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Title

The power of information for targeting cost-effective conservation investments in multifunctional farmlands

Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3cr2c7j6>

Journal

Environmental Modelling & Software, 26(1)

ISSN

1364-8152

Authors

Stoms, David M
Kreitler, Jason
Davis, Frank W

Publication Date

2011

DOI

10.1016/j.envsoft.2010.03.008

Peer reviewed

Manuscript Number:

Title: The power of information for targeting cost-effective conservation investments in multifunctional farmlands

Article Type: Special Issue: NRM Investment Decisions

Keywords: spatial targeting; farmland preservation; marginal value; benefits; costs; Great Central Valley; California; threats; additionality; ecosystem services; urban growth management

Corresponding Author: Dr David Stoms, Ph.D.

Corresponding Author's Institution: University of California Santa Barbara

First Author: David Stoms, Ph.D.

Order of Authors: David Stoms, Ph.D.; Jason Kreitler, PhD candidate; Frank W Davis, Ph.D.

Abstract: Decisions about which places to conserve are based upon the geographic heterogeneity of three types of information: public goods or benefits, their vulnerability to threats, and the costs to avert those threats. The choice of public goods depends on the mission of the conservation organization (e.g., biodiversity, open space, cultural values, or farmland). For spatial targeting of conservation at the regional scale, practitioners must estimate the values of these types of information. The quality of the estimations will vary by the primary data used, the assumptions made, and the practitioner's technical ability to analyze complex data. This paper contributes to the growing literature by presenting a systematic evaluation of effect of the quality of the estimation on the cost-effectiveness of the set of sites selected for conservation based upon those estimates. The specific case study targets farmland for preservation from urban development in California's Central Valley where a new land trust was recently established to purchase conservation easements. In one analysis, we compared the cost-effectiveness of farmland benefits using our most sophisticated estimation procedures to those that ignored costs and/or potential loss (i.e., assumed they were equal among sites). Excluding information about the potential loss of resources caused only a slight decrease in cost-effectiveness. On the other hand, ignoring cost information was extremely inefficient. The second analysis compared the performance of the sophisticated estimated to increasingly simpler estimates, such as those that are representative of the methods used by many American farmland preservation programs. The simplification of the estimates caused a 5- to 20-fold decline in the benefits that could be retained for a given budget. To make more cost-effective targeting strategies accessible to farmland preservation programs, we recommend that researchers develop new spatial targeting tools to overcome obstacles in data processing.

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 Conservation practitioners, whether protecting biodiversity, open space, ecosystem services, or
3 farmland, are always challenged to be effective and efficient with their limited funds. Their
4 underlying goal is either to maximize the conservation assets they can protect or minimize loss
5 of assets with a fixed budget (Kirkpatrick, 1983; Cocks and Baird, 1989; Pressey and Nicholls,
6 1989; Hyman and Leibowitz, 2000; Margules and Pressey, 2000; Haight et al., 2005; Machado et
7 al., 2006; Messer, 2006; Wünscher et al., 2008). They need the assistance of researchers to
8 develop performance measures to accomplish their goals. The challenge for researchers is to
9 transform a multitude of scientific and technical data into useful and understandable information
10 for decision makers to set conservation priorities. A calculated performance measure is
11 inherently an estimate of the “true” conservation value of a site. Better estimates of conservation
12 value should lead to more cost-effective decisions, but they come at a price of greater data
13 collection and analytical capability to implement. Moreover, performance measures that are too
14 difficult for practitioners to implement will seldom be used. On the other hand, measures that are
15 overly simplistic may lead to inferior decisions. How much cost-effectiveness suffers in response
16 to poorer estimates of the performance measure has not been adequately studied.

17 Newburn et al. (2005) described three components or types of information for calculating a
18 performance measure for conservation planning: benefits, costs, and loss. In their terminology,
19 “benefits” refers to the conservation assets currently occurring in a site. Loss is the reduction in
20 the quantity or quality of benefits that would result from land use changes that are likely to occur
21 if conservation action is not taken. Costs are the expenses to prevent the loss of benefits and may
22 include acquisition, management, transaction, and opportunity costs. Newburn et al. (2005)
23 proceeded to describe four conservation targeting strategies based on different combinations of

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24 these types of information. The Benefits-only targeting strategy obviously employs just the
25 benefits information component. The focus is on identifying potential conservation areas with
26 the greatest assets, regardless of their costs or vulnerability to loss. Conservation practice often
27 uses a Benefits-only strategy, both by large governmental programs (Babcock et al., 1997;
28 Ribaldo et al., 2001) and by local conservation groups (Tulloch et al., 2003). Recent papers in
29 conservation planning have urged the explicit consideration of costs in addition to benefits for
30 efficient protection (Babcock et al., 1997; Ando et al., 1998; Hyman and Leibowitz, 2000;
31 Newburn et al., 2005; Messer, 2006; Naidoo et al., 2006; Davis et al., 2006; Murdoch et al.,
32 2007; Perhans et al., 2008). This “Benefits-Cost” targeting strategy typically ranks sites by the
33 ratio of benefits to costs. A small but growing number of researchers have also promoted the use
34 of information about the net benefits of conservation per unit of cost (Hyman and Leibowitz,
35 2000; Newburn et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2006), which corresponds to the “Benefits-Loss-Cost”
36 targeting strategy. Wünscher et al. (2008) use the term “benefits additionality” to indicate that
37 the performance measure should only account for the contribution that conservation action
38 makes, which is only the benefits that would be lost without action. This strategy aims to
39 minimize loss of benefits for a given budget. To estimate potential loss requires a forecast or
40 scenario of future land use. Newburn et al. (2005) demonstrated conceptually how each targeting
41 strategy would select different types of areas, where the accuracy of the performance measure
42 could in principle lead to selection of some parcels with little overall gain in public good.

43 In addition to the choice of which combination of benefits, loss, and cost factors to include, the
44 degree of sophistication in modeling each factor affects the estimated performance measure. We
45 refer here to the level of sophistication as the “quality of information.” Frequently the quality of
46 information used corresponds to the number of types of information used. That is, planning

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47 based on the simplest data tends to use Benefits-only targeting, and the most complex data is
48 usually compiled for Benefits-Loss-Cost strategies. Simple scoring indices have often been used
49 as a measure of the conservation benefits (Pressey and Nicholls, 1989; Babcock et al., 1997;
50 Guikema and Milke, 1999, Tulloch et al., 2003). They remain popular in practice, particularly
51 with smaller conservation organizations, because the data requirements are relatively modest and
52 the method is understandable by policy makers and the public (Hoobler et al., 2003; Sokolow
53 and Zurbrugg, 2003, Tulloch et al., 2003). The Loss and Cost types of information by their
54 nature tend to be more complex. At present the nature and magnitude of these tradeoffs are
55 poorly understood. Are relatively complex spatial analyses to derive new data sets necessary or
56 can readily available public data provide adequate performance estimates to set regional
57 conservation priorities?

