

1 **Legitimacy and limitations of valuing the oxygen production of**
2 **ecosystems**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Oxygen production is an ecosystem service essential to life on Earth. However how it should
25 be valued is controversial and depends on several factors. Here, we commented on how
26 valuation might be applicable to the stock or flow of oxygen, whether additional oxygen
27 produced at the micro or macro scale provides additional human wellbeing, and whether double
28 counting may occur if oxygen production and carbon sequestration are both valued
29 independently and added. We concluded that the flow of oxygen produced by ecosystems
30 should be valued when: (1) high levels of atmospheric oxygen at specific micro-scale areas
31 (e.g., a park) provides additional benefits to local human health and additional attraction to
32 tourists; (2) micro-scale aquatic oxygen production (e.g., in a pond or aquafarm) avoids
33 potential loss of aquatic products; and (3) macro-scale aquatic oxygen production (e.g., in
34 global oceans) maintains marine contributions to humans (e.g., fishery resources). However,
35 the effects of declining global atmospheric oxygen, especially in the short term, remain unclear
36 and hence need further research. We also concluded that the values of oxygen production and
37 carbon sequestration can be aggregated without double counting, given that the values are not
38 duplicated in multiple ecosystem service categories. For example, oxygen production is best
39 considered as contributing to gas regulation while carbon sequestration contributes to climate
40 regulation. But one should not count and add both carbon sequestration and oxygen production
41 as contributing to both gas and climate regulation. Techniques for valuing oxygen production
42 may include willingness to pay for additional health benefits of breathing extra high levels of
43 atmospheric oxygen, the market price of industrial oxygen, travel cost to natural ‘oxygen bars’,
44 the avoided cost of losing aquatic resources, and replacement cost of using artificial techniques
45 to produce oxygen.

46 **Keywords:** ecosystem service valuation, oxygen, human wellbeing, double counting

47 **1. Introduction**

48 Ecosystems produce oxygen through photosynthesis and absorb oxygen during respiration. The
49 net production of oxygen is a crucial component of the Earth's life-supporting ecosystems,
50 underpinning the wellbeing of people and the planet. Hence, oxygen production is widely
51 considered as an ecosystem service (ES) – one of the benefits humans receive from ecosystem
52 functions, processes, or characteristics (CBD 2020b; Costanza et al. 1997; FAO 2022;
53 Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005; TEEB 2019). ES valuation in monetary units has
54 received increasing attention worldwide to link environmental changes with socioeconomic
55 benefits, visualise nature's contributions to people, complement other arguments for the
56 conservation and restoration of nature, and measure development and human wellbeing more
57 comprehensively (Chen et al. 2022; Costanza et al. 2014; IPBES 2019a; United Nations et al.
58 2021). However, how and when oxygen production should be valued is controversial. This
59 paper discusses existing concerns and makes suggestions on this issue.

60 **2. Concerns about stocks and flows**

61 The ES concept is about flows (the quantity measured over a period of, or per unit of, time),
62 rather than stocks (the existing quantity measured at a certain point in time, which may have
63 accumulated in the past) which are called natural capital (Costanza et al. 2014; United Nations
64 et al. 2021). It is difficult to assess the value of the total stock of oxygen, because if the current
65 oxygen stock is fully depleted from Earth, even for a day, humans and many other species
66 could not survive. But that is true for many other stocks in the ecosystem, including water,
67 nitrogen, carbon, etc. It is also true that oxygen was not always part of the Earth's atmosphere
68 and anaerobic metabolism is possible and occurs at several locations on the current Earth where
69 oxygen is limited.

70 Instead, ES valuation is about valuing the flows of oxygen production, namely, the additional
71 amount of oxygen produced within a certain period, or per unit of time (e.g., one year). For
72 example, provided that the oxygen produced in 2022 is x tonnes and the total oxygen stock at
73 the end of 2022 is y tonnes in a certain region, ES valuation is about value assessment of the x
74 (rather than the y) tonnes of oxygen.

75 **3. Concerns about additional contributions to human wellbeing**

76 Determining if the flow of an ES should be valued should consider whether an additional
77 amount of the ES improves human wellbeing and the scale at which the valuation is conducted
78 (Costanza et al. 1997; Costanza et al. 2017; de Groot et al. 2002). It is difficult to observe how
79 change in oxygen production at the micro scale (e.g., a local forest or park) may affect human
80 wellbeing at the macro scale (e.g., global, continental, national). For example, the contributions
81 of oxygen production from a hectare of forest to global air quality is unlikely to be observed.

