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# The economic evaluation of forest protection service against rockfall: a review of experiences and approaches

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## Abstract

Aside from the provision of food and resources, the ecosystem functions supply humanity a wide array of services. Hazard reduction is one of these, and its value for communities is gaining rising attention. In the Alpine Space, rockfall and avalanches occur frequently and cause considerable damage, but are significantly mitigated by mountain ecosystems, mainly mountain forests. How to account this service in monetary terms is a current issue and several studies were undertaken with this purpose. This literature review provides a comprehensive overview depicting a "state of the art" of economic evaluation of this ecosystem service, noting their main features, approaches and results. Currently, a common background still does not exist and different studies developed a variety of methods to be adopted, both cost and preference based. We intend this review as a contribution to the increasing awareness of forests as a cost-efficient part of natural hazard management strategies in the Alpine space.

## Keywords

Ecosystem services; Rockfall; Alpine Space; Protection forests; Economic Evaluation; Replacement Cost, Avoided Damages

## 1 - Introduction

The relationships between society and the environment are manifold but the main aspect is probably the fruition of goods and services. Other than food production and raw material supply, other so-called ecosystem functions are increasingly relevant for human well-being (Pearce and Turner, 1990), providing less tangible but still essential benefits to people (Edens and Hein, 2013, Grilli et al., 2015, Miura et al., 2015). These functions are, among others, provision of drinking water, recreational and cultural values, carbon storage and protection against natural hazards, like rockfall. Those gravitational processes are common phenomena in mountain environments and frequently pose a threat for transportation corridors, settlements, and human lives. Consequently, protection from such threats can be viewed as positive

34 externalities (Brun, 2002), as from a market perspective it is still not possible to convert their value into  
35 monetary terms (MEA, 2005, Riera et al., 2012, Grêt-Regamey and Kytzia, 2007). Thus, “ecosystem  
36 services” (hereafter ES) is the broad term adopted to include their effects, moving from financial  
37 to economic evaluations (Nutti, 2001, Gomez-Baggethun et al., 2010). Since the Sixties, an increasing  
38 number of studies were performed to detect and assess ES in economic terms (Coase, 1960, Krutilla, 1967),  
39 in order to support a sustainable environmental management through these evaluations (Daily et al., 2009,  
40 Giupponi et al., 2009, Spangenberg and Settele, 2010). Consequently, many different systemic  
41 classifications of this complex and evolving set of services were proposed (de Groot et al., 2002, Wallace,  
42 2007, Bartczak et al., 2008, Fisher et al., 2009, Haines-Young and Potschin, 2011), leading to their inclusion  
43 in several international projects and regulations (MEA, 2005, TEEB, 2010, Maes et al., 2014).

44 Forests are a suitable example of a complex and dynamic ecosystem able to simultaneously supply market  
45 goods and ecosystem services, ranging from wood and non-wood products to regulation, recreational and  
46 cultural functions (Stenger et al., 2009, Ninan and Inoue, 2013, Brun, 2002). Their proper evaluation is still a  
47 debated issue, due to the changes in economy and society that have rendered the previous forms of  
48 accounting, founded on market goods only, obsolete (Goio et al., 2008). In fact, in recent years, the  
49 assessment of non-marketable goods has increasingly gained attention, in order to properly inform decision  
50 makers and forest owners and highlight their importance (Blatter et al., 2017, Riera et al., 2012).  
51 Moreover, depending on the aim of the evaluation, it would be possible to sum up into one single value all  
52 the material and immaterial benefits generated by forests, computing the so-called Total Economic Value  
53 (Markantonis and Meyer, 2011, Deal et al., 2012), or, alternatively, focus on one single service. According  
54 to these distinctions, this review involves studies that focus on the evaluation of a single, non-marketable  
55 value, that is, the forest protection service against rockfall. This service, among other regulation functions,  
56 plays an essential role in mountainous areas, where its recognition is increasing in parallel with the  
57 growing anthropization of these areas (Miura et al., 2015, Häyhä et al., 2015, Zoderer et al., 2016). In the  
58 last 15 years, several researches have contributed to amplify the knowledge of the interactions between  
59 forests and falling rocks. In particular, specific models were developed and tested using field experiments,  
60 to model rock trajectories along slopes (Stokes, 2006, Cordonnier et al., 2008, Jancke et al., 2013, Radtke et  
61 al., 2014, Fidej et al., 2015, Dupire et al., 2016b). Such quantitative models, grouping different skills and  
62 research fields (Wolff et al., 2015), allow the protective capacities of the forest and the frequency of the  
63 events to be assessed (Dussauge-Peisser et al., 2002, Trappmann et al., 2014), making it possible to apply  
64 methods to estimate the socio-economic value of the protection service performed by forests.

65 In line with the aims of the European Commission, of promoting the cooperation between European  
66 countries (EC, 2013), there is a clear need to gather the existing knowledge and to develop harmonized  
67 management strategies, at European level, for the economic evaluation of the protection service of forests  
68 against rockfall. Therefore, the aim of this bibliographic review is to achieve a state of the art on forest

69 protection services economic assessment, devoting special focus to rockfall protection, and provide  
70 a critical analysis of the different methodologies adopted, the data needed and the results achieved. After  
71 the Discussion and Conclusions paragraphs, the Annex provides the full list of papers included in the  
72 review.

