net-returns from
153 converting wetlands to croplands could serve as a proxy for private wetland conservation cost, at
154 the margin.

155 Published estimates of wetland conservation costs have been based on implicit prices of
156 permanent easements, since an easement restricts the conversion and development of the wetland
157 basin, decreased land values capture the forgone agricultural production (Shultz and Taff, 2004).
158 Shultz and Taff (2004), using a hedonic regression method, estimated the implicit price of
159 wetlands under permanent easement to be \$133/ha and under non-eased permanent wetlands to
160 be \$67/ha in southeastern North Dakota, US. Using a propensity matching method, Lawley and
161 Towe (2014) showed that wetlands under permanent easement reduced farmland prices by
162 \$37/ha in Manitoba, Canada. Using a discriminative reverse auction procedure, Hill et al. (2011)
163 estimated the average cost of restoring a drained wetland in the Assiniboine River Watershed of
164 east-central Saskatchewan to be \$294/ha/year for a 12-year contract.

165 A theoretical perceived cost of wetlands on agricultural lands was proposed by Gelso et
166 al. (2008) as the difference between the certainty equivalence of cultivating cropland with no
167 wetlands to cropping a field with wetlands. It is assumed agricultural producers perceive the
168 presence of wetlands on agricultural lands to negatively impact profits, and this perceived cost
169 increases with wetland area and having smaller wetlands dispersed on the cropland. Gelso et al.

170 (2008) estimated a perceived cost function using a contingent valuation method with data from
171 farmers in Kansas, U.S, and showed that: 1) additional area of wetland in a quarter-section
172 increases perceived cost by \$0.24/ha, 2) additional costs imposed with wetlands dispersed in four
173 separate areas instead of one is \$1.75/ha, and it is \$4.35/ha if wetlands are dispersed in 16
174 separate areas instead of one. In contrast, Cortus et al. (2011) used a dynamic stochastic cash
175 flow simulation model to estimate the net private benefit of wetland drainage by a representative
176 grain producer in Saskatchewan, Canada. They found that the annual net-private benefit of
177 wetland drainage ranged from \$38.35/ha on a 260 ha farm to \$41.696/ha on a 1,295 ha farm.

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179 **3.0. Methodology**

180 The study area is a sub-basin which covers an area of 156.91 km² or 242 quarter sections¹
181 in the Vermillion River Basin of Minburn County, Alberta, Canada (Figure 1). We chose this
182 study area as we had access to good data coverage.

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184 **Figure 1.** Distribution of Wetlands in the Area and their Distances to Watercourse.

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186 The 2010 Alberta Merged Wetland Inventory (Alberta Environment and Parks, 2010)
187 was used to spatially identify wetlands in the study area. The distribution of wetlands in the
188 study area, including their distances to watercourses, is shown in Figure 1. We assumed that
189 wetland basins that are located closer to a watercourse had lower drainage costs due to a
190 requirement for less earth movement to establish drainage infrastructure. Flow outlet is the
191 location where water from within the identified watershed exits to the adjacent landscape; it is
192 generally the lowest point of the watershed.

¹ One-quarter section equals 160 acres or 65 hectares.

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3.1. Modeling Wetland Conservation Costs

Our study adds spatially explicit cost information to the methodology of Cortus et al. (2011) to develop watershed-scale estimates of the net-private benefit of wetland drainage . For this study the net private benefit of drainage, or wetland conservation cost, is defined as the present value of net-returns from producing annual crops on the drained wetland basin (assuming a canola-spring wheat rotation), less the cost of wetland drainage, over 50 years. For our analysis, we assumed a canola-spring wheat crop rotation based on the fact the two crops are the dominant varieties cultivated in this region of Alberta, Canada (Alberta Agriculture and Forestry, 2016) and the canola-spring wheat crop rotation is a common crop management approach. In the canola and spring wheat rotation, odd year revenues will be based on canola yield and price and even years will be based on wheat yield and price. Information on crop yields, crop prices and production costs that will be used to estimate the the present value of net-returns from producing annual crops is obtained from Alberta Agriculture and Forestry (2021).

