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A Review of seagrass ecosystem services: Providing nature-based solutions for a changing world --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Seagrasses are marine flowering plants, which form extensive meadows in intertidal and shallow-water marine environments. They provide a range of ecosystem services, which directly or indirectly benefit humans, grouped into four broad categories: provisioning (e.g., food production); regulating (e.g., carbon sequestration); supporting (e.g., primary production); and cultural (e.g., recreational). This study reviews publications focusing on seagrass ecosystem services provision, to identify knowledge gaps and improve our understanding of the use of these habitats as nature-based solutions to societal challenges, such as climate change. Results showed that some ecosystem services, namely food provision, carbon sequestration and maintenance of biodiversity/nursery habitats receive a higher level of focus and attention than others, such as regulation of diseases and social relations, which are rarely included in studies. It is clear that to fully comprehend the nature-based solution potential of seagrass ecosystems, ecosystem services need to be considered as a whole, and results need to be shared across global regions, to understand the potential impacts of degradation and loss of these ecosystems. Suggestions include applying novel technologies such as remote sensing and ecological niche modelling to address some of the gaps in seagrass research, and incorporate preservation of seagrass ecosystems in marine management plans.</p>
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28

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31

32 **Abstract**

33 Seagrasses are marine flowering plants, which form extensive meadows in intertidal and shallow-water marine
34 environments. They provide a wide range of ecosystem services, which directly or indirectly benefit humans, and
35 can be grouped into four broad categories: provisioning (e.g., food production); regulating (e.g., carbon
36 sequestration); supporting (e.g., primary production); and cultural (e.g., recreational, and eco-tourism). This study

37 provides a review of publications focusing on seagrass ecosystem services provision, to identify knowledge gaps
38 and improve our understanding of the use of these habitats as nature-based solutions to societal challenges, such
39 as climate change. Results showed that some ecosystem services, namely food provision, carbon sequestration
40 and maintenance of biodiversity/nursery habitats receive a higher level of focus and attention than others, such as
41 regulation of diseases and social relations, which are rarely, if ever, included in studies. It is clear that in order to
42 fully comprehend the nature-based solution potential held by seagrass ecosystems, studies need to consider
43 ecosystem services as a whole, and also combine and share results across global regions, to better understand the
44 potential impacts of degradation and loss of these ecosystems worldwide. Suggestions include applying novel
45 technologies such as remote sensing and ecological niche modelling to address some of the main gaps in seagrass
46 research, like meadow extent and connectivity within landscapes, to better incorporate preservation of seagrass
47 ecosystems in marine management plans.

48 **Keywords: Seagrass, ecosystem services, conservation, nature-based solutions.**

49 **Introduction**

50 Marine and coastal ecosystems and their related economic and social services have been suffering profound
51 impacts due to human induced climate change (IPCC, 2018). Thus, a better understanding of how these
52 ecosystems function, the services they provide (in both ecological and economic terms), and what is at stake
53 should we lose them, are necessary parts of any coastal management plan (Fisher *et al.*, 2009; Heckwolf *et al.*,
54 2021). Vegetated coastal systems characterise ecologically important areas where the land meets sea and are
55 generally composed of plant species adapted to either fully or partially submerged environments (Short *et al.*,
56 2016). These systems are home to a wide range of ecological and economic activities (Royal Society, 2017), and
57 provide numerous ecosystem services, including the provision of nursery habitats for commercially important
58 marine species, raw materials, coastal protection, and enhancing water quality (Lau, 2013). Vegetated coastal
59 systems are sometimes referred to as "blue carbon" ecosystems due to their role as carbon sinks (McLeod *et al.*,
60 2011; Pendleton *et al.*, 2012). Thus, by capturing and sequestering carbon from the atmosphere, these blue carbon
61 ecosystems play an important role in climate change mitigation (Fourqurean *et al.*, 2012; Veetil *et al.* 2018; Lima
62 *et al.* 2020; Ward, 2020).

63 Coastal ecosystems, when in pristine condition, naturally provide diverse benefits to both humans and nature.
64 Therefore, effective nature conservation strategies are necessary to guarantee their continued or enhanced
65 ecosystem service provision (Watson & Zakri, 2003; Rigo *et al.*, 2021). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment

66 (2005) uses a broad definition that equates ‘the benefits people obtain from ecosystems’ with the term ‘ecosystem
67 services.’ As per the definition by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Board, ‘an ecosystem is a dynamic
68 complex of plant, animal, and microorganism communities and the non-living environment, interacting as a
69 functional unit’, including humans as an integral part of many ecosystems (Watson & Zakri, 2003). Amongst
70 vegetated coastal systems, seagrass meadows have been identified as important ecosystem service providers,
71 especially as there is strong evidence that healthy seagrass beds enhance the productivity of neighbouring systems
72 like mangroves, salt marshes and coral reefs (de los Santos *et al.*, 2020; Cziesielsk *et al.*, 2021).

73 **Seagrasses**

74 Seagrass meadows have a pan-global distribution, being found in shallow coastal areas of all continents, except
75 Antarctica (Garrard and Beaumont, 2014). Seagrasses occupy soft-bottom sediments of the world’s oceans from
76 the tropics to the temperate zones (World Resources Institute, 2005), extending from the intertidal zone to depths
77 of up to 40 m (Gutiérrez *et al.* 2011). There is a high variation in the estimated global areal coverage of seagrass
78 meadows, ranging from 17×10^6 to 60×10^6 ha worldwide (Hemminga & Duarte, 2000; Mcleod *et al.* 2011). This
79 uncertainty highlights the need for more research, to better map and understand seagrass global distribution,
80 including seasonal and long-term temporal variations (Garrard and Beaumont, 2014; Macreadie *et al.*, 2018).

81 Seagrasses are marine angiosperms (**Figure 1**) adapted to exist fully submerged in brackish or salt water, where
82 they promote sediment deposition, stabilise substrates, decrease water velocity and function as part of the estuarine
83 filtration system, removing contaminants from the water column (Orth *et al.*, 2006; Campagne *et al.*, 2015).
84 Seagrasses also provide a range of other ecosystem services to the marine environment, including nutrient cycling,
85 supporting a range of commercially important fish species as a nursery habitat and as an important food source
86 for mega-herbivores such as green turtles, dugongs, and manatees (Costanza *et al.*, 1997; Hemminga & Duarte
87 2000; Orth *et al.*, 2006; Björk *et al.*, 2008; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018; de los Santos *et al.*, 2020).

88 Seagrasses can also act as ecological engineers, altering their environment to improve conditions by reducing
89 suspended sediment concentrations, which can increase light availability and reduce water column pollutant
90 levels, resulting in improved conditions for seagrass growth and survival as well as other marine photosynthetic
91 organisms (van der Heide *et al.*, 2007 Paquier *et al.*, 2014; Serrano *et al.*, 2016). Seagrass canopies can also reduce
92 wave attenuation, and this combined with a dense root matrix can further promote sediment deposition and prevent
93 erosion (Potouroglou *et al.*, 2017). Some species, particularly those with high canopy density and above ground

94 biomass have been shown to reduce current velocities by up to 90%, resulting in net sediment accretion rates of
95 up to 2 mm year⁻¹ (Hogarth, 2015).

96 Therefore, seagrasses directly and indirectly provide a range of ecosystem services, which vary by geographical
97 region and genera (Cullen-Unsworth *et al.*, 2014; Nordlund *et al.*, 2016; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018). The diversity of
98 ecosystem services is categorised as provisioning (ecological goods, such as food, fisheries, etc. provided directly
99 by seagrasses or indirectly by associated species), regulation and maintenance (ecological services, such as climate
100 regulation, water filtration, and ecological processes), supporting (primary production, soil formation) and cultural
101 (spiritual or knowledge values, such as recreation, tourism, and education) (Campagne *et al.*, 2015; Nordlund *et*
102 *al.*, 2016).

103 **Nature-Based Solutions**

104 Nature-based solutions (NbS) are defined as innovations inspired and supported by nature, which provide
105 environmental, social, and economic benefits, and help build resilience by benefiting biodiversity and supporting
106 the delivery of a range of ecosystem services (Seddon, *et al.*, 2019; Wild *et al.*, 2020; UNEP, 2020). NbS can
107 address such current and vital societal challenges as climate change and associated impacts, environmental
108 pollution, food security and water scarcity. NbS include established approaches such as ecosystem-based
109 adaptation, ecosystem-based disaster risk reduction, green and blue natural infrastructure, as well as the more
110 recently described "natural climate solutions" (Cohen-Shacham *et al.*, 2016, 2019; Griscom *et al.*, 2017; Chausson
111 *et al.*, 2020).

112 The potential of seagrass ecosystems as NbS, including climate mitigation, is evidenced through the high carbon
113 sequestration and storage potential, which could be used for CO₂ offsets in nationally determined contributions,
114 particularly in the case of successful restoration (Stankovic *et al.*, 2021; Lima *et al.*, 2022). Stankovic *et al.* (2021)
115 suggest that successful and well-designed restoration projects and conservation measures, could result in seagrass
116 meadows contributing up to 1.43% towards CO₂ offset of countries' total emissions by 2030 (business-as-usual,
117 BAU scenario). However, the climate solution potential of seagrasses is still one of the most poorly represented
118 as a NbS (Chausson *et al.*, 2020; UNEP, 2020; Veetil *et al.* 2021), partly because seagrass meadows are especially
119 vulnerable to anthropogenic impacts from both adjacent terrestrial and marine systems (Unsworth *et al.*, 2019).
120 Such impacts can be physical, resulting in direct removal of plants, or chemical, polluting both the sediment and
121 water (Mazarrasa *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, storms and severe weather events, associated with climate change, can
122 affect seagrass populations by uprooting plants and mobilizing sediments, increasing turbidity, and reducing water

123 quality and light penetration (Cardoso *et al.*, 2008). Additionally, fluctuations in sea temperature are considered
124 the primary climate change related threat to seagrass ecosystems, which could lead to alterations in seagrass
125 distribution and metabolism, subsequently reducing net autochthonous carbon sequestration potential (Clausen *et*
126 *al.*, 2014; Hyndes *et al.*, 2016; Mazarrasa *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, sea level rise may alter habitat availability
127 for intertidal seagrass species, and as projected by the IPCC (2019) with medium confidence under the RCP8.5
128 emission scenario by the end of the century, vegetated coastal ecosystems in general are at high risk of local losses.

