

GLOBAL CONFERENCE ON AQUACULTURE 2021

Innovation in aquaculture

Draft 2 C – May 22, 2021

Contributors:

Neil Anthony Sims, Alejandro Buschmann, Diana Chan, Maymyat Noelwin, Sandra E. Shumway, Åsa Strand, Albert Tacon, Maria Teresa Viana, Alexandre Wagner Silva Hilsdorf

Additional input from: Ximing Guo, Alessandro Lovatelli

Abstract

This review examines the current status, issues and challenges in aquaculture innovation, and explores likely areas of future innovation. It seeks to identify the engines and incentives that are behind the major areas of aquaculture innovation. The broad categories and sectors where innovation is occurring are described, as are the risks, benefits, and broader impacts – some of which are potentially less desirable. The review also explores policies that individual country governments and regional organizations can adopt to encourage innovations with preferable socio-economic outcomes.

High-profile aquaculture innovations include: large-scale, intensive, land-based RAS systems; highly-automated offshore net pen systems; increasing use of robotics and remote command-and-control; and novel financing tools for larger companies and small start-ups. However, more broadly impactful innovations are often less obvious: improved selective breeding; refinements in feed formulations; expanded use of vaccines; and better extension, outreach, and training for farmers.

Tensions can arise around aquaculture innovations that offer differing costs and benefits to different sectors. For example, offshore operations and intensive onshore RAS systems, in particular, benefit from increasing automation and economies of scale. Greater scale and automation result in expanded production and more efficient yields. This can then move the industry closer to meeting global production goals, increase the availability of healthful aquaculture products to consumers, and lower the production costs and, therefore, possibly, market price. This can then provide broad societal benefits through improved nutrition. However, larger-scale, capital-intensive systems also displace small- or medium-scale producers, and increasing automation reduces the need for less-skilled labor.

By contrast, benefits from applying genetic technologies and bioinformatics tools are more broadly available, with fewer negative impacts. Some genetic technologies have been resisted, or more slowly adopted but could offer significant benefits to industry, genetic diversity, and ecosystem health. CRISPR gene-editing technologies, for example, could produce 100% guaranteed sterile stocks, preventing the interbreeding of farm stock with wild populations. Those countries or certification schemes which apply overly restrictive regulation of gene-editing could also put their producers at a disadvantage. Governments need to be conscious of such dynamics when establishing aquaculture policies.

45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76

The review describes a range of government or agency policies that might encourage or constrain aquaculture innovation, such as:

- assertively focusing greater support for aquaculture expansion, to reduce the overall impact of food production systems on the global climate crisis, freshwater use, and land use, with concomitantly less support for more-impactful terrestrial animal proteins;
- expanding the use in aquaculture feeds of agricultural proteins and oils, including both crops and animal by-products, as well as optimizing the use of seafood processing by-products;
- encouraging innovative financial models, particularly for new start-up companies, and offering pre-permitting of areas for aquaculture use;
- balancing the dominance of larger-scale operations by supporting greater co-operative efforts for smaller-scale operators, such as application of the ‘nucleus estate’ model;
- replicating the broad benefits of collaborative selective breeding programs, such as the GIFT program (Genetically Improved Farmed Tilapia), in other aquaculture species;
- establishing collaborative programs to preserve genetic resources in wild populations, such as for the slower-growing but more salt-tolerant tilapia species in Mozambique (*Oreochromis mossambicus*);
- fostering private sector, pre-competitive collaborations (such as the Global Salmon Initiative) to better address aquaculture’s challenges.

Governments should be careful not to inhibit the application of new technologies to protect those producers more dependent on the status quo. Policymakers should remember that seafood is one of the most-traded global commodities. Therefore, direct government involvement in market manipulation or direct investment is unlikely to establish an innovative, beneficial or profitable industry.

----- ///

Key Messages

Government or agency policies might encourage or constrain aquaculture innovation, by:

- assertively focusing greater support for aquaculture expansion, to reduce the overall impact of food production systems on the global climate crisis, fresh water use and land use, with concomitantly less support for more-impactful terrestrial animal proteins;
- expanding the use in aquaculture feeds of agricultural proteins and oils, including both crops and animal by-products, as well as optimizing the use of seafood processing by-products;
- encouraging innovative financial models, particularly for new start-up companies, and offering pre-permitting of areas for aquaculture use;
- balancing the dominance of larger-scale operations by supporting greater co-operative efforts for smaller-scale operators, such as application of the ‘nucleus estate’ model;
- replicating the broad benefits of collaborative selective breeding programs, such as the GIFT program (Genetically Improved Farmed Tilapia), in other aquaculture species;
- establishing collaborative programs to preserve genetic resources in wild populations, such as for the slower-growing, but more salt-tolerant tilapia species in Mozambique (*Oreochromis mossambicus*);
- fostering private sector, pre-competitive collaborations (such as the Global Salmon Initiative, GSI) to better address aquaculture’s challenges.

Governments should be careful not to inhibit the application of new technologies in an effort to protect those producers more dependent on the status quo. Policymakers should remember that seafood is one of the most-traded global commodities. Direct government involvement in market manipulation or direct investment is therefore unlikely to establish an innovative, beneficial or profitable industry.

----- /// -----

78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100
101
102
103
104
105
106
107
108
109
110
111
112
113
114
115
116
117
118
119
120
121
122

1. Introduction: Innovation as a theme

Any discussion of innovations in global aquaculture industry needs to be rooted in the overarching context that the vast majority of production - 91.7% of total global aquaculture (FAO, 2020 a) - is produced in the Asian region, primarily by small-scale farmers. This review of the theme of global aquaculture innovation seeks to address *all* innovations: those that are being applied on a large-scale, through capital-intensive production in enclosed land-based systems or massive offshore operations, through small- to medium-scale enterprises for freshwater operations, and on the artisanal and subsistence scales.

Innovation can drive increasingly rapid expansion of aquaculture to meet the burgeoning demand for nutritious animal protein and to ensure the continued sustainable development and profitability of the aquaculture sector (on the basis of the three pillars of sustainable development, namely environmental, economic, and social sustainability (Godfray, et al., 2010; Nature, 2010)).

This review examines the current status, issues and challenges, and future developments in aquaculture innovation. Some of the innovations covered include: application of precision or smart technologies, geographic information systems (GIS), sensors, robotics, and bioinformatics. It explores ways that aquaculture is benefiting from smarter technology in data rich environments, and highlights those trends or technologies that will be the primary drivers of future growth in the industry (Bizri, 2018). Big data and artificial intelligence (AI) are not specifically addressed, as, while there is much enthusiasm around their early adoption, there is not yet any realistic, significant utility in aquaculture.

The review seeks to identify the engines and incentives that are behind the major areas of aquaculture innovation. The broad categories and sectors where innovation is occurring are described, as are the risks, benefits, and broader impacts – some of which are potentially less desirable. The review also explores policies that individual country governments and regional organizations can adopt to encourage innovations with preferable socio-economic outcomes.

It is first imperative to re-emphasize the critical need for expanded growth in aquaculture. This is no longer just an issue of food security. More importantly, aquaculture needs to increase the global availability of seafood, to begin to help address the global climate crisis. For this to happen, seafood consumption per capita must be increased in a sustainable manner to alleviate pressures on land and freshwater resources from terrestrial livestock (Hall, et al., 2011; Bohnes and Laurent, 2021). According to the UN High Level Panel on the Oceans and Climate Change (Hoegh-Guldberg, et al., 2019), it is imperative that humanity begin to transition from more terrestrially-sourced foods to more marine-sourced foods.

There is therefore not one single goal for aquaculture innovation. Innovation in the industry, as viewed in this review, should have the goals of:

1. Nourishing humanity. Aquaculture needs to increase food security at the national levels, and improve consumer nutrition, on the individual level;

- 123 2. Providing gainful employment by expanding opportunities, particularly for minorities who may
124 have been underrepresented in the industry;
125
- 126 3. Reducing the impacts of humanity on finite global resources, and the environmental impacts of
127 aquaculture operations;
128
- 129 4. Improving the workplace safety of aquaculture employees;
130
- 131 5. Expanding production to enable mitigation of the global climate crisis, and building resiliency so
132 that the industry can better withstand the impending changes from the global climate crisis.
133

134
135 Private sector innovations have the primary goal of higher profits, which can be achieved by increased
136 production efficiency, and /or reducing costs and/or increasing the price. At the same time, however,
137 increased awareness of aquaculture impacts – particularly among consumers - and increasing
138 transparency and accountability of the industry, have also elevated broader environmental, social, and
139 governance goals amongst corporate producers. This is driven by either desire for specific market access
140 (through a range of novel certification schemes and standards, connected with buyers and retailers), or
141 the desires of companies for access to sites, by earning greater social license (both of which are
142 ultimately linked to the market share and profitability of the company).
143

144 Private sector innovation can be useful as a tool to achieve the above goals, but may also establish
145 incentives that run counter to them. For example, increased automation may enable greater scale of
146 operations, and more operational efficiency, and might also increase workplace safety (e.g. net-cleaning
147 robots for net pen operations removes the need for SCUBA-diving for cleaning). At the same time,
148 however, such developments could reduce the overall number of employees on a farm, and ultimately
149 reduce the employment in the industry, and increase the reliance of operations on technology and
150 infrastructure (e.g. access the electrical grid and the cloud). This review seeks to highlight such tensions,
151 but it is beyond the scope to provide remedies, or recommendations. That must ultimately be the
152 responsibility of the policy-makers for whom this review is intended.
153

154
155
156

157 **2. The Current Status of Aquaculture Innovation**

158
159 The status of aquaculture innovation has been thoroughly reviewed elsewhere (FAO, 2019; COFI, 2019).
160 The most dramatic innovations in aquaculture – to the casual observer - include large-scale, intensive,
161 land-based RAS systems, highly-automated offshore net pen systems designed along the principles and
162 scale of offshore oil rigs, increasing robotics and remote command-and-control, and novel financing
163 tools for larger companies or small start-ups. The most impactful innovations in the industry are,
164 however, often of a far lower profile: improved selective breeding for better growth, feed conversion
165 efficiency, and environmental stressor and disease tolerance (resistance), refinements in feed
166 formulations to reduce the reliance on forage-fish resources for fishmeal and fish oil in aquaculture
167 diets, expanded use of vaccines to improve animal health, and better extension, outreach and training
168 for farmers.