To estimate the present value of a 50-year crop production planning horizon, we used the capital market line theory approach (Sharpe et al. 2000) to estimate a risk-adjusted discount rate of 8.3%² which was used to discount the annual net returns of the canola and spring wheat rotation. Many studies have used the capital market approach to estimate discount rates in agricultural settings. For instance, Cortus et al. (2011), based on this approach, used a discount

² We followed Sharpe et al. (2000) to estimate the risk-adjusted discount rate. The standard deviation of crop returns (2004 to 2018) which is \$27/acre was estimated using data from ministry of Agriculture, Alberta (<https://open.alberta.ca/publications/agriprofit-cost-and-return-benchmarks-for-crops-and-forages-irrigated-soil-zone>). The expected market returns (2004 to 2020) from the Canadian stock exchange (TSX) and standard deviation are 5.6% and 16%, respectively, and were calculated using data froml Yahoo Finance (<https://finance.yahoo.com/quote/%5EGSPTSE/history?period1=299462400&period2=1622678400&interval=1mo&filter=history&frequency=1mo&includeAdjustedClose=true>). The expected market returns from yearly Canadian government issued treasury bills (2004 to 2020) which is 1.69% was estimated using data from the Bank of Canada (<https://www.bankofcanada.ca/rates/interest-rates/t-bill-yields/>).

212 rate of 10% for wetland drainage in Saskatchewan; Koeckhoeven (2008) estimated a discount
 213 rate of 7.5% for crop and cattle production in Alberta. To enable us to compare our wetland
 214 conservation cost estimates with the results in Cortus et al. (2011), a similar study, we chose a
 215 50-year time horizon because our risk-free interest rate estimate was lower than that in Cortus et
 216 al. (2011) with a 20-year time horizon. The formula for estimating the wetland conservation cost
 217 \$/ha for a 50-year period (i.e. opportunity cost of the land) in the study area is provided below,
 218 Equation (1):

$$219 \quad NPB_i = (\sum_{o=1}^{49} (pr * a_i * (pc * w_i * yc - cc) * (1 + r)^{-o})$$

$$220 \quad + \sum_{e=0}^{48} (pr * a_i * (pw * w_i * yw - cw) * (1 + r)^{-e}) - a_i * DC_i) / a_i \quad (1)$$

221 where,
 222 NPB_i = Net present benefit of the i th drained wetland (\$/Ha)
 223 pr = Probability of harvesting after drainage
 224 w_i = Relative Soil productivity weight for the i th wetland
 225 a_i = Area of the i th wetland drained (Ha)
 226 r = Private discount rate = 8.3%
 227 o = Odd years; year 1 to year 49
 228 e = Even years; year 0 to year 48
 229 pc, pw = Price of canola (\$673.5 per Tonne), price of spring wheat (\$294.2 per Tonne)
 230 yc = Average yield of canola (3.1 Tonnes per Ha)
 231 yw = Average yield of spring wheat (4.4 Tonnes per Ha)
 232 cc = Average cost of production of canola (\$822.2 per Ha)
 233 cw = Average production cost of spring wheat (\$659.3 per Ha)
 234 DC = Drainage cost per Ha of drained wetland
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236 The expected spatial heterogeneity in wetland conservation cost, Equation (1), is driven
 237 mainly by the heterogeneity in crop yield and wetland drainage cost in the study area. Moreover,
 238 Equation (1) is estimated given certain parameters, in particular, crop prices, cost of production,
 239 probability of harvesting, surface drainage cost and crop yields. In a sensitivity analysis, using a
 240 Monte Carlo simulation method, we assess how changing the probability of harvesting, cost of
 241 production, and crop prices influences the NPV. The Monte Carlo simulations incorporate

242 uncertainty into the analysis and can assess how changes in the parameters affect the NPV
243 results. We assume triangular distributions for the parameters and Table 1 presents the minimum,
244 average, and maximum values used for each parameter. We use 1,000 draws from these
245 distributions and calculate Equation (1) for each of these draws. The main analysis incorporates
246 uncertainty for surface drainage cost and crop yields. Next, the sources of heterogeneity in crop
247 yield and drainage cost are discussed in sections 3.2 and 3.3, respectively.