73

## 74 2 Literature review

### 75 2.1 Regulation Ecosystem Services in Alpine Forests

76 The Alps are one of the most densely populated mountainous areas in the world: historically inhabited,  
77 they host important urban centres and a complex infrastructural network (Rudolf-Miklau et al., 2014). In  
78 this context, forests, covering 52% of their surface, play an important role for the local economies (Price et  
79 al., 2011). Here, considering the socio-economic changes of the last 50 years and the anthropization of this  
80 territory (Holub and Hübl, 2008, Zimmermann and Keiler, 2015), the regulation and protection services  
81 ensured by forests (La Notte and Paletto, 2008, Getzner et al., 2017) are gaining  
82 increased consideration (Grêt-Regamey et al., 2008, Miura et al., 2015, Grilli et al., 2017). Researches  
83 concerning ES are a relatively recent field of study, but already rely on a vast volume of literature, mainly  
84 produced over the last 20 years, not without diverging opinions and criticisms (Boyd and Banzhaf, 2007,  
85 Baveye et al., 2013, Seppelt et al., 2011). However, in these studies, there is a general consensus on the  
86 importance of the need for a precise definition of the ES studied, at a proper territorial scale (Wallace,  
87 2007, Busch et al., 2012, Lindborg et al., 2017), in order to avoid overlapping and, consequently, value  
88 miscalculation (Bateman et al. 2011; Deal, Cochran, and LaRocco 2012; Spangenberg and Settele 2010).

89 According to the classifications aforementioned, regulation and protection ES, are here intended as  
90 physical or chemical-physical interactions between biomass and mineral fraction (de Groot et al., 2002),  
91 which in a forest are numerous and intense (Motta and Haudemand, 2000, Ninan and Inoue, 2013, FAO,  
92 2015). While these functions of the forest are always present, the protection service only occurs when all  
93 the risk components can be observed (Fuchs et al., 2007, Olschewski et al., 2012), that is, when an event  
94 generates an abrupt release of energy in presence of an object prone to be damaged, standing the need of  
95 the society to protect it (Adger, 2006). In fact, the risk mitigation supplied by protection forests cannot be  
96 taken in account for events occurring in absence of interactions with humans or human-related goods  
97 (Brun, 2002, Grêt-Regamey et al., 2012).

98

### 99 2.2 Gravitational Natural Hazards: Rockfall

100 Forests can play a relevant role for the protection of human goods and infrastructures against gravitational  
101 natural hazards. Among these destructive events, we define rockfall as the movement of rocky fragments  
102 of metric and sub-metric dimensions with movement patterns unlike fluid masses, as occurring in landslides  
103 (Volkwein et al., 2011). Rock detachments usually involve small areas but have the capacity to cause

104 significant damage especially in mountainous areas, where steep slopes and strong seasonal climatic  
105 variations favour their occurrence. These events are strictly linked to local site conditions and, even if more  
106 frequent during thawing periods (Matsuoka and Sakai, 1999), are practically still not predictable nor  
107 avoidable, both due to the multiplicity of elements that can trigger them (Dorren, 2003) and the speed at  
108 which they occur (Holub and Hübl, 2008). The main parameters used to characterize these events are  
109 intensity, frequency, height of rebound and runout distance (Volkwein et al., 2011, Berger et al., 2002).  
110 Intensity consists in the kinetic energy of the falling body, while frequency depends on the probability of  
111 departure; finally, the last parameters may vary depending on the features of the block (dimension, shape  
112 and volume mainly) and of the terrain (slope, soil type and forest features) (Jaboyedoff et al., 2005).  
113 Evaluating the frequency of the events is one of the most difficult aspects, but some studies (Dussauge et  
114 al., 2003, Hantz et al., 2016) illustrated the power law distribution that links boulder size and falling  
115 frequency, demonstrating the reliability of the extrapolations based on this law (Moos et al., 2017b).  
116 Moreover, new promising methods, using dendrochronology techniques to analyse the scars left on the  
117 tree trunks, have been developed recently (Trappmann et al., 2014, Moos et al., 2017c, Corona et al.,  
118 2017). Protection forests against rockfall generally can be considered effective in relation to other  
119 gravitational hazards too, as debris flow, avalanches or landslides (Getzner et al., 2017) but, in relation of  
120 the relevant differences in effectiveness that a forest stand can have in relation to different hazards, this  
121 multifunctional role has not been investigated in the present study.

122

### 123 2.3 Effects of forests on rockfall events

124 The role of forests for the mitigation of rockfall events has been widely recognised (Berger et al., 2013,  
125 Dorren, 2003): in fact, boulder impacts on trees dissipate kinetic energy, reducing the probability of  
126 damage to buildings, infrastructures and people (Berger and Rey, 2004, Saroglou et al., 2015, Brauner et al.,  
127 2005). Nonetheless, given the scarcity of available evaluation methods, for a long time this service has been  
128 assessed only through empirical or qualitative methods (Volkwein et al., 2011). Only in the last 15 years, a  
129 number of quantitative models, able to quantify the protective effect ensured by forests, have become  
130 available (Berger and Dorren, 2007, Dorren et al., 2004, Berger et al., 2002), in addition to integrating LiDAR  
131 techniques more recently (Monnet et al., 2017, Dupire et al., 2016a). These studies highlighted the  
132 importance of stand density, basal area, specific composition and, above all, the structure of the forest, to  
133 determine its effectiveness against rockfall events (Fuhr et al., 2015, Wehrli et al., 2006, Jancke et al.,  
134 2013). In this respect, a considerable wealth of scientific knowledge has grown and various silvicultural  
135 practices and forest management measures were developed in order to favour the ability of forests to  
136 mitigate these hazards and to recover from the damage sustained (Motta and Haudemand, 2000, Brang et  
137 al., 2006, Helfenstein and Kienast, 2014, Frehner et al., 2005). Such management strategies mainly aim to  
138 reduce the intensity of commercial harvesting and lead the stand towards uneven-aged structures (Wehrli

