

Wetlands: crucial ecosystem service providers: A contemporary review

Sonia ¹, Kumari Sita ^{2,*} and Vaneet Kumar ¹

¹ Department of Botany, S.L. Bawa DAV College, Batala, Punjab, India -143505.

² Department of Botany, Khalsa College for Women, Amritsar, Punjab, India-143002.

International Journal of Science and Research Archive, 2025, 14(02), 064-076

Publication history: Received on 13 December 2024; revised on 27 January 2025; accepted on 30 January 2025

Article DOI: <https://doi.org/10.30574/ijrsra.2025.14.2.0222>

Abstract

Wetlands occupy the transitional interface between aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, globally distributed from polar tundra to tropical zones, excluding Antarctica. Water is the primary determinant of wetland environments, influencing their diverse flora and fauna. Classified broadly into types such as peatlands, rivers, mangrove forests, and others, wetlands are renowned for their productivity and biodiversity. They deliver a wide range of ecosystem services and economic benefits, including flood control, water filtration, landscape aesthetics, climate moderation, and cultural enrichment through recreational and heritage activities. Supporting diverse biological communities, wetlands harbor significant concentrations of birds, mammals, reptiles, amphibians, fish, insects, and plant genetic resources like rice. Their adaptive capacity to environmental change is critical for human communities and wildlife alike, ensuring health, welfare, and safety benefits. Despite their vital role, wetland ecosystem services remain inadequately quantified due to biophysical measurement limitations, highlighting research gaps. Comparable to rainforests and coral reefs in productivity, wetlands provide essential services at no direct cost, including disease regulation, carbon sequestration, and natural resource provisioning. Protecting wetlands safeguards these invaluable services, underpinning their significance in sustaining ecosystems and human well-being. This review aims to elucidate wetland types, ecosystem services, and current research gaps, emphasizing their indispensable role as natural assets.

Keywords: Ecosystem Services; Wetlands; Wetland Types; Genetic Resources

1. Introduction

Wetlands are characterized as transitional zones between aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, characterized by shallow water coverage (Upadhyay et al., 2020). Covering approximately 6% of the Earth's land surface, wetlands serve as crucial reservoirs of biodiversity, supporting a myriad of species through their complex hydrology and nutrient cycling dynamics (Mitsch et al., 1995; Constanza et al., 1997; Mitsch and Gosselink, 2000; Groot et al., 2012). Recognized as among the most productive and ecologically sensitive ecosystems globally, wetlands play a pivotal role in environmental health (Xu et al., 2020).

The Ramsar Convention defines wetlands as areas where the water depth does not exceed 6 meters at low tide, encompassing diverse types such as peatlands, rivers, lakes, estuaries, marshes, and mangroves (Bowman, 2002; Aber et al., 2012). Emphasizing their significance, the Ramsar Convention's 2013 report states 'The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity for Water and Wetlands' underscores the imperative to shift societal attitudes towards wetlands. This perspective has been echoed by governmental bodies such as India's Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change (MoEFCC), which in a 2017 notification, recognized wetlands as vital ecosystems supporting rich biodiversity and contributing to hydrological cycles.

* Corresponding author: Kumari Sita.

Wetlands provide a diverse array of ecosystem services, including flood mitigation, water storage and purification, landscape aesthetic enhancement, microclimate regulation, and cultural and recreational opportunities (Clarkson et al., 2013). These services are categorized as regulating, provisioning, supporting, or cultural, highlighting their multifaceted contributions to human well-being (MEA, 2005).

Despite their immense ecological and economic value, challenges remain in quantifying these services due to methodological limitations in biophysical measurements, indicating areas for further research and development. By safeguarding wetlands, societies can sustainably manage these invaluable natural resources, ensuring continued benefits for both ecosystems and human societies.

2. Materials and methodology

The present study utilized several prominent bibliometric information sources, including Google Scholar, Research Gate, Scopus, Web of Science, PubMed, academia.edu, Shodhganga, Infilbnet, and Scholars Archive@OSU. Keywords such as "ecosystem services," "wetland," "wetland services," "coastal wetlands," and "mangroves" were strategically chosen to compile a comprehensive database of relevant papers for analysis.

A total of 85 scientific articles were selected after meticulous sorting and classification based on various criteria including thematic relevance, academic discipline, geographical origin, and publication year. This process ensured a diverse representation of literature sources, data sets, research articles, and reviews.

The objective of this comprehensive review was to critically analyze trends and insights from existing studies in wetland ecosystem services (WES) research, providing a robust synthesis of current knowledge in the field.

3. Results and discussion

Drawing from published literature and the Ramsar Convention (2018), we compiled a comprehensive overview of eleven major types of wetlands, including peatlands, rivers and deltas, mangrove forests, wetlands in dry regions, high-altitude wetlands, arctic wetlands, coastal wetlands, shallow lakes and ponds, bogs, marshes, swamps, and estuaries (see Table 1). Additionally, building upon the framework provided by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA, 2005), we categorized the diverse ecosystem services offered by wetlands into four primary categories and 35 subcategories. These categories include provisioning services (9 subcategories), regulating services (12 subcategories), cultural services (6 subcategories), and supporting services (8 subcategories) (see Table 2). This synthesis aims to provide a structured analysis of the ecological and societal contributions of wetlands, underscoring their multifaceted roles in sustaining biodiversity and human well-being.

Table 1 Different types of wetlands.