129 Past studies estimate the value of coastal ecosystem services to be US\$31.6 tr yr⁻¹ covering seagrass meadows
130 and algae beds as well as tidal marshes and mangroves (Bertram *et al.*, 2021). However, compared to other coastal
131 ecosystems (such as mangroves and corals) that also benefit humans, there has been substantially less research
132 focus on identifying and valuing ecosystem services provided by seagrasses, mainly due to the absence of detailed
133 information on marine habitat distribution and the difficulties in assessing both processes and functions (Maes *et*
134 *al.*, 2012; Himes-Cornell *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, the value of seagrasses as an ecosystem is often not
135 considered in marine management decisions, and rarely incorporated into NbS projects (Duarte *et al.*, 2008; Grech
136 *et al.*, 2012; Chausson, *et al.*, 2020). In addition, non-monetary values of seagrasses are important, with some
137 studies assessing non-monetary values by using biological proxies, such as area coverage, the biomass of bird and
138 mammal groups that seagrass supports, or the energy resources invested by nature when estimating the benefits
139 of seagrass as a habitat (Plummer *et al.*, 2013; Vassallo *et al.*, 2013).

140 The lack of public awareness concerning the importance of the ecosystem services that seagrasses provide is
141 arguably one the biggest threats to their conservation. This suggests that studies highlighting the importance of
142 ecosystem service provision by seagrasses can raise the profile of this important habitat and provide support for
143 their protection and conservation (Nordlund *et al.*, 2018; Quevedo *et al.*, 2020). Thus, this research evaluates and
144 lists the services provided by seagrass ecosystems by conducting a comprehensive review of the literature, in
145 order to identify potential gaps in knowledge and areas of focus or concern for the future. The aim of this review
146 is to contribute to a better understanding of how seagrass ecosystem services have been studied so far, with the
147 goal of constructing a knowledge-base for future NbS projects. The objective of this study is to review how the
148 main ecosystem services provided by seagrass meadows have been reported over time to highlight the need for
149 protection and preservation of their natural assets, in order to successfully develop NbS that incorporates these
150 extremely productive ecosystems.

151

152 **Methods**

153 **Literature Search**

154 A systematic literature review was conducted in order to better understand the range of studies that have been
155 published to assess the ecosystem services provided by seagrasses. The search centred on studies explicitly
156 focused on ecosystem services (**Figure 2**). The literature search was conducted using the Web of Science scientific
157 citation database. The studies were searched in the Web of Science Core collection (editions: Science Citation
158 Index Expanded, Social Sciences Citation, Conference Proceedings Citation, Emerging Sources Citation,
159 Conference Proceedings, Citation – Social Science & Humanities and Book Citation Science) considering the
160 period between 1900 and March 2022, using the following search string applied to all fields: (seagrass*/OR "sea
161 grass*/*") AND ("ecosystem/service*"), resulting in a total of 684 papers. A second search was conducted using
162 the same search string but applied to the field topic (title (title, key words, and abstract), resulting in a total of 654
163 papers.

164 For the purpose of this study, the search focused on peer reviewed papers, excluding grey literature. It is likely
165 that some of the literature on ecosystem services provided by seagrasses may have been published as working
166 papers, government reports, or other additional grey literature sources. However, it is not feasible to develop
167 search criteria that will identify all such possible studies within the topic of this study. Moreover, there are likely
168 additional publications on studies for ecosystem services in seagrass habitats that do not mention the specific key
169 words included in our search criteria.

170 **Selection Criteria**

171 In order to select articles to include in this review, all 684 publications were screened. Only publications that
172 mentioned seagrass ecosystem services in the title, abstract or key words, or if the content was unclear reading
173 the abstract, were retained, yielding 654 publications. Through this selection, the publications retained from the
174 Science Citation Index Expanded were used for full-text reading and analysis. After full text reading, 105
175 publications (16% of all screened publications) were retained that focused on the description, valuation, or
176 inclusion of one or more ecosystem services provided by seagrasses as the main topic of research, even if this was
177 integrated into analyses with other coastal habitats such as, mangroves, salt marshes or coral reefs.

178 **Data extraction**

179 For those final selected publications, the publication year; type of publication; the ecosystems services discussed;
180 the geographic area where the study was conducted; and the threats to the studied ecosystems were extracted.
181 Ecosystem services were organised into categories based on the classification scheme defined by the Millennium
182 Ecosystem Assessment (2005). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment was chosen as a framework for this study
183 as it was conducted as a multiscale assessment, with interlinked assessments undertaken at local, national,
184 regional, and global scales, incorporating seagrass ecosystem services within their Marine, Coastal, and Island
185 Systems section.

186 **Results**

187 Overall, there has been an annual increase in the number of studies including evaluation of seagrass ecosystem
188 services, over the 23 years under study, with 19% (n=20) of the cumulative total of studies being published in
189 2021 (**Figure 3**). Studies ranged from reviews of existing ecosystem services, assessment of current threats,
190 evaluation of public or stakeholders' perspectives, and knowledge gaps, to models for assessing ecosystem
191 services and valuation.

192 Of the 105 studies analysed, 37% (n=39) had a global approach to seagrass ecosystem services, 34% (n=36)
193 focused on specific global regions, mainly meadows in the Caribbean (n=5), Africa (n=5), and the Mediterranean
194 (n=3), and 42 studies analysed seagrass ecosystem services at national level, representing 40% of the total number.
195 The most prolific nations studied were the USA (n=9) and Spain (n=8), followed by Australia with 4 studies and
196 Sweden and the UK, both with 3 studies each (**Table S1**). Approximately half of the analysed studies focused
197 solely on ecosystem services provided by seagrasses (n=55), while the other half provided a combined approach,
198 grouping seagrasses with other blue carbon ecosystems such as mangroves, coastal wetlands, kelp forests and
199 coral reefs. Out of the 55 studies focussing on seagrass, 17 (16% of the total) concentrated on *Posidonia oceanica*
200 (Linnaeus, 1813) meadows specifically. It was also noted that more recent studies focused exclusively on
201 ecosystem services provided by seagrass habitats, whilst older ones usually combined seagrasses within wetlands
202 and/or other coastal habitats such as oyster and coral reefs (**Table S1**).

203 Most studies described threats to seagrasses and their related ecosystem services. Although studies reported those
204 threats differently, the nomination of threats provides an insight into the potential for changes in the area of intact
205 seagrass ecosystems as well as challenges that resource managers likely face within each region, such as to
206 fisheries. Within the studies evaluated, the greatest emphasis was placed on threats associated with land
207 conversion, pollution, climate change, aquaculture, and unsustainable resource use (**Table S1**). The most cited

208 threats in these studies have also been highlighted by the general literature on seagrass ecosystems, namely climate
209 change, sea level rise, pollution, fishing, and urbanisation (Unsworth *et al.*, 2019; Young *et al.*, 2021; Moksnes *et*
210 *al.*, 2021).

211 Altogether, ecosystem services were reported 396 times within the selected studies, and these have been classified
212 into types relating to provisioning, regulating, supporting and cultural services (**Table 1, Figure 4**). Although the
213 wider literature regularly cites the large number of ecosystem services and benefits provided by seagrass systems,
214 these are not always the central focus of research, rather being used as a means to justify the importance of
215 studying these habitats. It has also been noted that a subset of ecosystem services tends to be researched much
216 more frequently than others (**Figure 4**). For example, researchers tend to focus on carbon sequestration (n= 60),
217 food provision (n= 49 studies), maintenance of habitat and biodiversity/nursery habitats (n= 37), storm
218 protection/extreme events (n= 31) and opportunities for recreation and tourism (n= 29) far more than any of the
219 other seagrass ecosystem services (**Table 1**). In addition, regulating services overall tend to be studied much more
220 frequently than other categories of ecosystem services, representing 42% of the total with 166 mentions, whilst
221 the least explored were provisioning services with 17% of total reports (n=66) (**Table 1; Figure 4**). Moreover,
222 some seagrass ecosystem services identified by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment are rarely, or sometimes
223 never, assessed including, provisioning services of fuel or fresh water (**Table 1**).

224 In total, 17 studies provided valuation models for the ecosystem services described (**Table S1**). Services such as
225 food security and raw material provisioning, and opportunities for recreation and tourism have mainly been
226 assessed and used to value the ecosystem service provided by seagrass habitats. Researchers have used market
227 prices to measure food, raw material, climate regulation (via carbon sequestration), and opportunities for
228 recreation and tourism, while avoided cost and replacement cost are generally used to value waste treatment and
229 moderation of extreme events.