139 et al., 2006, Rammer et al., 2015), preserving some trees with large diameters (Fuhr et al., 2015) or suggest  
140 site-specific target profiles for rockfall protection forests (Dorren et al., 2015). In any case, questions  
141 related to possible trade-offs between ecosystem services (Stokes, 2006, Cordonnier et al., 2008) and on  
142 the profitability of the interventions remain. Often, only low value assortments can be obtained from these  
143 practices, which, together with the high harvesting costs due to slope and other logistic aspects, negatively  
144 influence their Timber Value (Accastello et al., 2018). Therefore, despite their importance for maintaining  
145 high safety standards (Helfenstein and Kienast, 2014, Fidej et al., 2015), silvicultural interventions can be  
146 performed only when economic incentives are available (Brang et al., 2006).  
147 Notwithstanding the importance of a proper forest management, it should be remarked that the protective  
148 effects of the forest exist only up to a certain threshold of rockfall events, in relation to their frequency,  
149 intensity and block dimensions. Beyond that, its protective effect, even when positive, is only  
150 complementary to the dedicated artificial defensive facilities (Asciuto et al., 1987, Fidej et al., 2015).  
151 Nevertheless the quantification of the effectiveness of forests is still useful for an appropriate design of  
152 these structures, which, apart from being expensive, generally have limited duration and strong  
153 environmental drawbacks (Holub and Hübl, 2008, Howald et al., 2017).

154

## 155 2.4 The monetary evaluation of Ecosystem Services

156 Ideally, the value of forests can be broken down in several components with different classifications  
157 available, ranging from “use” and “non-use” values (Krieger, 2001), to “material” and “immaterial” ones,  
158 when dealing with countable or uncountable functions, as those related to the provision of ES functions  
159 other than wood and non-wood products (Brun, 2002). According to Brouwer (2000), the evaluation of a  
160 well specified service entails the advantage of considering a lower amount of data to be processed,  
161 particularly if it takes place at a limited spatial scale, like rockfall does (Dorren et al., 2006, Rammer et al.,  
162 2015). Regulation services are difficult to assess, and a combination of technical and economic elements,  
163 also frequently involving expert opinions, have to be used (Wolff et al., 2015, Grêt-Regamey et al., 2013).  
164 Moreover, carefully defining the component to be examined is only part of the evaluation, that also has to  
165 account how far the societal needs are satisfied by such process (Villamagna et al., 2013). Regulation and  
166 protection are in fact characters of public goods, neither rival nor excludable, so the achieved results  
167 assume a political meaning, beyond the scientific one (Spangenberg and Settele, 2010, Wallace, 2007).

168

## 169 3 Materials and methods

170 The concept of this work relies upon the interaction between two elements: the regulation ES provided by  
171 the forest and the gravitational natural hazards, with a focus on rockfall. As shown in figure 1, the role of  
172 the forest in relation to rockfall events has been considered from an economic perspective.

173



184 **Figure 2** – *Highlighted in green the area covered by the Alpine Space*, source: <http://www.alpine-space.eu/>

185

186 Due to the limited research field analysed, the research also included evaluations published in a format  
187 different from the scientific paper, such as project reports, non-scientific journal articles and similar  
188 sources, in English or in other languages. Moreover, in addition to rockfall protection service evaluations,  
189 other studies related to different gravitational hazards, such as avalanches and landslides, or performing  
190 overall evaluations of the forest protection service specifically mentioning rockfall risks were included in  
191 the review. We retain this broad approach scientifically consistent since, from an economic perspective,  
192 the same methodological approach is adopted for their evaluation (Häyhä et al., 2015, Getzner et al.,  
193 2017). Therefore, the documents collected and analysed are those that satisfy the following  
194 three requirements:

- 195 • Have a main focus on natural gravitational hazard protection service supplied by forests;
- 196 • Perform an economic evaluation of the supplied service;
- 197 • Are located in the Alpine Space.

198 Any potential omission in the results should be considered accidental or due to the lack of one of these  
199 requirements. For each of the collected evaluations, we then extrapolated the following information:

- 200 • Subject of the evaluation, i.e. the service evaluated in consideration of which risk;
- 201 • Adopted evaluation approach, according to the classical literature distinction between methods;
- 202 • Study area name, specifying, where possible, the related municipality, region and country;
- 203 • Application scale of the evaluation, distinguishing between “local”, if performed on one or few  
204 municipalities; “sub-regional” if affecting gatherings of municipalities; “regional” if referred to  
205 bigger administrative units such as statistical regions, federal states, etc.; and “national” if on  
206 entire countries, in compliance with the NUTS levels of the EUROSTAT codification (EU, 2011);
- 207 • Adopted interest rate, when stated;
- 208 • Time span of the evaluation, when stated;
- 209 • Monetary evaluation of the service, expressed as a single sum of money or a range;
- 210 • Measurement unit of the evaluation, distinguishing between values and incomes;
- 211 • Involvement of stakeholders in the evaluation process;
- 212 • Definition of an objective numeric assessment of the protective effects of the forest, e.g. through  
213 indexes, scales, energy measures, ...;
- 214 • Presence of a scenario analysis in order to evaluate different possible future developments of the  
215 current situation;
- 216 • The computation of the costs related to forest management activities for the maintenance or the  
217 improvement of the protective function.