58 We address this problem here by comparing the overall cost-effectiveness of targeting strategies
59 based on alternative performance measures in the context of preserving farmland from urban
60 development. We initially developed a sophisticated performance measure that incorporated
61 benefits, loss, and cost factors following the framework of Machado et al. (2006). Benefit criteria
62 included all three major categories of public goods obtained by preserving farmland, namely
63 agricultural productivity, rural amenities and ecosystem services, and support for urban growth
64 management. In one analysis we systematically modify the performance measure of conservation
65 value by sequentially removing Loss and Cost factors. In a second analysis we systematically
66 lower the quality of information used to estimate conservation value. For both cases we then
67 compare cumulative net benefits over a range of fixed conservation budgets to determine the
68 effect of targeting with different combinations of information and how those effects vary with
69 funding. In principal, all the cost-effectiveness of all performance measures will converge at the

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10 72 Our specific research questions are:
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14 73 1. How much does conservation cost-effectiveness decline when loss or cost information is
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16 74 ignored in estimating the conservation value used to prioritize farmland preservation
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18 75 investments? How does the size of the budget affect relative cost-effectiveness between
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21 76 these performance measures?
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25 77 2. How much does conservation cost-effectiveness decline as a function of simplifying the
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27 78 estimates of conservation value and budget level?
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31 79 3. How similar are the set of farm parcels selected by the different targeting strategies?
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34 80 Although this study evaluates performance for farmland preservation, the methods could be
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36 81 applied to any other conservation goals such as biodiversity or public open space. Because
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39 82 farmland preservation is less familiar than biodiversity conservation, we provide a brief
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41 83 overview in section 2 about the public goods associated with farmland and alternative targeting
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44 84 strategies based on simple and complex performance measures.
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47 85 **2. Farmland Preservation Targeting Strategies**

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50 86 In parts of the United States, and to a lesser extent in Canada and a few other countries, citizens
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52 87 grew alarmed at the perceived rate of loss of farmland as cities and towns grew. Many
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55 88 communities formed either public or private organizations to target farmland to be preserved
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57 89 (Sokolow and Zurbrugg, 2003). The most common technique applies an agricultural
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60 90 conservation easement to the farm by purchasing the rights to development on the property while
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91 permitting agricultural activity to continue. This technique is akin to when conservation groups
92 buy and hold timber concessions in tropical forests to prevent them from being logged. Initially
93 these programs, which collectively became known as Purchase of Development Rights or PDRs,
94 focused on preserving the most productive soils. Over time, the goals of farmland preservation
95 have expanded to include ecosystem services and the capacity of farmland to support urban
96 growth management policies (Machado et al. 2006). As these farmland PDR programs got larger,
97 they began to need more formal performance measures to prioritize investments in a credible and
98 transparent manner.

99 Many farmland PDR programs currently use a relatively simple Benefits-only approach to
100 calculating their performance measure (e.g., Sokolow and Zurbrugg, 2003). Most of these
101 approaches are derivatives of the Land Evaluation and Site Assessment (LESA) system
102 (Ferguson et al., 1991; Pease et al., 1994). LESA consists of two parts. The land evaluation (LE)
103 part rates the land for crop production, and the site assessment (SA) component accounts for
104 other criteria such as farm size, zoning, and distance to existing conservation easements. Farms
105 are assigned points based on their respective attributes for these criteria, which are then summed
106 into an overall score to determine each farm's ranking. This LESA-based performance measure
107 can be applied to criteria maps to rate all farms in a program area with relatively low demands
108 for spatial data or technical expertise (Hoobler et al., 2003; Tulloch et al., 2003). Zurbrugg and
109 Sokolow (2006) reviewed 46 major farmland preservation programs in the United States, and
110 found that 34 use quantitative methods similar to those described above. Costs are usually not
111 part of the score, and loss is never considered. Some of the remaining twelve programs use
112 criteria to determine which farms are eligible (sometimes including a maximum price limit) and

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4 113 will acquire easements as landowners make their farms available. In other words these programs
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7 114 do not set priorities beyond classifying farms as eligible or ineligible.
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10 115 At the other end of the spectrum, Machado et al. (2006) recently presented a benefits-loss-cost
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13 116 targeting framework for farmland preservation that paralleled the framework proposed by Davis
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15 117 et al. (2006) for biodiversity. This framework minimizes the loss of multiple farmland benefits in
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18 118 a planning period for a given budget. The conservation value CV_i of parcel i is calculated as a
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20 119 cost-effectiveness ratio, benefits-loss BL_i divided by cost C_i :
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$$CV_i = \frac{BL_i}{C_i}$$

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29 121 Benefits-Loss is a weighted sum of the net benefits retained for all objectives for multifunctional
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32 122 agricultural land, expressed as:
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35 [2]
$$BL_i = \sum_{j=1}^J w_j W_{ij} = w_{ap} W_{i,ap} + w_{es} W_{i,es} + w_{gm} W_{i,gm}$$

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40 124 where w_j is the weight assigned to objective j (agricultural production [ap], rural amenities and
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42 125 ecosystem services [es], and growth management [gm]). W_{ij} is the net benefits of preserving site
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45 126 i for objective j . Benefits in this framework are derived from measures of the resource quantity
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47 127 and quality of each criterion, such as soil productivity or provision of ecosystem service. Each of
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50 128 the objectives can also be decomposed into more specific criteria, such as the individual
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52 129 ecosystem services. Loss is based on a forecast of future land use change. Loss can be estimated
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55 130 either by the probability of urban conversion (Newburn et al., 2005) or deforestation (Wünscher
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57 131 et al., 2008) as a coefficient of loss (the exposure dimension of vulnerability according to Wilson
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59 132 et al., 2005) or by the potential loss or degradation of conservation benefits in the future or net
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benefits (the impact dimension of vulnerability in Wilson et al., 2005). The last piece of the framework is a benefit function (Arponen et al., 2005) that translates resource quantity and quality into a level of benefits W_{ij} for each objective. A benefit function acknowledges that the marginal benefit of protecting more of a resource depends dynamically on the level already protected. Because this Benefits-Loss-Cost framework provides the most comprehensive accounting of high quality information, we can presume that it provides a better estimate of conservation value than simple scoring methods of benefits in common practice by farmland PDR programs. However, the potential gain in cost-effectiveness comes at a cost in terms of greater demands on conservation practitioners for finding relevant data and applying more advanced spatial analysis operations.

3. Methods

3.1. Study area description

Our study was conducted in a 6,100 km² region in Sacramento and San Joaquin counties of California (Fig. 1). The region supports a large agricultural economy, with important farmland in the valley floor and scenic grazing land in the foothills. Due to growth pressure from the metropolitan areas of Sacramento, Stockton, and the nearby San Francisco Bay Area, agricultural land is rapidly being converted to urban uses, with 3600 hectares converted to urban use between 2000 and 2002 alone. There are complex economic and environmental trade-offs associated with new development, notably loss of prime farmland, increased development and associated risk in low-lying flood-prone areas, and loss of wildlife habitat. The Central Valley Farmland Trust (CVFT), a non-profit farmland preservation land trust, was recently formed to mediate the loss of farmland by acquiring fee title or agricultural conservation easements in these counties and two adjoining counties to the south. Like some other PDR programs, CVFT currently uses minimum

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156 screening criteria to determine which farms are eligible for preservation rather than using a
157 formula to rank parcels. CVFT’s guidelines direct them to preserve farms larger than 15 hectares
158 (40 acres), outside of urban spheres of influence, and with important farmland. The CVFT can
159 potentially invest considerable resources to this effort because they are the recipients of
160 mitigation fees from new development on farmland. The establishment of CVFT provided an
161 opportunity to compare the cost-effectiveness of their screening criteria against various targeting
162 strategies and performance measures.