230 **Discussion**

231 Although the need to study ecosystem services for seagrasses is indicated by the increasing number of
232 publications, findings are mostly focused on seagrass cover and distribution mapping (Hossain *et al.*, 2014;
233 Nordlund *et al.*, 2016; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018) except a few species-specific case studies focusing mainly on
234 *Posidonia* spp. (Vassallo *et al.*, 2013; Campagne *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, this review demonstrates that some
235 ecosystem services are studied much more frequently than others (e.g., food provision in 47% of studies, carbon
236 sequestration in 57% of studies), likely because of stakeholder interest and current climate change mitigation

237 policies. Several important services are poorly addressed (i.e., medicinal, and genetic resources, air quality,
238 regulation of water flow, biological control, spiritual experience) or entirely absent (i.e., fuel, ornamental
239 resources, inspiration for culture/art) in the literature, most likely due to poor data availability and the difficulty
240 of quantifying the extent of service provision. However, although this systematic review followed established
241 search protocols, it limited the search to the wider term ‘seagrass ecosystem services’ within titles, key words or
242 abstracts, which restricts the analyses of studies where seagrass ecosystem services do not feature in those
243 sections, even though they might be indirectly evaluated or quantified in other sections. Consequently, for
244 example, few studies from the UK were included in the search, although researchers such as Lima *et al.*, (2020,
245 2022), Potouroglou *et al.*, (2021), Green *et al.*, (2018) and others have been assessing the UK’s seagrass carbon
246 stocks with the aim of promoting natural climate solutions. Another limitation to consider is that this review
247 focused on scientific journal publications only, which discards regional and global reports on the assessment of
248 seagrasses’ ecosystem services and their potential as NbS, e.g. UNEP (2020). Nevertheless, this review suggests
249 that there has been an increase in the inclusion of the term ‘ecosystem services’ in seagrass studies in more recent
250 years, showing a positive trend of raising awareness of their importance as NbS.

251 Seagrass carbon stock analyses have been reported worldwide, even though there might be a bias of reported
252 global estimates, which mainly focus on values from tropical and Mediterranean seagrass meadows dominated by
253 larger species, like *Posidonia* spp. (Johannessen and Macdonald, 2016; Serrano *et al.*, 2018; Lima *et al.*, 2022).
254 Although this demonstrates that many studies have been focusing on seagrasses’ potential as NbS for climate
255 change mitigation, these are not always evidenced as an ecosystem service provision, and even more rarely linked
256 to the categories proposed by the Millennium Assessment, as described in this study. Therefore, despite a broad
257 recognition of the importance of such data (Pascual *et al.*, 2017), serious gaps in the identification of ecosystem
258 services provided by seagrass ecosystems still exist, notably involving methodology, areal extent, and valuation
259 of ecosystem services (Nordlund *et al.*, 2018; de los Santos *et al.*, 2020). The variability of ecosystem services
260 across a seascape, including spatial (i.e. extent of a seagrass meadow and its ability to buffer storm waves) and
261 temporal differences (seasonal fluctuations and density of seagrass biomass) may influence the assessment and
262 quantification of some services and should be considered by researchers and policymakers (Barbier *et al.*, 2011).

263 Mapping the services provided by seagrass ecosystems is key to evaluating temporal and spatial alterations to
264 their provision, particularly when taking a regional approach, such as those reviewed in this study for the
265 Caribbean and Mediterranean (de los Santos *et al.*, 2020). Mapping ecosystem services is one of the requirements
266 in ecosystem accounting, tracking alterations in natural assets and evaluating links with economic and human

267 activities (Veettil *et al.*, 2020). Despite advances in seagrass ecosystem service assessment studies and extent
268 mapping, there are still large global and regional data gaps (Veettil *et al.*, 2020; 2022), predominantly as a result
269 of the in situ approaches that are typically used including scuba/snorkeling surveys (Gotceitas *et al.*, 1997),
270 ground-based sampling (Moore *et al.*, 2000), and hovercraft-based mapping (McKenzie, 2003).

271 Even though projects focused on the protection and sustainable management of vegetated coastal environments,
272 including seagrass, are not a novelty, such efforts are mainly aimed at generating benefits and services to local
273 communities and biodiversity, as well as the fisheries and tourism sectors (Herr *et al.*, 2014; Mitsch and Mander,
274 2018). Unlike terrestrial ecosystems, few coastal programs have been established with the goal of conserving and
275 restoring ecosystems as potential mechanisms for nature-based climate mitigation (carbon capture/ avoided
276 emissions) solutions (Herr *et al.*, 2011; Gattuso *et al.*, 2018). Chausson *et al.*, (2020) assessed the six most
277 represented ecosystem types when examining the effectiveness of nature-based interventions to address climate
278 impacts and emphasised that only 13% of studies included coastal ecosystems, with only one study, out of 386,
279 focused on seagrass ecosystems specifically. Herr and Landis (2016) highlight that even though 151 countries
280 contain at least one blue carbon ecosystem (seagrass, mangrove, or saltmarsh) with 71 containing all three, only
281 28 countries include references to vegetated coastal systems in terms of climate crisis mitigation in their intended
282 nationally determined contributions (INDCs). Hence, undertaking ecosystem service assessments, such as those
283 presented in this review, could provide key data to identify conservation and management actions for these
284 ecosystems to be incorporated in such strategies (Pabon-Zamora *et al.*, 2008; Pascual *et al.*, 2017).

285 Half of the studies in this review focused on seagrass meadows specifically while the other half incorporated
286 neighbouring ecosystems in their ecosystem services appraisal. It has been reported that in order to
287 comprehensively assess ecosystem services, it is necessary to incorporate the multiple and synergistic
288 characteristics of ecosystems (Koch *et al.*, 2009; Barbier, 2012). However, studies continue to focus on each
289 service independently, even though ecological interactions suggest that there is connectivity between vegetated
290 coastal ecosystems, which impacts the availability and/or quality of the services (Barbier *et al.*, 2011). By
291 assessing ecosystem services collectively, like some of the papers in this review, studies could better delineate
292 between functions, services, and benefits to avoid the problem of double counting that may arise due to the fact
293 that some services (i.e., supporting and regulating) provide the basis and inputs for the assessment of others (Boyd
294 & Banzhaf, 2007; Fisher *et al.*, 2009; Kumar, 2012). For example, in recent years, ecological niche modelling has
295 been used as an alternative tool to predict the effects of climate change on seagrass ecosystem distributions (Valle
296 *et al.*, 2014; Davis *et al.*, 2016; Chefaoui *et al.*, 2018), the potential distributions of certain seagrass-associated

297 species (March *et al.*, 2013; Chefaoui *et al.*, 2016; Jayathilake & Costello, 2018) and seagrass conservation
298 priorities (Valle *et al.*, 2013; Adams *et al.*, 2016). Ecological modelling can be a useful and promising tool for
299 seagrass restoration programs, as it is used to determine the most favourable environmental conditions for species
300 growth by collecting large scale datasets for seagrass meadows, including variables such as: light intensity;
301 seagrass coverage and biomass; sediment accretion rates; water velocity; sediment parameters and porewater
302 nutrients (Valle *et al.*, 2011; Adams *et al.*, 2016; Stankovic *et al.*, 2019; Horn *et al.*, 2021).

303 To effectively include seagrass ecosystems in climate regulation policy, a comprehensive understanding of the
304 factors that control carbon stocks, and sequestration rates, are urgently required (Lima *et al.*, 2020). The reported
305 loss of seagrasses capacity to sequester and store carbon is of high concern, highlighting the need for protection
306 and conservation of these ecosystems (Unsworth *et al.*, 2018). This should be undertaken to not only maintain the
307 carbon stored in their sediments, but also to maintain important supporting ecosystem services linked to
308 biodiversity, such as: critical feeding grounds for birds; important nursery areas for seabass; supporting threatened
309 runs of migratory salmon and sea trout on their way to and from spawning grounds, as well as migration routes
310 for eels to spawn at sea (Jackson *et al.*, 2001; Hiscock *et al.*, 2005; Lilley & Unsworth, 2014; Harding *et al.*, 2016;
311 Jones *et al.*, 2018; Bertelli & Unsworth, 2018; de los Santos *et al.*, 2020). To date, conservation programs are
312 rarely based on the explicit consideration of threats and drivers for a specific seagrass meadow, and instead focus
313 on conserving seagrass as part of a broader management plan incorporating other habitats or species, like many
314 reviewed by this study (Jones *et al.*, 2018). One way to improve this and highlight their importance would be to
315 include conservation and protection of seagrass ecosystems in financing mechanisms involving the reduction of
316 CO₂ emissions as a natural climate mitigation solution (Wylie *et al.*, 2016; Herr *et al.*, 2017; Howard *et al.*, 2017;
317 Barbier *et al.*, 2018; Himes-Cornell *et al.*, 2018).

318 Some seagrass areas have been reported to rival coral reefs in terms of supporting biodiversity, and when
319 associated with adjacent mangrove and barrier reef systems, they can provide more protection services than the
320 corals themselves and compensate for long term degradation of the reefs (Guannel *et al.*, 2016). The indirect value
321 of the supporting services provided by seagrasses, including providing shelter and nutrition to a range of marine
322 species, adds to their wider ecological importance (Hogarth, 2015; Nordlund *et al.*, 2016; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018).
323 However, many ecosystem services provided by seagrasses remain poorly studied, or not clearly referenced,
324 especially indirect use values and non-use values (Himes- Cornell *et al.* 2018). With the recent focus on the climate
325 mitigation potential of blue carbon ecosystems in the realm of international conservation (e.g., the Paris
326 Agreement, UN SDG 14), coastal managers would benefit from a better understanding of the valuation of services

327 provided by seagrass ecosystems. Jones and Unsworth (2016), further note that there are a wide range of risks
328 associated with poor environmental management of seagrass meadows, particularly concerning the provisioning
329 service of food security, the most frequent service described in this review, given their value as fisheries nursery
330 habitats.