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249 **Table 1. Triangular Distributions Assumptions**

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253 **3.2. Spatial Heterogeneity in Net-returns from Cropping Drained Wetlands**

254 Net returns from converting a wetland to annual crop production can be measured as the
255 net crop revenue (crop price multiplied by the yield minus all production costs). In this study, we
256 assume crop yield is heterogeneous, with site specific soil productivity driven primarily by the
257 heterogeneity in specific soil characteristics, including soil nutrients, soil texture, and
258 topography. Agricultural land assessment values in Alberta represent the potential productivity
259 of soils for agricultural production (Alberta Municipal Affair, 2018) and we use these values as a
260 measure of the heterogeneity in land productivity. The mean land assessment value within the
261 study area was \$278.43/ha, with a minimum (maximum) value of \$17.30/ha (\$895.12/ha). The
262 interquartile range and standard deviation of land assessment values were \$143.02/ha and
263 \$105.24/ha, respectively.

264 A relative soil productivity weight was used to account for the heterogeneity in crop
265 yields across the landscape in the study area. To ensure that the variability in soil productivity
266 followed that of crop yield variability in the study area, the relative soil productivity weight was
267 derived from the land assessment values and the variability in canola yields in Alberta. The
268 variability in canola yield was used as a proxy for yield variability within the study area.
269 Specifically, the proportions of the maximum and minimum yields of canola, in Alberta, relative
270 to the average yield of canola were used to constrain the relative soil productivity weight to lie
271 between 0 and 1.2, and to reflect the variability in canola yield in the study area. Using this
272 approach, soils with lower land assessment values will have lower relative soil productivity
273 weights, which are closer to the ratio of minimum yield to the average yield of canola. The
274 opposite will be true for soils with higher land assessment values. Table 2 shows the regional
275 benchmarks on annual crop production in Alberta for black soil zone. In the absence of specific
276 information, we make the assumption that the soil within a drained wetland basin would have
277 similar productivity characteristics as the soil in the surrounding quarter section.

278 **Table 2. Regional Benchmarks on Annual Crop Production in Alberta, Canada**

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280 The relative soil productivity weights for wetlands in the study area were estimated using the
281 following equation, Equation (2).

282
$$RSW_i = ((LAV_i - MinLAV)/(MaxLAV - MinLAV)) * (MaxY - MinY) + MinY \quad (2)$$

283 where: RSW_i is the relative soil productivity weight for the i th quarter section, LAV_i is the land
284 assessment value for the i th quarter section, MinLAV (MaxLAV) is the minimum (maximum)
285 land assessment value for the study area, MinY (MaxY) is the proportions of the minimum
286 (maximum) yield of canola in Alberta relative to the average canola yield in Alberta.

287 Moreover, when wetland basins are converted to annual crop production, the basin,
288 which represents a low area within a field, may be more prone to recurrent wetness than the
289 adjacent upland which could delay seeding and the date when the crop is mature, or in very wet
290 years, preclude seeding. To address this we assumed that the drained wetland basins would be
291 too wet in two out of ten years while successfully producing annual crops eight out of ten years.
292 Therefore, we included a probability of harvesting parameter of 0.8 to reflect this condition;
293 however, the uncertainty of this assumption is addressed by testing the sensitivity of this
294 assumption in a robustness check.

295 **3.3. Spatial Heterogeneity in Drainage Cost**

296 Surface drainage is the dominant form of wetland drainage in the PPR and we assume
297 surface drainage as the basis for estimating drainage cost within the study area. Drainage cost is
298 assumed to be a one-time investment that would enable drainage of the wetland basin for 50
299 years, with routine maintenances and rehabilitation of drainage infrastructure. To represent the
300 spatial difference in drainage cost we further assume that cost is influenced by the relative
301 distance of a wetland to a watercourse since wetlands closer to watercourses will require less
302 earth movement with shorter and possibly shallower ditches that are relatively easier and cheaper
303 to construct. We calculated the relative distance variable as the ratio of the distance of a wetland
304 to a watercourse (meters) to the average distance (meters) of all the wetlands to watercourses in
305 the study area. The range of values of the relative distance is from 0 to 3.99 (which are unitless).
306 Wetlands with relative distances less than one represents wetlands located closer to the
307 watercourse compared to the other wetlands in the study area. In contrast, a wetland with a
308 relative distance value of 3.99 would represent a wetland that is farther from the watercourse
309 compared to the other wetlands.

