

## **Ecosystem Services and Environmental Investments: a case study of the Itaipu Hydroelectric Power Plant**

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## Abstract

The aim of this research is to measure the ecosystem service of regulating soil erosion for the Itaipu hydroelectric plant. It can be considered one of the first approaches in the Brazilian electricity sector, as it offers relevant data to support the decision-making process of the organization under investigation, expanding the understanding of the risks arising from sedimentation and water scarcity. As methodological procedures, simulation was applied considering replacement costs and the assessment of any revenue not earned by the accumulation of sediment in the reservoir, taking as a reference the average monetary value of the cubic meter of water used for energy generation. It was observed that for every US\$ 1 invested in these vegetation maintenance and soil conservation activities, costs of US\$ 4.53 to US\$ 520.65 are avoided with dredging and reservoir recovery processes. This research corroborates previous studies on the need to maintain vegetation areas close to the reservoir, ensuring the operational conditions of the hydroelectric plant, contributing to the sizing of investments, and the opportunity to act preventively in vegetation areas of interest, focusing on guaranteeing the lifespan of the hydroelectric plant.

**Keywords:** Ecosystem services; Environmental investments; Hydroelectric power plants.

## 1. Introduction.

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Several hydroelectric power plants have been constructed in drainage basins in order to meet the energy needs of the countries. However, part of the literature affirms that the economic benefits caused by the implantation and operation of such hydroelectric plants are overestimated, whereas negative effects on biodiversity, water quality, and the riverside communities are underestimated. Another evidence of such overestimation is the shortening of the foreseen lifespan of hydroelectric undertakings when those are placed downstream others, as the latter ones lose their former ability of trapping sediments as time passes (MENDES, 2020).

Many hydroelectric power plants develop their sustainability programs, guided by economic and socioenvironmental issues, aiming to act in environmental compensations, as well as to reduce impacts, and to support the socioenvironmental development of the region where it is being installed (MOREIRA *et al.*, 2015). The process of defining how to prioritize investments in sustainability programs, as well as the magnitude of these investments, still represents a challenge in such a way that one of the types of study that may contribute to this endeavor consists in the evaluation of ecosystem services (ARIAS *et al.*, 2011; VOGL *et al.*, 2016).

After having economically measured the services provided by the environment, governments and organizations are able to establish a benchmark to their expenses concerning the preservation, and also to eventual payments for environmental services (WINEMILLER *et al.*, 2016). The term “ecosystem services” describes a relatively new approach, which directly associates the environment to the provision of human wellbeing, a concept to which the generation of renewable energy is intrinsically connected with (ESPÉCIE *et al.*, 2019).

Faber *et al.* (2012) defend that the ecosystem evaluation studies represent an extensive line of research inside ecological economics, sustaining that the “monetization of the environment” is essential to balance the costs of maintaining it with the benefits it provides. Costanza *et al.* (1997) affirm that ecosystem services are not totally captured in commercial markets or adequately quantified on a comparable basis regarding the economically measurable services.

Especie *et al.* (2019) reinforce the existence of dependence of the hydroelectric plants on ecosystem services, identifying in their research soil erosion regulation and water supply services as the most researched in the context of hydroelectric plants. The relation between the generation of hydroelectric power and conservation of the ecosystem in the water basin is emphasized in terms of supply and demand for ecosystem services of regulation of water flow and sediment retention (GUO *et al.*, 2007). The usage of the soil of the upstream drainage basin might extend the lifespan of the reservoirs (SCHLEISS *et al.*, 2016). Hydroelectric plants may be considered beneficiaries of ecosystem services, insofar as they are positively affected by benefits that the environment provides, which may help in the water provision, as well as regulate the water quality and the soil erosion, etc. (GUO *et al.* 2007; VOGL

*et al.*, 2016; HATAMKHANI *et al.*, 2023). In other words, by preserving the environment and the ecosystem that surrounds hydroelectric projects, the plant benefits from the provision and maintenance of services provided by the environment that are essential for energy generation.

The relevance of this topic is related to the investment management in environmental preservation and business management as in the preliminary review of the literature on these topics few studies discuss the provision of ecosystem services and their benefits for hydroelectric plants in the Brazilian scenario. This research may contribute to a potential replication methodology for assessing environmental investments and prospecting scenarios for land use and conservation activities, in line with the objectives of preserving the capacity of hydroelectric reservoirs, and also enables ecosystem valuation as another reference for evaluating investments in environmental preservation.

In view of the above, the aim of this research consists in measuring the ecosystem service of regulation of soil erosion for the Itaipu hydroelectric power plant. It is understood that the protection strip of vegetation prevents sediments from being discharged into the reservoir, maintaining their operation conditions and its lifespan (CAPECHE, 2005; HARRINGTON *et al.*, 2010; MENDES, 2020). Measuring the value of these ecosystem services is an opportunity to comprehend the risks caused by the shortage of natural resources (water and soil), as well as to assess and evaluate the magnitude of investments (costs and benefits) and act preventively in areas of interest, aiming to maintain the lifespan of the venture.

In this paper, based on the analysis of data relating to environmental preservation expenses already incurred and possible expenses for the recovery of the reservoir using dredging, it was estimated that, for each US\$ 1 invested in environmental preservation activities, the hydroelectric plant avoids expenses – as a result of the process of dredging – that range from US\$ 4.53 (lowest cost) to US\$ 520.65 (highest cost). Among the methodologies used for the economic valuation of ecosystem services, in this research have chosen to work with the Replacement Cost Method (RCM). It also differs from most environmental studies on hydroelectric plants as it focuses on the discussion of how ecosystem services for soil erosion regulation are relevant and economically feasible to ensure reservoir storage capacity, rather than addressing impacts of hydroelectric plants due to their management of environmental resources.