331 As a consequence of their sensitivity to disturbance and broad geographical range, seagrasses are considered to
332 be excellent biological indicators to be included in intended nationally determined contributions (INDCs) as NbS
333 (Pergent *et al.*, 2015; UNEP, 2020). NbS are increasingly recognised as vital to achieving climate mitigation and
334 conservation targets, with seagrass meadows in the UK and northern Europe, for example, being typically included
335 in conservation law and agendas, either directly or indirectly (Harding *et al.*, 2016; Jackson *et al.*, 2016). However,
336 studies suggest that these programs might not have been effective in protecting these ecosystems, with declines
337 being consistently reported (Jones and Unsworth, 2016; Jones *et al.*, 2018; Smale *et al.*, 2019). Also, NbS,
338 including seagrass restoration, are not typically among the lowest cost options and so do not form a major
339 proportion of compliance markets, aimed to meet greenhouse gas emissions and climate change legislation
340 (UNEP, 2020). Conversely, NbS are popularly represented in voluntary markets, with several methods being
341 developed for seagrass restoration, including through the Verified Carbon Standard (Needelman *et al.*, 2018;
342 UNEP, 2020).

343

344 **Conclusions**

345 Following the publication of the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA, 2005) and the Economics of
346 Ecosystems and Biodiversity report (Kumar, 2012), there has been increased interest in the development of
347 national, regional, and global ecosystem services indicators. However, the full range of ecosystem services
348 provided by seagrass ecosystems has not been appropriately quantified, suggesting that informed management
349 decisions cannot be formulated. An increase in the geographic coverage of ecosystem services studies is
350 recommended, especially in understudied areas such as Africa, South America and the Middle East, in order to
351 improve value estimates by region and meadow type. Regional/global-scale datasets of spatially explicit seagrass
352 species presence-absence, abundance, and estimates of their ecosystem service provision, although currently
353 lacking, could support resource management, and facilitate global conservation targets demanded by multilateral
354 environmental agreements, policies, and initiatives, especially those including natural climate solutions. Thus,
355 future research needs to focus on: 1) incorporating less studied ecosystem services, especially those related to

356 social relations and cultural heritage into valuation studies to fully grasp the natural capital provided by the
357 seagrass ecosystem; 2) incorporating remote sensing techniques to better map seagrass meadows' areal extent and
358 variability among species and sites, to better identify regions where losses of ecosystem services may be occurring;
359 3) use of ecological niche modelling as an ecosystem based management tool to better understand seagrass
360 ecology and connectivity with other coastal habitats; 4) improved communication between regions and across
361 disciplines, especially those that focus on ecosystem services provided by other coastal vegetated ecosystems
362 adjacent to seagrass meadows, like salt marshes, mangroves, macroalgae and coral reefs. Results from this study
363 showed a growing interest in researching ecosystem services provided by seagrass meadows, and also highlighted
364 the threats hindering the provision of these services. Thus, more needs to be done, as detailed above, to make sure
365 that the full scope of ecosystem services are recognised and appropriately assessed, to be effectively included in
366 marine coastal management planning as NbS.

367

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Table 1: Integrated heat map representing the frequency of studies that developed seagrass ecosystem service valuation estimates for each ecosystem service category between 2000 and March 2022, per the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Board classification scheme, (2005). Values of 0 represent no studies published for a particular ecosystem service that year.

		2000	2003	2004	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Total
Provisioning Services	Food and fibre	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	2	6	4	3	2	4	3	5	9	4	49
	Fuel	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Genetic resources	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	5
	Biochemicals / Fertilisers	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	9
	Ornamental resources	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Fresh water	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Regulating Services	Air quality maintenance	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	0	7
	Carbon Sequestration	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	2	3	2	6	5	1	6	5	5	15	4	60
	Water regulation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	5
	Erosion control	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	4	3	1	0	1	1	5	1	23
	Water purification	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	2	1	2	1	3	6	2	22
	Waste treatment	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
	Disease regulation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Biological control	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	4
	Pollination	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Storm protection	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	3	5	1	4	2	4	6	1	31
	Climate regulation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	9
Supporting Services	Soil formation	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	2	1	1	2	0	3	0	14
	Nutrient cycling	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	0	3	0	1	3	0	19
	Primary production	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	3	1	10
	Maintenance of biodiversity/Habitat	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	4	2	3	2	3	4	10	3
Cultural Services	Cultural diversity	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	5
	Spiritual and religious	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	8
	Knowledge systems	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	6
	Educational	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	0	2	0	4	0	12
	Inspiration	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3
	Aesthetic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	7
	Social relations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Sense of place	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Cultural heritage	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	2	1	10
	Recreational and ecotourism	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	7	3	0	2	2	3	5	2

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1 **Title: A Review of seagrass ecosystem services: Providing nature-based solutions for a changing world**

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31

32 **Abstract**

33 Seagrasses are marine flowering plants, which form extensive meadows in intertidal and shallow-water marine
34 environments. They provide a wide range of ecosystem services, which directly or indirectly benefit humans, and
35 can be grouped into four broad categories: provisioning (e.g., food production); regulating (e.g., carbon
36 sequestration); supporting (e.g., primary production); and cultural (e.g., recreational, and eco-tourism). This study

37 provides a review of publications focusing on seagrass ecosystem services provision, to identify knowledge gaps
38 and improve our understanding of the use of these habitats as nature-based solutions to societal challenges, such
39 as climate change. Results showed that some ecosystem services, namely food provision, carbon sequestration
40 and maintenance of biodiversity/nursery habitats receive a higher level of focus and attention than others, such as
41 regulation of diseases and social relations, which are rarely, if ever, included in studies. It is clear that in order to
42 fully comprehend the nature-based solution potential held by seagrass ecosystems, studies need to consider
43 ecosystem services as a whole, and also combine and share results across global regions, to better understand the
44 potential impacts of degradation and loss of these ecosystems worldwide. Suggestions include applying novel
45 technologies such as remote sensing and ecological niche modelling to address some of the main gaps in seagrass
46 research, like meadow extent and connectivity within landscapes, to better incorporate preservation of seagrass
47 ecosystems in marine management plans.

48 **Keywords: Seagrass, ecosystem services, conservation, nature-based solutions.**

49 **Introduction**

50 Marine and coastal ecosystems and their related economic and social services have been suffering profound
51 impacts due to human induced climate change (IPCC, 2018). Thus, a better understanding of how these
52 ecosystems function, the services they provide (in both ecological and economic terms), and what is at stake
53 should we lose them, are necessary parts of any coastal management plan (Fisher *et al.*, 2009; Heckwolf *et al.*,
54 2021). Vegetated coastal systems characterise ecologically important areas where the land meets sea and are
55 generally composed of plant species adapted to either fully or partially submerged environments (Short *et al.*,
56 2016). These systems are home to a wide range of ecological and economic activities (Royal Society, 2017), and
57 provide numerous ecosystem services, including the provision of nursery habitats for commercially important
58 marine species, raw materials, coastal protection, and enhancing water quality (Lau, 2013). Vegetated coastal
59 systems are sometimes referred to as "blue carbon" ecosystems due to their role as carbon sinks (McLeod *et al.*,
60 2011; Pendleton *et al.*, 2012). Thus, by capturing and sequestering carbon from the atmosphere, these blue carbon
61 ecosystems play an important role in climate change mitigation (Fourqurean *et al.*, 2012; Veettil *et al.* 2018; Lima
62 *et al.* 2020; Ward, 2020).

63 Coastal ecosystems, when in pristine condition, naturally provide diverse benefits to both humans and nature.
64 Therefore, effective nature conservation strategies are necessary to guarantee their continued or enhanced
65 ecosystem service provision (Watson & Zakri, 2003; Rigo *et al.*, 2021). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment

66 (2005) uses a broad definition that equates ‘the benefits people obtain from ecosystems’ with the term ‘ecosystem
67 services.’ As per the definition by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Board, ‘an ecosystem is a dynamic
68 complex of plant, animal, and microorganism communities and the non-living environment, interacting as a
69 functional unit’, including humans as an integral part of many ecosystems (Watson & Zakri, 2003). Amongst
70 vegetated coastal systems, seagrass meadows have been identified as important ecosystem service providers,
71 especially as there is strong evidence that healthy seagrass beds enhance the productivity of neighbouring systems
72 like mangroves, salt marshes and coral reefs (de los Santos *et al.*, 2020; Cziesielsk *et al.*, 2021).

73 **Seagrasses**

74 Seagrass meadows have a pan-global distribution, being found in shallow coastal areas of all continents, except
75 Antarctica (Garrard and Beaumont, 2014). Seagrasses occupy soft-bottom sediments of the world’s oceans from
76 the tropics to the temperate zones (World Resources Institute, 2005), extending from the intertidal zone to depths
77 of up to 40 m (Gutiérrez *et al.* 2011). There is a high variation in the estimated global areal coverage of seagrass
78 meadows, ranging from 17×10^6 to 60×10^6 ha worldwide (Hemminga & Duarte, 2000; Mcleod *et al.* 2011). This
79 uncertainty highlights the need for more research, to better map and understand seagrass global distribution,
80 including seasonal and long-term temporal variations (Garrard and Beaumont, 2014; Macreadie *et al.*, 2018).

81 Seagrasses are marine angiosperms (**Figure 1**) adapted to exist fully submerged in brackish or salt water, where
82 they promote sediment deposition, stabilise substrates, decrease water velocity and function as part of the estuarine
83 filtration system, removing contaminants from the water column (Orth *et al.*, 2006; Campagne *et al.*, 2015).
84 Seagrasses also provide a range of other ecosystem services to the marine environment, including nutrient cycling,
85 supporting a range of commercially important fish species as a nursery habitat and as an important food source
86 for mega-herbivores such as green turtles, dugongs, and manatees (Costanza *et al.*, 1997; Hemminga & Duarte
87 2000; Orth *et al.*, 2006; Björk *et al.*, 2008; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018; de los Santos *et al.*, 2020).

