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3Global overview of ecosystem services provided by riparian vegetation

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21Abstract

22Fluvial riparian vegetation (RV) links fluvial and terrestrial ecosystems. It is under significant pressure from 23anthropogenic activities and therefore, management and restoration of RV is increasingly important 24worldwide. RV has been investigated from different perspectives, so knowledge on its structure and function 25is widely distributed. An important step forward is to convert existing knowledge into an overview easily 26accessible, e.g. for use in decision-making and management. We aim to provide an overview of ecosystem 27services provided by RV by adopting a structured approach to identify the ecosystem services, describe their 28characteristics and rank the importance of each service. We evaluate each service within four main riparian 29vegetation types adopting a global perspective to derive a broad concept. Subsequently, we introduce a 30guided framework for use in RV management based on our structured approach. We also identify 31knowledge gaps and evaluate the opportunities an ecosystem service approach offers to RV management.

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33Keywords: riparian management, streams, rivers, restoration,

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36Introduction

37Riparian vegetation (RV) of fluvial systems is a complex of vegetation units along the river network that is 38functionally related to the other components of the fluvial system and surrounding area (Naiman et al. 392005). It is a hybrid and open ecotone: hybrid because it results from co-construction by human and natural 40processes, and open because the land alongside fluvial systems interacts with the river and associated 41processes (Dufour et al. 2019). The riparian zone is therefore characterized by high spatial and temporal 42variability mainly driven by bioclimatic, geomorphological and land-use conditions, which all change over 43time under natural and human influences. Riparian vegetation in the context of this paper is defined as the 44vegetation established in the riparian zone, i.e. the portion of terrestrial landscape from the high-water 45mark towards the upland where elevated water tables influence vegetation and soil (Naiman et al. 1993).

46Riparian vegetation offers a variety of ecosystem services (ES). The concept of ES has become an important 47model for linking the functioning of ecosystems to human welfare, which is critical for a wide range of 48decision-making contexts (Fisher et al. 2009). Equally there is a plethora of definition of ES, but they are 49generally defined as the 'the benefits people obtain from ecosystems' or 'the contributions that ecosystems 50make to human well-being' after the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA 2005) and the Common 51International Classification of Ecosystem Services (CICES) report (Haines-Young and Potschin 2013), 52respectively. The ES concept, which introduced a new framework for analyzing social–ecological systems, 53has been advocated as a useful tool that provides a holistic and transparent assessment of impacts on 54human well-being (e.g. MEA 2005, Fischer et al. 2018), allowing decision-making to take proper account of 55the value of services from ecosystems (Haines-Young and Potschin 2009). Nevertheless, our ability to draw 56general conclusions remains limited due to sparse information, among others (Carpenter et al. 2009).

57There is a consensus that there should be a distinction between 'final' ecosystem services and supporting 58or 'intermediate' services. This distinction is well illustrated in the ecosystem service cascade framework of 59Potschin and Haines-Young (2011) to highlight the position of the Common International Classification of 60Ecosystem Services (CICES) classification (Figure 1). Here we focus on final ecosystem services, which are 61the outputs of ecosystems (whether natural, semi-natural or highly modified), that most directly affect the 62well-being of people (Haines-Young and Potschin 2013) (Figure 1).

63Riparian vegetation has the capacity to deliver a disproportionately high amount of ecosystem services 64relative to their extent in the landscape (e.g. Sweeney and Newbold 2014) because of their ecotone 65characteristics and the ecological functions of RV (Capon et al. 2013). However, riparian vegetation is under 66high pressure from a range of anthropogenic activities, such as streamflow regulation by dams, pollution, 67land-use change, timber harvesting, water diversion, mining, and deforestation and from invasive species 68(e.g. Goodwin et al. 1997, Poff et al. 2011). In Europe, it has been estimated that 80% of natural riparian 69habitats has disappeared during the past 200 years (Naiman et al. 1993). The loss of riparian vegetation is 70generally immense in developed countries, for example, it has declined by 85–95% in California, Arizona, 71and New Mexico US, with most losses attributed to grazing (NRC 2002). Conversely, increasing effort is 72being undertaken to recover RV with varying success depending on the restoration (e.g., hydrogeomorphic, 73active plant introduction, floodplain conversion, invasive species and grazing control (González et al. 2015).

74Riparian zones and their vegetation have been investigated from a range of perspectives covering multiple 75scientific and applied disciplines such as hydrology, biology, geography, remote sensing, management and 76restoration (e.g. González et al. 2015). Thus, knowledge on structure and function of riparian vegetation is 77distributed among a wide range of fields and disciplines (see Dufour et al. 2019). Several studies have 78documented how RV is key for specific ecosystem services, but few have attempted to document the full 79range of ecosystem services it provides. An important step forward is therefore to convert the existing 80knowledge into an overview more easily accessible and directly applicable for decision-making and 81management of riparian vegetation - a task undertaken in this article.