The article begins with the theoretical reference, and in sequence, the methodological procedures and findings are presented. Finally, the final considerations are discussed.

## **2. Theoretical background.**

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In this section, it will be aborded conceptual aspects related to ecosystem services, sustainability and hydroelectric power plants. For this research, we start from the premise that the ecosystem that surrounds the hydroelectric project influences several aspects related to energy generation and the longevity of the operation, as well as being influenced by the way in which the hydroelectric plants manage their reservoirs and the surrounding environment. The analysis of these interrelationships involves ecosystem services related to dependence on the plant (especially water supply) and the regulation of soil erosion.

### **2.1. The electric sector and the hydroelectric plants.**

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The electric sector can be considered fundamental for the good functioning of practically all the other sectors of an economy, in such a way that the energy availability determines the ability of a country to provide its population various services, and to prospere economically (YÜKSEL, 2010; MAYUMI and TANIKAWA, 2012; PURWANTO and AFIFAH, 2016; VOGL *et al.*, 2016). For comparison, 60.2% of Brazil's energy network comes from hydroelectricity, whereas it represents 16.4% of the world's power generation miscellaneous (EPE, 2022).

It is believed that big hydroelectric ventures impact locations where they are installed and that there is a need to assess them, especially in the social, economic, and environmental realms. With this in mind, there has been an extensive discussion regarding the need for companies to approach sustainability not only as a secondary issue, but by integrating it to the strategic decision processes (ENGERT, RAUTER and BAUMGARTNER, 2016; MOREIRA *et al.*, 2015). This issue is not

restricted to the particularities of Brazil. In Nepal, for example, where hydropower accounts for 97% of generation, hydropower plants operating in the Himalayas, Andes and Alps are facing operational challenges due to the high concentration of sediment loads in rivers, especially due to their negative impact in the components of hydroelectric turbines (ABREGU, ACHARYA and SOMEMSLIE, 2023).

Based on a systematic review concerning hydroelectric plants, Jiang, Quiang, and Lin (2016) utilized a bibliographic analysis of scientific production from 1994 to 2013, thus evaluating 1,726 papers related to the topic (*highly related to hydropower*). The main findings were: (i) most topics were linked to the periods of post-construction and to the beginning of the operation, rather than to the construction projects themselves and to the utilized technologies; (ii) multidisciplinary topics; and (iii) the rapid and vertiginous increase in issues on hydroelectric plants.

In a similar study, Han *et al.* (2014) analyzed 434 scientific papers from 1991 to 2012. Besides the afore mentioned findings, the authors identified the most important journals that mention this topic (*Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews, Renewable Energy, Energy Policy*). The main countries where publications about sustainability in hydroelectric plants are found include the United States of America, Turkey, Brazil and China. The main keywords were “*Turquia*” (Turkey), “eco” (eco-tourism, ecosystems, ecosystem services, ecosystem rehabilitation, ecosystem-mapping, ecosystem index for sustainability, ecosystem goods and services, eco-labelling, ecological land classification, ecological services), “small hydro”, and “fish.”

In this connection, hydroelectric plants are relevant in comparison to other potential sources, given that they are relatively low-cost sources of renewable energy (Liu *et al.*, 2013). Their capacity of generation, especially in countries with broad flooded areas, has helped them offer a greater amount of electricity. Compared to other sources, the benefits of using hydroelectric plants are related to (YÜKSEL, 2010; LIU *et al.*, 2013): (i) efficiency of energy conversion, with low operational costs and an already consolidated technology; (ii) low maintenance costs; (iii) stability of its main input (water) in face of the market conditions; (iv) possibility of operating generation flexibly; (v) capacity of promoting improvements in the living conditions of communities that are near big ventures; and (vi) high level of reliability.

In Brazil, this has been the main alternative for energy supply (EPE, 2022). Moreira *et al.* (2015) affirm that the year-on-year growth rate of the energy sector in Brazil is 4%, by considering the increase of the participation of other sources of energy in its electricity miscellaneous. The Brazilian energy network is constituted by hydroelectricity, 60.2%; thermal energy, 16%; nuclear energy, 1.1%; biomass energy, 8.8%; wind energy, 11.4%; from other alternative energy sources, 2.5% (EPE, 2022).

Brazil's hydroelectric capacity stands out when we observe the availability of hydric resources in regions with potential for power generation: the second most important Brazilian basin in terms of hydroelectricity, the Parana River basin, uses 72% of its total potential, while the São Francisco River basin uses 65%. The alike percentage of countries such as France and Germany are 100% and 83%, respectively (BRAZIL, 2022).

## 2.2. Sustainability and ecosystem services.

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Given the size of the hydroelectric projects and their impact in the environments where they were installed, it is often discussed the actions for sustainability carried out by the hydroelectric plants. Most studies consider evaluations of an economic, social, and environmental nature (LIU *et al.*, 2013; MUSSI, MELO and TORTATO, 2018). Taken into account are the local impacts, restrictions that such ventures may generate in ecosystems and in nearby communities, changes in the dynamics of land and aquatic habitats, deposition of sediments in riverbeds, decrease in biodiversity, degradation of water quality, etc. (SCHLEISS *et al.*, 2016; HATAMKHANI *et al.*, 2023). Neupane *et al.* (2023), in turn, examined the environmental implications of thirteen small run-of-the-river hydroelectric facilities in Nepal before and after they were installed. A significant transformation in land use and coverage, expansion of settlements, reduction of vegetation and increase in flooded areas were observed.