88 Seagrasses can also act as ecological engineers, altering their environment to improve conditions by reducing
89 suspended sediment concentrations, which can increase light availability and reduce water column pollutant
90 levels, resulting in improved conditions for seagrass growth and survival as well as other marine photosynthetic
91 organisms (van der Heide *et al.*, 2007 Paquier *et al.*, 2014; Serrano *et al.*, 2016). Seagrass canopies can also reduce
92 wave attenuation, and this combined with a dense root matrix can further promote sediment deposition and prevent
93 erosion (Potouroglou *et al.*, 2017). Some species, particularly those with high canopy density and above ground

94 biomass have been shown to reduce current velocities by up to 90%, resulting in net sediment accretion rates of
95 up to 2 mm year⁻¹ (Hogarth, 2015).

96 Therefore, seagrasses directly and indirectly provide a range of ecosystem services, which vary by geographical
97 region and genera (Cullen-Unsworth *et al.*, 2014; Nordlund *et al.*, 2016; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018). The diversity of
98 ecosystem services is categorised as provisioning (ecological goods, such as food, fisheries, etc. provided directly
99 by seagrasses or indirectly by associated species), regulation and maintenance (ecological services, such as climate
100 regulation, water filtration, and ecological processes), supporting (primary production, soil formation) and cultural
101 (spiritual or knowledge values, such as recreation, tourism, and education) (Campagne *et al.*, 2015; Nordlund *et*
102 *al.*, 2016).

103 **Nature-Based Solutions**

104 Nature-based solutions (NbS) are defined as innovations inspired and supported by nature, which provide
105 environmental, social, and economic benefits, and help build resilience by benefiting biodiversity and supporting
106 the delivery of a range of ecosystem services (Seddon, *et al.*, 2019; Wild *et al.*, 2020; UNEP, 2020). NbS can
107 address such current and vital societal challenges as climate change and associated impacts, environmental
108 pollution, food security and water scarcity. NbS include established approaches such as ecosystem-based
109 adaptation, ecosystem-based disaster risk reduction, green and blue natural infrastructure, as well as the more
110 recently described "natural climate solutions" (Cohen-Shacham *et al.*, 2016, 2019; Griscom *et al.*, 2017; Chausson
111 *et al.*, 2020).

112 The potential of seagrass ecosystems as NbS, including climate mitigation, is evidenced through the high carbon
113 sequestration and storage potential, which could be used for CO₂ offsets in nationally determined contributions,
114 particularly in the case of successful restoration (Stankovic *et al.*, 2021; Lima *et al.*, 2022). Stankovic *et al.* (2021)
115 suggest that successful and well-designed restoration projects and conservation measures, could result in seagrass
116 meadows contributing up to 1.43% towards CO₂ offset of countries' total emissions by 2030 (business-as-usual,
117 BAU scenario). However, the climate solution potential of seagrasses is still one of the most poorly represented
118 as a NbS (Chausson *et al.*, 2020; UNEP, 2020; Veetil *et al.* 2021), partly because seagrass meadows are especially
119 vulnerable to anthropogenic impacts from both adjacent terrestrial and marine systems (Unsworth *et al.*, 2019).
120 Such impacts can be physical, resulting in direct removal of plants, or chemical, polluting both the sediment and
121 water (Mazarrasa *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, storms and severe weather events, associated with climate change, can
122 affect seagrass populations by uprooting plants and mobilizing sediments, increasing turbidity, and reducing water

123 quality and light penetration (Cardoso *et al.*, 2008). Additionally, fluctuations in sea temperature are considered
124 the primary climate change related threat to seagrass ecosystems, which could lead to alterations in seagrass
125 distribution and metabolism, subsequently reducing net autochthonous carbon sequestration potential (Clausen *et*
126 *al.*, 2014; Hyndes *et al.*, 2016; Mazarrasa *et al.*, 2018). Furthermore, sea level rise may alter habitat availability
127 for intertidal seagrass species, and as projected by the IPCC (2019) with medium confidence under the RCP8.5
128 emission scenario by the end of the century, vegetated coastal ecosystems in general are at high risk of local losses.

129 Past studies estimate the value of coastal ecosystem services to be US\$31.6 tr yr⁻¹ covering seagrass meadows
130 and algae beds as well as tidal marshes and mangroves (Bertram *et al.*, 2021). However, compared to other coastal
131 ecosystems (such as mangroves and corals) that also benefit humans, there has been substantially less research
132 focus on identifying and valuing ecosystem services provided by seagrasses, mainly due to the absence of detailed
133 information on marine habitat distribution and the difficulties in assessing both processes and functions (Maes *et*
134 *al.*, 2012; Himes-Cornell *et al.*, 2018). Consequently, the value of seagrasses as an ecosystem is often not
135 considered in marine management decisions, and rarely incorporated into NbS projects (Duarte *et al.*, 2008; Grech
136 *et al.*, 2012; Chausson, *et al.*, 2020). In addition, non-monetary values of seagrasses are important, with some
137 studies assessing non-monetary values by using biological proxies, such as area coverage, the biomass of bird and
138 mammal groups that seagrass supports, or the energy resources invested by nature when estimating the benefits
139 of seagrass as a habitat (Plummer *et al.*, 2013; Vassallo *et al.*, 2013).

140 The lack of public awareness concerning the importance of the ecosystem services that seagrasses provide is
141 arguably one the biggest threats to their conservation. This suggests that studies highlighting the importance of
142 ecosystem service provision by seagrasses can raise the profile of this important habitat and provide support for
143 their protection and conservation (Nordlund *et al.*, 2018; Quevedo *et al.*, 2020). Thus, this research evaluates and
144 lists the services provided by seagrass ecosystems by conducting a comprehensive review of the literature, in
145 order to identify potential gaps in knowledge and areas of focus or concern for the future. The aim of this review
146 is to contribute to a better understanding of how seagrass ecosystem services have been studied so far, with the
147 goal of constructing a knowledge-base for future NbS projects. The objective of this study is to review how the
148 main ecosystem services provided by seagrass meadows have been reported over time to highlight the need for
149 protection and preservation of their natural assets, in order to successfully develop NbS that incorporates these
150 extremely productive ecosystems.

151

152 **Methods**

153 **Literature Search**

154 A systematic literature review was conducted in order to better understand the range of studies that have been
155 published to assess the ecosystem services provided by seagrasses. The search centred on studies explicitly
156 focused on ecosystem services (**Figure 2**). The literature search was conducted using the Web of Science scientific
157 citation database. The studies were searched in the Web of Science Core collection (editions: Science Citation
158 Index Expanded, Social Sciences Citation, Conference Proceedings Citation, Emerging Sources Citation,
159 Conference Proceedings, Citation – Social Science & Humanities and Book Citation Science) considering the
160 period between 1900 and March 2022, using the following search string applied to all fields: (seagrass*/OR "sea
161 grass*") AND ("ecosystem/service*"), resulting in a total of 684 papers. A second search was conducted using
162 the same search string but applied to the field topic (title (title, key words, and abstract), resulting in a total of 654
163 papers.

164 For the purpose of this study, the search focused on peer reviewed papers, excluding grey literature. It is likely
165 that some of the literature on ecosystem services provided by seagrasses may have been published as working
166 papers, government reports, or other additional grey literature sources. However, it is not feasible to develop
167 search criteria that will identify all such possible studies within the topic of this study. Moreover, there are likely
168 additional publications on studies for ecosystem services in seagrass habitats that do not mention the specific key
169 words included in our search criteria.

170 **Selection Criteria**

171 In order to select articles to include in this review, all 684 publications were screened. Only publications that
172 mentioned seagrass ecosystem services in the title, abstract or key words, or if the content was unclear reading
173 the abstract, were retained, yielding 654 publications. Through this selection, the publications retained from the
174 Science Citation Index Expanded were used for full-text reading and analysis. After full text reading, 105
175 publications (16% of all screened publications) were retained that focused on the description, valuation, or
176 inclusion of one or more ecosystem services provided by seagrasses as the main topic of research, even if this was
177 integrated into analyses with other coastal habitats such as, mangroves, salt marshes or coral reefs.

178 **Data extraction**

179 For those final selected publications, the publication year; type of publication; the ecosystems services discussed;
180 the geographic area where the study was conducted; and the threats to the studied ecosystems were extracted.
181 Ecosystem services were organised into categories based on the classification scheme defined by the Millennium
182 Ecosystem Assessment (2005). The Millennium Ecosystem Assessment was chosen as a framework for this study
183 as it was conducted as a multiscale assessment, with interlinked assessments undertaken at local, national,
184 regional, and global scales, incorporating seagrass ecosystem services within their Marine, Coastal, and Island
185 Systems section.

186 Results

187 Overall, there has been an ~~average~~ annual increase in the number of studies including evaluation of seagrass
188 ecosystem services, ~~of 31.5%~~ over the ~~2319~~ years under study, ~~with 19% (n=20) of the cumulative total of studies~~
189 ~~being published in 2021~~ (Figure 3). Studies ranged from reviews of existing ecosystem services, assessment of
190 current threats, evaluation of public or stakeholders' perspectives, and knowledge gaps, to models for assessing
191 ecosystem services and valuation.

192 Of the 105 studies analysed, 37% (n=39) had a global approach to seagrass ecosystem services, 34% (n=36)
193 focused on specific global regions, mainly meadows in the Caribbean (n=5), Africa (n=5), and the Mediterranean
194 (n=3), and 42 studies analysed seagrass ecosystem services at national level, representing 40% of the total number.
195 The most prolific nations studied were the USA (n=9) and Spain (n=8), followed by Australia with 4 studies and
196 Sweden and the UK, both with 3 studies each (Table S1). Approximately half of the analysed studies focused
197 solely on ecosystem services provided by seagrasses (n=55), while the other half provided a combined approach,
198 grouping seagrasses with other blue carbon ecosystems such as mangroves, coastal wetlands, kelp forests and
199 coral reefs. Out of the 55 studies focussing on seagrass, 17 (16% of the total) concentrated on *Posidonia oceanica*
200 (Linnaeus, 1813) meadows specifically. It was also noted that more recent studies focused exclusively on
201 ecosystem services provided by seagrass habitats, whilst older ones usually combined seagrasses within wetlands
202 and/or other coastal habitats such as oyster and coral reefs (Table S1).

