

Aquaponics water use and nutrient cycling in a seawater-cooled controlled environment agriculture system

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ABSTRACT

To demonstrate the water use efficiency and nutrient cycling of an aquaponics system in combination with a seawater based evaporative cooling system, a pilot-scale aquaponics unit was installed and operated for one year inside a controlled environment agriculture building cooled by the evaporation of seawater on the campus of King Abdullah University of Science and Technology in Thuwal, Saudi Arabia. Results collected from the operation included crop water use, water quality parameters, dissolved ion concentrations, outdoor/indoor climate data and crop output. Seawater-based evaporative cooling did not provide adequate indoor temperatures for the cultivation of lettuce during the hot and humid summer season. However, the combined aquaponics with seawater evaporative cooling was effective for fall, winter, and spring cultivation with a mixed crop of lettuce and tomatoes. Opposite to the vegetable production cycle, higher water temperature in the summer favored the production of Sabaki tilapia during the warm summer season rather than the cool winter season. Because of this dichotomy, the system showed promise for management and nutrient balancing on an annual basis rather than on seasonal or daily basis. From a fresh water use perspective, the average daily fresh water use by plants totaled only 4.6 L day⁻¹ m⁻² or 19 L kg⁻¹ of crop harvested during the peak winter/spring growing season. Results demonstrated that an aquaponics system in combination with seawater-based evaporative cooling is capable of saving ~90% of fresh water as compared with traditional forms of agriculture in the region.

Keywords: Aquaponics, controlled environment agriculture, evaporative cooling

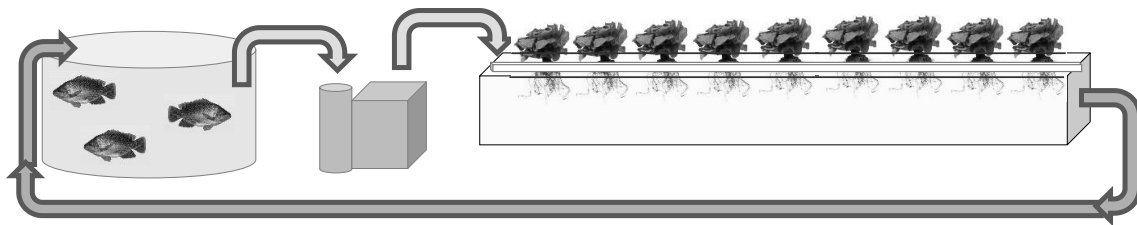
INTRODUCTION

Food and water security are two very important and interconnected challenges facing the world today, with around 70% of all fresh water use worldwide for irrigation. Therefore, it is imperative to develop systems and methods of food production that are capable of producing more food with less fresh water (Lefers et al., 2016)

Recirculating aquaponics combines hydroponics (growing plants in water, without soil) and aquaculture (farming fish or other aquatic organisms) to produce food (Suhl et al., 2016). In this system, waste of aquatic organism is broken down by bacteria into dissolved nutrients that plants utilize in a hydroponic unit as depicted in Figure 1. Because the only water losses in an aquaponics system are due to plant transpiration and evaporation from open system surfaces (evapotranspiration), it is considered a “green” food production system (Reyes Lastiri et al., 2016). In traditional aquaculture, effluents from intensive fish

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43 production systems containing high levels of nutrients may be discharged to the
44 environment, leading to pollution of local waters. However, in an aquaponics system, the
45 nutrient-rich aquaculture effluents provide most of the nutrients required by plants if the
46 optimum ratio between daily feed input and plant growing area is maintained (Rakocy,
47 1999). Aquaponics systems work by balancing nutrient generation from fish waste with
48 nutrient uptake by plants to achieve proper water quality (Al-Hafedh et al., 2008). This use
49 of the nutrients by plants purifies the water, which is continuously cycled to and from the
50 fish and crops when using a recirculating setup. Plants in aquaponics grow rapidly using the
51 natural dissolved nutrients from the fish. Nutrient levels in water from the fish tanks can be
52 maintained at concentrations similar to hydroponic nutrient solutions where synthetic
53 fertilizers are applied. There is a nominal daily water addition (typically < 3% of total
54 volume) in these systems to make up for evapotranspirational losses (Al-Hafedh et al.,
55 2008). The benefits of aquaponics systems include recovery of waste nutrients by the plants,
56 elimination of environmental pollution, low water use and low operational costs (Bosma et
57 al., 2017). The daily supply of fish feed provides the original source of nutrients that sustains
58 both the sub-systems (aquaculture for the fish and horticulture for the plants). This efficient
59 use of resources provides a secondary vegetable crop in addition to the fish at no extra
60 material input, thereby improving the profit potential of the operation and the food output.
61 Pesticide and chemical usage is naturally limited by the biology of the multiple organisms
62 included in the system, therefore, aquaponics can be regarded as a safe and clean form of
63 agriculture (Rokocy, 1999). In case the aquaponics system is not operated as organic
64 farming, permissible pesticides could be used by temporarily decoupling the aquaponics
65 system (disconnecting aquaculture and horticulture components).