Jager and Smith (2008), in turn, affirm that reservoirs of big hydroelectric plants operate in systems that aim at maximizing revenues obtained by selling the generated energy, while respecting some licenses for the use of the reservoir. However, these optimization systems usually do not consider the health of the aquatic ecosystem. According to these authors, both situations should be conciliated,

ruling out the existing trade-off between maximization of the generation revenue and the reservoir's preservation. By harmonizing both, generation efficiency and environmental preservation would become more reasonable, considering the provision of water valuation. In this context, Hatamkhani *et al.* (2023) proposed an attempt to quantify these environmental effects to develop an optimization model, with the aim of achieving a more sustainable development of hydroelectric projects in the system. The results show that the fact of considering the environment negatively affects the calculation of the net present value of hydroelectric projects, although they make the evaluation more complete and fairer.

Moreover, reservoirs need maintenance to guarantee their lifespan. According to Mendes (2020), reservoirs lose storage capacity when sediments accumulate in them, impacting their operation and longevity. Excessive sedimentation and sediments trapping are concerning problems in the operation of dams and in power production, besides their impact on hydro ecological processes, such as the supply of nutrients for species of fish and reconstruction of downstream deltas. Regarding individual dams, the World Commission on Dams (WCD) identified that 10% of the studied projects lost 50% of their active storage as a result of sedimentation (WCD, 2000). In this respect, around 20% of the sedimentation in the reservoir comes from natural processes, such as weathering of rocks, whereas 80% comes from bad usage and irregular occupation of the soil, lack of crop rotation, lack of terracing, construction of inadequate rural roads, lack of riparian forest and destruction of forest cover (Arias *et al.*, 2011). Actions for maintenance of upstream forest cover on a drainage basin contribute for the economic and operational life of a hydroelectric plant (HAJRAMURNI 2010; ARIAS *et al.*, 2011) and constitute a monetary benchmark for the allocation of investments and/or for the establishment of partnerships for the payment of environmental services. In the words of Arias *et al.* (2011, p.475):

The above suggests that (1) sedimentation is a critical issue for the operation and longevity of hydropower dams; (2) forest conservation in a watershed can significantly prevent excessive sediment yields to downstream dams; and (3) erosion control is an ecosystem service provided by forested watersheds and it offers value to downstream hydropower generation. Hence, a regulatory or market-based system that monetizes the value from ecosystem services could generate revenues to finance upstream forest conservation and management. A standardized methodological tool that allows land managers and dam operators to evaluate the potential economic benefits from forest conservation in the context of reservoir sedimentation and the useful lifespan of a hydropower facility is thus needed.

Based on the arguments, it is possible to affirm that one important aspect to be improved for the maintenance of the reservoir lifespan is associated with the preservation of the surrounding vegetation – especially in the protection zones (GUO *et al.*, 2007; SCHLEISS *et al.*, 2016). From an ecologic perspective (FABER *et al.*, 2012), the land use ensures the regulation of soil erosion, that is, it enables the environment to provide its ecosystem service. This ecosystem service, in turn, consists in one of the main associates of hydroelectric plants both in construction and operational phases (GVCES, 2018). The assessment of ecosystem services is relevant for the correct measurement of benefits and environmental impact in the regions where the hydroelectric plants are installed.

Intralawan *et al.* (2018), in the evaluation of the potential benefits and environmental costs resulting from the installation of the hydroelectric projects in the Mekong river (Vietnam), considering the ecosystem services in the region, concluded that the prediction of loss with fishing, discharge of sediments in the river, and loss of nutrients for local biodiversity outweigh the benefits of generating electricity and flood control. In the view of these authors, these facts – if analyzed in anticipation – could definitely have stopped the installation of the hydroelectric projects. Stephenson and Shabman (2019), in turn, analyzed 17 cases of hydroelectric projects relicensing in the USA, noting that none of these requests took into account the assessment of local ecosystem services for comparison with monetary estimates of hydroelectric energy benefits. The incompleteness of information for decision-making when ecosystems services are not in these assessments is pointed out.

Briones-Hidrovo, Uche and Martinez-Garcia (2019) discuss that the assessment of impacts of the Hydropower plants on local ecosystems must be included amongst generation costs. In a case study in Ecuador, the authors found that the ecosystem services value decreased with the construction of the hydropower plant, thus the ecological balance returning losses for \$ –314.7 million/yr. Periotto and Tudisi (2013), when analyzing the Carlos Botelho hydroelectric power plant and its most extensive

wetlands identified 20 ecosystem services, using qualitative and quantitative metrics based on the matrix proposed by De Groot (1992).

In short, in order to apply the concepts related to ecosystem valuation aimed at hydroelectric plants, literature suggests - albeit in different scenarios - (i) to consider the environmental impact on the surrounding areas, on the soil, in the reservoir as well as on the provision of water and, (ii) to take into account the monetary aspects of these impacts to make feasibility analyzes and the management of environmental investments more complete and closer to reality.

In order to homogenize the concepts, the definition of “ecosystem services” offered by Costanza *et al.* (1997) is adopted, by which such services consist of human populations benefits, directly or indirectly obtained from ecosystem functions. Given the relevance of hydropower for the energy supply, the main ecosystem services and their potential relations with hydroelectric plants are presented in the following chart:

Chart 1 – Main ecosystem services and interfaces with hydroelectric plants.

| Ecosystem utility services   | Concept                                                                                                      | Relation with hydroelectric plants                                               |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| General provision            | Production of tangible goods (food, fibre, genetic resources, ornamental resources) that generate wellbeing. | Fish supply/monitoring                                                           |
| Water supply                 | Contribution in terms of quantity of water                                                                   | Dependence for generation/impact on downstream users                             |
| Water quality regulation     | Water quality control                                                                                        | Turbine operation influence                                                      |
| Regulation of soil erosion   | Role of ecosystems in the control of soil erosion processes                                                  | Control and monitoring, depending on the impact on the lifespan of the reservoir |
| Regulation of global climate | Influence on emissions of relevant greenhouse gases                                                          | Maintenance and restoration of surrounding areas                                 |
| Cultural services            | Natural benefits (cultural diversity, spiritual and religious values, educational values)                    | Modification of landscapes and interaction with ecosystems                       |
| Leisure and tourism          | Role of ecosystems in relaxation and leisure                                                                 | Influence in touristic activities                                                |
| Supporting services          | Soil formation, photosynthesis, nutrient cycling                                                             | Contribution to the environment surrounding the enterprise                       |

Source: Adapted from Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (2005) and GVces (2018).