82The general objective of this paper is to make an overview of ecosystem services provided by RV. More 83specifically, we adopt a structured approach to 1) identify the range of ecosystem services, 2) describe their

84characteristics, and 3) rank the importance of each service. We evaluate each service within four main 85riparian vegetation types within a global perspective to derive a broad concept. The key tasks in this paper 86were therefore, to firstly compile a comprehensive checklist of ecosystem services provided by RV, and 87secondly to synthesize the knowledge on these ES from the literature. Based on the structured approach 88we introduce a guided framework for use in riparian vegetation management. We also seek to identify key 89knowledge gaps and conclude the paper by evaluating the opportunities an ecosystem service approach 90offers to riparian vegetation management and restoration.

91

92**Study approach**

93In this paper, we used the groups of final ES described in Maes and colleagues (2016); provisioning, 94regulating and maintenance, and cultural ES. Provisioning services are the physical products directly 95obtained from the RV (e.g. timber, seeds and harvestable genes), regulating and maintenance services 96incorporate those that both directly (e.g. pollutant capture, carbon sequestration) and indirectly (e.g. 97regulation of decomposition, climate and hydrology) sustain environmental quality. Cultural services 98include tangible recreational uses (e.g. walking along a river) or less tangible benefits such as aesthetic, 99spiritual benefits and educational values. In fact, the most recent version of CICES (ver.5.1; Haines-Young 100and Potschin 2018) stresses that all ES have an inherent cultural value, but cultural services should be 101treated as an independent group, as was also undertaken in this review.

102We used the CICES framework (CICES version 5.1; Haines-Young and Potschin 2018) to identify the ES 103provided by RV. We described the characteristic of each ES and included the underlying processes 104underpinning the ES delivery. We also described the goods and benefits provided by each ES. The 105characterization of each ES was derived from relevant scientific literature and complemented with 106empirical information. A search of the peer-reviewed literature was undertaken using the web of science 107employing the following combinations of search terms; riparian, vegetation, ecosystem services ('*' 108truncation to include similar versions of the same word such as singular/plural):

109A key task of this paper was to rank the importance of each ES provided by RV based on the spatial and 110temporal extent of each ES – that is, how widespread is the ES provision and how often is it occurring. In 111order to acknowledge that the importance of each ES may vary substantially depending on the type of RV, 112we ranked the ES importance within each of four broad groupings of RV. The two criteria used for defining 113 these four RV groups were the woodiness of the dominant vegetation (whether herbs/grass or woody-114shrubs and trees) and local soil moisture (Figure 2). The importance of woody and non-woody RV for ES was 115 discussed by Sweeney and Newbold (2014), with a differential provision of services depending on species 116woodiness. The importance of local soil moisture in structuring RV is well described (e.g. Nilsson and 117Svedmark 2002), and the selected types capture a representative gradient of conditions from permanently 118dry aerated soil to temporarily water-logged soil, to temporary wetlands with surface water till permanent 119riparian wetlands (Figure 2). The four extreme RV types along the two gradients are thus herbs/grass, dry 120forest, wet forest and riparian wetland (Figure 2). We have focused on four points in the two-dimensional 121space characterized by woodiness and local soil moisture, being aware of all intermediate occurring 122vegetation communities that may differ in ES provision. For example, fluvial geomorphology, hydrologic 123 regime, width of the RV and climatic context all would be important but are not separately included in this 124framework.

125We derived the relative importance for each provisioning, regulating and maintenance ES within each RV 126groups by using relevant scientific literature and expert opinion of the authors of this paper. For cultural ES 127we did not assign relative importance due to lack of data to support such assessment. A description of each 128ES is given below, while a synthesis of the ES characterization and ranking is given in Table 2.

129

130Provisioning Services from Riparian Vegetation

131Biomass

132Biomass production in riparian areas for fuel for heating and green biogas production can be substantial. 133For example, in the Pacific North-West USA a range of riparian tree species in a lowland floodplain had a 134density production of 27,000 stems/ha in active floodplains and biomass as high as 540 t dry weight ha⁻¹ 135over a 3-year period (Balian and Naiman 2005). Lower values of 54.4 t ha⁻¹ (above- and below-ground 136biomass) have been reported under optimal conditions from a riparian forest in south-east Asia, dominated 137by *Populus euphratica* Oliv. (Thevs et al. 2012). Biomass production from shrubby vegetation such as 138certain willow species can be equally significant. Walczak and colleagues (2018) refer to figures from the 139UK, Poland and Sweden that range from 8-12 t ha⁻¹ (fresh mass) and up to 20 t ha⁻¹ under favorable 140conditions. Grassy biomass (residual) from managed riparian areas is also considered a provisioning service. 141Residual biomass from publicly managed floodplains of the Dutch Rhine tributaries was estimated at 142370,953 t dry mass of biomass, of which 87% was grassy biomass (Bout et al. 2019). According to the 143authors, this was equivalent to an estimated 353 TJ of heat from the woody biomass and 15 million m³ of 144green biogas from grassy biomass. Taller grasses such as *Phragmites* or *Arundo* are harvested in some areas 145for biomass (i.e. paludiculture; e.g. Brix et al. 2014) and their stems have been used for thatching and guide 146agricultural seedlings in many parts of the world.