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67
68 Figure 1. Water flow in recirculating aquaponics. Water moves from fish tanks to water
69 treatment to plant roots and back again.
70

71 When aquaponics is applied in Controlled Environment Agriculture (CEA), the indoor
72 climate can be adjusted to allow year-round production. Significantly more food output per
73 unit land area is possible with such a system than in traditional agriculture. The
74 combination of higher food output with a lower water footprint per kg of food produced
75 makes CEA based aquaponics a promising technology for solving food and water shortages
76 in challenging climates worldwide, including Saudi Arabia. Based upon these advantages, a
77 pilot-scale aquaponics unit was installed for evaluation of water use and productivity at the
78 King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (KAUST).

79 One of the major factors that allows CEA to produce large amounts of food is the
80 control of temperatures within the system at optimal levels (generally, in the range of 20-25
81 °C for most crops). In hot climates, this means extensive cooling for greenhouses inundated
82 with solar thermal heat loads. The most common practice for cooling of greenhouses world-
83 wide is evaporative cooling (Kittas et al., 2001). Traditional evaporative cooling consumes
84 large amounts of fresh water in the process. Up to 80% of the total greenhouse fresh water
85 use can come from evaporative cooling (Lefers et al., 2016; Sabeh, 2007).

86 Efforts to build and operate greenhouses that utilize seawater for cooling have
87 demonstrated the feasibility of the approach in appropriate climates (Dawoud et al., 2006;
88 Mahmoudi et al., 2010; Zamen et al., 2013). Greenhouses using seawater for cooling were
89 constructed in the Canary Islands (Paton and Davies, 1996), UAE (Davies and Paton, 2004),
90 Oman (Ghaffour et al., 2011), Australia (Davies et al., 2008), Qatar and Jordan
91 (<http://saharaforestproject.com>). However, evaporative cooling processes face the
92 fundamental limitation of poor evaporative cooling performance when the outdoor ambient
93 air is already near saturation. In humid regions similar to the Red Sea coast near Jeddah,
94 this means that internal greenhouse conditions may exceed 30°C during the hot and very
95 humid months (July through September), which reduces product quality for some crops and
96 prevents year-round cultivation of other crops (Abu-Hamdeh and Almitani, 2016).

97 In the present study, we experimentally validated the total fresh water use of a
98 combined aquaponics with seawater cooling system for CEA. In addition, we experimentally
99 validated the potential of the combined technologies for producing crops year-round in the
100 humid coastal climate near to Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. Water quality and climatic parameters
101 were collected and analyzed, with a discussion of results in the following sections.

102 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

103 A pilot-scale aquaponics system was setup within a CEA system at KAUST with an
104 indoor climate cooled by evaporative cooling using seawater. The installed aquaponics
105 system was an F5 system from Nelson and Pade, Inc. (www.aquaponics.com). The system
106 included a fish tank with a volume of approximately 400 liters, a clarifier, a netting tank, a
107 degas/base addition tank and two raft-style hydroponics trays with a total plant growing
108 area of 3 m² and 90 plant sites (~30 plant sites m⁻²). The water flow rate in the system was
109 adjusted such that the hydraulic retention time in the clarifier was approximately 20
110 minutes. Sabaki tilapia (*Oreochromis spilurus*) were cultured in the fish tank from April
111 2016-May 2017, fed a commercial pelleted diet with 32% proteins at 2% body weight daily.
112 A feed ratio was targeted between 56 and 80 g feed per square meter of plant growing
113 surface daily. A mix of vegetables was cultured over the course of the experiment, including
114 lettuce, basil, tomatoes, cucumbers, parsley and other herbs.