In this research, the soil erosion regulation was considered as the primary ecosystem service, for its impact in the operative and economic life of a power plant. However, it is necessary to acknowledge that the presence of sediments also impacts the quality of the water in the reservoir and may increase turbine maintenance costs.

The assumptions that justify the evaluation of the ecosystem services are related to the absence of market prices for certain natural resources, in addition to the fact that often the indirect benefits that the ecosystem provides are not considered (ARIAS *et al.*, 2011; PAVANI, 2018). These are issues that help to prioritize investments in environmental preservation and for the design and delimitation of policies aimed at paying environmental services (FANG *et al.*, 2022). According to Guo *et al.* (2007, p.1558):

The forest vegetation cover in watersheds provides two important ecosystem services. It provides river water flow regulation. It also provides sediment retention, which acts as a “sponge” to regulate and stabilize water runoff to balance river flow over the seasons; further, it retains soil and decreases silt run off into rivers. Hydroelectricity production relies on natural systems of watersheds to provide the ecosystem services, including river water flow regulation and sediment retention [...].

Studies focused on the evaluation of the ecosystem service for regulating soil erosion are amongst the most widespread when examining the literature on ecosystem services related to

hydroelectric power plants (FU *et al.*, 2014; ESPÉCIE *et al.*, 2019). Most of these try to estimate the tons of sediments that enter the reservoir in each period in the conditions in which the vegetation was. This information is then compared with data on the sedimentation avoided when improvements to soil and vegetation care were implemented in the same area. Sedimentation avoided is interpreted as a cost that will no longer be disbursed by the hydroelectric power plant, related to the cost of dredging to remove this sediment (in tons or cubic meters) from the reservoir bed (CAPECHE, 2005; PAVANI, 2018; GVCES, 2018). In this context, erosion regulation is interpreted as an ecosystem service provided by nature, and the costs avoided with dredging make up one of the benchmarks for evaluating environmental investments and payments for environmental services to residents of areas of interest to the hydroelectric power plants. In the words of Oliveira *et al.* (2013, p.160)

Several researches have reported the influence of soil management systems and preparation methods concerning erosion rates. In general terms, the higher the aggregate soil break down caused by the soil preparation method or less conservation management systems, the higher soil losses occur. Studies also show that better soil protection provides lower soil losses due to less soil exposure to erosive agents. This way, the more the crops develop, the less soil areas are unprotected.

Cruz *et al.* (1988) present a methodology for assessing the economic impact of river basin erosion in a hydroelectric reservoir in Philippines. They quantified 3 different costs associated with the impact of soil erosion on the vegetation surrounding the reservoirs: (a) reduced useful life; (b) reduced storage capacity; and (c) increased construction costs of the dam's physical structure. The results are used to establish a baseline for an eventual payment scheme for the environmental service of forest conservation in the upstream part of the hydrographic basin supplying water to the hydroelectric plant. These authors try to demonstrate how future loss of revenue can be avoided by investing a small amount of money in hydrographic basin management.

Arias *et al.* (2011) indicate the sequence of steps to estimate payments for forest conservation near a hydroelectric plant in Cambodia. This model, in the authors' interpretation, ensures the conservation of an area of interest to the hydroelectric plant, protecting the reservoir from eventual sediment discharge, so that the cost of conserving the surrounding vegetation can be seen as an investment in hydroelectric energy, as it prevents the reservoir from losing its water storage capacity. It should be noted that the forest vegetation plays a role in regulating the availability of water based on the following possibilities: (i) making rainwater storage via forest vegetation feasible, and redistributing rainfall on the tree canopies, branches, and trunks; (ii) mitigating the runoff due to the existence of the humus layer, herbaceous layer and tree roots; (iii) reinvigorating soil permeability through the presence of macropores due to the system of roots; (iv) limiting soil water through the process of plant transpiration preventing landslides (MEDEIROS and YOUNG, 2011). The following figure exemplifies the interface between the evaluation of ecosystem services and its application.