218



## 219 4 Results and discussion

220 The bibliographic review, completed in early 2018, involved the partners of the project RockTheAlps and  
221 allowed us to collect a significant number of papers relating to the issue. The works focusing on economic  
222 evaluation of protective services against gravitational hazards in the Alpine regions were found to be 26, of  
223 which 12 in peer-reviewed journals. An ID number identifies all the 26 papers collected (annex A).

224 The evaluation approaches emerging from the review, in order to assess the value of the protective service  
225 provided by forests against rockfall, are briefly described as follows:

- 226 • Replacement cost method: it adopts a substitution value equal to the expenses needed to  
227 reproduce the service with artificial means(Bockstael et al., 2000), therefore reliant on project  
228 documents to evaluate the costs of the defensive facility with equal effectiveness(Notaro and  
229 Paletto, 2012). According to Bockstael et al. (2000), this approach has to satisfy three conditions: i)  
230 the hypothesized structure has to be as effective as the forest; ii) the structure with the least cost  
231 has to be chosen; iii) there must be a societal interest in maintaining the service, and in replacing it  
232 if missing.
- 233 • The avoided damages approach focuses instead on other components of the concept of risk: the  
234 goods likely to be damaged by the event, and the probability of it occurring. In this case, the  
235 beneficial function of the forest is the reduction of expected damages for the goods in the area. To  
236 evaluate it, a comparison is usually performed between scenarios of expected losses, with and  
237 without the forest, for the possible events (Bründl et al., 2009, Papathoma-Köhle et al., 2011);
- 238 • Risk analysis, adopting an approach similar to the avoided damages method, taking it one step  
239 further, by including in the computation, along with the damages to buildings and infrastructures,  
240 the costs related to emergency and first aid services and the loss of human life (Fuchs and McAlpin,  
241 2005, Fuchs et al., 2012);
- 242 • The choice experiment method focuses on the preferences of the people actually benefitting from  
243 the protection, involving all the stakeholders, to elicit information directly from them and assess  
244 their Willingness To Pay or Willingness To Accept (Hadley et al., 2011), by means of interviews,  
245 questionnaires etc. that usually offer a set of options;
- 246 • The Hedonic price approach is a revealed preferences method that consists in defining the effect of  
247 the service on the price of the related market good, usually residential buildings (Hadley et al.,  
248 2011);
- 249 • The Benefit transfer method, which differs from the previous ones for not being based on primary  
250 data, considers the results of evaluations performed with the same aim and comparable  
251 background transferring its results to the object of the assessment (Boyle and Bergstrom, 1992).

252

253 According to the classification hereby presented, Table 1 shows the collected papers in relation to the  
 254 evaluation approach adopted and the focus of the work.

255

256 **Table 1** - Analysis of the studies, considering the subject of the evaluation and the adopted approach;  
 257 when a study adopted more than one evaluation method or investigated more than one aspect, it was  
 258 repeatedly inserted in the corresponding cell.

259

	<b>Replacement cost</b>	<b>Avoided damages</b>	<b>Risk management</b>	<b>Contingent choice</b>	<b>Hedonic price</b>	<b>Benefit transfer</b>
<b>Protective function</b>	[2],[6],[7],[8],[13],[17],[19],[20],[21],[22],[24]					[16]
<b>Gravitational hazards</b>	[3],[23],[24]	[3]		[1]	[23]	[16]
<b>Rockfall</b>	[11],[12],[13],[22]	[11],[12],[18]	[25],[26]			
<b>Avalanche</b>	[11],[14],[22]	[9],[10],[11],[14]	[4],[5],[14]	[1],[14],[15]		
<b>Flood protection</b>	[3]	[3]				

260

261 As expected, these studies do not always have rockfall hazard or gravitational phenomena as their main  
 262 focus (7 and 5 papers respectively), but instead a broader subject is considered, encompassing all the  
 263 protection services of Alpine forests (12 papers). In addition, a relevant number of studies are mainly  
 264 dedicated to the economic evaluation of avalanches, adopting comparable approaches (Holub and Hübl,  
 265 2008, Getzner et al., 2017). In the collected studies, the most commonly employed approaches of  
 266 environmental economics are the traditional ones; among these, the replacement cost method emerges as  
 267 a clear leader, used in 18 studies, followed by the calculation of avoided damages, used in 7 studies. Only  
 268 three studies rely on preferences of the service beneficiaries, although one another [20] undertakes a  
 269 preliminary survey among stakeholders in order to establish a ranking list of ecosystem services, which are  
 270 subsequently evaluated with different methods. These findings are consistent with some available  
 271 guidelines on the evaluation of ecosystem services (Hadley et al., 2011, Wolff et al., 2015), in which the  
 272 replacement costs approach appears as the most straightforward way to evaluate protection services. This  
 273 approach is replicable, needs a limited amount of data and do not require the creation of a specific demand  
 274 curve, as other methods do. Therefore, even when it may not account for the complexity of some  
 275 processes (Farber et al., 2002), if properly adapted on the features of the study site, can produce reliable  
 276 results that can be easily understood also from a non-scientific audience (Bockstael et al., 2000).  
 277 Regarding the avoided damages approach, the second most common, this relies on the assets in an area,  
 278 determining the value of the protective effectiveness of forests in relation to their number, features and

