

1 Regional Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (RIMTA): Spatially separated,
2 ecologically linked.

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4 Running title: Regional Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture

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15

16 **Abstract**

17 Aquaculture sustainability is restricted by environmental drawbacks such as the
18 pollution derived from the released organic waste. Integrated multi-trophic aquaculture
19 (IMTA) aims to lower the input of this waste by culturing other species of low trophic
20 level which feed on them. Despite the appealing idea of IMTA, its implementation is
21 very limited in marine ecosystems. Focusing on marine fish farming, in general terms,
22 fish farm waste is not expected to constitute a relevant food source for low-trophic level
23 organisms cultured in the water column. We propose Regional Integrated Multitrophic
24 Aquaculture (RIMTA) as a shift of paradigm in the way IMTA is used to sequester the
25 dissolved exported waste and derived primary production generated by high trophic
26 level cultures. RIMTA advocates for independent allocation of cultures of low and high
27 trophic level species within the same water body. RIMTA implementation should be
28 economically supported through tax benefits or nutrient quota trading schemes. Moving
29 from IMTA to RIMTA should not only foster aquaculture sustainability but also the
30 circular economy and the ecosystem services that the low trophic level cultures provide.

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33 **Keywords:** macroalgae and bivalve aquaculture, ecosystem-based approach,
34 eutrophication, integrated coastal zone management, integrated multitrophic aquaculture
35 (IMTA), organic matter pollution.

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37 **1. Environmental drawbacks of fed species aquaculture**

38 The environmental degradation produced by aquaculture limits its sustainability. In the
39 case of marine fish farming the pollution generated from organic waste can negatively
40 affect marine habitats (Read and Fernandes, 2003). Organic waste mainly originates
41 from uneaten feed and the faeces from cultured fish and are released in dissolved and
42 particulate form (Sanz-Lazaro and Marin, 2008). The export of dissolved and particulate
43 organic waste to the environment leads to eutrophication (Folke et al., 1994) and
44 organic matter pollution (Sanz-Lazaro and Marin, 2008), respectively. Eutrophication
45 can lead to the excessive proliferation of species such as microalgae and jellyfish (Vasas
46 et al., 2007). Excessive inputs of organic matter deplete oxygen in the upper layer of the
47 sediments, causing anoxic conditions, promoting anaerobic metabolic pathways and the
48 production of the derived toxic by-products (Sanz-Lázaro and Marín, 2011). This leads
49 to the deterioration of the status of benthic ecosystems (Karakassis et al., 2000; Ruiz et
50 al., 2001; Sanz-Lázaro et al., 2011), and enhances the supply of nutrients to the water
51 column, further contributing to eutrophication (Sanz-Lázaro et al., 2015).

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54 **2. IMTA, from tradition to the industrial era**

55 The culturing of different species together has been performed for many years mainly in
56 land-based aquaculture in Asia (Costa-Pierce, 2010). Traditionally, polyculture was in
57 the form of small households in freshwater environments combining different fish
58 species of fish with other organisms such as rice. Despite the possible benefits of the
59 culturing of species in combination, in a polyculture one species does not necessarily
60 feed on the wastes generated by another species (Soto, 2009).

61 Integrated Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA) comprises the culturing of
62 species of different trophic levels, so species of low trophic level feeds on the organic
63 waste produced by higher trophic level species (Neori et al., 2004; Chopin, 2013). High
64 trophic level species are generally fish and crustaceans, while low trophic level ones are
65 suspension feeders, detritivores and primary producers. In the last decades, Integrated
66 Multi-Trophic Aquaculture (IMTA) has appeared as a promising tool to increase
67 production, while mitigating environmental drawbacks. This concept is a win-win
68 solution. IMTA aims to increase the yields of the species of low trophic level through
69 the extra food supply, while reducing the input of organic waste, limiting the
70 environmental impact (Soto, 2009).