310 A drainage cost function was developed to estimate the surface drainage cost per hectare
311 for the i th wetland, and it is the sum of the fixed cost and the variable cost of surface drainage,
312 Equation (3). We assumed surface drainage fixed cost of \$494/ha for the 50-year lifetime of the
313 drainage project. The fixed cost of drainage represents all other costs that could be associated
314 with surface wetland drainage, including administrative costs and maintenance/rehabilitation
315 costs. The variable cost component of the surface drainage cost is the product of the relative
316 distance variable and the distance coefficient. A value of 277.2 was chosen for the distance
317 coefficient such that the maximum (minimum) drainage cost across the study area will be
318 \$1600/ha (\$494/ha), Equation (3); since the minimum and maximum relative distances of
319 wetlands to watercourse are 0 and 3.99, respectively. Cortus (2005) used surface drainage costs
320 of \$234/ha to \$1547/ha in 2021³ for his wetland drainage study in Saskatchewan. The range of
321 surface drainage cost in Cortus (2005) partly informed us to choose a maximum surface drainage
322 cost of \$1600/ha in our study, and also to reflect the potential differences in costs between
323 Saskatchewan and Alberta.

$$324 \quad DC_i = FC_i + 277.2 * RD_i \quad (3)$$

325 where: DC_i is the drainage cost for the i th wetland; FC_i is the fixed cost of the i th wetland, and
326 RD_i is the relative distance of the i th wetland to a watercourse.

327 3.4. Wetland Ecosystem Function Benefits

328 We use Alberta's Relative Wetland Value (RWV) Spatial Information (Creed and
329 Aldred, 2015) as a measure of the ecosystem benefits of a wetland. The RWV categorizes all
330 wetland basins located in a given quarter section using a four-level scale (A, B, C or D) whereby

³ We converted the 2005 \$/ha to 2021 \$/ha by multiplying the ratio of the average of 2021 monthly (up to May) consumer price indexes to the average of 2005 monthly consumer price indexes (which is 1.3) to the surface drainage cost in 2005. The consumer price index data was obtained from <https://www.bankofcanada.ca/?p=39863>, which was assessed on July 27, 2021.

331 A represents the highest ecosystem values and D represents the lowest ecosystem values. The
332 ecosystem values are assessed on four characteristics: 1) hydrological health function, 2) water
333 quality function, 3) ecological health function, and 4) human use function of the wetlands. As the
334 names of the characteristic imply, the RWV measures ecosystem functions and not the relevant
335 ecosystem services that can form the basis for monetary valuation. Lacking more detailed
336 information on ecosystem services, we use the RWV metric as a proxy.

337 The RWV provides information on the areas of A, B, C, or D wetlands in each quarter
338 section within the study watershed. From this information, we computed a variable (beneficial
339 wetland ratio) as the ratio of the sum of the area of wetland A or B in a quarter section to the
340 total area of all wetlands (A, B, C, and D) in the same quarter section; we assumed that a
341 beneficial wetland ratio greater than 0.5 would mean that the wetlands in a given quarter section
342 are likely to be of high ecosystem values. Therefore, we identified wetlands in the study area to
343 be highly beneficial wetlands (that is either A or B wetlands) if they were located in a quarter-
344 section with a beneficial wetland ratio of at least 0.5. Using this criterion, about 369 wetlands
345 (with a total of 52.3 ha) were identified as highly beneficial wetlands. Using this same approach
346 we identified approximately 94 and 3,115 wetlands as C and D wetlands respectively. The
347 number of C wetlands were relatively low, therefore these were grouped with the D wetlands to
348 form beneficial wetlands (C and D wetlands) with a total of 413.3 ha.