82 Contributions of oxygen produced by micro-level ecosystems to micro-level human wellbeing
83 can be observed and valued at least in the following cases. Compared to average built-up areas,
84 breathing at natural areas with higher content of air oxygen can bring humans more health
85 benefits, including deterring inhalation of fine particulates, regulating oxygen concentration
86 and serotonin in blood and brain, boosting the immune system, improving neuropsychological
87 performance and sleep quality, and alleviating mood disorders and depression (Bowers et al.
88 2018; Jiang et al. 2018; Mao et al. 2012; Pino and La Ragione 2013; Zhu et al. 2021). Some
89 well-preserved places (e.g., Gili Iyang Island in Indonesia, Mount Emei and Panda Reserves in
90 China) with extra atmospheric content of oxygen that is higher than the average are advertised
91 as natural ‘oxygen bars’ to attract visitors and boost tourism revenues (Li and Huang 2018;
92 Sannigrahi et al. 2019; Wang et al. 2022). This demonstrates that the difference in the level of
93 oxygen between these well-preserved areas and other average areas is valuable in terms of

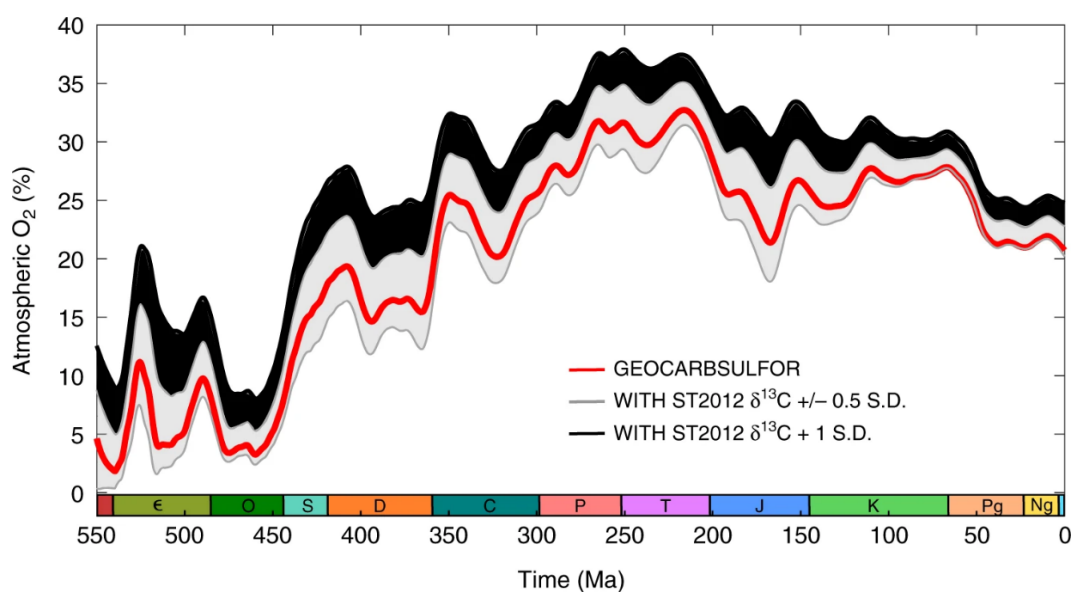
94 improved human health and wellbeing. Moreover, if oxygen content in either fresh or marine
95 water declines below a minimum oxygen level (often because of plastic debris and organic
96 matter discharged, introduction of invasive plants that over-consume oxygen and shade
97 endemic plants from light, fossil fuel use, or fertilisers' that stimulate growth of algae that
98 deplete oxygen when they die and decompose), the water will become a 'dead zone'
99 unavailable to most aerobic aquatic life (e.g., fish, coral) (Altieri et al. 2017; CBD 2020a;
100 Müller et al. 2015; TEEB 2009). If aerobic aquatic life cannot escape from dead zones in micro-
101 scale water (e.g., a closed pond or aquafarm), they will choke slowly and die, causing economic
102 damage.