203 Most studies described threats to seagrasses and their related ecosystem services. Although studies reported those
204 threats differently, the nomination of threats provides an insight into the potential for changes in the area of intact
205 seagrass ecosystems as well as challenges that resource managers likely face within each region, such as to
206 fisheries. Within the studies evaluated, the greatest emphasis was placed on threats associated with land
207 conversion, pollution, climate change, aquaculture, and unsustainable resource use (Table S1). The most cited

208 threats in these studies have also been highlighted by the general literature on seagrass ecosystems, namely climate
209 change, sea level rise, pollution, fishing, and urbanisation (Unsworth *et al.*, 2019; Young *et al.*, 2021; Moksnes *et*
210 *al.*, 2021).

211 Altogether, ecosystem services were reported 396 times within the selected studies, and these have been classified
212 into types relating to provisioning, regulating, supporting and cultural services (**Table 1, Figure 4**). Although the
213 wider literature regularly cites the large number of ecosystem services and benefits provided by seagrass systems,
214 these are not always the central focus of research, rather being used as a means to justify the importance of
215 studying these habitats. It has also been noted that a subset of ecosystem services tends to be researched much
216 more frequently than others (**Figure 4**). For example, researchers tend to focus on carbon sequestration (n= 60),
217 food provision (n= 49 studies), maintenance of habitat and biodiversity/nursery habitats (n= 37), storm
218 protection/extreme events (n= 31) and opportunities for recreation and tourism (n= 29) far more than any of the
219 other seagrass ecosystem services (**Table 1**). In addition, regulating services overall tend to be studied much more
220 frequently than other categories of ecosystem services, representing 42% of the total with 166 mentions, whilst
221 the least explored were provisioning services with 17% of total reports (n=66) (**Table 1; Figure 4**). Moreover,
222 some seagrass ecosystem services identified by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment are rarely, or sometimes
223 never, assessed including, provisioning services of fuel or fresh water (**Table 1**).

224 In total, 17 studies provided valuation models for the ecosystem services described (**Table S1**). Services such as
225 food security and raw material provisioning, and opportunities for recreation and tourism have mainly been
226 assessed and used to value the ecosystem service provided by seagrass habitats. Researchers have used market
227 prices to measure food, raw material, climate regulation (via carbon sequestration), and opportunities for
228 recreation and tourism, while avoided cost and replacement cost are generally used to value waste treatment and
229 moderation of extreme events.

230 **Discussion**

231 Although the need to study ecosystem services for seagrasses is indicated by the increasing number of
232 publications, findings are mostly focused on seagrass cover and distribution mapping (Hossain *et al.*, 2014;
233 Nordlund *et al.*, 2016; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018) except a few species-specific case studies focusing mainly on
234 *Posidonia* spp. (Vassallo *et al.*, 2013; Campagne *et al.*, 2015). Moreover, this review demonstrates that some
235 ecosystem services are studied much more frequently than others (e.g., food provision in 47% of studies, carbon
236 sequestration in 57% of studies), likely because of stakeholder interest and current climate change mitigation

237 policies. Several important services are poorly addressed (i.e., medicinal, and genetic resources, air quality,
238 regulation of water flow, biological control, spiritual experience) or entirely absent (i.e., fuel, ornamental
239 resources, inspiration for culture/art) in the literature, most likely due to poor data availability and the difficulty
240 of quantifying the extent of service provision. However, although this systematic review followed established
241 search protocols, it limited the search to the wider term 'seagrass ecosystem services' within titles, key words or
242 abstracts, which restricts the analyses of studies where seagrass ecosystem services do not feature in those
243 sections, even though they might be indirectly evaluated or quantified in other sections. Consequently, for
244 example, few studies from the UK were included in the search, although researchers such as Lima *et al.*, (2020,
245 2022), Potouroglou *et al.*, (2021), Green *et al.*, (2018) and others have been assessing the UK's seagrass carbon
246 stocks with the aim of promoting natural climate solutions. Another limitation to consider is that this review
247 focused on scientific journal publications only, which discards regional and global reports on the assessment of
248 seagrasses' ecosystem services and their potential as NbS, e.g. UNEP (2020). Nevertheless, this review suggests
249 that there has been an increase in the inclusion of the term 'ecosystem services' in seagrass studies in more recent
250 years, showing a positive trend of raising awareness of their importance as NbS.

251 Seagrass carbon stock analyses have been reported worldwide, even though there might be a bias of reported
252 global estimates, which mainly focus on values from tropical and Mediterranean seagrass meadows dominated by
253 larger species, like *Posidonia* spp. (Johannessen and Macdonald, 2016; Serrano *et al.*, 2018; Lima *et al.*, 2022).
254 Although this demonstrates that many studies have been focusing on seagrasses' potential as NbS for climate
255 change mitigation, these are not always evidenced as an ecosystem service provision, and even more rarely linked
256 to the categories proposed by the Millennium Assessment, as described in this study. Therefore, despite a broad
257 recognition of the importance of such data (Pascual *et al.*, 2017), serious gaps in the identification of ecosystem
258 services provided by seagrass ecosystems still exist, notably involving methodology, areal extent, and valuation
259 of ecosystem services (Nordlund *et al.*, 2018; de los Santos *et al.*, 2020). The variability of ecosystem services
260 across a seascape, including spatial (i.e. extent of a seagrass meadow and its ability to buffer storm waves) and
261 temporal differences (seasonal fluctuations and density of seagrass biomass) may influence the assessment and
262 quantification of some services and should be considered by researchers and policymakers (Barbier *et al.*, 2011).

263 Mapping the services provided by seagrass ecosystems is key to evaluating temporal and spatial alterations to
264 their provision, particularly when taking a regional approach, such as those reviewed in this study for the
265 Caribbean and Mediterranean (de los Santos *et al.*, 2020). Mapping ecosystem services is one of the requirements
266 in ecosystem accounting, tracking alterations in natural assets and evaluating links with economic and human

267 activities (Veettil *et al.*, 2020). Despite advances in seagrass ecosystem service assessment studies and extent
268 mapping, there are still large global and regional data gaps (Veettil *et al.*, 2020; 2022), predominantly as a result
269 of the in situ approaches that are typically used including scuba/snorkeling surveys (Gotceitas *et al.*, 1997),
270 ground-based sampling (Moore *et al.*, 2000), and hovercraft-based mapping (McKenzie, 2003).

271 Even though projects focused on the protection and sustainable management of vegetated coastal environments,
272 including seagrass, are not a novelty, such efforts are mainly aimed at generating benefits and services to local
273 communities and biodiversity, as well as the fisheries and tourism sectors (Herr *et al.*, 2014; Mitsch and Mander,
274 2018). Unlike terrestrial ecosystems, few coastal programs have been established with the goal of conserving and
275 restoring ecosystems as potential mechanisms for nature-based climate mitigation (carbon capture/ avoided
276 emissions) solutions (Herr *et al.*, 2011; Gattuso *et al.*, 2018). Chausson *et al.*, (2020) assessed the six most
277 represented ecosystem types when examining the effectiveness of nature-based interventions to address climate
278 impacts and emphasised that only 13% of studies included coastal ecosystems, with only one study, out of 386,
279 focused on seagrass ecosystems specifically. Herr and Landis (2016) highlight that even though 151 countries
280 contain at least one blue carbon ecosystem (seagrass, mangrove, or saltmarsh) with 71 containing all three, only
281 28 countries include references to vegetated coastal systems in terms of climate crisis mitigation in their intended
282 nationally determined contributions (INDCs). Hence, undertaking ecosystem service assessments, such as those
283 presented in this review, could provide key data to identify conservation and management actions for these
284 ecosystems to be incorporated in such strategies (Pabon-Zamora *et al.*, 2008; Pascual *et al.*, 2017).

285 Half of the studies in this review focused on seagrass meadows specifically while the other half incorporated
286 neighbouring ecosystems in their ecosystem services appraisal. It has been reported that in order to
287 comprehensively assess ecosystem services, it is necessary to incorporate the multiple and synergistic
288 characteristics of ecosystems (Koch *et al.*, 2009; Barbier, 2012). However, studies continue to focus on each
289 service independently, even though ecological interactions suggest that there is connectivity between vegetated
290 coastal ecosystems, which impacts the availability and/or quality of the services (Barbier *et al.*, 2011). By
291 assessing ecosystem services collectively, like some of the papers in this review, studies could better delineate
292 between functions, services, and benefits to avoid the problem of double counting that may arise due to the fact
293 that some services (i.e., supporting and regulating) provide the basis and inputs for the assessment of others (Boyd
294 & Banzhaf, 2007; Fisher *et al.*, 2009; Kumar, 2012). For example, in recent years, ecological niche modelling has
295 been used as an alternative tool to predict the effects of climate change on seagrass ecosystem distributions (Valle
296 *et al.*, 2014; Davis *et al.*, 2016; Chefaoui *et al.*, 2018), the potential distributions of certain seagrass-associated

297 species (March *et al.*, 2013; Chefaoui *et al.*, 2016; Jayathilake & Costello, 2018) and seagrass conservation
298 priorities (Valle *et al.*, 2013; Adams *et al.*, 2016). Ecological modelling can be a useful and promising tool for
299 seagrass restoration programs, as it is used to determine the most favourable environmental conditions for species
300 growth by collecting large scale datasets for seagrass meadows, including variables such as: light intensity;
301 seagrass coverage and biomass; sediment accretion rates; water velocity; sediment parameters and porewater
302 nutrients (Valle *et al.*, 2011; Adams *et al.*, 2016; Stankovic *et al.*, 2019; Horn *et al.*, 2021).