349 Given the heterogeneity in wetland costs and benefits across the landscape, it appears that
350 the targeting of wetland conservation efforts may be important to meet conservation objectives.

351 We assess four different wetland conservation targeting scenarios:

352 a) high benefit targeting scenario— aimed at conserving wetlands with relatively high
353 ecosystem functions (A and B wetlands),

- 354 b) least cost targeting scenario –aimed at conserving wetlands with relatively low
355 conservation cost, and
- 356 c) low benefit targeting scenario– aimed at conserving wetlands with a relatively low
357 ecosystem functions (C and D wetlands),
- 358 d) No targeting – aimed at randomly conserving about 50 percent of wetlands in a
359 quarter section.

360 To characterize the range and pattern of wetland conservation costs in the study area we
361 applied Equation (1) to the natural resource conservation targeting scenarios. We rank the costs
362 of conserving each wetland from the lowest cost to most expensive to derive the wetland supply
363 curve. The supply curve show the potential cumulative area of wetlands that could be conserved
364 in the study area for a given “price” which covers the marginal cost of conserving each
365 additional wetland.⁴ The 95 percent confidence interval lines presented around the supply curves
366 were generated using the “boot” package in R (Kirby and Gerlanc, 2013); the package estimated
367 the sample mean of wetland conservation cost in 100,000 bootstrap replicates. Also, the 95
368 confidence interval was estimated assuming a normal distribution of the replicates.

369 Given a wetland conservation budget, a common policy objective might be to prioritize
370 the conservation of highly beneficial wetlands (A or B) since they would provide relatively more
371 valuable ecosystem services to society. The total wetland conservation cost for all the beneficial
372 wetlands in this study (369 wetlands), would be the maximum estimated wetland conservation
373 cost, Equation (1), for all the highly beneficial wetlands multiplied by the maximum of the
374 cumulative sum of the wetland area for the 369 wetlands. The cumulative sum of wetland area
375 would be computed by ranking the estimated wetland conservation cost for all the wetlands in

⁴ The costs to conserve each wetland are average field costs, and these might be different from the marginal costs for each wetland.

376 the study area in descending order. This amount would be the potential wetland conservation
377 budget for the beneficial wetlands in the study area. We adopt this wetland conservation budget
378 as the total budget in the other targeting scenarios to ensure that the results are comparable at the
379 wetland conservation budget level.

380 To identify wetlands in the cost targeting scenario, we ranked the estimated wetland
381 conservation cost for all the wetlands in the study area in descending order and computed its
382 cumulative sum. We selected wetlands for the cost targeting scenario such that the total wetland
383 conservation cost for the nth wetland in the ranking (for all wetlands in the basin) would be equal
384 to the wetland conservation budget.

385 Similarly, we selected C and D wetlands for the low benefit targeting scenario such that
386 the wetland conservation cost for the nth wetland in the ranking (for all wetlands in the C and D
387 wetland set) would be equal to the wetland conservation budget. The same procedure would be
388 used to select the wetlands in the no targeting scenario, after about 50 percent of wetlands for
389 each quarter section in the study were randomly selected. This random selection of wetlands
390 could mimic situations where regulation requires producers to conserve 50 percent of wetlands in
391 the sub watershed based on reasons that are not correlated with conservation costs. The sampling
392 process was completed using the “Sample” function in the R statistical package.

393 We compute the correlation between the least cost wetland and low benefit wetlands
394 using the “crosstable_statistics function” from the “sjstats v0.17 package” in R version 4.0. The
395 “crosstable_statistics” function computes the Phi correlation coefficient which is appropriate for
396 measuring the degree of correlation between dichotomous variables (Akoglu, 2018) such as
397 least cost wetlands, high benefit wetlands, and low benefit wetlands. A positive correlation

398 statistic, for instance, between low cost wetlands and low benefit wetlands would mean that
399 wetlands that have low net present values are also less likely to offer low environmental benefits.