169
170 The last decade has seen spectacular advances in all these areas. For example, the average fishmeal and
171 fish oil content of Norwegian salmon feeds have fallen over a 30-year period from a high of 65% and
172 24% in 1990, to a low of 13% and 11% in 2019, respectively (Naylor, et al., 2021). The increase in
173 production for the main fed finfish and crustacean aquaculture species has been dramatic over the past
174 several decades, with global production increasing at an average annual rate of 14.2% per year for
175 catfish (5.78 million tonnes in 2018), 9.6% per year for marine shrimp (6.0 million tonnes in 2018), 9.4%
176 per year for Tilapia (6.03 million tonnes in 2018), 6.4% per year for marine fish species (3.0 million
177 tonnes in 2018), 5.4% per year for salmon (2.64 million tonnes in 2018), and Chinese fed carp species
178 (14.14 million tonnes in 2018 (FAO, 2020a).

179
180 **2.1 Genetics and breeding**

181
182 The rapid expansion of tilapia farming through the GIFT program (Genetically Improved Farmed Tilapia),
183 and other selective breeding work (the Chitralada Bouaké strains) is exemplary. The GIFT program was
184 established by WorldFish Center in 1988, in cooperation with the Rockefeller Foundation and in
185 collaboration with national partner institutions in the Philippines and China (Ponzoni et al., 2010). GIFT
186 strains of Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) were developed to be fast growing, and adaptable to a
187 wide range of environments, and are now the primary strain for commercial culture of the species
188 worldwide. Nile tilapia ranks third among the major species produced in world aquaculture (FAO, 2020
189 b).

190
191 Similarly, selective breeding and hybridization have produced disease-resistant and fast-growing strains
192 of bivalves, and varieties with unique shell colours (Guo, 2021). In China and elsewhere, over 30
193 molluscan species have been subjected to some genetic improvement. Sterile triploid oysters (i.e. with
194 three sets of chromosomes, instead of the normal two) grow faster and maintain meat quality during
195 their spawning season. These are often produced by crossing tetraploid oysters with diploids for more
196 consistent triploidy production (i. e. $4N \times 2N = 100\% 3N$).

197
198 Genomic selection (i.e. the use of genetic markers to drive breeding programs) is particularly effective,
199 eliminating the need for expensive phenotyping programs (i.e. there is no need for grow-out of
200 individuals to prove their improved fitness). Genomes have been sequenced for many cultured species,
201 and high-throughput genotyping platforms, such as single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) chips, are
202 now more widely used. This further ‘democratizes’ the application of genetic tools in aquaculture.
203 There is much more that still needs to be accomplished, however. Gjedrem et al. (2012) estimated that
204 less than 5% of world aquaculture production was derived from seeds produced in family-based
205 breeding programs. This demonstrates that although the technology exists, it is not yet being applied
206 fully or at scale.

207
208
209
210
211
212
213

214 Some genetic innovations, however, have not been widely adopted. For example, supermale technology
215 for tilapia (producing all male YY fish) can now be accomplished without any hormonal treatment,
216 allowing 100% male stocks, resulting in faster growth rates and better feed conversion efficiencies
217 (Kaneko et al., 2015; Li et al., 2015). The industry, however, still relies almost universally upon methyl-
218 testosterone (MTT) treatments, despite the apparent benefits of supermales, and significant reduction
219 in risks to hatchery workers from potential MTT exposure. By the time of harvest (usually around 9 – 12
220 months), all traces of MTT are gone, and so consumer interest groups and public health officials are
221 more accepting of the status quo.

222

223 **2.2 Operational innovations**

224

225 The aquaculture industry, as a whole, has made phenomenal advancements over the last decade in
226 reducing the reliance on wild-caught forage fish fisheries, to provide the fishmeal and fish oil
227 ingredients. For example, the decreased dependency of the aquafeed manufacturing sector upon
228 fishmeal and fish oil has been due to the increased use of terrestrial vegetable and animal protein and
229 lipid sources, and dietary supplementation with limiting essential amino acids, fatty acids, and trace
230 minerals (Naylor, et al., 2021; MOWI, 2020). Better feed formulations have also increased overall feed
231 efficiencies and resulted in improved animal health, survival, and growth rates, through inclusion of
232 probiotics and prebiotics (Romano, 2020). Similarly, selective breeding has improved feed efficiencies, in
233 some cases for specific feedstuffs, e.g. Overturf, et al., (2013), who demonstrated selective breeding of
234 rainbow trout for increased tolerance of soy products in the diet).

235

236 Aquatic animal health management has improved dramatically, with innovations in early warning,
237 diagnostics, treatment and prevention, through use of vaccines, monitoring of environmental DNA,
238 prebiotics and probiotics, and other non-antibiotic treatments. Biological controls are now increasingly
239 common, such as sea-lice treatment in Norwegian salmon net pens using lump fish (*Cyclopterus lumpus*)
240 and other wrasse species.

241

242 The expansion of computing power and portability and greater accessibility and affordability of cloud-
243 based data systems has allowed more on-farm application of these technologies. On-farm data
244 collection and management systems are now widely used in larger commercial operations, including
245 sophisticated tools for biomass assessment and monitoring of animal behaviors, feed management
246 (rapid data collection and analysis to improve feed efficiencies), water management and pollution
247 control, monitoring fish health and/or fish escapes and biosecurity.

248

249 Remote sensing tools and integrated GIS systems are now also widely used for more efficient site
250 selection, to map and analyze oceanographic conditions (e.g. currents, waves, temperature),
251 bathymetry, multiple users of the area (e.g. shipping, recreation), and other factors to support evidence-
252 based decision making for site selection (e.g. NOAA AquaMapper; <http://www.shellsim.com/> and
253 ShellGIS; Silva, et al, 2011). The increasing use of real-time remote sensing and improved sensor
254 development has opened opportunities for predictive (instead of reactive) evaluation of threats such as
255 oceanographic phenomena (anoxic upwelling) and harmful algal blooms. Carrying capacity models are
256 also of increasing utility, particularly for bivalves, when relatively simple inputs such as flushing rates,
257 chlorophyll measurements, stocking density, and oceanographic conditions are paired with GIS and
258 remote sensing tools.

259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284
285
286
287
288
289
290
291
292
293
294
295
296
297
298
299
300

2.3 Aquaculture financing

Innovative aquaculture is a high-risk endeavor, and has frequently faced challenges in obtaining financing through traditional avenues (e.g. bank loans, project financing collateralized through offtakes or stock insurance policies, and strategic partnerships between producers and retailers). More recently, however, new financing tools, strategies, and programs have evolved for supporting innovative aquaculture. The last decade has seen a number of innovative mechanisms for start-up aquaculture companies to obtain financing or other support to increase their likelihood of success. This represents innovation in support of innovation: new financing tools to foster new technologies and species development.

The major mechanisms supporting innovative aquaculture research are public sector financing. Traditional public sector financing is directed through universities and research institutions, but these have generally proven less adept at bringing innovations into the marketplace. More astute use of public financing for innovative research now focuses specifically on fomenting developments in the private sector, and particularly small business start-ups. Brazil, for example, operates an Innovative Research in Small Business (PIPE) program that supports many aquaculture start-up projects that have since become successful companies¹. In the United States, 2% of all Federal research dollars are, by law, directed through the Small Business Innovative Research program. In Australia, a significant portion of government funding for aquaculture R&D is directed through Co-operative Research Centers, which are collaborations between public universities and research institutions and private sector partners which require financial contributions from each of the participants.

Increasingly, governments are also directing public financing through autonomous or semi-autonomous investment funds, or public-private partnership funds. One advantage of this dual approach is that private sector investing partners then have greater confidence in government support for the industry. This greater certainty around government policies then increases the amount of private financing, and reduces the risk profile for investment, thereby amplifying the benefits of the public financing.

There has recently been a notable increase in the number of aquaculture-focused investment funds, or impact investors with seafood or aquaculture focus. This has largely been catalyzed by two developments: broader recognition among environmental NGO, academia, and science communities of the potential environmental benefits of expansion of aquaculture, and a greater recognition in the financing community of the potential profits that can be generated from aquaculture.

A number of small-business incubators and accelerators have recognized the opportunities and have begun supporting aquaculture start-ups. Some accelerators, such as Hatch, are specifically focused on aquaculture. Others, such as Pearse Lyons Cultivator (<https://www.pearselyonscultivator.com/>) are more broadly focused on agriculture, but recognize the greater growth potential in aquaculture.

¹ <https://fapesp.br/en> or https://fapesp.br/pipe/pappe_pipe/4/

301 Fish 2.0 – a seafood business and investment platform and competition – initially excluded applicants
302 from net pen operations. It is supported by government agencies, individuals, and foundations. Fish 2.0
303 has expanded from originally California to include participation by entrepreneurs from Latin America,
304 Europe, the Pacific Islands, and South-East Asia. The program offers online support for entrepreneurs
305 and an avenue for investors seeking access to new opportunities.

306 Hatch is a private investment fund that has developed the first global aquaculture and alternative
307 seafood accelerator program. Hatch provides seed capital to selected startups, and offers access to
308 global subject matter experts and other mentors from the industry over an intensive coaching program
309 in Norway, Singapore, and Hawaii.