147Food outputs from riparian zone include herbs, berries (elderberries, blackberries, huckleberries and 148saskatoon) and to lesser extent mushrooms. Here again, these are alluded to in the literature but do not 149appear to be widely used, so their importance is limited at local scale and is therefore assessed to be low 150(see Table 1 and Table 2).

151 Genetic Resources

152Genetic resources in RV include any genetic material, such as seeds and spores that could be harvested, 153wild plants used for crop breeding and genetic information from plant material used to extract genes. 154Among the wild crop relatives in riparian vegetation, two climber species, grape vine and hops are used 155globally in the production of economically and culturally emblematic wine and beer, respectively. In both 156cases, wild populations are being used and are increasingly recognized for breeding commercial varieties of 157these species (Patzak et al 2010). In fact, *Vitis vinifera* L. ssp. *sylvestris* (Gmelin) Hegi, the European wild 158grape and ancestor of cultivated grapevine varieties (*V. vinifera* L. ssp. *vinifera*) is the sole wild grapevine 159species existing in Europe. Wild hops (*Humulus lupulus* L.) in riparian areas are potential new germplasms 160to expand the variability of genetic resources for hop breeding (Patzak et al. 2010).

161As a complementary benefit, the genetic resources of crop-wild relatives also have the potential to improve 162disease resistance of cultivated species. In the case of wild grapevine, comparative inoculation studies with 163several grapevine pathogens revealed relatively high levels of resistance in some of the *Sylvestris* spp. 164accessions (Schröder et al. 2015). Similar application has been developed in the production of *Rubus* spp. 165berries. Wild *Rubus idaeus* germplasm from riparian areas could potentially be used against raspberry cane 166disease, which is amongst the most devastating problems for raspberry production (Hall et al. 2009).

167The genetic pool of wild populations of riparian trees such as the black popular *Populus nigra* provides 168economically relevant outputs for the development of commercial native trees and for advanced, 169molecular breeding of these species. Wild populations of *P. nigra* are also being studied to obtain bioenergy 170from lignocellulosic feedstocks that has the potential to develop as a sustainable source of renewable 171energy (Allwrigth et al. 2016). Finally, seeds provided by riparian species are extremely important as genetic 172material for ex-situ conservation of the native genetic resources.

173Overall, at the European scale the relative importance of this ecosystem service is reported as unknown 174(e.g. Vidal-Abarca et al. 2013).

175

176Regulating and Maintenance services

177Filtration of pollutants and chemical conditions of freshwaters

178Riparian filtration services refer to the control of sediments, nutrients and pollutants inputs to adjacent 179water (Lowrance et al. 1984). A large body of scientific literature demonstrates the important role of 180riparian zones in regulating and improving water quality in streams and rivers (e.g. Jordan et al. 1993, 181Kuusemets et al. 2001) involving both physical and biological mechanisms. Physical processes comprise 182filtering and deposition of sediments and sediment-bound pollutants by root and stems such as pesticides 183(Naiman et al. 2005). As much as 75% of sediments transported from uplands to streams has been reported 184to be physically retained by RV (Cooper and Gilliam 1987). As recently reviewed by Feld and colleagues 185(2018), the key to efficient reduction of surface runoff of soil particles is to have grass strips acting as 186mechanical filters.

187Riparian zones are also effective sinks for dissolved inorganic nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) from 188surrounding agricultural and/or urban areas (Naiman et al. 1997), providing thus a high potential in 189controlling eutrophication of waterbodies. One major mechanism for N removal is denitrification (Cooper 190and Gilliam 1987), occurring in riparian microsites with anaerobic conditions and decomposing organic 191substrate. Plant and microbial assimilative uptake also contribute significantly to inorganic N and P removal 192within land-water interface environments. Inorganic P is removed by soil adsorption and deposition of P-193bounded sediments. The efficiency of inorganic N and P removal in riparian zones varies due to a number of 194hydro-geomorphological, chemical and biological factors (e.g. Groffman et al. 1992, Hefting et al. 2003) but 195denitrification rates up to 295 kg N ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ have been measured in riparian zones (Lowrance et al. 1984). 196Sabater and colleagues (2003) reported that 5 to 30 % of nitrogen was removed by meter of buffer strip but 197with no differences between climate or vegetation type (trees vs herbaceous). In terms of inorganic P, 198values of 70% to 90% removals have been estimated in vegetated riparian buffer strips (Gascuel et al. 1992010). Finally, pesticides and other contaminants can also be effectively removed in riparian zones by 200attachment to vegetation matter, biological assimilation and accumulation (sequestration), or by metabolic 201degradation processes (Aguiar et al. 2015).