71 As regards coastal IMTA, combining fish with macroalgae and bivalve molluscs
72 arises as a promising concept to reduce dissolved and particulate waste from the water
73 column, respectively. Predictive models (Ferreira et al., 2012; Sarà et al., 2012) along
74 with laboratory and mesocosm studies suggest that fish farm waste can be a substantial
75 source of food for macroalgae (Samochoa et al., 2015) and bivalve molluscs (Handa et
76 al., 2012a; Redmond et al., 2010) . But *in situ* studies using tracers such as isotopes of
77 carbon and nitrogen or fatty acids, demonstrate that aquaculture waste constitutes a
78 minimal source of food for macroalgae and bivalve molluscs (Aguado-Giménez et al.,
79 2014; Handa et al., 2012b; Irisarri et al., 2014; Navarrete-Mier et al., 2010; Park et al.,
80 2015). In enclosed areas, waste from aquaculture can be, to some extent, more
81 important, but still constitute a minor fraction of their diet (Irisarri et al., 2015).
82 Tentative explanations for these outcomes are that the trophic state of the water column
83 and depth of the low trophic cultures are important variables for IMTA feasibility
84 (Troell and Norberg, 1998; Cranford et al., 2013; Filgueira et al., 2017; Sanz-Lazaro et
85 al., 2018). Nevertheless, fish farm waste remains a minimum source for low trophic

86 level species disregarding the depth or trophic level of the water column in which they
87 are cultured (Sanz-Lazaro and Sanchez-Jerez, 2017).

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90 **3. Why IMTA using macroalgae and bivalve molluscs does not seem to work as**
91 **expected in open water areas?**

92 This apparent mismatch between laboratory and *in situ* experiments is easily understood
93 when considering the production system of fish farms and feeding biology of low
94 trophic level organisms. First, marine fish farming generally involves relatively large
95 juveniles and adults with generally one to two meals per day (Piper et al., 1986; Güroy
96 et al., 2006). Since cultured fish mainly defecate just before feeding (Sanchez-Vazquez
97 and Madrid, 2007; Oppedal et al., 2011), the exportation of organic residues to the
98 water column mainly occurs during the feeding process (Troell and Norberg, 1998).

99 Additionally, marine fish farms, aiming to minimize environmental drawbacks due to
100 the export of fish farm waste, are located in sites with high hydrodynamism and water
101 renewal (Sanz-Lazaro and Marin, 2008; Holmer, 2010). Thus, the availability of organic
102 waste produced by fish farms is not only very abrupt, but also their persistence in these
103 areas is low.

104 Second, in the case of bivalve molluscs, they have a diet preference for plankton
105 rather than for non-living particles such as particulate organic matter (Shumway et al.,
106 1985; Defosse and Hawkins, 1997). Additionally, their feeding rates are limited by the
107 size, shape and speed of the available food (Walne, 1972; Safi and Hayden, 2010). So,
108 natural seston concentration is more relevant for mussel feeding, than the short pulse
109 input of organic waste from fish farming.

110 Due to the abruptness and high dispersion rates of the pulses of organic waste
111 from fish farming, increases in nutrient concentration or its derived primary production
112 are rarely reported in the vicinity of marine fish farm leases (Price et al., 2015). Despite
113 so, a large part of the feed given to cultured fish ends up as waste. In the case of salmon,
114 the production of one tonne of fish can result in a release of 136 kg organic carbon, 44
115 kg nitrogen, 8 kg phosphorous (Olsen et al., 2008). Taking into account that only
116 Norway had a production above 1.4 million tonnes in 2019, we get an idea of the vast
117 amount of waste that is being exported to the North Sea. Thus, the total contribution of
118 dissolved nutrients to the water column has been estimated to be 32-36 % of nitrogen
119 and 83-99 % of phosphorus in an estuary in Malaysia (Alongi et al., 2003), and 12 % of
120 nitrogen in a fjord in Denmark (Christensen et al., 2000) and 5 % of the total inputs
121 from anthropogenic sources in the Mediterranean (Karakassis et al., 2005).

122 The above-mentioned issues reconcile the apparent contradictions between
123 laboratory and *in situ* outcomes of IMTA involving fish with macroalgae and bivalve
124 molluscs. In general, marine fish farm waste constitutes a minor source of food for
125 macroalgae and bivalve molluscs. Consequently, the yield of macroalgae and bivalve
126 mollusc cultures, as well as their mitigation capacity towards dissolved waste, is not
127 expected to be enhanced by placing low trophic cultures in close proximity to high
128 trophic ones (Fig. 1).