279 spatial layout, and the probabilities of the event occurring. Nonetheless, its adoption is strictly site-specific  
 280 and usually limited by the difficulties in modelling the risk phenomena and determine their damage  
 281 potential. The presence of the forest, for example, may determine longer return periods for disasters, and  
 282 this effect can be isolated by building different scenarios (Dorren et al., 2006).

283 Methods dealing with preferences, stated or revealed, albeit commonly used in the literature to assess  
 284 cultural and recreational services (Boyd and Banzhaf, 2007), are poorly represented among the identified  
 285 studies. As expressed also by other Authors, such approaches are poorly suited to evaluate the protection  
 286 services, because the high data and resource requirements do not fit the presence of this service, often  
 287 taken for granted by the beneficiaries (Mattea et al., 2016, Getzner et al., 2017, Farley and Voinov, 2016).  
 288 In this respect, of particular note are the comparative studies like the one undertaken by Getzner et al.  
 289 (2017) [23], where the protective value of publicly owned forests are accounted with the replacement cost  
 290 approach and with the hedonic price method, showing that values obtained using the latter method are  
 291 substantially lower. For one study only [16] we found the definition of “benefit transfer” appropriate for  
 292 the adopted approach (Brouwer, 2000), because it applies the measurements produced in another study  
 293 [17] to a different territory. The scarceness of studies focused on the evaluation of the protective function  
 294 is surely a circumstance that makes it difficult to use benefit transfer in those estimations, because its  
 295 fruitful use is linked to the availability of so-called 'primary studies' carried out in other areas.

296 Concerning the geographical distribution of the collected studies, shown in Table 2, it appears that all the  
 297 countries of the Alpine Space are represented, albeit unevenly.

298

299 **Table 2** – Studies collected in the review by nation and scale of application of the evaluation; transnational  
 300 studies were inserted in both countries

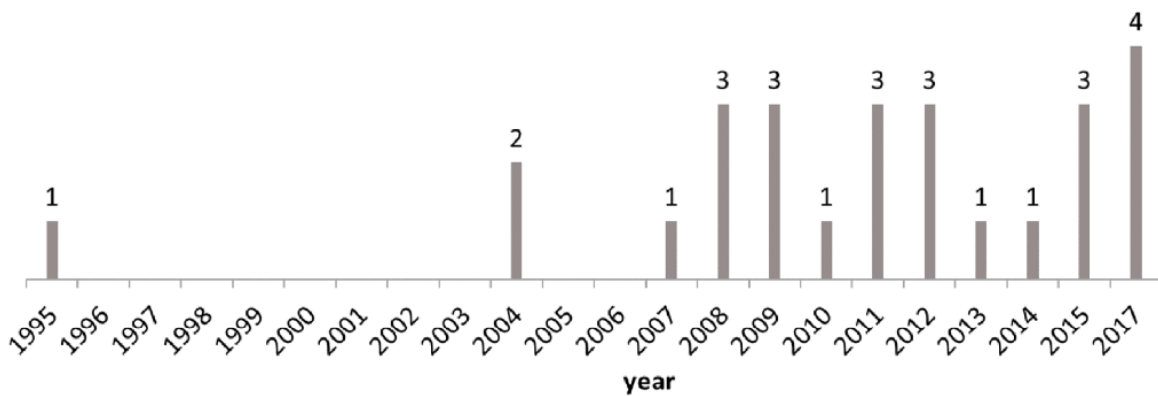
	<b>Local</b>	<b>Sub-regional</b>	<b>Regional</b>	<b>National</b>
<b>France</b>	[11],[12],[18]			[8]
<b>Italy</b>	[6],[7],[12],[17],[19], [20],[21],[22]	[16]	[2]	
<b>Switzerland</b>	[4],[5],[10],[12], [14],[15],[25],[26]			
<b>Austria</b>	[9]			[23]
<b>Germany</b>	[1],[3]			
<b>Slovenia</b>	[13]		[24]	

301

302 The vast majority of the studies concern small areas (21 out of 26), as the effects of rockfall are highly  
 303 localised (Volkwein et al., 2011); while only two studies [12 and 11] involve more areas, even in different  
 304 States. Conversely, some areas, mainly the ones where the avoided damages approach is used, appear in