310 Other Accelerators such as Trendlines and Yield Lab have taken strong interest in aquaculture,
311 particularly in countries which offer additional financial support by the government for local enterprises.
312

313 Impact investing has also found traction in aquaculture, given the greater scalability and lower overall
314 global impact from farmed seafood (c.f. wild-caught, or terrestrial livestock production). Several funds
315 are now operating in the seafood space, or are exclusively focused on aquaculture (Aquacopia, Pontus
316 Aquaculture, Aqua-Spark, Varuna Fund). Other funds are more broadly divested, but have keen interest
317 in the space (e.g. Google Ventures, Tyson Ventures, Rabo Ventures, Kawasaki Ventures, Chevron
318 Ventures, BP Ventures).
319

320 Financing of aquaculture projects by foundations, environmental NGO and angels (individual investors)
321 has also become more widespread. The Nature Conservancy and Conservation International have both
322 established funds for investment in innovative aquaculture projects, particularly focused on restorative
323 aquaculture (i.e., environmentally beneficial forms of aquaculture, such as seaweed and bivalve
324 farming). The WWF has also set up a fund to support seaweed research and development, with
325 additional capital reserves for deployment into companies and concepts that offer the possibilities of
326 broadly beneficial industry growth.
327

328 Some governments have used regulatory incentives to encourage increased production. The Singapore
329 Food Agency (SFA), for example, has established six agrotechnology parks to increase mainly local agri-
330 food production. The SFA dispenses with licensing fees if farms in their system meet a production goal,
331 defined as a minimum tonnage per hectare per year. The Natural Energy Laboratory of Hawaii Authority
332 offers test-bed facilities for aquaculture start-ups, complete with pre-permitting, land preparation, and
333 infrastructure (electricity and reticulation for fresh water, surface seawater and deep seawater).
334 Originally designed for ocean energy research, NELHA now hosts over 20 aquaculture companies in
335 various stages from early start-up to publicly traded corporations. The NELHA required significant capital
336 investment from government, but it now operates at approximately break-even (covering administrative
337 and maintenance costs for shared infrastructure), with additional benefits to government from
338 corporate excise taxes and income taxes on employees.
339

340
341
342

343 A number of environmental NGO have now begun to be actively involved in innovative aquaculture,
344 through farmer training and extension work, field science, and policy engagement (e.g. O’Shea, et al.,
345 2019). The WWF, The Nature Conservancy, and Conservation International are all now involved in
346 innovative small-scale macroalgae and bivalve culture in Belize, China, Faroe Islands, Indonesia, Palau,
347 New Zealand, Tanzania, and the U.S.A. (Waters, et al., 2019).

348
349 Together, these advances over the last decade and more have contributed to aquaculture as the most
350 rapidly growing food production system on the planet. Yet still, it is not enough. To meet the
351 supply/demand gap for aquatic food products, aquaculture does not merely need to continue to
352 expand, it needs to increase the rate of expansion dramatically. The following section reviews some of
353 the areas where further innovations would have greatest impact, enabling expansion and intensification
354 of aquaculture, while minimizing detrimental consequences of rapid growth.

355

356

357 **3. Issues and challenges**

358

359 Almost inevitably, innovation is disruptive. Any new tool, system, or policy is going to impact the *status*
360 *quo*, and the change will disadvantage some companies, individuals, or consumers. For each of the
361 major areas of innovation, itemized below, some of the attendant impacts, both current and future,
362 real, and perceived are discussed.

363

364 **3.1 Scale:**

365

366 The fundamentals of economics deign that aquaculture operations, as for almost any commercial
367 business, are incentivized to increase their scale. The primary drivers behind this propensity are greater
368 profitability with more economies of scale, greater market share, or (even if profits per unit production
369 are unchanged), simply more profits from expanded volume. This has most clearly been demonstrated
370 over the last decade in the scale and intensity of operations of shrimp farms, land-based RAS systems,
371 and net pen culture of salmon, sea bass, or sea bream. For marine shrimp, *Litopenaeus vannamei* (white
372 shrimp), the grow-out methods are evolving away from extensive pond systems (usually 5–10 ha, but up
373 to 30 ha per pond) towards more intensive, smaller ponds (0.1–1.0 ha), or highly-intensive raceways
374 (from 50 to 2,000 m²) in greenhouses, supported by bioflocs with nanobubble and diffuser aerators
375 (FAO, 2021; Rahmawati, et al., 2021). Land-based RAS systems for salmon are now being built that are
376 designed to produce up to 220,000 T/year². Offshore net pen arrays frequently use cages of up to 50 m
377 in diameter, up to 20 m deep. At Salmar Fish Farm 1, one offshore net pen (Figure 1) has twice been
378 stocked with 1.5 million smolts per cohort. Salmar is currently constructing a larger Fish Farm 2, and has
379 plans to deploy up to 10 units, each of which will accept 3 million smolts per cohort³.

380

381

² Atlantic Sapphire Investor Day - May 9, 2019, from www.atlanticsapphire.com

³ <https://salmonbusiness.com/salmar-expects-serial-production-of-offshore-fish-farming-ocean-rigs-five-to-ten-units-in-the-first-phase/>

382 There are broad benefits to society from such expansion. In general, more aquaculture production
383 meets the goals of nourishing humanity and mitigating the global climate crisis, by supplanting
384 terrestrial animal proteins with their attendant land-use, fresh-water use, and greenhouse gas emission
385 impacts. Greater efficiency increases corporate profits, incentivizing even further expansion, but also
386 provides products to consumers at a lower price, making nutritious seafood available to more people,
387 particularly those of lower socio-economic strata. Larger, more capital-intensive systems are generally
388 more rigorously managed, and are designed and operated to have less overall environmental footprint,
389 on a basis of per ton produced (Bohnes and Laurent, 2021).

390
391 By driving down the price of aquaculture products, however, larger-scale, capital-intensive systems also
392 displace small- or medium-scale producers, who are unable to match the production efficiencies and the
393 market prices of the corporate entities. This can result in less socio-economically diverse development,
394 less geographical dispersion of production (concentration by a few large companies in selected regions),
395 and less overall employment in the industry.

396 397 **3.2 Automation, remote command-and-control and precision aquaculture:**

398
399 Similarly, emerging technologies and tools such as precision aquaculture or smart aquaculture, GIS
400 systems, remote sensors, machine learning, and robotics all offer great potential for increased
401 production, reduced labor requirements, increased production efficiencies, and greater profitability for
402 corporations. The corollary of these developments is more aquaculture product for consumers, often at
403 a lower price, and frequently with less inputs and lower environmental externalities.

404
405 As in other industries, however, the development and application of such sophisticated tools limits their
406 utility to those companies that have both access to capital, and the strength in human resources to
407 install and maintain these systems. Again, this frequently disadvantages small- and medium-scale
408 producers.

409 410 **3.3 Selective breeding and genetic tools:**

411
412 By contrast, the benefits of the powerful new genetics and bioinformatics tools are more broadly
413 available, as most commercial aquaculture industries now support independent companies whose core
414 business is running selective breeding programs and commercial hatcheries, and making improved
415 progeny available on the open market (Gjedrem, et al., 2012). Small-scale or subsistence producers who
416 do not have access to capital for purchase of improved seed stock may still be disadvantaged, but only
417 to some lesser degree.

418
419 Larger, better-capitalized companies may support their own selective breeding programs, or have
420 exclusive relationships with hatcheries or genetics companies that allow them to develop their own
421 exclusive strains. Seed stock with more advanced traits are generally not available to smaller-scale
422 producers. Governments should therefore consider providing assistance for breeding programs that
423 specifically extend selective breeding benefits to smaller-scale producers. The larger companies will also
424 benefit from government support for building more extensive genetic databases, and more family lines.

425 To date, in aquaculture, there has been no effective exertion of control of genetic resources by larger
426 corporations⁴, such as has resulted in conflicts in terrestrial agronomy over patented seed technology.

427
428 There is ongoing consolidation of hatcheries by multinationals, and integration of farm companies and
429 feed companies. Generally, however, genetic gains in aquaculture are dispersed in a more egalitarian
430 manner than other technological innovations. The commercial benefits of improved strains, that might
431 offer greater production volume, improved feed conversion efficiencies, better survival, and better
432 product quality can be – and usually are - shared more diversely, with consequent advantages for
433 producers in rural areas, as well as for consumers in metropolitan centers. Overall improvements in
434 production from better strains then results in more profitable operations for small-scale, rural
435 producers, and this then also encourages greater participation in the industry, and even more expansion
436 of production.

437
438 There are some concerns with the application of novel genetic tools. Sophisticated breeding programs –
439 those which result in the greatest production gains - mostly focus on just a few species. For instance,
440 only two species of shrimp, *Penaeus vannamei* and *P. monodon*, constitute about 80% of farmed shrimp
441 production, and thus almost the entire global selective breeding is directed towards these two species.
442 This may have long-term consequences for industry equitability, resilience, and biosecurity. Those
443 countries where *P. vannamei* and *P. monodon* are not native, or where their culture is limited by other
444 factors, could therefore be excluded from participation in this industry. Further, a single pathogen that
445 afflicts the dominant species could then more greatly impact global production and supply chains.
446 Perhaps terrestrial agriculture will provide the model for eventual evolution of aquaculture, i.e. fewer
447 and fewer species cultured globally, with broad industry consolidation driven by control of genetic
448 attributes. Although this end result is considered to be less desirable, there are few alternatives that can
449 be recommended, and no obvious policy initiatives that might divert this species trend.

450
451 Genetic selection can also be problematic if escapes or on-farm spawning allow genetic introgression
452 (intermingling between farmed stock and wild populations). This is generally perceived as lowering the
453 overall fitness of wild populations, e.g. hatchery-raised salmon blurring the genetic integrity of wild
454 salmon stocks in discrete watersheds, or Pacific oysters selected for resistance to herpesvirus
455 (Dégremont, et al., 2015) potentially intermixing with wild populations, and hence increasing the
456 invasiveness of the species. Sometimes, however, introgression may result in benefits as in the case of
457 intermixed strains of *Ostrea edulis* selected for higher resistance to *Bonamia* with wild *Ostrea*
458 populations. Holmenkollen (Holmenkollen Guidelines. 1999) advises a precautionary approach;
459 however, an overly precautionary stance may incur real costs for industry and for consumers, as lost
460 aquaculture opportunities, i.e., where industry is forced to forego the advantages of selectively bred
461 stocks, reduce the overall seafood availability, and increase its price. An overly cautious approach in one
462 country may also put its producers at a disadvantage in the global seafood marketplace.

463
464 Farming of sterile stocks is often pursued to improve growth performance beyond the age at maturation
465 (as the animal then should direct more resources towards somatic growth, rather than reproduction),
466 and for a superior product (e.g., to overcome milt or roe in farmed bivalves).