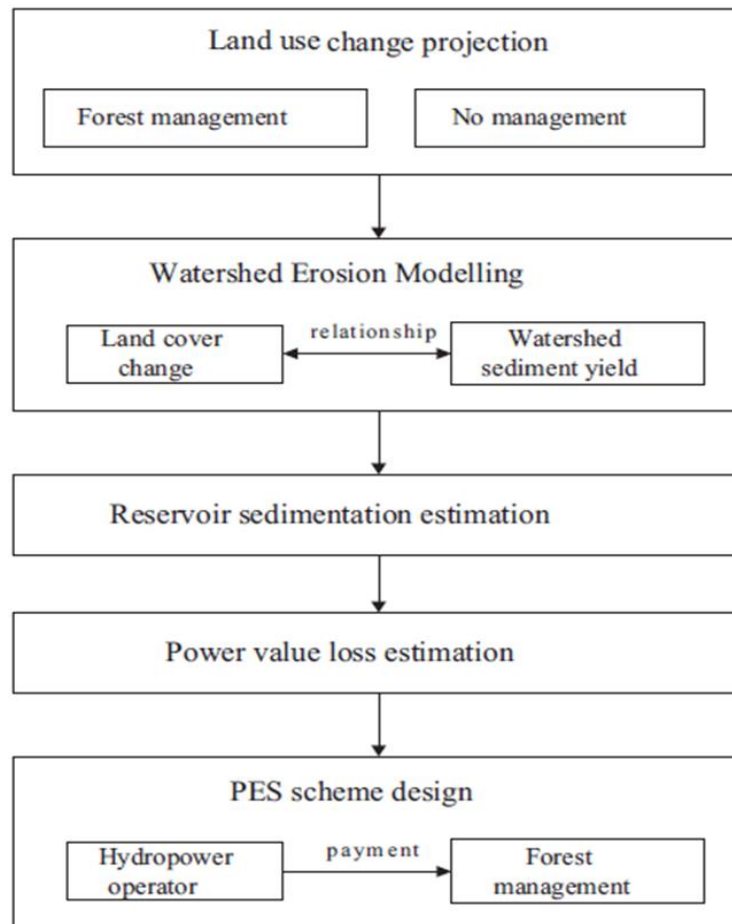


Figure 1 – Interface between the evaluation of ecosystem services and payment for environmental services.

Source: Arias *et al.* (2011).

According to figure 1, Arias *et al.* (2011) and Vogl *et al.* (2016) still discuss that land management based on ecosystem services, in line with environmental and regional goals, can benefit the hydroelectric sector and support economic growth. The authors defend the opportunity to drive environmental investments to ensure the provision for ecosystem services based on the quantification of the benefits of soil and water conservation. The economic viability of this model is exemplified with five hydroelectric plants built in India.

### 3. Methodology.

The methodological section covers the case study contextualization, in which data and particularities of the Itaipu hydroelectric plant are presented; the way the data were collected and the method chosen for the economic valuation of ecosystem services, and, finally; the sequence of steps taken to calculate economic valuation.

#### 3.1. Contextualization.

The proposal for the integration of topics is illustrated here in the form of the Itaipu hydroelectric plant and its particular Sustainability Program. The choice was intentional, since the corporation is considered the largest hydroelectric power generating in the world, with its sustainability program in progress for over a decade, being internationally recognized for its contribution to the socio-economic development of the Western region of the Paraná State, for its participation in the energy supply to Brazil (approximately 9% of the country, according to Itaipu annual report), and for its water management and



soil conservation practices. The following chart presents the environmental actions that were considered in this evaluation, taking into consideration their objectives and the justification for their development.

Chart 2 – Itaipu environmental actions.

| Environmental Action                    | Objective                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 | Justification                                                                                                                                                |
|-----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Protection zone vegetation management   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Recovery, protection, and conservation of the protected areas (vegetation area near the reservoir);</li> <li>- Recovery and conservation of permanent preservation areas, by creating ecological corridors which allow the gene flow of the regional flora and fauna.</li> </ul> | To conserve and recover the protected areas that belong to the Itaipu power plant, thus guaranteeing their biological integrity.                             |
| Integrated management of water and soil | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Conservation practices, such as agricultural terracing, gully control, rural roads adequacy, construction of isolation fence of the riparian forest, reforestation, recovery of river springs, plantation of seedlings, and protection and recovery of sources.</li> </ul>       | To reduce the sediment yield in order to maintain the availability of water in good quality and in enough quantity for the energy production and other uses. |

Source: Itaipu annual reports (2022; 2023).

In this research, specific programs related to direct impact on ecosystem services for regulating soil erosion and water supply were selected. However, it is important to add that the Itaipu hydroelectric plant has other relevant works, related to water quality monitoring, biodiversity conservation (fauna and flora), fish monitoring, environmental sanitation and solid waste management (ITAIPU, 2023).

The operation of that plant began in 1984. Its reservoir is 170 km long and has 20 power units, generating 700MW each. The Itaipu Reservoir, with its 1,350 km<sup>2</sup> of flooded area, is the seventh largest in Brazil in surface, and has the best indicator of water usage for the energy production amongst big Brazilian reservoirs. In Itaipu, the production rate is 10.4 MW per km<sup>2</sup> (that is, each 0.1 km<sup>2</sup> of flooded area can generate 1 MW) (MUSSI *et al.*, 2020). The reservoir was impounded in 1982, with 1,350 km<sup>2</sup> of surface area, 163 km in length, 29 billion m<sup>3</sup> in volume and average flow rate of 11,200 m<sup>3</sup>/s (Mendes, 2020). The following figure shows the Itaipu Reservoir:

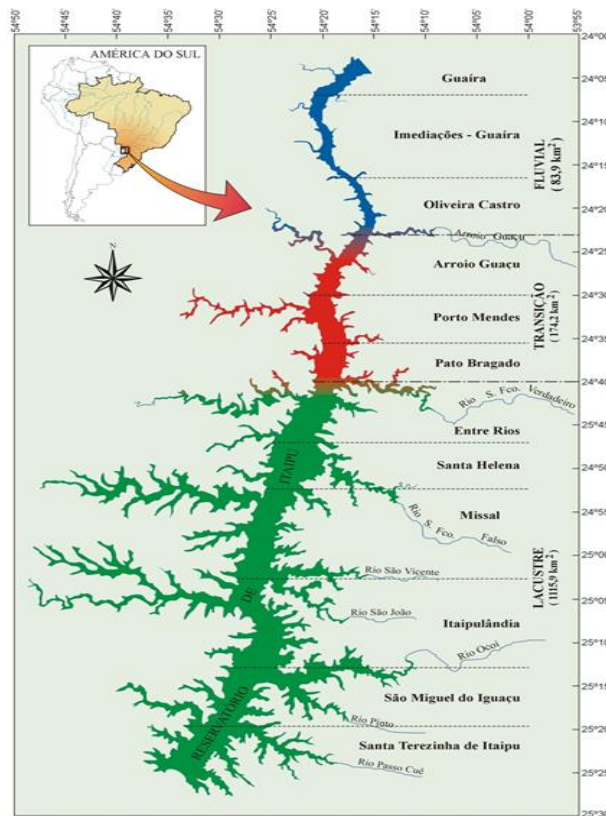


Figure 2 – Itaipu Reservoir.