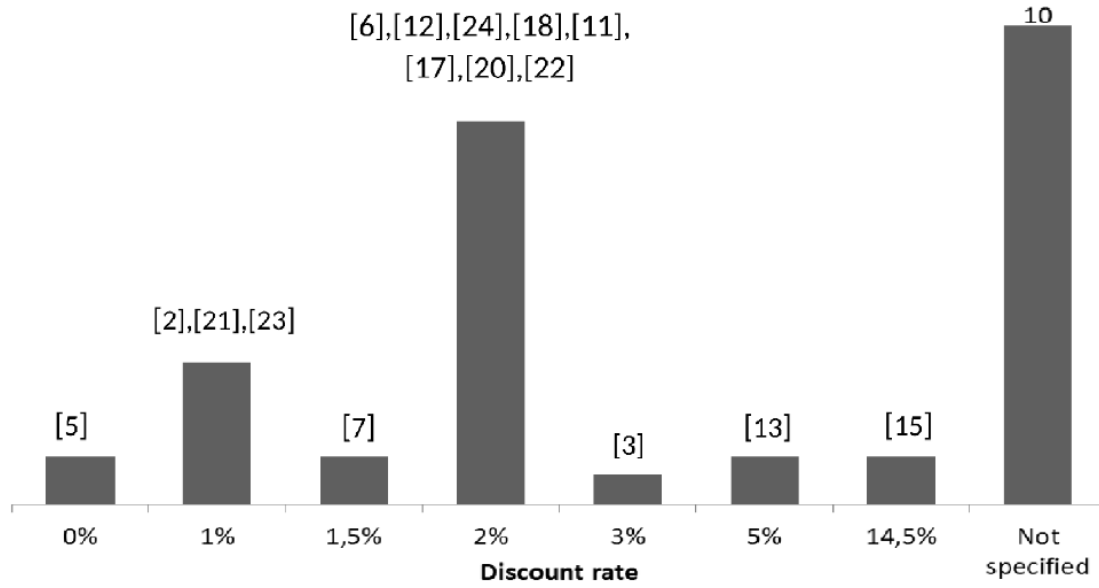
305 more than one study, which is reasonable due to the amount of data required to implement such  
 306 evaluations. In any case, the few studies making national scale evaluations show some limitations: in one  
 307 case, only the public owned forests are accounted for [23], in the other, the estimation was carried out on  
 308 the whole Alpine space, in a declared outlined form, and the value obtained is markedly lower than the  
 309 others [8].

310  
 311 The time span of the studies is equally interesting, enabling us to note how the issue, a highly specialized  
 312 topic in the broad field of ecosystem services evaluation, has only been the subject of studies since the  
 313 second half of nineties. After the first study in German language in 1995 [1], new studies appeared only  
 314 nine years later, in Italian [2] and in the German language [3], independently of each other. Conversely,  
 315 from 2007 onwards, the issue has attracted a growing interest in the academic environment, being  
 316 addressed at least yearly (see Fig. 3).



318  
 319 **Figure 3** - Number of reviewed studies and corresponding year of publication.

320  
 321 In a review of monetary evaluation, it is also interesting to focus on the discount rate, due to its heavy  
 322 influence on the estimation outcomes. To establish such a rate is in fact a necessary step to account the  
 323 time factor into economical evaluations (Gamper et al., 2006). In fact, these evaluations entail a  
 324 comparison between costs and benefits, distributed across given time frames; for this reason the chosen  
 325 discount rate strongly affects the obtained results and, therefore, the consequent operative decisions  
 326 (Dupire, 2011). All the studies we collected, except one [15], adopt low and fixed discount rates (see Fig.4),  
 327 and justify the selection in relation to the societal function of forests and their self-renewal capacity  
 328 (Dupire, 2011). One study [15] adopts a very high discount rate, equal to 14.5%, obtaining it from  
 329 interviews of the people about the willingness to pay to reduce hazard.



332

333

**Figure 4** - Discount rates and related number of reviewed studies that adopt it; the ID number of the corresponding study is reported above each column.

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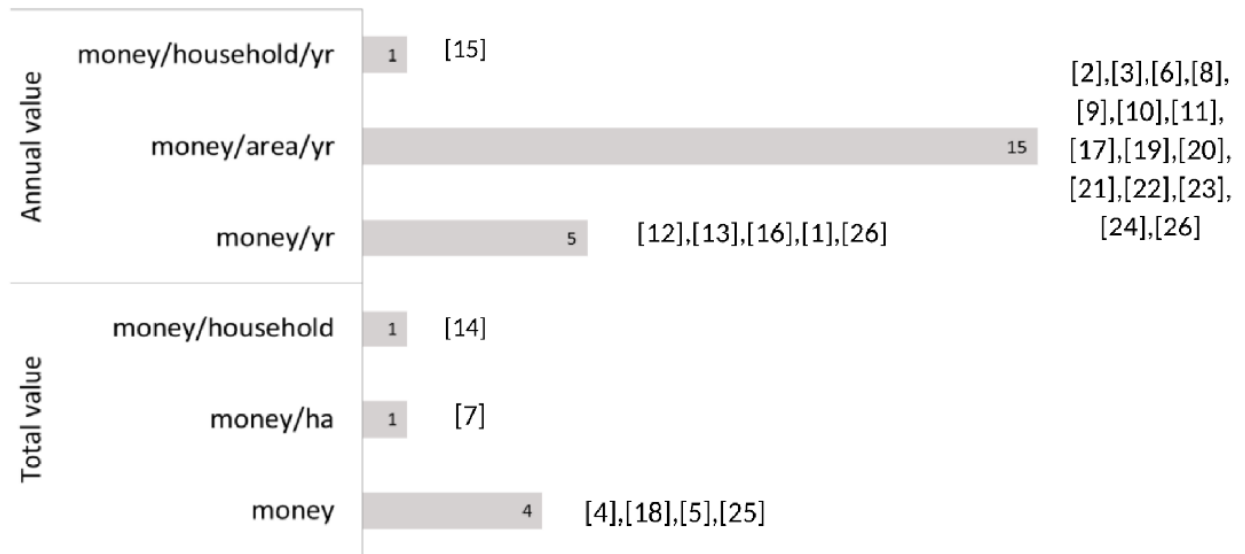
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344