163 [Insert Fig. 1 about here]

164 **3.2. Targeting strategies and information requirements**

165 3.2.1. Strategies by type of information

166 The three most common strategies described by Newburn et al. (2005), namely Benefits-only,
167 Benefits-Cost, and Benefits-Loss-Cost, were implemented and compared. The Benefits-Loss-
168 Cost targeting strategy used all three types of information as proposed by Machado et al. (2006).
169 See Table 1, right-hand column, for description of the criteria for calculating benefits. This
170 strategy targeted farms that exceed a threshold value of the ratio benefit-loss over costs. The
171 Benefits-Cost strategy ignored the Loss information and ranked parcels by a simple ratio of
172 Benefits (rather than net benefits) over Cost, targeting farms above a threshold ratio (Newburn et
173 al., 2005). The Benefits-only strategy used the same measure of the total Benefits as the other
174 two strategies but ignored Loss and Cost information and targeted parcels with highest benefits.
175 Thus each strategy used a different performance measure to target farms. We compared their
176 overall performance in terms of net benefits preserved at given budget levels. It is also possible
177 to target based on Cost-only, which selects the lowest cost sites first and tends to maximize area

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178 preserved (Babcock et al. 1997). Unless costs are inversely related to benefits, this strategy is
179 generally not cost-effective and was not analyzed here.

180 Through a variety of geographic information system (GIS) operations, the Benefits, Loss, and
181 Cost variables were calculated for all 31,032 agricultural parcels larger than 5 ha in the study
182 area. Benefit measures were calculated for the three broad objectives of farmland preservation:
183 farmland productivity, rural amenities/ecosystem services, and urban growth management. For
184 each, we selected specific criteria that were relevant to the study area (Table 1). In this study, we
185 have assumed that the objectives are equally-weighted for the basic analysis to reflect a
186 balancing of competing interests. However, we tested the sensitivity of the results to the choice
187 of weights as described in section 1.3. Loss was based on future development allowed in local
188 plans. Data on the cost of development rights were not available for the study area, as they are
189 not for most regions of the US. Instead, we developed a hedonic model using the land value of
190 740 recent real estate transactions of farms to predict market value of the remaining parcels as a
191 function of explanatory characteristics such as distance to the nearest urban area and presence
192 within the 100 year floodplain. The relationship between market value as reflected in the sales
193 data and the value of development rights associated with conservation easements is uncertain
194 because purchase of development rights has only recently been implemented in the study area.
195 The CVFT believes that the fraction of market value represented by the development rights will
196 be very high (B. Martin, personal communication). For this exercise, therefore, we assumed that
197 the values of development rights are equal to market value. The implications of this and other
198 assumptions are discussed in section 5.

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199 3.2.2. Strategies by quality of information

200 The Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy described above also utilized the highest quality information
201 available, where high quality means that the information is comprehensive and most effectively
202 selects farms that retain the maximum possible benefits. It accounted for all types of benefits
203 provided by farmland in the study area; it converted resources that were measured on various
204 measurement scales into benefits through the use of benefit functions; it incorporated potential
205 loss from the results of an urban growth model or from general plans; and it used a sophisticated
206 statistical model to estimate costs. However, it requires more data and more analytical capacity
207 than is typically employed in PDR programs. We refer to this as the Full Information Option. As
208 less data is used, and used in less sophisticated ways, this reduction in the quality of information
209 will similarly reduce the accuracy of estimate of conservation value and therefore level of
210 benefits that are targeted. To test the magnitude of this effect, we systematically reduced the
211 quality of information as shown in Tables 1 and 2 to three other levels.

212 The Basic Information Option represents the approach in common usage in PDR programs
213 (Sokolow and Zurbrugg, 2003), based on the LESA methodology (Ferguson et al., 1991; Pease et
214 al., 1994; Dung and Sugumaran, 2005). The goal can generally be stated as protecting the most
215 productive farmland on large parcels zoned for agricultural use in local plans. Potential loss is
216 not usually considered. In fact, agricultural zoning and large parcel size usually implies that the
217 short-term threat of development is relatively low. Cost is often considered only as an eligibility
218 criterion after the scoring and ranking has occurred in these programs. Therefore cost is not used
219 as a criterion for the Basic Information option in this study. In summary, the Basic Information
220 option only accounts for benefits, and these are only measured using a subset of basic criteria.

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221 The Moderate Information Option is our attempt to create an intermediate hybrid option that
222 includes the full set of objectives from the Full Information Option but uses a simpler scoring
223 approach to calculate them. This option does not require as much GIS technical capacity as the
224 Full Information Option to calculate criteria; for instance it does not require a scenario of future
225 land use change. Ecosystem services and growth management criteria from the Full Information
226 Option are included but estimated as simple scores of benefits. Similarly, the Moderate
227 Information Option used an index of relative cost rather than the hedonic model of expected land
228 values. Standard GIS layers, such as the general plans, parcel size, and distance from urban
229 areas, were each categorized into High, Medium, and Low classes. Then the class maps were
230 combined through a rule-based matrix into cost index classes that were assigned relative cost
231 scores. This emulates a proposed method for using LESA to calculate a points-based cost model
232 as an alternative to the expensive and time-consuming process of conducting formal land
233 appraisals (Soil and Water Conservation Society, 2003). GIS tasks were limited to simple
234 operations.

235 Some PDR programs only use quantitative methods to set minimum eligibility criteria, and then
236 will accept any eligible parcel (Sokolow and Zurbrugg, 2003). We also wanted to compare the
237 cost-effectiveness of the three levels of quality of information against this kind of screening
238 strategy. First, we applied CVFT's minimum criteria including: parcel size greater than 15
239 hectares, location beyond a city's designated sphere of influence where new growth is
240 encouraged, and high farmland quality. This screening strategy reduced the 31,032 agricultural
241 parcels to 4,238 that would be considered eligible by CVFT's current criteria. The prioritization
242 process used none of the available information of the other levels, so all eligible parcels would
243 be considered equal priority at this point. All eligible parcels were randomly ranked 1000 times

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244 to determine the mean of net benefits that could be preserved through this random approach,
245 which we called the Minimal Information Option.