Source: Adapted from Mussi and Tortato (2018).

### 3.2. Data collection and valuation methodology application.

This research was conducted assessing documents such as the Ten-Year Energy Masterplan (Brazil, 2022), the Plant's annual sustainability reports and other documents such as technical reports. The purpose of this phase was to obtain information about the actions that were encompassed by the sustainability program related to the ecosystem service of soil regulation. Aware that erosion interferes with the storage capacity of the reservoir, harms water quality and increases the maintenance costs of generating turbines, a perspective to quantify the value of the cubic meter used in power generation was searched. This exercise is justified by the fact that water conservation cannot be achieved without due care with other natural resources, as the hydrological cycle reflects the conditions, uses and land cover from which the water comes. The water cycle depends on the benefits of vegetation cover (LIMA,1996).

Next, an evaluation exercise was carried out based on the recommended methodology found in literature (ARIAS *et al.*, 2011; GVCES, 2018). Considering the reposition costs, the expenses that would be necessary to recover the reservoir due to sediment discharge were estimated. According to GVCes (2019, p. 99):

Replacement Cost Method (RCM) is based on the premise that incurred (or estimated) costs for replacement, restoration, or substitution of the quantity or quality of an ecosystem service constitute a valid estimation of the values of the benefits that such ecosystem service provides for the company or for the society. Thus, the loss of this ecosystem service would represent a burden to the company's or society's activity, which would partially reflect on the monetary value that should be paid for the replacement of this service [...]. Costs related to environmental compensations are also considered in this method [...] and it may be used to estimate values that are associated to losses that may occur in the future (*ex-ante*), or to estimate values that are associated to losses that happened in the past (*ex-post*).

In the sequence of the research, the following steps were taken: alterations were projected considering three scenarios of soil usage (pasture, conventional seeding and no-till system); the avoided sediment accumulation in the reservoir was quantified; the costs that resulted from the dredging of those sediments were calculated.

### **3.3. Valuation of the eventual non-disbursed revenue.**

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Finally, as recommended by Arias *et al.* (2011), the valuation of the eventual non-disbursed revenue due to the accumulation of sediments was proceeded by using the average value of the cubic meter of water used in power generation as a reference unit.

In order to obtain the avoided cost, the following steps were analyzed:

- i. Total area covered by the vegetation of the reservoir protection zone;
- ii. The history of investments and actions that were carried out in the region of the reservoir protection zone;
- iii. The current standard soil loss in the region, as a result of the advanced conservation stage in which the protection zone currently is;
- iv. Potential soil losses in different types of land usage: without vegetation cover; with conventional seeding; and with no-till system;
- v. Assessment of dredging costs – maximum and minimum – for sediment withdrawal from the reservoir;
- vi. Quantification of any unearned revenue due to the accumulation of sediments.

Next, a comparison between these costs and the investments that were made by the hydroelectric power plant in the region, including reforestation, planting of seedlings and soil conservation was conducted. The representability of the investments was defined considering the dredging costs.

Finally, considering that one of the main negative impacts of erosion refers to the depletion of the reservoir capacity, and this, in turn, harms water supply services for generation and energy, we proceeded with the calculation of possible unearned revenue. This procedure aimed to make possible risks clearer and bring new elements for a more complete analysis of the ecosystem and its impacts on the Itaipu plant. The data were presented to the managers of the hydroelectric power plant in order to be validated, and to confirm the recognized erosion rate of the protection zone region.

## **4. Results presentation.**

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Regarding the evaluation of sediment discharge, three common scenarios of soil usage in nearby areas of the reservoirs were considered, as well as the standard soil loss known by the hydroelectric plant, considering the soil quality of that region and the advanced stage of the area's conservation. In order to allow comparison between different soil erosion processes, erosion rates are presented as a mobilized mass of soil or sediment (usually ton) per unit area (hectare) and per unit of time (expressed in t/ha/year).

Table 1 – Evaluation of sediment discharge.

|                                                                                 |                  |                      |                |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|----------------------|----------------|
| Total area evaluated in the erosion estimation of the reservoir protection zone | 28,000 ha        |                      |                |
| Different uses of soil                                                          | Pasture          | Conventional seeding | Direct seeding |
| Soil erosion pattern (reference: universal soil loss equation)                  | 175.80 t/ha/year | 26 t/ha/year         | 13 t/ha/year   |
| Soil erosion of the protection zone region (known by the hydroelectric plant)   | 1.7 t/ha/year    |                      |                |

Source: Based on secondary data (NAGLE, 2002; GVCES, 2016).

Based on that information, a cost simulation was held by considering the sediment withdrawal from the reservoir bed. In this step, maximum and minimum cost references, identified in literature, were used (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2000; BIDONE *et al.* 2009; BUENO, 2010; GVCES, 2016).