345

Not all the reported studies, however, use financial calculation. Four of these ([3], [20], [22], [23]), use a discount rate but do not specify the time period of its application; among the reported time periods we can observe great variations, ranging from 8 to 300 years (in [12] and [10] respectively). Studies that adopt the replacement cost mostly use the working life of protective facilities to represent environmental services, which means time frames ranging from 10 to 70 years. Discount rates play a paramount role in determining the monetary value that the studies achieve, especially when long time periods are involved (Hepburn and Koundouri, 2007). This fact may partly explain the high variability of final values of the protection service, spread across several orders of magnitude, from hundreds of thousands (and even millions) of euros to negative values. Firstly, however, we have to illustrate the different measurement units adopted to express the protection service in monetary terms (Fig. 5), which we identify as total and annual values.



347 **Figure 5** – Expressions of monetary value of protective function, grouped by total and annual values, the ID  
 348 number of the corresponding study is reported at the end of each row.

349

350 As we may observe, the majority of studies (20) express the monetary value in form of yearly benefit,  
 351 referred to the forest area or, in one case, to the protected households. The yearly benefits of a portion of  
 352 agricultural land, or annuity, is a common parameter to value crops and forest, and many landowners are  
 353 familiar with it. Although the protection from rockfall is not as consistent as a crop yield, it too is linked to  
 354 acreage, and this form of expression of the value seems to be more easily understood by practitioners and  
 355 decision-makers. On the other hand, the remaining cases give one-off values, linked either to the individual  
 356 household [14] or to the sheltered area [7], or deriving from the expected reduction of damages [25]; in  
 357 one case [5] the value is negative, derived from a comparison between past data and a future scenario.

358

359 Finally, we report some considerations about the p [4],[18],[5],[25] lies of four elements that were  
 360 identified as significant in order to further characterize the economic evaluation performed (Blatter et al.,  
 361 2017, Laurans et al., 2013). Particularly, they are the stakeholder involvement, the assessment of forest  
 362 effectiveness, the inclusion of costs of forest management and the use of scenario analysis.

363 Among the collected studies, only four works ([12], [14], [18], [23]) accounted forest management as an  
 364 expenditure item. This aspect is the least considered among those recorded but, interestingly, all the  
 365 studies that took in account the active management of protection forests through silvicultural interventions  
 366 built some scenarios as well, confirming their long-term vision of the service. This approach is also evident  
 367 when including some sort of stakeholders involvement in the evaluation. Two of these studies ([14] and

368 [18]) are among the five researches ([11], [14], [15], [18], [20,]) that considered the need of the society for  
369 the service supplied by the protection forests. Nonetheless, this general lack of participatory approach can  
370 be considered as a sign of the disconnection that still lays between academic research and societal actors in  
371 the topic, resulting in a limited inclusion of these economic evaluation in the local risk management  
372 strategies.

373 More confidence, instead, emerges with scenario building and the measurement of forest efficacy (12 and  
374 9 cases respectively). Additionally, it is interesting to notice the increasing number of researches measuring  
375 the effectiveness of a protection forest in delivering its main service. This phenomenon is probably related  
376 to the development of experiences, methods and models recently published to study and foresee the role  
377 of trees against rockfall events (Howald et al., 2017, Dupire et al., 2016a) and, in parallel, to a larger  
378 availability of remote sensing and other geospatial technologies that fit well the data requirements  
379 (Monnet et al., 2017).

380 Moreover, it is also worth noting that 10 studies do not address any of these topics ([1], [2], [6], [8], [9],  
381 [19], [20], [21], [22], [24]), and in 7 studies just one of them ([3], [4], [5], [7], [13], [16], [17]). On the other  
382 hand, in two studies, [14] and [18], all these aspects were considered. Nevertheless, it should be stressed  
383 that the inclusion of those aspects may or may not serve the purpose of the evaluation, depending on the  
384 chosen approach, the aims of the evaluation and data availability. For this reason, their presence or  
385 absence should not be taken as a quality or accuracy indicator of the reviewed studies.

## 386 5 Conclusions

387 Rockfall is usually a small-scale phenomenon but, in the Alps, it occurs almost on a daily basis (Dorren,  
388 2003). Thanks to the knowledge that we currently possess, it is possible to implement economic evaluation  
389 models for the protection service of forests against rockfall that rely upon high-quality quantitative data  
390 and can deliver a very accurate representation of processes when carefully calibrated and validated. Even  
391 though this evaluation is restricted to a unique ecosystem service, compared with the many that are  
392 provided by forests, obtaining reliable values of the protection service has not only scientific relevance, but  
393 rather can have notable implications on decision-making at local level. Some examples of application could  
394 be the cost-benefit analysis for public works, adjustment in forest planning and, broadly speaking, a better  
395 allocation of resources supporting a sustainable territorial management (Teich and Bebi, 2009, Moos et al.,  
396 2017a).