202Carbon sequestration

203Carbon (C) sequestration refers to the capture and long-term storage of carbon that would otherwise be 204emitted to or remain in the atmosphere. Riparian forests and wetlands are important carbon sinks, with 205potential for long-term storage (e.g. Cierjacks et al. 2010, Suftin et al. 2016; Table 2). Given the importance 206of soil and plant C sequestration to ameliorate changes in atmospheric chemistry, conserving undisturbed 207riparian areas could be an effective strategy to enhance climate change mitigation in rivers (e.g. Lal 2005). 208Sequestration rates vary along environmental gradients and for different vegetation types (e.g. Suftin et al. 2092016). Research on riparian C storage and sequestration is scarce and most studies are from South and 210North America while European studies are even more limited. The median C stock in riparian biomass was 211estimated to be 63 tC ha⁻¹ with the highest values of 318-487 t C ha⁻¹ from mature temperate forests in 212North and South America, and those values were considered to be comparable to the highest estimates for 213any forest biome (Dybala et al. 2019). From Europe, Cierjacks and colleagues (2010) reported C stocks of 214474 t C ha⁻¹ for mature riparian woods and 212 t C ha⁻¹ for meadows and reeds in Danube floodplains. 215However, the relative importance of the distinct riparian compartments for C storage and the variations 216across scales, vegetation types, geological and climate settings are still unknown.

217

218Erosion control

219Erosion control refers to the reduction of the weathering away of soil and thereby the inputs of soil 220particles together with nutrients and carbon to water bodies. The soil-stabilizing effect of the plants is 221particularly relevant during events of intense rainfall and snowmelt (e.g. Larsen 2017). Species composition, 222root architecture and woodiness influences control of erosion and river bank stability (Simon and Collison 2232002, Feld et al. 2018). The most effective erosion control seems to result from mixed stands of riparian 224woody and non-woody species (Simon and Collison 2002), but as recently reviewed by Feld and colleagues 225(2018), grass strips are the key to efficient reduction of surface runoff for soil particles. 226The reduction and fragmentation of riparian forests, particularly in mountainous areas, endangers the ES of 227prevention and control of landslides (Larsen 2017). As an extreme example of the importance of keeping 228riparian zones forested is the La Purisima storm that hit the Panama at the end of 2010. The lack of bank-229stabilizing effects of riparian tree roots due to riparian deforestation has been suggested to be one of the 230causes for more than 500 landslides during this event (Larsen 2017). Overall, this ES is of medium to high 231importance (Table 2).

232Flow Regulation

233Floodplains and riparian areas have long been recognized for delivering significant positive flow regulation 234services involving reduced frequency and magnitude of flooding, augmented low flows, and reduced 235stream flow and runoff (Thomas and Nisbet 2007, Rak et al. 2016, Table 2). Physically, as floodwater flows 236through a vegetated area, the plants resist the flow, reduce flow velocity and dissipate the energy, 237increasing the time available for water to infiltrate into the soil and be stored, which enhances 238groundwater recharge and results in a delay and reduction in magnitude of downstream flood peaks and 239reduced river bank erosion during heavy precipitation events. Increased hydrologic roughness due to 240vegetation and tree cover further reduces flood peaks. The potential importance is substantial as the 241damage cost of flooding or drying of urban or agricultural areas is high. For example, the costs for the flood 242edamage caused by an intense rain event (cloudburst) in Copenhagen on 2nd July 2011 amounted to 1 billion 243euros (Leonardsen 2012) and may have been significantly reduced by properly conserving upstream 244riparian areas. Furthermore, the slow release of water from riparian areas during dry periods is important 245for the ecological health of streams and downstream recipients, as well as for potential crop irrigation in 246the surrounding areas (Keesstra et al. 2018).

247Pollination and seed dispersal

248Plant regeneration is essential for maintaining biodiversity and ecosystem functioning in ecosystems, but 249may be threatened by human disturbance. Pollination and seed dispersal are the most threatened

250processes of plant regeneration because any disturbance such as habitat fragmentation or modification by 251an invasive plant species is likely to change the patterns of seed movement and recruitment. Riparian 252vegetation provides important nesting and foraging sites (nectar and pollen) for pollinators, and proximity 253to such habitats has been found to increase pollinator species richness, crop visitation rates and pollination 254success (e.g. Garibaldi et al. 2014, Petersen and Nault 2014). Vegetated riparian areas and wetlands 255support generally higher richness and diversity of pollinator species than dry adjacent lands, especially 256those dominated by monoculture (e.g. Ricketts 2004, Munyuli et al. 2013). Riparian vegetation may also 257play a role in seed dispersal across landscapes. However, the significance of this ecosystem service provided 258specifically by riparian vegetation is largely unknown (Table 2).

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260Maintenance of nursery populations and habitats_

261Riparian areas can host highly valuable natural habitats and act as nursery areas. A nursery is defined as a 262habitat that contributes more than the average, compared with other habitats, to the production of 263individuals of a particular species that recruits to adult populations (Beck et al. 2001).