Table 2 – Cost calculation.

| Erosion                                                   | Erosion (t/ha/year) x hectares of the protection zone | Erosion x Dredging cost per ton            | Dredging cost/year | Maximum cost |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|--------------------|--------------|
| 175.8 – 1.7 (tons)                                        | 174.10*28000                                          | 4,874,800*US\$ 650                         | US\$ 3.168 Bi      |              |
| 26-1.7 (tons)                                             | 24.30*28000                                           | 680,400*US\$ 650                           | US\$ 442.26 Mi     |              |
| 13 – 1.7 (tons)                                           | 11.30*28000                                           | 316,400*US\$ 650                           | US\$ 205.66 Mi     |              |
| Erosion                                                   | Erosion (t/ha/year) x hectares of the protection zone | Erosion x Dredging cost per m <sup>3</sup> | Dredging cost/year | Minimum cost |
| (175.8 – 1.7)/2.65 (converting tons into m <sup>3</sup> ) | 65.698*28000                                          | 1,839,5440* US\$ 15                        | US\$ 27.59 Mi      |              |
| (26-1.7)/2.65 (converting tons into m <sup>3</sup> )      | 9.169*28000                                           | 256,754 * US\$ 15                          | US\$ 3.85 Mi       |              |
| (13 – 1.7)/2.65 (converting tons into m <sup>3</sup> )    | 4.264*28000                                           | 119.396 * US\$ 15                          | US\$ 1.79 Mi       |              |

Source: Adapted from Carvalho *et al.* (2000); Bidone *et al.* (2009); Bueno (2010); GVCES (2016).

As described on Itaipu's annual reports (ITAIPU, 2023), the predominant use of the soil by the riparian agriculturists of the region occurs applying no-till techniques. These techniques are encouraged by the hydroelectric plant sustainability program, by means of actions that have been executed for over a decade, connected to the rural technique assistance and to the sustainable rural development amongst local communities.

In view of the above, in table 2, it is possible to infer that annual costs of approximately US\$ 1.79 million are avoided when we consider the lowest verified cost of dredging presented in literature. It is noted that the costs with the withdrawal of sediments from the reservoir would be greater in the eventual use of the soil for pasture or conventional seeding techniques. When the eventual non-invoiced revenue for accumulation of sediments was verified, by using the value of the cubic meter as a reference unit, the water consumption, generation (gigawatts-hour), and revenue in the last 11 years was then analyzed. The following table presents the information that shows dependency on water availability as an input, once its decline may cause a decrease in generation. In this case, it is suggested that the economic evaluation reflects the loss of equivalent billing (GVCES, 2018) in the eventual loss of storage capacity of the reservoir due to the discharge of sediments.

Table 3 – History of water consumption, generation, and revenue.

| Year | Total m <sup>3</sup> (to turbine and cool the generating units) | Generation (GWh) | Revenue (US\$) | US\$/m <sup>3</sup> |
|------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 2010 | 302,463,122,458                                                 | 85,303           | 3,450,500,000  | 0.01141             |
| 2011 | 326,072,700,058                                                 | 91,523           | 3,384,400,000  | 0.01038             |
| 2012 | 344,836,101,658                                                 | 97,533           | 3,703,500,000  | 0.01074             |
| 2013 | 349,534,447,258                                                 | 97,878           | 3,760,100,000  | 0.01076             |
| 2014 | 309,180,808,858                                                 | 87,165           | 3,680,400,000  | 0.01190             |
| 2015 | 314,828,344,858                                                 | 88,575           | 3,680,800,000  | 0.01169             |
| 2016 | 369,998,719,258                                                 | 102,335          | 3,811,500,000  | 0.01030             |
| 2017 | 336,476,556,058                                                 | 95,682           | 3,729,703,000  | 0.01108             |
| 2018 | 333,253,836,058                                                 | 96,586           | 3,699,900,000  | 0.01110             |
| 2019 | 265,395,069,057                                                 | 79,445           | 3,586,800,000  | 0.01351             |
| 2020 | 252,101,869,083                                                 | 76,842           | 3,566,800,000  | 0.01414             |
| 2021 | 217,835,236,800                                                 | 66,369           | 3,535,500,000  | 0.01623             |
| 2022 | 231,566,732,070                                                 | 69,873           | 3,284,400,000  | 0.01418             |

Source: Based on data from Itaipu annual reports

Based on table 3, it appears that the average value of the cubic meter is US\$ 0.0121, so that the average daily water consumption is 833,202,011.28 m<sup>3</sup> and the average daily revenue is US\$ 9.878 million. In this context, any loss of water storage capacity that compromises the availability of this input for generation may directly affect the hydroelectric plant's revenues. Although the loss of revenue is not the central point of this work, as highlighted by literature (LIMA, 1996; MEDEIROS and YOUNG, 2011), the sound interface between the ecosystem service for regulating soil erosion and the water supply stands out.

The data in table 3 also reveal similar trajectories between water consumption and energy generation, a finding reinforced by the correlation index verified in this historical series ( $r = 0.9937$ ). In view of the above, it can be affirmed that, in addition to the preservation of the reservoir, it is necessary to envision the positive developments for water availability when the vegetation and adjacent soil are preserved. It is also important to note that water, as the main input for hydropower generation, is going through a time of scarcity due to a series of factors (rainfall regime, precarious conditions of vegetation close to the reservoirs, and others) which have caused the reduction in generation of hydroelectric power in recent years and the consequent rise in fares due to the increased participation of other sources (thermal, wind power and others) for the national supply (ANA, 2019). The next figure highlights the water flow and energy generation trajectory in recent years for the Itaipu plant.

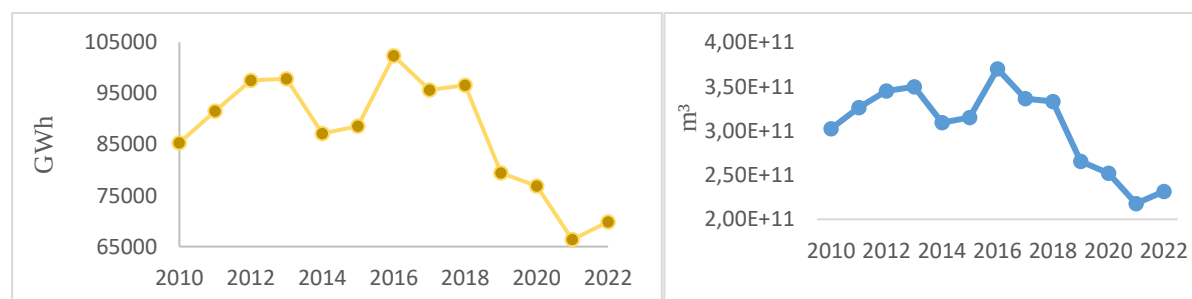


Figure 3 – Energy generation and water flow.