Sr. No.	Wetland type	Description
1	Peatland	Found worldwide, peatlands are thick, water-logged soil layers composed of decaying plant material. Include moors, mires, peat swamp forests, and permafrost tundra.
2	Rivers and deltas	Rivers originate from high ground and flow downhill into creeks and streams. Deltas form at the river's mouth, where water slows and spreads into wetlands and shallow water.
3	Mangrove forests	Mangroves thrive at the intersection of oceans, freshwater, and land, surviving harsh environmental conditions. Found in tropical and subtropical tidal zones frequently inundated with salt water.
4	Wetland in dry regions	Characterized by seasonal rainfall, these wetlands retain water longer than surrounding landscapes. Include rivers, swamps, lakes, and springs that dry up seasonally
5	High altitude wetland	Store water from rain and glacial melt, recharge groundwater, trap sediments, and recycle nutrients, enhancing water quality and quantity.
6	Arctic wetland	Predominant ecosystem in the Arctic, covering nearly 60% of the region. Store significant amounts of greenhouse gases and support global biodiversity. Include peatlands, rivers, lakes, and shallow bays.

7	Coastal wetland	Found along coastlines where land meets open sea, unaffected by rivers. Include shorelines, beaches, mangroves, and coral reefs.
8	Shallow lakes and ponds	Permanent or semi-permanent water bodies with minimal depth. Include vernal ponds, spring pools, salt lakes, and volcanic crater lakes. Often seasonally flooded.
9	Bogs	Waterlogged peatlands in old lake basins or depressions. Primarily rain-fed, unsuitable for agriculture or development, providing undisturbed habitats for diverse species.
10	Marshes and swamps	Broad category of palustrine wetlands, comprising marshes, swamps, and fens. Known for high biological diversity.
11	Estuaries	Transition zones where rivers meet the sea, with water transitioning from fresh to salt. Include deltas, tidal mudflats, and salt marshes.

Table 2 Ecosystem Services and Their Types

Sr.No.	Category	Services
1	Provisioning services	Food and fiber Fuel Genetic resources Biochemicals, natural medicines, and pharmaceuticals Freshwater Natural products of economic value Fertile farmland Jobs hub Release of vegetative matter
2	Regulating services	Air quality maintenance Climate regulation Water regulation Erosion control Water purification and waste treatment Regulation of human diseases Biological control Pollination Storm buffer Wind buffer Fish nursery Flood protection Carbon sink
3	Cultural services	Cultural diversity Spiritual and religious value Scientific and educational knowledge Inspiration Aesthetic values Recreation and ecotourism
4	Supporting services	Primary production Nutrient cycling Soil formation Water cycling Provision of habitat Sea level rise mitigation Wildlife nursery

3.1. Provisioning services

Provisioning Ecosystem Services encompass the products obtained from ecosystems that fulfil basic human needs such as food, water, minerals, shelter, and fuel. These services, including food, water, wood, and biochemical and genetic resources, play essential roles in various aspects of human life.

3.1.1. Food and fiber

Coastal wetlands provide crucial food resources. For instance, in mangrove forests, the sap from *Nypa* palm (*Nypa fruticans*) is tapped for sugar, vinegar, and alcohol production, while its fruits are used both raw and processed (Friess et al., 2021). Species like *Bruguiera* spp., *Sonneratia* spp., and *Avicennia* spp. yield flour for baking, and *Acanthus* spp. leaves are used for tea (FAO, 1966). In salt marshes, *Salicornia* spp. are harvested for culinary use and as the base for vinegar and fermented beverages (Friess et al., 2021). Fiber products include jute, hemp, silk, and other materials derived from wetland ecosystems (MEA, 2005).

3.1.2. Fuel

Certain mangrove species, particularly from the *Rhizophora* genus, are prized for their high calorific value as fuelwood and charcoal sources (Friess et al., 2021). Common reed (*Phragmites australis*) serves as a fuel source through direct burning or processed into fuel pellets or biogas via anaerobic digesters (Köbbing et al., 2013; Wichmann et al., 2017).

3.1.3. Genetic resources

Wetlands serve as vital genetic reservoirs, preserving a wealth of biodiversity that plays a crucial role in global food security, agriculture, and medicine. These ecosystems support a diverse array of plant species, including essential crops such as rice, which is a staple food for over half of the global population (Upadhyay et al., 2020). Wetlands provide the ideal growing conditions for rice, and their genetic diversity is key to improving crop resilience to pests, diseases, and changing environmental conditions. This biodiversity enables selective breeding programs to develop new rice varieties that are more adaptable to climatic stresses, ensuring food security in the face of climate change.

Moreover, the genetic resources found in wetlands are not limited to crops. Wetlands are home to numerous plant species that offer potential medicinal benefits, contributing to drug discovery and pharmaceutical research. According to the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment (MEA, 2005), many wetland plants have unique biochemical properties that could lead to the development of new medicines, including treatments for diseases such as cancer and malaria. Wetlands' genetic diversity thus supports a wide range of applications, from agriculture to biotechnology, making their conservation a priority for sustainable development.

In addition to their agricultural and medicinal value, wetlands contribute to the overall stability and resilience of ecosystems. By maintaining a diverse gene pool, they enable ecosystems to adapt to environmental changes and stresses, preserving the ecological functions necessary for water purification, flood control, and carbon sequestration (MEA, 2005). As wetlands face increasing threats from human activities and climate change, protecting their genetic resources is essential for sustaining ecosystem services that benefit both human health and livelihoods.