264Several species of small and large flagship mammals are specialized to inhabit and reproduce in riparian 265areas (e.g., otter; Prenda et al. 2001), and represent important foraging areas for insectivorous bats 266(Grindal et al. 1999). Riparian vegetation also provides habitat for resident and migratory birds (e.g., 267waders, ducks and herons; e.g. Gillies and Clair 2008), and many species of reptiles and amphibians. Nearly 26870% of vertebrate species in a region will use riparian habitats in some significant way during their life cycle 269(e.g. Naiman et al. 1993). Undisturbed or well-conserved riparian areas also positively affect fish 270productivity (Tomscha et al. 2017) and the presence and spawning of target fish species with commercial 271and recreational interest such as salmonids (e.g. Bilby et al. 2003). In addition, RV subsidies as leaf litter are 272especially important for aquatic food webs and in the absence of autochthonous primary production, can 273be the major carbon source for aquatic biota (e.g. Pettit et al. 2012). Similarly, woody debris in the stream 274provides habitat and shelter for aquatic organisms and the exposed roots of riparian trees are the spawning 275substrate and larval habitat for some stream fish species (e.g. Pettit et al. 2013). Riparian vegetation also 276sustains benthic and riverine invertebrate richness (Malmqvist 2002), and many semi-aquatic organisms, 277such as salamanders, depend on both aquatic and terrestrial habitats to complete their life cycle and 278maintain viable populations (Semlitsch 1998).

279Pest control

280Natural control of plant pests in agro-ecosystems is provided by predators and parasitoids, such as birds, 281bats, spiders, ground beetles, lady beetles, lacewings, flies and wasps, as well as entomopathogenic 282 organisms (e.g., fungi, bacteria, nematodes). Habitat requirements for natural enemies include several 283ecosystem properties often encompassed by riparian systems: (i) supplementary food resources, e.g., 284alternate hosts, or prey; (ii) complementary food resources, e.g., pollen, honeydew, nectar; (iii) 285microclimatic conditions; and (iv) overwintering/aestivation shelters and refuges (e.g. Jonsson et al. 2008). 286Riparian vegetation can provide refuges and other resources to natural enemies, and serve as corridors for 287their dispersion between other non-crop habitats and into crop fields (e.g. Luke et al. 2018). There are 288several examples worldwide providing evidence of the relevance of pest-regulating services by riparian 289vegetation. One study by Maisonneuve and Rioux (2001) found that the proportion of pest species 290decreased with the complexity of riparian vegetation structure, while insectivorous species increased in 291abundance in woody riparian strips. Stockan and colleagues (2014) reported the highest density and 292species diversity of generalist predators (Coleoptera, Carabidae) in unmanaged riparian margins. However, 293Gray and Lewis (2014) observed that 30–50 m width riparian forests adjoining oil palm plantations in 294Malaysian Borneo were unlikely to provide a pest control service. Clearly, the characteristics of riparian 295vegetation and associated environmental conditions that influence the pest control service require further 296study.

297Regulation of microclimate

298Riparian vegetation can exert considerable influence on the local microclimate (Chen et al. 1999) with 299dense, closed canopies reducing evaporation, reducing wind speed and maintaining high relative humidity. 300In riparian areas, the stream flow regime and groundwater will result in surface soils with high moisture 301content. Shading from RV canopies also results in lower air and water temperatures, therefore alleviating 302the heat stress, which is related with public health (e.g. Kristensen et al. 2014). Riparian vegetation is 303important for temperature and light control within streams (Capon and Pettit 2018). Trees on the river 304edge provide shade that can reduce instream primary production and water temperature, the latter with 305positive effect on dissolved oxygen. This microclimate regulation is especially evident in arid and semi-arid 306areas where the lushness of riparian trees and shrubs contrasts with the surrounding arid landscape where 307vegetation is scarce.

308Fire effects mitigation

309Riparian zones can act as a natural barrier to limit the spread and spatial extent of upland wildfires (Pettit 310and Naiman 2007). Riparian systems tend to differ from adjacent uplands in moisture regime, topography, 311micro-climate, soils and vegetative structure, resulting in higher fuel moisture content, relative humidity 312and lower wind speeds. Therefore, fires are generally less frequent and of lower intensity in riparian zones 313(e.g. Dwire and Kauffman 2003).

314With changing climate follows increasing risk in many regions of catastrophic fires, so managing this risk 315while conserving biodiversity is a major challenge. Dense natural riparian vegetation in most cases creates a 316buffer zone to the stream, which will limit terrestrial fire spread and protect stream ecosystems from fire 317effects (Bisson et al. 2003). Riparian zones create refugia for fire-sensitive species in a matrix of more fire-318prone uplands. The benefits of riparian areas for fire protection has been recorded in diverse climatic 319environments such as temperate forest in the USA where after a severe fire, tree mortality was 37% in the 320upland area while no trees were killed in the adjacent riparian zone, and there was no loss of diversity of 321riparian species (Elliot et al. 1999). In a tropical fire-prone savanna in Central American fire rarely 322penetrates far into the adjacent riparian forest, fire damaged trees are only found on gentler slopes near 323the savanna-forest boundary (Kellman and Tackaberry 1993).