Source: Based on data from Itaipu annual reports.

Another aspect which was not considered in the average figures of the topic study, although stoutly important, is the impact of other undertakings upstream Itaipu Reservoir. The last survey accomplished has signaled that there is other 156 man-made reservoirs of several sizes and purposes upstream Itaipu (MENDES, 2020). Throughout time, as those reservoirs become silted, they gradually lose their project design for trapping sediments, thus releasing more and more sediment discharge to downstream undertakings. Consequently, downstream reservoirs become silted faster than predicted, and thereby also lose their trapping efficiency beforehand. Such phenomenon is synergic and occurs in all the reservoirs of the watershed at the same time as a domino effect.

Next, investments of the hydroelectric power plant sustainability program were evaluated, focusing on activities that directly impact the maintenance of the vegetation and the soil conservation, which are perceived as directly avoiding the inflow of sediments into the reservoir. The average annual values are US\$ 312,500 and US\$ 82,500, respectively, and their sum represents approximately 22,04% of the lowest avoided annual cost due to dredging, and 0.011% of the average annual revenue. With this information in mind, it is estimated that, for each US\$ 1 invested in these activities, the hydroelectric plant avoids expenses – as a result of the process of dredging – that range from US\$ 4.53 (lowest cost) to US\$ 520.65 (highest cost).

## 5. Final remarks.

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The objective of this study was to measure the ecosystem service of regulation of soil erosion for the Itaipu hydroelectric power plant. It was found that the ecosystem service provided by the soil and vegetation surrounding the reservoir has prevented high sediment discharges from entering the reservoir, corroborating previous studies (ARIAS *et al.*, 2011; VOGL *et al.* 2016). This benefit allows the storage capacity of the reservoir to be maintained, avoiding reduction of its useful life. The annual costs avoided for removing sediment from the reservoir due to no-till farming range from US\$ 3.16 million to US\$ 205.66 million.

With this information in mind and considering the average of annual disbursements of the hydroelectric power plant in the conservation of the vegetation in protected areas and integrated management of water and soil, the economic viability of maintaining the developed actions was confirmed, representing an investment in the preservation of the storage capacity of the reservoir, with water being the main input for hydroelectric generation. These activities, although not the only ones, were interpreted in this research as being decisive – according to the specialized literature (OLIVEIRA, 2003; CAPECHE, 2005; VOGL *et al.* 2016) – to prevent the progress of erosion in the site.

Amongst the contributions for the evaluation exercise, stand out the possibility of expanding the understanding of risks arising from sedimentation and eventual scarcity of water for the generation of hydroelectricity; the continuous loss of storage capacity of the more than 150 other reservoirs placed upstream the Itaipu Reservoir, thus increasing the sediment discharge into it as time passes; the dimensioning of investments in view of the magnitude of services provided by the environment; and the opportunity for the organization to act preventively in areas of interest, such as those around the reservoir in order to ensure its integrity.

In addition, with this information, new research fronts can be open, such as the use of monetary measurements carried out as a reference for projects including payments for environmental services to local surrounding farmers interested in preserving the vegetation. In this context, initiatives of this nature carried out by hydroelectric power plants in Costa Rica, Venezuela, and Colombia stand out. These plants pay for the conservation of the hydroelectric basins from where comes the water for power generation (PAGIOLA, VON GLEHN and TAFFARELLO, 2013). Another opportunity for future research consists in replicating this study in other large hydroelectric power plant in order to obtain comparative data on environmental investments, conservation status of vegetation areas, and measurement of ecosystem services, always by bearing in mind the variables which may be taken into account in studies of such magnitude. Ecosystem services are now generally used in identifying an appropriately wide range of environmental variables for policy and management as well as better understanding the benefits provided by those aspects of the environment (DANLEY and WILDMARK, 2016). In view of the above, assessing erosion regulation services is relevant for decision-making on investments in environmental preservation, and for structuring programs for payment of environmental services (PES). In the Brazilian case, however, it is recognized that the topic still needs consolidation,

despite some advances having already been promoted by large companies and public authorities (for example, the institution of the National Payment Policy for Environmental Services, Law nº 14,119/2021).

It is recognized that this evaluation exercise points out relevant data to support an organization's decision-making process, as regards its environmental performance, although aspects such as settling rate, disposal of sediments upstream the reservoir, interference of other reservoirs upstream and the specific characteristics of the location were not considered. These topics can be relevant for sedimentation estimates and may constitute an opportunity for further studies in the future.

It is also important to highlight that, concomitantly with environmental issues, the technical perspective must be considered when analyzing hydroelectric plants. ITAIPU power was designed in the 60s, built in the 70s, with operations beginning in the 80s, and continues to operate uninterruptedly. The Plant is going through a long-term technological update process, in order to modernize its systems and ensure the continuity of generation for the coming decades.

Finally, it is important to bear in mind that this investigation focused exclusively on aspects of the ecosystem most directly impacted by the operation of a plant. In this research, we did not seek to offer a definitive answer to the topic, but to contribute to building knowledge about ecosystem services in the context of hydroelectric plants. It is recognized that this subject has been discussed in other spheres with more global implications for society, such as the role of the environment in carbon sequestration and climate regulation.

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