103 Whether ES valuation at the macro scale should integrate oxygen production has not reached
104 a consensus (Table 1). The Earth's atmospheric oxygen level increased dramatically after the
105 "Great Oxidation Event" (approximately 2.45 – 2.32 billion years ago), especially from 470
106 million years ago when land plants emerged (Kasting 2013; Krause et al. 2018; Lenton et al.
107 2016; Lyons et al. 2014). After a long term accumulation (Figure 1), oxygen currently accounts
108 for roughly 21% of the atmosphere by volume, being a relatively abundant resource for life on
109 Earth. Based on marginalist economic theory characterised by diminishing marginal value (e.g.,
110 a candy lover receives lower utility from the 100th candy than the 1st candy), the value of the
111 additional amount of oxygen produced by global ecosystems each year may be negligible and
112 hence does not need to be assessed. This viewpoint could be correct provided that global
113 oxygen was not declining, because producing additional oxygen in this case only means global
114 oxygen would just remain abundant.

115 **Table 1:** A subset of peer-reviewed macro-scale ES valuation studies in/excluding the oxygen
116 production in the last 10 years

Scales	Integrating production	oxygen	Excluding oxygen production
National	Chen (2021); China National Environmental Management Standadisation Commission (2020)	National Technical	Arowolo et al. (2018); Kubiszewski et al. (2013)
International	Jiang et al. (2021); Newton et al. (2018)		Costanza et al. (2014); de Groot et al. (2012); Kubiszewski et al. (2017); Taye et al. (2021); United Nations et al. (2021)

117 **Figure 1:** Changes in proportion of oxygen in Earth’s atmosphere



118
 119 **Note:** The red line is the GEOCARBSULFOR model, the grey envelope is generated by \pm half a standard deviation
 120 change to the ocean-atmosphere $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ record, and the black envelope is the +1 standard deviation. “One Ma”
 121 means “one million years ago”.

122 **Source:** (Krause et al. 2018)

123 However, in fact, the mass of global oxygen is declining in both the atmosphere (Figure 2) and
 124 especially marine water (Figure 3), due to (1) reduced terrestrial oxygen production along with

125 land degradation, (2) increasing fossil fuel combustion, (3) respiration growth of humans and
126 livestock along with human population growth, (4) climate change and nutrients discharged
127 into water, which together decrease oxygen solubility and oxygen resupply from the
128 atmosphere but increase microbial respiration and metabolic oxygen demand in water, and (5)
129 increasing solar fluxes that deoxygenate the atmosphere (Altieri and Gedan 2015; Breitburg et
130 al. 2018; Huang et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2020; Ozaki and Reinhard 2021; Schmidtke et al. 2017).

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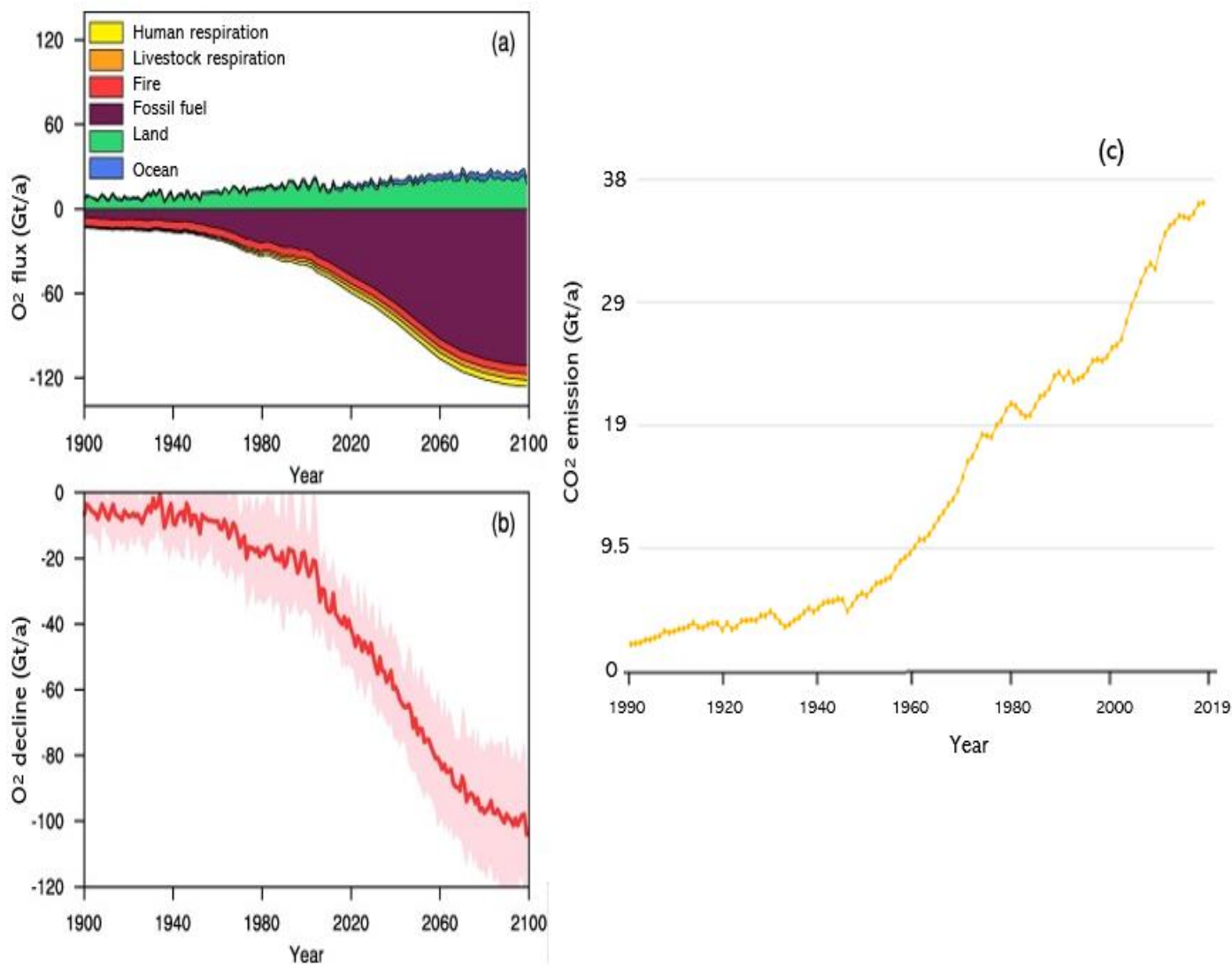
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142 **Figure 2:** Temporal variation of the global atmospheric oxygen and carbon dioxide from 1990.