246 **3.3. Analyses**

247 Every parcel was scored and ranked in descending order for each of the targeting strategies and
248 tiers of information. The top ranking farmland for each strategy was selected for preservation
249 using a greedy heuristic (Church, 1974). That is, parcels were selected in descending rank order
250 of the selection criteria and their cost added to the cumulative cost. Selection stopped when the
251 cumulative cost of adding the next parcel exceeded the budget limit, using budget levels of \$25
252 million, \$50 million, \$100 million, \$250 million, \$500 million, and \$1 billion. This analysis was
253 repeated for the quality of information options. For the Minimal Information Option, cost
254 information was not used in the ranking and could not therefore be used in selecting parcels.
255 Instead parcels were selected through a Monte Carlo sampling procedure with a uniform random
256 variable that ranked the subset of eligible parcels 1000 times at each budget level. The loss
257 averted for each criterion was recorded over 1000 trials to calculate a mean and standard
258 deviation of accumulated benefits preserved at each budget level.

259 In comparing the cost-effectiveness of the three strategies and four levels of information quality,
260 we calculated the total net social benefits preserved in each set of selected parcels. First, the
261 potential averted loss of resources was summed for the selected parcels for each criterion j . Next
262 the benefit function associated with criterion j was applied with the cumulative averted loss to
263 calculate total net benefits retained by the strategy, W_j . Last, the net benefits for all criteria were
264 weighted equally and summed to derive cumulative BL as per equation 2. Cumulative costs C
265 were already determined by the fixed budget levels. Decreases in net benefits or Benefits-Loss,

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266 BL, from that of the Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy represent the trade-off in cost-effectiveness
267 associated with the types and quality of information used to rank parcels.

268 In addition to the difference in cumulative net benefits, it would also be useful to know how
269 many parcels were selected in common between targeting strategies at a fixed budget level. It is
270 possible that a small set of especially valuable parcels could be identified with even minimal
271 information. We compared sets of sites selected by various strategies using the Jaccard similarity
272 index (Jaccard, 1901):

$$[3] \quad J = a / (a + b + c),$$

273 where a is the number of parcels selected in common by a pair of targeting strategies, b is the
274 number of parcels selected by the first strategy but not the second, and c is the number of parcels
275 selected in the second strategy but not the first. The index can be interpreted as the proportion of
276 parcels common to both lists (i.e., their intersection) of the combined set of all parcels selected
277 by either strategy (i.e., their union). The index ranges from 0 if no parcels were shared to 1 if all
278 parcels were shared. The index was only calculated for the set of parcels selected with a budget
279 of \$100 million, assuming that was large enough to select a meaningful number of parcels yet
280 small enough that it might be reached in an aggressive preservation program.

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282 Ranking parcels by cost-effectiveness could be strongly influenced by the choice of weights on
283 the benefits criteria. The Full Information Option used equal weights. To test the sensitivity of
284 results to weighting, we assigned new criteria weights, w_{ij} , to reflect the hypothetical preferences
285 of three stakeholder groups—farmer interests, smart growth advocates, and environmentalists
286 (Table 3). To represent farmer interests, the dominant weight was assigned to highly productive
287 soils as most farmland preservation programs do. However, a small weight was also assigned to

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288 the growth management criteria in recognition that some programs value strategic targeting
289 (Stoms et al., 2009). These programs typically do not strive to protect rural amenities and
290 ecosystem services (except perhaps those that benefit farmers) so a weight of zero was assigned
291 for this objective. Smart growth principles encompass a variety of goals besides controlling
292 urban expansion. It also promotes access to rural amenities and locally-grown food. Therefore
293 we assigned the highest weight to growth management criteria for this interest group but still
294 assigned small weights to the other two objectives. We assumed that the Environmentalist group
295 most supports the protection of habitat and ecosystem services, and therefore assigned a very
296 high weight on the ecosystem services objective. A small weight was also assigned for growth
297 management as a strategic tool for protecting environmental values. This group, however, does
298 not generally care whether the farmland is productive, only that the environmental benefits are
299 greater if the land is used for agriculture rather than urban development. Clearly membership in
300 these three groups is not mutually exclusive, and many stakeholders might associate themselves
301 with two or more of these groups. The weighted net benefits of parcels were recalculated and
302 ranked for each group. Sensitivity was measured by the similarity of sets of parcels targeted
303 relative to the equally-weighted version at the \$100 million budget level. High similarity would
304 indicate low sensitivity to weighting for this study area.

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305 It is also possible that conservation cost and threat to resources are positively correlated. If so,
306 the Benefit-Cost and Benefit-Loss-Cost targeting strategies should be nearly equally effective,
307 and the simpler Benefits-Cost strategy would be a more practical option for practitioners. We
308 calculated the Pearson’s correlation coefficient between cost (predicted market value per hectare)
309 and net benefits per hectare for all 25,380 parcels with positive net benefits and then just for the
310 344 parcels selected in the Benefit-Loss-Cost strategy with a \$100 million budget.

311 **4. Results**

312 **4.1. Strategies by type of information**

313 The cost-effectiveness of parcels using the Benefits-Loss- Cost performance measure ranged
314 from 0.0 to 0.92 (Fig. 2). The highest scoring parcels tend to be moderate to large size and
315 relatively distant from the edge of urban development. However, there was no single area where
316 cost-effective parcels were congregated. This absence of spatial coherence in ranking is caused
317 by the complex interaction of the patterns of scores for the conservation objectives and the
318 pattern of land market values.

319 [Insert Fig. 2 about here]

320 Total net benefits, BL, was used to quantify the effectiveness of the various targeting strategies
321 for a fixed cost at different budget levels. Plotting the cumulative costs against net benefits is an
322 effective method for comparing alternative targeting strategies (Gauvin et al., in press). The full
323 Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy preserved the most additional benefits at every budget level
324 evaluated (Fig. 3). The net benefits increased from 9.5 (in dimensionless units) at the \$25 million
325 budget level to 143.3 at the \$1 billion level. The curve of net benefits vs. costs shows a steep rise
326 in net benefits at lower budgets, with a gradual flattening of the slope as less cost-effective