⁴ <http://www.fao.org/cgrfa/meetings/ttle-abs/en/>

467 Sterility is also posited as a solution to introgression, but the most widely applied technologies (e.g.
468 triploidy) are rarely 100% reliable (Guo and Allen, 1994), and often bring attendant issues (e.g. spinal
469 deformities in triploid salmon (Fjellidal and Hansen, 2010)).

470
471 Gene-editing through CRISPR/cas9 offers the opportunity of modifying the entire suite of a genome in a
472 way that mimics natural mutation. This approach is therefore fundamentally different from the
473 introduction of foreign genes, i.e. transgenics, or so-called “Frankenfish”. Three countries already allow
474 use of CRISPR in aquacultured animals (Japan, Australia and Brazil). These new genomic tools need to
475 be rigorously evaluated, to ensure there are no significant unintended consequences (either consumer
476 health or ecosystem health), and to build consumer acceptance and political support. Any overly
477 restrictive regulation in this area could, however, be detrimental to overall aquaculture production, and
478 to the industries in individual countries which more rigorously apply such restrictions. The potential for
479 applying genetic tools (such as gene editing) to produce sterile stocks is particularly appealing, because
480 it offers guarantees of 100% sterility. This would then, *ipso facto*, negate any concerns about potential
481 introgression of genetically modified strains.

482

483 **3.4 Alternative feedstuffs:**

484

485 As with most innovations, the use of alternative feedstuffs often brings attendant concerns. For
486 example, the use of fish processing by-products, or trimmings, to provide fishmeal or fish oil in
487 aquaculture diets has increased dramatically. Biosecurity concerns, however, mandate that such fish
488 processing by-products are not used in diets for closely related farmed species⁵.

489

490 Many of these alternative feedstuff products are also used in the wider terrestrial animal nutrition
491 markets (mainly poultry and pigs), and so aquaculture competes for these feedstuffs; however,
492 alternative protein and lipid sources are more prominent in aquaculture because of the rapid industry
493 growth, and because the fastidiousness of many fish species limits the utility of many products
494 (compared to chickens and pigs). Aquaculture also represents, on a global level, the best and highest use
495 of many of these products (most specifically EPA and DHA), because of the efficiencies of trophic
496 transfer in cold-blooded aquatic animals, compared to warm-blooded terrestrial animals.

497

498 Traditional agricultural proteins that are now in wider use in aquaculture diets include soy protein
499 isolates or soy concentrates, barley, wheat, and corn proteins, and animal processing by-products
500 (bloodmeal, poultry meal, feather meal). Each alternative feedstuff presents its own array of
501 opportunities and challenges. For example, concerns around mammalian land animal by-products (pork
502 and beef) associated with prion infections (the causative agent in “mad-cow disease”) prohibit their use
503 in some jurisdictions. The best available science, however, is clear that prions cannot be transferred
504 between the different classes of vertebrates (e.g. from mammals to fish), or from vertebrates to
505 invertebrates (e.g. mammals to crustaceans such as shrimp). Wider use of land animal proteins and fats
506 in aquaculture could alleviate pressure on wild fish resources (Pelletier, et al., 2018).

507

508 Agricultural grains and animal processing by-products have also provided an increasing amount of the
509 lipids in aquaculture diets. Many of these more conventional sources, such as canola or soy oil, can now
510 also provide selected or modified strains that include specific lipid fractions, such as EPA or DHA.

⁵ E.g. Aquaculture Stewardship Council standards for Salmon, *Seriola*, and *Cobia*, and others.

511 These strains are often genetically modified, but as the purified lipids carry no DNA material, there is no
512 scientific basis for restricting their use, even in jurisdictions which normally prohibit use of GMO
513 products. Again, such a science-driven approach to policy offers great potential benefits for aquaculture,
514 and for minimizing the ecological footprint of nutritious food production.

515

516 Innovative proteins and oils are also becoming more widely available, as their utility is further
517 demonstrated, and as investors and larger agribusinesses begin to align around their production. New
518 protein sources include single-cell proteins (Calysta, KnipBio), and insect meals (e.g. black soldier fly
519 larvae). Novel sources of oils include yeasts (e.g. Verlasso salmon), and microalgae that are grown in
520 heterotrophic conditions, such as *Schizochytrium* and Veramaris oils, rich in EPA and DHA, that are
521 produced in converted bioreactors at old ethanol plants in the mid-Western U.S.A. (Lane, 2018).
522 Automated, large-scale photobioreactors for phototrophic microalgae (e.g. Erbland et al., 2020;
523 Barcenas-Perez et al., 2021) still have yet to prove cost-effective as a means of producing feedstuffs for
524 aquaculture.

525

526 Alternative feedstuffs also offer great potential to reduce the overall ecological footprint of fed-
527 aquaculture dramatically. There is now much greater awareness of, and better accounting practices to
528 evaluate, the carbon and energy inputs and other ecological footprint metrics for various feedstuffs
529 (e.g. Pelletier, et al., 2018).

530

531

532 **3.6 Certification schemes:**

533

534 The past decade has also seen a proliferation of aquaculture certification schemes focusing on metrics
535 for environmental and social impacts, and overall corporate governance. The formation of these
536 organizations grew out of concerns amongst retailers that their customers were increasingly interested
537 in the provenance of the foods they were purchasing, and retailer apprehension over reputational risk of
538 carrying products that might be associated with environmental or social detriments (Eco-labeling;
539 Chikudza et al., 2020).

540

541 These concerns were – and still are - largely confined to seafood retailers in more economically
542 developed countries, where consumers and media are more focused on such issues. Certification
543 schemes have therefore engaged mostly with highly traded products, such as shrimp, salmon, and
544 catfish. Certification tools have been less impactful in aquaculture industries that provide product into
545 domestic markets, or that sell into economically less developed countries, where retailers and
546 consumers may have less access to information, or less market choice.

547

548 Recognizing these concerns, some certification schemes have worked to offer processes that are more
549 inclusive of small- or medium-scale farm operators. Group certification schemes have begun to address
550 these issues, but the mechanisms for certifying neighboring farms who share the benefits, risks and
551 responsibilities are complicated. The evolution of aquaculture improvement programs (i.e. providing
552 producers with provisional access to markets, so long as they adhere to a defined trajectory for eventual
553 certification) has also broadened the potential outreach and impacts of certification schemes. Some
554 initiatives in this area include incorporation of FAO's Ecosystem Approach to Aquaculture (FAO, 2010)
555 into market-based incentive schemes.

556 Conservation International and partners are developing a ‘jurisdictional approach’ to aquaculture
557 improvement projects, focused on aligning incentives to improve sustainability outcomes across a whole
558 jurisdiction, rather than just farm by farm (Bone, et al., 2018; Kittinger, et al., 2021).

559
560 Clearer demonstration of the actual beneficial impacts of certification schemes would also improve their
561 uptake. More rigorous monitoring and evaluation programs are therefore needed.

562 563 **4. Future Developments**

564
565 Prognostication on future innovation is fraught. The beauty of disruptive ideas is that they are often
566 previously unforeseen. Nevertheless, this study’s authors believe that aquaculture will continue to see
567 innovation in the following areas. We also wish to highlight a number of areas of future concern.

568 569 570 **4.1 Scale:**

571
572 The size of aquaculture operations will, overall, continue to increase, driven by the inexorable trend
573 towards economies of scale, consolidation in the marketplace, and higher profits. This will most notably
574 impact shrimp (both extensive farming and RAS systems), offshore salmon and marine finfish culture,
575 and intensive, land-based RAS systems fish and crustaceans.

576
577 Permitting for large-scale aquaculture projects is a purview of public policy. Governments therefore
578 should consider the wide-ranging impacts of such developments on a cost-benefit basis. Costs may
579 include displacement of other small- and medium-scale producers, and consequent reduced
580 employment, consolidation, and less geographical diversification of the industry. Benefits may include
581 wider availability of more affordable seafood products in the local marketplace, and consequent
582 improved consumer nutrition.

583
584 Governments may wish to reduce the dominance of larger-scale operations by supporting greater co-
585 operative efforts for smaller-scale operators, such as bulk-purchasing for supplies and joint-marketing
586 initiatives. Rather than government-run co-operatives, more efficient approaches may be found in the
587 ‘nucleus estate’ model, or other forms of privately-incentivized contract farming (see
588 <http://www.fao.org/3/y0937e/y0937e05.htm>). There are, as yet, however, few examples of contract
589 farming in aquaculture that can provide models for governments or entrepreneurs to follow.

590
591
592
593
594
595
596
597
598
599

600 **4.2 Automation, ‘smart’ aquaculture, and remote command-and-control:**

601
602 As discussed above, there are similar trade-offs in implementation of greater automation, smart
603 aquaculture, and remote command-and-control systems. These developments can increase production
604 volumes and reduce the cost-of-goods, but also displace those producers with less access to capital or
605 technologies. New technologies may also reduce the need for labor, resulting in reduced employment
606 opportunities, and less demand for semi-skilled or unskilled labor. More efficient operating systems can
607 also contribute to reduced carbon footprint (e.g. more efficient aeration or pumping systems, and
608 greater precision of operations lowering input requirements) (Føre et al., 2018).

609
610 The process of creative destruction that attends entry of innovations into the marketplace implies that
611 more traditional producers will be disadvantaged by these technological innovations. Governments
612 should be careful not to inhibit the application of new technologies in an effort to protect those
613 producers more dependent on the status quo, unless there is a clear environmental or social benefit
614 that the established order provides, which could be lost or diminished through disruption. Policymakers
615 should remain cognizant of the global dynamics of the marketplace. If the policy of any one national
616 government strives to limit technological advancements, other countries will still certainly adopt the
617 more efficient methods, and outcompete those who have not embraced the new technologies.

618
619 As better-capitalized companies introduce automation and smart aquaculture systems, small- to
620 medium-scale producers could be encouraged to maintain technological parity through training
621 schemes and financing programs that make it possible for them to install and maintain the newer
622 equipment or practices. Government resources or other funding could particularly focus on supporting
623 technologies that improve production per unit of energy, or that enable broader and more rapid
624 adoption of renewable energy systems in aquaculture, such as wind, geothermal or solar. Governments
625 might also support financing mechanisms, research programs or scholarships that integrate engineers,
626 biologists, and entrepreneurs.