143 (a) Oxygen consuming and producing processes under the Representative Concentration

144 Pathways (RCP) 8.5 scenario from 1900 to 2100. The shades below and above zero denote the
 145 processes that remove or produce oxygen, respectively. (b) Annual net atmospheric oxygen
 146 loss from 1900 to 2100 under the RCP8.5 scenario. (c) Annual carbon dioxide emission from
 147 1900 to 2019.

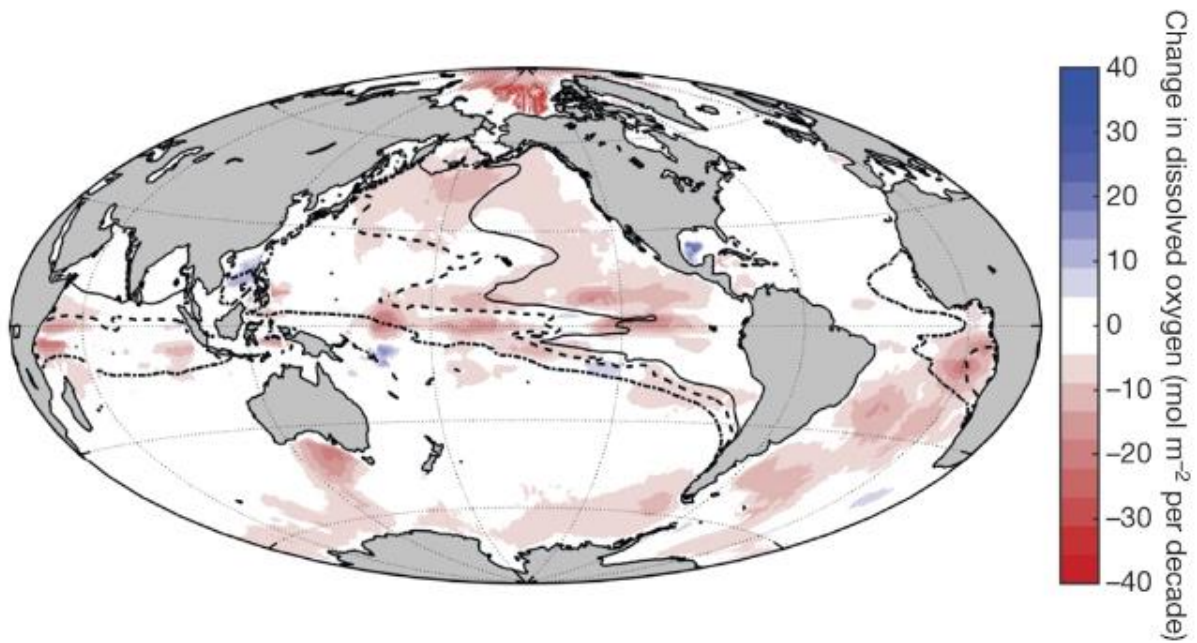


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149 **Source:** (a) and (b) are from Huang et al. (2018). (c) is from World Resource Institute (2022).