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4 327 parcels are selected. Removing the Loss information still retained nearly all the net benefits of
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7 328 the full Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy, with a decrease in cost-effectiveness of only a few percent.
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9 329 In contrast, excluding both Cost and Loss information and ranking by Benefits-only caused a
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11 330 substantial decrease in the net benefits of selected parcels. This strategy was the least cost-
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14 331 effective of any tested, even compared to the Minimal Information Option in which eligible
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16 332 parcels were randomly selected. The Benefits-only strategy tended to select a few very large
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19 333 properties that were generally not threatened with development. The top ranked parcel in this
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21 334 strategy had a modeled land value of \$35 million, which could not even be selected until the
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24 335 budget level was increased to \$50 million. At the highest budget level, the Benefits-only strategy
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26 336 preserved less than 10% of the net benefits of the Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy.
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30 337 [Insert Fig. 3 about here]
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33 338 By targeting a small number of large farms, the Benefits-only strategy targeted just three parcels
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36 339 at the \$100 million budget level. By virtue of their large size, these three parcels contained high
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38 340 benefits but were also expensive. None of these overlapped with any of the parcels targeted by
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41 341 the Benefits-Cost or Benefits-Loss-Cost strategies. As might be expected from their similar cost-
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43 342 effectiveness, the Benefits-Cost and Benefits-Loss-Cost strategies shared 77% of their parcels in
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46 343 common. This result further suggests that there is some flexibility in targeting parcels cost-
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48 344 effectively, perhaps using less information to target them.
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51 **4.2. Strategies by quality of information**
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54 346 The Full Information Option (same as the Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy) dramatically
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56 347 outperformed the other information options (Fig. 4). The net benefits of the Full Information
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59 348 Option grew rapidly at smaller budgets but with a slower rate of increase at higher budgets.
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349 These diminishing returns reflect the objective of that strategy to preserve parcels with greatest
350 cost-effectiveness first. At the smallest budget level evaluated (\$25 million) the Full Information
351 Option preserved ten times as much net benefits as the Moderate Information Option and nearly
352 twenty times as much as the Basic Information Option. Because of the diminishing returns in the
353 Full Information Option, its advantage decreased with increasing budget, but was still five to six
354 times as effective as the other options. The results for the Basic and Moderate Information
355 Options were both relatively low, with the Moderate Information Option preserving about 30%
356 more net benefits than the Basic Information Option. These two options both generated linear
357 cumulative net benefits accumulation curves. This result suggests that these strategies were not
358 targeting the most cost-effective parcels first. Surprisingly, the Minimal Information Option that
359 used random targeting performed more cost-effectively than the Basic and Moderate Information
360 Options, especially at the lowest budget levels. If all farmland in the study area were preserved,
361 at an estimated cost of \$37 trillion, the curves would ultimately converge. Within the range of
362 budgets we evaluated, however, the quality of information makes an enormous difference.

363 [Insert Fig. 4 about here]

364 Of the 40 parcels selected in the Basic and Moderate Information Options at the \$100 million
365 budget level, only one parcel was common to both. Neither shared any parcels in common with
366 the 344 parcels selected in the Full Information Option. The sensitivity analysis of criteria
367 weighting found that the results were robust to the choice of weights. The weighting schemes for
368 farmer interests, smart growth advocates, and environmentalists all had greater than 90% overlap
369 with the parcels selected in the equally-weighted Full Information Option (Table 3).

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370 Although land market value is related to the same factors associated with threats, we found a
371 weak negative correlation (-0.17, $p < 0.005$) between predicted price per hectare and total net
372 benefits per hectare for all 25,380 parcels with positive net benefits values. On the other hand,
373 the 344 parcels selected in the Benefit-Loss-Cost strategy with a \$100 million budget had a small
374 positive correlation (+0.28, $p < 0.005$). Thus in both cases the correlation was significant but
375 relatively small.

5. Discussion and Conclusions

376 Prendergast et al. (1999) claimed that it was a matter of judgment whether it was more prudent to
377 invest in more information or to invest in land conservation based on less information. Our study
378 revealed enormous improvements in performance in net benefits when targeted by a combination
379 of benefits, their potential loss if not preserved, and costs. Our findings showed an enormous
380 increase in cost-effectiveness when supplementing Benefits information with Cost. In fact, the
381 Benefits-only targeting strategy was only able to preserve three parcels with a \$100 million
382 budget. The high Benefits in those three parcels was the result of their large size, which also
383 made them extremely expensive despite being at low risk of loss. To our surprise, including Loss
384 information did not substantially increase cost-effectiveness in this study. The Benefits-Cost
385 strategy was nearly as cost-effective as the Benefits-Loss-Cost strategy. Newburn et al. (2005)
386 showed similar results in a hypothetical situation. Their Benefits-Cost strategy targeted some low
387 cost-low risk hinterlands at the expense of some higher cost lands with high potential loss. Our
388 results suggest that there are a relatively small number of parcels in the study area that are highly
389 desirable for farmland preservation in terms of cost-effectiveness (relatively high benefits at risk
390 for relatively low cost). Both the Benefits-Loss-Cost and Benefits-Cost strategies successfully
391 targeted those parcels. However, the simpler Benefits-only strategy did not identify these parcels

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393 because its ranking method did not utilize the critical cost information. Other researchers have
394 reported that cost information is especially important in setting priorities when the costs are more
395 variable than the benefits (Messer, 2006; Naidoo et al., 2006; Perhans et al., 2008). In our study,
396 Benefits-Loss data were slightly more heterogeneous than Cost data as measured by the
397 coefficient of variation.

398 The quality of information had a dramatic impact on the cost-effectiveness of targeting. The Full
399 Information Option was 5-20 times more cost-effective than the lower information quality
400 options used in this case study, with the greatest proportional improvements at lower spending
401 levels. Thus even farmland preservation programs with modest budgets would achieve better
402 performance by employing this strategy. The next best level of information quality turned out to
403 be the Minimal Information Option that used the rule-based eligibility guidelines of the CVFT.
404 On average, this simple strategy slightly outperformed the Moderate Information Option,
405 especially at smaller budget levels. Although the Minimal Information Option did not explicitly
406 include any cost information, the rules about parcel size and urban spheres of influence indirectly
407 promoted the selection of lower cost parcels.

408 Of course even the Full Information Option as calculated here is itself only an estimate of the
409 “true” conservation value. For regional scale conservation targeting efforts, it is impossible to
410 make direct observations of all factors. Most of the data are from indirect sources such as
411 mapping from remotely sensed data (e.g., soil mapping) or modeling from sample data (e.g., our
412 hedonic model of land values). Gauvin et al. (in press) concluded that the most heterogeneous
413 factor would be the place to invest greater resources to map more accurately for the greatest gain
414 in cost-effectiveness. We used the simplifying assumption that the cost of development rights

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415 was equal to market value of farmland, rather than the more complex analysis of subtracting
416 agricultural rents (Plantinga and Miller, 2001). This assumption possibly biased the results by
417 estimating larger than true costs for farms with lower development potential further from urban
418 centers. Our implementation of the Machado et al. framework (2006) also did not include every
419 possible bit of information that could be considered. For example, this study was basically static
420 and ignored landscape dynamics. In practice, some land is protected each time period while some
421 is lost to alternative land uses. Recent studies in biodiversity and open space conservation
422 planning have explored the effects of these dynamics on the performance of targeting strategies
423 (Meir et al., 2004; Haight et al., 2005; Grantham et al., 2008) and on land values (Armsworth et
424 al., 2006). We would even expect that potential threat would shift dynamically as the demand
425 for development would be transferred from parcels that were protected to other farmland.
426 Because farmland preservation planning is less developed than similar methods for biodiversity,
427 incorporating simulation modeling of dynamics remains a future research area. As another
428 example, the criteria for biodiversity used in this study were relatively simple, in line with the
429 modest interests of farmland preservation programs.

430 The Full Information Option was also relatively insensitive to the weighting of the criteria.
431 Apparently for this study area, different stakeholder groups would find the same farms desirable
432 for preservation. The CVFT could feel confident that various stakeholders might embrace the set
433 of highest-ranked parcels, which all overlapped substantially with the equally-weighted version.
434 In fact, sensitivity analysis of the weights could be used to help build consensus among
435 stakeholders.