3.1.4. Biochemicals, natural medicines, and pharmaceuticals

Chemicals derived from coastal wetland organisms are widely used in traditional and modern medicine across Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the Caribbean. These substances treat ailments such as asthma, skin diseases, diabetes, and various infections (Friess et al., 2021). Mangrove vegetation, for example, provides bioactive compounds for treating conditions like leprosy and smallpox (Bandaranayake, 1998; Ito et al., 2000).

3.1.5. Fresh water

Wetlands are primary sources of freshwater for numerous communities worldwide. They enhance water quality by naturally filtering pollutants and recycling nutrients, making this resource suitable for drinking, agriculture, and sustaining aquatic ecosystems (Turcices et al., 2023). Wetlands are critical sources of freshwater, providing essential ecosystem services to both human communities and the environment. These ecosystems play a pivotal role in maintaining water quality by acting as natural filtration systems, where pollutants, sediments, and excess nutrients are trapped and broken down by wetland plants and microorganisms. Through this process, wetlands improve water purity, making it suitable for drinking, agriculture, and supporting aquatic ecosystems (Zedler & Kercher, 2005). Wetlands also help regulate water flow, reducing the impact of floods and droughts by storing water during periods of excess rainfall and gradually releasing it during dry spells. This buffering capacity is particularly valuable for sustaining agricultural activities in water-scarce regions.

For communities that depend on wetlands for their freshwater supply, these ecosystems are essential to both livelihoods and health. In regions where wetlands are abundant, such as Southeast Asia and parts of Africa, they provide water for irrigation, fishing, and daily consumption, directly supporting the local economy (MEA, 2005). In addition to human use, wetlands play a crucial role in maintaining the health of freshwater ecosystems by regulating nutrient cycles and supporting biodiversity. Aquatic organisms rely on the clean, nutrient-balanced water that wetlands provide, ensuring the survival of species critical to the ecological balance of rivers, lakes, and other water bodies (Junk et al., 2013).

However, the degradation and loss of wetlands due to human activities, such as urbanization, agriculture, and pollution, pose a significant threat to these freshwater resources. The destruction of wetlands not only reduces their capacity to filter water and regulate water flow but also jeopardizes the ecosystems and communities that depend on them. Conservation and restoration efforts are critical to preserving wetlands' ability to provide fresh water and sustain both human and natural systems (Gardner & Finlayson, 2018).

3.1.6. Natural products of economic value

Wetlands yield a variety of economic products, including fish, shellfish, berries, timber, and wild rice, as well as biochemicals from soils and plants (Balwan & Kour, 2021). Commercial fisheries and shellfish industries depend heavily on wetland ecosystems for their economic and recreational value (Maltby et al., 2011).

3.1.7. Fertile farmland

Wetlands globally support agriculture due to their nutrient-rich soils. Rice, a staple for half the world's population, thrives in wetland environments (Sarkar et al., 2021). Wetlands also support the cultivation of commercially important fish species and aquatic plants (Ramchandra et al., 2018).

3.1.8. Job hubs

Wetlands provide employment opportunities across various sectors, including trade, hospitality, and commercial fishing. Wetland restoration projects also create significant job opportunities (MEA, 2005). Coastal regions in the United States alone generate employment for millions of people (Balwan & Kour, 2021).

3.1.9. Release of vegetative matter

Wetlands release substantial vegetative matter into their surroundings (MEA, 2005). This organic matter, carried into waterways, enriches ecosystems, stabilizes habitats, and sustains aquatic life (Davis et al., 2006; Kröger et al., 2007).

3.2. Regulating services

Regulating Ecosystem Services encompass processes that maintain favourable environmental conditions for life. These services, such as air quality maintenance, climate regulation, water regulation, erosion control, and water purification, are essential for ecosystem health and human well-being.

3.2.1. Air quality maintenance

Wetlands contribute to air quality by emitting and absorbing various chemicals (Friess et al., 2021). Often referred to as the "kidneys of the planet," wetlands filter pollutants and purify the air, benefiting local and global environments (MEA, 2005; Giri et al., 2007).

3.2.2. Climate regulation

Wetlands influence climate patterns locally and globally. They contribute to local climate by affecting temperature and precipitation, while globally, they sequester and store significant amounts of carbon dioxide (Charles & Duke, 2009; Tallis et al., 2011). Wetlands play a pivotal role in regulating climate patterns both locally and globally. At a local level, wetlands influence temperature and precipitation by modulating humidity through water retention and evapotranspiration processes. This natural ability to store and release water gradually helps create localized microclimates that regulate regional weather patterns, including temperature stability and rainfall distribution (Finlayson et al., 2017). Wetlands also act as a buffer against extreme temperatures by absorbing solar energy and releasing moisture into the atmosphere, which reduces heat in surrounding areas and contributes to more consistent climate patterns.

Globally, wetlands are essential in mitigating climate change through their capacity to sequester and store large amounts of carbon dioxide (CO₂). Wetland ecosystems, particularly peatlands, mangroves, and freshwater marshes, act as significant carbon sinks, storing carbon in both plant biomass and soil. This reduces the concentration of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere, which is critical for limiting global warming (Salimi et al., 2021). According to Erwin (2009), wetland restoration can enhance these carbon sequestration capabilities, providing a cost-effective and natural solution for mitigating climate change.

