
Application of the coastal ecosystem complex concept toward integrated management for sustainable coastal fisheries under oligotrophication

Hori Masakazu ^{1,*}, Hamaoka Hideki ¹, Hirota Masahito ², Lagarde Franck ³, Vaz Sandrine ³, Hamaguchi Masami ¹, Hori Juri ², Makino Mitsutaku ²

¹ Japan Fisheries Res & Educ Agcy, Natl Res Inst Fisheries, Environm Inland Sea, 2-17-5 Maruishi, Hiroshima 7390452, Japan.

² Japan Fisheries Res & Educ Agcy, Natl Res Inst Fisheries Sci, Yokohama, Kanagawa, Japan.

³ Ifremer UMR MARBEC, F-34200 Sete, France.

* Corresponding author : Masakazu Hori, email address : mhori@affrc.go.jp

Abstract :

Harmonizing coastal fisheries with water-quality improvement has become an essential factor for the sustainable use of coastal ecosystem services. Here, we present the scope of our study based on an interdisciplinary approach including ecological actions, socio-economic actions and socio-psychological actions. We chose to focus on the interaction between oyster aquaculture and seagrass vegetation as a typical ecological action using the coastal ecosystem complex (CEC) concept. Coastal organisms have adapted their traits to the environment over a long period of time, so that restoration of the CEC represents reconstruction of the original process of coastal production. Subtidal seagrass vegetation with intertidal oyster reefs is the original CEC in Japan, which would be expected to enhance coastal production by improving the production efficiency without adding nutrients. A simple field experiment examining carbon and nitrogen contents and stable isotope ratios revealed that oyster spats cultivated on a tidal flat adjacent to seagrass beds had higher nitrogen contents and higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ratios than spats cultivated in an offshore area using only pelagic production. This result suggests that utilization of the CEC, which enables oysters to use both pelagic and benthic production, has potential to sustain a food provisioning service for humans, even in oligotrophic conditions.

Keywords : Oyster aquaculture, Seagrass, Indigenous and local knowledge, Integrated coastal management

36 **Introduction**

37

38 Through evolution, organisms have interacted with their inhabiting environments and have changed
39 various traits as adaptations to the environment (Sensu Niche construction ; Odling-smee et al. 2003).
40 Coastal zone is an ecotone between terrestrial and marine ecosystems forming a mosaic of seascapes
41 characterized by various habitats such as rocky shores, seagrass meadows, coral reefs, mangrove forests
42 and tidal flats (Pittman et al. 2011), which is called Coastal Ecosystem Complex (hereafter as CEC) here.
43 Coastal organisms also have interacted with these habitats and adapted their traits to the environment over
44 a long period of time since before humans began development in coastal zones, meaning that coastal
45 organisms would originally possess some traits to effectively utilize the CEC for their growth and
46 reproduction. However, it is well-known that various kinds of coastal developments due to humans have
47 altered and decreased these habitats and the connectivity, especially from the Industrial Revolution in the
48 eighteenth century. Therefore, the restoration of original multiple habitats and the connectivity would
49 potentially lead to the recovery of the original state of biological production promoted by effective
50 utilization of those multiple habitats. The restoration of the CEC represents a reconstruction to the
51 original process of coastal production.

52 At the same time, the marine coastal area is one of the most important ecosystem providing a wide
53 variety of ecosystem services for the human community. It has been suggested that 23% of the world
54 human population live within a 100 km distance of the coast line (about three times higher than the global
55 average of the human population density ; IPCC 2007) and utilize these ecosystem services, suggesting
56 that coastal ecosystems have been exposed to the influence of over-use and pollution caused by human
57 activities in both coastal terrestrial and marine areas, such as urbanization, agricultural development and
58 industrial development, leading to eutrophication. Actually coastal environments of the world have been
59 influenced by artificial eutrophication with environmental pollution such as red tide blooms and hypoxia

60 over periods of multiple decades (Selman and Greenhalgh 2009 ; Yanagi 2015). Eutrophication has often
61 caused the excessive pelagic production in coastal areas, which has caused serious decline of other
62 important coastal production of benthic ecosystems (Hori and Tarutani 2015) as well as lake ecosystems
63 (Scheffer et al. 2001).

64 Recently as public awareness of coastal pollution has become higher, the quality of coastal waters has
65 been gradually and successfully improved in some regions by the decrease of nutrient concentrations,
66 namely oligotrophication (Matsuda 2015). Oligotrophication generally improves water quality, in
67 particular water transparency, by decreasing excessive pelagic phytoplankton production (Scheffer et al.
68 2001). The higher transparency due to oligotrophication has led to the recovery of various important
69 ecosystem functioning and services in coastal areas, especially derived from benthic primary production
70 including seagrass vegetation (Burkholder et al. 2007; Hori and Tarutani 2015). Seagrass beds have been
71 suggested as one of the most important coastal vegetation for climate change mitigation and adaptation,
72 such as blue carbon storage and protection from sea-level rise and storm surges, as well as food provision
73 and security (Arkema et al. 2013; Duarte et al. 2013). These ecosystem services are generally welcomed
74 by environmentally aware stakeholders, in particular by several world-wide international organizations
75 such as IPCC, UNFCCC, UNEP, FAO and IPBES (Hori and Kuwae 2017). These organizations aim to
76 make some ocean agenda related to national/international climate change initiatives for climate mitigation
77 and adaptation, which include effective conservation and restoration of the coastal vegetation.

78 However, some coastal stakeholders have suggested that the improvement of water quality with
79 oligotrophication is now causing another issue in coastal ecosystem services (Collos et al. 2009;
80 Yamamoto and Hanazato 2015). Oligotrophication has reduced pelagic productivity in coastal ecosystems,
81 sometimes resulting in the decline of the fishery catch and the harvest of seaweed and bivalve aquaculture
82 (Yamamoto and Hanazato 2015; Yanagi 2015). This is presumably because of the following reasons.
83 First, coastal fishermen have shifted their fishing techniques, gear and moreover target species as an

84 adaptation to the eutrophication of coastal waters over periods of multiple decades. For example in the
85 Seto Inland Sea, Japan, most of the recent fishery catch is dependent on pelagic production, while before
86 the 1960s, when eutrophication had not yet occurred, the most dominant fish catch was for other species
87 contingent on benthic production (Tsurita et al. 2017). Second, eutrophication generally increases pelagic
88 productivity and, due to the lower transparency by increasingly dense phytoplankton, a decrease in the
89 benthic productivity occurs. The eutrophication has caused fishermen to change from coastal fishing to
90 seaweed or bivalve aquaculture using the enriched nutrients and abundant phytoplankton, due to its stable
91 benefits of eutrophication (Tsurita et al. 2017). Therefore their recently targeted resources for exploitation
92 cannot be obtained without an environment affected by eutrophication. Third, oligotrophication decreases
93 the total amount of nutrients in coastal areas from a high to a low level, indicating the possibility that the
94 total coastal productivity including both pelagic and benthic biological production itself decreases with
95 oligotrophication. Therefore, the integrated coastal ecosystem management harmonizing coastal fishery
96 with water-quality improvement is now essential for a sustainable and wise use of coastal ecosystem
97 services.