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131 **4. From IMTA to RIMTA**

132 *4.1 Different type of waste, different scales for mitigation*

133 Effective mitigation strategies against potential environmental drawbacks derived from
134 aquaculture waste must follow an ecosystem-based approach taking into account

135 suitable spatial scales according to the area of dispersion of this waste (Costa-Pierce and
136 Page, 2013). Since particulate and dissolved waste have markedly different dispersion
137 dynamics (Tett, 2008; Sanz-Lázaro et al., 2011; Jansen et al., 2018), adaptive scales
138 should be considered depending on the type of waste.

139 In the case of particulate waste, bioremediation strategies should focus on the
140 farm scale because their sedimentation mostly occurs in the first hundreds of meters
141 from the aquaculture facility (Holmer et al., 2007; Sanz-Lázaro et al., 2011).
142 Furthermore, suitable low trophic level candidates that are able to consume a substantial
143 part of the particulate waste must be selected. Deposit feeders, such as sea cucumber,
144 are good candidates, since they feed on the benthic system where particulate waste has a
145 much higher persistence than in the water column (Cubillo et al., 2016). Thus, in this
146 case, it is suitable to locate high and low trophic level cultures in close vicinity.

147 Dissolved waste is rapidly dispersed by currents. Thus, cultures that can
148 sequester nutrients (macroalgae) or limit the derived primary production (bivalve
149 molluscs), do not necessarily need to be in the close vicinity of the fish farms. These
150 cultures need to be located in the area along which most of these nutrients or the derived
151 primary production are dispersed, which is generally the water body area.

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154 *4.2 IMTA artificial boundaries: an enclosed concept used in open systems*

155 IMTA concept of low trophic level cultures using the waste generated by high trophic
156 level cultures justifies the location of both types of cultures in the close vicinity in
157 closed systems, such as in terrestrial aquaculture ponds, or in very enclosed coastal
158 areas. But locating low trophic level cultures in close vicinity to high trophic level

159 cultures, aiming to sequester dissolved waste in an open system, is comparable to
160 planting trees close to factories that emit CO₂, aiming to reduce their carbon footprint.

161 The apparently restricted feasibility of IMTA using bivalves and macroalgae in
162 the water column is constrained by its implementation linked to the farm scale. The
163 persistence of dissolved waste in fish farm leases located in open areas is so limited,
164 that the ability of the low trophic cultures to assimilate them or the derived primary
165 production is scarce. Thus, IMTA should be managed in terms of ecosystemic
166 functionalities rather than absolute distances considering the scale of the reach of the
167 waste (Chopin, 2013; Sanz-Lazaro and Sanchez-Jerez, 2017). In the case of dissolved
168 waste, cultured macroalgae and bivalve molluscs can do their job even when these
169 species are not in the close vicinity of the facility, as long as they are located within
170 their area of dispersion.

171

172 *4.3 RIMTA: Spatially separated, ecologically linked*

173 Despite the above-mentioned recommendations, the localized concept of IMTA for
174 dissolved waste has not been revised, and its implementation to industrial-scale keeps
175 on being hindered by its own artificial boundaries, always culturing the species of low
176 trophic level in close proximity to high trophic level species. IMTA should focus on the
177 scale at which low trophic level species are able to sequester the waste generated by fish
178 farming, which in the case of dissolved waste corresponds to the water body where it is
179 located. Considering the spatial scales defined in ECASA toolbox
180 (<https://cordis.europa.eu/project/id/6540/reporting>), typically IMTA has focused on
181 zone A (local, farm-scale). However, IMTA using macroalgae and bivalve molluscs
182 should move to zone B (small water body scale) and C (regional scale). The
183 management of fish farms located in highly enclosed water bodies such as lakes, coastal

184 lagoons, fjords and lochs, should be done at the scale of zone B; while off-coast and
185 offshore farming should be done at the scale of zone C (Fig. 2).