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401 **4.0. Results and Discussion**

402 **4.1. Heterogeneity in Wetland Conservation Costs**

403 About 38.3% of the wetlands have negative wetland conservation cost (net present
404 value); this means that producers will not have an economic incentive to convert the wetland
405 areas to cropland. Therefore, for this section we present the results on the wetlands with positive
406 wetland conservation cost. The mean annual net present value (NPV) is \$2,404/ha. The standard
407 deviation of the NPVs is \$2,796/ha, which indicates that the wetland conservation cost is
408 heterogeneous within the study area. The maximum NPV is \$19,617/ha. We rank all the
409 wetlands from lowest to the highest cost and we illustrate the resulting supply curve for wetland
410 conservation in Figure 2; since wetlands with negative NPV are likely not to be drained we
411 change their wetland areas to 0 ha and NPV to \$0/ha.

412
413 **Figure 2. Supply Curve for Wetland Conservation in the Study Area.**

414
415 The positive slope of the supply curve (Figure 2) shows that wetland conservation cost
416 (or payment) has a positive effect on the total wetland areas that could be conserved in the study
417 area, all things being equal. Moreover, the slope of the supply curve increases along the curve
418 (from left to right on the x-axis) which shows that changes in wetland conservation cost changes
419 as the total wetland area conserved decreases along the curve (or the elasticity of the supply
420 curve reduces along the curve). The elasticity of the supply curve represents the percentage
421 change in wetland area conserved given percentage change in wetland conservation cost. For

422 instance, for a 100 percent increase in wetland conservation cost, for example from \$2,500/ha to
423 \$5,000/ha, an additional 140 ha of wetlands could be conserved for \$1,325,000, but when
424 wetland conservation costs increases from \$5,000 to \$10,000 (100% increase) an additional 70
425 ha could be conserved for \$2,650,000. Therefore, as we move along the supply curve there is an
426 increase in the marginal cost of conservation, or, fewer wetlands could be conserved by society
427 at a higher cost.

428 The average annualized wetland conservation cost is \$187/ha⁵. Cortus (2005) estimated
429 the average annual net benefit of wetland drainage to be in the range \$50/ha - \$60.2/ha in 2021
430 dollars (which increased with farm size). Any potential difference in our estimate and Cortus
431 (2005) estimates could be attributed to differences in crop rotation used to estimate the values,
432 productivity of eastern Saskatchewan compared to eastern Alberta, and changes in production
433 technology over time. Again, the unit of crop yields (tonne/ha) and crop prices (\$/tonne) in our
434 study are different from Cortus (2005) which were bushel/ha and \$/ha, respectively, and this
435 shows how economic changes could drive cost changes over time. Also, Lawley and Towe
436 (2014) estimated that wetlands under permanent easement programs in Manitoba, Canada,
437 reduced farmland prices by \$48/ha in 2021 dollars. The conservation cost of wetland in other
438 studies are \$237/ha⁶ (Shultz and Taff, 2004) and \$341/ha⁷ (Hill et al. 2011). Therefore, we feel
439 that our estimate could be in the higher region of the range of wetland conservation costs in the
440 Prairie Pothole region of North America. However, average or representative wetland
441 conservation cost estimates only capture a small part of the information presented in the spatial

⁵ Following Macháč et al. (2016) The formula for the estimating the annualized wetland conservation cost (AnWCC) is $AnWCC = NPB * r * (1 + r)^{50} / ((1 + r)^{50} - 1)^{-1}$, where NPB is net present benefit of drainage for 50-year period; r is discount rate (8.3%).

⁶ A conversion factor of 1.37 (ratio of 2020 CPI to 2004 CPI) was used to convert US\$133/ha (the implicit price of wetlands under permanent easement in North Dakota) to US\$182/ha, and then to C\$237/ha using an exchange rate of 1.3 (C\$/US\$). US CPI data was obtained from <https://fred.stlouisfed.org/series/USACPIALLAINMEI>.

⁷ The cost of restoring a drained wetland in the Assiniboine River watershed in eastern Saskatchewan.

442 heterogeneity of wetland conservation costs in a landscape (Figure 2). Therefore, these estimates
443 should be used with caution to inform a wetland conservation policy.