98 Here, we have adopted the CEC concept as a key option of our integrated coastal management to create
99 a better balance between sustainable coastal fishery and continuous water-quality improvement under
100 oligotrophication, in order to ensure both future food security and climate change mitigation. The
101 adoption of the CEC concept would be expected to enhance coastal productivity by improving the
102 production efficiency even while undergoing oligotrophication. The Thau lagoon and the Seto Inland Sea,
103 located in southern France and western Japan, respectively, are our study sites and are well-known as
104 typical coastal areas undergoing oligotrophication (Collos et al. 2009 ; Yanagi 2015). It is suggested that
105 the DIN has been reduced to about 40% of that in the 1980's in the Seto Inland Sea, and that the soluble
106 reactive phosphorus concentration decreased from 10 micro M to 1 micro M in the summer period in the
107 Thau Lagoon. In both study sites, the aquaculture of Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas* is an economically
108 important fishery for the human community, and eelgrass, *Zostera marina*, whose recovery by

109 water-quality improvement is also now apparent. The combination of subtidal seagrass meadows with
110 intertidal oyster reefs is the original seascape which had been well-observed in Japan.

111 Our work is based on an interdisciplinary management approach including i) ecological actions to
112 clarify and ensure the relationship among nutrient loadings, ecosystem functioning which is the processes
113 of material and energy flows with the cycling of nutrients between organic and inorganic forms in the
114 ecosystem (Naeem et al. 1999), and ecosystem services. For example in seagrass beds, nutrient loading
115 sometimes changes the amount of epiphytic production on seagrass leaves which regulate the seagrass
116 growth, resulting in the change of the ecosystem functionings and also in the change of seagrass CO₂
117 sequestration as an ecosystem service, ii) socio-economical actions to estimate both the interface and the
118 pathways between ecosystem services and the recipient human community and also to maintain the
119 sustainable use of ecosystem services, and moreover iii) socio-psychological actions to estimate human
120 well-beings of each stakeholder of the community and also to clarify the key stakeholders responding to
121 the change in the target ecosystem. The ultimate objective of our approach is to identify various
122 ecological and socio-economical management tactics, such as ecological restoration of the coastal
123 environment and economical investment in the oyster aquaculture, and integrate them into an effective
124 management strategy to maximize well-beings of the various stakeholders. This is an essential key to
125 sustain coastal fisheries in areas where water-quality improvement leads to oligotrophication. In particular
126 to harmonize water-quality improvement with seagrass beds and sustainable oyster aquaculture, it is
127 important to demonstrate various effects of seagrass meadows on oyster aquaculture, at least whether the
128 trophic contribution by the increased seagrass bed to oyster aquaculture is significant or not, instead of
129 less amounts of pelagic phytoplankton under oligotrophication.

130 As a first step of this demonstration in the ecological action using CEC with the eelgrass-oyster
131 interaction, we started a field experiment to clarify the effects of CEC on the trophic aspect of cultured
132 oysters; how the nitrogen and carbon composition of oyster tissues can reflect the change in potential

133 food resources under oligotrophication. We analysed the carbon and nitrogen contents of oysters and also
134 the carbon and nitrogen stable isotope concentration to understand the potential contribution of the CEC
135 especially to nitrogen concentration as well as the source of carbons in oyster tissues. This is because the
136 N and C contents of bivalves is used to estimate the relationship between bivalve aquaculture and the
137 change in nutrient level, such as eutrophication or oligotrophication in the target ecosystem (Murphy et al.
138 2016). In this study, we present the preliminary results of the compared N/C ratio, nitrogen contents in
139 molluscos tissues and the carbon and nitrogen stable isotope concentration of oyster spats of three
140 species (*Crassostrea gigas*, *C. nippona* and *C. sikamea*) cultivated using oyster rafts floating on the
141 pelagic ecosystem with other oyster spats cultivated on the tidal flat adjacent to seagrass beds. In the
142 tidal flat, the spats can use several benthic productions as well as pelagic production. The suitable
143 environmental condition would be different among the three oyster species, we tried to identify if some
144 are more suitable for cultivation using CEC.

145

146 **Materials and Methods**

147 **Conceptual approach**

148

149 The Seto Inland Sea (coordinates at its centre : 34.1667 N, 133.3333 E) is located in the southwestern part
150 of the main island of the Japanese archipelago (Fig. 1a). More than 2000 islands are interspersed in the
151 Seto Inland Sea, so that the complex coast lines form a local seascape which offers calmer areas for oyster
152 raft-aquaculture as well as habitats for eelgrass vegetation by offering protection from heavy winds and
153 wave actions. Offshore oyster aquaculture using natural spats of the native Pacific oyster *Crassostrea*
154 *gigas* is flourishing in many areas of the Seto Inland Sea. The annual production in the Seto Inland Sea
155 accounts for more than 60% of the national production of Japan. Along with oligotrophication, seagrass
156 recovery in the Seto Inland Sea has become apparent in the recent decade because of legal restrictions on

157 nutrient input from the watersheds. It has been estimated that the area of seagrass meadows has increased
158 from 6,000 ha to about 10,000 ha in 2011 (Hori and Tarutani 2015).