627
628
629 **4.3 Offshore:**

630
631 There is tremendous potential for expansion of aquaculture into offshore marine environments – in
632 deeper water, further from shore, with generally stronger currents (Kapetsky, et al., 2013; Gentry, et al.,
633 2017; Kim, et al., 2019). This is beginning to be realized, particularly for marine fish and salmonids, in
634 established aquaculture nations such as Norway, Turkey, and China, as well as in less advanced
635 aquaculture nations such as Panama and the U.S.A. These developments are driven by the growing
636 recognition that offshore culture can avoid some of the challenges that near-shore aquaculture
637 encounters, such as benthic or water quality impacts, wild fish stock health concerns with net pens
638 (especially for migratory species such as salmon), and conflicts over public domain use. Offshore farming
639 systems also offer potential to achieve dramatic improvements in economies of scale (See above,
640 Section 3.1, discussion of Salmar Ocean Farm 1).

641
642
643

644 Properly sited offshore net pen operations have been shown to have much lower impacts on water
645 quality and benthic substrate (Sims, 2103; Price and Morris, 2013; Rust, et al., 2014; Welch, et al., 2019).
646 Nevertheless, this minimal impact can be affected by the farm scale, density of the net pens, operational
647 experience and site specifics. Continued monitoring of offshore operations is needed to help better
648 understand the interplay of these various factors, and to allow more precise modelling of impacts.
649 Innovative monitoring and modeling are needed to better inform management of the offshore industry,
650 going forward.

651
652 Industry and regulatory agencies need to be aware of the potential negative impacts, both
653 environmental and social, from offshore fish farming. Both the cost for capital equipment and costs for
654 feed for the massive cohorts that are grown offshore limit the participation in offshore operations to
655 those with access to capital. The scale of operations means that any escape event, or other negative
656 environmental impact, could be an order of magnitude more impactful than smaller near-shore
657 operations. The increasing role of technology used in offshore pens reduces the labor requirements per
658 tonne of production. Offshore operations at larger scale require both employees, and result in fewer
659 positions for unskilled or semi-skilled workers. This limits the potential for aquaculture growth to
660 provide expanded employment opportunities. The increased scale of production will also, over time,
661 lead to reduced unit costs for marine fish, which could result in small-scale producers from nearshore
662 farms being outcompeted in the marketplace.

663
664 The potential for offshore fish farming operations to provide a meaningful benefit to middle- to lower-
665 income countries and consumers has recently been questioned (Belton, et al., 2021). Certainly, the scale
666 of most offshore operations and the capital equipment requirements place constraints on broad
667 participation. Offshore culture of non-fed aquaculture species such as seaweeds and bivalves could be
668 more inclusive of medium- and small-scale operators, because there is no outlay required for feed. To
669 attract more interest in this area of opportunity, there needs to be better definition of the benefits of
670 cultivation of non-fed species through nutrient or particulate uptake, absorption of carbon, or increased
671 biodiversity through the provision of offshore substrates.

672

673

674 **4.4 Intensive Onshore systems:**

675

676 The next decade will probably see further dramatic expansion of intensive onshore systems, such as RAS
677 units for shrimp, marine fish, and freshwater fish. These systems offer advantages in better control of
678 animal health, and improved biosecurity, as well as allowing siting with greater proximity to market.
679 They also can greatly reduce environmental impacts, such as reducing or eliminating nutrient loading in
680 effluent waters.

681

682 The scale of such systems, however, burdens them with the same attendant issues discussed above
683 (Offshore, 4.3, and Scale 4.1), around scale-up of operations and impacts on small- to medium-scale
684 producers. Onshore systems are also very energy intensive, and are heavily dependent on capital
685 equipment and sophisticated levels of automation. This means that both construction and operations
686 have greater life-cycle demands than more extensive systems.

687

688 Conversely, land-based intensification can reduce the pressure for land-conversion, such as destruction
689 of mangrove swamps for shrimp ponds. Although science can inform on these overall trade-offs
690 between greater volumes of seafood, more broadly available in the market, and the energy and
691 resource requirements of such systems, these questions must ultimately be answered under a policy
692 framework.

693
694 Some countries with limited arable land have made advances in super-intensive agri-food production,
695 such as aquaponics. Vertical agri-farming for leafy vegetables and marine foodfish is already established
696 in countries such as Singapore, with high-rise fish production buildings up to 8 stories tall. One such
697 operation is projected to produce 2,700 T/yr of grouper and coral trout by 2023 (Tatum, 2021). These
698 operations are highly dependent on interconnectivity and sensor technology, and rigorous fish health
699 screening, and thus require major investments of capital and expertise. Their primary focus is on high-
700 value species, suggesting that broader applications may be limited. The long-term utility of such
701 operations for improving food security cannot yet be determined. Governments must themselves make
702 a determination as to the desirability of such systems, and apply policy tools to support or constrain
703 growth of large-scale on-shore operations (Shen, et al., 2021).

704

705

706 **4.5 Alternative feedstuffs:**

707

708 The recent advances in reducing the dependence of aquaculture on wild-caught forage fish fisheries
709 should continue, and governments and other entities should expand support in these areas.

710

711 While some alternative sources of proteins and oils have received much publicity, they have yet to prove
712 their broad usefulness. For example, *Spirulina* is a good potential source of protein, but on a dollar-per-
713 gram of protein, it is still far more expensive than fishmeal. The microalga *Nannochloropsis* sp is also
714 used widely as a feedstuff in hatcheries (for enriching rotifers or *Artemia*, or for feeding directly to filter-
715 feeding larvae), but is significantly more expensive a source of DHA than fish oil from, e.g., Peruvian
716 anchoveta. While many of these products may be costly today, prices will undoubtedly decrease as
717 producers refine their operations, bring new technologies to bear, and increase their scale. These
718 alternatives may very well end up cost-competitive in the next decade.

719

720 A commendable approach for governments and other financing agencies in this field would be to fund
721 long-term programs for feedstuff research and development for the most salient alternatives, and to
722 provide low-cost loans for capital for construction of production or processing facilities. Prospective
723 applicants for loans or other funding should be vetted thoroughly, as many products may initially seem
724 appealing, but are not yet fully proven, or may have constraints to scale-up. Scale-up challenges may
725 include efficient sourcing and aggregation of feed inputs (e.g. for the black soldier-fly larvae), and
726 market resistance to the pricing (for most pond-grown microalgae).

727

728 Policies and programs should strive to expand the use of agricultural proteins and oils, including both
729 crops and animal by-products, as well as optimizing use of seafood trimmings. These strategies will then,
730 ideally, reduce pressure on wild fish resources, diversify the supply chains for fed-aquaculture, expand
731 the upscaling of processing by-products, increase profitability of aquaculture operations, and improve
732 food security.

733
734 Biosecurity concerns around land-animal by-products used in fish feeds should be addressed through
735 the best-available science. An overly precautionary approach could result in negative impacts by limiting
736 the potential benefits listed above.

737
738 Where food security is a compelling concern, government policies and investment programs should
739 consider the more efficient utilization of proteins and oils (c.f. poultry or mammals) in aquaculture,
740 especially when weighing omega-3 fatty acid utilization. Data-based decisions on how best to feed and
741 nourish a growing population should take into account the full cost accounting (cradle to grave) of the
742 different animal protein production sectors, with the most resource efficient sectors receiving more
743 government support. Similarly, the demonstrated lower global impact of aquaculture on greenhouse gas
744 emissions, fresh water and land use (Hall, et al., 2011) should embolden governments to expand support
745 for aquaculture development, with concomitantly lower support for more-impactful terrestrial animal
746 protein products.

747

748

749

750 **4.6 Selective breeding and application of novel genetic tools**

751

752 Governments and other entities should strive to replicate the spectacular production advances and
753 broad benefits of the GIFT program (Genetically Improved Farmed Tilapia) in other aquaculture species.
754 The GIFT was particularly beneficial for a broad range of producers because of the ease of culturing
755 tilapia in a wide range of environments, from extensive ponds to large-scale net pen culture in lakes, and
756 intensive RAS systems. Long-term commitments are required for selective breeding programs, and
757 governments should support collaborative public-private programs that share the costs and widely
758 disseminate the benefits. This approach should ensure that genetic advances can be made widely
759 available to smaller-scale producers, as well.

760

761 Novel genomics tools will be used increasingly to improve growth rates, feed efficiencies, animal health
762 and other production metrics (yield, fillet thickness) (Stokstat, 2020). These advances increase the
763 overall output for aquaculture industries, increase the profitability of individual farms (increasing further
764 investment and employment in the sector), and reduce further the overall ecological footprint of
765 aquaculture.

766

767 Governments and other programs are encouraged to support R&D into wider use of gene-editing (i.e.
768 CRISPR/cas9), rather than transgenics, because of the likelihood of wider market acceptance. Regulation
769 of CRISPR gene-editing should be driven by the best available science.

770

771 Further development of novel technologies for genetically sterile stocks could be of particular utility.
772 Genetically-guaranteed sterility could be used by regulators as an initial requirement for any other use
773 of transgenic stocks or gene-edited stocks, as a guaranteed means of preventing introgression with wild
774 stocks.

775

776

777

778 Government action is needed to preserve genetic resources, both separate species or discrete
779 populations that may be under threat. For example, the native tilapia species in Mozambique
780 (*Oreochromis mossambicus*) has advantages in salt tolerance, but a slow growth rate, compared with *O.*
781 *niloticus*. *Niloticus* have been introduced into Mozambique, and are now jeopardizing the *mossambicus*
782 wild population through hybridization. A selective breeding program supported by the government
783 could improve *mossambicus* productivity, and spur fish production based on the native species, rather
784 than the introduced fish.

785
786 Other attributes that are not directly market-driven need to also be considered during selective
787 breeding, e.g., ethical values of improved animal welfare and environmental services (Olesen et al.,
788 2000).

789
790

791 **4.7 New financing opportunities and start-up incentives**

792

793 As various models for industry-specific investment funds, aquaculture incubators and accelerators, and
794 aquaculture parks are refined and proven profitable, their further expansion should be encouraged.
795 Collaborative public-private research and development programs should be particularly supported.