303 To effectively include seagrass ecosystems in climate regulation policy, a comprehensive understanding of the
304 factors that control carbon stocks, and sequestration rates, are urgently required (Lima *et al.*, 2020). The reported
305 loss of seagrasses capacity to sequester and store carbon is of high concern, highlighting the need for protection
306 and conservation of these ecosystems (Unsworth *et al.*, 2018). This should be undertaken to not only maintain the
307 carbon stored in their sediments, but also to maintain important supporting ecosystem services linked to
308 biodiversity, such as: critical feeding grounds for birds; important nursery areas for seabass; supporting threatened
309 runs of migratory salmon and sea trout on their way to and from spawning grounds, as well as migration routes
310 for eels to spawn at sea (Jackson *et al.*, 2001; Hiscock *et al.*, 2005; Lilley & Unsworth, 2014; Harding *et al.*, 2016;
311 Jones *et al.*, 2018; Bertelli & Unsworth, 2018; de los Santos *et al.*, 2020). To date, conservation programs are
312 rarely based on the explicit consideration of threats and drivers for a specific seagrass meadow, and instead focus
313 on conserving seagrass as part of a broader management plan incorporating other habitats or species, like many
314 reviewed by this study (Jones *et al.*, 2018). One way to improve this and highlight their importance would be to
315 include conservation and protection of seagrass ecosystems in financing mechanisms involving the reduction of
316 CO₂ emissions as a natural climate mitigation solution (Wylie *et al.*, 2016; Herr *et al.*, 2017; Howard *et al.*, 2017;
317 Barbier *et al.*, 2018; Himes-Cornell *et al.*, 2018).

318 Some seagrass areas have been reported to rival coral reefs in terms of supporting biodiversity, and when
319 associated with adjacent mangrove and barrier reef systems, they can provide more protection services than the
320 corals themselves and compensate for long term degradation of the reefs (Guannel *et al.*, 2016). The indirect value
321 of the supporting services provided by seagrasses, including providing shelter and nutrition to a range of marine
322 species, adds to their wider ecological importance (Hogarth, 2015; Nordlund *et al.*, 2016; Nordlund *et al.*, 2018).
323 However, many ecosystem services provided by seagrasses remain poorly studied, or not clearly referenced,
324 especially indirect use values and non-use values (Himes- Cornell *et al.* 2018). With the recent focus on the climate
325 mitigation potential of blue carbon ecosystems in the realm of international conservation (e.g., the Paris
326 Agreement, UN SDG 14), coastal managers would benefit from a better understanding of the valuation of services

327 provided by seagrass ecosystems. Jones and Unsworth (2016), further note that there are a wide range of risks
328 associated with poor environmental management of seagrass meadows, particularly concerning the provisioning
329 service of food security, the most frequent service described in this review, given their value as fisheries nursery
330 habitats.

331 As a consequence of their sensitivity to disturbance and broad geographical range, seagrasses are considered to
332 be excellent biological indicators to be included in intended nationally determined contributions (INDCs) as NbS
333 (Pergent *et al.*, 2015; UNEP, 2020). NbS are increasingly recognised as vital to achieving climate mitigation and
334 conservation targets, with seagrass meadows in the UK and northern Europe, for example, being typically included
335 in conservation law and agendas, either directly or indirectly (Harding *et al.*, 2016; Jackson *et al.*, 2016). However,
336 studies suggest that these programs might not have been effective in protecting these ecosystems, with declines
337 being consistently reported (Jones and Unsworth, 2016; Jones *et al.*, 2018; Smale *et al.*, 2019). Also, NbS,
338 including seagrass restoration, are not typically among the lowest cost options and so do not form a major
339 proportion of compliance markets, aimed to meet greenhouse gas emissions and climate change legislation
340 (UNEP, 2020). Conversely, NbS are popularly represented in voluntary markets, with several methods being
341 developed for seagrass restoration, including through the Verified Carbon Standard (Needelman *et al.*, 2018;
342 UNEP, 2020).

343

344 **Conclusions**

345 Following the publication of the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA, 2005) and the Economics of
346 Ecosystems and Biodiversity report (Kumar, 2012), there has been increased interest in the development of
347 national, regional, and global ecosystem services indicators. However, the full range of ecosystem services
348 provided by seagrass ecosystems has not been appropriately quantified, suggesting that informed management
349 decisions cannot be formulated. An increase in the geographic coverage of ecosystem services studies is
350 recommended, especially in understudied areas such as Africa, South America and the Middle East, in order to
351 improve value estimates by region and meadow type. Regional/global-scale datasets of spatially explicit seagrass
352 species presence-absence, abundance, and estimates of their ecosystem service provision, although currently
353 lacking, could support resource management, and facilitate global conservation targets demanded by multilateral
354 environmental agreements, policies, and initiatives, especially those including natural climate solutions. Thus,
355 future research needs to focus on: 1) incorporating less studied ecosystem services, especially those related to

356 social relations and cultural heritage into valuation studies to fully grasp the natural capital provided by the
357 seagrass ecosystem; 2) incorporating remote sensing techniques to better map seagrass meadows' areal extent and
358 variability among species and sites, to better identify regions where losses of ecosystem services may be occurring;
359 3) use of ecological niche modelling as an ecosystem based management tool to better understand seagrass
360 ecology and connectivity with other coastal habitats; 4) improved communication between regions and across
361 disciplines, especially those that focus on ecosystem services provided by other coastal vegetated ecosystems
362 adjacent to seagrass meadows, like salt marshes, mangroves, macroalgae and coral reefs. Results from this study
363 showed a growing interest in researching ecosystem services provided by seagrass meadows, and also highlighted
364 the threats hindering the provision of these services. Thus, more needs to be done, as detailed above, to make sure
365 that the full scope of ecosystem services are recognised and appropriately assessed, to be effectively included in
366 marine coastal management planning as NbS.

367

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Table 1: Integrated heat map representing the frequency of studies that developed seagrass ecosystem service valuation estimates for each ecosystem service category between 2000 and March 2022, per the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment Board classification scheme, (2005). Values of 0 represent no studies published for a particular ecosystem service that year.

		2000	2003	2004	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	Total
Provisioning Services	Food and fibre	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	3	0	2	6	4	3	2	4	3	5	9	4	49
	Fuel	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Genetic resources	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	5
	Biochemicals / Fertilisers	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	3	1	9
	Ornamental resources	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Fresh water	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Regulating Services	Air quality maintenance	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	0	7
	Carbon Sequestration	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4	2	3	2	6	5	1	6	5	5	15	4	60
	Water regulation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	2	1	5
	Erosion control	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	4	3	1	0	1	1	5	1	23
	Water purification	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	3	2	1	2	1	3	6	2	22
	Waste treatment	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	3
	Disease regulation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
	Biological control	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	4
	Pollination	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Storm protection	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	3	5	1	4	2	4	6	1	31
	Climate regulation	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	9
	Supporting Services	Soil formation	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	2	1	1	2	0	3	0
Nutrient cycling		1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	3	1	0	3	0	1	3	0	19
Primary production		1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	3	1	10
Maintenance of biodiversity/Habitat	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	2	4	2	3	2	3	4	10	3	37
Cultural Services	Cultural diversity	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	5
	Spiritual and religious	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	8
	Knowledge systems	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	6
	Educational	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	0	2	0	4	0	12
	Inspiration	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3
	Aesthetic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	7
	Social relations	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Sense of place	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Cultural heritage	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2	2	0	2	1	10
	Recreational and ecotourism	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	7	3	0	2	2	3	5	2	29

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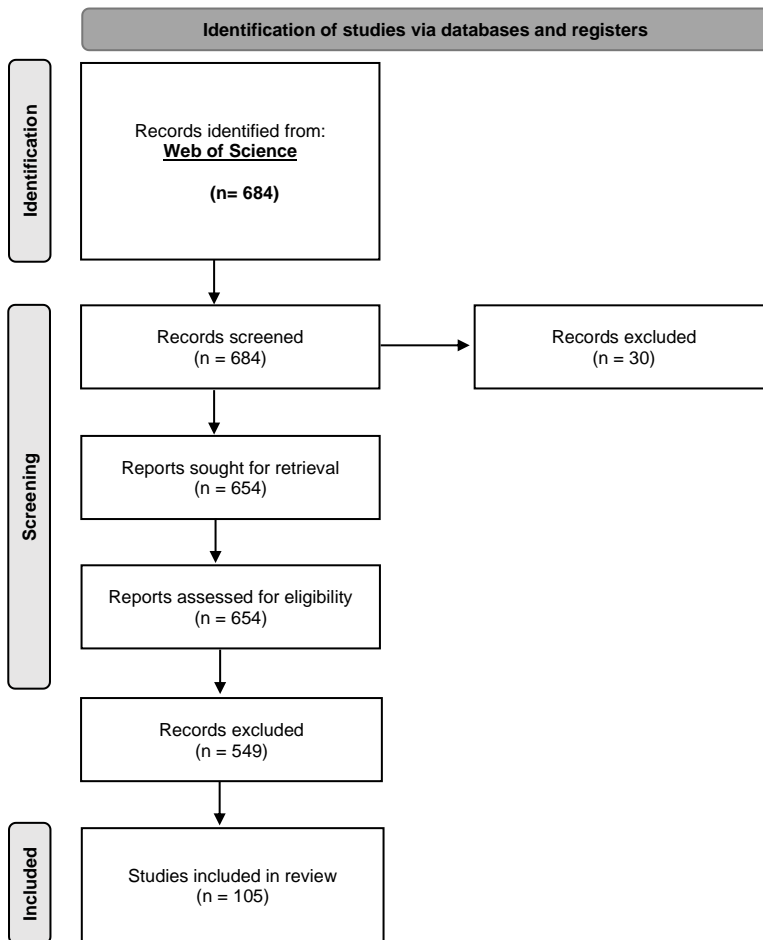
Figure 1: Seagrass meadow exposed during low tide. Patchy seagrass meadow dominated by *Zostera angustifolia* during low tide in Hayling Island, England, U.K. Photo credit: Mariana Lima, including anatomical scientific drawing of the seagrass *Zostera marina* (eelgrass), showing living above-ground (shoots and blades), below-ground (roots and rhizomes) components and seeds. (From: Watson, and Dallwitz, 1992).