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4 436 Of course, the technical and data requirements to develop a cost-effective strategy are quite
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7 437 demanding. Many land trusts, conservancies, and county agencies currently lack the capacity to
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10 438 implement the Full Information Option. In addition to building the database, organizations would
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12 439 be required to maintain it as farms are protected or developed or as other information changes
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14 440 (e.g., land values, general plans, or distance to nearest protected land). For CVFT to decide what
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17 441 level of effort to expend to rank parcels for preservation, the choices narrow down to two—a
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19 442 simple strategy with minimal requirements for data and spatial analysis or a complex Full
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22 443 Information Option with much greater information requirements but much greater payoff (by a
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24 444 factor of 5-20). Within the low information strategies, CVFT could do at least as well on average
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27 445 by preserving farms as they are offered that satisfy their minimum eligibility guidelines as they
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29 446 would using the Basic or Moderate Information options. The information processing would be
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31 447 limited to attributing parcels with data on their size and location with respect to prime farmland
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34 448 and urban spheres of influence and querying the database for parcels that satisfy all three
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36 449 conditions. It is possible that these results are just a circumstance of the particular patterns of
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39 450 farmland benefits, land market values, and development potential in Sacramento and San Joaquin
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41 451 counties. We expect, however, that results would be similar in most regions where large and
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44 452 well-funded farmland preservation programs are operating. Farmlands reflect relatively
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46 453 predictable gradients of land values with very high costs nearest urban centers. Similarly the
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49 454 patterns of potential farmland loss to urban development tend to be greatest on the leading edge
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51 455 of land speculation around urban centers where allowed by land use plans. Benefits are likely to
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54 456 be spatially heterogeneous in most regions. Taking a more complex approach, such as the Full
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56 457 Information Option, by incorporating potential loss and/or cost estimates would yield
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58 458 substantially greater social benefits. Wünscher et al. (2008) found that the added transaction
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4 459 costs of GIS support was minor relative compared to the improved additionality or net benefits in
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7 460 providing ecosystem services in Costa Rica. The spatial data needed to implement the framework
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10 461 for the CVFT are generally available in most parts of the United States. The main exception was
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12 462 the Cost information that required purchasing proprietary data on recent farmland sales. In other
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14 463 states, the tax assessor's data may be adequate. The primary cost to implement the Full
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17 464 Information Option of a Benefits-Loss-Cost targeting strategy therefore would be salary and
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19 465 overhead for a GIS analyst for up to one year to compile and process these data sets. This time
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22 466 and expense could be expedited if the framework were made operational in a spatial targeting
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24 467 toolbox that standardized much of the planning expertise of the approach.

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27 468 Practitioners of farmland preservation will need help to overcome the technical obstacles they
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30 469 face to become more cost-effective in preserving the public good. As noted, the most cost-
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32 470 effective strategies used here require extensive spatial data and moderately sophisticated spatial
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35 471 analysis skills. Farmland programs need assistance to meet these requirements, or they will likely
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37 472 continue using less cost-effective targeting strategies. Most useful would be development of GIS
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40 473 planning and modeling tools to automate the complex data processing pathway while soliciting
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42 474 inputs from planners about social preferences, goals, and land use scenarios. Newburn et al.
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44 475 (2005) describe one such tool customized for Sonoma County, California. A GIS-based
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47 476 framework could also help build consensus by exploring alternative weighting schemes to satisfy
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50 477 various stakeholder objectives as we did in the sensitivity analysis. It could also allow rapid
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52 478 exploration of alternatives, such as testing different patterns of future urban growth. With an
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54 479 operational planning support tool in hand, organizations could concentrate on the social
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57 480 dimensions of their program, such as setting conservation goals and choosing criteria weights.
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59 481 We should point out that most PDR programs do not perform targeting strategies on the entire set

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482 of farms in their domain as we have done here. Rather they often operate more tactically on a
483 smaller set of farms that are currently offered by willing sellers for preservation. Even then, the
484 spatial database of benefits, loss, and cost information by parcel could be used to select the most
485 cost-effective subset of farms that are currently available within an annual budget (Messer, 2006)
486 or to query the cost-effectiveness of an individual farm that was being offered for a conservation
487 easement. As the number of PDR programs expands, the usefulness of a planning tool grows in
488 importance and helps to shorten the learning curve because new programs can take advantage of
489 the experience already encapsulated in such a tool. Otherwise we expect farmland preservation
490 programs will continue to employ suboptimal targeting strategies.

491 **6. Acknowledgments**

492 This project was supported by National Research Initiative Grant no. 2005-35401-15320 from
493 the USDA Cooperative State Research, Education, and Extension Service Rural Development
494 Program. Our project advisory group (Tim Duane, Julie Gustanski, Ralph Heimlich, Pete
495 Roussopoulos, Rita Schenck, and Al Sokolow) provided many valuable suggestions that found
496 their way into this study. We thank Matt Merrifield of The Nature Conservancy and Aubrey
497 Dugger from the GreenInfo Network for sharing data. We deeply appreciate the encouragement
498 and advice of Bill Martin, executive director of the Central Valley Farmland Trust.

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591 8. Figure Captions

- 592 **1.** Location map of the study region in Sacramento and San Joaquin Counties, California.
- 593 **2.** Map of the Benefit-Loss-Cost cost-effectiveness scores. White areas indicate parcels with
594 scores of 0.0, which are mostly urban lands.
- 595 **3.** Graph of cumulative net benefits preserved as a function of budget level for strategies
596 using different types of conservation information, from Benefits-only to Benefit-Cost to
597 Benefit-Loss-Cost.
- 598 **4.** Graph of cumulative net benefits preserved as a function of budget level for strategies
599 using different options for information quality and content, from minimal to full
600 information. The Minimal Information Option was generated by randomly selecting
601 parcels that met the minimum eligibility criteria of the Central Valley Farmland Trust. The
602 shaded band shows the range of net benefits from 1000 runs at each budget level.

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11 607 Table 1. Descriptions of the criteria for calculating farmland benefits by information options.
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Objective	Criterion	Basic Information Option (LESA)	Moderate Information Option	Full Information Option (same as Benefits-Loss- Cost)
<i>Maintain viable agricultural presence</i>	Preserve the most important (productive) farmland	(Land Evaluation) Farmland Importance Classes (FMMP)	FMMP modified by urban edge effects	FMMP modified by urban edge effects
<i>Maintain rural amenities and ecosystem services</i>	Minimize liability of flood damage to property	NA	FEMA Q3 floodplains	FEMA Q3 floodplains
	Buffer small nature reserves to maintain habitat value	NA	Distance from nature reserves	Distance from nature reserves modified by ecological condition (roads, housing density, land use, parcel size)
	Protect priority habitat conservation	NA	Priority conservation areas	Priority conservation areas modified by ecological condition