796

797 Governments that wish to encourage more of the ‘start-up culture’ around aquaculture should look to
798 these models. Not all of them require significant capital. Often, simply undertaking the pre-permitting of
799 an area for aquaculture use, and establishment of basic infrastructure, is sufficient an incentive to start
800 to attract companies to an aquaculture park. The agglomeration of several such companies in one area,
801 although potentially representing some biosecurity risk, will often reach a critical mass, leading to
802 further private sector investment as the start-up ‘eco-system’ of infrastructure, labor, and regulations
803 grows.

804

805 There is also potential for creative financing for aquaculture to start to address some of the global
806 challenges, such as ocean acidification and the Global Climate Crisis. These initiatives could particularly
807 be applied to macroalgae culture, using carbon credits or bonds for achieving environmental goals such
808 as carbon sequestration to the abyssal plain, or other ecosystem benefits (e.g. nutrient removal).

809

810 Governments should approach carefully any direct involvement in market manipulation or direct
811 investment in industry. The Chilean government, for example, initially established seaweed incentives as
812 subsidies for seaweed farmers. Although this greatly stimulated production, it did nothing for creating
813 demand for the product. Governments might better assist through public-private fund partnerships, or
814 by broader support of industries that are already established (e.g. improving collaborative marketing, or
815 facilitating supply pipelines for newly cultured species). For example, governments can help establish
816 incubator facilities by providing funding and access to land or water. Providing umbrella permitting for
817 aquaculture start-ups can be especially helpful, such as at NELHA, in Kona, Hawaii.

818

819

820

821

822

823 **4.8 Improved biosecurity & disease control**

824
825 The future of aquaculture is inextricably linked with effective management of plant and animal health.
826 The focus, going forward, should be on prevention, and co-ordination. Most of the challenges can be
827 best addressed through technologies – producing fish offshore with better water exchange, or in tightly
828 controlled land-based RAS environments), or genetic selection of resistant strains, novel vaccines and
829 their wider application, or use of functional foods. Improved government policies are, however, also
830 integral to an overall industry health management strategy, including tighter regional biosecurity
831 measures to lower the risk of pathogen introductions, and establishment of collaborative networks for
832 more efficient sharing of information on emerging diseases.

833
834 New private sector, pre-competitive collaborations (such as the Global Salmon Initiative, GSI) should
835 also be established to better address animal and plant health challenges. One of the GSI primary areas
836 of collaboration is sharing information on sea-lice control in salmon net pen culture. This GSI model
837 recognizes the interplay between aquaculture animal health, consumer demand, and social license.

838
839
840 **4.9 Expanding macroalgae farming**

841
842 The current trend of expansion of macroalgae farming beyond East Asia should be encouraged because
843 of the diverse ecological services that macroalgae culture offers (nutrient removal, potential carbon
844 sequestration, increased primary productivity and biodiversity); however, there will be challenges in
845 sustaining this growth unless and until markets for seaweed products grow with the industry. Carbon tax
846 credits (for carbon capture and storage) and nutrient tax credits are theoretically appealing, but have
847 not yet become tangible (and fungible) in any meaningful way.

848
849 Governments and other entities that want to promote seaweed production may wish to establish
850 additional incentives for commercial applications of macroalgae products, such as human food and
851 animal feed (especially for pigs or cattle, to reduce methane production, or for herbivorous fish).
852 Macroalgal use for fertilizers is especially appealing because of the current heavy demand for energy in
853 artificial nitrogen fertilizer production, using the Haber-Bosch process. Use of seaweed fertilizers could
854 be incentivized through farmer subsidies, or alternatively be exempt from carbon taxes applied to
855 energy intense fertilizer production.

856
857 Research into bioconversion of seaweed for biofuels is more challenging, because of the complex
858 polysaccharides that bind up most carbon in macroalgae (e.g. agar, carrageenan, fucoidan, laminaria).

859
860 The “Seaweed Manifesto” (<http://www.seaweedmanifesto.com>) is a novel example of a collaborative
861 private sector, government and foundation initiative, launched for promoting production and
862 consumption of seaweeds.

863
864
865
866
867

868 **4.10 Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA)**

869

870 IMTA in marine ecosystems will remain of academic interest until large-scale projects can demonstrate
871 clear commercial drivers, or until social license concerns justify expanded use of filter feeders and
872 macroalgae to remove particulates and nutrients around fed aquaculture systems.

873

874 Interest in freshwater IMTA systems will grow with further developments of urban aquaculture, where
875 effluent water or heat from other systems, or multiple uses of space can be used to reduce input costs
876 for aquaculture. The actual impact on food production will probably be small in the near-term, but
877 further development will benefit from growing consumer interest in circular economy perspectives, and
878 reduction in food miles or 'local' production systems.

879

880

881 **4.11 Increased diversification & reduced risks**

882

883 The consolidation of aquaculture production globally on fewer species is being driven by market forces,
884 but may be less desirable for the reasons discussed above. There may therefore be additional
885 motivations for governments to encourage species diversification in aquaculture (or, perhaps more
886 correctly, to encourage preservation of the diversity of species in aquaculture; there are currently
887 around 600 marine or aquatic species cultured globally (FAO, 2020).

888

889 Investment of public or private funds into species diversification *per se*, without clear market drivers,
890 will have a reduced likelihood of success. Where fiscal resources are limited, funds may be better spent
891 on industry development for more established, cosmopolitan species (such as vannamei, salmon, or
892 tilapia), thereby addressing more pressing needs of food security and employment.

893

894 **4.12 Animal welfare**

895

896 There will be increased need for commercial companies and supply chains to focus on animal welfare in
897 aquaculture. This can be best addressed through certification programs, and technological
898 improvements that reduce animal stress and pain during handling and slaughter.

899

900 **4.13 IMTA and Restorative Aquaculture**

901

902 The concept of Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA) has been developed as a strategy to reduce
903 the negative externalities of fed aquaculture; i.e. lessen the input of metabolic wastes produced by
904 marine fish or shrimp, for example, by co-cultivation of extractive species. During the past 20 years, a
905 number of small-scale studies have established the capacity of filter-feeders and seaweed to capture
906 particulates and nitrogen in marine coastal systems (Neori, et al., 2007; Alleway, et al., 2019; Kotta, et
907 al., 2020; Holbach, et al., 2020). There is abundant beneficial environmental impact of seaweed farming
908 on eutrophication and red tides in discrete bodies of water, and macroalgal culture thrives in these
909 areas (Camu, et al., 2020). Some companies do use effluents from fed organisms to increase macroalgal
910 growth rates, and there is potential for nutrient tax credits or carbon tax credits to promote this further.
911 There has, however, to date, been no accurate determination of the utility or implementation of IMTA
912 at commercial scale.

913
914 The potential for expanded use of macroalgae is especially appealing from a Life-Cycle Analysis
915 perspective because their culture requires no land conversion, fresh water, or exogenous nutrients, and
916 can absorb nitrogen (potentially reducing eutrophication concerns) and carbon (offering opportunities
917 for carbon capture).

918
919 There is similarly increasing interest in so-called Blue Carbon (using marine ecosystems to sequester
920 carbon) and “restorative aquaculture” (i.e. using aquaculture to help remediate stressed marine
921 environments - mainly kelp forests, invertebrate populations and seagrass stands: Brumbaugh, et al.,
922 2000; European Commission, 2012; Han, et al., 2016; Mascorda Cabre, et al., 2021). Restorative
923 aquaculture initiatives have been supported by programs such as the European Community (Horizon
924 2020), ‘Seaforestation’ in Vancouver, Canada (OceanWise, 2021) and the Solent project⁶. Such projects
925 currently rely on public or foundation support, and look to nutrient tax credits or carbon tax credits to
926 become financially appealing. A more compelling commercial case needs to be made before such efforts
927 can grow to have any significant scale and impact.

928

929

930 **4.14 Resource efficiency**

931

932 Market-driven concerns with food waste, combined with economic drivers for optimizing production
933 efficiencies, should see increasing focus on better slaughter processes, improved post-harvest handling
934 and processing, and shorter, more rigorously managed supply chains. Blockchain and other tools for
935 improving traceability will become increasingly prominent.

936

937 Producers that are unable to engage with these developments may be disadvantaged in the global
938 market. (see above – technological innovations). Governments and other agencies might therefore have
939 a useful role in facilitating access by small- and medium-scale producers.

940

941

942 **4.15 Collaborative research and development**

943

944 There are numerous constraints to bringing innovations to bear in the aquaculture marketplace.
945 Aquaculture research is often disconnected between the research groups and the private sector. For
946 example, multi-national feed companies are not incentivized to engage more closely, or to offer any
947 transparency in development of alternative feedstuffs and feed formulations. Governments and
948 intergovernmental entities should redouble their efforts to expand opportunities for collaborative
949 research and development. Inclusion of the private sector, from the outset, in such collaborative R&D
950 programs should maximize the uptake of research results, and increase the breadth of the benefits.

951

952 The Network of Aquaculture Centers in Asia-Pacific (NACA; <https://enaca.org/>), based in Thailand, offers
953 a good example of regional collaboration in aquaculture. NACA is largely funded by the participating
954 governments, and is now supporting development of a similar entity in the Africa region. In the past,
955 however, similar efforts in Africa (ARAC) and South America were less successful, and essentially folded.

⁶ <https://www.bluemarinefoundation.com/projects/solent/>

956 A comparative analysis is needed to elucidate the reasons for success of some regional collaborations,
957 and then to incorporate these lessons into future efforts.

958
959 The future of aquaculture – its total production, its efficiency, and its role in helping humanity achieve
960 the U.N.’s Sustainable Development Goals – all depends upon continued innovation, at both small- and
961 large-scales. All innovations will initially be met by some with resistance from entrenched interests.
962 However, the status quo in aquaculture is clearly not desirable. We need to grow more seafood, with
963 less impact. Governments should therefore establish broad policies that encourage innovation in
964 aquaculture production, while simultaneously fostering the broader distribution of benefits, and
965 reductions in overall environmental impacts.