186 We propose the concept of Regional Integrated Multitrophic Aquaculture
187 (RIMTA) that is defined as *the culture of low trophic level species such as macroalgae*
188 *and bivalve molluscs, to mitigate the ecological negative effects derived from the input*
189 *of dissolved nutrients from fed aquaculture*. RIMTA is an ecosystem-based approach
190 that takes into account the ecological processes, human-induced pressures and their
191 respective spatial scales. Accordingly, RIMTA acknowledges that low trophic level
192 species do not necessarily need to be placed in the close vicinity of the fish farm as long
193 as it is located within the area of dispersion of the fish farm waste (Fig. 3).

194 Defining the scale and the boundary of a water body must be done
195 carefully to assure that aquaculture leases, despite being spatially separated, they are
196 communicated. Since this may not always be straight forward, in many cases, tracer
197 studies or Lagrangian ocean analysis (van Sebille et al., 2018) should be required for a
198 suitable site selection of macroalgae and bivalve culture leases. Examples of fish farm
199 dissolved waste transport are already available (Venayagamoorthy et al., 2011).

200 RIMTA also acknowledges that the high dispersion of dissolved waste lowers
201 the capacity of the low trophic level cultures to specifically feed on nutrients or the
202 derived primary production released by high trophic level cultures. Additionally,
203 nutrient input is a global anthropogenic driver of ecological change and several
204 anthropogenic activities release nutrients to the environment (Halpern et al., 2008).
205 Thus, irrespectively of the origin of the nutrients (from high trophic level aquaculture or
206 from another anthropic source) that the low trophic cultures sequester, the low trophic
207 culture will reduce the regional nutrient input or the derived primary production to
208 which high trophic level aquaculture is contributing.

209

210 *4.4 Implementation benefits of RIMTA*

211 The balance of trade-offs between the benefits and costs of adopting IMTA is
212 currently not sufficiently positive to motivate the IMTA implementation in Europe
213 (Hughes and Black, 2016). This is partly due to the problems derived from culturing
214 potential fouling species in close vicinity to fish farms, which can pose risks related to
215 the increase of the biofouling in fish farm nets, reducing the water exchange and
216 compromising fish health. RIMTA also facilitates the establishment of aquaculture
217 facilities from a legal perspective. For example, in Europe, administrative processes and
218 decisions dealing with aquaculture lease concessions are generally slow, especially for
219 fish farms culturing different species (Hedley and Huntington, 2009). Monocultures
220 have easier lease regulations in terms of bureaucracy and requirements which can speed
221 up these administrative processes.

222 Separating both types of cultures will promote low trophic level aquaculture.
223 This will not only foster the sustainability of low trophic level species, but of
224 aquaculture in general. First, macroalgae and bivalve mollusc aquaculture do not need
225 to be fed, releasing pressure to fish or other food stocks. Second, this type of farming
226 facilitates local entrepreneurship, since the investment needed is low compared to other
227 types of aquaculture. Third, macroalgae and bivalve molluscs are valuable food, being a
228 source of protein- and omega-3, which can be directly used for human consumption or,
229 indirectly, incorporated in formulated feeds for fish and other farmed species (Tiwari
230 and Troy, 2015; Carboni et al., 2019). Consequently, low trophic level aquaculture can
231 release pressure from agriculture and fisheries, activities with a stagnant production
232 (DG RTD European Commission, 2017), and promote the farming industry.

233

234 *4.5 Ecological interactions of RIMTA*

235 The enhancement of macroalgae and bivalve mollusc aquaculture, apart from
236 nutrient sequestration, can favour another key ecosystem service, such as climate
237 change mitigation, through their use as biofuels (Hossain et al., 2008) or by acting as
238 carbon sinks (Hill et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2017). However, we need to keep in mind
239 that the intensive cultivation of macroalgae and bivalves can lead to some negative
240 ecological consequences.