159 The Thau lagoon (coordinates at its centre : 43.41 N, 3.6241 E) is the largest lagoon located on the
160 southern French coast in the Mediterranean Sea (Fig. 1b). The lagoon is famous for oyster farming using
161 non-native Pacific oyster spats attached on longlines by a specific cement to the spats. The longlines with
162 the spats are hung on oyster tables established in the nearshore zone. About 10% of the French national
163 production of oysters are cultivated there, the largest oyster farming area in the Mediterranean Sea. It
164 has been suggested that the recovery of seagrass beds is still proceeding, and that now the area of seagrass
165 distribution extends up to 1,000 ha (Hori, personal communication with Syndicat mixte du bassin de
166 Thau). The expansion of eelgrass meadows was observed even within oyster farming areas in June 2016.

167 As a first step to find harmony between sustainable oyster aquaculture and seagrass conservation under
168 oligotrophication in both the Thau lagoon and the Seto Inland Sea, we devised a management strategy
169 based on an interdisciplinary approach, which consists of ecological, socio-economical and
170 socio-psychological actions. First, the ecological actions aimed to improve or maintain the ecosystem
171 functioning and ecosystem services of a target ecosystem, which consists of two processes : investigations
172 to understand the ecological condition of the ecosystem functioning and the ecosystem services in the
173 target ecosystem, and then management for the sustainable supply of ecosystem services based on the
174 knowledge acquired by the investigation. The former investigation includes various ecological research, in
175 particular investigation of the relationship among nutrients, phytoplankton production, seagrass
176 production, oyster production, and the interactions between oyster aquaculture and eelgrass beds.

177 The socio-economical aspect is important to convey the change of an ecosystem state and ecosystem
178 services to the recipient human community. The socio-economical actions also consist of investigations
179 and management, which are firstly aimed to clarify the commodities and value chains to the human
180 community from oyster and recreational businesses, as well as the interface between ecosystem services

181 and socio-economical activities in the target ecosystem. Second, the actions aim to identify the effect of
182 the changes in ecosystem functioning and ecosystem services on the structure of these chains and to draft
183 adaptative tactics for the changes in the target ecosystem. The fundamental purpose of
184 socio-psychological actions was to identify the potential stakeholders and their well-beings in the
185 recipient community, and to influence their view on nature's values. Some of the ecosystem functioning
186 and services cannot be appreciated based purely on financial aspects, therefore we need to develop a
187 psychological method to directly identify well-being.

188

189 **First ecological assessment**

190

191 As an ecological action to estimate the possibility of oysters can use multiple resources derived from
192 the CEC, we established a field experiment in the Seto Inland Sea to clarify various interactions between
193 oysters and seagrass vegetation. The fundamental motive of this field experiment is also derived from the
194 social unrest in the local community of stakeholders. In both the Seto Inland Sea and the Thau Lagoon, it
195 has been a concern of local oyster fishermen and oyster farmers that the decrease of the primary
196 production of the pelagic ecosystem with oligotrophication may cause the decline of oyster production.
197 On the other hand, it is recently suggested that they want to know whether the increased seagrass
198 meadows have any positive and negative effects on oyster production and sustainability in the near future.

199 In this experiment, we especially analyzed the carbon and nitrogen concentration and the stable isotope
200 ratios of the oyster spats to demonstrate the effect of different food resources on their nutritional
201 condition. The N/C ratio and nitrogen contents of the oyster spats was analyzed to estimate the difference
202 in the change of the nutritional condition among oyster species. The relationship between carbon and
203 nitrogen stable isotope ratios was examined to know the difference in potential food resources among
204 each oyster species. This difference is derived from the variety of primary productions in both the pelagic

205 ecosystem by the raft culture and the benthic ecosystem by the ground culture in the tidal flat. This
206 experiment was conducted at the Oono-Seto channel (Fig. 1c : 34.2747N, 132.2688E), which is also
207 famous for Pacific oyster cultivation in the Seto Inland Sea, Japan. At the site, there is a natural tidal flat
208 adjacent to subtidal seagrass beds. We established an experimental area (5m x 5m) in the lower intertidal
209 area on the tidal flat, and three cages (50cm x 50cm x 10cm) of five mm wide mesh were randomly
210 attached on the experimental area (average exposed time of the cages were about 3.0 hour per day) using
211 PVC pipes with iron wire. In addition, we set a raft (5m x 5m) floating on the sea surface 200 m offshore
212 from the tidal flat, and hung a replicate of three cages at the depth of 2 m from the sea surface using
213 vinylon ropes.

214 60 oyster spats of each of three species (*C. gigas*, *C. nippona* and *C. sikamea*), which were hatched
215 from the same lot, were obtained from Shimane prefectural hatchery. 30 spats of each species were put
216 into the cages on the tidal flat, and the other half of spats of each species were put into the cages hanging
217 from the raft. The experiment was conducted for two months from November 2016 to January 2017 when
218 the recruitment of sessile organisms on cages would be lowest (average water temperature and salinity
219 around the raft during this period was 15.22°C and 3.03, respectively). This was to avoid massive
220 attachments of sessile organisms on the cages, which would make any artifact effects of cage cultivation
221 larger. We randomly chose five spats from each of the six cages at the beginning of the experiment as the
222 initial samples and at the end of the experiment as the samples after two months. After the experiment,
223 the carbon and nitrogen stable isotope analysis was conducted using these samples. In addition, we
224 measured the longest part of the shell length (mm) of all spats at both the beginning and the end of the
225 experiment, and molluscos part weight ratio which was molluscos part weight (gDW) divided by total
226 weight (molluscos and shell weight) of ten spats from each of the six cages at the end of the experiment.

227 Prior to the stable isotope analysis, specimens of muscle from each oyster spat were taken and dried at
228 60°C for 24 h and then pulverized. The oyster samples were immersed in a chloroform:methanol (2:1)

229 solution for 24 h to remove the lipids according to the literature (Post and Parkinson 2001 ; Arrington et
230 al. 2006). All of the samples were then dried at 60°C for 24 h. The dried samples were wrapped in a tin
231 capsule and their carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios were measured using a mass spectrometer
232 (ANCA-GSL; Europa Science Inc., UK). Carbon and nitrogen stable isotope ratios were expressed in δ
233 notation and defined as the per mill deviation from the standard as follows: $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰) and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰) =
234 $(R_{\text{sample}}/R_{\text{standard}} - 1) \times 1000$, where R is $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$ and $^{15}\text{N}/^{14}\text{N}$, respectively. The standard used for
235 the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) limestone carbonate and atmospheric
236 nitrogen for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$, respectively. The analytical precision was 0.2 ‰ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and 0.3 ‰ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

237

238

239 **Results**

240

241 Our interdisciplinary approach for coastal management under oligotrophic conditions was constructed
242 to be as simple as possible, which consisted of three sections and three actions associated with each
243 section (Fig. 2). As the next step, we have to devise a schematic of ongoing ecological research using an
244 approach clarifying several interactions between oyster farming and seagrass beds to, ultimately, identify
245 better integrated management of ecosystem services in Thau lagoon and the Seto Inland Sea. In particular
246 using structural equation modeling, we will try to identify 1) better management tactics by clarifying the
247 conflicts among ecosystem services, 2) which ecological action is the most important for the development
248 of the human community and environmental conservation, 3) which combination of ecological
249 management tactics and socio-economical management tactics is the most effective to maximize the
250 well-beings of the recipient community, and 4) which is the key pathway from ecosystem services to the

251 human well-beings via the value chain to improve or maintain both fisheries and the coastal environment
252 under oligotrophic conditions.