150 **Note:** CO₂ emission is also presented here, because fossil fuel burning is the major contributor to both oxygen
 151 decline and CO₂ emission, and oxygen decline is like the mirror image of CO₂ emission. “Gt/a” is “Gigatonne per
 152 annum”, and a gigatonne is a billion tonnes.

153 **Figure 3:** Change in global marine dissolved oxygen per decade since 1960



154

155 **Source:** (Schmidtko et al. 2017)

156 Declining aquatic oxygen has increased dead zones exponentially since the 1960s, affecting a
 157 total global marine area of over 245,000 km² negatively (Diaz and Rosenberg 2008). This
 158 includes reduced marine ecosystem connectivity (as fish cannot migrate through dead zones),
 159 biodiversity loss (e.g., loss of habitats, mortality of fish, crustacean, and coral reefs), alteration
 160 of the structure of food webs, marine food insecurity for humans, reduced recreation (e.g., loss
 161 of opportunities to see fish and live corals) of costal tourism, and loss of livelihoods of marine-
 162 dependent people (e.g., fishery workers) (Altieri and Diaz 2019; Altieri et al. 2017; Breitburg
 163 et al. 2018). Even if some marine species (e.g., fish) may escape from dead zones into oxygen-
 164 abundant water in the short term, continuous dead zone spreading will ultimately lead to
 165 ecosystem crisis and tremendous socioeconomic damage. Therefore, macro-level oxygen
 166 production in marine water is crucial to maintenance of marine ecosystem health and its
 167 contributions to human wellbeing, and hence should be valued.

168 The effects of declining atmospheric oxygen in the long term is foreseeable, including hypoxic
 169 cities during extremely calm weather, severely muted primary productivity, and the inability

170 to achieve combustion, when oxygen is less than 19.5%, 16%, and 12% of the atmosphere by
171 volume, respectively (Belcher and McElwain 2008; Cole et al. 2022; Wei et al. 2021). However,
172 the short-term consequences of declining oxygen level in the atmosphere, such as reduction
173 from the current 20.95% to 20.83% by 2100 (Huang et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2020), are unclear.
174 Therefore, there should be further research on the short-term implications of changes in
175 atmospheric oxygen production to terrestrial ecological and socioeconomic systems.

176 **4. Concerns about double counting**

177 As oxygen production and carbon sequestration are the joint outcomes of photosynthesis, some
178 researchers may be concerned about double counting of photosynthesis when carbon
179 sequestration and oxygen production are both valued separately and aggregated (Xue and
180 Tisdell 2001). However, this concern confuses ESs with ecological process and misunderstands
181 double counting. Photosynthesis is an ecological process, rather than an ES. A single ecological
182 process may produce multiple types of ESs (de Groot et al. 2002), and double counting does
183 not mean valuing multiple ESs produced by a single ecological process. Instead, double
184 counting means counting the value of an ES more than once and occurs when values of
185 overlapping ESs are assessed separately and summed (Chen 2020; Fu et al. 2011; Hein et al.
186 2006). Oxygen production contributes to quality of air in the atmosphere, water, or soil,
187 whereas carbon sequestration regulates global warming and water acidity (IPBES 2019b;
188 Maikhuri and Rao 2012; Millennium Ecosystem Assessment 2005; Renforth and Henderson
189 2017). Therefore, oxygen production and carbon sequestration provide separate, rather than
190 overlapping, contributions to human wellbeing, and so can be valued separately and aggregated
191 without necessarily being double counted (Chen 2021; Ouyang et al. 1999). The keyword here
192 is “not necessarily”.

193 Oxygen production and carbon sequestration are both the proxies for both gas regulation
194 (contribution to maintenance of healthy air, including the carbon/oxygen balance, maintenance
195 of the ozone layer, removal of air-borne pollutants and bacteria) and climate regulation
196 (regulation of temperature, precipitation and other biologically mediated climatic process,
197 including carbon/oxygen balance, greenhouse gas absorption, rainfall and drought regulation)
198 via net primary production (Costanza et al. 1997; de Groot et al. 2002; UNEP 2014; Wallace
199 2007). However, if oxygen production is counted in both gas and climate regulation and then
200 aggregated, double counting occurs. Therefore, when valuing ESs, oxygen production should
201 only be categorised into one or the other of climate and gas regulation.