115 Water use was monitored over the course of the experiment by tracking the amount of
116 make-up water added to the system. Water quality parameters were monitored over the
117 course of the experiment in the field and in the lab. Field water quality parameters,
118 including water temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, and conductivity were monitored on a
119 minimum weekly basis via field probes. Water samples were collected for laboratory
120 analysis on a monthly or bi-monthly basis. Cations tracked over the course of the
121 experiment included boron, sodium, magnesium, aluminum, potassium, calcium, manganese,
122 iron, copper, zinc and molybdenum. Cations were quantified using an Agilent 7500 cx
123 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS) machine. Anions tracked included
124 fluoride, chloride, nitrite, sulfate, bromide, nitrate and phosphate. Anions were quantified
125 using a Dionex ICS 1600 ion chromatography machine.

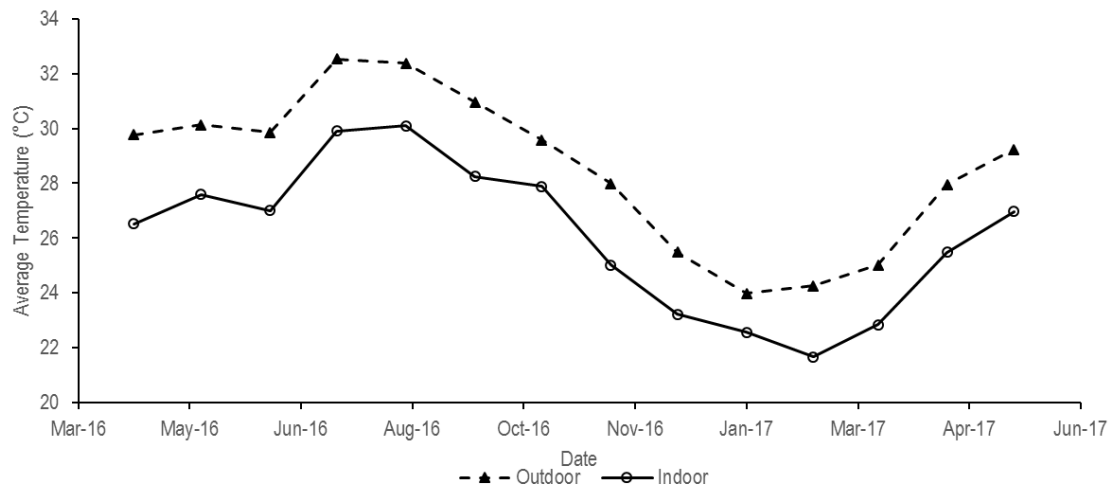
126 Seawater was evaporated using a pad and fan type evaporative cooling system to cool
127 and purify incoming outdoor air. The use of saline water in place of fresh water in
128 evaporative cooling systems, particularly in water scarce regions, offers a potential solution
129 for greatly improving the sustainability of controlled environment agriculture (CEA)
130 systems. However, the use of saline water in industry-standard cellulose pad systems can
131 cause premature clogging of the porous medium, leading to system failure and may also
132 need frequent replacement of the pads. Therefore, to replace standard pads, porous
133 pozzolan rock bricks were used for evaporative cooling because these pozzolan bricks show
134 impressive resistance to saline water and salt buildup (Lefers et al. 2018). Salts in the
135 seawater were concentrated over time as the water evaporated from the system. Therefore,

136 to prevent salt buildup in the system, concentrated seawater (~50-60% of input volume)
137 was removed and replaced with fresh seawater on a daily basis. A Vantage Pro2 weather
138 station by Davis Instruments captured climate data (including indoor/outdoor air
139 temperature and humidity and outdoor wind and solar radiation) at 30-minute intervals.

140 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

141 Seawater evaporative cooler performance

142 The seawater evaporative cooling system was effective during the cooler parts of the
143 fall, winter, and spring seasons; but was ineffective in maintaining temperatures low enough
144 for the cultivation of cool-season crops like lettuce during the hotter summer months.
145 Figure 2 shows the average monthly outdoor and indoor temperatures at the CEA system. In
146 general, the average indoor temperatures were 26 °C or above from April 2016 through
147 October 2016, and then fell below 26 °C from November 2016 through April 2017.