324Evaluation of the importance of provisioning, regulating and maintenance services

325When we compared the importance of the provisioning and regulating ES across the four vegetation types 326given in Table 2, we found that out of the 16 services provided, 12 services had at least one high ranking 327across the four vegetation types, and six had medium or high importance across all vegetation types 328('filtration/storage', 'chemical condition of freshwater', 'fixation storage', 'erosion control', 'flow 329regulation', and 'providing habitats'; Table 2). Three other services were mainly associated with two 330vegetation types that are forest and wet forest providing 'standing crop of woody biomass' and 'climate 331regulation', and dry woodland together with herbs/grass providing mainly 'pollination' (Figure 3). In Table 3323, we ranked the ES provided by RV such that the highest ranked service is the service with highest 333importance in most of the four vegetation types. It is clear that presence of any of the four vegetation types 334in the riparian area will provide several ES, but also that forest and riparian wetland will provide more than 335herbs/grass.

336

337**Cultural Services from Riparian Vegetation**

338Cultural Services are considered "non-material benefits people obtain from ecosystems through spiritual 339enrichment, cognitive development, reflection, recreation, and aesthetic experiences" (MEA 2005), which 340have extended the original categories 'Cultural' and 'Recreation' of Constanza and colleagues (1997). 341Despite being increasingly recognized as key to ecosystem conservation and unavoidable in the general 342valuation of ecosystem services, apart from recreation services, this broad category is frequently 343overlooked due to its intangible and subjective nature, and lack of methodological frameworks to quantify 344their value in monetary means (TEEB 2010, Daniel et al. 2012). The CICES framework stresses that all ES 345have an inherent cultural value, but these services should be treated as an independent section. CICES 346classifies cultural services into two broad divisions and respective categories: i) Direct cultural services, 347which cover outdoor interactions with living systems (Experiential and Physical use of plants, animals and 348landscapes; Scientific; Educational; Cultural heritage; Aesthetic), and ii) Indirect cultural services, which rely 349mostly on remotely indoor interactions with the environmental setting (Sacred and/or religious values; 350Symbolic values; Entertainment; Existence; Bequest). These services can involve individual species, 351communities, habitats, and whole ecosystems. In Table 4 the direct and indirect cultural services of RV are 352listed.

353Direct and indirect cultural services

354Riparian areas and vegetation provide opportunities for researching nature *in situ*. They can function as 355outdoor laboratories for students or local communities through the development of environmental 356education and citizen science projects by schools, research centers and local associations may be 357complemented by experiences in classrooms or science centers. The time scale in which this cultural service 358is provided can be quite varied, ranging from a single day (ex. guided visits or activities) to an entire year(s) 359(long-term education projects). The benefits of outdoor learning experiences have been documented in 360environmental education literature, and rivers and riparian areas are not an exception. Studies have 361reported increased environmental awareness and the integration of knowledge of different subject areas 362from outdoor studies (e.g. Bouillion and Gomez 2001, Overholt and MacKenzie 2005).

363The inspiring aesthetic value of rivers and riparian areas are well documented in a comprehensive body of 364art works (e.g. paintings and drawings) dating back several hundreds of years, and in the numerous tourists 365that visit, e.g., the Camargue, the Danube delta and the Coto de Doñana to enjoy the beauty of nature. The 366near natural and most diverse sections of rivers are more attractive to people due to a high sense of 367wilderness (Brown and Daniel 1991, Bowker and Bergstrom 2017). These areas are often in the upper 368reaches of rivers and are connected to the cultural services associated with mountains and nearby forests 369(e.g., recreation or exercise in the form of forest walks, and cultural heritage and sense of place (Zandersen 370and Tol 2009).

371Riparian vegetation can also provide a sense of continuity and understanding of our place in the universe, 372which is expressed through ethical and heritage-values (Arts et al. 2018). Many riparian areas provide 373strong religious significance for indigenous groups, such as waterholes or particular riparian trees (e.g. 374Nagajara et al. 2014). In few cultures from northwestern Europe, wetlands have a spiritual significance, 375being places where ghosts, witches and dwarfs live (e.g. Hauck et al. 2013).

376

377 Methodological framework to guide management

378We have provided and discussed a list of ES provided by RV and ranked the importance across four main 379vegetation types. The compilation of the full list of ES in one paper can be used to guide decision making in 380riparian management and restoration. The framework including the full list of ES provided by RV allows the 381identification of synergies and trade-offs between ES across RV types. For example, regarding synergies, it is 382easy from a list of ES as given in Table 2 to identify any synergies obtained by choosing certain vegetation 383types in a given restoration. Regarding trade-offs it is clear that RV provides some services but it can also 384provide some disservices. For example, RV can decrease flood risk downstream by lowering the speed of 385flood wave propagation but it can also deliver logs downstream that can generate a notably risk for bridges. 386Again by having a list of ES any trade-offs become easier to identify and assess for RV management. 387Therefore, the ES and benefits obtained from RV can be maximized by directing management and 388restoration towards specific target ES or bundles of services when taken trade-offs and disservices into 389consideration.

390In order to make the concept useful in local management, we aimed to provide a general framework for 391adopting the ES approach to riparian area management and restoration. We provide a flow chart outlining

392the steps required in guiding management and restoration using information on provisioning, regulating, 393maintaining and cultural services as targets (Figure 3). The first part is based on the ecosystem settings, 394which is the identification of local riparian vegetation and associated ES, and the classification of the 395importance of these services following Table 1. The second part is the decision-making process where 396managers need to decide if the target is a set of specific ES or if it is to reach a balance to maximize the 397range of ES benefits.