966
967 ----- /// -----

968
969

DRAFT - NOT FOR CIRCULATION

970
971
972
973
974
975
976
977
978
979
980
981
982
983
984
985
986
987
988
989
990
991
992
993
994
995
996
997
998
999
1000
1001
1002
1003
1004
1005
1006
1007
1008
1009
1010
1011
1012
1013

REFERENCES

- Alleway, H.K., C.L. Gillies, M.J. Bishop, R.R. Gentry, S.J. Theuerkauf and R. Jones, 2019. The Ecosystem Services of Marine Aquaculture: Valuing Benefits to People and Nature, *BioScience*, Vol. 69(1): 59–68, <https://doi.org/10.1093/biosci/biy137>
- Barcenas-Perez, D., Lukes, M., Hrouzek, P., Kuvac, D., Kopecky, J., Kastanek, P., Cheel, J. 2021. A biorefinery approach to obtain docosahexaenoic acid and docosapentaenoic acid n-6 from *Schizochytrium* using high performance countercurrent chromatography. *Algal Research*. 55, 102241. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.algal.2021.102241>
- Belton, B., Little, D.C., Zhang, W., Edwards, P., Skladany, M., and Thilsted, S.H. 2020. Farming fish in the sea will not nourish the world. *Nat Commun* **11**, 5804 (2020). <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-19679-9>
- Bizri, O.F. 2018. Chapter 3 – Science, Technology, and Innovation Policies and Institutional Landscapes In: Science, Technology, Innovation, and Development in the Arab Countries. Academic Press ISBN: 9780128125779 Elsevier, Inc. Amsterdam. Pp 115-360
- Bohnes, F.A., Laurent, A. 2021. Environmental impacts of existing and future aquaculture production: Comparison of technologies and feed options in Singapore. *Aquaculture*, 532, 736001.
- Bone, J., T. Clavelle, J.G. Ferreira, J. Grant, I. Ladner, A. Immink, J. Stoner and N.G.H. Taylor. 2018. Best Practices For Aquaculture Management - Guidance for implementing the ecosystem approach in Indonesia and beyond. Conservation International. Available at: <https://www.sustainablefish.org/News/SFP-Conservation-International-and-UCSB-release-new-best-practices-for-aquaculture-management-guide>
- Brumbaugh, R.D., Sorabella, L.A., Johnson, C., Goldsborough, W.J. 2000. Small Scale Aquaculture as a Tool for Oyster Restoration in Chesapeake Bay. *Marine Technology Society Journal*, 34: 79-86
- Camus, C., M.C. Hernández-González and A.H. Buschmann 2020. "The seaweed resources of Chile over the period 2006–2016: moving from gatherers to cultivators" *Botanica Marina*, vol. 62, no. 3, 2019, pp. 237-247. <https://doi.org/10.1515/bot-2018-0030>
- Chikudza, L., Gauzente, C., Guillotreau, P. and K.A. Alexander 2020. Producer perceptions of the incentives and challenges of adopting ecolabels in the European finfish aquaculture industry: A Q-methodology approach. *Marine Policy*. 121, 104176.
- COFI:AQ/X/2019/7. Aquaculture innovations, their upscaling and technology transfer to increase efficiency, combat environmental degradation and adapt to climate change. <http://www.fao.org/about/meetings/cofi-sub-committee-on-aquaculture/cofi-aq10-documents/en/>

- 1014 Dégremont, L., Nourry, M., and Maurouard, E. (2015). Mass selection for survival and resistance to
1015 OsHV-1 infection in *Crassostrea gigas* spat in field conditions: response to selection after four
1016 generations. *Aquaculture* 446, 111–121. doi: 10.1016/j.aquaculture.2015.04.029
1017
- 1018 European Commission. 2012. Guidance on Aquaculture and Natura 2000, Sustainable aquaculture
1019 activities in the context of the Natura 2000 Network. 89 p.
1020
- 1021 FAO, 2010. Aquaculture development. 4. Ecosystem approach to aquaculture. *FAO Technical Guidelines*
1022 *for Responsible Fisheries*. No. 5, Suppl. 4. Rome, FAO. 53p.
1023
- 1024 FAO, 2019. Report of the Special Session on Advancing Integrated Agriculture Aquaculture through
1025 Agroecology, Montpellier, France, 25 August 2018. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Report No. 1286.
1026 Rome. <http://www.fao.org/3/ca7209en/CA7209EN.pdf>
1027
- 1028 FAO, 2020 a. FishStatJ, a tool for fishery statistics analysis. Release: 4.00.10. Universal Software for
1029 Fishery Statistical Time Series. Global aquaculture production: Quantity 1950–2018; Value 1950–
1030 2018. Global capture production: Quantity 1950–2018; Rome, Italy: FAO.
1031
- 1032 FAO, 2020 b. *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020. In brief. Sustainability in action*. Rome.
1033 28 pp. <https://doi.org/10.4060/ca9231en>
1034
- 1035 FAO, 2021. Cultured aquatic species information programme - *Penaeus monodon*. Cultured Aquatic
1036 Species Information Programme. In: FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Department [online]. Rome.
1037 Retrieved at http://www.fao.org/fishery/culturedspecies/Penaeus_vannamei/en
1038
- 1039 Fjellidal, P.G. and Hansen, T., 2010. Vertebral deformities in triploid Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.)
1040 underyearling smolts. *Aquaculture*, 309(1-4), pp.131-136
1041
- 1042 Flynn, J. and D.J. McGillicuddy 2018 Modeling marine harmful algal blooms: current status and future
1043 prospects. Chapter 3 pp 115 - 134 in: *Harmful Algal Blooms: A Compendium Desk Reference*
1044 (S.E. Shumway, J.M Burkholder, S. Morton (eds)). Wiley Blackwell Publishers. 667 p.
1045
- 1046 Gentry, R.R., Froehlich, H.E., Grimm, D., Kareiva, P., Parke, M., Rust, M., Gaines, S.D. and Halpern, B.S.,
1047 2017. Mapping the global potential for marine aquaculture. *Nat Ecol Evol* 1, 1317–1324.
1048 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41559-017-0257-9>
1049
- 1050 Gjedrem, T., 2012. Genetic improvement for the development of efficient global aquaculture: a personal
1051 opinion review. *Aquaculture*, 344, pp.12-22.
1052
- 1053 Gjedrem, T., Robinson, N. and Rye, M., 2012. The importance of selective breeding in aquaculture to
1054 meet future demands for animal protein: a review. *Aquaculture*, 350, pp.117-129.
1055
- 1056 Godfray, H. C. J., J. R. Beddington, I. R. Crute, L. Haddad, D. Lawrence, J. F. Muir, J. Pretty, S. Robinson, S.
1057 M. Thomas, and C. Toulmin. 2010. Food Security: The Challenge of Feeding 9 Billion People.
1058 *Science* 327:812-818.
1059

- 1060 Guo, X. 2021. Genetics in shellfish culture. Chapter 14 in: Molluscan Shellfish Aquaculture: A Practical
1061 Guide (S.E. Shumway, ed). In press.
1062
- 1063 Guo, X. and S.K. Allen, Jr. 1994. Reproductive potential and genetics of triploid Pacific oyster,
1064 *Crassostrea gigas* (Thunberg). Biol. Bull., 187:309-318.
1065
- 1066 Hall, S.J., Delaporte, A., Phillips, M.J., Beveridge, M., O'Keefe, M. (2011). Blue frontiers: managing the
1067 environmental costs of aquaculture. The WorldFish Center. Penang, Malaysia. 92 p.
1068
- 1069 Han, Q., Keesing, J., Dongyan, L. 2016. A Review of Sea Cucumber Aquaculture, Ranching, and Stock
1070 Enhancement in China. Reviews in Fisheries Science & Aquaculture, 24:326-341
1071
- 1072 Hoegh-Guldberg. O., et al. 2019. "The Ocean as a Solution to Climate Change: Five Opportunities for
1073 Action." Report. Washington, DC: World Resources Institute. Available online at
1074 <http://www.oceanpanel.org/climate> 116 pp.
1075
- 1076 Holbach, A., M. Maara, K. Timmermann and D. Taylor, 2020. A spatial model for nutrient mitigation
1077 potential of blue mussel farms in the western Baltic Sea. DOI: [10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139624](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2020.139624)
1078
- 1079 Holmenkollen Guidelines. 1999. Sustainable Aquaculture. Pages 343-346 in Svennevig, M. New, and H.
1080 Reinertsen (eds). Proceedings of the 2nd International Symposium on Sustainable Aquaculture,
1081 Oslo, Norway. A.A. Balkema, Rotterdam, Holland/Brookfield, The Netherlands.
1082
- 1083 Kaneko, H., Ijiri, S., Kobayashi, T., Izumi, H., Kuramochi, Y., Wang, D.S., et al., 2015. Gonadal soma-
1084 derived factor (gsdf), a TGF-beta superfamily gene, induces testis differentiation in the teleost
1085 fish *Oreochromis niloticus*. Molecular and Cellular Endocrinology 415, 87e99
1086
- 1087 Kapetsky, J.M., Aguilar-Manjarrez, J. & Jenness, J. 2013. A global assessment of potential for offshore
1088 mariculture development from a spatial perspective. FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Technical
1089 Paper No. 549. Rome, FAO. 181 pp.
1090
- 1091 Kim, J.K., M. Stekoll and C. Yarish (2019) Opportunities, challenges and future directions of open-water
1092 seaweed aquaculture in the United States, Phycologia, 58:5, 446-461,
1093 DOI:10.1080/00318884.2019.1625611
1094
- 1095 Kittinger, J.N., M. Bernard, E. Finkbeiner, E. Murphy, P. Obregon, D.H. Klinger, M.L. Schoon, K.J. Dooley
1096 and L.R. Gerber, 2021. Applying a jurisdictional approach to support sustainable seafood.
1097 *Conservation Science and Practice*. 2021; 3:e386. <https://doi.org/10.1111/csp2.386>
1098
- 1099 Kottaa, J., M. Futter, A. Kaasika, K. Liversagea, M. Rätsepa, F.R. Barbozac, L. Bergströmd, P. Bergströme,
1100 I. Bobsienc, E. Díaz, K. Herküla, P.R. Jonssone, S. Korpineng, P. Kraufvelinh, P. Krosti, O. Lindahlj,
1101 M. Lindegarthe, M.M. Lyngsgaardk, M. Mühli, A.N. Sandman, H.O. Kottaa, M.Orlovam, H. Skovn,
1102 J. Rissaneng, A. Šiaulyso, A. Vidakovicp and E. Virtanen, 2020. Cleaning up seas using blue
1103 growth initiatives: Mussel farming for eutrophication control in the Baltic Sea.
1104 <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2019.136144>
1105