148 Figure 2. Average monthly air temperatures during the experiment, day and night included.
149

150 Hydroponics performance and water consumption

151 Fully contained aquaponics systems in CEA have the potential to both conserve water
152 and protect plants from a harsh outdoor environment. (Konig et al., 2016). In the
153 experimental system, lettuce was cultivated throughout the course of the study and
154 combined crops of tomatoes and lettuce were cultivated from October 2016-May 2017.
155 Lettuce was successfully grown during the initial spring growing season from April-June
156 2016. During the hot summer months of July-September 2016, no lettuce was harvested.
157 High indoor temperatures and insect pests greatly inhibited plant growth and prevented
158 successful cultivation of marketable crops during the summer season. In the fall season,
159 from October through December 2017, combined crops of tomatoes and lettuce were
160 cultivated. The tomatoes began to bear fruit during the winter season (January-April). Crops
161 grown during this season were high quality and marketable, as indoor temperatures were
162 favorable (average ~23 °C) and no insect pests were observed. While water use in the
163 aquaponics system averaged 2.6 L day⁻¹ m⁻² over the one year of system operation, the
164 aquaponics system water use in the winter season averaged 4.6 L day⁻¹ m⁻² when crop
165 performance was at its peak. The average water use by lettuce and tomatoes during the
166 spring season was ~19 L kg⁻¹ of produce harvested. Unlike traditional CEA systems where
167 fresh water is evaporated to cool the indoor environment, the only fresh water consumed in
168 the seawater-cooled CEA system was the irrigation water. When compared to the world
169 average fresh water use of ~237 L kg⁻¹ for lettuce and 214 L kg⁻¹ for tomatoes in traditional
170 agriculture (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2011), a saving of ~90% of water was obtained by
171 growing crops in the seawater-cooled aquaponics system (19 L kg⁻¹ vs. ~225 L kg⁻¹).