253 Based on this approach, we are now proceeding the research on clarifying the interactions between
254 oyster farming and eelgrass beds to estimate the possibility of oyster farming using seagrass beds as an
255 ecological action in our management (Fig. 3). We have three working hypotheses at the moment : the first
256 is that oyster farming using seagrass beds can maintain or improve coastal productivity including both
257 primary and secondary productions of the target ecosystem even in healthy environmental conditions
258 undergoing oligotrophication. The second hypothesis is that seagrass beds can improve the water quality
259 condition enabling more hygienic cultural practices so that oysters may no longer accumulate pathogens
260 inside them from the ambient seawater. The third hypothesis is that seagrass beds can support oyster
261 production and improve its quality and sustainability.

262 Our ongoing experiment of oyster spat cultivation on both the tidal flat and the floating raft exhibited
263 some results which can support the third hypothesis (Fig. 4a-i). There was significant difference in the
264 N/C ratio and nitrogen content of *C. sikamea* between the spats on the tidal flat and those from the
265 offshore raft after two month (Fig. 4c ; one-way ANOVA : $F=20.694$, $P=0.002$, and Fig. 4f ; one-way
266 ANOVA : $F=8.637$, $P=0.019$; the assumption of variance homogeneity was kept in each statistical test
267 for the difference in N/C ratio of (c) *C. sikamea* ($P=0.154$) and nitrogen content of (f) *C. sikamea*
268 ($P=0.540$)). The average of N/C ratio and nitrogen content of both *C. gigas* and *C. nippona* also showed a
269 tendency to be different between the spats on the tidal flat and those from the offshore raft (Fig. 4a and 4b

270 and Fig 4d and 4e, respectively), although the difference is not statistically significant yet. *C. sikamea*
271 may respond to the resources on the tidal flat earlier than other species.

272 On the other hand, there was a clear difference in the carbon stable isotope ratio between the spats on
273 the tidal flat and those from the offshore raft in all three species after two months (Fig. 4g-i). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of
274 the spats on the tidal flat was around -17.50 ‰ and was significantly higher than those from the offshore
275 raft, which was around -19.00 ‰ (Fig. 4g ; one-way ANOVA : $F=23.682$, $P=0.001$, Fig. 4h ; one-way
276 ANOVA : $F=98.165$, $P<0.0001$, Fig. 4i ; one-way ANOVA : $F=78.337$, $P<0.0001$; the assumption of
277 variance homogeneity was also kept in each statistical test for the difference in the carbon stable isotope
278 composition of (g) *C. gigas* ($P=0.551$), (h) *C. nippona* ($P=0.731$), and (i) *C. sikamea* ($P=0.793$)).

279 Although the result of the longest part of shell length of each species did not show significant
280 difference between the spats on the tidal flat and those from the offshore raft at the beginning of the
281 experiment, the difference in both *C. gigas* and *C. nippona* were significant at the end of the experiment
282 (Fig. 5a). The shell length of the spats on the tidal flat was significantly longer than those from the
283 offshore raft (One-way ANOVA ; *C. gigas*: $F=16.996$, $P=0.001$, *C. nippona*: $F=17.014$, $P=0.001$), while
284 the shell length of the *C. sikamea* spats did not significantly differ between the tidal flat and the offshore
285 raft. However, the molluscos weight ratio exhibited the opposite tendency of the shell growth (Fig. 5b) ;
286 the molluscos weight ratio of the spats on the tidal flat was higher than those from the offshore raft.
287 There was a significant difference in the molluscos weight ratio of the *C. nippona* and *C. sikamea* spats
288 between the tidal flat and the offshore raft (One-way ANOVA ; *C. nippona*: $F=6.669$, $P=0.0019$, *C.*
289 *sikamea*: $F=11.037$, $P=0.004$)

290

291 **Discussion**

292

293 Among our working hypotheses at the moment, the first hypothesis is derived from a well-known
294 function of seagrass beds called trophic support (Williams and Heck 2001). To our knowledge, however,
295 there is no case study directly demonstrating the effects of oyster-seagrass interactions on ecosystem
296 functioning of target ecosystems, although there are some modelling researches on the material cycling in
297 a coastal ecosystems including oyster and seagrass beds (Kishi and Oshima 2008). Further studies are
298 needed to demonstrate this hypothesis. The second hypothesis requires the study of the effects of the
299 change in environmental conditions by seagrass beds on the quality of oysters, which will potentially
300 enhance the value of oyster products. Actually in other regions, it was reported that there was a 50%
301 reduction in the relative abundance of potential bacterial pathogens capable of causing disease in humans
302 and marine organisms when seagrass beds are present (Lamb et al. 2017).

303 The third hypothesis requires the study of the trophic effects of the change in the potential food
304 resources induced by seagrass beds on oyster production, as a dominant ecosystem service in our study
305 sites. The results of our ongoing experiment suggest that the spats on the tidal flat contained a higher
306 nitrogen concentration in their muscle than those from the offshore raft even in this period when benthic
307 production is lower than pelagic production in this region (Uye and Shimazu 1997 ; Sarker et al. 2009),
308 and moreover that the $\delta^{13}C$ of the spats on the tidal flat was significantly higher than those from the
309 offshore raft. This was presumably because the oyster spats from the offshore rafts used only pelagic

310 production (pelagic POM: -22.00 ± 0.14 ‰, Hamaoka, unpubl. data, 2017 ; the POM was collected by
311 filtration of surface seawater in this study site) while the oyster spats on the tidal flat can use both
312 pelagic and benthic production (Benthic POM on tidal flat : -17.00 ± 0.57 ‰, seagrass :
313 -10.50 ± 0.71 ‰, Hamaoka unpubl. Data, 2017 ; the POM was collected from the surface of rocks on the
314 tidal flat and also collected on the seagrass leaves). These results suggest that utilization of benthic
315 production can increase the nitrogen content of cultivated oysters, meaning a change in the quality as a
316 food provisioning service for human beings.