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Objective	Criterion	Basic Information Option (LESA)	Moderate Information Option	Full Information Option (same as Benefits-Loss- Cost)
	areas			(roads, housing density, land use, parcel size)
<i>Encourage urban growth in desired areas</i>	Protect agricultural land where compatible with general plans	(Site Assessment) General plan score + Parcel size score	General plan score * Parcel size score	General plan score * Parcel size score
	Reinforce sphere of influence boundaries	NA	Buffer around Spheres of Influence	Buffer around Spheres of Influence modified by distance from open space/easements

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610 Table 2. Data and analytical requirements by information option to estimate conservation value

Type of Information	Minimal Information Option	Basic Information Option (LESA)	Moderate Information Option	Full Information Option (same as Benefits-Loss-Cost)
Benefits	Important farmland and minimum size as screening criteria	Resource quantity for only a few criteria (see Table 1)	Resource quantity and quality for all criteria (see Table 1)	Resource quantity and quality for all criteria (see Table 1)
Loss	Ignored loss	Ignored loss	Ignored loss	Potential development (urban growth model or general plans), benefit functions
Cost	Ignored cost	Ignored cost	Simple rule-based index of relative cost	Statistical model of market value of farmland
Data and analysis requirements	Standard data, simple GIS query for eligibility	Standard data, basic GIS overlay operations	Moderate data, moderate GIS operations, benefit weighting	Maximum data, complex GIS analysis, benefit weighting

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613 Table 3. Weighing schemes for stakeholder groups for sensitivity analysis and Jaccard similarity
614 of parcels targeted by them relative to those targeted with equal weighting in the Full
615 Information Option (same as Benefits-Loss-Cost).

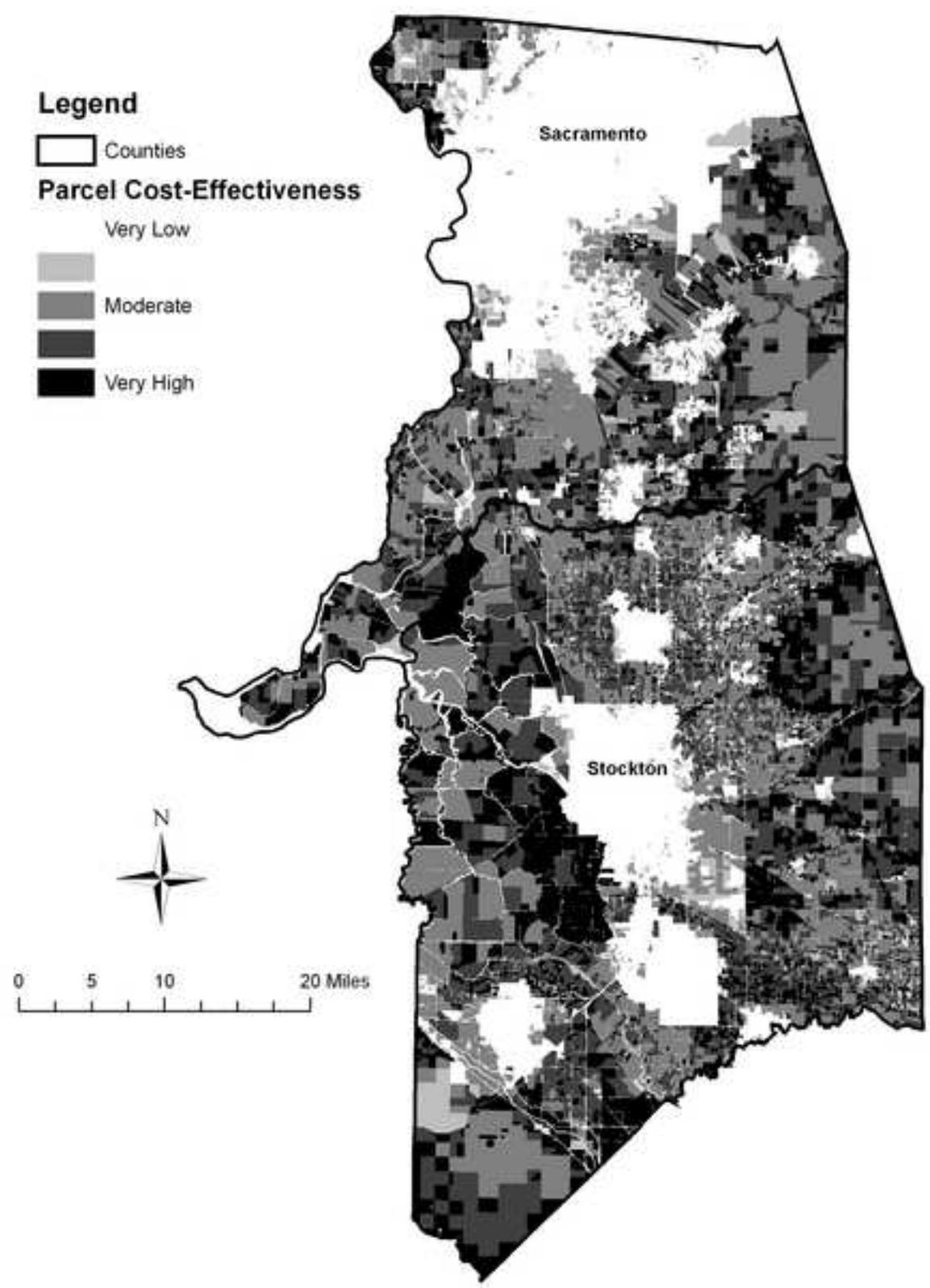
Stakeholder group	Agricultural production weight	Ecosystem services weight	Growth management weight	Jaccard similarity of Interest Group with equal weighting
Farmer interests	0.7	0.0	0.3	0.938
Smart growth advocates	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.966
Environmentalists	0.0	0.8	0.2	0.969
Equal weighting	0.33	0.33	0.33	--