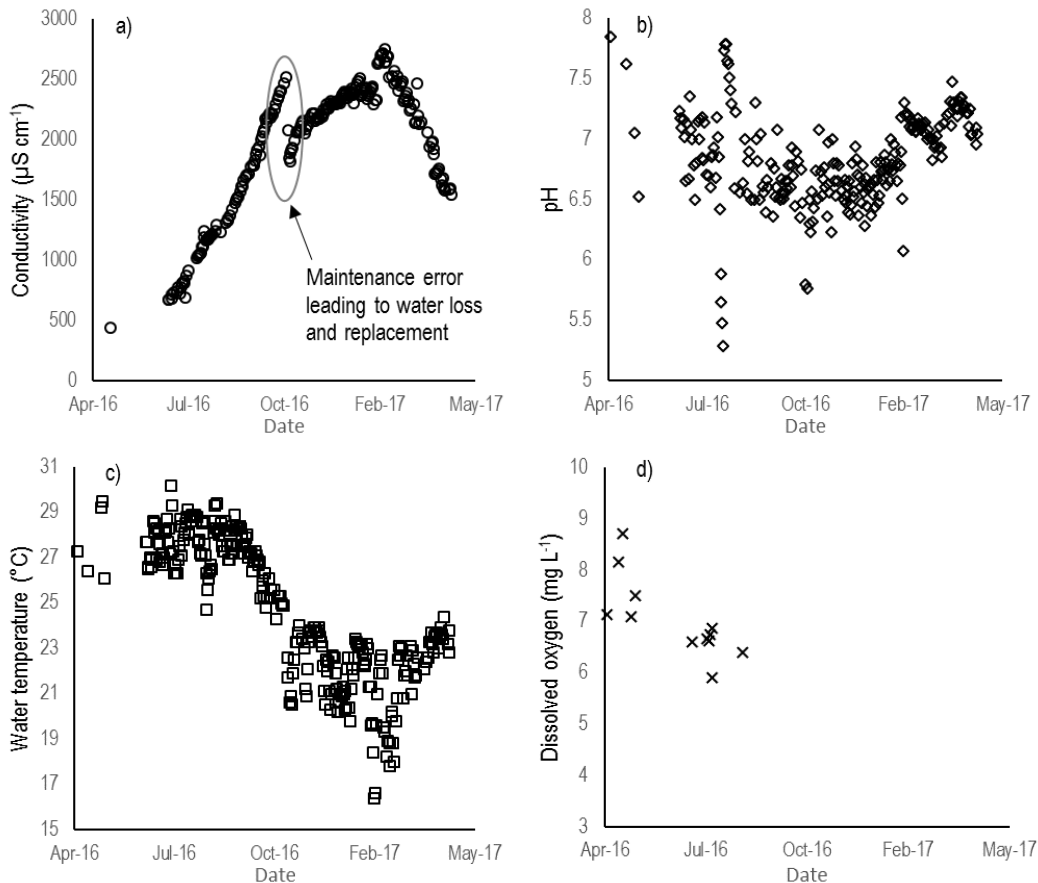
172 **Aquaculture performance**

173 Fish weights were recorded at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. Forty
174 Sabaki tilapia were stocked into the system with an initial average weight of ~10 grams fish⁻¹,
175 providing a stocking density of approximately 1 kg m⁻³ of fish tank water. By the end of the
176 experiment, the tilapia had grown to reach an average size of ~300 grams fish⁻¹, therefore
177 the final stocking density of the fish was approximately ~32 kg m⁻³ of fish tank water. While
178 not measured directly, it was noted visually that tilapia growth was faster during the
179 summer as compared to the winter months. This was expected as the water temperatures
180 were closer to the favorable range (28-32 °C) during the summer.

181 **Water quality**

182 Figure 3 shows the average values of water temperature, dissolved oxygen, pH, and
183 conductivity collected over the course of the experiment as measured via the field meter.
184 The dissolved oxygen sensor failed in August 2016 and was not replaced, therefore
185 dissolved oxygen values were not recorded after this point. In October 2016, a maintenance
186 error led to the loss of approximately 1/3 of the aquaponics system water, which was
187 replaced by fresh water from the KAUST seawater reverse osmosis treatment plant.

188



189

190 Figure 3. Water quality: a) conductivity, b) pH, c) temperature, d) dissolved oxygen.

191

192 Conductivity results showed a generally increasing trend through February of 2017,
193 with the exception of the October 2016 water loss and replacement event. Conductivity
194 increased as ion concentrations increased in the system water due to nutrient addition from
195 fish waste, base addition, and concentration of any salts present due to water loss via
196 evapotranspiration. When the addition of these ions was higher than the removal/use by
197 the plants, the conductivity went up. In February 2017 during the peak of the winter

198 growing season, the total plant mass increased to the point that the plants began removing
199 dissolved nutrient ions from the water faster than they were being added. Therefore,
200 conductivity began to decrease from this point on until system shutdown.

201 pH levels measured over the course of the experiment varied between 5.3 and 7.9
202 standard units. The pH was modified via the addition of bases such as calcium hydroxide,
203 potassium hydroxide, and/or calcium carbonate through February 2017 to try to keep the
204 pH above 6.5. During this period, pH would decrease continuously, requiring based
205 addition. From February 2017, when the plants began using more nutrients than were
206 being added to the water from fish waste, the pH naturally trended up instead of down. No
207 acids were added during this period to lower the pH, the pH was allowed to rise and
208 naturally regulate.

209 Water temperatures in the system during the summer period of June-August 2016
210 were in the range of 26-30 °C. Most tilapia species suitable for food culture grow best at
211 about 29-30°C. (Mullins and Sink, 2015) From September 2016, the water temperatures
212 dropped until November 2016. From December 2016-April 2017, the water temperatures
213 generally stayed in their winter range of 20-23 °C. Then, in April of 2017 the water
214 temperature began to rise again towards the summer range.

215 Dissolved oxygen (DO) levels were measured through August 2016, when the oxygen
216 sensor failed. A minimum DO concentration of 5 mg L⁻¹ is required for the proper functioning
217 of such a recirculating system and DO levels above this level are ideal for fish, plants, and
218 microbes in the system (Mullins and Sink, 2015). During the period from system initiation in
219 April 2016 until August 2016, dissolved oxygen levels stayed above 5 mg L⁻¹, with values
220 ranging from ~5.9-8.8 mg L⁻¹.