241 The structures for culturing macroalgae and bivalve molluscs slow down
242 currents, increasing the residence time of the water and sedimentation which may cause
243 habitat modifications in the pelagic and benthic system (Buschmann et al., 2008). As
244 regards bivalves, they need to be cultivated on appropriate densities, depending on the
245 oceanographic conditions such as depth or current intensity to avoid environmental
246 drawbacks in the benthos due to the release of particulate waste (Dumbauld et al., 2009;
247 Fabi et al., 2009). Additionally, extensive bivalve cultures can lead to the depletion of
248 planktonic organisms (Hulot et al., 2018). Thus, oceanographic variables related to
249 potential benthic environmental drawbacks, such as current intensity or depth, as well as
250 carrying capacities, should be taken into account in the location where the culture will
251 be deployed (McKindsey, 2012). Caution should be taken in shallow, enclosed,
252 eutrophic and low energy areas such as the Baltic since experts do not reach consensus
253 on the suitability of bivalve aquaculture due to possible increased nitrogen benthic
254 fluxes derived from organic deposition through pseudo-faeces (Cranford et al., 2007;
255 Stadmark and Conley, 2011).

256

257 *4.6 RIMTA sustainability*

258 RIMTA, following an ecosystem-based approach, searches for sustainability
259 integrating stakeholders in an equitable way. The full development of RIMTA must be
260 associated with the recognition of the above-mentioned valuable ecosystem services,
261 mainly nutrient and derived primary production sequestration, that macroalgae and
262 bivalve mollusc cultures provide. Since these types of cultures can have a low monetary
263 return compared to fed cultures, RIMTA should be accompanied by tax benefits for
264 farmers that implement it or from nutrient trading schemes, which have already been
265 proposed for reducing eutrophication in the Gulf of Mexico (Perez et al., 2013) or the
266 Baltic Sea (Lindahl and Kollberg, 2009). Taxes on marine pollution (ecotaxes) provide
267 incentives to polluters to reduce emissions and seek out cleaner and sustainable
268 alternatives (Davis and Gartside, 2001). In our case, these ecotaxes would promote the
269 sustainable use of natural resources, providing economical advantages to fish farm
270 companies that lease low trophic cultures within the water body affected by fish
271 farming. Thus, aquaculture companies will reduce the nutrient footprint or even become
272 nutrient neutral, and indirectly, will lead to aquaculture diversification favouring the
273 development of IMTA. Additionally, the nutrient sequestration produced by RIMTA
274 would contribute to achieve a good environmental status in marine water bodies
275 (Marine Strategy Framework Directive 2008/56/EC). The independent allocation of high
276 and low trophic level cultures, followed by economical support, which should be
277 explicitly supported by corresponding administrations through laws and regulations, is
278 needed to ensure the implementation of RIMTA and its sustainability.

279

280 **5. Conclusions**

281 We present RIMTA as a shift of the paradigm in the way IMTA is used to mitigate the
282 impacts of dissolved exported waste by the farming of high trophic level species.

283 RIMTA advocates for independent allocation of cultures of low and high trophic level
284 species within the same water body, reducing the negative interactions among
285 production systems. Based on an ecosystem-based approach, the scales used by IMTA
286 are broadened to adapt them to the size of the water body. Accordingly, the nutrient and
287 phytoplankton incorporated by low trophic level species should be included in the water
288 body budgets. This separation will promote the development of low trophic level
289 cultures. Nevertheless, this expansion should be done through an integrated coastal zone
290 management approach. The carrying capacities for macroalgae and bivalve cultures
291 need to be taken into account for the cultivation density along with the connectivity
292 between high and low trophic level aquaculture facilities for the site selection.
293 Economical support as tax benefits or nutrient quota trading scheme would support
294 RITMA implementation. Moving from IMTA to RIMTA will not only foster
295 aquaculture sustainability but also the circular economy and the important ecosystem
296 services provided by low trophic level cultures.

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521 Figure legend

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523 Fig. 1: Flow chart explaining the low resource availability derived from fish farming to
524 low trophic levels cultured in integrated multitrophic aquaculture (IMTA).