398Knowledge gaps and perspectives

399Several knowledge gaps can be identified based on the overview given in this paper. First, we need more 400knowledge on how the four main vegetation types and species traits specifically support different ES (Table 4012 and 3). The ranking of the importance of each ES across vegetation types was based on expert opinion 402supported by the literature but in many cases further studies are needed to validate these rankings. 403Moreover, we have only considered the main vegetation types, but many intermediate vegetation types 404are present and might support differently. Second, seed and propagule dispersal, gene resources, and fire 405protection are highly understudied ES provided by RV. Third, a general issue across all ES is the matter of 406spatial scale. How much area is needed in order to support and optimize each of the ES? This is not only an 407unexplored issue in RV management but also in many other ecosystems when considering ES provision (e.g. 408Sutherland et al. 2016). Fourth, cultural services are important but currently it is difficult to quantitatively 409value the benefits, thus they are harder to include in management planning. And last, a better 410understanding of who is really benefiting from ES provided by riparian vegetation is also needed. Thus, 411more research on assessment, description, valuation and integration of cultural services into a decision 412context is needed (e.g. Vidal-Abarca Gutierrez and Suarez-Alonso 2013).

413 Conclusion

414The severe degradation worldwide of freshwater ecosystems has posed a major threat to ES of riparian 415areas and their vegetation. This negative trend has continued to increase since 1950 even though the 416economic implications are serious (e.g. due flood damages), and in many places this negative trend might 417even be intensified due to climate change (e.g. Capon et al. 2013). Therefore, restoration of floodplain and 418RV would represent an important practice to mitigate the effects of such degradation and in many places, 419this is already occurring. Nevertheless, currently most water-related restoration projects just aim to 420improve habitat or water quality. In order to maximize the benefits of these restoration investments we 421suggest including an ES-based decision-making approach that includes RV. Therefore, if a broader 422perspective on ES of RV is included to help guide riparian management, the multi-functionality of 423freshwater ecosystems can be recovered and the provision of ES recovered or improved, and benefits to 424society would be enhanced.

425In order to progress this approach more knowledge conversion is needed. However, as pointed out by 426Dufour and colleagues (2019), although there has been a continuous increase in the number of publications 427on RV since the 1990s, the integration of that knowledge across disciplines and socio-cultural aspects of RV 428are still very much understudied. In this paper we have listed and ranked ES provided by RV, and allocated 429the importance of each provisioning and regulating ES within each of four broad RV types. We also included 430cultural services, although we could not systematically assess their importance due to the highlighted 431knowledge gaps. Finally, we provided the first steps for a guided management framework for including ES 432in local restoration planning of RV. In order to move from the knowledge-based approach provided in this 433paper, to the policy tools for prioritizing restoration, we need to advance mapping of ES and perform 434assessments of their economic value. Despite the current limitations on available information, we believe 435this paper is a useful start for knowledge conversion and future implementation of the ES approach in 436restoration and management of RV.

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Table 1: Definitions of the categories of relative importance of ecosystem services based on the spatial 661scale at which an ES works (local to global), and the temporal scale of goods and benefits provided by an ES 662(uncommon to common). The definitions are based on expert opinion and use of scientific literature. The 663definitions are used to populate Table 2 and the color-coding is also used in table 3. 664

		Spatial Scale				
		Global	Regional	Local	Unknown	
	Common	High	High	Medium	Unknown	
Temporal	Less than common	High	Medium	Low	Unknown	
scale	Uncommon	Medium	Low	Low	Unknown	
	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	

666Table 2. Provisioning, regulating and cultural ecosystem services (ES) and the main goods and benefits provided by riparian vegetation. For each 667service, we evaluate the relative spatial and temporal importance within four main riparian vegetation types (see methods and Figure 1 for more 668explanation). Ecosystem services and their main goods and benefits are derived from CICES (version 5.1; <u>https://cices.eu/</u>).

ES section	ES division	ES category	Ecosystem service (ES)	Main goods and benefits	Herbs/	Dry	Wet	Riparian
					grass	forest	forest	wetlands
Provisioning	Biomass	Standing crop	Standing crop of woody biomass	Biomass for fuel	Low	Medium	Medium	Low
			Standing crop of non- woody biomass		Low	Low	Low	Medium
		Wild plants and their outputs	Harvestable volume of wild berries or other	Food	Low	Low	Low	Low
	Genetic material	Genetic materials from all biota	Seeds, spores and harvestable genes	Extract genes for breeding, new products resisting disease	Unknown	High	Unknown	Unknown
Regulation	Transformation of	Filtration/storage	Filtering/storage of	Reduction in sediment and	High	Medium	High	High
and maintenance	biochemical or physical inputs		particles	toxic particles transport in streams				
		Carbon sequestration	Fixation storage	Reduction in CO2	Medium	High	High	High
		Chemical conditions of freshwaters	Removal of nutrient in runoff	Reduced pollution and damage costs of nutrient runoff	Medium	High	Medium	High
	Regulation of physical, chemical and biological	Stabilization and control of erosion	Erosion control	Reduction of erosion and sediment loads in streams	High	Medium	Medium	High
	conditions	Buffering and attenuation of mass flows	Landslide	Protect human lives and infrastructure	Low	High	High	Low
		Hydrological cycles and water flow maintenance and flood protection	Flow regulation - The capacity of vegetation to retain water and release it slowly	Damage mitigation of extreme flows	Medium	Medium	High	High