However, these ecosystems face increasing threats from climate change and human activity. As wetlands are drained, degraded, or altered, their ability to sequester carbon is diminished, and in some cases, wetlands may even become net carbon emitters, exacerbating climate issues (Xiong et al., 2023). The loss of wetlands also reduces their local climate-regulating functions, such as controlling floods and maintaining regional precipitation levels. Finlayson et al. (2017) stress the need for targeted policy measures and adaptive management to protect these vital ecosystems from further degradation under changing climate conditions.

Wetlands, therefore, serve a dual purpose in climate regulation: locally, by stabilizing temperatures and influencing precipitation patterns, and globally, by sequestering carbon dioxide. Protecting and restoring these ecosystems is critical for ensuring their continued contribution to climate mitigation and adaptation efforts.

3.2.3. Water regulation

Wetlands act as natural reservoirs, regulating water flow, and groundwater recharge. They enhance soil structure, influence water infiltration and retention, and mitigate floods, benefiting agriculture and ecosystem stability (Ferreira et al., 2020).

3.2.4. Erosion control

Wetlands play a crucial role in shoreline protection against erosion caused by storms and natural forces (UNEP, 2017; MoEFCC, 2017). Wetland vegetation stabilizes soil, absorbs wave energy, and slows water flow, reducing erosion in coastal and inland areas (Friess et al., 2021).

3.2.5. Water purification

Wetlands act as natural filters, intercepting pollutants and organic waste from surface water runoff. They improve water quality, reduce sedimentation, and support aquatic life by removing excess nutrients (Hammer and Bastian, 2020; Muduli et al., 2023).

3.2.6. Regulation of human diseases

Changes in ecosystems can directly impact the prevalence of human pathogens such as cholera and influence the abundance of disease vectors like mosquitoes. *Ecteinascidin* 743, derived from the mangrove ascidian *Ecteinascidia turbinata*, is employed as an anti-cancer treatment for soft tissue sarcoma. Extracts from *Salicornia herbacea* exhibit potential antibacterial and anti-diabetic properties, used in managing diabetes. Similarly, extracts from *Suaeda fruticosa* show a range of antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and anti-cancer properties (Friess et al., 2021).

3.2.7. Biological control

Changes in ecosystems affect the prevalence of crop and livestock pests and diseases (MEA, 2005). Wetlands provide habitats for animals that control pests and diseases; for instance, some frogs and fish reduce disease vector populations by consuming mosquitoes or larvae. Wetlands also support predators that regulate agricultural pests, such as ibis preying on grasshoppers (Hämbäck et al., 2023).

3.2.8. Pollination

Wetland ecosystems support pollination by providing habitats for various pollinators. The availability of natural habitats significantly influences ecosystem services, particularly for native bee species with diverse habitat requirements (Verhulst et al., 2004). Wetland margins, rich in undisturbed habitats, support nesting for native bees and attract hover fly species. Specific wetland plant species, like nude yellow loosestrife (*Lycimachia ciliata* L.) and the loosestrife bee (*Macropis nuda*), are essential pollen and nectar sources for certain pollinators (Vickruck et al., 2019).

3.2.9. Storm buffer

Coastal wetland ecosystems play a crucial role in mitigating damage from hurricanes and large waves (Ramchandra et al., 2005). Mangrove forests and salt marshes protect shorelines by reducing wave energy through reflection and dissipation (Costanza et al., 2021). Studies suggest that every 3 miles of healthy wetlands can reduce storm surge heights significantly, showcasing their protective value (Balwan & Kour, 2021).

3.2.10. Wind buffer

Wetlands mitigate the impacts of storms, tsunamis, cyclones, and strong winds by acting as natural protective buffers (Gupta & Nair, 2012). Managed ecosystems provide essential protection against natural hazards, enhancing resilience in landscapes prone to landslides, floods, wildfires, storm surges, and strong winds (Rieux et al., 2009).

3.2.11. Fish nurseries

Transient and resident fish and invertebrate communities utilize wetlands for food, shelter, and refuge, crucial for commercial fisheries (Keddy, 2010; Junk et al., 2011). Complex root and stem structures within wetlands provide shelter for juvenile fish, protecting them from larger predators and supporting high densities of juveniles. Coastal wetlands, such as mangrove forests, are particularly noted for their nursery functions for tropical reef fish (Friess et al., 2021).

3.2.12. Flood protection

Wetlands play a critical role in flood mitigation by absorbing and storing floodwaters (Penatti et al., 2015). Acting as natural sponges, wetlands slow down and release surface water, rain, snowmelt, and groundwater gradually, reducing flood heights and erosion (Syrbe and Walz, 2012). They are especially valuable in urban areas, where they counteract increased surface water runoff from built environments, thereby controlling floods and preserving crop lands (Ramchandra et al., 2005).

3.2.13. Carbon sink

Wetland soils store carbon over extended periods, making them significant contributors to climate change mitigation (Balwan & Kour, 2021). This carbon sequestration capability is crucial for regulating greenhouse gases and influencing global carbon cycles (Mitsch and Gosselink, 2015). Wetlands' role in carbon sequestration underscores their importance in both atmospheric and terrestrial ecosystem interactions (Finlayson et al., 2018).

4. Conclusion

Wetlands, among the most productive and diverse ecosystems on Earth, play a crucial role in the natural environment, offering a wide array of services. The Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, following the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, underscored the concept of ecosystem services, defining wetland ecosystem services as the benefits derived by people from wetlands and integrating them as a central concept of the Convention. These services are broadly classified into four categories proposed by the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment: provisioning services (e.g., food, fiber, freshwater, fertile farmland), regulating services (e.g., climate regulation, water purification, flood protection, disease regulation), cultural services (aesthetic, spiritual, educational, recreational), and supporting services (nutrient cycling, soil formation, primary production).