317 In addition, research on the stable isotope analysis for cultivated oysters in the Thau lagoon also
318 exhibited a result that can support the third hypothesis (Fig. 6). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ of cultivated oysters seasonally
319 varied with their food resources, which would depend on organic carbon derived from benthic organic
320 carbon through pelagic organic carbon (Pernet et al. 2012). These trophic interactions demonstrated in
321 both our ongoing experiment and Thau lagoon are not only a phenomenon in the eelgrass and Pacific
322 oyster interaction, but are also reported as the interactions between seagrasses and filter-feeding bivalves
323 in various seagrass meadows from temperate to tropical regions of the world (Morimoto et al. 2017).
324 There are many reports of the contribution of eelgrass beds consisting of *Zostera* species and the
325 associated epiphytes as a potential food resource for various bivalves species (e.g., in Russia: Kharlamenko
326 et al. 2001, Germany: Jaschinski et al. 2008, Portugal : Rossi and Marques 2015), and France : Lebreton
327 et al. 2011). These studies suggest a general occurrence of the trophic interactions between filter-feeding
328 bivalves and seagrasses.

329 In the original habitat of the Pacific oyster in Japan, the interaction between native eelgrass and native
330 Pacific oyster would be common and an important component of the ecosystem functioning in coastal
331 ecosystems, because Pacific oyster reefs had often been found adjacent to seagrass beds. Unfortunately,
332 the natural mixed-landscape of oyster reefs with seagrass beds has been lost due to coastal development
333 by reclamation and construction of embankments in many regions of Japan. In some regions, however,
334 aquaculture areas have been established within or adjacent to seagrass beds (Kasim and Mukai 2006 ;
335 Tanaka 2014). The oysters have been grown using the original oyster-seagrass interactions including
336 facilitation of spat recruitment and spat survival rate, and especially trophic support from eelgrass beds to
337 oysters over an extended period of time [32]. This is typically reflected in indigenous and local
338 knowledge (ILK) of Japanese oyster aquaculture.

339 One of our interests in this research is also whether these oyster-eelgrass interactions in the original
340 habitats of Japan has appeared in the Thau lagoon ecosystem with native eelgrass beds and non-native
341 Pacific oysters, and whether the oyster-eelgrass interactions can also facilitate ecosystem functioning
342 outside of its native range. Pernet et al. (2012) revealed by the analysis of both carbon isotope ratio and
343 fatty acid signatures that the food resources of Pacific oysters seasonally varied among phytoplankton,
344 diatoms, bacteria and terrestrial organic matter in the Thau lagoon. This result suggests that oysters in the
345 Thau lagoon have a potential to consume various kinds of food resources derived from different origins,
346 indicating that Pacific oysters imported from Japan can grow even in the oligotrophic environment
347 effectively utilizing multiple habitats in the French coastal zone. In the future, we need to proceed with
348 field experiments to demonstrate the significance of ILK, such as experiments whether eelgrass beds can

349 increase the survival rate of spats recruitment, the nutritional condition of the spats, and the resistance to
350 pathogen and toxification.

351 In oligotrophic environmental conditions, our first ecological action aims to increase coastal
352 productivity not by increasing the nutrient level, but by facilitating various benthic productions including
353 seagrass beds. Interactive resource subsidies between eelgrass and oysters can supply epiphytes and
354 detritus as food resources for oysters, and nutrients and POM as resources for eelgrass and the
355 eelgrass-associated organisms. Seagrass-oyster interactions would become a key factor to improve
356 bio-resource cycling and thus the ecosystem functioning efficiently in the study area. If the above three
357 hypotheses are successfully verified, the recipient human community in the socio-economical section of
358 our approach can gain valuable products and a better environment (Fig. 3). The change in the ecosystem
359 services and the recipient community by the ripple effect of ecological action would cause the change in
360 well-beings of the stakeholders in the target ecosystem.

361 For example, oyster-eelgrass interactions would keep high water-transparency and better sanitary
362 conditions, which is also beneficial for recreational use. Larger distribution of eelgrass beds can absorb
363 more carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and store them as organic carbon, which can offset the carbon
364 emissions from oyster aquaculture and recreational activities. This kind of local offset system of carbon
365 dioxide emission can contribute to the promotion of the Paris Agreement adopted at UNFCCC-COP21. Our
366 study has just been initiated, so we have to make steady progress associated with the CEC concept to
367 identify wise-use and better management for oligotrophic coastal ecosystems through these ecological,
368 socio-economical and socio-psychological actions in the future.

369

370

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468 **Figure Caption**

469 **Fig. 1** Study sites of this research, (a) the Seto Inland Sea in Japan, (b) Thau lagoon in France, and
470 (c) the location where the experiment was conducted in Seto Inland Sea (dark shaded area : tidal
471 flat, black colored area : eelgrass beds, open square : oyster raft, and open circle : the site
472 where the cages were set)

473

474 **Fig. 2** Schematic explanation of the approach adopted in this study.

475

476 **Fig. 3** The possible pathway that the oyster-seagrass interaction as an ecological action positively
477 influence the recipient community via the change in the ecosystem functioning and ecosystem
478 services.

479

480 **Fig. 4** The comparisons of N/C weight ratio, nitrogen content, and carbon and nitrogen stable isotope
481 composition between raft (open circles) and tidal flat (closed circles) cultured three oyster
482 species (*C. gigas*, *C. nippona* and *C. sikamea*). Open squares indicate initial conditions.
483 Significant *p*-values are represented by asterisks: **p*<0.05; ***p*<0.01; ****p*<0.001.

484

485 **Fig. 5** The difference in (a) the longest part of shell length and (b) molluscos part ratio of each oyster
486 species between the spats cultivated on the tidal flat and those from the offshore raft. Significant
487 *p*-values are represented by asterisks: **p*<0.05; ***p*<0.01; ****p*<0.001.