	Pollination	Pollination	Contribution to yield of crops	High	High	Low	Low
	Seed and propagule dispersal	Seed and propagule dispersal	Maintain biodiversity in the region	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
	Maintaining nursery populations and habitats	Providing habitats	Nursery habitats; Sustaining populations (e.g. of iconic species, or threaten species)	High	High	High	High
	Pest control	Providing habitats for native pest control agents	Reduction in pest damage to crop	High	High	High	Unknown
	Climate regulation	Evaporative cooling by urban riparian trees	Temperature control in stream and air	Low	High	High	Low
	Fire regulation	The capacity of riparian vegetation to reduce frequency, spread or magnitude of fires	Reduction in fire damage costs	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	High
Direct: In-situ and outdoor interactions with living systems, that depend on presence in the environmental setting	Experiential and physical interaction	Ecological quality to support recreational use	Recreation, fitness; de- stressing or mental health; nature-based recreation; ecotourism and eco- awareness; bushwalking, birdwatching, orienteering. Also for rest, relaxation and refreshment.	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Scientific	Sites of specific scientific interest	Knowledge about the environment and nature	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Educational	Sites used for conservation activities	Skills or knowledge about environmental management	NA	NA	NA	NA

Cultural (Biotic)

	Heritage	Sites of cultural importance	Tourism, local identity	NA	NA	NA	NA
Indirect: Remote, often indoor interactions with living systems, that do not require presence in the environmental setting	Aesthetic Sacred and/or religious values	Area of natural beauty Totemic species or settings of religious interest	Artistic inspiration Mental well-being. Many riparian areas provide strong religious significance for indigenous groups, such as particular riparian trees.	NA NA	NA NA	NA NA	NA NA
J	Symbolic values	Species, habitats or landscapes that can be used as symbols	Social cohesion, cultural icon Conservation of riparian habitats and keystone species	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Entertainment	Artistic productions	Nature films, books, paints, draws	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Existence	Natural areas designated as wilderness	Mental/Moral well-being; valuing wilderness of rivers and riverine areas	NA	NA	NA	NA
	Bequest	Species and ecosystem settings	Moral well-being; promotion of the sustainability of bio- cultural identity and of the overall social-ecological system	ΝΑ	NA	NA	NA

Table 3. Ecosystem services provided by riparian vegetation, distributed across four main vegetation types, 671and ranked from high to low importance following definitions of high, medium and low given in table 1.

Ecosystem service	Herbs/grass	Forest	Wet forest	Wetlands	ES Importance High to Low
Providing habitats	High	High	High	High	
Filtering/storage of particles	High	Medium	High	High	
Fixation storage	Medium	High	High	High	
Erosion control	High	Medium	High	High	
Providing habitats for native pest control agents	High	High	High	Unknown	
Flow regulation - The capacity of vegetation to retain water and release it slowly	Medium	Medium	High	High	
Removal of nutrient in runoff	Medium	High	Medium	High	
Landslide	Low	High	High	Low	
Pollination	High	High	Low	Low	
Evaporative cooling by urban riparian trees	Low	High	High	Low	
Standing crop of woody biomass	Low	Medium	Medium	Low	
Seeds, spores and harvestable genes	Unknown	High	Unknown	Unknown	
The capacity of riparian vegetation to reduce frequency, spread or magnitude of fires	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	High	
Standing crop of non-woody biomass	Low	Low	Low	Medium	
Harvestable volume of wild berries or other	Low	Low	Low	Low	
Seed and propagule dispersal	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown	

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Figure 1: The ecosystems cascade model which highlights the role of supporting processes and 689intermediate services in the delivery of final services and the goods and benefits humans derive from 690riparian vegetation. Source: Modified after Potschin and Haines-Young (2011). 691

Figure 2: Diagram showing the four main riparian vegetation types structured along two main factors; cover 693of wood and local soil moisture.





706Figure 3. Management framework for determining the environmental settings for the riparian vegetation 707for a particular region (Ecosystem setting) by identifying (ID) local vegetation types, the relevant ecosystem 708services, and finally ranking the importance of the relevant ecosystem services in relating it to the different 709vegetation types (following Table 3). Second, based on the ecosystem setting we suggest subsequent steps 710for managers to make best decisions aiming either for target services or for maximizing the number of 711services provided by riparian vegetation. The steps include the identification of synergies and trade-offs 712between ecosystem services and the economical and non-economical valuation of the target single or 713bundle of ecosystem services provided by the riparian vegetation.