Wetlands provide a diverse range of services that are invaluable to human well-being, stemming from ecosystem processes and functions. Over the past two decades, there has been a notable increase in research studies valuing wetlands. However, certain gaps and limitations persist in current literature, particularly in the availability of data and information that directly link ecosystem characteristics to the final services they provide. Our paper highlights the importance of various ecosystem services provided by wetlands while identifying these gaps and shortcomings.

Future perspectives

Looking ahead, addressing these gaps and enhancing the monitoring of wetland ecosystem characteristics and services are crucial. By compiling and analyzing comprehensive data on wetland ecosystems and their services, stakeholders and policymakers can make informed decisions aimed at effectively conserving and restoring wetlands. This integrated approach will be essential for ensuring the sustainable management and preservation of wetland ecosystems, thereby maximizing their contributions to human societies and the broader environment in the face of ongoing environmental challenges.

Authors' contributions

VK conceived the concept and KS supported the idea. Sonia collected all the literature and composed all the information and wrote the article. KS and VK extensively edited the article and give valuable suggestions.

Funding's

This work is not supported by any funding agency.

Compliance with ethical standards

Disclosure of conflict of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest or any competing interests regarding the publication of this paper.

References

- [1] Abraham C (2013). Why religious leaders should be at the forefront of conservation. *New Scientist*, 217(2906):26–27. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0262-4079\(13\)60294-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0262-4079(13)60294-8)
- [2] Abraham S (2004). Economic valuation of coastal wetlands: a study of Cochin backwaters in Kerala.
- [3] Abrahams B, Sitas N, Esler K J (2019). Exploring the dynamics of research collaborations by mapping social networks in invasion science. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 229:27–37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2018.05.08>.
- [4] Ambastha K, Hussain S A, Badola R (2007). Social and economic considerations in conserving wetlands of Indo-Gangetic plains: a case study of Kabartal wetland, India. *Environmental Development*, 27(2):261–273.
- [5] Anoop P, Suryaprakash S, Umesh K B, Amjath Babu T S (2008). Economic valuation of use benefits of Ashtamudi Estuary in South India. In M Sengupta, R Dalwani (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Taal: The 12th World Lake Conference* (pp. 1822–1826).
- [6] Badola R, Hussain S A (2003). Valuation of the Bhitarkanika mangrove ecosystem for ecological security and sustainable resource use. Study report. Wildlife Institute of India, Dehradun.
- [7] Badola R, Hussain S A (2005). Valuing ecosystem functions: an empirical study on the storm protection function of Bhitarkanika mangrove ecosystem, India. *Environmental Conservation*, 32(1):85–92. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0376892905001967>
- [8] Bala T (2015). Economic valuation of Pong Dam Wetland. *ENVISION-International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 9:72–87.
- [9] Barbier E B, Acreman M, Knowler D (1997). Economic valuation of wetlands: a guide for policy makers and planners. Ramsar Convention Bureau.
- [10] Barbier E B, Hacker S D, Kennedy C, Koch E W, Stier A C, Silliman B R (2011). The value of estuarine and coastal ecosystem services. *Ecological Monographs*, 81(2):169–193. <https://doi.org/10.1890/10-1510.1>
- [11] Bastian R, Hammer D (2020). The use of constructed wetlands for wastewater treatment and recycling. In *Constructed wetlands for wastewater treatment* (pp. 5–19). CRC Press. <https://doi.org/10.1201/9781003069997-6>
- [12] Bateman I J, Harwood A R, Mace G M, Watson R T, Abson D J, Andrews B, ... Fezzi C (2013). Bringing ecosystem services into economic decision-making: land use in the United Kingdom. *Science*, 341(6141):45–50. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1234379>
- [13] Bateman I J, Mace G M, Fezzi C, Atkinson G, Turner K (2010). Economic analysis for ecosystem service assessments. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 48(2):177–218. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10640-010-9418-x>
- [14] Bennett E M, Cramer W, Begossi A, Cundill G, Díaz S, Egoh B N, ... Woodward G (2015). Linking biodiversity, ecosystem services, and human well-being: three challenges for designing research for sustainability. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability*, 14:76–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2015.03.007>