444 The sensitivity analysis results show that, on average, canola and wheat commodity
445 prices, probability of harvest, and cost of production have significant effects (positive) on NPV
446 estimates (Figure A2 in appendix). This means that future changes in crop commodity prices, in
447 particular, would have positive influence on the areas of wetlands that are converted to
448 croplands, which is consistent with the observation in De Laporte (2014).

449 **4.2. Wetland Conservation Policy Targeting**

450 Unlike a wetland conservation policy targeting approach, Figure 2 does not show the
451 differences in wetland conservation costs for conserving different classes of wetlands, such as
452 wetlands with high environmental attributes and/or low economic values (NPVs). The summary
453 statistic results (Table 3) of the wetland conservation targeting in this study show that the
454 average wetland conservation cost in the least-cost targeting scenario is \$189/ha, which is lower
455 than the average cost in the other targeting scenarios, including the high benefit targeting
456 scenario. The average conservation cost in the high benefit targeting scenario is the largest
457 (\$2,322/ha). However, there is variation in the wetland conservation cost estimates for the
458 scenarios.

459 **Table 3. Summary Statistics of Wetland Conservation Targeting Scenarios and the** 460 **Status Quo (Nontargeting)**

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464 The supply curves of the wetland conservation targeting policies (high benefit targeting,
465 no targeting random scenario, low benefit targeting and least cost targeting) are shown in Figure
466 3. Similar to the supply curve for all the wetlands (status quo scenario) in Figure 2, the
467 elasticities of the supply curves decrease along the curve from left to right. Therefore, the

468 observation in Figure 2 that as we move along the supply curve (from left to right) fewer
469 wetlands could be conserved by society and at a higher cost, is also true for the supply curves for
470 the targeting scenarios. However, the supply curve for the highly beneficial targeting scenario is
471 more elastic than the other two, which show that significantly less wetland area could be
472 conserved at a significantly higher cost than in the other two scenarios.

473

474 **Figure 3. Supply Curves for Wetlands in the High Benefit, Random, Low Benefit and Least**
475 **Cost Targeting Scenarios.**

476

477 When examining the correlation between wetland conservation cost and wetland benefit,
478 about 9% of the wetlands identified as least cost were also high benefit wetlands (A and B
479 wetlands) while approximately 91% of the wetlands identified as least cost were also low benefit
480 wetlands (C and D). Further, a Phi coefficient of 0.07 between (significant at 1%, p -value <
481 0.001) between the two dichotomous variables, least cost and low benefit wetlands, show that
482 wetlands that are identified as least cost are more likely to offer low environmental benefits for
483 the study area; the result shows that choosing the right policy targeting tool becomes important
484 in achieving a conservation goal for a given conservation budget (Wu et al. 2001). For instance,
485 if we assume society has a goal of conserving all the 52.3 hectares of wetlands (high ecosystem
486 valued wetlands (A and B); at the margin, it would cost society about \$6,466/ha at the margin,
487 with a total wetland conservation budget of \$338,172 over a 50 year period (Figure 3). Given this
488 same wetland conservation goal of 52.3 ha, society would spend \$52,300 (at \$500/ha at the
489 margin) for both the least cost targeting and low benefit targeting scenarios, respectively. If
490 society was to change its conservation target of high ecosystem value wetlands by just 50%,
491 from 52.3 ha to 26.1 ha, the total conservation cost would decrease to \$78,300 (at \$3,000/ha),

492 leaving about \$259,872 to conserve other wetlands. About \$230,000 could conserve about 100
493 ha of least cost wetlands (at \$1,200/ha at the margin) and about 100 ha of C and D wetlands (at
494 \$1,100/ha at the margin). Therefore, using policy targeting (in this case a blend), society could
495 conserve more wetlands, including a significant area of highly beneficial wetlands. What we can
496 not demonstrate is if the increase in conserved wetland area results in an overall decrease or
497 increase in the provision of wetland ecosystem services when compared to the targeting of high
498 ecosystem value wetlands. This is because from a social welfare perspective, it will not always
499 follow that greater area of conserved wetland area is always preferred to smaller areas of quality
500 wetlands.