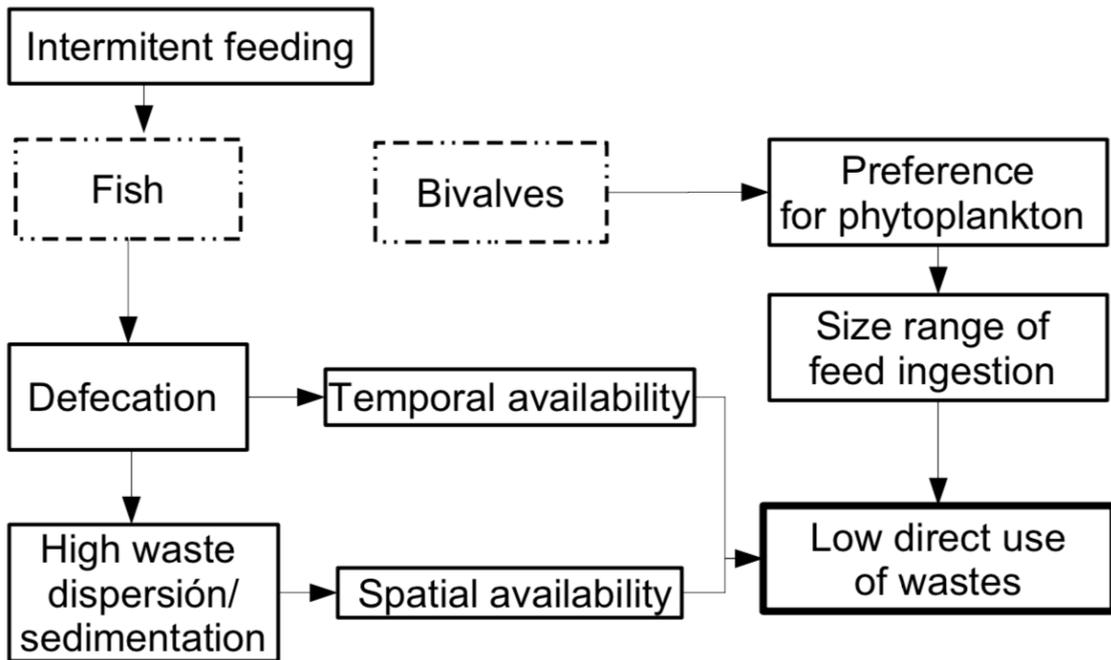
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526 Fig. 2: Spatial scales of integrated multitrophic aquaculture (IMTA) and regional
527 integrated multitrophic aquaculture (RIMTA).

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529 Fig. 3: Scheme comparing integrated multitrophic aquaculture (IMTA) and regional
530 integrated multitrophic aquaculture (RIMTA) rationales. POM stands for particulate
531 organic matter. Arrows indicate fluxes of matter.