- 1106 Lane, J. 2018. Big Algae chases Omega-3 dominance: DSM, Evonik underway on \$200M algae project in
1107 Nebraska. The Digest. [https://www.biofuelsdigest.com/bdigest/2018/02/15/big-algae-chases-](https://www.biofuelsdigest.com/bdigest/2018/02/15/big-algae-chases-omega-3-dominance-dsm-evonik-underway-on-200m-algae-project-in-nebraska/)
1108 [omega-3-dominance-dsm-evonik-underway-on-200m-algae-project-in-nebraska/](https://www.biofuelsdigest.com/bdigest/2018/02/15/big-algae-chases-omega-3-dominance-dsm-evonik-underway-on-200m-algae-project-in-nebraska/)
1109
- 1110 Langlois, G. and S. Morton 2018 Marine biotoxin and harmful algae monitoring and management.
1111 Chapter 10 pp 377-418 in: Harmful Algal Blooms: A Compendium Desk Reference (S.E.
1112 Shumway, J.M Burkholder, S. Morton (eds)). Wiley Blackwell Publishers. 667 p.
1113
- 1114 Li, M., Sun, Y., Zhao, J., Shi, H., Zeng, S., Ye, K., et al., 2015. A tandem duplicate of anti-mullerian
1115 hormone with a missense SNP on the Y chromosome is essential for male sex determination in
1116 Nile tilapia, *Oreochromis niloticus*. PLoS Genetics 11 (11), e1005678.
1117
- 1118 Mascorda Cabre, L., P. Hosegood, M. J. Attrill, D. Bridger and E.V. Sheehan, 2021. Offshore longline
1119 mussel farms: a review of oceanographic and ecological interactions to inform future research
1120 needs, policy and management. Reviews in Aqua. 1-24 <https://doi.org/10.1111/raq.12549>
1121
- 1122 Matsuyama, Y. and S.E. Shumway 2009. Impacts of harmful algal blooms and shellfisheries aquaculture.
1123 In: Shellfish Aquaculture. G. Allan and G. Burnell (eds.) Woodhead Publishing, Oxford: 560-569.
1124
- 1125 MOWI. 2020. Salmon Farming Industry Handbook 2020, 118p. [https://ml-](https://ml-eu.globenewswire.com/Resource/Download/8e26b7fd-ae8d-4743-a188-b71a6233bb71)
1126 [eu.globenewswire.com/Resource/Download/8e26b7fd-ae8d-4743-a188-b71a6233bb71](https://ml-eu.globenewswire.com/Resource/Download/8e26b7fd-ae8d-4743-a188-b71a6233bb71) (Albert)
1127
- 1128 Nature. 2010. How to feed a hungry world. Special Issue 466:531-532.
1129
- 1130 Naylor, R.L., Hardy, R.W., Buschmann, A.H., Bush, S.R., Cao, L., Klinger, D.H., Little, D.C., Lubchenco, J.,
1131 Shumway, S.E., and Troell, M. 2021. A 20-year retrospective review of global aquaculture.
1132 *Nature* **591**, 551–563. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-021-03308-6>
1133
- 1134 Neori, A., M. Troell, T. Chopin, C. Yarish, A. Critchley & A.H. Buschmann (2007) The Need for a Balanced Ecosystem
1135 Approach to Blue Revolution Aquaculture, Environment: Science and Policy for Sustainable Development,
1136 49:3, 36-43, DOI: [10.3200/ENVT.49.3.36-43](https://doi.org/10.3200/ENVT.49.3.36-43)
1137
- 1138 OceanWise, 2021. Seaforestation - An ocean-based solution to climate change powered by Ocean Wise.
1139 <https://ocean.org/our-work/seaforestation/>
1140
- 1141 Olesen, I., Gjedrem, T., Bentsen, H.B., Gjerde, B. and Rye, M., 2003. Breeding programs for sustainable
1142 aquaculture. *Journal of Applied Aquaculture*, 13(3-4), pp.179-204.
1143
- 1144 O’Shea, T., Jones, R., Markham, A., Norell, E., Scott, J., Theuerkauf, S., and T. Waters. 2019. Towards a
1145 Blue Revolution: Catalyzing Private Investment in Sustainable Aquaculture Production Systems.
1146 The Nature Conservancy and Encourage Capital, Arlington, Virginia, USA.
1147 [https://www.nature.org/content/dam/tnc/nature/en/documents/TNC_EncourageCapital_Towa](https://www.nature.org/content/dam/tnc/nature/en/documents/TNC_EncourageCapital_TowardsABlueRevolution_v1_1.pdf)
1148 [rdsABlueRevolution_v1_1.pdf](https://www.nature.org/content/dam/tnc/nature/en/documents/TNC_EncourageCapital_TowardsABlueRevolution_v1_1.pdf)
1149
- 1150 Overturf, K., Barrows, F. T. & Hardy, R. W. 2013. Effect and interaction of rainbow trout strain
1151 (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) and diet type on growth and nutrient retention. *Aquaculture Research*.
1152 **44**, 604–11

- 1153
1154 Pelletier, N., D.H. Klinger, N.A. Sims, J-R. Yoshioka, and J.N. Kittinger (2018) Nutritional attributes,
1155 substitutability, scalability, and environmental intensity of an illustrative subset of current and
1156 future protein sources for aquaculture feeds: joint consideration of potential synergies and
1157 trade-offs. *Environmental Science & Technology* 52 (10), 5532-5544. DOI:
1158 10.1021/acs.est.7b05468
1159
- 1160 Ponzoni, R.W., Khaw, H.L. and Yee, H.Y., 2010. GIFT: the story since leaving ICLARM (now known as the
1161 WorldFish Center): socioeconomic, access and benefit sharing and dissemination aspects. FNI
1162 Report 14/2010, Fridtjof Nansen Institute, 47 pp.
1163
- 1164 Rahmawati, A.I., Saputra, R.N., Hidayatullah, A., Dwiarto, A., Junaedi, H., Cahyadi, D., Saputra, H.K.,
1165 Prabowo, W.T., Kartamiharja, U.K., Shafira, H., Noviyanto, A. (2021). Enhancement of *Penaeus*
1166 *vannamei* shrimp growth using nanobubble in indoor raceway pond. *Aquaculture and Fisheries*
1167 6(3): 277-282.
1168
- 1169 Romano, N. 2020. Probiotics, prebiotics, biofloc systems, and other biocontrol regimes in fish and
1170 shellfish aquaculture. Pp 219-242, in: F.S.B. Kibenge, B. Baldisserotto, R.S-M. Chong (eds).
1171 *Aquaculture Pharmacology*. Academic Press, Elsevier, Inc. Amsterdam. 412 pp.
1172
- 1173 Sellner, K. and J. Rensel 2018 Prevention, control, and mitigation of harmful algal bloom impacts on
1174 fish, shellfish, and human consumers. Chapter 12 pp 435-492 in: *Harmful Algal Blooms: A*
1175 *Compendium Desk Reference* (S.E. Shumway, J.M Burkholder, S. Morton (eds)). Wiley Blackwell
1176 Publishers. 667 p.
1177
- 1178 Shen, Y., Ma, K. and Yue, G.H. 2021. Status, challenges and trends of aquaculture in Singapore.
1179 *Aquaculture*, 533, 736210. FAO. 2020. *The State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture 2020*.
1180 *Sustainability in action*. Rome.
1181
- 1182 Sims, N.A. 2013. Kona Blue Water Farms case study: permitting, operations, marketing, environmental
1183 impacts, and impediments to expansion of global open ocean mariculture. *In* A. Lovatelli, J.
1184 Aguilar-Manjarrez & D. Soto, eds. *Expanding mariculture farther offshore: Technical,*
1185 *environmental, spatial and governance challenges*. FAO Technical Workshop, 22–25 March
1186 2010, Orbetello, Italy. **FAO Fisheries and Aquaculture Proceedings No. 24**. Rome, FAO. pp. 263–
1187 296.
1188
- 1189 Stokstad, E. 2020. Tomorrow’s catch. *Science*, 370(6519):902-905.
1190
- 1191 Tatum, M. 2021. Farming Fish in the Sky A massive indoor fish farm will bring locally produced food to
1192 Singapore. *Hakai Magazine*. February 8, 2021. [https://www.hakaimagazine.com/news/farming-](https://www.hakaimagazine.com/news/farming-fish-in-the-sky/)
1193 [fish-in-the-sky/](https://www.hakaimagazine.com/news/farming-fish-in-the-sky/)
1194
- 1195 Waters, T. J. Lionata, H., Prasetyo Wibowo, T., Jones, R., Theuerkauf, S., Usman, S., Amin, I., and Ilman,
1196 M. (2019). *Coastal conservation and sustainable livelihoods through seaweed aquaculture in*
1197 *Indonesia: A guide for buyers, conservation practitioners, and farmers, Version 1*. The Nature
1198 Conservancy. Arlington VA, USA and Jakarta, Indonesia.

1199 [https://www.nature.org/content/dam/tnc/nature/en/documents/Indonesia Seaweed Guide F](https://www.nature.org/content/dam/tnc/nature/en/documents/Indonesia_Seaweed_Guide_FINAL.pdf)
1200 [INAL.pdf](https://www.nature.org/content/dam/tnc/nature/en/documents/Indonesia_Seaweed_Guide_FINAL.pdf)

1201
1202 Welch, A.W., Knapp, A.N., El Tourky, S., Daughtery, Z., Hitchcock, G. and Benett, D., 2019. The nutrient
1203 footprint of a submerged-cage offshore aquaculture facility located in the tropical Caribbean. J
1204 World Aquacult Soc. 2019;1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jwas.12593>

1205
1206

1207 ----- /// -----

DRAFT - NOT FOR CIRCULATION