488

489 **Fig. 6** The relationship of carbon stable isotope composition among Pacific oyster, river-derived POM,
490 marine-derived POM, biofilm, benthic POM and seagrass in Thau Lagoon. The numerical values
491 exhibited as shaded circles and a solid arrow were from the data in Pernet et al. (2012) and as
492 open circles were our unpublished data, respectively. The solid arrow shows the range of the
493 annual change in the carbon stable isotope value of pacific oyster. Benthic POM were collected
494 on seagrass leaves and small rocks in seagrass beds.

495

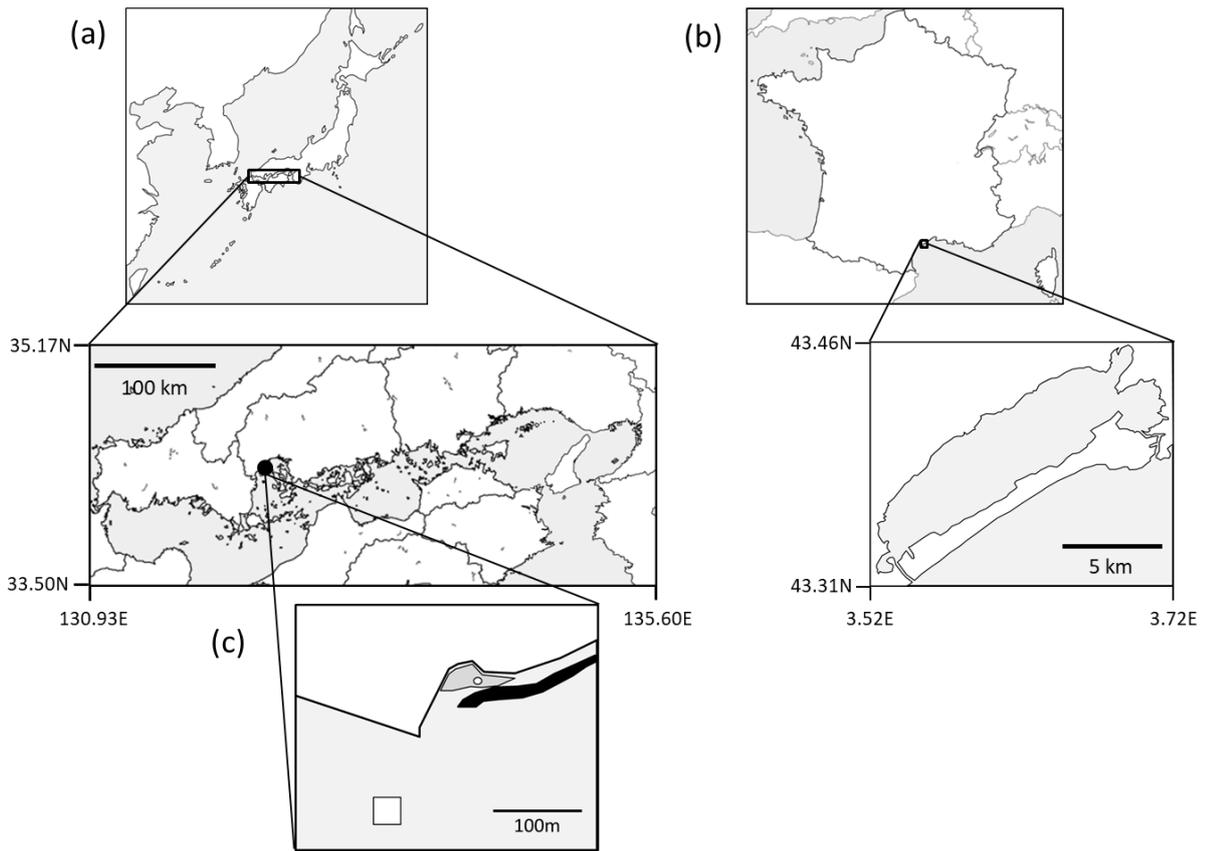


Fig. 1

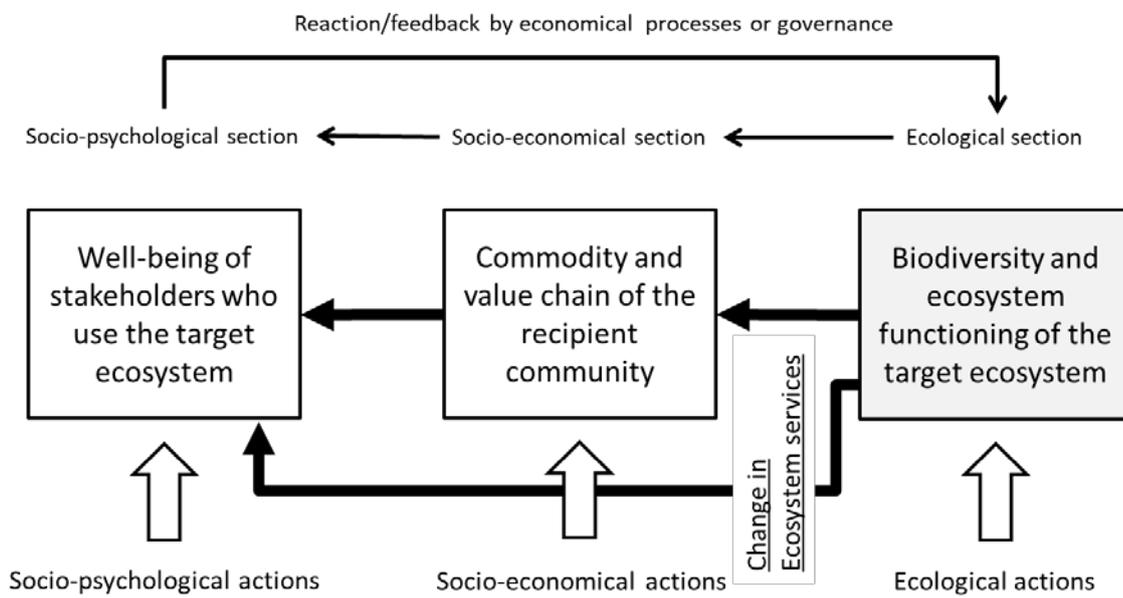


Fig. 2

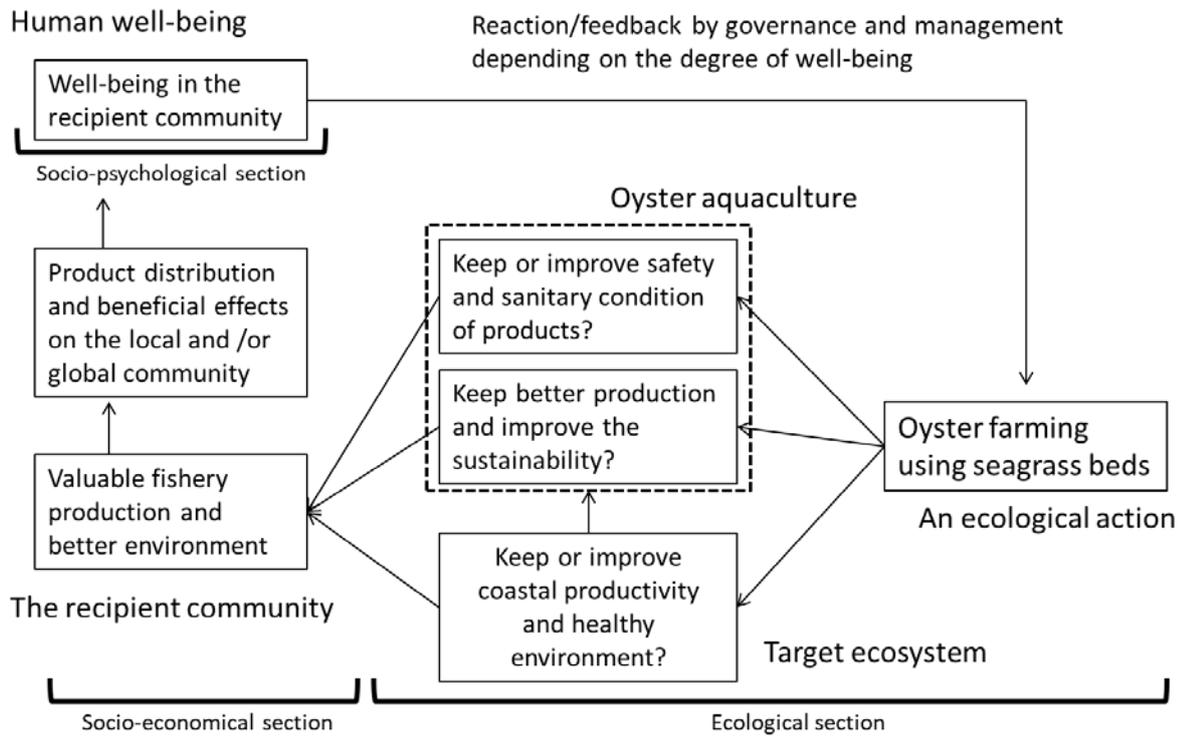


Fig. 3

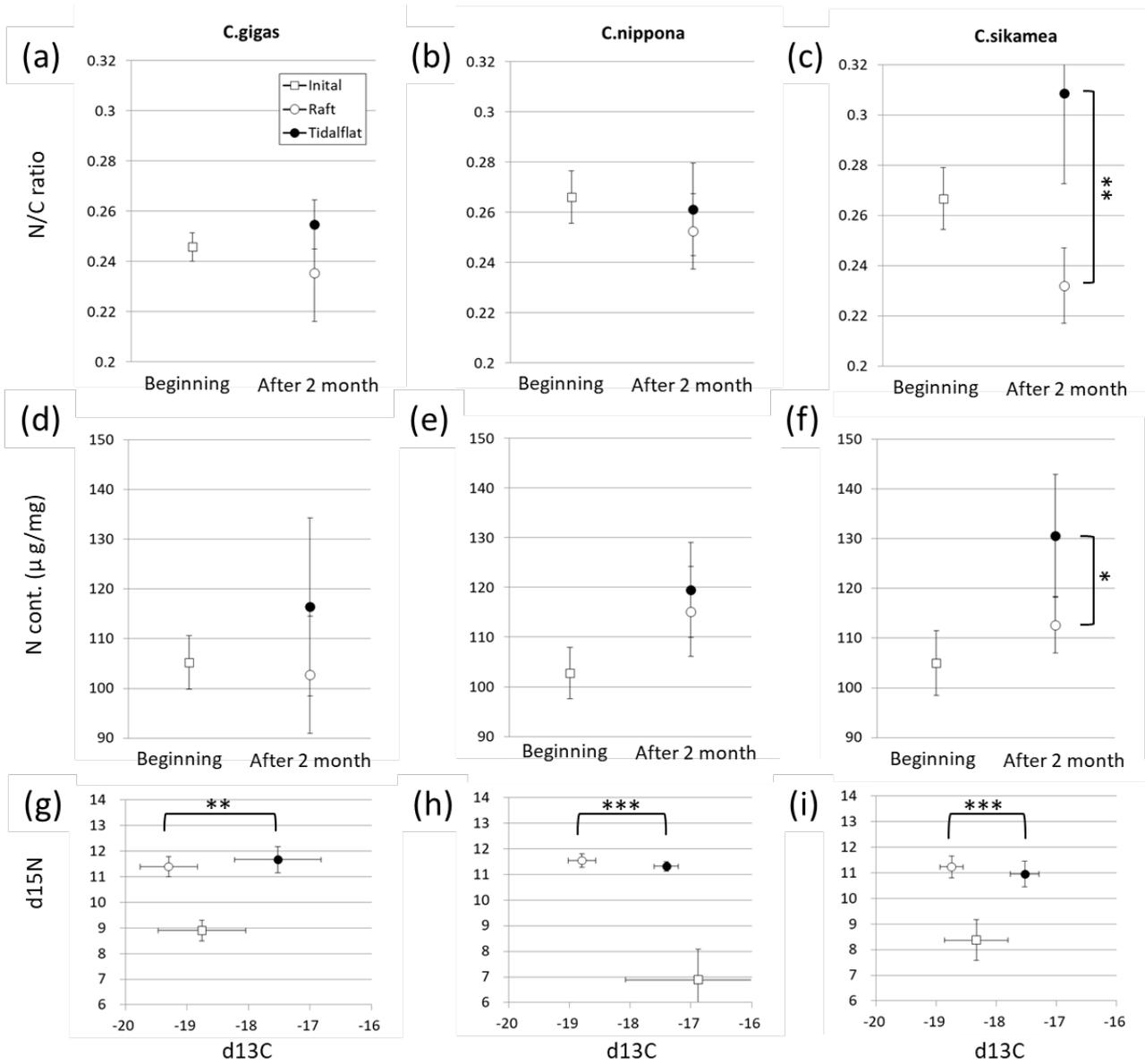
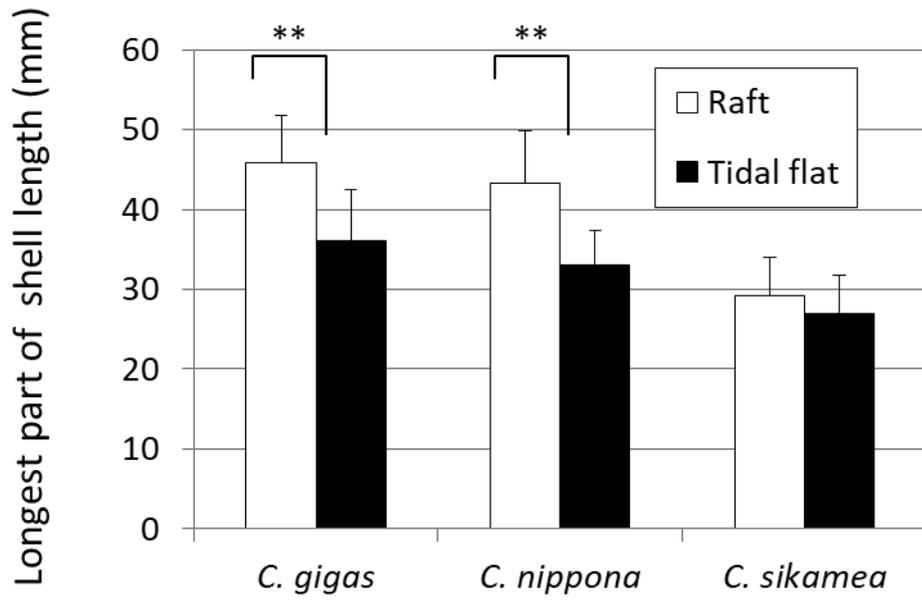