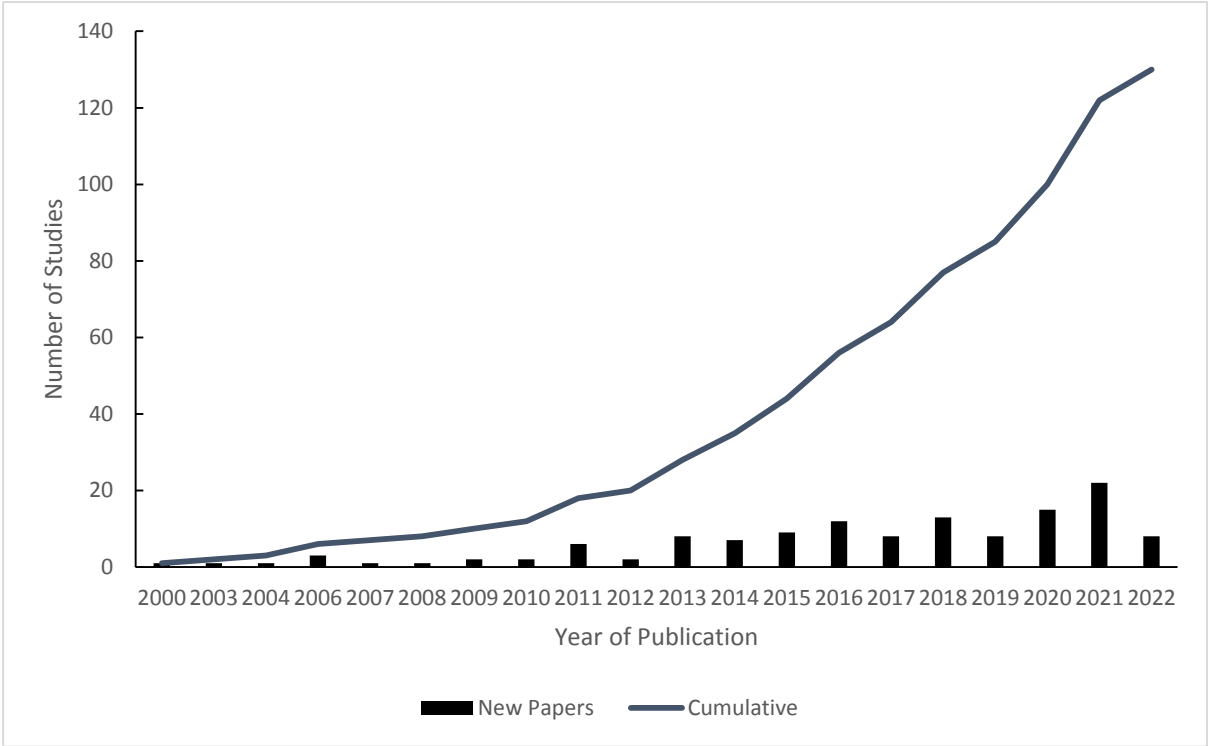
Figure 2: Methodology and search criteria used in the systematic literature review following a modified version of the PRISMA (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews) statement rules and template (Moher et al., 2010)

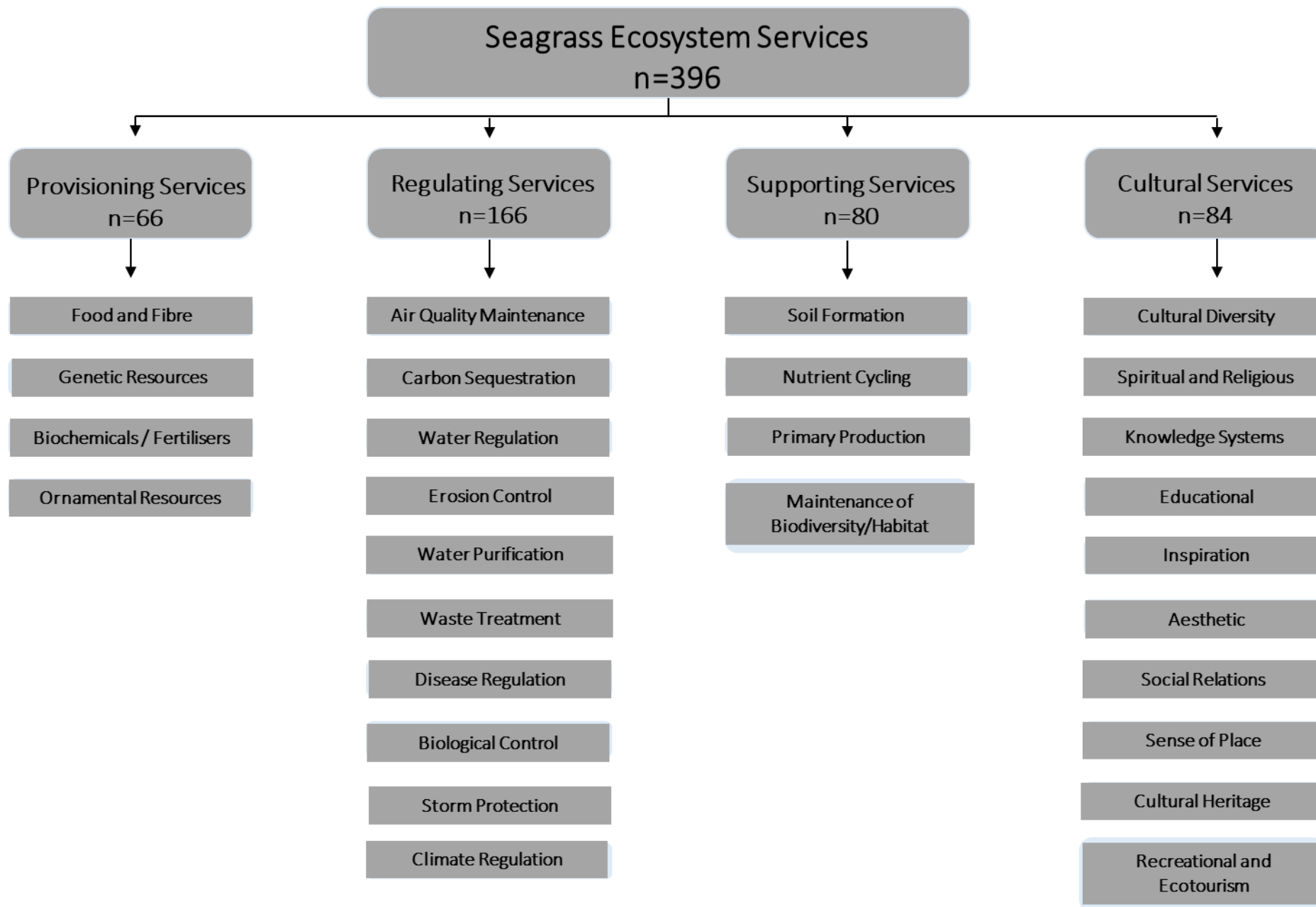
Figure 3: Number of Seagrass Ecosystem Service studies published per year from 2000 until March 2022, including cumulative line.

Figure 4: Schematic diagram showing all ecosystem services identified in this review, divided by the four main categories as suggested by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005.









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01/04/2022

Dear Editorial Board,

We wish to submit a review article entitled “**A Review of seagrass ecosystem services: Providing nature-based solutions for a changing world**” for consideration by Hydrobiologia in the Special Issue – Ecosystem Services.

We confirm that this work is original and has not been published elsewhere, nor is it currently under consideration for publication elsewhere.

This study provides a review of the main publications focused on ecosystem services provided by seagrass ecosystems, in order to identify any gaps in our knowledge of ecosystem service provision. Results showed that some ecosystem services, namely food provision, carbon sequestration and maintenance of biodiversity/nursey habitats receive a higher level of focus and attention than others, such as pollination, fuel, regulation of diseases and social relations, which are rarely, if ever, included in studies. It is clear that in order to fully comprehend the natural capital held by seagrass ecosystems, studies need to comprehend ecosystem services as a whole, and also combine and share results across global regions, to better understand the potential impacts of degradation and loss of these ecosystems worldwide. Suggestions also include applying novel technologies such as remote sensing and ecological niche modelling to address some of the main gaps in seagrass research, like meadows areal extent and connectivity within ecosystems, to better incorporate preservation of seagrass ecosystems in marine management plans. We therefore believe that this manuscript is highly appropriate for the special issue publication by Hydrobiologia because it consists of a comprehensive review on ecosystem services provided by an important marine environment - seagrasses.

We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Please address all correspondence concerning this manuscript to me at
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Thank you for your consideration of this manuscript.

Sincerely,

Mariana do Amaral Camara Lima



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All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by [Mariana Lima], [Thaisa Bergamo], [Raymond Ward] and [Christopher Joyce]. The first draft of the manuscript was written by [Mariana Lima] and all authors commented on previous versions of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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