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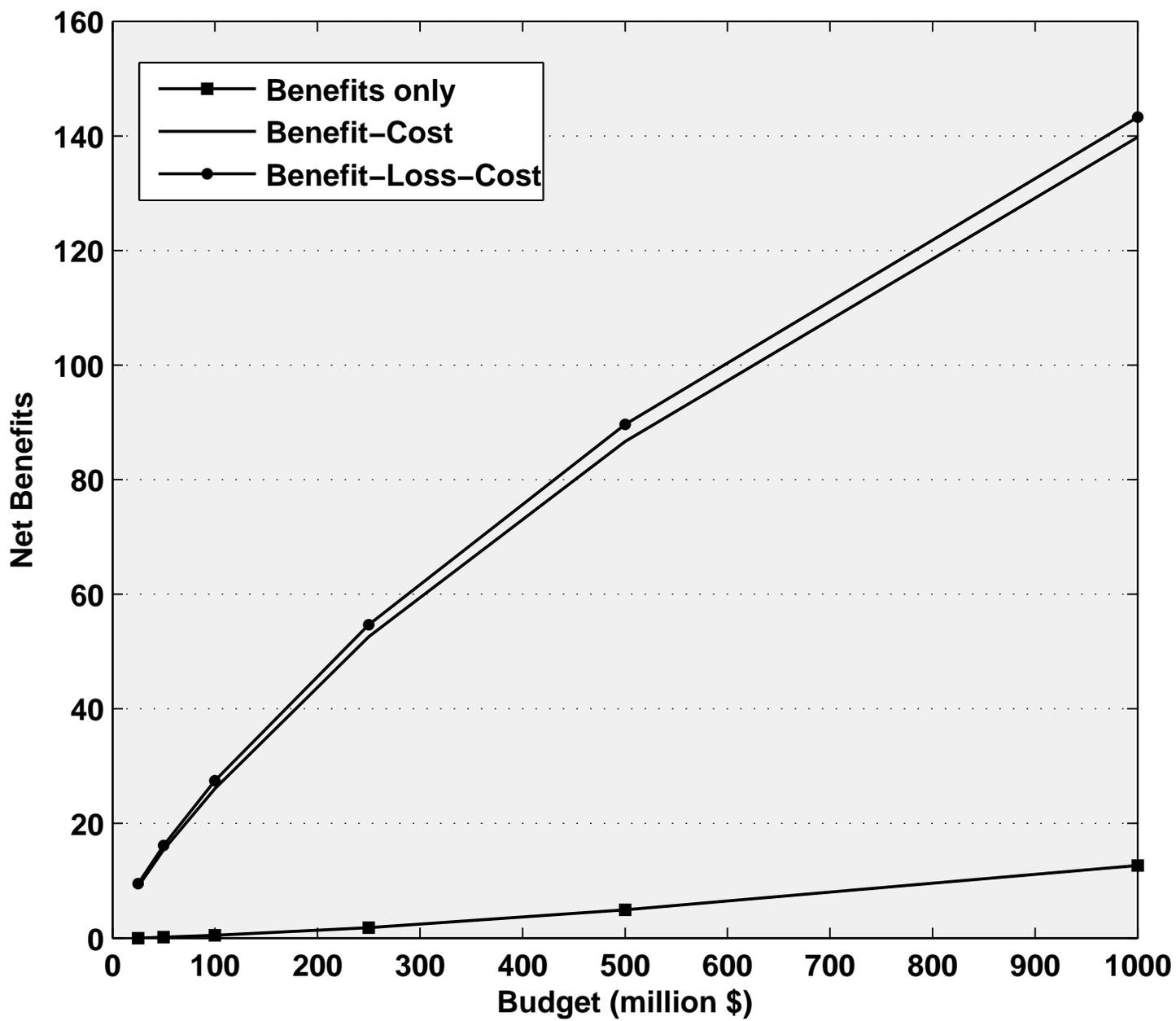
Figure_1



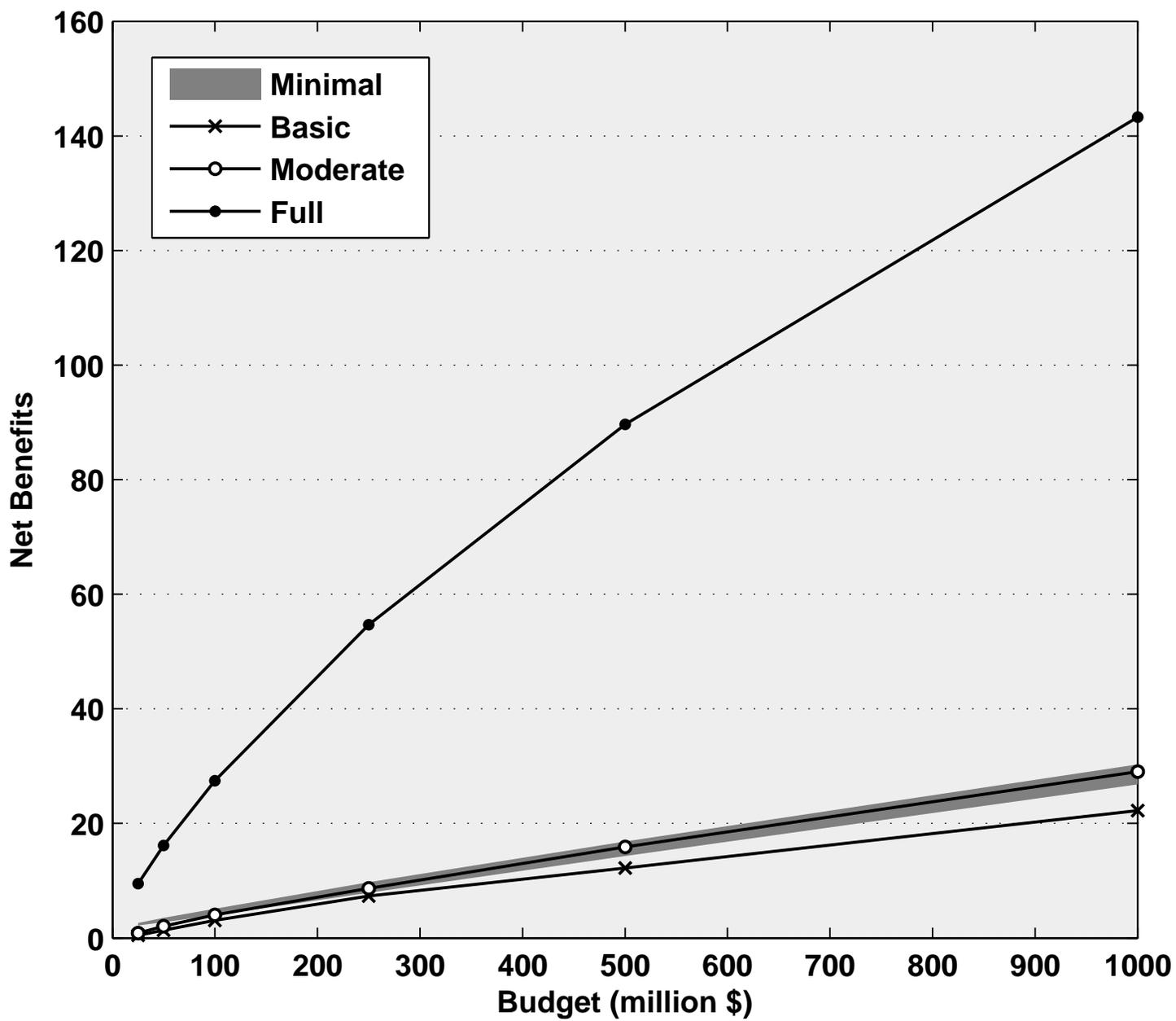
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Figure_3



Figure_4



Suggested reviewers:

1. Kent Messer, messer@udel.edu, University of Delaware
2. Michael Strager, mstrager@wvu.edu, University of West Virginia
3. Stefan Hajkowitz, Stefan.Hajkowitz@csiro.au, CSIRO Sustainable Ecosystems, Australia
4. David Tulloch, dtulloch@crssa.rutgers.edu, Rutgers University, New Jersey
5. Jeffrey Hyman, jbhyman@indiana.edu, University of Indiana
6. Dan van der Horst, d.vanderhorst@bham.ac.uk, University of Birmingham