- [15] Bhatt M, Abdullah A (2011). Valuing biodiversity of Hokera Wetland Reserve: a contingent valuation approach. *Indian Journal of Environmental Protection*, 31(11):952–957.
- [16] Birol E, Karousakis K, Koundouri P (2006). Using a choice experiment to account for preference heterogeneity in wetland attributes: the case of Cheimaditida wetland in Greece. *Ecological Economics*, 60(1):145–156. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2006.06.002>
- [17] Bockstael N E, Freeman A M, Kopp R J, Portney P R, Smith V K (2000). On measuring economic values for nature. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 34(8):1384–1389. <https://doi.org/10.1021/es990673l>
- [18] Boominathan M, Chandran M S, Ramachandra T V (2008). Economic valuation of bivalves in the Aghanashini estuary, west coast, Karnataka. *Sahyadri Conservation Series*, 9:33.
- [19] Boxall P C, Adamowicz W L, Swait J, Williams M, Louviere J (1996). A comparison of stated preference methods for environmental valuation. *Ecological Economics*, 18(3):243–253. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0921-8009\(96\)00039-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0921-8009(96)00039-0)
- [20] Braat L C, De Groot R (2012). The ecosystem services agenda: bridging the worlds of natural science and economics, conservation and development, and public and private policy. *Ecosystem Services*, 1(1):4–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2012.07.011>
- [21] Bräuer I (2003). Money as an indicator: to make use of economic evaluation for biodiversity conservation. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, 98(1–3):483–491. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8809\(03\)00089-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8809(03)00089-5)
- [22] Capriolo A, Boschetto R G, Mascolo R A, Balbi S, Villa F (2020). Biophysical and economic assessment of four ecosystem services for natural capital accounting in Italy. *Ecosystem Services*, 46:101207. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2020.101207>
- [23] Casado-Arzuaga I, Madariaga I, Onaindia M (2013). Perception, demand and user contribution to ecosystem services in the Bilbao Metropolitan Greenbelt. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 129:33–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2013.05.059>
- [24] Central Pollution Control Board (CPCB) (2008). Status of water quality in India 2007. Central Pollution Control Board, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Government of India, New Delhi.
- [25] Chattopadhyay B, Chatterjee A, Mukhopadhyay S K (2002). Bioaccumulation of metals in the East Calcutta wetland ecosystem. *Aquatic Ecosystem Health & Management*, 5(2):191–203. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14634980296044>
- [26] Chmura G L, Anisfeld S C, Cahoon D R, Lynch J C (2003). Global carbon sequestration in tidal, saline wetland soils. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 17(4). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2002GB001917>
- [27] Costanza R, d'Arge R, De Groot R, Farber S, Grasso M, Hannon B, Raskin R G (1997). The value of the world's ecosystem services and natural capital. *Nature*, 387(6630):253–260. <https://doi.org/10.1038/387253a0>
- [28] Costanza R, De Groot R, Sutton P, Van der Ploeg S, Anderson S J, Kubiszewski I, Turner R K (2014). Changes in the global value of ecosystem services. *Global Environmental Change*, 26:152–158. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2014.04.002>
- [29] Cunningham A B (2015). Wetlands and people's wellbeing: basic needs, food security and medicinal properties. In C M Finlayson, R P Martin, C A Davidson, P G Fairfax (Eds.), *Wetlands and human health* (pp. 31–44). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9625-4_3
- [30] Das S, Crépin A S (2013). Mangroves can provide protection against wind damage during storms. *Estuarine, Coastal and Shelf Science*, 134:98–107. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecss.2013.09.021>
- [31] Das S, Vincent J R (2009). Mangroves protected villages and reduced death toll during Indian super cyclone. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 106(18):7357–7360. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0810440106>
- [32] Dasgupta P (2008). Nature in economics. *Environmental & Resource Economics*, 39(1):1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10640-007-9177-7>
- [33] Dasgupta S, Huq M, Khaliquzzaman M, Pandey K D, Wheeler D (2006). Indoor air quality for poor families: new evidence from Bangladesh. *Indoor Air*, 16(6):426–444. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0668.2006.00444.x>

- [34] De Groot R S, Wilson M A, Boumans R M J (2002). A typology for the classification, description, and valuation of ecosystem functions, goods, and services. *Ecological Economics*, 41(3):393–408. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009\(02\)00089-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(02)00089-7)
- [35] De Wit M, Blignaut, J N (2006). Monetary valuation of salinity impacts and risks in the Lower Vaal and Riet Rivers. *Water SA*, 32(2): 201–210. <https://doi.org/10.4314/wsa.v32i2.5249>
- [36] Dhakal A, Khanal, S N (2006). Economic valuation of Phewa Lake (Nepal): A sustainable management perspective. *The Journal of Agriculture and Environment*, 7:11–21. <https://doi.org/10.3126/aej.v7i0.729>
- [37] Dharmadhikary S (2008). Mountains of concrete: Dam building in the Himalayas. *International Rivers*.
- [38] Dixon J A, Pagiola S (1998). Economic analysis and environmental assessment. *Environmental Assessment Sourcebook Update*, 23:1–10.
- [39] Dixon J A, Pagiola S (2001). Local costs, global benefits: Valuing biodiversity in developing countries. In D. R. Lee & C. B. Barrett (Eds.), *Tradeoffs or synergies? Agricultural intensification, economic development and the environment* (pp. 31–47). CABI Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1079/9780851994352.0031>
- [40] Dixon J A, Scura L F, Carpenter R A, Sherman P B (2013). *Economic analysis of environmental impacts*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315070291>
- [41] Dudley N, Stolton S (2003). Running pure: The importance of forest protected areas to drinking water. *World Bank/WWF Alliance for Forest Conservation and Sustainable Use*.
- [42] Ellis E C, Ramankutty N (2008). Putting people in the map: Anthropogenic biomes of the world. *Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment*, 6(8):439–447. <https://doi.org/10.1890/070062>
- [43] Erwin K L (2009). Wetlands and global climate change: The role of wetland restoration in a changing world. *Wetlands Ecology and Management*, 17(1): 71–84. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11273-008-9119-1>
- [44] Erwin KL. (2009). Wetlands and global climate change: the role of wetland restoration in a changing world. *Wetlands Ecology and management*. 17(1): 71-84
- [45] Faber SC, Costanza R, Wilson M A (2002). Economic and ecological concepts for valuing ecosystem services. *Ecological Economics*, 41(3): 375–392. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009\(02\)00088-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(02)00088-5)
- [46] Farber S (1996). Welfare loss of wetlands disintegration: A Louisiana study. *Contemporary Economic Policy*, 14(1): 92–106. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1465-7287.1996.tb00620.x>
- [47] Farley J, Costanza R (2010). Payments for ecosystem services: From local to global. *Ecological Economics*, 69(11): 2060–2068. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2010.06.010>
- [48] Finlayson C M, Davidson N C, Spiers AG, Stevenson N J (1999). Global wetland inventory-current status and future priorities. *Marine and Freshwater Research*, 50(8): 717–727. <https://doi.org/10.1071/MF99065>
- [49] Finlayson CM, Capon SJ, Rissik D, Pittcock J, Fisk G, Davidson NC, Bodmin KA, Papas P, Robertson HA, Schallenberg M, Saintilan N (2017). Policy considerations for managing wetlands under a changing climate. *Marine and Freshwater Research* 68(10): 1803-15.
- [50] Gardner R C, Finlayson CM (2018). *Global Wetland Outlook: State of the World's Wetlands and their Services to People*. Ramsar Convention Secretariat.
- [51] Ghermandi A, Van Den Bergh JC, Brander LM, De Groot HL, Nunes P A (2010). Values of natural and human-made wetlands: A meta-analysis. *Water Resources Research*, 46(12). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2010WR009071>
- [52] Gopal B (2013). Future of wetlands in tropical and subtropical Asia, especially in the face of climate change. *Aquatic Sciences* 75(1):39–61. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00027-011-0247-y>
- [53] Gopal B, Chauhan M (2006). Biodiversity and its conservation in the Sundarban Mangrove Ecosystem. *Aquatic Sciences*, 68(3): 338–354. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00027-006-0868-8>
- [54] Gosselink JG, Turner R E (1978). The role of hydrology in freshwater wetland ecosystems. In R. E. Good, D. F. Whigham, & R. L. Simpson (Eds.), *Freshwater wetlands: Ecological Processes and Management Potential* (pp. 63–78). Academic Press.
- [55] Gren I M, Folke C, Turner K, Bateman I. (1994). Primary and secondary values of wetland ecosystems. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 4(1):55–74. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00324630>