532 Fig. 1



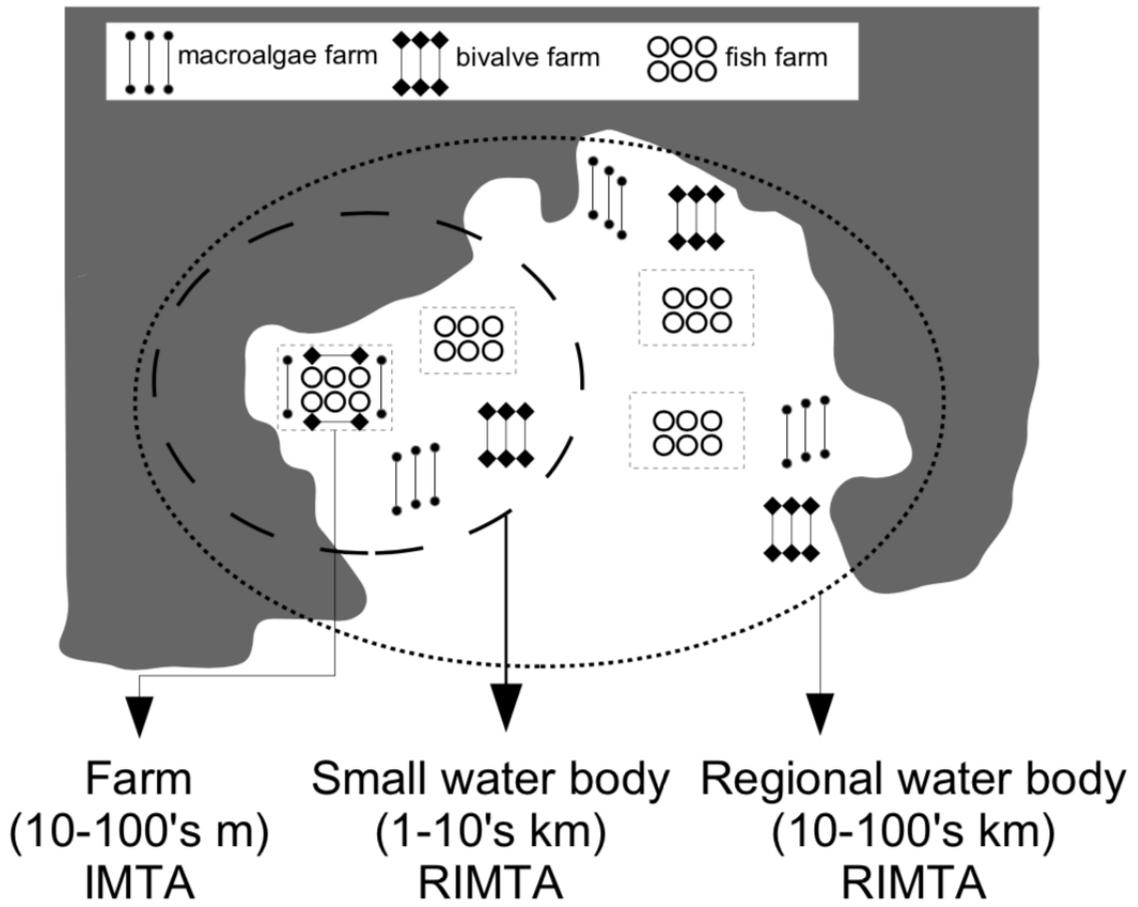
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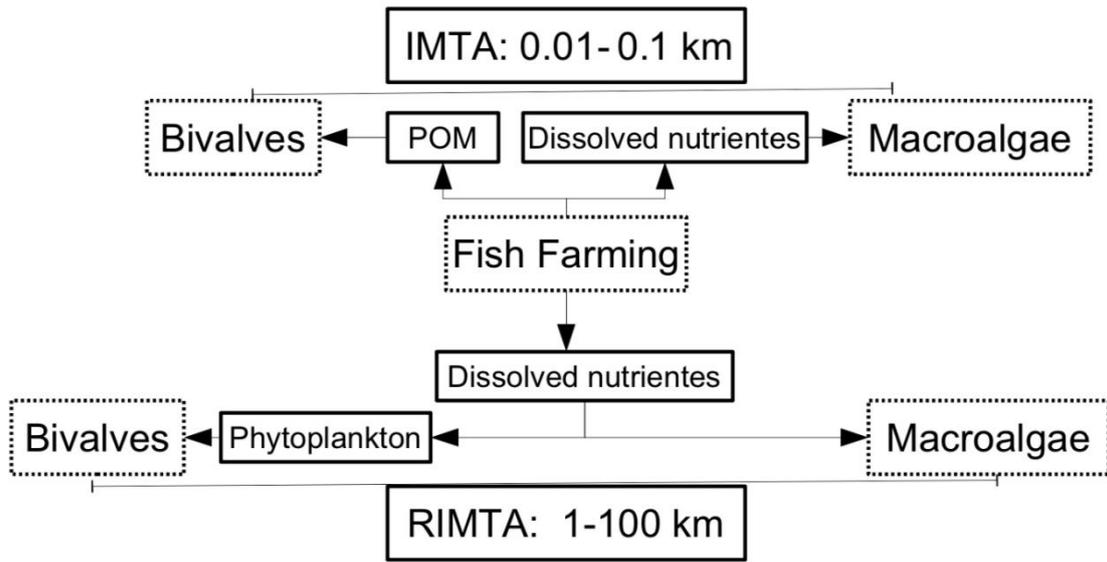
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542 Fig. 3



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