397 In the past decades, many Alpine countries developed guidelines for territorial planning, like the Territorial  
398 Integrated Plans in force in Lombardy, Italy, for example, explicitly take into account rockfall hazards, by  
399 combining the study of the process dynamics with an analysis of the context of the occurrence. In recent  
400 years, large-scale process modelling of natural hazards, in Switzerland and Austria for example, enabled the  
401 delineation of those forest with an object-protecting function (Losey and Wehrli, 2013, Perzl et al., 2014).

402 The cartographic information supplied can serve as a basis for target-oriented forest management and for  
403 objective allocation of financial resources. In such types of elaboration, an ecosystem service evaluation  
404 could usefully fit, creating a bridge between inhabitants and decision makers. Social awareness is a factor of  
405 preeminent importance (Spangenberg and Settele, 2010) to address local policy decisions. Concerning the  
406 protection against gravitational hazards, a topic where awareness of citizens is already prevailing on other  
407 functions, at least in the Alps (Grilli et al., 2015, Zoderer et al., 2016), the dissemination of these results  
408 may create value and enhance the relevance of forest resources (Mattea et al., 2016). The increased  
409 consideration of this nature-based solution for risk reduction could also foster the implementation of a  
410 targeted forest management, in line with the available guidelines (Kajdiž et al., 2015, Radtke et al., 2014),  
411 ensuring a long-term safety to the endangered assets via a cost-effective protection measure. Moreover,  
412 from a societal perspective, the fact that such research is included in a collaborative project between  
413 nations of the Alpine Space enhances its chances of diffusion, as well as its responsibilities. The project  
414 aims, on the one hand, to develop a common strategy for the management of rockfall hazard, and on the  
415 other, to encourage local authorities towards its adoption through this collection of the most relevant  
416 examples of economic evaluations. It is significant that the results may refer to a common language and a  
417 common interest in sharing the culture of protection.

418 Considering the critical issues and uncertainties still present in complex evaluations, as the protection  
419 functions are, it is worth discussing the possible advances and the very meaning of monetary evaluation. As  
420 Bockstael (2000) states: "Our ignorance does not preclude the need for these answers, nor has it prevented  
421 us from giving partial answers when complete ones were unavailable", moreover, as other Authors point  
422 out, the use of a method can draw to attention its flaws and could stimulate its improvement (Gret-  
423 Regamey and Kytzia, 2007). In spite of it being a strong approximation to reduce to a monetary value the  
424 ecosystem functions, upon which a large proportion of human communities rely (Farley and Voinov, 2016),  
425 translating those services in monetary terms is maybe the best way to carry information into decision-  
426 making processes (Spangenberg and Settele, 2010, Daily et al., 2009). In fact, with their directness and  
427 easier comprehension, their adoption could help non-academic stakeholders realizing the value hidden in  
428 these nature-based solutions for risk mitigation. In this context, this review may offer a basis for future  
429 applications, highlighting the current development of this topic in the Alps, even in such a limited field as  
430 rockfall protection evaluation, and promoting the adoption of a common framework of approaches and  
431 input data for the evaluation of this forest function. Such conditions are nowadays essential to achieve a  
432 higher acknowledgement of these practices, recognise the role of protection forest in the mountain areas  
433 and legitimate their active management with the long-term benefits of a safe and liveable Alpine Space.

434



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## 443 Annex

444 **Annex A** – Full reference and corresponding ID number of the studies compliant with the review criteria.

445

ID	Full references
[1]	Löwenstein W. (1995); <i>Die monetäre Bewertung der Schutzfunktion des Waldes vor Lawinen und Rutschungen in Hinterstein (Allgäu)</i> . In: Bergen V, Löwenstein W, Pfister G (1995) <i>Studien zur monetären Bewertung von externen Effekten der Forst- und Holzwirtschaft</i> . Schriften zur Forstökonomie Bd. 2. Frankfurt a.M.: Sauerländer's Verlag. 185 S.
[2]	Notaro S., Paletto A. (2004); <i>Economic evaluation of the protective function of mountain forests: a case study from the Italian Alps</i> . In Buttoud et al. (2004) <i>The Evaluation of Forest Policies and Programmes</i> , EFI proceedings.
[3]	Kennel M. (2004); <i>Vorbeugender Hochwasserschutz durch Wald und Forstwirtschaft in Bayern</i> . LWF Wissen Nr. 44. 76 S.
[4]	Grêt-Regamey A., Kytzia S. (2007); <i>Integrating the valuation of ecosystem services into the Input-Output economics of an Alpine region</i> . <i>Ecological Economics</i> , 63, 786-798.
[5]	Grêt-Regamey A., Walz A., Bebi P. (2008); <i>Valuing ecosystem services for sustainable landscape planning in Alpine regions</i> . <i>Mountain Research and Development</i> , 28, 156-165
[6]	Notaro S., Paletto A. (2008); <i>Natural disturbances and natural hazards in mountain forests: a framework for the economic valuation</i> . Discussion paper
[7]	La Notte A. and Paletto A. (2008). <i>La funzione protettiva dei boschi del Cansiglio: una preliminare valutazione economica</i> . <i>Dendronatura</i> 2: 37-53.
[8]	Chevassus-au-Louis B. et al. (2009) ; <i>Approche économique de la biodiversité et des services liés aux écosystèmes. Contribution à la décision politique</i> . Centre d'analyse stratégique, rapport n°18, Paris, 399 p.

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