Fig.4

(a)



(b)

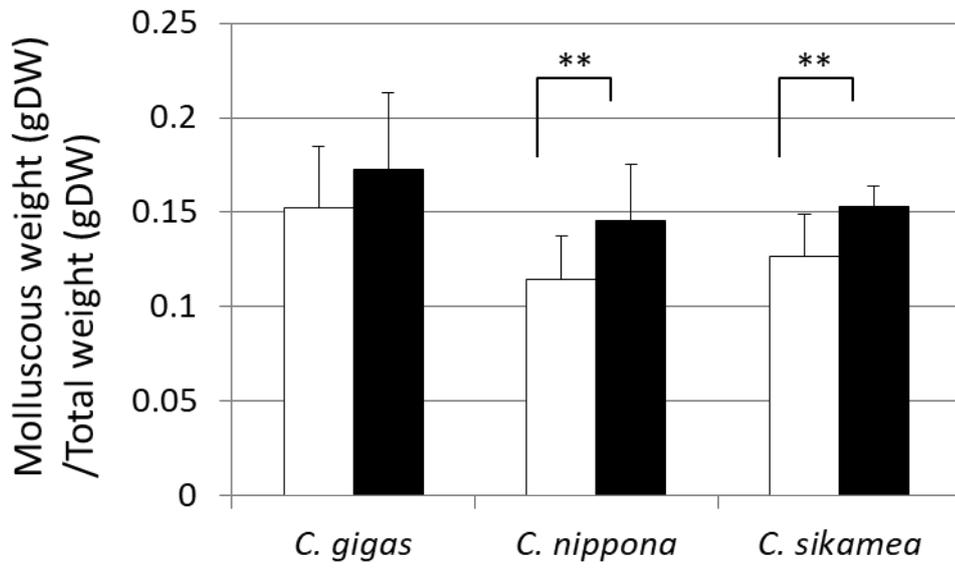
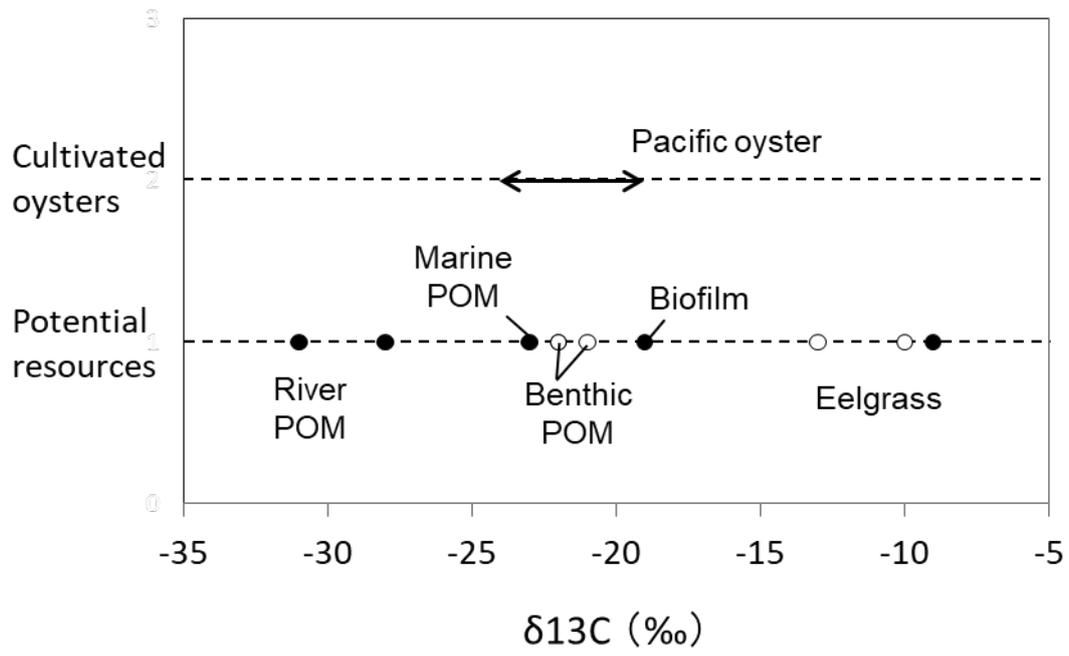


Fig. 5



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