221 **Nutrient cycling**

222 Plants require macro- and micronutrients. Aquaponics systems provides these
223 nutrients from the air, the source water, additives, and from the breakdown of fish waste
224 (Mullins and Sink, 2015). Table 1 shows the ions measured over the course of the
225 experiment. In general, nutrient levels increased but were below the target range until
226 September/October. Plants in the system were under-stocked relative to fish biomass
227 during the summer because of the poor growing conditions for the plants (higher than the
228 desirable air temperature and insect pests) and the good growing conditions for the fish
229 (water temperatures in the range 25-30 °C). Therefore, the nutrient levels built up in the
230 system during this time. Nutrient levels increased to a peak in January/February and then
231 decreased until the system was shut down because plant densities were over-stocked
232 relative to fish biomass (desirable air temperatures, mature tomato vines in addition to
233 lettuce, no recorded insect pests for plants and lower than desirable water temperatures for
234 the fish). Micro nutrients (FloraMicro mix, www.generalhydroponics.com) were added at
235 various times during system operation to supplement nutrients (such as iron) that were not
236 naturally provided from the make-up water or the fish waste.

237 An interesting observation from the year-long experiment in the seawater-cooled CEA
238 system was that summer conditions favored sabaki tilapia production due to favorable
239 water temperatures while winter conditions favored vegetable production due to favorable
240 air temperatures. Recirculating aquaponics has always required balancing between the
241 needs of the fish and the needs of the plants. What this is perhaps suggesting is that
242 nutrients can be cycled on a seasonal basis in a recirculating aquaponics system. Although
243 successful cultivation of cool-season crops like lettuce may not be possible in summer in an
244 evaporative-cooled CEA system in a hot and humid climate, the summer season can be used
245 to build up nutrient levels via fish cultivation for later winter time use in crop production. In
246 such a way, the hydroponics system can “rest” during summer months while aquaculture of
247 warm-season fish like tilapia builds the nutrient reserves in the system. By designing and

248 managing the aquaponics system in the proper way, it is theorized that nutrient balancing in
 249 the system can be creatively managed with respect to both the crops and the season. It is
 250 suggested that a multi-year study be conducted to test this hypothesis in future work.
 251

Table 1. Dissolved nutrient concentrations in aquaponics system water throughout the experiment.

Nutrient	Target range ¹ (mg L ⁻¹)	Sampling date and concentrations (mg L ⁻¹)					
		7/27/16	9/24/16	11/9/16	1/19/17	3/6/17	5/14/17
<i>B</i>	0.1-1	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.6
<i>Mg</i>	25-75	6	13	9	9	9	5
<i>K</i>	200-400	80	366	235	216	162	10
<i>Ca</i>	150-400	48	9	10	8	11	6
<i>Mn</i>	0.1-1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
<i>Fe</i>	0.5-5	0.2	0.2	0.7	1.0	2.1	1.4
<i>Cu</i>	0.02-0.2	0.01	0.02	0.09	0.03	0.09	0.05
<i>Zn</i>	0.02-0.2	0.03	0.06	0.44	0.51	0.64	0.38
<i>Mo</i>	0.01-0.1	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00
<i>NO₃</i>	300-1300	120	1000	550	800	470	360
<i>PO₄</i>	30-90	5	3	8	25	5	1
<i>TN</i>	70-300	25	220	120	180	100	80

252 ¹Source for target ranges (Nelson, 2008).

253 CONCLUSIONS

254 An aquaponics system was implemented and evaluated to grow fresh fish and produce
 255 within a CEA system cooled by evaporation of seawater at KAUST. The system was not
 256 effective at growing plant produce during the hot summer months because of higher than
 257 desirable indoor temperatures. However, the system was effective at growing high-quality
 258 produce during the cooler winter and spring months. Opposite to the plants, the summer
 259 season was more favorable to sabaki tilapia production because of high water temperatures
 260 while the winter season had water temperatures that were cooler than desirable for tilapia.
 261 Therefore, water nutrient levels in the system tended to follow seasonal trends as well, with
 262 increasing nutrient level in the summer and decreasing nutrient levels in the winter. This
 263 nutrient cycling suggests a new type of management for aquaponics system installed in
 264 similar climates, with a proposed focus on maximizing aquaculture during summer months
 265 and maximizing hydroponics plant culture during winter months. When compared with
 266 world average fresh water use per kg of vegetables produced in the field, the aquaponics
 267 system installed inside of the seawater-cooled CEA system saved ~90% of fresh water, with
 268 an average daily water use of 4.6 L day⁻¹ m⁻² or 19 L kg⁻¹ of crop harvested during the peak
 269 winter/spring growing season.

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