202 Moreover, misuse of valuation techniques, such as using afforestation cost, may cause double
203 counting. Afforestation cost is a type of valuation technique based on the cost of planting trees
204 artificially to provide the equal type and quantity of an ES. Some studies valued carbon
205 sequestration using afforestation cost, valued oxygen production using market price or costs of
206 industrial oxygen, and then aggregated these two ESs' values (Cai et al. 2020; Li and Gao 2016;
207 Ninan and Inoue 2014; Zhao et al. 2004). In this context, value of oxygen production is double
208 counted, because newly planted trees not only sequester carbon but also produce oxygen,
209 namely, the afforestation cost already includes both the costs of restoring carbon sequestration
210 and oxygen production (Xue and Tisdell 2001). To avoid double counting, the values of oxygen
211 production and other ESs should not be assessed based on afforestation cost and then
212 aggregated. However, there are other potential valuation techniques applicable to oxygen
213 production in Section 5 below.

214

215 **5. Potential valuation techniques applicable to oxygen production**

216 Potential cases where oxygen is produced by ecosystems, as well as relevant valuation
 217 techniques (where applicable), are summarised in Table 2.

218 **Table 2:** Potential techniques valuing oxygen

Scales	Cases	Techniques of value of oxygen production
Micro-scale oxygen production's effects on macro-scale human wellbeing	Difficult to observe	Not applicable
Micro-scale oxygen production's effects on micro-scale human wellbeing	Extra high levels of atmospheric oxygen provide additional benefits to local human health	(1) Willingness to pay for additional health benefits of breathing extra high levels of atmospheric oxygen, either revealed in reality (e.g., a real-world hotel may have different prices for rooms with no window and rooms with windows) or stated in hypothetical scenarios (e.g., if you are travelling, would you be willing to pay extra money for a hotel located in an area with higher atmospheric oxygen content than other hotels?) (2) Market price or cost of producing equal extra amount of industrial oxygen into the local atmosphere. "Extra amount" means the

		amount above the average atmospheric content.
Extra high levels of atmospheric oxygen provide additional attraction to tourists	(1) Travel cost of those who travel to natural 'oxygen bars' (2) Market price or cost of producing equal extra amount of industrial oxygen into the local atmosphere	
Aquatic oxygen production (e.g., in a pond or aquafarm) avoids potential loss of aquatic products and resources	(1) Economic cost of potential loss of aquatic products and resources avoided by aquatic oxygen production (2) Costs of using artificial techniques to pump equal amount of oxygen into water to ensure target aquatic species live and grow	
Macro-scale oxygen production's effects on macro-scale human wellbeing	Macro-scale marine oxygen production maintains ecological and socioeconomic benefits of global oceans	As per above
Macro-scale atmospheric oxygen production		Unclear, because effects of declining global atmospheric oxygen, especially in the short term, remain unclear

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220 **6. Conclusions**

221 The flow of oxygen produced by ecosystems should be valued when its contributions to human
222 wellbeing are observable, including: (1) for specific micro-scale areas (e.g., a forest or park)
223 when extra high levels of atmospheric oxygen provide additional benefits to local human health
224 and additional attraction to tourists; (2) when micro-scale oxygen production in water (e.g., a
225 pond or aquafarm) avoids potential loss of aquatic products; and (3) when oxygen production
226 in macro-scale marine water maintains crucial ecological and socioeconomic outcomes (e.g.,
227 fishery resources). However, whether oxygen produced by macro-scale terrestrial ecosystems
228 should be valued needs further research, because the short-term effects of declining global
229 atmospheric oxygen need more evidence, regardless of being foreseeable in the long term.

230 Moreover, the value of oxygen production does not necessarily overlap, but can be aggregated,
231 with carbon sequestration. However, to avoid double counting, the values of oxygen production
232 and carbon sequestration should not be assessed based on afforestation cost or duplicated in
233 multiple ES categories (e.g., being added and counted in both climate regulation and gas
234 regulation). Depending on specific cases, potential techniques valuing oxygen production may
235 include revealed and stated willingness to pay for additional health benefits of breathing extra
236 high levels of atmospheric oxygen, the market price of industrial oxygen, travel cost to natural
237 ‘oxygen bars’, the avoided cost of losing aquatic products and resources, and replacement cost
238 of using artificial techniques to produce oxygen in the atmosphere and water.

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