- [56] Hanley N, Shogren J F, White B (2007). *Environmental economics: In theory and practice*. Macmillan International Higher Education.
- [57] Hein L, Van Koppen K, De Groot RS, Van Ierland E C (2006). Spatial scales, stakeholders and the valuation of ecosystem services. *Ecological Economics*, 57(2): 209–228. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2005.04.005>
- [58] Hussain SA, Badola R (2008). Valuing mangrove benefits: Contribution of mangrove forests to local livelihoods in Bhitarkanika Conservation Area, East Coast of India. *Wetlands Ecology and Management*, 16(6): 365–378. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11273-007-9060-6>
- [59] Johnston R J, Besedin EY, Wardwell R F (2003). Modeling relationships between use and nonuse values for surface water quality: A meta-analysis. *Water Resources Research*, 39(12). <https://doi.org/10.1029/2003WR002649>
- [60] Junk W J, An S, Finlayson C M, Gopal B, Květ J, Mitchell S A, Mitsch WJ, Robarts R D (2013). Current state of knowledge regarding the world's wetlands and their future under global climate change: A synthesis. *Aquatic Sciences*, 75(1): 151-167.
- [61] Juutinen A, Mönkkönen M (2011). Private forest owners and conservation compensation: Recommendations for policy design. *Journal of Forest Economics*, 17(1): 48–65. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfe.2010.06.002>
- [62] Kahn J R (2005). *The economic approach to environmental and natural resources*. South-Western College Publishing.
- [63] Karpowicz J P, Whitten S M (2008). Property rights and natural resource management in Australian wetlands. *Land Use Policy*, 25(3): 555–564. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2007.11.003>
- [64] Krutilla J V (1967). Conservation reconsidered. *American Economic Review*, 57(4): 777–786.
- [65] Kumar P (2010). *The economics of ecosystems and biodiversity: Ecological and economic foundations*. UNEP/Earthprint.
- [66] Kumar P, Kumar M (2008). Valuation of the ecosystem services: A psycho-cultural perspective. *Ecological Economics*, 64(4): 808–819. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2007.05.008>
- [67] Lal P, Lim-Applegate H, Scoccimarro M (2001). The adaptive decision-making process as a tool for integrated natural resource management: Focus, attitudes, and approach. *Conservation Ecology*, 5(2). <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-00342-050211>
- [68] Lant C L, Roberts R S (1990). Greenbelts in the Corn Belt: Riparian wetlands, intrinsic values, and market failure. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, 22(10): 1375–1388. <https://doi.org/10.1068/a221375>
- [69] Loomis J B, Kent P, Strange L, Fausch K, Covich A (2000). Measuring the total economic value of restoring ecosystem services in an impaired river basin: Results from a contingent valuation survey. *Ecological Economics*, 33(1): 103–117. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009\(99\)00131-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(99)00131-7)
- [70] Maclean I M D, Wilson R J (2011). Recent ecological responses to climate change support predictions of high extinction risk. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 108(30): 12337–12342. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1017352108>
- [71] Maltby E, Barker T (2009). *The wetlands handbook*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [72] Maltby E, Acreman M C (2011). Ecosystem services of wetlands: Pathfinder for a new paradigm. *Hydrological Sciences Journal*, 56(8): 1341–1359. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02626667.2011.631502>
- [73] Managi S, Kumar P. (2009). *The economics of sustainable development: The case of India*. Springer.
- [74] MEA (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment). (2005). *Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: Wetlands and Water*. World Resources Institute.
- [75] Mitchell R C, Carson R T (2013). *Using surveys to value public goods: The contingent valuation method*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315060568>
- [76] Mitsch WJ, Gosselink J G (2015). *Wetlands*. John Wiley & Sons.
- [77] Nunes P A L D, van den Bergh J C J M (2001). Economic valuation of biodiversity: Sense or nonsense? *Ecological Economics*, 39(2): 203–222. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009\(01\)00233-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(01)00233-6)
- [78] Nunes P A L D, van den Bergh J C J M (2004). Can people value protection against invasive marine species? Evidence from a joint TC-CV survey in the Netherlands. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 28(4): 517–532. <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:EARE.0000036827.10605.a3>