501 In the long-run, significant reductions in the wetland conservation target of 52.3 ha (high
502 ecosystem valued wetlands) is expected to free more resources to conserve significantly more
503 wetlands in the other scenarios without reducing the potential quality of ecosystem services.
504 Society might benefit from these additional conserved wetlands, especially if these conserved
505 wetlands, including those with lower ecosystem values, improve the quality of their ecosystem
506 functions over time.

507 **5.0. Conclusion**

508 We developed a spatially explicit wetland conservation cost model to estimate the
509 economic value of private returns from wetland drainage scenarios, using an agriculture
510 dominated sub-basin watersheds in the Vermilion River Basin, Alberta, as a case study. The
511 study shows that wetland conservation costs are highly heterogeneous within the study area.
512 Also, the study showed a positive correlation between the least cost wetlands and wetlands that
513 offer low environmental benefits, suggesting that the choice of a wetland policy targeting

514 strategies is important in achieving a wetland conservation goal in the study area under a given
515 conservation budget.

516 The results of our study contribute to the literature on wetland conservation by showing
517 that not all wetlands impose the same cost of conservation on an agricultural producer in the
518 study area. Therefore, using a targeted wetland conservation policy could help society conserve
519 more wetlands than using a non-targeted policy (which assumes that all wetlands are the same in
520 terms of economic and environmental values). Other studies on wetland conservation costs
521 produce localized estimates of conservation costs unlike the landscape-scale estimates from our
522 study which were mostly used in non-targeted wetland conservation policies.

523 Our study is limited only to the private benefit of wetland drainage. While we did include
524 a rough proxy for ecosystem service provision from wetlands using Alberta's Relative Wetland
525 Value classification scheme, an important complement to our study would be spatially explicit
526 monetary estimates of the social benefit of wetland conservation. Knowledge of the social
527 monetary benefits of wetland conservation would enable an informed wetland conservation
528 policy recommendation, from a spatially explicit perspective. Future studies are encouraged to
529 conduct a spatially explicit model on the social benefit of wetland conservation, which has not
530 been done in the wetland conservation literature. Again, future studies are encouraged to model
531 off-site drainage costs, which may be an important component of wetland drainage costs to
532 society.

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Table 1. Triangular Distributions Assumptions

Simulation Parameter	Triangular Distribution Parameters		
	Minimum	Maximum	Average
Cost of Production - Canola (\$/Ha)	564.20	920.00	685.20
Cost of Production - Wheat (\$/Ha)	650.52	933.33	803.70
Price of Canola (\$/Tonne)	223.74	673.45	420.95
Price of Wheat (\$/Tonne)	192.86	295.11	242.44
Probability of Harvesting	0.5	1	0.8

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Table 2. Regional Benchmarks on Annual Crop Production in Alberta, Canada

	Low		High		Average	
	Canola	Spring Wheat	Canola	Spring Wheat	Canola	Spring Wheat
Yield (Tonne/Ha)	2.14	2.71	3.28	4.19	2.74	3.59

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Adapted from the Government of Alberta Agriculture and Rural Development (2012a and 2012b).

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Table 3. Summary Statistics of Wetland Conservation Targeting Scenarios and the Status Quo (Nontargeting)

Variable	Nontargeting	Least Cost Targeting	High Benefit Targeting	Low Benefit Targeting
Mean NPV/Ha	\$2,404	\$189	\$2,322	\$207
95% C. I	[\$2,313-\$2,496]	[\$170-\$208]	[\$2,090-\$2,555]	[\$186-\$229]
S.D NPV	\$2,796	\$408	\$2,270	\$435
Maximum NPV	\$19,617	\$1,526	\$6,466	\$1,623
Total Wetland (ha)	465.6	148.4	52.3	140.5
Total Ha of A & B	52.3	14.5	52.3	0
Total Ha of C & D	413.3	134	0	140.5
Number of Wetlands	3,584	1,781	369	1,621

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NPV denotes the net present value of drained wetland; C.I denotes confidence interval; S.D denotes standard deviation; Num denotes number; A represents wetlands with the highest ecosystem values and D represents wetlands with the lowest ecosystem values.