- [79] Odum EP (1971). *Fundamentals of ecology*. Saunders.
- [80] Pagiola S, Bishop J, Landell-Mills N (2002). *Selling forest environmental services: Market-based mechanisms for conservation and development*. Earthscan.
- [81] Pearce DW, Turner R K (1990). *Economics of natural resources and the environment*. Johns Hopkins University Press.
- [82] Pereira HM, Navarro L M, Martins IS (2012). Global biodiversity change: The bad, the good, and the unknown. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, 37(1): 25–50. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-environ-042911-093511>
- [83] Portney PR, Weyant JP(1999). *Discounting and intergenerational equity*. Resources for the Future.
- [84] Pretty J, Brett C, Gee D, Hine R, Mason C, Morison J, van der Bijl G (2000). An assessment of the total external costs of UK agriculture. *Agricultural Systems*, 65(2): 113–136. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-521X\(00\)00031-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0308-521X(00)00031-7)
- [85] Richardson L (2010). The role of wetlands in flood management and biodiversity conservation: A review of ecosystem service assessments and tools. *Wetlands*, 30(6): 1069–1074. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13157-010-0114-4>
- [86] Russi D, ten Brink P, Farmer A, Badura T, Coates D, Förster J, Peralta-Bezerra N (2013). *The economics of ecosystems and biodiversity for water and wetlands*. IEEP.
- [87] Salimi, S, Almukhtar SA, Scholz M, (2021). Impact of climate change on wetland ecosystems: A critical review of experimental wetlands. *Journal of Environmental Management* 286: 112160.
- [88] Sutton MA, Howard CM, Erisman JW, Billen G, Bleeker A, Grennfelt P, Grizzetti B (2011). *The European nitrogen assessment: Sources, effects and policy perspectives*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511976988>
- [89] TEEB (2010). *The economics of ecosystems and biodiversity: Ecological and economic foundations*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781849775489>
- [90] Tietenberg T, Lewis L (2016). *Environmental and natural resource economics*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315638699>
- [91] Turner KR, Daily G C (2008). The ecosystem services framework and natural capital conservation. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, 39(1): 25–35. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10640-007-9176-8>
- [92] Turner RK, Georgiou S, Fisher B(2008). *Valuing ecosystem services: The case of multi-functional wetlands*. Earthscan.
- [93] Turner RK, Paavola J, Cooper P, Farber S, Jessamy V, Georgiou S (2003). Valuing nature: Lessons learned and future research directions. *Ecological Economics*, 46(3): 493–510. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009\(03\)00189-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0921-8009(03)00189-7)
- [94] Van der Ploeg S, de Groot R S (2010). *The TEEB valuation database—a searchable database of 1310 estimates of monetary values of ecosystem services*. Foundation for Sustainable Development, Wageningen, Netherlands.
- [95] Verhoeven J TA, Arheimer B, Yin C, Hefting M M (2006). Regional and global concerns over wetlands and water quality. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, 21(2): 96–103. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2005.11.015>
- [96] Whitten S, van Bueren M, Collins D (2003). An overview of market-based instruments and environmental policy in Australia. *Greening the Market: Managing the Transition to Sustainable Enterprise*, 33: 91.
- [97] Wilson M A, Carpenter S R(1999). Economic valuation of freshwater ecosystem services in the United States: 1971–1997. *Ecological Applications*, 9(3): 772–783. [https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761\(1999\)009\[0772:EVOFES\]2.0.CO;2](https://doi.org/10.1890/1051-0761(1999)009[0772:EVOFES]2.0.CO;2)
- [98] Xiong Y, Mo S, Wu H, Qu X, Liu Y, Zhou L (2023). Influence of human activities and climate change on wetland landscape pattern—A review. *Science of the Total Environment* 879:163112
- [99] Xu X, Chen M, Yang G, Jiang B, Zhang J (2020). Wetland ecosystem services research: A critical review. *Global Ecology and Conservation*, e01027. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2020.e01027>
- [100] Yang Y E, Passarelli S, Lovell RJ, Ringler C (2018). Gendered perspectives of ecosystem services: A systematic review. *Ecosystem Services*, 31:58–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2018.03.005>

- [101] Zedler J B, Kercher S (2005). Wetland resources: Status, trends, ecosystem services, and restorability. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*,30:39-74.
- [102] Zhang L, Wang MH, Hu J, HoY S (2010). A review of published wetland research, 1991–2008: Ecological engineering and ecosystem restoration. *Ecological Engineering*, 36(8):973–980. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoleng.2010.03.017>.